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 Impact of Type 2 Diabetes on the capacity of human macrophages infected with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* to modulate monocyte differentiation through a bystander effect

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ABSTRACT

 Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a risk factor for the development of tuberculosis (TB) through mechanisms poorly understood. Monocytes and macrophages are key effector cells to control TB, but they are also subverted by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb). Specifically, Mtb can induce a bystander effect that skews monocyte differentiation towards macrophages with a permissive phenotype to infection. Here, we evaluated whether T2DM impacts this TB aspect. Our approach was to differentiate monocytes from healthy control (HC) subjects and T2DM patients into macrophages (MDM), and then assess their response to Mtb infection, including their secretome content and bystander effect capacity. Through flow cytometry analyses, we found a lower level of activation markers in MDM from T2DM 41 patients in comparison to those from HC in response to mock (HLA-DR, CD86, and CD163) or Mtb challenge (CD14 and CD80). In spite of high TGF-β1 levels in mock- infected MDM from T2DM patients, cytometric bead arrays indicated there were no major differences in the secretome cytokine content in these cells relative to HC- MDM, even in response to Mtb. Mimicking a bystander effect, the secretome of Mtb- infected HC-MDM drove HC monocytes towards MDM with a permissive phenotype for Mtb intracellular growth. However, the secretome from Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM did not exacerbate the Mtb load compared to secretome from Mtb-infected HC-MDM, 49 possibly due to the high IL-1 β production relative to Mtb-infected HC-MDM. Collectively, despite T2DM affecting the basal MDM activation, our approach revealed it has no major consequence on their response to Mtb or capacity to generate a bystander effect influencing monocyte differentiation.

INTRODUCTION

 Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is currently a major health issue that has reached alarming levels, causing 90% of diabetes (DM) cases reported worldwide in 2019 (463 million adults) . In the same year, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), the etiological agent of tuberculosis 59 (TB), was the leading single infectious agent responsible for 1.4 million deaths globally . T2DM is characterized by a range of metabolic, inflammatory, vascular, and other physiological changes that increase TB susceptibility and worsen its pathology; the combination of all these factors clearly contributes to a poor disease outcome in diabetic 63 patients .

 The TB risk in patients with T2DM varies among study design and populations ranging from 65 1.16 to 7.83 fold ⁴. The global prevalence of TB-T2DM is estimated at about 15.3%, and this varies among countries, ranging from 0.1% in Latvia to 45.2% in the Marshall Islands, 67 including 29.5% in Mexico 5_c In addition to the predisposition to develop active TB, other unfavorable TB outcomes are associated with comorbidity with DM, such as higher 69 incidence of cavitary lung lesions, relapse, persistence, and death . It is also thought that the immune response to Mtb is affected at multiple levels in T2DM patients, but there still is 71 scarce knowledge about how this takes place $3, 7$. To develop intervention strategies to reduce the dual burden of TB-T2DM, it is imperative to better understand the potential mechanisms by which these diseases influence each other.

 Mtb infection occurs by inhalation of bacteria that invade alveolar macrophages, causing their translocation from the alveoli into the parenchyma, where the bacilli then spread to interstitial monocyte/macrophages, dendritic cells, and neutrophils recruited from the circulation. Subsequently, this results in the priming of a dedicated adaptive immune

78 response against Mtb⁷. Interestingly, Mtb has adapted to the human host and evolved the ability to subvert mononuclear phagocytes by modulating, for example, the activation of macrophages and their biological functions. Macrophages are primordial regulators of the balance of pro- and anti-inflammatory responses to ensure the control of bacterial replication 82 and limit tissue injury after pathogenic insult $8, 9$. In general, macrophage activation is classified within a broad spectrum characterized by two opposite extremes: classic (M1, pro- inflammatory) and alternative (M2, anti-inflammatory, pro-resolving) in response to environmental cues or infection. The classical M1 cells display effector, pro-inflammatory 86 and type-1 immunity properties that mediate the defense against intracellular pathogens , $10¹⁰$. Within the spectrum, there is another proinflammatory macrophage activation phenotype called metabolically activated (MMe), which was described *in vivo* in adipose tissue and induced *in vitro* by high glucose, insulin, and palmitate concentrations. MMe is characterized 90 by the expression of CD36, ABCA1, and PLIN2 $¹¹$, but its role in infection is unknown. The</sup> literature suggests that Mtb modulates the activation of macrophages, reprogramming them towards the M2 spectrum to enhance its own survival. Indeed, the M2 phenotype is known 93 for being susceptible to pathogenic intracellular growth . However, the underlying mechanisms linking macrophage activation programs and a beneficial/harmful effect in TB 95 are not precisely determined $8, 13$. Additionally, monocytes (precursor cells that differentiate into macrophages and dendritic cell subsets) also contribute to the alteration of the 97 macrophage compartment during Mtb infection. For instance, Lastrucci and colleagues ¹⁴ described that the secretome of Mtb-infected macrophages favors the differentiation of human monocytes towards an M2-like activation program characterized by the 100 CD16⁺CD163⁺MERTK⁺ cell-surface phenotype and functional properties, such as high protease-dependent motility, pathogen permissivity, and immunomodulatory activity, via the IL-10/STAT3 axis. Moreover, they found a direct correlation of the abundance of 103 CD16+CD163+MERTK+pSTAT3+ macrophages in non-human primate lung biopsies and 104 pleural cavity of patients with TB disease severity ¹⁴. Whether T2DM affects macrophage activation through monocyte differentiation remains unexplored.

 We have previously reported that T2DM influences blood monocyte subsets in terms of frequency and cell-surface markers yielding a phenotype that is preserved during their 108 differentiation towards monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM)¹⁵. This phenotype is distinguished by the lower expression of activation markers, such as HLA-DR and CD86, 110 along with the macrophage marker CD163¹⁵. However, we did not determine whether this effect enacted by T2DM on monocytes has any consequences in the context of TB infection. This is precisely what we assessed in this study. Our approach was to differentiate monocytes from healthy control (HC) subjects and T2DM patients into macrophages (MDM), and evaluate their response to Mtb infection, including their secretome content and bystander effect capacity on monocyte differentiation.

RESULTS

Clinical characterization of human subjects

 To assure the differences found in the parameters of interest were due to the T2DM condition, and not to other clinical aspects, we carried out a direct comparison of the clinical characteristics of the participants integrating HC and T2DM individuals. As shown in table 1, participants from both groups had a similar age, BMI, total cholesterol, and LDL- cholesterol levels. As expected based on the inclusion criteria, T2DM patients had higher values for fasting glucose levels, HbA1c, triglycerides, and VLDL-cholesterol, but lower HDL-cholesterol, when compared to HC controls. Of note, T2DM patients had been diagnosed on average 7 years before enrollment. At the moment of recruitment patients were undergoing treatment with metformin (92.8%) or metformin plus glibenclamide (85.7%), but no insulin.

MDM from T2DM patients exhibit a lower activation status compared to controls which remains unchanged after Mtb infection

 Recently, our group reported that T2DM impacts the activation status of circulating 134 monocytes that is conserved even after differentiation towards MDM ¹⁵. However, we ignore whether this effect enacted by T2DM on monocyte activation plays a role in the susceptibility to TB. To address this issue, we isolated circulating monocytes from HC and T2DM subjects and differentiated them into MDM, which we then infected *in vitro* with Mtb H37Rv or RPMI media (mock). After 18 h (overnight), we then evaluated the cell-surface expression of the indicated markers, as measured by flow cytometry (Figures 1, Supplementary figure 1, 2, and 3). We found that MDM from T2DM patients compared to HC exhibited a lower expression of activation markers at steady-state (mock infection), such as HLA-DR and CD86, and the macrophage marker CD163 (Figure 1). Upon Mtb infection, there was a decrease in HLA-DR and CD86 in MDM from HC, a change not observed in cells from T2DM patients. However, unlike MDM from T2DM patients, Mtb induced the expression of other activation markers like CD80 and CD14 in HC (Figure 1). Of note, the expression of other cell-surface markers in MDM, such as CD16, CD11b, MERTK, CD206, ABCA1 and CD36, was not affected by T2DM status or by Mtb-infection (Supplementary figure 2 and 3). Altogether, these results indicate that T2DM affects the activation status of MDM differentiated from circulating monocytes, but fails to enact additional changes during challenge with Mtb.

Except for a high TGF-1 production from T2DM-MDM, there are no major differences in the cytokine response to mock and Mtb infection between T2DM-MDM and HC-MDM

 Conditioned media (secretome) of Mtb-infected macrophages was reported to inhibit 155 monocyte differentiation towards dendritic cells and skew macrophages differentiation 156 towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype favorable to the bacilli 14 . In both cases, the IL- 10/STAT3 signaling cascade was responsible for such phenomenon. To assess the cytokine profile generated by T2DM-MDM in response to mock and Mtb infection, we performed a multiplex cytometric bead array (CBA) approach. From a subgroup of the subjects studied for MDM marker expression, bearing the same clinical characteristic (Supplementary table 1), the secretomes were collected from MDM cultures for the following conditions: non- infected HC (cmCTR-HC), non-infected T2DM patients (cmCTR-T2DM), Mtb-infected HC (cmMTB-HC) and Mtb-infected T2DM (cmMTB-T2DM). For each subject, the corresponding secretome types were generated, aliquoted, and frozen at -80°C. To characterize the secretome cytokine profile, aliquots from each subject were thawed, pooled, and evaluated by CBA assays. As shown in Figure 2, similar concentrations of IL-8, TNF, IL-1β, IL-6 and

 IL-10, were found in secretomes from non-infected cells regardless of the diabetes status (cmCTR-HC vs. cmCTR-T2DM). Interestingly, the immunosuppressive TGF-β1 was significantly elevated in cmCTR-T2DM compared to cmCTR-HC (Figure 2). Upon Mtb infection, except for TGF-β1, MDM from the HC and T2DM groups secreted higher levels of each evaluated cytokine in comparison to their respective non-infected conditions. Notwithstanding, there was no difference in the abundance of any cytokine in question between cmMTB-HC and cmMTB-T2DM. Therefore, despite the differences in the expression of activation markers in T2DM-MDM induced by Mtb-infection (Figure 1), there are no obvious effects of T2DM in the cytokine response to Mtb infection.

T2DM does not influence the bystander effect driven by Mtb infection to skew monocyte differentiation towards M2 macrophages

 As aforementioned, Lastrucci and colleagues demonstrated that Mtb infection of macrophages created a bystander effect that drove monocyte differentiation towards an anti-181 inflammatory M2-like phenotype characterized by CD16⁺CD163⁺MERTK⁺ cell-surface 182 phenotype . To investigate whether T2DM affects this process, we used the four secretomes described above to differentiate monocytes from healthy donors towards macrophages. As expected, conditioning of monocytes with cmMTB-HC compared to 185 cmCTR-HC drives the differentiation of CD16⁺CD163⁺MERTK⁺ MDM. By contrast, we observed no changes in the expression of these M2 markers in MDM differentiated with the secretome from Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM compared to that from mock-infected T2DM-MDM (Figure 3). Beyond M2 markers, we also explored a broader cell-surface marker profile including M1 and MMe programs. These markers included CD14, CD11b, CD86, CD80, HLA-DR, PDL-1, CD206, ABCA1, CD36 and, PLIN2 (Figures 4, Supplementary figure 4 and 5). As illustrated in Figure 4, there was a lower expression of CD11b and CD80 in MDM differentiated with cmMTB-T2DM compared to cmCTR-T2DM. Remarkably, the secretomes derived from T2DM-MDM (cmCTR and cmMTB) induced a lower proportion and median fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the ABCA1 receptor when compared to those cells conditioned with secretomes from the HC counterparts (Figure 4), indicating the expression of this marker is driven by T2DM, but not by Mtb-infection. Of note, there was no significant difference across these groups for the proportion or MFI for CD14, CD86, PDL-1, CD206, CD36, and PLIN2 (Supplementary figures 4 and 5). Collectively, these results indicate that T2DM does not influence the capacity of Mtb infection to control monocyte differentiation towards macrophages with an anti-inflammatory program, and they also demonstrate a direct effect by T2DM on the ABCA1 receptor expression independent of the TB context.

T2DM modulates the bystander effect driven by Mtb infection to drive monocyte differentiation towards macrophages that secrete high levels of IL-1

 The bystander effect by Mtb infection decreases the capacity of MDM to engage in the 206 production of proinflammatory cytokine response, such as TNF and IL-12¹⁴. Beyond the assessment of cell-surface marker expression, we also investigated the effect of T2DM in this aspect. Accordingly, we measured the cytokine profile secreted by MDM differentiated with the four different secretomes using a CBA-based approach. As shown in Figure 5, we noticed a higher production of IL-1β in MDM differentiated with cmMTB-T2DM compared to those conditioned with the other secretomes (Figure 5). Additionally, both secretomes from infected MDM (cmMTB-HC and cmMTB-T2DM) produced higher levels of the anti- inflammatory IL-10 compared to cells exposed to the secretome from non-infected cells (cm- CTR-HC and cmCTR-T2DM) (Figure 5). Of note, there were no differences detected in the cytokine context among the secretomes, including IL-8, IL-12, TNF, IL-6, and TGF-β1 (Supplementary figure 6). Despite the lack of modulation of M2-like cell surface markers by T2DM, these cells still produce IL-10 (M2-profile) and proinflammatory signals as IL-1β (M1- profile) in response to Mtb-infection.

T2DM does not modulate the ability of Mtb to generate a bystander effect establishing permissive MDM to pathogen intracellular proliferation

 A decrease in the binding of Mtb bacilli to monocytes and MDM in T2DM patients has been 222 previously reported $17, 18$. In addition, Lastrucci and colleagues also demonstrated that Mtb 223 infection generates a microenvironment conducive to permissivity to pathogen proliferation 224 in MDM ¹⁴. To explore whether T2DM influences these aspects, we challenged with H37Rv Mtb the different MDM exposed to the four secretomes in question. As shown in Figure 6a, although the binding capacity to Mtb by MDM exposed to cmMTB-HC was higher (albeit not significant) compared to cmMTB-T2DM, there were no significant differences observed among MDM from all groups. This result was consistent with the initial bacilli count based on CFU analysis at day 0 of infection across all tested MDM groups (Figure 6b). On day 5 post-infection, we confirmed a higher CFU count in MDM exposed to cmMTB-HC in comparison to those cells with cmCTR-HC. Interestingly, we observed a statistical value close to the significance when compared MDM exposed to cmCTR-T2DM to those cells with cmCTR-HC, suggesting that T2DM alone may hamper the MDM control of Mtb proliferation. However, MDM differentiated with cmMTB-T2DM displayed a similar CFU count compared to those cells with cmMTB-HC (Figure 6b). Altogether, these results indicate that T2DM does not affect the bystander effect established by Mtb infection to induce susceptibility to pathogen intracellular proliferation.

DISCUSSION

 T2DM constitutes a risk factor for infection and the development of TB. However, the basis of TB susceptibility in T2DM patients at the cellular and molecular level is not fully understood. The immune response to Mtb is likely affected at multiple levels in T2DM patients and, therefore, the study of innate immunity is an opportunity to learn about the key components of such response. For this reason, in the present work, we evaluated the response of MDM derived from T2DM patients to Mtb infection and the generated bystander effect on monocyte differentiation towards macrophages. Collectively, we believe our study makes three major contributions to the understanding of the interaction between T2DM and TB in humans.

 First, we showed the effect of T2DM on the expression of activation markers on MDM in response to mock and Mtb infection, and on MDM differentiated through a bystander effect generated in the context of TB. Previously, we reported the basal expression of some 253 markers in MDM from patients with T2DM $¹⁵$. In this study, we extended this phenotypic</sup> analysis using a battery of cell-surface markers characteristic representative of the two ends of macrophage activation program spectrum (M1 and M2), and a recently proposed metabolic-oriented program (MMe). Our results showed T2DM modifies in MDM the basal expression levels of activation markers, such as HLA-DR and CD86 (key molecules for antigen presentation), and the macrophage marker CD163 (inflammation regulator). These 259 data are in line with previous results by our group and other authors in monocytes $18, 19$ and 260 MDM ¹⁸ from T2DM patients, and they are also consistent with the report in the human monocyte cell line THP-1, where HLA-DR and CD86 expression was inhibited in cells 262 exposed to high glucose and palmitate concentrations . Overall, these data suggest T2DM for itself alters the expression of markers associated with specific functions, which would

 translate to immune dysfunction and susceptibility to pathogens. In the context of TB, we report a decrease in HLA-DR and CD86 in infected HC-MDM, which is consistent with reports in monocytes and MDM from TB patients displaying low CD86 and HLA-DR 267 expression and the decreased ability of MDM to stimulate allogeneic T-cell proliferation 2^1 . Interestingly, the challenge of T2DM-MDM with Mtb did not change the expression of the evaluated markers. In the past, we reported similar results in GM-CSF-driven MDM from T2DM patients, showing no changes in CD86, CD80 and PD-L1 after Mtb H37Rv infection . Specifically, it has been shown that monocytes 17 and MDM 18 from T2DM patients displayed an impaired capacity to interact with Mtb, which could then affect downstream cell activation. The expression of receptors on monocytes/MDM for the recognition of Mtb may be impaired by glucose metabolism, or indirectly through increased endoplasmic reticulum 275 stress and accumulation of misfolded proteins during hyperglycemia $6, 22$. Therefore, these mechanisms may be responsible for the decreased expression of cell-surface receptors in T2DM in our present study, with less basal expression and no changes in response to Mtb infection. This is consistent with similar levels of HLA-DR reported on monocytes from 279 patients with the comorbidity TB-T2DM compared to patients with TB without diabetes 23 . The only net changes observed after Mtb infection in T2DM-MDM compared to HC-MDM were the lower levels of CD14 and CD80 expression. Given that it would benefit the bacillus to avoid the activation of a dedicated adaptive immune response, we infer that the T2DM effect on the downregulation of additional molecules involved in antigen presentation could translate into a significantly deficient T cell response specific for Mtb in patients with both diseases.

 With regard to the cell-surface phenotypic analyses in MDM exposed to secretomes derived from mock and Mtb infection, we found an increase of CD16, CD163, and MERTK (M2-like 288 phenotype) expression on monocytes treated with cmMTB-HC, as previously described ¹⁴.

 Interestingly, despite the similar cytokine composition between cmMTB-HC and cmMTB- T2DM secretomes, healthy monocytes stimulated with cmMTB-T2DM secretome did not change the expression of these M2-like markers. While it appears that the T2DM may inhibit the anti-inflammatory M2 program established by the bystander effect of Mtb infection, we cannot discard the lack of these cell-surface markers may be due to alternative reasons such as shedding by metalloproteases present in the secretome from MDM-T2DM. T2DM 295 patients presented high levels of circulating soluble CD163 (sCD163) $^{24, 25}$. In addition, on monocytes from T2DM patients, the levels of surface CD163 correlated inversely with insulin resistance, while sCD163 correlated positively with this parameter when was evaluated in 298 the same individuals set . Concerning the receptor MERTK, its soluble form has been reported to increase during chronic inflammatory disorders as cardiovascular disease 27 and 300 diabetic nephropathy , conditions closely related to T2DM. Future studies shall address this issue by measuring the soluble levels of these receptors in T2DM and T2DM-TB patients. Beyond M2 markers, we also noticed that MDM exposed to cmMTB-T2DM displayed lower MFI levels of CD11b and CD80 (M1-like markers) in comparison to cmCTR- T2DM, suggesting an amplification of the defective immune response to Mtb in the context of diabetes. This is based on the function of CD11b as a component of complement receptor $\,$ 3, which mediates nonopsonic binding of Mtb in macrophages 29 , and of CD80 as a key co-307 stimulatory molecule in antigen presentation to active T lymphocytes 30 . Interestingly, we found lower levels in the proportion and MFI of the ABCA1 receptor in MDM derived from cmCTR-T2DM or cmMTB-T2DM; this seemed to be independent of the TB context. Our results are consistent with a reduced expression and function of ABCA1 in leukocytes from \blacksquare T2DM patients compared with HC 31 , and with the reported ABCA1 deficiency impairing the 312 JAK2/STAT3 pathway, resulting in an increased inflammatory status ^{32, 33}. Collectively, our findings highlight the effect of T2DM in the basal level of activation markers in MDM, which expands to the ability of Mtb infection to downregulate cell-surface molecules participating in the interaction with Mtb and antigen presentation process. In both situations, there are favorable implications for Mtb, thus partially explaining why T2DM is a risk factor in TB.

 The second major contribution of this study is the assessment of the T2DM effect in the cytokine response to Mtb infection. We presented evidence of similar cytokine composition in the secretomes induced by Mtb infection in MDM regardless of the diabetes status. Indeed, we found Mtb infection induced the secretion of most of the tested cytokines, as 321 reported for TNF, IL-8, IL-6, and IL-10 . In the diabetes context, our results are also in agreement with our previous report in GM-CSF-driven MDM from T2DM patients compared to HC-MDM, where the secretion of IL-6 and IL-1β was similar at the steady-state or during 324 Mtb-infection .

 The secretion of TGF-β1, however, was also driven by the T2DM condition alone given that it was highly abundant in the secretome of mock-infected T2DM-MDM. These results are in line with the described increase in the serum TGF-β levels at the onset of T2DM and its 328 permanent elevated abundance throughout the disease . Additionally, in HC-MDM TGF- β1 secreted levels were found higher after Mtb-infection (cmMTB-HC vs. cmCTR-HC), reaching the same levels observed in the secretomes from diabetic patients during steady- state. Interestingly, an excessive TGF-β1 activity in patients with pulmonary TB, and its role in macrophage deactivation and suppression of T cell response to Mtb, have been well 333 documented to affect disease outcome $36, 37$.

 When we tested the capacity of these secretomes to establish a bystander effect on monocyte differentiation, we found that the cmMTB-T2DM secretome drove the differentiation of MDM that secreted high levels of the inflammatory cytokine IL-1β. Our results are consistent with the higher levels of IL-1β reported in the blood of patients with the co-morbidity TB-T2DM compared to TB or T2DM alone ³⁸. Although IL-1β is important in controlling Mtb during acute infection, prolonged inflammation could contribute to 340 progressive immunopathology in the lungs and poor outcome in TB $39, 40$. It has been suggested that the uncontrolled high levels of IL-1β contribute to the exacerbated pathology 342 underlying TB-T2DM comorbidity compared to TB alone $38,41$. In terms of anti-inflammatory cytokines, we observed that MDM differentiated with the secretomes from Mtb-infected MDM produce higher IL-10 levels in comparison to their mock-infected counterparts, regardless of the diabetes status. These results are consistent with the increased levels of 346 IL-10 reported in serum $42, 43$ and bronchoalveolar lavage 36 of active TB patients. In fact, this 347 cytokine is considered a biomarker of TB disease severity . Based on these results, future 348 studies will investigate whether IL-1 β and TGF- β 1 can be used as biomarkers in T2DM patients developing TB according to disease severity.

 The last contribution of our study is the demonstration that T2DM does not affect the capacity of Mtb infection to establish permissivity in MDM to pathogen intracellular proliferation. First, we showed that T2DM does not influence the capacity of MDM differentiated with the secretomes derived from Mtb-infected MDM to bind/internalize the bacteria. This contrasts 354 with previous studies reporting that monocytes and MDM 18 from T2DM patients display an impaired capacity to interact with Mtb. This may be due to defects in complement factors and expression of associated receptors for bacterial opsonization, binding of glycated proteins to molecules that are important for Mtb recognition (e.g., antibodies, complement, receptors), or inhibition of lectin binding in high concentrations of glucose causing poor 359 . pathogen recognition . Of note, these studies were conducted in cells cultivated under high 360 serum concentration (20% autologous serum) $17, 18$. Probable reasons for the discordance with our results in monocytes differentiated to macrophages under the influence of the secretomes may be the use of a diluted secretome in the absence of concentrated autologous serum or a direct impact of T2DM in circulating monocytes that can only be assesed in cells differentiated from T2DM patients, while we used HC monocytes for

 differentiation towards the macrophage program. Beyond the recognition and interaction with the bacilli, we also found that T2DM does not affect the higher permissivity to Mtb intracellular growth established in cells treated with cmMTB-HC, as reported in healthy 368 subjects ¹⁴. These results are in accordance with different studies reporting that leukocytes 369 from T2DM patients, such as whole blood cells , monocytes 46 and MDM 18 , 45 , showed similar Mtb-antimicrobial activity when compared to controls without diabetes. In addition, MDM derived from TB patients showed a reduced capacity to kill Mtb that is not modified by 372 the diabetes status (patients with the comorbidity TB-T2DM) 19 , suggesting that permissivity of human monocytes and macrophages to Mtb growth is not exacerbated by T2DM. Future 374 studies shall address whether the high abundance of IL-1 β in MDM derived from cmMTB- T2DM exposure is actually responsible for the lack of the expected exacerbation of the Mtb intracellular burden. IL-1 β is a well-established antimicrobial factor that confers host 377 resistance against Mtb colonization . In spite of the reported knockdown of the ABCA1 cell-378 surface expression in THP-1 cells, which is reported to increase Mtb H37Rv survival ⁴⁸, and the lower expression levels of this receptor observed in MDM treated with cmCTR-T2DM 380 and cmMTB-T2DM, still, IL-1 β may ultimately decrease the Mtb burden. Therefore, it is plausible that an equilibrium on these factors may prevent the putative exacerbation of Mtb proliferation in MDM by T2DM.

 It is important to highlight that our conclusions are limited by the following different aspects. First, our study was conducted with small sample size human groups; this study is meant to be a pilot given that the evaluation of the bystander effect driven by TB in T2DM has not been reported previously. We used secretome pools to homogenize the response of the different tested individuals and, interestingly, significant differences were detected in the 388 control group as previously reported in healthy subjects in spite of our sample size $14, 49$. Second, we used monocytes from healthy donors to evaluate the effect of secretomes from MDM derived from T2DM patients. It is probably that the intrinsic characteristics imprinted in cells derived by diabetes will not be reflected in monocytes from HC. Future studies will assess the impact of the collected secretomes directly on monocytes derived from T2DM patients. Last, our results cannot be generalized to a wide spectrum of T2DM patients, as we studied subjects selected under strict inclusion criteria. Consequently, our results should be seen as preliminary to future studies with larger human cohorts.

 In conclusion, our results suggest that T2DM affects the activation of macrophages and the bystander effect generated during Mtb infection influencing monocyte differentiation. In both cases, there is a defective expression (starting at basal level) of important activation markers implicated in the interaction with Mtb and the antigen presentation process, along with key alterations in the secretion of pro- and anti-inflammatory signals in response to Mtb infection. Even though the control of Mtb intracellular burden was not affected by T2DM, we propose that this disease induces an abnormal function in the innate response by altering the monocyte-to-macrophage differentiation program that normally promotes an efficient adaptive immune response *via* antigen presentation, while worsening at the same time the pathology at the site of infection by increasing inflammatory signals.

METHODS

Subjects

 The experimental design of the clinical study was approved by the National Research Committee at Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social (IMSS) with the agreement number R- 2016-785-049. All participants provided their informed consent before the enrollment to the study. HC subjects and T2DM patients (diagnosed according to the American Diabetes Association criteria) were recruited between May 2019 to February 2020 from the hospitals H.G.Z.1, Dr. Emilio Varela Luján, IMSS and H.G.26, ISSSTE, at Zacatecas City, Mexico.

 Every participant in the study was examined by a qualified physician, who performed an exhaustive clinic history focused on the presence of tuberculosis past or present. None of the individuals included in our work had a past tuberculosis episode or signs or symptoms of the disease. The evaluation of the participant medical history and physical examination included records for height, weight, BMI, blood pressure measures, thyroid palpation, cardiovascular examination; for laboratory evaluation, fasting glucose, HbA1c, hematic biometry, lipid profile, serum albumin and creatinine, and estimated glomerular filtration rate were assessed. Subjects with any of the following criteria were excluded from this study: hypothyroidism, alcoholism, smoking, advanced retinopathy, renal failure, neuropathy, infections in any organ, morbid obesity, or receiving treatment with insulin, statins, and/or immunosuppressants use.

427 The buffy coats from healthy donors were obtained at the H.G.Z.1, IMSS blood bank.

Preparation of human monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM)

 The buffy coats from healthy donors were obtained at the H.G.Z.1, IMSS blood bank. Monocytes from HC and T2DM were isolated by negative magnetic labeling (130-096-537; Miltenyi, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) and differentiated to macrophages (MDM) with M- CSF (130-096-489; Miltenyi, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) and autologous serum, as 434 previously described ¹⁵.

Mtb H37Rv preparation

 The reference strain Mtb H37Rv was used for infection in all experiments. Mtb was grown in Middlebrook 7H9 (271310; BD, Sparks, MD, USA) supplemented with 10 % ADC (212352; BD, Sparks, MD, USA), and used for experiments at the time the culture was at the logarithmic phase. The single cell suspension was prepared according to the reported 441 protocol¹⁴ and bacterial concentration was determined by optical density at 600 nm. For binding assays, Mtb was stained with 25 µM CFSE (C34554; Invitrogen Life technologies; Eugene, OR, USA) for 30 min, using conditions standardized by our laboratory based on a 444 previous report , and bacteria staining was checked by flow cytometry for each experiment.

Preparation of conditioned media and monocyte treatment

447 The secretomes (or conditioned media) were prepared as previously described 14 , with the only exception of the use of autologous serum (instead of fetal bovine serum) during differentiation and infection of MDMs. The cmCTR medium was obtained from non-infected macrophages from HC (cmCTR-HC) and T2DM (cmCTR-T2DM). The cmMTB medium was prepared from Mtb-infected MDM at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of three bacteria per cell in RPMI 1640 (11875-119; Gibco Life Technologies, Paisley, UK) supplemented with 10% autologous serum (to mimic the blood microenvironment) from HC (cmMTB-HC) and T2DM patients (cmMTB-T2DM). After overnight (18 h) incubation at 37°C, culture media were collected, sterilized by filtration, and several aliquots from each condition were stored at - 456 80°C (between 6.45 \pm 1.67 months) until use for cytokine quantification or functional assays. For conditioning, human monocytes from healthy donors were allowed to adhere for 2 h on glass coverslips in the absence of serum, and then cultured for 3 days in RPMI supplemented with 50% of cmCTR (-HC, -T2DM) or cmMTB (-HC, -T2DM) pools 460 respectively, 10 ng mL⁻¹ M-CSF) and 10 % human serum AB (S4190-100; Biowest, Nuaillé, France) to be differentiated to macrophages.

Phenotypic analyses for cell-surface markers

 MDMs were recovered after recovering the supernatants using Cell Dissociation buffer (13151-014; Gibco Life Technologies, Paisley, UK), and the activation markers were evaluated by flow cytometry. The viability was determined using Live/dead Fixable Violet Dead Cell Stain (L34964; Invitrogen Life technologies; Eugene, OR, USA) for 30 min on ice and protected from light, followed by washing with phosphate-buffered saline 1X (PBS) and incubated at 4°C for 15 min with heat-inactivated human serum AB to avoid nonspecific 470 binding of antibodies. The cells were then stained for 20 min at 4°C in darkness with the indicated antibodies, washed with PBS, and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for subsequent acquisition in FACS Canto II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA). For the intracellular marker PLIN2, the Fixation/Permeabilization kit (554714; BD Biosciences, San Diego, CA, USA) was used.

 The battery of antibodies for cell staining included PE anti-CD11b mAb (clone ICRF44; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), Alexa Fluor 488 anti-CD14 mAb (clone MϕP9; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), APC-Cy7 anti-CD16 mAb (clone 3G8; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), APC anti-HLA-DR mAb (clone G46-6; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), PE-Cy5 anti-CD86 mAb (clone 2331-FUN-1- ; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), PE anti-CD80 mAb (clone L307.4, BD, San Diego, CA, USA), PerCP-eFluor 710 anti-CD163 mAb (clone GHI/61; eBioscience, Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA), PE anti-MERTK mAb (clone HMER5DS; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), APC anti- CD206 mAb (clone 19.2; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), PerCP-eFluor 710 anti-CD274 mAb (PD-L1, clone MIH1; eBioscience, Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, USA), PerCP-eFluor 710 anti- CD36 mAb (clone NL07; eBioscience, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), Alexa Fluor 647 anti-ABCA1 mAb (clone HJ1; Novus Biologicals, Centennial, CO, USA) and anti-PLIN2 mAb (clone 2C5H8; Novus Biologicals, Centennial, CO, USA) conjugated with APC (Mix-n- Stain™APC Antibody Labeling Kit -92307; Biotium, Fremont, CA, USA). The FlowJo VX software (BD, Franklin, NJ, USA) was used for cytometry data analysis. The gating strategy is shown in Supplementary figures 7 to 9.

Assessment of cytokine content in the secretome pools and supernatants derived from MDM

 Conditioned media aliquots were thawed, pooled for each condition, and used to differentiate MDM; a fraction of the secretome employed in different experiments was used to determine cytokine concentrations. After 3 days of conditioning, the supernatants were recovered and evaluated for cytokine content. For all samples, the cytokines IL-8, TNF, IL- 12p70, IL-1β, IL-6, IL-10 (CBA Human Inflammatory Cytokines kit, 551811; BD, San Diego, CA, USA) and TGF-β1 (Human TGF-β1 Single Plex Flex Set, 560429; BD, San Diego, CA, USA), were measured according to the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were acquired using a FACS Canto II cytometer and data analyzed using FCAP array 3.0 software (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA).

Mtb association assays

 The challenge with CFSE-labelled Mtb was performed in MDM at a MOI of five bacteria per cell, in RPMI 1640 (11875-119; Gibco Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY, USA) containing 506 10 % human serum AB for 4 h at 37 $^{\circ}$ C and 5 % CO₂. Non-adhered bacteria were washed with PBS 1X. Cells were collected using Cell Dissociation buffer, stained with CD11b, and fixed with 4 % paraformaldehyde. The percentage of cells associated (attached or ingested) with Mtb was calculated by flow cytometry data analyzed as the percentage of 510 CD11b⁺CFSE⁺ cells (Supplementary figure 10).

Intracellular growth of Mtb in MDM

513 MDM were infected with Mtb H37Rv at a MOI of 0.2 bacteria/cell for 4 h at 37°C and 5 % CO2, extracellular bacteria was washed away with PBS, and infected cells were lysed. Lysate dilutions were plated onto Middlebrook 7H11 agar (7244A, NCM0043; Neogen, Lansing, MI, USA) supplemented with 10 % OADC (211886; BD, Sparks, MD, USA) at the 517 indicated days, as previously described . The intracellular growth of Mtb was scored by colony-forming unit (CFU) assay.

Statistical analyses

 The normality of variables was calculated with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Clinical characteristics between HC and T2DM were compared with *t* student test for normally distributed variables, and with Mann-Whitney's *U* test for non-normally distributed variables. Comparisons of expression markers in MDM within the groups (HC or T2DM) with/without

- infection were made by two-way ANOVA test and Bonferroni´s post-test. For monocytes
- conditioned with the four different secretomes, the data were compared with the Kruskal-
- Wallis test and a Dunn´s post-test assuming non-normally distributed variables due to the
- small sample size. *P* < 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analyses were
- performed with GraphPad Prism 8.0 (GraphPad Software Inc. San Diego, CA, USA).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

 MAVA: Investigation; Methodology; Writing-original draft. GLV: Methodology; Writing-review & editing. FDA: Medical evaluation and recruitment of participants individuals. BEGC: Methodology. ALS: Methodology. RGA: Supervision; Review & editing. JECD: Methodology; Review & editing. OAVG: Medical evaluation and recruitment of patients. ARGV: Medical evaluation and recruitment of patients. JAEM: Review & editing. CJS: Conceptualization; Resources; Project administration; Supervision; Writing-original draft.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

 The authors report no financial, commercial, or other conflicts of interest relevant to this article, which is the intellectual property of the authors.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

 Figure 2. Measurement of the cytokine content of the secretome derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from HC and T2DM patients were differentiated into MDM and then infected with RPMI (mock, CTR) or Mtb (MOI of 3) overnight. The secretomes (conditioning media) for the four different experimental conditions (cmCTR-HC, cmCTR- T2DM, cmMTB-HC, and cmMTB-T2DM) were recovered and aliquoted for each subject, then kept at -80°C. Secretome aliquots were thawed, pooled, and a cytometric bead array (CBA) analysis was performed for the indicated cytokines. Vertical scatter plots show the 703 median concentration (pg mL^{-1}) for the indicated cytokines and the black bars the interquartile range. Each symbol represents pools (technical replicates) prepared at different time points from 8 HC or 9 T2DM patients. Data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. IL, interleukin; TNF, tumor necrosis factor; TGF-β1, transforming growth factor beta. **P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.001.

 Figure 3. Modulation of M2-like cell-surface markers in MDM differentiated with the secretomes derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from healthy donors were differentiated towards MDM with the four secretomes (cmCTR-HC, cmCTR- T2DM, cmMTB-HC, or cmMTB-T2DM). After three days, the cells were collected and stained for the indicated cell-surface markers to be analyzed by flow cytometry. Vertical scatter plots show the **(a)** median percentage and **(b)** median fluorescence intensity (MFI) for the indicated markers, and the black bars represent the interquartile range in each case; each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. **P* < 0.05.

 Figure 4. Modulation of M1- and MMe-like cell surface markers in MDM differentiated with the secretome derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from healthy donors were differentiated towards MDM with the four secretomes (cmCTR-HC, cmCTR- T2DM, cmMTB-HC, or cmMTB-T2DM). After three days, the cells were collected and stained for the indicated cell surface markers to be analyzed by flow cytometry. Vertical scatter plots show (a) median percentage and **(b)** median fluorescence intensity (MFI) for the indicated markers, and the black bars represent the interquartile range in each case; each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01.

 Figure 5. Measurement of cytokine secretion by MDM differentiated with secretomes derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from healthy donors were differentiated into MDM with the four secretomes (cm-CTR-HC, cmCTR-T2DM, cmMTB-HC, or cmMTB-T2DM), and their supernatants were collected in order to measure the levels of the indicated cytokines by a cytometric bead array (CBA). Vertical scatter plots show the 734 median concentration (pg mL $^{-1}$) for the indicated cytokines and the black bars represent the interquartile range in each case; each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. IL, interleukin. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001.

 Figure 6. Effect of secretomes on the association and intracellular growth of Mtb. Monocytes from healthy donors were differentiated into MDM with the four secretomes (cmCTR-HC, cmCTR-T2DM, cmMTB-HC, or cmMTB-T2DM), and the cells were then tested for **(a)** binding assay to Mtb as measured by flow cytometry, and **(b)** control of intracellular growth of Mtb as determined by colony-forming unit (CFU) assay. **(a)** Vertical plot shows the median of the percentage of cells associated with Mtb, **(b)** Vertical plot shows the median of the CFU counts of the intracellular level of Mtb at day 0 (left) and day 5 (right), and the black bars represent the interquartile range in each case; each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. ***P* < 0.01.

754 **TABLES**

Table 1. Clinical characteristics of participants.

t tests were performed to identify differences between groups unless specified otherwised; ^ζ: Mann-Whitney U test was performed for these variables; mean (± standard deviation) or ^{ζ}: median (± interquartile range) are shown for quantitative variables. BMI: body mass index; HbA1c: glycated hemoglobin %; HDL: high density lipoprotein; LDL: low density lipoprotein; VLDL: very low-density lipoprotein; NA: non-applicable.

755

756

 (a)

 (b)

Δ

 (a)

 (b)

 (a)

%Cells with associated Mtb

 $80 -$

 $60 -$

40

Gracite-HC

cmcre-r20M

 o_{\top}°

 $\frac{96}{6}$

Δ

 Δ

 $\frac{1}{2}$

Δ

ĀĀ

CIMMIBY T20M

Grimite-HC

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE

Supplementary Table 1. Clinical characteristics of participants for conditioned media pools.

Mann-Whitney *U* were performed to identify differences between groups unless otherwise specified; median $(±$ interquartile range) are shown for all quantitative variables. BMI: body mass index; HbA1c: glycated hemoglobin %; HDL: high density lipoprotein; LDL: low density lipoprotein; VLDL: very low-density lipoprotein; NA: nonapplicable.