The metabolic cofactor Coenzyme A enhances alternative macrophage activation via MyD88-linked signaling

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Running Title: *CoA enhances alternative activation via MyD88*

ABSTRACT

Metabolites and metabolic co-factors can shape the innate immune response, though the pathways by which these molecules adjust inflammation remain incompletely understood. Here we show that the metabolic cofactor Coenzyme A (CoA) enhances IL-4 driven alternative macrophage activation [m(IL-4)] *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Unexpectedly, we found that perturbations in intracellular CoA metabolism did not influence m(IL-4) differentiation. Rather, we discovered that exogenous CoA provides a weak TLR4 signal which primes macrophages for increased receptivity to IL-4 signals and resolution of inflammation via MyD88. Mechanistic studies revealed MyD88-linked signals prime for IL-4 responsiveness, in part, by reshaping chromatin accessibility to enhance transcription of IL-4-linked genes. The results identify CoA as a host metabolic co-factor that influences macrophage function through an extrinsic TLR4-dependent mechanism, and suggests that damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) can prime macrophages for alternative activation and resolution of inflammation.

INTRODUCTION

Macrophages are innate immune cells that execute a variety of functions such as detecting and removing foreign pathogens, instructing adaptive immune cell function, secreting cytokines, and maintaining tissue homeostasis. To fulfill these diverse roles, macrophages link the detection of distinct external cues with the engagement of specific transcriptional programs to support different functional states. This process is commonly termed macrophage activation or 'polarization'[1,2].

In vitro studies often consider macrophage polarization in two discrete states: classical (Type 1) and alternative (Type 2) activation[3]. Classical activation is associated with antimicrobial immunity, and occurs when macrophages detect pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) such as lipopolysaccharide (LPS) or damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs). Alternative activation is associated with wound healing along with allergen and helminth immunity, and is initiated by the macrophage response to interleukin-4 (IL-4) ± IL-13.

Along with transcriptional programs that support core macrophage functions such as cytokine secretion and phagocytosis, changes in cellular metabolism are also important and perhaps essential for macrophage effector function[4-6]. Upon classical activation with LPS, macrophages increase glycolysis and repurpose mitochondria away from oxidative phosphorylation and towards the generation of metabolic signals thought to amplify the pro-inflammatory response[7-10]. Conversely, alternatively activated macrophages (AAMs) display increased rates of oxidative phosphorylation and fatty acid oxidation[11,12], though evidence is mixed as to whether these changes are essential for the macrophage IL-4 response [m(IL-4)][13-15]. The mechanistic links between how increased oxidative phosphorylation and/or fatty acid oxidation could specifically support m(IL-4) are also unclear. Proposed mechanisms, though, include changes in histone acetylation from enhanced acetyl CoA production[16] as well as transcriptional changes that respond to the mitochondrial membrane potential[17]

Previous work in our laboratory has associated intracellular levels of CoA with the macrophage IL-4 response[13,18]. When trying to identify why excess concentrations of the CPT-1 inhibitor etomoxir blocked m(IL-4) but genetic ablation of either *Cpt1* or *Cpt2* did not[14,19], we discovered that excess etomoxir disrupted macrophage CoA homeostasis. In support of this as a putative mechanism, provision of exogenous CoA restored both intracellular CoA levels as well as the expression of AAM-associated cell surface markers[13]. However, precisely how CoA instructs macrophage activation was not studied.

Here we demonstrate that CoA augments AAM function via weak toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) agonism and myeloid differentiation primary response protein 88 (MyD88)-linked

signaling, a pathway commonly associated with classical or pro-inflammatory activation. In
investigating the mechanism by which exogenous CoA regulates m(IL-4), we surprisingly
discovered that CoA provision did not act either by changing intracellular CoA levels or by
enhancing known metabolic hallmarks of the IL-4 response. Rather, pharmacologic and genetic
approaches showed exogenous CoA is a weak TLR4 agonist and boosts m(IL-4) by activating
MyD88-linked signaling. MyD88 agonism was sufficient to enhance *in vitro* and *in vivo* alternative
activation and increase chromatin accessibility at the promoter regions of IL-4-target genes. The
data show that (i) CoA is a TLR4 agonist, (ii) many of the metabolic hallmarks of the m(IL-4) do
not always correlate with anti-inflammatory activation, and (iii) pro-inflammatory MyD88-linked
signaling can support AAM function and resolution of inflammation. Furthermore, the results
indicate CoA can act as a damage-associated molecular pattern (DAMP) that primes
macrophages for the resolution of inflammation by an extrinsic TLR4-dependent mechanism.
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RESULTS
Exogenous CoA provision enhances alternative macrophage activation in vitro and in vivo
Prior work had shown that exogenous CoA could rescue the inhibition of m(IL-4) by
etomoxir, but the mechanisms underlying this effect were not defined. To better understand how
exogenous CoA influenced alternative macrophage activation, mouse bone marrow-derived
macrophages (BMDMs) were treated with IL-4 alone or in combination with CoA for 48 hr. Gene
expression studies revealed that CoA enhanced the expression of multiple IL-4-associated genes,
including *Mgl2, Pdcd1gl2, Fizz1, Chil4, Ccl8, Arg1, and Mrc1* (Figure 1a and Supplemental Fig
1a)[17,20-22]. Flow cytometry analysis revealed a similar relationship when measuring IL-4-linked cell
surface marker expression. CoA increased the mean fluorescence intensity of CD206 and CD301,
as well as the frequency of CD206+/CD71+ and CD206+/CD301+ BMDMs (Figs. 1b-d). This effect
was observed with CoA concentrations as low as 62.5μM (Supplemental Fig. S1b). Importantly,
CoA itself did not stimulate the expression of IL-4-associated genes or cell surface markers (Figs.
1a-d), demonstrating it is not an IL-4 receptor agonist but rather acts cooperatively to enhance
AAM differentiation.
Mannose receptor activity is essential for the initiation of the T_H2 response during the
helminth infection[23,24]. Given the observed increase in its gene (*Mrc1*) and protein (CD206)
expression, we measured the effect of exogenous CoA on activity of the mannose receptor. As
expected, high-content imaging revealed CoA enhanced the cellular uptake of FITC-dextran, a
fluorescently labeled polysaccharide and mannose receptor ligand[25] (Figs. 1e&f).

To assess whether CoA could enhance alternative activation *in vivo,* mice were injected
with IL-4 complex (IL-4c) i.p. in the presence or absence of CoA (40 mg/kg). After one day, the
peritoneum was flushed and the frequency of CD206^{+}/CD71^{+} peritoneal macrophages assessed.
Indeed, CoA enhanced the fraction of AAMs co-expressing CD206 and CD71 (Figure 1g),
demonstrating that it enhances IL-4-mediated AAM differentiation *in vitro* and *in vivo.*

CoA does not augment alternative macrophage activation by enhancing metabolic hallmarks of
M(IL-4)

We next sought to identify the mechanism by which CoA enhances m(IL-4). Several
metabolic hallmarks of AAMs require CoA as a necessary cofactor, including enhanced
mitochondrial respiratory capacity[26-28], mitochondrial pyruvate oxidation[12,29], and *de novo* lipid
synthesis[30,31]. As such, we hypothesized that addition of exogenous CoA enhanced the IL-4
response by increasing intracellular CoA levels to support flux through these metabolic
pathways[32-34].

We first confirmed that exogenously added CoA could expand the cellular CoA pool.
Supplementing culture medium with CoA increased the steady-state abundance of both
intracellular CoA and acetyl CoA (Fig. 2a). Next, we investigated whether CoA provision
enhanced IL-4-driven increases in respiration and glycolysis induced by IL-4[12,26,30]. Similar to
other reports, we observed increases in ATP-linked respiration, maximal respiratory capacity, and
glycolysis with IL-4. However, addition of CoA did not further augment these metabolic changes,
and even limited the maximal respiratory capacity of AAMs (Figs. 2b-d).

After determining that CoA does not enhance alternative macrophage activation via an
expansion of bioenergetic capacity, we then examined whether CoA affected other IL-4-linked
metabolic alterations such as increased abundance of TCA cycle metabolites[29] or enhanced
pyruvate oxidation[12], glutamine oxidation[29], and *de novo* lipogenesis[31]. Indeed, we reproduced
previous reports that show IL-4 increases steady-state levels of select TCA cycle metabolites
(Figs. 2e), enrichment from glucose into the TCA cycle (Fig. 2f), and *de novo* lipid synthesis (Fig.
2g). However, as before, addition of CoA did not further increase these metabolic changes (Figs.
2e-g, S2a-c), and even blocked IL-4-stimulated increases in lipogenesis (Figs. 2g, S2d). As such,
the results show exogenous CoA augments alternative activation by a mechanism discrete from
reprogramming metabolism.

Alterations in intracellular CoA levels are not sufficient to alter M(IL-4)

We then questioned whether changes in intracellular CoA levels, in fact, shape the IL-4

response. To answer this, we utilized two compounds with opposing impacts on intracellular CoA

levels. To decrease steady-state CoA levels, we treated IL-4-stimulated BMDMs with

cyclopropane carboxylic acid (CPCA), which decreases the abundance of "free" CoA as its

cognate thioester CPC-CoA is formed[18,35] (Fig. 2h). To increase steady-state CoA levels, we

treated IL-4-polarized BMDMs with PZ-2891, a pantothenate kinase agonist which relieves

inhibition of CoA biosynthesis[36] (Fig. 2h). As expected, CPCA decreased intracellular levels of

CoA and acetyl CoA, while PZ-2891 increased their abundance (Fig. 2i, S2e). Surprisingly,

despite altering steady-state intracellular CoA levels, neither compound impacted alternative

activation (Fig. 2j). The results show that although exogenous CoA provision augments the

macrophage IL-4 response, the mechanism cannot be attributed to changing intracellular levels

of CoA and acetyl CoA.

Exogenous CoA induces a macrophage pro-inflammatory response in vitro and in vivo

Neither metabolic alterations nor intracellular CoA levels could explain why CoA provision

enhanced m(IL-4). Therefore, we sought a more complete understanding of how CoA impacts the

transcriptome of AAMs by conducting bulk RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) on naïve macrophages

alongside those that were stimulated with either IL-4 or IL-4 with CoA. As expected, cells

stimulated only with IL-4 increased the expression of genes associated with alternative activation

and decreased expression of genes associated with classical activation relative to vehicle

controls. In line with qPCR studies (Fig. 1a), CoA provision further increased the expression of

IL-4-linked genes associated with alternative activation (Fig. 3a, *right*). Unexpectedly, however,

CoA addition also increased the expression of genes associated with classical activation that

were not associated with the IL-4 response (Fig. 3a, *right*). Subsequent Gene Set Enrichment

Analysis (GSEA) showed that genes associated with TLR signaling pathways were upregulated

upon co-treatment with CoA and IL-4 (Fig. 3b).

This unbiased approach suggested that CoA may elicit a pro-inflammatory response in

BMDMs along with its ability to enhance m(IL-4). To confirm this, we assessed whether CoA itself

could induce expression of pro-inflammatory genes in the absence of IL-4. Indeed, exogenous

CoA induced expression of *Il1b*, *Tnf*, *Nos2*, and *Irg1* (Fig. 3c), genes linked to the TLR adaptor

protein MyD88, as well as the interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) *Mx1* (Fig. 3d). As *Irg1* encodes

the enzyme generating the anti-microbial metabolite itaconate, we also observed a ~10-fold

increase in itaconate synthesis upon CoA provision (Fig. 3e). Lastly, i.p. administration of CoA in

mice increased expression of *Il1b* and *Tnf* in peritoneal leukocytes and increased the abundance

of IL-1B, TNF-α, IL-6, and CXCL1 in the peritoneal lavage fluid (Figure 3f&g). Taken together, the

results demonstrate that CoA, in addition to enhancing the IL-4 response, elicits a pro-

inflammatory response *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

CoA is a weak TLR4 agonist

199   We then hypothesized that CoA could act as an agonist for a specific TLR. Since CoA

stimulated the expression of multiple pro-inflammatory genes linked to MyD88 – a signaling

adaptor protein necessary for full activation of several murine toll-like receptors[37] (Fig. 3c) – we

examined whether the pro-inflammatory response from CoA could persist in BMDMs lacking

MyD88. BMDMs harvested from *Myd88*^{-/-} mice significantly reduced the expression of pro-

inflammatory genes induced by CoA, but marginal expression of *Il1b, Tnfa*, and *Irg1* persisted

(Fig. 4a). The result suggested both MyD88-dependent and -independent signaling cascades

underlie the pro-inflammatory response.

207   We therefore hypothesized that CoA was a TLR4 agonist. Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4)

elicits its inflammatory response by activating both MyD88-dependent and -independent signaling

arms[38]. The MyD88-dependent pathway of TLR4 causes increased expression of cytokines such

as *Il1b*[39], while the TIR-domain-containing adapter-inducing interferon-β (TRIF) pathway is

independent of MyD88 and increases expression of ISGs and production of type 1 interferons[40,41].

Indeed, previous results showed CoA supplementation stimulated expression of the ISG *Mx1*

(Fig. 3d).

214   To determine if CoA is a TLR4 agonist, we utilized a reporter cell line which secretes

alkaline phosphatase in response to TLR agonism[42]. Addition of CoA activated a cell line

expressing human TLR4 (hTLR4) (Fig. 4b, c) but no effect was observed in cells expressing

hTLR2 or hTLR7, other Myd88-linked TLRs (Fig. 4c, S3a). Interpolation of an LPS standard curve

showed that 1mM CoA had a comparable effect to 0.1ng/mL LPS (Fig. 4b), indicating CoA is a

relatively weak TLR4 agonist. BMDMs harvested from *Tlr4*^{-/-} mice further confirmed that CoA acts

via TLR4, as CoA did not increase expression of pro-inflammatory genes (Fig. 4d) or production

or itaconate (Fig. 4e) in TLR4-deficient macrophages.

222   It was next essential to confirm that the pro-inflammatory response was due to CoA itself

rather than an impurity from the >85% pure, yeast-derived CoA used in this study. In support of a

direct effect of CoA, cells treated with 99% pure, synthetically-derived CoA elicited a more potent

pro-inflammatory response relative to biologically-derived CoA (Fig. S3b,c). Furthermore, both

the yeast-derived and synthetically-derived CoA were free of endotoxin as determined by a

Limulus test (Fig. S3d). In total, the data demonstrate that CoA directly induces an inflammatory
response by acting as a weak TLR4 agonist.
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Myd88-linked TLR agonists enhance the IL-4 response
Next, we asked which signaling cascade downstream of TLR4 was mediating the
enhanced AAM differentiation. Although previous studies have shown that exposure to LPS and
interferon gamma (IFN-γ) inhibits the acquisition of m(IL-4)[26,43], much of this work has used high
concentrations of LPS that correspond to effects that are orders of magnitude greater than that of
CoA (calibrated to 0.1 ng/mL; Fig. 4b) and activate both MyD88 and TRIF.
We therefore activated macrophages with IL-4 and other TLR ligands that activate either
MyD88- or TRIF-dependent signaling. Co-treatment with the MyD88-linked TLR2 agonist
Pam3CSK4 (Pam3) increased the population of CD206$^+$/CD301$^+$ BMDMs, whereas this
population was decreased upon co-treatment with the TRIF-linked TLR3 agonist Poly (I:C) (Figs.
5a&b). We also stimulated cells with IL-4 in combination with 0.1ng/mL LPS, and indeed observed
increased expression of IL-4 dependent cell-surface markers (Figs. 5a&b). The TLR5 agonist
flagellin and the TLR7 agonist imiquimod, both of which are upstream of MyD88, also increased
expression of these IL-4-linked cell surface markers.
Indeed, LPS (0.1 ng/mL) and Pam3 also increased expression of IL-4-associated genes
(Fig. 5c) and mannose receptor activity (Fig. 5d). As with cell surface marker expression, Poly
(I:C) co-treatment lowered the expression of IL-4-stimulated genes. To definitively show that
MyD88-linked signaling could affect AAM differentiation, we examined whether a low
concentration of LPS or Pam3 could enhance the IL-4 response in the absence of MyD88. As
expected, the effect of LPS and Pam3 on IL-4-associated cell-surface markers (Fig. 5e) and
genes (Fig. 5f) was lost in BMDMs isolated from *Myd88$^{-/-}$* mice. Unexpectedly, both CoA and
imiquimod still enhanced the IL-4 response even in the absence of MyD88 (Fig. S4). However,
both compounds contain adenine-like moieties, and may interact with additional plasma
membrane receptors that affect the IL-4 response independently of MyD88-linked signaling.
Lastly, we determined whether MyD88 agonists could improve M(IL-4) *in vivo* using two
independent approaches. First, intraperitoneal injections of either 125µg of LPS or 25µg Pam3
prior to IL-4 complex increased the number of CD206$^+$/CD301$^+$ cells harvested from the peritoneal
cavity, whereas no difference was observed with Poly I:C. (Fig. 5g). As further proof-of-concept,
we leveraged a tumor model where alternative macrophage activation supports the growth of
implanted B16 melanoma tumors[15,44]. In line with our previous results, co-treatment of IL-4-
stimulated BMDMs with Pam3 resulted in significantly larger tumors when mixed with B16

melanoma cells relative to IL-4 alone (Fig. 5h). In total, these results indicate that activation of the
MyD88 pathway enhances alternative macrophage activation *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

MyD88 alters the chromatin accessibility of alternatively activated macrophages

Recent studies have highlighted the critical role of epigenetic remodeling when
macrophages are exposed to a mix of pro- and anti-inflammatory ligands[45,46]. We therefore
hypothesized that one mechanism by which MyD88 signaling could augment m(IL-4) was by
increasing chromatin accessibility in the promoter regions of IL-4 target genes. To test this, we
conducted an Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin with high-throughput sequencing
(ATAC-seq) analysis on IL-4-stimulated BMDMs with or without co-stimulation with Pam3. We
first generated a list of the 10,878 genomic regions which had increased accessibility following
IL-4 stimulation [$\log_2$ fold change (LFC) >1, false discovery rate (FDR) <0.01] relative to vehicle
controls. These regions were localized mainly in intergenic and intronic regions (Fig. 6a, S5a).

We next assessed whether these IL-4-induced regions had increased accessibility upon
co-treatment with Pam3 by creating 10 equal bins in increasing order of LFC values (Fig. 6a,
S5b). The analysis revealed over 30% of the IL-4-induced regions were more accessible with
TLR2 co-treatment (Bins 8-10; Fig. 6b). To identify potential transcription factors that may mediate
the ability of MyD88 to increase alternative activation, we then conducted HOMER transcription
factor motif analysis[47]. The analysis indicated that these IL-4-induced regions with increased
accessibility following Pam3 co-treatment (Bins 8-10) were enriched for STAT6 and Jun/AP-1
binding motifs (Fig. 6b). Moreover, when we expanded our analysis to consider all regions
significantly increased by Pam3 (LFC >0.5 and FDR <.05, n = 1766), we noted that these regions
were enriched with motifs for the AP-1 subunit *Fra1*, *Stat6* and *Egr2*. (Fig. 6c). Consistent with
our hypothesis, the promoter regions of *Chil4* and *Ccl8,* genes we previously associated with the
IL-4 response (Fig. 1a), were significantly more accessible upon exposure to Pam3 (Fig. 6d).
Additionally, both had significantly more accessible Jun/AP-1 binding motifs following Pam3 co-
treatment. Other genes associated with alternative activation such as *Pdcd1gl2* and *Arg1* also
had consistent, though not statistically significant, increases in accessibility of their promoter
regions following Pam3 co-treatment (Fig. S5c). In total, ATAC-Seq analysis shows that MyD88
activation regulates chromatin accessibility in AAMs. Further, the data identify the Jun/AP-1 family
of transcription factors as candidates that may mediate the synergy between the MyD88 pathway
and the IL-4 response.

DISCUSSION

Our results demonstrate that the ubiquitous metabolic cofactor CoA enhances m(IL-4) in

in vitro and *in vivo*. Genetic and pharmacologic proof-of-concept studies show, surprisingly, that

CoA is a TLR4 agonist and augments alternative activation via MyD88-linked signaling. This

discovery and associated data have implications for the metabolic instruction of alternative

macrophage activation, the plasticity of macrophage polarization, and the breadth of intracellular

metabolites and co-factors that can act as DAMPs.

Unexpectedly, addition of exogenous CoA did not augment alternative activation by

increasing flux through metabolic pathways linked with m(IL-4). In fact, hallmarks of the IL-4

response such as increased respiratory capacity[17,26,27] and *de novo* lipid synthesis[31] were

significantly reduced by CoA provision. In fact, other work using exogenously added

prostaglandins shows AAM markers can further increase beyond what is induced by IL-4 while

simultaneously decreasing mitochondrial oxidative metabolism[17]. The result suggests there is

flexibility in the metabolic phenotypes that can support alternative macrophage activation, and

provides an additional data point to the mixed results regarding whether healthy oxidative

phosphorylation is obligatory for m(IL-4)[13,27].

Additionally, gain- and loss-of-function experiments with chemical modulators of

intracellular CoA levels revealed that altering CoA levels do not adjust alternative macrophage

activation. The rationale for examining this hypothesis arose from studying the effects of the CPT-

1 inhibitor etomoxir. High, off-target concentrations of the drug block the macrophage IL-4

response and deplete intracellular CoA, and both phenotypes were rescued upon addition of

exogenous CoA[13]. The findings presented here, however, show the link between intracellular CoA

levels and alternative macrophage activation is likely associative, and suggest the effects of high

concentrations of etomoxir are rescued by MyD88-linked signaling rather than restoration of

steady-state CoA levels. Although several independent lines of evidence show that etomoxir

blocks the IL-4 response via a mechanism independent of fatty acid oxidation[13-15,48,49] it remains

unclear why high concentrations of this lipophilic, reactive epoxide block alternative activation.

Various cellular metabolites, including lipids, ATP, and uric acid can function as DAMPs

to elicit an *in vitro* pro-inflammatory response[50-52]. Others, such as the complex lipid prostaglandin

E2 and adenosine, can enhance alternative activation[17,53]. Here we show that CoA is a putative

DAMP that primes macrophages for alternative activation and supports resolution via extrinsic,

weak agonism of pro-inflammatory TLR4 and MyD88 signaling.

This aligns with recent reports that show CoA increases the expression of pro-

inflammatory genes such as *Il1b*, *Tnf* and *Nos2* in mouse and human macrophages, an effect

lost in mice with simultaneous genetic ablation of TLR2, TLR4, and the TLR chaperone protein

Uncb93b1[54]. The data presented here that CoA itself is a TLR4 agonist likely explains the effect,

rather than CoA having an indirect effect on the pro-inflammatory response via altered

mitochondrial metabolism. As CoA consists of an adenosine diphosphate group linked to a

phosphopantetheine moiety[32], CoA is chemically distinct from many well characterized TLR4

agonists[55]. Interestingly, nucleoside analogues such as imiquimod (a guanosine analogue) and

CL264 (an adenine analogue) are potent TLR7/8 agonists. However, CoA did not activate hTLR7

reporter cells, and additional work is required to understand the structural specificity that enables

CoA to specifically activate TLR4.

TLR4 is well characterized for its ability to respond to ligands that are derived from

microbes, and its role in sensing endogenous ligands is increasingly appreciated[56]. Release of

intracellular proteins including tenascin 1 and high-mobility group box 1 (HMGB1) can induce a

TLR4-dependent inflammatory response[42,57,58], but the capacity for intracellular metabolites and

metabolic co-factors to activate TLR4 is less established[59]. Here we show with genetic and

pharmacologic proof-of-concept studies that CoA is an endogenous metabolic co-factor that can

extrinsically activate TLR4 at physiologically relevant concentrations. Intracellular CoA

concentrations can reach over 100 µM in the cytosol and up to 5 mM in the mitochondrial

matrix[32,34,60]. As such, cell injury or death could release sufficient CoA to trigger a TLR4-mediated

inflammatory response in nearby innate immune cells, particularly in regions where DAMPs can

accumulate such as poorly vascularized areas. Other intracellular metabolites function as DAMPs

following their cell death-induced release[61,62], and given that CoA contains an ADP moiety, the

findings are broadly consistent with the finding that adenosine can enhance the macrophage IL-

4 response via the A2 adenosine receptor[53].

Although macrophage polarization is often bifurcated into classical or alternative

activation, the physiological and pathological induction of an innate immune response involves

heterogeneity in activation signals and functional state[3,63,64]. For example, healing processes such

as muscle and skin repair are characterized by both an initial influx of pro-inflammatory

macrophages to stem infection, as well as a subsequent increase in the presence of alternatively

activated macrophages to promote resolution and tissue repair[65,66]. This plasticity can be

important for proper function. For example, inhibition of the initial pro-inflammatory response

dampens the future expression of alternative activation markers and decreases wound healing[67].

Cooperativity between classical and alternative macrophage activation has been

established for more than 20 years, with studies demonstrating that IL-4 can enhance the

expression of LPS-induced pro-inflammatory genes [68]. Recent studies have corroborated these

findings by demonstrating that IL-4 epigenetically primes macrophages to enhance the transcriptional response to pro-inflammatory stimuli[46]. Indeed, our work suggests that pro-inflammatory MyD88-linked signaling enhances the IL-4 response, at least in part, by altering chromatin accessibility.

Recent work provides strong support that MyD88-linked signaling via TLR4 agonism is a plausible mechanism by which CoA can augment m(IL-4)[69-72]. For example, the fungal effector protein CLP-1, a TLR4 agonist, fails to enhance alternative activation in MyD88$^{-/-}$ BMDMs. Moreover, other work has associated AAMs with IL-33[73], which is upstream of MyD88. Others have also shown that interferon-β decreases the expression of cell surface markers and genes associated with alternative activation[45,74,75], further supporting our findings that TLR4 agonism by CoA enhances m(IL-4) via MyD88 rather than TRIF. The ATAC-Seq analysis presented here furthers this work by identifying Jun/AP-1 signaling as a candidate pathway downstream of MyD88 that may mediate the enhanced IL-4 response.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

All animal protocols and procedures were approved and performed in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and the UCLA Animal Research Committee (ARC).

Reagents

Unless otherwise specified, yeast-derived CoA that was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (C4780; ≥85% purity) was used. Synthetic CoA was purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (870700P; >99% purity). IL-4 was purchased from PeproTech (214-14), and IL-4-reactive monoclonal antibodies for *in vivo* studies (IL-4 MAb) were purchased from BioXCell (BE0045). All TLR agonists were purchased from Invivogen: Pam3CSK4 (TLR2 ligand; tlrl-pms), Poly(I:C) (TLR3 ligand; tlrl-pic), LPS (TLR4 ligand; tlrl-smlps), Flagellin (TLR5 ligand; tlrl-stfla), and imiquimod (TLR7 agonist; tlrl-imqs-1).

Isolation and differentiation of mouse BMDMs

BMDMs from wild-type (000664), *Myd88*$^{-/-}$ (009088), and *Tlr4*$^{-/-}$ (029015) mice were isolated as previously described from male mice aged between 6-12 weeks [76]. Briefly, bone marrow cells were first isolated by flushing the femurs and tibiae with phosphate buffered saline

(PBS). Cells were then pelleted by centrifugation at 365g for 7 mins at room temperature.
Following the removal of red blood cells with RBC Lysis Buffer (Sigma, R7757) and centrifugation,
bone marrow cells were differentiated for 6 days at 37°C in a humidified 5% CO_2 incubator in
'BMDM differentiation medium'. BMDM differentiation medium consisted of DMEM (Gibco
#11965) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS; Hyclone), 2mM L-glutamine,
500µM sodium pyruvate, 100 units/mL, 100 mg/mL penicillin/streptomycin,. Additionally, the
medium was further supplemented 10% (v/v) with the conditioned medium from CMG-14-12 cells
as a source of macrophage colony stimulate factor (M-CSF).
404
In vitro BMDM activation and stimulation of Toll-like receptors
After six days of differentiation, BMDMs were scraped with a cell lifter, counted, and
replated at the listed cell densities into the relevant assay format (e.g., six-well tissue culture dish,
Seahorse XF96-well plate, etc.) in differentiation medium. After two days, cells were stimulated
with compounds as indicated below and in the figure legends. Unless otherwise specified, all
measurements of the macrophage IL-4 response were conducted 48 hr. after treatment. When
assessing the effect of CoA on the pro-inflammatory response, BMDMs were treated for 4 hr.
(gene expression) or 24 hr. (itaconate abundance). Unless otherwise indicated in the figures and
legends, effector compounds were used at the following concentrations alongside matched
vehicle controls: IL-4 (20 ng/mL), CoA (1 mM), Pam3CSK4 (5 ng/mL), Poly(I:C) (1µg/mL), LPS
(0.1 ng/mL), flagellin (100ng/mL), and imiquimod (10µM).
416
In vivo activation of peritoneal macrophages
To induce alternative activation _in vivo_, mice were treated with an IL-4 complex (IL-4c)
consisting of a 2:1 molar ratio of IL-4 and anti-IL-4 mAb or PBS as a control. Each IL-4c-treated
mouse received 5µg IL-4 and 25µg of anti-IL-4 mAb. To test the effect of CoA on alternative
activation _in vivo_ (Fig. 1g), mice were pretreated with an injection of either PBS or 40 mg/kg CoA
for 6 hr. prior to IL-4c administration according to the scheme in the figure. After 24 hr. peritoneal
macrophages were collected by rinsing the peritoneal cavity with 5mL PBS, and alternative
activation markers were assessed using flow cytometry.
To determine if CoA could induce a pro-inflammatory response _in vivo_ (Figs. 3f&g), mice
were treated with either PBS or 40 mg/kg CoA for 6 hr. After treatment, peritoneal macrophages
were collected by rinsing the peritoneal cavity with 5mL of PBS. Cells were then pelleted, with
supernatant used to measure cytokine levels with the LEGENDplex multiplex ELISA kit
(Biolegend, 740848), while gene expression was measured in the peritoneal exudate cells..

To determine if TLR agonists could enhance the IL-4 response of peritoneal macrophages

in vivo (Fig. 5g), Mice were treated with either PBS or the indicated TLR agonist at the following

doses: Pam3CSK4 (50µg), Poly:IC (200µg), or LPS (125µg). After 24 hr. IL-4c was administered

as before, and the number of cells double-positive for CD206 and CD301 was assessed by flow

cytometry.

B16 melanoma growth

Prior to *in vivo* co-injection, *in vitro* BMDMs were either stimulated with vehicle control, IL-4 , or

IL-4 in combination with Pam3CSK4 for 48 hrs. On the day of implantation, a 1:1 mixture of

1×10^5 B16-F10 cells and 1×10^5 BMDMs were suspended in PBS and injected into the rear right

flanks of 12 week old Male C57BL/6 mice[15]. Mice were sacrificed 20 days post injection and

subcutaneous tumors were excised, blotted dry, and weighed.

Gene expression analysis

Gene transcript levels were measured using qPCR. On Day 6 of differentiation, BMDMs

were seeded at 3.0 $\times 10^5$ cells/well in 12-well plates. After activating cells with the concentrations

and durations as described earlier, RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, 74106)

and cDNA was synthesized using high-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied

Biosystems, 4368814) according to the manufacturers' protocol. qPCR was performed with

PowerUp SYBR green master mix (Applied Biosystems, A25743) on a QuantStudio 5 RT-PCR

(Applied Biosystems). Relative gene expression values were calculated using the delta-delta Ct

method, with the ribosomal protein *Rplp0* used as a control for normalization.

Flow cytometric analysis

Cell surface marker expression was measured using flow cytometry. On Day 6 of

differentiation, BMDMs were seeded at 3.0 $\times 10^5$ cells/well in 12-well plates. After activating cells

with the concentrations and durations as described earlier, BMDMs were detached by scraping

in 450µL of Accutase. Cells were then washed with FACS buffer (PBS+ 2% (v/v) FBS with 1mM

EDTA) and incubated with a 1:500 dilution of TruStain FCX (Biolegend, 101320) for 5 minutes.

Cells were next stained for 30 mins on ice with a 1:300 dilution of antibodies raised against mouse

CD206 (Biolegend,141710), CD301(Biorad, MCA2392A647T), or CD71(Biolegend, 113812).

Cells were then washed and resuspended in FACS buffer containing 1 µg/mL DAPI (Invitrogen,

D1306) for viability analysis, and data was captured on an Attune NXT flow cytometer. Data were

analyzed using FlowJo X software.

Endocytosis assay

465   Following differentiation, BMDMs were seeded in black-walled 96-well plates at 3 x10^4

cells/well for high-content imaging to quantify uptake of FITC-dextran. 48 hr. after compound

treatment, medium was replaced with high-glucose DMEM containing 1mg/mL FITC-dextran

(Sigma, FD40) and 10ng/mL Hoechst 33342. Following a 1hr. incubation at 37°C, cells were

washed twice with PBS and fixed with 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS. Images were

captured with a PerkinElmer Operetta, and FITC-positive foci per cell was calculated using

Harmony software.

Quantification of short-chain acyl CoAs

474   Quantification of acyl CoAs was conducted according to previously established methods[18]

. Following differentiation, BMDMs were seeded in 10cm^2 dishes at 5 x10^6 cells/dish. Following

48hr. stimulation, cells were rinsed twice with ice-cold PBS, scraped into 1.5mL microfuge tubes

and pelleted via centrifugation at 4°C . 200µL of an ice-cold extraction solution [2.5% (w/v) 5-

sulfosalicylic acid (SSA) along with 1µM Crotonoyl CoA as an internal standard] was added to

each cell pellet and subsequently vortexed.   Samples were centrifuged at 18,000g for 15 min at

4°C. Supernatants containing short-chain acyl CoAs were then removed and transferred to glass

LC-MS vials for analysis as is thoroughly described elsewhere[18] .

Seahorse XF Analysis

484   After 6 days of differentiation, BMDMs were plated at 3.0 x 10^4 cells/well in XF96 plates.

Following 48 hr. of treatment with compounds under investigation, respirometry assays were

conducted with an Agilent Seahorse XFe96 Analyzer. Oligomycin (2 µM), two injections of FCCP

(750 nM each), and rotenone (200 nM) with antimycin A (1 µM) were added acutely to the wells,

and respiratory parameters calculated according to best practices[77,78]. Measurements were

conducted in unbuffered DMEM (Sigma #5030) supplemented with 5 mM HEPES, 8 mM glucose,

2 mM glutamine, and 2 mM pyruvate. Lactate efflux was measured by correcting rates of

extracellular acidification for microplate sensor coverage and confounding respiratory

acidification[79].

Metabolomics and stable isotope tracing of polar metabolites

494   After 6 days of differentiation, BMDMs were plated at 1 x10^6 cells/well in 6-well dishes.

Cells were then stimulated in medium where either glucose or glutamine was replaced with

uniformly labeled $^{13}C_6$-glucose (CLM-1396) or uniformly labeled $^{13}C_5$-glutamine (CLM-1822). After

48 hr., cells were harvested and extracted for GC/MS using established methods, with all steps

conducted on ice[80]. Briefly, cell plates were washed twice with 0.9% (w/v) NaCl and samples were

extracted with 500 μL methanol, 200 μL water containing 1 μg of norvaline (internal standard),

and 500 μL chloroform. Samples were vortexed for 1 min and spun at 10,000 g for 5 min at 4°C,

and the aqueous layers containing the polar metabolites were transferred to GC/MS sample vials

and dried overnight using a refrigerated CentriVap. Once dry, the samples were resuspended in

20 μL of 2% (w/v) methoxyamine in pyridine and incubated at 37°C for 45 minutes. This was

followed by addition of 20 μL of MTBSTFA + 1% TBDMS (N-tert-Butyldimethylsilyl-N-

methyltrifluoroacetamide with 1% tertButyldimethylchlorosilane). Following a second 45-minute

incubation at 37°C, samples were run as previously described [80]. Analysis was conducted using

Agilent MassHunter software, and stable isotope tracing data was corrected for natural

abundance of heavy isotopes with FluxFix software using a reference set of unlabeled metabolite

standards [81].

De novo lipogenesis

Briefly, after 6 days of differentiation, BMDMs were plated at 1 x10^5 cells/ well in 24-well

dishes Cells were stimulated in medium in which unlabeled glucose was replaced with 10mM

uniformly labeled $^{13}C_6$-glucose. Extraction of fatty acids, quantification of *de novo* synthesis, and

normalization to cell number was conducted using an Agilent 5975C mass spectrometer coupled

to a 7890 gas chromatograph as previously described[76,82].

HEK-Blue hTLR reporter assays

HEK-Blue reporter cells expressing either human TLR2 (hkb-htlr2), hTLR4 (hkb-htlr4), or

hTLR7 (hkb-htlr7v2) were purchased from InvivoGen and maintained according to the

manufacturer's instructions. To establish concentration-response curves, 2.5 x 10^3 reporter cells

were resuspended in HEK-Blue detection medium (Invivogen, hb-det2) in 96-well plates and

stimulated with the appropriate agonist (Pam3CSK4: 0.6pg/mL to 1 μg/mL; LPS: 0.6pg/mL to 1

μg/mL; CL307: 0.6pg/mL to 1 μg/mL). Following a 24hr. incubation, secreted alkaline

phosphatase reporter activity was determined by assessing OD_{630} with a plate reader. The OD_{630}

of cells treated with 1 mM CoA was compared relative to positive controls. Calibration cuves to

fit empirical data were generated using GraphPad Prism software.

ATAC-Seq library prep

ATAC-seq libraries were produced by the Applied Genomics, Computation and Translational Core

Facility at Cedars Sinai. Briefly 50,000 BMDMs per sample were lysed to collect nuclei and treated

with Tn5 transposase (Illumina) for 30 min at 37°C with gentle agitation. The DNA was isolated

with DNA Clean & Concentrator Kit (Zymo) and PCR amplified and barcoded with NEBNext High-

Fidelity PCR Mix (New England Biolabs) and unique dual indexes (Illumina). The ATAC-seq

library amplification was confirmed by real-time PCR, and additional barcoding PCR cycles were

added as necessary while avoiding overamplification. Amplified ATAC-seq libraries were purified

with DNA Clean & Concentrator Kit (Zymo). The purified libraries were quantified with Kapa

Library Quant Kit (KAPA Biosystems) and quality assessed on a 4200 TapeStation System

(Agilent). The libraries were pooled based on molar concentrations and sequenced on a HiSeq

4000 platform (paired end, 100 bp).

ATAC-Seq analysis

The peaks for all the ATAC-seq samples were used to generate a single reference peak file, and

the number of reads that fell into each peak was counted using deeptools multiBamSummary[83].

EdgeR[84] was used to determine the IL-4 significantly induced regions by applying a cutoff FDR

<0.01 and LFC > 1 of triplicate data upon IL-4 stimulation on WT BMDMs and to determine the

Pam3CSK4 co-treatment significant regions by applying a cutoff FDR <0.05 and LFC > 0.5.

Analysis of transcription factor motif enrichment was performed using findMotifsGenome function

in the HOMER suite[47], using all detected peaks as background. Reads were normalized by RPKM.

Data were visualized with ggplot2 or the pheatmap packages in R.

RNA-Seq library prep and quantification

RNA sequencing libraries were produced by the Technology Center for Genomics &

Bioinformatics at UCLA. Isolation of RNA was performed using Qiagen RNeasy Mini kit and RNA

libraries were prepared with KAPA stranded mRNA-Seq kit. High throughput sequencing was

performed on Illumina NovaSeq 6000 (paired end, 2x150bp) targeting 100 million reads per

sample. Demultiplexing was performed with Illumina Bcl2fastq v2.19.1. Gene expression

quantification from the resulting fastqs was performed using Salmon v1.21.1 in mapping-based

mode (Patro et al. 2017). Reads were selectively aligned to the GENCODE vM25 mouse

reference transcriptome with corrections for sequence-specific and GC content biases.

RNA-Seq analysis

Raw gene count data were analyzed using the R package DESeq2 v1.22.2[85] for library size
normalization and differential expression analysis. For differential expression results, genes with
adjusted p-values below 0.01 and log2 fold changes above 1 or below -1 were deemed significant.
For visualization in volcano plots, log2 fold changes above 10 or below -10 were set to 10 and -
10 respectively. Gene set enrichment analysis[86] was performed using the R package FGSEA
v1.15.0[87] based on gene lists ranked by the Wald statistic from differential expression results.
Genesets corresponding to the mouse transcriptome from KEGG, REACTOME, and BIOCARTA
within the Molecular Signatures Database[88] were accessed using the R package msigdbr v7.1.1[89]
Genesets with adjusted p-values below 0.05 were deemed significant.
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Statistical analysis

All statistical parameters, including the number of biological replicates (n), can be found
in the figure legends. Statistical analyses were performed using Graph Pad Prism 5 software.
Data are presented as the mean ± standard deviation unless otherwise specified. Individual
pairwise comparisons were performed using two-tailed Student's t-test. For analysis involving
more than two groups, data were analyzed by repeated measures ANOVA followed by Dunnett's
post-hoc multiple comparisons tests (compared against vehicle controls unless otherwise
specified). Data were assumed to follow a normal distribution (no tests were performed). Values
denoted as follows were considered statistically significant: *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$.
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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
Conceptualization: AEJ, SJB, ASD; Data curation: AEJ, AR, NI, CC, NAB, ASD; Formal analysis:
AEJ, AR, NI, CC, NAB, ASD; Funding acquisition: TGG, AH, SJB, ASD; Investigation: AEJ, AR,
NI, CC, NAB, ABB, WYH, AS, ARB, AAC; Methodology: AEJ, CC, NAB, AS, ASD; Project
administration: SJB, ASD; Resources: TGG, AH, SJB, ASD; Supervision: AEJ, SJB, ASD ; Writing
- original draft: AEJ, ASD; Writing - review & editing: All authors
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
ASD is supported by National Institutes of Health (NIH) Grant R35GM138003, the W.M. Keck
Foundation (995337), and the Agilent Early Career Professor Award. SJB is supported by the NIH
Grants P01HL146358 and R01HL157710. AEJ was supported by the UCLA Tumor Cell Biology
Training Program T32 CA009056. ABB is supported by the UCLA Chemistry-Biology Interface
Training Grant T32GM136614. AH is supported by NIH Grant R01AI173214.

DISCLOSURES

None

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844   **FIGURE LEGENDS**

Figure 1. Exogenous CoA provision enhances alternative macrophage activation
(a) qPCR analysis of the IL-4-associated genes *Mgl2*, *Pdcd1gl2*, *Chil4*, *Ccl8,* and *Fizz1* in BMDMs
treated with CoA (1 mM), IL-4 (20 ng/mL), CoA + IL-4, or vehicle for 48 hr. (n≥9 independent
biological replicates). **(b-d)** Flow cytometric analysis of the IL-4-associated cell surface markers
CD206, CD301, and CD71 after treatments as in (a). (b) Contour plots with the percentage of
cells expressing both CD206 and CD301 is indicated in the upper right quadrant. Data shown are
from a single representative experiment. (c) Aggregate mean fluorescence intensity of CD206,
CD301, and CD71 (n=9 independent biological replicates). (d) Percentage of CD206$^+$/CD301$^+$
and CD206$^+$/CD71$^+$ populations (n=9 independent biological replicates). **(e)** Representative
images of BMDMs incubated for 1 hr. with FITC-Dextran (1mg/mL, green) and Hoechst 3342
(10ng/mL, blue) after stimulation with compounds as in (a). **(f)** Aggregate image analysis data for
experiments as in (e) (n=3 independent biological replicates). **(G)** Quantification of CD206$^+$/CD71$^+$
peritoneal macrophages from mice that were exposed to vehicle (PBS), CoA (40mg/kg), IL-4c (5
µg IL-4 and 25 µg anti-IL-4 monoclonal antibody), or the combination of IL-4c + CoA. (n≥3 mice
were used for each group). All data are presented as mean ± SEM. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p <
0.001.

**Figure 2: CoA does not enhance alternative macrophage activation by boosting known
metabolic hallmarks of the IL-4 response.**
(a) Intracellular levels of CoA and acetyl CoA in BMDMs measured by LC-MS/MS. Cells were
treated with IL-4 (20 ng/mL), IL-4 + CoA (1 mM), or vehicle for 48 hr. as in Fig. 1 (n=3 independent
biological replicates). **(b)** Representative respirometry trace of BMDMs treated as in (a). (n=5
technical replicates from a single biological replicate). **(c)** Aggregate ATP-linked and FCCP-
stimulated respiration in intact BMDMs for treatments as in (a). Cells were offered 8 mM glucose,
2 mM pyruvate, and 2 mM glutamine in the experimental medium (n=8 independent biological
replicates). **(d)** Lactate efflux rate from respirometry experiments in (b & c) calculated using
Seahorse XF data and correcting for respiratory CO_2 (n=8 independent biological replicates). **(e)**
Metabolite abundances of citrate, α-ketoglutarate(α-KG), and malate in BMDMs treated as in (a)
(n=7 independent biological replicates). **(f)** Enrichment from uniformly labeled $^{13}C_6$-glucose into
the TCA cycle intermediates as in (e) (n=8 independent biological replicates). **(g)** Quantification
of newly synthesized palmitic acid (16:0) and palmitoleic acid (16:1) from BMDMs stimulated as
in (a). (data shown as n=8 technical replicates from n=2 independent biological replicates). **(h)**
Schematic depicting the mechanism of action of cyclopropane carboxylic acid (CPCA) and PZ-
2891**. (i)** Intracellular CoA levels of BMDMs stimulated with IL-4, IL-4 + CPCA (1 mM), or IL-4+PZ-
2891 (10 µM) for 48 h (n=5 independent biological replicates). **(j)** Flow cytometric quantification
of the CD206$^+$/CD301$^+$ population for BMDMs treated as in (i) (n=5 independent biological
replicates). All data are presented as mean ± SEM. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001.

Figure 3. Exogenous CoA induces a pro-inflammatory response in BMDMs
(a) Volcano plot from bulk RNA sequencing data from BMDMs treated IL-4 (20 ng/mL), IL-4 + 1
mM CoA, or vehicle control for 48 hr. comparing differential gene expression between IL-4 vs.
vehicle controls (left) and IL-4 + CoA vs. IL-4 (right). Genes associated with classical activation
are depicted in red, genes associated with alternative activation are shown in blue. **(b)** Gene Set
Enrichment Analysis of genes upregulated in BMDMs treated with IL-4+CoA vs. IL-4 alone. **(c)**
qPCR analysis of *Il1b*, *Tnf*, *Irg1*, and *Nos2* in BMDMs stimulated with CoA (1mM) or vehicle
control for 4 hr. (n=4 independent biological replicates). **(d)** qPCR analysis of the interferon-
stimulated gene *Mx1* in BMDMs stimulated with 1 mM CoA or vehicle control for 24 hr. (n=4
independent biological replicates). **(e)** Itaconate abundance after treatment with 1 mM CoA or
vehicle control for 48 hr. (n=6 independent biological replicates). **(f)** qPCR analysis of *Il1b* and
Tnf in the peritoneal exudate cells of mice treated with (40 mg/kg) CoA 6 hr. prior to collection

896 (n≥5 mice for each group). **(g)** Quantification of cytokines in the peritoneal lavage fluid (PLF) of
897 mice treated as in (g) using Multiplexed ELISA (n=3 mice were used for each group). All data are
898 presented as mean ± SEM. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01.
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Figure 4. CoA is a TLR4 agonist
(a) qPCR analysis of *Il1b*, *Tnf*, *Irg1*, *I12b,* and *Nos2* in WT and *Myd88*^{-/-} BMDMs stimulated with
1 mM CoA or vehicle control for 4 hr. (n≥3 independent biological replicates). **(b)** Concentration-
response curve of linked alkaline phosphatase activity in hTLR4 reporter cells with varying
concentrations of LPS (black dots). The red dot and dashed lines represent the OD_{630} observed
in response to 1 mM CoA treatment (n=4 independent biological replicates). **(c)** Aggregated
response of 1 mM CoA compared to vehicle control in hTLR2, hTLR4, and hTLR7 relative to
maximum TLR activation. (n≥3 independent biological replicates). **(d)** qPCR analysis of *Il1b*, *Tnf*,
I12b, and *Nos2* in WT and *Tlr4*^{-/-} BMDMs following treatment with 1 mM CoA for 4 hr. (n=3
independent biological replicates). **(e)** Abundance of itaconate in WT, *Myd88*^{-/-}, and *Tlr4*^{-/-} BMDMs
in response to 1 mM CoA treatment for 48 hr. or vehicle control (n≥5 independent biological
replicates). All data are presented as mean ± SEM. *p < 0.05; ***p < 0.001.
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Figure 5. Myd88-linked TLR-ligands enhance IL-4 the response
(a-b) Flow cytometric analysis of CD206 and CD301 in BMDMs stimulated for 48 hr. with vehicle
control, IL-4 (20 ng/mL), or IL-4 in combination with one of the following: LPS (0.1 ng/mL),
Pam3CSK4 (5ng/mL), Imiquimod (10 μM), Flagellin (100 ng/mL), or Poly (I:C) (1 μg/mL) (a)
Contour plots showing the percentage of cells expressing both CD206 and CD301 in the upper
right quadrant. Data are from a single representative experiment. (b) Percentage of
CD206^{+}/CD301^{+} populations for treatments as in (a) (n=8 independent biological replicates). **(c)**
qPCR analysis of *Mgl2* and *Ym1* in BMDMs stimulated with vehicle control, IL-4, or IL-4 in
combination with LPS, Pam3CSK4, or Poly (I:C) for 48h. Concentrations as in (a) (n≥3
independent biological replicates). **(d)** Aggregate FITC[+] foci per cell for BMDMs stained with FITC-
Dextran and treated as with vehicle control, IL-4, or IL-4 with either LPS or Pam3CSK4 as in (a).
(n=4 independent biological replicates). **(e)** Percentage of CD206^{+}/CD301^{+} populations in WT and
Myd88^{-/-}BMDMs stimulated with vehicle control, IL-4, or IL-4 with either LPS or Pam3CSK4 as in
(a) (n=8 independent biological replicates. **(f)** qPCR analysis of *Mgl2* and *Ym1* for BMDMs as in
(e) (n=4 independent biological replicates). **(g)** Quantification of CD206^{+}/CD71^{+} peritoneal
macrophages from mice that were injected with vehicle control, IL-4c (5 μg IL-4 and 25 μg anti-
IL-4 monoclonal antibody), IL-4c + LPS (125 μg), IL-4c +Pam3CSK4 (50 μg), or IL-4c + Poly (I:C)
(200 μg). (n≥9 mice were used for each group). **(h)** Weights of subcutaneous B16-F10 melanoma
tumors that were derived from the co-implantation of B16-F10 tumor cells and BMDMs that were
stimulated with either vehicle control, IL-4, or IL-4 in combination with Pam3CSK4. All data are
presented as mean ± SEM. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ns, not significant.
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Figure 6. MyD88-linked signaling increases chromatin accessibility in IL-4-stumulated
macrophages
(a) Heatmap of z-scored ATAC-seq signal for the 10,878 IL-4-inducible regions. The heatmap is
arranged by increasing values for IL-4 with Pam3CSK4 co-treatment group and is divided into 10
equal bins. Side bar indicates distance to closest transcription start site (TSS). **(b)** Heatmap
showing p-values of the most highly enriched motifs for each of the 10 bins that were generated
in (a). **(c)** Top 3 hits from de novo transcription factor motif analysis on the significantly induced
regions by Pam3CSK4 co-treatment (log_2 fold change >0.5, false discovery rate < 0.05). **(d)**
Representative tracks of Chil4 and Ccl8 promoter regions with nearby c-Jun/AP-1 motifs**.**
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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6