Macrophages respond to their environment by adopting a predominantly inflammatory or anti-inflammatory profile, depending on the context. The polarization of the subsequent response is regulated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic signals and is associated with alterations in macrophage metabolism. Although macrophages are important producers of Wnt ligands, the role of Wnt signaling in regulating metabolic changes associated with macrophage polarization remains unclear. Wnt4 upregulation has been shown to be associated with tissue repair and suppression of age-associated inflammation, which led us to generate Wnt4-deficient bone marrow–derived macrophages to investigate its role in metabolism. We show that loss of Wnt4 led to modified mitochondrial structure, enhanced oxidative phosphorylation, and depleted intracellular lipid reserves, as the cells depended on fatty acid oxidation to fuel their mitochondria. Furthermore, we found that enhanced lipolysis was dependent on protein kinase C–mediated activation of lysosomal acid lipase in Wnt4-deficient bone marrow–derived macrophages. Although not irreversible, these metabolic changes promoted parasite survival during infection with Leishmania donovani. In conclusion, our results indicate that enhanced macrophage fatty acid oxidation impairs the control of intracellular pathogens, such as Leishmania. We further suggest that Wnt4 may represent a potential target in atherosclerosis, which is characterized by lipid storage in macrophages leading to them becoming foam cells.

Macrophages possess multiple functions, ranging from pathogen clearance and antigen presentation to T lymphocytes to tissue remodeling and immune suppression (1–3). By analogy with the cytokine responses generated, macrophages have been long divided into two main categories: classically activated proinflammatory macrophages (M1) and alternatively activated anti-inflammatory macrophages (M2) (4–7). These two differentiation profiles have also been characterized by their diverging cellular metabolism (8–10). M1 macrophages upregulate glycolytic enzymes and preferentially use glucose as their main energy source, resulting in ATP production through the conversion of pyruvate to lactate (9, 11). In contrast, M2 macrophage metabolism is supported by high mitochondrial activity and oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS), fueled at least in part by fatty acid oxidation (FAO) (12, 13).

Macrophage polarization is regulated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic signals, such as cytokines, growth factors, and microbial products. Wnt signaling is known for its pleiotropic effects in cell fate decisions during development and tissue repair, but although macrophages are known to express several Wnt ligands, the role of individual Wnt proteins in macrophage polarization is not well established (14). The prototypical canonical ligand that promotes β-catenin translocation into the nucleus, Wnt3a, increases arginase expression in primary macrophages after bacterial infection and inhibits the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines (15, 16). Conversely, Wnt5a, which is usually associated with β-catenin–independent noncanonical Wnt signaling, promotes inflammatory responses via the transcription factor NF-κB to ensure immune surveillance (17), and both Wnt5a and NF-κB expression are increased upon macrophage exposure to mycobacteria (16). However, the role of Wnt signaling in macrophage metabolism has not been investigated in depth.

We have focused our study on Wnt4, a mostly noncanonical ligand (18, 19), whose expression is upregulated in lung macrophages upon injury to promote tissue repair (20). Wnt4 overexpression in bone marrow was shown to inhibit age-associated inflammation (21), while its deletion from dendritic cells impacts their differentiation and promotes the development of type 2 immunity in response to the hookworm parasite Nippostrongylus brasiliensis (19). We thus hypothesized that Wnt4 could also contribute to the metabolic reprogramming of bone marrow–derived macrophages (BMDMs).

We show that Wnt4-deficient BMDMs display reduced AKT (Thr308) and ERK1/2 phosphorylation but increased ATP levels, which can be attributed to an enhanced mitochondrial OXPHOS activity. Furthermore, we identify FAO as a principal mechanism involved in the increase in mitochondrial activity. However, while Wnt4-deficient macrophages respond more

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strongly to lipopolysaccharide (LPS)/M1-type stimulation, their altered FA metabolism favors replication of the protozoan parasite *Leishmania donovani*. Wnt4-mediated regulation of macrophage metabolism and mitochondrial activity thus appear important for the control of intracellular pathogens.

**Results**

**Wnt4 promotes AKT (Thr308) and ERK signaling**

To elucidate the importance of *Wnt4* in macrophages, we generated conditional knock-out mice in which *Wnt4* is deleted from most macrophages and granulocytes by LysM-Cre–mediated excision (*Wnt4Δ/Δ* mice) (22, 23). These mice present no overt alterations in myeloid differentiation in vivo (24). We isolated BM cells from *Wnt4Δ/Δ* and Cre– littermate control mice, and we obtained comparable numbers of *Wnt4Δ/Δ* and control BMDM after 1 week in culture (Fig. 1, A and B). While *Wnt4* deletion was highly efficient in culture (Fig. 1C), *Wnt4Δ/Δ* and control BMDM expressed similar levels of the macrophage surface marker F4/80 (Fig. 1D), suggesting that *Wnt4* deficiency did not significantly alter BMDM differentiation from BM progenitors. There was no difference in β-catenin phosphorylation (Fig. 1E) or in the activation of c-Jun N-terminal protein kinase (JNK) (Fig. 1, F and G), suggesting that the deletion of Wnt4 did not alter the balance between canonical and JNK-dependent noncanonical signaling in the absence of other exogenous ligands.

Macrophage function is regulated not only by JNK but also other members of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) family, such as the extracellular signal–regulated kinases 1 and 2 (ERK1/2) (25, 26). Unlike JNK, there was a notable decrease in ERK1/2 phosphorylation in *Wnt4Δ/Δ* BMDM (Fig. 1H and I). *Wnt4Δ/Δ* BMDM also showed a decreased level of AKT phosphorylation on Thr308 (Fig. 1, J and K), suggesting that these signal transduction pathways

![Figure 1](image_url)

**Figure 1.** Endogenous Wnt4 promotes AKT (Thr308) and ERK1/2 phosphorylation in macrophages. A, bone marrow–derived macrophage (BMDM) differentiation. B, number of macrophages collected after 7 days of differentiation in culture. C, PCR analysis of decreased DNA concentration extracted from mouse tail sample. D–O, relative mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of F4/80 (D), phospho-β-catenin (Ser522) (E), phospho-JNK (Thr183/Tyr185) (F), JNK (G), phospho-ERK1/2 (Thr202/Tyr204) (H), ERK1/2 (I), phospho-AKT (Thr308) (J), AKT (K), phospho-AKT (Ser473) (L), phospho-4EBP-1 (Thr37/Thr46) (M), and Ki-67 (O) in unstimulated BMDM. The histograms represent compiled data from three to eight animals per group (mean ± SEM). *p < 0.05 (two-tailed, paired Student’s t test).
are altered in these cells. Nevertheless, phosphorylation of the mTORC2-dependent site in AKT (Ser473) (Fig. 1L), as well as that of the mTORC1 downstream effectors S6 (Ser235/236) (Fig. 1M) and 4EBP1(Thr37/46) (Fig. 1N) was not affected in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, indicating that Wnt4 regulates ERK1/2 and AKT signaling independently from the mTORC axis.

Considering the dual roles of ERK1/2 and AKT in cell proliferation and metabolism (27–29), we further evaluated the proliferative state of Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM using Ki-67. Ki-67 expression was not significantly changed in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM compared to control (Fig. 1O), which together with the comparable cell counts (Fig. 1B) suggests that Wnt4 does not affect BMDM proliferation. However, impaired ERK1/2 and AKT (Thr308) activation prompted us to further investigate the functional consequences of Wnt4 deletion on BMDM metabolism.

**Wnt4 deficiency increases ATP production through OXPHOS**

To address the impact of Wnt4 on macrophage metabolism, we first investigated their ATP levels. Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM displayed higher intracellular ATP levels (Fig. 2A) but a comparable ADP/ATP ratio relative to control cells (Fig. 2B), suggesting that this increase in ATP is not the consequence of alterations in ATP consumption. In addition, intracellular ATP was decreased to similar levels in both genotypes upon inhibition of the ATP synthase with oligomycin (Fig. 2A). As these
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data suggest that OXPHOS is increased in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, we measured oxygen consumption rates (OCRs) in control and Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Consistent with Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM having increased OXPHOS activity, basal OCR was significantly increased in these cells (Fig. 2, C and D). ATP-linked respiration was also increased in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 2E), further supporting a role for OXPHOS in the elevated cellular ATP levels observed in Wnt4Δ/Δ cells. On the other hand, the spare respiratory capacity (a measure of the ability of mitochondria to respond to an increased energy demand) (Fig. 2F) was similar between the two genotypes while proton leak (a measure of proton diffusion across the inner membrane) (Fig. 2G) was decreased in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. In addition, mitochondrial membrane potential and mitochondrial ROS levels in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM were comparable to controls (Fig. 2H and I). Altogether, our results indicate that mitochondria in Wnt4Δ/Δ cells have increased flux through the electron transport chain and ATP synthase without major impairment in mitochondrial function.

We then determined if the functional changes we observed in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM were associated with changes in mitochondrial structure or mass. We first stained mitochondria in control and Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM macrophages for the mitochondrial outer membrane protein TOM20 and imaged them by confocal microscopy (Fig. 2J). While control BMDM had an average very short mitochondria, we observed a significant increase in intermediate mitochondria in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 2K). Mitochondrial elongation and increased OXPHOS can be associated with changes in cristae structure, the folds of the inner membrane where the electron transport chain resides. We thus used electron microscopy to evaluate cristae width in control and Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM had tighter cristae than their control counterparts (Fig. 2L), suggesting improved OXPHOS efficiency. On the other hand, there was no difference in mitochondrial mass as measured by citrate synthase activity (Fig. 2M) or TOM20 immunoblotting (Fig. 2N). In sum, these findings indicate that Wnt4 controls mitochondrial activity without altering mitochondrial mass.

Lipid droplets store triglycerides that must be hydrolyzed to liberate the FA used in mitochondrial β-oxidation. As lysosomal acid lipase (LAL) is one of the key enzymes that cells use to liberate FA from lipid droplets (30, 31), we measured its activity in control and Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Consistent with the reduction in lipid droplets, LAL activity was increased 2-fold in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM as compared to controls (Fig. 4A). However, this increase is neither due to an increase in Lipa gene expression (Fig. S1A) nor to an increase in the overall lysosomal content as we did not observe any change in the activity of the lysosomal protease Cathepsin B (Fig. 4B) or the expression of the lysosomal membrane protein LAMP-1 (Fig. 4C). Moreover, LAL inhibition restored cytosolic lipid content in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 4, D and E). Consistent with a specific role for LAL, the cytosolic neutral lipase activity was similar between Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM (Fig. 4F), and the genes for the enzymes responsible for this activity, Lipa and Pnpla2, were expressed at very low levels but similar levels in both genotypes (Fig. S1, B and C). Altogether these data indicate that enhanced LAL activity is responsible of FA generation in Wnt4Δ/Δ cells.

As autophagy has been implicated in LAL-dependent lipid metabolism in macrophages (32), we assessed autophagy flux with the membrane autophagosome marker LC3. Although we observed a decrease in the number of LC3 puncta in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM that was partially rescued with bafilomycin treatment (Fig. 4G and I), there was no significant increase in the ratio of LC3 puncta (treated/untreated) between Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM and controls (Fig. 4H), indicating that the autophagic flux was not enhanced in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Put together, these data point toward increased lipid degradation by LAL in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, irrespective of alterations in autophagy.

Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM shows increased mitochondrial β-oxidation

Decreased glucose consumption and decreased lipid storage support the hypothesis of FAO as a major source of energy in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. To more directly evaluate the relative importance of each carbon source, we inhibited glycolysis with 2-deoxy-d-glucose (2-DG) or FA transport into mitochondria using etomoxir. We then measured OCR in otherwise unstimulated and nonpolarized macrophages, similar to Figure 2. Control BMDM showed very little alteration in their basal OCR in response to blocking either one of the two pathways (Fig. 5, A–C), likely reflecting their relatively low level of metabolic activity in the absence of stimulation (33). Consistent with β-oxidation providing the extra carbon source to fuel OXPHOS in Wnt4Δ/Δ cells, etomoxir significantly decreased basal OXPHOS in these cells. Similarly, etomoxir significantly reduced ATP-linked OCR in Wnt4Δ/Δ but not in control BMDM (Fig. 5D), and it also increased the spare capacity of Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM but not of control cells (Fig. 5E). Moreover, Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM challenged with palmitate showed a significant decrease in OCR upon etomoxir treatment while control BMDM was not affected (Fig. 5F). This coincided with an increase in Oil Red O staining in etomoxir-treated Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, restoring their lipid droplets to control levels (Fig. 5,
and further supports a role for β-oxidation in the metabolic changes observed in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Treatment with 2-DG also somewhat decreased basal OCR in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 5, A–C), suggesting that glucose can also contribute to their enhanced OXPHOS. However, the expression of Pdh1, an enzyme required to commit pyruvate to the TCA cycle, was not enhanced in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. S1D), suggesting no major changes in pyruvate handling by Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Altogether, these results indicate that the loss of Wnt4 stimulates the usage of lipids as an important source of energy.

To better establish how Wnt4 regulates lipid metabolism, we evaluated putative signaling pathways downstream of Wnt4. While JNK phosphorylation (Fig. 1, E and F) and AKT-dependent β-catenin phosphorylation were not altered in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 1D), the classical β-catenin-dependent target genes c-Myc and Ccnd1 (Axin2 was not expressed in BMDM) were downregulated in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. S1, E and G). As the noncanonical protein kinase C (PKC)/Ca²⁺ pathway negatively regulates TCF/β-catenin-dependent gene expression without impacting intracellular β-catenin levels (34) and inhibits ERK1/2 (35), our results suggest that the absence of Wnt4 promotes the activation of this PKC pathway. Since PKC activity has also been associated with LAL induction during monocyte differentiation into macrophage (36), we evaluated the impact of PKC inhibition on LAL activity in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. While PKC inhibition had no impact on control BMDMs, LAL activity in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM was reduced to control levels upon PKC inhibition (Fig. 5I), suggesting that the enhanced lipolysis observed in the absence of Wnt4 is PKC-dependent. Considering the decrease in AKT (Thr308) phosphorylation observed in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 1I), we also evaluated the contribution of the PI3K/PTEN axis. To our surprise, LAL activity was further enhanced in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM upon PTEN inhibition (Fig. 5J). While we cannot exclude a potential contribution of AKT downstream of PI3K upon PTEN inhibition, it is possible that the increase in PI3K activity triggered by PTEN inhibition promotes PKC activation.
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Figure 4. LAL promotes fatty acid usage in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. A, lysosomal acid lipase (LAL) activity, normalized to controls. B, cathepsin B activity, normalized to controls. C, quantification of lysosomes as determined by relative LAMP-1 MFI. D, representative confocal microscopy images showing Oil Red O staining per cell quantified using ImageJ software. E, quantification of lipid droplets as determined by the area of Oil Red O (Fig. 6, A–C). There was also no difference in cathepsin B activity (Fig. 4B), the most abundant lysosomal protease (40) whose activity has been shown to be increased in M2 macrophages (41). In summary, the metabolic differences in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM did not appear to result in an inherent bias in unstimulated cells.

LPS is a toll-like receptor 4 agonist that is widely used to promote the secretion of proinflammatory cytokines by macrophages (42). Moreover, LPS-treated macrophages reduce their oxygen consumption and adopt a strongly glycolytic profile (10). We thus stimulated Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM with LPS to determine if the metabolic differences in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM were reversible. There was a strong suppression of OCR in LPS-treated Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, with basal OCR decreasing even slightly below levels detected in LPS-treated controls (Fig. 6, D and E). Unsurprisingly, this also corresponds to a significant decrease in ATP-linked respiration (Fig. 6F), indicating that LPS inhibits mitochondrial activity in both Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM. Similarly, extracellular acidification rate was increased in LPS-treated Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM, suggesting an increase in lactate production.

Wnt4 is not required for the inflammatory response induced by LPS stimulation

Thus far, we have established that Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDMs have higher ATP levels, mostly as a consequence of increased mitochondrial FAO, which has been generally associated with macrophage polarization to an M2 profile (30, 39). However, flow cytometry analysis revealed no significant differences in the expression of M1 (CD86, MHCII) or M2 cell surface markers (CD206) between unstimulated Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM (Fig. 6, A–C). There was also no difference in cathepsin B activity (Fig. 4B), the most abundant lysosomal protease (40) whose activity has been shown to be increased in M2 macrophages (41). In summary, the metabolic differences

via PDK-1 (37, 38). In sum, these results strongly suggest that PKC and PI3K signaling regulate lipolysis in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM.
production (Fig. 6G). These data indicate that the LPS-induced metabolic switch to glycolysis is not impaired in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM.

To further evaluate the inflammatory potential of Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, we measured nitric oxide (NO) and TNFα production in culture supernatants with and without LPS stimulation. Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM produced slightly more NO (Fig. 6H) and similar levels of TNFα (Fig. 6I) upon LPS stimulation as compared to their normal counterparts. Furthermore, Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM showed a comparable expression of M1 (iNOS) and M2 (arginase-1) markers following LPS/IFN-γ and IL-4/IL-13/IL-10-mediated polarization, respectively (Fig. S1, H and I). These data confirm that the capacity of Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM to respond to a strong proinflammatory stimulus was not negatively affected by the metabolic alterations seen at steady state.

**Wnt4 deficiency contributes to the ability of L. donovani promastigotes to colonize BMDM**

Metabolic alterations in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM did not prevent their polarization or LPS-induced glycolytic switch. If anything, the response of Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM was even stronger than controls (Fig. 6, E and H). To evaluate if Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM was predisposed to respond more strongly to other stimuli, we investigated their response in a more physiologically relevant context, following a parasitic infection.

Macrophages are the principal hosts of the intracellular parasite Leishmania and are indispensable for their survival and replication (43). Importantly, macrophage polarization toward an M2 profile promotes parasite growth (44, 45). Here, we compared the fate of L. donovani metacyclic promastigotes in wildtype and Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. There was no significant difference in parasite uptake 6h postinfection between
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Wnt4Δ/Δ and control BMDM (Fig. 7, A and B). However, parasite replication was increased in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM over time (Fig. 7, A and B). These results indicate that although the metabolic alterations observed in the absence of Wnt4 were not irreversible, Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM was more permissive to infection and favored parasite replication. To determine the functional impact of metabolic changes in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM on parasite replication, we treated macrophages with etomoxir to inhibit β-oxidation. Pretreatment with etomoxir had no impact on parasite uptake but resulted in decreased parasite numbers at 72 h in both control and Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM (Fig. 7, B and C). However, etomoxir did not fully rescue Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM, suggesting that enhanced β-oxidation is not the only mechanism responsible of the impaired parasite control in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Altogether, our results indicate that although the metabolic alterations present in the absence of Wnt4 were not irreversible, enhanced β-oxidation rendered Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM more permissive to infection and favored parasite replication.

Discussion

The physiological role of individual Wnt ligands remains enigmatic in a large number of situations due to their often promiscuous signaling. Although the most studied ligands are widely used as prototypes of canonical (Wnt3a) and noncanonical (Wnt5a) Wnt signaling, individual Wnt proteins are often able to activate more than one signaling pathway, depending on cell type and receptor availability (46, 47). We report here a new role for the (mostly) noncanonical ligand Wnt4 in regulating BMDM metabolism. Our results show that Wnt4 regulates mitochondrial ATP production and efficiency without impacting mitochondrial mass. We also demonstrate that PKC-dependent LAL activation results in decreased lipid
storage and provides an important fuel for mitochondria in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM. Wnt4-deficient BMDM was not irreversibly polarized and remained responsive to metabolic reprogramming with LPS. However, enhanced mitochondrial activity and β-oxidation predisposed Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM to infection with the intracellular parasite *L. donovani*, in line with the tenet that macrophage metabolism influences their response to pathogens.

Canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling is well established in reprogramming tumor cell metabolism toward glycolysis and lactate production instead of mitochondrial OXPHOS (48–51). However, these metabolic trends do not necessarily hold true in nonmalignant context; in fact, stimulation with canonical Wnt ligands increases FAO activity and β-oxidation enzymes in osteoblasts, in contrast to noncanonical ligands, such as Wnt4 (52, 53). It also results in decreased adipogenesis and lipid accumulation in brown adipocytes (53, 54).

Our analysis of Wnt4Δ/Δ macrophages revealed increased FAO and mitochondrial activity, concomitant with enhanced lipid degradation and decreased lipid storage, thus presenting striking similarities with osteoblasts or adipocytes responding to canonical Wnt signaling. Wnt4 is generally considered a noncanonical Wnt ligand, and its absence could thus result in disinhibition of canonical signals. However, we did not observe significant changes in intracellular phospho-Ser352-β-catenin staining between Wnt4Δ/Δ and control macrophages at steady state, and the expression of classical canonical Wnt target genes was downregulated in Wnt4Δ/Δ cells. Instead, we showed that the enhanced lipolysis in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM was dependent on PKC activity and could be further enhanced by the inhibition of PTEN, suggesting that the lack of Wnt4 may promote disinhibition of the noncanonical PKC/Ca2⁺ pathway.

To our knowledge, there are no prior reports on the role of individual Wnt ligands in macrophage metabolism. However, Wnt signaling has been associated with metabolic diseases such as obesity, diabetes, and atherosclerosis (55–57). More specifically in macrophages, expression of the canonical Wnt pathway co-receptor low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptor–related protein was increased after incubation with LDL, and LDL receptor–related protein 5 promoted cholesterol ester accumulation and macrophage transformation to foam cells in vitro. LDL-treated macrophages also upregulated canonical Wnt target genes, suggesting an active role for Wnt signaling in this process (58). Conversely, the Wnt antagonist soluble Frizzled-related protein SFRP5 improved glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity as well as attenuated weight gain in mice on high-fat diet at least in part by inhibiting Wnt5a-dependent activation of inflammatory macrophages in vivo (59, 60).

Finally, the deletion of β-catenin in macrophages and myeloid cells increases inflammatory responses in macrophages and enhanced the size of atherosclerotic plaques in LDL receptor–deficient mice (61). Wnt4-deficient macrophages displayed an enhanced capacity to degrade lipids, which tempts us to speculate that inhibiting Wnt4 in macrophages could attenuate the impact of high-fat diet on metabolic disorders and atherosclerosis.

ERK and AKT promote the Warburg effect or the preferential generation of ATP via lactate production in cancer cells (26, 62–65) by increasing glucose uptake and promoting the activation of glycolytic enzymes (66, 67) (26, 68, 69). Consequently, the attenuated AKT and ERK1/2 activity in Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM should favor OXPHOS instead of lactate production, which is consistent with our analysis. Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM consumes less glucose, and blocking FAO with etomoxir not only restored intracellular lipid droplets but also reverted Wnt4Δ/Δ...
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BMDM mitochondrial activity and increased their spare respiratory capacity, indicating a preferential use of lipids as energy source. Enhanced lipid degradation in Wnt4fl/fl cells was largely associated with an anti-inflammatory profile (70, 71), and there was no difference in neutral lipase activity between Wnt4fl/fl and control BMDM.

Wnt4fl/fl BMDM possessed longer mitochondria with tighter cristae structure, two important determinants of enhanced mitochondrial OXPHOS efficiency (72, 73), but there were no significant changes in the sparse respiratory capacity, mitochondrial membrane potential, ROS levels, or mitochondrial mass. These results are consistent with dynamic changes in mitochondrial usage and efficiency as observed upon altered nutrient availability and do not indicate alterations that would permanently rewire mitochondrial function. Taken together, our results indicate that Wnt4 attenuates OXPHOS, likely by regulating mitochondrial connectivity as well as by repressing lipolysis and FAO.

Lipids are important for macrophage function, including phagocytosis, functional polarization, and production of inflammatory mediators (13, 74, 75). Although FAO activity is largely associated with an anti-inflammatory profile (76), Wnt4fl/fl BMDMs are not irreversibly committed. They remain entirely capable of responding to a strong proinflammatory stimulus, such as LPS, and reducing their mitochondrial activity and shifting to glycolysis (76). Their metabolic switch to M1-LPS was further corroborated by the production of inflammatory mediators, such as NO and TNFα. It should be noted, however, that the BMDM differentiation environment can promote inflammatory polarization (77). Proteomic studies highlighted that the L929 supernatant used here contains secreted factors involved in the regulation of inflammation, such as MIF that modulate the secretion of inflammatory cytokines/interleukins (TNF-α, IFN-γ, IL-2, IL-6, and IL-8) (78) and osteopontin that upregulates IL-12 production (79).

Indeed, BMDM differentiated with L929 and stimulated with LPS secrete more TNF-α, IL-6, and IFN-β compared to M-CSF differentiation alone (77), which could potentially influence the polarization we have observed here.

Nevertheless, Wnt4fl/fl BMDM was more permissive to infection by *L. donovani*, and pretreatment of macrophages with etomoxir resulted in decreased parasite replication, demonstrating that elevated β-oxidation in Wnt4fl/fl cells was at least partially responsible. Macrophages are the natural mammalian host cells for *Leishmania* parasites, and the pathogen has developed multiple strategies to evade their microbicidal effects (80, 81). One such strategy *in vivo* is the generation of monocyte-derived myeloid cells with altered function that will promote parasite growth (82, 83). Our results are well in line with this theory and demonstrate that the metabolic alterations in Wnt4fl/fl BMDM have functional consequences. *L. donovani* infection has also been shown to decrease Wnt5a expression in BMDM at gene and protein levels. Conversely, exogenous Wnt5a decreased parasite burden via activation of Rac/Rho GTPases, while Wnt5a knockdown by siRNA prior to infection increased parasite survival (84). Our results phenocopy the impact of Wnt5a deletion on parasite replication. More importantly, our data connect Wnt signaling, β-oxidation, and mitochondrial activity in *L. donovani* survival, thus highlighting the importance of macrophage metabolism to the outcome of host–parasite interactions.

In conclusion, our results identify a cell-intrinsic role for Wnt4 in regulating macrophage metabolism. Wnt4 deficiency disturbs energy homeostasis by increasing mitochondrial ATP levels mainly through FAO. Although Wnt4-deficient macrophages demonstrate a strong proinflammatory response to LPS, they were more susceptible to support the growth of an intracellular pathogen. These results demonstrate that non-canonical Wnt4 signaling regulates macrophage function and modulates their metabolism in a context-dependent manner. Further mechanistic and metabolic investigations may be helpful to identify how the Wnt4 pathway could be best harnessed to promote the control of intracellular infections or to modulate macrophage function in the context of metabolic disorders.

**Experimental procedures**

**Experimental animals**

B6.129P2-Ly2tm1(cre)lfo/J (LysMCre) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory. Mice with a Wnt4 conditional allele have been described elsewhere (85) and were originally a kind gift from S. Vainio (Oulu University, Finland). Mice were bred and housed under specific pathogen-free conditions in sterile ventilated racks at the animal facility of INRS-Centre Armand-Frappier Santé Biotechnologie. All procedures were approved by the Comité institutionnel de la protection des animaux of the INRS and were conducted in accordance with the Canadian Council on Animal Care guidelines. Only female mice were used for the following experiments.

**Flow cytometry analysis**

BM was harvested by flushing tibias and femurs with PBS/0.1% BSA/0.5 mmol EDTA using a 25-gauge needle. To analyze BMDM, the following antibodies were used: anti-CD11c, anti-Ly6C, anti-F4/80, anti-MHCII, anti-CD206, anti-CD86 (BD Biosciences). For intracellular staining, surface-stained BM cells were fixed and permeabilized using the Foxp3 staining kit (eBioscience) and then incubated with the following primary antibodies: Arg1 (R&D Systems, PE-conjugated), iNOS (eBioscience, APC-conjugated), p-AKT (Thr37/46) (1/100), p-AKT (Ser473) (1/100), p-JNK (1/100), JNK (1/100), p-S6 (Ser235/236) (1/200), p-ERK (Thr202/Tyr204) (1/100), ERK (1/100), AKT (1/100), p-JNK (1/100), JNK (1/100), p-S6 (Ser235/236), p-E-BP1 (Thr37/46) (all from Cell Signaling Technologies), or Lamp1 (1/800) (Abcam), overnight at 4 °C; or conjugated Ki-67 (FITC) for 1 h at room temperature. Unconjugated
antibodies were detected with an Alexa 488-conjugated F(ab’)_2 fragment against rabbit IgG (Molecular Probes). The stained cells were analyzed on a four-laser BD LSRFortessa cell analyzer (BD Biosciences) and analyzed using FACS DiVa (v. 8.1) or FlowJo (v. 10.1) software.

**Cell culture**

BM was flushed with 5 ml Hank’s Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS), centrifuged at 1236g or 7 min, and the pellet was resuspended in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) (Life Technologies) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS Premium, Wisent Bioproducts) at 5 × 10^6 cell/ml. 1.5 × 10^6 cells were seeded in a nonadherent Petri dish and cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 20% conditioned medium from L929 fibroblasts as previously described (86). The differentiation medium was refreshed on day 5, and adherent BMDMs were collected with Trypsin/EDTA solution on day 7 and analyzed by cytometry or replated in DMEM/10% FBS for further analyses. LPS was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and used at a final concentration of 100 ng/ml. Oligomycin was (2 μM) (Sigma Aldrich) was added for 1 h at 37 °C. For autophagy induction, BMDMs were replated in Earle’s Balanced Salt Solution (Life Technologies) for 2 h at 37 °C with or without Bafilomycin (100 nM).

**Immunofluorescence**

2 × 10^5 cells were seeded overnight on uncoated coverslips at 37 °C. The cells were first fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 15 min at room temperature and then washed three times with PBS. Fixed BMDMs were permeabilized with PBS/0.1% Triton X-100 solution, for 2 min, then blocked with PBS/0.1% Triton/1% BSA for 10 min. The cells were incubated for 1 h at room temperature with primary antibodies: anti-LC3 (1/100) (Cell Signaling Technologies) or anti-Tom20 (1/100) (Abcam), washed three times with PBS, and incubated with Alexa 488-conjugated secondary antibody (1/1000) for 30 min at room temperature. Finally, the coverslips were washed and mounted on the microscope slides with ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant with DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Images were taken using a LSM 780 confocal microscope with 60× oil objective.

**Enzymatic activity**

Cathepsin B activity: Cells were collected with Trypsin with 0.25% EDTA, washed with PBS 1x, and collected by centrifugation at 200g for 5 min, at 4 °C. Cells were lysed by buffer containing Tris-HCL 50 mM, NaCl 150 mM, EDTA 1 mM, and Triton X-100 (0.5%) and centrifuged at 18,300g for 12 min at 4 °C. Supernatants were collected, and proteins were dosed with Bradford Kit (Bio-Rad). Proteins (10 μg) were diluted in 100 μl of 100 mM Hepes, pH 6.0, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM DTT, and 5 mM EDTA in the presence of a 5 μM concentration of the cathepsin B substrate zRR-AMC (Sigma-Aldrich). Samples were incubated for 30 min at 37 °C, and fluorescence was measured (excitation/emission 360/440 nm) using a Cytation5 Cell Imaging Multi-Mode Reader.

LAL activity was measured as described (87) by diluting 20 μg of proteins from each samples treated with GF109203X (PKC inhibitor) at 5 μM for 1 h at 37 °C or with bpV(pic) (PTEN inhibitor) at 1 μM for 2 h at 37 °C or controls in 100 μl of reaction buffer (100 mM sodium acetate, pH 4.0, 1% (v/v) Triton X-100, and 0.5% (w/v) cardiolipin) in the presence of 0.345 mM 4-methylumbelliferone (Sigma-Aldrich). Samples were incubated for 1 h at 37 °C. Fluorescence was measured (excitation/emission 360/440 nm) using a Cytation5 Cell Imaging Multi-Mode Reader.

Citrate synthase: Citrate Synthase Activity Colorimetric Assay Kit (BioVision, Catalog # K318-100), following manufacturer’s instructions.

**ATP and lactate assays**

2 × 10^5 cells were grown in 96-well plates. Cellular ATP was measured by ATP using Cell Titer Glow kit (Promega), and total lactate was measured using Lactate Colorimetric/Fluorometric (BioVision) Assay Kit and was measured in triplicate following the protocol provided.

**Elisa TNFa**

Supernatants were collected from Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM and control cultures upon 6 h stimulation with LPS and at 6 h, 24 h, and 72 h postinfection with L. donovani. 50 μl from each condition were added in duplicates, and TNFα levels were measured using Mouse TNF-alpha Quantikine ELISA Kit (R&D SYSTEMS, Catalog # MTA00B) as per manufacturer’s instructions.

**Nitric oxide quantification**

Supernatants were collected from Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM and control cultures upon 24 h stimulation with LPS and at 6 h, 24 h, and 72 h postinfection with L. donovani. 100 μl from each condition were added in duplicates to 96-well plates. Nitrate levels were measured by the Greiss reaction, as described in (88, 89).

**Glucose consumption**

Supernatants were collected from Wnt4Δ/Δ BMDM and control cultures. 50 μl from each condition were added in duplicates to 96-well plates, and glucose levels were determined using Glucose Colorimetric/Fluorometric Assay Kit (BioVision, Catalog # K606-100) as per manufacturer’s instructions.

**MitoSOX**

BMDMs were collected and stained with the MitoSOX Red mitochondrial superoxide indicator reagent (Invitrogen) at a final concentration of 5 μM, and the cells were incubated for 30 min at 37 °C, after which they were washed and analyzed by flow cytometry.

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**Tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester**

BMDMs were collected and stained with tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester (Thermo Fisher) at a final concentration of 0.5 nM, and the cells were incubated for 30 min at 37 °C, after which they were washed and analyzed by flow cytometry.

**Extracellular flux analysis**

BMDMs were seeded at 4 × 10^4 cells on Seahorse XF96 cell culture microplates (Agilent) and treated with etomoxir (250 μM) and 2-DG (5 mM) for 30 min at 37 °C. Medium was changed with Seahorse XF DMEM medium, pH 7.4 (Agilent) supplemented with 10 mM glucose, 1 mM pyruvate, and 2 mM glutamine, and cells were incubated for 1 h at 37 °C with no CO2. Mito stress kit (Agilent) was used, and XF analysis was performed using the XFe-96 analyzer (Seahorse Bioscience) as per manufacturer's instructions. All reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

**qRT-PCR**

Cells were collected from BMDM differentiation after 7 days in culture. The manufacturer’s protocol was followed for total RNA extraction. RNAEasy columns (Qiagen) were used to concentrate and clean the preparation. High-capacity cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems) was used to convert total RNA to cDNA. TaqMan custom PreAmp kit (Applied Biosystems) was used to pre-amplify the cDNA product. Quantitative RT-PCR was performed using TaqMan reagents and assays (TBP; and B2m; as an internal control, from Applied Biosystems) on Stratagene M x x3000P instrument. Relative quantification of Wnt4 was determined by using the ΔΔCT method.

**L. donovani culture and infections**

Promastigotes of *L. donovani* (MHOM/ET/67/Hu3:LV9) freshly differentiated from splenic amastigotes were cultured in Leishmania medium (M199 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Hyclone), 100 μM hypoxanthine, 10 mM Hepes, 5 μM hemin, 3 μM biotin, 1 μM biotin, penicillin (100 I.U. /ml), and streptomycin (100 μg/ml) at 26 °C. For BMDM infections, metacyclic promastigotes were isolated at 1400 RPM in 15-ml Falcon conical centrifuge tubes containing 1 ml of 40% Ficoll (GE Healthcare) at the bottom, overlaid by 2 ml of a single gradient of 10% Ficoll and overlay 1 × 10^6 promastigotes from the late stationary growth phase in 2 ml of nonsupplemented DMEM (90). Complement opsonization of metacyclic promastigotes was performed prior to infections by incubating the parasites in HBSS containing 10% serum from DBA/2 mice for 30 min at 37 °C. BMDMs were then incubated at 37 °C with metacyclic promastigotes (parasite-to-macrophage ratio of 5:1). After 3 h of incubation, noninternalized parasites were washed 3x with warm HBSS. The time points are described in each experiment. Infection levels were assessed by microscopic examination of infected cells after Giemsa staining with the Hema 3 system (Fisher Scientific).

**Western blot**

Cells were collected with trypsin with 0.25% EDTA, washed with PBS 1×, and collected by centrifugation at 200 g for 5 min, at 4 °C, cells were lysed by buffer containing Tris-HCl 50 mM, NaCl 150 mM, EDTA 1 mM, and Triton 0.5%, and centrifuge at 18,300 g for 12 min, at 4 °C. Supernatants were collected, and phosphatase (NAF 0.3 mM) inhibitor was added. Proteins were dosed with Bradford Kit (Biorad). Prior to electrophoresis, samples were mixed with loading buffer to obtain 1× and 5% β-mercaptoethanol (62.5 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.5, 2.5% SDS, 10% glycerol, 0.01% bromophenol blue) and incubated at 95 °C for 5 min. Proteins (50 μg) were added to each well, then resolved on SDS-PAGE followed by wet-transfer to PVDF membranes. Detection was done by immunoblotting using the indicated antibody, Tom20 (Abcam1/1000). The membrane was developed using the XFe-96 analyzer (Seahorse Bioscience) as per manufacturer’s instructions. All reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich.

**Statistical analysis**

Each value represents at least three independent experiments. Two-tailed Student t test or ordinary one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA were used as indicated in figure legends to determine statistical significance. A p value < 0.05 was considered significant.

**Data availability**

All data presented in the manuscript are contained within the manuscript. Additional information will be shared upon reasonable request to the corresponding author, Krista Heironen. krista.heironen@inrs.ca

**Supporting information**—This article contains supporting information, providing additional characterization of Wnt4-deficient BMDM.

**Author contributions**—M. T., M. G., and K. M. H. conceptualization; M. T. formal analysis; M. T., H. A. investigation; M. T. visualization; M. T. writing—original draft; A. D., M. G., and K. M. H. resources; A. D., M. G., and K. M. H. writing—review & editing; K. M. H. funding acquisition; K. M. H. supervision.

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**Conflict of interest**—The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

**Abbreviations**—The abbreviations used are: BMDM, bone marrow–derived macrophage; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle’s medium; ERK1/2, extracellular signal–regulated kinases 1 and 2; FA, fatty acid; FAO, fatty acid oxidation; FBS, fetal bovine serum; HBSS, Hank's Balanced Salt Solution; INK, c-Jun N-terminal protein kinase; LAL, lysosomal acid lipase; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; M1, classically activated proinflammatory macrophages; M2, alternatively activated anti-inflammatory macrophages; MAPK, mitogen-
activated protein kinase; OXPHOS, oxidative phosphorylation; OCR, oxygen consumption rates.

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