Neutrophils exhibit distinct migration phenotypes that are modulated by transendothelial

migration

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Abstract

The extravasation of polymorphonuclear neutrophils (PMNs) is a critical component of the innate
immune response that involves transendothelial migration (TEM) and interstitial migration. TEM-
mediated interactions between PMNs and vascular endothelial cells (VECs) trigger a cascade of
biochemical and mechanobiological signals whose effects on interstitial migration are currently
unclear. To address this question, we cultured human VECs on a fibronectin-treated transwell
insert to model the endothelium and basement membrane, loaded PMN-like differentiated HL60
(dHL-60) cells in the upper chamber of the insert, and collected the PMNs that crossed the
membrane-supported monolayer from the lower chamber. The 3D chemotactic migration of the
TEM-conditioned PMNs through collagen matrices was then quantified. Data collected from over
50,000 trajectories showed two distinct migratory phenotypes, i.e., a high-persistence phenotype
and a low-persistence phenotype. These phenotypes were conserved across treatment
conditions, and their existence was confirmed in human primary PMNs. The high-persistence
phenotype was characterized by more straight trajectories and faster migration speeds, whereas
the low-persistence one exhibited more frequent sharp turns and loitering periods. A key finding
of our study is that TEM induced a phenotypic shift in PMNs from high-persistence migration to
low-persistence migration. Changes in the relative proportion of high-persistence and low-
persistence populations correlated with GRK2 expression levels. Inhibiting GRK2 hindered the
TEM-induced shift in migratory phenotype and impaired the phagocytic function of PMNs. Overall,
our study suggests that TEM-mediated GRK2 signaling primes PMNs for a migration phenotype
better suited for spatial exploration and inflammation resolution. These observations provide novel
insight into the biophysical impacts of TEM that priming PMNs is essential to conduct sentinel
functions.

Introduction

Polymorphonuclear neutrophil (PMN) migration to sites of injury or infection is a primary component of innate immunity and inflammatory responses (1, 2). Upon encountering the signals associated with injured or inflamed tissue, circulating PMNs escape blood vessels by adhering to and probing inflamed vascular endothelial cells (VECs), breaching endothelial cell-cell junctions, and transmigrating across the endothelium before infiltrating the surrounding tissue (3). This process, known as trans-endothelial migration (TEM), is a rate-limiting step in the immune response (1). Transmigrated PMNs efficiently navigate 3D tissue-like environments to reach their targets (4-6). The interactions between PMNs and VECs during TEM modulate several PMN characteristics, including their life span and effector function (7, 8). However, while the initial recruitment of PMNs has been extensively characterized (1, 3), the effect of TEM on their subsequent interstitial migration behavior, and the correspondence between resulting migration phenotype and effector function, remain largely unknown.

There are two mechanisms whereby PMNs can traverse the VEC monolayer and exit the circulation: paracellular TEM through the junctions between VECs and transcellular TEM through thin portions of the endothelial cell body (1). The paracellular route is the most common, comprising over 90% of transmigration events (9). Paracellular TEM is facilitated by interactions with many endothelial-expressed surface adhesion molecules, including vascular endothelial cadherin (VE-cadherin), platelet/endothelial-cell adhesion molecule 1 (PECAM1), various junctional adhesion molecules, and other selective adhesion molecules such as ICAM-1 (3, 10). TEM is also known to induce PMN surface expression of the β1-integrin family and β2-integrins, such as lymphocyte function-associated antigen 1 (LFA1) and macrophage-1 antigen (CD11b) (1). Mechanically, PMNs extend invadosome-like protrusions to dynamically probe the underlying endothelium and potentially identify the path of least resistance (11). Subsequently, they actively contract over the VECs, leading to junctional gap openings, and force themselves through the gaps (12). VECs also play an active role in PMN trafficking, forming actin-rich ICAM-1 projections known as "docking structures" that help to anchor and embrace the leukocyte and have been speculated to facilitate extravasation by generating contractile stresses to pull PMNs into and across the VEC monolayer (13, 14). Because PMN sizes can be more than 20 times greater than the size of endothelial cell-cell junctions (~10 μm vs. ~0.5 μm), transmigrating through VEC junctions can cause unusually high PMN deformations (15). Mechanical constriction at VEC junctions has been suggested to influence PMN transmigration and subsequent interstitial migration towards infection sites (7).

In vivo, the extravascular space is a complex, highly dynamic, and densely packed environment
composed of collagen fibers, glycoproteins, and other ECM fibers. As such, transmigrated PMNs
need to negotiate crowded spaces with varying pore sizes to reach the site of inflammation (6,
16, 17). In 3D environments, PMNs utilize integrin-independent migration, relying on actin
cytoskeletal-network expansion to generate protrusive forces along the leading edge, coupled
with myosin-II dependent contractility to bring up the rear (18, 19). To perform efficient pathfinding
in 3D, PMNs alternate frequent turns with directional persistence to steer themselves toward the
chemotactic gradient (4). This alternance involves intermittent, integrin-mediated periods of
traction force exertion (20). Cell migration in 2D is typically modeled as a persistent random walk
(PRW), which depends on two critical motility parameters: migration speed and persistence (21-
24). However, the complexity of cell-ECM interaction in restrictive 3D environments introduces
modeling difficulties (25). Also, single cells moving in 3D can rapidly transition between slow and
fast migration states, making it necessary to contemplate time-varying parameters in random walk
models (26). In addition to these dilemmas, PMNs can exhibit distinct phenotypic diversity and
plasticity in crucial functions, including their migratory behavior (27-30). For example, successful
clearance of bacterial infection depends on efficient PMN migration into the infected tissues,
including a stop signal that helps resolve inflammation (31). However, phenotypic diversity in
migration is rarely considered in experimental analysis and remains poorly understood.

The early response of PMNs to a chemoattractant gradient increases migration speed and
persistence towards the chemoattractant focus. In contrast, these migratory parameters are
suppressed in late response phases as high chemoattractant concentrations desensitize surface
G-protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) on the cell surface (32-34). The multifunctional GPCR
kinase GRK2 was recently linked to PMN swarm resolution via receptor desensitization, with
GRK2-deficient PMNs also demonstrating impaired bacterial clearance by inefficiently picking up
and ingesting microbes from bacteria clustering (31). In addition to its classical role in modulating
GPCR signaling through receptor internalization and recycling, GRK2 is known to function as a
signaling hub via phosphorylation and scaffolding interactions with myriad non-GPCR partners
(35). Of note, GRK2 has been shown to negatively regulate immune response via direct
association with the MAPK kinase MEK (36) and to phosphorylate the membrane-cytoskeletal
linkers ezrin (37) and radixin (38), suggesting a direct link between GRK2 expression and actin
cytoskeleton reorganization. Based on these results, GRK2 presents an intriguing link between
PMN migration phenotype and effector functionality.

This work's central hypothesis is that the biomechanical PMN-VEC interactions associated with
TEM modulate PMN functions to promote the efficient identification and elimination of pathogens.
To address this hypothesis, we employed an experimental assay with two subsequent stages.
The first stage is a transwell-based TEM model, and the second stage is a physiologically relevant
3D collagen directional migration assay. Using this in vitro model, we characterized the migratory
and functional changes induced by TEM of nearly 50,000 individual dHL-60 and primary PMN
cells. We used sequential and variational Bayesian inference algorithms to identify two naturally
occurring, phenotypically distinct migratory subpopulations conserved across treatment
conditions. The first is a high-persistent phenotype characterized by a fast, directed migration
toward chemoattractant sources. The second is a low-persistent phenotype characterized by a
slower, more random migration. The relative prevalence of these phenotypes is modulated by
TEM-mediated changes in PMN expression of GRK2. These findings show a critical role for TEM
in determining the subsequent PMN interstitial migration phenotypes, demonstrating that VECs
can modulate PMN migration to promote immune function.

Results

TEM modulates transcription and protein expression of chemokine receptors and
increases phagocytic function

To model the impact of PMN trans endothelial migration (TEM) on subsequent interstitial 3D
migration, we developed a two-stage *in vitro* assay that combines a commercial transwell
migration assay and a previously described 3D-migration chamber (4) (Figures 1A and 2A). We
performed real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR; Figure 1B) and flow cytometry (FCS;
Supplementary Figure 1A) to compare intracellular gene expression and cell surface protein
expression, respectively, of selected chemokine receptors, surface integrins, and glycoproteins
before and after cells crossing the VEC-coated transwell insert (**ETW**-conditioning). These data
collectively demonstrate upregulation of CD11b, ICAM-1, and FPR1 (for RT-qPCR, ICAM-1: p =
0.0024; FPR1: p = 0.0172) in conjunction with downregulation in CXCR2 (for RT-qPCR, p = 0.003)
and decreased cell surface expression of CXCR1 (for RT-qPCR, p > 0.9999). These changes are
all qualitatively consistent with PMNs that have undergone TEM *in vivo* (39), suggesting that TW
crossing altered the expression profile of dHL-60 cells in a similar manner.

PMNs utilize their G-protein-coupled chemokine receptors (GPCRs) to detect chemoattractants
(40). Two receptors, CXCR1 and CXCR2, have been reported to coordinate PMN directional
motility through differential surface expression levels, promoting PMN clustering at the infection
site and facilitating the posterior self-resolution of PMN clusters (34). The down-regulation of
CXCR1 and CXCR2 gene and surface expressions with ETW crossing prompted us to investigate
how TEM impacted PMN directional migration and phagocytic function. Thus, we conducted
additional experiments using dHL-60 cells co-cultured with VECs without transmigration (co-
culture condition, **CC**) and loaded into unmodified transwell inserts (transwell only condition, **TW**)
to decouple the contribution of VECs and the cellular deformation experienced by PMNs
squeezing through narrow transwell membrane pores (Figure 1C). We performed flow cytometry
to detect surface expressions of CXCR1 and CXCR2 in these four conditions, finding that the
surface expressions of both CXCR1 and CXCR2 decrease significantly in TW- and ETW-
conditioned cells (Figures 1D-E). In contrast, the expression of CXCR2 did not decrease
significantly after CC conditioning. Taken together, these results suggest that the surface
expressions of PMN chemokine receptors are mechanosensitive and that biochemical
interactions with VECs may regulate surface trafficking of CXCR1 and CXCR2 through different
mechanisms.

It is important to note that the CXCR2 fluorescence intensity profiles exhibited a marked shift to
low values for TW- and ETW-conditioned cells (Supplementary Figure 1B). The large magnitude
of this shift allowed us to discard the possibility that the changes in CXCR2 with respect to controls
were the result of a selection process, i.e., that cells with low CXCR2 expression values were
more successful at crossing the transwell membrane pores, because cells with such low levels of
CXCR2 expression did not originally exist in the control and CC-treated groups. Therefore, we
concluded that these changes were a phenotypic change induced by TW- and ETW-conditioning.

Next, we used pHrodo GFP-conjugate zymosan to assess changes in PMN phagocytosis ability
following these treatments. Zymosan particles do not fluoresce outside of the cells or inside of the
cell cytosol due to these environments' neutral pH. However, when phagocytes internalize the
particles into the acidic environments of endosomes and lysosomes, the GFP dye fluoresces
brightly, reporting bacterial ingestion into PMN phagosomes. Flow cytometry results showed
almost 90% of TW- and ETW-conditioned cells were GFP-positive for bacterial ingestion (Figure
1F). In comparison, only 40% of CC-conditioned cells and 20% control cells were GFP-positive
(Figure 1G). These data demonstrate that mechanical stimuli in the TEM process can activate the
PMN phagocytic machinery.

The persistence of PMN migration through 3D collagen matrices is heterogeneous

To study the impact of TEM on the subsequent PMN migration through 3D matrices, we tracked
and analyzed the motion of approximately 50,000 control, CC, TW-, and ETW-conditioned cells
in 1 mg/mL collagen under an fMLP chemoattractant gradient as previously described (4) (Figures
2A-B). Figure 2C shows representative trajectories for chemotaxing dHL-60 cells in each
condition superimposed onto probability density maps of their endpoint positions. A red dashed
circle representing non-chemotactic random migration is included for reference. Control cells
migrated directionally up the fMLP gradient as expected (4), but cells from all other conditions
described omnidirectional trajectories. In particular, the cells from the TW, ETW, and CC appeared
to have an increased propensity to migrate against the gradient and to incorporate large-angle
turns in their migration (see arrows in Figure 2C), similar to those reported in late phases of the
immune response when PMNs are desensitized to the chemoattractant (31). As a result of these
behaviors, TW, ETW, and CC cells had significantly lower mean chemotactic indices than controls
(Figure 2D) even if their mean speed was higher (Figure 2E). These results are consistent with
the changes in CD11b, CXCR1, and CXCR2 reported in the previous section, further suggesting
that TEM predisposes PMNs to adopt a more active, exploratory interstitial migration phenotype.

To quantify in more detail how TW, ETW, and CC conditions impacted the cell trajectories, we

computed the mean squared displacements (r^2 or MSD, Figure 2F) and autocorrelation function

of the vector tangent ($\vec{t}$) to the cell trajectory (C_{tt}, Figure 2G) versus distance traveled (Δs).

Because the MSD plot is obtained by integrating the C_{tt} plot twice with respect to Δs, it experiences

quadratic growth ($r^2 \sim \Delta s^2$) near the origin. As C_{tt} falls when Δs increases, the MSD plot tapers

to behave linearly ($r^2 \sim \Delta s$) for very long distances. This attenuation in slope reflects the loss of

overall migratory persistence when migrating in 3D across large distances, as cells encounter

obstacles in the microenvironment and need to circumvent them. Despite their slight differences,

the MSD of TW, ETW, CC, and control cells were similar (Figure 2F), suggesting all cell

trajectories had similar persistence at the population level, even if control cells were persistent

and also aligned with the chemoattractant gradient while TW, ETW, CC cells were persistent and

omnidirectional.

Inspection of C_{tt} revealed more complex behavior with two distinct exponential decays, evidenced

as two straight segments in each curve of the linear-logarithmic plot in Figure 2G. In all conditions,

there was steep initial decay in C_{tt} over displacements of 0 µm to 10 µm followed by a shallower

decay over much longer distances. The existence of two regimes in C_{tt} suggests that the studied

cell populations may exhibit heterogeneous migratory behavior in terms of directional persistence,

with the steeper segments corresponding to a less motile phenotype than the shallow segments.

This possibility is evaluated in detail in the next section. We estimated the persistence length (L_p)

of cell trajectories in each condition by performing an exponential fit to the shallower decay

segment (see Materials and Methods). The results of this analysis (Figure 2H) indicate that TW-

and ETW-conditioned cells experienced a modest albeit significant decrease in L_p, consistent with

a more exploratory migratory behavior.

PMNs exhibit distinct migratory phenotypes whose prevalence is modulated by TEM

Motivated by the results in the previous section, we investigated the existence of distinct migratory

phenotypes in PMN cell populations and how TEM affects their relative frequencies. We fitted

each cell's trajectory to a random walk model with time-dependent parameters q_t and a_t (see

Materials and Methods) (26). In this model, q_t represents the persistence of the motion and a_t its

activity, or instantaneous speed of random motion. We then plotted probability density contours

of (q_t, a_t) for each of the four conditions studied: TW, ETW, CC, and control (Figures 3A-D). The

probability contours obtained for control cells were clearly bimodal (Figure 3A), revealing two

distinct migratory phenotypes. The most abundant one was formed by cells of high persistence

and activity, whereas the other consisted of significantly less persistent and slightly less active

cells. We named them high-persistence and low-persistence phenotypes and observed their

presence in the other conditions. In TW-conditioned cells, the high-persistence phenotype was

very dominant, and the low-persistence one was virtually nonexistent (Figure 3B). Conversely,

the high-persistence phenotype was less abundant, and the low-persistence phenotype was more

prevalent in ETW-conditioned and CC-conditioned cells than in controls (Figure 3C and 3D,

respectively).

To confirm the existence of distinct motility phenotypes, we ran a quasi-unsupervised clustering

algorithm rooted in variational Bayesian inference for a Gaussian Mixture Model (VB-GMM, see

Materials and Methods). The VB-GMM algorithm was tasked with identifying four clusters in

(q_t, a_t) space from the pooled distribution of all the studied dHL-60 cells (Supplementary Figure

2A). Visual inspection of the cell trajectories belonging to the least abundant cluster (extremely

high activity levels, <10% of the total cell population) revealed that these trajectories had obvious

cell tracking errors. As such, this subgroup was labeled "Discard", and its tracks were excluded

from further analysis. The remaining two clusters identified by the VB-GMM algorithm were neatly

aligned with the two modal peaks in the probability contours of Figures 3A-D and were, therefore,

similarly denoted as high- and low-persistence clusters (Supplementary Figure 2B).

Figure 3E shows examples of trajectories belonging to each cluster for each of the conditions

studied, confirming that high-persistence trajectories were long and relatively straight, whereas

low-persistence trajectories described numerous turns and covered less distance. Figure 3F

quantifies the relative prevalence of each motility cluster across all studied conditions, indicating

that control cells had nearly an even split between low- and high-persistence trajectories (48.9%

high, 50.2% low) and that this split changed for TW-conditioned, ETW-conditioned, and CC-

conditioned cells. Consistent with the probability maps described above, the high-persistence

trajectories became more frequent in TW-conditioned cells (60.7% high, 36.4% low). Likewise,

the low-persistence trajectories became more frequent in ETW-conditioned cells (30.6% high,

65.5% low) and CC-conditioned cells (29.1% high, 61.0% low).

These experiments demonstrate that dHL-60 cells exhibit a heterogeneous migratory behavior

characterized by two distinct phenotypes: a direct migration phenotype and a more wandering

phenotype. Our data also suggests that TEM predisposes dHL-60 cells to switch from the direct

phenotype to the wandering phenotype. Taken together, our results support that signaling induced

by interactions with the VECs plays a dominant role in promoting the interstitial migratory

phenotype of dHL-60 cells after TEM. In our experiments, VEC-dHL60 contact eclipsed the

phenotypic change induced by mechanical deformation alone (ETW condition).

Primary human PMNs display high- and low-persistence migratory phenotypes as

observed in dHL-60 cells

DMSO differentiated HL-60 cells are often employed as a PMN model as their migration and

function are qualitatively similar to primary PMNs (41). To elucidate if the existence of two

migratory phenotypes represents primary PMN behavior, we repeated the 3D interstitial migration

experiments and subsequent analyses with primary PMNs derived from whole human blood

(Materials and Methods). The probability density contours of (q_t, a_t) for primary PMNs, shown in

Figure 4A, agreed qualitatively with those obtained from dHL-60 cells, overlaid for reference in

the figure. More specifically, PMNs exhibited a low-persistence mode that co-localized with the

low-persistence mode of dHL-60 cells in the (q_t, a_t) space. Besides, the primary PMN probability

density map displayed a long horizontal plateau with similar persistence values and equal or

higher activity values than those of the dHL-60 high-persistence mode. We identified this plateau

as the primary PMN high-persistence mode.

When applied to the pooled dataset of tracked primary PMN trajectories, the VB-GMM algorithm

independently identified distinct high-persistence and low-persistence clusters (Figure 4B).

Moreover, these clusters occupied similar regions of the (q_t, a_t) space as dHL-60 cells, even if

primary PMNs were skewed slightly toward higher activity values overall. Example trajectories

obtained from the low- and high-persistence clusters had similar appearances in dHL-60 cells and

primary PMNs (Figure 4C-D). On the other hand, the relative frequency of high-persistence

migration was lower in primary PMNs s (15.4%) than in dHL-60 cells (48.9%), as shown in Figure

4E.

Summary migration statistics were computed separately for the high- and low-persistence clusters

of primary PMNs to permit a quantitative fine-grained comparison with dHL-60 cells. For

quantifying effective migration statistics, we excluded the non-motile cells (Supplementary Figure

2A). The mean cell speeds of both cell types in the high-persistence cluster were significantly

different, with primary PMNs in the control condition moving approximately twice faster than dHL-

60 cells in all conditions (Figure 5A). In the low-persistence cluster, the cell speeds of control

condition of dHL-60 cells and primary PMNs still showed statistically significant differences, but

the differences in magnitude were modest (Figure 5B). Likewise, TW, ETW, and CC conditioning

increased the speed of dHL-60 cells in both clusters, but these differences were considerably

smaller than the differences between clusters. When analyzing the chemotactic efficiency of cells

belonging to each subgroup (Figure 5C-D), we found that TW, ETW, and CC conditioning caused
a >50% reduction in CI in both the high- and low-persistent clusters, bringing the net CI to near
zero values (<0.1) in the low-persistent cluster. Of note, ETW and CC conditioning brought the
chemotactic efficiency of dHL-60 cells to values similar to primary PMNs. These data suggest that
VEC interactions are crucial for dHL-60 cells to better recapitulate primary cell characteristics.

TEM-induced low-persistence migration involves zigzagging

Previous studies (4, 25) have uncovered hidden features of 3D cell migration using the probability
distribution of turning angles conditional to the distance traveled along each cell's trajectory,
$p(\Delta\theta|\Delta s)$. Thus, we computed this distribution for the high- and low-persistence trajectories of
primary PMNs and dHL-60 cells in all conditions studied. The $p(\Delta\theta|\Delta s)$ maps from the control
dHL-60 cells belonging to the high-persistent cluster (Figure 5E) displayed a narrow peak around
$\Delta\theta = 0$ for short distances Δs, which broadened as Δs increased. This behavior has been attributed
to cells incorporating turns in their trajectories to circumvent environmental obstacles, leading to
a progressive loss of directional memory with increasing spatial separation (4). Highly motile dHL-
60 cells in the TW, ETW, and CC conditions exhibited similar $p(\Delta\theta|\Delta s)$ distributions (Figure 5E).

Cells assigned to the low-persistence cluster (Figure 5F) exhibited markedly different distributions
of turning angles. The low-Δs peak around $\Delta\theta = 0$ was broader than in the high-persistence
cluster, suggesting a propensity to describe slightly less straight segments at short distances
compared to cells in the high-persistence cluster. Moreover, a second prominent peak appeared
around $\Delta\theta = p$ for $\Delta s > 10$ mm, indicating an increase in the frequency of $\approx$180-degree turns.
Inspection of individual migration tracks suggest that this occurs because cells began
implementing abrupt changes of direction alternating with relatively straight segments, i.e., a
zigzagging behavior (42) (Supplement Figure 3). The turning angle distributions for cells in the
TW, ETW, and CC conditions had similar bimodal features (Figure 5F).

The similarities in the $p(\Delta\theta|\Delta s)$ of control, TW-, ETW-, and CC-conditioned cells within each
cluster confirm that these motility clusters represent distinct and well-defined migration
phenotypes that are conserved across dHL-60 treatment conditions. Importantly, the bimodal
turning angle distribution seen in dHL-60 cells was also observed in primary PMNs and was more
prominent in the low-persistence cluster (Figure 5E-F). Zigzagging migration patterns have been
observed in PMNs *in vivo* and have been proposed to help find sparsely distributed targets (42).
Our data suggests these phenotypes, particularly the low-persistence phenotype, are preserved
across primary PMNs and dHL-60 cells with high level of detail in terms of trajectory morphology.

TEM-mediated leukocyte expression of GRK2 controls PMN's ability of directional migration and phagocytosis

The existence of distinct migratory phenotypes in PMN migration through 3D matrices, and the modulation of their relative prevalence on TEM-associated external stimuli motivated our investigation of molecular signals involved in this modulation. Recent *in vitro* experiments of murine PMN migration demonstrated that GRK2-deficient PMNs exhibit faster, more persistent migration in response to but irrespective of the direction of externally imposed gradients of the intermediate chemoattractant LTB4 (31). Due to the stark shift in migration phenotype seen in knockdown cells, GRK2 immediately became a candidate molecule to explain the differences in track tortuosity between the high- and low-persistence clusters observed in our experiments.

Figure 6A shows RT-qPCR results for GRK2 expression in the four conditions studied: control, TW, ETW, and CC. Even if these data demonstrate potential for kinase expression rather than actual kinase activity, the statistically significant increases seen in TW- and ETW-conditioned dHL-60 cells are consistent with the observed population-level losses in chemotactic index. Notably, the expression levels in ETW- and CC-conditioned cells were indistinguishable (p > 0.9999), suggesting endothelial interaction is sufficient to induce moderate PMN GRK2 increases. Compared to the stark GRK increase in the TW conditioned, such moderate GRK expressions in ETW-conditioned cells suggest that endothelial interactions may blunt the effect of TEM-mediated mechanical deformation on PMN chemotactic migration.

We inhibited GRK2 expression in control and ETW-conditioned cells with the potent, selective GRK2 inhibitor CMPD101 and assessed the impact on 3D leukocyte migration before and after ETW-conditioning. CMPD treatment rendered control dHL-60 cells effectively non-motile (Supplementary Figure 4), probably because lower constitutive expression of GRK2 made them unable to perform GPCR trafficking after inhibition. However, and interestingly, the treatment had its anticipated effect on the migration ETW-conditioned cells. Cell trajectories became highly directional and covered more space (Figure 6B), and their mean speed (Figure 6C) and chemotactic index (Figure 6D) increased significantly. Their MSD and C_{tt} (Figure 6E-G) were suggestive of increased directional persistence, which was confirmed by computing the persistence length L_p and comparing it to that obtained in CMPD-untreated TW- and ETW-conditioned cells (Figure 6G).

In addition to analyzing the migratory behavior of dHL-60 cells after pharmacological GRK2 inhibition, we studied how this inhibition affected the cells' phagocytic activity, since this function is crucial to the innate immune response. In particular, we evaluated *in vitro* phagocytosis of

ETW-conditioned dHL-60 cells with and without CMPD treatment by exposing these cells to
zymosan bioparticles (see Materials and Methods). The results from this experiment (Figure 6H)
showed that the inhibition of GRK2 activity in the ETW-conditioned cells significantly attenuated
TEM-mediated improved zymosan bioparticle ingestion.

GRK2 controls the TEM-mediated shift from high-persistence to low-persistence
interstitial migration

To investigate how GRK2 modulates TEM-mediated changes in migratory phenotype, we tracked
and analyzed the trajectories of CMPD-treated, ETW-conditioned dHL-60 cells migrating in our
3D collagen chemotactic device. The resulting probability maps of (q_t, a_t) were plotted in Figure
7A, together with reference contours from CMPD-untreated, TW-conditioned (grey circles) and
ETW-conditioned (red triangle) cells. These data show that CMPD treatment shifted the migratory
phenotypic distribution of ETW-conditioned cells towards the distribution observed for CMPD-
untreated, TW-conditioned cells. The shift was confirmed by the relative prevalences of low- and
high-persistence clusters obtained with the VB-GMM classifier (Figure 7B). Specifically, GRK2
inhibition eliminated nearly 75% of the low-persistence population in TW-conditioned cells (TW:
65.50%; TW CMPD: 17.45%). When compared with human primary PMNs, the CMPD-treated
ETW-conditioned dHL-60 cells had opposite proportions of high- and low-persistence clusters
(Figure 7B).

Trajectories representative of the high- and low-persistence clusters in CMPD-treated ETW-
conditioned cells (Figure 7C) were not strikingly different from those of untreated cells, albeit the
low-persistence trajectories in the CMPD-treated cells seemed to zigzag less often. CMPD
treatment caused a statistically significant albeit modest mean speed increase in both clusters
(Figure 7D). The effect of treatment on the chemotactic index (Figure 7E) was more interesting.
While this parameter was not affected by treatment in the high-persistence cluster, it experienced
a dramatic increase in the low-persistence cluster. To interpret this result, it is important to keep
in mind that the low-persistence cluster in ETW-sorted CMPD-treated cells had low prevalence,
so this cluster's high mean CI might be influenced by having sampled cells from the tail of the
more abundant high-persistence cluster. This would be consistent with the high- and low-
persistence clusters having similar values of CI after CMPD treatment (Figure 7E). In any case,
the main result that holds independent of these methodological details is that cells with low
chemotactic efficiency were hardly observed after CMPD treatment.

Altogether, these data show that TEM enhances PMN host-defense function through upregulation
of GRK2. The data supports the hypothesis that GRK2 expression is responsible for the tortuous,

a chemotactic migration phenotype observed in low persistent cells. Furthermore, CMPD
treatment of ETW-conditioned cells recapitulated the migratory mode distribution of TW cells,
supporting a role for VEC interaction in modulating GRK2 expression. When considered together,
these results implicate GRK2 expression as the controlling modulator of the low-persistence
phenotype prevalence, circumstantially supporting the conclusion that intercellular interactions
during junctional trafficking are responsible for modulating PMN expression of GRK2.

Discussion

PMNs are specialized immune cells circulating in the bloodstream that extravasate to migrate toward pathogens localized in the surrounding tissues. However, PMNs exhibiting fast, persistent migration often fail to contain bacteria growth *in vivo* (31). Instead, the ability to slow down and stop responding to chemoattractants seems to be essential for bacterial containment. Therefore, extravasated PMNs must exhibit plasticity in their migratory and phagocytic activity but the mechanisms that regulate this plasticity are still unclear. This study focused on how TEM, a crucial step of PMN extravasation, affects the migratory phenotype of PMNs and associated effector functions like phagocytosis.

Bayesian inference (26) of random walk in single cell trajectories yields time-varying values for two parameters representing each cell's migratory persistence and random activity. Machine learning analysis of these two parameters for nearly 50,000 trajectories of PMNs migrating through 3D collagen matrices identified two distinct migratory phenotypes. One was characterized by fast, directed, chemotactically efficient *high-persistence* migration. The other was characterized by a slower, tortuous, *low-persistence* migration. Summary statistics like cell speed or chemotactic index have been used for decades to quantify the efficiency of PMN migration toward infection sites. Given the inherent variability of biological data, it is customary to average these statistics over multiple cells recorded under similar experimental conditions, assuming they all exhibit similar behavior. The heterogeneous migratory behavior of PMNs challenges this assumption and calls for caution when interpreting summary statistics computed over entire cell populations.

The low- and high-persistence migration phenotypes were present in dHL-60 cells across all different conditions studied and conserved in human blood PMNs. In line with this robustness, fast and slow subpopulations of neutrophils have been observed in the swarming locus of a murine ischemic-reperfusion injury model (43). More recently, we have reported heterogeneous migratory phenotypes in 3D-migrating T cells *in vitro* (44). Similarly, NK cells have been seen to intermittently exhibit in high- and low- persistence migratory modes depending on traction force exertion (20). The heterogeneity of migratory states is emerging as a preserved characteristic across different immune cells, further motivating the need to delineate how it is regulated since transitions between states could be a mechanism that endows PMNs with plasticity.

Our data suggest that TEM-associated stimuli promote a shift from the high- to the low-persistence migratory phenotype. TEM involves large PMN deformations and multiple molecular interactions with VECs that can cause mechanobiological responses (3, 8). For instance, dHL-60

cells traversing narrow constrictions experience chromatin reorganization (45), and prolonged
cyclic deformations have been shown to depolarize PMNs (46). Experiments on human PMNs
migrating up an fMLP gradient inside tapered microfluidic channels suggest that increasing
mechanical confinement can trigger reverse chemotaxis (47). Reverse migratory behavior
induced by physical constraints has been suggested to facilitate inflammation resolution (48).

In our experiments, crossing an empty membrane without VECs, an assay that only causes PMN
deformation, predisposed dHL-60 cells to perform high-persistence migration contrary to our
observations in VEC-lined membranes. This result suggests that heterotypic cell interactions
during TEM could be significant modulators of PMN phenotype, overriding mechanical stimuli.
Our experiments used 3-µm transwell membrane pores, as previously described (8), to allow
enough cells to transmigrate and be collected for the 3D migration assay. Such pore size
significantly exceeds the estimated endothelial junctional gap size (49), so our *in vitro* model could
underrepresent PMN deformation. However, the transwell membrane material, polyethylene
terephthalate (PET), is orders of magnitude stiffer than the VEC monolayer and the underlying
basement membrane, which should compensate for the larger pore size.

We used a robust unsupervised clustering method to identify distinct migratory phenotypes (50,
51) based on parameterizing cell trajectories using a persistent random walk (PRW) model. The
standard PRW model has been widely utilized for analyzing and simulating the migration of many
cell types over flat surfaces (21-24) and has the convenience of relying on few parameters.
However, applying this model to 3D cell migration has been more challenging (25). Studies relying
on 4D live imaging produce hundreds of morpho-kinetic parameters per cell to help understand
individual PMNs' dynamic behavior under inflammation (43). However, phototoxicity, limited time
resolution, and overall low throughput limit this approach to low numbers of cells that impede
advanced statistical analyses. We utilized large-scale, label-free cell tracking to obtain multiple
high-resolution trajectories per experimental video (4), incorporating a heterogeneous PRW
model with time-dependent parameters that better captures the multi-scale patterns of 3D cell
migration than the standard PRW model (26). An example of such patterns is the zigzagging
described by cells belonging to the low-persistence cluster, which combines fast, highly-
persistence segments with slower, quasi-random segments.

Although dHL-60 cells are a valid model system for many PMN studies (52), their imperfect
differentiation efficiency and replication of PMN functions posit some limitations (41, 53).
Therefore, we assayed PMNs obtained from human blood in our 3D migration device to validate
our key findings in dHL-60 cells, e.g., the existence of two migratory phenotypes or the defining

characteristics of each phenotype. Summary statistics like mean cell speed agreed with
previously published results for dHL-60 cells and human PMNs (52). A more detailed comparison
of cell trajectories based on the probability distribution of turning angles indicated a high level of
similarity between human PMNs and the low-persistence cluster of dHL-60 cells. In particular,
both cell types exhibited a clear secondary probability peak for large-angle turns, i.e., the hallmark
of zigzagging. In this low-persistence cluster, dHL-60 cells from the ETW and CC conditions were
most similar to human blood PMNs in terms of mean speed and CI, implying that TEM-mediated
interactions with VECs could predispose dHL-60 cells to adopt a more physiologically
representative phenotype. Also, PMNs from blood draws may have experienced diverse VEC
interactions before collection, such as traversing the bone marrow endothelium or transmigrating
from tissues back into the bloodstream (54, 55). These interactions could explain the similarity
between human PMNs and ETW- and CC-conditioned dHL-60 cells.

GRK2 is an integrative signaling hub for modulating various aspects of cell migration processes
(35). Upon chemokine stimuli, GRK2 constitutes serine/threonine protein kinases that specifically
phosphorylate G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) to desensitize receptors (36). PMN
swarming is a collective, self-amplifying response in which multiple PMNs form a perimeter
around damaged tissue to prevent the spread of infection. GRK-2 deficient PMNs have exhibited
reduced migration arrest and hence, ineffective swarm resolution (31, 56). Our experiments
showed that GRK2 expression was enhanced in ETW-conditioned dHL-60 cells and that these
cells had increased phagocytosis concurrent with a shift to the low-persistence phenotype.
Moreover, GRK2 inhibition after ETW-conditioning blunted phagocytic activity and steered cells
toward the high-persistence migratory phenotype. Therefore, our data suggest that TEM
promotes a PMN phenotype with less persistent migration and increased phagocytic activity via
upregulating GRK2 signaling.

It is possible that TEM stimulates a low-persistence migratory phenotype in PMN by degrading
CXCR2 via GRK2 activation, consistent with evidence that GRK2 facilitates CXCR2
internalization and degradation (57). In agreement with this idea, we found that TW- and ETW-
conditioned dHL-60 cells exhibited significant downregulation of CXCR2 surface expression.
Moreover, our finding that CC conditioning did not change the expression level of CXCR2
suggests that the TEM-mediated modulation of this receptor could depend on mechanical stimuli.
Low CXCR2 expression could be a natural modulator of PMN subpopulations. Indeed, a low-
CXCR2-expression PMN cluster has been reported independently in different single-cell
sequencing analyses (58, 59). Analysis of cell states showed that this cell cluster exhibits stronger

anti-microbial activity than clusters with higher CXCR2 expression. Nevertheless, we cannot rule

out that the molecular and surface changes of CXCR2 observed in our experiments result from

other processes, including nuclear deformation-induced transcriptional changes or non-GRK2

activation-mediated CXCR2 expression. Experimental and analysis platforms such as the one

presented here are poised to provide detailed, large-scale quantification of migratory behavior to

help answer these questions.

Our study revealed that TEM-associated stimuli significantly affect the phenotype of PMNs. We

showed increased phagocytic activity and concomitant loss of migratory persistence in PMNs

after TEM, modulated by heterotypic interactions with VECs and mechanical deformation

associated with junctional trafficking. Heterotypic interaction of dHL-60 with VECs recapitulates

key migration features of primary PMNs in the low-persistence subpopulation, suggesting a more

physiological relevant cell-line protocol of PMNs. Mechanical deformation during TEM is

necessary for PMN functions in addition to heterotypic cell-cell interaction. GRK2 upregulation

due to both effects from the TEM process is crucial for modulating PMN phenotype changes

related to efficient pathogen identification and clearance. Immunosuppressants for treating

chronic inflammation have numerous adverse side effects, including an increased risk of

infections. Our findings on how the TEM process modulates PMN migration and functional

plasticity may provide a rationale to identify specificity in targeting only one population of PMNs,

thus offering opportunities for treating inflammation without compromising PMN's anti-infection

defense mechanisms.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture and differentiation

Neutrophil-like cell culture and differentiation

Cells from the human promyelocytic leukemia cell line (HL-60, ATCC) were cultured and differentiated into neutrophil-like cells (dHL-60) as previously described (60). Briefly, HL-60 cells were grown at 37C and 5% CO_2 to an approximate density of $1x10^6$ cells/mL and passaged every two to three days by centrifugation and resuspension in Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium supplemented with l-glutamine (RPMI-1640, Gibco Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10% v/v fetal bovine serum (FBS, Omega Scientific), and 1% v/v penicillin-streptomycin (pen strep, Gibco Thermo Fisher Scientific). HL-60 cells were differentiated by taking approximately 1.5×10^6 cells from a passage and resuspending them in supplemented RPMI-1640 with 1.3% v/v dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma) added. To ensure homogeneous distribution, the denser and more viscous DMSO was thoroughly mixed with the RPMI-1640 before adding cells. Experiments were conducted using dHL-60 cells cultured in the presence of DMSO between five and seven days. For experimental use in control (Ctrl) treatment conditions, day 5 dHL-60 cells were resuspended in supplemented M199 and incubated at 37C and 5% CO_2 for thirty-six to forty-eight hours, then resuspended in fresh supplemented RPMI-1640 at the appropriate concentration for a given secondary assay.

Vascular endothelial cell culture

Primary human vascular umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs, Cell Applications) were grown at 37C and 5% CO_2 in Medium 199 with l-glutamine, 2.2 g/L sodium bicarbonate, and Earle's salts (M199, Gibco Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10% v/v FBS, 10% v/v Endothelial Cell Growth Medium (ECGM, Cell Applications), and 1% v/v pen strep until they formed a confluent monolayer. HUVEC were passaged following standard protocols for adherent mammalian cells: spent culture medium was aspirated, and cells were washed using Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline without calcium chloride or magnesium chloride (DPBS, Gibco Thermo Fisher Scientific); wash solution was aspirated and replaced with the pre-warmed 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (Gibco Thermo Fisher Scientific); the plate was incubated at 37C and 5% CO_2 until at least 90% detachment was observed on an inverted microscope, at which point a volume of pre-warmed supplemented M199 equal to at least two times the volume of trypsin used was added to the plate and circulated by repeated pipetting to dislodge tenuously adherent cells; cells were collected via centrifugation, resuspended at the desired concentration in fresh supplemented

535 M199, seeded in a situationally appropriate vessel, and incubated at 37C and 5% CO_2 at least

536 twenty-four hours prior to next use. Experiments were performed using cells between 4 and 7

537 passages (P4 – P7).

Primary neutrophil isolation from whole human blood

Primary neutrophils (PMNs) were isolated from whole human blood samples taken from healthy

donors as previously described (61). Briefly, 7.5 mL of a red blood cell (RBC) sedimentation fluid

comprising 3% v/v Gelatin, 0.9% v/v NaCl, and 0.1% v/v Dextrose was added to the bottom of a

50 mL conical tube at a volume appropriate to achieve a 1:2 ratio by volume with the 15 mL whole

blood sample introduced on top. The conical was mixed by inversion three times, then incubated

at room temperature for fifteen minutes until the RBCs sedimented and the solution stratified,

leaving a layer of leukocyte-rich plasma at the top. That plasma was transferred into a 15 mL

conical tube containing 3 mL of Ficoll-Paque Plus (Sigma), taking great care to avoid mixing the

two solutions, and centrifuged at 4C and 1500 rpm for twenty minutes. After removing the

supernatant, the pellet of RBCs and PMNs was resuspended in an RBC lysis solution comprising

1 mL DPBS and 5 mL H_2O and mixed by inversion for forty-five seconds before adding 2 mL of

3% NaCl and centrifuging at 4C and 1500 rpm for five minutes. The supernatant was removed,

and PMNs were gently resuspended in 1 mL of DPBS containing 1 g/L glucose for use in

experiments.

Leukocyte TEM assay (ETW)

Transwell permeable supports were employed as the basis of an assay to replicate the impact of

applied mechanical forces and intercellular interactions during transendothelial migration (TEM)

on subsequent neutrophil physiology and migration mechanics (Figure 1A). Prior to loading,

Transwell inserts with 3.0 μm pore polycarbonate membrane (12mm insert, Corning) were

incubated with 200 μL of 50 ng/mL fibronectin (Millipore Sigma Aldrich) at 4C for at least twenty-

four hours. The inserts were then washed twice with DPBS and equilibrated per manufacturer

recommendation by incubating them at 37C and 5% CO_2 for twenty-four to forty-eight hours with

1 mL of fresh supplemented M199 in the lower chamber and 500 μL in the upper chamber.

Following equilibration, the medium in the lower chamber was replaced with 1 mL fresh

supplemented M199, and the medium in the upper chamber was replaced with 500 μL HUVEC

suspended at a concentration of 4.5×10^5 cells/mL in supplemented M199. Inserts were incubated

at 37C and 5% CO_2 for thirty minutes, then washed with supplemented M199 to remove HUVEC

that were not adhered to the polycarbonate membrane and incubated for twenty-four hours to

form a confluent monolayer. The medium was then aspirated from the upper chamber and
replaced with fresh M199 with 20 ng/mL tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF-α) for at least eight
hours to activate the HUVEC monolayer.

Following TNF-α activation, the medium in the lower chamber was refreshed, day 5 dHL-60 cells
were resuspended in supplemented M199 and loaded into the upper chamber at a density of
approximately 8×10^6 cells, and the inserts were incubated at 37C and 5% CO_2. After thirty-six to
forty-eight hours, dHL-60 cells that had migrated through the HUVEC monolayer and the
polycarbonate membrane, termed ETW treated cells, were collected from the lower chamber and
resuspended in fresh, supplemented RPMI-1640 at an appropriate concentration for further pre-
treatment or use in experiments.

Empty transwell-based leukocyte treatment assay (TW)

To decouple the impact of physical interaction with and deformation required to pass through the
membrane in the TW support from biochemical and physical interactions with the HUVEC
monolayer on subsequent leukocyte interstitial migration, an empty transwell (TW) treatment
condition was employed (Figure 1C). Untreated inserts were equilibrated with supplemented
M199 as described above, then loaded with day 5 dHL-60 cells and incubated at 37C and 5%
CO_2. After thirty-six to forty-eight hours, cells that had migrated through the polycarbonate
membrane of the TW support were collected from the lower chamber of the insert and
resuspended in fresh supplemented RPMI-1640 at an appropriate concentration for further
treatment or use in experiments.

HUVEC and dHL-60 co-culture assay (CC)

To further decouple the influence of intercellular biochemical signaling and intimate physical
contact between HUVEC and dHL-60 cells during TEM from the large-scale cell body
deformations and external forces applied to dHL-60 cells as they traverse micron-scale junctional
gaps in the HUVEC monolayer, we introduced a co-culture (CC) treatment condition. HUVEC
were cultured to confluence in a 10 cm plate, then activated with TNF-α as previously described.
Then, the spent medium was aspirated and replaced by day 5 dHL-60 cells suspended in
supplemented M199 at approximately 1.6×10^7 cells/mL, and the plate was incubated at 37C and
5% CO2. After thirty-six to forty-eight hours, the medium, containing cells in suspension, was
circulated by repeated pipetting to dislodge any dHL-60 cells still loosely adhered to the HUVEC
monolayer, then collected and resuspended in supplemented RPMI-1640 at a concentration
appropriate for use in further experiments.

Multi-color flow cytometry

Samples were prepared for a four-color flow cytometry (FCS) panel following standard protocols for antibody staining. For each experimental condition, four technical replicates were prepared for the full FCS panel in addition to four technical replicates, each of fluorescence minus one control (all fluorophores in the panel except one, to assist with gating), and single stain controls (to assist with compensation). Unstained controls were resuspended in PBS and run without any additional treatment. Unless otherwise specified, antibodies were purchased from Abcam. For ICAM-1 and CD11b staining, cells were collected, resuspended in 10 μL of DPBS, mixed with the appropriate primary antibody (goat ICAM-1 or rabbit CD11b) at a 1:1 (v/v) ratio, and incubated on ice for 30 – 60 min. CXCR1 and CXCR2 stains were purchased as pre-conjugated antibodies and did not require this step. Samples were then resuspended in 10 μL of fresh DPBS, mixed with the appropriate fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibody or pre-conjugated stain at a 1:1 (v/v) ratio, and incubated covered on ice for 45 – 60 min. Samples were then washed once with DPBS and resuspended in 300 μL of DPBS for experimental use. 30,000 events were collected for each sample using a BD Accuri C6 Plus personal flow cytometer. Standard compensation, gating, and subsequent analysis were performed using FlowJo.

Total RNA extraction using TRIZOL reagent

RNA isolation was performed following the TRIZOL RNA isolation protocol from the W.M. Keck Foundation Biotechnology Microarray Resource Laboratory at Yale University. Briefly, the cells of interest were resuspended in ice-cold DPBS, lysed via repetitive pipetting with TRIZOL reagent (Ambion; 1mL reagent per 5-10 x 10^6 cells), and allowed to stand at room temperature for 5 min to ensure complete disassociation. The suspension was centrifuged to remove any cell debris, and then the supernatant was transferred to a new tube. Chloroform was added to the supernatant at a ratio of 0.2 mL for every 1 mL of TRIZOL used, vortexed vigorously, and left to stand at room temperature for two min before centrifuging to generate complete phase separation. The clear, upper aqueous phase was transferred to a new tube.

RNA was precipitated from the solution by adding isopropyl alcohol to the aqueous phase at a ratio of 0.5 mL for every 1 mL of TRIZOL used, incubated for 10 min at room temperature, and centrifuged to pellet the RNA precipitate. After removing the supernatant, the RNA precipitate was washed twice with a volume of 75% v/v ethanol greater than or equal to the volume of TRIZOL used, air-dried for five to ten minutes, and redissolved into 100 μL of DEPC-treated water. RNA concentration was measured using a Nanodrop 2000c (Thermo Scientific).

First-strand cDNA synthesis

First-strand cDNA was synthesized using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (RT; Invitrogen) following
the protocol included with the product information sheet. Briefly, for a standard 20 μL reaction
volume, 1 μL of oligo DT primers, a volume of resuspension containing 1 ng to 5 μg of total RNA
isolated as described in the previous section, 1 μL of 10 mM dNTP mix were added to a nuclease-
free microcentrifuge tube with sterile water such that the total volume was 12 μL. The tube was
heated to 65C for five min in a MyCycler thermal cycler (BioRad) and chilled on ice before adding
4 μL of 5x first-strand buffer, 2 μL of 0.1 M DTT, and 1 μL of RNaseOUT recombinant ribonuclease
inhibitor (40 units/μL). Contents were mixed and incubated in the thermal cycler at 37C for two
min before adding 1 μL of M-MLV RT and returning the tube to the thermal cycler, where the
mixture was held at 37 C for fifty min, immediately followed by fifteen min at 70 C. cDNA was
either used immediately as described below or stored at -80C until needed.

Real time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR)

The newly synthesized first-strand cDNA was used as a template for amplification in RT-qPCR
following the protocol included in the product information sheet for iQ supermix (BioRad). Briefly,
assay master mix was prepared by mixing 7.5 μL of PowerTrack SYBR green master mix (2x,
Applied Biosystems) with 100 nM each of the forward and reverse primers (IDT, see Table 1 for
sequences) and a volume of sterile water such that, when the master mix was added to a volume
of RT product containing 100 ng of cDNA, each well of the qPCR plate contained a total reaction
volume of 15 μL. The total volume of master mix prepared was appropriately scaled to account
for technical triplicates of each gene of interest for each biological repeat and treatment condition.

Table 1: Forward and reverse sequences of oligos used for RT-qPCR.

Gene	Forward Sequence	Reverse Sequence
GAPDH	5' - ACA ACT TTG GTA TCG TGG AAG G - 3'	5' - GCC ATC ACG CAA CAG TTT C - 3'
ICAM-1	5' – ATG CCC AGA CAT CTG TGT CC – 3'	5' - GGG GTC TCT ATG CCC AAC AA – 3'
CXCR1	5' - CTG ACC CAG AAG CGT CAC TTG - 3'	5' - CCA GGA CCT CAT AGC AAA CTG - 3'

CXCR2	5' - CCT GTC TTA CTT TTC CGA AGG AC - 3'	5' - TTG CTG TATTGT TGC CCA TGT - 3'
FPR1	5' - TGG GAG GAC ATT GGC CTTTC -3'	5' - GGA TGC AGG ACG CAA ACA C - 3'
GRK2	5' - TCC AGC CAT ACA TCG AAG AGA - 3'	5' - CAA AAC CGT GTG AAC TTA TCG C -3'

Once each well was loaded, the plate was sealed with an optically transparent film, vortexed for
30 seconds to ensure thorough mixing of the reaction components, loaded into a CFX Connect
Real-Time System (BioRad), and run following the manufacturer's thermal cycling conditions.
Specifically, the reaction plate was held at 50 C for 2 minutes to activate uracil DNA glycosylase,
then at 95 C for 2 minutes to activate DNA polymerase, before repeating the denaturing,
annealing, and extending steps (95 C for 15 seconds, 58.1 C for 15 seconds, and 72 C for 1
minute, respectively) for 40 cycles.

The resulting data was analyzed in Microsoft Excel using the comparative C_T method (62). Briefly,
expression levels for a gene of interest were normalized to a comparative baseline within each
biological replicate by taking the difference between the C_T value for that gene and the C_T value
of the housekeeping gene GAPDH (ΔC_T). ΔC_T values are expressed in relation to the control case
for the purpose of comparison across treatment conditions by taking the difference between ΔC_T
for a condition of interest and ΔC_T for the control case ($\Delta\Delta C_T$). Figures were generated using
GraphPad Prism, showing log fold change compared to control, or $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$, for ease of
visualization. Statistically significant changes were determined using Kruskal-Wallis test for
multiple comparisons, performed on ΔC_T values using GraphPad Prism. Between-run variation
resulting from the use of multiple qPCR plates to amplify the same cDNA was removed by
applying a previously reported mathematical transformation as part of the Excel analysis pipeline
(63).

In vitro **3D directed migration assay**

In vitro assays of 3D directional migration were performed in a custom-built chemotaxis device
(Figure 2A) as previously described (4). Briefly, 25 mm x 25 mm No. 1.5 coverslips (Corning) were
placed on a 110 C hot plate and treated on one side with 300 μL of 0.1 M NaOH with 0.02% v/v
Triton X. Once the NaOH solution evaporated, the coverslips were washed in distilled H_2O and
allowed to dry. Then 50 μL of (3-aminopropyl) triethoxysilane (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to the

treated surface of the coverslip for 5 min. Coverslips were washed as described above, and the
treated surface was exposed to 100 μL of 0.5% v/v glutaraldehyde for 30 to 120 min. Coverslips
were allowed to air dry overnight in a vented, covered container or in a 65 C oven for 1 hour in
the same vented, covered container. Next, a 12-mm-diameter hole was punched in the center of
a 50 x 9-mm Falcon petri dish (BD Falcon) and attached a treated glass coverslip, treated side
facing up, to the bottom of the petri dish to create a glass bottom dish. A second treated coverslip
was then attached to the top side of the dish, treated side facing down and occluding
approximately three quarters of the hole to create a pocket of space in the center of the hole that
has silane-treated glass on both sides and a small loading port at the top. Both coverslips were
attached with vacuum grease (Beckman Vacuum Grease Silicone), and all edges in contact with
the petri dish were further sealed with clear quick dry nail polish (Sally Hansen Insta Dri). Before
gel fabrication, devices were equilibrated at 37C and 5% CO_2 for a minimum of thirty minutes to
help mitigate bubble formation during loading.

Collagen gel fabrication and device loading

Collagen gels were fabricated by neutralizing a solution of rat-tail type-I collagen monomers
dissolved in a 0.2 N acetic acid (Corning) with 1 N NaOH in proportions recommended by the
manufacturer's alternate gelation protocol to generate gels with a final collagen concentration of
1 mg/mL. A suspension of supplemented RPMI-1640 containing approximately 7.5 x 10^5 dHL-60
cells was used in place of the recommended water. All constituents for gel fabrication were kept,
mixed, and degassed on ice to prevent premature self-assembly, and the mixture was degassed
for 5 min prior to loading. Once prepared, 113 μL of the collagen gel solution was pipetted into the
pocket of each device. Devices were then incubated vertically at 37C and 5% CO_2 for thirty
minutes to allow the gel to self-assemble in the lower half of the pocket. The remaining volume of
the pocket was filled with 113 μL of supplemented RPMI-1640 with 50 nM fMLP and immediately
imaged.

Image acquisition and cell tracking with bulk drift correction

Bright-field images for population migration experiments were obtained using an enclosed Leica
DM16000 B microscope with a 5x air lens at 37C and 5% CO_2, with the built-in magnifier retracted
to produce images more amenable to automated cell tracking. Four planes, evenly spaced 200
μm apart to ensure the same cells were not captured in multiple planes, were imaged within each
collagen gel every $\Delta t = 10$ sec.

Automated cell tracking for standard time resolution experiments was performed using the Fiji
plugin Trackmate (64, 65), discarding the first 50 frames of the time course for each experiment
to eliminate migration artifacts caused by rapid gel drift. Cells were identified using a Laplacian of
Gaussian (LoG) edge detection filter with median filtering enabled, and frame linking was
performed using a linear assignment problem (LAP) tracker. Final cell tracks were filtered based
on quality and duration, then exported to MATLAB for bulk drift correction and further analysis.

Drift velocity was calculated based on the bulk motion of non-motile cells within each experiment.
Briefly, the first and second moments of inertia were calculated for each cell track and used as
the basis for selecting the 15% of the experimental population with the lowest overall motility.
Visual inspection confirmed that these cells were non-motile, and the one-minute smoothed
median velocities of the non-motile population in each Cartesian direction were taken as the bulk
drift velocity for the experiment. The drift velocity was then subtracted from each cell track within
the experimental population to correct for bulk gel deformations during the experiment.

Summary migration statistics with respect to time

Cell centroids obtained from the tracking algorithm described above were used to calculate
average instantaneous cell speed over Δt = 10 sec imaging intervals,

$$\langle v \rangle = \langle \langle \frac{\sqrt{(x_{t+1}-x_t)^2 + (y_{t+1}-y_t)^2}}{\Delta t} \rangle_t \rangle_{cells},$$

then converted to units of microns per minute. Average chemotactic index (CI) values were
computed by taking the cosine of the angle θ between the chemotactic gradient vector and the
displacement vector of each cell, $CI = \langle \cos \theta \rangle_{cells}$.

Analysis of trajectories in intrinsic coordinates

The shape of cell trajectories was analyzed in terms of distance traveled and angular orientation
(intrinsic coordinates) as previously described (4), rather than in terms of time to eliminate the
confounding influence of variations in migration speed between conditions. The distance travelled
by a cell versus time was first computed as $s(t) = \sum_{\tau=0}^{\tau=t} \Delta s(\tau)$, where $\Delta s(t) = s(t + \Delta t) - s(t) =$
$|\vec{x}(t + \Delta t) - \vec{x}(t)|$. This information was used to obtain $\vec{x}(s)$ via interpolation (interp1, MATLAB).
The vector tangent to the trajectory was obtained as $\vec{t}(s) = d\vec{x}(s)/ds$. The mean squared
displacements (MSDs) were computed as a function of distance lags, Δs, i.e., $r(\Delta s) =$
$\langle |\vec{x}(s + \Delta s) - \vec{x}(s)| \rangle^2$, where the bracket denotes an ensemble average for all the cells in each
experiment and along all values of s along each trajectory. Similarly, we computed the
autocorrelation function for the vector tangent to the trajectory, $C_{tt} = \langle \vec{t}(s) \cdot \vec{t}(s + \Delta s) \rangle$. Changes

in orientation of $\vec{t}$ with respect to Δs were calculated as, $\Delta\theta(\Delta s) = \cos^{-1}[\vec{t}(s) \cdot \vec{t}(s + \Delta s)]$, in

addition to their PDF conditioned to Δs, $p(\theta|\Delta s)$.

Estimation of migratory persistence length

Based on the presence of two distinct decay regimes evident in semi-log plots of C_{tt}, the

migratory persistence length for each condition was estimated by fitting C_{tt} to a double

exponential decay model, expressed as $f(s) = \alpha\, e^{\frac{-s}{L_1}} + (1 - \alpha)\, e^{\frac{-s}{L_2}}$ for each treatment condition

(lsqcurvefit, MATLAB). The double exponential fit requires that each condition be described in

terms of two characteristic lengths, L_1 and L_2, defined so that $L_1 > L_2$. In all experiments, L_2

characterized a rapid autocorrelation decay, with average characteristic length <2 mm. Thus, the

migratory persistence length was taken to be $L_P = L_1$. Error bars were calculated via

bootstrapping. Briefly, 25% of the cells in a condition were randomly selected for removal from

the population and L_P was calculated for that subpopulation of cells. This process was repeated

twenty times. Mean and SEM were then calculated based on the twenty L_P values.

Phagocytosis assay

To measure changes in phagocytic behavior of dHL-60 cells before and after TEM, dHL-60 cells

were cultured and differentiated as described in (cell culture section), and ETW sorted cells were

prepared by performing the treatment assay described in (cell culture section). dHL-60 cells in

the condition of interest were resuspended with pHrodo Green Zymosan Bioparticles conjugate

for phagocytosis (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at the manufacturer's recommended concentration

and co-incubated at 37C and 5% CO_2 for 30 min. The sample was then resuspended in 300 μL of

DPBS. pHrodo particles are pH sensitive and will only emit fluorescence in highly acidic

intercellular environments such as endosomes and lysosomes. As such, we could quantify the

number of cells that had performed phagocytosis by employing single-color flow cytometry

following the measurement and analysis protocols outlined in (flow cytometry section).

Inhibition of GRK2 expression in dHL-60 cells

GRK2 inhibition experiments were performed using CMPD101 (Tocris Bioscience). For control

conditions, day 5 dHL-60 cells were resuspended in supplemented M199 and incubated at 37C

and 5% CO_2 for thirty-six to forty-eight hours. They were then resuspended in supplemented

RPMI-1640 with 30 μM CMPD101, incubated for 30 min at 37C and 5% CO_2, then resuspended

in fresh supplemented RPMI-1640 at an appropriate concentration for experimental use. For TW

sorted conditions, cells were collected from the lower chamber of the sorting assay, as described

above, resuspended in supplemented RPMI-1640 with 30 μM CMPD101, incubated for 30 min at

37C and 5% CO_2, then resuspended in fresh supplemented RPMI-1640 at an appropriate

concentration for experimental use.

Time-dependent Bayesian sequential inference of heterogenous random walk

A 2D, first-order, auto-regressive process was used to model the persistent random walk of

individual cells with time-varying motility parameters. The time series of the velocity vector of an

individual cell, $\{\boldsymbol{v}_1, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{t-1}, \boldsymbol{v}_t, \boldsymbol{v}_{t+1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{v}_{N_t-2}\}$ was numerically obtained with 2nd order finite

differences, where N_t is the number of images in the timelapse. Adapting the methodology of

Metzner, Mark (26), the stochastic change in the velocity of a cell given the previous time step is

described by the time-discrete stochastic process,

$$\boldsymbol{v}_t = q_t\,\boldsymbol{v}_{t-1} + a_t\,\boldsymbol{n}_t.$$

Here, $q_t \in [-1,1]$ corresponds to the local persistence of the random walk, $a_t \in [0, \infty)$ represents

the local activity (stochastic amplitude) that sets the spatial scale of the random walk and $\boldsymbol{n}_t$

represents an uncorrelated, normally distributed noise with unit variance. The persistence q_t is a

measure of the directional correlation between the successive time steps, not necessarily in the

direction of the chemotactic gradient. $q_t = 1$ corresponds to a straight line and $q_t = 0$ to a non-

persistence Brownian diffusion. Higher values of a_t correlate with increase in metrics such as cell

speed, total displacement and track length. Together, the activity and persistence parameters

determine the variance of displacement steps within a cell track according to $var(v) =$

$a^2/(1 - q^2)$ independently in each coordinate. Bayesian sequential inference (adapted from

Metzner, Mark (26)) was performed in MATLAB to estimate the time-varying heterogeneous

migration parameters of each individual cell.

Unsupervised identification of heterogenous sub-population from the random walk

characteristics

Each individual cell was analyzed for changes in the migratory state during the duration of imaging

to avoid averaging over different motility modes. A density-based spatial clustering (DBSCAN)

algorithm (50) in MATLAB was employed to identify outliers and clusters in the inferred random

walk parameters (q_t, a_t) within a single cell trajectory data. The parameter a_t for each cell was

normalized to the range [0,1] for subsequent analyses. The parameters $\epsilon = 0.1$ and $minPts = 10$

was used for the DBSCAN algorithm. This procedure is termed 'local clustering'. If more than one

cluster was detected, they were treated as individual cells for further analysis. Each migrating

cell's trajectory was characterized by its average random walk parameters $(\bar{q}, \bar{a})$ of persistence

and activity after local clustering.

To automatically identify sub-populations and shifts in the sub-populations across all experimental

conditions (e.g. control, pharmacological treatments, etc.), cell-averaged random walk

parameters $(\bar{q}, \bar{a})$ were pooled together. A Variational Bayesian Gaussian Mixture Model (VB-

GMM) was used to cluster in the parameter space of $(\bar{q}, \bar{a})$. A Gaussian mixture model has the

advantage of identifying elliptical clusters with anisotropic variances and the Bayesian formulation

allows for automatically inferring the number of clusters from the data. This step, termed 'global

clustering', was performed to autonomously identify heterogenous sub-populations based on the

trajectory data alone.

The VB-GMM clustering algorithm fitted the datapoints in cell-averaged random motility parameter

space with K Gaussian distributions delineating the densely populated regions (51), using code

adapted from mixGaussVb.m in the MATLAB File Exchange, noting that we corrected an error in

the posterior covariance matrix in the code. The GMM model assumes a mixture of K Gaussian

clusters, each with a mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ and precision matrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k$, such that the distribution of the cell-

averaged random walk parameters $\boldsymbol{x}_n = (\bar{q}, \bar{a})_n$ is

819
$$\mathrm{p}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k \, N\left(\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{\mu}_k, \boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k^{-1}\right),$$

820   where π_k is the mixing coefficient, such that $\sum_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k = 1$ and $0 \leq \pi_k \leq 1$, controlling the proportion

821   of each cluster. A symmetric Dirichlet distribution was chosen as the conjugate prior for π_k with

822   the density,

823
$$p(\boldsymbol{\pi}) = \mathrm{Dir}(\boldsymbol{\pi}|\alpha_0) \propto \prod_{k=1}^{K} \pi_k^{\alpha_0 - 1}.$$

The concentration hyper-prior α_0 controls the sparsity of cluster numbers and the influence of

data on the inference of the number of components K. α_0 values closer to 0 impart *a priori* belief

that prefers fewer clusters that is influenced by data and as $\alpha_0 \to \infty$, the posterior of $\pi_k \to 1/K$

(no sparsity). For this manuscript, $\alpha_0 = 1$ was used which produces a flat Dirichlet distribution

letting the parameter K be determined only from the data. Such a flat distribution is advantageous

when working with many data points. For the parameters $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ and $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k$, a conjugate Gaussian-

Wishart prior with zero mean was prescribed. The variational inference of the GMM mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}_k$ and

precision matrix $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}_k$ as well as the number of clusters K was based on factorized approximation

to the posterior distribution through a latent variable representation. The specific details of the

inference method are omitted here, and the reader is referred to Bishop *et al* (51).

Figure Captions

Figure1. TEM process alters neutrophil phenotypes associating with the loss of directional

motility and better phagocytosis functions. (A) Schematic of the Transwell-based treatment

assay employed to replicate the physiological effects of TEM on PMN physiology. VECs are

seeded on the polycarbonate membrane of a TW insert and grown to confluence and activated

with TNF-α before day 5 DMSO-differentiated HL-60 cells are loaded into the upper chamber.

PMNs that transmigrate through the VEC monolayer and TW membrane are collected from the

lower chamber for use in further experiments. (B) RT-qPCR results of gene expressions in dHL-

60 cells subjected to static control or ETW-crossing cells. Values are expressed in terms of log

fold change compared to control. Error bars were calculated for ΔC_T values. n=3, *$p < 0.05$,

**$p < 0.01$ Krystal Wallis test. (C) TW condition where dHL-60 cells transmigration through the

Transwell membrane with pore diameter of 3 μm. (D-E) FCS results of cell surface CXCR1 and

CXCR2 expressions in control, TW, ETW and CC-treated dHL-60 cells. Fluorescent expression

levels of CXCR1 and CXCR2 on TW, ETW and CC-conditioning cells are relative to levels of the

control dHL-60 cells. (F) Flow cytometry demonstrating the signal intensity of GFP in dHL-60 cells.

The gray color intensity is from dHL-60 cells without interacting with zymosan, showing the basal

level. (G) Quantitative analysis of GFP positive cells after 3 hours incubation with pHrodo

zymosan. (D-F) $p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$ (versus control group) using a one-way ANOVA

with Dunnett's post multiple comparison test. n = 3.

Figure2. TEM induces heterogenous neutrophil motility in 3D accounting for overall

reduced area exploration and chemotactic migration. (A) Schematic of pocket device for *in*

vitro 3D directed neutrophil migration assays. (B) Sample image of cells migrating in a pocket

device with Trackmate cell tracking results overlayed. Inset shows the time sequence for a

chemotaxing cell, with tracked trajectory overlayed in green. Scale bar, 1000 μm. (C) Probability

density maps of aggregated trajectory endpoints are shown for dHL-60 cells in each of the four

conditions with representative sample tracks overlayed. Sample track color saturation increases

with time. The dashed red reference circle superimposed on each inset figure represents

unbiased random motion. fMLP concentration increases linearly in the positive y direction. Black

arrows show the large angle turns. Scale bar, 20 μm. (D) Population average chemotactic index

(CI). (E) Population average mean cell speeds in four treatment conditions in the presence

of fMLP gradient. Error bars represent 95% confidence interval. All pairwise conditions showed

statistically significant differences besides those labeled n.s. (not significant) in (D-E). ****$P <$

0.0001 according to the one-way ANOVA Tukey's test. (F) Mean squared displacements (MSDs)

versus distance separation along cell trajectories, $r^2(\Delta s)$. (G) Tangent vector autocorrelations

versus distance traveled, ($Ctt\ ((\Delta s))$), for fMLP condition, of four treatment conditions. The inset

represents the enlarged portion of the initial decay. (H) Migratory persistence length, L_P. Values

reflect the characteristic length of the slow decaying component of the double exponential fit, with

error bars calculated via bootstrapping (see Methods). ****$P < 0.0001$ according to the Brown-

Forsythe ANOVA test.

Figure3. Mapping individual cell trajectories to time-dependent activity and persistence

parameters of a heterogeneous persistence random walk reveals distinct migratory

subpopulations. (A-D) Probability density contour plots for motility modes, comprised of paired

activity and persistence values, for each of the four principal treatment conditions. Contours are

plotted for 5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, and 90% of total population density for each condition. (E)

Representative sample tracks taken from the high-(blue) and low-(grey) persistence clusters for

each of the four conditions. Color darkens along the course of each trajectory to indicate time

progression. fMLP gradient concentrations increases in direction of increasing y. (F) Relative

prevalence of each migratory subpopulation for each of the four conditions, expressed as

percentage of total population for each condition. Low-persistence cluster includes non-motile

cells.

Figure 5. Quantitatively characterizing migration statistics reveals the dHL-60 low

persistence subpopulation replicates key features of low persistence PMN behavior.

Descriptive statistics calculated for PMNs as compared to dHL-60 cell with treatment conditions

for cells assigned to high- and low-persistence subpopulations: (A-B) instantaneous mean cell

speed, (C-D) chemotactic index. (A-D) *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$P < 0.0001$ according

to the one-way ANOVA Tukey's test. (E-F) Probability distribution maps of turning angles ($\Delta\theta$)

conditional to separation distance (Δs), $p(\Delta\theta|\Delta s)$ of the high-persistence cluster (E) and the low-

persistence cluster (F) in PMNs and dHL-60 cells of the four conditions.

Figure 6. TEM-mediated leukocyte expression of GRK2 controls PMN's ability of directional

migration and phagocytosis. (A) RT-qPCR results indicating changes in internal gene

expression potential for GRK2 in all four conditions. Values are expressed in terms of log fold

change compared to control. Error bars were calculated for ΔCT values. n = 3. *$p < 0.05$,

**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$ to the one-way ANOVA Dunn's post t-test. (B) Probability density maps of

aggregated trajectory endpoints for ETW + CMPD treated dHL-60 cells with sample tracks

overlayed. Sample track color saturation increases with time. The dashed red reference circle

superimposed on each inset figure represents unbiased random motion. fMLP concentration

increases linearly in the positive y direction. Scale bar, 20 µm. (C) Population level instantaneous

mean cell speed, (D) chemotactic index, (E) MSDs and (F) autocorrelation function of the vector

tangent to the cell track versus distance traveled (Ctt ((Δs))), and (G) migratory persistence length

calculated for TW, ETW, and ETW + CMPD treated dHL-60 cells. (H) Flow cytometry

demonstrating the signal intensity of GFP in dHL-60 cells. Quantitative analysis of GFP positive

cells after 3 hours incubation with pHrodo zymosan. ***$p < 0.001$ (versus control group). n = 3

biological repeats. (C-D) *$p < 0.05$, ****$P < 0.0001$ according to the one-way ANOVA Tukey's test.

(G) ****$P < 0.0001$ according to the Brown-Forsythe ANOVA test. (H)**$P < 0.01$ according to

Student's t-test.

Figure7. GRK2 controls the TEM-mediated prevalence of low motility subpopulation. (A)

Probability density contour plot for paired activity/persistence motility modes of ETW + CMPD

treated cells, with contours plotted for 5, 10, 20, 40, 60, 80, and 90% of total population density.

30% and 90% contours of TW (grey circles) and ETW conditions (red triangles) are overlayed for

reference. (B) Relative prevalence of each migratory subpopulation for ETW, TW treated, TW +

CMPD, and Primary PMNs, expressed as percentage of total population for each condition. Low-

persistence cluster includes the "non-motile" cluster for the comparison. (C) Representative

sample tracks taken from the high-(blue) and low-(grey) persistence clusters for ETW + CMPD

treated cells. Color darkens along the course of each trajectory to indicate time progression. fMLP

gradient concentrations increases in direction of increasing y. (D-E) Descriptive statistics

calculated for cells assigned to high- and low-persistence subpopulations of TW, ETW, and ETW

+ CMPD treated conditions: (D) instantaneous mean cell speed, and (E) chemotactic index. (D-

E) *$p < 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$ using a one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test.

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1081

(A)

fMLP
50 nM

0 nM

| Pocket device for 3D migration assay

Type I Collagen Matrix
1 mg/mL rat tail tendon

Pre-treated dHL60 cells
Control, TW sorted, etc.

(B)

0 min   15 min   30 min   45 min   60 min

(C)

fMLP
50 nM

0 nM

Ctrl   TW   ETW   CC
Probability   Probability   Probability   Probability

(D)

Chemotactic Index (CI)

Ctrl   TW   ETW   CC

(E)

Mean cell speed (μm/min)

Ctrl   TW   ETW   CC

(F)

$r^2(\Delta s)(\mu m^2)$

Ctrl
TW
ETW
CC

$\Delta s (\mu m)$

(G)

$< t(s) \cdot t(s+\Delta s) > (\mu m^2)$

Ctrl
TW
ETW
CC

$\Delta s (\mu m)$

(H)

Persistence Length (μm)

Ctrl   TW   ETW   CC

(A) High-persistence cluster

(B) Low-persistence cluster

(C) High-persistence cluster

(D) Low-persistence cluster

(E)

Primary High   Ctrl High   TW High   ETW High   CC High

(B)

Primary Low   Ctrl Low   TW Low   ETW High   CC Low

(A) ETW-CMPD

(B) High-persistence / Low-persistence / Discard

(C) ETW-CMPD

(D) High-persistence / Low-persistence

(E) High-persistence / Low-persistence