**Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae** resides intracellularly within porcine epithelial cells

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Enzootic pneumonia incurs major economic losses to pork production globally. The primary pathogen and causative agent, *Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae*, colonises ciliated epithelium and disrupts mucociliary function predisposing the upper respiratory tract to secondary pathogens. Alleviation of disease is reliant on antibiotics, vaccination, and sound animal husbandry, but none are effective at eliminating *M. hyopneumoniae* from large production systems. Sustainable pork production systems strive to lower reliance on antibiotics but lack of a detailed understanding of the pathobiology of *M. hyopneumoniae* has curtailed efforts to develop effective mitigation strategies. *M. hyopneumoniae* is considered an extracellular pathogen. Here we show that *M. hyopneumoniae* associates with integrin β₁ on the surface of epithelial cells via interactions with surface-bound fibronectin and initiates signalling events that stimulate pathogen uptake into clathrin-coated vesicles (CCVs) and caveosomes. These early events allow *M. hyopneumoniae* to exploit an intracellular lifestyle by commandeering the endosomal pathway. Specifically, we show: (i) using a modified gentamicin protection assay that approximately 8% of *M. hyopneumoniae* cells reside intracellularly; (ii) integrin β₁ expression specifically co-localises with the deposition of fibronectin precisely where *M. hyopneumoniae* cells assemble extracellularly; (iii) anti-integrin β₁ antibodies block entry of *M. hyopneumoniae* into porcine cells; and (iv) *M. hyopneumoniae* survives phagolysosomal fusion, and resides within recycling endosomes that are trafficked to the cell membrane. Our data creates a paradigm shift by challenging the long-held view that *M. hyopneumoniae* is a strict extracellular pathogen and calls for *in vivo* studies to determine if *M. hyopneumoniae* can traffic to extrapulmonary sites in commercially-reared pigs.

*Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae* is the etiological agent of enzootic pneumonia and a primary pathogen in the porcine respiratory disease complex¹. Globally, porcine enzootic pneumonia is widespread and inflicts significant economic losses to pork production. Losses are incurred via reduced growth rate and feed conversion efficiency, costs for treatment and vaccination, and excessive morbidity and mortalities resulting from the combined effects of multiple respiratory pathogens. *M. hyopneumoniae* influences the ciliary beat frequency, induces ciliostasis and causes epithelial cell death, culminating in a devastating assault on the mucociliary escalator and an excessive host immune response in the lungs⁴–⁵. *M. hyopneumoniae* colonises cilia that project into the luminal surface of epithelial cells of the respiratory tract and is rarely found associated with the epithelial cell body⁶–⁷. These observations suggest that *M. hyopneumoniae* recognises receptors expressed on the surface of cilia but are limited in their presentation on the cell body. *M. hyopneumoniae* attaches to cilia via highly expressed, structurally and functionally complex adhesins that are present on the cell surface of *M. hyopneumoniae* as a diverse combination of cleavage fragments that bind multiple host molecules including highly sulphated glycosaminoglycans, fibronectin and plasminogen⁸–²¹.

Strategies that are implemented to control infection by *M. hyopneumoniae* include vaccination (predominantly with bacterin formulations); antibiotic therapy and herd management (high standards in hygiene, all-in-all-out production models and swiss de-population with re-stocking from herds considered free of *M. hyopneumoniae*).

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Combinations of these strategies are effective, however, there remains a pressing need to lower reliance on anti-
biotics to control infection in intensively reared animal production systems. Sound herd management is
challenged by the need to identify pig production operations free of *M. hyopneumoniae* and it remains a challenge
to identify subclinically-infected and carrier animals. Ultimately, further investigation into the survival mecha-
nisms of this important porcine pathogen is required to aid in the development of future strategies to prevent and
control transmission.

It is well known that numerous mycoplasma species can invade host cells and although it has historically
been characterised as a strict extracellular pathogen, *M. hyopneumoniae* has been cultured from the liver, spleen,
kidneys and bronchial lymph nodes of pigs infected experimentally with *M. hyopneumoniae*. However, it is
not known if *M. hyopneumoniae* colonises tissue sites distal to the respiratory tract in commercially-reared herds.
Interestingly, *M. hyopneumoniae* has been isolated in pure culture from both pericardial and synovial joint fluids
in slaughter-age commercial pigs with fibrinous pericarditis. It is not known how *M. hyopneumoniae* traffics to
these sites nor is it known if *M. hyopneumoniae* can invade epithelial cells and trigger cellular uptake pathways.

In this study for the first time, we show that *M. hyopneumoniae* cells interact with integrin β1 via fibronec-
tin and colocalise in a manner that promotes cellular uptake via caveosomes and clathrin-coated vesicles. We
monitored the cellular events that depict *M. hyopneumoniae* trafficking via the endocytic pathway, and escaping
phagolysosomal fusion, before residing free in the cytoplasm. Collectively, our data have significant implica-
tions for detecting animals infected with *M. hyopneumoniae* and for development of therapies to eliminate this
difficult-to-control pathogen.

### Results

*M. hyopneumoniae* resides intracellularly within epithelial cells. In order to gather insight into how *M. hyopneumoniae* colonises host epithelial cell surfaces, scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was used to visualise the pattern of adherence to porcine kidney epithelial cells (PK-15) after 16h. PK-15 cells have been used extensively as a model system for studying host-*M. hyopneumoniae* interactions and *M. hyopneumoniae* cells associated intimately with the cell surface of PK-15 monolayers (Fig. 1A–D). These adhering bacterial cells are encapsulated by cell surface projections via a process that resembles macropinocytosis (Fig. 1A–E), which occasionally leads to the complete engulfment of the

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Figure 1. *M. hyopneumoniae* resides intracellularly within PK-15 cells. (A–F) SEM of *M. hyopneumoniae* cells interacting with the surface and becoming internalised within PK-15 monolayers (white arrows with black outlines). (A–E) *M. hyopneumoniae* cells being engulfed by PK-15 cells. Microvilli/filopodia form cell surface projections that envelope the *M. hyopneumoniae* cells. (F) A small cluster of *M. hyopneumoniae* cells adhering to the monolayer and one cell (white arrow) which has become engulfed. Scale bars in A–F are 2 µm, 2 µm, 1 µm, 1 µm, 500 nm, and 1 µm respectively. (G,H) Immunofluorescence images of PK-15 cells infected with *M. hyopneumoniae*. Extracellular *M. hyopneumoniae* cells were labelled with F2P94-J antisera conjugated to CF 488 (magenta). Nucleic acids were stained with DAPI (cyan). Intracellular *M. hyopneumoniae* cells imaged using confocal microscopy (G) and 3D-SIM (H) are outlined by white boxes. Inset (bottom right corner) in panel G depicts a region showing intracellular bacteria (outlined in white).
bacteria (Fig. 1F). Using immunofluorescence microscopy, we were able to confirm that these engulfed bacteria were indeed M. hyopneumoniae cells using anti-F2p94-J antisera, which is specific for M. hyopneumoniae. We double-labelled M. hyopneumoniae-infected PK-15 monolayers using F2p94-J antisera conjugated to either CF 488 or CF 568 before and after permeabilisation, respectively. From this, extracellularly adhering bacteria were double-labelled (appearing yellow/green, Supplementary Fig. S1), while those cells residing intracellularly were singularly labelled (appearing red, Supplementary Fig. S1). Once we confirmed that these intracellular bacteria were M. hyopneumoniae, we replaced the secondary labelling step with the membrane impermeable dye DAPI, as it reliably stains M. hyopneumoniae nucleic acids35 while also reducing background staining. Extracellularly adhering M. hyopneumoniae cells (labelled with anti-F2p94-J antisera; magenta in Fig. 1G,H) were readily distinguishable from those residing intracellularly (stained with DAPI; cyan in Fig. 1G,H). Confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) and 3D-Structured Illumination Microscopy (3D-SIM) images of these samples depict extracellular, F2p94-J-labelled M. hyopneumoniae adhering to PK-15 cells, and numerous intracellular bacteria stained solely with DAPI (Fig. 1G,H). In uninfected control monolayers that were stained with DAPI post-permeabilisation, only the nuclei of the PK-15 cells were visible (Supplementary Fig. S2). This confirmed that the staining technique did not stain nucleic acids in the cytoplasm of PK-15 monolayers and could be used to distinguish between extracellular and intracellular bacteria. To determine the number of intracellular M. hyopneumoniae cells, we applied a modified and optimised version of the gentamicin protection assay37. This showed that approximately 1 in every 12 (8%) M. hyopneumoniae cells that adhered to PK-15 cells reside intracellularly and are potentially invasive (data not shown). Although it is important to note that the gentamicin protection assay is a crude quantitative measure of cell invasion, we have routinely observed M. hyopneumoniae cells residing intracellularly using CLSM and 3D-SIM. Our observations presented here, are representative images of a minimum of 20 biological replicate experiments performed on different days over the course of several years.

**Intracellular M. hyopneumoniae cells reside within vesicle-like structures.** Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images also depict PK-15 cell surface projections engulfing M. hyopneumoniae cells (Fig. 2A–C). Once inside the PK-15 cells, M. hyopneumoniae cells were observed residing in electron-lucent, vesicle-like structures (Fig. 2D,E), indicating that the M. hyopneumoniae cells had become compartmentalised into endocytic vesicles. Additionally, they were also found free within the cytoplasm (Fig. 2F). Notably, Supplementary Fig. S3 depicts mycoplasma-like organisms residing within the cytoplasm of ciliated epithelium from the trachea of a pig infected experimentally with M. hyopneumoniae.32,38 The electron-dense cells appear to be intact and do not seem to be associated with any vesicle-like structures (Supplementary Fig. S3). To our knowledge, this is the first experimental evidence depicting mycoplasma-like organisms residing within swine respiratory epithelial cells.

**M. hyopneumoniae cells are engulfed by clathrin- and caveolae-mediated endocytosis and are trafficked intracellularly via the complete endocytic pathway.** Clathrin- and caveolae-mediated endocytosis represent two endocytic pathways involved in the uptake of bacteria by eukaryotes40,41. We used confocal microscopy with monoclonal antibodies that recognise clathrin (mAbclath.) and caveolin-1 (using mAbcoV) to show M. hyopneumoniae cells residing within clathrin-coated vesicles (CCVs) and caveosomes (Fig. 3), respectively, after 16 h incubation with PK-15 monolayers. Notably, we observed CCVs in direct contact with the PK-15 membrane in close proximity to M. hyopneumoniae cells on the extracellular side of the membrane in the process of being engulfed (Supplementary Fig. S4). Furthermore, structures resembling caveolae in areas where M. hyopneumoniae cells were adhering to the PK-15 cell surface were observed via SEM (Supplementary Fig. S5).

To investigate the association of M. hyopneumoniae cells with the endocytic pathway, we stained infected PK-15 cells with a panel of antibodies specific for early, late and recycling endosomes, and lysosomes. M. hyopneumoniae cells residing within early endosomes that display the markers EEA1 and RAB5 were observed using confocal microscopy (Fig. 3). M. hyopneumoniae cells were also observed within endosomes displaying RAB11 suggesting that M. hyopneumoniae can influence the endosomal pathway and be exported back to the extracellular milieu (Fig. 3). Early endosomes mature into late endosomes displaying Rab7, and M. hyopneumoniae cells were also observed within these vesicles (Fig. 3). Typically, late endosomes fuse with lysosomes to allow the delivery of hydrolytic enzymes to degrade the engulfed cargo. Using LAMP1 as a marker of the lysosomal membrane, we detected numerous lysosomes within the cytoplasm of PK-15 cells containing intracellular M. hyopneumoniae cells (Fig. 3). In these examples, numerous extracellularly adhering M. hyopneumoniae cells could be seen in the vicinity of the vesicle-bound intracellular bacteria, further supporting our differential staining protocol (Supplementary Fig. S6). Notably, M. hyopneumoniae cells were identified using 3D-SIM in the immediate vicinity of LAMP1-labelled lysosomal membrane fragments (Supplementary Fig. S7) and M. hyopneumoniae cells were identified in the cytoplasm of PK-15 cells (Fig. 2F–H) using TEM. To our knowledge, this is the first depiction of Mycoplasma spp. being trafficked intracellularly via the complete endocytic pathway.

**Fibronectin and integrin31 are targets for M. hyopneumoniae.** Previously we determined that the expression of host cell fibronectin is induced in PK-15 cells at the place where M. hyopneumoniae makes contact with the membrane and in the ciliated epithelium lining of the upper respiratory tract of swine following experimental infection with M. hyopneumoniae42. In uninfected PK-15 cells, fibronectin radiates with a fibril-like structure ahead of the advancing edge of PK-15 cells by as much as 40 µm, localising at intercellular junctions between adjoining PK-15 cells, beneath the PK-15 monolayer (Supplementary Fig. S8). The pattern made by the radiating plumes of fibronectin were reminiscent of the pattern of localisation of M. hyopneumoniae during infection of PK-15 cells. In addition, regions ahead of the leading edge of PK-15 cells were locations where M. hyopneumoniae appeared to adhere to the glass surface (Supplementary Fig. S8). Other than regions in close proximity to the advancing edge of the PK-15 monolayer, M. hyopneumoniae does not appear to bind to glass surfaces. SEM of PK-15 cells infected with M. hyopneumoniae show the bacteria contacting material secreted onto the glass ahead
of the leading edge, often along the length of fibres that are consistent with fibronectin (Supplementary Fig. S8). This was confirmed using confocal microscopy which showed \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells adhering to fibronectin plumes secreted by PK-15 cells at the leading edge (Supplementary Fig. S8).

In a previous study, \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells were shown to sequester fibronectin to their cell surface\textsuperscript{14}, a finding mirrored in this work (Fig. 4, panels B,E). In the extracellular matrix fibronectin connects with the actin cytoskeleton via the bridging molecule, integrin \(\beta_1\). Numerous bacterial pathogens hijack these molecules to initiate internalisation\textsuperscript{41}. Confocal microscopy was used to investigate co-localisation of fibronectin and integrin \(\beta_1\) in PK-15 cells infected with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} (Fig. 4A–F). Abundant fibronectin staining was observed to associate with regions on PK-15 cells that were colonised with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} (Fig. 4B,E), an observation that is consistent with these bacterial cells sequestering fibronectin onto their cell surface. In addition, it was noted that integrin \(\beta_1\) staining was abundant in the same areas, forming "pockets" around the fibronectin-bound \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells (Fig. 4C–F). Consistent with this observation was significantly higher integrin \(\beta_1\) staining of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}-infected PK-15 cells compared to the uninfected control (Fig. 4G). Collectively, these data suggest that \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells sequester fibronectin that is expressed early in response to infection and co-localises with integrin \(\beta_1\). To determine if integrin \(\beta_1\) plays a role in intracellular uptake of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}, PK-15 cells were pre-incubated with a neutralising integrin \(\beta_1\) antibody (mAb\textsubscript{ITG\textbeta1}) for 2 h prior to infection with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}. Our modified gentamicin protection assay showed that the antibody blocked (~75\%) reduction in viable colonies) the ability of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} to become internalised within PK-15 cells (Fig. 4H). This is the first time that integrin \(\beta_1\) has been shown to play a role during the initial phase of cellular invasion by \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}, or any other Mycoplasma species.

**Figure 2.** TEM of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells interacting with PK-15 cells. (A–C) Depict \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells adhering to the surface of the PK-15 monolayer and being ushered across the membrane. Black asterisks (panels A, B and C) represent cell surface projections engulfing \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells destined for uptake into the PK-15 cell. In panels D and E, white asterisks mark \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells that have become internalised within electron-lucent vesicle-like structures. Some vesicles appear to contain membrane remnants of lysed \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells. (F) Depicts \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells (white asterisks) residing within the cytoplasm of PK-15 cells. The \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells do not appear to be contained within a vesicle. Scale bars are 200 nm (A–E) and 400 nm (F).
M. hyopneumoniae induces cytoskeletal rearrangements in the porcine respiratory tract. The interaction of fibronectin with integrin β1 during the early stages of bacterial infection is known to induce cytoskeletal rearrangements in eukaryote cells that promote pathogen uptake. However, it is not known if M. hyopneumoniae infection influences the expression of a key cytoskeletal protein, actin, in the porcine respiratory tract. To examine this, we stained serial tracheal sections with mAb β-act and with F2P94-J antisera. It was observed that serial tracheal sections from pigs infected experimentally with M. hyopneumoniae (diseased tissue) that were stained with F2P94-J antisera contained bacterial cells adhering along the ciliary border of the epithelium (Fig. 5A) as expected. A serial section of the same diseased tissue stained with mAb β-act identified actin quite prominently in the subepithelial layer (Fig. 5B), whereas control uninfected tissues did not stain intensely with mAb β-act (Fig. 5C,D). In diseased tissue, lymphoid follicles and intraepithelial leukocytes that had infiltrated the tissue at the site of infection also stained intensely with mAb β-act (Fig. 5E,F). These data suggest that extensive cytoskeletal rearrangements may occur in the respiratory tract of swine infected with M. hyopneumoniae.

M. hyopneumoniae is trafficked alongside fibronectin and integrin 31. Clathrin- and caveolin-mediated endocytosis is also how the integrin heterodimer, α5β1, the primary receptor of fibronectin, is endocytosed. Our hypothesis is that M. hyopneumoniae cells are endocytosed while bound to fibronectin, therefore we determined the spatial relationship between intracellular M. hyopneumoniae cells coated with fibronectin and integrin 31, caveosomes, CCVs, and lysosomes. To visualise intracellular fibronectin, we incubated M. hyopneumoniae-infected (16 h) PK-15 cells with anti-fibronectin (pAb Fn) after membrane permeabilisation. It was found that M. hyopneumoniae cells associated both with CCVs (Fig. 6A–D) and with caveosomes (Fig. 6E–H) containing fibronectin. In one example, upwards of 20 M. hyopneumoniae cells were seen within a single CCV (Fig. 6C). Vesicle-like structures harbouring M. hyopneumoniae cells were also found to simultaneously stain with mAb ITG β1 and fibronectin (Fig. 6I–L). Lysosomes containing fibronectin and M. hyopneumoniae cells were repeatedly observed (Fig. 6M–P). Numerous lysosomes were observed surrounding vesicle-like structures that contain both fibronectin and M. hyopneumoniae cells (Fig. 6). Secondary antibody controls ensured that the observed association of fibronectin and these vesicles was not due to antibody cross-reactivity (data not shown).
Discussion

*M. hyopneumoniae* has historically been considered an extracellular pathogen despite numerous studies suggesting the contrary. One study in particular, was able to recover *M. hyopneumoniae* from extrapulmonary sites during treatment with a therapeutic dose of marbofloxacin. Notably, no extrapulmonary bacteria were recovered from control animals. This suggests that *M. hyopneumoniae* can be present in extrapulmonary locations, possibly contributing to the persistence of the infection. Further studies are needed to fully understand the role of extrapulmonary dissemination in *M. hyopneumoniae* infection.
Figure 5. Immunohistochemistry of *M. hyopneumoniae*-infected, and uninfected, control tracheal tissue.
Panels A and B depict serial sections of diseased tissue stained with anti-F2p44-J (anti-ADH) and mAbβ-act (anti-actin), respectively. (A) *M. hyopneumoniae* cells labelled with anti-F2p44-J localise at the ciliary border as described previously. (B) Intense actin staining is observed in subepithelium tissue as well as the infiltration of intraepithelial leukocytes (black arrow) that stain with mAbβ-act. (C,D) Depict healthy control tissue stained with anti-F2p44-J and mAbβ-act, respectively. In panel C, staining by anti-F2p44-J is absent as expected and minimal staining is evident with mAbβ-act in panel D. As expected, there is no evidence of infiltration of intraepithelial leukocytes in the healthy control tissue. A lymphoid follicle from *M. hyopneumoniae*-infected tissue stained with haematoxylin and eosin (panel E) and mAbβ-act (panel F) shows the presence of intraepithelial leukocytes and intense actin staining.
recovered in the post-treatment period, despite re-isolation from the trachea of all pigs post-treatment and no
evidence of environmental contamination30; indicative of
*M. hyopneumoniae*
reinfection. In further support of
this hypothesis, numerous studies have demonstrated that
*M. hyopneumoniae*
has the ability to sequester plasminogen to its cell surface and facilitate its activation to plasmin; a potent serine protease that can degrade a range
of ECM and cellular junction components9,16–18,46–48. Additionally, elevated levels of plasmin have been detected
in bronchialviolar lavage fluid of pigs infected with
*M. hyopneumoniae*18,49. The ability to utilise host plasmin is a
hallmark of pathogens that have developed sophisticated mechanisms to invade host cells and to disseminate to
distal tissue sites50–54.

For the first time we show *M. hyopneumoniae* has the capacity to enter host-derived epithelial cells (PK-15)
via clathrin- and caveolea-mediated endocytosis. Membrane bound *M. hyopneumoniae* captured via these mech-
anismis are transported intracellularly via early, recycling and late endosomes (Fig. 3). Notably, a sub-population
of cells appear to survive fusion with lysosomes and escape into the cytosol (Supplementary Fig. S7). However, it
is not known how this invasive subpopulation of *M. hyopneumoniae* cells differs from the majority of adherent,
non-invasive cells. Confocal microscopy studies shown here, the isolation of *M. hyopneumoniae* from infected
PK-15 cells on Friis agar after treatment with a dose of gentamicin sufficient to kill extracellular populations of

**Figure 6.** *M. hyopneumoniae* cells are internalised and trafficked with fibronectin. *M. hyopneumoniae* cells were
allowed to adhere to PK-15 cells for 16 h after which they were fixed, permeabilised and incubated with pAbFn
which was conjugated to CF 488 (yellow). Samples were then incubated with mAbs targeting CCVs (mAbclath.),
caveosomes (mAb cav.), integrin β1 (mAb ITGβ1) and lysosomes (LAMP1) and conjugated to CF 568 (magenta).
PK-15 nuclei and *M. hyopneumoniae* nucleic acids were stained with DAPI (cyan). Each channel is presented as
individual columns in addition to an overlay. Vesicles containing fibronectin are indicated by a white arrow and
can be seen colocalising with CCVs, caveosomes, integrin β1, and lysosomes. *M. hyopneumoniae* cells can also
be seen within each of these vesicles. These images indicate that *M. hyopneumoniae* cells are engulfed alongside
fibronectin and integrin β1 by CCVs and caveosomes that eventually fuse with lysosomes. Fibronectin as part of
the extracellular matrix can also be seen as yellow fibrous material.
this pathogen, and 3D-SIM images depicting intracellular \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells in the vicinity of lysosomal membrane remnants, all provide compelling evidence in support of a possible intracellular existence and lifestyle for this pathogen. Notably, intracellular membrane-bound \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} were also observed to be trafficked via recycling endosomes, where they can re-enter the extracellular milieu. While we have attempted to identify \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} residing within ciliated epithelium in the respiratory tract of pigs, the evidence presented is limited but sufficient to encourage further in vivo studies.

Integrins are highly abundant membrane bound receptors that link extracellular ligands, particularly from the extracellular matrix, to cytoskeletal actin in the cell. Endocytic trafficking has an important role in regulating the presentation of integrin receptors on the cell surface and has a direct impact on important intracellular signalling events\cite{18}. Therefore, it is perhaps unsurprising that a central theme in bacterial pathogenesis involves the interaction between fibronectin-binding proteins on the surface of invasive bacterial pathogens, fibronectin and integrin \(\alpha_5\beta_1\) in a manner that influences integrin clustering, to elicit an intracellular signalling cascade\cite{19,20}. \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells display numerous fibronectin-binding adhesins on their surface\cite{21,22,23}, an observation consistent with the co-localisation of fibronectin with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} during colonisation of PK-15 cells, as well as along the ciliated epithelial cell border of the lungs of pigs experimentally-infected with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}\cite{24}. Here we extend these earlier observations and show that integrin \(\beta 1\) staining co-localises with the deposition of fibronectin, where \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells adhere on the surface of PK-15 cells. We observed increased integrin \(\beta 1\) staining in PK-15 cells that were infected with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} as well as the subsequent co-localisation of fibronectin-coated extracellular \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells to these areas (Fig. 4). Interestingly, unpublished data from our lab suggests that integrin \(\beta 1\) is not differentially expressed in infected monolayers, suggesting that the increased staining seen here may in fact be due to conformational changes in integrin \(\beta 1\) that enhance binding of mAb_{ITG\beta 1} after fixation\cite{25}. This would possibly imply that these conformational changes are due to the presence of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} and its ability to sequester fibronectin, as it is a well-known phenomenon that pathogens utilise ECM proteins to interact with and activate integrins\cite{26,27}. Previously, it has been shown that mAb_{ITG\beta 1} can activate integrin \(\beta 1\)\cite{28}, therefore this may explain why it was able to block invasion when incubated with live cells prior to infection with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}. Indeed, the ability of anti-integrin \(\beta 1\) antibodies to block cell invasion demonstrate the potentially significant role of integrin \(\beta 1\) in promoting the ability of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} to enter PK-15 cells. These observations led us to hypothesize that the uptake of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} into CCVs and caveosomes, and the subsequent fusion with lysosomes, is regulated by interactions between fibronectin recruited to the bacterial cell surface and integrin \(\beta 1\). Consistent with this view, we routinely observed \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells residing within CCVs, caveosomes and lysosomes, in areas where fibronectin expression has been induced (Fig. 6). In some instances, we observed \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells together with fibronectin residing within integrin \(\beta 1\)-staining vesicles (Fig. 6f–l), suggesting that fibronectin-integrin complexes are trafficked with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} via the endosomal pathway. Integrin \(\beta 1\)-fibronectin complexes are known to be readily engulfed via both clathrin- and caveolae-mediated endocytosis prior to degradation by lysosomes or recycling back onto the cell surface\cite{29,30}. Although we did not observe \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} co-localising with fibronectin within recycling endosomes, we do provide evidence that \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} cells are exocytosed (Fig. 3).

\textit{M. hyopneumoniae} expresses surface-accessible actin-binding proteins and may target extracellular actin as a receptor on the surface of epithelial cells\cite{31}. As seen previously, sections of porcine lung tissue prepared from pigs infected with \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} showed that the organism localised to the ciliated epithelial surface in the airway lumen (Fig. 5a)\cite{32,33}. Similar sections stained with mAb_{ITG\beta 15} antibodies reveal deposition of actin in the sub-epithelial tissues beneath and surrounding infection foci (Fig. 5b) at levels that are absent from control uninfected porcine lung tissue (Fig. 5c,d). Cytoskeletal rearrangements in epithelial and subepithelial cells\cite{34,35} are induced by proinflammatory cytokines TNF-\(\alpha\) and IL-6, that are known to be up-regulated during infection caused by \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}\cite{36,37}. These same cytokines induce the recruitment of intraepithelial leukocytes via a process that requires cytoskeletal (actin) reorganisation. Leukocytes are an established portal for the dissemination of many pathogens to distal tissue sites\cite{38,39} and provide a protective niche from the immune system. \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} promotes the infiltration of leukocytes that stain with mAb_{ITG\beta 1} to foci of infection. The inflammatory response, a hallmark of lung infection caused by \textit{M. hyopneumoniae}, may provide the organism with a mechanism to invade and survive professional phagocytic cells for dissemination to the liver, spleen, kidneys and lymph nodes\cite{35,38}. However, further studies are needed to interrogate this hypothesis.

Collectively, our data suggests that \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} potentially hijacks the intrinsic eukaryotic \(\alpha 5\beta 1\)-fibronectin recycling pathway to gain access to host cells where it can persist intracellularly. This has important implications for the trafficking of \textit{M. hyopneumoniae} from the respiratory tract to distal tissue sites and potentially vice versa after extended periods of dormancy. This study paves the way for the development of therapeutic strategies that seek to interfere or block the ability of this pathogen to persist in its only known host \textit{Sus scrofa}.

Materials and Methods

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article (and its Supplementary Information files).

Bacterial strains and culture. \textit{Mycoplasma hyopneumoniae} strain 232 was grown in modified Friis medium as described previously\cite{40}. Both cultures were incubated at 37 °C for approximately 16 h until they reached mid-exponential phase and the medium turned orange. At this stage, cultures contain approximately \(5 \times 10^4–1 \times 10^6\) CFU/mL. For growth on solid agar, cells were plated onto Friis agar using a method described previously\cite{41}.
**Gentamicin protection assay.** Porcine kidney epithelial-like monolayers (PK-15) were grown to semi-confluency and split into 12-well microtitre plates (~10⁵ cells/well) and incubated overnight. For infection studies, a 16 h culture of *M. hyopneumoniae* strain 232 was pelleted, washed twice in PBS, and resuspended in 25 mM HEPES in DMEM containing 5% fetal bovine serum (infection medium) prior to incubation at 37 °C for 2 h. *M. hyopneumoniae* cells were added, so that each well received 0.5 mL representative volume (approximately 7.5 × 10⁵ CFU/mL) of the initial culture, and allowed to adhere to PK-15 cells for 16 h at 37 °C/5% CO₂. Non-adherent cells were removed by washing in PBS, followed by incubation in 300 µg ml⁻¹ gentamicin in DMEM (filter sterilised through pore size 0.2 µm) for 4 h at 37 °C/5% CO₂. Duplicate samples (positive controls) were not incubated with gentamicin. The gentamicin was removed and cells were washed 5 × in PBS to remove any residual antibiotic. The cell dissociation solution TrypLE (Gibco, ThermoFisher Scientific) was added to each well and incubated at 37 °C for 20 minutes. Cells were then removed by gently pipetting the TrypLE 3–4 times. The cell suspension was serially diluted in Friis broth to 10⁻³ and 10⁻². An aliquot (50 µL) of each dilution was pipetted onto 9 cm Friis agar plates, the liquid was allowed to air dry in a sterile environment for 10 minutes, and the plates were incubated at 37 °C/5% CO₂ for at least 7 days. *M. hyopneumoniae* colonies were counted using a stereomicroscope (× 40 objective). Inhibition experiments were performed by pre-incubating PK-15 cells with a 1:100 dilution of monoclonal antibodies against integrin β1 (mAbITGβ1; ~5 µg ml⁻¹ mAb, Abcam) prior to the addition of *M. hyopneumoniae* cells.

**Immunofluorescence microscopy of internalised *M. hyopneumoniae* cells.** Experiments were performed as described previously with some minor modifications. Once samples were fixed and blocked, *M. hyopneumoniae* cells were incubated with polyclonal F2₉₄₅ rabbit antiserum at a dilution of 1:500 for 1 h at RT. A 1:1000 dilution of anti-rabbit CF 488-labelled secondary antibody (Biotium) was incubated for 1 h at RT. Cells were permeabilised in 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min. Samples were then re-incubated with F2₉₄₅ rabbit antiserum at a dilution of 1:500 for 1 h at RT, followed by incubating with a 1:1000 dilution of anti-rabbit CF 568-labelled secondary antibody (Biotium) for 1 h at RT. DAPI (Roche) was then added for 5 minutes at RT to stain nucleic acids. Samples were then prepared as previously described.

**Immunofluorescence microscopy of *M. hyopneumoniae* cells and clathrin, caveosomes, endosomes, integrin β1 and fibronectin.** Experiments were performed identically to those described above except that intracellular *M. hyopneumoniae* cells were labelled exclusively with DAPI and not F2₉₄₅ antiserum. Fibronectin was labelled prior to permeabilisation using polyclonal antiserum raised in rabbit against fibronectin (pAbFn) as described previously. Mouse monoclonal antibodies mAbs (Abcam) against clathrin (ab2731, mAb clath. 1:75), caveolin-1 (ab17052, mAb anti 1:75), integrin β1 (ab30388, mAbITGβ1 1:50), RAB7 (ab50533, 1:300) or LAMP1 (ab25630, 1:20) were incubated post-permeabilisation overnight at 4 °C, and then incubated with a 1:1000 dilution of anti-mouse CF 488- or 568-conjugated secondary antibodies (Biotium) for 1 h at RT. Rabbit polyclonal antibodies (Abcam) against Rab5 (1:2000), EEA1 (1:1000) were incubated post-permeabilisation for 1 h at room temperature, and then incubated with a 1:1000 dilution of anti-mouse CF 488- or 568-conjugated secondary antibodies (Biotium) for 1 h at room temperature.

**Immunofluorescence microscopy of infected monolayers.** Samples were imaged as previously described with some minor modifications. Using a Nikon A1 Confocal Laser Scanning Microscope and a V3 DeltaVision OMX 3D-SIM Imaging System (Applied Precision, GE Healthcare).

**Image analysis.** Images captured with the Nikon A1 Confocal microscope and those generated by the DeltaVision OMX 3D-SIM were processed using Bitplane. Imaris Scientific 3D/4D image processing software to create Maximum Intensity Projection (MIP) and slices images.

*M. hyopneumoniae*-infected PK-cells and uninfected controls were labelled with integrin β1 (described above) and 10 random fields of view were captured using an Olympus BX51 Upright Epi Fluorescence Microscope at 20 × magnification and a constant exposure. The mean fluorescence of integrin β1-stained samples was calculated, after thresholding and binary conversion, using ImageJ. GraphPad Prism 7 was used to plot the data, including the standard error of the mean, and to perform the statistical analyses (unpaired t-test).

**Infection of PK-15 cells for scanning electron microscopy.** Experiments were performed as described previously with no modifications.

Preparation of tracheal sections and infected monolayers for transmission electron microscopy. Samples were fixed in a fixation solution containing 5% formaldehyde and 2% glutaraldehyde in cacodylate buffer (0.1 M cacodylate, 0.01 M CaCl₂, 0.01 M MgCl₂, 0.09 M sucrose, pH 6.9) and washed with cacodylate buffer. Samples were then osmificated with 1% aqueous osmium for 1 h at room temperature, washed and pelleted of the samples were embedded in 2% water agar and cut into small cubes. Dehydration was achieved with a graded series of acetone (10%, 20%, 50%) for 30 min on ice followed by contrasting with 2% uranyl acetate in 70% acetone for overnight at 4 °C and further dehydrated with 90% and 100% acetone. Samples in 100% acetone were allowed to reach room temperature and were infiltrated with epoxy resin according to Spurr’s formlar for a medium resin; 1 part 100% acetone/1 part resin for overnight, 1 part 100% acetone/2 parts resin for 8 h, pure resin for overnight and several changes the following 2 days. Samples were then transferred to resin filled gelatine capsules and polymerized for 8 h at 75°C. Ultrathin sections were cut with a diamond knife, picked up with formvar-coated copper grids (300 mesh) and counterstained with 2% aqueous uranyl acetate and lead citrate. After air-drying samples were examined in a Zeiss transmission electron microscope TEM910 at an acceleration voltage of 80 kV. Images were recorded digitally with a Slow-Scan CCD-Camera (ProScan, 1024 × 1024, Scheuring, Germany) with ITEM-Software (Olympus Soft Imaging Solutions, Münster, Germany). Brightness and contrast were adjusted with Adobe Photoshop CS4.
Immunohistochemistry. All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee at the Elizabeth Macarthur Agricultural Institute and were in accordance with the Australian Code of Practice for the Care and Use of Animals for Scientific Purposes. Experiments were performed as previously described with a minor modification. Briefly, 19 male weaner pigs, sourced from a commercial herd, were infected endotracheally with M. hyopneumoniae strain Hillcrest and euthanized 6 weeks post-infection. Serial sections of lung lesions from pigs, as well as healthy lung tissue from control pigs were examined for actin distribution by staining with 1:200 mAb actin for 1 hr at RT.

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**Author Contributions**

B.B.A.R. conceived and executed the confocal microscopy, analysed the 3D-SIM data, undertook and analysed the protein binding and adherence/invasion assays, performed the mass spectrometry experiments, analysed the data and contributed to the drafting of the manuscript. I.S. prepared samples for confocal microscopy. C.C.U. cultured mycoplasma for the initial adherence and invasion assays. C.J. performed and interpreted the immunohistochemistry experiments. R.M. prepared samples for confocal microscopy. M.R. prepared and performed SEM and TEM microscopy. L.T. and C.B.W. ran the 3D-SIM imaging experiments and assisted with data interpretation. S.P.D. conceived the overall study, executed and interpreted the SEM and the initial confocal experiments that showed *M. hyopneumoniae* invading epithelial cells, contributed to data interpretation and drafted the manuscript.

**Additional Information**

**Supplementary information** accompanies this paper at [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-36054-3](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-36054-3).

**Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

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