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## **Chapter 33**

### Galleria mellonella as a Model for Fungal Pathogenicity Testing

### **John Fallon, Judy Kelly, and Kevin Kavanagh**

### **Abstract**

Insects are convenient models for assessing the virulence of microbial pathogens or for assessing the efficacy of antimicrobial drugs and give results comparable to those that can be obtained using mammals. *Galleria mellonella* larvae are easy to purchase and inoculate and provide results within 48 h. Various parameters may be used to monitor the effect of a pathogen on the insect and, as a consequence, measure its relative virulence. Larval death, changes in immune cells (haemocytes) numbers, or the extent of proliferation of the pathogen within the insect haemocoel are good indicators of virulence and of the insect's immune response. Analysing the humoral immune response also gives insight into the interaction of the pathogen with the insect. Changes in gene expression or the expression of key antimicrobial peptides provide data on this element of the insect's response and, through extrapolation, how the mammalian immune system might respond. *G. mellonella* larvae, therefore, provide a quick and convenient means of measuring microbial virulence and are a useful alternative to the use of mammals for this type of screening. & '  $\mathbf{g}$ ) 10 11 12  $13$  $14$ 15 !&

**Key words:** *Aspergillus*, *Candida*, Fungi, *Galleria*, Haemocytes, Microbial virulence, Mini-host

### **1. Introduction**

The insect immune system shares a number of structural and functional similarities with the mammalian innate immune system and, as a consequence, insects may be used in place of mammals for screening microbial pathogens or for assessing the potency of antimicrobial drugs ([1\)](#page-16-0). Larvae of the greater wax moth *Galleria mellonella* are inexpensive to purchase, easy to inoculate, and can give results within 48 h. We have employed *G. mellonella* larvae to assess the virulence of yeast ([2\)](#page-16-1) and *Aspergillus fumigatus* ([3\)](#page-16-2), with strong correlations between the virulence in larvae and mice of *Candida albicans* [\(4\)](#page-16-3) and *Cryptococcus* ([5\)](#page-16-4) demonstrated. The use of insects as a screening model is now well established for many pathogens 19 20  $21$ 22  $23$  $24$ 25 26  $27$  $28$  $29$ 

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([4–](#page-16-3)[6\)](#page-16-5), with *Galleria* and other insects, such as *Drosophila* and *Manduca,* often referred to as "mini-hosts" ([7,](#page-16-6) [8\)](#page-16-7)*.*

Changes in *G. mellonella* larva viability can be used to measure the relative virulence of microbial pathogens and/or mutants. Monitoring the insect immune response to microbial pathogens can also be useful as this gives an insight into the virulence of "weak" pathogens and provides information on how the mammalian innate immune system may respond. Measuring changes in the haemocyte density and the fungal load gives information on the cellular immune response to the pathogen and the proliferation of the pathogen in the host, respectively  $(9)$  $(9)$ . In addition, it is also possible to monitor the expression of genes for selected antimicrobial peptides as a means of assessing the humoral immune response of larvae [\(10](#page-16-9)). Analysing changes in the proteome of infected larvae can also be very useful for monitoring alterations in expression of low molecular weight antimicrobial peptides. We have used this latter technique to demonstrate that larvae mount a "proportionate" immune response when inoculated with pathogen-derived material  $(11)$  $(11)$ .

Insects are also a useful in vivo screening system for assessing the potency of antimicrobial agents  $(12–15)$  $(12–15)$ . In this application, larvae can be infected with the cells or conidia of a pathogen and then given a pre-determined dose of the antimicrobial agent. An alternative is possible where the larvae are given the agent in advance of the pathogen. It should be emphasised, however, that administration of an antimicrobial agent to larvae induces a protective immune response and that any protective effect could be due to the combined effect of the antimicrobial agent and the insect's enhanced immune response  $(15)$  $(15)$ . Controls to account for the increased immune response of the insect must be included in order to see the actual effect of the drug in vivo.

The use of insects as in vivo models to assess fungal virulence has grown in popularity in recent years  $(1, 7, 8)$  $(1, 7, 8)$  $(1, 7, 8)$ . Although there are many advantages to the use of insects, *G. mellonella* larvae in particular, it must be emphasised that the insect immune system is only analogous to the mammalian innate immune system, and therefore, insect models give no insight into the role of the adaptive immune system in combating infections in mammals. In addition, larvae lack many of the organs attacked specifically by fungal pathogens, e.g. brain, lungs, kidneys, and spleen, so they cannot be used to model organ-specific pathologies. However, *G. mellonella* does provide a convenient initial screening system for studying pathogens that cause systemic infection, although as with all minihosts, validation of results may require further confirmatory mammalian testing.

This chapter describes a range of methods for use with *G. mellonella* larvae for evaluating the virulence of fungal pathogens or

#### 33 *Galleria mellonella* Fungal Model

for assessing the efficacy of antimicrobial agents. It details techniques for measuring the effect of the pathogen or drug on the insect immune response and describes methods for quantifying the 79 response of the larvae to the different agents. 77 78 80

### **2. Materials**



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### <span id="page-5-0"></span>**Table 1 PCR primers and conditions for analysis of antimicrobial gene expression**

t1.2[AU1]

Primer sequences are taken from Bergin et al. (2007) [\(10](#page-16-9))

5. IPG Buffer (ampholytes) pH 3–10 (GE Healthcare). 6. Bromophenol blue powder. 7. Iso-electric focusing (IEF) machine (Ettan IPGphor II, Amersham Biosciences). 8. IEF coffins (Amersham Biosciences). 9. IEF strips (GE Healthcare). 10. PlusOne strip cover fluid (GE Healthcare). 11. Test tubes (at least 13 cm long). 12. Dithiothreitol (DTT). 13. Iodoacetamide (IAA). 14. Equilibration buffer (30% glycerol, 2% SDS, 6 M urea, 50 mM tris base). 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158 159 160

- 15. 1.5 M Tris–HCl, pH 8.8.
- 16. 10% SDS, filter-sterilised and stored at room temperature to prevent crystallisation. 162 163

t1.26[AU2]

161

 $t1.1$ 

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#### **3. Methods** 195

- **3.1. Inoculation of**  196
- **Galleria mellonella**  197
- **Larvae with Candida**  198
- **albicans** 199

- 1. Place ten healthy larvae on Whatman filter paper placed in sterile 9-cm Petri dishes.
- 2. Grow a *C. albicans* culture to stationary phase  $(1-2 \times 10^9/\text{mL})$ in YEPD broth at 30°C, with shaking at 200 rpm. Harvest cells by centrifugation  $(2,056\times g$  for 5 min), wash in PBS and

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<span id="page-7-0"></span>

Fig. 1. Inoculation of *Galleria mellonella* larvae by injection through the proleg.

<span id="page-7-1"></span>

Fig. 2. Larval morphology. (**a**) Healthy Galleria mellonella larvae. (**b**) Larvae killed as a result of Aspergillus fumigatus infection 48 h previously. Note the dark colour of cadavers due to melanisation.

re-suspend in PBS at various cell densities, ranging from  $5 \times 10^5$ ,  $1 \times 10^6$ ,  $2.5 \times 10^6$  to  $5 \times 10^6$  per 20 µL (see Note 2). 201 202

- 3. Inoculate larvae by injecting  $20 \mu L$  through the last left proleg into the haemocoel using a Myjector syringe (Fig. [1](#page-7-0)) and place at 30°C in the dark for up to 96 h (see Note 3). Untouched larvae and larvae injected with 20 µL of water or PBS should be included as controls. 203 204 205 206 207
- 4. Assess larvae at regular intervals (every 2 h) for viability and disease progression. For assessment of viability, larvae should be gently probed with a needle, and if no response is observed, the larvae may be considered to be dead. Changes in cuticle melanisation can also be used to monitor the severity of an infection (Fig. [2\)](#page-7-1) (see Note 4). 208 209 210 211 212  $213$



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<span id="page-8-0"></span>

Fig. 3. G. mellonella haemocytes. G. mellonella haemocytes were extracted and viewed by light microscopy (40× objective). Note variations in size and granularity.

<span id="page-8-1"></span>

**3.5. Extraction of Galleria mellonella RNA and Antimicrobial Gene Expression Analysis**





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Fig. 4. Visualisation of antimicrobial gene expression. RNA extracted from infected larvae was used as the template for cDNA synthesis and subsequent PCR reactions to examine expression of antimicrobial peptide genes; (1) larvae injected with PBS, (2) larvae injected with  $0.19 \mu g/mL$  caspofungin, (3) larvae injected with  $0.095 \mu g/mL$  caspofungin, and (4) larvae injected with  $0.048 \mu$ g/mL caspofungin.

- 15. Load the samples into the wells of the gel and run at 50 V in 1× FA buffer for approximately 40 min. Visualise bands using a UV transilluminator.
- 16. Synthesise cDNA using 1 µg RNA and the Superscript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR kit according to manufacturer's instructions. cDNA should be stored at  $-20\degree$ C.
- 17. Analyse expression of *G. mellonella* antimicrobial genes by qRT-PCR using primers and PCR cycle conditions outlined in Table [1.](#page-5-0) The *Actin* housekeeping gene can be used as a control. Each PCR reaction (20  $\mu$ L volume) contains 1  $\mu$ g/ $\mu$ L cDNA,  $2 \mu L$  10 $\times$  LA Buffer, 0.4  $\mu$ L DMSO, 1  $\mu$ L 10 mM dNTP mix,  $14.6$  µL water,  $0.4$  µL  $10$  µM forward primer,  $0.4 \mu L$  10  $\mu$ M reverse primer, and  $0.2 \mu L$  AccuTaq<sup>™</sup> LA DNA polymerase. Solutions were mixed by pipetting and placed immediately into the thermal cycler.
- 18. Mix 4  $\mu$ L of PCR product with 4  $\mu$ L blue/orange 6× loading dye.
- 19. Visualise PCR products by running samples on a  $1\%$  (w/v) agarose gel (1 g agarose in 100 mL  $1 \times$  TAE) with the addition of 2  $\mu$ L 10 mg/mL ethidium bromide. Run gel at 50 V for 30 min and view using a UV transilluminator (Fig. [4\)](#page-10-0).
- **3.6. Analysis of Proteomic Changes in Infected Larvae by 2D Gel Electrophoresis and LC/MS** 303  $304$  $305$ 306 307  $308$ 309

- The gel fragment tryptic digestion part of the protocol is a modification of the method described by Schevchenko et al. [\(17\)](#page-17-1)*.*
- 1. Bleed ten fungal-infected *G. mellonella* larvae into a pre-chilled 1.5-mL tube (as in subheading  $3.2$ ) and centrifuge at  $800 \times g$ for 2 min at 4°C to pellet haemocytes. Transfer the cell-free supernatant to a fresh tube.
- 2. Make a 1 in 50 dilution of the crude cell-free haemolymph in deionised water and quantify protein content using Bradford method as per the manufacturer's instructions. Calculate the protein concentration of the neat cell-free haemolymph.

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Fig. 5. G. mellonella larval haemolymph proteome. A control larvae and proteome of larvae challenged with beta-glucan. Note the increased expression of spots corresponding to specific proteins.



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<span id="page-13-0"></span>



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<span id="page-14-0"></span>

1. Larval haemolymph protein, 13.7kDa

- 2. Anionic antimicrobial peptide 2, 6.975kDa
- 3. Apolipophorin III, 20kDa

Fig. 6. Visualisation of G. mellonella antimicrobial peptides following HPLC fractionation.



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- 8. Addition of erythromycin to the YEPD plates prevents bacterial growth. 431 432
- 9. For larvae infected 24 h previously, we generally dilute homogenate  $1/2,000$  in PBS prior to plating. After 24 h at  $30^{\circ}$ C, there are typically 10<sup>6</sup> colonies per plate. 433 434 435
- 10. Virulent pathogens proliferate rapidly in the insect while weak or avirulent strains either grow slowly or are eliminated by the insect immune response [\(9](#page-16-8)). 436 437 438
- 11. .We routinely use group sizes of 30, with three plates each containing ten larvae. 439 440
- 12. Antimicrobial drugs can provoke an immune response in larvae so suitable control groups must be included in order to assess the actual antimicrobial activity of the test agent  $(15)$  $(15)$  $(15)$ . 441 442 443
- 13. To remove contaminating RNases, glassware should be baked at 220°C for 12 h prior to use. Diethyl pyrocarbonate (DEPC) is a strong inhibitor of RNases. It can be used at a concentration of 0.1%  $(v/v)$  to treat water, which should be left stirring overnight, followed by incubation at 37°C for a minimum of 4 h prior to sterilisation by autoclaving. DEPC-treated water should be used to prepare all buffers required for RNA extraction. All bottle lids, O-rings, and magnetic stirrers should be soaked overnight in DEPC water and autoclaved prior use. All chemicals should be weighed without the use of a spatula. Gloves must be worn at all times and changed regularly. Pipette tips and tubes should be taken from freshly opened bags and autoclaved twice prior to use. 444 445 446 447 448 449 450 451 452 453 454 455 456
- 14. Three larvae are required to obtain sufficient RNA for gene expression analysis. 457 458
- 15. Separating gels should be prepared at least 5 h in advance to allow better polymerisation of the separating matrix. 459 460
- 16. To pour a gel, begin by thoroughly washing the glass plates with warm soapy water, rinse with 70% ethanol, and dry with lint-free tissue paper to remove any residual contamination on the glass. The glass plates that we routinely use are 200 mm wide and 200 mm long on the front and are 223 mm long at the back, and the gels (12.5% acrylamide) poured are approximately 190 mm $\times$ 160 mm and 1.5 mm thick. To prepare sufficient gel solution, mix 60 mL 1.5 M Tris–HCl, 76 mL deionised water, 100 mL 30% (w/v) acrylamide, 2.4 mL 10%  $(w/v)$  SDS, 1.5 mL 10%  $(w/v)$  APS, and 60 µL TEMED. 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470
- 17. Ensure pieces are no more than 2-mm thick to allow better destaining and trypsin absorption. 471 472
- 18. This usually takes 1 h but may take longer depending on the size of the gel piece. This process can be made faster if larger pieces are sliced using a clean scalpel. 473 474 475

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- 19. Upon addition of the acetonitrile, the gel pieces should turn white and shrink.
	- 20. The 30-min incubation on ice allows the trypsin digestion buffer to penetrate the gel slices and also prevents trypsin autodigestion.
	- 21. The volume added is judged by eye, but it is recommended to have at least  $0.5$  mm above the gel pieces.
	- 22. . The incubation time is flexible, but the *best* results are usually achieved from an overnight (16 h) incubation.
	- 23. LC/MS analysis will vary depending on the instrument used and the type of sensitivity required for analysis; therefore, it is not possible to write a specific protocol for this.
	- 24. In our studies, we routinely use LC/MS for the characterisation of proteins.

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