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Intestinal microbiota programming of alveolar macrophages influences severity of

respiratory viral infection

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Abstract (132 words)

Investigating the influence of intestinal microbiota composition on respiratory viral infection (RVI) revealed that segmented filamentous bacteria (SFB), naturally acquired or exogenously administered, protected mice against influenza virus (IAV) infection, as assessed by viral titers, histopathology, and clinical disease features. Such protection, which also applied to RSV and SARS-CoV-2, was independent of interferon and adaptive immunity but required basally resident alveolar macrophages (AM), which, in SFB-negative mice, were quickly depleted as RVI progressed. Examination of AM from SFB-colonized mice revealed that they were intrinsically altered to resist IAV-induced depletion and inflammatory signaling. Yet, AM from SFB-colonized mice were not quiescent. Rather, they directly disabled IAV via enhanced complement production and phagocytosis. Transplant of SFB-transformed AM into SFB-free hosts recapitulated SFB-mediated protection against IAV mechanistically linking intestinal microbiota, AM phenotype, and RVI severity.

One sentence summary: Intestinal segmented filamentous bacteria reprogram alveolar macrophages enabling their host to withstand respiratory viruses.

INTRODUCTION

Outcomes following exposure to respiratory viruses, such influenza A viruses (IAV), respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), and SARS-CoV-2, vary widely amongst individuals, ranging from asymptomatic infection to severe lung pathology and/or death. While determinants of such heterogeneity to respiratory viral infection (RVI) are likely numerous and complex, we hypothesized that one important factor is gut microbiota composition [1], which is now appreciated to have broad influence over a range of chronic inflammatory diseases and the immune responses with which such diseases are associated [2]. For example, studies comparing mice captured in the wild to those bred for generations in well-controlled vivaria revealed vast differences in their microbiomes that resulted in wild mice having highly and broadly activated immune systems and being relatively resistant to IAV [3, 4]. Yet, differences in specific microbial species that can impact RVI outcomes, and how they might do so, have not been well defined. Hence, we studied mice raised in vivaria with discrete defined microbiome differences and, subsequently, mice differing in only the presence or absence of a single common species, namely segmented filamentous bacteria (SFB). We found that gut SFB dictated the phenotype of alveolar macrophages and, consequently, outcomes of RVI.

RESULTS

SFB protects mice from IAV infection

Appreciation of the potential of microbiota to broadly impact health led one commercial rodent supplier to offer "excluded flora (EF)" mice, which were bred in a restricted vivarium that assured absence of a discrete panel of disease-modulating commensal microbes, which might or might not otherwise be present in colonies of "specific pathogen-free (SPF)" mice commonly used in biomedical research [5]. We used such mice as a starting point to probe the influence of microbiota composition on RVI. Specifically, we compared proneness of SPF and EF mice to IAV infection 4 days following intranasal administration of 2009 pandemic A/CA/07/2009 (H1N1), herein referred to as CA09, which readily infects mice without need for species adaptation and recapitulates major clinical features of human disease in the animal model [6]. Compared to EF mice, SPF mice exhibited significantly reduced lung viral titers. Furthermore, SPF mice did not show hypothermia and weight loss observed in EF mice **(Figure 1A)**. Additionally, although not designed as a survival experiment per se, we noted that some mice of the EF mice required euthanasia. These results suggested that one or more of the microbes specifically excluded from EF mice might confer protection against IAV.

Of the panel of organisms known to be absent in EF mice, segmented filamentous bacteria (SFB) stood out as a potential modulator of IAV proneness in that SFB, despite being a strict anaerobe and, thus, restricted to the intestinal luminal surface, is known to systemically impact T-lymphocytes [7, 8]. Furthermore, SFB is a major contributor to, albeit not the sole mediator of, the spontaneous resistance to rotavirus (RV), an intestinal pathogen, that spontaneously arose in some mouse colonies [9]. SFB is very challenging to culture but can be

isolated, maintained, and studied by administering it via fecal microbial transplantation (FMT).

Hence, mice lacking SFB but otherwise carrying a complex SPF microbiota, herein referred to as

SFB⁻ mice, were administered a FMT from other SFB⁻ mice, mice containing SFB as one natural

component of their SPF microbiota, or germ-free mice that had been monoassociated (MA) with

SFB. Such mice were inoculated with CA09 one-week post-FMT and euthanized 4d later to

measure lung viral titers or monitored for 14 days to assess clinical-type disease parameters.

Mice receiving FMT from mice naturally colonized with SFB exhibited IAV titer reductions of

approximately one order of magnitude compared to animals that lacked SFB and, concomitantly,

clinical signs of IAV infection were ameliorated **(Figure 1B).** FMT from SFB-MA mice fully

recapitulated such protection while administering feces from germ-free mice was without effect

(Figure S1A). Thus, administering SFB⁻ mice a FMT from SFB-MA mice, hereafter referred to

as administering SFB, recapitulated the differential proneness of EF and SPF mice to IAV

infection, thus providing a tractable model to investigate how the presence of this specific gut

microbiota constituent, within a complex microbial ecosystem, reduced IAV infection in the

lung.

SFB-mediated protection against IAV infection was evident, albeit seemingly not

maximal, two days post SFB administration and was undiminished three months later (longest

time tested) despite gut SFB levels having declined by over 60-fold from peak to a stable plateau

by this time **(Figure 1C and Figure S1B).** In accord with its relative abundance not being a

critical variable, SFB colonized 24-week-old mice at 10-fold lower levels than 5-week-old mice

but still protected them against IAV infection **(Figure S1C)**. Consistent with previous

observations that SFB only resides in the gut lumen or attached to the apical epithelial gut

surface [10], SFB was readily detected by PCR in the ileum, but was not found in the lung or

spleen **(Figure 1D)**. Histopathologic examination of lung tissue did not detect any impact of SFB

itself on the lung but revealed a striking suppression of IAV-induced lung pathology **(Figure**

1E). Such protection of lung tissue was potentially attributable to the one-log reduction in

observed in viral tiers conferred by SFB colonization but also hinted at the possibility that SFB

had reduced IAV-induced inflammatory signaling.

SFB's protection against IAV not explained by known candidate mechanisms

SFB-mediated lasting protection against IAV contrasted with its transient protection

against RV [9], suggesting that the former might be mediated by adaptive immunity. However,

SFB-mediated protection against IAV was fully maintained in *Rag1*$^{-/-}$ mice, which lack most T

and B lymphocytes, arguing against this notion **(Figure 2A)**. Innate antiviral immunity typically

involves interferon and can involve innate lymphoid cells (ILC) and/or IL-22 and IL-17. Yet,

SFB-mediated protection against IAV was maintained in *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice, which lack type I

interferon signaling, *Rag1*$^{-/-}$-*Il2rg*$^{-/-}$, which lack type 3 ILC, and upon antibody-mediated

neutralization of IL-17 and IL-22 **(Figure 2B-D)**. SFB-mediated protection against IAV was also

maintained in *Stat1*$^{-/-}$ animals, which are broadly compromised in IFN signaling **(Figure 2E)**.

These results argue against a role for any of these candidate host mechanisms in mediating

SFB's protection against IAV infection. We also considered a candidate microbial mechanism.

Specifically, we hypothesized that the protection against IAV conferred by SFB might reflect

that it induced an array of complex changes in other taxa that might then broadly impact innate

immunity. However, SFB's protection was maintained in Altered Schaedler flora (ASF) mice,

which harbor only a minimal 8-species microbial community [11] thus arguing against this

possibility.

SFB's protection against IAV, RSV and SARS-CoV-2 associated with preservation of resident

lung phagocytes

That candidate mechanisms were not experimentally substantiated led us to utilize less

targeted approaches to investigate how SFB gut colonization protected mice against IAV. First,

we performed transcriptomic profiling of whole lungs harvested from mice thar were untreated

(naïve) or administered SFB, CA09, or a combination thereof. The results of this RNA-seq

analysis were presented as a heat map, showing 4-5 individual mice per condition, of all genes

whose expression was significantly altered in response to any of the three treatments **(Figure**

3A). It illustrated that SFB, by itself, had almost no impact on lung gene expression, whereas, as

expected, IAV infection, by itself, markedly remodeled the lung transcriptome. Strikingly, such

IAV-induced changes in gene expression were absent in SFB-colonized mice, indicating that the

presence of SFB in the gut broadly ameliorated IAV's impact on lung tissue. The majority of

genes induced by CA09-induced were related to immunity and inflammation thus according with

the view that much of the lung pathology in IAV infection is driven by the immune system [12]

and, furthermore, the notion that SFB strongly dampened such responses.

We next used flow cytometry to examine the impact of SFB and IAV on lung populations

of immune cells, focusing on innate cells given our results from KO mice had suggested

lymphocytes were not required SFB-mediated protection against IAV. Consistent with other

studies, intranasal administration of CA09, by itself, induced a stark depletion of basally-resident

CD103$^+$ dendritic cells (cDC1) and alveolar macrophages (AM), which was followed by

increased abundance of a panel of inflammatory cells including neutrophils, monocytes, and

natural killer cells [13]. Analogous to the RNA-seq and histopathology results, SFB, by itself,

did not significantly impact levels of lung leukocytes but wholly prevented the changes induced

by CA09 **(Figure 3B and Figure S2)**. Preventing these CA09-induced changes in lung

cellularity and disease was not SFB strain-specific as similar protective effects resulted from

colonization of the gut by SFB strains isolated in 3 different continents **(Figure S3)**. Nor were

SFB impacts specific to IAV. Rather, SFB colonization also reduced viral loads and prevented

changes in lung cellularity, and reduced pro-inflammatory gene expression, following

inoculation of mice with respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) and mouse-adapted SARS-CoV-2

(Figure S4). which, irrespective of SFB, did not cause clinical signs of disease.

To investigate the extent to which SFB-mediated prevention of IAV-induced changes in

lung cellularity simply reflected lower IAV loads, we pharmacologically restricted IAV

replication via 4'-fluorouridine (4'-FIU), a broad-spectrum nucleoside analog inhibitor that we

recently reported impedes IAV, RSV, and SARS-CoV-2 [14, 15]. SFB$^-$ mice received 4'-FIU via

oral gavage at different dose levels in a once daily (q.d.) regimen beginning 24 hours post-

inoculation. At this time, IAV levels and immune cell populations were similar in SFB$^-$ and SFB-

administered mice **(Figure S2C)**, which we hereafter refer to as SFB$^+$ mice. As expected,

administration of 4'-FIU to SFB$^-$ mice dose-dependently suppressed IAV replication to a similar

or greater extent than SFB **(Figure 3C)**. Like SFB, 4'-FIU administration prevented the CA09-

induced appearance of inflammatory cells in the lung. However, even the highest dose of 4'-FIU,

which lowered IAV titers by over three orders of magnitude, did not mitigate CA09-induced

ablation of cDC1 or AM suggesting that their persistence in SFB$^+$ mice may have contributed to,

rather than resulted from, suppression of IAV.

Alveolar Macrophages are required for SFB-mediated protection against IAV

Potential roles for cDC1 and AM in SFB-mediated protection against IAV were tested in

mice harboring deficiencies in these cells. We observed that SFB-mediated protection against

IAV was maintained in *Batf3*^{-/-} mice, which wholly lack cDC1 [16], but was greatly reduced in

Csf2^{-/-} mice, which have a 70% reduction in basal AM levels [17] **(Figure 4 A&B)**. The role of

AM was further examined by depleting these cells with clodronate liposomes [18], an approach

that we verified efficiently depleted AM but did not alter levels of other lung innate immune

cells **(Figure 4Ci)**. Depletion of AM, by itself, did not significantly impact IAV titers or clinical

signs of disease but eliminated the ability of SFB to lower lung IAV titers, ameliorate

hypothermia and weight loss, and prevent death **(Figure 4Cii)**. These results suggested that SFB-

mediated impacts on AM were germane to its protection against RVI. SFB-mediated

maintenance of AM levels could conceivably have reflected increased generation of these cells,

which can occur from monocyte progenitors migrating to the lung or local self-renewal [19], or

that SFB colonization had resulted in AM resisting death upon RVI. SFB's prevention of AM

depletion following CA09 inoculation associated with prevention of IAV-induced caspase-3

activation **(Figure 4D)**, which marks AM commitment to cell death [20], and increased

expression of CD71 **(Figure 4E)**, which associates with enhanced phagocytosis and survival [21,

22]. These results suggest that SFB colonization had "emboldened" AM to resist IAV-induced

depletion.

SFB's preservation of AM enables their sustained protection of EC from IAV infection

Airway epithelial cells (AEC) are primary sites replication sites of respiratory viruses,

including IAV, RSV, and SARS-CoV-2. Specifically, in the case of highly pathogenic H1N1

IAV, AEC are the only site in which hemagglutinin is effectively cleaved to allow infection,

replication, and generation of new infectious virions [23]. AM are known to protect lung airway

epithelial cells (AEC) from IAV infection, particularly at early time points following IAV-

infection, i.e. prior to their depletion [24]. Thus, we predicted that SFB's preservation of AM

following CA09 inoculation might result in lower viral loads in AEC in SFB$^+$ mice. Indeed, the

percentage of lung AEC, type I and II, as well as conducting AECs, displaying detectable levels

of CA09, which encodes GFP, by flow cytometry, was significantly reduced in SFB$^+$ mice 4

days post-inoculation **(Figure 4E and Figure S5)**. Depletion of AM by clodronate in SFB$^+$ mice

increased IAV levels to that of SFB$^-$ mice in all three lung AEC types **(Figure 4F)**. These results

indicate that SFB-induced AM persistence following IAV infection enables sustained AM-

mediated protection of EC, likely contributing to lower IAV burden and ameliorated pathology.

Persistence of SFB$^+$ AM upon RVI is cell-intrinsic

Persistence of AM in CA09-infected SFB$^+$ mice was potentially attributable to SFB

altering the lung environment and/or reflect that AM themselves had been intrinsically

transformed to better withstand IAV challenge. To differentiate between these possibilities, we

adoptively transferred FACS-sorted AM from SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$ mice to SFB$^-$ mice using donor

mice with a CD45.1 subtype, thereby enabling distinction of endogenous and transplanted cells

(Figure 5). The degree to which AM harvested from SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$ mice, hereafter referred to

as SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$ AM, engrafted following transplant was similar, comprising about 20% of the

total AM in their new host. CA09 infection did not significantly alter proportions of endogenous

vs. engrafted AM in recipients of SFB$^-$ AM but led to SFB$^+$ AM (i.e. engrafted) becoming their

host's majority AM population. This shift in AM proportions reflected that endogenous AM in

both recipient groups as well as engrafted SFB$^-$ AM were all depleted by CA09 infection,

whereas engrafted SFB$^+$ AM fully resisted CA09-induced depletion and, concomitantly, lacked

Caspse-3 activation, despite having been transplanted into an SFB-free host. Thus, colonization

of the gut with SFB intrinsically altered AM to withstand IAV-induced depletion.

SFB$^+$ AM exhibited inflammatory anergy and enhanced antiviral function

Differences between SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$ AM were characterized ex vivo as schematized

(Figure 6A). Profiling of basal gene expression (i.e. without IAV exposure) by RNA-seq found

that only 24 of the 15,510 genes expressed by AM were differentially expressed between SFB$^-$

and SFB$^+$ AM **(Figure 6B)**, 18 of which were both confirmed by PCR and biologically

replicated in a distinct mouse cohort **(Figure S6A).** Six of the genes upregulated in SFB$^+$ AM are

associated with an M2 macrophage phenotype. Yet, quantitation of surface expression markers

previously used to distinguish M1 vs. M2 phenotypes [25] did not reveal differences between

SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$ AM **(Figure S6B)**. The genes most prominently up- and down-regulated,

respectively, in SFB$^+$ AM were Tsc22d3 and Notch 4, which, respectively, function in

suppressing and activating pro-inflammatory gene expression [26, 27] suggesting such signaling

might be dampened in SFB$^+$ AM. Indeed, we found SFB$^+$ AM lacked the robust UV-irradiated

IAV-induced activation of pro-inflammatory gene expression exhibited by SFB$^-$ AM **(Figure 6C**

and Figure S7A). Such lack of pro-inflammatory responsiveness was partially recapitulated by

antibody-mediated neutralization of Notch 4 suggesting that the reduced Notch 4 expression in

SFB$^+$ AM contributed to their inflammatory anergy and, consequently, the reduced inflammation

observed in IAV-infected SFB$^+$ mice.

The small panel of genes upregulated in SFB$^+$ AM also included those known to function

in antiviral resistance, including complement C1qa and Ifitm1 thus suggesting that SFB$^+$ AM

were not anergic to IAV per se but, rather, might have better virus neutralizing capacity. We

examined this possibility by incubating CA09 stocks with AM for 45 min at which time AM

were removed by centrifugation and supernatant infectious titers and IAV genomes quantified.

SFB$^-$ AM lowered the infectious titers of the CA09 stocks to which they were exposed, at 37°C

but not 4°C, but the extent of reduction was 150-fold greater for SFB$^+$ AM (**Figure 6Di**). This

greater reduction in titer was accompanied by only 5-fold lower levels of PCR-quantifiable IAV

genomes in supernatants of SFB$^+$ AM (**Figure 6Dii**). This led us to hypothesize enhanced

neutralization of IAV by complement and/or other products secreted by SFB$^+$ AM. Indeed, we

found that, even when SFB$^+$ AM were not exposed to virus, their supernatants from 18h cultures

had greater capacity than those from SFB$^-$ AM to lower CA09 infectious titers **(Figure 6Diii)**.

Such enhanced ability of SFB$^+$ AM supernatants to lower IAV titers was fully reversed by

antibody-mediated removal of C1qa and, moreover, was not observed in C1qa$^{-/-}$ mice **(Figure**

S6C). These results accord with recent observations that C1qa can directly bind IAV and reduce

its infectivity [28]. Yet, in contrast to AM themselves, addition of AM supernatants to CA09

stocks had no impact on levels of viral genomes **(Figure S6D)** suggesting the enhanced antiviral

capacity of SFB$^+$ AM might also involve increased viral absorption and/or uptake, potentially as

a result of viral particles being more decorated with C1qa [29]. In accord with this notion,

reductions in IAV genomes in supernatants of AM/CA09 mixtures were paralleled by increased

IAV genomes in AM lysates **(Figure 6Div)**. The relative increase in IAV genomes in SFB$^+$,

compared to SFB$^-$, AM lysates was maintained amidst chlorpromazine, but not latrunculin

treatment, neither of which impacted cell viability, suggesting it might reflect enhanced

phagocytosis uptake by SFB$^+$ AM **(Figure S6F)**. In accord with this notion, SFB$^+$ AM exhibited

modestly greater uptake of IgG-coated fluorescent beads **(Figure S6E)**. Exploring the fate of

CA09 internalized by AM during the 45 min exposure period found that, 24 h following media

replacement, AM supernatants had few infectious virions while lysates contained few detectable

IAV genomes **(Figure 6Div)** thus suggesting that AMs were not permissive for CA09

replication, but rather constituted a dead end for the virus. Collectively, these results indicate that

elevated C1qa expression and, perhaps consequently, enhanced phagocytosis drove the increased

antiviral capacity of SFB$^+$ AM.

SFB-induced reprogramming of AM protects mice against IAV infection

Lastly, we examined the extent to which SFB-induced reprogramming of AM contributed

to SFB's protection against IAV infection. Specifically, we performed an additional series of

AM transplant experiments designed to measure impacts on IAV levels and clinical-type

parameters. Consistent with the notion that AM, prior to their depletion, protect against IAV

infection [24], we observed that administration of SFB$^-$ AM to a host replete with endogenous

AM resulted in a modest reduction in IAV titers, gross lung damage, hypothermia, weight loss,

and death following CA09 inoculation **(Figure 7A)**. Administration of SFB$^+$ AM provided

markedly greater protection against this IAV challenge, approximating the level conferred by

administration of SFB itself, as assessed by all parameters measured. Analogous patterns of

results were seen following transfer of SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$ AM into mice deficient in endogenous

AM, achieved via use of *Csf2*$^{-/-}$ mice or chlodronate administration **(Figure 7B and 7C)**. *Ex vivo*

blockade of Notch4 on SFB$^-$ AM prior to transplanting them also enhanced their ability to

withstand IAV-induced depletion, protect EC from IAV infection, and ameliorate CA09-induced

disease, but did not impact level of viral genomes in the lung **(Figure S7B)**, suggesting the

ability of transplanted SFB$^+$ AM to do so was not mediated solely by dampened inflammatory

signaling but also required such AM have enhanced antiviral function. Thus, SFB colonization of

the gut stably and broadly altered the AM phenotype enabling these cells to better protect their

hosts from lethal RVI.

DISCUSSION

Positioned in the lung lumen to enable their guarding the surfaces of O_2 and CO_2 exchange, AM are amongst the first cells to encounter inhaled threats including respiratory viruses. We show herein that how AM respond to respiratory viruses is dramatically altered by the composition of the intestinal microbiota. Specifically, we report that colonization of the intestine by SFB, naturally acquired, or exogenously administered, markedly attenuates IAV-induced AM pro-inflammatory gene expression while increasing ability of AM to directly disable IAV. SFB-induced reprogramming of AM manifested in vivo by them resisting RVI-induced depletion thereby enabling their sustained protection of lung epithelial cells from infection. Collectively, these consequences of SFB-induced AM reprogramming resulted in lower viral titers, reduced inflammation and, consequently, reduced disease severity. While the general concept that microbiota composition in total can influence immune phenotype and, proneness to infection is established [30, 31], we were quite surprised that the presence of a single common commensal bacterial species, amidst the thousands of different microbial species that variably inhabit the mouse gut, had such strong impacts in RVI models and, furthermore, that such impacts were largely attributable to reprogramming of AM.

The extent to which SFB is present in humans is not well defined but it has been reported to be frequently present in children in some regions [32] and was unequivocally shown to be present in some adult individuals [33]. Yet independent of a specific role for SFB, however, our findings speak strongly to the potential of gut microbiota to influence proneness to RVI, especially via programming of AM. Both AM pro-inflammatory gene expression and AM depletion are known to correlate with RVI severity in humans but determinants of inter-individual heterogeneity in AM responses have not been defined [32]. We consider it highly

318   unlikely that SFB is the only gut microbe capable of impacting AM phenotype and,

319   consequently, proneness to RVI. Rather, we posit that AM are a key component of the gut-lung

320   axis wherein an individual's microbiota in its entirety is a determinant of disease outcome

321   following exposure to an array of respiratory viruses.

322   The observation that SFB$^+$ AM maintained an IAV-resistant phenotype following

transplant to SFB$^-$ mice is consistent with observations that AM have stable cell-type specific

patterns of gene expression and methylation even when cultured extensively *ex vivo* [34].

Moreover, it accords with recently increasing appreciation that AM can be "entrained" to display

long-lasting phenotypic alterations that impact their ability to manage pathogens and tumors

[35]. Yet, mechanisms governing such AM entraining are not clear and, moreover, may be

distinct from the AM reprogramming observed here. Specifically, previously observed AM

entraining has generally involved large-scale depletion of AM, which are then replaced by cells

newly recruited from bone marrow that, even after establishing residency in the lung, exhibit

stark global differences in gene expression profiles. In contrast gene expression profiling of SFB$^-$

and SFB$^+$ AM revealed only modest differences, likely reflecting that both AM had been

generated by AM self-renewal processes that normally maintain AM homeostasis in non-

traumatic states. Nonetheless, changes in basal AM gene expression we observed likely

contributed to the enhanced ability of SFB$^+$ AM to protect their host against RVI. Indeed, the

inflammatory anergy, mediated in part by reduced Notch-4 expression, and enhanced antiviral

function, mediated in part by elevated C1qa expression, of SFB$^+$ AM plausibly directly

contributed to, respectively, the reductions in lung pathology and viral loads that followed IAV

inoculation. Much less clear, and thus warranting further research, is the nature of the signal that

is generated by SFB colonization of the luminal surface of the intestine that drives AM

reprogramming.

In addition to directly disabling IAV, AM can also protect lung EC from IAV infection

via suppressing EC CysLT1 signaling, which might mediate IAV entry into these cells [24].

Thus, persistence of AM in SFB$^+$ mice, by itself, likely contributed to SFB's protection against

IAV. That mechanisms driving RVI-induced AM depletion are not clear, makes determining

how SFB colonization prevents such depletion challenging. Nonetheless, we speculate that

reductions in inflammatory gene expression and viral loads, which SFB+ AM mediated, may

have contributed to increased persistence of SFB$^+$ AM. In addition to mitigating primary RVI,

AM persistence may help prevent secondary consequences of RVI. Many of the severe

consequences of IAV infection in humans result from secondary bacterial infections, to which

the lung is made more permissive by loss of IAV-induced AM depletion [36]. Such impaired

antibacterial immunity can persist for prolonged periods perhaps reflecting that the bone-marrow

derived replacement AM are not quickly optimized for mucosal host defense. Thus, microbiota

mediated AM programming may not only influence severity of acute RVI but may also be a long

term post-RVI health determinant.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Mice

The following mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory: C57BL/6 (B6 WT), B6.129S(C)-*Batf3*^{tm1Kmm}/J, B6.129S-*Csf2*^{tm1Mlg}/J, B6.129S7-*Rag1*^{tm1Mom}/J, B6.129S2-*Ifnar1*^{tm1Agt}/Mmjax, NOD.Cg-*Rag1*^{tm1Mom} *Il2rg*^{tm1Wjl}/SzJ, B6.129S(Cg)-*Stat1*^{tm1Dlv}/J, B6(Cg)-C1qatm1d(EUCOMM)Wtsi/TennJ. The Jackson laboratory does not test mice for the presence of segmented filamentous bacteria (SFB), but all mice we tested that were purchased from this provider for this study were SFB-negative upon arrival at GSU. The following mice were purchased from Taconic Biosciences: C57BL/6 (B6 WT) Excluded Flora (EF) mice and Specific Pathogen-Free (SFP) mice, which we verified were SFB$^+$ and SFB$^-$, respectively. Unless otherwise stated, mice were used at 4-5 weeks of age, and experiments were carried out using age- and gender-matched groups. The Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Georgia State University approved animal studies.

PCR primers, FACs antibodies, neutralization antibodies and other reagents

All reagents used in these manuscripts can be seen in Tables S1 and S2.

Cells and viruses

Madin-Darby Canine Kidney (MDCK; ATCC CCL-34), HEp-2 (ATCC CCL-23), and VeroE6 TMPRSS2 (BPS Bioscience #78081) cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 7.5% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C and 5% CO_2. All cell lines used in this study were authenticated and checked for *Mycoplasma* and microbial contamination. Recombinant Influenza A virus was recovered based on original

reports for laboratory-adapted IAV [37]. A/CA/07/2009 (H1N1) was grown on MDCK cells

using serum-free DMEM supplemented with 0.5% Trypsin. Recombinant RSV strain A2 with

line19F reporter gene recRSV-mKate was rescued and amplified as described previously [38],

and the SARS-CoV-2 MA10 strain [39] was passaged in VeroE6 TMPRSS2 cells. All viruses

used were clarified, aliquoted, and stored at -80°C. Virus stock titers were determined through

$TCID_{50}$-titration.

Complex microbiota and mono-associated SFB transplantation

Fecal samples were collected from donor mice, suspended in 20% glycerol PBS solution at 40

mg/mL concentration, passed through a 40 µm filter, and stored at -80C. Frozen fecal

suspensions were orally administered to recipient mice at 200 µl per mouse.

Virus infection

Unless otherwise stated, mice were 5 weeks of age at the time of infection. Mice were randomly

assigned to study groups and housed under ABSL-2 or ABSL-3 conditions for infections with

A/CA/07/2009 (H1N1) recombinant, recRSV-mKate, or SARS-CoV-2 MA10 strain,

respectively. Seven days prior to virus infection, mice were subjected to microbiota manipulation

(administration of feces from SPF or   SFB-monoassociated mice). Bodyweight was determined

twice daily, and body temperature determined once daily rectally. For infections, animals were

anesthetized with isoflurane [rec A/CA/07/2009 (H1N1) (CA09)] or ketamine/xylazine (recRSV-

mKate and MA-SARS-CoV-2), followed by intranasal inoculation with 2.5×10^2- 2×10^4 $TCID_{50}$

units/animal of GFP-expressing reporter virus version of A/CA/07/2009 (H1N1) (CA09),

5.5×10^5 of recRSV-mKate, or 4.2×10^5 of MA-SARS-CoV-2. In all cases, virus inoculum was

diluted in 50 µl and administered in amounts of 25 µl per nare, followed by treatment with 4'-

FlU at specified dose levels and starting time points through oral gavage. Each individual study

contained animals receiving equal volumes of vehicle through oral gavage. Animals were

euthanized and organs harvested at predefined time points or when animals reached humane

study endpoints. At study end point, lung tissue was harvested for virus titration or

histopathology.

Histopathologic analysis

Lungs were perfused using 10% neutral-buffered formalin, dissected, and fixed. Formalin-fixed

lungs were transferred to 70% EtOH, embedded in paraffin, sectioned, stained, and scored by a

board-certified veterinary pathologist (KS), who was blinded to the study groups. For each

parameter, the most severe lesion in the section was scored. Pleuritis, bronchiolitis, and alveolitis

scoring was based on distribution: 1 = focal, 2 = multifocal, 3 = multifocal to coalescing, 4 =

diffuse. For interstitial pneumonia (IP): 1 = alveolar septa expanded by 1 leukocyte thickness, 2

= 2-leukocytes thick, 3 = 3-leukocytes thick, 4 = 4-leukocytes thick. For vasculitis: 1 = vessel

wall infiltrated by leukocytes, 2 = infiltration and separation of myocytes, 3 = same changes as in

2 with fibrinoid change. For perivascular cuffing (PVC): 1 = vessels surrounded by 1 leukocyte

layer, 2 = 2 to 5-leukocytes thick, 3 = 6 to 10-leukocytes thick, 4 = more than 10-leukocytes

thick.

Virus titration

Virus samples were serially diluted (10-fold starting at 1:10 initial dilution) in serum-free

DMEM (recRSV-mKate and MA-SARS-CoV-2) and supplemented with 0.5% Trypsin (Gibco,

recA/California/07/2009). Serial dilutions were added to cells seeded in 96-well plate at

1×10^4 cells per well, 24 hours before infection. Infected plates were incubated for 72 hours at

37°C with 5% CO_2, and scoring of wells based on reporter activity/syncytia.

Virus titration from tissue samples

Organs were weighed and homogenized in 300 µl PBS using a bead beatter, set to 3 cycles of 30

seconds each at 4°C, separated by 30-second rest periods. Homogenates were cleared (10

minutes at $20,000 \times g$ and 4°C), and cleared supernatants were stored at -80°C until virus

titration. Viral titers were expressed as $TCID_{50}$ units per gram input tissue.

Neutralization of IL-17 and IL-22

IL-17 (100 µg) and IL-22-Fc (150 µg) neutralizing monoclonal antibody were administered

intraperitoneally shortly before microbiota transplantation and virus inoculation thereafter every

other day until mice were euthanized.

Lung digestion and flow cytometry analysis/isolation of innate immune cells

Lungs were dissected from mice and finely minced with scissors before digestion (40 minutes, at

37°C) with warm RPMI containing 10% FBS, DNase, and 1mg/mL Collagenase type IV

(Sigma); lungs were further homogenized via swishing with a 3-mL syringe every 10 minutes

during digestion. Following digestion, immune cells were purified with 40%/80% isotonic Percol

gradient centrifugation. For flow cytometry analysis, the prepared cells were blocked with 1

µg/million cells with 2.4G2 (anti-CD16/anti-CD32) in 100 µL PBS for 15 minutes at 4°C,

followed by 2-times wash with PBS to remove residue of 2.4G2 and then incubated in

conjugated mAbs CD45 BV605, MHCII BV650, CD11b APC-Cy7, CD11c BV786, Ly6C

PerCp-Cy5.5, Ly6G AF700, CD64 BV421, CD24 FITC, CD117 GV510, SiglecF PE-CF594,

Fcer1 APC. Intracellular staining for cleaved caspase-3 was done using FoxP3 staining buffer

purchased from eBioscience. Multi-parameter analysis was performed on a CytoFlex (Beckman

Coulter) and analyzed with FlowJo software (Tree Star). Cell sorting was done using Sony

SH800Z cell sorter (Sony). Gating strategy for innate immune cells was based on Yu *et al*., [40]

and gating strategy for airway epithelial cells was based on Cardani *et al*., [24]. Immune cells and

lung airway epithelial subtypes are defined as follow:

Cell Types	Markers
Alveolar macrophages	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^+CD64^+CD24^-Ly6C^+SiglecF^+$
Alveolar macrophages (for cell sorting)	$CD45^+CD11c^+SiglecF^+$
Interstitial macrophages	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^+CD64^+CD24^-Ly6C^-SiglecF^-$
Exudate macrophages	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^+CD64^+CD24^-Ly6C^+SiglecF^-$
$CD103^+CD11b^-$ DCs (cDc1)	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^+CD64^-CD24^+CD11b^-CD103^+$
$CD103^-CD11b^+$ DCs (cDc2)	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^+CD64^-CD24^+CD11b^+CD103^-$
Neutrophils	$CD45^+Ly6G^+$
Eosinophils	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^-SiglecF^+$
Basophils	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^-CD11b^+FceRI^+CD117^-$
Mast cells	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^-CD11b^+FceRI^+CD117^-$
NK cells	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^-CD11b^+FceRI^-$
Inflammatory monocytes	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^-CD64^-Ly6C^+$
Resident monocytes	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^+CD11b^+MHCII^-CD64^-Ly6C^-$
T cells	$CD45^+Ly6G^-CD11c^-CD11b^-MHCII^-CD24^-FceRI^-$

B cells	CD45$^+$Ly6G$^-$CD11c$^-$CD11b$^-$MHCII$^+$CD24$^+$FceRI$^-$
Type 1 airway epithelial cells	CD45$^-$CD31$^-$EpCAM$^+$T1a$^+$
Type 2 airway epithelial cells	CD45$^-$CD31$^-$EpCAM$^+$T1a$^-$MHCII$^+$
Conducting airway epithelial cells	CD45$^-$CD31$^-$EpCAM$^+$T1a$^-$MHCII$^-$

RNA-Seq

RNA was isolated from lungs or FACs-sorted alveolar macrophages using RNeasy Plus Mini Kit

from Qiagen. The prepared RNA samples were then sent to the Molecular Evolution Core of

Georgia Institute of Technology for library preparation and sequencing on the NextSeq

instrument with a high output 2x75bp run. FASTQC was used for sequencing reads quality

screening. The RNAseq data were then analyzed using the Galaxy server.

Adoptive transfer of alveolar macrophages

Lungs were harvested from CD45.1 mice and digested with Collagenase type IV as described

above. Alveolar macrophages (defined at CD45$^+$MHCII$^+$CD11c$^+$Siglect$^+$) were stained and

FACs-sorted. Small aliquot of isolated cells was used to determined purity. Unless stated

otherwise, 5x10^5 alveolar macrophages in 30 µl PBS were administered intranasally to recipient

mice. One day post cells transfer, some mice were euthanized to determine transfer efficiency

and survival of transferred cells; and some mice were inoculated with IAV. For survival

experiments, mice were monitored twice daily for 14 days. For lung virus titers, mice were

euthanized on day 4.5 post virus inoculation.

Ex vivo inhibiting Notch4 signaling in alveolar macrophages.

Alveolar macrophages were FACS-sorted as described. After sorting, cells were treated with

either isotype control antibody (Cat# BE0091, BioXCell) or an anti-Notch4 monoclonal antibody

(20μg/mL) (Cat# BE0129, BioXCell), known to neutralize Notch 4 [27] for 30 minutes. Cells

were washed twice and resuspended in PBS and intranasally transferred to mice.

***Ex vivo* alveolar macrophages culture, virucidal assay, and anti-body mediated removal of**

C1qa. Alveolar macrophages were FACS-sorted as described. After sorted cells were incubated

for 18h at 37°C. Cells were washed twice with serum-free media and were incubated with live

CA09 (MOI = 1) in serum-free DMEM supplemented with 0.5% Trypsin (flu media) for 45min.

In addition, to assess whether alveolar macrophages are the terminal destination for IAV, some

cells had new flu media added and were incubated for another 24h. Viral titer and genomes were

determined via $TCID_{50}$ and PCR methods. **Antibody-mediated removal of C1qa from ex vivo**

alveolar macrophages' supernatants. Cell-free supernatants of 18h AM cultures were treated

with C1qa polyclonal antibodies or isotype for 2 hours at 4°C and protein A/G was added and

centrifuged. Supernatant was harvested and incubated with CA09 stocks for 45mins, at which

point IAV infection titers were assayed.

Ex Vivo alveolar AM bead uptake (i.e. Phagocytosis) assay was performed with Phagocytosis

assay kit (Cat#500290, Cayman chemical). Alveolar macrophages were FACs-sorted as

described. After sorting, $1x10^5$ cells were seeded in each well of a 96-well plate and incubated

for 18 h at 37°C. Cells were washed twice, and IgG-FITC beads were added and incubated for 2

hours at 37°C. After incubation period, cells were centrifuged, and supernatants were removed

and resuspended 300µl of FACs buffer. Level of cell fluorescence, an indicator of bead uptake,

was measured via flow cytometry.

Quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA from lungs or from FACs-sorted alveolar macrophages were isolated using the

Qiagen RNeasy Mini Kit with on-column DNase digestion according to manufacturer's protocol.

cDNA was generated using the Superscript First Strand Synthesis kit for RT-PCR and random

hexamer primers (Invitrogen). Q-PCR was performed with SYBR Green using StepOnePlus

PCR system (Applied Biosystem), and all genes expression was normalized to GAPDH. Primer

sequences are shown in Table 1.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Results were expressed as mean ± SEM. All data was plotted in GraphPad Prism version 10.

Statistical significance was assessed by One-way ANOVA, Student's t test, and Two-way

ANOVA. Differences between experimental groups were considered significant if $*p<0.05$,

$**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Table 1 qPCR primers		
Genes	**Forward 5' --> 3'**	**Reverse 5' --> 3'**
Notch4	GAACGCGACATCAACGAGTG	GGAACCCAAGGTGTTATGGCA
Retlna	CCAATCCAGCTAACTATCCCTCC	ACCCAGTAGCAGTCATCCCA
CD209g	GGCCTCAGCGATCACAGAAG	ACAACGGCTGTCATTCCATTTA
Abca9	TCGATAGATGCAGTGAGAGTCA	CACAAGGAGCTGAATGGTCTTT
Tsc22d3	CTGTTGGCCTCGACTGCTG	GCCGAAAGTTGCTCACGAAG
Sik1	TCATGTCGGAGTTCAGTGCG	ACCTGCGTTTTGGTGACTCG
Fcrls	CTTCTGGTCTTCGCTCCTGTC	ATGGTGTAGCTTGAAGCACTG
Dmkn	AGCTGACCAGTTTTCTAAGCC	GCCAGTTGTAAGTAGGATTCACC
F13a1	GAGCAGTCCCGCCCAATAAC	CCCTCTGCGGACAATCAACTTA
Ccl24	TCTTGCTGCACGTCCTTTATT	GCATCCAGTTTTTGTATGTGCC
Ifitm1	GACAGCCACCACAATCAACAT	CCCAGGCAGCAGAAGTTCAT
Ltb4r1	ATGGCTGCAAACACTACATCTC	GACCGTGCGTTTCTGCATC
Akr1b8	GACCAAGGCAGAATCCTCACC	AGATGCCCTTCGAGTGACAGT
C1qa	AAAGGCAATCCAGGCAATATCA	TGGTTCTGGTATGGACTCTCC
Maf	AGGAGGAGGTCATCCGACTG	CTTCTCGCTCTCCAGAATGTG
Procr	AATGCCTACAACCGGACTCG	ACCAGTGATGTGTAAGAGCGA
Socs3	ATGGTCACCCACAGCAAGTTT	TCCAGTAGAATCCGCTCTCCT
Marcksl1	CAATGGAGACTTAACCCCCAAG	GGCCACTCAATTTGAAAGGCT
Kcnn4	GCTCAACCAAGTCCGCTTC	GTGATCGGAATCAGCCACAGT
Tmem119	CCTACTCTGTGTCACTCCCG	CACGTACTGCCGGAAGAAATC
Acpp	CATTGGTGTTTCGGCATGGAG	CCAAGTTCGTAGTGCTGTTCC
Gucy2c	GACTTTTCTCTCGCTTACTTGGA	TGAATGCACGAGCAAACTTGG
Il6	TGGGGCTCTTCAAAAGCTCC	AGGAACTATCACCGGATCTTCAA
Ifnb1	CAGCTCCAAGAAAGGACGAAC	GGCAGTGTAACTCTTCTGCAT
Cxcl10	CCAAGTGCTGCCGTCATTTTC	GGCTCGCAGGGATGATTTCAA
Cxcl11	GGCTTCCTTATGTTCAAACAGGG	GCCGTTACTCGGGTAAATTACA
Irf7	GAGACTGGCTATTGGGGGAG	GACCGAAATGCTTCCAGGG
Isg15	GGTGTCCGTGACTAACTCCAT	TGGAAAGGGTAAGACCGTCCT
Oas3	TCTGGGGTCGCTAAACATCAC	GATGACGAGTTCGACATCGGT
Oasl1	CAGGAGCTGTACGGCTTCC	CCTACCTTGAGTACCTTGAGCAC
Oasl2	TTGTGCGGAGGATCAGGTACT	TGATGGTGTCGCAGTCTTTGA
Ifit1	CTGAGATGTCACTTCACATGGAA	GTGCATCCCCAATGGGTTCT
Ifit2	AGTACAACGAGTAAGGAGTCACT	AGGCCAGTATGTTGCACATGG
Ifit3	CTGAAGGGGAGCGATTGATT	AACGGCACATGACCAAAGAGTAGA
Gapdh	TGGATTTGGACGCATTGGTC	TTTGCACTGGTACGTGTTGAT
Inf-NA	CAATTCAACTTGGGAATCAAAATCAGA	CTGACTGTCCAGCAGCAAAGTT
Inf-M	TGTAAAACGACGGCCAGTAGCAAAAGCAGGTAG	CAGGAAACAGCTATGACCAGTAGMAACAAGGTAG
	AGAAAAGAATGTAACAGTAACACACTCTGT	TGTTTCCACAATGTARGACCAT

Influenza A H1N1pdm09 HA genes	Probes 5'-(FAM)-CAGCCAGCAATRTTRCATTTACC-(MGB)-3'

Table S2. FACs antibodies					
Specificity	**Clone**	**Fluorochrome**	**Supplier**	**Catalog#**	**Dilution**
CD45	30-F11	BV605	Biolegend	103155	1/800
Ly6G	1A8	AF700	BD Biosciences	561236	1/200
Ly6C	HK1.4	PercP-Cy5.5	Thermo Fisher	45-5932	1/200
CD11b	M1/70	APC-Cy7	BD Biosciences	557657	1/200
CD11c	HL3	BV786	BD Biosciences	563786	1/100
MHCII	M5/114.15.2	BV650	BD Biosciences	563415	1/1000
CD64	X54-5/7.1	BV421	Biolegend	139309	1/400
CD24	M1/69	FITC	BD Biosciences	553261	1/1000
CD117	ACK2	BV510	Biolegend	135119	1/100
SiglecF	E50-2440	PE-CF594	BD Biosciences	562757	1/1000
Fcer1	Mar-1	APC	Thermo Fisher	175898-80	1/100
Capse-3	269518	APC	R&D System	IC835R-100UG	1/50
CD86	GL-1	APC	Biolegend	105012	1/100
CD206	C068C2	APC-AF700	Biolegend	141708	1/100
CD200R	OX-90	PE	BD Biosciences	565543	1/100
CD45.1	A20	PE-Cy7	Thermo Fisher	25-0453-82	1/100
CD45.2	104	FITC	BD Biosciences	561874	1/100
T1a (Podoplanin)	8.1.1	PE	Biolegend	127408	1/100
CD31	MEC13.3	APC	Biolegend	102510	1/100
EpCam	G8.8	AF700	BioLegend	118240	1/100

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Colonization of the intestine with SFB protected mice from influenza virus infection.

(A) EF and SPF mice were inoculated with A/CA/07/2009 (H1N1) influenza virus (CA09) as schematized. Lung viral titers, survival, body weight, and temperature were monitored.

(B) As schematized, conventionally colonized SFB⁻ mice received feces that lacked SFB (SFB⁻), contained SFB (SFB⁺), or contained SFB but no other bacteria (SFB-MA). Seven days after post-transplant, mice were inoculated with CA09. Mice were euthanized 4.5-days later or monitored daily for survival, body weight, and temperature for 2 weeks.

(C) SFB⁻ mice were administered SFB 3 months or 7 days prior to CA09 inoculation. (i) qRT-PCR analysis of SFB colonization level over the course of 14 weeks. (ii) Mice were euthanized 4.5-days later or monitored daily for survival, body weight, and temperature for 2 weeks.

(D) qRT-PCR analysis of SFB level in the small intestine, lungs, and spleens after 7 days colonization.

(E) SFB⁻ mice were untreated (naïve) or administrated SFB. Seven days later, mice were inoculated (or not) with CA09. Mice were euthanized 4.5 days later. H&E staining lung sections scored for pleuritis, bronchiolitis, alveolitis, vasculitis, interstitial pneumonia (IP), and perivascular cuffing (PVC).

All experiments n = 5 mice per group. Data is representative of two to three independent experiments. yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis; Viral titer: One-way ANOVA or student *t* test. survival: Log-rank Mantel-Cox test. Body weights and temperature: Two-way ANOVA. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns not significant.

Figure 2. SFB mediated protection against IAV was maintained in an array of knockout mice and did not require complex gut microbiota.

Lung viral titer, survival rate, body weight change, and temperature of: SFB-negative mice were colonized with SFB for 7 days then inoculated with CA09.

(A) *rag1*$^{-/-}$ mice

(B) mice received neutralization of IL-17/IL-22 monoclonal antibodies every other day throughout the experiment

(C) *Ifnar*$^{-/-}$ mice

(D) *rag1*$^{-/-}$*yc*$^{-/-}$ mice

(E) *stat1*$^{-/-}$ mice

(F) Altered Schaedler flora (ASF) mice.

All experiments n = 5 mice per group. Statistical analysis; Viral titer: student *t* test, Survival: Log-rank Mantel-Cox test. Body weights and temperature: Two-way ANOVA. **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$.

Figure 3. SFB's protection against IAV infection associated with preservation of resident lung phagocytes.

(A) SFB$^-$ mice were untreated (naïve) or administrated SFB. Seven days later, mice were inoculated (or not) with CA09. Mice were euthanized 4.5-days later. **(i)** Whole lung gene expression assayed by RNA-seq and data are heatmap of genes that are significantly altered by 2-fold in all treatment groups relative to the naïve group. **(ii)** Quantitation of CA09 level in these extracts by qRT-PCR.

(B) SFB$^-$ mice were untreated (naïve) or administrated SFB. Seven days later, mice were inoculated (or not) with CA09. Mice were euthanized 4.5-days later, and lung assayed by flow cytometry. **(i & ii)** Analysis of dendritic cells and alveolar macrophage; representative flow plot and frequencies and cell numbers **(i)** cDC1. **(ii)** alveolar macrophages. **(iii)** Frequencies and cell numbers of lung neutrophils, inflammatory monocytes, and NK cells.

(C) (i) Experimental schema: SFB$^-$ mice colonized with SFB, inoculated with CA09, and treated with 4'-FlU at indicated doses. On day 4.5 post virus inoculation, mice were euthanized, and lungs were harvested to determine virus titers and FACs analysis. **(ii)** lung viral titer. **(iii)** FACs plot graphical representation, frequencies, and cell numbers of lung cDC1, and AMs. **(iv)** Cell numbers of lung neutrophils, inflammatory monocytes, and NK cells.

All experiment n = 4-5 per group. Data is representative of two to three independent experiments (B and C), yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis: One-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$, ns not significant.

Figure 4. SFB-mediated protection against IAV infection and resulting disease required alveolar macrophages.

(A-B) (A) *batf3*$^{-/-}$ and **(B)** *csf2*$^{-/-}$ mice were administered SFB and then, 7 days later, inoculated with CA09. Lung viral titer, body weight change, temperature, and survival were monitored.

(C) (i-ii) SFB$^-$ mice were orally administered with clodronate liposomes one day before mice were euthanized. FACS analysis to determine the AMs depletion efficacy after clodronate treatment. **(i)** FACS graphical representation of lung AMs, frequency of lung AMs and others immune cells after clodronate treatment. **(ii)** SFB$^-$ mice were colonized with SFB for 7 days, and clodronate liposomes were orally administered to mice one day before CA09 inoculation. Mice were euthanized on day 4 post-virus inoculation. Lung viral titer, survival rate, body weight, temperature was measured.

(D) SFB$^-$ mice were untreated (naïve) or administrated SFB. Seven days later, mice were inoculated (or not) with CA09. Mice were euthanized 4.5-days later. Level of cleaved caspase-3 of alveolar macrophages in lung were measured with FACS

(E) SFB$^-$ mice were untreated or treated as in (D). Level of CD71 expression of alveolar macrophages in lung were measured with FACS.

(F) SFB$^-$ mice treated as described in (C) FACS plot graphical representation, and frequencies CA09 level in T1ACEs, T2AECs, and Conducting AECs were assayed by flow cytometry.

All experiment n = 5 mice per group. Data is representative of two to three independent experiments (B-F), yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis; Viral titer, relative SFB genomes, MFI, frequencies/cell numbers of immune cell data: One-way ANOVA or student *t* test. Survival data Log-rank Mantel-Cox. Body weights, temperature: Two-way ANOVA. *p<0.05, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001, ns not significant.

Figure 5. SFB colonization intrinsically altered AM to withstand IAV-induced depletion.

As schematized, SFB⁻ CD45.1 mice were administered with SFB or PBS. Seven days later, AM

were isolated by FACs-sorting, and transferred to SFB- CD45.2 mice. One day post-transferred,

mice were inoculated with CA09. Four days later, lungs were harvested, and AM analyzed by

FACs. Representative FACs plots, cell frequencies, cell numbers, and cleaved caspase-3 level

are shown.

All experiment n = 5 mice per group. Data is representative of two independent experiments (B-

F), yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical test: One-way ANOVA. **p<0.01,

***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001, ns not significant.

Figure 6. SFB+ AM exhibited inflammatory anergy and enhanced antiviral function ex vivo.

(A) Schematic design for ex vivo studies of AM.

(B) Comparison of basal SFB+ and SFB- AM gene expression by RNA-seq, shown as a volcano plot.

(C) SFB+ and SFB- AM were exposed to UV-CA09 with or without Notch4 neutralizing, or isotype control antibodies. RNA was harvested 24 hours later, and gene expression assayed by RT-qPCR. Results are a heat map summary with full results shown in FS7.

(D) AM and CA09 stocks were incubated at 37C, or indicated temperature, for 45 minutes and supernatant were collected. In addition, some cells had new media added and were incubated for another 24 hours. **(i)** virus infection titers in supernatant at 45 minutes and 24 hours were assayed. **(ii)** Supernatant were collected after 45 minutes incubated with CA09 and viral genomes quantitated by RT-qPCR. **(iii)** Cell-free supernatant of 15 hours AM cultures were incubated with live CA09 stocks, with or without C1qa-neutralization or isotype antibody for 45 minutes, at which point virus infection titers were assayed. **(iv)** Cell lysates were generated upon CA09 removal or 24 hours later and viral genomes quantitated by RT-qPCR.

All experiment n = 4-5 mice per group. Data is representative of two independent experiments, yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis: One-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, , ****$p<0.0001$, ns not significant.

Figure 7. Adoptive transfer of SFB$^+$ AM enabled recipients to better manage IAV infection.

(A) As schematized, SFB$^-$ mice were administered SFB or PBS. Seven days later, AMs were isolated by FACs-sorting and transferred to SFB$^-$ mice. Mice were administered 5x10^5 cells per mouse. One day post adoptive transfer, mice were inoculated with a lethal dose of CA09. Mice were euthanized 4.5 days post-inoculation for viral titer and gross lung assessment or monitored for survival, body weight, and temperature.

(B) As schematized, AMs from SFB$^-$ *csf2$^{+/+}$* mice were administered SFB or PBS. Seven days later, AMs were isolated by FACs-sorting and transferred to SFB$^-$ *csf2$^{-/-}$* mice. One day post-transfer, mice were inoculated with CA09. Mice were monitored for 14 days for clinical symptoms including survival rate, body weight, and temperature.

(C) SFB$^-$ mice were administered clodronate liposomes to remove endogenous AM populations. Seven days later after initiation of depletion, mice were administered 5x10^5 AM cells harvested from the SFB$^-$ or SFB$^+$ mice. One day post transfer, mice were inoculated with CA09. Mice were euthanized on day four to assess lung viral titer and gross lung assessment or monitored for survival, body weight, and temperature.

All experiments have at least n = 5 mice per group. Data is representative of two independent experiments (A), yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis; One-way ANOVA: viral titers. Survival: Log-rank Mantel-Cox test. Body weight, temperature: Two-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ****$p<0.0001$, ns not significant.

Figure S1. Feces from SFB-monoassociated mice, but not germfree mice, protected mice against IAV infection, Related to Figure 1.

(A) As schematized, SFB⁻ mice were colonized with complex microbiota that does not contain SFB or PBS or germ-free microbiota or gnotobiotic SFB-monoassociated. Seven days post colonization, mice inoculated with CA09, and were monitored for 14 days for clinical signs or were euthanized on day 4.5 post-virus inoculation to determined lung viral titer. Lung viral titer, survival rate, body weight and temperature.

(B) SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB as indicated time point. After colonization period, mice were inoculated with CA09. Viral titer and clinical signs were assessed as in (B).

(C) As schematized, 24 weeks old SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days and then inoculated with CA09. Viral titer and clinical signs were assessed as in (B).

All experiments at least n = 5 mice per group. Data is representative of two independent experiments (A and B), yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis; One-way ANOVA: viral titers. Survival: Log-rank Mantel-Cox test. Body weight, temperature: Two-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$, ns not significant.

Figure S2. SFB colonization prevented IAV-induced changes in lung cellularity, Related to Figure 3.

(A) Gating strategy for identification of immune cells.

(B) SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days then inoculated with CA09. On day 4.5 post virus inoculation were lung assayed by flow cytometry. Frequencies and cell numbers of indicated immune cells.

(C) (i) Experimental schema: SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days before CA09 inoculation. Mice were euthanized on one-, two-, and four-day post-virus inoculation. **(ii)** CA09 viral genomes quantitated by RT-qPCR. **(iii)** FACs graphical representation, frequency, cell numbers, and cleaved caspase-3 mean fluorescence intensity of lung AMs. **(iv)** Frequencies and cell numbers of lungs' innate immune cells.

All experiments n = 5 mice per group. Data is representative of two to three independent experiments (B), yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis: One-way ANOVA: B, Two-way ANOVA: C. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001, ns not significant.

Figure S3. Distinct SFB isolates conferred reduced IAV levels and prevented IAV-induced changes in lung cellularity, Related to Figure 4.

(A) (i) Experimental schema: SFB⁻ mice were colonized with different SFB strain isolated from the US, Japan, and France laboratories. Seven post colonization, mice were either inoculated or not with CA09. On day 4.5 post virus inoculation, lungs were harvested to determine viral titer, and feces were collected to determine SFB colonization level by qRT-PCR. Clinical signs were monitored throughout the experiments. **(ii)** qRT-PCR analysis of SFB level from fecal samples. **(iii)** Viral genome copies assayed by qRT-PCR, body weight, and temperatures. **(iv)** FACs graphical representation, frequencies, and cell numbers of lung alveolar macrophages. **(v)** Cell numbers of indicated immune cells.

All experiments n = 5 per group. Statistical analysis: SFB genomes, viral RN copies, frequencies/cell numbers of immune cells data: One-way ANOVA. Body weight, temperature: Two-way ANOVA. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.001$, ****$p<0.0001$.

Figure S4. SFB colonization diminished lung viral burden following inoculation of RSV or

SARS-CoV-2, Related to Figure 4.

(A) SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days before RSV inoculation. On day 4.5 post

virus inoculation were, mice were euthanized, and lungs were harvested to determine lung viral

titer or innate immune cells. Clinical signs were monitored daily. **(i)** Lung viral titer, body

weight, temperature. **(ii)** FACs graphical representation, frequencies, and cell numbers of lung

AMs. **(iii)** Frequencies and cell numbers of indicated immune cells.

(B) SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days before SARS-CoV-2 MA10 strain

inoculation. On day 2 post virus inoculation were, mice were euthanized, and lungs were

harvested to determine lung viral titer or survival of AMs by FACs or pro-inflammatory genes

by qRT-PCR. Clinical signs were monitored daily. **(i)** Lung viral titer, body weight, temperature.

(ii) FACs graphical representation, frequencies, and cell numbers of lung AMs. **(iii)** Expression

of indicated pro-inflammatory genes.

All experiments n = 5 per group. Statistical analysis: viral titer, qRT-PCR data: student *t* test.

Frequencies/cell numbers of immune cells data: One-way ANOVA. Body weight, temperature:

Two-way ANOVA. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Figure S5. SFB prevented IAV infection of airway epithelial cells, Related to Figure 4.

(A) Gating strategy for identification of airway epithelial cells and airway epithelial cells-

containing virus.

(B) SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days before CA09 inoculation. FACs

graphical representation, and frequencies of T1AECs-, T2AECs-, and conducting AECs-

containing CA09.

All experiments n = 5 per group. Data is representative of independent experiments, yielding an

identical pattern of results. Statistical analysis: One-way ANOVA. ****p<0.0001

Figure S6. Colonization of intestine with SFB altered AM in ex vivo assays. Related to Figure 6.

(A) Biologic replication and qRT-PCR confirmation of SFB's impacts on basal AM gene expression of RNA-seq from Figure 6B. qRT-PCR results of gene expression related to M2-like macrophages, antiviral related genes, inflammation related genes, and other genes that differentially express by lung AMs in the presence of SFB.

(B) SFB⁻ mice were colonized with SFB for seven days. Lungs were harvested and subjected to FACs analysis for M1-like, and M2-like AMs. FACs graphical representation, and mean fluorescence intensity of M1-like markers, and M2-like markers.

(C) C1qa are important for SFB mediated protection against influenza infection. AMs were FACs sorted from C1qa$^{+/+}$ and C1qa$^{-/-}$ and some AMs from C1qa$^{+/+}$ mice were treated with C1qa pAb and exposed to CA09 for 45mins and supernatant were collected. Virus infection titers in supernatant were assayed by TCID$_{50}$ method.

(D) AMs from SFB⁻ and SFB⁺ mice were FACs sorted and incubated for 18 hours at 37^{0}C. Cells were then washed twice with serum-free media and incubated with live CA09 for 45 minutes and supernatant were collected and CA09 genomes in supernatant were determined.

(E) SFB moderately enhanced AM uptake of fluorescent beads. AMs were sorted (D) and incubated with fluorescent beads for two hours. FACs graphical representation and percentage of AMs containing fluorescent beads.

(F) AMs were sorted and incubated as in (D), and where indicated, endocytosis/phagocytosis

inhibitors, chlorpromazine and latrunculin A (LatA) were added 10 minutes prior to addition of

CA09. Frequencies of live AMs after being treated with **(i)** chlorpromazine **(ii)** LatA). **(iii)** CA09

genomes in AM lysates.

All experiments in (A,B,D,E) at least n = 5 mice per group. Experiments were done in triplicate

(C). Data is representative of independent experiments, yielding an identical pattern of results

(A, B, D). Statistical analysis: MFI, and RT-qPCR of proinflammatory genes: student *t* test.

Vviral titer, CA09 RNA copies, %AM containing fluorescence beads data: One-way ANOVA.

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ns not significant.

Figure S7. Antibody-mediated blockage of Notch4 partially recapitulated of SFB⁺AM phenotypes ex vivo and in vivo, Related to Figure 6 and Figure 7.

(A) As schematized, AM was isolated from SFB⁻ and SFB⁺ mice and treated with UV-inactivated CA09 in the presence/absence of anti-Notch4 monoclonal antibodies. qRT-PCR results of *Il6,* and type I interferon-related genes from AM.

(B) **(i)** As schematized, CD45.1 SFB⁻ mice were administered SFB or PBS. Seven days later, AMs were isolated by FACs. Some SFB⁻ AM were then treated with an anti-Notch4 monoclonal antibody or isotype. AM were then transferred to CD45.2 SFB⁻ mice, 5×10^5 per mouse. One day post transfer, mice were inoculated with CA09. Mice were euthanized on day 4.5 post virus inoculation. FACs graphical representation, frequencies, and cell numbers of endogenous and exogenous AM. **(ii)** lung CA09 viral genomes copies, survival rate and body weight. **(iii)** FACs graphical representation and frequencies of AECs-containing CA09.

All experiments n =5 mice per group. Data is representative of two independent experiments, yielding an identical pattern of results. Statistical test: Relative expression of pro-inflammatory genes, CA09 RNA copies, frequencies of GFP+ cells data: one-way ANOVA. Survival data; one-way ANOVA. Body weight: Two-way ANOVA $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$, $****p < 0.0001$, ns not significant.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A *Batf3$^{-/-}$* cDC1 deficient

B *Csf2$^{-/-}$*, AMs reduced

C Clodronate depletion of AMs

i

ii

D Cleaved Caspase-3

E CD71

F Naïve Naïve+Clo CA09 SFB+CA09 SFB+CA09+Clo

T1AECs T2AECs Conducting AECs

○ Naïve △ Naïve+Clo
● CA09 ● SFB+CA09
■ SFB+CA09+Clo

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure S1 (related to F1)

Figure S2 (related to F3)

Figure S3 (related to F4)

Figure S4 (related to F4)

Figure S5 (related to F4)

Figure S6 (related to Fig 6)

Figure S7 (related to F6 & F7)