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# Metabolic regulation of ILC2 differentiation into ILC1-like cells during *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection

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#### 24 Abstract

Tissue-resident innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) regulate tissue homeostasis, protect 25 against pathogens at mucosal surfaces and are key players at the interface of innate 26 and adaptive immunity. How ILCs adapt their phenotype and function to environmental 27 cues within tissues remains to be fully understood. Here, we show that Mycobacterium 28 29 tuberculosis infection alters the phenotype and function of immature lung ILC2 toward a protective interferon- $\gamma$ -producing ILC1-like population. This differentiation is 30 controlled by type 1 cytokines and is associated with a glycolytic program involving the 31 transcription factor HIF1a. Collectively, our data reveal how tissue-resident ILCs adapt 32 33 to type 1 inflammation toward a pathogen tailored immune response.

#### 34 Introduction

Innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) are a population of tissue-resident cells of lymphoid origin 35 that play a key part in both tissue homeostasis and immunity. ILCs are subdivided into 36 37 three distinct populations based on their expression of cytokines and specific 38 transcription factors. ILC1 depend on T-bet and produce interferon (IFN)- $\gamma$ , ILC2 depend on GATA3 and produce interleukin (IL)-5 and IL-13, and ILC3 depend on 39 RORyt and produce IL-17A and IL-22 (Meininger et al., 2020; Vivier et al., 2018). Based 40 on these properties, group 1, 2 and 3 ILCs are commonly presented as the innate 41 counterparts of T helper type 1 (Th1), Th2 and Th17 cells, contributing to type 1, 2 and 42 43 3 immune responses, respectively.

The regulome of ILCs evolves progressively during the development of each 44 population to reach a state in which key loci specific to each lineage are acquired (Shih 45 46 et al., 2016; Vivier et al., 2016). Yet, several elements controlling cytokine expression or loci encoding lineage-determining transcription factors remain broadly accessible in 47 all ILC subsets (Shih et al., 2016). This feature contributes to the remarkable ability of 48 ILCs to dynamically adapt to physiological or pathological alterations in their tissue of 49 50 residence, and to adopt new phenotypic and functional profiles. Besides the local plasticity among mature ILC subsets (Bal et al., 2020), circulatory and tissue resident 51 ILC precursors in human and mouse contribute to the local differentiation into mature 52 53 ILCs, an "ILCpoiesis" in situ (Lim and Di Santo. 2019), sustaining the ILC response depending on tissue and inflammation (Ghaedi et al., 2020; Lim et al., 2017; Zeis et 54 al., 2020). While the various populations of tissue-resident ILCs can promptly sense 55 56 and adapt to environmental changes (Meininger et al., 2020; Ricardo-Gonzalez et al., 2018) the mechanism allowing such responses remains to be fully elucidated. 57

58 In both mice and human subjects, Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb) infection induces prolonged proinflammatory responses that are associated with oxidative 59 60 stress, which favors tissue destruction and triggers a tissue remodeling program. Mtb 61 infection is also associated with metabolic changes in the lungs, involving the utilization 62 of aerobic glycolysis primarily instead of oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) in mitochondria (Warburg effect) (Fernández-García et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2015). At the 63 cytokine level, the lungs at steady-state mostly host resting ILC2, which, together with 64 65 alveolar macrophages, imprint a type 2-oriented environment to the tissue (Saluzzo et al., 2017; Svedberg et al., 2019). *Mtb* infection of the lung triggers dramatic changes 66

leading to the development of type 1 immunity that is mediated by IFN- $\gamma$  and is associated with protection (O'Garra et al., 2013).

Here, using the murine model of *Mtb* infection, we explored how lung ILCs respond
to chronic pulmonary infection and, in particular, how ILC subsets adapt and respond
to type 1 inflammation within tissue. Our work uncovers the local differentiation of lung
ILC2 precursors into a protective ILC1-like population through metabolic regulation
during *Mtb* infection.

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#### 75 Results and Discussion

#### 76 Local differentiation of ILC2 precursor into ILC1-like cells during *Mtb* infection

In order to investigate how a chronic type 1 infection impacts lung ILC subsets, 77 78 C57BL/6 mice were infected with the *Mtb* reference strain H37Rv. At steady-state, 79 bona fide lung ILCs were defined as a population that does not express lineage markers (CD3, CD4, CD8, TCRβ, TCRαδ, CD49b, CD11b, CD11c, B220, CD19, 80 81 F4/80, GR-1, TER119, FccR1a) but highly express CD90.2 and CD45.2 (Figure 1A). ILC2 (GATA3<sup>high</sup>), which represent the major ILC population in the murine lung, were 82 identified after exclusion of ILC1 (NK1.1<sup>+</sup>) and ILC3 (RORyt<sup>+</sup>) cells (Figure 1A). At 83 steady state, and in agreement with previously published work (Stehle et al., 2018; 84 Vivier et al., 2018), the lung is dominantly enriched in ILC2 (Figure 1A and 1B). 85 Notably, a small frequency of ILC2 expressed IL-18R $\alpha$  (Figure 1B), a phenotype 86 previously utilized to identify tissue-resident ILC precursor (ILCP) able to differentiate 87 into ILC2 in the context of type 2 inflammatory responses (Ghaedi et al., 2020; Zeis et 88 al., 2020). IL-18Rα<sup>+</sup> ILC2 expressed canonical ILC2 markers such as GATA3, ST2, 89 and Arg1 at lower levels than IL-18Ra<sup>-</sup> ILC2 (Supplementary Figure 1A-B). At the 90 91 functional level, these cells produced lower amount of IL-5 compared to IL-18Ra<sup>-</sup> ILC2 and did not produce IFN- $\gamma$  like ILC1 (**Supplementary Figure 1C**). In line with previous 92 studies (Ghaedi et al., 2020; Zeis et al., 2020), we found that IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 express 93 high levels of TCF-1, like ILC2 precursors from the bone marrow, confirming their 94 immature profile (**Supplementary Figure 1D**). *Mtb* infection had a profound impact on 95 ILC composition and phenotype and was associated with gradual increase in ILC1 and 96 97 ILC3 (Supplementary Figure 1E). Of particular interest, *Mtb* infection promoted the

98 accumulation of a novel ILC population expressing both IL-18R $\alpha$  and T-bet within the lung (Figure 1A and 1B) and concomitant reduction in IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2 (Supplementary) 99 Figure 1E). Phenotypical analysis revealed that this subset displayed little to no 100 101 classical ILC2 markers, such as GATA3, ST2, Arg1 and IL-5 (Figure 1C), or ILC3 102 markers, such as RORyt (Figure 1A). Like ILC1, this subset expressed T-bet, CD49a, and CD226 (Figure 1D) but did not express NK1.1 (gated on NK1.1 negative ILCs), 103 104 NKp46 or Eomes (Figure 1A; Supplementary Figure 1E). At the functional level, we 105 found that this population was able to produce IFN- $\gamma$ , but not IL-5 or IL-17A (**Figure** 1E). We therefore named this new subset "ILC1-like cells", based on the similarities 106 (Figure 1D and 1E) and differences (Figure 1A; Supplementary Figure 1F) with NK 107 cells/ILC1. ILC1-like cells became detectable after 21 days of infection and expanded 108 109 in the following weeks (Figure 1F). Adaptive immune responses are detectable within the lung at 21 days post-*Mtb* infection (Urdahl et al., 2011), which coincides with the 110 111 detection of ILC1-like cells. As such we assessed the role of adaptive immunity in the emergence of this ILC subset. ILC1-like cells were detectable in *Mtb* infected Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> 112 mice that lack adaptive immunity, and at a higher level that in infected wild-type mice. 113 Thus, adaptive immunity is not required for the generation of ILC1-like cells following 114 115 infection (Supplementary Figure 1G).

116 ILCs have been reported to adapt their profile to environmental cues. Different 117 mechanisms have been described to sustain the local adaptation of ILCs during inflammation such as plasticity of mature ILC subsets (Bal et al., 2020), in situ 118 differentiation of ILC precursor (Ghaedi et al., 2020; Zeis et al., 2020) as well as the 119 120 migration of ILC from bone marrow (Zeis et al., 2020). Furthermore, ILCs with characteristics of ILC1-like cells have been shown to arise from various ILC subsets 121 122 through mechanisms of plasticity depending on the tissue and the inflammatory context (Bal et al., 2020; Silver et al., 2016). In the lungs, ILC2 have been described to acquire 123 expression of T-bet, IL-18R $\alpha$  and IFN- $\gamma$  during influenza virus infection (Silver et al., 124 2016). We hypothesized that ILC1-like cells could differentiate from lung ILC2. To 125 126 assess if ILC2 display plasticity during *Mtb* infection, we adoptively transferred total lung ST2<sup>+</sup> ILC2, sorted regardless of their IL-18Rα expression, into Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup> mice, 127 which are devoid of T cells, B cells and NK/ILCs, one day prior to Mtb infection 128 (Supplementary Figure 1H and 1I). Before transfer, we confirmed that sorted ILC2 129 130 expressed GATA3 but not T-bet or RORyt (Supplementary Figure 1J) and noticed

131 that IL-18Rα expression was lost during *in vitro* culture (**Supplementary Figure 1J**). Following transfer, ILC2 strongly upregulated T-bet in infected, but not in non-infected 132 mice (Supplementary Figure 1K and 1L). Furthermore, T-bet<sup>high</sup> cells expressed 133 higher level of IL-18Ra and Ki67 compared to GATA3<sup>high</sup> cells (Supplementary Figure 134 **1M**). Given that ILC2 can give rise to ILC1-like cells, we sought to explore which ILC2 135 136 subset preferentially differentiated into ILC1-like cells. Intriguinally, while IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 137 did not acquire ILC1 markers during *Mtb* infection (Figure 1D) and accumulate into the 138 lungs (**Figure 1G**), they gained the potential to produce IFN- $\gamma$  and did not produce IL-5 (Figure 1E). Moreover, IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2, unlike ILC1 and ILC1-like cells, did not 139 respond to ex vivo stimulation with IL-12 and IL-18 (Figure 1H). Thus, we hypothesized 140 that this population could have the potential to differentiate into ILC1-like cells and 141 142 could thus represent an early stage of ILC1-like. We assessed if IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 have 143 the potential to differentiate into ILC1-like during *Mtb* infection. To this end, we sorted ILC2 subsets from IL-33 treated mice based on their IL-18R $\alpha$  expression and 144 adoptively transferred them into Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup> mice one day before infection with *Mtb* 145 146 (**Figure 1I**). Interestingly, we found that the transfer of IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 resulted in higher 147 proportions of ILC in the lungs when compared to the conditions where the same number of IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 were transferred (**Figure 1J**); in addition, T-bet expression 148 149 among IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 was significantly increased in the former case (**Figure 1K**). 150 Thus, IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2, rather than IL-18R $\alpha^-$  ILC2, have the potential to differentiate into 151 ILC1-like cells during *Mtb* infection.

Altogether, our data show that *Mtb* infection differentially impacts the composition of ILC subsets within the lung, and especially induces the local differentiation of lung ILC2 precursor into a ILC1-like cell population.

#### 155 **Type 1 inflammatory environment shapes the fate of IL-18R**α<sup>+</sup> **ILC2**

Next, we aimed to assess how the inflammatory milieu influences the fate of IL-18R $\alpha^+$ ILC2. *Mtb* infection triggers the development of a type 1 immunity (O'Garra et al., 2013). Both IL-12 and IL-18 contribute in the establishment of this type 1 inflammatory environment (Kinjo et al., 2002; O'Garra et al., 2013) in particular by inducing the expression of IFN- $\gamma$  on ILC1, NK cells and Th1 (Chiossone et al., 2018; Weizman et al., 2017). Therefore, we administered to mice IL-12 and IL-18 intranasally for 1 week

162 and found that this treatment was sufficient to induce the accumulation of ILC1-like cells in the lungs (**Figure 2A-B**). Furthermore IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 also expanded in these 163 settings (Figure 2B) and lost the expression of TCF-1 (Figure 2C), supporting the idea 164 165 that these cells may underwent a local differentiation process. Similarly, to Mtb infection, IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2, and IL-18R $\alpha^-$  ILC2, lost their ability to produce IL-5 following 166 cytokine injection and acquired the ability to produce IFN- $\gamma$  (**Figure 2D**), but not after 167 ex vivo stimulation with IL-12 and IL-18 (Figure 2E). Moreover, we crossed IL-5<sup>Cre-</sup> 168 tdTomato (Red5) mice with ROSA26-YFP mice to enable fate-mapping mature ILC2 169 170 (Nussbaum et al., 2013) and that the majority of ILC1-like cell do not derive from IL-171  $18R\alpha$ - ILC2, the only ILC population expressing IL-5 at steady-state and during type 1 inflammation (Supplementary Figure 2A-B), reinforcing our previous observation 172 173 (Figure 1J). Overall, based on the expression of several markers (GATA3, Arg1, T-174 bet, IL-18R $\alpha$ , CD49a, CD226 and Ki67), we found close similarities in both IL-18R $\alpha^+$ ILC2 and ILC1-like cells generated upon either IL-12/IL-18 treatment or during Mtb 175 infection (Supplementary Figure 2B). Thus, the generation of ILC1-like cells 176 177 observed during *Mtb* infection can be closely recapitulated with the simple 178 administration of IL-12 and IL-18.

To further demonstrate the ILC2 origin of ILC1-like cells during type 1 inflammation, 179 we studied the effect of IL-33, a well-known inducer of both mature and immature ILC2 180 181 (Moro et al., 2010; Neill et al., 2010; Price et al., 2010), on ILC1-like differentiation. IL-33 alone did not induce the differentiation of ILC1-like cells, although it did induce a 182 high expansion of mature and immature ILC2 (Figure 2F-I). In association with IL-12 183 184 and IL-18, IL-33 was able to enhance ILC1-like differentiation (Figure 2I and 185 **Supplementary Figure 2C).** Intriguingly, while IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 expressed ILC2 186 markers (ST2, Arg1 and IL-5) in IL-33-treated mice (Figure 2J-K), and ILC1-like markers (CD49a, IFN-γ) in IL-12/IL-18-treated animals (**Figure 2J-K**), the combination 187 of IL-12/IL-18 with IL-33 led to a mixed ILC1/ILC2 phenotype with the capacity to 188 produce both IL-5 and IFN- $\gamma$ . Because ST2 is expressed by various cell types, including 189 ILC2, we also tested Neuromedin U (NMU), whose receptor is solely present in bone 190 marrow ILC2P and in lung ILC2 (Cardoso et al., 2017; Klose et al., 2014; Wallrapp et 191 192 al., 2017). Similar to IL-33, NMU potentiated the differentiation of ILC1-like cells 193 induced by IL-12 and IL-18 (Figure 2L). Altogether, these results demonstrate that lung IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 exhibit a highly adaptable phenotype, dependent on the 194

inflammatory environment. While they strengthen the ILC2 response in a type 2 195 environment (*i.e.*, after administration of IL-33), these cells rather differentiate into IFN-196 197  $\gamma$ -producing ILC1-like cells in a type 1 environment (*i.e.*, after administration of IL-12) and IL-18). This result supports the recent notion that local ILC precursors may 198 199 undergo "ILCpoiesis" (Ghaedi et al., 2020; Zeis et al., 2020), as demonstrated in human (Lim et al., 2017; Lim and Di Santo, 2019). Although we cannot exclude local 200 201 plasticity of other ILC subsets, or ILCP recruitment from the bone marrow, our results 202 strongly suggest the local differentiation of lung ILC2P into ILC1-like cells during type 203 1 inflammation.

# ILC1-like cell differentiation is associated with a metabolic reprogramming toward glycolysis.

206 Recent RNA-sequencing analyses of intestinal ILCs revealed that each subset display unique metabolic profiles (Gury-BenAri et al., 2016). While the need in amino 207 acid metabolism for lung ILC2 functions relies on Arg1 (Monticelli et al., 2016), the 208 209 glycolytic pathway necessary for ILC3 functions depends on mTOR and HIF1 $\alpha$  (Di Luccia et al., 2019). However, little is known about metabolic adaptation of ILCs to their 210 211 environment during infection (Joseph et al., 2018). Fate decisions of immune cells such as those underlying differentiation of Treg/Th17 or Treg/Th1 have been tightly 212 213 associated with metabolic reprogramming (Clever et al., 2016; Dang et al., 2011; Shi 214 et al., 2011). Given that IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 present the ability to differentiate into ILC1-like cells in a type 1 inflammatory context, we investigated the metabolic pathways 215 216 engaged during ILC1-like cells differentiation. To gain insight in ILC metabolism, we took advantage of the recently described SCENITH method (Argüello et al., 2020), 217 which allows to determine global metabolic dependencies and capacities at the single 218 219 cell level. SCENITH uses protein synthesis levels as a readout and is particularly 220 appropriate to analyze the metabolism of rare cells, such as ILCs. ILC1-like cells were compared to control cells known to rely on a glycolytic metabolism (e.g., NK cells) and 221 222 to ILC2 in lungs. In agreement with the inhibitory effect of type 1 inflammation on IL-223 18Rα<sup>-</sup> ILC2 (**Figure 1E; Supplementary Figure 1F**), administration of IL-12 and IL-18 downregulated ILC2 global level of translation, as assessed via detection of puromvcin 224 incorporation (Figure 3A-C). Conversely, following cytokine injection, the level of 225 226 translation was increased in NK cells, IL-18Ra<sup>+</sup> ILC2 and ILC1-like cells with the latter

cells displaying the highest rate (**Figure 3A-C**). Notably, a similar pattern was observed 227 during *Mtb* infection (**Supplementary Figure 3A**). The analysis of protein synthesis in 228 the presence of inhibitors targeting different metabolic pathways, namely 2-DG for 229 230 glycolysis and oligomycin for OXPHOS, allowed us to assess the mitochondrial dependence and glycolytic capacity of the cells (Figure 3D). We found that, in all ILC 231 232 subsets tested, type 1 inflammation led to a global decrease in their mitochondrial 233 dependence, together with an increase in their glycolytic capacity, that is a canonical 234 feature of the Warburg effect (Heiden et al., 2009) (Figure 3E and F). Thus, while a 235 metabolic reprogramming towards glycolysis is significantly induced in IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2, 236 IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 and characterized ILC1-like cells upon type 1 inflammation, this program was also associated with a global inhibition of IL-18Ra<sup>-</sup> ILC2 compared to the 237 other ILC subsets tested. Arg1 has been previously identified as a critical component 238 239 of the metabolic programming of lung ILC2, with its inhibition or genetic inactivation 240 resulting in reduced aerobic glycolysis (Monticelli et al., 2016). In agreement with 241 previous studies (Bando et al., 2013; Monticelli et al., 2016; Schneider et al., 2019), 242 we found that Arg1 was highly expressed in both IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> and IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>+</sup> ILC2 (**Figure** 243 **3G**). However, after treatment with IL-12 and IL-18, the expression of Arg1 decreased in IL-18Ra<sup>+</sup> ILC2 to similar level as ILC1-like cells, supporting the idea that Arg1 is not 244 245 implicated in the metabolic regulation of ILC1-like cell differentiation. Previous work proposed that the Warburg effect, a metabolic pathway that is engaged during *Mtb* 246 247 infection (Fernández-García et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2015), relies on the transcription factor hypoxia-inducible factor-1  $\alpha$  (HIF1 $\alpha$ ) (Palazon et al., 2014). Of interest, in a 248 249 model of von Hippel-Lindau (VHL) deficiency, where HIF1 $\alpha$  is overexpressed, it was 250 previously shown that ILC2 development was repressed through glycolysis induction 251 (Li et al., 2018). These observations prompted us to analyze HIF1 $\alpha$  expression in our model. Type 1 inflammation driven by IL-12/IL-18 treatment led to the induction of 252 HIF1 $\alpha$  in both IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> and IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>+</sup> ILC2, and in ILC1-like cells (**Figure 3H**). Given 253 254 that IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> and IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>+</sup> ILC2 share the same metabolic dependence but differ in 255 their activation state during type 1 inflammation, we analyzed the impact of HIF1 $\alpha$ 256 expression on ILC2. We performed an *in vitro* assay using sorted ILC2 cultured in the presence of DMOG, which stabilizes the HIF1 $\alpha$  protein (Palazon et al., 2014) (Figure 257 258 **3I**). DMOG-treatment had a significant inhibitory impact on expression of ILC2 markers 259 including GATA3, ST2 and IL-5 (Figure 3J-L). Accordingly, analysis of the global

260 metabolic profile of ILC2 revealed that DMOG-treated ILC2 harbored a glycolytic profile 261 (**Figure 3M**), while untreated ILC2 preferentially used mitochondrial respiration 262 (**Figure 3N**). Most notably, DMOG treatment alone was sufficient to upregulate genes 263 typically associated with an ILC1 phenotype, such as *Tbx21*, *Ifng* and *II18r1* (**Figure** 264 **30**). Altogether, these results suggest that HIF1 $\alpha$  in lung ILC2 promote a metabolic 265 reprogramming toward glycolysis, while favoring the acquisition of an ILC1-like profile.

Next, we sought to determine the role of glycolysis in the differentiation of ILC1-266 267 like cells during *Mtb* infection. First, we observed that HIF1 $\alpha$  is expressed in all ILC subsets, with the highest levels in ILC3 and ILC1-like cells (Supplementary Figure 268 269 **3B**). Inhibition of glycolysis during *ex vivo* stimulation of total lung ILCs decreased the 270 proportion of IFN- $\gamma^+$  ILCs (**Supplementary Figure 3C**), showing that IFN- $\gamma$  production is glycolysis-dependent. To assess the impact of glycolysis induction *in vivo*, we first 271 272 treated mice with 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG), a glycolysis inhibitor, during *Mtb* infection. 273 2-DG administration markedly decreased the number of ILC1-like cells as well as their ability to produce IFN- $\gamma$  (Supplementary Figure 3D, E). Next, since glucose is 274 consumed in the lungs of Mtb-infected mice (Fernández-García et al., 2020), we 275 276 investigated if the modulation of glucose availability in the lung environment could 277 modulate the differentiation of ILC1-like cells. Glucose supplementation in the animals' drinking water enhanced the differentiation of ILC1-like cells (Supplementary Figure 278 **3F**) and increased the percentage of IFN- $\gamma^+$  ILC1-like cells (**Supplementary Figure** 279 **3G**). Thus, these results strongly suggest that glycolysis is required to support ILC1-280 281 like cells differentiation and function during *Mtb* infection.

282

#### 283 ILC1-like cells confer protection against *Mtb*

Next, we investigated whether BCG, the only available vaccine for TB, might impact 284 285 the population of lung-resident ILCs when delivered intranasally, a route providing a better protection than the conventional subcutaneous route (Perdomo et al., 2016), 286 287 prior to *Mtb* infection (Figure 4A). As expected, mucosal BCG vaccination induced protection upon *Mtb* challenge (**Figure 4B**). In vaccinated mice, protection correlated 288 289 with an increase in T-bet expression in ILCs (**Figure 4C**). More importantly, although 290 BCG vaccination had no impact on other ILC subsets (Figure 4D), higher numbers of ILC1-like cells were detected at 14 days post-infection, a time when IFN-y -producing 291

ILC1-like cells were virtually absent from non-vaccinated mice (Figure 4D, E) but wellinduced in vaccinated animals (Figure 4D, E). Overall, BCG vaccination promotes
ILC1-like cells in early stages of infection, which could contribute to protection against *Mtb*.

296 Finally, to assess the contribution of ILC1-like cells to protection against Mtb, we took advantage of the cytokine-induced ILC1-like cell model (Figure 4F) to generate 297 298 enough ILC1-like cells for adoptive transfer. ILC1-like cells were sorted from the lungs 299 of mice treated with IL-12, IL-18 and IL-33; these cells expressed T-bet, but not GATA3 300 or RORyt (Figure 4G). Remarkably, the transfer of as few as 10,000 ILC1-like cells 301 resulted in a statistically significant reduction in bacterial load after *Mtb* challenge, 302 demonstrating the protective capacity of ILC1-like cells against the tuberculosis 303 bacillus (Figure 4H). Recently, ILC3 were reported to mediate protection against Mtb through induction of lung ectopic lymphoid follicles (Ardain et al., 2019). Although our 304 305 results confirm the expansion and activation of ILC3 during Mtb infection (Figure 1E; Supplementary Figure 1F), we report the expansion of an ILC1-like cell population, 306 307 which can contribute to protection against *Mtb* infection. Differences between the two studies may be due to the Mtb strains used, namely HN878 (Ardain et al., 2019) vs. 308 309 H37Rv in our study, the different proportions of the various ILC subsets found in the 310 lungs, or both. In particular, infection with the hypervirulent strain HN878 is known to 311 induce a different inflammatory pattern (e.g. with strong production of IL-1 $\beta$  and type 1 IFN) and protective immune mechanisms (e.g. IL-17 and IL-22 production) compared 312 to H37Rv (Gopal et al., 2014; Manca et al., 2001). Thus, depending on the strain and 313 the associated inflammation, ILC subsets might be highly impacted in their regulation 314 and function during infection. 315

316 Thus, we propose a model in which the local differentiation of lung ILC2 precursor into 317 ILC1-like cells is regulated by both inflammatory and metabolic environment induced 318 by *Mtb* infection (Supplementary Figure 4). Our observation that BCG vaccination 319 favors the early generation of ILC1-like cells and that ILC1-like cell are endowed with 320 a protective potential during *Mtb* infection lead to future studies aiming at elucidating 321 the role played by ILC1-like cells in protection. On a broader perspective, targeting ILC1-like cells using dedicated strategies may help develop novel approaches to 322 combat tuberculosis and other inflammatory diseases. 323

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542

#### 543 Materials & Methods

#### 544 **Mice**

545

546 Six-to-eight-week-old female C57BL/6 mice were purchased from Charles River Laboratories France (Saint Germain Nuelles, France). Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> (B6.129-Rag2tm1Fwa), 547 Red5 (B6(C)-II5tm1.1(icre)Lky/J)n, Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> $\gamma_{c}^{-/-}$ (C:129S4-Rag2tm1.1Flv 548 mice Il2rgtm1.1Flv/J) on a C57BL/6 J were bred in our animal facility. ROSA26-YFP mice 549 (B6.129X1-Gt(ROSA)26Sor<sup>tm1(EYFP)Cos</sup>/J; 006148) were purchased from The Jackson 550 551 Laboratory through Charles Rivers Laboratory France. All mice were maintained in 552 specific-pathogen-free animal facility at IPBS and all experiments were conducted in 553 strict accordance with French laws and regulations in compliance with the European Community council directive 68/609/EEC guidelines and its implementation in France 554 555 under procedures approved by the French Ministry of Research and the FRBT (C2EA-01) animal care committee (APAFIS #1269, #3873, #10546, #16529 and #17384). 556

557

## 558 *Mtb* culture, immunization & mouse infections

559

560 The laboratory strain of *Mtb*, H37Rv, was grown at 37°C in Middlebrook 7H9 medium 561 (Difco) supplemented with 10% albumin-dextrose-catalase (ADC, Difco) and 0.05% Tyloxapol (Sigma), or on Middlebrook 7H11 agar medium (Difco) supplemented with 562 10% oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC, Difco). Six- to eight-week-old mice 563 were anesthetized with a cocktail of ketamine (60 mg/kg, Merial) and xylasine (10 564 565 mg/kg, Bayer) and infected intranasally (i.n.) with 1000 CFUs of mycobacteria in 25 µL of PBS containing 0.01% Tween 80. For immunization, C57BL/B6 mice were 566 567 immunized i.n. with 5.10<sup>5</sup> CFU of BCG (Danish), and were challenged 60 days postvaccination with H37Rv as previously described. All experiments using Mtb were 568 569 performed in appropriate biosafety level 3 (BSL3) laboratory and animal facility.

570

#### 571 In vivo treatments

572

573 2-DG (1g/kg, Sigma) was injected every other day starting from the day of infection 574 and until completion of the experiment. For glucose supplementation, mice were 575 treated with drinking water containing 30% (w/v) glucose (started 1 week before 576 infection until sacrifice).

577

#### 578 Adoptive transfer experiments

579

For the adoptive transfer of total lung ILC2, in vitro cultured of ILC2 were harvested 580 after 7 days of culture and  $5x10^5$  to  $2x10^6$  cells were transferred i.v. in mice 581 anesthetized with isoflurane one day before *Mtb* infection in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> $\gamma_c^{-/-}$ . For the 582 adoptive transfer of the IL-18R $\alpha^-$  or IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 subsets, both subsets were FACS-583 sorted and cultured in vitro for 7 days in complete RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS. 584 At the end of the culture, cells were harvested and 1.10<sup>5</sup> cells were transferred i.v. in 585 Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> $\gamma_c^{-/-}$  mice anesthetized with isoflurane, one day before i.n. *Mtb* infection. For 586 ILC1-like transfer, 1x10<sup>4</sup> purified ILC1-like were directly transferred via intratracheal 587 (i.t.) route in mice anesthetized with isoflurane one day before *Mtb* infection in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> 588 γc<sup>-/-</sup>. 589

590

#### 591 Lung harvest

592

593 Mice were sacrificed any cervical dislocation under isoflurane anesthesia and lungs 594 were harvested aseptically, homogenized using a gentleMACS dissociator (C Tubes, Miltenvi) in HBSS (Difco), and incubated with DNAse I (0.1 mg/mL, Roche) and 595 collagenase D (2 mg/mL, Roche) during 30 min at 37°C under 5% CO2. When 596 indicated, mice received an i.v. injection of labeled anti-CD45 mAb (5µg) 5 minutes 597 before sacrifice to discriminate between parenchymal and intravascular cells in 598 subsequent flow cytometry analyses. Lung homogenates were filtered on 40 µm cell 599 strainers and centrifuged at 329 × g during 5 min. Supernatants were conserved for 600 cytokine content analysis. A part of the cellular pellet was conserved in TRIzol reagent 601 602 for cellular RNA analysis. Bacterial loads (colony forming units) were determined by plating serial dilutions of the lung homogenates onto 7H10 solid medium (Difco) 603 supplemented with 10% oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC, Difco). The 604 605 plates were incubated at 37°C for 3 weeks before bacterial CFUs scoring. In the 606 remaining fraction, red blood cells were lysed in 150 mM NH4Cl, 10 mM KHCO<sub>3</sub>, 0.1 607 mM EDTA (pH 7.2) for immunological staining.

#### 608

#### 609 In situ expansion of ILC

610

To expand ILC2, C57BL/6 or Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice were treated intranasally (i.n.) with 100 ng 611 of recombinant IL-33 (Biolegend) each day for 5 consecutive days. For the cytokine-612 based plasticity model, C57BL/6 or Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice were treated i.n. with different 613 combinations of cytokines specified in figures legends at day 1, 3, 5, 8 and sacrificed 614 615 at day 9: 100 ng of IL-12 (R&D), IL-18 (R&D), IL-33 (Biolegend) or 20 µg of NMU (US 616 Biological) per mouse and per instillation. For the Seahorse assays we elicited ILC2 with 0.5 mg IL-33, three doses i.p. over 10 days. Sorted ILC2 from lung were then 617 618 cultured in presence of IL-7 and IL-2 (50ng/ml) for 7 days before addition of DMOG.

619

#### 620 Flow cytometry

621

622 To identify mouse ILCs, single-cell suspensions were stained with mAb for known lineages and with mAb discriminating ILC subsets. mAbs for known lineages included 623 624 CD3 (17A2, Biolegend), CD4 (RM4-5, Biolegend), CD8a (53-6.7, Biolegend), TCRαβ 625 (H57-597, Biolegend), TCRγδ, (GL3, Biolegend) CD11b (M1/70, Biolegend), CD11c (N418, Biolegend), F4/80 (BM8, Biolegend), Ly6G (1A8, Biolegend), TER119 (TER-626 119, Biolegend), FccRla (MAR-1, Biolegend), CD19 (1D3/CD19, Biolegend), B220 627 (RA3-6B2, Biolegend), and CD49b (DX5, Biolegend). mAbs discriminating ILC subsets 628 included CD45.2 (104, BD), CD90.2 (30-H12, Biolegend), CD127 (A7R34, 629 eBioscience), NK1.1 (PK136, BD Biosciences), IL-18Rα (P3TUNYA, eBioscience), 630 631 ST2 (RMST2-2, eBioscience), CD226 (10E5, Biolegend), and CD49a (Ha31/8), NKp46 632 (29A1.4). mAbs for intracellular staining included GATA3 (L50-823, BD Biosciences), 633 T-bet (4B10, eBiosciences), RORyt (Q31-378, BD Biosciences), TCF-1 (S33-966, BD), Arg1 (A1exF5, BD Biosciences), Ki-67 (SolA15, eBiosciences), Eomes (Dan11mag, 634 eBiosciences, and HIF1 $\alpha$  (D1S7W, Cell Signaling). After extracellular staining, cells 635 were fixed and permeabilized (Foxp3 staining kit, eBiosciences) for intracellular 636 staining. Samples from Biosafety Level 3 were inactivated for 2 hours at RT with 4% 637 638 paraformaldehyde (ThermoFisher Scientific) after extracellular and intracellular 639 staining.

Live/Dead fixable blue (eBiosciences) and mouse FcBlock (BD Biosciences) were used for all flow cytometry experiments. Cell staining was analyzed using LSR Fortessa flow cytometers (BD) and FlowJo software (v10). Cells were first gated in singlets (FSC-H vs. FSC-W and SSC-H vs. SSC-W) and live cells before further analyses.

645

#### 646 Intracellular cytokines staining

647

For intracellular cytokines staining of ILCs, single-cell suspensions from lung were 648 incubated at 37°C with Brefeldin A in association or not with PMA (50 ng/ml, 649 650 Sigma)/Ionomycine (500 ng/ml, Sigma) or 50 ng/ml of IL-12 and IL-18 for 4 hours 651 before being surface stained, fixed and permeabilized (Foxp3 staining kit, eBiosciences). mAbs for cytokines staining included IFN- $\gamma$  (XMG1.2, Biolegend), IL-652 17A (TC11-18H10, BD Biosciences), IL-5 (TRFK5, BD Biosciences), and IL-13 653 654 (eBio13A, eBiosciences) For HIF1 $\alpha$  staining of ILCs, single-cell suspensions from lung were incubated at 37°C with DMOG (500µM) for 3 hours before being surface stained, 655 fixed and permeabilized (Foxp3 staining kit, eBiosciences). In order to block alvcolvsis 656 during ex vivo stimulation, cells were incubated in the presence of 10mM 2-DG 657 (Sigma). *Mtb was* inactivated by incubation in PFA 4% for 2 hours at room temperature. 658

659

#### 660 ILC enrichment and cell-sorting

661

Lung ILCs were enriched from lung single-cell suspensions by using the EasySep<sup>TM</sup> Mouse ILC2 Enrichment Kit (StemCell). After enrichment, cells were stained with lineage mAb (CD3, CD4, CD8α, TCRαβ, TCRγδ, CD19, B220, CD11b, CD11c, F4/80, TER119, FcεRIa, CD49b, Ly6G) and ILC markers (CD90.2, CD45.2, NK1.1, ST2, IL-18Rα, CD49a). ILC2 were purified as Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>ST2<sup>+</sup>IL-18Rα<sup>+/-</sup> ILC1like were purified as Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>ST2<sup>-</sup>IL-18Rα<sup>+/-</sup> ILC1sorted using a FACSAria Fusion cytometer (BD, France).

669

#### 670 In vitro culture of ILC2

671

672 Cell sorted ILC2 were incubated in 6-well plates at a density of 300,000 cells per ml
673 for 4 days with IL-2 (25 ng/ml, R&D) and IL-7 (25 ng/ml, R&D) in RPMI (Difco)
674 supplemented with 10 % FBS. After 4 days of culture, ILC2 were harvested for adoptive

transfer or incubated with DMOG (Sigma). For DMOG experiment, half of the medium 675 was removed and replaced with fresh medium containing IL-2 (25 ng/ml) and IL-7 (25 676 ng/ml) with or without DMOG (500 µM) for 3 more days. Cell sorted ILC2 were 677 678 incubated in 6-well plates at a density of 300,000 cells per ml for 4 days with IL-2 (25 ng/ml, R&D) and IL-7 (25 ng/ml, R&D) in RPMI (Difco) supplemented with 10 % FBS. 679 After 4 days of culture, ILC2 were harvested for adoptive transfer or incubated with 680 DMOG (Sigma). For DMOG experiment, half of the medium was removed and 681 replaced with fresh medium containing IL-2 (25 ng/ml) and IL-7 (25 ng/ml) with or 682 683 without DMOG (500 µg/ml) for 3 more days. For the Seahorse assays, sorted ILC2 684 from lung were cultured in presence of IL-7 and IL-2 (50ng/ml) for 7 days before 685 addition of DMOG.

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#### 687 SCENITH assay

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689 SCENITH experiments were performed as previously described (Argüello et al., 2020) 690 using the SCENITH kit containing all reagents and anti-puromycin antibodies 691 (requested from www.scenith.com/try-it). Briefly, lung cell suspensions were 692 stimulated for 15 minutes at 37°C in the presence of the indicated inhibitors of various metabolic pathways then incubated for 30 minutes with puromycin at 37°C. At the end 693 of the incubation, puromycin was stained with fluorescent anti-puromycin antibodies 694 (Clone R4743L-E8) by flow cytometry and the impact of the various metabolic inhibitors 695 696 was quantitated as described (Argüello et al., 2020).

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#### 698 Seahorse experiments

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700 1.5 to 2 x10<sup>5</sup> FACS sorted lung ILC2s per well were rested in a 96-well plate in Glutamax RPMI (supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, non-essential amino 701 702 acids, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 85 µM 2-mercapto-ethanol and 100 U/ml penicillinstreptomycin) containing 25 ng/ml IL-7. After 24h cells were split and rested in fresh 703 704 IL-7 containing media for another 3 days. Subsequently, cells were cultured in fresh 705 medium containing 25 ng/ml IL-7 and 20 ng/ml of IL-2 in the presence or absence of 706 0.5 mM DMOG for a further 72 hours. To prepare for extracellular flux analysis cells 707 were then washed thoroughly in XF medium (modified DMEM) and adhered to the 708 Seahorse plate using 22.4 µg/ml Cell-Tak (Corning).

For glycolytic stress test, cells were plated at a density of 2x10<sup>5</sup> cells/well in XF medium 709 supplemented with 2 mM glutamine. Cells were incubated for 30-60 min at 37°C and 710 ECAR was measured under basal conditions, and in response to 10 mM glucose, 2 711 712 µM oligomycin and 50 mM 2-DG. For the mitochondrial stress test, cells were plated at a density of 1.5x10<sup>5</sup> cells/well in XF medium supplemented with 2 mM glutamine, 1 713 mM sodium pyruvate and 25 mM glucose. Cells were incubated for 30-60 min at 37°C. 714 OCAR was measured under basal conditions, after injection of 2 µM oligomycin, 1.5 715 µM FCCP and 100 nM rotenone + 1 µM antimycin A. Extracellular flux assays were 716 717 done using a 96-well extracellular flux analyzer XFe-96 (Seahorse Bioscience).

Normalization by protein was used to correct for potential differences in seeding
densities across wells. Protein measurement was performed using the Pierce BCA
protein assay according to the manufacturer instructions.

#### 721 Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of transcripts

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723 RNA from lungs homogenates was extracted using TRIzol reagent (Ambion) and 724 RNeasy spin columns according to manufacturer's instructions (RNeasy kit, Qiagen). 725 RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA using M-MLV Reverse transcriptase 726 (Invitrogen). RT-qPCR was performed using gene-targeted primers (Supplementary Table 1) as described above. Values were normalized using the housekeeping beta-727 actin gene (Actb) and expressed as a fold change. RNA from ILC2 culture were 728 extracted using RLT (Qiagen) and RNA were reverse transcribed as previously 729 730 described (Troegeler et al., 2017).

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#### 732 Statistical analyses

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Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9 software. Agostino and Pearson normality tests were performed to determine whether data followed a normal distribution. Unpaired *t*-test (for normal data) or Mann-Whitney (for non-normal data) were performed when two samples were compared; ANOVA (for normal data) or Kruskal-Wallis (for non-normal data) tests were performed when more than two samples were compared. For all analyses, \* indicates P < 0.05, \*\* indicates P < 0.01, \*\*\* indicates P < 0.001, and \*\*\*\* indicates P < 0.0001.

741

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743

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#### 765 Author contributions

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D.C. and D.H. conceived and designed the study with input from O.N.; D.C., A.C., M.Z.K., E.B., T.S. and F.L. performed the experiments; E.L., J-P.G., and R.J.A contributed critical reagents and methods, D.C., G.E., J-C.G., R.J.A., M.R.H. and D.H. analyzed and interpreted the data; J-C.G., G.E., M.R.H., and Y.P., also provide important discussion for the project and critical feedback on the manuscript; D.C., O.N. and D.H. wrote the manuscript. All coauthors read, reviewed and approved the manuscript.

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#### 775 Competing interests

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#### 776

### 777 The authors declare no competing interests

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# **Figure legends**

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Figure 1. IL-18Rα–expressing ILC2 differentiate into ILC1-like cells during *Mtb* 780 infection (A) Representative dot plots showing the gating strategy used to analyze 781 ILC subsets in the lungs of C57BL/6 mice after doublets exclusion (top graphs): ILC1 782 783 (dark blue), ILC3 (red), IL-18R $\alpha^-$  ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 (yellow) and T-bet<sup>+</sup>IL- $18R\alpha^+$  ILC (light blue) are depicted in non-infected and *Mtb*-infected mice. (B) 784 Unsupervised t-SNE distribution of total lung Lin<sup>-</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup> populations at steady-state 785 (left graph) and during *Mtb* infection (right graph). Based on gating strategy defined in 786 787 Figure 1A, ILC subsets were depicted with the same color code: ILC1 in dark blue, 788 ILC3 in red, IL-18R $\alpha^-$  ILC2 in green, IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 in yellow and ILC1-like cells (light 789 blue). (C) Expression of GATA3 (MFI), ST2 (%), and Arg1 (%) in indicated ILC subsets 790 at day 28 post-infection in C57BL/6 mice. (D) Expression of T-bet (MFI), CD49a (%) 791 and CD226 (MFI) in indicated ILC subsets at day 28 post-infection in C57BL/6 mice. 792 (E) Percentages of IFN-γ, IL-5, and IL-17A positive cells in the indicated ILC subsets 793 after ex vivo stimulation with PMA/ionomycin in presence of Brefeldin A for 4h at day 794 28 post-infection in C57BL/6 mice. (F) Absolute numbers of ILC1-like cells at the 795 indicated days after *Mtb* infection. Prior to sacrifice, mice were injected with fluorescent 796 anti-CD45.2 to distinguish vascular and parenchymal cells. ILC1-like cells have been gated on lung-resident cells. (G) Percentages of IFN- $\gamma^+$  cells in the indicated ILC 797 798 subsets after ex vivo stimulation with IL-12+IL-18 or not, in presence of Brefeldin A for 4h at day 28 post-infection in C57BL/6 mice. (H) Absolute numbers of IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 799 at the indicated days after Mtb infection. Prior to sacrifice, mice were injected with 800 801 fluorescent anti-CD45.2 to distinguish vascular and parenchymal cells. IL-18Ra<sup>+</sup> ILC2 have been gated on lung-resident cells. (I) Experimental settings for the adoptive 802 transfer of IL-18R $\alpha^-$  and IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 into Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> $\gamma c^{-/-}$  before *Mtb* infection. (J) 803 Percentage of ILC (Lin-CD45.2+CD90.2+CD127+) in lung at day 21 post-infection in 804 805 Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> $\gamma$ c<sup>-/-</sup> after adoptive transfer of IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2 (green) and IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>+</sup> ILC2 (yellow). 806 (K) As in (J), but for T-bet expression in ILC. In (C, D, F and H), data are representative 807 of five independent experiments, in (E, G) data are representative of two independent 808 experiments and in (J, K) data are a pool of two independent experiments with each 809 symbol representing an individual mouse, graphs depict data as mean (± s.e.m) and

- statistical analysis was performed using two-way (E-F), one-way ANOVA (C-D, G-H)
- or Mann Whitney test (J-K) (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, p<0.001).

812 Figure 2. The inflammatory environment shapes the fate of IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2. (A) Representative dot-plots of T-bet and IL18R $\alpha$  expression after intranasal 813 administration of PBS and IL-12+IL-18 in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice in Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup> 814 RORyt<sup>-</sup> cells (B) Absolute numbers of IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (yellow) 815 and ILC1-like cells (blue) after cytokine (IL-12+IL-18) or control (PBS) treatment. (C) 816 Percentage of TCF-1 in lung IL-18Ra<sup>-</sup> ILC2 after intranasal administration of PBS 817 818 (white dots) or IL-12+IL-18 (grey dots). (D) Percentages of cells expressing IL-5 or IFN-819  $\gamma$  among the indicated ILC subsets after *ex vivo* stimulation with PMA/ionomycin in the presence of brefeldin A for 4h. (E) Percentages of IFN- $\gamma^+$  cells in the indicated ILC 820 subsets after ex vivo stimulation with IL-12+IL-18. PMA/ionomycin or not in presence 821 822 of Brefeldin A for 4h from IL-12+IL-18 treated C57BL/6 mice. (F) Representative dot-823 plots of T-bet and IL18Ra expression after intranasal administration of IL-33, IL-12+IL-18 and IL-12+IL-18+IL-33 in *Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>* mice in Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>RORγt<sup>-</sup> cells. 824 (G-I) Absolute numbers of IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (G), IL-18R $\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (H) and ILC1-like cells (I) 825 after intranasal administration of IL-33. IL-12+IL-18. or IL-12+IL-18+IL-33. (J) 826 827 Expression of ST2 (%), Arg1 (%) and CD49a (%) in IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 in IL-33 (black dots), IL-12+IL-18 (white dots) and IL-12+IL-18+IL-33 (grey dots) -treated mice. (K) 828 829 Percentage of IL-5<sup>+</sup>IFN- $\gamma^-$  (right), IL-5<sup>-</sup>IFN- $\gamma^+$  (middle), IL-5<sup>+</sup>IFN- $\gamma^+$  (left) in IL-18R $\alpha^+$ 830 ILC2 in IL-33 (black dots), IL-12+IL-18 (white dots) and IL-12+IL-18+IL-33 (grey dots) 831 -treated mice. (L) Absolute numbers of IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 (left) and ILC1-like cells (right) after intranasal administration of PBS (control), neuromedin U (NMU), IL-12+IL-18, or 832 IL-12+IL-18+NMU. Each symbol represents an individual mouse. Statistical analysis 833 was performed using Mann-Whitney (B, C), one-way (G-K) and two-way (D-E, L) 834 ANOVA tests (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, p<0.0001). Graphs depict data 835 836 as mean (± s.e.m). Data are representative of three (B, D, G-K), and two (C, E, L) independent experiments. 837

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#### 841 Figure 3. Metabolic reprogramming toward glycolysis is associated with an ILC1-

842 **like cell differentiation. (A)** Representative histograms of puromycin staining in NK 843 cells (violet), IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (yellow), and ILC1-like cells (blue) in IL-12+IL-18-treated mice. (B) Expression of puromycin (MFI) in NK cells (violet), IL-844 845  $18R\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green), IL- $18R\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (yellow), and ILC1-like cells (blue) in PBS vs. IL-846 12+IL-18 treated mice. (C) Percentages of puromycin-positive cells in NK cells (violet), 847 IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (yellow), and ILC1-like cells (blue) in PBS vs. IL-12+IL-18 treated mice. (D) Representative histograms of puromycin staining (left) 848 849 and guantification (MFI, right) in ILC1-like cells from IL-12+IL-18 treated mice after incubation with various metabolic inhibitors (Co, control; DG, 2-Deoxyglycose; O, 850 851 oligomycin; DGO, 2-Deoxyglucose + Oligomycin). (E-F) Percentages of mitochondrial 852 dependence (E), and glycolytic capacity (F) in NK (violet), IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green), IL-853  $18R\alpha^+$  ILC2 (yellow), and ILC1-like cells (blue) in PBS vs. IL-12+IL-18 treated mice. 854 (G) Percentages of Arg1<sup>+</sup> cells among IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>+</sup> ILC2 (yellow), 855 and ILC1-like cells (blue) defined after intranasal administration of PBS (control) or 856 cytokines (IL-12+IL-18). (H) Histograms showing HIF1 $\alpha$  expression in IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2 (left), IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 (middle) and ILC1-like cells in PBS (black line) or IL-12+IL-18 857 858 (blue line) treated mice. Dash line represents isotype control for HIF1 $\alpha$  staining. Due 859 to the absence of ILC1-like cells at steady-state, only the condition with IL-12+IL-18 treatment is represented. (I) Histograms showing HIF1 $\alpha$  protein expression in ILC2 860 cultured in the absence (vehicle, grey) or presence of DMOG (blue). The dot line 861 represents FMO for HIF1 $\alpha$  detection. (J-L) Quantitative analysis of the intensity 862 of GATA3 (J), ST2 (K) and IL-5 (L) expression in ILC2 cultured in the absence (vehicle) 863 864 or presence of DMOG. (M) Seahorse analysis of glycolytic stress test with 865 quantification of glycolysis and glycolytic capacity of ILC2 cultured in the presence or absence of DMOG. (N) Seahorse analysis of mitochondrial respiration with 866 867 quantification of spare respiratory capacity of ILC2 cultured in the presence or absence of DMOG. (O) as in (J-L) except that the expression of Tbx21, Ifng and II18ra1 mRNA 868 869 was analyzed by RT-qPCR. Each symbol represents an individual mouse and 870 statistical analysis was performed using two-way ANOVA (B, C, E, F, G), and paired t test (J-O) (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, p<0.0001). Graphs depict data as 871 872 mean (± s.e.m) from two (A-N) and a pool of three (O) independent experiments.

Figure 4. ILC1-like cells confer protection against Mtb. (A) C57BL/6 were 873 vaccinated by internasal administration of BCG or not (PBS) 60 days before infection. 874 After 14 days post-infection, mice were euthanized. (B) Mycobacterial loads at day 14 875 post-infection in C57BL/6 mice vaccinated or not (PBS) with 1x10<sup>5</sup> BCG via the 876 intranasal route 60 days prior Mtb infection. (C) Percentages of total lung ILC 877 expressing T-bet. (D) Absolute numbers of ILC1 (dark blue), ILC3 (red), IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2 878 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 (yellow) and ILC1-like cells (light blue) at day 14 post-infection 879 880 in C57BL/6 mice vaccinated or not (PBS) with 1x10<sup>5</sup> BCG via the intranasal route 60 days prior *Mtb* infection. (E) Percentages of IFN- $\gamma^+$  cells among ILC1-like cells in *Mtb*-881 infected unvaccinated vs. vaccinated mice after ex vivo stimulation with IL-12+IL-18 in 882 883 the presence of brefeldin A for 4h. (F) Schematic representation of the in vivo expansion of ILC1-like cells in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice treated with IL-12+IL-18+IL-33, cell-sorting 884 of ILC1-like cells (Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>ST2<sup>-</sup>CD49a<sup>+</sup>IL-18Ra<sup>+</sup>) and adoptive 885 transfer in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup> one day before infection with *Mtb* by intratracheal route. (G) 886 Representative histograms of T-bet, GATA3 and RORyt expression in sorted ILC1-like 887 cells (grev) vs. ILC2 (Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>ST2<sup>+</sup> cells). (H) Bacterial loads at day 888 21 post-infection in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup> mice having received (+ILC1-like) or not (-ILC1like) 889 an adoptive transfer of ILC1-like cells from IL-12+IL-18+IL-33 treated Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice one 890 891 day before *Mtb* infection. Each symbol represents an individual mouse. Statistical analysis was performed using Mann-Whitney test (B-H) (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, 892 p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, p<0.0001). Graphs depict data as mean (± s.e.m). Data are 893 894 representative of two (B-H) independent experiments.

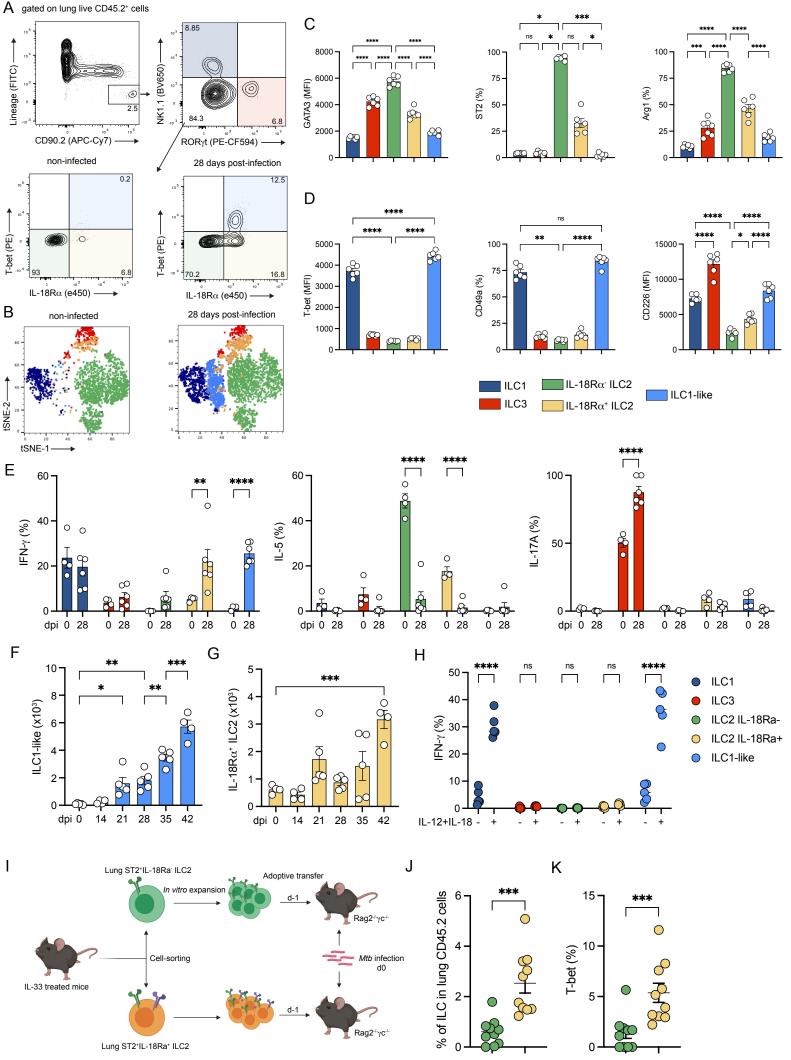
Supplementary Figure 1. Dynamics of ILCs during *Mtb* infection in the mouse 895 model. (A) Representative expression of GATA3 and ST2 on the indicated ILC 896 subsets. (B) Expression of GATA3 (MFI), ST2 (%) and Arg1 (%) in ILC1 (blue), IL-897 898  $18R\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green) and IL- $18R\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (yellow) at steady-state in the lung of C57BL/6 899 mice. (C) Expression of IL-5 (%) and IFN- $\gamma$  (%) in the indicated ILC subsets after ex 900 vivo stimulation with PMA/ionomycin in presence of Brefeldin A for 4h at steady-state 901 in the lung of C57BL/6 mice (D) Percentages of TCF-1<sup>+</sup> cells in ILC2P from bone marrow (grey) compared to IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green) and IL-18R $\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (yellow) from 902 the lungs of C57BL/6 mice at steady-state. (E) Percentages of NKp46<sup>+</sup> (left) and 903 904 Eomes<sup>+</sup> (right) cells in ILC1-like cells compared to in NK cells and ILC1 at day 28 post-905 infection. (F) Absolute numbers of ILC1 (dark blue), ILC3 (red) and IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 at the indicated days after Mtb infection. Prior to sacrifice, mice were injected with 906 907 fluorescent anti-CD45.2 to distinguish vascular and parenchymal cells. ILC1, ILC3, IL- $18R\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 and IL- $18R\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 have been gated on lung-resident cells. (G) Absolute 908 number of ILC1-like cells at day 28 post-infection in C57BL/5 (grey) vs. Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> (black) 909 mice. (H) Schematic representation of the in vivo expansion of ILC2 in C57BL/6 or 910 Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice treated with IL-33, cell-sorting, in vitro culture and adoptive transfer of 911 ILC2 in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup> one day before infection with *Mtb*. (I) Gating strategy to purify 912 913 ILC2 based on the expression of ST2 (left two graphs) and purity of ILC2 after cellsorting (right). (J) Phenotype of ILC2 after in vitro culture and before adoptive transfer. 914 915 (K) A representative dot-plot of GATA3 and T-bet expression in Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup> cells isolated from Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup> mice adoptively transferred with purified ILC2 then left 916 917 uninfected (right) or infected with Mtb (left). (L) Percentages of T-bet expressing ILC at different days post-infection. (M) Expression of IL-18R $\alpha$  (%) and Ki67 (%) in 918 transferred GATA3<sup>+</sup> (white dots) vs. T-bet<sup>+</sup> (grey dots) ILC at day 28 post-infection in 919 920 *Rag2<sup>-/-</sup>II2rg<sup>-/-</sup>* mice. Each symbol represents an individual mouse. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA test (B-F, L) or Mann-Whitney test (G, M) (\*, 921 p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, p<0.0001). Graphs depict data as mean (± 922 923 s.e.m). Data are representative of five (F), three (B-C, K-M) and two (D, E, G) 924 independent experiments.

Supplementary Figure 2. Combination of IL-12, IL-18 and IL-33 induces a mixed 925 ILC1 and ILC2 phenotype on IL-18Ra<sup>+</sup> ILC2. (A) Representative dot-plot showing IL-926 5 and IL-18R $\alpha$  expression among IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>-</sup> ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha$ <sup>+</sup> ILC2 (red), and 927 ILC1-like (blue) in PBS vs. IL-12+IL-18 treated IL-5<sup>Cre</sup>ROSA26<sup>YFP</sup> mic (left) and 928 quantification (right). (B) Representative dot-plot showing YFP and IL-18R $\alpha$ 929 expression among IL-18R $\alpha^{-}$  ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^{+}$  ILC2 (red), and ILC1-like (blue) in 930 PBS vs. IL-12+IL-18 treated IL-5<sup>Cre</sup>ROSA26<sup>YFP</sup> mic (left) and quantification (right). (C) 931 Unsupervised t-SNE representation of the expression of different markers (GATA3, 932 Arg1, T-bet, IL-18Rα, CD49a, CD226 and Ki67) on Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>RORγt<sup>-</sup> 933 in non-infected vs. *Mtb*-infected (28 dpi) vs. IL-12+IL-18 treated Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice. (D) As in 934 A) except that the analysis was performed on Lin<sup>-</sup>CD45.2<sup>+</sup>CD90.2<sup>+</sup>NK1.1<sup>-</sup>RORyt<sup>-</sup> in IL-935 12+IL-18 vs. IL-33 vs. IL-12+IL-18 treated Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice. Statistical analysis was 936 performed two-way ANOVA test (A-B) (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, 937 p<0.0001). Graphs depict data as mean (± s.e.m). Data are representative of two (A-938 939 **B)** independent experiments.

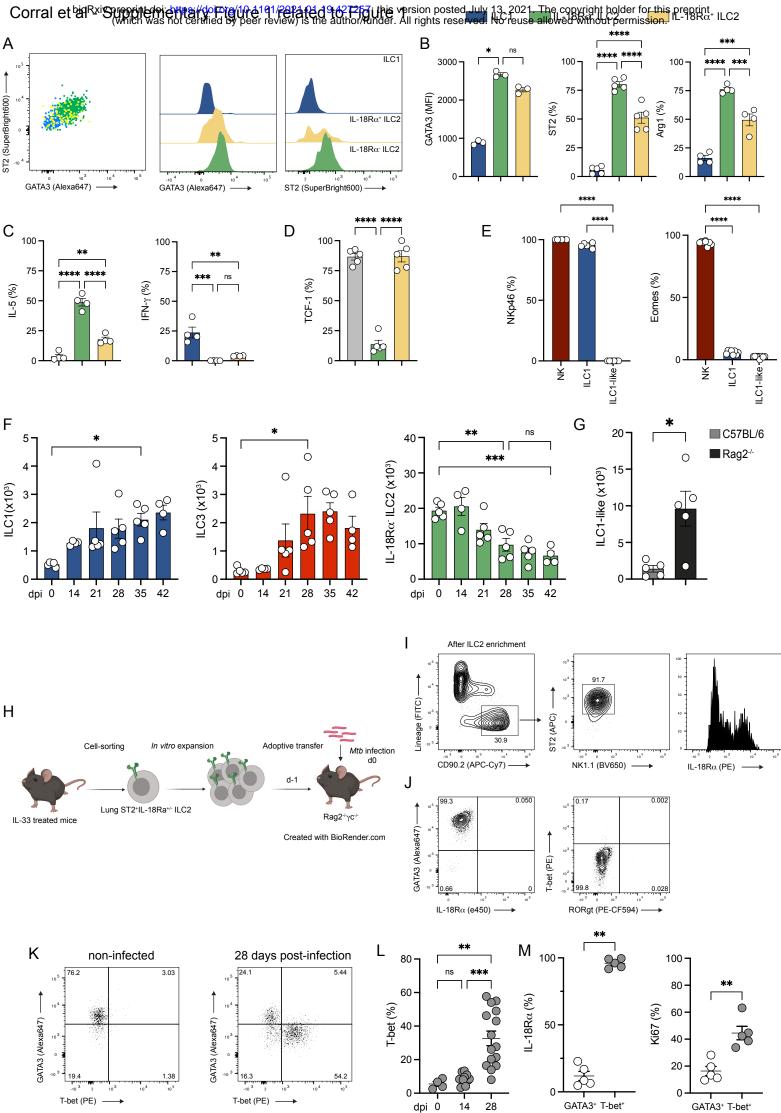
Supplementary Figure 3. Glycolysis regulates ILC1-like cell differentiation 940 941 during *Mtb* infection. (A) Percentage of puromycin positive cells in ILC1 (dark blue), 942 ILC3 (red), IL-18R $\alpha^-$  ILC2 (green), IL-18R $\alpha^+$  ILC2 (yellow) and ILC1-like cells (blue) in non-infected vs. *Mtb*-infected Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice. (B) HIF1 $\alpha$  expression in the indicated ILC 943 944 subsets at day 28 post-infection (C) Expression of IFN- $\gamma$  in total ILCs after *ex vivo* 945 stimulation with IL-12+IL-18 in the presence or absence of 2-DG. (D) Absolute numbers of ILC1-like cells in Rag2<sup>-/-</sup> mice treated or not with 2-DG during *Mtb* infection 946 at day 28 post-infection. (E) Percentages of IFNy-producing cells among ILC1-like cells 947 948 after ex vivo stimulation with PMA/ionomycin in the presence of brefeldin A for 4h from PBS vs. 2-DG treated mice. (F) As in (D) except that mice treated with 30% glucose in 949 950 their drinking water. (G) As in (E) except that mice were treated or not with 30% glucose in their drinking water. Each symbol represents an individual mouse and statistical 951 952 analysis was performed using two-way ANOVA (A), one-way ANOVA (B), Wilcoxon (C) and Mann-Whitney (D-G) tests (\*, p<0.05; \*\*, P<0.01; \*\*\*, p<0.001; \*\*\*\*, p<0.0001). 953 954 Graphs depict data as mean (± s.e.m) from three (D-E) or two (A-C, F-G) independent 955 experiments.

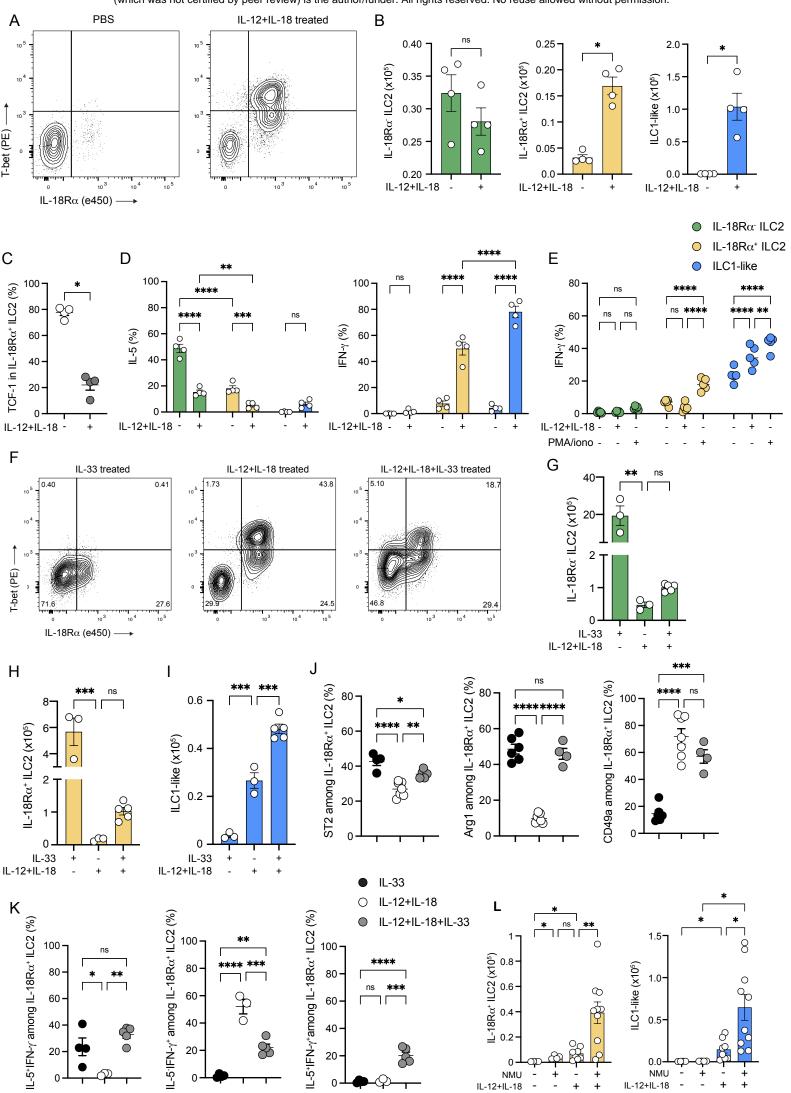
Supplementary Figure 4. Metabolic regulation of IL-18Ra<sup>+</sup> ILC2 differentiation 956 into ILC1-like cells during Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection. Mtb infection 957 results in the establishment of a type 1 inflammation. Type 1 cytokines, IL-12, IL-18 958 and IFN- $\gamma$  (upper part) act on a rare, lung immature IL-18R $\alpha$ -expressing ILC2 subset 959 and triggers a glycolysis-involving metabolic reprogramming leading to its 960 differentiation into ILC1-like cells IL18Ra<sup>+</sup>, CD49a<sup>+</sup>CD226<sup>+</sup>HIF-1a<sup>+</sup>, T-bet<sup>+</sup>, IFN-γ-961 producing) endowed with a protective potential against Mtb. In contrast, type 2 962 cytokines such as IL-33 (lower part) acts on this immature IL-18R $\alpha$ -expressing ILC2 963 subset to drive its maturation toward mature IL-5 producing ILC2. 964

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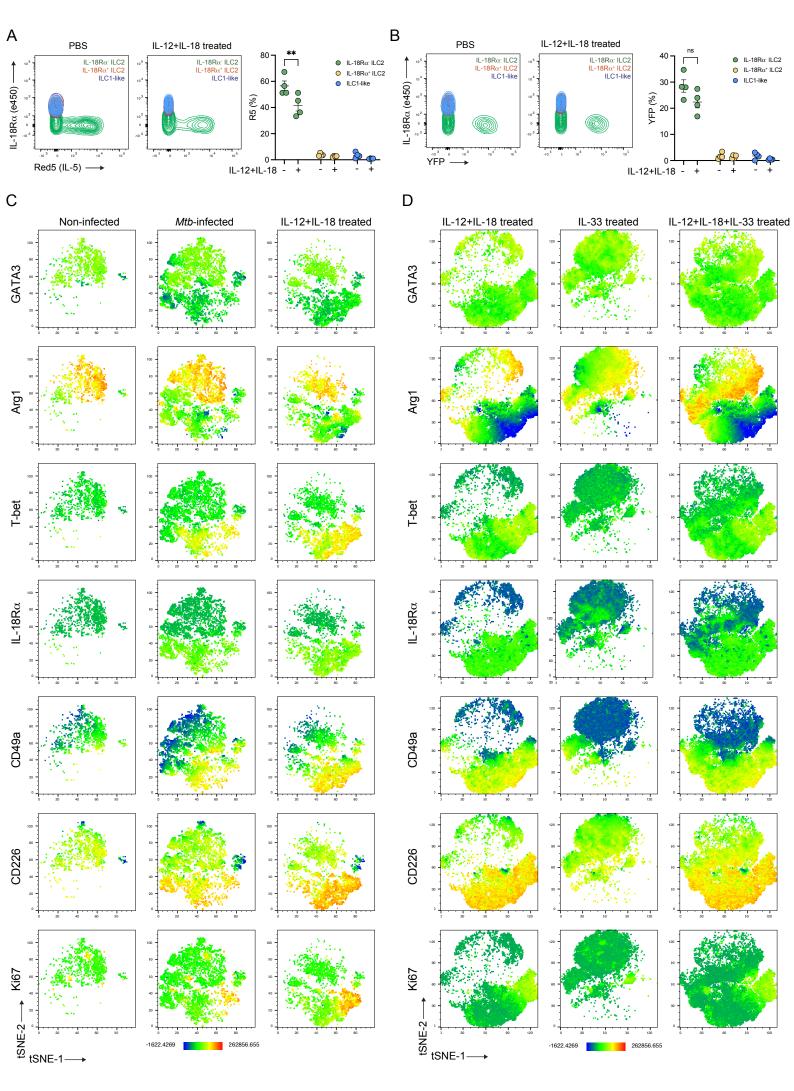
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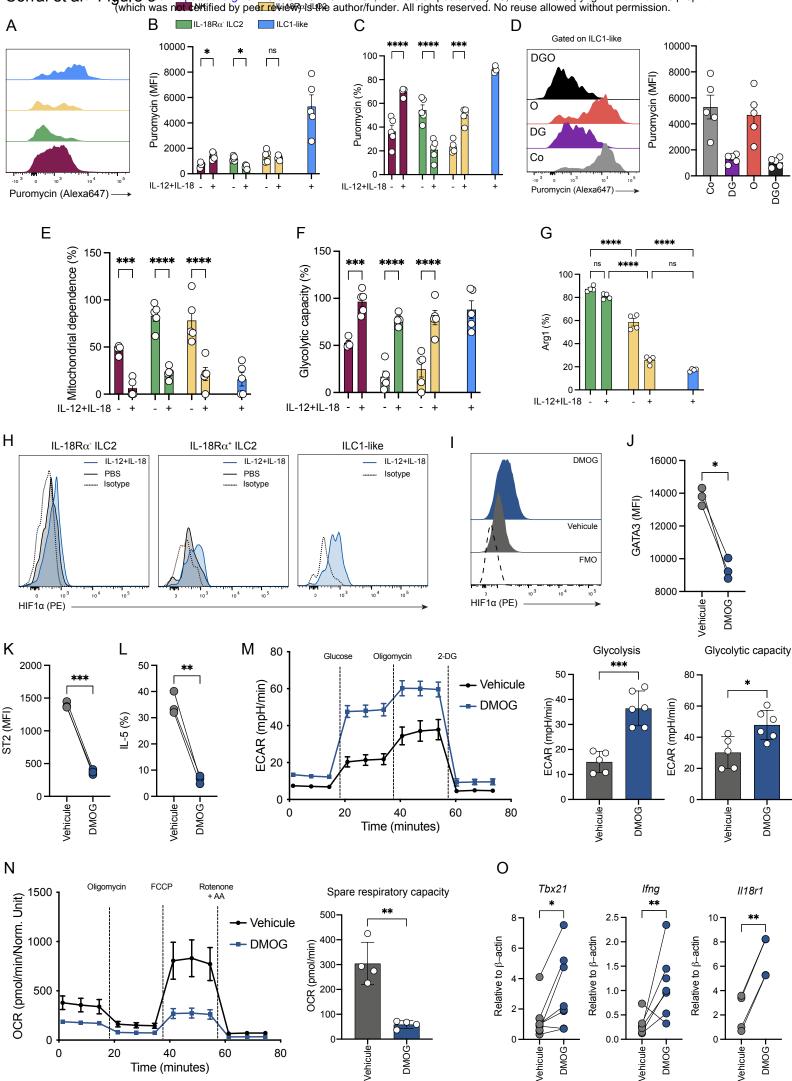




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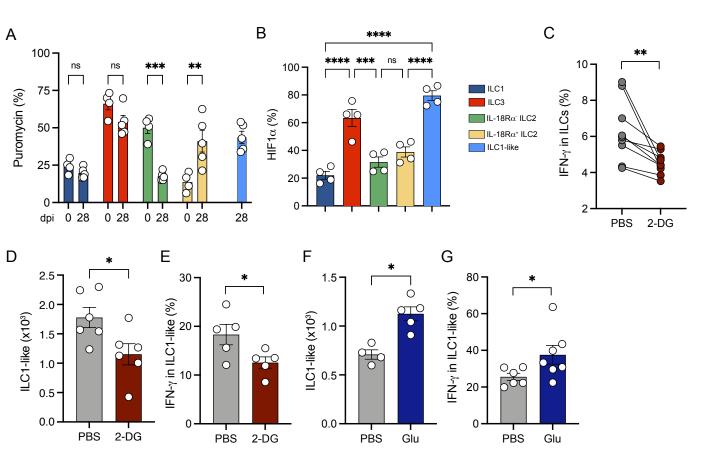
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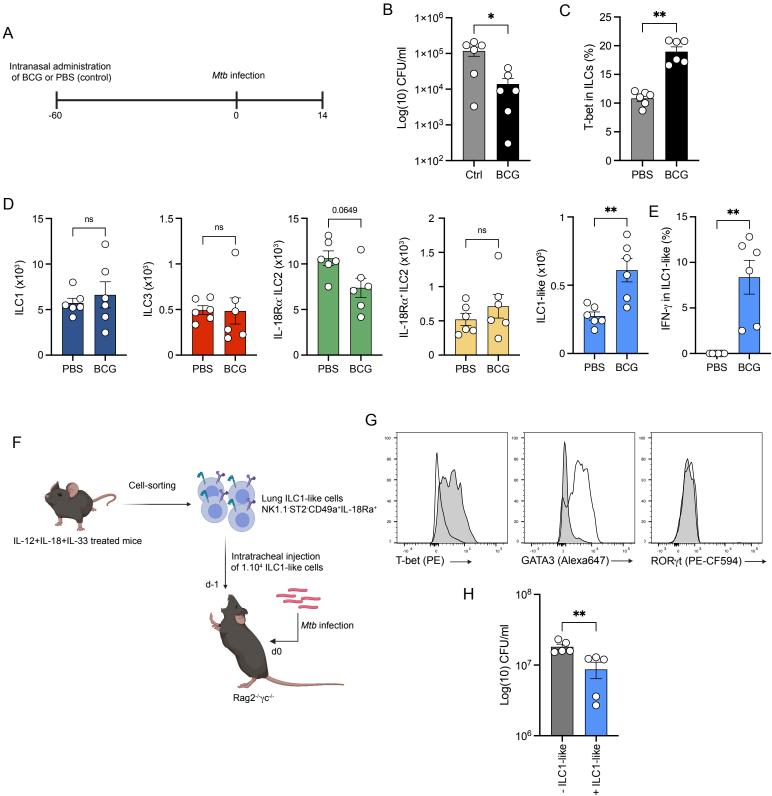


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Mycobacterium tuberculosis

