Structure-function relationships underpin disulfide loop cleavage-dependent activation of *Legionella*

pneumophila **lysophosholipase A PlaA**

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Activation of *Legionella pneumophila* lysophosholipase A PlaA

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Abstract

Legionella pneumophila, the causative agent of a life-threatening pneumonia, intracellularly replicates in

a specialized compartment in lung macrophages, the *Legionella*-containing vacuole (LCV). Secreted

proteins of the pathogen govern important steps in the intracellular life cycle including bacterial egress.

Among these is the type II secreted PlaA which, together with PlaC and PlaD, belongs to the GDSL

phospholipase family found in *L. pneumophila*. PlaA shows lysophospholipase A (LPLA) activity which

increases after secretion and subsequent processing by the zinc metalloproteinase ProA at residue

E266/L267 located within a disulfide loop. Activity of PlaA contributes to the destabilization of the LCV in

the absence of the type IVB-secreted effector SdhA. We here present the 3D structure of PlaA which

shows a typical α/β hydrolase fold and reveals that the uncleaved disulfide loop forms a lid structure

covering the catalytic triad S30/D278/H282. This leads to reduction of both substrate access and

membrane interaction before activation; however, the catalytic and membrane interaction site gets

more accessible when the disulfide loop is processed. After structural modelling, a similar activation

process is suggested for the GDSL hydrolase PlaC, but not for PlaD. Furthermore, the size of the PlaA

substrate binding site indicated preference towards phospholipids comprising ~16 carbon fatty acid

residues which was verified by lipid hydrolysis, suggesting a molecular ruler mechanism. Indeed,

mutational analysis changed the substrate profile with respect to fatty acid chain length. In conclusion,

our analysis revealed the structural basis for the regulated activation and substrate preference of PlaA.

Introduction

Legionella pneumophila is ubiquitously found in aqueous habitats, multiplies within environmental amoebae, and is an important bacterial lung pathogen (1,2). From its natural habitat, *L. pneumophila* is transmitted via aerosols into the human lung where lung macrophages serve as the primary replication site. The infection process in mammalian cells and in amoeba shows many similarities. In both, the bacteria apply means to withstand the multifaceted host defenses and subsequently replicate within a specialized phagosome, termed the *Legionella*-containing vacuole (LCV) (3). Establishment of an intact replication vacuole and its maintenance - for the time of bacterial replication - is essential for *Legionella* propagation and requires a variety of bacterial and host factors (4,5). Several bacterial gene loci contribute to intracellular establishment and replication of *L. pneumophila* and here secretion systems, especially the type IVB (T4BSS) Dot/Icm and the type II (T2SS) Lsp systems, and their transported effectors are major determinants (6-10). It has been shown that phospholipases are among the secreted effectors and affect establishment and maintenance of the LCV. For example, patatin-like phospholipases VipD and VpdC, both exported via the type IVB Dot/Icm machinery, influence lipid composition of endosomes fusing to the LCV or vacuolar expansion by regulating lysophospholipid content, respectively (11-14). Further, phospholipases are required to exit the LCV and the host after completed replication and their involvement has been shown for a variety of pathogens including *L. pneumophila* (15-17).

Phospholipases are important virulence factors of pathogens (18) and classify into four major functional groups based on the position at which they cleave within a phospholipid, specifically phospholipases A (PLA), phospholipases B (PLB), phospholipases C (PLC), and phospholipases D (PLD). PLAs, like VipD or VpdC, hydrolyze the carboxylester bonds at sn-1 or sn-2 position and thereby release fatty acids. If only one fatty acid is targeted, a lysophospholipid is generated and may be further cleaved by a lysophospholipase A (LPLA), liberating the remaining fatty acid. At least 19 phospholipases are found in *L. pneumophila*, comprising 15 PLAs, three PLCs, and one PLD. The PLAs are divided into the patatin-like phospholipases (incl. VipD and VpdC), the PlaB-like, and the GDSL enzymes (19-21).

L. pneumophila possesses three GDSL enzymes PlaA, PlaC, and PlaD, on which this study is focused (Fig. 1A). The family of GDSL hydrolases is characterized by five conserved amino acid sequence blocks (19,22,23). The first block is located near the N-terminus and contains the active site serine embedded in a Gly-Asp-Ser-Leu (GDSL) motif as opposed to the Gly-X-Ser-X-Gly motif commonly found in other lipases. The catalytic triad of GDSL hydrolases is completed by aspartate and histidine located in the fifth

conserved block. GDSL hydrolases have a flexible active site that allows for broad substrate specificity
and enzyme activities range from protease to arylesterase to PLA/LPLA and
glycerophospholipid:cholesterol acyltransferase (GCAT) activities. The latter transfers phospholipid-
bound fatty acids to the acceptor molecule cholesterol (22,23).

The three enzymes differ with regard to activities, molecular weight, and mode of secretion (Tab. 1, Fig.
1A). PlaA mainly shows LPLA and GCAT activities while PlaC reveals PLA and GCAT activities (24-26). PlaA
and PlaC, which have molecular weights of 34.4 and 49.7 kDa, respectively, harbor a predicted sec signal
peptide (SP) and are both secreted via the T2SS Lsp. Interestingly, the proteins observed in culture
supernatants were considerably smaller after reducing SDS-PAGE, specifically ~25-28 kDa and ~36 kDa,
respectively (26,27). This was however not the case for culture supernatants of a *L. pneumophila* knock
out mutant in the type II-secreted zinc metalloproteinase ProA which suggested processing of PlaA and
PlaC by ProA (26,27). The respective preferred cleavage sites of ProA were analyzed and are located
within disulfide loop structures of both proteins. For PlaA, the preferred site was determined as
E266/L267. Cleavage of the disulfide loop by ProA or disulfide loop truncation by mutagenesis is
associated with an increase in enzymatic activity of PlaA and PlaC (26,27). Specifically, PlaA LPLA but not
GCAT activity and PlaC PLA and GCAT activities are activated by ProA (26,27). However, the mechanism is
not understood from a structure-centered view. The 59.6 kDa protein PlaD has not been characterized
extensively, lacks a predicted sec secretion signal, and it is not secreted into the culture supernatant
upon growth in broth medium (27).

Relevance of PlaA and PlaC during host cell infection was shown for both enzymes. Specifically, in the
absence of the T4BSS effector SdhA, which is important for LCV stabilization, PlaA can disrupt the
vacuole membrane such that the bacteria get access to the cytosol, i.e. prematurely egress from the LCV
and, as a consequence, host cell death pathways are triggered (15,28). Further, a *L. pneumophila* GDSL
triple mutant showed reduced cell exit (17). Therefore, PlaA may be an important factor supporting
bacterial LCV and host egress after intracellular replication. In line with these functions, PlaA and its
activity is detected from mid-exponential growth phase on and is most prominent in late-logarithmic
growth phase (29,30). Also, PlaC is more abundant during stationary phase than during logarithmic
growth phase and shows a functional overlap with the aminopeptidase LapA (30,31). Although *plaC* and
lapA individually seemed dispensable for host infections, *L. pneumophila plaC/lapA* double mutants
show a severe replication defect in host amoebae (31).

Since many of the pathogen phospholipases are capable to attack cellular membranes, such enzymes

may also damage the pathogen itself before export. Therefore, sophisticated activation mechanisms

might be required for example to prevent self-inflicted damage to the producer or to spacially regulate

activity. Such mechanisms are multifaceted and include the following: 1) oligomerization as found in *E.*

coli PldA (32), 2) deoligomerization as described for *L. pneumophila* PlaB or *P. aeruginosa* PlaF (21,33,34),

interaction with accessory factors, such as 3) metal ions described for *L. pneumophila* PLCs (35), 4)

chemical modification, such as ubiquitination of VpdC (14), or 5) host or bacterial protein cofactors, as

Rab5/Rab22 found for *L. pneumophila* VipD (11-13), and 6) proteolytic processing of proenzymes. As

outlined above, the latter proteolysis-based activation is described for *L. pneumophila* PlaA and PlaC

(26,27,36).

We present here the crystal structure of PlaA as basis for the clarification of structure-function

relationships in disulfide loop cleavage-dependent enzyme activation. The PlaA structure is moreover

compared to computational models of PlaC and PlaD to highlight similarities and differences between

these enzymes. Thus, we establish a link between structure and enzymatic function of PlaA.

Results

PlaA displays a classical α/β-hydrolase fold containing the catalytic triad S30/D279/H282

The gene for PlaA without the respective predicted N-terminal SP (amino acids 1-18) was expressed in

E. coli and purified via an N-terminal Strep-tag. After size exclusion chromatography (SEC), the protein

was subjected to crystallization. PlaA crystallized in spacegroup $P3_121$ with one chain of the monomeric

protein in the asymmetric unit. This crystal form differs from a previous report where PlaA has been

crystalized in space groups $P2_1$ and $P2_12_12_1$ but where structure determination has remained pending

(37). Initial phases were obtained from single-wavelength anomalous diffraction data collected at an X-

ray energy of 7 keV (wavelength = 1.7712 Å) of a crystal obtained in the presence of ammonium iodide

(Fig. S1A and B). Crystallization in the presence of 1-monopalmitoyllysophosphatidylcholine (16:0 LPC)

and avoiding polyethylene glycol (PEG) in the precipitant led to crystals of the same spacegroup (Fig.

S1A) and no significant structural differences were observed between the crystal structures determined

in this study. With the exception of a few residues at the N- and C-termini as well as parts of a highly

flexible surface loop (residues V91 – E97), the final structures show all of the PlaA protein (Fig. 1B). The

N-terminal Strep-tag was too flexible to produce traceable electron density. The highest resolution

obtained here is 1.45 Å for PlaA complexed with the 16:0 LPC hydrolysis product palmitate (Tab. 2). The

structures substantiate that PlaA is a canonical GDSL hydrolase with a typical α/β-hydrolase fold (Fig. 1B,

Fig. S1B). The catalytic triad was previously determined as S30, D279, H282 by means of mutational

analysis (27) and is confirmed in the 3D structure. The central β-sheet consists of five parallel β-strands

and is surrounded by a set of α-helices on both of its sides (Fig. 1B, Fig. S1C). The N-terminus and the C-

terminus of PlaA (shown in blue and red in Fig. 1B) are located in close proximity to each other.

Detection of a hydrophobic channel that matches with linear fatty acids of 16 carbon atoms in close

proximity to the catalytic triad

Interestingly, crystallization was initially only possible in the presence of PEG. Here, we observed

additional electron density in a hydrophobic channel in close proximity to the catalytic triad (Fig. S1D),

despite the fact that this channel is not accessible from the solvent. The channel has a length of approx.

20 Å, suggesting that the unexplained electron density derives from a molecule that mimics the fatty acid

moiety of the substrate such as short unbranched PEG components of the precipitant used to crystallize

the protein. We hence interpreted the additional electron density as a fragment of PEG. Subsequently,

we aimed for the structure of a complex of PlaA with its substrate 16:0 LPC by co-crystallization in a PEG-

free precipitant. This yielded crystals of the same space group (Fig. S1A) that diffracted to 1.45 Å

resolution. Here, we observed additional electron density that occupies the entire hydrophobic channel

(Fig. S1E). This density was interpreted as the product of PlaA-dependent hydrolysis of 16:0 LPC, palmitic

acid (Fig. 1C). Interestingly, no crystals were obtained in the absence of substrate (16:0 LPC) or product

analogues (palmitate, PEG), which may point towards higher flexibility of apo-PlaA. This flexibility may

include partial unfolding for hydrophobic substrate binding.

A disulfide loop functions as a lid that covers the catalytic triad and reduces membrane interaction

before enzyme activation

Regarding potential structural elements hindering substrate binding in the non-activated state of PlaA, a

disulfide loop (from C243 to C272; shown in orange in Fig. 1B and in yellow in Fig. 1D, respectively)

covers the entrance to the substrate binding pocket and the catalytic triad of PlaA. It is therefore

conceivable that ProA-mediated processing of the disulfide loop facilitates access of substrates to the

binding pocket and to the active site, explaining the increased LPLA activity upon exposure to ProA. The

previously determined preferred proteolytic maturation site E266/L267 at the C-terminal end of the lid

(27) is solvent accessible in the crystal structure (Fig. 1B, Fig. S1C). Parts of the lid display high B-factors,

indicating that they are relatively mobile. This flexibility may also explain why we found the hydrolysis

product palmitic acid bound to the active site (Fig. 1C and Fig. S1E) despite having crystallized uncleaved

PlaA. We propose that proteolytic maturation by ProA increases flexibility further and enables parts of

the lid to leave the position observed in the crystal structure. This would open up the entry to the active

site and is in line with proteolytic activation mechanisms of other lipases (38).

Among others, DALI (39) searches identify the cholin esterase ChoE from *P. aeruginosa* (PDB code 6uqv)

(40), the phospholipase PlpA from *Vibrio vulnificus* (PDB code 6jl2) (41), or the esterase domain of

autotransporter EstA from *P. aeruginosa* (PDB code 3kvn) (42) as highly structurally similar to PlaA (Fig.

2A-D). Interestingly, while these proteins also possess disulfide loops in similar positions, these disulfide

loops are shorter in sequence and they do not shield the active center as much as the disulfide loop of

PlaA in the unprocessed state observed here (Fig. 2A-D). As a consequence, the ligand binding sites of

these enzymes are solvent accessible, suggesting that they do not require proteolytic activation.

We further analyzed whether in addition to the previously shown increase in activity (27) also membrane

interaction of PlaA is influenced by disulfide loop processing and tested the catalytic inactive variant PlaA

S30N versus the respective mutant with truncated disulfide loop PlaA S30N Δaa248-267, in a Förster-

Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) liposome-insertion assay. When protein-lipid interaction exceeds
peripheral binding and proteins at least insert into the lipid headgroup region, this leads to an increase in
the distance between the fluorophores and thus to reduced energy transfer. Consequently, the ratio of
donor and acceptor fluorescence intensities is a measure of protein insertion into membranes. This
effect is very prominent for antimicrobial peptides, like LL-37, and leads to a strong increase in the ratio
(43). For the disulfide loop mutant PlaA S30N ΔΔaa248-267 a concentration-dependent increase of the
ratio was as well detected and was higher compared to PlaA S30N with intact disulfide loop (Fig. 3).
However, the interaction of the disulfide loop mutant was less pronounced as noted for LL-37 (43). This
indicates that the PlaA disulfide loop mutant only inserts into the interface of the membrane. In
conclusion, our results show that the disulfide lid reduces lipid interaction; or in other words, lipid
interaction is facilitated by disulfide loop cleavage which might also impact enzyme activity.

Substrate selectivity of PlaA concerning fatty acid chain length is governed by a molecular ruler
mechanism

As mentioned above, we observed unexplained elongated electron density in the ligand binding site of
the first high-resolution structure of PlaA and attributed this to a PEG fragment deriving from the
precipitant solution (Fig. S1D). However, this molecule did not fill the binding site completely, and
further structural analysis suggested that PlaA can accommodate phospholipid substrates with linear
fatty acid chains of at least 16 carbon atoms length, which was then confirmed by the crystal structure of
PlaA in complex with palmitate (Fig. 1C, Fig. S1E). To further investigate the substrate spectrum of PlaA,
we tested whether LPLA activity of PlaA correlated with the length of the fatty acid chains. To this end,
PlaA was incubated with lysophosphatidylcholine (LPC) with diverse fatty acid residues. These varied in
length from eight to 22 carbon atoms. PlaA in its unprocessed form exhibited predominantly activity
towards 16:0 LPC (Fig. 4A, left side). Additionally, activity was compared to the disulfide loop-deleted
PlaA ΔAA248-67, which corresponds to ProA-processed PlaA (27). The LPLA activity of PlaA ΔAA248-67
was distinctly higher than that of untruncated PlaA and was mainly directed towards 16:0 and 14:0 LPC,
but 8:0 LPC, 12:0 LPC, and 18:0 LPC were also hydrolyzed to a lower extent (Fig. 4A, right side). As
hypothesized, no activity towards 20:0 LPC and 22:0 LPC was observed for both PlaA proteins. PlaA
variants with mutation of the catalytic serine Ser30 (PlaA S30N and PlaA S30N ΔAA248-67) were used as
controls and did not exhibit activity towards any of the tested lipid substrates (Fig. 4A, left and right side,
respectively). These findings suggest that the substrate selectivity of PlaA is governed by a molecular
ruler mechanism that measures the length of fatty acids by accommodating them to the ligand binding

site (44). To corroborate this, we mutated residue P283 pointing into the ligand binding site to leucine

(Fig. 1C and Fig. S2), hypothesizing that this larger residue would diminish the hydrophobic lipid binding

site and hence change the substrate preference of PlaA to lysophospholipids with shorter fatty acid

chains (Fig. 1C and Fig. S3). Indeed, although showing an overall reduced activity, PlaA P283L preferred

12:0 LPC over 14:0 and 16:0 LPC (Fig. 4B), highlighting the importance of the size of this ligand binding

site. In contrast, PlaA T220L where another residue in the binding site was mutated to leucine which

however did not point as much into the ligand binding site like P283L and accordingly did not show a

shift in the substrate preference (Fig. 4B and Fig. S2). In summary, our data suggest that substrate

preference with regard to fatty acid chain length is regulated by a ruler like mechanism.

During growth of _L. pneumophila_, PlaA is first present in its unprocessed form until ProA is secreted

PlaA is a type II-secreted protein found in culture supernatants of _L. pneumophila_ (24,25,27). We were

interested if and when ProA-processing of PlaA occurs in _L. pneumophila_ grown in liquid cultures. PlaA

was detected as ~33 kDa full-length protein (without signal peptide, protein sizes see Tab. 1) during lag

and logarithmic growth phases with a maximum quantity at 2 to 3 h of growth (Fig. 5A and B). During

mid-exponential growth, from ~4 h of incubation, processed PlaA with a molecular weight of ~25 kDa

was detected for the first time and from 5h remained the only PlaA version until late logarithmic /

stationary phase (Fig. 5A and 5B). These observations correlated with an accumulation of ProA in the

culture supernatants over time (Fig. 5C). In conclusion, our experiments indicate that PlaA, although

found in its full-length form in the culture supernatant at early growth phases, may not reach its full

activity before its processing at mid to late logarithmic growth phase. Full activity of PlaA may therefore

correlate to a later phase in bacterial growth and be associated with LCV and host cell exit of the

bacteria, as indicated previously (15).

PlaA activation by ProA- is not inhibited by mutation of the preferred cleavage site E266/L267

highlighting broader cleavage site acceptance by ProA

As outlined above, an important feature of PlaA is a disulfide loop lid structure. After its processing

access of lipid substrates to the catalytic active site and protein-lipid interaction is facilitated and thus

leads to an increase of LPLA activity. We previously reported that this disulfide loop is cleaved by ProA at

the preferred cleavage site E266/L267 in PlaA. Also, truncation of the disulfide loop in PlaA ΔAA248-67

yields more active PlaA and similar activity characteristics as ProA-processed PlaA (27). Subsequently, we

analyzed whether mutation of the main cleavage site E266/L267 may hinder PlaA activation. We found

that the mutation of E266 and L267 into N266 and N267, respectively, is not sufficient to prevent ProA-

dependent increase in LPLA activity of PlaA and its proteolytic processing. Specifically, similar activities

were detected for PlaA and the E266N L267N mutant and similar processing to the smaller version of

PlaA by ProA (Fig. 5D and 5E). The respective catalytic inactive S30N controls did not show activity (Fig.

5D). This indicates that ProA may attack other exposed residues surrounding the major cleavage site

E266/L267 in the disulfide loop and lead to PlaA processing and activation. This was already implied by

peptide mapping of ProA-digested PlaA which identified additional but less preferred cleavage sites, such

as K264/P265, P265/E266, and L267/T268, directly upstream and downstream of E266/L267 (27). These

observations further highlight the previously described broad cleavage site acceptance by ProA in other

substrates (45).

Comparison of PlaA to structural models of PlaC and PlaD highlights the presence of disulfide loops

shielding the catalytic side in PlaC but not PlaD.

To obtain additional insight into the structure of the three *L. pneumophila* GSDL phospholipases, we

generated structural models of PlaC and PlaD using the template-free routine of AlphaFold (46). The

structure of PlaA was predicted as well to evaluate the method, and no significant differences were

found with respect to the X-ray structures described above (Fig. 6A, Fig. S3A-C). Notably, this also

includes the more flexible parts of PlaA (residues V91 – E97 and the disulfide loop), whose flexibility is

correctly indicated by a lower confidence score. Importantly, the predicted conformation of the disulfide

loop matches the crystal structure very well (Fig. S3A-C).

Compared to PlaA, PlaC although similar in structure is predicted to contain additional helical elements

in P57 – G120 and D166 – P193 which correspond to its larger size (Fig. 6B). Of these, the second region

replaces the flexible region V91 – D95 of PlaA. Similar to PlaA, PlaC has a lid domain that is delimited by a

disulfide bridge (C343-C388) which accommodates the proteolytic maturation site (26) . In PlaC, this lid

includes an α-helix (362-370) that shields the active site from the solvent. However, this α-helix is slightly

shifted away from the active site, resulting in a larger entrance funnel for PlaC possibly explaining

differences in the substrate specificity of both enzymes. While PlaA preferentially hydrolyzes

lysophospholipids, PlaC also accepts larger substrates such as diacyl phospholipids (26). The length of

PlaC's hydrophobic substrate channel is identical to PlaA's, indicating that in both cases linear fatty acids

with ~16 carbon atoms are the preferred substrates.

The structure of PlaD includes the α/β hydrolase domain (N-terminal domain) and is predicted to have an

additional α-helical domain of unknown function at its C-terminus (P403 – T516) (Fig. 6C). The relative

orientation towards the α/β-hydrolase domain is unclear at present since both domains are connected

by a long flexible linker (P371 - L402). Comparison with PlaA reveals additional helical elements (e.g. P60

– P72). Importantly, PlaD does not contain a disulfide loop, and the respective region of the protein

(Y311 – A334, shown in light blue in Fig. 6C) is predicted to adopt an open conformation that leads to an

unshielded substrate binding site. In addition to differences in protein secretion, these features may

explain further possible differences in the activation mechanism of this protein compared to PlaA and

PlaC. The length of the hydrophobic substrate channel of PlaD, on the other hand, is identical to that of

PlaA, again suggesting preference for linear fatty acids with ~16 carbon atoms.

Discussion

Here we show that PlaA, which is one of three proteins of the GDSL phospholipase family found in *L. pneumophila* (19), adopts an α/β hydrolase fold typically found in similar enzymes of other bacteria, such as the cholin esterase ChoE from *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* (PDB code 6uqv), the phospholipase PlpA from *Vibrio vulnificus* (PDB code 6jl2) or the esterase domain of autotransporter EstA from *P. aeruginosa* (PDB code 3kvn) to name just a few examples (Fig. 2). However, PlaA also shows specific features which relate to its activation mechanism and substrate specificity. Structural analysis reveals that a disulfide loop lid structure reduces substrate access to the catalytic site in ProA-unprocessed PlaA. The active site gets more accessible when the disulfide loop is opened up by proteolysis. After structural modelling using AlphaFold, a similar activation mechanism is suggested for PlaC and cleavage of the disulfide loop and PlaC activation by ProA was previously shown (26) but is not suggested for PlaD, where the catalytic site seemed freely accessible as further observed in ChoE, PlpA, and EstA (Fig. 2).

Lid structures are very common in lipases and are important for substrate specificity and control of enzymatic activity (47). It can be assumed that processing of the PlaA disulfide loop by ProA might completely remove the lid or at least increase its flexibility. This might affect the conformation of the active site or the potential substrate-binding domain or both. It is conceivable that the access of lipid substrates to the active site channel of PlaA is facilitated by the structural alterations induced by ProA-dependent processing, which might explain the increased LPLA activity of processed PlaA. Proteolytic processing is a common mechanism for activation of enzymes that have been produced as inactive zymogens (38). Among others, the induction of enzymatic activity after processing within a disulfide loop has been shown for some, such as *Pseudomonas* exotoxin A and Shiga toxin from enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli* (48-51). Although unprocessed PlaA is not completely inactive, it can be assumed that the rationale of ProA-dependent regulation of PlaA is to increase the enzymatic activity only after PlaA is secreted to the exterior and at the required time point. Since phospholipase activities are potentially harmful to the bacterium itself, we propose that the here presented activation mechanism is also used to avoid self-inflicted lysis from a lytic enzyme before secretion.

L. pneumophila is an intracellularly replicating lung pathogen which induces major lung damage leading to a severe pneumonia and the secreted bacterial phospholipases may contribute to the clinical picture (2,19). Eukaryotic membranes and the surfactant phospholipid monolayer in the lung contain major amounts of phospholipids with esterified fatty acids of a length of ~16 carbon atoms (52). We showed

that the size of an intramolecular channel in PlaA, PlaC, and PlaD nicely fits to harbor such lipids and also

the reaction product palmitic acid (Fig. 1C) which mechanistically underlines host-adapted substrate

specificity of these enzymes.

Interestingly, it was shown that PlaA is responsible for the destabilization of the replication vacuole in

the absence of the T4BSS secreted effector SdhA, which localizes to the LCV (15). The LCV protective

mechanism of SdhA has recently been shown as binding and blocking the function of OCRL

(OculoCerebroRenal syndrome of Lowe), an inositol 5-phosphatase pivotal for controlling endosomal

dynamics and participating in vacuole disruption (28). It is important for intracellular pathogens like

Legionella to maintain the integrity of the replication vacuole for the period of bacterial propagation to

avoid detection by the immune system of the host (55). However, for the exit of the pathogen and the

initiation of a new infection cycle, the vacuole needs to be disrupted (16). Assuming that the functions of

SdhA and PlaA are opposed and must be balanced for maintenance of the LCV integrity for bacterial

replication (55), it may be that a change of abundance or activity of either factor could result in exit of *L.*

pneumophila. The here addressed increase of PlaA activity and membrane interaction by proteolytic

processing could disturb the balance between SdhA and PlaA in an infection and might thus lead to

destabilization of the LCV triggering the exit process.

Our analyses of culture supernatants at multiple time points during *L. pneumophila* growth in liquid

medium revealed that PlaA is initially secreted as full-length protein. Processing was first detected during

mid-exponential growth when ProA quantities increased. We speculate that ProA-processing of PlaA

does not occur before a critical density of intravacuolar bacteria is reached which produces sufficient

ProA quantities. This might happen in similarity to the regulatory process of quorum sensing (56). In

parallel, proteolytic activation of PlaC might be additionally triggered which might allow cooperation of

PlaC, majorly revealing PLA activity, and PlaA, majorly possessing LPLA activity. Thus, destabilization of

the LCV for host exit can be linked to coordinated activation of several enzyme activities at high cell

density and completed bacterial replication.

In summary, these findings provide insight into the relationship between structure and activity of PlaA

and for the other GSDL hydrolases in *L. pneumophila*. We found that these enzymes possess structural

features that may lead to a specific activity and activation profile tailored to the needs of the bacterium.

Experimental procedures

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

All experiments and sequence or structure predictions were performed with *L. pneumophila* sg1 strain

Corby including recombinant gene expression in *E. coli* BL21. The strains used and generated in the study

are listed in Tab. 3. *L. pneumophila* strains were grown on buffered charcoal yeast extract (BCYE) agar

and in buffered yeast extract (BYE) broth and *E. coli* strains were grown on Luria Bertani (LB) agar and in

LB broth as described previously (36,57,58). If appropriate, 100 µg/ml ampicillin or 50 µg/ml kanamycin

were added to the *E. coli* cultures.

Construction of plasmids

The vector pMH42 was generated from pMH41 by means of the QuikChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis

Kit (Stratagene) using the primers PlaA_S30N_fw (5'-GTATTTGGTGATAATTTGTCGGATAACGG-3') and PlaA

S30N_rv (5'-CCGTTATCCGACAAATTATCACCAAATAC-3') for introduction of the S30N point mutation in

plaA (Tab. 3). The vectors pUS8 and pUS9 were generated from pCL119 using the primer pairs

plaA_P283L_fw/rv (5'- GATTTGGTTCATCTGACAGCG-*3'/%'- CGCTGTCAGATGAACCAAATC-3') and

plaA_P220L_fw/rv (5'-GACTTGGGTAGTCATTTTGACC-3'/ 5'-GACTACCCAAGTCAAAAAACAAC-3'),

respectively (Tab. 3). Primers were obtained from Eurofins MWG Operon and Integrated DNA

Technologies. All restriction enzymes were obtained from New England Biolabs. Plasmid DNA was

introduced into *E. coli* by heat shock transformation.

Expression and purification of recombinant PlaA or ProA for enzyme activity tests and analysis of

crystal structure

E. coli BL21 strains harboring plasmids for recombinant expression of *plaA* variants without SP and N-

terminally fused Strep-tag (Tab. 3) were grown in LB broth supplemented with ampicillin at 37 °C and

250 rpm to an OD_{600} = 0.8, induced with 0.1 mM IPTG, and transferred to 18 °C and 250 rpm for 16 – 17

h. The bacterial pellet was collected and resuspended in 100 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, containing 100 mM

NaCl. Homogenization was performed with Emulsi Flex C3 (Avestin) applying 25,000 to 30,000 psi. The

soluble fraction was collected by centrifugation at 13,000 g and 4 °C for 60 min. Strep-PlaA and variants

were purified using Strep-Tactin Superflow high capacity resin (IBA) and further purified by SEC

(Superdex S200 10/30 Increase) performed with SEC buffer (20 mM Tris pH 8, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. Recombinant periplasmic ProA was isolated by osmotic

shock from *E. coli* BL21 (pCL15) and subsequent anion exchange chromatography (26).

Crystallization, X-ray diffraction, and structure determination

Crystals were obtained by sitting drop vapor diffusion at 20 °C. Initially, 200 nl PlaA solution at 8 mg/mL

in SEC buffer were mixed with 200 nl of 14.7% (w/v) PEG3350, 1% (w/v) PEG 1K, 0.5% (w/v) PEG200,

8.9% (v/v) tacsimate pH 5, 200 mM NH_4I, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, and 1 mM $MgCl_2$. For cryoprotection, crystals were

briefly washed in a solution of 10% (v/v) (2R,3R)-(−)-2,3-butandiole, 16% (w/v) PEG3350, 6% (v/v)

Tacsimate pH 5, and 920 mM NH_4I. To exploit the f'/f'' difference arising from the L I absorption edge of

iodine (5.1881 keV, 2.3898 Å), two datasets at an X-ray energy of 7.000 keV (λ = 1.771196 Å) and with

detector distances of 140 mm and 135 mm were collected at beamline X06DA (PXIII) of the Swiss Light

Source (SLS; Villigen, Switzerland) (59). These data were indexed, scaled and merged with autoproc (60)

and then used for initial phasing by single anomalous dispersion (SAD) analysis through hkl2map and the

SHELX-package (61) The resulting poly-alanine model served as a template for phenix.autobuild (62).

Manual editing was done in Coot (63) from the CCP4 software suite (64). Structure refinement was done

with phenix.refine and pdb-redo (65,66). 13 iodide anions were placed in the final model (Fig. S1B).

High resolution data of a crystal obtained under similar conditions were collected at the same beamline,

using an X-ray wavelength of 1.3778 Å. Diffraction data of a crystal grown from 7 mg/mL PlaA solution in

SEC buffer supplemented with 500 µM 1-monopalmitoyllysophosphatidylcholine (16:0 LPC) with a

precipitant consisting of 2.2 M $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ and 0.2 M NH_4-acetate were collected on beamline P11 of the

PETRAIII synchrotron (DESY Hamburg, Germany) (67). The cryoprotectant consisted of precipitant

solution supplemented with 10% (v/v) (2R,3R)-(−)-2,3-butandiole in this case. Refinement proceeded via

Fourier synthesis followed by employing the same methods as in the case for the SAD structure (specific

data see Tab. 2).

Prediction of 3D structures of PlaA, PlaC and PlaD

The 3D structures of PlaA (gene lpc1811), PlaC (gene lpc3121) und PlaD (gene lpc0558) of *L. pneumophila*

Corby were predicted using the template-less routine of AlphaFold (46) through a local installation of

ColabFold (68). The required protein sequences were obtained from the NCBI protein database (PlaA:

WP_011947186.1; PlaC: WP_011947718.1; PlaD: WP_011947511.1).

Preparation of cell lysates

Pellets of 1 ml overnight cultures of strains expressing PlaA and PlaA variants were lysed with 0.5 mg/ml

lysozyme, 1% Triton X-100 in 1 ml 40 mM Tris-HCl buffer and supplemented with 6 mM NaN_3.

***In vitro* analysis of lipolytic activity and proteolytic processing of recombinant PlaA**

Lipolytic activities of recombinant PlaA variants were investigated as described previously (25,36,69). The

lipid substrates 1-monooctanoyllysophosphatidylcholine (8:0 LPC), 1-

monolauroyllysophosphatidylcholine (12:0 LPC), monotetradecanoyllysophosphatidylcholine (14:0 LPC),

1-monopalmitoyllysophosphatidylcholine (16:0 LPC), 1-monostearoyllysophosphatidylcholine (18:0 LPC),

1-monoarachidoyllysophosphatidylcholine (20:0 LPC), and 1-monobehenoyllysophosphatidylcholine

(22:0 LPC) purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabaster, AL, USA) were applied for the assays. Briefly,

purified recombinant proteins or cell lysates expressing recombinant protein were incubated with

6.7 mM lipid suspensions as micelles (in 40 mM Tris-HCl, 1% Triton X-100) with or without addition of

3.5 mU ProA at 37 °C for the indicated time followed by quantitative detection of free fatty acids (FFA) by

means of the NEFA-C kit (WAKO Chemicals, Neuss, Germany) according to the instructions of the

manufacturer.

FRET liposome-interaction assay

Insertion of PlaA proteins into liposome membranes was determined in 40 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, pH

7.5, at 37 °C by FRET spectroscopy applied as a probe dilution assay (70). L-α-phosphatidylcholine (ePC,

95%, chicken egg) and L-α-phosphatidylethanolamine (ecPE, *E. coli*) were purchased from Avanti (Avanti

Polar Lipids Inc., Alabaster, AL, USA) and prepared at stock concentrations of 10 mg/mL in $CHCl_3$.

Fluorescence conjugated lipids *N*-(7-nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3-diazol-4-yl)-

1,2-dihexadecanoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (NBD-PE) and Lissamine[TM] Rhodamine B

1,2-dihexadecanoyl-*sn*-glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (Rho-DHPE), were purchased from Life

Technologies (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Proteins were added to PC:PE (1:1) liposomes, which were labelled

with 1% of the donor NBD-PE and 1% of the acceptor rhodamine-PE. The fluorescence was measured by

means of a spectrometer (Fluorolog 3, Horiba Jobin Yvon GmbH, Bensheim, Germany). NBD excitation

wavelength was 470 nm. Protein insertion was monitored as the increase of the ratio of the donor

fluorescence intensity I_{donor} at 531 nm to that of the acceptor intensity $I_{acceptor}$ at 593 nm in a

concentration dependent manner. This ratio depends on the Förster efficiency; therefore, a ratio > 1

highlights that the mean distance of donor and acceptor dyes increased. Values were determined 5 min

after addition of 1, 5, 10, 30, 50, and 100 µg/ml protein. Buffer (see above) was used to dilute the

proteins and control.

Analysis of processing status of PlaA from *L. pneumophila*

Overnight cultures of *L. pneumophila* sg1 strain Corby grown in buffered yeast extract (BYE) broth were washed once with warm BYE broth to remove secreted proteins, adjusted to $OD_{600} = 0.3$ in 37 °C BYE broth and incubated for 8 h at 37 °C and 250 rpm. OD_{600} was measured hourly, aliquots of the cultures were adjusted to $OD_{600} = 0.1$ and supernatants were concentrated 100-fold by trichloroacetic acid precipitation. For processing analysis of PlaA by ProA, 250ng PlaA or PlaA E266N L267N were incubated with 0.5 mM ProA for 10-60 min at 37°C. These samples were analyzed in Western blots with primary polyclonal rabbit antibodies against PlaA and ProA (generated by BioGenes from recombinant proteins) (27).

Figure preparation

Figures were prepared with Microsoft Power Point 2010 and Inkscape 0.92. All images, symbols and fonts within the figures are acquired from Microsoft Power Point 2010. Images of crystal structures were generated with PyMOL (71). Western Blots were labelled and processed with Adobe Photoshop CS6. Graphs included in the Figures are visualized by Microsoft Excel 2010.

Data availability statement

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article or in the supplementary information. Structures are available at PDBe with the accession codes 8A24 (PlaA iodide SAD), 8A25 (PlaA complex with PEG fragment), and 8A26 (PlaA complex with palmitate).

Supporting information

This article contains supporting information.

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Data sharing

510 All data generated or analyzed during this study are available in this article and the appendices.

Declaration of Interests

513 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

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Abbreviations:

CTD C-terminal domain

ePC L-α-phosphatidylcholine (chicken egg)

ecPE L-α-phosphatidylethanolamine (*E. coli*)

FFA free fatty acids

FRET Förster-Resonance-Energy-Transfer

GCAT glycerophospholipid:cholesterol acyltransferase

LCV *Legionella*-containing vacuole

LPLA lysophospholipase A

NBD-PE *N*-(7-nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3-diazol-4-yl)-1,2-dihexadecanoyl-*sn*-

glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine

MW molecular weight

PEG polyethylene glycol

PLA/PLB/PLC/PLD phospholipase A/B/C/D

Rho-DHPE Lissamine™ Rhodamine B 1,2-dihexadecanoyl-*sn*-

glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine

SAD single anomalous dispersion

SEC size exclusion chromatography

SP signal peptide

T2SS/T4SS type II/IV secretion system

8:0 LPC 1-monooctanoyllysophosphatidylcholine

12:0 LPC 1-monolauroyllysophosphatidylcholine

14:0 LPC 1-monotetradecanoyllysophosphatidylcholine

16:0 LPC 1-monopalmitoyllysophosphatidylcholine

18:0 LPC 1-monostearoyllysophosphatidylcholine

20:0 LPC 1-monoarachidoyllysophosphatidylcholine

22:0 LPC 1-monobehenoyllysophosphatidylcholine

Tables

Table 1: Important protein characteristics of *L. pneumophila* Corby GDSL enzymes PlaA, PlaC, and PlaD

Data are derived from this study and (26,27).NCBI Pprotein database (PlaA: WP_011947186.1; PlaC:

WP_011947718.1; PlaD: WP_011947511.1).

Protein characteristic	PlaA (lpc1811)	PlaC (lpc3121)	PlaD (lpc0558)
NCBI protein database	WP_011947186.1	WP_011947718.1	WP_011947511.1
Size / SP [amino acids]	309 / 18	433 / 24	519 / no SP predicted
MW [kDa]	34.4	49.7	59.6
MW w/o SP [kDa]	32.8	46.9	no signal peptide
MW w/o SP [kDa], processed	27.8	36.1	not applicable
Preferred ProA cleavage site	E266/L267	Potential sites: **Q366/Y367**, Y363/V364, Q372/Y373	Not applicable
Catalytic triad	S30, D279, H282	S37, D398, H401	S17, D341, H344
Central β-sheet	5 parallel	5 parallel	5 parallel + 1 antiparallel
additional helices in α/β-hydrolase fold	No	Yes (P57-G120 and D166-P193)	No
Lid / disulfide loop	yes (C243-C272)	yes (C343-C388)	no lid and no disulfide loop
Additional C-terminal domain	No	No	Yes (K400-T516)

757   **Table 2:** X-ray data collection and refinement statistics.
758

Structure	PlaA iodide SAD	PlaA PEG complex	PlaA palmitate complex
PDB-ID:	8A24	8A25	8A26
Data collection[a]			
Beamline	SLS X06DA (PXIII; 2018/02/22)	SLS X06DA (PXIII; 2018/02/22)	PetraIII P11 (2018/05/29)
Wavelength (Å)	1.7712	1.3778	1.00
Space group	$P3_121$	$P3_121$	$P3_121$
Cell dimensions			
a, b, c (Å)	81.85, 81.85, 68.21	82.24, 82.24, 68.45	82.92, 82.92, 68.64
α, β, γ (°)	90, 90, 120	90, 90, 120	90, 90, 120
Resolution (Å)[b]	70.89 − 2.36 (2.41 − 2.36)	49.35 − 1.73 (1.76 − 1.73)	49.62 − 1.45 (1.48 − 1.45)
R_{merge} (%)[b]	18.9 (196.2)	6.4 (140.5)	6.3 (160.0)
R_{pim} (%)[b]	3.1 (32.1)	1.5 (32.3)	1.1 (29.6)
$I/\sigma(I)$[b]	21.4 (2.3)	28.5 (2.2)	33.6 (2.3)
Completeness (%)[b]	100.0 (100.0)	96.0 (100)	100.0 (100.0)
Redundancy[b]	38.4 (37.5) anomalous: 20.4 (19.5)	19.2 (19.8)	32.8 (29.8)
$CC_{1/2}$ (%)[b]	99.9 (83.9)	100 (74.4)	100 (82.3)
Refinement			
Resolution (Å)[b]	70.89 - 2.36 (2.45 - 2.36)	49.35 − 1.73 (1.79 − 1.73)	49.62 − 1.45 (1.50 − 1.45)
No. reflections[b]	11124 (1079)	27072 (2801)	48590 (4808)
R_{work} (%)[b]	22.81 (27.67)	15.96 (23.84)	15.55 (25.83)
R_{free} (%)[b]	27.91 (28.90)	18.54 (28.75)	17.74 (26.92)
No. atoms			
Protein	2206	2297	2319
Ligand/ion	13	59	115
Water	62	168	225
B-factors (Å^2)			
Protein	54	35	25
Ligand/ion	90	51	46
Water	53	39	37
R.m.s deviations			
Bond lengths (Å)	0.002	0.005	0.006
Bond angles (º)	0.44	0.800	0.930
Ramachandran			
Favored	94.6	97.21	97.19
Allowed	5.04	2.79	2.81
Outliers	0.36	0.00	0.00

759   [a]Values for the highest resolution shell are shown in parentheses.

760   [a]Data were indexed, integrated, scaled and merged with autoproc. The statistics reported here result

761   from isotropic treatment, using I/σ(I) > 2.0 as a high resolution cut-off.

762
763

765   **Table 3:** Overview of strains used in this study.

766   * -(SP): constructs cloned without sequence coding for the predicted signal peptide (aa 1-18), strain was

767   used for PlaA expression and purification for crystallization, X-ray diffraction, and structure

768   determination.

Organism	Mutation/Plasmid	Tag	Selection marker	Reference
L. pn. Corby	Wild type	-	-	(72)
E. coli BL21 (pCL119)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ (-SP)*	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	(27)
E. coli BL21 (pCL121)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ S30N (-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	(27)
E. coli BL21 (pCL126)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ ΔAA248-67(-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	(27)
E. coli BL21 (pCL127)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ S30N ΔAA248-67 (-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	(27)
E. coli BL21 (pMH41)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ E266N L267N (-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	(27)
E. coli BL21 (pMH42)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ S30N E266N L267N (-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	This study
E. coli BL21 (pCL15)	pet28a(+) proA$_{Corby}$	N-term. Strep-tag	Km^R	(26)
E. coli BL21 (pUS8)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ P283L (-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	This study
E. coli BL21 (pUS9)	pGP172 plaA$_{Corby}$ T220L (-SP)	N-term. Strep-tag	Amp^R	This study

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Crystal structure of *Legionella pneumophila* PlaA in complex with palmitic acid shows that

the disulfide loop covers the catalytic triade.

(A) Schematic overview of *L. pneumophila* PlaA, PlaC, and PlaD showing the location of the SP, the

catalytic triade, the disulfide loop (only found in PlaA and PlaC) and molecular weights of unprocessed

proteins Adapted from (27). (*B*) cartoon representation of PlaA structure, colored from blue at the N-

terminus to red at the C-terminus. Important residues of the active site (catalytic triad: S30, D279, H282)

and the limiting residues (C243, C272) of the disulfide loop (orange) are shown as sticks (carbon: yellow,

oxygen: red, nitrogen: blue, sulfur: gold), together with the product palmitic acid (carbon: black). The

ProA cleavage site resides within the disulfide loop. (*C*) cross-eyed stereoplot of the PlaA substrate

binding site. Palmitic acid is shown in black, the ligand binding cavity is shown in grey. Residues that

contribute to the binding site are shown as sticks (carbon: green). (*D*) surface representation of PlaA.

The protein is in the same orientation as in *B*. Note that the disulfide loop shown in yellow shields the

active site fully. Abbreviations: SP – predicted signal peptide, AA – amino acid(s), S-S bridge – predicted

disulfide bond

Figure 2: Crystal structures of selected proteins related to *L. pneumophila* PlaA according to analysis

with DALI (39)**.**

Ribbon representations with residues of the catalytic triad in the active site are shown as sticks on the

left; top views of the molecular surface are shown on the right. Residues of the disulfide loops are

plotted in yellow. Oxygen and nitrogen atoms of the catalytic triad are shown in red and blue,

respectively. (*A*) Crystal structure of *L. pneumophila* PlaA in complex with palmitic acid. (*B*) *P. aeruginosa*

ChoE is an acetylcholinesterase (PDB entry 1uqv) (40). (*C*) *V. vulnificus* PlpA is a type II-secreted

phospholipase A2 that utilizes a chloride ion (green sphere) instead of aspartate in its catalytic triad (PDB

entry 6jkz) (41). (*D*) EstA is an autotransported esterase displayed on the outer membrane of *P.*

aeruginosa. The autotransporter domain is shown in darker colors (PDB entry 3kvn) (42). Note that ChoE,

PlpA and EstA have significantly shorter disulfide loops than PlaA, which makes their active sites solvent-

accessible.

Figure 3: Deletion of the disulfide loop in PlaA increases membrane interaction.

Protein-membrane interaction of PlaA S30N and disulfide loop deletion mutant PlaA S30N ΔAA248-267 was monitored by FRET spectroscopy. An increase of the intensity ratio $I_{donor}/I_{acceptor}$ corresponds to a reduced FRET efficiency and indicates insertion of proteins into the ePC:ecPE (1:1) liposomes. Experiments were performed in 40 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, at 37 °C. Donor and acceptor intensities of the liposomes were both adjusted to 300,000 cps. PlaA variant concentrations of 1, 5, 10, 30, 50, and 100 µg/ml were titrated into the liposome solution and the respective values were determined 5 min after injection when a steady state was reached. Experiments were repeated four times and the data are shown as means and standard deviation (n=4).

Figure 4: PlaA prefers 16:0 lysophospholipids for hydrolysis and a P283L mutation in the substrate binding pocket changes substrate preference to shorter fatty acids

(*A, B*) -LPLA activities of PlaA and PlaA variants were determined via quantification of free fatty acids (FFA) after incubation for 1 h with the indicated lipids at 37 °C. (A) 200ng recombinant protein of PlaA and its catalytic inactive mutant PlaA S30N (left side) or a disulfide loop truncation mutant PlaA ΔΔAA248-67 and its catalytic inactive mutant PlaA S30N ΔΔAA248-67 (right side) were used for the assay. (B) Cell lysates of strains expressing PlaA and PlaA mutants in the substrate binding site, such as PlaA P283L or PlaA T220L, were used and diluted 1:2. Location of the mutated residue P283L is shown in Fig. 1C and mutated residues P283L and T220L in Fig. S2. Data are shown as means and standard deviation (n=3) and are representative for at least two additional experiments.

Figure 5: Processing of PlaA occurs from mid-logarithmic growth and PlaA activation by ProA is not inhibited by mutation of E266/L267 highlighting ProA's broad cleavage site acceptance

(*A*) The growth of *L. pneumophila* wild type in broth was monitored over a period of 7 h and samples of culture supernatants were analyzed for the presence, processing status of PlaA *(B)*, and presence of ProA *(C)* by Western blotting with PlaA- and ProA-directed antibodies, respectively. Molecular weight standards are shown on the left of the Western blots. The data are representative for one additional experiment. (*D*) LPLA activities of recombinant PlaA (25 ng), a PlaA variant mutated in the preferred cleavage site E266N L267N and catalytic inactive S30N mutants of both were determined via quantification of free fatty acids (FFA) after incubation for 3 h with 16:0 LPC at 37 °C. Reactions were performed without or with addition of 3.5 mU ProA as indicated. (*E*) Western Blots using PlaA-directed antibodies after incubation of PlaA and a mutant in the preferred cleavage site E266N L267N without

and with addition of ProA for 10 min and 1 h. ProA-derived processing occurred for both types of PlaA.

(*D*) Data are shown as mean and standard deviation (n=3) and (D and E) are representative for three

additional experiments.

Figure 6: AlphaFold (46) predicted structures of the three *L. pneumophila* GDSL phospholipases PlaA,

PlaC, and PlaD.

Representations, orientations and color schemes are similar to Fig. 2. (*A*) AlphaFold model of PlaA from

L. pneumophila strain Corby (NCBI Protein database entry WP_011947186.1). Note the correct prediction

of the position of the disulfide loop with respect to the experimental structure (compare to Fig. 2A and

Fig. S2A-C), leading to a shielded active site. (*B*) AlphaFold model of PlaC from *L. pneumophila* strain

Corby (NCBI Protein database entry WP_011947718.1). The predicted position of the disulfide loop leads

to a similar shielding as in PlaA. (*C*) AlphaFold model of PlaD from *L. pneumophila* strain Corby (NCBI

Protein database entry WP_011947511.1). PlaD does not contain a disulfide loop; residues structurally

corresponding to the disulfide loop of PlaA are shown in light blue. The predicted additional C-terminal

domain of unknown function of PlaD is shown in light green. Note that the active site of PlaD is predicted

to be solvent-exposed, however, the C-terminal domain may position itself to block access to the active

center.

A

B