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

***pneumophila* lysophosholipase A PlaA**

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Running title:

Activation of *Legionella pneumophila* lysophosholipase A PlaA

Keywords:

Legionella, phospholipase, GDSL enzyme, activation, 3D structure, disulphide loop, zinc metalloprotease

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 blockage of both substrate access and membrane interaction before activation; however, the catalytic and membrane interaction site gets 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 indeed verified by lipid hydrolysis, suggesting a molecular ruler mechanism. In conclusion, our analysis revealed the structural basis for the regulated activation and substrate preference of PlaA and suggests that protein activation of a potentially lytic enzyme may be important to maintain bacterial integrity.

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), the PlaB-like, and the GDSL enzymes (19-21).

The *L. pneumophila* GDSL enzymes PlaA, PlaC, and PlaD, on which this study is focused, belong to the family of GDSL hydrolases 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 molecular weight, mode of secretion, and activity (Tab. 1). PlaA

and PlaC, which have molecular weights of 34.4 and 49.7 kDa, respectively, harbor a predicted sec SP

and are both secreted via the T2SS Lsp. PlaA mainly shows LPLA and GCAT activities while PlaC reveals

PLA and GCAT activities (24-26). PlaA LPLA but not GCAT activity and PlaC PLA and GCAT activities are

activated by zinc metalloproteinase ProA-dependent cleavage of a disulfide loop (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 *Acanthamoeba castellanii* (31).

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

may also damage the pathogen itself before export from the pathogen. 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. The latter proteolysis-based activation is described for *L. pneumophila* PlaA

and PlaC (26,27,36). Both enzymes contain a disulfide loop within the C-terminal half which is

proteolytically processed by the type II-secreted zinc metalloproteinase ProA. ProA processing

substantially increases the activities of PlaA and PlaC and truncation of the disulfide loop generates

enzymes that are highly active independent of ProA (26,27). These data highlight proteolytic activation

of these enzymes by elimination of a disulfide loop which in the uncleaved form may hinder substrate

access to the catalytic triad.

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/D278/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 polyethylenglycol (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 – E92), the final structures show all of the PlaA protein (Fig. 1A). 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 (Fig. S1B). The

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

The catalytic triad was previously determined as S30, D278, 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. 1A, Fig. S1C). The N-terminus and the C-

terminus of PlaA (shown in blue and red in Fig. 1A) 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 and importance of substrate and product analogues for crystallization

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. 1B). 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. 1A and in yellow in Fig. 1C, respectively)

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

conceivable that ProA-mediated hydrolytic 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 proteolytic maturation site E266/L267 at the C-terminal

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

factors, indicating that they are relatively mobile. We therefore propose that proteolytic maturation by

ProA increases flexibility further and enables parts of the lid to leave the position as observed in the

crystal structure. This would open up the entry to the active site and is in line with proteolytic activation

mechanism 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. 2). 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 membrane interaction of PlaA is influenced by disulfide loop processing

and tested the catalytic inactive variant (PlaA S30N) versus the respective disulfide loop mutant (PlaA

S30N Δaa247-268), which possesses increased enzyme activity similar to the ProA-processed protein

(27), 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. Indeed, a higher ratio and therefore substantial membrane insertion was observed for

the disulfide loop deficient mutant PlaA S30N Δaa247-268 compared to PlaA S30N (Fig. 3). This indicates

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 with the crystal structure

of PlaA in complex with palmitate (Fig. 1B, 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 only exhibited some

detectable activity towards 16:0 LPC (Fig. 4A). Additionally, activity was compared to the disulfide loop-

deleted PlaA ΔAA247-68, which corresponds to ProA-processed PlaA (27). The LPLA activity of PlaA

ΔAA247-68 was distinctly higher than that of uncleaved PlaA and was mainly directed towards 16:0 LPC,

but 8:0 LPC, 12:0 LPC, and 18:0 LPC were also hydrolyzed to a lower extent. 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 (rPlaA S30N and rPlaA S30N ΔAA247-68) were used as controls and did not exhibit

activity towards any of the tested lipid substrates (Fig. 4A). These findings suggest that the substrate

selectivity of PlaA is governed by a molecular ruler mechanism (43).

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

ProA is secreted in sufficient amounts for PlaA processing

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 (Fig. 4B-

D). PlaA was detected as 35 kDa full-length protein during lag and logarithmic growth phases with a

maximum quantity at 2 to 3 h of growth. During mid-exponential growth, from ~4 h of incubation,

processed PlaA with a molecular weight of ~25 kDa (Tab. 1) was detected for the first time and from 5 h

remained the only PlaA version until late logarithmic / stationary phase (Fig. 4B and C). These

observations correlated with an accumulation of ProA in the culture supernatants over time (Fig. 4D). In

conclusion, our experiments indicate that after secretion of sufficient amounts of ProA, PlaA is processed

into its activated form.

PlaA activation by ProA-dependent cleavage 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 and 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 the LPLA activity. We previously reported that this disulfide loop is cleaved by the

L. pneumophila zinc metalloproteinase ProA at the preferred cleavage site E266/L267, resulting in an

increase of the LPLA activity. Also, complete removal of the disulfide loop in PlaA ΔAA247-68 yields fully

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/L267 into N266/N267 is not sufficient to prevent ProA-dependent increase in LPLA

activity of PlaA by proteolytic processing indicating that ProA may attack other exposed residues

surrounding the major cleavage site in the disulfide loop (Fig. 4E). This was indeed implied by peptide

mapping of PlaA digested by ProA which identified additional but less preferred cleavage sites, such as

K264/P265, P265/E266, and L267/T268, directly upstream and downstream of the preferred cleavage

site (27). This further highlights the broad cleavage site acceptance by ProA (44).

Comparison of PlaA to structural models of PlaC and PlaD highlights the presence of catalytic site

covering disulfide loops shielding the catalytic side in PlaC but not PlaD. Similar hydrophobic channel

lengths are found in PlaA, PlaC, and 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 (45). 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. 5A, Fig. S2A-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. S2A-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. 5B). 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 (27). 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. 5C). 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. 5C) 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 blocks substrate access to the catalytic site in ProA-unprocessed PlaA. The active site gets accessible when the disulfide loop is opened up by proteolysis. After structural modelling using AlphaFold, a similar activation mechanism is suggested for PlaC but not 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 (46). 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* (47-50). 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 used to avoid self-inflicted lysis from a lytic enzyme before secretion to the exterior.

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 (51). 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. 1B) which mechanistically underlines host-adapted substrate specificity of these enzymes.

Interestingly, it was shown that PlaA is responsible for the destabilization of the LCV in the absence of the T4BSS secreted effector SdhA, which localizes to the LCV (15). SdhA-deficient *L. pneumophila* is unable to replicate in murine bone-marrow derived macrophages due to impairment of LCV stability with subsequent induction of host cell death pathways (15,52). This phenotype was rescued by the additional deletion of PlaA (15). The mechanism of SdhA action 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. Accordingly, OCRL depletion results in enhanced vacuole integrity and intracellular growth of a *L. pneumophila sdhA* mutant (28). A similar interplay occurs in *Salmonella enterica* spp. *enterica* serovar Typhimurium where the SPI2 type III-secreted effector SseJ, which shows homology to PlaA, destabilizes the vacuolar membrane in the absence of SifA, another SPI2 effector (53). In general, it is important for intracellular pathogens to maintain the integrity of the replication vacuole to avoid detection by the immune system of the host (54). 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 the period of bacterial replication (54), it may be that a change of abundance or activity of either factor could result in exit of *L. pneumophila* from the LCV and subsequently the host cell. The here addressed increase of PlaA activity and membrane interaction by proteolytic activation could disturb the balance between SdhA and PlaA in an infection and might thus lead to destabilization of the LCV triggering the exit process.

The kinetics of PlaA processing and activity *in vivo* have not been described previously. 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. We speculate that ProA-processing of PlaA does not occur before a critical density of intravacuolar bacteria is reached which produces sufficient ProA quantities. In parallel, a similar process is plausible for proteolytic activation of PlaC which might allow cooperation of PlaC, majorly revealing PLA, and PlaA, majorly possessing LPLA activity. Thus, this mechanism might lead to the activation of enzyme activities as a function of cell density in similarity to the regulatory process of quorum sensing (55). In this manner destabilization of the LCV for host exit can be linked to a high cell density and completed bacterial replication.

363 Together, these findings provide insight into the relationship between structure and activity of PlaA and

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

365 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. 2. *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 (36,56,57). If appropriate, 100 µg/ml ampicillin or 50 µg/ml kanamycin

were added to *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. 2). 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 for enzyme activity tests and analysis of crystal

structure. Expression and purification of recombinant ProA.

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

terminally fused Strep-tag (Tab. 2) 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$_4$I, 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$_4$I. 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) (58). These data were indexed, scaled and merged with autoproc (59)

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

SHELX-package (60) The resulting poly-alanine model served as a template for phenix.autobuild (61).

Manual editing was done in Coot (62) from the CCP4 software suite (63). Structure refinement was done

with phenix.refine and pdb-redo (64,65). 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$_4$)$_2$SO$_4$ and 0.2 M NH$_4$-acetate were collected on beamline P11 of the

PETRAIII synchrotron (DESY Hamburg, Germany) (66). 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. 3).

Prediction of 3D structures of PlaA, PlaC and PlaD

The 3D structures of PlaA (gene lpc1811), PlaC (gene lpc3121) und PlaD (gene lpc0558) were predicted

using the template-less routine of AlphaFold (45) through a local installation of ColabFold (67). The

required protein sequences were obtained from NCBI.

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

Lipolytic activities of recombinant PlaA variants were investigated as described previously (25,36,68). The

lipid substrates 1,2-dipalmitoylphosphatidyl-glycerol (PG), 1,2-dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine (PC), 1-

mono-palmitoyllysophosphatidylglycerol (LPG), 1-monooctanoyllysophosphatidylcholine (8:0 LPC), 1-

monolauroyllysophosphatidylcholine (12:0 LPC), 1-monopalmitoyllysophosphatidylcholine (LPC or

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

(20:0 LPC), and 1-monobehenoyllysophosphatidylcholine (22:0 LPC) were applied for the assays. Briefly,

25 ng of recombinant protein were incubated with 6.7 mM lipid suspensions 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).

FRET liposome-interaction assay

Förster Resonance Energy Transfer Spectroscopy—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 (69). 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. 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 60 min after addition of

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 TCA precipitation. These

samples were analyzed in Western blots with antibodies directed against PlaA and ProA (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 (70). 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). Note: The data can be retrieved for review purposes from: https://nubes.helmholtz-berlin.de/s/rgfqBEiN3bHcxPe

Supporting information

This article contains supporting information.

Acknowledgements

We thank Susanne Karste, Ute Strutz, and Christian Galisch (Robert Koch-Institut) and Sabrina Groth (Research Center Borstel) for excellent technical assistance. AF, TG, and WB, received funding from the German Research Association (DFG) (FL359/6-1/2; priority program SPP2225 Exit Strategies of Intracellular Pathogens FL359/10-1 and GU568/8-1; 281361126/GRK2223). We acknowledge the staff at beamlines PXIII/X06DA at SLS (Paul Scherrer Institute, Villigen, Switzerland) and P11 (PETRAIII, DESY Hamburg, Germany) for providing us access to their facilities.

Authors contributions

conceptualized the study: M.H., M.D., C.L., W.B., A.F.

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approved the final version: M.H., M.D., S.W., C.L., W.B., A.F., T.G.

Data sharing

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

Declaration of Interests

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

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706

707 **Abbreviations:**

708 CTD	C-terminal domain
709 ePC	L-α-phosphatidylcholine (chicken egg)
710 ecPE	L-α-phosphatidylethanolamine (*E. coli*)
711 FFA	free fatty acids
712 FRET	Förster-Resonance-Energy-Transfer
713 GCAT	glycerophospholipid:cholesterol acyltransferase
714 LCV	*Legionella*-containing vacuole
715 LPC or 16:0 LPC	1-monopalmitoyllysophosphatidylcholine
716 LPG	1-mono-palmitoyllysophosphatidylglycerol
717 LPLA	lysophospholipase A
718 NBD-PE	*N*-(7-nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3-diazol-4-yl)-1,2-dihexadecanoyl-*sn*-
719	glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine
720 MW	molecular weight
721 PC	1,2-dipalmitoylphosphatidylcholine
722 PEG	polyethylene glycol
723 PG	1,2-dipalmitoylphosphatidyl-glycerol
724 PLA/PLB/PLC/PLD	phospholipase A/B/C/D
725 Rho-DHPE	Lissamine™ Rhodamine B 1,2-dihexadecanoyl-*sn*-
726	glycero-3-phosphoethanolamine
727 SAD	single anomalous dispersion
728 SEC	size exclusion chromatography
729 SP	signal peptide
730 T2SS/T4SS	type II/IV secretion system
731 8:0 LPC	1-monooctanoyllysophosphatidylcholine
732 12:0 LPC	1-monolauroyllysophosphatidylcholine
733 18:0 LPC	1-monostearoyllysophosphatidylcholine
734 20:0 LPC	1-monoarachidoyllysophosphatidylcholine

735   22:0 LPC   1-monobehenoyllysophosphatidylcholine

738 **Tables**

740 **Table 1:** Comparison of protein properties of *L. pneumophila* GDSL enzymes PlaA, PlaC, and PlaD; CTD – presence of additional

741 C-terminal domain

Protein property	PlaA (lpc1811)	PlaC (lpc3121)	PlaD (lpc0558)
Size / SP [AA]	18 / 309	24 / 433	519
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	25.3	36.1	no processing
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	yes (C243-C272)	yes (C343-C388)	no lid and no disulfide loop
CTD	No	no	yes (K400-T516)

744 **Table 2:** Overview of strains used in this study.

745 * -(SP): constructs cloned without sequence coding for the putative signal peptide (aa 1-18), strain was used for PlaA expression

746 and purification for crystallization, X-ray diffraction, and structure determination.

Organism	Mutation/Plasmid	Tag	Selection marker	Reference
L. pn. Corby	Wild type	-	-	(71)
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)

752 **Table 3:** X-ray data collection and refinement statistics.

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

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

754 [a]Data were indexed, integrated, scaled and merged with autoproc. The statistics reported here result from isotropic treatment,
755 using $I/\sigma(I) > 2.0$ as a high resolution cut-off.

     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*) cartoon representation of PlaA, 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. (*B*) cross-eyed stereoplot of the 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). (*C*) surface representation of PlaA. The

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

site fully.

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* 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

insertion of PlaA S30N and disulfide loop deletion mutant PlaA S30N Δaa247-268 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. Values were determined 60 min after addition of 100 µg/ml protein.

Two of three representative experiments are shown. Open and closed circles refer to data points of

different experiments.

Figure 4: PlaA prefers lysophospholipids with 16:0 fatty acid chains for hydrolysis, processing of PlaA in

liquid culture occurs from mid-logarithmic growth, and ProA processing site E266/L267 in PlaA is not

essential for enzyme activation. (*A, E*) PLA and LPLA activities of PlaA and PlaA variants were determined

via quantification of free fatty acids (FFA) after incubation for 3 h with the indicated lipids at 37 °C *(B)*

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 and *(C)* processing status of PlaA and *(D)* presence

of ProA 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. In (*E*) 16:0 phospholipids were used for all lipid species and reactions were performed

without or with addition of 3.5 mU ProA as indicated. (*A, E*) Data are shown as mean and standard

deviation (n=2) and are representative for three additional experiments.

Figure 5: AlphaFold (45) **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. 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. The predicted position of the disulfide loop leads to a similar shielding as in

PlaA. (*C*) AlphaFold model of PlaD. 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

L. pneumophila PlaA

disulfide loop

↺ 90°

disulfide loop

PDB-ID: 8a26

B

disulfide loop

P. aeruginosa ChoE

N   C

↺ 90°

active site

PDB-ID: 6uqv

disulfide loop

C

disulfide loop

V. vulnificus PlpA

N

C

↺ 100°

active site

PDB-ID: 6jkz

disulfide loop

D

disulfide loop

P. aeruginosa EstA

N

C

↺ 90°

PDB-ID: 3kvn

disulfide loop

active site