A layered erythromyeloid ontogeny ensures timely supply of erythrocytes and macrophages during development

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Short running title: Layered erythromyeloid ontogeny in zebrafish

Highlights

Primitive hematopoietic progenitors give rise and sustain embryonic erythromyeloid lineages.

Definitive hematopoietic progenitors show a late contribution to macrophages and erythrocytes during development.

Embryos show a layered ontogeny of macrophages that ensures their abundance for a timely contribution to tissue homeostasis and repair.

Selective ablation of definitive macrophages does not impair tail fin regeneration during early larval developmental stages.

Abstract

In all organisms studied, from flies to humans, blood cells emerge in several sequential waves

and from distinct hematopoietic origins. However, the relative contribution of these

ontogenetically distinct hematopoietic waves to embryonic blood lineages and to tissue

regeneration during development is yet elusive. Here, using a lineage-specific 'switch and

trace' strategy in the zebrafish embryo, we report that the definitive hematopoietic progeny

barely contributes to erythrocytes and macrophages during early development. Lineage

tracing further show that ontogenetically distinct macrophages exhibit differential

recruitment to the site of injury based on the developmental stage of the organism. We

further demonstrate that primitive macrophages can solely maintain tissue regeneration

during early larval developmental stages after selective ablation of definitive macrophages.

Our findings highlight that the sequential emergence of hematopoietic waves in embryos

ensures the abundance of blood cells required for tissue homeostasis and integrity during

development

Keywords

Ontogeny; Hematopoiesis; Lineage tracing; Regeneration; Zebrafish

Introduction

Hematopoiesis is a complex biological process by which all mature blood lineages are

generated. In mammals, hematopoiesis originates from distinct blood progenitors that arise

during development resulting in a layered organization of the immune system (Elsaid et al.,

2020). In mice, the first wave, also called primitive wave, starts in the extra-embryonic

microenvironment of the yolk sac (YS) around embryonic day (E) 7 (Palis et al., 1999; Kingsley

et al., 2004; Palis et al., 2001; Soares-da-Silva et al., 2021). Around E8.25, the YS also harbors

endothelial-derived multipotent erythro-myeloid progenitors (EMPs) which represent the

first definitive wave of hematopoiesis (Hoeffel et al., 2015; Gomez Perdiguero et al., 2015;

Bertrand et al., 2005; Gentek et al., 2018; Frame et al., 2016). At E9.5, other intra-embryonic

definitive hematopoietic progenitors emerge in the major arteries and they are the main

source of adult hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) in the bone marrow (BM) (Cumano et al.,

1996; Medvinsky and Dzierzak, 1996; Busch et al., 2015). These progenitors emerge through

an endothelial-to-hematopoietic transition mechanism (EHT) (Bertrand et al., 2010; Boisset

et al., 2010; Kissa and Herbomel, 2010b). At E10.5, the fetal liver (FL), the main hematopoietic

organ during embryonic development, harbors progenitors of dual origin derived from both

definitive and primitive hematopoietic progenitors (McGrath et al., 2015a). As in mammals,

zebrafish hematopoiesis also consists of multiple waves that emerge at distinct anatomical

locations (Elsaid et al., 2020). In the zebrafish embryo, primitive hematopoiesis emerges intra-

embryonically around 11 hours post-fertilization (hpf) in the rostral blood island (RBI) and the

posterior lateral mesoderm (PLM) and generates primitive erythrocytes and myeloid cells

(Elsaid et al., 2020; Herbomel et al., 2001). Recently, the RBI was shown to be major source

of embryonic microglia (Ferrero et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2015). Other definitive or endothelial-

derived hematopoietic waves are also produced in the developing organism (Elsaid et al.,

2020). One of them is a transient wave that emerges from the posterior blood island (PBI) at

24-30 hpf via EHT and gives rise to EMPs like those in mammals (Bertrand et al., 2007; Ferrero

et al., 2018; Tian et al., 2017). At 36 hpf, other waves of HSCs and HSC-independent

progenitors emerge from the dorsal aorta (DA) via EHT (Bertrand et al., 2010; Kissa and

Herbomel, 2010b). These DA-derived hematopoietic progenitors then migrate to the caudal

hematopoietic tissue (CHT) (Murayama et al., 2006). By 4 days post-fertilization (dpf),

hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells migrate to the kidney marrow, the BM counterpart

in zebrafish, where they reside and differentiate to all blood cell lineages, establishing the

adult hematopoietic system (Murayama et al., 2006). Therefore, due to its similarity to

mammalian hematopoiesis, the zebrafish is an excellent model to study the ontogeny of

different hematopoietic waves during development.

Although it is well characterized that blood cells are produced in sequential and overlapping

waves (Elsaid et al., 2020), little is known about their contribution to different hematopoietic

lineages during development. However, recent studies in mice and in zebrafish suggest that

immune and blood cells might have distinct origins throughout life (Hoeffel et al., 2015;

Ferrero et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2015; Gentek et al., 2018; Gomez Perdiguero et al., 2015; Soares-

da-Silva et al., 2021). Independent reports support the notion that definitive hematopoiesis

sustains embryonic blood lineages (Tian et al., 2017; Ulloa et al., 2021; Patel et al., 2022;

Stachura and Traver, 2011). However, primitive hematopoietic progenitors give rise also to

the erythromyeloid lineage and it is yet unknown to what extent these progenitors contribute

to embryonic blood lineages. This is mainly due to the lack of specific markers for primitive

hematopoietic progenitors in mammals (Elsaid et al., 2020; Ferrero et al., 2018; Xu et al.,

2015; McGrath et al., 2015b).

The difficulty in accurately tracing the output of each wave in mammalian animal models has

hindered the full understanding of immune cell ontogeny. Recent studies in zebrafish showed

that embryonic and larval microglia originate from the RBI while adult microglia and other

adult macrophages arise from the ventral wall of dorsal aorta (VDA) (Xu et al., 2015; He et al.,

2018; Ferrero et al., 2018). Despite their elegant experimental designs, only microglia and

adult macrophages origins were tested, without exploring the contribution of primitive

hematopoiesis to the embryonic/larval erythromyeloid lineage during tissue homeostasis and

regeneration.

In this study, we used the unique strengths of the zebrafish embryo to perform temporarily

resolved lineage tracing combined with live imaging to investigate the embryonic

erythromyeloid lineage ontogeny *in vivo*. We unveiled that embryonic erythrocyte and

macrophage lineages originate from primitive hematopoietic progenitors. In contrast,

definitive hematopoietic waves contribution to the erythromyeloid lineage occurred only at

the larval developmental stage. We further showed that upon tissue injury only primitive, but

not definitive, macrophages are recruited to the site of injury during embryonic development.

While both ontogenetically distinct macrophage populations were recruited to the site of

injury at early larval developmental stages, primitive macrophages were recruited to the

damage site earlier than their definitive counterparts. Our results also suggest that primitive

macrophages maintain tissue regeneration during early larval developmental stages after

selective ablation of definitive macrophages. Combined, our study reveals that the sequential

emergence of hematopoietic waves ensures the abundance of macrophages and erythrocytes

required for tissue homeostasis and integrity during development.

Results and discussion

Erythrocytes originate from primitive hematopoietic progenitors during embryonic

development.

To set up a strategy to distinguish between primitive and definitive hematopoietic progenitors

based on their tissue of origin, we used an endothelial-specific tamoxifen-inducible transgenic

line *Tg(fli1a:CreERT2)* (Sánchez-Iranzo et al., 2018) in combination with different

hematopoietic lineage-specific switch and trace lines (Carney and Mosimann, 2018). All

definitive hematopoietic progenitors, including HSCs and EMPs, are generated as early as 24

hpf from endothelial progenitors (Bertrand et al., 2010; Kissa and Herbomel, 2010a; Tian et

al., 2017; Henninger et al., 2017; Ulloa et al., 2021; Bertrand et al., 2007). Thus, our inducible

labeling strategy at 24 hpf will label exclusively definitive hematopoietic progenitors as they

emerge without labeling primitive hematopoietic progenitors. To assess the efficiency of our

labeling strategy, we combined the *Tg(fli1a:CreERT2)* line with two different independent

transgenic lines, the lymphocyte-specific *Tg(lck:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP)* (Tian et al., 2017;

Langenau et al., 2004) line (supplemental Figure 1A) and the *Tg(coro1a:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-*

GFP) line which labels all leukocytes(Xu et al., 2015; Li et al., 2012) (supplemental Figure 1D).

We found that 80% of thymocytes in the thymus, which have only a definitive hematopoietic

origin (Tian et al., 2017; Elsaid et al., 2021), were labelled using either the *Tg(lck:loxP-DsRedx-*

loxP-GFP) (supplemental Figure 1B-C) or the *Tg(coro1a:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP)* lines

(supplemental Figure 1E-F), indicating the high labelling efficiency of our system.

To determine the origin of erythrocytes during embryonic development and early larval

stages, we combined the *Tg(fli1a:CreERT2)* line with the erythrocyte-specific *Tg(α/β$_{a2}$-*

globin:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP) line (referred to hereafter as globin:switch) (Tian et al., 2017;

Ganis et al., 2012). In double transgenic zebrafish, 4-OH-tamoxifen (4-OHT) induces cre

recombination and removes the DsRed cassette, leading to permanent GFP expression in

fli1a$^+$-derived erythroid progeny (Figure 1A). To determine the contribution of definitive

hematopoietic progenitors to erythropoiesis during early stages of development, we exposed

embryos to either 4-OHT or ethanol (EtOH) starting at 24 hpf to label the aortic-endothelium-

derived definitive hematopoietic progenitors (Bertrand et al., 2010; Kissa and Herbomel,

2010a; Tian et al., 2017), and then monitored GFP$^+$ definitive erythrocytes via live imaging

(Figure 1B and supplemental video 1). Primitive hematopoietic progenitors robustly

generated erythrocytes from early embryonic stages (Figure 1B). In contrast, GFP$^+$ definitive

erythrocytes started to emerge after 2 dpf, accumulated in the CHT region starting at 4 dpf

(Figure 1C) and their contribution to the erythrocyte pool was not appreciable until later larval

developmental stages (~21 dpf, Figure 1C-F).

Using this labeling strategy, we demonstrated that under physiological conditions, definitive

hematopoietic progenitors barely contribute to erythropoiesis during early stages of

development. These results indicate that erythrocytes emerge in a layered organization

during embryonic and early larval stages as in mammals (Soares-da-Silva et al., 2021), and

that primitive hematopoietic progenitors generate a sufficient number of erythrocytes to

sustain embryonic survival and tissue homeostasis (Palis, 2014).

Embryonic macrophages originate exclusively from primitive hematopoietic progenitors

To assess the contribution of definitive hematopoietic progenitors to the embryonic

macrophage pool, we marked the latter by combining the *Tg(fli1a:CreERT2)* line with the

macrophage-specific *Tg(mpeg1:LoxP-DsRedx-LoxP-GFP-NTR)* line (referred to hereafter as

mpeg1:switch) (Lin et al., 2019; Ellett et al., 2011). As aforementioned, 4-OHT-induced cre

recombination leads to permanent GFP expression in $fli1a^+$-derived macrophages progeny

(Figure 2A). Using this system, embryonic microglia cells, which are known to be of primitive

hematopoietic origin in zebrafish (Xu et al., 2015; Ferrero et al., 2018), were not labelled,

indicating the precision of this labelling system (supplemental figure 2A-B). While primitive

macrophages contributed robustly to the embryonic macrophage pool, we found that

definitive hematopoietic progenitors minimally contribute to macrophages during early

developmental stages, akin to erythrocytes ontogeny (Figure 2B). We showed further that

GFP$^+$ definitive macrophages started to emerge after 2 dpf and gradually increased in

numbers in the CHT region (Figure 2B and E) with a delayed modest contribution to the

macrophage pool in the periphery starting after 4 dpf (Figure 2B-D). GFP$^+$ definitive

macrophages contributed robustly to peripheral macrophages by 16 dpf, suggesting a distinct

differentiation kinetics of primitive and definitive macrophages throughout development

(Figure 2C).

Altogether, our lineage tracing experiments show that aortic endothelium derived

hematopoietic progenitors are barely contributing to embryonic erythroid and myeloid

lineages (Figures 1 and 2). These data demonstrate that erythromyeloid lineages are mainly

sustained by primitive hematopoietic progenitors during early developmental stages under

physiological conditions.

Ontogenically distinct macrophages are differentially recruited to the site of injury throughout

development.

It has been recently reported that distinct macrophage subpopulations play different roles to

promote tail regeneration after amputation (Wynn and Vannella, 2016; Morales and Allende,

2019). However, whether ontogenetically distinct macrophages display different functions

and recruitment behaviors to the site of injury remains poorly understood. Our tracing

experiments suggested that the definitive hematopoietic progenitors barely contribute to the

macrophage pool during early developmental stages under homeostasis. Therefore, we

sought to analyze if macrophages of distinct origins are recruited in a differential manner to

the damage site at different developmental stages. To track ontogenetically distinct

macrophages recruitment upon injury, we used the same strategy applied to trace them

under homeostasis (Figure 3A). We analyzed macrophages recruitment to the damaged site

in embryos (2 dpf) and larvae (5 dpf) since our lineage tracing experiments showed a different

abundance of ontogenetically distinct macrophages at these developmental stages (Figure 2).

We observed that only primitive macrophages were recruited to the site of injury in embryos

upon tail amputation (Figure 3B-C and supplemental Figure 3A). We then analyzed

macrophage recruitment to the damage site in larvae, where both primitive and definitive

macrophage populations coexist in the periphery. We did not observe differences in the

recruitment of both primitive and definitive macrophages to the damage site 24 hours post

amputation (hpa) with a slight increase in the number of definitive macrophages 48 hpa

(Figure 3D-E and supplemental Figure 3B). Altogether, these results suggest that primitive

macrophages can alone maintain embryonic tissue homeostasis while both macrophage

populations are recruited to the damaged site and contribute to tail fin regeneration in the

larvae.

Previous reports showed that the first recruited macrophages play an important role in

proper tail fin regeneration (Morales and Allende, 2019; Nguyen-Chi et al., 2017; Petrie et al.,

2014), therefore, we further analyzed which macrophage population is recruited first to the

site of injury. We found that primitive macrophages are recruited earlier than their definitive

counterparts (Figure 3F-G). Since our observation of a delay in the recruitment of definitive

macrophages could be the result of differences in the number of primitive and definitive

macrophages in the periphery at the time of injury, we attempted to normalize their numbers.

Data was normalized by dividing the number of each recruited macrophage subpopulation by

their total number in the tail of the same larvae (Morales and Allende, 2019). After

normalization, we still observed that primitive macrophages are recruited earlier compared

to their definitive counterparts (Figure 3G). These data indicate that primitive macrophages,

as the first arrivals to the damage site, may have a specific role in the regeneration process

after amputation during development. Collectively, these results suggest that a layered

ontogeny of macrophages ensures their abundance for a timely contribution to tissue

homeostasis and regeneration.

Primitive macrophages solely maintain tissue regeneration during early larval developmental

stages after selective ablation of definitive macrophages.

To evaluate the contribution of ontogenetically distinct macrophages to the regeneration of

the damaged tissue, we used the aforementioned strategy to trace and deplete macrophages

in a wave-specific manner during the regeneration process (Figure 4A). We used the mpeg1

switch line *Tg(mpeg1:loxP-dsRed-loxP-eGFP-NTR)* that allows selective ablation of

macrophages based on their origin. In this line, the expression of bacterial nitroreductase

(NTR) is under the control of the *mpeg1* promoter (Ellett et al., 2011). Thus, the NTR will be

expressed exclusively in the traced macrophages, thereby, traced macrophages could be

ablated by metronidazole (MTZ) treatment (Curado et al., 2008). Following this approach, we

evaluated the contribution of definitive macrophages selectively upon tissue injury. To assess

the efficiency of the NTR-MTZ system, we quantified the number of primitive and definitive

macrophages in the tail after treatment with either DMSO or MTZ for 48 hours from 4 to 6

dpf. We found that while primitive macrophages were not affected by the MTZ treatment,

definitive macrophages were significantly reduced after 48 hours of MTZ treatment (Figure

4B-C).

We next performed tail fin amputation in 5 dpf larvae that was treated with either DMSO or

MTZ from 4-6 dpf to ensure ablation of definitive macrophages through the regeneration

process. To assess if tail fin regeneration is affected when definitive macrophages are ablated,

we evaluated tail fin regeneration after amputation by measuring the tail fin area. While

primitive macrophage numbers and recruitment were not affected during the regeneration

process, definitive macrophages were significantly reduced during the first 48 hpa but

recovered by 72 hpa (Figure 4D-G and supplemental Figure 3C-D). We then performed tail fin

regeneration analysis and observed no differences in the regenerated tail fin area between

larvae treated with either DMSO or MTZ (Figure 4H-I). Our results, thus, indicate that primitive

macrophages recruitment to the damage site is not affected and tail fin regeneration is not

impaired when definitive macrophages are depleted. Taken together, these data further

emphasize that primitive macrophages are sufficient to ensure a timely tissue regeneration

and to compensate the absence of other distinct macrophage populations during early

developmental stages.

Our study shows that the embryonic hematopoietic system follows a layered strategy to

provide a timely supply of innate immune cells and erythrocytes. Under steady-state

conditions, we found that the contribution of definitive hematopoietic progenitors to

embryonic erythromyeloid lineage is limited. This is of particular interest as none of the

lineage tracing strategies performed in mice, despite their elegant designs, are specific to

definitive hematopoietic waves. Our results also complement the recently reported

observations that HSCs have a delayed contribution to the lymphomyeloid lineage during

development (Ulloa et al., 2021). Together, our observations indicate that the embryonic

erythromyeloid lineage is sustained by primitive hematopoietic progenitors under

homeostasis.

To investigate the temporal contribution of the macrophage lineage upon tissue injury, we

analyzed macrophage recruitment to the damaged tissue during embryonic and early larval

developmental stages. We found that primitive macrophages are the only ones recruited to

the site of injury during embryonic stages, however, both primitive and definitive macrophage

populations were recruited at early larval developmental stages. This difference in

recruitment behaviour between primitive and definitive macrophages could be due to that

the primitive macrophages are more sensitive to damage sensing and/or a consequence of

the immaturity of definitive macrophages at early developmental stages.

Furthermore, as timely recruitment of macrophages to the damage site is important to ensure

proper tail fin regeneration (Wynn and Vannella, 2016; Morales and Allende, 2019; Nguyen-

Chi et al., 2017; Petrie et al., 2014), we found that the primitive macrophages are the first

responders after tail fin injury showed by their earlier recruitment than their definitive

counterparts. Thus, we propose that during development, primitive macrophages are more

prone to sense signals from the damage site and migrate toward it earlier than their definitive

counterparts. These intriguing results suggest that embryos and early larvae adopt a layered

ontogeny of macrophages to ensure their abundance for a timely contribution to tissue

regeneration.

A major finding of our study is the demonstration that primitive macrophages can solely

maintain tissue regeneration during development. This observation was supported by

selectively ablating the definitive macrophage pool and analyzing the tail fin area of

amputated larvae. We found that the number of recruited primitive macrophages to the site

of injury was not altered and tail fin regeneration was not impaired in definitive macrophage-

ablated larvae. Together, these results suggest that primitive macrophages are sufficient to

ensure tissue regeneration and to compensate the absence of other distinct macrophage

populations during critical early developmental stages.

In conclusion, our study provides insights into the ontogeny of the erythromyeloid lineage

during embryonic/early larval developmental stages. Our findings support the notion that

embryos show a sequential emergence of hematopoietic waves to ensure the abundance of

macrophages required for tissue homeostasis and regeneration during a crucial

developmental time window. In line with our results, it has been recently reported in mice

(Gomez Perdiguero et al., 2015; Patel et al., 2022; Yokomizo et al., 2022; Fanti et al., 2023)

and in zebrafish (Tian et al., 2017; Ulloa et al., 2021) that embryonic and adult HSCs do not

give rise to several blood subtypes at steady state, upon ablation of mature blood cells, and

in response to immune challenge. These observations indicate that ensuring a rapid response

to stress to maintain tissue homeostasis in an HSC-independent manner might be a conserved

mechanism between species throughout their life.

Materials and Data availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents. The data sets generated during the current study are available from the corresponding authors upon request.

Materials and methods

Zebrafish. Embryonic and adult zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) were maintained at 28°C on a 14-hour light/10 hour dark cycle. The collected embryos were raised in fish water containing 0.01% methylene blue to prevent fungal growth. All fish are housed in the fish facility of our laboratory, which was built according to the local animal welfare standards. All animal procedures were performed in accordance with French and European Union animal welfare guidelines and were evaluated by the ethic committee of the Curie Institute (Paris, France) and approved.

Transgenic lines. The following lines of the AB stain were used: *Tg(fli1a: CreER^{T2})* (Sánchez-Iranzo et al., 2018), *Tg(mpeg1:LoxP-DsRedx-LoxP-GFP-NTR)*(Lin et al., 2019),*Tg(coro1a:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP)* (Xu et al., 2015), *Tg(globin:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP)* (Tian et al., 2017) and *Tg(lck:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP)* (Tian et al., 2017).

Fluorescence Microscopy. Zebrafish embryos, larvae and adults were anesthetized with 0.01% tricaine (A5040, Sigma) and mounted in 2.5% 2.5% methylcellulose in 35-mm imaging dishes (MatTek) as described previously (Renaud et al., 2011). Fluorescent imaging was performed with either Zeiss Axio Zoom V.16 upright microscope with an AxioCam HRm Zeiss camera and Zeiss Zen 3.3 software or with Leica thunder imaging system with Leica LAS-X software. Fluorescence was detected with dsRed and green fluorescent protein (GFP) filters.

Image Analysis. All images were analyzed using FIJI software (Schindelin et al., 2012).

CreER-loxP Cell Labelling (Lineage Tracing). Zebrafish embryos at 24 hpf were treated with 5 µM 4-OHT (H7904, Sigma) for 24 hours. Controls were incubated in the equivalent amount of Ethanol solution during the same period. Light exposure was avoided by using foil to cover the plates as 4-OHT is light sensitive. After treatment, embryos were washed with fresh embryo medium and placed back in incubator. From 5 dpf, larvae were transferred to the fish facility nursery where they were kept and fed. Embryos were raised for further analysis at different developmental stages.

Metronidazole treatment and cell ablation. The *Tg(fli1CreER^{T2};mpeg1:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-GFP-NTR)* embryos were immersed in system water containing 10 mM metronidazole (M1547, Sigma) for 48 hours, which caused an acute depletion of GFP-NTR$^+$ cells. The medium containing the MTZ was changed every 24 hours. Controls were incubated in the equivalent amount of DMSO solution during the same period. Light exposure was avoided by using foil to cover the plates as MTZ is light sensitive. Zebrafish were further analyzed by fluorescence imaging at different developmental time points.

Tail Fin Amputation. 2 and 5 dpf larvae were anesthetized with 0.01% tricaine and amputated with a sterile scalpel. The transection was performed by using the posterior section of the

387 ventral pigmentation gap in the tail fin as a reference, and immediately after amputation
388 larvae were incubated in either E3 medium, or in MTZ in case of macrophage ablation at 28°C.
389
Quantification of Tail Fin Regeneration. At 24, 48 and 72 hours post amputation or dpa (6,7-
and 8-days post fertilization, respectively), larvae were mounted in 2.5% methylcellulose, and
regenerating tail fins were imaged in bright field. Tail fin area was measured from the anterior
section of the ventral tail fin gap to the end of the regenerating fin, as previously described(Pei
et al., 2016), using FiJi software. Tail fin areas were calculated and expressed in square
micrometers (um^2).
396
Quantification of Tail Macrophages. Macrophages were quantified based on their location in
the tail (periphery vs CHT) (Figure 2B) in non-amputated larvae. In amputated larvae,
recruited macrophages to the site of injury were quantified. Normalization of recruited
macrophage numbers was obtained by dividing the number of recruited macrophage
subpopulation by their total number in the tail of the same larvae (periphery, CHT and
recruited macrophages) (Morales and Allende, 2019).
403
Quantification and statistical analysis. Statistical analyses were performed by the GraphPad
Prism software (Prism 9). All experiments with only two groups and one dependent variable
were compared using an unpaired t-test with Welch's correction. Two-way ANOVA with
Tukey's multiple comparison was used for this analysis. Statistical data show mean ± s.e.m.
Each dot plot value represents an independent embryo, and every experiment was conducted
three times independently. The corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) was calculated using
the formula 'Integrated density whole − (area whole embryo x mean fluorescence
background)'. This formula is loosely based on a method described for calculating cell-
fluorescence (Ulloa et al., 2021).

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428 **Authors contribution**
429
Conceptualization: R.E. and P.P.H.; Methodology and data collection: R.E., A.M., P.D. and
G.G.; Writing - Original Draft: R.E.; Writing - Review & Editing: R.E. and P.P.H.; Funding
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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Graphical abstract

Steady state

Caudal fin Injury

During embryonic stages

During early larval developmental stages

During early larval developmental stages upon ablation of definitive macrophages

A

fli1a:creERT2 X globin:loxP-**DsRed**-STOP-loxP-**GFP**

Embryos treated with either 4-OHT or EtOH for 24 hours

4-OHT

0   1   2   4   6   8   21

Time (days post fertilization)

B

EtOH   4-OHT

2 dpf

4 dpf

6 dpf

8 dpf

C

CHT: caudal hematopoietic tissue

2 dpf

4 dpf

6 dpf

8 dpf

D

21 dpf

E

DsRed
GFP

Erythrocyte fluorescence (CTCF %) in the circulation

****   ****   ****   ns   ****

2 dpf   4 dpf   6 dpf   8 dpf   21 dpf

F

DsRed
GFP

Erythrocyte fluorescence (CTCF %) in the CHT

****   ****   ****   ****

2 dpf   4 dpf   6 dpf   8 dpf

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

CHT: caudal hematopoietic tissue

A

EtOH   4-OHT

2 dpf

B

A

48 hpA

B

48 hpa

C

D

Figure 1: Tracing the contribution of definitive hematopoietic waves to the erythroid lineage in the embryo and early larvae.

(A) Scheme of the 4-OHT-inducible transgenic lines used to assess the contribution of definitive hematopoietic waves to the erythroid lineage.

(B) Fluorescent images of EtOH non-switched controls (right) and 4-OHT-induced (left) *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;globin:Switch)* embryos and larvae (2 dpf-8 dpf). Scale bars, 100 μm. Representative images are shown with quantification of erythrocytes in circulation in (E).

(C) Fluorescent images of 4-OHT-induced *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;globin:Switch)* embryos and larvae (2-8 dpf) in the CHT region. Non-switched primitive erythrocytes (right) and definitive erythrocytes (left). Scale bars, 100 μm. Representative images are shown with quantification of erythrocytes in the CHT in (F).

(D) Fluorescent images of 4-OHT-induced *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;globin:Switch)* (21 dpf) in the circulation. Scale bar, 100 μm. Non-switched primitive erythrocytes (right) and definitive erythrocytes (left). Representative images are shown with quantification of erythrocytes in the circulation in (E).

(E) Quantification of DsRed and GFP fluorescence intensity percentage in the circulation was measured over a time course of 2-21 dpf. (2 dpf n=6; 4 dpf n=4; 6 dpf n=5; 8 dpf n=4; 21 dpf n=5). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) percentage at each time point is shown. Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison was used for this analysis. ****$p ≤ 0.0001$.

(F) Quantification of DsRed and GFP fluorescence intensity percentage in the CHT was measured over a time course of 2-8 dpf. (2 dpf n=6; 4 dpf n=4; 6 dpf n=5; 8 dpf n=4). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) percentage at each time point is shown. Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison was used for this analysis. ****$p ≤ 0.0001$.

Figure 2: Tracing the contribution of definitive hematopoietic waves to macrophages in the embryo and early larvae.

(A) Scheme of the 4-OHT-inducible transgenic lines used to assess the contribution of definitive hematopoietic waves to the macrophage lineage.

(B) Fluorescent images of EtOH non-switched controls (right) and 4-OHT-induced (left) *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* embryos and larvae (2 dpf-8 dpf). Macrophages were considered as peripheral macrophages (white area) or CHT-resident macrophages (blue area). Scale bars, 100 μm. Representative images are shown with quantification of macrophages in the periphery in (D) and the CHT in (E).

(C) Fluorescent images of 4-OHT-induced *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* (16 dpf) in the periphery. Scale bar, 500 μm. Non-switched primitive macrophages (right) and definitive macrophages (left). Representative images are shown with quantification of macrophages in the periphery in (D).

(D) Quantification of DsRed and GFP macrophage number in the periphery was measured over a time course of 2-16 dpf. (2 dpf n=6; 4 dpf n=11; 6 dpf n=7; 8 dpf n=4; 16 dpf n=3). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number at each time point is shown. Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison was used for this analysis. ****$p ≤ 0.0001$.

(E) Quantification of DsRed and GFP macrophage number in the CHT was measured over a time course of 2-8 dpf. (2 dpf n=6; 4 dpf n=11; 6 dpf n=7; 8 dpf n=4). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number at each time point is shown. Two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison was used for this analysis. ****$p ≤ 0.0001$.

Figure 3: Ontogenetically distinct macrophages exhibit different migration behavior and recruitment after tissue injury during early developmental stages.

(A) Scheme of the 4-OHT-inducible transgenic lines used to assess the contribution of ontogenetically distinct hematopoietic waves to the macrophage lineage upon tissue injury.

(B) Diagram showing the amputation plan, tail fin of *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* were amputated at 2 dpf and macrophages recruitment to the site of injury was analyzed. Representative images are shown at 24 hpa. Scale bar: 100μm.

(C) Diagram showing the counting region in the larvae. Quantification of DsRed and GFP macrophage number at the site of injury at 24 hpa (n=14) and 48 hpa (n=12). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number at each time point is shown. ****$p ≤ 0.0001$.

(D) Diagram showing the amputation plan, tail fin of *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* were amputated at 5 dpf and macrophages recruitment to the site of injury was analyzed. Representative images are shown at 24 hpa. Scale bar: 100µm.

(E) Diagram showing the counting region in the larvae. Quantification of DsRed and GFP macrophage number at the site of injury at 24 hpa (n=10) and 48 hpa (n=6). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$and GFP$^+$ macrophage number at each time point is shown. ****p ≤ 0.0001.

(F) Tail fin of *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* were amputated at 5 dpf and macrophages recruitment to the site of injury was analyzed. Representative images are shown at 3 hpA. Scale bar: 100µm.

(G) Quantification of DsRed and GFP macrophage number at the site of injury at 3 hpa (n=13). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number at each time point is shown (left). Quantification was normalized by the number of total macrophages in the tail of the respective larvae (the sum of peripheral, CHT and recruited macrophages of distinct origins). **p ≤ 0.01;****p ≤ 0.0001.

Figure 4: Selective ablation of definitive macrophages does not impair tail fin regeneration in early larvae.

(A) Diagram showing the macrophage ablation and tail fin amputation plan.

(B) Switched *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* larvae were treated with DMSO as a control, or metronidazole (MTZ) to ablate definitive macrophages. Treatments were performed from 4 to 6 dpf. Representative images are shown 48 hours after treatments. Scale bars: 100 µm.

(C) Quantification of DsRed and GFP macrophage number in the tail region 48 hours after DMSO (n=9) or MTZ (n=9) treatments. Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number is shown. ****p ≤ 0.0001.

(D) Switched *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* larvae were treated with DMSO as a control, or metronidazole (MTZ) to ablate definitive macrophages. Treatments were performed from 4 to 6 dpf and tail fins were amputated at 5 dpf. Representative images are shown 24 hours after amputation. Scale bars: 100 µm.

(E) Quantification of DsRed and GFP recruited macrophage number in the tail region 24 hours after amputation. Larvae were treated at 4 dpf with either DMSO (n=11) or MTZ (n=20) for 48 hours. Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number is shown. ****p ≤ 0.0001.

(F) Switched *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* larvae were treated with DMSO as a control, or metronidazole (MTZ) to ablate definitive macrophages. Treatments were performed from 4 to 6 dpf and tail fins were amputated at 5 dpf. Representative images are shown 48 hours after amputation. Scale bars: 100 µm.

(G) Quantification of DsRed and GFP recruited macrophage number in the tail region 48 hours after amputation. Larvae were treated at 4 dpf with either DMSO (n=17) or MTZ (n=9) for 48 hours. Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number is shown. ****p ≤ 0.0001.

(H) Representative images of regenerating tail fins of larvae at 72 hours after amputation. Larvae were treated with either DMSO or MTZ. Scale bars: 100 µm.

(I) Tail fin area quantification of regenerating tail fins at 24 hpa, 48 hpa and 72 hpa in larvae treated with either DMSO or MTZ (24 hpa: DMSO n=21, MTZ n=20; 48 hpa: DMSO n=17, MTZ n=9; 72 hpa: DMSO n=14, MTZ n=9).

Sup. Figure 1: labeling strategy and the labeling efficiency of using thymocytes as a positive read out with *lck*:switch and *coro1a*:switch transgenic lines.

(A) Scheme of the 4-OHT-inducible transgenic lines used to assess the efficiency of the labelling strategy using the *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;lck:Switch)* double transgenic line.

(B) Fluorescent images of EtOH non-switched controls (right) and 4-OHT-induced (left) *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;lck:Switch)* thymocytes at 5 dpf larvae. Representative images are shown. Scale bars, 100 µm.

(C) Quantification of DsRed and GFP fluorescence intensity percentage in the thymic region was measured at 5 dpf (n=14). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) percentage is shown. ****p ≤ 0.0001.

(D) Scheme of the 4-OHT-inducible transgenic lines used to assess the efficiency of the labelling strategy using the *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;coro1a:Switch)* double transgenic line.

(E) Fluorescent images of EtOH non-switched controls (right) and 4-OHT-induced (left) *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;coro1a:Switch)* thymocytes at 3 dpf embryos. Representative images are shown. Scale bars, 100 µm.

(F) Quantification of DsRed and GFP fluorescence intensity percentage in the thymic region was measured at 3 dpf (n=8). Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ corrected total cell fluorescence (CTCF) percentage is shown. ****p ≤ 0.0001.

Supp videos related to figure 1. Fluorescence imaging of 4-OHT-induced *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;globin:Switch)* embryos and larvae over a time course of 2- 8 dpf. Videos are assembled from different Z-stacks projections at each defined developmental stage.

Supp Fig.2. Quantification of GFP+ microglia in the head region at 2 dpf embryos. related to Fig.2
(A) Fluorescent images of EtOH non-switched controls (right) and 4-OHT-induced (left) *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* head regions in the developing embryos at 2 dpf. Representative images are shown Scale bar: 100μm.
(B) Quantification of GFP+ macrophage number in the head at 2 dpf (n=6). Mean ± SEM of the and GFP$^+$ macrophage number is shown.

Supp fig 3. Ontogenetically distinct macrophages recruitment after tail injury at different developmental stages. related to fig 3
(A) tail fin of *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* were amputated at 2 dpf and macrophages recruitment to the site of injury was analyzed. Representative images are shown at 48 hpA. Scale bar: 100μm.
(B) tail fin of *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* were amputated at 5 dpf and macrophages recruitment to the site of injury was analyzed. Representative images are shown at 48 hpA. Scale bar: 100μm.
(C) Switched *Tg(fli1a:creERT2;mpeg1:Switch)* larvae were treated with DMSO as a control, or metronidazole (MTZ) to ablate definitive macrophages. Treatments were performed from 4 to 6 dpf and tail fins were amputated at 5 dpf. Representative images are shown 72 hours after amputation. Scale bars: 100 μm.
(D) Quantification of DsRed and GFP recruited macrophage number in the tail region 72 hours after amputation. Larvae were treated at 4 dpf with either DMSO (n=14) or MTZ (n=9) for 48 hours. Mean ± SEM of the DsRed$^+$ and GFP$^+$ macrophage number is shown.