1   Discovery of NRG1-VII: a novel myeloid-derived class of NRG1 isoforms
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18   **Abstract**
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Macrophages are a primary source of the growth factor Neuregulin-1 (NRG1), which has pleiotropic roles

in proliferation and differentiation of the stem cell niche in different tissues, and has been implicated in gut,

brain and muscle development and repair. Six isoform classes of NRG1 and over 28 protein isoforms have

been previously described. Here we report a new class of NRG1, designated NRG1-VII to denote the start

of this isoform class from a myeloid-specific transcriptional start site (TSS). Long-read sequencing identified

up to nine different NRG1-VII transcripts that show major structural differences from one another due to

use of cassette exons and alternative stop codons. Expression of NRG1-VII was confirmed in human

monocytes and tissue resident macrophages. Isoform switching via cassette exon usage and alternate

polyadenylation was apparent during monocyte maturation and macrophage differentiation. NRG1-VII is

the major class expressed by the myeloid lineage, including tissue-resident macrophages. The size and

structure of type VII isoforms suggests that they may be more diffusible than other NRG1 classes, however,

the specific roles of type VII variants in tissue homeostasis and repair have not yet been determined.

Introduction

Neuregulins (NRGs) are a family of highly pleiotropic growth factors derived from four paralogous genes
(*NRG1-4*) (Figure 1A). NRGs are typically synthesized as transmembrane pro-peptides cleaved by
metalloproteases in the extracellular space to form a bioactive peptide with an exposed epidermal growth
factor-like (EGF) domain that can bind ERBB receptors. The human *Neuregulin-1* (*NRG1*) locus, on
Chromosome 8p12, generates a large number of isoforms (Figure 1A, B) which are thought to be tissue-
specific, and functionally diverse (Falls, 2003). NRG1 has been implicated in the development of multiple
tissues by promoting cell division within the stem cell niche and in differentiation trajectories (Yu et al., 2021,
Wagner et al., 2007) of progenitor cells in the gut (Jardé et al., 2020), skeletal muscle (Gumà et al., 2010,
Cheret et al., 2013) and cardiac cells (Wagner et al., 2007, Kramer et al., 1996), as well as nervous system
development (Birchmeier 2009, Newbern et al., 2010). These studies support an important role for NRG1
in organogenesis and the importance of understanding how NRG1 isoforms exert tissue specific effects to
maintain the adult stem cell niche.

Neuregulins interact with monomeric ERBB proteins (ERBB1-4), via an EGF-like domain, promoting
dimerization and trans-phosphorylation of these receptors. Each ERBB monomer can bind different EGF
members with differential ligand binding affinities, but only ERBB 3 and 4 can bind Neuregulins. Even
though NRG1 and NRG2 can bind to both receptors as monomers (Carraway III et al., 1997), NRG3 and
NRG4 only bind ERBB4 monomers (Harari et al., 1999, Zhang et al., 1997). Dimerized receptors can
discriminate between different isoforms of NRG1, which is evidenced by differential phosphorylation on
receptor tyrosine residues (Pinkas-Kramarski et al., 1998, Sweeney et al., 2000). Dimerization leads to the
recruitment of different adaptor proteins, notably GRB or PI3K, which then trigger specific secondary
cascades and regulate cell activity (Buonanno et al., 2001).

NRG1 is an important clinical target. Germline mutations in NRG1 are associated with developmental brain
disorders such as schizophrenia (Craddock et al., 2005) as well as degenerative disorders such as
Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Sun et al., 2020) and Alzheimer's disease (Go et al., 2005). Constitutively
activated isoforms isoforms of NRG1 are implicated in cancer and blocking the NRG1 isoform Heregulin or
its receptors (ERBB) are effective clinical strategies against solid tumours (Sheng et al., 2010, Zhang et al.,
2022). Deficiencies in NRG1 are associated with Hirshprung's disease, leading to poor innervation of the
gut (Tang et al., 2012, Garcia-Barcelo et al., 2009); as well as abnormal brain development and mental
disorders like bipolar disorder or schizophrenia (Georgieva et al., 2008, Marballi et al., 2012). High levels
of circulating NRG1 are associated with cardiac disease and morbidity following heart failure (Haller et al.,
2022). NRG1 is also involved in modulating the immune response (Alizadeh et al., 2018, Ryzhov et al.,
2017), controlling insulin related liver activity (Zhang et al., 2018), cell migration (Jumper et al.y, 2017) and
cell-cell recognition and viability in the central nervous system (Garratt et al., 2000). Understanding which

cells express the different NRG1 isoforms in each tissue and how they play a role in different biological
processes in said tissues is therefore of potential clinical benefit.
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The diversity of roles in healthy development and disease across different organs is mirrored by the
structural diversity and tissue specific transcriptional regulation of NRG1 products. The *NRG1* gene
transcribes at least 28 isoforms (Figure 1B) according to the ENTREZ Gene reference transcript list (Brown
et al., 2015). Others have reported higher isoform heterogeneity from this locus (Mei 2008). This
extraordinary transcript diversity is due to the use of alternate transcription initiation sites, cassette exon
usage, and alternate polyadenylation sequences. The locus is remarkably modular, which allows for
different structural combinations of NRG1 domains depending on their start site (type I-VI), the use of
alternative linker domains, which are the protease targets for ectodomain shedding (1-4), the type of EGF-
like domain (α, β or γ), and whether the pro-peptide is membrane tethered or not (Figure 1A-D). One well
characterized example is NRG1 type III, a nervous system specific isoform type that harbors a unique
transmembrane 5' domain that is not present in any other known NRG1 isoform (Nave et al., 2006). This
means that upon NRG1 processing, the growth factor domain will not be released from the source cell but
will stay as a juxtracrine signal that allows neurons to establish key cell-cell interactions (with other neurons,
oligodendrocytes, or muscle fibers) and controls survival of both interacting cells (Garratt et al., 2000,
Wolpowitz et al., 2000).

Figure 1. Showcase of the human *NRG1* locus diversity. A) Screenshot of the NCBI RefSeq curated
products from the *NRG1* locus showing 28 protein coding transcriptional variants (NCBI Gene website
accessed 26/1/2023). Left and right labels correspond to transcript and protein accessions respectively. B)
Schematic annotating exons in the human *NRG1* genomic locus (Chr 8p12) with modular protein coding
domains. C) Schematic showing combinatorial protein domains for previously annotated NRG1 isoforms.
Rows show the six major NRG1 classes, defined by alternate N-terminals. Columns show alternate
domains: domains within a column are mutually exclusive. Dotted lines show known connections between
domains in different NRG1 isoforms. Red stop symbols represent translation stop. Red arrows represent a
protease cleavage point. D) Representation of Neuregulin protein isoforms and their domain distribution
with respect to the cell membrane. Legend below the cell membrane describes symbols for ADAM/BACE1
cleavage site (red arrow), glycosylation site (blue chain), kringle domain (black V), IgG domain (purple
circle), EGF domain (red oval), Transmembrane domain (orange rectangle), intracellular domain (grey
squiggle, with or without brown triangle). N-terminal domains of NRG1 reference modularity shown in Fig.
1B and 1C, including the membrane-tethered N-terminal of NRG1 type III. Homologous domains in NRG2,
NRG3 and NRG4 coloured by green, purple and orange respectively.
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Transcripts arising from the human *NRG1* locus are differentially regulated by tissue type or developmental

stage. Control over the six known isoform classes is achieved through differential proximal promoter usage

at six unique TSSs, each of which is controlled by different Transcription Factors (TFs) (Frensing et al.,

2008). Additional transcript processing can lead to alternative exon usage define the functional modules in

the protein, like the linker or the cytoplasmic tails (Figure 1 C, D), mechanisms that are tissue-specific (Wen

et al., 1994). The diversity of NRG1 isoform classes and their specificity of expression in both a temporal

and anatomical manner suggest distinct roles of different isoforms in tissue patterning, especially in different

brain areas (Liu et al., 2011).

NRG1 is conserved at the protein sequence level, but the function of specific isoforms has been shown to

differ between species. For example, heart trabeculation failure, which leads to a lethal phenotype in mice

at day 10.5, is a phenotype common to NRG1-/-, ERBB2-/- and ERBB4-/- mice (Kramer et al., 1996, Britsch

et al., 1998). Although 11 different isoforms have been identified in the heart at this developmental stage,

the phenotype can be attributed specifically to the absence of β-RGF types I and II, which are the isoforms

containing the immunoglobulin (Ig) domain (Pentassuglia et al., 2009). However, the opposite is observed

in zebrafish where Ig-like neuregulin-1 isoforms are dispensable for this process (Samsa et al., 2016). Thus,

while essential processes in development can be attributed to specific subtypes of NRG1, differences

among species showcase the need to characterize the different human isoforms using appropriate cell type

and developmental models.

More recently, NRG1 has been described as an important factor regulating the stem cell niche in the gut

(Jardé et al., 2020). In this context, NRG1 likely modulates stemness, proliferation and identity of progenitor

cells in the niche, and it is required to recapitulate certain secretory and absorptive functions in human gut

organoids (Kilik et al., 2021). This signal is important not only for correct development and tissue repair, but

also during inflammation. NRG1 secreted by macrophages has roles in inflammation and tissue repair

(Jardé et al., 2020, Garrido-Trigo et al., 2022). However, the specific NRG1 isoforms expressed by

macrophages in these contexts has not yet been described.

Understanding the cellular origins of different NRG1 isoforms is an important part of understanding how

NRG1 directs these different developmental, reparative and inflammatory outcomes. Here, data mining to

assess the expression profiles of *NRG1* led to the identification of a previously uncharacterized TSS that

appears to be used exclusively in cells of the myeloid lineage. We propose that transcripts generated from

this alternative TSS belong to a new NRG1 Class, NRG1-VII. Using Oxford Nanopore sequencing, we

identified nine class VII isoforms with distinct transcript structures and predicted the protein characteristics

of these isoforms. qRT-PCR targeting the unique first exon of *NRG1-VII* transcripts in human cells

confirmed that type VII isoforms are expressed by monocytes and tissue resident macrophages.

Immunohistochemistry using antibodies directed towards the EGF-like or intracellular domains (ICD)

demonstrated that tissue-resident macrophages are the major source of NRG1 in these tissues, an

observation supported by transcriptional evidence derived from single cell data collated within the Human

Protein Atlas. This study therefore contributes to untangling the complexity of this already intricate locus by

characterizing the structure and distribution of myeloid specific NRG1 isoforms.

Results

<u>NRG1-VII is defined by a novel TSS discovered in myeloid cells.</u>

Since the different isoforms of NRG1 have different structures and binding affinities for their receptors, we

sought to investigate which of these were expressed by myeloid cells. First, we used the FANTOM5

(Functional Annotation of the Mammalian Genome) database (The FANTOM Consortium; 2014), a

catalogue that maps the TSSs of genes expressed in 975 human samples (including cells, tissues, and cell

lines). Here we found a previously uncharacterized TSS of NRG1 that was exclusively active in myeloid

cells including monocytes, macrophages, and basophils (Figure 2A). A schematic of the locus suggested

that this represents a potential new class of *NRG1* transcripts which we prospectively named *NRG1-VII*

(Figure 2). The FANTOM TSS predicted that the *NRG1-VII* starting exon contained 147 bp of mRNA

sequence unique to transcripts originating from this site, and an in-frame methionine was identified 162 bp

downstream from the start of transcription (Figure 2B, C). Therefore, we aimed to characterize whether this

newly described TSS would lead to the expression of a new class of protein coding transcripts.

The TSS for NRG1-VII initiates in the intron positioned 5' of ENSEMBL exon ENSE00003743434 which

encodes for part of the spacer sequence between the Ig and EGF-like domains in the canonical NRG1

protein (Figure 2B). The TSS adds a 5' untranslated region (UTR) to the transcript that extends the exon

from 51 bp to 190 bp (ENSE00002124728) and includes an initiating Methionine at nucleotide position 154-

156 bp. Hence, a unique 20 nucleotide sequence could be found within this unique 5' UTR that allowed

specific detection and amplification of the NRG1-VII isoforms (Figure 2C). The exon encodes 8 amino acids

in frame with the canonical *NRG1* coding regions and that are also present in other isoforms (I, II, IV and

V), thus NRG1-VII is the only reported NRG1 protein class that would not present a class-specific N-terminal

amino acid tail.

We mapped the transcriptional activity arising from this TSS and identified two Expressed Sequence Tags

(ESTs) that had been sequenced from the 5' end (NCBI accessions BI908144 and BI907799), and

originated from the *NRG1-VII* TSS. These originated from the same library (SAMN00164230) made from a

pool of non-activated human leukocytes from anonymous donors. Both ESTs harbored evidence of an open

reading frame (ORF) in frame with other NRG1 isoforms, but both were 3' truncated. To further validate the

potential activity of this TSS we looked for sequence evidence of conservation in other mammal species.

Data available from 15 non-Human primate species (Pipes et al., 2013), and cross species alignment shows

that the *NRG1-VII* TSS is conserved and highly specific to bone marrow and whole blood, while isoforms

isolated from other tissues use alternate TSSs (Figure S1A). We also found transcriptional evidence of an

equivalent TSS in *Mus musculus* and *Sus scrofa* derived from myeloid cells (Figure S1B-C) confirming that

the class VII TSS and its expression in myeloid cells are conserved through evolution.

Figure 2. Identification of a myeloid specific TSS in the human NRG1 locus. A) Screenshot of the
ZENBU genome browser showing the Gencode v22 transcript track, (accessed 26/1/23) corresponding to
the FANTOM5 phase 1 and 2 TSS peaks overlapping the starting exon of NRG1 type VII. Red vertical line
indicates the TSS of interest. Tag selection (grey bar, FANTOM5 CAGE track) indicates region for tag
quantification in the FANTOM5 experiment table. The table is truncated to show the top 6 samples are
primary myeloid cells, representative of the top 57/115 samples with >1TPM) Experimental samples are
ordered by highest number of CAGE tags counted in this area on sense strand (green bars, showing counts
as TPM). B) Schematic of the human *NRG1* locus highlighting alternate transcriptional starting exons that
correspond to seven isoform classes. The schematic shows 5' exon composition until the first shared exon
(containing the EGF domain). Exons are numbered by ENSEMBL accessions. C) Alignment of mRNA and
protein sequences of NRG1 type I and type VII to show an in frame translation initiation of NRG1 type VII.
Initiating methionine (M) or start codon (ATG) in red text. The blue arrow shows the target sequence of the
forward primer for *NRG1-VII* mRNA's unique 5' UTR. See also Figure S1.
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NRG1-VII TSS transcribes at least nine distinct transcripts in myeloid cells.

To characterize the diversity of *NRG1* transcripts that use novel *NRG1-VII* TSS, we performed Oxford

Nanopore long-read amplicon sequencing on *in vitro* and *in vivo* derived myeloid cells (Figure 3A). We

designed a forward primer that targets the unique 5' UTR of *NRG1-VII* transcripts. Two reverse primers

were designed to target two of the known alternative transcriptional stops in which we had previously

observed transcriptional activity in myeloid cells. We ran this test separately in *in vivo* and *in vitro*

progenitors and differentiated cells. In total, we identified nine novel high confidence transcripts.

Additionally, we identified a new exon present specifically in monocyte transcripts and positioned in the

genome between TSS-3 and 6 of the *NRG1* locus. This exon introduces an early stop codon in frame;

hence we classified it as a poison exon. We also report the presence of isoforms that contain both α and β

EGF-like exons. This alternative splicing possibility had been previous captured in transcript NM_004495,

but as this was a truncated transcript its ORF and TSS had not been defined.

We predict that five of these transcripts would be protein coding (Figure 3B). From these five proteins, three

are predicted to include a transmembrane domain (NRG1-VII α2a, α2b and β2a) and undergo canonical

processing through metalloproteases in order for the EGF-containing peptide to be released, while the other

two lack this domain (Figure 3C). We observed that these five protein coding transcripts can be found in all

our studied myeloid samples, except for monocytes in which we saw a different transcriptional profile and

isoforms NRG1-VII α2a and β2a were not detected. The predicted NRG1-VII protein isoforms all share the

absence of a specific N-terminal domain, but they all present domains that had been previously observed

in other NRG1 isoforms. Exceptionally, the presence of both and α and β domains in NRG1-VII αβ3, causes

a frame shift in the β exon, hence, changing the peptide sequence of this isoform to a unique C-terminal

end. This feature might affect the binding dynamics of this isoforms to ERBB receptors, making it of especial

interest.

Figure 3. Sequence and structure of NRG1-VII isoforms A) Representation of the exon structure for nine
type VII isoforms sequenced using Oxford Nanopore long-read sequencing. First column (colored dots)
denotes presence or absence of each transcript in the different samples used in this study (opaque=
present, transparent= absent). Arrows underneath the reference template show target regions for the single
forward primer and both reverse primers used in the amplicon sequencing (See also Table 1). B) Predicted
translation of protein sequences of the newly characterized NRG1 type VII isoforms (β3, α2a), compared
to canonical NRG1 I-β2a (top sequence). Text colour indicates known protein motifs: purple Ig; red EGF;
orange transmembrane domains. "/" represents predicted propeptide cleavage points (green text
represents ADAM/BACE1 proteolysis, blue represents γ-secretase proteolysis). Dashed lines in all panels
represent sequences that are not shown. C) Schematic of predicted translated proteins for NRG1-VII
isoforms compared to canonical NRG1-I (Left), borrowing from domain schema shown in Figure 1. Alternate
(α or β) EGF domains annotated in pink. Intracellular triangles represent alternate a or b cytoplasmic tails.
The yellow β domain represents the peptide sequence that arises from the related exon but is translated to
a different peptide sequence due to a frame shift.
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<u>Macrophages are a major source of NRG1 in human tissue.</u>

We next assessed the distribution patterns of *NRG1* in single-cell RNAseq experiments in the Human

Protein Atlas (Karlsson et al., 2021), which revealed that the *NRG1* locus was actively expressed by many

different cell types, such as neurons in brain and eye; stromal cells in colon; endothelial cells in heart and

liver; and epithelial cells in kidney and lung. In most of the tissues that we examined, *NRG1* expression

was observed in macrophages (Figure 4A). However, no isoform-specific data is available to compare

differential isoform expression between these tissues.

<u>NRG1-VII expression in myeloid cells is affected by differentiation and maturation.</u>

We sought to confirm if isoform VII is the only or even primary TSS used by myeloid cells. Therefore, using

primers that could discriminate between each unique start exon (Table 1), we investigated the patterns of

the seven classes of NRG1 isoforms in different *in vivo* and *in vitro* myeloid cells (Figure 4B). Expression

of *NRG1-VII* was detected in all myeloid cells, and it was the isoform class showing highest expression for

cells that belong to this lineage (except for macrophages derived from a 2D epithelium). In contrast, control

cell types (hiPSCs and iPSC-derived neurons) showed high expression of other *NRG1* classes, but not

NRG1-VII.

Having demonstrated that our iPSC derived myeloid cells can be used to model use of this TSS, we next

asked at what stage during the differentiation process could we first detect the expression of NRG1-VII

transcripts. Thus, we investigated the NRG1-VII expression patterns during the differentiation process

towards the myeloid lineage, and its concurrence with specific myeloid markers (Figure 4C). Our results

show that NRG1-VII transcription on *in vitro* derived myeloid cells coincides with the expression of mature

monocyte markers like CD16, unlike what is observed in blood monocytes from *in vivo* samples. This means

that the sequence of events happening *in vivo* are not recapitulated exactly, and that a more mature myeloid

identity is needed in order to activate transcription arising from the *NRG1-VII* TSS.

<u>NRG1-VII expression in myeloid cells is affected by differentiation and maturation.</u>

To confirm that *NRG1* mRNAs are translated into proteins on myeloid cells, we then performed

immunohistochemical stainings of NRG1 on human glioblastoma (GBM) tissue which is enriched in bone

marrow-derived macrophages (Klemm et al., 2020). Myeloid cells were identified using a CD68 antibody;

antibodies detecting the extracellular (EGF-like domain) and intracellular (ICD) domains of NRG1 were

used. NRG1 was detected in both myeloid and non-myeloid cells (Figure 4D-E). Not all CD68+ cells

expressed NRG1, and those cells that did, exhibited different patterns of expression (Figure S2). Altogether,

these results show that myeloid cells synthesize NRG1 peptides in human tissues but are not the sole

contributors to the NRG1 pool. They also reveal diverse NRG1 expression patterns in myeloid cells,

suggesting that regulation of NRG1 expression is different among myeloid cells.

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Figure 4. NRG1 expression profile in hematopoietic cells. A) Quantification of NRG1 mRNA expression
in different tissue macrophages according to The Human Protein Atlas (Karlsson et al., 2021). nTPM:
Number of transcripts per million. B) qRT-PCR data measuring presence of the different NRG1 classes in

different cell types. Classes IV-VI were not detected in any samples. Expression ratios were calculated as

described in Pfaffl, 2021. Mono: Monocyte, Mφ: macrophage, iPSC: Induced pluripotent stem cell. C) Time

series showing qRT-PCR expression of typical myeloid markers in progenitor maturation and relationship

with myeloid specific NRG1-VII transcripts. D) Immunostaining of GBM samples showing presence of

CD68^{+} cells that synthesize NRG1 peptides *in vivo*. The left panel shows sample section stained with DAPI.

The boxes indicate the regions shown in the right panel in D and the cell in E, respectively. Scale bar on

left panel is 1 mm, scale bar on right panel represents 20 μm. E) Example of cell in which all markers (CD68,

NRG1-EGF and NRG1-ICD) are expressed. Scale bars = 20 μm. See also Figure S2.

Discussion

Macrophages have been reported as a major source of NRG1 in different human tissues (Karlsson et al.,

2021), including a recent report highlighting the importance of NRG1 in the developing gut (Jardé et al.,

2020). Our own review of *NRG1* expression in the public single cell atlases, including the Human Protein

Atlas mRNA dataset, suggested that macrophages are a source of NRG1 in most tissues. However, the

specific isoforms involved in the macrophage mediated NRG1 secretion were uncharacterized. Here we

report that myeloid cells preferentially use a novel TSS that is myeloid-specific and conserved to generate

a previously uncharacterized class of NRG1 isoforms. The tissue variability and functional versatility of

NRG1 are a consequence of the alternative promoter usage and exon retention that give rise to a high

diversity of isoforms. Description of a new TSS class, NRG1-VII, including at least five new protein-coding

isoforms, has expanded the known NRG1 protein coding isoforms from 28 to 33.

It had been previously reported that the highest NRG1 expression levels in human tissues was in circulating

blood (Pipes et al., 2013). This is not surprising as maturation of myeloid cells *in vivo* seems to cause the

downregulation of this gene across the monocyte-macrophage differentiation axis (Figure 2A), with a subset

of macrophages expressing NRG1 in tissues (Figure 4). Our review of the FANTOM and protein atlas

suggests that monocytes are the main source of NRG1 in blood. The function of monocyte-derived NRG1

has not been described but circulating levels of NRG1 correlate with liver metabolic activity (Zhang et al.,

2018) as well as post-infarct recovery and cardiovascular health improvement (Mendes-Ferreira et al.,

2013). We further found that monocytes express at least six NRG1-VII isoforms, including transcripts that

contain a novel 'poison' exon (NRG1-VII Pαca and Pαa) predicted to prematurely terminate translation.

This exon introduces an early stop codon and hence is likely to drive the transcript to nonsense mediated

decay; hence generating a monocyte specific transcriptional mechanism to regulate the levels of NRG1

synthesis. Additionally, transcripts containing this exon present unusual splicing on the 3' end, suggesting

that there are additional differences and undiscovered mechanisms controlling transcription of these

mRNAs. Due to the high levels of expression of this gene in monocytes compared to other cell types, we

hypothesize that these represent regulatory mechanisms that regulate NRG1 expression in circulation.

NRG1 is an important clinical target in different cancer types, for example, NRG1 fusion proteins cause
pathological activation of ERBB receptors (Laskin et al., 2020). NRG1 expression correlates with a shorter
survival in patients with glioma (Yin et al., 2015), which could be related to its role in cell migration and
proliferation. Glioblastomas particularly exhibit high macrophage infiltration (Wei et al., 2019). Our results
here show that tumor-associated myeloid cells (CD68$^+$) may contribute to the NRG1 pool seen in these
tumors. Due to the lack of unique domains in type VII isoforms, the antibodies used in this study targeted
common NRG1 regions (the EGF-like and intracellular domains). Even though the available antibodies lack
specificity to prove that type VII isoforms are translated in this disease, the only isoforms detected in primary
monocytes or macrophages in this study belong to classes I and VII.
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While NRG1 double positive myeloid cells may show newly synthesized pro-peptides, we also observed
CD68$^+$/NRG1-ICD$^+$ cells indicating that the EGF-like domain had been cleaved. On the other hand, the
presence of CD68$^+$/NRG1-EGF$^+$ cells suggests that some cells restrict their expression only to isoforms
that end transcription in linker 3 and lack a transmembrane domain. Therefore, we confirmed that
macrophages *in vivo* express NRG1 and that there are distinct populations of macrophages in tissue based
on their NRG1 expression patterns.
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In order to understand whether *in vitro* derived myeloid cells can be used to model the activity of the NRG1-
VII TSS, we used primers designed to target specific TSS usage in different cell types. We confirmed that
NRG1-VII was expressed in all myeloid samples and in no others, suggesting the TSS is active. However,
iPSC-derived samples showed expression of NRG1-III. This could be a result of incomplete differentiation
of the culture, or retention of stem cell features in *in vitro* derived myeloid cells. Moreover, the time series
data obtained during the differentiation process shows that NRG1 expression follows mature markers like
CD16; *in vivo*, NRG1 expression precedes CD16, and as CD16 is upregulated, NRG1 expression
decreases. Hence, while we show activity of the TSS, the *in vitro* model may not recapitulate the
transcriptional and maturation sequence seen *in vivo* due to the differences in the differentiation process.
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The human NRG1 locus has over 30 curated isoforms, to which this study adds nine new transcripts that
are specific to myeloid cells. It is likely that the full transcriptional profile of this locus has not yet been
described; for example, while long-read amplicon sequencing is a sensitive isoform recovery method (Clark
et al., 2020), it is limited by the primer set(s) used. Thus, only NRG1-VII isoforms utilizing linker 3 or the a
tail regions were amplifiable in this study. In addition, transcript NM_004495 presents domains α and β, but
is 5' truncated. Hence it is unique but unassigned to a specific NRG1 class as its TSS has not been
identified. Our results show an isoform with both exons also present, supporting the existence of splice
variants, but with a 5' different to NM_004495, suggesting the presence of isoforms yet to be characterized
in this locus.
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NRG1 is involved in many different functions, this is attributed to the many isoforms which are tissue-
restricted during different developmental stages. Only through a thorough investigation of this locus, can
we better understand the specifics in each process and how to better develop clinical strategies to prevent
or treat the different pathologies associated with this locus. Here we showed that myeloid cells exhibit a
unique regulation pattern of the NRG1 locus to generate cell specific isoforms that could play important
roles in many diseases. Further detailed investigation on the molecular genetic features and functions of
these novel isoforms might uncover how NRG1-VII isoforms elicit differential receptor activity and
downstream effects as previously described for other NRG1 isoforms. This ultimately allows for targeted
therapies and better understanding of the complexity of an *in vivo* system and might help recreate the
processes in which appropriate signals are essential to model the desired biological mechanisms.
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Materials and methods
Cell lines and ethics approvals.
Stem cell work was performed in accordance with The University of Melbourne ethics committee HREC
(approval 1851831). The line of human iPSCs used was: PB001.1 (Vlahos et al., 2019), obtained from the
Stem Cell Core Facility at the Murdoch Children's Research Institute. Kolf2.1 (hPSCReg accession
WTSIi018-B; Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute) cells were used to differentiate cortical neurons (Ethics ID:
12374) and 2D macrophages. Monocytes were isolated from buffy coat, which was obtained from the
Australian Red Cross Blood Service in accordance with The University of Melbourne ethics committee
HREC (approval 1646608). Ethics for adipose tissue derived samples was obtained from the University of
Melbourne Human Ethics Committee (ethics ID 1851533) and approved by The Avenue Hospital Human
Research Ethics Committee (Ramsay Health; ethics ID WD00006, HREC reference number
2019/ETH/0050). For human glioblastoma samples, human ethics approval was covered by project
application 1853511, approved by the Medicine and Dentistry Human Ethics Sub-Committee, The
University of Melbourne.
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Stem cell culture.
Cells were cultured in Gibco™ Essential 8™ media with Essential 8™ supplement (Thermo Fisher
Scientific; A1517001) on growth-factor reduced Matrigel® Matrix (Corning®; 356234) coated dishes. Cells
were cultured with daily changed fresh media. Cell culture was performed in an APT.line™ C150 (E2) CO_2
manual incubator (BINDER; 7001-0172) in constant and stable conditions of humidity, temperature (37°C)
and CO_2 concentration in air (5%).
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Cell passaging was performed routinely when cell confluency reached (70-80%). Cells were first washed
with Gibco™ PBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 10010023). Then, a dilution of sterile 0.5 M EDTA (Thermo
Fisher Scientific; 15575020) in said PBS at a concentration of 0.5 mM was used to detach the cells from
the plate. After 3-4 minutes in humid incubator conditions, cells were collected and replated with fresh
media.

<u>3D iPSC derived macrophages.</u>

As described in Rajab et al., 2021. Human iPSCs were differentiated into macrophages following (Joshi et
al., 2019), but with the following alterations to the protocol: harvested cells were cultured in MAGIC media,
which was changed as indicated in (Ng et al., 2008). During this process, cells were plated in 10cm Ø non-
treated Petri dishes (IWAKI; 1020-100) and placed on an orbital shaker (N-Biotek orbital shaker NB-
T101SRC) in a humidified incubator with 5% CO_2 at 37°C.

After 11 days of culture, cells can be observed detaching from the embryoid bodies, remaining in
suspension in the media as non-adherent cells (which are characterized as myeloid progenitors). When all
cells are collected and allowed to settle in a 15 mL Falcon tube (Corning®; CLS431470-500EA), embryoid
bodies pelleted in the bottom, but progenitors stayed in suspension in the supernatant, and could then be
collected. The supernatant was the centrifuged (Heraeus Multifuge 1S-R) at 400 rpm for 5 minutes to
separate the progenitors from the media. Progenitors were then resuspended in a 10% dilution in volume
of FBS and 100ng/mL CSF-1 (R&D Systems; 216-MC-500) in Gibco™ RPMI-1640 media (Thermo Fisher
Scientific; 11875093). Cells were plated in Costar® 6-well tissue-culture treated plates (Corning®; 3516)
for 4-7 days in stable incubator conditions (humid, 5% CO_2, 37°C), when cells showed morphological and
molecular features displayed by macrophages.

<u>iPSC derived neurons</u>

Kolf2.1 hiPSCs (Kao et al., 2016) were cultured under xenogenic conditions as defined in (Niclis et al.,
2017). The cells were then differentiated into cortical neurons following the protocol described by
(Gantner et al., 2021).

<u>Human samples and cell sorting.</u>

Blood monocyte isolation.

Buffy Coat was obtained from the Australian Red Cross Blood Service. The blood was diluted with PBS at
a 1:3 dilution and underlayed with Histopaque®-1077 (Sigma-Aldrich; Cat. No. 10771-100ml). The
underlayed blood samples were centrifuged (TECHCOMP CT1SRT) at 350g for 30 minutes at 24°C with
no brake. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from the interphase and washed twice
by using MACs buffer (Gibco™ Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS) (Ca2+Mg2+ free) (Thermo
Fisher Scientific; Cat. No. 14190144) with 0.5% heat inactivated Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (Thermo Fisher
Scientific; Cat. No. 10082147 or 10099141) and 2mM EDTA (Invitrogen™ UltraPure™ 0.5M EDTA (Thermo
Fisher Scientific; Cat. No. 15575020)) and centrifuging at 400g for 5 minutes at 4°C. A cell count and
viability were determined using 0.4% Gibco™ Trypan Blue (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Cat. No. 15250061)
using a hemocytometer. Cells were centrifuged at 400g for 5 minutes at 4°C and resuspended in 40µl MACs

buffer per 10^7 cells. Monocytes were positively selected by a magnetic field using Human CD14 MicroBeads

(Miltenyi Biotec; Cat. No. 130-050-201) and LS Columns (Miltenyi Biotec; Cat. No. 130-042-401).

After isolation, monocytes could be differentiated into macrophages by culture the same conditions as iPSC

derived progenitors: resuspension in a 10% dilution in volume of FBS and 100ng/mL CSF-1 in Gibco™

RPMI-1640 media. Cells were plated in Costar® 6-well tissue-culture treated plates for 4-7 days in stable

incubator conditions (humid, 5% CO_2, 37°C), when cells showed morphological and molecular features

displayed by macrophages.

Adipose tissue samples.

Adipose tissue was obtained and processed as described in (Raajendiran et al., 2019). Myeloid cells were

selected by FACS using a BD FACSAria™ III system (BD Biosciences). Cells that were positive for markers

CD45 and CD11b were isolated for this study.

<u>RNA extractions and cDNA synthesis.</u>

Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy® Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen; 74134) according to manufacturer's

instructions. After final total RNA elution in RNase-free water, overall RNA quality and concentration were

measured using an RNA ScreenTape (Agilent Technologies; 5067-5576) in an Agilent 2200 Tapestation

System (Agilent Technologies; G2964-90003).

cDNA synthesis was then performed using the isolated total RNA and considering the concentration values

assigned to each of the samples for the coming steps. cDNA was synthesized using SensiFAST™ cDNA

Synthesis Kit (BioLine; BIO-65053) and following all protocol specifications from the vendor. cDNA

concentration and quality were checked using a D5000 ScreenTape (Agilent Technologies; 5067-5588) in

an Agilent 2200 Tapestation System. Final cDNA samples were then stored at -20°C.

<u>q-RT PCR.</u>

For mRNA quantification, the Applied Biosystems Viia7 ™ real time system was used (Thermo Fisher

Scientific; 4453536) using a Fast 96 well plate hardware set up. The reactions in each well of the Micro

Amp Fast 96 well reaction plate 0.1 mL (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 4346907) were prepared as indicated for

the Fast SYBR™ Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 4385612). Primers used in the reaction were

designed for each transcript class of interest (Table 1). Plates were then sealed using Optical adhesive

covers (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 436 0954). For quantification, n=3 technical replicates were used.

Relative expression ratio was calculated as E(HKG)Average HKG Ct/ E(GOI)Average GOI Ct as described

in Pfaffle, 2021. Efficiencies for each primer pair were calculated from serial dilutions of template and

ranged between 95 and 98 % for all NRG1 isoforms classes reported in results. Isoforms IV, V, VI were not

detected in any samples. B2M was used as House Keeping gene (HKG) for all samples.

Gene	F-Primer	Tm °C	R-primer	Tm °C
B2M	TAGCTGTGCTCGCGCTACT	66.5	TTCAATGTCGGATGGATGAA	60.2
NRG1 I	CAAAGAAGGCAGAGGCAAAG	62.9	AACTGGTTTCACACCGAAGG	63.9
NRG1 II	AACCTCAAGAAGGAGGTCAGC	63.9	AACTGGTTTCACACCGAAGG	63.9
NRG1 III	CCGACACCGAAGAATCGTAT	63.8	ACTCCCCTCCATTCACACAG	64.0
NRG1 IV	GCGACAGAGAGGGAGGA	63.6	AACTGGTTTCACACCGAAGG	63.9
NRG1 V	AATTCTTCTACGGAGTTTTAAGGTACAC	62.6	GCCGATTCCTGGCTTTTCAT	67.2
NRG1 VI	TCTTCAGGAACCACCTAAGCA	63.6	TCTCCTTCTCCGCACATTTT	63.6
NRG1 VII	TTAGTTCCAAGGCAGGCTGT	63.7	TTGCTCCTTCTGTGGATACTGA	63.7
CD11b	AGAACAACATGCCCAGAACC	63.9	GCGGTCCCATATGACAGTCT	63.9
CD14	GCCGCTGTGTAGGAAAGAAG	63.8	ATCGTCCAGCTCACAAGGTT	63.7
CD16	TGAGGTGTCACAGCTGGAAG	64.3	GGTTGACACTGCCAAACCTT	63.9
CD43	AGTGCTGCGTCCTTATCAGC	64.4	CAAACAGGCAGGAGCAAGAG	65.0
CD45	AGAATACTGGCCGTCAATGG	63.8	GCTGAAGGCATTCACTCTCC	63.9
SPL1	CCAGCTCAGATGAGGAGGAG	64.2	CAGGTCCAACAGGAACTGGT	64.0
NRG1-VII Nanopore	TTTCTGTTGGTGCTGATATTGC TTAGTTCCAAGGCAGGCTGT	84	ACTTGCCTGTCGCTCTATCTTCG ATGCAGCAACAAGAAAGCA And ACTTGCCTGTCGCTCTATCTTCTT TCCTGTTTTCTATTTGCAGAAC	79.4 83.9

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Table 1. Primers designed for qRT-PCR and Long Read Amplicon Sequencing.

Nanopore Amplicon sequencing.

RNA was extracted from a pool of monocytes from 3 different blood donors, a pool of myeloid progenitors

derived *in vitro*, macrophages derived from monocytes, and macrophages differentiated from *in vitro*

derived progenitors. The samples were then prepared using specific primers (Table 1) and purified using

AMPure beads. 2 ng of purified cDNA from each sample was then barcoded following the EXP-PBC096

protocol from Oxford Nanopore Technologies. Samples were pooled (equimolar) and a sequencing library

was prepared as described in the SQK-LSK110 Oxford Nanopore protocol. Samples were then loaded on

a Flongle flow cell (FLG-001) and sequencing was performed using a GridION device.

Sequencing data analysis.

Basecalling was performed using Guppy (v6.3.8) using the super-accurate basecalling config file with a

Qscore threshold of 10. Passed reads were mapped to the GRCh38 (GCA_000001405) version of the

human genome assembly using the Minimap2 (Li, 2018) (v 2.22) using the command minimap2 -ax splice

--splice-flank=yes. Files were then converted and sorted into bam files using Samtools v 1.13 (Li et al.,

2009). The sequences were then collapsed into isoforms with StringTie (v2.2.1) using default parameters

(Pertea et al., 2015). Raw reads and collapsed isoforms were visualized in IGV (Robinson et al., 2011).

<u>Automated multiplex immunohistochemistry.</u>

Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) GBM tissue sections were stained using the Bond RX automated

stainer (Leica Biosystems). Slides were deparaffinized in xylene followed by exposure to a graded series

of ethanol solutions for rehydration. Heat-induced epitope retrieval was performed with either a Citrate pH

6 buffer or Tris Ethylenediaminietetraacetic acid (EDTA) pH 9 buffer. Slides were blocked with 3% hydrogen

peroxide (H_2O_2) to block endogenous peroxidase activity. For multiplexed IHC staining the Opal 6-plex

Detection Kit (Akoya Biosciences) was used. Serial multiplexing was performed by repeating the sequence

of antigen retrieval, primary antibody, and Opal polymer incubation, followed by Opal fluorophore

visualisation for all antibodies as follows. GBM tissue was stained with CD68 (Abcam ab955, 1:100), NRG1

ICD (Abcam ab191139, 1:200) and NRG1 EGF-like domain (ThermoFisher MA4-12896, 1:100). Slides

were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with primary antibodies diluted in 1x Opal blocking/antibody

diluent (Akoya biosciences). Slides were subsequently incubated with the Opal Polymer HRP Ms + Rb

secondary polymer for 30 minutes prior to incubation with Opal fluorophores (Opal 520, 540, 570, 620, 650

and 690) diluted at 1:150 in 1x Plus Automation Amplification Diluent (Akoya biosciences) for 10 minutes.

Slides were counterstained with 10x Spectral DAPI and coverslipped with ProLong Glass Antifade Mountant

(Invitrogen). Multispectral images were acquired at 20x and 40x magnification using PhenoImagerTM HT

(Akoya Biosciences). inForm 2.4.8 software (Akoya Biosciences) was used for spectral deconvolution.

Deconvoluted multispectral images were subsequently fused in HALO (Indica Labs).

537   **Supplementary data**

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541 **Figure S1. NRG1-VII TSS Shows conservation in primate and non-primate mammals.** A) NRG1
542 expression profiles of human and non-human primates showing that TSS VII is conserved in bone marrow
543 and whole blood B) Curated transcript in *Mus musculus* databases showing conservation of TSS VII in
544 blood cells. C) Predicted transcript in *Sus scrofa* based ETSs derived from dendritic cells and other myeloid
545 progenitor samples. Screenshot from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov1. *Accessed on 15/12/2022.*

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Figure S2. Panel of marker combinations present in GBM samples. CD68^{+} cells are diverse in their NRG1 expression patterns. Panels show CD68^{+} cells that can be NRG1^{-}, or positive for either of the NRG1 antibodies independently. CD68^{-} cells were also observed to be positive for presence NRG1. Scale bars = 20 μm.

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