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1	Acute aerobic exercise induces a preferential mobilisation of plasmacytoid dendritic cells
2	into the peripheral blood in man.
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22	Key words: dendritic cells, myeloid, plasmacytoid, exercise, humans
23	

24 Abstract

25 Dendritic cells (DCs) are important sentinel cells of the immune system responsible for 26 presenting antigen to T cells. Exercise is known to cause an acute and transient increase in the 27 frequency of DCs in the bloodstream in humans, yet there are contradictory findings in the 28 literature regarding the phenotypic composition of DCs mobilised during exercise, which may 29 have implications for immune regulation and health. Accordingly, we sought to investigate the 30 composition of DC sub-populations mobilised in response to acute aerobic exercise. Nine 31 healthy males (age, 21.9 ± 3.6 years; height, 177.8 ± 5.4 cm; body mass, 78.9 ± 10.8 kg; body mass index, 24.9 ± 3.3 kg.m²; $\dot{V}O_{2 MAX}$, 41.5 ± 5.1 mL.kg.min⁻¹) cycled for 20 minutes at 80% 32 33 $\dot{V}O_{2MAX}$. Blood was sampled at baseline, during the final minute of exercise and 30 minutes 34 later. Using flow cytometry, total DCs were defined as Lineage- (CD3, CD19, CD20, CD14, 35 CD56) HLA-DR+ and subsequently identified as plasmacytoid DCs (CD303+) and myeloid DCs 36 (CD303-). Myeloid DCs were analysed for expression of CD1c and CD141 to yield four sub-37 populations; CD1c-CD141+; CD1c+CD141+; CD1c+CD141- and CD1c-CD141-. Expression 38 of CD205 was also analysed on all DC sub-populations to identify DCs capable of recognising 39 apoptotic and necrotic cells. Total DCs increased by 150% during exercise ($F_{(1,10)}=60$; p<0.05, η^2 =0.9). Plasmacytoid DCs mobilised to a greater magnitude than myeloid DCs (195 ± 131 % vs. 40 41 131 ± 100 %; p<.05). Among myeloid DCs, CD1c-CD141- cells showed the largest exercise-42 induced mobilisation (167 ± 122 %), with a stepwise pattern observed among the remaining sub-43 populations: CD1c+CD141- (79 ± 50 %), followed by CD1c+CD141+ (44 ± 41 %), with the 44 smallest response shown by CD1c–CD141+ cells $(23 \pm 54\%)$ (p< .05). Among myeloid DCs, 45 CD205- cells were the most exercise responsive. All DC subsets returned to resting levels within 46 30 minutes of exercise cessation. These results show that there is a preferential mobilisation of

- 47 plasmacytoid DCs during exercise. Given the functional repertoire of plasmacytoid DCs, which
 48 includes the production of interferons against viral and bacterial pathogens, these findings
 49 indicate that exercise may augment immune-surveillance by preferentially mobilising effector
- 50 cells; these findings have general implications for the promotion of exercise for health, and
- 51 specifically for the optimisation of DC harvest for cancer immunotherapy.

53 1. Introduction

54 Acute aerobic exercise causes profound alterations to the cellular composition of 55 peripheral blood, whereby the frequency of many leukocyte subsets increases during exercise, 56 followed by a decline in the hours after [1]. For many types of immune cell subsets, the 57 magnitude of change in response to exercise is usually largest among cells with the strongest 58 effector potential [2-4]. Accordingly, this exercise-induced effect is considered a conserved 59 evolutionary response which causes the redistribution of effector cells to peripheral tissues to 60 conduct immune-surveillance [5]. Cells of a lymphoid lineage, such as T cells [2, 6] and natural 61 killer (NK) cells [7], are the most widely researched. Cells with myeloid characteristics have 62 received less attention in the exercise literature, except for a limited number of studies which 63 have examined monocytes [8-10]. For example, it has been shown that alternatively-activated 64 M2-like monocytes preferentially mobilise into blood during exercise [8, 9], whereas other work 65 has shown that the most exercise responsive cells are classically-activated M1-like monocytes 66 [10]. Studies examining the mobilisation patterns of dendritic cell (DC) subsets in response to 67 exercise have provided equivocal evidence, despite the critical role DCs play in initiating and 68 directing immune responses.

DCs are often considered tissue resident cells, but these sentinels of the immune system, consist of multiple sub-populations with unique functions, and many DC subsets are found transmigrating between peripheral blood and the lymphatic system [11]. The central function of these professional antigen-presenting cells (APCs) is to ingest pathogens or debris from apoptotic or necrotic cells, and subsequently process and present antigen to lymphocytes [11]. DCs also help to regulate the immune response through co-stimulatory or co-inhibitory molecules [11, 12]. The two major sub-populations of DCs are myeloid DCs and plasmacytoid

76 DCs [13]. Some studies have shown that immediately after 15-20 minutes of moderate intensity 77 exercise, total DC numbers increase in blood [14, 15] with a preferential increase in 78 plasmacytoid DCs [16]. However, other studies have shown that after more prolonged exercise, 79 such as a marathon, myeloid DCs increase but plasmacytoid DCs may decrease immediately 80 post-exercise [17, 18]. In light of these contradictory findings, further investigation of the DC 81 response to exercise is warranted. In addition, greater clarity on the phenotypic composition of 82 plasmacytoid and myeloid DCs mobilised during exercise in healthy adults is needed to provide 83 insight into the functional and homing characteristics of exercise-responsive DCs. 84 DCs express high levels of MHC class II (HLA-DR) and do not express other lineage 85 markers expressed on monocytes, T cells, B cells and NK cells, and are therefore referred to as 86 being Lineage- (CD3, CD19, CD20, CD14, CD56) HLA-DR+ [13, 19]. Expression of the cell 87 surface protein CD303 enables further differentiation of plasmacytoid (CD303+) and myeloid 88 DCs (CD303-) [20]. Among myeloid cells, four sub-populations can be identified based on 89 CD1c and CD141 expression [21-24] (Table 1). Other cell-surface proteins, such as co-90 stimulatory or co-inhibitory molecules, can indicate the functional characteristics of DCs, for 91 example receptors such as CD205 (also known as DEC-205) [25] which enables recognition of 92 apoptotic or necrotic cells [26]. Another commonly assessed cell-surface receptor expressed on 93 activated DCs is CD209 (also known as DC-SIGN) which recognises a wide array of ligands 94 from viruses and bacteria, and is also involved in adhesion, migration, signalling and antigen 95 presentation [27]. To date, the effect of exercise on DCs that express these functional markers is 96 not known.

97 Clarifying the exercise-induced kinetics of DCs is important because it has been proposed98 that acute bouts of vigorous steady state exercise may be a strategy to optimise immune

99 competency, for example, by enhancing vaccination responses [28-31]. Additionally, it has 100 recently been proposed that exercise could be a powerful means of increasing peripheral blood 101 mononuclear cell yields for the purposes of immunotherapy [32, 33]. To date, the most targeted 102 malignancies for DC immunotherapies are melanoma, prostate cancer, glioblastoma and renal 103 cell carcinoma, but trials are being conducted with many other cancers [34, 35]. A common 104 approach is to isolate peripheral blood mononuclear cells from patients to generate monocyte-105 derived DCs ex vivo with growth factors and antigen stimulation, before re-administering the cell 106 preparations [34, 36]. There are several examples of clinically effective DC immunotherapy 107 regimens, but methodologies continue to be adapted and improved, with recent emphasis on 108 harvesting DC sub-populations directly from blood, with a particular focus on either 109 plasmacytoid DCs due to their effector potential, or CD1c+ and/or CD141+ myeloid subsets for 110 their ability to cross present antigen to cytotoxic CD8+ T cells [34, 36]. Thus, if adjunctive 111 strategies such as exercise are employed to improve cell yields for DC immunotherapy, it is 112 important to understand how naturally occurring DC sub-populations respond to exercise-113 induced stimulation. Therefore, the aim of this study was to conduct a detailed immuno-114 phenotypic analyses of DC sub-populations present in peripheral blood before, during and after 115 an acute bout of vigorous steady state aerobic exercise.

- **116 2. Methods**
- 117 *2.1. Participants*
- 118 Nine healthy men were included in the present analyses (age, 21.9 ± 3.6 years; height, $177.8 \pm$
- 119 5.4 cm; body mass, 78.9 ± 10.8 kg; body mass index, 24.9 ± 3.3 kg.m²; $\dot{V}O_{2 MAX}$, 41.5 ± 5.1
- 120 mL.kg.min⁻¹) (ethical approval reference: ERN_12-0830; University of Birmingham, UK).
- 121 These nine participants represent a sub-group from a total of ten men who took part in other
- 122 investigations [37-40] with peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) that were available for
- 123 analysis following cryopreservation.
- 124

125 2.2. Pre-experimental procedures

Height and body mass were assessed using standard methods and cardiorespiratory fitness (VO₂
MAX) was measured on a cycle ergometer. Expired air samples were assessed for oxygen
consumption and carbon dioxide production using breath-by-breath analysis, with heart rate
monitored via telemetry, and ratings of perceived exertion recorded using the Borg scale [37-40].

131 2.3. Exercise trial and blood sampling

At least seven days after preliminary measurements, and following an overnight fast, participants reported to the laboratory in the morning, and a blood sample was collected from a cannulated forearm vein after a 15-minute seated rest (baseline). The exercise trial consisted of steady state cycling at 80% $\dot{V}O_{2 MAX}$ for 20 minutes, at a power output determined from the $\dot{V}O_{2 MAX}$ test. Exercise intensity was monitored with breath-by-breath measurements. Heart rate and ratings of perceived exertion were recorded throughout the exercise trial. A second blood sample was

- 138 collected in the final minute of exercise at 80% $\dot{V}O_{2 MAX}$ (exercise) and a third blood sample
- 139 collected post-exercise, after 30 minutes of seated rest (+30 minutes) [37-40].
- 140

141 2.4. Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) isolation

- 142 Blood with potassium ethylene-diamine-tetra-acetic acid (EDTA) as an anticoagulant was diluted
- 143 1:1 with Roswell Park Memorial Institute Media (RPMI), and layered on top of Ficoll paque
- 144 PLUS (GE Healthcare) (2 blood:1 Ficoll), before centrifuging at $400 \times g$ for 30 minutes at 21°C.
- 145 PBMCs were aspirated and washed three times in RPMI by centrifuging at $200 \times g$ for 5
- 146 minutes. Cells were re-suspended in freezing mixture (70% RPMI, 20% fetal calf serum (FCS)
- 147 and 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)) and frozen at -1° C/min using a freezing container

148 (Nalgene 'Mr Frosty' Thermoscientific). Cells were stored at -80°C and analysed within six

- 149 months [39, 40].
- 150

151 *2.5. Flow cytometry*

152 PBMCs were thawed rapidly at 37°C and washed twice in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) 153 containing 2% FCS and 2mM EDTA by centrifuging at $400 \times g$ for 5 minutes. PBMCs were 154 counted using a haemocytometer and approximately 300,000 cells were added to tubes for 155 incubation with fluorescently conjugated antibodies to identify DCs and sub-populations using 156 eight-colour flow cytometry (FACS-CANTO, Becton-Dickenson, San Jose, USA). The 157 following monoclonal antibodies were used: FITC-conjugated anti-Lineage 2 cocktail (CD3 158 clone # SK7, CD19 clone # SJ25C1, CD20 clone # L27, CD14 clone # M_φP9, CD56 clone # 159 NCAM 16.2), V500-conjugated anti-HLA-DR clone # G46-6, V450-conjugated anti-CD209 160 clone # DCN46 (BD Biosciences, San Diego, USA), APC-conjugated anti-CD303 clone # 201A,

161	PE-Cy7-conjugated anti-CD141 clone # M80, APC-Cy7-conjugated anti-CD1c clone # L161
162	(BioLegend, San Diego, USA), PE-conjugated anti-CD205 clone # MG38 (BD Pharmingen, San
163	Diego, USA). In addition, 7-aminoactinomycin D (7-AAD) (BD Pharmingen, San Diego, USA)
164	was used to exclude necrotic and apoptotic cells. Fluorescence-minus-one (FMO) tubes
165	established negative and positive gating strategies for CD205 and CD209 expression (data not
166	shown).
167	
168	2.6. Flow cytometry analysis
169	Data were analysed using FlowJo version Xv 0.7 (Tree Star, Inc., Ashland, OR). Doublets were

excluded by gating forward *versus* forward-scatter. PBMCs were gated on the forward *versus*

171 side-scatter. Dead cells were excluded by gating 7AAD *versus* side-scatter. Total DCs were

172 identified as being Lineage–HLA-DR+, and analysed for expression of CD303 to identify

173 plasmacytoid DCs (Lineage-HLA-DR+CD303+) and myeloid DCs (Lineage-HLA-

174 DR+CD303-). Myeloid DCs were analysed for expression of CD1c and CD141 to yield four

175 sub-populations: CD1c-CD141-; CD1c+CD141-; CD1c+CD141+; CD1c-CD141+ (Table 1

and Figure 1). All cell populations were examined for expression of CD205 and CD209. The

absolute number of DCs and sub-populations was determined from the PBMC count (Coulter

178 ACT^{diff} haematology analyser, Beckman-Coulter, High Wycombe, UK).

179

180 *2.7. Statistical analyses*

181 Data were inspected for normal distribution using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Non-normally

182 distributed data were transformed logarithmically. Responses to exercise were examined using

183 repeated-measures Analyses of Variance (ANOVA). When data violated sphericity, a

- 184 Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied. Differences between individual time points were
- examined using post-hoc paired samples *t*-tests. Statistical significance was accepted at the p < .05
- 186 level. Data are presented as means ± standard deviation (SD) unless otherwise stated. Data were
- 187 analysed using SPSS statistical package version 22 (SPSS Inc, USA).

188 **3. Results**

189 *3.1. Exercise trial*

All participants completed the exercise trial [38]. The mean intensity of exercise was $80 \pm 6\%$ of

191 $\dot{V}O_{2 MAX}$, average ratings of perceived exertion were 16 ± 1 , and the mean heart rate throughout

192 the exercise task was 176 ± 7 beats per minute representing 91 ± 3 % of measured maximum

heart rate.

194

195 *3.2. DCs*

Total leukocytes, lymphocytes and monocytes exhibited the characteristic exercise-induced changes as reported previously [39, 40]. DCs (Lineage–HLA-DR+) increased in numbers in peripheral blood with exercise by approximately 150%, returning to baseline levels within 30 minutes (main effect of time; $F_{(1,10)} = 60$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.9$) (Figure 2a and 2b).

200

201 *3.3. DC sub-populations*

202 All DC sub-populations exhibited a statistically significant increase in cell numbers during 203 exercise, except for CD1c-CD141+ myeloid DCs, and returned to pre-exercise levels within 30 204 minutes of exercise cessation (Table 2). Overall, plasmacytoid DCs mobilised to a greater 205 magnitude than myeloid DCs (195 \pm 131 % vs. 131 \pm 100 %; p< .05; Figure 2b). Among 206 myeloid DCs, CD1c–CD141– showed the largest magnitude of exercise-induced change (167 \pm 207 122 %) with a stepwise mobilisation pattern among remaining sub-populations: CD1c+ CD141-208 $(79 \pm 50 \%)$, followed by CD1c+ CD141+ $(44 \pm 41 \%)$ with the smallest response shown by 209 CD1c-CD141+ cells $(23 \pm 54\%) p < .05$.

210

3.4. DCs and sub-populations expressing CD205 and analysis of CD205 cell-surface expression
density

213 The majority of DCs and sub-populations were CD205+ (mean \pm SD; 97.8 \pm 3.6%; across all 214 sub-populations and participants) [13]. There were no differences in the proportion of DCs 215 expressing CD205+ between the different sub-populations (data not shown). Generally, CD205+ 216 and CD205- cells among all sub-populations mobilised into blood during exercise, returning to 217 baseline levels within 30 minutes of exercise (Table 2 and Figure 3). However, there was a trend 218 for a larger mobilisation of CD205– cells in the majority of sub-populations (Figure 3). 219 Compared to CD205+ cells, a larger and statistically significant mobilisation of CD205- cells 220 was observed among CD1c-CD141+ cells and the CD1c+CD141+ cells (p 's < .05; Figure 3e 221 and 3f). For example, CD1c-CD141+CD205- cells and CD1c+CD141+CD205- cells exhibited 222 a mobilisation that was 80% and 70% greater than their CD205+ counterparts. Different to other 223 cells, plasmacytoid DCs exhibited a trend for a larger mobilisation of CD205+ cells (Figure 3c). 224 We also examined whether exercise altered the cell-surface expression density of CD205. At 225 baseline, the cell-surface expression density of CD205 was greater in the three myeloid sub-226 populations; CD1c-CD141+ and CD1c+CD141+ and CD1c+CD141- compared to 227 CD1c-CD141- and plasmacytoid DCs (data not shown). In addition, CD205 expression density 228 did not change in response to exercise (data not shown). 229

230 3.5. DCs and sub-populations expressing CD209 and analysis of CD209 cell-surface expression
231 density

- 232 DCs and their sub-populations did not express CD209 and there were no changes in the numbers
- 233 or proportions of CD209– cells, or alterations in the cell-surface expression density of CD209 in
- response to exercise (data not shown).

235 4. Discussion

The present study demonstrates that the total number of DCs increased in peripheral blood during exercise by 150% and among the major DC sub-populations, plasmacytoid DCs mobilised by 195% whereas myeloid DCs exhibited a smaller increase of 131%. We show for the first time, that among the four sub-populations of myeloid DCs, there was a stepwise mobilisation pattern: a 167% increase with CD1c-CD141- cells, a 79% increase with CD1c+CD141- cells, a 44% increase with CD1c+ CD141+ cells and a 23% increase with CD1c-CD141+ cells.

243 To date, the phenotypic characteristics of DC kinetics during exercise remains unclear as 244 only a limited number of studies have investigated the mobilisation of DC sub-populations in 245 response to physical stressors, and these studies have produced seemingly contradictory findings. 246 In the study herein, we show that both major DC subsets increase during exercise, with a greater 247 mobilisation response observed among plasmacytoid DCs compared to myeloid DCs. In 248 agreement with these results, a large and preferential exercise-induced mobilisation of 249 plasmacytoid DCs (200% increase) compared to myeloid DCs (100% increase) has also been 250 reported by a study that collected blood samples after vigorous ice hockey [16]. Contradicting 251 these findings, in two studies it has been shown that plasmacytoid DCs may decrease 252 immediately after long-duration exercise [17, 18]. However, these latter findings may be an 253 artefact, because DC sub-populations were analysed as a proportion of total leukocytes, and thus 254 DCs may artificially appear to be reduced because of a larger relative influx of NK cells, T cells 255 and other highly exercise-responsive leukocyte subsets. In a separate study, plasmacytoid and 256 myeloid DCs were examined before and after a combined protocol of moderate aerobic and 257 intermittent resistance exercise undertaken by patients with multiple sclerosis, and healthy

participants [15]. In the aforementioned work, it was shown that myeloid cells increased by 75%
and plasmacytoid cells increased by 50% and there were no differences between patients and
healthy controls [15]. Thus, sustained vigorous steady state exercise appears to at least mobilise
both myeloid and plasmacytoid DCs, yet we and others [16] have found higher mobilisation
responses among plasmacytoid DCs.

263 A preferential mobilisation of plasmacytoid DCs likely represents an adaptive process, in 264 which cells capable of mounting effector responses against infections or cancerous cells are 265 redistributed. Indeed, plasmacytoid DCs are major effector cells in the context of viral infection 266 due to their robust production of type 1 interferons [41, 42]. In addition, these cells express high 267 levels of the toll like receptors TLR7 and TLR9, which transduce signals from virus or self-268 nucleic acids leading to rapid identification and robust eradication of pathogens [43, 44]. In 269 comparison, myeloid cells are specialised in producing IL-12 that is critical for T cell activation 270 and differentiation [42, 45, 46]. Thus, in an evolutionary context, given that plasmacytoid DCs 271 have a greater inflammatory and migratory potential compared to myeloid DCs [42, 47], it is 272 perhaps unsurprising that these effector cells are preferentially mobilised by exercise. 273 Mechanistically, the magnitude of this mobilisation response is - akin to other effector immune 274 cells preferentially mobilised by acute exercise – likely to be intensity-dependent and driven, in a 275 dose-dependent fashion, by the density of adrenergic receptors on the surface of DCs [48, 49]. 276 Indeed, it has been demonstrated that the degree of DC mobilisation during strenuous exercise 277 appears to correlate positively with the concentration of catecholamines released into the 278 peripheral blood [16].

Extending previous investigations, we show for the first time that among myeloid DCs,
there is a stepwise mobilisation pattern, with the largest responses exhibited by CD1c-CD141-

281	cells, followed by a decreasing magnitude of response from CD1c+CD141- cells, then
282	CD1c+CD141+ cells, with the smallest exercise-induced change exhibited by CD1c-CD141+
283	cells. The least exercise responsive CD1c-CD141+ cells identified in the present study,
284	represent a small sub-population of myeloid DCs that have a strong capacity to phagocytose
285	apoptotic and necrotic cells or their debris, cross-presenting antigen to CD8+ cytotoxic T cells
286	[24, 50, 51]. In the present study, the two DC sub-populations that mobilised moderately with
287	exercise (CD1c+CD141+ and CD1c+CD141-) both expressed CD1c, and DCs with this
288	characteristic, are potent stimulators of CD4+ T cells [24, 51]. Recently, two additional sub-
289	populations of CD1c+ DCs have been established, referred to as CD1c+_A and CD1c+_B, which
290	exhibit non-inflammatory and inflammatory characteristics respectively [23]. However, as these
291	new sub-populations must be identified by uniquely expressed cell-surface proteins (CD32B for
292	CD1c+_A, and CD163 and CD36 for CD1c+_B), in the present study, we are unable to infer
293	whether the CD1c-expressing cells mobilised by exercise exhibit inflammatory potential [23].
294	Importantly, the present study provides novel information about the least well-characterised
295	myeloid DC sub-population [23]: we show that DCs with a CD1c-CD141- phenotype, are the
296	most exercise-responsive myeloid subset. In addition, future studies may seek to investigate the
297	functional characteristics and homing properties of these cells to better infer the clinical
298	implications of CD1c-CD141- mobilisation during exercise.
299	We also show for the first time, that among myeloid DCs, the most exercise responsive
300	cells are CD205–. For example, CD1c–CD141+ and CD1c+CD141+ cells which did not express
301	CD205, exhibited an exercise-induced mobilisation that was 80% and 70% greater than their

302 CD205+ counterparts, respectively. The cell surface protein CD205 (also known as DEC-205) is

303 upregulated upon DC maturation [25] and facilitates recognition of apoptotic or necrotic cells

304 [26] by having a critical role in receptor-mediated antigen uptake [52]. Thus, these CD205– 305 cells, which are not specialised in recognising apoptotic or necrotic cells, may have other 306 functions, such as targeting viral infection [53]. In the present study, we also examined DC 307 expression of CD209 (also known as DC-SIGN), a multifunctional receptor which recognises 308 glycans from viruses and bacteria, and is involved in adhesion, migration, signalling and antigen 309 presentation [27]. In agreement with prior research, we showed that DCs in peripheral blood do 310 not express CD209 [13, 54] but we extend these findings by showing that exercise does not 311 stimulate an upregulation of CD209, or at least, does not preferentially mobilise a sub-population 312 of DCs that already express CD209. Circulating DCs become primed to acquire antigens when 313 'activating stimuli' such as cytokines interact with a variety of cell surface receptors [11]. Upon 314 activation, DCs upregulate chemokine receptors, adhesion molecules and co-stimulatory 315 molecules, including CD209 [11]. Indeed, it is well established that developing DCs in vitro for 316 several days with granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF) and IL-4 leads 317 to an increase in CD209 expression [32, 55]. In addition, inflammatory stimuli such as TNF-318 alpha, IFN-gamma, and lipopolysaccharide, which also increase with vigorous exercise, 319 upregulate cell surface expression of CD209 [56]. In the present study, it seems that the 320 inflammatory stimulus of exercise was too short, or of insufficient magnitude, to elicit an 321 upregulation of CD209, and thus, these signals might most likely be encountered post-exercise in 322 peripheral tissues, where DCs have been shown to strongly express CD209 [55]. 323 The findings presented in this study improve our understanding of how exercise could be 324 used to bolster cell yields for DC immunotherapy [32, 33]. Our results are timely, given the 325 recent focus of harvesting DC sub-populations directly from blood [34, 36, 51, 57]. For example, 326 a feasibility study isolated peripheral blood plasmacytoid DCs from 15 patients with stage IV

327 melanoma for expansion ex vivo with cytokines and antigen, before re-infusing the cell 328 preparations [58]. The results showed that 7 out of 15 patients were alive two years after 329 plasmacytoid DC administration, compared with 6 of 72 patients treated with standard 330 chemotherapy [58]. Using similar methodology in another feasibility study of 14 patients with 331 stage IV melanoma, immunotherapy using CD1c+ myeloid DCs resulted in long-term 332 progression free survival for 12-35 months [59]. Furthermore, CD1c+ DC immunotherapies are 333 being trialled with other cancers, including prostate cancer [60]. The results of the present study 334 show that if peripheral blood DCs could be harvested during exercise, the total DC yield might 335 increase by 150%, with a potential increased cell yield among plasmacytoid and myeloid 336 dendritic cells by 195% and 131% respectively. Depending on the subset of myeloid cells being 337 targeted, exercise could improve cell yields by 23-167%. Future studies are needed to establish 338 whether exercise can increase the yield of peripheral blood DCs in patients with different forms 339 of cancer, and in addition, whether these changes, which might improve the preparation of DC 340 immunotherapy products, leads to better clinical outcomes.

341 The findings of the present study also provide some support for mechanisms underlying 342 vaccine-enhancing effects of acute psychological stress [61] and acute bouts of exercise [29]. 343 Indeed, both stressors cause a substantial leukocytosis, and it has been suggested that as part of 344 this response, DCs are mobilised into peripheral blood, later homing to the site of vaccine 345 administration in skeletal muscle, facilitating antigen processing and presentation [62]. Further, 346 the most robust and consistent interventions that enhance vaccine responses induce damage and 347 local inflammation in the muscle selected for vaccine administration [28]. Our study confirms 348 that as part of exercise-induced leukocytosis, DCs are mobilised into peripheral blood, with a 349 preferential response from plasmacytoid cells. Other human studies have shown that leukocytes

350 appear in muscles damaged by exercise within four to six hours [63, 64]. In support, animal 351 studies have shown that DCs accumulate in damaged muscle within 24 hours [65] perhaps in 352 response to myoblast-derived cytokines and chemokines [66] or heat shock proteins, uric acid 353 and cell debris from necrotic cells [67]. Thus, given the results of the present study and those 354 discussed herein, it is likely that Matzinger's 'danger model', which proposes that antigen 355 presenting cells are attracted to distressed and injured cells, and subsequently activated by 356 endogenous cellular alarm signals, could be a mechanism for improved vaccine responses 357 following muscle-damaging exercise [68]. Further support for this idea is provided by the 358 observation that DCs, and in particular plasmacytoid DCs, are a common feature of lesions in 359 inflammatory myopathies [69, 70].

360 When interpreting the results from the present study it should be considered that DCs did 361 not fall below resting levels 30 minutes after exercise. It is likely that the intensity and/or 362 duration of exercise was insufficient to stimulate a post-exercise extravasation of DCs to 363 peripheral tissues [5]. It is well established that a dose-response relationship between exercise 364 duration and the magnitude of lymphocyte trafficking exists, but relationships have not been 365 investigated among DCs [71]. The extravasation of cells out of the bloodstream is likely to be 366 driven by catecholamines and cortisol, and the magnitude of this neuroendocrine response is 367 positively correlated with exercise intensity and duration [72]. In support, a strong positive 368 correlation between adrenergic activity and the exercise-induced increase of plasmacytoid DCs 369 has been reported [16], suggesting an adrenergic dependent mechanism of DC mobilisation, as 370 with other cell populations [73]. However, if in the present study, exercise did indeed invoke a 371 neuroendocrine response of sufficient magnitude, extended blood sampling may have enabled 372 assessment of DC extravasation, given that the post-exercise nadir among lymphocytes is

373	typically 1-2 hours after the stimulus [3]. To better determine the DC kinetics in response to
374	exercise, future studies should investigate different durations and intensities of exercise with
375	extended post-exercise blood sampling.
376	In summary, acute exercise increased the number of DCs in peripheral blood by 150%
377	with a preferential mobilisation of plasmacytoid DCs (195%) compared to myeloid DCs (131%).
378	Among myeloid DCs, there was a stepwise mobilisation pattern: 167% increase with
379	CD1c-CD141- cells, a 79% increase with CD1c+CD141-, a 44% increase with CD1c+CD141+
380	cells and a 23% increase with CD1c-CD141+ cells. The most exercise responsive myeloid DCs
381	did not express CD205, suggesting that immature cells, unspecialised in recognising apoptotic or
382	necrotic cells, are preferentially mobilised.
383	
384	Figure legends
385	Figure 1
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385 386	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward-
385 386 387	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward-scatter (a). Mononuclear cells were gated on the forward <i>versus</i> side-scatter (b) dead cells were
385 386 387 388	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward-scatter (a). Mononuclear cells were gated on the forward <i>versus</i> side-scatter (b) dead cells were excluded gating 7AAD <i>versus</i> side-scatter (c) followed by subsequent gating of
385 386 387 388 389	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward- scatter (a). Mononuclear cells were gated on the forward <i>versus</i> side-scatter (b) dead cells were excluded gating 7AAD <i>versus</i> side-scatter (c) followed by subsequent gating of Lineage–HLADR+ dendritic cells (d), which were analysed for expression of CD303 (e).
385 386 387 388 389 390	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward- scatter (a). Mononuclear cells were gated on the forward <i>versus</i> side-scatter (b) dead cells were excluded gating 7AAD <i>versus</i> side-scatter (c) followed by subsequent gating of Lineage–HLADR+ dendritic cells (d), which were analysed for expression of CD303 (e). Plasmacytoid dendritic cells were identified as Lineage–HLA-DR+ CD303+ and myeloid
385 386 387 388 389 390 391	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward- scatter (a). Mononuclear cells were gated on the forward <i>versus</i> side-scatter (b) dead cells were excluded gating 7AAD <i>versus</i> side-scatter (c) followed by subsequent gating of Lineage–HLADR+ dendritic cells (d), which were analysed for expression of CD303 (e). Plasmacytoid dendritic cells were identified as Lineage–HLA-DR+ CD303+ and myeloid dendritic cells identified as Lineage–HLA-DR+CD303– (e). Myeloid dendritic cells
385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392	Figure 1 Flow cytometry gating strategy. Doublets were removed by gating forward <i>versus</i> forward- scatter (a). Mononuclear cells were gated on the forward <i>versus</i> side-scatter (b) dead cells were excluded gating 7AAD <i>versus</i> side-scatter (c) followed by subsequent gating of Lineage–HLADR+ dendritic cells (d), which were analysed for expression of CD303 (e). Plasmacytoid dendritic cells were identified as Lineage–HLA-DR+ CD303+ and myeloid dendritic cells identified as Lineage–HLA-DR+CD303– (e). Myeloid dendritic cells Lineage–HLADR+CD303– were analysed for expression of CD141 and CD1c (f) to yield four

397 Figure 2

398 Mobilisation of total dendritic cells and subpopulations during exercise. (a) Exercise-induced

- kinetics of dendritic cells. Main effect of time: $F_{(1,10)} = 60.0$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.9$. * Indicates a
- 400 significant difference from baseline p<0.05 (*t*-test between baseline and exercise; $t_{(8)} = -6.9$,
- 401 p < 0.05) and a significant difference from +30min (*t*-test between exercise and +30min; t₍₈₎ =
- 402 14.2, p<0.05). Data are expressed as cell/ μ L (mean ± SEM). (b) Percentage change from baseline
- 403 for major dendritic cell subsets in response to exercise. * Indicates a significant difference
- 404 between subsets p<0.05 (*t*-test; Plasmacytoid vs. Myeloid, t $_{(8)}$ = -2.9, p<0.05). Data are
- 405 expressed as percentage change from baseline (mean \pm SEM). (c) Percentage change for myeloid
- 406 dendritic cell sub-populations in response to exercise. * Indicates a significant difference

407 between subsets
$$p < 0.05$$
 (*t*-test; CD1c-CD141+ vs CD1c-CD141-, t₍₈₎= -3.0, $p < 0.05$;

408 CD1c+CD141+ vs CD1c-CD141- t $_{(8)}$ = -3.1, p<0.05; CD1c+CD141- vs CD1c-CD141-, t $_{(8)}$ =

409 -3.9, p < 0.05). No other significant differences were observed between cell types. Data are

- 410 expressed as percentage change from baseline (mean \pm SEM).
- 411

412 Figure 3

413 Differential magnitude of dendritic cell and subpopulation mobilisation on the basis of CD205

414 expression. Percentage change from baseline for major dendritic cell subsets and the myeloid

- 415 dendritic cell sub-populations in response to exercise. * Indicates a significant difference
- 416 between CD205+ and CD205- p < 0.05 t-test. CD1c-CD141+, $t_{(8)} = -2.5, p < 0.05$;
- 417 CD1c+CD141+, t $_{(8)}$ = -3.1, p<0.05. Data are expressed as percentage change from baseline
- 418 (mean \pm SEM).

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Sub-population name	Cell surface markers	Functional properties	Reference
DCs	Lineage- HLADR+	Presentation of ingested pathogens or cell debris to T-cells.	Ziegler Heitbrock (2010) Merad (2013)
Plasmacytoid DCs	Lineage- HLADR+ CD303+	Major effector sub-population of DCs. Produce type 1 interferons in response to viral infection.	Dzionek (2000) Liu (2005)
Myeloid DCs	Lineage- HLADR+ CD303-	Regulatory DC sub-populations. Produce IL-12 for T-cell activation and differentiation.	Dzionek (2000) Heufler (1996)
CD1c-CD141+	Lineage- HLADR+ CD303- CD1c- CD141+	Cross presentation of antigen to CD8+ T -cells for anti-tumour immunity.	Penna (2002) Ding (2014)
CD1c+CD141+	Lineage- HLADR+ CD303- CD1c+ CD141+	Cross presentation of antigen to CD8+ T cells for anti-tumour immunity and stimulate CD4+ T-cells.	Villani (2017) Ding (2014)
CD1c+CD141-	Lineage- HLADR+ CD303- CD1c+ CD141-	Stimulate CD4+ T-cells.	Villani (2017) Ding (2014)
CD1c-CD141-	Lineage- HLADR+ CD303- CD1c- CD141-	Unknown	Villani (2017)

Table 1. Dendritic cell sub-population identification

Legend: Indentation indicates a sub-population of parent cells (i.e., Myeloid Dendritic Cells are a sub-population of Dendritic Cells, and CD1c+CD141– Dendritic Cells are a sub-population of Myeloid Dendritic Cells). Lineage cocktail = CD3, CD19, CD20, CD14, CD56. HLADR = marker for major histocompatibility complex MHC class II. CD = cluster of differentiation. In addition CD205 (DEC-205) a cell surface marker that enables recognition of apoptotic or necrotic cells (Cao et al 2015) and CD209 (DC-SIGN) a cell surface marker that recognises a wide variety of ligands, is involved in adhesion, migration and antigen presentation (Garcia-Vallejo and van Kooyk 2013) were examined on all dendritic cells and sub-populations.

Cells /µL		Baseline	Exercise	+30 min	Main effect of time
DCs		79 ± 38	$196 \pm 126^{***}$	76 ± 34 †	$F_{(1,10)}$ = 59.9 ; $p < 0.05 \eta^2$ =0.9
	CD205+	78 ± 37	$192 \pm 123^{***}$	74 ± 33 †	$F_{(1,10)}$ = 59.9 ; $p < 0.05 \ \eta^2$ =0.9
	CD205-	1.4 ± 1.4	$4.3 \pm 4.8^{***}$	1.5 ± 1.5 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 27.8$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$
Plasmacytoid DCs		19 ± 11	$55 \pm 42^{***}$	22 ± 19†	$F_{(2,16)} = 45.9$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.9$
	CD205+	19 ± 11	$55 \pm 42^{***}$	22 ± 19 †	$F_{(2,16)}$ = 45.9 ; $p < 0.05 \eta^2$ =0.9
	CD205-	0.07 ± 0.07	$0.1 \pm 0.09^{**}$	0.06 ± 0.03	$F_{(2,16)} = 5.0$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.4$
Myeloid DCs		60 ± 30	$139 \pm 88^{***}$	53 ± 22†	$F_{(2,16)} = 43.6$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$
	CD205+	58 ± 30	$135 \pm 85^{***}$	52 ± 21 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 43.4$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$
	CD205-	1.4 ± 1.3	$4.2 \pm 4.7^{***}$	1.4 ± 1.5 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 28.1$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$
CD1c- CD141+		2.1 ± 1.3	2.4 ± 1.5	1.7 ± 0.9	$F_{(2,16)} = 1.4$; $p > 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.2$
	CD205+	2.0 ± 1.3	2.2 ± 1.5	1.6 ± 0.9	$F_{(2,16)} = 1.5$; $p > 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.2$
	CD205-	0.08 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.2	0.09 ± 0.1	$F_{(2,16)} = 3.6$; $p > 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.3$
CD1c+ CD141+		0.6 ± 0.2	0.8 ± 0.4 **	0.6 ± 0.2	$F_{(2,16)} = 5.1$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.4$
	CD205+	0.54 ± 0.2	$0.78 \pm 0.38*$	0.54 ± 0.2	$F_{(2,16)}$ = 4.6 ; $p < 0.05 \eta^2$ =0.4
	CD205-	0.01 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01 ***	$0.01\pm0.01 \ddagger$	$F_{(2,16)} = 21.3$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.7$
CD1c+ CD141-		20 ± 12	$34 \pm 18^{***}$	16 ± 6 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 31.2$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$
	CD205+	20 ± 12	$33.7 \pm 17.4^{***}$	16 ± 6 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 31.1$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$
	CD205-	0.07 ± 0.08	0.14 ± 0.16	0.04 ± 6 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 3.9$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.3$
CD1c- CD141-		37 ± 22	$102 \pm 78^{***}$	35 ± 21 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 45.2$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.9$
	CD205+	35.7 ± 21.3	$98.1 \pm 74^{***}$	33.3 ± 19.6 †	$F_{(2,16)} = 45.2$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.9$
	CD205-	1.3 ± 1.1	$4 \pm 4.4^{***}$	1.3 ± 1.3†	$F_{(2,16)} = 27.1$; $p < 0.05 \eta^2 = 0.8$

Table 2. Total DCs, and DC sub-populations differentiated on CD205 expression (mean ± SD)

Legend: *<0.05 **<0.01 ***<0.001 indicates a significant difference (paired samples t-test from baseline). † indicates a significant difference <0.05 (paired samples t-test from exercise to +30 min).



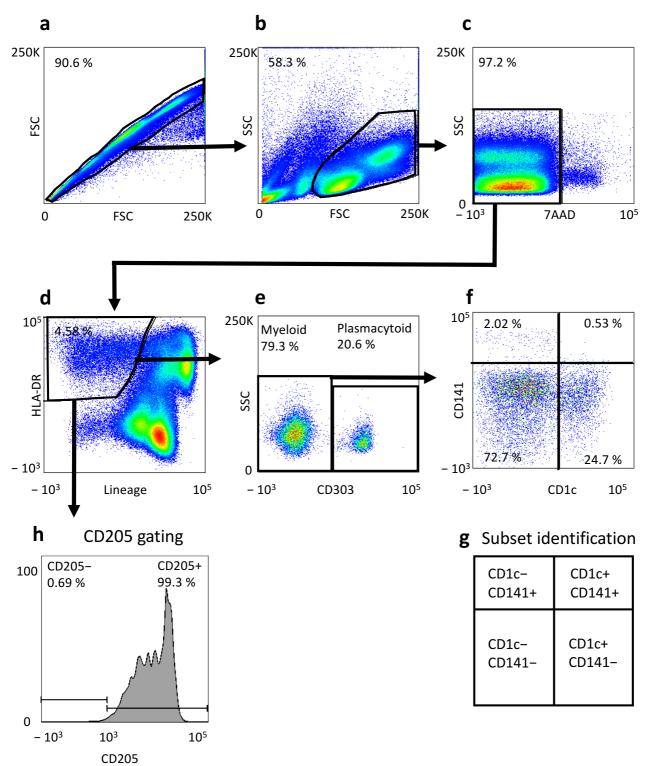


Figure 2. Mobilisation of total dendritic cells and sub-populations during exercise

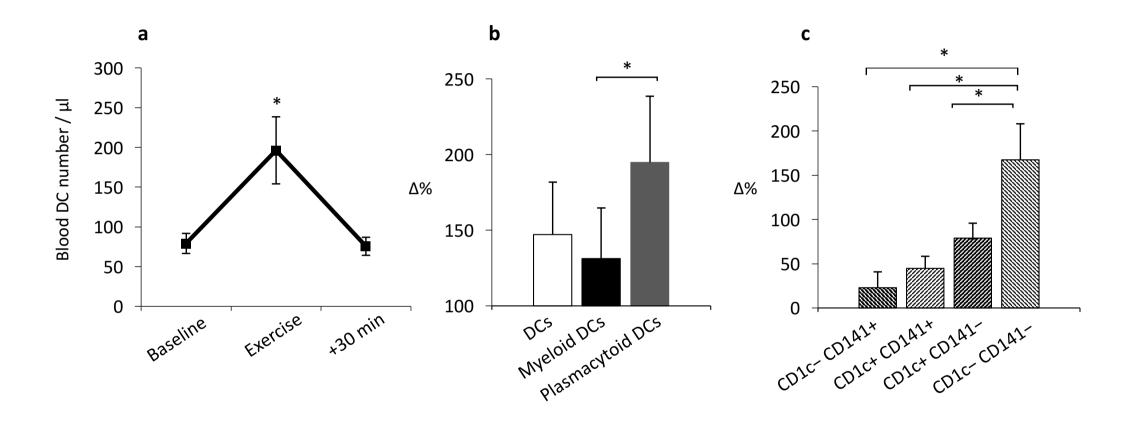


Figure 3. Differential magnitude of dendritic cell and sub-population mobilisation on the basis of CD205 expression

