Early-Life Commensal Lung Bacteria Shape Immune Responses and RSV

Susceptibility in Neonatal Mice

Quentin Marquant[§1,2], Claire Chottin[§1], Cécile Ferret[1], Eloi Poucet[1], Vinciane Saint-Criq[3], Daphné

Laubreton[1], Carole Drajac[1], Edwige Bouguyon[1], Aude Remot[4], Samuel Constant[5], Song Huang[5],

Edouard Sage[1,2], Isabelle Schwartz-Cornil[1], Muriel Thomas[3], Sabine Riffault[1], and Delphyne

Descamps[¶1]

[§]Equal contribution

[¶]Corresponding author

[1]Université Paris-Saclay, INRAE, UVSQ, VIM, 78350, Jouy-en-Josas, France

[2]Hôpital Foch, Suresnes, France

[3]Université Paris-Saclay, INRAE, Micalis, 78350, Jouy-en-Josas, France

[4]Université de Tours, INRAE, ISP, 37380, Nouzilly, France

[5]Epithelix, 18, Chemin des Aulx, CH-1228 Plan-les-Ouates, Geneva, Switzerland

Correspondence to: Delphyne Descamps, Tel: (33) 01 34 65 26 10, Email:

delphyne.descamps@inrae.fr. Virologie et Immunologie Moléculaires, INRAE, UVSQ, Domaine

de Vilvert, 78350 Jouy-en-Josas, France.

Abbreviations

RSV: respiratory syncytial virus; LTRI: lower respiratory tract infections; ILC2: type 2 innate

lymphoid cells; AM: alveolar macrophages; IFN-I: type 1 interferons; ISG: interferon-stimulated

genes; EL-Abx: early-life antibiotic treatment; BHI: Brain Heart Infusion; MRS: Man Rogosa

Sharpe; PCLS: Precision-cut lung slices; CFU: colony forming unit; MOI: multiplicity of infection;

BAL: Bronchoalveolar lavage; LDH: lactate deshydrogenase; i.n.: intranasal; MGG: May-Grunwald-

Giemsa.

Acknowledgements

We greatly acknowledge M. Prost and A. Mialet for their assistances with experiments. We are

grateful to M-A. Rameix-Welti (INSERM, U1173, UVSQ) and J-F Eléouët (INRAE, UVSQ, VIM)

for providing recombinant RSV-Cherry. We are grateful to the IERP unit, INRAE (Infectiology of

fishes and rodent facility, doi: 10.15454/1.5572427140471238E12). We thank the Emerg'in platform for access to IVIS-Spectrum that was financed by the Region Ile De France (DIM One Health). We thank E Helloin and C Darrigo (CIRM, INRAE, Nouzilly) for bacterial strains identification by mass spectrometry. C. Drajac. and Q. Marquant were the recipient of a Ph.D. and post-doctoral fellowships of Région Ile-de-France (DIM-Malinf or DIM-OneHealth, respectively). C. Chottin was the recipient of a Ph.D. fellowship from the French research ministry. D. Laubreton and experiments were supported by a grant of the French national research agency "Agence Nationale de la Recherche" (ANR-13-BSV3-0016 and ANR-24-NEOMIS). This project was supported by the Fondation Air Liquide, Vaincre la Mucoviscidose and by Association Grégory Lemarchal.

Conflict of Interest statement

The authors declare no competing financial interests. The authors declare that all the other data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article and its supplementary information files and from the corresponding author upon request.

Sample Credit author statement

Quentin Marquant: Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Data curation, Visualization, Writing – review & editing. **Claire Chottin:** Methodology, Validation, Investigation, Data curation, Visualization, Writing – review & editing. **Cécile Ferret:** Validation, Data curation, Resources. **Eloi Poucet:** Validation, Data curation. **Vinciane Saint-Criq:** Methodology, Writing – review & editing. **Edwige Bouguyon:** Validation, Data curation. **Daphnée Laubreton:** Methodology, Investigation, Writing – review & editing. **Carole Drajac:** Methodology, Investigation. **Aude Remot:** Methology, Conceptualization. **Samuel Constant:** Resources. **Song Huang:** Resources. **Edouard Sage:** Resources. **Isabelle Schwartz-Cornil:** Resources, Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing. **Muriel Thomas:** Resources, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. **Sabine Riffault:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Writing – review & editing. **Delphyne Descamps:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Validation, Formal analysis, , Writing – Original Draft, Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Visualization, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

Abstract

The lung mucosa at birth and shortly after is particularly vulnerable to respiratory syncytial virus (RSV) infection. Respiratory disease severity is strongly influenced by the age at first exposure, which may also affect the trajectory of airway function. Early-life represents a critical window for lung development and initial microbiota colonization, both of which shape mucosal immune responses to RSV. The impact of the initial establishment of the lung microbiota by its primo-colonizing strains on susceptibility to RSV infection remains largely unknown. In the present study, we showed that early-life primo-colonizing bacterial strains in the mouse lung differentially induce innate immune responses and influence RSV susceptibility in *ex vivo* models using lung explants and alveolar macrophages. We identified a specific bacterial strain that enhances IFN-I antiviral pathways and reduces RSV replication both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Intranasal administration of this strain to neonatal mice prevented the development of immunopathological responses upon RSV reinfection in adulthood. These findings highlight the potential of early-life microbiota modulation as a promising intervention for preventing RSV disease and its long-term respiratory consequences.

Keywords

Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV), Early-life, Lung microbiota, Primo-colonizing bacteria, Mucosal immunity, Immune imprinting**,** Interferon, Alveolar macrophages, lung explants

Research article

<u>Introduction</u>

The respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), known as the primary cause of bronchiolitis in infants, is a

major contributor to lower respiratory tract infections (LRTIs), and remains the leading cause of child

mortality worldwide[1]. Moreover, severe RSV infection in early-life has been associated with long-

term respiratory problems, such as repeated LRTI, wheezing, asthma, and reduced lung function,

which can continue into adulthood in the form of chronic respiratory disease[2]. New passive

immunisation strategies, such as maternal vaccination or administration of monoclonal antibodies,

have been approved to reduce the burden of acute RSV infection in high-risk infants. However, some

complications have been reported, including an increase in preterm births[3]. Direct vaccination in

children remains a challenge, particularly after the FDA recently suspended all RSV vaccine trials in

infants following reports of increased cases of severe illness in one trial[4]. The mechanisms underlying

pulmonary hypersensitivity to RSV in early-life and its long-term health effects remain to be

elucidated in order to develop effective prophylactic strategies. An increasing number of studies on

RSV-infected neonatal mice (less than 7 days old at initial infection) have validated this model as

relevant for understanding RSV infection in human infants[5]. It has been shown that the age at first

infection plays a key role in shaping subsequent immune responses, notably by inducing epigenetic

modifications[6]. This may increase the severity of later RSV infections[7], potentially by driving a type

2-biased immunity[8], which promotes allergic responses later in life[6]. Moreover, the early-life in mice

is characterized by an immediate permissiveness to RSV replication, which gradually decreases with

age as the ability to mount type I interferon (IFN-I) responses improves[9]. IFN-I are rarely detected in

nasal washes from RSV-infected children[10]. However, IFN-α and IFN-β control viral pathogenesis

by inducing interferon-stimulated genes that provide an early antiviral defense and shape

inflammatory and adaptive immune responses[11]. IFN-I responses appear to play a key role in the

outcome of RSV infection[11], as treatments that enhance IFN-I levels in infected neonatal mice have

been shown to reduce viral replication and long-term RSV-induced lung effects[12, 13]. Thus,

modulation of pulmonary innate immune defenses during the perinatal period can affect susceptibility

to RSV infection, and determine long-term respiratory outcomes.

Early-life is indeed a crucial period for lung mucosa development, during which

environmental factors influence the maturation of three interconnected components, namely, the

airway epithelium, immune cells, and the resident microbiota. When the tuning between these three

components is inadequate, it can ultimately affect susceptibility to infections or predispose to chronic

respiratory diseases[14]. There is increasing evidence that postnatal lung mucosa is biased toward a type

2 immune response, as indicated by the spontaneous accumulation of type 2 innate lymphoid cells

(ILC2), eosinophils, and basophils, along with the production of cytokines such as IL-33 and IL-13[15],

which are typically involved in anti-inflammatory responses and tissue repair. Such a tissue

environment is prone to the early polarization of tissue-resident alveolar macrophages (AMs) toward

a tolerogenic, anti-inflammatory M2 phenotype[16]. Moreover, the lung microbiota establishes rapidly

after birth and it shaped by factors linked to the host and the environment[17, 18, 19]. A recent prospective

pediatric cohort study showed that between birth and 3 months of age, rapid changes in the airway

bacterial microbiota are accompanied by a major shift in the JAK/STAT and interferon immune

pathways, revealing a link between bacterial communities and early-life respiratory immunity[20]. In

addition, the lung microbiota contributes to immune tolerance in early-life according to an asthma

model[17] and attenuates innate immune reactivity to PAMPs[21].

The incidence of respiratory infections and the occurrence of dysbiosis in the lung microbiota

are closely related[22]. The severity of RSV infection,[23, 24] and the persistence of symptoms in children

may be influenced by the bacterial ecosystem[25]. Conversely, the presence of *Lactobacillus* in the

nasopharynx is associated with a reduced risk of childhood wheezing illnesses at 2 years of age[26]. In

mice, viable commensal bacteria are detected in the lungs as early as 3 days of age, with their number

and diversity increasing over time[17] and reaching a plateau by weaning at around 21 days of age[19]. A

collection of primo-colonizing bacteria was established *via* their isolation from lung homogenates of

neonatal mice using aerobic or anaerobic culture conditions[19]. Intranasal administration of certain

strains of this collection during early life influenced the outcome of an allergic asthma model[19], while

instillation of other strains in adult mice attenuated pulmonary inflammation following

Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection[27]. These findings suggest that lung primo-colonizing

commensal bacteria can modulate pulmonary immunity and influence susceptibility to respiratory

diseases. However, the mechanisms by which early bacterial colonization of the lungs modulates

immune responses and determines both immediate and long-term respiratory outcomes, including

during early-life RSV infection, remain largely unexplored[28]. In the present study, we demonstrated

that early-life commensal lung bacteria modulate immune responses and RSV susceptibility in

neonatal mice. We established a proof of concept demonstrating that it is possible to select a single

strain from a panel of lung primo-colonizing commensal bacteria based on its immunomodulatory

and antiviral properties on the neonatal lungs. One bacterial strain in particular, hereafter referred to

as strain 17, promoted IFN-I antiviral pathways and reduced RSV replication both *in vitro* and *in*

vivo. Finally, its intranasal administration to neonatal mice prevented early-life immunopathological

priming, which became apparent after a second exposure to RSV in adulthood.

Materials and methods

Mice

Pregnant BALB/cJrj mice were purchased from Janvier (Le Genest, France). All experiments were approved by the ethics committee COMETHEA (Ethical Committee for Animal Experimentation, authorization number: APAFIS#14654-2018032116445169).

Bacterial strains' identification and growth

Bacterial strains (Supplemental Table 1) previously isolated from 3-day-old mouse lungs were stored at −80°C[19]. Strains were revived in 10 mL yeast-heminBHI or MRS medium and subcultured (100 µL/10 mL). Growth was monitored hourly for 8h by spectrophotometry to determine exponential and stationary phases. Bacterial counts were obtained using a BD Accuri™ C6 flow cytometer, and strain identity was confirmed by 16S PCR (J4/J7 primers) and MALDI-TOF mass spectrometry (CIRM, INRAE, Nouzilly, France).

Virus

Human RSV strain A2 and recombinant RSV-Long expressing mCherry (RSV-mCherry) or luciferase (RSV-Luc) were produced, titrated on HEp-2 cells, and stored at -80°C[29].

Ex vivo lung explants, stimulation and infection

Lungs from 6-day-old neonatal mice were filled *via* tracheotomy with RPMI containing 1.5% low-melting agarose (37°C). After solidification, lungs were placed in a Krumdieck tissue slicer (MD6000) chamber containing PBS with 1× antibiotic-antimycotic and cut into 150 µm slices to obtain precision-cut lung slices (PCLS)[19, 21]. PCLS were stimulated for 16h at 37 °C, 5% CO_2 with strains (50 CFU/well in RPMI with 5% FBS and L-glutamine). Inoculations were verified by CFU counts on agar plates. Three hours later, PCLS were infected with RSV-Luc (7.19×10^4 PFU/well) or Mock control. Supernatants were collected. PCLS were lysated in lysis buffer (5 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl, 1% Triton X100, pH 7,4) or Passive Lysis Buffer (30 mM Tris, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 1% Triton 100X, 2% Glycerol) using a Precellys 24-bead grinder homogenizer (Bertin Technologies) for $2 \times 15s$ at 6,000 x g. Protein levels were quantified with DC™ or RC-DC™ Protein Assays (Bio-Rad).

Experiments with differentiated human primary bronchial epithelial cells

MucilAir® from healthy donors were purchased from Epithelix. Cells ($\approx 5 \times 10^5$ cells/transwell) were stimulated with bacterium 17 (10^3 CFU/transwell) in 20 µL in apical side. After 3h, cells were infected with RSV-mCherry (MOI = 0.1) or Mock control during 3h. The inoculum was removed and medium replaced by strain 17 containing fresh medium. RSV-mCherry replication was visualized using the ZOE Fluorescent Cell Imager (Bio-Rad) and quantified with a fluorescence plate reader (Tecan Infinite 200 Pro). Supernatants and cell lysates were then collected.

Ex vivo AM culture and infection

Bronchoalveolar lavages (BALs) were performed on 6-days-old mice to isolate AM, as previously

described[9, 30, 31]. Cells (1 x 10^5) were plated, 24h after seeding, incubated with bacterial strains (50

CFU/well) for 3h before exposure to RSV-Long (MOI = 5) or a mock control. Supernatants and cells

were collected 24h post-infection.

Cell cytotoxicity

Cytotoxicity was measured by lactate deshydrogenase (LDH) activity, using the Non-Radioactive

Cytotoxicity Assay kit (Promega).

Cytokine, IFN, and RSV-specific Ab assays

Cytokine production was measured using the 15-plex or IL-6/TNF-α/IFN-α/IFN-β custom 4-Plex

mouse ProcartaPlex™ immunoassay (ThermoFisher Scientific). Human IL-6, TNF-α or IP-10 were

measured by Luminex and human β-defensin-2 by ELISA (NB-50-1634-1000, NeoBiotech). Data

were read on MagPix instrument (Luminex), and analyzed using Bio-Plex Manager software (Bio-

Rad). HEK-Blue™ IFN-λ (InvivoGen) cells were used for the detection of bioactive human IFN-λ.

Individual mouse sera were assayed for specific Ab (IgG1, IgG2a) against RSV lysates by ELISA[13].

In vivo bacterial strains inoculation and RSV infection

Neonate mice (age 3 and 5 days) received 10 µL of strain 17 intranasally (i.n.) route. At 6 days old,

mice were infected with RSV-Luc (7.187 x 10^6 PFU/mL, 10 µL, i.n) or a Mock control. In other

experiments, neonate mice were first infected by RSV-A2 (2.3 × 10^6 PFU/mL, 10 µL, i.n.), and were

kept until 8 weeks of age when they were all infected with RSV-A2 (100 µL, i.n.)[13]. BAL and lung

tissues were collected.

Bioluminescence measurements

Photon emission was measured in lysates of the nasal cavity or lung tissues and PCLS using the IVIS

system (Xenogen Biosciences) and Living Image software (version 4.0, Caliper Life Sciences),

following a previously described method[9], and was normalized to protein content.

Cell infliltration

Cells were collected from BALs and centrifugated at 400 x g for 10min at 4°C. May-Grunwald-

Giemsa coloration was performed to assess the differential cell counts using light microscopy. Two

hundred cells were counted to determine relative and absolute cell numbers.

RT-qPCR

Total RNA was extracted from lung lysates using a NucleoSpin® RNA midi column (Macherey

Nagel) and reverse transcribed using random primers and SuperScript II (Invitrogen), according to

the manufacturer's instructions. The primers (Sigma–Aldrich) used are listed (**Supp. Table 2**). RT-

qPCR was performed in duplicate for each gene using the CFX Connect™ Real-Time PCR Detection

System (Bio-rad) and SYBRGreen PCR Master Mix (Eurogenetec). Data were analyzed using CFX

Manager™ Software (Bio-rad) to determine the quantification cycle (Cq) values. Results were

determined using the formula $2^{-\Delta Cq}$, with $\Delta CQ = Cq_{gene} - Cq_{(mean\ (bActine, Gapdh, Hprt))}$.

Data and statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean ± SEM. Statistical significance was set at *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P <$

0.001, and ****$P < 0.0001$ using GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software Inc.). Data normality was

assessed using the D'Agostino–Pearson and Shapiro–Wilk tests. Depending on the distribution,

differences between groups were analyzed using a parametric *t*-test or a nonparametric Mann–

Whitney test (two groups), or by one-way ANOVA/Kruskal–Wallis or two-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Results

Primo-colonizing bacteria exert distinct immunostimulatory effects on neonatal lung mucosa *ex vivo* model.

The goal was to challenge the concept that a strain capable of promoting a protective type 1 immunity in the lungs during early-life. To evaluate the immunostimulatory effects of primo-colonizing bacterial strains (**Supp. Table 1**) on the neonatal lung, we established a PCLS-based screening assay using lung tissue from 6-day-old mice, an *ex vivo* model that recapitulates pulmonary cytokine production[32]. PCLS were exposed to each strain at MOI=50 (**Fig. 1A**). Among 20 strains tested, two (strains 1 and 11) caused significant cytotoxicity after 16h and were excluded, while most showed cytotoxicity levels comparable to the control medium (mean $= 21.3\% \pm 1.1\%$), indicating no harmful effects (**Supp Fig. 1A**). Cytokines were quantified using a 15-plex assay and grouped by functional category (pro-inflammatory, type 1 immunity, type 2 immunity, Th17/Th22/Th9-responses, and lymphocyte proliferation, **Supp. Fig. S1B-E**). Both the nature and magnitude of cytokine production by PCLS varied across bacterial strains. Strains 2, 19 and 16 induced high levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNF-α and IL-6, together with robust a type 2 immune response, including IL-10 (**Supp. Fig. S1B and D**). In contrast, most other strains induced low cytokine production. A bacterial strain, the strain 17, stood out from the others. Strain 17, identified as *Escherichia coli* by 16S sequencing and mass spectrometry (**Supp. Table 1**), also inducing type 2 cytokines (**Supp. Fig. S1D**) but was unique in triggering a strong type 1 profile, characterized by a high production of IFN-γ and IL-12p70 (**Fig. 1B**), and increased IL-22 and IL-9 secretion (**Supp. Fig. S1E**). To highlight strain-specific immune signatures, cytokine levels were expressed as fold-change relative to control PCLS and visualized as heat map (**Fig. 1C**), with hierarchical clustering revealing groups of strains with similar immunostimulatory patterns. Overall, primo-colonizing lung bacteria displayed distinct immunostimulatory capacities in PCLS from neonatal mice, with strain 17 standing out for its strongly type 1-skewed immune profile and lack of cytotoxicity.

Strain 17 treatment of neonates attenuates the long-term pulmonary consequences of early-life RSV infection upon rechallenge in adulthood.

In vitro, bacterial strain 17 demonstrated a pronounced enhancement of type 1 immune responses. To assess the *in vivo* relevance of its effect, we first investigated whether intranasal (i.n.) administration of strain 17 (10^6 CFU; dose and method previously shown to deliver sufficient bacteria to the lungs[19]) was pathogenic in neonatal mice. No mortality was observed in neonatal mice following administration of strain 17 (data not shown). A modest elevation in neutrophil counts was detected in BALs, although total cell numbers remained unchanged (**Fig. S2**). Thus, we employed a previously described model of adult RSV re-exposure to investigate the ability of strain 17 to promote protective

immunity and counteract early-life immunopathological priming[8]. Three-day-old mice were treated

intranasally with strain 17 or PBS vehicle at days 3, 5, 8, and 10 days of age. At 6 days old, mice

were infected intranasally with RSV, followed by a second exposure in adulthood (**Fig. 2A**). Weight

change was monitored (**Fig. 2B**), and antibody responses (**Fig. 2C-D)** and cell infiltration in BALs

were assessed (**Fig. S3B-E**). As expected, mice initially infected as pups and re-exposed to RSV in

adulthood (PBS/RSV/RSV group) lost weight for over the 14 days post-infection (d.p.i), whereas

mice treated with strain 17 and infected with RSV as neonates (strain 17/RSV/RSV group) lost little

weight and regained their initial weight by 8 d.p.i., consistently showing a better although not

stastically significant, maintenance of body weight compared with controls (**Fig. 2B**). We next

investigated whether neonatal strain administration would impact the anti-RSV IgG1 response

indicative of type 2 immunity and expected for adults upon RSV reexposure[8]. As expected, the re-

exposure to RSV in adulhood induced a significant production of anti-RSV-IgG1 at 14 d.p.i. in the

PBS/RSV/RSV group (**Fig. 2C**). In contrast, strain 17-treated neonates showed an early induction of

anti-RSV-IgG2a antibody production as soon as 7 d.p.i. (**Fig. 2D**) and no significant increase in IgG1

at 14 d.p.i. (**Fig. 2C**). Finally, we monitored cellular inflammation. At 7 d.p.i., total BAL cell numbers

were significantly higher in mice first infected as neonates and re-exposed as adults (PBS/RSV/RSV,

$2.51 \times 10^5 \pm 0.38 \times 10^5$ cells) than in mice infected only as adults (PBS/Mock/RSV, $1.26 \times 10^5 \pm 0.33$

$\times 10^5$ cells ; **Fig. S3B**, p < 0.05). BAL cell counts in strain 17/RSV/RSV-treated mice did not differ

significantly from the PBS/RSV/RSV group (**Fig. S3B**). Macrophage and neutrophil numbers were

similar across groups at 7 and 9 d.p.i. (**Fig. S3C–D**), while the overall leukocyte increase was mainly

due to lymphocyte recruitment ($0.98 \times 10^5 \pm 0.19 \times 10^5$ cells in PBS/RSV/RSV *vs.* $0.81 \times 10^5 \pm 0.24$

$\times 10^5$ cells in strain 17/RSV/RSV; **Fig. S3E**), which persisted until 9 d.p.i. despite declining over

time. Significant eosinophil recruitment was observed in the BAL of PBS/RSV/RSV mice at 7 d.p.i.

($0.08 \times 10^5 \pm 0.012 \times 10^5$ cells) and persisted at 9 d.p.i. ($0.065 \times 10^5 \pm 0.019 \times 10^5$ cells), but was

absent in PBS/Mock/RSV mice, reflecting type 2 immune priming from early-life RSV infection

(**Fig. 2E–F**). Notably, eosinophil infiltration was nearly abolished in mice treated with strain 17 prior

to the first RSV infection ($0.006 \times 10^5 \pm 0.004 \times 10^5$ cells at 7 d.p.i.). Accordingly, the strain

17/RSV/RSV group had 9.6- and 3.4-fold fewer eosinophils in the BAL compared to PBS/RSV/RSV

animals at 7 and 9 d.p.i., respectively. Neonatal treatment with strain 17 did not affect overall

leukocyte infiltration upon adult RSV re-exposure but prevented immunopathologic eosinophilia.

Altogether, these data indicate that the early-life presence of strain 17 during the first RSV infection

of mice promoted a shift in the RSV-specific antibody toward a type 1 profile (higher IgG2a, lower

IgG1), associated with minimal eosinophil recruitment and improved disease outcomes (trend to

maintain their weight).

Exposure to strain 17 reduces RSV replication in PCLS.

We next focused on the early events following RSV infection to explore how strain 17 affects early innate antiviral response. To assess whether strain 17 influences early-life RSV susceptibility, we performed co-exposure experiments using PCLS from 6-day-old mice. PCLS were first exposed to strain 17 (50 CFU/well as previously used[19]) to elicit its immunostimulatory effects, and then infected with luciferase-expressing RSV (RSV-Luc) or mock-treated for 16h to evaluate viral replication (**Fig. 3A**). Strains 16, 24, and 25, displaying distinct cytokine profiles (**see Fig. S1**), were included as comparators. Cytotoxicity induced by these strains, RSV-Luc, or their combination did not exceed 21% and was comparable to that of the control medium. Thus, co-exposure did not affect PCLS viability and supporting the safe use of these bacteria during RSV infection (**Fig. 3B**). Viral replication was quantified in PCLS lysates using a luciferase activity assay (**Fig. 3C**). PCLS exposed to strain 25 showed a slight increase in luciferase activity compared to the control condition (not statistically different), suggesting a potential enhancement of RSV replication associated with the presence of strain 25. Pre-exposure to strains 16 or 24 resulted in only a slight reduction in RSV replication (non stastistically significant). In contrast, exposure to strain 17 resulted in a strong significant reduction in luciferase activity compared to both control and PCLS exposed to strain 16 or 24 conditions. Altogether, these results suggest that pre-exposure to lung primo-colonizing commensal bacteria can modulate RSV replication in PCLS from 6-day-old mice, with strain 17 emerging as the most effective strain in reducing RSV replication.

Exposure to strain 17 enhances the innate immune response of neonatal AM to RSV infection.

We also investigated the effect of strain 17 on AMs, the main pulmonary resident immune cells, involved in IFN-I production during RSV infection[33]. AMs isolated from BAL of 6-day-old mice were first exposed to strain 17 (50 CFU/well as previously used[19]) or control medium, followed by exposure to RSV (**Fig. 4A**). After 16h of incubation, exposure of AMs to strain 17 alone induce a slight but unsignificant production of IL-6, TNF-α, and IFN-I in the supernatants compared to basal control conditions (no strain, no RSV, **Fig. 4B-C**). When AMs exposed to strain 17 were subsequently infected with RSV, they produced markedly more inflammatory (IL-6 and TNF-α, **Fig. 4B**) and antiviral (IFN-α and IFN-β, **Fig. 4C**) cytokines than RSV-infected AMs without bacterial pre-exposure. Notably, RSV-infected AMs produced 3-fold higher levels of IFN-I when exposed to strain 17. Thus, neonatal AMs exposure to strain 17 improved their ability to mount an innate antiviral immune response.

Pulmonary exposure to strain 17 decreases the susceptibility of neonatal mice to RSV infection.

Collectively, these *in vitro* results identify strain 17 as non cytotoxic strain capable of enhancing IFN-
I production and limiting RSV replication. We therefore evaluated whether pulmonary exposure to
strain 17 confers protection against RSV infection in neonatal mice. Additionally, we performed a
dose-response study to determine the minimal amount of strain 17 required to achieve its in vivo
immunomodulatory effect. Neonatal mice received three different amounts of strain 17 or PBS diluent
intranasally at 3- and 5-days old to modulate the neonatal lung mucosa before infection with RSV-
Luc at day 6 (**Fig. 5A**). Mice were euthanized 1 or 2 d.p.i. to assess viral replication in the nasal
cavities and lungs, as well as the associated immune response. As previously shown[9, 13], i.n. RSV-
Luc infection of neonatal mice led to rapid viral replication in the nasal cavity, reaching $1.42 \times 10^5 \pm$
0.38×10^5 and $0.89 \times 10^5 \pm 0.28 \times 10^5$ photons/mg at 1 and 2 d.p.i., respectively (**Fig. 5B**). In PBS-
treated neonates, lung replication was detectable at 1 d.p.i. ($1.02 \times 10^4 \pm 0.38 \times 10^4$ photons/mg) and
increased by 2 d.p.i. ($2.09 \times 10^4 \pm 0.32 \times 10^4$ photons/mg), confirmed by RSV *N gene* expression
(**Fig. 5C-D**). Strain 17 significantly reduced nasal viral replication at 1 d.p.i. at all doses (3-4-fold,
Fig. 5B), whereas only the 10^6 CFU dose significantly lowered lung replication ($0.098 \times 10^4 \pm 0.047$
$\times 10^4$ photons/mg, **Fig. 5C**). The 10^5 CFU dose showed delayed lung protection at 2 d.p.i., while the
10^3 CFU dose had no effect, indicating that upper airway protection requires lower doses, whereas
lung protection needs higher or delayed dosing (**Fig. 5B-D**). RSV infection in neonatal mouse lungs
induced low *IFN-I* gene expression at 1 d.p.i. (**Fig. 6A**), and led to a slight, non-significant, increase
in BAL cellularity between 1 and 2 d.p.i. (**Fig. 6B**), primarily due to neutrophil recruitment (**Fig. 6D**),
as previously shown[9, 12, 13]. In neonates treated with high doses of strain 17, *IFN-I gene* expressions,
and notably IFN-α, were increased at 1 d.p.i. (**Fig. 6A**), while total BAL cells (**Fig. 6B**) and
macrophages (**Fig. 6C**) remained unchanged. In contrast, neutrophil recruitment was significantly
enhanced from 1 to 2 d.p.i., with an ~8-fold increase at 2 d.p.i. in RSV-infected mice pre-treated with
the highest doses of strain 17 (**Fig. 6D**). Overall, these results demonstrate that neonatal exposure to
strain 17 enhances early innate immune responses, leading to reduced RSV replication, dose-
dependent protection of the lungs and a strong protective effect in the nasal cavity.

Strain 17 limits RSV spread in a translational airway model.
Finally, to validate the anti-RSV effect of strain 17 in a translational model, human primary airway
epithelial cells cultured at the air-liquid interface were pre-exposed to strain 17 and subsequently
infected with mCherry-expressing RSV to visualize cellular RSV replication (**Fig. 7A**). Without
bacterial pre-exposure, RSV replication was detectable at 48h post-infection, as shown by mCherry
fluorescence (**Fig. 7B**). In contrast, strain 17 exposure markedly reduced mCherry activity compared
to the control (**Fig. 7B-C**). No cytotoxicity was detected (**Fig. 7D**), and neither RSV exposure nor
treatment with strain 17 induced the production of cytokines (IL-6, TNF-α or IP-10, **Fig. Sup S4**) in

these experimental conditions. Type III interferons (IFN-λ) are produced by airway epithelial cells infected with influenza virus earlier than IFN-I, helping to restrict viral spread without provoking inflammation[34]. As expected, RSV infection induced IFN-λ production in epithelial cells (**Fig. 7E**). Strain 17 alone did not induce IFN-λ and did not enhance the IFN-λ response to RSV infection; if anything, it tended to reduce secretion. Overall, the effect of strain 17 is therefore unlikely to be explained by an increase in IFN-λ. We then measured another antiviral factor, the antimicrobial peptide human β-defensin 2, in epithelial cells (**Fig. 7F**). This cationic molecule, secreted by lung epithelial cells, blocks RSV entry by destabilizing its envelope[35]. Strain 17 strongly induced β-defensin 2 (2040 ± 571 pg/mL *vs* 65 ± 19 pg/mL in controls), whereas RSV alone triggered low levels (120 ± 32 pg/mL). Thus, pre-exposure to strain 17 markedly reduced RSV propagation in a human airway epithelium model without cytotoxicity, likely *via* enhanced β-defensin 2 secretion.

Discussion

The lung microbiota and its influence on RSV infection severity have recently been identified as critical research areas in the fight against bronchiolitis in young children[23, 24 21]. While modulation of the lung microbiota or metabolites appears to be a promising strategy for strengthening immune defenses in adults[36, 37], the impact during the critical period of lung mucosal development and susceptibility to RSV infection is yet unknown[28]. In this study, we demonstrated that the immune responses of neonatal mice to RSV infection, as well as their long-term consequences, could be favorably modulated by lung primo-colonizing bacterial strains given shortly after birth. In particular, using complementary cellular and *in vivo* approaches, we identified a bacterial strain 17 (*E. coli*), that promoted protective type 1 immune responses and limited RSV replication in both mouse neonatal models and human epithelial cells.

We employed a PCLS-based screening platform from neonatal mice to assess cytokine responses to a collection of primo-colonizing bacterial strains isolated from mouse neonatal lungs. This strain collection encompasses major bacterial families, ranging from *Staphylococcus* to *Lactobacillus*. While most *Lactobacillus* strains exhibited low immunostimulatory activity on neonatal PCLS, the majority of *Staphylococcus* strains induced a pro-inflammatory cytokine profile. In contrast, strain 17, identified as *Escherichia coli*, uniquely induced a strong polarized type-1 cytokine response, particularly IFN-γ and IL-12p70, without causing cytotoxicity, suggesting its potential to prime antiviral immunity in the neonatal lung. However, strain 17 also induced the production of IL-9, a cytokine linked to asthma and detected in airway aspirates from patients with severe bronchiolitis[38]. Its role in early-life pulmonary mucosa and RSV pathology remains poorly understood[39]. Interestingly, strain 17 also induced the secretion of IL-22, which is known to promote epithelial barrier regeneration[40], and has a beneficial inhibitory effect on RSV infection has been demonstrated in a neonatal mouse model[41]. Although cytokine accumulation during 24-hour PCLS-based screening prevents the evaluation of secretion kinetics or autocrine effects, this approach nevertheless reveals the broad potential of early-life lung primo-colonizing bacteria to induce immune stimulation and polarization. Strain 17 differed markedly from the other lung primo-colonizing strains tested due to its unique ability to limit RSV replication in both PCLS and a human airway epithelium model, underscoring its translational relevance. It is interesting to note that strains taken individually may display disease-specific immunobeneficial effects. Indeed, strain 24, previously shown to be protective in a juvenile asthma model[19], had neither a protective nor a detrimental effect on RSV replication in this study. These findings underscore the diverse immunomodulatory potential of bacteria within the pulmonary microbiota. Functionally, the antiviral activity of strain 17 in human epithelial cells appeared to be independent of IFN-λ and was associated with increased production of

β-defensin 2, a known host defense peptide capable of destabilizing the viral envelope, thereby

indirectly interfering with RSV entry and/or propagation[35]. Our study also demonstrated that strain

17 can prime anti-RSV immunity in neonatal AMs by enhancing their production of IFN-I. Thus,

strain 17 confers innate protective immunity to the lung mucosa in early-life.

Our *in vivo* studies confirmed the ability of strain 17 to reduce RSV replication in the upper and

lower respiratory tracts of neonatal mice. The degree of protection was dose-dependent and associated

with an induction of IFN-I expression, as well as increased neutrophil recruitment. The role of the

neutrophils recruited in strain 17-treated mice, with or without RSV infection, remains unclear,

particularly regarding their protective *versus* pathological effects in neonates[42]. Nevertheless, early-

life exposure to strain 17 mitigated long-term immunopathology upon re-exposure to RSV in

adulthood. Mice treated with strain 17 exhibited a relatively stable body weight curve with no major

alterations following viral reinfection, a shift toward type 1 immunity (increased IgG2a, decreased

IgG1), and reduced eosinophilic infiltration. These data indicate that early-life administration of strain

17 induces protective immunomodulation in the lung mucosa, mitigating the long-term consequences

of type 2 immune imprinting established by neonatal RSV infection. Although colonization was not

assessed, our study highlights the importance of dosing relative to the targeted respiratory region. For

instance, the instillation of 10^6 CFU into the lungs of a neonatal mouse represents a substantial

bacterial load compared to the naturally sparse neonatal lung microbiota[19]. Higher doses were

required to confer early protection in the lungs, whereas lower doses sufficed for the upper airways.

This likely reflects the larger tissue surface of the lungs that must be exposed to the bacteria, rather

than differences in microbiota density, which is already low in the pulmonary mucosa[43]. However,

before proposing this bacterial strain as a therapeutic candidate for early immunomodulation to

prevent acute and chronic RSV-related diseases, it is essential to elucidate the molecular pathways

underlying its immunostimulatory effects in both epithelial and immune cells. Future studies should

investigate whether the beneficial effects of strain 17 require live microorganisms, which colonize

tissues and are likely more effective than inert components to produce metabolites. Testing

conditioned supernatants could then clarify the contribution of bacterial metabolic activity, such as

acetate production *in vitro* (data not shown), a metabolite known to enhance antiviral responses in

AMs during RSV infection[44, 45]. Indeed, in an adult context, airway administration of *Lactobacillus*

or *Corynebacterium* strains[46, 47], or a standardized bacterial lysate derived from human respiratory

strains[48] is associated with improved resistance of mice to RSV challenge. Morever, higher acetate

levels boosts the IFN-β response of AMs and epithelial ISG expression, reducing viral load and

pulmonary inflammation in RSV-infected adult mice[44, 45]. It has been shown that *E. coli* probiotic

strains, can have both deleterious and beneficial effects on digestive health[49]. So, before exploiting a

such promising strain as a probiotic to enhance respiratory defenses, a global safety assessement is

required.

Overall, this study reveals that the immune responses of neonatal mice to RSV infection, as well

as their long-term consequences, can be favorably modulated by early-life lung-colonizing bacterial

strains. These results reinforce the notion that the neonatal lung microbiota plays a key role in shaping

pulmonary immune responses, and that its disruption, for example by antibiotics, can have profound

and lasting effects on host immunity and respiratory vulnerability[50]. A recent study in pediatric RSV

cohorts indicates that persistent respiratory symptoms during the convalescence phase are associated

with disruptions to the respiratory microbiota[25]. It would be interesting to explore further the potential

benefits of primo-colonizing strains during recovery.

References

1. Liu, L. *et al.* Global, regional, and national causes of under-5 mortality in 2000-15: an updated systematic analysis with implications for the Sustainable Development Goals. *Lancet* **388**, 3027–3035 (2016).

2. Zar, H.J. *et al.* Early-life respiratory syncytial virus disease and long-term respiratory health. *Lancet Respir Med* **12**, 810–821 (2024).

3. Dieussaert, I. *et al.* RSV Prefusion F Protein-Based Maternal Vaccine - Preterm Birth and Other Outcomes. *N Engl J Med* **390**, 1009–1021 (2024).

4. Mahase, E. FDA pauses all infant RSV vaccine trials after rise in severe illnesses. *BMJ* **387**, q2852 (2024).

5. Cormier, S.A., You, D. & Honnegowda, S. The use of a neonatal mouse model to study respiratory syncytial virus infections. *Expert Rev Anti Infect Ther* **8**, 1371–1380 (2010).

6. Morris, S.B. *et al.* Long-term alterations in lung epithelial cells after EL-RSV infection exacerbate allergic responses through IL-1beta-induced pathways. *Mucosal Immunol* **17**, 1072–1088 (2024).

7. Malinczak, C.A. *et al.* Early-life pulmonary viral infection leads to long-term functional and lower airway structural changes in the lungs. *Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol* **326**, L280–L291 (2024).

8. Culley, F.J., Pollott, J. & Openshaw, P.J. Age at first viral infection determines the pattern of T cell-mediated disease during reinfection in adulthood. *J Exp Med* **196**, 1381–1386 (2002).

9. Laubreton, D. *et al.* Regulatory B Lymphocytes Colonize the Respiratory Tract of Neonatal Mice and Modulate Immune Responses of Alveolar Macrophages to RSV Infection in IL-10-dependant Manner *Viruses* **12** (2020).

10. Hall, C.B., Douglas, R.G., Jr., Simons, R.L. & Geiman, J.M. Interferon production in children with respiratory syncytial, influenza, and parainfluenza virus infections. *J Pediatr* **93**, 28–32 (1978).

11. Hijano, D.R. *et al.* Role of Type I Interferon (IFN) in the Respiratory Syncytial Virus (RSV) Immune Response and Disease Severity. *Front Immunol* **10**, 566 (2019).

12. Cormier, S.A. *et al.* Limited type I interferons and plasmacytoid dendritic cells during neonatal respiratory syncytial virus infection permit immunopathogenesis upon reinfection. *J Virol* **88**, 9350–9360 (2014).

13. Remot, A. *et al.* Flt3 ligand improves the innate response to respiratory syncytial virus and limits lung disease upon RSV reexposure in neonate mice. *Eur J Immunol* **46**, 874–884 (2016).

14. Torow, N., Marsland, B.J., Hornef, M.W. & Gollwitzer, E.S. Neonatal mucosal immunology. *Mucosal Immunol* **10**, 5–17 (2017).

15. de Kleer, I.M. *et al.* Perinatal Activation of the Interleukin-33 Pathway Promotes Type 2 Immunity in the Developing Lung. *Immunity* **45**, 1285–1298 (2016).

16. Saluzzo, S. *et al.* First-Breath-Induced Type 2 Pathways Shape the Lung Immune Environment. *Cell Rep* **18**, 1893–1905 (2017).

17. Gollwitzer, E.S. *et al.* Lung microbiota promotes tolerance to allergens in neonates via PD-L1. *Nat Med* **20**, 642–647 (2014).

18. Pattaroni, C., Marsland, B.J. & Harris, N.L. Early-Life Host-Microbial Interactions and Asthma Development: A Lifelong Impact? *Immunol Rev* **330**, e70019 (2025).

19. Remot, A. *et al.* Bacteria isolated from lung modulate asthma susceptibility in mice. *ISME J* **11**, 1061–1074 (2017).

20. Pattaroni, C. *et al.* Bacterial communities co-develop with respiratory immunity early in life, linking dysbiosis to systemic monocyte signature and wheezing. *Sci Adv* **11**, eadw1410 (2025).

21. Marquant, Q. *et al.* The microbiota plays a critical role in the reactivity of lung immune components to innate ligands. *FASEB J* **35**, e21348 (2021).

22. de Steenhuijsen Piters, W.A.A. *et al.* Early-life viral infections are associated with disadvantageous immune and microbiota profiles and recurrent respiratory infections. *Nat Microbiol* **7**, 224–237 (2022).

23. Schippa, S. *et al.* Nasal Microbiota in RSV Bronchiolitis. *Microorganisms* **8** (2020).

24. Yagi, K., Asai, N., Huffnagle, G.B., Lukacs, N.W. & Fonseca, W. Early-Life Lung and Gut Microbiota Development and Respiratory Syncytial Virus Infection. *Front Immunol* **13**, 877771 (2022).

25. Kristensen, M. *et al.* The respiratory microbiome is linked to the severity of RSV infections and the persistence of symptoms in children. *Cell Rep Med* **5**, 101836 (2024).

26. Rosas-Salazar, C. *et al.* Nasopharyngeal Lactobacillus is associated with a reduced risk of childhood wheezing illnesses following acute respiratory syncytial virus infection in infancy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* **142**, 1447–1456 e1449 (2018).

27. Bernard-Raichon, L. *et al.* A Pulmonary Lactobacillus murinus Strain Induces Th17 and RORgammat(+) Regulatory T Cells and Reduces Lung Inflammation in Tuberculosis. *J Immunol* **207**, 1857–1870 (2021).

28. de Steenhuijsen Piters, W.A.A., Binkowska, J. & Bogaert, D. Early Life Microbiota and Respiratory Tract Infections. *Cell Host Microbe* **28**, 223–232 (2020).

29. Rameix-Welti, M.A. *et al.* Visualizing the replication of respiratory syncytial virus in cells and in living mice. *Nat Commun* **5**, 5104 (2014).

30. Descamps, D. *et al.* Toll-like receptor 5 (TLR5), IL-1beta secretion, and asparagine endopeptidase are critical factors for alveolar macrophage phagocytosis and bacterial killing. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **109**, 1619–1624 (2012).

31. Drajac, C. *et al.* Control of IFN-I responses by the aminopeptidase IRAP in neonatal C57BL/6 alveolar macrophages during RSV infection. *Mucosal Immunol* **14**, 949–962 (2021).

32. Liu, G. *et al.* Use of precision cut lung slices as a translational model for the study of lung biology. *Respir Res* **20**, 162 (2019).

33. Makris, S., Bajorek, M., Culley, F.J., Goritzka, M. & Johansson, C. Alveolar Macrophages Can Control Respiratory Syncytial Virus Infection in the Absence of Type I Interferons. *J Innate Immun* **8**, 452–463 (2016).

34. Galani, I.E. *et al.* Interferon-lambda Mediates Non-redundant Front-Line Antiviral Protection against Influenza Virus Infection without Compromising Host Fitness. *Immunity* **46**, 875–890 e876 (2017).

35. Kota, S. *et al.* Role of human beta-defensin-2 during tumor necrosis factor-alpha/NF-kappaB-mediated innate antiviral response against human respiratory syncytial virus. *J Biol Chem* **283**, 22417–22429 (2008).

36. Drajac, C., Laubreton, D., Riffault, S. & Descamps, D. Pulmonary Susceptibility of Neonates to Respiratory Syncytial Virus Infection: A Problem of Innate Immunity? *J Immunol Res* **2017**, 8734504 (2017).

37. Fonseca, W., Lukacs, N.W. & Ptaschinski, C. Factors Affecting the Immunity to Respiratory Syncytial Virus: From Epigenetics to Microbiome. *Front Immunol* **9**, 226 (2018).

38. McNamara, P.S. *et al.* Interleukin 9 production in the lungs of infants with severe respiratory syncytial virus bronchiolitis. *Lancet* **363**, 1031–1037 (2004).

39. Dodd, J.S. *et al.* IL-9 regulates pathology during primary and memory responses to respiratory syncytial virus infection. *J Immunol* **183**, 7006–7013 (2009).

40. Dean, L.S. *et al.* I don't know about you, but I'm feeling IL-22. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev* **80**, 1–11 (2024).

41. Das, S. *et al.* Interleukin-22 Inhibits Respiratory Syncytial Virus Production by Blocking Virus-Mediated Subversion of Cellular Autophagy. *iScience* **23**, 101256 (2020).

42. Tahamtan, A. *et al.* Neutrophils in respiratory syncytial virus infection: From harmful effects to therapeutic opportunities. *Br J Pharmacol* **178**, 515–530 (2021).

43. Ozcam, M. & Lynch, S.V. The gut-airway microbiome axis in health and respiratory diseases. *Nat Rev Microbiol* **22**, 492–506 (2024).

44. Antunes, K.H. *et al.* Microbiota-derived acetate protects against respiratory syncytial virus infection through a GPR43-type 1 interferon response. *Nat Commun* **10**, 3273 (2019).

45. Ji, J.J. *et al.* Probiotics protect against RSV infection by modulating the microbiota-alveolar-macrophage axis. *Acta Pharmacol Sin* **42**, 1630–1641 (2021).

46. Villena, J. *et al.* Orally administered Lactobacillus rhamnosus modulates the respiratory immune response triggered by the viral pathogen-associated molecular pattern poly(I:C). *BMC Immunol* **13**, 53 (2012).

47. Kanmani, P. *et al.* Respiratory Commensal Bacteria Corynebacterium pseudodiphtheriticum Improves Resistance of Infant Mice to Respiratory Syncytial Virus and Streptococcus pneumoniae Superinfection. *Front Microbiol* **8**, 1613 (2017).

48. Antunes, K.H. *et al.* Airway Administration of Bacterial Lysate OM-85 Protects Mice Against Respiratory Syncytial Virus Infection. *Front Immunol* **13**, 867022 (2022).

561   49. Nougayrede, J.P. *et al.* A Toxic Friend: Genotoxic and Mutagenic Activity of the Probiotic Strain
562   Escherichia coli Nissle 1917. *mSphere* **6**, e0062421 (2021).
563   50. Perdijk, O. *et al.* Antibiotic-driven dysbiosis in early life disrupts indole-3-propionic acid
564   production and exacerbates allergic airway inflammation in adulthood. *Immunity* **57**, 1939–1954
565   e1937 (2024).
566
567

Figure legends (max 10 avec les tableaux)

Fig. 1: Cytokine production by precision-cut lung slices (PCLS) from neonatal mice varies in

response to exposure to lung primo-colonizing bacteria. **A**. Experimental design. The lungs from 6-

day-old mice were isolated and cut with a Krumdieck tissue slicer to obtain PCLS. They were next

exposed to bacteria (50 CFU/well) or cultured in medium control. Supernatants were collected 16h

after stimulation with bacterial strains and PCLS were lysed. **B**. Secretion of cytokines associated

with type 1 immune response (IFN-β, IL-12p70). Results are expressed as mean ± SEM and represent

a pool of five independent experiments (n = 2-5 biological replicate samples/condition). *$P < 0.05$,

**$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$ and ****$P < 0.0001$ between the control medium and the strain-exposed

condition (ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post-hoc test). **C**. The heat map

illustrates the fold-change (FC) of cytokine production induced after bacterial exposure. For each

strain and cytokine secretion, the FC were calculated using the following formula: FC = (average of

the stimulated conditions)/(average of the control conditions). FC were entered into Morpheus online

software (Broad Institute) to obtain the heatmaps.

Fig. 2 : Early-life airway administration of strain 17 attenuates the long-term pulmonary

consequences of neonatal RSV infection during reinfection in adulthood. **A**. Experimental design.

Three-day-old mice were treated intranasally with bacterium 17 (10^6 CFU, i.n., 10 µL) or PBS vehicle

at days 3, 5, 8, and 10 days of age. At 6 days old, mice were infected intranasally with RSV-A2 (2.3

$\times 10^4$ PFU in 10 µL), followed by a second infection with RSV-A2 (2.3 $\times 10^5$ PFU in 100 µL, i.n.) at

8 weeks of age. Mice were euthanized at 7, 9 or 14 days post-reinfection (d.p.i.) to assess cellular

infiltration in the BALs and blood was collected. **B**. Weight evolution after the second infection.

Results are expressed as mean ± SEM and presented as a percentage of the starting weight (n = 4 per

group). **C-D**. Anti-RSV antibody assays. Serum was used to quantify anti-RSV IgG1 (**C**) or IgG2a

(**D**) antibodies by ELISA. Results are expressed as the mean ± SEM (n = 4-5 per group). *$P < 0.05$,

$P < 0.01$, Mann-Whitney test. **E-F. The infiltration of eosinophils in BALs was assessed by May-

Grünwald-Giemsa staining at 7 or 9 d.p.i.. Results are expressed as mean ± SEM. Data are

representative of two independent experiments (n = 5-9 per group). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, Mann-

Whitney test.

Fig. 3: RSV replication in neonatal PCLS is differentially affected by primo-colonizing commensal

bacteria. **A**. Experimental design. The lungs from 6-day-old mice were isolated and cut with a

Krumdieck tissue slicer to obtain PCLS. They were next exposed to strains 16, 17, 24 or 25 (50

CFU/well) or cultured in control medium. PCLS were infected with RSV expressing luciferase (RSV-

Luc, 7.187 x 10^4 PFU/well) or mock control (-) 3h after bacterial stimulation. Supernatants were

collected 16h after bacterial stimulation and PCLS were lysed. **B**. Cytotoxicity observed in PCLS was

measured by LDH activity assay. Results are expressed as the mean ± SEM and represent a pool of

four independent experiments (n = 5-18 per group in simplicate). **C**. RSV-Luc replication was

assessed by measuring luciferase activity in lysates of PCLS exposed or unexposed to strains. Results

are expressed as mean ± SEM and represent a pool of four independent experiments (n = 6-21 per

group in duplicate). *$P < 0.05$ and ****$P < 0.0001$ between the control medium or the strain-exposed

condition (ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post-hoc test).

Fig. 4: Cytokines and type I interferon (IFN-I) production by RSV-infected alveolar macrophages

(AMs) from neonatal mice is enhanced in response to exposure to strain 17. **A**. Experimental design.

AMs isolated from BAL of neonatal mice were exposed to strain 17 (50 CFU/well) or cultured in

medium control. AMs were infected with rRSV-long (MOI = 5) 3h after bacterial stimulation.

Supernatants were collected 16h after bacterial stimulation and AMs were lysed. The production of

pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6 and TNF-α, **B**) and IFN-I (IFN-α and IFN-β, **C**) was measured in

supernatants using multiplex immunoassay. Data are representative of two independent experiments.

Means ± SEM are represented. *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$ and ****$P < 0.0001$ (2way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test).

Fig. 5: Early-life airway administration of strain 17 restricts RSV replication in neonatal mice. **A**.

Experimental design. Neonatal mice were treated with different quantities of strain 17 (10^3, 10^5 or

10^6 CFU) or PBS vehicle at 3 and 5-days old (i.n., 10 μL). At 6-days old, mice were infected with

RSV-Luc (7.2 x 10^4 PFU, 10 μL, i.n) and were euthanized at 1 d.p.i or 2 d.p.i. to assess viral

replication by luciferase activity assay in the lysats of nasal cavities (**B**) and lungs (**C**). **D**. The viral

replication was evaluated by quantification of the RSV *N gene* expression. The level of expression

was calculated by the formula $2^{-\Delta Cq}$ with $\Delta CQ = Cq_{N\,gene}-Cq_{reference\,genes}$. Results are expressed as mean

± SEM. Data are representative of two independent experiment (n = 5-8 per group). *$P < 0.05$, **P

< 0.01, ***$P < 0.001$, Mann-Whitney test.

Fig. 6: Early-life airway administration of strain 17 enhances neonatal pulmonary immunity against

RSV. Neonatal mice were treated with different quantities of strain 17 (10^3, 10^5 or 10^6 CFU) or PBS

vehicle at 3 and 5-days old (i.n., 10 μL). At 6 days old, mice were infected with RSV-Luc (7.2 x 10^4

PFU, 10 μL, i.n) and were euthanized at 1 or 2 d.p.i. **A**. *IFN-I gene* expression was measured by qRT-

PCR in lung lysates at 1 d.p.i.. Gene expression levels were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta Cq}$ method, with

Cq values normalized to housekeeping genes. **B**. Cell counts were performed on BAL samples at 1

or 2 d.p.i.. Cell infiltration in BALs was assessed by May-Grünwald-Giemsa staining to identify and

differentiate macrophages (**C**) and polynuclear neutrophils (**D**) at 1 or 2 d.p.i.. Results are expressed

as mean ± SEM. Data are representative of two independent experiments (n = 5-8 per group). *$P <$

0.05, **$P <$ 0.01, Mann-Whitney test.

Fig. 7: RSV replication in human primary airway epithelial cells is reduced by the pre-exposure to

strain 17. **A**. Experimental design. Human primary bronchial epithelial cells cultured at the air liquid

interface (MucilAir™) were first exposed to strain 17 (10^3 CFU/well) for 3h, followed by RSV

expressing mCherry (RSV-mCherry, MOI = 0.1) infection or an incubation with mock for a further

3h. Supernatants and cell lysates were collected 48h after incubation. RSV replication was evaluated

by detecting mCherry using microscopy (**B**, three images representative of six inserts) or a

fluorescence plate reader (**C**). Results are expressed as the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI)

observed in lysats of RSV-mCherry-infected cells, after subtraction of the background MFI from

mock-infected controls (± SEM), and represent a pool of two independent experiments (n = 3 inserts

per group per experiment, **$P <$ 0.01, Mann-Whitney test). **D**. Cytotoxicity observed in MucilAir™

was measured by LDH activity assay. Results are expressed as mean ± SEM. **E**. Bioactive IFN-λ was

evaluated by measuring the response of HEK-Blue™ IFN-λ cells to the supernatants. SEAP activity

was assessed using QUANTI-Blue™ Solution. The optical density (OD) at 630 nm is shown as mean

± SEM. **F**. β-defensin 2 secretion in supernatants was evaluated by ELISA. **E-F**. Data represent a

pool of two independent experiments (n = 9 inserts per group, ***$P <$ 0.001, ****$P <$ 0.0001, 2way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test).

<u>Supplemental figure legend</u>

Supplemental Fig. 1: Cytokines production of precision-cut lung slices (PCLS) from neonatal

mice in response to exposure to lung primo-colonizing bacteria. The lungs from 6-day-old mice

were isolated and cut with a Krumdieck tissue slicer to obtain PCLS. They were then exposed to

bacteria (50 CFU/well) or cultured in control medium. Supernatants were collected 16h after

stimulation with bacterial strains or PBS, and cytokine production was assessed using the 15-plex

Mouse ProcartaPlex™ immunoassay. **A**. Cytotoxicity observed in PCLS after bacterial exposure was

measured by LDH activity assay. **B**. Pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion (GM-CSF, IL-6, IL-1β,

TNF-α). **C**. Cytokine associated with type 1 immune response (IL-18). **D**. Cytokines associated with

type 2 immune response (IL-4, IL-5, IL-10, IL-13). **E**. Cytokines associated with type 17/22/9

immune response (IL-17A, IL-22, IL-9). **F**. Secretion of IL-2 associated with cell proliferation

response. Results are expressed as mean ± SEM and represent a pool of five independent experiments

(n = 2-5 biological replicate samples/condition). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, and ****$P <$

0.0001 between the control medium and the bacteria-exposed condition (ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis

test followed by Dunn's post-hoc test).

Supplemental Fig. 2: Bronchoalveolar cellular response to intranasal exposure to strain 17 in

neonatal mice. A. Experimental design. Three-day-old mice were treated intranasally with strain 17

(10^6 CFU, i.n., 10 µL) or PBS vehicle on days 3 and 5 of age. At day 7 and 8 of age, mice were

euthanized and BAL were collected. **B**. Total cell counts in BAL samples. Cellular composition in

BAL was assessed by May-Grünwald-Giemsa staining to identify and differentiate macrophages (**C**)

and neutrophils (**D**). Results are expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 3 per group). *$P < 0.05$ between the

PBS- and the bacteria-exposed condition (ANOVA, Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn's post-

hoc test).

Supplemental Fig. 3: Early-life airway delivery of strain 17 prevents weight loss during RSV

reinfection in adulthood and shapes the adaptive antibody response. A. Experimental design.

Three-day-old mice were treated intranasally with strain 17 (10^6 CFU, i.n., 10 µL) or PBS vehicle at

days 3, 5, 8, and 10 of age. On postnatal day 6, mice were infected intranasally with RSV-A2 (2.3 ×

10^4 PFU in 10 µL), followed by a second infection with RSV-A2 (2.3 × 10^5 PFU in 100 µL, i.n.) at 8

weeks of age. **B-E.** Mice were euthanized at 7 or 9 d.p.i. to assess cell infiltration in the

bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL). **B**. Total cell counts in BAL. Cell infiltration in BAL was assessed by

May-Grünwald-Giemsa staining to identify and differentiate macrophages (**C**), neutrophils (**D**), and

lymphocytes (**E**) at 7 or 9 d.p.i.. Results are expressed as mean ± SEM. Data are representative of

two independent experiments (n = 5-9 per group). *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, Mann-Whitney test.

Supplemental Fig. 4: Cytokine response to RSV infection in primary human airway cells with

or without strain 17 pre-exposure. Human primary bronchial epithelial cells cultured at the air-

liquid interface (MucilAir™) were first exposed to strain 17 (10^3 CFU/well) for 3h, followed by RSV

expressing mCherry (RSV-mCherry, MOI = 0.1) infection or incubation with mock. Basal medium

and cell lysates were collected 48h after incubation. IL-6, TNF-α or IP-10 concentrations in basal

medium were assessed using Luminex immunoassay. Means ± SEM are represented.

Early-Life Commensal Lung Bacteria Shape Immune Responses and RSV Susceptibility in mice

Figures

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

B

C

D

E

F

Figure 3

A

Agarose 1,5%

BALB/c neonates
(6 days of life) → Lung extraction → Krumdieck tissue slicer → Precision cut lung slices (PCLS) 2 per wells

Medium or Strain (16, 17, 24 or 25) (50 CFU/well)

-24h 0h 3h 16h

Mock or RSV-Luc

- Cytotoxicity (LDH assay)
- RSV replication (Luciferase activity)

B

Cytotoxicity (%)

RSV-Luc: - + - + - + - + - +
Strain: - 16 17 24 25

C

Viral replication (luciferase activity (radiance) normalized to PCLS protein content (mg))

**** * **** *

RSV-Luc: + + + + +
Strain: - 16 17 24 25

Figure 4

A

B

IL-6

Concentration in supernatant (pg/mL)

RSV − + − +
Medium   Strain 17

ns, ns, ****, ****

TNF-α

Concentration in supernatant (pg/mL)

RSV − + − +
Medium   Strain 17

ns, ns, ****, ****

C

IFN-α

Concentration in supernatant (pg/mL)

RSV − + − +
Medium   Strain 17

*, ns, ***, ****

IFN-β

Concentration in supernatant (pg/mL)

RSV − + − +
Medium   Strain 17

, ns, **, ****

Figure 5

A

PBS or **Strain 17**
(10^3, 10^5, 10^6 CFU/well, 10 µL, i.n)

BALB/c neonates
(3 days of life)

D3 — D5 — D6 — D7 — D8

Mock or RSV-Luc

1 d.p.i.   *2 d.p.i.*

- **RSV replication** (Luciferase activity, qRT-PCR)
- **IFN-I response** (qRT-PCR)
- **Cellular infiltration** (MGG coloration)

B

Nasal cavity (1 d.p.i.)

Viral replication (Avg Radiance/mg of tissues)

	*		
		***	
			*

RSV-Luc: −, +, +, +, +
Strain 17: −, −, 10^3, 10^5, 10^6

Nasal cavity (2 d.p.i.)

Viral replication (Avg Radiance/mg of tissues)

RSV-Luc: −, +, +, +, +
Strain 17: −, −, 10^3, 10^5, 10^6

C

Lung (1 d.p.i.)

Viral replication (Avg Radiance/mg of tissues)

**

RSV-Luc: −, +, +, +, +
Strain 17: −, −, 10^3, 10^5, 10^6

Lung (2 d.p.i.)

RSV replication (Avg Radiance/mg of tissues)

**
**
*

RSV-Luc: −, +, +, +, +
Strain 17: −, −, 10^3, 10^5, 10^6

D

Lung (1 d.p.i.)

Viral replication (N gene expression ($2^{-\Delta Cq}$))

RSV-Luc: −, +, +, +, +
Strain 17: −, −, 10^3, 10^5, 10^6

Lung (2 d.p.i.)

Viral replication (N gene expression ($2^{-\Delta Cq}$))

**
**

RSV-Luc: −, +, +, +, +
Strain 17: −, −, 10^3, 10^5, 10^6

Figure 6

A

B

C

D

Figure 7

A

Medium or **Strain 17**

3h

0h   48h

Human bronchial epithelial cells cultured at the air liquid interface

Mock or RSV-mCherry

- **Cytotoxicity** (LDH assay)
- **RSV replication** (fluorescence)
- **Innate immune response** (Immunoassays and multiPlex)

B

Medium   Strain 17

24h

48h

C mCherry

D

E Bioactive IFN-λ

F β-defensin 2