Sphingomyelin is critical in organizing phosphoinositide dynamics during phagocytic uptake

of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*

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Abstract

Infection by Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb) represents a significant global health burden. Mtb invades alveolar macrophages through phagocytosis, and cholesterol has been shown as essential for this invasion, but the roles played by other host lipids remained poorly understood. As such, this study investigated the role of sphingolipids in the early stages of Mtb infection. To this end, we use chemical and genetic perturbations of the sphingolipid biosynthetic pathway to show that sphingolipids are required for efficient phagocytosis of Mtb. We define this dependency to the presence of cellular sphingomyelin and show that sphingolipid depletion does not affect other forms of endocytosis. We furthermore show that the turnover dynamics of phosphoinositides and recruitment of small GTPases to the phagosomal synapse are perturbed upon blockade of sphingolipid synthesis. Finally, we show that the clustering of innate immune receptors such as Dectin-1 and the concurrent exclusion of the regulatory phosphatase CD45 at the phagocytic synapse is defective in sphingolipid-deficient cells. This work represents an essential step in understanding the coalescence of host-pathogen interactions that give rise to Mtb as a global pathogen.

Introduction

The etiologic agent behind an estimated 10 million new cases of tuberculosis and 1.6 mil-lion deaths in 2017 alone, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) has established itself as a highly effective and insidious pathogen[1,2]. Mtb invades alveolar immune cells through phagocytosis, and wields an extensive repertoire of effector molecules that operate to dampen the immune response, reprogram the host lipidome, and promote long-term intracellular survival[3,4]. As an intracellular pathogen, Mtb necessarily interacts with its host along numerous lipid interfaces throughout its infectious lifecycle. Understanding the biological roles of host lipids during infection may illumi-nate novel routes of therapeutic strategies to prevent the onset and spread of tuberculosis[5].

In most contexts, phagocytosis is critical for clearing dead and effete cells, and serves as a first line of defense against microbial pathogens. This process culminates in the engulf-ment and internalization of target particles, which are subsequently degraded following conver-gence of the phagosome with the lysosome[6]. In the context of pathogen clearance, uptake by pro-fessional phagocytes (primarily monocytes, macrophages, and dendritic cells) results in a robust inflammatory response and antigen presentation that may contribute to an adaptive immune re-sponse[7]. For example, our previous work shows that phagocytic uptake of *Candida albicans* is essential for the clearance of infection *in vivo*[8]. In contrast, Mtb is highly adept at subverting its own degradation to survive within phagosome-derived compartments through an array of mecha-nisms. As one example, this pathogen inhibits the Ca^{2+}-dependent fusion of the phagosome to the lysosome by disrupting the activity of sphingosine kinase[6,9]. Despite extensive literature on the host-pathogen interactions of Mtb, the specific functional roles played by host lipid species at the

site of initial phagocytic uptake of Mtb have remained relatively unstudied. In particular, struc-

tural and signaling functions played by sphingolipids at the cell membrane and within the phago-

some during Mtb infection are unknown.

Sphingolipids are a complex family of membrane lipids that contain a sphin-

goid base. Sphingomyelin constitutes a significant fraction of the total lipid composition of the

exoplasmic leaflet of the plasma membrane and plays critical roles in the organization of lipid

rafts[10,11]. A growing body of literature shows that sphingolipids mediate functions beyond existing

as membrane barrier components: members of this family accumulate in lipid rafts and act as sec-

ondary messengers within the cell[12–14]. These signaling functions are relevant to many biological

processes that span from apoptosis and autophagy to stress response and inflammation in many (if

not all) mammalian cell types[15–17]. In one example, the cellular proportions of ceramide and

spingosine-1-phosphate have been shown to act as a rheostat that determines cell survival under

stress. Notably, it has been shown that the biosynthetic flow of sphingolipids through the Golgi

creates a regulatory feedback loop that controls the levels of phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate,

though interactions outside of the *trans*-Golgi network are unknown[18].

Prior work has investigated the roles played by sphingolipids during the phagocytosis of

other particles – contradictory reports describe the effect of sphingolipid depletion during phago-

cytosis. In one example, we have previously reported that cellular sphingolipids are critical for the

in vivo clearance of *Candida albicans* infection through phagocytosis by macrophages[8]. In con-

trast, depletion of cellular sphingolipids enhances phagocytic uptake of opsonized particles[19]. To-

gether, these differing results suggest that the roles played by sphingolipids during phagocytosis

may be pathogen or particle specific, based on the specific ligands decorating a particle[20]. It has

been shown previously that phagocytosis of Mtb is cholesterol-dependent[21]. However, the role of

sphingolipids during uptake of Mtb is unknown.

Here, we employed chemical and genetic tools to manipulate levels of sphingolipids in

mammalian phagocytes, and infected them using an mCherry-expressing reporter strain of H37Rv

Mtb. We first show that host sphingolipid depletion reduces the capacity of Mtb to invade host

cells through phagocytosis – but that other mechanisms of cellular uptake are unaffected. We show

that sphingolipid-depleted cells display defects in phagocytic signaling including a defect in the

activation and recruitment of the small GTPases Rac1 and CD42 to the phagocytic cup. We further

show that the turnover of phosphoinositidyl-4,5-*bis*phosphate is impaired during phagocytosis in

sphingolipid depleted cells. Finally, we show that sphingolipid depletion results in defective ag-

gregation of phagocytic receptors at the site of particle engagement. Together, these data demon-

strate the need for intact host sphingolipid biosynthesis during the initial stages of Mtb infection.

These data also suggest a novel mechanism through which sphingolipids coordinate phosphoinosi-

tide-mediated signaling during phagocytosis of Mtb.

Results

Manipulating sphingolipid biosynthesis in mammalian phagocytes using genetic and chemi-

cal tools

To answer our central question – "Are sphingolipids required for the phagocytic uptake of

Mtb?" – we sought to inhibit sphingolipid biosynthesis in established phagocytic models. We first

used a chemical approach to inhibition using the compounds myriocin and fumonisin B1. As de-

picted in Figure 1A, the initial and rate limiting step of sphingolipid synthesis is the production of

the sphingoid base through the condensation of serine and palmitoyl-CoA, and is performed by

the enzymatic complex serine palmitoyltransferase (SPT)[22]. The atypical amino acid myriocin

(Myr) specifically blocks the activity of SPT, and thereby blocks total *de novo* synthesis of sphin-

golipids[8]. The fungal toxin fumonisin B1 (FB1) acts several steps downstream in the sphingolipid

biosynthetic pathway by blocking the activity of ceramide synthase[8]. As the central nexus of sphin-

golipid synthesis, ceramide is converted into many classes of higher sphingolipids - including

sphingomyelin, glycosphingolipids, and galactosylceramides[23,24].

To verify the reported effects of myriocin and fumonisin B1, we used thin layer chroma-

tography to visualize the incorporation of 3-L-[^{14}C]-serine into sphingolipid species in RAW

246.7, THP-1, DC 2.4, and U937 cells following 3-day treatment with 15 μM Myr and 5μM FB1

(Figure 1D and Supplementary Figure 1). Across all cell lines, treatment with these compounds

resulted in significant reduction of sphingolipid content, without disrupting phosphatidylserine

content – demonstrating the specificity and potency of these compounds (Figure 1E and F).

As an orthogonal method to the above chemical inhibitors, we used CRISPR/Cas-9 editing

to generate Sptlc2 knockouts in both RAW 264.7 and DC 2.4 cells. Sptlc2 is one of the members

of the SPT complex, and we previously reported that this knockout phenocopies myriocin treat-

ment[8]. We validated loss of protein expression by Western blotting (Figure 1C). We used thin

layer chromatography to visualize the incorporation of 3-L-[^{14}C]-serine into lipid species in both

wildtype and Sptlc2$^{-/-}$ RAW 246.7 and DC2.4 cells. In both cases, Sptlc2 deletion significantly

reduced sphingolipid content without altering phosphatidylserine levels (Figure 1E and F and Sup-

plemental Figure 1).

To further examine the lipid composition of sphingolipid deficient cells, we performed

mass spectroscopy-based lipidomic analysis of RAW 264.7 macrophages following treatment with

chemical inhibitors and Sptlc2 knockout. We examined cellular levels of sphingosine, ceramide,

sphingomyelin, glucosylceramide. As expected, both myriocin and Sptlc2 knockout result in sig-

nificant reduction of all sphingolipid species (Figure 1 G-J). In fumonisin B1 treated cells, we

observe reduction of all sphingolipid species downstream of ceramide synthesis (the point of inhi-

bition along the biosynthetic pathway), but we observe a concordant increase in sphingosine (syn-

thesized upstream of ceramide), as reported previously (Figure 1G-J)[25].

Notably, we observe that myriocin and fumonisin B1 treatment, as well as Sptlc2 knockout,

do not result in the total ablation of cellular sphingolipid content. This is at least partially attribut-

able to the activity of the sphingolipid salvage pathways, through which cells may acquire sphin-

golipids from additives in media – primarily serum. As we describe below, cells grown in the

absence of serum additive quickly die when sphingolipid biosynthesis is inhibited.

137   **Sphingolipid depletion has no significant effect on cell morphology or cell division.**

138   What effect does the inhibition of sphingolipid synthesis have on basal cellular functions?

139   We hoped to characterize the changes to morphology and cell growth resulting from myriocin and

140   fumonisin B1 treatments, and Sptlc2 knockout.

141   We show that in RAW 264.7, DC 2.4, THP-1, and U937 cells, there are minimal decreases

142   in replication rates following three-day treatments with 5μM myriocin and 15μM fumonisin B1,

143   and following Sptlc2 knockout (Supplementary Figure 2B and C and data not shown). Similarly,

144   we use brightfield microscopy to show that there are no obvious defects of cellular morphology

145   over the course of inhibitor treatments, or following Sptlc2 knockout (Supplementary Figure 2A

146   and data not shown). As noted above, serum is an essential additive when culturing sphingolipid-

147   deficient cells. We observe that RAW 264.7 Sptlc2 knockout cells rapidly die in the absence of

148   serum, whereas wildtype cells remain relatively healthy after three days without serum (data not

149   shown). We believe that cells deficient in sphingolipid biosynthesis acquire sphingolipids from

150   media at only the minimal level to allow cell growth, as their overall sphingolipid content is sig-

151   nificantly lower than in wildtype cells (Figure 1D-J).

152   Notably, when grown in the presence of serum, the major phenotype observed in these cells

153   over the course of this study is in the rate of phagocytic uptake of certain particles, as we have

154   reported previously for DC 2.4 knockout cells[8]. We observe that Sptlc2$^{-/-}$ RAW 264.7 cells display

155   a significant reduction in the capacity to phagocytose Zymosan A particles (data not shown).

156   Having thus characterized the effects inhibition of sphingolipid biosynthesis, we hoped to

157   use these inhibitory mechanisms (myriocin, fumonisin B1, and Sptcl2 knockout) to address the

158   question: "Are sphingolipids an essential host factor in the phagocytic uptake of Mtb?"

159

160 **Cells deficient in sphingolipid biosynthesis display reduced capacity to phagocytose Mtb.**

161   To investigate the role of sphingolipids during phagocytic uptake of Mtb, we used Myr and

162 FB1 to block sphingolipid synthesis in RAW 264.7, THP-1, DC 2.4, and U937 cells. We then

163 infected cells with an mCherry-expressing strain of Mtb to quantify rates of phagocytosis. Figure

164 2A depicts the experimental and analysis workflow. Briefly, cells were infected at a multiplicity

165 of infection (MOI) of 10 for two hours, after which cells were fixed and stained with Alexa Fluor

166 488-conjugated phalloidin and with DAPI (to visualize F-actin at cell boundary and nuclei, respec-

167 tively). Fluorescence microscopy was used to quantify uptake efficiency through automated count-

168 ing of cell number (by nuclei) and internalized bacteria (red fluorescent particles within green cell

169 boundary). We report uptake efficiency as the ratio of the total number of internalized Mtb parti-

170 cles against the number of identified nuclei, and normalized the uptake rate of treated cells to that

171 of untreated cells to address variability between biological replicates. In all cell models analyzed,

172 we observed a statistically significant reduction in Mtb uptake of approximately 50% following

173 treatment with myriocin, and approximately 40% for fumonisin B1 (Figure 2B-I). Similarly, the

174 knockout of Sptlc2 resulted in approximately 50% of wildtype uptake in both RAW 264.7 and DC

175 2.4 cells (Figure 2B-I). These results suggest that the maintenance of total cellular sphingolipid

176 levels through active sphingolipid biosynthesis is required for efficient phagocytic uptake of Mtb

177 across four model cell lines and irrespective of the mechanism of inhibition. We next sought to

178 identify the exact species required for efficient Mtb uptake.

179 **Sphingolipid-depleted cells are permissive to virus that utilizes phagocytosis-like processes**

180   Are the effects of sphingolipid depletion restricted to phagocytic uptake? To answer this

181 question, we performed parallel infections of RAW264.7 wildtype and Sptlc2 knockout cells using

182 a fluorescent reporter strain of Herpes Simplex Virus-1 (HSV) encoding a fusion of viral protein

VP26 and mCherry[26]. HSV is an enveloped virus that gains entry to host cells through the phago-

cytosis-like process of macropinocytosis, and the viral receptors have been shown to be nectin-1

(also known as herpesviruses entry mediator)[27,28]. It has been shown that HSV entry is dependent

on cholesterol-rich lipid rafts and dynamin2[29]. At 12-hours post-infection, we visualized and quan-

tified rates of infection using fluorescence microscopy as described above. Because the VP26-

mCherry reporter construct localizes to the nucleus, we did not stain cells using phalloidin and

instead used the colocalization of DAPI with mCherry as a measure of infection. We observe that

there is no significant difference in the infection rates of wildtype and Sptlc2-/- cells, suggesting

that sphingolipids play no significant role in the entry of HSV-1 (Figure 2J and K). These data

demonstrate that endocytic pathways are functional in sphingolipid-deficient cells, suggesting a

specific role for sphingolipids in phagocytosis of bacterial pathogens such as Mtb by immune

cells.

Cells deficient in sphingomyelin biosynthesis display reduced Mtb infection

Which sphingolipid confers this phenotype? Because sphingomyelin is highly enriched to

the exoplasmic leaflet of the plasma membranes, we hypothesized that this lipid species is respon-

sible for reduced Mtb uptake in cells depleted of total sphingolipids[10,23,38]. Because sphingomyelin

is a terminal branch of the sphingolipid biosynthetic pathway, and its synthesis mainly mediated

by the enzyme sphingomyelin synthase 1 (SGMS1), cells may be depleted of this specific lipid

species through CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knockout of this gene. Two SGMS1 CRISPR knockout

clones of U937 cells were kindly provided to us by the lab of Dr. Sebastian Virriera Winter, iso-

lated as previously described[39]. Using these SGMS1 knockouts, we performed Mtb uptake assays

as described above. We found that, despite minor clonal differences, these cells are significantly

reduced in their capacity to uptake Mtb to a similar degree as to that of cells deficient in the bio-

synthesis of all sphingolipids (Figure 3A and B). Together with the above results, these data sug-

gest that sphingomyelin is particularly crucial for the phagocytic uptake of particles such as Mtb.

Sphingolipid depleted cells are defective in activation of small GTPases Cdc42/Rac1.

What is the mechanism through which sphingolipids enable phagocytic uptake of Mtb?

Phagocytosis is strictly regulated through a signaling network that involves the dynamic activation

and recruitment of both enzymes (such as GTPases, kinases, and phosphatases) and lipids – par-

ticularly several phosphatidylinositol species. As depicted in Figure 4A, the GTPases Cdc42 and

Rac1 are activated via phosphorylation following engagement of phagocytic receptors to patho-

genic particles such as Mtb[30]. The activation of these GTPases builds as a particle is fully engaged

by a phagocytic receptor; once a particle is engulfed, Cdc42 and Rac1 are deactivated via

dephosphorylation as the phagocytic signaling cascade is terminated[30]. We hypothesized that in-

hibiting sphingolipid biosynthesis would prohibit the activation of Cdc42 and Rac1 during phag-

ocytosis.

To address this hypothesis, we transfected wildtype and Sptlc2$^{-/-}$ RAW 264.7 macrophages

with a fluorescent biosensor consisting of the fusion of YFP to the p21-binding domain of the p21-

activated kinase (PBD(PAK)-YFP)[31,32]. Endogenous PAK is recruited from the cytosol to specif-

ically bind to phosphorylated Cdc42 and Rac1 at the site of phagosome formation, and diffuses

back to the cytosol upon the dephosphorylation of these GTPases –this biosensor enables the vis-

ualization of spatiotemporal GTPase activation[31,32]. Following transfection, we infected cells using

the phagocytic model particle Zymosan A at an MOI of 10 and performed live imaging to visualize

the localized activation of these GTPases.

Due to the BSL3 requirements of Mtb, we used the model phagocytic particle Zymosan A

in these live imaging experiments. Zymosan A particles are composed of chains of fungus-derived

β-glucan – which engages the mannose-binding receptor Dectin-1, expressed on professional

phagocytes[33]. We have observed that sphingolipid depletion reduces uptake of Zymosan A to a

similar degree as to Mtb (ref, data not shown).

We first demonstrate in wildtype RAW 264.7 cells that phosphorylation of Cdc42/Rac1

increases upon particle recognition and peaks as a particle is engulfed (Figure 4B and Supplemen-

tary Movie 1). Quantifying the enrichment of reporter signal at the site of particle contact versus

cytosol signal across at least four cells shows a sharp peak of biosensor recruitment as a particle is

engulfed (Figure 4C). In contrast, this activation initially builds in Sptlc2-/- cells at a rate indistin-

guishable from wildtype, but we observe poor activation of Cdc42/Rac1 at later timepoints in

comparison to wildtype cells (Figure 4B and C and Supplementary Movie 2).

From these results, we conclude that in sphingolipid-deficient cells, the initial activation of

Cdc42/Rac1 are unaffected – but that this activation fails to peak at high enough levels to fully

engulf pathogen-particles. The initial stages of phagocytosis briefly act in a positive feedback loop,

in which the engagement of receptor initiates signaling that results in the additional aggregation of

receptor and thus further enhances signal. Because the initial stages of phagocytosis are unaffected

by deficient biosynthesis of sphingolipids, we hypothesized that an intermediate signaling step is

dependent on sphingolipid levels at the cell membrane. We next characterized the activity of down-

stream phosphoinositide signaling to explain this observation.

Sphingolipid depleted cells are defective in phosphatidylinositol3,4,5-trisphosphate synthe-

sis.

Do sphingolipids mediate phosphoinositide signaling during phagocytosis? As depicted in

Figure 5A, Rho GTPase activation initiates the conversion of phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate

($PI_{(4)}P$) to phosphatidylinositol-4,5-*bis*phosphate ($PI_{(4,5)}P_2$) at the base of the phagocytic synapse.

The accumulation of $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ is essential to initiate the polymerization of actin filaments that drive

the leading edges of the growing phagosome around the particle[31]. Following the leading edge of

$PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ production, the enzyme phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI_3K) converts $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ into phos-

phatidylinositol-3,4,5-*tris*phosphate ($PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$), which initiates a trailing edge of actin disassem-

bly at the base of the phagosomal cup. This degradation of $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ is critical for the full engulfment

of the engaged particle, as it drives the pseudopodia around the particle and enables the invagina-

tion of the phagosomal cup[7]. To date, there have been no reports tying phosphoinositide signaling

to cellular sphingolipid content during phagocytosis. However, sphingolipid and phosphoinositide

levels within the Golgi regulate each other in a homeostatic feedback circuit: buildup of sphingo-

myelin in the Golgi initiates dephosphorylation of $PI_{(4)}P$, which subsequently reduces the import

of cholesterol sphingolipid into the Golgi[18,36]. As such, we hypothesized that sphingolipids play a

similar role in phosphoinositide turnover during phagocytosis of Mtb-like particles.

To address this hypothesis, we transfected RAW 264.7 wildtype and Sptlc2 knockout cells

with biosensors that specifically bind two phosphoinositide species and used live imaging to assess

the uptake of Zymosan A particles. The first such biosensor we used consisted of the fusion of

GFP to the plekstrin homology (PH) domain of phospholipase C-delta (PLCδ), which selectively

binds to $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ (PH(PLCδ)-GFP)[7]. We show an enrichment of GFP signal to the site of particle

engagement as wildtype cells synthesize $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ following particle recognition, and that this syn-

thesis peaks with the engulfment of the particle (Figure 5B and C and Supplemental Movie 3). In

Sptlc2 knockout cells, $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ production is initially the same as in wildtype cells, but fails to

build to the same levels as the cells fail to uptake particles (Figure 5B and C and Supplementary

Movie 4).

Next, we transfected RAW 264.7 cells with a $PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$ biosensor consisting of the PH do-

main of Akt fused to GFP (PH(AKT)-GFP)[37]. We visualize the localization of biosensor signal to

show that wildtype cells begin synthesizing $PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$ early in phagocytosis, and that this synthesis

strongly peaks as a particle is fully engulfed (Figure 5D and E and Supplementary Movie 5). How-

ever, Sptlc2 knockout cells fail to produce a trailing wave of $PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$, and thus never reach the

levels of synthesis observed in wildtype cells (Figure 5D and E and Supplementary Movie 6).

Together, these findings suggest that the inefficiency of Mtb uptake in sphingolipid-defi-

cient cells is due to defects in phagocytic signaling resulting from defective phosphoinositide turn-

over. At early stages of phagocytosis, there are minimal differences between wildtype and Sptlc2-

/- cells – but the knockout cells fail to reach critical thresholds of phosphoinositide signal mole-

cules (particularly $PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$) to drive the full propagation of phagocytosis and thereby fail to up-

take particles.

The phagocytic receptor Dectin-1 fails to aggregate at the site of particle engagement in

sphingolipid-deficient cells

As described by Goodridge et al. in 2011, the engagement of phagocytic receptor to ligand

initiates the accumulation of receptor to the phagocytic synapse, which results in the physical ex-

pulsion of inhibitory phosphatases such as CD45 from the phagocytic synapse and the formation

of a lipid raft-like domain[40]. Prior work has shown that the several intracellular pathogens, includ-

ing Mtb, induce their uptake in a cholesterol-dependent manner[5,41]. As such, we hypothesized that

cellular sphingolipid content is required for the aggregation of the phagocytic receptor Dectin-1 to

the site of particle engagement, and the concomitant exclusion of CD45 from the contact site.

To address this hypothesis, we transiently transfected wildtype and Sptlc2$^{-/-}$ RAW 264.7

macrophages with a GFP-conjugated Dectin-1 construct, and assessed the co-localization of this

fluorescent protein with the inhibitory phosphatase CD45 upon treatment with non-fluorescent

Zymosan A particles 2 min post incubation. In both wildtype and Sptlc2 knockouts, we find that

Dectin-1 in wildtype cells aggregates at the site of contact with Zymosan A, and that the co-local-

ization of CD45 with Dectin-1 is significantly reduced in these sites of particle contact (Figure 6A

and B). In contrast, the colocalization of Dectin-1-GFP and CD45 in Sptlc2 knockout cells is only

minimally reduced (Figure 6A and B). These data suggest that that sphingolipids are required to

mediate the dramatic changes in membrane fluidity required for proper phagosomal cup formation

and transduction of pro-phagocytic signals (such as phosphatidylinositol turnover).

To control against the possibility that deficient sphingolipid biosynthesis results in altered

surface expression of CD45 and Dectin-1, we used flow cytometry to compare wildtype and

Sptlc2$^{-/-}$ RAW 264.7 cells. We probed cells for endogenous surface protein using APC-conjugated

anti-CD45 antibody and FITC-conjugated anti-Dectin-1 antibody. We found agreement in overall

fluorescent signal for both wildtype and Sptlc2 knockout cells for both surface markers (Figure

6C-F). These results suggest that the overall levels of both CD45 and Dectin-1at the cell surface

are unaffected by depletion of sphingolipids.

Discussion

In this study, we report that the capacity of Mtb to invade host cells by engagement of

phagocytic receptors is significantly dependent on active sphingolipid biosynthesis and the pres-

ence of host sphingolipids at the cell membrane. Our central findings are thus: First, the blockade

of total sphingolipid synthesis reduces Mtb uptake by approximately 50% – and the specific block-

ade of sphingomyelin synthesis produces a phenocopy of this observation. Critically, we show that

sphingolipid depletion has no effect on the macropinocytosis of Herpes Simplex Virus – suggest-

ing that these cells remain otherwise susceptible to infection via other routes of cellular uptake.

Next, we show that several critical stages of phagocytic signaling involving phosphoinositide turn-

over are perturbed upon depletion of sphingolipid synthesis, resulting in defective phagosome for-

mation. And finally, we show that the clusterring of innate immune receptors such as Dectin-1 and

the simultaneous exclusion of regulatory phosphatases CD45 at the phagocytic synapse is defec-

tive in sphingolipid-deficient cells.

In addition to the initial observations of defective internalization of Mtb by sphingolipid-

deficient hosts, we present a possible mechanism through which sphingolipids enable the propa-

gation of phagocytic signaling by coordinating phosphoinositide turnover. Upon engagement of

phagocytic receptor to cognate ligand, Rho GTPases Rac1 and Cdc42 are activated and initiate the

localized production of $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$. This local increase in the concentration of $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ initiates F-

actin polymerization at the base of the forming phagocytic cup, which drives pseudopodia around

the particle. Concomitantly, the progression of the pseudopod requires cyclic F-actin disassembly

and assembly. This recycling process is driven by a trailing edge of $PI_{(4,5)}P_2$ phosphorylation to

$PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$ via PI3K starting at the base of the phagosomal cup[31]. Because we observe defects in the

propagation of this signaling pathway beginning with the production of $PI_{(3,4,5)}P_3$, we argue that

sphingolipids, and sphingomyelin in particular, are responsible for coordinating the necessary in-

teractions between kinases and their phosphoinositide substrates. One candidate of particular in-

terest for further investigation is PI3K, which may require interaction with or membrane tethering

by sphingolipids at the site of phagocytic receptor engagement.

This study represents, to our knowledge, the first evidence for sphingolipids as regulators

of phosphoinositide turnover during phagocytosis. This agrees with prior reports that sphingolipids

play roles in phosphoinositide signaling in other contexts. For example, phosphatidylinositol 4-

phosphate (PI_4P) has been implicated in the transfer of ceramides from the ER to the Golgi by

interacting with the ceramide transfer protein CERT[36]. Additionally, Capasso and colleagues

showed that sphingomyelin production triggers dephosphorylation of PI_4P at the trans-Golgi as a

negative feedback mechanism, suggesting regulatory interplay that maintains cellular levels of

sphingomyelin[18].

As a whole, this study demonstrates that sphingolipids are key host factors in infection by

Mtb. Phagocytosis in this context represents a double-edged sword: while this immune process is

critical for the clearance of many pathogenic particles, Mtb harnesses phagocytosis to gain entry

to host cells and establish long-term survival. It may be possible to target a therapeutic to specifi-

cally block the interaction between Mtb and host lipids, but this will require more comprehensive

understanding of how this lipid class enables Mtb pathogenicity. This study represents an im-

portant step in developing our knowledge of the underlying mechanisms of pathogenesis in Mtb

infection and contributes to the development of new strategies to fight this ancient pathogen.

Materials and Methods

Reagents.

Myriocin and fumonisin B1 were purchased from Cayman Chemical Company. 3-L-[^{14}C]serine was purchased from American Radioactivity. Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) was purchased from BioLegend. 4% Paraformaldehyde was from Fisher Scientific. Alexa Fluor® 488 Phalloidin and Zymosan A (*S. cerevisiae*) BioParticles Alexa Fluor 594 conjugate were purchased from Thermo Fisher. Rabbit polyclonal antibody against phospho-PI3 Kinase p85 (Tyr458)/p55 (Tyr199) (p-PI3K) (#4228) was purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. Mouse Monoclonal antibody against GAPDH (ab8245) was purchased from Abcam. Anti-rabbit IgG HRP-linked antibody and anti-mouse IgG HRP-linked antibody were purchased from Cell Signaling. APC-conjugated, rat monoclonal antibody against CD45 antibody (Clone 30-F11) was purchased from Biolegend. FITC-conjugated, rat monoclonal antibody against Dectin-1 (Clone 2A11) was purchased from AbD Serotec. Zombie Aqua™ Fixable Viability Kit (part #77143) was purchased from BioLegend and kindly provided by the lab of Dr. Tim Nice. Rat monoclonal blocking antibody against CD16/32 (Clone 93) was purchased from Biolegend and kindly provided by the lab of Dr. Tim Nice.

Plasmids

Active (GTP-bound) Rac1/Cdc42 was detected with PAK(PBD)-YFP, a plasmid encoding the PBD of PAK fused to YFP[32]. PI$_{(4,5)}$P$_2$ was detected with PH(PLCδ)-GFP, a plasmid encoding the PH domain of PLCδ fused to GFP (kindly provided by Grinstein). PI$_{(3,4,5)}$P$_3$ levels were monitored by PH(AKT)-GFP, a plasmid encoding the PH domain of AKT fused to GFP[43].

382   The plasmids used for generation of lentivirus consists of the pCDH-CMV(-)-sgRNA plas-

383   mid, the psPAX2 plasmid (packaging) and pMD2.G plasmid (envelope). pCW-Cas9 lentivirus was

384   purchased from Addgene.

Cell culture and drug treatment

THP-1, U937, Raw 264.7 and DC 2.4 cells were routinely cultured in RPMI medium sup-

plemented with 10% FBS (Seradigm) and 1% Pen Strep (Gibco). HeLa cells were cultured in

DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% Pen Strep. All cell lines were cultured at 37 °C and

5% CO_2. In plating adherent cells (RAW 264.7 and DC 2.4), cells were lifted using 1x 0.25%

Trypsin solution (Gibco) and counted using hemocytometer, with Trypan Blue solution (Gibco)

for counterstain.

THP-1 and U937 cells were differentiated to macrophages by 50ng/ml PMA for 1 day in

RPMI medium supplemented with 10% FBS, after which the cells were treated with 5μM myriocin

or fumonisin B1 for 3 days in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS and 1%Pen Strep. RAW 264.7

and DC 2.4 cells were treated identically with myriocin and fumonisin B1.

Radio-active labeling and TLC

$5.0\mathrm{x}10^5$ THP-1, U937, RAW 264.7, and DC 2.4 (both wildtype and Sptlc2-/-) cells were

seeded into a well of a 6-well plate, differentiated and treated as described above (Cell culture and

drug treatment). After 3 days of drug treatment the cells were labeled with 1μCi/ml of 3-L-[^{14}C]-

serine for 4 hours in Opti-MEM supplemented with the appropriate drug concentration of myriocin

and FB1 and incubated at 37°C. Cells were washed two times with PBS and lipid extraction was

done following the Bligh and Dyer method[44]. The methanol/chloroform-lipid extracts were dried

by nitrogen gas. Dried lipids were re-dissolved in a few drops of chloroform/methanol (1:2,

vol/vol) and loaded on a TLC plate. Lipids were separated by developing the TLC plate first in

acetone and then in a mixture of chloroform, methanol and 25% ammonia solution (50:25:6,

vol/vol/vol). Radiolabeled lipids were detected on a Storm 825 Phosphor-Imager (GE Healthcare).

Generation of Lentivirus.

Lentivirus production was performed as described previously[45]. Briefly, lentivirus was pro-

duced by co-transfection of HEK 293T cells with the pCDH-sgRNA/pCW-Cas9 and psPAX2 and

pMD2.G. Transfection was performed with Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher) according to

manufacturer's instructions. Cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10%FBS and the

growth medium was replaced after 6 hours. 48 hours after transfection, lentivirus-containing su-

pernatant was harvested, centrifuge for 5mins at 1250 rpm and filtered through a 0.45μm filter.

Generation of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated Sptlc2-/- Raw264.7 cell line.

Raw264.7 cells were infected with lentivirus (pCW-Cas9) encoding Cas9 cDNA, and were

cultured in media containing 7 μg/mL of puromycin (Sigma Aldrich). Potential target sequences

for CRISPR interference were found with the rules outlined in Mali et al. 2013[46]. The following

seed sequences (CRISPR target sequences) preceding the PAM motif that were found in the exon

of Sptlc2 gene were used: Sptlc2 #1 GAACGGCTGCGTCAAGAAC; Sptlc2 #2: AGCAGCAC-

CGCCACCGTCG Potential off-target effects of the seed sequence were evaluated using the NCBI

Mus musculus Nucleotide BLAST. Generation of CRISPR/Cas9-mediated Sptlc2-knockout

Raw264.7 cell line was performed as previously described[45]. Briefly, CRISPR gBlock was de-

signed to clone into the restriction enzymatic site NheI/BamHI of pCDH-CMV(-) (SBI; CD515B-

1) as follows:

cacagtcagacagtgactcaGTGTCACAgctagcTTTCCCATGATTCCTTCATATTTGCATA-

TACGATACAAGGCTGTTAGAGAGATAATTAGAATTAATTTGACTGTAAACACAAAG

ATATTAGTACAAAATACGTGACGTAGAAAGTAATAATTTCTTGGGTAGTTTGCAG-

TTTTAAAATTATGTTTTAAAATGGACTATCATATGCTTACCGTAACTTGAAAGTATTT

CGATTTCTTGGCTTTATATATCTTGTGGAAAGGACGAAACAC-

CGnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnnn-

nGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGCAAGTTAAAATAAGGCTAGTCCGTTATCAACTTGAAA

AAGTGGCACCGAGTCGGTGCTTTTTTTggatccTGTGCACAgtcagtcacagtcagtctac   (n:

CRISPR target sequences).

The gBlock was then digested using the restriction enzymes NheI and BamHI and ligated

into pCDH-CMV(-) vector that was linearized by digesting with the same restriction enzyme.

The Cas9-inducible cells were infected with lentivirus carrying pCDH-CMV(-)-sgRNA,

and were cultured in media containing 250 μg/mL of hygromycin B (Life Technology). To induce

expression of Cas9, cells were treated with 2 μg/mL of doxycycline (Clontech) for 3–5 days.

Clonal selection was performed by single cell dilution on 96-well plates. The individual colonies

were collected and the expression of Sptlc2 was examined by western-blotting using Sptlc2 anti-

body.

U937 SGMS1 -/- cell lines

U937 SGSM1 -/- cells were kindly provided by Sebastian Virreira Winter (Max Plack Insi-

tute) and the CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knock out cell lines were established as described in Winter

et al., 2016[39].

Culturing of Mtb

Culturing and infection of Mtb was conducted in a Biosafety-level 3 laboratory following

general safety guidelines. *M.tb* strain H37R, expressing constitutively mCherry, was cultured at

37°C in 7H9 Broth medium supplemented with 50μg/ml hygromycin B.

Infection of macrophages with Mtb

For infection of THP-1 and U937 cells, the cells were seeded into a SensoPlate™ 96-Well Glass-Bottom Plates (Greiner Bio-One) at a density of 1.5×10^4 cells per well in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% Pen Strep and 50ng/ml PMA at 37°C. One day after differentiation THP-1 cells were treated for 3 days with 5μM myriocin or 15μM fumonisin B1. Infection with *M.tb* was performed after three days of differentiation of U937 cells and three days of drug treatment of differentiated THP-1 cells. THP-1 and U937 cells were infected with a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS for 4 hours at 37°C.

For infection of Raw264.7 and DC2.4 cells, 2.0×10^4 cells / well were seeded 24 hours prior infection into a SensoPlate™ 96-Well Glass-Bottom Plates (Greiner Bio-One) and cultured in RPMI 10%FBS, 1%Pen Strep at 37°C. Raw264.7 and DC2.4 cells were infected with a MOI of 10 in RPMI supplemented with 10% FBS for 4 hours at 37°C.

After 4 hours *M.tb* containing supernatant was aspirated, cells were washed one time with PBS, and then fixed with 4% PFA over night at 4°C.

Infection of macrophages with Herpes Simplex Virus-1

Frozen, titered HSV-1-mCherry reporter virus was kindly provided to us by the lab of Dr. David Johnson. Twenty-four hours prior to infection, 1×10^4 wildtype and Sptlc2 knockout RAW 264.7 cells were seeded on glass coverslips in a 12-well plate. Cells were equally infected at an MOI < 1, and incubated for 12 hours at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Coverslips were removed from plate and fixed for 20 mins in 4% paraformaldehyde before staining with Alexa488-Phalloidin and DAPI; slips were then imaged on a Keyence BZ-X700 and infection rates were calculated by automated cell counting, with Alexa488-phalloidin demarcating cell boundaries, DAPI staining for nuclei counting, and mCherry expression for positive infection. Cells remaining in 12-well plate

following coverslip removal were lifted from the plate using 1x Trypsin (0.25%), washed with

PBS, and stained with 1:200 Zombie Aqua™ Dye for 30 mins on ice. Cells were then fixed for 20

mins in 4% paraformaldehyde, resuspended in FACS buffer (1x PBS, 3% FCS, 1mM EDTA), and

analyzed using an LSR-II flow cytometer, with uninfected, Live/Dead-stained and -unstained cells

as control.

Microscopy

Confocal microscopy was performed using an LSM880 microscope (Zeiss, Oberkochen,

Germany) using the PLAN APO for AiryScan 63x oil immersion objective, under the control of

the Zeiss Zen Blue software. Spinning disk confocal (SDC) imaging was performed on a Yoko-

gawa CSU-W1 SDC microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) using a 20x Plan Apo VC (NA 0.75) ob-

jective and a 60x Plan Apo VC (NA 1.4) oil immersion objective equipped with a Andor's Zyla

sCMOS camera under the control of the Nikon acquisition software and a stage motorized in

X,Y. Live cell imaging was performed at 37°C and 5% CO_2 using multi-position imaging with

automated focus at each time point. Representative images were analyzed and prepared using the

FIJI software.

Further quantitative imaging was performed on a Keyence BZ-X700 all in one fluorescence

microscope (Keyence Corporation, Osaka, Japan) using a SuperFluor 40.00xH oil immersion ob-

jective [PlanFluor and a 10x air-immersion objective], and controlled using the Keyence BZ-X

Viewer software. Image analysis and cell counting was performed using Keyence BZ-X Analyzer

software and FIJI.

Phagocytosis assay

Phagocytosis assay was performed as previously described[47]. Briefly, fixed cells were

washed twice with PBS and incubated in PBS for 15 min in Permeabilization Buffer (0.1% Triton

X-100 and 1%BSA). Cells were stained with Phalloidin-Alexa 488 (Thermo Fisher) at a final con-

centration of 33nM for 60 min and washed one time with PBS. After the Phalloidin-staining, cells

were stained with 1xDAPI for 10 mins and washed 3 times with PBS. THP-1 cells were then

imaged using the SDC microscope (Nikon) with a 20x objective and the U937, Raw264.7 and

DC2.4 cells were imaged with the Keyence BZ-X700 with a PlanFluor 20x objective. The param-

eters for imaging were kept the same for each sample. For image analysis either the Nikon or

Keyence BZ-X Analyzer software was used. In brief: The outline of the cells was determined via

the A488 signal (Phalloidin staining) and the number and area of mCherry (Mtb) signal in the

A488 signal was detected by the program. In a second round the number of cells was determined

by counting the nuclei via the DAPI staining. Number of bacteria (by mCherry-signal) inside the

cell was divided by the number of cells analyzed to identify the phagocytosis efficiency.

Live imaging of phagocytosis

For transient transfection, Raw264.7 cells were seeded into a SensoPlate™ 96-Well Glass-

Bottom Plates at a cell number of $1.0x10^4$ cells/well 24 hours prior transfection. Transfection was

conducted with Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher) according to manufacturer's instructions.

Briefly, 100ng of plasmid DNA and 0.2µl of P3000 reagent were mixed in 5µl Opti-MEM and

0.33µl Lipofectamine 3000 was mixed in 5µl Opti-MEM. Both reagent dilutions were mixed to-

gether and allowed to sit for 15 min. The mix was then added directly to the appropriate well and

mixed by swirling the plate gently.

For imaging, the growth medium was aspirated and replaced with RPMI without phenol

red containing Zymosan A Bioparticles Alexa595 (Thermo Fisher) at an MOI of 20. The 96-well

plate were centrifuged at 1000rpm for one minute. The cells were imaged with the SDC micro-

scope (Nikon) and 3-4 different spots per well were imaged at the same time for 60 min with

capture intervals of 15 sec. The parameters for imaging were kept the same for each sample.

Live imaging analysis

Of live cell images, individual images were selected for further analysis if they captured a

cell bound to a zymosan particle while maintaining a healthy morphology throughout the imaging

time-course. Imaging analysis was performed using FIJI software[48]. The parameters for image

processing were kept constant when comparing different data sets. The area of the phagosome was

selected, cropped and opened in a new window. For the original image, the threshold was set au-

tomatically on the GFP-channel and for the threshold of the GFP-phagosome area, the threshold

of the whole cell was multiplied by 1.5 to ensure that only an increase in signal is counted (GFP-

threshold cell x 1.5 = GFP-threshold phagosome area). The threshold area at different time points

was measured by the analyze-measure function of FIJI and the results were exported into Excel

(Microsoft). The values for the GFP-threshold of the phagosome area were divided by the values

for the GFP-threshold of the whole cell at the corresponding time points.

Dectin-1 transfection and co-localization

Raw264.7 WT and $Sptlc2^{-/-}$ cells were seeded on glass coverslips in 12-well plates and

grown to 70-90% confluency overnight. The next day, cells were transfected with pMXsIP Dec-

tin-1-GFP using Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

After 24 hrs, cells were washed three times with ice-cold PBS, kept on ice for 5 min, and inocu-

lated with Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated zymosan in chilled serum-free DMEM at a ratio of 10

beads per cell. After centrifugation for 5 min at 250 x g and 4°C, cells were incubated for 5 min

at 37°C, washed three times with ice-cold PBS to remove unbound zymosan, then fixed for 15

min with 4% paraformaldehyde.

Surface staining and flow cytometry

RAW 264.7 wildtype and Sptlc2-/- cells were seeded on a T-75 culturing flask and grown in

parallel for three days. Cells were rinsed with PBS and lifted from the flask using treatment with

1x TryplE (ThermoFisher Scientific) for 10 mins. In a 96-well plate, on ice for 30 mins, Fc re-

ceptor was blocked with CD16/32 antibody (1:100) and cells were stained with ZombieAqua

Live/Dead (1:200). Cells were then stained with either CD45-APC (1:200), or Dectin-1-FITC

(1:50) for 30 mins. Finally, cells were fixed for 20 mins in 4% paraformaldehyde and analyzed

using an LSR-II flow cytometer. Cells independently stained with ZombieAqua, CD45-APC, and

Dectin-1-FITC were used for compensation. Analysis was performed using FlowJo software.

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Figure 1: Manipulation of cellular sphingolipid levels using genetics and chemical tools.
(A) Simplified overview of sphingolipid biosynthetic pathway. Genes that are deleted using
CRISPR/Cas9 system are indicated in blue and the inhibitors that are used in this study are shown in red.
(B) Model phagocyte cell lines used in this study, respective species background, and genetic knockouts
available. (C) Western blot probed using anti-Sptlc2 antibody in wildtype and CRISPR/Cas-9 knockout
DC 2.4 and RAW 264.7 cells (upper), and probed against calnexin as loading control (lower). (D) Con-
trol, mutant and inhibitor-treated cells were labeled with the sphingolipid precursor 3-L-$[^{14}C]$-serine, and
total lipids were extracted and analyzed by thin layer chromatography (TLC) and autoradiography. (E, F)
Quantification of the $[^{14}C]$-SM and $[^{14}C]$-PS signals from $[^{14}C]$-serine labeling of RAW264.7 and THP-1
cells shown in *D*. (G-J) Total lipids were extracted from control, Sptlc2-/- and inhibitor-treated cells and
lipid profiling was performed using LC/MS. Levels of sphingosine (G), ceramide (H), sphingomyelin (I)
and glucosylceramide (GlucCer) are shown. All graphs display SD of three independent experiments, and
an unpaired t-test was used to analyze the significance of the data. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, *** p < 0.001.

Figure 2: Sphingolipid biosynthesis is required for efficient phagocytosis of Mtb.
A) Overview of the phagocytosis experiment. (B, D) Representative images of Mtb-infected
RAW 264.7 (B) and DC 2.4 (D) cells. (C, E) Quantification of Mtb uptake in RAW 264.7 (C)

and DC2.4 (E) cells over three independent biological replicates, with at least 1,000 cells quanti-
fied per replicate. Mtb uptake was defined using total number of bacteria (mCherry signal)
within cellular periphery (Phalloidin-Alexa488 signal) and cellular counts were defined by nu-
clear stain. (E, H) Representative images of infected THP-1 (F) and U937 (H) monocyte-derived
macrophages. 2×10^4 THP-1 and U937 cells were plated in 96-well plate and were differentiated
using 80ng/ml PMA for one day, and then treated for three days with 5μM myriocin or 15μM
fumonisin B1. (G, I) Quantification of Mtb uptake in THP-1 (G) and U937 (I) cells. (J) Micros-
copy images of cells that were infected with HSV-RFP (MOI of 10). At 12 h post infection, cells
were fixed, stained with DAPI and analyzed by microscopy. (K) Quantification of experiments
performed as described in C. n = 3 independent experiments. Data are mean ± SD. *p<0.05,
**p<0.01, ***p<0.001, two-tailed unpaired t-test.

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Figure 3: Sphingomyelin is essential for phagocytosis of Mtb, but not for HSV entry
(A) Representative images of Mtb-infected wildtype and two clonal isolates of SGMS1
CRISPR/Cas9 knockout U937 cells generated using two independent sgRNAs. Cells were acti-
vated with 80nM PMA for 48 h before Mtb infection. (B) Quantification of Mtb uptake over
three independent biological replicates, with at least 1,000 cells quantified per replicate. Data are
mean ± SD. ns = not significant, ***p<0.001, two-tailed unpaired t-test.
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Figure 4. Sphingolipids are essential for efficient recruitment of Cdc42/Rac1 to the phago-cytic cup. (A) Schematic representation of the small GTPase Cdc42 and Rac1 role during phago-cytosis. (B) Confocal images of wild type and Sptlc2-/- RAW264.7 macrophages transfected with PAK(PBD)–GFP, a biosensor for active Rac/Cdc42, during phagocytosis. Cells were incubated with Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated zymosan A particles, and live imaging was performed. Images captured at 30-second intervals are shown. (C) A graph showing quantitation of the PAK(PBD) fluorescence intensity in the course of formation of a phagocytic cup (shown in arrow) as performed in B. All graphs display SD of three independent experiments, and an unpaired t-test was used to analyze the significance of the observed differences. ** $p < 0.01$.

Figure 5: Phosphoinositide turnover dynamics are disrupted in sphingolipid-deficient phagocytes. (A) Schematic depiction of phosphoinositide dynamics during phagocytosis. (B, D) Time-lapse confocal microscopy images of wildtype and Sptlc2^{-/-} RAW 264.7 cells expressing PH(PLCδ)-GFP, the PI(4,5)P$_2$ biosensor (B) or PH(AKT)-GFP, the (PI3,4,5)P$_3$ biosensor (D) after infection with Alexa Flour 594 conjugated zymosan A particles at MOI of 10. Representative images that are captured at 30-second intervals are shown. (C, E) Accumulation of GFP signal to site of particle binding was quantified by the ratio of GPF signal intensity at phagosome versus GFP signal across entire cell at the indicted time points for experiments performed as *B* and *D*. n= 3 independent experiments and the mean GFP intensity profiles of 10 - 20 cells are represented. Data are mean ± SD. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, two-tailed unpaired t-test, ns = not significant

**Figure 6: Exclusion of CD45 by Dectin-1 from cup formation site is impaired in Sptlc2^{-/-}
cells.** (A) Confocal microscopy of GFP-tagged Dectin-1-expressing RAW264.7 macrophages
stimulated with zymosan for 2 min and stained for CD45 (red). Zymosan particles are shown in
star (*) at the phagocytic cup. (B) Quantitation of the level of CD45 and Dectin-1 at the site of
contact. (C, E) Flow cytometry of CD45 and Dectin-1at the cell surface of Sptlc2-/- and control
RAW264.7 macrophages. (D, F) Graphs showing quantification of cell surface expression of the
receptors described in C and E, respectively. All data are representative of 3 independent experi-
ments. Data are mean ± SD. ns = not significant, two-tailed unpaired t-test.

Supplemental Figure 1: Genetic and small molecule inhibitors mediated depletion of sphin-golipid in phagocytes

(A, B) Control, mutant and inhibitor-treated cells were labeled with the sphingolipid pre-cursor 3-L-[^{14}C]-serine, and total lipids were extracted and analyzed by thin layer chromatog-raphy and autoradiography. All data are representative of 3 independent experiments.

Supplemental Figure 2: Depletion of sphingolipids has no effect on cell morphology, growth rate or cell division. (A) Microscopy images of control and Sptlc2-/- RAW 264.7 macrophages, showing no morphological difference between the mutant
and control cells. (B, C) The cell division of the control and Sptlc2-/- RAW 264.7 macrophages (B), and inhibitor treated DC2.4 cells (C) at different time points was measured and presented.