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RhlR, but not RhlI, allows P. aeruginosa *bacteria to evade* Drosophila *Tep4-mediated opsonization*

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Running title: RhlR, not RhlI, eludes Tep4 opsonization

ABSTRACT

When *Drosophila* flies feed on *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PA14, some bacteria cross the

intestinal barrier and start proliferating intensely inside the hemocoel. This process is limited

by hemocytes through phagocytosis. We have previously shown that the PA14 quorum-

sensing regulator RhlR is required for the bacteria to elude the cellular immune response. RhlI

synthesizes the auto-inducer signal that activates RhlR. Here, we have carefully compared the

null mutant phenotypes of *rhlR* and *rhlI*. Surprisingly, unlike *ΔrhlR* mutants, *ΔrhlI* mutants

are only modestly attenuated for virulence and are poorly phagocytosed and opsonized in a

Thioester-containing Protein4-dependent manner. Likewise, ΔrhlI but not ΔrhlR mutants

colonize the digestive tract of *Caenorhabdtis elegans* and kill it as efficiently as wild-type

PA14. Thus, RhlR has an RhlI-independent function in eluding detection or counter-acting the

action of the immune system. In contrast to the intestinal infection model, *Tep4* mutant flies

are more resistant to PA14 in a septic injury model, also an *rhlR*-dependent property. Thus,

the Tep4 putative opsonin can either be protective or detrimental to host defense depending

on the infection route.

INTRODUCTION

Drosophila melanogaster is a powerful genetic model organism for the study of innate

immunity that has been intensely investigated during the past 25 years (Buchon, Silverman et

al., 2014). It thus represents an informative system in which to study host-pathogen

interactions using either systemic infection or so-called "natural" infection paradigms, such as

oral infection (Bier & Guichard, 2012, Igboin, Griffen et al., 2012, Limmer, Quintin et al.,

2011b). Genetic analysis has allowed the detailed dissection of the *Drosophila* systemic

immune response to microbial infections (Lemaitre & Hoffmann, 2007). In addition to

melanization which is mediated by the protease-mediated cleavage of prophenol oxidase into active phenol oxidase, two major NF-kappaB pathways, Toll and Immune deficiency (IMD), regulate the induction of the expression of genes that encode potent antimicrobial peptides, which are active against most bacteria and fungi (Ferrandon, Imler et al., 2007, Ganesan, Aggarwal et al., 2010, Lemaitre & Hoffmann, 2007). The *Drosophila* systemic immune response is so effective, especially in the case of Gram-negative bacterial infections, that a second arm of host defense, the cellular immune response, has remained comparatively less well studied (Pean & Dionne, 2014). Indeed, blocking cellular immunity through saturation of the phagocytic apparatus with inert particles does not yield a strong susceptibility phenotype of flies infected by *Escherichia coli*, unless the systemic immune response is at least also partially impaired (Elrod-Erickson, Mishra et al., 2000). Nevertheless, we have found that when two opportunistic pathogens *Serratia marcescens* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* are fed to *Drosophila*, the cellular immune response plays a key role in controlling the bacteria that escape from the digestive tract (Limmer, Haller et al., 2011a, Nehme, Liegeois et al., 2007). In both cases, the putative phagocytic receptor Eater plays a crucial role and prevents the development of a rapid bacteremia (Kocks, Cho et al., 2005, Limmer et al., 2011a).

The thioester-containing protein Tep1 opsonizes bacteria in the mosquito species *Anopheles gambiae* (Levashina, Moita et al., 2001). It is unknown whether opsonization also plays a role *in vivo* in *Drosophila*, even though its genome encodes five functional *Tep* loci and a pseudogene (*Tep5*) (Bou Aoun, Hetru et al., 2011). The thioester motif is not present in Tep6 and is therefore thought to be nonfunctional. Indeed, Tep6 is required for the establishment of septate junctions in specific parts of the gut, which explains the lethal phenotype of *Tep6* null mutants (Batz, Forster et al., 2014, Hall, Bone et al., 2014). Tep6 has also been shown to induce autophagy in macrophages via a non cell-autonomous process that involves epithelial cells in which it is expressed (Lin, Rodrigues et al., 2017). A previous study failed to find a

role of the remaining *Tep* genes (*Tep1* to *Tep4*) in host defense in several models of bacterial

or fungal systemic infections (Bou Aoun et al., 2011), although a study reported that *Tep3*

mutant flies are highly susceptible the nematode parasite *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora*

(Arefin, Kucerova et al., 2014). Interestingly, a study led in *Drosophila* cultured S2 cells

reported that *Tep2* is required for the phagocytosis of the Gram-negative species *Escherichia*

coli, *Tep3* for the uptake of the Gram-positive *Staphylococcus aureus*, and unexpectedly that

Tep6 is required to phagocytose the dimorphic yeast *Candida albicans* (Stroschein-Stevenson,

Foley et al., 2006).

In contrast to *S. marcescens*, the *P. aeruginosa* strain PA14 ultimately manages to establish

an exponential infection in the hemocoel four to five days after its ingestion. In a previous

study, we showed that a member of the LuxR family of signal receptor-transcriptional

regulators in PA14, RhlR, is required to circumvent the cellular immune response (Limmer et

al., 2011a). Indeed, *rhlR* mutants are almost avirulent in an intestinal infection model since

they remain at very low levels in the hemolymph and kill the infected flies at a much reduced

rate. Interestingly, the cellular immune response remains functional until late stages of a

PA14 infection, suggesting that hemocytes are not directly targeted by the PA14 strain, unlike

what happens with *P. aeruginosa* strain CHA, which neutralizes *Drosophila* phagocytosis

through the secretion of its ExoS toxin into hemocytes (Avet-Rochex, Bergeret et al., 2005).

RhlR is the major regulator of one of the three known quorum-sensing systems in *P.*

aeruginosa. Quorum-sensing systems play a major role in coordinating the expression of

virulence genes in several infection models (Coggan & Wolfgang, 2012, Jimenez, Koch et al.,

2012, Schuster, Sexton et al., 2013, Williams & Camara, 2009). However, we have failed to

uncover a strong role for the other two *P. aeruginosa* quorum sensing systems regulated by

LasR and MvfR in the *Drosophila* intestinal infection model (Limmer et al., 2011a). This

observation was somewhat unexpected since the Las system appears to function upstream of

the Rhl quorum sensing system. RhlR is activated by binding to an auto-inducer molecule,

butanoyl-homoserine lactone (C4-HSL), which is synthesized by the RhlI enzyme. The

transcription of the *rhlI* and *rhlR* genes is in turn activated by the Las transcriptional regulator

LasR (Coggan & Wolfgang, 2012, Jimenez et al., 2012, Schuster et al., 2013, Williams &

Camara, 2009). Activation of RhlR takes place when a threshold concentration of C4-HSL is

reached, which correlates in *in vivo* studies with a threshold bacterial concentrations reached

during exponential growth.

Here, we found that the virulence phenotype exhibited by ingested PA14 *rhlI* mutants is

strikingly distinct from that exhibited by *rhlR* mutants, suggesting that RhlR can function

independently of activation by C4-HSL. We further establish that RhlR, but not RhlI, is

required to elude opsonization by a *Tep4*-dependent process. Finally, we establish that in

contrast to its protective role during PA14 intestinal infections, Tep4 plays an opposite role in

a systemic infection model, possibly by preventing the activation of the phenol oxidase

cascade.

RESULTS

*Δ***rhlI** *is more virulent than Δ***rhlR** *in the* **Drosophila** *intestinal infection model*

RhlR is activated by the C4-HSL synthesized by the RhlI enzyme, at least in numerous *in*

vitro studies (Gambello, Kaye et al., 1993, Latifi, Winson et al., 1995, Pesci, Pearson et al.,

1997, Seed, Passador et al., 1995). Thus, we expected that *rhlI* and *rhlR* mutants would

display the same phenotype. Unexpectedly, however, although a *ΔrhlI* deletion mutant strain

was indeed less virulent than wild-type PA14 when ingested by flies, it was significantly

more virulent than *ΔrhlR* (Fig. 1A, B). Moreover, whereas the *ΔrhlR* mutants were cleared

from the hemolymph, the *ΔrhlI* mutant proliferated in this compartment, although it appeared

to grow less rapidly than wild-type PA14 (Fig. 1C, D). Consistent with this latter result, *ΔrhlI*

but not $\Delta rhlR$ triggered the systemic immune response, as monitored by measuring the

expression of the *Diptericin* gene (Fig. S1E-F). Similar results were obtained with

independent $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta rhlI$ in frame deletion mutants constructed by another laboratory (Fig.

S1) (Hoyland-Kroghsbo, Paczkowski et al., 2017), thereby confirming the correlation

between the $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta rhlI$ null genotypes and the differing $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta rhlI$ phenotypes.

We next tested the survival rates of flies in which the cellular response had been ablated by

injecting latex beads (LXB) after feeding on wild-type or $\Delta rhlR$ or $\Delta rhlI$ mutant bacteria.

Both $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta rhlI$ killed latex bead-injected flies much faster than PBS-injected control

flies, at approximately the same rate (Fig. 1E, F). In addition, both $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta rhlI$ killed

latex bead-injected flies slower than wild-type PA14, with the difference between $\Delta rhlI$ and

wild-type PA14 at the borderline of statistical significance (p=0.07). It is important to

determine whether this apparently enhanced virulence of $\Delta rhlIR$ and $\Delta rhlI$ mutants observed

in phagocytosis-impaired flies is just a reflection of the increased virulence of wild-type PA14

in these immuno-deficient flies, or whether the enhanced virulence of the $\Delta rhlR$ and $\Delta rhlI$

mutants is indicative of the fact that the RhlR-mediated regulatory systems plays an important

role in counteracting the cellular immune response. To this end, it is useful to measure the

difference in LT_{50} values of control *vs.* latex bead-injected flies (LT_{50}[wt-w^{LXB}]) for each

mutant and to compare it to that measured for wild-type PA14. $\Delta rhlR$ did recover virulence

with a LT_{50}[wt- w^{LXB}] of 4.7 days, as compared to 2.4 days for wild-type PA14, which

corresponds to the level of recovered virulence reported earlier (Fig. 1G) (Limmer et al.,

2011a). With a value of 3.5 days, $\Delta rhlI$ displayed an intermediate LT_{50}[wt- w^{LXB}], although

the significance of the difference with wild-type PA14 or $\Delta rhlR$ could not be assessed as the

$\Delta rhlI$ values were too spread out (Fig. 1G). Indeed, $\Delta rhlI$ mutants consistently tended to

display a more variable survival phenotype (Fig. 1B).

Finally, both the *ΔrhlR* and *ΔrhlI* mutant strains yielded similarly shaped survival curves

when used to infect flies with an impaired cellular defense. These survival curves were less

steep than those obtained with wild-type PA14, as measured by their Hill coefficients (Fig.

1H). This suggests that quorum-sensing is somehow involved in shaping the survival curve.

This reflects a collective property of flies placed in the same vial, which succumb less

synchronously during infections when the *rhl* quorum sensing system is missing.

rhlI *and wild-type PA14, but not* rhlR, *strains colonize the* C. elegans *digestive tract*

The nematode *C. elegans* is a well-established model host to study *P. aeruginosa*

pathogenesis (Irazoqui, Urbach et al., 2010, Pukkila-Worley & Ausubel, 2012, Tan, Mahajan-

Miklos et al., 1999a). The *C. elegans* intestinal infection model shares some key features with

the *Drosophila* model, at least during the initial stages of the infection. For instance, in both

models, ingested bacteria are exposed in the gut lumen to antimicrobial peptides and to

reactive oxygen species generated by the Dual oxidase enzyme. However, in contrast to

ingested *P. aeruginosa* in *Drosophila*, PA14 are not known to escape from the gut

compartment during the nematode infection. We therefore tested whether the differences that

we observed in the virulence of *ΔrhlR* and *ΔrhlI* mutants in the *Drosophila* intestinal infection

assay were reflected in a well-established *C. elegans – P. aeruginosa* nematode "slow killing"

survival assay (McEwan, Feinbaum et al., 2016, Tan et al., 1999a). Indeed, two independently

constructed in frame *rhlR* deletion mutants in the PA14 background were dramatically less

virulent than two independently constructed *rhlI* deletion mutants in their ability to kill *C.*

elegans (Fig. 2A)

The primary *C. elegans* immune response occurs in intestinal epithelial cells and because the

worms are transparent, host-pathogen interactions can be easily visualized in the intestinal

lumen. Thus, in addition to the *C. elegans* survival assay (Fig. 2A), we also used a

quantitative assay (Figs. 2B-E; see Materials and Methods) that monitors the accumulation of

live bacterial cells in the intestine of the nematodes using PA14, *ΔrhlR,* and *ΔrhlI* expressing

GFP to monitor the level of intestinal colonization. Live wild-type *P. aeruginosa* PA14 cells

start accumulating in the intestine 24-48 hours post infection. Consistent with the *Drosophila*

infection assays described in Fig. 1, two independent *ΔrhlR* mutants in the PA14 background

colonized the *C. elegans* intestine at significantly lower levels than two independent *ΔrhlI*

mutants. Indeed, in this colonization assay, the *ΔrhlI* mutants were indistinguishable from

wild-type PA14, similar to the results in the nematode killing assay. An alternative

explanation for these results is that *C. elegans* preferentially feeds on the *ΔrhlI* mutant

compared to the *ΔrhlR* mutant and simply overwhelms the immune response with a larger

number of ingested cells. However, this possibility was ruled out by monitoring the pumping

(feeding) rate of *C. elegans* feeding on wild-type, *ΔrhlR* and *ΔrhlI* mutants. *C. elegans*

pumped at the same rate on all three strains (Fig. S2).

Phagocytosis protects* Drosophila *against invasion of its hemocoel by wild-type PA14

during the early phase of the infection

In the *Drosophila* intestinal infection model, flies constantly feed on PA14 present on a filter.

A defining feature of this model is that while bacteria are able to rapidly cross the intestinal

barrier to penetrate the hemocoel, as had been previously described for *Serratia marcescens*,

the PA14 titer in the hemolymph remains low for the first few days of the infection. After this

initial incubation period, there is an exponential proliferation of PA14 in the hemocoel, which

coincides with the activation of the systemic immune response. Using bacteria expressing

different colored fluorescent proteins, we have previously shown that *S. marcescens*

continuously crosses the intestinal barrier during the infection. Fig. 3A-B shows that when

flies that have been feeding on dsRed-labeled PA14 bacteria for four days were switched to a

filter laced with GFP-labeled PA14, the green bacteria progressively replaced the red bacteria

both in the gut and hemocoel compartments. We conclude that *P. aeruginosa*, like *S.*

marcescens, continuously crosses the intestinal barrier during the infection.

Next, we asked at what time periods during an infection was phagocytosis important in

preventing PA14 growth in the hemolymph. To this end, we saturated the phagocytic

apparatus of hemocytes by injecting latex beads into flies at different time points during

infection. As expected, blocking phagocytosis one day prior to the infection led to an earlier

demise of the PA14-infected flies compared to PBS-injected control flies. Similar results were

found when latex beads were injected four hours or one day after infection, although in the

latter case the difference was not significant (its value was nevertheless similar to that

obtained by injection one day prior to infection at -1 day; Fig. 3C). In contrast to injecting the

latex beads one day after infection, the injection of latex beads four or six days after the

beginning of the ingestion of wild-type PA14 did not modify the survival rate of flies. That is,

the LT_{50} values were similar to those of control (PBS-injected) flies, consistent with the

conclusion that starting about four days after infection the cellular immune response no longer

plays a major role in limiting a wild-type PA14 infection.

In contrast to wild-type PA14, *ΔrhlR* bacteria were kept in check by phagocytosis at least up

to day four and to some extent up to six days after infection (Fig. 3D, F). Phagocytosis was

also efficient against *ΔrhlI* bacteria for at least four days (Fig. 3E, F). These data suggest that

ΔrhlR bacteria are constantly kept in check by the cellular immune response when penetrating

the hemocoel, whereas wild-type PA14 ultimately escape this immune surveillance. *ΔrhlI*

mutant bacteria display an intermediate phenotype, with a somewhat decreased virulence in

flies in which phagocytosis was blocked at day 4 that is similar to that observed with *ΔrhlR*

(Fig. 3F).

A recent study has reported that hemocytes are recruited to the gut after the ingestion of

bacteria (Ayyaz, Li et al., 2015). We confirmed this finding in the case of *P. aeruginosa* oral

infection, with a significant recruitment observed at four hours after the beginning of the

infection with either wild-type PA14 or *Δrhl* mutants (Fig. 3G-H, Fig. S3). While hemocytes

remained associated with the midgut for at least three days after the beginning of the ingestion

of wild-type PA14 or *ΔrhlR* bacteria, they were not at three days in the case of *ΔrhlI* bacteria

(Fig. 3H). While some ingested bacteria could be detected in the hemocytes recruited to the

gut, this phenomenon was not reproducible enough to allow reliable quantification.

Drosophila Tep4 *is required for host defense against ingested PA14*

Our previous work had shown that flies mutant for the putative phagocytic receptor gene

Eater are more susceptible to PA14 ingestion and display a phenotype similar to that obtained

by latex bead-mediated ablation of the phagocytic capacity of hemocytes (Limmer et al.,

2011a). Thioester -containing proteins have been reported to be required for phagocytosis in

mosquitoes and also in cultured *Drosophila* S2 cells (Levashina et al., 2001, Stroschein-

Stevenson et al., 2006). We therefore tested mutations affecting the *Tep2*, *Tep3*, and/or *Tep4*

genes (Bou Aoun et al., 2011). In the case of *Tep1*, since no mutants were available, we tested

this gene using an RNAi transgenic line expressed either in hemocytes or in the fat body.

However, we did not observe any change in the virulence of ingested PA14 (Fig. S4A, B).

Tep4 and triple *Tep2-Tep3-Tep4* mutants displayed increased susceptibility to PA14 ingestion,

in contrast to *Tep3* and double *Tep2-Tep3* mutants that displayed respectively a somewhat

decreased or wild-type susceptibility (Fig. 4A, D-E). Of note, uninfected *Tep3* mutants fed on

a sucrose solution displayed an enhanced fitness when compared to wild-type or other *Tep*

mutant lines (Fig. S4C). We conclude from these data that Tep4, but not other thioester-

containing proteins, is required for host defense against ingested PA14.

Next, we found that *ΔrhlR* became as virulent as wild-type PA14 when ingested by *Tep4* or

Tep2-Tep3-Tep4 mutants, which was not observed with the *Tep2* and *Tep2-Tep3* mutant

strains (Fig. 4B-E). Interestingly, the injection of latex beads in *Tep4* flies only modestly

increased the virulence of *rhlR* bacteria when compared to PBS-injected *Tep4* flies (Fig. S4 D,

E), suggesting that phagocytosis of PA14 is severely affected in the *Tep4* mutant. *ΔrhlI*

bacteria behaved like *ΔrhlR* bacteria when ingested by *Tep4* (Fig. 4C-E), similarly to flies

injected with latex beads (Fig. 1E), although *ΔrhlR* recovered virulence to a much larger

extent (3.1 days) than *ΔrhlI* (0.9 days) when ingested by *Tep4* flies. Hence, the behavior of

ΔrhlR mutant PA14 is similar in *eater* and *Tep4* mutant flies, thereby raising the possibility

that both fly genes are involved in the same process, in keeping with an unchanged phenotype

of *Tep4* when phagocytosis was blocked by the injection of latex beads (Fig. S4D).

Phagocytosis of PA14 bacteria is impaired in* Tep4 *mutant hemocytes

To quantitatively monitor the uptake of PA14, we used assays that relied on larval hemocytes.

First, we injected heat-killed, pHrodo®-labeled bacteria in wild-type or *Tep4* third-instar

larvae. The dye becomes fluorescent when placed in an acidic environment such as that

encountered in phagosomes. After 45 minutes, the larvae were bled and a phagocytic index

was established. Wild-type hemocytes ingested significantly more PA14 or *ΔrhlR* bacteria

than *Tep4* hemocytes (Fig. 5A). There were however no significant differences between heat-

killed wild-type PA14 and *rhlR* bacteria uptake by wild-type hemocytes on the one hand, or

Tep4 hemocytes on the other (Fig. 5A). This was not necessarily unexpected as heat-killing

likely inactivates *rhlR*-dependent virulence factors and might also alter the surface of bacteria.

We therefore modified the assay with live bacteria and used an antibody we had raised against

PA14 to immuno-stain the bacteria differentially, prior and after permeabilization of the fixed

cells. As before, *Tep4* hemocytes exhibited a decreased uptake of bacteria compared to wild-

type hemocytes. However, in the case of live bacteria, *rhlR* bacteria were significantly better

phagocytosed than wild-type PA14 bacteria when injected into wild-type or *Tep4* larvae. *rhlI*

exhibited an intermediate phenotype in this assay and was not significantly different from

either wild-type or *rhlR* bacteria. We conclude that this assay is not sensitive enough to

discriminate between these two bacterial mutant strains. We obtained similar results using the

ΔrhlR and *ΔrhlI* strains generated by another laboratory (Fig. S1G).

Tep4 opsonizes rhlR *better than* rhlI *or wild-type bacteria*

We next designed an experiment to assess whether Tep4 functions as an opsonin, *i.e.*, that it is

deposited on the surface of bacteria to facilitate its detection and subsequent ingestion by

hemocytes. To this end, we collected the hemolymph from either wild-type or *Tep4* larvae

and incubated it with live bacteria. These bacteria were then retrieved and injected into either

naive wild-type or *Tep4* mutant larvae prior to bleeding these injected larvae to be able to

count the ingested bacteria as described above (Fig. 6A). Wild-type PA14 were poorly

phagocytosed in this assay (medians of phagocytic index lower than 10, Fig. 6C), when the

opsonized bacteria were first incubated in the hemolymph of Tep4-containing wild-type

larvae and then secondarily injected into wild-type or *Tep4* larvae (although the former

yielded a significantly increased phagocytic index, as compared to bacteria incubated first in

Tep4 hemolymph; Fig. 6B-E). In contrast, bacteria that had been first incubated in *Tep4*

mutant hemolymph were hardly ingested when re-injected into *Tep4* larvae (Fig. 6E). Re-

injection of these bacteria into wild-type larvae recipients modestly increased the phagocytic

index (Fig. 6E), which was nevertheless lower than that of bacteria that had been pre-

incubated with wild-type hemolymph (Fig. 6C). When these experiments were performed

using *ΔrhlR* bacteria that were ultimately injected in *Tep4* larval recipients, it made a major

difference as to whether these mutant bacteria had first been pre-exposed to wild-type or *Tep4*

hemolymph. The Tep4-dependent opsonization led to a massive uptake of bacteria (median

phagocytic value of 162), whereas nonopsonized bacteria (pre-incubated with *Tep4* mutant

hemolymph) were hardly ingested (median phagocytic value of 12; Fig. 6D-E). As expected,

nonopsonized bacteria that were then injected in wild-type recipients were much better

phagocytosed (median phagocytic value of 214), presumably because Tep4 was circulating in

the wild-type hemolymph (Fig. 6B). They were nevertheless ingested less efficiently than

opsonized bacteria (median phagocytic value of 376; Fig. 6B). Finally, *ΔrhlI* bacteria were

also opsonized by Tep4, but significantly less than *ΔrhlR* bacteria (Fig. 6B, D). Again, they

displayed a phenotype that was intermediate to that of wild-type PA14 on the one hand, and

ΔrhlR on the other. We conclude that PA14 and, to a lesser extent, *ΔrhlI* bacteria are less

efficiently opsonized and subsequently phagocytosed than *ΔrhlR* bacteria, which are therefore

unable to elude the cellular immune response.

***Tep4 plays an adverse role in a PA14 systemic infection model in* Drosophila**

A recent study has reported that *Tep4* mutants are more resistant to an infection with the

entomopathogenic bacterium *Photorhabdus luminescens* in a septic injury model (Shokal &

Eleftherianos, 2017). By injecting several doses of PA14, from 10 to 1000 cfus, directly into

the thorax of flies, we also consistently found that *Tep4* mutants were surviving better than

wild-type flies in this systemic infection model (Fig. 7A). This difference in survival between

Tep4 and wild-type flies was largely attenuated when *ΔrhlR* bacteria were injected thereby

establishing again a relationship of altered virulence of these bacteria in this *Drosophila*

genetic background (Fig. 7B). Using the steady-state expression of the antibacterial peptide

gene *Diptericin* as a read-out of the activation of the IMD pathway that regulates the systemic

immune response against Gram-negative bacteria, we found no difference of expression

between wild-type and *Tep4* for doses of 100 or 1000 cfus (Fig. 7C). A difference was noted

however at time points 2 and 8h after a challenge with 10 cfus. As a higher induction of the

IMD pathway is unlikely to account for the increased resistance of *Tep4* mutants against

higher PA14 infectious doses, we tested whether the phenol oxidase cascade might be more

efficiently activated in this mutant background, as previously reported (Shokal *&*

Eleftherianos, 2017). Indeed, we found that pro-phenol oxidase was cleaved to some extent in

Tep4 but not in wild-type flies. These data further suggest that PA14 bacteria do not

efficiently trigger the prophenol oxidase cascade.

Discussion

In this study, we have analyzed the interactions of *P. aeruginosa* with *Drosophila* from the

dual perspective of both pathogen and host. Our data lead us to propose a model in which

RhlR plays a pivotal role in virulence by diminishing the ability of the cellular immune arm of

the host defense response to detect *P. aeruginosa* once the bacteria have reached the internal

body cavity of the insect after crossing the intestinal barrier. Surprisingly, RhlR function in

eluding opsonization by Tep4 is at least partially independent of the C4-HSL producing

enzyme RhlI. These results as well as those of another study (Bonnie Bassler, personal

communication) show that RhlR can function independently of C4-HSL, but they do not

formally establish that RhlR is functioning independently from a quorum-sensing system in

this function.

A **rhlI**-*independent function of* **rhlR**

P. aeruginosa is a pathogen that uses complex signaling mechanisms to adapt to its

environment and its three quorum-sensing regulators (LasR, RhlR and MvfR) appear to be

involved in the regulation of a variety of virulence-related functions (Coggan & Wolfgang,

2012, Jimenez et al., 2012, Schuster et al., 2013). *In vitro* studies, sometimes complemented

by *in vivo* experiments, have revealed that these quorum-sensing systems are intricately

intertwined. It was thus unexpected that only the *P. aeruginosa* RhlR regulator appears to

play a critical role for virulence in the *Drosophila* intestinal infection model and not the two

other quorum sensor regulators (Limmer et al., 2011a). Here, we report that *ΔrhlR* null

mutants consistently display virulence levels that are much weaker than those observed with

ΔrhlI mutants (Fig. 1B), do not proliferate in the hemolymph in contrast to *ΔrhlI* mutants, and

are phagocytosed and opsonized in a Tep4-dependent process more efficiently than *ΔrhlI* and

wild-type bacteria. These observations suggest that RhlR functions at least partially

independently from RhlI and presumably independently from C4-HSL activation. In contrast,

ΔrhlI mutants exhibit an impaired virulence in both wild-type and *Tep4* immuno-deficient

flies, similarly to *ΔrhlR* mutants. Both *ΔrhlI* and *ΔrhlR* mutants display survival curves with

shallow slopes. Thus, the partially overlapping phenotypes of *ΔrhlI* and *ΔrhlR* in flies with

impaired cellular immunity open the possibility that RhlR may also partially function together

with RhlI as a classical quorum-sensing regulator in a process that remains to be delineated.

Interestingly, it appears that RhlR controls gene expression for biofilm formation both in a

C4-HSL-dependent and C4-HSL independent manner (Bonnie Bassler, personal

communication). This putative conventional function of RhlR plays however a minor role in

virulence of PA14 in *Drosophila*, as mirrored by the weak virulence-related phenotypes of

ΔrhlI mutants documented in our study.

One possibility is that RhlR gets activated, perhaps in a C4-HSL-independent manner, by an

as yet unidentified quorum-sensing compound. Of note, RhlR does not appear to be activated

by 3-oxo-C12-HSL (Bonnie Bassler, personal communication), the LasR ligand, and, in any

case, *lasR* and *lasI* mutant bacteria display at best only a modestly decreased virulence

phenotype in the *Drosophila* infection model (Fig. S5). The diketopiperazines (DKPs)

represent a candidate family of RhlR-activating compounds (Holden, Ram Chhabra et al.,

1999); however, at least one study failed to detect any interaction of these compounds with

LuxR proteins (Campbell, Lin et al., 2009). The resolution of this issue will require testing

mutants that affect the synthesis of DKPs.

Another hypothesis to consider is that RhlR may function independently of auto-inducer

molecules. RhlR forms dimers in the presence or absence of C4-HSL (Ledgham, Ventre et al.,

2003). Further studies reported that RhlR functions as a repressor when unbound to C4-HSL

(Anderson, Zimprich et al., 1999, Medina, Juarez et al., 2003). Interestingly, RhlR dimers

seem to bind its target DNA sequence with an altered conformation (Medina et al., 2003).

Finally, transcriptomics studies on *lasR-rhlR* double mutants also revealed several target

genes that appear to be repressed by either LasR or RhlR (Schuster, Lostroh et al., 2003,

Wagner, Bushnell et al., 2003). Thus, a repressor function for RhlR unbound to C4-HSL

cannot be excluded at this stage. Of note, a limitation of all these studies is that they were

performed *in vitro* and not *in vivo*.

Finally, our studies on the inactivation of the cellular immune response at different time

points of the infection further support a quorum sensing-independent role of RhlR. Our study

revealed that phagocytosis is required only when very few bacteria are present in the

hemolymph, that is, during the first days of the infection. A caveat here is that we cannot

exclude the possibility that C4-HSL or other cryptic autoinducers might be produced by the

bacteria present in large numbers in the gut compartment. However, if autoinducers, including

C4-HSL, were produced in the intestinal lumen and able to cross the digestive barrier, it is

difficult to understand why they would not immediately activate RhlR resulting in full-blown

bacteremia without the observed lag before the exponential proliferation phase in the

hemocoel. This hypothesis also does not account for why the *rhlI* virulence phenotype is

much weaker than that of *rhlR*, unless this reflects the differing opsonization properties of

these mutants.

RhlR counteracts the cellular host defense by eluding detection by Tep4

Our phagocytosis and opsonization data are consistent with a model in which RhlR controls

the expression of gene products that might mask the site being recognized by Tep4 or a TEP4-

associated protein, presumably on the cell wall. Alternatively, RhlR may actively inhibit the

uptake of opsonized bacteria. The masking or inhibition of ingestion processes may be

sensitive to heat, as wild-type heat-killed bacteria appeared to be more efficiently taken up by

hemocytes than live ones (compare median values for PA14WT in Fig. 6A to those in 6B).

Alternatively, the processes may be unstable and require permanent maintenance that can no

longer be achieved when the bacterial cells are killed.

Insect thioester-containing proteins belong to the complement family, and have been shown to

be involved in the opsonization of bacteria in mosquitoes. In *Drosophila*, Tep2 has been

reported to be required for the uptake of *Escherichia coli*, a Gram-negative bacterium, by

cultured S2 cells (Stroschein-Stevenson et al., 2006). In contrast, we find no involvement of

Tep2 in our *in vivo* intestinal infection model with *P. aeruginosa* but do detect a requirement

for Tep4 in phagocytosis and opsonization assays. Given that the structure of mosquito

thioester-containing protein 1 is similar to that of complement family C3, a well-described

opsonin, our data are compatible with a model of direct opsonization of bacteria by Tep4.

A host factor plays opposite roles in host defense against the same pathogen according to the infection route

The finding that Tep4 plays a protective function in the intestinal infection model whereas it

is detrimental in the case of a direct systemic infection is paradoxical. This may actually

represent two faces of the same phenomenon. PA14 may have developed a stealth strategy to

avoid detection by the immune system of living organisms and thus may actively hide any

features that might reveal its presence. We propose here that RhlR is playing a critical role in

a program that renders PA14 furtive, in keeping with our finding that bacteria likely need to

be alive to escape phagocytosis efficiently (Fig.5). As a result of RhlR action, only a few sites

would be available on the surface of the wild-type bacteria for Tep4 direct or indirect binding.

There, Tep4 would mediate opsonization and then subsequent phagocytosis of the bacteria,

which is an efficient defense when few bacteria enter the hemocoel after escaping from the

digestive tract. Our data in the systemic infection model are compatible with the possibility

that Tep4 competes for these sites with Pattern Recognition Receptors (PRRs) that activate

the systemic humoral immune response and/or the prophenol oxidase cascade. It is likely that

small peptidoglycan (PGN) fragments released by proliferating bacteria represent a major

trigger of the IMD pathway in addition to large PGN fragments directly sensed by PGRP-LC,

thereby accounting for the apparent normal expression of *Diptericin* when flies are challenged

with the higher PA14 inocula. In contrast, we have previously established that some fungi and

Gram-positive bacteria trigger the phenol oxidase cascade through defined PRRs (Matskevich,

Quintin et al., 2010). The situation is less clear as regards Gram-negative bacteria. While the

original characterization of PGRP-LE suggested that it was able to trigger the phenol oxidase

activation cascade (Takehana, Katsuyama et al., 2002), with some genetic data suggesting that

it may actually act non cell-autonomously (Takehana, Yano et al., 2004), subsequent studies

have documented a role for PGRP-LE as an intracellular sensor for PGN fragments (Bosco-

Drayon, Poidevin et al., 2012, Ferrandon et al., 2007, Yano, Mita et al., 2008). Thus, further

work will be required to identify whether Tep4 actually competes with PRRs in the detection

of pathogens. A major challenge will be to establish how RhlR influences the surface

properties of PA14.

***A similar or a distinct role for RhlR in bypassing host defenses in* C. elegans?**

Except for fungal invasion of the epidermis by nematophagous fungi, how *C. elegans* senses

infections remains poorly understood (Zugasti, Bose et al., 2014). The finding that *ΔrhlR*

mutants are much less virulent than Δ*rhlI* mutants in a *C. elegans* infection model, and that

ΔrhlR mutants fail to colonize the intestinal tract of worms might be due either to an impaired

escape from detection by the immune system or to a defective resistance to its action. It is not

clear, however, that RhlR-mediated regulation of the production of toxic phenazines, as

shown in the case of PA14-mediated "fast killing" of *C. elegans* (Bonnie Bassler, personal

communication)*,* is the reason the *ΔrhlR* mutant is so dramatically impaired in the *C. elegans*

"slow killing" assay used in our study in Fig. 2A. The major difference in the fast and slow *C.*

elegans killing assay is the composition of the agar medium in which the *P. aeruginosa* is

grown and on which the killing assays are performed (Mahajan-Miklos, Tan et al., 1999, Tan

et al., 1999a, Tan, Rahme et al., 1999b). Fast killing is mediated by phenazines (Cezairliyan,

Vinayavekhin et al., 2013, Mahajan-Miklos et al., 1999) whereas slow killing is multi-

factorial (Feinbaum, Urbach et al., 2012), and PA14 mutants deficient in the production of

phenazines do not exhibit a significant killing defect in the slow killing assay (Tan et al.,

1999b). In contrast to *Drosophila*, no cellular host defense has been detected in *C. elegans*

and is unlikely to be involved in the immune response to intestinal infection. The use of *ΔrhlR*

mutants will open the way to the identification of the relevant host defense systems that are

circumvented by wild-type PA14 bacteria. In any case, the lack of a significant phenotype of

the *ΔrhlI* mutants in the *C. elegans* killing and intestinal proliferation assays is striking. This

can be exploited in future studies to help elucidate the underlying *rhlI*-independent

mechanisms involved in RhlR-mediated regulation of virulence.

Finally, *ΔrhlR* mutants exhibit reduced dissemination capacities in a rodent lung infection

model when compared to *ΔrhlI* or wild-type PA14 (Bonnie Bassler, personal communication).

By analogy to our findings in the *Drosophila* intestinal infection model, it will be interesting

to determine whether the complement system restricts the systemic escape of *ΔrhlR* mutants

from the mouse lung into the periphery.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Many methods employed in this study have been described in detail in Haller *et al.* (2014).

***C. elegans* killing and intestinal accumulation assays**

The "slow-killing" of *C. elegans* by *P. aeruginosa* was monitored using automated image

analysis as previously described (McEwan et al., 2016, Stroustrup, Ulmschneider et al.,

2013). To monitor the accumulation of *P. aeruginosa* in the *C. elegans* intestine, wild-type

(N2) animals were used for all experiments. Worms were reared on non-pathogenic *E. coli*

OP50 on nematode growth media at 25°C. Synchronized L4 worms (fourth larval stage) were

transferred to slow kill (SK) nematode growth media agar plates containing a lawn of *P.*

aeruginosa PA14::GFP strains. Post infection at 24 and 48 hours approximately 20 worms are

picked onto a 2% agar pad that contain the paralyzing agent levamisole (1mM). The worms

were imaged in the GFP channel using a Zeiss Apotome microscope with the same exposure

time for all the worms on wild type PA14 and the *rhlR* and *rhlI* mutants. Post acquisition the

images were processed using ImageJ software and the area and fluorescence intensity was

measured. The relative fluorescence intensity is plotted and a non-parametric Mann-Whitney

test was used to determine statistical significance.

Opsonization assay of live bacteria

Overnight cultures of of PA14, *rhlR*, *RhlI*, *sltB1*, *XcpR*, and *vfR* mutants were concentrated to

OD10 in PBS. Twenty third instar larvae were bled in 150 μL of the bacterial preparations

and incubated at room temperature for 30 to 45 min. Samples were centrifuged at 500 rcf for

15 min and the pellet (containing larval debris) was removed. A second centrifugation was

performed at 3500 rcf for 15 min to retrieve bacteria in the pellet, that was re-suspended in

10 μL PBS. A5001 or *tep4* third instar larvae were injected with 32.2 nL of the live bacteria

solutions, using a Nanoject apparatus (Drummont). After 60-90 min of incubation, one larva

was bled in each well of an 8-well pattern microscopy slide that contained PBS. The cells

were left to settle to the bottom for 30 min and were then fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde for

15 min, in a humid chamber. The samples were washed twice in PBS and they were stained

with a 1/500 diluted rabbit antiserum against PA14 in a PBS solution with 2 % BSA for 2

hours at room temperature. The cells were incubated with a FITC-labeled goat anti-rabbit

secondary antibody (Invitrogen) in a PBS solution with 2 % BSA for 2 hours at room

temperature. After a 20 min permeabilization step in a PBS solution with 0.1 % Triton X-100

and 2 % BSA, a second round of staining with a 1/500 diluted rabbit antiserum against PA14

in a PBS solution with 0.1 % Triton X-100 and 2 % BSA was performed for 2 hours at room

temperature. The samples were then incubated with a Cy3-labeled goat anti-rabbit secondary

antibody (Invitrogen) in a PBS solution with 0.1 % Triton X-100 and 2 % BSA for 2 hours at

room temperature. The slides were mounted in Vectashield with DAPI (Vector Laboratories)

and analyzed using a Zeiss Axioskope 2 fluorescent microscope. 40 to 50 cells per larva were

analyzed: the number of red fluorescent bacteria that were not green fluorescent was counted

for each DAPI-positive hemocyte, and the phagocytosis index was calculated (% of

phagocytes containing at least 1 only-green bacterium)×(mean number of only-green bacteria

per positive cell). We used the nonparametric Mann-Whitney test for statistical analysis.

Phenol oxidase cleavage assay

The procedure was performed as described (Leclerc, Pelte et al., 2006), except that

hemolymph loads were not adjusted by measuring the protein content of the extracted

hemolymph. The antibody used has been generated by Dr. H. M. Müller against *Anopheles*

phenol oxidases (Muller, Dimopoulos et al., 1999). The ratio of cleaved to noncleaved form

was performed by densitometry scanning.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis were performed on Graphpad Prism version 5 (Graphpad software Inc., San Diego, CA). Details are indicated in the legend of each figure.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to Noémie Schaendel for help in the screen, J. Nguyen, and Gaétan Caravello for help with some experiments, and to W. M. Yamba and J. Bourdeau for expert technical help. We thank Dr. A. Filloux and Dr. B. Bassler for the gift of PA14 mutant strains, the Bloomington Stock Center for *Drosophila* stocks. Dr. S. Niehus provided valuable advice. We thank Dr. B. Bassler for sharing her work with us prior to publication. This work has been funded by CNRS, University of Strasbourg, Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (Equipe FRM to D.F.), Agence Nationale de la Recherche (DROSOGUT, ANR-11-EQPX-0022) and US NIH grant R01 AI085581 award to F.M.A.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

SH, AF, SL, and DF conceived the *Drosophila* experiments and analyzed the data. SH performed the majority of these experiments, with later work performed by AF with an input from SL; SS performed the precursor experiments that led to this work. Work on the septic injury model has been performed by JC, with some help from ZL. *ΔlasR*, ΔlasI, ΔrhlR and *ΔrhlI* that were constructed by ED and SY, except when indicated otherwise. AH and FMA conceived the *C. elegans* experiments and analyzed the data, which were obtained by AH. SH, DF, and FMA wrote the manuscript, with inputs from other co-authors.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors report no conflict of interests.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: *RhlR* displays a distinct phenotype from that of *rhlR* in the *Drosophila*
intestinal infection model.

Survival experiment of wild-type flies (*w*) fed on wild-type PA14 bacteria or Δ*rhlR* and Δ*rhlI*
mutants.

A. Representative survival curves of infected and noninfected (NI) flies. Flies died faster from
the infection with PA14 WT than Δ*rhlR* and Δ*rhlI*. Flies infected with Δ*rhlI* exhibited an
intermediate survival phenotype. One representative experiment out of seven is shown.
Statistical analysis of the data is shown in panel B.

B. Pooled LT_{50} data of wild-type flies (w^{A5001}) following intestinal infections with PA14 WT,
Δ*rhlR* or Δ*rhlI*. LT_{50} of flies after infection with PA14 WT was significantly lower than with
Δ*rhlR* (***p=0.0003) and ΔrhlI (*p=0.0385). Flies were significantly more susceptible to
infection with Δ*rhlI* than with Δ*rhlR* (**p=0.0047). The LT_{50} data from seven survival
experiments are displayed (biological duplicates are also shown as there was as much
variability between experiments as within experiments), red bars indicates medians. Statistics
have been performed using a non-parametric test (Mann Whitney).

C-D. Bacterial titer of the hemolymph collected from flies that had ingested wild-type or
mutant PA14 as indicated, three (C) and five (D) days after the ingestion of wild-type PA14
or mutants as indicated. In this series of experiments, flies infected with PA14 WT had started
to succumb by day five and were therefore not analyzed. Statistics have been performed using

the Mann Whitney test; medians are shown. p values for C are respectively from left to right:

0.003, 0.002, and 0.005. P<0.0001 for D.

E. Survival curves of wild-type and latex bead-injected flies after intestinal infection with

PA14 bacteria. In latex bead-injected flies Δ*rhlI* regains virulence. Note however that the shift

in virulence is of the same magnitude as that observed for wild-type PA14 and contrasts with

the large shift observed with Δ*rhlR*.

F. Pooled LT_{50} data of latex bead-injected flies (*w*-LXB) survival experiments. *w*-LxB flies

died significantly slower after Δ*rhlR* infection than with PA14 WT (**p=0.0065). A slight

decrease of virulence, but at the border of significance, was observed between PA14 WT and

Δ*rhlI* (p=0.0726). No difference in virulence was detected between Δ*rhlR* and Δ*rhlI*

(p=0.3056). Data represent the LT_{50}s from five experiments (biological duplicates are also

shown as there was as much variability between experiments as within experiments), red bars

indicates medians. Statistics have been performed using a non-parametric test (Mann

Whitney).

G. Pooled data of the difference of LT_{50}s between *w* and *w*-LXB flies after intestinal infection

with either PA14 WT, the Δ*rhlR* mutant or the Δ*rhlI* mutant. There is only a significant

difference between PA14 WT and the Δ*rhlR* mutant (*p=0.0244) but not the Δ*rhlI* mutant.

Data represent the LT50s from five experiments (biological duplicates are also shown as there

was as much variability between experiments as within experiments), red bars indicates

medians. Statistics have been performed using the Mann Whitney test.

H. Hill coefficients of latex bead-injected flies in PA14 infection. Hill coefficients give an

indication on the slope of the survival curves. Survival curves of *w*-LXB flies infected with

PA14 wild-type (PA14 WT) had a significant higher Hill coefficient than survival curves of

flies infected with Δ*rhlR* (**p=0.0092) or Δ*rhlI* (*p=0.0405). No significant difference in Hill

coefficient was detected between survival curves of flies infected with Δ*rhlR* or Δ*rhlI*

(p=0.6243). The results from three experiments are shown; red bars indicate medians. Mann

Whitney tests were used for all statistical analyses.

Figure 2: *rhlR* mutants are impaired in their ability to kill *C. elegans* and do not

colonize the *C. elegans* intestine.

A, an automated *C. elegans* life-span machine was used to monitor the survival of worms in a

P. aeruginosa-mediated killing "slow killing" assay (McEwan et al., 2016). Approximately

200 wild-type *C. elegans* nematodes were fed wild-type PA14, *ΔrhlI, or ΔrhlR PA14* mutants

(constructed in the Ausubel laboratory (au) or Bassler (bb) laboratories. P<0.001 (log-rank

test) for PA14 vs *ΔrhlI*, PA14 vs *ΔrhlR, or ΔrhlI vs ΔrhlR*. The experiment was repeated

twice with similar results.

B-E, *C. elegans* wild-type N2 animals were fed wild-type PA14, *ΔrhlI, or ΔrhlR PA14*

mutants (constructed in the Ausubel laboratory (B and D) or Bassler laboratories (C and E)

expressing GFP. At 48 h post infection, 13-18 worms infected with wild-type PA14 or the

ΔrhlI or *ΔrhlR* mutants were imaged in the green fluorescent channel.

B and C. Representative images are shown.

D and E. Images were quantified using ImageJ. There was a significant difference in the

levels of live bacteria between wild type PA14 and *ΔrhlR* (p = 0.034 (D) and 0.0097 (E)), and

there were significant differences between the *ΔrhlR* and *ΔrhlI* mutants (p = 0.0012 (D) and

0.0042 (E)), using a non-parametric Mann-Whitney test. The differences between *rhlI* and

wild-type PA14 were not significant (p = 0.16 (D) and p = 0.95 (E)). The experiments were

repeated at least two times with similar results.

Figure 3: Phagocytosis is required during the early stage of the infection in *Drosophila*.

A and B, Wild-type *Drosophila* were orally infected with wild-type PA14 expressing dsRed

(PA14-dsRed). After 4 days infected flies were transferred to tubes containing wild-type

PA14 expressing GFP (PA14-GFP). At 5 days of the infection (one day after transferring flies

to PA14-GFP), most PA14 bacteria in the *Drosophila* gut expressed dsRed and only 10%

expressed GFP (A). However, at 6 days (2 days after the transfer of flies to PA14-GFP), only

GFP positive bacteria were detected in the gut. Similarly, in the hemolymph of these flies, a

majority of PA14-dsRed were detected at 5 days but at 6 days only PA14-GFP were detected

in the hemolymph.

C, D and E, Measured LT_{50}s from survival experiments of flies after intestinal infection with

wild-type PA14 (C), *ΔrhlR* (D) or *ΔrhlI* (E) mutants and injection of either latex beads (LXB,

grey dots) or PBS (black dots) at different time points of the infection. Latex beads or PBS

were injected either one day before the infection started (-1d) or four hours (+4h), one day

(+1d), four days (+4d) or six days (+6d) after the infection started. White dots correspond to

the survival of infected, uninjected flies. (C) LT50s of w^{A5001}-LxB are significantly lower than

w^{A5001} only at -1d (**p=0.0086) and +4h (*p=0.0154). (D) LT_{50}s of *w*-LXB flies are

significantly lower than *w* at most times during the infection (-1d: ***p=0.0002, +4h:

***p=0.0002 and +4d: **p=0.0069). (D) A similar phenotype is observed with flies infected

with Δ*rhlI* (-1d: *p=0.0395, +4h: **p=0.0085, +1d: ***p=0.0002 and +4d: *p=0.0400). Note

however that for injections of latex beads at day4 the difference is reduced, as compared to

earlier time points of injection of latex-beads. The cumulative LT_{50} data from at least three

experiments (only two experiments for Δ*rhlI*) are shown, except for +d6; red bars indicates

medians. Statistical analyses were done with an unpaired t-test.

F. Difference of LT_{50}s between *w*-PBS and *w*^{A5001}-LXB flies after intestinal infection with

either PA14 WT, the Δ*rhlR* mutant *or the* Δ*rhlI* mutant. Data represent the differences of

LT_{50}s (*w*-PBS and *w*$^-$LxB) from at least two experiments, red bars indicates medians.

G. Guts of transgenic flies with GFP-labeled hemocytes were dissected in a manner that

preserves the association of hemocytes with the digestive tract and were examined by

fluorescence confocal microscopy. Green: GFP; blue: DAPI staining of nuclei. Scale bars:

100μM.

H. Analysis of hemocytes recruited to the fly intestine upon the infection with either wild-

type PA14, or Δ*rhlR* or Δ*rhlI* mutant bacteria. Both wild-type PA14 and the Δ*rhlR* or Δ*rhlI*

mutant bacteria induce a recruitment of hemocytes to the gut (4h after the beginning of the

infection, for each bacteria p<0.0001). At one day, there are slightly more hemocyte recruited

when infected with wild-type PA14 compared to the mutant. While at 3 days after the

beginning of the infection there are more hemocytes recruited when infected with the Δ*rhlR*

mutant bacteria (p=0.0025 between Δ*rhlR* and Δ*rhlI*). Data represent 3 pooled experiments.

Red bars represent the medians.

Figure 4: *RhlR* circumvents *Tep4*-mediated host defense

A and B. *Drosophila* wild-type flies (*w*^{A5001}), single mutants *Tep3* and *Tep4*, double mutant

Tep2,3 and triple mutant *Tep2,3,4* were orally infected with PA14 wild-type (A) or the Δ*rhlR*

mutant (B) in parallel experiments.

A. *Tep4* and *Tep2,3,4* mutant flies are significantly more susceptible to PA14 infection

compared to *w*^{A5001}. No difference in survival was detected between the *Tep2,3* mutant and

w^{A5001}. Surprisingly *Tep3* mutants seemed to be more resistant to infection. B, A strong

enhancement of Δ*rhlR* virulence is observed with *Tep4* and *Tep2,3,4* mutants compared to

w^{A5001} flies. *Tep2,3* and *w*^{A5001} exhibited nearly the same rate of death when challenged with

Δ*rhlR* . The *Tep3* mutant seemed again to be more resistant to the infection. In A and B, one

representative experiment out of three (each with biological triplicates, except for uninfected

flies) is shown.

C. The survival of *Tep4* flies infected with PA14 WT, Δ*rhlR*, Δ*rhlI* bacteria was examined.

Three independent experiments have been performed, each with three biological replicates,

and one representative experiment is shown.

D. Quantification of the experiments shown in PanelC. The triplicates were assessed as

independent experiments as there was as much variability between experiments as within

experiments. p values comparing the LT_{50}s of mutants versus PA14 WT are from left to right:

0.07, 0.003. (Mann-Whitney test).

E. Difference of LT_{50}s between *w* and *Tep4* flies after intestinal infection with either PA14

WT, Δ*rhlR*, or Δ*rhlI* bacteria. p values comparing the LT_{50}s of mutants versus PA14 WT :

*** : p<0.0001 (Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 5: Tep4 is required for phagocytosis of *rhlR* mutant bacteria

A. Heat-killed pHrodo®-labeled bacteria of the indicated genotype were injected into either

wild-type or *Tep4* third instar larvae and incubated for 45 minutes. The hemocytes were then

retrieved. Bacteria present in phagosomes were fluorescent and used to measure the

phagocytic index. Bacteria injected into *Tep4* were significantly less phagocytosed than those

injected into wild-type larvae: p<0.0001 for PA14 WT and p=0.04 for Δ*rhlR* (Mann-Whitney

test). Medians are shown.

B. The experiment is similar to that shown in A, except that live bacteria were used and a

differential antibody staining protein was used to reveal phagocytosed bacteria. PA14 WT,

Δ*rhlR*, Δ*rhlI* bacteria were injected in wild-type or *Tep4* larvae. Δ*rhlR* bacteria were more

readily phagocytosed than PA14 WT both by wild-type (p=0.01) or *Tep4* (p=0.04) hemocytes

(Mann-Whitney test). Medians are shown.

Figure 6: Tep4 is an opsonin that preferentially detects *rhlR* over *rhlI* mutant bacteria.

A. Scheme of the experimental procedure. Live bacteria were incubated with either wild-type

or *Tep4* hemolymph and were thereafter injected into naive larvae, which were either wild-

type or *Tep4*. The phagocytosis index was then measured as in Fig. 6B.

B-E. Bacteria pre-incubated with wild-type or *Tep4* hemolymph are represented in pairs,

respectively with filled (left) and open (right) circles. Medians are shown. Data were analyzed

using the Mann-Whitney test. ***: $p<0.0001$

B. PA14 WT, Δ*rhlR*, and Δ*rhlI* bacteria were injected into wild-type larvae. Stars above

symbols report the statistical significance of the data when compared to PA14 WT. **:

$p=0.007$

D. PA14 WT, Δ*rhlR*, and Δ*rhlI* bacteria were injected into *Tep4* larvae. **: $p=0.01$

C, E. These panels display respectively a magnification of B and D to show the low

phagocytic index associated with PA14 WT uptake.

Figure 7: *Tep4* mutants are more resistant to a systemic infection with PA14

A and B. The survival of wild-type and *Tep4* flies was examined, after injection of PBS as a

non-infected control (NI), or 10, 100, 1000 cfus of PA14 WT (A) or PA14 Δ*rhlR* (B) bacteria.

C. Relative *Diptericin* expression was measured by RT-qPCR in wild-type and *Tep4* flies, 2,

8 or 24h after injection of PBS (NI), or 10, 100, 1000 cfus of PA14 WT bacteria. Each

experiment was performed independently three times and a representative experiment is

shown (A-C).

D. The cleavage of the prophenol oxidase have been analyzed 2 hours after injection of 1000

cfus of PA14 WT bacteria or PBS, by Western-blotting using a pan-phenol oxidase antibody.

The intensity of the prophenol oxidase (PPO) and of the cleaved active phenol oxidase

(activated PO) bands was measured and the ratio of the measurements is shown below the

blot.