

Strain- and host species-specific inflammasome activation, IL-1beta release and cell death in macrophages infected with uropathogenic Escherichia coli

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23 Abstract

24 Uropathogenic E. coli (UPEC) is the main etiological agent of urinary tract infections (UTI). 25 Little is known about interactions between UPEC and the inflammasome, a key innate immune pathway. Here we show that UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 trigger inflammasome activation 26 27 and lytic cell death in human macrophages. Several other UPEC strains, including two multidrug 28 resistant ST131 isolates, did not kill macrophages. In mouse macrophages, UTI89 triggered cell 29 death only at a high MOI, and CFT073-mediated inflammasome responses were completely 30 NLRP3-dependent. Surprisingly, CFT073- and UTI89-mediated responses only partially 31 depended on NLRP3 in human macrophages. In these cells, NLRP3 was required for IL-1ß 32 maturation, but contributed only marginally to cell death. Similarly, caspase-1 inhibition did not 33 block cell death in human macrophages. In keeping with such differences, the pore forming toxin 34 α -hemolysin mediated a substantial proportion of CFT073-triggered IL-1 β secretion in mouse 35 but not human macrophages. There was also a more substantial α -hemolysin-independent cell 36 death response in human versus mouse macrophages. Thus, in mouse macrophages, CFT073-37 triggered inflammasome responses are completely NLRP3-dependent, and largely α -hemolysin-38 dependent. In contrast, UPEC activates an NLRP3-independent cell death pathway and an α -39 hemolysin-independent IL-1ß secretion pathway in human macrophages. This has important 40 implications for understanding UTI in humans.

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45 Introduction

Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) is estimated to cause up to 80% of community-acquired and 65% of nosocomial urinary tract infections (UTI), making it the single most important etiological agent of this highly prevalent infectious disease¹. UTI typically involves infection of the bladder (cystitis) or kidneys (pyelonephritis), and can also lead to renal scarring and sepsis^{1, 2}. Asymptomatic bacteriuria (ABU), caused by various etiologic agents, is also common³.

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Mouse UTI models, as well as genetic associations within patient cohort studies, have helped to 52 53 pinpoint the roles of specific innate immune pathways in defense against uropathogens². Such 54 studies have highlighted the importance of members of the Toll-like Receptor family in 55 controlling bacterial growth and dissemination, as well as causing symptoms and pathology. At 56 the cellular level, roles of the urothelium and neutrophils in innate defence and host subversion 57 during UTI are well established. However, surprisingly little is known about the roles of monocytes and macrophages in these processes⁴. A recent study by Schiwon *et al.* dissected the 58 59 role of different macrophage populations in a mouse UTI model and unraveled complex 60 interactions of sentinel and helper macrophages governing antimicrobial actions of neutrophils⁵. 61 We previously demonstrated that some UPEC strains can survive for up to 24 h in murine bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMM) within LAMP1⁺ compartments⁶, reminiscent of guiescent 62 63 intracellular reservoirs observed in epithelial cells that may facilitate recurrent infection. Thus, 64 the role of myeloid cells in UPEC infection may not always be protective.

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66 Upon detection of cellular stress and/or microbial products, some Nod-like-receptor (NLR)
67 family members, as well as the PYHIN-family member AIM2, form large cytoplasmic

68 multiprotein complexes known as inflammasomes. Inflammasomes have important functions in many bacterial infections⁷, as well as in chronic diseases^{8, 9}. The NLR-family comprises twenty-69 70 two genes in humans and more than thirty in mice, and can be phylogenetically grouped into the NLRP, IPAF and NOD sub-families¹⁰. The NLRP family members NLRP1 and NLRP3, as well 71 as the IPAF family member NLRC4, can all initiate inflammasome formation. Most NLRP 72 73 family members contain a C-terminal leucine rich repeat that is involved in danger sensing, a 74 central nucleotide-binding and oligomerisation domain, and an N-terminal pyrin domain that 75 relays downstream signalling. NLRC4 has a similar domain structure, but contains an N-terminal 76 caspase recruitment domain (CARD), rather than a pyrin domain. Upon activation, NLRPs 77 oligomerise and cluster into a cytoplasmic complex with the adapter protein ASC and the 78 protease caspase-1, facilitating its autocatalytic cleavage and activation. Active caspase-1 is 79 required for maturation and secretion of the pro-inflammatory IL-1 family cytokines, IL-1β and 80 IL-18. One of the many functions of IL-1 β is to facilitate neutrophil and macrophage recruitment 81 to sites of infection. In addition to mediating cytokine processing, inflammasome activation also 82 initiates a programmed, pro-inflammatory form of cell death called pyroptosis. Pyroptotic cell 83 death is thought to eliminate the intracellular replication niche of pathogens that infect 84 macrophages (e.g. Shigella, Salmonella, Legionella and Listeria) and to re-expose them to antimicrobial effector functions^{7, 11}. 85

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Among the different pathogenic *E. coli* subtypes, enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* O157:H7, which causes severe enteritis, triggers inflammasome activation¹². However, until very recently no studies had investigated inflammasome involvement in UPEC recognition or UTI. In this study, we show that the genome-sequenced UPEC reference strains CFT073 and UTI89 trigger

91 inflammasome activation and rapid cell death in macrophages, whereas others do not. Moreover, 92 we define key mechanistic differences between human and mouse macrophages in the host 93 recognition pathways and bacterial factors that initiate these responses. Our findings of 94 fundamental differences between different UPEC strains in inflammasome engagement, as well 95 as between human and mouse innate immune recognition pathways for UPEC, have major 96 implications for understanding and modeling UTI pathogenesis.

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114 **Results**

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116 UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 cause rapid cell death in macrophages

117 Given the paucity of information on interactions between UPEC and macrophages, we 118 investigated whether the survival of human monocyte-derived macrophages (HMDM) was 119 affected by different UPEC strains. We analyzed strains associated with different UTI severity, 120 including the reference strains CFT073 (a blood culture isolate from a patient with pyelonephritis)¹³ and UTI89 (a urine isolate from a patient with recurrent cystitis)¹⁴, the sequence 121 type (ST) 131 strains EC958^{15, 16} and MS3179 (urine isolates from patients with UTI) and the 122 asymptomatic bacteriuria (ABU) strains 83972 and VR50^{17, 18}. These experiments revealed that 123 only CFT073 and UTI89 caused rapid. lytic cell death by 2 h post-infection as assessed by LDH 124 125 release (Fig. 1A). Cell death was further increased by 24 h post-infection (Fig. 1B). A direct 126 comparison of HMDM with murine BMM over a multiplicity of infection (MOI) range 127 confirmed that mouse macrophages were also susceptible to CFT073-induced cell death (Fig. 128 1C). In BMM, UTI89 did not trigger cell death, except at the highest MOI used (MOI 100, Fig. 1C). This is consistent with our previous findings that UTI89 can survive for up to 24 h within 129 BMM^{6, 19}. To investigate whether UPEC-mediated cell death is a macrophage-specific 130 131 phenomenon, the response to CFT073, UTI89 and MS3179 was also analyzed in PMA-132 differentiated THP-1 cells (a human macrophage-like cell line), murine peritoneal cavity cells (PCC, which are predominantly comprised of resident peritoneal macrophages²⁰) and two human 133 134 bladder epithelial cell lines (5637 and T24) commonly used to study UPEC infection in vitro 135 (Fig. 1D). PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells showed a similar response to HMDM. CFT073 also 136 triggered cell death in PCC, whereas the effect of UTI89 was much weaker, similar to the

findings with mouse BMM (compare Fig. 1C). The ST131 isolate MS3179 did not trigger cell death in any of the cell types tested, and the two epithelial cell lines were not killed efficiently by any of the UPEC strains at an MOI of 10 at 2 h post-infection (Fig. 1D). However, 24 h exposure of epithelial cell lines to a very high MOI (MOI 1000) of all UPEC strains did result in some cell death (Fig. S1). Collectively, these data demonstrate substantial variability in the capacity of different UPEC strains to elicit macrophage cell death.

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144 UPEC-mediated macrophage cell death correlates with inflammasome activation

145 To investigate potential involvement of the inflammasome pathway in cell death, we first 146 examined the capacity of UPEC strains to trigger IL-1 β release from LPS-primed macrophages. 147 LPS priming was performed to boost pro-IL-1 β levels, allowing the use of IL-1 β release as a 148 marker for inflammasome activation with minimal interference by rapid cell death or by other 149 confounding processes such as suppression of cytokine production by some UPEC strains²¹. 150 Indeed, we found that, whereas CFT073, UTI89 and MS3179 all elicited similar levels of 151 secreted TNF- α from BMM, this response was greatly reduced in HMDM infected with strains 152 triggering rapid cell death (CFT073, UTI89) as compared to MS3179 that did not cause cell 153 death (Fig. S2A). Thus, TNF- α release inversely correlated with UPEC-induced rapid cell death 154 in HMDM, as might be expected given that this cytokine must be synthesized prior to its release. 155 In the case of IL-1 β release from LPS-primed cells that already express pro-IL-1 β , there was a 156 clear correlation with induction of cell death in all cases. In human macrophages (HMDM and 157 PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells), both CFT073 and UTI89 (MOI 10) triggered IL-1β release 158 (Fig. 2A and S2B). In contrast, CFT073 but not UTI89 (MOI 10) elicited IL-1β release from 159 LPS-primed mouse macrophages (BMM and PCC) (Fig. 2A and S2C), consistent with the

160 failure of UTI89 to trigger robust cell death in mouse macrophages at low MOI (compare Fig. 161 1C and 1D). Also consistent with the cell death data, the ST131 strain MS3179 did not trigger 162 IL-1ß release from LPS-primed macrophages of either human or murine origin. LPS-primed 163 epithelial cell lines did not release IL-1ß in response to any of the UPEC strains tested (Fig. 164 S2B). Similar patterns were observed for caspase-1 cleavage; both CFT073 and UTI89 triggered 165 comparable capase-1 cleavage in human macrophages (Fig. 2B), whilst in mouse macrophages 166 the response to CFT073 was much more pronounced than for UTI89 (Fig. 2B). Another hallmark 167 of inflammasome activation, the formation of ASC specks, was also apparent in CFT073- and 168 UTI89-infected human macrophages, whereas the ST131 strain MS3179 did not elicit this effect 169 (Fig. 2C). Furthermore, infection with the two ASC speck-inducing UPEC strains (i.e. CFT073) 170 and UTI89) appeared to induce morphological changes and loss of nuclear integrity in HMDM, 171 as visualized by actin and DNA staining in the same samples (Fig. 2C).

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173 CFT073-mediated cell death in murine macrophages is completely dependent on the 174 NLRP3 inflammasome

175 Causality of inflammasome activation and cell death in BMM was analysed using macrophages 176 deficient for NLRP3 and NLRC4 (two NLRs most commonly activated by bacterial infection⁷), 177 the inflammasome adaptor protein ASC, or the inflammatory caspases, caspase-1 and -11. Since 178 UTI89 did not trigger pronounced inflammasome activation in mouse macrophages at an MOI of 179 10, only CFT073 was assessed. CFT073-mediated caspase-1 cleavage was completely dependent 180 on NLRP3 and ASC, but did not require NLRC4 (Fig. 3A). As expected, the positive controls 181 nigericin and Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (S. Typhimurium) strain SL1344 acted 182 via NLRP3 and NLRC4, respectively (Fig. 3A). Analysis of LDH release confirmed that

183 NLRP3, ASC and Caspase-1/11 were required for CFT073-mediated cell death (Fig. 3B). These 184 inflammasome components were also indispensable for CFT073-triggered IL-1ß release from 185 LPS-primed BMM (Fig. 3C). As with caspase-1 cleavage, NLRC4-deficiency did not affect 186 LDH or IL-1ß release upon infection with CFT073. Again, the positive controls for NLRP3, 187 ASC and caspase-1 involvement (nigericin), and NLRC4 and caspase-1 involvement (S. 188 Typhimurium), behaved as expected. ASC was dispensable for S. Typhimurium-mediated cell death (Fig. 3B) as previously reported²², and NLRP3, ASC and caspase-1/11 were indispensable 189 190 for nigericin-triggered IL-1 β release (Fig. 3C). S. Typhimurium-triggered IL-1 β release was 191 partially dependent on NLRP3 and ASC, and completely dependent on NLRC4 and caspase-192 1/11. Hence, rapid cell death and IL-1 β secretion triggered by CFT073 in mouse macrophages is 193 dependent on NLRP3, ASC and caspase-1 and/or -11.

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195 In human macrophages, UPEC-mediated IL-1β secretion is dependent on NLRP3, whereas

196 cell death is primarily NLRP3-independent

197 We next investigated NLRP3 involvement in human macrophage responses to UPEC using 198 MCC950, a recently described NLRP3 inhibitor that does not affect AIM2, NLRP1 or NLRC4mediated inflammasome activation²³. Surprisingly, in LPS-primed HMDM, MCC950 blocked 199 200 nigericin-triggered cell death, but had little effect on CFT073-triggered cell death in cells from 201 most donors examined (Fig. 4A, Table S1). In contrast, MCC950 significantly reduced both 202 nigericin- and CFT073-triggered IL-1ß release from LPS-primed HMDM (Fig. 4B). Similar 203 observations were apparent for UTI89, where MCC950 had only modest effects in reducing 204 UTI89-triggered cell death for HMDM from 3 out of 4 donors (Table S1). This suggests that 205 there are differences between human and mouse macrophages in NLRP3 responses to UPEC.

206 Indeed, a direct comparison revealed that, whereas MCC950 completely inhibited responses to 207 nigericin in both HMDM and BMM, CFT073-mediated cell death was only blocked in mouse 208 macrophages (Fig. S3A). Moreover, LPS priming had no apparent effect on NLRP3-dependency 209 of CFT073-mediated cell death in human or mouse macrophages. In contrast to differential 210 effects on cell death, MCC950 inhibited CFT073-triggered IL-1β release in both LPS-primed 211 HMDM and BMM, albeit more effectively in BMM (Fig. S3B). The level of NLRP3-212 dependence for CFT073-triggered IL-1ß release varied between cells from different donors 213 (Table S1), and MCC950 never completely abolished IL-1 β release, as was the case for 214 nigericin. We therefore investigated the possibility that the residual IL-1 β response detected by 215 ELISA might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, 216 analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment 217 with MCC950 completely blocked release of mature IL-1ß from CFT073-infected HMDM, 218 whereas pro-IL-1 β was still present in culture supernatants (Fig. 4C). We also monitored ASC 219 speck formation upon NLRP3 inhibition in HMDM. In these experiments, the NLRP3 inhibitor 220 MCC950 completely blocked nigericin- but not S. Typhimurium-triggered ASC speck formation 221 (Fig. 4D). MCC950 substantially reduced, but did not ablate, CFT073- and UTI89-induced ASC 222 speck formation in all experiments (Fig. 4D).

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To further investigate inflammasome involvement in human macrophages, the effect of the caspase-1 specific inhibitor VX-765²⁴ on CFT073-triggered cell death in human and mouse macrophages was examined. VX-765 effectively blocked CFT073- and LPS/nigericin-triggered cell death and IL-1 β release by LPS-primed BMM at 2 h post-infection (**Fig. 5A-B**). However, similar to the observations with MCC950, VX-765 reduced CFT073-mediated IL-1 β release

from LPS-primed HMDM, but did not affect cell death. Control experiments confirmed that both inhibitors blocked cleavage and release of caspase-1 in response to CFT073 infection and LPS/nigericin stimulation in HMDM and BMM (**Fig. 5C-D**). Together, these findings indicate that (1) the NLRP3 inflammasome drives UPEC-triggered IL-1 β maturation in human macrophages; and (2) an NLRP3-independent pathway is the primary mediator of UPECtriggered cell death in human macrophages.

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236 To independently verify that an NLRP3-independent pathway mediates UPEC-triggered cell 237 death, we used THP-1 defNLRP3 cells, which stably express an NLRP3 shRNA and have 238 reduced NLRP3 expression compared to a control cell line (THP-1 Null) transfected with an 239 'empty' construct (Fig. 6A). Caspase-1 processing in THP-1 defNLRP3 cells responding to 240 CFT073, UTI89 or nigericin was greatly reduced, whereas caspase-1 p20 was still detectable at 241 high levels after infection with S. Typhimurium. In these cells, CFT073 and UTI89 still triggered 242 substantial cell death, whereas nigericin did not (Fig. 6B). Again, LPS priming had no effect on 243 the degree of NLRP3 dependency of UPEC-mediated cell death, although it did appear to reduce 244 the effect of NLRP3-knockdown in the nigericin control. As expected, no reduction in cell death 245 was observed in defNLRP3 cells when using S. Typhimurium as an NLRP3-independent trigger 246 for cell death. Collectively, these data suggest the involvement of another NLRP3-independent, 247 cell death pathway triggered by UPEC.

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249 α-hemolysin is the main factor in CFT073 triggering cell death and IL-1β release in mouse
250 but not human macrophages

251 The capacity for CFT073 and UTI89 to trigger human macrophage cell death was also conferred 252 by culture supernatants (Fig. S4). Crude biochemical analysis indicated that the factor(s) 253 responsible were heat- and protease-sensitive, and with a likely molecular weight of greater than 254 30 kDa. Candidate proteins mediating cell death and/or IL-1 β secretion included the pore 255 forming toxin α -hemolysin, as well as serine-protease autotransporter toxins (Sat and Vat). 256 Genes encoding all three toxins are present in CFT073, while UTI89 contains the *hlvCABD* (α -257 hemolysin operon) and *vat* genes. To test the involvement of these three toxins in triggering the 258 inflammasome response, we generated a series of CFT073 mutants deleted for genes encoding 259 each individual toxin and a triple-mutant deficient in the ability to produce all three toxins. 260 Compared to wild type CFT073, the α -hemolysin mutant (CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$) was greatly impaired 261 in its ability to trigger cell death of mouse macrophages ($\sim 30\%$ of wild type) and, to a lesser 262 extent, of human macrophages (~60% of wild type) when macrophages were exposed to an MOI 263 of 10 (Fig. 7A). CFT073 sat- and vat- mutants were very modestly compromised for their ability 264 to trigger mouse and human macrophage cell death. However, no additive effect was observed, 265 as the triple-mutant showed no difference to the CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$ single mutant in this assay. Similar observations were made at an MOI of 100 with both CFT073 and UTI89 (Fig. 7B). In 266 267 this case, cell death induced by CFT073 and UTI89 was almost completely hlyA-independent in 268 HMDM (cell death for hlyA mutants was ~85% of the wild type strains), whereas in BMM the 269 response was largely *hlvA*-dependent (~30% and 40% of wild type strains). Intriguingly, analysis 270 of IL-1ß release revealed a striking difference between human and mouse macrophages with 271 respect to triggering by α -hemolysin. Whereas IL-1 β levels were substantially reduced in BMM 272 responding to CFT073 Δ *hlyA* compared to wild type CFT073, deletion of *hlyA* had no effect on 273 HMDM responses (Fig. 7C). Again, we analysed cleavage of released IL-1 β by western blot and

274 found that in HMDM levels of cleaved IL-1 β were similar in samples infected with CFT073 and 275 CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$ (Fig. 7D). In contrast, CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$ was drastically impaired in its ability to 276 induce the release of cleaved IL-1B in BMM. Deletion of sat or vat had no effect on IL-277 1ß release from either human or mouse macrophages, and the response to the triple-mutant was 278 again identical to that of the *hlvA* single-mutant. Thus, α -hemolysin is the primary, but not only, 279 mediator of cell death and IL-1ß release in mouse macrophages. Moreover, generation of mature 280 IL-1 β was completely dependent on α -hemolysin. By contrast, in the human macrophage 281 response to UPEC, α -hemolysin does not contribute to IL-1 β release or cleavage, and plays a 282 lesser role in rapid cell death. These differential effects of α -hemolysin further highlight the 283 divergent UPEC recognition pathways of human and mouse macrophages. In summary, UPEC 284 triggers both NLRP3-independent cell death and α -hemolysin-independent IL-1 β processing in 285 human macrophages, thus indicating that additional host and pathogen-derived factors are likely 286 to be important in the macrophage response to UPEC. Q, Q, 287 288

290 **Discussion**

291 In this study, we demonstrate that some UPEC strains can trigger both NLRP3-dependent 292 inflammasome activation and rapid cell death in macrophages. We also provide important 293 insights into these processes in the context of similarities and differences between human and 294 mouse macrophage responses to UPEC. Other E. coli, including enterohemorrhagic E. coli isolates¹² as well as non-pathogenic or commensal stains^{25, 26}, have been reported to activate 295 296 inflammasomes by a variety of different mechanisms involving several bacterial factors. These include nucleic acids²⁷ and protein toxins (enterohemolysin¹² and heat-labile enterotoxin²⁸) 297 acting via NLRP3, the T3SS rod protein EprJ²⁹ and flagellin²⁵ acting via NLRC4 and 298 (intracellular) LPS³⁰ acting via non-canonical inflammasomes. Our study adds to this literature 299 300 by identifying UPEC α -hemolysin-dependent and -independent mechanisms of inflammasome 301 activation in macrophages.

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303 It remains unclear as to what roles UPEC-mediated inflammasome activation has in different 304 pathophysiological contexts. Two out of the four strains that did not elicit inflammasome activation are associated with ABU^{17, 18}, whilst the remaining two belong to the globally 305 306 disseminated fluoroquinolone-resistant fimH30/clade C ST131 lineage that is frequently associated with symptomatic infection^{16, 31}. The two inflammasome-activating strains are also 307 308 associated with UTI pathology. Hence, the capacity for inflammasome activation is variable, 309 further highlighting the genetic diversity that exists amongst different UPEC isolates. Since the 310 capacity to trigger inflammasome activation and macrophage cell death was not common to all 311 UPEC strains, some UPEC strains may have gained inflammasome-activating factors as a

312 component of their virulence armoury or lost these to avoid host detection. In the case of the former, candidate virulence factors included the pore forming toxin α -hemolysin³², as well as 313 314 serine-protease autotransporter toxins (Sat and Vat) that are known to elicit cytotoxic effects on epithelial cells³³, and for which the genes are present in CFT073 (*hlvA*, sat, vat) and UTI89 315 (*hlyA*, *vat*), but not 83972, VR50³⁴ or EC958¹⁵. Mutation of all three factors in CFT073 revealed 316 317 that only the absence of α -hemolysin substantially reduced inflammasome responses in mouse 318 macrophages. Intriguingly, however, CFT073-triggered IL-1 β release and cleavage was 319 completely independent of α -hemolysin in human macrophages, and there was also a 320 pronounced α -hemolysin-independent cell death pathway. This finding points towards 321 fundamentally different recognition mechanisms for these UPEC strains in human versus mouse 322 macrophages, yet conservation in the overall outcomes. Whether this extends to other cell types 323 needs to be further examined, given a recent report on E. coli α -hemolysin triggering IL-1 β secretion in human urothelial cells³⁵, an earlier study showing a similar phenomenon in 324 human monocytes³⁶ and well documented cell type-specific effects of α -hemolysin³². 325

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327 Our aim to characterize the specific inflammasome involved in UPEC recognition led us to study 328 the response of mouse macrophages as a more tractable genetic system, as compared to human 329 macrophages. Initial experiments revealed that mouse and human macrophages seemed to 330 respond similarly with regard to induction of cell death, caspase-1 cleavage and IL-1ß secretion 331 upon infection with CFT073. In the case of UTI89, a much less pronounced response was 332 observed in mouse macrophages compared to human macrophages when using a low MOI (MOI 333 10). Nonetheless, a 10-fold higher MOI did initiate some cell death in these cells. In contrast, 334 both CFT073 and UTI89 had similar effects on human macrophages. The conservation between

human and mouse macrophage responses to CFT073 led us to focus on this particular strain for the identification of host mechanisms mediating cellular responses. NLRP3, ASC and the inflammatory caspases (1 and/or 11) were indispensable for CFT073-mediated rapid lytic cell death and IL-1 β secretion in mouse BMM, while a role for NLRC4 was excluded. These findings are consistent with a very recent study showing that UTI89 induces moderate IL-1 β release from mouse macrophages in an NLRP3-dependent manner, albeit under different experimental conditions³⁷.

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343 The conclusion that the acute CFT073-mediated inflammasome response leading to cell death 344 and IL-1 β secretion in BMM was absolutely dependent on NLRP3 was also supported by 345 experiments using small molecule inhibitors of NLRP3 (MCC950) and caspase-1 (VX-765). 346 However, primary human macrophages that were analysed in parallel showed a remarkably 347 different response. The NLRP3 and caspase-1 inhibitors substantially reduced or blocked IL-1ß 348 release from HMDM in response to UPEC infection or the NLRP3 agonist nigericin, 349 respectively. In contrast, UPEC-triggered cell death was largely unaffected by either inhibitor. 350 Although analysis of HMDM generated from several donors revealed some variation in the level 351 of NLRP3-dependence, the overall conclusion is that in human macrophages cell death is 352 NLRP3-independent, whereas IL-1ß cleavage was shown to be completely NLRP3-dependent. 353 Interestingly, LPS-primed HMDMs released unprocessed IL-1ß upon UPEC infection, even 354 when the NLRP3 inflammasome was blocked. Biologically, this may be of significance since it 355 was shown that uncleaved IL-1 β can be processed in the extracellular space by inflammasome complexes³⁸ or by enzymes such as cathepsin-G and elastase³⁹. Consistent with the existence of 356 357 an NLRP3-independent death pathway in human macrophages, stable knockdown of NLRP3 in

358 THP-1 cells blocked nigericin-induced cell death, but only marginally reduced CFT073- and 359 UTI89-mediated cell death. Whether NLRP3-independent cell death involves activation of 360 another inflammasome is unknown at this stage. However, given that NLRP3 inhibition ablated 361 both UPEC-induced IL-1 β maturation and caspase-1 cleavage in HMDM, other modes of cell 362 death such as necroptosis would appear to be more likely.

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Divergence in the repertoire of NLR family members between human and mouse can contribute 364 to differences in inflammasome responses between these species^{10, 40}. However, differences in 365 366 the recognition of pathogens by orthologous human and mouse NLRs have also been reported. 367 For example, F. tularensis activates only the AIM2 inflammasome in mouse macrophages, but triggers NLRP3- and AIM2-dependent responses in human macrophages⁴¹. Conversely, L. 368 monocytogenes was reportedly recognized by AIM2, NLRP3 and NLRC4 in mouse cells⁴²⁻⁴⁴, but 369 exclusively by NLRP3 in human cells⁴⁵. The causes for these differences are not fully 370 371 understood, but may be related to species differences in ligand recognition. Our study highlights that one pathogen can activate NLRP3 in both human and mouse macrophages, but through 372 373 distinct mechanisms. Our demonstration of α -hemolysin-dependent IL-1 β cleavage and cell 374 death in mouse macrophages is consistent with a recent study showing α -hemolysin-mediated inflammasome activation in UTI89-infected mice³⁵. In stark contrast however, our studies with 375 376 human macrophages identified an α -hemolysin-independent pathway to IL-1 β maturation. This 377 suggests that another UPEC factor selectively promotes NLRP3 activation in human but not 378 mouse macrophages, or that its relative potency in triggering inflammasome responses differs 379 between these species or between different cell types.

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381 Emerging evidence indicates that cytokine processing and pyroptosis can be uncoupled in some 382 systems. For example, Salmonella-mediated NLRC4 activation promoted IL-1ß maturation but not pyroptosis in mouse neutrophils⁴⁶. Other studies have also reported distinct roles for 383 384 individual inflammasomes in cytokine processing versus pyroptosis. For example, NLRP3 was 385 shown to mediate cell death and IL-1ß release in S. aureus-infected HMDM, whilst a novel NLRP7 inflammasome was shown to selectively promote IL-1ß secretion⁴⁷. Similarly, NLRP3 386 and NLRC4 were shown to mediate B. pseudomallei-induced IL-1ß and IL-18 release in the 387 mouse, whilst pyroptotic cell death was attributed only to NLRC4⁴⁸. At present, there is no 388 389 unifying model explaining why similar recognition systems lead to cytokine maturation in one 390 setting, and pyroptosis in another. Broz et al. proposed that CARD-containing NLRs can initiate 391 distinct complexes with different roles in mediating cytokine maturation versus pyroptotic cell death²². However, the above described mechanism does not apply for most NLRPs and AIM2, 392 which contain a pyrin domain rather than a $CARD^{10}$, and does not explain how death and 393 394 cytokine responses happen simultaneously in the presence of ASC. The fact that NLRP3 was 395 causal for cytokine processing but not cell death in human macrophages might again be interpreted as another example of uncoupling of downstream inflammasome responses. 396 397 However, it would seem more likely that the NLRP3-independent cell death pathway overrides 398 NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system.

399

400 A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1 β production has been shown in many *in* 401 *vivo* infection models including *S. Typhimurium*, *L. monocytogenesis* and *Burkholderia* species¹¹ 402 On the other hand, the role of pathogen-induced cell death is ambiguous, having either protective 403 or detrimental effects by either eradicating intracellular niches or promoting dissemination,

respectively⁴⁹. Since UPEC can occupy both extracellular and intracellular niches, it is difficult 404 405 to predict what role pyroptosis plays during UTI. Activation of caspase-1/11 was shown to 406 facilitate clearance of UPEC in a mouse model, presumably by inducing pyroptosis and subsequent exfoliation of bladder epithelial cells³⁵. In another study however, activity of caspase-407 1/11 was associated with chronicity and higher bacterial loads in the bladder in a model of 408 recurrent UTI⁵⁰. In the case of cytokine processing, previous studies have associated IL-18 409 release with renal pathology of UTI in patients^{51, 52}, and also in a mouse model⁵³. Only very 410 411 recently was IL-1β release in *atg16l1-/-* mice shown to be associated with protection from UTI³⁷. 412 While the effects of IL-1 β can be studied simply by knockout or by blocking its interaction with 413 receptors, new approaches for genetically and/or pharmacologically uncoupling pyroptosis from 414 other inflammasome responses will be required to address the role of cell death in pathology. Whether NLRP3-dependent responses have a causal role in host defence or pathology remains to 415 416 be elucidated.

417

418 In conclusion, our study highlights the complexity of interactions between UPEC and the innate 419 immune system. Some UPEC strains trigger inflammasome activation and rapid, lytic cell death 420 in macrophages, whereas others, including two strains from the multidrug resistant ST131 421 lineage, do not. This again highlights the genetic complexity that exists amongst different UPEC 422 strains and that host response pathways engaged, as well as host colonization strategies 423 employed, will vary depending on the specific UPEC strain encountered. For inflammasome-424 activating strains such as CFT073, NLRP3 drives IL-1β maturation in both human and mouse 425 macrophages. However, this pathway only marginally contributes to cell death in human 426 macrophages, despite its causal role in cell death in mouse macrophages. Finally, α -hemolysin is

427 the primary trigger for cell death and IL-1ß release in mouse macrophages, whereas these 428 cellular responses are either primarily or completely independent of this toxin in human 429 macrophages. The yet-to-be-identified death pathway in human monocyte-derived macrophages 430 highlights a potential difference between human and mouse innate immune UPEC recognition 431 pathways and needs to be considered in future studies using macrophages and other cell types 432 from a variety of sources, as well as in *in vivo* studies. Given the importance of mouse UTI 433 models for understanding host colonization and pathology, and especially in the light of recent 434 studies showing detrimental and beneficial effects of inflammasome activation in mouse models^{37, 50}, as well as a prominent role for α -hemolysin³⁵, our findings are likely to have broad 435 436 significance for understanding susceptibility and severity of UTI in humans.

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441 Methods

442

443 Bacterial strains and growth conditions

444 UPEC strains CFT073¹³, UTI89¹⁴, 83972¹⁷, VR50¹⁸ and EC958¹⁵ have been described 445 previously. MS3179 is an ST131 strain isolated from a patient presenting with UTI at the Royal 446 Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Brisbane, Australia. *S.* Typhimurium strain SL1344⁵⁴ was used 447 as a control for NLRP3-independent inflammasome activation in some experiments. All strains 448 were routinely grown at 37°C on solid or in liquid Luria-Bertani (LB) medium.

449

450 Genetic manipulation procedures and generation of mutants

451 Mutation of the *hlyA*, sat and vat genes in CFT073, and the *hlyA* gene in UTI89, was performed using the λ -Red recombinase gene replacement system⁵⁵. The primers used for amplification of 452 453 the kanamycin resistance gene (hlvA) or chloramphenicol resistance gene (vat, sat), and 454 subsequent insertion into the chromosome of CFT073 (or UTI89) were as follows: vat (3353: 5'-455 tcgtaatgaacacagttcatctgatctccacacacacagacttgataagctcacgtcttgagcgattgtgtagg and 3354: 5'-456 gaaaccaccaccactgattttgttttaccgctgtacaggcctgctgacgcgacatgggaattagccatggtcc), sat (3351: 5'-457 and 3352: 5'-458 ccaggagtgggagctgtagtctctggtgccaaggccggcgaaagttgcggtgacatgggaattagccatggtcc), hlvA (2049: 5'-459 2050: 5'-and 460 tgctctgctgctttttttaatgcatctttcgtgctttgtcctgctgagtgcatatgaatatcctccttag). **CFT073** hlyA 461 (CFT073 Δ hlyA), sat (CFT073 Δ sat) and vat (CFT073 Δ vat) mutants, as well as the UTI89 hlvA 462 mutant (UTI89 $\Delta hlvA$), were confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing. The CFT073*hlv-sat-vat*

463 triple mutant was constructed by sequential deletion of each gene, as described above, and was464 confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing.

465

466 Mammalian cell culture

467 Approval for all experiments using primary human and mouse cells was obtained from the 468 University of Queensland Medical Research Ethics Committee or the Animal Ethics Committee. 469 Human monocytes were isolated from buffy coats of healthy donors (kindly provided by the 470 Australian Red Cross) by positive selection for CD14 using MACS technology (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany), as previously described⁵⁶. HMDM were differentiated for 7 days 471 with CSF-1 (10,000 U/ml, Chiron Emeryville, CA, USA) from CD14⁺ cells, as previously 472 described⁵⁶, but in the absence of antibiotics. Cells from a single donor were used in every 473 474 experiment. Murine BMM were differentiated using 10,000 U/ml CSF-1 (Chiron) from bone marrow of C57BL/6 wild type, Nlrp3^{-/-}, Nlrc4^{-/-}, Asc^{-/-}, and Caspase-1/11^{-/-} mice (all described 475 in^{46}), in the absence of antibiotics as previously described⁶. PCC were flushed from the 476 477 peritoneal cavity of C57BL/6 mice by injection of 5 ml PBS. THP-1 (TIB-202, ATCC, 478 Manassas, VA, USA), THP-1 Null and THP-1 defNLRP3 (InvivoGen, San Diego, CA, USA) 479 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 1 480 mM Na-Pyruvate and 10 mM HEPES (all Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). THP-1 cells 481 were differentiated into macrophage-like cells by culture for 48 h in medium containing 30 ng/ml 482 phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). PMA or CSF-1 483 was removed 4 h prior to infection with UPEC strains. Human bladder epithelial cell lines 5637 484 (HTB-9, ATCC) and T24 (HTB-4, ATCC) were cultured in FBS (10%) and 2 mM L-glutamine 485 supplemented RPMI-1640 or McCoy's 5A medium (Life Technologies), respectively.

486

487 **Bacterial culture and macrophage infection assays**

488 UPEC strains were grown statically at 37°C overnight in LB broth. S. Typhimurium strain 489 SL1344 was grown overnight in LB broth (200 rpm, 37°C), diluted 1:33 and grown for another 3 490 h (to ensure logarithmic growth). Cells were pelleted, washed and adjusted to the same optical 491 density at 600 nm. A MOI of approximately 10 was used (unless indicated otherwise) and 492 confirmed by enumeration of colony forming units following serial dilution. Mammalian cells were seeded at a density of $4-8 \times 10^4/0.2$ ml in 96-well plates or $2-4 \times 10^5/ml$ in 24-well plates 493 494 (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark). Medium was changed for all cell types to RPMI-1640 supplemented 495 with FBS (10%) and 2 mM L-glutamine (all Life Technologies) 4 h prior to infection. LPS-496 priming was performed by addition of 100 ng/ml Ultrapure LPS from Salmonella minnesota 497 R595 (InvivoGen). Nigericin sodium salt (Sigma-Aldrich) at a concentration of 10 µM was used 498 as a positive control for NLRP3-dependent responses. In some experiments, cells were pre-499 incubated for 1 h with the caspase-1 inhibitor VX-765 (Selleck Chemicals, Houston, TX, USA) or the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950²³, prior to performing infections. At 1 h post-infection, 200 500 501 µg/ml gentamicin (Life Technologies) was added for 1 h to inhibit growth of extracellular 502 bacteria. For infections over a 24 h time course, medium was replaced with fresh medium 503 containing 20 µg/ml gentamicin for the remaining 22 h.

504

505 Cytotoxicity assays

506 Cell culture supernatants were collected at 2 or 24 h post-infection, centrifuged for 5 min at 500
507 g, and analysed for LDH release using the *In Vitro* Toxicology Assay Kit (Sigma-Aldrich).
508 Cytotoxicity (%) was calculated by quantification of LDH in culture supernatants versus total

509 cellular LDH (present in S/N after cell lysis with 0.1% Triton X-100) according to the formula % 510 cell death = $(100/LDH_{total}-LDH_{spontaneous})x(LDH_{treatment}-LDH_{spontaneous})$. 24 h values represent 511 summed measurements of the same well at 2 and 24 h post-infection, since medium was changed 512 at 2 h post-infection as part of the gentamicin exclusion protocol (see: Bacterial culture and 513 macrophage infection assays).

514

515 **Confocal microscopy**

516 Confocal microscopy was performed as previously described⁶. Cells were stained with 200 ng/ml 517 Alexa Fluor® 594 Phalloidin (Life Technologies) to visualize cell morphology, and ASC was 518 detected with a rabbit anti-ASC Antibody (N-15)-R (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA) 519 (1:300) and Alexa Fluor® 647 or 688-conjugated chicken anti-Rabbit IgG (Life Technologies) as 520 a secondary antibody (1:150). For quantifying ASC speck formation, HMDM were cultured in 521 12 mM glycine to reduce loss of cells due to lytic cell death⁵⁷. ASC specks were counted 522 manually in a blinded fashion (5 fields at 40x magnification per condition per replicate).

523

524 Immunoblotting

4x10⁵ cells were lysed in 100 µl 2xSDS loading buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl, 20% glycerol (v/v), 4% SDS (w/v), pH 6.8). For analysis of secreted caspase-1 in cell culture supernatants, medium was replaced with OptiMEM medium (Life Technologies) 4 h prior to infection. Cell culture supernatants were precipitated by incubation with 4 volumes of acetone at -20°C overnight and centrifugation at 5300 g and -10°C for 30 min. Pellets were taken up in 2xSDS loading buffer. Western blotting was performed as previously described⁵⁶. Membranes were stained with cleaved IL-1β (Asp116) rabbit mAb, IL-1β (3A6) mouse mAb, cleaved caspase-1 (ASP297) 532 (D57A2) rabbit mAb (all Cell Signalling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), mouse IL-1β/IL-1F2 533 affinity purified polyclonal Ab, Goat IgG (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA), anti-534 caspase-1 (p20) (mouse) mAb (Adipogen, San Diego, CA, USA), anti-NLRP3/NALP3 mAb 535 (Cryo-2) (Adipogen) or human anti-G3PDH antibody (Trevigen, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). All 536 primary antibodies were diluted 1:1000 except for human anti-G3PDH antibody, which was used 537 at 1:10000. As secondary antibodies, anti-mouse and anti-rabbit IgG, HRP-linked Antibodies 538 (Cell Signalling Technology) (1:2500) and anti-goat IgG-peroxidase antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) 539 (1:5000) were used. HRP was detected using ECL Plus substrate (GE Healthcare, 540 Buckinghamshire, UK) and Super RX film (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).

541

542 ELISA

Cell culture supernatants were analysed for IL-1β with the human or mouse IL-1β/IL-1F2 DuoSet ELISA kit (R&D Systems) (detection limit 4 and 15.6 pg/ml, respectively) and antihuman or mouse ELISA Ready-Set-Go! (eBiosciece, San Diego, CA, USA) (detection limit: 4 and 8 pg/ml, respectively). TNF- α was detected using the Mouse TNF OptEIA ELISA set (BD Biosciences, San Diego, CA, USA) (detection limit: 15.6 pg/ml) and the human TNF- α standard ELISA Developmental kit (Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA) (detection limit: 16 pg/ml).

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550 Statistical Analysis

All LDH, ELISA and MTT assays were performed using duplicate or triplicate cell culture wells for individual experiments. Presented data are typically mean values combined from three or more independent experiments, unless otherwise indicated. For statistical analysis of datasets with N>4, two-sided Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank tests were performed using GraphPad

555 Prism Version 6 (GraphPad software, Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). For these datasets, the 556 differences between pairs were plotted and were generally distributed approximately 557 symmetrically around the median.

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- 572 **Disclosure**
- 573 The author declared no conflict of interest.

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805 Figure legends

806

807 Figure 1: The UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 induce rapid cell death in macrophages. 808 A-C) HMDM or BMM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 1, 10 and 100). 809 Supernatants were analyzed by LDH release assays at the indicated times post-infection (p.i.). 810 Data represent the mean+SEM of three independent experiments. D) Human macrophage-like 811 cells (THP-1) and mouse peritoneal cavity cells (PCC), as well as human T24 and 5637 bladder 812 epithelial cells, were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 10) for 2 h. Supernatants 813 were analyzed by LDH release assay. Data represent the mean+range of two independent 814 experiments.

815

816 Figure 2: The UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 promote IL-1ß secretion, caspase-1 817 cleavage and ASC-speck formation. A) HMDM and BMM were primed with 100 ng/ml LPS 818 for 4 h, then infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 10) for 2 h. Supernatants were 819 analyzed by ELISA. Data represent the mean+SEM of three independent experiments. B) 820 HMDM and BMM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains for 1 h. Whole cell lysates and 821 concentrated supernatants were analyzed by western blot with antibodies detecting human or 822 mouse caspase-1 p20. GAPDH is shown as a loading control. Similar findings were apparent in 823 three independent experiments. C) HMDM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 824 10) for 2 h, after which they were fixed and analyzed by confocal microscopy. Arrowheads 825 indicate ASC-specks. Similar results were apparent in two independent experiments.

826

827 Figure 3: In murine macrophages, CFT073-induced caspase-1 cleavage and cell death is 828 dependent on the NLRP3 inflammasome. BMM derived from wild type, Nlrp3-, Nlrc4-, Asc-829 and *Casp1/11*-deficient mice were infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 or the S. Typhimurium 830 strain SL1344 (MOI 10), or were stimulated with nigericin (10 μ M, pre-stimulated with 100 831 ng/ml LPS for 4 h). A) After 1 h, whole cell lysates and concentrated supernatants were analyzed 832 by western blot with antibodies detecting murine full-length caspase-1, as well as multiple 833 caspase-1 cleavage products. GAPDH was used as loading control. Data is representative of two 834 independent experiments. B) Supernatants were analyzed by LDH assay at 2 h p.i. Data is the 835 mean+range of two independent experiments. C) LPS-primed BMM (100 ng/ml, 4 h) were 836 treated as above, after which secreted IL-1ß was measured by ELISA after 2 h. Data are 837 mean+SEM of three independent experiments.

838

839 Figure 4: NLRP3 contributes to IL-1^β release and maturation but does not mediate cell 840 death in human macrophages responding to CFT073. A-B) HMDM were primed with LPS 841 (100 ng/ml, 4 h) or left untreated, then pretreated for 1 h with the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 (10 842 μM) and subsequently infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 or S. Typhimurium SL1344 (MOI 843 10), or stimulated with nigericin (10 µM). Supernatants were collected at 2 h p.i., and analyzed 844 by LDH release assay (A) and ELISA (B). Data are from nine (CFT073, LPS/nigericin) and six 845 (S. Typhimurium) independent experiments (different donors), respectively. Statistical analysis was performed using a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank tests: ns: p> 0.05, *: p<=0.05, **: 846 847 p<=0.01. C) Concentrated supernatants from cells treated as described above were analyzed by 848 western blot with antibodies detecting full-length or cleaved human IL-1B. D) HMDM were 849 treated as above, but in presence of 12 mM glycine, and analyzed by confocal microscopy. ASC
850 specks and nuclei were counted manually in a blinded manner. Data are mean+SEM of three 851 independent experiments.

852

853 Figure 5: UPEC-mediated cell death is blocked by caspase-1 inhibition in mouse but not 854 human macrophages. A-B) HMDM and BMM were primed with LPS (100 ng/ml, 4 h) or left 855 untreated, then pretreated for 1 h with the caspase-1 inhibitor VX-765 (50 µM), and 856 subsequently infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 (MOI 10) or stimulated with nigericin (10 857 µM). Supernatants were collected at 2 h p.i., and were analyzed for cell death by LDH release 858 assay (A) and IL-1 β release by ELISA (B). Data represent the mean+SEM of three independent 859 experiments. (C-D) HMDM and BMM were treated as above for 1 h. Cell lysates, as well as cell 860 culture supernatants, were analyzed by western blot for cleavage of caspase-1. GAPDH served as 861 loading control. Similar results were obtained in two independent experiments.

862

863 Figure 6: UPEC triggers NLRP3-independent cell death in human macrophages. Stable NLRP3 knockdown THP-1 cells (defNLRP3), as well as THP-1 control cells (Null) were 864 865 infected with the indicated UPEC strains or S. Typhimurium (MOI 10), or were treated with 866 nigericin (10 µM) for 1 h (A) or 2 h (B). A) Cell lysates were analyzed by western blot for 867 expression of NLRP3 and GAPDH as a loading control. Caspase-1 p20 was detected in cell 868 lysates. Similar findings were apparent in two independent experiments. B) Supernatants of 869 unprimed or LPS primed (100 ng/ml LPS, 4 h) THP-1 cells were analyzed by LDH assay. Data 870 are the mean+SEM of four independent experiments.

871

872 Figure 7: Differences between human and mouse macrophages in cellular responses to a-873 hemolysin. A-B) HMDM and BMM were infected with wild type UPEC strains or mutants 874 deficient for α -hemolysin ($\Delta hlyA$), sat (Δsat), vat (Δvat) or all three genes ($\Delta hlyA$; Δsat ; Δvat) at 875 the indicated MOI for 2 h. Supernatants were analyzed by LDH assay. C) LPS-primed (100 876 ng/ml, 4 h) cells were treated as above (MOI 10) and analyzed by IL-1ß ELISA. Data are the 877 mean+SEM of three (A, C) or four (B) independent experiments. D) Concentrated supernatants 878 from cells treated as described above were analyzed by western blot with antibodies detecting e. 879 cleaved human or mouse IL-1B. Similar observations were made in 2 independent experiments.



Fig. 1 122x89mm (300 x 300 DPI)

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Fig. 2 208x289mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Fig. 3 141x113mm (300 x 300 DPI)





Fig. 5 136x112mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Fig. 6 70x29mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Supplementary Figures



Figure S1: UPEC strains CFT073 and UT189 induce cell death in epithelial cells at high MOI. Human bladder epithelial cell lines (T24 and 5637) were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 1000) for 24 h. Supernatants were analyzed by LDH release assay. Data are the mean + range of two independent experiments.



Figure S2: TNF- α secretion inversely correlates with cell death in HMDM, whilst IL-1 β secretion correlates with cell death in all cell types examined. A) HMDM and BMM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 10) for 2 h and supernatants were analyzed by ELISA. B) THP-1, T24 and 5637 cells and C) mouse peritoneal cavity cells (PCC) were primed with 100 ng/ml LPS for 4 h, then infected with the indicated UPEC strains for 2 h (MOI 10) or stimulated with nigericin (10 μ M) for 2 h. Supernatants were analyzed by ELISA. Data in A-C are the mean + SEM of three independent experiments.



Figure S3: NLRP3 inhibition has differing effects in CFT073-infected primary human versus mouse macrophages. HMDM and BMM were primed with LPS (100 ng/ml, 4 h) or were left untreated, then pretreated for 1 h with the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 (10 μ M), and subsequently infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 (MOI 10) or stimulated with nigericin (10 μ M). At 2 h p.i., supernatants were collected and analyzed by A) LDH release assay and B) IL-1 β ELISA. Data are the mean + SEM of three independent experiments.



Figure S4: CFT073- and UT189-triggered cell death is mediated by a large, soluble factor(s) that is heat- and protease-sensitive. A) PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells were treated with live bacteria at MOI 10, heat inactivated supernatants and bacteria (95°C, 20 min) (HI bacteria), 10% filtered (0.45 μ m) supernatants from bacterial overnight cultures (S/N), or flow though from filtration with Amicon Ultra-15 centrifugal fiter units with 30 kDa cutoff (S/N < 30 kDa). Cell culture supernatants were analyzed by LDH release assay after 2 h. Similar results were obtained in two independent experiments. **B)** PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells were treated with bacterial culture supernatants as above (S/N) or supernatants pretreated with proteinase K (100 μ g/ml) for 45 min at 37°C (S/N +Prot K). Cell viability was assessed by methylthiazolyldiphenyl-tetrazolium bromide (MTT) viability assays. Medium was replaced with medium containing 1 mg/ml MTT (Sigma-Aldrich) 2 h post-infection and incubated at 37°C and 5% CO₂ for another 2 h. Cells were lysed in isopropanol and formation of formazan was assessed by measuring absorption at 570 nm. Cell viability was calculated as % of absorption at 570 nm of untreated cells.

	Donor :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
% Cell death	MCC950										Average
	-	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
LPS	+	0.34	0.47	1.21	2.83	-0.23	-1.16	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.38
	-	6.93	34.49	27.71	39.05	8.08	63.04	17.32	23.25	35.83	28.41
LPS+CFT073	+	0.51	25.89	24.66	29.14	1.18	62.69	21.88	25.61	32.43	24.89
	-	46.68	14.72	18.63	24.28	14.73	18.89	4.60	7.91	26.25	19.63
LPS+Nig	+	1.06	14.98	16.85	3.19	1.89	2.63	-0.45	0.50	-1.54	4.35
	-	10.71	49.15	32.57	27.43	17.73	48.54	ND	ND	ND	31.02
LPS+Sal	+	10.95	43.51	45.27	27.51	20.24	61.45	ND	ND	ND	34.82
	-	24.82	30.66	29.16	33.79	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	29.61
LPS+UTI89	+	-0.01	22.72	24.66	20.15	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	16.88
	Donor :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
IL-1β [pg/ml]	MCC950										Average
	-	41.74	42.49	37.23	15.48	43.21	12.56	0.00	25.94	0.00	24.29
LPS	+	41.89	42.49	49.64	26.26	117.92	7.00	2.73	8.93	0.00	32.98
	-	1877.28	232.20	2973.51	1084.81	2973.85	9706.29	685.04	2259.10	2876.68	2740.97
LPS+CFT073	+	363.65	67.74	1803.38	149.82	117.58	1093.71	501.10	1527.51	1539.38	795.98
	-	1314.92	107.99	4872.90	1202.30	4629.54	5147.09	1497.69	2994.72	1949.71	2635.21
LPS+Nig	+	46.94	43.10	74.98	44.01	106.71	33.27	3.47	27.50	0.00	42.22
	-	5215.72	2708.92	7228.57	4618.81	3074.61	10308.71	ND	ND	ND	5525.89
LPS+Sal	+	5701.27	2718.58	3973.76	4733.99	4182.30	6127.35	ND	ND	ND	4572.87
	-	2235.10	238.90	4034.61	1220.35	ND	ND	ND	ND	ND	1932.24

Table S1: NLRP3 contributes to IL-1b release but contributes only marginally to cell death in human macrophages responding to the UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89. HMDM were primed with LPS (100 ng/ml, 4 h), pretreated for 1 h with the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 (10 mM) and then subsequently infected with the UPEC strains CFT073 or UTI89 or *S*. Typhimurium SL1344 (MOI 10), or were stimulated with nigericin (10 mM). Supernatants were collected at 2 h p.i., and analyzed by LDH release assay and ELISA. Data are from nine (CFT073, LPS/nigericin), six (*S*. Typhimurium) or four (UTI89) independent experiments (different donors), respectively. ND = not determined.



1	Strain- and host species-specific inflammasome activation, IL-1β release and cell death in	۲	Style Definition: Heading 3
2	macronhages infected with uronathogenic <i>Escherichia coli</i>	<u>`</u> [Style Definition: Heading 4
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26 Abstract

27 Uropathogenic E. coli (UPEC) is the main etiological agent of urinary tract infections (UTI). 28 Little is known of the about interactions between UPEC and the inflammasome, a key innate 29 immune pathway. Here we show that UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 trigger inflammasome 30 activation and lytic cell death in human macrophages. Several other UPEC strains, including 31 globally disseminated two multidrug resistant ST131-lineage isolates, did not kill macrophages. 32 In mouse macrophages, UTI89 triggered cell death only at a high MOI, and CFT073-mediated 33 inflammasome responses were completely NLRP3-dependent. Surprisingly, CFT073- and 34 UTI89-mediated responses only partially depended on NLRP3 in human macrophages. In these 35 cells, NLRP3 contributed towas required for IL-1β maturation, and but contributed only 36 marginally to cell death. Similarly, caspase-1 inhibition did not block cell death in human 37 macrophages. In keeping with such differences, the pore forming toxin α -hemolysin mediated a substantial proportion of CFT073-triggered IL-1ß secretion in mouse but not human 38 39 macrophages. Moreover, there There was also a more substantial α -hemolysin-independent cell 40 death response in human versus mouse macrophages. Thus, in mouse macrophages, CFT073-41 triggered inflammasome responses are completely NLRP3-dependent, and largely α -hemolysindependent. In contrast, UPEC activates an NLRP3-independent cell death pathway and an α -42 43 hemolysin-independent IL-1 β secretion pathway in human macrophages. This has important 44 implications for understanding UTI in humans.

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49 Introduction

50 Uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) is estimated to cause up to $75\underline{80}\%$ of community-51 acquired and 65% of nosocomial urinary tract infections (UTI), making it the single most 52 important etiological agent of this highly prevalent infectious disease¹. UTI typically involves 53 infection of the bladder (cystitis) or kidneys (pyelonephritis), and can also lead to renal scarring 54 and sepsis^{1, 21, 2}. Asymptomatic bacteriuria (ABU), caused by various etiologic agents, is also 55 common³.

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Mouse UTI models, as well as genetic associations within patient cohort studies, have helped to 57 pinpoint the roles of specific innate immune pathways in defense against uropathogens². Such 58 59 studies have highlighted the importance of members of the Toll-like Receptor family in 60 controlling bacterial growth and dissemination, as well as causing symptoms and pathology. At 61 the cellular level, roles of the urothelium and neutrophils in innate defence and host subversion 62 during UTI are well established. However, surprisingly little is known about the roles of monocytes and macrophages in these processes⁴. A recent study by Schiwon et al. dissected the 63 role of different macrophage populations in a mouse UTI model and unraveled complex 64 interactions of sentinel and helper macrophages governing antimicrobial actions of neutrophils⁵. 65 We previously demonstrated that some UPEC strains can survive for up to 24 h in murine bone 66 marrow-derived macrophages (BMM) within LAMP1⁺ compartments⁶, reminiscent of quiescent 67 68 intracellular reservoirs observed in epithelial cells that may facilitate recurrent infection. Thus, 69 the role of myeloid cells in UPEC infection may not always be protective.

72 family members, as well as the PYHIN-family member AIM2, form large cytoplasmic 73 multiprotein complexes known as inflammasomes. Inflammasomes have important functions in many bacterial infections⁷, as well as in chronic diseases^{8, 98, 9}. The NLR-family comprises 74 75 twenty-two genes in humans and more than thirty in mice, and can be phylogenetically grouped into the NLRP, IPAF and NOD sub-families¹⁰. The NLRP family members NLRP1 and NLRP3, 76 77 as well as the IPAF family member NLRC4, can all initiate inflammasome formation. Most 78 NLRP family members contain a C-terminal leucine rich repeat that is involved in danger 79 sensing, a central nucleotide-binding and oligomerisation domain, and an N-terminal pyrin 80 domain that relays downstream signalling. NLRC4 has a similar domain structure, but contains 81 an N-terminal caspase recruitment domain (CARD), rather than a pyrin domain. Upon activation, 82 NLRPs oligomerise and cluster into a cytoplasmic complex with the adapter protein ASC and the 83 protease caspase-1, facilitating its autocatalytic cleavage and activation. Active caspase-1 is 84 required for maturation and secretion of the pro-inflammatory IL-1 family cytokines, IL-1 β and 85 IL-18. One of the many functions of IL-1 β is to facilitate neutrophil and macrophage recruitment 86 to sites of infection. In addition to mediating cytokine processing, inflammasome activation also 87 initiates a programmed, pro-inflammatory form of cell death called pyroptosis. Pyroptotic cell 88 death is thought to eliminate the intracellular replication niche of pathogens that infect 89 macrophages (e.g. Shigella, Salmonella, Legionella and Listeria) and to re-expose them to antimicrobial effector functions^{7,11}7,11. 90

Upon detection of cellular stress and/or microbial products, some Nod-like-receptor (NLR)

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Among the different pathogenic *E. coli* subtypes, enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* O157:H7, which causes severe enteritis, triggers inflammasome activation¹². However, <u>until very recently</u> no

94	studies havehad investigated inflammasome involvement in UPEC recognition or UTI. In this
95	study, we show that the genome-sequenced UPEC reference strains CFT073 and UTI89 trigger
96	inflammasome activation and rapid cell death in macrophages, whereas others do not. Moreover,
97	we define key mechanistic differences between human and mouse macrophages in the host
98	recognition pathways and bacterial factors that initiate these responses. Our findings of
99	fundamental differences between different UPEC strains in inflammasome engagement, as well
100	as between human and mouse innate immune recognition pathways for UPEC, have major
101	implications for understanding and modeling UTI pathogenesis.
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- 118
- 119 Results
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121 UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 cause rapid cell death in macrophages

122 Given the paucity of information on interactions between UPEC and macrophages, we 123 investigated whether the survival of human monocyte-derived macrophages (HMDM) was 124 affected by different UPEC strains. We analyzed strains associated with different UTI severity, 125 including the reference strains CFT073 (a blood culture isolate from a patient with pyelonephritis isolate)¹³ and UTI89 (a urine isolate from a patient with recurrent cystitis isolate)¹⁴, the 126 ST131 sequence type (ST) 131 strains EC958^{15, 16}15, 16 and MS3179 (urine isolates from patients 127 with UTI) and the asymptomatic bacteriuria (ABU) strains 83972 and VR50^{17, 1817, 18}. These 128 129 experiments revealed that only CFT073 and UTI89 caused rapid, lytic cell death by 2 h post-130 infection as assessed by LDH release (Fig. 1A). Cell death was further increased by 24 h post-131 infection (Fig. 1B). A direct comparison of HMDM with murine BMM over a multiplicity of infection (MOI) range confirmed that mouse macrophages were also similarly susceptible to 132 133 CFT073-induced cell death (Fig. 1C). In BMM, UTI89 did not trigger cell death, except at the 134 highest MOI used (MOI 100, Fig. 1C). This is consistent with our previous findings that UTI89 can survive for up to 24 h within BMM^{6, 196, 19}. To investigate whether UPEC-mediated cell 135 136 death is a macrophage-specific phenomenon, the response to CFT073, UTI89 and MS3179 was 137 also analyzed in PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells (a human macrophage-like cell line), murine 138 peritoneal cavity cells (PCC, which are predominantly comprised of resident peritoneal macrophages²⁰) and two human bladder epithelial cell lines (5637 and T24) commonly used to 139

140	study UPEC infection in vitro (Fig. 1D). PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells showed a similar
141	response to HMDM. CFT073 also triggered cell death in PCC, whereas the effect of UTI89 was
142	much weaker, similar to the findings with mouse BMM (compare Fig. 1C). The ST131 isolate
143	MS3179 did not trigger cell death in any of the cell types tested, and the two epithelial cell lines
144	were not killed efficiently by any of the UPEC strains at an MOI of 10 at 2 h post-infection (Fig.
145	1D). However, 24 h exposure of epithelial cell lines to a very high MOI (MOI 1000) of all UPEC
146	strains did result in some cell death (Fig. S1). Collectively, these data demonstrate substantial
147	variability in the capacity of different UPEC strains to elicit macrophage cell death.
148	
149	UPEC-mediated macrophage cell death correlates with inflammasome activation
150	To investigate potential involvement of the inflammasome pathway in cell death, we first
151	examined the capacity of UPEC strains to trigger IL-1ß release from LPS-primed macrophages.
152	LPS priming was performed to boost pro-IL-1 β levels, allowing the use of IL-1 β release as a
153	marker for inflammasome activation with minimal interference by rapid cell death- or by other
154	confounding processes such as suppression of cytokine production by some UPEC strains ²¹ .
155	Indeed, we found that, whereas CFT073, UTI89 and MS3179 all elicited similar levels of
156	secreted TNF-a from BMM, this response was greatly reduced in HMDM infected with strains
157	triggering rapid cell death (CFT073, UTI89) as compared to MS3179 that did not cause cell
158	death (Fig. S2A). Thus, TNF- α release inversely correlated with UPEC-induced rapid cell death
159	in HMDM, as might be expected given that this cytokine must be synthesized prior to its release.
160	In the case of IL-1 β release correlated from LPS-primed cells that already express pro-IL-1 β .
161	there was a clear correlation with induction of cell death in all cases. In human macrophages
162	(HMDM and PMA-differentiated THP-1 cells), both CFT073 and UTI89 (MOI 10) triggered IL-

163	1β release (Fig. 2A and <u>S2AS2B</u>). In contrast, CFT073 but not UT189 (MOI 10) elicited IL- 1β
164	release from LPS-primed mouse macrophages (BMM and PCC) (Fig. 2A and <u>\$2B\$2C</u>),
165	consistent with the failure of UTI89 to trigger robust cell death in mouse macrophages at low
166	MOI (compare Fig. 1C and 1D). Also consistent with the cell death data, the ST131 strain
167	MS3179 did not trigger IL-1 β release from LPS-primed macrophages of either human or murine
168	origin. LPS-primed epithelial cell lines did not release IL-1 β in response to any of the UPEC
169	strains tested (Fig. <u>S2AS2B</u>). Similar patterns were observed for caspase-1 cleavage; both
170	CFT073 and UTI89 triggered comparable capase-1 cleavage in human macrophages (Fig. 2B),
171	whilst in mouse macrophages the response forto CFT073 was much more pronounced than for
172	UTI89 (Fig. 2B). Another hallmark of inflammasome activation, the formation of ASC specks,
173	was also apparent in CFT073- and UTI89-infected human macrophages, whereas the ST131
174	strain MS3179 did not elicit this effect (Fig. 2C). AdditionallyFurthermore, infection with the
175	two ASC speck-inducing UPEC strains (i.e. CFT073 and UTI89) ledappeared to dramatieinduce
176	morphological changes and loss of nuclear integrity in HMDM, as visualized by actin and DNA
177	staining- <u>in the same samples (Fig. 2C).</u>

179 CFT073-mediated cell death in murine macrophages is completely dependent on the 180 NLRP3 inflammasome

Causality of inflammasome activation and cell death in BMM was analysed using macrophages deficient for NLRP3 and NLRC4 (two NLRs most commonly activated by bacterial infection⁷), the inflammasome adaptor protein ASC, or the inflammatory caspases, caspase-1 and -11. Since UTI89 did not trigger pronounced inflammasome activation in mouse macrophages at an MOI of 10, only CFT073 was assessed. CFT073-mediated caspase-1 cleavage was completely dependent

186 on NLRP3 and ASC, but did not require NLRC4 (Fig. 3A). As expected, the positive controls 187 nigericin and Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (S. Typhimurium) strain SL1344 acted 188 via NLRP3 and NLRC4, respectively (Fig. 3A). Analysis of LDH release confirmed that 189 NLRP3, ASC and Caspase-1/11 were required for CFT073-mediated cell death (Fig. 3B). These 190 inflammasome components were also indispensable for CFT073-triggered IL-1β release from 191 LPS-primed BMM (Fig. 3C). As with caspase-1 cleavage, NLRC4-deficiency did not affect 192 LDH or IL-1 β release upon infection with CFT073. Again, the positive controls for NLRP3, 193 ASC and caspase-1 involvement (nigericin), and NLRC4 and caspase-1 involvement (S. 194 Typhimurium), behaved as expected. ASC was dispensable for S. Typhimurium-mediated cell death (Fig. 3B) as previously reported²⁺²², and NLRP3, ASC and caspase-1/11 were 195 196 indispensable for nigericin-triggered IL-1 β release (Fig. 3C). S. Typhimurium-triggered IL-1 β 197 release was partially dependent on NLRP3 and ASC, and completely dependent on NLRC4 and 198 caspase-1/11. Hence, rapid cell death and IL-1ß secretion triggered by CFT073 in mouse 199 macrophages is dependent on NLRP3, ASC and caspase-1 and/or -11.

200

In human macrophages, UPEC-mediated IL-1β secretion is partially dependent on NLRP3, whereas cell death is primarily NLRP3-independent

We next investigated NLRP3 involvement in human macrophage responses to UPEC, using a
recently described NLRP3 inhibitor, MCC950²², using MCC950, a recently described NLRP3
inhibitor that does not affect AIM2, NLRP1 or NLRC4-mediated inflammasome activation²³.
Surprisingly, in LPS-primed HMDM, MCC950 blocked nigericin-triggered cell death, but had
little effect on CFT073-triggered cell death in cells from most donors examined (Fig. 4A, Table
S1). In contrast, MCC950 significantly reduced both nigericin- and CFT073-triggered IL-1β

209	release from LPS-primed HMDM (Fig. 4B). Similar observations were apparent for UTI89,
210	where MCC950 had only modest effects in reducing UTI89-triggered cell death for HMDM
211	from 3 out of 4 donors (Table S1). This suggests that there are differences between human and
212	mouse macrophages in NLRP3 responses to UPEC. Indeed, a direct comparison revealed that,
213	whereas MCC950 completely inhibited responses to nigericin in both HMDM and BMM,
214	CFT073-mediated cell death was only blocked in mouse macrophages (Fig. S3A). Moreover,
215	LPS priming had no apparent effect on NLRP3-dependency of CFT073-mediated cell death in
216	human or mouse macrophages. In contrast to differential effects on cell death, MCC950 inhibited
217	CFT073-triggered IL-1 β release in both LPS-primed HMDM and BMM, albeit more effectively
218	in BMM (Fig. S3B). The level of NLRP3-dependence for CFT073-triggered IL-1β release varied
219	between cells from different donors (Fig. 4B, S3BTable S1), and MCC950 never completely
220	abolished IL-1 β release, as was the case for nigericin. This We therefore suggests that CFT073
221	triggers both NLRP3-dependent and -independent inflammasomes in human macrophages. To
222	examine this investigated the possibility that the residual IL-16 response detected by ELISA
222	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
222	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed,
222 223 224	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment
222223224225	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1β, as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment with MCC950 completely blocked release of mature IL-1β from CFT073-infected HMDM,
 222 223 224 225 226 	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment with MCC950 completely blocked release of mature IL-1 β from CFT073-infected HMDM, whereas pro-IL-1 β was still present in culture supernatants (Fig. 4C)., weWe also monitored
222 223 224 225 226 227	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment with MCC950 completely blocked release of mature IL-1 β from CFT073-infected HMDM, whereas pro-IL-1 β was still present in culture supernatants (Fig. 4C)., weWe also monitored ASC speck formation upon NLRP3 inhibition in HMDM. In these experiments, the NLRP3
 222 223 224 225 226 227 228 	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment with MCC950 completely blocked release of mature IL-1 β from CFT073-infected HMDM, whereas pro-IL-1 β was still present in culture supernatants (Fig. 4C)., we We also monitored ASC speck formation upon NLRP3 inhibition in HMDM. In these experiments, the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 completely blocked nigericin- but not <i>S</i> . Typhimurium-triggered ASC speck
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222 223 224 225 226 227 228 229 230	might be due to the release of unprocessed IL-1 β , as a consequence of cell death. Indeed, analysis of concentrated cell culture supernatants by immunoblotting revealed that treatment with MCC950 completely blocked release of mature IL-1 β from CFT073-infected HMDM, whereas pro-IL-1 β was still present in culture supernatants (Fig. 4C). , weWe also monitored ASC speck formation upon NLRP3 inhibition in HMDM. In these experiments, the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 completely blocked nigericin- but not <i>S</i> . Typhimurium-triggered ASC speck formation (Fig. 4D).4C). In contrast to its effects on the nigericin response, MCC950 substantially reduced, but did not ablate, CFT073- and UT189-induced ASC speck formation in
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233 To further investigate inflammasome involvement in human macrophages, the effect of the caspase-1 specific inhibitor VX-7652324 on CFT073-triggered cell death in human and mouse 234 235 macrophages was examined. VX-765 effectively blocked CFT073- and LPS/nigericin-triggered 236 cell death and IL-1β release by LPS-primed BMM at 2 h post-infection (Fig. 5A-B). However, 237 similar to the observations with MCC950, VX-765 reduced CFT073-mediated IL-1ß release 238 from LPS-primed HMDM, but did not affect cell death. Control experiments confirmed that both 239 inhibitors blocked cleavage and release of caspase-1 in response to CFT073 infection and 240 LPS/nigericin stimulation in HMDM and BMM (Fig. 5C-D). Together, these findings indicate 241 that (1) the NLRP3 inflammasome primarily-drives UPEC-triggered IL-1β maturation in human 242 macrophages; (2) another inflammasome also likely contributes to this response; and (32) an 243 NLRP3-independent pathway is the primary mediator of UPEC-triggered cell death in human 244 macrophages.

245

To independently verify that an NLRP3-independent pathway mediates UPEC-triggered cell 246 247 death, we used THP-1 defNLRP3 cells, which stably express an NLRP3 shRNA and have 248 reduced NLRP3 expression compared to a control cell line (THP-1 Null) transfected with an 249 'empty' construct (Fig. 6A). Caspase-1 processing in THP-1 defNLRP3 cells responding to 250 CFT073, UTI89 or LPS/nigericin was greatly reduced, whereas caspase-1 p20 was still 251 detectable at high levels after infection with S. Typhimurium. In these cells, CFT073 and UTI89 252 still triggered substantial cell death, whereas LPS/nigericin did not (Fig. 6B). Again, LPS 253 priming had no effect on the degree of NLRP3 dependency of UPEC-mediated cell death-254 although it did appear to reduce the effect of NLRP3-knockdown in the nigericin control. As

expected, no reduction in cell death was observed in defNLRP3 cells when using *S*.
Typhimurium as an NLRP3-independent trigger for cell death. Collectively, these data suggest
the involvement of another NLRP3-independent, cell death pathway triggered by UPEC.

258

259 α-hemolysin is the main factor in CFT073 triggering cell death and IL-1β release in mouse 260 but not human macrophages

261 The capacity for CFT073 and UTI89 to trigger human macrophage cell death was also conferred 262 by culture supernatants (Fig. S4). Crude biochemical analysis indicated that the factor(s) 263 responsible were heat- and protease-sensitive, and with a likely molecular weight of greater than 264 30 kDa. Candidate proteins mediating cell death and/or IL-1 β secretion included the pore 265 forming toxin α -hemolysin, as well as serine-protease autotransporter toxins (Sat and Vat). 266 Genes encoding all three toxins are present in CFT073, while UTI89 contains the *hlyCABD* (α -267 hemolysin operon) and vat genes. To test the involvement of these three toxins in triggering the 268 inflammasome response, we generated a series of CFT073 mutants deleted for genes encoding 269 each individual toxin and a triple-mutant deficient in the ability to produce all three toxins. Compared to wild type CFT073, the α -hemolysin (*hhyA*)-mutant (CFT073 Δ *hlyA*) was greatly 270 271 impaired in its ability to trigger cell death of mouse macrophages (-70%)(~30% of wild type) 272 and, to a lesser extent, of human macrophages $(-40\%)(\sim60\%)$ of wild type) when macrophages 273 were exposed to an MOI of 10 (Fig. 7A). CFT073 sat- and vat- mutants were very modestly 274 compromised for their ability to trigger mouse and human macrophage cell death. However, no 275 additive effect was observed, as the triple-mutant showed no difference to the CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$ 276 single mutant in this assay. Similar observations were made at an MOI of 100 with both CFT073 277 and UTI89 (Fig. 7B), hlyA single mutant in this assay. Intriguingly, analysis of IL-1ß secretion In

278	this case, cell death induced by CFT073 and UTI89 was almost completely hlyA-independent in
279	HMDM (cell death for hlyA mutants was ~85% of the wild type strains), whereas in BMM the
280	response was largely hlyA-dependent (~30% and 40% of wild type strains). Intriguingly, analysis
281	of IL-1 β release revealed a striking difference between human and mouse macrophages with
282	respect to triggering by α -hemolysin. Whereas IL-1 β levels were substantially reduced in BMM
283	responding to the <i>hlyA</i> -mutant as <u>CFT073Δ<i>hlyA</i></u> compared to wild type CFT073, deletion of <i>hlyA</i>
284	had no effect on HMDM responses (Fig. <u>7C)</u> . Again, we analysed cleavage of released IL-1 β by
285	western blot and found that in HMDM levels of cleaved IL-1ß were similar in samples infected
286	with CFT073 and CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$ (Fig. 7D). In contrast, CFT073 $\Delta hlyA$ was drastically impaired
287	in its ability to induce the release of cleaved IL-1 β in BMM.7B). Deletion of sat or vat had no
288	effect on IL-1 β release from either human or mouse macrophages, and the response to the triple-
289	mutant was again identical to that of the <i>hlyA</i> single-mutant. Thus, α -hemolysin is the primary,
290	but not only, mediator of cell death and IL-1 β release in mouse macrophages. Moreover,
291	generation of mature IL-1 β was completely dependent on α -hemolysin. By contrast, in the
292	human macrophage response to UPEC, α -hemolysin does not contribute to IL-1 β release <u>or</u>
293	<u>cleavage</u> , and plays only a minorlesser role in rapid cell death. These differential effects of α -
294	hemolysin further highlight the divergent UPEC recognition pathways of human and mouse
295	macrophages. In summary, UPEC triggers both NLRP3-independent cell death and α -
296	hemolysin-independent IL-1ß processing in human macrophages, thus indicating that additional
297	host and pathogen-derived factors are likely to be important in the macrophage response to
298	<u>UPEC.</u>
299	

302 Discussion

303	To our knowledge, In this is the first report describing the ability of study, we demonstrate that
304	some UPEC tostrains can trigger both NLRP3-dependent inflammasome responses activation
305	and rapid cell death in macrophages. We also provide important insights into these processes in
306	the context of similarities and differences between human and mouse macrophage responses to
307	<u>UPEC.</u> Other <i>E. coli</i> , including enterohemorrhagic <i>E. coli</i> isolates ¹² as well as non-pathogenic or
308	commensal stains ^{24, 2525, 26} , have been reported to activate inflammasomes by a variety of
309	different mechanisms involving several bacterial factors. These include nucleic acids ²⁶²⁷ and
310	protein toxins (enterohemolysin ¹² and heat-labile enterotoxin ²⁷) acting via NLRP3, the T3SS rod
311	protein EprJ ²⁸ and flagellin ²⁴ acting via NLRC4 and (intracellular) LPS ²⁹ acting via non-
312	canonical inflammasomes. Here we showed that the UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 induce
313	rapid lytic cell death in primary human macrophages and correlated this response with their
314	ability to elicit inflammasome activation. ²⁸) acting via NLRP3, the T3SS rod protein EprJ ²⁹ and
315	flagellin ²⁵ acting via NLRC4 and (intracellular) LPS ³⁰ acting via non-canonical inflammasomes.
316	Our study adds to this literature by identifying UPEC α -hemolysin-dependent and -independent
317	mechanisms of inflammasome activation in macrophages.
318	

319 It remains unclear as to what roles UPEC-mediated inflammasome activation has in different 320 pathophysiological contexts. Two out of the four strains that did not elicit inflammasome 321 activation are associated with $ABU^{\frac{17, -1817, -18}{18}}$, whilst the remaining two belong to the globally 322 disseminated fluoroquinolone-resistant *fimH*30/clade C ST131 lineage that is frequently 323 associated with symptomatic infection^{16, -3016, -31}. The two inflammasome-activating strains are 324 also associated with UTI pathology. Hence, the capacity for inflammasome activation is variable, 325 further highlighting the genetic diversity that exists amongst different UPEC isolates. Since the 326 capacity to trigger inflammasome activation and macrophage cell death was not common to all 327 UPEC strains, some UPEC strains may have gained inflammasome-activating factors as a 328 component of their virulence mechanismsarmoury or lost these to avoid host detection. In the 329 case of the former, candidate virulence factors included the pore forming toxin α -hemolysin³⁴³², 330 as well as serine-protease autotransporter toxins (Sat and Vat) that are known to elicit cytotoxic effects on epithelial cells³², and for which the genes are present in CFT073 and UT189 but not 331 83972, VR50³³ or EC958¹⁵.33, and for which the genes are present in CFT073 (*hlvA, sat, vat*) and 332 UTI89 (*hlvA*, *vat*), but not 83972, VR50³⁴ or EC958¹⁵. Mutation of all three factors in CFT073 333 334 revealed that only the absence of α -hemolysin substantially reduced inflammasome responses in 335 mouse macrophages. Intriguingly, however, CFT073-triggered IL-1ß release and cleavage was 336 completely independent of α -hemolysin in human macrophages, and there was also a 337 pronounced α -hemolysin-independent cell death pathway. This finding points towards 338 fundamentally different recognition mechanisms for these UPEC strains in human versus mouse 339 macrophages, yet conservation in the overall outcomes. Whether this extends to other cell types needs to be further examined, given an earlier recent report on E. coli α -hemolysin triggering 340 IL-1 β secretion in human urothelial cells³⁵, an earlier study showing a similar phenomenon in 341 human monocytes³⁶ and well documented cell type-specific effects of α -hemolysin³¹³². 342 343

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Our aim to characterize the specific inflammasome involved in UPEC recognition led us to study the response of mouse macrophages as a more tractable genetic system, as compared to human macrophages. Initial experiments revealed that mouse and human macrophages seemed to 347 respond similarly with regard to induction of cell death, caspase-1 cleavage and IL-1 β secretion 348 upon infection with CFT073. In the case of UTI89, a much less pronounced response was 349 observed in mouse macrophages compared to human macrophages, when using a low MOI (MOI 350 10). Nonetheless, a 10-fold higher MOI did initiate some cell death in these cells. In contrast, 351 both CFT073 and UTI89 had similar effects on human macrophages. The conservation between 352 human and mouse macrophage responses to CFT073 led us to focus on this particular strain for 353 the identification of host mechanisms mediating cellular responses. NLRP3, ASC and the 354 inflammatory caspases (1 and/or 11) were indispensable for CFT073-mediated rapid lytic cell 355 death and IL-1 β secretion in mouse BMM, while a role for NLRC4 was excluded. <u>These</u> 356 findings are consistent with a very recent study showing that UTI89 induces moderate IL-1B 357 release from mouse macrophages in an NLRP3-dependent manner, albeit under different experimental conditions³⁷. 358

359

360 The conclusion that the acute CFT073-mediated inflammasome response leading to cell death 361 and IL-1ß secretion in BMM was absolutely dependent on NLRP3 was also supported by 362 experiments using small molecule inhibitors of NLRP3 (MCC950) and caspase-1 (VX-765). 363 However, primary human macrophages that were analysed in parallel showed a remarkably 364 different response. The NLRP3 and caspase-1 inhibitors substantially reduced or blocked IL-18 365 secretionrelease from HMDM in response to UPEC infection or the NLRP3 agonist nigericin, 366 respectively. In contrast, UPEC-triggered cell death was largely unaffected by either inhibitor. 367 Although analysis of HMDM generated from several donors revealed some variation in the level 368 of NLRP3-dependence, the overall conclusion is that in human macrophages cell death is 369 NLRP3-independent, whereas IL-1\beta release always shows at least some NI RD3

370	dependence.cleavage was shown to be completely NLRP3-dependent. Interestingly, LPS-primed
371	HMDMs released unprocessed IL-1ß upon UPEC infection, even when the NLRP3
372	inflammasome was blocked. Biologically, this may be of significance since it was shown that
373	<u>uncleaved IL-1β can be processed in the extracellular space by inflammasome complexes³⁸ or by</u>
374	enzymes such as cathepsin-G and elastase ³⁹ . Consistent with the existence of an NLRP3-
375	independent death pathway in human macrophages, stable knockdown of NLRP3 in THP-1 cells
376	blocked LPS/nigericin-induced cell death, but only marginally reduced CFT073- and UTI89-
377	mediated cell death. Given Whether NLRP3-independent cell death involves activation of another
378	inflammasome is unknown at this stage. However, given that NLRP3 inhibition ablated both
379	UPEC-triggered ASC speck formation still occurred to some extentinduced IL-1ß maturation
380	and caspase-1 cleavage in HMDM-after blocking NLRP3 function, a, other modes of cell death
381	such as necroptosis would appear to be more likely explanation is the existence of another
382	UPEC sensing inflammasome in.
383	
384	Divergence in the repertoire of NLR family members between human macrophages. Human
385	versusand mouse can contribute to differences in UPEC triggered inflammasome responses
386	could potentially be explained by divergence in the repertoire of NLR family members between
387	these species ^{10, 3440} . However, differences in the recognition of pathogens by orthologous human
388	and mouse NLRs have also been reported. For example, F. tularensis activates only the AIM2
389	inflammasome in mouse macrophages, but triggers NLRP3- and AIM2-dependent responses in
390	human macrophages $\frac{35}{-}$ Conversely, <i>L. monocytogenes</i> was reportedly recognized by AIM2,

392 causes for these differences are not fully understood, but may be related to species differences in

391

NLRP3 and NLRC4 in mouse cells³⁶⁻³⁸⁴²⁻⁴⁴, but exclusively by NLRP3 in human cells³⁹⁴⁵. The

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393	ligand recognition. siRNA screens of likely inflammasome candidates in human macrophages
394	have thus far failed to identify the responsible host recognition system. Furthermore, other
395	modes of cell death such as necroptosis cannot be discounted at this stage. Our study highlights
396	that one pathogen can activate NLRP3 in both human and mouse macrophages, but through
397	distinct mechanisms. Our demonstration of α -hemolysin-dependent IL-1 β cleavage and cell
398	death in mouse macrophages is consistent with a recent study showing α -hemolysin-mediated
399	inflammasome activation in UTI89-infected mice ³⁵ . In stark contrast however, our studies with
400	human macrophages identified an α -hemolysin-independent pathway to IL-1 β maturation. This
401	suggests that another UPEC factor selectively promotes NLRP3 activation in human but not
402	mouse macrophages, or that its relative potency in triggering inflammasome responses differs
403	between these species or between different cell types.
404	
405	The selective role of NLRP3 in promoting IL-1ß release but not cell death in human
106	meanshages responding to LIDEC suggests Emerging outdones indicates that autoking processing

suggestsEmerging evidence indicates that cytokine processing 406 407 and pyroptosis can be uncoupled. This is reminiscent of recent studies of mouse neutrophils, where in some systems. For example, Salmonella-mediated NLRC4 activation promoted IL-1ß 408 maturation but not pyroptosis⁴⁰ in mouse neutrophils⁴⁶. Other studies have also reported distinct 409 410 roles for individual inflammasomes in cytokine processing versus pyroptosis. For example, 411 NLRP3 was shown to mediate cell death and IL-1ß release in S. aureus-infected HMDM, whilst a novel NLRP7 inflammasome was shown to selectively promote IL-1 β secretion^{41,47}. Similarly, 412 413 NLRP3 and NLRC4 were shown to mediate B. pseudomallei-induced IL-1ß and IL-18 release in the mouse, whilst pyroptotic cell death was attributed only to NLRC4 $\frac{42}{-48}$. At present, there is no 414 415 unifying model explaining why similar recognition systems lead to cytokine maturation in one

416	setting, and pyroptosis in another. Broz et al. proposed that CARD-containing NLRs form a
417	cytokine processing inflammasome in the presence of ASC, but a death complex directly with
418	easpase-1 in its absence ²¹ -can initiate distinct complexes with different roles in mediating
419	cytokine maturation versus pyroptotic cell death ²² . However, the above described mechanism
420	does not apply for most NLRPs and AIM2, which contain a pyrin domain rather than a CARD ¹⁰ ,
421	and does not explain how death and cytokine responses happen simultaneously in the presence of
422	ASC. The fact that NLRP3 was causal for cytokine processing but not cell death in human
423	macrophages might again be interpreted as another example of uncoupling of downstream
424	inflammasome responses. However, it would seem more likely that the NLRP3-independent cell
425	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system.
425 426	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system.
425 426 427	<u>death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system.</u> A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1β production has been shown in many <i>in</i>
425 426 427 428	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system. A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1β production has been shown in many <i>in vivo</i> infection models including <i>S. Typhimurium</i> , <i>L. monocytogenesis</i> and <i>Burkholderia</i> species ¹¹
 425 426 427 428 429 	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system. A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1β production has been shown in many <i>in vivo</i> infection models including <i>S. Typhimurium</i> , <i>L. monocytogenesis</i> and <i>Burkholderia</i> species ¹¹ On the other hand, the role of pathogen-induced cell death is ambiguous, having either protective
 425 426 427 428 429 430 	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system. A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1β production has been shown in many <i>in vivo</i> infection models including <i>S. Typhimurium</i> , <i>L. monocytogenesis</i> and <i>Burkholderia</i> species ¹¹ On the other hand, the role of pathogen-induced cell death is ambiguous, having either protective or detrimental effects by either eradicating intracellular niches or promoting dissemination,
 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system. A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1β production has been shown in many <i>in vivo</i> infection models including <i>S. Typhimurium</i> , <i>L. monocytogenesis</i> and <i>Burkholderia</i> species ¹¹ On the other hand, the role of pathogen-induced cell death is ambiguous, having either protective or detrimental effects by either eradicating intracellular niches or promoting dissemination, respectively ⁴³ . Since UPEC can occupy both extracellular and intracellular niches, it is difficult
 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 432 	death pathway overrides NLRP3-dependent pyroptosis in our system. A protective role for inflammasome activation and IL-1β production has been shown in many <i>in vivo</i> infection models including <i>S. Typhimurium</i> , <i>L. monocytogenesis</i> and <i>Burkholderia</i> species ¹¹ On the other hand, the role of pathogen-induced cell death is ambiguous, having either protective or detrimental effects by either eradicating intracellular niches or promoting dissemination, respectively ⁴³ . Since UPEC can occupy both extracellular and intracellular niches, it is difficult to predict what role pyroptosis plays during UTI. Approaches for genetically and/or

to predict what role pyroptosis plays during UTI. Approaches for genetically and/or
pharmacologically uncoupling pyroptosis from other inflammasome responses will be required
to address this question. In the case of cytokine processing, previous studies have associated IL1β release with renal pathology of UTI in patients^{44, 45} and in a mouse model⁴⁶. Whether NLRP3
has a causal role in host defence or pathology is unknown at this stage. Given differences
between human and mouse macrophages in NLRP3 dependence for UPEC responses, this is not
a trivial task. ⁴⁹. Since UPEC can occupy both extracellular and intracellular niches, it is difficult

439	to predict what role pyroptosis plays during UTI. Activation of caspase-1/11 was shown to
440	facilitate clearance of UPEC in a mouse model, presumably by inducing pyroptosis and
441	subsequent exfoliation of bladder epithelial cells ³⁵ . In another study however, activity of caspase-
442	1/11 was associated with chronicity and higher bacterial loads in the bladder in a model of
443	recurrent UTI ⁵⁰ . In the case of cytokine processing, previous studies have associated IL-1β
444	release with renal pathology of UTI in patients ^{51, 52} , and also in a mouse model ⁵³ . Only very
445	recently was IL-1β release in <i>atg16l1-/-</i> mice shown to be associated with protection from UTI ³⁷
446	While the effects of IL-1ß can be studied simply by knockout or by blocking its interaction with
447	receptors, new approaches for genetically and/or pharmacologically uncoupling pyroptosis from
448	other inflammasome responses will be required to address the role of cell death in pathology
449	Whether NLRP3-dependent responses have a causal role in host defence or pathology remains to
450	be elucidated.
451	
452	In conclusion, our study highlights the complexity of interactions between UPEC and the innate
453	immune system. Some UPEC strains trigger inflammasome activation and rapid, lytic cell death
454	in macrophages, whereas others, including two strains from the globally disseminated multidrug
455	resistant ST131 lineage, do not. Further, whereas This again highlights the genetic complexity
456	that exists amongst different UPEC-mediated cell death strains and IL-1B secretion are mediated

bythat host response pathways engaged, as well as host colonization strategies employed, will
vary depending on the specific UPEC strain encountered. For inflammasome-activating strains
such as CFT073, NLRP3 indrives IL-1β maturation in both human and mouse macrophages.
However, this pathway only partlymarginally contributes to IL-1β maturationcell death in human
macrophages, despite its causal role in cell death in mouse macrophages. Finally, α-hemolysin is

462	the primary trigger for cell death and IL-1 β release in mouse macrophages, whereas these	
463	cellular responses are either primarily or completely independent of this toxin in human	
464	macrophages. The yet-to-be-identified death pathway in human monocyte-derived macrophages	
465	highlights a keypotential difference between human and mouse innate immune UPEC	
466	recognition pathways- <u>and needs to be considered in future studies using macrophages and other</u>	
467	cell types from a variety of sources, as well as in <i>in vivo</i> studies. Given the importance of mouse	
468	UTI models for understanding host colonization and pathology, and especially in the light of	
469	recent studies showing detrimental and beneficial effects of inflammasome activation in mouse	
470	<u>models^{37, 50}, as well as a prominent role for α-hemolysin³⁵, our findings are likely to have broad</u>	
471	significance for understanding susceptibility and severity of UTI in humans.	
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491 Methods

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493 Bacterial strains and growth conditions

494 UPEC strains CFT073¹³, UT189¹⁴, 83972¹⁷, VR50¹⁸ and EC958¹⁵¹⁵ have been described
495 previously. MS3179 is an ST131 strain isolated from a patient presenting with UTI at the Royal
496 Brisbane and Women's Hospital, Brisbane, Australia. *S.* Typhimurium strain SL1344⁴⁷⁵⁴ was
497 used as a control for NLRP3-independent inflammasome activation in some experiments. All
498 strains were routinely grown at 37°C on solid or in liquid Luria-Bertani (LB) medium.

499

500 Genetic manipulation procedures and generation of mutants

501	Mutation of the <i>hlyA</i> , sat and vat genes in CFT073, and the <i>hlyA</i> gene in UTI89, was performed
502	using the λ -Red recombinase gene replacement system ⁴⁸⁵⁵ . The primers used for amplification of
503	the kanamycin resistance gene (hlyA) or chloramphenicol resistance gene (vat, sat), and
504	subsequent insertion into the chromosome of CFT073 (or UTI89) were as follows: vat (3353: 5'-
505	tcgtaatgaacacagttcatctgatctccacacacacaagacttgataagctcacgtcttgagcgattgtgtagg and 3354: 5'-
506	gaaaccaccaccatgattttgttttaccgctgtacaggcctgctgacgcgacatgggaattagccatggtcc), sat (3351: 5'-
507	aagaaattccaatgattttgagattcagaggttaaataaa
508	ccaggagtgggagctgtagtctctggtgccaaggccggcgaaagttgcggtgacatgggaattagccatggtcc), hlyA (2049: 5'-
509	aaattaaaagcacactacagtetgcaaagcaateetetgcaaataaattgtgtaggetggagetgette and 2050: 5'-
510	tgctctgctgctttttttaatgcatctttcgtgctttgtcctgctgagtgcatatgaatatcctccttag). CFT073 hlyA
511	(CFT073 Δ hlyA), sat (CFT073 Δ sat) and vat (CFT073 Δ vat) mutants, as well as the UTI89 hlyA
512	mutant (UTI89 $\Delta hlvA$), were confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing. The CFT073 <i>hlv-sat-vat</i>

513 triple mutant was constructed by sequential deletion of each gene, as described above, and was

- 514 confirmed by PCR and DNA sequencing.
- 515

516 Mammalian cell culture

Approval for all experiments using primary human and mouse cells was obtained from the 517 518 University of Queensland Medical Research Ethics Committee -or the Animal Ethics Committee. 519 Human monocytes were isolated from buffy coats of healthy donors (kindly provided by the 520 Australian Red Cross) by positive selection for CD14 using MACS technology (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany), as previously described^{49,56}. HMDM were differentiated for 7 521 522 days with CSF-1 (10,000 U/ml, Chiron Emeryville, CA, USA) from CD14⁺ cells, as previously described⁴⁹⁵⁶, but in the absence of antibiotics. <u>Cells from a single donor were used in every</u> 523 experiment. Murine BMM were differentiated using 10,000 U/ml CSF-1 (Chiron) from bone 524 marrow of C57BL/6 wild type, Nlrp3-1-, Nlrc4-1-, Asc-1-, and Caspase-1/11-1- mice (all described 525 in⁴⁰⁴⁶), in the absence of antibiotics as previously described⁶. PCC were flushed from the 526 527 peritoneal cavity of C57BL/6 mice by injection of 5 ml PBS. THP-1 (TIB-202, ATCC, 528 Manassas, VA, USA), THP-1 Null and THP-1 defNLRP3 (InvivoGen, San Diego, CA, USA) 529 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 1 530 mM Na-Pyruvate and 10 mM HEPES (all Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). THP-1 cells 531 were differentiated into macrophage-like cells by culture for 48 h in medium containing 30 ng/ml 532 phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). PMA or CSF-1 was removed 4 h prior to infection with UPEC strains. Human bladder epithelial cell lines 533 56345637 (HTB-9, ATCC) and T24 (HTB-4, ATCC) were cultured in FBS (10%) and 2 mM L-534 535 glutamine supplemented RPMI-1640 or McCoy's 5A medium (Life Technologies), respectively.

536

537 Bacterial culture and macrophage infection assays

538 UPEC strains were grown statically at 37°C overnight in LB broth. S. Typhimurium strain 539 SL1344 was grown overnight in LB broth (200 rpm, 37°C), diluted 1:33 and grown for another 3 540 h (to ensure logarithmic growth). Cells were pelleted, washed and adjusted to the same optical 541 density at 600 nm. A MOI of approximately 10 was used (unless indicated otherwise) and 542 confirmed by enumeration of colony forming units following serial dilution. Mammalian cells were seeded at a density of 4-8x10⁴/0.2 ml in 96-well plates or 2-4x10⁵/ml in 24-well plates 543 544 (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark). Medium was changed for all cell types to RPMI-1640 supplemented 545 with FBS (10%) and 2 mM L-glutamine (all Life Technologies) 4 h prior to infection. LPS-546 priming was performed by addition of 100 ng/ml Ultrapure LPS from Salmonella minnesota 547 R595 (InvivoGen). Nigericin sodium salt (Sigma-Aldrich) at a concentration of 10 µM was used 548 as a positive control for NLRP3-dependent responses. In some experiments, cells were pre-549 incubated for 1 h with the caspase-1 inhibitor VX-765 (Selleck Chemicals, Houston, TX, USA) or the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950²², prior to performing infections.²³, prior to performing 550 551 infections. At 1 h post-infection, 200 µg/ml gentamicin (Life Technologies) was added for 1 h to 552 inhibit growth of extracellular bacteria. For infections over a 24 h time course, medium was replaced with fresh medium containing 20 µg/ml gentamicin for the remaining 22 h. 553

554

555 Cytotoxicity assays

556 Cell culture supernatants were collected at 2 or 24 h post-infection, centrifuged for 5 min at 500 557 g, and analysed for LDH release using the *In Vitro* Toxicology Assay Kit (Sigma-Aldrich). 558 Cytotoxicity (%) was calculated by quantification of LDH in culture supernatants versus total

559	cellular LDH (present in S/N after cell lysis with 0.1% Triton X-100) according to the formula %
560	cell death = $(100/LDH_{total}-LDH_{spontaneous})x(LDH_{treatment}-LDH_{spontaneous})$. Values calculated at 24 h
561	values represent summed measures measurements of the same wells well at 2 and 24 h post-
562	infection, since medium was changed at 2 h post-infection (see above as part of the gentamicin
563	exclusion protocol (see: Bacterial culture and macrophage infection assays).
564	
565	Confocal microscopy

566 Confocal microscopy was performed as previously described⁶. Cells were stained with 200 ng/ml 567 Alexa Fluor® 594 Phalloidin (Life Technologies) to visualize cell morphology, and ASC was 568 detected with a rabbit anti-ASC Antibody (N-15)-R (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA) 569 (1:300) and Alexa Fluor® 647 or 688-conjugated chicken anti-Rabbit IgG (Life Technologies) as 570 a secondary antibody (1:150). For quantifying ASC speck formation, HMDM were cultured in 571 12 mM glycine to reduce loss of cells due to lytic cell death^{50,57}. ASC specks were counted 572 manually in a blinded fashion (5 fields at 40x magnification per condition per replicate).

573

574 Immunoblotting

4x10⁵ cells were lysed in 100 μl 2xSDS loading buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl, 20% glycerol (ν/ν), 4% SDS (w/ν), pH 6.8). For analysis of secreted caspase-1 in cell culture supernatants, medium was replaced with OptiMEM medium (Life Technologies) 4 h prior to infection. Cell culture supernatants were precipitated by incubation with 4 volumes of acetone at -20°C overnight and centrifugation at 5300 g and -10°C for 30 min. Pellets were taken up in 2xSDS loading buffer. Western blotting was performed as previously described $\frac{49.56}{-1.0}$ Membranes were stained with cleaved IL-1β (Asp116) rabbit mAb, IL-1β (3A6) mouse mAb, cleaved caspase-1 (ASP297)

582	(D57A2) rabbit mAb (<u>all</u> Cell Signalling Technology, Danvers, MA, <u>USA), mouse IL-1β/IL-1F2</u>
583	affinity purified polyclonal Ab, Goat IgG (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA), anti-
584	caspase-1 (p20) (mouse) mAb (Adipogen, San Diego, CA, USA), anti-NLRP3/NALP3 mAb
585	(Cryo-2) (Adipogen) or human anti-G3PDH antibody (Trevigen, Gaithersburg, MD, USA). All
586	primary antibodies were diluted 1:1000 except for human anti-G3PDH antibody, which was used
587	at 1:10000. As secondary antibodies, anti-mouse and anti-rabbit IgG, HRP-linked Antibodies
588	(Cell Signalling Technology) were used (1:2500).(1:2500) and anti-goat IgG-peroxidase
589	antibody (Sigma-Aldrich) (1:5000) were used. HRP was detected using ECL Plus substrate (GE
590	Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) and Super RX film (Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).
591	
592	ELISA
593	Cell culture supernatants were analysed for IL-1 β with the human or mouse IL-1 β /IL-1F2
594	DuoSet ELISA kit (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA) (detection limit 4 and 15.6 pg/ml,
595	respectively) and anti-human or mouse ELISA Ready-Set-Go! (eBiosciece, San Diego, CA,
596	USA).) (detection limit: 4 and 8 pg/ml, respectively). TNF- α was detected using the Mouse TNF
597	OptEIA ELISA set (BD Biosciences, San Diego, CA, USA) (detection limit: 15.6 pg/ml) and the
598	human TNF-α standard ELISA Developmental kit (Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ, USA) (detection
599	<u>limit: 16 pg/ml) .</u>
600	
601	Statistical Analysis
602	All LDH, ELISA and MTT assays were performed using duplicate or triplicate cell culture wells
603	for individual experiments. Presented data are typically mean values combined from three or
604	more independent experiments, unless otherwise indicated. For statistical analysis of datasets

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605	with N>4, two-sided Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank tests were performed using GraphPad
606	Prism Version 6 (GraphPad software, Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). For these datasets, the
607	differences between pairs were plotted and were generally distributed approximately
608	symmetrically around the median.
609	
610	

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855 osmotic lysis of infected host macrophages. Cellular microbiology 2006; 8(11): 1812-856 1825. 857 858 859 860 861 862 **Figure legends** 863 864 Figure 1: The UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 induce rapid cell death in macrophages. 865 A-C) HMDM or BMM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 1, 10 and 100). 866 Supernatants were analyzed by LDH release assays at the indicated times-post-infection (p.i.). 867 Data represent the mean+SEM of three independent experiments. D) Human macrophage-like 868 cells (THP-1) and mouse peritoneal cavity cells (PCC), as well as the-human T24 and 5637 869 bladder epithelial cell lines (T24 and 5637), cells, were infected with the indicated UPEC strains 870 (MOI 10) for 2 h. Supernatants were analyzed by LDH release assay. Data represent the 871 mean+range of two independent experiments.

Fink SL, Cookson BT. Caspase-1-dependent pore formation during pyroptosis leads to

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Figure 2: The UPEC strains CFT073 and UTI89 promote IL-1β secretion, caspase-1 cleavage and ASC-speck formation. A) HMDM and BMM were primed with 100 ng/ml LPS for 4 h, then infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI 10) for 2 h. Supernatants were analyzed by ELISA. Data represent the mean+SEM of three independent experiments. B) HMDM and BMM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains for 1 h. Whole cell lysates and concentrated supernatants were analyzed by western blot with antibodies detecting human or mouse caspase-1 p20. GAPDH is shown as a loading control. Similar findings were apparent in

three independent experiments. C) HMDM were infected with the indicated UPEC strains (MOI
10) for 2 h, after which they were fixed and analyzed by confocal microscopy. Arrowheads
indicate ASC-specks. Similar results were apparent in two independent experiments.

884 Figure 3: In murine macrophages, CFT073-induced caspase-1 cleavage and cell death is 885 dependent on the NLRP3 inflammasome. BMM derived from wild type, Nlrp3-, Nlrc4-, Asc-886 and Casp1/11-deficient mice were infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 or the S. Typhimurium 887 strain SL1344 (MOI 10), or were stimulated with nigericin (10 μ M, pre-stimulated with 100 888 ng/ml LPS for 4 h). A) After 1 h, whole cell lysates and concentrated supernatants were analyzed 889 by western blot with antibodies detecting murine full-length caspase-1, as well as multiple 890 caspase-1 cleavage products. GAPDH was used as loading control. Data is representative of two 891 independent experiments. B) Supernatants were analyzed by LDH assay at 2 h p.i. Data is the 892 mean+range of two independent experiments. C) LPS-primed BMM (100 ng/ml, 4 h) were 893 treated as above, after which secreted IL-1 β was measured by ELISA after 2 h. Data are 894 mean+SEM of three independent experiments.

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Figure 4: NLRP3 partially-contributes to IL-1 β release and maturation andbut does not mediate cell death in human macrophages responding to CFT073. A-B) HMDM were primed with LPS (100 ng/ml, 4 h); or left untreated, then pretreated for 1 h with the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 (10 μ M) and then subsequently infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 or *S*. Typhimurium SL1344 (MOI 10), or were stimulated with nigericin (10 μ M). Supernatants were collected at 2 h p.i., and analyzed by LDH release assay (A) -and ELISA (B). Data are from nine (CFT073, LPS/nigericin) and six (*S*. Typhimurium) independent experiments (different donors),

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903	respectively. Statistical analysis was performed using a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank
904	tests: ns: $p > 0.05$, *: $p <= 0.05$, **: $p <= 0.01$. Concentrated supernatants from cells treated as
905	described above were analyzed by western blot with antibodies detecting full-length or cleaved
906	human IL-1β. D) HMDM were treated as above, but in presence of 12 mM glycine, and analyzed
907	by confocal microscopy. ASC specks and nuclei were counted manually in a blinded manner.
908	Data are mean+SEM of three independent experiments.
909	
910	Figure 5: UPEC-mediated cell death is blocked by caspase-1 inhibition in mouse but not
911	human macrophages. A-B) HMDM and BMM were primed with LPS (100 ng/ml, 4 h);) or left
912	<u>untreated</u> , then pretreated for 1 h with the caspase-1 inhibitor VX-765 (50 μ M), and
913	subsequently infected with the UPEC strain CFT073 (MOI 10) or were-stimulated with nigericin

(10 μM). Supernatants were collected at 2 h p.i., and were analyzed for cell death by LDH

release assay (A) and IL-1 β release by ELISA (B). Data represent the mean+SEM of three

independent experiments. (C-D) HMDM and BMM were treated as above for 1 h. Cell lysates,

as well as cell culture supernatants, were analyzed by western blot for cleavage of caspase-1.

918 GAPDH served as loading control. Similar results were obtained in two independent 919 experiments.

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921 Figure 6: UPEC triggers NLRP3-independent cell death in human macrophages. Stable 922 NLRP3 knockdown THP-1 cells (defNLRP3), as well as THP-1 control cells (Null) were 923 infected with the indicated UPEC strains or S. Typhimurium (MOI 10), or were treated with 924 nigericin (10 μ M) for 1 h (A) or 2 h (B). A) Cell lysates were analyzed by western blot for 925 expression of NLRP3 and GAPDH as a loading control. Caspase-1 p20 was detected in cell

926	lysates. Similar findings were apparent in two independent experiments. B) Supernatants of	
927	unprimed or LPS primed (100 ng/ml LPS, 4 h) THP-1 cells were analyzed by LDH assay. Data	
928	are the mean+SEM of threefour independent experiments.	
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930	Figure 7: Differences between human and mouse macrophages in cellular responses to the	
931	toxin α -hemolysin. <u>A-B</u> HMDM and BMM were infected with wild type CFT073,	
932	CFT073 <u>UPEC strains or mutants</u> deficient for α -hemolysin ($\Delta hlyA$), sat (Δsat), vat (Δvat) or all	Formatted: Font: Not Italic
933	three genes (<i>AhlyA; Asat; Avat</i>) at athe indicated MOI 10 -for 2 h. A) Supernatants were analyzed	
934	by LDH assay. BC) LPS-primed (100 ng/ml, 4 h) cells were treated as above (MOI 10) and	
935	analyzed by IL-1 β ELISA. Data are the mean+SEM of three (A, C) or four (B) independent	
936	experiments. D) Concentrated supernatants from cells treated as described above were analyzed	
937	by western blot with antibodies detecting cleaved human or mouse IL-1ß. Similar observations	
938	were made in 2 independent experiments.	
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