Title: Single-cell characterisation of mononuclear phagocytes in the human intestinal mucosa

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Abstract

Subsets of mononuclear phagocytes, including macrophages and classical dendritic cells (cDC), are highly heterogeneous in peripheral tissues such as the intestine, with each subset playing distinct roles in immune responses. Understanding this complexity at the cellular level has proven difficult due to the expression of overlapping phenotypic markers and the inability to isolate leukocytes of the mucosal lamina propria (LP) effector site, without contamination by the isolated lymphoid follicles (ILFs), which are embedded in the mucosa and which are responsible for the induction of immunity. Here we exploit our novel method for separating lamina propria from isolated lymphoid follicles to carry out single-cell RNA-seq, CITE-seq and flow cytometry analysis of MNPs in the human small intestinal and colonic LP, without contamination by lymphoid follicles. As well as classical monocytes, non-classical monocytes, mature macrophages, cDC1 and CD103⁺ cDC2, we find that a CD1c⁺ CD103⁻ cDC subset, which shares features of both cDC2 and monocytes, is similar to the cDC3 that have recently been described in human peripheral blood. As well as differing between the steady-state small intestine and colon, the proportions of the different MNP subsets change during different stages of inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) inflammation. Putative cDC precursors (pre-cDC) were also present in the intestine, and trajectory analysis revealed clear developmental relationships between these and subsets of mature cDC, as well as between tissue monocytes and macrophages. By providing novel insights into the heterogeneity and development of intestinal MNP, our findings should help develop targeted approaches for modulating intestinal immune responses.

Introduction

The mononuclear phagocyte (MNP) family consists of classical dendritic cells (cDC), classical monocytes, non-classical monocytes, and macrophages, each of which play specific roles in the induction and function of immune responses, tissue homeostasis and inflammation (Arroyo Portilla et al., 2021; Caër and Wick, 2020; Joeris et al., 2017). Whereas cDC are the main cells involved in the induction and shaping of adaptive immune responses and tolerance (Cabeza-Cabrerizo et al., 2021), macrophages are primarily involved in maintaining tissue homeostasis, and in promoting inflammation in response to infection or tissue damage (Bain and Schridde, 2018; Na et al., 2019). Thus, characterising these populations and understanding their functions under different conditions will be important for improving the treatment of disease and for developing preventative strategies, such as vaccines. However, this has proved difficult due to the expression of overlapping phenotypic markers and due to the heterogeneity within each subset, which is becoming increasingly evident (Brown et al., 2019; Dutertre et al., 2019; Guillems et al., 2016; Villar and Segura, 2020). This is particularly so in non-lymphoid tissues such as the intestine, where local factors imprint unique adaptations and functions, meaning that each tissue has to be explored independently and at the single-cell level (Blériot et al., 2020).

All MNP subsets are abundant in the human intestine, where they are thought to play important roles in disorders such as the inflammatory bowel diseases ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease (Bernardo et al., 2018; Viola and Boeckxstaens, 2020). However, much of what is known about intestinal MNPs comes from work in mice and there are very few direct comparisons of these cells in the small and large intestine, which represent anatomical compartments with distinct functions and properties (Mowat and Agace, 2014). Furthermore, although recent work has examined human intestinal leukocytes at the single-cell level (Chapuy et al., 2019; Martin et al., 2019), these studies did not discriminate between cells in the mucosal

lamina propria (LP) and those in the secondary lymphoid organs of the gut-associated lymphoid tissues (GALT), which include the isolated lymphoid follicles (ILFs) which are embedded in the LP (Mörbe et al., 2021; Senda et al., 2019; Spencer et al., 2019). As these compartments have distinct roles in local immunity - with the GALT being responsible for the initiation of antigen-specific B and T cell responses, while the effector responses take place in the LP and epithelium (Barone et al., 2011; Boursier et al., 2005; Masahata et al., 2014) - it is critical to assess their cellular components independently. Recently, we developed a novel technique which allows ILFs of the GALT and the surrounding LP to be isolated separately from human intestinal tissue (Jørgensen et al., 2021). By combining this method with CyTOF, flow cytometry, and IgA-seq, we previously generated an atlas of effector lymphocytes in the LP of the small intestine and colon, and showed that these compartments contain very different populations of T and B cells (Fenton et al., 2020). Here, we have applied the same approaches to analyse the heterogeneity of MNP that are derived unequivocally from the LP of healthy and inflamed human small intestine and colon. As well as separate clusters of mature macrophages, we show that mucosal cDC can be divided into three distinct subsets and, for the first time, describe the presence of putative cDC precursors (pre-cDC) in the human intestine. Trajectory analysis revealed clear developmental relationships between tissue monocytes and macrophages, and between pre-cDC and mature DC. By providing novel insights into the heterogeneity and development of intestinal MNP, our findings should help target approaches for modulating intestinal immune responses.

Results

Single-cell sequencing of MNP subsets from the human intestinal mucosa

To characterise MNP diversity within the human intestinal LP, surgical samples of ileum and colon from uninvolved areas of colorectal cancer patients were processed to remove contaminating GALT and submucosa (SM), as we recently described (Fenton et al., 2020; Jørgensen et al., 2021). Following LP digestion, single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) was performed on flow cytometry sorted CD45⁺CD3⁺CD19⁺HLADR^{int/+} cells from ileal and colonic LP cell suspensions, using the 10x Chromium system (**Fig. 1A**). Sequences were obtained from a total of six colonic LP and four paired ileal LP samples (**Table S1**). Distinct clusters of CD3E⁺ T cells, CD79A⁺ B cells, VWF⁺ endothelia, MS4A2⁺ mast cells, COL3A1⁺ stroma, and NRXN1⁺ glia were identified and excluded from further analysis (**Fig. S1A**). Expression of HLA-DQA1 (MHCII) identified one ‘supercluster’ and two peripheral clusters (**Fig. S1B**), which were computationally isolated and re-clustered. These 28,758 MHCII⁺ cells included distinct clusters of IL3RA⁺ pDC, CLEC9A⁺ cDC1, and FCGR3A⁺ non-classical monocytes (**Fig. S1C and 1B**), and a supercluster containing cells expressing either the cDC2-associated marker CD1C, the monocyte/macrophage (Mono/Mac) -associated marker CD14, or both CD1C and CD14 (**Fig. 1C**). Flow cytometry analysis of colon LP CD45⁺ HLA-DR⁺ lineage⁻ cells confirmed the presence of CD1c and CD14 single positive cells, as well as a cells expressing variable levels of both CD1c and CD14 (**Fig. 1D**).

To further characterise subsets within this MNP supercluster, these cells were again re-clustered, at high resolution, and were analysed for expression of a curated panel of monocyte, macrophage, and cDC2/3 signature genes (**Fig. 1E**). Three broad populations could be identified, with population 1 (clusters X1-6) expressing the classical monocyte transcription factor ZBTB16 (Cytlak et al., 2020), population 2 (clusters X7-X20) expressing the macrophage-associated genes SEPP1, MERTK and MAF, and population 3 (clusters X21-X35) expressing the cDC2/3-

associated genes *AP1S3*, *FLT3* and *SEPT6* (Guilliams et al., 2016; Miller et al., 2012), (**Fig. 1E**). The monocyte and macrophage clusters expressed Mono/Mac-specific TFs *ZBTB16*, *MAFB*, and *MAF*, and other TFs involved in tissue-resident macrophage development such as *ID3* (T'Jonck et al., 2018). These were mutually exclusively expressed with the TF *IRF4*, which is associated with cDC2 (Guilliams et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2017) (**Fig. 1E**). Some genes previously used as signature markers to discriminate cDC2/3 from monocytes in blood, such as *FCER1A* and *CLEC10A* (Dutertre et al., 2019), were broadly expressed amongst most clusters, and thus were not useful in segregating these populations in the human gut (**Fig. 1E**).

As a result of this analysis, all clusters except X36-39 could be identified as putative cDC2/3 or as Mono/Mac (**Fig. 1F**). These remaining clusters expressed both cDC2-associated genes including, *FLT3* and *IRF4*, and Mono/Mac-associated genes, including *CD14* and *C5AR1* (CD88) (**Fig. 1E**). Since cDC3 co-express such markers (Bourdely et al., 2020; Cytlak et al., 2020; Dutertre et al., 2019; See et al., 2017; Villani et al., 2017; Yin et al., 2017) we classified clusters X36-39 as cDC3, of which cluster X38 also expressed a strong IFN-response signature (e.g. *CXCL9*, *CXCL10*, and *WARS*) (**Fig. 1E**).

To assess the accuracy in designating these clusters as monocytes, macrophages and DC2/3, pseudo-bulk PCA analysis of the clusters was performed using three datasets of MNP gene signatures taken from different studies using blood cDC2, classical monocytes, and *in vitro* monocyte-derived macrophages (Carpentier et al., 2016; Goudot et al., 2017) which were previously collated (Tang-Huau et al., 2018). Consistent with our first supervised analytical approach, these clusters again separated into three groups, with PC1 driving separation of cDC2/3 and PC2 separating monocytes from macrophages (**Fig. 1G**). In summary, while showing a high degree of transcriptional overlap, by combining high resolution clustering and gene

expression analysis of published data sets we were able to separate intestinal LP MNP into monocytes, macrophages, cDC1, pDC and cDC2/3.

Human intestinal CD1c⁺ MNP include both cDC2 and cDC3

To further explore diversity within the cDC2/3 populations, clusters X21-39 (Fig. 1F) were computationally isolated and re-clustered, and six distinct clusters were identified (**Fig. 2A**). Clusters Y5 and Y6 expressed Mono/Mac-associated genes, including *S100A9*, *CD163*, *FCN1* and *FCGRT*, and showed lower expression of *IRF4* compared with the other clusters, indicative of cDC3 (Bourdely et al., 2020; Girard et al., 2020) (**Fig. 2B and C**). In contrast, cluster Y2 lacked expression of Mono/Mac-associated genes, and expressed genes previously associated with cDC2, including *CD207* (Lim et al., 2020; De Monte et al., 2016), *NET1* (Girard et al., 2020), and *IRF4* (Dutertre et al., 2019) (**Fig. 2B and C**). Y2 also highly expressed other signature genes enriched in human blood cDC2 vs cDC3 (Bourdely et al., 2020), including *ZEB1*, *ADAM19* and *LAD1* (**Fig S2A**). Interestingly, cluster Y5 contained the CXCL9⁺ CXCL10⁺ cells identified in Fig. 1 as potentially responding to IFN (**Fig. 2D and S2B**). Thus, cluster Y2 appeared to contain bona fide cDC2, while Y5 and Y6 contained cells resembling cDC3. In order to investigate possible functional differences between the cDC2 and cDC3, we assessed their differential expression of immunologically relevant genes which could have been missed by statistical tests of differential expression. cDC2 and cDC3 showed differential expression of multiple genes with immune functions, including Fc receptors and cytokines, as well as transcription factors, suggesting possible functional differences between the cells (**Fig. 2D**).

Cluster Y3 showed mixed expression of cDC2 and cDC3 signatures (**Fig. 2C, Fig S2A**), but expressed genes associated with stimulus-response, including *FOS* and *JUN* (**Fig. 2B and S2C**). This cluster contains a heterogeneous mix of cDC2 and cDC3 cells which were clustered together

due to shared transcriptional states rather than lineage identities. Finally, Clusters Y1 and Y4 expressed low levels of MHCII genes and high levels of cell-cycle associated genes, including *KIAA0101* and *MKI67* (**Fig. 2C and S2C**), and thus resembled precursors and will be further discussed below.

Human CD1c⁺CD14^{low} intestinal cDC3 can be distinguished from cDC2 by low levels of CD103 and CD207

To identify surface markers that have the potential to distinguish intestinal cDC2 from cDC3, a Legendscreen antibody panel was used to screen for surface antigens which showed a bimodal expression pattern on colonic CD1c⁺CD14^{low} MNP. Of 288 surface markers, only CD1a, CD11a, CD103, CD206, and CD207 showed bimodal expression within CD1c⁺CD14^{low} MNP (**Fig. S2D**). To map expression of these surface markers to the cDC2/3 scRNA-seq clusters, these antibodies were included within a CITE-seq panel to stain intestinal LP cell suspensions (3 colon LP samples and 1 matched ileal LP sample). The main cDC2 cluster, Y2, expressed moderate-to-high levels of CD103, high levels of CD207, and relatively low levels of CD11a (**Fig. 2E**). In contrast, the cDC3 clusters Y5 and Y6 expressed low levels of CD103 and CD207, but both clusters uniformly expressed CD11a at high levels (**Fig. 2E**). CD14 and CD209 were expressed at only low levels in all clusters, but both showed highest expression within the cDC3 cluster Y5 (**Fig. S2D**). Finally, CD5, which has been used as a specific surface marker of human blood cDC2 vs. cDC3 (Bourdely et al., 2020; Cytlak et al., 2020; Dutertre et al., 2019; Yin et al., 2017), was expressed by only a small fraction of cells in both intestinal cDC2 cluster Y2 and cDC3 cluster Y6 (**Fig. S2E**). To define intestinal cDC2 vs cDC3 using surface markers, the co-expression of CD103, CD207 and CD11a was analysed using CITE-seq, and cDC2 were defined as CD103⁺ and/or CD207⁺ CD11a^{-/low} cells, while cDC3 were defined as CD103⁻ CD207^{low/-} CD11a^{hi} cells (**Fig. 2F**). Clusters Y3 and Y4 both showed a mix of CD103⁺ CD207⁺ CD11a⁻ and CD103⁻ CD207⁻ CD11a⁺ expression (**Fig.**

S2F). Thus, putative cDC3 can be distinguished from cDC2 in the human intestinal LP by high expression of CD11a, low expression of CD103, and moderate-to-low expression of CD207.

The human intestinal LP contains precursors of cDC1, cDC2 and cDC3

Conventional DC are derived from pre-cDC, and recent studies have identified committed precursors of cDC1 (pre-cDC1), cDC2 (pre-cDC2), and, more recently, cDC3 (pre-cDC3) (Bourdely et al., 2020), as well as uncommitted pre-cDC precursors in human peripheral bone marrow, blood (Breton et al., 2015; Cytlak et al., 2020; See et al., 2017; Villani et al., 2017), and tonsils (Durand et al., 2019). Given that some intestinal cDC clusters in this dataset shared characteristics with cDC precursors (Fig. 2) - and to explore the relationships between these cells and mature cDC subsets - the cDC1, cDC2, and cDC3 clusters were computationally isolated and re-clustered together, and tSpace (Dermadi et al., 2020) was used to perform trajectory analysis. The tSpace principle components were used for a trajectory-based clustering and visualisation by 2D representation of 3-dimensional tSpace UMAP (Flat tUMAP). Cells of the previous cDC2 (Y2) and cDC3 (Y5/6) clusters again grouped together in this clustering, while cDC1 were separate, but all subsets extended individual branches to meet at the connection between Y1, Y4, and cDC1 (**Fig. 3A**). The clusters at the tips of these branches expressed a proliferation signature, defined by high expression of the cell-cycle-associated genes, including *STMN1*, *KIAA0101*, and *MKI67*, which is characteristic of pre-cDC (**Fig. 3B**) (Balan et al., 2018; Brown et al., 2019; Chen et al., 2016; Durand et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2019). By re-clustering all cDC at high resolution, 42 new cDC clusters were identified (**Fig S3A**), and to focus on putative cDC precursors, all clusters outside of the proliferating branches were grouped into putative mature cDC1, cDC2, and cDC3 clusters (**Fig. 3C**), and these identities were confirmed by expression of the signature genes *CLEC9A*, *IRF4*, and *C1QA* (**Fig. 3D**). The remaining clusters D1, D3, D4, and D7-D9 all expressed a proliferation signature, while clusters D1, D3, D4 and D7 all expressed

low levels of MHCII genes (**Fig. 3E**), which has been described for mouse and human pre-cDC (Cabeza-Cabrerizo et al., 2021; Villani et al., 2017). Clusters D3, D4 and D7 also expressed low levels of the CD11c gene *ITGAX*, compared with mature cDC2/3 (**Fig. 3E**), which is characteristic of early cDC precursors (Cytlak et al., 2020). Clusters D3 and D7 expressed high levels of the pDC-associated genes *LILRA4* and *GZMB* (**Fig. 3E**), which suggests that these may be the most developmentally close to early pre-cDC (See et al., 2017). Finally, clusters D1, D3, D7 and D8 expressed the highest relative 'stemness' score, composed of 20 genes expressed in our dataset (*BUB1*, *CCND2*, *CDC6*, *CDT1*, *CKS2*, *COL18A1*, *CSRP2*, *DTYMK*, *HELLS*, *KPNA2*, *MCM2*, *MCM4*, *MCM5*, *NAP1L1*, *PCNA*, *RRM2*, *SHROOM3*, *SMO*, *TOP2A*, *TTK*) out of 40 genes which were previously identified as forming a general 'stemness' signature (Koeva et al., 2011) (**Fig. S3B**). Thus, clusters D1, D3, D4, D7 and D8 are a heterogeneous mix of proliferating cells, each showing multiple features of pre-cDC. Clusters D9 and D10 expressed *CCR7*, *CD80* (B7-1), *LAMP3* (DC-LAMP), and *CD80*, as well as *CD207* and *C1QA* (**Fig. 3E**), were therefore identified as mixed clusters of migratory cDC2/3.

Heterogeneity of human intestinal LP pre-cDC

The pre-cDC cluster D1 expressed the cDC1-associated genes *IRF8*, *BATF3*, *CADM1*, *ID2* and *CLEC9A*, as well as moderate levels of *XCR1* (**Fig. 3D and E**). Cluster D1 connected to D2 then to mature cDC1 in the tUMAP embedding, with the former expressing higher levels of *RUNX3*, *THBD*, and the pre-cDC-associated *CLEC4C* (See et al., 2017) (**Fig. 3E**). In contrast, cluster D2 and the mature cDC1 expressed higher levels of *XCR1* and *CADM1* than cluster D1 (**Fig. 3E**). In agreement with the mouse literature (Grajales-Reyes et al., 2015), *NR4A1* and *ATF3* were upregulated during the transition from D2 to the mature cDC1 cluster (**Fig. 3C**). Collectively, these results suggest that cluster D1 and D2 may represent early and late pre-cDC1, respectively.

The pre-cDC clusters D3 and D4 expressed genes associated with the cDC2 lineage, including *IRF4*, *CD1C* and *IL-22RA2*; transcription factors associated with haematopoiesis, including *PRDM16* (Tang-Huau et al., 2018), *KIT* (Thorén et al., 2008), *SOX4* (Ma et al., 2019) and *CXXC5* (Joshi et al., 2020); *S100B* and *LTB*, which are expressed on proliferating pre-cDC in the human tonsil (Durand et al., 2019); and *NGFR* and *CDH1*, the proteins of which have been previously identified as cell surface markers of pre-cDC (Dutertre et al., 2019) (**Fig. 3E**). Cluster D4 did not express cell-cycle genes to the same extent as D3, but expressed the highest level of the haematopoiesis genes, and the highest level of the pDC-associated genes *LILRA4* and *GZMB* (**Fig. 3E**). D4 also expressed low levels of *CD1C*, which aligns with previous data on early pre-cDC subsets (See et al., 2017) (**Fig. 3E**). Thus, clusters D3 and D4 appear to be distinct subsets of pre-cDC2, with D4 perhaps representing an earlier precursor.

Proliferating clusters D7, D8 and D9, which were connected in the tUMAP embedding to mature cDC3 (**Fig. 3C**), all expressed cDC3 markers such as *C1QA*, *CD14*, and *CD163* (**Fig. 3D and E**). These cells also expressed higher levels of several genes associated with pre-DC in blood, including *AXL* and *IL3RA* (Brown et al., 2019; Cytlak et al., 2020; See et al., 2017; Villani et al., 2017) although these are also expressed by the mature cDC3 (**Fig 3E**). Of these three clusters, D7 expressed the highest level of the cell-cycle genes and the myelopoiesis-associated gene *CD38*, and the lowest level of MHCII genes (**Fig. 3E**). Collectively, these results suggest that clusters D7-D9 represent a heterogeneous mix of pre-cDC3, with D7 perhaps representing the earliest precursor.

To assess the direction in which the putative pre-cDC clusters might be related, RNA velocity of the clusters was analysed and overlayed on the tUMAP embedding. Analysis of RNA splicing patterns demonstrated a clear directionality between pre-cDC1 clusters D2 and D3, with a less

pronounced velocity to mature cDC1 cluster D4 (**Fig. 3F**). There was clear directionality from pre-cDC2 cluster D4 to mature pre-cDC2 and from pre-cDC3 cluster D7 to mature cDC3 (**Fig. 3F**). Directionality was unclear between the pre-cDC clusters D1, D3, D4 and D7, with D3 or D4 seemingly upstream of D1 and D7 (**Fig. 3F**). The data showed similar results when ileal and colonic samples were analysed separately (**Fig. S3C**). To further analyse cluster relationships, the pseudotime of each cluster was analysed using the most proliferative cluster, D7, as the starting point for pseudotime calculation. The putative lineage-specific precursors (D1, D3/4, and D7) each had low pseudotime scores compared with their mature counterparts, supporting their identities as precursors, while the putative migratory clusters (D5 and D6) had the highest pseudotime scores, supporting their identities as highly mature cDC (**Fig. 3G**).

Characterising intestinal LP monocyte and macrophage populations

Murine intestinal monocytes develop into macrophages along a ‘waterfall’ of phenotypic intermediates which is interrupted during inflammation, leading to the preferential accumulation of pro-inflammatory cells at the expense of mature macrophages (Bain et al., 2013, 2014; Desalegn and Pabst, 2019; Rivollier et al., 2012). To investigate whether a similar monocyte ‘waterfall’ exists in the human intestine LP, ileal and colonic LP cells identified as Mono/Mac in Fig. 1 were isolated and trajectory analysis was performed with tSpace (Dermadi et al., 2020). The tSpace principal components were used for trajectory-based reclustering and tUMAP embedding, which resulted in 11 Mono /Mac clusters (M1-M11) (**Fig. 4A**). DEG analysis of the trajectory-based clusters identified high levels of monocyte-associated genes, such as *S100A9*, *FCN1* and *VCAN* (Bujko et al., 2018; Villani et al., 2017), in cluster M1 (**Fig. 4B and C**). To

investigate the downstream developmental trajectories, pseudotime scoring was performed on the tSpace trajectories using the M1 monocyte cluster as the pseudotime starting point, and averaging all trajectories from there. This demonstrated a pseudotime trajectory from cluster M1, via M2-M3, then M4-M6, and ending at M7-M10 (**Fig. 4D**). Cluster M11 was considered too small to analyse pseudotime with confidence.

To investigate heterogeneity of the monocyte-derived clusters, DEG analysis showed clusters M2 and M3 as expressing intermediate levels of *S100A9*, *VCAN*, and *ITGAX* and low levels of *C1QC*, which we classified as early intermediate cells; clusters M4-6, which lacked expression of *S100A9* and *FCN1* and expressed intermediate levels of *ITGAX* and *C1QC*, which we classified as late intermediate cells; and cluster M7 and M8 that expressed high levels of *CD209* and *C1QC*, which is consistent with mature macrophages (Bujko et al., 2018; Schridde et al., 2017) (**Fig. 4B and C**). The two small clusters M9 and M10 shared some features with mature macrophages, including high expression of MHCII and C1Q genes, but expressed low levels of *CD209* and *CD163* (**Fig. 4B and C**). Finally, the smallest cluster, M11, expressed very high levels of cell-cycle associated genes including *MKI67* and *KIAA0101*, indicating that these represented a population of proliferating cells (**Fig. 4B and C**).

In recent single-cell data, murine monocytes were found to develop into resident macrophages along two distinct paths, defined by the expression or absence of pro-inflammatory pathways (Desalegn and Pabst, 2019). To investigate this possibility in human intestinal Mono/Mac, signalling pathway activity was analysed using the Pathway RespOnsive GENes (PROGENy) package, which infers pathway activity within cells using expression levels of pathway response genes (Schubert et al., 2018) (**Fig. 4E**). PROGENy analysis showed activation of NFκB and TNFα signalling pathways in the monocyte cluster M1 and in the early intermediate cluster M3, but not

in the parallel early intermediate cluster M2 (**Fig. 4E**). Consistent with this, cluster M3 expressed high levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines including *IL1B*, *CXCL8* (IL8), and *CCL4* (MIP-1 β), as well as the signalling protein *NFKBIA* (**Fig. 4B** and F). This dichotomy extended to late intermediate as well as mature macrophage clusters, with the late intermediate cluster M5 and the mature macrophage cluster M7 showing indications of enhanced NF κ B and TNF signalling, and enhanced expression of higher pro-inflammatory cytokines, compared with other late intermediate and mature macrophage clusters (**Fig. 4B and F**). Clusters M3, M5 and M7 also showed higher activation of MAPK and EGFR pathways (**Fig. 4E**). In contrast, the late intermediate clusters M4 and M6, and the mature macrophage clusters M8 and M9, all showed evidence of increased activation of the JAK-STAT and WNT signalling pathways (**Fig. 4E**). Interestingly, three of the 4 mature macrophage clusters (M7-M9) showed evidence of responding to TGF β signalling (**Fig. 4E**), consistent with previous work in mice (Schridde et al., 2017). These clusters also showed evidence of p53 pathway activation, which is involved in multiple aspects of cell function including cell-cycle arrest, and which was not active in the proliferating cluster M11 (**Fig. 4E**). In contrast, M11 showed evidence of responding to oestrogen (**Fig. 4E**), consistent with findings that oestrogen may drive macrophage proliferation (Pepe et al., 2018).

As well as showing a putative pro-inflammatory phenotype, clusters M5 and M7 expressed the stimulus-response genes *FOS*, *JUN*, and *EGR1* (Bahrami and Drabløs, 2016) (**Fig. 4B and G**), and other transcription factors including *KLF2*, *KLF4* and *KLF6* (**Fig. 4B**). The Discriminant Regulon Expression Analysis (DoRothEA) package, which infers transcription factor activity from expression of downstream target genes, was used to further investigate this heterogeneity in transcription factor activity (Garcia-Alonso et al., 2019; Holland et al., 2020). This supported activity of transcription factors including Nuclear Factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated

B cells (NFκB) and Activator Protein-1 (AP-1) in clusters M1, M3, M5, and M7, and additionally identified activity of Activating Transcription Factor (ATF) in clusters M5 and M7 (**Fig. S4A**). In contrast, clusters M4, M6, M8 and M9 showed inferred activity of the transcriptional repressor RE1-Silencing Transcription factor (REST), and the MHCII promoter-associated regulatory factor X5 (RFX5) (**Fig. S4A**). Interestingly, cluster M6 also expressed the stimulus-response genes and KLF genes (**Fig. 4B and G**), but this cluster showed activation of the JAK-STAT and WNT pathways instead of the NFκB, TNFα MAPK, and EGFR pathways (**Fig. 4E**), it expressed low levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines (**Fig. 4F**), and showed particularly low activation of *JUN* and *FOS* (**Fig. S4A**). Thus, clusters M3, M5, and M7 seem to share a stimulus-response and pro-inflammatory profile, while clusters M2, M4, and M6 seemed to share a less-inflammatory profile.

Clusters M5, M6, M7, and M10 also expressed the transcription factor *KLF2*, which has been implicated in efferocytosis, and clusters M6 and M7 expressed the efferocytosis-associated gene *STAB1*, suggesting they may be specialised for uptake of apoptotic cells (**Fig. 4H**)(Elliott et al., 2017). Two other efferocytosis-associated genes, *AXL* and *MERTK*, were expressed by clusters M4-M9 and M7-M9, respectively (**Fig. 4H**). Thus, the late intermediate clusters M4-M6 and mature macrophages M7-M9 seem to be involved in efferocytosis, but, in line with a recent study (Lantz et al., 2020), there is heterogeneity in the expression of genes involved.

To understand how the intestinal macrophage subsets (M7-10) may be related to previously describe tissue resident macrophage subsets, we further explored genes differentially expressed by these subsets. The macrophage clusters M7, and, to a lesser extent, M8, were both enriched in gene signatures of perivascular macrophages (Silva et al., 2021), including *LYVE1*, *SIGLEC1* (CD169), *FOLR2*, and *MAF* (**Fig. 4B and I**), consistent with the finding that the majority of mature macrophages in the LP are found in a perivascular niche (Honda et al.,

2020). CD169⁺ macrophages have also been observed in mouse intestines (Hiemstra et al., 2014), where they seem to play a role in surveillance of the vasculature (Kang et al., 2020).

The small *CD163*^{lo} mature macrophage cluster, M9, expressed relatively high levels of *CD4*, *C2*, and *ADAMDEC1* (**Fig. 4B and J**), and in this respect resembled non-monocyte-derived self-maintaining resident macrophages, as previously described in the murine intestine (De Schepper et al., 2018; Shaw et al., 2018). These cells also highly expressed matrix metalloproteinases, including *MMP9* and *MMP12* (**Fig. 4B and J**), which was also reported for self-maintaining murine intestinal macrophages (De Schepper et al., 2018), and these cells might therefore be involved in tissue remodelling or angiogenesis. The other *CD163*^{lo} macrophages, in cluster M10, expressed genes associated with iron sequestration (*FTL*), vitamin A metabolism (*RBP1*), microglia (*PLP1*, *PMEPA1*, *GPM6B*) and fibrosis (*SPARC*), as well as the adipocyte-associated genes *ADIRF* and *SCD* (**Fig. 4B**), and showed poor activation of most of the response pathways (**Fig. 4E**) and transcription factor activity (**Fig. S4A**), so did not have a clear phenotype. They did however resemble adipose tissue macrophages in several respects (Frey and Vogel, 2011; Li et al., 2020), including activity of the TRAIL pathway (**Fig. 4E**) (Maixner et al., 2020).

In summary, ileal and colonic LP Mono/Mac are highly heterogeneous, encompassing a differentiation spectrum from monocytes (M1) through early (M2, M3) and late (M4, M5, M6) intermediate cells, to mature macrophages (M7, M8), as well as small populations resembling self-maintaining macrophages (M9), adipose tissue-like macrophages (M10), and proliferating cells without a clear identity (M11). Monocytes appear to develop into macrophages via both a pro-inflammatory route (M1- M3- M5- M7) and a parallel less-inflammatory route (M1- M2- M4- M6- M8).

Analysis of Mono/Mac subsets by surface marker expression

To identify surface antigens that could be used to distinguish the different stages of intestinal monocyte development by flow cytometry, colonic CD14⁺CD1c^{lo} cells were screened for surface antigens which showed heterogeneous expression, using the Legendscreen. Of 288 antibodies tested, colonic CD14⁺CD1c^{lo} cells expressed heterogeneous levels of CD11a (*LFA1/ITGAL*), CD11b (*ITGAM*), CD11c (*ITGAX*), CD13 (*ANPEP*), CD18 (*ITGB2*), CD39 (*ENTPD1*), CD50 (*ICAM3*), CD55 (DAF), CD81, CD89 (FCAR), CD90, CD163, CD206 (mannose receptor/*MRC1*), CD274 (PDL1), CD276, and CD301 (*CLEC10A*) (**Fig. S4B**), indicating that these could be used as surface markers to distinguish distinct subsets. Of these CD11c, CD11a, CD206, and CD55 together with CD14 and CD1c were selected to use in a CITE-seq panel to determine their levels of expression on clusters M1-M11 (**Fig. 4K**). CD55 was highly expressed by the monocyte cluster M1, expressed at intermediate levels on early intermediate clusters M2 and M3, and was not expressed on late intermediate clusters M4 and M5, or mature Mac (**Fig. 4K**). CD11a was highly expressed on monocyte (M1) and early intermediate clusters (M2 and M3), and was expressed at intermediate levels on late intermediate clusters (M4 and M5) (**Fig. 4K**). In contrast, CD206 was induced at the late intermediate stage of development and was maintained on mature macrophage clusters, but was not present on the small M9 and M10 clusters (**Fig. 4K**). CD1c was poorly expressed by monocytes and macrophages, but was expressed at moderate levels on all intermediate clusters (M2-M6). This aligned with the observed expression of cDC2-associated genes *CD1C*, *CD1E*, *CLEC10A*, and *FCER1A* in monocyte-derived intermediate clusters (**Fig. 4B**). CD11c was expressed at moderate levels on monocytes and increased during development of intermediate clusters M2-M6, then it was expressed at moderate-to-high levels on clusters M8 and M9 and low levels on M7 and M10 (**Fig. 4K**). Cluster M7 was distinguished from other mature macrophages by particularly high CD14 expression, while M9 and M10 could be identified as

uniquely CD206⁻ CD11c⁺ and CD206⁻ CD11c⁻ macrophages, respectively (**Fig. 4K**). In summary, a panel of surface markers was used to identify heterogeneity and likely developmental stage within intestinal monocytes and macrophages.

Site-specific differences in MNP subsets

Given the non-redundant role individual MNP subsets play in intestinal homeostasis and disease, we used our scRNA-seq and CITE-seq analyses to design an antibody panel that would allow assessment of potential regional and inflammation-associated alterations in intestinal MNP subset composition by flow cytometry. To maximise the number of MNP subsets which could be analysed in small biopsy samples, we designed an antibody panel which would identify multiple MNP subsets by flow cytometry, in a single tube. Among the viable CD45⁺ CD3⁻ CD19⁻ HLA-DR^{int/+} cells, cDC2 were identified as CD14⁻ CD141⁻ CD1c⁺ CD11a⁻ CD103⁺ cells, while cDC3 were identified as CD14⁻ CD141⁻ CD1c⁺ CD11a⁺ CD103⁻ cells (**Fig. 5A**). Using this panel, we additionally found that cDC2 exclusively expressed CD1a, while cDC3 exclusively expressed CLEC12A (**Fig. 5B**). When assessing subset frequencies in 10 matched ileal and colonic samples, cDC2 dominated the CD1c⁺ DC population of the ileum, but cDC2 and cDC3 were present at equivalent frequencies in the colon (**Fig. 5C**). Thus, human intestinal CD1c⁺ cells can be separated by flow cytometry into CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ CD1a⁺ cDC2 and CD1c⁺ CD11a^{hi} CLEC12A⁺ putative cDC3.

To identify the different Mono/Mac subsets, CD14^{int/+} cells were divided into two fractions consisting of CD55⁺ CD206⁻ and CD55⁻ CD206^{+/-} cells (**Fig. 5D**). The CD55⁺ CD206⁻ cells contained HLA-DR^{int} monocytes and HLA-DR⁺ early intermediate cells. The CD55⁻ CD206^{+/-} fraction was first divided into CD11a⁺ CD163⁻ late intermediate and CD11a⁻ CD163^{int/+} mature macrophages (**Fig. 5D**). Finally, the macrophages were divided into CD163^{int} CD14^{int} and CD163^{hi}

CD14^{hi} macrophages. Although CD14 and CD163 showed a continuous spectrum of expression, there was a clear division between intestinal sites, with significantly more CD163^{int} CD14^{int} macrophages in the ileum than in the colon (**Fig. 5E**). The CD206⁻ macrophage populations (related to scRNA-seq clusters M9 and M10) were too small to identify with confidence in individual patient samples. However, after concatenation of 10 matched ileal and colonic LP samples, CD55⁻ CD11a⁻ CD206⁻ CD14^{int} CD163^{int} cells could be identified as 0.61% of ileal and 1.71% of colonic LP macrophages, respectively (**Fig. S5C**).

Inflammation-associated changes to MNP subset frequencies

To assess the impact of intestinal inflammation on the relative abundance of MNP subsets in the intestinal LP, we analysed biopsies taken during routine endoscopic procedures for initial disease assessment or disease surveillance. Biopsies were taken from multiple sites per patient, and the extent of inflammation at each site was classified using standard IBD scoring (see Methods) as either quiescent, mild, or moderate. In these biopsies, there was a positive correlation of cDC3 and a negative correlation of cDC2 with the severity of colonic inflammation (**Fig. 5F**), and a similar trend was found in the ileum (**Fig. S5D**). Analysis of cDC2 and cDC3 as a proportion of total CD45⁺ lineage⁻ HLA-DR⁺ MNP showed that this was due to a reduction in cDC2 compared with total MNP, rather than a relative expansion of cDC3 (**Fig. S5E**).

Some of the IBD patients recruited were undergoing anti- $\alpha 4\beta 7$ antibody (Vedolizumab) therapy, and in these patients we noticed a dramatic reduction of total CD1c⁺ MNPs in biopsy samples (**Fig. 5G and H**). We found that patients treated with Vedolizumab had lower frequencies of both CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ cDC2 and CD1c⁺ CD103⁻ cDC3 in the intestinal LP (**Fig. 5I**), while they retained CD14⁺ cells (Mono/Mac) (**Fig. S5F**). The loss of both cDC2 and cDC3 after Vedolizumab

treatment, while monocytes and macrophages were retained, supports the definition of human intestinal CD1c⁺ CD103⁻ MNP as a conventional DC subset, and not as monocyte-derived cells.

Finally, we also analysed Mono/Mac subset frequencies in digested biopsies taken from IBD patients using flow cytometry. Because cell numbers were lower in biopsies than in resection samples, CD55⁺ CD206⁻ HLA-DR^{int} monocytes could not be reliably distinguished from CD55⁺ CD206⁻ HLA-DR⁺ early intermediate cells, so both were collected together in the CD55⁺ CD206⁻ gate. We found that increased severity of endoscopic inflammation was associated with an increase in both combined monocyte/early intermediate and in late intermediate cells in the colon (**Fig. 5J**) and ileum (**Fig. S5G**). The frequency of late intermediate cells was slightly increased in quiescent IBD samples compared with non-IBD controls, and was equivalent between mild and moderate IBD inflammation. However, the frequency of combined monocyte/early intermediate cells was only increased when inflammation was present (**Fig. 5J and S5G**). Human intestinal monocyte-derived cells therefore act similar to those of the mouse in inflammation, with an increase of monocyte and intermediate cells, and a reduction of mature macrophages.

Discussion

MNPs play critical roles in tolerance, immunity and inflammation at the intestinal barrier and characterizing the individual members of this family will be crucial for understanding immune responses in the gut during health and disease. Here, we used scRNA-seq to characterise MNPs of the human intestinal LP, which is the largest site of immune surveillance in the gut. Much research focus of the last decade has been spent on deciphering MNP subset identities in mice and humans, an undertaking that has been complicated by their overlapping phenotypes (Bogunovic et al., 2009; Cytlak et al., 2020; Dutertre et al., 2019; Guilliams et al., 2016; Satpathy et al., 2012; Schlitzer et al., 2015; Tamoutounour et al., 2012; Varol et al., 2009; Villani et al., 2017). Human MNPs are classically defined by their expression of HLA-DR and lack of specific lineage markers such as CD3 and CD19, and are usually further divided into CD14⁺ Mono/Macs and CD14⁻ cDC (Caër and Wick, 2020). Here we used a relatively non-stringent gating strategy to enrich cells by FACS sorting before sequencing, to ensure comprehensive capture of all MNP subsets, including any MHCII^{lo} cells such as pre-cDC and monocytes.

Together with clearly separate clusters of pDC and cDC1, a small population of FCGR3A⁺ non-classical monocytes was also found on initial analysis, but whether these were in the intestinal parenchyma itself is unclear. Non-classical monocytes are generally thought to function as MNP patrolling the vasculature (Carlin et al., 2013) and we identified substantial numbers of vascular and lymphatic endothelial cells in our preparations. Although this suggests that at least some of the non-classical monocytes we found may have been within the vasculature, there is some evidence that non-classical monocytes can migrate into tissues including the intestine (Schleier et al., 2020). Thus, the exact location of these non-classical monocytes remains an open question. Unlike the cDC1, pDC and non-classical monocytes, the cDC2, cDC3, classical monocytes, and macrophages all showed a high degree of transcriptional overlap, and high resolution analysis

was required to reveal distinct clusters of these cells. At least part of this transcriptional overlap involved shared expression of stimulus-response-associated genes, including *FOS*, *JUN*, and *EGR1*, and antigen presentation genes, including MHCII and CD1 genes. Similarly, although we attempted to regress out the effect of cell-cycle-associated genes, these continued to represent confounding issues when attempting to separate cDC2, cDC3, and Mono/Mac into discrete clusters. To circumvent the effect of these dominant shared state-specific genes, we used high resolution clustering and an iterative process involving both biased and unbiased approaches, to define cell identities.

Using this strategy, we were able to discriminate defined populations expressing signature genes of classical monocytes, macrophages and cDC2, but we also found a group of cells which expressed both monocyte- and cDC2-associated genes. Human MNPs with these characteristics have historically been identified as monocyte-derived DC (“moDC”) (Tang-Huau and Segura, 2019) and DC-like cells can be derived from human monocytes *in vitro* (Sallusto and Lanzavecchia, 1994). However, recent scRNA-seq analyses have revealed a unique cell with monocyte- and cDC2-associated characteristics, named cDC3 (Bourdely et al., 2020; Cytlak et al., 2020; Dutertre et al., 2019; Villani et al., 2017). By extending our scRNA-seq findings with flow cytometry and CITE-seq, we confirmed previous reports that two subsets of CD1c⁺ intestinal cDC2-like cells could be defined based on their expression of CD103 (Bernardo et al., 2016; Jaensson et al., 2008; Mann et al., 2015; Watchmaker et al., 2014). In our hands, these separated into a population of CD103⁺ CD1a⁺ cells that were consistent with *bona fide* cDC2, and a population of CD103⁻ CD11a⁺ CLEC12A⁺ cells which had the characteristics of cDC3. These cDC3 not only expressed a number of monocyte-associated genes and were enriched in the colon compared with the ileum, but also expanded relative to cDC2 during active IBD inflammation. This could perhaps be explained by their expression of higher levels of *SELL* (coding for L-selectin),

an adhesion molecule which has been associated with myeloid cell migration to the inflamed intestine (Habtezion et al., 2016).

It should be noted that although the cDC3 we identified expressed monocyte-associated genes, it seems unlikely that they are derived from monocytes, as their numbers were significantly reduced in IBD patients that had been treated with anti-integrin $\alpha 4\beta 7$ antibody (Vedolizumab) therapy, an intervention which we and others have shown does not affect monocyte proportions in the LP (Schleier et al., 2020). In contrast, $\alpha 4\beta 7$ has been shown to play a role in the homing of cDC to the murine intestine (Villablanca et al., 2014) and our Vedolizumab-treated patients showed reduced proportions of cDC2. These findings have potential implications for the use of anti-integrin $\alpha 4\beta 7$ as a long-term IBD therapeutic, as although blocking the migration of pro-inflammatory cDC activity into the gut could be beneficial, cDC are also crucial for the induction of tolerance to the microbiota in the gut (Ohnmacht et al., 2009; Travis et al., 2007; Worbs et al., 2006).

Although it remains possible that CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ and CD1c⁺ CD103⁻ MNP in the intestine merely represent different states of cDC2, cDC3 in humans have recently been described as forming a distinct lineage from cDC2 (Cytlak et al., 2020). In support of this possibility, we identified distinct populations of potential cDC precursors in the LP, including pre-cDC1, pre-cDC2, and pre-cDC3. These clusters showed low expression of MHCII genes, high expression of cell-cycle-associated genes and mixed expression of other hematopoietic and pre-cDC-associated genes. As well as the MHCII^{lo} clusters, there were other proliferating, closely related clusters which also expressed cell-cycle genes to different extents, which could be developmentally intermediate or immature cDC. Recent work has suggested that cDC3 develop along a distinct developmental trajectory from cDC1 and cDC2 (Cytlak et al., 2020), but here, the developmental relationships between the

proliferating cDC/pre-cDC clusters was not clear. These findings suggest that a variety of different DC precursors may be present in the normal human intestinal LP. However, confirmation of this idea will require formal exploration of progenitor capacity by appropriate methods *in vitro* or *in vivo*.

In the mouse intestine, monocytes differentiate into macrophages through intermediate stages in what is known as the macrophage 'waterfall' (Bain et al., 2013; Rivollier et al., 2012; Schridde et al., 2017; Tamoutounour et al., 2012). It has recently been suggested that a similar monocyte-macrophage differentiation continuum may also exist in the human ileal mucosa (Bujko et al., 2018). In support of this, we identified 11 clusters of Mono/Mac which included classical monocytes, three clusters of mature macrophages, and five clusters which appeared to be intermediate between these. These cells were defined as intermediates due to both expression of genes associated with monocytes and mature macrophage genes, and due to the pseudotime analysis. This concept was also supported by CITE-seq and flow cytometry analyses, which suggested a continuum in which CD55⁺ CD206⁻ HLA-DR^{lo} monocytes differentiated into CD55⁺ CD206⁻ HLA-DR⁺ early intermediates, CD55⁻ CD11a^{int} CD206⁺ late intermediates, followed by two populations of CD11a⁻ CD14^{int} CD163^{int} and CD14^{hi} CD163^{hi} macrophages. Using this panel we found that the small intestine contains a significantly higher proportion of the CD14^{int} CD163^{int} macrophages than the colon. However, a complete definition of these cells as developmentally related will depend on further analysis, such as tracing of donor cells in transplant patients (Bujko et al., 2018). Similarly, while the small CD163^{lo} macrophage clusters M9 and M10 transcriptionally resembled self-maintaining and adipose tissue macrophages, respectively, confirmation of these identities will await validation using other methods.

Our trajectory analysis suggested that monocytes entering the LP may give rise to two parallel pathways of macrophage development. One pathway (M3-M5-M7) was characterised by clusters expressing higher expression levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines and stimulus response genes, as well as inferred activity of NFkB/TNFa/EGFR signalling pathways and NFkB/ATF/AP-1 transcription factors. The other pathway (M2-M4-M6-M8)) included clusters which were phenotypically and transcriptionally similar to the first, but without expression of the proinflammatory cytokines and without activity of the NFkB/TNFa/EGFR signalling pathways and NFkB/ATF/AP-1 transcription factors. Instead, these clusters showed inferred activity of JAK-STAT and WNT pathways, and of the transcriptional repressor REST. The implications of this are unclear, but it could reflect monocyte-macrophage differentiation occurring within different anatomical or immunological niches in the LP. Work in mice has shown that macrophages in the LP and muscularis layers of the intestine may be distinguished by their pro- or anti-inflammatory phenotype respectively (Gabanyi et al., 2016; Viola and Boeckxstaens, 2020), while a population of CD169⁺ macrophages with pro-inflammatory properties has been described near the crypt base of the LP (Hiemstra et al., 2014). Furthermore, there is increasing evidence from other tissues that monocyte-derived resident macrophages can acquire very different properties depending on the exact niche which they locate to, such as close to nerves, blood vessels or airways (Blériot et al., 2020). In our Mono/Mac clusters, there was heterogeneity in expression of surface markers, efferocytosis genes, cytokines, and inferred activity of signalling pathways and transcription factors. Whether similar anatomical factors constrain the development of these heterogeneous populations of macrophages identified in human intestinal LP remains to be elucidated. We also identified two parallel pathways of monocyte development, with all clusters of one pathway expressing higher levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines than their counterparts in the other pathway. This could suggest that, similar to the situation in mice (Desalegn and Pabst, 2019),

monocytes entering the human gut can quickly gain a steady state or a pro-inflammatory phenotype, depending on the local environment.

Accumulation of pro-inflammatory, CD14⁺ HLADR^{int} cells is a characteristic feature of active inflammatory bowel disease (Jones et al., 2018; Martin et al., 2019) and recent studies have reported single-cell analyses of human intestinal MNP in IBD, as part of total leukocyte analyses (Martin et al., 2019; Rubin et al., 2019; Smillie et al., 2019). However, the number of MNP cells was small in these studies and there was no consensus on the exact nature of these cells, nor how they correspond to putative counterparts in the healthy gut. Here we confirmed the accumulation of CD14⁺ HLADR^{int} monocytes and monocyte-derived intermediates in both colonic and ileal LP during active IBD, along with fewer CD14^{int} and CD14^{hi} macrophages. Late intermediates appeared to expand in response to milder inflammation than monocytes and early intermediates, while monocytes/early intermediates seemed to only expand in more severe inflammation. The failure of monocytes to develop into mature macrophages in inflamed intestine was initially thought to reflect a block during the intermediate stages of differentiation (Bain et al., 2013; Rivollier et al., 2012). However, more recent work in mice has suggested that monocytes begin to follow an alternative pathway of development as soon as they enter the inflamed intestine (Desalegn and Pabst, 2019). Our findings support a model in which monocytes immediately respond to different environments as they enter the gut, and they suggest that this may be occurring constantly in the steady-state intestine. Here we have provided an overview of the developmental trajectory and heterogeneity of monocyte-derived cells in the intestinal LP, and we have identified novel markers which can be used to interrogate these cells.

In summary, our single-cell studies of MNP in carefully isolated LP emphasise the heterogeneity of these cells in both health and disease, and show that this may also differ depending on the

gut segment being examined. By identifying novel genetic and phenotypic markers, our work should provide useful information for further studies of how monocytes, macrophages and DC subsets might contribute to regulation of immune responses in the intestine.

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Materials and Methods

Methods

HUMAN SUBJECTS

Resection samples were taken with informed consent from patients undergoing colorectal cancer surgery, as approved by the Videnskabsetiske Komité for Region Hovedstaden, ethical permission H-3-2013-118. Resection tissues were taken at least 20 cm distant from any tumours present.

Biopsy samples were obtained with informed consent from adult IBD patients attending routine colonoscopy for initial disease surveillance or ongoing disease assessment (Table S2 for anonymised patient information) at the Western General Hospital, Edinburgh, UK, after informed consent under existing approvals (REC:19/ES/0087). A diagnosis of IBD was made using standard criteria (Leonard-Jones), with all patients part of the Lothian IBD registry (Jones et al., 2019). Endoscopic assessment of disease severity for each biopsy site was performed by clinicians using the Mayo endoscopic subscore for UC or the simple endoscopic score (SES-CD) for CD. Each biopsy site was classed as quiescent, mild, moderate or severe endoscopic activity to enable comparison across IBD subtypes, and 3-5 biopsies were taken for analysis per site.

METHOD DETAILS

Tissue processing

Samples were processed as described previously (Jørgensen et al., 2021). Briefly, resection samples were taken at least 10 cm distant from tumours, where present. The muscularis externa was removed using curved surgical scissors and the remaining tissue was incubated in a 370rpm shaking incubator twice for 10 min at 37°C in RPMI-5 (RPMI/5% FCS/1% penicillin and streptomycin) containing 4 mM DTT, to remove mucus. Macroscopically visible submucosa (SM)

was trimmed away using scissors. The mucosa was then separated from the underlying SM under a stereo microscope using forceps. Epithelial cells were removed from the remaining mucosa by shaking four times in Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ - free HBSS containing 1% penicillin and streptomycin and 5 mM EDTA at 37°C, for 10 min each time. Any remaining ILF present in the mucosa were then dissected out using a scalpel under a stereo microscope with a transmitted light source. The remaining GALT-free LP was cut into 2-4 mm² pieces prior to digestion. A single-cell suspension of isolated LP was generated by shaking tissues at 370 rpm in a 37°C incubator in RPMI-5 containing 30 µg/ml DNase and 5 mg/ml collagenase D or 2.5 mg/ml Liberase TM for 45 min, at 37°C. The suspension was passed through a 100 µm filter before washing twice in fresh media and centrifuging to form a pellet.

Flow cytometry

Cell suspensions were stained with the antibodies indicated (Table S3) in Brilliant stain buffer (BD Biosciences) containing 4% normal mouse serum according to standard techniques. The cells were stained with 7-AAD and analyzed on an LSR Fortessa 2 (BD Biosciences) using Flowjo software (Treestar).

For the Legendscreen assay (Biolegend), each antibody was first resuspended in 35 µl of FACS buffer (PBS with 5% FCS and 0.05% sodium azide). Up to 300x10⁶ cells were stained with the antibody backbone panel (Table S4), washed and resuspended in PBS with 5% FCS. 40 µl of cell suspension was aliquoted into each well of V-bottom 96-well plates containing 10 ul of the PE-conjugated antibody per well. The cells were analysed using an LSR Fortessa 2 with High Throughput Sampler (BD).

Magnetic enrichment of MNP

Single-cell suspensions to be used for single-cell sequencing were enriched for HLA-DR⁺ cells using anti-HLA-DR microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec), as per the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cells were counted then centrifuged and resuspended in 80 µl cold MACS buffer (PBS with 0.5% BSA and 2mM EDTA) and 20 µl HLA-DR microbeads, per 1x10⁷ total cells. Cells were stored on ice for 15 minutes then washed in 1 ml MACS buffer per 1x10⁷ cells. Cells were centrifuged and resuspended in 500 µl fresh MACS buffer before adding to an LS MACS column. The flow-through was discarded and the HLA-DR⁺ cells were washed through the column with 5 ml fresh buffer.

Cell sorting

Cells were counted, pelleted, and stained for flow cytometry as above. The cells were stained with anti-human CD45-BV421, CD3-PECF594, CD19-PECF594, HLA-DR-AF700, and 7-AAD was added before sorting to exclude dead cells. Viable CD45⁺ HLA-DR^{int/+} CD3⁻ CD19⁻ cells were sorted on a FACSMelody sorter (BD) into MACS buffer, before being counted and re-suspended in PBS with 0.4% BSA.

CITE-seq

For some samples, cells were first stained with barcode-labelled antibodies together with the antibodies used for sorting, before running the 10x protocol. The TotalSeq-A antibodies used were anti-human CD1c (clone L161), CD14 (clone M5E2), CD11a (clone TS2/4), CD55 (clone JS11), CD5 (clone UCHT2), CD206 (clone 15-2), CD209 (clone 9E9A8), and CD11c (clone S-HCL-3), all from Biolegend.

Single-cell 10x protocol

Suspensions of sorted single cells were subjected to droplet-based massively parallel single-cell RNA sequencing using the Chromium Single Cell 3' Reagent Kit v3 following the manufacturer's

instructions (10x Genomics). The 10x Chromium Controller generated nanoliter-scale Gel Bead-In Emulsions (GEMs) droplets, where each cell was labeled with a specific barcode, and each transcript labeled with a unique molecular identifier (UMI). After reverse transcription (55°C for 45min and 85 °C for 5min), the GEMs were broken down and the barcoded cDNA was purified with Dynabeads MyOne Silane beads (Thermofisher). The cDNA was amplified by PCR with 10x genomics and ADT additive primer (98 °C for 3min; 12 cycles of 98 °C for 15sec, 67 °C for 20sec and 72 °C for 1; 72 °C for 1min, end at 4 °C). The products were size separated with SPRIselect beads (Beckman Coulter) into fragments < 300nt containing antibody derived tags (ADTs) and > 300nt containing cDNAs derived from cellular mRNA.

For sc-RNA libraries, 50 ng of amplified cDNA was used for final library preparation, consisting of enzymatic fragmentation, end repair, A-tailing, adaptor ligation and sample index PCR as per the manufacturer's instructions.

For epitope sequencing (CITE-seq), 2ul of ADTs were PCR amplified with Illumina compatible SI PCR and TrueSeq Small RNA RPIx primers (15 cycles). Final libraries were purified using SPRIselect beads.

Quality and quantity of the final libraries (sc-RNA and ADT) were measured using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer equipped with High Sensitivity DNA chip. Libraries were pooled according to the starting number of cells of each run (10% ADT + 90% sc-RNA).

SI-PCR primer: AATGATACGGCGACCACCGAGATCTACACTCTTTCCCTACACGACGC*T*C

ADT additive primer: CCTTGGCACCCGAGAATT*C*C

RPI1:CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATACGAGATCGTGATGTGACTGGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAG

AATTC*C*A

768 RPI2:CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATACATCGGTGACTGGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAG

769 AATTC*C*A

770 RPI3:CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATGCCTAAGTGACTGGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAG

771 AATTC*C*A

772 RPI4:CAAGCAGAAGACGGCATAACGAGATTGGTCAGTGACTGGAGTTCCTTGGCACCCGAG

773 AATTC*C*A

774 * indicates a phosphorothioate bond

775

776 **Sequencing**

777 Illumina sequencing was carried out at the Genomics Core Unit: Center of Excellence for
778 Fluorescent Bioanalytics (KFB, University of Regensburg, Germany) and at the SNP&SEQ
779 Technology Platform in Sweden which is part of the National Genomics Infrastructure (NGI),
780 funded by the Swedish Council for Research Infrastructures and Science for Life Laboratory.
781 Libraries were sequenced using HiSeq, NextSeq and NovaSeq systems (300 cycles), targeting a
782 minimum of 30,000 read pairs per cell for sc-RNA and 3000 read pairs per cell for ADTs.

783

784

785 **Bioinformatic analysis**

786 Sequencing data was pre-processed and aligned with CellRanger (version 2.2.0 for the first
787 patient samples and version 3.1.0 for all other samples)(Dobin et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2017).
788 The sequencing data from the samples stained with TotalSeq antibodies was processed with cite-
789 seq count (Stoeckius et al., 2017). Each sample was then read into a Seurat (version 3.1.5) (Stuart
790 et al., 2019) object in R (versions 3.5.1/4.0.1) (R Core Team, 2018) and processed by removing
791 cells with exceptionally low or high UMI and gene counts (debris and doublets). The lower
792 thresholds were set from 500-1000 genes per cell and the upper threshold were set from 3000-

6000. Furthermore, cells with mitochondrial gene content > 10% were also removed. The thresholds were set by studying UMI and gene counts, and mitochondrial gene content according to current best practise (Luecken and Theis, 2019). The debris removed from each sample was used as empty droplet information to normalize the protein level in the individual samples together with the isotype controls (Mulè et al., 2020). The normalized protein data was added to each of the relevant samples.

The scRNA data for each sample was normalized and cell cycle gene modules were calculated using the Seurat CellCycleScoring function and additionally a gene module representing cell cycle genes from the tool ccRemover by summing the raw counts of these genes per cell divided by the total number of reads per cell (Barron and Li, 2016). The top 3000 most variable genes were identified with the selection method vst.

After this initial data processing, all the samples were integrated with Seurat anchor integration and gene expression was scaled while regressing out effect of cell cycle, UMI counts, and mitochondrial gene content. The merged data were dimensionality reduced with PCA and the 15 first PCs were chosen for downstream analysis. A shared nearest neighbour graph was constructed and used to cluster the data with Louvain clustering. The PCs were also used to dimensionality reduce the data further with UMAP for visualization purposes. The data were reclustered on described populations after removal of contaminating cell types and new UMAPs calculated.

The pseudobulk for heatmaps and PCA was performed with the Seurat AverageExpression function. The PCA on pseudobulk of clusters was performed only on genes from published gene signatures of blood DC2, blood monocytes and in vitro mo-Macs (Tang-Huau et al., 2018). Differential gene expression was calculated with Seurat FindMarkers for comparisons between

specific groups or FindAllMarkers for DEGs for all clusters both using the standard non-parameteric Wilcoxon rank sum test.

Trajectory inference was performed with tSPACE on PC spaces of indicated populations (Dermadi et al., 2020). The outputs were further dimensionality reduced with UMAP(Becht et al., 2019; McInnes et al., 2018) to 2 and 3 dimensions with distance metric set to Pearson. Clustering was performed with Louvain clustering for Seurat on the tSPACE PC output as input. RNA velocity estimates were calculated for T=1 and only included genes with splicing information also present in the variable genes and only on cells of interest (e.g. precursors). The information was embedded on top of 2D UMAPs from the tSPACE trajectories using n=400, scale=sqrt, grid.n=50 and arrow.scale=2 (La Manno et al., 2018).

The data set from (Bourdely et al., 2020) was downloaded and processed as described in the methods section of that study. The blood data were then integrated with matching cell types from the lamina propria (identified monocytes and DC2-like cells) and differentially expressed genes were identified between tissues in each matching cell type.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Flow cytometry analyses were performed and data were analysed using Prism software (GraphPad). Details for, with the statistical tests used in each experiment can be found being shown in the relevant figure legends. Statistical significance was defined as *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001. Statistical analysis of sequencing data was performed in R as described in the bioinformatics section above.

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Fig 1 – Untangling intestinal monocytes and macrophages from transcriptionally similar dendritic cells

A-C) scRNAseq analysis of 28,758 combined ileal and colonic LP cells, identified as MNP clusters by high average expression of MHCII genes. n = 6 colonic and 4 paired ileal CRC patient samples.

A) scRNAseq experimental outline

B) UMAP of HLA-DR⁺ cell clusters with known cell identities. Dashed line encompasses MNP subsets which are not readily identifiable as pDC, cDC1, or non-classical monocytes. Coloured by Louvain clustering.

C) UMAP of normalized gene co-expression of CD1C and CD14 co-expression.

D) Representative flow cytometry gating strategy to identify CD1C⁺/CD14⁺ MNP in colon LP

E-G) scRNAseq data of 26,578 combined ileal and colonic LP cells identified by expression of CD1C and/or CD14. n = 6 colonic and 4 paired ileal CRC patient samples

E) Curated heatmap of re-clustered CD1C⁺/CD14⁺ cells showing expression of macrophage/DC signature genes averaged per cluster. Showing scaled gene expression: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

F) UMAP of CD1C⁺/CD14⁺ cells reclustered at high resolution from clusters within dotted line in Fig. 1C. Dashed line represents major division between clusters identified as Mono/Mac (top) and cDC2/3 (bottom)

G) PC1 and PC2 from pseudo-bulk based PCA of CD1C⁺/CD14⁺ cells using signature gene lists from blood cDC2, classical blood monocytes, and monocyte-derived macrophages

Fig S1 – Initial characterisation of cells in scRNAseq
A-B) scRNAseq data of 42,506 combined ileal and colonic LP cells, digested and enriched for HLA-DR⁺ cells by MACS separation and FACS sorting. n = 6 colonic and 4 paired ileal CRC patients.
A) Signature genes for non-MNP cells in dataset, including T cells, B cells, endothelia, mast cells, stroma, and glia. Showing normalized gene expression.
B) Normalized *HLA-DQA1* expression
C) scRNAseq data of 28,758 computationally isolated and re-clustered MNP from combined ileal and colonic LP cells, showing normalized gene expression of signature genes for pDC, cDC1, and non-classical monocytes.

Fig 2 – Single-cell characterisation of human intestinal cDC2 and cDC3

A-D) Single-cell sequencing data of combined colon and ileum LP. Cells identified as transcriptionally cDC2-like were bioinformatically isolated and reclustered.

A) UMAP plot of isolated cDC2-like cells identified in Fig. 1. Coloured by Louvain reclustering at resolution 0.2

B) UMAP plots of cDC2 (top row) and cDC3 (bottom row) normalized gene expression of signature genes

C) Curated heatmap of cDC2 and cDC3 DEG. Showing scaled gene expression: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

D) cDC2 vs. cDC3 DEG with proposed immunological functions. Showing scaled gene expression: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

E-F) Surface marker expression of DC2-like clusters analysed by CITE-seq.

E) DSB normalized surface protein expression of selected markers using CITE-seq. n = 3 CRC patients, with 3x colon LP and 1x SI LP, combined.

F) DSB normalized surface protein expression of CD103 vs. CD207 and CD103 vs. CD11a using CITE-seq. n = 3 CRC patients, with 3x colon LP and 1x SI LP, combined.

Fig S2 - Single-cell and CITEseq Characterisation of cDC2/3

A) Heatmap of genes identified as DC2 and DC3 signature genes from a peripheral blood dataset, in intestinal cDC2/3 clusters Y1-Y6. n = 6 colon and 4 ileal LP from CRC patients, combined. Showing scaled gene expression: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

B) Expression of *CXCL9* and *CXCL10* on reclustered cDC2/3 cells

C) Heatmap of top 10 DEG for cDC2/3 clusters, using scRNAseq. n = 6 colon and 4 ileal LP from CRC patients, combined. Showing scaled gene expression: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

D) 282-antibody screen (Legendscreen) showing all antibodies with bimodal expression on digested colon LP CD1c+ MNP. Best plots shown of n = 1 or 2 patients analysed per antibody.

E) Violin plots of selected DSB normalized surface marker expression on cDC2/3 clusters using CITE-seq. n = 3 colon LP and 1 ileal LP from 3 CRC patients, combined.

F) DSB normalized cite-seq expression of CD103 vs CD207 and CD103 vs CD11a, for clusters Y3 and Y4

Related to Figure 2

Fig 3 - cDC development in the human gut

A-D) Flattened 3D tspace UMAPs (tUMAP) (calculated with pearson on tspace PC (tPC) 1-15 and metric set to pearson) of combined cDC1, cDC2 and cDC3 scRNAseq data

A) cDC1 and Y clusters from Fig. 2, overlaid on tUMAP showing location of cDC1 (grey), cDC2 (Y2, yellow), and cDC3 (Y5, blue and Y6, pink)

B) Cell cycle module score calculated using averaged expression of cell-cycle-associated genes *KIAA0101*, *TUBA1B*, *MKI67*, *HIST1H4C*, *TUBB*, *UBE2C*, *STMN1*, and *H2AFZ*.

C) New cDC clustering with mature cDC clusters from Fig S3A compressed together. Coloured by Louvain clustering, base tPC 1-15.

D) Normalized expression of signature genes for cDC1 (*CLEC9A*), cDC2 (*IRF4*), cDC3 (*C1QA*)

E) Curated heatmap showing of genes associated with proliferation and cDC1, cDC2, or cDC3 signatures. Scaled gene expression: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

F) RNA velocities represented by arrows, calculated with Velocyto package on flattened 3D tUMAP.

G) Pseudotime score calculated as means of trajectories for each cDC cluster, starting in cluster D7, based on tSpace outputs.

Fig S3 – cDC characterisation

A) Flattened 3D tspace UMAP (tUMAP) plot of 42 clusters created from combined cDC1, cDC2, cDC3
B) ‘Stemness’ module score for cDC clusters composed of 20 genes (*BUB1*, *CND2*, *CDC6*, *CDT1*, *CKS2*, *COL18A1*, *CSRP2*, *DTYMK*, *HELLS*, *KPNA2*, *MCM2*, *MCM4*, *MCM5*, *NAP1L1*, *PCNA*, *RRM2*, *SHROOM3*, *SMO*, *TOP2A*, *TTK*) previously identified as forming a general ‘stemness’ signature
C) RNA velocities represented by arrows analysis for split ileum (n=4) and colon (n=6) overlaid on embeddings of 3D tUMAP.
Related to figure 3

Fig 4 - Characterisation of human intestinal LP monocyte/macrophage populations

A-H) tSpace analysis on computationally isolated scRNA-seq data of ileal and colonic LP cells previously identified as belonging to the monocyte-macrophage lineage.

A) tUMAP (with Seurat function) and Louvain clustering (resolution = 0.55) based tPC 1-10 of cells which were identified as Mono/Mac in Fig. 1.

B) Violin plots of normalized gene expression on Mono/Mac trajectory clusters M1-M11. DEG shown are associated with monocyte-macrophage differentiation.

C) Heatmap of select scaled gene expression by Mono/Mac trajectory clusters: below mean = blue, above mean = red.

D) Pseudotime of Mono/Mac clusters calculated from tSpace output with as means of trajectories with starting point in M1.

E) Analysis of response pathway activity in Mono/Mac trajectory clusters M1-M11 using the PROGENy package.

F-J) Violin plots of normalized gene expression by Mono/Mac trajectory clusters. DEG shown are associated with F) pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion, G) response to stimuli, H) efferocytosis, I) CD169+ perivascular macrophages, and J) self-maintaining/wound healing macrophages.

K) DSB normalized expression of surface markers on combined ileal and colonic LP Mono/Mac trajectory clusters using cite-seq, after exclusion of the the small proliferating cluster M11

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Fig S4 - Monocyte - macrophage development analysis

A) Transcription factor activity inferred from target gene expression in Mono/Mac trajectory clusters M1-M10, using the DoRotheA package.

B) Representative staining of all antibodies with bimodal expression on CD14+ MNP in 361-antibody screen (Legendscreen). Samples taken from digested colonic LP tissue from CRC patients. n= 1-2 patients tested per antibody. Gated on viable CD45+ HLADR+ lin- cells. Grey line = FMO, red line= specific antibody stain.

C) Representative surface marker expression of colonic LP Mono/Mac subsets using flow cytometry. Gated on viable CD45+ HLADR+ lin- cells.

D) Gating strategy to identify CD206- CD11a- macrophages within the CD14+ CD55+ gate. Samples concatenated from digested ileal and colonic LP tissue taken from 10 CRC patients.

E) Mono/Mac subset frequencies in ileal IBD and non-IBD biopsies. Samples were taken during IBD surveillance endoscopy and tissue inflammation was scored at the time of the procedure by the clinician. n = 5-13 samples, some samples with different inflammatory scores were taken from the same patient

Related to figure 4

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Fig 5 - Flow cytometry analysis of MNP subsets

A-E) Flow cytometry analysis of digested tissue taken from unaffected colonic and ileal LP of colorectal cancer patients. n = 10 paired ileal and colonic samples.

A) Gating strategy distinguishing CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ CD11a⁻ cDC2 from CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ CD11a⁺ cDC3 in ileum and colon using either CD103 vs. CD207 or CD103 vs. CD11a, gating on total viable CD45⁺ MNP

B) CD11a⁻ CD103⁺ cDC2 and CD11a⁺ CD103⁻ cDC3 frequency of total CD14⁻ CD1c⁺ MNP in ileal and colonic LP. n = 9 CRC patients

C) Representative histograms of CLEC12A and CD1a expression on CD14⁺ CD55⁺ CD206⁻ monocytes, CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ CD11a⁻ cDC2, and CD1c⁺ CD103⁺ CD11a⁺ cDC3 from colon resection

D) Gating strategy to identify monocytes, monocyte-derived early and late intermediates, and two subsets of macrophage

E) Analysis of monocytes and monocyte-derived MNP subsets as a proportion of total CD14⁺ cells in colonic and ileal LP

F-J) Flow cytometry analysis of digested tissue taken from colonic biopsies. Extent of IBD inflammation was scored at the time of biopsy by the clinician as quiescent, mild, or moderate. n = 5-13 samples, some samples with different inflammatory scores were taken from the same patient.

F) CD11a⁻ CD103⁺ cDC2 and CD11a⁺ CD103⁻ cDC3, as proportion of CD14⁻ CD1c⁺ MNP, from colonic biopsies. n = 6-10 biopsies from sites of quiescent, mild, or moderate IBD inflammation, or from non-IBD controls. Statistical significance was determined using 2-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons, **p<0.01

G) Representative flow cytometry plots of CD1c vs CD14 stains of UC patient colon LP MNP, with or without vedolizumab treatment

H) CD1c⁺ MNP as proportion of total MNP from IBD biopsies, with or without vedolizumab treatment. n = 3-11 biopsies from sites of quiescent IBD inflammation. Statistical significance was determined using Student's T test, **p<0.01

I) CD11a⁻ CD103⁺ cDC2 and CD11a⁺ CD103⁻ cDC3 MNP, as proportion of total MNP from IBD biopsies, with or without vedolizumab treatment. n = 2-9 biopsies from sites of quiescent, mild, or moderate IBD inflammation

J) Mono/Mac subsets as proportion of CD14⁺ CD1c^{lo} MNP, from colonic biopsies. n = 6-14 biopsies from sites of quiescent, mild, or moderate IBD inflammation, or from non-IBD controls. Some points represent single patients with samples taken from multiple sites with different levels of inflammation. Statistical significance was determined using 2-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons, *p<0.05, **p<0.01 ***p<0.001

Fig S5 - Flow cytometry analysis of MNP subsets

A) Flow cytometry analysis of CD206⁺ macrophages from 10 concatenated ileal and colonic resection samples. Gated on CD14⁺ CD55⁺ MNP

B) CD11a⁺ CD103⁺ cDC2 and CD11a⁺ CD103⁺ cDC3, as proportion of CD1c⁺ MNP, in ileal biopsies. n = 3 to 4 patients from sites of quiescent, mild/moderate IBD inflammation, or from non-IBD controls. Some points represent single patients with samples taken from multiple sites with different levels of inflammation.

C) CD11a⁺ CD103⁺ cDC2 and CD11a⁺ CD103⁺ cDC3, as proportion of HLADR⁺ lineage⁺ MNP, in colonic biopsies. n = 5 to 10 patients, some points represent single patients with samples taken from multiple sites with different levels of inflammation. Lines represent range of data, boxes represent 25th to 75th percentile intersected by median.

D) CD14⁺ cells (monocytes/macrophages) as proportion of total HLADR⁺ lineage⁺ MNP from IBD biopsies, with or without vedolizumab treatment. Biopsies taken from 5 different sites from 3 vedolizumab-treated patients. Lines represent median $\pm$ SD.

E) Mono/Mac subsets as proportion of CD14⁺ CD1c⁺ MNP, from ileal biopsies. n = 3-6 biopsies from sites of quiescent, mild/moderate IBD inflammation, or from non-IBD controls. Some points represent single patients with samples taken from multiple sites with different levels of inflammation.

Related to figure 5