

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Functions of the *Dictyostelium* LIMP-2 and CD36 homologues in bacteria uptake, phagolysosome biogenesis and host cell defence

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ABSTRACT

Phagocytic cells take up, kill and digest microbes by a process called phagocytosis. To this end, these cells bind the particle, rearrange their actin cytoskeleton, and orchestrate transport of digestive factors to the particle-containing phagosome. The mammalian lysosomal membrane protein LIMP-2 (also known as SCARB2) and CD36, members of the class B of scavenger receptors, play a crucial role in lysosomal enzyme trafficking and uptake of mycobacteria, respectively, and generally in host cell defences against intracellular pathogens. Here, we show that the Dictyostelium discoideum LIMP-2 homologue LmpA regulates phagocytosis and phagolysosome biogenesis. The ImpA knockdown mutant is highly affected in actin-dependent processes, such as particle uptake, cellular spreading and motility. Additionally, the cells are severely impaired in phagosomal acidification and proteolysis, likely explaining the higher susceptibility to infection with the pathogenic bacterium Mycobacterium marinum, a close cousin of the human pathogen Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Furthermore, we bring evidence that LmpB is a functional homologue of CD36 and specifically mediates uptake of mycobacteria. Altogether, these data indicate a role for LmpA and LmpB, ancestors of the family of which LIMP-2 and CD36 are members, in lysosome biogenesis and host cell defence.

KEY WORDS: Phagocytosis, Phagosome maturation, Dictyostelium discoideum, CD36, LIMP-2, Mycobacteria

INTRODUCTION

Phagocytic cells of our immune system take up particles larger than 250 nm in diameter by phagocytosis and are the first line of defence against pathogens. Originally developed by early eukaryotes for nutrition purposes, phagocytosis was fine-tuned by immune phagocytes to take up pathogens, kill them and activate immune responses. The mechanisms of phagocytosis and digestion of bacteria are extremely conserved (Boulais et al., 2010; Dunn et al., 2017), and therefore the social amoeba *Dictyostelium discoideum*

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et al., 2005; Means et al., 2009; Stuart et al., 2005).

Binding to phagocytic receptors triggers reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton to form a cup, enclosing the particle in a *de novo*

is, with its haploid genome and easy genetic and biochemical accessibility, a versatile experimental model organism to study these processes (Boulais et al., 2010; Bozzaro et al., 2008; Cosson and Soldati, 2008; Maniak, 2003). In addition, *D. discoideum* also emerged as a powerful system to study bacterial capture and killing, as well as host-pathogen interactions (Cosson and Lima, 2014; Cosson and Soldati, 2008; Dunn et al., 2017), especially as an infection model for human pathogens such as *Legionella*, *Klebsiella*, *Mycobacterium*, *Pseudomonas* (Alibaud et al., 2008; Cardenal-Muñoz et al., 2017; Hagele et al., 2000; Lelong et al., 2011; Solomon et al., 2003; Steinert and Heuner, 2005; Swart et al., 2018), *Vibrio cholera* (Miyata et al., 2011), *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium (Jia et al., 2009), and fungi such as *Cryptococcus neoformans* (Fuchs and Mylonakis, 2006) and *Candida albicans* (Koller et al., 2016).

Phagocytes bind particles via surface receptors. Although some receptors recognize opsonized particles, pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) bind to pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs). PRRs include C-type lectins, Toll-like receptors and the scavenger receptor class B members CD36 and SCARB1. This protein family is known to recognize anionic phospholipids of endogenous origin, but is also important for the uptake of specific pathogens (Neculai et al., 2013; for review, see Silverstein and Febbraio, 2009). In particular, scavenger receptors of class B have been implicated in the phagocytosis of mycobacteria (Areschoug and Gordon, 2009; Court et al., 2010; Philips et al., 2005; Schäfer et al., 2009). The type III transmembrane proteins CD36, SCARB1 and the lysosomal integral membrane protein type 2 (LIMP-2; also known as SCARB2) belong to class B. They have N- and C-terminal transmembrane domains, inducing a hairpin structure with a large glycosylated extracellular loop (Silverstein and Febbraio, 2009). CD36 and SCARB1 are found in lipid rafts at the plasma membrane (Triantafilou et al., 2006), whereas LIMP-2 is only present in endosomes (Vega et al., 1991). These proteins are highly conserved and expressed in diverse organisms, such as phagocytic protozoans, sponges, worms, insects and mammals. They mediate uptake of various microbes, such as fungi, Grampositive and -negative bacteria, and mycobacteria (Baranova et al., 2010, 2008; Court et al., 2010; Philips et al., 2005; Schäfer et al., 2009; Stuart et al., 2005; Vishnyakova et al., 2006). The Cterminal cytosolic tail of human CD36 plays a particular role, because mutation of tyrosine 463 causes a severe decrease in the phagocytosis of Staphylococcus aureus (Stuart et al., 2005). In addition, absence of CD36 in mice and worms leads to high susceptibility to infection with pathogenic S. aureus or C. neoformans, and to impairment in clearing pathogens (Hoebe et al., 2005; Means et al., 2009; Stuart et al., 2005).

compartment called the phagosome, with contributions from the

plasma membrane, the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and endosomes (Dieckmann et al., 2012). The newly formed organelle is transiently coated with actin (Dieckmann et al., 2012; Liebl and Griffiths, 2009), but a series of fusion and fission events ensure maturation of the phagosome into a digestive organelle, the lysosome (Soldati and Neyrolles, 2012). In the lysosome, the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) by the NADPH-oxidase complex (Zhang and Soldati, 2013), the drop in pH caused by the vacuolar H⁺-ATPase (vATPase) (Aubry et al., 1993; Clarke et al., 2002, 2010; Gotthardt et al., 2006a, 2002), and the delivery of intoxicating metal ions and hydrolases kill and degrade the ingested pathogen (Dunn et al., 2017; Soldati and Neyrolles, 2012). In mammalian cells, most lysosomal enzymes are transported from the Golgi complex to the endosomes via the mannose-6-phosphate receptors (MPRs). However, β-glucocerebrosidase is delivered to endosomes by LIMP-2 (Blanz et al., 2010, 2015; Reczek et al., 2007). LIMP-2 [formerly known as LPG-85 (Kuronita et al., 2002, 2005)] belongs to the CD36 family of scavenger receptors. It is required for the biogenesis and maintenance of lysosomes and endosomes (Gonzalez et al., 2014), and regulates phagosome-lysosome fusion (Carrasco-Marín et al., 2011). Its absence decreases the proteolytic killing ability of the phagosome, leading to a higher susceptibility to infection with Listeria monocytogenes (Carrasco-Marín et al., 2011).

Pathogenic mycobacteria have evolved ways to circumvent the bactericidal milieu of the phagosome (Haas, 2007). The causative agent of tuberculosis, M. tuberculosis, inhibits phagosome maturation by preventing fusion of phagosomes with endosomal compartments and lysosomes (Sturgill-Koszycki et al., 1994; Vergne et al., 2004). By manipulating phagosomal maturation and the host cell autonomous defence, the bacteria create a permissive niche in which they multiply. Eventually, M. tuberculosis escapes from the phagosome as a consequence of the secretion of ESAT-6 (also known as esxA), a membranolytic peptide (Simeone et al., 2012) that cooperates with phthiocerol dimycocerosates (Augenstreich et al., 2017) to damage the limiting membrane (Simeone et al., 2015). These steps of the life cycle are extremely similar to the ones documented for Mycobacterium marinum, which bears a high level of similarity with M. tuberculosis, but infects fish and frogs, and induces granulomatous lesions that are comparable to those found in human tuberculosis patients (Hagedorn and Soldati, 2009; Ramakrishnan et al., 2000; Swaim et al., 2006). D. discoideum has been established as an alternative model to study mechanisms of M. marinum infection at cellular and molecular levels (Arafah et al., 2013; Barisch et al., 2015; Cardenal-Muñoz et al., 2017; Hagedorn et al., 2009; Hagedorn and Soldati, 2007). Because of its life style as a bacteria-hunting phagocyte, it is expected that phagocytic receptors are numerous and redundant in this soil-dwelling amoeba. Signature sequences of receptors, such as several peptidoglycan-binding LysM-motifs, leucine-rich repeats (LRRs) and domains of C-type lectins, EGF/ laminin and MPRs (Eichinger et al., 2005), have been identified in silico. Several of these proteins were found at the plasma membrane and therefore suggested to take part in cell adhesion and signalling (Eichinger et al., 2005). However, few cell surface receptors have been functionally described. Recently, the folic acid and G-protein coupled receptor fAR1 was shown to mediate chemotaxis towards bacterially secreted folate and phagocytosis of the bacteria (Pan et al., 2016). In addition, the receptors SibA and SibC (similar to integrin-beta A and C), which are homologues of mammalian β-integrins, play a role during cell adhesion and phagocytosis (Cornillon et al., 2008, 2006; Froquet et al., 2012).

D. discoideum possesses three LIMP-2/CD36 family members: the lysosomal membrane glycoprotein LmpA (formerly known as

DdLIMP-2), LmpB (formerly known as DdCD36) and LmpC (Harris et al., 2001a,b; Karakesisoglou et al., 1999). LmpB localizes to lipid rafts of the plasma membrane and early phagosomes in a manner comparable to that of CD36 and SCARB1 (Buckley et al., 2016; Gotthardt et al., 2006a, 2002; Harris et al., 2001a,b; Silverstein and Febbraio, 2009). On the other hand, LmpA and LmpC, like LIMP-2, are found in endosomes and lysosomes, and LmpA was postulated to participate in endosomal trafficking (Karakesisoglou et al., 1999; Temesvari et al., 2000). Knockdown of the latter not only decreases fluid-phase exocytosis but also impairs fluid-phase acidification (Temesvari et al., 2000). Additionally, it was shown that LmpA binds to negatively charged phosphatidylinositides, such as PI(4,5)P₂, with a putative binding domain similar to the cytosolic tail of ICAM proteins (Karakesisoglou et al., 1999). Interestingly, neither LmpB nor LmpC possess this domain (Janssen et al., 2001). Both, LmpA and LmpC have the typical LAMP-1 sorting motif GYXXΦ, whereas LmpB has two di-leucine sorting motifs, as seen in LIMP-2. The domains and motifs present in LmpA, LmpB and LmpC might explain their differential distribution in the cell (a drawing of their predicted structure is presented in fig. 2 of Janssen et al., 2001).

Here, we comprehensively study the three *D. discoideum* homologues of the mammalian scavenger receptor class B family and show that LmpA is an important factor involved in phagocytosis, lysosomal biogenesis and resistance to mycobacterial infection, whereas the function of LmpB appears to be restricted to the uptake of mycobacteria and *Bacillus subtilis*.

RESULTS

LmpA and LmpC share the closest homology and were detected in the endophagosomal compartments, whereas LmpB is at the cell surface (Gotthardt et al., 2002). To confirm these results, surface proteins were biotinylated and pulled-down on avidin-coated beads. Isolated fractions were analysed by immunoblotting (Fig. 1A). As previously reported, the integrin-like protein SibA (Cornillon et al., 2006) and the glycoprotein GP130 (Chia, 1996) were enriched in the plasma membrane fraction. As expected, LmpB was found at the cell surface, albeit with a lower enrichment than SibA and GP130, suggesting that it is also present in endosomal compartments (see also Fig. 6B). LmpA was not detected in the plasma membrane fraction, confirming that this protein is exclusively found in endosomes, as previously suggested (Gotthardt et al., 2002). The expression level of LmpC is too low to allow detection in this experiment, but it was previously detected in purified phagosomal compartments (see Fig. 6B). To visualize LmpA and LmpB in cells, we generated a *lmpA* knockdown (kd) D. discoideum strain expressing LmpA-FLAG and a wild-type (wt) D. discoideum strain expressing LmpB-FLAG (Fig. 1B-D). Using doxycycline, the levels of expression of LmpA-FLAG and LmpB-FLAG were adjusted to be similar to those of the endogenous proteins, and then the localizations of LmpA-FLAG and LmpB-FLAG during maturation of phagosomes containing latex beads (BCPs) were studied by immunofluorescence (Fig. 1B-D). LmpA-FLAG was not present at the plasma membrane and was detected on a fraction of early phagosomes (15 min after uptake) and phagolysosomes (45 min after uptake; Fig. 1C). LmpA-FLAG was found in phagosomes mainly after 90 min (Fig. 1C) and colocalized with the predicted copper transporter p80, a marker of lysosomes and postlysosomes. This result corroborates the temporal profile of endogenous LmpA obtained from purified phagosomes (Gotthardt et al., 2006a, 2002). In contrast to LmpA-FLAG, LmpB-FLAG was localized in patches at the plasma membrane and the forming

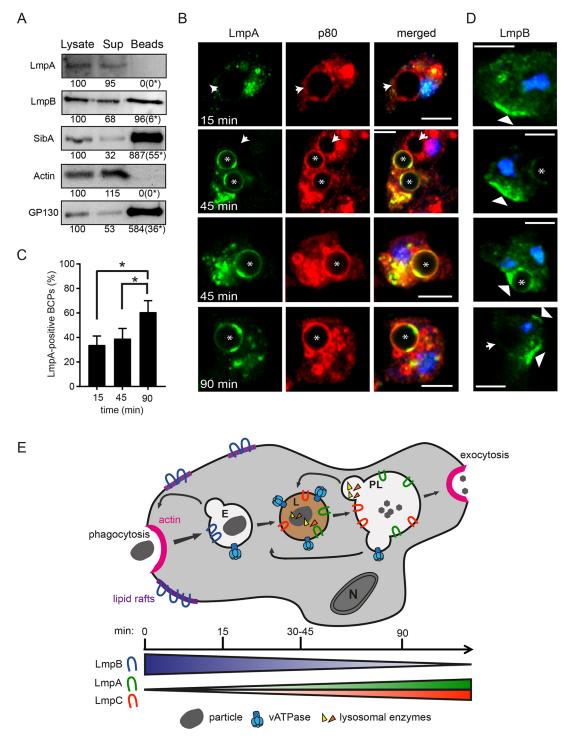


Fig. 1. LmpB is found at the plasma membrane and LmpA localizes at lysosomes and postlysosomes. (A) Plasma membrane proteins of wt cells were biotinylated and isolated by pulldown with avidin beads. The lysate, supernatant (Sup) and bound (Beads) fractions were immunoblotted for known markers of the plasma membrane (SibA, GP130) or actin as a negative control. LmpB is enriched in the plasma membrane, while LmpA is not present in the biotinylated fraction. Representative blots are shown, with quantifications of the signal intensity relative to the lysate fraction. The bead fraction was concentrated 16 times; number in brackets (*) indicates the corrected value (absolute value divided by 16). (B) Confocal fluorescence microscopy of fixed *ImpA* kd cells expressing LmpA-FLAG phagocytosing 3 μm latex beads. At the indicated time points, cells were fixed and immunostained with an anti-FLAG antibody to detect LmpA-FLAG, and with anti-p80 to label endocytic compartments. Arrows indicate bead-containing phagosomes (BCPs) negative for LmpA; asterisks label LmpA-positive phagosomes. Scale bars: 5 μm. (C) Quantification of B. Data are mean±s.d. of three independent experiments (*P=0.4712; unpaired Student's t-test). Between 175 and 316 beads were analysed per time point. (D) Confocal fluorescence microscopy of fixed *ImpB* ko cells expressing LmpB-FLAG phagocytosing 3 μm latex beads. Cells were fixed and immunostained with anti-FLAG antibody without permeabilization. Images representative for different uptake stages were chosen. (E) Scheme representing the localization of LmpA, LmpB and LmpC throughout the phagosome maturation pathway. LmpB is in lipid rafts at the plasma membrane and early endosomes; LmpA and LmpC accumulate gradually in lysosomes and postlysosomes, as shown by us and others (Gotthardt et al., 2006a, 2002). E, endosome; L, lysosome; N, nucleus; PL, postlysosome. Compartments with acidic pH are indicated in brown.

BCPs (Fig. 1D). Overall, our data corroborate that LmpB is at the plasma membrane and in early endosomes, whereas LmpA and LmpC are absent from the surface and only found at later stages of maturation of phagosomal compartments, as summarized in Fig. 1E.

ImpA kd and ImpB knockout cells are defective in phagocytic uptake

Scavenger receptors of class B can mediate entry of microbes into host cells. In order to assess a possible function of the LmpA/B/C paralogues during uptake, flow cytometry assays were performed using a range of fluorescent particles, such as 1 µm latex beads and Alexa Fluor 488-stained or GFP-producing representatives of Gram-positive (B. subtilis) and Gram-negative (Klebsiella pneumoniae) bacteria, as well as M. marinum wt, the avirulent M. marinum mutant L1D (Ramakrishnan et al., 2000) and the nonpathogenic Mycobacterium smegmatis (Fig. 2). The lmpA kd cells showed uptake defects for all particles tested. These cells phagocytosed 60–70% less K. pneumonia and beads, and 80–90% less M. smegmatis and B. subtilis, than wt cells. While the initial uptake rates for K. pneumoniae and B. subtilis were reduced 4.0and 6.5-fold, respectively, the most significant reduction was observed for M. smegmatis, with a 20-fold decrease compared with wt cells (Fig. 2A–F). These results indicate that the *lmpA* kd defect in particle uptake depends on the nature of the particle, and is more drastic than the defect in fluid-phase uptake (Fig. S1A). Compared with the general uptake defect in *lmpA* kd cells, *lmpB* knockout (ko) cells were severely impaired in the phagocytosis of all mycobacterial strains tested, as well as the Gram-positive bacterium B. subtilis. Ingestion of M. marinum wt, L1D and B. subtilis was ~40% lower, with an even stronger reduction of 60% for M. smegmatis. Nevertheless, the uptake was never as impaired as in the *lmpA* kd strain. Finally, the initial uptake rate in wt and *lmpC* ko cells was similar for the particles tested [1.9–2.7 relative fluorescent units (RFU)/min for wt and 1.6–2.3 RFU/min for lmpC ko cells], with a steady state reached after 60 min in most cases, except for ingestion of M. marinum wt, which was decreased by 20% (Fig. 2E).

Overall, these findings suggest that LmpA plays a major, as of yet unrecognized, role during phagocytic uptake, with some degree of specificity towards Gram-positive bacteria and mycobacteria, whereas LmpB is specifically important for the phagocytic uptake of mycobacteria and possibly Gram-positive bacteria.

Cell surface levels of SibA and LmpB are altered in the ImpA kd, ImpB ko and ImpC ko mutants

The uptake phenotypes (Fig. 2), together with the localization data (Fig. 1), led us to hypothesize that surface LmpB might serve as a phagocytic receptor, and endolysosomal LmpA and LmpC might influence receptor trafficking. To test this hypothesis, the surface of the D. discoideum strains was biotinylated, and their plasma membrane proteins were isolated. The distribution of LmpB and the phagocytic receptor SibA was monitored by quantitative immunoblotting (Fig. 3A–C). SibA was found in similar amounts at the surface of all strains except *lmpC* ko, where it was decreased (Fig. 3A). Compared with wt cells, the lmpA kd had $\sim 50\%$ less LmpB in the cell lysate and, although not significantly, at the surface (Fig. 3B,C). As expected, no LmpB protein was found in the *lmpB* ko mutant. Interestingly, the *lmpC* ko strain had almost double amounts of LmpB in the cell lysate and ~30% more at its surface (Fig. 3B,C). We conclude that the absence of LmpC impairs trafficking of SibA and LmpB to the plasma membrane, although in an opposite manner, without any notable impact on phagocytic uptake (Fig. 2). LmpA is involved in the regulation of the cellular and, to a lower extent, plasma membrane levels of LmpB, which might partly explain the severe defect in mycobacteria uptake of the *lmpA* kd cells (Fig. 2D–F).

The ImpA kd mutant has a small adhesion defect

Efficient uptake depends on proper adhesion of the particle to the cell and activation of the actin-dependent engulfment machinery,

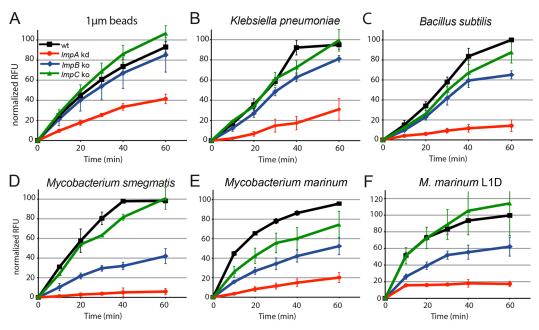


Fig. 2. The *ImpA* kd strain shows severe defects in phagocytosis. (A–F) The uptake of different fluorescent particles [1 μm yellow-green (YG)-beads (A), Alexa Fluor 488-labeled *K. pneumoniae* (B) and *B. subtilis* (C), and GFP-producing *M. smegmatis* (D), *M. marinum* wt (E) and *M. marinum* L1D (F)] by wt, *ImpA* kd, *ImpB* ko or *ImpC* ko cells was monitored by flow cytometry. Data are mean±s.e.m. of three to four independent experiments. RFU were normalized to the fluorescence of wt cells after 60 min of uptake.

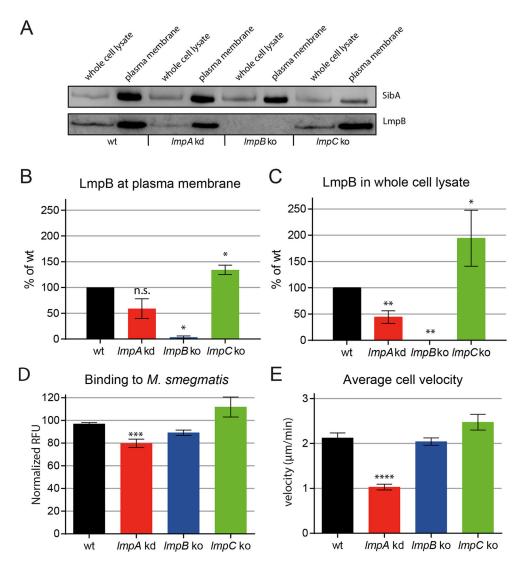


Fig. 3. ImpA kd cells have altered surface levels of LmpB, as well as adhesion and cellular motility defects. (A-C) Biotinylated plasma membrane proteins from wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko and ImpC ko cells were isolated on avidin beads and immunoblotted along whole-cell lysates with anti-SibA and anti-LmpB antibodies. Representative blot of three independent experiments (A). Quantification of the amount of LmpB at the plasma membrane (B) or in the wholecell lysate (C) of the different mutants compared with wt levels. Data are mean±s.e.m. of three independent experiments (n.s., not significant; *P≤0.05, **P≤0.01, Student's *t*-test). (D) Adhesion of Syto9-labeled M. smegmatis to cells in cold medium containing sodium azide was monitored by flow cytometry after a mild PFA fixation. Data are mean±s.e.m. of two to four independent measures from three independent experiments (***P≤0.001; Student's t-test). (E) Average velocity of random cell motility for each strain. Data are mean±s.e.m. of three independent experiments (****P≤0.0001; Student's t-test).

and many of the most severe phagocytic mutants reported in D. discoideum have strong adhesion defects (Cornillon et al., 2008, 2000; Fey et al., 2002; Tuxworth et al., 2001). Because our results indicated a strong reduction in mycobacteria uptake, adhesion to M. smegmatis was quantitated in all the mutants. Binding to Syto9labelled bacteria was assayed in cold medium containing sodium azide, conditions that block engulfment. Particle attachment was stabilized by paraformaldehyde (PFA) fixation, and the samples were analysed by flow cytometry. Adhesion to the bacteria was weakly (20%), but significantly, reduced in the *lmpA* mutant cells compared with wt cells (Fig. 3D). Surprisingly, binding of M. smegmatis to *lmpB* ko cells was only weakly and insignificantly reduced, indicating that LmpB is not absolutely required for adhesion to M. smegmatis under these conditions. We conclude that such small defects likely do not fully explain the strong phagocytic defect of the *lmpA* and *lmpB* mutants.

Knockdown of ImpA severely impairs random cell motility

If adhesion to the particle is not significantly impaired, the uptake defect is likely caused by the actin-dependent rearrangements to form the cup and/or by the membrane trafficking events associated with phagosome biogenesis. To gain insight into the functionality of the actin cytoskeleton of the *lmp* mutants, the random motility

of 20 cells was monitored by live microscopy. The total area of exploration, as well as the length of the track, was analysed. Both wt and lmpB ko cells explored areas of similar size and moved at a speed of 2.00±0.11 µm/min (Fig. 3E). lmpC ko cells migrated slightly faster, at a velocity of 2.50±0.18 µm/min. Knockdown of lmpA, on the other hand, reduced velocity more than 50% (1.00±0.06 µm/min). This correlates with the area explored by cells within 1 h: 95% of lmpA kd cells visited an area of 175 µm², which is about half the area visited by wt cells (383 µm²) and much more restricted than that visited by lmpB and lmpC ko cells (937 µm²) (Fig. S1B–E, insets). In this respect, the phenotypes of the lmpA and the lmpC mutants diverge, suggesting that actin dynamics might be affected in both strains but in opposite ways, as already observed above for the localization of surface receptors.

In conclusion, these findings suggest that uptake impairment in the lmpA mutant is likely to be caused partly by actin dynamic defects, and that the absence of LmpB, which plays a role restricted to the phagocytic uptake of mycobacteria and B. subtilis, does not broadly affect actin cytoskeleton function.

Knockdown of ImpA impairs cell growth on diverse bacteria

Because LmpA is restricted to the endolysosomal system, we sought to explore whether it might be involved in phagosome maturation, as already reported for mammalian LIMP-2. D. discoideum naturally grazes on bacteria and is therefore an excellent system to identify host factors necessary for uptake, as well as those necessary for killing and digestion. To assess these processes, various assays were performed. First, increasing dilutions of cells were plated on lawns of different bacterial strains (Froquet et al., 2009), and the formation of phagocytic plaques was monitored (Fig. S2A). Formation of a plaque, which is more efficient when cells are deposited in higher numbers, is a global indication that D. discoideum can kill, digest and extract nutrients from the respective microbes. Importantly, the bacteria in the lawn are present in a vast excess, which certainly bypasses the uptake defects of the mutant cells. D. discoideum does not grow on virulent mycobacteria. However, it can form plaques on a lawn of either nonpathogenic mycobacteria (M. smegmatis) or avirulent mutants (M. marinum mutant L1D) when mixed with the innocuous K. pneumoniae in a 1:50 to 1:500 ratio (Alibaud et al., 2011). Examples of plaque formation are shown in Fig. S2A, and their quantitation is illustrated with a logarithmic scale (Fig. 4A) as well as a colour scale (Fig. S2B). D. discoideum wt, lmpB ko and *lmpC* ko cells grew equally well on all the bacteria tested, with a growth score of 1000 (see Materials and Methods). Only growth on the Gram-positive bacterium S. aureus was slightly decreased for the three strains (Fig. S2A). Although lmpA kd cells grew relatively well on Escherichia coli, K. pneumoniae and the clinical isolate K. pneumoniae LM21 (Kp21), plaque formation was strongly reduced on Gram-positive bacteria such as *Micrococcus* luteus (40-fold decrease of the growth score) and S. aureus (20-fold decrease; Fig. S2B). Interestingly, the growth score of the *lmpA* kd cells on nonpathogenic M. smegmatis and avirulent M. marinum L1D

was also reduced (14-fold and 27-fold, respectively, compared with that of wt cells). Overall, these data show that knockdown of *lmpA* impairs the ability of *D. discoideum* to feed and grow on certain bacterial strains, and that LmpA is likely involved in phagosome maturation.

Another independent and standard assay, the clearing of a suspension of heat-killed bacteria, was used (Peterson et al., 1995). This readout also takes into account several cycles of uptake and digestion. *D. discoideum* was mixed with an excess of *E. coli* in phosphate buffer and the optical density (OD) of the co-culture was measured hourly for 7 h (Fig. 4B). *D. discoideum* wt and *lmpC* ko cleared bacteria equally well and reached the median clearance at ~2 h, whereas *lmpB* ko cleared the same number of bacteria within 5 h (Fig. 4B). This deficiency might be explained by the weak phagocytosis defect of these cells towards Gram-negative bacteria such as *K. pneumoniae* (Fig. 2B). The *lmpA* kd, on the other hand, showed a 4-fold decreased clearing efficiency, which is in agreement with the results obtained with the plaque assay (Fig. 4A). These data suggest that LmpA is not only involved in particle uptake but has an additional role in the killing and/or digestion of bacteria.

D. discoideum LvsB and the adaptor protein complex 3 (AP-3) are both implicated in lysosome biogenesis and postlysosome fusion, processes important for phagosome maturation and for bacterial killing and digestion (Charette and Cosson, 2007, 2008; Charette et al., 2006). Interestingly, the *lvsB* ko and the ko of the AP-3 subunit μ3 formed plaques with a fingerprint comparable to that of *lmpA* kd cells (Fig. S2B). These three mutants had specifically low scores for the Gram-positive *M. luteus* and *S. aureus* as well as for *K. pneumoniae*. These findings prompted us to further analyse

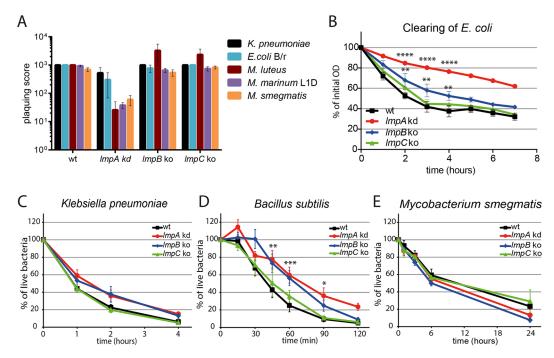


Fig. 4. Growth on diverse bacteria, but not killing, is affected in ImpA kd cells. (A) Plaquing score of wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko or ImpC ko cells on various bacteria. 10, 10^2 , 10^3 or 10^4 cells of each D. discoideum strain were deposited on bacteria lawns. Plaquing was quantified using a logarithm score (see Materials and Methods). Data are mean±s.e.m. of three to 22 independent experiments. (B) Clearing of heat-killed E. coli by wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko or ImpC ko cells over 7 h, monitored by OD₆₀₀ measurements at the indicated time points. Data are mean±s.e.m. of three independent experiments. (C–E) Killing of various bacteria by wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko or ImpC ko. Cells were incubated with K. pneumoniae (C) and B. subtilis (D), and the number of surviving bacteria at the indicated time points was determined by CFU counting after lysing the cells and plating the lysates on LB agar plates. Cells were spinoculated with FFluc-expressing M. smegmatis (E). At the given time points, the infected cells were lysed, the released bacteria were incubated with luciferin, and luminescence was measured with a plate reader. Data are mean±s.e.m. of four to six independent experiments performed in duplicate or triplicate (*P≤0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ***P<0.001; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni post hoc test).

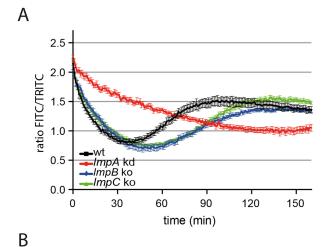
the role of LmpA during bacterial killing, using representative Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria (Benghezal et al., 2006). To bypass the uptake defect, bacteria were mixed with a 100- to 1000-fold excess of D. discoideum cells, ensuring efficient uptake of every bacterium. K. pneumoniae or B. subtilis were incubated with wt and mutant cells, and samples of the suspension were analysed for colony forming units (CFU) (Benghezal et al., 2006). To assess killing of M. smegmatis, we measured the activity of a constitutively expressed firefly luciferase (FFluc) (Andreu et al., 2010). The strong mycobacteria uptake defect of *lmpA* kd and *lmpB* ko cells was bypassed by spinoculating a *D. discoideum* monolayer with M. smegmatis. D. discoideum wt and lmpC ko cells killed $\sim 50\%$ of K. pneumoniae within 1 h, whereas the lmpA and *lmpB* mutants showed a slight, but statistically insignificant, defect (Fig. 4C). B. subtilis was killed by wt and lmpC ko cells faster than K. pneumoniae, with a median killing at ~45 min, whereas lmpA kd and lmpB ko cells killed this Gram-positive bacterium significantly more slowly, with a median killing at 75 min (Fig. 4D). None of the mutants showed significant differences in killing M. smegmatis, with a median killing at ~6 h (Fig. 4E).

Overall, these data suggest that the *lmpB* ko has a defect restricted to engulfment of mycobacteria and *B. subtilis*, whereas the *lmpA* mutant might not only be impaired in uptake but also in downstream endolysosomal processes, even though the defects in killing are only mild.

Phagosome acidification and proteolysis are impaired in *ImpA* kd cells

We next investigated the role of the Lmp paralogs during digestion, which directly depends on correct phagosome maturation, lumenal acidification and proteolysis. Fusion of phagosomes with endosomes and lysosomes ensures delivery of the vATPase and subsequent acidification, which is essential for the degradation of the ingested material by hydrolases. Phagosomal pH and proteolytic activity were measured using reporter fluorophores coupled to silica particles (Yates, 2008). The pH-sensitive fluorophore fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) was used to monitor the relative kinetics of acidification and reneutralization, and the pH-insensitive dye tetramethylrhodamine isothiocyanate (TRITC) served as a reference (Dieckmann et al., 2012; Gopaldass et al., 2012; Sattler et al., 2013). The particles were centrifuged onto a cell monolayer, and the change in fluorescence emission was measured with a plate reader. Phagosomes of wt cells acidified instantaneously after phagocytosis, with the lowest FITC/TRITC ratio measured at 30-40 min. This value corresponds to an approximate pH of 4.5, as previously published (Gopaldass et al., 2012). The kinetics of phagosome acidification in *lmpB* and *lmpC* ko cells was similar to that in wt cells, although the lowest phagosomal pH was reached with a delay of 10 min, with a subsequent delay of \sim 10–20 min for the reneutralization phase (Fig. 5A). Phagosomes of *lmpA* kd cells acidified much more slowly, never reaching a pH as low as in wt cells, and were not reneutralized within the time span tested (Fig. 5A).

Because of the possible interference caused by the strong uptake defect of the *ImpA* kd cells (Fig. 2), we validated these measurements of the average population (Fig. 5A) by live microscopy of single cells (Fig. S3A). After addition of FITC/Alexa Fluor 594-coupled silica beads, single wt and *ImpA* kd cells were tracked for 3 h, and the fluorescence emission ratio of 13–23 beads was calculated. Phagosomes of wt cells acidified quickly and reneutralized on average 90 min postingestion (Fig. S3A). The apparently faster and longer acidification phase observed when tracking single



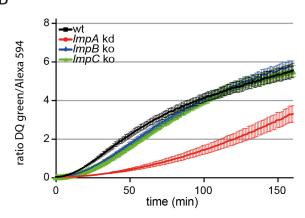
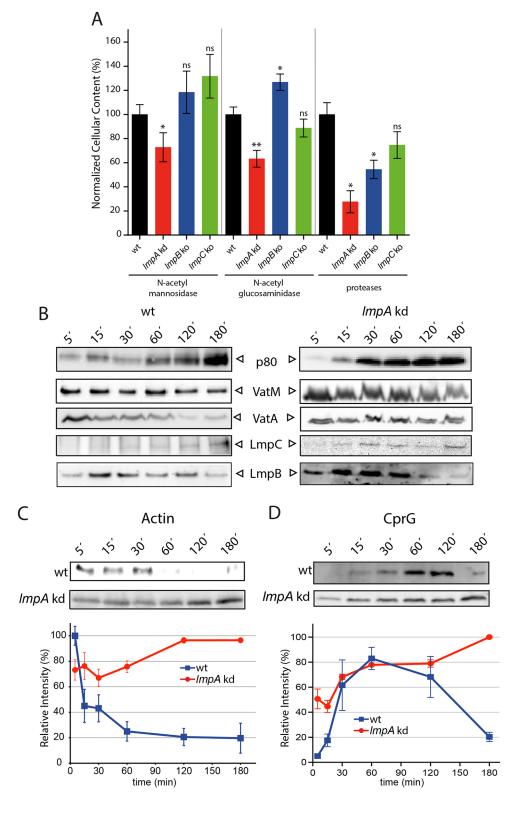


Fig. 5. Phagosome acidification and proteolysis are strongly perturbed in *ImpA* kd cells. Phagosomal acidification and proteolysis measured in wt, *ImpA* kd, *ImpB* ko and *ImpC* ko strains. (A) Cells were spinoculated together with silica beads coupled to the pH-sensitive FITC and the pH-insensitive TRITC. Differences in fluorescence emission owing to pH changes were measured with a fluorescence plate reader, and the FITC/TRITC emission ratios were calculated. (B) Cells were spinoculated with silica beads coupled to the self-quenching reporter DQ Green-BSA and the reporter dye Alexa Fluor 594. Digestion of BSA causes dequenching of DQ Green and an increase in its fluorescence. The graph is plotted as the ratio of DQ Green/Alexa Fluor 594 emission as a function of time. Data are mean±s.e.m. of eight to ten measurements from five independent experiments.

beads might be explained by the fact that, in a large cell population, the average of slightly asynchronous acidification and reneutralization steps is measured. Fig. S3B shows snapshots of acidification and reneutralization events at the single-cell level. In a wt cell, the phagosome acidified fast with the lowest pH reached at \sim 17 min, followed by reneutralization after 29 min and exocytosis after 37.5 min. In contrast, in the lmpA kd, the phagosome took longer to acidify and never reached a pH as low as in the wt compartment. Additionally, neither reneutralization nor exocytosis of the bead was observed during the time period monitored. Moreover, the lmpA kd moved much more slowly than wt and needed more attempts to take up beads. These findings emphasize again the difficulties in uptake and random cell motility of the lmpA mutant.

To monitor phagosomal proteolysis, a similar method was used, with silica beads coupled to the self-quenched reporter DQ Green-BSA and the reference dye Alexa Fluor 594. Release and dequenching of DQ Green upon BSA degradation by proteolytic enzymes leads to an increase in fluorescence. In phagosomes from

Fig. 6. Total hydrolytic enzyme



activity and maturation of purified phagosomes. (A) The total content of the N-acetyl-glucosaminidase and N-acetyl-mannosidase lysosomal enzymes in wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko and ImpC ko cells was measured with an ELISA microplate reader after incubating cell lysates with the respective chromogenic substrates. The activity of proteolytic enzymes was assessed with silica beads coupled to the selfquenching reporter DQ Green-BSA and the reference dye Alexa Fluor 594 in K-acetate buffer (pH 4). Data are mean±s.e.m. normalized to wt of three to four independent experiments performed in up to technical sextuplicates (ns, nonsignificant; *P≤0.05, **P≤0.01, two-tailed Student's t-test). (B-D) Phagosome maturation in wt and ImpA kd cells. Phagosomes containing latex beads were purified, and specific proteins were monitored by quantitative immunoblotting as described previously (Gotthard et al., 2006b). Representative blots of VatM, VatA, p80, LmpB or LmpC between phagosomes from wt and ImpA kd cells (B). Representative blots and the corresponding quantifications of two independent experiments for actin (C) and CprG (D), demonstrating differences in their maturation profiles in the ImpA mutant. Data are mean±s.e.m.

wt, ImpB ko and ImpC ko cells, proteolysis started quickly after uptake, with an initial slope of 3.8×10^{-2} /min and 2.2×10^{-2} /min, respectively (Fig. 5B). This rate was decreased 8-fold in ImpA kd phagosomes. Also, the ImpA kd cells started digestion ~30 min after phagocytosis, which corresponds to the delay in acidification (Fig. 5A). Overall, these results suggest that the capacity of phagosomes to acidify and proteolyze is strongly reduced in the

lmpA mutant. Counterintuitively, this defect only weakly impacts the capacity of the *lmpA* mutant to kill 'food' bacteria.

ImpA kd cells have lower levels of lysosomal hydrolases than wt cells

Deficiency in proteolysis can result from a nonacidic intraphagosomal pH, low enzyme levels and/or altered protein trafficking to the

compartment. We first investigated the total cellular content of active lysosomal enzymes by mixing lysates from each cell line with silica beads coupled to DO Green-BSA and Alexa Fluor 594, (Froquet et al., 2008). It should be noted that D. discoideum possesses two different sets of lysosomal hydrolases: (1) enzymes such as α -mannosidase, β -glucosidase and cathepsin D, with either mannose-6-phosphomethyldiester (Man-6-P-OCH3) or mannose-6-sulfate (Man-6-SO4 or common antigen 1) modifications; and (2) enzymes such as cysteine proteases, with an N-acetylglucosamine-1-phosphate (GlcNAc-1-P) modification (Souza et al., 1997). *ImpC* ko and wt cells had comparable activity of all the enzymes tested. Interestingly, in the *lmpB* ko cells, the activity of N-acetyl-glucosaminidase was elevated by 30%, whereas the protease activity was $\sim 50\%$ lower than in wt cells. In the *lmpA* kd cells, however, the overall enzyme activity was reduced. In this context, N-acetyl-mannosidase and N-acetyl-glucosaminidase were both decreased 30-40%, and the activity of proteolytic enzymes was reduced more than 70% (Fig. 6A). Thus, our data suggest that the decreased digestion rates in the *lmpA* mutant phagosome is, at least partly, caused by lower content of total active proteases.

The lower hydrolase activity might result from lower expression levels or from enzyme mistrafficking. To test the latter, we measured the secretion of N-acetyl-mannosidase and N-acetyl-glucosaminidase (Froquet et al., 2008). Cells were incubated with mild shaking for 6 h in HL5 medium, and supernatants were collected and mixed with the chromogenic enzyme substrates mentioned above. Owing to technical reasons, the amount of secreted proteases could not be determined. Intriguingly, while wt and lmpC ko cells secreted similar amounts of enzymes, the lmpB ko secreted significantly more N-acetyl-glucosaminidase. However, lmpA kd cells secreted ~40% less enzymes than wt cells (Fig. S3C). Thus, the lower cellular levels of active enzymes in the lmpA mutant is not simply caused by oversecretion.

Delivery of the cysteine protease CprG is LmpA dependent

Mammalian LIMP-2 is specifically necessary for the correct trafficking of the enzyme β-glucocerebrosidase (Reczek et al., 2007). It is therefore possible that LmpA has a similar function in D. discoideum. To investigate whether trafficking of endosomal/ phagosomal proteins is affected in the *lmpA* kd cells, phagosomes containing latex beads were isolated at various stages of maturation (Gotthardt et al., 2006b), and the levels of phagosome maturation markers were monitored. Note that immunoblotting is best suited for the relative quantitation of protein amounts between fractions to characterize the overall kinetics, and that the absolute protein levels between different strains has to be analysed separately (Fig. 6B–D). Like in wt cells, the amount of p80 and LmpC increased in the *lmpA* mutant as a function of maturation, whereas the amount of LmpB decreased (Figs 6B and 1B). In addition, recruitment of the vATPase subunits VatM and VatA, from the subcomplexes V0 and V1, respectively, was comparable in wt and *lmpA* kd cells, suggesting that the acidification defect observed in *lmpA* kd cells is likely not caused by the disassembly of the vATPase. As previously shown (Gopaldass et al., 2012), actin was found at the very early steps of phagosome maturation in wt cells, and decreased drastically 15 min after ingestion (Fig. 6C). However, phagosomes from *lmpA* kd cells never lost their associated actin, which even increased 2 h postuptake (Fig. 6C). This result corroborates the impairment in actin-related processes of the *lmpA* kd cells (Fig. S1B). In addition, trafficking of the cysteine protease CprG was altered (Fig. 6D). CprG accumulates in wt phagosomes starting at ~30 min and is completely removed after 2 h, whereas in phagosomes of *lmpA* kd

cells, CprG gradually accumulates over time, culminating 3 h after internalization. This suggests that the trafficking of CprG in the *lmpA* mutant is perturbed, which might therefore explain – to a certain degree – the digestion defect. Overall, the data suggest that the reduction in LmpA levels causes a defect in the regulation of actin association with phagosomes and the mistrafficking of at least one lysosomal enzyme, CprG, thereby affecting phagolysosome biogenesis.

Absence of LmpA renders cells more susceptible to infection by pathogenic *M. marinum*

Finally, we wanted to investigate whether the function of LmpA in phagolysosome biogenesis was important for host cell defence against intracellular pathogens such as M. marinum. We first wondered whether LmpA was recruited to the *M. marinum*-containing vacuole (MCV). To do so, LmpA-FLAG-expressing cells were infected with M. marinum, and the localization of LmpA over the course of the infection was monitored by anti-FLAG immunofluorescence (Fig. 7A). LmpA-FLAG was present at the MCV as early as 3 h postinfection (hpi) and remained associated with the MCV for at least 30 h (Fig. 7B). In addition, the dynamics of infection with GFP-producing M. marinum in wt, lmpA kd, lmpB ko and lmpC ko cells was monitored by flow cytometry. By plotting the side scatter (SSC) versus the fluorescence (FL1), the population of uninfected cells can be nicely separated from the population of infected cells and from extracellular bacteria (Fig. S4). In wt, 40–50% of the cells contained bacteria at 0.5 hpi. This proportion of infected cells decreased during the next 2 days of infection (Fig. 7B; Fig. S4), mainly due to the continued replication of D. discoideum, with a doubling time of ~10 h. Spinoculation of lmpA kd, lmpB ko and *lmpC* ko cells resulted in similar initial infection levels, but the respective proportions of infected cells differed markedly at later time points (Fig. 7B). While the percentage of infected *lmpB* ko and *lmpC* ko cells decreased to an extent comparable to that of the wt strain, the *lmpA* mutant remained highly infected (Fig. S4). Additionally, the normalized total fluorescence during the infection course increased only in lmpA mutant cells, reflecting a higher number of intracellular bacteria (Fig. 7C; Fig. S4).

Altogether, the results suggest that, even though the absence of both LmpA and LmpB cause a defect in mycobacteria uptake (Fig. 2D–F), only LmpA is a host cell defence factor important during infection with pathogenic mycobacteria.

DISCUSSION

We have characterized *D. discoideum* strains with mutations in the three LIMP2-CD36 homologues, and the phenotypes observed are summarized in Table 1 and schematically represented in Fig. 7E,F.

Effects of LmpA on phagolysosome biogenesis and digestion

LIMP-2 was suggested to play a role in the biogenesis of endosomes and lysosomes, because its overexpression resulted in large vacuoles with characteristics of early endosomes and late endosomes/lysosomes (Kuronita et al., 2002, 2005). On the other hand, lack of LIMP-2 decreased fusion of phagosomes with lysosomes, affecting susceptibility to bacteria such as *L. monocytogenes* (Carrasco-Marín et al., 2011). In *D. discoideum*, LmpA was proposed to influence fluid transport along the endocytic pathway. FITC-dextran was retained longer within acidic compartments and overall exocytosis decreased three fold in the *lmpA* kd mutant compared with wt cells (Temesvari et al., 2000). In agreement, our results suggest that LmpA is involved in phagolysosome biogenesis, because two hallmarks of phagosome

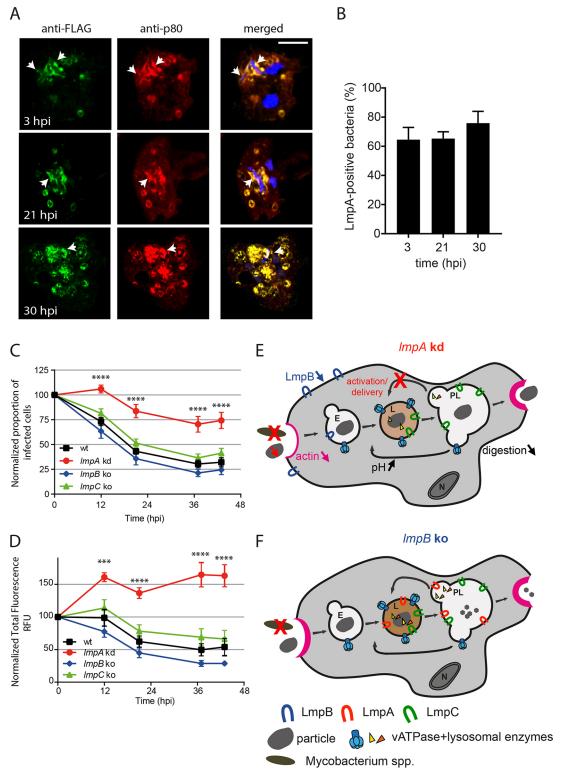


Fig. 7. LmpA localizes to the MCV and ImpA kd cells are more susceptible to infection with M. marinum than wt cells. (A) LmpA-FLAG localization during infection. Cells expressing LmpA-FLAG were infected with unlabelled M. marinum. At the indicated time points, cells were fixed and antibodies against p80 and FLAG were used to label the MCV and detect LmpA-FLAG, respectively. Scale bar: 5 µm. (B) Quantification of A. No statistical significance was observed between the time points (unpaired Student's t-test). Data are mean±s.d. of three independent experiments. At least 70 MCVs were quantified per time point. (C,D) M. marinum infection dynamics in wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko and ImpC ko cells. Cells were infected with GFP-producing M. marinum by spinoculation. Samples were taken at the indicated time points, and the dynamics of infection were monitored by flow cytometry. Representative SSC versus FL1 plots are presented in Fig. S4. Data are mean±s.e.m. of nine to ten independent experiments (***P≤0.001, ****P≤0.0001; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni post hoc test). (E,F) Working model of the ImpA kd and ImpB ko phenotypes. ImpA kd cells have reduced levels of LmpB, defective particle uptake owing to impaired actin-dependent processes and decreased lysosomal biogenesis (E); ImpB ko cells are specifically impaired in Mycobacterium spp. uptake (F). E, endosome; L, lysosome; N, nucleus; PL, postlysosome.

Table 1. List of phenotypes of the different cell lines

Phenotypes		ImpA kd	ImpB ko	ImpC ko
Phagocytosis (Fig. 2)	Beads	<wt< th=""><th>=wt</th><th>=wt</th></wt<>	=wt	=wt
	K. pneumoniae	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt	=wt
	B. subtilis	≪wt	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt
	Mycobacteria	≪wt	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt
LmpB levels (Fig. 3A–C)		PM: <wt< td=""><td>NA</td><td>PM: >wt</td></wt<>	NA	PM: >wt
		Total: <wt< td=""><td></td><td>Total: >wt</td></wt<>		Total: >wt
Adhesion to M. smegmatis (Fig. 3D)		<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt	=wt
Motility (Fig. 3E)		<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt	=wt
Clearing of E. coli (Fig. 4B)		≪wt	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt
Killing (Fig. 4C–E)	K. pneumoniae	=wt	=wt	=wt
	B. subtilis	<wt< td=""><td><wt< td=""><td>=wt</td></wt<></td></wt<>	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt
	M. smegmatis	=wt	=wt	=wt
Acidification (Fig. 5A)		pH>wt neutralization	pH=wt neutralization	pH=wt neutralization
		delayed	delayed	delayed
Proteolysis (Fig. 5B)		<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt	=wt
Cellular content lysosomal enzymes (Fig. 6A)	N-acetyl mannosidase	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt	=wt
	N-acetyl glucosaminidase	<wt< td=""><td>>wt</td><td>=wt</td></wt<>	>wt	=wt
	Proteases	≪wt	<wt< td=""><td>=wt</td></wt<>	=wt
Actin on phagosome (Fig. 6C)		>wt	ND	ND
CprG on phagosome (Fig. 6D)		delayed	ND	ND
Infection (Fig. 7C,D)		% infected cells: >wt	% infected cells: =wt	% infected cells: =wf
		Total Fluo: >wt	Total Fluo: =wt	Total Fluo: =wt

Fluo, fluorescence; NA, not applicable; ND, not done; PM, plasma membrane.

maturation, acidification and proteolysis, are severely impaired in the *lmpA* mutant (Figs 5 and 7E). Interestingly, *lvsB* ko and *u3* ko. two mutants impaired in lysosome biogenesis and exocytosis (Charette and Cosson, 2007, 2008; Charette et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2010), showed a phagocytic plaque assay fingerprint comparable to that of *lmpA* kd cells (Fig. S2B). However, contrary to the lmpA mutant, the lvsB and $\mu 3$ ko mutants were able to grow on the mycobacteria tested, suggesting that LmpA might have a specific function in resisting these pathogenic bacteria. Most interestingly, despite severe defects in phagosome maturation, the *lmpA* kd is able to grow on K. pneumoniae (Fig. 4A), i.e. to kill it (Fig. 4C) and digest it. D. discoideum kills and digests 'food' bacteria, not only via acidic pH and lysosomal hydrolases, but also with ROS, lysozymes and metal ions (Cosson and Lima, 2014; Dunn et al., 2017). This suggests that acidification and proteolysis, impaired in the *lmpA* kd mutant, are crucial to kill some, but not all, types of bacteria, which might require the generation of ROS or the delivery of metal ions such as Zn²⁺ (Soldati and Neyrolles, 2012; Zhang and Soldati, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016).

Phagosome-lysosome fusion might be regulated by LmpA in an actin-dependent manner

Previous reports suggest that LIMP-2 acts downstream of the small GTPase Rab5a to regulate fusion of phagosomes with lysosomes (Carrasco-Marín et al., 2011; Prada-Delgado et al., 2001). However, it is not known how LIMP-2 influences this process. Several actin-dependent processes, such as cytokinesis (Karakesisoglou et al., 1999), exocytosis and macropinocytosis (Temesvari et al., 2000) are impaired in the *lmpA* kd mutant. Our experiments confirmed a defect in macropinocytosis, and revealed a decreased uptake of 1 µm latex beads and various bacteria (Fig. 2). In accordance with a proposed role of LmpA in the regulation of the actin cytoskeleton, actin polymerization-dependent processes were affected in the *lmpA* kd, and phagosomes from *lmpA* kd cells never completely lost their associated actin (Fig. 6C), a feature known to inhibit phagosome

maturation (Lerm et al., 2006; Liebl and Griffiths, 2009; Meresse et al., 2001). Interestingly, while the *lmpA* mutant had defects in phagocytic uptake and motility, a mutant of the highly evolutionary related LmpC, which also shares cellular localization with LmpA, showed a very different phenotype [i.e. normal uptake and increased random cell motility (Fig. 2; Fig. S1E)]. This divergence might be explained by different expression levels, because LmpC is less abundant than LmpA (Janssen et al., 2001), or by differences in their interactions with other factors, because only LmpA binds to negatively charged phospholipids such as PI(4,5)P₂ and PI(4)P (Karakesisoglou et al., 1999; Janssen et al., 2001). PI(4,5)P₂ is usually found at the plasma membrane, but recent reports locate it also to endosomes and lysosomes (Vicinanza et al., 2011).

Trafficking of the lysosomal enzyme CprG is impaired in *ImpA* kd cells

Mammalian LIMP-2 is known to bind β-glucocerebrosidase in the ER to ensure its transport to lysosomes (Blanz et al., 2010; Reczek et al., 2007). Absence of LIMP-2 leads to mistargeting of β-glucocerebrosidase to the extracellular space (Reczek et al., 2007), and Listeria-containing vacuoles in macrophages from LIMP-2 ko mice have lower proteolytic activity (Carrasco-Marín et al., 2011). We show that, in *lmpA* kd cells, trafficking of CprG is altered and proteolytic activity is decreased (Fig. 6A,D). However, unlike LIMP- $2^{-/-}$ cells, the *D. discoideum lmpA* mutant did not oversecrete the enzyme activities tested (Fig. S3C). We speculate that LmpA, similarly to LIMP-2, plays a role in the trafficking of lysosomal enzymes, thereby impacting on digestion. Lysosomal enzymes are synthesized in the ER in an inactive form and subsequent activation by proteolytic processing occurs at acidic pH in endosomes/lysosomes (Braulke and Bonifacino, 2009), a process which is probably affected in the *lmpA* mutant owing to its higher lysosomal pH (Fig. 5A).

In *D. discoideum*, two classes of hydrolases are delivered to the phagosome at different times. Whereas enzymes with GlcNAc-1-P modifications, such as cysteine proteases, are highly enriched at

the phagosome 30 min postingestion of the particle, enzymes with Man-6-SO₄ modifications, such as cathepsin D, peak 2 h after phagocytosis (Gotthardt et al., 2002). We show that the overall cellular activity of representatives of the second group of enzymes was only slightly lower in the lmpA kd mutant than in wt cells, whereas the levels of protease activity was strongly decreased in the lmpA kd mutant. We interpret this as a sign that LmpA is specifically important for the activity and/or trafficking of one enzyme population.

LmpB might affect the ingestion of mycobacteria by regulating the actin cytoskeleton

Our results suggest that loss of LmpB specifically inhibits uptake of mycobacteria and B. subtilis but not the phagocytosis of other particles (Figs 2 and 7F). Because absence of LmpB significantly affects uptake of, but not binding to, mycobacteria, this suggests that LmpB is not a direct receptor for mycobacteria. Alternatively, LmpB might be either a co-receptor or a signalling protein necessary to transduce the binding of a mycobacteria and possibly Gram-positive bacteria to its receptor into a triggering of the actin-mediated cup formation. In other words, our findings suggest that LmpB acts as a PRR participating in the recognition of mycobacteria and at least one Gram-positive bacterium and in triggering, directly or indirectly, the actin cytoskeleton remodelling that leads to their ingestion. Moreover, the reduction in *lmpA* expression leads to a strong, although not significant, decrease in the surface levels of LmpB, which might contribute to the *lmpA* kd mutant defect in mycobacteria and B. subtilis uptake. The crosstalk between LmpA, LmpB, LmpC and other bona fide phagocytic receptors, such as those of the Sib family, remains to be investigated.

In conclusion, we show that in *D. discoideum*, LmpA and LmpB act as functional homologues of LIMP-2 and CD36, respectively, corroborating the conserved role of scavenger receptors in professional phagocytes throughout evolution. In addition, we propose LmpA as a host cell defence factor that regulates phagolysosome biogenesis and affects the fate of pathogenic *M. marinum* infection.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture, cloning and expression procedures

D. discoideum wt (AX2 or DH1-10) were grown axenically at 22°C in HL5 medium (Formedium). The AX2 lmpA kd, lmpB ko and lmpC ko were kindly provided by Dr M. Schleicher before publication (Janssen et al., 2001; Karakesisoglou et al., 1999). Note that in the *lmpA* kd, LmpA levels are reduced 5- to 10-fold (Karakesisoglou et al., 1999), whereas in the *lmpB* and lmpC ko, LmpB and LmpC are absent. lvsB and µ3 were knocked out in the DH1-10 background (Charette and Cosson, 2007; Charette et al., 2006). For epitope tagging, the *lmpA* and *lmpB* coding DNA sequences (CDS) were synthesized with a C-terminal FLAG-tag (Life Technologies). The Tet-Off LmpA-FLAG construct was generated by inserting the synthetic CDS into the pDM309 vector, and the Tet-On LmpB-FLAG into the pDM310 (Veltman et al., 2009) between the BglII and SpeI sites. D. discoideum was transformed, and cells carrying the FLAG constructs were selected with G418 in the presence of 1 µg/ml doxycycline to repress expression (pDM309) or without doxycycline (pDM310). To regulate the levels of expression of LmpA-FLAG and LmpB-FLAG in a range similar to that of the endogenous proteins, doxycycline concentrations between 0 and 10 μg/ml were applied for 1–2 days.

Bacterial strains and culture

The following bacterial strains were cultured in LB medium at 37°C with shaking, as described previously (Froquet et al., 2009): *K. pneumoniae* strain Kp21 (Favre-Bonte et al., 1999), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* avirulent isogenic quorum sensing mutants DP5 ($\Delta trpD$) and DP28 ($\Delta pchH$) (Alibaud

et al., 2008), E. coli strain B/r (Gerisch, 1959), B. subtilis (Ratner and Newell, 1978), S. aureus strain RN6390 and M. luteus (Wilczynska and Fisher, 1994). The unlabelled M. marinum M strain (ATCC BAA-535) and M. smegmatis were a kind gift from L. Ramakrishnan (University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK) and G. Griffiths (Oslo University, Oslo, Norway), respectively. These mycobacteria were grown in Middlebrook 7H9 (Difco) supplemented with 10% OADC (Becton Dickinson), 0.4% glycerol and 0.2% Tween 80 (Sigma-Aldrich) at 32°C (M. marinum) or 37°C (M. smegmatis) with shaking as published previously (Arafah et al., 2013; Hagedorn et al., 2009; Hagedorn and Soldati, 2007). M. marinum and M. smegmatis constitutively producing GFP (Hagedorn and Soldati, 2007) were cultured in the presence of 20 µg/ml kanamycin and M. marinum producing mCherry (Carroll et al., 2010) in the presence of 100 µg/ml hygromycin. M. smegmatis producing FFluc was provided by Dr S. Wiles (Andreu et al., 2010) and cultured in the presence of 50 µg/ml kanamycin. The M. marinum L1D mutant (Ramakrishnan et al., 2000) was grown with 50 µg/ml apramycin.

Antibodies, immunoblotting and immunofluorescence

Antibodies against LmpA, LmpB and LmpC were obtained from Dr M. Schleicher (Janssen et al., 2001; Karakesisoglou et al., 1999), CprG from Dr J. Garin (Journet et al., 1999), actin from Dr G. Gerisch (Westphal et al., 1997) and VatM (N2) from Dr R. Allen (Fok et al., 1993). The anti-p80 antibodies were directly labelled as described in Ravanel et al. (2001). The monoclonal anti-FLAG-tag antibodies were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Goat anti-mouse or goat anti-rabbit IgGs coupled to horseradish peroxidase (Bio-Rad) were used as secondary antibodies for immunoblotting, and goat anti-mouse IgGs coupled to Alexa Fluor 488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for immunofluorescence. Western blotting was performed as previously described (Gotthardt et al., 2006b). For immunofluorescence, D. discoideum cells were either fixed with PFA/picric acid or with ultra-cold methanol (MeOH) as described previously (Hagedorn et al., 2006). Images were recorded with a Zeiss LSM700 confocal microscope using a 63×1.4 NA or a 100×1.4 NA oil immersion objective, and processed with the Fiji plugin PureDenoise (https://imagej.net/Fiji).

Particle and fluid-phase uptake

Assessment of fluorescent particles uptake was performed as previously published (Gotthardt et al., 2006b; Sattler et al., 2013). Data were acquired using a FACScalibur Flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) and analysed with FlowJo software (TreeStar). The initial rate of uptake was calculated by linear regression of the first 30 min of phagocytosis, using standard mathematical software such as Microsoft Excel. Fluid-phase uptake was measured as previously published (Froquet et al., 2008), by incubating the cells for 20 min with 10 mg/ml Alexa Fluor 647-coupled dextran (Molecular Probes). Increase in fluorescence was measured by flow cytometry with a FACSCalibur.

Biotinylation of plasma membrane

The surface of *D. discoideum* cells was coupled in the cold to biotin containing a cleavable cross-linker (EZ-link Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin, Invitrogen). After coupling, excess crosslinker was quenched with 100 mM glycin in phosphate buffered saline (PBS, pH 6), and cells were washed several times with PBS before solubilization in RIPA buffer (250 mM Tris pH 7.4, 750 mM NaCl, 5% Triton X-100, 5% sodium deoxycholate and 0.5% SDS). To isolate plasma membrane proteins, cell lysates were incubated with neutravidin agarose beads (Thermo Fisher Scientific), which had been previously washed twice with RIPA buffer. After overnight incubation at 4°C, the beads were extensively washed with RIPA and 6 M urea. Subsequently, the beads were incubated with a buffer (2% SDS and 1% β-mercaptoethanol in PBS) for protein release. Protein samples were subjected to SDS-PAGE and visualized via immunoblotting.

Adhesion to particles

Adhesion to fluorescent M. smegmatis was assessed as described previously (Sattler et al., 2013). Briefly, 4×10^8 M. smegmatis were labelled with 1 μ M of the cell-permeable DNA dye Syto 9 (Invitrogen) for 20 min in the dark with shaking. In addition, 2×10^6 D. discoideum cells in 2 ml HL5 were synchronized for 2 h with shaking at 21° C to ensure similar starting

conditions. Afterwards, cells were centrifuged for 4 min at $500\,g$ and resuspended in phosphate Sorenson buffer (SB; 15 mM KH₂PO₄, 2 mM Na₂HPO₄, pH 6.0) supplemented with 150 mM sorbitol and 5 mM sodium azide. Azide blocks the production of mitochondrial ATP, inducing full contraction of the cortical actomyosin cytoskeleton, which allows adhesion but not capture (Flannagan et al., 2010) or engulfment (Maselli et al., 2002) of particles. Cells were then incubated at 4°C on an ice-cooled metal block covered with a wet paper towel. After extensive washing, bacteria were resuspended in SB-sorbitol azide and added to the cells at a final particle to cell ratio of 200:1. The suspension was incubated for 15 min in the cold. To ensure preservation of the particle-cell attachment, a mild PFA fixation (final concentration 4% PFA) was applied for another 5 min. Fluorescence was measured by flow cytometry with a FACSCalibur.

Random cell motility

Random velocity of cells was assessed as described previously (Gebbie et al., 2004). Briefly, 10⁴ cells were plated on a glass slide and allowed to settle for 30 min in HL5. Movement was monitored every 30 s during the course of 1 h with a Zeiss Axiovert 100 microscope coupled to a Hamamatsu Orca camera (OpenLab3 software). Cell tracking was performed using the MetaMorph Office software, and the average cell velocity was calculated. Cells that were in contact for long periods of time were not included in the data set, because this interaction modifies their speed. To calculate the total area explored by 20 cells within 1 h, each cell position was plotted around a common origin. The distribution of these 2400 positions corresponds to a Gaussian distribution. Two times the standard deviation of this Gaussian curve corresponds to the radius of 95% of the area explored by the cells, which was subsequently calculated.

Phagocytic plaque assay

The ability of D. discoideum to form plaques on a lawn of bacteria was monitored as described previously (Froquet et al., 2009). Briefly, 50 µl of an overnight bacterial culture was plated on SM-agar [10 g peptone (Oxoid), 1 g yeast extract (Difco), 2.2 g KH₂PO₄, 1 g K₂HPO₄, 1 g $MgSO_4 \times 7H_2O$ with 20% glucose in 1 l ddH₂O] in wells from a 24-well plate. Serial dilutions of D. discoideum (10, 10², 10³ or 10⁴ cells) were plated onto the bacterial lawn, and the plates were incubated at 21°C for 4-7 days until plaque formation was visible. A slightly different protocol was used to monitor growth on avirulent M. marinum L1D or nonpathogenic M. smegmatis (Alibaud et al., 2011). This time, 150-600 μl of a 5×108 mycobacteria/ml culture was centrifuged and resuspended in 1.2 ml 7H9 containing a 1:10⁵ dilution of K. pneumoniae that had been grown overnight in LB. Fifty microliters of this suspension were deposited in wells of a 24-well plate containing 2 ml 7H10-agar (without OADC). The same dilutions of D. discoideum cells were added as described above, and plaque formation was monitored after 7-11 days at 25°C. To quantify cell growth on bacteria, a logarithmic growth score was assigned as follows: plaque formation up to a dilution of 10 cells received a score of 1000; when cells were not able to grow at lower dilutions, they obtained the corresponding lower scores of 100, 10 and 1.

Clearing of heat-killed E. coli

Clearing of heat-killed *E. coli* was performed as described previously (Peterson et al., 1995). Briefly, an *E. coli* B/r culture was grown to an OD_{600} of 0.4 and subsequently autoclaved. Heat-killed bacteria were then washed with 17 mM SB. Then, 10^7 wt or mutant cells were resuspended in 10 ml of the bacterial suspension, and incubated with shaking at 22°C. As readout for clearance, the OD_{600} was measured hourly for 7 h.

Killing assay

Killing of K. pneumoniae or B. subtilis was monitored as described previously (Benghezal et al., 2006). Briefly, 10^6 D. discoideum cells were mixed in 500 μ l SB with either 5×10^3 K. pneumoniae or 5×10^4 B. subtilis from an overnight culture (grown in LB at 170 rpm and 37°C). After either 0, 1, 2 or 4 h (K. pneumoniae), or 0, 15, 30, 45, 60, 90 or 120 min (B. subtilis), of incubation, 10 μ l aliquots were lysed in the cold in 40% sucrose and 0.5% saponin, and lysates were plated on LB-agar plates for

CFU counting. To monitor killing of M. smegmatis, a different protocol was established. In this case, bioluminescent M. smegmatis expressing FFluc (Andreu et al., 2010) were grown at 25°C in shaking until a density of 5×108 bacteria/ml was reached. Then, 5×106 bacteria were washed and resuspended in 500 µl HL5, and they were passaged at least four times through a blunt 25-gauge needle to disrupt bacterial clumps. Bacteria were added at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10 and centrifuged twice onto a D. discoideum cell layer at 500 g for 10 min. Afterwards, cells were allowed to phagocytose for another 10 min at 25°C in static. Extracellular bacteria were then washed off, and cells were subsequently detached and resuspended in 5 ml HL5. The suspension was incubated in silanized beakers (with Repel-Silane ES, Amersham Biosciences) at 32°C and 150 rpm. Then, 300 µl aliquots of the suspension were pelleted in triplicate at 0, 1, 3, 6 or 24 h, lysed with 100 µl 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS, and transferred to white opaque 96-well plates (Nunc). After 10 min of incubation, the background luminescence was measured using a bioluminescence plate reader (Synergy Mx). To detect live bacteria, luciferin (Gold Biotechnology) was added at a final concentration of 150 μg/ml, and luminescence was measured.

Acidification and proteolysis

The kinetics of acidification and proteolytic activity inside phagosomes were monitored as described previously (Gopaldass et al., 2012; Sattler et al., 2013). In order to precisely monitor the relative kinetics of acidification and reneutralization, phagosomal pH was monitored using the reporter fluorophore FITC (Molecular Probes) (pKa 6.4) coupled to 3 µm silica particles (Kisker Biotech) (Dieckmann et al., 2012; Gopaldass et al., 2012; Sattler et al., 2013; Yates, 2008). Beads were also coated with the pH-insensitive TRITC (Molecular Probes) as a reference dye. After centrifugation of the silica particles at a ratio of 1:2 onto a D. discoideum cell monolayer in clear-bottom black-wall 96-well dishes (Perkin Elmer), uningested beads were removed by thorough washing with low-fluorescence medium (LoFlo, Formedium). Subsequently, the ratio of fluorescence emission (520 nm/620 nm) was measured every minute over a period of 150 min with a fluorescence plate reader (Synergy Mx, Biotek). To monitor acidification at the single-cell level, cells were plated on 35-mm ibidi dishes (80136, ibidi) and, 30 min before imaging, HL5 was replaced by LoFlo. Ten microliters of FITC/TRITC-coupled silica beads (stock concentration, 1.25×10¹⁰ beads/ml) were added just before imaging. Cells were then overlaid with a thin sheet of 1% agar in LoFlo, as described previously (Clarke et al., 2010). Movies were recorded with a Leica AF6000LX widefield microscope using a 63× glycerol objective. Images were taken every 30 s over 3-4 h. Tracking of bead-containing phagosomes and calculations of their emitted fluorescence ratios were performed with the help of Imaris software (Bitplane). Proteolysis was measured using beads coupled to the reference stain Alexa Fluor 594 (Molecular Probes) and the reporter DQ Green-BSA (Molecular Probes) at a self-quenching concentration. Upon proteolysis of BSA, DQ Green is released and dequenched, which causes an increase in fluorescence. The initial rate of proteolysis was calculated by fitting a line with linear regression throughout the first 30 min of digestion, using standard mathematical software such as Microsoft Excel.

Measurement of lysosomal enzyme content and secretion

To measure the cellular content and secretion of the lysosomal enzymes N-acetyl-glucosaminidase or N-acetyl-mannosidase, a previously described protocol was used (Froquet et al., 2008). Cells (106) were incubated in fresh HL5 for 6 h at 21°C with mild shaking. After centrifugation, the supernatant was recovered, and the pellet was lysed with 0.1% Triton X-100 in HL5. Fifty microliters of either supernatant or lysed pellet were mixed with 50 μ l of a chromogenic enzyme substrate (10 mM substrate in 5 mM NaOAc, pH 5.2) and incubated at 37°C for 1 h. The reaction was stopped by adding 500 mM Na₂CO₃ and the OD₄₀₅ was measured with an ELISA microplate reader. The substrates p-nitrophenyl N-acetyl-D-glucosaminide, and p-nitrophenyl-D-mannopyranoside (Sigma-Aldrich) were dissolved in dimethylformamide at a concentration of 250 mM and stored at -20° C. Cellular protease content was measured with a newly established protocol. Then, 4×10^{6} cells were resuspended in 150 mM K-acetate buffer (pH 4) and lysed by repeated cycles of freezing in liquid nitrogen and thawing.

The lysate and 8 μ l of silica beads coupled to the self-quenching reporter DQ Green-BSA and the reference dye Alexa Fluor 594 (stock concentration 1.25×10¹⁰ beads/ml) were transferred into wells of clear-bottom black-wall 96-well dishes (Perkin Elmer). Digestion of BSA only occurs at an acidic pH, which is crucial for the activity of proteolytic enzymes. Increase in fluorescence was measured with the Synergy Mx (Biotek) fluorescence microplate reader.

Phagosome isolation

Phagosomes containing latex beads were purified via flotation on sucrose gradients and processed exactly as described previously (Dieckmann et al., 2008; Gotthardt et al., 2006b).

Infection with pathogenic mycobacteria

Infection of D. discoideum with pathogenic mycobacteria was performed as described previously (Cardenal-Muñoz et al., 2017). Briefly, mycobacteria were grown to a density of 5×108 bacteria/ml, washed with HL5 and passaged through a blunt 25-gauge needle for declumping. Then, 5×10⁷ D. discoideum cells were plated on a 10 cm Petri dish and allowed to attach for 20 min at 25°C. Bacteria were added at a MOI of 10, and infection was synchronized by centrifuging twice for 10 min at 500 g. To ensure efficient phagocytosis, cells were left in static for another 15 min at 25°C, before extracellular bacteria were washed off with HL5. Cells were resuspended in 37.5 ml HL5 containing 5 mg/ml streptomycin to inhibit growth of putative remaining extracellular bacteria. The suspension was incubated for up to 2 days at 25°C with shaking at 150 rpm. To analyse the kinetics of the infection by flow cytometry, cells were infected with GFP-producing M. marinum, and the increase in fluorescence was monitored as described previously (Hagedorn and Soldati, 2007). To directly assess the number of live and fit bacteria, cells were infected with M. marinum expressing the pMV306-lux plasmid (Andreu et al., 2010; Arafah et al., 2013), and luminescence was measured with the plate reader Synergy Mx (Biotek). To assess the localization of LmpA during infection, nonlabelled or mCherry-producing M. marinum were used to infect lmpA kd cells expressing LmpA-FLAG and fixed with PFA/picric acid at 3, 21 and 29 hpi.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing or financial interests.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: N.S., C. Bosmani, F.B., T.S.; Methodology: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch, A.G., N.G., M.D., F.L., F.B., T.S.; Validation: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch, A.G., N.G., M.D., F.B., P.C.; Formal analysis: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch, A.G., N.G., M.D., F.B., P.C., T.S.; Investigation: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch, A.G., N.G., M.D., F.L., F.B., P.C., T.S.; Resources: T.S.; Data curation: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch, F.B.; Writing - original draft: N.S., T.S.; Writing - review & editing: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch, A.G., N.G., M.D., F.L., F.B., P.C., T.S.; Visualization: N.S., C. Bosmani, C. Barisch; Supervision: F.B., P.C., T.S.; Project administration: T.S.; Funding acquisition: T.S.

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Supplementary information

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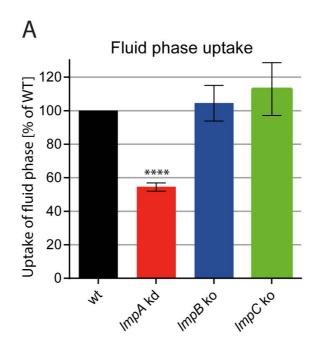
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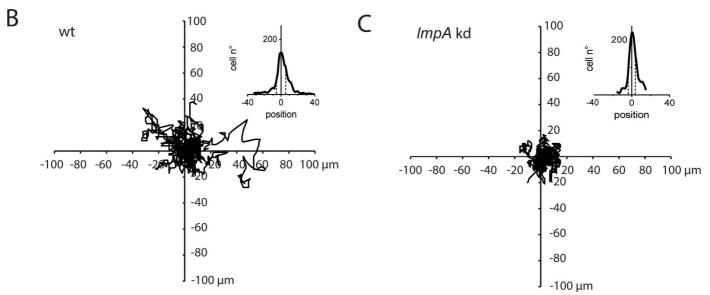
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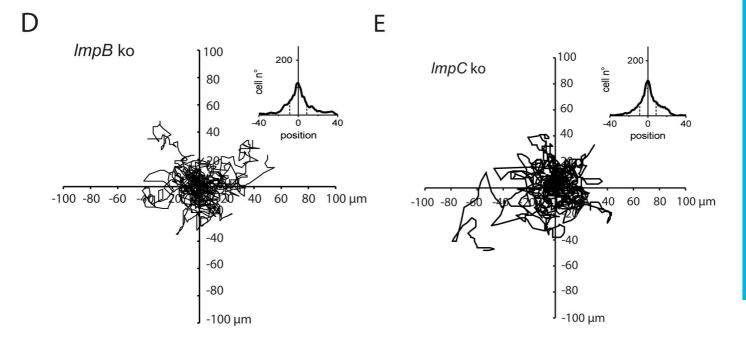
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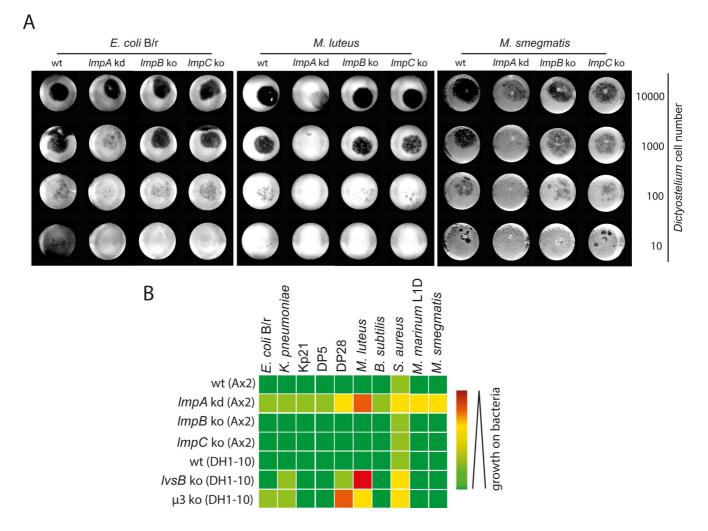
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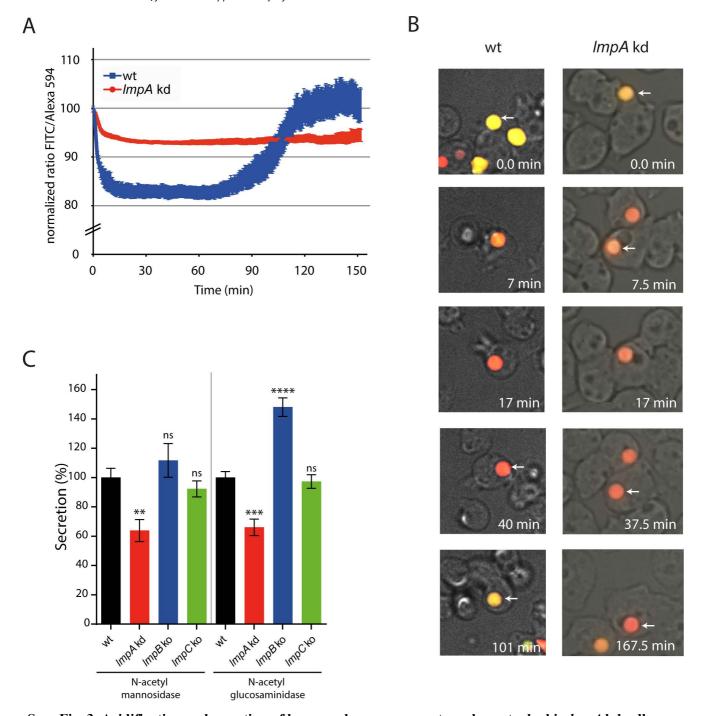




Sup Fig. 1. Fluid phase uptake and random motility of wt, *ImpA* kd, *ImpB* ko, *ImpC* ko cells. A. To measure the fluid phase uptake, cells were incubated 20 minutes with Alexa 647-coupled dextran, and the internalized fluorescent signal was measured by flow cytometry and expressed as the percentage of the levels in wt cells. Graphs depict the mean and SEM of four independent experiments. B-E. Cells were plated in medium onto a glass slide and their random cell motility was monitored every 30 seconds for 60 minutes. Metamorph Office software was used for cell tracking. Shown are representative experiments with tracks of 20 cells each, aligned at origin. The distribution of all cell positions around the origin corresponds to a Gaussian distribution, shown in the upper right corner of each graph.

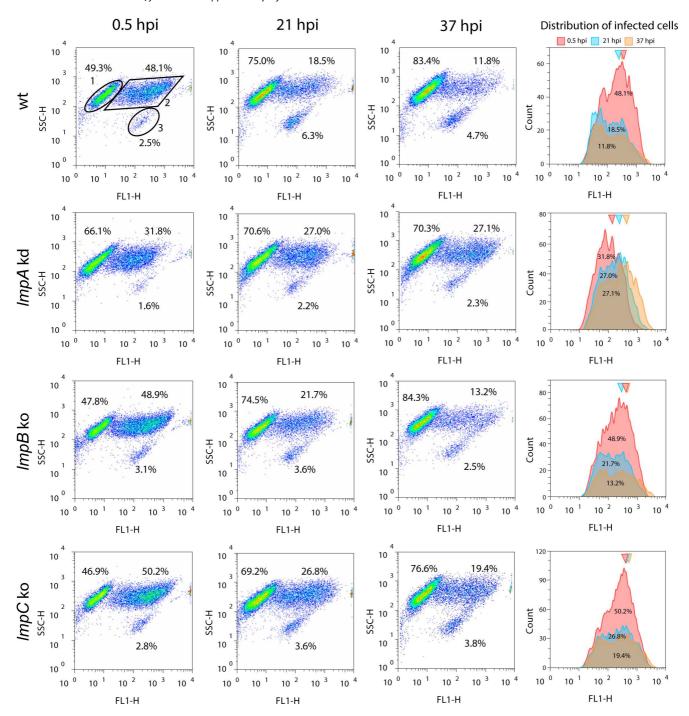


Sup Fig. 2. Growth of ImpA kd, ImpB ko and ImpC ko cells on diverse bacteria. A. 10, 10^2 , 10^3 or 10^4 cells of either D. discoideum wt, ImpA kd, ImpB ko or ImpC ko were deposited on a lawn of various bacterial strains. Representative images are shown for E. coli, M. Iuteus and M. smegmatis. B. Colour-coded summary of 3 to 22 plaque formation experiments. Plaque formation up to a dilution of 10, 10^2 , 10^3 or 10^4 cells is indicated in dark green, light green, yellow and red, respectively.



Sup. Fig. 3. Acidification and secretion of lysosomal enzymes are strongly perturbed in *lmpA* kd cells.

A and **B**. Acidification of single phagosomes measured by live microscopy. wt and lmpA kd cells were incubated with silica beads coupled to FITC and Alexa 594, and fluorescence emission was measured live for three hours. **A**. Graphs show the mean and SEM of 13 to 23 beads from 2 to 3 independent experiments per cell line normalized to time zero. **B**. Snapshots from two movies showing the fluorescence transitions of FITC/Alexa 594-labeled beads; yellow colour, neutral pH; red colour, acidic pH **C**. Secretion of lysosomal N-acetyl-glucosaminidase and N-acetyl-mannosidase enzymes measured in wt, lmpA kd, lmpB ko and lmpC ko. Cells were incubated for 6 hours in HI5 medium and their supernatant was incubated in an ELISA microplate reader with their respective chromogenic substrates. Graphs indicate the mean normalised to wt and SEM of 3 independent experiments performed in up to technical sextuplicates (** p ≤ 0.01 , *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$; Student's t-test).



Sup. Fig. 4. *ImpA* kd cells are heavily infected by *M. marinum*. wt, *ImpA* kd, *ImpB* ko and *ImpC* ko cells infected with GFP-producing *M. marinum* were analyzed by flow cytometry. Plotting the side scatter (SSC) as a function of fluorescence (FL1) revealed three populations: (1) non-infected cells, (2) infected cells and (3) fluorescent extracellular bacteria, with the percentage of events in each gate shown. The fluorescence of the population of infected cells over time is also plotted, with the percentage of infected cells on each histogram as well as arrowheads depicting the mean fluorescence at each time point. At 0.5 hours post infection (hpi) all strains had a similar percentage of infected cells. While the proportion of infected wt, *ImpB* and *ImpC* cells decreased until 37 hpi, *ImpA* kd cells showed a higher degree of infection. In addition, *ImpA* kd infected cells, in contrast to the other cell lines, show an increase in fluorescence over time, suggesting that cells have a higher bacterial load.