Title: MAPK/ERK Activation in Macrophages Promotes *Leishmania*

Internalization and Pathogenesis

Running title: ERK1/2 facilitates *Leishmania* internalization

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Keywords: *Leishmania*, kinase, MAPK/ERK, parasite, macrophage

Abbreviations: BCA, Bicinchoninic acid; BMDM, bone marrow-derived

macrophages; CC, cytotoxic concentration; CR3, complement receptor 3; FcγR,

Fc gamma Receptor; h, hour; IC, inhibitory concentration; IL, Interleukin; INFγ,

Interferon gamma; Mϕ, macrophage; m, minutes; MAPK/ERK, Mitogen-activated

protein kinases/Extracellular signal regulated kinases; PKC, Protein Kinase C;

PVDF, polyvinylidene difluoride; RAF, Rapidly Accelerated Fibrosarcoma; RIPA,

radioimmunoprecipitation assay; p-, phosphorylated; PMA, Phorbol 12-myristate

13-acetate; SD, standard deviation; SFK, Src family kinases; SYK, spleen

tyrosine kinase; TNF, Tumor Necrosis Factor

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ABSTRACT: The obligate intracellular protozoan parasite *Leishmania* binds

several host cell receptors to trigger its uptake by phagocytic cells, ultimately

resulting in visceral or cutaneous leishmaniasis. After *Leishmania* engages

receptors on macrophages and other phagocytes, a series of signaling pathways

in the host cell are activated during its internalization, which are critical for

establishment and persistence of *Leishmania* infection. Thus, preventing

Leishmania internalization by phagocytes could be a novel therapeutic strategy

for leishmaniasis. However, the host cellular machinery that mediates

promastigote and amastigote uptake is not well understood. Here, using small-

molecule inhibitors of Mitogen-activated protein kinases/Extracellular signal

regulated kinases (MAPK/ERK), we demonstrate that ERK1/2 mediates

Leishmania amazonensis uptake and (to a lesser extent) phagocytosis of beads

by macrophages. We find that inhibition of MEK1/2 or ERK1/2 leads to inefficient

amastigote uptake by macrophages. Moreover, using inhibitors and primary

macrophages lacking spleen tyrosine kinase (SYK) or Abl family kinases, we

show that SYK and Abl family kinases mediate Raf, MEK, and ERK1/2 activity

and are necessary for efficient uptake. Finally, we demonstrate that trametinib, a

MEK1/2 inhibitor used clinically to treat certain cancers, significantly reduces

disease severity and parasite burden in *Leishmania*-infected mice, even if it is

started significantly after lesions develop. Our results show that maximal

Leishmania infection requires MAPK/ERK and highlight the potential for

MAPK/ERK-mediated signaling pathways to be novel therapeutic targets for

leishmaniasis.

Author (lay) summary: *Leishmania* is a single-celled parasite that causes skin ulcers or a disseminated disease in humans. Our goal is to identify new drugs to treat *Leishmania* infection. *Leishmania* must live inside human immune cells to cause disease. If *Leishmania* is not able to enter human immune cells, it dies. Our studies demonstrate how *Leishmania* infection stimulates a set of proteins called MAP kinases, which pass signals from one protein to the next within mammalian immune cells. The resulting signals allow *Leishmania* to enter into these immune cells and survive within its host. Importantly, a drug that prevents these signals from MAP kinases, called trametinib, decreases the development of skin ulcers when it is given to mice that are infected with *Leishmania*. Our findings suggest that *Leishmania* could be treated with drugs that act on kinases found in humans rather than the parasites themselves.

One sentence summary: An Abl2-SYK-Raf-MEK-ERK pathway facilitates *Leishmania* uptake by phagocytic cells and promotes disease severity in *Leishmania*-infected mice.

INTRODUCTION

Leishmania spp. are obligate intracellular, protozoan parasites spread by the sand fly vector [1], causing leishmaniasis, a group of diseases ranging from self-healing cutaneous ulcers [2] to deadly disseminated visceral disease [3]. Leishmaniasis represents a major global health problem, since over 12 million people currently suffer from this disease. Approximately 2 million people are newly infected by *Leishmania* spp. annually [4]. Moreover, over 350 million people in 98 countries worldwide are at risk of developing leishmaniasis [4, 5], and the disease is now spreading into previously non-endemic areas, including the United States [6, 7]. *Leishmania*, particularly the species causing cutaneous disease, are understudied, and current treatments are few, expensive, poorly effective, and toxic. Resistance is also emerging [8-11]. Thus, identifying new drugs with novel mechanisms of action that circumvent resistance mechanisms is an urgent priority for effective drug development.

When an infected sand fly encounters its host, *Leishmania* promastigotes must be internalized by phagocytic cells such as macrophages (Mϕ) in order to persist in the host [12, 13]. This process is then repeated as the mammalian life cycle stage, the amastigote, replicates and spreads to other phagocytic cells to cause pathogenesis [14]. Amastigotes that do not enter phagocytic cells are thought to be cleared by the host immune system and/or die from lack of essential nutrients [14]. Based on prior studies, the Fcγ classes of receptors (FcγR) are the primary receptors on the host cell surface that permit amastigote uptake [14]. Major

advancements have been made in understanding the immunomodulatory events

involved in the pathogenesis of leishmaniasis. However, little is known about the

basic molecular events underlying the signaling events, especially the host

cellular pathways, which facilitate the receptor-mediated uptake of *Leishmania* by

Mϕ and other phagocytes.

Our previous studies have identified the Src [15] family kinases (SFK, and

specifically Hck, Fgr, and Lyn), Abl1 (Abl) and Abl2 (Arg) [16] kinases, and

Spleen Tyrosine Kinase (SYK) [17] as major protein families involved in

phagocytosis. Specifically, we have demonstrated that Abl facilitates

complement-mediated phagocytosis, and Arg enhances immunoglobulin/ FcγR-

mediated phagocytosis [15, 16]. Modulation of these kinases via genetic

manipulation or small molecule inhibitors abrogates *L. amazonensis*

internalization by Mϕ, and thus limits disease progression in mice [15, 16].

However, our studies also indicate that these kinases have a limited role in the

host's immune response to *Leishmania* or parasite clearance [15, 16]. A drug

that simultaneously decreases parasite uptake, limits parasite survival, and

promotes immunological responses that are advantageous to the host could

provide added advantages to reduce infection and disease burden. Host-cell

active agents also could be used to combat other intracellular pathogens that

employ similar uptake mechanisms.

Exactly how SFK, Abl family kinases, and SYK would regulate the events that

occur during *Leishmania* uptake and phagocytosis has not been fully established.

Others and we have demonstrated that CrkII is activated after signals have been

relayed from SFK to Arg to SYK, leading to actin-rich phagocytic cup formation

and pathogen uptake [15-18]. Interestingly, studies have been published

primarily in cancer model systems indicating that SFK [19], Abl family kinases,

and SYK [18, 20, 21] also can activate MAPK/ERK signaling. MAPK/ERK are

known to directly phosphorylate cytoplasmic or nuclear proteins, including

transcription factors, that control several fundamental cellular processes from

proliferation and differentiation to innate and adaptive immune responses [22-24].

In addition, Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) is known to activate

MAPK/ERK through protein kinase C (PKC) [25].

It is not clear whether MAPK/ERK signaling would mediate the uptake of

Leishmania parasites. Previous studies have shown that MAPK/ERK signaling

modulates the immune response to *Leishmania* infection to favor chronic

infection, where subversion of MAPK/ERK signaling leads to parasite survival

inside phagocytic cells [26-30]. Correspondingly, limiting MAPK activity using the

older-generation MAPK inhibitors PD98059 or U0126 has been shown to

enhance *L. amazonensis* killing by activating reactive oxygen species (ROS) and

repressing IL-10 production [18, 31-33]. These results implicate ERK1/2

phosphorylation as a mechanism through which the parasite promotes

persistence and subverts the immune response [18]. However, experiments

characterizing the role of MAPK/ERK signaling during parasite uptake by Mφ

have not been conducted.

Here, we uncover a new role for MAPK/ERK during *Leishmania* internalization. We

show that Raf-1, MEK1/2, and ERK1/2 activity are necessary for efficient uptake of

amastigotes. Host MAPK/ERK is activated by Arg and SYK to facilitate this process.

In combination with prior results [15-18], our molecular studies elucidate an FcγR-

SFK-Arg-SYK-Raf-MEK-ERK signaling relay as a major pathway involved in

establishment of leishmaniasis by facilitating parasite uptake. In addition, using a

mouse model, we establish that trametinib, a selective MEK inhibitor that is clinically

approved to treat cancer, decreases footpad swelling and parasite burden in

cutaneous leishmaniasis, even if it is started significantly after lesions are apparent.

Our experiments highlight MAPK/ERK inhibitors as potential new treatment

modalities for this devastating disease.

RESULTS

MAPK/ERK signaling in Mϕ facilitates *Leishmania* uptake

To directly test whether the MAPK/ERK pathway mediates *Leishmania* uptake,

we first explored the effect of the MEK1/2 inhibitor trametinib on the uptake of *L.*

amazonensis. We can grow both promastigotes and amastigotes of this species

in tissue culture without host cells (*i.e.*, axenic culture), which facilitates our

studies of *Leishmania* uptake by Mϕ. Trametinib is a highly selective and potent

MEK1/2 inhibitor, with an IC_{50} for the purified kinase ranging from 0.92 nM to 3.4

nM in cell-free assays [34, 35]. Trametinib has no effect on the kinase activity of

c-Raf, B-Raf, or ERK1/2. We pretreated RAW 264.7 cells, a Mϕ–like cell line, for

2 hours (h) with trametinib or imatinib, an Abl/Arg inhibitor with an IC_{50} of 100-500

nM in kinase assays [35], as a positive control. We then added *Leishmania* to

samples to allow uptake and processed for immunofluorescence microscopy.

Visually, trametinib decreased the uptake of IgG-opsonized amastigotes in RAW

264.7 cells, comparable to the reductions seen after treatment with imatinib (**Fig.**

1A). Defects in internalization were quantified by calculating the phagocytic index

(PI), or number of internalized parasites per 100 Mϕ, which was lower in

trametinib-treated samples (**Fig 1B**). No differences were seen in the total

(external + internal) number of *Leishmania* per 100 RAW 264.7 cells, which is

termed an adhesion index, among these conditions (**Fig. 1C**). We performed a

titration of trametinib's effects on amastigote uptake, and the maximal reduction

in PI was shown at 1 µM trametinib (**Fig. 1D, E).** We also determined that over

72 h, the CC_{50} (cytotoxic concentration required to kill 50% of viable cells) for

RAW 264.7 cells was greater than our maximum concentration of 2.5 µM.

Internalization defects remained even after prolonged incubation in trametinib (up

to 240 minutes, m) and were not due to reduced adhesion, as amastigotes

continued to be bound to trametinib-treated RAW 264.7 cells at levels

indistinguishable from controls (**Fig. 1F, G**). We characterized growth curves and

found that trametinib showed no impact on cell viability and motility of parasites

in culture (**Fig 1H**). Treating Mφ with other MAPK/ERK pathway inhibitors [36]

such as selumetinib and PD0325901 (MEK1/2 inhibitors), as well as SCH772984

(an ERK1/2 inhibitor), also significantly reduced amastigote uptake without

affecting adhesion (**Supplemental Fig. 1A, B**). In addition, we found that treating

RAW 264.7 cells with the MEK1/2 inhibitor PD0325901 [37] decreased the

internalization of promastigotes to a degree that was comparable to treatment

with imatinib (**Supplemental Fig. 1C, D**). Together, these similar results using

multiple MAPK/ERK inhibitors establish that targeting MEK1/2 and ERK1/2

significantly attenuates internalization of both *L. amazonensis* life cycle stages.

cRaf, MEK1/2, and ERK1/2 are activated during amastigote uptake

Having established that MAPK/ERK are important for *Leishmania* uptake, we

assessed whether kinases in this pathway were activated in host cells during

amastigote internalization. Raf-1 (cRaf), MEK1/2, and ERK1/2 are key members of

the MAPK/ERK pathway [24, 38]. We thus measured cRaf, MEK1/2, and ERK1/2

phosphorylation in RAW 264.7 cells to examine the relative phosphorylation level of

each kinase during internalization of amastigotes. Essentially no phosphorylated

ERK or ERK was detected in amastigote samples (**Supplemental Fig. 1E**).

However, amastigotes potently induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation in Mφ, with

phosphorylation levels increasing by 3 and 4.5-fold at 10- and 30-minutes post-

infection, respectively (**Fig. 2A**). Similarly, MEK1/2 (**Fig. 2B**) and cRaf (**Fig. 2C**)

were activated by amastigotes that were entering host cells**.** These data indicate that

amastigotes rapidly activate MAPK/ERK in a sustained fashion during their uptake

by Mφ.

PMA rescues MAPK/ERK related uptake defects

PMA is known to activate ERK1/2 through PKC, with an IC_{50} of 11.7 nM against

purified kinase [25]. Consistent with this, although PKC activation was seen during

the uptake of amastigotes, PMA treatment increased PKC phosphorylation in RAW

264.7 cells to 8-fold higher levels (**Fig. 3A, B**). Importantly, 10 µM PMA did not affect

growth of amastigotes in culture (**Fig. 3C**), indicating that it does not act directly on

Leishmania. We next investigated whether PMA affected amastigote internalization.

To perform these experiments, and to confirm our prior results from a cell line using

primary cells, we isolated bone marrow derived-Mφ (BMDM) from C57BL/6 mice.

PMA-treated BMDM were able to internalize IgG-coated amastigotes at higher levels

than DMSO-treated BMDM in a dose-dependent manner, reaching maximal

internalization at 2.5 µM PMA (**Fig. 3D-F**). Furthermore, PMA treatment rescued

trametinib inhibition of *Leishmania* uptake in BMDM to PI that were indistinguishable

from those of DMSO-treated controls (**Fig. 3G, H**). Collectively, our data indicate that

ERK1/2 kinase activity is necessary for maximal *Leishmania* uptake.

ERK1/2 is activated by Arg/Abl and SYK during amastigote uptake

Next, we investigated the mechanism by which *L. amazonensis* amastigotes induced

ERK1/2 phosphorylation during their uptake. Previous research has shown that Arg

facilitates *Leishmania* amastigote uptake downstream of SFK [15]. In addition,

inhibition of SYK, a tyrosine kinase implicated in FcγR immunoglobulin-mediated

signaling [17, 18, 39, 40] reduces ERK1/2 activation in a dose-dependent manner in

other systems [18, 41]. To test for roles for these kinases, small molecule inhibitors

(imatinib, entospletinib [IC_{50} for activity against purified SYK = 7.7 nM] [41],

SCH772984, trametinib), and PMA were added to RAW 264.7 cells before infection

with amastigotes. Inhibition of Arg and SYK with imatinib and entospletinib,

respectively, significantly reduced ERK1/2 phosphorylation, to a similar degree to

the MAPK/ERK inhibitors SCH772984 and trametinib (**Fig. 4A, B**). As expected,

PMA, the positive control, significantly increased ERK1/2 phosphorylation (**Fig. 4A,
B**). The inhibitors and activators followed similar trends for promastigote-induced

ERK activity (**Supplemental Fig. 1F**). Thus, we could modulate *Leishmania*-induced

ERK activity by both inhibitors and activators *in vitro*.

To further characterize the role of SYK and Arg in *Leishmania*-induced ERK

phosphorylation, we next isolated BMDMs from mice lacking Abl family kinases

($Arg^{-/-}Abl^{flox/flox}LysM\ Cre^{+}$ [termed $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ when discussing isolated BMDM]),

SYK ($SYK^{flox/flox}\ Cre^{+}$, abbreviated $SYK^{-/-}$ when referring to isolated BMDM) or wild

type (*WT*) littermates. We have previously shown that amastigote uptake is

dependent upon Arg but not Abl [15-16]. Our immunoblots showed $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ and

$SYK^{-/-}$ BMDM nearly completely lack Arg or SYK, respectively, while ERK1/2

expression was maintained (**Supplemental Fig. 1G**). Consistent with our chemical

inhibition experiments, $SYK^{-/-}$ and $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM limited amastigote-mediated

ERK1/2 phosphorylation, demonstrating that SYK and Arg/Abl are necessary for

stimulating ERK1/2 phosphorylation following engagement of the FcγR (**Fig. 4C, D**).

At low doses (250 nM), PMA rescued ERK1/2 activity in $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ and $SYK^{-/-}$

BMDM. This suggested 1) amastigotes operate through a distinct pathway to

activate ERK1/2 compared to PMA, which activates MAPK/ERK through PKC [25]

and 2) during FcγR-mediated amastigote infection, Arg and SYK family kinases are

upstream of MAPK/ERK and are necessary to activate the MAPK/ERK pathway.

To directly test whether Abl family kinases are critical for ERK1/2-mediated

amastigote uptake, we treated *WT* and $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM with DMSO or PMA prior

to infection with IgG-opsonized amastigotes. We found that $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM

displayed defects in IgG-mediated amastigote uptake, while PMA treatment partially

rescued these defects (**Fig. 4E-G**), returning uptake to 66.4 ± 16.6% (mean ± SD)

compared to 29.3 ± 0.9% with DMSO. Similarly, SYK was necessary for efficient

amastigote uptake, and the decreased PI of $SYK^{-/-}$ BMDM was partially rescued by

PMA treatment (**Supplemental Fig. 1H, I**). Taken together, these results, in

combination with prior data, are consistent with a signaling pathway in which Arg/Abl

and SYK act upstream of and activate the ERK1/2 pathway (which is at least partly

independent from PKC) to facilitate amastigote uptake [25].

MAPK/ERK inhibition minimally impacts phagocytosis of opsonized beads

$Arg^{-/-}$ BMDM have been shown to have impaired FcR-mediated phagocytosis

overall, as demonstrated using IgG-coated (opsonized) beads [16]. Thus, we

hypothesized that the Arg-SYK-ERK pathway may be necessary for the general

process of phagocytosis, in addition to amastigote uptake. To delineate the specific

contributions of MAPK/ERK to phagocytosis, we examined bead uptake compared

to amastigote uptake by RAW 264.7 cells. Surprisingly, phagocytosis of IgG-

opsonized beads by RAW 264.7 cells was minimally affected by trametinib (**Fig. 5A,**

B) or SCH772984 (**Supplemental Fig. 1J, K),** both of which resulted in only a ~30%

reduction in uptake. Conversely, the uptake of IgG-coated amastigotes (**Fig. 1)** was

reduced by ~70% with trametinib treatment. However, when RAW 264.7 cells were

treated with imatinib, similar decreases in phagocytosis of IgG-opsonized beads

versus amastigotes were observed. These results suggest that Arg/Abl play a more

generalized role in phagocytosis, as we have demonstrated previously [16].

Collectively, our data suggest that ERK1/2 activation is important for *Leishmania*

uptake specifically but may play a minor role in standard phagocytic mechanisms.

We also tested whether MAPK/ERK activity was induced following addition of beads

compared to amastigotes. Beads induced ERK1/2 phosphorylation, but to levels that

were lower than in seen during amastigote uptake (**Fig 5C, D**). This phosphorylation

occurred in a time-dependent fashion, such that activation reached maximal levels

between 5 and 10 m, and ERK1/2 phosphorylation was not detectable after 30 m

(**Fig. 5C, D**). Similarly, beads activated upstream kinases MEK1/2 (**Fig. 5E, F)** and

cRaf (**Fig. 5G, H**); however, their phosphorylation was not sustained. Thus, in

contrast to the sustained activation of MAPK/ERK that we saw during amastigote

uptake, beads had only a transient effect on ERK1/2 activation.

Trametinib decreases lesion size and parasite burden in a murine model of

cutaneous leishmaniasis. To test whether the MAPK/ERK pathway is necessary

for *Leishmania* pathogenesis *in vivo*, we employed a C57BL/6 mouse model of

cutaneous leishmaniasis using *L. amazonensis.* Footpad swelling (*i.e.*, lesion size)

was measured in infected mice treated with 2 mg/kg of body weight/day of oral

trametinib or drug vehicle (control) starting 7 days (d) before inoculation and

continuing for the experimental duration of 14-16 weeks (w) [15, 16] (**Fig. 6A**).

Compared to controls, trametinib-treated mice had smaller lesions develop (**Fig.**

6B), which contained fewer parasites in lesions (**Fig. 6C**). The decreased number of

parasites found within lesions may help to explain these changes in lesion size.

Overall, in leishmaniasis, as a simplified paradigm, a Th1 response is thought to

be beneficial to the host, while a Th2 response is typically considered to be

deleterious. To determine whether the immunological effects of MEK1/2 inhibition

were associated with the healing seen in trametinib-treated mice, we isolated

draining lymph nodes from infected DMSO and trametinib-treated mice. We then

profiled cytokine and chemokine secretion after stimulation with high (1×10^6) or

low (1×10^5) doses of *L. amazonensis* lysates [42, 43] compared to

unstimulated. A mild shift in the overall ratio of Th1 to Th2 cytokines (Th1/Th2)

towards a Th2 phenotype in trametinib-treated mice was seen (**Table 1**). Notably,

lymph nodes extracted from trametinib-treated mice released lower quantities of

nearly all cytokines in response to *L. amazonensis* than those isolated from

diluent-treated animals (**Table 2**). Trametinib-treated mice also demonstrated

decreased cytokine production in response to concanavalin A (Con A)

stimulation. In addition, we assessed chemokine secretion following MEK1/2

inhibition. The production of several chemokines implicated in *Leishmania*

pathogenesis, including MIP-1α (CCL3) and MCP-1 (CCL2), were significantly

decreased with trametinib (**Table 2**), consistent with the decrease in

cytokines/chemokines overall.

We further tested whether MEK1/2 inhibition with trametinib reduces pathogenesis

after the development of symptoms by infecting mice as above. However, we started

diluent vs trametinib at 6 w after inoculation (*i.e.*, once lesions were clearly visible)

and continued therapy for the remaining experimental duration (**Fig. 6D**). Even with

this delayed treatment, trametinib-treated mice reproducibly had smaller lesions

(**Fig. 6E**). They also had significantly lower parasite burdens than those of controls

(**Fig. 6F**), which at least in part may explain these results. We also saw similar

immunological responses in mice treated with trametinib initiated partway through

the experiment as we did for the mice treated prior to *Leishmania* infection

(**Supplemental Table 1, Supplemental Table 2**). Overall, our findings demonstrate

that trametinib administration limits the manifestations of leishmaniasis in a mouse

model, even if it is started after lesions develop.

DISCUSSION

Here, we have shown that efficient *Leishmania* uptake by Mφ and infection in mice

requires MAPK/ERK. While previous studies have shown that ERK1/2 activation

post-infection by *Leishmania* alters various host signaling pathways, leading to

increased intracellular survival and replication of these parasites [33, 44], our results

establish an earlier role for host ERK1/2 activity during the *Leishmania* life cycle, and

show that ERK1/2 is necessary for *Leishmania* uptake into Mφ. In combination with

prior data, we propose a model whereby, following engagement of the FcγR, host

Arg/Abl and SYK stimulate Raf, MEK, and ERK1/2 phosphorylation, leading to

amastigote uptake (**Fig. 6G**). Moreover, *in vivo* inhibition of MEK1/2 by trametinib in

a mouse model of cutaneous leishmaniasis significantly limits lesion development

and parasite burden, even when trametinib is started after these lesions have

developed. Our results highlight a critical role for MAPK/ERK signaling in

Leishmania uptake and further the prior studies of its role in the pathogenesis of

leishmaniasis.

Our data indicate that Arg/Abl and SYK are required for amastigote-mediated

ERK1/2 phosphorylation following FcR receptor activation, which has not been

demonstrated previously. Our prior studies of host signaling required for *Leishmania*

uptake revealed that amastigotes bind directly to FcγR [45] and activate SFK-Arg

pathways [15] to induce uptake. We conclude from our combined results that an

FcγR -SFK-Arg-SYK signaling pathway functions upstream of and activates

MAPK/ERK family kinases. Interestingly, pharmacological inhibition of MEK1/2 and

ERK1/2 in RAW 264.7 cells significantly reduces, but does not completely abolish,

Leishmania uptake. One explanation for these results is that kinase inhibition via

these compounds may be incomplete. Another is that *Leishmania* uptake may be

mediated via additional host signaling pathways. Supporting the latter hypothesis,

we find that low or sub-EC_{50} doses of PMA, which activates ERK1/2 through an

SFK-Arg-SYK-independent manner, rescues trametinib inhibition of *Leishmania*

amastigote uptake in RAW 264.7 cells, as well as in $SYK^{-/-}$ and $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM.

PMA is a known activator of PKC [25, 46-50]. However, we find that PKC activity is

only slightly increased during amastigote infection of WT/DMSO-treated Mϕ,

suggesting that PKC may play only a minor role during typical amastigote uptake.

Ongoing work in the laboratory is directed at uncovering additional novel uptake

mechanisms for *Leishmania*. In addition, although drug combinations typically are

not used to treat leishmaniasis, they are the standard of care for many other

infections, such as HIV or tuberculosis. Combination therapy with multiple kinase

inhibitors to inhibit several uptake modulators at once may provide additional benefit

for the treatment of leishmaniasis over single host cell kinase inhibitors alone.

Our data using MEK/ERK inhibitors indicate that there are differences in MAPK/ERK

signaling within Mϕ depending on whether *Leishmania* amastigotes or IgG-coated

beads are undergoing internalization. These results differ from most available

literature that concludes that *Leishmania* primarily hijacks ongoing phagocytic

pathways to facilitate its uptake. We instead suggest that there may be alternative,

perhaps partly redundant, pathways that may support the uptake of *Leishmania* over

the phagocytosis of beads, and vice versa. Our future experiments will compare and

contrast the signaling pathways required for these different uptake mechanisms

between opsonized beads and *Leishmania* parasites.

Our experiments using a mouse model for *Leishmania* infection, in combination with

prior studies [18], show that MAPK/ERK are required for maximal *Leishmania*

pathogenesis during cutaneous leishmaniasis. Given that trametinib has no direct

effect on parasite growth in culture, one highly plausible explanation for the

decreased lesion size and parasite burden that we see in trametinib-treated mice is

our previously documented inhibition of *Leishmania* uptake. Consistent with this

hypothesis, fewer parasites are found in lesions from trametinib-treated mice than in

control mice. Alternately, lesion size variations after *L. amazonensis* infection might

result from trametinib limitation of host inflammatory and immunological responses.

Many pathogens hinder immune responses by targeting host intracellular signaling

pathways, including MAPK pathways [49, 51]; and MAPK have been shown to play

roles in the immune response to leishmaniasis [18, 26-33]. The murine immune

response to leishmaniasis is complicated and varies depending on the species of

Leishmania and the mouse strain used. As a simplified paradigm, Th1 responses

are generally protective, but Th2 responses are harmful to the host [26, 29, 30]. We

find that cytokines assessed following *Leishmania* antigen stimulation in lymph

nodes isolated from infected trametinib-treated mice are reduced from the levels

seen in diluent-treated mice. One possible explanation is that fewer cytokines are

generated because the lesions contained fewer parasites. Another is that trametinib

could instead dampen pathways important for maintaining an active inflammatory

response to the ongoing host response to infection. Supporting this second

possibility, cytokines measured after Con A stimulation (an antigen-independent

mitogen used as an alternative T cell stimulus) are significantly reduced by MEK1/2

inhibition. Overall, the moderate shift in the total ratio of Th1 to Th2 cytokines

(Th1/Th2) toward a Th2 phenotype that we see theoretically should exacerbate

disease rather than alleviate it. Reduced levels of proinflammatory chemokines like

MIP-1 (CCL3) and MCP-1 (CCL2), on the other hand, may be responsible for

reducing lesion size by restricting the number of immune cells, especially phagocytic

cells, which reach the site of infection. We do note a surprisingly strong IL-10

response in the trametinib-treated mice, considering that ERK activation has been

shown to be required for IL-10 production by *Leishmania*-infected Mɸ [52]. However,

others have found that trametinib treatment increases IL-10 production in mouse

tissues [53]. Further work is needed to delineate the regulation of immune responses

to *Leishmania* infection and the resulting effects on lesion worsening versus healing.

Finally, and of particular interest, we have demonstrated that there are reductions

in lesion size and parasite burden if trametinib therapy is used in a *L.*

amazonensis mouse model of cutaneous leishmaniasis, even if it is started after

foot swelling has developed. Compared to our previous results, the data shown

here strongly suggest that trametinib is more effective for reducing lesion size

than imatinib [16] or bosutinib [15], which target signaling molecules in the same

pathway. Trametinib is used clinically to treat several cancers, making it feasible

that this drug could be repurposed to treat an infectious disease, and facilitating

potential clinical trials for its use against leishmaniasis. Our data imply that

inhibiting a signaling pathway downstream of SFK-Arg-SYK might improve

results over inhibiting kinases upstream in the pathway. Our results also give

credence to our overarching hypothesis that targeting host cell pathways,

particularly ones that are required for multiple aspects of the parasite life cycle

and pathogenesis, may permit treatment of an infectious disease such as

leishmaniasis.

In summary, we have demonstrated that Arg-SYK signaling through MAPK/ERK

facilitates *Leishmania* uptake by Mϕ. Furthermore, ERK activity helps govern the

subsequent pathogenesis and disease progression of leishmaniasis in the mouse

model. Due to the relative specificity of newer-generation MAPK/ERK small

molecule inhibitors like trametinib, it is possible to selectively target MEK1/2 and

ERK1/2 for potential therapeutic intervention. Our findings demonstrate the

significance of MAPK/ERK signaling during *Leishmania* entry into phagocytic cells

and suggest additional therapeutic methods for leishmaniasis. Our future studies will

investigate the use of host-cell-active drugs, potentially in conjunction with other

kinase inhibitors or existing antiparasitics, to improve efficacy, decrease toxicity, and

limit the likelihood of developing resistance. Although trametinib is not completely

without side effects, this combination strategy could be used to mitigate any risk of

toxicity arising due to targeting essential signaling pathways. Furthermore, our

results support the novel possibility that medications that target conserved host cell

processes rather than infectious pathogens might be employed to treat a wide

spectrum of intracellular pathogens.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Mice. C57BL/6 mice were procured from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME).

Syk$^{flox/flox}$ Cre$^+$ and *Arg$^{-/-}$Abl$^{flox/flox}$ LysM Cre$^+$* mice are either on a pure C57BL/6

background (SYK) [17] or have been backcrossed to C57BL/6 mice at least 5 times

(Abl/Arg) [15, 16]. All the experiments involving knockout mice were conducted with

WT littermates to ensure control for their genetic background. The Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee at University of Texas Southwestern Medical

Center provided approval for all experimental protocols.

Mammalian cell culture. RAW 264.7 cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA) were cultured in

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) plus 10% endotoxin-free, heat-

inactivated, fetal bovine serum (FBS) (GeminiBio, Sacramento, CA) and 1%

penicillin–streptomycin as described previously [15]. FBS was checked for LPS

contamination using a highly sensitive Pierce™ Chromogenic Endotoxin Quant Kit

(Thermo Scientific, Cat No. A39552), and was found to be endotoxin negative (< 0.1

EU/ml). For experiments with BMDM, cells were obtained from the humeri, tibias,

and femurs of *WT, Syk$^{flox/flox}$ Cre$^+$*, or *Arg$^{-/-}$Abl$^{flox/flox}$ LysM-Cre$^+$* mice. They were

differentiated to *WT, SYK$^{-/-}$*, and *Arg$^{-/-}$Abl$^{-/-}$* BMDM by culturing them in DMEM,

10% FBS, and 20% L929 cell supernatant over 7 days. Differentiation to Mϕ was

confirmed [16] and samples were screened for *Mycoplasma* contamination [54].

Parasite culture. *L. amazonensis* promastigotes (strain IFLA/BR/67/PH8,

provided by Norma W. Andrews, University of Maryland, College Park, MD) were

maintained at 26°C in Schneider's Drosophila medium (Sigma, S9895, St. Louis,

MO) plus 15% FBS and 1% penicillin–streptomycin [15, 16]. *L. amazonensis*

amastigotes were grown axenically at 32°C in Schneider's Drosophila medium at

pH 5.5, plus 20% FBS, 1% penicillin–streptomycin, 0.1% hemin (25 mg/mL in

50% triethanolamine), 10 mM adenine, 5 mM L-glutamine, 0.25% glucose, 0.5%

trypticase, and 40 mM sodium succinate (all from Sigma) [15, 16]. For uptake

(internalization of amastigotes and promastigotes) assays, promastigotes were

incubated for 7 days to maximize infective metacyclics (*i.e.*, those isolated

through a step Percoll gradient; Sigma). Amastigotes typically were grown

axenically for 5 days prior to use [16]. To assess for amastigote growth and

replication defects during incubation in MEK/ERK activators or inhibitors, medium

containing 10 µM trametinib (Selleck Chemicals, Houston, TX), PMA (Selleck

Chemicals), or 0.1% Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma) was used. To ensure

infectivity, parasites were periodically passed in C57/BL6 mice prior to isolation

of amastigotes from footpad lesions. A transgenic stable mNeonGreen

expressing line of *L. amazonensis* parasites (*L. amazonensis*-mNeon),

containing a marker for hygromycin resistance, was generated [17]. *L.*

amazonensis-mNeon promastigotes and amastigotes were maintained as above,

but the media was supplemented with 100 µg/mL hygromycin (Sigma). *L.*

amazonensis virulence was maintained by passage in C57BL/6 mice [16]. *L.*

amazonensis-mNeonGreen parasites were detected with an excitation

wavelength of 490–494 nm and emission of 515 nm.

Leishmania uptake assays. Experiments were adapted and modified as described

previously [15, 16]. BMDMs (*WT, Syk^{flox/flox} Cre^+, Arg^{−/−} Abl^{flox/flox} LysM-Cre^+*) or RAW

264.7 cells were plated and treated with inhibitors (imatinib [Arg/Abl inhibitor],

PD0325901 [MEK1/2 inhibitor], SCH772984 [ERK1/2 inhibitor], trametinib [MEK1/2

inhibitor]) (Selleck Chemicals, Houston, TX), PMA [ERK1/2 activator] or DMSO,

where appropriate. Metacyclic promastigotes were incubated in fresh mouse serum

for C3bi opsonization, and amastigotes were coated with anti-P8-proteoglycolipid

complex (monoclonal antibody IgG1) [55]. Next, samples with RAW 264.7 cells or

BMDMs were incubated with C3bi-opsonized promastigotes at 10 parasites to 1 Mφ

or with IgG-opsonized amastigotes at 10 parasites to 1 Mφ for 2 h, unless otherwise

indicated, and fixed with 3% formaldehyde for 20 minutes. Mouse anti-gp46 antibody

was allowed to bind to external promastigotes, whereas mouse anti-P8 antibody was

incubated with external amastigotes, as described previously [15, 16]. Samples were

then incubated with Alexa-Fluor-568-conjugated donkey anti-mouse-IgG secondary

antibody. Any internalized parasite did not receive any antibody tagging and

fluoresces green. Conversely, external parasites are visualized in both the red and

green channels (orange in a merged image). All antibodies are listed in

Supplemental Table 3. Thus, this three-color immunofluorescence assay [56]

allowed distinguishing of internal (green) and external *L. amazonensis*

promastigotes or amastigotes (green + red).

For quantification, samples were imaged with a BioTek Cytation 5 (Agilent, Santa

Clara, CA) confocal imaging reader using a 40x objective lens with automated

analysis performed [15]. At least 16 randomly selected fields were automatically

visualized per well with each field assessing the number of Mϕ and amastigotes or

promastigotes (internalized versus external). The absolute phagocytic index (the

number of internalized amastigotes or promastigotes per 100 Mϕ) and adhesion

index (the total number of amastigotes or promastigotes per 100 Mϕ) was calculated

for each condition. The absolute phagocytic index or adhesion index for DMSO-

treated conditions (control) was taken as the maximum value (100%) for each

experiment, and phagocytic index for imatinib, SCH772984, trametinib, or PMA-

treated samples was determined and normalized relative to that of the control.

Means ± SD were calculated. Each experiment was performed with at least 3

biological repeats and contained 3 technical replicates. A one-sample Student's *t*-

test or two-way ANOVA was used to determine statistical significance, where

appropriate. The representative images shown were visualized using a Biotek

Cytation 5 imaging multimode reader. Parasites in representative images were

selected from files and linearly processed in Adobe Photoshop CS6 (version 13.0.6).

Phagocytosis of beads. Experiments were adapted and modified as described

previously [15, 16]. RAW 264.7 cells were plated at 70% confluence and incubated

overnight in serum-free medium. Except where indicated, samples were pre-

incubated in medium containing 3.3 µM imatinib, 1 µM SCH772984, 1 µM trametinib,

250 nM PMA or 0.1% DMSO for 1-2 hours. Next, latex yellow–green 2 µm beads

(Sigma) were coated with human IgM (Sigma, Cat. #: I-8260) and incubated in rabbit

anti-IgM (Sigma, Cat. #: 270A) for IgG opsonization (confirmed as described

previously [16]). Mϕ were incubated with 10–15 beads/ Mϕ for 2 hours, unless

otherwise stated, at 37°C. They were fixed with 3% formaldehyde for 20 minutes,

blocked using 2% BSA in PBS (no permeabilization), and then incubated with rabbit

anti-human IgM and Hoechst 33258 dye (Sigma) to visualize nuclei. Next, samples

were incubated with an Alexa-Fluor-568-conjugated goat anti-rabbit-IgG secondary

antibody (Invitrogen, Cat.#: A11034). All antibodies are listed in **Supplemental**

Table 3. This multi-color immunofluorescence assay [56] allowed distinguishing of

internalized (green) and external beads (green + red), similar to described above for

internal vs external *L. amazonensis*. Quantification was done as above with BioTek

Cytation 5 confocal imaging reader using a 40x objective lens with automated

analysis performed by the Cytation 5.

Western Blot. To analyze protein/phosphoprotein expression, western blotting was

performed. Briefly, RAW 264.7 cells or BMDMs from *WT, Syk$^{flox/flox}$ Cre$^+$*, or

Arg$^{-/-}$Abl$^{flox/flox}$ LysM-Cre$^+$ mice were incubated overnight in serum-free media (RAW

264.7 cells) or L929-free media (BMDM). Experiments were performed at ~70%

confluence. Where appropriate, Mϕ were pre-incubated in imatinib, entospletinib,

PD0325901, selumetinib, SCH772984, trametinib, PMA or DMSO. IgG-opsonized

amastigotes or IgG-opsonized beads were added to adherent starved Mϕ for 30

minutes, unless otherwise indicated [55], and cells lysed with RIPA extraction buffer

and halt protease and phosphatase inhibitor (Thermo Scientific, Cat. #: 78440,

Richardson, TX). Protein purity and concentration were addressed using Coomassie

Blue staining and BCA assay, respectively, following the manufacturers' protocols.

Total proteins were resolved by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (12% gels) and

transferred to PVDF membranes (BioRad). The membranes were blocked in 5%

non-fat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline (TBS) (20 mM Tris at pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl).

The membrane was incubated overnight at 4°C with the primary antibody in 5% BSA

and TBS-T. Next, horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated anti-mouse secondary

antibody (#7076, Cell Signaling Technology) was added at 1:5000 in 5% non-fat dry

milk in TBS-T for 1 h. All antibodies are provided in **Supplemental Table 3**.

Membranes were incubated in SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate

(Thermo Scientific) for 5 minutes and visualized by using a phosphorimager

(ImageQuant LAS 4000, GE Healthcare). For analysis, relative amounts of

phosphorylated proteins were compared to total proteins with ImageJ analysis

software (https://imagej.nih.gov/ij; membranes were stripped and reprobed). Each

experiment had at least 3 biological replicates. Two-way ANOVA was used for

statistical tests.

Leishmania **animal model.** For the mouse footpad model of cutaneous

leishmaniasis, 10 female C57BL/6 mice per group were infected between 6 and 8 w

of age as previously described [15, 16]. Briefly, 1×10^6 metacyclic promastigotes

were suspended in PBS and injected subcutaneously in the dorsal side of the right

hind foot. For the experiments in Fig 6A-C, mice were provided 2 mg/kg body weight

of trametinib or drug vehicle (4% DMSO and 1% corn oil) by oral gavage daily

starting a week before infection and continuing until the mice were euthanized. Two

independent experiments were performed. For the experiments in Fig 6D-F, mice

were provided 2 mg/kg body weight of trametinib or drug vehicle by oral gavage daily

starting 6 w after infection and continuing until the mice were euthanized. Two

independent experiments were performed. Lesion growth was documented with

calipers every other week by an investigator who was blinded to condition. The ratio

of the infected: uninfected foot size was obtained [57]. ANOVA was used to compare

diluent and trametinib-treated mouse groups to swelling at time 0. The number of

parasites in lesions was determined by limiting dilution upon termination of the

experiment between weeks 14 to 16 [43].

Lymph nodes from infected diluent versus trametinib-treated mice were obtained for

cytokine and chemokine profiling [42, 43]. Briefly, lymph node cells were incubated

in RPMI 1640 (Invitrogen) plus 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 5×10^{-5} M 2-

mercaptoethanol (Sigma), and 1% penicillin-streptomycin. Cells were stimulated with

promastigote lysates (equivalent to 1×10^{6} or 1×10^{5} parasites per sample, as

indicated) or concanavalin A (ConA) (5 µg/ml; Sigma). Supernatants were harvested

at 72 h and the levels of the cytokines and chemokines IL-4, IL-10, IL-12, IL-13, IL-

17, IFN-γ, IL-1β, IL-1α, IP-10, MIP-1α (CCL3), MIP-2 (CXCL2), CXCL9, RANTES

(CCL5), and MIP-1β (CCL4) were profiled using the custom multiplex Luminex

Platform (R&D Systems, Inc, Minneapolis, MN) through the UT Southwestern

Microarray Core as described previously [58, 59]. Background cytokine levels were

calculated using unstimulated supernatants.

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Supplemental Table 1. Trametinib initiated during *L. amazonensis* infection has

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    FIGURES AND LEGENDS:

Figure 1

Figure 1. The MAPK/ERK pathway is required for optimal amastigote

uptake. (A) Trametinib decreases IgG-opsonized amastigote uptake. RAW 264.7

cells were treated with 3.3 µM imatinib, 1 µM trametinib or DMSO for 2 h, and 10

IgG-opsonized amastigotes were incubated per RAW 264.7 cell for 2 h at 37°C.

An immunofluorescence assay distinguished between intracellular (green) and

extracellular (red + green) amastigotes. Nuclei are labeled with Hoescht 33342

(blue). Scale bar, 100 µm. **(B)** Graph showing the mean phagocytic index (PI) ±

standard deviation (SD) for RAW 264.7 cells normalized to DMSO for each

experiment (100%), quantified from n = 6 biological experiments. Comparisons

between imatinib and trametinib by ANOVA were nonsignificant. **(C)** Imatinib and

trametinib do not affect the total (external + internal) number of amastigotes per

100 RAW cells (termed an adhesion index). Shown are percentages of total

amastigotes per 100 imatinib-treated and trametinib-treated RAW 264.7 cells

relative to DMSO-treated cells for the experiment shown in B. **(D)** Titration of

trametinib demonstrates that the reduction of amastigote internalization is

maximal at ~100x the purified MEK1/2 IC_{50}. RAW 264.7 cells were treated with

increasing doses of trametinib (0.25, 0.5, 1, or 2.5 µM) or DMSO. Bar graph

shows the mean PI ± SD for trametinib-treated samples relative to DMSO-treated

samples for each experiment (100%) for 4 biological experiments. **(E)** The

adhesion index for amastigotes from experiment in D is not affected by

increasing doses of trametinib. Experiment performed as in C. **(F)** The relative

decrease in PI for trametinib-treated samples persists even after prolonged

incubation. RAW 264.7 cells were treated with DMSO (D) or 1 µM trametinib (T)

prior to addition of IgG-opsonized amastigotes for 1 h, 2 h, or 4 h, as indicated.

Shown is the mean PI ± SD for each time point for the trametinib-treated

condition, relative to the DMSO-treated condition, calculated from 4 biological

experiments. **(G)** Treating samples with trametinib for prolonged periods does not

affect the adhesion index for amastigotes. Shown are the total number of

amastigotes (internal + external) per 100 RAW 264.7 cells for the experiments

performed in F. For all experiments, $**P < 0.01$, $****P < 0.0001$, ns =

nonsignificant compared to the relevant DMSO-treated category by ANOVA. **(H)**

Trametinib is not toxic to amastigotes. Shown is one representative experiment

of five experiments with two technical replicates following the number of

amastigotes growing in untreated, DMSO-treated, or trametinib-treated media

over 5 days relative to on day 0. ns, $P > 0.05$ compared to DMSO category by

ANOVA.

Figure 2

Figure 2. **MAPK/ERK are activated during *Leishmania* uptake by Mϕ.**

Amastigotes were added to ≥ 70% confluent RAW 264.7 cells. Equal amounts of

protein from whole lysates were employed for each category. **Top:**

Representative blots displaying relative activation of MAPK/ERK. Phosphorylated

(A) ERK1/2, **(B)** MEK1/2, **(C)** cRaf (Raf-1) and the corresponding total proteins

were detected by Western Blot. An unrelated protein, GAPDH, is shown as an

additional loading control. **Bottom:** Quantification of phosphorylated MAPK/ERK

levels. Graphs shown in **(A)** for ERK1/2, **(B)** for MEK1/2, and **(C)** for cRaf

represent mean ± SD of relative phosphorylated kinase levels, normalized to total

kinase levels, for at least 3 biological replicates per condition. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P <$

0.01, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ by ANOVA compared to the 0 m time point

for each set of kinases.

Figure 3

Figure 3. PMA activates ERK1/2 to modulate amastigote uptake. **(A, B)** PKC

typically is only slightly activated during amastigote uptake. PMA serves as a

positive control. Amastigotes were added to monolayers of RAW 264.7 cells and

processed as above. Shown are **(A)** representative blots demonstrating and **(B)**

bar graphs quantifying relative activation of pPKC/PKC. *$P < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.001$,

**** $P < 0.0001$ compared with samples indicated by brackets (ANOVA). n = 3

experiments. **(C)** PMA is not toxic to amastigotes. Shown is one representative

experiment of five experiments with two technical repeats following the number of

amastigotes growing in DMSO-treated or PMA-treated media over 5 days relative

to on day 0. ns, $P > 0.05$ compared to DMSO category by ANOVA. **(D)**

Representative image demonstrating that PMA rescues trametinib inhibition of

Leishmania amastigote uptake. BMDM were treated with DMSO, 1 µM PMA, 1

µM trametinib or a combination of 1 µM trametinib and 1 µM PMA prior to

incubation with IgG-opsonized amastigotes for 2 hours. **(E)** PMA increases IgG-

opsonized amastigote uptake. BMDM were treated with DMSO or increasing

doses of PMA (0.25, 0.5, 1, 2.5 µM) prior to incubation with IgG-opsonized

amastigotes for the times indicated. n = 4 experiments. ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$,

**** $P < 0.0001$ compared to DMSO category by ANOVA. **(F)** PMA does not

affect the adhesion index for amastigotes. ns, not significant by ANOVA. **(G)**

Mean PI ± SD for BMDM treated with trametinib/PMA relative to DMSO-treated

samples for each experiment (100%), obtained from 3 biological experiments.

**** $P < 0.0001$, ns = nonsignificant by ANOVA compared to DMSO-treated

sample. **(H)** Trametinib/PMA does not affect amastigote adhesion for the

experiment shown in G.

Figure 4

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Figure 4. SYK and Arg/Abl stimulate ERK1/2 phosphorylation during

amastigote uptake. (A) Phosphorylation of ERK1/2 in RAW 264.7 cells is

induced upon amastigote uptake and is decreased by imatinib (Arg/Abl inhibitor),

entospletinib (SYK inhibitor), SCH772984 (ERK1/2 inhibitor), and trametinib

(MEK1/2 inhibitor). PMA serves as a positive control for pERK stimulation. RAW

264.7 cells were allowed to adhere to plates, and then treated with compounds or

DMSO prior to IgG-opsonized amastigote addition, lysis, and immunoblotting.

Representative immunoblots of pERK1/2 (top) and total ERK1/2 (bottom) [with

(+) or without (–) amastigotes] are shown. **(B)** Relative pERK levels, normalized

to ERK1/2 levels, among categories shown in A. Levels of pERK are normalized

to amastigote-exposed DMSO-treated RAW 264.7 cells (100%). 5 biological

replicates are quantified. *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$ compared with

amastigote-stimulated, DMSO-treated RAW 264.7 cells (ANOVA). **(C)**

Phosphorylation of ERK1/2 induced upon FcγR engagement is decreased

in $SYK^{-/-}$ and $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM compared to WT BMDM. Shown is a

representative immunoblot of pERK1/2 (top) and total ERK1/2 (bottom) in WT,

$SYK^{-/-}$ and $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM treated with DMSO (D) or PMA (P), $\pm$ incubation

with amastigotes. **(D)** Graph showing relative levels of pERK1/2, normalized to

ERK1/2 levels, among WT, $SYK^{-/-}$, and $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM treated with DMSO

(D) or PMA (P), $\pm$ amastigotes (A). ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$, ns:

not significant by ANOVA (n = 6 experiments), compared to DMSO + amastigote

category for each condition. **(E-G)** Primary cells lacking Arg and Abl exhibit

decreases in amastigote uptake, but PMA can partially rescue this amastigote

internalization defect. **(E)** Representative image performed as in Fig 1. **(F)** Mean

phagocytic index ± SD for PMA-treated and/or $Arg^{-/-}Abl^{-/-}$ BMDM relative to WT

DMSO-treated BMDM. **(G)** DMSO and PMA do not affect the adhesion indexes

for the experiments shown in F. n for F-G = 3 experiments. ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P <$

0.001; **** $P < 0.0001$; ns, not significant compared with DMSO-treated WT

BMDM (ANOVA).

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1028 **Figure 5**

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Figure 5. ERK 1/2's role in *Leishmania* uptake is greater than for

phagocytosis of beads. **(A)** Trametinib mildly decreases bead internalization.

RAW 264.7 cells were treated with 3.3 µM imatinib, 1 µM trametinib or DMSO for

2 hr. prior to addition of 10 IgG-opsonized beads per RAW 264.7 cell for 2 h at

37°C. Treating RAW 264.7 cells with trametinib decreases uptake of IgG-

opsonized beads to a lesser degree than imatinib. Graph shows the mean PI ±

SD for each category, normalized to DMSO (100%). **** P < 0.0001, ns: not

significant compared to indicated categories by ANOVA (n = 6 biological

experiments). **(B)** Imatinib and trametinib does not affect the adhesion index for

beads in the experiments shown in A. **(C-H)** IgG-coated beads activate the

MAPK/ERK pathway, but phosphorylation is not sustained. Beads were added to

> 70% confluent RAW 264.7 cells and experiments were processed as in Fig 2.

Top: Phosphorylated forms of **(C)** ERK, **(E)** MEK1/2, **(G)** cRaf and the

corresponding total kinase were detected by Western blotting. Bottom: Relative

activation was quantified for **(D)** ERK, **(F)** MEK1/2, and **(H)** cRaf, using the

methods described in Fig 2. * $P < 0.05$, ** P < 0.01, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$

and ns: not significant compared to 0 m timepoint by ANOVA ($n \geq 3$

experiments).

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Figure 6

Figure 6. MAPK/ERK permit efficient infection in a mouse model of

cutaneous leishmaniasis. (A) Mouse footpad model for cutaneous

leishmaniasis. C57BL/6 mice diluent and trametinib-treated groups were injected

with promastigotes in the hind footpad. Mice were given 2 mg/kg body weight of

trametinib or an equal volume of diluent by oral gavage daily, starting 7 days

before infection and continuing until the mice were euthanized. Two experiments

were performed. Shown in the following panels is one representative experiment

containing 10 female mice per group. **(B)** Trametinib given prior to infection

reduces lesion size in mice. Depth of foot swelling was monitored with calipers by

a blinded investigator. Results represent the mean ± SD foot size increase over

the uninfected foot (normalized to 1). The control (diluent) and drug-treated

groups were compared to swelling at time 0 by ANOVA; $*P < 0.05$, $****P <$

0.0001, ns, not significant. **(C)** Trametinib given prior to infection significantly

reduces parasite burden. Parasite burdens in infected footpads were determined

by limiting dilution as described in *Materials and Methods*. Plotted is the mean

number of parasites (*i.e*, parasite burden) in millions at the end of the experiment

shown in B ± SD. In this example, there were 1.41×10^{6} parasites in the control

mice versus 2.03×10^{5} parasites in the trametinib-treated mice. $*P < 0.05$ (two-

tailed *t*-test). **(D)** C57BL/6 mice diluent and trametinib-treated groups were

injected with *L. amazonensis* promastigotes as above. Starting 6 weeks after

inoculation (arrow), mice were given 2 mg/kg body weight of trametinib or vehicle

by oral gavage daily and continuing until the experiment was terminated. **(E)**

Trametinib given once lesions have begun reduces lesion size in trametinib-

treated mice compared to diluent-treated mice. Arrow shows start time of drug

treatment. Shown is one representative experiment containing 10 female mice

per group. Statistics calculated as in B. **(F)** Lesions in mice treated with

trametinib 6 weeks after infection contain fewer *Leishmania* parasites than

control mice. Plotted is the mean ± SD lesion parasite burden in millions at the

end of the experiment shown in E; in this example, there were 1.01×10^6

parasites in the control mice versus 8.29×10^4 parasites in the trametinib-treated

mice (>10-fold reduction). *P <0.05 (two-tailed *t*-test). (**G**) MAPK/ERK signal

transduction in Mϕ facilitates *Leishmania* uptake and pathogenesis. Upon FcγR

ligation by amastigotes, SFK, Arg, and SYK are activated and relay signals to the

MAPK/ERK pathway, which leads to phagocytic cup formation and allows the

internalization of *Leishmania*. Diagrams created with Biorender.

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1087 **Table 1**

Experiment	Ratio	DMSO - High	Trametinib - High	DMSO - Low	Trametinib - Low
Trametinib prior to infection	**IFN Gamma/IL-4**	1.86	1.35	1.75	1.05
	IFN Gamma/IL-13	0.78	0.11	0.75	0.09
	IFN Gamma/IL-4+ IL-10+ IL-13	0.55	0.10	0.52	0.08

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Table 1. Ongoing trametinib treatment during *L. amazonensis* infection has

limited effects on Th1 vs Th2 responses. Effects of trametinib during *L.*

amazonensis infection on cytokine secretion. Shown are profiles of draining

lymph nodes isolated from diluent (DMSO) versus trametinib-treated mice treated

prior to inoculation as described in methods. High refers to high stimulation with a

lysate of 1 X 10^6 parasites and low refers to low stimulation with 1 X 10^5

parasites. Ratios of IFNγ: IL-4, IFNγ: IL-13, and IFNγ: IL-4+10+13 were

calculated from the data shown in Table 2. Trametinib may skew towards a Th2

response, which should not promote lesion healing.

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 Table 2

Experiment	Cytokine	Treatment	Cytokine secretion (pg) after					
			Con A stimulation		High stimulation		Low treatment	
			AVG	STD	AVG	STD	AVG	STD
Trametinib prior to infection	**IFN Gamma**	DMSO	6.70	6.83	6.06	5.82	5.83	5.16
		Trametinib	0.48	0.64	0.73	1.05	0.58	0.75
		p-value	**0.01**		**0.01**		**0.005**	
	IL-1 BETA	DMSO	0.88	0.51	0.97	0.48	0.73	0.46
		Trametinib	0.45	0.12	0.42	0.11	0.39	0.09
		p-value	**0.02**		**0.002**		**0.03**	
	IL-12/IL23p40	DMSO	5.56	2.97	5.24	2.49	6.04	3.06
		Trametinib	3.28	1.18	3.39	0.79	3.53	1.31
		p-value	**0.04**		**0.04**		**0.03**	
	IL-13	DMSO	5.08	3.04	7.72	2.47	7.78	3.07
		Trametinib	7.01	2.27	6.83	1.10	6.57	1.15
		p-value	NS		NS		NS	
	IL-17A	DMSO	0.48	0.24	0.65	0.14	0.53	0.27
		Trametinib	0.59	0.09	0.74	0.25	0.53	0.25
		p-value	NS		NS		NS	
	IL-4	DMSO	2.36	1.26	3.26	1.89	3.32	2.57
		Trametinib	0.49	0.64	0.54	0.68	0.55	0.70
		p-value	**0.0006**		**0.0004**		**0.004**	
	TNF ALPHA	DMSO	2.98	1.6	2.68	2.10	2.45	1.22
		Trametinib	2.85	2.30	2.23	0.96	1.75	1.45

		p-value	NS		NS		NS	
	IL-10	DMSO	.008	.007	.02	.009	.009	.01
		Trametinib	8.94	8.78	8.36	10.44	5.16	1.06
		p-value	**0.005**		**0.02**		**0.0001**	
	MCP-1	DMSO	25.56	14.87	25.07	12.31	27.90	10.54
		Trametinib	7.23	6.43	7.23	5.87	7.23	6.56
		p-value	**0.002**		**0.0006**		**0.0001**	
	MIP-1 ALPHA	DMSO	4.69	3.95	3.93	2.77	4.62	2.96
		Trametinib	1.36	0.41	1.44	0.86	1.44	0.88
		p-value	**0.02**		**0.01**		**0.004**	

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Table 2. Cytokine and chemokine profiles in diluent versus trametinib-

treated, *Leishmania*-infected mice. Shown are profiles of draining lymph nodes

isolated from DMSO versus trametinib mice treated prior to infection as

described in methods. For high stimulation categories, a lysate containing 1 X

10^6 *L. amazonensis* was added, and for low stimulation categories, a lysate

containing 1 X 10^5 parasites was added. Post 14-16 weeks, mice were sacrificed

and multiplex chemokine ELISAs were performed on harvested lymph node

supernatants. *P* values were determined by two-tailed *t*-tests and are listed if $P <$

0.1. Bold: $P \leq 0.05$.

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