

Studies on the stimulation of Atlantic salmon macrophage-like cells with emphasis on respiratory burst

—
Johanne Skår Ulvestad

Master's Thesis in Aqua Medicine (60 credits)
November 2017



Acknowledgements

Denne oppgaven ble utført ved Fakultetet for biovitenskap, fiskeri og økonomi ved Norges fiskerihøgskole, Universitet i Tromsø. Oppgaven ble påbegynt i februar 2016 og avsluttet i november 2017.

Først og fremst vil jeg takke min flinke hovedveileder Roy A. Dalmo for å ha gitt meg muligheten til å jobbe med denne spennende utfordringen, og for at du har veiledet meg trygt i havn. Din nysgjerrighet og ditt engasjement innenfor fagfeltet har vært til stor inspirasjon. Jeg vil også takke min bi-veileder Tore Seternes for gode faglige samtaler og gode idéer. Takk til Jaya Kumari for nyttig hjelp med qPCR og godt samarbeid på lab. En stor takk rettes også til Guro Strandskog for at du alltid har vært tålmodig og tatt deg tid til å hjelpe meg på lab, selv når du har vært meget opptatt med andre ting.

Tusen takk til mine fantastiske medstudenter. Dere har virkelig gjort de fem siste åra minneverdige. Jeg kommer til å savne å ha muligheten til å dele frustrasjon og glede med dere på masterkontoret, samt de kanskje litt for lange lunsjene vi har hatt i kantina de siste fem årene. Jeg gleder meg til å møte dere igjen både i og utenfor arbeidslivet.

Til slutt vil jeg takke min kjære mamma og pappa som alltid har støttet meg og oppmuntret meg gjennom studietiden. Takk til min kjære søster Eline og kjæreste Sigurd for at dere har fylt masterperioden med latter og motiverende ord.

Tromsø 14. november 2017

Johanne Skår Ulvestad

Abstract

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) production in macrophage-like cells is induced as an antimicrobial defence against invading pathogens. In this present study, we have explored how different stimuli and metabolic inhibitors affects the level of respiratory burst in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) head kidney macrophage-like cells. Cells stimulated *in vitro* by bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and β -glucan showed increased production of ROS compared to unstimulated cells. Both stimulation and co-stimulation by curdlan (β -glucan) induced a higher production of ROS compared to stimulation and co-stimulation by LPS. Metabolic inhibitors (developed for mammals) co-incubated with the stimulants did not, in most cases, perturb the level of ROS generation in the salmon macrophage-like cells. The NAD^+ content as well as the NAD^+/NADH ratio increased in curdlan, and LPS + curdlan stimulated cells compared to control cells, which indicated increased metabolic activity in the stimulated cells. Supporting these findings, gene analysis using SYBR green real-time quantitative PCR showed that the genes *Arignase-1* and *IL-1 β* were highly expressed in the stimulated cells.

Table of contents

1. Introduction.....	1
2 Materials & Methods	4
2.1 Reagents	4
2.2 Fish	4
2.3 Isolation and characterisation of macrophage-like cells.....	4
2.4 Stimulation of macrophage-like cells.....	5
2.4.1 Stimulation by LPS and curdlan	5
2.4.2 Co-incubation with metabolic inhibitors.....	5
2.5 Quantification of respiratory burst activity	6
2.6 Measurements of nitric oxide production.....	6
2.7 NAD ⁺ /NADH measurements	7
2.8 RT-qPCR of gene expression	7
2.8.1 Isolation of RNA and cDNA synthesis	7
2.8.2 RT- qPCR.....	7
2.8.3 Statistics	8
3 Results.....	9
3.1 Flow cytometry of isolated cells.....	9
3.2 Stimulation of macrophage-like cells by curdlan and LPS	9
3.3 Repeated stimulation and dose relationship	10
3.4 Effect of metabolic inhibitors on respiratory burst.....	12
3.5 Measurements of nitric oxide production.....	14
3.6 NAD ⁺ /NADH measurements	14
4 Discussion	16
4.1 Isolation and characterisation of head kidney cells.....	16
4.2 Stimulation of macrophage-like cells.....	16
4.3 Effect of metabolic inhibitors on respiratory burst.....	16
4.4 NAD ⁺ and NADH.....	19
4.5 Gene expression after LPS and curdlan stimulation.....	20
5 Conclusion	21
References.....	22
Supplementary materials.....	27

1 Introduction

Bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (often called bacterial endotoxin) is composed of lipid and carbohydrate moieties, the latter extruding from the outer cell membrane. The carbohydrate moiety (O-antigen) serves important applications with respect to serotyping of bacteria within a species allowing discrimination between different subspecies. LPS may induce immune responses in fish, even though the lipopolysaccharide receptor, toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) appears to be absent in most fish species (Palti, 2011). Since the classical TLR4 is absent, other LPS recognising receptors that confers signalling events must exist, as suggested by Sepulcre et al. (2009). It may likely be other pattern recognition receptors or members of the large superfamily of scavenger receptors (Seternes et al., 2001, Canton et al., 2013, Li et al., 2017).

β -glucans are a heterogeneous group of homo-polysaccharides consisting of glucose monomers with β 1-3 or/and β 1-6 linkages in the backbone. They may be termed immunostimulants since they may modulate the host immune response (Bricknell and Dalmo, 2005). In nature, β -glucans are widespread and are found in plants, algae, bacteria, yeast and mushrooms. β -glucans from various sources possess differences in molecular weights and degree of branching, rendering them to be fully or moderate aqueous soluble or even insoluble (Dalmo and Bogwald, 2008). It is acknowledged that the specific receptors for β -glucans is dectin-1 that belongs to the scavenger receptor family (PrabhuDas et al., 2017). As for TLR4, the gene for dectin-1 has not been found in any fish species yet, thus it is speculated that receptors such as TLR-2, complement receptor 3 or not yet identified lectins (sugar binding proteins) may be responsible for binding and intracellular signaling (Petit and Wiegertjes, 2016). It has been shown that fish macrophages respond to perturbation using “danger” signals such as LPS and β -glucans with increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and pro-inflammatory molecules (Dalmo and Seljelid, 1995, Novoa et al., 1996, Solem et al., 1995, Castro et al., 1999, Neumann et al., 2001, Cook et al., 2001, Tahir and Secombes, 1996). Activation of cells by certain “danger” signals induces production of molecules that may enable researchers to distinguish different mammalian macrophage subsets; e.g. pro-inflammatory M1 polarised macrophages and immune suppressive M2 macrophages (Murray et al., 2014). The M1 and M2 dichotomy (also termed classical and alternatively activated macrophages) has also been applied to fish macrophages (Joerink et al., 2006a, Buchmann, 2014, Wiegertjes et al., 2016a, Edholm et al., 2017, Nguyen-Chi et al., 2015, Forlenza et al., 2011, Hodgkinson et al., 2015), even though considerable macrophage heterogeneity exists. Indeed, many more subsets than the original

classical M1 and M2 paradigm has been described in certain mammalian species (Murray et al., 2014).

It has been documented, in some mammalian species, that both LPS and β -glucans activate, via initial receptor binding, the Akt kinase (protein kinase B/serine-threonine-specific protein kinase) downstream of phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) in monocytes / macrophages / dendritic cells. In case of LPS, it may bind to TLR4 in the cell membrane that interacts with the signalling entity MyD88; which activate several pathways, one of them being the RIP-PI3K-Akt pathway (Bauerfeld et al., 2012, McGuire et al., 2013, Saponaro et al., 2012). RIP is a death domain kinase receptor interacting protein 1. This pathway is of vital importance during cell metabolism (Covarrubias et al., 2015). Curdlan, a linear β -glucan, may bind to different receptors such as dectin-1, TLR4, complement receptor 3 and scavenger receptors where activation of Akt is one of the signalling mechanisms involved following curdlan stimulation of cells (Kim et al., 2016). The Akt kinase 1, 2 and 3 are activated by phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K); which previously have been activated by tyrosine kinase receptors (e.g. cell membrane receptors containing tyrosine kinase motifs) by different ligands (Vivanco and Sawyers, 2002) such as LPS (Okutani et al., 2006, Saponaro et al., 2012). Akt are recruited to the plasma membrane in cells stimulated with e.g. growth factors, cytokines, and some danger signals (Fayard et al., 2010, Manning and Cantley, 2007). Akt kinases associates with PIP3 (phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate; product of PI3K), this event phosphorylates Akt. PI3K generates metabolites that may activate Akt and protein kinase C- ζ (PKC- ζ), this transcription factor may in turn, under certain inflammatory circumstances, induce respiratory burst and modulate Akt activity (Cosentino-Gomes et al., 2012). PMA (phorbol 12- myristate 13-acetate) may directly target PKC isoforms (Chang and Beezhold, 1993) both in mammalian immune cells, and also in fish leucocytes and macrophage-like cells (Burnett and Schwarz, 1994, Olavarria et al., 2010). Mechanistic target of rapamycin complex (mTORC) is a serine/threonine kinase of the PI3K family. In addition to its function in the regulation of cellular metabolism, mTORC has been shown to be involved in the regulation of both innate and adaptive immune responses. Following stimulation of cells with e.g. growth factors and cytokines, signalling events lead to generation of mTORC2 that activates (phosphorylates) Akt that subsequently activates mTORC1; which regulates the glucose transport, thus glycolysis (Soliman, 2013) and ROS production - as also activation of mTORC2 may do (Chen et al., 2008).

During e.g. infection, changed local microenvironments by virtue of oxygen tension, accessibility of metabolites and nutrients may be challenging for the immune cells, especially innate immune cells such as macrophages. During activation of macrophages by e.g. danger signals, the cells may undergo substantial changes with respect to metabolism to support cell growth, proliferation, functional transition and synthesis and release of molecules. This requires metabolic adaptation to new microenvironments. Activated macrophages may have increased glycolytic activity, utilizing glucose, glutamine and fatty acids to support the increased energy demand, reduced oxidative phosphorylation activity (hence reducing the formation of ATP) and modified TCA cycle activity (Kelly and O'Neill, 2015, Langston et al., 2017). These features are reminiscent of the known Warburg effect (Kelly and O'Neill, 2015). Aerobic metabolism produces ATP, which is the key energy molecule from glycolysis and from TCA cycle and oxidative phosphorylation – through intermediates such as NADH and FADH. These two reducing agents provide electrons, in the form of hydride anions, to the electron transport chain of oxidative phosphorylation. The third energy generating process is metabolism of fatty acid oxidation that yields acetyl-CoA, NADH and FADH₂ that goes in the TCA cycle and also into the oxidative phosphorylation. Resting immune cells are relatively metabolically inactive, with minimal biosynthetic demands beyond housekeeping processes (Gaber et al., 2017). During the response, this activated macrophage phenotype produces pro-inflammatory molecules, reactive oxygen metabolites (ROS) and nitric oxide (Iles and Forman, 2002, Beyer et al., 2012, Mosser and Edwards, 2008). Even though not as studied as in mammalian species, the principle of macrophage activation has been suggested to be similar in fish (Hodgkinson et al., 2015, Boltana et al., 2017, MacKenzie et al., 2006). But macrophage metabolism during activation of fish macrophages has not been studied before, nor has the dependence of the metabolism on the formation of ROS from the respiratory burst activation been explored. The objective of the current study was to examine the formation of ROS and NAD⁺/NADH upon stimulation with LPS and curdlan (β-glucan), and to study how different metabolic inhibitors affect the generation of ROS. In addition, we assessed the expressions of marker genes potentially discriminating M1 and M2 macrophages – by means of quantitative real time PCR.

2 Materials & Methods

2.1 Reagents

Roy A. Dalmo (University of Tromsø) kindly provided ultrapure bacterial lipopolysaccharide from *Aeromonas salmonicida* spp. *salmonicida* and curdlan (*Alcaligenes faecalis*). Chemicals were from SigmaAldrich if not specified.

All the steps from cell isolation, centrifugation, cell maintenance and stimulation were carried out using Leibovitz's L-15 Medium (L-15) (Gibco) supplemented with 60 µg penicillin ml⁻¹ and 100 µg streptomycin ml⁻¹. However, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (Gibco) was used in the experiment involving metabolic inhibition – since L-15 contains pyruvate, a co-factor in the glycolysis. Approximately 5% CO₂ was supplied to cells incubated in DMEM.

2.2 Fish

The Aquaculture Research Station in Kårvika provided the non-vaccinated Atlantic salmon used in this study. Being fed commercial dry feed at frequencies recommended by the feed producer (Skretting, Norway), the size of the fish varied from 300 g – 1100 g during the two years this study lasted. The fish were kept in tanks at ambient temperature (3-12 °C) with a constant flow of seawater. The fish for cell isolation had priority been analysed clinically, and by RT-qPCR analysis for any presence of pathogens. The Norwegian Animal Health Authority approved the use of fish for experimental purpose – to be compliance with the Animal Welfare Act.

2.3 Isolation and characterisation of macrophage-like cells

Macrophage-like cells from the head kidney were isolated using a Percoll-gradient, as described by Braun-Nesje et al. (1981), with some modifications.

In short, the head kidney was aseptically removed from the fish into a tube (Falcon) of cell medium (L-15) supplemented with, penicillin (60 µg ml⁻¹), streptomycin (100 µg ml⁻¹), 2 % fetal bovine serum (FBS) and heparin (20 U/ml) (LEO Pharma, Denmark). The head kidney and the contents of the tube were then meshed through a cell strainer (100 µm) (Falcon), layered onto a 25%/54% percoll (GE healthcare, Sweden) density gradient and centrifuged at 400x g at

4 °C for 40 minutes. The cloudy macrophage-enriched layer that appeared in the interface between the two gradients were collected and washed twice in L-15 by centrifugation (15 min and 10 min at 450 x g respectively). The cell suspension was diluted in L-15 containing 1 % FBS to achieve a cell number of 5×10^6 cells per ml. Thereafter, 100 μ l of the cell suspension was transferred to wells in 96-well plates (Nunc, Denmark). To allow the macrophages to adhere the plates were incubated overnight at 16 °C.

Freshly isolated cells were analysed by flow cytometry using a BD FACS Aria III (BD Biosciences, USA) flow cytometer. Dot blots of forward against side scatter were generated by BD FACSDiva™ (BD Biosciences) and three regions were overlaid (R2, R3, and R4). R2 represented the small cells with little granularity, R3 the small-to-medium sized and medium granular cells, whereas the R4 region contained dot blots from detection of medium sized and granulated cells.

2.4 Stimulation of macrophage-like cells

Approximately 24 hours after seeding, the cells were washed with cell medium, causing removal of non-adherent cells. The remaining adherent cells were cultivated in cell medium with antibiotics.

2.4.1 Stimulation by LPS and curdlan

If otherwise not specified the concentrations of LPS and curdlan remained at 1 μ g ml⁻¹ and 10 μ g ml⁻¹ respectively. LPS and curdlan were solubilized by microwave treatment (probe sonication) in required cell medium containing penicillin (60 μ g ml⁻¹) and streptomycin (100 μ g ml⁻¹) to achieve the desired concentrations. The cells were stimulated approximately 24 hours after isolation – where the cells were stimulated with either LPS or curdlan or a combination of both. The re-stimulation of the cells did occur 24 h after the first stimulation. The control cells were cultivated in cell medium only.

2.4.2 Co-incubation with metabolic inhibitors

In two sets of experiments, stimulated cells were co-incubated with metabolic inhibitors. The inhibitors were Akt 1/2 inhibitor (Tocris Bioscience, UK), Oligomycin A (Merckmillipore, Germany), Rapamycin (Selleckchem, Germany), 2-deoxyglucose (Carbosynth MD, UK), Dactolisib (Selleckchem) and Wortmannin (LC Laboratories, USA). The inhibitors were given

at a concentration of 100 nM, except 2-deoxyglucose, which were given in a concentration of 100 μ M. These concentrations were selected based on literature studies and from dose-response studies where their effects on the respiratory burst were assayed (Supplementary figure 1). The cells were incubated for approximately 48 hours after the addition of the metabolic inhibitors. Then, the cells were assayed for their respiratory burst activity (cf. 2.5).

2.5 Quantification of respiratory burst activity

To quantify the generation of ROS in macrophages, the respiratory burst assay described by Solem et al. (1995) was followed. In general, the cells were stimulated with LPS or/and curdlan for 24 h or 48 h before the assay was started. The cells were washed in PBS before addition of a solution containing 20 mg nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) (Sigma Aldrich) and 20 μ l phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) (1 mg ml⁻¹) in PBS. The cells were incubated for 40-50 min at 16 °C, and thereafter fixed with 70 % methanol. To solve the formazan crystals, a solution of 120 μ l KOH (2 M) and 140 μ l dimethylsulfoxid (DMSO) was added and mixed well together. The OD was measured at 620 nm in an ELISA reader (VersaMax ELISA microplate reader, USA).

2.6 Measurements of nitric oxide production

The amount of produced nitric oxide (NO) was measured according to the Griess assay described by Wu and Yotnda (2011). The formation of nitric oxide was assayed one and two days after stimulation. In short, a standard curve was made by a 1:2 serial dilution of “blank” L-15 (with no phenol red added) and 100 μ M nitrite (Alfa Aesar, Germany), followed by addition of a solution made of 1 % sulphanilamide (Alfa Aesar) in 5 % phosphoric acid (Alfa Aesar). After stimulation, 50 μ l of the cell medium from each well were transferred to wells in a new 96-well plate, where 50 μ l of the sulphanilamide solution was added to each well. The plates were incubated for 10 minutes at room temperature before 50 μ l of N-1-naptylethylenediamine dichloride (Alfa Aesar) was added to each well. The plates were incubated as described earlier. Thereafter OD was measured at 520 nm.

2.7 $NAD^+/NADH$ measurements

The kit “Amplite Fluorometric $NAD^+/NADH$ Ratio Assay Kit” from AAT Bioquest (USA) was used to calculate the $NAD^+/NADH$ ratio in the control and stimulated cells. The procedure was completed as described in the protocol from the manufacturer.

In short, a standard curve was made with a dilution ratio of 1:2. The test samples were tested for total NAD^+ and $NADH$, and NAD^+ alone; the two groups of cell samples were therefore given different extraction solutions. To detect total $NAD^+/NADH$ the cells were given a $NAD^+/NADH$ control solution, while both $NADH$ and NAD^+ extraction solution were given to the cells to be assayed for NAD^+ . In the end, a $NADH$ reaction mixture was added to yield the standard curve, the total $NADH$ plus NAD^+ and NAD^+ in control cells and the test samples. The OD was measured at 576 nm in an ELISA reader.

2.8 RT-qPCR of gene expression

To determine the levels of gene expression, SYBR green real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) were used for gene expression analysis.

2.8.1 Isolation of RNA and cDNA synthesis

Macrophage-like cells from the head kidney were isolated and treated with LPS and curdlan for 48 hours before harvested. The cells were lysed in a RLT-buffer containing 2-mercaptoethanol and kept at -80°C . RNA was isolated using *RNeasy Mini Kit* by Qiagen (Germany) - according to the manufacturer’s guidelines. The yield and purity of the RNA was determined using a Nanodrop (Nano-Drop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA). The samples having $OD_{260/280}$ values between 1.9 and 2.1 was processed further. To avoid the risk of having contaminating DNA, interfering with the assay, in the samples - the samples were pre-treated with DNase I ($1\text{ U } \mu\text{g}^{-1}$ RNA; Invitrogen, USA). To synthesize first-strand cDNA, a SuperScript III RNase reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) was used, as described by Kumari et al. (2015).

2.8.2 RT- qPCR

The qPCR was performed in triplicates from samples obtained from three fish using ABI PRISM 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems) using Fast SYBR[®] Green

(Applied Biosystems). The procedure was the same as described by Kumari et al. (2015). In short, the reaction mixtures were incubated at 95 °C (10 min), thereafter, 40 cycles of 95 °C (15 s), 60 °C (1 min) and 95 °C for 15 seconds. Amplifications were specific in all cases, and amplification was not observed in any of the negative controls (non-template control). The relative quantification method by Pfaffl (Pfaffl, 2001) was used to convert the Ct values for each sample into fold differences. The most stable reference gene was *EF-1 α* , hence, gene expression was normalized by this gene in each sample. The primers used in this study are listed in table 1.

Table 1: Sequences of primers used for RT-PCR analysis.

Gene	Primer	Oligonucleotide sequence (5'-3')	Ampl icon (bp)	GenBank acc. no.	R ²	% Efficiency (E)
<i>EF-1α</i>	For Rev	TCGTTTTGCTGTGCGTGAC CAGACTTTGTGACCTTGCCG	98	AF308735	0,996	99,86
<i>IL-10</i>	For Rev	CTGTTGGACGAAGGCATTCTAC GTGGTTGTTCTGCGTTCTGTTG	129	EF165028	0,996	106
<i>TNF-α</i>	For Rev	TGTCCATCAAGCCACTACACTC GCACTCACACACCCTGTCATT	129	BT049358	0,994	87,7
<i>IL-1β</i>	For Rev	GCTGGAGAGTGCTGTGGAAGA TGCTTCCCTCCTGCTCGTAG	73	AY617117	0,996	103,7
<i>Arginase -1</i>	For Rev	AGCCATGCGTATCAGCCAA AAGGCGATCCACCTCAGTCA	122	EG929369	0,994	99,99
<i>HIF-1 α</i>	For Rev	GCTCAGAAAGTCGGTTGTCC GCCAGCTCGTAGAACACCTC	132	NM_00114002 2.1	0,987	92,47
<i>GLUT-1</i>	For Rev	CGCCAGCCCATCTTCATC GAAAACAGCGTTGATGCCAGA	69	AF247728	0,998	107,6

2.8.3 Statistics

All the experiments were carried out in a duplicate or triplicate fashion (except cell stimulation followed by qPCR), with at least three technical replicates. Statistical analysis was performed using one-tailed, paired Student's T-test. QPCR: The data was log-transformed and analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Thereafter, Tukey's test was completed using

SPSS 25.0 software. In all experiments, statistically significance between the datasets (treatments) were considered if $p < 0.05$.

3 Results

3.1 Flow cytometry of isolated cells

The ratio of salmon head kidney cell subpopulations used for *in vitro* studies was evaluated by flow cytometry right before seeding. Approximately 77 % of the cells were small to medium granulated and sized (Fig. 1) (R: 2-4; small to medium forward- and side scatter (FSC and SSC)), resembling lymphocytes and macrophage-like cells at different developmental stages while the rest was evaluated to be other cells and debris (Fig. 1). The proportion of macrophage-like cells (medium FSC and SSC) from R: 3-4 was found to be approximately 56 % (Fig. 1).

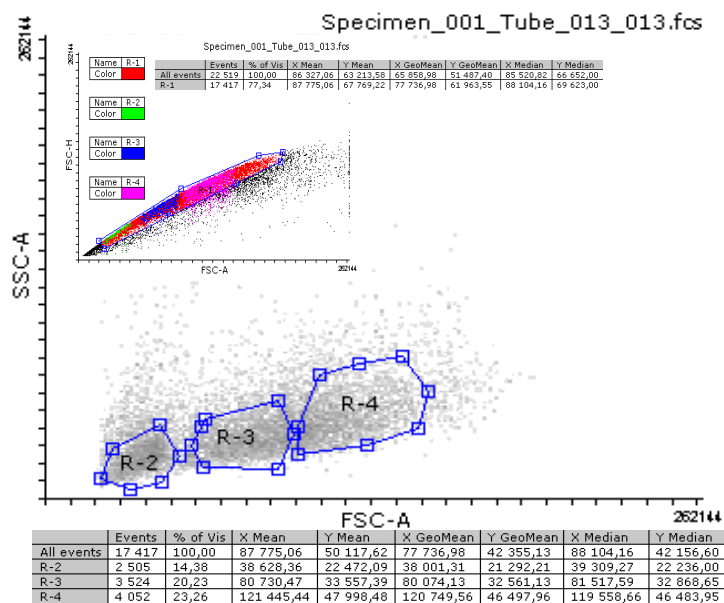


Figure 1: Flow cytometry of salmon head kidney cells obtained right after the gradient centrifugation and subsequent washing. The flow cytometry was performed on cells from one fish.

3.2 Stimulation of macrophage-like cells by curdlan and LPS

Both LPS ($1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) ($p=0.01$) and curdlan ($10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) ($p=0.07$) increased intracellular respiratory burst activity of PMA-elicited salmon macrophages – measured as the formation of superoxide anion oxidising NBT to formazan (Fig. 2).

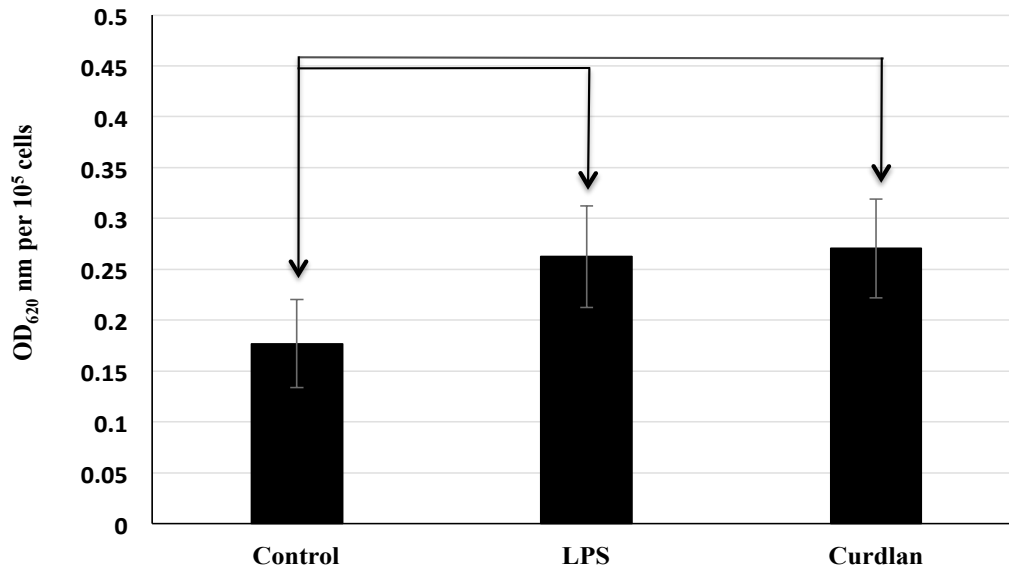


Figure 2: The formation of superoxide anion assayed by the NBT method. Cells were stimulated with *A. salmonicida* LPS (1 µg ml⁻¹) and curdlan (10 µg ml⁻¹) for one day, and the respiratory burst activity of PMA elicited macrophages was analyzed. The result is a representative of triplicate analysis, whereas the values are means of at least three replicate analyses (±SD). The horizontal lines connected with arrows indicate statistically significant differences.

3.3 Repeated stimulation and dose relationship

To establish whether repeated stimulation with these two immunostimulants would further increase the respiratory burst activity compared to control cells, the cells were stimulated with one of these two stimulants for one day, and subsequently re-stimulated with the same or another stimulant for one more day. The superoxide generation in cells stimulated with LPS and re-stimulated with curdlan ($p=0.05$), and in cells that underwent twice curdlan stimulation ($p=0.02$) was significantly higher than in control cells (Fig 3A and 3B respectively). No significant differences were found between the other stimulation regimes.

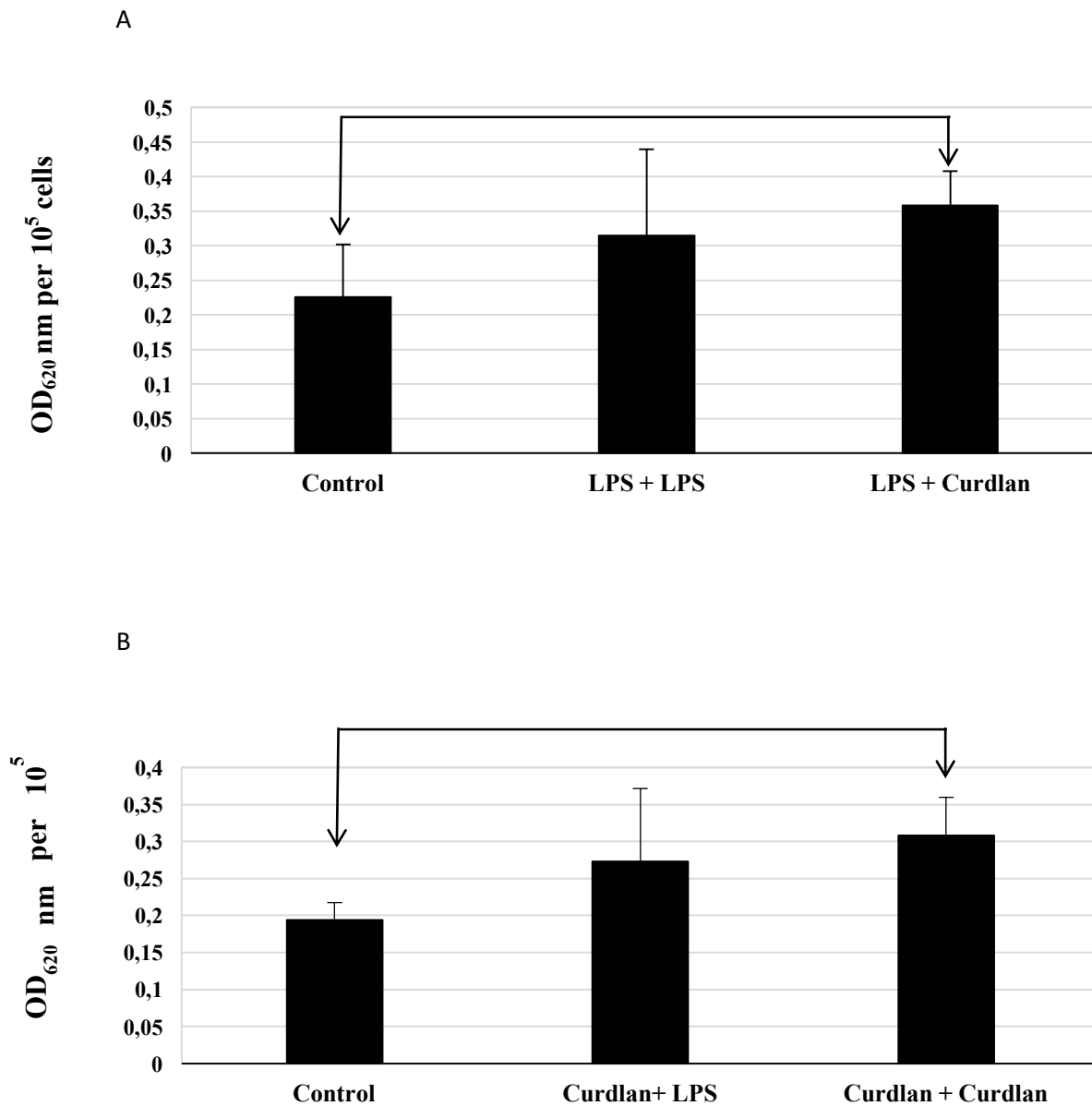


Figure 3 A and B: The formation of superoxide anion assayed by the NBT method. Cells were stimulated with *A. salmonicida* LPS ($1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (A) or curdlan ($10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (B) for one day, then repeatedly with LPS or curdlan stimulants the next day. The respiratory burst activity of PMA-elicited macrophages was analysed. The result is a representative of triplicate analysis, whereas the values are means of at least three technical replicates (\pm SD). The horizontal lines connected with arrows indicate statically significant differences.

Since the re-stimulation experiments using fixed doses of LPS ($1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) and curdlan ($10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) appeared not to induce significant increased formation of superoxide anion compared to what obtained from single stimulations, we were interested to see whether this was due to a dose-relationship phenomenon. Thus, the cells were firstly stimulated with curdlan (1 , 10 and $100 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) for one day and then re-stimulated with fixed doses of curdlan and LPS (10 and $1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$, respectively) the day after (Fig. 4).

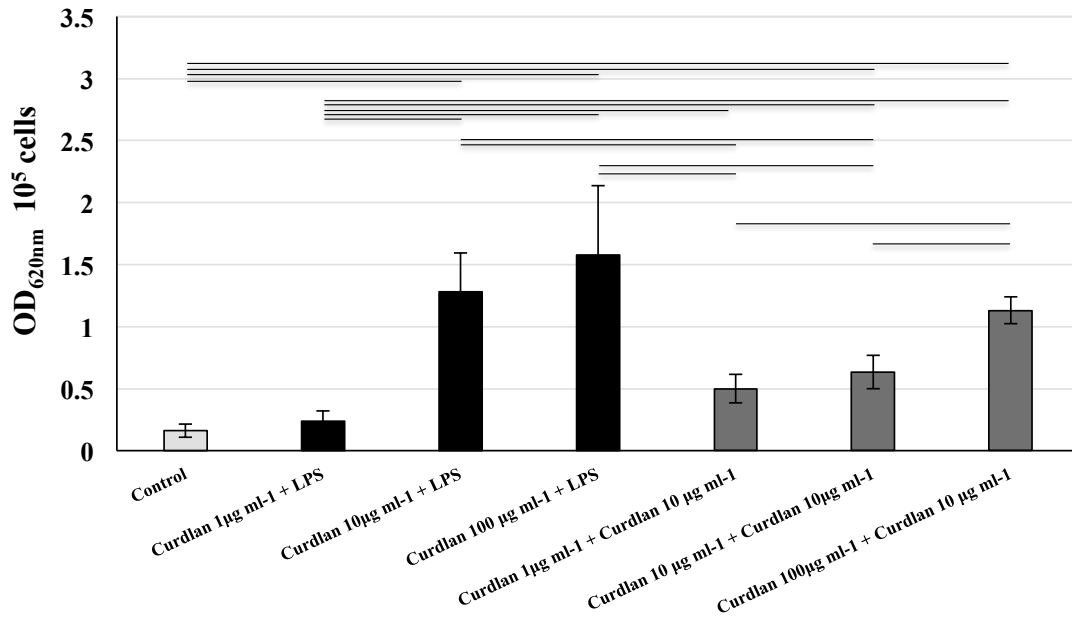


Figure 4: Dose-relationship by repeated stimulation. The cells were incubated with different doses of curdlan (1-100 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) for 24h; subsequently the cells were washed and subjected to a second dose of fixed amount of either curdlan (10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) or LPS (1 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$). The result is a representative of duplicate analysis, whereas the values are means of at least three technical replicates (\pm SD). The horizontal lines connected indicate statically significant differences.

The results revealed that stimulation with 100 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ curdlan for 24h and subsequent 1 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ LPS (24h) induced significantly higher ROS generation compared to control cells and cells stimulated with the other combinations ($p < 0.05$), except cells stimulated with curdlan (10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) and LPS (Fig. 4). Cells pre-stimulated with curdlan (10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) followed by LPS produced significant more ROS than control cells ($p < 0.05$), cells stimulated with 1 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ curdlan + LPS, and cells stimulated twice with curdlan (1 +10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ and 10 + 10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) (Fig. 4). Cells pre-stimulated with 100 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ curdlan followed by curdlan stimulation (10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) showed significantly more ROS generation compared to cells stimulated with 1 +10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ curdlan. and 10 + 10 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ curdlan.

3.4 Effect of metabolic inhibitors on respiratory burst

Metabolic inhibitors may alter the cells ability to produce superoxide anion via respiratory burst. Hence, we co-incubated different metabolic inhibitors together with stimulants and evaluated their effects on the respiratory burst activity. We included inhibitors against glucose uptake (2-deoxyglucose), PI3K (wortmannin, dactolisib), Akt 1/2 (Akt 1/2 inhibitor), complex V in the electron transport chain (mitochondria) (oligomycin A) and mTORC (rapamycin). (Unfortunately, we were not able to include wortmannin and dactolisib in the main experiment).

In the dose response study where LPS and curdlan-stimulated cells were co-incubated with each inhibitor, only 2-deoxyglucose, rapamycin and wortmannin resulted in a dose dependent decrease in superoxide anion formation by increased inhibitor concentration (1nM - 1 μ M) (Supplementary figure 1). The Akt 1/2 inhibitor resulted in an increase of respiratory burst at 100 nM compared to a lower (1-10nM) and a higher (1 μ M) concentration of Akt 1/2 inhibitor (Supplementary figure 1). We were interested to see how the inhibitors affected cells when co-incubated with LPS and curdlan. The Akt 1/2 inhibitor (100 nM) significantly decreased the formation of superoxide anion in cells stimulated with LPS compared to cells without the inhibitor ($p=0.03$) (Fig. 5), whereas no significant inhibition of superoxide formation in cells stimulated with curdlan alone or LPS + curdlan. Oligomycin A (100 nM) and rapamycin (100 nM), in general, increased respiratory burst activation – even in non-stimulated cells ($p=0.04$ and $p<0.0001$, respectively). The highest increase in superoxide anion formation was found in cells stimulated with LPS + rapamycin ($p<0.0001$) and LPS + curdlan + 2-deoxyglucose ($p=0.002$). The glucose transport inhibitor, 2-deoxyglucose (100 μ M), also increased the formation of superoxide anion when co-incubated with LPS ($p=0.03$), but decreased the respiratory burst activation when the cells were incubated with curdlan ($p=0.0001$) (Fig. 5).

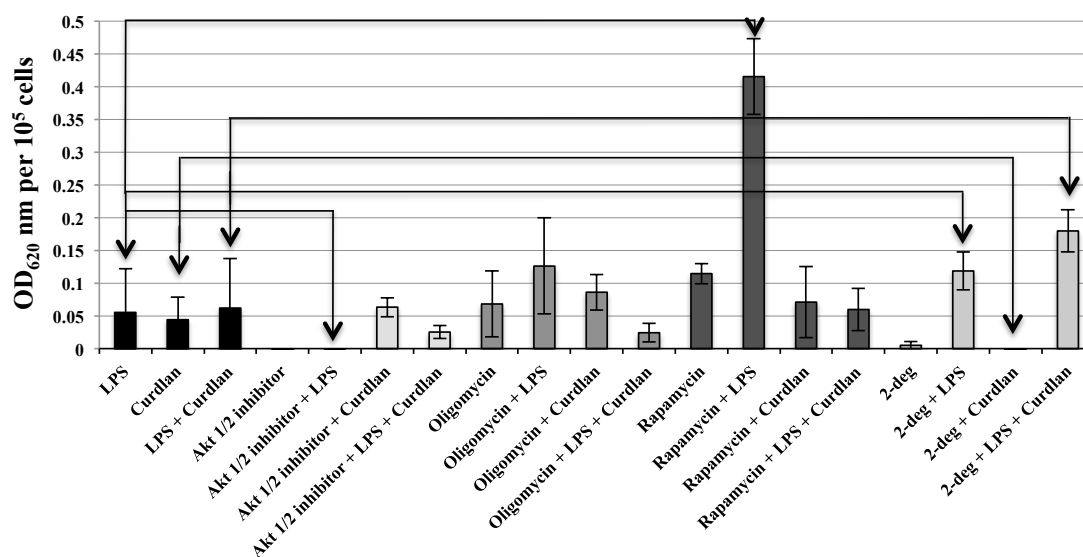


Figure 5: The effect of metabolic inhibitors on the formation of superoxide anion. Macrophages were co-incubated with Akt 1/2 inhibitor, oligomycin A, rapamycin and 2-deoxyglucose for two days, subsequently the cells were assayed for their content of superoxide anion by the NBT method. A representative experiment is presented from duplicate experiment; the number of technical replicates was four or more. Horizontal lines connected with arrows denote statistical significance.

3.5 Measurements of nitric oxide production

The quantification of produced nitric oxide in macrophage-like cells did not give any results. After the Griess assay and incubation time was completed, there were no colour change in the cell samples. Due to the lack of colour change, there was no difference in the OD values between the blank controls and test samples.

3.6 $NAD^+/NADH$ measurements

The $NAD^+/NADH$ ratio may differ between resting and activated cells; activated cells may have increased ratio. After stimulation of macrophages for two days with curdlan ($10 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$), curdlan + LPS ($1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) the $NAD^+/NADH$ ratio increased 2.3 -and 1.5-fold, respectively. The “opposite” was found when we calculated the ratio for LPS stimulated cells (Fig. 6). This ratio turned out to be negative since the OD value in the reaction mixture was lower than for zero-controls calculated from the standard curve.

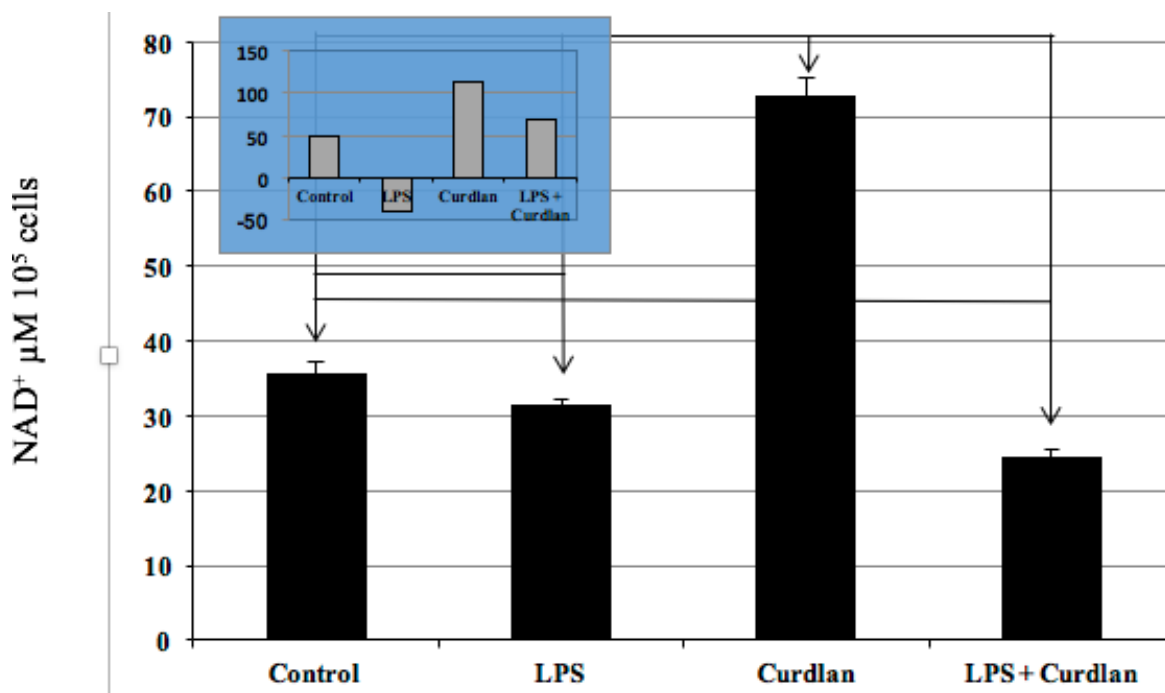


Figure 6: The contents of NAD^+ (μM per 10^5 cells) in macrophage-like cells after stimulation with LPS and curdlan. The cells were stimulated for 24 h. A representative experiment is presented from duplicate experiment; the number of technical replicates was eight. Horizontal lines connected with arrows denote statistical significance ($p < 0.05$). Insert shows the calculated $NAD^+/NADH$ ratio – based on initial analyses of total NAD^+ plus $NADH$, and NAD^+

3.7 Gene expression after LPS and curdlan stimulation

During fungus-elicited activation of macrophages, the cells may undergo a metabolic switch featured by increased arginase and IL-10 expression in so-called alternatively activated macrophages (M1) (Roszer, 2015). In the current study, the expression of *arginase-1* was significantly higher in cells stimulated with LPS, curdlan and LPS + curdlan compared to control cells ($p < 0.05$). The expression of *IL-10* by stimulated cells was not significantly higher than control cells. Marker for classical activated macrophages, e.g. elicited by LPS or IFN- γ , has been suggested to be hypoxia-inducible factor 1 α (HIF-1 α), glucose transporter protein-1 (GLUT-1), TNF- α and IL-1 β (Kelly and O'Neill, 2015). The expression of *IL-1 β* was significantly higher in cells stimulated by LPS, curdlan and LPS + curdlan ($p < 0.01$) compared to control cells. *TNF- α* , *GLUT-1* and *HIF-1 α* mRNA expressions were not regulated by the stimulants (Fig. 7).

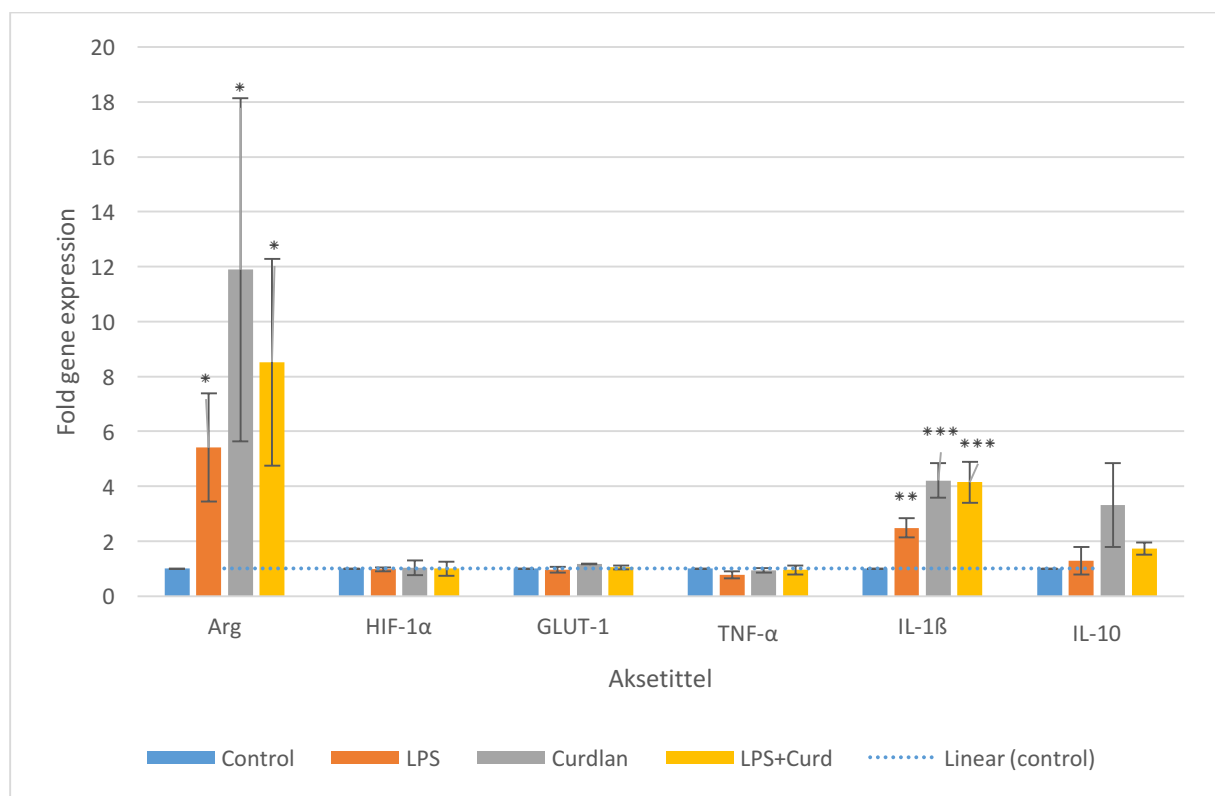


Figure 7: Expression of different genes in the macrophage-like cells (5×10^6 cells) after 48 h stimulation by qPCR. Gene expression data was normalized to EF-1 α expressions, set to a numerical value 1. Bars represent mean values \pm SD. Asterisk (*) above the bar shows significant difference. One asterisk equals $P < 0.05$, two equals $P < 0.01$, and three equals $P < 0.001$. Three fish were used in this study and qPCR analysis included three technical replicates.

4 Discussion

The aim for this study was to evaluate the effects from LPS and β -glucan stimulation on respiratory burst, and how different stimuli plus metabolic inhibitors affected ROS production by macrophages extracted from Atlantic salmon head kidney. In addition, NAD⁺ and NADH, and gene expression in the cells after stimulation with LPS and β -glucan (curdlan) was analysed.

4.1 Isolation and characterisation of head kidney cells

According to the results from the flow cytometry, the proportion of macrophages in the cell population was found to be approximately 56%. The yield of macrophage-like cells after density centrifugation was quite similar to what reported for rainbow trout (Lovoll et al., 2007). The distribution of cells observed from the flow cytometry was also similar to what have been reported from other teleost fish species (Haugland et al., 2012, Overland et al., 2010, Ronneseth et al., 2005, Morgan et al., 1993).

4.2 Stimulation of macrophage-like cells

The present work demonstrated that stimulation by both LPS and curdlan resulted in an increased ROS production by the stimulated macrophages. Previous studies on the respiratory burst activity in salmon macrophages stimulated with LPS and β -glucan showed similar tendencies (Jorgensen and Robertsen, 1995, Paulsen et al., 2001, Dalmo and Seljelid, 1995). In the current study, macrophages stimulated with curdlan showed, in general, the highest increase in ROS production. Re-stimulation with curdlan induced higher increase of superoxide anion production compared to co-stimulation with LPS. As far as we know, combined and repeated stimulation of salmon macrophages by virtue of respiratory burst has not been done before; thus, any direct comparison with findings by others is not possible.

4.3 Effect of metabolic inhibitors on respiratory burst

As previously mentioned (cf. introduction), the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway is important in cell metabolism. How metabolism affects ROS production in fish macrophages is yet to be discovered. Thus, it was desirable to look into the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway in relation to respiratory burst activity in macrophages. The reason for including the metabolic inhibitors was

to see how they affected the ROS production by inhibiting different parts of the metabolism that may be connected to respiratory burst. Receptor engagement (e.g. on the cell surface) activates PI3K; which through cascades of activation leads to activation of Akt, the two mTORC, and activating the multicomponent enzyme NADPH oxidase - which initiate and perform ROS production. The activation of the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway is described in Figure 8. Inhibitor targets are also included in this figure.

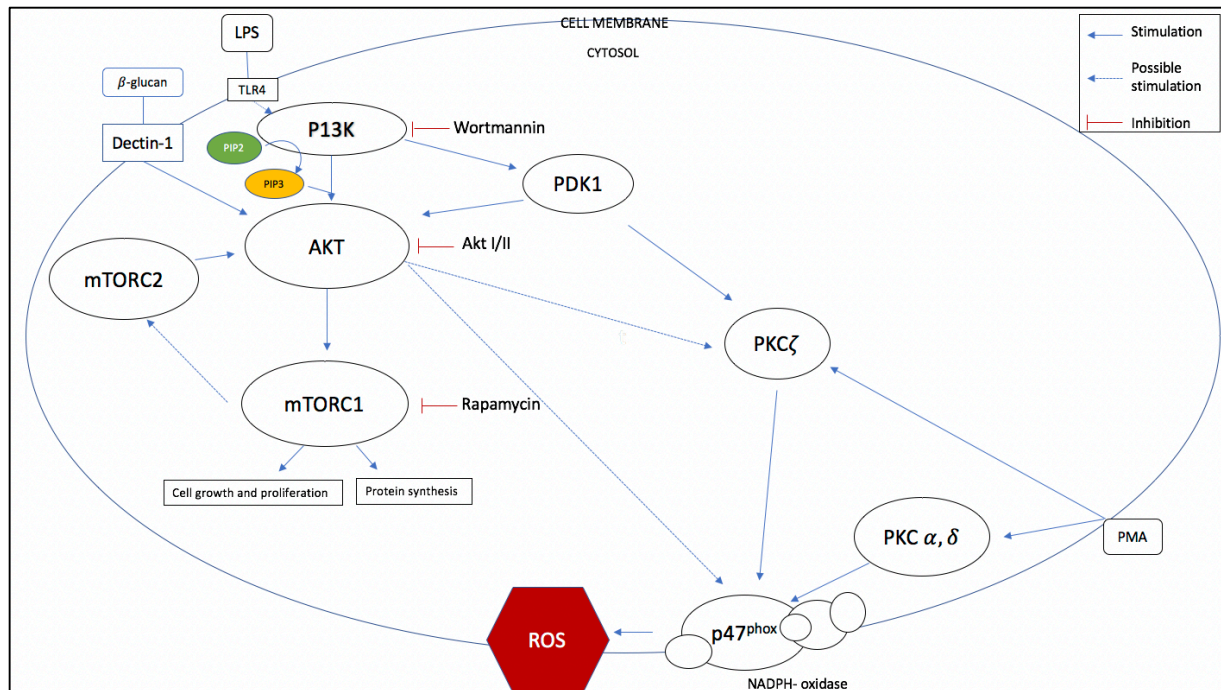


Figure 8: A simplified view on the PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway in mammals. Stimuli by e.g. LPS activate the TLR4 pathway – inducing PI3K-AKT-mTORC1 cascade, partly resulting in ROS production. In contact with the cell, PMA activates NADPH oxidase through direct activation of protein kinase C (PKC) isoforms. The components of the NADPH oxidase migrate to the cell membrane when activated; the active multicomponent enzyme is then formed and able to generate ROS. The inhibitors wortmannin inhibits PI3K, Akt I/II inhibits Akt and rapamycin inhibits mTORC1. Adapted from Zhao et al. (Zhao et al., 2010) and Cheng et al. (Cheng et al., 2014).

It is known that activated macrophages may have an increased glycolytic activity; hence, it was of interest to use inhibitors targeting parts of the energy metabolism. The oxidative phosphorylation, a highly energy-yielding part of cell metabolism in the mitochondria, goes through a metabolic switch towards production of reactive oxygen species rather than ATP generation in activated macrophages (the Warburg effect) (Kelly and O'Neill, 2015). Production of ROS occurs when the rate of electrons transferred in the electron transport chain are mismatched (Nelson et al., 2008). During the switch, most of the NADPH produced in the pentose phosphate pathway (PPP) (Fig. 9) is utilized by the NADPH-oxidase to generate ROS (Fig. 8), rather than going to the ATP yielding oxidative phosphorylation.

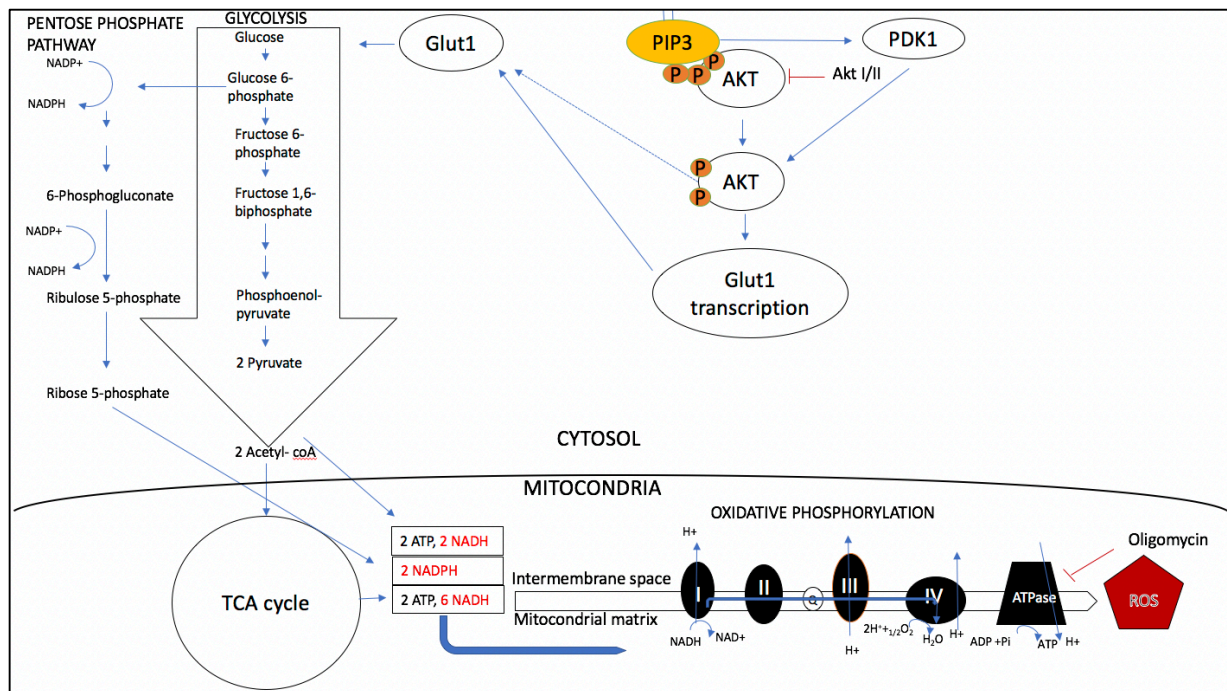


Figure 9: Parts of the glycolytic metabolism and the oxidative phosphorylation. Akt regulates transcription of Glut1, which is a glucose transporter central to feed glucose in the glycolysis. Both the glycolysis, PPP and the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle generates NADH or NADPH, which can either go to ATP generation or ROS generation via the electron transport chain in the oxidative phosphorylation. NADPH from the PPP can also be utilized by the NADPH-oxidase (Fig. 8) to generate ROS. The inhibitor Akt 1/2 inhibits transcription factors Akt1 and Akt2, thus, the glucose transport to the glycolysis can be affected. Oligomycin A inhibits ATPase (complex V) in the electron transport chain. Adapted from (Chan et al., 2012, Marie and Shinjo, 2011, Hecker et al., 2013, Nelson et al., 2008)

The effects of the metabolic inhibitors on the respiratory burst were in most cases moderate, as there were not as much modulation of ROS production as expected. In some instances, inhibitors rather increased the rate of respiratory burst rather than the opposite. The Akt 1/2 inhibitor induced a decrease of ROS production in cells stimulated with LPS – compared to cells stimulated with a combination of LPS and curdlan. As mentioned, the Akt 1/2 inhibitor inhibits transcription factors Akt 1 and Akt 2 in the cell cytoplasm. Akt plays an important role in many processes of the cell, such as glucose metabolism and downstream gene expression. Previous inhibition studies using Akt inhibitors suggested that activation of Akt is necessary, but by itself insufficient for respiratory burst activity (Chen et al., 2003).

Oligomycin A possessed no inhibitory effect on the rate of respiratory burst on the PMA-elicited salmon macrophages. The ROS production appeared to be even higher in cells co-incubated with oligomycin A than in cells without the inhibitor. A study by Fossati et al. (2003) presented results that showed enhancement of ROS production, for up to 120 min, in cells incubated with oligomycin A (at low concentrations; $1 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) rather than inhibition in PMA-

elicited human neutrophils. As such there may be similarities between the current results and the results from neutrophil stimulation. However, neutrophils are different from macrophages, therefore comparison between these two cell types is difficult.

The mTOR1 has, as previously mentioned (cf. introduction), a vital role in cell metabolism, in particular cell growth, protein synthesis and translation. It has therefore become an important therapeutic target in cancer treatments; hence, there is a high amount of research reports on possible inhibitors of mTORC1 in humans. Rapamycin is a well-known allosteric inhibitor of the mTOR1 complex in mammals. Despite the well-studied effects of mTOR and the impact of rapamycin in mammals, there has not been much research on how it affects fish cells (Dai et al., 2014). In the current study, the rapamycin did not give any inhibitory effect on the ROS production; it rather induced an increase in the respiratory burst activity -in particular in LPS stimulated cells. The LPS stimulated cells co-incubated with rapamycin resulted in approximately an 8-fold increase of ROS production compared to LPS stimulated cells (without the inhibitor). The reason for this increase is unknown.

The inhibitor 2-deoxyglucose is known to inhibit glucose uptake, hence limiting glucose metabolism. 2-deoxyglucose had a significant inhibitory effect on ROS production from curdlan-stimulated cells, and led to nearly no ROS production. A study presented by Rist et al. (Rist et al., 1991) found that the rate of superoxide production in PMA-elicited rat peritoneal macrophages increased as the concentration of added 2-deoxyglucose increased. 2-deoxyglucose possessed no activity on LPS-stimulated cells with respect to ROS production.

4.4 NAD⁺ and NADH

The intracellular contents of NADH and NAD⁺ is important during the respiratory burst as a high NADH content favor ROS generation (Mills and O'Neill, 2016).

Unfortunately, there are no previous correlative reports on the contents of NAD⁺ and NADH on cells from fish. A very few report exist on muscle tissue and egg contents of NAD⁺ and NADH. The salmon muscle tissue content of NAD⁺ has been estimated to be in the order of 0.38 mM (Bailey and Lim, 1977), whereas in goldfish the NAD⁺ content is reported to be up to 394 nmoles per gram fresh tissue (lateral red muscle). In the same report, the NAD⁺/NADH ration was 0.98 (Vandenthillart et al., 1982). Following on, the NAD⁺/NADH ration has been found to be 1.8 and 0.7 in oocytes and eggs of the loach (Yermolaeva, Lp. and Milman, 1974).

The calculated NAD⁺ contents in macrophage-like cells, in the current study, were 35.5 μM (controls), 31.5 nM (LPS), 24.5 μM (curdlan + LPS) and 72.6 μM (curdlan) – quite lower than the previous reported figures in fish muscle, oocytes and eggs. In the present study, the NAD⁺/NADH ratio was found to be close to 55 in control cells, 64 in LPS + curdlan stimulated cells and 117 in curdlan stimulated cells. The LPS stimulated cells showed even a negative ratio because the readings were lower than the standard curve points. It is not known why the NAD⁺/NADH ratio, in our study, was considerable higher than previously reported ratios in fish. When compared to mammalian macrophages (THP-1 cell line), this ratio increased during LPS stimulation, reaching 2.5 at 24 h relative to time-matched non-stimulated control cells (Liu et al., 2012). A similar finding has been revealed where the mice macrophage NAD⁺/NADH increased during LPS stimulation (Haschemi et al., 2012). These reports normalized the NAD⁺/NADH ratio to controls. If we normalize the results from LPS and curdlan stimulation from control values, we find a 1.4-fold increase after LPS + curdlan stimulation, and 2.3-fold increase after curdlan stimulation. These results are, however, comparable with those where LPS induced an increased cell NAD⁺/NADH ratio (Haschemi et al., 2012).

4.5 Gene expression after LPS and curdlan stimulation

During fungus-induced activation of macrophages, the cells may undergo a metabolic switch featured by increased arginase and IL-10 expression in so-called alternatively activated macrophages (M2) (Roszer, 2015). This polarization may also arise during stimulation with immune complexes through Fc receptors, IL-4 and IL-13 (Th2 cytokines) (Martinez and Gordon, 2014). To complicate the concept further, there is a plasticity where M2 macrophages may be classified into at least four subset phenotypes dependent on cytokine profile, cell membrane markers and activity (Roszer, 2015). In the current study, there was significant increase of *arginase-1* mRNA expression after LPS and curdlan stimulation – suggesting that the cells may be skewed to a M2 phenotype, rather than M1 phenotype. But more examination on the expression levels of marker molecules and genes must be done to ascertain the existence of M2 during stimulation in fish including salmonids. However, there are reports showing that carp and zebra fish macrophages may undergo plasticity resembling classical (innate) and alternative activation (Joerink et al., 2006b, Wiegertjes et al., 2016b). Markers for classically activated macrophages, e.g. elicited by LPS or IFN-γ, has been suggested to be hypoxia-inducible factor-1α (HIF-1α), glucose transporter protein-1 (GLUT-1), TNF-α and IL-1β (Kelly and O'Neill, 2015). Classical activated macrophages (M1) express also high levels of

e.g. iNOS, IL-6, TLR2 and TLR4. HIF-1 α is also central in its role for nitric oxide generation (Wang et al., 2014). In the report by Joerink et al. (2006b), there was an increased *TNF- α* and *IL-1 β* expression in carp macrophages after LPS stimulation, whereas the *arginase-1* and *IL-10* expression remained relatively non-regulated. As such, there are both similarities and dissimilarities between our results and the results obtained from carp macrophages. We were not able to detect any NO production from salmon macrophage-like cells – which was a bit strange since NO production has been found in macrophages from other fish species (Wiegertjes et al., 2016b). Anyway, increased loads of data from work on fish macrophages on the plasticity during stimulation is underway – that together may define the existence of M1 and M2 subsets in fish, and may also suggest whether there are differences with respect to different fish species.

5 Conclusion

In conclusion, both LPS and curdlan stimulated the macrophage-like cells to induce the formation of ROS; but the effect of the metabolic inhibitors on stimulated salmon macrophages, with respect to ROS formation, proved to be moderate in most instances. However, the akt 1/2 inhibitor seemed to down regulate the ROS formation, while 2-deoxyglucose up regulated the formation of ROS in some cases. The inhibitors used in this study are produced and optimised for use in mammalian systems and hence their bioactivities in fish are much unexplored. Due to the lack of studies on how metabolic inhibitors affects respiratory burst in salmon macrophages, the underlying mechanisms in fish are yet fairly unknown. The content of NAD⁺ increased during stimulation (curdlan, and curdlan + LPS); which may suggest an increased metabolic activity, and also supported by the gene expression studies where the stimulated cells expressed more *arginase-1* and *IL-1 β* . Genes encoding for LPS receptor (e.g. TLR4) and curdlan (e.g. dectin-1) has not been found in the salmon genome, suggesting the presence of other and unknown LPS and β -glucan receptors inducing macrophage activation. This adds, however, more questions whether the traditionally classical and alternative macrophage phenotype dichotomy exists in salmon.

References

- Bailey, G.S., Lim, S.T. (1977) Evolution of Duplicated Lactate-Dehydrogenase Isozymes in Salmon - Abortive Ternary Complex-Formation and Breakdown. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **252**, 5708-5715.
- Bauerfeld, C.P., Rastogi, R., Pirockinaite, G., *et al.* (2012) TLR4-Mediated AKT Activation Is MyD88/TRIF Dependent and Critical for Induction of Oxidative Phosphorylation and Mitochondrial Transcription Factor A in Murine Macrophages. *Journal of Immunology* **188**, 2847-2857.
- Beyer, M., Mallmann, M.R., Xue, J., *et al.* (2012) High-Resolution Transcriptome of Human Macrophages. *Plos One* **7**.
- Boltana, S., Castellana, B., Goetz, G., *et al.* (2017) Extending Immunological Profiling in the Gilthead Sea Bream, *Sparus aurata*, by Enriched cDNA Library Analysis, Microarray Design and Initial Studies upon the Inflammatory Response to PAMPs. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* **18**.
- Braun-Nesje, R., Bertheussen, K., Kaplan, G., Seljelid, R. (1981) Salmonid Macrophages - Separation, Invitro Culture and Characterization. *Journal of Fish Diseases* **4**, 141-151.
- Bricknell, I., Dalmo, R.A. (2005) The use of immunostimulants in fish larval aquaculture. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **19**, 457-472.
- Buchmann, K. (2014) Evolution of Innate Immunity: Clues from Invertebrates via Fish to Mammals. *Frontiers in Immunology* **5**, 459.
- Burnett, K.G., Schwarz, L.K. (1994) Leukocyte Proliferation Mediated by Protein-Kinase-C in the Marine Teleost Fish, *Sciaenops-Ocellatus*. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* **18**, 33-43.
- Canton, J., Neculai, D., Grinstein, S. (2013) Scavenger receptors in homeostasis and immunity. *Nature Reviews Immunology* **13**, 621-634.
- Castro, R., Couso, N., Obach, A., Lamas, J. (1999) Effect of different beta-glucans on the respiratory burst of turbot (*Psetta maxima*) and gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) phagocytes. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **9**, 529-541.
- Chan, C.H., Li, C.F., Yang, W.L., *et al.* (2012) The Skp2-SCF E3 ligase regulates Akt ubiquitination, glycolysis, herceptin sensitivity, and tumorigenesis. *Cell* **149**, 1098-1111.
- Chang, Z.L., Beezhold, D.H. (1993) Protein-Kinase-C Activation in Human Monocytes - Regulation of Pkc Isoforms. *Immunology* **80**, 360-366.
- Chen, C., Liu, Y., Liu, R.H., *et al.* (2008) TSC-mTOR maintains quiescence and function of hematopoietic stem cells by repressing mitochondrial biogenesis and reactive oxygen species. *Journal of Experimental Medicine* **205**, 2397-2408.
- Chen, Q., Powell, D.W., Rane, M.J., *et al.* (2003) Akt phosphorylates p47phox and mediates respiratory burst activity in human neutrophils. *J Immunol* **170**, 5302-5308.
- Cheng, S.C., Quintin, J., Cramer, R.A., *et al.* (2014) mTOR- and HIF-1 alpha-mediated aerobic glycolysis as metabolic basis for trained immunity. *Science* **345**, 1579-+.
- Cook, M.T., Hayball, P.J., Hutchinson, W., Nowak, B., Hayball, J.D. (2001) The efficacy of a commercial beta-glucan preparation, EcoActiva (TM), on stimulating respiratory burst activity of head-kidney macrophages from pink snapper (*Pagrus auratus*), Sparidae. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **11**, 661-672.
- Cosentino-Gomes, D., Rocco-Machado, N., Meyer-Fernandes, J.R. (2012) Cell Signaling through Protein Kinase C Oxidation and Activation. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* **13**, 10697-U11522.

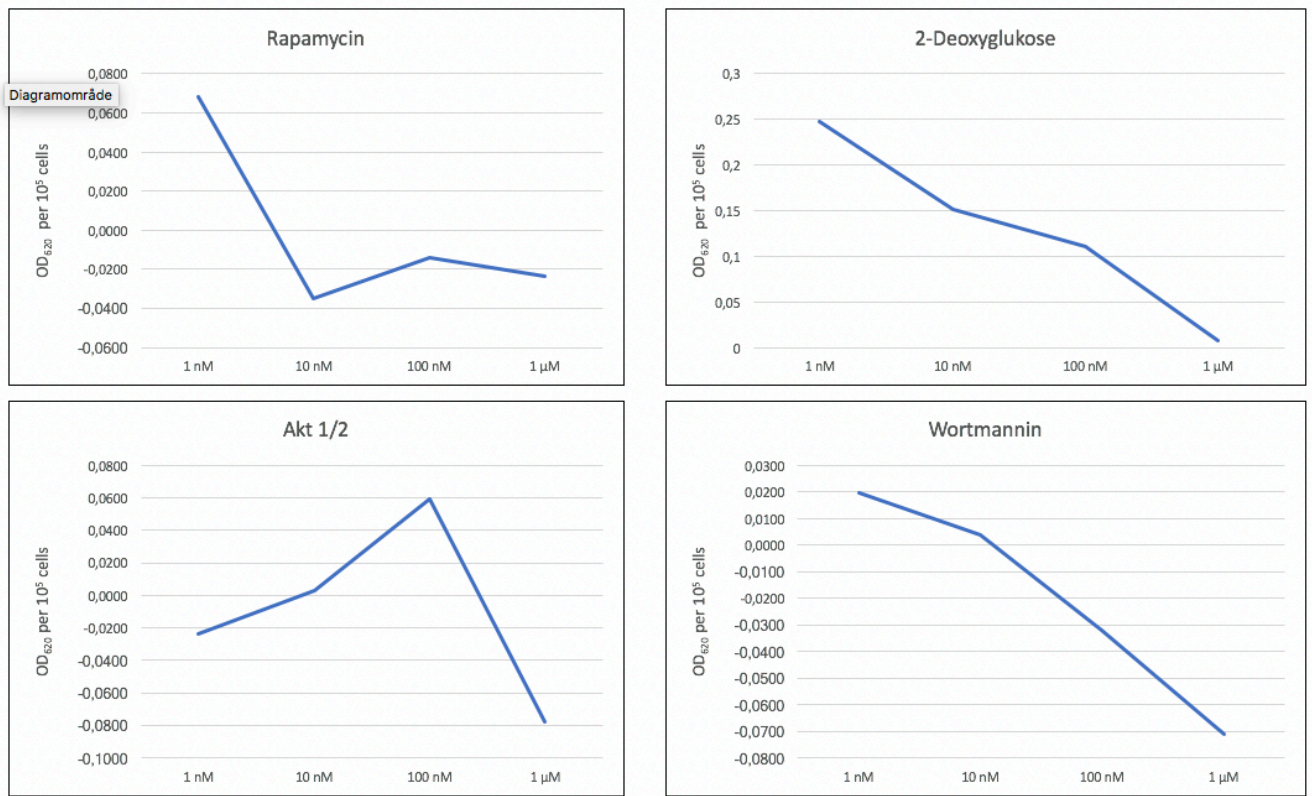
- Covarrubias, A.J., Aksoylar, H.I., Horng, T. (2015) Control of macrophage metabolism and activation by mTOR and Akt signaling. *Seminars in Immunology* **27**, 286-296.
- Dai, W.W., Panserat, S., Terrier, F., Seiliez, I., Skiba-Cassy, S. (2014) Acute rapamycin treatment improved glucose tolerance through inhibition of hepatic gluconeogenesis in rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*). *American Journal of Physiology-Regulatory Integrative and Comparative Physiology* **307**, R1231-R1238.
- Dalmo, R.A., Bogwald, J. (2008) beta-glucans as conductors of immune symphonies. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **25**, 384-396.
- Dalmo, R.A., Seljelid, R. (1995) The Immunomodulatory Effect of Lps, Laminaran and Sulfated Laminaran [Beta(1,3)-D-Glucan] on Atlantic Salmon, *Salmo-Salar* L, Macrophages in-Vitro. *Journal of Fish Diseases* **18**, 175-185.
- Edholm, E.S., Rhoo, K.H., Robert, J. (2017) Evolutionary Aspects of Macrophages Polarization. *Results and problems in cell differentiation* **62**, 3-22.
- Fayard, E., Xue, G.D., Parcellier, A., Bozulic, L., Hemmings, B.A. (2010) Protein Kinase B (PKB/Akt), a Key Mediator of the PI3K Signaling Pathway. *Phosphoinositide 3-Kinase in Health and Disease, Vol 1* **346**, 31-56.
- Forlenza, M., Fink, I.R., Raes, G., Wiegertjes, G.F. (2011) Heterogeneity of macrophage activation in fish. *Developmental and comparative immunology* **35**, 1246-1255.
- Fossati, G., Moulding, D.A., Spiller, D.G., Moots, R.J., White, M.R., Edwards, S.W. (2003) The mitochondrial network of human neutrophils: role in chemotaxis, phagocytosis, respiratory burst activation, and commitment to apoptosis. *J Immunol* **170**, 1964-1972.
- Gaber, T., Strehl, C., Buttgereit, F. (2017) Metabolic regulation of inflammation. *Nature Reviews Rheumatology* **13**, 267-279.
- Haschemi, A., Kosma, P., Gille, L., et al. (2012) The Sedoheptulose Kinase CARKL Directs Macrophage Polarization through Control of Glucose Metabolism. *Cell Metabolism* **15**, 813-826.
- Haugland, G.T., Jakobsen, R.A., Vestvik, N., Ulven, K., Stokka, L., Wergeland, H.I. (2012) Phagocytosis and Respiratory Burst Activity in Lump sucker (*Cyclopterus lumpus* L.) Leucocytes Analysed by Flow Cytometry. *Plos One* **7**.
- Hecker, P.A., Leopold, J.A., Gupte, S.A., Recchia, F.A., Stanley, W.C. (2013) Impact of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase deficiency on the pathophysiology of cardiovascular disease. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* **304**, H491-500.
- Hodgkinson, J.W., Grayfer, L., Belosevic, M. (2015) Biology of Bony Fish Macrophages. *Biology (Basel)* **4**, 881-906.
- Iles, K.E., Forman, H.J. (2002) Macrophage signaling and respiratory burst. *Immunologic Research* **26**, 95-105.
- Joerink, M., Ribeiro, C.M., Stet, R.J., Hermsen, T., Savelkoul, H.F., Wiegertjes, G.F. (2006a) Head kidney-derived macrophages of common carp (*Cyprinus carpio* L.) show plasticity and functional polarization upon differential stimulation. *Journal of Immunology* **177**, 61-69.
- Jorgensen, J.B., Robertsen, B. (1995) Yeast beta-glucan stimulates respiratory burst activity of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) macrophages. *Dev Comp Immunol* **19**, 43-57.
- Kelly, B., O'Neill, L.A.J. (2015) Metabolic reprogramming in macrophages and dendritic cells in innate immunity. *Cell Research* **25**, 771-784.
- Kim, H.S., Park, K.H., Lee, H.K., et al. (2016) Curdlan activates dendritic cells through dectin-1 and toll-like receptor 4 signaling. *International Immunopharmacology* **39**, 71-78.
- Kumari, J., Zhang, Z., Swain, T., et al. (2015) Transcription Factor T-Bet in Atlantic Salmon: Characterization and Gene Expression in Mucosal Tissues during *Aeromonas Salmonicida* Infection. *Front Immunol* **6**, 345.

- Langston, P.K., Shibata, M., Horng, T. (2017) Metabolism Supports Macrophage Activation. *Frontiers in Immunology* **8**.
- Li, Y.J., Li, Y.L., Cao, X.C., Jin, X.Y., Jin, T.C. (2017) Pattern recognition receptors in zebrafish provide functional and evolutionary insight into innate immune signaling pathways. *Cellular & Molecular Immunology* **14**, 80-89.
- Liu, T.F., Vachharajani, V.T., Yoza, B.K., McCall, C.E. (2012) NAD(+)-dependent Sirtuin 1 and 6 Proteins Coordinate a Switch from Glucose to Fatty Acid Oxidation during the Acute Inflammatory Response. *Journal of Biological Chemistry* **287**, 25758-25769.
- Lovoll, M., Fischer, U., Mathisen, G.S., Bogwald, J., Ototake, M., Dalmo, R.A. (2007) The C3 subtypes are differentially regulated after immunostimulation in rainbow trout, but head kidney macrophages do not contribute to C3 transcription. *Vet Immunol Immunopathol* **117**, 284-295.
- MacKenzie, S., Iliev, D., Liarte, C., *et al.* (2006) Transcriptional analysis of LPS-stimulated activation of trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) monocyte/macrophage cells in primary culture treated with cortisol. *Molecular Immunology* **43**, 1340-1348.
- Manning, B.D., Cantley, L.C. (2007) AKT/PKB signaling: Navigating downstream. *Cell* **129**, 1261-1274.
- Marie, S.K., Shinjo, S.M. (2011) Metabolism and brain cancer. *Clinics (Sao Paulo)* **66 Suppl 1**, 33-43.
- Martinez, F.O., Gordon, S. (2014) The M1 and M2 paradigm of macrophage activation: time for reassessment. *F1000Prime Rep* **6**, 13.
- McGuire, V.A., Gray, A., Monk, C.E., *et al.* (2013) Cross Talk between the Akt and p38 alpha Pathways in Macrophages Downstream of Toll-Like Receptor Signaling. *Molecular and Cellular Biology* **33**, 4152-4165.
- Mills, E.L., O'Neill, L.A. (2016) Reprogramming mitochondrial metabolism in macrophages as an anti-inflammatory signal. *European Journal of Immunology* **46**, 13-21.
- Morgan, J.A.W., Pottinger, T.G., Rippon, P. (1993) Evaluation of Flow-Cytometry as a Method for Quantification of Circulating Blood-Cell Populations in Salmonid Fish. *Journal of Fish Biology* **42**, 131-141.
- Mosser, D.M., Edwards, J.P. (2008) Exploring the full spectrum of macrophage activation. *Nature Reviews Immunology* **8**, 958-969.
- Murray, P.J., Allen, J.E., Biswas, S.K., *et al.* (2014) Macrophage Activation and Polarization: Nomenclature and Experimental Guidelines (vol 41, pg 14, 2014). *Immunity* **41**, 339-340.
- Nelson, D.L., Lehninger, A.L., Cox, M.M. (2008) *Lehninger principles of biochemistry*, Macmillan Vol 5., 707-723.
- Neumann, N.F., Stafford, J.L., Barreda, D., Ainsworth, A.J., Belosevic, M. (2001) Antimicrobial mechanisms of fish phagocytes and their role in host defense. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* **25**, 807-825.
- Nguyen-Chi, M., Laplace-Builhe, B., Travnickova, J., *et al.* (2015) Identification of polarized macrophage subsets in zebrafish. *Elife* **4**, e07288.
- Novoa, B., Figueras, A., Ashton, I., Secombes, C.J. (1996) In vitro studies on the regulation of rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) macrophage respiratory burst activity. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* **20**, 207-216.
- Okutani, D., Lodyga, M., Han, B., Liu, M.Y. (2006) Src protein tyrosine kinase family and acute inflammatory responses. *American Journal of Physiology-Lung Cellular and Molecular Physiology* **291**, L129-L141.
- Olavarria, V.H., Gallardo, L., Figueroa, J.E., Mulero, V. (2010) Lipopolysaccharide primes the respiratory burst of Atlantic salmon SHK-1 cells through protein kinase C-mediated

- phosphorylation of p47phox. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* **34**, 1242-1253.
- Overland, H.S., Pettersen, E.F., Ronneseth, A., Wergeland, H.I. (2010) Phagocytosis by B-cells and neutrophils in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) and Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua* L.). *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **28**, 193-204.
- Palti, Y. (2011) Toll-like receptors in bony fish: From genomics to function. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* **35**, 1263-1272.
- Paulsen, S.M., Engstad, R.E., Robertsen, B. (2001) Enhanced lysozyme production in Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) macrophages treated with yeast beta-glucan and bacterial lipopolysaccharide. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **11**, 23-37.
- Petit, J., Wiegertjes, G.F. (2016) Long-lived effects of administering beta-glucans: Indications for trained immunity in fish. *Developmental and Comparative Immunology* **64**, 93-102.
- Pfaffl, M.W. (2001) A new mathematical model for relative quantification in real-time RT-PCR. *Nucleic Acids Research* **29**.
- PrabhuDas, M.R., Baldwin, C.L., Bollyky, P.L., *et al.* (2017) A Consensus Definitive Classification of Scavenger Receptors and Their Roles in Health and Disease. *Journal of Immunology* **198**, 3775-3789.
- Rist, R.J., Jones, G.E., Naftalin, R.J. (1991) Effects of macrophage colony-stimulating factor and phorbol myristate acetate on 2-D-deoxyglucose transport and superoxide production in rat peritoneal macrophages. *Biochem J* **278 (Pt 1)**, 119-128.
- Ronneseth, A., Pettersen, E.F., Wergeland, H.I. (2005) Leucocytes of anadromous and landlocked strains of Atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar* L.) in the smolting period. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **19**, 229-239.
- Roszer, T. (2015) Understanding the Mysterious M2 Macrophage through Activation Markers and Effector Mechanisms. *Mediators of Inflammation*.
- Saponaro, C., Cianciulli, A., Calvello, R., Dragone, T., Iacobazzi, F., Panaro, M.A. (2012) The PI3K/Akt pathway is required for LPS activation of microglial cells. *Immunopharmacology and Immunotoxicology* **34**, 858-865.
- Sepulcre, M.P., Alcaraz-Perez, F., Lopez-Munoz, A., *et al.* (2009) Evolution of Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) Recognition and Signaling: Fish TLR4 Does Not Recognize LPS and Negatively Regulates NF-kappa B Activation. *Journal of Immunology* **182**, 1836-1845.
- Seternes, T., Dalmo, R.A., Hoffman, J., Bogwald, J., Zykova, S., Smedsrod, B. (2001) Scavenger-receptor-mediated endocytosis of lipopolysaccharide in Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua* L.). *Journal of Experimental Biology* **204**, 4055-4064.
- Solem, S.T., Jorgensen, J.B., Robertsen, B. (1995) Stimulation of Respiratory Burst and Phagocytic-Activity in Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo-Salar* L) Macrophages by Lipopolysaccharide. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **5**, 475-491.
- Soliman, G.A. (2013) The Role of Mechanistic Target of Rapamycin (mTOR) Complexes Signaling in the Immune Responses. *Nutrients* **5**, 2231-2257.
- Tahir, A., Secombes, C.J. (1996) Modulation of dab (*Limanda limanda*, L) macrophage respiratory burst activity. *Fish & Shellfish Immunology* **6**, 135-146.
- Vandenthillart, G., Vanwaarde, A., Dobbe, F., Kesbeke, F. (1982) Anaerobic Energy-Metabolism of Goldfish, *Carassius-Auratus* (L) - Effects of Anoxia on the Measured and Calculated Nad⁺ Nadh Ratios in Muscle and Liver. *Journal of Comparative Physiology* **146**, 41-49.
- Vivanco, I., Sawyers, C.L. (2002) The phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-AKT pathway in human cancer. *Nature Reviews Cancer* **2**, 489-501.
- Wang, N., Liang, H., Zen, K. (2014) Molecular mechanisms that influence the macrophage m1-m2 polarization balance. *Frontiers in Immunology* **5**, 614.

- Wiegertjes, G.F., Wentzel, A.S., Spaink, H.P., Elks, P.M., Fink, I.R. (2016a) Polarization of immune responses in fish: The 'macrophages first' point of view. *Molecular Immunology* **69**, 146-156.
- Wiegertjes, G.F., Wentzel, A.S., Spaink, H.P., Elks, P.M., Fink, I.R. (2016b) Polarization of immune responses in fish: The 'macrophages first' point of view. *Molecular Immunology* **69**, 146-156.
- Wu, D., Yotnda, P. (2011) Production and detection of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in cancers. *J Vis Exp*.
- Yermolaeva, Lp., Milman, L.S. (1974) Redox State of Nicotinamide Adenine-Nucleotide and Phosphorylated State of Adenine-Nucleotide in Oocytes and Embryos of Loach (*Misgurnus-Fossilis* L). *Wilhelm Roux Archiv Fur Entwicklungsmechanik Der Organismen* **174**, 297-301.
- Zhao, K., Huang, Z., Lu, H., Zhou, J., Wei, T. (2010) Induction of inducible nitric oxide synthase increases the production of reactive oxygen species in RAW264.7 macrophages. *Biosci Rep* **30**, 233-241.

Supplementary materials



Supplementary figure 1: The dose-relationship of different metabolic inhibitors on the formation of ROS by macrophage-like cells. The experiment was repeated once.