Immunometabolic Reprogramming of Monocytes in Tuberculosis Infection and Disease

Gráinne Jameson[1], Isabella Batten[1], Adam H. Dyer[1], Caoimhe Geoghegan[3], Moninne Murray[3], Niamh McDonnell[3], Dearbhla M. Murphy[1], Sarah A. Connolly[1], Anne Marie McLaughlin[2,3], Cilian Ó. Maoldomhnaigh[1], Laura E. Gleeson[1,3], Joseph Keane[1,2,3], Sharee A. Basdeo[1]

[1]School of Medicine, Trinity Translational Medicine Institute, St James' Hospital, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin, Ireland.
[2]National Tuberculosis Centre, Department of Respiratory Medicine, St James's Hospital, Dublin, Ireland.
[3]Respiratory Department, St James's Hospital, Dublin 8, Dublin, Ireland.

Corresponding author:
Gráinne Jameson
Trinity Translational Medicine Institute,
Trinity Centre for Health Sciences,
St. James's Hospital,
Dublin 8
GJAMESON@TCD.IE, +353 1 896 3263

Authors Contributions:
G.J. and S.A.B. conceived the study and hypotheses. G.J., I.B., A.H.D., C.G., M.M., N.M., A.M., L.E.G. and J.K. participated in data collection. J.K, L.E.G., C.O.M. and A.M. provided domain expert advice and evaluation of the project. G.J., I.B., A.H.D., D.M., S.A.C., C.O.M. and S.A.B. performed data and statistical analyses. All authors interpreted the data. G.J. and S.A.B. wrote the initial draft of the manuscript. All authors provided substantive critical reviews and approved of the submitted manuscript.

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Abstract:

Rationale:

Tuberculosis remains the leading cause of death from an infectious disease, caused by

Mycobacterium tuberculosis. The term "latent tuberculosis infection" has been redefined

as "tuberculosis infection," reflecting immune recognition without clinical disease.

Monocytes play a critical role in the innate immune response to *Mycobacterium*

tuberculosis, both in the blood and in the lung, where they can repopulate the alveolar

macrophage niche. However, it is unknown whether tuberculosis infection is associated

with a distinct immunometabolic monocyte profile and how treatment impacts monocyte

function.

Objectives:

To define blood monocyte phenotype and metabolism in individuals with tuberculosis

infection and tuberculosis disease, and to evaluate the impact of treatment on monocyte

metabolic function.

Measurements:

Circulating monocytes from individuals with tuberculosis infection, tuberculosis disease,

and healthy controls were analysed ex vivo and following *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*

stimulation. We assessed surface phenotype, cytokine and chemokine production, and

metabolic activity. Groups were stratified based on treatment status.

Main Results:

Monocytes from individuals with tuberculosis infection and tuberculosis disease were

functionally similar to each other but distinct from healthy controls. Both groups exhibited

reduced mitochondrial dependence, which was restored in people receiving treatment.

Upon stimulation with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, only monocytes from individuals with

tuberculosis infection demonstrated enhanced metabolic activity and reduced

mitochondrial dependence, along with a unique functional profile.

Conclusions:

Tuberculosis infection induces a distinct immunometabolic monocyte signature that may

be reversible with treatment. These findings support the clinical relevance of tuberculosis

infection and the potential for targeting monocytes through host-directed therapies.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) is the leading cause of death by an infectious agent, with an estimated 1.25 million deaths and 10.8 million cases in 2023 (1). In an effort to better reflect the spectrum of disease and infection, the World Health Organization (WHO) recently updated its terminology in the *Consolidated Guidelines on Tuberculosis* (2) in line with the International Consensus for Early TB (ICE-TB) consortium's new framework (3). Individuals with a persistent immune response to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) antigens, but without clinical or radiographic evidence of active TB, are now classified as having *TB infection* (TBI), replacing the historical term "latent TB infection" (LTBI). While most individuals with TBI are asymptomatic, they remain at risk of progressing to *TB disease* (TBD)—the new term for what was previously called "active TB."

Monocytes are short-lived circulating myeloid cells that play a critical role in the peripheral immune response to infection. They possess antimicrobial functions such as phagocytosis, cytokine production, and antigen presentation (4–8). In TB, monocytes are recruited from circulation to the lungs—the primary site of infection—where they differentiate into alveolar macrophages (AMs) (9–13). The AM niche almost exclusively harbours early Mtb infection and acts as the first line of defence (14,15). Despite their crucial role in both systemic and local immune responses, how monocyte function and metabolism are altered across the TB spectrum remains poorly understood.

In this study, we investigated whether TBI and TBD differentially affect circulating monocytes. We found that monocytes from individuals with TBI and TBD were phenotypically and functionally similar ex vivo, yet distinct from healthy controls (HC). Importantly, both TBI and TBD were associated with reduced mitochondrial dependence (MD) in monocytes—an effect that was reversed in individuals receiving TB preventive treatment (TPT) and in those after the intensive phase of TB therapy.

In response to Mtb, only monocytes from people with TBI exhibited enhanced metabolic activity, supporting a potential memory-like response. These monocytes also exhibited metabolic plasticity, efficiently reducing their MD in response to Mtb. Conversely, monocytes from people with TBD fail to reduce their MD in response to Mtb, suggesting potential mitochondrial dysfunction. Our findings indicate that infection with TB induces an immunometabolic signature in monocytes from people with both TBI and TBD, which is reversed with treatment. Furthermore, monocytes from TBI individuals exhibit memory-like metabolic properties in their response to Mtb.

Methods

Sex as a biological variable

Our study examined male and female humans, and similar findings were observed for both sexes.

Human Participants

All peripheral blood patient samples were collected in the out-patient department of St James Hospital Dublin when patients were attending routine appointments (Table 1). Written informed consent was obtained prior to collection. Exclusion criteria included age under 18 years, inability to provide written informed consent, multi-drug-resistant tuberculosis, or a known (or ensuing) diagnosis of malignancy, HIV or any other infection. Patients undergoing biopsy as part of bronchoscopy were also excluded. Individuals with TBI were divided into those pre-treatment (TBI/-; n=6) and those on-treatment (TBI/+; n=4), while those with TBD were grouped into intensive (TBD/I, <2 months treatment of 3-4 drugs; n=4) and continuous (TBD/C, >2 months reduced to 1-2 drugs; n=4) treatment phases. Peripheral blood samples were also obtained from healthy controls.

PBMC and Monocyte Isolations

PBMC were isolated from peripheral blood samples by density centrifugation over Lymphoprep (StemCell Technologies). Monocytes were separated by hyperosmotic density gradient centrifugation by layering PBMCs on top of a fresh hyperosmotic Percoll solution (48.5% Percoll, 41.5% sterile H_2O, 0.16 M NaCl) and centrifuged for 15 minutes at 580g. The interphase layer was isolated, and cells were washed with cold PBS and resuspended at a concentration of 1×10^6 cells/mL. Cells were plastic adhered for 1hr in serum-free media and washed twice with PBS to remove any non-adherent cells.

Irradiated H37Rv (iH37Rv; gifted by BEI Resources) stocks were thawed, sonicated for

15 mins and syringed three times through a 25G needle break up clumps. iH37Rv was

centrifuged at 30 xg for 5 mins to pellet any further clumps. Supernatant was aspirated

and the concentration of iH37Rv was calculated using Pierce^{TM} BCA Protein Assay with

Albumin protein as a control (Thermo Scientific^{TM}). Cells were stimulated with 10ug/mL of

iH37Rv overnight for 18-24hrs. Cells were left unstimulated as a control.

Cytokine and Chemokine Analyses

A Human Luminex Discovery Kit (Cat LXSAHM-25) was designed to assess the following

analytes in monocyte supernatants: CCL1/I-309/TCA-3 (BR15), CCL2/JE/MCP-1 (BR25),

CCL3/MIP-1 alpha (BR35), CCL4/MIP-1 beta (BR37), CXCL1/GRO alpha/KC/CINC-1

(BR77), CXCL2/GRO beta/MIP-2/CINC-3 (BR27), CXCL9/MIG (BR52), CXCL10/IP-

10/CRG-2 (BR67), G-CSF (BR54), GM-CSF (BR46), Granzyme B (BR57), IFN-alpha

(BR63), IFN-beta (BR21), IFN-gamma (BR29), IL-1 alpha/IL-1F1 (BR38), IL-1 beta/IL-1F2

(BR28), IL-1ra/IL-1F3 (BR30), IL-6 (BR13), IL-8/CXCL8 (BR18), IL-10 (BR22), IL-12 p70

(BR56), IL-17/IL-17A (BR42), IL-18/IL-1F4 (BR78), IL-23 (BR76), TNF-alpha (BR12).

Assay was carried out as per manufacturers protocol and analysed on Luminex MAGPIX

System. Unstimulated and Mtb-stimulated cells from each donor were analyzed

concurrently on the same plate, thereby eliminating potential inter-assay variability and

ensuring the accurate calculation of fold-change values. Analyte concentrations were

determined based on standards supplied in the kit, with a 5 parameter logistic regression

(5-PL) curve used on xPONENT(TM) software.

 Flow cytometry

For phenotypical analyses PBMCs were resuspended in PBS (Gibco) and stained

immediately. Anti-CD86 BV421 (1:100, IT2.2), anti-CD45RA BV711 (1:100, HI100), anti-

CD40 APCCy7 (1:100, 5C3), anti-HLADR APC (1:100, L243), anti-CD14 AlexaFlour 488

(1:100, HCD14), anti-CD16 PerCpCy5.5 (1:100, 3G8), anti-CD80 PeCy7 (1:100, 2D10),

anti-TNFRI PE (1:50, W15099A), and anti-TNFRII PeDazzle594 (1:100, 3G7A02) were

purchased from Biolegend and added to the cells for 10 mins at RT. Cells were washed,

fixed and acquired or stored at 4°C until acquisition.

Cultured PBMCs were resuspended in 100µl of FcR block (1µl/test; Miltenyi Biotec) and

ZombieNIR stain (Biolegend) in 1X PBS (Gibco). Cells were then surface stained with

anti-CD14 and permeabilized with Foxp3 staining kit (eBioscience) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Cells were incubated for 30 mins at 4°C with anti-puromycin

(1:100, 2A4; Biolegend). Cells were acquired on a FACS Canto (BD Biosciences), BD

Fortessa, (BD Biosciences) or an Amnis CellStream (Luminex Corporation, Austin, TX,

USA). All data analysis was performed using FlowJo software (BD Biosciences).

SCENITH (Single Cell mEtabolism by profiling Translation inHibition)

This protocol utilises puromycin as a surrogate for protein synthesis as it is incorporated

into nascent proteins. By using specific metabolic inhibitors and measuring puromycin

incorporation we can estimate the glycolytic capacity (GC), mitochondrial dependence

(MD), fatty acid and amino acid oxidation capacity (FAO/AAOC) and glucose dependence

(GD) of cells at the single cell level as previously described(16). Post 18hrs of culture,

SCENITH metabolic function profiling was carried out on PBMCs. Cells were treated for

40 mins at 37°C, 5% CO2 with DMSO Control (Co, 0.02% DMSO), 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose

(DG; 100mM; Sigma-Aldrich), Oligomycin (O; 1µM; Sigma-Aldrich), a combination of both

drugs (DGO), or with a negative control (Harringtonine; Sigma-Aldrich; 2ug/ml).

Puromycin (Puro; 10µg/mL; Sigma-Aldrich) was added for the final 35 mins. Cells were

washed in PBS and flow cytometry staining was carried out. The following calculations

were used:

Co = GeoMFI of anti-Puro-Fluorochrome upon Control treatment.

DG = GeoMFI of anti-Puro-Fluorochrome upon 2-Deoxy-D-Glucose treatment.

O = GeoMFI of anti-Puro-Fluorochrome upon Oligomycin A treatment.

DGO = GeoMFI of anti-Puro-Fluorochrome upon DG+O treatment.

Mitochondrial Dependence $(MD) = 100(Co-O)/(Co-DGO)$

Glycolytic Capacity $(GC) = 100-100(Co-O)/(Co-DGO)$

Fatty Acid and Amino Acid Oxidation Capacity $(FAOC) = 100-(100(Co-DG)/(Co-DGO)$

Glucose Dependence $(GD) = 100(Co-DG)/(Co-DGO)$

Therefore, GC is the inverse data of MD (i.e. GC= 100- MD) and FAOC is the inverse data

of GD (i.e. FAOC= 100-GD). Patient samples with sufficient cell numbers underwent

metabolic profiling. No data was omitted.

 Statistics

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism version 10. The statistical test

used is indicated in each Fig. legend. A P-value of <0.05 was considered significant.

Study Approval

Our study protocol was approved by the Joint Research Ethics Committee of St. James's

and Tallaght Hospitals and by Trinity College Dublin. Written informed consent was

received from participants prior to inclusion in the study

Data availability

Data is available directly from the corresponding author.

Results

Monocytes from individuals with TBI and TBD are functionally similar but distinct

from HC, both ex vivo and following Mtb stimulation.

To assess monocyte functional differences across the TB spectrum, monocytes were

isolated from peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) and cultured for 18 hours with

or without Mtb. Supernatants were harvested, and cytokine/chemokine levels were

quantified using Luminex multiplex custom bead-based immunoassay (Figure 1). The

cytokine and chemokine profile of unstimulated monocytes from individuals with TBI (light

grey) and TBD (dark grey) was distinct from that of healthy controls (HC; blue) (Figure1 A

and Supplemental Figure 1A).

Upon Mtb stimulation, monocytes from both TBI and TBD individuals produced

significantly higher concentrations of several cytokines and chemokines compared with

HC, with no significant differences observed between the TBI and TBD groups (Figure 1B-

C and Supplemental Figure 1B). Specifically, monocytes from individuals with TBI

demonstrated significantly greater fold increases in IL-1α (P= 0.0153), IL-8 (P= 0.0129),

IL-17A (P= 0.0171), IL-18 (P= 0.0438), IL-23 (P= 0.0158), IFN-y (P= 0.0382), GM-CSF (P=

0.0346), ILRA (P= 0.0084), CXCL1 (P= 0.0194), CXCL9 (P= 0.0129), and CCL2 (P=

0.0420) compared to HC (Figure 1C). Similarly, TBD monocytes exhibited significantly

higher fold increases in IL-1α (P=0.0228), IL-6 (P=0.0260), IL-8 (P=0.0278), IL-23

(P=0.0400), GM-CSF (P=0.0203), CCL3 (P=0.0318), and CCL4 (P=0.0388) compared

with HC (Figure 1C). Monocytes from people with TBI and TBD exhibit similar functional

responses to Mtb stimulation distinct from HC.

Monocytes from individuals with TBI and TBD are phenotypically similar but

distinct from HC ex vivo.

To assess whether TBI or TBD differentially influence monocyte frequency or phenotype,

we analyzed PBMC from individuals with TBI, TBD, and HC by flow cytometry.

Granulocyte frequencies were significantly elevated in both TBI and TBD groups

compared with HC (TBI: P=0.0303; TBD: P=0.0120; Figure 2A). In contrast, no significant

differences were observed in the frequencies of classical, intermediate, or non-classical

monocyte subsets across groups (Figure 2B).

Phenotypic analysis revealed increased expression of CD14 and CD45RA on classical

monocytes from individuals with TBI (CD14: $P=0.0039$; CD45RA: $P=0.0070$) and TBD

(CD14: $= 0.0010$; CD45RA: $P=0.0007$) compared with HC (Figure 2D). Conversely, HLA-

DR expression was significantly reduced on classical monocytes from both TBI ($P = $

0.0374) and TBD ($P<0.0001$) individuals relative to HC. Expression of TNFRI and TNFRII

was also significantly decreased on classical monocytes in the TBI group (TNFRI:

$P=0.0185$; TNFRII: $P = 0.0414$; Figure 2D). Similar phenotypic changes were observed in

intermediate and non-classical monocyte subsets (Supplemental Figure 2). These

findings demonstrate a shared, altered monocyte phenotype in TBI and TBD individuals,

distinct from that of healthy controls.

Infection with TB reduces monocyte mitochondrial dependence in people with TBI

pre-treatment and people with TBD in intensive treatment phase.

We next compared the metabolic function of monocytes from HC and individuals with TBI

or TBD using the SCENITH protocol, which leverages puromycin incorporation as a proxy

for protein synthesis—representing approximately 50% of a cell's total metabolic activity

(Figure 3A). In unstimulated monocytes, no significant differences in protein synthesis

were observed between groups (Figure 3B).

To assess MD, monocytes were treated with oligomycin, and their glycolytic capacity was

calculated using SCENITH analysis (see Methods for details). Monocytes from HC

showed high MD and correspondingly low glycolytic capacity. In contrast, monocytes from

individuals with TBI or TBD exhibited significantly reduced MD (TBI $P=0.01$, TBD

$P=0.0078$; Figure 3C).

To evaluate glucose dependency, cells were treated with 2-deoxyglucose (2DG). The

SCENITH-derived calculation for alternative fuel use (fatty acids and amino acids) showed

no significant differences across groups. Monocytes from all groups demonstrated high

glucose dependence (Figure 3C).

We further stratified participants based on treatment status. Individuals with TBI were

divided into pre-treatment (TBI/-) and on-treatment (TBI/+), while those with TBD were

grouped into intensive (TBD/I, <2 months treatment of 3-4 drugs) and continuous (TBD/C,

>2 months treatment reduced to 1-2 drugs) treatment phases. No differences in protein

synthesis were observed between these stratified groups (Figure 3D). However,

monocytes from TBI/- individuals exhibited significantly lower MD compared with HC,

whereas TBI/+ monocytes did not differ significantly from HC ($P=0.0258$; Figure 3E).

Similarly, TBD/I monocytes had significantly reduced MD compared to HC ($P=0.0198$),

while TBD/C monocytes did not (Figure 3E). These findings suggest that both TPT and

TBD treatment may help restore monocyte metabolic function toward that of HC.

Monocytes from people with TBI and TBD exhibit divergent metabolic responses to Mtb.

Given the distinct clinical and immunological outcomes between TBI and TBD, we hypothesized that their monocyte metabolic responses to Mtb would differ. Despite reduced MD in unstimulated monocytes from both TBI and TBD individuals, their metabolic responses to Mtb stimulation were similar to HC, characterized overall by low MD and high glucose dependence (Figure 3F).

Interestingly, only monocytes from TBI individuals showed a significant increase in puromycin MFI in response to Mtb, indicating elevated protein synthesis and metabolic activity (P=0.0008; Figure 3G). This effect remained significant when stratified by TPT status in both TBI/- (P = 0.0137) and TBI/+ (P = 0.0024) subgroups (Figure 3H).

In response to Mtb, MD was significantly reduced in HC (P=0.0021) and TBI (P=0.0023) monocytes, but not in those from TBD individuals (Figure 3I). Within the TBI group, monocytes from TBI/- individuals had lower baseline MD than those from TBI/+ individuals (P = 0.0108). Nevertheless, monocytes from both subgroups showed a significant reduction in MD following Mtb stimulation (TBI/- P = 0.0217; TBI/+ P = 0.0057; Figure 3J).

Similarly, in the TBD group, monocytes from individuals in the intensive treatment phase (TBD/I) displayed lower baseline MD compared to those in the continuous treatment phase (TBD/C; P = 0.0447; Figure 3K). However, Mtb stimulation did not induce a significant change in MD in either TBD subgroup (Figure 3K). Collectively, these findings

reveal key differences in the metabolic response of monocytes to Mtb between TBI and

TBD individuals and suggest that monocytes from those with TBI may exhibit memory-like

responses to Mtb.

Discussion

In this study, we provide new insight into how TB infection, whether clinically symptomatic

or not, impacts human monocyte phenotype, function and metabolism. By comparing

peripheral blood monocytes from individuals with TBI, TBD, and uninfected HC, we

demonstrate that TB infection induces sustained alterations in monocyte profiles, even in

the absence of clinical disease. Monocytes from individuals with TBI exhibit changes in

cytokine and chemokine production, surface marker expression, and a reduced MD—

closely resembling patterns observed in TBD. Importantly, we demonstrate that treatment,

including TPT, can partially restore monocyte metabolism toward a profile more similar to

that of healthy individuals. These shared features indicate that myeloid immunometabolic

reprogramming occurs early in TB infection and persists without clinical disease.

Specifically, we observed divergent metabolic responses between TBI and TBD

monocytes, both at baseline and upon in vitro Mtb stimulation. At baseline, monocytes

from people with both TBI and TBD exhibited significantly lower MD compared with HC,

potentially indicating a metabolic shift toward glycolysis- a hallmark of heightened

activation (17). However, overall metabolic activity remained comparable across all

groups at baseline, suggesting similar activation levels. Cytokine and chemokine profiling

of unstimulated monocytes supports this interpretation, with TBI and TBD monocytes

producing elevated levels of IL-17A and CXCL9, but reduced levels of IL-1β and CXCL2

relative to HC. This reduced MD may also reflect underlying mitochondrial dysfunction,

particularly in TBD, where chronic immune activation could drive energetic exhaustion.

Notably, monocytes from people with TBI and TBD who are receiving treatment do not

exhibit reduced MD, suggesting that current therapeutic strategies may help re-establish

myeloid immunometabolic homeostasis. These findings also highlight the potential of

using monocyte MD as a clinical indicator of treatment response in individuals with TBI.

Upon Mtb stimulation, monocytes from individuals with TBI mounted the expected

metabolic shift, characterised by increased protein synthesis and reduced MD, consistent

with a glycolytic response. In contrast, monocytes from individuals with TBD failed to

exhibit this metabolic shift, indicating impaired metabolic plasticity. This inability to engage

glycolysis in the context of active infection may reflect an exhausted or dysregulated

metabolic state, potentially contributing to ineffective pathogen control or persistent

inflammation. These findings suggest that metabolic plasticity is a feature of controlled

infection (TBI), whereas rigid or dysfunctional metabolism may characterize disease

progression.

Prior to the 1960s, the lack of effective treatments and the high incidence of TB created a

unique research environment for studying TBI and TBD groups. A 2012 review of 18

studies during this time estimated that individuals with TBI had a 79% lower risk of

developing active TBD upon reinfection compared to those without prior infection,

suggesting the presence of an innate memory-like responses to TB (18). The metabolic

shift observed in monocytes from TBI individuals, specifically their enhanced overall

metabolic activity and distinct effector function profiles in response to Mtb, may reflect

such a memory-like state. These monocytes may have undergone innate immune training,

which is a form of innate immune memory characterised by enhanced glycolytic

metabolism and effector function (19). Previous studies using BCG or β-glucan to induce

trained immunity in monocytes have demonstrated augmented cytokine responses to Mtb,

consistent with the findings in our study (20,21).

The necessity of treating all individuals with TBI is currently debated, with some proposing

that people with TBI may have immunological memory despite having already cleared the

infection and no longer harbouring viable bacteria (22,23). Our data provide biological

evidence supporting the clinical relevance of TBI and the rationale for TPT to actively

reverse immunometabolic dysregulation of circulating monocytes. Moreover, our findings

also suggest that monocyte MD and metabolic plasticity may represent useful biomarkers

of immune status in TB and promising targets for host-directed therapies (HDT) aimed at

correcting TB-induced immune dysfunction. Since the metabolic and inflammatory profiles

of circulating monocytes influence the function of differentiated macrophages, these cells

represent tractable targets for HDT to enhance both peripheral monocyte and lung-

resident alveolar macrophage responses to Mtb (24–26). Taken together, our data support

the biological relevance of TBI and reinforces the biological rationale for its treatment.

While our findings offer novel insights into monocyte immunometabolism in TB, this study

is not without limitations which include a relatively small sample numbers and the absence

of a demonstrated correlation with disease outcomes. Nonetheless, we believe these data

provide a compelling foundation for future work. Studies like this are essential for

uncovering early immune changes in TB and can inspire larger, mechanistically focused

investigations to define new biomarkers and therapeutic targets in host-directed TB

research.

In conclusion, myeloid immunometabolic reprogramming, characterised by reduced MD,

occurs early in TB infection and persists without clinical disease. Monocytes from

individuals with TBI exhibit memory-like metabolic responses to Mtb, with increased

protein synthesis and metabolic plasticity. These features highlight monocytes as potential

targets for HDT aimed at restoring metabolic function and supporting memory responses

to TB.

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Figure 1. Monocytes from people with TBI and TBD exhibit enhanced cytokine and

chemokine output in response to Mtb stimulation compared with HC. Monocytes

were isolated from PBMC and cultured for 18 hrs with and without irradiated H37Rv (Mtb).

[Healthy controls (HC, n=5)), latent (TBI, n=8) and Active (TBD, n=5) TB patients]. **A-B)**

Mean levels of cytokine and chemokine concentrations (pg/mL) in supernatants collected

from unstimulated (A) and Mtb-stimulated (B) monocyte cultures [HC (blue), TBI (light

grey) and TBD (dark grey]. **C)** Fold change increase in concentration of analytes when

stimulated with Mtb from baseline across all groups. P values calculated using Kruskal

Wallis test and Dunn's multiple comparison test.

Figure 2. TB infection alters monocyte phenotype with increased CD14 and reduced

HLADR expression. PBMC were isolated from peripheral blood and stained for flow

cytometry analysis. **A)** Representative flow plot showing gating strategy and bar chart of

immune cell frequencies as percentage of total cells. **B)** Representative flow plot of gating

strategy and bar chart of monocyte subset frequencies as percentage of total monocytes.

C) Representative histogram of flow cytometry antibody staining in classical monocytes.

D-F) MFI values for CD14, HLA-DR, CD45RA, CD40, TNFRI, and TNFRII expression on

classical monocytes across HC, TBI and TBD. P values generated using Two-Way ANOVA

with Tukey's multiple comparison test and Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple

comparison.

Figure 3. Monocyte metabolism is reprogrammed in TB. PBMC were isolated from

peripheral blood and cultured with or without irradiated H37Rv (Mtb) 10ug/mL for 18 hr.

Post-18hr PBMC cultures were treated with metabolic inhibitors 2-deoxyglucose (2DG),

oligomycin (O), combinations of both (DGO), or a negative control harringtonine (H).

Puromycin was then added, and cells were cultured for 40 min. Cells were washed and

stained with fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies against CD14 and puromycin and

analyzed by flow cytometry. **A)** Representative flow cytometry gating strategy showing

the analyses of monocytes and their puromycin staining across metabolic treatments. **B)**

Puromycin MFI values in control monocytes (Co) from HC (n=10) and people with TBI

(n=10) and TBD (n=8). **C)** Percent mitochondrial dependence (MD), glycolytic capacity

(GC), glucose dependence (GD), and fatty acid and amino acid oxidation capacity

(FAO/AAOC) of monocytes in across all cohorts. **D)** Puromycin MFI values in control

monocytes (Co) dividing people with TBI into those pre-treatment (TBI/-, n=6) and on-

treatment (TBI/+, n=4) and people with TBD into those in the intensive phase phase

(TBD/I, n=4)) and those in the continuous treatment phase (TBD/C, n=4). **E)** Percent MD

in monocytes with cohort division based on treatment status. **F)** Energy map of

monocytes across patient cohorts at baseline and in response to Mtb (mean and SD).

G-H) Change in puromycin MFI values when monocytes are cultured with Mtb in total

cohorts (G, HC n=6, TBI n=8, TBD n=6) and with cohort division based on treatment

status (H; HC n=6, TBI/- n=5, TBI/+ n=3, TBD/I n=3, TBD/C n=3). **I-K)** Change in MD of

monocytes when cultured with Mtb in total cohorts (I) and when people with TBI (J) and

TBD (K) are divided based on treatment status. P values generated using Two-Way

ANOVA with Tukey's (C), Sidak's (G-I) or Uncorrected Fischer's LSD (J, K) multiple

comparison test, Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparison (D, E).

Supplemental Figure 1. Raw concentration values for monocyte cytokine and

chemokine production.

Monocytes were isolated from PBMC and cultured for 18 hrs with and without irradiated

H37Rv (Mtb). **A-B)** Concentration of cytokines and chemokines (pg/mL) in supernatants

collected from unstimulated (A) and Mtb-stimulated (B) monocyte cultures. 2 Way ANOVA

with Tukey's multiple comparison test.

Supplemental Figure 2. TB infection alters intermediate and non-classical

monocyte phenotype.

PBMC were isolated from peripheral blood and stained for flow cytometry analysis. **A-B)**

MFI values for CD14, HLA-DR, CD45RA, CD40, TNFRI, and TNFRII expression on

intermediate (B) and non-classical (B) monocytes across HC, TBI and TBD. P values

generated using Two-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test.

	HC	TBI	TBD
Age	38+-15	44.90+-12.81	41.25+-18.43
Gender	F (9) M (1)	M (11) F (10)	M (10) F (6)
Ethnicity (self-reported)	European (9) African (1)	Asian (10), European (4), African (2), Indian (2), Not reported (3)	Asian (4), European (5), African (7),
Site of Mtb infection	N/A	N/A	Pulmonary (6), Extra-pulmonary (7), Both (2)

531 Table 1: Patient information. HC=Healthy Controls, TBI= Tuberculosis Infection, TBD=

532 tuberculosis disease, F= female, M=male.

Figure 1

Figure 2

540   **Figure 3**

543 **Supplemental Figure 1**

545 **Supplemental Figure 2**