Host CD59 Potentiates the Type III Secretion System in *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis*

Kristen J. Davis[1,2,#], Kerri-Lynn Sheahan[1,3,*], Connor S. Murphy[1,3,*] and Ralph R. Isberg[1,3]

[1]Department of Molecular Biology and Microbiology

[2]Graduate Program in Molecular Microbiology, Tufts University Graduate School of Biomedical

Sciences

[3]Tufts University School of Medicine, Boston, MA, USA

Running title: CD59 contributes to T3SS Function in *Y. pseudotuberculosis*

[#]Address correspondence to Ralph.Isberg@tufts.edu

[*]Present addresses: Kerri Sheahan, Obsidian Therapeutics;

Connor Murphy, Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences and Engineering, University of Maine

Abstract

Type III secretion systems (T3SS) play critical roles in disease for many Gram-negative

pathogens. For *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis* (*Yptb*), the machinery delivers the Yop bacterial

effectors into host cells, misregulating cytoskeletal components and sabotaging immune

defenses. Although the structural details of T3SS assembly have been studied extensively,

intimate interactions between the T3SS components and the surface of the target host plasma

membrane are poorly characterized. A previous RNA interference (RNAi) identified the GPI-

linked surface protein CD59 as a critical host component that supports T3SS translocation pore

formation and effector movement into the host cytosol. We show here that depletion and

increased levels of CD59 reduced *Yptb* T3SS pore formation and Yop translocation into host

target cells. In contrast, enzymatic removal of all GPI-linked surface proteins from wild type

cells prior to *Yptb* infection had no effect on T3SS function, indicating that neither CD59 nor

other GPI-linked proteins were receptors for the T3SS machinery. Consistent with its importance

in supporting the T3SS function, efficient bacterial effector-mediated focal adhesion disassembly

was dependent on CD59. Depletion of CD59 interfered with the rearrangement of the lipid raft

marker GM1 that occurs after *Yptb* adhesion to host cells, indicating that CD59 supports lipid

microdomain dynamics. Consistent with a role in modulating lipid composition, the loss of

CD59 resulted in the accumulation of phosphatidylcholine lipids, alteration in fatty acid chain

lengths and fatty acid saturation levels. This work points to a role for CD59 in maintaining

plasma membrane dynamics necessary to support efficient T3SS function.

Introduction

Pathogenesis of *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis* (*Yptb*) requires the Type III Secretion System (T3SS), which is used to deliver bacterial effectors into host cells that misregulate host signaling pathways and are required to evade innate immune responses (1-3). The T3SS is encoded on a ~70kb virulence plasmid present in the three species of *Yersinia* that infect humans: the enteropathogenic *Y. enterocolitica* and *Y. pseudotuberculosis*, and the causative agent of bubonic plague, *Y. pestis* (4-6). The structure and function of the secretion apparatus is well-conserved among many Gram-negative pathogens, with the *Yersinia* syringe-like nanomachine delivering bacterial effector proteins, called Yops (*Yersinia* outer proteins), into the host cell cytosol (2, 7). There is a core effector set of six Yops, with YopT specifically absent in most *Yptb* strains (including YPIII, the strain used in this study) (8, 9). Although much work has been done to describe the structure and function of the T3SS, how the host cell supports the function of the apparatus is largely unknown.

Yops act to prevent engulfment by professional phagocytes and interfere with reactive oxygen killing, allowing successful extracellular bacterial replication and survival in host tissues, even with neutrophil-adherent bacteria (3, 10). YopE, for example, is a GTPase activating protein (GAP) that inactivates Rho-family GTPases such as RhoA, Cdc42, and Rac that regulate actin cytoskeletal function required for phagocytosis and production of reactive oxygen species via assembly of the NADPH oxidase complex (11, 12). Interestingly, it has been shown that host cell Rho GTPase activity is initially required for efficient translocation of Yops (13) emphasizing that modulation of the actin cytoskeleton plays multiple roles in establishing disease. Several other host factors have been identified that are important for T3SS function, including host cell

sulfation and fucosylation in *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*, and DNAJC5 in *Pseudomonas*

aeruginosa, which acts as a chaperone for effector translocation (14-16).

We previously identified mammalian proteins important for the function of YopE using a

mammalian siRNA knockdown library and a FRET-based Rho GTPase biosensor (17). The

identified host proteins in the screen included the chemokine receptor CCR5, shown to affect

T3SS function, but also identified a number of other proteins involved in cell adhesion,

signaling, and membrane trafficking (17). These included CD59, a glycosyl-phosphatidylinositol

(GPI)-anchored protein found on the surface of most mammalian cell types that functions as a

self-recognition marker to protect against complement attack (18). The presence of CD59 on

mammalian cells prevents the oligomerization of complement proteins into membrane attack

complexes (MACs) in response to activation, whereas microorganisms with no such defense are

targeted for destruction (19-21). CD59 is also a direct receptor for some bacterial cholesterol-

dependent pore-forming cytolysins, making it of interest for the analysis of a role in forming the

T3SS translocation channel (22, 23). In addition, CD59 is an important component of

microdomains in the plasma membrane, known as lipid rafts, that are important for critical cell

functions such as membrane trafficking, chemokine signaling, and immune cell activation (24).

Studies in several similar pathogens including *Shigella*, EPEC, and *Salmonella* have revealed

that functional lipid rafts on the host cell surface play an important role in supporting microbial

adhesion, T3SS translocon pore insertion, and delivery of translocated effector substrates (25-

27).

In this study, we show that cells lacking CD59 are associated with aberrant mobilization

of host cell plasma membrane components in response to *Yptb*-target cell contact resulting in

defective effector translocation and translocon pore formation. These results also argue that

CD59 is unlikely to act as a direct receptor that engages the T3SS.

Results

Knockout and increased surface expression of host cell CD59 result in inefficient pore

formation by *Yptb*

A pooled shRNA knockdown approach, used to detect mammalian proteins important for

Yptb YopE function, identified the plasma membrane protein CD59 as a candidate for playing a

role in Yop translocation (17). Verification of the hit revealed that when host cell CD59 was

knocked down by shRNA, significant T3SS defects were evident, based on a defect in YopB/D-

dependent pore formation and translocation assays performed on a second translocated effector,

YopH (17). These data were consistent with a general defect in T3SS translocator function rather

than direct modulation of YopE activity. To pursue these results further, a cloned CD59 knockout

line (CD59 KO) was constructed in HEK 293T cells using the LentiCRISPRv2 vector (28). Cell

surface labeling of the CD59 KO cell line with anti-CD59-FITC followed by analysis with flow

cytometry resulted in fluorescence that was indistinguishable from an isotype control (Figure

1A). In contrast, WT HEK 293T cells, showed robust labeling with the anti-CD59-FITC

conjugate (Figure 1A).

To determine if *Yptb* challenge of the CD59 KO cell line exhibited translocation defects

similar to the shRNA knockdown, a T3SS pore formation assay was performed. Once injected

into a target cell, the Yop effectors downmodulate pore formation to prevent immediate

cytotoxicity of the host (29). Therefore, a Δ*yopHMOJE* (YPIIIΔ5) strain that lacks all regulatory

Yops and exhibits hyper pore-forming activity was used to measure pore formation. This assay

utilizes uptake of a fluorescent amine-reactive membrane-impermeant probe, measuring FITC

incorporation as a proxy for pore formation (17).

The *Yersinia* translocon pore complex comprises the two hydrophobic pore proteins

YopB and YopD, as well as the hydrophilic scaffolding protein LcrV, which localizes to the

needle tip (7). A *yopB* mutant strain (YPIIIΔB) lacking the major translocon pore protein YopB

is unable to form pores in the host cell plasma membrane and serves as a negative control for

pore formation and translocation (10). WT and CD59 KO cells were challenged with YPIIIΔ5 or

YPIIIΔB at MOI = 25 for 2 hours and analyzed for FITC incorporation by flow cytometry. WT

and CD59 KO cells infected with the YPIIIΔB mutant were intact and unperturbed as shown by

their similarly low background level of fluorescent labeling (Figure 1B). In the WT cells infected

with YPIIIΔ5, two distinct right-shifted populations were observed that were labeled by the

probe. The peak furthest to the right shows maximum cytotoxicity while the wider shouldered

peak represents varying degrees of pore formation. The CD59 KO cells also showed these two

populations, but there was a distinct shift toward lower probe incorporation on these peaks,

indicating that cells lacking CD59 were less susceptible to pore formation by YPIIIΔ5 compared

to WT cells (Figure 1B).

To further interrogate the effect of CD59 expression levels on the host plasma membrane

on *Yptb* T3SS function, WT CD59 was introduced into the CD59 KO cell line to evaluate if pore

forming activity could be restored. Human CD59 expressed from the mammalian expression

vector pcDNA3.1+ was transfected into CD59 KO 293T cells, and monoclonal populations were

isolated after antibiotic selection. Two clones exhibiting CD59 levels similar to WT (KOpCD59-

WT1 and KOpCD59-WT2) as well as two clones with increased surface levels of CD59

(KOpCD59-OE1 and KOpCD59-OE2) were identified (Figure 1C). Each of these clones, along

with the WT and KO cell lines, were assayed for pore formation after infection by YPIIIΔ5.

Interestingly, both CD59 clones with increased surface levels of CD59 showed similar resistance

to pore formation by YPIIIΔ5 compared to what was observed with the KO cells. The only clone

that restored the degree of pore formation seen in WT cells was one of the clones that exhibited

WT levels of surface CD59 (Figure 1D). Although clones could be isolated in which pore

formation by YPIIIΔ5 could be restored, there appeared to be confounding effects that prevented

effective complementation. In addition to the clones shown here, random screening of several

overproducing clones failed to show the same level of pore formation as was exhibited with the

WT1 clone (Figure 1D).

Phenotypic variation was observed among the CD59 KO and KOpCD59 clones upon

prolonged passaging as another confounding problem, so strategies were sought to overcome this

issue. CD59 is one of the most abundant GPI-linked proteins, so knocking it out may select for

suppressor mutations or unpredictable changes in regulatory patterns that could be propagated

over many passages. For this reason, we chose to continue investigating the role of CD59 in *Yptb*

T3SS function using transient siRNA knockdown. Efficient CD59 knockdown was achieved 72

hours post-transfection using mixed pools of siRNAs directed against CD59 (Materials and

Methods; Figure 2A).

The pore forming assay measures loss of cellular viability, which may have further

complicated the analysis. To evaluate siCD59 knockdown populations using a strategy that does

not require loss of membrane integrity, T3SS function was assessed by measuring Yop

translocation into host cells, detected by assaying for YopE-TEM (or YPIIIΔB YopE-TEM)

translocation using a β-lactamase reporter strain followed by FACS analysis (30). After a 1hr

infection at MOI = 1, HEK 293T cells were loaded with CCF4-AM, a FRET-based β-lactamase

substrate that readily enters the host cells as detected by a green fluorescence signal at 515nm

after 409nm excitation. Translocation of YopE-TEM was detected by cleavage of the TEM

substrate which results in a blue fluorescence signal at 450nm using the same excitation

wavelength. Translocation, therefore, was visualized by a green-to-blue shift and calculated as

the ratio of the fluorescence intensity of 450nm emission relative to 515nm emission after

excitation with the 409nm laser line. This was displayed with contour plots of the blue vs. green

channels (Figure 2B). Green cells were gated with the YPIIIΔB YopE-TEM negative control

(Figure 2B, left panel). After a 1hr infection of siNT cells with YopE-TEM, approximately 65%

of the gated blue vs. green cells shifted to the blue gate, indicating robust translocation (Figure

2B, middle panel). In the siCD59 infection (Figure 2B, right panel) this was reduced to 45% of

the gated cells, indicating no detectable translocation in a large fraction of the cells. The total

translocation in the population was reduced by about 50% as well, based on the ratio of the total

fluorescence intensity at 450nm to 515nm in siCD59 knockdown cells from triplicate samples

(Figure 2C).

Host cell CD59 indirectly supports *Yptb* T3SS-dependent pore formation

Intermedilysin (ILY) is a bacterial-encoded cholesterol-dependent pore-forming toxin

(PFT) from *Streptococcus intermedius* that requires CD59 as a receptor (22). The wild-type form

of this protein (ILY^{WT}) forms pores in the host cell membrane, whereas a mutant version that is

fixed in a prepore conformation (ILY^{PP}) binds CD59 without forming an active pore, leaving the

host cell membrane intact (31). The *Yptb* translocon pore proteins YopB and YopD share

physiological properties with PFTs (32) and we hypothesized that if the *Yptb* translocon pore

interacts with CD59 in a similar manner to ILY, then ILY^{PP} binding to CD59 will block T3SS-

dependent pore formation.

$His-ILY^{WT}$ and $His-ILY^{PP}$ were expressed in *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) and purified (Materials

and Methods). HEK 293T cells were then pretreated with ILY^{PP} or mock buffer control,

challenged with ILY^{WT}, and assayed for pore formation. Cells that were mock-treated and

challenged with ILY^{WT} exhibited high levels of pore formation, confirming that the ILY^{WT} was

functioning properly (Figure 3A). Cells pretreated with ILY^{PP} were protected from pore

formation, indicating that the mutant protein successfully bound the CD59 receptor and blocked

ILY^{WT} (Figure 3A). To determine if ILY^{PP} could block *Yptb* T3SS-dependent pore formation,

293T cells were pretreated with ILY^{PP} for 1 hour and then challenged with YPIIIΔ5 or YPIIIΔB

at MOI = 25 for 2 hours (Figure 3B). There was no difference in pore formation among the ILY^{PP}

pretreated and mock-treated cells, indicating that if there was a direct interaction between CD59

and the T3SS machinery, it did not occur at the ILY binding site.

To eliminate the possibility that an insufficient quantity of ILY^{PP} was added to the cells to

block all binding sites, cells were treated with phospholipase C (PLC), an enzyme that cleaves

above the phosphoinositol group of the GPI-anchor, releasing CD59 and other GPI-linked

proteins. WT 293T cells were pretreated with PLC, challenged with YPIIIΔ5, then assayed for

pore formation. This strategy depleted GPI-linked proteins based on detection of these linkages

with Alexa488-conjugated proaerolysin, as PLC treatment resulted in a distinct decrease in

fluorescence compared to the mock-treated cell population. After the 2 hr infection with

YPIIIΔ5, there was no significant difference in pore formation between the PLC-treated and

mock-treated cells (Figure 3D). This provides clear evidence that CD59 is not a receptor for

T3SS translocation, and additionally rules out any other GPI-linked protein for this potential

receptor role.

CD59 is required for efficient focal adhesion disruption by *Yersinia*

Upon contact with host cells, the bacterial invasin and YadA proteins engage and activate

host β1-integrin receptors, leading to recruitment of signaling and cytoskeleton-binding proteins

such as paxillin, focal adhesion kinase (FAK), Src-family kinases, and p130Cas. These protein

complexes at the integrin cluster sites are called focal adhesions (33). Lipid raft domains are also

recruited and involved in integrin clustering and likely promote the assembly and reinforcement

of FAs (34). *Yersinia* can disrupt these focal adhesions by translocating the YopH protein tyrosine

phosphatase, blocking phosphotyrosine signaling and the actin rearrangements that drive

phagocytosis (35-37). YopH has many host targets, including FAK, p130Cas, and Src-family

kinases at focal adhesion sites (33, 38, 39), as well as the tyrosine kinase Lck and the LAT

adapter in T cells (36, 40).

To determine whether CD59 activates focal adhesion formation, similar to its activation

of cytoskeletal regulators in T cells (40), an anti-phosphotyrosine (pTyr) antibody was used to

assess whether reduced CD59 levels interfere with YopH tyrosine phosphatase activity during

Yptb infection. HeLa cells were knocked down with either siCD59 or the siNT control for 72

hours, challenged with *Yptb gfp*$^+$ bacteria, fixed, and immunostained with anti-pTyr. Focal

adhesions appear as brightly stained fiber-like bundles, numerous in both siCD59 knockdown

and siNT control cells in the absence of infection (Figure 4A). Upon challenge with WT

Yersinia, focal adhesions were readily disassembled in the CD59-positive siNT control cells, as

evidenced by the absence of large bundles and increased puncta (Figure 4B, left panel). This

process was inefficient in the siCD59 knockdown cells, as larger focal adhesions were still

visible (Figure 4B, right panel) compared to the siNT control cells.

Focal adhesions were identified and measured by an image analysis routine that

distinguishes edges to identify focal adhesion particles, based on a previously published

workflow (41). The average size of each focal adhesion and the total sum of pixels identified per

cell were significantly lower in CD59 positive control cells compared to the CD59 knockdown

(Figure 4C and D, respectively) indicating that CD59 is required for efficient disruption of these

host cell signaling assemblies. This is consistent with a defect in YopH accumulation and/or

targeting of focal adhesions after bacterial contact with host cells deficient for CD59.

Depletion of CD59 alters GM1 trafficking after *Yptb* challenge

Our results indicate that the *Yptb* T3SS is highly sensitive to alterations in CD59 plasma

membrane content. CD59 is enriched in microdomains in the cell membrane where cholesterol,

glycosphingolipids, GPI-linked proteins, and signaling proteins are densely associated (24).

These receptor-rich microdomains are thought to be highly dynamic and may transiently

rearrange in response to activating signals, such as the adhesion of a pathogen (42). As CD59

plays an indirect role in supporting *Yptb*-dependent T3SS function (Figure 3), the dynamics of

host cell membrane organization were investigated as a function of CD59 expression, probing for

microdomains. Cholera toxin B subunit (CtxB) binds to the glycosphingolipid GM1 in lipid

microdomains and can be used to detect altered microdomain distribution in response to bacterial

binding (43). Therefore, the GM1 probe AlexaFluor594-CtxB was added to the cell culture

medium immediately before *Yptb* challenge of cells that had been siRNA-depleted of CD59 for

72 hr prior to infection, using nontargeting siRNA as the control (siCD59 and siNT respectively;

SmartPools[TM], Dharmacon).

In the absence of *Yptb* infection, GM1 was notably localized to the perinuclear region in

control CD59-positive cells (Figure 5A). After CD59 depletion, however, GM1 puncta began to

accumulate at the cell periphery when compared to the siNT control cells (compare Fig. 5A to

5B, two examples). When challenged with the T3SS-deficient *Yptb* ΔB mutant, there was largely

no change compared to the uninfected controls (Figures 5D and C, respectively). Strikingly,

when siNT cells were challenged with WT *Yptb*, any residual peripheral localization was largely

lost and GM1 was exclusively perinuclear (Figure 5E, two examples of tight perinuclear

staining). This is in stark contrast to the CD59 knockdown cells, in which perinuclear

localization disappeared and GM1 puncta were dispersed across the whole cell surface (Figure

5F), consistent with a defect in GM1 trafficking. Therefore, the absence of CD59 causes

dispersion of GM1 gangliosides in response to an intact T3SS. This phenotype was not due to

alterations in surface localization of GM1 gangliosides, as flow cytometry of cells probed for

GM1 indicted that CD59 knockdown had no effect on surface levels of GM1 compared to siNT

control cells (Figure S2). Diffuse punctate localization of GM1, therefore, is correlated with

defects in supporting T3SS function.

Loss of CD59 perturbs lipid composition of plasma membrane

To investigate if the loss of CD59 results in changes of lipid composition, cells were

extracted in 2:1 chloroform:methanol and samples were analyzed by mass spectrometry to

identify lipid components using LC-MS/MS (44). Principal component analysis (PCA) of mass

spectrometry peak data normalized by percent abundance within each sample shows suitable

separation of samples by cell type (Figure 6A). The two most abundant lipid classes in both lines

were phosphatidylcholine (PC) and phosphatidylethanolamine (PE). The bulk sum carbon (C)

composition of the acyl chains for PC species detected by mass spec is shown in Figure 6B,

indicated by total number of carbons as a percentage sum of all PC lipids for each sample. Acyl

chains totaling 34 bulk sum carbons were by far the most abundant PCs, and the WT had

significantly more of these species as compared to CD59 KO cells ($P<0.05$). Interestingly, the

KO cells exhibited a greater number of very short (<30 bulk sum carbons) and very long acyl

chains (>42 bulk sum carbons) (Figure 6B). A similar trend was found in PE species (Figure 6C).

WT cells had more of the most abundant 34C species among PE, while greater numbers of

longer (>35C) and shorter (<35C) acyl chains were detected in CD59KO cells compared to WT

cells (Figure 6C).

Sphingomyelin (SM) is enriched in ordered lipid raft domains and has been found to

preferentially organize with CD59 within the plasma membrane (45). Increased unsaturation of

SM results in greater area and decreased lateral diffusion rates of the lipid (46). There was a

significantly higher percentage of SM(36:2) (36 acyl carbons, 2 total double bonds) in CD59 KO

compared to WT cells. The increased unsaturation within the SM 36C species may result in less

ordered membrane dynamics, potentially affecting lipid raft organization and ability to coalesce

in a perinuclear locale after bacterial contact (Figure 5). CD59 KO also altered flux through

several lipid biosynthesis and catabolic pathways with similar directionality across two

independent experiments (Figure 6E). Altogether, this indicates that the absence of CD59 alters

the homeostatic maintenance of lipid species composition in the host cell.

Discussion

In this work we demonstrated that optimal function of the *Yersinia pseudotuberculosis*

T3SS requires host cell CD59. While depletion of host CD59 did not eliminate the ability of *Yptb*

to form pores and translocate effector Yop substrates into target cells, a marked reduction in

T3SS function was observed. This result indicates that CD59 is unlikely to function as a receptor

for the T3SS machinery. Consistent with an indirect role in supporting T3SS function, the release

of all surface-exposed GPI-linked proteins prior to infection did not reduce *Yptb*(Δ5)-dependent

pore formation. These data, together with the inability of the CD59-binding protein ILY[PP] to

block the T3SS machinery, collectively indicate that CD59 is unlikely to directly interact with

pathogen components.

Host focal adhesion complexes formed upon *Yersinia* engagement with integrins are

important sites of signal transduction that are targeted by the tyrosine phosphatase YopH, which

disassembles them and helps prevent phagocytosis of bacteria. We found that CD59 facilitates

efficient focal adhesion disruption by *Yptb* (Figure 4). In contrast, CD59 depletion increased the

average FA size, resulting in a greater total FA area per infected cell. Since translocation is

decreased in the absence of CD59, there may be less YopH available to cause focal adhesion

disassembly. Alternatively, CD59 has been shown to play a role in several signal transduction

pathways, including the activation of Src-family kinases such as Lyn, Fyn, and Lck, some of

which are known to interact with FAK (18, 40, 47). CD59 could be involved in activating or

recruiting these components to the site of bacterial binding, so that in its absence, these pathways

are muted or less accessible to the Yops. Lipid raft domains, of which CD59 is a hallmark

component, are also recruited and involved in integrin clustering and likely promote the

assembly and reinforcement of FAs (34). CD59 effects on trafficking may not be limited to host

cell components, as its loss may interfere with Yop localization, preventing access to signaling

structures normally targeted by the Yops.

A series of studies indicates that the T3SS translocation complex may interact with lipid

raft components. In our previous study, CCR5 was identified as important for T3SS function.

CCR5 is in the same family of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) as Fpr1, a recently

identified receptor for *Yersinia pestis* that is not required for *Yptb* T3SS function (17, 48). That

CCR5 depletion did not completely abolish translocation of *Yptb* T3SS effectors is consistent

with *Yptb* targeting functionally redundant receptors, in contrast to the profound importance of

Fpr1 for *Y. pestis*. Interestingly, chemokine receptors are known to colocalize with membrane

raft markers such as GM1 (49). A similar T3SS-wielding pathogen, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*,

was found to preferentially bind the host receptor glycosphingolipid globotriaosylceramide

(Gb3), and depletion of either flotillin or CD59, both found in raft nanodomains with Gb3,

reduced uptake of *P. aeruginosa* (50). Functional lipid rafts are important for adhesion and T3SS

function in *Shigella*, EPEC, and *Salmonella* as well (25-27). These findings indicate that the

organization of various host proteins into structured membrane regions may provide the most

efficient target for *Yersinia* to dock, form pores, and deliver Yops via the T3SS.

We examined whether CD59 affected ganglioside-rich domains by fluorescently labeling

the raft marker GM1. In uninfected cells, the GM1 marker was predominantly trafficked to the

perinuclear region in the presence of CD59. When CD59 was depleted, there were noticeably

more GM1 puncta visible around the cell periphery. This phenotype was markedly enhanced

upon infection with WT *Yptb*. Accumulation of the GM1 marker was only detected in the

perinuclear region in WT host cells, while this perinuclear localization was completely lost in the

absence of CD59 after contact with WT *Yptb*. CD59 may play a role in mobilization of GM1 to

the perinuclear region either through endocytosis, plasma membrane rearrangements, or

recycling of this marker back to the plasma membrane.

When CtxB binds GM1, it is internalized by receptor-mediated endocytosis, and

undergoes retrograde trafficking from the plasma membrane through the trans-Golgi network to

the ER. This is visualized as perinuclear localization, as we observed in cells with functional

CD59 (51). Interestingly, GM1 binding to antibody provokes a different response, with GM1

sorting into recycling endosomes followed by release back to the plasma membrane. This is first

visualized as the formation of puncta around the cytoplasm, followed by accumulation in

pericentriolar recycling endosomes (52, 53). The absence of CD59 may shift how host endocytic

pathways are utilized after *Yptb* engagement, favoring a blockade after punta formation. This

could result from changes in the plasma membrane that either prevent effective engagement of

the T3SS machinery, alter trafficking of bacterial effectors, or prevent hijacking of host factors

by bacterial effectors. Obviously, under CD59 depletion conditions, there must be some low-

level or improperly functioning activity of the T3SS that exacerbates the inability of the CtxB-

engaged GM1 to coalesce in a perinuclear locale in the absence of CD59.

The specific lipid composition of the host cell plasma membrane can affect its structure,

function, and interactions with pathogens. PC and PE are the two most abundant lipid classes. PC

is a cylindrical-shaped lipid that allows tight packing of lipids and is present in higher

concentrations along with sphingolipids in the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane (54, 55). PE

along with phosphatidylserine (PS) and phosphatidylinositol (PI) are mostly found in the inner

leaflet (55). Acyl chain length and degree of saturation are lipid characteristics known to affect

plasma membrane stability and fluidity (56). Longer acyl chains tend to increase saturation and

result in thicker membranes, which are also more resistant to bending (57). Within the PC lipid

species, 34C and 36C (34 and 36 total carbons in total acyl chain content) were the most

commonly detected acyl chain totals in our analysis. CD59 KO cells had fewer 34C and 36C

total chain contents, while exhibiting an increase in long total acyl chain content (>40) compared

to WT cells (Figure 6B). This same trend was found among the PE lipid species, where CD59

KO cells had fewer of the most abundant 36C chain contents, and increased very short and very

long acyl chain contents (Figure 6C).

Acyl chain saturation is also a determinant of plasma membrane organization and fluidity.

Fully unsaturated GM1 C16:0 species have been shown previously to co-cluster with CD59,

while C16:1 species did not (58). Our analysis showed that SM C36:2 acyl chains were increased

in CD59 KO cells compared to WT cells (Figure 6D). The increased levels of unsaturation could

have effects on membrane fluidity, raft formation, or lipid-protein interactions. BioPAN analysis

revealed altered flux through various catabolic and metabolic pathways, indicating that CD59 is

required for proper lipid homeostasis and plasma membrane maintenance (Figure 6E).

In this study we have shown that CD59 is required for efficient pore formation and

translocation of bacterial effectors via the *Yptb* T3SS. The depletion of CD59 revealed changes in

the localization of lipid raft marker GM1 indicating a largescale disruption of membrane

dynamics. CD59 is an important structural component of raft domains, and it is possible that

when cells lack this abundant GPI-linked protein, the formation, stability, and/or mobility of

these domains is disrupted. Disruption may result from deranged lipid signaling or from

preventing the interaction of T3SS components with host kinases involved in signal transduction.

Future work will focus on determining if other host components involved in lipid raft signaling

play critical roles in T3SS function, as well as on identifying the critical step in the T3SS

translocator insertion process that requires intact CD59.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial Strains and Cell Culture Conditions. All *Y. pseudotuberculosis* strains used

are derivatives of YPIII (wildtype) and were generously provided by Joan Mecsas (See Table 1).

HEK 293T cells (ATCC) and HeLa cells (ATCC) were maintained in Gibco DMEM + 10% fetal

bovine serum and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2.

Table 1 Bacterial strains used in this study			384 385
Background	Strain	Reference	
YPIII	YPIIIΔ*yopB* (YPIIIΔB)	(10)	386
YPIII	YPIIIΔ*yopHMOJE* (YPIIIΔ5)	(10)	387
YPIII	YPIII E-TEM	(59)	
YPIII	YPIII *gfp+*	(60)	388
YPIII	YPIIIΔ*yopB gfp+*	(60)	

T3SS induction. Single colonies of indicated *Yptb* strains were picked from agar plates

and grown in 2xYT broth overnight on a rotator at 26°C. Overnight cultures were diluted to A_{600}

= 0.200 in induction media (2xYT + 20mM $MgCl_2$ + 20mM $Na_2C_2O_4$), rotated at 26°C for 1.5

hours, then moved to 37°C and rotated for 1.5 hours to induce expression of the T3SS prior to all

infection assays.

Generation of CRISPR CD59 knockout 293T cells. Stable monoclonal CD59 KO

HEK 293T cells were generated using the LentiCRISPRv2 vector (a gift from Feng Zhang,

Addgene plasmid #52961) (28) targeting the 20bp sequence 5' ACGACGTCACAACCCGCTTG

3' of the human CD59 coding region. Oligonucleotides containing this targeted region plus 5'

BsmBI restriction sites (sense: CACCGACGACGTCACAACCCGCTTG and antisense:

AAACCAAGCGGGTTGTGACGTCGTC) were annealed and ligated into the LentiCRISPRv2

plasmid at the BsmBI digestion site. The sgRNA-containing vector was linearized within the

ampicillin cassette and transfected into WT 293T cells. After 48 hours transfected cells were

selected under puromycin and clonal populations were isolated, outgrown, and successful

knockout determined using fluorescent antibody labeling and FACS analysis as described below.

The same knockout clone was used for all subsequent experiments, including the generation of

clonal cell lines with wildtype and high levels of CD59 surface expression.

Generation of CD59 complement and overexpressing 293T cell lines. 2 x 10^5 WT or

CD59 KO HEK 293T cells were seeded in 6-well tissue culture-treated plates and the pcDNA3.1

Hygro+ (empty vector) or pcDNA3.1 Hygro+ hCD59 plasmids were transfected using

Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen). Hygromycin was added after 48 hours to select for transfected

cells, and transfectants were single-cell sorted into 96-well plates containing conditioned cell

media. Arising clonal populations were maintained with Hygromycin B to select against loss of

the integrated plasmid.

Translocation Assay. Approximately 2.5 x 10^5 HEK 293T cells were seeded in tissue

culture- treated 24 well dishes overnight. YPIII E-TEM or YPIII$\Delta yopB$ E-TEM were grown in

induction conditions (See T3SS induction above), diluted in prewarmed DMEM including 10%

FBS, and added to 293T cells at an MOI = 1. The infection plates were centrifuged for 5 mins at

1000rpm to maximize bacterial contact with cells and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2, for 1 hr. Cells

were then harvested in 180 µl of PBS. A 10X solution of CCF4-AM reagents was prepared in

PBS (LiveBLAzer^{TM} FRET - B/G Loading Kit with CCF4-AM, Invitrogen) (61), 20µL was

added to each sample tube, briefly vortexed, and incubated for 20 minutes protected from light at

room temperature. Samples were then analyzed on a BD FACS Calibur and data was processed

with FlowJo (Tree Star) software, with 10,000 events collected for each sample. Translocation

was quantified by subtracting background signal present in uninfected cells and calculating the

ratio of the geometric mean fluorescence intensity of the 450/515 channels.

Pore Formation Assay. Approximately 2.5 x 10^5 HEK 293T cells were seeded in tissue

culture-treated 24-well dishes overnight. Overnight bacterial cultures of YPIII Δ*yopHMOJE*

(YPIIIΔ5) or YPIIIΔ*yopB* (YPIIIΔB) were grown in T3SS induction conditions prior to infection

(See T3SS Induction). Induced YPIIIΔ*yopHMOJE* or YPIIIΔ*yopB* were diluted in prewarmed

DMEM + 10% FBS and added to HEK 293T cells at an MOI of 25. After challenge, plates were

centrifuged for 5 mins at 200xg and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2 for 2 hours. The contents of each

well were removed by pipetting the cells up and down, washing with Hanks' balanced salt

solution (HBSS), Gibco, resuspending in Live/Dead dye diluted 1:1000 in HBSS

(LIVE/DEAD™ Fixable Green Dead Cell Stain Kit, Molecular Probes, Life Technologies), and

incubated for 30 minutes protected from light. Cells were washed twice in HBSS containing 1%

Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA), resuspended in 0.300mL HBSS, and analyzed by flow cytometry

on a BD LSRII flow cytometer. At least 10,000 events were collected per sample. Pore formation

was quantified by determining the geometric mean of the FITC channel. Data was processed

with FlowJo (Tree Star) software.

CD59 and GPI-linked surface protein detection. Flow cytometry was utilized to

determine the levels of CD59 and GPI-linked proteins on the host cell surface. Live HEK 293Ts

cells were washed with PBS, blocked on ice in PBS containing 0.5% BSA for 10 minutes, and

pelleted for 5 mins at 300rcf. For CD59 detection, cells were resuspended in mouse anti-human

CD59-FITC (BD Pharminogen, clone p282 (H19)), diluted 1:500 in blocking buffer. To detect

GPI-linked proteins, cells were resuspended in fluorescently labeled proaerolysin (FLAER,

Alexa 488 variant, CedarLane Labs) diluted 1:20 in blocking buffer. Cells were incubated on ice

protected from light for 30 minutes, washed once in blocking buffer, resuspended, and

transferred to a round bottom polystyrene 12 x 75mm tube for flow cytometry analysis. When

fixation was required, cells were washed in PBS, fixed for 20 minutes in PBS containing 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) at RT, protected from light, washed 3x in PBS, blocked for 1hr in 4%

BSA, resuspended in either anti-CD59 or FLAER (1:500 or 1:20, respectively) for 1hr rotating at

37°C, washed once, resuspended in blocking buffer, then transferred to round bottom 5mL

polystyrene tubes for flow cytometry analysis.

CD59 siRNA knockdown. HEK 293T or HeLa cells were seeded in 6-well tissue

culture-treated plates overnight. 25pmol per well of siGENOME SMARTPOOL human CD59

siRNA (Horizon Discovery) or 25pmol of non-targeting control siRNA were transfected using

Lipofectamine RNAiMax (Invitrogen). After 48 hours, cells were lifted and seeded in 24-well

tissue culture plates. Cells were then challenged with induced YPIII strains after a total of 72

hours of siRNA knockdown.

Phospholipase C Treatment. 5.0×10^5 HEK 293T cells per well were seeded into 12-

well tissue culture-treated plates overnight. Overnight cultures of YPIII Δ*yopHMOJE* or

YPIIIΔ*yopB* were then diluted and induced (see T3SS induction). To cleave surface GPI-linked

proteins from HEK 293Ts cells, 0.1U of phospholipase C protein (Phosphatidylinositol-Specific

from *Bacillus cereus*, Invitrogen), or an equivalent volume of buffer was added to each well 30

minutes prior to infection and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2, then cells were infected at MOI = 25.

Plates were centrifuged for 5mins at 200xg and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2 for 2 hours.

Following infection, cells were either assayed for pore formation or probed with FLAER to

determine levels of GPI-linked proteins present on the host cell surface.

Expression and purification of intermedilysin proteins. Plasmid constructs for protein

expression of His-tagged WT intermedilysin (His-ILY[WT]) and a prepore conformation mutant

(His-ILY[PP]) were generously provided by Rodney K. Tweten (62). *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cultures

harboring either the His-ILY^{WT} or His-ILY^{PP} plasmids were grown overnight in LB broth

supplemented with 100ug/mL carbenicillin. Overnight cultures were diluted 1:100 in LB and

incubated with agitation at 37°C until they reached an $A_{600} = 0.8$, supplemented with 100ug/mL

carbenicillin, and induced by adding 1mM IPTG (final concentration). Cultures were incubated

at room temperature overnight and pelleted at 5000rpm for 20 mins at 4°C. Pellets were

resuspended in 20mL PBS, 1x EDTA-free cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma), cells

were lysed using a microfluidizer (Microfluidics), and the cell lysate centrifuged at 10,000rpm

for 30min at 4°C. Cleared lysates were applied to Ni-NTA resin, rotating end over end at 4°C for

1hr to allow adsorption, and mixture was transferred to a plastic column. After allowing flow-

through of the adsorption mix, the resin was washed with PBS containing steps of 0mM, 20mM,

50mM, 80mM, and 120mM imidazole, followed by elution of the protein with PBS containing

500mM imidazole, pH =7.2. Protein purity was determined by SDS-PAGE gel and Coomassie

staining, and protein concentrations were determined using Bradford reagent (Bio-Rad). Protein

was dialyzed overnight into 10mM MES (pH=6.5), 300mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA using dialysis

cassettes (Slide-a-Lyzer Cassettes, Thermo), then either stored short-term at 4°C, or long-term by

adding 10% glycerol and 5mM DTT before flash freezing for storage at -80°C.

ILY Treatment. Approximately 5 x 10^5 WT 293T cells were seeded overnight in 12 well

plates. To perform inhibitor experiments, cells were pretreated with 100nM ILY^{PP} or an

equivalent volume of buffer per well and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2 for 1 hr. After pretreatment,

cells were challenged with 30nM of ILY^{WT} or buffer, incubated for an additional 2 hours, and

assayed for pore formation (See Pore Formation Assay).

Focal Adhesion Immunofluorescence Staining. HeLa cells were seeded on glass

coverslips overnight in 24-well plates. Cells were wash and then challenged at MOI = 5,

centrifuged for 5 mins at 200xg, then immediately washed and fixed in 4% PFA. The fixed cells

were then washed with 0.05 M Tris buffered saline pH 8.0 (TBS) permeabilized in TBS

containing 0.1% Triton X-100 for 2-5 mins and blocked with TBS containing 1% BSA. Cells

were incubated with anti-phosphotyrosine, clone 4G10 (EMD Millipore) (1:200 in blocking

buffer), washed 3 times, and incubated with donkey anti-mouse IgG-Alexa-Fluor 594 (Jackson

ImmunoResearch Laboratories). Coverslips were stained with Hoechst, washed, and mounted

with ProLong Glass Antifade (Invitrogen). Images were taken with Zeiss AxioObserver.Z1

fluorescent microscope. Focal adhesions were identified and measured in ImageJ using a custom

macro that automates various functions to minimize background, increase contrast, and enhance

edge detection to identify focal adhesion particles, based on a previously published workflow

(41). See Supplementary materials for macro details.

GM1 Immunofluorescence Staining. HeLa cells were seeded overnight in DMEM

containing 10% fetal bovine serum on glass coverslips in 24-well plates. Prior to infection, the

culture medium was aspirated and fresh culture medium containing cholera toxin B (CtxB)

(Vybrant Lipid Raft Labeling Kit, Molecular Probes) was added. Cells were then infected at MOI

= 5 with *Yptb* diluted in DMEM + 10% FBS so that the final concentration of CtxB was 2μg/mL

in each well. Plates were placed in centrifuge, subjected to 5min spin at 200xg, then coverslips

were washed three times with cold medium, incubated with anti-CtxB at 4°C for 15mins, washed

three times with cold PBS, fixed in 4% PBS containing 4% PFA, washed three times in PBS,

stained with Hoechst (1:10000) and mounted with ProLong Glass Antifade (Invitrogen).

Lipid Extraction and Data Analysis. Lipids were extracted from WT and CD59 KO

293T cells by the Folch extraction method (44) as follows. CD59 KO and WT 293T cells were

grown in DMEM + 10% FBS until ~80% confluency in one 10cm plate per sample replicate, and

medium was changed 2 hours prior to harvesting. Cells were rinsed with PBS, lifted with 0.05%

trypsin, spun down for 5min at 200xg, washed with PBS, and resuspended with PBS in a total

volume of 200μL. Cells were transferred to glass vials and 2:1 chloroform: methanol was added

to a final volume of 4mL. Samples were then agitated for 30 min on an orbital shaker at RT

before 800μL water was added, vortexed 1 min, and allowed to stand for 10 minutes before

centrifuging for 5min at 1000xg to separate into three phases. The lower phase containing

nonpolar lipids was carefully transferred with a glass pipette from the vial into the microtube,

then evaporated under nitrogen and stored at -80 °C. Samples were then analyzed via high-

resolution LC-MS/MS, and the lipids were identified and quantified with LipidSearch software

by the BIDMC-Harvard Mass Spectrometry Facility according to their published protocol

(special thanks to Dr. John Asara, Director) (44). Lipid peak data were` normalized by percent

abundance within each sample. PCA analysis was performed using MetaboAnalyst 5.0. Lipid

pathway analysis performed using LIPIDMAPS BioPan software.

530
531
532
Acknowledgements

We would like to acknowledge Stephen Kwok and Alan Parmelee from the Tufts Flow

Cytometry Core Facility for assistance in flow cytometry, Dr. Joan Mecsas and her lab for

Yersinia strains and discussions, as well as Drs. Marta Gaglia and Katya Heldwein for

experimental suggestions. We thank Drs. Kevin Manera, Atish RoyChowdhury and Bixi He for

critical review of the manuscript. This work was supported by NIAID awards R21AI085250,

and R01AI110684 to R.R.I. KJD was supported by a NIAID Training Grant T32AI007422.

Author Contributions

Kristen Davis, Conceptualized and designed the analysis, collected, analyzed, and interpreted the

data, writing of original draft, editing of the paper; Kerri Sheahan, conceptualization, constructed

CD59 KO cell line, collected preliminary data; Connor Murphy, conceptualization, collected

preliminary data; Ralph Isberg, conceptualization and design of analysis, funding acquisition,

project administration, methodology, interpretation of data, editing and review of manuscript.

1.   Dewoody RS, Merritt PM, Marketon MM. 2013. Regulation of the Yersinia type III
secretion system: traffic control. Front Cell Infect Microbiol 3:4.
2.   Cornelis GR. 2006. The type III secretion injectisome. Nat Rev Microbiol 4:811-25.
3.   Bliska JB, Wang X, Viboud GI, Brodsky IE. 2013. Modulation of innate immune
responses by Yersinia type III secretion system translocators and effectors. Cell Microbiol
15:1622-31.
4.   Cornelis GR, Boland A, Boyd AP, Geuijen C, Iriarte M, Neyt C, Sory MP, Stainier I.
1998. The virulence plasmid of Yersinia, an antihost genome. Microbiol Mol Biol Rev
62:1315-52.
5.   Portnoy DA, Falkow S. 1981. Virulence-associated plasmids from Yersinia enterocolitica
and Yersinia pestis. J Bacteriol 148:877-83.
6.   Gemski P, Lazere JR, Casey T, Wohlhieter JA. 1980. Presence of a virulence-associated
plasmid in Yersinia pseudotuberculosis. Infect Immun 28:1044-7.
7.   Matteï PJ, Faudry E, Job V, Izoré T, Attree I, Dessen A. 2011. Membrane targeting and
pore formation by the type III secretion system translocon. FEBS J 278:414-26.
8.   Viboud GI, Mejía E, Bliska JB. 2006. Comparison of YopE and YopT activities in
counteracting host signalling responses to Yersinia pseudotuberculosis infection. Cell
Microbiol 8:1504-15.
9.   Aepfelbacher M, Trasak C, Wilharm G, Wiedemann A, Trulzsch K, Krauss K, Gierschik
P, Heesemann J. 2003. Characterization of YopT effects on Rho GTPases in Yersinia
enterocolitica-infected cells. J Biol Chem 278:33217-23.
10.   Logsdon LK, Mecsas J. 2003. Requirement of the Yersinia pseudotuberculosis effectors
YopH and YopE in colonization and persistence in intestinal and lymph tissues. Infect
Immun 71:4595-607.
11.   Black DS, Bliska JB. 2000. The RhoGAP activity of the Yersinia pseudotuberculosis
cytotoxin YopE is required for antiphagocytic function and virulence. Mol Microbiol
37:515-27.
12.   von Pawel-Rammingen U, Telepnev M, Schmidt G, Aktories K, Wolf-Watz H, Rosqvist
R. 2000. GAP activity of the Yersinia YopE cytotoxin specifically targets the Rho
pathway: a mechanism for disruption of actin microfilament structure. Molecular
Microbiology 36:737-748.
13.   Mejía E, Bliska JB, Viboud GI. 2008. Yersinia controls type III effector delivery into host
cells by modulating Rho activity. PLoS Pathog 4:e3.
14.   Blondel CJ, Park JS, Hubbard TP, Pacheco AR, Kuehl CJ, Walsh MJ, Davis BM, Gewurz
BE, Doench JG, Waldor MK. 2016. CRISPR/Cas9 Screens Reveal Requirements for Host
Cell Sulfation and Fucosylation in Bacterial Type III Secretion System-Mediated
Cytotoxicity. Cell Host Microbe 20:226-37.
15.   Deruelle V, Bouillot S, Job V, Taillebourg E, Fauvarque MO, Attree I, Huber P. 2021. The
bacterial toxin ExoU requires a host trafficking chaperone for transportation and to
induce necrosis. Nat Commun 12:4024.
16.   Swimm AI, Kalman D. 2008. Cytosolic extract induces Tir translocation and pedestals in
EPEC-infected red blood cells. PLoS Pathog 4:e4.
17.   Sheahan KL, Isberg RR. 2015. Identification of mammalian proteins that collaborate with
type III secretion system function: involvement of a chemokine receptor in supporting
translocon activity. MBio 6:e02023-14.

18. Kimberley FC, Sivasankar B, Paul Morgan B. 2007. Alternative roles for CD59. Mol
Immunol 44:73-81.
19. Sugita Y, Nakano Y, Tomita M. 1988. Isolation from human erythrocytes of a new
membrane protein which inhibits the formation of complement transmembrane channels.
J Biochem 104:633-7.
20. Holguin MH, Fredrick LR, Bernshaw NJ, Wilcox LA, Parker CJ. 1989. Isolation and
characterization of a membrane protein from normal human erythrocytes that inhibits
reactive lysis of the erythrocytes of paroxysmal nocturnal hemoglobinuria. J Clin Invest
84:7-17.
21. Rollins SA, Sims PJ. 1990. The complement-inhibitory activity of CD59 resides in its
capacity to block incorporation of C9 into membrane C5b-9. J Immunol 144:3478-83.
22. Giddings KS, Zhao J, Sims PJ, Tweten RK. 2004. Human CD59 is a receptor for the
cholesterol-dependent cytolysin intermedilysin. Nat Struct Mol Biol 11:1173-8.
23. Farrand AJ, Hotze EM, Sato TK, Wade KR, Wimley WC, Johnson AE, Tweten RK. 2015.
The Cholesterol-dependent Cytolysin Membrane-binding Interface Discriminates Lipid
Environments of Cholesterol to Support beta-Barrel Pore Insertion. J Biol Chem
290:17733-17744.
24. Simons K, Ehehalt R. 2002. Cholesterol, lipid rafts, and disease. J Clin Invest 110:597-
603.
25. Hayward RD, Cain RJ, McGhie EJ, Phillips N, Garner MJ, Koronakis V. 2005.
Cholesterol binding by the bacterial type III translocon is essential for virulence effector
delivery into mammalian cells. Mol Microbiol 56:590-603.
26. van der Goot FG, Tran van Nhieu G, Allaoui A, Sansonetti P, Lafont F. 2004. Rafts can
trigger contact-mediated secretion of bacterial effectors via a lipid-based mechanism. J
Biol Chem 279:47792-8.
27. Lafont F, van der Goot FG. 2005. Bacterial invasion via lipid rafts. Cell Microbiol 7:613-
20.
28. Sanjana NE, Shalem O, Zhang F. 2014. Improved vectors and genome-wide libraries for
CRISPR screening. Nat Methods 11:783-784.
29. Viboud GI, Bliska JB. 2005. Yersinia outer proteins: role in modulation of host cell
signaling responses and pathogenesis. Annu Rev Microbiol 59:69-89.
30. Harmon DE, Davis AJ, Castillo C, Mecsas J. 2010. Identification and characterization of
small-molecule inhibitors of Yop translocation in Yersinia pseudotuberculosis.
Antimicrob Agents Chemother 54:3241-54.
31. Soltani CE, Hotze EM, Johnson AE, Tweten RK. 2007. Specific protein-membrane
contacts are required for prepore and pore assembly by a cholesterol-dependent cytolysin.
J Biol Chem 282:15709-16.
32. Guignot J, Tran Van Nhieu G. 2016. Bacterial Control of Pores Induced by the Type III
Secretion System: Mind the Gap. Front Immunol 7:84.
33. Knodler LA, Celli J, Finlay BB. 2001. Pathogenic trickery: deception of host cell
processes. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 2:578-88.
34. Fuentes DE, Butler PJ. 2012. Coordinated Mechanosensitivity of Membrane Rafts and
Focal Adhesions. Cell Mol Bioeng 5:143-154.
35. Black DS, Montagna LG, Zitsmann S, Bliska JB. 1998. Identification of an amino-
terminal substrate-binding domain in the Yersinia tyrosine phosphatase that is required
for efficient recognition of focal adhesion targets. Mol Microbiol 29:1263-74.

36. Rolán HG, Durand EA, Mecsas J. 2013. Identifying Yersinia YopH-targeted signal
transduction pathways that impair neutrophil responses during in vivo murine infection.
Cell Host Microbe 14:306-17.
37. Andersson K, Carballeira N, Magnusson KE, Persson C, Stendahl O, Wolf-Watz H,
Fällman M. 1996. YopH of Yersinia pseudotuberculosis interrupts early phosphotyrosine
signalling associated with phagocytosis. Mol Microbiol 20:1057-69.
38. Persson C, Carballeira N, Wolf-Watz H, Fällman M. 1997. The PTPase YopH inhibits
uptake of Yersinia, tyrosine phosphorylation of p130Cas and FAK, and the associated
accumulation of these proteins in peripheral focal adhesions. EMBO J 16:2307-18.
39. Black DS, Bliska JB. 1997. Identification of p130Cas as a substrate of Yersinia YopH
(Yop51), a bacterial protein tyrosine phosphatase that translocates into mammalian cells
and targets focal adhesions. EMBO J 16:2730-44.
40. Lipp AM, Juhasz K, Paar C, Ogris C, Eckerstorfer P, Thuenauer R, Hesse J, Nimmervoll
B, Stockinger H, Schütz GJ, Bodenhofer U, Balogi Z, Sonnleitner A. 2014. Lck mediates
signal transmission from CD59 to the TCR/CD3 pathway in Jurkat T cells. PLoS One
9:e85934.
41. Horzum U, Ozdil B, Pesen-Okvur D. 2014. Step-by-step quantitative analysis of focal
adhesions. MethodsX 1:56-9.
42. Aigal S, Claudinon J, Romer W. 2015. Plasma membrane reorganization: A glycolipid
gateway for microbes. Biochim Biophys Acta 1853:858-71.
43. Klymchenko AS, Kreder R. 2014. Fluorescent probes for lipid rafts: from model
membranes to living cells. Chem Biol 21:97-113.
44. Breitkopf SB, Ricoult SJH, Yuan M, Xu Y, Peake DA, Manning BD, Asara JM. 2017. A
relative quantitative positive/negative ion switching method for untargeted lipidomics via
high resolution LC-MS/MS from any biological source. Metabolomics 13.
45. Kinoshita M, Suzuki KG, Matsumori N, Takada M, Ano H, Morigaki K, Abe M, Makino
A, Kobayashi T, Hirosawa KM, Fujiwara TK, Kusumi A, Murata M. 2017. Raft-based
sphingomyelin interactions revealed by new fluorescent sphingomyelin analogs. J Cell
Biol 216:1183-1204.
46. Niemela PS, Hyvonen MT, Vattulainen I. 2006. Influence of chain length and
unsaturation on sphingomyelin bilayers. Biophys J 90:851-63.
47. Wang LN, Gao MH, Wang B, Cong BB, Zhang SC. 2018. A role for GPI-CD59 in
promoting T-cell signal transduction via LAT. Oncol Lett 15:4873-4881.
48. Osei-Owusu P, Charlton TM, Kim HK, Missiakas D, Schneewind O. 2019. FPR1 is the
plague receptor on host immune cells. Nature 574:57-62.
49. Popik W, Alce TM, Au WC. 2002. Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 uses lipid raft-
colocalized CD4 and chemokine receptors for productive entry into CD4(+) T cells. J
Virol 76:4709-22.
50. Brandel A, Aigal S, Lagies S, Schlimpert M, Melendez AV, Xu M, Lehmann A, Hummel
D, Fisch D, Madl J, Eierhoff T, Kammerer B, Romer W. 2021. The Gb3-enriched
CD59/flotillin plasma membrane domain regulates host cell invasion by Pseudomonas
aeruginosa. Cell Mol Life Sci 78:3637-3656.
51. Chinnapen DJ, Chinnapen H, Saslowsky D, Lencer WI. 2007. Rafting with cholera toxin:
endocytosis and trafficking from plasma membrane to ER. FEMS Microbiol Lett
266:129-37.

52. Iglesias-Bartolome R, Trenchi A, Comin R, Moyano AL, Nores GA, Daniotti JL. 2009.
Differential endocytic trafficking of neuropathy-associated antibodies to GM1
ganglioside and cholera toxin in epithelial and neural cells. Biochim Biophys Acta
1788:2526-40.
53. Cai B, Xie S, Liu F, Simone LC, Caplan S, Qin X, Naslavsky N. 2014. Rapid degradation
of the complement regulator, CD59, by a novel inhibitor. J Biol Chem 289:12109-12125.
54. Torres M, Parets S, Fernandez-Diaz J, Beteta-Gobel R, Rodriguez-Lorca R, Roman R,
Llado V, Rossello CA, Fernandez-Garcia P, Escriba PV. 2021. Lipids in Pathophysiology
and Development of the Membrane Lipid Therapy: New Bioactive Lipids. Membranes
(Basel) 11.
55. Skotland T, Kavaliauskiene S, Sandvig K. 2020. The role of lipid species in membranes
and cancer-related changes. Cancer Metastasis Rev 39:343-360.
56. Vanni S, Riccardi L, Palermo G, De Vivo M. 2019. Structure and Dynamics of the Acyl
Chains in the Membrane Trafficking and Enzymatic Processing of Lipids. Acc Chem Res
52:3087-3096.
57. Rawicz W, Olbrich KC, McIntosh T, Needham D, Evans E. 2000. Effect of chain length
and unsaturation on elasticity of lipid bilayers. Biophys J 79:328-39.
58. Arumugam S, Schmieder S, Pezeshkian W, Becken U, Wunder C, Chinnapen D, Ipsen
JH, Kenworthy AK, Lencer W, Mayor S, Johannes L. 2021. Ceramide structure dictates
glycosphingolipid nanodomain assembly and function. Nat Commun 12:3675.
59. Maldonado-Arocho FJ, Green C, Fisher ML, Paczosa MK, Mecsas J. 2013. Adhesins and
host serum factors drive Yop translocation by yersinia into professional phagocytes
during animal infection. PLoS Pathog 9:e1003415.
60. Crimmins GT, Mohammadi S, Green ER, Bergman MA, Isberg RR, Mecsas J. 2012.
Identification of MrtAB, an ABC transporter specifically required for Yersinia
pseudotuberculosis to colonize the mesenteric lymph nodes. PLoS Pathog 8:e1002828.
61. Nguyen GT, McCabe AL, Fasciano AC, Mecsas J. 2019. Detection of Cells Translocated
with Yersinia Yops in Infected Tissues Using β-Lactamase Fusions. Methods Mol Biol
2010:117-139.
62. LaChapelle S, Tweten RK, Hotze EM. 2009. Intermedilysin-receptor interactions during
assembly of the pore complex: assembly intermediates increase host cell susceptibility to
complement-mediated lysis. J Biol Chem 284:12719-26.
63. Gaud C, B CS, Nguyen A, Fedorova M, Ni Z, O'Donnell VB, Wakelam MJO, Andrews S,
Lopez-Clavijo AF. 2021. BioPAN: a web-based tool to explore mammalian lipidome
metabolic pathways on LIPID MAPS. F1000Res 10:4.
722
723

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Knockout and increased surface levels of host cell CD59 result in inefficient pore

formation when challenged by *Yptb*. (**A**) WT and CD59 KO HEK 293T cells were probed with

FITC-conjugated α-human CD59 and analyzed by flow cytometry to quantitate cell surface

CD59. Histogram displays total counts for fluorescence of FITC channel, collecting 10,000

events per sample. (**B**) HEK 293T cells were challenged with YPIIIΔ*yopHMOJE* (YPIIIΔ5) or

YPIII*yopB* (YPIIIΔB) at MOI = 25 for 2 hours. Cells were labeled with FITC LIVE/DEAD stain

and analyzed by flow cytometry to determine extent of pore formation (Materials and Methods).

(**C**) CD59 KO 293T cells were transfected with a plasmid expressing human CD59 and stable

monoclonal cell lines were obtained with CD59 levels that were similar to endogenously

expressed protein (WT1 and WT2) or which were overexpressed (OE1 and OE2). The histogram

indicates the level of FITC-conjugated α-human CD59 labeling for the WT, CD59 KO, and

pCD59 clones as determined by flow cytometry. (**D**) Indicated cell lines were challenged at MOI

= 25 for 2 hrs with YPIIIΔ5 (See Supplemental Figure S1 for YPIIIΔB control). Cells were

labeled with FITC LIVE/DEAD stain and analyzed by flow cytometry to determine extent of

pore formation. Data are geometric mean ± SEM of the fluorescence intensity normalized to WT.

Results represent three independent experiments performed in technical triplicate. Statistical

significance was calculated using a one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test

(*$p < 0.05$).

Figure 2. Knockdown of host cell CD59 inhibits translocation of T3SS substrates during

Yptb **infection.** WT 293T cells were transfected with either human CD59 siRNA or non-

targeting control siRNA to knock down CD59 expression. Assays were performed after 72 total

hours of transfection. **(A)** Cells were probed with FITC-conjugated α-human CD59 and analyzed

by flow cytometry for cell surface localization of CD59. **(B, C)** Approximately 2.5 x 10^5 siRNA

transfected cells were seeded overnight. Cells were challenged with YPIII/YopE-TEM or

YPIIIΔ*yopB*/YopE-TEM at MOI = 1 for 1 hour. Infected cells were harvested, loaded with

CCF4-AM and analyzed by flow cytometry. **(B)** Contour plots displaying the fluorescence

intensity of the blue channel (450nm) indicative of YopE translocation vs. the green channel

(515nm) displaying all cells. **(C)** Translocation was calculated by determining the ratio of the

geometric MFI for the 450/515 channels. Data shown are a representative experiment (from 3

independent experiments performed in technical triplicate).

Figure 3. Host cell CD59 indirectly supports YPIII T3SS-dependent pore formation. (A,B)

ILY^{PP} treatment effectively blocks binding and subsequent pore formation by ILY^{WT}. WT 293T

cells were seeded overnight in 12 well plates. Cells were pretreated with 100nM of ILY^{PP} or

buffer for 1 hour, challenged with either 30nM ILY^{WT} **(A)** or YPIIIΔ5 or YPIIIΔB at MOI=25 **(B)**

and incubated for 2 hours. Cells were harvested and assayed for pore formation. Results shown

in panels A and B represent data from three independent experiments in technical duplicate or

triplicate and all pore formation data was normalized to untreated 293T cells challenged by

YPIIIΔ5. **(C)** WT HEK 293T cells were seeded overnight in 12-well plates. Cells were treated

with phospholipase C (PLC) and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2 for 30 mins before harvesting and

labeling with FLAER for detection of GPI-linked proteins by flow cytometry. **(D)** WT HEK

293T cells were seeded overnight in 12-well plates and pretreated with PLC or buffer prior to

challenge with YPIIIΔ5 or YPIIIΔB at MOI = 25 for 2 hrs. Cells were then harvested and

assayed for pore formation. Data are geometric means ± SEM of MFI after subtraction of

uninfected control cell background and normalized to untreated 293T cells challenged by

YPIIIΔ5. Results represent three independent experiments done in technical duplicate or

triplicate. Statistical significance was calculated using an unpaired two-tailed Welch's t test (*p <

0.05).

Figure 4. CD59 depletion lowers focal adhesion disruption by *Yptb*. HeLa cells were

transfected with either siCD59 or the siNT control for 72 hours. Cells were challenged with *Yptb*

gfp+ at an MOI = 5 by 5 min centrifugation at 200xg followed by immediate washing and fixing.

The cells were then immunostained with anti-pTyr followed by probing with anti-mouse-AF594,

and nuclei were stained with Hoechst (1:10000). **(A)** Focal adhesion staining with pTyr of

uninfected cells. **(B)** Cells challenged with *Yptb gfp+*. Scale bar = 10um. Focal adhesions were

identified and measured as described (Materials and Methods). **(C, D)** Average size and total area

displayed. Data analyzed using Ordinary One Way ANOVA followed by Sidak's test (*p < 0.05).

Figure 5. CD59 knockdown affects localization of the lipid raft marker GM1. HeLa cells

were transfected for 72 hrs with 25nM of siCD59 or non-targeting siRNA, then seeded on glass

coverslips for 24hrs prior to bacterial challenge. **(A, B)** Uninfected. **(C,D)** Cells challenged with

YPIIIΔB(pGFP). **(E,F)** Cells challenged with YPIII-WT(pGFP). Infections were performed at

MOI = 5 in presence of CtxB-AlexaFluor594. Bacterial-host cell contact was initiated by 5 min

centrifugation at 200xg followed by immediate washing and incubation with α-Ctx. Cells were

fixed with 4% PFA, and nuclei stained with Hoechst (1:10000). Scale bar = 10μm

Figure 6. CD59 KO alters cellular lipid composition. Lipids were extracted from HEK 293T

WT and CD59 KO cells (Materials and Methods). Representative results of two independent

experiments performed in triplicate. **(A)** Knockout of CD59 alters lipid profile. Principal

component analysis (PCA) of CD59 KO vs WT cells. Data was normalized by percent

abundance within each sample. **(B)** Sum of carbon counts of PC acyl species as a percentage of

total PC within each sample. **(C)** Sum of carbon counts of PE acyl species as a percentage of

total PE within each sample. **(D)** Saturation levels of SM lipid species as a percentage of total

SM within each sample. Significance determined by unpaired t test using two-stage step-up with

FDR of 1% for multiple comparisons. **(E)** Alteration of lipid flux as a consequence of loss of

CD59. Lipid peak data normalized by percent abundance was analyzed using LIPIDMAPS

BioPan software, available through LIPIDMAPS.org (63). Lipid subclass pathways displayed

were found to be similarly altered in both experiments.

Figure S1. Pore formation by *Yptb* is T3SS-dependent. CD59KO HEK 293T cells were

transfected with a plasmid expressing human CD59, and stable monoclonal cell lines were

obtained with CD59 levels that were similar to endogenously expressed protein (WT1 and WT2)

or which were overexpressed (OE1 and OE2). Indicated cell lines were challenged with

YPIIIΔ*yopHMOJE* (YPIIIΔ5) or YPIIIΔ*yopB* (YPIIIΔB) at MOI = 25 for 2 hrs. Cells were

labeled with FITC LIVE/DEAD stain and analyzed by flow cytometry to determine extent of

pore formation. Data are geometric mean ± SEM of the fluorescence intensity normalized to WT.

Data shown is representative of three individual experiments.

Figure S2. CD59 knockdown does not change surface levels of GM. **(A, B)** siNT control cells

and siCD59 knockdown cells were probed with FITC-conjugated α-human CD59 **(A)** or

immunolabeled for GM1 **(B)** and analyzed by flow cytometry after a 72 hr knockdown.