Nutritional iron deficiency elicits profound rewiring of red pulp macrophage functions via high FPN and SYK-mediated signaling

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ABSTRACT

Iron deficiency is a globally prevalent nutritional disorder with significant socio-medical impacts, yet the mechanisms by which different cell types adapt to iron restriction remain poorly understood. Splenic red pulp macrophages (RPMs) manage the highest iron flux in the body by recycling aged red blood cells (RBCs) through erythrophagocytosis. In this study, we investigated the adaptive mechanisms employed by RPMs under systemic iron deficiency. We found that RPMs from mildly anemic, dietary iron-deficient (ID) mice exhibit a surprising enhancement in erythrophagocytic capacity, accompanied by elevated cytoplasmic labile iron levels, reduced iron stores, and increased iron-export capacity via ferroportin (FPN). Proteomic profiling, validated by flow cytometry, revealed increased mass and activity of both lysosomes and mitochondria in RPMs from ID mice, along with upregulated expression of apoptotic cell receptors. Further assays identified a marked increase in mitochondrial respiration in ID RPMs, a unique response that contrasts with prior reports of impaired mitochondrial function in iron-deficient cells. These responses occurred independently of classical M2 polarization markers. Using both *in vivo* and cellular models, we identified the low hepcidin–high FPN axis as a key driver of the phagocytic and metabolic rewiring in RPMs. Additionally, calcium signaling emerged as a likely mediator of this axis. Pharmacological inhibition of calcium signaling effectors pinpointed SYK kinase as a molecular switch governing the high-FPN-induced functional reprogramming of macrophages. Short-term SYK inhibition reduced the enhanced erythrophagocytic function of RPMs during iron deficiency, impairing iron utilization for extramedullary splenic erythropoiesis. Together, our findings highlight metabolic reprogramming in RPMs as a strategic adaptation that optimizes their iron recycling and utilization capacity in response to systemic iron scarcity.

INTRODUCTION

Efficient clearance of apoptotic cells, termed efferocytosis, is fundamental to tissue homeostasis

and the prevention of inflammation by averting the release of potentially damaging intracellular

components into the surrounding microenvironment[1–4]. Macrophages, the primary phagocytes

responsible for efferocytosis, undergo profound metabolic reprogramming to sustain this process.

Metabolite-driven receptor activation (e.g., PPARδ, LXR) promotes continual efferocytosis[5–7]

coupled with enhanced glycolysis[8,9], fatty acid oxidation[10] mitochondrial respiration and

dynamics[11,12], increased glutamine and arginine breakdown[13,14], and an upregulated pentose

phosphate pathway[13,15,16]. However, a critical gap remains in our understanding of how diverse

metabolic changes are integrated and regulated across macrophage subsets and specialized

efferocytic processes. In particular, very little is known about the metabolic or signaling control of

erythrophagocytosis (EP), the process of clearing physiologically aged or damaged red blood cells

(RBCs), which is predominantly carried out by red pulp macrophages (RPMs) in the spleen[17,18].

As RBCs constitute the body's largest iron store, their efficient removal and subsequent iron

recovery are critical for supporting erythropoiesis[18,19]. Upon engulfment, RBCs are processed

within phagolysosomes, releasing heme, which is catabolized by heme oxygenase 1 (HO-1) into

ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) that feeds the cellular labile iron pool (LIP). Within RPMs, iron from the LIP is

either stored within ferritin or exported via ferroportin (FPN) to replenish circulating transferrin-

bound iron. The iron export capacity of FPN is tightly regulated by hepcidin, a liver-derived

hormone that provokes occlusion and degradation of FPN, thus ensuring systemic iron

homeostasis. The central role of RPMs in the maintenance of iron homeostasis is underscored by

the functional attenuation in RBC clearance, accompanied by progressive splenic iron

accumulation, observed in mice lacking genes essential for RPM development and during

physiological aging[20–22]. Emerging evidence indicates that EP is regulated by diverse factors,

including pro-inflammatory signals[23–25], calcium (Ca^{2+}) signaling[21,26], the mechanosensitive

channel PIEZO1[26], and iron accumulation[21]. How these factors interact to fine-tune EP in response

to varying physiological demands, particularly in states of altered iron bioavailability, remains a

key unanswered question.

The critical nature of the RPM-driven recycling system takes on new significance when we

consider the global burden of iron deficiency, the main cause of anemia, which impacts nearly 2

billion people (approximately 30% of the population)[27–30]. According to the 2021 Global Burden

of Disease study, anemia is the third leading contributor to years lived with disability globally, and,

despite its multifactorial etiology, dietary iron deficiency remains the predominant contributor

worldwide[29,31]. Critically, the prevalence of iron deficiency itself significantly exceeds that of

clinically diagnosed anemia and represents a crucial intersection between cellular iron metabolism

and public health outcomes, particularly in resource-constrained developing regions[32–35]. Yet, the

specific cellular vulnerabilities and the molecular mechanisms orchestrating adaptation to iron

deficiency, especially within iron-recycling splenic RPMs, remain poorly defined.

Here, we demonstrate that RPMs in iron-deficient mice exhibit enhanced EP, and we explore how

this functional adjustment is regulated by cellular signaling and metabolic rewiring. We reveal that

the hepcidin-FPN axis, via regulating Ca^{2+} and SYK signaling enhances the EP capacity of RPMs

together with the mitochondrial respiration to optimize iron recycling during iron deficiency. This

highlights the metabolic and functional plasticity of RPMs during limited iron supplies.

RESULTS

Nutritional iron deficiency increases the EP capacity in RPMs

To investigate the impact of low systemic iron availability on EP and more broadly the iron-

recycling capacity of RPMs, we employed a murine model of nutritional iron deficiency. To this

end, four-week-old female mice were subjected to either an iron-deficient (ID) diet (<5 ppm iron)

or an iron-balanced (IB) control diet (200 ppm iron) for five weeks. Dietary iron restriction resulted

in significantly decreased splenic (Figure 1A) and hepatic (Figure 1B) non-heme iron

concentrations in the ID group compared to the IB group, confirmed by reduced iron deposition

within the splenic red pulp via Perl's staining (Figure S1A). A subtle but significant reduction in

cardiac (Figure S1B) non-heme iron was also observed in the ID group, while muscle (Figure S1C)

tissue iron content remained unaffected. These data suggested a tissue-specific response to dietary

iron restriction, with the spleen and the liver, the organs for iron recycling and storage, being the

most affected. Consistent with limited iron delivery, transferrin saturation (Figure 1C) was

markedly reduced in ID mice, leading to mild microcytic hypochromic anemia (Figure 1D, S1D,

and S1E), which hallmarks iron deficiency. Expectedly, ID mice displayed compensatory

mechanisms manifested by splenic stress erythropoiesis, as evidenced by elevated serum

erythropoietin (EPO) (Figure S1F) and increased percentage of splenic, but not bone marrow,

$CD71^+/Ter119^+$ progenitor cells (Figure 1E).

Next, we aimed to precisely characterize cell-intrinsic iron parameters of RPMs in response to iron-

restricted feeding. Consistent with the drop in serum levels of the iron-regulatory hormone hepcidin

(Figure 1F), FPN expression in RPMs, assessed by immunofluorescence and flow cytometry

(Figure 1G and 1H), was significantly elevated in ID mice. In agreement with boosted iron-export

capacity, a marked decrease in total iron content was observed in the magnetically sorted RPMs of

ID mice (Figure 1I), along with reduced protein expression of both L- and H-ferritin (FTL and

FTH1) (Figure 1J and 1K), indicating depletion of intracellular iron stores. Furthermore, we

detected upregulated levels of transferrin receptor 1 (TFR1) surface expression (Figure 1L),

implying a cellular response to iron deficiency. However, paradoxically, despite enhanced iron

export, RPMs in ID mice unexpectedly displayed a mild but significant elevation of LIP, as

assessed using the Fe^{2+}-specific fluorescent probe FerroOrange (Figure 1M). Consistent with this

finding, we also detected elevated reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels in RPMs of ID versus IB

mice (Figure 1N).

Intrigued by the increased LIP in RPMs of ID mice, we investigated the capacity of EP, the major

route for RPM iron acquisition. To this end, we transfused mice with PKH67-labeled RBCs.

Strikingly, flow cytometry analysis revealed significantly enhanced phagocytosis of temperature-

stressed RBCs (sRBC) by RPMs from ID compared to IB mice, a phenomenon not observed for

non-stressed fresh RBCs that were engulfed at comparably low levels (Figure 1O). In addition, we

evaluated EP capacity across other myeloid populations, including Kupffer cells (KCs) in the liver,

macrophages in the bone marrow, and circulating monocytes (Figure 1O). Among these, only KCs

showed a statistically significant, albeit modest, increase in EP capacity in iron-restricted mice.

Previous work has shown that splenic red pulp sinuses trap aged RBCs, leading to partial hemolysis

and subsequent phagocytosis of membrane remnants (RBC ghosts) by RPMs[36]. To distinguish

between the clearance of intact sRBCs and RBC ghosts in our model, we intravenously injected

mice with sRBCs ubiquitously expressing GFP and stained them with PKH26 membrane dye.

Consistent with our prior results, RPMs from ID mice exhibited increased EP of GFP^+ $PKH26^+$

sRBCs compared to control IB animals, confirming their enhanced capability for the uptake of

intact RBCs (Figure 1P). Likewise, splenic clearance of transfused GFP sRBCs was accelerated in

ID mice compared to IB controls (Figure 1Q), further supporting enhanced sRBC removal by

RPMs within the splenic microenvironment. To validate sRBC transfusion assay results, we next

assessed intracellular levels of the erythrocyte marker TER-119 in RPMs as a measure of

endogenous EP capacity[21,37], confirming its elevation in ID mice (Figure 1R). Finally, we verified

whether increased EP in low iron mice is solely driven by macrophage-intrinsic mechanisms or

could result from erythrocyte-derived signals. RBC lifespan remained comparable between IB and

ID mice (Figure 1S), suggesting that iron restriction did not compromise RBC integrity. Next,

exposure of the apoptotic cell marker phosphatidylserine in splenic RBCs was not enhanced in ID

compared to IB mice (Figure 1T). Finally, using a co-culture assay of magnetically isolated splenic

and circulating RBCs with primary macrophages, we found that while aged splenic RBCs are

preferentially sequestered compared to circulating RBCs (Figure 1U), iron deficiency does not

increase splenic RBC susceptibility to phagocytosis (Figure 1V), implying no induction of RBC

"eat-me" signals by iron restriction. Taken together, we uncovered that systemic iron restriction

potentiates the cell-intrinsic RBC clearance capacity of RPMs, likely aimed at balancing the

increased replenishment of TF-bound iron pool by FPN-mediated export.

Figure 1. Nutritional iron deficiency increases the EP capacity in RPMs

(A) Spleen and (B) liver non-heme iron content was determined in IB and ID mice. (C) Plasma transferrin saturation was determined in IB and ID mice. (D) Blood hemoglobin (Hg) was determined in IB and ID mice. (E) Shown is the percentage of erythroid progenitor cells (TER119+ CD71+) present in the spleen of IB and ID mice. (F) Serum hepcidin levels were measured in IB and ID mice with the Hepcidin-Murine Compete ELISA Kit. (G) Representative confocal microscopy images of FPN stabilization in the splenic red pulp of IB and ID mice. (H) Expression of ferroportin on the cell membrane of RPMs derived from IB and ID mice was assessed by flow cytometry. (I) The total intracellular iron content in magnetically sorted RPMs from IB and ID mice was assessed using the Iron Assay Kit. (J) Intracellular L-ferritin and (K) H-ferritin protein levels in RPMs of IB and ID mice were quantified by flow cytometry. (L) Expression of TFR1 on the cell membrane of RPMs derived from IB and ID mice was assessed by flow cytometry. (M) Cytosolic ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) levels in RPMs of IB and ID mice were measured using FerroOrange with flow cytometry. (N) The cytosolic ROS levels in RPMs of IB and ID mice were assessed by determining CellROX Deep Red fluorescence intensity with flow cytometry. (O) The erythrophagocytosis (EP) capacity in RPMs and other myeloid populations of IB and ID mice was determined using flow cytometry by measuring the percentage of cells that phagocytosed transfused PKH67-labeled RBCs. fRBCs indicate fresh RBCs, sRBCs - stressed RBCs (shown only for RPMs, in other indicated populations fRBCs uptake was also substantially lower than sRBCs). (P) IB and ID mice were transfused with GFP-expressing sRBCs and stained with a membrane dye PKH26. The percentage of RPMs positive for intact RBCs (PKH26$^+$GFP$^+$) was determined. (Q) Flow cytometric analysis of splenic GFP-sRBC clearance in ID vs IB mice. (R) The endogenous EP capacity of RPMs derived from IB and ID mice was determined by intracellular staining of the RBC marker TER119 in RPMs and flow cytometry. (S) The RBC biotinylation lifespan assay was performed on circulating RBCs from IB and ID mice. (T) Flow cytometry assessment of phosphatidylserine exposure (Annexin V staining) in splenic RBCs, comparing ID vs IB mice, as markers of natural RBC aging. (U) Comparison of EP capacity between splenic and circulating RBCs of IB mice. (V) EP capacity of iRPMs exposed to RBCs derived from the spleens of IB and ID mice. Each dot represents one mouse or an independent cell-based experiment. Each dot in the graph (S) represents n=9. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Welch's unpaired t-test determined statistical significance between the two groups. ns p>0.05, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 and ****p<0.0001.

Iron deficiency drives metabolic reprogramming and enhanced lysosomal activity of RPMs via the non-classical type of polarization

To decipher the molecular mechanisms of enhanced EP capacity in RPMs of ID mice and explore potential accompanying functional changes, we first investigated the transcriptome of FACS-isolated RPMs. Surprisingly, only 145 genes were differentially expressed between RPMs derived from ID and IB mice (Figure 2A). Bioinformatic analysis revealed significant enrichment of cell cycle regulators (e.g., *Mki67, Plk1, Plk2, Aurka, E2f7, Sgo1, Kif4, Cenpf, Bub1, Ccnb1, Ccnb2*) among genes upregulated by iron deficiency. This suggested increased pro-mitotic signaling in RPM of ID mice, which was confirmed by elevated protein levels of the proliferation marker Ki67 (Figure 2B). However, using the Ms4a3Cre-RosaTdT reporter mice[38], we found no significant changes in the representation of embryonically-derived RPMs within the CD45$^+$ splenic population (Figure 2C). Interestingly, the percentage of monocyte-derived RPMs likewise remained constant

at approximately 20% in both IB and ID mice (Figure 2C), implying that the EP enhancement was

not underlain by de novo monocyte recruitment.

To further explore the adaptation of RPMs to systemic iron deficiency, we employed TMT-based

quantitative proteomics of magnetically sorted F4/80-high RPMs. This analysis identified 420

proteins significantly more abundant and 282 decreased in RPMs of ID mice compared to IB mice

(Figure 2D). Confirming the quality of the proteomics analysis, we found FTH1 and FTL as top

downregulated hits, and TFR1 as the most induced protein in RPMs of iron-restricted mice.

Consistent with this expression pattern, IRP2, a regulator of cellular iron balance, was stabilized in

RPMs of ID mice. In agreement with RNA-seq data, we also detected an increase in several

regulators of cell cycle progression, such as AURKA, AURKB, PLK1, or CDK1 in RPMs of low-

iron mice. In contrast, proteomic analysis revealed a pronounced functional rewiring of RPMs in

ID mice, highlighting significant post-transcriptional regulation, with far more protein-level

alterations and minimal overlap between transcriptomic and proteomic datasets. (Figure 2E). First,

we observed upregulation of the phosphatidylserine-recognizing phagocytic receptors MERTK

(Figure 2G) and TIM4 (significant hits) (Figure S2.1A), and a trend towards induction of AXL

(Figure 2H) and STAB2 (Figure S2.1B), along with the Fc receptor CD16 in RPMs of ID mice

(Figure S2.1C), responses that were all confirmed by flow cytometry. Interestingly, these increased

"eat me" signals were accompanied by the induction of the "don't eat me" receptor SIRPα on RPMs

in ID mice (Figure S2.1D), hinting at a mechanism that promotes the clearance of aged

dysfunctional RBCs sparing those that are intact. Next, to gain unbiased insights into processes

supporting the enhanced EP capacity of RPMs in ID mice, we performed functional enrichment

analyses on the differentially expressed proteins. Notably, mitochondrial proteins emerged as the

most significantly enriched category among hits upregulated in RPMs of ID compared to IB mice

(Figure 2F), including factors involved in ATP synthesis (ATP5S), metabolite transport (SLC25A5,

VDAC1), mitochondrial protein import (SAMM50), iron-sulfur cluster assembly (SFXN2), cristae

remodeling (MCCC1, PMPCB), and coenzyme Q-10 biosynthesis (COQ9, COQ5). Flow

cytometric analysis confirmed these expanded mitochondrial functions by demonstrating a

significant increase in both mitochondrial membrane potential (a measure of mitochondrial

activity) (Figure 2I) and mitochondrial mass (Figure 2J) in RPMs of ID mice. Consistently, RPMs

of ID versus IB mice exhibited increased uptake of fluorescently labeled glucose analog (Figure

2K) and showed a significant upregulation of protein synthesis (Figure 2L), a major ATP-

consuming process reflective of enhanced cellular bioenergetics. Interestingly, ATP levels in

FACS-sorted RPMs revealed a mild depletion in ID compared to IB mice (Figure 2M), but the

activation status of AMPK, a key sensor of cellular energy stress, was not enhanced (Figure 2N).

This suggests that RPMs of ID mice did not exhibit energy deficit, but rather a state where increased

ATP production is insufficient to meet the high ATP demand driven by accelerated EP and protein

synthesis. Importantly, in contrast to RPMs, neither iron-recycling KCs nor peritoneal

macrophages, which are not involved in iron recycling, show hallmarks of metabolic rewiring in

ID mice, as exemplified by unaltered mitochondrial activity and mass (Figure S2.1E-H).

Further analysis of the proteomic data revealed another major category, encompassing proteins

associated with lysosomal functions, as enriched in RPMs of ID compared to IB mice (Figure 2F).

In total, RPMs of iron-restricted mice increased the protein levels of 25 key components of the

Coordinated Lysosomal Expression and Regulation (CLEAR) network, a transcriptional program,

that drives lysosomal biogenesis and function[39]. This included integral lysosomal membrane

proteins, LAMP1 and LAMP2, vacuolar ATPase subunits (ATP6V0D1, ATP6V0A1), essential for

lysosomal acidification, and a diverse array of lysosomal hydrolases, including cathepsins B, D,

and S; α-glucosidase (GAA); β-glucosidase (GBA); N-acetylglucosaminidase (NAGA); and

sialidase 1 (NEU1). Flow cytometric analysis confirmed elevated intracellular LAMP1 levels

(Figure 2O), indicating increased lysosomal mass in RPMs of ID mice. Consistent with this, we

observed enhanced lysosomal activity in RPMs of ID mice using a fluorescent probe (Figure 2P).

Further ultrastructural analysis of RPMs within splenic sections with TEM revealed that while the

number of regular lysosomes, autophagolysomes, autophagosomes, and peroxisomes remained

unaltered between control and low-iron mice, large lysosomes were more abundant in RPMs of

iron-restricted mice (Figure S2.2B and S2.2C). While lysosomal size is dynamic and influenced by

nutrient availability, emerging evidence for instance from senescent cells suggests that a higher

proportion of enlarged lysosomes correlates with increased proteolytic activity and lysosomal

mass[40,41], remaining consistent with our observations. Taken together, these data suggest that

enhanced lysosomal function in RPMs of ID mice promotes heightened RBC degradation and

clearance, extending the spectrum of RPMs reprogramming in iron deficiency.

Erythrocytic heme and iron loading, as well as systemic or cell-intrinsic iron deficiency, have been

shown to influence macrophage polarization, promoting either pro-inflammatory or anti-

inflammatory profiles, though findings have often been contradictory[42–45]. Since metabolic

reprogramming is closely linked to macrophage polarization, which in turn shapes the outcome of

infections and inflammatory diseases[46], we assessed the polarization state of RPMs from iron-

restricted mice. Our RNA-seq and proteomics data revealed no clear induction of either pro- or

anti-inflammatory mediators, alongside a mixed expression pattern of surface signals identified by

flow cytometry. While some markers typically associated with M1 (MHCII, CD74) and M2

(CD206) polarization were decreased, others, such as the pro-inflammatory CD38 and the anti-

inflammatory CD163, were increased (Figure S2.3). This atypical combination of features suggests

that augmented RBC clearance in nutritionally iron-restricted mice leads to the activation state of

RPMs distinct from the M1 or M2 type of profile.

Figure 2. **Iron deficiency drives metabolic reprogramming and enhanced lysosomal activity of RPMs**

(A) A volcano plot of differentially regulated genes identified by the RNASeq transcriptomic analysis in FACS-sorted RPMs derived from IB and ID mice. (B) Intracellular Ki-67 protein levels in RPMs derived from IB and ID mice were assessed by flow cytometry. (C) Percentage of embryonic-derived RPMs (EDRs) and monocyte-derived RPMs (MDRs) among F4/80$^+$ cells in IB and ID mice. (D) Volcano plot visualizing the proteomic landscape of RPMs in response to iron deficiency, depicting differentially expressed proteins in IB and ID mice. (E) Venn diagram comparing the differentially expressed genes (transcriptome) and proteins (proteome) in RPMs from ID mice. (F) Enriched functional categories among proteins differentially expressed in magnetically sorted RPMs derived from ID versus IB spleen. Cell membrane expression levels of (G) MERTK and (H) AXL of RPMs in IB and ID mice were determined by using fluorescently labeled antibodies and flow cytometry. (I) Mitochondrial activity and (J) mitochondrial mass were determined in RPMs derived from IB and ID mice using TMRE probes and MitoTracker Green, respectively, with flow cytometry. (K) Quantification of glucose uptake via flow cytometry in RPMs from IB and ID mice using a fluorescent glucose analog. (L) Flow cytometric detection of newly synthesized proteins in RPMs of IB and ID mice using Click-iT Plus OPP Alexa Fluor 488 Protein Synthesis Assay. (M) Quantification of ATP levels in FACS-sorted RPMs (10,000 cells) from IB and ID mice using a chemiluminescence-based assay. (N) Intracellular phosphorylated AMPK protein levels in RPMs derived from IB and ID mice were assessed by flow cytometry. (O) Intracellular expression levels of the core lysosomal protein LAMP1 in RPMs of IB and ID mice were determined by flow cytometry. (P) Flow cytometric assessment of lysosomal activity in RPMs of IB and ID mice using the Lysosomal Intracellular Activity Assay Kit. Each dot represents one mouse. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Welch's unpaired t-test determined statistical significance between the two groups. ns p>0.05, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 and ****p<0.0001.

The hepcidin-ferroportin axis regulates functional adaptations of RPMs during iron deficiency

To elucidate the mechanisms driving the enhanced EP capacity of RPMs in iron deficiency, we first investigated whether these adaptations were directly dependent on intracellular iron levels. Iron depletion in vitro using deferiprone (Figure 3A) or DFO[21] did not alter the RBC clearance capacity of primary BMDM macrophages cultured with hemine (iRPM). Furthermore, our *in vivo* data demonstrated that despite systemic iron deficiency, RPMs in ID mice exhibited elevated LIP (Figure 1M), likely due to their increased EP activity, indicating that iron chelation *in vitro* might not fully recapitulate the complex cellular interactions and signaling pathways present in RPMs *in vivo*. These findings suggested that factors beyond simple iron availability may be critical drivers of enhanced RPM phagocytic activity during iron deficiency. To address this possibility mechanistically, we developed an *in vitro* system using iRPMs cultured in serum derived from IB and ID mice, instead of bovine serum. This system recapitulated increased FPN and TFR1 expression in iRPMs exposed to ID serum, without a significant change in total iron levels (Figure 3B-D). Notably, cells cultured in ID serum exhibited enhanced EP (Figure S3A), suggesting that serum-borne factor is sufficient to rewire the phagocytic capacity of iRPMs towards RBCs. We first excluded the contribution of EPO, the cytokine previously implicated as a stimulator of

efferocytosis[47] . We showed that iRPMs, in contrast to BMDMs cultured without hemin which is

critical to mimic the heme and iron-rich nature of RPMs, did not enhance EP even under high EPO

doses (Figure S3B-C). Moreover, PPARγ, a factor proposed to act downstream of EPO[47] failed to

alter the EP capacity of iRPMs (Figure S3C). Next, inspired by a study that revealed low hepcidin,

rather than iron deficiency itself, as a key driver of pro-inflammatory responses in iron-restricted

mice[45], we proposed that reduced serum hepcidin levels and enhanced FPN stabilization in RPMs

might play a critical role in the adaptive reprogramming of these cells. Strikingly, a 4-hour

treatment with the hepcidin mimetic PR73 reversed the enhanced EP phenotype in iRPMs exposed

to ID, but to IB serum (Figure 3E and S3D). Likewise, we conducted live imaging of EP execution

by iRPMs incubated with serum from IB and ID mice, and exposed to RBCs labeled with dedicated

pHrodo™ dye that remains non-fluorescent at neutral pH but emits fluorescence in acidic

environments, such as in the phagolysosome. In line with our earlier flow cytometry results, we

observed the enhanced EP capacity of iRPMs treated with ID serum in real time (Figure 3F). This

boosted RBC clearance capacity was significantly abrogated upon 4 hours of PR73 treatment

(Figure 3F). Consistent with our *in vivo* observations, ID serum induced also a significant increase

in both mitochondrial and lysosomal activity, which was likewise abrogated by PR73 treatment

(Figure S3E-H).

To follow these *in vitro* observations, we next administered IB and ID mice with PR73 via

intraperitoneal injection four hours before analysis. PR73 administration effectively reduced cell-

surface FPN expression and induced hypoferremia in both dietary groups (Figure 3G-H). However,

total RPM iron content remained unchanged in both IB and ID mice following PR73 treatment

(Figure 3I). PR73 administration did not reverse the increased cell surface expression of TFR1 on

RPMs of ID mice but instead led to its further elevation, in contrast to IB mice where TFR1 levels

remained unaltered (Figure 3J). Interestingly, PR73 elicited likewise distinct effects on the LIP in

RPMs depending on the dietary regimen: it increased LIP levels in IB mice but led to a mild

decrease in ID mice (Figure 3K). The latter pattern was, interestingly, closely reflected by the

pronounced reversal of the elevated EP capacity of RPMs from ID mice (Figure 3L). Likewise,

PR73 abrogated most of the other hallmarks of RPM adaptation to iron deficiency, including

elevated mitochondrial activity, increased glucose uptake, and heightened protein synthesis (Figure

3M-O). Intriguingly, these modulating effects of PR73 were absent in IB mice. Furthermore, *ex*

vivo freshly isolated RPMs exhibited substantially elevated mitochondrial respiration, as assessed

by oxygen consumption rate measurement with Seahorse (Figure 3P). Strikingly, a 4-hour preincubation of the RPMs of ID mice with PR73 completely abolished their activated oxygen consumption (Figure 3P). Of note, these rapid effects of PR73 did not include changes in the mitochondrial mass of RPMs (Figure S3I). Contrary to the abovementioned rewiring patterns, lysosomal activity of RPMs of ID mice remained higher than in IB mice despite PR73 supplementation, suggesting distinct regulatory mechanisms governing this process (Figure S3J). To support the key role of the hepcidin-FPN axis in modulating the iron-recycling activity of RPMs, we employed *Tmprss6* knockout (KO) mice, a model of iron-refractory iron deficiency anemia (IRIDA)[48–50]. This model exhibits characteristics similar to the nutritional ID model, including reduced transferrin saturation, decreased hepatic and splenic iron stores (Figure S3K-M), and anemia[49]. However, in contrast to dietary ID, *Tmprss6* KO mice display elevated hepcidin levels[51]. Importantly, we observed no significant difference in RPM's EP capacity between *Tmprss6* KO mice and wild-type controls (Figure 3Q). Likewise, *in vitro* cultured iRPMs showed no difference in RBC clearance when exposed to serum from either *Tmprss6* KO or wild-type mice (Figure 3R). In, sum, these data implied that deficient hepcidin and FPN stabilization, hallmarks of nutritional ID, are key driving factors for RPM functional and metabolic changes.

Figure 3. **The hepcidin-ferroportin axis regulates functional adaptations of RPMs during iron deficiency**

(A) Normalized EP capacity of PKH67 sRBCs by cultured iRPMs treated with an iron chelator DFE (100 μM, 18 hr). (B) Flow cytometry analysis of surface ferroportin expression on iRPMs treated with serum from IB or ID mice. (C) Expression of TFR1 on the cell membrane of iRPMs treated with serum from IB or ID mice. (D) The total intracellular iron content in iRPMs treated with serum from IB or ID mice was assessed using the Iron Assay Kit. (E) The EP capacity in iRPMs treated with serum from IB or ID mice and serum from ID mice treated with the hepcidin agonist PR73 (50 nmol/mouse, 4 h) determined using flow cytometry by measuring the percentage of cells that phagocytosed transfused PKH26-labeled RBCs. (F) Time-lapse imaging of the execution of EP by iRPMs, exposed to pHrodo-stained sRBCs and cultured with the serum from IB and ID mice (with and without 4-h pretreatment with PR73). The left panel shows the quantification of the RBC fluorescent signal over time, normalized to the number of macrophages, over time. The right panel shows example images at the endpoint of the assay. Scale bar=50 mm. (G) Flow cytometric analysis of ferroportin cell surface expression on RPMs from IB and ID mice following intraperitoneal administration of the hepcidin agonist PR73 (50 nmol/mouse, 4 hours). (H) Plasma transferrin saturation was determined in IB and ID mice following PR73 administration. (I) Intracellular iron content in magnetically sorted RPMs from IB and ID mice post-PR73 treatment as determined using the Iron Assay Kit. (J) Flow cytometric evaluation of transferrin receptor 1 (TFR1) surface expression on RPMs derived from IB and ID mice post-PR73 administration. (K) Flow cytometric measurement of cytosolic ferrous iron (Fe^{2+}) levels in RPMs from IB and ID mice using FerroOrange following PR73 administration. (L) Normalized EP capacity of PKH67-sRBCs by RPMs from IB and ID mice after PR73 administration. (M) Mitochondrial activity was determined in RPMs derived from IB and ID mice using TMRE probe post-PR73 administration, with flow cytometry. (N) Quantification of glucose uptake via flow cytometry in RPMs from IB and ID mice upon PR73 administration using a fluorescent glucose analog. (O) Flow cytometric detection of newly synthesized proteins in RPMs of IB and ID mice using Click-iT Plus OPP Alexa Fluor 488 Protein Synthesis Assay after PR73 administration. (P) Seahorse analysis of ex-vivo RPMs from IB and ID mice, with or without 4-hour PR73 preincubation for RPMs from ID mice. (Q) Flow cytometric assessment of EP capacity in RPMs of *Tmprss6* wt and *Tmprss6* KO mice quantified as the percentage of cells engulfing PKH67-labeled sRBCs. (R) Normalized EP capacity of PKH26 sRBCs by cultured iRPMs treated with serum from *Tmprss6* wt and *Tmprss6* KO mice determined using flow cytometry. Each dot represents one mouse or an independent cell-based experiment. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Welch's unpaired t-test determined statistical significance in A-D and Q-R, while two-way ANOVA with Tukey's Multiple Comparison tests was used in G-O. A one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's or Tukey's Multiple Comparison tests was used in E. In F, the significant differences between the slopes of simple linear regression lines are shown. ns p>0.05, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 and ****p<0.0001.

FPN overexpression induces EP and metabolic adaptation in an *in vitro* RPM cellular model

To further assess the role of FPN upregulation in RPM rewiring under systemic ID conditions, we used lentiviral transduction to create iRPMs with enforced FPN overexpression (FPN-iRPMs) and assessed whether this mimics RPM adaptation to iron deficiency. Control iRPMs were generated using an empty vector without the *Slc40a1* gene, encoding FPN (mock-iRPMs). We confirmed significant FPN elevation on the surface of FPN-iRPMs compared to control cells (Figure 4A). This further led to the elevation of TFR1 surface expression but did not significantly change the total iron levels (Figure 4B-C), thus resembling the iRPMs exposed to ID vs IB serum. Under basal conditions, we quantified the LIP in both FPN-iRPMs and mock-iRPMs, finding no significant

difference (Figure 4D). In an attempt to recapitulate the mildly elevated LIP observed in RPMs of
ID mice during enhanced *in vivo* EP, we next sought to mimic the splenic microenvironment by
continuously exposing iRPMs to sRBCs during culture. Strikingly, sRBC-exposed FPN-iRPMs
exhibited a significant increase in LIP compared to mock-iRPMs, mirroring the *in vivo* RPM
response (Figure 4D).. Most importantly, FPN-iRPMs displayed enhanced RBC clearance
regardless of sRBC exposure during culture (Figure 4E). These findings demonstrate that forced
FPN expression specifically stimulates EP, independently of iron status.

To investigate in more detail the potential metabolic consequences of increased FPN expression,
we assessed mitochondrial activity and mass. FPN overexpression led to a significant increase in
both mitochondrial activity and mass compared to mock-transfected iRPMs (Figure 4F-G). This
effect was mirrored by a corresponding increase in glucose uptake and protein synthesis rate in
FPN-overexpressing iRPMs (Figure 4H-I), suggesting a coordinated metabolic adaptation.
Importantly, these responses were independent of the presence of sRBCs in the culture media and
intracellular iRPM LIP levels (Figure S4A-D), indicating a regulatory effect of FPN on
mitochondrial functions which may reach beyond its role as a regulator of intracellular iron status.

Figure 4: **Elevated ferroportin and increased intracellular Ca²⁺ levels regulate RPM phagocytic activities in ID conditions**

Lentiviral transduction was used to generate iRPMs overexpressing ferroportin (FPN-iRPMs) or expressing an empty vector (mock). (A) Flow cytometric analysis of ferroportin cell surface expression on mock and FPN-iRPMs. (B) Intracellular iron content in mock and FPN-iRPMs as determined using the Iron Assay Kit. (C) Flow cytometric evaluation of transferrin receptor 1 (TFR1) surface expression on mock and FPN-

iRPMs iRPMs. (D) Flow cytometric measurement of cytosolic ferrous iron (Fe2+) levels in mock and FPN-
iRPMs with and without sRBC exposure during culture. (E) Normalized EP capacity of PKH26-sRBCs by
mock and FPN-iRPMs with and without sRBC exposure. (F) Mitochondrial activity was determined in
mock and FPN-iRPMs with sRBC exposure using TMRE probe, with flow cytometry. (G) Mitochondrial
mass was determined in mock and FPN-iRPMs with sRBC exposure using MitoTracker Green, with flow
cytometry. (H) Quantification of glucose uptake via flow cytometry in mock and FPN-iRPMs with sRBCs
exposure using a fluorescent glucose analog. (I) Flow cytometric detection of newly synthesized proteins in
mock and FPN-iRPMs with sRBCs exposure using Click-iT Plus OPP Alexa Fluor 488 Protein Synthesis
Assay. (J) Cytosolic calcium iron (Ca^{2+}) levels in RPMs of IB and ID mice were measured using Cal-520
fluorescent probe with flow cytometry. (K) Cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels in RPMs of IB and ID mice were measured
with flow cytometry post-PR73 administration using Cal-520 fluorescent probe with flow cytometry. (L)
Cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels in iRPMs treated with serum from IB or ID mice and serum from ID mice treated with
the hepcidin agonist PR73 (50 nmol/mouse, 4 h) determined using Cal-520 fluorescent probe with flow
cytometry. (M) Flow cytometric measurement of cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels in mock and FPN-iRPMs with and
without sRBC exposure using Cal-520 fluorescent probe with flow cytometry. (N) Normalized EP capacity
of PKH26-sRBCs by mock and FPN-iRPMs treated with an intracellular (BAPTA-AM; 10 μM for 1 hour)
and extracellular (EGTA; 3mM for 30 minutes) calcium chelator. (O) The EP capacity in iRPMs treated
with serum from IB and ID mice, and serum from IB and ID mice treated with extracellular (EGTA; 3mM
for 30 minutes) calcium chelator determined using flow cytometry by measuring the percentage of cells that
phagocytosed transfused PKH26-labeled RBCs. (P) Flow cytometric assessment of EP capacity in mock,
FPN, and D39A-iRPMs quantified as the percentage of cells engulfing PKH26-labeled RBCs. (Q) Flow
cytometric measurement of cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels in mock, FPN, and D39A-iRPMs using Cal-520
fluorescent probe with flow cytometry. Each dot represents one mouse or an independent cell-based
experiment. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Welch's unpaired t-test determined statistical significance
in A-C and F-J. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's Multiple Comparison tests was used in D-E, K and M-O.
A one-way ANOVA test with Dunnett's or Tukey's Multiple Comparison tests was used in L and P-Q. ns
$p > 0.05$, *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$ and ****$p < 0.0001$.

Increased intracellular Ca^{2+} levels regulate RPM phagocytic activities in ID conditions

We next set out to elucidate the signaling mechanisms underlying the functional rewiring of RPMs
in response to increased FPN expression during systemic iron deficiency. Our previous work
demonstrated that age-related iron overload, likely due to low FPN expression suppressed RPM's
RBC clearance capacity. [21] This phenomenon was recapitulated in iron-loaded *in vitro* iRPMs and
was reflected by reduced intracellular Ca^{2+} levels, [21] a key regulatory signal for phagocytosis[52].
Inspired by this observation, we found a significant increase in intracellular Ca^{2+} levels within
RPMs of ID mice compared to IB mice (Figure 4J), mirroring the enhanced RBC clearance
capacity. PR73 administration reversed the elevated intracellular Ca^{2+} levels specifically in RPMs
of ID mice, with no effect observed in RPMs of IB mice (Figure 4K). In parallel, iRPMs exposed
to ID serum also displayed increased Ca^{2+} levels, a response likewise suppressed by PR73 treatment
(Figure 4L). This demonstrates that intracellular Ca^{2+} signaling, like phagocytic and mitochondrial
activities, is uniquely reprogrammed in RPMs of iron-restricted mice in a manner dependent on
low hepcidin. Consistently, FPN-iRPMs exhibited increased intracellular Ca^{2+} levels compared to

mock-iRPMs, independent of the presence of RBCs during culture and cellular LIP levels, further implying the role of Ca^{2+} signaling in RPM functional rewiring driven by high FPN (Figure 4M). To further examine whether enhanced Ca^{2+} signaling may support increased EP in RPM we employed both intracellular (BAPTA-AM) and/or extracellular (EGTA) Ca^{2+} chelators in the FPN-iRPM model and iRPMs exposed to ID and IB serum (Figure 4N-O). Both chelation strategies not only reduced the overall EP capacity of iRPMs but also effectively suppressed the enhancement of RBC clearance in FPN-high conditions, suggesting that FPN-mediated activation of Ca^{2+} signaling contributes to enhanced phagocytic capacity of RPMs.

Recent findings implied that FPN may have the capacity for Ca^{2+} import[53]. To test whether FPN-mediated Ca^{2+} influx directly drives their functional rewiring, we employed overexpression of the FPN variant harboring a specific aspartate-to-alanine mutation (D39A), expected to disrupt the unidirectional movement of Ca^{2+} into the cell while preserving Fe^{2+} transport function. Interestingly, we found no significant differences in the enhancement of EP or intracellular Ca^{2+} levels between iRPMs overexpressing mutant D39A and wild-type FPN (Figure 4P-Q), suggesting an indirect impact of FPN on Ca^{2+} signaling.

SYK kinase inhibition disrupts the adaptation of RPMs to ID conditions

Expanding on prior knowledge, we next sought to identify the genetic mediators of Ca^{2+}-dependent signaling underlying the functional rewiring of RPMs in ID mice. First, we examined the involvement of the PIEZO1, a mechanoreceptor recently identified in a genetic mouse model to modulate Ca^{2+} signaling and EP in RPMs[26]. Indeed, under basal conditions, treatment of iRPMs *in vitro* with the PIEZO1 activator YODA1 and the inhibitor GsMTx1 mildly affected EP (Figure S5A-B)). However, GsMTx1 did not significantly affect the enhanced EP capacity observed in iRPMs exposed to ID serum (Figure S5C). These findings excluded a major role for PIEZO1 in mediating the functional acceleration of RPMs in response to iron deficiency.

To further dissect the Ca^{2+}-dependent signaling pathways responsible for the enhanced EP observed in RPMs during iron deficiency, we performed a targeted pharmacological screen. Inhibitors of CaMKK (STO-609), calmodulin-mediated signaling (W7), P2 receptor-mediated Ca^{2+} signaling (Apyrase)[54], and macropinocytosis (EIPA) had no discernible impact on EP in either mock or FPN-iRPMs (Figure 5A). Likewise, despite its well-established role in Ca^{2+}-dependent signaling, inhibition of protein kinase C (PKC) with Bisindolylmaleimide I did not reduce EP in either mock-

or FPN-iRPMs (Figure 5A). However, the inhibition of the spleen tyrosine kinase (SYK), a downstream effector of PKC-dependent signaling, with piceatannol completely abolished the increased EP in FPN-iRPMs vs mock-transduced iRPMs (Figure 5A). To mitigate the potential off-target effects of piceatannol, we next employed the highly selective SYK inhibitor entospletinib (ENTO; also known as GS-9973) in mock- and FPN-iRPM cultures. Consistently, ENTO effectively suppressed FPN-driven EP enhancement in FPN-iRPMs and iRPMs cultured in ID versus IB serum (Figure 5B-C). Furthermore, we observed that ENTO prevented an increase in Ca^{2+} levels upon FPN overexpression (Figure 5D). Interestingly, supplementation with ENTO was sufficient to reduce both the mitochondrial activity and mass of iRPMs overexpressing FPN to the control levels of mock-transduced cells (Figure 5E-F).

Figure 5. **SYK kinase mediates the FPN-dependent adaptation of RPMs to ID conditions**

All experiments were performed with exposure to sRBC. (A) Normalized EP capacity of mock and FPN-iRPMs, measured by uptake of PKH26-labeled sRBCs. iRPMs were analyzed with sRBC exposure and after treatment with inhibitors targeting CaMKK (STO-609), P2 receptor-mediated Ca^{2+} signaling (Apyrase), calmodulin (W7), macropinocytosis (EIPA), protein kinase C (Bisindolylmaleimide), and spleen tyrosine kinase (SYK; Piceatannol). (B) Normalized EP capacity of mock and FPN-iRPMs with and without treatment with SYK inhibitor Entospletinib (ENTO) measured by uptake of PKH26-labeled sRBCs. (C)

Normalized EP capacity of iRPMs cultured with serum from IB or ID mice with and without treatment with
ENTO measured by uptake of PKH26-labeled sRBCs. (D) Flow cytometric measurement of cytosolic Ca^{2+}
levels in mock and FPN-iRPMs with and without treatment with ENTO using Cal-520 fluorescent probe
with flow cytometry. (E) Mitochondrial mass was determined in mock and FPN-iRPMs with and without
treatment with ENTO using MitoTracker Green, with flow cytometry. (F) Mitochondrial activity was
measured in mock and FPN-iRPMs with and without treatment with ENTO using TMRE probe, with flow
cytometry. Each dot represents an independent cell-based experiment. Data are represented as mean ± SEM.
Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's Multiple Comparison tests was used to determine statistical significance.
ns p>0.05, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 and ****p<0.0001.

Next, we sought to investigate the role of SYK in RPM iron recycling *in vivo.* First, interestingly,

we found that a 4-hour treatment of ID mice with PR73 potently reduced phospho-SYK (Y525/526)

levels in RPMs, while no significant effect of the hepcidin agonist was observed in RPMs of IB

mice (Figure 6A), similarly to all previous ID-specific suppressive effects of PR73 on RPM

rewiring phenotypes. We further assessed the impact of the SYK inhibition with ENTO in both IB

and ID mice. Oral daily ENTO administration for the last 2 weeks of the iron-modified diet (5

mg/kg/day; with flavored jellies) effectively reduced phospho-SYK (Y525/526) levels in RPMs

from both IB and ID mice compared to vehicle controls (Figure 6B). Strikingly, ENTO

administration led to a marked reduction in the EP capacity of RPMs specifically in ID mice while

EP in IB mice remained unaffected by ENTO treatment (Figure 6C). Similarly, ENTO abrogated

an increase of Ca^{2+} levels in ID but not IB RPMs (Figure 6D). Interestingly, ENTO also suppressed

FPN induction associated with iron deficiency (Figure 6E), suggesting that EP capacity and FPN

expression may be bidirectionally linked. The modulation of FPN appeared as independent of liver

hepcidin mRNA expression, with no hepcidin induction observed by ENTO supplementation

(Figure 6F). On systemic levels, a 2-week ENTO treatment did not affect liver iron content (Figure

S6A) or hematological parameters in the circulating blood (Figure S6B-C), but it significantly

reduced transferrin saturation in both IB and ID mice (Figure 6G). Therefore, we extended the

period of ENTO administration for 3 weeks and evaluated the systemic blood parameters. We

observed that both Hb and MCH showed a significant, although modest, reduction in ENTO-

administered mice compared to vehicle control (Figure 6H-I)), indicating the onset of systemic

hematological effects with prolonged ENTO treatment. Consistently, whereas erythroid progenitors

expansion was not affected by ID in the bone marrow, we detected a more pronounced expansion

of immature splenic progenitors – in ENTO-treated vs control mice (Figure 6J). This suggests that

a more pronounced compensatory extramedullary erythropoietic response is initiated by ENTO

likely due to less effective iron delivery from iron-recycling RPMs.

Figure 6. **SYK kinase inhibition disrupts the adaptation of RPMs to ID conditions in mice.**

(A) Flow cytometric analysis of phosphorylated SYK (phospho-SYK) in RPMs isolated from IB and ID mice, 4 hours after intraperitoneal administration of the hepcidin agonist PR73 (50 nmol/mouse). (B) Phospho-SYK levels in RPMs were assessed by flow cytometry in IB and ID mice after 2 weeks of intervention with or without ENTO jelly supplementation. (C) EP capacity of RPMs from IB and ID mice, determined by intracellular staining for the erythrocyte marker TER119 followed by flow cytometry, after 2 weeks of intervention with or without ENTO supplementation. (D) Cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels in RPMs from IB and ID mice, measured by flow cytometry using the Cal-520 fluorescent probe, with or without ENTO for 2 weeks. (E) Surface expression of ferroportin on RPMs assessed by flow cytometry in IB and ID mice following 2 weeks of supplementation with or without ENTO. (F) Relative mRNA expression of the Hamp gene in RPMs from IB and ID mice after 2 weeks of ENTO or control jelly supplementation. (G) Plasma

transferrin saturation levels were measured in IB and ID mice after 2 weeks of intervention with or without ENTO jelly. (H) Blood hemoglobin (Hb) concentration was determined in IB and ID mice following 3 weeks of dietary intervention with or without ENTO. (I) Mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH) values in IB and ID mice after 3 weeks of dietary intervention with or without ENTO supplementation. (J) Proerythroblasts and polychromatophilic erythroblasts representations in spleens of IB and ID mice after 3 weeks of dietary intervention with or without ENTO supplementation. Each dot represents one mouse. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's Multiple Comparison tests was used to determine statistical significance. For (G), statistical significance was assessed based on the main effect of the column factor. ns $p > 0.05$, $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$ and $****p < 0.0001$.

DISCUSSION

Iron deficiency is a complex physiological state with multifaceted implications. The precise quantitative thresholds defining its onset and the cell-type-specific molecular consequences including the identification of the most vulnerable cell types and the sequence of cellular dysfunction triggered by iron deficiency, remain poorly understood. Beyond its well-known systemic effects, including anemia or neuronal deficits[27,55,56], iron deficiency profoundly impacts immune cell function, with studies demonstrating impaired lymphocyte proliferation[57,58] and altered macrophage responses[28,29]. However, much of our understanding of macrophage iron metabolism comes from *in vitro* studies or models that may not fully capture the complexity of *in vivo* iron deficiency. The seemingly contradictory findings regarding the effects of iron depletion on macrophage inflammatory cytokine production *in vitro* versus *in vivo*[45,59,60] highlight the critical need for a more nuanced, cell-type-specific, and context-dependent understanding of iron's role in macrophage function. Specifically, how specialized iron-recycling cells like RPMs adapt to the metabolic stress of systemic iron deficiency remains a key open question.

RPMs from ID mice displayed classical markers of cellular iron depletion (increased TFR1, decreased ferritin), reflecting activation of the iron-responsive element/iron regulatory protein (IRE/IRP) system, a post-transcriptional regulatory mechanism that normally increases iron uptake and reduces iron storage and FPN-mediated export under iron-limiting conditions[17,61]. However, we observed increased FPN expression in RPMs of ID mice, despite proteomic analysis showing elevated IRP2 levels. This implies that suppressed hepcidin levels in iron deficiency, which relieve the dominant negative regulation of FPN, override any potential IRP2-mediated repression. Although RPM iron stores were low, elevated LIP and oxidative stress were increased, consistent with enhanced EP activity identified by our study. Intriguingly, this observation suggests that not sole LIP levels, but potentially other iron-related signals informing on the cellular iron status contribute to IRP2 stabilization in RPMs. The elevated FPN expression facilitates the export of

iron derived from engulfed RBCs, supporting the accelerated stress erythropoiesis in the spleen during iron deficiency. These results reveal an adaptive mechanism in RPMs, prioritizing systemic iron delivery over cellular iron retention during deficiency.

Emerging evidence links substantial metabolic reprogramming to efferocytosis. This is hallmarked by altered amino acid utilization, particularly of arginine, methionine, and tryptophan, lactate production, boosted PPP pathway, increased glucose uptake and glycolysis[8,9], fatty acid oxidation[10], and, critically, enhanced mitochondrial respiration, acting in concert to sustain energetically demanding efferocytosis and promote anti-inflammatory milieu[11,12]. While RPMs of ID mice retain some of these metabolic traits, particularly enhanced oxidative phosphorylation, multi-omics analyses reveal a distinct divergence from canonical efferocytic programs. For example, key transporters and enzymes involved in arginine and tryptophan metabolism are absent or uninduced. The established cellular response to iron deficiency, frequently modeled through TFR1 disruption, involves a metabolic shift towards glycolysis, accompanied by mitochondrial dysfunction, and impairments in the electron transport chain[62]. RPMs from ID mice display enhanced mitochondrial function, increased mass and membrane potential, and upregulated oxidative phosphorylation evidenced by proteomic and functional data. This unique, cell-type-specific metabolic adaptation, absent in Kupffer cells and peritoneal macrophages, suggests that RPMs are exceptional in adjusting their physiology to increased bioenergetic demand, imposed by boosted iron recycling capability. Whether these responses are driven by the spleen's unique microenvironment, potentially via signals from extramedullary erythropoiesis, remains to be understood. Notably, real-time measurements using the Seahorse extracellular flux analyzer demonstrated a marked elevation in oxygen consumption rate (OCR) in RPMs from iron-deficient mice, directly confirming heightened mitochondrial respiratory capacity in these cells. The fact that this exceptional response was acutely shut down by inhibition of FPN by PR73, together with suppression of the glucose uptake or protein synthesis rate, points to a novel relationship between FPN functionality and cellular metabolism, particularly in the context of enhanced efferocytic activity. These novel findings were further confirmed by similar metabolic responses elicited solely by FPN overexpression in the RPM *in vitro* model.

Our work further identified significantly elevated intracellular Ca^{2+} levels in RPMs of ID mice, closely dependent on functional FPN and correlating with their enhanced EP capacity. While recent

studies have demonstrated that PKC activity can promote FPN exposure on the cell surface in type
2 diabetes and as a response to iron loading[63], our findings suggest that, in the context of iron
deficiency, increased FPN expression and elevated intracellular Ca^{2+} may represent parallel or
intersecting pathways that together facilitate enhanced EP. It is also plausible, that RPMs of ID
mice, characterized by low iron stores, but elevated LIP, additionally regulate FPN exposure on the
surface via Ca^{2+}-stimulated high PKC activity. Our data suggest no direct involvement of PKC in
mediating FPN-dependent and Ca^{2+}-triggered regulation of EP, at least using the cellular model of
RPMs. However, RPMs of ID mice treated by ENTO not only downmodulate EP but also FPN
surface levels and Ca^{2+}, which may represent a secondary response, possibly mediated by PKC
activity.

Our discovery that SYK drives EP in RPMs aligns with its emerging roles in diverse phagocytic
processes. Bian *et al*. demonstrated that SYK activation overrides Cd47-SIRPα-mediated "don't
eat me" signals to enable inflammation-driven clearance of "self" RBC[24]. Recent studies highlight
SYK as a critical mediator of microglial responses to amyloid-β (Aβ) plaques in Alzheimer's
disease, where SYK deficiency impairs Aβ phagocytosis[64,65]. Our work extends this observation
by identifying iron deficiency as a physiological trigger for SYK activation in RPMs, with
upstream regulation by the low hepcidin-high FPN. Furthermore, our work reveals SYK-dependent
metabolic-phagocytic coupling. Whereas previous findings rather link high SYK activity to
inhibition of mitochondrial respiration[66], we show that mitochondrial membrane potential and
mass, heightened by FPN overexpression, critically depend on SYK activity. Critically, our data
imply that SYK may represent a novel molecular switch for the regulation of efferocytic capacity,
a concept that requires further work.

Finally, the FPN-SYK-mediated rewiring of RPMs in iron deficiency does not resemble M1/M2-
like polarization. RPMs from ID mice exhibited an ambiguous pattern of surface marker alterations
indicating inflammatory swewing, and no clear regulation of anti or pro-inflammatory mediators
in omics data. They also employed a mixed functional phenotype: elevated ROS production, driven
by increased labile iron, characteristic of M1 macrophages, alongside enhanced oxidative
phosphorylation, mitochondrial biogenesis, and lysosomal activity, features typically associated
with M2 macrophages[67–73]. Together with the notion that enhanced EP in RPMs only partially
resembles previously reported adaptation mechanisms to efferocytosis, proposes that the

polarization state of RPMs in iron deficiency represents a new type of adaptation, whose
resemblance in other macrophage types/environmental conditions opens an avenue for future
investigations.

Methods

Mice

Female C57BL/6 J mice were utilized for the experiments and housed under specific pathogen-free
(SPF) conditions at the Experimental Medicine Centre in Bialystok, Poland. These mice were
provided with either a standard iron-balanced diet (200 mg/kg, SAFE U8958P; IB diet) or an iron-
deficient diet (5.9 mg/kg, SAFE U8958P; ID diet) for 5 weeks, commencing at 4 weeks of age. 9-
week-old *Tmprss6* wild-type and KO mice were provided by Dr. Delphine Meynard from
INSERM, Toulouse, France. Upon arrival at the local facility at the International Institute of
Molecular and Cell Biology (IIMCB), mice were acclimatized briefly before being sacrificed or
subjected to further procedures, if required. Ms4a3Cre-RosaTdT reporter mice[38], obtained from
Florent Ginhoux, were maintained at IIMCB. Female C57BL/6-Tg(UBC-GFP)30Scha/J (UBI-
GFP/BL6) mice were kindly provided by Aneta Suwińska (Faculty of Biology, University of
Warsaw, Poland). For primary cell cultures, C57BL/6 J mice were maintained in the SPF facility
at the Mossakowski Medical Research Institute in Warsaw, Poland. All animal experiments and
protocols were approved by the respective local ethical committees in Olsztyn and Warsaw,
including the decisions: Uchwala 026, WAW2/015/2019, and WAW2/048/2020). Usage of
Ms4a3Cre-RosaTdT reporter mice was approved by WAW2/126/2023. For PR73 administration,
mice were intraperitoneally injected with 50 nmol of PR73 for 4 hours before being sacrificed. The
procedure was approved by the local ethical committee in Warsaw (WAW2/150/2019).
Experiments including SYK were covered by the permission: WAW2/068/2024.

Isolation of Single-Cell Suspensions from Murine Organs

Bone marrow cells were obtained by flushing the femurs and tibias with sterile HBSS (Gibco,
14025092) using a 25G needle. Following centrifugation at 600 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C, the pellet
containing the isolated cells was collected for further processing. The spleen was harvested and
homogenized by passage through a 70 μm cell strainer (pluriSelect, 43-50070-51). Before FACS
sorting, the spleen was enzymatically digested with HBSS containing 1 mg/mL Collagenase D

(Roche, 11088882001) and 50 U/mL DNase I for 30 minutes at 37°C to facilitate cell dissociation.

The resulting cell suspension was then washed with cold HBSS and centrifuged at 600 x g for 10

minutes at 4°C. The harvested liver was perfused using Liver Perfusion Medium (Gibco,

17701038), followed by mincing and enzymatic digestion in Liver Digest Medium (Gibco,

17703034) at 37°C for 30 minutes. The digested liver tissue was then pressed through a 70 μm

strainer into HBSS. The resulting cell suspension was centrifuged at 50 g for 3 minutes to separate

the hepatocyte-enriched pellet, which was discarded. The supernatant, containing non-parenchymal

cells, was further centrifuged at 700 g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The resulting cell pellet was

resuspended in a solution of 5 mL PBS with 0.5% BSA and 5 mL of 50% Percoll (Cytiva, 17-0891-

01) diluted in PBS. This suspension underwent Percoll gradient centrifugation at 700 g for 30

minutes at 20°C to enrich specific cell populations. The peritoneal cavity was lavaged with HBSS

to collect peritoneal fluid. The retrieved fluid was then passed through a 70 μm strainer to remove

debris, followed by centrifugation at 600 x g for 10 minutes at 4°C to pellet the peritoneal cells.

Blood was collected via cardiac puncture into a heparin-coated tube. The cells were separated by

centrifugation at 400 g for 10 minutes at 4°C following a wash with HBSS. RBCs present in a

single-cell suspension were lysed using 1X RBC Lysis buffer (BioLegend, 420302) for 3 minutes

at room temperature. However, this step was excluded when analyzing erythroid cells and RBCs.

Following that, the cells were washed with 1X HBSS and centrifuged at 600g for 10 minutes at

4°C. The resulting pellet was processed for subsequent functional assays and antibody labeling.

Generation of iRPMs

Mononuclear cells were aseptically harvested from the femurs and tibias of mice and subsequently

cultured at a concentration of 0.5×10^6/1mL in RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco, 61870036)

supplemented with 10% FBS (Cytiva, SV30160.03), 1X Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco,

15140122), and 20 ng/mL of macrophage colony-stimulating factor (MCSF, BioLegend, 576406)

in a 5% CO_2 incubator at 37°C. On days 4 and 6 of culture, the medium was replaced with fresh

complete medium supplemented with 20 μM hemin (Sigma-Aldrich, 51280) and 10 ng/mL

interleukin-33 (IL-33) (BioLegend, 580506). All subsequent experiments were performed on day

8 of culture. For treatments, hemine (Sigma-Aldrich, 51280) solution was prepared with 0.15 M

NaCl containing 10% NH_4OH. For the phagocytosis assay, iRPMs were treated for 1 hour with 10

μM Entospletinib (Selleck, S7523), 24 hours with 100 μM deferoxamine (DFE, Sigma-Aldrich,

D9533), 30 minutes with 10 µM BAPTA/AM (CALBIOCHEM, 196419), 1 hour with 3 mM EGTA

(Sigma, E8145).

Flow Cytometric Analysis and Cell Sorting

Cell suspensions of spleens and livers at a concentration of approximately 1×10^7, along with

iRPMs were stained with LIVE/DEAD Fixable Aqua/Violet (Invitrogen, L34966/L34964)

following the manufacturer's instructions to identify dead cells. After extensive washing, Fc block

was added to the cells at a 1:100 dilution in FACS buffer and incubated at 4˚C for 10 minutes. The

cells were then stained with fluorophore-conjugated antibodies at a dilution of 1:100 to 1:400,

depending on the titration, in FACS buffer for 30 minutes at 4˚C. The cells were washed thoroughly

with FACS buffer and analyzed using flow cytometry. For the analysis of splenic RPM populations,

surface antibodies such as CD45 (Biolegend, 30-F11), CD45R/B220 (Biolegend, RA3-6B2), Ly-

6G/Ly-6C (Gr-1) (Biolegend, RB6-8C5), CD3 (Biolegend, 17A2), F4/80 (Biolegend, BM8),

CD11b (Biolegend, M1/70), and TREML4 (Biolegend, 16E5) were used. For erythroid cell

analysis, TER-119 (Biolegend) and CD71 (Biolegend, RI7217) were included. Meanwhile, the

analysis of liver KCs and iRPM populations involved the use of surface antibodies, including CD45

(Biolegend, 30-F11), F4/80 (Biolegend, BM8), and CD11b (Biolegend, M1/70). FPN detection

was performed using a non-commercial antibody that recognizes the extracellular loop of mouse

FPN (rat monoclonal, Amgen, clone 1C7) directly conjugated with Alexa488 (Alexa Fluor 488

Labeling Kit ab236553). To analyze RBCs, surface antibodies such as CD45 (Biolegend, 30-F11),

TER-119 (Biolegend), and CD71 (Biolegend, RI7217) were used. Lastly, the analysis of peritoneal

macrophages involved the use of surface antibodies, including CD45 (Biolegend, 30-F11), F4/80

(Biolegend, BM8), MHCII (Biolegend, M5/114.15.2), and CD11b (Biolegend, M1/70). Events

were acquired using Aria II (BD Biosciences) or CytoFLEX (Beckman Coulter) and were analyzed

using FlowJo or CytExpert, respectively. For RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) and ATP levels

quantification, RPMs were sorted into Trizol-LS (Invitrogen, 10296010) or assay buffer,

respectively, using an Aria II cell sorter (BD Biosciences) with an 85 µm nozzle.

Functional Assays and Detection of Intracellular Fe^{2+} Iron

To assess intracellular ROS levels, CellROX Deep Red Reagent (Invitrogen, C10422) was used,

and fluorescence was measured in the APC channel following the manufacturer's protocol. The

lysosomal activity was evaluated using the Lysosomal Intracellular Activity Assay Kit (Biovision,

K448) and fluorescence was measured in the FITC channel as directed by the manufacturer. To

measure mitochondrial activity, the tetramethylrhodamine ethyl ester (TMRE) fluorescent probe

(Sigma-Aldrich, 87917) was utilized at a concentration of 400 nM for 30 min at 37 °C, and the

fluorescence was measured in the PE channel. Mitochondrial mass was measured by fluorescence

levels upon staining with MitoTracker Green (Invitrogen, M7514) at 100 nM for 30 min at 37 °C

in the FITC channel. Calcium (Ca^{2+}) levels (FITC channel) were determined by using Cal-520 AM

probe (Abcam, ab171868) at 5 μM for 1 hour at room temperature. The intracellular ferrous iron

(Fe^{2+}) content was determined using FerroOrange (Dojindo, F374) through flow cytometric

analysis in the PE channel. The cells were surface-stained and incubated with 1 μM FerroOrange

dye in HBSS for 30 min at 37 °C. The analysis was performed directly via flow cytometry without

further washing, as previously described. Glucose uptake was measured using the Glucose Uptake

Capacity Assay Kit (Dojindo, UP03) and fluorescence was measured in the APC channel as per the

manufacturer's protocol. To perform intracellular staining, cells that had already been surface-

stained were fixed using 4% PFA and permeabilized with 0.5% Triton-X in PBS. The cells were

then stained with appropriate primary antibodies for 1 hr at 4°C, followed by a 30 min incubation

with Alexa Fluor 488 or Alexa Fluor 647 conjugated anti-Rabbit IgG (1:1000 Thermo Fisher, A-

21206). Afterward, the geometric mean fluorescence intensities (MFI) of the probes/target protein

levels were measured by flow cytometry using Aria II (BD Biosciences) or CytoFLEX (Beckman

Coulter). Data were then analyzed using FlowJo or CytExpert software, respectively. For the probes

that emitted in PE, TREML4 was excluded, and RPMs were gated as F4/80^{high} CD11b^{dim}. The MFI

of the adequate fluorescence minus one (FMO) control was subtracted from the samples' MFI to

quantify the data. The data were further normalized for analysis.

ATP levels

The levels of cellular ATP in FACS-sorted RPMs (10000 cells per sample) were measured using

the ATP Assay Kit (Sigma-Aldrich, MAK473) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Magnetic Sorting of RPMs

60 x 10^6 cells were incubated for 15 minutes at 4°C in PBS containing 5% Normal Rat Serum

(Thermo Scientific, 10710C) and anti-CD16/32 antibody (Biolegend, 101320) in a 5 mL round

bottom tube. The cells were then labeled with anti-F4/80 (APC, Biolegend, 123116), anti-Ly-

6G/Ly-6C (Gr-1) (Biotin, Biolegend, 108403), anti-CD3 (Biotin, Biolegend, 100243), anti-mouse

Ly-6C (Biotin, Biolegend, 128003), and anti-B220 (Biotin, Biolegend, 103204) for 20 minutes at 4°C in the dark. The cells were washed with a cold PBS solution containing 2 mM EDTA and 0.5% BSA (hereafter referred to as "sorting buffer") and centrifuged at 600 g for 10 minutes. The pellet was resuspended in 400 μL of sorting buffer containing 50 μL of MojoSort Streptavidin Nanobeads (Biolegend, 480016) and kept in the cold and dark for 15 minutes. After incubation, an additional 400 μL of sorting buffer was added to the cells, and the tube was placed on an EasyEights EasySep Magnet (STEMCELL, 18103) for 7 minutes. The supernatant was transferred to a fresh 5 mL tube and centrifuged at 600 g for 10 minutes. The pellet was resuspended in 100 μL of sorting buffer, and 10 μL of MojoSort Mouse anti-APC Nanobeads (Biolegend, 480072) were added. The suspension was gently pipetted and incubated for 15 minutes at 4°C in the dark. The tube was then placed on a magnet for 7 minutes, and the supernatant was saved for analysis. The beads with attached F4/80+ cells were washed with sorting buffer and counted under a light microscope with a Neubauer chamber. The cells were pelleted and frozen in liquid nitrogen for further analysis.

Measurement of Cellular Iron Levels

To determine the levels of total iron in magnetically sorted RPMs, the Iron Assay Kit from Sigma-Aldrich (MAK025) was employed by following the manufacturer's instructions. The volume of buffers and reagents used in the measurement of total iron in RPMs were adjusted accordingly. The absorbance at 593 nm was recorded using a Nanodrop ND-1000 Spectrophotometer from Thermo Fisher Scientific. Iron concentrations in RPMs (ng/μL) were calculated from the standard curve and then normalized to the number of cells in each sample.

***In Vivo* RBC Lifespan**

A sterile solution of EZ-Link Sulfo-NHS Biotin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 21217) was prepared in PBS with a final concentration of 1 mg per 100 μL. The solution was then filtered through a 0.1 μm filter (Millipore, SLVV033RS). One day before the first blood collection, 100 μL of the sterile Biotin solution was intravenously injected into the mice. Blood samples were collected from the tail vein on days 0, 4, 11, 18, and 25, using heparinized capillaries to prevent clotting. RBCs were separated by centrifugation at 400 g for 5 minutes at 4°C, and each sample was resuspended in 250 μL of HBSS containing 5% normal rat serum (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The suspension was then mixed with 2 μL of fluorescently labeled anti-TER-119 and streptavidin, except for the fluorescence minus one (FMO) sample in each group where fluorescent streptavidin was omitted.

749   After incubation at 4℃ for 30 minutes, the samples were centrifuged and resuspended in HBSS.

750   Flow cytometry was used to determine the percentage of biotinylated erythrocytes.

Preparation of Stressed RBCs for Erythrophagocytosis Assays

The preparation and staining of stressed RBCs followed a previously outlined procedure. To obtain

the RBCs, mice were humanely euthanized, and whole blood was aseptically collected via cardiac

puncture into CPDA-1 solution (Sigma-Aldrich, C4431) with a final concentration of 10%. The

collected whole blood was combined, and plasma was separated by centrifugation at 400 g for 15

min at 4℃, then filtered through a 0.1 µm filter and stored at 4℃. The RBCs were then suspended

in HBSS, and leukocytes were eliminated using Lymphosep (Biowest, L0560-500). Following this,

the cells were subjected to a 30-minute heating period at 48℃ with continuous agitation to generate

stressed RBCs. To stain the sRBCs, 1×10^{10} RBCs were resuspended in 1 ml of diluent C and mixed

with 1 ml of diluent C containing 4 µM of PKH-67 (Sigma-Aldrich, MINI67) or PKH-26 (Sigma-

Aldrich, MINI26). The mixture was then incubated in the dark for 5 min at 37℃, and the reaction

was stopped by adding 10 mL of HBSS containing 2% FCS and 0.5% BSA. Staining was followed

by two washing steps with HBSS. For *in vitro* EP assays, the cells were resuspended in RPMI-1640

and counted. For the *in vivo* approach, RBCs were resuspended to 50% hematocrit in previously

collected and filtered plasma.

In Vitro **Erythrophagocytosis**

On the 8th day post-seeding, stained, and counted sRBCs were added to iRPMs on 12-well plates

in 10-fold excess for 1.5 hours at 37 °C and 5% CO_2. After incubation, the cells were extensively

washed with cold HBSS to eliminate any non-engulfed sRBCs. Subsequently, the cells were

detached using Accutase (BioLegend, 423201), which were then transferred to a round-bottom

FACS tube, washed with HBSS, and centrifuged at 600 g for 5 minutes. The cells were labeled

with antibodies and analyzed using flow cytometry. For time-lapse confocal imaging of the

execution of RBC uptake by iRPMS, sRBCs were stained with pH-sensitive pHrodo™ Deep Red

Mammalian and Bacterial Cell Labeling Kit. The imaging was performed using The Opera Phenix

(PerkinElmer), an automated confocal spinning disk microscope. Imaging was conducted for 120

min, with acquisition every 1.3 min.

In Vivo **Erythrophagocytosis**

The mice were intravenously transfused with 100 μL of RBCs resuspended in plasma to 50%

hematocrit. The animals were kept in cages with ad libitum access to food and water for 1.5 hours

before being sacrificed for organ isolation.

Mini-Hepcidin (PR73) Preparation

An optimized protocol was developed for preparing mini-Hepcidin (PR73, a kind gift from

Elizabeta Nemeth, UCLA, USA) for intraperitoneal injection in mice. Commercially available

PR73 powder may not represent the pure peptide, so we adjusted the preparation based on the

estimated active component content (80%). The process began by precisely weighing the PR73

powder to account for the estimated 80% active component. This powder was then dissolved in

80% ethanol to ensure complete extraction of the peptide. The solution was thoroughly mixed using

a vortex mixer to achieve a homogenous suspension. Next, the solution was carefully transferred

to a sterile, low-bind vial (SL-220) to minimize potential losses due to adsorption during

incubation. A brief heat treatment at 37°C for a few seconds facilitated the complete dissolution of

any undissolved particles. Following the heat treatment, the vial cap was removed, and the solution

was aliquoted into designated culture tubes for individual injections. A Speedvac concentrator was

then used to evaporate the ethanol, resulting in a concentrated PR73 gel within each tube. To

achieve a final working concentration of 1 nmol/μl, 1 ml of sterile, injectable-grade water was

added to each tube containing the PR73 gel. The tubes were vigorously vortexed to ensure complete

dissolution of the gel and homogenization of the solution. For *in vivo* experiments, 100 μl of the

prepared PR73 stock solution was administered per mouse via intraperitoneal injection. A solvent

control solution was prepared by following the same steps outlined above but substituting the PR73

solution with only 80% ethanol. This control solution served as a baseline for comparison with the

PR73-treated mice in subsequent experiments.

Metabolic Flux Seahorse Assay

Metabolic flux was assessed using a Seahorse XF-96 Extracellular Flux Analyzer (Agilent

Technologies) Mito Stress Test (Agilent,103010-100). Magnetically sorted RPMs (1×10^5

cells/well) from IB and ID mice were plated onto poly-L-lysine coated Seahorse XF HS Miniplates

(Agilent, 103725-100). Cells were incubated in Seahorse XF RPMI medium (Agilent, 103576-100)

supplemented with 2 mM L-glutamine (Agilent, 103579-100), 1 mM sodium pyruvate (Agilent,

103578-100), and 25 mM glucose (pH adjusted to 7.4; Agilent 103577-100) at 37°C in a non-CO_2

incubator for 60 minutes. Real-time oxygen consumption rate (OCR) was measured under basal

conditions and following sequential injections of 1 µM oligomycin, 1 µM FCCP, and a mixture of

1 µM rotenone and 1 µM antimycin A.

Voluntary Oral Drug Administration

Strawberry-flavored gelatin jellies were prepared under sterile conditions in 96-well plates (100

µL/well), with or without ENTO. Gelatin (8% w/v, Sigma-Aldrich, G9391) was dissolved in warm,

sterile water, and strawberry flavoring essence (1% v/v, OstroVit, 5903933916217) was added. Just

prior to gelation, ENTO was added to the appropriate wells of a sterile 96-well plate to achieve the

desired final concentration, while control wells received vehicle only. The gelatin solution (100

µL) was then added to each well, and plates were refrigerated at 4°C until solid. To acclimate IB

and ID mice, two drug-free jellies were provided per cage daily for 2-3 days (two mice per cage).

This co-housing approach minimized stress associated with individual training. Following

acclimation, mice readily consumed the jellies within 15-20 minutes. Drug-containing jellies were

administered at approximately the same time each day for two weeks.

Generation of Ferroportin Overexpressing iRPMs

We successfully cloned the wild-type *Slc40a1* gene, encoding mouse ferroportin (FPN; Uniport

ID: Q9JHI9), into the HIV SFFV lentiviral vector. Lentiviral production involved transfecting the

chosen lentiviral vectors (FPN, or Mock) along with the psPAX2 packaging vector and the

pMD2.G envelope vector into HEK293T cells. The resulting viral supernatants were harvested and

titrated to determine viral concentration. Subsequently, iRPMs were transduced with the lentiviral

vectors at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1. This MOI ensured efficient transduction while

minimizing potential cytotoxicity. Expression levels of surface FPN were measured in each

experiment using flow cytometry. This verification step confirmed successful FPN overexpression

in my iRPM population, allowing for functional analysis of the consequences in subsequent

experiments.

Hepcidin Measurement with ELISA

Serum hepcidin levels were measured using the Hepcidin-Murine Compete ELISA Kit (Intrinsic

LifeSciences, HMC-001) following the manufacturer's instructions. Optical density was

determined with a microplate reader at a wavelength of 450 nm.

Erythropoietin (EPO) Measurement with ELISA

Serum EPO levels were measured using the Mouse Erythropoietin/EPO Quantikine ELISA Kit (R&D Systems, MEP00B) following the manufacturer's instructions. Optical density was determined with a microplate reader at a wavelength of 450 nm.

Transferrin Saturation and Tissue Iron Measurements

The levels of serum iron and unsaturated iron-binding capacity were quantified using SFBC (Biolabo, 80008) and UIBC (Biolabo, 97408) kits per the manufacturer's instructions. Transferrin saturation was determined using the formula SFBC/(SFBC+UIBC) x 100. Tissue non-heme iron content was measured using the bathophenanthroline method and the results were calculated based on tissue dry weight, as previously described[74].

RT-qPCR

RNA from cell pellets was isolated using an RNA purification kit (Eurex) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA from liver tissue was isolated using TRIzol™ reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions. 400 ng of RNA was subjected to reverse transcription. In the first stage of the reaction, RNA was denatured, and random primers were attached. For this purpose, a mixture consisting of 400 ng RNA, 1 µl of random primers at a concentration of 200 ng/µl, and nuclease-free water was prepared so that the total reaction volume was 17.7 µl. The mixture was incubated at 70°C for 10 minutes and then cooled to 4°C. The next step was to add the reaction mixture to the tubes, which contained: 0.3 µl RevertAid H Minus reverse transcriptase, 1 µl of 10 mM dNTP solution, and 5 µl of reaction buffer. The total reaction volume was 25 µl. The reaction was carried out for 60 minutes at 42°C, 70°C, 10 minutes. The obtained cDNA was diluted 9x and then used for quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR). The reaction mixture consisted of 4 µl cDNA, 7.5 µl SG qPCR Master Mix (2x), and 1.5 µl of a 5 µM solution of forward and reverse primers. The whole was supplemented with nuclease-free water to a final reaction volume of 15 µl. The qPCR reaction was carried out using the LightCycler 96 Real-Time PCR System (Roche). The reaction was pre-incubated at 95°C for 600 s and then two-step amplification was performed 40x (95°C x 15 s, 60°C x 60 s).

Immunohistochemistry of Spleen Tissues

The spleen was fixed in 4% PFA at 4°C for 24 h. Tissues were washed with PBS (3x30min) and

incubated for 2 h in 12.5% and then in 25% sucrose solution for 48 h. Subsequently, spleen tissue

fragments were embedded in the Cryomatrix medium, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and cut into 10 μm

thick sections using a cryo microtome (Leica). The sections were mounted on glass slides and

stored at -20°C. Before staining, the sections were warmed at room temperature for 30 min, and

then their edges were surrounded using a Pap Pen Liquid Blocker. Next, the slides with sections

were washed in PBS for 10 min and permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 solution for 20 min.

Nonspecific antibody binding was blocked by incubating the sections in 3% BSA solution for 1 h

at room temperature. To visualize RPMs, the tissues were incubated with FITC-conjugated F4/80

antibody (1:100), and for FPN, with Alexa Flor 647-conjugated FPN antibody (1:100) in 3% BSA

for 2 h at room temperature in the dark. After incubation with antibodies, the tissues were washed

5 x 5 min in 0.1% Triton X-100 solution to remove unbound antibodies. To stain cell nuclei, the

sections were incubated with Hoechst 33342 diluted in 0.1% Triton X-100 solution (final

concentration - 1 μg/ml) for 10 min at room temperature in the dark. Then, the sections were

washed for 3 x 5 min in 0.1% Triton X-100 solution, incubated in PBS for 10 min, and mounted

with a coverslip using ProLong™ Glass Antifade Mountant. Samples were imaged on a confocal

microscope with a Plan-Apochromat 40x/1.3 NA oil immersion objective (Zeiss) LSM 800.

Histological and Histochemical Analysis

Following fixation in 10% formalin for 24 h, spleens were stored in 70% ethanol before further

preparation. The tissue was embedded in paraffin and 7 μm cross-sections were cut with a

microtome (Reichert-Jung, Germany). Sections were prepared as described above. After mounting

on glass slides, sections were deparaffinized, incubated with a working solution containing Perls'

Prussian Blue for 30 min, counterstained with pararosaniline solution for 2 min, and analyzed under

standard light microscopy (Olympus CH2).

Proteomic analysis of RPMs

<u>Sample Preparation</u>

Magnetically isolated RPMs were obtained from the spleens of IB and ID female C57BL/6J mice.

The cells were lysed using RIPA buffer. Proteins were precipitated using a chloroform/methanol

method, washed with methanol, and reconstituted in 100 mM HEPES (pH 8.0) containing 10 mM

TCEP and 10 mM chloroacetamide.

<u>LC-MS/MS Analysis</u>

10 µg of each lysate was subjected to an in-solution tryptic digest using a modified version of the

Single-Pot Solid-Phase-enhanced Sample Preparation (SP3) protocol[75,76]. To this end, lysates were

added to Sera-Mag Beads (Thermo Scientific, #4515-2105-050250, 6515-2105-050250) in 10 µl

15% formic acid and 30 µl of ethanol. The binding of proteins was achieved by shaking for 15 min

at room temperature. SDS was removed by 4 subsequent washes with 200 µl of 70% ethanol.

Proteins were digested overnight at room temperature with 0.4 µg of sequencing grade modified

trypsin (Promega, V5111) in 40 µl Hepes/NaOH, pH 8.4 in the presence of 1.25 mM TCEP and 5

mM chloroacetamide (Sigma-Aldrich, C0267). Beads were separated and washed with 10 µl of an

aqueous solution of 2% DMSO, and the combined eluates were dried down.

Up to 10 µg of peptides per sample were labeled with TMT10plex™ reagents following established

protocols[77]. Briefly, 0.8 mg of TMT reagent was dissolved in 45 µL of anhydrous acetonitrile, and

4 µL of this solution was added to each peptide sample. Labeling was carried out at room

temperature for 1 hour. The reaction was quenched by adding 4 µL of 5% hydroxylamine in water,

followed by a 15-minute incubation at room temperature. Labeled peptides were pooled for

multiplexing, desalted using an Oasis® HLB µElution Plate (Waters #186001828BA) according to

the manufacturer's instructions, and dried by vacuum centrifugation.

Offline high-pH reversed-phase fractionation was performed as described previously[78], using an

Agilent 1200 Infinity HPLC system equipped with a Gemini C18 analytical column (3 µm particle

size, 110 Å pore size, 100 × 1.0 mm; Phenomenex) and a matching Gemini C18 SecurityGuard pre-

column (4 × 2.0 mm; Phenomenex). Peptides were separated at a flow rate of 0.1 mL/min using

mobile phase A (20 mM ammonium formate, pH 10.0) and mobile phase B (100% acetonitrile).

The chromatographic gradient was as follows: 100% A for 2 min, linear increase to 35% B over

59 min, ramp to 85% B in 1 min, held at 85% B for 15 min, followed by re-equilibration at 100%

A for 13 min. A total of 48 fractions were collected and subsequently pooled into 12 final fractions.

Nanoflow LC-MS/MS analysis was performed on an UltiMate 3000 RSLCnano system (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) coupled to an Orbitrap Fusion™ Lumos™ Tribrid™ mass spectrometer (Thermo

Fisher Scientific). Peptides were initially loaded onto a µ-Precolumn C18 PepMap™ 100 trap

cartridge (300 µm i.d. × 5 mm, 5 µm particles, 100 Å; Thermo) at 30 µL/min with 0.05% TFA in water for 6 min. Analytical separation was carried out using a nanoEase™ M/Z HSS T3 column (75 µm i.d. × 250 mm, 1.8 µm particles, 100 Å; Waters), equilibrated with solvent A (3% DMSO, 0.1% formic acid in water). Peptides were eluted at 0.3 µL/min using a gradient of solvent B (3% DMSO, 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile) as follows: 2–8% B over 6 min, 8–25% over 99 min, 25–40% over 5 min, ramp to 85% in 0.1 min, held at 85% for 3.9 min, followed by re-equilibration to 2% B for 6 min. Mass spectrometry was performed using a Pico-Tip emitter (360 µm OD × 20 µm ID, 10 µm tip; CoAnn Technologies) with a spray voltage of 2.4 kV and a capillary temperature of 275 °C. Full MS scans were acquired in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 120,000 (at m/z 200), over a mass range of m/z 375–1,500, with an AGC target set to 'standard' and a maximum injection time of 50 ms. The instrument operated in data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode. MS/MS spectra were acquired in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 30,000, with a maximum injection time of 94 ms and an AGC target of 200%. Precursors were fragmented using higher-energy collisional dissociation (HCD) at 36% normalized collision energy. A quadrupole isolation window of 0.7 m/z was used, with dynamic exclusion set to 60 s. Only precursor ions with charge states between 2 and 7 were selected for fragmentation.

Acquired data were analyzed using IsobarQuant and Mascot V2.4 (Matrix Science) using a reverse UniProt FASTA Mus musculus database (UP000000589) including common contaminants. The following modifications were considered: Carbamidomethyl (C, fixed), TMT10plex (K, fixed), Acetyl (N-term, variable), Oxidation (M, variable), and TMT10plex (N-term, variable). The mass error tolerance for full scan MS spectra was set to 10 ppm and for MS/MS spectra to 0.02 Da. A maximum of 2 missed cleavages were allowed. A minimum of 2 unique peptides with a peptide length of at least seven amino acids and a false discovery rate below 0.01 were required on the peptide and protein level.

<u>Data Processing</u>

The data were processed using MaxQuant 2.1.3.0, with peptides identified from MS/MS spectra searched against the Uniprot Mouse Reference Proteome (UP000000589) using the built-in Andromeda search engine. Fixed modifications included cysteine carbamidomethylation, while variable modifications included methionine oxidation, glutamine/asparagine deamination, and protein N-terminal acetylation. In silico digests allowed for cleavages of arginine or lysine followed

953   by any amino acid (trypsin/P), with up to two missed cleavages permitted. The false discovery rate

954   (FDR) was set to 0.01 for peptides, proteins, and sites. Match between runs was enabled, and other

955   parameters were used as preset in the software. Protein identification and intrasample

956   quantification were performed using the iBAQ algorithm in MaxQuant.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) of the Spleen

Fresh spleen samples, approximately 3 mm² in size, were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde for 24 hours

at 4°C. Following fixation, the samples were washed in PBS and postfixed with 1% osmium

tetroxide for 1 hour. After rinsing with water, the samples were incubated in 1% aqueous uranyl

acetate for 12 hours at 4°C. The samples were then dehydrated at room temperature using

increasing concentrations of ethanol, infiltrated with epoxy resin (Sigma-Aldrich, 45-359-1EA-F),

and polymerized for 48 hours at 60°C. The polymerized resin blocks were trimmed using a tissue

processor (Leica EM TP) and sectioned into ultrathin slices (65 nm thick) with an ultramicrotome

(EM UC7, Leica). These ultrathin sections were collected on nickel grids with 200 mesh (Agar

Scientific, G2200N). The specimen grids were examined with a Tecnai T12 BioTwin transmission

electron microscope (FEI, Hillsboro, OR, USA) equipped with a 16-megapixel TemCam-F416

camera (TVIPS GmbH) at the in-house Microscopy and Cytometry Facility.

Preparation of Schematic Figures

970   Schematic figures were prepared based on cited literature or own results using the online program

971   BioRender, available at https://www.biorender.com.

Statistical Analysis

Female mice of the same age were randomly assigned to experimental groups, either based on iron

diet, PR73 and ENTO administration, or *Tmprss6* KO. Samples derived from these mice were

collected randomly within groups, assessed/measured randomly, and harvested in a different order

across individual experiments. The sample size, typically ranging from 5 to 9 mice per group or

independent biological cell-based experiments, was determined based on power analysis, prior

experience with similar experiments, and previously published studies in the field of RPM biology.

Statistical analysis was conducted using GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software, Version 9). Data

are presented as mean ± SEM unless otherwise noted. Student's t-test with Welch's correction was

employed when comparing the two groups. For comparisons involving more than two groups, one-

way ANOVA was used, or two-way ANOVA when the simultaneous effects of two factors were being evaluated. Tukey's test was implemented for post-hoc analysis following ANOVA. The following notation was used to indicate statistically significant differences between means: ns for non-significant ($p > 0.05$), * for $p < 0.05$, ** for $p < 0.01$, *** for $p < 0.001$, and **** for $p < 0.0001$.

Data availability

Mass spectrometry proteomics data were deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifiers: Project accession: PXD064719 (access secured by a token: lKilHQArXhhB. RNA sequencing data are deposited to the NCBI BioSample repository (under accession no: SAMN48982825, SAMN48982826, SAMN48982827, SAMN48982828, SAMN48982829, SAMN48982830, SAMN48982831, SAMN48982832).

Authorship Contributions

KMS, PKM, PS, RM, and KC conceived and planned the experiments; PKM, PS, RM, KC, GZ, MN, AJ, and ML performed research; PKM, PS, RM, KC, GZ, KMS and ML analyzed and visualized data; EN and DM provided critical reagents/models, KC and KMS curated data; KMS, WP, and EN supervised the study; KC and RM edited the manuscript, PKM and KMS wrote the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

EN is a shareholder and scientific advisor of Intrinsic LifeSciences and Silarus Therapeutics, and a consultant for Disc Medicine, Ionis Pharmaceuticals, Protagonist, GSK and Vifor. Other authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

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