

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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 Mycobacterium tuberculosis to modulate monocyte differentiation through a bystander effect

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- 26 **SHORT TITLE:** T2DM effect on monocyte differentiation in TB

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28 **KEYWORDS:** diabetes, macrophages, inflammation, tuberculosis, monocytes

29 ABSTRACT

30

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a risk factor for the development of tuberculosis 31 (TB) through mechanisms poorly understood. Monocytes and macrophages are key 32 33 effector cells to control TB, but they are also subverted by Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb). Specifically, Mtb can induce a bystander effect that skews 34 monocyte differentiation towards macrophages with a permissive phenotype to 35 infection. Here, we evaluated whether T2DM impacts this TB aspect. Our approach 36 was to differentiate monocytes from healthy control (HC) subjects and T2DM 37 patients into macrophages (MDM), and then assess their response to Mtb infection, 38 including their secretome content and bystander effect capacity. Through flow 39 40 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 42 CD163) or Mtb challenge (CD14 and CD80). In spite of high TGF- β 1 levels in mock-43 infected MDM from T2DM patients, cytometric bead arrays indicated there were no 44 major differences in the secretome cytokine content in these cells relative to HC-45 MDM, even in response to Mtb. Mimicking a bystander effect, the secretome of Mtbinfected HC-MDM drove HC monocytes towards MDM with a permissive phenotype 46 47 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, 48 possibly due to the high IL-1ß production relative to Mtb-infected HC-MDM. 49 Collectively, despite T2DM affecting the basal MDM activation, our approach 50 51 revealed it has no major consequence on their response to Mtb or capacity to 52 generate a bystander effect influencing monocyte differentiation.

53

54 **INTRODUCTION**

55

56 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) 57 ¹. In the same year, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), the etiological agent of tuberculosis 58 59 (TB), was the leading single infectious agent responsible for 1.4 million deaths globally². 60 T2DM is characterized by a range of metabolic, inflammatory, vascular, and other physiological changes that increase TB susceptibility and worsen its pathology; the 61 combination of all these factors clearly contributes to a poor disease outcome in diabetic 62 patients ³. 63

64 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 66 varies among countries, ranging from 0.1% in Latvia to 45.2% in the Marshall Islands, 67 including 29.5% in Mexico ⁵. In addition to the predisposition to develop active TB, other 68 unfavorable TB outcomes are associated with comorbidity with DM, such as higher incidence of cavitary lung lesions, relapse, persistence, and death ⁶. It is also thought that 69 the immune response to Mtb is affected at multiple levels in T2DM patients, but there still is 70 71 scarce knowledge about how this takes place ^{3, 7}. To develop intervention strategies to 72 reduce the dual burden of TB-T2DM, it is imperative to better understand the potential mechanisms by which these diseases influence each other. 73

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 79 ability to subvert mononuclear phagocytes by modulating, for example, the activation of 80 macrophages and their biological functions. Macrophages are primordial regulators of the 81 balance of pro- and anti-inflammatory responses to ensure the control of bacterial replication and limit tissue injury after pathogenic insult ^{8, 9}. In general, macrophage activation is 82 83 classified within a broad spectrum characterized by two opposite extremes: classic (M1, pro-84 inflammatory) and alternative (M2, anti-inflammatory, pro-resolving) in response to environmental cues or infection. The classical M1 cells display effector, pro-inflammatory 85 and type-1 immunity properties that mediate the defense against intracellular pathogens⁸, 86 ¹⁰. Within the spectrum, there is another proinflammatory macrophage activation phenotype 87 88 called metabolically activated (MMe), which was described in vivo in adipose tissue and 89 induced in vitro by high glucose, insulin, and palmitate concentrations. MMe is characterized by the expression of CD36, ABCA1, and PLIN2¹¹, but its role in infection is unknown. The 90 91 literature suggests that Mtb modulates the activation of macrophages, reprogramming them 92 towards the M2 spectrum to enhance its own survival. Indeed, the M2 phenotype is known for being susceptible to pathogenic intracellular growth ¹². However, the underlying 93 mechanisms linking macrophage activation programs and a beneficial/harmful effect in TB 94 are not precisely determined ^{8, 13}. Additionally, monocytes (precursor cells that differentiate 95 96 into macrophages and dendritic cell subsets) also contribute to the alteration of the macrophage compartment during Mtb infection. For instance, Lastrucci and colleagues ¹⁴ 97 described that the secretome of Mtb-infected macrophages favors the differentiation of 98 human monocytes towards an M2-like activation program characterized by the 99 100 CD16⁺CD163⁺MERTK⁺ cell-surface phenotype and functional properties, such as high protease-dependent motility, pathogen permissivity, and immunomodulatory activity, via the 101 102 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 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 106 107 frequency and cell-surface markers yielding a phenotype that is preserved during their differentiation towards monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM) ¹⁵. This phenotype is 108 distinguished by the lower expression of activation markers, such as HLA-DR and CD86, 109 along with the macrophage marker CD163¹⁵. However, we did not determine whether this 110 111 effect enacted by T2DM on monocytes has any consequences in the context of TB infection. 112 This is precisely what we assessed in this study. Our approach was to differentiate 113 monocytes from healthy control (HC) subjects and T2DM patients into macrophages (MDM), and evaluate their response to Mtb infection, including their secretome content and 114 bystander effect capacity on monocyte differentiation. 115

116

118 **RESULTS**

119 Clinical characterization of human subjects

120 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 121 characteristics of the participants integrating HC and T2DM individuals. As shown in table 122 123 1, participants from both groups had a similar age, BMI, total cholesterol, and LDLcholesterol levels. As expected based on the inclusion criteria, T2DM patients had higher 124 125 values for fasting glucose levels, HbA1c, triglycerides, and VLDL-cholesterol, but lower 126 HDL-cholesterol, when compared to HC controls. Of note, T2DM patients had been 127 diagnosed on average 7 years before enrollment. At the moment of recruitment patients 128 were undergoing treatment with metformin (92.8%) or metformin plus glibenclamide (85.7%), but no insulin. 129

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

133 Recently, our group reported that T2DM impacts the activation status of circulating 134 monocytes that is conserved even after differentiation towards MDM¹⁵. However, we ignore 135 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 136 and differentiated them into MDM, which we then infected in vitro with Mtb H37Rv or RPMI 137 138 media (mock). After 18 h (overnight), we then evaluated the cell-surface expression of the 139 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 140 141 expression of activation markers at steady-state (mock infection), such as HLA-DR and 142 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 143 144 patients. However, unlike MDM from T2DM patients, Mtb induced the expression of other 145 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, 146 147 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 148 differentiated from circulating monocytes, but fails to enact additional changes during 149 150 challenge with Mtb.

151

152 Except for a high TGF-β1 production from T2DM-MDM, there are no major differences 153 in the cytokine response to mock and Mtb infection between T2DM-MDM and HC-MDM

154 Conditioned media (secretome) of Mtb-infected macrophages was reported to inhibit monocyte differentiation towards dendritic cells ¹⁶ and skew macrophages differentiation 155 towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype favorable to the bacilli ¹⁴. In both cases, the IL-156 157 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 158 multiplex cytometric bead array (CBA) approach. From a subgroup of the subjects studied 159 160 for MDM marker expression, bearing the same clinical characteristic (Supplementary table 161 1), the secretomes were collected from MDM cultures for the following conditions: non-162 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 163 secretome types were generated, aliquoted, and frozen at -80°C. To characterize the 164 165 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 166

167 IL-10, were found in secretomes from non-infected cells regardless of the diabetes status (cmCTR-HC vs. cmCTR-T2DM). Interestingly, the immunosuppressive TGF-B1 was 168 169 significantly elevated in cmCTR-T2DM compared to cmCTR-HC (Figure 2). Upon Mtb 170 infection, except for TGF- β 1, MDM from the HC and T2DM groups secreted higher levels of each evaluated cytokine in comparison to their respective non-infected conditions. 171 172 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 173 expression of activation markers in T2DM-MDM induced by Mtb-infection (Figure 1), there 174 are no obvious effects of T2DM in the cytokine response to Mtb infection. 175

176

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

179 As aforementioned, Lastrucci and colleagues demonstrated that Mtb infection of macrophages created a bystander effect that drove monocyte differentiation towards an anti-180 181 inflammatory M2-like phenotype characterized by CD16⁺CD163⁺MERTK⁺ cell-surface phenotype ¹⁴. To investigate whether T2DM affects this process, we used the four 182 183 secretomes described above to differentiate monocytes from healthy donors towards macrophages. As expected, conditioning of monocytes with cmMTB-HC compared to 184 185 cmCTR-HC drives the differentiation of CD16⁺CD163⁺MERTK⁺ MDM. By contrast, we 186 observed no changes in the expression of these M2 markers in MDM differentiated with the 187 secretome from Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM compared to that from mock-infected T2DM-MDM 188 (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, 189 HLA-DR, PDL-1, CD206, ABCA1, CD36 and, PLIN2 (Figures 4, Supplementary figure 4 and 190 191 5). As illustrated in Figure 4, there was a lower expression of CD11b and CD80 in MDM 192 differentiated with cmMTB-T2DM compared to cmCTR-T2DM. Remarkably, the secretomes derived from T2DM-MDM (cmCTR and cmMTB) induced a lower proportion and median 193 194 fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the ABCA1 receptor when compared to those cells 195 conditioned with secretomes from the HC counterparts (Figure 4), indicating the expression 196 of this marker is driven by T2DM, but not by Mtb-infection. Of note, there was no significant 197 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 198 T2DM does not influence the capacity of Mtb infection to control monocyte differentiation 199 200 towards macrophages with an anti-inflammatory program, and they also demonstrate a 201 direct effect by T2DM on the ABCA1 receptor expression independent of the TB context.

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

205 The bystander effect by Mtb infection decreases the capacity of MDM to engage in the production of proinflammatory cytokine response, such as TNF and IL-12¹⁴. Beyond the 206 207 assessment of cell-surface marker expression, we also investigated the effect of T2DM in 208 this aspect. Accordingly, we measured the cytokine profile secreted by MDM differentiated 209 with the four different secretomes using a CBA-based approach. As shown in Figure 5, we 210 noticed a higher production of IL-1β in MDM differentiated with cmMTB-T2DM compared to 211 those conditioned with the other secretomes (Figure 5). Additionally, both secretomes from 212 infected MDM (cmMTB-HC and cmMTB-T2DM) produced higher levels of the antiinflammatory IL-10 compared to cells exposed to the secretome from non-infected cells (cm-213 214 CTR-HC and cmCTR-T2DM) (Figure 5). Of note, there were no differences detected in the 215 cytokine context among the secretomes, including IL-8, IL-12, TNF, IL-6, and TGF-β1 216 (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 (M1profile) 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

221 A decrease in the binding of Mtb bacilli to monocytes and MDM in T2DM patients has been previously reported ^{17, 18}. In addition, Lastrucci and colleagues also demonstrated that Mtb 222 223 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 225 Mtb the different MDM exposed to the four secretomes in question. As shown in Figure 6a, 226 although the binding capacity to Mtb by MDM exposed to cmMTB-HC was higher (albeit not 227 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 228 229 on CFU analysis at day 0 of infection across all tested MDM groups (Figure 6b). On day 5 230 post-infection, we confirmed a higher CFU count in MDM exposed to cmMTB-HC in 231 comparison to those cells with cmCTR-HC. Interestingly, we observed a statistical value 232 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. 233 234 However, MDM differentiated with cmMTB-T2DM displayed a similar CFU count compared 235 to those cells with cmMTB-HC (Figure 6b). Altogether, these results indicate that T2DM does 236 not affect the bystander effect established by Mtb infection to induce susceptibility to pathogen intracellular proliferation. 237

239 **DISCUSSION**

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241 T2DM constitutes a risk factor for infection and the development of TB. However, the basis 242 of TB susceptibility in T2DM patients at the cellular and molecular level is not fully 243 understood. The immune response to Mtb is likely affected at multiple levels in T2DM 244 patients and, therefore, the study of innate immunity is an opportunity to learn about the key 245 components of such response. For this reason, in the present work, we evaluated the 246 response of MDM derived from T2DM patients to Mtb infection and the generated bystander 247 effect on monocyte differentiation towards macrophages. Collectively, we believe our study 248 makes three major contributions to the understanding of the interaction between T2DM and 249 TB in humans.

250 First, we showed the effect of T2DM on the expression of activation markers on MDM in 251 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 252 markers in MDM from patients with T2DM¹⁵. In this study, we extended this phenotypic 253 254 analysis using a battery of cell-surface markers characteristic representative of the two ends 255 of macrophage activation program spectrum (M1 and M2), and a recently proposed 256 metabolic-oriented program (MMe). Our results showed T2DM modifies in MDM the basal 257 expression levels of activation markers, such as HLA-DR and CD86 (key molecules for 258 antigen presentation), and the macrophage marker CD163 (inflammation regulator). These data are in line with previous results by our group and other authors in monocytes ^{18, 19} and 259 260 MDM ¹⁸ from T2DM patients, and they are also consistent with the report in the human 261 monocyte cell line THP-1, where HLA-DR and CD86 expression was inhibited in cells exposed to high glucose and palmitate concentrations ²⁰. Overall, these data suggest T2DM 262 for itself alters the expression of markers associated with specific functions, which would 263

264 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 265 266 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 ²¹. Interestingly, the challenge of T2DM-MDM with Mtb did not change the expression of the 268 269 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 270 ¹⁸. Specifically, it has been shown that monocytes ¹⁷ and MDM ¹⁸ from T2DM patients 271 272 displayed an impaired capacity to interact with Mtb, which could then affect downstream cell 273 activation. The expression of receptors on monocytes/MDM for the recognition of Mtb may 274 be impaired by glucose metabolism, or indirectly through increased endoplasmic reticulum stress and accumulation of misfolded proteins during hyperglycemia ^{6, 22}. Therefore, these 275 mechanisms may be responsible for the decreased expression of cell-surface receptors in 276 277 T2DM in our present study, with less basal expression and no changes in response to Mtb 278 infection. This is consistent with similar levels of HLA-DR reported on monocytes from patients with the comorbidity TB-T2DM compared to patients with TB without diabetes ²³. 279 The only net changes observed after Mtb infection in T2DM-MDM compared to HC-MDM 280 281 were the lower levels of CD14 and CD80 expression. Given that it would benefit the bacillus 282 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 283 translate into a significantly deficient T cell response specific for Mtb in patients with both 284 285 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 phenotype) expression on monocytes treated with cmMTB-HC, as previously described ¹⁴. 289 Interestingly, despite the similar cytokine composition between cmMTB-HC and cmMTB-290 T2DM secretomes, healthy monocytes stimulated with cmMTB-T2DM secretome did not 291 change the expression of these M2-like markers. While it appears that the T2DM may inhibit 292 the anti-inflammatory M2 program established by the bystander effect of Mtb infection, we 293 cannot discard the lack of these cell-surface markers may be due to alternative reasons 294 such as shedding by metalloproteases present in the secretome from MDM-T2DM. T2DM patients presented high levels of circulating soluble CD163 (sCD163)^{24, 25}. In addition, on 295 monocytes from T2DM patients, the levels of surface CD163 correlated inversely with insulin 296 297 resistance, while sCD163 correlated positively with this parameter when was evaluated in the same individuals set ²⁶. Concerning the receptor MERTK, its soluble form has been 298 reported to increase during chronic inflammatory disorders as cardiovascular disease ²⁷ and 299 diabetic nephropathy ²⁸, conditions closely related to T2DM. Future studies shall address 300 301 this issue by measuring the soluble levels of these receptors in T2DM and T2DM-TB 302 patients. Beyond M2 markers, we also noticed that MDM exposed to cmMTB-T2DM 303 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 304 of diabetes. This is based on the function of CD11b as a component of complement receptor 305 3, which mediates nonopsonic binding of Mtb in macrophages ²⁹, and of CD80 as a key co-306 stimulatory molecule in antigen presentation to active T lymphocytes ³⁰. Interestingly, we 307 found lower levels in the proportion and MFI of the ABCA1 receptor in MDM derived from 308 cmCTR-T2DM or cmMTB-T2DM; this seemed to be independent of the TB context. Our 309 310 results are consistent with a reduced expression and function of ABCA1 in leukocytes from 311 T2DM patients compared with HC³¹, and with the reported ABCA1 deficiency impairing the JAK2/STAT3 pathway, resulting in an increased inflammatory status ^{32, 33}. Collectively, our 312 findings highlight the effect of T2DM in the basal level of activation markers in MDM, which 313 314 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.

317 The second major contribution of this study is the assessment of the T2DM effect in the 318 cytokine response to Mtb infection. We presented evidence of similar cytokine composition 319 in the secretomes induced by Mtb infection in MDM regardless of the diabetes status. 320 Indeed, we found Mtb infection induced the secretion of most of the tested cytokines, as reported for TNF, IL-8, IL-6, and IL-10³⁴. In the diabetes context, our results are also in 321 322 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-1 β was similar at the steady-state or during 323 324 Mtb-infection ¹⁸.

325 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 326 line with the described increase in the serum TGF- β levels at the onset of T2DM and its 327 permanent elevated abundance throughout the disease ³⁵. Additionally, in HC-MDM TGF-328 329 β1 secreted levels were found higher after Mtb-infection (cmMTB-HC vs. cmCTR-HC), 330 reaching the same levels observed in the secretomes from diabetic patients during steadystate. Interestingly, an excessive TGF- β 1 activity in patients with pulmonary TB, and its role 331 332 in macrophage deactivation and suppression of T cell response to Mtb, have been well documented to affect disease outcome ^{36, 37}. 333

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-1 β . Our results are consistent with the higher levels of IL-1 β reported in the blood of patients with the co-morbidity TB-T2DM compared to TB or T2DM alone ³⁸. Although IL-1 β is important in controlling Mtb during acute infection, prolonged inflammation could contribute to

progressive immunopathology in the lungs and poor outcome in TB ^{39, 40}. It has been 340 suggested that the uncontrolled high levels of IL-1ß contribute to the exacerbated pathology 341 342 underlying TB-T2DM comorbidity compared to TB alone ^{38, 41}. In terms of anti-inflammatory 343 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, 344 regardless of the diabetes status. These results are consistent with the increased levels of 345 IL-10 reported in serum ^{42, 43} and bronchoalveolar lavage ³⁶ of active TB patients. In fact, this 346 cytokine is considered a biomarker of TB disease severity ⁴⁴. Based on these results, future 347 studies will investigate whether IL-1 β and TGF- β 1 can be used as biomarkers in T2DM 348 patients developing TB according to disease severity. 349

350 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, 351 352 we showed that T2DM does not influence the capacity of MDM differentiated with the 353 secretomes derived from Mtb-infected MDM to bind/internalize the bacteria. This contrasts with previous studies reporting that monocytes ¹⁷ and MDM ¹⁸ from T2DM patients display 354 an impaired capacity to interact with Mtb. This may be due to defects in complement factors 355 and expression of associated receptors for bacterial opsonization, binding of glycated 356 proteins to molecules that are important for Mtb recognition (e.g., antibodies, complement, 357 receptors), or inhibition of lectin binding in high concentrations of glucose causing poor 358 pathogen recognition ⁶. Of note, these studies were conducted in cells cultivated under high 359 360 serum concentration (20% autologous serum) ^{17, 18}. Probable reasons for the discordance 361 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 362 autologous serum or a direct impact of T2DM in circulating monocytes that can only be 363 assesed in cells differentiated from T2DM patients, while we used HC monocytes for 364

365 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 366 367 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 from T2DM patients, such as whole blood cells ⁴⁵, monocytes ⁴⁶ and MDM ^{18, 45}, showed 369 370 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 371 the diabetes status (patients with the comorbidity TB-T2DM)¹⁹, suggesting that permissivity 372 of human monocytes and macrophages to Mtb growth is not exacerbated by T2DM. Future 373 studies shall address whether the high abundance of IL-1 β in MDM derived from cmMTB-374 T2DM exposure is actually responsible for the lack of the expected exacerbation of the Mtb 375 376 intracellular burden. IL-1ß is a well-established antimicrobial factor that confers host resistance against Mtb colonization ⁴⁷. In spite of the reported knockdown of the ABCA1 cell-377 surface expression in THP-1 cells, which is reported to increase Mtb H37Rv survival ⁴⁸, and 378 379 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 381 proliferation in MDM by T2DM. 382

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
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 396 397 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 398 implicated in the interaction with Mtb and the antigen presentation process, along with key 399 400 alterations in the secretion of pro- and anti-inflammatory signals in response to Mtb infection. 401 Even though the control of Mtb intracellular burden was not affected by T2DM, we propose 402 that this disease induces an abnormal function in the innate response by altering the 403 monocyte-to-macrophage differentiation program that normally promotes an efficient 404 adaptive immune response via antigen presentation, while worsening at the same time the 405 pathology at the site of infection by increasing inflammatory signals.

407 **METHODS**

408

409 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.

416 Every participant in the study was examined by a qualified physician, who performed an 417 exhaustive clinic history focused on the presence of tuberculosis past or present. None of 418 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 419 included records for height, weight, BMI, blood pressure measures, thyroid palpation, 420 421 cardiovascular examination; for laboratory evaluation, fasting glucose, HbA1c, hematic biometry, lipid profile, serum albumin and creatinine, and estimated glomerular filtration rate 422 423 were assessed. Subjects with any of the following criteria were excluded from this study: 424 hypothyroidism, alcoholism, smoking, advanced retinopathy, renal failure, neuropathy, 425 infections in any organ, morbid obesity, or receiving treatment with insulin, statins, and/or 426 immunosuppressants use.

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

428

429 **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 previously described ¹⁵.

435

436 Mtb H37Rv preparation

437 The reference strain Mtb H37Rv was used for infection in all experiments. Mtb was grown 438 in Middlebrook 7H9 (271310; BD, Sparks, MD, USA) supplemented with 10 % ADC (212352; 439 BD, Sparks, MD, USA), and used for experiments at the time the culture was at the 440 logarithmic phase. The single cell suspension was prepared according to the reported protocol¹⁴ and bacterial concentration was determined by optical density at 600 nm. For 441 442 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 443 previous report ⁵⁰, and bacteria staining was checked by flow cytometry for each experiment. 444

445

446 **Preparation of conditioned media and monocyte treatment**

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 454 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 -455 456 80° C (between 6.45 ± 1.67 months) until use for cytokine guantification or functional assays. 457 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 458 459 supplemented with 50% of cmCTR (-HC, -T2DM) or cmMTB (-HC, -T2DM) pools respectively, 10 ng mL⁻¹ M-CSF) and 10 % human serum AB (S4190-100; Biowest, Nuaillé, 460 461 France) to be differentiated to macrophages.

462

463 **Phenotypic analyses for cell-surface markers**

464 MDMs were recovered after recovering the supernatants using Cell Dissociation buffer (13151-014; Gibco Life Technologies, Paisley, UK), and the activation markers were 465 466 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 467 468 and protected from light, followed by washing with phosphate-buffered saline 1X (PBS) and 469 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 471 472 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 473 474 Diego, CA, USA) was used.

478 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), 479 480 PerCP-eFluor 710 anti-CD163 mAb (clone GHI/61; eBioscience, Invitrogen, San Diego, CA, 481 USA), PE anti-MERTK mAb (clone HMER5DS; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), APC anti-482 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-483 CD36 mAb (clone NL07; eBioscience, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), Alexa Fluor 647 484 anti-ABCA1 mAb (clone HJ1; Novus Biologicals, Centennial, CO, USA) and anti-PLIN2 mAb 485 (clone 2C5H8; Novus Biologicals, Centennial, CO, USA) conjugated with APC (Mix-n-486 Stain™APC Antibody Labeling Kit -92307; Biotium, Fremont, CA, USA). The FlowJo VX 487 488 software (BD, Franklin, NJ, USA) was used for cytometry data analysis. The gating strategy 489 is shown in Supplementary figures 7 to 9.

490

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 493 differentiate MDM; a fraction of the secretome employed in different experiments was used 494 to determine cytokine concentrations. After 3 days of conditioning, the supernatants were 495 496 recovered and evaluated for cytokine content. For all samples, the cytokines IL-8, TNF, IL-497 12p70, IL-1β, IL-6, IL-10 (CBA Human Inflammatory Cytokines kit, 551811; BD, San Diego, 498 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 499 using a FACS Canto II cytometer and data analyzed using FCAP array 3.0 software (BD 500 501 Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA).

502

503 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 10 % human serum AB for 4 h at 37°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 CD11b⁺CFSE⁺ cells (Supplementary figure 10).

511

512 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 % 514 CO₂, extracellular bacteria was washed away with PBS, and infected cells were lysed. 515 Lysate dilutions were plated onto Middlebrook 7H11 agar (7244A, NCM0043; Neogen, 516 Lansing, MI, USA) supplemented with 10 % OADC (211886; BD, Sparks, MD, USA) at the 517 indicated days, as previously described ¹⁴. The intracellular growth of Mtb was scored by 518 colony-forming unit (CFU) assay.

519

520 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

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

530 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.

537

538 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

539 The authors report no financial, commercial, or other conflicts of interest relevant to this 540 article, which is the intellectual property of the authors.

541

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547

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681

683 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

684

685	Figure 1. Assessment of cell-surface markers on monocytes-derived macrophages (MDM)
686	from healthy control (HC) subjects and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) patients upon Mtb
687	infection. Monocytes from HC (n = 18, black circles) and T2DM patients (n = 14, white
688	circles) were differentiated into MDM, and cell-surface marker expression was determined
689	after mock- (CTR) and Mtb-infection (MTB) at a MOI of 3 bacteria per cell by flow cytometry
690	analysis. Vertical scatter plots show the median fluorescence intensity (MFI) for the indicated
691	markers, and the mean and standard deviation/median and interquartile range are
692	represented by black bars; each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were analyzed
693	by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparison test. $*P < 0.05$;
694	*** <i>P</i> < 0.001.

695

696 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 697 698 MDM and then infected with RPMI (mock, CTR) or Mtb (MOI of 3) overnight. The secretomes 699 (conditioning media) for the four different experimental conditions (cmCTR-HC, cmCTR-700 T2DM, cmMTB-HC, and cmMTB-T2DM) were recovered and aliquoted for each subject, 701 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 702 703 median concentration (pg mL⁻¹) for the indicated cytokines and the black bars the interguartile range. Each symbol represents pools (technical replicates) prepared at different 704 705 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- β 1, transforming growth factor beta. **P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.001.

708

Figure 3. Modulation of M2-like cell-surface markers in MDM differentiated with the 709 secretomes derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from healthy 710 711 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 712 713 stained for the indicated cell-surface markers to be analyzed by flow cytometry. Vertical 714 scatter plots show the (a) median percentage and (b) median fluorescence intensity (MFI) 715 for the indicated markers, and the black bars represent the interguartile range in each case; 716 each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. *P < 0.05. 717

718

719 Figure 4. Modulation of M1- and MMe-like cell surface markers in MDM differentiated with 720 the secretome derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from healthy 721 donors were differentiated towards MDM with the four secretomes (cmCTR-HC, cmCTR-722 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 723 724 scatter plots show (a) median percentage and (b) median fluorescence intensity (MFI) for 725 the indicated markers, and the black bars represent the interguartile range in each case; 726 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. 727

729 Figure 5. Measurement of cytokine secretion by MDM differentiated with secretomes derived from mock- and Mtb-infected T2DM-MDM. Monocytes from healthy donors were 730 731 differentiated into MDM with the four secretomes (cm-CTR-HC, cmCTR-T2DM, cmMTB-HC, 732 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 733 median concentration (pg mL⁻¹) for the indicated cytokines and the black bars represent the 734 interguartile range in each case; each symbol represents an individual donor. Data were 735 analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison test. IL, 736 737 interleukin. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001.

738

739 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, 740 741 cmCTR-T2DM, cmMTB-HC, or cmMTB-T2DM), and the cells were then tested for (a) 742 binding assay to Mtb as measured by flow cytometry, and (b) control of intracellular growth 743 of Mtb as determined by colony-forming unit (CFU) assay. (a) Vertical plot shows the median 744 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 745 746 bars represent the interguartile range in each case; each symbol represents an individual 747 donor. Data were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis test followed by Dunn multiple comparison 748 test. ***P* < 0.01.

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754 **TABLES**

Characteristics	Healthy Control (HC) Subjects	T2DM patients	Р
Number of cases (n)	18	14	NA
Years with T2DM diagnosis	NA	7.72 ± 5.35	NA
Age, years	42.39 ± 7.38	47.79 ± 7.61	0.053
BMI (kg/m²)	24.73 ± 2.54	27.00 ± 4.05	0.061
HbA1c (%)	5.17 ± 0.30	10.99 ± 1.72	<0.0001***
FPG (mg/dl)	83.70 ± 11.03	247.70 ± 66.44	<0.0001***
Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	162.40 ± 42.75	185.70 ± 59.98	0.209
HDL- cholesterol (mg/dl)	52.90 ± 12.33	41.44 ± 7.74	0.006**
LDL- cholesterol (mg/dl)	105.90 ± 36.44	117.50 ± 45.88	0.461
VLDL- cholesterol (mg/dl)	20.06 ± 6.28	53.37 ± 35.28	0.0009***
Triglycerides (mg/dl) ^{ζ}	92.35 ± 54.15	176.50 ± 238.70	<0.0001***
Hypertension, n (%)	0 (0)	5 (35.70)	NA
Metformin, n (%)	0 (0)	13 (92.80)	NA
Glibenclamide, n (%)	0 (0)	12 (85.70)	NA
Metformin + Glibenclamide, n (%)	0 (0)	12 (85.70)	NA

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.

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(a)



(b)







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cm^{CTP}^{HC}

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crim B. HC

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(a)



(b)





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(a)







SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE

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

Characteristics	Healthy Controls (HC)	T2DM patients	Р
Numbers of cases (n)	9	8	NA
Years with T2DM diagnosis	NA	8.50 ± 4.00	NA
Age, years	47.00 ± 12.50	53 ± 12.00	0.307
BMI (kg/m²)	24.80 ± 3.31	26.54 ± 6.47	0.113
HbA1c (%)	5.33 ± 0.51	10.54 ± 2.38	<0.0001***
FPG (mg dL ⁻¹)	82.70 ± 13.47	260.10 ± 109.70	<0.0001***
Total cholesterol (mg dL ⁻¹)	161.70 ± 54.00	188.30 ± 73.00	0.209
HDL- cholesterol (mg dL ⁻¹)	55.20 ± 17.90	42.10 ± 10.19	<0.006**
LDL- cholesterol (mg dL ⁻¹)	101.50 ± 54.30	111.50 ± 49.50	0.461
VLDL- cholesterol (mg dL-1)	19.50 ± 12.00	37.80 ± 49.50	0.0009***
Triglycerides (mg dL ⁻¹)	92.35 ± 54.15	176.50 ± 238.7	<0.0001***
Hypertension, n (%)	0 (0)	4 (50.00)	NA
Metformin, n (%)	0 (0)	6 (75.00)	NA
Glibenclamide, n (%)	0 (0)	5 (62.50)	NA
Metformin + Glibenclamide, n (%)	0 (0)	5 (62.50)	NA

Mann-Whitney *U* were performed to identify differences between groups unless otherwise specified; median (\pm 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: non-applicable.