An alveolus lung-on-a-chip model of *Mycobacterium fortuitum* lung infection

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ABSTRACT

Lung disease due to non-tuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) is rising in incidence. While both two

dimensional cell culture and animal models exist for NTM infections, a major knowledge gap is

the early responses of human alveolar and innate immune cells to NTM within the human alveolar

microenvironment. Here we describe development of a humanized, three-dimensional, alveolus

lung-on-a-chip (ALoC) model of *Mycobacterium fortuitum* lung infection that incorporates only

primary human cells such as pulmonary vascular endothelial cells in a vascular channel, and type

I and II alveolar cells and monocyte-derived macrophages in an alveolar channel along an air-

liquid interface. *M. fortuitum* introduced into the alveolar channel primarily infected macrophages,

with rare bacteria inside alveolar cells. Bulk-RNA sequencing of infected chips revealed marked

upregulation of transcripts for cytokines, chemokines and secreted protease inhibitors

(SERPINs). Our results demonstrate how a humanized ALoC system can identify critical early

immune and epithelial responses to *M. fortuitum* infection. We envision potential application of

the ALoC to other NTM and for studies of new antibiotics.

INTRODUCTION

Nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) represent a diverse group of environmental organisms found in varied natural habitats such as soil, water, and vegetation (Mercaldo et al., 2023). Traditionally considered opportunistic pathogens of people with structural or immune deficits, lung disease secondary to NTM is increasing in incidence in women and people over 65 years of age (Winthrop et al., 2020). Among the NTM, *M. fortuitum* is the second most frequently encountered rapidly-growing NTM after *Mycobacterium abscessus*, and can cause a spectrum of infections including pulmonary, skin and soft tissue, and disseminated infections (Roquet-Baneres et al., 2023, Kim et al., 2023). NTM lung infections are more frequent and more severe in immunocompromised individuals and individuals with pre-existing conditions such as bronchiectasis, severe chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), cystic fibrosis, organ transplant and cancer (Roquet-Baneres et al., 2023, Kim et al., 2023). Treatment of NTM lung disease can be complex due to the presence of antibiotic resistance, medication side effects and extended duration of drug treatment. More efforts are needed to develop new, safe and efficacious therapeutics and to shorten treatment duration (Johansen and Kremer, 2020, Orme and Ordway, 2014, Kremer, 2020). In addition, the rising incidence of NTM lung infections among individuals without defined predisposing conditions indicates that a greater understanding of the immune response to NTM lung infection is needed.

Expanding the scope of knowledge of the dynamic interactions between humans and NTM is essential for developing effective prevention and treatment strategies for NTM lung disease, but gaining such knowledge has been hindered by the lack of suitable *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of NTM lung infection (Baldwin et al., 2019). Current *in vitro* models typically use traditional two-dimensional cell culture methods with primary human CD14^{+} peripheral blood-derived macrophages or immortalized monocytic cell lines THP-1 and U937 (Kilinc et al., 2022), and alveolar epithelial cell lines such as A549 (Rampacci et al., 2020). Although immortalized cell lines

allow for large-scale screening and assay reproducibility, a major disadvantage is that they may

not completely replicate myeloid cell responses in humans, especially in the unique alveolar

microenvironment. For example, the use of PMA to differentiate THP-1 and U937 cells into

adherent macrophage-like cells alters monocytic surface markers, transcriptional activities, and

cytokine production (Rampacci et al., 2020). One recent advance beyond traditional two-

dimensional systems has been adaptation of primary human airway-derived organoids to the

study of *M. tuberculosis* and *M. abscessus* pathogenesis and drug susceptibility (Alcaraz et al.,

2022, Iakobachvili et al., 2022, Leon-Icaza et al., 2023, Kim et al., 2024). Animal models have

also been established to study host immune responses to NTM and for testing potential

antimicrobial compounds and vaccines. Most animal models of NTM lung infection use mice as

the host species including for *M. abscessus* (Caverly et al., 2015, De Groote et al., 2014) and

Mycobacterium avium (Gonzalez-Perez et al., 2013, Gangadharam, 1995). However, the variable

virulence of NTM in model organisms makes establishing consistent animal models challenging.

For example, *M. avium* can establish a productive lung infection in immunocompetent mice,

whereas *M. abscessus* is typically rapidly cleared and requires immunocompromised mice to

achieve a similar outcome (Chan et al., 2016). Animal models for other NTM species such as *M.*

fortuitum are lacking, delaying progress towards understanding shared and unique molecular

mechanisms of pathogenicity for various NTM. Thus, developing *in vitro* models that can

recapitulate the human lung microenvironment using primary human cells has the potential to

advance the study of pulmonary NTM infections, and is a critical step towards developing

improved prevention, vaccine and treatment strategies.

The alveolus lung-on-a-chip (ALoC) is an innovative microfluid device composed of

microfabricated channels and chambers that mimic the architecture and cellular composition of

the lung alveolus, the initial site of interaction for pulmonary NTM infection (Bethencourt et al.,

2024). The "chip" contains two overlapping channels, parallel to each other, that are separated by

a porous membrane. It features alveolar epithelial cells lining one channel and pulmonary

microvascular endothelial cells (HMVECs) lining the other to closely replicate the alveolar-

capillary interface of the human lung (Jain et al., 2018). Because the cell types grow in distinct

channels, media or air flow through the channels can be independently controlled to create distinct

environments for the cells. Additional advantages of the ALoC include the ability to generate an

air-liquid interphase (ALI) that is hallmark of the alveolus and application of mechanical stretch

that is essential for the proper differentiation of alveolar epithelial cells into type I (AT1) and type

II (AT2) pneumocytes. In that respect, the ALoC helps overcome one of the major obstacles of *in*

vitro studies of alveolar epithelial cells, namely, simultaneously differentiating both AT1 and AT2

cells in culture by leveraging stretch and growth factor addition (Li et al., 2018). Thus, compared

to traditional tissue culture methods, the ALoC system provides a physiologically relevant

environment to study cells and pathogens of the human lung and has been applied to several

pathogens including *E. coli* (Huh et al., 2010), *M. tuberculosis* (Thacker et al., 2020), *Aspergillus*

fumigatus (Hoang et al., 2022), *Staphylococcus aureus* (Bai et al., 2022, Deinhardt-Emmer et al.,

2020), and influenza virus (Bai et al., 2022, Deinhardt-Emmer et al., 2020).

The complex interaction between *M. fortuitum* and the human alveolar epithelial and immune cells

remains poorly understood. Here, we develop and use a fully humanized ALoC model as a

platform to study the host-pathogen interactions of *M. fortuitum* within the alveolar

microenvironment. By recapitulating key features of the alveolar interface, including cellular

composition, mechanical forces, and biochemical gradients, this model offers a unique

opportunity to investigate the dynamics of *M. fortuitum* infection in a controlled and reproducible

manner. Through integration of advanced imaging techniques and transcriptomic analyses, we

identify macrophages as the primary cell type infected in the alveolus and upregulation of several

inflammatory pathways after *M. fortuitum* infection of the humanized ALoC. We propose

application of the humanized alveolus lung-on-a-chip as a new model to study NTM infections.

RESULTS

Two types of lung chips have been developed to date, one that approximates a bronchial airway (Benam et al., 2015, Benam et al., 2016) and another more like an alveolus (**Figure 1A**) (Huh et al., 2012a, Huh et al., 2010, Huh et al., 2012b). Since early NTM infection occurs in the alveolus, we chose the alveolus lung-on-a-chip (ALoC) as our working model for NTM infection (**Figure 1B**), as previously demonstrated with *E. coli* (Huh et al., 2010) and *M. tuberculosis* (Mishra et al., 2023, Thacker et al., 2020). We initially decided to use *M. fortuitum* to model airway NTM infection using the ALoC model both because it is rapidly-growing, with a doubling time of 2-3 hours (Qin et al., 1999), and because amongst the rapid growers it has one of the highest age-adjusted incidence of disease (Donohue, 2021).

Constructing a functional ALoC requires meticulously following a stepwise protocol (**Supplemental Figure 1A**). Briefly, the membranes of individual chips are chemically activated, coated with extracellular matrix and then human alveolar epithelial cells are added to the air (or apical) channel. After three days, human primary lung microvascular endothelial cells are introduced to the vascular (or basal) channel. Once cells are confluent (~1 day), the alveolus-on-a-chip is connected to regulated media flow (30 uL/hr) in both channels. The next day, the apical channel media is removed, generating an air-liquid interface (ALI), and after 2 days of ALI, stretch is introduced to mimic breathing (5% stretch intensity, 0.2 Hz) and induce surfactant production (Thacker et al., 2020). After two days of stretch we add differentiated human CD14$^+$ peripheral blood-derived macrophages (hereafter called 'macrophages') from anonymous donors to the top channel. To assess the donor compatibility of the alveolar epithelial cells and macrophages in the apical channel, we used immunofluorescence to compare AT1 and AT2 cell differentiation, cell morphology and distribution of cells along the apical channel of ALoCs with and without macrophages. In ALoCs without macrophages, a monolayer of both AT1 and AT2 cells was distributed equally across the apical channel (**Figure 1C, Supplemental Figure 1B**). High

resolution images of ALoCs without macrophages highlighted distinct AT1 and AT2 cell types after

15 days in culture on the ALoC (**Figure 1D**). Three-dimensional reconstruction of the ALoC

demonstrated the more cuboidal morphology of AT2 cells and the flatter morphology of AT1 cells

(**Figure 1D, far right**). Cross sectional imaging of the airway channel further highlighted the nuclei

in the basal region of the apical channel with interspersed AT1 and AT2 cells (**Figure 1E**). While

the majority of cells were either AT1 or AT2 cells, a small number of KRT5 positive basal like cells

were also observed in the airway channel (**Supplemental Figure 1C**). Finally, in the vascular

channel, we observed a confluent monolayer of endothelial cells lining the entirety of the channel

via staining for VE-Cadherin, a marker of endothelial cells (**Supplemental Figure 1D**).

We next turned to our analysis of ALoCs with macrophages (**Figure 2A**). In ALoCs with

macrophages, the monolayer of differentiated AT1 and AT2 cells appears intact and unaltered by

the addition of macrophages 24 hours prior (**Figure 2B, 2C, Supplemental Figure 1E**).

Macrophages were observed residing above of the alveolar epithelial monolayer (**Figure 2D**).

Although we introduced the same number of macrophages as alveolar epithelial cells, we

observed many fewer macrophages overall, suggesting that the majority of added macrophages

did not adhere tightly to the epithelial layer and were washed away (**Supplemental Figure 1F**).

To address this question, we quantified the number of macrophages residing on three ALoCs and

compared it to the number of macrophages seeded. We found that approximately 2.1×10^3 total

macrophages or 7% of the number seeded were present on the ALoCs at the end of the

experiment. Stitched images of ALoCs containing macrophages also showed that, despite the

loss of introduced macrophages, adherent macrophages were sufficient to evenly distribute

across the entire apical channel (**Figure 2B; Supplemental Figure 1E**). Despite the addition of

macrophages, AT cell distribution was comparable to uninfected ALoCs without macrophages

(**Figure 1D; Figure 2C).** From these experimental observations, namely that AT1 and AT2 cell

differentiation was maintained after the addition of primary human $CD14^+$ peripheral blood

macrophages, we concluded that macrophages could safely be added to the human ALoC model

without dramatically altering epithelial biology.

After establishing the ALoC model with human macrophages, we next incorporated mCherry-

expressing *M. fortuitum* to the system. We introduced mCherry-expressing *M. fortuitum* at an

estimated multiplicity of infection (MOI) of ~1 for the approximate number of AT1 and AT2 cells on

the chip (~3.0 x 10^4) (**Figure 3A**). We plated serial dilutions of the inoculum and determined the

concentration of *M. fortuitum* added to the ALoCs was approximately 3.15x10^4 CFU/mL. When

ALoCs were infected with *M. fortuitum* in the absence of macrophages, we observed large clumps

of bacteria scattered across the ALoC (**Figure 3B, 3C**). Along the apical channel in *M. fortuitum*-

infected ALoC, we also observed areas that lacked strong immunofluorescence signal that we did

not observe in uninfected ALoCs with or without macrophages (**Figure 3B, image center**). Higher

resolution imaging analysis suggested loss of viability of AT1 and AT2 cells and a more rounded

cell morphology, particularly for AT2 cells (**Figure 3C**). HT1 staining was also more diffuse in *M.*

fortuitum-infected ALoCs. In addition, while ~17% of cells were double positive for HT1 and HT2

staining in uninfected ALoCs (**Figure 3D, 3E**), we observed a significant increase in cells that

stained with both HT1 and HT2 antibodies in *M. fortuitum*-infected ALoCs without macrophages

(**Figure 3F, 3G**). Though we observed large clumps of bacteria, *M. fortuitum* cord-like structures

were not observed within the initial 24 hours of infection. Taken together, introducing *M. fortuitum*

to the ALoC model at an approximate MOI of 1 generated a productive infection with sustained

growth of bacteria and epithelial cell responses consistent with active infection.

We next wanted to determine how *M. fortuitum* grows on ALoC in the presence of human

macrophages (**Figure 4A**). Twenty-four hours after seeding, ALoCs previously seeded with

macrophages were infected with *M. fortuitum* as described above. Notably, the alveolar epithelial

and pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells lining the chips were from the same donors as for

ALoCs without macrophages. On ALoCs with macrophages infected with *M. fortuitum*, there was

suitable distribution of AT2 cells across the chips (comparable to infected ALoCs without

macrophages). In contrast to *M. fortuitum*-infected ALoC without macrophages, we observed that

most bacteria were found to be intracellular within macrophages with significantly fewer bacterial

clumps (**Figure 4B-D**) and cord-like structures were not observed. Cross-sectional and three-

dimensional analysis of the ALoC with macrophages highlighted that *M. fortuitum* were residing

within macrophages (**Figure 4D**). To quantify bacteria within either AT1 or CD14+ cells, we

analyzed 10 z-stacks from 3 independent ALoCs containing macrophages. We used three-

dimensional reconstructions and ortho-projections to assign bacteria within AT1 cells (HT1+) or

macrophages (CD14$^+$) and found that bacteria were found more often in macrophages than AT1

cells (**Figures 4B, 4E)** To quantify bacteria within either AT2 cells (HT2+) or macrophages

(CD14$^+$), we performed a similar analysis with 3 ALoCs containing macrophages and determined

that bacteria were found more often in macrophages than AT2 cells (**Figures 4C, 4F**). Of note,

due to technical limitations of fluorophores we could use, quantifying bacteria within AT1 cells,

AT2 cells, and macrophages simultaneously could not be done within the same AloC. Taken

together, we conclude that in the presence of macrophages overlying alveolar epithelial cells, *M.*

fortuitum are ingested by macrophages, preventing extracellular growth and bacterial clumping.

Such an infection may also prevent loss of epithelial cell integrity.

To assess the response of human ALoC to *M. fortuitum* infection, we used bulk RNA sequencing

to compare the transcriptional status of *M. fortuitum* infected ALoC with macrophages to

uninfected ALoC with macrophages. After infection at an MOI of 1 for 24 hours, we collected total

RNA from the apical channel containing AT1 cells, AT2 cells and macrophages for sequencing.

While there was some heterogeneity in the response, as would be expected in a primary infection,

we observed 1454 genes were more than 2-fold upregulated, while 588 were more than 2-fold

downregulated (**Figure 5A, B**). Amongst the upregulated genes, we observed significant

upregulation of key cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor (*TNF*), granulocyte-macrophage

colony-stimulating factor (*GM-CSF* or *CSF2*), macrophage colony-stimulating factor (*M-CSF* or

CSF3), interleukin 1A (*IL1A*), interleukin 1B (*IL1B*), interleukin 6 (*IL6*), and interleukin 8 (*IL8*),

along with the alarmin, calprotectin (*S100A8* and *S100A9*) (**Figure 5C**). We also observed several

chemokines upregulated including the chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand family members *CXCL1,*

CXCL2, CXCL3, CXCL5, CXCL6, CXCL10 and *CXCL11* and the C-C motif chemokine ligand

family members *CCL2, CCL5, CCL20* and *CCL28* (**Figure 5C**). Finally, we also noted that many

secreted serine protease inhibitor (SERPIN) genes were also upregulated by *M. fortuitum*

infection (**Figure 5D**). Using pathway analysis (Ge et al., 2018), we found that the most

significantly upregulated processes were involved in host defense including "response to

bacterium", "defense response to bacterium", "antimicrobial humoral response", "response to

molecule of bacterial origin" and "response to lipopolysaccharide" (**Table 1**). Likewise,

upregulated molecular functions included several annotated as involved in "signaling" in addition

to "cytokine" and various channel functions (**Table 2**). Taken together, our data highlight the acute

inflammatory response of humanized ALoC containing human macrophages to *M. fortuitum*

infection.

DISCUSSION

We report the development of a fully humanized ALoC model for alveolar NTM infection. This

model develops features consistent with initial primary alveolar infection, including infection of

both airway macrophages and occasional alveolar cells. Moreover, bulk RNA sequencing reveals

activation of an acute inflammatory signaling cascade, including induction of cytokines,

chemokines and alarmins like serpins and calprotectin, with potential roles in recruitment of

myeloid and lymphoid cells from the vasculature and in triggering a robust immune response to

restrict bacterial growth. These findings highlight the value of using the humanized lung on a chip

to model a primarily human infectious disease.

Prior studies using the alveolus-on-a-chip have included infection models, such as infection with

E. coli (Huh et al., 2010), *M. tuberculosis* (Thacker et al., 2020), *Aspergillus fumigatus* (Hoang et

al., 2022), *Staphylococcus aureus* (Bai et al., 2022, Deinhardt-Emmer et al., 2020), and influenza

virus (Bai et al., 2022, Deinhardt-Emmer et al., 2020). The alveolus-on-a-chip has also been used

to determine the effect of mechanical strain on inflammation and particle uptake (Huh et al., 2010),

pulmonary thrombosis (Jain et al., 2018), and mechanotransduction and pulmonary edema (Li et

al., 2019). In the context of *M. tuberculosis* and *A. fumigatus* infection models, addition of human

monocytes/macrophages impacts pathogenesis (Thacker et al., 2020, Hoang et al., 2022). With

M. tuberculosis, cord-like structures are observed compressing macrophage nuclei (Mishra et al.,

2023). We did not observe a similar phenomenon with *M. fortuitum* infection of human

macrophages on the ALoC, which might be due to differences in the cell walls of the organisms

or other factors that impact the growth characteristics of *M. tuberculosis* (slow) as compared to

M. fortuitum (rapid). Alternatively, differences in the time after infection used for analysis (24 hours

in this study versus 72 hours (Mishra et al., 2023)) or imaging techniques may also account for

these differences. In a different model system using human bronchial epithelial cells, some

mycobacteria formed surface biofilms that ultimately caused apical non-apoptotic cell death

(Barclay et al., 2024). Because our infection model was limited to 24 hours, we did not observe

biofilm formation, but we did note some loss of cell viability and monolayer disruption, consistent

with the observations made with other mycobacterial species (Barclay et al., 2024).

We identified a transcriptional signature of early human alveolar infection with *M. fortuitum*. Some

notable findings include marked upregulation of important cytokines and chemokines that may be

involved in stimulating an early innate immune response to airway infection. For example, both

IL6 and IL8 are key cytokines involved in neutrophil recruitment to the airway (Fu and Harrison,

2021), and such recruited cells could have both beneficial (contributing to NTM killing) and

detrimental (involvement in tissue damage and bronchiectasis) effects (Alkarni et al., 2023).

While there have been previous studies of human peripheral blood transcriptional responses in

the context of pulmonary NTM infection (Wang et al., 2024, Cowman et al., 2018, Lindestam

Arlehamn et al., 2022) or tuberculosis (Tabone et al., 2021, Berry et al., 2010), as well as efforts

to determine transcriptional responses in human lung tissue from tuberculosis patients (Wang et

al., 2023a), to our knowledge this is the first analysis of the early interaction of an NTM with a

humanized ALoC. Interestingly, in the RNA sequencing analysis of PBMCs from individuals

infected with *M. avium*, TNF signaling was enriched, and individual genes such as those for

SERPINA1 and calprotectin were modestly upregulated (Lindestam Arlehamn et al., 2022).

Calprotectin was also upregulated by *M. avium* infection in an air-liquid interface model of primary

human bronchial epithelial cells (Barclay et al., 2023). Likewise, in a proteomics analysis of serum

exosomes in humans with NTM infection, a variety of serpins including SERPINA1 and

SERPINA5 were enriched in patients with *M. abscessus* or *M. avium* infection (Wang et al.,

2023b). Recent work has found the induction of cytosolic SERPINs may protect *M. marinum*

infected macrophages from cathepsin B mediated lysosomal rupture and cell death (Nobs et al.,

2024), a process called lysoptosis that is evolutionary conserved from *C. elegans* to mammals

(Luke et al., 2022). Thus, SERPIN induction by *M. fortuitum* infection, potentially within infected

macrophages, may act to protect infected cells from lysoptosis. Of note, because we used bulk

RNA sequencing, we were unable to identify the precise cellular source of transcriptional changes

identified in our analysis. Future single cell sequencing studies will be necessary to determine the

responses of individual cell types within the model system, and how such responses impact

intercellular communication. Taken together, our bulk RNAseq analysis has identified unique

features of early alveolar NTM infection.

There are several limitations to our model. First, because our model uses all primary human cells,

genetic manipulation of the various cellular constituents is impractical, though primary human

monocytes can be transduced with lentivirus to abrogate gene expression (Campbell and Spector,

2012, Franco et al., 2017). Alternatively, use of genetically modified human or mouse cell lines

can overcome this limitation, though immortalized cell lines have their own inherent drawbacks.

Second, because primary cells, whether pulmonary epithelial cells, pulmonary vascular cells or

PBMCs, are obtained from unique individuals, genetic variation generates greater complexity.

Third, to optimize infection and cognizant that not all bacteria would adhere to the alveolar channel

or be ingested by macrophages or AT1/AT2 cells, we chose to use an MOI of 1, which is not likely

to be reflective of the number of bacteria that reach the terminal alveoli during a natural infection.

Future work will compare a range of MOI with the ALoC system and other NTM. Finally, though

our model does allow multiple cell types (epithelia, endothelia and myeloid cells) to interact with

each other and the NTM in the alveolar microenvironment, the interactions are limited to the cells

added to the chamber, and thus do not include all the possible myeloid and lymphoid cells that

could be recruited to the airway in the setting of pulmonary mycobacterial disease, such as

neutrophils (Kimmey et al., 2015), eosinophils (Bohrer et al., 2021) or innate lymphoid cells

(Ardain et al., 2019).

In conclusion, we have developed a fully humanized alveolus on a chip model of pulmonary NTM

infection. By capturing the complexity of NTM in three dimensions and with multiple cell types, as

would be found in a human lung, this model creates an opportunity to better characterize the

cellular and molecular mechanisms that mediate the outcome of human airway NTM infections.

Because NTM infections are on the rise, particularly in individuals with cystic fibrosis,

bronchiectasis and people with HIV, it may be useful to apply this technology to determine the

relative impact of genetic risk alleles (i.e. for those with cystic fibrosis) or coinfection with HIV on

the alveolar transcriptional responses or bacterial survival in the alveolus over time. Furthermore,

by leveraging this system to directly compare responses to other common human pulmonary NTM

infections, such as *M. avium* (Cristancho-Rojas et al., 2023, Varley and Winthrop, 2022, Donohue,

2021), *M. kansasii* and *M. abscessus* (Toure et al., 2023, Lagune et al., 2023, Cristancho-Rojas

et al., 2023, Ordway et al., 2008, Klever et al., 2023) future studies could identify shared and

unique survival strategies used by each organism, and establish distinct immune pathways

responsive to each pathogen which could function to limit or exacerbate infection, or be used

clinically as biomarkers of disease. Finally, as new drugs are developed to treat pulmonary NTM

infection, we envision applying this model for the simultaneous assessment of efficacy (i.e.

reduction in bacterial load) and cellular toxicity via infusion of test compounds into the vascular

channel.

Materials and Methods

Bacteria

Mycobacterium fortuitum subsp. *fortuitum* strain was obtained from ATCC (strain TMC 1529). We

transformed *M. fortuitum* with a vector containing *mCherry* driven by the GroEL constitutive

promoter.

Primary Cell Culture

Primary human alveolar epithelial cells (ATs) were obtained from Cell Biologics (H-6053). Prior to

seeding on Alveolus Lung-on-Chips (ALoCs), ATs were expanded *in vitro* in a T25 flask coated

with a 1% gelatin-based coating solution (Cell Biologics, catalog #6950) and complete medium

comprising of base media and supplements (Lonza, CC-3118). Medium was prepared according

to manufacturer's instructions using all supplements except GA-1000 where 1% Pen-Strep

solution (Gibco 15140-122) was added instead along with 5% FBS and hereby called Small

Airway Growth Medium (SAGM). Primary human microvascular endothelial cells were purchased

from Lonza (CC-2527). Human Lung Microvascular Endothelial cells (HMVECs) were expanded

in a T75 in complete medium comprising of base media and supplements (Lonza, CC-3202).

Medium was prepared according to manufacturer's instructions using all supplements except GA-

1000 where 1% Pen-Strep solution was used instead along with 5% FBS and hereby called EGM-

2MV. Both primary cell lines were cultured at 37°C in 5% CO_2 until ~80% confluency before

detachment with TrypLE Express (Gibco 12604013) and use on the ALoC.

One week prior to seeding the macrophages on the ALoC, peripheral blood mononuclear cells

(PBMCs) were obtained from buffy coats from anonymous donors (Carter BloodCare). PBMCs

were isolated using Ficoll (Cytivia, 17144003) and SepMate50 tubes from StemCell Technologies

(85450). CD14$^+$ monocytes were positively selected from the PBMCs using CD14 Microbeads

(Miltenyi, 130-050-201) and seeded onto uncoated petri dishes. The monocytes were cultured

overnight in RPMI medium (Gibco 11875-093) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated human

serum obtained from the buffy coat of the donor, 1% HEPES buffered solution (Lonza CC-5022),

1% sodium pyruvate (Gibco 11360-070), and 50 ng/mL human granulocyte-macrophage colony-

stimulating factor (GM-CSF) (Peprotech 300-03-100UG) and is hereby called macrophage

medium. The next day, the serum in the medium was changed to 10% FBS for the remainder of

the culturing. CD14$^+$ monocytes were differentiated to human monocyte-derived macrophages

(HMDMs) for 7 days at 37°C in 5% CO_2 until use on the ALoCs. GM-CSF was added to the

macrophage medium for the first 4 days to differentiate the CD14$^+$ monocytes.

Human Alveolus LoC Model

ALoCs fabricated with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) were purchased from Emulate. The chips

were activated using a 0.5 mg/mL solution comprised of ER-1 and ER-2 (Emulate) that was

protected from light during the activation process. Working in a dark biosafety cabinet, both the

top and bottom channel were filled completely with ER-1/ER-2 and placed under a UV light for 10

min, inspected for bubbles with a brightfield microscope and placed under the UV light for an

additional 10 min. After activation of all chips, the top and bottom channels were coated with an

extracellular matrix (ECM) solution specific to the cell type. The top channel (ATs) was coated with

an ECM solution containing Collagen IV at 200 µg/mL (Sigma C5533), Fibronectin at 30 µg/mL

(Millipore Sigma F2006) and Laminin at 5µg/mL (Sigma L6274). The bottom channel (endothelial

cells) was coated with an ECM solution containing Collagen IV at 200 µg/mL and Fibronectin at

30 µg/mL. All ECM components and solutions were kept on ice and prepared by manufacturer's

recommendations. With an empty 200 µL pipette tip plugged into each outlet port, 100 uL of ECM

solution were added to the respective channels by expelling ECM solution from pipette tip and

plugging the inlet ports with the tip. The ECM-coated ALoCs were incubated at 4°C overnight and

the next day each channel was washed twice with 200 µL of respective medium. Respective

mediums were left in each channel prior to cell seeding and ALoCs were stored at 4°C until cell

seeding.

ATs were seeded first in the top channel of all ALoCs. After detaching the cells from the T75 flasks,

they were adjusted to a concentration of 1 x 10^6 cells/mL in SAGM medium described above. The

bottom channels were filled with SAGM medium during epithelial cell seeding. 50 µL of the AT cell

suspension was pipetted into the top channel rapidly and checked under a microscope to ensure

correct seeding density and cell homogeneity. Of note, the top channel volume is ~28 µL total,

but to ensure no bubbles are introduced, the channels are overfilled and the flow-through gently

aspirated. Once all chips were seeded, they were placed in a chip cradle (Emulate) and incubated

at 37°C for at least 2 hours. After confirming all cells had attached, each top and bottom channel

were gently washed with 200 µL of warm SAGM medium and incubated overnight at 37°C.

HMVECs were seeded 2-3 days later in the bottom channels of all ALoCs. Prior to HMVEC cell

seeding, media was replenished daily for the ATs seeded on the ALoCs. The SAGM medium used

for maintenance of the ATs on the chips (hereby called AT Maintenance Medium) was

supplemented with Dexamethasone at 100 nM (Sigma D4902), Keratinocyte growth factor (KGF)

at 5 ng/mL (Thermo Fisher PHG0094), 8-Br-cAMP at 50 µM (Sigma B7880), and Isobutyl

methylxanthine (IBMX) at 25 µM (Sigma I7018). When HMVECs reached ~80% confluency, they

were detached and adjusted to a concentration of 5 x 10^6 cells/mL in EGM-2MV medium

(described above). The bottom channels of all ALoCs were filled with EGM-2MV medium prior to

seeding. 20 µL of the HMVEC cell suspension was pipetted rapidly into the bottom channel and

checked under the microscope for correct seeding density and cell homogeneity. The bottom

channel volume is ~6 µL total. Similarly to the top channel, the bottom channel was overfilled to

prevent the introduction of bubbles to the channel. The chip was then immediately flipped upside

down and placed in the chip cradle to ensure cells were seeded on the porous membrane in the

bottom channel. Once all ALoCs were seeded and flipped upside down, they were incubated at

37°C for at least 2 hours until all cells were attached. After all cells had attached, the bottom

channel was washed with 200 µL of warm EGM-2MV medium and incubated overnight at 37°C.

Prior to attaching ALoCs to Pods, warm EGM-2MV and AT Maintenance medium were degassed

using a Steriflip device for 5 min each to prevent air bubbles being trapped in the microfluidic lines

of the Pod. 3 mL of each medium were pipetted into its respective reservoir within the Pod. Using

Emulate's Zoe, the Pods were primed with medium to prevent bubbles from impeding medium

flow to the ALoCs. Once primed, each ALoC was snapped into each respective Pod. To further

help prevent bubble formation within the microfluidic lines, a Regulate Cycle was performed on

each chip via the Zoe. The ALoCs from this point on were harbored within the Pods and fresh

medium was exchanged through the chip at a flow rate of 30 µL/hr supplied by the Zoe.

After 24 hours of continuous media flow on all ALoCs, air-liquid interface (ALI) was introduced to

all ALoCs by removing all medium from the top channel and changing the top channel from liquid

media flow to air. The bottom channel medium was changed to ALI medium which comprised of

a Medium 199 base (Thermo Fisher 11043023) supplemented with 10 ng/mL Human Epidermal

Growth Factor (Peprotech AF-100-15), 3 ng/mL Human Basic Fibroblast Growth Factor

(Peprotech AF-100-18B), 0.125 ng/mL Human Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (Peprotech

AF-100-20), 1 µg/mL Hydrocortisone (Sigma H0135), 10 µg/mL Heparin (Sigma H3149), 80 µM

di-butyryl cAMP (Sigma B7880), 1mM L-Glutamax (Gibco 35050-061), 20 nM Dexamethasone

(Sigma D4902), 1% Pen-Srep solution (Gibco 125140-122), and 2% FBS. Bottom channel liquid

flow rate was set to 30 μL/hr and fresh ALI medium was replenished in the bottom channel

reservoir every 2-3 days. After 48 hours of ALI, mechanical stretch (5%, 0.20 Hz) was initiated

using the Zoe. All ALoCs were maintained in this way until seeding of macrophages and infection

with *M. fortuitum*.

Macrophage Seeding on ALoCs

After 7 days of differentiation with M-CSF to HMDMs, macrophages were detached from petri

dishes using ice-cold 5 mM EDTA in PBS and gentle scraping. HMDMs were centrifuged at 300xg

for 5 min and resuspended in a 1:1 ratio of AT Maintenance Medium (without dexamethasone)

and Macrophage Medium to a concentration of 1×10^6 cells/mL. ALoCs were removed from the

Zoe and detached from the Pods, and top channel was washed with 200 μL of HPAEC

Maintenance Medium. With medium still in the top channel, 50 μL of HMDM cell suspension was

rapidly pipetted through the top channel. ALoCs were placed in square petri dishes and incubated

at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 3-4 hours to allow attachment to the top channel. Once attached, ALoCs

were attached back to Pods after priming and after 2 hours of a Regulate Cycle were returned to

ALI.

***M. fortuitum* Infection on Human ALoC**

Upon returning ALoCs to ALI conditions after macrophage attachment to the ALoCs, ALI medium

was replaced with ALI medium without penicillin/streptomycin, to avoid impacting subsequent

bacterial infection. Twenty-four hours after returning to ALI conditions, the ALoCs were infected

with *M. fortuitum*. mCherry-expressing *M. fortuitum* was cultured at 37°C in liquid 7H9 medium

(BD Difco 271310) supplemented with 10% OADC enrichment (BD 212351), 50 μg/mL

Kanamycin (Sigma 60615) and 0.05% Tyloxapol (Sigma T8761) until it reached an OD_{600} 0.5 –

0.7. The culture was pelleted by centrifugation at 3500 RPM for 10 min. The pellet was washed

three times with 50 mL of 1X PBS (-Ca$^+$/-Mg$^+$) by centrifugation at 3500 RPM for 10 min, and

resuspended in 5 mL PBS for a slow spin to remove cell debris at 500 RPM for 5 min. The

supernatant was collected and passed through a 26-gauge needle three times to generate a

single-cell suspension. The bacterial suspension was adjusted to an MOI of 1 with respect to the

epithelial cells in HPAEC Maintenance Medium, and 50 µL of the *M. fortuitum* suspension was

pipetted rapidly through the top channel. The ALoCs were incubated at 37°C for 1 hr. under static

conditions, and then washed three times with epithelial medium before returning ALoCs back to

Pods and into the Zoe for another Regulate Cycle. ALI was initiated again and the ALoCs were

infected for a total of 24 hours.

RNA Extraction from ALoCs

ALoCs were removed from the Zoe and Pods. Top and bottom channels were washed three times

with 200 µL of ice-cold 1X DPBS (-Ca$^+$/-Mg$^+$). An empty p200 filtered tip was inserted into the

bottom inlet, bottom outlet, and top outlet ports. 200 µL of TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen #15596026)

was pipetted in each ALoC by rapidly pressing and releasing the plunger three times before

collecting the supernatant in an RNase-free 1.5 mL tube. This process was repeated once more

for a total of ~400 µL of supernatant. TRIzol was added to each tube of RNA to a final volume of

1 mL. The RNA was stored at -80°C before extraction using the Qiagen RNeasy Mini Columns

(74106). AT and macrophage lysates were thawed on ice and incubated at room temperature for

5 min. 200 µL of chloroform per 1 mL of lysates was added to each tube, shaken vigorously for

15 sec., incubated at room temperature for 2-3 min, and centrifuged for 5 min at 12,000xg at 4°C.

The aqueous phase was transferred to fresh RNase-free tubes and the rest of the RNA extraction

was performed according to the Qiagen RNeasy Mini Column Kit. Extracted RNA was stored at -

80°C until use for library preparation and RNA-sequencing.

Library Preparation and RNA-sequencing

Samples were analyzed on an Agilent Tapestation 4200 to determine level of degradation to

ensure that only high quality RNA was used (RIN Score 8 or higher). We used a Qubit 4.0

Fluorimeter (ThermoFisher) to determine RNA concentration prior to starting library prep. One

microgram of total DNAse treated RNA was then prepared with the TruSeq Stranded mRNA

Library Prep Kit (Illumina). Poly-A RNA was purified and fragmented before strand-specific cDNA

synthesis. cDNA was then A-tailed and indexed adapters ligated. After adapter ligation, samples

were PCR amplified and purified with AmpureXP beads, then validated again on the Agilent

Tapestation 4200. Before being normalized and pooled, samples were quantified by Qubit then

sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq 2000 using a P2-100 flowcell.

Bulk RNA-sequencing Analysis

All RNA-sequencing analyses were performed using integrated Differential Expression and

Pathways Analysis, iDEP 2.01 (Ge et al., 2018). Genes expressed at extremely low levels were

filtered out of the gene set by removing any genes with less than 0.4 counts per million (CPM) in

at least one sample (n=1) (**Supplemental Figure 3A**). 13,934 filtered genes were converted to

Ensembl gene IDs, normalized in edgeR and transformed via rlog. Hierarchical clustering of the

samples and the top 2000 genes were performed (**Supplemental Figure 3B**). We then performed

principal component analysis (PCA) using the 2000 most variable genes. Using DESeq2 and the

Wald test (FDR cutoff = 0.1, minimum fold change = 1.5), we generated adjusted p-values and

log_2 fold changes. Gene expression was then compared between the "infected" AloCs and

"control_uninfected" ALoCs. A total of 1,454 genes were found to be downregulated (log_2 fold

change <1) and 588 genes were upregulated (log_2 fold change >1). Using analysis of variance

(ANOVA) and post-hoc pairwise t-tests, we evaluated between-group differences for each cluster

using these scaled expression values. We performed functional enrichment analysis using the

hypergeometric test in hypeR for enriched pathways within the differentially expressed gene set.

Enrichment analysis was run using significantly upregulated and significantly downregulated

genes. Gene categories with fewer than 15 genes were excluded. Gene categories were

considered significant if they had Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *p*-values less than 0.1.

Immunofluorescence

ALoCs were washed three times with 200 µL of 1X DPBS and 200 uL of 4% PFA in PBS were

added to each channel of each ALoC for 20 min. at room temperature. ALoCs were then washed

three times with 200 µL of 1X DPBS and incubated for 30 min. at room temperature with 200 µL

of 0.1% Triton X-100 and 2% saponin. ALoCs were then washed three times with 200 µL of 1X

DPBS and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody (1:100) (**Supplemental Table 1**).

ALoCs were washed again three times with 200 µL of DPBS and incubated with secondary

antibody (1:1000) (**Supplemental Table 1**) for 2 hours at room temperature, protected from light.

ALoCs were washed three times with 200 µL of 1X DPBS and incubated with DAPI for 10 min at

room temperature. They were washed again three times with 200 µL of 1X DPBS and stored at

4°C with both channels filled with 1X DPBS. Confocal images were acquired on a Nikon CSU W1

spinning disk confocal microscope with an CFI S Plan Fluor ELWD 20x objective and a laser

scanning confocal microscope Zeiss LSM 980 with an EC Plan-Neofluar 10x objective.

Statistical analyses

483   All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism Software (version 9). For *in vitro*

484   studies, data was analyzed using unpaired two-tailed *t*-test. For RNA sequencing analysis,

485   analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc pairwise t-tests were used to evaluate between-group

486   differences for each cluster using scaled expression values.

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COMPETING INTERESTS

All authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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DATA AVAILABILITY

Bulk RNA sequencing data has been deposited at the NCBI GEO database, GSE276053, and

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, V.E., M.U.S.; Formal analysis, V.E., M.U.S.; Funding acquisition, M.U.S.;

Investigation, V.E., B.R., P.C.; Project administration, M.U.S.; Supervision, M.U.S.; Visualization,

M.U.S.; Writing – original draft, V.E., M.U.S.; Writing – review and editing, All authors.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. **Establishment of a fully humanized alveolus lung-on-a-chip (ALoC) model system**

A. Schematic of a human alveolus and the surrounding vasculature, highlighting alveolar epithelial

type I (ATI), alveolar epithelial type II (AT2) cells, and alveolar macrophages in the alveolar sac,

with pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells lining the vasculature. **B.** Schematic of the ALoC

model for *M. fortuitum* infection. The apical channel contains primary human alveolar epithelial

cells (ATI and ATII) with or without human CD14$^+$ peripheral blood-derived macrophages, while

the basal channel is lined by human primary pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells

(HMVECs). **C.** Stitched image of the apical channel of the ALoC at 15 days of culture highlighting

AT1 cells (HT1$^+$, magenta) and AT2 cells (HT2$^+$, green). Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (blue).

Scale bar = 100 µm. **D (left).** Epifluorescent image of differentiated AT1 and AT2 cells on the

ALoC. Scale bar = 50 µm. **D (right).** Three-dimensional immunofluorescence reconstruction of

ALoC after 15 days of culture, highlighting differentiated AT2 cells and AT1 cells. Scale bar = 100

µm. **E.** Cross-sectional image of the ALoC highlighting AT1 and AT2 cells in a monolayer. Scale

bar = 50 µm. Images are representative of at least 3 independent chips from 2 independent

experiments.

Figure 2. Human macrophages reside on the alveolar surface in the humanized ALoC A.

Schematic of the addition of macrophages to the apical channel. **B.** Stitched image of the apical

epithelial channel of the ALoC after the addition of macrophages (CD14$^+$, orange) on the ALoC.

Nuclei are labelled with DAPI. Scale bar = 100 µm. **C.** Epifluorescent image of differentiated

macrophages dispersed amongst AT1 and AT2 cells on the ALoC. Scale bar = 50 µm. **D (left).**

Cross-sectional image of the ALoC showing AT1 cells (HT1$^+$, magenta), AT2 cells (HT2$^+$, green),

and macrophages (CD14$^+$, orange). Scale bar = 50 µm. **D (right).** Three-dimensional

reconstruction of ALoC highlighting the addition of macrophages on the surface of differentiated

AT1 and AT2 cells. Scale bar = 50 µm. Images are representative of at least 3 independent chips

from 2 independent experiments. **E.** Cross-sectional image of the ALoC with macrophages

highlighting macrophages laying on the surface of AT1 and AT2 cells. Scale bar = 50 μm**.** Images

are representative of at least 3 independent chips from 2 independent experiments.

Figure 3. *Mycobacterium fortuitum* infection on an Alveolus Lung-on-a-Chip without

macrophages A. Schematic of *M. fortuitum* addition to the ALoC. mCherry-expressing *M.*

fortuitum was added to the ALoC at an MOI of 1 with respect to the alveolar epithelial cells. After

1 hour of static incubation at 37°C, ALoCs were washed and returned to ALI. **B.** Epifluorescent

image *M. fortuitum* (mCherry, white)-infected AT1 (HT1+, magenta) and AT2 (HT2+, green) cells.

Scale bar = 50 μm. **C (left).** Cross-sectional image of *M. fortuitum* (mCherry, white) infection on

ALoC with AT1 and AT2 cells. Scale bar = 50 μm**. C (right).** Three-dimensional reconstruction of

an infected ALoC without macrophages. Scale bar = 50 μm**. D.** A single z-slice image of an

uninfected ALoC without macrophages containing AT1, AT2 and AT1/AT2-positive cells, with

AT1/AT2 cells highlighted by asterisks. Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 30 μm.

E. Pie chart representing the ratio of AT1, AT2 or AT1/AT2-positive cells on ALoCs without

macrophages. Cells were counted from 3 independent uninfected ALoCs without macrophages

(number of cells counted per chip range from 900-1300 total cells) and averaged. **F.** A single z-

slice image of an infected ALoC without macrophages containing AT1, AT2 and AT1/AT2-positive

cells, with AT1/AT2 cells highlighted by asterisks. Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (blue).Scale bar

= 30 μm. **G.** Pie chart representing the ratio of AT1, AT2 or AT1/AT2-positive cells on *M. fortuitum-*

infected ALoCs without macrophages. Cells were counted from 3 independent infected ALoCs

without macrophages (number of cells counted per chip range from 800-900 total cells) and

averaged. Images are representative of at least 3 independent chips from 2 independent

experiments.

Figure 4. ***Mycobacterium fortuitum* infection on an Alveolus Lung-on-a-Chip containing**

macrophages A. Schematic of *M. fortuitum* infection on ALoC containing macrophages. 24 hours

after the addition macrophages, *M. fortuitum* was added to the ALoC at an MOI of 1 with respect

to the alveolar epithelial cells, incubated at 37°C for 1 hour, washed, and returned to ALI. **B**.

Epifluorescent image of an *M.fortuitum* (mCherry, white)-infected ALoC with macrophages

containing AT1 cells (HT1+, magenta) and macrophages (CD14+, orange). Scale bar = 20 µm.

C. Epifluorescent image of an *M.fortuitum* (mCherry, white)-infected ALoC with macrophages

containing AT2 cells (HT2+, green) and macrophages (CD14+, orange). Scale bar = 20 µm. **D**

(left). Cross-sectional image of *M. fortuitum* infection on ALoC with the addition of macrophages,

highlighting intracellular M. fortuitum bacilli within macrophages (CD14+, orange) rather than AT2

(HT2+, green) cells. Scale bar = 50 µm. **D (right).** Three-dimensional reconstructed image of an

ALoC with macrophages containing AT2 cells and *M.fortuitum*-infected macrophages. Scale bar

= 100 µm. **E.** Quantification of *M. fortuitum* bacilli found intracellularly within macrophages or AT1

cells. Each point represents the cumulative number of *M. fortuitum* bacilli counted in each cell

type for 10 fields within a single chip (N=3 independent chips, p<0.0001 by unpaired Student's t-

test). **F.** Quantification of *M. fortuitum* bacilli found intracellularly within macrophages or AT2 cells.

Each point represents the cumulative number of *M. fortuitum* bacilli counted in each cell type for

10 fields within a single chip (N=3 independent chips, p<0.0001 by unpaired Student's t-test).

Images are representative of at least 3 independent chips from three independent experiments.

Figure 5. **Bulk RNA-seq Analysis of *M. fortuitum*-infected ALoCs with macrophages A.**

Heat-map of the top 2000 genes expressed in uninfected and *M. fortuitum*-infected ALoCs (24

hours post-infection) (N=3 per group) using Pearson distance and average linkage. **B.** The -$\log_{10}$

(Adjusted p-Value) was plotted against $\log_2$ fold change to create a volcano plot representing the

top 25 differentially expressed genes (DEGs). Genes with an adjusted p-value<25 and $\log_2$ fold

change<2 were filtered from this analysis. **C.** Heat map comparing the $\log_2$ fold change of the

most differentially expressed chemokines and cytokines in ALoCs infected with *M. fortuitum*

versus uninfected ALoCs after 24 hours of infection. **D.** Heat map comparing the $\log_2$ fold change

of the most differentially expressed SERPINs in ALoCS infected with *M. fortuitum* versus

uninfected ALoCs after 24 hours of infection.

Supplemental Figure Legends

Supplemental Figure 1. **Establishment of the Alveolus Lung-on-a-Chip Model**. **A.** Typical

timeline of a single alveolus lung-on-a-chip (ALoC) experiment. **B.** Stitched image of the entire

apical channel containing AT1 (HT1+, magenta) and AT2 cells (HT2+, green). Nuclei are labelled

with DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 500 μm. **C.** A single z-slice image highlighting KRT5+ cells (orange)

on an uninfected ALoC. Nuclei are labelled with DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 50 μm. **D.** A single z-

slice image of the bottom of the basal compartment of an uninfected ALoC containing

macrophages. Human lung microvascular endothelial cells (HMVEC) are labelled with VE-

cadherin (magenta). Nuclei are labelled with DAPI. Scale bar = 50 μm. **E.** Stitched image of the

entire apical channel of an ALoC containing macrophages (CD14+, orange), AT1 cells (HT1+,

magenta), and AT2 cells (HT2+, green). Nuclei are labelled DAPI (blue). Scale bar = 500 μm. **F.**

Brightfield image of an uninfected ALoC immediately after the addition human CD14$^+$ peripheral

blood-derived macrophages (macrophages) on top of the alveolar epithelial cells **(left)**. Brightfield

image of an uninfected ALoC 24 hours after the addition of macrophages (**right**).

Supplemental Figure 2. **Bulk RNA-sequencing analysis of *M. fortuitum*-infected ALoCs A.**

Total raw read counts of uninfected (n=3) and *M. fortuitum*-infected (n=3) ALoCs. **B.** Pearson

(average linkage) clustering of *M. fortuitum*-infected ALoCs and uninfected ALoCs.

Figure 4

Table 1. The most significant up-regulated and down-regulated GO Biological Process pathways from M. fortuitum-infected ALoCs containing macrophages

Direction	GO Biological Process	Statistic	Genes	adj.Pval
Up	Response to bacterium	7.3996	438	1.1e-09
	Humoral immune response	6.5518	138	6.0e-07
	Defense response to bacterium	6.3097	169	1.1e-06
	Antimicrobial humoral response	6.0602	65	1.9e-05
	Response to molecule of bacterial origin	5.5061	251	3.7e-05
	Chemotaxis	5.2453	444	8.2e-05
	Taxis	5.2402	445	8.2e-05
	Response to lipopolysaccharide	5.2654	240	8.2e-05
	Antimicrobial humoral immune response mediated by antimicrobial peptide	5.6504	41	1.4e-04
Down	MRNA processing	-6.8939	402	4.4e-08
	RNA splicing	-6.5273	385	2.3e-07
	Histone modification	-5.7112	429	1.6e-05
	Proteasome-mediated ubiquitin-dependent protein catabolic process	-5.5755	410	2.5e-05
	Proteasomal protein catabolic process	-5.534	470	2.5e-05
	Chromatin organization	-5.4523	478	3.2e-05
	NcRNA metabolic process	-5.3774	477	4.2e-05
	Peptidyl-lysine modification	-5.128	343	1.5e-04
	RNA splicing via transesterification reactions with bulged adenosine as nucleophile	-5.1146	265	1.5e-04
	MRNA splicing via spliceosome	-5.1146	265	1.5e-04
	RNA splicing via transesterification reactions	-5.097	269	1.5e-04

Table 2. The most significant up-regulated and down-regulated GO Molecular Function pathways from M. fortuitum-infected ALoCs containing macrophages

Direction	GO Molecular Function	Statistic	Genes	adj.Pval
Up	Transmembrane signaling receptor activity	8.0205	486	1.9e-12
	Receptor ligand activity	6.4443	275	6.9e-08
	Signaling receptor regulator activity	6.3634	295	6.9e-08
	Signaling receptor activator activity	6.3463	281	6.9e-08
	Cytokine activity	5.657	148	4.8e-06
	Channel activity	5.1005	274	3.6e-05
	Passive transmembrane transporter activity	5.1005	274	3.6e-05
	Glycosaminoglycan binding	5.1296	151	3.7e-05
	Ion channel activity	4.8906	248	8.2e-05
	Calcium ion binding	4.8317	497	8.2e-05
	G protein-coupled receptor activity	4.872	193	8.3e-05
	Gated channel activity	4.7825	188	1.1e-04
	Extracellular matrix structural constituent	4.7767	119	1.3e-04
	Cation channel activity	4.7291	184	1.3e-04
	Inorganic molecular entity transmembrane transporter activity	4.6534	455	1.3e-04
	Heparin binding	4.4603	110	4.5e-04
	Endopeptidase regulator activity	4.3733	123	6.1e-04
	Inorganic cation transmembrane transporter activity	4.2753	363	6.3e-04
Down	Catalytic activity acting on RNA	-5.0214	311	3.8e-04
	Histone binding	-4.8025	216	6.4e-04