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| 1 | Legionella pneumophila pathogenesis in the Galleria mellonella infection |
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17 Abstract

18 Legionella pneumophila is a facultative intracellular human pathogen and the 19 aetiological agent of severe pneumonia known as Legionnaires' disease. Its virulence 20 depends on protein secretion systems, in particular the Dot/Icm type IV secretion 21 system (T4SS), which is essential to establish a replication permissive vacuole in 22 macrophages. The analysis of the role of these systems and their substrates for 23 pathogenesis requires easy-to-use models which approximate human infection. We 24 examined the effectiveness of the larvae of the wax moth Galleria mellonella as a new 25 model for L. pneumophila infection. We found that the L. pneumophila strains 130b, 26 Paris and JR32 caused mortality of the G. mellonella larvae, which was strain-, infectious 27 dose-, growth-phase- and T4SS-dependent. Wild type L. pneumophila persisted and 28 replicated within the larvae whereas T4SS mutants were rapidly cleared. L. 29 pneumophila strain Lp02, which is attenuated in the absence of thymidine, but has a 30 functional T4SS, resisted clearance in G. mellonella up to 18 h post infection without 31 inducing mortality. Immunofluorescence and transmission electron microscopy 32 revealed that L. pneumophila resided within insect haemocytes in a vacuole that 33 ultrastructurally resembled the Legionella containing vacuole (LCV) observed in 34 macrophages. The vacuole was decorated with the T4SS effector and LCV marker SidC. 35 Infection caused severe damages to the insect organs and triggered immune responses 36 including activation of the phenoloxidase cascade leading to melanisation, nodule 37 formation and upregulation of antimicrobial peptides. Taken together, these results suggest that G. mellonella provides an effective model to investigate the interaction 38 39 between L. pneumophila and the host.

40 Introduction

41 Legionella pneumophila is a Gram-negative bacterium found ubiquitously in environmental 42 water reservoirs where it replicates in free-living protozoa (38). Following inhalation of 43 contaminated aerosols, L. pneumophila is capable of infecting human alveolar macrophages 44 and causing disease ranging from mild flu-like symptoms to Legionnaires' disease, a severe, 45 life-threatening pneumonia (16). L. pneumophila thrives in professional phagocytes by 46 avoiding killing by the phago-lysosomal pathway (21). Instead it establishes a specialized 47 Legionella containing vacuole (LCV), which shows characteristics of the rough endoplasmic 48 reticulum (ER) (48).

49 L. pneumophila employs several specialized protein secretion systems, e.g. the twin-arginine 50 translocation (Tat) pathway and a type II secretion system (T2SS), to secrete virulence 51 factors, some of which have been shown to contribute to Legionella's intracellular survival 52 and pathogenicity (11, 12). However, the essential virulence determinant of L. pneumophila 53 is the Dot (defective in organelle trafficking)/Icm (intracellular multiplication) type IV 54 secretion system (T4SS), which is indispensable for intracellular survival and establishment 55 of the replication-permissive LCV in both amoebae and macrophages (4, 45). The Dot/Icm 56 T4SS is a multi-protein complex able to translocate at least 275 effector proteins directly into 57 host cells (35, 53). Although it has been demonstrated that several T4SS effectors manipulate host cell vesicular trafficking, inhibit apoptosis and immune signaling, the function of the 58 59 majority of T4SS effectors during infection is still unknown (5).

Free-living freshwater amoebae such as *Acanthamoeba castellanii* or *Hartmannella vermiformis* routinely serve as model hosts to study molecular aspects of *Legionella* pathogenesis (1, 20). As natural hosts, these professional phagocytes are believed to have exerted evolutionary pressure for the selection of *Legionella's* virulence factors that enable the bacteria to overcome the antimicrobial activities of human macrophages (32). In addition, 65 *Dictyostelium discoideum* has become a prevalent protozoan model organism as it can readily

be genetically modified (47). Although, protozoan *Legionella* infection models have proven

67 successful, they do not fully reflect the infection of macrophages as amoeba employ less

68 complex antimicrobial mechanisms than mammalian cells.

The nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* possesses an innate immune system and is a wellestablished model for several bacterial pathogens including *Legionella* spp. (5). However, one caveat to the use of *C. elegans* is that bacteria replicate in the intestinal lumen and do not invade intestinal epithelial cells, limiting the usefulness of this model to study virulence determinants required for *Legionella's* intracellular lifestyle.

Typically, human *Legionella* infection is modeled using mammalian hosts (3, 6). Disease progression in the guinea pig resembles Legionellosis in humans and pathology includes lymphocyte infiltration, goblet cell metaplasia, mild fibrosis and emphysema (3). In contrast, the majority of mouse strains are resistant to *Legionella* infection (52) with the exception of the inbred albino A/J mouse, which develops a self-limiting infection (6).

79 Due to the high cost and ethical considerations associated with the use of mammalian hosts, 80 the search for alternative models is ongoing. Insect model organisms, in particular 81 Drosophila melanogaster, have been introduced to study bacterial pathogenesis (44). L. 82 pneumophila replicates in D. melanogaster and kills the flies in a Dot/Icm T4SS-dependent 83 manner (27). The human and insect innate immune systems demonstrate many similarities 84 (24, 29) with most insect species containing specialized cells known as haemocytes that 85 phagocytose pathogens and form aggregates which encapsulate and neutralize foreign 86 microorganisms (30). Moreover, activated haemocytes can trigger a phenoloxidase (PO) 87 melanisation cascade leading to physical restriction of intruders and the production of 88 antimicrobial compounds (8). Haemocyte-mediated responses are complemented by the

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

91 Besides D. melanogaster, the larva of the greater wax moth Galleria mellonella has become a 92 widely adopted insect model to study a wide range of human pathogens including Listeria 93 spp. (23), Streptococcus pyogenes (36), Campylobacter jejuni (10), Yersinia 94 pseudotuberculosis (9) and several pathogenic fungi (17, 33). G. mellonella larvae can be 95 easily maintained and infected by injection without anesthesia and sustain incubation at 37°C 96 (33). A good correlation between the pathogenicity of several microorganisms in G. 97 mellonella and other mammalian models of infection has been established (22, 23). The aim 98 of this study was to determine if G. mellonella could be used as a model to study L. 99 pneumophila pathogenesis.

100 Material and Methods

101 Bacterial strains and G. mellonella larvae. L. pneumophila serogroup 1 strain 130b is a 102 spectinomycin-resistant clinical isolate from the Wadsworth Veterans Administration 103 Hospital, Los Angeles, CA (14). The L. pneumophila Δ DotA strain is a dotA insertion mutant 104 (kanamycin resistance) of L. pneumophila strain 130b (41). L. pneumophila strain JR32 is a 105 salt sensitive streptomycin-resistant L. pneumophila strain Philadelphia-1 isolate (39) and the 106 Δ IcmT strain is an *icmT* isogenic mutant in the JR32 strain (46). L. pneumophila strain Lp02 107 is a thymine auxotroph streptomycin-resistant derivative of the Philadelphia-1 strain (4). L. 108 pneumophila strain Paris is a worldwide epidemic strain (7) G. mellonella larvae were 109 obtained from Livefoods, UK and stored at room temperature in the dark. 110 Infection of G. mellonella. L. pneumophila strains were cultured on charcoal-yeast extract 111 (CYE) plates for four days then inoculated into ACES yeast extract (AYE) as described 112 previously (43). For the Lp02 strain, thymidine (100 µg/ml) was added. After 21 h of growth, 113 bacteria were diluted in Dulbecco's phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to an OD_{600} of 1 which corresponds to 10^9 CFU/ml unless otherwise indicated. Gene expression in strains containing 114 115 the p4HA plasmid was additionally induced during infection with 1mM isopropyl β-d-1-116 thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). Ten G. mellonella larvae were injected with 10 µl of bacterial 117 suspension as previously described (37) and were incubated at 37°C in the dark. As a control 118 ten larvae were injected with PBS alone and ten untreated insects were included with every 119 experiment. Larvae were individually examined for pigmentation and time of death was 120 recorded. Assays were only allowed to proceed for 3 days as pupa formation could 121 occasionally be seen by day 4. At least three independent replicates of each experiment were

122 performed.

123 Intracellular growth assay. At 0, 2, 5, 18 and 24 h post infection (p. i.) haemolymph was 124 extracted from three infected larvae and pooled as previously described (23). Cells were 125 lysed by incubation of the haemolymph with 1 μ l of 5 mg/ml digitonin for 5 min at room 126 temperature. Extracted haemolymph was serially diluted in AYE media and plated onto CYE 127 plates. To prevent contamination, the extracted haemolymph was plated on CYE plates 128 supplemented with spectinomycin (50 µg/ml) for the L. pneumophila strain 130b or 129 streptomycin (100 µg/ml) for the Philadelphia-1-derived strains. Plates were incubated at 37 130 °C for three days, viable bacteria were enumerated and the number of CFU was normalized to 131 the weight of haemolymph extracted. 132 Plasmids. A fragment of the SidC homologue from L. pneumophila 130b containing the

133 phosphatidylinositol-4 phosphate binding domain (amino acids 41 to 918) was cloned into 134 the Xbal and BamHI sites of the p4HA plasmid (13) to yield the IPTG-inducible 4HA-SidC₄₁. 135 expression plasmid pICC562 using the forward primer 5'-918 136 cgtattctagataacacctgccaaacagcagttgag-3' 5'and the reverse primer

137 ggctaggatccctatttctttataactcccgtgtac-3' and standard molecular biology techniques.

138 Indirect immunofluorescence on extracted haemocytes. Haemolymph from infected G. 139 mellonella was extracted at 5 and 24 h post infection. The extracted haemolymph was 140 dispensed onto poly-L-lysine coated glass coverslips and centrifuged at 500 x g for 10 min to 141 allow sedimentation and attachment of haemocytes. Coverslips were washed twice with PBS 142 and fixed using 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 min followed by quenching with 50 mM 143 ammonium chloride. Extracellular L. pneumophila were stained with a mouse anti-L. 144 pneumophila LPS antibody (ViroStat) and a donkey anti-mouse Rhodamine Red-X-145 conjugated antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories, Inc.). After permeabilization of 146 the cells with 0.1% Triton in PBS and blocking with 2% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) 147 in PBS, total bacteria were stained with a rabbit anti-L. pneumophila antibody (Affinity BioReagents) and a donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated antibody (JacksonImmunoResearch).

To visualize 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈ in haemocytes, fixed cells were permeabilised and blocked for 1 h in PBS containing 2% (w/v) BSA. Samples were stained with rabbit anti-*L. pneumophila* antibody (Affinity BioReagents), donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch), mouse anti-HA conjugated to Tetramethyl Rhodamine Iso-Thiocyanate (TRITC) (Sigma) and 5 μ g ml⁻¹ of 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) to visualize DNA. Samples were analyzed using an Axio M1 Imager microscope and images processed with the AxioVision software (Carl Zeiss).

Staining of formalin fixed sections of *G. mellonella*. *G. mellonella* were fixed in formalin for one week at room temperature, paraffin embedded, sectioned and stained either with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) or by indirect immunofluorescence as described previously (18). *L. pneumophila* was stained with rabbit anti-*L. pneumophila* antibody (Affinity BioReagents) and donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch). Cellular and bacterial DNA was stained with DAPI and the shape of the tissues was visualized using Rhodamine Phalloidin (Invitrogen).

164 **Transmission electron microscopy.** Haemolymph was extracted from ten infected *G*. 165 *mellonella* per condition and time point. Cells were spun down onto 6 well plates, washed 166 once with PBS and fixed in 2% glutaraldehyde. Samples were processed as described 167 previously (26) and examined using a Tecnail2 (FEI) electron microscope. Images were 168 taken with a CCD camera (TVIPS, Gauting, Germany).

Haemocyte quantification and viability assay. Infected haemolymph was extracted at 5 and 18 h p.i., Trypan blue (0.02% (v/v) in PBS) was added to cells and incubated at room temperature for 10 min. Viable cells were enumerated using a haemocytometer and each

sample was analysed in triplicate. The average of three independent experiments was plottedgraphically.

174 Phenoloxidase (PO) activity assay. At 5 and 18 h p.i. haemolymph from three infected 175 insects per condition was extracted and pooled. Cells and debris were removed by 176 centrifugation at 20000 x g for 10 min at 4 $^{\circ}$ C. The phenoloxidase activity in the plasma was 177 quantified using a microplate enzyme assay as described previously (15). The change in 178 absorbance at 490 nm was read for 1 h at room temperature with a reading taken every 179 minute using a Fluostar Optima plate reader (BMG labtech, Germany). The experiment was 180 performed in triplicate and independently repeated at least three times. Phenoloxidase activity 181 was expressed as the mean OD_{490} /minute.

182 RNA extraction and RT-PCR. At indicated time points fat bodies from three larvae were 183 collected and stored in RNAlater (Qiagen) at 4 °C until processing. Tissue was homogenized 184 by a gentleMACS homogeniser (Miltenyi Biotech) using M tubes and the 90 s RNA setting. 185 RNA was extracted using a RNAeasy kit (Qiagen) and contaminating DNA was digested 186 using Turbo DNA-free kit (Ambion) following the manufacturer's instructions. Two-step RT-187 PCR was performed using Superscript reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) using 2 µg of RNA 188 as a template and random hexamers (Invitrogen). Genes were amplified using RedTaq 189 readymix (Sigma) and 0.6 pM of gene specific primers (Table 1) as described previously (23). 190 DNA was analyzed on a 1% agarose gel with SYBRSafe (Invitrogen) and quantified using 191 ImageJ software (NIH).

192 **Results**

193

194 L. pneumophila infection causes death of Galleria mellonella larvae

In order to investigate the pathogenicity of L. pneumophila in G. mellonella larvae, we used 195 196 three serogroup 1 L. pneumophila strains: 130b, Paris and JR32, which are commonly used 197 for molecular pathogenesis studies. The bacteria were injected into the larvae and their 198 survival monitored over 72 h (Fig. 1A). All three L. pneumophila strains caused time-199 dependent death of at least 70% of the G. mellonella; strain 130b caused significantly 200 (P<0.005) higher mortality than the JR32 or Paris strains at 18 h p.i. No mortality was 201 observed in the control buffer-injected G. mellonella. These results demonstrate that G. 202 mellonella is susceptible to L. pneumophila infection.

203

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

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

212

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

214 During its lifecycle, *L. pneumophila* alternates between replicative and transmissive forms

215 (19). A number of virulence factors that promote infection of new host cells are down-

regulated in the replicative phase and up-regulated in the transmissive phase. In broth culture,

217 the transmissive traits are repressed in the exponential phase and expressed as the bacteria 218 enter the post-exponential phase (19). In order to assess if expression of the transmissive 219 traits were important to induce G. mellonella mortality, insects were inoculated with 10^7 CFU 220 L. pneumophila 130b cultured to exponential ($OD_{600} \sim 0.4$), post-exponential ($OD_{600} \sim 3$) or 221 stationary ($OD_{600}>4$) phases. Over the entire time course, significantly more (P<0.0005 at 18) 222 h p.i.) larvae injected with exponential and stationary phase bacteria survived than the ones 223 inoculated with post-exponential phase bacteria (Fig. 1C). This indicates that the growth 224 phase of *L. pneumophila* influences virulence in the *G. mellonella* model.

225

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

The Dot/Icm T4SS of *L. pneumophila* is essential for intracellular survival and the establishment of a replicative vacuole (4, 45). The 130b Δ DotA strain has a kanamycin resistance cassette inserted in the *dotA* gene resulting in a non-functional T4SS (43). Infection of *G. mellonella* with 10⁷ CFU 130b Δ DotA did not cause any mortality of the larvae over the three days of the experiment, whereas the parental wild type strain killed all larvae within 24 h (Fig. 1D). This demonstrated that *L. pneumophila*-induced mortality of *G. mellonella* is dependent on the presence of a functional Dot/Icm T4SS.

234

235 *G. mellonella* mortality depends on *L. pneumophila* persistence

In order to determine the viable bacterial load within the haemolymph of *G. mellonella* infected with *L. pneumophila*, larvae were injected with 10^7 CFU wild type or Δ DotA 130b. At selected time points, haemolymph from three living larvae was extracted, pooled and the number of CFU/100 µl of extracted haemolymph was determined (Fig. 2A). The 130b Δ DotA mutant was cleared from the injected larvae by 24 h p.i. and did not exhibit any replication. On the contrary, infection of *G. mellonella* with wild type 130b resulted in an 242 initial 10-fold reduction of CFU 5 h p.i., but the bacterial numbers then increased up to 100-

fold from the inoculum until 24 h p.i., demonstrating that *L. pneumophila* is able to replicate
in *G. mellonella*.

245 To analyze if L. pneumophila was replicating intracellularly in the haemolymph, 246 haemocytes were extracted from infected G. mellonella at 5 and 24 h p.i. and immuno-stained 247 for external and total bacteria (Fig. 2B). By 5 h p.i. both wild type and Δ DotA 130b were 248 found inside (green bacteria) and attached to (yellow bacteria) haemocytes. By 24 h p.i. 249 haemocytes extracted from G. mellonella infected with wild type bacteria were full of 250 intracellular L. pneumophila, whereas no bacteria could be found in haemocytes of G. 251 *mellonella* infected with the 130b Δ DotA strain (data not shown). This result indicates that L. 252 pneumophila replicates in G. mellonella haemocytes.

253 In order to determine the impact of L. pneumophila persistence and intracellular replication 254 on G. mellonella mortality, we tested two closely related strains derived from the L. 255 pneumophila strain Philadelphia-1, JR32 and Lp02 with JR32 Δ IcmT as a T4SS-deficient 256 control. While both JR32 and Lp02 encode a functional Dot/Icm T4SS, the latter is a thymine 257 auxotroph showing reduced intracellular survival and replication in cultured cells in the 258 absence of added thymine or thymidine (4). Quantification of the CFU extracted from the 259 haemolymph over 24 h (Fig. 2C) showed that the JR32 persisted in injected G. mellonella 260 throughout the infection, while the JR32 Δ IcmT strain, which does not have a functional 261 T4SS, was cleared within 18 h. The Lp02 strain persisted to higher CFU than the JR32 262 Δ IcmT strain 18 h p.i., before ultimately cleared by 24 h p.i. While JR32 killed all the 263 infected insects, both the Lp02 and JR32 Δ IcmT strains were unable to cause death in 264 injected G. mellonella over three days p.i., (Fig. 2D). These data indicate that a functional 265 T4SS which enables the Lp02 strain to translocate effectors during the first hours of infection 266 (Fig. 4) is not sufficient to induce death of the larvae. The mortality of L. pneumophila-

- 267 injected *G. mellonella* depends therefore on both the T4SS and the ability of the bacteria to
 268 persist within the larvae for more then 18 h.
- 269

270 L. pneumophila resides in a LCV in haemocytes

In order to assess if *L. pneumophila* forms a LCV in haemocytes, we analyzed haemocytes from infected *G. mellonella* by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Fig. 3). By 5 h p.i *L. pneumophila* 130b was observed within distinct vacuoles, which were associated with mitochondria and ribosomes. As the infection progressed, more bacteria could be seen within the LCV until the majority of haemocytes were filled with bacteria. By 24 h p.i. the LCV was studded with ribosomes. *L. pneumophila* therefore appears to reside in haemocytes of

277 infected *G. mellonella* in LCVs, which are similar to those seen in human monocytes (21).

278 To further characterize the LCVs formed in haemocytes, we evaluated the recruitment of 279 SidC, a T4SS L. pneumophila effector previously shown to bind the LCV membrane through 280 interaction with phosphatidylinositol-4 phosphate (PI4P) (51). A 4HA epitope-tagged SidC₄₁. 281 ₉₁₈ was expressed in L. pneumophila and the localization of the protein was analyzed by 282 immunofluorescence (Fig. 4). To ensure the protein was expressed, larvae were injected with 283 bacterial suspension containing 1 µM IPTG. The presence of IPTG alone did not affect 284 survival (data not shown). Similarly to human A549 cells (data not shown), anti-HA staining 285 of SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈ surrounded intracellular bacteria in haemocytes. No anti-HA staining was 286 observed in the control haemocytes extracted from larvae infected with L. pneumophila 130b 287 Δ DotA expressing 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈. At 24 h p.i. haemocytes from G. mellonella infected with 288 wild type 130b were full of bacteria surrounded by 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈-stained LCVs. Similar 289 results were obtained with the thymine prototroph strain JR32. In accordance with the results 290 presented in Fig. 2C, the thymine auxotroph strain Lp02 did not show evidence of replication 291 24 h p.i. yet it displayed recruitment of $4HA-SidC_{41-918}$ to the LCV membrane at both 5 and

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

295

296 G. mellonella pathology in response to L. pneumophila infection

297 In order to examine the effect of L. pneumophila infection on G. mellonella physiology, the 298 infected larvae were fixed and paraffin embedded sections were stained with haematoxylin 299 and eosin (H&E) and evaluated for histological changes (Fig. 5). Mock-infected controls 300 appeared healthy with no bacteria observed in the haemocoel and individually distributed 301 haemocytes occasionally forming loose aggregations. However, in both wild type and 302 Δ DotA-infected insects, vigorous host defenses appeared to be mounted. At 16 h p.i. with 303 130b DotA, fewer individual haemocytes were observed compared to the mock infected 304 control, with the majority of haemocytes present in tightly packed aggregation nodules and 305 some evidence of melanisation. By 24 h p.i. we observed similar features, but the majority of 306 the tissue looked healthy. In larvae infected with wild type bacteria at 16 h p.i. haemocytes 307 were observed in nodules attached to organ structures, with clearly visible nodule 308 melanisation. By 24 h p.i. nodules were still observed however septicemia was found in much 309 of the haemocoel and organ structures including the gut appeared severely damaged.

In order to confirm that the bacteria observed in formalin fixed sections of the infected *G*. *mellonella* were *L. pneumophila*, sections were stained using a specific anti-*L. pneumophila* antibody. DNA was visualized by DAPI staining and the tissue structure was counter strained using rhodamine-conjugated phalloidin (Fig. 6). Anti-*L. pneumophila* antibodies did not stain any bacteria in the uninfected or 130b Δ DotA infected insects at 18 h p.i. In the *G. mellonella* infected with wild type 130b, bacteria stained with the anti-*L. pneumophila* antibody were found throughout the haemolymph (Fig. 6) and occasionally in cells within the fat bodies (not shown). Bacteria were exclusively associated with cells and were usually found in aggregatesof haemocytes.

319 Altogether, these data indicate that *L. pneumophila* triggers an immune response in *G.* 320 *mellonella* that successfully clears the Δ DotA mutant from the larvae, whereas wild type *L*.

- 321 *pneumophila* are resistant to host defenses.
- 322

323 The G. mellonella immune responses to L. pneumophila infection

324 Progression of L. pneumophila infection resulted in an increase in G. mellonella pigmentation 325 (Fig. 7A), which is usually indicative of activation of the PO. Upon recognition of pathogen 326 associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), the pro-PO system components are released from 327 haemocytes into the haemolymph, leading to activation of PO. The activity of this enzyme 328 subsequently induces the formation of quinones and melanin, which are involved in defense 329 reactions against pathogens invading the haemocoel, such as nodule formation and 330 encapsulation (8). In order to quantify this innate immune response, we assayed at selected 331 time points the level of PO activity in the haemolymph of G. mellonella infected with 130b 332 (Fig. 7B). By 5 h p.i. insects injected with wild type L. pneumophila exhibited dramatically 333 increased PO activity compared to larvae injected with PBS (P<0.005). Larvae inoculated 334 with L. pneumophila $\Delta DotA$ presented an intermediate level of PO activity. By 18 h p.i. the 335 level of PO activity did not significantly change in the PBS and 130b Δ DotA injected G. 336 mellonella. However in G. mellonella injected with wild type bacteria, levels of PO activity 337 significantly dropped compared to 5 h p.i. (P<0.005), reaching levels similar to the PBS 338 control. These results indicate that L. pneumophila infection initiates an immune defense in G. 339 *mellonella* through PO activation, a response which is nonetheless abrogated by 18 h p.i. 340 In order to test if the absence of PO activity at 18 h p.i. could be due to haemocyte depletion, 341 insects were infected with wild type or $\Delta DotA 130b$, or injected with PBS as a control and

haemocytes were counted by light microscopy at 5 and 18 h p.i. (Fig. 7C). At 5 h p.i. the concentration of haemocytes per ml of haemoplymph was comparable in the different groups. However, by 18 h p.i. the number of haemocytes was reduced by almost 90% in *G. mellonella* inoculated with wild type 130b as compared to 5 h p.i. or the controls, suggesting that *L. pneumophila* infection induces haemocyte destruction. The reduction in haemocyte number observed is likely to contribute to the decreased PO activation observed 18 h p.i.

348 A major component of the defense response of insects is the production of antimicrobial 349 peptides (AMP) (29, 31). In order to assess if G. mellonella produced AMPs following L. 350 *pneumophila* infection, their expression was tested in fat bodies, where they are mainly 351 produced. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR on extracted mRNA showed that infection with wild 352 type L. pneumophila resulted in an up-regulation of most of the immune-related peptides 353 tested compared to a PBS-injected control (Fig. 8), with a significantly increased expression 354 of gloverin and pro-PO (PPO) as soon as 2 h p.i. (P<0.006). In contrast, gallerimycin, 355 galliomycin and the iron binding protein transferrin were significantly up-regulated only after 356 18 h of infection (P<0.0005 for gallerimycin and transferrin and P<0.005 for galliomycin). 357 The expression of the peptidoglycan recognition protein B (PRPB) did not significantly 358 increase upon inoculation with wild type L. pneumophila. Injection with Δ DotA did not cause 359 significant change from the baseline level with the exception of the AMP gloverin, the 360 mRNA level of which increased after 24 h (P<0.01). These results show that G. mellonella mounts an immune response to L. pneumophila infection that nonetheless is not effective in 361 362 clearing the wild type bacteria.

363 **Discussion**

364 Adequate infection models that approximate human disease are the key to analyze the 365 molecular basis of bacterial pathogenesis. Substantial advances in our knowledge about their 366 genetics and immune responses have led to the increased use of insects as surrogate hosts. In 367 particular, the larvae of the greater wax moth *Galleria mellonella* have recently been reported 368 as easy-to-use model organism for several pathogenic Gram-positive and Gram-negative 369 bacteria (23, 36). These studies demonstrated a good correlation between the G. mellonella 370 and mammalian infection models (10, 23, 36). In this study we characterized G. mellonella 371 as new infection model for L. pneumophila.

372 Using three prototypic L. pneumophila strains, we found that G. mellonella could withstand a 373 low infectious dose but the larvae succumbed to infection with higher doses. At the highest 374 dose all three tested strains caused substantial death of the larvae; however the kinetics of 375 lethality differed with L. pneumophila strain 130b being more virulent than strains JR32 and 376 Paris. Although a systematic comparison of the virulence phenotypes of all the three strains 377 in amoeba or mammalian models has not been reported, strain 130b was previously shown to 378 replicate more efficiently than JR32 following intra-tracheal infection of A/J mice (40). In a 379 comparative assessment of the virulence traits of 27 L. pneumophila and non-pneumophila 380 strains, 130b was the third-most cytopathogenic strain (2). Taken together this indicates that 381 the G. mellonella model can reproduce strain-to-strain variations in virulence observed in 382 mammalian cell culture and animal models, which makes it a quick and inexpensive tool to 383 compare the virulence of different L. pneumophila isolates or Legionella species.

The Dot/Icm T4SS of *L. pneumophila* is essential for infection of amoeba, human macrophages, mice, and *D. melanogaster* (4, 27, 42, 45). The *D. melanogaster* model has been successfully used to demonstrate the contribution of the Dot/Icm effector LubX to *L. pneumophila* replication and fly lethality. We found that *L. pneumophila*-induced mortality of 388 G. mellonella also depended on a functional Dot/Icm T4SS. A T4SS-deficient mutant did not show any virulence even at the highest (10^7 CFU) inoculum injected. This contrasts 389 390 observations described for the G. mellonella model of Listeria infection, in which nonpathogenic strains with increasing doses up to 10^7 CFU per larvae also induced mortality 391 392 (23, 34). It was proposed that this could be attributed to a form of sepsis, and subsequent 393 death was caused by bacterial overload and was not due to specific virulence factors. Our 394 data indicates that the threshold at which bacterial load triggers sepsis and death may vary 395 from pathogen to pathogen.

396 Although the Drosophila model was used to determine virulence phenotypes of L. 397 pneumophila mutants in the fly, further aspects underlying L. pneumophila pathogenesis in 398 the insect have not been characterized (27). We show for the first time that L. pneumophila 399 resides in a vacuole in haemocytes isolated from infected insects. This vacuole 400 ultrastructurally resembled the LCV observed in human macrophages and amoeba, including 401 association of mitochondria, acquisition of a rough ER-like structure (1, 21) and recruitment 402 of SidC, which was previously shown to be tethered to the LCV via a phosphatidylinositol-4 403 phosphate anchor (51). The recruitment of ribosomes and the T4SS-substrate SidC to the 404 haemocyte LCV suggests that L. pneumophila uses at least some of the fundamental 405 strategies which are employed to establish a replicative vacuole in mammalian cells and 406 amoeba also to infect insect haemocytes. 407 Analysis of L. pneumophila replication in G. mellonella by direct bacterial enumeration 408 demonstrated that, following an initial 10-fold reduction in CFU of wild type bacteria at 5 h 409 p.i., bacterial CFU quickly recovered and increased by 100-fold from the inoculum by 24 h 410 **p.i.** The Δ DotA mutant was cleared by 24 h p.i. The level of *L. pneumophila* replication

- 411 appears to be higher than in the mouse model, in which the strain 130b could exhibit up to 20
- fold increase of CFU within 48 h (6, 40) or in the *Drosophila* model in which an increase of

- 413 CFU up to 20 fold within 10 days was reported (27). The importance of bacterial persistence
- 414 for *L. pneumophila* virulence in the *G. mellonella* model is demonstrated by the fact that *L*.

415 *pneumophila* strain Lp02, which did not persist after 18 h p.i. was unable to kill *G. mellonella*

- 416 despite having a functional T4SS and forming a LCV in haemocytes. Moreover, the 130b
- 417 strain, which replicated better in the larvae than the JR32 strain, induced death more rapidly
- 418 than the JR32 strain, suggesting that in addition to persistence, bacterial replication also
- 419 contributes to *L. pneumophila* virulence in the *G. mellonella* model.

420 These data suggest a scenario in which immune cells successfully clear a fraction of the 421 inoculated L. pneumophila at early stages of infection. However, enough wild type bacteria 422 evade destruction by phagocytes and start replicating. Release from haemocytes following 423 replication is most likely accompanied with destruction of the haemocytes. This model is 424 supported by the fact that 90% of the haemocytes are lost by 18 h p.i. following wild type L. 425 *pneumophila* infection. Depletion of circulating haemocytes upon bacterial infection has 426 previously been reported and correlated with G. mellonella mortality caused by pathogenic 427 fungi and Gram-negative bacteria (9, 34). This loss may be due to the death of infected 428 haemocytes or the sequestration of haemocytes in nodules or a combination of both. However, 429 nodules were observed in wild type and Δ DotA infected G. mellonella and there was no 430 significant loss of haemocytes in $\Delta DotA$ infected larvae, suggesting that replication and 431 T4SS-dependent toxicity are the most likely cause of the loss of cells.

Depletion of haemocytes, the major source of pro-phenoloxidase (pro-PO) which triggers the melanisation response upon infection, would also explain why we observed an initial activation of PO which was followed by a sharp drop at 18 h post infection. An alternative hypothesis is that *L. pneumophila* may also specifically reduce PO activity; indeed, the insect pathogen *Photorhabdus luminescens* can inhibit PO activity at 18 h post infection (15). In conclusion, we demonstrate that *G. mellonella* is susceptible to *L. pneumophila* infection and 438 that this model reproduces virulence phenotypes observed in amoeba and mammalian 439 infection models. Virulence depends on the Dot/Icm T4SS and bacteria seem to reside and 440 replicate in a typical LCV. Future advances in our knowledge about the G. mellonella 441 immune gene repertoire (50) cell death pathways (25) and haemocyte biology (28, 30) 442 together with initiatives to advance RNA interference systems in Lepidoptera spp. (49) will 443 further increase the value of G. mellonella as an infection model which could potentially be 444 used to study the role of Dot/Icm T4SS effectors, the T2SS and other factors in virulence of 445 *Legionella* spp.

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Table 1

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

623 Figure Legends

624 Figure 1. L. pneumophila infection of Galleria mellonella induces dose- and Dot/Icm 625 T4SS-dependent lethality. G. mellonella larvae were injected with PBS or L. pneumophila strain 130b, Paris or JR32 (10⁷ CFU per larvae, if not otherwise indicated) and survival was 626 627 monitored over 72 h p.i. (A) All three strains caused time-dependent death of the infected 628 larvae, with strain 130b inducing significantly higher (P < 0.005) mortality at 18 h p.i. (B) 629 Mortality of the larvae upon infection with L. pneumophila strain 130b was dose-dependent. 630 (C) Larvae survival was dependent on the growth phase of L. pneumophila. Larvae were 631 inoculated with L. pneumophila 130b cultured to exponential (E), post exponential (PE) or 632 stationary (S) phase. Bacteria in post exponential phase demonstrated significantly (P < 0.005) 633 higher toxicity than bacteria in other growth phases at 18h p.i. (D) L. pneumophila-induced 634 mortality in G. mellonella was dependent on the Dot/Icm T4SS. G. mellonella were injected 635 with L. pneumophila 130b wild type or T4SS-deficient strain Δ DotA. The T4SS mutant did 636 not induce any mortality in the larvae 72 h p.i. Results represent the mean of at least three 637 independent experiments \pm standard deviations with 10 larvae per condition.

638

639 Figure 2. *L. pneumophila* is able to persist and replicate in *G. mellonella*. Haemolymph 640 from three L. pneumophila-infected G. mellonella was extracted and the CFU/100µl were 641 quantified. (A) Wild type L. pneumophila 130b replicated within the larvae over the infection 642 course, while the $\Delta DotA$ mutant was cleared from G. mellonella by 24 h p.i. (B) L. 643 pneumophila 130b invades and replicates within haemocytes. External and total bacteria were 644 immuno-stained. By 5 h p.i. both wild type and Δ DotA bacteria were found inside cells. By 645 24 h p.i., wild type infected haemocytes had high loads of intracellular bacteria. (C and D) G. 646 *mellonella* mortality depends on *L. pneumophila* persistence. *G. mellonella* was inoculated with L. pneumophila strains JR32, JR32 Δ IcmT or Lp02. (C) While the JR32 Δ IcmT strain 647

648 was rapidly killed, the thymine auxotroph strain Lp02 declined slowly until 18 h p.i., before

649 being cleared until 24 h p.i. JR32 persisted at higher level throughout the course of infection.

(D) Only the wild type JR32 strain, but neither the ΔIcmT nor Lp02 strain induced mortality
in *G. mellonella* by 72 h p.i. Results are representative of at least two independent
experiments.

- 653

654 Figure 3. L. pneumophila forms a LCV in G. mellonella haemocytes. Haemocytes from G. 655 mellonella infected with L. pneumophila 130b were extracted 5, 12 and 24 h p.i. and imaged 656 by transmission electron microscopy. (A) At 5 h p.i., a few bacteria could be observed in 657 distinct vacuoles within haemocytes. As the infection progressed, more bacteria per vacuole 658 were found, until cells appeared filled with bacteria by 24 h p.i. Scale bar represents 2 μ m (B) 659 At 5 h p.i., mitochondria (arrowheads), ribosomes (arrows) and ribosome-associated vesicles 660 were observed on the surface of the LCV. By 24 h p.i. the LCV was studded with ribosomes 661 (arrows). Scale bar represents 500 nm.

662

663 Figure 4. SidC is localized to the LCV in haemocytes of infected G. mellonella. G. 664 mellonella larvae were injected with L. pneumophila strains 130b, JR32 or Lp02 665 overexpressing 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈. At 5 and 24 h p.i., haemocytes were extracted, fixed and 666 stained with anti-HA antibody. By 5 h p.i. anti-HA staining revealed that $SidC_{41-918}$ was 667 localized on the LCV surface in haemocytes extracted from G. mellonella infected with wild 668 type L. pneumophila strains but not 130b Δ DotA. By 24 h p.i., haemocytes from G. 669 *mellonella* infected with 130b or JR32 were full of bacteria surrounded by 4HA-SidC₄₁₋₉₁₈. In 670 contrast, far fewer bacteria were observed in haemocytes from Galleria infected with strain 671 Lp02. Scale bar represents 5 µm.

673 Figure 5. L. pneumophila infection of G. mellonella initiates a robust innate immune 674 response. G. mellonella larvae were injected with L. pneumophila 130b, fixed and paraffin 675 embedded sections were stained with H&E. Uninfected G. mellonella appeared healthy with 676 some occasional loose aggregations of haemocytes (A). At 16 h p.i. with wild type bacteria a 677 number of nodules (N) could be observed with evidence of melanisation (arrows). At 16 h p.i. 678 with $\Delta DotA$ some nodules were visible but by 24 h p.i., the larvae appeared similar to the 679 uninfected control. At 24 h p.i. with the wild type bacteria, some nodules were still visible 680 but a large number of *L. pneumophila* were visible in the haemcoel (B).

681

682 Figure 6. Indirect immunofluorescence microscopy of formalin fixed sections of L. 683 pneumophila infected G. mellonella. G. mellonella larvae were infected with L. 684 pneumophila 130b for 18 h, fixed and paraffin embedded sections were stained using a 685 specific anti-L. pneumophila antibody, DAPI was used to visualize bacterial and eukaryotic 686 cell DNA and phalloidin to counter stain the tissue. No L. pneumophila staining was 687 observed in the uninfected or $\Delta DotA$ controls. G. mellonella infected with wild type L. 688 pneumophila demonstrated a systemic infection with large numbers of bacteria in the 689 haemolymph. Bacteria were usually associated with cells (arrowheads), a proportion of which 690 displayed apoptotic nuclei (arrows). Scale bar represents 20 µm.

691

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

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

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







Figure 2



Hours post infection



Figure 3



Figure 4



Figure 5



Figure 6





С



Figure 7

В



Hours post innoculation

