L. pneumophila deploys a self-active inhibitor for inter-*Legionella* competition

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Abstract

The bacterial pathogen *Legionella pneumophila* alternates between intracellular

replication within host eukaryotes and extracellular residence in multi-species biofilms.

To persist in the extracellular state, *L. pneumophila* must withstand competition from

neighboring bacteria, including other *Legionella*. Here, we find that *L. pneumophila* can

exclude other *Legionella* species from its local environment using a secreted inhibitor:

HGA (homogentisic acid), the unstable, redox-active precursor molecule to *L.*

pneumophila's brown-black pigment. Unexpectedly, we find that *L. pneumophila* is itself

inhibited by HGA secreted from neighboring isogenic strains. This HGA sensitivity is

density-dependent and HGA secretion is linked to growth phase, suggesting that

production of – and resistance to – this inhibitor are functionally linked. Our genetic

approaches further identify *lpg1681* as a gene that modulates *Legionella* susceptibility

to HGA. We propose that HGA behaves as an unusual public good, allowing

established *Legionella* communities to locally protect against invasion by low-density

competitors.

Introduction

Inter-bacterial conflict is ubiquitous in nature, particularly in the dense and highly competitive microenvironments of biofilms (Davey & O'toole, 2000; Foster & Bell, 2012; Ghigo & Rendueles, 2015). In these settings, bacteria must battle for space and nutrients while evading antagonism by neighboring cells. One strategy for managing these environments is for bacteria to cooperate with their kin cells, sharing secreted molecules as public goods (Abisado, Benomar, Klaus, Dandekar, & Chandler, 2018; Nadell, Drescher, & Foster, 2016). However, these public goods are vulnerable to exploitation by other species or by 'cheater' bacterial strains that benefit from public goods but do not contribute to their production. For this reason, many bacteria participate in both cooperative and antagonistic behaviors to survive in multispecies biofilms. Bacterial antagonistic factors can range from small molecules to large proteins, delivered directly or by diffusion, and can either act on a broad spectrum of bacterial taxa or narrowly target only a few species. Although narrowly targeted mechanisms may seem to be of less utility than those that enable antagonism against diverse bacterial competitors, targeted strategies can be critical for bacterial success because they tend to mediate competition between closely-related organisms that are most likely to overlap in their requirements for restricted nutrients and niches (Hibbing, Fuqua, Parsek, & Peterson, 2010).

The bacterium *Legionella pneumophila* (*Lp*) naturally inhabits nutrient-poor aquatic environments where it undergoes a bi-phasic lifestyle, alternating between replication in host eukaryotes and residence in multi-species biofilms (Declerck, 2010; Declerck, Behets, van Hoef, & Ollevier, 2007; Lau & Ashbolt, 2009; Taylor, Ross, & Bentham, 2013). If *Lp* undergoes this lifecycle within manmade structures such as cooling towers or showers, the bacterium can become aerosolized and cause outbreaks of a severe, pneumonia-like disease in humans, called Legionnaires' disease (Fields, Benson, & Besser, 2002; Fraser et al., 1977; McDade et al., 1977). Because of the serious consequences of *Lp* colonization, the persistence and growth of *Legionella* in aquatic environments has been the subject of numerous studies. These studies have examined replication within protozoan hosts (Hoffmann, Harrison, & Hilbi, 2014; Isberg,

O'Connor, & Heidtman, 2008; Lau & Ashbolt, 2009; Rowbotham, 1980), survival in

water under nutrient stress (L. Li, Mendis, Trigui, & Faucher, 2015; Mendis, McBride, &

Faucher, 2015), and sensitivity to biocides (Kim, Anderson, Mueller, Gaines, & Kendall,

2002; Lin, Stout, & Yu, 2011). Here, we focus on interbacterial competition as an

underappreciated survival challenge for *Lp*.

Legionella spp. are not known to produce any antibiotics, bacteriocins, or other

antibacterial toxins. Bioinformatic surveys of *Legionella* genomes have revealed a

number of polyketide synthases and other loci that likely produce bioactive metabolites

(Johnston, Plumb, Li, Grinstein, & Magarvey, 2016; Tobias et al., 2016), but these have

not been shown to exhibit any antimicrobial functions. Nevertheless, there are some

hints that interbacterial competition is relevant for *Lp* success within biofilms. For

example, one study of artificial two-species biofilms found that viable *Lp* were able to

persist for over two weeks in the presence of several bacterial species (e.g.

Pseudomonas fluorescens, Klebsiella pneumoniae) but not others (e.g. *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa) (Stewart, Muthye, & Cianciotto, 2012). Additionally, *Lp* bacteria are often

co-resident with other *Legionella spp.* in man-made structures, with some studies

showing that *Lp* proliferation is correlated with a decrease in other *Legionella spp.*

populations (Declerck et al., 2007; Pereira, Peplies, Höfle, & Brettar, 2017; Wery et al.,

2008). These studies suggest that *Lp* bacteria may compete with other *Legionella spp.*

for similar biological niches. The most direct evidence for interbacterial competition

comes from Stewart et al., 2011, who found that *Lp* could antagonize the growth of

neighboring *Legionella spp.* on the same plate (Stewart, Burnside, & Cianciotto, 2011).

This antagonism was apparently specific to *Legionella*, as other bacterial species were

unaffected. The molecules mediating this competition have not been identified, although

previous work suggested a role for *Lp*'s secreted surfactant, a thin liquid film that

facilitates the spread of *Lp* across agar plates (Stewart et al., 2011; Stewart, Rossier, &

Cianciotto, 2009). Still, it remained unknown if surfactant played a direct or indirect role

in inter-*Legionella* inhibition.

Here, we use unbiased genetic approaches to find that homogentisic acid (HGA)

produced by *Lp* inhibits the growth of neighboring *Legionella spp*. We find that HGA

production co-occurs with surfactant production, but that these are independent,

separable phenomena. The redox state of HGA appears to be critical for its activity, as

oxidized HGA-melanin pigment is inactive. Unexpectedly, we find that although *Lp* in

stationary phase secretes large quantities of this metabolite, low density *Lp* are highly

susceptible to HGA-mediated inhibition. We also identify one gene– *lpg1681*– that

enhances *Lp* susceptibility to HGA. Based on these findings, we propose that HGA

behaves as an unusual public good that may play an important role in structuring

Legionella communities.

Results

***L. pneumophila* inhibits *L. micdadei* via an unknown, secreted inhibitor**

Inspired by previous reports (Stewart et al., 2011), we investigated how

Legionella pneumophila (*Lp*) engages in inter-*Legionella* competition. *Lp* inhibited the

Figure 1: *L. pneumophila (Lp)* produces a secreted inhibitor independent of surfactant. A) When pre-incubated on BCYE charcoal agar plates, *Lp* produces a zone of inhibition, impacting the growth of nearby *L. micdadei (Lm)*. Arrows mark the edge of inhibition fronts. Droplets of *Lm* at different dilutions were added to the plate 3 days after streaking *Lp*. Outside of the zone of inhibition, *Lm* grows in a circle where spotted on the plate, while inhibition either prevents growth completely or results in a crescent of growth away from *Lp*. WT *Lp* (left panel) generates a similar zone of inhibition as a surfactant-null mutant, Δ*bbcB* (right panel). B) Quantification of Lm growth within ("near") or outside of ("far") the wild type *Lp* zone of inhibition. C) Quantification of *Lm* growth within ("near") or outside of the Δ*bbcB Lp* zone of inhibition ("far").

growth of neighboring *Legionella micdadei* (*Lm*) plated 1 cm away on solid media,

potentially via a secreted inhibitor (Figure 1A). We empirically found that this inhibition

was most robust when we plated the *Lp* strain on low-cysteine media 3-4 days prior to

plating *Lm*, allowing time for the inhibitory molecule to be produced and spread across

the plate. Previous work (Stewart et al., 2011) proposed that inter-*Legionella* inhibition

could be caused by *Lp*'s secreted surfactant, which is produced by *Lp* but not *Lm*

(Stewart et al., 2009). However, we observed that the zone of inhibition surrounding *Lp*

did not always co-occur with the spread of the surfactant front (Supplemental figure 1A),

suggesting that *Lp* may secrete a separate, undescribed inhibitor. To test this

hypothesis, we deleted a surfactant biosynthesis gene, *bbcB*, from the *Lp* genome

(Stewart et al., 2011). The resulting Δ*bbcB* strain did not produce surfactant

(Supplemental figure 1B), yet it still inhibited adjacent *Lm*, demonstrating that surfactant

production is not required for inter-*Legionella* inhibition (Figure 1A, Supplemental Figure

1C). To quantify this inhibition, we recovered *Lm* grown at different distances from *Lp*.

After 48h incubation, we found a 10,000-fold difference in growth between *Lm*

antagonized by *Lp* and those plated outside of the zone of inhibition (Figure 1B). We

next asked if surfactant enhanced inhibition by quantifying inhibition from the Δ*bbcB Lp*

strain on *Lm*. Again, surfactant production had little impact and we observed nearly

identical inhibition from both wild type *Lp* and Δ*bbcB Lp* (Figure 1C). We therefore

conclude that *L. pneumophila* can cause strong growth inhibition of neighboring

Legionella using an unknown molecule that is distinct from surfactant.

Transposon screen pinpoints HGA-melanin pathway in inter-*Legionella* inhibition

To determine which molecule(s) might be responsible for inter-*Legionella*

inhibition, we performed an unbiased genetic screen in *Lp*. Briefly, we generated *Lp*

mutants using a drug-marked Mariner transposon that randomly and efficiently

integrates into the *Legionella* genome (O'Connor, Adepoju, Boyd, & Isberg, 2011). To

identify mutants that were defective in producing the inhibitor, we transferred each

mutant onto a lawn of *L. micdadei* on low-cysteine plates, and examined the resulting

zone of inhibition surrounding each *Lp* mutant (Figure 2A). After screening 2870 clones,

Figure 2: Transposon mutagenesis screen implicates HGA-melanin pathway in production of inhibitor. **A)** Screen for mutant *L. pneumophila* (*Lp*) that do not inhibit *L. micdadei* (*Lm*). Following electroporation of a Mariner-containing plasmid, *Lp* mutants were selected for transposon integration. Colonies were patched or replica plated onto a lawn of *Lm*. Mutants of interest generated a zone of inhibition that was reduced (black arrowhead) or absent (pink arrowhead) compared to WT *Lp*. **B)** Selected transposon mutants produce abnormal zones of inhibition when grown on a lawn of *Lm*. Pink arrowhead indicates the hisC2::Tn "no zone" mutant. **C)** Transposon insertion sites (triangles) identified in the five recovered "no zone" mutants. **D)** HGA-melanin synthesis pathway. HGA is exported from the cell where it auto-oxidizes and polymerizes to form HGA-melanin. Genes indicated in pink were validated by complementation to have essential roles in *Lm* inhibition.

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we isolated 19 mutants that produced a smaller zone of inhibition than wild type *Lp*, as

well as 5 mutants that showed a complete loss of inhibition (Figure 2B, Supplemental

Table 1). We refer to these as "small zone" and "no zone" mutants, respectively.

We focused on the "no zone" mutants, as these had the strongest defects in

inhibition. These 5 mutants carried transposon insertions in two separate operons

(Figure 2C). The first operon had two insertions in the *hisC2* gene (*lpg1998)*, which

breaks down tyrosine as part of a metabolic pathway called the HGA-melanin pathway

(Figure 2D). Its downstream gene, *pphA*, converts phenylalanine to tyrosine in the same

pathway. To validate the role of *hisC2* in inhibition, we overexpressed this gene in the

hisC2 transposon mutant background, and found that *hisC2* alone was sufficient to

complement the mutant phenotype (Supplemental Figure 2A). Having confirmed the

role of *hisC2*, we turned to the second operon, where we had recovered mutations in

two uncharacterized genes, *lpg2276* and *lpg2277* (Figure 2C). These two genes lie

immediately upstream of *hpd* (*lpg2278*), which is known to act with *hisC2* in the HGA-

melanin pathway (Gu, Song, Bonner, Xie, & Jensen, 1998; Steinert et al., 2001) (Figure

2D). Because transposon insertions at the beginning of an operon can disrupt the

expression of downstream genes via polar effects, we hypothesized that the insertions

we recovered in *lpg2276* and *lpg2277* altered inter-*Legionella* inhibition via disruption of

hpd expression. Indeed, we were able to complement insertions in both genes by

overexpressing *hpd*, despite the fact that *hpd* overexpression caused a growth defect

(Supplemental Figure 2A). In conclusion, all five "no zone" isolates had mutations that

disrupted the same metabolic pathway.

The HGA-melanin pathway is found in diverse bacteria and eukaryotes (Liu &

Nizet, 2009; Nosanchuk & Casadevall, 2003), where it produces homogentisic acid

(HGA) from the catabolism of phenylalanine or tyrosine (Fang, Yu, & Vickers, 1989;

Steinert et al., 2001) (Figure 2D). Once made, HGA can either be further metabolized

and recycled within the cell via HmgA-C, or it can be secreted outside of the cell, where

it auto-oxidizes and polymerizes to form a black-brown pigment called HGA-melanin, or

pyomelanin (Kotob, Coon, Quintero, & Weiner, 1995) (Figure 2D). To our knowledge,

the HGA-melanin pathway has not previously been implicated in inter-bacterial

competition. To test whether intracellular metabolites downstream of HGA are

necessary for inhibition, we deleted *hmgA*, the first gene in the pathway that returns

HGA into central metabolism. The Δ*hmgA* strain produced a zone of inhibition that was

similar or perhaps slightly larger than wild type (Supplemental Figure 2B), suggesting

that the intracellular processing of HGA is not important for inhibition. Furthermore, we

observed defects in HGA-melanin pigmentation in all of the "no zone" mutants as well

as some of the "small zone" mutants (Supplemental Figure 3A). We therefore inferred

that synthesis of secreted HGA and/or HGA-melanin is required for *Lp* inhibition of *Lm.*

HGA inhibits the growth of *Legionella micdadei*, but HGA-melanin pigment does

not

Our genetic studies

illustrated the

importance of the

HGA-melanin pathway

in the inhibition of *L.*

micdadei. We were

somewhat surprised by

this result, as prior

work has emphasized

the beneficial (rather

than detrimental)

effects of HGA-melanin

on *Legionella* growth,

such as improved iron

scavenging (Chatfield

& Cianciotto, 2007)

and protection from

light (Steinert,

Figure 3: Synthetic HGA inhibits *Legionella micdadei* growth, depending on its oxidation state. **A)** We tested whether inter-bacterial inhibition is caused by HGA, HGA-melanin, or an oxidative intermediate. **B)** Zones of inhibition on a lawn of *Lm* generated from live *Lp* bacteria, synthetic 50mM HGA, or concentrated pigment extract. HGA prevents *Lm* growth in a large region (central dark circle) but pigment does not. **C)** Growth inhibition of *Lm* from increasing concentrations of HGA in rich AYE media. **D)** Pre-oxidation of synthetic HGA in AYE media for 24h eliminates its inhibitory activity, resulting in normal *Lm* growth. Concentrations of HGA colored as in panel C. Error bars show standard deviations among 3-4 replicates.

Engelhard, Flügel, Wintermeyer, & Hacker, 1995). We therefore asked whether the

active inhibitor produced by the pathway was HGA-melanin, or alternatively if it could be

a transient precursor molecule (Figure 3A). In repeated experiments testing the activity

of HGA-melanin pigment from *Lp* conditioned media, we never observed any inhibition

of *Lm*. We hypothesized that perhaps the pigment secreted into rich media was too

dilute to be active, or alternatively that other nutrients in the media might interfere with

inhibition. To address these concerns, we isolated a crude extract of HGA-melanin from

Lp conditioned media via acid precipitation (as in (Chatfield & Cianciotto, 2007)),

washing and concentrating the pigment approximately 10-fold. In multiple assays, the

concentrated pigment also showed no inhibitory activity (Figure 3B, Supplemental

Figure 4A).

The first metabolite secreted by the HGA-melanin pathway is HGA, which auto-

oxidizes and polymerizes to form HGA-melanin (Steinert et al., 2001). In contrast to

HGA-melanin, synthetic HGA robustly inhibited *Lm* growth, both when spotted onto a

lawn of *Lm* and when titrated into AYE rich media (Figure 3B, 3C). Because the

inhibitory concentrations of synthetic HGA were relatively high (>50µM), we next asked

whether these concentrations are biologically relevant. Compared to other *Legionella*

spp., *Lp* produces much more pigment (Supplemental Figure 3B), suggesting that it

secretes considerably more HGA. To estimate the quantity of secreted HGA, we used a

standard curve of synthetic HGA. Following oxidation in AYE rich media for 24 hours,

the amount of synthetic HGA-melanin pigment can be measured by OD 400 and

compared to the color of oxidized *Lp* conditioned media to quantify the abundance of

HGA (Supplemental Figure 5A). After 48h in culture, we infer that wild type *Lp* had

secreted the equivalent of 1.7mM HGA, while the hyperpigmented Δ*hmgA* strain

secreted about 2.6mM HGA. In contrast, we did not detect any pigment from the non-

inhibitory *hisC2*::Tn strain (Supplemental figure 5B). Thus, HGA can be an abundant

secreted metabolite of *Lp*, with a potential to accumulate to concentrations relevant for

inter-*Legionella* inhibition.

We next asked which molecular features of HGA were relevant for its inhibitory

activity. Two HGA-related molecules— 2-hydroxyphenylacetic acid and 3-

hydroxyphenylacetic acid— differ from HGA by only the removal of a single -OH group.

Neither compound inhibited *Lm* growth at any concentration tested (Supplemental figure

6), suggesting that inhibition of *Lm* by HGA is relatively specific at the molecular level.

We also considered the possibility that HGA as a weak acid could inhibit *Lm* indirectly

by altering the local pH, but we observed that adding HGA at 1mM into AYE media or

PBS caused little to no change in pH.

Another well-studied feature of HGA is its redox potential (Eslami, Namazian, &

Zare, 2013). If HGA can auto-oxidize, it may cause growth inhibition by oxidizing other

nearby molecules, either in the media or on bacterial cells. This scenario is consistent

with our observation that oxidized HGA-melanin is inactive (Figure 3B, Supplemental

Figure 4A). To test the specific hypothesis that HGA oxidizes and depletes nutrients in

the media, we allowed synthetic HGA to oxidize completely for 24h in AYE media before

adding *Lm* (Supplemental Figure 5A). If HGA acts by causing nutrient depletion, we

expected that media pre-incubated with HGA would be unable to support normal *Lm*

growth. Contrary to this hypothesis, we observed that *Lm* grew normally in all conditions

and that the pre-oxidation completely abolished synthetic HGA activity (Figure 3D,

compare to 3C). We can therefore reject the hypothesis that HGA activity results from

indirect nutrient limitation, or any other modifications of the media. Instead, we infer that

Lm inhibition results from direct interactions between bacterial cells and either HGA

itself or unstable, reactive intermediates produced during HGA oxidation.

If the redox state of HGA is critical for inhibition, we reasoned that it should be

possible to modulate HGA activity by altering the redox state of the media with reducing

agents. We accomplished this by titrating L-cysteine from 25% to 200% of the levels in

standard AYE media. In the absence of HGA, these altered cysteine concentrations had

little impact on *Lm* growth (Supplemental Figure 4B). However, lower levels of cysteine

greatly sensitized *Lm* to HGA, while excess cysteine was completely protective

(Supplemental Figure 4B). In related experiments, incubation of HGA with reduced

glutathione or DTT (dithiothreitol), two other reducing agents, similarly quenched HGA's

inhibitory activity (Supplementary Figure 4C). We conclude that HGA is less potent in

rich media because it reacts with and oxidizes the excess cysteine (or other bystander

molecules) before it can interact with *Lm*. Taken together, these results implicate HGA's

oxidizing activity and/or its oxidative intermediates in inter-*Legionella* inhibition.

L. pneumophila can be susceptible to its own inhibitor

Our results so far indicated that, while HGA can be a potent inhibitor, its activity

appears to be volatile and capable of reacting with many types of molecules. If *Lp* uses

HGA to compete with neighboring *Legionella spp.*, we hypothesized that *Lp* would have

some form of resistance to its secreted inhibitor. Therefore, we next tested *Lp*

susceptibility to inhibition in low-cysteine conditions, as we had previously done for *Lm*.

Surprisingly, we found that *Lp* was quite sensitive to inhibition by neighboring *Lp* that

was already growing on the plate (Figure 4A). Indeed, *Lp* susceptibility closely mirrored

the susceptibility of *Lm* to inhibition (compare to Figure 1A), even though the bacteria

secreting the inhibitor were genetically identical to the inhibited *Lp*. In both cases, we

observed a sharp boundary at the edge of the zone of inhibition. In contrast, the "no

zone" *Lp* strain *hisC2*::Tn did not generate a sharp zone of inhibition against

neighboring *Lp* (Figure 4A), suggesting that the HGA-melanin pathway was responsible

for both *Lm* inhibition and *Lp* inhibition. To determine whether the susceptibility of *Lp* to

Figure 4: *L. pneumophila* is susceptible self-inhibition by HGA. **A**) When pre-incubated on agar plates, *Lp* produces a zone of inhibition (arrows), impacting the growth of *Lp* plated 3 days later. The "no zone" mutant *hisC2*::Tn does not produce a sharp front of inhibition. **B**) Increasing concentrations of synthetic HGA inhibit the growth of *Lp*, causing a growth delay. Error bars showing standard deviation are small and mostly obscured by the symbols. **C**) Timing of HGA-melanin pigment accumulation in AYE rich media, measured by OD400 after allowing for full oxidation (red boxes, right y-axis) across a growth curve of *Lp* (gray circles, left y-axis). Abundant HGA is secreted into conditioned media (CM) in early stationary phase and continues after cells cease growth. Estimates of secreted HGA concentration (red) are based on a standard curve of synthetic HGA. Error bars show standard deviations from 4 replicates. **D**) Reduction in viable CFUs following 24h incubation with of *Lp* without (-) or with (+) 125μM HGA in nutrient-free PBS. When incubated at high density (10^9 CFU/mL), bacteria are resistant to HGA, while they are higly sensitive at lower density (10^7 CFU/mL or lower). Dotted line shows limit of detection.

HGA was restricted to low-cysteine conditions, we grew *Lp* in the presence of synthetic

HGA in rich media. Again, we found that the HGA was inhibitory, causing a growth

delay in liquid cultures (Figure 4B). Notably, synthetic HGA was active against *Lp* at the

same concentrations that were inhibitory to *Lm* (compare Figure 4B and 3C). These

results are consistent with a potential role for HGA in both interspecies and intraspecies

Legionella inhibition.

We initially found these results to be somewhat perplexing, as we had expected

Lp to show some resistance to its own inhibitor. Why should *Lp* secrete large quantities

of HGA and potentially inhibit its own growth if this process is non-essential (as

evidenced by the robust growth of the *hisC2*::Tn mutant)? Although we had already

estimated that wild type *Lp* can secrete enough HGA to generate abundant pigment

(equivalent to 1.7mM, Supplemental Figure 5B), we did not know if this HGA was

secreted all at once, or alternatively if it was released slowly over time. Under the latter

scenario, the HGA might oxidize before it accumulated to inhibitory concentrations. To

differentiate between these possibilities, we tracked HGA secretion across a growth

curve of *Lp* in rich media, using HGA-melanin levels in fully oxidized media to infer the

amount of secreted HGA. It has long been known that *Lp* produces abundant HGA-

melanin pigment in stationary phase, when the bacteria are undergoing very slow or no

growth (Figure 4C) (Berg, Hoff, Roberts, & Matin, 1985; Pine, George, Reeves, &

Harrell, 1979; Wiater, Sadosky, & Shuman, 1994). By comparing to a synthetic HGA

standard curve (Supplemental Figure 5), we estimate that *Lp* produces a burst of HGA

in stationary phase, secreting over 250µM within 5 hours (Figure 4C). HGA secretion

then continues after the population has ceased growing. These quantities of HGA

should be more than enough to be inhibitory to *Lp* (Figure 4B).

Based on the timing of HGA secretion, we hypothesized that *Lp* might be more

resistant to this inhibitor when at high density and/or when the cells are not actively

growing. To test this hypothesis, we washed and diluted stationary-phase *Lp* in nutrient-

free PBS with 125µM HGA and measured viability by CFUs at 0 and 24 hours. No

measurable darkening of the HGA was detected in this assay, suggesting that the

oxidation and de-activation of HGA was considerably slowed in low-nutrient conditions.
We found that *Lp* incubated at high density with HGA (above 10^8 CFU/mL) were
largely protected from inhibition (Figure 4D). In contrast, when we diluted the same
culture to lower density (below 10^7 CFU/mL), bacteria were extremely sensitive to
HGA, with at least a 100,000-fold reduction in CFUs. Similarly, HGA did not inhibit *Lp*
growth rich media when bacteria were inoculated at high density (Supplemental figure
7). Based on the substantial, density-dependent difference in HGA susceptibility, we
wondered if *Lp* might regulate HGA resistance via quorum sensing. However, when we
deleted *lqsR*, the putative quorum sensing response regulator from *Lp* (Tiaden et al.,
2007), this had no detectable impact on HGA susceptibility (Supplemental figure 7).
Therefore, the density-dependent susceptibility of *Lp* to HGA must be independent of
this pathway.
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Taken together, these results show that *Lp* can be highly susceptible to inhibition
by adjacent, genetically identical bacteria via HGA. Similar to our findings in *Lm*, the
potency of HGA-mediated inhibition is exacerbated in low nutrient conditions. We also
observe that *Lp* secretes abundant HGA when in stationary phase and at high density.
Because *Lp* at high density also appear to be protected from HGA, this strategy may
restrict the potential for self-harm.
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320   **Non-essential gene *lpg1681* sensitizes *L. pneumophila* to HGA**
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Our results suggested that *Lp* bacteria are sensitive to HGA at low density but
resistant at high density. We next investigated the genetic basis of HGA susceptibility
and resistance in *Lp*. First, we hypothesized that the HmgA-C proteins, which break
down intracellular HGA and recycle it back into central metabolism, might also process
and deactivate extracellular HGA (Rodriguez-Rojas et al., 2009) (Figure 2D). In growth
curves of the Δ*hmgA* mutant with increasing concentrations of synthetic HGA, we found
that its response to HGA was nearly identical to that of wild type *Lp* (Supplemental
Figure 8). These results suggest that the intracellular recycling pathway does not play
an appreciable role in *Lp* responses to HGA.
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Having excluded the obvious candidate pathway for HGA resistance, we pursued

an unbiased genetic approach. Because HGA is strongly inhibitory to low density

bacteria, we performed a selection for spontaneous, HGA-resistant mutants of *Lp* and

Lm using a high HGA concentration that normally prevents almost all growth for both

species. To prevent HGA

from reacting with media

components and becoming

inactive (as in Figure 3D,

Supplemental Figure 4), we

mixed the bacteria with 1mM

HGA in water agar and

poured overlays onto low-

cysteine BCYE plates. After

six days, an average of 53

colonies had grown up on

each *Lp* plate selected with

HGA, whereas only 3-5

colonies grew on *Lm* plates

selected with HGA, or on

low-cysteine plates of *Lp* or

Lm without HGA. Based on

these results, we focused on

HGA-selected mutants of

Lp. After retesting the

phenotypes of spontaneous

mutants on HGA + low-

cysteine plates, we

recovered 29 *Lp* strains that

grew significantly better than

wild type *Lp* (Figure 5A). In

addition, all 29 strains grew

Figure 5: *L. pneumophila* susceptiblity to HGA is modulated by *lpg1681*. **A**) Growth of HGA-selected spontaneous mutants (*) compared to wild type *Lp*. All isolates grew better than wild type in selection conditions (HGA + low cysteine), as well in low cysteine conditions. **B)** Predicted structure of *lpg1681*-containing operon in *Lp* strains. *lpg1681* is a hypothetical gene that lies downstream of *lpg1682*, a predicted oxidoreductase/dehydrogenase, and upstream of *dsbD2*, a thiol:disulfide interchange protein. **C)** In rich media, a spontaneous *lpg1681* mutant (*lpg1681**) and the *lpg1681* deletion strain (Δ*lpg1681*) are less sensitive to growth inhibition by HGA than wild type *Lp,* as seen by a shorter growth delay at each concentration of HGA. Overexpression of *lpg1681* (OE) heightens sensitivity to HGA (longer growth delay). Graphs here summarize experiments similar to those in Fig 4B. See Supplemental Figure 8 for full data.

363 better than wild type *Lp* on low-cysteine plates without HGA, raising the possibility that

364 HGA susceptibility is related to cysteine metabolism and/or that the strains had adapted

365 to low-cysteine conditions.

367 **Table 1**: Genes Mutated in HGA-Selected *L. pneumophila*

Mutated locus	Function or Product	# Spontaneous Mutants w/ this mutation	Mutations Recovered
lpg1681	Hypothetical Protein	4	R49K, R49S, R49G, T50K
lpg0288	YjeK, 2,3-beta-lysine aminomutase	11	W8S, Q9*, L26G, K39*, A50P, R101L, D196G, H215R, Q243K, I250F, Q294*
lpg0607	PoxA/YjeA/GenX, Elongation factor P beta-lysine transferrase	5	W100*, Q184L, A218V, Q258*, 1 bp deletion in S156
lpg0325	RpS7 ribosomal 30S protein	1	G100D
lpg0336	RplP 50s ribosomal protein	1	G88R
lpg0287	Elongation factor P	1	Stop>Q (70 AA Extension)
lpg0349	SecY	3	N118K, Q132R, R369L
lpg2001	SecD	2	V238F, A277G
lpg1504	AceE pyruvate dehydrogenase	1	P272C

* =introduction of a stop codon

To determine the underlying genetic basis of these phenotypes, we sequenced

the genomes of all 29 strains plus our wild type strain of *Lp* to a median depth of 118x

and identified mutations genome-wide. Each mutant strain carried 1 to 3 unique point

mutations relative to the starting strain, and most of these mutations were found in a few

shared loci (Table 1). Nineteen of the twenty-nine strains carried mutations in

translation-related machinery, 5 had missense mutations in *secY* or *secD* (*lpg0349* and

lpg2001), members of the translocon complex that moves polypeptides across the

cytosolic membrane, 1 had a mutation in *aceE* pyruvate dehydrogenase (*lpg1504*), and

4 had mutations in a hypothetical gene, *lpg1681* (Figure 5B). We suspect that the

translation-related mutations had highly pleiotropic effects on protein expression by

disrupting elongation factor P function and thereby enhancing ribosome stalling at

polyproline tracts (Doerfel et al., 2013; Marman, Mey, & Payne, 2014; Navarre et al.,

2010; Yanagisawa, Sumida, Ishii, Takemoto, & Yokoyama, 2010). Based on the

frequency of polyprolines in the *Lp* proteome, disruptions to elongation factor P function

have the potential to impact the expression of about 33% of *Lp* proteins. The

phenotypes observed in these mutants could therefore result from either a large scale

shift in *Lp* gene expression, or from the altered expression of specific susceptibility

genes.

Given that all the HGA-selected mutants grew better than wild type *Lp* on both

low-cysteine plates and on low-cysteine plates with HGA overlays, we asked whether

the mutants had specific resistance to HGA, if they had primarily adapted to low-

cysteine conditions, or if they had pleiotropic mutations that broadly impacted cell

growth. Growth curves of representative HGA-selected mutants with or without HGA in

cysteine-rich AYE media showed that *lpg0288* and *aceE* mutants exhibited some

growth defects in cysteine-rich media, consistent with potential pleiotropic impacts on

the cell (Supplemental Figure 8E). Mutants in *lpg1681*, *secD*, and *secY* had no growth

defects and also showed a reproducible decrease in HGA susceptibility (Figure 5C,

Supplemental Figure 8E). Of these, *lpg1681* mutants showed the largest improvement

in growth in the presence of HGA.

The hypothetical gene *lpg1681* is predicted to encode a small, 105 amino acid

protein with no predicted domains apart from two transmembrane helices. This gene is

adjacent in the genome to *lpg1682*, a predicted oxidoreductase/dehydrogenase, and

lpg1680, the thiol:disulfide exchange protein DsbD2 (Figure 5B). Functional studies of

DsbD2 (aka DiSulfide Bond reductase D2) have demonstrated that it interacts with

thioredoxin to regulate disulfide bond remodeling in the periplasm (Inaba, 2009; Kpadeh,

Day, Mills, & Hoffman, 2015). If *lpg1681* has a redox function related to its neighboring

genes, we expected its syntenic locus to be conserved across bacterial strains and

species. We found that the *lpg1680-1682* locus is present and conserved among over

500 sequenced *Lp* strains currently in NCBI databases. Outside of *L. pneumophila*,

lpg1681 is mostly restricted to the *Legionella* genus, present in about half of the

currently sequenced species (Burstein et al., 2016) (Supplemental Figure 9). A homolog

of *lpg1681* is also found in the draft genome of *Piscirickettsia litoralis*, a gamma

proteobacterium and fish pathogen (Wan et al., 2016). In all cases, *lpg1681* resides

upstream of *dsbD2*, suggesting a functional link between these proteins (Supplemental

Figure 9).

Because *lpg1681* appears to reside within an operon with redox-related genes

and HGA activity is linked to its redox potential, we viewed *lpg1681* as a promising

candidate for a gene involved in HGA susceptibility. We constructed *lpg1681*

overexpression and deletion strains in *Lp* and tested the susceptibility of these strains to

HGA. Similar to the spontaneous mutants we recovered, the Δ*lpg1681* strain was more

resistant to HGA in rich media (Figure 5C). Conversely, overexpression of *lpg1681*

increased *Lp* sensitivity, resulting in longer growth delays than wild type at high

concentrations of HGA. We therefore conclude that wild type *lpg1681* expression

sensitizes *Lp* to inhibition by extracellular HGA.

Discussion

In this study, we identify HGA as a mediator of inter-*Legionella* inhibition.

Furthermore, we find that inter-*Legionella* inhibition and surfactant production are

separate, but co-occurring, phenomena. Although surfactant is not required for

inhibition, we hypothesize that surfactant may enhance the spread of HGA and/or its

reactive intermediates away from the secreting *Lp* bacteria, which may explain previous

results (Stewart et al., 2011).

The HGA-melanin pathway is well-studied and widespread among bacteria and

eukaryotes, so we were surprised to find a previously undescribed role for HGA in

interbacterial competition. Somewhat paradoxically, HGA-melanin production in bacteria

has previously been implicated both in the production of and protection from reactive

oxygen species (production: (Noorian et al., 2017); protection: (Keith, Killip, He, Moran,

& Valvano, 2007; Orlandi, Bolognese, Chiodaroli, Tolker-Nielsen, & Barbieri, 2015)).

Based on our results, we hypothesize that HGA may be responsible for oxidative

damage, while the HGA-melanin pigment serves other, beneficial roles. The redox-

based inhibition that we observe for HGA is analogous to that of pyocyanin from
Pseudomonas aeruginosa and similar phenazine pigments, which are also produced at
high cell density (Baron, Terranova, & Rowe, 1989; Hassan & Fridovich, 1980). One
major difference is that pyocyanin impacts an extremely broad range of species,
including diverse bacteria and eukaryotes (Baron et al., 1989; Kerr et al., 1999; Noto,
Burns, Beavers, & Skaar, 2017). In contrast, previous work found that *Lp* secretions can
inhibit *Legionella spp.,* but have little impact on other bacterial taxa (Stewart et al.,
2011)*. We speculate that the observed specificity arises simply because *Legionella spp.*
are quite sensitive to oxidative stress relative to other bacteria (Domingue, Tyndall,
Mayberry, & Pancorbo, 1988; Hoffman, Pine, & Bell, 1983). Nevertheless, because the
ecological niche of *Lp* appears to overlap with other *Legionella* strains and species
(Pereira et al., 2017; Wery et al., 2008), HGA-mediated inter-*Legionella* inhibition has a
strong potential to impact the success of *Lp* in both natural and manmade
environments.
458
Another major difference between phenazines and HGA is that phenazines have
not been reported to be self-active, because the phenazine-producing bacteria are
protected by their antioxidant defenses (Hassett, Charniga, Bean, Ohman, & Cohen,
1992). However, self-active effects can be difficult to observe, particularly if bacteria at
high cell density are resistant. In our hands, intraspecies inhibition by HGA was
apparent only in assays competing high-density populations with low-density, invading
competitors. Furthermore, we note that the inhibitory activity of molecules like HGA is
transient and is quenched by the cysteine-rich media typically used to grow *Legionella*
in the lab (Figure 3D, Supplemental Figure 4). This may explain why HGA-mediated
inhibition of *Legionella* has not been previously reported. Still, our complementary
inhibition assays performed in rich media, low-cysteine media, and nutrient-free media
suggest that HGA inhibition can occur across environmental settings, and only becomes
more potent as conditions approach the nutrient-limited, slow growth conditions that
Legionella likely experience within biofilms.
473

In many modes of interbacterial competition, organisms that produce toxic
molecules also possess resistance genes to avoid self-targeting. It was therefore initially
perplexing that *Lp* can produce a self-active inhibitor, particularly given that genes for
HGA production and the HGA-sensitizing gene *lpg1681* are both non-essential under
laboratory conditions. One possible explanation is that the benefits of HGA or HGA-
melanin for *Lp* outweigh the self-harm of HGA. These benefits could include antagonism
against other *Legionella* as demonstrated here, or previously described benefits of
HGA-melanin, including UV protection and iron reduction (Chatfield & Cianciotto, 2007;
Steinert et al., 1995). Antagonism against eukaryotic cells may be another benefit; the
hpd gene in the *Lp* HGA synthesis pathway was originally named *lly,* or legiolysin,
because expression of the gene in *E. coli* caused erythrocyte lysis on blood agar plates
(Wintermeyer et al., 1994). Finally, the redox activity of HGA may play a beneficial role
in *Legionella* gene expression and/or anaerobic respiration within biofilms, as is the
case for pyocyanin and other phenazines in *Pseudomonas* (Mavrodi et al., 2013).
488
Beyond these benefits, the context and timing of HGA secretion may constrain
the potential for self-harm. In laboratory conditions, HGA secretion occurs primarily in
late stationary phase, when cells are at high density ($\sim 10^9$ CFU/mL) (Figure 4C).
Because *Lp* at high density are also more resistant to HGA (Figure 4D), *Lp* self-
protection apparently involves a definition of "self" based on growth phase, density,
and/or regulatory state, rather than one based on the presence of genetically-encoded
resistance genes. Consistent with this idea, our selection scheme to identify genes
involved in HGA resistance (Figure 5) recovered mostly pleiotropic defects in
translation, in addition to *lpg1681*, which enhances *Lp* susceptibility to HGA (Table 2). It
may therefore be difficult for *Lp* to evolve resistance to HGA at low cell densities without
altering other important cellular functions.
500

The features of *Lp*
sensitivity and resistance to
HGA that we have uncovered
(production of a self-toxic
compound, resistance to that
compound based on regulatory
state, and barriers to evolving
resistance) have interesting
implications for *Legionella*
sociomicrobiology. In biofilms,
bacterial populations can

Figure 6: Model for HGA activity in biofilms. *Lp* (purple) colonizes a surface and grows to form a microcolony. Once cells are at high density, they secrete abundant HGA (yellow). Through unknown mechanisms, high density *Lp* are resistant to HGA's effects (bold outline), while low density *Lp* or other *Legionella* species (blue) are inhibited by HGA and cannot invade the microcolony's niche. The territorial protection via HGA allows for the established *Lp* community to secrete other public goods such as surfactant, which are protected from exploitation by other bacteria.

cooperate in the production of shared, secreted public goods (Nadell et al., 2016;
Steenackers, Parijs, Foster, & Vanderleyden, 2016). For *Lp*, such public goods include
the production of siderophores, surfactant, and quorum sensing signals (Liles, Scheel, &
Cianciotto, 2000; Spirig et al., 2008; Stewart et al., 2011). However, such public goods
can be vulnerable to cheating if other bacteria exploit these extracellular resources. In
this context, HGA is an unusual public good (Figure 6). Because high-density,
established bacterial communities are largely resistant to inhibition, they can use HGA
to protect against low-density, invading *Legionella* with little harm to themselves. Due to
these dynamics, we propose that HGA can act as a niche-protective public good.
Moreover, because HGA activity can be felt well outside the spread of other *Lp* public
goods such as surfactant (Supplemental Figure 1), HGA may simultaneously protect a
number of other public goods from being exploited by invading bacteria. Across many
bacterial species, the production and use of public goods is regulated by quorum
sensing (Abisado et al., 2018). Although our results suggest that the known quorum
sensing pathway in *Lp* is not involved in HGA production or resistance (Supplemental
Figure 7), future studies on the regulation of HGA resistance may identify additional
molecular pathways that are critical to the social behaviors of *Legionella* in bacterial
communities.
530

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions The bacterial strains and plasmids used for this study are listed in Table 3. As our wild type *Legionella pneumophila (Lp)* strain, we used KS79, which was derived from JR32 and ultimately from isolate Philadelphia-1 (de Felipe et al., 2008; Rao, Benhabib, & Ensminger, 2013; Sadosky, Wiater, & Shuman, 1993). Compared to JR32, the KS79 strain has a *comR* deletion to enable genetic manipulation (de Felipe et al., 2008). We used *Legionella micdadei (Lm)* tatlock as our susceptible strain (Garrity, Brown, & Vickers, 1980). Liquid cultures of *Legionella* were grown shaking in AYE liquid media at 37˚C (De Jesús, O'Connor, & Isberg, 2013). To manipulate the redox state of AYE, we altered the amount of cysteine added to the media from 0.4 g/L in standard AYE to 0.1, 0.2, and 0.8 g/L. On solid media, *Legionella* were grown either on BCYE agar plates either containing the standard cysteine concentration (0.4g/L) or in "low cysteine" conditions (0.05g/L) (Feeley et al., 1979; Solomon & Isberg, 2000). *E. coli* strains used for cloning were grown in LB media. Where indicated, antibiotics were used at the following concentrations in solid and liquid media, respectively; chloramphenicol (5 µg/mL and 2.5 µg/mL), kanamycin (40 µg/mL) and ampicillin (50 µg/mL and 25 µg/mL). For counter-selection steps while generating deletion strains, 5% sucrose was added to BCYE plates. For top agar and overlay experiments, we used 0.7% agar dissolved in water, which was kept liquid at 50˚C before pouring over BCYE plates.

Gene deletions and complementations Genomic knockouts in *L. pneumophila* were generated as previously described (Wiater et al., 1994). Briefly, we used an allelic exchange plasmid (pLAW344) harboring chloramphenicol and ampicillin selection cassettes and the counter-selection marker SacB, which confers sensitivity to sucrose. Into this plasmid, we cloned ~1kb regions upstream and downstream of the gene of interest to enable homologous recombination. Following electroporation and selection on chloramphenicol, we used colony PCR to verify insertion of the plasmid into the chromosome, before counter-selection on sucrose media. From the resulting colonies, we performed PCR and Sanger sequencing to verify clean gene deletion. For

complementation, the coding region of a candidate gene was cloned into a plasmid

(pMMB207c) following a ptac promoter (J. Chen et al., 2004). To induce gene

expression, strains carrying pMMB207c-derived plasmids were exposed to 1mM IPTG.

All constructs were assembled using Gibson cloning (NEB Catalog #E2621).

Inhibition assays on agar plates To visualize inhibition between neighboring

Legionella on solid media, a streak of approximately 5 x 10^6 CFU of the inhibitory

strain of *Lp* was plated across the center of a low-cysteine BCYE plate. After 3 days

growth at 37˚C, dilutions of susceptible *Lp* or *Lm* were plated as 10µLspots

approximately 1 cm and >2 cm from the central line. Once spots were dry, plates were

then incubated for an additional 3 days before scoring for inhibition. This assay was also

used to quantify the bactericidal inhibition of *Lm*, with slight modifications. Here, all *Lm*

was plated in 20µLspots at 10^6 CFU/mL. The time of plating susceptible *Lm* was

treated as t=0. Once spots were dry, plugs were extracted from within the *Lm* spots

using the narrow end of a Pasteur pipette. These plugs were transferred into media,

vortexed, and plated to quantify CFU. This procedure was repeated after 48h at 37˚C to

compare *Lm* viability and growth within ("near", Figure 1B-C) or outside ("far") of the

zone of inhibition.

For inhibition assays on bacterial lawns, we plated 10µL drops of either live *Lp* or

chemical compounds on top of a lawn of 5 x 10^7 CFU *Lm* on low-cysteine BCYE, and

assessed growth of the lawn after 3 days at 37˚C. Synthetic HGA (Sigma: #H0751) was

dissolved in water at a concentration of 100 mM and filter sterilized before use. HGA-

related compounds, 2-hydroxyphenylacetic acid (Sigma: #H49804) and 3-

hydroxyphenylacetic acid (Sigma: #H49901), were prepared in the same way. To test

the impact of DTT (Sigma: #43819) and glutathione (oxidized: Sigma #G4376 , reduced:

Sigma #G6529) on HGA-mediated inhibition, filter-sterilized solutions dissolved in water

were mixed in equimolar ratios with HGA, and incubated shaking at room temperature

for 1 hour before spotting onto bacterial lawns. HGA-melanin pigment was prepared

from *Lp* conditioned media as previously described (Zheng, Chatfield, Liles, &

Cianciotto, 2013) from KS79, the unpigmented *hisC2*::Tn mutant, and the

hyperpigmented Δ*hmgA* mutant. Briefly, conditioned media was collected and sterile

filtered from 100 mL cultures of *Lp* in AYE media grown shaking at 37˚C for 3 days. The

conditioned media was acidified to a pH of 1.5 and transferred to 4˚C for 2 hours to

precipitate. Precipitated pigment was collected by centrifugation at 4000 x g for 15

minutes and then washed with 10 mM HCl. Pelleted pigment was then returned to

neutral pH and resuspended in PBS at 10X before testing.

Transposon mutagenesis screen For random transposon insertion mutagenesis, we

used a Mariner transposon from the pTO100 plasmid (O'Connor et al., 2011). We

electroporated this plasmid into the KS79 strain and allowed cells to recover at 37˚C for

5 hours. To select for cells with integrated transposons, cultures were plated on

BCYE/Kan/sucrose plates and incubated at 37˚C for 3 days before screening individual

mutant colonies.

To identify transposon mutants with defects in *Lm* inhibition, we transferred each

Lp mutant onto a low-cysteine plate with a lawn of 5 x 10^7 CFU *Lm* and visually

screened for those with either small zones of inhibition or no zone of inhibition. Mutants

were added on top of the *Lm,* either by replica plating with sterile Whatman paper

(Whatman: #1001150) or by transferring with a sterile toothpick. Plates were then

incubated at 37˚C for 3 days and scored. All putative mutants underwent clonal re-

isolation, were diluted to OD 600 of 0.1, and spotted on *Lm* lawns to retest their

phenotypes. To map the sites of transposon integration, we used arbitrary PCR as

described in (T. Chen, Yong, Dong, & Duncan, 1999), with primers redesigned to work

with the pTO100 transposon (Table 3). Briefly, this protocol involved two PCR steps to

amplify the DNA flanking the transposon. The first step used low annealing

temperatures to allow the arb1 randomized primer to bind many sites in the flanking

DNA while the pTO100_F or pTO100_R primer annealed within the transposon,

generating multiple products that overlapped the flanking DNA. These products were

amplified in the second step PCR using the arb2 and pTO100_Rd2 primers, and we

used the pTO100_Rd2 primer for Sanger sequencing. PCR programs and conditions

were as in (T. Chen et al., 1999).

HGA inhibition assays in liquid cultures For rich media assays (e.g. Figures 3C, 3D,
4B), overnight cultures of *Legionella* were diluted to 10^8 CFU/mL in AYE, mixed with
synthetic HGA or pigment in 96 well plates, and grown shaking at 425 cpm at 37˚C. The
cytation 3 imaging reader (BioTek™ CYT3MV) was used to monitor growth by OD 600
measurements. Because oxidized pigment from synthetic HGA is detected at OD 600,
each experiment included bacteria-free control wells containing media and each
concentration of HGA. To correct OD 600 readings for pigment development, at each
time point we subtracted the control well reading from bacterial wells that received the
same concentration of synthetic HGA. For experiments with HGA "pre-oxidation" (Figure
3D), we diluted HGA in AYE media and incubated this solution shaking at 37˚C for 24
hours in the plate reader before adding bacteria. Complete oxidation of HGA during the
24 hours was monitored using OD400 to track the accumulation of HGA-melanin
pigment (Supplemental figure 5). In *Lp*, HGA inhibition in AYE rich media resulted in a
growth delay, similar to an extended lag phase (Figure 4B). To compare sensitivity to
HGA among *Lp* strains, we calculated the lag phase from the growth curve of each well
using the GrowthRates program (Hall, Acar, Nandipati, & Barlow, 2014). We excluded a
small number of samples where the growth curve was not well fit (R<0.99), and then for
each strain used the difference in lag time between the samples with and without HGA
to calculate the growth delay due to HGA (Figures 5C).

As a complementary assay, we evaluated *Legionella* viability when exposed to
HGA in nutrient-free PBS at different cell densities. Stationary phase cultures were
washed once and re-suspended in PBS. We diluted these bacteria to estimated starting
concentrations of 10^9, 10^8, and 10^7 CFU/mL and plated for CFU at t=0. We
distributed the remaining bacteria into 96 well plates with or without 125 µM HGA.
Plates were incubated shaking in a plate reader at 425 cpm at 37˚C for 24 hours before
plating to quantify CFU on BCYE plates. CFU were counted after 3-4 days growth at
37˚C.

Estimation of amount of HGA secreted by *Lp* HGA-melanin is a black-brown pigment
that is easily detected at OD 400. We took advantage of this coloration to estimate the

amount of HGA that had been secreted by *Lp* by comparing the color of conditioned

media to a standard curve of oxidized synthetic HGA. To isolate conditioned media from

pigment mutant strains, cultures of KS79, Δ*hmgA*, and HisC::Tn were inoculated with

fresh colonies from a BCYE plate into 5 mL AYE and were grown shaking at 37˚C for 48

hours. We then collected conditioned media by pelleting the bacteria and passing the

supernatant through a 0.2μm filter. To harvest conditioned media for a time course,

cultures of *Lp* were inoculated into 5 ml AYE and grown shaking at 37˚C. After 15, 20,

24, 39, 44, and 48 hours, we measured the OD 600 of the culture and collected

conditioned media. To create a standard curve, we diluted synthetic HGA into AYE at

the following concentrations: 62.5 μM, 125 μM, 250 μM, 500 μM, and 1 mM. The

conditioned media and standard curve samples were incubated in a 96 well plate in a

plate reader shaking at 37˚C for 24 hours to allow the HGA to oxidize. We used OD 400

data from the 24 hour time point to generate a standard curve for each HGA

concentration and calculated a line of best fit using linear regression. This equation was

used to estimate the amount of secreted HGA that corresponded to the OD 400 of each

conditioned media sample. (Supplemental Figure 5).

HGA-resistant mutants Because the inhibitory activity of HGA is quenched through

interactions with rich media (Supplemental Figure 4), it was not possible to select for

HGA-resistant mutants by mixing HGA into BCYE agar. Instead, to reduce the potential

for HGA to react with media components while allowing sufficient access to nutrients for

mutant cells to grow, we selected for HGA-resistant mutants by mixing 4 x 10 ^7 CFU

Legionella with 1mM HGA in 4mL of 0.7% water agar and pouring this solution as an

overlay on a low-cysteine BCYE plate. Plates were incubated at 37˚C for 6 days, before

candidate resistant colonies were picked and clonally isolated. The HGA resistance and

growth of each isolate was re-tested on overlays with or without 1mM HGA on both

regular and low-cysteine BCYE.

Twenty-nine isolates were more resistant to HGA than wild type *Lp* upon

retesting. We sequenced and analyzed genomic DNA from these isolates and a

matched wild type strain as follows. DNA was prepared from each strain using a

Purelink genomic DNA mini kit (Invitrogen, #K1820). DNA concentrations were

quantified using Qubit and normalized to 0.5 ng/uL. Barcoded libraries were prepared

using tagmentation according to Baym et al. 2015 (Baym et al., 2015), analyzed with

QuantIT DNA quantification, pooled, and sequenced with 50 bp paired-end reads on an

Illumina HiSeq 2500 machine. Reads were trimmed for quality and to remove Nextera

indices with Trimmomatic (Bolger, Lohse, & Usadel, 2014) and mapped to the

Philadelphia-1 genome (Chien et al., 2004) using Bowtie2 with default parameters

(Langmead, Trapnell, Pop, & Salzberg, 2009). Coverage plots were generated for each

strain using bamcoverage (Ramírez et al., 2016) and visually examined for evidence of

large genomic deletions and amplifications. None were observed, apart from a

prophage that was present in the reference genome but missing from all sequenced

strains, including our wild type KS79 strain. Variants were detected for each mutant

using Naive Variant Caller (Blankenberg D, et al. In preparation). Those variants that

were detected in mutant strains but not the wild type strain were considered as putative

causative mutations. For each of these mutations, we inspected the mapped reads and

excluded faulty variant calls that either were adjacent to coverage gaps or that did not

appear to be fixed in the clonal mutant and/or wild type sequences, likely due to errors

in read mapping. After this manual filtering, 1-3 well-supported mutations remained for

each mutant genome. Nine of the mutants had undergone selection on a different day

from the other mutants: in addition to various unshared mutations, these nine strains

each carried exactly the same missense mutation in *rplX*, which we disregarded as a

background mutation that likely arose before selection. Following this exclusion, each

mutant carried only a single well-supported mutation in a coding region. Most often this

coding mutation was the only mutation we detected, although one mutant carried two

additional intergenic point mutations. The coding mutations were point mutations or

small deletions that resulted in non-synonymous changes, frame shifts, or gene

extensions. Across different mutants, the mutations we uncovered were repeatedly

found in the same, few loci (Table 1).

Evolution of *lpg1681* The genes in the HGA-melanin synthesis pathway are highly

conserved in diverse bacteria and across the *Legionella* genus, with all genes present in

all 41 currently sequenced *Legionella spp.* genomes (Burstein et al., 2016). In contrast,

we were able to identify *lpg1681* in only 30 *Legionella spp.* genomes, as well as a single

draft genome outside the *Legionella* genus– *Piscirickettsia litoralis*, an intracellular fish

pathogen (Wan et al., 2016). Across the *lpg1681*-containing genomes, there is evidence

for extensive recombination of the flanking loci, yet *lpg1681* is always found upstream of

dsbD2. We identified most of these homologs of *lpg1681* using a jackhmmr search

(Finn et al., 2015), followed by cross-referencing the homologs with the *Legionella*

orthology groups defined by Burstein et al., 2016. From this starting set, additional

lpg1681 orthologs were identified in unannotated, intergenic regions by searching for

>200bp open reading frames upstream of *dsbD* orthologs, and confirming the homology

of these regions using MAFFT alignments (Katoh, Misawa, Kuma, & Miyata, 2002).

Through this method, we located *lpg1681* in all currently sequenced *Legionella*

genomes that contain an annotated *dsbD2* gene, with the exception of *L. shakespearei.*

We categorized the *lpg1681*-containing loci into those with similar synteny, based on

the orthology group annotations in Burstein et al. 2016. We colored and provided names

for the neighboring genes in Supplemental figure 9 if they had a homolog in the *L.*

pneumophila Philadelphia-1 genome that was not annotated as a hypothetical gene. To

assess the conservation of the *lpg1680-lpg1682* among *L. pneumophila* strains, we

used blastn in the NCBI nr and wgs databases with the full *lpg1680-lpg1682* genomic

DNA sequence as a query. We found that the full region was conserved with few

mutations across 501 currently sequenced *L. pneumophila* strains.

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