



Twenty Novel Disease Group-Specific and 12 New Shared Macrophage Pathways in Eight Groups of 34 Diseases Including 24 Inflammatory Organ Diseases and 10 Types of Tumors

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The mechanisms underlying pathophysiological regulation of tissue macrophage (M ϕ) subsets remain poorly understood. From the expression of 207 M ϕ genes comprising 31 markers for 10 subsets, 45 transcription factors (TFs), 56 immunometabolism enzymes, 23 trained immunity (innate immune memory) enzymes, and 52 other genes in microarray data, we made the following findings. (1) When 34 inflammation diseases and tumor types were grouped into eight categories, there was differential expression of the 31 M ϕ markers and 45 M ϕ TFs, highlighted by 12 shared and 20 group-specific disease pathways. (2) M ϕ in lung, liver, spleen, and intestine (LLSI-M ϕ) express higher M1 M ϕ markers than lean adipose tissue M ϕ (ATM ϕ) physiologically. (3) Pro-adipogenic TFs C/EBP α and PPAR γ and proinflammatory adipokine leptin upregulate the expression of M1 M ϕ markers. (4) Among 10 immune checkpoint receptors (ICRs), LLSI-M ϕ and bone marrow (BM) M ϕ express higher levels of CD274 (PDL-1) than ATM ϕ , presumably to counteract the M1 dominant status via its reverse signaling behavior. (5) Among 24 intercellular communication exosome mediators, LLSI- and BM- M ϕ prefer to use RAB27A and STX3 than RAB31 and YKT6, suggesting new inflammatory exosome mediators for propagating inflammation. (6) M ϕ in peritoneal tissue and LLSI-M ϕ

upregulate higher levels of immunometabolism enzymes than does ATM ϕ . (7) M ϕ from peritoneum and LLSI-M ϕ upregulate more trained immunity enzyme genes than does ATM ϕ . Our results suggest that multiple new mechanisms including the cell surface, intracellular immunometabolism, trained immunity, and TFs may be responsible for disease group-specific and shared pathways. Our findings have provided novel insights on the pathophysiological regulation of tissue M ϕ , the disease group-specific and shared pathways of M ϕ , and novel therapeutic targets for cancers and inflammations.

Keywords: macrophages, disease-specific and shared pathways, immune checkpoint receptors, trained immunity, immunometabolism pathways

INTRODUCTION

As we reported previously (1–5), monocytes and macrophages (M ϕ) play significant roles in driving cardiovascular inflammations induced by various metabolic cardiovascular disease-related danger-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs) such as hyperlipidemia, hyperglycemia, hyperhomocysteinemia, and chronic kidney disease. Also, monocyte and M ϕ differentiation during various metabolic cardiovascular diseases has been characterized (5). In recent years, a complicated relationship between the bone marrow, monocytes/M ϕ , and the development of atherosclerotic plaques has begun to be revealed (6). The roles of M ϕ in modulating foam cell formation (7) and inflammation resolution (8) have also been reported. Moreover, several additional developments have been made, including in tissue M ϕ characterization, M ϕ polarization, subset characterization (9), clonal production, and trained immunity (trained immunity) (10). A recent success on the CANTOS trials with anti-interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β) monoclonal antibody Canakinumab (11) further emphasized the significant roles of inflammatory cytokines in the pathogenesis of metabolic cardiovascular diseases, in which monocytes and M ϕ s secrete cytokines in large numbers and amounts in response to the stimulation of DAMPs or conditional DAMPs that we had reported (12). However, the molecular mechanisms underlying several vital aspects of M ϕ remain poorly determined: (1) the expression of M ϕ markers and M ϕ transcription factors, (2) pathways in the regulating roles of M ϕ in various diseases,

and (3) the differentiation and transdifferentiation of tissue M ϕ subsets.

Macrophages play significant roles in the pathogenesis of various diseases including cardiovascular (13), metabolic (14), infectious (15), respiratory (16), digestive (17), autoimmune (18), and many types of cancers (19, 20). However, three important questions remain: whether M ϕ use the same pathways and play the same roles or whether they use disease-specific pathways and play disease-specific roles in addition to the shared roles and pathways; whether 10 M ϕ subset markers and newly identified 27 TFs (21) and other 18 M ϕ subset TFs are differentially expressed in tissues; and whether all these newly reported proinflammatory features of M ϕ are differentially expressed in various tissues. Addressing these issues will improve our understanding of the disease-specific and shared roles and pathways of M ϕ in the pathogenesis of various diseases and cancers and will lead to the identification of novel therapeutic targets specific to those diseases and cancers.

Determining novel mechanisms underlying macrophage disease-specific and shared pathways first requires an understanding of how macrophages respond to environmental and tissue functional cues from several aspects such as cell surface receptor signaling, cell-cell interaction receptor signaling, cell-cell communication signaling, intracellular immunometabolic pathways, and transcription factors. Macrophages are present in almost all tissues of the body, displaying distinct location-specific phenotypes and gene expression profiles (22). In addition to central roles in innate immunity and as modifiers of the adaptive immune responses, tissue M ϕ play supportive functions to the tissues they reside in Hoeksema and Glass (13).

Several cell-surface-specific mechanisms could promote macrophage heterogeneity. First, by varying stimuli such as different cytokines or DAMPs to act on M ϕ cell surface receptors, M ϕ can be “polarized” into as many as total 10 macrophage subsets including the typical proinflammatory M1 M ϕ and anti-inflammatory M2 M ϕ (9). Also, as many as 28 T cell co-stimulation receptors and co-inhibition/immune checkpoint receptors as cell-cell contact signaling receptors may serve as a second cell surface mechanism to shape the antigen-presenting functions of M ϕ (23). Finally, recent reports showed that exosomes are local and distal cell-cell communication vehicles (24), which may serve as the third cell-surface mechanism.

Abbreviations: TFs, transcription factors; LLSI, lung, liver, spleen, and intestine; M ϕ , Macrophages; DAMPs, danger associated molecular patterns; IL-1 β , interleukin-1 β ; ATM ϕ , adipose tissues M ϕ ; BM, bone marrow; Treg, regulatory T cell; APC, antigen presenting cell; STAT1, signal transducer and activator of transcription 1; NCBI, National Center for Biotechnology Information; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; IFN- γ , interferon- γ ; IL-4, interleukin-4; TGF- β , transforming growth factor- β ; IL-1Ra, IL-1 receptor antagonist; MHO, metabolically healthy obese; KLF, Krüppel-like family; C/EBP α , CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein α ; PPAR γ , peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ ; CXCL10, C-X-C motif chemokine 10; STAB1, stabilin 1; F13A1, coagulation factor XIII A chain; Chil4, chitinase-like 4; ARG1, arginase 1; SFRP5, secreted frizzled-related protein 5; PDL1, programmed death-ligand 1; FoxO, Forkhead box O; PD-L1, programmed death ligand 1; PPP, pentose phosphate pathway; IPA, Ingenuity Pathway Analysis; STX3, syntaxin 3; VAT, visceral adipose tissue; IRF4, interferon regulatory factor 4; MARE, Maf recognition elements; Tfh, follicular T helper cell; PAMP-Rs, pathogen associated molecular pattern receptors; DAMP-Rs, danger associated molecular pattern receptors; irAEs, immune-related adverse effects; mAb, monoclonal antibody; TAMs, tumor associated macrophages.

We also reported that exosomes secreted from immune cells such as macrophages might propagate inflammation from the first inflamed cells to the secondary inflammatory cells (25); exosomes regulate inflammation and immune responses via intercellular exosome communications (26). In addition to cell surface mechanisms, the M1 M ϕ proinflammatory metabolic pathways and M2 metabolic pathways have been identified (27) as the intracellular mechanisms. Another development is the recognition of innate immune memory (trained immunity) pathways such as increased glycolysis pathway, enhanced acetyl-CoA (activated acetate, cellular acetyl donor) generation, and increased expression of mevalonate pathway enzymes (28, 29), which were “zoomed in” to through extensive metabolic remodeling of 2,722 experimentally elucidated pathways (<https://metacyc.org>). Recent reports also identified numerous transcription factors involved in M ϕ differentiation and M ϕ subset polarization.

Regardless of significant progress in the field, several important questions remain. The first is whether, under various disease conditions, M ϕ uses both disease-specific signaling pathways and shared pathways. To determine the molecular mechanisms underlying disease-specific and shared pathways of macrophages, we examined macrophage features from tissue-specific differential expression of M ϕ cell surface markers, transcription factors, M ϕ cell-cell contact signaling receptors (T cell co-stimulation receptors and co-inhibition/immune checkpoint receptors), M ϕ cell-cell communication vesicle–exosome biogenesis and docking machinery, and M ϕ intracellular metabolism pathways such as bioenergy metabolism pathways and trained immunity (innate immune memory) pathways. We then narrowed in on the following questions: whether tissues have differential expression of M ϕ subset markers and transcription factors, whether tissue M ϕ have different inflammatory and trained immunity (innate immune memory) potentials, and whether tissue M ϕ have different bioenergy metabolism pathways and trained immunity pathways. To address these issues, we determined the expression of 207 M ϕ genes in several tissues such as lung, liver, intestine, spleen, and bone marrow-derived, including 10 subset markers, 45 transcription factors (TFs), and 127 other regulatory genes by analyzing the microarray experimental data sets that other investigators deposited in the NIH-NCBI GEO DataSets database, as shown in **Figure 1**. Of note, we pioneered this type of novel experimental data mining analysis in 2004 (30), which has allowed us to generate original findings and novel hypotheses for our experimental projects. The significant differences between our experimental database mining approaches and traditional literature reviews are detailed in **Table 1**. Based on the expression changes of 31 ten-M ϕ -subset markers and 45 TFs in eight groups of a total of 34 diseases, including 10 types of cancers, we have identified 20 novel disease group-specific and 12 new shared macrophage pathways. In addition, we also found new signaling and metabolic pathways underlying tissue M ϕ subset regulation in pathophysiological conditions as novel mechanisms for M ϕ heterogeneity, which serve as novel therapeutic targets specific to cancers and inflammations.

RESULTS

Expression of 31 M ϕ Markers and 45 M ϕ TFs Is Modulated in Eight Groups of a Total of 34 Diseases, Including 24 Inflammatory Organ Diseases and 10 Types of Cancers; and Both Shared and Disease-Specific Pathways for Each Group of Disease/Tumor Have Been Identified

M ϕ play a key role in the pathogenesis of various diseases. However, two critical questions remain: whether M ϕ use the same pathways and play the same roles or whether they use disease-specific pathways and play disease-specific roles in addition to the shared roles and pathways. To improve our understanding of the roles of M ϕ in various diseases, we examined the expression of 31 M ϕ subset markers and 45 M ϕ transcription factors (**Table 2**) in eight groupings of a total of 34 diseases, including four types of autoimmune diseases, four types of cardiovascular diseases, four types of digestive diseases, four types of infectious diseases, four types of metabolic diseases, four types of respiratory diseases, five types of digestive cancers, and five types of other cancers. As shown in **Table 3A**, some M ϕ markers were upregulated in more than 30% of the 34 diseases, including three M1 markers, CXCL11, CXCL10, and CXCL9, 2 M2 markers, CCL18 and IL1RN, and one M4 marker, MMP7, suggesting that these markers may play significant roles in the pathogenesis of the diseases. In addition, the diseases with M ϕ markers upregulated in more than 30% of the 34 diseases were of eight types, including #5 myocardial infarction, #6 coronary artery disease, #10 gastritis, #11 Crohn’s ileitis, #12 Crohn’s colitis, #29 esophageal cancer, #32 ovarian carcinoma, and #34 renal carcinoma, suggesting that these diseases may have significant M ϕ marker activities with the pathogenic processes. Moreover, as shown in **Table 3B**, some M ϕ transcription factors (TFs) were upregulated in more than 30% of the 34 diseases, including M1 TF STAT1 and three other M ϕ TFs such as HMGA1, E2F3, and NME1, suggesting that these TFs play significant roles in the pathogenesis of the diseases. Furthermore, the diseases having M ϕ TFs upregulated in more than 30% among the 34 diseases were of six types, including #6 coronary artery disease, #12 Crohn’s colitis, #28 hepatocellular cancer, #29 esophageal cancer, #32 ovarian carcinoma, and #33 lung cancer, suggesting that these diseases have significant M ϕ TF activities with the pathogenic processes.

We then determined whether there are disease-specific signaling pathways and shared pathways based on the expression changes of M ϕ subset markers and M ϕ TFs in eight groups of 34 diseases and tumors. After analyzing the Ingenuity Pathway Analysis results of the top 10 pathways in both upregulated and downregulated M ϕ subset markers and M ϕ TFs, respectively, we compared all the upregulated pathways, downregulated pathways, and the pathways either upregulated or downregulated in some diseases (upper panel, middle panel, and lower panel of **Tables 3C,D**). As shown in **Table 3C**, we found three disease-specific pathways upregulated and 14

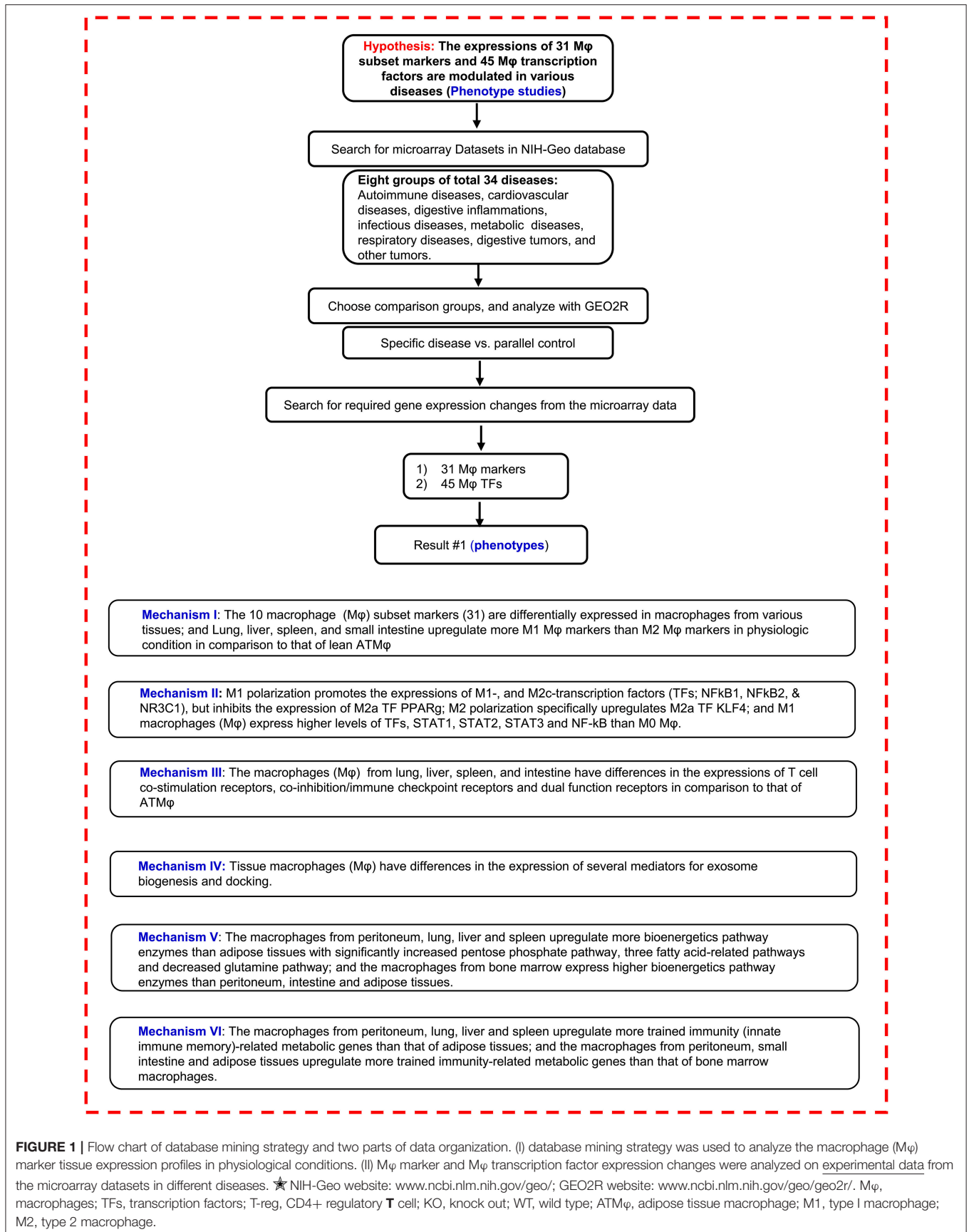


TABLE 1 | A novel research publication type utilizing big-omics experimental database mining analyses leads to original new findings and generates new hypotheses.

Category	Big-omics database mining	Traditional literature review
Analysis of experimental data (NIH Geo DataSets with microarray experimental data, etc.)	Yes	No
Original new findings	Yes	No
Association research (gene co-expression patterns at the same pathology or stimuli)	Yes	No
Causative research (upstream regulator gene-deficient microarrays, ...)	Yes	No
Panoramic view at multiple mechanisms and pathways	Yes	Yes
Improvement of our understanding	Yes	Yes
Searchable database requirements and tools	Yes	No
New publication types after-omics and high throughput experimental data generation	Yes	No
Different focuses from original papers	Yes	No
Use of Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) to analyze experimental data	Yes	No
Bioinformatic prediction	No	No
Future experimental verification	Yes	Yes
Face the low-throughput problems in verifying high-throughput-omics data (also see Yao et al. Nature Immunology, PMID: 31209400)	Yes	No
Summary of previous reports	No	Yes
Example for our database mining paper on IL-35 (highly cited by 173 papers)		PMID: 22438968
Example for traditional literature review: a Nature Immunology review that cited our database mining paper on IL-35		PMID: 22990890
Our experimental papers verifying the findings originated from our database mining paper on IL-35		PMIDs: 26085094; 29371247
Use of multiple NIH databases including PubMed database (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK143764/)	Yes	No PubMed database only

Comparisons were made regarding various aspect between this study, with a big-omics experimental database mining approach, and traditional literature reviews.

disease-specific pathways downregulated. As shown in **Table 3D**, we found 16 disease-specific pathways upregulated and 16 disease-specific pathways downregulated. We also compiled a list of pathways that are shared in several groups of diseases and tumors.

As shown in **Table 3A**, we found that among 21 disease-upregulated pathways, one pathway communication between innate and adaptive immune cells is shared among eight groups of diseases. We also found that three pathways, namely the role of hypercytokinemia/hyperchemokine in the pathogenesis of influenza, agranulocyte adhesion and diapedesis, and granulocyte adhesion and diapedesis, are shared by seven groups of diseases; four pathways, namely differential regulation of cytokine production in M ϕ and T helper cells by IL-17A and IL-17F, IL-10 signaling, the role of cytokines in mediating communication between immune cells, and pathogenesis of multiple sclerosis, are shared by 7 groups of diseases; and one pathway, altered T cell and B cell signaling in rheumatoid arthritis, is shared by five groups of diseases. In contrast, as shown in **Table 3B**, among 42 disease-downregulated pathways, 22 (52%) pathways are shared by two or more groups of disease, and 20 disease-specific downregulated pathways may be important for the pathogenesis of the diseases. Furthermore, as shown in **Table 3C**, 13 M ϕ pathways are upregulated and/or downregulated in some disease groups in two different directions, suggesting that some M ϕ functional pathways are modulated in disease-specific manners.

These results suggest that the expression changes of M ϕ TFs in eight groups of 34 diseases are more disease-specific than that of M ϕ subset markers, allowing the identification of 20 disease-specific and 12 shared (more than 4 groups of diseases) modulations of M ϕ TFs pathways in eight groups of 34 diseases. As shown in **Table 3E**, in detail, we found five upregulated disease-specific pathways in autoimmune diseases, three upregulated disease-specific pathways in cardiovascular diseases, two upregulated disease-specific pathways in digestive inflammatory diseases, four upregulated disease-specific pathways in infectious diseases, one disease-specific pathway in metabolic disease, one disease-specific pathway in respiratory disease, one upregulated pathway (shared with autoimmune disease) and one downregulated specific pathway in digestive tumors, and two upregulated disease-specific pathways in other tumors. In addition, we found 12 pathways that are shared by more than four groups of diseases and tumors. These results demonstrate for the first time that the expressions of M ϕ TFs are modulated in both disease-specific, and shared signaling pathways; these results provide insights on the roles of M ϕ in various diseases and novel therapeutic targets for modulating M ϕ TFs and M ϕ functions for those diseases and tumors. These results have also demonstrated for the first time that certain “high hierarchical” functional pathways in pathological M ϕ are more important in the pathogenesis of various diseases than other pathways, making them novel pathological M ϕ -specific therapeutic pathways; disease-specific

TABLE 2 | A total of 207 macrophage (M ϕ)-related regulator genes in seven representative groups were studied in this paper, including 31 M ϕ subset marker genes, 18 M ϕ subset transcription factor genes (TF), 27 M ϕ general transcription factor genes, 28 T cell co-stimulation and co-inhibition receptor genes, 56 bioenergetics pathway enzyme genes, 23 trained immunity (innate immune memory) pathway genes, and 24 exosome biogenesis/docking mediator genes.

Category	Type	Gene list	Number	Total number	PMID	Note
M ϕ markers (cell surface)	M1	IL1B, TNF, IL6, CXCL11, CXCL10, CXCL9, IL23A, IL12A, IL12B, ARG2	10	43–12 = 31	24998279	Detailed information see Figure S1
	M2a	MRC1, CD163, STAB1, CCL18, CD200R1, F13A1, IL1RN, ARG1, PDE4DIP, Chil4, Chil3, Retnla	12			
	M2b	IL10, IL12B, IL12A	3			
	M2c	MRC1, ARG1	2			
	M2d	TNF, IL12A, IL12B	3			
	M4	MMP7, MRC1, S100A8	3			
	Mox	HMOX1, NFE2L2, TXNRD1, SRXN1	4			
	M(hb)	CD163, MRC1	2			
	Mhem	CD163	2			
	HA-mac	CD163, HLA-DRB1, HLA-DRA	3			
M ϕ TFs	M1	HIF1A, RELA, IRF3, STAT1, STAT2	5	19–1 = 18	25228902 25506346 28228760 23640482 25505468 26954942 26972048 25755062 25367649	Detailed information see Figure S2
(41★) (nuclear proteins)	M2a	PPARD, PPARG, KLF4, AKT1	4			
	M2b	MAPK1, STAT3	2			
	M2c	NFKB1, NFKB2, NR3C1, NFE2	4			
	M2d	N/A	0			
	M4	N/A	0			
	Mox	NR1H3	1			
	M(hb)	ATF1	1			
	Mhem	NR1H3, NR1H2	2			
	HA-mac	N/A	0			
	General M ϕ TFs	CREB1, HMGA1, SMAD4, ZNF148, HBP1, CKLF, ZNF281, FOXO3, HEY1, ETS2, HIF1A, STAT4, MELTF, BATF3, NFE2, NFKB1, RIT1, HIVEP1, JUNB, NFX1, FOXN3, STAT3, PWWP3A, MXD4, E2F3, CEBPD, NME1	27			
Co-stimulation and co-inhibition receptors (cell-cell interaction receptors)	Co-stimulation receptors	ICOSLG, CD70, TNFSF14, CD40, TNFSF9, TNFSF4, TNFSF15, TNFSF18, TNFSF8, TIMD4, SLAMF1, CD48, SEMA4A, CD58	14	28	23470321 27192563	Detailed information see Figure S3
	Co-inhibition receptors	LGALS9, NECTIN3, TNFRSF14, PDCD1LG2, CD274, CD276, VTCN1, VSIR, HHLA2, BTNL2	10			
	Dual-function receptors	CD80, CD86, PVR, IL2RB	4			
Bioenergetics pathway enzymes (intracellular metabolism I-immunometabolism)	TCA cycle	CS, ACO1, ACO2, IDH2, IDH3A, OGDH, SUCLA2, SUCLG1, SUCLG2, SDHA, SDHB, FH, MDH2	13	56	23317369 25945836 26024507 25594225	Detailed information see Figure S4
	Pentose phosphate pathway	G6PD, PGLS, PGD, RPE, RPI, TALDO1, TKT	7			
	Glutamine pathway	SLC38A1, SLC38A2, GLS1, GLUD1, GOT2, GPT2, SLC1A5	7			
	Fatty Acid synthesis pathway	FATP, CD36, SLC27A1, SLC27A2, SLC27A3, SLC27A4, SLC27A5, SLC27A6, ACSL1, ACSL3, ACSL4, ACSL5, ACSL6, CPT1A, CPT1B, CPT2	16			

(Continued)

TABLE 2 | Continued

Category	Type	Gene list	Number	Total number	PMID	Note
	Fatty Acid β -oxidation pathway	ACADVL, HADHA, HADHB, ACADS, ACADSB, ACADM, ACADL, ACAD8, ACAD9, ACAD10, ACAD11, ECHS1, HADH	13			
Trained immunity pathway enzymes (intracellular metabolism II-trained immunity)	Glycolysis pathway	GLUT1, HK, GPI, PFK1, ALDOA, TPI1, GAPDH, PGK, PGAM, ENO, PK, LDH, PDH1, MPC1	14	24-1 = 23	24911170 30298120 25594225	Detailed information see Figure S5
	Mevalonate metabolism pathway	ACLY, HMGCS1, HMGCR, MVK, PMVK, MVD, FDPS	7			
	Acetyl-CoA generating enzyme	ACLY, ACSL1, ACSL5	3			
Exosome biogenesis/docking mediators (local and distal cell-cell communication vehicles)	Biogenesis mediators	RAB11A, STX6, ARF6, RAB27A, RAB31, SEC22B, STX18, STX3, VAMP3, YKT6, TSG101, PDCC6IP	12	24	29109687	Detailed information see Figure S6
	Docking mediators	CAV1, CD44, SELE, ADGRE1, LGALS3, LGALS1, ICAM-1, ITGA6, ITGB1, ITGB3, ITGB4, LAMP1	12			
Total number				207		

M ϕ pathways are also important for the pathogenesis of the diseases and are disease-specific therapeutic targets.

Macrophages (M ϕ) in Lung, Liver, Spleen, and Intestine Express Higher M1 M ϕ Markers Than Lean Adipose Tissue in Physiological Conditions

To determine the novel mechanisms underlying disease-specific and shared macrophage pathways, we and others previously reported that metabolic disease risk factors serve as conditional danger-associated molecular patterns (conditional DAMPs) (12, 31, 32) and induce monocyte/M ϕ differentiation into Ly6Chigh-(1-3) and CD40+ proinflammatory monocytes (4), and accelerate vascular inflammation. Other studies also reported that, under certain experimental conditions such as stimulation with lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and interferon- γ (IFN- γ) for M1 polarization or interleukin-4 (IL-4) for M2 polarization (33), M ϕ can be polarized into multiple subsets including proinflammatory M1 and M4 M ϕ , anti-inflammatory M2, M(Hb), and Mhem M ϕ (34) (**Figure 2A**). However, whether the different physiological environments present in tissues affect the expression of residential M ϕ subsets markers and other regulators has not been studied (35). We hypothesized that various tissue environments with tissue differentiation potentials, DAMPs/conditional DAMPs, cytokines, and cell-cell contacts induce differential expression patterns of M ϕ subset markers.

To examine this hypothesis in a very comprehensive manner, we collected 31 M ϕ markers of 10 M ϕ subsets, as reported in a recent publication (9) (**Table 2**). As summarized in **Figure 2A**, the 10 M ϕ subsets perform various functions in

regulating inflammation, immune responses, anti-oxidant, and tumor promotion (9). We included 10 M ϕ markers in our analysis, and these markers are differentially expressed in different M ϕ subsets. Furthermore, we also made a list of the transcription factors (TFs) of 18 M ϕ subsets, which are critical for the development and maintenance of seven out of 10 M ϕ subsets (**Table 2**). The data for TFs that are critical for development of M2d, M4, and HA-Mac were not available at the time we conducted the analysis. Moreover, we included an additional 27 M ϕ TFs that were identified in M ϕ by RNA-Seq analysis (21).

By examining the expression of these M ϕ regulators in M ϕ microarray datasets deposited in the NI-NCBI GEO DataSets database (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gds/>), we found that the expression of M1 M ϕ markers is higher in M ϕ that reside in tissues such as lung, liver, spleen, and intestine (LLSI) compared to lean adipose tissue M ϕ (ATM ϕ), physiologically (**Figure 2B**). This suggests that the majority of lung, liver, spleen, and intestine (LLSI) residential M ϕ are M1 M ϕ (**Figure 2C**); therefore, these tissues have more potential to produce inflammatory responses than adipose tissue. In addition, as shown in **Figures 2B,D**, we found that: (1) *Retnla*, *CD163*, and *MRC1* are relatively ATM ϕ -specific markers; (2) *STAB1*, *NFE2L2*, and *SRXN1* are relatively bone marrow (BM)-specific M ϕ markers; (3) *ARG1* is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for peritoneum, M2a, and M2c; (4) *Chil4* is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for lung and M2a; (5) *IL1B* is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for liver and M1; (6) *PDE4DIP* and *HMOX1* are relatively specific M ϕ markers for spleen, M2a, and MOX; and (7) *CXCL9* is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for small intestine and M1. Our results suggest that these M ϕ subset markers modulated in the tissues may play important roles in tissue-specific M ϕ functions and subset compositions.

TABLE 3A | The expressions of 31 macrophage markers in 10 M ϕ subsets are modulated in 8 groups of 34 diseases.

M ϕ	Subsets	Markers	Autoimmune diseases		Cardiovascular diseases		Digestive inflammatory		Infection diseases		Metabolic diseases		Respiratory diseases		Digestive tumors		Other tumors		Up-regulated disease		Down-regulated disease																								
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	Number	%	Number	%					
M1		IL1B	↓						↑	↑	↑	↓	↓	↓		↑	↑		↓	↑			↑	↑	↑												8	23.5	7	20.6					
		TNF	↓								↑	↓	↓	↓	↓		↑	↑		↓	↑			↑	↑	↑													6	17.6	5	14.7			
		IL6	↓							↑	↑	↑	↓	↓	↓		↑	↑		↓	↑			↑	↑	↑													8	23.5	5	14.7			
		CXCL11	↑						↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑			↑	↑	↑														15	44.1	0	0.0		
		CXCL10	↑						↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑			↑	↑	↑													12	35.3	0	0.0			
		CXCL9	↑						↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑			↑	↑	↑													13	38.2	0	0.0			
		IL23A	↑						↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑			↑	↑	↑														9	26.5	3	8.8		
		IL12A																																						3	8.8	2	5.9		
		IL12B																																						3	8.8	1	2.9		
		ARG2	↓																																					4	11.8	6	17.6		
		MRC1																																							4	11.8	3	8.8	
		CD163																																								9	26.5	6	17.6
		STAB1																																							7	20.6	3	8.8	
		CCL18	↑																																						11	32.4	2	5.9	
		CD200R1																																							2	5.9	5	14.7	
F13A1																																							4	11.8	7	20.6			
IL1RN	↑																																						15	44.1	4	11.8			
ARG1	↑																																						8	23.5	3	8.8			
PDE4DIP																																							6	17.6	8	23.5			
Chil4																																							0	0.0	0	0.0			
Chil3																																							0	0.0	0	0.0			
Retna																																							0	0.0	0	0.0			
IL10																																								7	20.6	1	2.9		
IL12B																																								3	8.8	0	0.0		
IL12A																																								3	8.8	2	5.9		
MRC1																																								4	11.8	3	8.8		
ARG1	↑																																							8	23.5	3	8.8		
TNF	↓																																							5	14.7	4	11.8		
IL12A																																									3	8.8	2	5.9	
IL12B																																								3	8.8	1	2.9		
MMP7																																								10	29.4	2	5.9		
MRC1																																								4	11.8	3	8.8		
S100A8	↑																																							7	20.6	4	11.8		
HMOX1																																								9	26.5	4	11.8		
NFE2L2																																								3	8.8	7	20.6		

(Continued)

TABLE 3A | Continued

Mφ	Autoimmune diseases			Cardiovascular diseases			Digestive inflammatory			Infection diseases			Metabolic diseases			Respiratory diseases			Digestive tumors			Other tumors			Up-regulated disease		Down-regulated disease													
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	Number	%	Number	%		
Subsets	Markers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	Number	%	Number	%	
	TXNRD1					↑	↑	↓	↓			↓										↑				↑		↑								5	14.7	3	8.8	
	SRXN1		↑			↑	↑				↑	↑														↑		↑							8	23.5	1	2.9		
M(hb)	CD163	↑				↑	↑	↓	↓		↑	↑										↑					↓								9	26.5	6	17.6		
	MRC1		↓			↑	↑										↓							↑											4	11.8	3	8.8		
Mhem	CD163	↑				↑	↑	↓	↓		↑	↑										↑					↓								9	26.5	6	17.6		
HA-mac	CD163	↑				↑	↑	↓	↓		↑	↑										↑					↓								9	26.5	6	17.6		
	HLA-DRB1	↑				↓	↓				↑	↑												↓				↓								6	17.6	4	11.8	
	HLA-DRA	↑								↑	↑	↑										↓					↓									7	20.6	3	8.8	
Up-regulated gene	Number	8	3	5	0	16	20	1	1	8	12	12	16	3	8	3	0	2	3	0	0	2	6	0	8	6	5	8	6	11	8	1	12	3	12					
%		25.8	9.7	16.1	0.0	51.6	64.5	3.2	3.2	25.8	38.7	38.7	51.6	9.7	25.8	9.7	0.0	6.5	9.7	0.0	0.0	6.5	19.4	0.0	25.8	19.4	16.1	25.8	19.4	35.5	25.8	3.2	38.7	9.7	38.7					
Down-regulated gene	Number	4	0	3	3	3	3	3	3	0	2	1	8	1	4	3	4	0	1	2	0	1	1	0	1	0	6	2	10	1	5	3	3	3	12	4				
%		12.9	0.0	9.7	9.7	9.7	9.7	9.7	9.7	0.0	0.0	6.5	3.2	25.8	3.2	12.9	9.7	12.9	0.0	3.2	6.5	0.0	3.2	3.2	0.0	19.4	6.5	32.3	3.2	16.1	9.7	9.7	9.7	38.7	12.9					

First, some Mφ markers were upregulated in more than 30% of the 34 diseases, including three M1 markers, CXCL11, CXCL10, and CXCL9, 2 M2 markers, CCL18 and IL1RN, and one M4 marker, MMP7. Second, the diseases having Mφ markers upregulated in more than 30% of the 34 diseases were of eight types, namely #5 myocardial infarction, #6 coronary artery disease, #10 gastritis, #11 Crohn's ileitis, #12 Crohn's colitis, #29 esophageal cancer, #32 ovarian carcinoma, and #34 renal carcinoma (For detailed expression data, see **Figures S9-S12**). 1, Rheumatoid arthritis; 2, Systemic lupus erythematosus; 3, Psoriasis; 4, Asthma; 5, Myocardial infarction; 6, Coronary artery disease; 7, Abdominal aortic aneurysm; 8, Aortic occlusive disease; 9, Ulcerative colitis; 10, Gastritis; 11, Crohn's ileitis; 12, Crohn's colitis; 13, Tuberculous Meningitis coinfecting with HIV; 14, Sepsis; 15, Chronic Hepatitis C virus; 16, Tuberculosis; 17, Type 2 diabetes; 18, Type 1 diabetes; 19, Metabolic syndrome; 20, Familial Hypercholesterolemia; 21, Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; 22, Pulmonary arterial hypertension; 23, Asthma; 24, Pneumonia; 25, Gastric adenocarcinoma; 26, Hepatocellular cancer; 27, Colorectal adenocarcinoma; 28, Pancreatic cancer; 29, Esophageal cancer; 30, Breast Adenocarcinoma; 31, Prostate cancer; 32, Ovarian carcinoma; 33, Lung cancer; 34, Renal carcinoma.

TABLE 3C | Ingenuity Pathway Analyses showed that the top 10 pathways involved in 31 macrophage markers of 10 M ϕ subsets are modulated in 8 groups of 34 diseases.

Pathways modulated by M ϕ markers		Disease type	Autoimmune diseases	Cardiovascular diseases	Digestive inflammatory disease	Infection disease	Metabolic diseases	Respiratory disease	Digestive tumors	Other tumors
Up-regulated pathways in eight group of diseases	Hematopoiesis from Pluripotent Stem Cells	1		↑						
	IL-17 Signaling	1						↑		↑
	Acute Phase Response Signaling	1						↑		
	Glucocorticoid Receptor Signaling*	2				↑		↑		
	IL-17A Signaling in Gastric Cells*	3	↑			↑				↑
	Pathogenesis of Multiple Sclerosis	6	↑	↑		↑	↑		↑	↑
	Agranulocyte Adhesion and Diapedesis	7	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑
	Granulocyte Adhesion and Diapedesis	7	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑
	N(↑)		4	4	2	5	3	2	3	5
	Down-regulated pathways in eight group of diseases	Role of Pattern Recognition Receptors in Recognition of Bacteria and Viruses	1	↓						
TREM1 Signaling		1	↓							
IL-12 Signaling and Production in Macrophages*		1		↓						
Role of BRCA1 in DNA Damage Response*		1			↓					
Sirtuin Signaling Pathway*		1			↓					
Unfolded protein response*		1			↓					
Extrinsic Prothrombin Activation Pathway		1				↓				
NRF2-Mediated Oxidative Stress Response*		1				↓				
Thioredoxin Pathway		1				↓				
Vitamin-C Transport		1				↓				
Production of Nitric Oxide and Reactive Oxygen Species in Macrophages		1				↓		↓		
Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptor Signaling		1								→
Atherosclerosis Signaling		1								→
Xenobiotic Metabolism Signaling		1								→
Allograft Rejection Signaling		2								→
Calcium-induced T Lymphocyte Apoptosis		2							→	→
OX40 Signaling Pathway		2							→	→
T Helper Cell Differentiation		2							→	→
Role of IL-17A in Psoriasis		2						→		
CD40 Signaling*		2			↓		↓	↓		
Arginine Degradation V(Arginase 2 Pathway)	3			↓		↓	↓		↓	
Antigen Presentation Pathway	3			↓		↓	↓		↓	
Autoimmune Thyroid Disease Signaling	3			↓		↓	↓		↓	

(Continued)

TABLE 3C | Continued

Pathways modulated by M ϕ markers		Disease type	Autoimmune diseases	Cardiovascular diseases	Digestive inflammatory disease	Infection disease	Metabolic diseases	Respiratory disease	Digestive tumors	Other tumors
	B Cell Development	3		↓				↓		↓
	Nur77 Signaling in T Lymphocytes	3		↓				↓		↓
	Citrulline Biosynthesis	3			↓		↓			
	Urea Cycle	3			↓		↓			
	Superpathway of Citrulline Metabolism	3			↓		↓			
	Arginine Degradation I (Arginase Pathway)	3			↓		↓			
	N(↓)		2	6	9	9	8	8	8	3
Dual-regulated pathways in eight groups of diseases										
	Hepatic Fibrosis/Hepatic Stellate Cell Activation	2	↓							↑
	Role of IL-17F in Allergic Inflammatory Airway Diseases★	2							↑	↓
	Dendritic Cell Maturation★	3	↑	↓	↑					↓
	Differential Regulation of Cytokine Production in Intestinal Epithelial Cells by IL-17A and IL-17F	3	↓					↑		↑
	LXR/RXR Activation	3					↓		↑	↓
	Altered T Cell and B Cell Signaling in Rheumatoid Arthritis	5	↑↓	↑↓	↑		↑	↑↓		↓
	Differential Regulation of Cytokine Production in Macrophages and T Helper Cells by IL-17A and IL-17F	6	↓	↑	↑		↑		↑	↑↓
	Neuroinflammation Signaling Pathway	6	↓			↑↓	↑	↑	↓	↑↓
	Graft-vs.-Host Disease Signaling	7	↑	↓	↑		↑	↑↓	↓	↓
	IL-10 Signaling	7	↓	↑	↑↓	↑	↑↓	↑	↑	↓
	Role of Cytokines in Mediating Communication between Immune Cells	7	↑↓	↑↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↓
	Communication between Innate and Adaptive Immune Cells	8	↑↓	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
	Role of Hypercytokinemia/Hyperchemokininemia in the Pathogenesis of Influenza	8	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↓
	N(↑)		3	4	7	4	6	6	7	3
	N(↓)		5	2	0	0	1	0	2	5
	N(↑↓)		3	2	1	1	1	2	0	2

★ The pathways modulated in 8 groups of 34 diseases both by 31 M ϕ markers and 41 M ϕ transcription factors.

TABLE 3D | Ingenuity Pathway Analyses showed that the top 10 pathways involved in 18 macrophage subset transcription factors and 27 macrophage general transcription factors are modulated in 8 groups of 34 diseases.

Pathways modulated by M ϕ TFs		Disease type	Autoimmune diseases	Cardiovascular diseases	Digestive inflammatory disease	Infection disease	Metabolic diseases	Respiratory disease	Digestive tumors	Other tumors
Up-regulated pathways in eight group of diseases	Role of JAK1 and JAK3 in γ c Cytokine Signaling	1	↑							
	CNTF Signaling	1	↑							
	Thrombopoietin Signaling	1	↑							
	EGF Signaling	1	↑							
	GM-CSF Signaling	1	↑							
	IL-17A Signaling in Gastric Cells ★	1		↑						
	NRF2-Mediated Oxidative Stress Response ★	1		↑						
	Parkinson's Signaling	1		↑						
	Cyclins and Cell Cycle Regulation	1				↑				
	Cell Cycle Regulation by BTG Family Proteins	1				↑				
Estrogen-Mediated S-phase Entry	1				↑					
Role of CHK Proteins in Cell Cycle Checkpoint Control	1				↑					
Notch Signaling	1					↑				
Adrenomedullin Signaling Pathway	1						↑			
IL-15 Production	1								↑	
Role of PKR in Interferon Induction and Antiviral Response	1								↑	
Interferon Signaling	2					↑				
Oncostatin M Signaling	2	↑						↑		
Tec Kinase Signaling	2				↑				↑	
Dendritic Cell Maturation ★	3				↑				↑	
Role of JAK family kinases in IL-6-type Cytokine Signaling	4	↑			↑			↑	↑	
IL-22 Signaling	5	↑			↑			↑	↑	
N(†)		8		4	4	5	2	3	4	4
Down-regulated pathways in eight group of diseases	ERK5 Signaling	1		↓						
	HGF Signaling	1		↓						
	FGF Signaling	1		↓						
	IGF-1 Signaling	1		↓						
	VDR/RXR Activation	1			↓					
	FXR/RXR Activation	1			↓					
	Apelin Endothelial Signaling Pathway	1						↓		
	Estrogen-Dependent Breast Cancer Signaling	1						↓		
	ILK Signaling	1						↓		
	NGF Signaling	1						↓		
Prostate Cancer Signaling	1						↓			

(Continued)

TABLE 3D | Continued

Pathways modulated by M ϕ TFs	Disease type	Autoimmune diseases	Cardiovascular diseases	Digestive inflammatory disease	Infection disease	Metabolic diseases	Respiratory disease	Digestive tumors	Other tumors
Factors Promoting Cardiogenesis in Vertebrates	1						↓		
HIPPO Signaling	1						↓		
Regulation of IL-2 Expression in Activated and Anergic T Lymphocytes	1						↓		
TGF- β Signaling	1						↓		
Cancer Drug Resistance By Drug Efflux	1						↓		
BMP Signaling Pathway	2					↓	↓		
Role of IL-17F in Allergic Inflammatory Airway Diseases★	2				↓	↓	↓		
PXR/RXR Activation	2	↓							
Sumoylation Pathway	2						↓		
Antiproliferative Role of TOB in T Cell Signaling	3						↓		↓
Cardiomyocyte Differentiation via BMP Receptors	3						↓		↓
Glucocorticoid Receptor Signaling★	4		↓				↓		↓
MIF-mediated Glucocorticoid Regulation	4	↓			↓	↓	↓		↓
N(↓)		2	5	2	7	4	8	7	3
Dual-regulated pathways in Acipogenesis Pathway	2						↑		↓
Cell Cycle: G1/S Checkpoint Regulation	2						↓		
Chronic Myeloid Leukemia Signaling	2				↑		↓		
PEDF Signaling	2	↓				↑	↓		↑
Role of BRCA1 in DNA Damage Response★	2			↓	↑				
Th17 Activation Pathway	2	↓		↑					
Thyroid Cancer Signaling	2			↓		↑			
Activation of IRF by Cytosolic Pattern Recognition Receptors	3		↓		↑	↑			
CD40 Signaling★	3		↑			↓			
IL-12 Signaling and Production in Macrophages★	3	↓					↑		↑
LPS-Stimulated MAPK Signaling	3		↑		↓				
PPAR Signaling	3	↓	↑						
IL-17A Signaling in Fibroblasts	4	↓		↑				↓	
iNOS Signaling	4		↑		↓			↑	↑
Osteoarthritis Pathway	4	↓					↑		↑
Pancreatic Adenocarcinoma Signaling	4			↑		↓		↑	↑
PI3K Signaling in B Lymphocytes	4		↑		↓	↓		↑	↑
Polyamine Regulation in Colon Cancer	4			↓		↑			↑
Sirtuin Signaling Pathway★	4	↓		↓			↑		↑

(Continued)

TABLE 3D | Continued

Pathways modulated by M ϕ TFs		Disease type	Autoimmune diseases	Cardiovascular diseases	Digestive inflammatory disease	Infection disease	Metabolic diseases	Respiratory disease	Digestive tumors	Other tumors
	Unfolded Protein Response*	4			→		↑		→	→
	FLT3 Signaling in Hematopoietic Progenitor Cells	5	↑	↓	↑		↑		↑	
	ERK/MAPK Signaling	6	↑	↑↓	→		→	↑		→
	JAK/Stat Signaling	7	→	→	↑	↑	↑		↑	↑
	Role of JAK1, JAK2 and TYK2 in Interferon Signaling	7		→	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑
	N(↑)		2	5	6	5	8	7	6	6
	N(↓)		8	4	8	3	6	2	3	7
	N(↑↓)		0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

*The pathways modulated in 8 groups of 34 diseases both by 31 M ϕ markers and 41 M ϕ transcription factors.

TABLE 3E | Twenty new disease group-specific and 12 shared (more than 4 groups of diseases) M ϕ reprogramming pathways have been identified in eight groups of 34 diseases and tumors.

A. Specific pathways (upregulated except #; unique for each group of diseases)

Autoimmune diseases	Role of JAK1 and JAK3 in γ c Cytokine Signaling CNTF Signaling Thrombopoietin Signaling EGF Signaling GM-CSF Signaling
Cardiovascular diseases	IL-17A Signaling* NRF2-Mediated Oxidative Stress Response Parkinson's Signaling
Digestive inflammatory disease	VDR/RXR Activation#
Infection disease	FXR/RXR Activation# Cyclins and Cell Cycle Regulation Cell Cycle Regulation by BTG Family Proteins Estrogen-mediated S-phase Entry Role of CHK Proteins in Cell Cycle Checkpoint Control
Metabolic diseases	Notch Signaling
Respiratory disease	Adrenomedullin signaling pathway
Digestive tumors	Oncostatin M Signaling Cancer Drug Resistance By Drug Efflux (#, downregulated)
Other tumors	IL-15 Production Role of PKR in Interferon Induction and Response

B. Shared pathways (upregulated and shared by more than four major disease groups)

- Altered T Cell and B Cell Signaling in Autoimmune Disease
- Differential Regulation of Cytokine Production in Macrophages and T Helper Cells by IL-17A and IL-17F
- Neuroinflammation Signaling Pathway
- Graft-vs.-Host Disease Signaling
- IL-10 Signaling
- Role of Cytokines in Mediating Communication between Immune Cells
- Communication between Innate and Adaptive Immune Cells
- Role of Hypercytokinemia/Hyperchemokineemia in the Pathogenesis of Disease
- FLT3 Signaling in Hematopoietic Progenitor Cells
- ERK/MAPK Signaling
- JAK/Stat Signaling
- Role of JAK1, JAK2 and TYK2 in Interferon Signaling

*Some of the pathway names were simplified to avoid potential confusion.

Pro-adipogenic Transcription Factors C/EBP α and PPAR γ , and Proinflammatory Adipokine Leptin Upregulate the Expression of M1 M ϕ Markers

Adipose tissue releases more than 50 hormones, cytokines, and chemokines, collectively called adipokines, which regulate several physiological processes concerning energy, glucose metabolism, and immunity in an autocrine, paracrine, or systemic manner as well as several pathological processes including proinflammatory or anti-inflammatory processes, thereby contributing to insulin

resistance and other inflammations (36). Adipose tissue from lean individuals releases anti-inflammatory adipokines such as adiponectin, transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), IL-10, IL-4, IL-13, IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Ra), and apelin. In contrast, obese adipose tissue secretes proinflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), IL-6, leptin, visfatin, resistin, angiotensin II, and plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 (37). About one-third of obese adults and 10% of non-obese adults are metabolically healthy obese (MHO) (38, 39). A series of reports suggest that patients with metabolically healthy obesity (MHO) have significantly higher rates of type II diabetes (40), metabolic syndrome (41), and chronic kidney disease (42) than metabolically healthy lean individuals. The molecular mechanisms underlying the pathogenesis of MHO remained poorly determined. In the search for master regulators responsible for MHO with the features of being pro-inflammatory/proatherogenic but anti-adipogenic, we reported that microRNA-155 (miR155) and, potentially, microRNA-221 are such master regulators for MHO (44). Deficiencies in those master regulators such as miR155 in an atherogenic apolipoprotein E (ApoE)^{-/-} background led to the establishment of MHO in mice, significantly improving our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying MHO (43). Our recent findings further suggest that elevated adipokine resistin and leptin in a miR155^{-/-}/ApoE^{-/-} MHO model fed a high-fat diet for 12 weeks may serve as a driver for the newly termed “second wave of inflammation status” in the MHO model (44). Along the same line, the issue of whether proinflammatory adipokines secreted by obese adipose tissues promote the expression of M1 M ϕ markers and other proinflammatory regulators remained poorly defined.

We hypothesize that proinflammatory cytokine interferon- γ (IFN- γ) and lipopolysaccharide (LPS) upregulate M1 markers and regulators but not M2 (45). To test this hypothesis, we examined the expression of M ϕ markers and M ϕ TFs involved in M1 and M2 M ϕ polarization. As shown in **Table 4A**, when we examined the TF expression in the M ϕ polarization from human CD14⁺ monocytes, we made the following important findings: (a) M1 polarization promotes the expression of the M ϕ TFs for M1 and surprisingly also for M2c (IL-10 polarization); (b) the Krüppel-like family of transcription factor 4 (KLF4) was upregulated explicitly during M2a polarization (IL-4 polarization); and (c) four proinflammatory TFs (STAT1, STAT2, STAT3, and NF- κ B) are more upregulated in M1 than in M2 polarization, suggesting their importance in promoting M1 M ϕ polarization (46).

In addition, as shown in **Table 4B**, we also determined whether pro-adipogenic TFs, proinflammatory, and anti-inflammatory adipokines can regulate M ϕ subset marker expression. The results showed the following. (1) pro-adipogenic TFs CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein α (C/EBP α) and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) promote the expression of M1 markers interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and C-X-C motif chemokine 10 (CXCL10), suggesting that during adipogenesis, pro-adipogenic TF-mediated signaling mechanisms have the potential to promote M1 subset polarization. Of note, previous reports found that C/EBP α (47) and PPAR γ (48) promote M2 polarization.

One of our explanations is that pro-adipogenic TFs C/EBP α and PPAR γ may tend to promote M2 in lean adipose tissues but that, in hypertrophic obese adipose tissues, these TFs may promote polarization of proinflammatory M1. Further detailed transcriptomic studies will be required to address this discrepancy. (2) C/EBP α suppresses the expression of the M2a markers stabilin 1 (STAB1), coagulation factor XIII A chain (F13A1), chitinase-like 4 (Chil4), and Chil3. (3) C/EBP β also suppresses the expression of the M2a marker arginase 1 (ARG1). (4) Deficiencies in anti-inflammatory adipokines such as secreted frizzled-related protein 5 (SFRP5) and adiponectin do not change the expression markers of all 10 types of M ϕ s, suggesting that the anti-inflammatory regulation of these adipokines acts via M ϕ composition modulation-independence mechanisms. (5) Proinflammatory adipokine leptin promotes M1 marker gene expression and inhibits the marker expressions of M2 and other M ϕ subsets.

Tissue M ϕ From Lung, Liver, Spleen, Intestine, and Bone Marrow (BM) Express Higher Levels of T Cell Co-inhibition Receptor CD274 (PDL-1) Among 10 Co-inhibition Receptors Than That of Lean Adipose Tissues

Since M ϕ s are prototypic professional antigen-presenting cells (APCs) that modulate CD4⁺ T cell activation by providing T cell activation signal #1 and co-stimulation/co-inhibition-based signal #2 (50), we also examined the expression of 28 T cell co-stimulation and co-inhibition (immune checkpoint) receptors (23), including 14 co-stimulation receptors, 10 co-inhibition receptors, and 4 dual-functional (both co-stimulation and co-inhibition) receptors in tissue M ϕ (**Figure 3A**), as we reported previously (49). As shown in **Figure 3A**, we found that: (i) the M ϕ from LLSI express co-inhibition receptor CD274 (programmed death-ligand 1, PDL1) in much higher levels than ATM ϕ and (ii) the M ϕ from peritoneum and ATM ϕ express lower levels of CD274 than BM M ϕ . It has been reported that CD274 has significant reverse signaling activities (50). Antitumor immune response-enhancing transcription factor Forkhead box O (FoxO) inhibits CD274 expression (51), suggesting that CD274 expression may be responsible via reverse signaling for hiding immune response-enhancing features of tumor cells. Also, CD274 signals via conserved intracellular sequence motif “RMLDVEKC” inhibit JAK1-induced STAT3 activation and overcome interferon-mediated cytotoxicity (50). To correlate with the reported findings, our results suggest that: (i) peripheral tissue M ϕ , including LLSI M ϕ , express higher levels of T cell co-inhibition receptor CD274 than ATM ϕ , to contribute to the establishment of immune tolerance at physiological conditions; and (ii) since our data suggested that LLSI tissue M ϕ are more proinflammatory than other M ϕ , higher expression of CD274 in LLSI M ϕ suggests that the high homeostatic and anti-inflammatory functions of CD274 (programmed death-ligand 1, PD-L1) via its reverse signaling in M ϕ (52) may counteract the tissue M ϕ proinflammatory status (**Figure 3B**) in addition to CD274 inhibition of T cell activation via PD-1 (programmed

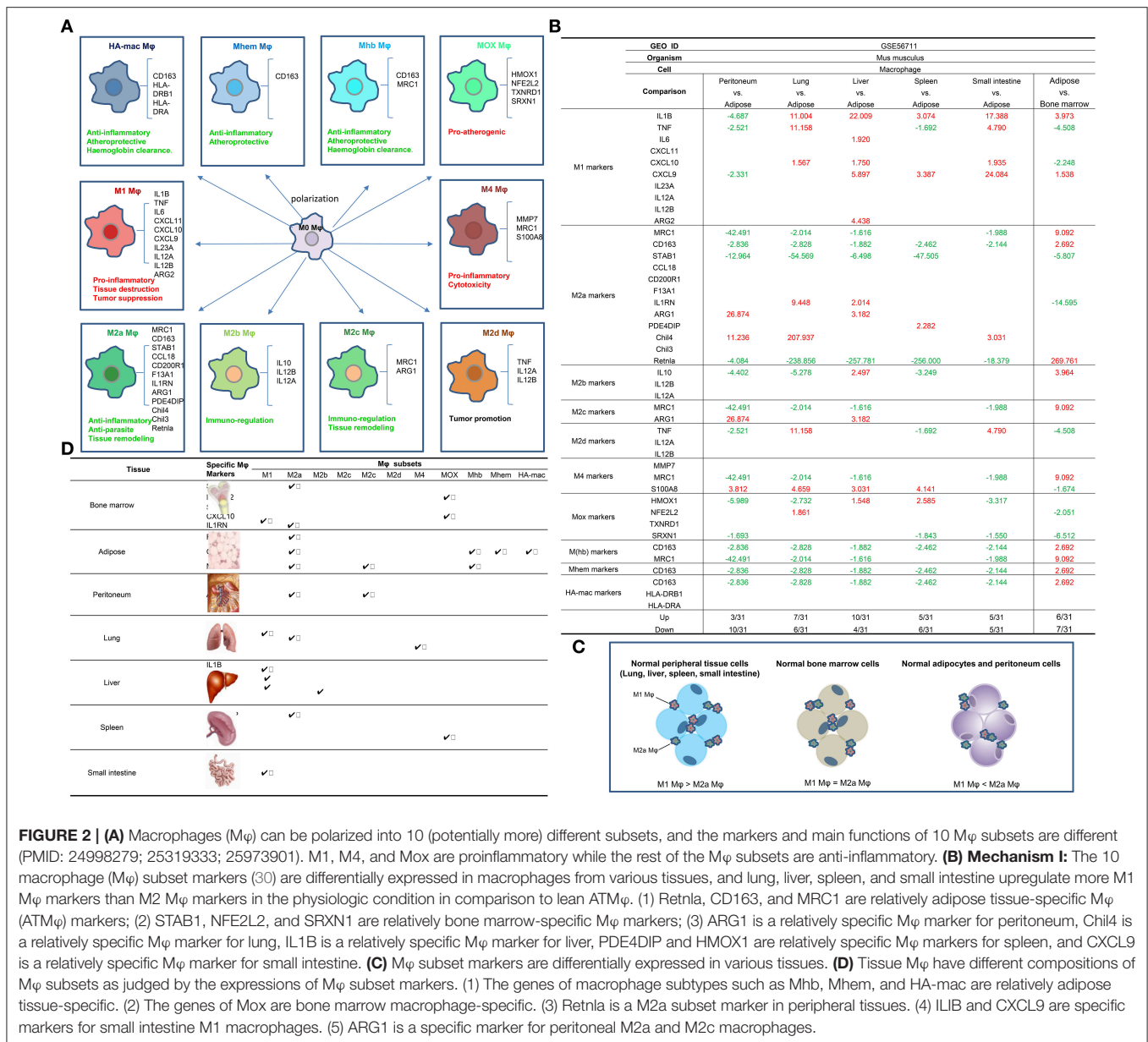


FIGURE 2 | (A) Macrophages (M ϕ) can be polarized into 10 (potentially more) different subsets, and the markers and main functions of 10 M ϕ subsets are different (PMID: 24998279; 25319333; 25973901). M1, M4, and Mox are proinflammatory while the rest of the M ϕ subsets are anti-inflammatory. **(B) Mechanism I:** The 10 macrophage (M ϕ) subset markers (30) are differentially expressed in macrophages from various tissues, and lung, liver, spleen, and small intestine upregulate more M1 M ϕ markers than M2 M ϕ markers in the physiologic condition in comparison to lean ATM ϕ . (1) Retnla, CD163, and MRC1 are relatively adipose tissue-specific M ϕ (ATM ϕ) markers; (2) STAB1, NFE2L2, and SRXN1 are relatively bone marrow-specific M ϕ markers; (3) ARG1 is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for peritoneum, Ch14 is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for lung, IL1B is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for liver, PDE4DIP and HMOX1 are relatively specific M ϕ markers for spleen, and CXCL9 is a relatively specific M ϕ marker for small intestine. **(C)** M ϕ subset markers are differentially expressed in various tissues. **(D)** Tissue M ϕ have different compositions of M ϕ subsets as judged by the expressions of M ϕ subset markers. (1) The genes of macrophage subtypes such as Mhb, Mhem, and HA-mac are relatively adipose tissue-specific. (2) The genes of Mox are bone marrow macrophage-specific. (3) Retnla is a M2a subset marker in peripheral tissues. (4) IL1B and CXCL9 are specific markers for small intestine M1 macrophages. (5) ARG1 is a specific marker for peritoneal M2a and M2c macrophages.

cell death protein 1, CD279) binding-mediated forward signaling (53, 54).

Tissue M ϕ From Lung, Liver, Spleen, Intestine, and Bone Marrow Prefer to Use RAB27A and STX3 Than RAB31 and YKT6 in Mediating Exosome Biogenesis and Docking, Suggesting New Inflammatory Exosome Markers and a New Inflammatory Exosome Status

In addition to the above-discussed cell surface mechanisms such as M ϕ markers and cell-cell interaction (co-stimulation and co-inhibition/immune checkpoint) receptors, as cell-cell communication mechanisms of M ϕ and other cell types,

exosomes can transport and deliver a large cargo of proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids and can modify cell and organ function. In addition to their key role as vehicles of intercellular communication, exosomes are increasingly recognized as biomarkers and prognosticators of disease (55). We reported that exosomes might modulate inflammation and immune responses (26) and propagate inflammation (25). We also examined the expression levels of 12 exosome biogenesis mediators and 12 exosome docking mediators in the tissue M ϕ s (Figure 4A). The results in Figure 4A showed that M ϕ from peritoneum, lung, liver, spleen, and small intestine prefer to use RAB27A and syntaxin 3 (STX3) than RAB31 and YKT6 in mediating exosome biogenesis and docking and that adipose tissue M ϕ s use more Rab31, YKT6, and LGALS1 in mediating exosome biogenesis and docking. Of note, it has been reported that

TABLE 4A | Mechanism II: M1 polarization promotes the expressions of M1- and M2c-transcription factors (TFs; NFKB1, NFKB2, and NR3C1) but inhibits the expression of M2a TF PPARg; M2 polarization specifically upregulates M2a TF KLF4, and M1 macrophages (M ϕ) express higher levels of TFs, STAT1, STAT2, STAT3, and NF-kB than M0 M ϕ .

	GEO ID	GSE85346				
		Comparison	M1 vs. M0	M2a vs. M0	M2b vs. M0	M2c vs. M0
M1 TFs	HIF1A		2.247			
	RELA		5.401			
	IRF3		2.132			
	STAT1		9.433		3.077	
	STAT2		3.353		1.787	
M2a TFs	PPARD					
	PPARG		-14.550		-1.988	
	KLF4			4.123		
	AKT1					
M2b TFs	MAPK1					
	STAT3		5.058		1.699	
M2c TFs	NFKB1		4.065		1.787	
	NFKB2		8.639			
	NR3C1		2.439			
	NFE2					
Mox TFs	NR1H3					
M(hb) TFs	ATF1					
Mhem TFs	NR1H3					
	NR1H2					
	Up		9/18	1/18	3/18	1/18
	Down		1/18	0/18	1/18	0/18

RAB27A-dependent exosome production inhibits chronic inflammation and enables acute response to inflammatory stimuli (56) and that microRNA-30c-2-3p regulates RAB31 and functions as an oncogene in gastric cancer tumorigenesis and development by interacting with glioma-associated oncogene homolog 1(57). The results suggest that the differences in exosome biogenesis and docking in tissue M ϕ s may be related to their proinflammatory functional status (Figure 4B) as we reported previously (26), that Rab GTPases not only regulate the pathogenesis of cancer and neurodegenerative diseases (58) but may also regulate inflammation functions of M ϕ exosomes, and that syntaxin 3-identified homozygous likely deleterious variant (59) may regulate inflammatory M ϕ exosomes.

Levels of Immunometabolism Pathway Enzymes Are Higher in M ϕ in Peritoneal, Lung, Liver, Spleen, and Intestine Than in Adipose Tissue M ϕ

Since M ϕ bioenergetics metabolism, as an immunometabolism pathway (60), regulates their polarizations (61), we hypothesized that tissue M ϕ s from different tissues would have various metabolic pathway enzyme genes expressed at different levels. To test this hypothesis, we collected 59 metabolic enzymes involved in six metabolic pathways including the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle (13 enzymes), pentose phosphate pathway (Warburg-Limpam-Dickens cycle and phosphogluconate shunt, 7 enzymes), glutamine pathway (7 enzymes) (62), fatty acid pathway (16 enzymes), fatty acid B-oxidation pathway (63) (13

enzymes), and fatty acid C pathway (9 enzymes), as shown in Table 1. Of note, six genes overlapped in different bioenergetics metabolic pathways. Comparing the M ϕ from peritoneal and LLSI tissues with that of adipose tissues (Figure 5A), we found that 2 out of 13 TCA cycle enzymes, 2 out of seven pentose phosphate pathway enzymes, one out of seven glutamine pathway enzymes, 7 out of 16 enzymes in the fatty acid pathway, 5 out of 13 regulators in the fatty acid β -oxidation pathway, and 3 out of 9 fatty acid C pathway enzymes were upregulated. We also found that 1 out of 13 TCA cycle enzymes, 1 out of seven pentose phosphate pathway enzymes, four out of seven glutamine pathway enzymes, and 2 out of 16 enzymes in the fatty acid pathway were downregulated. In addition, comparing the M ϕ from peritoneal, intestine, and adipose tissue with that of bone marrow, we found that 1 out of 13 TCA cycle enzymes, 1 out of seven pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) enzymes, 2 out of seven glutamine pathway enzymes, 2 out of 16 enzymes in the fatty acid pathway, and 2 out of 13 regulators in the fatty acid β -oxidation pathway were upregulated and that 5 out of 13 TCA cycle enzymes, 1 out of seven pentose phosphate pathway enzymes, three out of seven glutamine pathway enzymes, 4 out of 16 enzymes in the fatty acid pathway, 5 out of 13 enzymes in the fatty acid β -oxidation pathway and 3 out of 9 fatty acid C pathway enzymes were downregulated. These results suggest that M ϕ in peritoneal, lung, liver, spleen, and intestine may upregulate bioenergetics pathway enzyme expression more than in M ϕ in adipose tissue M ϕ , where expression of the enzymes in the PPP pathway and the three fatty acid pathways increased and expression of glutamine pathway enzymes decreased. Surprisingly, BM-derived M ϕ expresses higher bioenergetics pathway enzymes than that of M ϕ in peritoneum, intestine, and adipose tissues. As shown in Figure 5B, our Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) showed that: (1) comparing all the differences among tissue M ϕ from peritoneal, lung liver, spleen, intestine, adipose tissue, and bone marrow, type II diabetes signaling is shared; (2) the fatty acid activation pathway is also shared among three groups: (a) upregulated genes in peripheral tissue M ϕ vs. ATM ϕ ; (b) upregulated genes in peripheral tissue M ϕ vs. BM M ϕ ; and (c) downregulated genes in peripheral tissue M ϕ vs. BM M ϕ ; and (3) the fatty acid β -oxidation pathway is among the top pathways shared by two groups of upregulated genes in M ϕ in peritoneal, lung, liver, spleen, and intestine vs. ATM ϕ and downregulated genes in M ϕ in peritoneal, intestine and ATM ϕ vs. BM M ϕ .

Expression of Trained Immunity (Innate Immune Memory)-Related Metabolic Genes Is Higher in M ϕ From Peritoneum, Lung, Liver, and Spleen Than in ATM ϕ , and the Expression of Trained Immunity-Related Metabolic Genes Is Higher in M ϕ From Peritoneum, Small Intestine and Adipose Tissues Than in Bone Marrow M ϕ

One of the major differences between the adaptive immune system and innate immune systems is that the cells in the

TABLE 4B | Proadipogenic transcription factors C/EBPa and PPARg promote the expression of M1 macrophage markers, C/EBPa and C/EBPb inhibit the expressions of M2 macrophage markers, and higher expressions of Mhb, Mhem, and HA-mac subtype markers in adipose tissues may result from stimulation in adipose tissue environments rather than that in adipogenesis.

GEO ID	Adipose transcription factors deficient			Anti-inflammatory adipokine deficient		Proinflammatory adipokine deficient			
	GSE55760	GSE59585	GSE14004	GSE37514	GSE50183	GSE66073	GSE46320	GSE27017	
	Comparision C/EBPa KD	C/EBPb KO	PPARg siRNA	SFRP5 KO	adiponectin deficient	APJ ko	PAI-1 KO	Leptin deficiency	
M1 markers	IL1B	-1.641						2.204	
	TNF	-1.651							
	IL6			2.703				-9.353	
	CXCL11								
	CXCL10			-1.801				-15.123	
	CXCL9							-2.723	
	IL23A								
	IL12A								
	IL12B								
M2a markers	ARG2							1.612	
	MRC1							7.143	
	CD163								
	STAB1	1.534						8.693	
	CCL18								
	CD200R1							12.597	
	F13A1	3.694					3.926	2.446	
	IL1RN							3.095	
	ARG1		1.582					3.675	
	PDE4DIP			-13.880					
	Chil4	12.446							
	Chil3	11.791						2.351	
M2b markers	Retnla							-16.512	
	IL10					-1.822			
	IL12B								
M2c markers	IL12A								
	MRC1							7.143	
M2d markers	ARG1		1.582					3.675	
	TNF	-1.651							
M4 markers	IL12A								
	IL12B								
	MMP7								
Mox markers	MRC1							7.143	
	S100A8	5.599		-9.351				2.345	
	HMOX1							2.025	
M(hb) markers	NFE2L2	1.647		-2.126					
	TXNRD1								
	SRXN1								
	CD163								
Mhem markers	MRC1							7.143	
	CD163								
HA-mac markers	CD163								
	HLA-DRB1								
	HLA-DRA								
	Up	6/31	1/31	1/31	0/31	0/31	1/31	0/31	11/31
	Down	2/31	0/31	4/31	0/31	0/31	1/31	0/31	4/31

A

GEO ID	GSE56711						
	Mus musculus						
Organism	Macrophage						
Cell							
Comparison	Peritoneum vs. Adipose	Lung vs. Adipose	Liver vs. Adipose	Spleen vs. Adipose	Small intestine vs. Adipose	Adipose vs. Bone marrow	
	Co-stimulation receptors	ICOSLG					
CD70							
TNFSF14						-1.659	
CD40			-2.445		-4.438		
TNFSF9			1.514			-1.636	
TNFSF4							
TNFSF15							
TNFSF18							
TNFSF8							
TIMD4		5.097	-2.497	4.408			4.711
SLAMF1							
CD48							
SEMA4A	-4.036	1.698	-13.833	-14.929	-1.708	6.085	
CD58							
Co-inhibition receptors	LGALS9		-2.549		-1.702	-3.743	
	NECTIN3						
	TNFRSF14				1.513		
	PDCD1LG2		1.505			2.346	
	CD274	-1.532	12.641	5.502	6.277	10.411	-2.292
	CD276					2.042	-2.879
VTCN1							
VSIR	1.679	-2.639	-1.908		1.634	1.766	
HHLA2							
BTNL2							
Dual function receptors	CD80						
	CD86	-2.269	-4.959	2.250	2.928	-1.617	15.081
	PVR						
	IL2RB						
UP	2/28	4/28	3/28	3/28	4/28	4/28	
DOWN	3/28	5/28	2/28	3/28	2/28	5/28	

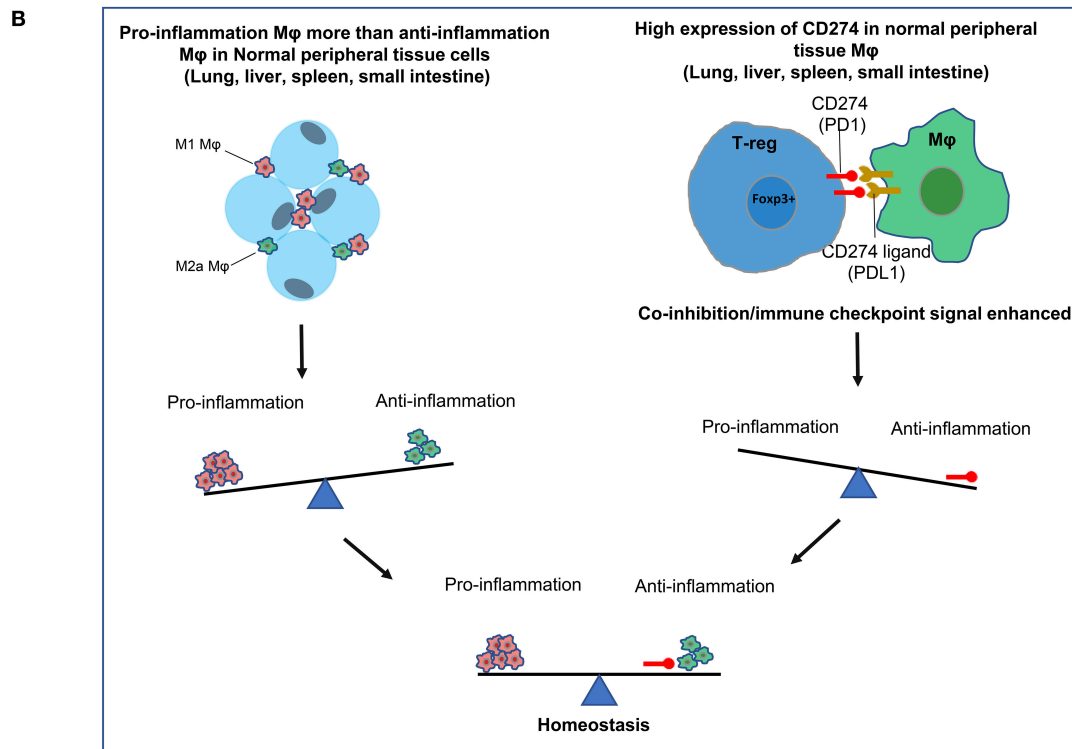
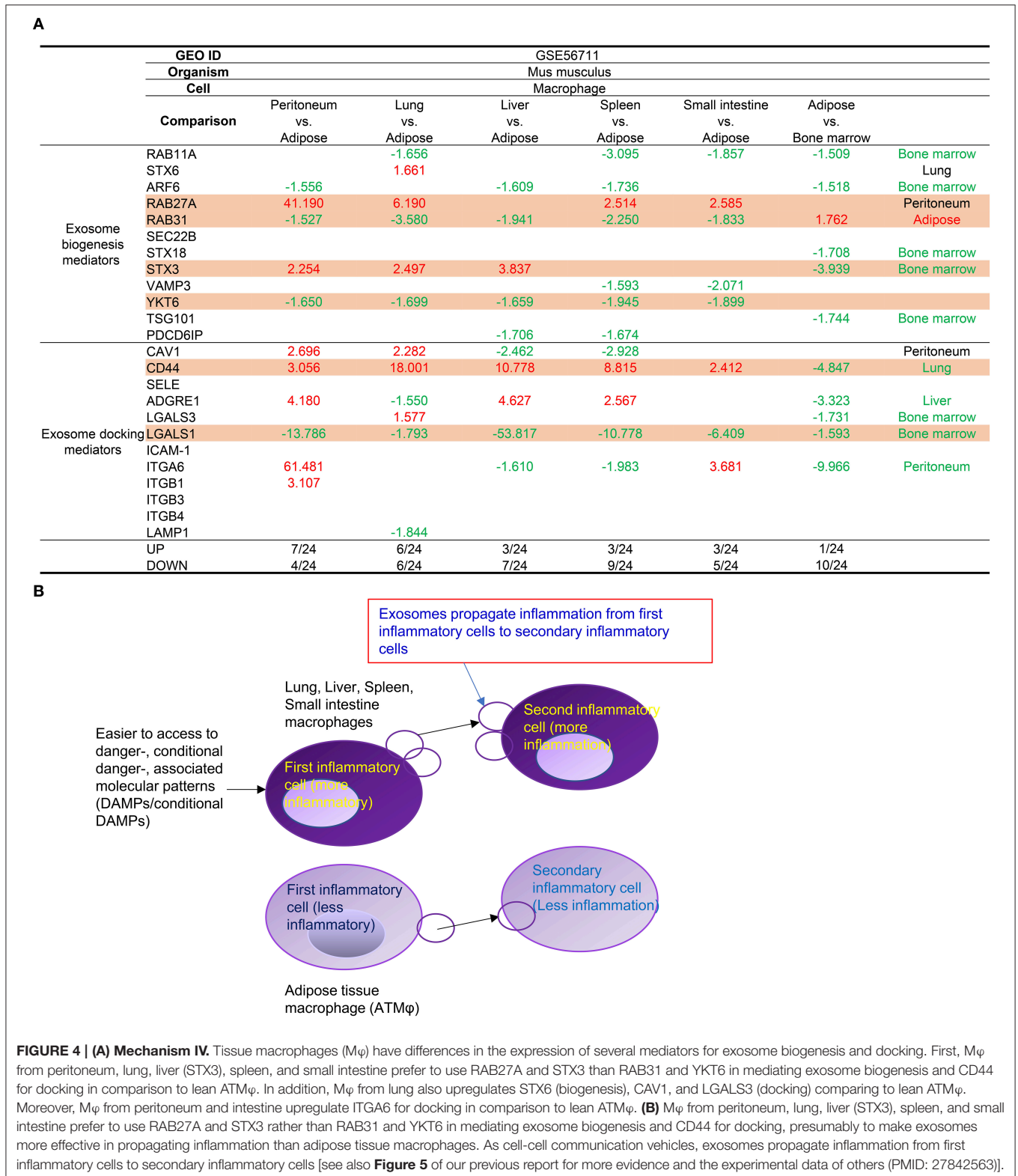


FIGURE 3 | Mechanism III: The macrophages (Mφ) from lung, liver, spleen, and intestine have differences in the expressions of T cell co-stimulation receptors, co-inhibition/immune checkpoint receptors, and dual-function receptors in comparison to that of ATMφ. **(A)** First, Mφ from lung, liver, spleen and intestine express CD274 much higher than adipose tissue macrophages; second, the Mφ from peritoneum and adipose tissue express lower levels of CD274 than that of bone marrow, suggesting that decreased expression of CD274 is a remarkable feature of adipose tissue macrophages; third, lung Mφ upregulates the expression of TNFSF9, SEMA4A (co-stimulation), and PDCD1LG2 in comparison to lean ATMφ; and fourth, liver Mφ upregulates TIMD4 (co-stimulation) and CD86 (dual) in comparison to lean ATMφ. **(B)** The proposed model of A.



adaptive immune system such as T cells have an antigen-specific memory function (64). However, recently it became clear that innate immune cells also have trained immunity

(innate immune memory) functions in the form of increases in three key metabolic pathways: glycolysis, acetyl-CoA synthesis, and the mevalonate pathway (65). Thus, in addition to the

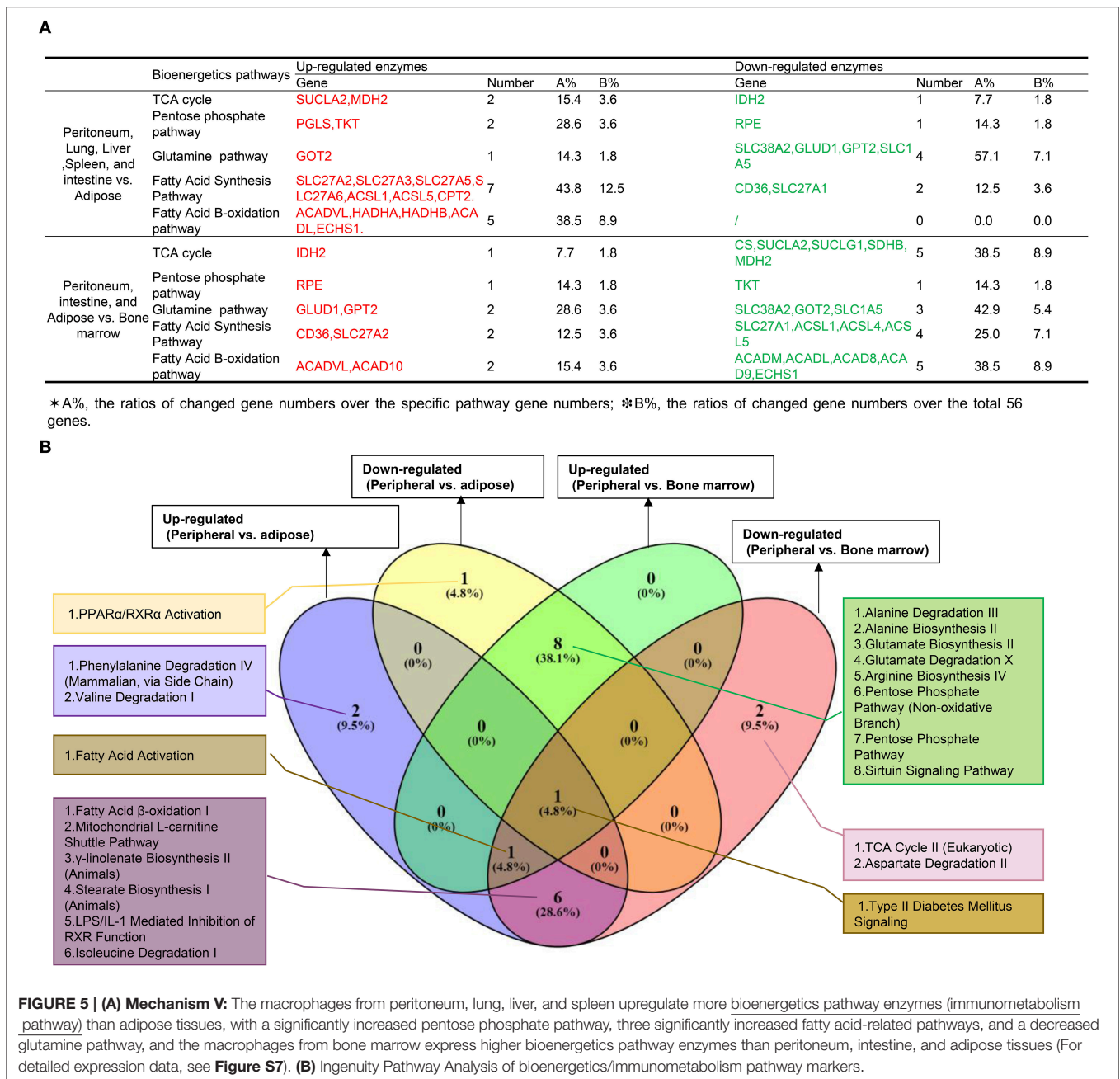


FIGURE 5 | (A) Mechanism V: The macrophages from peritoneum, lung, liver, and spleen upregulate more bioenergetics pathway enzymes (immunometabolism pathway) than adipose tissues, with a significantly increased pentose phosphate pathway, three significantly increased fatty acid-related pathways, and a decreased glutamine pathway, and the macrophages from bone marrow express higher bioenergetics pathway enzymes than peritoneum, intestine, and adipose tissues (For detailed expression data, see **Figure S7**). **(B)** Ingenuity Pathway Analysis of bioenergetics/immunometabolism pathway markers.

bioenergetics metabolic pathway analysis, we further examined whether tissue M ϕ have differences in the expression of trained immunity pathway enzymes. We hypothesize that the expression of trained immunity pathway enzyme genes in M ϕ from peripheral tissues such as lung, liver, spleen, and intestine is higher in than that of ATM ϕ . As shown in **Table 1**, we found that 24 enzymes are involved in three pathways of trained immunity functions including 14 enzymes in glycolysis, three enzymes in acetyl-CoA generation, and 7 enzymes in the mevalonate pathway (28, 66). As shown in **Figure 6A**, M ϕ in peritoneal, lung, liver, spleen, and intestine upregulate higher levels of 11 out of 24 enzymes in trained immunity pathways

in comparison to ATM ϕ . In addition, M ϕ in peritoneal and intestine and ATM ϕ upregulate 2 out of 24 enzymes and downregulate 14 out of 24 enzymes in comparison to BM M ϕ . The Ingenuity Pathway Analysis showed, as seen in **Figure 6B**, that the top two pathways involved in upregulation of trained immunity enzymes in M ϕ are LPS/IL-1-mediated inhibition of RXR function and stearate biosynthesis I. The top pathway shared by peripheral M ϕ and ATM ϕ upregulation enzymes is acetyl-CoA biosynthesis III. The two pathways among the top three pathways shared by peripheral M ϕ and BM M ϕ are the superpathway of cholesterol biosynthesis and mevalonate pathway I.

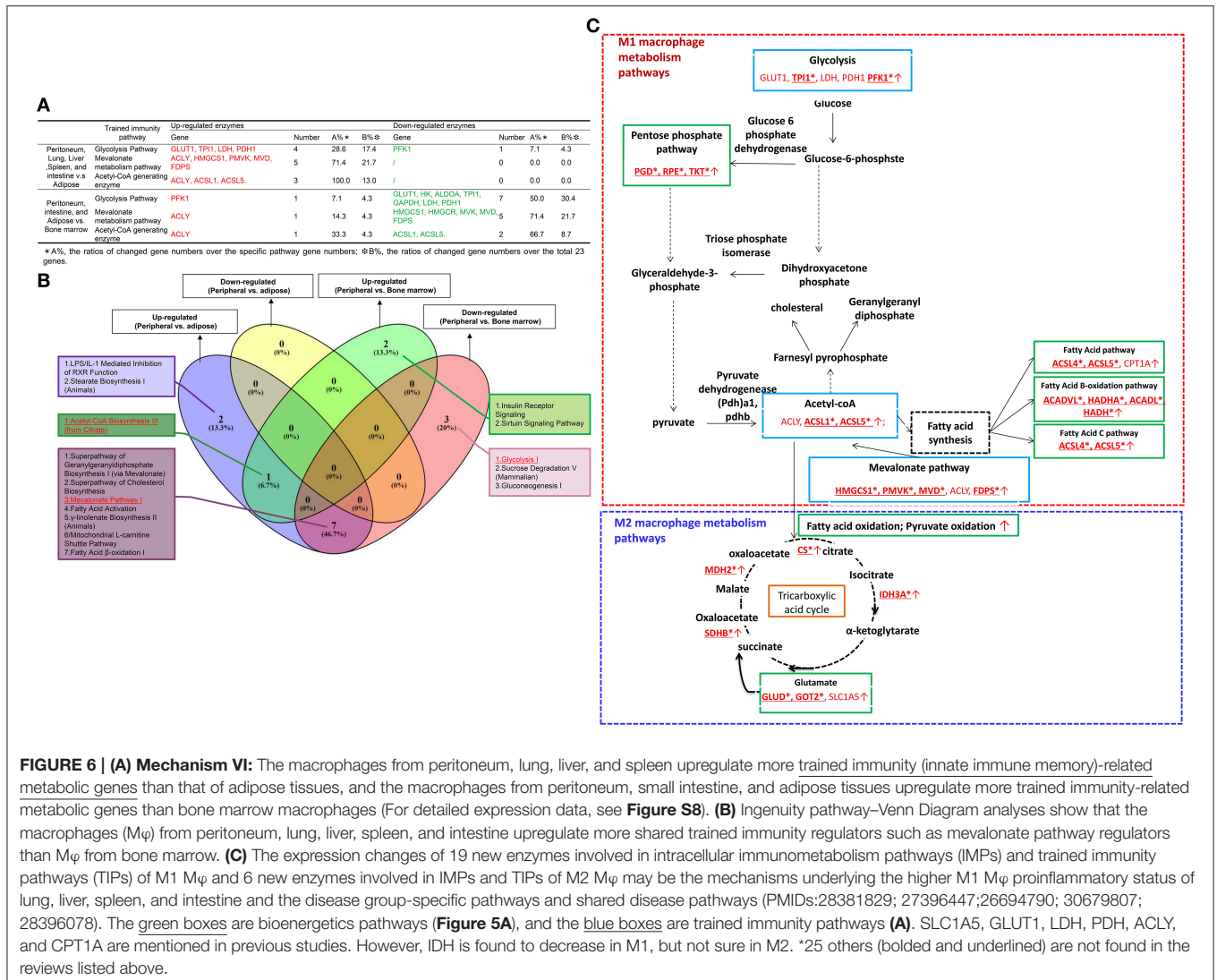


Figure 6C summarizes the findings from **Figure 5A** (in the green boxes) and **Figure 6A** (in the blue boxes) into a new map related to the M ϕ metabolic pathways identified in M1 and M2. We found that the 19 new enzyme expression changes (with *, bolded, and underlined) involved in immunometabolism pathways and trained immunity pathways may be the mechanisms underlying the higher M1 proinflammatory status of lung, liver, spleen, and intestine. Also, we found that six new enzyme changes in M2-related pathways may also be the mechanisms underlying the higher M2 anti-inflammatory status of adipose tissue M ϕ as well as the disease group-specific pathways and shared disease pathways.

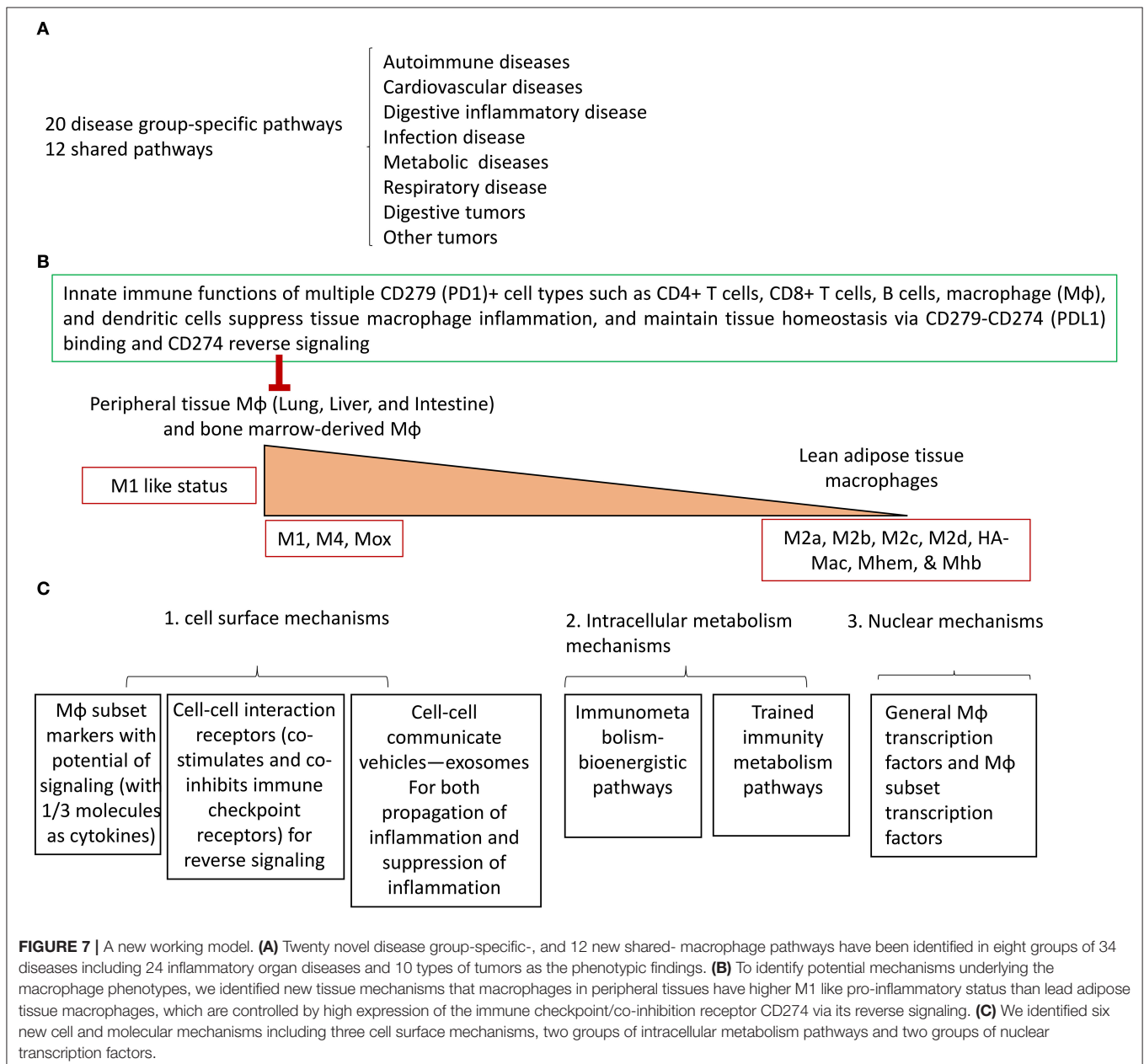
DISCUSSION

Macrophages play a key role in the pathogenesis of various diseases including cardiovascular diseases (13), metabolic diseases (14), infectious diseases (15), respiratory diseases (16), digestive diseases (17), autoimmune diseases (18), and many

types of cancers (19, 20). However, it remained unclear whether M ϕ use the same pathways and play the same roles or use disease-specific pathways and play disease-specific roles in addition to the shared genes and pathways. To address this question and also to identify the potential mechanisms underlying this issue, we performed a novel type of big-omics database mining analysis, which we pioneered in 2004 (30). We have made the following significant findings. (1) The expression of 31 M ϕ markers and 45 M ϕ TFs are modulated in eight groups comprising a total of 34 diseases including 10 types of cancers, and both shared and disease-specific pathways for each group of disease/tumor have been identified. To identify the potential mechanisms underlying the M ϕ heterogeneity related to disease-group-specific pathways, we examined several novel aspects of M ϕ . (2) The expression of M1 M ϕ markers is higher in M ϕ in lung, liver, spleen, and intestine compared to in lean adipose tissue M ϕ in physiological conditions. (3) Pro-adipogenic transcription factors C/EBP α and PPAR γ and proinflammatory adipokine leptin upregulate the expression of M1 M ϕ markers. Our results correlated

well with a recent report implicating a pleiotropic protein prohibitin in regulating adipose-immunometabolism (67). (4) Immunologically peripheral tissue $M\phi$ from lung, liver, spleen, intestine, and bone marrow express higher levels of T cell co-inhibition/immune checkpoint receptor CD274 (programmed death-ligand 1, PDL-1) among ten co-inhibition receptors than that of lean adipose tissues, presumably to counteract the M1 dominant status via its reverse signaling and high homeostatic and anti-inflammatory functions (52). Our results reveal a new mechanism underlying the toxicities of the anti-PD-1 and anti-PD-L1 immune checkpoint antibodies (68). (5) Tissue $M\phi$ from lung, liver, spleen, intestine, and bone marrow prefer to use RAB27A and STX3 than RAB31 and YKT6 in mediating

exosome biogenesis and docking, suggesting new inflammatory exosome markers and a new inflammatory exosome status for propagating inflammation from inflamed cells to secondary inflammatory cells as we reported previously (25). Our results correlated well with recent findings that inflammation leads to distinct populations of extracellular vesicles (69). (6) To address why $M\phi$ in peripheral tissues have a higher M1 status than those in adipose tissues, we found that $M\phi$ in peritoneal, lung, liver, spleen, and intestine upregulate higher levels of immunometabolism pathway enzymes than adipose tissue $M\phi$ (ATM ϕ). (7) To address the potential mechanism underlying the higher M1 proinflammatory status of $M\phi$ in peripheral tissues, we found that $M\phi$ from peritoneum, lung,



liver, and spleen upregulate more trained immunity (innate immune memory)-related metabolic genes than that of adipose tissues and that the macrophages from peritoneum, small intestine, and adipose tissues upregulate more trained immunity-related metabolic genes than bone marrow macrophages. Taken together, our results suggest that multiple mechanisms such as those at the cell surface including M1 M ϕ markers, cell-cell contact receptors, cell-cell communication exosomes, intracellular immunometabolism and trained immunity, and M ϕ nuclear transcription factors may be responsible for the disease group-specific pathways and shared pathways that we found in eight groups of 34 diseases.

Since CD274 reverse signaling works via its interaction with CD279 (PD1) expressed in CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, B cells, macrophages, and dendritic cells (70), these analyses emphasize the following. (1) CD279+ T cells (both CD4+ and CD8+) and B cells have significant innate immune functions in controlling CD274+ M ϕ proinflammatory status and maintaining tissue homeostasis in addition to having antigen-specific adaptive immune functions. (2) T cell co-stimulation and co-inhibition receptors serve as prototypic cell surface receptor-mediated cell-cell contact signaling in addition to classical signaling pathways from cytokine receptors, growth factor receptors, pathogen-associated molecular pattern receptors (PAMP-Rs), danger-associated molecular pattern receptors (DAMP-Rs), and conditional DAMP-Rs, as we reported previously (12). (3) Our results suggest a potential molecular mechanism underlying the clinical finding that elevated immune-related adverse effects (irAEs) of systematically injected anti-PD-L1 monoclonal antibody (mAb) (Durvalumab) in patients with cancers (71). Blocking CD274 reverse signaling could activate all the CD274+ tissue macrophages and contribute to elevated immune-related adverse effects (irAEs). (4) Since CD279 is also expressed in tumor-associated macrophages (TAMs) (72), our results also suggest a possibility that CD279-CD274 interaction on TAMs may suppress the anti-tumor functions of TAMs via reverse signaling.

To summarize our findings, we have proposed a new working model with three connected parts. **Figure 7A** illustrates the first part: based on the expression levels of two groups of 31 M ϕ subset markers (9) and 45 M ϕ transcription factors in the eight groups of 34 diseases (also see **Table 2**), we have identified for the first time 20 novel M ϕ disease group-specific pathways and 12 disease-shared pathways (shared in more than four major disease groups). These results have demonstrated two aspects for the first time. First, the pathogenesis of various diseases and tumors significantly modulates M ϕ signaling pathways in disease group-specific and shared manners. **Figure 7B** illustrates the second: the potential tissue mechanisms underlying the above-mentioned M ϕ heterogeneity in diseased conditions. Based on the differential expression of regulators including M1 markers, M1 TFs, co-stimulation and co-inhibition/immune checkpoint receptors, cell-cell communication exosome biogenesis machinery, M1 bioenergetic enzymes, and trained immunity enzymes, we proposed a new concept of tissue M1 M ϕ status. We found that first, M ϕ s in liver, small intestine, and bone marrow-derived M ϕ have the highest macrophage inflammation potential and, second,

adipose tissue from lean animals and surprisingly spleen have low M ϕ inflammation potential. Of note, white adipose tissue hypertrophy recruits significant numbers of inflammatory cells including M ϕ (73). The new data have demonstrated that various tissue M ϕ have significant differences in M1 proinflammatory status, which could be controlled by high expression of a co-inhibition receptor such as CD274 (PDL1)-initiated anti-inflammatory reverse signaling. It is noteworthy that each tissue has its own composition of embryonically derived and adult-derived M ϕ , but it is unclear whether the M ϕ of distinct origins are functionally interchangeable or have unique roles at steady state (74). These issues can be examined in the future when new microarray/RNA-sequencing (RNA-Seq) data are available. **Figure 7C** illustrates the third part of the model: three novel major cell/molecular mechanisms underlying the above-mentioned M ϕ heterogeneity in diseased conditions. The six novel cell and molecular mechanisms include three cell surface mechanisms (M ϕ subset markers with potential of signaling, cell-cell interaction receptors (co-stimulation and co-inhibition/immune checkpoint receptors), and inflammation-modulating cell-cell communication exosomes), two new metabolism mechanisms (the immunometabolism/bioenergetic and trained immunity metabolic pathways), and, finally, nuclear transcription factors. Taken together, the new tissue, cell, and molecular mechanisms may contribute to the novel M ϕ signaling heterogeneity in diseased conditions that we have found.

We acknowledge that carefully designed *in-vitro* and *in-vivo* experimental models will be needed to verify all the results we report here. These experimental models will enable the consolidation of the M ϕ disease group-specific pathways in various pathological conditions. However, the big data mining analyses that we pioneered in 2004 (30) have provided significant insights into the M ϕ disease group-specific and shared pathways and heterogeneity, homeostasis, and functions of M ϕ in various diseases and cancers/tumors and have also identified novel therapeutic targets for treating cancers/tumors and inflammation, tissue regeneration, and tissue repair.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Expression Profile of M ϕ Subset Markers, Exosome Biogenesis Mediators, Exosome Docking Mediators, Bioenergetic Pathway Enzymes, T Cell Co-stimulation and Co-inhibition Receptors, and M ϕ Transcription Factors in M ϕ s

Microarray datasets were collected from the National Institutes of Health (NIH)-National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) GEO DataSets (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gds/>) databases and analyzed with GEO2R (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/geo2r/>). The numbers of 11 GEO datasets in non-diseased conditions are as follows: GSE56711, GSE85346, GSE55760, GSE59585, GSE14004, GSE37514, GSE50183, GSE66073, GSE46320, GSE27017, and GSE56711. The numbers of 32 GEO datasets in diseased conditions are as follows: GSE55235, GSE81622, GSE27335, GSE57376, GSE46451,

GSE27411, GSE16879, GSE29507, GSE48080, GSE65517, GSE40224, GSE19339, GSE23561, GSE57691, GSE23561, GSE6088, GSE55100, GSE25724, GSE65204, GSE37768, GSE53408, GSE48080, GSE45670, GSE79973, GSE74656, GSE41657, GSE16515, GSE75037, GSE70951, GSE46602, GSE36668, and GSE75038. The number of the GEO dataset in gene knock-out mice is as follows: GSE40493.

As shown in **Figure 1**, 207 regulator genes in seven groups were studied in this paper, including 31 M ϕ subset marker genes, 18 M ϕ subset transcription factor genes (TF), 27 M ϕ general transcription factor genes (21), 28 T cell co-stimulation and co-inhibition receptor genes, bioenergetics pathway enzymes genes and trained immunity pathway gene numbers are totally 80. The logic flow and rationale are explained in **Figure 1** and **Table 2**. We also analyzed the expression of four house-keeping genes for all of the GEO datasets used. The house-keeping gene list was extracted from a related report (74).

Genes with a more than 1.5-fold expression change were defined as the upregulated genes, while genes with an expression change of less than 1.5-fold were defined as downregulated genes.

Ingenuity Pathway Analysis

We utilized Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA, Ingenuity Systems, http://pages.ingenuity.com/rs/ingenuity/images/IPA_data_sheet.pdf) to characterize clinical relevance and molecular and cellular functions related to the genes identified in our microarray analysis. The differentially expressed genes were identified and uploaded into IPA for analysis. The core and

pathways analysis was used to identify molecular and cellular pathways, as we reported previously (25, 75, 76).

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Publicly available datasets were analyzed in this study. This data can be found here: <https://4dgenome.research.chop.edu>, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gds/>.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

BL and JW carried out the data gathering and data analysis and prepared tables and figures. AF, YSu, JSa, YL, GN, WY, DY, YSh, CD, CJ, FS, RZ, QY, KX, KM, RC, HF, SW, LS, PZ, XQ, JY, DF, YHS, JSu, TR, EC, and HW aided with analysis of the data. XY supervised the experimental design, data analysis, and manuscript writing. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fimmu.2019.02612/full#supplementary-material>

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