

Citation for published version:
Harding, CR, Schroeder, GN, Reynolds, S, Kosta, A, Collins, JW, Mousnier, A & Frankel, G 2012, 'Legionella pneumophila Pathogenesis in the Galleria mellonella Infection Model', Infection and immunity, vol. 80, no. 8, pp. 2780-2790. https://doi.org/10.1128/IAI.00510-12

DOI:

10.1128/IAI.00510-12

Publication date: 2012

Document Version Peer reviewed version

Link to publication

University of Bath

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy
If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Download date: 12. May. 2019

model Running title: L. pneumophila pathogenesis in Galleria mellonella Clare R. Harding¹, Gunnar N. Schroeder¹, Stuart Reynolds², Artemis Kosta¹, James W. Collins¹, Aurélie Mousnier¹, Gad Frankel* ¹Centre for Molecular Microbiology and Infection, Division of Cell and Molecular Biology, Imperial College London, London SW7 2AZ, UK ²Department of Biology and Biochemistry, University of Bath, Bath BA2 7AY, UK *Corresponding author email address: g.frankel@imperial.ac.uk

Legionella pneumophila pathogenesis in the Galleria mellonella infection

Abstract

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

Legionella pneumophila is a facultative intracellular human pathogen and the aetiological agent of severe pneumonia known as Legionnaires' disease. Its virulence depends on protein secretion systems, in particular the Dot/Icm type IV secretion system (T4SS), which is essential to establish a replication permissive vacuole in macrophages. The analysis of the role of these systems and their substrates for pathogenesis requires easy-to-use models which approximate human infection. We examined the effectiveness of the larvae of the wax moth Galleria mellonella as a new model for L. pneumophila infection. We found that the L. pneumophila strains 130b, Paris and JR32 caused mortality of the G. mellonella larvae, which was strain-, infectious dose-, growth-phase- and T4SS-dependent. Wild type L. pneumophila persisted and replicated within the larvae whereas T4SS mutants were rapidly cleared. L. pneumophila strain Lp02, which is attenuated in the absence of thymidine, but has a functional T4SS, resisted clearance in G. mellonella up to 18 h post infection without inducing mortality. Immunofluorescence and transmission electron microscopy revealed that L. pneumophila resided within insect haemocytes in a vacuole that ultrastructurally resembled the Legionella containing vacuole (LCV) observed in macrophages. The vacuole was decorated with the T4SS effector and LCV marker SidC. Infection caused severe damages to the insect organs and triggered immune responses including activation of the phenoloxidase cascade leading to melanisation, nodule formation and upregulation of antimicrobial peptides. Taken together, these results suggest that G. mellonella provides an effective model to investigate the interaction between L. pneumophila and the host.

Introduction

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59

60

61

62

63

64

Legionella pneumophila is a Gram-negative bacterium found ubiquitously in environmental water reservoirs where it replicates in free-living protozoa (38). Following inhalation of contaminated aerosols, L. pneumophila is capable of infecting human alveolar macrophages and causing disease ranging from mild flu-like symptoms to Legionnaires' disease, a severe, life-threatening pneumonia (16). L. pneumophila thrives in professional phagocytes by avoiding killing by the phago-lysosomal pathway (21). Instead it establishes a specialized Legionella containing vacuole (LCV), which shows characteristics of the rough endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (48). L. pneumophila employs several specialized protein secretion systems, e.g. the twin-arginine translocation (Tat) pathway and a type II secretion system (T2SS), to secrete virulence factors, some of which have been shown to contribute to Legionella's intracellular survival and pathogenicity (11, 12). However, the essential virulence determinant of L. pneumophila is the Dot (defective in organelle trafficking)/Icm (intracellular multiplication) type IV secretion system (T4SS), which is indispensable for intracellular survival and establishment of the replication-permissive LCV in both amoebae and macrophages (4, 45). The Dot/Icm T4SS is a multi-protein complex able to translocate at least 275 effector proteins directly into host cells (35, 53). Although it has been demonstrated that several T4SS effectors manipulate host cell vesicular trafficking, inhibit apoptosis and immune signaling, the function of the majority of T4SS effectors during infection is still unknown (5). Free-living freshwater amoebae such as Acanthamoeba castellanii or Hartmannella vermiformis routinely serve as model hosts to study molecular aspects of Legionella pathogenesis (1, 20). As natural hosts, these professional phagocytes are believed to have exerted evolutionary pressure for the selection of Legionella's virulence factors that enable the bacteria to overcome the antimicrobial activities of human macrophages (32). In addition, 65 Dictyostelium discoideum has become a prevalent protozoan model organism as it can readily 66 be genetically modified (47). Although, protozoan *Legionella* infection models have proven 67 successful, they do not fully reflect the infection of macrophages as amoeba employ less 68 complex antimicrobial mechanisms than mammalian cells. 69 The nematode Caenorhabditis elegans possesses an innate immune system and is a well-70 established model for several bacterial pathogens including *Legionella* spp. (5). However, 71 one caveat to the use of C. elegans is that bacteria replicate in the intestinal lumen and do not 72 invade intestinal epithelial cells, limiting the usefulness of this model to study virulence 73 determinants required for *Legionella's* intracellular lifestyle. 74 Typically, human Legionella infection is modeled using mammalian hosts (3, 6). Disease 75 progression in the guinea pig resembles Legionellosis in humans and pathology includes 76 lymphocyte infiltration, goblet cell metaplasia, mild fibrosis and emphysema (3). In contrast, 77 the majority of mouse strains are resistant to Legionella infection (52) with the exception of 78 the inbred albino A/J mouse, which develops a self-limiting infection (6). 79 Due to the high cost and ethical considerations associated with the use of mammalian hosts, 80 the search for alternative models is ongoing. Insect model organisms, in particular 81 Drosophila melanogaster, have been introduced to study bacterial pathogenesis (44). L. 82 pneumophila replicates in D. melanogaster and kills the flies in a Dot/Icm T4SS-dependent 83 manner (27). The human and insect innate immune systems demonstrate many similarities 84 (24, 29) with most insect species containing specialized cells known as haemocytes that 85 phagocytose pathogens and form aggregates which encapsulate and neutralize foreign 86 microorganisms (30). Moreover, activated haemocytes can trigger a phenoloxidase (PO) 87 melanisation cascade leading to physical restriction of intruders and the production of 88 antimicrobial compounds (8). Haemocyte-mediated responses are complemented by the

production and secretion of anti-microbial peptides by the insect fat body, an organ similar to
the mammalian liver (29, 31).

Besides *D. melanogaster*, the larva of the greater wax moth *Galleria mellonella* has become a
widely adopted insect model to study a wide range of human pathogens including *Listeria*spp. (23), *Streptococcus pyogenes* (36), *Campylobacter jejuni* (10), *Yersinia*pseudotuberculosis (9) and several pathogenic fungi (17, 33). *G. mellonella* larvae can be
easily maintained and infected by injection without anesthesia and sustain incubation at 37°C

97 *mellonella* and other mammalian models of infection has been established (22, 23). The aim 98 of this study was to determine if *G. mellonella* could be used as a model to study *L*.

of this study was to determine if o. menomena could be used as a model to study E

(33). A good correlation between the pathogenicity of several microorganisms in G.

99 *pneumophila* pathogenesis.

Material and Methods

100

101

102

103

104

105

106

107

108

109

110

111

112

113

114

115

116

117

118

119

120

121

122

Bacterial strains and G. mellonella larvae. L. pneumophila serogroup 1 strain 130b is a spectinomycin-resistant clinical isolate from the Wadsworth Veterans Administration Hospital, Los Angeles, CA (14). The L. pneumophila ΔDotA strain is a dotA insertion mutant (kanamycin resistance) of L. pneumophila strain 130b (41). L. pneumophila strain JR32 is a salt sensitive streptomycin-resistant L. pneumophila strain Philadelphia-1 isolate (39) and the ΔIcmT strain is an *icmT* isogenic mutant in the JR32 strain (46). L. pneumophila strain Lp02 is a thymine auxotroph streptomycin-resistant derivative of the Philadelphia-1 strain (4). L. pneumophila strain Paris is a worldwide epidemic strain (7) G. mellonella larvae were obtained from Livefoods, UK and stored at room temperature in the dark. **Infection of G. mellonella.** L. pneumophila strains were cultured on charcoal-yeast extract (CYE) plates for four days then inoculated into ACES yeast extract (AYE) as described previously (43). For the Lp02 strain, thymidine (100 µg/ml) was added. After 21 h of growth, bacteria were diluted in Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to an OD₆₀₀ of 1 which corresponds to 10⁹ CFU/ml unless otherwise indicated. Gene expression in strains containing the p4HA plasmid was additionally induced during infection with 1mM isopropyl β-d-1thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). Ten G. mellonella larvae were injected with 10 µl of bacterial suspension as previously described (37) and were incubated at 37°C in the dark. As a control ten larvae were injected with PBS alone and ten untreated insects were included with every experiment. Larvae were individually examined for pigmentation and time of death was recorded. Assays were only allowed to proceed for 3 days as pupa formation could occasionally be seen by day 4. At least three independent replicates of each experiment were performed.

Intracellular growth assay. At 0, 2, 5, 18 and 24 h post infection (p. i.) haemolymph was extracted from three infected larvae and pooled as previously described (23). Cells were lysed by incubation of the haemolymph with 1 µl of 5 mg/ml digitonin for 5 min at room temperature. Extracted haemolymph was serially diluted in AYE media and plated onto CYE plates. To prevent contamination, the extracted haemolymph was plated on CYE plates supplemented with spectinomycin (50 µg/ml) for the L. pneumophila strain 130b or streptomycin (100 µg/ml) for the Philadelphia-1-derived strains. Plates were incubated at 37 °C for three days, viable bacteria were enumerated and the number of CFU was normalized to the weight of haemolymph extracted. Plasmids. A fragment of the SidC homologue from L. pneumophila 130b containing the phosphatidylinositol-4 phosphate binding domain (amino acids 41 to 918) was cloned into the Xbal and BamHI sites of the p4HA plasmid (13) to yield the IPTG-inducible 4HA-SidC₄₁. expression plasmid pICC562 using the forward primer 5'cgtattctagataacacctgccaaacagcagttgag-3' 5'and the reverse primer ggctaggatccctatttctttataactcccgtgtac-3' and standard molecular biology techniques. **Indirect immunofluorescence on extracted haemocytes.** Haemolymph from infected G. mellonella was extracted at 5 and 24 h post infection. The extracted haemolymph was dispensed onto poly-L-lysine coated glass coverslips and centrifuged at 500 x g for 10 min to allow sedimentation and attachment of haemocytes. Coverslips were washed twice with PBS and fixed using 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 min followed by quenching with 50 mM ammonium chloride. Extracellular L. pneumophila were stained with a mouse anti-L. pneumophila LPS antibody (ViroStat) and a donkey anti-mouse Rhodamine Red-Xconjugated antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc.). After permeabilization of the cells with 0.1% Triton in PBS and blocking with 2% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS, total bacteria were stained with a rabbit anti-L. pneumophila antibody (Affinity

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

148 BioReagents) and a donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated antibody (Jackson 149 ImmunoResearch). 150 To visualize 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈ in haemocytes, fixed cells were permeabilised and blocked for 1 151 h in PBS containing 2% (w/v) BSA. Samples were stained with rabbit anti-L. pneumophila 152 antibody (Affinity BioReagents), donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated antibody 153 (Jackson ImmunoResearch), mouse anti-HA conjugated to Tetramethyl Rhodamine Iso-Thiocyanate (TRITC) (Sigma) and 5 µg ml⁻¹ of 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) to 154 155 visualize DNA. Samples were analyzed using an Axio M1 Imager microscope and images 156 processed with the AxioVision software (Carl Zeiss). 157 Staining of formalin fixed sections of G. mellonella. G. mellonella were fixed in formalin 158 for one week at room temperature, paraffin embedded, sectioned and stained either with 159 haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) or by indirect immunofluorescence as described previously 160 (18). L. pneumophila was stained with rabbit anti-L. pneumophila antibody (Affinity 161 BioReagents) and donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated antibody (Jackson 162 ImmunoResearch). Cellular and bacterial DNA was stained with DAPI and the shape of the 163 tissues was visualized using Rhodamine Phalloidin (Invitrogen). 164 **Transmission electron microscopy.** Haemolymph was extracted from ten infected G. 165 mellonella per condition and time point. Cells were spun down onto 6 well plates, washed 166 once with PBS and fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde. Samples were processed as described 167 previously (26) and examined using a Tecnai12 (FEI) electron microscope. Images were 168 taken with a CCD camera (TVIPS, Gauting, Germany). 169 **Haemocyte quantification and viability assay.** Infected haemolymph was extracted at 5 and 170 18 h p.i., Trypan blue (0.02% (v/v) in PBS) was added to cells and incubated at room 171 temperature for 10 min. Viable cells were enumerated using a haemocytometer and each 172 sample was analysed in triplicate. The average of three independent experiments was plotted 173 graphically. 174 Phenoloxidase (PO) activity assay. At 5 and 18 h p.i. haemolymph from three infected 175 insects per condition was extracted and pooled. Cells and debris were removed by 176 centrifugation at 20000 x g for 10 min at 4 °C. The phenoloxidase activity in the plasma was 177 quantified using a microplate enzyme assay as described previously (15). The change in 178 absorbance at 490 nm was read for 1 h at room temperature with a reading taken every 179 minute using a Fluostar Optima plate reader (BMG labtech, Germany). The experiment was 180 performed in triplicate and independently repeated at least three times. Phenoloxidase activity 181 was expressed as the mean OD_{490} /minute. 182 RNA extraction and RT-PCR. At indicated time points fat bodies from three larvae were 183 collected and stored in RNAlater (Qiagen) at 4 °C until processing. Tissue was homogenized 184 by a gentleMACS homogeniser (Miltenyi Biotech) using M tubes and the 90 s RNA setting. 185 RNA was extracted using a RNAeasy kit (Qiagen) and contaminating DNA was digested 186 using Turbo DNA-free kit (Ambion) following the manufacturer's instructions. Two-step RT-187 PCR was performed using Superscript reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) using 2 µg of RNA 188 as a template and random hexamers (Invitrogen). Genes were amplified using RedTaq 189 readymix (Sigma) and 0.6 pM of gene specific primers (Table 1) as described previously (23). 190 DNA was analyzed on a 1% agarose gel with SYBRSafe (Invitrogen) and quantified using 191 ImageJ software (NIH).

Results

L. pneumophila infection causes death of Galleria mellonella larvae

In order to investigate the pathogenicity of *L. pneumophila* in *G. mellonella* larvae, we used three serogroup 1 *L. pneumophila* strains: 130b, Paris and JR32, which are commonly used for molecular pathogenesis studies. The bacteria were injected into the larvae and their survival monitored over 72 h (Fig. 1A). All three *L. pneumophila* strains caused time-dependent death of at least 70% of the *G. mellonella*; strain 130b caused significantly (P<0.005) higher mortality than the JR32 or Paris strains at 18 h p.i. No mortality was observed in the control buffer-injected *G. mellonella*. These results demonstrate that *G. mellonella* is susceptible to *L. pneumophila* infection.

Mortality in L. pneumophila-infected G. mellonella is dose-dependent

To determine if the mortality caused by L. pneumophila infection was dependent on the number of injected bacteria, G. mellonella were injected with 10^4 , 10^5 10^6 or 10^7 CFU of L. pneumophila strain 130b. While infection with 10^7 CFU resulted in 100% G. mellonella mortality within 24 h of infection, mortality was reduced to less than 40% in larvae injected with 10^6 CFU, and no mortality was observed in G. mellonella injected with any of the lower doses (10^4 and 10^5 CFU) (Fig. 1B). These results show that L. pneumophila induces dose dependent G. mellonella mortality.

The growth phase of L. pneumophila influences the kinetics of G. mellonella mortality

During its lifecycle, *L. pneumophila* alternates between replicative and transmissive forms (19). A number of virulence factors that promote infection of new host cells are down-regulated in the replicative phase and up-regulated in the transmissive phase. In broth culture,

the transmissive traits are repressed in the exponential phase and expressed as the bacteria enter the post-exponential phase (19). In order to assess if expression of the transmissive traits were important to induce G. mellonella mortality, insects were inoculated with 10^7 CFU L. pneumophila 130b cultured to exponential ($OD_{600}\sim0.4$), post-exponential ($OD_{600}\sim3$) or stationary ($OD_{600}>4$) phases. Over the entire time course, significantly more (P<0.0005 at 18 h p.i.) larvae injected with exponential and stationary phase bacteria survived than the ones inoculated with post-exponential phase bacteria (Fig. 1C). This indicates that the growth phase of L. pneumophila influences virulence in the G. mellonella model.

The L. pneumophila Dot/Icm T4SS is essential for G. mellonella infection

The Dot/Icm T4SS of L. pneumophila is essential for intracellular survival and the establishment of a replicative vacuole (4, 45). The 130b Δ DotA strain has a kanamycin resistance cassette inserted in the dotA gene resulting in a non-functional T4SS (43). Infection of G. mellonella with 10^7 CFU 130b Δ DotA did not cause any mortality of the larvae over the three days of the experiment, whereas the parental wild type strain killed all larvae within 24 h (Fig. 1D). This demonstrated that L. pneumophila-induced mortality of G. mellonella is dependent on the presence of a functional Dot/Icm T4SS.

G. mellonella mortality depends on L. pneumophila persistence

In order to determine the viable bacterial load within the haemolymph of G. mellonella infected with L. pneumophila, larvae were injected with 10^7 CFU wild type or $\Delta DotA$ 130b. At selected time points, haemolymph from three living larvae was extracted, pooled and the number of CFU/100 μ l of extracted haemolymph was determined (Fig. 2A). The 130b $\Delta DotA$ mutant was cleared from the injected larvae by 24 h p.i. and did not exhibit any replication. On the contrary, infection of G. mellonella with wild type 130b resulted in an

242 initial 10-fold reduction of CFU 5 h p.i., but the bacterial numbers then increased up to 100-243 fold from the inoculum until 24 h p.i., demonstrating that L. pneumophila is able to replicate 244 in G. mellonella. 245 To analyze if L. pneumophila was replicating intracellularly in the haemolymph, 246 haemocytes were extracted from infected G. mellonella at 5 and 24 h p.i. and immuno-stained 247 for external and total bacteria (Fig. 2B). By 5 h p.i. both wild type and ΔDotA 130b were 248 found inside (green bacteria) and attached to (yellow bacteria) haemocytes. By 24 h p.i. 249 haemocytes extracted from G. mellonella infected with wild type bacteria were full of 250 intracellular L. pneumophila, whereas no bacteria could be found in haemocytes of G. 251 mellonella infected with the 130b Δ DotA strain (data not shown). This result indicates that L. 252 pneumophila replicates in G. mellonella haemocytes. 253 In order to determine the impact of L. pneumophila persistence and intracellular replication 254 on G. mellonella mortality, we tested two closely related strains derived from the L. 255 pneumophila strain Philadelphia-1, JR32 and Lp02 with JR32 ΔIcmT as a T4SS-deficient 256 control. While both JR32 and Lp02 encode a functional Dot/Icm T4SS, the latter is a thymine 257 auxotroph showing reduced intracellular survival and replication in cultured cells in the 258 absence of added thymine or thymidine (4). Quantification of the CFU extracted from the 259 haemolymph over 24 h (Fig. 2C) showed that the JR32 persisted in injected G. mellonella 260 throughout the infection, while the JR32 ΔIcmT strain, which does not have a functional 261 T4SS, was cleared within 18 h. The Lp02 strain persisted to higher CFU than the JR32 262 ΔIcmT strain 18 h p.i., before ultimately cleared by 24 h p.i. While JR32 killed all the 263 infected insects, both the Lp02 and JR32 Δ IcmT strains were unable to cause death in 264 injected G. mellonella over three days p.i., (Fig. 2D). These data indicate that a functional 265 T4SS which enables the Lp02 strain to translocate effectors during the first hours of infection 266 (Fig. 4) is not sufficient to induce death of the larvae. The mortality of L. pneumophilainjected *G. mellonella* depends therefore on both the T4SS and the ability of the bacteria to persist within the larvae for more then 18 h.

269

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

291

267

268

L. pneumophila resides in a LCV in haemocytes

In order to assess if L. pneumophila forms a LCV in haemocytes, we analyzed haemocytes from infected G. mellonella by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Fig. 3). By 5 h p.i L. pneumophila 130b was observed within distinct vacuoles, which were associated with mitochondria and ribosomes. As the infection progressed, more bacteria could be seen within the LCV until the majority of haemocytes were filled with bacteria. By 24 h p.i. the LCV was studded with ribosomes. L. pneumophila therefore appears to reside in haemocytes of infected G. mellonella in LCVs, which are similar to those seen in human monocytes (21). To further characterize the LCVs formed in haemocytes, we evaluated the recruitment of SidC, a T4SS L. pneumophila effector previously shown to bind the LCV membrane through interaction with phosphatidylinositol-4 phosphate (PI4P) (51). A 4HA epitope-tagged SidC₄₁. 918 was expressed in L. pneumophila and the localization of the protein was analyzed by immunofluorescence (Fig. 4). To ensure the protein was expressed, larvae were injected with bacterial suspension containing 1 µM IPTG. The presence of IPTG alone did not affect survival (data not shown). Similarly to human A549 cells (data not shown), anti-HA staining of SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈ surrounded intracellular bacteria in haemocytes. No anti-HA staining was observed in the control haemocytes extracted from larvae infected with L. pneumophila 130b ΔDotA expressing 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈. At 24 h p.i. haemocytes from G. mellonella infected with wild type 130b were full of bacteria surrounded by 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈-stained LCVs. Similar results were obtained with the thymine prototroph strain JR32. In accordance with the results presented in Fig. 2C, the thymine auxotroph strain Lp02 did not show evidence of replication 24 h p.i. yet it displayed recruitment of 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈ to the LCV membrane at both 5 and

24 h p.i. These results indicate that similar to infection of protozoan or mammalian host cells, *L. pneumophila* is able to translocate a T4SS-substrate and to form an LCV in *G. mellonella* haemocytes.

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

292

293

294

G. mellonella pathology in response to L. pneumophila infection

In order to examine the effect of L. pneumophila infection on G. mellonella physiology, the infected larvae were fixed and paraffin embedded sections were stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and evaluated for histological changes (Fig. 5). Mock-infected controls appeared healthy with no bacteria observed in the haemocoel and individually distributed haemocytes occasionally forming loose aggregations. However, in both wild type and ΔDotA-infected insects, vigorous host defenses appeared to be mounted. At 16 h p.i. with 130b ΔDotA, fewer individual haemocytes were observed compared to the mock infected control, with the majority of haemocytes present in tightly packed aggregation nodules and some evidence of melanisation. By 24 h p.i. we observed similar features, but the majority of the tissue looked healthy. In larvae infected with wild type bacteria at 16 h p.i. haemocytes were observed in nodules attached to organ structures, with clearly visible nodule melanisation. By 24 h p.i. nodules were still observed however septicemia was found in much of the haemocoel and organ structures including the gut appeared severely damaged. In order to confirm that the bacteria observed in formalin fixed sections of the infected G. mellonella were L. pneumophila, sections were stained using a specific anti-L. pneumophila antibody. DNA was visualized by DAPI staining and the tissue structure was counter strained using rhodamine-conjugated phalloidin (Fig. 6). Anti-L. pneumophila antibodies did not stain any bacteria in the uninfected or 130b ΔDotA infected insects at 18 h p.i. In the G. mellonella infected with wild type 130b, bacteria stained with the anti-L. pneumophila antibody were found throughout the haemolymph (Fig. 6) and occasionally in cells within the fat bodies (not

shown). Bacteria were exclusively associated with cells and were usually found in aggregates of haemocytes.

Altogether, these data indicate that L. pneumophila triggers an immune response in G. mellonella that successfully clears the $\Delta DotA$ mutant from the larvae, whereas wild type L. pneumophila are resistant to host defenses.

322

323

324

325

326

327

328

329

330

331

332

333

334

335

336

337

338

339

340

341

317

318

319

320

321

The G. mellonella immune responses to L. pneumophila infection

Progression of L. pneumophila infection resulted in an increase in G. mellonella pigmentation (Fig. 7A), which is usually indicative of activation of the PO. Upon recognition of pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), the pro-PO system components are released from haemocytes into the haemolymph, leading to activation of PO. The activity of this enzyme subsequently induces the formation of quinones and melanin, which are involved in defense reactions against pathogens invading the haemocoel, such as nodule formation and encapsulation (8). In order to quantify this innate immune response, we assayed at selected time points the level of PO activity in the haemolymph of G. mellonella infected with 130b (Fig. 7B). By 5 h p.i. insects injected with wild type L. pneumophila exhibited dramatically increased PO activity compared to larvae injected with PBS (P<0.005). Larvae inoculated with L. pneumophila ΔDotA presented an intermediate level of PO activity. By 18 h p.i. the level of PO activity did not significantly change in the PBS and 130b Δ DotA injected G. mellonella. However in G. mellonella injected with wild type bacteria, levels of PO activity significantly dropped compared to 5 h p.i. (P<0.005), reaching levels similar to the PBS control. These results indicate that L. pneumophila infection initiates an immune defense in G. mellonella through PO activation, a response which is nonetheless abrogated by 18 h p.i. In order to test if the absence of PO activity at 18 h p.i. could be due to haemocyte depletion, insects were infected with wild type or $\Delta DotA$ 130b, or injected with PBS as a control and

haemocytes were counted by light microscopy at 5 and 18 h p.i. (Fig. 7C). At 5 h p.i. the concentration of haemocytes per ml of haemoplymph was comparable in the different groups. However, by 18 h p.i. the number of haemocytes was reduced by almost 90% in G. mellonella inoculated with wild type 130b as compared to 5 h p.i. or the controls, suggesting that L. pneumophila infection induces haemocyte destruction. The reduction in haemocyte number observed is likely to contribute to the decreased PO activation observed 18 h p.i. A major component of the defense response of insects is the production of antimicrobial peptides (AMP) (29, 31). In order to assess if G. mellonella produced AMPs following L. pneumophila infection, their expression was tested in fat bodies, where they are mainly produced. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR on extracted mRNA showed that infection with wild type L. pneumophila resulted in an up-regulation of most of the immune-related peptides tested compared to a PBS-injected control (Fig. 8), with a significantly increased expression of gloverin and pro-PO (PPO) as soon as 2 h p.i. (P<0.006). In contrast, gallerimycin, galliomycin and the iron binding protein transferrin were significantly up-regulated only after 18 h of infection (P<0.0005 for gallerimycin and transferrin and P<0.005 for galliomycin). The expression of the peptidoglycan recognition protein B (PRPB) did not significantly increase upon inoculation with wild type L. pneumophila. Injection with $\Delta DotA$ did not cause significant change from the baseline level with the exception of the AMP gloverin, the mRNA level of which increased after 24 h (P<0.01). These results show that G. mellonella mounts an immune response to L. pneumophila infection that nonetheless is not effective in clearing the wild type bacteria.

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

Discussion

363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

384

385

386

387

Adequate infection models that approximate human disease are the key to analyze the molecular basis of bacterial pathogenesis. Substantial advances in our knowledge about their genetics and immune responses have led to the increased use of insects as surrogate hosts. In particular, the larvae of the greater wax moth Galleria mellonella have recently been reported as easy-to-use model organism for several pathogenic Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria (23, 36). These studies demonstrated a good correlation between the G. mellonella and mammalian infection models (10, 23, 36). In this study we characterized G. mellonella as new infection model for L. pneumophila. Using three prototypic L. pneumophila strains, we found that G. mellonella could withstand a low infectious dose but the larvae succumbed to infection with higher doses. At the highest dose all three tested strains caused substantial death of the larvae; however the kinetics of lethality differed with L. pneumophila strain 130b being more virulent than strains JR32 and Paris. Although a systematic comparison of the virulence phenotypes of all the three strains in amoeba or mammalian models has not been reported, strain 130b was previously shown to replicate more efficiently than JR32 following intra-tracheal infection of A/J mice (40). In a comparative assessment of the virulence traits of 27 L. pneumophila and non-pneumophila strains, 130b was the third-most cytopathogenic strain (2). Taken together this indicates that the G. mellonella model can reproduce strain-to-strain variations in virulence observed in mammalian cell culture and animal models, which makes it a quick and inexpensive tool to compare the virulence of different L. pneumophila isolates or Legionella species. The Dot/Icm T4SS of L. pneumophila is essential for infection of amoeba, human macrophages, mice, and D. melanogaster (4, 27, 42, 45). The D. melanogaster model has been successfully used to demonstrate the contribution of the Dot/Icm effector LubX to L. pneumophila replication and fly lethality. We found that L. pneumophila-induced mortality of

G. mellonella also depended on a functional Dot/Icm T4SS. A T4SS-deficient mutant did not show any virulence even at the highest (10⁷ CFU) inoculum injected. This contrasts observations described for the G. mellonella model of Listeria infection, in which nonpathogenic strains with increasing doses up to 10⁷ CFU per larvae also induced mortality (23, 34). It was proposed that this could be attributed to a form of sepsis, and subsequent death was caused by bacterial overload and was not due to specific virulence factors. Our data indicates that the threshold at which bacterial load triggers sepsis and death may vary from pathogen to pathogen. Although the *Drosophila* model was used to determine virulence phenotypes of L. pneumophila mutants in the fly, further aspects underlying L. pneumophila pathogenesis in the insect have not been characterized (27). We show for the first time that L. pneumophila resides in a vacuole in haemocytes isolated from infected insects. This vacuole ultrastructurally resembled the LCV observed in human macrophages and amoeba, including association of mitochondria, acquisition of a rough ER-like structure (1, 21) and recruitment of SidC, which was previously shown to be tethered to the LCV via a phosphatidylinositol-4 phosphate anchor (51). The recruitment of ribosomes and the T4SS-substrate SidC to the haemocyte LCV suggests that L. pneumophila uses at least some of the fundamental strategies which are employed to establish a replicative vacuole in mammalian cells and amoeba also to infect insect haemocytes. Analysis of L. pneumophila replication in G. mellonella by direct bacterial enumeration demonstrated that, following an initial 10-fold reduction in CFU of wild type bacteria at 5 h p.i., bacterial CFU quickly recovered and increased by 100-fold from the inoculum by 24 h p.i. The $\Delta DotA$ mutant was cleared by 24 h p.i. The level of L. pneumophila replication appears to be higher than in the mouse model, in which the strain 130b could exhibit up to 20 fold increase of CFU within 48 h (6, 40) or in the *Drosophila* model in which an increase of

388

389

390

391

392

393

394

395

396

397

398

399

400

401

402

403

404

405

406

407

408

409

410

411

CFU up to 20 fold within 10 days was reported (27). The importance of bacterial persistence for L. pneumophila virulence in the G. mellonella model is demonstrated by the fact that L. pneumophila strain Lp02, which did not persist after 18 h p.i. was unable to kill G. mellonella despite having a functional T4SS and forming a LCV in haemocytes. Moreover, the 130b strain, which replicated better in the larvae than the JR32 strain, induced death more rapidly than the JR32 strain, suggesting that in addition to persistence, bacterial replication also contributes to *L. pneumophila* virulence in the *G. mellonella* model. These data suggest a scenario in which immune cells successfully clear a fraction of the inoculated L. pneumophila at early stages of infection. However, enough wild type bacteria evade destruction by phagocytes and start replicating. Release from haemocytes following replication is most likely accompanied with destruction of the haemocytes. This model is supported by the fact that 90% of the haemocytes are lost by 18 h p.i. following wild type L. pneumophila infection. Depletion of circulating haemocytes upon bacterial infection has previously been reported and correlated with G. mellonella mortality caused by pathogenic fungi and Gram-negative bacteria (9, 34). This loss may be due to the death of infected haemocytes or the sequestration of haemocytes in nodules or a combination of both. However, nodules were observed in wild type and ΔDotA infected G. mellonella and there was no significant loss of haemocytes in $\Delta DotA$ infected larvae, suggesting that replication and T4SS-dependent toxicity are the most likely cause of the loss of cells. Depletion of haemocytes, the major source of pro-phenoloxidase (pro-PO) which triggers the melanisation response upon infection, would also explain why we observed an initial activation of PO which was followed by a sharp drop at 18 h post infection. An alternative hypothesis is that L. pneumophila may also specifically reduce PO activity; indeed, the insect pathogen *Photorhabdus luminescens* can inhibit PO activity at 18 h post infection (15). In conclusion, we demonstrate that G. mellonella is susceptible to L. pneumophila infection and

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

430

431

432

433

434

435

436

that this model reproduces virulence phenotypes observed in amoeba and mammalian infection models. Virulence depends on the Dot/Icm T4SS and bacteria seem to reside and replicate in a typical LCV. Future advances in our knowledge about the *G. mellonella* immune gene repertoire (50) cell death pathways (25) and haemocyte biology (28, 30) together with initiatives to advance RNA interference systems in *Lepidoptera* spp. (49) will further increase the value of *G. mellonella* as an infection model which could potentially be used to study the role of Dot/Icm T4SS effectors, the T2SS and other factors in virulence of *Legionella* spp.

Acknowledgements

We thank Professor Carmen Buchrieser, Professor Elizabeth L. Hartland and PD Dr. Hubert Hilbi for providing the *L. pneumophila* strains Paris, Lp02 and JR32, JR32 ΔIcmT, respectively. We thank Mary Bagnall and Professor Roberto LaRagione for assistance with the development of the *G. mellonella* virulence model and Lorraine Lawrence for preparing the histology. This work was supported by funding from the Wellcome Trust, the BBSRC and the MRC.

453	Refere	ences
454		
455	1.	Abu Kwaik Y. 1996. The phagosome containing Legionella pneumophila within
456		the protozoan <i>Hartmannella vermiformis</i> is surrounded by the rough
457		endoplasmic reticulum. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 62:2022-2028.
458	2.	Alli OA, Zink S, von Lackum NK, Abu-Kwaik Y. 2003. Comparative assessment
459		of virulence traits in <i>Legionella</i> spp. Microbiology 149: 631-641.
460	3.	Baskerville A, Fitzgeorge RB, Broster M, Hambleton P, Dennis PJ. 1981.
461		Experimental transmission of legionnaires' disease by exposure to aerosols of
462		Legionella pneumophila. Lancet 2: 1389-1390.
463	4.	Berger KH, Isberg RR. 1993. Two distinct defects in intracellular growth
464		complemented by a single genetic locus in Legionella pneumophila. Mol.
465		Microbiol. 7: 7-19.
466	5.	Brassinga AK, Kinchen JM, Cupp ME, Day SR, Hoffman PS, Sifri CD. 2011.
467		Caenorhabditis is a metazoan host for Legionella. Cell. Microbiol. 12:343-361.
468	6.	Brieland J, Freeman P, Kunkel R, Chrisp C, Hurley M, Fantone J, Engleberg C.
469		1994. Replicative Legionella pneumophila lung infection in intratracheally
470		inoculated A/J mice. A murine model of human Legionnaires' disease. Am. J.
471		Pathol. 145 :1537-1546.
472	7.	Cazalet C, Rusniok C, Bruggemann H, Zidane N, Magnier A, Ma L, Tichit M,

22

473

474

475

476

36:1165-1173.

Jarraud S, Bouchier C, Vandenesch F, Kunst, F Etienne J, Glaser P,

Buchrieser C. 2004. Evidence in the Legionella pneumophila genome for

exploitation of host cell functions and high genome plasticity. Nat. Genet.

- 477 8. **Cerenius L, Soderhall K.** 2004. The prophenoloxidase-activating system in invertebrates. Immunol. Rev. **198**:116-126.
- 479 9. Champion OL, Cooper IA, James SL, Ford D, Karlyshev A, Wren BW,
- **Duffield M, Oyston PC, Titball RW.** 2009. *Galleria mellonella* as an alternative
- infection model for *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis*. Microbiology **155**:1516-1522.
- 482 10. Champion OL, Karlyshev AV, Senior NJ, Woodward M, La Ragione R,
- 483 Howard SL, Wren BW, Titball RW. 2010. Insect infection model for
- 484 Campylobacter jejuni reveals that 0-methyl phosphoramidate has insecticidal
- 485 activity. J. Infect. Dis. **201**:776-782.
- 486 11. **Cianciotto NP** 2009. Many substrates and functions of type II secretion: lessons
- learned from *Legionella pneumophila*. Future Microbiol. **4:**797-805.
- 488 12. De Buck E, Lebeau I, Maes L, Geukens N, Meyen E, Van Mellaert L, Anne J,
- 489 **Lammertyn E.** 2004. A putative twin-arginine translocation pathway in
- 490 *Legionella pneumophila.* Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. **317**:654-661.
- 491 13. Dolezal P, Aili M, Tong J, Jiang JH, Marobbio CM, Lee SF, Schuelein R,
- Belluzzo S, Binova E, Mousnier A, Frankel G, Giannuzzi G, Palmieri F,
- 493 Gabriel K, Naderer T, Hartland EL, Lithgow T. 2012. Legionella pneumophila
- Secretes a Mitochondrial Carrier Protein during Infection. PLoS Pathog.
- 495 **8:**e1002459.
- 496 14. **Edelstein, PH.** 1986. Control of *Legionella* in hospitals. J. Hosp. Infect. **8:**109-115.
- 497 15. Eleftherianos I, Millichap PJ, ffrench-Constant RH, Reynolds SE. 2006. RNAi
- 498 suppression of recognition protein mediated immune responses in the tobacco
- hornworm *Manduca sexta* causes increased susceptibility to the insect pathogen
- 500 *Photorhabdus*. Dev. Comp. Immunol. **30**:1099-1107.

- 501 16. Fraser DW, Tsai TR, Orenstein W, Parkin WE, Beecham, HJ Sharrar RG,
- Harris J, Mallison GF, Martin SM, McDade JE, Shepard CC, Brachman PS.
- 503 1977. Legionnaires' disease: description of an epidemic of pneumonia. N. Engl. J.
- 504 Med. **297:**1189-1197.
- 505 17. Fuchs B B, O'Brien E, Khoury JB, Mylonakis E. 2010. Methods for using
- 506 Galleria mellonella as a model host to study fungal pathogenesis. Virulence
- **1:**475-482.
- 508 18. Girard F, Oswald IP, Taranu I, Helie P, Appleyard GD, Harel J, Fairbrother
- 509 JM. 2005. Host immune status influences the development of attaching and
- effacing lesions in weaned pigs. Infect. Immun. **73:**5514-5523.
- 511 19. **Hammer BK, Swanson MS.** 1999. Co-ordination of legionella pneumophila
- virulence with entry into stationary phase by ppGpp. Mol. Microbiol. **33:**721-731.
- 513 20. Hilbi H, Weber SS, Ragaz C, Nyfeler Y, Urwyler S. 2007. Environmental
- 514 predators as models for bacterial pathogenesis. Environ. Microbiol. **9:**563-575.
- 515 21. Horwitz MA. 1983. The Legionnaires' disease bacterium (Legionella
- 516 pneumophila) inhibits phagosome-lysosome fusion in human monocytes. J. Exp.
- 517 Med. **158**:2108-2126.
- 518 22. **Jander G, Rahme LG, Ausubel FM.** 2000. Positive correlation between virulence
- of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* mutants in mice and insects. J. Bacteriol. **182:**3843-
- 520 3845.
- 521 23. **Joyce SA, Gahan CG.** 2010. Molecular pathogenesis of *Listeria monocytogenes* in
- 522 the alternative model host *Galleria mellonella*. Microbiology **156**:3456-3468.
- 523 24. **Kavanagh K, Reeves EP.** 2004. Exploiting the potential of insects for in vivo
- 524 pathogenicity testing of microbial pathogens. FEMS Microbiol. Rev. **28**:101-112.

- 525 25. Khoa DB, Trang LT, Takeda M. 2012. Expression analyses of caspase-1 and
- related activities in the midgut of *Galleria mellonella* during metamorphosis.
- 527 Insect Mol. Biol. **21**:247-256.
- 528 26. Kosta A, Luciani MF, Geerts WJ, Golstein P. 2008. Marked mitochondrial
- alterations upon starvation without cell death, caspases or Bcl-2 family members.
- 530 Biochim. Biophy.s Acta. **1783:**2013-2019.
- 531 27. Kubori T, Shinzawa N, Kanuka H, Nagai H. 2010. Legionella metaeffector
- exploits host proteasome to temporally regulate cognate effector. PLoS Pathog.
- **6:**e1001216.
- 534 28. Lavine MD, Strand MR. 2002. Insect hemocytes and their role in immunity.
- 535 Insect Biochem. Mol. Biol. **32:**1295-1309.
- 536 29. **Lemaitre B, Hoffmann J.** 2007. The host defense of *Drosophila melanogaster*.
- 537 Annu. Rev. Immunol. **25:**697-743.
- 538 30. Marmaras VJ, Lampropoulou M. 2009. Regulators and signaling in insect
- haemocyte immunity. Cell Signal. **21**:186-195.
- 31. **Meister M, Lemaitre B, Hoffmann JA.** 1997. Antimicrobial peptide defense in
- 541 *Drosophila*. Bioessays **19:**1019-1026.
- 32. Molmeret M, Horn M, Wagner M, Santic M, Abu Kwaik Y. 2005. Amoebae as
- training grounds for intracellular bacterial pathogens. Appl. Environ. Microbiol.
- **71:**20-28.
- 545 33. **Mowlds P, Barron A, Kavanagh K.** 2008. Physical stress primes the immune
- response of *Galleria mellonella* larvae to infection by *Candida albicans*. Microbes.
- 547 Infect. **10**:628-634.

- 548 34. Mukherjee K, Altincicek B, Hain T, Domann E, Vilcinskas A, Chakraborty T.
- 549 2010. Galleria mellonella as a model system for studying Listeria pathogenesis.
- 550 Appl. Environ. Microbiol. **76:**310-317.
- 35. **Nagai H, Kubori T.** 2011. Type IVB Secretion Systems of *Legionella* and Other
- Gram-Negative Bacteria. Front. Microbiol. **2:**136.
- 553 36. Olsen RJ, Watkins ME, Cantu CC, Beres SB, Musser JM. 2011. Virulence of
- serotype M3 Group A Streptococcus strains in wax worms (Galleria mellonella
- 555 larvae). Virulence **2:**111-119.
- 556 37. Renwick J, Daly P, Reeves EP, Kavanagh K. 2006. Susceptibility of larvae of
- 557 Galleria mellonella to infection by Aspergillus fumigatus is dependent upon stage
- of conidial germination. Mycopathologia **161**:377-384.
- 559 38. **Rowbotham TJ.** 1980. Preliminary report on the pathogenicity of *Legionella*
- *pneumophila* for freshwater and soil amoebae. J. Clin. Pathol. **33:**1179-1183.
- 561 39. Sadosky AB, Wiater LA, Shuman HA. 1993. Identification of Legionella
- 562 pneumophila genes required for growth within and killing of human
- 563 macrophages. Infect. Immun. **61:**5361-5373.
- 564 40. Samrakandi MM, Cirillo SL, Ridenour DA, Bermudez LE, Cirillo JD. 2002.
- Genetic and phenotypic differences between Legionella pneumophila strains. J.
- 566 Clin. Microbiol. **40**:1352-1362.
- 567 41. Sansom FM, Newton HJ, Crikis S, Cianciotto NP, Cowan PJ, d'Apice AJ,
- 568 **Hartland EL.** 2007. A bacterial ecto-triphosphate diphosphohydrolase similar to
- 569 human CD39 is essential for intracellular multiplication of *Legionella*
- *pneumophila*. Cell. Microbiol. **9:**1922-1935.
- 571 42. Santic M, Asare R, Doric M, Abu Kwaik Y. 2007. Host-dependent trigger of
- caspases and apoptosis by *Legionella pneumophila*. Infect. Immun. **75:**2903-2913.

- 573 43. Schroeder GN, Petty NK, Mousnier A, Harding CR, Vogrin AJ, Wee B, Fry NK,
- Harrison TG, Newton HJ, Thomson NR, Beatson SA, Dougan G, Hartland E,
- **Frankel G.** 2010. The genome of *Legionella pneumophila* strain 130b contains a
- unique combination of type IV secretion systems and encodes novel Dot/Icm
- secretion system effector proteins. J. Bacteriol. **192:**6001-6016.
- 578 44. **Scully LR, Bidochka MJ.** 2006. Developing insect models for the study of current
- and emerging human pathogens. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. **263:**1-9.
- 580 45. **Segal G, Purcell M, Shuman HA.** 1998. Host cell killing and bacterial conjugation
- require overlapping sets of genes within a 22-kb region of the *Legionella*
- *pneumophila* genome. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U S A **95:**1669-1674.
- 583 46. **Segal G, Shuman HA.** 1998. Intracellular multiplication and human macrophage
- killing by Legionella pneumophila are inhibited by conjugal components of IncQ
- plasmid RSF1010. Mol. Microbiol. **30:**197-208.
- 586 47. **Solomon IM, Rupper A, Cardelli JA, Isberg RR.** 2000. Intracellular growth of
- 587 Legionella pneumophila in Dictyostelium discoideum, a system for genetic analysis
- of host-pathogen interactions. Infect. Immun. **68**:2939-2947.
- 589 48. **Swanson MS, Isberg RR.** 1995. Association of *Legionella pneumophila* with the
- macrophage endoplasmic reticulum. Infect. Immun. **63**:3609-3620.
- 591 49. **Terenius O, et al** 2011. RNA interference in Lepidoptera: an overview of
- successful and unsuccessful studies and implications for experimental design. J.
- 593 Insect. Physiol. **57:**231-245.
- 594 50. Vogel H, Altincicek B, Glockner G, Vilcinskas A. 2011. A comprehensive
- transcriptome and immune-gene repertoire of the lepidopteran model host
- *Galleria mellonella*. BMC Genomics **12**:308.

597	51.	Weber SS, Ragaz C, Reus K, Nyfeler Y, Hilbi H. 2006. Legionella pneumophila
598		exploits PI(4)P to anchor secreted effector proteins to the replicative vacuole.
599		PLoS Pathog. 2:e46.
600	52.	Wright EK, Goodart SA, Growney JD, Hadinoto V, Endrizzi MG, Long EM,
601		Sadigh K, Abney AL, Bernstein-Hanley I, Dietrich WF. 2003. Naip5 affects host
602		susceptibility to the intracellular pathogen Legionella pneumophila. Curr. Biol.
603		13: 27-36.
604	53.	Zhu W, Banga S, Tan Y, Zheng C, Stephenson R, Gately J, Luo ZQ. 2011.
605		Comprehensive identification of protein substrates of the Dot/Icm type IV
606		transporter of Legionella pneumophila. PLoS One 6: e17638.
607		
608		
609		
610		
611		
612		
613		
614		
615		
616		
617		
618		
619		
620		
621		

Table 1

Primer	Sequence		
Gallerimycin FW	GAAGATCGCTTTCATAGTCGC		
Gallerimycin RV	TACTCCCTGCAGTTAGCAATGC		
Prophenoloxidase FW	CCGCGAACACCGATCATCATTCCAAG		
Prophenoloxidase RV	GTGCACGCTTCCGTAGAGTTCCCGG		
Gloverin FW	CGGTAGTCGGGTGTTGAGCCCGTATG		
Gloverin RV	CGTCTGATACGATCGTAGGTGCC		
Peptidoglycan recognition protein B FW	GGTCATCATCCAGCATACAGTGACG		
Peptidoglycan recognition protein B RV	CCATCCAGTTGGGCCAGCTTCTTAT		
Transferrin FW	CCCGAAGATGAACGATCAC		
Transferrin RV	CGAAAGGCCTAGAACGTTTG		
Galliomicin FW	CCTCTGA TTGCAA TGCTGAGTG		
Galliomicin RV	GCTGCCAAGTTAGTCAACAGG		
Actin FW	GGGACGATATGGAGAAG		
Actin RV	CACGCTCTGTGAGGATCT		
All sequences from (24)			

Figure Legends

T4SS-dependent lethality. *G. mellonella* larvae were injected with PBS or *L. pneumophila strain* 130b, Paris or JR32 (10⁷ CFU per larvae, if not otherwise indicated) and survival was monitored over 72 h p.i. **(A)** All three strains caused time-dependent death of the infected larvae, with strain 130b inducing significantly higher (P<0.005) mortality at 18 h p.i. **(B)** Mortality of the larvae upon infection with *L. pneumophila* strain 130b was dose-dependent. **(C)** Larvae survival was dependent on the growth phase of *L. pneumophila*. Larvae were inoculated with *L. pneumophila* 130b cultured to exponential (E), post exponential (PE) or stationary (S) phase. Bacteria in post exponential phase demonstrated significantly (P<0.005) higher toxicity than bacteria in other growth phases at 18h p.i. **(D)** *L. pneumophila*-induced mortality in *G. mellonella* was dependent on the Dot/Icm T4SS. *G. mellonella* were injected with *L. pneumophila* 130b wild type or T4SS-deficient strain ΔDotA. The T4SS mutant did not induce any mortality in the larvae 72 h p.i. Results represent the mean of at least three independent experiments ± standard deviations with 10 larvae per condition.

Figure 2. *L. pneumophila* is able to persist and replicate in *G. mellonella*. Haemolymph from three *L. pneumophila*-infected *G. mellonella* was extracted and the CFU/100μl were quantified. (A) Wild type *L. pneumophila* 130b replicated within the larvae over the infection course, while the ΔDotA mutant was cleared from *G. mellonella* by 24 h p.i. (B) *L. pneumophila* 130b invades and replicates within haemocytes. External and total bacteria were immuno-stained. By 5 h p.i. both wild type and ΔDotA bacteria were found inside cells. By 24 h p.i., wild type infected haemocytes had high loads of intracellular bacteria. (C and D) *G. mellonella* mortality depends on *L. pneumophila* persistence. *G. mellonella* was inoculated with *L. pneumophila* strains JR32, JR32 ΔIcmT or Lp02. (C) While the JR32 ΔIcmT strain

was rapidly killed, the thymine auxotroph strain Lp02 declined slowly until 18 h p.i., before being cleared until 24 h p.i. JR32 persisted at higher level throughout the course of infection. **(D)** Only the wild type JR32 strain, but neither the ΔIcmT nor Lp02 strain induced mortality in *G. mellonella* by 72 h p.i. Results are representative of at least two independent experiments.

Figure 3. *L. pneumophila* **forms a LCV in** *G. mellonella* **haemocytes**. Haemocytes from *G. mellonella* infected with *L. pneumophila* 130b were extracted 5, 12 and 24 h p.i. and imaged by transmission electron microscopy. **(A)** At 5 h p.i., a few bacteria could be observed in distinct vacuoles within haemocytes. As the infection progressed, more bacteria per vacuole were found, until cells appeared filled with bacteria by 24 h p.i. Scale bar represents 2 μm **(B)** At 5 h p.i., mitochondria (arrowheads), ribosomes (arrows) and ribosome-associated vesicles were observed on the surface of the LCV. By 24 h p.i. the LCV was studded with ribosomes (arrows). Scale bar represents 500 nm.

Figure 4. SidC is localized to the LCV in haemocytes of infected *G. mellonella*. *G. mellonella* larvae were injected with *L. pneumophila* strains 130b, JR32 or Lp02 overexpressing 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈. At 5 and 24 h p.i., haemocytes were extracted, fixed and stained with anti-HA antibody. By 5 h p.i. anti-HA staining revealed that SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈ was localized on the LCV surface in haemocytes extracted from *G. mellonella* infected with wild type *L. pneumophila* strains but not 130b Δ DotA. By 24 h p.i., haemocytes from *G. mellonella* infected with 130b or JR32 were full of bacteria surrounded by 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈. In contrast, far fewer bacteria were observed in haemocytes from *Galleria* infected with strain Lp02. Scale bar represents 5 μm.

Figure 5. *L. pneumophila* infection of *G. mellonella* initiates a robust innate immune response. *G. mellonella* larvae were injected with *L. pneumophila* 130b, fixed and paraffin embedded sections were stained with H&E. Uninfected *G. mellonella* appeared healthy with some occasional loose aggregations of haemocytes (A). At 16 h p.i. with wild type bacteria a number of nodules (N) could be observed with evidence of melanisation (arrows). At 16 h p.i. with ΔDotA some nodules were visible but by 24 h p.i., the larvae appeared similar to the uninfected control. At 24 h p.i. with the wild type bacteria, some nodules were still visible but a large number of *L. pneumophila* were visible in the haemcoel (B).

Figure 6. Indirect immunofluorescence microscopy of formalin fixed sections of L. pneumophila infected G. mellonella. G. mellonella larvae were infected with L. pneumophila 130b for 18 h, fixed and paraffin embedded sections were stained using a specific anti-L. pneumophila antibody, DAPI was used to visualize bacterial and eukaryotic cell DNA and phalloidin to counter stain the tissue. No L. pneumophila staining was observed in the uninfected or Δ DotA controls. G. mellonella infected with wild type L. pneumophila demonstrated a systemic infection with large numbers of bacteria in the haemolymph. Bacteria were usually associated with cells (arrowheads), a proportion of which displayed apoptotic nuclei (arrows). Scale bar represents 20 μ m.

Figure 7. Characterization of the *G. mellonella* innate immune response to *L. pneumophila* infection. *G. mellonella* larvae were infected with *L. pneumophila* 130b. (A) Larvae and extracted haemolymph became progressively darker over the course of the infection, indicative of melanin production by phenoloxidase (PO). (B) PO activity was quantified in the plasma of infected *Galleria* at 5 and 18 h p.i. In larvae infected with wild type *L pneumophila*, PO activity increased dramatically at 5 h p.i. and was almost abolished

at 18 h p.i. (C) Haemocyte concentration was recorded at 5 and 18 h p.i. with *L. pneumophila* 130b. Infection with wild type bacteria resulted in $\sim 90\%$ reduction in haemocyte concentration after 18 h of infection. Results represent the mean of three independent experiments \pm standard deviations with three larvae per condition. *** P<0.005.

Figure 8. L. pneumophila infection of G. mellonella up-regulates the expression of antimicrobial peptides. Larvae were injected with PBS, wild type L. pneumophila 130b, or ΔDotA. Fat bodies of three infected G. mellonella were harvested and pooled at indicated time points. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was performed and the results were normalized to actin mRNA expression. Larvae infected with wild type bacteria demonstrated increased expression of antimicrobial peptides. Results are the mean of three independent experiments ± standard deviation.

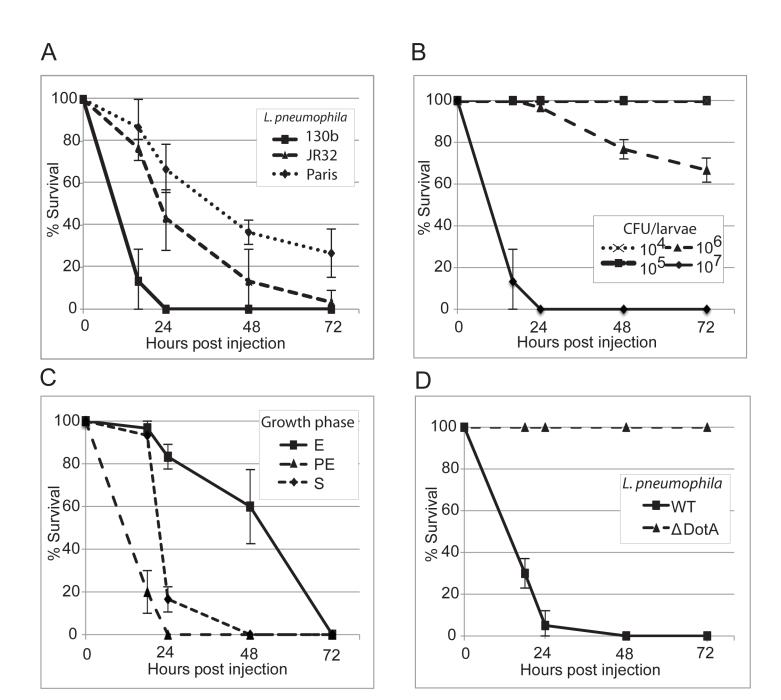


Figure 1

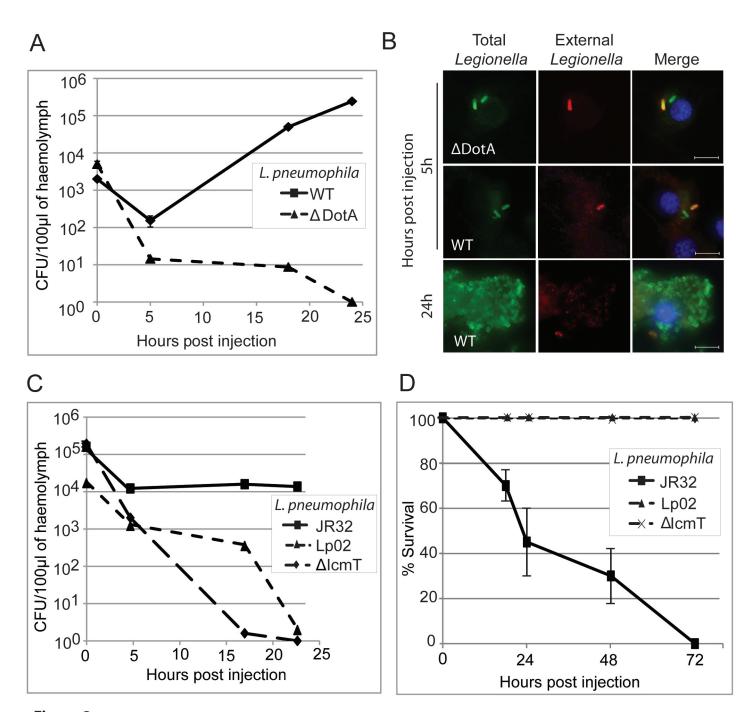


Figure 2

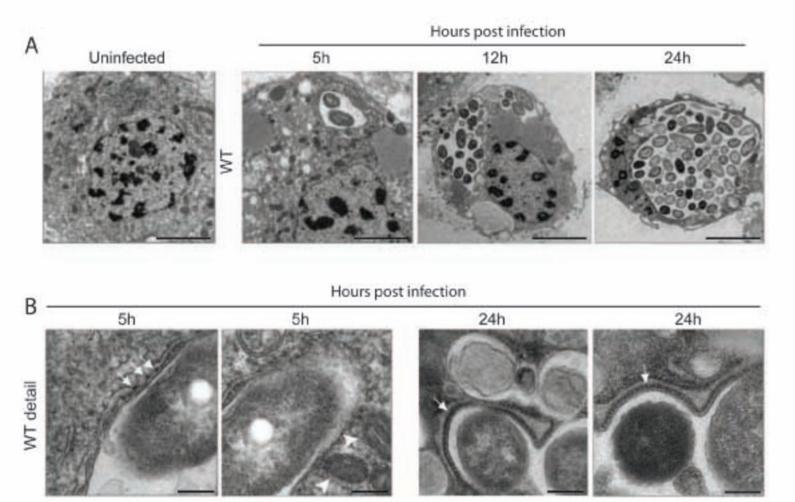


Figure 3



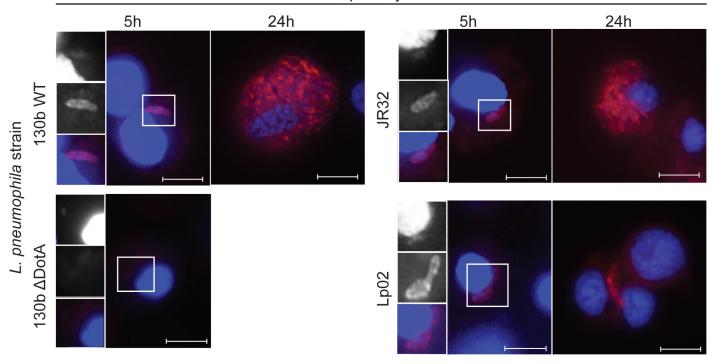


Figure 4

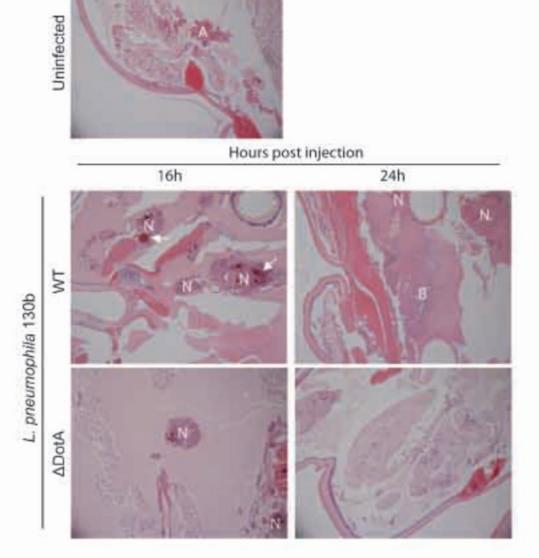
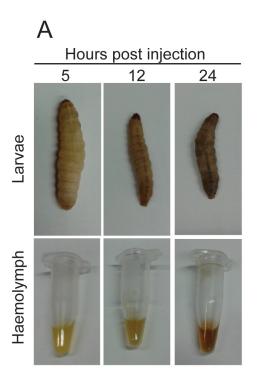
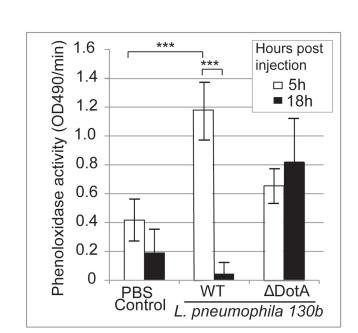


Figure 5

Figure 6





В

C

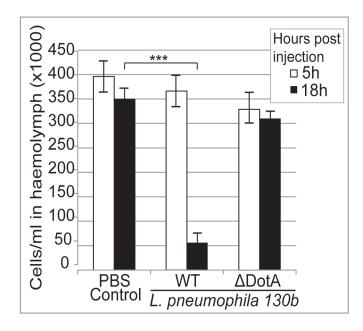
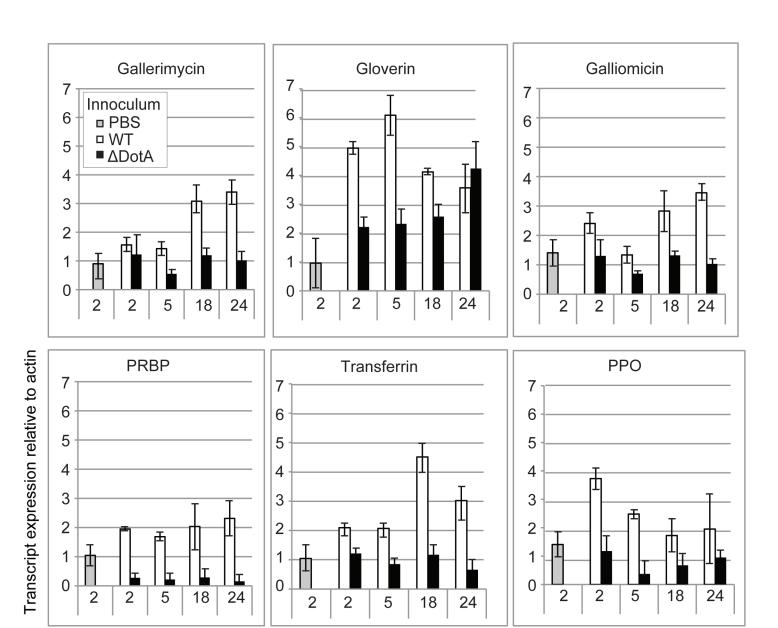


Figure 7



Hours post innoculation

Figure 8