Evaluation of IL-1 blockade as a host-directed therapy for tuberculosis in mice and

macaques

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Abstract

In 2017, there were over 550,000 estimated new cases of multi-drug/rifampicin resistant tuberculosis (MDR/RR-TB), emphasizing a need for new treatment strategies. Linezolid (LZD) is a potent antibiotic for antibiotic-resistant Gram-positive infections and is an effective treatment for TB. However, extended LZD use can lead to LZD-associated host toxicities, most commonly bone marrow suppression. LZD toxicities may be mediated by IL-1, a pathway important for early immunity during *M. tuberculosis* infection that later contributes to pathology. We hypothesized LZD efficacy could be enhanced by modulation of IL-1 pathway to reduce BM toxicity and TB associated-inflammation. We used two animal models of TB to test our hypothesis, mice and cynomolgus macaques. Antagonizing IL-1 in chronically-infected mice reduced lung neutrophil numbers and partially restored the erythroid progenitor populations that are depleted by LZD. In macaques, we found no conclusive evidence of BM suppression associated with LZD, indicating our treatment time may have been short enough to avoid the toxicities observed in humans. Though treatment was only 1 month, the majority of granulomas were sterilized with reduced inflammation (assessed by PET/CT) in animals treated with both LZD and IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Rn). However, overall lung inflammation was significantly reduced in macaques treated with both IL-1Rn and LZD, compared to LZD alone. Importantly, IL-1Rn administration did not noticeably impair the host response against Mtb or LZD efficacy in either animal model. Together, our data support that inhibition of IL-1 in combination with LZD has potential to be an effective HDT for TB.

Author summary

Host-directed therapies (HDTs) are a potential option in combating drug resistant TB as they can circumvent bacterial drug-resistance by targeting host responses rather than the pathogen. Here we designed an HDT to target the IL-1 pathway, an inflammatory immune

response that is both critical and detrimental to TB disease outcome. We combined IL-1Rn, an

IL-1R antagonist, with linezolid (LZD) which is an effective antibiotic for drug-resistant M.

tuberculosis. Extended treatment causes severe host-toxicities that might be mediated in part

by the IL-1 pathway. Our goals were to enhance LZD efficacy by negating LZD-host toxicities

and to reduce adverse inflammation caused by TB. In mice, IL-1Rn effectively reduced

inflammatory signatures associated with TB and reversed linezolid-induced bone marrow

suppression, the most common toxicity. In cynomolgus macaques, inflammation, as assessed

by PET/CT, was reduced by the combination of IL-1Rn and LZD therapy, compared to LZD

alone. In contrast to mice, we did not observe bone marrow suppression in macaques,

highlighting the importance of both models when assessing prospective therapies. These data

show the potential of IL-1Rn as a therapy for TB and support LZD as an effective antibiotic

against drug-resistant TB.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) remains the top cause of death by a single infectious agent, with an

estimated 10 million new active TB cases and 1.3 million deaths in 2017 alone (1). Antibiotic

treatment regimens are long and multi-drug resistant (MDR) and extensive-drug resistant (XDR)

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb) strains have emerged, complicating treatment. Even those

patients that are cured of the infection can suffer permanent deficits in lung function that result

from inflammation and fibrosis (2). Host-directed therapies (HDTs) have been proposed as a

potential option for improving therapy. Depending on the strategy, HDTs could enhance

antimicrobial immune responses and shorten therapy, or inhibit pathological inflammation (3).

Since HDT would be used as part of a multi-drug regimen, targeting mechanisms that increase

drug exposure or decrease toxicity could also be envisioned. While some HDT strategies hold

promise, very few have been rigorously tested in pre-clinical models (4).

Interleukin-1 (IL-1) has been implicated in TB disease and inflammation, making it a possible

target of HDT. This cytokine plays an important yet complicated role in TB disease progression.

The susceptibility of mice lacking critical mediators of IL-1 signaling indicates that some initial

production of IL-1β upon Mtb infection is essential for priming downstream immune responses

necessary for disease control (5-8). In contrast, IL-1 is also responsible for the accumulation of

disease-promoting neutrophils in chronically-infected susceptible mice, and genetic variants that

result in higher IL-1β production are associated with increased disease severity and neutrophil

accumulation in humans (9-11). Given that HDT is designed to be administered to chronically-

infected patients during treatment, when persistent IL-1 production appears to play a more

pathological role, it could be beneficial to block the inflammation and disease promoting

activities of this cytokine.

IL-1 may also play a role in the toxicity of linezolid (LZD), an increasingly important antibiotic for

the treatment of drug-resistant TB, highlighted by its recent inclusion in a newly approved

therapy for MDR-TB (12). While LZD has shown efficacy against XDR and MDR TB, its wide-

spread use has been limited by severe host toxicities that occur after more than 4 weeks of

treatment (13, 14). Over the 6-20 month treatment course necessary to treat resistant TB, both

reversible bone marrow suppression and irreversible neuropathies are common (15). LZD-

associated toxicities are generally attributed to the inhibition of mitochondrial translation and

LZD-mediated bone marrow suppression is promoted by the subsequent mitochondrial damage.

This damage acts on the NOD-like receptor family, pyrin domain containing 3 (NLRP3) protein

that has been shown to be necessary for LZD-mediated bone marrow suppression in mice (16).

NLRP3, in conjunction with caspase-1 and ASC, forms an inflammasome complex, which

cleaves a number of substrates resulting in cell death and/or the release of active of IL-1β.

While the importance of NLRP3 in bone marrow suppression is clear, the relative roles of

inflammasome activation and IL-1 signaling remain uncertain.

Based on these observations, inhibiting the IL-1 pathway by HDT could serve two purposes:

first, to alleviate LZD-associated host toxicity, and second, to reduce the pathology associated

with the IL-1 pathway during TB disease. Due to the pro-inflammatory nature of the IL-1

pathway, strict regulatory mechanisms exist within the host to quell this pathway. IL-1 receptor

antagonist (IL-1Rn) is a protein produced constitutively at low levels that can increase in

response to a variety of cytokine signals. IL-1Rn serves as a decoy ligand for the IL-1R1,

blocking signal transduction and subduing activation of subsequent pro-inflammatory pathways

(17). Anakinra is an FDA-approved recombinant IL-1Rn that is used to treat rheumatoid

arthritis. As there are no FDA approved drugs to inhibit inflammasome activation, inhibition of

the IL-1 pathway with biologics, such as Anakinra, is the only currently feasible strategy to

modulate this pathway (18).

We hypothesized that the combination of Anakinra (herein referred to as IL-1Rn) with LZD for

treatment of active TB disease would reduce LZD-associated toxicities and host inflammation

resulting in a more efficacious therapy. To test this concept, we employed two established TB

animal models to assess differing aspects of host responses to LZD and IL-1Rn. We used

multiple strains of mice to model distinct disease states and dissect the relative importance of

the inflammasome and IL-1 signaling in HDT efficacy. As a translational model, we used

cynomolgus macaques in combination with [^{18}F] FDG PET/CT serial imaging to track TB

disease progression, including inflammation, before and during drug regimens (19).

Cynomolgus macaques present with a similar spectrum of Mtb infection as humans, with

pathology, including granuloma structure and diversity, that recapitulates human TB (20-22).

Together, our data further verify LZD as an efficacious antibiotic in both mice and macaques

and indicate that addition of IL-1Rn may accelerate the resolution of inflammation and partially

alleviate LZD-mediated BM suppression.

Results

IL-1 receptor blockade reduces inflammation in mouse models of TB disease.

Given the complex role played by IL-1 during TB, we initially sought to determine the effect of

inhibiting this cytokine during established TB disease in mice. These studies compared two IL-1

antagonists, a blocking antibody to the murine IL-1 receptor (αIL-1R1) and the human IL-1

receptor antagonist, Anakinra (IL-1Rn), each delivered between days 14 and 28 post infection.

Two mouse strains were employed to assess the effects of these treatments in animals with

different amounts of IL-1 activity. In relatively resistant C57BL/6 animals, mature IL-1

production is controlled during chronic disease, whereas unregulated IL-1 drives inflammatory

disease in Mtb-infected *Nos2$^{-/-}$* mice (9, 10).

While the human IL-1Rn had little effect in these models, the αIL-1R1 treatment significantly

reduced PMN numbers in the lungs of both resistant and susceptible mouse strains, and

reversed the weight loss observed in *Nos2$^{-/-}$* mice (Fig. 1A-B). While neither regimen

significantly altered the lung bacterial burden, both IL-1Rn and αIL-1R1 treatment reduced

bacterial burden in the spleens of *Nos2$^{-/-}$* mice (Fig. 1C-D). This generally beneficial effect of

αIL-1R1 treatment was consistent with qualitatively improved histopathological disease (Fig.

1E). By no metric did αIL-1R1 treatment exacerbate established disease in either mouse strain.

IL-1 blockade alleviates lung inflammation and hematopoietic suppression during

LZD treatment in mice.

The IL-1R1 blocking antibody αIL-1R1 was next tested in combination with LZD to determine

whether the efficacy or toxicity of the antibiotic was altered. C3HeB/FeJ mice, which are

relatively susceptible to Mtb and develop histopathological lesions that more closely resemble

human disease, were used for these studies. Mice with established disease were treated

between days 28 and 46 post-infection with vehicle alone, LZD, αIL-1R1 or a combination of the

two. As previously reported, LZD was effective in this model, reducing lung neutrophil numbers,

bacterial burden and weight loss (Fig. 2 A-D) (23). The addition of αIL-1R1 to this regimen

further reduced lung neutrophil numbers, and did not significantly alter the antimicrobial activity

of LZD. As IL-1β production in response to both Mtb infection and LZD treatment depends

largely on the NLRP3 inflammasome, we also investigated a regimen in which LZD and a small

molecule NLRP3 inhibitor (MCC950) was administered between days 56 and 77 post-infection.

As observed with αIL-1R1, the addition of MCC950 reduced PMN numbers in the lung, relative

to LZD alone, and did not significantly alter the rate of bacterial killing (Fig. 2 E-G). Using a

more rapid treatment protocol and C57BL/6 mice with genetic deficiencies in Caspase 1 or

NLRP3, we confirmed that the antimicrobial activity of LZD was unaffected by inflammasome

activation (Supplementary Fig. 1). Mice were treated between days 14 and 28 post-infection

and the effect of LZD on bacterial burden and lung neutrophil number was at least as large in

the knockout animals as the wild type controls.

Hematopoietic suppression was assayed in bone marrow and spleens of C3HeB/FeJ mice.

Both organs are significant sites for hematopoiesis in small animals, in which the bone marrow

has insufficient capacity, particularly when the requirement for blood cells increases. Using flow

cytometry, erythroid progenitors can be divided into a progression of precursors; pro-erythrocyte

(ProE), EryA, EryB, and EryC (Fig. 3A). These populations were quantified in each tissue of

Mtb-infected animals treated with LZD and/or αIL-1R1. In both bone marrow and spleen, LZD

had a profound effect, nearly eliminating early erythroid progenitors of the ProE, EryA and EryB

classes (Fig. 3B-E). Simultaneous treatment with αIL-1R1 largely reversed the effect of LZD in

the spleen, restoring these immature precursors to approximately half of their untreated levels.

While αIL-1R1 also significantly increased the number of erythroid precursors in the BM, the

suppression of LZD toxicity was less pronounced at this site.

In sum, studies in the mouse model indicated that the addition of αIL-1R1 to an LZD regimen

could reduce the number of lungs PMN and ameliorate hematopoietic toxicity, while not

compromising antimicrobial activity. These observations justified further studies in a non-human

primate model.

Changes in TB disease in macaques treated with LZD and HDT by PET/CT

Previously we published the efficacy and pharmacokinetics of LZD in cynomolgus macaques

treated for 8 weeks with a single daily dose of 30 mg/kg (14). To adhere to FDA guidelines for

LZD administration at the time we initiated this study, and reproduce clinical exposure at 600 mg

twice daily (b.i.d.), we shortened treatment duration to 4 weeks and increased the dosing

frequency to 30 mg/kg b.i.d. Dose finding studies were carried out in uninfected cynomolgus

macaques to ensure that adequate drug concentrations similar to those achieved in patients at

600 mg b.i.d. were reached in the blood (Supplementary Fig. 2A).

To assess this HDT/LZD regimen, we infected 10 cynomolgus macaques with Mtb strain

Erdman (12 CFU via bronchoscope) and monitored development of active TB disease (~3-5

months) (Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 2B). The macaques were then

randomized to a 4-week drug regimen of LZD (n=5) or LZD+IL-1Rn (n=5) (Supplementary Fig.

2B). One advantage of this model is the ability to track disease progression throughout infection

and treatment using serial ^{18}F-FDG PET CT scans (14, 24). Lung inflammation was quantified

by total FDG activity in the lungs before and during treatment (Fig. 4A-B and Supplementary

Table 1)(19). In LZD treated macaques, there was no significant decrease in total lung FDG

activity after 4 weeks (p=0.2876), although there was a trend for an initial reduction in

inflammation after 2 weeks of treatment (p=0.0857)(Fig. 4B). In contrast, LZD+IL-1Rn treatment

resulted in a significant reduction in total lung FDG activity after 2 and 4 weeks (p=0.0242,

p=0.0237 respectively). We assessed changes in granulomas during treatment by measuring

physical size (CT) and metabolic activity (measured as the standard uptake value of FDG per

granuloma, SUVR) (Fig. 4C-D)(19). During treatment, the majority of granulomas decreased in

size with no differences between LZD and LZD+IL1-Rn treated animals. However, granuloma

metabolic activity (SUVR) was significantly reduced in LZD+IL-1Rn treated macaques

compared to those treated with LZD alone for all granulomas. These data indicate that blocking

of IL-1R in combination with LZD reduces inflammation in whole lungs and individual

granulomas more effectively than LZD treatment alone.

Supplementary Table 1. List of macaques for study and PET/hot values

Supplemental Table 1 - Macaque Study Data

HDT Study

NHP	Age (yr)	Gender	Infection Dose	Treatment Group	DPI at Treatment Start	Days of Treatment	DPI at Necropsy	Necropsy Score	Total CFU	PreTx PEThot	2wk PEThot	4wk PEThot
29716	5.9	F	12 CFU	LZD	117	28	145	24	61839	526777.88	58333.57	35664.45
29816	7.1	F	12 CFU	LZD	110	28	138	45	4445	11003.65	1309.29	531.02
30016	7	F	12 CFU	LZD	103	29	132	31	1413	85068.79	123759.67	28665.24
30216	7.1	F	12 CFU	LZD	138	31	169	32	1090	2113.02	401.05	3884.92
30316	7.1	F	12 CFU	LZD	117	30	147	37	8005	1453.44	562.79	1828.43
18816	10.9	M	12 CFU	LZD+IL-1Rn	117	30	147	26	505	3236.21	673.86	1520.78
19116	7.2	M	12 CFU	LZD+IL-1Rn	117	28	145	25	330	3304.52	1469.77	1562.60
19416	9.9	M	12 CFU	LZD+IL-1Rn	138	30	168	10	727	872.50	73.54	73.30
20416	8.2	M	12 CFU	LZD+IL-1Rn	110	31	141	28	1260	26957.57	10456.67	2802.92
30116	6.4	F	12 CFU	LZD+IL-1Rn	103	31	134	67	20905	110837.75	48461.60	7609.82

Historical Controls*

NHP	Age (yr)	Gender	Infection Dose	DPI at Necropsy	Necropsy Score	Total CFU
18214	8.3	M	39 CFU	84	50	2935647
18314	8.3	M	39 CFU	91	84	1319857
1514	6.2	M	38 CFU	118	56	112433

*PET/CT data previously reported in PMID: 28592427

Provided are details regarding macaques utilized for this study. DPI = days post infection.

Addition of IL-1Rn does not significantly reduce bacterial burden

While IL-1Rn should not have direct bactericidal activity, this agent could still influence the

expression of anti-bacterial immunity. This effect could be beneficial if immune responses are

enhanced, or detrimental if IL-1 is necessary for host killing of bacteria. Therefore, we

performed comprehensive bacterial burden analysis at necropsy, by identifying the majority of

granulomas and other TB pathologies on PET CT scans, obtaining each individually at necropsy

and culturing all lesions, thoracic lymph nodes, and uninvolved lung tissue separately, as well

as extrapulmonary lesions, as previously described (20). Total thoracic CFU (lung + lymph

nodes) was not significantly different between LZD and LZD + IL-1Rn macaques (p = 0.1508)

(Fig. 5A), with similar frequencies of sterilized granulomas (LZD = 68.42%, LZD+IL-1Rn =

72.22%). In the current study, we did not have untreated control macaques, so we provide total

thoracic CFU for 3 similarly infected historical controls (untreated) for reference; these data

were excluded from statistical analyses. This supports that high dose LZD as a single drug is

effective at killing bacteria even in a short (4 week) regimen. Bacterial burden in CFU+ thoracic

lymph nodes was similar between the groups though trended towards lower CFU in LZD+IL-

1Rn treated macaques (p=0.0965) (Fig 5B). We previously reported that a 2-month lower dose

regimen of LZD could reduce bacterial burden compared to untreated controls, with ~80%

sterilized granulomas (14). Since the bacterial burden in macaques with active TB can vary

substantially, we estimated the pre-treatment total thoracic CFU from the total lung FDG by PET

CT as previously described (20), and compared the actual bacterial burden post-treatment

against the estimated pre-treatment value. All macaques, regardless of treatment group, had

lower total thoracic CFU at necropsy compared to the estimated total thoracic CFU prior to

treatment initiation (Fig. 5C). Our data indicate that while IL-1Rn did not significantly enhance

bacterial killing, it did not impair LZD-mediated bacterial clearance.

Lack of LZD-induced bone marrow suppression in macaques

In humans, LZD is associated with host toxicities during extended treatment periods of > 4

weeks (25). To determine whether bone marrow suppression occurred during the 4-week high

dose LZD therapy and whether IL-1Rn could modulate observable host toxicities, we isolated

bone marrow at necropsy from the sternum of each macaque and assessed erythropoietic

progenitor populations and mitochondrial function by flow cytometry (Fig. 6A). During

homeostatic erythropoiesis, a 1:8 ratio is maintained between ProE and EryC populations,

which can be used to indicate disruption to erythropoiesis. There was no significant difference

in ProE:EryC ratios between the treatment groups or compared to untreated macaques with Mtb

infection (Fig. 6B). However, none of the macaque groups had a homeostatic ratio regardless

of treatment. These data indicate that Mtb infection or TB disease alone may disrupt bone

marrow homeostasis. To determine whether LZD was affecting bone marrow mitochondrial

function, we stained cells with MitoTracker[TM] Red CMXRos that only stains mitochondria with

active membrane potential, indicating function of those organelles (Fig. 6B). Regardless of

treatment, the MitoTracker MFI remained similar, indicating that mitochondrial function is the

same among groups. To confirm our observations, a pathologist evaluated bone marrow tissue

sections and found no observable differences between TB only, LZD and LZD+IL-1Rn groups in

terms of cellularity (myeloid:erythroid ratios) or abnormalities (Fig. 6C). While we could not

consistently identify progenitor populations in blood or spleen, we performed complete blood

counts (CBCs) during treatment to identify signs of bone marrow suppression (i.e., anemia,

thrombocytopenia). There were no differences between LZD and LZD+IL-1Rn treatments

(Supplementary Fig. 3). In conclusion, 4 weeks of LZD was not sufficient to induce observable

bone marrow suppression in cynomolgus macaques and blocking of IL-1R did not alter bone

marrow status during LZD treatment of TB.

Reduction in inflammatory signatures in the lung after HDT

To determine whether IL-1Rn modulated immune populations in the airway of the lung during

treatment, bronchoalveolar lavages (BAL) were acquired prior to the start of treatment and 3

weeks post treatment. Innate and adaptive immune cell populations were identified and

frequencies were assessed by flow cytometry (Fig. 7A). Frequencies of CD4 and CD8 T cells

(CD3+, CD8+ or CD4+) in BAL remained stable and similar in both groups. Although

macrophage (CD11b+CD206+) populations were relatively unchanged, there was a significant

reduction in neutrophil (CD11b+, Calprotectin+) frequency in the BAL after 3 weeks of treatment

(pooled groups) (p=0.0098). This observation was similar to that observed in mice (Fig 2A). To

determine whether the cytokine milieu in the airways changed during treatment, a subset of 3

animals per group were chosen at random for analysis by multi-plex using 10X concentrated

BAL fluid (Fig. 7B). Given the small subset, statistical analysis was performed on combined

treatment groups to only compare pre and post treatment changes. We assessed IL-1β and IL-

1RA as IL-1Rn may modulate this pathway and saw no significant changes after treatment (IL-

1β p=0.1562, IL-1RA p=0.1250). Interferon-inducible T cell alpha chemoattractant (I-TAC) is

upregulated in response in interferons and IL-1 and is generally an indicator of inflammation,

which also trended towards reduced levels post treatment, however was not statistically

significant (p=0.0625). IL-8, a neutrophil chemoattractant, was significantly reduced after

treatment, mirroring the reduction in neutrophil frequency observed by flow cytometry and

mouse data. These data suggest that treatment with either LZD or LZD+IL-1Rn rapidly reduces

inflammatory signatures associated with TB disease in the airways.

IL-1 blockade modulates granuloma specific responses and healing dynamics

To determine whether IL-1Rn modulated immune responses at the site of infection, we chose at

random 5 granulomas per animal (25 per treatment group) and performed a multi-plex analysis

of granuloma supernatants (Fig. 8A). There were no significant differences in IL-1β, IL-1RA, or

IL-18 levels, which are associated with the IL-1 pathway. IL-2 and IL-17 are correlated with

protective immune responses during TB (26); there was a trend for higher IL-2 levels in LZD+IL-

1Rn treatment and a statistically significant increase in IL-17a in LZD+IL-1Rn treated animals.

G-CSF/CSF-3 levels were significantly higher in LZD+IL-1Rn treated granulomas, providing

further evidence of IL-1Rn immune modulation. The IL-1 pathway is associated with fibrosis,

which increases in granulomas during drug treatment. IL-17 and G-CSF are also associated

with fibrosis (27). Granulomas suitable for histological analysis were evaluated by a blinded

pathologist and lesions were categorized based on treatment groups and descriptive qualities

(Fig. 8B). Of lesions acquired from LZD only animals, 71.43% were deemed fibrotic (n= 40/56),

while those with the addition of IL-1Rn had 84.78% fibrotic lesions (n=39/46) with no significant

difference in frequency of fibrotic lesions between treatment groups. We also compared the

number and frequency of granulomas that were deemed necrotizing or non-necrotizing ("other"

indicates neither categorization). Granulomas from LZD+IL-1Rn treated animals had

significantly more non-necrotizing granulomas (73.91%, n=34/46), compared to those from LZD

alone treated macaques (46.43%, n=26/56). The proportion of necrotizing granulomas was

significantly lower in the LZD+IL-1Rn treatment group (13.04%, n=6/56) compared to LZD alone

(30.36%, n=17/56) (p=0.0151). These data suggest that addition of IL-1Rn may influence

antibiotic-associated healing dynamics of granulomas.

325 Discussion

HDTs are a tantalizing solution in combating drug-resistant pathogens, however the

complexities of host-pathogen interactions and host variability call for rigorous pre-

clinical testing before implementation in humans. Here, we sought to determine the

efficacy and safety of an HDT for TB comprised of LZD and IL-1Rn. IL-1 has a complex

role during TB, as IL-1 is important for early control of infection, yet damaging in later

stages of disease. To validate the safety of IL-1Rn in this context, we first assessed the

effects of IL-1Rn on TB disease progression in mice. Using αIL-1R1 blockade,

antagonism of IL-1R1 did not exacerbate disease and reduced PMN infiltrates which are

associated with pathological inflammation. While inhibition of IL-1 signaling during the

early stages of infection has been shown to potentiate disease, the beneficial effect of

IL-1 inhibition that we observed in multiple mouse models of TB highlights the generally

pathological role for this cytokine during established infections (7, 8).

When co-administered with LZD, blockade of IL-1R1 reduced PMN infiltrates in the

mouse models, compared to the antibiotic alone. Similarly, IL-1Rn reduced

inflammation in the granulomas of macaques, as well as overall lung inflammation as

assessed by PET CT, but did not significantly enhance bacterial clearance. A trend of

lower CFU in CFU+ lymph nodes (p=0.0965) was observed from macaques treated with

LZD+IL-1Rn compared to LZD alone. We hypothesize that IL-1Rn may reduce

inflammation in tissues to allow for enhanced penetration of LZD to reduce bacterial

burden in tissues. Given that lymph nodes are a site of Mtb persistence, this finding is

worth further exploration as a means of potentially enhancing drug penetration in

tissues (28).

In the BAL, we observed a decrease in neutrophils (PMNs) during HDT and a

corresponding decrease in IL-8 in both treatment group (LZD or LZD+IL-1Rn), indicating

LZD alone was efficacious in reducing PMN inflammatory signatures, likely due to the

reduction in bacterial burden. In granulomas, levels of IL-1β, IL-1RA and IL-18 were not

affected by IL-1Rn treatment in the subset examined. As IL-1Rn does not affect

inflammasome formation and function, only IL-1R1 signal transduction, it is not

surprising that IL-1β and IL-18 production were not affected by IL-1Rn. Of the 30

cytokines and chemokines assessed, IL-2, IL-17A and G-CSF were the most modulated

after IL-1Rn treatment. IL-2 and IL-17A have protective functions during TB and are

primarily expressed by T cells (26). While IL-1β has been reported to enhance IL-17A

production by T cells in mice, these studies primarily have utilized model-antigen

systems while our study reflects a chronic infection model (29). IL-1 is known to be

protective early during Mtb infection while exacerbating pathology during later infection,

highlighting that the effects of IL-1 on adaptive immunity are complex and likely

dependent on the host and infection model. G-CSF was increased in granulomas from

LZD+IL-1Rn treated macaques which, combined with our observations of reduced PMN

infiltrates in mouse lungs and macaque airways, indicated a paradoxical role of G-CSF

as a neutrophil production and differentiation factor (30). However, in a model of LPS-

induced lung injury it was shown that G-CSF blockade induced accumulation of PMNs

and increased inflammation in the lungs, indicating pulmonary inflammation may not

follow dogmatic rules of canonical inflammatory pathways (30).

Fibrosis is modulated by the IL-1 pathway, however while fibrosis is associated with

granuloma healing, lung fibrosis can cause secondary complications after TB disease

resolution (2) . We have shown in previous studies that drug therapy for TB induces

fibrotic healing in granulomas (31, 32). Therefore, we assessed whether IL-1Rn was

associated with changes in granuloma pathology. While we did not observe a

significant difference in the frequency of fibrotic versus non-fibrotic granulomas

(p=0.1531), there was a significant decrease in necrotizing granulomas when IL-1Rn

was added to LZD therapy. Thus, although there is no synergistic effect between IL-

1Rn and LZD in promoting fibrosis associated with drug clearance, the reduction in

neutrophils could skew granuloma resolution towards a non-necrotizing, fibrotic lesion.

We also assessed LZD-associated bone marrow suppression and reversal with IL-1Rn

therapy. We designed our HDT to match the current FDA guidelines for LZD and IL-

1Rn schedules, which resulted in a lack of observable bone marrow suppression in

macaques. In mice however, LZD-induced bone marrow suppression was reduced with

the addition of IL-1R1 antagonists, supporting our initial hypothesis. The role of IL-1

signaling is consistent with the ability of IL-1 to suppress erythropoiesis in mice by

reducing the number of progenitors (33). The remaining deficit in erythropoiesis during

IL-1 blockade could reflect either incomplete inhibition by IL-1Rn or an independent role

of inflammasome activation. Optimizing this effect will require further work to

understand the relative roles of IL-1 signaling and inflammasome activation.

Our data support and extend our previous data in macaques that LZD has excellent

efficacy against TB, even as a single-drug given for only 4-weeks, providing additional

support for LZD as an antimicrobial for MDR/XDR-TB cases (12). IL-1Rn therapy in

conjunction with LZD was successful in reducing TB-associated inflammation with no

negative effects on Mtb clearance, however additional studies addressing long-term

effects on immune responses and TB disease resolution are needed. Anakinra (IL-1Rn)

is already FDA-approved for adult and pediatric use in other inflammatory disorders; our

data provide pre-clinical evidence that IL-1Rn could be a potential therapy for cases of

severe TB to quell excessive inflammation and improve standard therapies. Our study

highlights the potential of HDTs for TB but also the necessity of assessment in

translational models prior to implementation in human trials.

Methods

Ethics Statement

All experimental manipulations, protocols, and care of the animals were approved by

the University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee (IACUC). The protocol assurance number for our IACUC is A3187-01. Our

specific protocol approval numbers for this project are 15117082, 16017370, 18124275,

13011368 and 16027525. The IACUC adheres to national guidelines established in the

Animal Welfare Act (7 U.S.C. Sections 2131 - 2159) and the Guide for the Care and

Use of Laboratory Animals (8th Edition) as mandated by the U.S. Public Health Service

Policy.

All macaques used in this study were housed at the University of Pittsburgh in rooms

with autonomously controlled temperature, humidity, and lighting. Animals were singly

housed in caging at least 2 square meters that allowed visual and tactile contact with

neighboring conspecifics. The macaques were fed twice daily with biscuits formulated

for nonhuman primates, supplemented at least 4 days/week with large pieces of fresh

fruits or vegetables. Animals had access to water *ad libitem*. Because our macaques

were singly housed due to the infectious nature of these studies, an enhanced

enrichment plan was designed and overseen by our nonhuman primate enrichment

specialist. This plan has three components. First, species-specific behaviors are

encouraged. All animals have access to toys and other manipulata, some of which will

be filled with food treats (e.g. frozen fruit, peanut butter, etc.). These are rotated on a

regular basis. Puzzle feeders foraging boards, and cardboard tubes containing small

food items also are placed in the cage to stimulate foraging behaviors. Adjustable

mirrors accessible to the animals stimulate interaction between animals. Second,

routine interaction between humans and macaques are encouraged. These interactions

occur daily and consist mainly of small food objects offered as enrichment and adhere

to established safety protocols. Animal caretakers are encouraged to interact with the

animals (by talking or with facial expressions) while performing tasks in the housing

area. Routine procedures (e.g. feeding, cage cleaning, etc) are done on a strict

schedule to allow the animals to acclimate to a routine daily schedule. Third, all

macaques are provided with a variety of visual and auditory stimulation. Housing areas

contain either radios or TV/video equipment that play cartoons or other formats

designed for children for at least 3 hours each day. The videos and radios are rotated

between animal rooms so that the same enrichment is not played repetitively for the

same group of animals.

All animals are checked at least twice daily to assess appetite, attitude, activity

level, hydration status, etc. Following *M. tuberculosis* infection, the animals are

monitored closely for evidence of disease (e.g., anorexia, weight loss, tachypnea,

dyspnea, coughing). Physical exams, including weights, are performed on a regular

basis. Animals are sedated prior to all veterinary procedures (e.g. blood draws, etc.)

using ketamine or other approved drugs. Regular PET/CT imaging is conducted on

most of our macaques following infection and has proved very useful for monitoring

disease progression. Our veterinary technicians monitor animals especially closely for

any signs of pain or distress. If any are noted, appropriate supportive care (e.g. dietary

supplementation, rehydration) and clinical treatments (analgesics) are given. Any

animal considered to have advanced disease or intractable pain or distress from any

cause is sedated with ketamine and then humanely euthanatized using sodium

pentobarbital.

Mice, infection and treatment

C57BL/6 (stock no. 000664), *Nos2*$^{-/-}$ (B6.129P2-Nos2^{tm1Lau}/J, stock no. 002609), C3HeB/FeJ

(stock no. 00658), and *Nlrp3*$^{-/-}$ (B6.129S6-*Nlrp3*^{tm1Bhk}/J, stock no. 021302) were purchased from

the Jackson Laboratory. Breeding pairs of Caspase-1/11 double knock out mice were kindly

provided by Prof. Katherine Fitzgerald of the Department of Infectious Diseases at University of

Massachusetts (UMASS) Medical School and bred in house. Mice were housed under specific

pathogen-free conditions, and in accordance with the UMASS Medical School, IACUC guidelines.

All mouse strains used in this study were of C57BL/6 background unless otherwise indicated.

The wild type strain of *M. tuberculosis* (Mtb) Erdman was used in these studies. Bacteria were

cultured in 7H9 medium containing 0.05% Tween 80 and OADC enrichment (Becton Dickinson).

For infections, mycobacteria were suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)-Tween 80

(0.05%); clumps were dissociated by sonication, and ~100 CFU were delivered via the respiratory

route using an aerosol generation device (Glas-Col, Terre Haute, IN). At indicated time points

mice were treated with 200mg/kg of Linezolid (LZD). These drugs were prepared in 0.5%

carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) and Polyethylene glycol 300 solution as the vehicle. Cohorts of

mice were treated with anti-IL-1R1 antibody (InVivoMab, anti-mouse IL-1R, Clone JAMA147,

BioXcell), or human recombinant IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1Rn, Kineret™) either alone or in

combination with LZD. 0.5% CMC and Polyethylene glycol was used as vehicle control. All

antibiotic treatment was done by daily oral gavage. Anti-IL-1R1 (100ug/mouse/0.2mL) was

administered every alternate day by subcutaneous and intraperitoneal route. IL-1Rn (Kineret) was

administered (25mg/kg/mouse) everyday by subcutaneous route.

Macaque pharmacokinetic study and analytical method.

Uninfected macaques designated for other studies (n=3) were given 20mg/kg or 40mg/kg by oral

gavage and plasma acquired at 0, 5, 19, 15, 20, 25 and 30 hours post LZD administration. High

pressure liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS-MS) analysis was

performed on a Sciex Applied Biosystems Qtrap 4000 triple-quadrupole mass spectrometer

coupled to an Agilent 1260 HPLC system to quantify LZD in macaque plasma. LZD

chromatography was performed on an Agilent Zorbax SB-C8 column (2.1x30 mm; particle size,

3.5 μm) using a reverse phase gradient elution. Milli-Q deionized water with 0.1% formic acid

was used for the aqueous mobile phase and 0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile for the organic mobile

phase. Multiple-reaction monitoring (MRM) of parent/daughter transitions in electrospray positive-

ionization mode was used to quantify the analytes. Sample analysis was accepted if the

concentrations of the quality control samples were within 20% of the nominal concentration. Data

processing was performed using Analyst software (version 1.6.2; Applied Biosystems Sciex).

Neat 1 mg/mL DMSO stocks for all compounds were serial diluted in 50/50 Acetonitrile water to

create standard curves and quality control spiking solutions. 20 μL of neat spiking solutions were

added to 20 μL of drug free plasma or control tissue homogenate, and extraction was performed

by adding 180 μL of Acetonitrile/Methanol 50/50 protein precipitation solvent containing the

internal standard (10 ng/mL verapamil & deuterated LZD-d3). Extracts were vortexed for 5

minutes and centrifuged at 4000 RPM for 5 minutes. 100 µL or supernatant was transferred for

LC-MS/MS analysis and diluted with 100 µL of Milli-Q deionized water.

Rhesus macaque plasma (Lithium Heparin, Bioreclamation IVT, NY) was used as a surrogate to

cynomolgus macaque plasma to build standard curves. LZD-d3 internal standard and verapamil

were purchased from Toronto Research Chemical. The lower and upper limits of quantitation

(LLOQ and ULOQ) were 1 ng/mL and 50,000 ng/mL respectively. The following MRM transitions

were used for LZD (338.00/235.00), LZD-d3(341.20/297.20), and verapamil (455.40/165.20).

Macaques, infection and treatment

All housing, care, and experimental procedures were approved by the University of Pittsburgh

School of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Examination of

animals was performed in quarantine to assess physical health and confirmation of no previous

M. tuberculosis infections as previously described (34). Cynomolgus macaques (*Macaca*

fascicularis) (N=10) were purchased for this study from (Valley Biosystems). Bone marrow

control (non-drug treated) samples were taken from Mtb-infected cynomolgus macaques in

unrelated ongoing studies (N=5). For the current study, all 10 animals were infected

bronchoscopically with 12 CFU of Mtb strain Erdman. After active disease developed (3-5

months), NHPs were randomized to LZD only (N=5) or LZD+IL-1Rn (N=5) treatment groups. For

randomization, macaques were paired based on total FDG activity in lungs (a surrogate for total

thoracic CFU), and then assigned to treatment by coin flip (20). LZD was administered twice a

day orally with food (30mg/kg), while IL1-Rn was given at 2mg/kg once each day by

subcutaneous injection. All animal data are provided in Supplementary Table 1. Medication

compliancy was monitored at every administration and pharmacokinetic analysis performed at

select times. Drug treatments were administered for 4 weeks prior to necropsy.

Bronchoalveolar lavages (BAL) were performed prior to drug-treatment and 3 weeks-post start

of treatment for CFU, flow cytometry and multiplex assays.

Macaque PET/CT Imaging

Positron emission tomography (PET) with computed tomography (CT) imaging was performed

with 2-deoxy-2-[^{18}F]-D-deoxyglucose (FDG) throughout the study as previously described (19).

Serial scans were performed throughout the study to track disease progression and changes

during drug treatment. Total FDG activity of the lungs was measured over the course of

infection and drug treatment as previously described (19). Granulomas identified on scans were

denoted, measured (mm) and standard uptake values (SUVR) were determined to assess

metabolic activity, a readout for inflammation. SUVR values were normalized to muscle and

SUVR and size measurements were determined at each scan over time to compare pre-and

post-drug treatment. Each animal was scanned prior to necropsy to identify granulomas for

matching at necropsy; granulomas $\geq$ 1mm are distinguishable by PET/CT.

Macaque Necropsy

Necropsies were performed as previously described. In short, multiple tissues (granulomas, lung

lobes, thoracic lymph nodes, peripheral lymph nodes, liver, spleen, bone marrow) were excised

and homogenized into single-cell suspensions for assessment of bacterial burden and

immunological assays. Granulomas were individually excised (PET/CT identified and others not

identified on scans) and split (size permitting) with one-half for homogenization and single cell

suspension and the other half processed for histological analysis. Bone marrow samples were

obtained from the sternum, with a portion sent for histological analysis while single cell

suspensions were acquired as previously described (35). Bacterial burden was assessed from

each tissue by plating serial dilutions on 7H11 agar plates and incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2 for

21 days before enumeration of Mtb CFU.

Flow cytometry and Immunoassays

Mice. Single cell suspensions were prepared from the infected mouse organs. Briefly, lung tissue was digested with Collagenase type IV/DNaseI and passed through 40 μm cell strainers to obtain single cell suspension. Red blood cells were lysed using Tris-buffered Ammonium Chloride (ACT) Non-specific antibody binding sites were blocked by Fc-Block CD16/32 (Clone 93, cat. no. 101319) and the cells were stained with anti-CD3-PE (Clone 17A2, cat. no. 100205), anti-CD11b-PerCP Cy5.5 (Clone M1/70, cat. no.101227), anti-Ly-6G-FITC (Clone 1A8, cat. no.127605), anti-Ly-6C-PE (Clone HK1.4, cat. no.128007), anti-Gr1-APC (Clone RB6-8C5, cat. no.108411), anti-Ter119-PE (Clone TER119, cat. no.116208), anti-CD71-FITC (clone RI7217, cat. no. 113806). Antibodies were purchased from BioLegend. All analyses were performed on live cells only after staining them with fixable live dead stain conjugated with eFlour780, purchased from eBiosciences. All the staining was done according to the manufacturer's instructions. Lung, spleen and bone marrow cells were surface stained for 30 minutes at room temperature, fixed for 20 minutes at 4^0C using the Cytofix buffer (BD-Biosciences, cat. no. 554655). Data were acquired in a BD LSRII flow cytometer in the flow cytometry core facility at UMASS medical school and analyzed with FlowJo Software (Treestar, Inc.). Gating strategies are provided in applicable figures.

Macaques. Single cell suspensions acquired from homogenization of granulomas, lung lobes and lymph nodes were subjected to intracellular cytokine staining (ICS). Prior to staining, cells were incubated in RPMI 1640 containing 1% HEPES, 1% L-glutamine, 10% human AB serum, and 0.1% brefeldin A (Golgiplug; BD Biosciences) for 3 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2. After viability staining (Invitrogen), surface antigens and intracellular cytokines were assessed using standard protocols. Surface markers include CD3 (SP34-2; BD Pharmingen), CD4 (L200; BD Horizon), CD8 (RPA-T8; BD Horizon) for T cells and CD11b (ICRF44; BD Pharmingen), CD206 (19.2; BE Pharmingen) for macrophages/neutrophils. Calprotectin (27E10; ThermoFisher) was stained intracellularly to identify neutrophils. For bone marrow, single cell suspensions underwent red blood cell lysis (BD Pharm Lyse) before incubation in alpha-MEM + 10% Stasis™ FBS (Gemini

Bio-Products) + MitoTracker^{TM} Red CMXRos (Invitrogen) for 30 minutes to stain for membrane

potential of mitochondria. Cells were then stained for viability (Invitrogen) and surface stained

to distinguish erythroid progenitor populations by CD34 (581; Biolegend), CD235a (HIR2; BD

Pharmingen), CD71 (L01.1; BD Pharmingen) and CD45 (D058-1283; BD Pharmingen). All

samples were acquired on an LSR II (BD) and analyzed with FlowJo Software (Treestar, Inc.).

Gating strategies are provided in applicable figures.

For the multiplex assays, all samples and supernatants were stored at -80°C from time of

necropsy until time of assay. Five representative granuloma supernatants were randomly

selected from each animal using JMP Pro v12 (SAS Institute Inc.). Supernatants were thawed

and filtered with a 0.22uM syringe filter to remove infectious bacteria and debris, then kept on

ice throughout the assay. For BAL samples, supernatants were concentrated using regenerated

cellulose centrifugal filter tubes (3,000 NMWL, Millipore Sigma) to a final 10X concentration

(5mL to 0.5mL). Both granuloma and BAL supernatants were evaluated with a ProcartaPlex

multiplex immunoassay (Invitrogen) that assesses thirty cytokines and chemokines specific for

NHPs. We followed the manufacturer's protocol with one modification in which we diluted the

standard out an extra dilution to increase the range of detection. Results were analyzed by a

BioPlex reader (BioRad).

Histopathology and immunofluorescence

Mice.   Lung tissues were fixed in 10% buffered formalin and embedded in paraffin. Five

micrometer-thick sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Tissue staining was

done by the Diabetes and Endocrinology Research Center histopathology core facility at the

University of Massachusetts Medical School or immunology core facility of Albany medical

college, NY. Brightfield images were acquired in Abaxis VETSCAN HD microscope.

Paraffin embedded lung tissue sections were cut at 5 µm thickness, mounted on ultraclean glass

slides covered in silane, deparaffinized, then dehydrated and rehydrated using the following

steps: Ethanol solutions (30, 50, 70, 90, 95 and 100 % for 3 min each), xylenes (2 different

solutions for 10 min each) and ethanol solutions (100, 95, 90, 70, 50 and 30 for 3 min each). The

slides were washed once in Tris buffer saline (TBS) for 5 min. Slices were subjected to antigen

retrieval by boiling in sodium citrate buffer at pH=6.0 for 20 min and incubated in 0.1% Triton-X

100 for 5 min. Slices were removed and allowed to equilibrate to room temperature for at least

20 min, and rinsed with distilled water. Tissue sections were blocked (blocking solution; 0.5 M

EDTA, 1% BSA, in PBS) and incubated overnight in primary antibodies against the proteins

related to our studies. Sections were stained for nuclei (DAPI, blue staining), anti-mouse CD3e

(cat.no. ab16669, green staining), anti-mouse Ly-6G (clone 1A8, cat. no. 127602) to identify

neutrophil granulocytes (Cy3, red staining). As controls, pre-immune serum and isotype matched

controls were used. After incubation, the tissues were washed several times with sterile TBS at

room temperature and incubated in the respective secondary antibodies (anti-rabbit conjugated

to Alexa-488, anti-rat conjugated to Cy3) for at least 2h at room temperature. Tissue sections

were mounted using Prolong Gold Antifade reagent (Invitrogen, grand Island, NY) with DAPI, and

the tissue sections were examined in ECHO Revolve 4 microscope. Isotype matched control

antibodies were used for checking antibody specificity.

Macaques. As previously described, samples acquired at necropsy were formalin fixed,

paraffin embedded, cut into ~5μm serial sections and stained with H&E (34). A study-blinded

veterinary pathologist assessed and characterized each granuloma, indicating size, type,

distribution and cellular composition. Sterna for bone marrow analysis were excised and

formalin fixed then transected longitudinally into 1 to 2 sternebral unites and placed in Cal-Ex

Hydrochloric acid decalcification solution for 2-4 hours. Upon removal, specimens were washed

and trimmed to test for adequate mineral removal, then submitted for routine tissue processing

with other tissue specimens as described above.

Statistical Analysis

Mouse studies: Equal variance between samples was assessed by Brown-Forsythe test.

Experiments in which variances were equivalent were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with

Sidak's multiple comparisons test. Those with unequal variances were analyzed by Welch

ANOVA and Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. P values < 0.05 was considered significant.

Macaque studies: Nonparametric U tests (Mann-Whitney) were performed for two-group

comparisons and Kruskal-Wallis tests were performed for three-group comparisons as indicated

on data sets with non-normal distributions. Wilcoxon signed rank tests were performed for

matched pairs. Fisher's exact test was run on any categorical data. P values < 0.05 were

considered significant. Total lung FDG activity was log_{10}-transformed. A two-way ANOVA was utilized

to test whether treatment or time (or an interaction between these factors) had an effect on total

lung inflammation. Dunnett's multiple comparison tests were then used to compare each time

point to pre-drug treatment within each treatment group. Statistical analyses were performed in

GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). A regression equation created from

control animals from previous studies was used to create a 95% prediction interval for total

thoracic bacterial burden using total lung FDG activity on the scan just before drug treatment

(20). The lower and upper bounds and the mean of this prediction interval were subtracted from

each animal's total CFU to estimate change in CFU over the course drug treatment. All

statistical analyses are referenced in the corresponding figure legends.

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Figures and Figure Legends

 Figure 1. IL-1 inhibition in susceptible mice reduces inflammation with no effect on lung

bacterial burden.

Wild type C57BL/6 and *Nos2*$^{-/-}$ mice were infected with Mtb Erdman for 2 weeks, and treated

with anti-IL-1R1 (αIL-1R1) or IL-1R1-antagonist (IL-1Rn) for the subsequent 2 weeks. (A) Lung

neutrophil (PMN) infiltration was quantified by flow cytometry; (B) Weight loss and (C) CFU in

lung and (D) spleen are shown. Data shown (mean ± SD) are representative of two independent

experiments. One-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparisons-test was used. N=4 mice per

treatment cohorts. (E) Histopathology analysis of a single lung lobe from WT or *Nos2-/-* mice

was performed by Hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining.

Figure 2. IL-1R1 blockade combined with Linezolid ameliorates TB disease.

(A-D) C3HeB/FeJ mice were infected with Mtb Erdman for 4 weeks and treated with linezolid

(LZD) and/or anti-IL-1R1 (αIL-1R1) for the following 18 days. (A) Lung neutrophils were

quantified by flow cytometry; (B) Percent change in body weight is shown and (C) Bacterial

burden in the lung and (D) spleen were quantified as CFU. Data shown (Mean ± SD) are

representative of two independent experiments. Welch ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test was

used to calculate statistical significance where each treatment group was compared to the

vehicle as control group. N=3-5 mice per treatment group. (E-G) C3HeB/FeJ mice were infected

with *M. tb* Erdman for 8 weeks and treated with linezolid (LZD) and/or an inhibitor of the NLRP3

inflammasome (MCC950) for the following 21 days. (E) Lung neutrophils were quantified by flow

cytometry. (F) Bacterial burden in the lung was quantified by CFU. Data shown (Mean ± SD) are

from one experiment. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to

calculate the p-value. N=4-5 mice/group. (G) Representative immunofluorescence images of

the lungs from different treatment groups. Cell nuclei stained with DAPI (blue), T-cells stained

with anti-mouse CD3ε (green) and neutrophils stained with anti-mouse Ly-6G (red).

Figure 3. Erythropoiesis associated with LZD treatment was partially relieved after IL-

1R1 blockade.

C3HeB/FeJ mice were infected with Mtb Erdman for 4 weeks, and treated with LZD either alone

or in combination with anti-IL-1R1 antibody for the subsequent 18 days. (A) Gating strategy for

detecting erythroid progenitors is shown. Erythroid progenitors in the spleen (B-C) and bone

marrow (D-E) were quantified by flow cytometry as described in Materials and Methods.

Representative flow cytometry plots and percent changes in the early erythroid progenitors (Pro-

Ery, EryA, EryB) among different treatment groups are shown. Data shown (Mean ± SD) are

from two independent experiments. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-test was applied to

calculate the p-value by comparing the mean of each group with that of LZD treated group.

N=3-5 mice per group.

Figure 4. HDT reduces granuloma inflammation by PET/CT in macaques

Cynomolgus macaques were infected with *M. tb* Erdman for approximately 4 months (see

Supplementary Table 1) and randomized to treatment with LZD or LZD+IL-1Rn for an additional

4 weeks. PET/CT scans were performed pre-treatment, 2 and 4 weeks post-treatment with 4

week scans as the last prior to necropsy. (A) 3-D renderings of PET/CT scans from pre-

treatment and 4 weeks post-treatment are depicted, with "best" and "worst" of each group

referring to TB disease prior to drug administration. (B) Total lung FDG activity of each

macaque throughout treatment with LZD (left) or LZD+IL-1Rn (right). Two-way ANOVA with

Dunnett's adjusted p-values are reported. (C) Individual granulomas were identified pre-

treatment and tracked post-treatment by PET/CT. Change in size (by CT) was determined for

granulomas from each animal; the left graph is compiled granulomas from each animal in the

indicated treatment groups while the right depicts individual animals. (D) Standard uptake value

(SUVR) of ^{18}F-FDG was calculated for each granuloma, representing inflammation. Change in

SUVR of all granulomas in each groupis depicted on the left, while change in SUVR of

granulomas from each individual animal are on the right. For (C) and (D), each data point is

representative of one granuloma and the bar represents the median. Mann-Whitney tests

determined p values for (C) and (D), with $p < 0.05$ considered significant.

Figure 5. Addition of IL-1Rn does not enhance efficacy of LZD for bacterial killing

Bacterial burden is shown after 4 weeks of LZD (blue) or LZD+IL-1Rn (red) treatment. (A) Total thoracic (lung + lymph nodes) and lung CFU; each data point represents one macaque. Total thoracic CFU from 3 similarly infected untreated historical control macaques (black) are included as reference for untreated CFU at this time point, but excluded from statistical analysis. (B) The percent of all lung granulomas that were CFU+ per monkey. (C) CFU of all thoracic lymph nodes with data points representing CFU from one macaque. CFU+ lymph nodes show the CFU from each thoracic lymph node in any animal that was Mtb+. For (A) and (B), p values were determined by Mann-Whitney test. (C) PET/CT scans from pre-treatment were used to model predicted CFU prior to HDT initiation and compared to actual CFU determined at time of necropsy. The predicted change in CFU was determined by: Actual total thoracic CFU post-treatment– Predicted total thoracic CFU interval (predicted from pre-drug-treatment scan). Bars represent mean of prediction intervals and error whiskers represent the lower and upper bounds of the difference between final total CFU and predicted CFU prior to drug treatment.

Figure 6. Linezolid-associated bone marrow suppression was not observed in macaques

Bone marrow was acquired from the sternum of all macaques at necropsy after 4 weeks LZD or

LZD+IL-1Rn. A portion was used for flow cytometric analysis of erythroid progenitor populations

and the rest for histopathology analysis. (A) A schematic of erythropoiesis indicating the stage

of differentiation and corresponding expression levels of phenotyping markers (CD235 and

CD71) and progenitor ratios (1:2:4:8). Included is the gating strategy to identify progenitor

populations and an example of MitoTracker staining. (B) The ProE:EryC ratio (left) of each

animal, including untreated TB only macaques (black) from other ongoing unpublished studies.

A single uninfected animal (open circle) is shown as reference, the dotted line indicates the

homeostatic ratio of 1:8. MitoTracker MFI (right) is shown for each macaque per treatment

group. Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to compare the three groups (excluding uninfected

macaque) and p values are shown in the graphs. (C) Representative H&E images from sternal

bone marrow acquired at necropsy, 20x (left) and 40x (right) are shown.

Figure 7. HDT reduces inflammatory signatures in BAL

Bronchoalveolar lavages (BAL) were acquired pre-treatment and 3 weeks post-treatment with

LZD (blue) or LZD+IL-1Rn (red). (A) Cells were analyzed by flow cytometry to determine

frequency changes in CD4 T cells (CD3+CD4+), CD8 T cells (CD3+CD8+), macrophages

(CD11b+CD206+) and neutrophils (CD11b+Calprotectin+). Wilcoxon signed rank test was

performed to determine differences before and after drug treatment, regardless of group (LZD

and LZD+IL-1Rn combined). (B) BAL fluid was concentrated 10X and assessed by multiplex

assay for changes in inflammatory cytokines and chemokines for a random subset of samples

(n=3 per treatment group). Wilcoxon signed rank test was performed to determine differences

before and after drug treatment, regardless of group (LZD and LZD+IL-1Rn combined).

Treatment	% **Fibrotic**	% **Non-necrotizing**	% **Necrotizing**
LZD	71.43	46.43	30.36
LZD+IL1-Rn	84.78	73.91	13.04

Figure 8. Inflammation modulation by HDT influences granuloma resolution

Randomly selected granulomas (n=5 per macaque, n=25 per treatment group) were subjected

to multiplex analysis to determine differences between treatment groups (colors indicate lesions

from a single animal). p values shown determined by Mann-Whitney test. (B) Granulomas from

LZD (n=57) and LZD+IL-1Rn (n=45) were examined by a pathologist (EK) and categorized. We

compared fibrotic (green) vs non-fibrotic (light gray) (left) and necrotizing (red) vs non-

849   necrotizing (blue) granuloma frequencies. Frequencies represent the percentage of all

850   granulomas within treatment groups. Fisher's exact test p-values are reported.

Supporting information

Supplementary Table 1. List of macaques for study and PET/hot values.

Provided are details regarding macaques utilized for this study. DPI = days post infection.

S1 Fig. Inhibiting inflammasome signaling does not interfere with LZD efficacy.

(A) Wild type C57BL/6 and *Caspase-1/11[-/-]* mice were infected with *M. tb* Erdman for 2 weeks,

and treated with linezolid for the subsequent 2 weeks. (A) Lung neutrophil (PMN) infiltration was

quantified by flow cytometry. (B) CFU in the lung are shown. Data shown (Mean ± SD) are

representative of two independent experiments. (C) WT and *Nlrp3^{-/-}* mice were infected with *M.*

tb Erdman for 2 weeks and treated with linezolid for the following two weeks. (C) Lung

neutrophils were quantified by flow cytometry. (D) Bacterial burden in the lung were quantified

as CFU. Data shown (Mean ± SD) are from one experiment. One-way ANOVA with Sidak's

multiple comparison test was used to calculate the indicated p-values. N=3-5 mice used for

each treatment group.

S2 Fig. Linezolid pharmacokinetic analyses and Experimental plan for HDT in macaques

(A) Plasma concentration time profiles of cynomolgus macaques receiving 20mg/kg or 40mg/kg

linezolid. Average plasma concentrations were plotted on Day 1 and Day 5 post-dose (n=3) (B)

Experimental timeline of macaque study.

S3 Fig. Complete blood counts and erythrocyte sedimentation rate for macaques

undergoing HDT

Complete blood counts (CBCs) were taken through the study to assess anemia caused by

linezolid or Mtb infection. The CBC values (top) show true values for each macaque in LZD

(blue) or LZD+IL-1Rn (red) treatment groups. Due to variability in animal size and age, we

normalized CBC values to the preinfection time point for each animal (middle graphs). These

data indicate the relative change over the course of HDT. ESR (bottom) is a non-specific

measure of inflammation, LZD (blue) and LZD+IL-1Rn (red) treated macaques are depicted.