Title: Mucosal BCG vaccination reprograms lung interstitial macrophages and enhances

antimicrobial defense in mice

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Abstract:

Bacille Calmette–Guérin (BCG) is the only licensed vaccine against tuberculosis (TB) but

provides inconsistent protection against disease. Studies in non-human primates show that

intravenous BCG confers superior protection compared to intradermal vaccination, yet how

different vaccination routes reprogram lung immunity in mice - the primary model for mechanistic

studies - remains incompletely defined at single cell or spatial resolution. Moreover, while lung

macrophages are key effectors during *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection, most studies have

focused on alveolar macrophages, leaving interstitial macrophage responses to vaccination largely

unexplored. Here, we define the cellular and spatial immune landscape shaped by three BCG

vaccination routes in mice using flow cytometry, single-cell RNA sequencing, and spatial

transcriptomics. Comparing intratracheal (IT), intravenous (IV), and subcutaneous (SC)

vaccination, we demonstrate that mucosal IT delivery uniquely reprograms interstitial

macrophages, establishes spatially organized immune hubs with CD4 T cells, and provides

superior protection against infectious challenge. These findings identify IM as key mediators of

mucosal vaccine-induced protection and provide a framework for the rational optimization of

vaccines against respiratory pathogens.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) remains one of the world's deadliest infectious diseases, causing an estimated 10.8 million cases and 1.25 million deaths in 2023, with the highest burden in resource limited low- and middle-income countries (1). Despite widespread use for over a century, Bacillus Calmette-Guérin (BCG) remains the only licensed vaccine against TB and provides inconsistent protection against pulmonary disease. A deeper understanding of the immune mechanisms underlying durable protection is urgently needed.

Lung macrophages are among the first immune cells to encounter *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), the causative agent of TB, following inhalation. Two major macrophage subsets inhabit the lung: alveolar macrophages (AM), which reside in the airspaces, and interstitial macrophages (IM), which occupy the lung parenchyma (2). These macrophages differ in origin, metabolic state and antimicrobial capacity. AM are the earliest responders to Mtb, and accumulating evidence suggests that prior vaccination can metabolically and epigenetically reprogram them to restrict Mtb growth, ultimately reducing early bacterial burden and shaping the trajectory of disease progression (3,4). In comparison, the precise nature of IM rewiring following BCG vaccination is less well understood. Surface marker expression levels of CD206, CD11c, MHCII, Lyve1, CX3CR1 and CD169 have been used by different groups in an effort to further describe IM heterogeneity in the naive lung (5–7). Additional work to better characterize different subgroups of IM has shown a distinct functional separation based on expressed chemokines (8). However, how IM might be modulated during infection remains largely unknown. Importantly, IM are not a static population: upon niche depletion, Ly6c high monocytes undergo local differentiation into IM in an M-CSF, MafB and TGFβ dependent manner, suggesting that the IM compartment retains plasticity and could be exploited by vaccination (9,10). Moreover, evidence suggests that the role of IM during pulmonary infection may be context dependent. For example, IM have been shown to be permissive to *Klebsiella pneumoniae* and depletion of IM in a fungal infection model resulted in significantly reduced pathogen load (11,12). In contrast, mouse models of Mtb infection have shown that IM are more restrictive to bacterial growth as compared to AM (13,14).

Although BCG is typically administered intradermally, recent studies demonstrate that vaccination route significantly impacts protective immunity against Mtb. In non-human primates, intravenous

BCG vaccination conferred robust protection following Mtb challenge, induced markedly higher

frequencies of antigen-responsive CD4 and CD8 T cells in blood, lung parenchyma, and

bronchoalveolar lavage fluid compared to intradermal vaccination, and conferred robust protection

following Mtb challenge (15,16). Subsequent studies showed that high-dose IV BCG drives an

influx of polyfunctional T cells and recruited macrophages into airways, with both CD4+ and

CD8α+ T cells required for protection (15,17). Similar route dependent effects have been observed

in mice. Intranasal but not subcutaneous BCG vaccination activates AM, enhancing metabolic and

activation gene signatures and improving bacterial control after both Mtb and *Streptococcus*

pneumoniae challenge (18). More recently, IV BCG was shown to generate a CX3CR1-high CD4+

effector memory T cell subset capable of mediating cross protection against influenza via IFNγ

dependent activation of AM (19).

Collectively, these findings suggest that vaccination route shapes immune responses in the lung,

with protection strongly correlating with enhanced T cell and macrophage activation. However,

studies to date have focused primarily on AM while the impact on IM biology remains largely

unexplored. Notably, IM express high levels of the anti-microbial effector NOS2 during Mtb

infection in mice, suggesting a potential role in early bacterial control (14). Whether vaccination,

particularly via alternative routes, enhances IM antimicrobial capacity remains unknown. This gap

is especially relevant given growing interest in mucosal vaccination strategies which may directly

engage pulmonary macrophages at the site of pathogen entry and negate safety concerns associated

with IV BCG injection.

To directly compare how vaccine delivery route shapes lung macrophage biology, we immunized

mice with BCG via SC, IV, or mucosal IT administration. High-dimensional flow cytometry and

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-Seq) revealed that IT vaccination selectively expands a

distinct IM subset enriched for metabolic, antimicrobial, and type I/II IFN-response programs that

were not observed after SC or IV delivery. Consistent with these findings, IT BCG elicited the

strongest protection in Mtb rechallenge experiments. Integration of cell-cell interaction analyses

and spatial transcriptomics uncovered potential IM - CD4 T cell interactions and demonstrated

that activated IM localize to distinct regions of the lung following IT BCG. Together, these

findings identify IM reprogramming as a previously underappreciated component of mucosal BCG

immunity and highlight mucosal vaccination as a promising strategy to harness lung macrophages

for improved protection against Mtb.

Results.

IT BCG supports enhanced IM activation.

Given that lung macrophages are among the first immune cells to encounter pulmonary Mtb, we

focused on how the route of BCG vaccination differentially rewired these cells. Wild type (WT)

mice were vaccinated with SC, IT, or IV BCG, and after 8 weeks lungs were harvested and

analyzed by high dimensional flow cytometry using a gating strategy designed to identify AM, IM

as well as other myeloid cells (Supplementary Fig. 1 A) (6).

The frequency of AM was reduced after IT and IV vaccination compared to naïve mice but the

absolute numbers remained unchanged (Fig. 1 A). Analysis of typical macrophage activation

markers including CD80, CD86 and MHCII revealed increased expression after IT and IV, but not

SC, vaccination in AM (Fig. 1 B). CD38 has recently been described as a marker of macrophages

which possess an enhanced ability to control Mtb (20). Following IT and IV vaccination the

frequency of CD38 positive AM was increased (Fig. 1 C). In contrast, SC BCG did not lead to

enhanced CD38 expression on AM (Fig. 1 C). The frequency of NOS2 positive AM increased by

a small but significant extent following IT and IV, but not SC, vaccination (Fig. 1 D). We next

examined the AM phenotype at an earlier time point of 4 weeks post vaccination. Following IT

and IV vaccination the expression of CD80, CD86 and MHCII was increased on AM, as was the

frequency of CD38 positive cells. Similar to the 8 week time point, SC BCG did not enhance the

expression of the analysed markers (Supplementary Fig. 1 B-D). At a later timepoint of 12 weeks

post vaccination the increased expression of CD86 and MHCII was maintained in IT and IV

vaccinated groups as compared to naive or SC vaccinated mice (Supplementary Fig. 1 E).

Increased frequencies of CD38 or NOS2 positive AM were only observed in the IT vaccinated

group (Supplementary Fig. 1 F, G).

Within the IM compartment we observed an increase in both cell frequency and absolute numbers

8 weeks after IT BCG (Fig. 1 E). Analysis of activation markers revealed increased expression of

CD80, no change in CD86 and downregulation of MHCII after IT and IV BCG (Fig. 1 F). In

contrast to AM, the frequency of CD38 positive IM increased after all routes of vaccination (Fig.

1 G), while NOS2 expression was significantly increased only after IT BCG (Fig. 1 H), suggesting

route-specific enhancement of antimicrobial effector capacity. At 4 weeks post vaccination CD80

expression was increased after IT and IV BCG, however CD86 and MHCII levels were decreased

(Supplementary Fig. 1 H). Furthermore, IT and IV BCG also increased the frequencies of both

CD38 and NOS2 positive cells (Supplementary Fig. 1 I, J). By 12 weeks post vaccination IM from

IT BCG mice maintained elevated CD80 expression, whereas the expression of the other analyzed

markers appeared to be returning to baseline (Supplementary Fig. 1 K-M). Together, these data

indicate that IT and IV BCG exert significant alterations to the phenotype of both AM and IM,

while SC BCG has a minimal impact.

Since viable BCG is present up to 12 weeks post IT and IV vaccination (Supplementary Fig. 1 N),

we next wondered if the continued presence of bacteria was required for driving the expression of

CD80, CD86 and MHCII by AM or IM. To examine this, cohorts of WT mice were vaccinated

using SC, IT or IV routes for a period of 8 weeks. Next, the animals were administered a cocktail

of antibiotics (rifampicin and isoniazid) in the drinking water for 4 weeks. Following a rest period

of 2 weeks, the lungs were harvested and analysed using flow cytometry. We observed similar

expression of CD80, CD86 and MHCII by AM after all routes of vaccination in antibiotic treated

and untreated mice (Supplementary Fig. 1 O). In the case of IM, antibiotic treatment did not

influence the expression of these markers, with the exception of increased MHCII expression in

IT-vaccinated mice (Supplementary Fig. 1 P).

We next used scRNA-Seq to more comprehensively characterize the transcriptional programs

underlying changes in macrophage phenotype. CD45 positive cells were sorted from the lungs of

naive mice as well as those that had been vaccinated with SC, IT or IV BCG 8 weeks prior. The

cell suspensions were stained with CITE-seq antibodies to facilitate the identification of the

various immune cell populations. We began our analysis by focusing on myeloid cells and using

surface markers and known marker genes, we identified AM, IM, DCs and monocytes (Fig. 2 A,

Supplementary Fig. 2 A-D). It was notable that among these populations SC BCG appeared to

have a minimal impact on the transcriptome of AM and IM (Supplementary Fig. 2 E). In contrast

IT and IV BCG resulted in alterations to the transcriptomic profile of both cell types

(Supplementary Fig. 2 F, G).

Pseudobulk differential expression analysis further revealed that IV BCG led to the most

upregulated genes in AM as compared to naïve controls (Supplementary Fig. 2 H), while IT BCG-

treated AM showed increased expression of antigen presentation genes *(H2-K1*, *H2-Ab1)* as well

as the chaperone protein *Cd74* (Supplementary Fig. 2 J). We next focused our analysis on IM after

vaccination and observed that IT BCG had the most profound effect in terms of the number of

upregulated genes (Fig. 2 B). Within these upregulated genes were a number of interferon targets

such as *Cxcl9*, *Gbp2, Stat1* and *Cd274* (Fig. 2 C). In addition, IM from IT BCG vaccinated mice

expressed several metabolic genes including *Gapdh*, *Nampt*, *Pkm*, *Fth1, Slc2a1* as well as *Acod1*

(Fig. 2 C). In line with this, gene set enrichment analysis revealed increased activity in pathways

associated with IFNγ response, OXPHOS and glycolysis in IM from IT vaccinated mice (Fig. 2

D). Given that the aforementioned analysis was performed on all IM, we wondered if only a subset

of IM were responsible for driving the expression of these pathways. We identified 6 clusters of

IM in naïve and vaccinated mice of which cluster 1 was present only after IT and IV vaccination

(Fig. 2 E, F). In order to examine if the IM within cluster 1 were the cells primarily activated

following BCG vaccination, we created a gene expression signature score (named activated IM)

based on the genes upregulated after IT BCG. This signature score was most highly expressed by

the IM present in cluster 1 (Fig. 2 G) indicating that this subset was primarily activated after IT

BCG.

CD4 T cells likely produce IFNγ after all routes of BCG vaccination.

Given that IM from IT vaccinated mice showed enrichment for IFNγ-response genes (Fig. 2 C-D),

we next sought to identify which immune cells were producing IFNγ. To do this we examined the

non-myeloid immune cells within our single cell data set and based on marker genes and surface

protein expression identified B cells, NK cells, as well as CD4 and CD8 T cells (Supplementary

Fig. 3 A, B). Within these lymphocyte populations *Ifng* expression was highest in the CD4 T cell

compartment (Supplementary Fig. 3 C). We therefore focused on examining route dependent

differences in CD4 T cells following BCG vaccination. 5 clusters of CD4 T cells were identified

in naïve and BCG vaccinated mice (Supplementary Fig. 3 D). Cluster 5 was present predominantly

in unvaccinated mice and were likely unactivated cells. Clusters 2 and 4 expressed genes such as

Sell, *Ccr7* and *S1pr1,* these are expressed by naïve and central memory CD4 T cells

(Supplementary Fig. 3 E, F). Despite sharing the expression of the above-mentioned genes, clusters

2 and 4 differed in their distribution among the experimental groups. Specifically, cluster 2 was

present only after IT and IV BCG while cluster 4 was present in SC vaccinated mice

(Supplementary Fig. 3 G). Genes higher in cluster 2 than cluster 4 suggest more active translational

machinery: *Eif3f* (a component of the translation initiation complex), the transcription factor *Klf13*,

Chd3 (involved in chromatin remodeling), *Tut4* (involved in mRNA decay) and *Pnrc1*

(Supplementary Fig. 3 E, F).

Cluster 1 was present in all conditions but at a higher proportion in IT and IV vaccinated mice

(Supplementary Fig. 3 G). This cluster resembled migrating CD4 T cells (*Maf* and *Cxcr3*) and a

small proportion of Tfh cells (*Bcl6*, *Pdcd1*, *Izumo1r*, *Cxcr5*) (21). We next performed pseudobulk

differential expression analysis and compared how the CD4 T cells within cluster 1 differed after

each route of vaccination. After IT and IV vaccination, cells in cluster 1 had a higher expression

of both *Socs1* and *Jund* as compared to SC BCG, potentially indicating a more regulatory

phenotype (Fig. 3 A, B). In addition, *Tgfb* expression was increased after IT and IV as compared

to SC BCG. Beyond its role in tissue remodeling, TGFβ signaling has recently been described to

mediate the transition of monocytes to IM in the lung (10) and is required for AM survival (2,22).

Interestingly, when comparing cells within cluster 1 in the IT and IV groups, we observed

increased expression of *Hk2* in the IT group which may be indicative of enhanced metabolic

activity. These cells also exhibited higher expression of *Cxcr4* (a Tfh marker) and *Cxcr6* (a Th1

marker)*,* genes which are involved in the homing to, and retention in, inflamed tissue (Fig. 3 C)

(23,24) .

CD4 T cells within cluster 3 expressed genes such as *Cx3cr1*, *Zeb2*, *Il18rap* and *Ifng*

(Supplementary Fig. 3 E, F). This cluster resembled a recently described effector memory subset

of CX3CR1[hi] CD4 T cells that are induced following IV BCG (19). To confirm this apparent

similarity, we generated a gene expression signature score (named activated CD4 cells) based on

the aforementioned publication and overlaid it onto our single cell dataset. As expected, cluster 3

had the highest signature expression score followed by cluster 1 (Supplementary Fig. 3 H, I).

Notably, cluster 3 CD4 T cells were present at similar proportions across all vaccination routes

(Supplementary Fig. 3 G), prompting us to investigate whether functional differences might be

more apparent at the transcriptional level. When comparing IT and SC routes we observed that the

cells from the IT mice expressed metabolic genes such as *Glud1*, *Acadl*, *Coq2*, *Mff*, and *Tomm20*

suggesting an enhanced oxidative metabolism typical of memory cells. Moreover, they expressed

genes indicative of a regulatory profile like *Tgfb1, Ltb* and *Socs1* as well as the anti-apoptotic

genes *Mcl1* and *Bag1* (Fig. 3. D). In contrast, CD4 T cells within cluster 3 from SC BCG mice

appeared to be in a more inflammatory state. These cells expressed *Cd9* (a tetraspanin associated

with immune synapse formation), *Cxcl10* (involved in T cell recruitment), *Csf1* (indicating

ongoing communication with monocytes or macrophages) and *Tnfrsf4* (OX40, a costimulatory

receptor). Similar gene expression patterns were observed when cluster 3 CD4 T cells were

examined in the IV versus SC groups (Fig. 3 E).

To complement these data we performed additional flow cytometry experiments with a panel

targeting CD4 T lymphocytes (Supplementary Fig. 3 J). 8 weeks after vaccination the absolute cell

number of total CD4 T cells was increased in IT BCG mice (Supplementary Fig. 3 K, L). In

addition, the frequency and number of tissue resident CD45 IV negative CD4 T cells was increased

after IT BCG (Fig. 3 G-I). In line with this we observed an increase in the number of total CD4 T

cells expressing the residency marker CD69 (Fig. 3 J). Further, CD45 IV negative CD4 T cells

from IT BCG mice increased expression of CD44, CXCR3 and CXCR6, collectively indicating

enhanced activation and potential tissue retention (Fig. 3 K-M).

IM-CD4 T cell crosstalk following BCG Vaccination.

Having identified route specific differences in both IM and CD4 T cell phenotypes, we next

performed NicheNet analysis to understand if these cell types were directly interacting. For this

analysis we separated CD4 T cells from cluster 3 (labeled activated CD4 T cells) from the other

clusters (labeled as CD4 T cells). This confirmed that activated CD4 T cells were the primary

potential source of IFNγ for IM after all vaccination routes (Fig. 4 A-C) and that this was signaling

via *Ifngr1* and *Ifngr2* on IM (Supplementary Fig. 4 A-C). Next, we wondered if IM were

reciprocally signaling to CD4 T cells. NicheNet analysis predicted that after IT BCG, IM signal to

CD4 T cells primarily via the chemokines *Ccl3*, *Cxcl10* and *Cxcl16* (Fig. 4 E). *Cxcl16* was

predicted to signal via *Cxcr6* (Supplementary Fig. 4 E). The predicted *Cxcl16*/*Cxcr6* signaling axis

was consistent with our flow cytometry data showing increased CXCR6 expression on CD4 T cells

after IT vaccination (Fig. 3 N-P). IM from IV BCG mice were similarly providing *Ccl3* and *Cxcl16*

(Fig. 4 F). In contrast to IT and IV vaccination, CD4 T cells from SC BCG mice were not receiving

these ligands from IM and instead were receiving a distinct set of signals including *Il-1b,* as well

as *Ifng* from activated CD4 T cells (Fig. 4 D). Collectively these data suggest that mucosal IT

vaccination establishes a bidirectional IM-CD4 T cell circuit such that IM derived CXCL16

promotes the recruitment of CD4 T cells to the lung, which in turn provide IFNγ to sustain IM

activation.

Activated IM localise in distinct tissue niches within the lung.

Since NicheNet had indicated that IM and CD4 T cells may be potential interaction partners, we

decided to investigate if these cell types localized to distinct niches within the tissue using spatial

transcriptomics. Lung slices were taken 8 weeks after IV, IT or SC BCG, as well as from naïve

controls, and analyzed using the 10x Genomics Visium platform. Spatial clustering resulted in 21

clusters across the samples (Fig. 5 A, Supplementary Fig. 5 A). Of these, clusters 4, 18 and 19

were found predominately in IT and IV slices but not in SC BCG or naïve samples (Fig. 5 B, C,

Supplementary Fig. 5 B). To determine the cellular composition of these vaccination induced

clusters, we performed cell type deconvolution using RCTD based on our parallel single cell data.

This analysis returns weights that estimate the cell type proportions in each spot. Cluster 4 had a

bigger proportion of structural cells such as endothelial cells and fibroblasts while cluster 18 and

19 were enriched with immune cells. In particular cluster 18 had a higher proportion of activated

IM, B cells, T lymphocytes and other immune cells (Fig. 5 D).

To assess whether the activated immune cell populations identified in our scRNA-seq analysis

localized to IT/IV specific tissue regions we overlaid our activated IM gene expression signature

score onto the spatial slices. This signature was highly expressed in the regions occupied by spatial

clusters 18 and 19 in the slices taken from IT and IV vaccinated lungs (Fig. 5 E, Supplementary

Fig. 5 C). Similarly, B cell and activated CD4 T cell signatures showed strongest expression in

these same tissue regions, with the CD4 signature showing somewhat broader distribution across

the section (Fig. 5 F, G, Supplementary Fig. 5 D, E). Notably, expression of *Cxcl16* and *Cxcr6*

was also concentrated in these areas, consistent with our NicheNet predictions of IM-CD4 T cell

interactions (Supplementary Fig. 5 F). The co-localization of activated IM, B cells and CD4 T cells

suggest that these regions are likely inducible bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue (iBALT),

preferentially formed after IT and IV, but not SC, BCG vaccination. Whether proximity to iBALT
facilitates rewiring of lung macrophages following BCG vaccination is currently unclear and
warrants further investigation.
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IT BCG vaccination confers superior protection during Mtb challenge.
To assess if the observed changes in IM phenotype and tissue localization following IT BCG
translated to superior protection we performed rechallenge experiments. WT mice were vaccinated
with BCG Pasteur via SC, IV, or IT routes. Sixty days later, vaccinated and unvaccinated mice
were challenged with fluorescent Mtb, and lung bacterial burden was measured 14 days post-
infection (Fig. 6 A). As compared to unvaccinated controls, mice that had received prior IT
vaccination exhibited the greatest reduction in Mtb burden (Fig. 6 B). Flow cytometric analysis
confirmed Mtb infection of neutrophils, DCs, AM, and IM, and revealed decreased Mtb signal in
these populations in all vaccinated groups (Fig. 6 C and Supplementary Fig. 6 A-D).
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Next, we analyzed the expression of the anti-microbial effector molecule NOS2 across myeloid
populations. Among the analyzed cell types, DCs - but not neutrophils - expressed NOS2, and the
frequency of NOS2+ DCs increased following SC, but not IT or IV BCG (Fig. 6 D Supplementary
Fig. 6 E, F). Very few AM exhibited NOS2 expression in Mtb infected mice and was only slightly
enhanced by prior BCG vaccination (Fig. 6 D). Instead, robust NOS2 expression was observed in
IM following Mtb infection (Fig. 6 D and supplementary Fig. 6 H). Notably, IM from SC
vaccinated mice also expressed significant NOS2 levels after Mtb challenge, despite SC BCG
having minimal impact on IM phenotype. Given the higher bacterial burden in SC vaccinated mice,
this might reflect infection-driven rather than vaccine-induced NOS2.
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To complement the above data and to more directly assess whether IT BCG enhanced IM effector
function in the absence of antigen-specific adaptive immunity, we next established an acute
infection model using the opportunistic pathogen *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PA). Cohorts of WT
mice were vaccinated for 8 weeks as described above and then challenged with PA. 24 hours after
infection bacterial burden in the lung was assessed via agar plating (Fig. 6 E). Mice that had
received prior IT and IV, but not SC, BCG had significantly reduced bacterial load as compared
to unvaccinated mice (Fig. 6F). Using flow cytometry, we observed that the frequency of IM

increased after infection and this was most pronounced in mice vaccinated with IT BCG (Fig. 6

G). Additionally, CCR2 expression was increased on IM across all vaccination routes, likely

indicative of monocyte influx following PA infection (Fig. 6H). Within CCR2- IM we observed

only minimal NOS2 production from unvaccinated mice infected with PA. Instead, these cells

expressed Arginase 1 (Arg1), a marker typically associated with the resolution stages of

inflammation (Fig. 6 I, J). PA-induced Arg1 expression may indicate that IM are being skewed

away from bacterial control and toward limiting tissue inflammation. Strikingly, prior IT BCG

vaccination significantly boosted NOS2 expression by IM while limiting Arg1 (Fig. 6 I, J).

Interestingly, we also observed an accumulation of NOS2+Arg1+ double positive IM in IT BCG

mice infected with PA (Fig. 6 I, J). NOS2 and Arg1 expression have traditionally been used as

markers of opposing macrophage polarization states, particularly in *in vitro* studies. The presence

of an IM population co-expressing both markers suggests macrophage heterogeneity or the

concurrent activation of multiple signaling pathways, underscoring the complexity of the

inflammatory tissue microenvironment. Collectively our data demonstrate that mucosal BCG

administration is protective against both homologous and heterologous bacterial pathogens and

point to IM as a central mediator of protection.

Discussion.

In this study we investigated how the route of BCG vaccination differentially programs pulmonary

macrophages and influences subsequent protection. Using high dimensional flow cytometry, we

observed that IT and IV BCG vaccination resulted in similar upregulation of surface and activation

markers in AM and IM, while macrophages from SC BCG mice more closely resembled naïve

cells. ScRNA-seq confirmed that SC BCG induced minimal changes in AM and IM. Notably, our

transcriptome data revealed that mucosal IT BCG predominantly rewired lung IM while exerting

a less pronounced effect on AM. IM from IT BCG vaccinated mice exhibited enhanced expression

of genes downstream of type I/II interferon signaling, as well as metabolic genes involved in

glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation. Our antibiotic data suggest that this IM phenotype is

maintained without viable BCG, suggesting potential epigenetic rewiring following vaccination.

Future work will incorporate challenge experiments in antibiotic-treated, BCG vaccinated mice to

investigate this further.

Because IM functional capacity may depend on developmental origin, an unresolved question is whether activated IM induced after IT BCG arise from recruited monocytes or from locally rewired resident IM. This could be addressed by flow cytometric analysis of bone marrow to determine whether mucosal BCG alters progenitor composition, combined with genetic fate mapping models to define IM ontogeny. Consistent with systemic progenitor reprogramming, a non-human primate (NHP) study found that mucosal BCG induces transcriptional and metabolic signatures of trained immunity in blood and bone marrow monocytes (25).

Beyond IM reprogramming, our data further reveal spatially organized IM-CD4 T cell crosstalk as a potential mechanism underlying mucosal vaccine efficiency. Our transcriptome data identified CD4 T cells to be a source of IFNγ, and cell-cell communication analysis suggested reciprocal signaling between IM and CD4 T cells following IT BCG. Mucosal vaccination led to the enrichment of lung-resident CD4 T cells with increased expression of activation markers and chemokine receptors. Spatial transcriptomics further indicated that activated IM localize in close proximity to CD4 T cells within iBALT regions, raising the possibility that IT BCG establishes immune niches that position CD4 T cells and IM for sustained, bidirectional signaling. A previous study demonstrated that a subset of IM is required for iBALT formation in the lung during a house dust mite model (8). However, whether proximity to iBALT is necessary to drive IM activation—particularly during secondary infections—remains unclear. Conceptually, the iBALT niche may facilitate IM–CD4 T-cell crosstalk or provide additional cytokine signals beyond IFNγ that influence IM behavior. Experiments that disrupt iBALT formation, e.g. by using LTBR-Fc (26), after BCG vaccination but prior to secondary infection may shed light on this issue.

These spatial findings raise the possibility that IM guide CD4 T cell localization to and/or within the lung via CXCL16/CXCR6, which in turn facilitates IM activation via T cell derived IFNγ. Supporting this idea, a recent study found CXCL16-positive macrophages situated in close proximity to CXCR6-expressing T cells at the iBALT periphery following influenza infection (27). Future work to assess cytokines in lung homogenates across multiple timepoints post vaccination, as well as the effects of CXCL16 blockade and lymphocyte depletion, will help clarify the mechanistic basis of IT BCG induced programming of IM and the requirement for CD4 T cells in this process (28).

In our Mtb challenge model, mice vaccinated with IT BCG demonstrated the strongest protection (i.e. had the lowest bacterial burden) compared to the other routes. This increased protective capacity was not solely attributable to BCG presence in the lung, since IV mice had similar BCG burdens at 4- and 8-weeks post vaccination. We propose that direct IT delivery to the lung facilitates faster uptake of BCG by IM combined with earlier CD4 T cell recruitment, both of which would enable IM epigenetic adaptation. A functional consequence of IM reprogramming is further implied by our *P. aeruginosa* acute infection model, where IM from IT BCG vaccinated mice expressed the highest levels of NOS2. This suggests that IT BCG licenses IM for rapid activation after challenge, thereby facilitating early bacterial clearance. However, while our data strongly implicate IM as key mediators of IT BCG induced protection, we cannot exclude a contributory role for AM, particularly during early pathogen encounter. Future work using recently developed IM-specific (8,9) and AM-specific (29) depletion models will definitively address the relative contributions of each population during bacterial challenge.

Our findings strengthen the rationale for mucosal BCG as a vaccination strategy and complement recent controlled human infection model studies evaluating the effects of route-specific BCG vaccination in humans (30,31). However, our observation that SC and IV vaccinated mice exhibited similar Mtb burdens appears to diverge from the findings of Darrah et al. (16) who reported superior protection following IV BCG compared to intradermal administration in NHPs. Several factors may contribute to this difference. First, the kinetics and magnitude of BCG induced immunity may differ between mice and NHPs. Second, we assessed Mtb burden at 2 weeks post challenge whereas Darrah et al. evaluated protection at 12 weeks; accordingly, it is possible that IT and IV vaccination would both demonstrate superior protection relative to SC vaccination at later time points in mice. Third, differences in BCG inoculum (1×10^6 in our study versus 5×10^7 in Darrah et al.) and/or the dose for Mtb challenge (100-200 CFU in our study versus 4-36 CFU in Darrah et al.) may influence the magnitude of protection.

In summary, our study demonstrates that the route of BCG vaccination critically shapes pulmonary macrophage reprogramming, with mucosal delivery uniquely licensing IM for enhanced activation potentially through spatially organized immune interactions. These findings establish a

417   mechanistic framework for optimizing mucosal vaccination strategies against tuberculosis and

418   other respiratory pathogens.

419 **Methods**

420 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT OR RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
CD11b BV510 (Clone M1/70)	Biolegend	Cat#101245, RRID:AB_2561390
IA/IE AlexaFluor700 (Clone M5/114.15.2)	Biolegend	Cat#107621, RRID:AB_493726
CD86 PE-Dazzle594 (Clone GL-1)	Biolegend	Cat#105041,RRID:AB_2566408
CD80 BV650 (Clone 16-10A1)	Biolegend	Cat#104731
F4/80 BV605 (Clone BM8)	Biolegend	Cat#123133, RRID: AB_2562305
CCR2 BV421 (Clone SA203G11)	Biolegend	Cat#150605, RRID:AB_2571913
CD64 BV711 (Clone X54-5/7.1)	Biolegend	Cat#139311, RRID:AB_2563846
CD11c BUV395 (Clone HL3)	BD Bioscience	Cat#564080, RRID:AB_2738580.
SiglecF BUV737 (Clone 1RNM44N)	BD Bioscience	Cat# 1RNM44N
CD11a/LFA1 FITC (Clone M17/4)	Biolegend	Cat#101106, RRID: AB_312779
MerTK PE (Clone 2B10C42)	Biolegend	Cat#151505, RRID:AB_2617036
CD45 APC-Fire810 (Clone 30-F11)	Biolegend	Cat103173, RRID:AB_2860599

CD45 Spark NIR 685 (Clone30-F11)	Biolegend	Cat#103168
CD45 Spark Blue 550 (Clone 30-F11)	Biolegend	Cat#103165
CD3 APC (Clone145-2C11)	Biolegend	Cat#100235, RRID:AB_2561455
NKp46 APC (Clone 29A1.4)	Biolegend	Cat#37607, RRID:AB_10612749
CD19 APC (Clone 6D5)	Biolegend	Cat#115512, RRID:AB_313647
iNOS Alexa Fluor 488 (CloneCXNFT)	eBioscience	Cat#53592082
Arg1 eFluor450 (Clone A1EXF5)	eBioscience	Cat#48369780
Lyve1 eFluor450 (Clone ALY7)	eBioscience	Cat#48044380
CD9 PECy7 (Clone MZ3)	Biolegend	Cat#124816
Ly-6G PerCP (Clone 1A8)	Biolegend	Cat#127653
Ly-6C APC Cy7 (Clone HK1.4)	Biolegend	Cat#128025
CD206 Alexa Fluor 647 (Clone C068C2)	Biolegend	Cat#141711
CD169 PerCp Cy5.5 (Clone 3D6.112)	Biolegend	Cat#142409
CX3CR1 BV785 (Clone SA011F11)	Biolegend	Cat#149029
TotalSeq B0301	Biolegend	Cat#155831
TotalSeq B0302	Biolegend	Cat#155833, RRID:AB_2814068
TotalSeq B0303	Biolegend	Cat#155835, RRID:AB_2814069
TotalSeq B0304	Biolegend	Cat#55837, RRID:AB_2814070

TotalSeq B0002 anti-mouse CD8a (Clone 53-6.7)	Biolegend	Cat#100783
TotalSeq B0001 anti-mouse CD4 (Clone RM4-5)	Biolegend	Cat#100573
TotalSeq B0431 anti-mouse CD170 (Clone S17007L)	Biolegend	Cat#155517
TotalSeq B0106 anti-mouse CD11c (Clone N418)	Biolegend	Cat#117359
TotalSeq B0202 anti-mouse CD64 (Clone X54-5/7.1)	Biolegend	Cat#139329
TotalSeq B0813 anti-mouse CD9 (Clone MZ3)	Biolegend	Cat#124823
Bacterial and virus strains		
PAO1 Wild-type *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*	U. Jenal, Biozentrum Basel	ID-UJP505 (32)
PAO1 *CTX::mCherry* chromosomal integration for constitutive expression of mCherry by the pX2 promoter.	U. Jenal, Biozentrum Basel	ID- UJP3715
M. tuberculosis HN878:Turbo635		
M. tuberculosis HN878		
BCG Pasteur	N. Aguiló, University of Zaragoza	N/A
BCG::symc'::mCherry		
BCG:GFP (Pasteur)	N. Aguiló, University of Zaragoza	(18)

Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
DAPI	Merk	Cat#D9542-1MG
Liberase TL	Merk	Cat#5401020001
Liberase TM	Merk	Cat#5401119001
DNAse-I	Merk	Cat#10104159001
Collagenase P	Merck	Cat#11213857001
Dispase II	Merck	Cat#D4693
AccuCheck Counting Beads	Invitrogen	Cat#PCB100
Critical commercial assays		
Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v3.1	10x Genomics	Cat#1000269
3' Feature Barcode Kit	10x Genomics	Cat#1000262
Dual Index Kit NT Set A	10x Genomics	Cat#1000242
Chromium Next GEM Chip G Single Cell Kit	10x Genomics	Cat#1000120
Library Construction Kit	10x Genomics	Cat#1000190
Visium Gene Expression Slide and Reagent Kit	10x Genomics	Cat#1000184
Illumina Novaseq 6000	Illumina	Cat#1000724
Deposited data		
Datasets are available at GEO accession GSE319571 (scRNA-Seq) and GSE319572 (Spatial Transcriptomics)		
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		

Mouse: C57BL/6Rj	Jackson Laboratories	RRID:IMSR_JAX:000664
Software and algorithms		
FlowJo	BD Bioscience	https://www.flowjo.com/solutions/flowjo
GraphPad Prism	GraphPad	https://www.graphpad.com/
STARsolo (>=2.7.10a)		
Bioconductor R packages (see below)	N/A	https://bioconductor.org/
DropletUtils (1.24.0)		
scuttle (1.14.0)		
scater (1.32.1)		
bluster (1.14.0)		
singleR (1.32.0)		
limma(3.60.6)		
NicheNet (2.2.0)		
UCell (2.8.0)		
BayesSpace (1.14.0)		
spacexr (2.2.1)		
Gene sets: MsigDB mouse gene sets		https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/index.jsp
Other		
N/A	N/A	N/A

Animals.

C57BL/6Rj (CD45.2) were purchased from Charles River. Mice in each experiment were 6-8

weeks old, same-sex littermates, maintained and bred in the specific pathogen–free animal facility

at the University of Basel. All animal experiments were performed in accordance with local and

Swiss federal guidelines.

Bacterial culture.

M. bovis BCG::symc'::mCherry (hereafter BCG::mCherry) was generated in the laboratory by

transformation with the pCHERRY3 plasmid (a kind gift from D. Russell, Cornell University).

BCG::mCherry*, M. bovis* BCG Pasteur and BCG:GFP (kindly gifted by N. Aguiló University of

Zaragoza) were grown in 7H9 broth (BD) 10% OADC (BD), 0.2% (v/v) glycerol and 0.05% (v/v)

Tween 80 (Sigma) under constant shaking at 37° C. After 2 to 4 days the preculture was then

diluted 1:100 in 7H9 media without Tween80. When bacteria reached an optical density (OD_{600})

of 0.8 to 1, bacteria were collected and washed with PBS (Sigma, D8662). Subsequently bacteria

was de-clumped by manual shaking with glass beads and the upper phase containing the single

cell suspension was collected. De-clumped bacterial cultures were frozen in 25% glycerol at -80°C

until further use. For colony-forming unit (CFU) determination bacterial suspension was plated on

7H11 agar plates.

HN878:turbo635 was generated in house by transformation with the plasmid pCHARGE3 kindly

gifted by Tanya Parish (33) (Addgene plasmid # 24658; http://n2t.net/addgene:24658;

RRID:Addgene_24658). HN878:turbo635 was grown in 7H9 broth (BD) 10% OADC (BD), 0.2%

(v/v) Glycerol, 0.1 mM sodium propionate and 50 mg/ml Hygromycin B (Roth) . Bacteria were

de-clumped by vortex shaking with glass beads and the upper phase containing the single cell

suspension was harvested and frozen at -80°C until use.

P. aeruginosa (PAO1, PAO1 CTX::mCherry) was kindly provided by U. Jenal, University of

Basel. *P. aeruginosa* was cultured in liquid LB and subsequently frozen in 70% glycerol. Prior to

infection *P. aeruginosa* was plated from frozen glycerol stock overnight at 37°C on LB agar plates.

Single colonies were picked and grown overnight at 37°C under constant shaking (170 rpm).

Overnight cultures were then diluted and collected at log phase (OD600 = 0.5).

Mtb infection.

Prior to aerolization, Mtb was declumped with a 27G metal tip. Mice were infected in an Aero3G Third Generation Aerosolizer (Biaera). Stocks were titrated to result in a day 1 bacterial load of approximately 100 CFU.

BCG vaccination / _P. aeruginosa_ infection.

For intratracheal administration mice were anesthetized with vaporized isoflurane and than infected intratracheally with 1×10^6 CFU diluted in 50 μL of PBS (Gibco). For subcutaneous injection 1×10^6 CFU was delivered in 200 μL, while intravenous BCG (1×10^6 CFU) was administered in 100 μL PBS.

CFU plating.

Mtb: For determination of CFU the left lobe was mechanically homogenized in 1 mL of PBS-Tween (0.05%) using soft tissue homogenizing CK28 prep tubes (Bertin technologies) in a Precellys Evolution Touch homogenizer (Bertin technologies). Homogenates were then serially diluted and plated on 7H11 agar plates containing 10% OADC, 0.2% (v/v) Glycerol, 50 mg/ml Hygromycin B and 1 vial of MGIT PANTA™ Antibiotic mixture (BD). CFU were counted after a 3 week incubation at 37°C.

P. aeruginosa: For determination of CFU lung lobes were digested as described above. 50 uL of digest were removed prior to filtration and a serial dilution was plated on tetracycline selective LB agar plates. CFU were counted after overnight incubation at 37°C.

Tissue preparation.

In some experiments, prior to euthanasia mice were anesthetized with vaporized isoflurane and a CD45 (Spark Nir 685) antibody was administered intratracheally. After 20 minutes mice were injected with CD45 (APC-Fire 810) intravenously and sacrificed after 5 minutes.

For isolation of macrophages or lymphocytes, lungs were harvested, minced with scissors and digested with a digestion mix containing liberase TM or liberase TL (500 μg/ml, Roche) for 30 minutes at 37° C under constant shaking. Single cell suspensions were generated by repeated pipetting and filtering through 70 μm cell strainers (Milteny Biotec) in HBSS buffer (Hanks' Balanced Salt solution, Sigma, H6648-500mL, 0.2% BSA and 0.5 mM EDTA). Erythrocytes were

484   lysed by addition of erythrocyte lysis buffer and the remaining lung cells were washed with HBSS

485   buffer.

Single cell sequencing.

For isolation of lymphocytes lungs were collected and diced into gentleMACS C Tubes (Miltenyi

Biotec) and washed down with 3 ml of media (RPMI, 10 mM aminoguanidine hydrochloride

(Sigma-Aldrich), 10 mM Hepes, penicillin-streptomycin-glutamine (100×, Gibco)), prewarmed in

a 37° C water bath. Digestion mix containing liberase TL (for lymphoid cells) (33.3 μg/ml, Merk)

and deoxyribonuclease I (58 μg/ml; Applichem) was added. Lungs were dissociated on a

gentleMACS Dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec) and mashed through 70 μm MACS SmartStrainers

(Miltenyi Biotec) as previously described (34). The isolation of stromal cells and myeloid cells

lungs has previously been described (35). In short: lobes were minced with scissors and digested

with 1mL of RPMI-1640 containing 0.8 mg/ml DispaseII and 0.2 mg/ml Collagenase P (both from

Roche), and 0.1 mg/ml DNase I (Invitrogen) at 37° C on a heating block and gently inverted and

mixed using a 1mL pipette every 5 min. After 15 min large fragments were spun down (10s) and

the supernatant was removed and filtered through a 70 μm MACS SmartStrainer into a tube

containing 5mL of Lung Media ((RPMI, 10 mM aminoguanidine hydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich),

10 mM HEPES, penicillin-streptomycin-glutamine (100x, Gibco), 2% FCS, 0.5mM EDTA)).

Another 1mL of digestion mix was added to the remaining lung fragments and the process was

repeated two more times. Finally, erythrocytes were lysed by addition of ELB (155mM NH4Cl,

170mM tris-HCL), remaining cells were washed with FACS buffer (PBS, 2% FCS, and 0.1%

sodium azide) and further processed for sorting and subsequent single cell sequencing.

Flow cytometry staining.

For all fluorochrome-conjugated antibody dilutions, FACS buffer containing Fc block (Clone

2.4G2 InVivoMAb anti-mouse CD16/CD32; BioXCell, #BE0307) was used. Live-dead stain

(Zombie Fixable Viability™ Sampler Kit; BioLegend) was added to the antibody mix and stained

at RT 10 min. FoxP3 Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (eBioscience) was used for

intracellular staining. Flow cytometric analysis was performed on Cytek Aurora. Data was

analyzed using FlowJo X software (BD) and SpectroFlo (Cytek). Absolute cell numbers were

determined using AccuCheck Counting Beads (Invitrogen) based on the manufacturer

instructions.

Single cell RNA sequencing.

Lungs of naïve or BCG infected mice were removed and processed as described above for isolation

of lymphocytes or stromal/myeloid cells. Individual mice were hash tagged using TotalSeq-B anti-

mouse hashtag antibodies (B0301-B0304, BioLegend) and TotalSeq-B CITE-seq antibodies

(lymphocytes: CD8a (B0002), CD4 (B0001); myeloid cells: SiglecF (B0431), CD11c (B0106),

CD64 (B0202), CD9 (B0813)). Live, CD45+ and CD45- cells were sorted from lungs at 80 d.p.i.

and submitted for library preparation. A total of 10,000 target cells per sample were loaded. Single-

cell capture and cDNA library preparation was performed according to manufacturer's instructions

using 10x Genomics Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' Kit v2 reagents using dual indexing.

Sequencing was carried out on an Illumina Novaseq 6000 at the Genomics Facility Basel, ETH

Zurich.

Raw reads were mapped to the *Mus musculus* reference mm10_ensdb102 using STARsolo (36),

and empty droplets were removed with DropletUtils (37,38). The four replicate samples were

demultiplexed using hashtag oligos (HTO). Cells were filtered for library size, library complexity,

and mitochondrial content using adaptive thresholding implemented in the *perCellQCFilters*

function from the R package scuttle with default arguments (39). PCA and UMAP on the PCA-

reduced dimensions, were performed using the R package scater (39). Cells were clustered either

hierarchically using Ward's method or with the graph-based Leiden method using the bluster R

package. Cell annotation was performed with SingleR (40), and pseudo-bulk differential

expression analysis was conducted using the *pseudoBulkDGE* function from the scran R package

(1.32.0), following the Bioconductor OSCA book

(https://bioconductor.org/books/release/OSCA/). Lists of differentially expressed genes per cell

type and BCG route comparison are available in Supplementary Table 1. Gene set enrichment

analysis was performed using camera (41) from the limma R package (42) with MSigDB mouse

gene sets. Cell-cell interactions were interrogated using NicheNet (43) following the step-by-step

vignette starting from a Seurat object. When possible, lists of differentially expressed genes

derived from the pseudo-bulk differential expression analysis were provided to NicheNet for
comparison across cell types. Gene signature scores were calculated using UCell (44).

Visium Spatial gene expression.
Lungs were inflated with a 1:1 mixture of Tissue-Tek® O.C.T. Compound (Sakura) and PBS and
embedded in O.C.T. Tissues were sectioned at 10 μm on a cryostat. Further processing and
placement of sections was performed according to the protocol CG000240 (10X Genomics).
Following sample placement, sections were stained with DAPI according to the protocol
CG000312 (10X Genomics) and imaged using a Leica DMI 4000/6000 Widefield Microscope.
Sections were then permeabilized and prepared for library preparation according to the protocol
CG000239 (10X Genomics). Sequencing was carried out on an Illumina Novaseq 6000 at the
Genomics Facility Basel, ETH Zurich.

The fiducial frame of the Visium slides was aligned using Loupe Browser, and the resulting JSON
file was provided to Space Ranger to obtain count matrices. Spots outside the tissue, with library
size < 2000, or with mitochondrial content > 10% were filtered out. Spatial clustering was
performed using BayesSpace after joining spatial coordinates across samples and integrating
transcriptomic data, enabling spatial clusters to be shared between samples (45). The single-cell
dataset was used as a reference for deconvolution with RCTD from the spacexr R package (46).
Signature scoring and plotting were performed as for single-cell data using Bioconductor 3.19.

Quantification and statistical analysis.
Prism software (GraphPad 10. 4.1) was used for all statistical analyses. Unless otherwise stated
One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine statistical
significance. Statistical significances are indicated by *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.005$, ***$p<0.0005$,
****$p<0.0001$, ns, not significant ($p > 0.05$). In summary graphs, points indicate individual
samples. All error bars are mean with SEM.

Acknowledgements.
We are indebted to Gaël Auray and all members of the University of Basel flow cytometry core
facilities for cell sorting and troubleshooting, furthermore we thank all staff at the BSL2 and BSL3

animal facilities of the University of Basel. In addition we are grateful to the University of Basel

Genomics Core. Bioinformatic calculations were performed at sciCORE (http://scicore.unibas.ch/)

scientific computing center at University of Basel. We thank all members of the King laboratory

for productive and helpful discussion. This work was supported by the Swiss National Science

Foundation, grant 212344 awarded to CGK, the State Secretariat for Education, Research and

Innovation (SERI), grant REF-1131.52304 awarded to CGK and the University of Basel Research

Fund for Junior Researchers awarded to AJF. The authors have no conflicting financial interests.

Competing Interests.

All authors declare no conflict of interest in relation to this manuscript.

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Figure 1

Figure 1: IT BCG supports enhanced IM activation.

(A): Frequency of total lung cells and absolute numbers of AM 8 weeks after SC, IT and IV BCG vaccination. **(B)**: Mean Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) of CD80, CD86 and MHCII expressed by AM after BCG vaccination. **(C, D)**: Representative plots and quantification of CD38 or NOS2 positive AM 8 weeks after BCG vaccination. **(E)**: Frequency of total lung cells and absolute numbers of IM 8 weeks after SC, IT and IV BCG vaccination. **(F)**: MFI of CD80, CD86 and MHCII on IM 8 weeks vaccination. **(G, H)**: Representative plots and quantification of CD38 or NOS2 positive IM 8 weeks after BCG vaccination. N: Each datapoint indicates one individual mouse. One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine statistical significance.

Figure S1

Supplementary Figure 1: IT BCG supports enhanced IM activation.

(A): Gating strategy used to identify lung innate immune cells including AM, IM, DCs, neutrophils, eosinophils and Ly6C Hi monocytes. Gated on live, CD45+, CD3-, CD19- & Nkp46- cells. **(B)**: MFI of CD80, CD86 and MHCII expression by AM 4 weeks after SC, IT or IV BCG vaccination. **(C, D)**: Frequency of CD38 or NOS2 positive AM from mice vaccinated as in (B). **(E-G)**: MFI of CD80, CD86 and MHCII expression by AM 12 weeks after vaccination (E) and the frequency of CD38 or NOS2 positive cells (F, G). **(H)**: MFI of CD80, CD86 and MHCII expression by IM 4 weeks after SC, IT or IV BCG vaccination. **(I, J):** Frequency of CD38 or NOS2 positive IM from mice vaccinated as in (H). **(K-M)**: MFI of CD80, CD86 and MHCII expression by IM 12 weeks after vaccination (K) and the frequency of CD38 or NOS2 positive cells (L, M). **(N)**: BCG bacterial burden in the lungs of mice vaccinated with IT or IV BCG for 4, 8 and 12 weeks. **(O, P)**: MFI of MHCII, CD80 or CD86 expression by AM (O), or by IM (P), in mice that had been vaccinated with BCG and subsequently treated with antibiotics. N: Each datapoint indicates one individual mouse. One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine statistical significance.

Figure 2

Figure 2: IT BCG transcriptionally rewires IM.

(A): Expression of signature genes used to identify AM, IM and monocytes in the single cell RNA-Seq dataset. **(B):** Upset plot depicting the number of genes upregulated by IM after each route of BCG vaccination as compared to naïve cells. **(C)**: Heatmap depicting differentially expressed genes by IM following IT BCG vaccination. **(D)**: Pathway enrichment analysis performed on the genes upregulated by IM 8 weeks after IT BCG vaccination. **(E):** UMAP displaying IM clusters that were present in naive mice and after SC, IT or IV BCG vaccination. **(F):** Proportion of IM clusters described in (E). **(G)**: Violin plot depicting the activated IM expression signature score in each IM cluster.

Figure S2

Supplementary Figure 2: IT BCG transcriptionally rewires IM.

(A): UMAP depicting clusters of AM, IM, DC, neutrophils and DCs identified in single cell RNA

Seq dataset. **(B-D):** UMAP depicting protein expression of CD64 (B), CD11c (C) and SiglecF (B).

(E-G): Barplots depicting the number of differentially expressed genes in monocytes, DCs, IM or

AM 8 weeks after SC, IT or IV BCG vaccination. **(H)**: Upset plot depicting the number of genes

upregulated by AM after each route of BCG vaccination as compared to naïve cells. **(I-K)**: Volcano

plots depicting genes expressed by AM following SC (I), IT (J) or IV (K) vaccination. Coloured

dots represent significantly differentially expressed genes with FDR < 0.05 and |logFC| > 0.5 (dark

grey for Naive, green for BCG SC, blue for BCG IT, red for BCG IV). Light grey dots represent

non-significant genes.

Figure 3

Figure 3: CD4 T cells likely produce IFNγ after all routes of BCG vaccination.

(A-C): Volcano plots depicting DEGs in cluster 1 CD4 T cells IT vs SC (A), IV vs SC (B) or IT vs IV (C). **(D-F)**: Volcano plots depicting DEGs in cluster 3 CD4 T cells IT vs SC (D), IV vs SC (E) or IT vs IV (F). **(G)**: Representative plots depicting the proportions of CD45 IV positive and negative CD4 T cells in naive mice or in animals vaccinated with SC IT or IV BCG 8 weeks prior. **(H, I)**: Frequency (H) and absolute number (I) of CD45 negative CD4 T cells in naive and vaccinated mice. **(J)**: Number of CD69 positive resident CD4 T cells in naive mice and those vaccinated 8 weeks prior. **(K-M)**: Frequency and absolute numbers of CD45 negative CD4 T cells expressing CD44 (K), CXCR3 (L) and CXCR6 (M). For Fig. 3 H-M, N: Each datapoint indicates one individual mouse. One-Way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine statistical significance. For volcano plots the coloured dots represent significantly differentially expressed genes with FDR < 0.05 and |logFC| > 0.5 (dark grey for Naive, green for BCG SC, blue for BCG IT, red for BCG IV). Light grey dots represent non-significant genes.

Figure S3

Supplementary Figure 3: CD4 T cells likely produce IFNγ after all routes of BCG
vaccination.

(A, B): UMAP depicting lymphocyte populations identified in single cell RNA Seq (A) and
Protein expression of CD4 and CD8 (B). **(C):** Expression of IFNgamma by the lymphocyte
populations identified in (A). **(D)**: Clusters of CD4 T cells identified 8 weeks after SC, IT and IV
BCG vaccination. **(E, F)**: Heatmap with the top 10 genes expressed by each cluster of CD4 T cells
(E) and the expression of marker genes (F) used to identify the CD4 subsets. **(G)**: Proportion of
each cluster of CD4 T cells 8 weeks after SC, IT and IV BCG vaccination. **(H)**: Expression of the
activated CD4 signature score on the clusters of CD4 T cells. **(I)**: Violin plot depicting the strength
of the activated CD4 expression signature in each CD4 T cell cluster. **(J)**: Gating strategy used to
identify CD4 T cells. **(K, L)**: Representative plots and cell counts of CD4 T cells in naive and
BCG vaccinated mice. For L, N: Each datapoint indicates one individual mouse. One-Way
ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine statistical significance.

Figure 4

858 **Figure 4: IM-CD4 T cell crosstalk following BCG Vaccination.**

859 **(A-C)**: NicheNet analysis showing the expression of ligands received by IM (compared to Naive)

860 in the sender cell type after each route of vaccination. **(D-F)**: NicheNet analysis showing the

861 expression of ligands received by CD4 T cells (compared to Naive) in the sender cell type after

862 each route of vaccination.

Figure S4

Supplementary Figure 4: IM-CD4 T cell crosstalk following BCG Vaccination.

(A): Heatmap representing NicheNet-predicted interaction potentials for ligand-receptor pairs,

between the sender cell types and IM, that are contributing to downstream differentially

expressed genes identified comparing BCG SC vs Naïve, BCG IT vs Naïve **(B)** and BCG IV vs

Naïve **(C)**. The interaction between *Ifng* and *Ifngr1*/*Ifngr2* is highlighted. **(D):** Heatmap

representing NicheNet-predicted interaction potentials for ligand-receptor pairs, between the

sender cell types and CD4 T cells, that are contributing to downstream differentially expressed

genes identified comparing BCG SC vs Naïve, BCG IT vs Naïve **(E)** and BCG IV vs Naïve **(F)**.

The interactions between Ifng and *Ifngr1*/*Ifngr2* and between Cxcl16 and Cxcr6 are highlighted.

Figure 5

Figure 5: Activated IM localise in distinct tissue niches within the lung.

(A): Spatial images depicting the clusters identified in naïve mice and animals that had been

vaccinated 8 weeks previously. **(B):** Spatial images depicting only clusters 4, 18 and 19 in IT and

IV BCG vaccinated samples. **(C):** The proportion of each cluster following each route of

vaccination as well as in naive conditions. **(D):** RCTD weight plots of the immune and non immune

cells present in cluster 4, 18 and 19. **(E-G)**: Overlay of activated IM (E), B cell (F) and activated

CD4 (G) expression signature scores onto spatial slices taken from the lung of mice vaccinated 8

weeks prior as well as from naive animals.

Figure S5

Supplementary Figure 5: Activated IM localise in distinct tissue niches within the lung.

(A): Spatial images of additional samples, depicting the clusters identified in naïve mice and

animals that had been vaccinated 8 weeks previously. **(B)**: Spatial images of additional samples,

depicting only clusters 4, 18 and 19 in IT and IV BCG vaccinated samples. **(C-E):** Overlay of

activated IM (C), B cells (D) and activated CD4 T cells (F) expression signature scores onto

additional spatial slices taken from the lung of mice vaccinated 8 weeks prior as well as from naive

animals. **(F):** *Cxcl16* (top) and *CxCr6* (bottom) gene expression on all spatial

slices taken from the lung of naive animals as well as from mice vaccinated 8

weeks prior.

Figure 6

Figure 6: IT BCG vaccination confers superior protection during Mtb challenge.

(A): Schematic depicting the experimental set up of the Mtb rechallenge. **(B)**: Quantification of

Mtb bacterial burden 2 weeks after aerosol infection in unvaccinated mice or in animals that had

received SC, IT or IV BCG vaccination 8 weeks previously. **(C):** Frequency of infected

neutrophils, dendritic cells, AM and IM. **(D):** Bar plots depicting frequency of NOS2 positive

neutrophils, DCs, AM and IM. **(E)**: Schematic depicting the experimental set up of the PA

rechallenge. **(F)**: Quantification of PA burden 24 hours after infection in unvaccinated mice or in

animals that had received SC, IT or IV BCG vaccination 8 weeks previously. **(G)**: Frequency of

IM following PA infection as in (F). **(H)**: Quantification of CCR2 positive IM following PA

infection. **(I)**: Representative FACs plots depicting Arg1 positive, NOS2 positive or double

positive CCR2 negative IM. **(J)**: Quantification of Arg1 positive, NOS2 positive and double

positive IM after PA infection. N: Each datapoint indicates one individual mouse. For B: One-

Way ANOVA with non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis Test was performed. For C-J: One-Way

ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test was used to determine statistical significance.

Figure S6

Supplementary Figure 6: IT BCG vaccination confers superior protection during Mtb challenge.

(A-D): Representative FACS plots depicting Mtb-turbo signal in neutrophils (A), DCs (B), AM (C) and IM (D). Bar plots depict the number of infected cells for each condition. **(E-H)**: Representative FACs plots depicting NOS2 expression in neutrophils (E), DCs (F), AM (G) and IM (H).