1 <u>Title</u>: Impaired aldehyde detoxification caused by a common human polymorphism promotes
2 anti-bacterial immunity
3

<u>Authors</u>: Scott Espich[1†], Sam Berry[2†], Amir Balakhmet[1], Xuling Chang[3,4,5], Nguyen T.T.
Thuong[3,4], Rajkumar Dorajoo[4,8], Chiea-Chuen Khor[8,9], Chew-Kiat Heng[4,5], Jian-Min Yuan[10],
Woon-Puay Koh[11,12], Douglas Fox[1], Andrea Anaya-Sanchez[13], Logan Tenney[14, 15], Christopher J.
Chang[14,15, 16], Rishika Baral[1], Dmitri I. Kotov[1,16], Marietta Ravesloot-Chavez[1], Russell E.
Vance[1,17], Sarah J. Dunstan[3], K. Heran Darwin[18,*], and Sarah A. Stanley[1,2,19,*]
[†]These authors contributed equally to this work
10
<u>Affiliations</u>:
1. Division of Immunology and Pathogenesis, Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of
California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720
2. Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720
3. Department of Infectious Diseases, University of Melbourne, at the Peter Doherty Institute for Infection
and Immunity, Melbourne 3000, Australia Xu, SD
4. Department of Pediatrics, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National University of Singapore and
National University Health System, Singapore 119228, Singapore.
5. Khoo Teck Puat - National University Children's Medical Institute, National University Health System,
Singapore, 119074, Singapore
6. Oxford University Clinical Research Unit, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam
7. Nuffield Department of Medicine, University of Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom
8. Genome Institute of Singapore (GIS), Agency for Science, Technology and Research (A*STAR), 60
Biopolis Street, Genome, Singapore 138672, Republic of Singapore
9. Singapore Eye Research Institute, Singapore National Eye Centre, Singapore, 169856, Singapore
10. Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences, UPMC Hillman Cancer Center, University of
Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, 15232, USA. Department of Epidemiology, School of Public Health, University
of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, 15261, USA
11. Healthy Longevity Translational Research Programme, Yong Loo Lin School of Medicine, National
University of Singapore, Singapore.
12. Institute for Human Development and Potential (IHDP), Agency for Science, Technology and
Research (A*STAR), Singapore.
13. Graduate Group in Microbiology, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720
14. Department of Chemistry, University of California, Berkeley, CA 94720
15. Department of Chemistry, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ 08544
16. Division of Molecular Therapeutics, Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, University of California,
Berkeley, CA 94720
17. Howard Hughes Medical Institute, University of California, Berkeley
18. Department of Microbiology, New York University Grossman School of Medicine, New York, NY
10016.
19. Lead contact
*Correspondence: sastanley@berkeley.edu, heran.darwin@nyulangone.org

43
44

SUMMARY

The *ALDH2*2* (rs671) variant present in >500 million individuals reduces ALDH2 function, impairing aldehyde detoxification. While aldehyde accumulation in these individuals is associated with numerous negative health consequences, a previous study showed a cohort of *ALDH2*2* carriers are less likely to develop active pulmonary tuberculosis. Here, we present additional human data that support this finding and show ALDH2-deficiency in mice provides a fitness advantage during bacterial infections. We found aldehydes normally detoxified by ALDH2 killed the bacterial pathogens *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Francisella tularensis.* Infected macrophages from *Aldh2$^{-/-}$* mice had higher levels of formaldehyde and 4-hydroxynonenal, which enhanced their microbicidal capacity. *Aldh2$^{-/-}$* mice were more resistant to infection with *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Francisella tularensis* than parental mice and displayed elevated inflammatory cytokine and chemokine levels, accompanied by an increased accumulation of inflammatory monocytes and macrophages. These findings support a model in which host-derived aldehydes are robust innate immune effectors, limiting bacterial infection through both direct microbicidal activity and immune modulation. Collectively, this work may explain why the *ALDH2*2* allele was selected for in humans.

INTRODUCTION

Loss-of-function mutations in aldehyde dehydrogenase 2 (*ALDH2*) are highly prevalent, affecting up to 500 million individuals of East Asian descent[1]. The most common mutant allele, *ALDH2*2* (rs671), encodes a glutamate-to-lysine mutation at position 487, resulting in a dominant-negative form of the enzyme[2]. ALDH2 is notably required for converting acetaldehyde, a toxic intermediate of ethanol metabolism, into acetate, but its primary function is to detoxify metabolically produced aldehydes. Hetero- or homozygous carriers of *ALDH2*2* experience adverse physiological effects upon consumption of alcohol due to an accumulation of acetaldehyde[3]. Even in the absence of alcohol consumption, loss of ALDH2 function is associated with increased risk of cancer, heart disease, and neurological disorders[4,5]. Aldehydes can react with DNA, leading to mutations, and may disrupt cellular function by forming adducts with proteins, contributing to disease development[6–8]. Additionally, loss of ALDH2 activity has been associated with heightened inflammatory responses, which may further promote disease pathogenesis[9,10]. The selective pressure that has maintained *ALDH2*2* in the human population despite its detrimental effects on human health is unknown.

*ALDH2*2* was associated with a decreased risk of active tuberculosis (TB) in a cohort of Korean men. This correlation was hypothesized to be associated with decreased alcohol consumption[11]. While alcoholism is a significant risk factor for TB[12,13], we hypothesized that loss of ALDH2 function enhances resistance to bacterial infection independent of alcohol consumption. ALDH2 detoxifies many inflammation-induced aldehydes, including 4-hydroxynonenal (4HNE)[14–17], a lipid peroxidation end-product that is produced when macrophages and other innate immune cells generate reactive oxygen species in response to infection[16,18–20]. Additionally, ALDH2, along with alcohol dehydrogenase 5 (ADH5), metabolizes endogenous formaldehyde, which is produced by a range of cellular processes[21,22]. Formaldehyde production is also enhanced in the presence reactive oxygen species[23]. Together these studies suggest that loss of ALDH2 activity during infections could increase cellular aldehyde levels that would be toxic to invading

89   bacteria. Here, we demonstrate that loss of ALDH2 function enhances control of bacterial
90   infection by promoting the microbicidal activity of macrophages and by accelerating
91   inflammatory responses to infection.
92
RESULTS
ALDH2 rs671 is associated with lower pulmonary tuberculosis risk
Pulmonary tuberculosis (PTB) is the most common clinical manifestation of TB disease and
leads to the principal mode of transmission amongst humans. To examine the relationship
between the *ALDH2*2* mutation (rs671) and PTB, we performed a candidate gene analysis for
cohorts in Vietnam and Singapore. Genotype data of rs671 was available from a collection of
1,598 microbiologically confirmed TB patients and 1,266 population controls from Vietnam
(Figure 1A). In addition, the Singapore Chinese Health Study (SCHS) consists of 1,606 PTB
cases and 23,969 population controls of Singaporean Chinese origin with available genotype
data. A significant association between rs671 PTB was observed in both the Vietnamese cohort
[OR (95% CI) = 0.855 (0.739, 0.990), *P*=0.036] and the SCHS [OR (95% CI) = 0.920 (0.850,
0.997), *P*=0.041] (Figure 1B), with the minor allele A associated with reduced PTB risk. After
meta-analysis, the association was further strengthened ([OR (95% CI) = 0.905 (0.844, 0.971),
P=0.005, $P_{heterogeneity}$=0.386]). We also assessed both dominant and recessive models of
inheritance and found the dominant model returned associations of similar magnitude to the
additive model [OR (95% CI) = 0.888 (0.813, 0.969), *P*=0.008, $P_{heterogeneity}$=0.429]. The modest
effect sizes calculated, which were robustly replicated across two ethnic groups, are not
unexpected, as the heritability of complex traits, such as infectious diseases, arises from the
combined influence of numerous genetic variants, each contributing a modest effect size. These
data, together with the previously published association study[11], support the hypothesis that the
ALDH2*2 rs671 mutation is associated with protection against PTB.
114
***Aldh2* expression in macrophages is downregulated upon inflammatory stimulation**
To determine whether ALDH2 is expressed in relevant cell types during infection, we examined
Aldh2 expression in the lungs of *M. tuberculosis* infected C57BL/6J ("WT") mice using single cell
RNA sequencing (scRNAseq). *Aldh2* expression was observed in macrophage/monocyte
populations, dendritic cells, neutrophils, basophils, B cells, pulmonary epithelial and endothelial
cells, and fibroblasts (Figure S1A). Other immune cell types, such as T cells, did not express
Aldh2. Macrophages serve both as the primary host cell for *M. tuberculosis* and a key effector
cell in infection control, so we next investigated how infection alters *Aldh2* expression in bone
marrow–derived macrophages (BMDMs) from WT mice. We infected BMDMs in the presence or
absence of interferon-γ (IFNγ), a critical cytokine for macrophage activation and control of *M.*
tuberculosis infection[24]. Consistent with the *in vivo* scRNA-seq data, ALDH2 protein was
expressed in unstimulated BMDMs (Figure 1C). In contrast, IFNγ stimulation reduced *Aldh2*
expression in both uninfected and *M. tuberculosis*-infected macrophages (Figure 1C),
suggesting that IFNγ induces a transcriptional program that downregulates *Aldh2* expression
during infection.

130
Figure 1. **ALDH2 expression is linked with human disease and immune activation**
(A, B) A candidate gene analysis of the ALDH2 rs671 mutation in pulmonary TB (PTB) patients in
Vietnam and Singapore. (C) mRNA and protein for *Aldh2* expression *M. tuberculosis* infected C57BL/6J
(WT) bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) stimulated with IFNγ and/or infected with *M.*
tuberculosis H37Rv. (D) WT and *Aldh2*⁻/⁻ BMDM mitochondrial-associated formaldehyde levels after 24
hours stimulation with IFNγ and PAM3CSK4 *in vitro.* (E) ELISA quantification of BMDM 4HNE after 24
hours stimulation with IFNγ and PAM3CSK4 *in vitro.* Experiments are representative of three
independent experiments (C, D) or three independent experiments combined (E). (C, D) unpaired t-test,
(E) Two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. *, $p < 0.05$, **, $p < 0.01$, ***, $p < 0.001$, ****,
$p < 0.0001$.
141
Macrophages from *Aldh2*-deficient mice produce higher aldehyde levels
We next generated *Aldh2* mutant (*Aldh2*⁻/⁻) mice using CRISPR-Cas9 (Figure S1B). The
mutation (12 base pair deletion in exon 12 that encompasses the region where rs671 is found in
humans) resulted in loss of ALDH2 as determined by immunoblotting (Figure S1C). We tested if
immune activation could increase aldehyde production by wild-type (WT) macrophages and
whether aldehyde production would be further enhanced by *Aldh2*-deficiency (Figure S1D).
Using Mito-RFAP-2, a mitochondrial-targeted, ratio-metric dye that detects mitochondrial-
localized formaldehyde with high sensitivity[25], we found that WT macrophages stimulated with
IFNγ and PAM3CSK4, a TLR2 agonist, had increased formaldehyde 24 hours after stimulation
(Figure 1D). This stimulation-induced enhancement of aldehyde production in macrophages
inversely correlated with *Aldh2* expression (Figure 1C) and increased mitochondrial
formaldehyde levels (Figure 1D). *Aldh2*⁻/⁻ macrophages produced significantly more

formaldehyde than the WT cells in the absence of immune stimulation (Figure 1D). A significant
difference was not observed between stimulated and unstimulated $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages,
suggesting that formaldehyde levels in $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages could not be further increased by
external stimulation.
158
159 We next measured 4HNE-protein adducts by ELISA. Although we observed a trend towards
160 increased 4HNE production in response to stimulation with PAM3CSK4 and IFNγ in WT
161 macrophages, it was not significantly different between stimulated and resting macrophages
162 (Figure 1E). However, stimulated $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages produced higher levels of 4HNE than
163 stimulated WT or unstimulated $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages (Figure 1E).
164
Aldehydes detoxified by ALDH2 kill _M. tuberculosis_
Based on the role of ALDH2 in detoxifying inflammation-associated aldehydes, we tested the
susceptibility of _M. tuberculosis_ to 4HNE and formaldehyde in axenic culture. 4HNE can reach
millimolar concentrations in inflamed tissues[8,15,26], and formaldehyde has been found at up to
400 μM in blood and tissues[27–29]. Using a standard half-maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50})
protocol, we found the _in vitro_ IC_{50} values range between 40-150 µM for formaldehyde while
4HNE had an IC_{50} of 40 µM. _M. tuberculosis_ was sensitive to 4HNE, with 10-fold killing
observed at 50 μM after six days of exposure and greater than three orders of magnitude of
toxicity at 200 μM (Figure 2A) relative to controls. Similarly, we found that formaldehyde was
toxic to _M. tuberculosis_ at 100 μM (Figure 2B). Thus, _M. tuberculosis_ is susceptible to
physiologically relevant levels of aldehyde in broth culture.
176
Mice lacking _Aldh2_ exhibit reduced susceptibility to _M. tuberculosis_ infection
We next tested whether ALDH2 deficiency enhances control of _M. tuberculosis_ by infected
macrophages. WT and $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages were infected with _M. tuberculosis_ at a multiplicity
of infection of one bacillus per macrophage (MOI = 1), and bacterial replication was monitored
over four days. _M. tuberculosis_ replication was identical in WT and $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages
(Figure 2C). We observed the expected restriction of _M. tuberculosis_ growth after IFNγ
activation, but we did not observe significant differences between the WT and $Aldh2^{-/-}$ BMDMs
(Figure 2C). Given that _in vitro_ conditions neither recapitulate the extent of inflammation nor the
complete pathogenesis observed _in vivo_, we infected $Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice to assess the role of ALDH2
in a biologically relevant model of _M. tuberculosis._ We infected mice via the aerosol route with a
low-to-medium dose (~25 colony forming units, CFU) of _M. tuberculosis_ and harvested their
lungs for CFU enumeration at various time points. At 14 days post infection (dpi), we observed
no difference in the ability of $Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice to control pulmonary infection when compared with
littermate controls (Figure 2D); however, at 28 dpi, we observed a significant difference between
$Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice and WT mice, wherein $Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice had lower bacterial burdens (Figure 2D). The
adaptive immune response is typically observed after 14 dpi in mice, where increased IFNγ
signaling results from T cell migration to the site of infection. This result suggests that sustained
T cell-mediated IFNγ signaling may contribute to the improved control observed by the $Aldh2^{-/-}$
mice at 28 dpi by increasing local aldehyde production. WT mice are relatively resistant to
infection with _M. tuberculosis_[30,31].

197
Figure 2. *Aldh2*-deficient mice exhibit enhanced control of *M. tuberculosis* infection
M. tuberculosis H37Rv killing after six days treatment with physiological levels of (A) 4-hydroxynonenal
(4HNE) or (B) Formaldehyde (FA). (C) CFU enumeration of WT and *Aldh2^-/-^* BMDMs infected with *M.*
tuberculosis LuxErd +/- IFNγ at an MOI= 1. (D) Lung CFU enumeration of aerosol-infected *Aldh2^-/-^* and
WT mice with ≈ 25 CFU *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv at indicated timepoints. (E) Lung CFU enumeration of
aerosol-infected *Sp140^-/-^* and *Sp140^-/-^Aldh2^-/-^* mice with ≈ 25 CFU *M. tuberculosis* Erdman 28 dpi. (F)
Survival curve of *Sp140^-/-^* and *Sp140^-/-^Aldh2^-/-^* mice infected with a high dose of *M. tuberculosis* Erdman
(300 CFU). (A), (B) *p<0.05 by unpaired t-test. (D), (E) p<0.05 by Mann-Whitney. (F) p<0.0001 by Mantel-
Cox log rank test. Experiments are representative of a minimum of three (A), (B), (C), (F) or three
experiments combined (D), (E).
208
We hypothesized that the protective effect of ALDH2 could be more robust in a susceptible
mouse background in which a loss of bacterial control correlates with destructive inflammatory
responses in the lung, as well as in a setting of increased aldehyde load. To test this
hypothesis, we generated *Aldh^-/-^* mice on the background of *Sp140* deficiency. *Sp140^-/-^* mice
have type I IFN-driven susceptibility to disease and severe bacterial burden during *M.*
tuberculosis infection[32]. We infected *Aldh2^-/-^ Sp140^-/-^* and parental *Sp140^-/-^* mice with *M.*
tuberculosis. Both genotypes had increased lung CFU relative to *Aldh2^-/-^* and WT mice due to
the known susceptibility of the *Sp140^-/-^* background (Figure 2E). As with WT mice, we observed
significantly fewer CFU in the *Aldh2^-/-^Sp140^-/-^* mice when compared to parental *Sp140^-/-^*
animals at 28 dpi (Figure 2E). To determine if *Aldh2* deficiency promotes survival during
infection in this context, we infected *Aldh2^-/-^Sp140^-/-^* mice with a high dose of *M. tuberculosis.*
*Aldh2^-/-^Sp140^-/-^* mice lived significantly longer that the *Sp140^-/-^*controls (Figure 2F). Thus, even
in the presence of a host-detrimental inflammatory type I IFN response, disruption of *Aldh2* had
a protective effect against *M. tuberculosis* infection.

Figure 3. *F. tularensis* LVS growth is attenuated in *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice and macrophages

F. tularensis LVS (FtLVS) killing after two hours of treatment with physiological levels of (A) 4HNE or (B) formaldehyde. CFU enumeration of WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ lungs (C) or spleens (D) infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., five dpi. 4HNE quantification in WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ lungs (E) or spleens (F) infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi. (G) CFU enumeration of WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ BMDMs infected with FtLVS +/- IFNγ at an MOI= 1. (H) 4HNE quantification in untreated or FtLVS infected BMDMs +/- IFNγ. FtLVS CFU enumeration in (I) lungs or (J) spleens of WT, *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$, *p47phox*$^{-/-}$ and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ *p47phox*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with 10^3 FtLVS i.d., 5 dpi. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. (A-D) unpaired t-test. (E, F) Mann-Whitney. (G, H) 2way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. (I-J) one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Experiments are representative of a minimum of three (A), (B), (I), (J) or three experiments combined (C-H).

Aldh2 deficiency enhances control of _Francisella_ infection

Previous work demonstrated the susceptibility of *Francisella* species to 4HNE and other metabolic aldehydes[33,34]. We observed that the *Francisella tularensis* Live Vaccine Strain (FtLVS) was highly susceptible to 4HNE and formaldehyde, showing nearly three orders of magnitude of killing with 50 μM 4HNE, and ~1 log killing with 25 μM formaldehyde (Figures 3A and 3B). To test whether *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice are resistant to infection with FtLVS, we infected mice with FtLVS intradermally (i.d.) and measured CFU in lungs and spleens five days later. We found that in both organs, *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice had significantly lower bacterial burdens than parental mice (Figures 3C and 3D). We also observed elevated levels of 4HNE concentrations in tissues of infected *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice (Figures 3E and 3F). Because macrophages are a primary replicative niche for FtLVS[35], we next reasoned that enhanced control of infection in *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice could be associated with enhanced macrophage microbicidal activity. To test this hypothesis, we infected BMDMs from WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice *in vitro* and found that *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ macrophages were indeed more microbicidal than WT macrophages, an effect that was enhanced by IFNγ stimulation

(Figure 3G). CFU was equivalent across genotypes on day 0, and no differences in macrophage

viability were observed at any timepoint (Figures S3J and S3K).

To further correlate the microbicidal activity of $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages with elevated aldehyde

levels, we sought to abolish infection-associated aldehyde production in $Aldh2^{-/-}$ macrophages

and mice. Lipid peroxidation reactions downstream of NADPH oxidase are the primary source

of 4HNE in activated macrophages[36]. Consistent with this observation, we found that

macrophages lacking both $Aldh2$ and $p47phox$ ($phox^{-/-}$)$,$ a subunit of NADPH oxidase, had WT

4HNE levels after infection with FtLVS (Figure 3H). Consistent with the lowered aldehyde levels,

loss of $p47phox$ also abolished the enhanced control of infection observed in $Aldh2^{-/-}$

macrophages (Figure 3G). Deletion of $p47phox$ also reversed $Aldh2$ dependent control of FtLVS

infection in vivo (Figures 3I and 3J). We were unable to consistently detect formaldehyde in

FtLVS infected macrophages.

$Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice have enhanced innate responses to FtLVS infection

To test whether differences in inflammatory responses contribute to enhanced FtLVS control in

$Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice, we analyzed pulmonary and splenic immune responses three dpi., a timepoint

preceding significant differences in bacterial burden (Figures 4A and 4B). We found that

$Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice showed a selective increase in recruitment of inflammatory monocytes (iMOS) and

inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS)-expressing macrophages relative to WT controls.

Frequencies of neutrophils and other cell types remained comparable between genotypes

(Figures 4C-H and S4). Further, we found that Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2 (CCL2) levels

were elevated in both the lungs and spleens of $Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice, explaining the increased

recruitment of monocytes and macrophages (Figures 4I and 4J). In addition to CCL2, we found

that numerous inflammatory cytokines were elevated in $Aldh2^{-/-}$ spleens and lungs (Figures

S3A-I). Although iNOS^{+} macrophages were enriched in the spleen and lungs of $Aldh2^{-/-}$ mice,

protection was maintained in the absence of iNOS, indicating that aldehyde-mediated control is

independent of NO production under these conditions (Figures 4K and 4L).

Figure 4. *Aldh2^{−/−}* mice exhibit heightened innate immune activation following *F. tularensis* LVS infection

CFU enumeration of lung (A) and spleen (B) in WT and *Aldh2^{−/−}* mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi. Frequencies of iNOS$^+$ macrophages (C) inflammatory monocytes (D) and neutrophils (E) in the lungs of WT and *Aldh2^{−/−}* mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d, 3 dpi. Frequencies of iNOS$^+$ macrophages (F) inflammatory monocytes (G) and neutrophils (H) in the spleens of WT and *Aldh2^{−/−}* mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi. CCL2 quantification in the lungs (I) and spleens (J) of WT and *Aldh2^{−/−}* mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi. (K) CFU enumeration in WT, *Aldh2^{−/−}, Nos2^{−/−},* and *Nos2^{−/−}Aldh2^{−/−}* infected with FtLVS MOI=1, +/- IFNγ, 2 dpi. L) CFU enumeration in WT, *Aldh2^{−/−},Nos2^{−/−},* and *Nos2^{−/−}Aldh2^{−/−}* mice infected with 10^3 FtLVS, 5 dpi. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. (A), (B): unpaired t-test. (C-J): Mann-Whitney test. (K): 2way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. (L): one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Experiments are representative of a minimum of three (A-J), (K), (L) or three experiments combined (I), (J).

DISCUSSION

Throughout human history, pathogens have acted as powerful selective forces, shaping the genetic architecture of modern populations. Classic examples, such as the persistence of the sickle cell allele in malaria endemic regions, illustrate how genetic variants that confer resistance to pathogens can be maintained despite associated fitness costs. In this context, our findings suggest that the widespread ALDH2*2 allele, though traditionally associated with

alcohol intolerance, may represent an evolutionary adaptation to bacterial infection[37]. We show
that ALDH2 deficiency confers enhanced protection against *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and
Francisella tularensis LVS, both in humans (for Mtb) and in mouse models (both pathogens).
Mechanistically, *Aldh2*^{−/−} mice and macrophages have elevated levels of bactericidal 4HNE and
formaldehyde, enhanced innate immune activation, and increased bacterial killing. Taken
together, our results support a model in which loss of ALDH2 function amplifies aldehyde-
mediated antimicrobial activity, potentially explaining the positive selection of *ALDH2*2* in
pathogen-exposed populations. This may represent a previously unrecognized instance of
balancing selection, in which antagonistic pleiotropy maintains *ALDH2*2*, despite its deleterious
effects, by enhancing protection against infection.
309
The *ALDH2*2* allele is predicted to have evolved about 3,000 years ago[38] and is predominantly
found in individuals of east Asian descent; interestingly, the emergence of *M. tuberculosis*
lineage 2 (also known as the W/Beijing lineage) occurred between 2,000 – 7,000 years ago[38,39],
and this lineage is more prevalent in East Asia. In congruence with previous data[11], we found
that individuals harboring the *ALDH2*2* allele have a reduced risk of developing PTB,
suggesting that there may have been evolutionary pressure selecting for this allele in
environments where TB transmission was high. Lineage 2 strains exhibit increased
transmissibility, hypervirulence, and a higher mutation rate[40–43], all of which may facilitate
survival under host-imposed antimicrobial pressures—including aldehyde stress. Further
research is needed to explore if there is an evolutionary interplay between *ALDH2*2* and
lineage 2 strains.
321
Although *Aldh2*^{−/−} mice showed early protection against *M. tuberculosis,* we did not observe
differences in bacterial burden at later timepoints. One explanation is that in the relatively
resistant B6 background, infection becomes persistent and controlled by 28-56 dpi, with limited
bacterial replication and dampened inflammation, conditions under which aldehyde-mediated
killing may be less effective. In contrast, *Aldh2* deficiency confers an advantage in *Sp140*^{−/−}
mice, even when infection is acute and poorly controlled. Consistent with this result, we
observed robust protection in *Aldh2*^{−/−} mice challenged with FtLVS, a model of acute, rapidly
progressive infection. Importantly, our finding that individuals carrying the *ALDH2*2* allele have
reduced risk of PTB suggests that even modest enhancements in early host control may confer
meaningful protection in natural infection settings.
332
ALDH2 deficiency has been associated with heightened inflammation in both clinical and
experimental settings[10,44]. The accumulation of reactive aldehydes can act as an endogenous
danger signal by modifying host proteins and activating stress and immune signaling
pathways[45]. Our findings extend this connection to the context of infection. Notably, protection in
Aldh2^{−/−} mice and macrophages was dependent on NADPH oxidase, which drives reactive
oxygen species production within the phagosome following bacterial phagocytosis. This result
suggests that aldehydes produced via phagosomal lipid peroxidation reactions are required for
protection observed in *Aldh2*^{−/−} mice. Further, flow cytometry analysis revealed that *Aldh2*^{−/−}
mice infected with FtLVS exhibited increased recruitment of inflammatory monocytes and
macrophages to infected tissues, which was accompanied by elevated levels CCL2 and IFNγ, a

potent inflammatory macrophage activator required to protect against FtLVS infection. These
data suggest that NADPH oxidase-driven aldehyde accumulation not only contributes to direct
bacterial killing but may also amplify innate immune activation that promotes pathogen
clearance. This idea is consistent with previous studies that show that *ALDH2* deficiency is
associated with increased frequencies of inflammatory macrophages[46].
348
FtLVS evades early innate immune recognition, a strategy critical for its pathogenesis[47].
Aldehyde-induced early inflammation may disrupt this evasion, restricting bacterial replication
and partially attenuating infection. Supporting this hypothesis, pharmacological inhibition of
ALDH2 increases macrophage resistance to FtLVS infection *in vitro,* suggesting that aldehyde
accumulation alone may be sufficient to enhance antibacterial immunity[48]. While our study
focused on 4HNE and formaldehyde, ALDH2 detoxifies a broad spectrum of endogenous
aldehydes, including malondialdehyde and acrolein, which may also accumulate in *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$
mice and contribute to host protection. Future work will define the full repertoire of
immunomodulatory and antimicrobial aldehydes regulated by ALDH2, and how their cumulative
effects shape the immune response to infection.
359
Collectively, our findings highlight the dual role of aldehydes as both cytotoxic metabolites and
immune effectors[37]. More broadly, this work underscores the importance of metabolic regulation
in innate immunity and suggests that host-derived aldehydes represent a novel class of
endogenous antimicrobial factors weaponized by host cells to combat pathogens. Elucidating
how these reactive metabolites function in different infection models and inflammatory contexts
may open new avenues for host-directed therapeutic strategies.
366

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to, and will be fulfilled by, the lead contact, Sarah A. Stanley (sastanley@berkeley.edu).

Materials availability

All reagents generated or used in this study are available on request from the lead contact with a completed materials transfer agreement.

Data and code availability

All data reported in this paper will be shared by the lead contact upon request. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this work paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

References:

1. Chen, C.-H., Kraemer, B.R., and Mochly-Rosen, D. (2022). ALDH2 variance in disease and populations. Dis. Model. Mech. *15*. https://doi.org/10.1242/dmm.049601.

2. Impraim, C., Wang, G., and Yoshida, A. (1982). Structural mutation in a major human aldehyde dehydrogenase gene results in loss of enzyme activity. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *34*, 837–841.

3. Harada, S., Agarwal, D.P., and Goedde, H.W. (1981). Aldehyde dehydrogenase deficiency as cause of facial flushing reaction to alcohol in Japanese. Lancet *2*, 982.

4. Gross, E.R., Zambelli, V.O., Small, B.A., Ferreira, J.C.B., Chen, C.-H., and Mochly-Rosen, D. (2015). A personalized medicine approach for Asian Americans with the aldehyde dehydrogenase 2*2 variant. Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol. *55*, 107–127.

5. Chen, C.-H., Ferreira, J.C.B., Gross, E.R., and Mochly-Rosen, D. (2014). Targeting aldehyde dehydrogenase 2: new therapeutic opportunities. Physiol. Rev. *94*, 1–34.

6. Vijayraghavan, S., and Saini, N. (2023). Aldehyde-associated Mutagenesis—Current state of knowledge. Chem. Res. Toxicol. *36*, 983–1001.

7. Oka, Y., Hamada, M., Nakazawa, Y., Muramatsu, H., Okuno, Y., Higasa, K., Shimada, M., Takeshima, H., Hanada, K., Hirano, T., et al. (2020). Digenic mutations in ALDH2 and ADH5 impair formaldehyde clearance and cause a multisystem disorder, AMeD syndrome. Sci. Adv. *6*, eabd7197.

8. Dalleau, S., Baradat, M., Guéraud, F., and Huc, L. (2013). Cell death and diseases related to oxidative stress: 4-hydroxynonenal (HNE) in the balance. Cell Death Differ. *20*, 1615–1630.

9. Ma, H., Lou, K., Shu, Q., Song, X., and Xu, H. (2024). Aldehyde dehydrogenase 2 deficiency reinforces formaldehyde-potentiated pro-inflammatory responses and glycolysis in macrophages. J. Biochem. Mol. Toxicol. *38*, e23518.

10. Pan, C., Xing, J.-H., Zhang, C., Zhang, Y.-M., Zhang, L.-T., Wei, S.-J., Zhang, M.-X., Wang,
X.-P., Yuan, Q.-H., Xue, L., et al. (2016). Aldehyde dehydrogenase 2 inhibits inflammatory
response and regulates atherosclerotic plaque. Oncotarget *7*, 35562–35576.

11. Park, S.K., Park, C.-S., Lee, H.-S., Park, K.S., Park, B.L., Cheong, H.S., and Shin, H.D.
(2014). Functional polymorphism in aldehyde dehydrogenase-2 gene associated with risk
of tuberculosis. BMC Med. Genet. *15*, 40.

12. Rehm, J., Samokhvalov, A.V., Neuman, M.G., Room, R., Parry, C., Lönnroth, K., Patra, J.,
Poznyak, V., and Popova, S. (2009). The association between alcohol use, alcohol use
disorders and tuberculosis (TB). A systematic review. BMC Public Health *9*, 450.

13. Imtiaz, S., Shield, K.D., Roerecke, M., Samokhvalov, A.V., Lönnroth, K., and Rehm, J.
(2017). Alcohol consumption as a risk factor for tuberculosis: meta-analyses and burden of
disease. Eur. Respir. J. *50*. https://doi.org/10.1183/13993003.00216-2017.

14. Barrera, G., Pizzimenti, S., Ciamporcero, E.S., Daga, M., Ullio, C., Arcaro, A., Cetrangolo,
G.P., Ferretti, C., Dianzani, C., Lepore, A., et al. (2015). Role of 4-hydroxynonenal-protein
adducts in human diseases. Antioxid. Redox Signal. *22*, 1681–1702.

15. Shoeb, M., Ansari, N.H., Srivastava, S.K., and Ramana, K.V. (2014). 4-Hydroxynonenal in
the pathogenesis and progression of human diseases. Curr. Med. Chem. *21*, 230–237.

16. Schaur, R.J., Siems, W., Bresgen, N., and Eckl, P.M. (2015). 4-Hydroxy-nonenal-A
Bioactive Lipid Peroxidation Product. Biomolecules *5*, 2247–2337.

17. Anderson, E.J., Katunga, L.A., and Willis, M.S. (2012). Mitochondria as a source and target
of lipid peroxidation products in healthy and diseased heart. Clin. Exp. Pharmacol. Physiol.
39, 179–193.

18. Breitzig, M., Bhimineni, C., Lockey, R., and Kolliputi, N. (2016). 4-Hydroxy-2-nonenal: a
critical target in oxidative stress? Am. J. Physiol. Cell Physiol. *311*, C537–C543.

19. Yoval-Sánchez, B., and Rodríguez-Zavala, J.S. (2012). Differences in susceptibility to
inactivation of human aldehyde dehydrogenases by lipid peroxidation byproducts. Chem.
Res. Toxicol. *25*, 722–729.

20. Ayala, A., Muñoz, M.F., and Argüelles, S. (2014). Lipid peroxidation: production,
metabolism, and signaling mechanisms of malondialdehyde and 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal.
Oxid. Med. Cell. Longev. *2014*, 360438.

21. Dingler, F.A., Wang, M., Mu, A., Millington, C.L., Oberbeck, N., Watcham, S., Pontel, L.B.,
Kamimae-Lanning, A.N., Langevin, F., Nadler, C., et al. (2020). Two Aldehyde Clearance
Systems Are Essential to Prevent Lethal Formaldehyde Accumulation in Mice and Humans.
Mol. Cell *80*, 996-1012.e9.

22. Nakamura, J., Holley, D.W., Kawamoto, T., and Bultman, S.J. (2020). The failure of two
major formaldehyde catabolism enzymes (ADH5 and ALDH2) leads to partial synthetic
lethality in C57BL/6 mice. Genes Environ *42*, 21.

23. Morellato, A.E., Umansky, C., and Pontel, L.B. (2021). The toxic side of one-carbon
metabolism and epigenetics. Redox Biol. *40*, 101850.

24. Flynn, J.L., Chan, J., Triebold, K.J., Dalton, D.K., Stewart, T.A., and Bloom, B.R. (1993). An
essential role for interferon gamma in resistance to Mycobacterium tuberculosis infection. J.
Exp. Med. *178*, 2249–2254.

25. Tenney, L., Pham, V.N., Brewer, T.F., and Chang, C.J. (2024). A mitochondrial-targeted
activity-based sensing probe for ratiometric imaging of formaldehyde reveals key regulators
of the mitochondrial one-carbon pool. Chem. Sci. *15*, 8080–8088.

26. Mihalas, B.P., De Iuliis, G.N., Redgrove, K.A., McLaughlin, E.A., and Nixon, B. (2017). The
lipid peroxidation product 4-hydroxynonenal contributes to oxidative stress-mediated
deterioration of the ageing oocyte. Sci. Rep. *7*, 6247.

27. Burgos-Barragan, G., Wit, N., Meiser, J., Dingler, F.A., Pietzke, M., Mulderrig, L., Pontel,
L.B., Rosado, I.V., Brewer, T.F., Cordell, R.L., et al. (2017). Mammals divert endogenous
genotoxic formaldehyde into one-carbon metabolism. Nature *548*, 549–554.

28. Heck, H.D., Casanova-Schmitz, M., Dodd, P.B., Schachter, E.N., Witek, T.J., and Tosun, T.
(1985). Formaldehyde (CH2O) concentrations in the blood of humans and Fischer-344 rats
exposed to CH2O under controlled conditions. Am. Ind. Hyg. Assoc. J. *46*, 1–3.

29. Luo, W., Li, H., Zhang, Y., and Ang, C.Y. (2001). Determination of formaldehyde in blood
plasma by high-performance liquid chromatography with fluorescence detection. J.
Chromatogr. B Biomed. Sci. Appl. *753*, 253–257.

30. Cooper, A.M. (2014). Mouse model of tuberculosis. Cold Spring Harb. Perspect. Med. *5*,
a018556.

31. Medina, E., and North, R.J. (1998). Resistance ranking of some common inbred mouse
strains to Mycobacterium tuberculosis and relationship to major histocompatibility complex
haplotype and Nramp1 genotype. Immunology *93*, 270–274.

32. Ji, D.X., Witt, K.C., Kotov, D.I., Margolis, S.R., Louie, A., Chevée, V., Chen, K.J., Gaidt,
M.M., Dhaliwal, H.S., Lee, A.Y., et al. (2021). Role of the transcriptional regulator SP140 in
resistance to bacterial infections via repression of type I interferons. Elife *10*.
https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.67290.

33. Tabakh, H., McFarland, A.P., Thomason, M.K., Pollock, A.J., Glover, R.C., Zaver, S.A., and
Woodward, J.J. (2021). 4-Hydroxy-2-nonenal antimicrobial toxicity is neutralized by an
intracellular pathogen. Elife *10*. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.59295.

34. Anaya-Sanchez, A., Berry, S.B., Espich, S., Zilinskas, A., Tran, P.M., Agudelo, C., Samani,
H., Darwin, K.H., Portnoy, D.A., and Stanley, S.A. (2025). Methylglyoxal is an antibacterial
effector produced by macrophages during infection. Cell Host Microbe.
https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chom.2025.05.026.

35. Elkins, K.L., Cowley, S.C., and Bosio, C.M. (2007). Innate and adaptive immunity to
Francisella. Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci. *1105*, 284–324.

36. Ioannidis, M., Tjepkema, J., Uitbeijerse, M.R.P., and van den Bogaart, G. (2025).
Immunomodulatory effects of 4-hydroxynonenal. Redox Biol. *85*, 103719.

37. Darwin, K.H., and Stanley, S.A. (2022). The aldehyde hypothesis: metabolic intermediates
as antimicrobial effectors. Open Biol. *12*, 220010.

38. Liu, Q., Ma, A., Wei, L., Pang, Y., Wu, B., Luo, T., Zhou, Y., Zheng, H.-X., Jiang, Q., Gan,
M., et al. (2018). China's tuberculosis epidemic stems from historical expansion of four
strains of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Nat Ecol Evol *2*, 1982–1992.

39. Merker, M., Blin, C., Mona, S., Duforet-Frebourg, N., Lecher, S., Willery, E., Blum, M.G.B.,
Rüsch-Gerdes, S., Mokrousov, I., Aleksic, E., et al. (2015). Evolutionary history and global
spread of the Mycobacterium tuberculosis Beijing lineage. Nat. Genet. *47*, 242–249.

40. Hanekom, M., Gey van Pittius, N.C., McEvoy, C., Victor, T.C., Van Helden, P.D., and
Warren, R.M. (2011). Mycobacterium tuberculosis Beijing genotype: a template for
success. Tuberculosis *91*, 510–523.

41. Parwati, I., van Crevel, R., and van Soolingen, D. (2010). Possible underlying mechanisms
for successful emergence of the Mycobacterium tuberculosis Beijing genotype strains.
Lancet Infect. Dis. *10*, 103–111.

42. Holt, K.E., McAdam, P., Thai, P.V.K., Thuong, N.T.T., Ha, D.T.M., Lan, N.N., Lan, N.H.,
Nhu, N.T.Q., Hai, H.T., Ha, V.T.N., et al. (2018). Frequent transmission of the
Mycobacterium tuberculosis Beijing lineage and positive selection for the EsxW Beijing
variant in Vietnam. Nat. Genet. *50*, 849–856.

43. Ford, C.B., Shah, R.R., Maeda, M.K., Gagneux, S., Murray, M.B., Cohen, T., Johnston,
J.C., Gardy, J., Lipsitch, M., and Fortune, S.M. (2013). Mycobacterium tuberculosis
mutation rate estimates from different lineages predict substantial differences in the
emergence of drug-resistant tuberculosis. Nat. Genet. *45*, 784–790.

44. Joshi, A.U., Van Wassenhove, L.D., Logas, K.R., Minhas, P.S., Andreasson, K.I.,
Weinberg, K.I., Chen, C.-H., and Mochly-Rosen, D. (2019). Aldehyde dehydrogenase 2
activity and aldehydic load contribute to neuroinflammation and Alzheimer's disease related
pathology. Acta Neuropathol. Commun. *7*, 190.

45. Binder, C.J., Papac-Milicevic, N., and Witztum, J.L. (2016). Innate sensing of oxidation-
specific epitopes in health and disease. Nat. Rev. Immunol. *16*, 485–497.

46. Rui, H., Yu, H., Chi, K., Han, Z., Zhu, W., Zhang, J., Guo, H., Zou, W., Wang, F., Xu, P., et
al. (2024). ALDH2 deficiency augments atherosclerosis through the USP14-cGAS-
dependent polarization of proinflammatory macrophages. Redox Biol. *76*, 103318.

47. Jones, C.L., Napier, B.A., Sampson, T.R., Llewellyn, A.C., Schroeder, M.R., and Weiss,
D.S. (2012). Subversion of host recognition and defense systems by Francisella spp.
Microbiol. Mol. Biol. Rev. *76*, 383–404.

48. Hamblin, K.A., Flick-Smith, H., Barnes, K.B., Pereira-Leal, J.B., Surkont, J., Hampson, R.,
Atkins, H.S., and Harding, S.V. (2019). Disulfiram, an alcohol dependence therapy, can
inhibit the in vitro growth of Francisella tularensis. Int. J. Antimicrob. Agents *54*, 85–88.

49. Quadros, R.M., Miura, H., Harms, D.W., Akatsuka, H., Sato, T., Aida, T., Redder, R.,
Richardson, G.P., Inagaki, Y., Sakai, D., et al. (2017). Easi-CRISPR: a robust method for

one-step generation of mice carrying conditional and insertion alleles using long ssDNA
donors and CRISPR ribonucleoproteins. Genome Biol. *18*, 92.

50. Brewer, T.F., Burgos-Barragan, G., Wit, N., Patel, K.J., and Chang, C.J. (2017). A 2-aza-
Cope reactivity-based platform for ratiometric fluorescence imaging of formaldehyde in
living cells. Chem. Sci. *8*, 4073–4081.

51. Ohata, J., Bruemmer, K.J., and Chang, C.J. (2019). Activity-Based Sensing Methods for
Monitoring the Reactive Carbon Species Carbon Monoxide and Formaldehyde in Living
Systems. Acc. Chem. Res. *52*, 2841–2848.

52. Ravesloot-Chavez, M.M., Van Dis, E., Fox, D., Nguyenla, X.H., Rawal, S.L., Ballinger,
M.A., Thomas, H., Kotov, D.I., Vance, R., Nachman, M., et al. (2023). Tuberculosis
susceptibility in genetically diverse mice reveals functional diversity of neutrophils. bioRxiv,
2023.06.29.547125. https://doi.org/10.1101/2023.06.29.547125.

53. Petersen, K.R., Streett, D.A., Gerritsen, A.T., Hunter, S.S., and Settles, M.L. (2015). Super
deduper, fast PCR duplicate detection in fastq files. In Proceedings of the 6th ACM
Conference on Bioinformatics, Computational Biology and Health Informatics BCB '15.
(Association for Computing Machinery), pp. 491–492.

54. Frankish, A., Diekhans, M., Ferreira, A.-M., Johnson, R., Jungreis, I., Loveland, J., Mudge,
J.M., Sisu, C., Wright, J., Armstrong, J., et al. (2019). GENCODE reference annotation for
the human and mouse genomes. Nucleic Acids Res. *47*, D766–D773.

55. Dobin, A., Davis, C.A., Schlesinger, F., Drenkow, J., Zaleski, C., Jha, S., Batut, P.,
Chaisson, M., and Gingeras, T.R. (2013). STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner.
Bioinformatics *29*, 15–21.

56. Chang, X., Li, Z., Khac Thai, P.V., Minh Ha, D.T., Thuong Thuong, N.T., Wee, D., Binte
Mohamed Subhan, A.S., Silcocks, M., Eng Chee, C.B., Quynh Nhu, N.T., et al. (2025).
Genome-wide association study reveals a novel tuberculosis susceptibility locus in multiple
East Asian and European populations. medRxiv.
https://doi.org/10.1101/2024.03.14.24304327.

57. Shah, J.A., Warr, A.J., Graustein, A.D., Saha, A., Dunstan, S.J., Thuong, N.T.T., Thwaites,
G.E., Caws, M., Thai, P.V.K., Bang, N.D., et al. (2022). REL and BHLHE40 Variants Are
Associated with IL-12 and IL-10 Responses and Tuberculosis Risk. J. Immunol. *208*, 1352–
1361.

58. Khor, C.C., Do, T., Jia, H., Nakano, M., George, R., Abu-Amero, K., Duvesh, R., Chen, L.J.,
Li, Z., Nongpiur, M.E., et al. (2016). Genome-wide association study identifies five new
susceptibility loci for primary angle closure glaucoma. Nat. Genet. *48*, 556–562.

59. Dunstan, S.J., Hue, N.T., Han, B., Li, Z., Tram, T.T.B., Sim, K.S., Parry, C.M., Chinh, N.T.,
Vinh, H., Lan, N.P.H., et al. (2014). Variation at HLA-DRB1 is associated with resistance to
enteric fever. Nat. Genet. *46*, 1333–1336.

60. Hankin, J.H., Stram, D.O., Arakawa, K., Park, S., Low, S.H., Lee, H.P., and Yu, M.C.
(2001). Singapore Chinese Health Study: development, validation, and calibration of the
quantitative food frequency questionnaire. Nutr. Cancer *39*, 187–195.

61. Dorajoo, R., Chang, X., Gurung, R.L., Li, Z., Wang, L., Wang, R., Beckman, K.B., Adams-
Haduch, J, M, Y., Liu, S., et al. (2019). Loci for human leukocyte telomere length in the
Singaporean Chinese population and trans-ethnic genetic studies. Nat. Commun. *10*, 2491.

62. Chang, X., Gurung, R.L., Wang, L., Jin, A., Li, Z., Wang, R., Beckman, K.B., Adams-
Haduch, J., Meah, W.Y., Sim, K.S., et al. (2021). Low frequency variants associated with
leukocyte telomere length in the Singapore Chinese population. Commun Biol *4*, 519.

Acknowledgements: We thank Angus Y. Lee and Harmandeep S. Dhaliwal (UC Berkeley
Cancer Research Laboratory) for generation of *Aldh2* mutant mice. We thank all the participants
involved in the genetics studies in Vietnam. and Singapore. We acknowledge the clinical and
laboratory staff at the study sites in Vietnam and Singapore for their contribution, especially
Phan Vuong Khac Thai, Maxine Caws, Nguyen Duc Bang, Tran Thi Hong Chau, Guy Thwaites,
and their teams at Oxford University Clinical Research Unit, and Pham Ngoc Thach Hospital for
TB and Lung Diseases, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. We thank Zheng Li from the Genome
Institute of Singapore for his contribute to the TB GWAS. We thank Karen Elkins (FDA) for the
gift of the Francisella LVS strain as well as helpful advice and protocols. **Funding:** We thank the
NIH for the following support: ES 28096 (C.J.C.), AI066302 (R.E.V., S.A.S.), AI153197 (S.A.S.,
K.H.D.). C.J.C. is a CIFAR Fellow. R.E.V. is an Investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical
Institute. The Vietnam human genetics work was supported by the National Health and Medical
Research Council Australia: 1056689 (SJD) and 1172853 (SJD). The Singapore Chinese Health
Study was supported by grants from the National Medical Research Council, Singapore
(NMRC/CIRG/1456/2016), National Institutes of Health (R01 CA144034 and UM1 CA182876)
and the Singapore Strategic Cohorts Consortium Award (23-1034-A0001). We thank the Office
of Science & Research High-Containment Laboratories at NYU Grossman School of
Medicine for their support in the completion of this research.

Author contributions: Conceptualization: KHD, SAS; Data Curation: SAS, KHD, SE, SB;
Formal analysis: SE, SB, AB, XC, DK, DF, SAS; Investigation: SE, SB, AB, RB, DF, LT, AAS,
LT; Resources: NTTT, RD, CCK, CKH, JMY, WPK, CJC, LT; Supervision: RV, SJD, SAS, KHD,
CJC; Writing: SAS, SE, SJD; Review and Editing: all authors.

Competing interests: S.A.S. is on the SAB for X-biotix Therapeutics. R.E.V. is on the SAB for
Tempest Therapeutics and X-biotix Therapeutics.

List of Supplementary Materials

Materials and Methods

Figures. S1-S4

Materials and Methods

Ethics Statement:

All procedures involving the use of mice were approved by the University of California (UC) Berkeley, Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol #2015-09-7979-1). All protocols conform to federal regulations, the National Research Council Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals, and the Public Health Service Policy on Humane Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. All experiments handling *M. tuberculosis* were conducted in Biosafety Level 3 facilities in accordance with Environmental Health and Safety guidelines, and all experiments handling *F. tularensis* LVS were conducted in Biosafety Level 2 facilities. Study protocols for PTB human studies were approved by the Institutional Review Boards of Pham Ngoc Thach Hospital for TB and Lung Disease and The Hospital for Tropical Diseases Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC), Vietnam, HCMC Health Services, Vietnam and the Oxford Tropical Research Ethics Committee, UK. Approval for the genetics study was also granted from the Health Sciences Human Ethics Sub-Committee at the University of Melbourne, Australia (ID: 1340458). Written informed consent was obtained from all participants. All studies in SCHS were approved by the Institutional Review Board at National University of Singapore, and written informed consent was obtained from all participants.

Mice:

C57BL/6J (#000664), *Nos2*^{−/−}*,* and p*47phox*^{−/−} mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) and bred in-house. *Sp140*^{−/−} mice were generated previously[32] and bred in-house. *Aldh2*^{−/−} mice were generated in the process of recapitulating the human *ALDH2*2* mutation in *Sp140*^{−/−} mice. *Aldh2*2Sp140*^{−/−} mice were generated by pronuclear injection of Cas9 mRNA, sgRNA, and a 154 nucleotide ultramer oligo (IDT Inc., Coralville, IA) containing 77 and 39 nucleotide homology arms and encoding the *Aldh2*2* mutation as well as synonymous mutations that disrupt sgRNA binding, as previously described[49]. Founder mice were genotyped for *Aldh2*2* mutations by PCR using the forward primer 5' GGAGAGGTGTGCTGTGTT 3' and the reverse primer 5' GGGATCTGTATTCCGTGGC 3' and then sequencing using the same forward primer. Founders carrying the *Aldh2*2* mutation or deletions in *Aldh2* (i.e., *Aldh2*^{−/−}) were bred one generation to *Sp140*^{−/−}*, Nos2*^{−/−}*,* or p47*phox*^{−/−} mice to separate modified *Aldh2* haplotypes. Resulting pups with matched *Aldh2* haplotypes were interbred to generate homozygous lines that were maintained in-house.

Bacterial Culture:

Frozen stocks of low passage *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv, *M. tuberculosis* Erdman, and *M. tuberculosis* Lux-Erdman (a reporter strain that constitutively expresses the bacterial luciferase encoding luxCDABE operon, gift from Cox Laboratory at UC Berkeley) were grown to logarithmic phase over 4-5 days at 37°C in Middlebrook 7H9 media with 10% albumin-dextrose-saline, 0.5% glycerol, and 0.05% Tween-80 ("7H9c"). For preparation of aerosol stocks of *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv and Erdman, logarithmic phase cultures were centrifuged at 3,500 rpm for 5 min., resuspended in 1X phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and sonicated thrice for 30 sec. each at 90% power. Cultures were then centrifuged at 700 rpm for 5 min to pellet large clumps, the supernatant was collected, and then centrifuged again at 700 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was then collected and the optical density at 600 nM (OD_{600}) was measured to determine

bacterial concentration, and then aliquoted and frozen at -80°C until use. Frozen stocks of
FtLVS (generously gifted by Dr. Karen Elkins, FDA) were cultured in Mueller Hinton Broth
containing 1.25 mM $CaCl_2$, 2.2 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1% glucose, 0.025% ferric pyrophosphate, and 2%
Isovitalex (#211875, Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ) to early log phase (OD600 ≈ 0.25)
overnight for use in experiments. For preparation of injection stocks of *F. tularensis* LVS, frozen
stocks were thawed at room temperature and then diluted in sterile 1X PBS to the desired
concentration.

We used a standardized IC_{50} assay. Briefly, bacteria were grown to an OD_{580} ~0.5-1, collected
by centrifugation, and resuspended in acidified 7H9c. Bacteria were then diluted to an OD580 of
0.02 and 198 μl aliquoted into 30 wells per test condition in 96-well plates. Two-fold dilutions of
aldehyde stocks were made and 2 μl of each added in triplicate wells. OD580 was measured in
a Molecular Devices M3 plate reader five days later. Data were plotted in GraphPad Prism Plot
the data in Prism.

In Vitro Macrophage Isolation and Culture:
Bone-marrow was obtained from *Aldh2$^{-/-}$*, *Aldh2$^{-/-}$Sp140$^{-/-}$*, *Sp140$^{-/-}$*, *Nos2$^{-/-}$*, *Nos2$^{-/-}$Aldh2$^{-/-}$*,
p47phox$^{-/-}$, p*47phox$^{-/-}$Aldh2$^{-/-}$*, and C57BL/6J mice and cultured in DMEM (#11960-044,
Thermo Fischer Scientific, Waltham, MA) containing 10% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, and 10%
supernatant from 3T3-M-CSF cells (BMDM media) for 6 days with media supplementation on
day 3 to generate bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs). BMDMs were then harvested
and frozen in liquid nitrogen in 40% FBS, 10% DMSO, and 50% BMDM media until use.

In Vitro Macrophage Infections:
For infection with *M. tuberculosis*, BMDMs were plated in 96-well plates at 5x10^4 cells/well and
allowed to adhere for 48 hours prior to infection. 24 hours prior to infection, media was changed
and BMDMs were stimulated with IFNγ (≈ 30 ng/mL) for IFNγ+ conditions. 5 days prior to
infection, a frozen stock of *M. tuberculosis* Lux-Erd was thawed and cultured in 7H9 at 37°C to
log phase (OD600 = 0.2 – 1.0). *M. tuberculosis* was centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 5 min. and
washed twice in PBS, centrifuged at 500 rpm for 5 min. to pellet clumps, and then sonicated at
90% power (twice, 30 sec. each). After sonication, cultures were diluted in DMEM + 5% horse
serum + 5% FBS and added to the BMDMs at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1, followed by
spinfection at 1200 rpm for 10 min. Supernatant was then removed and the infected BMDMs
were washed twice with 1X PBS before the appropriate media was added, and the cells were
incubated at 37°C/5% CO_2 until the first time point. CFU were enumerated at the indicated time
points by washing infected cells twice with PBS, lysing in sterile-filtered deionized water with
0.5% Triton X-100 for 10 min. at 37°C/5% CO_2, and performing serial dilutions in 1X PBS
containing 0.05% Tween 80 before aliquoting dilutions onto Middlebrook 7H10 plates
supplemented with 0.5% glycerol and 10% OADC (Middlebrook) and incubated for 21 days at
37°C. CFU is normalized to inoculum dose, calculated by plating t = 0 CFU immediately after
spinfection. For infection with FtLVS, BMDMs were prepared as described above. BMDMs were
plated in 96-well plates at 5x10^4 cells/well and allowed to adhere for 48 hours prior to infection.
24 hours prior to infection, media was changed and BMDMs were stimulated with IFNγ (≈ 30
ng/mL) for IFNγ positive conditions. To infect the BMDMs, FtLVS stocks were thawed,

resuspended in BMDM media, added to the BMDMs at an MOI = 1 and allowed to phagocytose
for 2 hours at 37°C/5% CO_2. After phagocytosis, infected BMDMs were washed thrice with 1X
PBS and then supplemented with normal media until predetermined time points. To enumerate
CFU/well, BMDMs were rinsed once with 1X PBS, lysed with sterile-filtered deionized water for
10 min., and then serial dilutions were plated on Mueller Hinton plates containing 85 mM NaCl,
1% (w/v) proteose peptone/tryptone, 8% (w/v) bacto-agar, 0.1% glucose, 0.025% ferric
pyrophosphate, 2% Isovitalex, and 2.5% bovine serum for 3 days at 37°C/5% CO_2 until CFU
were counted. Cell viability was determined using cell titer glow according to the manufacturer's
protocol. For 4HNE quantification in infected BMDMs, cells were treated as described above
and infected via centrifugation at 1200rpm for 10 minutes prior to the generation of cell lysate.
699
Aldehyde Quantification:
To measure formaldehyde, BMDMs were plated in 96-well plates at $5x10^4$ cells/well and allowed
to adhere for 48 hours prior to analysis. 24 hours prior to analysis, BMDMs were stimulated with
IFNγ (≈ 30 ng/mL) and PAM3CSK4 (50 ng/mL). BMDM formaldehyde levels were quantified
using Mito-RFAP-2, a mitochondrial-targeted version of ratiometric formaldehyde dye RFAP-2
[50,51]. Briefly, Mito-RFAP-2 was dissolved in DMSO to a concentration of 10 mM and diluted to 10
µM in Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS); the probe was then added to the BMDMs for 30
min. at 37°C/5% CO_2. BMDMs were then rinsed once with HBSS to remove the probe and
allowed to incubate in BMDM media for 60 min. at 37°C/5% CO_2. The cells were then analyzed
by fluorescent excitation at 405 nm and 488 nm and emission at 510 nm. Fluorescence was
measured using a SpectraMax M3 plate reader (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA) and
reported as the ratiometric value of emission at 405 nm and 488 nm excitations.
712
BMDM 4HNE levels were quantified by ELISA (abcam, ab287803). Cells were plated at $5x10^5$
cells per/well in 24-well plates and allowed to adhere for 48 hours prior to analysis. 24 hours
prior to analysis, BMDMs were stimulated as described above or infected with FtLVS at an MOI
of 1. Two hours after infection, cells were washed 1x with warm PBS and then lifted using cold
PBS. Cells were then pelleted and lysed, and lysates were processed for 4HNE quantification
according to the manufacturer's protocol. To measure 4HNE in murine tissues, mice were
infected with 10^5 *FtLVS* i.d.. Organs were harvested at 3 dpi and processed for quantification by
ELISA according to the manufacturer's protocol (abcam, ab287803).
721
Immunoblotting:
BMDMs were prepared as previously described and plated in a 24-well plate at $3x10^5$ cells/well,
and infected with *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv according to the previously described protocol. 24
hours post infection, BMDMs were rinsed with 1X PBS and lysed with Laemmli Buffer
(#1610737EDU, Bio Rad, Hercules, CA). Samples were heat inactivated/sterilized at 100°C for
20 min. prior to removal from the BSL3 facility. Protein lysates were prepared by heating in 1X
SDS for 5 min. at 100°C and then analyzed by SDS-PAGE using 4-20% Criterion TGX Precast
Protein Gel (#5678094, Bio Rad), rabbit monoclonal antibody (EPR4494) against ALDH2
(#ab133306, Abcam, Cambridge, MA), and an anti-rabbit HRP-conjugated secondary antibody.
Blots were developed with Western Lightning Plus-ECL enhanced chemiluminescence

substrate (#NEL103001EA, PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA) and a ChemiDoc MP/475D Imaging
System (Bio Rad).
734
Bulk and Single Cell RNAseq:
Single cell RNA sequencing results were extracted from a previously published dataset[52] on *M.*
tuberculosis-infected B6 mice. For bulk RNAseq, BMDMs were prepared as previously
described and plated in a 24-well plate at 3×10^5 cells/well, and infected with *M. tuberculosis*
H37Rv according to the previously described protocol. 24 hours post infection, BMDM media
was removed and cells were lysed with TRIzol Reagent (#15596018, Thermo Fisher Scientific).
RNA was extraction was performed by adding chloroform and centrifuging samples to make a
biphasic mixture containing RNA in an aqueous phase. The RNA-containing phase was then
collected and cleaned up using a RNeasy Mini Kit (#74104, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with on-
column DNase digestion according to the manufacturer's protocol. The isolated RNA was then
quantified and analyzed by a Qubit Quantitation Platform and an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer,
respectively, at the Functional Genomics Laboratory of the California Institute for Quantitative
Biosciences (UC Berkeley) and then submitted to GeneWiz/Azenta Life Sciences (South
Plainfield, NJ) for library preparation and sequencing. Each sample was dual indexed using
NEBNext multiplex oligomers and then quantity and quality were assessed with a Qubit Broad
Range Kit and bioanalyzer, respectively. All samples had a RIN > 9.8 and 100 ng of total RNA
was used in library preparation. Samples were then prepared for sequencing using a NEBNext
Ultra II RNA-seq with Poly-A selection kit and sequenced on a NovaSeq 6000 S4 (partial lane),
with a sequencing depth of 29 million paired-end reads per sample. Illumina sequencing data
files were pre-processed with HTStream (v. 1.3.0) to remove PCR duplicates, trim adapters,
polyA tails, and N characters, and to remove low quality 3' and 5' bases[53] and were checked for
quality with FastQC (v. 0.11.7). Sequences were aligned to the mouse primary assembly
GRCm39 from GENCODE[54] and gene counts were generated using STAR (v.
2.7.10b_alpha_230301[55]).
759
Aldehyde susceptibility assays:
M. tuberculosis H37Rv was cultured as described above. To test susceptibility to various
aldehydes, cultures were grown to an optical density at 580 nm (OD_{580}) of 0.8-1.0. Bacteria
were collected by centrifugation at 3,200 *g* and resuspended in 7H9c acidified to pH 5.5 with 1N
HCl and clumped cells were removed with a slow-speed spin at 150 *g*. The supernatant was
diluted to an OD_{580} of 0.08. 200 µl of bacteria was added to wells of a 96-well plate; for each
condition tested, three wells were prepared. Two µL of 1:100 aldehyde stock solutions were
added to each well to obtain the final concentrations indicated in the Figure 2 (A-C). Exposure
was carried out for a period of six days. Aldehydes were purchased from the following: 4-
hydroxynonenal (4HNE) (# 32100, Cayman Chemical, Ann Arbor, MI), malondialdehyde (MDA)
(#63287, Millipore Sigma, Burlington, MA), and formaldehyde (FA) (#15710, Electron
Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA) (16% paraformaldehyde solution, stored in aliquots at -
20°C). To generate nitric oxide (NO), sodium nitrite was added to a final concentration of 3 mM.
To test the susceptibility of *F. tularensis* LVS to various aldehydes, we followed a previously
described protocol[33]. Briefly, *F. tularensis* LVS was plated on Mueller Hinton plates for 3 days at
37°C/5% CO_2. Multiple colonies colony were then scraped and used to inoculate a liquid culture

(to ensure diversity of the culture) that was maintained at 37°C/180 rpm for 12-14 hours. The

culture was then washed twice in 1X PBS and resuspended at an OD600 = 0.01 in 1X PBS and

aliquoted into a 96-well plate containing various concentrations of 4HNE (#32100, Cayman

Chemical Company), or FA (#F1635, Millipore Sigma) and incubated for 2 hours at 37°C/5%

CO_2. After incubation, CFU/well was enumerated for each condition by plating serial dilutions of

the culture on Mueller Hinton plates and incubating at 37°C/5% CO_2 for 3 days.

In Vivo Pathogen Challenge:

Mice were infected with *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv (*Aldh2$^{-/-}$* and B6 mice), or *M. tuberculosis*

Erdman (*Aldh2$^{-/-}$* and *Aldh2$^{-/-}$ Sp140$^{-/-}$* mice) *via* the aerosol route. Aerosol infection was

performed using a nebulizer and full-body inhalation exposure system (Glas-Col, Terre Haute,

IN). Previously prepared aerosol stocks were thawed and 9 mL of culture diluted into sterile-

filtered deionized water was loaded into the nebulizer calibrated to deliver ~25 CFU/mouse, as

measured by CFU in the lungs 1 day following infection (data not shown). At predetermined time

points, mice were euthanized, and the lungs were mechanically homogenized in 1X PBS

containing 0.05% Tween 80 and serial dilutions were plated on 7H10 plates and incubated for

21 days at 37°C until CFU were counted. For mice infected with *F. tularensis* LVS, injection

stocks were prepared as previously described and ~10^5 CFU were administered intradermally,

as measured by plating serial dilutions of the inoculum on Mueller Hinton plates (data not

shown). Due to the immunocompromised nature of *Nos2$^{-/-}$* and *Phox-p47$^{-/-}$* mice, experiments

involving these genotypes used an inoculum of ~10^3 CFU. 3 or 5 dpi, mice were euthanized,

and their lungs and spleens were mechanically homogenized in 1X PBS. Serial dilutions were

plated on Mueller Hinton plates and incubated for 3 days at 37°C/5% CO_2 until CFU were

counted. For survival studies, mice were infected, monitored daily for weight loss, and

euthanized when weight loss exceeded 15% baseline body weight.

Tissue Processing for Flow Cytometry:

Mice were harvested at 3 dpi for flow cytometry analysis and quantification of bacterial burden

(CFU). To create single cell suspensions of organs for analysis, lungs were collected into

gentleMACS C tubes (Miltenyi Biotec) containing 3 mL of complete RPMI (cRPMI)

supplemented with 70 µg/mL Liberase TM (Merck) and 30 µg/mL DNase I (Millipore Sigma).

Tissues were mechanically dissociated using the gentleMACS disassociator (lung_01 program)

followed by enzymatic digestion for 30 minutes at 37 °C. Samples were then homogenized into

single-cell suspensions using the lung_02 gentleMACS program. Digestion was quenched with

2 mL PBS containing 20% fetal bovine serum (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and suspensions were

passed through 70 µm cell strainers. Spleens were homogenized by manual dissociation

through 70 µm cell strainers.

Flow Cytometry:

For flow cytometry, spleen and lung single-cell suspensions were pelleted and resuspended in

2 mL PBS. A 200 µL aliquot was blocked with BD α-mouse CD16/32 Fc block for 30 minutes at

room temperature. Cells were then surface stained for 30 hour at room temperature with

optimized dilutions of the following antibodies: BUV805-labeled CD45 (BD 752415), BUV563-

labeled Ly6C (BD 755198), BUV496-labeled CD11c (BD 750450), BV786-labeled CD64 (BD

569507), BV605-labeled CD11b (BioLegend 101257), PerCP-Fire806-labeled Siglec-F
(BioLegend 155536), FITC-labeled MerTK (BioLegend 151504), PE-Cy7-labeled NK1.1
(BioLegend 108714), APC-Cy7-labeled Ly6G (BioLegend 127623). Cells were then buffer
exchanged to PBS then stained with Aqua LIVE/DEAD fixable viability dye (Invitrogen L34957)
fo 30 minutes at room temnperature. Stained samples were fixed for 20 minutes at room
temperature using Cytofix/Cytoperm (BD Biosciences). For intracellular staining, fixed cells were
incubated with PE-labeled iNOS (BioLegend 696806) and APC-labeled Arg-1 (Invitrogen 17-
3697-82). To determine absolute cell counts, fluorescent CountBright counting beads
(Invitrogen) were added to each sample. Data were acquired on a Symphony A3 flow cytometer
(BD Biosciences) and analyzed using FlowJo version 10 (BD Biosciences).
830
831   *Cytokine quantification:*
832   Mice were infected with 10^5 FtLVS I.d.. Tissues were harvested at 3 dpi and homogenized using
833   a Cole-Parmer Tissue-Homogenizer (UX-04727-01). Cytokine concentrations in tissue
834   homogenates were quantified using a LEGENDplex™ Mouse Inflammation Panel (Biolegend)
835   per manufacturer's protocol with volumes adjusted for a 384 well plate format.
836
Candidate Gene Analysis Study:
Study subjects from the Vietnam human genetics collection and the SCHS have been described
in detail previously[56]. In brief, the Vietnamese PTB participants were recruited at district TB units
in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam as part of larger clinical studies with strictly defined clinical
phenotypes[57]. Patients sampled for the genetics study were 18 years or older, HIV negative,
had no previous history of TB treatment and were sputum smear positive. The Vietnamese
population controls are otherwise healthy adults with primary angle closure glaucoma who have
been previously described[58]. DNA from all participants were genome wide genotyped on either
the Infinium OmniExpress-24 or OmniExpress-12 array and standard quality control measures
and pipelines were applied as described previously[58,59] (PMID: 40313261). SCHS is a long-term
prospective population-based cohort study focused on genetic and environmental determinants
of cancer and other diseases in Singapore[60]. From April 1993 to December 1998, the study
recruited 63,257 participants of Singaporean Chinese descent, hailing from the Hokkien and
Cantonese dialect groups. Starting from April 1994, a random subset of 3% of participants were
invited to contribute blood/buccal cell and spot urine samples. In January 2001, the collection of
biospecimens was expanded to include all enrolled participants who provided consent and
approximately half of all study participants donate blood or buccal samples for genetic studies.
PTB cases were identified through linkage with the National Tuberculosis Notification Registry.
Diagnosis is primarily based on passive case detection, where individuals seek medical
attention for symptoms such as persistent cough, blood-stained sputum, fever, chills, and night
sweats. Confirmatory diagnosis involved a positive sputum smear and microbiological culture of
M. tuberculosis. Most notifications are reported by public hospitals and the Tuberculosis Control
Unit and are supplemented by electronic records from the two mycobacterial laboratories in
Singapore, ensuring thorough case capture in the national registry. A total of 27,308 samples
were whole genome genotyped using the Illumina Global Screening Array (GSA). An additional
2,161 independent subjects from the SCHS CAD-nested case-control study were genotyped on

Illumina HumanOmniZhonghua Bead Chip. Comprehensive information regarding genotyping
and QC protocols has been previously published[61,62].
865
Genotype data for rs671 was extracted from genotyping array data for subsequent statistical
analysis. Logistic regression was applied with adjustment for the first three principal
components (PCs) to control for any potential population structure. The analysis was conducted
separately for the Vietnamese and the SCHS followed by meta-analysis using a fixed-effect
inverse-variance weighted (IVW) method. Cochran's Q ($P_{Het} < 0.05$) were evaluated as an
indication of heterogeneity. All analysis was conducted using Stata/SE15.1(Statacorp, College
Station, TX, USA).
873
874 *Statistical Analysis:*
875 Data are presented as mean values and error bars represent standard deviation. The number of
876 samples, experimental replicates, and statistical tests are described in the legend of each figure.
877 Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad, La Jolla, CA) and a *p*
878 < 0.05 was considered significant.

884
Figure S1. Genetic knock out of *Aldh2* inhibits ALDH2 production
(A) Expression of *Aldh2* in indicated cell types in C57BL/6 mice infected with Mtb for 3 weeks.
(B) CRISPR targeting strategy of *Aldh2*2* mice, resulting in mutants containing three adenine
point mutations (first and third adenines disrupt sgRNA binding, while second adenine is the
human mutation) (*Aldh2*2* mice) and mice containing a 12 bp (four amino acid) in-frame
deletion (*Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice). (C) Immunoblot of WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ BMDM cell lysates stained with
αALDH2 (56 kDa) and αGAPDH (36 kDa, control). (D) Model of macrophage sources of 4HNE
and FA. 4HNE is derived from peroxidation of host lipids induced in part by activity of reactive
oxygen species (ROS) produced by NADPH oxidase acting on cell membranes. Formaldehyde

(FA) is derived from decomposition of tetrahydrofolate and its derivatives in a process that is
accelerated by ROS.
896
897

898
899
900   **Figure S2. *Sp140*^{–/–}*Aldh2*^{–/–} demonstrate increased mitochondrial aldehyde levels**
901   (A) WT, *Aldh2*^{–/–}, and *Sp140*^{–/–}*Aldh2*^{–/–} BMDM mitochondrial-associated formaldehyde levels
902   after 24 hours stimulation with IFNγ and TLR2-agonist PAM3CSK4 *in vitro* (n = 3 independent
903   experiments, B6 and *Aldh2*^{–/–} results are same as reported in Figure 3A). *, $p < 0.05$, **, $p <$
904   0.01, ***, $p < 0.001$, Unpaired t-test.
905
906

Figure S3. *Aldh2* deficiency confers iNOS-independent resistance to FtLVS with altered lung and spleen cytokines

Quantification of Il-1a (A), IFNγ (B), IL-23 (C), and IL1a (D) in the lungs of WTand *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi. Quantification of IFNγ (E), IL1b F), Il-6 (G), IL-23 (H), TNF-a (I) in the spleens of WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi. (J) CFU enumeration in WT, *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$, *Nos2*$^{-/-}$, and *Nos2*$^{-/-}$*Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ infected with FtLVS MOI=1, +/- IFNγ 0 hours post infection. (K) Viability of B6, *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$, *Nos2*$^{-/-}$, and *Nos2*$^{-/-}$*Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ BMDMs infected with FtLVS MOI=, 1 +/- IFNγ, 2 dpi. (A-I): unpaired t-test. (J-K): 2way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Data in (J-K) correspond with results in figure 3G. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. Experiments are representative of a minimum of three (J), (K) or three experiments combined (A-I).

Figure S4. Immune cell frequencies in organs of FtLVS infected, *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ and WT mice
Frequencies of natural killer (NK) cells (A) dendritic cells (B) arginase-positive (Arg+)
macrophages (C) in the lungs of WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi.
Frequencies of natural killer (NK) cells (D) dendritic cells (E) arginase-positive (Arg+)
macrophages (F) in the spleens of WT and *Aldh2*$^{-/-}$ mice infected with 10^5 FtLVS i.d., 3 dpi.
(A-J) correspond with results in figure 4A-J. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001
(A-D): unpaired t-test. (E-F): Mann-Whitney test. Experiments are representative of a
minimum of three experiments.