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PPARgamma deficiency counteracts thymic senescence

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1ABSTRACT

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3Thymic senescence contributes to increased incidence of infection, cancer and autoimmunity 4at senior ages. This process manifests as adipose involution. As with other adipose tissues, 5thymic adipose involution is also controlled by PPARgamma. This is supported by 6observations reporting that systemic PPARgamma activation accelerates thymic adipose 7involution. Therefore we hypothesized that decreased PPARgamma activity could prevent 8thymic adipose involution, although it may trigger metabolic adverse effects.

9We have confirmed that both human and murine thymic sections show marked staining for 10PPARgamma at senior ages. We have also tested the thymic lobes of PPARgamma haplo-11insufficient and null mice. Supporting our working hypothesis both adult PPARgamma haplo-12insufficient and null mice show delayed thymic senescence by thymus histology, thymocyte 13mTrec qPCR and peripheral blood naïve T-cell ratio by flow-cytometry. Delayed senescence 14showed dose-response with respect to PPARgamma deficiency. Functional immune 15parameters were also evaluated at senior ages in PPARgamma haplo-insufficient mice (null 16mice do not reach senior ages due to metabolic adverse affects). As expected, sustained and 17elevated T-cell production conferred oral tolerance and enhanced vaccination efficiency in 18senior PPARgamma haplo-insufficient, but not in senior wild-type littermates according to 19ELISA IgG measurements.

20Of note, humans also show increased oral intolerance issues and decreased protection by 21vaccines at senior ages. Moreover, PPARgamma haplo-insufficiency also exists in human 22known as a rare disease (FPLD3) causing metabolic adverse effects, similar to the mouse. 23When compared to age- and metabolic disorder-matched other patient samples (FPLD2 not 24affecting PPARgamma activity), FPLD3 patients showed increased hTrec values by qPCR 25(within healthy human range) suggesting delayed thymic senescence, in accordance with 26mouse results and supporting our working hypothesis.

27In summary our experiments prove that systemic decrease of PPARgamma activity prevents 28thymic senescence, albeit with metabolic drawbacks. However, thymic tissue-specific 29PPARgamma antagonism would likely solve the issue.

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32**Keywords**: PPARgamma, thymus, immunity, senescence, rejuvenation 33

11. INTRODUCTION

3The PPAR (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor) molecular family is widely studied (1-43). These nuclear receptor proteins possess transcription factor activities and influence 5multiple cellular events at the molecular level including adipocyte differentiation and 6metabolism. Among them, PPARgamma is of particular interest being expressed by all 7adipose tissue subtypes and being indispensable for adipose tissue development and for the 8homeostasis of physiological metabolism (4-7). As a consequence, in the mouse systemic loss 9of PPARgamma activity severely impairs glucose and lipid metabolism as characterized by 10others (8-10). In accordance, PPARgamma null mice are only viable if using conditional 11knockout strategy (11). Similar to the mouse above, in human PPARgamma haplo-12insufficiency leads to the development of a rare metabolic condition known as familial partial 13lipodystrophy, type 3 (FPLD3, ORPHA 79083) also characterized by diabetes and 14dyslipidemia (12-15).

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16In mammals systemic PPARgamma activity may be increased at multiple levels. 17Environmental factors including excessive caloric consumption or corticosteroid exposure 18increase PPARgamma activity systemically (16-18). Pharmacological systemic activation may 19be achieved through administration of thiazolidinediones (TZDs) previously used as part of 20oral anti-diabetic treatment, but currently neglected due to adverse cardiovascular side-effects 21(19, 20). Genetic engineering-based enhancement of PPARgamma activity in mouse models 22has also been performed (21). In every case increased PPARgamma activity promotes adipose 23tissue development at multiple sites of the body.

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25Thymic aging is observed as adipose involution during which the functional thymus niche that 26normally supports T-cell production is gradually lost and replaced by adipose tissue (22). The 27process starts focally in childhood then spreads and accelerates with puberty due to hormonal 28changes (23). Diminishing T-cell production results in decreased availability of fresh naïve T-29cells (24). Consequences include increasing incidence of infection, cancer and autoimmunity 30observed at senior ages (25, 26). Thymic adipose involution appears to be PPARgamma-31dependent: any condition that systemically enhances PPARgamma activity – either 32environmental, pharmacological or genetic – accelerates thymic senescence or adipose 33involution with all its immunological consequences (27-32). However, the opposite 34phenomenon whether systemically decreased PPARgamma activity can ameliorate long-term 35functional immune parameters has barely been addressed (33, 34). For this reason we have set 36out to characterize the effect of systemic genetic PPARgamma loss of function on long-term 37immune homeostasis in both mouse and human. 38

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12. METHODS

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32.1. Human thymus samples

4Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) human thymus samples from age groups 30-40 5years 50-60 and 70-80 years were obtained from the Department of Pathology (Faculty of 6Medicine, University of Pecs, Hungary.) Experiments involving human thymus samples were 7performed with the consent of the Regional and Local Ethics Committee of Clinical Centre, 8University or Pecs (ref. no.: 6331/2016) according to their guidelines. All subjects gave 9written informed consent in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

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112.2. Human immunohistochemistry

12Human thymus lobes were fixed in paraformaldehyde (4% PFA in PBS) then paraffin 13embedded. 5µm thick sections were stained using immunohistochemistry (35). First the slides 14were rinsed in heated xylene and were washed with a descending series of alcohol to remove 15paraffin. After de-paraffination the slides were rehydrated in distilled water and antigen 16retrieval was performed by heating the slides in Target Retrieval Solution (pH 6 DAKO) at 1797°C for 20-30 minutes. Subsequently slides were washed in dH₂O and endogenous 18peroxidase activity was blocked with 3% H₂O₂ containing TBS (pH 7.4) for 15 minutes. Then 19slides were washed three times with TBS containing Tween (0.05%, pH 7.4). Pre-blocking 20was carried out with 3% BSA in TBS for 20 minutes before overnight incubation with anti-21PPARgamma (1:100, rabbit monoclonal antibody clone: C26H12 Cell Signalling Technology) 22primary antibody at 4°C. Following incubation slides were washed with TBS for three times 23then incubated with peroxidase conjugated secondary antibody (1:100, Polyclonal Goat Anti-24Rabbit IgG, DAKO) for 90 minutes. Antibody labeling was visualized with the help of liquid 25DAB Substrate Chromogen System (DAKO). For nuclear counterstaining hematoxylin 26staining was performed. Finally slides were mounted with Faramount Aqueous Mounting 27Medium (DAKO). Histological evaluation was performed with the help of Panoramic MIDI 28digital slide scanner (3DHistech). Image analysis was performed using ImageJ software with 29IHC toolbox plug-in.

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312.3. Mouse breeding and maintenance

32For certain experiments we have used wild-type and PPARgamma heterozygous (haplo-33insufficient) or PPARgamma null (KO) mice of C57BL/6J genetic background. The mice 34were age matched, and both genders were used for the investigation. The design to generate 35PPARgamma KO mice was described previously (11). Briefly, PPARgamma +/-/Sox2Cre+ 36male mice were crossed with PPARgamma fl/fl female mice to generate heterozygous 37PPARgamm afl/-/Sox2Cre- and homozygous PPAR gamma Δ fl/-/Sox2Cre+ mice, wherein the 38 floxed allele was recombined resulting a null allele. Mice were housed under minimal disease 39(MD) conditions in the Laboratory Animal Core Facility of University of Debrecen. Animal 40rooms were ventilated 15 times / hour with filtered air, mice received autoclaved pellet diet 41(Altromin VRF1) and tap water ad libitum. The cages contained sterilized bedding. Room 42lightning was automated with 12 hours light and 12 hours dark periods. The room temperature 43was 21±2 °C, the relative humidity is between 30-60%. Senescent animals developed and 44aged normally, without any treatment. Permission to perform the described animal 45 experiments was granted to the relevant utilities of the University of Pecs (ref. no.: 46BA02/2000-46/2016). Permission to generate PPARgamma GM mice was granted to the 47relevant utilities of the University of Debrecen (ref. no.: TMF/82-10/2015). Permission to 48perform experimental procedures with PPARgamma GM mice was granted to the relevant 49utilities of the University of Pecs (ref. no.: TMF/124-11/2017). 50

12.4. Mouse immunofluorescence

2Immunofluorescent staining was performed on 8µm cryo-sections of mouse thymus lobes as 3described previously (**35**). Briefly, the slides were fixed in cold acetone, then dried and 4blocked to prevent non-specific staining using 5% BSA in PBS for 20 min before staining 5with fluorochrome-conjugated or primary antibodies: anti-EpCAM1-FITC (1:100, rat 6monoclonal antibody clone: G8.8,), anti-Ly51-PE (1:100, rat monoclonal antibody clone: 76C3, eBioscience), anti-PPARgamma (rabbit monoclonal antibody clone: C26H12 Cell Cell 8Signaling Technology). For secondary antibody Alexa-555 conjugated a-rabbit goat IgG 9(1:200, Life Technologies) was used. In certain cases DAPI (Life Technologies) nuclear 10counterstain was also applied. Sections were analyzed using a Nikon Eclipse Ti-U microscope 11equipped with a CCD camera (Andor Zyla 5.5) and NIS-Elements software. The 12medulla/cortex ratio was calculated using ImageJ software.

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142.5. Mouse flow-cytometry

15Thymocyte subsets and T-cell subpopulations in blood were investigated by flow-cytometry 16as published by others (36, 37). Thymocytes and PBMC were isolated from mice and labeled 17with fluorophore-conjugated antibodies in PBS-BSA (5% BSA diluted in PBS). In every case 18100,000 cells were stained for measurement. Incubation with antibodies was performed at 4°C 19for 60 minutes followed by a washing step. FACSCanto II flow-cytometer and FACSDiva 20software (Becton Dickinson) were used for analysis. In every case 10,000 events (parent R1 21morphological lymphocyte gate) were recorded by flow-cytometry. For thymocyte subset 22measurement Alexa-647 conjugated anti-mouse CD4 (clone: YTS 191) and FITC conjugated 23anti-mouse CD8 (clone: IBL 3/25) antibodies were used (both produced in the Department of 24Immunology and Biotechnology, University of Pecs, Hungary). For peripheral blood T cell 25subpopulation analysis, Pacific Blue conjugated anti-mouse CD3 (clone: 17A2), PerCP 26conjugated anti-mouse CD4 (clone: GK1.5), APC/Cy7 conjugated anti-mouse CD8 (clone: 27YTS156.7.7), PE conjugated anti-mouse CD44 (clone: IM7), APC conjugated anti-mouse 28CD62L (clone: MEL-14) (all purchased form BioLegend) and FITC conjugated anti-mouse 29CD19 (clone: 1D3, produced by the Department of Immunology and Biotechnology, 30University of Pecs, Hungary) were used.

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322.6. TREC measurement by digital qPCR in mouse and human

33TREC (T-cell recombination excision circle) by-products of gene-rearrangement in fresh 34naive T-cells were also assessed. We performed mTREC digital qPCR using mouse and 35hTREC digital qPCR using human samples by adapting methods published by others (**38**). 36Briefly, DNA was isolated from mouse thymocytes using the NucleoSpin Tissue kit 37(Macherey-Nagel) according to the manufacturer's instruction. For human, peripheral-blood 38samples were processed using the DNA Blood Mini kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's 39guides. Absolute copy numbers were measured by digital PCR on the QuantStudio 3D Digital 40PCR platform (ThermoFisher) using 30 ng DNA per sample. Taqman primers / probes and 41digital qPCR reagents were also purchased from ThermoFisher and used as suggested. For 42age-matched range of healthy human hTrec values please refer to the work of Lynch et al (**38**). 43Permission to perform the described animal experiments was granted to the relevant utilities 44of the University of Pecs (ref. no.: BA02/2000-46/2016). Experiments involving human blood 45samples were performed with the consent of the Regional and Local Ethics Committee of 46Clinical Centre, University or Pecs (ref. no.: 6439/2016) according to their guidelines.

482.7. Oral tolerance induction in mouse

49Induction and evaluation of oral tolerance was performed as described by others **(39, 41, 42)**. 50Briefly, both wild-type and PPARgamma haplo-insufficient mice received 5mg/ml ovalbumin

1(OVA, Sigma-Aldrich) in drinking water for seven days. On day 7 mice were challenged with 2an intra-peritoneal injection of 5μg ovalbumin in 200μl of 1:1 of PBS:complete Freund 3adjuvant. On day 14 mice received an intra-peritoneal injection of 5μg ovalbumin in 200 μl of 41:1 of PBS:incomplete Freund adjuvant. Serum was collected on day 21 and anti-OVA IgG 5antibodies were measured by ELISA. Briefly, 96 well Microtest Plates (Sarstedt) were coated 6with OVA and blocked with BSA. Then plates were incubated with serial dilutions of mouse 7serum samples (1:100 - 1:3200). The antibody content was visualized with the help of HRP 8conjugated a-mouse immunoglobulin antibody (rabbit polyclonal, Dako). Optical density was 9measured at 492 nm with iEMS Reader MF equipment (Thermo Labsystems).

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112.8. Influenza vaccination in mouse

12The efficiency of influenza vaccination was investigated as described elsewhere (40). Briefly, 13both wild-type and PPARgamma haplo-insufficient mice were injected intramuscular once 14with 0.1ml human seasonal influenza vaccine cocktail (3Fluart) to mimic human vaccination 15at 9 months of age. In order to imitate human exposure pattern serum antibody IgG titer 16against H1N1 A/California/7/2009 strain (part of 3Fluart) was measured by ELISA three 17months after initial single vaccination at 12 months of age. For detection ELISA plates were 18coated with 0.05ug HA protein of influenza strain A (Recombinant subtype H1N1 19A/California/7/2009 His Tag, Life Technologies). Then plates were incubated with serial 20dilutions of mouse serum samples (1:5 - 1: 1600). The antibody content was visualized with 21the help of HRP conjugated a-mouse immunoglobulin antibody (rabbit polyclonal, Dako). 22Optical density was measured at 492 nm with iEMS Reader MF equipment (Thermo 23Labsystems).

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252.9. Statistical analysis

26All experiments were performed at least on three occasions, representative experiments are 27shown. Measures were obtained in triplicates, data are presented as mean and +SD as error 28bars. Graphpad Prism software was used for statistical analysis. Two-tailed T-student test was 29applied. Significant differences are shown by asterisks (ns for not significant, * for $p \le 0.05$, 30^{**} for $p \le 0.01$, *** for $p \le 0.001$).

13. RESULTS

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33.1. PPARgamma distorts the ratio of thymic epithelial compartments with age

4Previously reported mouse results showed increasing PPARgamma expression with age in the 5thymic epithelial compartments, accompanied by thymic adipose involution. We have set out 6to prove human relevance of previous mouse findings and test whether PPARgamma activity 7influences the ratio of thymic epithelial compartments.

8

93.1.1. PPARgamma expression increases in the adult thymus with age

10Human FFPE thymic sections were analyzed for their PPARgamma expression in several 11adult age groups from young through middle-aged to senior (Figure 1A-D). Our results 12indicate that PPARgamma expression significantly and progressively increases with age 13(Figure 1A-C). Of note, total cellular areas shrink at senior ages in both human (Figure 1C) 14and mouse (Figure 1F). As a result the ratio of PPARgamma-expressing cellular areas shows 15relative increase with age (Figure 1D). Immunofluorescent staining of mouse thymic cryo-16sections at 15 months of age (Figure 1F) provides visual support for thymic epithelial to 17adipose trans-differentiation in harmony with the working hypothesis of cellular trans-18differentiation. A portion of stromal cells shows dual staining for epithelial identity and 19adipose differentiation, a hallmark of thymic adipose involution. This phenomenon is not 20observed at young adult age (Figure 1E).

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223.1.2. PPARgamma skews the ratio of epithelial compartments with age

23Mouse thymic cryo-sections were differentially stained for medullary and cortical epithelial 24compartments at several ages and using various genetic backgrounds (Figure 2A-D). Our 25results show that in the wild-type setting the medullary epithelial compartment significantly 26shrinks with age as reported previously (31). This, however, is not observed in PPARgamma 27deficient settings. Loss of PPARgamma activity shows protection in a progressive manner 28presenting dose-response (Figure 2E). PPARgamma deficiency efficiently and significantly 29prevents the erosion of the medullary epithelial compartment, otherwise prone to shrink with 30senescence.

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333.2. PPARgamma affects thymic T-cell production and peripheral blood T-cell 34distribution with age

35We have observed changes in thymus architecture in response to PPARgamma status. 36Consequently, we were interested in whether morphological changes alter thymus function: 37naïve T-cell production. Going beyond, we were eager to see if sustained influence of 38PPARgamma status on thymocyte function is also reflected in the peripheral blood. 39

403.2.1. PPARgamma disturbs thymic T-cell output with age

41Age-related changes in thymocyte levels of mTrec (DNA loop by-product of mouse T-cell 42receptor gene rearrangement) were evaluated in wild-type and PPARgamma deficient settings 43using digital qPCR (Figure 3A). Our results indicate slight (though not significant) decrease 44of mTrec and hence fresh-naïve T-cell output with age in thymocytes of wild-type mice. 45PPARgamma deficiency significantly and progressively counteracts the process also showing 46dose-responsive increase of thymocyte mTrec levels. In further analyses the percent 47distribution of thymocyte subpopulations was assessed using flow-cytometry in wild-type and 48PPARgamma deficient mice (Figure 3B). All thymocyte subpopulations showed near 49identical distribution pattern with all genetic backgrounds. Taken together, PPARgamma

1 deficiency progressively enhances thymocyte development in adult age, but without skewing 2the distribution of thymocyte subpopulations or their differentiation preference.

4<u>3.2.2. PPARgamma influences T-cell subpopulation distribution in adult peripheral blood</u>

5Peripheral blood T-cell subpopulations were evaluated by flow-cytometry at 12 months of age 6in wild-type and PPARgamma deficient animals. Our results do not show differences in the 7percent distribution of the major T-cell groups of helper T-cells and cytotoxic T-cells (**Figure 84A**) within the CD3-gate of T-cells. However, the evaluation of naive T-cell and memory T-9cell ratio reveals significant effect of PPARgamma deficiency (**Figure 4B**). There is 10significant increase of naïve T-cells in the peripheral blood of PPARgamma deficient animals 11compared to wild-type animals, conversely and significantly decreasing the memory T-cell 12pool within the CD3-gate of T-cells. Deeper analysis of the memory T-cell pool reveals it is 13the mobile effector memory T-cell subpopulation that shows significant decrease and not 14central memory T-cells (**Figure 4C**) within the CD3-gate of T-cells. Sustained and prolonged 15naïve T-cell production due to PPARgamma deficiency in the thymus as suggested by mTrec 16values above apparently affects peripheral blood T-cell subpopulations as shown here.

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193.3. Functional immunological consequence and human relevance

20Having seen the far-reaching influence of PPARgamma status on thymus architecture, thymus 21function and peripheral blood T-cell composition with age, we have set out to test whether 22these changes have functional immunological relevance. If so, it would be also of high 23interest to test if our comprehensive mouse results have human relevance.

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253.3.1. PPARgamma modulates immune regulation and immune response

26We have tested the capacity to mount oral tolerance to the foreign protein OVA in wild-type 27and PPARgamma deficient aged adult mice by measuring OVA-specific IgG titers following 28oral and / or intra-peritoneal OVA challenge (Figure 5A). As reported by others, age impairs 29oral tolerance in wild-type animals (41, 42). As a consequence, there is only moderate, 30insufficient decrease of OVA-specific IgG titers in case of parallel oral OVA administration 31and i.p. OVA-injection in senior animals. However, PPARgamma deficiency rescues oral 32tolerance in the same experimental setting despite of age, profoundly and significantly 33decreasing OVA-specific IgG titers (Figure 5A). Consequently, naïve T-cell dependent 34immune regulation (oral tolerance) remains efficient in PPARgamma heterozygous animals 35despite their age.

36The capacity to mount immune reaction to foreign influenza antigens was also tested as 37human seasonal influenza vaccine was injected into aged adult wild-type and PPARgamma 38deficient animals. Subsequent analysis of serum IgG titers specific to a vaccine component 39showed elevated protective antibody production (maximal ELISA OD values) in PPARgamma 40deficient animals, but not in their wild-type littermates (**Figure 5B**). This tendency is not 41significant because of individual variation observed due to the applied human vaccination 42protocol being inferior to standard mouse immunization protocol. Nevertheless, naïve T-cell 43dependent immune response proves to be efficient in aged, PPARgamma heterozygous 44animals.

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46<u>3.3.2. Human evidence of PPARgamma deficiency preventing thymic senescence</u>

47Genetic PPARgamma deficiency is a rare, but existing condition in human called FPLD3 (15). 48It leads to a metabolic phenotype called lipodystrophy, similar to the mouse (11-15). Other 49rare human conditions not affecting PPARgamma can also lead to lipodystrophy (12-15). In 50case of FPLD2 lamin mutations trigger similar metabolic changes (14). Peripheral blood 1hTrec (DNA loop by-product of human T-cell receptor gene rearrangement) levels were 2measured using digital qPCR in age-matched patients with FPLD2 condition and FPLD3 3condition (Figure 6). As expected and in perfect harmony with previous mouse thymocyte 4results elevated mean hTrec levels were detected in FPLD3 samples compared to FPLD2 5samples. The tendency is not significant due to individual variation within the patient groups. 6Unfortunately, current patient sample numbers cannot be increased due to the extremely rare 7nature of these conditions (FPLD2 or ORPHA 2348 has prevalence of ≤ 1/1,000,000 and 8FPLD3 or ORPHA 79083 also has prevalence of ≤ 1/1,000,000 (14, 15). For age-matched 9range of healthy human hTrec values please refer to the work of Lynch et al (38). Lower limit 10of healthy human hTrec threshold (approx. 200 copies / μg DNA) is not reached by FPLD2 11(lamin) patient samples, but this is rescued in FPLD3 (PPARgamma) patients despite being 12age- and disease-matched.

14. DISCUSSION

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34.1. PPARgamma drives thymic epithelial to adipose trans-differentiation with age

4It has been previously suggested based on direct fate-mapping experiments that with 5senescence thymic adipose tissue develops from the thymic stromal or epithelial compartment 6(28). Based on indirect evidence others have also supported this concept (29). In further 7support, we here present visual evidence of epithelial to adipose trans-differentiation in the 8mouse. This is indicated by the presence by EpCAM-1 / PPARgamma double-positive cells 9shown by histology (Figure 1D). These cells still express cell surface markers of their fading 10thymic epithelial identity (EpCAM-1), but already show early signs of the novel adipocyte 11differentiation program in their nuclei (PPARgamma). The fact that such double positive cells 12show rather scattered and not uniform staining pattern at a given time point may provide 13explanation for gradual thymic adipose involution observed during senescence.

154.2. PPARgamma impairs naïve T-cell production with age

16Thymus histology data show that the medullary compartment is rescued from age-related 17shrinking in case of PPARgamma deficiency (Figure 2A-D). Extended survival of this 18stromal niche ensures permissive environment for sustained thymus function: naïve T-cell 19production. This is indicated by elevated mTrec values showing direct correlation with 20PPARgamma deficiency (Figure 3A). Of extreme importance and highlighting human 21relevance, peripheral blood leukocyte hTrec values from adult FPLD3 patients (with genetic 22PPARgamma deficiency) also exceed adult FPLD2 patient values (with unrelated genetic 23background) despite being age-matched and disease-matched (lipodystrophy, diabetes) 24(Figure 6). Of note, such metabolic disorders are known to impair thymus function indicated 25by decreased hTrec values as reported by others (43, 44). For exactly this reason have we used 26disease-matched controls (FPLD2 vs FPLD3) to show enhanced thymus function with 27PPARgamma deficiency despite metabolic disorders. Unlike lower than physiological hTrec 28values measured in FPLD2 (lamin) patients, those measured in FPLD3 (PPARgamma) 29patients are within healthy human physiological range (Figure 6). Since both mTrec and 30hTrec DNA loops originate from gene rearrangement during thymocte development this is 31 direct evidence of sustained T-cell development indicating intact thymic niche in 32PPARgamma deficient animal models and human patients (38). Of note, the distribution of 33thymocyte subpopulations shows identical pattern irrespective of PPARgamma status proving 34that sustained, enhanced thymocyte development does not skew differentiation preference, but 35rather enhances fresh, naive T-cell production of all thymocyte subtypes uniformly (Figure 363B). Finally, since sustained thymic naïve T-cell production is not restricted to a given time-37point, but rather represents a continuous trend, the peripheral blood naïve T-cell population 38shows cumulative differences as it is rescued from age-driven shrinking, against the memory 39T-cell population – more specifically against the effector memory T-cell pool (Figure 4B-C). 40

414.3. PPARgamma hampers T-dependent immune regulation and immunity with age

42Oral consumption of foreign T-depended antigen normally initiates immune tolerance 43inhibiting any eliminative immune response (e.g. serum IgG), despite parallel immunization 44in young adult individuals with appropriate naïve T-cell supply. Unfortunately, the 45phenomenon is disrupted at senior age due to the lacking naïve T-cell pool in the Peyer's 46patches of the gut (41, 42, 45) This loss of oral tolerance (impaired immune regulation) is a 47possible link to increasing food intolerance prevalence observed in the aging adult population 48(46-49). However, the phenomenon may be rescued by PPARgamma deficiency despite of 49age providing evidence that sustained T-cell production is necessary for efficient oral 50(immune) tolerance (Figure 5A).

1Senescence-triggered decrease of naïve T-cell output also impairs T-dependent immunity. An 2example in the senior human population is decreased protection from seasonal flu strains 3despite annual vaccination campaigns (50-52). The phenomenon has well established animal 4models (53-55). This is caused by low levels of neutralizing antibody titers due to lacking 5naïve T-cells necessary during T-B cooperation to mount adequate innate immune response 6against T-dependent antigens of the vaccine. This, however, is not the case with PPARgamma 7deficiency (Figure 5B). Single intramuscular vaccination against seasonal flu (mimicking 8human vaccination campaign) resulted in higher maximal antibody production three months 9later (a typical delay in human exposure). This confirms that the cause of decreased 10vaccination efficiency in the senior population is impaired T-dependent immunity due to 11thymic senescence.

12In our experiments we have focused on the decline of T-dependent immunity since the thymus 13shows early and dramatic signs of senescence during adipose involution. This, however, is not 14the case for the B-cell compartment for which aging has been reported to occur later and in a 15more gradual fashion, lacking such profound histological changes (56).

16PPARgamma is an enigmatic transcription factor showing unique expression pattern in both 17time and space throughout the body (57). PPARgamma affects both hemopoietic and stromal 18compartments during development and aging. Further dissection would require to perform 19e.g. bone-marrow transplantation experiments between control and PPARgamma deficient 20animals. However, PPARgamma KO animals develop severe metabolic disorders that hamper 21such experiments, especially at elevated ages.

22

234.5. Limitations and perspectives

24We here present the long-term thymus- and T-dependent immunity-preserving effect of 25systemic (genetic) loss of PPARgamma function as observed in PPARgamma deficient mouse 26models and in a human rare disease (FPLD3). In both cases, there are severe metabolic 27drawbacks (diabetes, dyslipidemia etc.) due to systemically lacking PPARgamma activity. 28However, alternative, thymus tissue-restricted suppression of PPARgamma activity would 29likely solve the issue. Of note, as reported previously, over-expression of Wnt4 30glycolipoproteins by thymic epithelial cells can efficiently counteract PPARgamma (**31**). 31Also, Wnt4 was described to travel in extracellular vesicles including exosomes and affect 32thymocyte differentiation (**58**, **59**). Hence, it is conceivable that thymic epithelium-derived, 33enriched exosomes would efficiently home to the thymus and deliver their Wnt4 cargo locally 34even when administered systemically. This would, in theory, allow for the natural, tissue-35specific, protein-mediated maintenance of thymic epithelial identity and prevent thymic 36senescence from developing.

37

38Although tissue senescence is ultimately inevitable, there are conditions that accelerate 39thymic senescence including certain viral infections, intoxications, irradiation, chemotherapy 40etc. Outcomes include increased incidence of infection, cancer and autoimmune disorder. In 41any case the identification of molecular level targets for potential intervention is highly 42desired. Therefore, molecular level insight into immune senescence has medical, economical 43and personal relevance, all at once.

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13

14CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

15The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article. The 16research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationship that could 17be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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30

31AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

32DE performed most histological, molecular biology and statistics work in the project and was 33involved in manuscript preparation. KB performed all human IHC work. ZK performed oral 34immune tolerance experiments. AP was in charge for the breeding, metabolic and genetic 35characterization of PPARgamma haplo-insufficient and null mice. JML was in charge for 36planning human experiments, involved in manuscript preparation as well as local supervision 37of respective department. PJE was involved in planning mouse experiments, involved in 38manuscript preparation as well as local supervision of respective department. KK was 39involved in histological, molecular biology and statistics work, also in planning experiments 40and manuscript preparation, and supervised the project.

1FIGURE LEGENDS

2

3Figure 1.

4PPARgamma expression in the adult thymus

5Human FFPE thymic sections were analyzed for PPARgamma expression by 6immunohistochemistry in age groups of 20-30 years called young adult (Figure 1A), 50-60 7vears called middle-aged (Figure 1B) and 70-80 years called senior (Figure 1C). Brown color 8reaction (DAB) shows PPARgamma expression. Blue color (hematoxylin) shows nuclear 9counter-stain and defines total cellular areas. The ratio of PPARgamma-expressing cellular 10areas and total cellular areas is also shown for the different age groups (Figure 1D). 11Immunofluorescent staining is also shown for mouse at 1 month of age called young adult and 12at 15 months of age called senior (Figure 1E-F). Green color shows epithelial cells (anti-13EpCAM1-FITC), red color shows pre-adipocytes (anti-PPARgamma primary AB with Alexa-14555 secondary AB) and blue color defines nuclei (DAPI counter-stain). Please note 15arrowheads pointing at double-staining (EpCAM-1⁺ / PPARgamma⁺) cells (Figure 1F). Both 16stainings show expected patterns: EpCAM-1 staining presents cell surface markers, while 17PPARgamma-staining shows nuclear localization (observed in magenta color due to overlap 18 with DAPI nuclear counter-stain on Figure 1F). For exact numerical data please refer to 19Supplementary material. Significant differences are shown by asterisks (ns for not significant, 20* for $p \le 0.05$, ** for $p \le 0.01$, *** for $p \le 0.001$).

21

22**Figure 2.**

23Ratio of epithelial compartments in the adult thymus

24Mouse thymic cryo-sections were stained differentially for medullary (anti-EpCAM1-FITC⁺⁺, 25anti-Ly51-PE⁻) and cortical (anti-Ly51-PE⁺⁺, anti-EpCAM1-FITC⁺) epithelial compartments. 26Wild-type thymus is shown at 1 month (Figure 2A) and 8 months of age (Figure 2B). 27PPARgamma heterozygous (Figure 2C) and PPARgamma KO (Figure 2D) animals are shown 28at 8 months of age. The ratio of medullary and cortical epithelial compartment is also shown 29(Figure 2E) for both ages and genetic backgrounds. For exact numerical data please refer to 30Supplementary material. Significant differences are shown by asterisks (ns for not significant, 31* for $p \le 0.05$, ** for $p \le 0.01$, *** for $p \le 0.001$).

33**Figure 3**.

34Thymocyte development in the adult thymus

35Changes in level of mouse T-cell recombination excision circles (mTrec) was evaluated by 36Taqman digital qPCR in wild-type, PPARgamma heterozygous and PPARgamma KO 37thymocytes (Figure 3A). The columns represent mTrec values measured at 8 months divided 38by those measured at 1 month for every strain. The ratio of thymocyte subpopulations was 39assessed by flow-cytometry at 8 months of age in wild-type, PPARgamma heterozygous and 40PPARgamma KO animals (Figure 3B). Double negative (CD4⁻, CD8⁻), double positive (CD4⁺, 41CD8⁺) and single positive (CD4⁺ or CD8⁺) subpopulations are shown. For the measurement of 42every sample 100,000 cells were stained and 10,000 events (parent R1 morphological 43lymphocyte gate) were recorded by flow-cytometry. For exact cell numbers please refer to 44Supplementary material. Significant differences are shown by asterisks (ns for not significant, 45* for $p \le 0.05$, ** for $p \le 0.01$, *** for $p \le 0.001$).

46

47Figure 4.

48T-cell subpopulations in adult peripheral blood

49Peripheral blood T-cell subpopulations were evaluated by flow-cytometry at 12 months of age 50in wild-type and PPARgamma heterozygous animals (KO animals decease by this age).

1Percent distribution of T-cells (CD3⁺), helper T-cells (CD3⁺, CD4⁺) and cytotoxic T-cells $2(CD3^+, CD8^+)$ is shown by Figure 4A. Also, the percent distribution of naive T-cells (CD3⁺, $3CD44^-$, CD62L⁺) and memory T-cells (CD3⁺, CD44⁺, CD62L^{+/-}) was evaluated within the 4CD3-gate of T-cells (Figure 4B). Further analysis of memory T-cell subpopulation shows 5percent distribution of effector memory T-cells (CD3⁺, CD44⁺, CD62L⁻) and central memory 6T-cells (CD3⁺, CD44⁺, CD62L⁺) within the CD3-gate of T-cells (Figure 4C). For the 7measurement of every sample 100,000 cells were stained and 10,000 events (parent R1 8morphological lymphocyte gate) were recorded by flow-cytometry. For exact cell numbers 9please refer to Supplementary material. Significant differences are shown by asterisks (ns for 10not significant, * for p ≤ 0.05 , ** for p ≤ 0.01 , *** for p ≤ 0.001).

11

12Figure 5.

13Functional immunological experiments in adult hosts

14Oral tolerance induction capacity to ovalbumin (OVA) was assayed in wild-type and 15PPARgamma heterozygous animals at 12 months of age. Animals received OVA by either 16drinking water, i.p. injection, both or neither. OVA-specific IgG titers were evaluated 3 weeks 17later by ELISA method (Figure 5A). The presented figure was obtained using 1:400 dilution 18of serum. Mean ELISA OD values are shown for each study group. Human seasonal influenza 19vaccine (3Fluart) was injected (0.1ml, 1x, i.m.) into wild-type and PPARgamma heterozygous 20animals at 9 months of age. Serum IgG titers specific to a vaccine component (H1N1 21A/California/7/2009 strain) were tested 3 months later by ELISA method (Figure 5B). The 22presented figure was obtained using 1:50 dilution of serum. Maximal ELISA OD values are 33shown for each study group. For exact numerical data please refer to Supplementary material. 24Significant differences are shown by asterisks (ns for not significant, * for p \leq 0.05, ** for p \leq 250.01, *** for p \leq 0.001).

26

27Figure 6.

28Thymus function in adult FPLD patients

29Level of human T-cell recombination excision circle (hTrec) was measured by Taqman digital 30qPCR in peripheral blood leukocytes of age-matched and disease-matched rare disease 31patients with FPLD2 condition (lipodystrophy due to LMNA-deficiency) and FPLD3 32condition (lipodystrophy due to PPARgamma-deficiency) (Figure 6). Patient sample numbers 33were n=3 for FPLD2 and n=5 for FPLD3. For exact numerical data please refer to 34Supplementary material. For age-matched (approx. 50 years of age) range of healthy human 35hTrec values please refer to the work of Lynch et al (**38**). Accordingly, the lower limit of 36healthy human hTrec threshold (approx. 200 copies / μ g DNA) is represented by dotted line. 37

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