Cell-autonomous targeting of arabinogalactan by host immune factors inhibits

mycobacterial growth

Lianhua Qin[a*], Junfang Xu[b*], Jianxia Chen[b*], Sen Wang[c*], Ruijuan Zheng[a], Zhenling

Cui[a], Zhonghua Liu[a], Xiangyang Wu[a], Jie Wang[a], Xiaochen Huang[a], Zhaohui Wang[d],

Mingqiao Wang[d], Rong Pan[d], Stefan H.E. Kaufmann[e, f, g], Xun Meng[d,h†], Lu Zhang[i†],

Wei Sha[j†], Haipeng Liu[k†]

[a] *Shanghai Key Laboratory of Tuberculosis, Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital, Tongji*

University School of Medicine, Shanghai, China

[b] *Clinical and Translational Research Center, Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital, Tongji*

University School of Medicine, Shanghai, China

[c] *Department of Infectious Diseases, National Medical Centre for Infectious Diseases,*

National Clinical Research Centre for Aging and Medicine, Shanghai Key Laboratory

of Infectious Diseases and Biosafety Emergency Response, Huashan Hospital, Fudan

University, Shanghai, China

[d] *Abmart Inc., Shanghai, China*

[e] *Max Planck Institute for Infection Biology, Berlin, Germany*

[f] *Max Planck Institute for Multidisciplinary Sciences, Göttingen, Germany*

[g] *Hagler Institute for Advanced Study, Texas A&M University, College Station, USA*

[h] *Multitude Therapeutics, Shanghai, China*

[i] *School of Life Science, Fudan University, Shanghai, China*

[j] *Department of Tuberculosis, Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital, Tongji University*

School of Medicine, Shanghai, China

23 [k] *Central Laboratory, Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital, Tongji University School of*

24 *Medicine, Shanghai, China*

25 [*] *These authors contributed equally to this work.*

26 [†] *Correspondence should be addressed to Haipeng Liu (haipengliu@tongji.edu.cn);*

27 *Wei Sha(shfksw@126.com); Lu Zhang (zhanglu407@fudan.edu.cn) and Xun Meng*

28 *(xun.meng@ab-mart.com).*

Abstract

Deeper understanding of the crosstalk between host cells and *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) provides crucial guidelines for the rational design of novel intervention strategies against tuberculosis (TB). Mycobacteria possess a unique complex cell wall with arabinogalactan (AG) as critical component. AG has been identified as a virulence factor of Mtb which is recognized by host galectin-9. Here we demonstrate that galectin-9 directly inhibited mycobacterial growth through AG-binding property of carbohydrate-recognition domain 2. Furthermore, IgG antibodies with AG specificity were detected in serum of TB patients. Based on the interaction between galectin-9 and AG, we developed monoclonal antibody (mAb) screening assay and identified AG-specific mAbs which profoundly inhibit Mtb growth. Mechanistically, proteomic profiling and morphological characterizations revealed that AG-specific mAbs regulate AG biosynthesis, thereby inducing cell wall swelling. Thus, direct AG-binding by galectin-9 or antibodies contributes to protection against TB. Our findings pave the way for the rational design of novel immunotherapeutic strategies for TB control.

Keywords

Mycobacterium tuberculosis, tuberculosis, arabinogalactan, galectin-9, antibody

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosi*s (Mtb) remains a considerable threat to human health. In 2021, 10.6 million people fell ill with TB, 1.6 million people died from the disease, and 450,000 new TB cases suffered from rifampicin-resistant or multidrug-resistant TB on this globe (Bagcchi, 2023). Although TB treatment measures are in place in many parts of the world, cure rates are insufficient due to the increasing emergence of drug resistance. Therefore, novel intervention strategies are urgently needed. Rational design of novel TB therapeutics depends on better understanding of the crosstalk between Mtb and host cells.

Following inhalation of aerosols carrying Mtb, innate immune responses are initiated which constitute a first line of defense. Firstly, Mtb are engulfed by mononuclear phagocytes into the phagosome which matures and then fuses with lysosomes (Chandra et al., 2022). The pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) from Mtb are recognized by a variety of pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), such as Toll-like receptors (TLRs), Nod-like receptors (NLRs), C-type lectins receptors (CLRs) and cyclic GMP-AMP synthase (cGAS), resulting in production of inflammatory cytokines, chemokines and anti-bacterial peptides to restrict bacterial growth (Fremond et al., 2004; Reiling et al., 2002; Watson et al., 2015; Wilson et al., 2015). Mtb can escape from the phagosome into the cytosol and can be recaptured in autophagosomes, through a process termed xenophagy, to form a degradative autolysosome (Lopez et al., 2018; Wang and Li, 2020). Cell-autonomous defense mechanisms also include production of reactive oxygen and nitrogen intermediates,

hypoxia, mild acidity and nutrition deprivation (Lupoli et al., 2018; Nathan and

Shiloh, 2000). These mechanisms help to limit growth and spread of the bacteria

within the cell, and contribute to the initiation of an adaptive immune response.

However, our knowledge about host immune factors that target Mtb components and

directly inhibit replication is limited.

Mtb can evade and resist immune defense by entering a state of dormancy which

can last for years. This is due to the capacity of Mtb to synthesize a sturdy cell wall,

slow down metabolism to promote growth arrest and implement the so-called

stringent response (Batt et al., 2020; Hauryliuk et al., 2015). These mechanisms

provide the basis for long-term persistence of Mtb until immune control weakens.

Once immune control deteriorates, Mtb acquires a metabolic active stage and induces

progression to active TB.

The complex cell wall of Mtb provides a barrier not only for host defense, but also

for antibiotics. Accordingly, components of the cell wall are well-established drug

targets. The essential core cell wall structure is composed of three distinct layers: a)

the cross-linked network of peptidoglycan (PGN), b) the highly branched

arabinogalactan (AG) polysaccharide, and c) the characteristic long-chain mycolic

acids (Jankute et al., 2015). Among these, AG has been an important target for

anti-TB drugs, though understanding of its biological functions is limited. E.g.,

ethambutol, one of the front-line anti-TB drugs, targets the arabinosyltransferases

EmbA, EmbB and EmbC, which are critical for AG synthesis (Escuyer et al., 2001;

Goude et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2020). However, it remains unclear whether AG is

directly targeted by natural host immune factors in TB.

Recently, we identified AG as a virulence factor of Mtb that is recognized by

galectin-9, a member of the β-galactoside binding gene family. Upon AG binding,

galectin-9 initiates the downstream TAK1-ERK-MMP signaling cascade leading to

pathologic impairment of the lung (Wu et al., 2021). Galectin-4 and galectin-8

directly kill *E.coli* by recognizing blood group antigens of bacteria (Stowell et al.,

2010). This raises the question whether galectin-9 inhibits mycobacterial growth via

targeting AG. Here, we demonstrate a novel cell-autonomous mechanism by which

galectin-9 impedes mycobacterial growth via its AG-binding property in a

carbohydrate recognition domain (CRD) 2-dependent mode. Moreover, in sera of TB

patients, we identified anti-AG IgG antibodies which were supposed to defend against

TB. Employing a monoclonal antibody (mAb) screening array, we identified anti-AG

mAbs, CL010746 and CL046999, which were capable of restraining Mtb growth by

regulating AG biosynthesis. Thus, AG possesses characteristic features of protective

antigens. In sum, our work identified a previously unknown role of galectin-9 and

anti-AG antibodies in TB control. Hence, our findings provide the basis for rational

design of mAb-based immunotherapy of TB as a novel approach towards

host-directed therapy of one of the deadliest infectious diseases globally.

Results

Galectin-9 inhibits mycobacterial growth

Our previous work demonstrated that galectin-9 directly interacts with AG and AG-containing bacteria (Wu et al., 2021). Given the capacity of galectin-4 and galectin-8 to kill *E.coli* (Stowell et al., 2010), we interrogated whether galectin-9 directly interferes with mycobacterial replication. Real-time monitoring of *in vitro* cultures revealed that recombinant galectin-9 protein inhibits growth of Mtb at a concentration as low as 10 ng/mL **(Figure 1A)**. Native structural conformation of galectin-9 was required for its bacteriostatic effect since heat inactivation at 95 ℃ for 5 min abrogated this activity **(Figure 1B)**. CFU assays further validated that galectin-9 inhibited Mtb growth **(Figure 1C)**. Galectin-9 also impaired replication of the fast-growing *Mycobacterium smegmatis* in a dose-dependent manner **(Figure 1D)**. Consistently, ELISA revealed profoundly higher abundance of galectin-9 in serum from TB patients than that from Tuberculin skin test (TST) negative (TST-) heathy donors, implying that galectin-9 contributes to resistance against Mtb infection **(Figure 1E)**. Of note, average concentration of galectin-9 in sera of TST positive (TST+) healthy donors was 3.748 ng/mL **(Figure 1E)**. We speculate that this high abundance of galectin-9 contributes to maintenance of latent TB infection by restricting Mtb spreading from granuloma, where the pathogen is contained. In sum, we conclude that galectin-9 directly inhibits mycobacterial growth.

Macrophages are part of the first line defense against invading mycobacteria. When human monocytic THP-1 cells were infected with *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG

fused with DsRed, immunofluorescence assays revealed recruitment of galectin-9 to

mycobacteria in a time-dependent manner **(Figure 1F and 1G)**. In line with this

observation, robust accumulation of galectin-9 around invading Mtb H37Rv-GFP was

also observed in THP-1 cells post infection **(Figure 1H and 1I)**. Though galectin-9

has been reported to be critical for initiation of mTOR signaling and induction of

autophagy (Bell et al., 2021; Jia et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2020), our work revealed a

novel cell-autonomous mechanism whereby galectin-9 recruitment restricts

mycobacterial growth in an autophagy-independent manner.

Carbohydrate recognition is essential for galectin-9-mediated inhibition of

mycobacterial growth

Given that galectin-9 binds to β-galactoside, we interrogated whether carbohydrate

recognition by galectin-9 is essential for inhibition of mycobacterial growth. Addition

of lactose rich in β-galactoside (generally used for neutralization of carbohydrate

binding of galectin-9) partially enhanced Mtb growth *in vitro*, and completely

reversed mycobacterial growth inhibition by galectin-9 **(Figure 2A)**. In contrast,

addition of glucose had no such effect **(Figure 2B)**. These results indicate that the

β-galactose binding property of galectin-9 is involved in mycobacterial activity.

Moreover, excess AG not only reversed growth inhibition by galectin-9, but also

markedly promoted Mtb growth **(Figure 2C)**, indicating that the AG-binding property

of galectin-9 is involved in anti-mycobacterial activity. Our previous work had

demonstrated that CRD2, but not CRD1, of galectin-9 mediated its interaction with

AG (Wu et al., 2021). As expected, addition of purified CRD2, but not of CRD1, to

some extent hindered Mtb growth, emphasizing that AG binding to galectin-9 was

sufficient for anti-mycobacterial effects **(Figure 2D)**. Taken together, carbohydrate

recognition is essential for galectin-9-mediated inhibition of mycobacterial growth.

Identification of anti-AG antibodies from TB patients

Given the higher abundance of galectin-9 in serum from active TB patients, we next

interrogated whether anti-AG antibodies are present in serum of TB patients. An

ELISA assay was developed for identification of anti-AG antibodies by coating AG

on plates **(Figure 3A)**. An adequate window of serum dilutions allowed a linear

correlation between OD_{450} and dilution over an appropriate range **(Figure 3B)**.

Subsequently, we determined the relative abundance of anti-AG serum antibodies in

17 healthy donors and 25 active TB patients, all of whom had received BCG

vaccination within 24 hours after birth. Our findings revealed a significant increase in

the abundance of anti-AG antibodies among TB patients when compared to healthy

donors **(Figure 3C)**. We speculate that during Mtb infection, anti-AG IgG antibodies

are induced which contribute to protection against TB by directly inhibiting Mtb

replication albeit apparently in vain. Whether anti-AG antibody levels at site of Mtb

growth in patients are too low or whether growth inhibition is nullified by excessive

replication of Mtb remains to be solved in the future.

Generation of anti-AG mAb

Based on the finding that AG binding of galectin-9 inhibits mycobacterial growth, we

embarked on the development of anti-AG mAbs with blocking acivity. Given the high

affinity between galectin-9 and AG, we developed an antibody chip comprising

62,208 mAbs to screen for anti-AG activity (Wu et al., 2021). Briefly, the antibody

chip was incubated with AG, and bound AG was subsequently detected using

galectin-9 in conjunction with FITC-labeled anti-galectin-9 monoclonal antibody

(Figure 4A). We filtered out 12 candidate mAbs exhibiting binding affinity to AG

(Figure 4A, B). Subsequently, we validated their AG-binding capacity using ELISA.

AG was coated on plates, and mAbs were added in 2-fold serial dilutions **(Figure 4C)**.

The ELISA assay revealed a robust AG-binding curve for CL010746 (referred to as

mAb1) and CL046999 (referred to as mAb2) **(Figure 4D)**. Furthermore, both mAbs

exhibited specific binding to Mtb H37Rv-GFP as demonstrated by immunofluorescent

assay **(Figure 4E**). Therefore, we have successfully developed anti-AG mAbs that

bind Mtb directly.

Anti-AG antibody inhibits Mtb growth

For functional characterization, we monitored the *in vitro* mycobacterial growth in the

presence or absence of anti-AG mAbs. Both mAb1 and mAb2 demonstrated

inhibition of Mtb growth **(Figure 5A)**. This finding was further confirmed through

CFU determination **(Figure 5B)**. Likewise, both mAbs markedly inhibited growth of

Mycobacterium smegmatis as evidenced by real-time OD monitoring **(Figure 5C)** and

CFU assay **(Figure 5D)**. In conclusion, the newly identified anti-AG mAbs

demonstrated direct blockade of mycobacterial growth through binding to AG. Direct

inhibitory effects on Mtb growth by anti-AG antibodies emphasize that AG expresses

features of protective antigens.

Proteomics profiling of the mycobacterial response to anti-AG mAb

To elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying inhibition of mycobacterial

growth by anti-AG antibodies, we conducted proteomic profiling of Mtb in response

to anti-AG mAb1 treatment. Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis revealed

significant enrichment of numerous cellular and metabolic processes, primarily

related to biosynthesis of outer membrane, upon treatment with anti-AG mAb1. These

processes include cell periphery, external encapsulating structure, organic substance

metabolic process, cellular metabolic process, primary metabolic process, nitrogen

compound metabolic process, and biosynthetic process (**Figure 6A**). Moreover, the

formamidopyrimidine-DNA glycosylase N-terminal domain was enriched based on

the analysis of functional enrichment and protein domain of differentially expressed

antigens **(Figure 6B, C)**. Additionally, the KEGG pathway analysis demonstrated a

significant enrichment of lipoarabinomannan (LAM) biosynthesis pathways **(Figure**

6D). Consistently, the upregulated proteins Rv0236.1 and Rv3806c were involved in

the biosynthesis of the mycobacterial cell wall arabinan **(Figure 6E)**. In the

re-annotated genome sequence of Mtb, Rv0236.1 consists of Rv0236c and Rv0236A.

Rv0236c is predicted to be a cognate of the GT-C superfamily of glycosyltransferases

and likely acts as arabinofuranosyltransferase involved in AG synthesis (Skovierová

et al., 2009). On the other hand, Rv0236A is a small secreted protein involved in cell

wall and cell processes (Marmiesse et al., 2004). Additionally, Rv3806c is a

decaprenylphosphoryl-5-phosphoribose (DPPR) synthase involved in AG synthesis

(He et al., 2015). These data provide compelling evidence to suggest that anti-AG

mAbs regulate AG biosynthesis.

Targeting AG by mAbs modulates the cell wall of Mtb

To verify the impact of anti-AG mAbs on the biosynthesis of the mycobacterial cell

wall, we characterized the morphological changes of Mtb treated with or without

mAbs. Intriguingly, mAb1 and mAb2 treatment both led to a dispersed distribution of

Mtb in cultures (**Figure 7A**). Acid fast staining further revealed the formation of a

cord-like structure in Mtb treated with mAb1 or mAb2, which was not observed

following ethambutol (EMB) treatment **(Figure 7B)**. Moreover, electron microscopy

demonstrated that anti-AG mAbs treatment markedly increased the thickness of the

Mtb cell wall **(Figure 7C)**. Based on these findings, we conclude that targeting AG by

specific antibodies, and likely by galectin-9 as well, impairs growth of Mtb and other

mycobacteria by modulating cell wall structure.

Discussion

Mtb, the etiologic agent of TB, is one of the leading causes of death worldwide,

further aggravated by increasing incidences of antibiotic resistance (Miotto et al.,

2018; Singh and Chibale, 2021). Hence, TB remains a major contributor to the global

disease burden. Host-directed therapy is increasingly recognized as an alternative or

adjunct to antibiotic therapy (Kaufmann et al., 2018). Therefore, deeper insights into

the interactions between Mtb and the host immune system are warranted. We

previously demonstrated that mycobacterial AG binds to the galactoside-binding

protein galectin-9, causing pathologic impairments in the lung via the

TAK1-ERK-MMP signaling pathway (Wu et al., 2021). Here, we demonstrate that

galectin-9 directly impedes mycobacterial growth through its AG-binding property.

Further, we identified natural anti-AG antibodies in sera of TB patients, which are

predicted to inhibit Mtb growth. Based on these findings, we generated mAbs capable

of binding AG and hindering Mtb replication. Proteomics profiling of Mtb revealed

that the binding of anti-AG antibodies regulates AG biosynthesis which leads to

swelling of the cell wall, as validated by morphological characterization. We conclude

that galectin-9 and anti-AG antibodies serve as immune factors that restrain bacterial

growth by targeting AG in the cell wall. Increasing evidence suggests a role for

antibodies in protection against TB (Irvine et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2019). It is generally

assumed that the role of antibodies in TB is based on their interactions with

macrophages, which promote anti-mycobacterial activities such as phago-lysosome

fusion and production of reactive oxygen and nitrogen intermediates (Chandra et al.,

2022; Nathan and Shiloh, 2000). In striking contrast, our findings demonstrate that

anti-AG antibodies directly impair Mtb growth and thus emphasize that AG comprises

features of protective antigens.

Galectins are a highly conserved class of molecules that play critical roles in

multiple biological processes. Fifteen different types of galectins are known in

humans, which can be classified based on their structure, subcellular localization, and

function. For instance, galectin1 participates in regulating cell proliferation, apoptosis,

and immune responses through interactions with specific glycosylated receptors on

the cell surface, such as integrins and CD45 (Cedeno-Laurent et al., 2012; Ge et al.,

2016; Perillo et al., 1995). More recently, it was shown that galectin-4 disrupts

bacterial membranes and kills *E.coli* through interactions with lipopolysaccharides on

the bacterial outer membrane (Stowell et al., 2010). Here, we demonstrate that

galectin-9 significantly inhibits replication of Mtb by interacting with AG in Mtb via

its CRD2 domain. Similar to galectin-9, galectin-4, galectin-6 and galectin-8 also

comprise 2 CRDs in tandem connected by a linker sequence(Leffler et al., 2002). It

remains to be explored whether and how these galectins exert anti-mycobacterial

activities via the CRD2 domain, thereby providing general insights into the role of

galectin family cognates in immunity to TB.

After phagocytosis by pulmonary macrophages of the newly infected host, Mtb

ends up inside phagosomes, where it downregulates its metabolism and enters a

non-replicating persistent (NRP) state, termed dormancy, in response to host stress

(Gengenbacher and Kaufmann, 2012; Russell, 2001). Once the immune response

"breaks down", Mtb transits into a metabolically active and replicative state which

ultimately results in progression to active TB disease (van der Wel et al., 2007).We

demonstrated that galectin-9 accumulates around invading mycobacteria in host cells.

However, whether Mtb recruits galectin-9 during dormancy, its active stage, or during

both stages, has not been investigated. Of note, AG is hidden by mycolic acids in the

outer layer. We speculate that during Mtb replication, cell wall synthesis is elevated

and AG becomes exposed, thereby facilitating its binding to galectin-9 and leading to

Mtb growth arrest.

Major drugs in clinical use for TB treatment inhibit Mtb growth by targeting

different essential components and processes. For instance, Isoniazid inhibits mycolic

acid synthesis by targeting InhA enzyme (Quémard et al., 1995), Ethambutol blocks

AG biosynthesis by targeting EmbCAB complex (Telenti et al., 1997), and

Pyrazinamide disrupts the pH balance within the bacterial cell, thereby impairing

mycobacterial growth (Zhang et al., 1999). Although the mycobacterial cell wall has

been widely exploited as antibiotic target, to date, drugs that directly bind AG and

inhibit Mtb growth have not been reported. Here, we identified host galectin-9 and

anti-AG antibodies (both serum antibodies from patients and mAbs) which recognize

AG and thus inhibit Mtb replication. Hence, anti-AG mAbs can be harnessed for

design of novel biologics which address the challenge of drug resistance in TB.

Mechanisms underlying inhibition of mycobacterial growth induced by galectin-9

or anti-AG mAbs remain elusive. We propose they interfere with the activity of

enzymes involved in AG biosynthesis and/or modify the physical properties of the cell

wall, leading to disruption of AG side chain extension, thereby increasing Mtb

vulnerability to host immunity. They may also function through the two-component

system, that is commonly found in bacteria and allows bacteria to sense and respond

to changes in the environment, such as nutrient availability or stress (Glover et al.,

2007; James et al., 2012; Majumdar et al., 2012). Interactions between galectin-9 and

AG in the cell wall may alter membrane permeability, which restrains nutrient uptake

and activates sensor proteins, causing bacterial growth arrest.

Aside from their direct anti-Mtb activity, anti-AG antibodies in serum of TB

patients probably also opsonize Mtb, thereby promoting phagocytosis by mononuclear

phagocytes (Chen et al., 2016; Lu et al., 2019). However, the mechanisms by which

galectin-9 or antibodies inhibit mycobacterial growth depend on the details of the

molecular interactions and require further investigation.

Our knowledge about antibodies which target glycans is scarce, not the least due

to technical challenges. Glycan antigens have been identified on the surface of

numerous microorganisms and are also expressed by certain cancer cells. Antibodies

that recognize and bind these glycan antigens, therefore, are promising candidates for

therapy and diagnosis of infectious and malignant diseases. For instance, the mAb

2G12 neutralizes human immunodeficiency virus-1 (HIV-1) by recognizing

oligomannose-type N-glycans on the HIV-1 gp120 envelope protein, and the mAb

FH6 specifically binds the Sialyl Lewis X (SLeX) antigen on the surface of various

cancer cells (Fukushi et al., 1984; Kannagi et al., 1986; Trkola et al., 1996). In this

study, we not only discovered anti-AG mAbs which directly impair Mtb growth, but

also developed an efficient high-throughput screening for identifying mAbs with

specificity for glycans.

In conclusion, we (i) discovered a novel cell-autonomous mechanism by which

galectin-9 protects against TB via targeting AG in the cell wall of Mtb, (ii) identified

neutralizing antibodies against AG in serum of TB patients, (iii) selected anti-AG

mAbs for passive immunization against TB by means of a mAb screening array, (iv)

characterized inhibition of Mtb replication by induction of cell wall swelling as

critical mechanism of protection through AG targeting (**Figure 7D**). Our findings,

thus, not only provide deeper insights into humoral immune mechanisms involved in

protection against TB, but also serve as basis for new intervention strategies against

TB in adjunct to chemotherapy.

Materials and Methods

Bacteria

Mtb H37Rv, H37Rv-GFP, *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG, and *Mycobacterium smegmatis* mc^{2}155, were from Shanghai Key Laboratory of Tuberculosis and grown in Middlebrook 7H9 (Becton Dickinson, Cockeysville, MD) liquid medium supplemented with 0.25% glycerol, 10% oleic acid–albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC) (Becton Dickinson, Sparks, MD) and 0.05% Tween-80.

In vitro growth of mycobacteria

Mycobacteria were harvested at mid-log phase and diluted to a calculated starting OD600 of 0.25 and added to 96-well culture plates containing Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium together with antibody or galectin-9. OD600 of each time point of each strain was tested in real time by Bioscreen C microplate incubator (FP1100-C, Labsystems, USA) at 37℃.

CFU assay

Mycobacteria were harvested at mid-log phase and diluted to a calculated starting OD600 of 0.25 and incubated in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with or without antibody or galectin-9 for 30 h at 37 ℃. Appropriate dilutions were plated on 7H10 agar plates for enumeration of CFU.

Immunofluorescence assay

For colocalization of galectin-9 and mycobacteria, immunofluorescence assays were performed as described previously (Liu et al., 2018). Briefly, THP-1 cells (ATCC Cat# TIB-202 RRID: CVCL_0006) were infected with bacteria for 2 h, fixed with 4%

formaldehyde for 30 min at R.T., permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS for

5 min, and blocked with 5% BSA in PBS for 60 min at R.T.. Cells were stained with

the anti-galectin-9 antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, Cat#54330,

RRID:AB_2799456), antibodies at a dilution of 1:200 in 5% BSA in PBS overnight at

4 °C and then incubated with Alexa Fluor 488 or 555 conjugated secondary antibodies

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cat# A-11008; RRID: AB_143165; Cat# A32732,

RRID:AB_2633281) at a dilution of 1:1000 for 2 h at R.T.. Nuclei were stained with

DAPI.

For binding of anti-AG mAb with Mtb, H37Rv-GFP strains were harvested at mid-log

phase. Subsequently, 2×10^{7} H37Rv-GFP/100 μL FACS buffer was incubated with

anti-AG mAb (mAb1 or mAb2, 20 μg/mL) at R.T. for 1h, and washed three times

with PBST (PBS containing 0.05 % Tween 20, pH 7.4) by centrifugation (12,000g, 5

min). The resulting sediment was resuspended in 10 μL of ddH2O and smeared on

microscopic slides.

Images were acquired using a Leica TCS SP8 confocal laser microscopy system

(Leica Microsystems) at ×63 magnification.

Validation of anti-AG antibodies by ELISA

AG antigen (10 μg in 100 μL 0.1 mol/L $NaHCO_3$ buffer, pH 9.4) was added to wells

of microwell plates and incubated overnight at 4°C. After four rinses with PBST (PBS

containing 0.05 % Tween 20, pH 7.4), the wells were saturated with blocking buffer.

After four additional PBST rinses, serum or candidate anti-AG mAbs were added to

each well and incubated for 1 h at 37°C. The wells were rinsed three times with PBS

containing 0.05 % Tween 20 and horseradish-peroxidase-labeled rabbit anti-human or

anti mouse IgG (100 μL/well; Sigma-Aldrich, Germany) was added to each well and

incubated for 1 h at 37°C. Finally, the TMB substrate was added and the absorbance

was measured with the Thermo Fisher Scientific Multiskan FC microplate photometer.

Clinical serum specimens were collected from 17 healthy volunteers and 25

pulmonary TB patients before undergoing treatment at Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital

(Shanghai, PR China), all of whom had received BCG vaccination within 24 h after

birth. The donors are between the ages of 50 and 65, ethnic Han, with an equal

representation of males and females.

High throughput Screening of anti-AG antibody

Antibody chip harboring 62208 mAbs was incubated with 10 μg AG in 10 mL

incubation buffer (1x PBS buffer containing 10% BSA) for 1 h, followed by

incubation with 10 μg galectin-9 protein in 10 mL incubation buffer for 1 h. The chip

was incubated with rabbit anti-galetin-9 antibody (1:5000 diluted in 10 mL incubation

buffer; ab227046, Abcam, UK) followed by staining with FITC-labelled anti-rabbit

IgG (1:5000 diluted in 10 mL incubation buffer; ab6717, Abcam, UK). Then the chip

was scanned by GenePix 4200A Microarray Scanner (Molecular Devices LLC) and

analyzed by GenePix Pro 6.0 software.

Proteomics analysis

LC-MS/MS

Mycobacteria at mid-log phase were diluted to a calculated starting OD600 of 0.25

and incubated in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with or without mAb1 for 30 h at

37 °C. The bacterial pellets were collected followed by three washes with sterile

saline. The bacterial pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (8 M urea, 1% Protease

Inhibitor Cocktail) and inactivated for 10 min at 100 °C. The lysate was sonicated

three times on ice using a high intensity ultrasonic processor (Scientz) and centrifuged.

The protein concentration of the lysate was determined with BCA kit according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

After trypsin digestion, peptides were dissolved in 0.1% formic acid and separated

with nanoElute UHPLC system (Bruker, Germany) and subjected to Capillary source

followed by the timsTOF Pro mass spectrometry. The resulting MS/MS data were

processed using Maxquant search engine (v1.6.6.0). Tandem mass spectra were

searched against Mtb strain ATCC 25618 83332 PR 20191210 database (3993 entries)

concatenated with reverse decoy database.

Enrichment of Gene Ontology analysis

GO annotations of proteins are divided into three broad categories: Biological Process,

Cellular Component, and Molecular Function. For each category, a two-tailed Fisher's

exact test was employed to test the enrichment of the differentially expressed protein

against all identified proteins. The GO with a corrected p-value < 0.05 was considered

significant.

Enrichment of pathway analysis

Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database was used to identify

enriched pathways by a two-tailed Fisher's exact test to test the enrichment of the

differentially expressed protein against all identified proteins. The pathway with a

corrected p-value < 0.05 was considered significant. These pathways were classified

into hierarchical categories according to the KEGG website.

Enrichment of protein domain analysis

For each category proteins, InterPro database (a resource that provides functional

analysis of protein sequences by classifying them into families and predicting the

presence of domains and important sites) was researched and a two-tailed Fisher's

exact test was employed to test the enrichment of the differentially expressed protein

against all identified proteins. Protein domains with a corrected p-value < 0.05 were

considered significant.

Morphologic characterization of Mtb

Mtb strains were cultured in 96 U well culture plates containing Middlebrook 7H9

liquid medium with anti-AG antibody or without anti-AG antibody at 37 ℃, and were

grown for 10-14 days until the formation of colonies. Morphologic characterization of

tested strains in liquid medium were observed by 2 x magnifier. At the same time, 10

μl of culture were spread onto a glass slide. Smears on glass slides were fixed under

ultraviolet light overnight. Glass slides were stained with Ziehl–Neelsen stain using

a TB Stain Kit (Baso DIAGNOTICS TAIWAN, Zhuhai, China). Morphological

characteristics or cell lengths of tested strains were observed using a Leica DM2500

microscope using the 100× objective.

For ultrastructural characteristics, strains at mid-log phase were collected, and

analyzed by Tecnai transmission electron microscopy (TEM) with 160 kV according

the procedures of the manufacturer (GOODBIO, Wuhan, China). A 10^7-10^8 bacterial

suspension was used for TEM examination.

Statistical analysis

The statistical significance of comparisons was analyzed with two tailed unpaired

Student's t test or Mann-Whitney U test in GraphPad Prism version 8.0.1.. $P < 0.05$

was considered statistically significant. All data are showed as mean ± SD of two or

more independent experiments performed in triplicate. Detailed statistical information

on each experiment is provided in the respective figure legends.

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Disclosure Statement

The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.

Author Contributions

H.L. conceived the study and designed the experiments.

L.Q., J.X., J.C., and S.W. analyzed the data and wrote the original draft.

H.L., W.S., L.Z., and X.M. supervised the project and edited the manuscript.

R.Z, Z.C., Z.L., Y.W., J.W., and X.H. performed most of the experiments.

Z.W., M.W., and R.P. performed the bioinformatics analysis.

W.S. provided clinical samples.

S.H.E.K provided helpful discussions and edited the manuscript.

All authors commented on the paper.

Materials availability statement

Bacterial strains and monoantibodies generated in this study are available from the Lead Contact upon reasonable request.

Data availability statement

The authors confirm that the data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article.

Statement of Ethics

This work received approval from the Clinical Ethics Committee of the Shanghai Pulmonary Hospital, which is affiliated with the Tongji University School of Medicine, in accordance with governmental guidelines and institutional policies. Patients providing the pulmonary samples gave informed consent. The ethics committee approved this consent procedure. All protocols were approved by the local ethics committee of Tongji University School of Medicine (permit number: K21-114Y).

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Figure 1. Galectin-9 inhibits mycobacterial growth directly.

A. Profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) grown at 37°C in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium

with different concentration of Galectin-9 (Gal9, 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1, 10 μg/mL).

Growth curve was measured using a Bioscreen Growth Curve Instrument. Optical

density was measured at absorbance at 600 nm every 2 h.

B. Growth profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with10

μg/mL galectin-9 (Gal9) or inactivated galectin-9 (Gal9 HK, heat killed at 95 °C

for 5 min).

C. CFU of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) on Middlebrook 7H10 solid medium with or without 10

665  µg/mL Galectin-9 (Gal9). Cultures were grown at 37°C for 4-8 weeks.

666  D. Growth profile of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* (MS) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid

667   medium with different concentrations of Galectin-9 (Gal9, 0, 0.01, 0.1, 1 µg/mL).

668  E. Concentrations of galectin-9 in sera of tuberculin skin test negative healthy donors

669   (TST-, n = 20), tuberculin skin test positive healthy donors (TST+, n = 20) and

670   active TB patients (Active TB, n = 40).

671  F. Confocal microscopy of *M. bovis* BCG-DsRed (BCG-DsRed, red) and Galectin-9

672   (Anti-Gal9, green) in THP-1 cells. Nuclei was stained with DAPI (blue).

673  G. Percent of cells with galectin-9 positive (Gal9$^+$) BCG in total infected THP-1 cells.

674   Symbols indicate colocalization ratio of at least 12 fields in each experiment.

675  H. Confocal microscopy of Mtb H37Rv-GFP (Rv-GFP, green) and Galectin-9

676   (Anti-Gal9, red) in THP-1 cells. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue).

677  I. Percent of cells with galectin9 positive (Gal9$^+$) Mtb H37Rv in total infected THP-1

678   cells. Symbols indicate colocalization ratio of at least 12 fields in each experiment.

679  Data are shown as mean ± SD, n = 3 biologically independent experiments performed

680  in triplicate (A-D). Data are representative of three independent experiments with

681  similar results (F and H). Two-tailed unpaired Student's t test (A-D, G, and I) or

682  Mann-Whitney U test (E). P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Figure 2. Carbohydrate recognition is essential for galectin-9-mediated inhibition of Mtb growth.

A. Growth profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with or without galectin-9 (Gal9, 10 μg/mL) and lactose (10 μg/mL).

B. Growth profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with or without galectin-9 (Gal9, 10 μg/mL) and D-glucose (10 μg/mL).

C. Growth profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with or without galectin-9 (Gal9, 10 μg/mL) and AG (10 μg/mL).

D. Growth profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with 1μg/mL CRD1 or CRD2 of galectin-9.

Data are shown as mean ± SD, n = 3 biologically independent experiments performed in triplicate (A-D). Two-tailed unpaired Student's t test (A-D). P < 0.05 was

considered statistically significant.

Figure 3. Identification of anti-AG antibodies from TB patients.

A. Schematic presentation of ELISA assay for detecting anti-AG IgG antibodies in the

serum of TB patients.

B. Linear correlation between OD and serum dilution ratio determined by ELISA

assay.

C. Anti-AG IgG antibodies levels in TB patients (n = 25) and healthy

BCG-immunized controls (n = 17) determined via ELISA.

Data are representative of three independent experiments with similar results (B).

Mann-Whitney U test (C). P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Figure 4. Development of anti-AG mAbs.

A. Schematic presentation of mAb screening for AG specificity.

B. Representative image of chip hybridization for mAb screening. Bright spots in the

bottom mark the end line of each array block. Other spots represent AG binding to

mAbs. CL010746 (mAb1) and CL046999 (mAb2) were labeled with red arrow and

yellow arrow, respectively.

C. Schematic presentation of candidate anti-AG mAbs validation by ELISA.

D. Binding curve of mAb1 and mAb2 to AG determined by ELISA assay.

E. Confocal microscopy of Mtb H37Rv-GFP (Rv-GFP, green) and anti-AG mAbs

(red).

Figure 5. anti-AG antibody inhibits mycobacterial growth.

A. Growth profile of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid medium with or

without mAb1/mAb2 (1 μg/mL).

B. CFU of Mtb H37Rv (Rv) on Middlebrook 7H10 solid medium with or without

mAb1/mAb2 (1 μg/mL). Cultures were grown at 37°C for 4-8 weeks.

C. Growth profile of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* (MS) in Middlebrook 7H9 liquid

medium with or without mAb1/mAb2 (1 μg/mL).

D. CFU of *Mycobacterium smegmatis* (MS) on Middlebrook 7H10 solid medium with

or without mAb1/mAb2 (1 μg/mL). Cultures were grown at 37°C for 5-10 days.

Data are shown as mean $\pm$ SD, n $=$ 3 (A, C) and n $=$ 2 biologically independent

experiments performed in triplicate (B, D). Two-tailed unpaired Student's t test (A-D).

P $<$ 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Figure 6. Proteomics profiling of the response of Mtb to anti-AG antibody.

A. GO class of differentially expressed proteins in Mtb H37Rv treated with mAb1 (1 μg/mL) for 30 h followed by proteomics analysis. IgG was set as control.

B. Functional enrichment of differentially expressed proteins in Mtb H37Rv in (A).

C. Protein domain of differentially expressed proteins in Mtb H37Rv in (A).

D. KEGG class of differentially expressed proteins in Mtb H37Rv in (A).

E. Upregulation or downregulation genes in Mtb H37Rv in (A).

Figure 7. Mtb cell wall modulation by anti-AG antibodies.

A. Morphologic characteristics for Mtb H37Rv strain grown in liquid culture with or

without anti-AG mAbs (1 μg/mL) observed by × 2 magnifier.

B. Bacterial shape of Mtb H37Rv strain treated as in (A) observed by acid fast

staining under a Leica DM2500 microscope using the 100× oil microscopy. EMB,

Ethambutol. Scale bar, 20μm.

C. Ultrastructural morphology of Mtb H37Rv treated as in (A) analyzed by

transmission electron microscopy (TEM).

D. Schematic presentation of Mtb growth arrest by Galectin-9 or anti-AG antibodies.

Data are representative of three independent experiments with similar results (A, B

and C, left panel). Data are means ± SD of five bacteria, representatives of three

independent experiments (C, right panel). Two-tailed unpaired Student's t test (C,

right panel). $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

A mAb screening

mAb microarray

CL1 CL2
CL3 CL4
CL5 CL6
CL7 CL8

Galectin-9

AG

FITC-anti-galectin-9 Ab

mAb

Candidate mAbs
1. CL002066
2. CL004258
3. CL006936
4. CL010746
5. CL026064
6. CL033765
7. CL040366
8. CL041251
9. CL046999
10. CL048079
11. CL050810
12. CL057397

B

Block position spots   Block position spots

C Validation by ELISA

TMB

HRP

HRP-labeled rabbit anti-mouse

Candidate mAb

AG

D

mAb1   Y = 0.3207*X + 0.1202   R² = 0.9826
mAb2   Y = 0.4280*X + 0.2546   R² = 0.9750

OD₄₅₀

µg/ml

E

Rv-GFP   Anti-AG mAb1   Merge

Rv-GFP   Anti-AG mAb2   Merge

Rv-GFP   Isotype mAb   Merge

A GO term

B GO Functional domain

D KEGG pathway

C Protein domain

E

Locus	Name	Product	
Rv2441c	RpmA	50S ribosomal protein L27 RpmA	Involved in translation mechanisms
Rv0236c	aftD	Possible arabinofuranosyltransferase	Involved in the biosynthesis of the mycobacterial cell wall arabinan.
Rv0236A	Rv0236A	Small secreted protein	Cell wall and cell processes
Rv0229A	vapB51	antitoxin	Unknown
Rv3635		Probable conserved transmembrane protein	Unknown
Rv3806c	UbiA	Decaprenylphosphoryl-5-phosphoribose (DPPR) synthase	Involved in arabinogalactan synthesis

A

H37Rv+Isotype

H37Rv+ mAb1

H37Rv+ mAb2

D

Mtb

Mycolic acids

Arabinogalactan

Peptidoglycan

Biosynthesis of arabinogalactan

Mtb

Thickened cell wall

Mtb growth arrest

Galectin-9

Serum anti-AG Abs

Anti-AG mAbs

B

H37Rv+Isotype

H37Rv+ mAb1

H37Rv+ mAb2

H37Rv+ EMB

C

H37Rv+Isotype

H37Rv+ mAb1

H37Rv+ mAb2

$P<0.0001$

$P<0.0001$

Cell wall thickness (nm)

H37Rv+Isotype

H37Rv+ mAb1

H37Rv+ mAb2