Altering lipid droplet homeostasis affects *Coxiella burnetii* intracellular growth

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Running title: Lipid droplets during *Coxiella burnetii* infection.

ABSTRACT

Coxiella burnetii is an obligate intracellular bacterial pathogen and a causative agent of culture-

negative endocarditis. While *C. burnetii* initially infects alveolar macrophages, it has also been

found in lipid droplet (LD)-containing foamy macrophages in the cardiac valves of endocarditis

patients. In addition, transcriptional studies of *C. burnetii*-infected macrophages reported

differential regulation of the LD coat protein-encoding gene perilipin 2 *(plin-2)*. To further

investigate the relationship between LDs and *C. burnetii*, we compared LD numbers in mock-

infected and *C. burnetii*-infected alveolar macrophages using fluorescence microscopy.

Compared to only 10% of mock-infected cells, 50% of *C. burnetii*-infected cells had more than

50 LDs/cell as early as 24 hours post-infection, indicating a significant increase in LDs in

infected cells. Increased LDs required the *C. burnetii* Type 4B Secretion System (T4BSS), a

major virulence factor that manipulates host cellular processes by secreting bacterial effector

proteins into the host cell cytoplasm. To determine the importance of LDs during *C. burnetii*

infection, we assessed the effect of manipulating LD homeostasis on *C. burnetii* intracellular

growth. Surprisingly, blocking LD formation with the pharmacological inhibitors triascin C or

T863, or knocking out acyl-CoA transferase-1 *(acat-1)* in alveolar macrophages, increased *C.*

burnetii growth at least 2-fold. Conversely, preventing LD lipolysis by inhibiting adipose

triglyceride lipase (ATGL) with atglistatin almost completely blocked bacterial growth,

suggesting LD breakdown is essential for *C. burnetii*. Together these data suggest that LDs are

detrimental to *C. burnetii* and maintenance of LD homeostasis, possibly via the T4BSS, is

critical for bacterial growth.

IMPORTANCE

Host neutral lipid storage organelles known as lipid droplets (LDs) serve as a source of energy, nutrients, or signaling lipids during infection with intracellular bacteria, such as *Mycobacterium* spp., and *Chlamydia* spp. LDs have also been associated with infection of the intracellular bacterial pathogen *Coxiella burnetii*, a significant cause of culture-negative infectious endocarditis. Although *C. burnetii* was found in LD-rich foam macrophages in endocarditis patients, little is known about the host LD-*C. burnetii* relationship. We demonstrated a *C. burnetii* Type 4B Secretion System (T4BSS)-dependent LD accumulation in macrophages, suggesting that the T4BSS plays a key role in regulating host cell LD formation or breakdown. Further, manipulation of LD homeostasis significantly affected *C. burnetii* intracellular growth, indicating LDs play an important role during *C. burnetii* infection. Since *C. burnetii* endocarditis has a 19% mortality rate even in treated patients, exploring the LD-*C. burnetii* association might identify novel therapeutic targets.

INTRODUCTION

Lipid droplets (LDs) are dynamic cytoplasmic organelles which store cellular lipids in eukaryotic cells. LDs are uniquely comprised of a phospholipid monolayer surrounding a hydrophobic core of neutral lipids, primarily sterol esters and triacylglycerols. LD assembly begins with neutral lipid synthesis, where fatty acyl CoA synthetases generate long chain fatty acids which are used by acyl-CoA:cholesterol acyltransferase (ACAT) and acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) for formation of sterol esters and triacyglycerols, respectively. After progressive accumulation of neutral lipids in the ER, LD formation occurs primarily by budding of the lipid ester globule surrounded by the cytoplasmic leaflet of the ER

membrane (1, 2). LD breakdown and release of free cholesterol and fatty acids is mediated by

hormone sensitive lipase (HSL) (3) and adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL) (4). Functionally,

LDs serve as intracellular lipid reservoirs for membrane synthesis or energy metabolism. In

addition, LDs are linked to a range of cellular functions including protein storage, protein

degradation and signaling (2).

LDs are emerging as important players during host-pathogen interactions. During

infection of host cells, Hepatitis C virus (HCV) (5) and Dengue virus (6) co-opt LDs as

platforms for viral assembly and replication. Even though pharmacological manipulation of LD

content reduced viral numbers, the importance of LDs during viral infection still remains elusive

(7). Increased LD numbers in host cells is observed upon infection with several pathogens

including HCV (5) and Dengue virus (6), as well as the protozoan parasites *Trypanosoma cruzi*

(8), *Plasmodium berghei* (9)*, Toxoplasma gondii* (10)*, Leishmania amazonensis* (11) and

Leishmania major (12). In addition, the intracellular bacterial pathogens *Chlamydia* spp. (13),

Mycobacterium spp. (14-17), *Orientia tsutugamushi* (18), and *Salmonella typhimurium* (19) have

been reported to increase LD numbers in infected cells. It has been suggested that triacylglycerol

and cholesterol esters stored in LDs are a major source of energy and nutrients for *C.*

trachomatis (13, 20) and *M. tuberculosis* (14). Furthermore, in cells infected with *M. leprae* (21),

M. bovis (15), *T. cruzi* (22), and *Leishmania infantum chagasi* (23), LDs serve as a source of the

eicosanoids such as prostaglandins and leukotrienes, important signaling lipids which modulate

inflammation and the immune response. These LD-derived eicosanoids are hypothesized to favor

intracellular pathogen survival by downregulating the immune response (24).

LDs have been implicated during infection by *Coxiella burnetii*, a gram-negative

intracellular bacterium and the causative agent of human Q fever. Primarily spread through

aerosols, *C. burnetii* acute infection is characterized by a debilitating flu-like illness, while

chronic disease results in endocarditis. Although *in vitro* and *in vivo C. burnetii* can infect a wide

range of cells including epithelial cells and fibroblasts, the bacterium first infects alveolar

macrophages during natural infection. Inside the host cell, *C. burnetii* directs formation of a

specialized lysosome-like compartment called the parasitophorous vacuole (PV) which is

essential for *C. burnetii* survival. During establishment of the PV, the *C. burnetii* type 4B

secretion system (T4BSS) secretes effector proteins into the host cell cytoplasm, where these

bacterial proteins manipulate a wide range of cellular processes. While not established to be

T4BSS-dependent, *C. burnetii* is thought to manipulate host cell lipid metabolism, including LDs

(25-28). *C. burnetii*-containing LD-filled foam cells were found in heart valves of an infected

patient (29), and LDs were observed in the *C. burnetii* PV lumen of infected human alveolar

macrophages (30). Further, two separate microarray analyses reported differential regulation of

the LD coat protein *plin-2* in *C. burnetii*-infected human macrophage-like cells (THP-1) (27, 28),

suggesting *C. burnetii* induced changes in host cell LDs. Intriguingly, siRNA depletion of the

phospholipase involved in LD breakdown, PNPLA2 (also known as ATGL), increased the

number of *C. burnetii* PVs in HeLa epithelial cells (31). In addition, treatment of monkey kidney

epithelial cells (Vero cells) with a broad spectrum antiviral molecule ST699, which localizes to

the host cell LDs, inhibited *C. burnetii* intracellular growth (32). Despite these observations, the

importance of LDs during *C. burnetii* infection is not known. In this study, we further examined

the relationship between host LDs and *C. burnetii*. We observed a T4BSS-dependent increase in

LD   numbers   in   infected   alveolar   and   monocyte-derived   macrophages.   Furthermore,

manipulation of LD homeostasis significantly altered *C. burnetii* intracellular growth, thus

strongly indicating that LDs play an important role during *C. burnetii* infection.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

***C. burnetii* infection results in host cell LD accumulation.**

To examine the role of LDs in *C. burnetii* pathogenesis, we first quantitated LDs in infected cells. Previously, two separate microarray studies reported differential regulation of the LD coat protein-encoding gene *plin-2* in *C. burnetii*-infected cells (27, 28), which generally indicates changes in LD numbers. As *C. burnetii* preferentially infects alveolar macrophages during natural infection, we utilized a mouse alveolar macrophage cell line (MH-S) previously shown to be a model for *C. burnetii* infection (33). Cells were stained for the LD coat protein PLIN2 and the LD number per cell was determined using fluorescence microscopy. During a 4-day mock-infection, irrespective of the time point, the majority (~80%) of cells had less than 50 LDs per cell (Figure 1). In contrast, a significant increase in LDs per cell was observed at 1, 2 and 4 days after *C. burnetii* infection, with 50% of infected cells having more than 50 LDs. Notably, LD accumulation was observed as early as 1 day post-infection, when the PV has not expanded and the bacteria are not in log growth. This result suggests that LD accumulation is not a host response to a large PV, but could be due to direct manipulation of host LDs by *C. burnetii*.

 Host cell LD accumulation is dependent on the *C. burnetii* Type 4B Secretion System (T4BSS).

Previously, based on microarray analysis of *C. burnetii*-infected cells where bacterial protein synthesis was blocked, Mahapatra *et al.* identified 36 host cell genes specifically regulated by *C. burnetii* during early stages of infection. These genes were predominantly identified as being involved in innate immune response, cell death and proliferation, vesicular

trafficking, cytoskeletal organization and lipid homeostasis. Interestingly, *plin-2* expression level

was dependent on *C. burnetii* protein synthesis (27). Together with our data, this suggests that *C.*

burnetii actively manipulates host LDs as early as day 1 post-infection, possibly through

bacterial effector proteins secreted into the host cytoplasm by the *C. burnetii* T4BSS. The *C.*

burnetii T4BSS detectably secrets effector proteins starting 1 hour post-infection in bone

marrow-derived macrophages and 8 hours post-infection in HeLa cells (34). To test if the *C.*

burnetii T4BSS was responsible for LD accumulation, macrophages were infected with a T4BSS

dotA mutant and LD numbers analyzed at 1, 2, and 4 days post infection. While at least 75% of

the wild-type *C. burnetii*-infected cells had >50 LDs at all timepoints, only 40% cells infected

with T4BSS mutant had >50 LDs per cell, similar to mock-infected cells (Figure 2A and B). This

suggests the T4BSS is involved in increased LDs in *C. burnetii*-infected alveolar macrophages.

To confirm this finding, we analyzed LD numbers in human macrophage-like cells (THP-

1). Similar to mouse alveolar macrophages, when compared to mock- or T4SS mutant-infected

cells, wild-type *C. burnetii*-infected THP-1 cells had increased LD numbers at 1 and 4 days post-

infection (Figure 2C). Interestingly, T4BSS-dependent LD accumulation was not observed at 2

days post-infection. However, these results demonstrate that the *C. burnetii*-induced increase in

LDs in both human and mouse macrophages is independent of cell type and dependent on the *C.*

burnetii T4BSS.

The requirement for the *C. burnetii* T4BSS suggests that one or more *C. burnetii* T4BSS

effector proteins may actively manipulate LDs. Other bacteria have been shown to manipulate

host LDs via effector proteins. For example, the *C. trachomatis* LD-associated protein Lda3

plays a role in LD translocation into the *Chlamydia*-containing vacuole through localization to

the LD surface (20). In addition, the *Salmonella* Typhimurium type 3 secretion system (T3SS)

effector protein SseJ esterifies cholesterol and increases LD numbers when expressed in

epithelial and macrophage cells (19). While our data demonstrate that the *C. burnetii* T4BSS is

involved in LD accumulation, the bacterial effector proteins and the specific LD processes

involved remain unknown.

Blocking LD formation increases *C. burnetii* growth.

Given our finding that *C. burnetii* appears to actively manipulate host LD accumulation

through the T4BSS, we next assessed the importance of LDs during *C. burnetii* infection. We

first blocked LD formation using triascin C, a long chain fatty acyl CoA synthetase inhibitor,

which blocks overall LD formation (35). Compared to vehicle control, treatment with triascin C

significantly reduced LD numbers, with <5 LDs per cell (Figure 3A). We next blocked LD

formation and quantitated bacterial growth using a fluorescent infectious focus-forming unit

(FFU) assay. At various times post-infection, bacteria were recovered from MH-S cells, replated

onto a monolayer of Vero cells, and incubated for 5 days. After staining for *C. burnetii*, the

number of fluorescent foci were counted, with 1 focus equivalent to 1 viable bacterium.

Compared to vehicle-treated cells, triascin C treatment resulted in a 5-fold increase in *C. burnetii*

growth at 4 days post-infection (Figure 3B).

To further validate these results, we used CRISPR/Cas-9 to knockout *acat-1* (Figure 3C),

the enzyme responsible for sterol esterification. While *acat-1$^{-/-}$* LDs lack sterol esters, the number

of LDs in wild-type and *acat-1$^{-/-}$* cells appeared to be the same by fluorescence microscopy

(Figure 3D). Compared to wild-type cells, *C. burnetii* growth in *acat-1$^{-/-}$* cells increased by 2 fold

at 4 days post-infection (Figure 3E), indicating that blocking sterol esterification is beneficial for

C. burnetii growth. To further deplete both triacylglycerol-and sterol ester-containing LDs, we

treated *acat-1⁻ᐟ⁻* cells with the DGAT1 inhibitor T863, which specifically blocks formation of

triacylglycerols (36). This treatment resulted in significantly fewer LDs than in wild-type or

acat-1⁻ᐟ⁻ cells (Figure 3D). *C. burnetii* growth increased 2-fold in T863-treated *acat-1⁻ᐟ⁻* cells

compared to vehicle-treated *acat-1⁻ᐟ⁻* cells (Figure 3F), suggesting that both sterol ester- and

triacylglycerol-containing LDs play a significant role during *C. burnetii* growth.

These studies demonstrate through both pharmaceutical and genetic approaches that

blocking LD formation increases *C. burnetii* fitness in macrophages. Interestingly, Mahapatra *et*

al. observed an increase in *plin-2* transcript levels after transiently blocking *C. burnetii* protein

synthesis, suggesting that wild-type *C. burnetii* downregulates LD formation (27). This raises

intriguing questions as to how and why LDs increase in *C. burnetii*-infected macrophages. LD

accumulation occurs during inflammatory response in macrophages in atherosclerotic lesions

(37), leukocytes from joints of patients with inflammatory arthritis (38), and eosinophils in

allergic inflammation (39). Thus, an innate immune response to the T4BSS apparatus or T4BSS

effector proteins may increase LDs in *C. burnetii*-infected macrophages. It is also possible that

fission of preexisting LDs, and not *de novo* formation, is responsible for increased numbers of

LDs (40). As observed in Figure 2A, the LD size in *C. burnetii*-infected macrophages appeared

smaller than the mock- or T4BSS mutant-infected macrophages. These smaller LDs might be the

result of *C. burnetii* T4BSS-mediated fission of the pre-existing LDs, resulting in increased LD

numbers in wild-type bacteria-infected cells.

Inhibiting LD breakdown blocks *C. burnetii* growth.

Because blocking LD formation appeared to benefit *C. burnetii,* we next examined *C.*

burnetii growth after inhibiting LD breakdown and increasing LD numbers. When fatty acids or

cholesterol are needed by cells or tissues, triacylglycerols and sterol esters stored in LDs are

hydrolyzed by cytosolic lipases such as hormone sensitive lipase (HSL) (2, 3) and adipose

triglyceride lipase (ATGL) (4). In our studies, we pharmacologically inhibited ATGL with the

selective and competitive inhibitor atglistatin, which binds the ATGL patatin-like phospholipase

domain (41). We first measured viability of axenic *C. burnetii* cultures in the presence or

absence of atglistatin (Figure 4A). Treatment for 4 days had no effect on axenic *C. burnetii*

viability, indicating atglistatin does not directly affect *C. burnetii*.

We next tested the effect of atglistatin on intracellular bacteria. After atglistatin treatment

of wild-type MH-S cells, we observed larger LDs, although the number did not significantly

increase (Figure 3A). Interestingly, *C. burnetii* intracellular growth in atglistatin-treated wild-

type MH-S cells was reduced by 5-fold, with essentially no growth (Figure 4B). Further,

blocking LD breakdown with atglistatin in *acat-1$^{-/-}$* cells, which contain predominantly

triacylglycerol-containing LDs, also reduced bacterial growth (Figure 4C). Together, these data

demonstrate that blocking LD breakdown significantly inhibits intracellular *C. burnetii* growth.

Our data suggest that LD breakdown is essential for *C. burnetii* intracellular survival in

macrophages. Previously, siRNA knockdown of ATGL in HeLa cells increased the number of *C.*

burnetii PVs (31). However, *C. burnetii* growth in ATGL-deficient cells was not determined,

leaving it unclear how ATGL affect *C. burnetii* growth in epithelial cells Fatty acids liberated

during LD breakdown can be reesterified or serve as signaling cofactors, building blocks for

membranes, or substrates for β-oxidation to generate energy (2). LD-derived fatty acids may

serve as a major source of energy and carbon for several intracellular bacteria. *M. tuberculosis*,

which can make its own LDs, converts host-derived fatty acids into triacylglycerol, which is then

deposited in bacterial LDs (14). The *M. tuberculosis* lipase has been proposed to release stored

bacterial fatty acids, but can also degrade host LD-derived triacylglycerol (42). In *C.*

trachomatis-infected cells, host LDs may provide triacylglycerol and cholesterol esters for

bacterial growth (13). In contrast to *C. trachomatis,* we found that blocking LD formation with

traiscin C increased *C. burnetii* growth. While it is unknown if *C. burnetii* uses host fatty acids, it

is possible that the unesterified free fatty acids in triascin C-treated cells support *C. burnetii*

growth.

In addition to serving as a source of free fatty acids, LDs are rich in arachidonic acids and

enzymes that generate arachidonic acid-derived inflammatory lipid mediators, such as

prostaglandins and leukotrienes (43, 44). In *M. leprae*-infected Schwann cells and *M. bovis*

BCG-infected macrophages, increased LD biogenesis correlates with increased production of

prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), linking LDs to the production of innate immunity modulators (16, 45).

Thus, LDs serve as a source of inflammatory mediators in response to pathogen infection.

Interestingly, elevated levels of PGE2 have been observed in *C. burnetii* endocarditis patients

and have been linked to *C. burnetii*-mediated immunosuppression. Koster *et al.* reported

lymphocytes from chronic Q fever patients were unresponsive to *C. burnetii* antigens, an effect

reversed by PGE2 suppression with indomethacin (46). In addition, after stimulation with *C.*

burnetii antigens, monocytes from Q fever patients produced PGE2, which in turn

downregulated IL-2 and IFNγ production by T lymphocytes. This downregulation of pro-

inflammatory cytokine production was reversed by PGE2 synthesis inhibitor Piroxicam (47).

Thus, while PGE2 appears to play a role in Q fever patients, the relationship between *C.*

burnetii-induced LDs and PGE2 production is not known. Considering that LD breakdown can

serve multiple functions, *C. burnetii* could use LDs either as a source of nutrients or for

production of lipid immune mediators like PGE2, which could then modulate the host cell

response to promote *C. burnetii* intracellular growth.

In summary, our data demonstrate that LD homoeostasis is important for *C. burnetii*

intracellular survival. Because the *C. burnetii* T4BSS is involved in LD accumulation,

characterizing bacterial T4BSS effector proteins that target host LD homeostasis will help further

understand the role of LDs in *C. burnetii* pathogenesis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

<u>Bacteria and mammalian cells</u>

C. burnetii Nine Mile Phase II (NMII; clone 4, RSA439) were purified from Vero cells (African

green monkey kidney epithelial cells, ATCC CCL-81; American Type Culture Collection,

Manassas, VA) and stored as previously described (48). For experiments examining T4BSS-

dependent accumulation of LDs, NMII and the *dotA* mutant (49) were grown for 4 days in

ACCM-2, washed twice with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and stored as previously described

(50). Vero, mouse alveolar macrophages (MH-S; ATCC CRL-2019) and human monocytes

(THP-1; ATCC TIB-202) were maintained in RPMI (Roswell Park Memorial Institute) 1640

medium (Corning, New York, NY, USA) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (Atlanta

Biologicals, Norcross, GA, USA) at 37°C and 5% CO_2 and human embryonic kidney 293

(HEK293T; ATCC CRL-3216) in DMEM (Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium) (Corning, New

York, NY, USA) containing 10% fetal bovine serum at 37°C and 5% CO_2. THP-1 cells were

differentiated with 200 nM of phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) for 24 hours. PMA was

removed, and the cells rested for 48 hours prior to infection. The multiplicity of infection (MOI)

was optimized for each bacterial stock, cell type and infection condition for a final infection of

~1 internalized bacterium/cell at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

<u>Generating *acat-1^{-/-}* MH-S cell line</u>

The guide RNA sequence 5′TCGCGTCTCCATGGCTGCCC3′ to mouse *acat-1* was selected

using the optimized CRISPR design site crispr.mit.edu. Oligonucleotides were synthesized (IDT,

Coralville, IA, USA), annealed, and cloned into the lentiCRISPRv2 plasmid (a gift from Feng

Zhang, Addgene # 52961, Cambridge, MA, USA) (51), at the BsmBI restriction site to generate

plentiCRISPRv2-*acat-1*. To generate lentivirus, HEK293T cells were co-transfected with

plentiCRISPRv2-*acat-1* and packaging plasmids pVSVg (Addgene # 8454), pRSV-Rev

(Addgene # 12253), and pMDLg/pRRE (Addgene # 12251) using FuGENE6 reagent (Promega,

Madison, WI, USA). At 48 hours post-transfection, supernatant was collected and centrifuged at

3000xg, and then filtered with 0.45μm filter to remove cells and debris. Supernatant was

concentrated using the Lenti-X concentrator (Catalog # PT4421-2, Clontech, USA) and viral

RNA isolated using Viral RNA isolation kit (Catalog # 740956, Macherey-Nagel, Germany) to

determine viral titer using Lenti-X qRT-PCR titration kit (Catalog # PT4006-2, Clontech). Viral

titers were optimized for transduction of MH-S cells to generate stable *acat-1^{-/-}* cells.

$2x10^5$ MH-S cells were plated in a 6 well plate and transduced with 5.8 x 10^6 viral

particles/ml. 1 μg/ml puromycin was used for selection 48 hours post-transduction and continued

for 24 hours. The puromycin was then removed and the cells allowed to recover before isolating

individual clones by limiting dilution.

To confirm disruption of *acat-1*, clones were lysed in 2% SDS (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis,

MO, USA) for SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting with 1:1000 rabbit anti-mouse ACAT1-specific

antibody (Catalog # NBP189285, Novus Biologicals, Littleton, CO, USA) and 1:4000 GAPDH

loading control monoclonal antibody (Catalog # MA5-15738, ThermoFisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA, USA). The multiplicity of infection (MOI) was optimized for each bacterial stock

for a final infection of ~1 internalized bacterium/cell.

<u>LD quantitation</u>

1×10^5 MH-S cells were plated onto ibidi-treated channel μslide VI$^{0.4}$ (3×10^3 cells per channel;

Ibidi, Verona, WI) and allowed to adhere overnight. After infecting with *C. burnetii* for 1 hour,

cells were gently washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to remove extracellular bacteria,

and incubated in 10% FBS-RPMI. At different times post-infection, infected cells were fixed

with 2.5% paraformaldehyde on ice for 15 min, then permeabilized/blocked for 15 min with

0.1% saponin and 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS (saponin-BSA-PBS) and stained

with 1:1000 rabbit anti-mouse PLIN2 primary antibody (Catalog # PA1-16972, ThermoFisher

Scientific), 1:2000 guinea-pig anti-*C. burnetii* primary antibody (52) and 1:1000 rat anti-LAMP

(Catalog # 553792, BD Biosciences) primary antibody in saponin-BSA-PBS for 1 hour. THP-1

cells were stained with 1:500 guinea-pig anti-human PLIN2 primary antibody (Catalog # 20R-

AP002, Fitzgerald Industries International, Acton, MA), 1:2000 rabbit anti-*C. burnetii* primary

antibody and 1:1000 rat anti-LAMP primary antibody in saponin-BSA-PBS for 1 hour. After

three washes with PBS, cells were stained with 1:2000 AlexaFluor 488 anti-rabbit, AlexaFluor

594 anti-guinea pig and AlexaFluor 647 anti-rat secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) for 1 hour.

ProLong Gold mount (Invitrogen) was added to the wells after washing with PBS and slides

visualized on a Leica inverted DMI6000B microscope (100X oil). The number of LDs per cell

was quantitated for 50 cells per condition in three individual experiments, with only bacteria-

containing cells counted for *C. burnetii*-infected cells. Each experiment was done in duplicate.

<u>Inhibitors</u>

Each LD homeostasis inhibitor used was diluted in DMSO based on manufacturer's instructions

and optimum inhibitor concentration was determined based on 100% host cell viability

determined by trypan blue staining, and changes in LD numbers per cell. The optimum

concentrations determined for each inhibitor was: Triascin C (Enzo Life Sciences, Farmingdale,

NY, USA) – 10 µM, T863 (Sigma-Aldrich) – 10 µM, Atglistatin (Cayman Chemicals, Ann

Arbor, MI, USA) – 20 µM.

<u>*C. burnetii* growth by fluorescent infectious focus-forming unit (FFU) assay.</u>

To measure growth of *C. burnetii* in wild-type and *acat-1*$^{-/-}$ MH-S cells, 5×10^4 cells/well were

infected for 1 hour in a 48 well plate, washed with PBS, and then incubated with media

containing respective vehicle and inhibitors. At the indicated time points, the media was

removed and cells were incubated with sterile water for 5 min, pipetted up and down and the

lysate diluted 1:5 in 2% FBS-RPMI. Serial dilutions were added to 24 well plate containing

confluent monolayers of Vero cells, incubated for 5 days, fixed with methanol and stained with

rabbit anti-*C. burnetii* antibody as well as DAPI to confirm monolayer integrity. Four fields per

well were captured on an Evos automated microscope (ThermoFisher) with 4X objective and

fluorescent foci units were quantitated using ImageJ. Each experiment was done in duplicate.

<u>Atglistatin-treatment of *C. burnetii* axenic cultures</u>

To test bacterial sensitivity to atglistatin, ACCM-2 was inoculated at approximately 1×10^5

bacteria/ml with *C. burnetii* NMII and grown for 3 days as previously described (50). Bacteria

(500 µl) were then incubated with DMSO or atglistatin in 24 well plates under normal *C.*

burnetii culture conditions. Media was replenished every 24 hours by centrifuging the

supernatant at 20000xg for 10 min, and bacterial pellet resuspended in new media containing

inhibitor. After 4 days, bacteria were diluted 1:10 in 2% FBS-RPMI and serial dilutions were

added to confluent Vero cell monolayers in a 96 well ibidi-treated μplate. At 5 days post-

infection, the plate was stained and fluorescent foci were determined as above. Each experiment

was done in duplicate.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using ordinary one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA with

Tukey's or Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test in Prism (GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla,

CA).

FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1: *C. burnetii* infection leads to host cell LD accumulation.

MH-S macrophages were infected with *C. burnetii* NMII and at different times post-infection,

cells were stained for PLIN2 (LDs), LAMP1 (PV marker) and *C. burnetii*. LDs were observed by

fluorescence microscopy and number of LDs per cell was quantitated. The percent of counted

cells containing 0-20, 21-50 and >50 LDs per cell at respective times were plotted. Error bars

show the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM * =p<0.05, ** =p <0.01, *** =p <0.001

compared to respective >50 LDs/cell in mock-infected cells as determined by two-way ANOVA

with Tukey post-hoc test.

Figure 2: Host cell LD accumulation is dependent on the *C. burnetii* T4BSS Secretion System (T4BSS).

A) Representative images of mock, wild-type *C. burnetii* NMII and T4BSS *(dotA)* mutant-infected MH-S macrophages stained for PLIN2 (LDs) at day 1 post-infection imaged at 100X. Scale bar = 10 μm

B) MH-S macrophages and (C) THP-1 monocyte-derived macrophages were infected with wild-type *C. burnetii* NMII and *dotA* mutant. At different time points post-infection, cells were stained for PLIN2 (LDs), LAMP1 (PV marker) and *C. burnetii*. The number of LDs per cell were counted by fluorescence microscopy. Percent of cells containing 0-20, 21-50 and >50 LDs per cell at respective time points were plotted. Error bars show the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM * =$p<0.05$ compared to respective >50 LDs/cell in *dotA* mutant-infected cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test.

Figure 3: Blocking LD formation increases *C. burnetii* growth.

C. burnetii NMII growth in infected MH-S cells treated with different inhibitors was measured at 2 and 4 days post-infection by FFU assay.

A) Representative images for wild-type MH-S macrophages treated with inhibitors, fixed, stained for PLIN2 (LDs) and imaged day 1 post-treatment at 100X. Scale bar = 10 μm

B) Growth in LD formation inhibitor triascin C–treated (10 μM) wild-type MH-S macrophages. Error bars represent the mean of 4 independent experiments +/- SEM. **= $p <0.01$ compared to vehicle treated cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.

C) ACAT1 protein expression in wild-type and *acat-1*^{-/-} macrophages. Cell lysates were immunoblotted and ACAT1 protein levels were compared with GAPDH as loading control.

D) Representative images for vehicle-treated wild-type MH-S macrophages and vehicle and

T863-treated *acat-1*^{-/-} macrophages fixed, stained for PLIN2 (LDs) and imaged day 1 post-

treatment at 100X. Scale bar = 10 μm

E) *C. burnetii* NMII growth in vehicle-treated wild-type and *acat-1*^{-/-} MH-S macrophages and (F)

T863-treated wild-type and *acat-1*^{-/-} MH-S macrophages. Error bars represent the mean of 3

independent experiments +/- SEM., * =$p<0.05$, *** =p <0.001 as determined by two-way

ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.

Figure 4: Inhibiting LD breakdown blocks *C. burnetii* growth.

Effect of ATGL inhibitor atglistatin on viability of axenic and intracellular *C. burnetii* was

determined by FFU assay.

A) Direct effect of atglistatin on *C. burnetii* NMII. Atglistatin was added to axenic *C. burnetii*

NMII cultures and bacterial viability was determined at day 4 using FFU assay. Error bars

represent the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM. ns = not significant compared to

vehicle treatment as determined by ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test.

B) Growth in atglistatin-treated (20 μM) and vehicle-treated wild-type MH-S macrophages.

Error bars represent the mean of 4 independent experiments +/- SEM. *= p <0.05, ****

=$p<0.0001$ compared to vehicle-treated cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with

Bonferroni post-hoc test.

C) Growth in atglistatin-treated (20 μM) and vehicle-treated *acat-1*^{-/-} MH-S macrophages. Error

bars represent the mean of 4 independent experiments +/- SEM. ** =$p<0.01$ compared to vehicle

treated cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.

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Figure 1: *C. burnetii* **infection leads to host cell LD accumulation.**
MH-S macrophages were infected with *C. burnetii* NMII and at different times post-infection, cells were stained for PLIN2 (LDs), LAMP1 (PV marker) and *C. burnetii*. LDs were observed by fluorescence microscopy and number of LDs per cell was quantitated. The percent of counted cells containing 0-20, 21-50 and >50 LDs per cell at respective times were plotted. Error bars show the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM * =p<0.05, ** =p <0.01, *** =p <0.001 compared to respective >50 LDs/cell in mock-infected cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test.

Figure 2: Host cell LD accumulation is dependent on the *C. burnetii* T4BSS Secretion System (T4BSS).

A) Representative images of mock, wild-type *C. burnetii* NMII and T4BSS *(dotA)* mutant-infected MH-S macrophages stained for PLIN2 (LDs) at day 1 post-infection imaged at 100X. Scale bar = 10 μm

B) MH-S macrophages and (C) THP-1 monocyte-derived macrophages were infected with wild-type *C. burnetii* NMII and *dotA* mutant. At different time points post-infection, cells were stained for PLIN2 (LDs), LAMP1 (PV marker) and *C. burnetii*. The number of LDs per cell were counted by fluorescence microscopy. Percent of cells containing 0-20, 21-50 and >50 LDs per cell at respective time points were plotted. Error bars show the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM * =p<0.05 compared to respective >50 LDs/cell in *dotA* mutant-infected cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test.

Figure 3: Blocking LD formation increases *C. burnetii* growth.

C. burnetii NMII growth in infected MH-S cells treated with different inhibitors was measured at 2 and 4 days post-infection by FFU assay.

A) Representative images for wild-type MH-S macrophages treated with inhibitors, fixed, stained for PLIN2 (LDs) and imaged day 1 post-treatment at 100X. Scale bar = 10 μm

B) Growth in LD formation inhibitor triascin C–treated (10 μM) wild-type MH-S macrophages. Error bars represent the mean of 4 independent experiments +/- SEM. **= $p <0.01$ compared to vehicle treated cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.

C) ACAT1 protein expression in wild-type and *acat-1*^{-/-} macrophages. Cell lysates were immunoblotted and ACAT1 protein levels were compared with GAPDH as loading control.

D) Representative images for vehicle-treated wild-type MH-S macrophages and vehicle and T863-treated *acat-1*^{-/-} macrophages fixed, stained for PLIN2 (LDs) and imaged day 1 post-treatment at 100X. Scale bar = 10 μm

E) *C. burnetii* NMII growth in vehicle-treated wild-type and *acat-1*^{-/-} MH-S macrophages and (F) T863-treated wild-type and *acat-1*^{-/-} MH-S macrophages. Error bars represent the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM., * =$p<0.05$, *** =$p <0.001$ as determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.

Figure 3: Blocking LD formation increases *C. burnetii* growth.

Figure 4: Inhibiting LD breakdown blocks *C. burnetii* growth.

Effect of ATGL inhibitor atglistatin on viability of axenic and intracellular *C. burnetii* NMII was determined by FFU assay.

A) Direct effect of atglistatin on *C. burnetii* NMII. Atglistatin was added to axenic *C. burnetii* cultures and bacterial viability was determined at day 4 using FFU assay. Error bars represent the mean of 3 independent experiments +/- SEM. ns = not significant compared to vehicle treatment as determined by ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test.

B) Growth in atglistatin-treated (20 μM) and vehicle-treated wild-type MH-S macrophages. Error bars represent the mean of 4 independent experiments +/- SEM. *= p <0.05, **** =p<0.0001 compared to vehicle-treated cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.

C) Growth in atglistatin-treated (20 μM) and vehicle-treated *acat-1*^{-/-} MH-S macrophages. Error bars represent the mean of 4 independent experiments +/- SEM. ** =p<0.01 compared to vehicle treated cells as determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-hoc test.