Mast cells promote pathology and susceptibility in tuberculosis

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Abstract

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*), infects approximately one-fourth of the world's population. We reported an increased accumulation of mast cells (MCs) in the lungs of macaques with active pulmonary TB (PTB), compared with those with latent TB infection (LTBI). MCs respond in vitro to *Mtb* exposure via degranulation and by inducing proinflammatory cytokines. In the current study, we demonstrate an increased production of chymase by MCs in granulomas of humans and macaques with PTB. Single-cell (sc) RNA sequencing analysis revealed distinct MC transcriptional programs between LTBI and PTB, with PTB associated MCs enriched in interferon gamma, oxidative phosphorylation, and MYC signaling. In a mouse model, MC deficiency led to improved control of *Mtb* infection that coincided with reduced accumulation of lung myeloid cells and diminished lung inflammation at chronic stages of infection. Airway transfer of MCs into wild-type *Mtb*-infected mice showed increased neutrophils, decreased recruited macrophages, and elevated *Mtb* dissemination to the spleen. Together, these findings highlight MCs as active drivers of TB pathogenesis and potential targets for host-directed therapies for TB.

Keywords: Mast cells, Tuberculosis, lung, innate cell, inflammation.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) remains a significant global health issue, with approximately one-quarter of the world's population harboring *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*Mtb*), causing around 1.25 million deaths each year (WHO, 2024). The disease often starts as a latent TB infection (LTBI), in which the bacteria may remain dormant without disease symptoms. However, LTBI can progress to active pulmonary TB (PTB), characterized by severe respiratory symptoms and high transmission potential. The immune mechanisms that allow progression from latency to PTB are not fully defined. Thus, understanding the immune factors that drive progression toward PTB will allow the development of novel therapeutics for TB control. Towards this overall goal, we recently showed that the lung single-cell transcriptional immune landscape during LTBI and PTB in *Mtb*-infected macaques was distinct. For example, PTB was characterized by the significant accumulation of Type I IFN-expressing plasmacytoid DCs (pDCs), IFN-responsive macrophages, as well as activated T cells in the lungs (Esaulova et al., 2021). Additionally, mast cells (MCs) were increased in the lungs of macaques with PTB (Esaulova et al., 2021). In sharp contrast, LTBI was characterized by increased presence of cytotoxic NK cells but lack of recruitment of MCs in the lungs (Esaulova et al., 2021).

MCs are found in the lung where they influence inflammatory responses (Virk et al., 2016; Wasserman, 1984). MCs have been shown to respond *in vitro* to *Mtb* exposure via surface receptors such as CD48 (Munoz et al., 2003). They also respond to *Mtb* exposure or mycobacterial lipids by undergoing degranulation of prestored granules, such as histamine and β-hexosaminidase, and secrete proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and TNF-α (Munoz et al., 2003). Degranulation of MCs following intratracheal infection with a high dose of *Mtb* was shown to limit inflammation and the production of proinflammatory cytokines such as IL-1β and TNF-α (Carlos et al., 2007). MCs produce and release either chymase or tryptase (Bian et al., 2021), which are both proteases that are stored in the cell's secretory granules. Recent

studies with lung biopsies of TB patients showed an enrichment of MCs expressing IL-17 at

inflammatory sites. In contrast, chymase-rich MCs (MC$_C$s) producing TGF-β were detected in

proximity to mature granulomas in lung biopsies from PTB (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021).

Furthermore, while healthy lung predominantly has tryptase-expressing mast cells (MC$_T$s),

both chymase and mast cells co-expressing chymase and tryptase (MC$_C$s and MC$_{TC}$s)

accumulate in the infected lung of patients with PTB (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021). Thus,

while previous studies have shown that MCs respond to *Mtb* exposure and accumulate in

macaque and human lungs during PTB, it is not completely known if MCs functionally mediate

protective or pathological outcomes in the context of TB infection.

In the current study, we showed that the distribution and localization of MCs in PTB in humans

and macaques were associated with chymase production. Using scRNA seq analysis, we show

that MCs found in LTBI and healthy lungs in macaques are transcriptionally distinct from PTB

lungs, showing enrichment of tumor necrosis factor alpha, cholesterol, and transforming

growth factor beta signaling. In contrast, MCs found in PTB express increased levels of

signatures associated with interferon gamma, oxidative phosphorylation, and MYC signaling.

Additionally, mice deficient in MCs showed improved control of *Mtb* infection and reduced

lung inflammation. Airway transfer of MCs into wild-type *Mtb*-infected mice increased lung

neutrophils and elevated *Mtb* dissemination to the spleen. These results together provide novel

evidence that MCs contribute to immune pathology and reduced *Mtb* control, suggesting a

pathological role for MCs during *Mtb* infection.

Materials and methods

Study subjects and animal studies

All human lung biopsy samples were obtained from the Tuberculosis Outpatient Clinic and the

Department of Pathology at the National Institute of Respiratory Diseases (INER) in Mexico

City, before *Mtb* treatment with informed consent, and with the approved protocol by the INER

IRB for their use (project numbers B04-15 and B09-23). Also, lung samples from healthy

controls (HC), non-TB individuals, were obtained from the tissue repository of the Department

of Pathology at INER. No compensation was provided to the patients.

Non-human primate procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee of Tulane National Primate Research Center and were performed following

National Institutes of Health (NIH) guidelines. Male and female Indian rhesus macaques,

verified to be free of *Mtb* infection by tuberculin skin test, were obtained from the Tulane

National Primate Research Center. The animals were housed in an ABSL3 facility.

C57BL/6 and B6.Cg-KitW-sh/HNihrJaeBsmJ (Strain #:030764) alias *CgKitW^{sh}* mice were

procured from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) and bred at Washington University in St.

Louis or University of Chicago. Six to eight-week-old female and male mice were used in the

experiments. All mice were maintained and used per the approved Institutional Animal Care

and Use Committee (IACUC) guidelines at Washington University in St. Louis or University

of Chicago.

Aerosol infection

For murine experiments, *Mtb* strain HN878 was cultured in Proskauer Beck medium containing

0.05% Tween 80 until reaching mid-log phase and frozen in 1 ml aliquots at -80°C until used.

Mice were aerosol infected with ~100 colony-forming units (CFU), as described previously

(Khader et al., 2007). *Mtb* strain CDC1551 was used to infect NHPs. This species-specific

choice reflects differences in pathogenicity: HN878 induces robust disease in mice, while

CDC1551, a less virulent strain, allows development of a macaque model that recapitulates

latent and chronic TB upon low- to moderate-dose aerosol exposure respectively (Kaushal et

al., 2015; Sharan et al., 2021; Singh et al., 2025). This ensures physiologically relevant and

controlled studies within each species. Macaques were assigned to three groups: (1) uninfected

control, (2) macaques with LTBI were exposed to a low dose (~10 CFU), and (3) macaques

with PTB were exposed to a high dose (~100 CFU) of *Mtb* CDC1551 via the aerosol route

using a custom head-only dynamic inhalation system housed within a class III biological safety

cabinet as previously described (Esaulova et al., 2021). The animals were periodically

monitored for their physiological parameters and to monitor disease symptoms.

Bacterial burden and cytokine analysis

Bacterial burden was assessed using serial 10-fold dilutions of lung or spleen homogenates and

plated on 7H11 agar solid medium supplemented with OADC (oleic acid, bovine albumin,

dextrose, and catalase). Colonies were counted after 2-3 weeks of incubation.

Cytokine/chemokine expression was analyzed in lung homogenates from infected mice via

Luminex (Millipore-Sigma) or ELISA (R&D) as per the manufacturer's protocol.

Generation of single-cell suspensions from tissues and flow cytometry staining

Lung single-cell suspensions from *Mtb*-infected mice were prepared as previously described,

(Gopal et al., 2013). Briefly, mice were euthanized with CO_2. The right lower lobe was isolated

and perfused with heparin in saline. Lungs were minced and incubated with collagenase/DNase

for 30 minutes at 37°C. Lung tissue was pushed through a 70μm nylon screen to obtain a single-

cell suspension. Following lysis of erythrocytes, the cells were washed and resuspended in

cDMEM (DMEM high glucose + 10% fetal bovine serum + 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin) for

flow cytometry staining. For flow cytometric analysis, cells were either stained immediately

or stimulated with phorbol myristate acetate (PMA-50ng/ml; Sigma Aldrich) and ionomycin

(750 ng/ml; Sigma Aldrich) in the presence of GolgiStop (BD Pharmingen).

For myeloid cell surface staining, the following fluorochrome-conjugated antibodies were

used: CD11b-APC (clone M1/70), CD11c-PE-Cy7 (clone HL3, BD Biosciences), GR-1-

PerCP-Cy5.5 (clone RB6-8C5, BD Pharmingen), and MHC class II-FITC (clone M5/114.15.2,

Tonbo Biosciences), CD117 (cKit)-Super Bright 780 (clone 2BB, eBioscience), and FcεR1-

PE (clone MAR-1, eBioscience). Myeloid cell subsets were defined as follows: alveolar

macrophages (CD11c$^+$CD11b$^-$), neutrophils (CD11b$^+$CD11c$^-$Gr-1^{hi}), monocytes

(CD11b$^+$CD11c$^-$Gr-1^{med}), recruited macrophages (CD11b$^+$CD11c$^-$Gr-1^{low}), and MCs

(CD11b$^-$cKit$^+$FcεR1$^+$). T cells were identified based on a gating strategy as described before

(Griffiths et al., 2016)). Surface staining included CD3-AF700 (clone 500A2, BD Biosciences),

CD4-Pacific Blue (clone RM4.5, BD Biosciences), CD44-PE-Cy7 (clone 1M7, Tonbo

Biosciences), and CD8-APC-Cy7 (clone 53-6.7, BD Biosciences). For intracellular cytokine

staining, lung cells were fixed and permeabilized using fixation/permeabilization concentrate

and diluent (eBioscience) following the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were then stained

with IFNγ-APC (clone XMG1.2, Tonbo Biosciences) and TNF-α-FITC (clone MP6-XT22, BD

Pharmingen), or respective isotype controls (APC rat IgG1κ and FITC rat IgG1α, BD

Pharmingen) for 30 minutes. Samples were acquired on a four-laser BD Fortessa Flow

Cytometer, and data were analyzed using FlowJo software (Treestar). Absolute cell numbers

for each population were back calculated based on total viable cell counts per lung sample.

In vitro culture and intratracheal delivery of MCs

Six to eight weeks old C57BL/6 mice were euthanized by CO_2, and femurs and tibia were

collected. Bone marrow cells obtained after RBC lysis were suspended in Bone Marrow

Derived MC (BMMC) media containing RBMI media (Gibco) supplemented with 20% FBS

(Sigma), 4mM- glutamine (Sigma), 25mM HEPES (Corning), 5 x 10^{-5} 2- mercaptoethanol

(Sigma), 1mM sodium pyruvate (Sigma), 0.1mM nonessential amino acids (Gibco), Penicillin

and Streptomycin (Sigma), 20ng/ml murine IL-3 and 20ng/ml murine Stem Cell factor

(Peprotech) and maintained in BMMC media at 1 X 10^6 cells per ml in T75 flasks at 37°C in

5% CO2 incubator. Cells were fed twice every week with fresh BMMC media by centrifuging

non-adherent cells at 1000 rpm for 10 min at room temperature, resuspending at a density of

1x10^6/ml, and were maintained for 30 days. At 30 days, more than 95% cells were positive for

FcεRI and c-kit, which was confirmed by flow cytometry (Varma & Puri, 2019) . 5×10^4 BMMC

having 95% FcεRI and c-kit positivity were transferred in C57Bl/6 through the intratracheal

route.

Morphometric analysis of lung Histopathology and neutrophil infiltration

For mouse studies, the left upper lobe was collected for histomorphometric analysis. The lobes

were infused with 10% neutral buffered formalin and embedded in paraffin. 5 μm-thick lung

sections were cut using a microtome, stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E), and

processed for light microscopy. Images were captured using the automated Nanozoomer digital

whole slide imaging system (Hamamatsu Photonics). Regions of inflammatory cell infiltration

were delineated utilizing the NDP view2 software (Hamamatsu Photonics), and the percentage

of inflammation was calculated by dividing the inflammatory area by the total area of

individual lung lobes. All scoring was conducted in a blinded manner. Formalin-Fixed Paraffin

Embedded (FFPE) lung sections were also stained with APC-conjugated rat anti-mouse Ly6G

(clone 1A8, BioLegend, RRID:AB_2227348). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI.

Neutrophils were quantified in three randomly selected 200× fields per lung section. Images at

200× magnification were acquired using a Zeiss Axioplan microscope and recorded with a

Hamamatsu camera.

FFPE lung sections from healthy individuals, tuberculosis patients, and NHP infected with

Mtb were stained with goat anti-human mast cell chymase (LifeSpan Biosciences, LS-B4134,

RRID: AB_10718418) and rabbit anti-human tryptase (Cell Signaling Technology, 195235).

Primary antibodies were detected with Alexa Fluor 568 donkey anti-goat IgG (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, A-11057, RRID: AB_2534104) and Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit IgG

(Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, 711-546-152, RRID: AB_2340619). Nuclei were

labeled with DAPI. MC positive for chymase, tryptase, or both were blindly quantified in three

200x random fields per sample in human and NHP lung sections. 200x pictures were taken

with an Axioplan Zeiss microscope and recorded with a Hamamatsu camera.

Single-cell data reanalysis

The NHP single cell lung data was accessed from GEO (GSE149758) and processed through

Cell Ranger v7.0 using the Macaca Mulatta reference genome (Mmul_10). The obtained

matrix file was processed through the R package *Seurat v5* for downstream analysis of the

count matrix. The cells were filtered based on mitochondrial gene content and were selected

for analysis when at least 500 genes were detected. Data was log normalized. The most variable

genes were detected by the *FindVariableFeatures* function and used for subsequent analysis.

Latent variables (number of UMIs and mitochondrial content) were regressed out using a

negative binomial model (function *ScaleData*). Principal component analysis (PCA) was

performed with the *RunPCA* function. A UMAP dimensionality reduction was performed on

the scaled matrix (with most variable genes only) using the first 20 PCA components to obtain

a two-dimensional representation of the cell states. For clustering, we used the functions

FindNeighbors (20 PCA) and *FindClusters* (resolution 0.25). MCs were identified and re-

clustered based on expression of the canonical MC marker genes *FCER1A* (High affinity Fc

IgE receptor), *CD48*, *FCER1G* (Fc IgE receptor), *MS4A2* (IgE subunit), and *ITGAX* (CD11c)

as a negative marker. The cells identified MC cluster (only one cluster) were subset and re-

clustered using the method outlined above at a resolution of 0.1. To identify marker genes for

mast cells, we used *FindAllMarkers* to compare the cluster against all other clusters and

FindMarkers to compare selected clusters. For each cluster, only genes that were expressed in

more than 15% of cells with at least 0.15-fold differences were considered. The differential

genes were subjected to enrichment analysis using the Hallmark Pathway gene set from

MsigDB. Only the pathways that met an FDR threshold less than 0.05 were considered. Gene

signatures were defined with the R package *Ucell*. The output is a module signature score

generated by the *AddModuleScore* function. The obtained score was overlaid on the UMAP

and visualized. The Values per cell were extracted and used to plot a summed module U cell

score. GraphPad Prism was used for the Violin plots and the heatmap. All other figures were

generated in R.

An independent *M. fascicularis* lung single-cell RNA-seq dataset (GSE200151) (Gideon et al.,

2022) was downloaded and processed using Cell Ranger v7.0 with the *Macaca mulatta*

reference genome (Mmul_10). The resulting count matrices were imported into Seurat v5 for

downstream analysis. Cells were filtered based on mitochondrial gene content and were

retained if they expressed at least 500 genes. Data were log-normalized, the most variable genes

were identified with *FindVariableFeatures*, and confounding effects of sequencing depth

(UMI counts) and mitochondrial fraction were regressed out during scaling with ScaleData.

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed, followed by clustering *(FindNeighbors,*

FindClusters) and UMAP embedding *(RunUMAP)*. MCs were identified and subset based on

canonical marker expression (*FCER1A, CD48, FCER1G, MS4A2*) and re-clustered at low

resolution to ensure purity of the MC population. To quantify MC subsets across disease

severity states, we calculated the proportion of cells expressing chymase (*CMA1*), tryptase

(*LOC102140229, TPSG1*), or dual-positive $CMA1^+LOC102140229^+$ using binary thresholds

(>0 counts). Fisher's exact tests were performed to compare proportions between MCs from

high-burden granulomas (4 weeks, more severe disease; n = 372 MCs) and low-burden

granulomas (10 weeks, less severe disease; n = 7,306 MCs). For each comparison, we reported

the odds ratio (OR) with 95% confidence interval and the exact *p*-value. To examine functional

programs, we computed UCell signature scores for Hallmark IFNγ signaling, TNF signaling,

and oxidative phosphorylation. Signature score distributions were compared between severity

groups. All statistical tests were performed in R (v4.3.1) with the Seurat (v5.0) and UCell (v2.0)

packages. Violin and bar plots were generated in R or exported to GraphPad Prism for

visualization.

Data analysis and statistics

All data were analyzed using the indicated methodology in each figure legend. Two-sided

unpaired t-test was performed for comparing the significance between 2 groups, one-way

ANOVA, Tukey's test, and two-way ANOVA Sidak's multiple comparison test was performed

for more than 2 groups using GraphPad Prism 5 and 10, respectively (La Jolla, CA).

Significance is denoted on the figure and the respective figure legends. Outliers, if any, were

removed using Grubb's outlier test and mentioned in the respective figures.

Results

Mast cells localize and transition phenotypes within TB granulomas

A previous study observed that tryptase-expressing MC_Ts were primarily found within the

lungs of healthy controls (HC), while chymase-expressing MC_Cs or both chymase and tryptase-

expressing MC_{TC}s were found in the lung of patients with PTB (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021).

To corroborate these observations and analyze the compartmentalization of MCs in human

lungs, we stained lung biopsies from healthy individuals and patients with PTB to visualize the

spatial distribution of MC_Ts, MC_Cs, and MC_{TC}s. Lung granulomas from PTB patients were

further classified by the presence or absence of necrosis, as early or late granulomas. Early

granulomas had well-defined immune and stromal cell clusters without central necrosis. Late

granulomas were larger, with necrotic cores containing bacteria and dead neutrophils,

surrounded   by   lymphocytes.

MCs were quantified both within and around early granulomas, whereas in late granulomas,

they were primarily measured in the peripheral regions surrounding the necrotic center.

Considering lung parenchyma, interstitium, vasculature, or bronchus, we observed that HC

lungs predominantly contain MC_Ts and, to a lesser extent, MC_{TC}s. In TB lesions from PTB

patients, MC_{TC}s accumulated in early immature granulomas, whereas MC_Cs accumulated in

late granulomas (Figure 1A-B). MC_Ts also increased in the interstitium, vasculature, and

bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue of PTB patients (Figure S1A-C). However, we did not

observe any differences in MC_{TC}s and MC_Cs at these sites (Figure S1D-I). These observations

confirmed that tryptase-expressing MC_Ts are found in HCs (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021),

while the dual tryptase and chymase-expressing MCs were seen in early granulomas, and only

chymase-associated MCs were observed in late granulomas with necrotic cores, defined the

MCs associated with TB disease progression.

Our previously published data showed that MCs accumulate in the lungs of macaques with

PTB compared to LTBI (Esaulova et al., 2021). Thus, we next analyzed the accumulation and

localization of MCs in the lungs of macaques with LTBI and PTB. We found that, similar to

human healthy lungs, MC_Ts accumulated in the lungs of healthy macaques. Although MC_Ts

increased in some lesions in the lungs of macaques with LTBI, the numbers of MC_Ts in

macaques with PTB were significantly increased in all sites, including the granuloma (Figure

1C-D), interstitium, vasculature, as well as bronchus-associated lymphoid tissue of PTB

patients (Figure S1J-L). Additionally, MC_{TC}s were significantly increased within the

granulomas of macaques with PTB compared to the lungs of macaques with LTBI and HCs

(Figure 1C-D), but did not differ at any other sites in the lung (Figure S1M-O) compared to

HCs. However, we did not observe any increase in these cells at other sites within the lung

compared to healthy macaques. MC_Cs were not measurable in any region of the macaque lungs.

Our data indicate that during LTBI, there is an accumulation of MC_Ts but not MC_{TC}s. However,

as the disease progresses to PTB, both MC_{TC}s and additional MC_Ts are elevated, particularly

within the granulomatous lesions.

Lung single-cell transcriptome in macaques with tuberculosis exhibits MC diversity

In the previous section, we found that tryptase protein expression on MCs was lower in LTBI,

and as the disease progressed to PTB, MCs expressed chymase, either alone MC_{CS} or in

combination with tryptase, MC_{TC}. To further validate whether this increase in tryptase and

chymase protein expression was also reflected in the single-cell transcriptomes during PTB,

LTBI, and HCs, we re-analyzed the MCs from our previously published data from NHPs

(Esaulova et al., 2021). These macaques were infected with 10 bacilli to generate LTBI, or

with 100 bacilli for a progressive PTB infection, or were uninfected (Figure 2A). The median

duration of infection for the PTB macaques was 10 weeks, and the LTBI macaques underwent

necropsy at a median of 23 weeks post-infection. We analyzed the single-cell transcriptomes

of 500 MCs using unsupervised clustering and identified four distinct clusters. Three clusters

(0, 1, and 3) belonged to the PTB group, while cluster 2 was found exclusively in LTBI and

HC, with the majority of MCs coming from the PTB condition (Figure 2B). All the MC clusters

were positive for canonical markers such as *FCER1A* (high-affinity IgE receptor), *MS4A2* (IgE

subunit), *CD48* (mast cell receptor), and negative for markers like *ITGAX*

(macrophage/dendritic cell marker) (Figure S2A), with distinct differentially expressed genes

(DEGs) (Figure S2B). Reactome gene ontology analysis of cluster-specific DEGs revealed

enrichment of cholesterol, TNF-α, and TGFβ signaling in LTBI, while oxidative

phosphorylation, IFNγ signaling, and MYC signaling were enriched in the PTB group (Figure

2C). Plotting the summed *Ucell* module scores revealed significant upregulation of IFNγ

signaling, oxidative Phosphorylation, and Th2 signature in PTB ($P < 0.05$), while LTBI and

HC clusters showed enhanced TNF-α signaling ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 2D-G; Figure S2 C-F). These

results indicate that MCs exhibited distinct transcriptomic profiles depending on the disease

state, with MCs from LTBI and HC showing more metabolically active pathways, while MCs

from PTB display a more pro-inflammatory signature.

Since we observed increased tryptase and chymase in MCs of PTB macaques (Figure 1C), we

next examined the levels of tryptase and chymase genes within the single-cell dataset. As we

were examining these genes across species, we observed considerable variation in sequence

similarity and functional annotation of tryptase genes between humans and NHPs. While

TPSG1 (encoding γ tryptase) and *TPSD1* (encoding δ tryptase) share the gene name in humans

and NHPs, the gene corresponding to the more widely expressed *TPSAB1* (encoding α and β1

tryptase) differs in NHPs. Based on phylogenetic similarity to human α and β tryptase, the

NHP ortholog is often referred to as α-like or β-like (α/β) tryptase. However, their gene names

differ, as they are still classified as putative proteins and not formally annotated with the same

nomenclature as in humans. The putative tryptase genes in NHPs are annotated as *LOC699599*

for *Macaca (M). mulatta* and *LOC102139613* for *M. fasicularis.* Examining these genes in the

NHP single cell transcriptome dataset, we detected the expression of the γ and the putative

α/βtryptase genes, but found no expression for δ tryptase. *TPSG1* was found to be expressed

at low levels and only in a few MCs from the PTB group. In contrast, the putative α/β tryptase

gene was expressed in MCs across all groups, with the highest expression in PTB (Figure 2H),

consistent with our immunofluorescence data (Figure 1D). As expected, the chymase (encoded

by *CMA1*) expressing cells were detected exclusively in the PTB group and were absent in

LTBI and HCs (Figure 2H). To confirm whether these *CMA1*-positive cells also co-expressed

the putative α/β tryptase as well, we quantified cells expressing single and dual transcripts.

This analysis revealed that most of the chymase-positive cells (243 cells) also expressed the

putative α/β tryptase gene (183 cells), supporting our earlier observation of a dual tryptase-

chymase MC signature linked with PTB. In contrast, MCs from HC and LTBI groups showed

expression of tryptase alone (Figure 2I).

To strengthen our findings, we validated MCs using an independent lung single-cell

transcriptome from NHP (*M. fasicularis*), collected at 4 weeks (higher bacterial load, more

severe disease) and 10 weeks (low bacterial load, less severe disease) following low-dose *Mtb*

Erdman infection (Gideon et al., 2022; Grimbaldeston et al., 2005). This dataset had 372 MCs

at 4 weeks, and 7306 MCs at 10 weeks (Figure 2J). We examined the expression of chymase

and several tryptase genes, including *TPSG1*, *TPSD1*, and *LOC102140229* (putative NHP

ortholog for human *TPSAB1*). While *TPSD1* expression was undetectable, the other tryptase

genes showed high expression with a pronounced increase in chymase (*CMA1*) expression both

at 4 and 10 weeks (Figure 2K). Similar to our transcriptomic scRNA seq dataset, we quantified

MCs co-expressing *LOC102140229* and *CMA1*. Consistent with our data, *CMA1* and

LOC102140229 (the α/β-like tryptase ortholog) expressions were associated with severe

disease, being significantly enriched in MCs from the higher-burden 4-week granulomas, (OR

= 0.27, $p < 1 \times 10^{-29}$, and OR = 1.68, $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$, respectively). Importantly, when restricting

analysis to $CMA1^+$ cells, the dual-positive $CMA1^+LOC102140229^+$ MC subset was

proportionally more abundant in less severe, 10-week granulomas (OR = 0.51, $p < 1 \times 10^{-9}$)

(Figure 2M). This suggested that while chymase (*CMA1*) expression marked severe disease,

the presence of the dual tryptase–chymase phenotype in less severe lesions, supported the idea

that MC transcriptional diversity emerges in association with disease modulation This further

supporting our observation of MC diversity with increasing dual tryptase and chymase

signature associated with disease progression. Similar to our observations in *M. mulatta*, we

quantified the DEGs and carried out Ucell scores in the MC subset from *M. fascicularis* .We

observed that MC from high burden TB granulomas showed higher IFNγ signaling, oxidative

phosphorylation (Figure 2N-O), similar to higher PTB scores seen in *M. mulatta*. However,

unlike *M. mulatta*, *M. fascicularis* also showed increased TNF signaling in high-burden

granulomas (Figure 2P). These results highlight that MCs in high-burden granulomas

upregulated IFNγ, TNF, and metabolic programs, coupled with chymase expression, whereas

less severe granulomas were enriched for tryptase-positive MCs. Although this mirrors our

findings seen in in *M. mulatta*, we observed species-specific differences in how TNF signaling

is distributed across disease states.

MC-deficient mice exhibit enhanced control of *Mtb*

We next determined whether MCs are induced in response to *Mtb* infection in mice, and

characterized their accumulation early and later in infection. In our previous studies, we

observed that innate cells such as innate lymphoid cells (ILCs) accumulate rapidly between

days 5-10 post-infection, followed by neutrophils, macrophages, and monocytes between days

10-15, and T cells by days 21 to 30 (Ardain et al., 2019). We found that MCs begin to

accumulate in the lungs between days 21 and 30, coinciding with the timing of *Mtb* growth

(Figure S3A-B) and T cell recruitment. To investigate the functional role of MCs in *Mtb*

infection, we utilized the MC-deficient mouse model, *CgKitW^{sh}*. These mice carry spontaneous

loss-of-function mutations in both alleles of the dominant *white spotting* (*W*) locus (*i.e.*, c-*kit*),

leading to impaired c-*kit* tyrosine kinase-dependent signaling resulting in dysregulated MC

development, survival, and function (Wolters et al., 2005). We infected *CgKitW^{sh}* mice with

low-dose aerosolized *Mtb* strain HN878 for early (50 days post infection, dpi) and later time

points (100 dpi and 150 dpi) and compared them with C57BL/6 wild-type (WT) *Mtb*-infected

mice (Figure 3A). While there were no significant differences observed in lung and spleen

bacterial burden at 50 dpi between *CgKitW^{sh}* and WT *Mtb*-infected mice, *CgKitW^{sh}* *Mtb*-

infected mice showed significantly lower lung and spleen *Mtb* CFU compared to WT *Mtb*-

infected controls at 100 dpi. However, at 150 dpi, lung bacterial burden in *CgKitW^{sh}* *Mtb*-

infected mice trended lower but not significant, these mice showed enhanced bacterial control

in the spleen (Figure 3B-C). The reduction in bacterial load also coincided with reduced lung

inflammation in *CgKitW^{sh}* *Mtb*-infected mice at 150 dpi (Figure 3D-E). These findings indicate

that MC-deficient *CgKitW^{sh}* mice exhibit improved control of *Mtb* infection during chronic

stages, suggesting that MCs may contribute to disease persistence or pathogenesis in chronic

TB.

MC-deficient mice display altered innate immune cell profiles during chronic *Mtb*

infection

To further address the functional basis of enhanced protection observed in MC-deficient mice,

we analyzed the lung immune responses in *CgKitW^{sh}* mice both at baselines and following *Mtb*

infection, given that this mouse strain is associated with other known immune alterations

(Grimbaldeston et al., 2005). MCs were significantly reduced in the lungs of *CgKitW^{sh}* mice

compared to WT mice at baseline (Figure 4A). However, we did not observe any significant

differences in other innate immune populations in the lung of *CgKitW^{sh}* mice, including

dendritic cells (DCs), recruited macrophages (RMs), alveolar macrophages (AMs),

neutrophils, monocytes, and T cells at baseline compared to WT controls (Figure 4B-F and

S4). Following *Mtb* infection, MCs accumulated progressively in the lungs of both WT and

CgKitW^{sh} mice up to 100 dpi, after which their numbers stabilized through 150 dpi. In contrast,

MC accumulation was significantly impaired in *CgKitW^{sh}* mice throughout infection (Figure

4A). At 50 dpi, RMs were elevated in *CgKitW^{sh}* mice, with no significant difference observed

in DCs or neutrophils compared to WT mice (Figure 4B). By 100 dpi, both DCs and neutrophils

were decreased in *CgKitW^{sh}* mice; however, these changes were not sustained at 150 dpi

(Figure 4C-D). Across all time points, AMs and monocyte populations remained comparable

between *CgKitW^{sh}* and WT *Mtb*-infected mice (Figure 4E-F). Previous studies have implicated

MCs in driving T cell responses (Elieh Ali Komi & Grauwet, 2018), therefore, we next

examined T cell responses induced post-infection. We found no differences in the activated

CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cell responses at 50 dpi however, by 100 dpi, both populations were

significantly reduced at 100 dpi in *CgKitW^{sh}* *Mtb*-infected mice (Figure S5A and E). This

reduction extended to functional subsets, with fewer CD4$^+$ T cells producing IFNγ, as well as

diminished dual TNF-α and IFNγ producing cells in the *CgKitW^{sh} Mtb*-infected mice as

compared to WT *Mtb*-infected mice (Figure S5B-D). We did not find any significant

differences in the CD8$^+$ T cells producing IFNγ, TNF-α, and dual IFNγ and TNF-α producing

cells in the *CgKitW^{sh} Mtb*-infected mice (Figure S5F-H). Finally, we measured cytokine

responses in the lungs of *CgKitW^{sh}* and WT *Mtb*-infected mice at 150 dpi. We found that pro-

inflammatory cytokines that direct monocyte/macrophage and T cell responses (G-CSF, IFNγ,

IL-1β, IL-6, IL-17, MCP-1, TNF-α, and RANTES) were significantly lower in *CgKitW^{sh} Mtb*-

infected lungs compared to WT *Mtb*-infected lungs. Similarly, chemokines driving neutrophil

recruitment (MIP-1β, and MIP-2) were reduced in *CgKitW^{sh} Mtb*-infected mice, whereas Th2

cytokines such as IL-13 did not differ between the two groups (Figure 4G). Together, these

results provide evidence that MCs are induced following *Mtb* infection, accumulate in the lung,

and mediate immune responses that drive pathology and promote *Mtb* susceptibility and

dissemination during chronic TB.

Transfer of MCs into lung airways promotes neutrophil accumulation and *Mtb*

dissemination.

To examine whether MCs can impact *Mtb* control and dissemination, we adoptively transferred

bone marrow-derived MCs into the airways of WT mice, hereafter referred to as B6^{MC} mice.

A total of 5x10^4 MCs were transferred, approximating the number of MCs present in the lungs

of WT *Mtb*-infected mice at 100 dpi. Following transfer, mice were infected with *Mtb,* and

we found that MCs were retained in the lungs of B6^{MC} *Mtb*-infected mice up to 30 dpi (Figure

5A). Strikingly, B6^{MC} *Mtb*-infected mice showed increased neutrophils frequencies and

reduced RMs when compared with B6 *Mtb*-infected mice (Figure 5B, and C). However, no

differences in the total numbers of lung MCs, neutrophils, RMs or DCs were observed in B6

and B6^{MC} groups (Figure S6). While the presence of additional MCs in the lungs did not alter

the bacterial burden (*Mtb* CFU) and inflammation in the lungs, B6^{MC} *Mtb*-infected mice

showed a significant increase in the *Mtb* CFUs in the spleen, suggesting a role for MCs in

promoting dissemination from the lungs (Figure 5D-F). Consistently, histological analysis

revealed greater neutrophil infiltration in lung sections of B6^{MC} *Mtb*-infected mice compared

to WT *Mtb*-infected mice (Figure 5G and H), implicating MCs in driving neutrophil

recruitment and potentially enhancing the systemic spread of *Mtb*.

Discussion

The immune mechanism(s) that mediate the progression from LTBI to PTB are unclear. In this

study, we identified MCs as an innate cell type that is overrepresented during PTB,

transcriptionally expressed signatures associated with IFNγ, oxidative phosphorylation, and

MYC signaling, and localized within mature TB granulomas. Importantly, using mice deficient

in MCs, we showed a potential pathological role for MCs in mediating susceptibility to TB,

thus providing MCs as a novel therapeutic target.

MCs have been shown to interact with *Mtb* through the GPI-anchored molecule CD48 (Munoz

et al., 2003), interaction with TLR2 (Carlos et al., 2007), and potentially TLR4 (McCurdy et

al., 2001). Additionally, *Mtb* is also thought to be internalized by lipid rafts on MCs (Munoz

et al., 2009), thus serving as a long-lasting reservoir for *Mtb* (da Silva et al., 2014). These in

vitro studies have shown that MC exposure to *Mtb* results in degranulation of MCs, as well as

the induction of proinflammatory cytokines such as TNF-α and IL-1β. Consistently, another

study using the same route of high-dose infection reported increased bacterial burden in both

the lungs and spleen of MC-deficient Kit^W-sh/W-sh mice compared to wild-type C57BL/6

controls (Villareal-Rivota et al., 2025). While these studies using a high-dose model of

infection reported early induction of inflammatory mediators from MC within hours to days,

our in vivo results using a physiological low dose of *Mtb* infection model showed that MCs

accumulated between 21-30 days, coinciding with the onset of T cells in the lung. Interestingly,

despite the accumulation of MCs in the lung at 30 dpi following low-dose aerosol infection,

the impact of MC deficiency on *Mtb* control and inflammation in *CgKitW^{sh}* mice was not

evident until 100 dpi. This is similar to our published studies where we found that S100A8/9

deficiency resulted in reduced neutrophil lung accumulation (Scott et al., 2020), resulting in

improved *Mtb* control and improved TB disease, but after 100 dpi. However, this is in contrast

to the role of eosinophils in TB, as eosinophil deficiency resulted in increased *Mtb* CFU

(Bohrer et al., 2021). MCs were the primary innate cell type that were defective in the lungs

of *CgKitW^{sh}* mice at baseline and throughout infection, and their absence was associated with

better containment of *Mtb* in both lung and spleen, indicating a pathological role for MCs

during chronic TB.

Our data also showed that MCs accumulated in the lungs of C57BL/6 mice from 50 to 100 dpi,

after which their numbers stabilized. This increased accumulation of MCs during chronic

infection coincided with elevated infiltration of DCs and neutrophils. Importantly, we showed

that enhancing MCs numbers through adoptive transfer in the lungs of WT *Mtb*-infected mice

similarly promoted neutrophil accumulation and facilitated *Mtb* dissemination. This suggests

that MCs are not merely a consequence of chronic inflammation, but active modulators capable

of shaping immune cell dynamics early in infection. When present in sufficient numbers, MCs

with their ability to promote neutrophil recruitment, can potentially influence the balance of

protective versus pathological inflammation during TB. These results raise the possibility that

MC accumulation during chronic infection serves to fine-tune the composition of the innate

immune compartment in the lung. Whether this regulation is beneficial or detrimental to host

control of *Mtb* remains to be explored. However, our data suggested that manipulating MC

responses may offer a novel avenue for modulating immune dynamics in TB, particularly in

the chronic phase, where inflammation must be tightly regulated to prevent tissue damage.

Additionally, the reduced inflammation observed at 150 dpi is associated with decreased levels

of proinflammatory cytokines and chemokines that recruit monocytes/macrophages, and T

cells, and neutrophils. Overall, based on our results along with the current literature, we

propose pathological roles for neutrophils and MCs, while other granulocytes, such as

eosinophils, may mediate protective roles (Bohrer et al., 2021).

MCs can release cytokines and chemokines, antimicrobial peptides, and granules upon

pathogen sensing and to control pathogens (Naqvi et al., 2017; Naqvi et al., 2021; Naqvi et al.,

2020). In the context of *Mtb* exposure, MCs have been shown to undergo degranulation,

including histamine and β-hexosaminidase (Munoz et al., 2003). Indeed, histamine-deficient

mice showed decreased neutrophils, as well as proinflammatory cytokine production following

Mtb infection (Carlos et al., 2009). Additionally, induction of degranulation following

intratracheal *Mtb* infection resulted in reduced proinflammatory cytokines as well as reduced

lung inflammation. Similarly, our study showed reduced DCs, neutrophils, and CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$

T cell responses, in the lungs of MC-deficient *Mtb*-infected mice, along with reduced

proinflammatory cytokines and lung inflammation at chronic time points. Thus, together with

published work, MCs can potentially modulate neutrophils and other inflammatory mediators

in high-dose models, as well as in a physiologically relevant *Mtb* infection model, leading to

disease pathology. The exact mechanism by which MCs contribute to the pathology,

dissemination, and promote *Mtb* infection is an area of future investigation.

At baseline, human lungs have been reported to primarily express tryptase (Poto et al., 2022).

Indeed, we found that this is true for both macaque and human lungs in our study, where healthy

lungs expressed MC$_T$s. Additionally, we found that early granulomas and in LTBI we saw

expression of MC$_{TC}$s with a switch to more and accumulation of MC$_C$s in late-stage

granulomas. Chymase expression may modulate extracellular matrix components (ECM) such

as fibronectin, leading to tissue remodeling, impacting cellular communication, and inducing

cleavage for key cytokines such as IL-6, IL-13, IL-15, and IL-33, as well as TGF-β. (Pejler,

2020; Waern et al., 2013). Studies have shown that tryptase can induce proliferation of

fibroblasts, epithelial cells, and smooth muscle cells, causing airway remodeling during

diseased conditions (Mogren et al., 2021). Tryptase can also inactivate a large range of peptides

by cleaving specific substrates, such as fibrinogen, gelatin, pro-matrix metalloproteinases

(MMP), and complement factors, thus moderating inflammatory responses (Caughey, 2007).

Based on our results from human and macaque lung, we hypothesize that MC$_{TCS}$ may synergize

to drive responses induced by both pathways at early time points and possibly just by MC$_{CS}$ at

later time points. Additional studies describing these subsets and testing their functional

relevance in *in vivo* models are future steps in delineating the role of these subsets in TB.

Single-cell transcriptomic analysis revealed a differential activation state between the MCs that

accumulate in lungs in PTB as compared to LTBI and HC in NHPs (Esaulova et al., 2021).

The MCs from PTB animals showed a closer resemblance to MC$_{CS,}$ characterized by higher

IFNγ, metabolic activation, and chymase signatures, confirming that chymase expression is

associated with disease severity. This association of chymase expression with disease severity

was confirmed in an independent single-cell lung dataset (Gideon et al., 2022), where the

analysis revealed similar enrichment of chymase-expressing MC$_{CS}$ in granulomas with higher

disease burden, accompanied by similar activation of IFN-γ and metabolic pathways.

Metabolic activation of oxidative phosphorylation, as observed here, has been associated with

activated MCs, and inhibiting mitochondrial ATP production reduced MC degranulation and

cytokine production (Paruchuru et al., 2022; Sharkia et al., 2017). This also suggests that MCs,

which accumulate in the lungs in LTBI and HC, were not only lower in proportion but also less

activated, meaning that TB-induced activation of MCs contributes to their pathogenic

phenotype in disease. Our data aligned with previous observations by Garcia-Rodriguez *et al.,*

2021, showing that chymase-expressing MCs accumulate in TB-induced lung lesions and may

contribute to fibrotic processes surrounding granulomas (Garcia-Rodriguez et al., 2021). We

also observed an expansion of MC_{TCS} in the PTB group in NHPs, mirroring the phenotypic

shift from MC_{CT} to MC_{TC} seen in human lung sections. While Garcia-Rodriguez *et al.* suggested

this shift occurs in fibrotic areas and may reflect tissue remodeling, they did not demonstrate

improved lung function. Although fibrosis was not directly measured in our study, these

findings support the association of chymase-positive MCs with advanced, inflammatory

disease, reinforcing their potential role in TB pathogenesis.

MCs are known to gear towards a Th2 signature with increased chymase expression (Toru et

al., 1998). This increase was reflected in MCs from the macaque lung, showing a high

transcriptomic Th2 signature in PTB but not in clusters found in LTBI and HC. In essence,

transcriptomics reflected the hyperactivated nature of the MCs in PTB, which might make them

more pathological during infection. Although our *in vivo* mouse study showed a pathological

role of MCs, significant secretion of Th2 cytokines was not seen, likely because the C57Bl/6

mouse model is prone towards Th1 polarization (Wakeham et al., 2000). MCs can release both

preformed and de novo synthesized TNF-α, hence helping in early bacterial clearance (Gordon

& Galli, 1991). Similarly, our study showed that the MCs from HC and LTBI individuals

expressed higher levels of TNF-α and were in a less metabolically activated state (lower

OXPHOS signature). So, additional studies will help in elucidating the mechanism through

which MCs mediate pathological roles.

In summary, we demonstrated that the accumulation of chymase-producing MCs in PTB is a

cross-species phenomenon that contributes to increased TB pathology and loss of TB control,

thereby elucidating the pathological role of MCs in the control of *Mtb* infection. By targeting

MC pathways or signaling mechanisms, host-directed therapies (HDTs) hold the promise of

enhancing the effectiveness of existing treatments and mitigating disease-related

complications.

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Authors Contributions

S.A.K. supervised all aspects of the study. A.G. and V.T. share co-authorship. A.G., V.T.

designed, performed experiments, and analyzed data. A.G., V.T., and A.A. constructed figures

and analyzed data. J.R.M., N.N., Y.T., M.A., and K.S.C. curated data/contributed resources

and/or data analysis. A.G., V.T., and S.A.K. wrote the original draft of the manuscript. S.A.K.,

A.G., V.T., A.A., and N.N. reviewed and edited the manuscript. J.Z. provided the human

specimens. D.K. provided the NHP specimen, and D.K. and S.A.K. provided funding. All

authors reviewed, edited, and approved the manuscript.

Competing interests.

The authors declare no competing interests.

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744

  Figure legends

Figure 1. Chymase positive MCs are predominant in TB infected human and macaque

lung tissue. Lung biopsies from healthy individuals (n = 4) or patients with PTB (n = 5) were

stained for tryptase MC_T (green) or chymase MC_C (red). (A) Immunofluorescence microscopy

shows MC_{TS} (green) in healthy lung biopsies (HC). MC_{TCS} (red and green merge) are located

around the early granulomas, while MC_{CS} (red) surround the late granulomas in TB infected

lung biopsies. (B) Predominance of MC_{TS} in healthy lungs transitioning to MC_{TCS} in early

granuloma and becoming MC_{CS} in late granulomas in TB infected lungs. (C)

Immunofluorescence microscopy shows MC_{TS} (green) and MC_{TCS} (merge) in lungs of healthy

(HC), LTBI and PTB macaques. (D) Predominance of MC_{TS} (green) and MC_{TCS} (merge) in

PTB compared to LTBI and HC. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired, 2-tailed

Student's t test, **** $p < 0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 2. MC signatures across disease conditions in NHPs. Data was re-analyzed from the

lungs of *M. mulatta* infected with *Mtb CDC1551* (GSE200151). (A) Schematic of the study

design across disease conditions (B) UMAP embedding of *FCER1A+* mast cells, showing the

distribution of these cells across the different disease conditions (PTB in pink, HC in green,

and LTBI in blue). (C) Heatmap of Hallmark pathway analysis for differentially expressed

genes, highlighting the top pathways with the highest FDR values for each condition. (D-G)

UCell module for pathways: IFNγ signaling (D), TNF-α signaling (E), Oxidative

Phosphorylation (F), and Th2 signature (G) across disease conditions, shown on UMAP

embeddings. (H) Violin plots of gene expression for key MC markers (*CMA1*, *TPSG1*,

LOC699599) across disease conditions. (I) Cell counts of different MC subtypes (MC_C, MC_T,

MC_{TC}) across disease conditions (PTB, red bars, LTBI, blue bars, and HC green bars). (J)

UMAP plot of the NHP lung granuloma dataset (GSE200151), showing the distribution of cells

at 4 weeks (high disease burden) and 10 weeks (low disease burden) in *M. fasicularis* infected

with *Mtb Erdman*. (K) Gene expression violin plots for key MC markers (*CMA1*, *TPSG1*,

LOC699599) from the new dataset across time points. (L) Proportions of different MC subtypes

(MC_C, MC_T, MC_{TC}). (M) Violin plots of summed module scores for the key pathways (IFNγ

signaling, TNF-α signaling, oxidative phosphorylation) across disease burdens, showing

pathway activity. Statistical significance was assessed using Kruskal-Wallis tests with Dunn's

multiple comparison correction (**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$).

Figure 3: MC-deficient mice are resistant to *Mtb* chronic infection.

(A) C57BL/6 and CgKitW^{sh} mice were infected with a low aerosol dose (~100CFU) of *Mtb*

HN878 and mice were sacrificed at 50, 100 and 150 dpi. (B) Bacterial burden was assessed in

lungs and spleens by plating. (C) Lungs were harvested, fixed in formalin and embedded in

paraffin. H&E staining was carried out for blinded and unbiased analysis of histopathology.

(D) Representative images and the area of inflammation measured in each lobe are shown.

Scale bars: 2mm. Original magnification: ×20. Data points represent the mean ± SD of two

experiments (*n* = 8-15 per time point per group). Statistical analysis was performed using

unpaired, 2-tailed Student's t test between C57BL/6 and *CgKitW^{sh}* mice, **** $p < 0.0001$, ***

$p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure 4: MC-deficient mice have dysregulated immune profile after *Mtb* infection.

C57BL/6 and *CgKitW^{sh}* mice were infected with a low aerosol dose (~100CFU) of *Mtb* HN878

and mice were sacrificed at 50, 100 and 150 dpi. Number of (A) MCs, (B) DCs (C) RMs, (D)

neutrophils (E)AMs, and (F) monocytes were enumerated in the lungs of *Mtb*-infected mice.

(G) Cytokine and chemokine production in lung homogenates from mice, collected at 150 dpi,

was assessed by multiplex cytokine analysis. Data points represent the mean ± SD of 1 of 2

individual experiments (n = 4-10 per time point per group). Statistical analysis was performed

using unpaired, 2-tailed Student's t test for (A) to (F) and Two-way ANOVA Sidak's multiple

comparison test for (G) between C57BL/6 and *CgKitW^{sh}* mice, *** p < 0.0001, ** p < 0.001,

* p< 0.05. Outliers were removed from the subsets using Grubb's outlier test.

Figure 5: Wild-type mice with airway transferred MCs promote bacterial dissemination.

Bone marrow derived in vitro cultured MCs (5×10^4 cells/mouse) were adoptively transferred

into the lung airways of C57BL/6 mice 7 days before infecting with a low aerosol dose

(~100CFU) of *Mtb* HN878. MCs were replenished in these mice at 15 dpi, and mice were

sacrificed at 30 dpi. Frequencies of (A) MCs, (B) neutrophils, and (C) RMs were enumerated

in the lungs of *Mtb*-infected mice. Bacterial burden was assessed in (D) lungs and (E)spleens

by plating. (F) Lungs were harvested, fixed in formalin, and embedded in paraffin. H&E

staining was carried out for blinded and unbiased analysis of histopathology. (G)

Immunofluorescence microscopy shows more neutrophil infiltration in the lungs of MC-

transferred WT mice. (H) Ly6G$^+$ cells per area of lung granuloma measured in each lobe are

shown. Scale bars: 2mm. Original magnification: ×20. Data points represent the mean ± SD.

Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, 2-tailed Student's t test between the

groups, **** p < 0.0001, *** p < 0.001, * p< 0.05.

Figure S1: Predominance of MC$_T$s in human and NHPs lung interstitium, blood vessels

and bronchi. Healthy lung tissue and TB infected biopsies from human and NHP samples

were stained for MC$_T$ (green), MC$_C$ (red). Accumulation and localization of (A) MC$_T$s, (B)

MC$_{CS,}$ and (C) MC$_{TCS}$ in healthy and TB infected human lung, and (D) MC$_T$s and (E) MC$_{TCS}$

in LTBI and TB macaque lungs. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired, 2-tailed

Student's t test, *** p < 0.0001, ** p < 0.001, * p< 0.05.

Figure S2: Immune cell marker expression and pathway analysis across disease conditions. Data was re-analyzed from the lungs of NHPs (GSE200151). (A) UMAP embeddings of MCs showing expression of cell surface markers: *FCER1A*, *MS4A2*, *CD48*, and *ITGAX* across identified clusters. (B) Dot plot showing the expression levels of select genes across clusters, where the dot size represents the percentage of cells expressing each gene, and the color intensity represents the average expression level. (C) Violin plot of summed module scores for IFNγ signaling, Oxidative Phosphorylation (D), TNF-α signaling (E), Th2 signature (F) pathway across different disease conditions: LTBI/HC (green), PTB (pink), and the respective clusters. (G) UMAP embeddings show the expression of key MC markers, including *TPSG1*, *LOC699599*, and *CMA1* across identified clusters, with color intensity indicating expression levels. Statistical significance was assessed using Kruskal-Wallis tests with Dunn's multiple comparison correction (**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$, ns: not significant).

Figure S3: MCs appear at early *Mtb* infection. C57BL/6 mice were infected with a low aerosol dose (~100CFU) of *Mtb* HN878 and mice were sacrificed at 5, 21and 30 dpi. (A) The number of MCs in the lungs was enumerated in *Mtb*-infected mice. (B) Bacterial burden was assessed by plating. Data points represent the mean ± SD (n = 4-5 per time point). Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, 2-tailed Student's t test between time points, *** $p < 0.0001$, ** $p < 0.001$, * $p < 0.05$.

Figure S4: MC-deficient mice have no baseline differences in T cell numbers.

Six weeks C57BL/6 mice and *CgKitW^{sh}* mice were sacrificed to enumerate baseline numbers of (A) CD4$^+$ T cells, and (B) CD8$^+$ T cells. Data points represent the mean ± SD (n = 4-5 per time point).

Figure S5: MC-deficient mice have reduced numbers of activated CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells

in the lung. C57BL/6 and CgKitW^{sh} mice were infected with a low aerosol dose (~100CFU)

of *Mtb* HN878 and mice were sacrificed at 50, 100 and 150 dpi. Number of (A) CD4$^+$ CD44$^+$T

cells, (B) CD4$^+$ CD44$^+$ IFNγ^+ T cells, (C) CD4$^+$ CD44$^+$TNF-α^+ T cells (D) CD4$^+$ CD44$^+$ IFNγ^+

TNF-α^+ T cells, (E) CD8$^+$ CD44$^+$T cells, (F) CD8$^+$ CD44$^+$ IFNγ^+ T cells, (G) CD8$^+$ CD44$^+$

TNF-α^+ T cells, and (H) CD8$^+$ CD44$^+$ IFNγ^+ TNF-α^+ T cells in the lungs of *Mtb* infected mice.

Data points represent the mean ± SD of 1 of 2 individual experiments (n = 4-10 per time point

per group). Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired, 2-tailed Student's t test between

C57BL/6 and CgKitW^{sh} mice, *** $p < 0.0001$, ** $p < 0.001$, * $p< 0.05$. Outliers were removed

from the subsets using Grubb's outlier test.

Figure S6: Lung myeloid cell accumulation did not vary in MC-transferred WT *Mtb*-

infected mice.

Bone marrow derived in vitro cultured MCs (n=50,000 cells per mouse) were adoptively

transferred into the lung airways of WT mice 7 days before infecting with a low aerosol dose

(~100CFU) of *Mtb* HN878. MCs were replenished in these mice at 15 dpi, and mice were

sacrificed at 30 dpi. Numbers of (A) MCs, (B) neutrophils, and (C) RMs were enumerated in

the lungs of *Mtb*-infected mice. Data points represent the mean ± SD of 1 of 2 individual

experiments (n = 4 per group).

Figure 1

Figure 3

Figure 5

Human

NHPs

Figure S1

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6