

# Leptospira interrogans Prevents Macrophage Cell Death and Pyroptotic IL-1 $\beta$ Release through Its Atypical Lipopolysaccharide

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Delphine Bonhomme, Veronica Hernandez-Trejo, Stylianos Papadopoulos, Rémi Pigache, Martine Fanton d'Andon, et al.. Leptospira interrogans Prevents Macrophage Cell Death and Pyroptotic IL-1 $\beta$  Release through Its Atypical Lipopolysaccharide. Journal of Immunology, 2023, 210 (4), pp.459-474. 10.4049/jimmunol.2200584. pasteur-04569116

# HAL Id: pasteur-04569116 https://pasteur.hal.science/pasteur-04569116

Submitted on 6 May 2024

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# Leptospira interrogans prevents macrophage cell death and pyroptotic IL1β release through its atypical lipopolysaccharide

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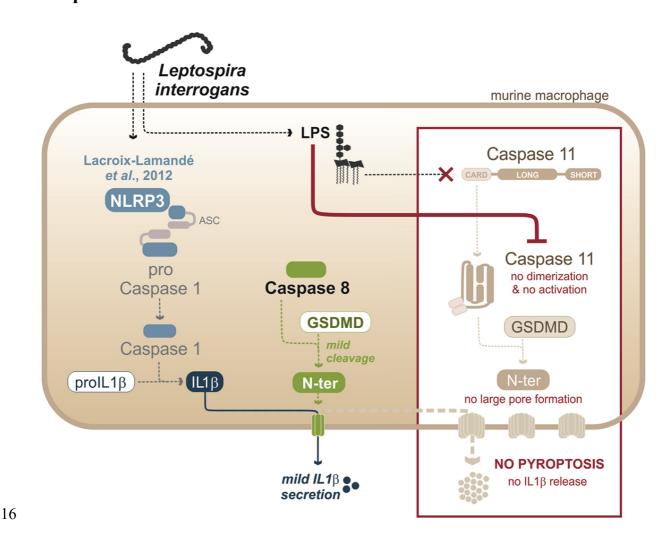
# Running title

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13 Leptospires limit IL1β secretion by pyroptosis inhibition

# Graphical abstract



# Abstract

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Leptospira interrogans are bacteria that can infect all vertebrates and are responsible for leptospirosis, a neglected zoonosis. Some hosts, such as humans, are susceptible to the disease whereas mice are resistant and get chronically colonized. Although leptospires escape recognition by some immune receptors, they activate the NLRP3-inflammasome and trigger IL1ß secretion. Classically, IL1ß secretion is associated with lytic inflammatory cell death called pyroptosis, resulting from cytosolic LPS binding to inflammatory caspases, such as caspase 11. Interestingly, we showed that L. interrogans and L. biflexa do not trigger cell death in either murine, human, hamster, or bovine macrophages, escaping both pyroptosis and apoptosis. We showed, in murine cells, that the mild IL1ß secretion induced by leptospires occurred through non-lytic caspase 8-dependent GSDMD pore formation, and not through activation of caspase 11/non-canonical inflammasome. Strikingly, we demonstrated a potent antagonistic effect of pathogenic L. interrogans and their atypical LPS on spontaneous and E. coli LPS-induced cell death. Indeed, LPS of L. interrogans efficiently prevents caspase 11 dimerization and subsequent massive gasdermin D cleavage. Finally, we showed that pyroptosis escape by leptospires prevents massive IL1β release, and we consistently found no major role of IL1 receptor in controlling experimental leptospirosis in vivo. Overall, our findings described a novel mechanism by which leptospires dampen inflammation, thus potentially contributing to their stealthiness.

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# **Key points**

- Leptospires do not induce macrophage death, but trigger mild IL1β secretion
- LPS from pathogenic leptospires inhibits caspase 11-induced pyroptosis
- Concealing IL1β inside macrophages limits inflammation

# Introduction

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Leptospirosis is a re-emerging zoonosis caused by pathogenic spirochetes bacteria called leptospires. Among more than 60 species, L. interrogans is the most prevalent and pathogenic species. It can reside either free in the environment or infect vertebrates, although not all hosts show clinical signs of the disease. Humans are sensitive to leptospirosis and can present symptoms that vary from a mild flu-like syndrome to multi-organs failure, also known as Weil's disease (1, 2). L. interrogans can also provoke acute symptoms in hamster, cattle, pigs and horses, such as morbidity, abortion, or uveitis (1). Among the resistant animals, mice and rats get chronically colonized in the kidneys' proximal tubules, leading to excretion of the bacteria in the urine, contributing to the zoonotic transmission of *L. interrogans* (3, 4). Upon infection, innate immunity is the first line of defense that is activated to trigger inflammatory and antimicrobial responses. Microbes are recognized through conserved molecules called microbe-associated molecular patterns (MAMPs) that activate host pattern-recognition receptors (PRRs). Leptospires are stealth pathogens that escape some Toll-like receptors (TLR) and NOD recognitions, because of particularities in their cell wall (5-7). Furthermore, unlike Borrelia burgdorferi and Treponema pallidum, leptospires possess a lipopolysaccharide (LPS) in their outer membrane, which is one of the few identified virulence factors (8). Its complex O antigen allows classification of leptospires in more than 300 immunologically distinct serovars (3, 9). Also, the lipid A part of leptospiral LPS is structurally peculiar (10) and escapes recognition by human TLR4, although it is recognized by murine TLR4 (11). Interestingly, lipoproteins always co-purify with the leptospiral LPS, hence conferring it the ability to activate TLR2 (12). Both the O antigen and the co-purifying lipoproteins have been shown to play a role in the escape from murine TLR4-TRIF endosomal signaling (6). Among PRRs, activation of NOD-like receptor pyrin 3 (NLRP3) triggers the secretion of interleukin-1β (IL1β), a tightly regulated proinflammatory cytokine, playing a central role in inflammation. First, priming of NLRP3 occurs through other PRRs leading to NF-κB translocation, hence allowing NLRP3 and cytokines mRNA transcription (13, 14). NLRP3 is then activated by many cellular stresses, oligomerizes and binds ASC adaptors to form a signaling platform called canonical inflammasome. Inflammasomes allow cleavage of caspase 1, a protease that, in turn, cleaves pro-IL1β and pro-interleukin-18 (pro-IL18) into mature cytokines (15, 16). Interestingly, NLRP3 has also been associated with the activation of caspases 4-5 (human) / caspase 11 (mouse), participating to the socalled "non-canonical inflammasome" and leading to inflammatory lytic cell death with release of the cytosolic content, called pyroptosis. Caspases 4-5/11 self-cleave upon intracellular binding of their CARD domain to the lipid A of intracellular LPS (17) and then trigger cleavage of gasdermin D (GSDMD) (17-19). Subsequently, the N-terminal fragment of GSDMD oligomerizes to form large pores

in the host cell membrane, leading to lytic cell death (20). NLRP3 hence contributes, through canonical and non-canonical inflammasomes, to both the production and massive release of inflammatory cytokines in response to infection. We have previously shown that leptospires activate the NLRP3 inflammasome and secretion of inflammatory IL1 $\beta$  in murine macrophages, with priming through TLR2/TLR4 activation by the leptospiral LPS and activation by downregulation of the sodium/potassium pump by a leptospiral glycolipoprotein (21). Another study consistently reported that leptospires induce NLRP3 in human cells (22, 23). Interestingly, cell death of macrophages upon infection by leptospires has previously been investigated and is a matter of controversy (24). Unexpectedly, we recently showed that leptospires actively enter and exit macrophages without intracellular replication, and with no loss of cell viability (25). However, the potential induction of the non-canonical inflammasome through activation of cytosolic caspases 4-5/11 by the leptospiral LPS had never been investigated.

Therefore, our study aimed at characterizing potential cytotoxic effects upon infection by *L. interrogans* and to assess if leptospires and their atypical LPS induce or modulate the non-canonical inflammasome in addition to the canonical NLRP3 in cells from both resistant and sensitive hosts.

# **Materials and Methods**

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92 Leptospira strains and cultures. The pathogenic L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495, serovar 93 Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun and serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 and the saprophytic 94 L. biflexa serovar Patox strain Patoc I were grown in liquid Ellinghausen-McCullough-Johnson-Harris 95 medium (EMJH) at 30 °C, without agitation. They were weekly passaged to be maintained in 96 exponential phase (twice a week in the case of L. biflexa). Bacteria were harvested for infection at the 97 end of the exponential phase. Bacterial concentration was adjusted by centrifuging the culture at 4000 98 g for 25 minutes at room temperature. Bacteria resuspended in PBS were counted using a Petroff-Hauser 99 chamber. Leptospires were also inactivated by heating at 56 °C for 30 min, under 300 rpm agitation.

Purification of leptospiral LPS. LPS from the different serovars of *L. interrogans* and from *L. biflexa*were purified using the hot water/phenol extraction method, as we recently reviewed (26). Purified LPS
was used for *in vitro* cell stimulation between 100 ng/mL and 10 μg/mL.

Murine macrophages culture and infection. Bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDMs) were obtained after euthanasia by cervical dislocation of adult C57BL/6J mice. Isolation of the femurs, tibia and iliac bones was performed. Bone marrow cells were recovered by flushing out the bone marrow using a 22 G needle in complete RPMI medium (RPMIc): RPMI (Lonza) with 10% v/v heat inactivated foetal calf serum (HI-FCS, Gibco), 1 mM sodium pyruvate and 1X non-essential amino acids (Gibco) supplemented with 1X penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco). Erythrocytes were lysed using red blood cells lysis buffer (Sigma) and subsequent centrifugation at 1200 g for 7 minutes. Fresh or frozen bone marrow cells were differentiated into macrophages by seeding 5 x 106 cells in cell culture dish (TPP) with 12 mL of RPMIc, supplemented with 1X penicillin-streptomycin and 10 % v/v of L929 cells supernatant. Differentiation was carried out during 7 days with addition of 3 mL of medium at day 3. BMDMs were recovered at day 7 by scraping in PBS-EDTA 10 mM (Gibco) and centrifuged before counting and plating. Macrophage-like cell lines RAW264.7 and RAW-ASC (Invivogen), cultivated in antibiotic-free RPMIc, were also used in this study. For all cells, plating was performed 24 hours before infection in antibiotic-free RPMIc at a concentration of 0.3 x 106 cells/mL for cell lines and 0.8 x 106 cells/mL for BMDMs. Cells were then infected in RPMIc with live or heat-inactivated Leptospira strains or stimulated for 24 hours with 0.1-1 µg/mL leptospiral LPS, or with 1µg/mL E. coli LPS (Invivogen) and 2-5 mM ATP (Sigma). When indicated, RAW-ASC cells were pretreated for 1h with the following caspase inhibitors: 50 µM Ac-YVAD-cmk, 20 µM Z-IETD-FMK or 10 mg/mL Z-VAD-FMK (Invivogen).

**Human THP1-CD14 cells culture and infection.** Human THP1 monocyte-like cell line, stably transfected with CD14 (originally provided by Dr. Richard Ulevitch, Scripps, San Diego, CA, USA) were cultivated in antibiotic-free RPMIc. Cells were plated in RPMIc (2% v/v HI-FCS) at a

- 125 concentration of 0.8 x 10<sup>6</sup> cells/mL 24h before infection. Cells were then infected in antibiotic-free
- RPMIc with live *Leptospira* strains or stimulated for 24 hours with 0.1-1μM nigericin.
- 127 **Bovine & hamster macrophages culture and infection.** Bovine bone marrow cells were obtained from
- the femur of a neonate calf (kindly provided by Dr. Sonia Lacroix-Lamandé, INRA, Nouzilly, France).
- Hamster bone marrow cells were obtained from femurs and tibias of golden Syrian hamsters (kindly
- provided by Dr. Nadia Benaroudj, Institut Pasteur, Paris, France). In both cases, bone marrow cells were
- recovered by flushing out the bone marrow using RPMIc medium (20% v/v HI-FCS). Erythrocytes were
- lysed using red blood cells lysis buffer (Sigma) and subsequent centrifugation at 1200 g for 7 minutes.
- Frozen bone marrow cells were thawed and differentiated into macrophages by seeding 10 x 10<sup>6</sup> cells
- in cell culture dish (TPP) with 12 mL of RPMIc (20% v/v HI-FCS), 1X penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco)
- and 5 ng/mL of recombinant human macrophage colony stimulating factor (hCSF, Peprotech).
- Differentiation was carried out during 14 days with addition of 3 mL of medium every 3 days. BMDMs
- were recovered at day 14 by scraping in PBS-EDTA 10 mM (Gibco) and centrifuged before counting.
- 138 Cells were plated in RPMIc medium (20% v/v HI-FCS) at a concentration of 0.8 x 10<sup>6</sup> cells/mL 24h
- before infection. Cells were then infected in antibiotic-free RPMIc with live Leptospira strains or
- stimulated for 24 hours with 1µg/mL E. coli LPS (Invivogen) and 2-5 mM ATP (Sigma).
- 141 MTT viability assay. MTT assay was performed on murine, bovine, hamster BMDMs, and on human
- 142 THP1-CD14 cells 24h post-infection. Briefly, all the culture supernatant was removed and a solution of
- 143 1 mM MTT (Sigma) in RPMIc was added on the cells. After 90 min incubation at 37°C, dissolution of
- the formazan crystals was performed with isopropanol acidified with 1 M HCl. Optical density was
- measured at 595 nm on a BioTek ELx800 microplate reader.
- 146 Cytosolic LDH release assay. LDH release was quantified on fresh supernatant of murine, bovine,
- 147 hamster BMDMs, and on RAW-ASC, RAW264.7, THP1-CD14 cells 24h post-infection or
- post-transfection. CyQuant LDH Colorimetric & Fluorimetric assays (Invitrogen) were performed
- according to the manufacturer's instructions. Optical density was measured at 490 nm on a BioTek
- 150 ELx800 microplate reader whereas fluorimetry was measured at 560 nm (ex) / 590 nm (em) on a
- 151 TECAN Spark fluorimeter (Life Sciences). Comparison of the kits was performed (Sup. Figure 1B).
- 152 Caspase 3/7 activity assay. Caspase activity was measured on murine BMDMs after overnight infection
- or with addition of 1 µM of staurosporine (CST) 5h prior to cell collection. Caspase 3/7 activity assay
- 154 (CST) was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Ac-DEVD-AMC substrate cleavage
- was immediately monitored by fluorescence at 380 nm (ex) / 420 nm (em) on a TECAN Spark
- 156 fluorimeter (Life Sciences).
- 157 Cytokine dosage by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA). The secretion of cytokines
- 158 (murine RANTES, murine IL1β and human IL1β) was assessed using cell culture supernatants of
- murine BMDMs, RAW-ASC and THP1-CD14 cells 24h post-infection. Supernatants were kept

- at -20 °C before cytokine dosage. ELISA assays (R&D DuoSet) were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Optical density was measured at 450 nm on a BioTek ELx800 microplate reader, and cytokine concentration was determined using standard range.
- Nitric oxide (NO) dosage by Griess reaction. NO dosage was performed on fresh cell culture supernatant of bovine and hamster BMDMs 24h post-infection. Briefly, Griess reaction was performed by incubation of 50 µL of fresh supernatant with 50 µL of 80 mM sulfanilamide in 2 M chlorohydric acid. Addition of 50 µL of 4 mM N-1-napthylethylenediamine dihydrochloride then allowed colorimetric determination of NO concentration. Optical density was measured at 540 nm on a BioTek ELx800 microplate reader and NO concentration was determined using standard range of nitrites.
- LPS transfection in RAW-ASC cells. For LPS transfection, RAW-ASC and RAW264.7 cells were plated in antibiotic-free RPMIc medium at a concentration of 0.2 x 10<sup>6</sup> cells/mL 24h before transfection, in transparent bottom black plates (Greiner). Medium was removed and cells were transferred in FCS-free essential medium OptiMEM (Gibco) 2h before transfection. Then, cells were transfected using FUGENE (Promega) in OptiMEM (Gibco), with the equivalent of 0.5 μL/well of FUGENE, 100 ng/well of DNA (either pcDNA3 or pCMV-GFP for fluorescence analyses) and LPS at a final concentration of 10 μg/mL. Quantities indicated correspond to the transfection of 96-well plates and were modified accordingly for transfection of 24-well plates. After either 6, 12 or 24h of transfection, cells were analyzed by epifluorescence microscopy, flow cytometry or fluorimetry, respectively.
- Propidium iodide integration analysis by flow cytometry and fluorimetry. After either 12 or 24h of transfection with LPS, RAW-ASC cells were stained with 1 mg/mL of propidium iodide (PI, Sigma). For flow cytometry analyses at 12h, cells were then washed once in PBS with 2 mM EDTA and 0.5% v/v HI-FCS, scrapped and analyzed directly by flow cytometry on CytoFLEX (Beckman Coulter). Between 10 000 and 15 000 events were acquired for each condition and the data was analyzed with FlowJo V10 software. For fluorimetry analyses at 24h, the kinetics of PI integration was monitored immediately at 535 nm (*ex*) / 617 nm (*em*) on a TECAN Spark fluorimeter (Life Sciences).

Microscopy analyses. Live RAW-ASC cells transfected 6h with LPS and fluorescent pCMV-GFP plasmid were observed under epifluorescent inverted microscope AxioObserver Z1 (Zeiss) with 63X oil-immersion objective. Brightfield illumination was maintained < 3V, laser intensity was maintained <50% and exposure time was automatically set from the brightest sample (empty transfection). Images analyses were performed using Fiji software. On the other hand, murine BMDMs enumeration was performed after 10 min fixation with 4% w/v paraformaldehyde in PBS and 10 min staining with 1 μg/mL DAPI in PBS. After three washed with PBS, fixed cells were imaged on Opera Phenix HCS (Perkin Elmer) in confocal mode with 63X water-immersion objective. Laser intensity was maintained <25% and exposure time was set manually to obtain arbitrary unit (AU) of fluorescence around 1 000. Acquisition was performed automatically and >500 cells were analyzed per well. Image analysis was

performed automatically using Colombus software (Perkin Elmer) and the number of nuclei in each condition was exported as output.

SDS-PAGE and Western blots (WB). Murine BMDMs, RAW-ASC and THP1-CD14 cells were collected 8-24h post-infection or post-transfection by scrapping and centrifuged for 10 min at 1200 g. Cells were then lysed in 50 µL of RIPA lysis buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1% v/v Triton X-100, 0.5% w/v deoxycholate, 0.1% w/v SDS) supplemented with 1X complete Mini, EDTA-free protease inhibition cocktail (Roche) for 15 min on ice. After centrifugation for 30 min at full speed at 4°C, proteins were recovered in the supernatant and protein concentration was determined and adjusted by Bradford dosage (BioRad). Laemmli sample buffer, supplemented with 10% v/v βmercapto-ethanol, was added and samples were denatured at 99 °C for 10 min. SDS-PAGE of samples was performed on polyacrylamide 4-15% gradient gel in 1X Tris-Glycine-SDS buffer, at 110 V for 1h. Internal loading control was performed by stain free visualization after 5 min activation on a ChemiDoc imaging system (BioRad), and we controlled that it was equivalent to probing the membrane with anti-actin antibody (Sup. Figure 1A). Protein transfer was done either on nitrocellulose membrane or polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane (Table 1). Membranes were then saturated in TBS with 0.01% v/v Tween (TBST) with 5% w/v BSA for 1h at room temperature. Incubation with primary antibodies was performed in TBST with 1% w/v BSA overnight at 4°C (Table 1). After three washes in TBST, secondary antibody incubation was done in TBST with 5% w/v BSA for 1h at room temperature under mild agitation (Table 1). After three washes in TBST, HRP activity was revealed using the SuperSignal West Femto Commercial TMB Substrate (ThermoFisher) on ChemiDoc imaging system (BioRad). WB quantification was performed on raw data in ImageLab software.

Native gel electrophoresis and Western blots (WB). RAW-ASC cells were collected 12h post-transfection by removal of the medium and direct lysis using commercial lysis buffer maintaining caspase integrity and activity (from caspase 3/7 activity kit): 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM Na<sub>2</sub> EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1% v/v Triton X-100, 20 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 25 mM sodium fluoride, 1 mM β-glycerophosphate, 1 mM Na<sub>3</sub>VO<sub>4</sub>, 1 μg/ml leupeptin (CST), for 15 min on ice. After centrifugation for 10 min at full speed, proteins were recovered in the supernatant and protein concentration was determined and adjusted by Bradoford dosage (BioRad). Native protein sample buffer was then added, and electrophoresis was performed on polyacrylamide 4-15% gradient gel in 1X Tris-Glycine native buffer, at 90 V for 2h. Transfers and Western blots were performed as previously described after denaturing SDS-PAGE.

**LPS-Caspase 11 binding assay.** Interaction between recombinant caspase 11 (Enzo) and *E. coli* LPS (Invivogen) or *L. interrogans* LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495 was addressed by binding assays performed by incubation of 100 ng of recombinant enzyme with 50-200 ng of LPS in PBS for 1h at 37°C. Sample were then loaded directly on home-casted native 4.5% (stacking) / 20% (running) highly

- 230 reticulated polyacrylamide gels, that do not allow the entrance of LPS and bound material and only
- allow migration of unbound proteins. Electrophoresis was performed in 1X Tris-Glycine native buffer,
- at maximum 40V for minimum 6h on ice to avoid gel heating. Transfers and Western blots were
- performed as previously described after denaturing SDS-PAGE.
- 234 In vivo infection with Leptospira interrogans. Adult C57BL/6J mice WT were obtained from Janvier
- 235 Labs whereas IL1 receptor knock-out (*il1r*-/-) mice were either bred at Institut Pasteur Paris animal
- 236 facility or provided by Bernard Ryffel (CNRS, Orléans, France). For each infection, groups of *n*=3
- 237 (male or female) mice were infected via the intra-peritoneal (IP) route with 10<sup>8</sup> bacteria/mouse of
- 238 L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495 or 2x108 bacteria/mouse of serovar Copenhageni strain
- 239 Fiocruz L1-130 in 200 μL of endotoxin-free PBS. Naive animals were injected with 200 μL of PBS
- alone. Weight loss and clinical symptoms were monitored daily. At day 3 post-infection, animals were
- euthanized by cervical dislocation and organs were recovered and frozen at -80°C. Blood and kidneys
- were used for qPCR determination of bacterial loads and RT-qPCR analyses of cytokines mRNA.
- 243 Ethic statement on animal use. All experiments performed on animals were conducted in accordance
- with the Animal Care guidelines and following the European Union Directive 2010/63 EU. Protocols
- were all approved beforehand (#2013-0034 and HA-0036) by the ethic committee of the Pasteur
- Institute, Paris, France (CETEA#89), in compliance with the French and European regulations on animal
- 247 welfare and according to the Public Health Service recommendations.
- 248 mRNA analyses by RT-qPCR. mRNA was extracted either from the frozen kidneys recovered 3 days
- post-infection, or from frozen mouse BMDMs using RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen). Reverse transcription
- 250 (RT) was performed using Superscript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) according to the
- 251 manufacturer's recommendations. Generated cDNAs were used for quantitative PCR (qPCR) on a
- StepOne Plus real-time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems), with primers and probes targeting murine
- 253 HPRT (internal control), caspase 11, IL1β and IL6 (**Table 2**). The following settings were used (relative
- quantification program): 50°C for 2 min, followed by 95°C for 10 min and by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s
- and 60°C for 1 min. Data were analyzed using the comparative 2-ΔΔCt method, using a first normalization
- by internal control HPRT and a second normalization by non-infected controls.
- 257 Bacterial loads determination by qPCR in blood. Leptospiral DNA was extracted from blood
- 258 recovered 3 days post-infection using QIAmp DNA kit (Qiagen). Leptospiral DNA was specifically
- 259 targeted using primers and probes designed in the *lpxA* gene, conserved in *L. interrogans* strains
- 260 (Forward 5'-TTTTGCGTTTATTTCGGGACTT-3' / Reverse
- 261 5'-CAACCATTGAGTAATCTCCGACAA-3' / Probe 5'-TGCTGTACATCAGTTTTG-3').
- Normalization was performed using *nidogen* gene and quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed on a
- 263 StepOne Plus real-time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems), with the following settings (absolute

quantification program): 50°C for 2 min, followed by 95°C for 10 min and by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s

and 60°C for 1 min.

266 Statistical analyses. All statistical analyses were performed using Student's t-test with corresponding

267 p values: \* for p < 0.05; \*\* for p < 0.01 and \*\*\* for p < 0.001.

# 269 **Results**

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# Although they induce IL1\beta secretion in murine BMDMs, leptospires prevent cell death

Our group previously demonstrated that infection with L. interrogans serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 activates NLRP3 inflammasome, induces caspase 1 cleavage and triggers IL1β production in murine BMDMs (21). We first assessed whether such mechanism was conserved for other serovars of L. interrogans. BMDMs were infected for 10h with three frequently studied pathogenic serovars of L. interrogans (serovar Manilae strain L495, serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun and serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130). Western blot analyses showed that the three strains of leptospires similarly induce the cleavage of caspase 1 in its active form of p10 subunit (Figure 1A and Sup. Figure 1A). Consistently, all strains induced a dose-dependent secretion of IL1 $\beta$ , measured 24h post-infection in the supernatants of RAW-ASC cells (a murine macrophage cell line with a functional inflammasome) (Figure 1B). Considering the activation of the canonical inflammasome by L. interrogans, we then investigated whether leptospires also trigger the activation of the non-canonical inflammasome and hence induce pyroptosis. As a marker of cell membrane damage and lytic cell death, we measured the leakage of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH), a constitutive cytosolic enzyme, using either colorimetric or fluorometric NADPH-dependent reactions (Sup. Figure 1B). Extracellular LPS from E. coli in combination with ATP (inflammasome inducer) was used as a positive control of pyroptotic cell death. Unexpectedly, although leptospires activate the canonical inflammasome, they did not induce LDH release in the supernatant of BMDMs 24h post-infection (Figure 1C), even at high MOI, suggesting that no membrane damage is occurring. Surprisingly, compared with the level of spontaneous LDH released by non-stimulated cells, we even observed a reduction of the LDH released upon infection with the three strains of leptospires and in the same range of magnitude at MOI 1-100. Only a reduction of the infectious dose to MOI 0.1 allowed us to evidence a dose-dependent effect (Sup. Figure 1C, left panel). Interestingly, such phenotype was recapitulated upon stimulation with either heat-killed leptospires or purified leptospiral LPS (Figure 1D). Then, using MTT assay as a measure of cellular metabolic activity, we confirmed that the viability of the macrophages was not reduced upon infection with leptospires (Figure 1E and Sup. Figure 1C, right panel), and we even observed higher MTT levels upon infection with MOI > 1. Similar results were obtained upon stimulation by heat-killed bacteria or LPS (Figure 1F). All the cell death assays were performed at 24h post-infection, but we also infected BMDMs with L. interrogans strain L495 for longer time points to exclude a delayed cytotoxicity. Consistently, we observed no LDH release nor reduction in MTT 48h post-infection (Sup. Figure 1D). Finally, to determine whether the lack of cytotoxicity was specific to the pathogenic L. interrogans, we infected BMDMs with the saprophytic Leptospira biflexa serovar Patoc strain Patoc I. Our results show that, like its pathogenic counterparts, L. biflexa induces the production of IL1β (Sup. Figure 1E) but does not trigger LDH release nor alter cell viability in BMDMs (Sup. Figure 1F). Altogether, these results show that leptospires are not cytotoxic for murine BMDMs

and suggest that they can even prevent spontaneous cell death. Of note, LDH and MTT reflect membrane integrity and metabolism, respectively, and their dosage does not exactly reflect the number of BMDMs. Therefore, to conclude on a potential effect on cell death prevention, we enumerated by high-content (HC) microscopy the number of BMDMs at the time of plating and 24h later, with or without leptospiral infection or stimulation with their LPS. A small reduction in the number of adherent cells was observed in the non-infected condition (**Figure 1G**), most likely due to basal spontaneous death. Surprisingly, infection with leptospires or stimulation with their LPS efficiently prevented this spontaneous decrease, which was not observed with *E. coli* LPS control stimulation (**Figure 1G**), here again showing that leptospires not only are not cytotoxic, but also prevent BMDMs cell death.

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## Leptospires do not trigger cell death in bovine and hamster BMDMs, nor in human macrophages

Then, because of the ability of L. interrogans to infect various hosts such as humans, bovines and hamsters; and because several species-specific mechanisms were discovered in the innate immune escape of leptospires (7, 11), we also addressed the potential induction of pyroptosis on primary cells from susceptible hosts. To do so, we derived BMDMs from bone marrow of calf and hamster and infected these cells with the main three pathogenic serovars of L. interrogans for 24h (serovar Manilae strain L495, serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun and serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130). First, we observed no visible cell damage on the infected cells, unlike cells treated with LPS from E. coli in combination with ATP (inflammasome inducer) (Figure 2A and Figure 2B, upper panels). Viability and LDH assays further showed no cell death and no membrane alteration, respectively (Figure 2A and Figure 2B, middle panels). Finally, as a control of infection, we measured the production of nitric oxide. Results show that both bovine BMDMs and hamster BMDMs are efficiently stimulated by leptospires and produce NO in response to the infection (Figure 2A and Figure 2B, lower panels). Regarding human cells, we have previously studied the infection of primary human monocytes with the three different strains of L. interrogans and did not measure any loss of viability (Santecchia, 2019, Sup Figure 1C). However, we had not measured the IL1β secretion upon infection with leptospires. Therefore, we infected human monocyte-like THP1 cells stably transfected with CD14 (hereafter called THP1-CD14) with the three pathogenic serovars of L. interrogans. After 24h of infection, we controlled that the strains induced the production of IL1ß in THP1-CD14, illustrating the activation of the canonical inflammasome (Figure 2C, left panel). Consistent with the data previously obtained in primary human monocytes, we did not observe LDH release nor viability decrease upon infection with any of the leptospiral strains for either 24h (Figure 2C) or 48h (Sup. Figure 2A). In addition, we infected THP1-CD14 cells with the saprophytic L. biflexa strain Patoc I. Our results show that, although it induces IL1β production (Sup. Figure 2B), infection with the saprophytic strain does not trigger LDH

release nor decrease cell viability (Sup. Figure 2C). Overall, these data show that the lack of cell

cytotoxicity upon infection with leptospires is conserved between murine, human, bovine and hamster macrophages.

#### Leptospires do not trigger the molecular pathways of apoptosis or pyroptosis in murine BMDMs

Since infection with L. interrogans did not induce LDH release nor alter macrophage viability, we specifically investigated in murine macrophages the apoptotic and pyroptotic molecular pathways by studying the cleavage of caspase 3 and caspase 11 / GSDMD, respectively. Consistent with the absence of cytotoxicity, leptospires did not trigger caspase 3 cleavage, after overnight infection (Figure 3A, left panel), and no caspase 3/7 activity was measured (Figure 3A, right panel), in contrast to staurosporine (positive control of apoptosis) added 5h prior to cell collection. These results showed that leptospires do not trigger apoptosis in murine BMDMs. Interestingly, caspase 3/7 basal activity was even reduced in BMDMs infection with leptospires, here again suggesting that leptospires might prevent cell death. Regarding pyroptosis, Western blot analyses of caspase 11 post-infection revealed that infection with L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495 induce upregulation of caspase 11, both at the mRNA and protein levels, like the positive control for inflammasome (E. coli LPS + ATP), that induce partial cell death at 2 mM and complete cell death with 5 mM ATP (Figure 3B). However, the caspase 11 antibody did not recognize the active p25 cleaved form of the caspase, and we could therefore not conclude regarding its potential cleavage. Interestingly, the parallel study of GSDMD by Western blot showed that infection with leptospires only triggers minor GSDMD cleavage and does not induce massive accumulation of GSDMD-N-ter, the moiety forming pores, as observed in pyroptotic cells, and confirmed by quantification (Figure 3C). Overall, these findings show that leptospires do not trigger the apoptotic and pyroptotic molecular pathways, confirming the lack of cytotoxicity observed beforehand.

## Caspase 8 contributes to mild GSDMD cleavage and IL1β secretion upon leptospiral infection

Upon infection with leptospires, GSDMD is mildly cleaved, but does not lead to the lytic pyroptotic cell death. To the extent of our knowledge, GSDMD can be cleaved either by caspase 11 or, to a lower extent by caspase 1. Recent studies have also demonstrated that caspase 8 can cleave GSDMD (27-29). In addition to caspase 1 activation (21), leptospires were also shown to activate caspase 8 in macrophages (30). Therefore, to address the role of these different caspases in the mild GSDMD cleavage observed upon infection, we infected RAW-ASC cells in presence of different caspase inhibitors and observed 24h post-infection the GSDMD cleavage by Western blot. The use of the caspase 8 inhibitor and of the pan-caspases inhibitor, but not the caspase 1/11 inhibitor, led to a reduction of the faint GSDMD-N-ter band induced upon *Leptospira* infection (**Figure 4A and Figure 4B**), showing that caspase 8 contributes to the mild GSDMD cleavage upon infection. After cleavage, the N-terminal fragment of GSDMD classically accumulates in the cell to form small pores, and then large pores, that can lead to mild IL1β secretion and lytic cell death, respectively (31). To address whether GSDMD cleavage by

caspase 8 could induce small pores playing a role in IL1 $\beta$  secretion, we measured the cytokine in the supernatant of cells treated with the different caspase inhibitors. Inhibiting caspase 1/11 resulted in lower IL1 $\beta$  secretion, as expected considering that caspase 1 is cleaving the pro-IL1 $\beta$  into the mature cytokine (**Figure 4C**). Interestingly, we also observed a reduction in IL1 $\beta$  secretion when using the caspase 8 inhibitor (**Figure 4C**), suggesting that GSDMD cleavage by caspase 8 contributes to the mild IL1 $\beta$  secretion observed upon infection. The efficiency of the caspase 8 and pan-caspases inhibitors was controlled using staurosporine, an apoptosis inducer, and by monitoring in Western blot the reduction in the p18 cleaved form of caspase 8 (**Figure 4D**).

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#### Transfected leptospiral LPS escapes pyroptosis and even prevents spontaneous cell death

Considering that caspase 1 and caspase 11 did not contribute to the mild GSDMD cleavage observed upon infection with leptospires, and considering that no cell death was observed, we hypothesized that L. interrogans does not trigger the non-canonical inflammasome. Classically, it is the binding of cytosolic E. coli LPS (lipid A) to caspase 11 (via the CARD domain) that leads to GSDMD cleavage and pyroptosis. To test whether the LPS of L. interrogans would also fulfill this function, purified leptospiral LPS was transfected into RAW-ASC cells and we monitored pyroptotic cell death. First, we controlled that the LPS from L. interrogans and from E. coli were transfected with the same efficiency by measuring GFP-fluorescence, produced from a plasmid co-transfected with the LPS, 1-3h post-transfection (Sup. Figure 3). Then, we addressed 6h post transfection, by epifluorescence microscopy, the morphological properties of the transfected cells, identifiable via their GFP fluorescence. As expected, cell transfected without LPS (Empty) displayed physiological morphology, whereas cell transfected with E. coli LPS were loosely adherent with damaged membranes as observed in bright field, and with a very faint GFP intensity (Figure 5A). Of note, reduction of the GFP signal in these cells suggests that membrane permeability was altered, allowing for the GFP signal leakage, consistent with the induction of pyroptosis. In contrast, cells transfected with the leptospiral LPS showed similar features as the negative control cells, suggesting that no pyroptosis had occurred (Figure 5A). To further confirm this results, transfected cells were stained with propidium iodide (PI), a fluorescent dye staining nuclei that only enters in cells upon rupture of the plasma membrane. Cells were then analyzed by flow cytometry (Figure 5B) and fluorimetry (Figure 5C) at 12h and 24h post-transfection, respectively. Both methods confirmed that the LPS of L. interrogans did not induce PI accumulation even at 24h post-transfection, unlike the classical cytosolic LPS of E. coli, that efficiently triggered pyroptosis. Interestingly, the levels of PI fluorescence were even lower upon transfection of the leptospiral LPS than in the negative control cells, suggesting that the leptospiral LPS contributes to cell death prevention. Furthermore, LDH release was monitored 24h post-transfection with different amounts of leptospiral LPS from L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495, serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun, serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1 130 and from L. biflexa serovar Patoc strain Patoc I. We evidenced no LDH release upon transfection with leptospiral LPS from

either pathogenic *L. interrogans* or saprophytic *L. biflexa* (**Figure 5D**). Interestingly here again we observed that LPS from pathogenic leptospires reduced the basal level of spontaneous LDH release of murine macrophages. Finally, to confirm that the leptospiral LPS did not trigger the non-canonical inflammasome, we performed native gel analysis of caspase 11 (known to dimerize upon activation) after LPS transfection. Upon transfection of *E. coli* LPS, a shift of the band that could correspond to the dimerized caspase 11 was visible as expected (**Figure 5E**). However, this shift was not observed upon transfection of the leptospiral LPS (**Figure 5E**). Overall, these data show that transfected leptospiral LPS does not induce caspase 11 dimerization and subsequent pyroptotic cell death thus escaping activation of the non-canonical inflammasome.

## Leptospiral LPS potently inhibits E. coli LPS-induced cell death

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Our results showed that LPS from pathogenic leptospires could prevent macrophage cell death by reducing spontaneous LDH release and PI accumulation upon transfection. We therefore investigated if the leptospiral LPS could also protect against a strong activation of pyroptosis by transfected E. coli LPS. To address this, we compared cell transfected with either L. interrogans LPS, E. coli LPS or cells co-transfected with equal amounts of both LPS. Strikingly, the leptospiral LPS was able to strongly reduce PI accumulation at both 12h and 24h post-transfection (measured by cytometry and fluorimetry, respectively) (Figure 6A, left panels). In order to address potential competition between the two toxins, we also performed sequential transfection of the two LPS and observed that the best inhibition occurred upon pre-transfection of the cells with the leptospiral LPS 4h before adding the LPS of E. coli (Figure 6A, right panel). Consistently, we observed that LPS from L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495, serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun and serovar Copenhageni strain Fiorruz L1-130 all decreased LDH release upon co-transfection with E. coli LPS, although LPS from L495 was more potent (Figure 6B, left panel). Interestingly, we found that the LPS of the saprophytic L. biflexa serovar Patoc strain Patoc I was not able to induce such inhibition (Figure 6B, right panel). Furthermore, we addressed at a molecular level both the dimerization of caspase 11 and the cleavage of GSDMD upon LPS co-transfection. Interestingly, the LPS of L. interrogans led to a reduction of both caspase 11 dimerization and GSDMD cleavage induced by cytosolic LPS of E. coli (Figure 6C). Classically, the mechanism by which E. coli LPS activates caspase 11 involves direct binding of the lipid A to the CARD domain of the enzyme, hence triggering its dimerization. Therefore, we decided to analyze potential binding of L. interrogans LPS and E. coli LPS to recombinant caspase 11. However, we only found commercial recombinant caspase 11 enzyme that lacked the CARD binding domain (Figure 6D). Nevertheless, we incubated this recombinant caspase 11 with the different LPS and analyzed their migration on highly reticulated polyacrylamide gels (20%) that do not allow the migration of the LPS / bound enzyme, but only allow migration of the unbound material. As expected, the E. coli LPS did not bind the enzyme lacking its CARD domain. Interestingly, we observed a binding of the leptospiral LPS to this recombinant caspase 11 (Figure 6E). Although we could not address the

specificity nor the nature of the interaction, this result suggests an atypical interaction between the leptospiral LPS and caspase 11, that could play a role in the cell death inhibition. Finally, as we observed that the leptospiral LPS was strongly inhibiting cell death by targeting caspase 11 of the non-canonical inflammasome, we excluded a role for the canonical inflammasome by showing that this inhibitory effect was conserved in both RAW-ASC and RAW264.7 cells that respectively harbor and lack a functional canonical inflammasome (**Figure 6F**).

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# Pyroptosis escape by leptospires prevents massive IL1β release and IL1 receptor signaling pathway does not contribute to the control of experimental acute leptospirosis

Lastly, we investigated the functional consequences of the escape of pyroptosis by leptospires. We hypothesized that, leptospiral escape of pyroptosis greatly dampens the IL1β release induced upon infection. To test such hypothesis in vitro, we infected RAW-ASC cells with L. interrogans and artificially induced pyroptosis by adding ATP 3h before measuring IL1ß in cell supernatants. Results showed that leptospires alone induce only mild IL1β production 24h post infection. Interestingly, upon infection followed by ATP treatment, the levels of IL1ß in the supernatant were 5 times higher (Figure 7A, left panel). This massive release was further shown to be specific to IL1β considering that the levels of the chemokine RANTES were not modified with or without the ATP trigger of cell pyroptosis (**Figure 7A**, *right panel*). Furthermore, considering that leptospires do escape massive IL1β secretion in vitro, we decided to test the importance of the IL1β signaling pathway in vivo using IL1 receptor (il1r) knock-out (--) mice. Leptospirosis is a biphasic disease that comprises an initial acute phase with blood replication of leptospires, that can be lethal with the L495 strain (4). In mice infected with sub-lethal doses of leptospires, the bacteria disappear from the blood stream before reappearing around 8 days post-infection localized in the proximal tubules of the kidneys, where they establish a life-long chronic colonization (4). We therefore performed intraperitoneal infections of both males and females WT and illr-'- mice with a lethal dose of 108 L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495 per mouse. First, we monitored the weight loss during the first 3 days of the infection, and we observed no significant differences between the WT and illr. (Figure 7B, upper panel). Consistently, we observed no statistically significant differences in the survival rates of both groups (Figure 7B, lower panel). More specifically, we also graded the symptoms of individual mice, according to a clinical chart that we previously published (32). Interestingly, we observed no striking difference between the clinical grades of the WT and illr- mice (Figure 7C). At day 3 post-infection, animals of both groups had reached the ethical endpoint and were consequently euthanized. We observed no difference in the leptospiral loads in blood between WT and  $illr^{-1}$  mice (**Figure 7D**). Finally, we measured the expression levels of inflammatory cytokines in the kidneys, as a readout for inflammation in the organs targeted by leptospires. We observed no differences in the expression of inflammatory markers IL6 and IL1B between WT and *illr*-/- mice (Figure 7E). To confirm these results obtained with the lethal L495 strain, we also performed acute infection with  $2x10^8 L$ . interrogans serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 per mouse. Of note, this strain induces an acute but non-lethal leptospirosis. The cytokine expression profiles in the kidney 3 days post-infection showed again no difference in IL6 and IL1 $\beta$  between WT and  $il1r^{-/-}$  mice (**Sup. Figure 4**). In conclusion, the IL1 $\beta$  signaling pathway does not seem to play a major role during acute leptospirosis *in vivo*.

# Discussion

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Our results showed that infection with three of the main pathogenic serovars of L. interrogans (serovars Manilae, Copenhageni and Icterohaemorrhagiae) did not induce cell death in primary murine, bovine and hamster BMDMs. Also, we had previously reported no induction of cell death upon infection of primary human monocytes (33) and we confirmed such findings in THP1-CD14 monocyte-like cells. These findings were extended by showing a lack of cytotoxicity of the saprophytic L. biflexa in both murine and human cells. Considering that leptospirosis is a zoonosis that affects differently all vertebrates, and because the species-specificity of the innate immune response might play an essential role in the course of the infection, it was our interest to address leptospiral cytotoxicity in different hosts. Mice are resistant to the acute form of the disease and get chronically infected in their kidneys. On the other hand, humans and bovines are susceptible and present diverse symptoms (34), and hamsters are very susceptible to the disease and are the referent model for acute human leptospirosis (35). We therefore showed that the lack of induced macrophage cell death upon infection with either pathogenic or saprophytic leptospires is a conserved mechanism in both susceptible and resistant hosts. In murine BMDMs, we further excluded induction of both pyroptosis and apoptosis, with no cleavage of GSDMD and caspase 3, respectively. However, in the current literature, it has been described that L. interrogans serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun induces apoptosis in Vero cells and mouse J774 macrophages (36) and that other serovars of L. interrogans could kill macrophages through either necrosis (necroptosis/pyroptosis) (37) or through induction of caspase 8/3-dependent apoptosis (30). In contrast, other publications using L. interrogans serovar Manilae and serovar Copenhageni (38) confirm that infection does not have major cytotoxic effects on murine macrophages. To reconcile our results with the current literature, we therefore hypothesize that different cell types (primary cells versus cell lines; epithelial cells versus macrophages) could be differentially susceptible to the infection. Such hypothesis is supported by a study that demonstrated differential cytotoxicity of leptospires in different cell types (39). We are also aware that culture conditions of cell lines, especially over confluency at the time of infection with leptospires, induce biased and aspecific cell death that could also explain the discrepant results in the literature.

To the extent of our knowledge, *L. interrogans* would be the first bacteria to efficiently trigger the canonical NLRP3 inflammasome (21), and yet escape subsequent induction of pyroptosis. Furthermore, although the IL1β production triggered by leptospires is mediated by NLRP3 and caspase 1, its release upon infection seems to be atypical. Indeed, our results showed that leptospires only triggered mild GSDMD cleavage, independent of both caspase 1 and caspase 11, but dependent of caspase 8. Several recent studies have highlighted the versatility of caspase 8, usually involved in apoptosis, but also involved in numerous cell death pathways (28, 40, 41). Indeed, few studies reported GSDMD cleavage and pyroptosis induction by caspase 8 (27-29). However, we do not know how leptospiral-induced GSDMD cleavage is maintained at non-lytic levels. Therefore, further studies are

required to understand the underlying mechanism of this non-lethal role of caspase 8. We hypothesize, as suggested (31), that limited accumulation of GSDMD N-ter fragments could lead to the formation of small non-lytic pores, that would only allow mild secretion of IL1β.

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Classically, human caspases 4-5 and murine caspases 11 dimerize and are activated upon binding of the lipid A moiety of the cytosolic LPS through their CARD domain (17, 42). Our results showed that transfection of the leptospiral LPS did not induce the dimerization of caspase 11, unlike cytosolic LPS of E. coli, suggesting that the activation of the enzyme did not occur. It remains to be determined what leptospiral LPS feature is responsible for this phenotype. Our results showed that different leptospiral serovars, defined by their different O antigen (43-45) and that harbor a conserved lipid A (10, 46, 47), all escape pyroptosis induction to a similar extent, suggesting that the leptospiral lipid A might be responsible for the phenotype. Although its structure is not known to this date, our results also show that the LPS of L. biflexa is not cytotoxic. We may therefore speculate that its lipid A might not be very different from the pathogenic ones. Caspases 4-5/11 all respond to both penta- and hexa-acylated lipids A but tetra-acylated lipids A are not recognized by murine caspase 11 (48, 49). For instance, LPS of Francisella novicida is tetra-acylated, and several other tetra-acylated LPS (Helicobacter pylori, Rhizobium galegae) have been shown to escape caspase 11 induction (18), suggesting that penta or hexa-acylation levels are prerequisite for caspase 11 activation (50, 51). Considering that the leptospiral lipid A is hexa-acylated, our main hypothesis is therefore that the other features of the lipid A (methylated 1-position phosphate group and lacking 4'-position phosphate group, unsaturated acyl chains and amide liaisons) (10) could be responsible for lack of interaction with caspase 11 and pyroptosis escape. Such hypothesis would be consistent with a study suggesting that lack 4'-position phosphate group in F. novicida lipid A would also contribute to caspase 11 induction escape (48, 50). Unfortunately, we were not able to directly assess the binding of the leptospiral lipid A to the CARD domain of caspase 11, given that commercial recombinant inflammatory caspases are devoid of their CARD domains, most probably because of their activation and cleavage upon binding of endogenous endotoxins present during the expression process. A study consistently reported that production of caspase 11 in E. coli is not appropriate for the study of non-activated caspase 11 (17).

In addition to the pyroptosis escape mechanism of the leptospiral LPS, our results strikingly evidenced a cytoprotective effect of LPS from *L. interrogans* on murine macrophages. Indeed, we showed a potent antagonistic effect of the leptospiral LPS on spontaneous cell death and furthermore on *E. coli* LPS induced cell death. Inhibitory effects on pyroptosis induction have previously been described for the atypical LPS of *Helicobacter pylori* and *Rhizobium galegae*. However, in these cases, the mechanism is linked to the tetra-acylation of the lipid A (18). For *L. interrogans*, our results interestingly showed that the LPS of different serovars, that have conserved lipid A (10, 46, 47), but that differ in the structure of their O antigen (43-45) do not have the same ability to inhibit *E. coli* LPS induced cell death. We therefore favor a role for the O antigen in the inhibitory effect of the leptospiral

LPS. Such hypothesis is supported by the fact that the LPS of the saprophytic L. biflexa, that has a very short O antigen (6, 45) distinct from the pathogenic ones, is not cytoprotective. Interestingly, the carbohydrate component of the leptospiral LPS is peculiar and does not have the same sugar composition than the repeated units of classical LPS such as the one of E. coli (26, 43-45). Although the O antigen section of the LPS is not supposed to be involved in caspase 11 activation, several studies previously reported that it could interfere with activation of the non-canonical inflammasome. Salmonella and Shigella both trigger low pyroptosis whereas mutant strains with shorter or completely lacking O antigen induce higher levels of pyroptosis (52, 53). It is therefore believed that the full-length O antigen could interfere with the lipid A binding to caspase 11 (53). Our results showing that the leptospiral LPS binds caspase 11 through an atypical interaction, independent of the CARD domain, further support the hypothesis that steric hindrance could prevents caspase 11 activation by E. coli LPS and consequent pyroptosis induction. Overall, we believe that the escape and cytoprotective effects of the leptospiral LPS would be linked to two different mechanisms, involving the lipid A and the O antigen, respectively. Interestingly, our results showed that prevention of spontaneous death by the leptospiral LPS is restricted to murine cells and is not visible in cells from other hosts. We may speculate that the differences between the orthologs of non-canonical caspases 4-5 (present in humans & bovines) and caspase 11 (present in mice), that share less than 60% amino acid homology, could account for the species-specificity of the cytoprotection of the leptospiral LPS.

On the host side, comparing RAW264.7 and RAW-ASC cell lines, we showed that the antagonistic effect of leptospiral LPS was independent of the ASC adaptor and consequently independent of the canonical-inflammasome, suggesting involvement of components of the non-canonical inflammasome. Our results further demonstrated that the leptospiral LPS was able to prevent caspase 11 dimerization, showing that the inhibitory effect occurred upstream of the caspase 11-GSDMD-pyroptosis pathway. Interestingly, other pyroptosis prevention mechanisms occur downstream of caspase 11, with direct GSDMD targeting (54, 55). Overall, we propose that the leptospiral LPS, through its atypical features, prevents pyroptosis very early on, which could partially explain the striking efficiency of the inhibition.

The mechanism by which the cytoprotective leptospiral LPS is internalized in macrophages remains unknown. Indeed, although some leptospires are intracellular, they do not reside nor replicate inside cells (25) and their internalization is dose-dependent. However, our results showed that a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of only 1 bacterium *per* macrophage, corresponding to only a few macrophages with internalized leptospires, can efficiently inhibit spontaneous cell death. We therefore believe that the cytoprotective effect is not restricted to *Leptospira*-infected macrophages and that other LPS internalization mechanism(s) occur. As proposed for other bacteria, one hypothesis is that the LPS could gain access to the cytosol through bacterial outer-membrane vesicles (OMVs) that would fuse with the cell membrane (56). In addition, considering the potency of the effect (for which a dose-

dependency is only visible at MOI 0.1), we believe that other mechanisms, such as paracrine signaling, may contribute to the retro-amplification of the cytoprotection. This is currently under investigation in our group.

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This study is consistent with previous studies from our laboratory showing that leptospires already escape NOD1/2, TLR5 and TLR4-TRIF responses in murine macrophages, hence considerably dampening the production of cytokines, chemokines, and antimicrobial compounds (5-7) making leptospires very discrete bacteria. We had previously showed that leptospires activate NLRP3 inflammasome and trigger the production of IL1 $\beta$  (21). Classically, the IL1 $\beta$  secreted by macrophages allows, once systemic, to induce fever and hepatic responses, such as C-reactive protein and complement response. Furthermore, IL1β induces potent amplification of inflammation through IL1 receptor (IL1R) (57). Our results showed that pyroptosis escape upon leptospiral infection results in concealing IL1β inside macrophages. In addition, our *in vivo* results showed that the course of acute leptospirosis is similar in WT and  $illr^{-/-}$  mice and that both genotypes express inflammatory markers at similar levels. These results suggest that the mild IL1ß secretion induced upon infection is not enough to trigger a massive retro-activation loop nor to mount a strong inflammatory response upon infection with leptospires. Such findings are consistent with several clinical studies that showed no statistical difference in IL1B levels between control groups and patients suffering from acute leptospirosis, suggesting that IL1B is not a good marker for leptospirosis (58-60). However, we cannot exclude that IL1β and its receptor could play a role in the establishment of chronic leptospirosis, that we could not investigate due to the limited available number of  $illr^{-1}$  mice.

Overall, our study revealed a novel and unique immune escape mechanism by which leptospires decorrelate the canonical and non-canonical inflammasomes, thus reducing IL1 $\beta$ -mediated inflammation despite NLRP3 activation.

# Acknowledgments

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We acknowledge Damien Arnoult, Stephen Girardin and Dana Philpott for fruitful discussions and for their kind suggestions. We also acknowledge Sonia Lacroix-Lamandé and Sylvain Bourgeais (UEPAO, INRAE CVL, France) as well as Nadia Benaroudj (Institut Pasteur Paris, France) for kindly providing the bovine and hamster bones, respectively. We warmly thank Bernard Ryffel (CNRS Orléans), and the TAMM for the kind gift of *il1r*-/- mice. Finally, we acknowledge Frédérique Vernel-Pauillac for initial training of students.

# **Fundings statement**

This work was funded by Institut Pasteur grant PTR2017-66 to CW and by Agence Nationale de la Recherche (ANR) grant ANR-10-LABX-62-IBEID to IGB. DB was funded by Université Paris Cité (formerly Université Paris Diderot) through Doctoral school FIRE (ED FIRE474). SP was funded by Université Paris Cité (formerly Université Paris Descartes) through Doctoral school BioSPC (ED BioSPC). RP was funded by École Normale Supérieure (ENS).

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# Figure legends

- 812 Figure 1. Although they induce IL1β secretion in murine BMDMs, leptospires prevent
- 813 cell death

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- 814 A) Western Blot analysis of caspase 1 in BMDMs after 10h infection with MOI 100 of
- 815 L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495 (blue), serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun
- 816 (red), serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 (green). **B)** IL1 $\beta$  dosage by ELISA in the
- supernatant of RAW-ASC cells after 24h infection with MOI 10-100 of the three serotypes of
- 818 L. interrogans mentioned above. C-D) LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) on the
- supernatant of BMDMs after 24h infection with C) MOI 1-100 of the three serotypes of
- 820 L. interrogans mentioned above, **D)** MOI 10-100 of heat-killed strain L495 or 24h stimulation
- with 0.5-1 μg/mL of purified leptospiral LPS from strain L495. **E-F)** Cell viability (measured
- by MTT) assay in BMDMs after 24h infection with E) MOI 1-100 of the three serotypes of
- 823 L. interrogans mentioned above, F) MOI 10-100 of heat-killed strain L495 or 24h stimulation
- 824 with 0.5-1 μg/mL of purified leptospiral LPS from L495. C-F) Positive control of pyroptosis
- 825 is 1 μg/mL of E. coli LPS + 5 mM ATP. G) BMDMs enumeration by high-content (HC)
- microscopy at the time of cell plating (0h), or after 24h with either infection by MOI 10-100 of
- 827 *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or stimulation with 0.1-1 μg/mL of its purified LPS.
- 828 Control stimulation is performed with 1 µg/mL of E. coli LPS. A-G) Bars correspond to mean
- +-SD of technical replicates (n>4). Data presented are representative of at least 3 independent
- experiments.
- Figure 2. Leptospires do not trigger pyroptosis in bovine and hamster BMDMs, nor in
- 832 human macrophages
- 833 **A-B)** Microscopy images, cell viability (measured by MTT assay), LDH release (measured by
- 834 CyQuant assay), and nitric oxide production (measured by Griess reaction) on A) bovine and
- 835 **B)** hamster BMDMs 24h after infection with MOI 10-100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae
- 836 strain L495 (blue), serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun (red) or serovar Copenhageni
- strain Fiocruz L1-130 (green). Positive control of pyroptosis is 1 µg/mL of E. coli LPS + 5 mM
- 838 ATP. Bars correspond to mean  $\pm$  SD of technical replicates (n=4). Data presented are
- representative of A) 3 independent experiments and B) 2 independent experiments. C) IL1B
- dosage (measured by ELISA), LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) and cell viability
- (measured by MTT assay) on human THP1-CD14 cells 24h after infection with MOI 10-100

- of L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495 (blue), serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain
- Verdun (red) or serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 (green). Positive control of
- pyroptosis is 1  $\mu$ M of nigericin. Bars correspond to mean +/- SD of technical replicates (n=4).
- Data presented are representative of at least 3 independent experiments.

# 846 Figure 3. Leptospires do not trigger apoptosis or pyroptosis molecular pathways in

- 847 murine BMDMs
- 848 A) Left panel. Western blot analysis of caspase 3 in BMDMs after overnight infection with
- MOI 10-100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or with addition of 1-5 μM of
- staurosporine 5h *prior* to cell collection as positive control for apoptosis induction. *Right panel*.
- Kinetics of caspase 3/7 activity, assessed by fluorometry measures every 15 min of cleaved
- 852 substrate Ac-DEVD-AMC, in BMDMs after overnight infection with MOI 100 of
- 853 L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495, or control stimulation with addition of 1 μM of
- staurosporine 5h prior to cell collection as positive control for apoptosis induction. Dots
- correspond to mean  $\pm$  SD of technical replicates (n=6). B) Western blot and mRNA RT-qPCR
- analyses of caspase 11 in BMDMs after either 8h (WB, *left panel*) or 6h (qPCR, *right panel*)
- infection with MOI 100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or positive control of
- 858 pyroptosis 1 μg/mL of E. coli LPS + 2-5 mM ATP. C) Western blot analysis (left panel) and
- quantification (right panel) in BMDMs and RAW-ASC cells after 8h infection with MOI 100
- of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or positive control of pyroptosis 1 μg/mL of *E.*
- 861 coli LPS + 2-5 mM ATP. B-C) Bars correspond to the mean of at least 3 independent
- experiments. A-C) Data presented are representative of at least 3 independent experiments.

# 863 Figure 4. Caspase 8 contributes to mild GSDMD cleavage and IL1β secretion upon

- 864 **leptospiral infection**
- 865 A) Western blot analysis, B) WB quantification of GSDMD in RAW-ASC cells and C) IL1β
- dosage (measured by ELISA) in the supernatant of cells pretreated for 30 min with caspase 1/11
- 867 inhibitor (Ac-YVAD-cmk, 50 µM), caspase 8 inhibitor (Z-IETD-FMK, 20 µM) or
- pan-caspases inhibitor (Z-VAD-FMK, 10 µg/mL) and then infected for 16h with MOI 100 of
- 869 L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495. Bars correspond to mean +/- SD of technical
- 870 replicates (n=3). **D)** Western blot analysis of caspase 8 in RAW-ASC cells pretreated with
- 871 caspase 8 inhibitor (Z-IETD-FMK, 20 µM) or pan-caspase inhibitor (Z-VAD-FMK,

872 10 μg/mL) and stimulated for 5h with 0.5-2 μM of staurosporine. A-C) Data presented are

873 representative of at least 3 independent experiments.

## Figure 5. Transfected leptospiral LPS escapes pyroptosis and even prevents spontaneous

# 875 cell death

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876 A) Epifluorescence microscopy of RAW-ASC cells after 6h transfection with pCMV-GFP and 877 either 10 µg/mL E. coli LPS or 10 µg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain 878 L495. B) Cell death monitored by flow cytometry analysis of propidium iodide (PI) integration 879 in RAW-ASC cells after 12h transfection with pCMV-GFP and either 10 µg/mL E. coli LPS or 880 10 μg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495. C) Cell death monitored by 881 fluorimetry analysis of PI integration in RAW-ASC cells after 24h transfection with pcDNA3 882 and either 10 µg/mL E. coli LPS or 10 µg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain 883 L495. Lines correspond to mean  $\pm$  SD of technical replicates (n=4). **D)** LDH release 884 (measured by CyQuant assay) on the supernatants of RAW-ASC cells after 24h transfection 885 with pcDNA3 and either 10 μg/mL E. coli LPS or 10 μg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar 886 Manilae strain L495 (blue), serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun (red), serovar 887 Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 (green) or L. biflexa LPS from serovar Patoc strain Patoc I 888 (orange). Bars correspond to mean  $\pm$ - SD of technical replicates (n=6). E) Western blot 889 analysis in native conditions of caspase 11 in RAW-ASC cells after 24h transfection with 890 pCMV-GFP and either 10 µg/mL E. coli LPS or 10 µg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar 891 Manilae strain L495. A-E) Data presented are representative of at least 3 independent 892 experiments.

# Figure 6. Leptospiral LPS potently inhibits E. coli LPS-induced cell death

A) Cell death monitored by analysis of propidium iodide (PI) integration by flow cytometry 12h post-transfection and by fluorimetry 24h post-transfection in RAW-ASC cells, after transfection with pCMV-GFP and 10 μg/mL *E. coli* LPS, 10 μg/mL *L. interrogans* LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495, or after either co-transfection or sequential transfection of 10 μg/mL of both LPS. B) LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) on the supernatant of RAW-ASC cells after 24h transfection with pcDNA3 and 10 μg/mL *E. coli* LPS + 10 μg/mL *L. interrogans* LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495 (blue), serovar Icterohaemorrhagiae strain Verdun (red), serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 (green) or *L. biflexa* LPS from serovar Patoc strain Patoc 1 (orange). Bars correspond to mean +/- SD of technical replicates

(n=6). C) Left panel. Western Blot analysis in native conditions of caspase 11 in RAW-ASC cells after 12h transfection with pCMV-GFP and 10 µg/mL E. coli LPS, 10 µg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495 or 10 µg/mL of both LPS. C) Right panel. Western Blot analysis of GSDMD in RAW-ASC cells after 12h transfection with pCMV-GFP and 10 μg/mL E. coli LPS, 10 μg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495 or 10 µg/mL of both LPS. **D)** Schematic representation of full length and recombinant caspase 11 lacking the LPS-binding CARD domain. E) Binding assay between recombinant caspase 11 and E. coli LPS or L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495, performed on highly reticulated 20% polyacrylamide native gels that do not allow the entrance of LPS and bound material and only allow migration of unbound proteins. F) LDH release (measured by CyQuant) assay on the supernatant of either RAW-ASC or parental RAW264.7 cells 24h after transfection with pcDNA3 and 10 µg/mL E. coli LPS, 10 µg/mL L. interrogans LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495 or 10 µg/mL of both LPS. Bars correspond to mean  $\pm$  SD of technical replicates (n=3). A-E) Data presented are representative of at least 3 independent experiments.

# Figure 7. Pyroptosis escape by leptospires prevents massive IL1β release and IL1R signaling pathway does not contribute to the control of experimental leptospirosis

A) IL1β and RANTES dosage by ELISA in the supernatant of RAW-ASC cells 24h after infection with MOI 100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495, with or without addition of 5 mM ATP 3h before supernatant collection. Bars correspond to mean +/- SD of technical replicates (*n*=4). Data presented are representative of 3 independent experiments. B) Weight loss and survival curve of WT C57BL/6J or IL1 receptor (*il1r*) knock-out (<sup>-/-</sup>) mice after intraperitoneal (IP) infection with 10<sup>8</sup> *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or control PBS injection. C) Severity grading of clinical signs of WT C57BL/6J or *il1r* -/- mice after IP infection with 10<sup>8</sup> *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495. D) Leptospiral loads measured by qPCR in blood of surviving WT C57BL/6J or *il1r* -/- mice 3 days post IP infection with 10<sup>8</sup> *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or control PBS injection. E) IL6 and IL1β cytokines mRNA levels measured by RT-qPCR in kidneys of surviving WT C57BL/6J or *il1r* -/- mice 3 days post IP infection with 10<sup>8</sup> *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495 or control PBS injection. B-E) Data were pooled from two independent experiments performed with either *n*=3 male or *n*=3 female mice *per* group.

Figure 1.

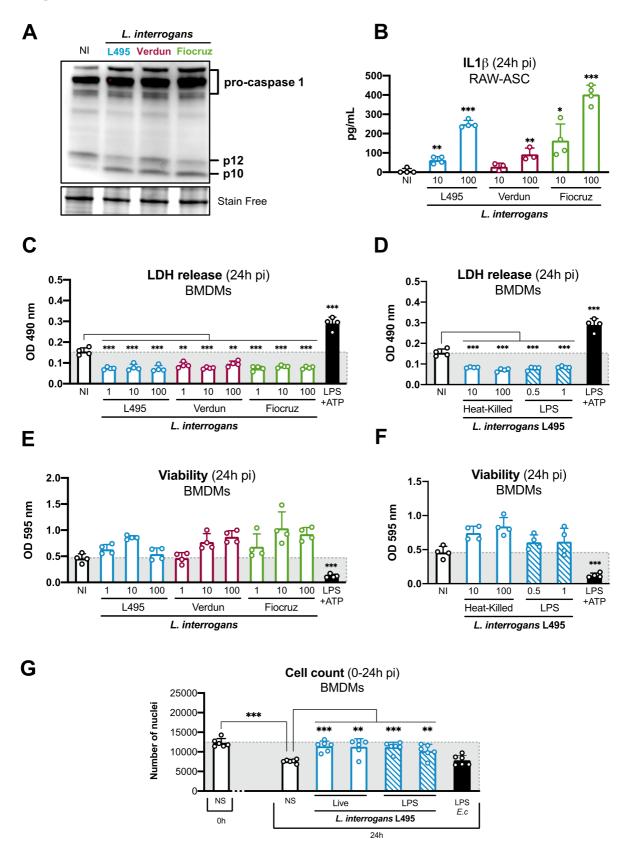


Figure 2.

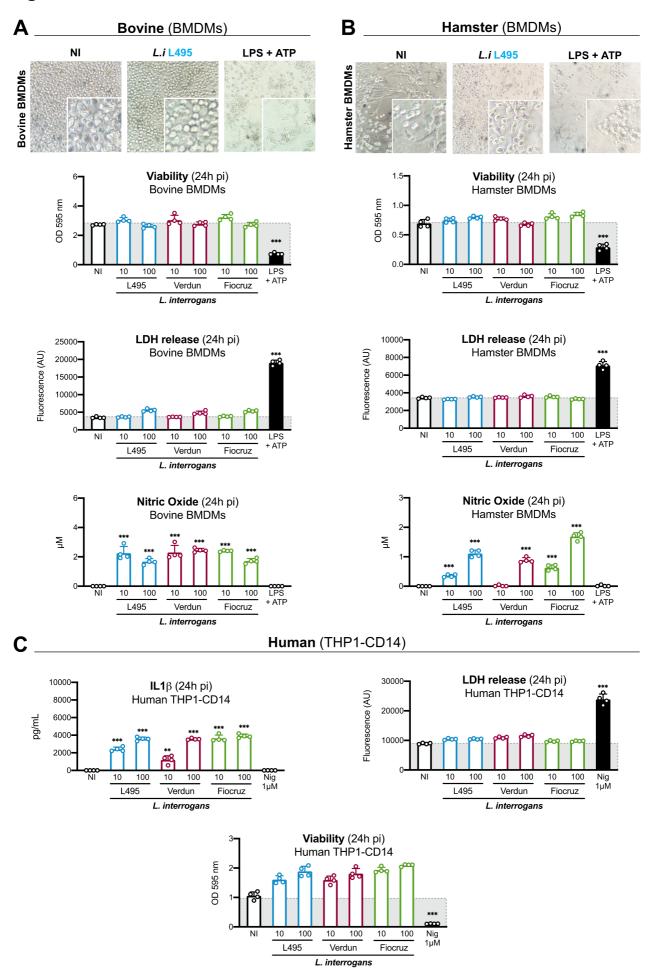
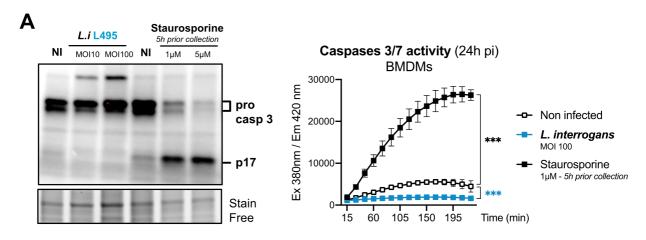
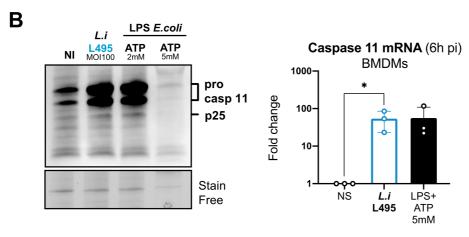
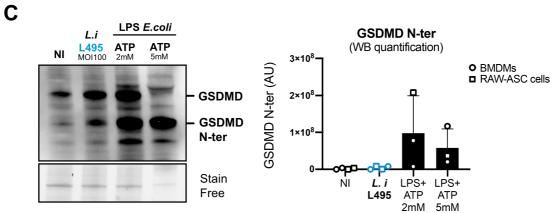


Figure 3.







# Figure 4.

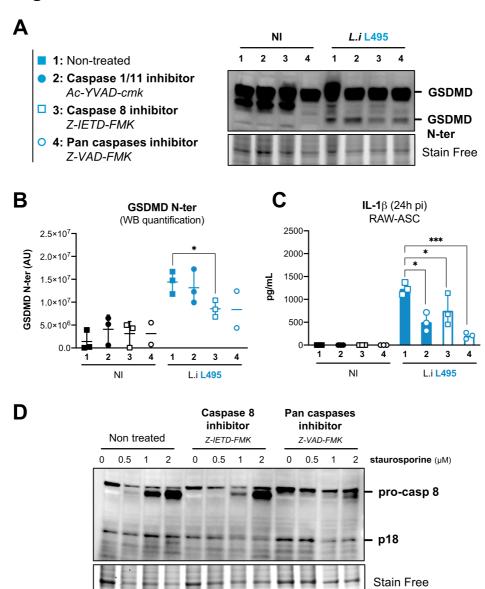


Figure 5.

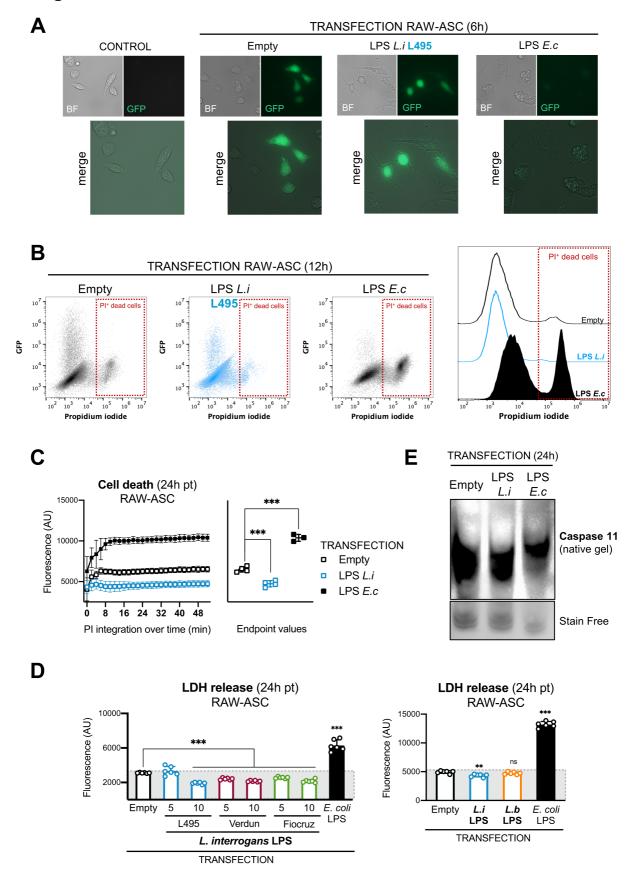
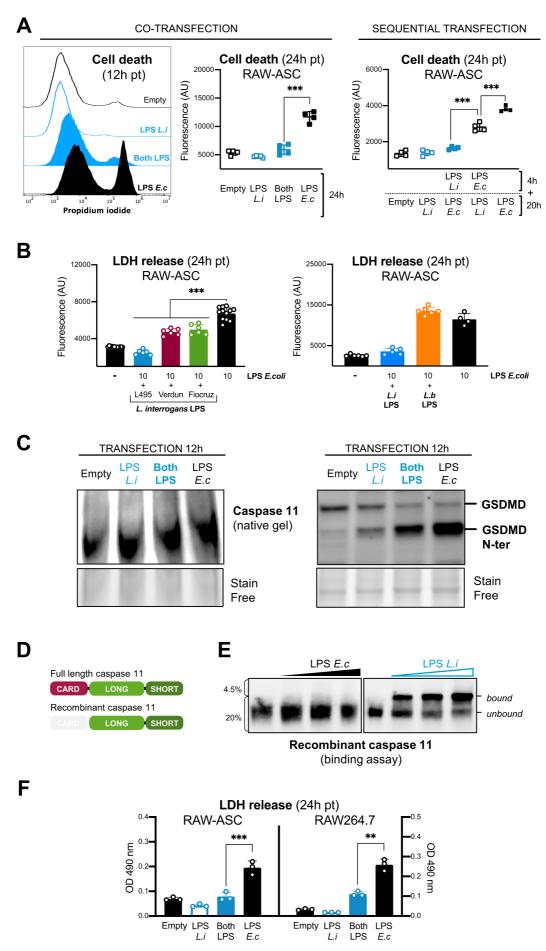
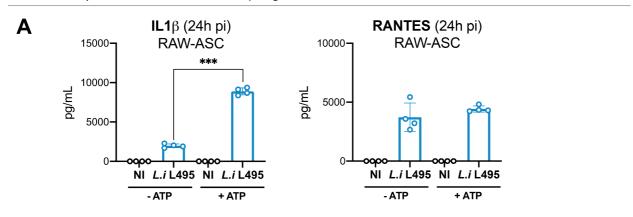


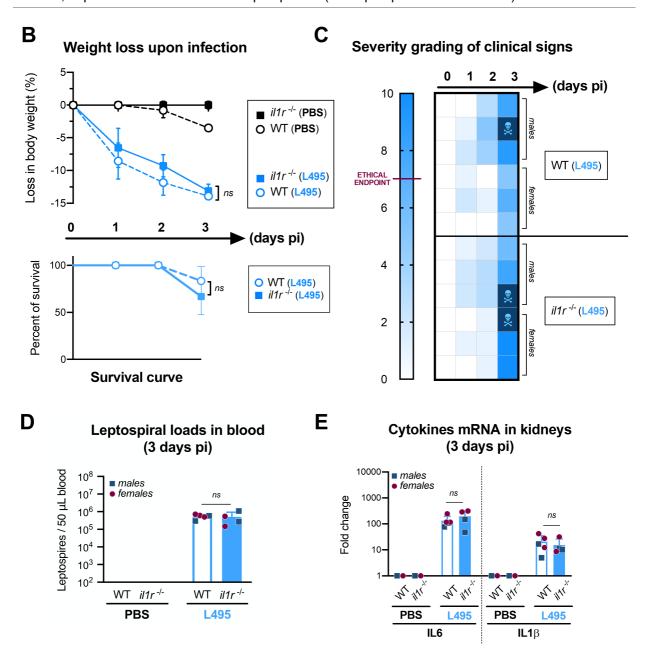
Figure 6.

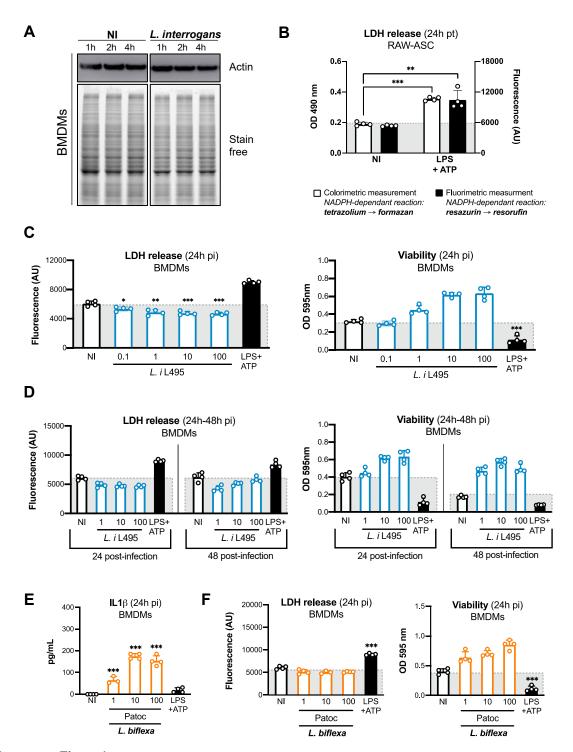


**Figure 7.** *In vitro*, IL1β release in murine macrophages



In vivo, experimental acute & lethal leptospirosis (108 leptospires L495 / mouse)

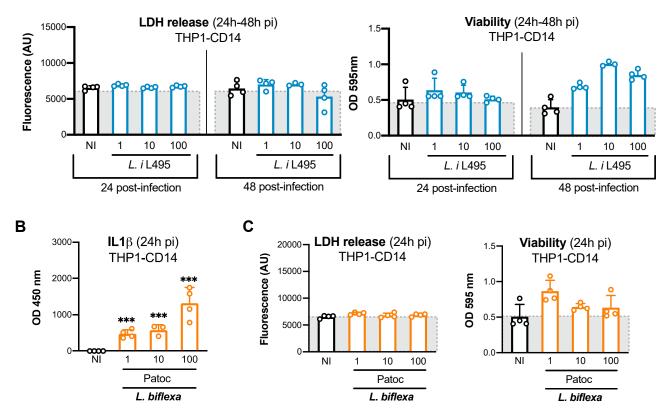




#### Supplementary Figure 1.

A) Western blot analysis of actin in BMDMs 1h, 2h and 4h post-infection with *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495. B) LDH release measured by both colorimetric and fluorimetric CyQuant assays on the supernatant of RAW-ASC cells 24h post-stimulation with 1 μg/mL of *E. coli* LPS + 5 mM ATP. C) *Left panel*. LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) on the supernatant of BMDMs after 24h infection with MOI 0.1-100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495. *Right panel*. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in BMDMs after 24h infection with MOI 0.1-100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495. Positive control of pyroptosis is 1 μg/mL of *E. coli* LPS + 5 mM ATP. D) *Left panel*. LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) on the supernatant of BMDMs after either 24h or 48h infection with MOI 1-100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495. *Right panel*. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in BMDMs after either 24h or 48h infection with MOI 1-100 of *L. interrogans* serovar Manilae strain L495. Positive control of pyroptosis is 1μg/mL of *E. coli* LPS + 5 mM ATP. E) IL1β dosage (measured by ELISA) in the supernatant of BMDMs after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of *L. biflexa* strain Patoc I. *Right panel*. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in BMDMs after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of *L. biflexa* strain Patoc I. *Right panel*. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in BMDMs after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of *L. biflexa* strain Patoc I. *Right panel*. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in BMDMs after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of *L. biflexa* strain Patoc I.

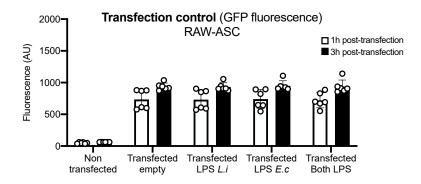




#### **Supplementary Figure 2.**

A) Left panel. LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) on the supernatant of THP1-CD14 cells after either 24h or 48h infection with MOI 1-100 of L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495. Right panel. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in THP1-CD14 cells after either 24h or 48h infection with MOI 1-100 of L. interrogans serovar Manilae strain L495.

B) IL1β dosage (measured by ELISA) in the supernatant of THP1-CD14 cells after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of L. biflexa serovar Patoc strain Patoc I. C) Left panel. LDH release (measured by CyQuant assay) on the supernatant of THP1-CD14 cells after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of L. biflexa serovar Patoc strain Patoc I. Right panel. Cell viability (measured by MTT assay) in THP1-CD14 after 24h infection with MOI 1-100 of L. biflexa serovar Patoc strain Patoc I.

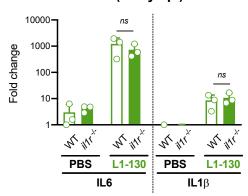


# Supplementary Figure 3.

GFP-fluorescence analysis of RAW-ASC cells after 1h or 3h transfection with pCMV-GFP and 10  $\mu$ g/mL *E. coli* LPS, 10  $\mu$ g/mL *L. interrogans* LPS from serovar Manilae strain L495, or after co-transfection of 10  $\mu$ g/mL of both LPS.

*In vivo*, experimental acute leptospirosis (2x10<sup>8</sup> leptospires Fiocruz L1-130 / mouse)

# Cytokines mRNA in kidneys (3 days pi)



# Supplementary Figure 4.

IL6 and IL1 $\beta$  cytokines mRNA levels measured by RT-qPCR in kidneys in WT C57BL/6J or *il1r* -/- mice 3 days post IP infection with  $2x10^8$  *L. interrogans* serovar Copenhageni strain Fiocruz L1-130 or control PBS injection. Data from one experiment performed with n=3 mice.