Impaired IFNγ responsiveness of monocyte-derived lung cells limits immunity to
Mycobacterium tuberculosis

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Abstract

Lung mononuclear phagocyte (MNP) subsets differ in their ability to restrict *Mycobacterium*
tuberculosis (Mtb) during chronic infection, yet the mechanisms underlying this difference are not
well defined. Here, we show that CD11c^lo monocyte-derived cells (MNC1), the subset of lung cells
that is most permissive for Mtb viability during chronic infection, express lower levels of interferon-
gamma (IFNγ) signaling proteins, resulting in reduced responses to IFNγ compared to alveolar
macrophages (AM) and CD11c^hi MNC2. Moreover, type I IFN signaling suppresses IFNγ-
mediated MHC-II expression, impairing antigen-specific CD4 T cell activation by MNC1 cells.
Importantly, prior immunity conferred by contained Mtb infection enhances IFNγ responsiveness
of monocyte-derived cells, reducing bacterial burdens in lungs and within MNC subsets. Our
findings indicate that heterogeneous IFNγ responsiveness is exploited by Mtb for persistence in
vivo. Overcoming or bypassing impaired IFNγ responsiveness may guide the development of
more effective TB vaccines and host-directed therapies.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by the respiratory pathogen *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), returned to being the leading cause of death from a single infectious disease worldwide as the COVID-19 pandemic subsided. It is imperative to identify mechanisms of immune protection and pathogenesis in TB to facilitate the development of novel TB vaccines and therapies.

Mtb is known for its ability to evade elimination by immune responses and cause chronic infection[1–3]. Multiple studies, including recent single-cell RNA sequencing studies, have revealed significant heterogeneity among lung mononuclear phagocytes (MNP) during Mtb infection[4–6]. Moreover, mounting evidence has established that Mtb infects multiple lung MNP subsets, among them, monocyte-derived cells (MNC) serve as the major bacterial reservoir during chronic infection[4,7–10]. After development of adaptive immune responses, distinct lung MNP subsets differ in Mtb-killing ability. Specifically, alveolar macrophages (AM) have a superior ability to restrict Mtb compared to monocyte-derived MNC1 and MNC2 cells [4,8]. Among these MNP subsets, CD11c^{lo} MNC1 is the most Mtb-permissive subset as defined by the number of live Mtb per infected cell, suggesting that functional heterogeneity of MNP contributes to Mtb persistence in vivo. We previously discovered heterogeneous lysosome function in these MNP subsets and found that in MNC1, lysosome deficiency is one cell type-specific host mechanism that contributes to Mtb persistence in vivo[8]. However, the mechanisms underlying the functional heterogeneity, particularly the differential ability of lung MNP subsets to respond to immune signals, remain incompletely defined.

Interferon-gamma (IFNγ) plays a critical role in host defense against Mtb, as evidenced by both human and murine studies[11–15]. Individuals with mutations in genes responsible for IFNγ immunity (e.g., *Ifng*, *Ifngr1*, *Ifngr2*, and *Stat1*) are susceptible to mycobacterial infections, including non-tuberculous mycobacteria and Mtb[11,16]. Studies utilizing knockout mice have demonstrated that both IFNγ and its receptor, IFNGR1, are essential for controlling Mtb infection, suggesting that the host's ability to produce IFNγ or to respond to IFNγ is required for IFNγ-mediated protection against TB[12–14]. Both hematopoietic and nonhematopoietic IFNγ responsiveness are required for Mtb control[14]. Paradoxically, TB vaccines that predominantly induce IFNγ often fail to enhance lung protection[1]. Moreover, murine studies indicate that increasing IFNγ production does not enhance Mtb control in the lungs, suggesting that cellular responsiveness to IFNγ may be a key determinant of its efficacy [17]. It remains unknown whether distinct lung MNP subsets differ in their ability to sense and transduce IFNγ signals during primary Mtb infection, and whether there are interventions that alter IFNγ responsiveness in lung MNP subsets to affect infection outcome. Elucidating cell-specific actions of IFNγ is crucial for a comprehensive understanding of IFNγ-mediated immunity in tuberculosis, to make it more effective.

In this study, we identify subset-specific differences in IFNγ responsiveness across distinct lung MNP subsets during Mtb infection. Specifically, compared with AM, Mtb-permissive MNC1 cells are less responsive to IFNγ and exhibit defective IFNγ signal transduction, while MNC2 cells exhibit intermediate responsiveness to IFNγ. Compared with AM and MNC2 cells, MNC1 cells express less MHC-II and have a reduced ability to present Mtb antigens to CD4 T cells, which is partially dependent on Type I IFN signaling. We further found that prior Mtb immunity can improve IFNγ responsiveness of MNC cells, leading to better Mtb control. Together, these findings provide mechanistic insights into the functional heterogeneity of lung MNP subsets during TB, suggesting

that targeting IFNγ responsiveness may represent a strategy for developing novel TB therapies
and vaccines.

Results

Differential responses to IFNγ in MNP subsets from *M. tuberculosis*-infected lungs.

To investigate if lung MNP subsets might respond to IFNγ differently during chronic Mtb infection,
we first analyzed our bulk RNA-seq data for three flow-sorted lung MNP subsets (AM, CD11c^{lo}
MNC1, and CD11c^{hi} MNC2) from mice infected with Mtb for 28 days (GSE220147) (Figure S1)[8].
Gene Ontology (GO) analysis revealed that IFNγ-responsive genes were expressed at
significantly lower levels in MNC1 compared to AM or MNC2 (Table S1). We further investigated
the expression levels of IFNγ-responsive genes in a published gene list[6,18]. In this analysis, MNC1
cells exhibited decreased expression of IFNγ-responsive genes compared to AM and MNC2
(Figure 1A), suggesting that this lung cell subset responds to IFNγ less effectively. Since IFNγ
receptors and downstream regulators/proteins in the pathway dictate the cellular response to IFNγ
(Figure 1B), we investigated their expression levels. This revealed that MNC1 had lower mRNA
expression of *Ifngr1, Ifngr2*, *Stat1*, *Irf1*, *Cxcl9*, and *Nos2* compared to MNC2, while AM expressed
significantly more *Ifngr2* mRNA than MNC1, with a similar but non-significant trend observed for
Ifngr1, Stat1, and *Cxcl9* (Figure 1C). Using flow cytometry, we confirmed that MNC1 expressed
lower levels of IFNGR2, STAT1, and IRF1 proteins, as well as the IFNγ-responsive proteins
CXCL9 and NOS2, compared to AM or MNC2 (Figure 1D and Figure S2). Although AM expressed
more IFNGR1 protein than MNC1, the protein level of IFNGR1 did not differ between MNC1 and
MNC2 (Figure 1D and Figure S2). Together, these findings indicate that there are differential
signaling and responses to IFNγ in these lung MNP subsets.

MNC1 are deficient in responding to IFNγ ex vivo.

Based on the above findings, we hypothesized that lung MNP subsets isolated from lungs during
chronic Mtb infection either differ in their ability to respond to IFNγ, or that differential responses
were due to differential exposure to IFNγ, perhaps due to their positioning or access to IFNγ in
vivo. To distinguish these two possibilities, we compared responses to ex vivo IFNγ stimulation
for lung MNP subsets by flow cytometric analysis of tyrosine phosphorylated STAT1 (pSTAT1), a
key early signaling step in IFNγ cell activation. We prepared lung single-cell suspensions from
Mtb-infected mice (28 dpi) and treated them with or without IFNγ (Figure 2A). Without IFNγ
stimulation, AM and MNC2 showed higher pSTAT1 levels than MNC1, likely reflecting IFNγ
stimulation in vivo. With ex vivo IFNγ stimulation, AM, MNC1, and MNC2 exhibited a 5.1-fold, 2.3-
fold, and 2.5-fold increase of pSTAT1, respectively (Figure 2B-2C and Figure S2); however,
MNC1 still showed a lower pSTAT1 signal than AM or MNC2 (Figure 2B). Interestingly, although
infected AM and infected MNC2 responded to IFNγ better than their bystander counterparts, the
subset difference in IFNγ responsiveness between AM, MNC1, and MNC2 did not depend on the
presence of Mtb in individual cells (Figure S3). We also observed a similar phenotype at later time
points of Mtb infection (Figure S4).

Since pSTAT1 functions in the nucleus, we used immunofluorescence to quantify nuclear pSTAT1
in sorted mononuclear cells with or without ex vivo IFNγ. In the absence of added IFNγ, the
nuclear pSTAT1 level was similar in cells in all three subsets (Figure 2D). However, after IFNγ
stimulation, we observed that MNC1 cells exhibited lower nuclear pSTAT1 levels than AM and
MNC2, while MNC2 had an intermediate level between those of AM and MNC1 (Figure 2E).
Furthermore, in response to IFNγ stimulation, MNC1 showed a lower fold change of nuclear
pSTAT1 (1.5-fold) than AM (4.3-fold) or MNC2 (2.4-fold) (Figure 2F). Collectively, these results
indicate that responsiveness to IFNγ is impaired at a proximal step of signal transduction in MNC1
compared with AM or MNC2, while MNC2 has an intermediate level of IFNγ responsiveness.

MNC1 are impaired for activating Mtb antigen-specific CD4 T cells.

One effect of IFNγ is to upregulate MHC-II, which mediates antigen presentation and CD4 T cell
activation[19–21]. Therefore, we hypothesized that MNP subsets that differ in IFNγ responsiveness
also differ in MHC-II expression and antigen presentation. GO analysis revealed that transcripts
encoding multiple components of the MHC-II antigen presentation pathway are differentially
regulated when comparing AM or MNC2 to MNC1 (Table S2). We found that class II transactivator
(CIITA), the master transcription factor for MHC-II expression and other MHC-II antigen
presentation-related genes is underexpressed in MNC1 (Figure 3A). Using flow cytometry, we
confirmed that MHC-II and CD74 (the MHC-II invariant chain) are expressed at lower levels in
MNC1 cells compared to AM and MNC2 (Figure 3B-3C and Figure S2). Differential MHC-II
expression was also observed at 42 dpi and 56 dpi (Figure S5). Next, we sought to determine
whether reduced MNC1 expression of MHC-II impairs antigen presentation to CD4 T cells. To
specifically study antigen presentation independently of potential differences in antigen
processing, we incubated sorted cells from MNP subsets from Mtb-infected mice with C7 or P25
epitope peptides (from ESAT-6 or Ag85B, respectively), and antigen-specific Th1-polarized C7 or
P25 TCR transgenic CD4 T cells, then used IFNγ ELISA as a readout of T cell activation (Figure
3D). Consistent with the levels of expression of MHC-II pathway molecules, we observed lower
responses by antigen-specific CD4 T cells when stimulated by MNC1 compared with AM or MNC2
(Figure 3E-3F), confirming that MNC1 cells have an impaired ability to present Mtb antigens to
CD4 T cells.

Type I IFN inhibits MHC-II expression in primary macrophages and lung MNPs

We next investigated the potential mechanisms regulating MHC-II expression in lung MNP
subsets. From our bulk RNA-seq data, we found a higher type I IFN signature in MNC1 and MNC2
compared to AM (Figure 4A), consistent with results from our prior study[4]. Since type I IFN has
been reported to cause down-regulation of IFNGR [22–24], we reasoned that type I IFN might
suppress IFNγ-mediated MHC-II upregulation in MNPs/macrophages in Mtb infection. To test this,
we differentiated bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) in the presence of IFNγ and/or
IFNβ, and quantified MHC-II expression by flow cytometry. As expected, IFNγ significantly
increased MHC-II in wild-type (WT) BMDM (Figure 4B). IFN-β alone slightly reduced MHC-II
expression and inhibited IFNγ-mediated MHC-II upregulation. Deletion of the type I IFN receptor,
Ifnar1, completely negated the inhibitory effect of IFNβ on MHC-II expression in BMDM (Figure
4C).

To further investigate the effect of type I IFN on MHC-II expression on different MNP subsets in
vivo, we generated mixed bone marrow chimeric mice (Figure 4D). Irradiated WT recipient mice
received WT and *Ifnar1*^{-/-} mixed bone marrow cells. After reconstitution, the mice were infected
with Mtb by aerosol and harvested 28 dpi. All *Ifnar1*^{-/-} lung MNP subsets showed higher MHC-II
expression compared to the analogous WT subsets (Figure 4E and Figure S6). Together, these
results indicate that type I IFN negatively regulates IFNγ-mediated MHC-II expression in BMDM
in vitro and in lung MNP subsets in vivo in the context of Mtb infection.

CoMtb-mediated prior immunity improves IFNγ responsiveness of MNC cells but not AM

Since monocytes and macrophages are functionally reprogrammable, we investigated whether
pre-existing immunity alters IFNγ responsiveness of MNP subsets, using the contained Mtb
(CoMtb) model[25]. This model is established by intradermal infection of Mtb in the mouse ear,
which results in Mtb trafficking to the local draining lymph nodes without bacterial dissemination
to other organs, including the lungs.

Since MNC cells are derived from monocytes[4,8,26,27], we first asked whether CoMtb regulates IFNγ
responsiveness in bone marrow monocytes ex vivo. For this, we established CoMtb for 4-6 weeks
(Figure 5A), then harvested bone marrow cells from CoMtb and control mice. Without IFNγ
stimulation, we observed higher pSTAT1 in CoMtb bone marrow monocytes compared with
control monocytes (Figure 5B). After IFNγ stimulation, CoMtb monocytes showed greater STAT1
activation than control monocytes; BMDM cultured from CoMtb mice also exhibited greater
pSTAT1 than did BMDM from control mice. These data suggest that CoMtb conditions monocytes
and macrophages to improve their IFNγ responsiveness in vivo (Figure 5B-5C).

We further investigated the effect of CoMtb on IFNγ responsiveness in lung MNP subsets from
mice after subsequent aerosol Mtb infection. Using flow cytometry detection of pSTAT1 to
quantitate IFNγ responses, we found that CoMtb improved responses to IFNγ in MNC1 and MNC2
cells, but not in AM, (Figure 5D). CoMtb also increased expression of IFNGR2 and the IFNγ-
regulated proteins MHC-II and NOS2 (Figure 5B). These results indicate that CoMtb improves
IFNγ responsiveness in monocyte-derived cells that traffic to the lungs after aerosol Mtb challenge.

CoMtb-mediated control of Mtb in lung monocyte-derived cells requires IFNγ signaling

As indicated by whole lung CFU, we confirmed that CoMtb reduced Mtb burden in the lung after
aerosol infection (Figure 6A); we also found that CoMtb reduced the number of total Mtb-infected
cells in the lungs and lower bacterial fluorescence intensity (indicative of the per-cell bacterial
burden) in the infected cells (Figure 6B-6C). We further found that CoMtb decreased the number
of infected AM, MNC1, MNC2, and neutrophils compared to controls (Figure 6D). In addition, the
infection frequency (i.e., the percentage of cells in a given subset that contain Mtb) was reduced
in all subsets when comparing CoMtb mice to control mice (Figure 6E). Moreover, we found that
CoMtb reduced Mtb burdens in AM (1.2-fold decrease), neutrophils (1.5-fold decrease), and
especially in MNC1 (2.7-fold decrease) and MNC2 (1.8-fold decrease) (Figure 6F). In line with
these results, chimeric mice that received bone marrow from CoMtb mice showed lower lung CFU
burdens than mice that received control bone marrow cells (Figure 6G-6H). Thus, these findings

indicate that improved IFNγ responsiveness can enhance Mtb control in monocyte-derived lung
cells.

We next sought to determine whether IFNγ responsiveness is required for CoMtb-mediated Mtb
control in MNC cells. For this, we generated mixed bone marrow chimeric mice (Figure 6I).
Irradiated WT mice received WT and *Ifngr1*^{-/-} mixed bone marrow cells (1:1). After reconstitution
and CoMtb establishment, they were infected with Mtb by aerosol and harvested at 28 dpi. This
revealed higher bacterial burdens in *Ifngr1*^{-/-} myeloid cells compared to WT myeloid cells from the
same chimeric mouse (Figure 6J and Figure S7). Similarly, we observed a higher Mtb burden in
Ifngr1^{-/-} MNC cells compared to WT counterparts (Figure 6J-6K). However, we observe a slight
difference in Mtb burden between WT and *Ifngr1*^{-/-} AM at 28 dpi (Figure 6J), consistent with our
data showing that CoMtb plays a minimal role in AM at the later stage of Mtb infection, in contrast
to the effect of CoMtb on AM at an early stage of infection[25]. Collectively, these results suggest
that CoMtb-mediated prior immunity enhances Mtb control in MNC cells, which depends on IFNγ
signaling.

Discussion

A predominant adaptive immune response to Mtb infection in mice, nonhuman primates, and
humans is represented by T lymphocytes that produce IFNγ[15,19,28–34], a cytokine that plays an
essential role in activating macrophages to restrict diverse intracellular pathogens. We and others
have determined that Mtb resides in multiple macrophage subsets in the lungs[4,7–10,20,35–38].
However, immunity to TB is often incomplete despite abundant IFNγ production, and increasing
IFNγ levels alone does not necessarily improve bacterial control in the lungs [1][17]. Together, these
results suggest that while IFNγ is necessary, its efficacy may be limited by impaired cellular
responses and other inhibitory mechanisms in vivo that blunt the effects of IFNγ. This paradox
highlights the need to better understand the mechanisms regulating IFNγ responsiveness in lung
macrophage subsets to develop more effective TB therapies and vaccines.

Here, we identified a previously undefined mechanism that contributes to the suboptimal efficacy
of IFNγ in immunity to Mtb. Using an unbiased initial approach, bulk RNA sequencing of flow-
sorted mononuclear-macrophage cell subsets (AM and two subsets of lung monocyte-derived
cells), we detected evidence that one of the monocyte-derived cell subsets (termed MNC1,
formerly termed recruited macrophages) expresses lower levels of transcripts for IFNγ-responsive
genes when compared with AM or the other monocyte-derived cell subset (MNC2). Since this
could have reflected differential exposure of these cells to IFNγ in vivo, we treated lung cell
suspensions ex vivo with IFNγ and found that MNC1 cells are less responsive to IFNγ as
manifested by reduced tyrosine phosphorylation of STAT1. We also found that at the levels of
mRNA and cell surface expression, MNC1 cells express lower levels of the IFNγ receptor subunit,
IFNGR2, and other key signaling molecules in the response to IFNγ, including STAT1 and IRF1.
These results indicate that in MNC1 cells, defective responses to IFNγ are associated with
reduced expression of the proximal signaling machinery required for cell responses to IFNγ, and
this results in reduced responses to IFNγ in these cells. Our findings complement in vitro
observations that cultured macrophages infected with Mtb are defective in responding to IFNγ
through multiple mechanisms. These mechanisms include prolonged TLR2 signaling initiated by

Mtb lipoproteins and other cell wall components[39–44], and inhibition of macrophage responses to
IFNγ by IL-6 [45]. Notably, these mechanisms inhibit IFNγ-responsive gene expression at one or
more steps downstream of STAT1 activation and function[46,47]. Although the in vivo relevance of
these mechanisms inhibiting macrophage responses to IFNγ has not been established, our study
highlights a distinct, subset-specific pathway of IFNγ signaling impairment in MNC1 cells during
chronic Mtb infection (Figure 7).

Recent studies reveal that the Mtb-killing ability in distinct macrophage subsets differs with the
stage of infection. In early infection prior to development of adaptive T cell responses, AM are
permissive to Mtb[35–37], while after adaptive T lymphocytes are primed and recruited to the lungs,
AM restrict Mtb more effectively than do monocyte-derived cells [4,7–10]. Specifically, we previously
reported that MNC1 cells harbor more viable Mtb per infected cell than do AM and MNC2 cells
during chronic infection[8]. Adaptive T cells contribute to determining the fate and state of Mtb in
distinct lung mononuclear cell subsets, and T cells have a greater impact on suppressing Mtb in
AM than in recruited mononuclear cells in the lungs[7]. Our work extends these findings by
demonstrating that subset-specific differences in IFNγ responsiveness may explain why T cell-
mediated adaptive immunity has a greater impact on bacterial control in AM than in monocyte-
derived cells, indicating that impaired IFNγ responsiveness contributes to Mtb permissiveness.

Although we have not yet fully identified the regulatory pathway(s) responsible for reduced
expression of the signaling molecules required for responses to IFNγ, we found that type I IFN
signaling contributes to reduced IFNγ-mediated MHC-II expression in MNC1 cells, impairing their
ability to present antigens to antigen-specific CD4+ T cells. This provides a mechanistic link
between the known detrimental role of Type I IFN in TB and the failure of CD4+ T-cell-mediated
control at the cellular level. Although MNC2 cells express higher mRNA levels of IFNγ pathway
genes, they are less responsive to IFNγ stimulation compared to AM. This suggests that MNC2
may be exposed to higher levels of IFNγ than AM cells, likely due to their localization. However,
MNC2 show a greater type I IFN signaling than AM, which may antagonize IFNγ signaling.
Interestingly, IFNγ responsiveness in MNC1 is not fully restored by deletion of *Ifnar1*, suggesting
that other mechanisms may contribute to regulating IFNγ responsiveness in lung MNC subsets in
vivo during Mtb infection.

An important discovery from this study is that the impaired IFNγ responsiveness of MNC1 cells is
not an irreversible differentiation trait but rather a malleable phenotype that can be reprogrammed
by prior immunity (Figure 7). We found that the responsiveness of MNC1 cells to IFNγ can be
modulated: pre-existing immunity established by CoMtb modifies bone marrow precursors of
MNC1 and MNC2 cells to improve their responses to IFNγ and improve their ability to control Mtb.
In this manner, our results are consistent with trained immunity[48], since we found that the impact
of CoMtb on myeloid cells influenced ex vivo responses to IFNγ and that transfer of bone marrow
cells from mice with CoMtb improved control of Mtb after aerosol challenge. While deleting the
IFNγ receptor slightly increased bacterial burden in AM from coMtb mice, the impact of IFNγR
deletion on bacterial control is more pronounced in monocyte-derived cells. This aligns with a
recent study showing that CoMtb induces IFNγ signaling in MNC cells from Mtb-susceptible
mice[49]. These findings indicate that the mechanisms of enhanced immunity in CoMtb mice are
cell-type specific. MNC1 cells face a critical 'bottleneck' due to impaired IFNγ signaling during
primary infection; thus, restoring this responsiveness via CoMtb is a primary driver of their

improved control. In contrast, while IFNγR signaling contributes to AM function at early
stages[25,50,51], it plays a more limited role in the CoMtb-mediated protection of AMs during the later
chronic stage of infection. However, we cannot exclude the possibility that CoMtb may alter other
cell-intrinsic mechanisms, such as lysosome biogenesis and autophagy, to synergize with
improved IFNγ responsiveness and enhance bacterial control, which warrants further study.
Together, these results indicate that modulation of MNC1 cells can be achieved, suggesting that
this may be an especially valuable target for host-directed TB therapies.

We also note that the cell subset (MNC1) that is deficient in responses to IFNγ is the same subset
that we previously reported as being deficient in lysosome biogenesis. Since there are no known
regulatory connections between IFNγ responsiveness and lysosome biogenesis, our results are
most consistent with a model in which both pathways are regulated by a common developmental
pathway during differentiation of bone marrow monocytes into monocyte-derived macrophages in
the lungs of Mtb-infected mice. Further investigation of the differentiation or maturation of
monocytes recruited to the lungs in response to Mtb will be needed for a more thorough
understanding of the determinants of cell responsiveness to IFNγ and of lysosome biogenesis.

A shortcoming of the studies reported here is that they only involved studies in mice. Recent
single-cell sequencing studies have revealed heterogeneity of lung monocyte-derived
macrophages in human TB[52–54], and a potential difference in IFNγ responses among macrophage
subsets in TB granulomas[52]. However, functional studies are required to characterize IFNγ
responsiveness in live macrophage subsets isolated from resected lung tissues of human TB
patients. These are limited by the rarity of appropriate human samples in proximity to facilities for
the procedures required, and considerable dedicated effort will be required to determine which of
our findings are applicable to humans. Nevertheless, our results provide further mechanistic
insight into the potential functional significance of macrophage heterogeneity in the lungs in the
context of Mtb infection and should drive further investigation of methods to optimally develop and
test host-directed therapies for TB.

Methods

Mice
8-12-week-old C57BL/6 (Strain #:000664), *Ifnar1*^{-/-} (Strain #:028288) and *Ifngr1*^{-/-} (Strain
#:003288) mice were obtained from Jackson Laboratory. Both sexes were used in this study.
Extensive experiments and projects in our lab demonstrate no sex-specific differences in our
murine TB models. Therefore, sex was not a consideration in this study; sample sex information
has not been collected. Mice infected with Mtb were housed in the Animal Biosafety Level 3
facility. All animal experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use
Committee of the University of California, San Francisco.
Bacterial strains, growth, and aerosol infection
Mtb H37Rv was transformed with pMV261::ZsGreen and cultured in Middlebrook 7H9 medium
(BD) supplemented with 10% (v/v) ADC (albumin, dextrose, catalase), 0.05 % Tween 80, 0.2 %
glycerol, and 50 µg/ml kanamycin[8]. Mice were infected with H37Rv or pMV261::ZsGreen via
aerosol using a Glas-Col inhalation exposure unit, as previously described[4,8,26,38]. Mid-log cultures

were centrifuged at 800g for 8 min. Clump-free cultures were transferred and diluted, and 5 mL
of inoculum was added to the nebulizer. The target dose was 100 CFU/mouse. Infection dose
was determined by plating lung homogenates 24 hours post-infection on 7H11 agar plates. CFUs
were counted after incubation of plates at 37°C for 3 weeks.

Lung homogenate preparation, flow cytometry, and cell sorting

Lung homogenates were prepared as described previously[4,8]. Lungs were perfused with 10 mL
of PBS/2 mM EDTA via the right ventricle immediately after euthanasia. Lungs were processed
with a gentleMACS dissociator (Miltenyi, lung program 1), and digested in 4 mL of RPMI-1640/5%
HI-FBS containing 1 mg/mL collagenase D (Sigma-Aldrich) and 50 µg/mL DNase I (Sigma-
Aldrich) for 30 min at 37 °C. Digested lung tissues were further dissociated with the gentleMACS
dissociator (lung program 2) and then passed through a 70-µm cell strainer. Red blood cells were
lysed with 3 mL ACK lysis buffer (Gibco) for 3 min and washed twice with RPMI-1640/5% HI-FBS.
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For staining of surface antigens, cells were washed with PBS, then stained with 1:200 Zombie
Aqua Fixable Viability Dye (BioLegend, 423101) and 1:100 anti-CD16/32 (clone 2.4G2; Fc
receptor blockade) for 15 min at 4°C. After washing with PBS, cells were stained with flow
antibodies from Table S3 in 1:1 PBS/Brilliant Stain Buffer (BD, 566349) for 30 min at 4°C. Samples
were washed twice with PBS, then fixed overnight in 1% paraformaldehyde (PFA)/PBS. For cell
sorting, cells were washed and resuspended in FACS buffer (PBS, 2% HI-FBS (v/v), 2 mM EDTA
), and sorting was done using the BSL3 Sony MAC900 cell sorter.

For intracellular staining, cells were fixed and permeabilized using BD Fixation/Permeabilization
Kit for 20 min at 4°C after surface staining, then washed and incubated with antibodies diluted in
1x BD Perm Wash/0.5% FBS for 30 min at RT. For IRF1, 0.1% Triton X-100/PBS was used for
permeabilization. Samples were washed and acquired using an Aurora spectral flow cytometer
(Cytek Biosciences) or Sony MA900.

Ex vivo IFNγ stimulation for pSTAT1 flow cytometry

10^6 cells per lung were stained with Zombie Aqua Fixable Viability Dye as described above at 4°C
for 15 min. Samples were washed once with RPMI-1640/5% HI-FBS, then stimulated with 100 µL
of 20ng/mL IFNγ (final concentration) (Biolegend, 575304) in media at 37°C for 15 min. Untreated
samples were kept at 4°C. Samples were then mixed with 100 µL of 4% PFA/PBS and fixed at
room temperature (RT) for 15 min. Cells were washed once with PBS, followed by
permeabilization with 180 µL of cold methanol at 4°C for 12 min. After this, samples were washed
twice and incubated with 50 µL of 1:50 anti-CD16/32 in PBS for 5 min, followed by the addition of
antibodies, including AF647-pSTAT1 (Cell Signaling Technology, 8009S), diluted in 50 µL of
Brilliant Stain Buffer and incubated for 30 min at RT. After washing twice with PBS, samples were
resuspended in 1% PFA/PBS.

Immunofluorescence

Lung cell subsets were sorted from mice infected with H37Rv-ZsGreen. 40,000 cells/well were
seeded into 8-well Nunc Lab-Tek chamber slides (Thermo Scientific, 177445), and rested in a cell
incubator for 1 h. Media were replaced with 100 µL of RPMI-1640/5% HI-FBS with or without
20ng/mL IFNγ, and cells were incubated for 15min at 37°C. Immunofluorescence was performed
as previously described with slight modifications[8,55,56]. Media were removed and cells were fixed

immediately with 4% PFA for 30min. Slides were immersed in 1% PFA/PBS and transferred to
BSL2. Cells were washed twice with 200 µL PBS, followed by permeabilization with 200 µL of ice-
cold methanol for 10 min at 4°C, and then washed 3 times with PBS. Samples were blocked with
5% goat serum/PBS for 30 min at RT, then incubated with 100 µL of pStat1 (Tyr701) Rabbit mAb
(Cell Signaling Technology, 9167S, 1:200 diluted in 5% goat serum/PBS) for 2 h at RT. Then cells
were washed three times with PBS and stained with 1:1000 Goat anti-Rabbit IgG AF647
(Invitrogen, A-21244) for 1 h at RT. Samples were washed three times with PBS and mounted
with ProLong Diamond Antifade Mountant with DAPI.

T cell and MNP coculture

380 T cell and MNP coculture were done as described previously[21,57]. ZsGreen⁻ Lung MNP subsets
381 (AM, MNC1 and MNC2) were sorted from mice infected with H37Rv-ZsGreen. 10,000/well of MNP
382 were cultured with P25TCR-Tg or C7TCR-Tg Th1 effector cells (200,000/well) in the presence of
383 10 µg/mL Ag85B peptide 25. Supernatants were collected at day 4 and assayed for IFNγ by
384 ELISA.

BMDM differentiation

BMDM were differentiated as described previously[8]. Briefly, bone marrow cells were cultured in
BMDM media [DMEM (Gibco, 11965092), 10% heat-inactivated FBS (HI-FBS), and 20 ng/ml
recombinant murine M-CSF (PeproTech)] for 6-7 days, and media change was done at day 3.
For differentiation with interferon, BMDM media containing 50 pg/mL of IFNγ (Biolegend, 575304)
or IFN-β (Sino Biological, 50708-MCCH) were used. At day 6-7, cells were washed twice with
PBS and incubated with cold PBS/2mM EDTA for 5 min, then harvested by pipetting.

Generation of bone marrow chimeras

Bone marrow chimeras were generated as described previously[14]. Bone marrow cells were
harvested from the femurs and tibias of donor mice. After ACK lysis, cells were washed once with
DMEM/10% HI-FBS, once with PBS, then filtered with a 70 µm strainer. Recipient mice were
irradiated with a Precision X-Rad320 X-Ray irradiator using a dose of 10 Gy. Within 24h post-
irradiation, 6×10^6 total bone marrow cells were retro-orbitally injected into recipient mice using a
28G insulin syringe. For the chimera experiment using bone marrow cells from control or CoMtb
mice, recipient mice received 5×10^6 T cell-depleted bone marrow cells. Irradiated mice were
given TMP-SMX antibiotic (Sulfamethoxazole and Trimethoprim Oral Suspension, 200 mg/40 mg
per 5 mL, use 7.5 mL per 293 mL drinking water) for 3 weeks. Mice were allowed to reconstitute
for at least 6-8 weeks.

Establishment of CoMtb

406 CoMtb was established as described previously[25]. Briefly, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane.
407 1×10^4 CFU of Mtb H37Rv were injected intradermally into the base of the ear in 10 µL PBS using
408 a 31 G insulin syringe. After 4-6 weeks of establishment, mice were used for experiments.

RNA sequencing and data analysis
410 Analysis of the RNA-sequencing dataset GSE220147 was performed as described previously[8].

Quantification and statistical analysis

Results are expressed as mean and standard error. Quantification of MFI from immunofluorescence images was done using ImageJ, and the data are background-subtracted. MFI data for the lung subsets are background-subtracted using the fluorescence minus one (FMO) control or uninfected control. Statistical analysis and p-values are stated in the figure legends and indicated in the figures, respectively. P <0.05 is considered significant.

Data availability

The RNA-seq data supporting the findings of this study are available in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession number: GSE220147. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, W.Z. and J.D.E.; methodology, W.Z., J.D.L., and Z.P.H.; investigation, W.Z., J.L., Z.P.H., and A.M.; resources: E.T.; writing—original draft, W.Z. and J.D.E.; writing—review & editing, W.Z. and J.D.E.; funding acquisition, W.Z., Z.P.H., A.M., and J.D.E.; supervision, W.Z. and J.D.E.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Key proteins in IFNγ signaling pathway are expressed at lower levels in MNC1.

(A) Analysis of RNA-seq dataset GSE288567 revealed that IFNγ signature genes are expressed
at lower levels in CD11c^{lo} monocyte-derived cells (MNC1) compared with alveolar macrophages
(AM) and CD11c^{hi} MNC2 (28 dpi). 10,000 live cells from each subset were sorted from the lungs
of C57BL/6 mice infected with Mtb H37Rv-mCherry (n = 7-8).

(B) A schematic diagram shows the key signaling proteins regulating the response to IFNγ and
representative IFNγ-responsive genes.

(C) Messenger RNAs encoding key signaling proteins regulating the response to IFNγ and
representative IFNγ-responsive genes are differentially expressed in AM, MNC1, and MNC2.
Shown are mRNA normalized read counts for different cell subsets (28 dpi) (n=7-8).

(D) Key signaling proteins regulating the response to IFNγ and protein products of representative
IFNγ-responsive genes are differentially expressed in AM, MNC1, and MNC2. Flow cytometry
was used to measure median fluorescent intensity (MFI) of proteins in different lung cell subsets
from mice infected with H37Rv-ZsGreen. Fold change values were for AM vs. MNC1, MNC2 vs.
MNC1, and AM vs. MNC2 (n=4-5).

Results are presented as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.0001, ****p<0.0001 by Wald test
via DESeq2 for (C) and one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test for (D); ns = not
significant.

Figure 2. STAT1 phosphorylation is deficient in MNC1 treated with IFNγ ex vivo.

(A) Workflow for detecting pSTAT1 by flow cytometry and immunofluorescence. C57BL/6 mice
were infected with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen via aerosol for 28 days. Lung single-cell suspensions
were incubated with 20 ng/mL IFNγ for 15 min and subjected to pSTAT1 by flow cytometry
analysis or immunofluorescence.

(B) MFI of pSTAT1 by flow cytometry for each lung cell subset in the absence or presence of IFNγ
stimulation as described in panel A. Fold change values were for AM vs. MNC1, MNC2 vs. MNC1,
and AM vs. MNC2 (n=6).

(C) Fold change of pSTAT1 MFI level by flow cytometry after cells were stimulated with IFNγ ex
vivo as described in panel B (n=6).

(D) Representative images of nuclear pSTAT1 immunofluorescence staining for each cell subset
sorted from Mtb-infected mice (28 dpi). Bottom panel shows the quantitation of mean fluorescence
intensity of nuclear pSTAT1 from n>145 cells.

(E) Representative images of nuclear pSTAT1 immunofluorescence staining for each cell subset
sorted from Mtb-infected mice (28 dpi) and stimulated with 20 ng/mL IFNγ for 15 min. The bottom
panel shows the quantitation of the mean fluorescence intensity of nuclear pSTAT1 from >155
cells. Fold change values were for AM vs. MNC1, MNC2 vs. MNC1, and AM vs. MNC2.

(F) Fold change of nuclear pSTAT1 MFI by immunofluorescence staining after cells were
stimulated with IFNγ ex vivo as described in panel E.

Results are presented as mean ± SD. Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with
Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test (B, D-F) and One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple
comparison test (C) were used to determine statistical significance. ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001 by
one-way ANOVA; ns = not significant.

**697 Figure 3. Impaired responsiveness to IFNγ in MNC1 associates with defective MHC-II
antigen presentation.**

(A) Heatmap of the Z-scores from variance-stabilized read counts for genes related to MHC-II
antigen presentation (adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and |log2 fold change|>0.5).

(B-C) MNC1 express less surface MHC-II (B) and CD74 (C) than AM and MNC2. Flow cytometry
was used to measure MFI of MHC-II and CD74 in each cell subset from mice infected with Mtb
H37Rv-ZsGreen (28 dpi). Fold change values were for AM vs. MNC1, MNC2 vs. MNC1, and AM
vs. MNC2 (n=5).

(D) Workflow of antigen-specific T cells and lung mononuclear phagocyte co-culture. $1x10^4$ cells
were sorted from mice infected with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen and incubated with $2x10^5$ of the
indicated Th1 polarized TCR transgenic antigen-specific T cells and 10ug/mL antigenic peptide.
After 24h, the supernatant was filtered and assayed for IFNγ using ELISA.

(E-F) Impaired antigen presentation to CD4 T cells by MNC1. Supernatants were harvested from
the co-culture of antigen-specific T cells and different sorted cell subsets, and IFNγ level was
measured by ELISA. Fold change values were for AM vs. MNC1, MNC2 vs. MNC1, and AM vs.
MNC2 (n=4).

Results are presented as mean ± SD. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test
(B) and Brown-Forsythe and Welch ANOVA tests with Dunnett's T3 multiple comparisons test (C,
E-F) were used to determine statistical significance. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001; ns = not
significant.

**719 Figure 4. Type I IFN contributes to defective IFNγ responses and MHC-II expression in
BMDM and MNP subsets.**

(A) Heatmap of the Z-scores from variance-stabilized read counts for IFNβ signature genes

(adjusted p-value ≤ 0.05 and |log2 fold change|>0.5, n=7-8).

(B-C) Type I IFN suppresses MHC-II expression induced by IFNγ in vitro. Wild-type (WT) or *Ifnar1*^{-}
[/-] bone marrow cells were differentiated in bone marrow-derived macrophage (BMDM) media
containing the indicated interferon at 50 pg/mL for 6-7 days. The expression levels of MHC-II in
BMDM were determined by flow cytometry and expressed as median fluorescence intensity (MFI)
(n=4).

(D) Experimental workflow. CD45.1/45.2 mice were irradiated and reconstituted with 1:1 mixed
bone marrow from WT CD45.1/45.2 mice and *Ifnar1*^{-/-} CD45.2/45.2 mice. After 6-week
reconstitution, chimeras were aerosol challenged with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen.

(E) Type I IFN regulates MHC-II expression in AM, MNC1, and MNC2 in vivo. Flow cytometry was
used to measure MHC-II MFI in each subset from WT: *Ifnar1*^{-/-} mixed bone marrow chimeric mice
infected with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen for 28 days (n=4).

Results are presented as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.0001, ****p<0.0001 by one-way
ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test for (B-C) or by paired t-test for (E); ns = not
significant.

Figure 5. CoMtb improves IFNγ responsiveness of MNC but not AM.

(A) For the contained Mtb (CoMtb) studies, mice were inoculated intradermally in the ear with
10,000 CFU of Mtb H37Rv. After 4-6 weeks, control and CoMtb mice were infected with Mtb
H37Rv-ZsGreen by aerosol and euthanized at 28 dpi.

(B) CoMtb increases IFNγ responsiveness in bone marrow monocytes. Bone marrow cells from
control or coMtb mice were stimulated with or without 20 ng/mL IFNγ for 15 min, followed by flow
cytometric measurement of pSTAT1 MFI (n=3).

(C) CoMtb increases IFNγ responsiveness in BMDM. Bone marrow cells from control or coMtb
mice were differentiated into BMDM for 6 days. Then BMDM were harvested and stimulated with
or without 20 ng/mL IFNγ for 15 min, followed by flow cytometric measurement of pSTAT1 MFI
(n=3).

(D) CoMtb improves IFNγ responsiveness in MNC1 and MNC2. Lung samples from control or
coMtb mice infected with H37Rv-ZsGreen by aerosol (28 dpi) were stimulated with or without 20
ng/mL IFNγ for 15 min, followed by flow cytometric measurement of pSTAT1 MFI (n=5-6).

(E) CoMtb increases expression of IFNGR2 in MNC1 and MNC2. Shown are IFNGR2 MFI by flow
cytometry for each lung cell subset from control or coMtb mice infected with H37Rv-ZsGreen by
aerosol (28 dpi) (n=5-6).

(F) CoMtb enhances MHC-II expression in MNC1 and MNC2. MHC-II MFI was measured by flow
cytometry (28 dpi) (n=4-5).

(G) MNC1 and MNC2 from CoMtb mice show a higher expression of NOS2 by flow cytometry (28
dpi) (n=4-5).

Results are presented as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.0001, ****p<0.0001 by unpaired
t tests; ns = not significant.

Figure 6. CoMtb-mediated prior immunity improves Mtb control in lung myeloid cells.

(A) Total lung CFU for control or CoMtb mice infected with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen via aerosol for
28 days (n=5).

(B) The number of total live infected cells from the same lung in panel A (n=5).

(C) Bacterial burden indicated by ZsGreen MFI by flow cytometry for total infected cells in panel
B (n=5).

(D) Number of infected cells in each subset from the lungs of control and CoMtb mice infected
with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen via aerosol for 28 days (n=5-6).

(E) Frequency of Mtb-infected cells in each lung subset from control and CoMtb mice infected
with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen via aerosol for 28 days (n=5).

(F) Bacterial burden in each infected lung cell subset from control and CoMtb mice infected with
Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen via aerosol for 28 days (n=5).

(G) Irradiated mice received 5 x 10^6 T cell-depleted bone marrow cells from control or coMtb mice.
After reconstitution for 8 weeks, mice were infected with aerosol Mtb for 28 days.

(H) Lung Mtb burden for Mtb-infected chimeric mice that received bone marrow cells from control
or coMtb mice (28 dpi) (n=3-4).

(I) To generate mixed bone marrow chimeric mice, recipient (CD45.1/45.1) mice were irradiated
and reconstituted with 1:1 mixed bone marrow from WT mice and *Ifngr1*$^{-/-}$ CD45.2/45.2 mice for 8
weeks. After 4 weeks of CoMtb, mice were aerosol challenged with Mtb H37Rv-ZsGreen.

(J) Bacterial burden indicated by ZsGreen MFI in infected AM and MNC cells from infected bone
marrow chimeric mice. There were insufficient infected MNC1 in CoMtb mice for separate
analyses, so MNC1 and MNC2 were combined as MNC in these studies (n=6).

(K) Ratio of *Ifngr1*$^{-/-}$/WT Mtb burden in different Mtb-infected subsets (ZsGreen$^+$) from infected
bone marrow chimeric mice (n=6).

Results are presented as mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.0001, ****p<0.0001 by unpaired
t-test (A-F, H), or by paired t-test for (J-K); ns = not significant.

Figure 7. Proposed model of subset-specific IFNγ responsiveness in Mtb infection.

In Primary infection, MNC1 exhibit low levels of IFNγ signaling components (e.g., IFNGR2). This
impaired responsiveness, compounded by Type I IFN-mediated suppression of MHC-II
expression, renders MNC1 cells highly permissive to intracellular Mtb growth and reduces their
ability to be activated by CD4 T cells. In contrast, MNC2 and AM maintain higher IFNγ
responsiveness. In CoMtb model, monocyte-derived cells undergo training, showing enhanced
IFNγ responsiveness and upregulated MHC-II expression. This shift results in a more robust
activated phenotype, leading to improved restriction of Mtb replication and superior protective
immunity. Created with biogdp.com.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7