

Article Original

Intracellular survival of mycobacteria within macrophages : Role of Ca²⁺-dependent signal in *Mycobacterium avium* pathogenesis?

L. STAALI^{1*} and G. GRIFFITHS^{¶2}

¹ Present address : Department of Biotechnology, Faculty of SNV, University of Oran1-Ahmed Ben-Bella, Oran, Algeria.

² Present address : Department of Biosciences, University of Oslo, Oslo, Norway

[¶]European Molecular Biology Laboratories, 69117, Heidelberg, Germany.

ABSTRACT

Background: Pathogenic *Mycobacterium avium* are able to survive intracellularly within host cells defenses after phagocytosis, whereas nonpathogenic strains such as *M. smegmatis* are efficiently killed. In the present study, we attempted to explore the molecular mechanisms by which *M. avium* escape the intracellular killing. We also tried to investigate the effect of changes in cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels on *M. avium* survival, the phagosome-lysosome fusion and the NFκB activation. **Methods:** To explore the invasion mechanism by which the pathogenic bacteria survive inside phagocytic cells as confirmed by killing assays, live and dead *M. avium* were tested by fluorescence microscopy techniques. The hypothesis that calcium levels could play a key role in regulating the immune response during mycobacterial infections, was verified by using Ca²⁺ inhibitors. **Results:** We have shown that following phagocytosis, virulent *M. avium* invade successfully and replicate within host cells. The intracellular survival of this bacterium is not affected by the nitric oxide production. Our results suggest that *M. avium* escape the intraphagosomal killing by blocking the phagosome-lysosome fusion. Furthermore, the NFκB activation is strongly inhibited by *M. avium* by a mechanism which might be in part, regulated by the intracellular Ca²⁺-signaling. **Conclusion:** these findings argue that the virulent *M. avium* strain might escape the intracellular killing within host phagocytes by a mechanism that inhibits the phagosome-lysosome fusion. This process seems to be a Ca²⁺-signaling dependent. Furthermore, the NFκB is efficiently blocked in bacteria-infected macrophages. This should be regulated by a Ca²⁺-dependent pathway. Interestingly, we conclude that mechanisms involved in *M. avium* resistance during mycobacterial infections could be linked and/or regulated by the intracellular Ca²⁺ pathways.

KEYWORDS : Mycobacteria, *M. avium*, Macrophages, Phagocytosis, Fluorescence microscopy.

RESUME :

Introduction : Les mycobactéries pathogènes telles que *Mycobacterium avium* sont des bactéries pathogènes capables de survivre à l'intérieur des cellules cibles de la défense immunitaire après phagocytose. Cependant, les souches non pathogènes telles que *M. smegmatis* sont efficacement tuées. Dans ce présent travail, nous avons essayé d'explorer les mécanismes moléculaires par lesquels *M. avium* échappent la mort intracellulaire. Nous avons également tenté d'étudier l'effet des variations intracellulaires de Ca²⁺ sur la capacité des bactéries de survivre, sur la fusion des phagosomes-lysosomes et enfin sur l'activation du facteur de transcription NFκB. **Méthodes :** afin d'étudier les mécanismes d'invasion par lesquels les bactéries virulentes survivent à l'intérieur des phagocytes, les bactéries vivantes aussi bien que les bactéries mortes sont testées par la technique d'immunofluorescence. L'hypothèse émise suggérant l'éventuel rôle clé du Ca²⁺ dans la régulation des réponses immunes au cours des infections à mycobactéries, a été vérifié en utilisant différents inhibiteurs spécifiques pour le Ca²⁺. **Résultats :** nous avons montré que, après le processus de phagocytose, les souches virulentes de *M. avium* se multiplient efficacement à l'intérieur des cellules cibles infectées. La survie de ces bactéries n'est pas affectée par la production des dérivés toxiques tels que le NO. Nos résultats suggèrent que *M. avium* échappent la dégradation

intraphagosomale en inhibant la fusion des phagosomes-lysosomes. D'autre part, l'activation du NFκB dans les cellules infectées est fortement bloquée par *M. avium* par un mécanisme qui serait en partie, dépendant de la signalisation intracellulaire du Ca²⁺. **Conclusion :** Dans l'ensemble, nos résultats indiquent que les *M. avium* pathogènes sont capables d'échapper la mort intracellulaire par les phagocytes en inhibant la formation des phago-lysosomes ; ce mécanisme semble être Ca²⁺ dépendant. De plus, l'activation du NFκB est efficacement altérée par les souches virulentes, et qui serait probablement régulée par les voies de signalisation intracellulaire du Ca²⁺. En conclusion, le Ca²⁺ joue un rôle critique au cours des infections à mycobactéries ; il semble réguler le mécanisme de résistance développé par les souches virulentes au cours de l'activation des macrophages infectés.

MOTS CLÉS : *Mycobacterium avium*, mort intracellulaire, phago-lysosomes, Ca²⁺

* Corresponding author. Tel: +213 779156399.

E-mailaddress : lstaali1@yahoo.com

1. Introduction :

Mycobacterium avium (*M. avium*) has been one of the most prevalent MAC (*M. avium* complex) species of nontuberculous mycobacteria (NTM) that causes infectious diseases[1]. Mycobacterial infections remain a major cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide in 2013 (WHO) an estimated number of 9.0 million people developed Tuberculosis and 1.5 million people died of this chronic inflammatory disease[2]. Independently, non-tuberculous mycobacterial infections mainly caused by the group of the *M. avium* complex including *M. avium*, *M. intracellulare*, *M. abscessus* and *M. chelonae* are increasing[3]. Infections with atypical mycobacteria are an important health problem for patients with patients with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) [4]. HIV infection predisposes patients to the development of opportunistic infections by virulent mycobacteria. Previous studies [5-6] have shown that the *M. avium* infection may remain latent until the immun system of the individuals has been seriously compromised. *M. avium* bacteria may also infect individuals without apparent predisposing conditions causing chronic lung diseases in non-AIDS infections [7-8-9] such as bronchiectasis. Interestingly, a recent study [10] suggests that MAC infection is an important etiology in patients who present with nodular skin lesions, diarrhea, and fever and patients with MAC infection can have no pulmonary manifestations even in disseminated cases. Recently, it also has been shown [10] that *M. avium* skin and soft tissue infection complicated with scalp osteomyelitis possibly secondary to anti-interferon-γ autoantibody formation. The authors suggest that when NTM infection is detected in an immunocompetent patient, IFN- autoantibodies-associated immunodeficiency should be considered

The bacterium can be acquired both through the intestinal route following ingestion then translocation across the intestinal mucosa and respiratory route by aerosol transmission similar to tuberculosis. *M. avium* is capable of invading mucosal epithelial cells and translocating across the mucosa to infect macrophages interfering with several functions of the host cell[12]. The mechanism by which *M. avium* can invade resting macrophages and resist to antimicrobials are currently unknown. It could be attributed in part, to the structure of a cell wall, which is surrounded by a capsule of noncovalently attached polysaccharides, proteins and a small amount of lipids, which include GPLs and phenolic glycolipids[1]. Another mechanism of resistance observed in *M. avium* is the development of biofilms in the environment, such as in water distribution systems, in medical devices and possibly in human airways [13]. Furthermore, multiple invasion mechanisms can enhance mycobacterial invasion *in vivo* and the absence of one pathway can be compensated by others pathways. A previous work [14] suggested the role of complement in *M. avium* pathogenesis.

The pathways and mechanisms used by activated macrophages to kill *M. avium* are not well known. However, the majority of *M. avium* strain resist to intracellular killing by altering immune responses of host cells such as production of nitrates such as nitric oxide (NO)[15-16]. Subsequent studies have shown that nitrogen intermediates are not involved in the intracellular killing of virulent mycobacteria. Furthermore, among the responses triggered by *M. avium* when invading macrophages are the production of suppressor cytokines growth factor β (TGF-β) such as transforming and IL-10 [17-18]. Consequently, macrophages infected with *M. avium*

become incapable to eliminate the infecting bacteria and fight the infection.

Inflammatory signaling is a central mechanism controlling host defenses against intracellular pathogens which develop several mechanisms to survive in host macrophages. However, how these mechanisms are regulated remains poorly understood. The phagocytosis plays an essential and critical role in host defense strategies and since this event is often triggered by the interaction of target-bound opsonins with specific receptors on the surface of phagocytes, it would activate the host cell by increasing the cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels. The enhanced Ca^{2+} signals were accompanied by enhanced phagolysosome formation [19]. Ca^{2+} is a ubiquitous intracellular messenger controlling a diverse range of cellular processes, such as gene transcription, cell proliferation and apoptosis [20]. Cytosolic Ca^{2+} signaling occurs through both Ca^{2+} release from intracellular stores and Ca^{2+} entry from the extracellular environment. In this context, we tried in the present work to explore the molecular mechanisms involved in *M. avium* pathogenesis. We also attempted to ascertain whether the Ca^{2+} signaling contributed in promoting the intracellular survival, phagolysosome fusion and factor transcription activation.

2. Materials and Methods

Reagents

The following antibodies were used for immunofluorescence microscopy: Anti-mouse LAMP-1 (lysosomal-associated membrane protein 1) was purchased from the Iowa Hybridoma bank. The rabbit iNOS antibody was kindly provided Dr. Michael Marletta (University of Berkeley). For colocalization experiments of LAMP-1, the secondary antibodies were linked with Cy3. The following inhibitors were used SB20358 (Calbiochem), the i-NOS inhibitor L-NAME (N(G)-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester hydrochloride, SKF, 2-ABP (2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate) were from Sigma. The lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Klebsiella* and *E. coli*, ionomycin and INF- γ were from (Sigma). The Oregon-Green was from Molecular Probes.

Cell line and bacterial culture conditions

The mouse macrophages cell line J774A.1 was cultured as described previously [21]. *M. avium**MAC101* and *M. smegmatis* mc2155 harboring a p19 (long-live)-EGFP plasmid were grown in the Middlebrook 7H11 culture medium (BD Life Sciences) supplemented with 0.5% glucose and 0.05% Tween 80 at 37°C on a shaker at 220 r.p.m until the culture reached an optimal density (OD_{600}) = 0.1, as previously described [22].

Macrophage infection

Bacterial cultures in exponential growth phase were pelleted, washed in PBS pH 7.4, and re-suspended in DEMEM medium. Clumps of bacteria were removed by ultrasonic treatment of bacteria suspensions in an ultrasonic water bath for 15 min followed by a low speed centrifugation for 2 min. A single cell suspension was verified by light microscopy as described previously [22].

J774 cells were seeded onto 24 well tissue culture plates at a density of 0.5×10^5 cells per well and incubated for 2-3 days until 70% of confluency. Confluent cells were infected with bacteria at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10:1 (bacteria/cell) in a complete medium without antibiotics. Cells were allowed to interact with bacteria for 1h infection, then washed extensively with PBS and chased for the different, indicated time points at 37°C.

Colony-forming units (CFU) assays

Macrophages were plated in 24-well plates and infected with live *M. avium* bacteria at different time points. Cells were washed with PBS and lysed with sterilized water containing Triton X100 (0.1%). Quantitative cultures of *M. avium* were performed by 10-fold serial dilutions inoculated on 7H10 agar plates. Ten microliters was plated by triplicate and the number of colonies was counted after 48h and referred as number of colonies (CFU) per milliliter.

Epifluorescence and confocal fluorescence microscopy

For the immunofluorescence confocal microscopy, the non-GFP *M. avium* strain, both live and dead bacteria were labelled with Oregon Green fluorescent probe, as described previously [23]. Cells were fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS at 4°C for 15 min followed by a 45 min incubation at a room

temperature. Subsequently, cells permeabilization, when required, was achieved with a 15 min treatment with 0.1% Triton X100 in PBS containing 0.2% BSA. After blocking with 2% fetal calf serum in 40 mM glycine-PBS, cells were incubated with the primary and secondary antibodies as described previously [21][24]. Fluorescence labelling and viability of mycobacteria were performed as described previously [21]. Cells were mounted with DAKO mounting medium and analyzed by confocal microscopy (Zeiss LSM510).

Nitric oxide experiments

Nitric oxide production by infected macrophages was measured by the Griess reaction following the supplier(s) (Sigma) instructions as previously described [22].

3. Results

Intracellular survival of M. avium in macrophages

M. avium is a pathogenic bacterium which is efficiently phagocytosed by macrophages [24]. To evaluate its survival and replication inside host cells, we infected J774 cells and followed the colony-forming units (cfu) over the time course of the infection. We found that, in contrast to *M. smegmatis* which were killed within 48h [22], *M. avium* could replicate and survive up to 5 days inside macrophages as observed in Figure 1a. This suggests that the pathogenic bacteria could escape the intraphagosomal killing by a mechanism which could be regulated by cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels, as it has been reported [19]. To verify this hypothesis, we tested the effect of ionomycin on the survival assays. Interestingly, we found that the ability of the pathogenic bacterium to survive and multiply inside macrophages was significantly decreased as shown in Figure 1b. They were efficiently killed within 2-3 days. It seems that pathogenic bacteria after invading host cells, they alter the Ca^{2+} signal triggered in activated macrophages.

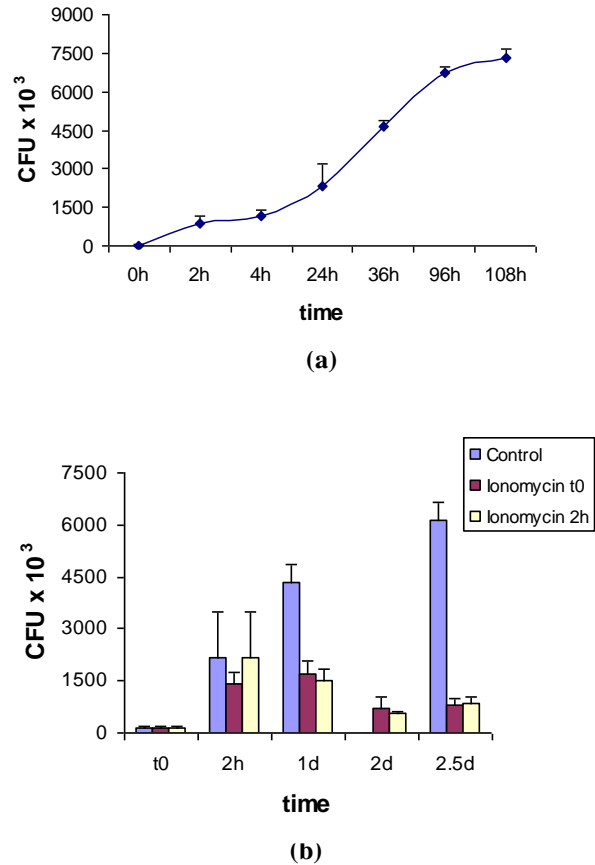


Figure 1: Intracellular survival of *M. avium* in J774 macrophages. J774 macrophages were infected with *M. avium* at MOI=10 :1 (bac/cell) for 1h and chased at the indicated time points (a). Ionomycin (0.1 nM) was added to infected cells at To and 2h of chasing (b).

Actin polymerization during phagocytosis

By the use of fluorescence confocal microscopy techniques, we attempted to verify the phagocytosis and follow the actin polymerization during the phagocytosis process using rhodamine-phalloidin [21]. For this experiment, *M. avium* bacteria were labelled with Oregon green () before we allowed their interaction with J774 macrophages. As shown in Figure 2, the labelled actin could be clearly seen around the phagosomes containing bacteria. The assembly of actin is required for the phagosome formation to ingest either pathogenic or non-pathogenic bacteria by macrophages [22].

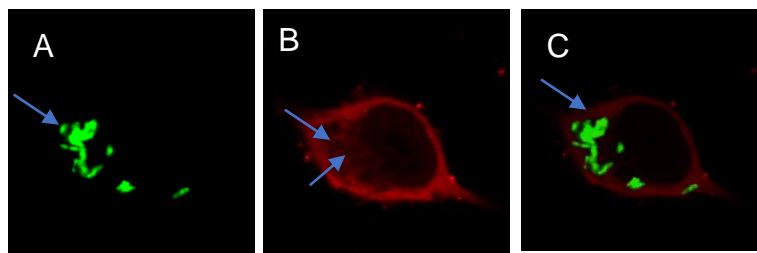
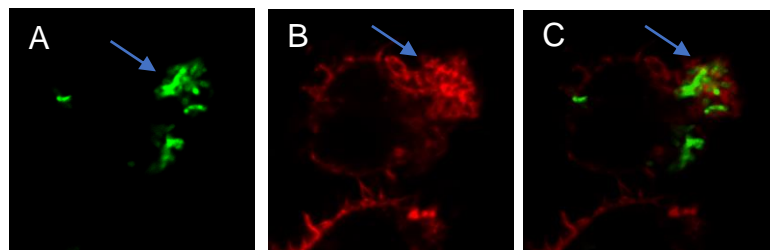


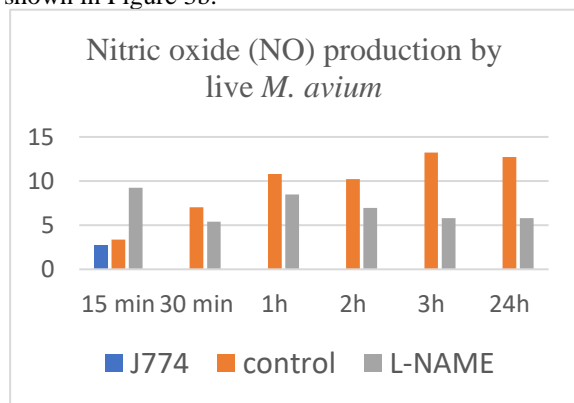
Figure 2 : Actin polymerization in infected J774 macrophages with *M. avium*. J774 macrophages were infected with oregon-green labelled bacteria(A). Cells were pretreated with rhodamine-phalloidin (B) before their interaction with bacteria. The colocalization of phagosomes surrounded by actin (red) with bacteria (green) (C) is observed after 1h infection.



(b)

Nitric oxide production by M. avium-infected cells

The ability of *M. avium*-infected macrophages to produce the nitric oxide (NO) was verified at different timepoints of infection. As shown in Figure 3a, the rate of NO production was increasing over the time course of infection comparing to non-infected J774 macrophages. The NO production was significantly inhibited by adding L-NAME, a potent blocker of the inducing NO synthase (iNOS), responsible of NO production. Despite the NO production by activated macrophages, *M. avium* could resist to the intra-phagosomal killing by NO. The latest was induced by the iNOS, an active cytosolic enzyme which was detected by immunofluorescence using a specific antibody as shown in Figure 3b.



(a)

Figure 3 : Nitric oxide production by infected J774 macrophages with *M. avium*. Rate of NO production byinfected J774 macrophages with bacteria (10:1) in the absence and presence of L-NAME (500 μ M) (a). Theactivated iNOS is localized within cytosol (red) around the ingested Oregon-Green labeled *M. avium* (green) (b).

M. avium inhibits phagosome-lysosome fusion

We have previously [22]demonstrated that the non-pathogenic *M. smegmatis*bacteriaare efficiently killed once they are inside macrophages. This was enhanced by the phagosome-lysosome fusion as detected by the colocalization of both markers red/green (merge) by indirect immunofluorescence technique (Figure 4 B-C). In parallel, we tried in the present study to verify whether the pathogenic *M. avium* bacteria affect this event during phagocytosis process. For these experiments, we infected J774 macrophages with live Oregon-Green *M. avium* (10:1) for 1h incubation then chased for 2h. After fixation and permeabilization, infected cells were labeled with antibody against LAMP1 used as a marker for lysosomes (red). As results, we do confirm that in contrast to non-pathogenic bacteria, *M. avium* bacteria block the phagosome-lysosome fusion as detected.

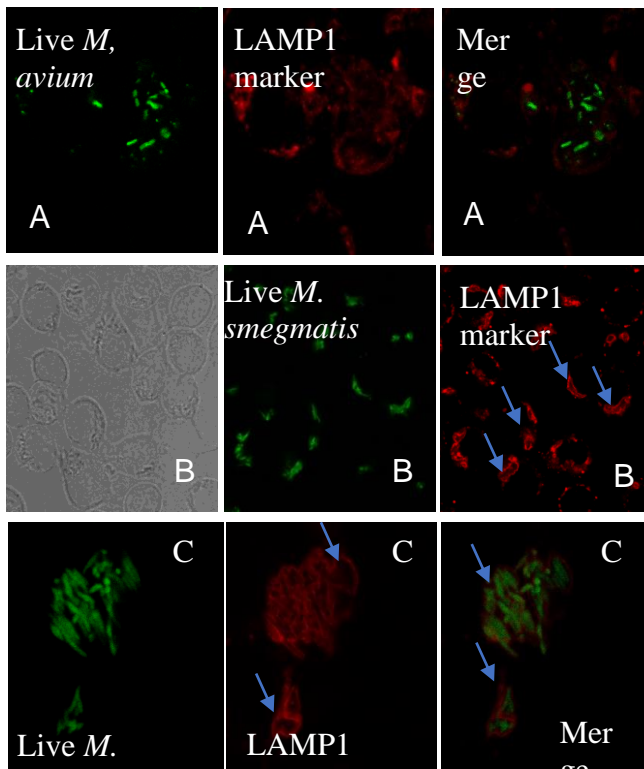


Figure 4 : Phagosome-lysosome fusion in infected J774 macrophages with mycobacteria. (A) J774 macrophages were infected for 1h and chased for 2h with live Oregon-Green labelled *M. avium* (green) (10:1). Indirect immunofluorescence assay confirms the phagosome (green)-lysosome (red) inhibition; no colocalization observed (merge). (B)(C-zoom) J774 cells were infected with live GFP*-*M. smegmatis* (10:1) (green). Indirect immunofluorescence assays confirm the colocalization (merge) of phagosome containing non-pathogenic bacteria with lysosomes (LAMP1 marker, red).

Ca²⁺ effect on phagosome-lysosome fusion

Since the intracellular survival of *M. avium* within macrophages was modulated by cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels, we attempted to verify whether the phagosome-lysosome fusion is a mechanism Ca^{2+} -dependent. This was achieved by testing the effect of 0.1 nM ionomycin on both dead and live bacteria-infected macrophages. Interestingly, our results are consistent with previous reports[19], which strongly suggested a key role of $[Ca^{2+}]$ in enhancing the phagolysosome maturation

As shown in Figure 5, it seems that only live bacteria were able to inhibit the Ca^{2+} -signal, and consequently, the phagosome-lysosome fusion was blocked.

Whereas, dead bacteria did not affect the Ca^{2+} -signal but the latest was significantly abolished when the Ca^{2+} blocker (2-ABP) was added during the macrophages infection with bacteria.

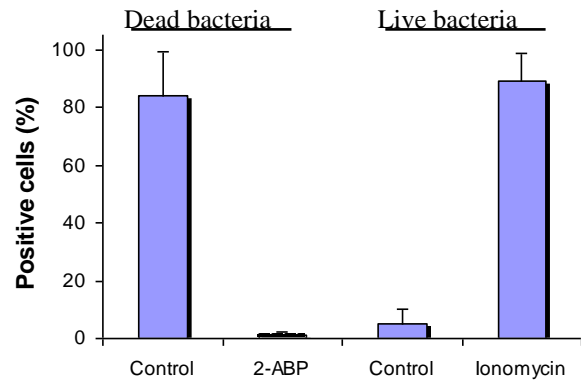


Figure 5 : Phagosome-lysosome fusion in J774 macrophages infected with dead or live bacteria. J774 cells were infected with either dead or live Oregon-Green labelled *M. avium* (10:1) for 1h then chased for 2h. Positive cells are expressed by the (%) of cells having both marker (phagosome-lysosome) colocalized.

M. avium infection inhibits the NF- κ B activation

Previous work[24] reported the key role of NF κ B during mycobacterial infections. According to the authors, pathogenic *M. avium* bacteria blocked significantly the activation of NF κ B by inhibiting its translocation into the nucleus. This was verified in the present study by indirect immunofluorescence technique. As shown in Figure 6, live Oregon-Green labelled *M. avium* blocked totally the translocation of NF κ B from the cytosol into the nucleus (B-C). However, a clear translocation of NF κ B into the nucleus was observed (A) when the LPS from *E. coli* was used to activate J774 macrophages.

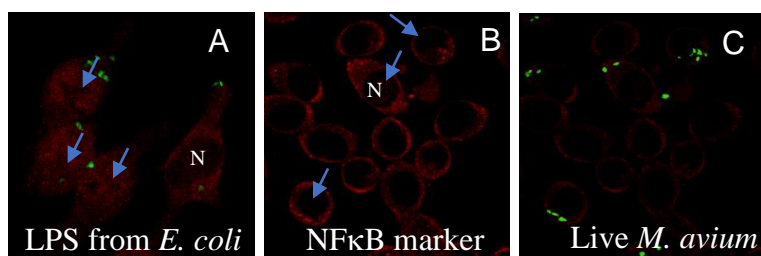
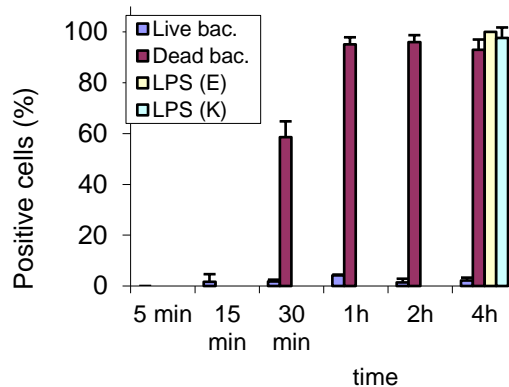


Figure 6 : Activation/inhibition of NFκB in macrophages. Translocation of NFκB into the nucleus is detected with a specific antibody (red)

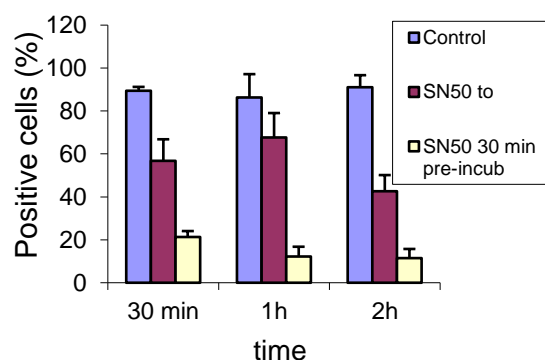
Regulation of NFKB activation : role of Ca²⁺-signal.

The activation or inhibition of NFκB during mycobacterial infections was investigated by fluorescence microscopy technique as previously described[22][24]. In Figure 7a, we observe that only live pathogenic *M. avium* bacteria were able to inhibit the translocation on NFκB into the nucleus. As results, the activation of NFκB is repressed only by live bacteria which were able to block the Ca²⁺-signal in previous experiments. In comparison, the activity of NFκB was greater when macrophages were infected with dead bacteria or activated with LPS from *E. coli* or *Klebsiella*. In contrast to live bacteria, dead bacteria were able to activate the NFκB in macrophages which was significantly blocked by the potent inhibitor, SN50, as shown in Figure 7b. Furthermore, when macrophages were infected with dead bacteria, the higher activity of NFκB obtained at different time of incubation with Ca²⁺ blockers such as 2-ABP and SKF, was almost completely inhibited (Figure 7c).

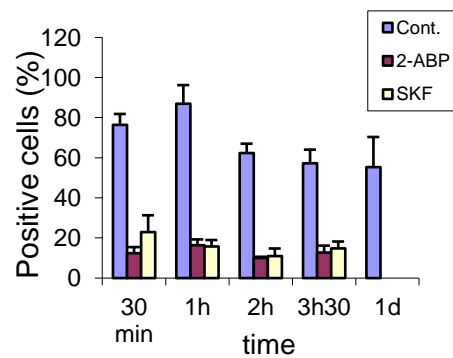
These findings are consistent with our results suggesting the key role of Ca²⁺ in regulating the cellular functions of infected macrophages. Finally, the role of Ca²⁺ levels in mediating cellular responses against pathogens, was confirmed by using live *M. avium* bacteria to infect macrophages in the presence of ionomycin. As presented in Figure 7d, a strong increase in NFκB activity when ionomycin increases the cytosolic Ca²⁺ level. These findings argue the hypothesis that a Ca²⁺-promotes signal transduction which might increase phagocytosis, phagolysosome fusion in cascade activity of NFκB activation.



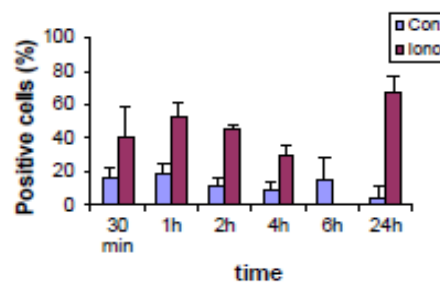
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

Figure 7: Regulation of NFκB activation: Role of Ca²⁺ signal. Percentage (%) of positive cells with NFκB translocation once macrophages are activated with (a) different activators (b) dead bacteria in the absence and the presence of SN50, a potent inhibitor of NFκB (c) dead bacteria in the absence and the presence of potent Ca²⁺ blockers (2-ABP, SKF) (d) live bacteria in the absence and the presence of ionomycin at different time points

4. Discussion

We have previously reported [21] that are efficiently killed after macrophages infection. The mechanism of killing involves the phagosome-lysosome fusion, the nitric production and NFκB activation. Another mechanism of killing by human macrophages has been reported [25], providing evidence that cell autophagy plays a key role in the control of mycobacterial infections. This process may prove a critical mycobactericidal effector mechanism utilized by phagocytes. In contrast, the pathogenic *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* a potent human pathogen by evading the host cellular immune system. They preferentially infect tissue macrophages and blood monocytes where they can replicate intracellularly within phagosomes after internalization. They inhibit efficiently acidification of the phagosome and subsequently prevent the phagosome-lysosome fusion [26-27-28]. This process, is critical for *M. tuberculosis* persistence in human populations. Previous reports [29] have demonstrated that the mechanism responsible for the failure of Ca²⁺-dependent phagosome-lysosome fusion by *M. tuberculosis* involved mycobacterial inhibition of human macrophage sphingosine kinase. Thus, inhibition of sphingosine kinase directly contributes to the intracellular survival and represent a novel molecular mechanism of *Mtb* pathogenesis. Furthermore, the hallmark feature of *M. tuberculosis* is its complex lipid rich cell wall that plays a key role in structural stability and permeability of the cell wall. It is also involved in inhibiting phagosome-lysosome fusion during the pathogenic process [30]. In this context, we were interested in the present study to explore the mechanism by which the virulent *Mycobacterium avium* strain could escape the intracellular killing within host cells. In accordance with previous studies [15][17][24], we found that *M. avium* bacteria were internalized efficiently into host cells by phagocytosis. During this process, an actin polymerization was observed by immunofluorescence microscopy. A process which

is highly activated during phagocytosis [21]. Interestingly, *M. avium* was able to survive and multiply within macrophages after infection despite the iNOS activation and NO production by infected *M. avium* macrophages. It is well known [22] that toxic reactive oxygen intermediates like nitrite oxide are very efficient to eradicate and kill a number of bacteria species once they are into phagosomes. In addition, the killing assays results obtained in the present work indicated clearly, that the intracellular survival of the pathogenic strain was significantly blocked when the cytosolic Ca²⁺ concentration was increased in the presence of ionomycin. The latest was used as an activator for Ca²⁺ influx [31]. Consequently, we thought that a Ca²⁺-dependent mechanism could be involved during the phagocytosis process in mycobacteria infected macrophages. It has already been reported [19] that the enhanced Ca²⁺-signals were accompanied by enhanced phagolysosome fusion, leading to a better understanding of the role of increased Ca²⁺ signals in promoting phagocytosis and phagolysosomal fusion.

The ability of *M. avium* bacteria to escape the intracellular killing is likely due to the inhibition of their maturation into phagolysosomes in which they reside. This was confirmed by fluorescence confocal microscopy data. The hypothesis that the phagosome-lysosome fusion could be a Ca²⁺-dependent signaling was supported by several reports [32-33] suggesting that intracellular Ca²⁺ participates in phagolysosome formation. During phagocytosis process, the host phagocytes were rapidly activated and significant changes in intracellular free calcium levels were observed which were associated with signal transduction events and multiple functions; including activation of cellular kinases and phosphatases, degranulation, phagosome-lysosome fusion and transcription control [20][34]. In this context, we have demonstrated that the phagosome-lysosome fusion was completely blocked by 2-ABP, a potent Ca²⁺ blocker, when macrophages were infected with heat-killed *M. avium*. These findings which are consistent with previous observations, strongly suggest that cytosolic Ca²⁺ might interfere with the virulence of *M. avium*. This evidence is supported by previous work [26-27][29] indicating that [Ca²⁺] levels regulate phagosome-lysosome fusion in *M. tb*-infected macrophages and that mycobacteria viability is a primary determinant of the [Ca²⁺] level.

It has been reported [24][35-36] that the NFκB is mainly involved in the cellular mechanism activation during the immune proinflammatory response against

pathogens. The putative role of this transcription factor was verified during phagocytosis by testing dead and live *M. avium* bacteria. In accordance with a previous study [24] we have found that the NFκB translocation into the nucleus was efficiently blocked by the live virulent strain as confirmed by immunofluorescence assays. Whereas, dead bacteria were able to induce the NFκB activation, a process which was significantly inhibited in the presence of the SN50, a potent blocker of NFκB activation. Furthermore, the NFκB pathway seems to be regulated by changes in cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels, since blocking this event by pharmacological Ca²⁺ blockers, SKF and 2-ABP, strongly reduced the translocation of NFκB into nucleus when dead bacteria were tested. Taken all together, these results support our hypothesis that the NFκB activation by *M. avium* could be a Ca²⁺-dependent pathway as already reported [37]. This was confirmed when live bacteria were tested and compared to the results obtained in the presence of ionomycin, a potent activator of Ca²⁺. Interestingly, the significant inhibition of the NFκB activation by live *M. avium* was restored when ionomycin was added to increase the level of cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels. Taken all together, the findings strongly support the hypothesis that pathogenic *M. avium* might affect the Ca²⁺ signaling pathways after macrophages infection. Finally, we conclude that cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels play a critical role in regulating the cellular and molecular mechanisms activated by the innate and adaptive immune response during mycobacterial infections. Consequently, the host cellular functions which are Ca²⁺-dependent events, were affected in particular, the phagosome-lysosome fusion and the NFκB activation, leading to the sustained intraphagosomal survival of virulent *M. avium*. The mechanism of pathogenic mycobacteria evasion to Ca²⁺-mediated antimicrobial defenses is still poorly understood. Further work should be explored to a better understand.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Stefan Terjung at Advance Light Microscopy Facility (EMBL-Heidelberg) for excellent technical assistance and advice. Michael Marletta generously supplied us with antibodies against iNOS.

Financement : This investigation was supported by the generous funding from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft to G.G and the financial support from the WHO Special Program for Research and Training in Tropical Diseases (TDR) to L.S.

Disclosures : The authors have no financial conflict of interest

5. References

1. Busatto, C.; Vianna, J.S.; Junior, L.V.D.S.; Ramis, I.B.; Eduardo, P. and Almeida da Silva, P.E. *Mycobacterium avium*: an overview. Tuberculosis 2019; 114: 127-134
2. Organization WHO: Global Tuberculosis Report 2014. World Health Organization; 2015.
3. Griffith, D.E.; Aksamit, T.; Brown-Elliott, B.A., Catanzaro, A.; Daley, C.; Gordin, F. *et al.* An official ATS/IDSA statement: diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of nontuberculous mycobacterial diseases. Am.J. Respir. Crit. Care. Med. 2007; 175:367-416.
4. Horssburgh, C.R.; Mason, U.G.; Farhi, D.C. and Isenman, M.D. Disseminated infection with *Mycobacterium avium*-intracellulare. A report of 13 cases and a review of the literature. *Medicine* 1985; 61: 36
5. Collins, L.F.; Clement, M.F. and Stout, J.E. Incidence, long term outcomes, and healthcare utilization of patients with human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immune deficiency syndrome and disseminated *Mycobacterium avium* complex from 1992-2015. *Open Forum Infect. Dis.* 2017; 4(3):1-7
6. Agizew, T.; Basotli, J.; Alexander, H.; Boy, R.; Letsibogo, G.; Auld, A. *et al.* Higher-than-expected prevalence of nontuberculous mycobacteria in HIV setting in Botswana: implications for diagnostic algorithms using Xpert MTB/RIF assay. *PLoS One* 2017; 12(2): e0189981
7. Griffith, D.E. Mycobacteria as pathogens of respiratory infection. *Infect. Dis. Clin. N. Am.* 1998; 12: 593-611.
8. Prince, D.S.; Peterson, D.D.; Steiner, R.M.; Gottlieb, J.E.; Scott, R.; Israel, H.L.; Figueroa, W.G. and Fish, J.E. Infection with *Mycobacterium avium* complex in patients without predisposing conditions. *N. Engl. J. Med.* 1989; 321: 863
9. Ganbat, D.; Seehase, S.; Richter, E.; Vollmer, E.; Reiling, N.; Fellenberg, K.; Gaede, K.J.; Kugler, C. and Goldmann, T. Mycobacteria infect different cell types in the human lung and cause species dependent cellular changes in infected cells. *BMC Pulmonary Medicine* 2016; 16: 19
10. Yu, K.; Song, L.; Zhang, J. and Li, N. A young boy with disseminated *Mycobacterium avium*

- complex infection. International Journal of Infectious Diseases 2019 ; 81 : 10-11
11. Xu, X. ; Lao, X. ; Zhang, C. ; Cao, C. ; Ding, H. ; Pang, Y. ; Ning, Q. ; Zou, J. ; Zang, N. ; Hu, D. and Chen, M. Chronic *Mycobacterium avium* skin and soft tissue infection complicated with scalp osteomyelitis possibly secondary to anti-interferon- γ autoantibody formation. BMC Infectious Diseases 2019 ; 19 : 203
 12. Bermudez, L.E. ; Wagner, D. and Sosnowska, D. Mechanisms of *Mycobacterium avium* pathogenesis. Archivum Immunologiae et Therapiae Experimentalis 2000 ; 48 : 521-527
 13. Carter, J. ; Young, L.S and Bermudez, L.E. A subinhibitory concentration of clarithromycin inhibits *Mycobacterium avium* complex biofilm formation. Antimicrob Agents Chemother 2004 ; 48(1) : 428-438
 14. Bohlson, S.S. ; Strasser, J.A. ; Bower, J.J. and Schorey, J.S. Role of complement in *Mycobacterium avium* pathogenesis : in vivo and in vitro analyses of the host response to infection in the absence of complement component C3. Infection and Immunity. 2001 ; 7729-7735.
 15. Bermudez, L.E. Differential mechanisms of intracellular killing of *Mycobacterium avium* and *Listeria monocytogenes* by activated human and murine macrophages. The role of nitric oxide. Clin. Exp. Immunol. 1993 ; 91 : 277
 16. Gomes, M.S. ; Florido, M. ; Pais, T.E. ; Appelberg, R. ; Rabinovitch, M. and Kaplan, G. Improved clearance of *Mycobacterium avium* upon disruption of the inducible nitric oxide synthase gene. 1999 ; J. Immunol. 162 : 6734-6739
 17. Bermudez, L.E. Production of transforming growth factor β by *Mycobacterium avium* infected macrophages is associated with unresponsiveness to interferon-gamma. J. Immunol. 1993 ; 150 : 1838-1843
 18. Bermudez, J.E. and Champs, J. Infection with *M. avium* induces production of IL-10 and administration of IL-10 antibody is associated with enhanced resistance to infection in mice. Infect. Immun. 1993 ; 61 : 3093-3096
 19. Hinkovska-Galcheva, V., Clark, A., VanWay, S., T. ; Huang, J.B. ; Hiraoka, M., Abe, A. ; Borofsky, M.; Kunhel, R.G. ; Shayman, J.A. ; Shayman, J.A.; Lanni, F.; Petty, H.R. and Boxer, L.A. Ceramide kinase promotes Ca²⁺ signaling near IgG-opsonized targets and enhances phagolysosomal fusion in CIS-1 cells. Journal of lipid Research. 2007 ; 49 : 531-542.
 20. Mellstrom, B. and Naranjo, R. Ca²⁺-dependent transcriptional repression and derepression : DREAM, a direct effector. Semin. Cell. Dev. Biol. 2001 ; 12 : 59-63.
 21. Anes, E. ; Kuehnel, M.P. ; Bos, E. ; Moniz-Pereira, J. ; Habermann, A. and Griffiths, G. Selected lipids activate phagosome actin assembly and maturation resulting in killing of pathogenic mycobacteria. Natu. Cell. Biol. 2003 ; 5 : 793-802
 22. Anes, E.; Peyron, P.; Staali, L.; Jordao, L.; Gutierrez, G.G.; Kress, H.; Hagedorn, M.; Maridonneau-Parini, I.; Skinner, M.A.; Wildeman, A.G.; Kalamidas, S.A.; Kuehnel, M.P. and Griffiths, G. Dynamic life and death interactions between *Mycobacterium smegmatis* and J774 macrophages. Cellular Microbiology 2006 ; 8(6) : 939-960
 23. Staali, L.; Mörgelin, M.; Björck, L. and Tapper, H. *Streptococcus pyogenes* expressing M and M-like surface proteins and phagocytosed but survive inside human neutrophils. Cellular Microbiology 2003 ; 5(4)253-265
 24. Gutierrez, M.G.; Mishra, B. B; Jordao, L.; Elliott, E.; Anes, E. and Griffiths, G. NF- κ B activation controls phagolysosome fusion-mediated killing of mycobacteria by macrophages. The Journal of Immunology 2008 ; 181 : 2651-2663
 25. Biswas, D. ; Qureshi, O.S. ; Lee, W.Y. ; Croudace, J.E. ; Mura, M. and Lammas, D.A. ATP-induced autophagy is associated with rapid killing of intracellular mycobacteria within human monocytes/macrophages. BMC Immunology. 2008 ; 9 :35
 26. Malik, Z.A.; Denning, G.M. and Kusner, D.J. Inhibition of Ca²⁺ signaling by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is associated with decreased phagosome-lysosome fusion and increased survival within human macrophages. J.Exp.Med. 2000 ; 191: 287.
 27. Malik, Z.A.; Lyer, S.S. and Kusner, D.J. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* phagosomes exhibit altered calmodulin-dependent signal transduction: contribution to inhibition of phagosome-lysosome fusion and intracellular survival in human macrophages. J. Immunol. 2001; 166 :3392
 28. Vergne, I.; Chua, J., Singh, S.B. and Deretic, V. Cell biology of mycobacterium tuberculosis phagosome. Annu. Rev. Cell. Dev. Biol. 2004 ; 20 : 367-394.
 29. Malik, A., Thompson, C.R.; Hashimi, S.; Porter, B.; Iyer, S.S. and Kusner, D.J. Cutting Edge : *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* blocks Ca²⁺ signaling and phagosome maturation in human macrophages via specific inhibition of

- sphingosine kinase. Journal of Immunology. 2003 ; 170 :2811-2815
30. Yeruva, V.C. ; Savanagouder, M. ; Khandelwal, R. ; Kulkarni, A. ; Sharma, Y. and Raghunand, T.R. The *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* desaturase DesA1 (Rv0824c) is a Ca²⁺ binding protein. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commu. 2016; 480(1) : 29-35
31. Staali, L. ; Monteil, H. and Colin, D.A. The pore-forming leukotoxins from *Staphylococcus aureus* open Ca²⁺ channels in human polymorphonuclear neutrophils. J. membr.Biol. 1998 ; 162 : 209-216.
32. Mandeville, J.T. and Maxfield, F.R. Calcium and signal transduction in granulocytes. Curr. Opin. Hematol. 1966 ; 3(1) : 63-70.
33. Roy, D. ; Liston, D.R. ; Idone, V.J. ; Di, A. ; Nelson, D.J. ; Pujol, C. ; Bliska, J.B. ; Chakrabarti, S. and Andrews, N.W. A process for controlling intracellular bacterial infections induced by membrane injury. Science 2004 ; 304 (5676): 1515-1558
34. Jaconi, M.E.E. ; Lew, D.P. ; Carpentier, K.E. ; Magnusson, K.E. ; Sjörgren, M. and Stendahl, O. Cytosolic free calcium elevation mediates the phagosome-lysosome fusion during phagocytosis in human neutrophils. The Journal of Cell Biology. 1990; 10 : 1555-1564.
35. Caamano, J. and C.A. Hunter. NFκB family of transcription factors : central regulators of innate and adaptive immune functions. Clin. Microbiol.Rev. 2002 ; 15 : 414-429
36. Delhale, S.R. ; Blasius, M. ; Dicato, M. and Diederich, M. A beginner's guide to NFκB signaling pathways. Annu. NY. Acad. Sci. 2004 ; 1030 :1-13
37. Misra, U.K. and Pizzo, S.V. Ligation of the alpha2M*signaling receptor regulates synthesis of cytosolic phospholipase A2. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 2001; 386(2) : 227-232.