Dendritic-cell diversity in equine blood revealed by single-cell transcriptomics

Marius Botos[1,2]*, Ambre Baillou[1,2]*, Simone Oberhaensli [3†], Iva Cvitas [4††], Sigridur Jonsdottir[4†††],

Anja Ziegler[4 ††††], Francisco Brito[1,2], Artur Summerfield[1,2], Eliane Marti [4], Stephanie C. Talker [1,2]

[1]*Institute of Virology and Immunology, Bern, Switzerland*
[2]*Department of Infectious Diseases and Pathobiology, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland*
[3]*Interfaculty Bioinformatics Unit and Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland*
[4]*Department of Clinical Research and Veterinary Public Health, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland*

*These two authors contributed equally to this work

† *present affiliation: Next Generation Sequencing Platform and Institute for Fish and Wildlife Health, Vetsuisse Faculty, University of Bern, Bern, Switzerland*
†† *present affiliation: ITPA, Vetsuisse, University of Bern*
††† *present affiliation: Institute for Experimental Pathology, Biomedical Center, University of Iceland, Keldur, Reykjavik, Iceland*
†††† *present affiliation: Ennetseeklinik für Kleintiere, Hünenberg, Switzerland*

Corresponding author:
Stephanie Talker
Länggassstrasse 122, 3012 Bern, Switzerland
Tel: +41 31 684 2483
stephanie.talker@unibe.ch

ABSTRACT

Unbiased classification of equine dendritic cells (DC) is necessary to address various research

questions such as the role of DC subsets in immune-mediated diseases of horses. We applied

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) on DC enriched from blood of two horses, based on

expression of CD172a, Flt3, CADM1 and CD14. All main DC subsets were detected based on key

gene expression, including cDC type 1 (cDC1; *XCR1*), cDC2 (*FCER1A*, *CD1E*) and plasmacytoid

DC (pDC; *TCF4*). In addition, we detected a small cluster of CD34-expressing DC progenitors. Our

data confirms the previously reported phenotype of equine pDC (MHC-II^{low}CADM1^{int}CD172a^{int}),

cDC1 (MHC-II^{high}CADM1^{high}CD172a$^{low-int}$) and cDC2 (MHC-II^{high}CADM1^{int}CD172a^{high}), while also

highlighting considerable CD14 expression for cDC2. Among Flt3$^+$ cells clustering with cDC2, we

identified a cluster resembling monocytes and showing a highly pro-inflammatory signature,

likely representing DC type 3 (DC3). Notably, one cDC2-associated cluster had a mixed

pDC/cDC2 signature (*TCF4*, *SPIB*, *FCER1A*), indicating the presence of transitional DC (tDC), a

new DC subset initially described in human and mouse, and more recently in pig. To assess cross-

species conservation of DC subsets, we compared equine and porcine DC scRNA-seq datasets

using SATURN, a deep learning method that combines gene expression with added biological

knowledge encoded in protein language models. This enabled mapping of the most similar DC

subsets between horse and pig, confirming the conservation of key transcriptomic features and

supporting the identification of equine tDC. Our atlas of equine blood DC is a valuable resource

for comparative analyses, and it forms the foundation for elucidating the role of DC subsets in

immunological diseases such as type I hypersensitivity in horses.

Key words: equine blood dendritic cells, single-cell RNA-seq, tDC, DC3, SATURN

INTRODUCTION

Dendritic cells (DC), despite their low frequency in tissues and blood, are central players in the

immune system, initiating and fine-tuning adaptive immune responses (1)Traditionally, DC have

been classified as conventional DC (cDC) and plasmacytoid DC (pDC). Conventional DC are

grouped into two main subtypes: cDC1, specialized in cross-presenting antigens through MHC

class I molecules, enabling them to prime CD8 T cells, and cDC2, which appear specialized in

promoting Th2 and Th17 responses (2). In contrast to cDC, pDC are described to be at least partly

of lymphoid origin (3,4). While the antigen presenting capabilities of pDC are being debated, they

are known for their potent antiviral effect by rapidly producing type I interferon (5), also in horse

(6). Flow cytometry (FCM) is widely employed for the characterization of DC subsets across

species (7). However, studies in veterinary species, in contrast to human and mouse, face several

limitations such as limited availability of species-reactive and fluorochrome-coupled

monoclonal antibodies (8). Furthermore, capturing the full spectrum of DC diversity and

plasticity by a set of pre-defined markers in FCM is not feasible and prone to bias. Delineating

cDC2 subsets, monocyte-like DC and monocytes is a challenging task due to overlapping

phenotypes and transcriptomes, especially when studying inflammatory processes (9). Single-

cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) has enabled the identification of novel DC subsets, including

DC type 3 (DC3) (10) and transitional DC (tDC) in human (11), mouse (12,13), and pig (14). Across

species investigated so far, DC3 have been described to share transcriptomic signatures with

both cDC2 and monocytes (12,15,16), reflecting their origin from monocyte-dendritic-cell

progenitors (10,12,17). In contrast, tDC were shown to originate from pro-pDC (13) and to

differentiate into cDC2-like cells, with improved ability to prime T cells and to produce pro-

inflammatory IL-1β (13). In horse, the recent scRNA-seq study of PBMC by Patel *et al.* confirmed

the identification of cDC1, cDC2, and pDC in blood, but did not extend investigations on DC

heterogeneity, likely due to the small number of DC analyzed (18).

Here, we describe previously unreported heterogeneity of DC in equine blood. By enriching DC

prior to scRNA-seq, we were able to detect four DC subsets (cDC1, cDC2, pDC, tDC) alongside

putative DC3 and DC progenitors. Having recently described the same DC subsets in blood of pig

(14), we applied the deep-learning tool SATURN (Species Alignment Through Unification of Rna

and proteiNs) (19) to integrate the DC-enriched scRNA-seq datasets of pig and horse. Among

available tools for (cross-species) integration (20–22), SATURN stands out by adding additional

information encoded in protein-language models, and, most noteworthy, circumvents the need

for overlapping gene annotations in different species. Using this tool, all DC subsets aligned

across horse and pig, further supporting the identification of equine tDC. Apart from the

description of novel DC subsets, our dataset is a valuable resource for advancing research in

equine and comparative immunology.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation of equine PBMC

Blood (100 mL) of three horses (**Table 1**) was collected into vacutainer collection tubes

(Vacuette®; Greiner, St.Gallen, Switzerland) by puncturing the jugular vein, with sodium heparin

as anti-coagulant. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were isolated by density gradient

centrifugation over Biocoll Separating Solution (density= 1.077 kg/l; Bioswisstec AG,

Schaffhausen, Switzerland). Erythrocytes were sedimented for 30 min at room temperature (RT)

before the upper leukocyte-rich plasma was collected and overlayed on Biocoll, and then

centrifuged at 1,800 x g for 20 min (RT). The interphase layer with PBMC was transferred to a new

50 mL tube and washed twice with PBS, with first centrifugation for 10 min at 290 x g and second

centrifugation for 10 min at 200 x g (RT). Finally, PBMC were resuspended in PBS before cell

sorting. The study was approved by the Animal Experimental Committee of the Canton of Berne,

Switzerland (No. BE 2/17).

Table 1. Horses used for 10X single-cell RNA-sequencing.

	Breed	Age (years)	Sex	Cells after filtering scRNA-seq data
Horse 1	Freiberger	10	male	2621
Horse 2	Freiberger	12	female	4374
Horse 3	Icelandic	8	female	238 (excluded from analysis)

Phenotyping of equine PBMC and DC enrichment by FACS

Freshly isolated equine PBMC were stained in 96-well U-bottom plates with 10×10^6 cells per

sample (phenotyping) or in 5 mL FACS tubes (sorting experiments) with 80×10^6 cells per tube

(sorting experiments). Antibodies against CD172a, CADM1, CD14, and CD163 (phenotyping only)

were used, alongside recombinant Flt3L. Bovine recombinant Flt3L-His, cross-reactive with

equine Flt3, was produced in house as previously described (6,23). All incubations were

performed for 20 min at 4°C, followed by washing with Cell Wash (BD Biosciences) and

centrifugation at 500 x g for 5 min. Prior to the staining, all samples were incubated with equine

IgG (Biorad; PEP001) to block Fc receptors. For phenotyping, cells were first incubated with anti-

CD163 (LND68A; mIgG1) and anti-CADM1 (3E1; IgY), followed by incubation with matching

secondary antibodies anti-mIgG1-PerCPeF710 and anti-IgY-biot. In the next step, ChromPure

mouse-IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch) was added to block remaining binding sites of the anti-

mIgG1 secondary antibody, alongside Streptavidin-BV421 (BD Horizon, 563259) and Flt3L-His

(Miltenyi Biotec GmbH). In the last step, ZenonAF488-labeled anti-CD14 (105; mIgG1) was added

alongside ZenonAF647-labeled anti-CD172a (DH59B; mIgG1), anti-His-PE (mIgG1; Miltenyi

Biotec GmbH), and LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable Near-IR stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Zenon labeling

kits were derived from Thermo Fisher Scientific. For enrichment of DC by FACS, cells were first

incubated with anti-CD172a (DH59B; mIgG1) and with anti-CADM1 (3E1; IgY), followed by

incubation with corresponding secondary antibodies anti-IgG1-A647 (Invitrogen, A-21240) and

anti-IgY-biotin (MILAN ANALYTICA, 103-065-155). Thereafter, cells were incubated with

ChromPure mouse-IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch), Streptavidin-BV421 (BD Horizon, 563259)

and Flt3L-His (Miltenyi Biotec GmbH), and in a final incubation step with ZenonAF488-labeled

anti-CD14 (105; mIgG1), anti-His-PE (mIgG1; Miltenyi Biotec GmbH), and LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable

Near-IR stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Zenon labeling kits were derived from Thermo Fisher

Scientific. Samples were acquired with a FACSCanto II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences)

equipped with three lasers (405, 488, and 633 nm). Compensation was calculated by FACSDiva

software using single-stained samples. Data were analyzed using FlowJo software (v10.10, BD

Biosciences). Sorting (FACS) was performed on a MoFlo ASTRIOS EQ equipped with five lasers

(355, 405, 488, 561, and 640 nm). A minimum of 30'000 cells was sorted. Cell counting and

viability assessments were conducted on a TC20 automated cell counter (Biorad, 1450102) using

Trypan Blue dye 0.40 % (Biorad, 1450021).

Single-cell RNA sequencing

Library preparation was done at the Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) Platform at the University

of Bern. The three libraries were stored at minus 80°C, before being pooled and sequenced in one

run. GEM generation & barcoding, reverse transcription, cDNA amplification and 3' gene

expression library generation steps were all performed according to the Chromium Single Cell 3'

Reagent Kits v3 User Guide (10x Genomics CG000183 Rev B) with all stipulated 10x Genomics

reagents. Specifically, cell suspensions of between 700-1100 cells / µL were prepared for the

GEM generation and barcoding step with a targeted cell recovery of 5'000 cells. After the GEM-

reverse transcription incubation, a clean-up step was performed and then 12 cycles of cDNA

amplification. The resulting cDNA was assessed for quantity and quality using a Thermo Fisher

Scientific Qubit 2.0 fluorometer with the Qubit dsDNA HS Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Q32854) and an Advanced Analytical Fragment Analyzer System using a Fragment Analyzer NGS

Fragment Kit (Agilent, DNF-473), respectively. Thereafter, 3' gene expression libraries were

constructed using a sample index PCR step of 11 cycles. At the end of the protocol, an additional

0.7x bead-based clean-up of the libraries was done. The produced cDNA libraries were tested for

quantity and quality using fluorometry and capillary electrophoresis as defined above. The cDNA

libraries were pooled and sequenced with a loading concentration of 300 pM, paired end and

single indexed, on an illumina NovaSeq 6000 sequencer with a shared NovaSeq 6000 S2 Reagent

Kit (100 cycles; illumina 20012862). The read set-up was as follows: read 1: 28 cycles, i7 index: 8

cycles, i5: 0 cycles and read 2: 91 cycles. The quality of the sequencing runs was assessed using

illumina Sequencing Analysis Viewer (illumina version 2.4.7) and all base call files were

demultiplexed and converted into FASTQ files using illumina bcl2fastq2 conversion software

version 2.19.0. An average of 543'231'771 reads/library were obtained. All steps were performed

at the Next Generation Sequencing Platform, University of Bern.

Genome reference and alignment

Raw data alignment of FASTQ files and UMI counting were performed using Cell Ranger (10X

Genomics, version 7.1). We used equCab3.0 (NCBI GCA_002863925.1) as the reference genome

and Ensembl EquCab3.0.111 as annotation. The reference obtained was used to align the FASTQ

files from three horse samples with the default arguments, except for "--include-introns = T". The

human gene names *HLA-DRA* and *HLA-DOB* found in the horse genome annotation were

replaced by *ELA-DRA* and *ELA-DOB* respectively, the gene names of their equine orthologs.

The sample from "Horse 3 "was excluded from further analysis (estimated number of cells 238).

CellRanger reports are given in **Supplementary Figure 1**.

For integration with the publicly available dataset from Patel et al. (scRNA-seq equine PBMC), our

dataset was re-processed using Ensembl v95 and End Sequence Analysis Toolkit (ESAT)(24), as

previously performed and described by Patel et al. (18).

Quality control and filtering

Scanpy (25) was used for the downstream analysis of the scRNA-seq data. Cells were marked as

outliers following single-cell best practices (26) by using lenient thresholds in order to avoid

excluding smaller subpopulations and filtering out cells that have median absolute deviations

(MAD) < 3 or > 5 for the log transformed total number of counts in a cell (sequencing depth), the

log transformed number of genes detected in a cell (library complexity), and the percentage of

total RNA counts in a cell that come from the 20 most highly expressed genes (technical artifacts

if too high value). Thus, cells with mitochondrial genes > 10% and a number of MAD < 5 or > 5, as

well as cells with hemoglobin genes > 5% and a number of MAD < 8 or > 3, were filtered out. Next,

each sample was individually reassessed and processed for removal of doublets using scrublet

(27). PCA was applied to each sample to visualize the scores and results of the filtering steps

before integration.

Integration of equine data, clustering, and ranking of differentially expressed genes

The tool scVI (Single-cell Variational Inference) (28) was used to integrate and batch-correct the

data based on the batch covariate (sample) with standard parameters except for the "n_latent =

30" and "n_layers = 2" arguments, in order to obtain a larger number of embeddings. These

embeddings were the input for UMAP, and clustering was performed with the Leiden algorithm at

different resolutions. To obtain the ranking of highly differentially expressed genes in each cluster

at different resolutions, Wilcoxon rank-sum was used with the scanpy default function

"sc.tl.rank_genes_groups", on the normalized and log transformed counts. Inclusion of the extra

argument "pts=True" computed the fraction of cells expressing the genes, found as column

names pts.1 and pts.2, reported in the differential expressed gene list.

For subsetting and integrating our dataset with the publicly available scRNA-seq dataset from

equine PBMC, we followed the code published by Patel et al. alongside their manuscript (18).

Briefly, we used SCT for normalization and performed integration on the 5,500 most variable

genes. Unsupervised graph-based clustering was performed on the top 40 principal

components.

Gene Ontology Biological Processes & Hallmarks Over-Representation Analysis

199   Decoupler (29) was used to find over-represented gene signatures from "gene ontology biological

200   processes (go-bp)" and "hallmarks" from the Molecular Signature Database (MSigDB) (30) with

201   the function "run_ora". Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to select the top "go-bp" and

202   "hallmarks" gene signatures.

Across-species gene signature enrichment analysis using AUC

Decoupler (29) was used to calculate the enrichment score of specific gene signatures, with its

package function "run_aucell". The function performs area under the curve (AUC) analysis on the

non-transformed count values obtained from the Cellranger alignment step. Gene signature sets

were obtained from publicly available scRNA-seq data of DC populations from human (11),

mouse (31), and pig (14). We tested different parameters for the percent of top genes to be

selected in each single cell. Percentages were increased to 75 % for signatures that contained a

low number of genes. The following parameters were used in the final analysis: for porcine cDC2

and tDC signatures we used 75 %, for all other porcine DC subsets (cDC1, pDC, DC3) we used

50%. For murine pDC we used 75 %, for all other murine DC subsets we used 5%. For human tDC

we used 75%, for all other human DC subsets we used 50%.

The enrichment score distributions across cells were visualized using histograms, allowing us to

set a threshold for selecting enriched cells. UMAP representation was used for visualizing

enrichment score in scRNA-seq data, from non-enriched cells (blue) to highly enriched cells

(yellow) (**Supp. Fig. 2**).

Integration of equine and porcine DC subsets using SATURN

Given the availability of in-house generated scRNA-seq data of enriched DC from equine and

porcine blood, we applied SATURN (19) to obtain cell embeddings that couple "biological

properties" of protein language models (pLMs) with RNA expression. We used SATURN with its

default ESM-1b model (esm1b_t33_650M_UR50S) (32) following a three-step protocol: first, we

created the equine and porcine protein embeddings, taking the protein translations/conversion

of Ensembl genome (release 111) for both species. Second, we added layers for raw counts for

each scRNA-seq dataset, and the cell type labeling to be used for integration. Additionally, we

randomly subset the porcine dataset to use the same number of cells as in the equine dataset

(5.5 k cells). Third, the following arguments of SATURN were adjusted to account for the size of

the datasets: (i) "pretrain_batch_size=64" and "batch_size=64", being the closest value to our DC

population with lowest number of cells, (ii) " model_dim=64" and "hidden dim=64", following the

logic of the default arguments, we set the same number of features to be extracted for the

integrated object, and (iii) "scale_expression=True". After integration, we examined the integrated

data by PCA to assess the overlap of cells by species and cell subsets.

Preparation of Figures

234   Figures were prepared using FlowJoTM v10.10.0 (BD Life Sciences), R v4.3.3, Rstudio v2024.04.1,

235   scanpy v1.10.3, matplotlib v3.9.2, seaborn v0.13.2, decoupler v1.8.0, Adobe Illustrator, and

236   Inkscape v1.3.2 (https://www.inkscape.org).

RESULTS

Phenotyping of equine DC and monocytes

As dendritic cells constitute a minor population within PBMC, it was necessary to enrich them by

fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) prior to scRNA-seq. We analyzed expression of Flt3,

CD172a, CD14, CADM1 and CD163 to develop a gating strategy with optimal DC enrichment and

exclusion of (most) monocytes.

Visualizing Flt3 vs. CD172a expression did not allow for a clear delineation of DC and monocytes

due to high autofluorescence of the latter (**Fig. 1A**). Therefore Flt3-enriched cells were further

sub-gated to visualize expression of CD14 vs. CADM1. Within the resulting five populations,

putative DC and monocyte subsets were defined. While cDC1 (CD14^{low}CADM1^{high}) and pDC

(CD14^{neg}CADM1^{int}) were negative for *CD163*, cDC2 (CD14^{int}CADM1^{int}) expressed low levels of

CD163. Expression of CD172a was lowest on pDC, heterogenous on cDC1, and high on cD2.

Putative classical monocytes (cM, CD14$^{int-high}$CADM1^{low}) expressed high levels of CD163 and

CD172a. Putative non-classical monocytes (ncM, CD14^{high}CADM1$^{neg-low}$) expressed low levels of

CD163, the highest level of CD172a, and were lower in forward scatter (FSC-A), as reported for

ncM in blood of cattle (33). Analysis of *CCR7* upregulation following Resiquimod stimulation of

equine PBMC, as previously performed for bovine PBMC (34), further supports the gating strategy

to enrich DC, as gated monocytes (putative cM and ncM) failed to upregulate *CCR7* in contrast to

DC subsets (data not shown).

Single-cell RNA-seq of DC enriched from equine PBMC

Dendritic cells were enriched from freshly isolated equine PBMC of three horses and scRNA-seq

(3' gene expression, 10X Genomics) was performed immediately after FACS-enrichment. As

shown in **Figure 1B**, scRNA-seq of enriched DC resulted in 7 clusters (resolution 0.45). One horse

was excluded from further analyses due to the low number of cells (**Table 1**, **Supp. Fig. 1**). For the

remaining two horses, a total of 5,581 cells passed quality filtering (**Supp. Fig. 3**). Cluster

proportions are shown in **Supp. Fig 3.** The complete and original gating strategies for Horse 1 and

Horse 2 are shown in **Supplementary Figure 4**.

By visualizing the expression of key genes, we identified cluster 1 as cDC1 (*XCR1*, *BATF3*, *IRF8*,

CLEC9A, *CLNK*, *CADM1*), clusters 0, 3, 4, and 5 as cDC2 (*FCER1A*, *CD1C*, *CD1A2*, *CSF1R*, *SIRPA*),

cluster 2 as pDC (*TCF4*, *BLNK*, *IRF7*, *SPIB*), and cluster 6 as hematopoietic progenitors (*CD34*)

(**Fig. 2B-D**). Notably, *TCF4* was also expressed by a subset of cells clustering as cDC2. These

TCF4-expressing cells co-expressed *FCER1A* and appeared to exclusively lack *CSF1R*

expression. Differential gene expression analysis (DEA; **Fig. 2E**) revealed additional markers for

cDC1 (e.g. *CPVL*, *CST3*, *LRRK2*, *ID2*), cDC2 (e.g. *S100A4*, *MNDA*, *GIMAP5*, *TYROBP*, *IFI16*, *IL32*)

and pDC (e.g. *CTSC*, *UGCG*, *FYB1*, *CLECL1*) (**Fig. 2D**). Furthermore, hematopoietic progenitors

(c6) were enriched for *MEIS1*, *DACH1* and *MSI2* transcripts (**Fig. 2B**), as reported for mice (35,36).

Complete gene lists from DEA are given in **Supplementary File 1.**

Gene expression patterns for *Flt3, CD14, CD172a, CADM1,* and MHC-II in the cDC1, cDC2 and

pDC clusters (**Fig. 2F**) were in line with surface protein expression detected in flow cytometry (**Fig.**

1) and with previous phenotyping performed by Ziegler *et al.* (6) (**Fig. 1A**).

Delineation of transitional DC (tDC) and putative DC3 from cDC2

Four distinct clusters were apparent within cDC2 (**Fig. 3A**). Two clusters (c0 and c3) appeared in

fact to be comprised of cDC2, as judging from the visualization of *CD1E* and *CD1A2* expression

in feature plots (**Fig. 3B**). One cluster (c4) was identified as tDC according to its expression of

pDC-associated genes (*TCF4*, *SPIB1*, *BLNK*) alongside cDC2-associated genes (**Fig. 3C**). Notably,

one cluster (c5) displayed a monocyte-like signature with high expression of pro-inflammatory

genes (*S100A12, FCN1*) (**Fig. 3D**). Based on co-expression of *FLT3* and *CD163 / CSF1R*, we

annotated this cluster as putative DC3 (**Fig. 3E**). Over-representation analysis confirmed the pro-

inflammatory signature of the putative DC3 cluster and additionally revealed an enrichment of
complement-associated transcripts (**Fig. 3F**).

Differential gene expression analysis was performed to determine specific signatures of cDC2
(c0&c3), tDC and DC3, as well as signatures differentiating tDC or DC3 from cDC2 (c0&3) (**Fig.**
3G). Expression of MHC-II and CD1 family genes was enriched in cDC2 clusters (c0, c3). Among
the top genes enriched in tDC (c4) was *DPP4*, encoding the peptidase CD26 that is reported to
regulate chemokine activity and thereby migration during inflammation (37). Moreover, *MS4A3*
and *PLXNA4* transcription was found to be enriched in equine tDC, when compared to cDC2 and
DC3. Notably MS4A3 is reported to regulate the cell cycle and to be specifically expressed in
myeloid precursors (38) Plexin 4 (*PLXNA4*) is described as a co-receptor for class 3 semaphorins,
suggesting an important role for semaphorin signaling in tDC, such as the reported dependence
on semaphorin 3A signaling for DC transmigration into the lymphatic system (39). Heatmaps and
selected violin plots of top enriched genes in the main DC subsets are shown in **Figure 3G-H**.
Complete gene lists are given in **Supplementary File 1**.

Among top gene transcripts enriched in putative DC3 were *LAMP1*, *FCN1*, *LYZ* and *S100A12*, i.e.
genes commonly associated with pro-inflammatory monocytes.

Delineation of cDC2 from monocytes

Precise delineation of cDC2 and DC3 from monocytes is challenging across species. As our DC-
enriched dataset likely contains very few monocytes, we took advantage of a previously
published scRNA-seq dataset from equine PBMC (18) to integrate equine monocytes with our
dataset (**Supp. Fig. 5**).

To prepare our dataset for integration with the publicly available dataset from Patel et al., our
dataset was re-processed using Ensembl v95 with the End-Sequence Analysis Toolkit (ESAT) (24).
As described in Patel et al., ESAT processing was necessary with the previous Ensembl
annotation (Ensembl v95) to rescue reads mapping to poorly annotated 3' untranslated regions
(18). Also in our dataset, ESAT-processing significantly increased the number of detected genes
for this previous annotation (Ensembl v95) (**Supp. Fig.5**).

We identified 12 distinct clusters among the integrated dataset (**Fig. 4A**), comprising co-
clustering of DC and monocytes from both datasets, as indicated by the visualization of DC- and
monocyte-related genes (**Fig. 4B** and **4C**).

Monocytes from the Patel dataset clustered to the left (c1, c3, c4, c6, c7, c10), expressing high
levels of *CD14* and *LYZ* (**Fig. 4D**). Cells from our DC-enriched dataset clustered mostly to the right
of the UMAP plot (c0, c2, c5, c8, c9, c11, c12), alongside *FLT3*-expressing cells from the Patel

dataset. Notably, some cells from our dataset clustered with monocytes, but expressed *FLT3*

alongside *CD14* and *LYZ* (**Fig. 4E**), potentially indicating DC3 identity.

Heterogeneity of cDC2

Two clusters of cDC2 were evident in our dataset (**Fig. 5A**; cDC2.1 and cDC2.2) that may

resemble cDC2 subsets described for human and mouse. While cDC2.1 (c0) expressed higher

levels of *FCER1A*, cDC2.2 (c3) were clearly enriched in *CX3CR1* transcripts (**Fig. 5B**)

Notably, expression of CX3CR1 distinguishes murine T-bet cDC2 (cDC2B) from T-bet$^+$ cDC2

(cDC2A) (40,41).

Accordingly, our cDC2.2 may correspond to murine cDC2B, which were described to have a more

pro-inflammatory profile and to be more capable of T-cell stimulation (41), as opposed to cDC2A

that appear to be involved in tissue repair.

The reported higher ability of murine cDC2A to stimulate naive T-cells, would be in line with higher

expression of MHC-II –related genes (*ELA-DRA*, *CD74*) on equine cDC2.2. (**Figure 5C**).

However, overall, equine cDC2.1 appeared more similar to pro-inflammatory monocytes, as

shown by their higher expression of *CCR2* and *GAPDH*. Moreover, expression of *TLR2* was higher

in CDC2.1, suggesting better recognition of bacterial lipoproteins by this subset. In line with high

CX3CR1 expression in cDC2.2, gene expression for CD49d (*ITGA4*), acting as part of a coreceptor

for fractalkine (CX3CL1), was higher in this subset (39). Moreover, transcripts for the co-inhibitory

receptor CD31 (*PECAM1*) were enriched in CDC2.2, suggesting tolerogenic functions of cDC2.2

(43). Top 25 differentially expressed genes between cDC2 subclusters are given in **Figure 5D.** The

complete gene list is given in **Supplementary File 1.**

Taken together, gene transcription suggests pro-inflammatory classical monocyte-like functions

for cDC2.1, and T-cell modulatory functions reminiscent of nonclassical monocytes in cDC2.2.

This, however, would suggest that CX3CR1 expression on equine cDC2 subsets cannot be used

to differentiate subsets analogous to the cDC2 subsets described for mouse and human.

Gene expression related to main DC functions

Genes associated with DC functions, such as pattern recognition, migration and adhesion,

antigen presentation and T-cell modulation, as well as genes for other categories of interest, were

visualized for all seven analyzed DC subsets (**Fig. 6** and **Supp. Fig. 6**).

Among genes encoding pattern recognition receptors, *TLR4* transcripts were almost exclusively

detected in putative DC3, while *TLR9* transcripts were almost exclusively detected in pDC.

Additionally, both pDC and DC3 expressed the highest levels of *TLR7* (**Fig. 6B**). Plasmacytoid DC

expressed the highest levels of *CXCR3*, *SELL* (CD62L), *PECAM1* (CD31), *ITGAL* (CD11a), *ITGB7*,

and *ITGAE* (CD103), while cDC1 expressed the highest levels of *ITGA4* and *ITGB1* (**Fig. 6C**).

Expression of *ITGAX* (CD11c) was clearly enriched in cDC2 and putative DC3.

Among genes encoding co-stimulatory molecules (*CD80*, *CD83*, *CD86*), CD2.2 appeared to be

enriched in transcripts for *CD83* (**Fig. 6D**). Expression of CD86 was uniform across subsets, apart

from DC progenitors and pDC, where lower levels were detected. Expression of MHC-II-related

genes was highest in cDC1 and cDC2.2, while gene expression for CD1 molecules showed a more

complex pattern: cDC2, in particular cDC2.1, expressed the highest levels of *CD1A2*, *CD1C* and

CD1E, while transcripts for *CD1E1* were enriched in pDC. Notably, pDC also expressed

considerable levels of *CD1C*. As expected, *WDFY4* (involved in cross-presentation) showed the

highest expression in cDC1. Notably, the second highest level for *WDFY4* was detected in pDC.

Furthermore, plasmacytoid DC stood out by expressing the highest level of *IL10RB*, while DC3

showed very high expression of *LYZ* (**Supp. Fig. 6A**).

Overall, DC subsets expressed similar levels of glycolysis-related and other metabolic genes,

with the notable exception of the very high *SDHB* expression in pDC and the high *GAPDH*

expression in cDC2.1 (**Supp. Fig. 6**).

Species comparisons support identification of equine tDC

To explore the conservation of our DC populations across species, we first examined the relative

enrichment of DC signatures from human blood (11), murine spleen (31) and porcine blood (14)

in our equine scRNA-seq clusters by gene-set enrichment analysis (GSEA). Overall, pDC- and

DC3-derived signatures were specifically conserved between each compared species and horse

(**Fig. 7A-C**). Interestingly, porcine and human cDC2 signatures exhibited higher enrichment

scores in the equine cDC2.2 subcluster (c3), but were not enriched in the main cDC2.1

subcluster (c0) (**Fig. 7A** and **7C**). Moreover, murine gene signatures from cDC2 and tDC showed

the highest enrichment scores in clusters 0 and 3 (cDC2), and cluster 4 (tDC), respectively, thus

indicating the conservation of DC subset signatures between mouse and horse (**Fig. 7C**)

However, in comparison to pig and human gene sets, the murine cDC1-derived gene set showed

less specificity for equine cDC1 (c1), as shown by the high enrichment score in both cDC1 (c1)

and cDC2 (c0 and c3).

Next, we explored SATURN, a deep learning integration tool based on protein-language models

(19), to compare equine DC to our in-house generated dataset of porcine DC (14). Notably,

SATURN is described to bypass the limitation of one-to-one orthologs and the loss of information

that can be associated to species comparisons based on gene signatures. The selection of 6

principal components (PC), explaining 98.4 % of the variance in the dataset (**Supp. Fig. 7)**

resulted in co-clustering of corresponding DC subsets from the two species (**Fig. 8A**). More

specifically, we found that cDC2 of horse and pig overlapped, while for the other DC subsets,

cells from horse and pig came close and partially overlapped. Notably, the clustering of equine

tDC with porcine tDC supports their classification. Surprisingly, with increasing number of PC

used for the integration, cDC1 and pDC increasingly separated from their counterparts, while

cDC2 of both species remained well integrated (**Supp. Fig. 7**).

To investigate the consequences of PC reduction in another dataset, we re-analyzed a dataset

from a recently published benchmarking study (22). The authors used the default number of PC

(i.e. 30) for integration between species and for some of their smallest datasets (e.g. human &

pig, monkey & pig), SATURN performed relatively poorly in terms of integrating corresponding cell

types. By reducing the number of PC in our re-analysis, we obtained good integration (overlapping

cell types) also for these datasets **(Supp. Fig. 8)**.

To further explore the SATURN-integrated dataset, we performed differential expression analysis

on the macrogenes. In SATURN, macrogenes are groups of genes that share similar protein

embeddings. The top five macrogenes are visualized in **Figure 8B.** Two selected macrogenes with

high enrichment for tDC ("1556" and "1043") were visualized in feature plots, showing

enrichment for the majority of cells in the tDC cluster and for some cells in the cDC2 cluster (**Fig.**

8C). Weights given in **Figure 8D** define the importance of genes within macrogenes, but,

importantly, do not reflect mean expression of that gene. Among the top five weighted genes for

these two selected tDC-specific macrogenes, was pig_PLXNA4. Notably, this gene was detected

as tDC-enriched in our DEG analysis (**Supp. File 1**), but was found to be expressed across DC

subsets of pig and horse, as shown in **Figure 8D**. Complete lists of differentially expressed

macrogenes across DC subsets are given in **Supplementary File 2**, alongside gene content for

the top five macrogenes of all five DC subsets. To conclude, further exploration is necessary to

determine whether macrogene modules can provide deeper insights into DC subsets across

species.

DISCUSSION

By performing scRNA-seq on enriched Flt3$^+$ DC from blood of two horses, we identified five DC

subsets, including tDC and putative DC3 alongside cDC1, cDC2, pDC, and DC progenitors.

Equine cDC1 and pDC were detected as distinct clusters expressing key genes conserved across

species (7). Equine cDC2, identified primarily through expression of *FCER1A*, formed the biggest

cluster (approx. 50 % within DC) and could be separated into at least two subsets.

In a previous study, equine pDC were gated as CD14⁻Flt3⁺CADM1⁻MHC-IIll^ow, as confirmed by

qPCR for conserved key genes (*PLAC8*, *RUNX2*, *TCF4*) (6). Our scRNA-seq dataset confirms this

gating strategy and the described phenotype, with pDC expressing relatively low levels of MHC-II

and presumably lacking expression of *CD172a, CADM1,* and *CD14*.

Putative cDC1 were described as Flt3⁺CD4⁻CD13⁺CD14^low CD172a⁻CADM1⁺MHC-II^high, which is in

line with the high expression of *CADM1* and genes encoding MHC-II molecules in the cDC1

cluster of our scRNA-seq dataset. In the same study (6), putative cDC2 were described as

Flt3⁺CD4⁻CD13⁻CD14^low CD172a⁺CADM1^low MHC-II^high. As discussed below, our data (scRNA-seq

and flow cytometry) argue for adjusting this phenotype to CD14⁺ (6).

Both tDC and putative DC3 were found to cluster closely with cDC2. Identification of tDC was

based on expression of pDC-associated genes (*TCF4*, *SPIB*, *BLNK*) alongside cDC2-associated

genes like *FCER1A*. This transcriptomic signature in-between pDC and cDC2 is described across

species investigated so far, including human (11), mouse (13), and more recently pig (14), and

highlights their proposed origin from pro-pDC (9) and differentiation towards cDC2-like cells.

In terms of function, tDC are described to produce pro-inflammatory IL1-β during viral infection

in the mouse model (13), and to be recruited to human skin upon experimental inoculation with

UV-inactivated E. coli (44). Our data indicates expression of *TLR2* and *NLRP3* in equine tDC,

suggesting their capability to recognize gram-positive bacteria, rather than gram-negative

bacteria, and to produce active IL-1β via inflammasome activation (45).

Expression of MHC-II was lower in tDC than in cDC1 and cDC2, but was considerably higher in

tDC than in pDC, aligning with transcriptomic studies performed in all three species investigated

so far (13,14,31,44), and supporting their involvement in CD4 T-cell activation. Judging from the

level of *WDFY4* detection, tDC may also be capable of cross-presentation (46). In our study, tDC

were found to comprise 4 % and 6 % within DC for "Horse 1" and "Horse 2", respectively, which

is comparable to frequencies found in blood of humans and spleen of mice (11,13,40,44,47,48),

and in contrast to the high frequency (approx. 30 % detected within DC) that we recently reported

for blood of pigs (14). Future studies should address differences in frequency and gene

expression of tDC across tissues and species and should discuss possible implications for tDC

biology. A more general enrichment strategy, encompassing the whole mononuclear phagocyte

system, will be necessary for these comparisons to reduce gating bias in FACS, as discussed

further below.

The two cDC2 clusters (termed here cDC2.1 and cDC2.2), identified in our dataset at first glance

resembled CX3CR1-defined cDC2 subsets described in human and mouse. However, upon

closer inspection, they did not appear to fit into the reported dichotomy of pro-inflammatory

CX3CR1$^+$ cDC2 and pro-resolving CX3CR1$^-$ cDC2. Rather, equine cDC2.1 (lacking *CX3CR1*

expression while expressing *CCR2*) transcriptomically resembled classical monocytes, and

cDC2.2 (expressing *CX3CR1* while lacking *CCR2* expression) resembled non-classical

monoctyes. Future scRNA-seq technologies with improved sensitivity, combined with protein-

level and epigenomic analyses may provide more insights in this regard. However, cDC2

heterogeneity, presumably shaped by ontogeny (49) as well as environmental plasticity (50), will

likely remain challenging to dissect – across species and tissues (9).

A subset of inflammatory cDC2 described in humans (51), was later discovered to comprise a

separate DC lineage: dendritic cell type 3 (DC3), characterized by their co-expression of dendritic

and monocytic markers (12,17).

In our dataset, putative DC3 (*FLT3*, *CD163*) were found to cluster with cDC2. Notably, in contrast

to other investigated species (mouse, human, pig), *CD14* could not be used to differentiate DC3

from cDC2, as equine cDC2 were almost uniformly expressing *CD14*.

Across species, expression of CD14 is used to identify monocytes and to differentiate them from

DC (52–54). With the discovery of *CD14*-expressing DC3 in human and mouse (10,12,14–16), this

marker has been put into question. In pig, *CD14* expression appears to be limited to DC3 and

monocytes (14), however, our scRNA-seq data and additional phenotyping data now clearly

indicate that equine cDC2 express considerable levels of *CD14*. For the present study, we were

able to exclude most monocytes by stringent gating based on CADM1 expression. While this

enhanced enrichment of DC proofed beneficial to detect rare DC subsets like progenitors, tDC

and DC3, this gating strategy may also have excluded some cDC2 and DC3 from our analysis, as

continuous CADM1 expression on CD14$^+$ cells did not allow for a clear separation of dendritic

and monocytic cells.

This phenotypic overlap at the cDC2/DC3/monocyte interface is encountered across species and

can likely not be resolved by additional phenotypic markers (51), especially under inflammatory

conditions (9).

Sequencing of enriched DC alongside total mononuclear phagocytes should provide a more

complete picture of DC heterogeneity, although a clear separation of DC and monocytes will

likely remain challenging, as experienced with our recently published DC atlas for blood of pigs

(14).

To assess conservation of DC signatures across species, we first applied GSEA. One limitation of

this analysis is that it relies on annotated orthologs in compared species. Moreover, signatures

for GSEA are derived from DEG analysis. In these DC subset comparisons, signatures of cDC2

are known to be composed of relatively few genes. Given that this signature is further restricted

by the lack of annotated orthologs, this likely explains our findings. Conversion of gene names

across compared species, as performed for GSEA on our porcine DC dataset (14), may improve

the outcome of these analyses.

Cross-species mapping of tDC signatures by GSEA confirmed our annotation, although tDC

signatures derived from a porcine (14) and a human dataset (11) primarily mapped onto equine

pDC. Given the expression of many pDC-associated genes in tDC, this finding could be expected.

In addition to GSEA, we explored SATURN (19), a deep learning tool based on protein-language

models (19) that is reported to outperform other tools for species comparisons (22).

For each species or dataset to be integrated, SATURN converts transcriptomic data to protein

sequences and then couples them to a protein language model to extract the protein

embeddings. Based on these embeddings, it learns the representation (integrated object across

species) of the transcriptomic datasets. As this tool is based on protein sequences in a joint

embedding, it may overcome limitations from poorly annotated reference genomes. We used

SATURN to integrate the scRNA-seq data of equine DC with our recently published scRNA-seq

data of porcine DC (14). DC subsets co-clustered as expected, with equine tDC clearly clustering

together with porcine tDC.

Here, SATURN was tried for the first time on closely related cell types (DC subtypes). Moreover,

our dataset was considerably smaller than the datasets used in the original SATURN paper.

Expected results (co-clustering of DC subsets across species) were obtained, when parameters

(like the number of used PCs) were adjusted. Rather unexpected was the clustering observed

upon inclusion of a higher number of PCs (explaining close to 100 % of the variation), with cDC2

of horse and pig remaining co-clustered and cDC1 and pDC increasingly separating from their

counterparts. In fact, cDC2 are known to be very heterogeneous, and cross-species analyses

based on gene signatures usually give conflicting results with cDC2. On the other hand, cDC1

and pDC are relatively well-defined and homogeneous cell types with specific core signatures

conserved across species (52,53) and we would have expected them to cluster together

independently of included PCs.

As the top 5 selected PCs explained at least 90 % of variation in all three datasets analyzed, it

appears justified to restrict the number of PCs and one could argue that cell-type information is

contained in these first few PCs, whereas species-specific information and noise is contained in

later PCs, explaining much less of the observed variance. Additional analyses on different

datasets (e.g. small vs. large, expected low vs. high technical batch effects) are necessary to

better understand the driving factors behind this deep-learning tool. Furthermore, it remains to

be determined if SATURN is useful to extract additional information from macrogenes – for

example novel conserved DC markers, with potential insights into conserved functions of DC

subsets.

Others have characterized equine immune cells by scRNA-seq of PBMC (18), BALF

(bronchoalveolar lavage fluid) (55), synovial fluid (56), and endometrium (57), but detected only

low frequencies of DC. Through DC enrichment prior to scRNA-seq, our study provides the first

in-depth analysis of equine DC heterogeneity.

With the present characterization of transitional DC in equine blood, we pave the way for

identifying and investigating this DC subset in tissues like the skin, as their recruitment to skin

and their adoption of a pro-inflammatory profile has been reported for humans (44).

Moreover, it remains to be determined if equine tDC have a role in driving inflammation during

viral infections, as suggested based on murine studies (13). With more and more species

contributing to a universal DC atlas, comparative analyses promise to considerably improve our

understanding of this complex DC network.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

MB: bioinformatic data analysis (scVI, SATURN), preparation of figures, manuscript editing

AB: manuscript writing and editing

SO: bioinformatic data analysis

IC: laboratory work

SJ: laboratory work

AZ: data analysis

FB: bioinformatic data analysis

AS: manuscript editing

EM: study design, manuscript editing

SCT: study design, supervision of laboratory work, data analysis, figure design and preparation,

manuscript writing

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Figure 1

A   Phenotyping to establish enrichment strategy for equine DC

B   Enrichment of DC by FACS for scRNA-seq

Figure 1: Phenotyping of equine DC and monocytes. **(A)** Gating strategy for phenotyping of putative DC and monocyte subsets. Large cells within PBMC were gated, doublets and dead cells excluded, and a first gating was set to include most DC as well as monocytes falling in the Flt3 gate. Putative DC and monocyte subsets were defined based on expression of CD14 and CADM1. Overlayed dotplot shows localization of subsets in CD172a vs. Flt3 plot. For each subset, expression levels of CD163 and CD172a were visualized in histograms, alongside forward scatter intensity (FSC-A). **(B)** Enrichment strategy for scRNA-seq of DC, and annotation of scRNA-seq clusters.

Figure 2

Figure 2. Identification of main DC subsets in blood of horse. (A) Enrichment of DC for scRNA-seq. **(B)** Annotation of traditional DC subsets (cDC1, CDC2, pDC) and DC progenitors. **(C)** Feature plots of key markers used for subset identification. **(D)** Dotplot with additional DC subset-specific genes. **(E)** Top 20 genes obtained from differential expression analysis. Complete gene lists are given in **Supplementary File 1**. **(F)** Violin plots show gene expression for phenotypic markers previously analyzed by flow cytometry.

Figure 3: Delineation of tDC and putative DC3 from cDC2. (A) Cluster annotation. **(B)** Annotation of c0 and c3 as CDC2 based on expression of CD1 genes. **(C)** Annotation of c4 as tDC based on expression of pDC-related genes. **(D-F)** Annotation of c5 as DC3, based on pro-inflammatory profile and co-expression of FLT3 and monocyte markers on the single-cell level (scatter plot). **(G)** Heatmaps showing top 10 differentially expressed genes (DEG) between cDC2, DC3 and tDC (left), cDC2 and tDC (middle), and cDC2 and DC3 (right). **(H)** Violin plots show selected genes from DEG analysis enriched in either cDC2, tDC, or DC3. Complete gene lists are given in **Supplementary File 1.**

Figure 4

Figure 4: Delineation of cDC2 from monocytes. DC and monocytes from a previously published scRNA-seq dataset (equine PBMC, Patel et al.) were re-processed, subsetted and integrated with our re-processed DC-enriched dataset **(Suppl. Fig. 5)** Our dataset was re-processed with Ensembl v95 and the ESAT tool to match the dataset available from Patel et al. **(A)** Clustering of integrated dataset. (B-C) Feature plots show expression of monocyte-associated genes **(B)** and DC-associated genes **(C)** for "Horse 1" and "Horse 2" from our dataset and for the seven horses analyzed by Patel et al. **(D)** Violin plots visualize gene expression for key monocyte/ DC markers on the cluster level. **(E)** Scatter plots show cells in cluster 4 co-expressing FLT3 and monocytic markers (CD14, LYZ).

Figure 5

Figure 5. Heterogeneity of cDC2. (A) Cluster annotation. **(B)** Violin plots show gene expression of FCER1A and CX3CR1 in cDC2 subsets. **(D)** Selected violin plots based on DEG analysis. **(C)** Heatmap shows top 25 differentially expressed genes (DEG) between cDC2.1 and cDC2.2. Complete gene lists are given in **Supplementary File 1**.

Figure 6

Figure 6. Gene expression related to main DC functions. (A) Cluster annotation. **(B-D)** Dotplots and selected violin plots visualize gene expression across all annotated clusters related to pattern recognition **(B)**, migration & adhesion **(C)**, and antigen presentation & T-cell modulation **(D)**. Gene expression related to inflammation and metabolism is shown in **Supplementary Figure 5**.

Figure 7

Figure 7: Cross-species comparison of DC-subset specific gene signatures by gene set enrichment analysis. (A) Cluster annotation of equine dataset. Enrichment of DC subset transcriptomic signatures from porcine blood (bulk; from Baillou et al.) **(B)**, from murine spleen (FB5P-seq from Valente et al.) **(C)**, and from human blood (sc SMART-seq; from Villani et al.) **(D)** in the equine single-cell RNA-seq clusters, represented by UMAP plots. Relative enrichment scores range from low (blue) to high (yellow). Porcine "DC3" signature is derived from sorted $CD14^+$ monocytes.

Figure 8

Figure 8. Integration of equine and porcine scRNA-seq datasets with SATURN. (A) UMAP plots colored by species and cell types. **(B)** Dot plot of the most significant differentially expressed macrogenes for tDC. **(C)** UMAP plot representing the cells with the highest expression of selected macrogenes. **(D)** Genes of porcine and equine origin contained in macrogenes and visualization of PLXNA4 as top-weighted gene within tDC-enriched macrogene. **Supplementary Figure 9** shows key genes visualized in feature plots for the equine and porcine datasets.