Study on the Relationship between *Legionella pneumophila* and Host *Paramecium*

(レジオネラニューモフィラと宿主ゾウリムシとの 関係に関する研究)

Takashi NISHIDA

March 2019

CONTENTS

PREFACE	
CHAPTER 1	
Characterization of the cryptic plasmid pOfk55 from Legionella pro-	eumophila
and construction of a pOfk55-derived shuttle vector	
INTRODUCTION	
MATERIALS AND METHODS	
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	
TABLES AND FIGURES	
CHAPTER 2	
Crucial role of Legionella pneumophila TolC in the inhibition of cel	lular
trafficking in the protistan host Paramecium tetraurelia	
INTRODUCTION	
MATERIALS AND METHODS	
RESULTS	
DISCUSSION	
TABLES AND FIGURES	
CONCLUSION	
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	
REFERENCES	

PREFACE

Legionella pneumophila is known as a human pathogen and is ubiquitous in natural or artificial aquatic environments. This bacterium replicates within alveolar macrophages after infection to human by inhalation of a Legionella containing aerosol (Cunha *et al.*, 2016). The intracellular replication is thought to be a major factor of its pathogenicity. Besides L. pneumophila, more than 50 Legionella spp. with over 70 distinct serogroups have been described, and at least 25 spp. were associated with human disease (Diederen, 2008, Parte, 2018). Although these Legionella spp. have the same virulence factors like a type IVB Dot/Icm secretion system with L. pneumophila (Burstein et al., 2016), most human infections are caused by L. pneumophila, which is responsible for approximately 90% of the identified clinical cases (Cunha et al., 2016, Yu et al., 2002, Ameura-Maekawa et al., 2018). However, the ratio of L. pneumophila in environmental isolates is approximately from 20% to 40% (Doleans et al., 2004, Harrison et al., 2007, Den Boer et al., 2008). The reason why L. pneumophila mainly causes human Legionnaires' disease is unclear, and little is known about the ecological factors influencing the distribution of Legionella spp. in the environment.

Many studies have been revealed the virulence traits of L. pneumophila using

clinical strains (Andrews et al., 1998, Al-Khodor et al., 2009, Fuche et al., 2014). In contrast, little is known about environmental strains, and many biological characteristics and environmental behaviors are still largely unknown. For this reason, the investigation of environmental strains can lead to obtain new insights different from what have been revealed using clinical strains. The ecology of L. pneumophila in the environment may be influenced by several factors as water temperature, disinfectants, microbial competitor, biofilm and protists. Protistan hosts are thought to have important roles in the ecology of L. pneumophila (Al-Quadan et al., 2012, Declerck et al., 2007, Rowbotham, 1980). Although many studies on the interaction between L. pneumophila and amoebae have been reported, the relationship between L. pneumophila and other protists in natural environment are still unclear. To control L. pneumophila, it is important to understand its ecology in the environment. Therefore, I examined environmental strains from following two aspects:

- 1. Isolation of a plasmid from environmental strains of *L. pneumophila* and construction of a new shuttle vector using this plasmid (chapter 1)
- 2. Analysis of the relationship between *L. pneumophila* and *Paramecium*, which was reported recently as a candidate of natural host of *L. pneumophila* (chapter 2)

CHAPTER 1

Characterization of the cryptic plasmid pOfk55 from *Legionella pneumophila* and construction of a pOfk55-derived shuttle vector

INTRODUCTION

Legionella pneumophila is a facultative intracellular Gram-negative bacterium, and the major causative agent of Legionnaires' disease and Pontiac fever (Cunha et al., 2016). The infectious mechanisms of L. pneumophila have been investigated, and regulation of virulence, invasion, intracellular multiplication and cytotoxicity have been revealed (Molmeret *et al.*, 2004). Plasmid vectors are thought to be a beneficial genetic tool to reveal these infectious mechanisms. Several plasmid vectors of L. pneumophila have been constructed and used for multipurpose genetic manipulation (Andrews et al., 1998; Engleberg et al., 1988; Watarai et al., 2001). For example, pMS8, pSR47s, pAM239, have been used as cloning vector, suicide vector and expression vector. These plasmids may prove useful for the genetic analysis of pathogenicity genes. However, no vector has been constructed based on a plasmid originally isolated from L. pneumophila. It has been reported that some environmental isolates and some clinical strains have plasmids (Knudson and Mikesell, 1980; Brown et al., 1982; Lévesque et al., 2014). Whether the function of plasmids is related to the virulence is not clear but it has been reported that the plasmid analysis is useful in the study on the epidemiology, and plasmid carriage confers resistance to UV light. Moreover, some plasmids have been reported as a conjugative plasmid (Mintz et al., 1992; Maher et al., 1983; Tully.,

1991). On the other hand, these plasmids are not appropriate for use as vectors in genetic studies due to their large size. The small cryptic plasmids found in many bacteria have often been used to develop various genetic tools such as complementation and expression vectors. They do not appear to confer any advantage on their host but they are typically maintained with high stability (Park *et al.*, 2015, Seubert *et al.*, 2003). However, small cryptic plasmids have not been reported previously in *L. pneumophila*.

In the previous study, environmental strains of *L. pneumophila* from environmental water were isolated (Tachibana *et al.*, 2013). In the present study, I identified a small cryptic plasmid designated as pOfk55 in one of these environmental strains, Ofk308. Using pOfk55, I constructed a new shuttle vector, pNT562, for *L. pneumophila–Escherichia coli*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains, plasmids, and culture conditions

All of the bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. L. pneumophila strains were cultured at 37°C in either AYE or on AYE containing activated charcoal (1.5 mg / ml) and 1.5% agar (BCYE). A base solution for AYE was prepared as follows. Ten grams of N-(2-acetamido)-2-aminoethanesulfonic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA) and 2.6 g of Potassium Hydroxide (Wako, Tokyo, Japan) were dissolved in 1 liter of distilled water. The solution was adjusted to pH 6.9 with 1 N H₂SO₄ (Wako). Then, ten grams of yeast extract (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and 1 gram of α -ketoglutaric acid (Sigma-Aldrich) were added and sterilized. After sterilization, 10 ml each of filter-sterilized solutions of L-cysteine (37 mg/ml; Wako) and iron (III) phosphate hydrate (22.5 mg/ml; Wako) were added. When L. pneumophila Lp02 was cultured, 100 µg/ml of thymidine (Wako) was supplemented. Escherichia coli DH5a was cultured in either Lysogeny Broth (LB; Nacalai Tesuque, Kyoto, Japan) or on LB containing 1.5% agar. Media were supplemented with kanamycin (30 µg/ml; Wako) and streptomycin (50 µg/ml; Sigma-Aldrich) as required.

DNA manipulation

All of the plasmids and primers used in this study are listed in Tables 2 and 3. Plasmid DNA from *E. coli* DH5a and *L. pneumophila* was prepared using a QIAGEN Plasmid Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Restriction enzymes (Takara, Tokyo, Japan; or New England Biolabs Inc, Ipswich, MA, USA) were used according to the manufacturers' protocols. A 2.4 kbp transposon region including a kanamycin-resistance gene (Km^R) marker was obtained from pUTmini-Tn5Km by PCR using the primers XhoIF/XhoIR, HaeIIF/HaeIIR, HincIIF/HincIIR, and BamHIF/EcoRIR. These amplicons were inserted into several restriction sites in pOfk55 using an In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (Takara) (see **Characterization of pOfk55** in **RESULTS AND**

DISCUSSION). The recombinant plasmid was introduced into *L. pneumophila* Lp02 by electroporation as described below. A 1.0 kbp Km^R marker including its promoter region and a 0.8 kbp origin of replication were obtained from pUTmini-Tn5Km and pBluescript SK (+), respectively, by PCR using the primers KmF/KmR and oriF/oriR. These amplicons were fused with a fragment from 2383 nucleotides (nt) to 1599 nt in pOfk55 to construct pNT561 using an In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (see **Construction of the pOfk55-derived shuttle vector pNT562** in **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**). The modified plasmid was introduced into *E. coli* DH5α competent cells by the heat-shock

method, as described below. Multiple cloning sites (MCS) from pBluescript SK (+) as well as the tac promoter (Ptac) region and *lacI* gene from pAM239-GFP were amplified using the primers mcsF/mcsR and ptacF/ptacR. These amplicons were fused with pNT561 obtained from *E. coli* DH5α using an In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit. The recombinant plasmid, pNT562, was introduced into *E. coli* DH5α. A 0.7 kbp *gfpmut3* gene was obtained from pAM239-GFP by PCR using the primers gfpF/gfpR. The amplicon digested by *Hind*III and *Spe*I was ligated with pNT562 obtained from *E. coli* DH5α using a DNA Ligation Kit (Takara), and the ligation mixture was introduced into *E. coli* DH5α. *L. pneumophila* Lp02 carrying pNT563 was prepared by introducing pNT563 obtained from *E. coli* DH5α.

DNA sequence analysis

pOfk55 was digested by *Xho*I and ligated with pBluescript SK (+) using a DNA Ligation Kit, and the ligation mixture was introduced into *E. coli* DH5α competent cells by the heat-shock method, as described below. The pOfk55 fragment in pBluescript SK (+) was sequenced using the universal primers T7/T3. DNA sequencing was performed using a Big Dye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing Kit and an ABI3031 Genetic Analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA). DNA sequences and amino acid sequences were analyzed using BLAST

(https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and the GenBank database. DNA structures were predicted using the mfold program (http://unafold.rna.albany.edu/?q=mfold/dnafolding-form). Inverted repeats were predicted using the oligonucleotides repeats finder (http://wwwmgs.bionet.nsc.ru/mgs/programs/oligorep/InpForm.htm).

Transformation of L. pneumophila and E. coli DH5a

Electroporation was performed to transform *L. pneumophila* and *E. coli* DH5 α with a Gene Pulser Electroporator (Bio-Rad Laboratories) in 10% glycerol solution at 2.5 kV/25 μ F. After electroporation, the cells were resuspended in 1 ml of AYE or LB, incubated for 1 h or 30 min at 37°C, and spread onto BCYE or LB agar containing kanamycin. The heat shock method was also used to transform *E. coli* DH5 α . Bacterial cells were cultured overnight at 37°C and collected by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. To make *E. coli* DH5 α competent, the bacterial pellet was resuspended in 30 mM CaCl₂ and mixed by vortexing. The bacteria were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in 75 mM CaCl₂. This suspension and the plasmid DNA were mixed, kept on ice for 30 min, and then kept at 42°C for 1 min. Cells were resuspended in 1 ml of LB, incubated for 30 min at 37°C, and spread onto LB agar containing kanamycin.

Conjugation

Conjugation was performed as described previously (Qin *et al.*, 2009). Briefly, 0.1 ml of AYE containing 1×10^8 donor cells and AYE containing 4×10^8 recipient *L*. *pneumophila* Lp02 cells were mixed and incubated for 24 h at 37°C. Recombinants were selected using BCYE supplemented with streptomycin and kanamycin. In addition, the total *L. pneumophila* Lp02 counts were obtained by spreading on BCYE supplemented with streptomycin, which was incubated at 37°C for 5 days. The conjugation frequency was calculated based on the CFU on BCYE containing streptomycin and kanamycin divided by the CFU on BCYE containing streptomycin.

Plasmid copy number analysis

The relative copy number of pNT562 was assessed by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR) using an Applied Biosystems StepOne Real-Time PCR System with Power SYBER green PCR Master Mix (TOYOBO, Osaka, Japan) according to the manufacturers' protocols. Amplification of a 102 bp segment was performed using the primers pOfkF/pOfkR based on the putative *rep* gene sequence of pNT562. A 115 bp segment of the single-copy *mip* gene was used as a reference. The relative copy number was calculated based on three identical experiments using the formula: N_{relative} = 1^{-DCT}, where DCT denotes the difference between the threshold cycle number for the *mip* gene reaction and that for the putative *rep* gene.

Plasmid stability analysis

Plasmid stability analysis was performed as described previously (Park *et al.*, 2015). Briefly, *L. pneumophila* Lp02 harboring pNT562 was grown for 24 h in AYE with kanamycin at 37°C. The culture obtained was used to inoculate (1%, v/v) fresh AYE without kanamycin and the inoculated culture was incubated for 24 h at 37°C. Daily inoculation was repeated for up to 1 week. Each day, part of the culture was serially diluted using phosphate-buffered saline. Diluted samples were spread onto BCYE with or without kanamycin, before incubating at 37°C for 4 days. The percentage of cells harboring pNT562 was calculated by dividing the CFU on BCYE with kanamycin by the CFU on BCYE and multiplying by 100.

Fluorescence microscopy to detect green fluorescent protein (GFP) expression

L. pneumophila Lp02 harboring pNT563 and *E. coli* DH5 α harboring pNT563 were cultured on kanamycin containing agar plates. Colonies were picked up and suspended in five ml of liquid media with or without 0.1 mM isopropyl β -D-1-

thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), then incubated for 24 h at 37°C. Fluorescent images were obtained using a FluoView FV100 confocal laser scanning microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Detection of a small cryptic plasmid in L. pneumophila Ofk308

In a previous study, five L. pneumophila environmental strains were isolated and draft genome sequences were determined for these strains (Watanabe et al., 2015). It has been reported that several environmentally isolated L. pneumophila strains have plasmids (Brown et al., 1982). Then, I tried to extract a plasmid from these environmental strains and I found that two strains, i.e., Ofk308 and Bnt314, each contained a plasmid (Fig. 1). The sizes of these plasmids appeared to be relatively small compared with those of other plasmids in L. pneumophila. To determine the sequence of the L. pneumophila Ofk308-derived plasmid designated as pOfk55, plasmid DNA was digested using *Xho*I and ligated with the pBluescript SK (+) vector cut with the same enzyme. Two fragments were cloned and sequenced. The sequenced internal regions were analyzed by BLAST and both regions shared homology with part of lpofk contig000055 (accession number (AC): NZ BBUH01000055). Several unique restriction sites were found in lpofk contig000055 (BamHI, EcoRI, HaeII, HincII, PacI, SacI, and XhoI). Indeed, only one fragment was observed when pOfk55 was cut by these restriction enzymes except for *XhoI* and the size of these fragments were the same as the size of lpofk contig000055 (2,583bp) (data not shown). Moreover, it was thought

that two *Xho*I sites existed on pOfk55 because two fragments were observed when it was cut by *Xho*I. I found that lpofk_contig000055 could be further digested by *Xho*I if a thymine base was added to the end of the sequence. Therefore, I determined that the sequence of lpofk_contig000055 with a thymine base at the end was the sequence of the pOfk55 (Fig. 2; AC: LC215275).

Characterization of pOfk55

The size of pOfk55 was 2584 bp and the GC content was 37.3%. The GC content of chromosomal DNA in most *L. pneumophila* strains ranges from 38.1% to 38.5% (NCBI; https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/genomes/416). The host strain *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 had a GC content of 38.2%, thereby suggesting that pOfk55 could have originated from *L. pneumophila*. It has been reported that some *Legionella* spp. contain several plasmids (Gomez-Valero *et al.*, 2014), but a small cryptic plasmid similar to pOfk55 has never been reported previously. Similar sequences to pOfk55 were found only in the draft genome sequence of *L. pneumophila* Bnt314 (AC: BBUG0000000) (data not shown). This strain was isolated from a region close to that where *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 was isolated (Tachibana *et al.*, 2013) and the sequence type of Ofk308 and Bnt314 is 1288 according to the protocol Version 5.0 developed by

the European Working Group for Legionella Infections (Gaia *et al.*, 2005; Ratzow *et al.*, 2007). Thus, the function of pOfk55 might only be beneficial to this sequence type.

Three putative ORFs with the same orientation were located at 1015–1602, 1715–2059, and 2297–2533 nt (Fig. 2). *orf1* potentially encodes a protein of 195 amino acids, and the putative protein shared 39% and 37% sequence identity with a putative plasmid replication protein RepL (AC: CDW96533.1) and a firmicute plasmid replication family protein (AC:KGD42882.1), respectively. *orf2* and *orf3* potentially encodes proteins of 114 amino acids and 78 amino acids (Fig. 3). The functions of these putative proteins are not clear because they shared no significant homology with other proteins in the database.

The sequence of pOfk55 had no homologues so it was difficult to estimate the possible replication mechanism. However, two long inverted repeats (IRs) were located upstream of *orf1* (Fig. 2), where IR-1 and IR-2 comprised 186 bp and 93 bp. The ΔG values for potential stem-loop formation by IR-1 and IR-2 were –301.86 kcal/mol and – 151.06 kcal/mol, respectively. Stem-loop flanking regions upstream of a *rep* gene have been reported in both pOM1 and pBGR1 (Hefford *et al.*, 1997; Seubert *et al.*, 2003).

These plasmids are known to employ a rolling-circle replication (RCR) mechanism. The size of natural RCR plasmids is relatively small (from 846 bp to 30 kbp) and these plasmids have a medium copy number (10–30 per chromosome equivalent) (Ruiz-Masó *et al.*, 2015). Thus, I investigated the homology between pOfk55 and RCR plasmids. *orf1* in pOfk55 shared low homology with the *rep* genes in pOM1 and pBGR1 (23% and 21%, respectively). In addition, there was no similarity between IR-1 and flanking sequences upstream of the *rep* genes in pOM1 and pBGR. The size of pOfk55 was small like RCR plasmids, but the copy number was lower (3.2 ± 0.8 per chromosome equivalent). Thus, further studies are needed to uncover whether pOfk55 replicates via an RCR mechanism.

To determine the region that is required for replication and investigate the functions of the encoded proteins, I attempted to insert the Km^R marker in several restriction sites in pOfk55, and the recombinant plasmids were transformed into *L. pneumophila* Lp02 and *E. coli* DH5α. I successfully inserted the marker into *Xho*I, *Hae*II, and *Hinc*II sites located at 2583, 2382, and 1848 nt, respectively, thereby obtaining pNT527, pNT528, and pNT529 (the upper right of Fig. 4), but I failed to insert *Bam*HI/*Eco*RI and *Xho*I sites at 1102/1172 and 554 nt. I found that pNT527,

pNT528, and pNT529 replicated in L. pneumophila Lp02 but not in E. coli DH5a. Thus, the replication mechanism of pOfk55 did not work in *E. coli* DH5α, and the IR-1 region and orf1 were required for replication. Next, I investigated the conjugation frequencies to elucidate the mobilization of pOfk55, which showed that pNT527, pNT528, and pNT529 had the same capacity to transfer from the donor strain (Ofk308) to the recipient strain (Lp02) (Table 4). These results suggest that pNT527, pNT528, and pNT529 are conjugative and orf2 and orf3 are not necessary for transfer. Conjugative plasmids of L. pneumophila have been reported (López de Felipe., 1993; Segal and Shuman, 1998; Meyer, 2009). In addition, conjugative chromosome regions known as episomes of L. pneumophila have been identified (Glöckner, 2008). I compared pOfk55 and oriT regions of these plasmids and episomes but could not find homology. Further study is needed to identify the oriT region of pOfk55. L. pneumophila Ofk308/dotH could also transfer pNT527 in the same frequency, but L. pneumophila Philadelphia-1 failed to transfer. DotH is a component of the type IVB secretion system (T4BSS), which is known to be a DNA delivery system among bacteria (Christie, 2001; Sexton and Vogel, 2002). These results suggest that pOfk55 can be transferred by conjugation in a T4BSS-independent manner. L. pneumophila possesses several types of T4SSs (Gomez-Valero et al., 2014) and a type IVA secretion system (T4ASS) of several L.

pneumophila strains differs from each other (Gomez *et al.*, 2011). From draft genome sequences of Ofk308, I found that Ofk308 had an F-type T4ASS on lpofk_contig000070 (AC: NZ_BBUH01000070.1) which shared more than 99% homology in the DNA sequence level with a T4ASS of *Legionella pneumophila* Lens plasmid pLPL (AC: NC_006366.1) but this F-type T4ASS had very low homology with an F-type T4ASS of *L. pneumophila* Philadelphia-1 even in amino acid sequence level (data not shown). Hence, the transfer mechanism in pOfk55 might be dependent on the F-type T4ASS of Ofk308.

Construction of the pOfk55-derived shuttle vector pNT562

I constructed a *L. pneumophila–E. coli* shuttle vector, pNT562 (AC: LC215276), as shown in the middle of Fig. 4. All of the replication functions of pOfk55 may be assigned to a 1.6 kbp *XhoI-PacI* fragment containing the most region of an IR and *orf1* (putative *rep* gene). First, the *XhoI-PacI* fragments from pOfk55, the Km^R from pUTmini-Tn5Km, and the origin of replication from pBluescript SK (+) was connected together by In-Fusion cloning to obtain pNT561. Therefore, pNT561 is a high-copy number *E. coli* cloning vector that confers kanamycin resistance. To construct a useful expression shuttle-vector, MCS from pBluescript SK (+) as well as Ptac region and *lac1* gene from pAM239-GFP were inserted to obtain pNT562. As expected, this vector could replicate in all *L. pneumophila* strains. The transformation efficiencies are shown in Table 5. The transformation efficiency for *L. pneumophila* strains ranged from 1.6×10^{1} to 1.0×10^{5} CFU/ng. The efficiencies were almost the same in all of the strains, except for *L. pneumophila* Philadelphia-1. The low efficiency in *L. pneumophila* Philadelphia-1 is probably due to a restriction activity of this strain (Marra *et al.*, 1989). The transformation efficiency of pNT562 was relatively high compared with that of pAM239-GFP in *L. pneumophila* Lp02 (Fig. 5), which might be attributable to the original replication mechanism in pOfk55.

Copy number and stability of pNT562

The relative copy number per chromosome equivalent was analyzed for pNT562 in *L. pneumophila* Lp02 by qPCR and it was estimated as 5.7 ± 1.0 copies. The stability of pNT562 was also assessed under non-selective conditions in *L. pneumophila* Lp02 (Fig. 6), which showed that 73.6% of cells maintained the plasmid after 1 week of daily culturing in AYE without kanamycin selection. The rate of cells that lost pNT562 increased rapidly after the 5th day. The stability of pNT562 was higher than that of pAM239-GFP but there was no statistical difference (data not shown). It has been reported that ColE1 plasmids replicate within *L. pneumophila*, but these plasmids are unstable without antibiotic selection. (Engleberg *et al.*, 1988). Indeed, the plasmid constructed by removing the putative *rep* gene from pNT562 named pNT564 could replicate within *L. pneumophila* Lp02 (Fig. 4). However, as expected, more than 90% of the cells lost this plasmid after culturing for 24 h without kanamycin selection (data not shown). These results suggest that pNT562 is a useful vector with high stability.

Usefulness of pNT562 as an expression vector

To test the potential utility of pNT562 as an expression vector for *L*. *pneumophila*, I assessed the expression of the *gfpmut3* gene, which was amplified from pAM239-GFP using the primers gfpF2/gfpR2. The forward primer gfpF2 includes a sequence that has been reported as an effective SD region for GFP (Miller and Lindow, 1997). The amplicon was then cloned into pNT562 to yield pNT563 (Fig. 4). pNT563 was introduced into *L. pneumophila* Lp02 and *E. coli* DH5α. The strains harboring pNT563 were cultured with or without and IPTG. Both strains successfully expressed GFP, as shown in Fig. 7. Therefore, it is considered that pNT562 is a useful expression vector for *L. pneumophila*.

TABLES AND FIGURES

	Table	1.	Bacterial	strains	used	in	this	study.
--	-------	----	------------------	---------	------	----	------	--------

Strain	Characteristics	Source or reference
Legionella pneumophila		
Philadelphia-1	Isolated from human lung	GTC 00296 (ATCC 33216)
Philadelphia-1 pNT527	Philadelphia-1 carring pNT527	This study
Knoxville-1	Isolated from human lung	GTC 00745 (ATCC 33153)
Togus-1	Isolated from human lung	GTC 00746 (ATCC 33154)
Lp02	Philidelphia-1 rpslL hsdR ⁻ thyA ⁻	Berger and Isberg (1993)
Ofk308	Isolated from environmental water	Tachibana <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Ofk308 pNT527	Ofk308 carring pNT527	This study
Ofk308 pNT528	Ofk308 carring pNT528	This study
Ofk308 pNT529	Ofk308 carring pNT529	This study
Ofk308 ⊿dotH	dotH-deletion mutant of Ofk308	Watanabe et al. (2016)
Ofk308 ⊿dotH pNT527	Ofk308 <i>dotH</i> carring pNT527	This study
Bnt314	Isolated from environmental water	Tachibana <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Twr292	Isolated from environmental water	Tachibana et al. (2013)
Ymg289	Isolated from environmental water	Tachibana <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Ymt294	Isolated from environmental water	Tachibana et al. (2013)
Esherichia coli DH5a	Ф80lacZAM15. A(lacZYA-ar o F)11169_recA1_endA1	Takara Tokyo Japan
	hsdR17. sunE44. thi-1. gvrA96. relA1	

Plasmids	Characteristics	Reference
pBluescrip SK (+)	Standard cloning vector	Merck, Darmstadt,
	(phagemid excised from lambda ZAP)	German
pUTmini-Tn5Km	pUT vector containing mini-Tn5 carring Km	BioMedal, Seville,
	resistance gene	Andalucía, Spain
pAM239-GFP	pMMB-derived vector encording GFP	Watarai et al. (2001)
pOfk55	L. pneumophila Ofk308 cryptic plasmid, 2.6kb	This study
pNT527	pOfk55 carrying Km ^R in the XhoI site, 4.9kbp	This study
pNT528	pOfk56 carrying Km ^R in the HaeII site, 4.9kbp	This study
pNT529	pOfk57 carrying Km ^R in the HincII site, 4.9kbp	This study
pNT561	XhoI-PacI fragment from pOfk55, pUC ori from	This study
	pBlue scrip, Km ^R , 3.4kbp	
pNT562	E.coli-L.pneumophila shuttle vector derived from	This study
	pNT561, MCS, Ptac, LacI, 5.1kbp	
pNT563	pNT562 carring gfpmut3 in MCS, 5.8kbp	This study
pNT564	pNT562 removed Rep, Ptac, LacI, 2.9 kbp	This study

Table 2. Plasmids used in this study.

Primer	Sequence	Target region
XhoIF	CGCCATGGGGCTCGAGCTGTCTCTTGATCAGATCTGGC	Km ^R marker of
XhoIR	GTAAGCCACCCTCGAGCTGACTCTTATACACAAGTTCGGC	pUTmini-Tn5Km
HaeIIF	TTTTGATTCAAGCGCTCTGTCTCTTGATCAGATCTGGC	Km ^R marker of
HaeIIR	TCTTTTTAAAAGCGCTCTGACTCTTATACACAAGTTCGGC	pUTmini-Tn5Km
HincIIF	TTTTGAAATTATGTTAACCTGTCTCTTGATCAGATCTGGC	Km ^R marker of
HincIIR	ATATTTATGTTTGTTAACCTGACTCTTATACACAAGTTCGGC	pUTmini-Tn5Km
BamHIF	GATAAAAATAGGATCCCTGTCTCTTGATCAGATCTGGC	Km ^R marker of
BamHIR	TTTACGACGTGAATTCCTGACTCTTATACACAAGTTCGGC	pUTmini-Tn5Km
KmF	TTAATTAAGGGCTTACATGACGATAGCTAG	Km ^R marker of
KmR	GTAAGCCACCCTCGAGTCAGAAGAACTCGTCAAGAAGG	pUTmini-Tn5Km
oriF	TAAGCCACCCTCGAGGCCGCGTTGCTGGCGT	Replication origin of
oriR	GTTCTTCTGACTCGATAACTGTCAGACCAAGTTTAC	pBluescript SK (+)
mcsF	CAAATAATATTTAATTAACGACTCACTATAGGGCGAATTG	Mulutiple cloning sites
mcsR	ATGTAAGCCCTTAATAACAAAAGCTGGAGCTCC	of pBluescript SK (+)
ptacF	CAAATAATATTTAATTAACGCCAGCAAGACGTAGC	Ptac and <i>lac1</i> of
ptacR	TAGTGAGTCGTTAATTAATGTTTCCTGTGTGAAATTG	pAM239-GFP
gfpF	CGAATTAAGCTTACACAGGAAACAGCATGCGTAAAGGAGAAGAAC	gfpmut3 of pAM239-
gfpR	CGAATTACTAGTTTATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATG	GFP
Т3	CAATTAACCCTCACTAAA	Fragment of pOfk55 in
Τ7	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGG	pBluescript SK (+)
RTmipF	GCAACGTTCCAGGTTTCACA	<i>mip</i> gene of <i>L</i> .
RTmipF2	CCAGCAACTTTTCAGGTTTCACA	pneumophila
RTmipR	TACGTGGGCCATATGCAAGA	chromosome
pOfkF	CTCTTCGGCTCCTACCCAAG	Putative rep gene of
pOfkR	TTGAAACCAACAGCTCAAAGGG	pOfk55

Table 3. Primers used in this study.

Donor strains	Conjugation frequency
L. pneumophila	
Ofk308 pNT527	5.1×10 ⁻⁶
Ofk308 pNT528	5.0×10 ⁻⁶
Ofk308 pNT529	3.2×10 ⁻⁶
Ofk308⊿dotH pNT527	4.2×10 ⁻⁶
Philadelphia-1 pNT527	3.1×10 ⁻⁸

Table 4. Conjugation frequency of Lp02 with each donor strains.

Data represent averages based on three identical experiments.

Straing	Transfomants per			
Strains	ng of pNT562			
L. pneumophila				
Philadelphia-1	1.6×10^{1}			
Togus-1	6.4×10^{3}			
Knoxville-1	2.4×10^4			
Lp02	1.0×10 ⁵			
Bnt314	2.1×10^4			
Ofk308	6.7×10^4			
Twr292	6.0×10 ³			
Ymg289	1.1×10 ³			
Ymt294	1.3×10^{4}			
<i>E. coli</i> DH5α	1.7×10^{2}			

Table 5. Transformation efficiency of pNT562.

Data represent averages based on three identical experiments.



Figure 1. Extraction of plasmids from environmental *L. pneumophila*.

Plasmids were isolated from Ofk308, Bnt314, Twr292, Ymg289, and Ymt294.



Figure 2. Physical and genetic map of the cryptic plasmid pOfk55.

Black arrows indicate the directions and lengths of ORFs. Gray arrows indicate inverted

repeats. The restriction sites used in this study are also shown. IR; inverted repeat.

NGNRLTFIHEYRKKTIQEIGKEENLVQSDIDKQIQIIFN KGDRVMFIKEYRRRT TSAEASTLEHQSQLNLDT KGDRVMFVREYRRRSSQQTKAEQVADDRQGSLV

KPTAQRVLQYLITELQKTPN----ADAVYLAWVGAEEYFSENHIKSSRASFHRALSELIQKGFLAESTKPNMFWFNPNLFF

в ORF1 KGD42882.1

MKKEPIPGKRKNVLAYPENPFWQKTEIKIGSKMVKVSGGKHI--NIEGESISHSGIHVVKEIDENEFVKIYTKNIKAIFDL CDW96533.1 MSDLPSINLRNLDYSPTVNPLVESQALTIKRRLVRAGRGEDLINSRTGEIVGVSAIHQIEERDDAEFVKVFAAGVSAAYGL MNPLLEPRKITIKRRYVDSGVSRDLMDA-DGVVQAATVIRNIEEKDDAEFVKVFAAGVAASYDL

orf3 ATGTITITGT TICATAGITIT CATTIGIGCT GCAAAAATCA AAGGAAAAAA AATGAAAATA M F L F H S F I C A A K I K G K K M K I AAAAAATTAA ATGAAATAAT TATTCTTGAT CGATTCGAAA CAAAAGGGTT TGTCAATAAG K K L N E I I L D R F E T K G F V N K GCACAAGAAA TGTCATCGCC TAACGGCTCA GGAATTGCGT CTAACGACGC GATTTAG A Q E M S S P N G S G I A S N D A I \ast

ATGCAAATAT ATACTCATGA TGAATTAGAA AATCCATCCC TAGAAGCCGA AGAGTTTTTA M Q I Y T H D E L E N P S L E A E E F L TCAAATTICA ATATTTATGT TGATGTAATT GCTGTTTTTA ATGGACCAGT TCTCGCTCAT S N F N I Y V D V I A V F N G P V L A H TITGAAATTA TGTTAACAAA CATAAATATT CCTCAAAATT CTATTGCTTC AGTCCTAATT F E I M L T N I N I P Q N S I A S V L I ATTGAAACCA TGACAACAACT AGATAACTAT TTGCTTGAAT TGAAATTAGA AAACGTAAAA AACAATAGAT TTCTCAAGTG TGACTTCAAT CAAAATTTTTT ACTCTACACA CAAAAACCTTN N R F L K C D F N Q I F Y S T H K N LGTCTACTATT GCTCGAATCA AGTGAAAGAA AACAACTCTG AATAG V Y Y C S N Q V K E N N S E \ast

orf1 ATGAAAAAAG AACCAATCCC AGGAAAAAGG AAAAATGTAT TGGCGTACCC AGAAAACCCA MK K E P I P G K R K N V L A Y P E N PTTTTGGCAAA AAACAGAGAT AAAAATAGGA TCCAAAATGG TTAAAGTTTC TGGAGGAAAA F W Q K T E I K I G S K M V K V S G G K CACATAAATA TTGAAGGAGA AAGTATTTCT CATAGTGGAA TTCACGTCGT AAAAGAAAATT H I N I E G E S I S H S G I H V V K E I GATGAAAATG AGTTTGTAAA AATTTACACA AAGAACATAA AAGCAATTTT CGATTTGAAA D E N E F V K I Y T K N I K A I F D L K CCAACAGCTC AAAGGGTATT ACAATATTTG ATAACTGAAT TACAAAAAAC ACCAAACGCC P T A Q R V L Q Y L I T E L Q K T P N A GACGCAGTTT ATTTGGCTTG GGTAGGAGCC GAAGAGTACT TTTCAGAAAA CCATATAAAA DAVYLAWVGAEEYFSENHIK TCATCAAGAG CATCTTTTCA CAGAGCTCTC AGTGAATTAA TTCAAAAAGG TTTTTTGGCC S S R A S F H R A L S E L I Q K G F L A GAGAGCACCA AGCCAAATAT GTTTTGGITT AATCCAAATC TATTTTTTAA CGGCAATAGA E S T K P N M F W F N P N L F F N G N R TTAACTITTA TTCATGAAAA TCGAAAGAAA ACCATCCAAG AAATAGGAAA AGAGGAAAAT L T F I H E Y R K K T I Q E I G K E E N RKK CTAGTTCAAT CTGATATCGA TAAACAAATA CAAATAATAT TTAATTAA L V Q S D I D K Q I Q I I F N *

Α

orf2

Figure 3. (A) Amino acid sequences of *orf1*, *orf2* and *orf3*. (B) Multiple alignment of ORF1, a putative plasmid replication protein RepL (AC: CDW96533.1) and a firmicute plasmid replication family protein (AC: KGD42882.1).



Figure 4. Construction of pOfk55-derived vectors.

Colored arrows on the maps indicate genes and other features. Several restriction sites

are indicated. IR; inverted repeat. MCS; multiple cloning sites.



Figure 5. Comparison of the transformation efficiency of pAM239-GFP and pNT562

in *L. pneumophila* Lp02.

Data represent the averages based on three identical experiments and error bars represent standard deviations. Statistical analyses were performed using Student's t-test. The statistically significant difference is indicated by an asterisk (*P < 0.01).



Figure 6. Stability of pNT562 in *L. pneumophila* Lp02 without antibiotic selection.

The percentage was calculated by dividing kanamycin resistant bacteria with kanamycin non-resistant bacteria. Data represent the averages based on three identical experiments and error bars represent standard deviations.



Figure 7. GFP expression in *L. pneumophila* Lp02 and DH5α harboring pNT563

with or without IPTG.

CHAPTER 2

Crucial role of *Legionella pneumophila* TolC in the inhibition of cellular trafficking in the protistan host *Paramecium tetraurelia*
INTRODUCTION

Legionella pneumophila is a facultative intracellular gram-negative bacterium that is the major causative agent of Legionnaires' disease (Cunha *et al.*, 2016), which is a severe pneumonia and a mild flu-like illness called Pontiac fever. The infection of humans occurs by inhalation of a *Legionella*-containing aerosol. Once *L. pneumophila* enters the lung, it invades alveolar macrophages and replicates within *Legionella*containing vacuoles (LCVs) derived from host phagosomes (Isberg *et al.*, 2009) that serve as a suitable niche for bacterial replication.

L. pneumophila normally inhabits natural or artificial aquatic environments where it can survive for long periods as free-living forms as well as in biofilms (Fliermans *et al.*, 1981; Paszko-Kolva *et al.*, 1992; Declerck *et al.*, 2007). Further *L. pneumophila* can survive in free-living protists. Amoebae are protistan hosts of *L. pneumophila* in bodies of fresh water (Rowbotham, 1980), and evidence indicates that *Tetrahymena* serves as its host (Fields *et al.*, 1984). In the environment, the association of *L. pneumophila* and protists leads to the replication and spread of this bacterium as well as to the development of antibiotic resistance (Winiecka-Krusnell and Linder, 1999; Barker *et al.*, 1995). Thus, from a public health perspective, their association can enhance the risk of L. pneumophila infection for humans.

Many bacteria other than *L. pneumophila* are resistant to protists (Greub and Raoult, 2004), including human pathogenic intracellular bacteria such as *Coxiella burnetii* and *Listeria monocytogenes* as well as nonpathogenic bacteria. Protistan hosts are thought to represent a primary evolutionary factor for the acquisition and maintenance of virulence toward humans (Al-Quadan *et al.*, 2012). Because of the similarities of the digestive process between macrophages and protists, certain mechanisms to resist protist digestion help bacteria to survive in macrophages. Thus, association between bacteria and protists can cause the emergence of new pathogenic bacteria, because nonpathogenic bacteria may acquire a pathogenic phenotype within protistan hosts. To control current and future pathogenic bacteria as well as *L. pneumophila*, it is extremely to understand and identify the association between environmental bacteria and protists.

Paramecium spp. are ciliates that exist widely in freshwater environments and are appreciated as model organisms for the analysis of cellular and molecular biology, including phagocytosis and exocytosis (Steinman *et al.*, 1983; Plattner, 2010). Further,

Paramecium spp. are used to study endosymbiosis, because they possess several endosymbionts (Görtz and Fokin, 2009), and symbionts of *Paramecium* spp. affect the host's phenotype. For example, *Paramecium caudatum* can acquire resistance to salinity (Duncan *et al.*, 2010) and heat-shock (Hori and Fujishima, 2003; Fujishima *et al.*, 2005) if infected with *Holospora* spp. Previously, it has been reported that *Paramecium* spp. are candidates of a natural host of *L. pneumophila* (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). *L. pneumophila* have resistance to *Paramecium* digestion and several *L. pneumophila* strains show cytotoxicity toward *Paramecium* spp. *Paramecium* spp. may increase the risk of *L. pneumophila* infection for humans as well as other protistan hosts such as amoebae and *Tetrahymena*. However, it is still unclear whether *L. pneumophila* establish endosymbiosis with *Paramecium* spp. in the environment.

Type I secretion systems (T1SS) are widespread in pathogenic gram-negative bacteria such as *Escherichia coli, Vibrio cholerae*, and *Bordetella pertussis* (Thomas *et al.*, 2014). This secretion machinery comprises three components that transport substrates to the exterior in one step across both lipid bilayers. The first reported protein secreted through T1SS is the hemolysin A (HlyA), which is produced by certain *E. coli* strains (Goebel and Hedgpeth, 1982). HlyA is a member of the repeats-in-toxin (RTX)

family that is the most extensively studied. Further, L. pneumophila employ T1SS, and RtxA serves as its substrate in *L. pneumophila*. The association of T1SS and RtxA with virulence of L. pneumophila such as invasion, intracellular growth, and pore-forming activities toward amoebae has been revealed (Fuche et al., 2015). In addition, TolC, the outer membrane protein of T1SS, plays roles in virulence and multidrug resistance (Ferhat et al., 2009). TolC is a trimeric membrane protein and forms a long channel that protrudes deeply into the periplasm. TolC is composed of a short β -barrel (outer membrane) and a long α -helical (periplasmic) structure (Koronakis *et al.*, 2000). TolC forms the T1SS by interacting with an ATP-binding cassette transporter and a membrane fusion protein that resides in the inner membrane. TolC couples with numerous inner membrane or periplasmic proteins and forms efflux systems such as the AcrAB-TolC efflux pump (Symmons et al., 2015). These efflux systems transport diverse molecules such as virulence-associated proteins, antibiotics, and detergents (Zgurskaya et al., 2011). However, I are unaware of published studies on the role of TolC in the relationship between L. pneumophila and Paramecium spp.

In the present study, I focused on the role of TolC in the association between *L*. *pneumophila* and *Paramecium* spp. I found that TolC was essential for *L. pneumophila* to remain within *Paramecium* cells. My results suggest that *L. pneumophila* employs a TolC-dependent mechanism to survive within *Paramecium* spp. in the environment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

All bacterial strains used in this study are listed in Table 1. *L. pneumophila* strains were cultured at 37°C on N-(2-acetamido)-2-aminoethanesulfonic acid-buffered charcoal yeast extract agar (BCYE) or in the same medium without agar and charcoal (AYE) prepared as described in chapter 1. *E. coli* strains were cultured in Lysogeny Broth (LB; Nacalai Tesuque, Kyoto, Japan) or on LB containing 1.5% agar (Wako, Tokyo, Japan). Media were supplemented with chloramphenicol (10 µg/mL, Wako), kanamycin (30 µg/mL, Wako), and ampicillin (250 µg/mL, Wako) as required.

P. tetraurelia and culture conditions

P. tetraurelia st110-1a (ID: PT041001A) was provided by the Symbiosis Laboratory, Yamaguchi University with support, in part, from the NBRP. Culture and maintenance were previously described (Fujishima *et al.*, 1990). Briefly, the culture medium used was 2.5% (w/v) fresh lettuce juice in Dryl's solution (Dryl, 1959) inoculated with a nonpathogenic strain of *Klebsiella pneumoniae* the day before use. The cultivation was performed at 25°C. Cells at the stationary phase of growth (20–24 h after the last feeding) were used for the experiments.

Construction of deletion mutants and complementary strains

Each deletion mutant was constructed using the homologous-recombination method. Briefly, two PCR fragments were cloned into Sall/NotI or BamHI-cleaved pSR47s (Andrews et al., 1998) using an In-Fusion HD Cloning Kit (Takara, Tokyo, Japan). Fragment 1 was a 1,500 bp or 2,000 bp fragment spanning a site located upstream of the 5' end of each target gene. Fragment 2 was a 1,500 bp or 2,000 bp fragment spanning a site located downstream of the 3' end of each target gene. These fragments were amplified using PCR. Each plasmid was introduced into *E. coli* DH5 α λ pir and subsequently transferred into Ofk308 using electroporation with a Gene Pulser electroporator (Bio-Rad Laboratories, CA, USA) in 10% glycerol at 2.5 kV/25 µF. Isolation of in-frame deletion mutants by positive selection for sucrose resistance has been described (Andrews et al., 1998). The tolC complementary strain was constructed by cloning a PCR fragment of tolC into PstI/EcoRI-cleaved pAM239-GFP (Green Fluorescence Protein) using a DNA Ligation Kit (Takara). This tolC-inserted plasmid, pAM239-TolC, was introduced into *E.coli* DH5a and subsequently transferred into *L*. pneumophila using electroporation. GFP or TolC expression in L. pneumophila was induced by adding isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (1 mM, Wako) to AYE.

All primers and plasmids used in this work are listed in Tables 1 and 2. Plasmid DNA from *E. coli* DH5α was prepared using a QIAGEN Plasmid Mini Kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). Restriction enzymes (Takara) were used according to the manufacturers' protocols.

Cytotoxicity assay and determination of the bacterial loads in P. tetraurelia

Cytotoxicity assays and determination of bacterial loads were performed as previously described (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). Briefly, *Legionella pneumophila* Ofk308 (Ofk308) or each mutant strain was added to *P. tetraurelia* in 1.5 mL tubes and then incubated at 25°C. After incubation, viable *P. tetraurelia* were counted using microscopy. To determine the bacterial load, *P. tetraurelia* was infected with each strain of *L. pneumophila* at multiplicity of infection [MOI] = 20,000. After incubation at 25°C, *P. tetraurelia* was washed five times with 5 mL of fresh lettuce juice in Dryl's solution through a 15-µm pore nylon mesh to remove extracellular bacteria. Samples were further treated at 50°C for 30 min to purge the *K. pneumoniae* fed to *P. tetraurelia*. Colony-forming units were determined using serial dilution on BCYE. In infections with *E. coli* JM109, incubation at 50°C was omitted, and LB containing ampicillin (250 µg/mL) was used.

Fluorescence microscopy

GFP-expressing bacteria were added to *P. tetraurelia* at MOI = 20,000, which were then incubated at 25°C for 30 min to 48 h. *P. tetraurelia* was fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min at room temperature. Images of fluorescence were obtained using a FluoView FV100 confocal laser scanning microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

When LysoTracker (Life Technologies, CA, USA) was used, *P. tetraurelia* was fixed 30 min after infection. After fixation, samples were washed twice with PBS and then incubated with LysoTracker (50 nM) for 30 min. LysoTracker-positive LCVs were counted using microscopy, and the data are shown as an average of three fields. When a Texas Red-conjugated dextran (TRDx, Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA) was used, samples were washed 1 h after infection to remove extracellular bacteria using a nylon mesh as described above. TRDx (50 µg/mL) was added to *P. tetraurelia*. At each sampling time, *P. tetraurelia* was fixed and washed twice with PBS. The number of TRDx -containing vacuoles in individual *P. tetraurelia* was counted and expressed as the average of 30 *P. tetraurelia* cells.

Observations of individual P. tetraurelia under NiCl2-induced paralysis

P. tetraurelia was infected with *L. pneumophila* at MOI = 20,000 and then incubated at 25°C for 1 h. After washing as described above, NiCl₂ (2 mM) was added and the cells were incubated for 10 min at room temperature. After incubation, the *P. tetraurelia* cells were collected and transferred into new media supplemented with 0.2 mM NiCl₂. Samples were immediately transferred to a 48-well plate. An IX75 inverted fluorescence microscope was used to observe and photograph the cells at 5 min intervals. The number of LCV-containing *P. tetraurelia* in 50 cells was counted at 0 min and 40 min.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using the Tukey–Kramer test or the Student's t-test. Statistically significant differences between groups were accepted at P < 0.05 or P < 0.01. Data are presented as the average of three identical experiments, and the error bars shown in the figures represent standard deviations.

RESULTS

L. pneumophila Ofk308 exhibits cytotoxicity toward P. tetraurelia

Paramecium spp. feed on bacteria and bacteria uptaken by *Paramecium* are normally digested. On the other hand, Ofk308 showed cytotoxicity toward several *Paramecium* strains (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). However, the bacterial properties in *Paramecium* was not evaluated. Then, I evaluated intracellular localization of Ofk308. As a result of infection assays in which GFP-expressing Ofk308 was added to 93 strains of *Paramecium* spp. (MOI = 10,000), the intracellular localization of Ofk308 was clearly observed in *P. tetraurelia* strains (data not shown). Therefore, I decided to use *P. tetraurelia* st110-1a as a model to analyze the relationship between Ofk308 and *Paramecium* spp. in the present study.

Ofk308 exhibits cytotoxicity toward several *Paramecium* strains in an MOIdependent manner (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, the cytotoxicity of Ofk308 toward *P. tetraurelia* was assessed. *P. tetraurelia* was infected with Ofk308 at different MOIs, and viable *P. tetraurelia* were counted 48 h after infection. At MOI \leq 5,000, the number of viable *P. tetraurelia* was the same as that of uninfected *P. tetraurelia*. However, at MOI = 10,000, the number of viable *P. tetraurelia* tended to decrease, and at MOI \geq 20,000, the number of viable *P. tetraurelia* decreased significantly compared with uninfected *P. tetraurelia* (Fig. 1). These results suggest that Ofk308 is cytotoxic to *P. tetraurelia* in an MOI-dependent manner.

TolC plays a crucial role in the cytotoxicity of L. pneumophila Ofk308

Type IV secretion systems of *L. pneumophila* play a major role in its replication within mammalian macrophages and amoebae (Al-Quadan et al., 2012). However, the lack of Type IV secretion systems does not affect the cytotoxicity of Ofk308 toward P. caudatum (Watanabe et al., 2016). Therefore, I focused on T1SS, which is a virulence factor of L. pneumophila to amoebae (Fuche et al., 2015). For this purpose, I constructed deletion mutants of *tolC*, *lssBD*, and *rtxA*. TolC is an outer membrane component of T1SS. LssBD serve as inner membrane and periplasmic components of T1SS, and RtxA is a substrate of T1SS (Fuche et al., 2015). Using these strains, I examined the cytotoxicity toward *P. tetraurelia* at MOI = 20,000. The *tolC*-deletion mutant lost its cytotoxicity toward P. tetraurelia, and its complementary strain recovered cytotoxicity comparable to that of the parental strain Ofk308 (Fig. 2). However, the number of viable P. tetraurelia decreased to the same degree as Ofk308 when the *lssBD*- and *rtxA*-deletion mutants were infected. These results indicate that the cytotoxicity of Ofk308 is dependent on TolC but not on T1SS.

The cytotoxicity of *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 is independent on the number of bacteria within *P. tetraurelia*

To investigate how Ofk308 exhibits cytotoxicity toward *P. tetraurelia* through a TolC dependent mechanism, I compared bacterial numbers in *P. tetraurelia* using Ofk308, the *tolC*-deletion mutant, and *E. coli* as a control. From 2 h to 48 h after infection at MOI = 20,000, the numbers of *E. coli* decreased but the numbers of Ofk308 and those of the *tolC*-deletion mutant were unchanged (Fig. 3). Comparable results were observed at lower MOIs (data not shown). In cells infected with Ofk308, the shape of *P. tetraurelia* changed unnaturally, although damage was not observed in cells infected with the *tolC*-deletion mutant. These results suggest that the number of bacteria in *P. tetraurelia* is not associated with cytotoxicity and that TolC is not involved in the mechanism of resistance against the digestion of *P. tetraurelia* in Ofk308.

L. pneumophila Ofk308 inhibits the phagocytic activity of *P. tetraurelia* through a TolC-dependent mechanism

Next, I focused on phagocytic activity of P. tetraurelia after mixing with Ofk308

because I hypothesized that the inhibition of phagocytic activity could cause cytotoxicity. *P. tetraurelia* exhibits high phagocytic activity (Plattner and Kissmehl, 2003), and *L. pneumophila* modulates host phagosomes to survive within them (Isberg *et al.*, 2009). In infection of *P. caudatum*, Ofk308 inhibits phagosome-lysosome fusion (PL-fusion) (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, I used a LysoTracker to evaluate the maturation of *P. tetraurelia* phagosomes containing Ofk308. I found that there was no difference between Ofk308 and the *tolC*-deletion mutant. 97.1% of LCVs were LysoTracker positive in cells infected with Ofk308 and 97.4% of LCVs were

Next, to assess the formation of phagosomes, TRDx-uptake assay was performed (according to the schedule shown in Fig. 5A). Dextran-containing vacuoles (DCVs) represent vacuoles that formed after adding TRDx. In cells infected with Ofk308, 5 min, 10 min, and 15 min after adding dextran, the average numbers of DCVs per cell were 2.5, 4.1, and 4.2, respectively. In contrast, in cells infected with the *tolC*-deletion mutant, the average numbers of DCVs were 5.8, 7.0, and 8.3, respectively (Fig. 5B and C). There were significant differences between Ofk308 and the *tolC*-deletion mutant. These results suggest that Ofk308 inhibits phagosome formation by *P. tetraurelia*

through a TolC-dependent mechanism.

L. pneumophila Ofk308 remains within *P. tetraurelia* through a TolC-dependent mechanism

Surviving in free-living protists is beneficial for L. pneumophila. L. pneumophila must inhibit the exocytosis of Paramecium to remain within them, because Paramecium exhibits high exocytic activity (Plattner and Kissmehl, 2003). I assumed that Ofk308 terminates the exocytic activities of P. tetraurelia. However, because of high mobility of P. tetraurelia, evaluation of the exocytic activities in individual P. tetraurelia is difficult. Therefore, the digestion vacuolar cycles of individual P. tetraurelia was observed under NiCl₂-induced paralysis (according to the schedule shown in Fig. 6A). By treated with NiCl₂, P. tetraurelia stopped swimming but cytoplasmic streaming was observed. 93.6% of P. tetraurelia possessed Ofk308-containing vacuoles for at least 40 min (Fig. 6B and C). In contrast, the *tolC*-deletion mutant-containing vacuoles were gradually excreted. Finally, most tolC-deletion mutants were excreted until 40 min and only 18.0% of P. tetraurelia possessed LCVs. These results suggest that P. tetraurelia failed to excrete undigested Ofk308 and that Ofk308 remained within cells through a TolC-dependent mechanism.

DISCUSSION

In the environment, L. pneumophila replicates within a protistan host. Previous reports reveal the mechanisms of infection and replication in protists such as amoeba and Tetrahymena (Richards et al., 2013; Al-Khodor et al., 2009). However, in these reports, the temperatures used for most infection procedures ranged from 30°C to 37°C, because these temperatures are appropriate for the culture of L. pneumophila and amoebae. Thus, it is possible that there are other mechanisms, which function at lower temperatures. In the present study, I used *P. tetraurelia* as a model protistan host of *L*. pneumophila. Paramecium spp. are candidates of natural host of L. pneumophila (Watanabe et al., 2016). Paramecium spp. are widely present in fresh water environments but their resistance to high temperature is lower compared with amoeba or Tetrahymena (Hori and Fujishima, 2003, Thatcher and Gorovsky, 1993). Thus, all infection assays in the present work were performed at 25°C, which is typical for Paramecium spp. culture conditions. Although the cytotoxicity of L. pneumophila toward amoeba decreases at lower temperature (Ohno et al., 2008), cytotoxicity of Ofk308 toward P. tetraurelia were clearly observed at 25°C in an MOI-dependent manner (Fig. 1). The association of L. pneumophila and Paramecium spp. can lead to the replication and spread of L. pneumophila in natural aquatic environments. For this

reason, my assay likely reflects the natural environmental conditions that are conducive to the survival of *L. pneumophila* and can be helpful to reveal the ecology of *L. pneumophila* in the environment.

The Dot/Icm system of L. pneumophila contributes to intracellular survival and replication in amoeba (Richards et al., 2013). However, in a previous report, the Dot/Icm system had no effect on cytotoxicity toward P. caudatum (Watanabe et al., 2016). Therefore, I focused on another secretion system, T1SS. Many gram-negative pathogenic bacteria such as E. coli and B. pertussis employ T1SS, whose association with bacterial virulence is established (Goebel and Hedgpeth, 1982; Glaser et al., 1988). The role of T1SS in intracellular bacteria has been investigated as well. Several T1SS substrates are present in Orientia tsutsugamushi and Ehrlichia chaffeensis (Wakeeletal et al., 2011; VieBrock et al., 2015). T1SS in L. pneumophila was investigated, and the roles of T1SS in pore-forming activity and intracellular replication is established (Fuche et al., 2015). In the present study, I evaluated the effects of T1SS on cytotoxicity toward P. tetraurelia using a deletion-mutant of T1SS. As a result, in infection with the tolCdeletion mutant, decreased cytotoxicity was observed (Fig. 2). However, other components of T1SS, including the T1SS substrate RtxA, did not affect cytotoxicity.

These results suggest that TolC of L. pneumophila possesses another function separate from T1SS and that this function may be important in cytotoxicity of L. pneumophila toward P. tetraurelia. TolC forms several multidrug efflux pumps (Symmons et al., 2015), and TolC of L. pneumophila contributes to multidrug-resistance (Ferhat et al., 2009). Multidrug efflux pumps are associated with the virulence of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (Buckley et al., 2006; Nishino et al., 2006). Therefore, an efflux pump composed of TolC may provide an important function in cytotoxicity of L. pneumophila toward P. tetraurelia. Further, Rickettsia typhi may employ another TolCdependent secretion mechanism (Kaur et al., 2012). In this model, an ankyrin repeatcontaining protein translocates to the periplasm via the Sec translocon. This protein is secreted via TolC. How TolC recognizes this protein in the periplasm is unknown, and it is unclear if L. pneumophila employs a similar secretion mechanism. Further study is therefore required to determine the function of TolC in L. pneumophila.

Legionella-endosymbiosis modulating factor A (LefA) regulates the relationship between *L. pneumophila* and *Paramecium* spp. (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). LefA is associated with intracellular replication and inhibition of PL-fusions in *P. caudatum*. In mammalian macrophages or amoebae, *L. pneumophila* modifies host phagosomes and avoids PL-fusions (Richards *et al.*, 2013, Xu and Luo, 2013). Therefore, I examined the effects of TolC on intracellular replication and PL-fusions of *P. tetraurelia* with Ofk308. As a result, the same levels of intracellular localization and PL-fusions were observed in infections with Ofk308 and the *tolC*-deletion mutant (Fig. 3 and Fig. 4). These results indicate that Ofk308 avoids *P. tetraurelia* digestion independently of TolC. The mechanism of the resistance to digestion is unclear, but temperature may serve as a key factor, because all experiments were performed at 25°C.

Paramecium spp. possess high phagocytic and exocytic activities (Plattner and Kissmehl, 2003). In contrast, *Chlorella*, which is known as an endosymbiont of *P. bursaria*, remains for at least 72 h (Kodama and Fujishima, 2005). The symbiotic relationship between *P. bursaria* and *Chlorella* was well investigated. Then, endosymbionts of *Paramecium* may inhibit phagocytic and exocytic activities. I show here that ToIC played a role in the inhibition of the excretion of LCVs (Fig. 6). This inhibition follows that *L. pneumophila* remains within the host *Paramecium*. Therefore, ToIC may represent a crucial factor required for Ofk308 to remain within *P. tetraurelia* and to establish symbiosis.

High concentrations of Ofk308 exhibited cytotoxicity toward P. tetraurelia through a TolC dependent mechanism (Fig. 1 and 2). In infections with P. caudatum, significant intracellular replication of Ofk308 occurs and causes the death of the host P. *caudatum* (Watanabe *et al.*, 2016). Thus, intracellular replication can represent a major cause of death. However, in the present study, such intracellular replication of Ofk308 was not observed in *P. tetraurelia* (Fig. 2). Therefore, I reasoned that the inhibition of phagosome formation can cause the death of *P. tetraurelia*. After infection with *P.* tetraurelia, Ofk308 inhibited new phagosome formation through a TolC-dependent mechanism (Fig. 5). In *Paramecium* spp., the membrane used to form new phagosomes is provided by recruitment of cytoplasmic discoidal vesicles that originate, in part, at the cytoproct (Guerrier et al., 2017; Steinman et al., 1983). Thus, excess Ofk308 remaining within *P. tetraurelia* cells can stop the recycling of the phagosome membrane to form new phagosomes. As a result, *P. tetraurelia* may starve and subsequently die because of poor nutrition. Further, the inhibition of phagosome formation can result in inhibition of invasion of other microbes to Paramecium. In natural condition, L. pneumophila may inhibit phagocytic activities by TolC dependent mechanism to occupy host Paramecium.

TABLES AND FIGURES

Strain	Characteristics	Source or reference
Legionella pneumophila		
Ofk308	Isolated from environmental water	Tachibana et al. (2013)
Ofk308 ∆tolC	tolC-deletion mutant of Ofk308	This study
Ofk308 ∆tolC/tolC	Ofk308 <i>∆tolC</i> carrying pAM239-TolC	This study
Escherichia coli		
DH5a	$\Phi 80 lac Z\Delta M 15$, $\Delta (lac ZYA-arg F) U 169$, recA1,	Takara
	endA1, hsdR17, supE44, thi-1, gyrA96, relA1	
DH5 α λ pir	DH5α (λ pir) tet::Mu recA	Takara
JM109	recA1, endA1, gyrA96, thi-1, hsdR17, e14-	Takara
	(mcrA-), supE44, relA1, Δ (lac-proAB)	
Plasmids		
pAM239-GFP	pMMB-derived vector encoding GFP, CmR	Watarai et al. (2001)
pAcGFP	pUC19-derived vector encoding AcGFP1,	Takara
	AmpR	
pSR47s	ori R6K ori TRP4 sacB , KmR	Andrews et al. (1997)
pAM239-TolC	pAM239 vector expressing TolC, CmR	This study

Table 1. Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study

Primer	Sequence	Target region
tolCuF	ACCGCGGTGGCGGCCGCTGCGAGTGGCAATTGC	upstream of the 5'
toCuR	CGAATTGGATCCAAATTTAGGTTTTCTTATGTC	end of <i>tolC</i>
tolCdF	ACCTAAATTTGGATCCTCGAGCTTTCCCTAGAAAAC	downstream of the
tolCdR	ATCCTCTAGAGTCGCAAAATGCTCTGGTGTTCC	3' end of <i>tolC</i>
lssBDuF	ATCCTCTAGAGTCGACTTACCAGATTGCTGATGC	upstream of the 5'
lssBDuR	TTGCTTAATGATTGTCTTCTCGGAGTATTC	end of <i>lssB</i>
lssBDdF	ACAATCATTAAGCAATCAGCACTTAGAGAG	downstream of the
lssBDdR	ACCGCGGTGGCGGCCGCGTGATTCCAGCGAATTAG	3' end of <i>lssD</i>
rtxAuF	ATCCTCTAGAGTCGACCAAGCGATAAGGTAATAATTG	upstream of the 5'
rtxAuR	GTTCATCGTTCTGTCCTCAAAGTTTACTATT	end of <i>rtxA</i>
rtxAdF	GACAGAACGATGAACCCATTACATTGGTG	downstream of the
rtxAdR	TAGAACTAGTGGATCCGCAGAAGAGCGTATGCCA	3' end of <i>rtxA</i>
tolCcF	CGAATTGAATTCGTTTTCTAGGGAAAGCTCG	tolC
tolCcR	CGAATTCTGCAGTGTGAATGAATCTTTTCC	

Table 2. Primers used in this study.



Figure 1. L. pneumophila Ofk308 exhibits cytotoxicity toward P. tetraurelia in an

MOI-dependent manner.

The number of *P. tetraurelia* 48 h after infection. *P. tetraurelia* was infected with Ofk308 at MOIs = 5,000, 10,000, 20,000 40,000, and 80,000. Data are expressed as the average of three identical experiments, and the error bars represent standard deviations. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with Non-infection (**P* < 0.05).



Figure 2. The *tolC*-deletion mutant of *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 is defective for cytotoxicity.

P. tetraurelia was infected with Ofk308, the *tolC*-deletion mutant (*tolC*), the lssBDdeletion mutant (*lssBD*), the rtxA-deletion mutant (*rtxA*), or the *tolC*-complementary strain (*tolC/tolC*) at MOI = 20,000. Data are presented as the average of three identical experiments, and the error bars represent standard deviations. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences compared with Ofk308 (**P < 0.01).



В



Figure 3. The number of *L. pneumophila* in *P. tetraurelia* is constant.

(A) GFP-expressing bacteria, Ofk308, the *tolC*-deletion mutant (*tolC*), and *E. coli* JM109 in *P. tetraurelia* 2 h, 24 h, and 48 h after infection at MOI = 20,000. Arrows point to unnaturally-shaped *P. tetraurelia*. (B) Number of bacteria per *P. tetraurelia*. Data are expressed as the average of three identical experiments, and the error bars represent standard deviations.



Figure 4. The maturation of host LCVs containing *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 is not inhibited.

(A) LCV maturation 30 min after infection was evaluated using LysoTracker. Ofk308 or the *tolC*-deletion mutant (*tolC*) was added to *P. tetraurelia* at MOI = 20,000. (B) The percentage of LysoTracker-positive LCVs. Data are expressed as the average of three identical experiments, and the error bars represent standard deviations.

Α Dextran Infection Washing (Texas Red) Sampling -60 5 10 15 min ΰ





5 min

Figure 5. *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 inhibits phagosome formation by *P. tetraurelia* through a TolC-dependent mechanism.

(A) Bacteria and TRDx were added to *P. tetraurelia* according to this schedule. The number of DCVs was counted at each indicated time point. (B) DCVs in *P. tetraurelia* infected with Ofk308 and *tolC* at each indicated time point. DCVs are red, and *Legionella*-containing vacuoles are green. (C) The number of DCVs in individual *P. tetraurelia*. Data are expressed as the average of three identical experiments, and error bars represent standard deviations. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences (*P < 0.05).



Figure 6. *L. pneumophila* Ofk308 inhibits excretion of LCVs from *P. tetraurelia* through a TolC-dependent mechanism.

(A) Images of individual *P. tetraurelia* under NiCl₂-induced paralysis were taken according to this schedule. (B) LCVs in individual *P. tetraurelia* at each indicated time point. LCVs are white. (C) The percentages of LCV-containing *P. tetraurelia* at 0 min and 40 min. Data are expressed as the average of three identical experiments, and the error bars represent standard deviations. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences (**P < 0.01).

CONCLUSION

Legionnaires' disease was first recognized in 1976, when an outbreak of pneumonia occurred in Philadelphia (Fraser *et al.*, 1977). Since this outbreak, the pathogenesis of this disease have been clarified. Artificial aquatic environments are known to be reservoir, and amoebae are the host of *L. pneumophila* in such environments. Further, the virulence mechanisms like Dot/Icm secretion system have been revealed. Despite these knowledges, the incidence of this disease are rising (Ameura-Maekawa *et al.*, 2018, CDC, 2018), and the studies on the ecology of *L. pneumophila* in the environment are insufficient. Therefore, I focused on environmental strains.

In chapter 1, I characterized a small cryptic plasmid pOfk55 from *L*. *pneumophila* Ofk308, which I used to construct pNT562 as a shuttle vector for *L*. *pneumophila-E. coli*. Because this vector is originated from *L. pneumophila*, it can be a more useful tool for the genetic analysis of *L. pneumophila* compared with other vectors. Actually, the stability and transformation efficiency of this plasmid were higher, and the *gfpmut3* gene was expressed successfully in *L. pneumophila* and *E. coli* DH5 α using this plasmid. Further, this new finding based on environmental strains implies that the analysis of environmental strain is helpful to obtain new aspects of *L. pneumophila*.

In chapter 2, I focused on the relationship between L. pneumophila and

Paramecium in the environment and found TolC as an important factor of L.

pneumophila to remain in Paramecium as a host. Because of the high mobility and high cell division rate of Paramecium spp., remaining within Paramecium cells would beneficial for L. pneumophila to expand its habitat, and the association between L. pneumophila and Paramecium spp. in the environment can enhance the risk of infection to human. It is still unclear whether Paramecium serves as a host of L. pneumophila in natural environments. However, *Paramecium* can uptake *L. pneumophila*, and *L.* pneumophila can remain/glow in Paramecium. Moreover, their habitats are overlapping. These facts suggest that L. pneumophila lives together with Paramecium and establish various relationships such as symbiosis and parasitism. In this study, cytotoxicity of L. pneumophila toward Paramecium was observed only at a high MOI. Although, in natural condition, such a high MOI would not occur, some L. pneumophila strains exponentially replicate in *Paramecium* spp. (Watanabe et al., 2015). Therefore, the infection assay at a high MOI can represent the interaction between *Paramecium* and *L*. pneumophila after replication in host cells.

To control Legionaries' disease, understanding the ecology of *L. pneumophila* in the environment including the association with protists can be a clue. My work promises to facilitate further studies focused on the ecology of *L. pneumophila* in the environment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to many people who help me to achieve this dissertation.

My heartfelt appreciation goes to Prof. Dr. Masahisa Watarai (Joint Facility of Veterinary Medicine, Yamaguchi University: JFVM) whose enormous support and insightful comments were invaluable during the course of my study. I am also indebted to Prof. Dr. Masako Andoh (The United Graduate School of Veterinary Science, Kagoshima University), Associate Prof. Dr. Takashi Shimizu (JFVM), Assistant Prof. Dr. Kenta Watanabe (JFVM) and Assistant Prof. Dr. Masato Tachibana (The Graduate School of Medicine, Dentistry and Pharmaceutical Sciences, Okayama University) whose meticulous comments and technical instruction were an enormous help to me. I am also grateful to Prof. Dr. Msahiro Fujishima (The Graduate School of Sciences and Technology for Innovation, Yamaguchi University) for providing me the research material and advices in *Paramecium* experiment. In addition, I would like to acknowledge Naho Hara (JFVM) for cordial assistance in *Paramecium* infection experiment. I sincerely thank Prof. Dr. Midori Shimada (JFVM) and Dr. Hidekazu Niwa (Microbiology Division, Epizootic Research Center, Equine Research Institute, Japan Racing Association) for critical reading of the manuscript.

Finally, I would also like to express my gratitude to my Laboratory member, Dr. Masanori Hashino, Dr. Jin Suzuki, Dr. Yussaira Castillo, Dr. Shib Shankar Saha and Yui Kimura and for their cooperation and assistance in many aspects. A million thanks.

70

REFERENCES

- Al-Khodor, S., Kalachikov, S., Morozova, I., Price, C. T., and Abu Kwaik, Y. (2009). The PmrA/PmrB two-component system of *Legionella pneumophila* is a global regulator required for intracellular replication within macrophages and protozoa. Infect. Immun. 77, 374–386.
- Amemura-Maekawa, J., Kura, F., Chida, K., Ohya, H., Kanatani, J. I., Isobe, J. *et al.* (2018). *Legionella pneumophila* and Other *Legionella* Species Isolated from Legionellosis Patients in Japan between 2008 and 2016. Appl Environ Microbiol. 84, 18.
- Andrews, H. L., Vogel, J. P., Isberg, R. R. (1998). Identification of linked *Legionella pneumophila* genes essential for intracellular growth and evasion of the endocytic pathway. Infect. Immun. 66, 950–958.
- Barker, J., Scaife, H., and Brown, M. R. (1995). Intraphagocytic growth induces an antibiotic-resistant phenotype of *Legionella pneumophila*. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 39, 2684–2688.
- Berger, K. H., Isberg, R. R. (1993). Two distinct defects in intracellular growth complemented by a single genetic locus in *Legionella pneumophila*. Mol. Microbiol. 7, 7–19.
- Buckley, A. M., Webber, M. A., Cooles, S., Randall, L. P., La Ragione, R. M.,
 Woodward, M. J., *et al.* (2006). The AcrAB-TolC efflux system of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium plays a role in pathogenesis. Cell. Microbiol. 8, 847– 856.
- Burstein, D., Amaro, F., Zusman, T., Lifshitz, Z., Cohen, O., Gilbert, J. A., et al. (2016).

Genomic analysis of 38 *Legionella* species identifies large and diverse effector repertoires. Nat Genet. 48, 167–75.

- Brown, A., Vickers, R. M., Elder, E. M., Lema, M., Garrity, G. M. (1982). Plasmid and surface antigen markers of endemic and epidemic *Legionella pneumophila* strains.J. Clin. Microbiol. 16, 230–235.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (2018). Legionnaires' disease Surveillance Summary Report, 2014–2015
- Christie, P. J. (2001). Type IV secretion: intercellular transfer of macromolecules by systems ancestrally related to conjugation machines. Mol. Microbiol. 40, 294–305.
- Cunha, B. A., Burillo, A., Bouza, E. (2016). Legionnaires' disease. Lancet 387, 376– 385.
- Declerck, P., Behets, J., van Hoef, V., and Ollevier, F. (2007). Detection of *Legionella* spp. and some of their amoeba hosts in floating biofilms from anthropogenic and natural aquatic environments. Water Res. 41, 3159–3167.
- Den Boer, J. W., Bruin, J. P., Verhoef, L. P., Van der Zwaluw, K., Jansen, R., Yzerman,
 E. P. (2008). Genotypic comparison of clinical *Legionella* isolates and patientrelated environmental isolates in The Netherlands, 2002-2006. Clin Microbiol Infect. 14, 459–66.

Diederen, B. M. (2008). Legionella spp. and Legionnaires' disease. J Infect. 56, 1-12.

Doleans, A., Aurell, H., Reyrolle, M., Lina, G., Freney, J., Vandenesch, F., *et al.* (2004).
 Clinical and environmental distributions of *Legionella* strains in France are different. J Clin Microbiol. 42, 458–60.

Dryl, S. (1959). Antigenic transformation in Paramecium aurelia after homologous
antiserum treatment during autogamy and conjugation. J. Protozool. 6:25.

- Duncan, A. B., Fellous, S., Accot, R., Alart, M., Chantung Sobandi, K., Cosiaux, A., et al. (2010). Parasite-mediated protection against osmotic stress for *Paramecium caudatum* infected by *Holospora undulata* is host genotype specific. FEMS Microbiol. Ecol. 74, 353–360.
- Engleberg, N. C., Cianciotto, N., Smith, J., Eisenstein, B. I. (1988). Transfer and maintenance of small, mobilizable plasmids with ColE1 replication origins in *Legionella pneumophila*. Plasmid 20, 83–91.
- Ferhat, M., Atlan, D., Vianney, A., Lazzaroni, J. C., Doublet, P., and Gilbert, C. (2009). The TolC protein of *Legionella pneumophila* plays a major role in multi-drug resistance and the early steps of host invasion. PLoS One 4:e7732.
- Fields, B. S., Shotts, E. B. Jr., Feeley, J. C., Gorman, G. W., and Martin, W. T. (1984). Proliferation of *Legionella pneumophila* as an intracellular parasite of the ciliated protozoan *Tetrahymena pyriformis*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 47, 467–471.
- Fliermans, C. B., Cherry, W. B., Orrison, L. H., Smith, S. J., Tison, D. L., and Pope, D.
 H. (1981). Ecological distribution of *Legionella pneumophila*. Appl. Environ.
 Microbiol. 41, 9–16.
- Fraser, D. W., Tsai, T. R., Orenstein, W., Parkin, W. E., Beecham, H. J., Sharrar, R. G. *et al.* (1977). Legionnaires' disease: description of an epidemic of pneumonia. N Engl J Med. 297, 1189–97.
- Fuche, F., Vianney, A., Andrea, C., Doublet, P., and Gilbert, C. (2015). Functional type 1 secretion system involved in *Legionella pneumophila* virulence. J. Bacteriol. 197, 563–571.
- Fujishima, M., Kawai, M., and Yamamoto, R. (2005). Paramecium caudatum acquires

heat-shock resistance in ciliary movement by infection with the endonuclear symbiotic bacterium *Holospora obtusa*. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 243, 101–105.

- Fujishima, M., Sawabe, H., and Iwatsuki, K. (1990). Scanning electron microscopic observation of differentiation from the reproductive short form to the infectious long form of *Holospora obtusa*. J. Protozool. 37, 123–128.
- Gaia, V., Fry, N. K., Afshar, B., Lück, P. C., Meugnier, H., Etienne, J., Peduzzi, R.,
 Harrison, T.G. (2005). Consensus sequence-based scheme for epidemiological
 typing of clinical and environmental isolates of *Legionella pneumophila*. J. Clin.
 Microbiol. 43, 2047–2052.
- Glaser, P., Sakamoto, H., Bellalou, J., Ullmann, A., and Danchin, A. (1988). Secretion of cyclolysin, the calmodulin-sensitive adenylate cyclase-haemolysin bifunctional protein of *Bordetella pertussis*. EMBO J. 7, 3997–4004.
- Glöckner, G., Albert-Weissenberger, C., Weinmann, E., Jacobi, S., Schunder, E.,
 Steinert, M., Hacker, J., Heuner, K. (2008). Identification and characterization of a new conjugation/type IVA secretion system (trb/tra) of *Legionella pneumophila*Corby localized on two mobile genomic islands. Int. J. Med. Microbiol. 298, 411–428.
- Goebel, W., and Hedgpeth, J. (1982). Cloning and functional characterization of the plasmid-encoded hemolysin determinant of *Escherichia coli*. J. Bacteriol. 151, 1290–1298.
- Gomez-Valero, L., Rusniok, C., Jarraud, S., Vacherie, B., Rouy, Z., Barbe, V., Medigue,
 C., Etienne, J., Buchrieser, C. (2011). Extensive recombination events and
 horizontal gene transfer shaped the *Legionella pneumophila* genomes. BMC
 Genomics 12, 536.

- Gomez-Valero, L., Rusniok, C., Rolando, M., Neou, M., Dervins-Ravault, D., Demirtas,J. *et al.* (2014). Comparative analyses of *Legionella* species identifies geneticfeatures of strains causing Legionnaires' disease. Genome Biol. 15, 505.
- Görtz, H. D., and Fokin, S. I. (2009). Diversity of endosymbiotic bacteria in *Paramecium*. Microbiol. Monogr. 12, 131–160.
- Greub, G., and Raoult, D. (2004). Microorganisms resistant to free-living amoebae. Clin. Microbiol. Rev. 17, 413–433.
- Guerrier, S., Plattner, H., Richardson, E., Dacks, J. B., and Turkewitz, A. P. (2017). An evolutionary balance: conservation vs innovation in ciliate membrane trafficking. Traffic 18, 18–28.
- Harrison, T. G., Doshi, N., Fry, N. K., Joseph, C. A. (2007). Comparison of clinical and environmental isolates of Legionella pneumophila obtained in the UK over 19 years. Clin Microbiol Infect. 13, 78–85.
- Hefford, M. A., Kobayashi, Y., Allard, S. E., Forster, R. J., Teather, R. M. (1997).
 Sequence analysis and characterization of pOM1, a small cryptic plasmid from *Butyrivibrio fibrisolvens*, and its use in construction of a new family of cloning vectors for *Butyrivibrios*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 63, 1701–1711.
- Hori, M., and Fujishima, M. (2003). The endosymbiotic bacterium *Holospora obtusa* enhances heat-shock gene expression of the host *Paramecium caudatum*. J. Eukaryot. Microbiol. 50, 293–298.
- Isberg, R. R., O'Connor, T. J., and Heidtman, M. (2009). The *Legionella pneumophila* replication vacuole: making a cosy niche inside host cells. Nat. Rev. Microbiol. 7, 13–24.
- Kaur, S. J., Rahman, M. S., Ammerman, N. C., Beier-Sexton, M., Ceraul, S. M.,

Gillespie, J. J., *et al.* (2012). TolC-dependent secretion of an ankyrin repeat containing protein of *Rickettsia* typhi. J. Bacteriol. 194, 4920–4932.

- Knudson, G.B., and Mikesell, P. (1980). A plasmid in *Legionella pneumophila*. Infect. Immun. 29, 1092–1095.
- Kodama, Y., and Fujishima, M. (2005). Symbiotic *Chlorella* sp. of the ciliate *Paramecium bursaria* do not prevent acidification and lysosomal fusion of host digestive vacuoles during infection. Protoplasma 225, 191–203.
- Koronakis, V., Sharff, A., Koronakis, E., Luisi, B., and Hughes, C. (2000). Crystal structure of the bacterial membrane protein TolC central to multidrug efflux and protein export. Nature 405, 914–919.
- Lévesque, S., Plante, P. L., Mendis, N., Cantin, P., Marchand, G., Charest, H., *et al.*(2014). Genomic characterization of a large outbreak of *Legionella pneumophila* serogroup 1 strains in Quebec City, 2012. PLoS One 9, e103852.
- López de Felipe, F. (1993). Cloning, mapping and conjugal mobility of pLPG36, a common plasmid from *Legionella pneumophila* serogroup-1. J. Gen.Microbiol. 139, 3171–3175.
- Maher, W. E., Plouffe, J. F., Para, M. F. (1983). Plasmid profiles of clinical and environmental isolates of *Legionella pneumophila* serogroup 1. J. Clin. Microbiol. 18, 1422–1423.
- Marra, A., Shuman, H. A. (1989). Isolation of a *Legionella pneumophila* restriction mutant with increased ability to act as a recipient in heterospecific matings. J. Bacteriol. 171, 2238–2240.
- Meyer, R., 2009. Replication and conjugative mobilization of broad host-range IncQ plasmids. Plasmid 62, 57–70.

- Miller, W. G., and Lindow, S. E. (1997). An improved GFP cloning cassette designed for prokaryotic transcriptional fusions. Gene 191, 149–153.
- Mintz, C. S., Fields, B. S., Zou, C. H. (1992). Isolation and characterization of a conjugative plasmid from *Legionella pneumophila*. J. Gen. Microbiol. 138, 1379– 1386.
- Molmeret, M., Bitar, D. M., Han, L., Kwaik, Y. A. (2004). Cell biology of the intracellular infection by *Legionella pneumophila*. Microbes Infect. 6, 129–139.
- Nishino, K., Latifi, T., and Groisman, E. A. (2006). Virulence and drug resistance roles of multidrug efflux systems of *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium. Mol. Microbiol. 59, 126–141.
- Ohno, A., Kato, N., Sakamoto, R., Kimura, S., and Yamaguchi, K. (2008). Temperaturedependent parasitic relationship between *Legionella pneumophila* and a free-living amoeba (*Acanthamoeba castellanii*). Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 74, 4585–4588.
- Park, J. Y., Jeong, S. J., Sa, H. D., Lee, J. Y., Liu, X., Cho, M. J., *et al.* (2015).
 Construction of a shuttle vector based on the small cryptic plasmid pJY33 from *Weissella cibaria* 33. Plasmid 79, 30–36.
- Parte, A. C. (2018). LPSN List of Prokaryotic names with standing in nomenclature (bacterio.net), 20 years on. Int J Syst Evol Microbiol. 68, 1825–1829
- Paszko-Kolva, C., Shahamat, M., and Colwell, R. R. (1992). Long-term survival of *Legionella pneumophila* serogroup 1 under low-nutrient conditions and associated morphological changes. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 102, 45–55.
- Plattner, H. (2010). Membrane trafficking in protozoa SNARE proteins, HC- ATPase, actin, and other key players in ciliates. Int. Rev. Cell Mol. Biol. 280, 79–184.

Plattner, H., and Kissmehl, R. (2003). Molecular aspects of membrane trafficking in

Paramecium. Int. Rev. Cytol. 232, 185-216.

- Qin, T., Iida, K., Hirakawa, H., Shiota, S., Nakayama, H., Yoshida, S. (2009).
 Conjugative plasmid pLD-TEX-KL promotes growth of host bacterium *Legionella dumoffii* at low temperatures. Arch. Microbiol. 191, 543–551.
- Ratzow, S., Gaia, V., Helbig, J. H., Fry, N. K., Lück, P. C. (2007). Addition of *neuA*, the gene encoding N-acylneuraminate cytidylyl transferase, increases the discriminatory ability of the consensus sequence-based scheme for typing *Legionella pneumophila* serogroup 1 strains. J. Clin. Microbiol. 45, 1965–1968.
- Richards, A. M., Von Dwingelo, J. E., Price, C. T., and Abu Kwaik, Y. (2013). Cellular microbiology and molecular ecology of *Legionella*-amoeba interaction. Virulence 4, 307–314.
- Rowbotham, T. J. (1980). Preliminary report on the pathogenicity of *Legionella pneumophila* for freshwater and soil amoebae. J. Clin. Pathol. 33, 1179–1183.
- Ruiz-Masó, J. A., MachóN, C., Bordanaba-Ruiseco, L., Espinosa, M., Coll, M., Del Solar, G. (2015). Plasmid rolling-circle replication. Microbiol Spectr. 3, PLAS-0035-2014.
- Segal, G., and Shuman, H. A. (1998). Intracellular multiplication and human macrophage killing by *Legionella pneumophila* are inhibited by conjugal components of IncQ plasmid RSF1010. Mol. Microbiol. 30, 197–208.
- Seubert, A., Falch, C., Birtles, R.J., Schulein, R., Dehio, C. (2003). Characterization of the cryptic plasmid pBGR1 from *Bartonella grahamii* and construction of a versatile *Escherichia coli-Bartonella* spp. shuttle cloning vector. Plasmid 49, 44–52

Sexton, J. A., and Vogel, J. P. (2002). Type IVB secretion by intracellular pathogens.

Traffic 3, 178-185.

- Steinman, R. M., Mellman, I. S., Muller, W. A., and Cohn, Z. A. (1983). Endocytosis and the recycling of plasma membrane. J. Cell Biol. 96, 1–27.
- Symmons, M. F., Marshall, R. L., and Bavro, V. N. (2015). Architecture and roles of periplasmic adaptor proteins in tripartite efflux assemblies. Front. Microbiol. 6:513.
- Tachibana, M., Nakamoto, M., Kimura, Y., Shimizu, T., Watarai, M. (2013). Characterization of *Legionella pneumophila* isolated from environmental water and ashiyu foot spa. Biomed. Res. Int., 514395.
- Thatcher, T. H., and Gorovsky, M. A. (1993). A temperature-sensitive cell cycle arrest mutation affecting H1 phosphorylation and nuclear localization of a small heat shock protein in *Tetrahymena thermophila*. Exp. Cell Res. 209, 261–270.
- Thomas, S., Holland, I. B., and Schmitt, L. (2014). The Type 1 secretion pathway the hemolysin system and beyond. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1843, 1629–1641.
- Tully, M. (1991). A plasmid from a virulent strain of *Legionella pneumophila* is conjugative and confers resistance to ultraviolet light. FEMS Microbiol. Lett. 69, 43–48.
- VieBrock, L., Evans, S. M., Beyer, A. R., Larson, C. L., Beare, P. A., Ge, H., *et al.* (2015). *Orientia tsutsugamushi* ankyrin repeat-containing protein family members are Type 1 secretion system substrates that traffic to the host cell endoplasmic reticulum. Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol. 4:186.
- Wakeel, A., den Dulk-Ras, A., Hooykaas, P. J., andMcBride, J. W. (2011). *Ehrlichia chaffeensis* tandem repeat proteins and Ank200 are type 1 secretion system substrates related to the repeats-in-toxin exoprotein family. Front. Cell. Infect. Microbiol. 1:22.

- Watanabe, K., Suzuki, H., Nakao, R., Shimizu, T., Watarai, M. (2015). Draft genome sequences of five *Legionella pneumophila* strains isolated from environmental water samples. Genome Announc. 3, e00474-15.
- Watanabe, K., Nakao, R., Fujishima, M., Tachibana, M., Shimizu, T., Watarai, M.
 (2016). Ciliate *Paramecium* is a natural reservoir of *Legionella pneumophila*. Sci Rep. 6, 24322.
- Watarai, M., Andrews, H. L., Isberg, R. R. (2001). Formation of a fibrous structure on the surface of *Legionella pneumophila* associated with exposure of DotH and DotO proteins after intracellular growth. Mol. Microbiol. 39, 313–329.
- Watarai, M., Derre, I., Kirby, J., Growney, J. D., Dietrich, W. F., and Isberg, R. R. (2001). *Legionella pneumophila* is internalized by a macropinocytotic uptake pathway controlled by the Dot/Icm system and the mouse Lgn1 locus. J. Exp. Med. 194, 1081–1096.
- Winiecka-Krusnell, J., and Linder, E. (1999). Free-living amoebae protecting *Legionella* in water: the tip of an iceberg? Scand. J. Infect. Dis. 31, 383–385.
- Xu, L., and Luo, Z. Q. (2013). Cell biology of infection by *Legionella pneumophila*.Microbes Infect. 15, 157–167.
- Yu, V. L., Plouffe, J. F., Pastoris, M. C., Stout, J. E., Schousboe, M., Widmer, A. *et al.* (2002). Distribution of *Legionella* species and serogroups isolated by culture in patients with sporadic community-acquired legionellosis: an international collaborative survey. J Infect Dis. 186, 127–128
- Zgurskaya, H. I., Krishnamoorthy, G., Ntreh, A., and Lu, S. (2011). Mechanism and function of the outer membrane channel TolC in multidrug resistance and physiology of enterobacteria. Front. Microbiol. 2:189.