

Bacterial inhibition of CD8 + T-cells mediated cell death promotes neuroinvasion and within-host persistence

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Abstract

27 Central nervous system infections are amongst the most severe^{1,2}, yet the mechanisms by which pathogens access the brain remain poorly understood. The model microorganism *Listeria monocytogenes* (*Lm*) is a major foodborne pathogen that causes neurolisteriosis, one of the α deadliest central nervous system infections^{3,4}. While immunosuppression is a well-established μ host risk factor for neurolisteriosis^{3,5}, little is known regarding the bacterial factors underlying *Lm* neuroinvasion. We have developed a clinically-relevant experimental model of neurolisteriosis, using hypervirulent neuroinvasive strains⁶ inoculated in a humanized mouse model of infection⁷, and we show that the bacterial protein InlB protects infected monocytes from CD8+ T-cells Fas-mediated cell death, in a c-Met/PI3-kinase/FLIP-dependent manner. This blockade of anti-*Lm* specific cellular immune response lengthens infected monocytes lifespan, favoring *Lm* transfer from infected monocytes to the brain. The intracellular niche created by InlB-mediated cell-autonomous immunosuppression also promotes *Lm* fecal shedding, accounting for its selection as a *Lm* core virulence gene. Here, we have uncovered an unanticipated specific mechanism by which a bacterial pathogen confers to the cells it infects an increased lifespan by rendering them resistant to cell-mediated immunity. This promotes *Lm* within-host persistence and dissemination to the central nervous system, and transmission.

51 Bacterial infections of the central nervous system (CNS) are often fatal^{1,2}, yet little is known ⁵² regarding the molecular mechanisms underlying microbial neuroinvasion. *Listeria* ⁵³ *monocytogenes* (*Lm*) is a foodborne pathogen that causes neurolisteriosis, one of the deadliest CNS infections3,4 ⁵⁴ . Consistent with its key role in immunity against *Lm*, T-cell based μ ₅₅ immunosuppression is a major host risk factor for neurolisteriosis^{3,5}. In contrast, the bacterial ⁵⁶ factors promoting *Lm* neuroinvasion and their mechanisms of action are poorly understood. ⁵⁷ Earlier studies have pointed towards the involvement of monocytes in transferring *Lm* from the b blood to the brain^{8,9}. However, these investigations were performed with reference laboratory *Lm* strains, which are actually poorly neuroinvasive⁶, and require very high bacterial inocula to ⁶⁰ induce some degree of CNS infection in experimental animal models. This is consistent with ⁶¹ the observation that these strains belong to clonal complexes very rarely responsible for human 62 neurolisteriosis^{3,6}. In contrast, clinically-associated clonal complexes are hypervirulent and 63 more neuroinvasive⁶. In order to investigate the mechanisms underlying *Lm* neuroinvasion, we ⁶⁴ developed a clinically-relevant experimental model of neurolisteriosis based on the inoculation 65 of hypervirulent neuroinvasive Lm strains⁶ in a humanized mouse model⁷.

Infected inflammatory monocytes mediate *Lm* **neuroinvasion**

67 We inoculated orally Lm in humanized KIE16P mice⁷. In contrast to the reference laboratory strain EGDe that belongs to clonal complex (CC) $9^{10,11}$, clinical isolates belonging to the hypervirulent clonal complexes CC1, 4 and 6 systematically induce high-level neuroinvasion, zo as previously reported⁶, starting at 3 days post-inoculation (dpi) (Fig. 1a). At 5 dpi, the bacterial brain load is the same with or without administration of gentamicin (Fig. 1b), an antibiotic that kills extracellular but not intracellular *Lm* (Extended Data Fig. 1a, b), indicating that intracellular bacteria are involved in neuroinvasion. Consistent with the occurrence of neuroinvasion in the presence of gentamicin, *Lm* is detected intracellularly in the blood and ⁷⁵ spleen, mainly in inflammatory monocytes (CD45⁺CD11b⁺ Ly6C⁺CD3⁻CD19⁻CD11c⁻ Ly6G⁻) (Fig. 1c, d and Extended Data Fig. 1c-e), suggesting that monocytes are involved in *Lm* neuroinvasion. This was assessed by infecting $Ccr2^{-/-}$ mice, in which monocytes are retained in the bone marrow and are therefore less abundant in the blood and spleen¹² (Extended Data Fig. 1f). Indeed, from day 1 to 3 post-inoculation, more bacteria are gradually recovered in the brain of WT mice as compared to $Ccr2^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 1e). Moreover, the transfer of infected monocytes from donor-infected mice into gentamicin-treated uninfected recipient mice is sufficient to induce neuroinvasion, and *Lm* can be recovered from the brain of recipient mice as early as day 2 post-transfer (Fig. 1f). In contrast, the transfer of infected monocytes from mice expressing the diphteria toxin (DT) receptor in myeloid cells $(Lv s M - CreER^{T2} \times iDTR)$ into recipient mice treated with DT leads to liver and spleen infection but no brain infection, even as late as 4 days post-transfer (Extended Data Fig. 1g, h). Together, these results indicate that infected monocytes are necessary and sufficient to induce neuroinvasion.

 Infected monocytes were observed adhering to the endothelium of blood vessels in brain sections of infected mice (Fig. 1g and Extended Data Fig. 2a-c). In these adhering monocytes, *Lm* polymerizing actin was observed (Extended Data Fig. 2d and movie S1), significantly more

 than in spleen monocytes (Extended Data Fig. 2e, f), and occasionally adjacent to infected endothelial cells (Fig. 1h and movie S1). Moreover, the transfer of monocytes infected with *Lm∆actA* isogenic mutant, unable to polymerize actin and mediate cell-to-cell spread^{13,14}, fails to induce neuroinvasion (Fig. 1f). Together, these results demonstrate that *Lm* accesses the brain parenchyma by cell-to-cell spread from adhering bloodborne infected inflammatory monocytes (Fig. 1i). These results are in line with previous reports^{8,9} obtained using poorly-neuroinvasive *Lm* strains, suggesting that neuroinvasive *Lm* strains invade the CNS in a similar manner, albeit to a far greater efficiency (up to 3 orders of magnitude) (Fig 1a).

InlB increases the number of infected inflammatory monocytes and mediates neuroinvasion

 Having identified infected monocytes as critically involved in the onset of neurolisteriosis, we aimed to identify the bacterial factors responsible for *Lm* neuroinvasiveness. Given the wellestablished role of InlA and InlB in Lm crossing of host barriers^{7,15}, we investigated their respective role in neuroinvasion. To bypass the well-established role of InlA in the crossing of the intestinal barrier, we inoculated KIE16P mice via the iv route. While InlA plays no role in neuroinvasion (Fig. 2a, Extended Data Fig. 3a-d), InlB plays a major role: the ∆*inlB* mutant is significantly less neuroinvasive than its WT parental strain in co-infection experiments (Fig. 2b, Extended Data Fig. 3a, e). Of note, the ∆*inlAB* mutant is not less neuroinvasive than the ∆*inlB* mutant, ruling out that InlA would act in a conjugated manner with InlB, as it has been 111 reported for placental invasion (Extended Data Fig. 3f, g)⁷. After oral inoculation, a similar difference in neuroinvasiveness is observed between all WT neuroinvasive strains and their corresponding ∆*inlB* mutant (Fig. 2c, Extended Data Fig. 3h). The involvement of InlB in neuroinvasion is also observed upon separate inoculation with either WT-*Lm* or *Lm*∆*inlB* (Fig. 2d, e). InlB contribution to neuroinvasion increases over time (Fig. 2f, g and Extended Data Fig. 3i, j) and *Lm*∆*inlB* never reaches the brain infection level of WT-*Lm* (Fig. 2f, g). These results were confirmed by gene complementation (Extended Data Fig. 3f, g).

 This critical role of *inlB* in *Lm* neuroinvasion was unexpected, as this gene is part of *Lm* core genome and is therefore present in all *Lm* strains, including the poorly neuroinvasive reference strains EGDe and 10403S. Neuroinvasive *Lm* isolates actually strongly upregulate the *inlAB* operon as compared to EGDe and 10403S, both *in vitro* in liquid culture and *in vivo* in infected spleen (Fig 2h, i and Extended Data Fig. 3k-m). To assess the impact of InlB expression level on neuroinvasiveness, we complemented the EGDe∆*inlB* mutant with the *inlB* gene sequence from either EGDe or CC4 (primary sequences share 93% identity, Extended Data Fig. 4a) so that *inlB* within-host transcription levels are similar to that of endogenous *inlB* in CC4 (Extended Data Fig. 4b). These complemented strains are as neuroinvasive as WT-CC4, whereas CC4∆*inlB* is as poorly neuroinvasive as EGDe∆*inlB* (Fig. 2j and Extended Data Fig. c, d). Consistently, CC4∆*inlB* complemented with the *inlB* EGDe allele expressed to the level of CC4 *in vivo* is as neuroinvasive as WT-CC4 (Fig. 2j and Extended Data Fig. 4 c). Altogether, these results establish that InlB overexpression is the critical factor of *Lm* neuroinvasiveness. We next evaluated the contribution of InlB to the infection of inflammatory monocytes, having

 shown their essential role in *Lm* neuroinvasion (Fig. 1). From 3 dpi, the blood bacterial load is higher for WT-*Lm* than *Lm*∆*inlB* (Fig. 2k, l). Moreover, InlB significantly increases the number of *Lm*-infected inflammatory monocytes in the blood and spleen (Fig. 2m, n and Extended Data 135 Fig. 5a, b). In addition, InlB-mediated neuroinvasion is abrogated in *Ccr2^{-/-}* mice (Fig. 2o and Extented Data Fig. 5c), indicating that InlB contribution to neuroinvasion implicates infected monocytes. At early time points, when equal numbers of WT and ∆*inlB*-bacteria are retrieved from the blood (1-2 dpi, Extended Data Fig. 5d), equivalent numbers of WT- and ∆*inlB*-infected adhering monocytes are observed in the brain (Extended Data Fig. 2c), showing that InlB does not alter monocyte ability to adhere to brain blood vessels. Moreover, no impact of InlB on bacterial growth is detected upon direct injection of *Lm* into the brain (Extended Data Fig. 5e, f). Altogether, these results indicate that InlB leads to an increased number of circulating infected monocytes, which are themselves required for *Lm* neuroinvasion.

 Although InlB has been described as an invasion protein mediating *Lm* internalization into nonphagocytic cells^{16,17}, the entry of hypervirulent *Lm* in inflammatory monocytes, which are professional phagocytes, is InlB-independent (Extended Data Fig. 5g-i). This indicates that InlB contribution to neuroinvasion is independent of its capacity to induce internalization.

InlB-mediated neuroinvasion requires a functional adaptive immune system

150 T-cell immunosuppression is a well-established risk factor for neurolisteriosis^{3,5,18–20}, and hypervirulent *Lm* clones that express the most InlB (Fig. 2h, i) tend to infect patients that are the least immunosuppressed⁶. We therefore hypothesized that $InIB$ may exhibit immunosuppressive properties. Interestingly, treatment with ciclosporin, a prototypic T-cell immunosuppressant, abrogates InlB-dependent neuroinvasion (Fig. 2c, Fig. 3a, b, and Extended Data Fig. 3h), implying that InlB contribution to *Lm* neuroinvasion requires a functional adaptive immunity. Consistently, no difference in neuroinvasion is observed between WT-*Lm* and *Lm*∆*inlB* before 3 to 4 dpi, at a time when adaptive immune responses are not yet expected to be functional²¹ (Fig. 2f, g and Extended Data Fig. 3i, j). Of note, ciclosporin treatment of EGDe-inoculated mice also leads to a slight increased number of infected inflammatory monocytes (Fig. 3c) and increased neuroinvasion (Fig. 3d, e), in line with an immunomodulatory effect of InlB overexpression in hypervirulent isolates. Strikingly, InlB 162 contribution to neuroinvasion is fully abrogated in *Rag2^{-/-}* mice (Fig. 3f and Extended Data Fig. 6a-c), that lack functional lymphoid cells, demonstrating their requirement for InlB to exert its 164 immune-mediated effect. The effect of InIB is also abrogated in $CD3\varepsilon^{-1}$, but not in muMt⁻¹ mice (Fig. 3g and Extended Data Fig. 6d-f), and thus depends on T- but not B-lymphocytes.

 Specifically, $CD8^+$ T-cells depletion fully abrogated the effect of InlB (Fig. 3h and Extended 167 Data Fig. 6g, h). Interestingly, specific anti- Lm CD8⁺ T-cells are induced to the same extent by WT-*Lm* and *Lm*∆*inlB* isogenic mutant (Extended Data Fig. 7a-d), and accordingly, mice inoculated with WT-*Lm* or *Lm*∆*inlB* display the same level of protective immunity after a second challenge (Extended Data Fig. 7e). Since InlB-mediated neuroinvasion relies on infected monocytes and is detectable in co-infection experiments, we reasoned that InlB may protect specifically infected monocytes from anti- Lm T-CD8⁺-mediated specific killing. We therefore performed cytotoxic T-lymphocyte (CTL) assays: infected or uninfected inflammatory monocytes and activated $CD8⁺$ T-cells were retrieved from mice, either uninfected or infected with WT-*Lm* or *Lm*∆*inlB*, co-incubated and assessed for cell death (Fig. 3i). Strikingly, WT-Lm-infected monocytes are protected from $CD8⁺$ T-cells-mediated cell death, whereas no difference in cell death is observed in uninfected monocytes (Fig. 3j and Extended Data Fig. 8a, b). InlB can be either associated to the bacterial surface or released in the surrounding medium¹⁷. Consistent with a cell-autonomous effect of InlB, the surface- associated InlB is required for InlB-mediated neuroinvasion (Extended Data Fig. 8c-f). The fact that infection of monocytes is clonal (Extended Data Fig. 8g) and that InlB contribution to neuroinvasion is detectable in co-infection experiments is also fully consistent with the finding that InlB acts in a cell-autonomous manner.

185 InlB blocks Fas-mediated cell death, protecting infected cells from killing by CD8⁺ T cells The cytotoxicity mediated by CD8⁺ T-cells from either WT-Lm and Lm∆*inlB* infected mice is similar (Fig. 3j), confirming that InlB has no impact on immunization (Extended Data Fig. 7). 188 Since CDS^+ T-cells cytotoxicity relies on the perforin-granzyme and Fas-Fas ligand pathways²². 189 we performed CTL assays in Perforin- and Fas-deficient mice (*Prf1 KO* and Fas^{lpr-cg} , respectively). In B-mediated protection against monocyte killing by $CDS⁺$ T-cells is fully

 preserved in *Prf1 KO* mice (Extended Data Fig. 8h). In sharp contrast, the inhibitory effect of 192 InlB on infected monocytes cell death is fully abrogated in Fas^{lpr-cg} mice (Extended Data Fig. 8i). This indicates that InlB blocks Fas-mediated killing whereas the perforin pathway is not involved. Consistently, monocytes infected with WT-*Lm*, but not *Lm∆inlB*, are resistant to FasL-induced apoptosis, while surface expression of Fas is not affected by InlB (Fig. 3k and Extended Data Fig. 8j, k). Accordingly, in mice treated with a pharmacological inhibitor of 197 caspase-8, the downstream effector of Fas²³, *Lm∆inlB* becomes as neuroinvasive as WT-*Lm* (Fig. 3l, m). In infected mice, the half-life of monocytes infected by WT-*Lm* is twice longer than that of monocytes infected by *Lm*∆*inlB* (Extended Data Fig. 8l), highlighting that InlB promotes the survival of infected cells. Together, these results demonstrate that InlB blocks CD8+ T-cells Fas-mediated killing of infected monocytes.

InlB inhibition of Fas-mediated CD8+ T cell cytotoxicity depends on Met, PI3Kα and FLIP 204 The receptor of InlB is c-Met²⁴, a member of the receptor tyrosine kinases family, which is 205 ubiquitously expressed, including in monocytes²⁵ In Lm -infected monocytes, bacteria are surrounded by LAMP-1, and InlB induces the recruitment of its receptor c-Met, which can be detected around bacteria (Extended Data Fig. 9a). InlB association to bacterial surface mediates the recruitment of c-Met around bacteria, in contrast to InlB released form, that as expected does not recruits c-Met, and does not mediate neuroinvasion (Extended Data Fig. 8d and 9e). Consistent with a critical role of c-Met, its competitive inhibition by capmatinib fully abrogates InlB-mediated neuroinvasion (Fig. 4a and Extended Data Fig. 9f). In mice where c-Met is conditionally deleted in myeloid cells $(LysM-CreER^{T2}×Met^{flox/f}-$ or $×Met^{flox/flox}$, InlB-mediated neuroinvasion is also abrogated (Fig. 4b, c). c-Met signals through PI3-kinase (PI3K), leading to the phosphorylation of $\text{Akt}^{26,27}$. Consistent with InlB-mediated c-Met engagement in infected monocytes, Akt is phosphorylated in an InlB-dependent manner in these cells (Extended Data Fig. 10a, b). Moreover, inhibition of PI3K activity by the pan-inhibitor wortmannin fully blocks InlB-mediated neuroinvasion (Fig. 4d and Extended Data Fig. 9c). Specifically, inhibition of PI3Kα, but not of the leucocyte-specific PI3Kδ, fully abrogates InlB-mediated neuroinvasion (Fig. 4e and Extended Data Fig. 10d, e). FLIP, a PI3K-regulated competitive inhibitor of procaspase- $8^{28,29}$, is upregulated in infected monocytes, in an InlB-dependent manner, resulting in a decreased activity of caspase-8 (Fig. 4f, g and Extended Data Fig. 10f). Inhibition of either c-Met or PI3Kα blocks both InlB-mediated FLIP upregulation and the decrease of caspase-8 activity (Fig. 4f, g). In mice conditionally deleted for FLIP, InlB-mediated monocytes resistance to cell death is lost (Fig. 4h and Extended Data Fig. 10g). Moreover, in mice where FLIP is conditionally deleted in myeloid cells $(Lv s M - CreER^{T2} \times FLIP^{flow+})$ or $\times FLIP^{flow/flow}$. InlB involvement in neuroinvasion is fully abrogated (Fig. 4i, j). Altogether, these results demonstrate that InlB-mediated blockade of the Fas cell death pathway in infected monocytes results from the PI3Kα-dependent cell autonomous upregulation of the caspase-8 inhibitor FLIP (Extended Data Fig. 10h).

InlB inhibition of CD8+ T cell mediated killing promotes *Lm* **persistence and fecal carriage** 232 InlB is part of *Lm* core genome and is under purifying selection^{30,31}, suggesting that InlB confers a selective advantage to *Lm*. As *Lm* is shed back from infected tissues into the intestinal 234 lumen³², *Lm* increased virulence may translate into increased fecal shedding, thereby favoring transmission. We therefore tested whether InlB is also involved in *Lm* intestinal carriage and release in the feces. Indeed, WT-*Lm* levels of infection of intestinal tissues and release in the intestinal lumen and feces are significantly higher than that of *Lm*∆*inlB*, and these differences, as for neuroinvasion, are fully dependent on $CD8⁺$ T-cells (Fig. 4k, l). These observations highlight that InlB-mediated neuroinvasion, although resulting from a very specific interference

- ²⁴⁰ with adaptive immunity, likely reflects the selective advantage provided by InlB to *Lm* for
- ²⁴¹ within-host persistence and inter-host transmission (Fig 4m).

Discussion

Here we uncovered that Lm is able to render its host cell resistant to $CD8⁺$ T-cells-mediated killing. Selective blockade of the Fas-FasL death pathway in infected monocytes allows these cells to survive longer in the blood, and ultimately transfer *Lm* more abundantly to the brain. Importantly, this novel, specific and unanticipated mechanism that creates an intracellular protected niche for *Lm* is also involved in its persistence in the intestinal tissue and release in the environment. This mechanism is mediated by the surface protein InlB, which was so far described as involved in *Lm* internalization into non-phagocytic cells, whereas we uncover here its key role as an immunomodulatory protein. InlB promotes monocytes survival and neuroinvasion through a refined and unsuspected mechanism: the upregulation, *via* a c- Met/PI3Kα-dependent pathway, of the anti-apoptotic factor FLIP, which competitively inhibits caspase-8 cleavage and blocks Fas-FasL mediated cell death.

 This study highlights the critical role played by cellular immunity against intracellular pathogens' neuroinvasion from a microbial perspective. Indeed, whereas extracellular 256 pathogens rely on the binding to specific host cell receptors³³ or the breaching of host barriers³⁴ to invade the CNS, the facultative intracellular pathogen *Lm* takes advantage of its ability to invade and persist within host cells to access to the brain. *Lm* intracellular persistence mediated by InlB promotes *Lm* neuroinvasion *via* ActA-dependent transfer of *Lm* from infected monocytes to brain endothelial cells. These results show that the capacity of microbes to survive into cells is a key pathogenic determinant favoring within-host dissemination and ultimately neuroinvasion. Other neuroinvasive intracellular pathogens, such as *Mycobacterium* ²⁶³ *tuberculosis* and *Toxoplasma gondii*, also stimulate PI3K^{35,36} and survive in myeloid cells. As *Lm*, these neuroinvasive microorganisms may also protect infected cells from killing by the immune system, favoring their survival, and increasing their within-host persistence and neuroinvasiveness.

 Intracellular pathogens tend to interfere with innate immune responses to establish a successful infection, and some also interfere with the adaptive immune system in a broad and non-selective 269 manner^{37,38}, favoring their persistence, like HIV, EBV and measles virus. *Lm* has been instrumental for the discovery of cellular immunity³⁹ and is indeed a prototypic inducer of a protective CDS^+ T-cell response^{20,40}. Yet, we have shown that InlB selectively blocks the action of the most efficient and specific anti-*Lm* immune effector, T cells-mediated cytotoxicity. This allows the establishment of a protected niche favoring *Lm* dissemination and persistence within the host. This is reminiscent of the mechanism by which tumor cells, in which signaling 275 downstream of growth factor receptors is frequently constitutively activated^{41,42}, also evade immune responses by surviving immune killing. A detailed understanding of how microbes have selected mechanisms to interfere with the immune system may help to rationally design novel anti-infective and anti-tumor therapies. Similarly, the immunomodulatory mechanism of InlB, specific of and restricted to infected cells, may also help develop new immunosuppressive therapies aimed at specifically protecting cells of interest from the immune system, as opposed to classic immunosuppressive drugs that inhibit indiscriminately immune functions, and therefore favor infectious and neoplastic complications.

 Lm is an opportunistic pathogen that only rarely induces clinically apparent infection upon oral ingestion⁴³, and there is no inter-human transmission of listeriosis. Yet, the so-called "virulence" factors" of *Lm* are under purifying selection^{30,31,44}, implying that they contribute to *Lm* fitness. By interfering with the host anti-*Lm* cellular effectors, we have shown that InlB enhances *Lm* intestinal carriage and fecal shedding, thereby increasing the odds of neuroinvasive *Lm* to be transmitted back to the environment and colonize new hosts. This illustrates that the anthropocentric view on microbial pathogenesis which phenotypic output is centered on disease does not necessarily reflect the actual context where microbial evolution and fitness gain take place.

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- Materials and Methods
- Extended Data Tables 1-5
- Extended Data Figures 1-10
- Extended Data Movie 1
- Extended References (45-60)

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 Fig. 1. Infected inflammatory monocytes transfer *Lm* **to the CNS by cell-to-cell spread.** (**a**) Bacterial load in the brain of mice after oral inoculation with CC1/CC4/CC6-*Lm* and EGDe. (**b**) Bacterial load in the brain of gentamicin-treated mice after oral inoculation with CC4-*Lm*. (**c, d**) Three main infected cell subsets in the blood (c) and spleen (d) after oral inoculation with CC1/CC4/CC6-*Lm* in mice at 4 dpi, the peak of bacteremia (Extended Data Fig. 1c). For the blood panel, each dot corresponds to the blood of three mice pooled together. (**e**) Bacterial load in the σ brain of B6-WT and *Ccr2^{-/-}* mice after intravenous (iv) inoculation with CC4-*Lm*. (**f**) Bacterial load of gentamicin-treated recipient mice, 2 days after injection of infected monocytes harvested from 6 donors mice 3 days after iv inoculation with either CC4-WT or CC4D*actA*. (**g**, **h**) Representative fluorescent microscopy images of infected monocytes adhering to the endothelial cells (g) and of monocytes infected by an actin-polymerizing-*Lm* (arrow) adjacent to an infected endothelial cell (arrowhead, h), 2 days after iv inoculation with CC1-*Lm*. (h) Maximum intensity projection over a 20µm stack and insets are single *z*-planes. Scale bars, 20µm. (**i**) Schematic representation of *Lm* neuroinvasion process. Data were obtained from three (a, b, e and f) and four 15 (c and d) independent experiments and are presented as median \pm interquartile (a) and as median \pm interquartile (box) and extreme values (lines) (b-f). CFU are compared with the unpaired Mann- Whitney test (a, b, e and f) and number of infected cells with the Friedman test (c and d). ns: *p*>0.05, *: *p*<0.05, **: *p*<0.01, ***: *p*<0.001, ****: *p*<0.0001.

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Blood

Blood

WT*-Lm / Lm*∆*inlB*

dpi

WT ∆*inlB*

 $\overline{0}$ 5

10

WT ∆*inlB* Control FasL Mock-treated Caspase 8 initiation

WT-*Lm* / *Lm*∆*inlB*

 10^{-2}

 10^{-1}

 $10⁰$

 10^{0} 10¹ $10²$

 \mathcal{A}

 \mathcal{L}

inhibitor

∆*inlB*

Mock-treated Caspase 8

∆*inlB*

 Ω

Ø PBS WT ∆*inlB*

CD8+ T-cells

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- unpaired student *t*-test (h), a Kruskal-Wallis test (b and i) and a one-way ANOVA (f-g). ns: *p*>0.05,
- *: *p*<0.05, **: *p*<0.01, ***: *p*<0.001, ****: *p*<0.0001.

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InlB sequence

a

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Extended Data Figure 8. Membrane-associated InlB protects infected monocytes from CD8+ T cells-mediated cell death. (a) Level of caspase-3 cleavage of infected spleen monocytes, harvested 3 days after iv infection with 10⁴ CFU of CC4-WT or CC4∆*inlB* of KIE16P mice, and incubated with CD8⁺ T-cells from similarly infected (WT and ∆*inlB*) or control (PBS) mice at the indicated effector to target ratio, related to Fig. 3j. Results are normalized to the level of caspase- cleavage in absence of $CD8⁺$ T cells. (**b**) Level of caspase-3 cleavage of uninfected spleen monocytes, harvested 3 days after iv infection with 10⁴ CFU of CC4-WT or CC4∆*inlB* of KIE16P mice, and incubated with CD8⁺ T-cells from similarly infected (WT and ∆*inlB*) or control (PBS) mice at an effector to target ratio of 5, related to Fig. 3j. Results are normalized to the level of caspase-3 cleavage in absence of CD8⁺ T cells. (c) Schematic representation of WT InlB and its anchored and released variants. (**d**) Competition index in the brain of KIE16P mice 5 days after iv inoculation with 10⁴ CFU of 1:1 CC4-WT and CC4∆*inlB* transformed with a plasmid expressing either full-length WT InlB, cell wall-anchored InlB or released InlB. (**e**) Representative fluorescence microscopy images of centrifugated CC4∆*inlB* transformed with a plasmid expressing either full length InlB (left panel), anchored InlB (central panel) or released InlB (right panel). Scale bars: 5 µm. (**f**) Transcription level of *inlB* in CC4∆*inlB* transformed with a plasmid expressing InlB variants in mid-log phase in BHI, relative to CC4∆*inlB* expressing full length InlB. (**g**) Proportion of GFP- or tdTomato-expressing bacteria, co-localizing or not with LAMP-1, in 20 infected monocytes harvested 3 days after iv inoculation of KIE16P mice with 10^4 CFU of 1:1 mix of CC4-WT expressing GFP or tdTomato. (**h, i**) Level of caspase-3 cleavage of infected spleen monocytes, harvested from *Prf1 KO* (h) or Fas^{lpr-cg} (i) mice, 3 days after iv inoculation with 10^4 150 CFU of CC4-WT or CC4Δ*inlB*, incubated with CD8⁺ T-cells from similarly infected (WT and ∆*inlB*) or control (PBS) mice, at an effector to target ratio of 5. (**j**) Level of caspase-3 cleavage of

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Movie S1. Polymerization of actin comet tail by *Lm* **within a monocyte adhering to the blood-brain barrier.**

 $CXX3CR1^{GFP/+} E16P KI humanized mice were infected with $5x10⁵$ CFUs of CC6 (isolate 2009-$ 01092) via iv route. Mice were sacrificed 48 hours post infection. $CX3CR1⁺$ are labeled in green, *L. monocytogenes* in red, actin (phalloidin) in white and nuclei (Hoechst) in blue. Fortysix optical sections of a 20 μ m thick brain sample were imaged with a Zeiss LSM700 confocal microscope. 3D reconstruction was performed using the Arivis Vison 4D software.