Activation of *Drosophila* Toll During Fungal Infection by a Blood Serine Protease

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Drosophila host defense to fungal and Gram-positive bacterial infection is mediated by the Spaetzle/Toll/cactus gene cassette. It has been proposed that Toll does not function as a pattern recognition receptor per se but is activated through a cleaved form of the cytokine Spaetzle. The upstream events linking infection to the cleavage of Spaetzle have long remained elusive. Here we report the identification of a central component of the fungal activation of Toll. We show that ethylmethane sulfonate—induced mutations in the *persephone* gene, which encodes a previously unknown serine protease, block induction of the Toll pathway by fungi and resistance to this type of infection.

The Drosophila host defense is a multifaceted process, which involves the challenge-dependent synthesis of potent antimicrobial peptides by the fat body, a functional equivalent of the mammalian liver (1). Two intracellular signaling pathways mediate the synthesis of these peptides: the Toll and the Imd pathway (2, 3). Toll is activated during fungal and Gram-positive bacterial defenses, and the Imd pathway is predominantly activated by Gram-negative bacterial infections (4). Toll was initially identified as a gene that controls the establishment of dorsoventral polarity in early embryogenesis (5). A proteolytically cleaved form of the cysteine-knot growth factor Spaetzle (Spz) functions as the extracellular ligand of Toll in both embryonic development and the immune response (2, 6). During embryonic patterning, Spz cleavage is achieved by the sequential activation of three serine proteases required in the germ line: Gastrulation defective, Snake, and Easter (7). However, in null mutants of these proteases, challenged-induced activation of the Toll pathway is not affected, as illustrated by wild-type induction of the antifungal peptide drosomycin (2, 8). The implication is that infection may activate some other protease(s) that cleaves Spz to its active form. Immune-induced cleavage of Spz by blood serine proteases is conceptually similar to blood coagulation or complement activation, where inappropriate activation is prevented by the action of serine protease inhibitors (serpins) (9). We have recently reported that flies mutant for the blood serpin Necrotic (Nec) exhibit a constitutively activated antifungal host defense and that Spz is constitutively cleaved in this mutant background (8). The nec pleiotropic phenotypes include spontaneous melanization, cellular necrosis, and death in early adulthood (10). These changes probably all reflect a role of the *nec* serpin gene in controlling activation of one or more proteolytic cascades.

To identify components of the antifungal response cascade that activate Spz, we screened the first chromosome for ethylmethane sulfonate-induced suppressors of the *nec* phenotypes (11). From 9700 mutagenized male flies transheterozygous for *nec*, we isolated five suppressors that belong to the same complementation group. We named this suppressor mutation persephone (psh). Mutations in psh suppressed all nec phenotypes. In particular, psh;nec double mutants displayed a life-span comparable to that of wild-type (WT) flies (Fig. 1A), showed no spontaneous melanization, and did not express drosomycin in a constitutive manner (Fig. 1B). When challenged with fungi, psh mutants exhibited a severely reduced level of drosomycin transcription as compared with WT flies (Fig. 1C). Induction of drosomycin by Gram-positive bacteria was at WT levels in psh mutants (Fig. 1C). Finally, expression of *diptericin*, which is controlled by the Imd pathway, was not affected following Gram-negative bacterial infection (Fig. 1C).

We further noted that *psh* flies were highly susceptible to fungal infections, behaving in this respect as Toll pathway mutants (Fig. 2A). Conversely, *psh* flies showed a WT pattern of survival after immune challenge by Gram-positive bacteria (Fig. 2B). As expected, *psh* flies were resistant to Gram-negative bacterial infection, which activates the Imd pathway (12).

For epistasis studies, we used fly lines overexpressing a cleaved form of Spz (11) through the UAS/GAL4 system (13). These flies exhibit a challenge-independent expression of *drosomycin* (Fig. 3A). The levels of *drosomycin* transcription after overexpression of *spz* were notably similar in *psh* mutants and in WT flies (Fig.



Fig. 1. *persephone* mutations suppress all aspects of the *nec* phenotype and block induction of *drosomycin* by natural fungal infection. (**A**) At 25°C (no infection) *psh;nec¹/nec²* flies have a life-span comparable to that

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of WT flies, whereas 80% of the nec^{1}/nec^{2} flies die within 48 hours. In this graph, only 1 week of the flies' life is presented; $psh;nec^{1}/nec^{2}$ flies lived as long as did the WT flies (27). (B) $psh;nec^{1},drs-GFP/nec^{2}$ flies (right) do not express drosomycin in a constitutive manner and do not exhibit melanization spots on their bodies, which are two characteristics of the *nec* phenotype (XX:=;nec^{1},drs-GFP/nec^{2} flies, left). (C) Expression of antimicrobial peptides in different mutant backgrounds after infection (i) by fungi (*Beauveria bassiana*), Gram-positive bacteria (*Micrococcus luteus*), or Gram-negative bacteria (*Escherichia coli*). Northern blots were performed with total RNA from wild-type (WT), psh^{1} , spz^{rm7} , nec^{1}/nec^{2} , and key^{1} flies. rp49 was used as an RNA loading control. After infection, the flies were incubated for 48 hours in the case of drosomycin and 6 hours in the case of diptericin before RNA preparation. drs, drosomycin; dpt, diptericin.

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3A). This result indicates that the *psh* mutation inactivates a gene upstream of *spz*.

With a deficiency kit spanning the first chromosome (14), we mapped the *psh* mutation to the chromosomal region 17A-17B (Fig. 3, B and C). This region contains two serine protease genes, *CG6361* and *CG6367*. We compared the genomic sequence of the *CG6367* protease in *psh⁵* with that of WT flies and noted the transition of a G nucleotide to an A in the sequence encoding the conserved "serine signature" sequence (Gly-Asp-Ser-Gly-Gly-Pro), which results in a Gly to Glu change at position 340 (Fig. 4A). In the sequence of psh^{1} and psh^{4} , a transition of a C to a T was observed, which is expected to result in the change of the His of the catalytic triad to a Tyr at position 187 (Fig. 4A).

To ensure that these mutations were respon-



Fig. 2. *psh* mutant flies are highly susceptible to natural fungal infection. The survival rates (%) of wild-type (WT), *spz^{rm7}*, *dif²*, and *psh* flies infected with different microorganisms are presented (see supporting online material). (A) Fungal infection with *B. bassiana*. (B) Gram-positive bacterial infection: *Streptococcus faecalis*. We observed a difference in the survival rates between *psh¹* and *psh⁵*. Because the pattern of survival for both alleles follows the WT pattern and differs significantly from that of Toll pathway mutant flies, we believe that this difference is not significant.



Fig. 3. Genetic mapping of the persephone mutation was performed with a deficiency kit spanning the first chromosome (14). The assay of our mapping was twofold. First, we determined a psh/deficiency combination that suppresses nec. The combination psh/Df(1)970 mapped the mutation to the region 17A-18A. An overlapping deficiency [Df(1)3070], which deleted the region 17C-18A but did not suppress nec, narrowed the interval to 17A-17B. Second, to verify our results, we used these combinations to test for survival (B) and drosomycin expression (A) following natural fungal infection. Results confirmed that the mutation lies in the region 17A-17B. (A) The psh mutation inactivates a protein upstream of spz because overexpression of activated spz leads to induction of drosomycin in a psh genetic background. Conversely, overexpression of activated spz in a genetic background of a known downstream component such as dif does not result in infection-independent expression of drosomycin (yolkGal4 was used as a GAL4 driver). We observed that flies homozygous for *psh* and *psh/Df(1)970* flies exhibit identical phenotypes, indicating that the alleles that we used for mapping $(psh^{-1} \text{ and } psh^{-5})$ are either strong hypomorphs or complete nulls. (C) Genomic region of the psh locus. The gene is located in 17B4 and has seven exons that translate in a protein of 393 amino acids. Its protein sequence contains all the characteristics of a serine protease of the S1 family of trypsin (clan SA) (28), with a putative signal peptide (red bar) between amino acids 1 and 20, a CLIP domain (amino acids 30 to 79), and a trypsin-chymotrypsin (Tryp-SPc) catalytic domain (amino acids 143 to 384). The catalytic triad consists of His¹⁸⁷-Asp²³⁴-Ser³³⁸ (all three depicted in red).

sible for the observed phenotypes in *psh* mutants, we undertook rescue experiments using the UAS/GAL4 system (13) with the female fat body–specific *yolkGAL4* as a driver (15). We noted that UAS-CG6367/yolkGAL4 flies constitutively express *drosomycin* (Fig. 4B). Furthermore, we observed that overexpression of the CG6367 protease restores the ability of *psh* flies to respond to fungal infection (Fig. 4C). Neither an activated form of Easter (16) (Fig. 4C) nor the CG6361 protease (17) contained in the deficiency that uncovers the *psh* locus were able to rescue the observed sensitivity to fungi. These results indicate that CG6367 is the serine protease responsible for the *psh* phenotype.

The deduced sequence of the PSH protein indicates the presence of a putative signal peptide (amino acids 1 to 20), suggesting that the protein is secreted and present in the hemolymph, as has been shown for Nec (δ) . Transfer of hemolymph (table S1) from nec flies to WT flies carrying a drosomycin-GFP (drs-GFP) reporter resulted in expression of drs-GFP. In contrast, transfer of hemolymph from *psh;nec* flies did not induce *drosomycin* expression. This indicates that the bloodborne factor responsible for Toll activation observed in nec hemolymph transfer is suppressed in psh;nec flies. Finally, transfer of hemolymph from flies overexpressing WT psh (UAS-CG6367/daughterlessGAL4) to drs-GFP flies induced challenge-independent expression of drosomycin. These results confirm the presence of immune-responsive components of the system in the hemolymph.

The blood serine protease Persephone is the first identified component of the cascade, which was hypothesized to activate Toll following an immune challenge. Serine proteases are initially synthesized as inactive zymogens containing an NH2-terminal prodomain and a COOH-terminal catalytic domain. Activation requires proteolytic cleavage of the zymogen at a defined site by a specific activating protease or a nonenzymatic ligand (18). The sequence of PSH also predicts an NH₂-terminal prodomain (see Fig. 3A). This prodomain contains a CLIP module most homologous to those in Easter, Snake, the horseshoe crab proclotting factor, and the Bombyx mori prophenoloxidase-activating enzyme. Thus, common organizing principles may direct hemolymph clotting, immune response, and developmental serine protease cascades in arthropods (18-21). psh is the first described mutation to specifically impair Toll-dependent induction of drosomycin by fungal infection in Drosophila without affecting Gram-positive bacterial induced responses. Mutations have been reported recently that affect activation of the Toll pathway by Gram-positive bacteria (22) and activation of the Imd pathway by Gram-negative bacteria (23-25). The mutated genes encode members of the family of soluble or membrane proteins referred to as peptidoglycan recognition proteins (PGRPs), in refer-



Fig. 4. *persephone* is a mutant for the *CGG367* gene. **(A)** Alignments of the regions of the serine signature (DGSGGP-boxed) and the conserved histidine (H-boxed) of the catalytic triad, two absolutely conserved features in all serine proteases of the trypsin-chymotrypsin family. Sequences used for comparison were from *Drosophila*, horseshoe crab (proclotting factor), mouse, and human. In each case, the top protein sequence corresponds to a *psh* mutant. Mutations are highlighted in gray. Single-letter abbreviations for the amino acid residues are as follows: A, Ala; C, Cys; D, Asp; E, Glu; F, Phe; G, Gly; H, His; I, Ile; K, Lys; L, Leu; M, Met; N, Asn; P, Pro; Q, Gln; R, Arg; S, Ser; T, Thr; V, Val; W, Trp; and Y, Tyr. **(B)** *psh;UAS-CGG367TyolkGAL4* flies constitutively expressed *drosomycin*. Infection (i) can further induce expression of *drosomycin*. **(C)** Overexpression of one WT copy of *CGG367* cDNA is sufficient to rescue the *psh* phenotype for susceptibility to fungal infections. Use of an activated form of *easter* (*16*) does not result in rescue of this phenotype. As expected, neither the GAL4 driver alone nor males that carried both the driver and the transgene but do not express *yolk* (*15*) showed rescue of the phenotype (*27*).

ence to their initial discovery as Gram-positive interacting proteins (26). Toll activation by Gram-positive bacteria is mediated by a soluble PGRP, whereas that of Imd by Gramnegative infection involves a putative membrane PGRP. Taken together, the results on the psh mutation and those on mutations in the soluble PGRP-SA and the putative membrane PGRP-LC now define three distinct upstream pathways mediating response to fungal infections and to infections by Gram-positive or Gram-negative bacteria. These data set the stage for a detailed analysis of the events leading from recognition of infection to activation of intracellular signaling pathways and consequent transcription of appropriate groups

of genes concurring to fight the respective infections. Whereas PGRPs can be considered as bona fide pattern recognition receptors, *psh* has no microbial pattern recognition-binding domain. We anticipate that an as-yet unidentified, upstream fungal pattern recognition receptor functions to activate the protease function of *psh*.

References and Notes

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Supporting Online Material

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Materials and Methods Table S1 References

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