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ARTICLE

Helicobacter pylori metabolites exacerbate gastritis through C-type lectin receptors

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***Helicobacter pylori* causes gastritis, which has been attributed to the development of *H. pylori*-specific T cells during infection. However, the mechanism underlying innate immune detection leading to the priming of T cells is not fully understood, as *H. pylori* evades TLR detection. Here, we report that *H. pylori* metabolites modified from host cholesterol exacerbate gastritis through the interaction with C-type lectin receptors. Cholesteryl acyl α -glucoside (α CAG) and cholesteryl phosphatidyl α -glucoside (α CPG) were identified as noncanonical ligands for Mincle (*Clec4e*) and DCAR (*Clec4b1*). During chronic infection, *H. pylori*-specific T cell responses and gastritis were ameliorated in Mincle-deficient mice, although bacterial burdens remained unchanged. Furthermore, a mutant *H. pylori* strain lacking α CAG and α CPG exhibited an impaired ability to cause gastritis. Thus *H. pylori*-specific modification of host cholesterol plays a pathophysiological role that exacerbates gastric inflammation by triggering C-type lectin receptors.**

Introduction

Helicobacter pylori is a Gram-negative pathogenic bacterium that successfully colonizes the gastric mucosa of half of the world's population. Persistent *H. pylori* infection induces chronic gastritis, which is one of most common risk factors for gastric malignancy (NIH Consensus Conference, 1994; Peek and Blaser, 2002). In addition to the virulence proteins secreted from *H. pylori* (Hatakeyama, 2004), recent studies have underscored the critical role of *H. pylori*-primed host CD4⁺ T cells in the development of gastritis (Eaton et al., 2001; Nagai et al., 2007). However, such T cells do not efficiently contribute to the eradication of this pathogen (Adamsson et al., 2017) and are considered deleterious for the host (D'Elios et al., 2005). Hence,

insight into mechanisms by which *H. pylori* primes T cells may help in the prevention of chronic gastritis and malignancy.

H. pylori avoids detection by the canonical pattern recognition receptors, TLRs, by modifying its TLR ligands (Roy and Mocarski, 2007). Instead of having typical pathogen-associated molecular patterns, *H. pylori* produces a wealth of diverse lipids, in particular assorted cholesterol metabolites (Jan et al., 2016). For example, *H. pylori* extracts cholesterol from the host and converts it to unique cholesteryl glucosides, such as cholesteryl acyl α -glucosides (α CAGs; Grille et al., 2010; Haque et al., 1996; Hirai et al., 1995; Lebrun et al., 2006; Mayberry and Smith, 1983), which are reported to suppress host immunity (Wunder

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et al., 2006). On the other hand, their immunostimulatory properties and host pattern recognition receptors have not yet been determined.

Among the germline-encoded innate immune receptors, C-type lectin receptors (CLRs) have recently been demonstrated to recognize various pathogen-derived glycoconjugates (Geijtenbeek and Gringhuis, 2016). Notwithstanding, it is still unclear whether CLR family members recognize steryl glucosides in *H. pylori* and, moreover, whether CLRs are involved in gastritis induction.

In the present study, we identified host CLRs for *H. pylori*-derived pathogenic metabolites that cause detrimental inflammation.

Results

H. pylori possesses immunostimulatory lipid components recognized by Mincle

To search for the immunostimulatory lipid components in *H. pylori*, we isolated a lipophilic extract, separated it into 16 fractions by high-performance TLC (HPTLC; Fig. 1 A), and assessed the ability of each fraction to stimulate bone marrow-derived dendritic cells (BMDCs). Peaked activity corresponding to the distinct spot ($R_f = 0.83$, chloroform/methanol/water [65:25:4, vol/vol/vol]) was found across fraction 13 to 14 (fraction 13-14) that induced DCs to produce inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF. This activity was independent of the TLR adaptor MyD88 but was completely abolished upon deletion of CARD9 or Fc γ R (Fig. 1 B), suggesting that an Fc γ R-CARD9-coupled immunoreceptor, including a CLR, is involved in ligand recognition and signaling. We therefore expressed several CLRs in combination with Fc γ R in NFAT-GFP reporter cells and found that fraction 13-14 activated cells expressing macrophage-inducible C-type lectin (Mincle; *Clec4e*) and Fc γ R; (Fig. 1, C and D). Weak activity was also detected in cells expressing macrophage C-type lectin (MCL; *Clec4d*) and Fc γ R. MCL forms heterodimers with Mincle and stabilizes its expression on the cell surface (Lobato-Pascual et al., 2013; Miyake et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2014). We thus created Mincle-CD3 ζ and MCL-CD3 ζ chimeras and confirmed that Mincle is a receptor that recognizes fraction 13-14 (Fig. 1 E). Consistent with its ability to activate *Myd88*^{-/-} cells (Fig. 1 B), this fraction did not possess TLR2/4 ligand activity (Fig. S1 A). The production of TNF induced by fraction 13-14 was abrogated in Mincle-deficient BMDCs (Fig. 1, F-H), demonstrating the essential role of this CLR in the recognition of components in fraction 13-14. Fraction 13-14 was visualized by staining with copper acetate-phosphoric acid (lipid stain, Fig. 1 F) and orcinol (carbohydrate stain, Fig. 1 G), suggesting that this fraction contains a glycolipid.

Identification of α CAG as a noncanonical Mincle ligand

To identify its molecular components, fraction 13-14 was re-purified by HPTLC (Fig. 1 I), and its dose-dependent activity was verified using reporter cells expressing Mincle (Fig. 1 J) and by binding to Mincle-Fc protein (Fig. 1 K). We then determined its chemical structure using mass spectrometry (MS) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. High-resolution

electrospray ionization (ESI) time-of-flight (TOF) MS showed a molecular-related ion peak at m/z 781.5979 [$M + Na$]⁺ (Fig. 1 L), suggesting a cholesteryl acyl-pyranoside such as α CAG (calculated mass, 781.5953) as a likely candidate (Hirai et al., 1995). Methanolysis of the active fraction followed by gas chromatography (GC)-MS allowed for the identification of three saturated fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES; 14:0, 16:0, 18:0; Fig. S1 B). The presence of a cholesterol moiety was confirmed by the detection of Δ 3,5-cholesterol after methanolysis (Fig. S1, B and C).

The ¹H-NMR spectrum of fraction 13-14 showed characteristic signals of cholesterol, α -glucopyranoside and saturated fatty acid (Fig. 1, M and N). Furthermore, extensive 2D-NMR analyses, including ¹H-¹H correlation spectroscopy, total correlation spectroscopy, heteronuclear single-quantum coherence (HSQC), and heteronuclear multiple-bond correlation (HMBC) spectroscopy, gave the main chemical moiety in fraction 13-14 as α CAG (Fig. S1 D). Taken together, these results demonstrate that the major ligand component in *H. pylori* is cholesteryl 6-O-tetradecanoyl- α -glucopyranoside (α CAG, C14:0; Fig. 1 N). The structure of α CAG is distinct from previously reported Mincle ligands bearing flexible lipid tails (Lu et al., 2018), as it contains a rigid and planar tetracyclic scaffold.

H. pylori extracts cholesterol from the host and adds glucose at the 3' position using its glucosyltransferase, *Hp0421*, which is a critical first step for the synthesis of α CAG (Hirai et al., 1995; Lebrun et al., 2006). We extracted lipid components from a mutant *H. pylori* strain lacking *hp0421* gene (*H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421}). The HPTLC band corresponding to α CAG was absent from *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421}, and the equivalent fraction failed to activate Mincle reporter cells (Fig. 1 O) and BMDCs (Fig. 1 P). Thus, α CAG is a dominant *H. pylori* lipid that signals through Mincle.

Immunostimulatory properties of α CAG

To verify that the activity of fraction 13-14 did not result from minor contaminants, we chemically synthesized α CAG. A synthetic sample of the major α CAG identified in *H. pylori*, C14:0, potentially activated reporter cells expressing Mincle at a level comparable to the authentic ligand trehalose 6,6'-dimycolate (TDM; Fig. 2 A). Cholesteryl α -glucoside (α CG), a biosynthetic precursor of α CAG, did not possess such activity. Direct binding to Mincle was confirmed by probing plate-bound synthetic α CAG with Mincle-Ig fusion protein (Fig. 2 B). In dendritic cells (DCs), synthetic α CAG induced the secretion of inflammatory cytokines (Fig. 2 C), up-regulation of costimulatory molecules (Fig. 2 D), and induction of nitric oxide synthase type 2 (NOS2; Fig. 2 E) through Mincle. Moreover, a comparison with TDM revealed that α CAG is the most potent ligand for human-derived Mincle (Fig. 2 F). Indeed, α CAG efficiently activated human monocyte-derived DCs (hMoDCs) to produce proinflammatory cytokine IL-8 (Fig. 2 G).

We thus analyzed the effect of α CAG on DC-mediated T cell priming. T cells from OVA-specific TCR transgenic mice were cultured with OVA-pulsed BMDCs in the presence or absence of synthetic α CAG. Antigen-specific production of IFN- γ and IL-17 was augmented in the presence of α CAG (Fig. 2 H). To evaluate T cell priming in vivo, mice were immunized with whole OVA protein along with α CAG, and recall response was examined. We

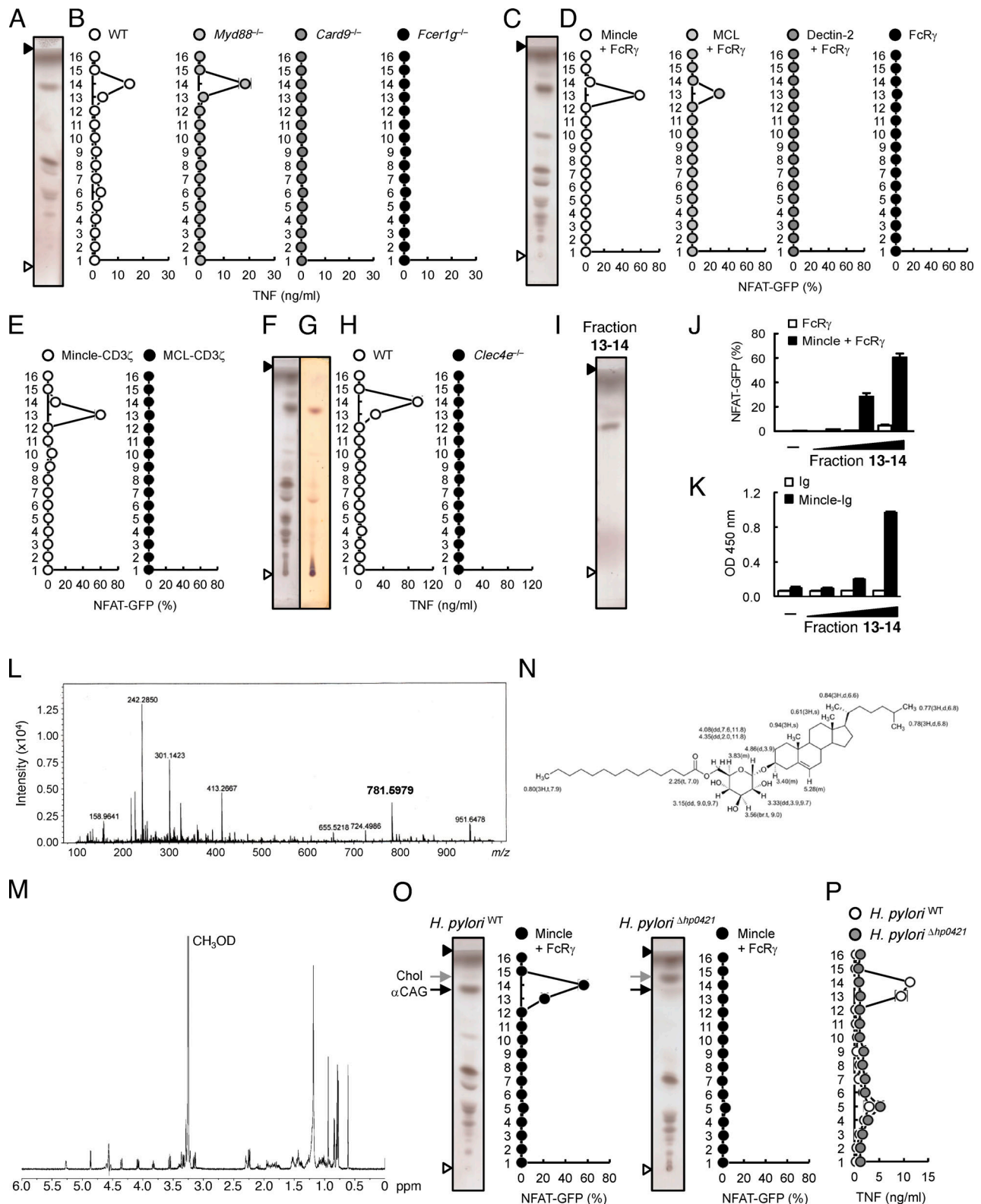


Figure 1. **Identification of α CAG as the Mincle ligand in *H. pylori*.** (A, C, F, G, I, and O) Lipid extract from *H. pylori* was analyzed by HPTLC using chloroform/methanol/water (65:25:4, vol/vol/vol) and stained with copper(II) acetate-phosphoric acid (A, C, F, I, and O) or orcinol (G). Open and closed arrowheads denote the origin and the solvent front, respectively. (B) BMDCs from WT, *Myd88*^{-/-}, *Card9*^{-/-}, and *Fcer1g*^{-/-} mice were stimulated with HPTLC-separated fractions from *H. pylori* lipid extract for 1 d. The concentrations of TNF in the supernatants were determined by ELISA. (D) NFAT-GFP reporter cells expressing mouse (hereafter omitted for clarity unless needed) Mincle + FcR γ , MCL + FcR γ , Dectin-2 + FcR γ , or FcR γ alone were stimulated with HPTLC-separated fractions from *H. pylori* lipid extract for 20 h. Induction of GFP was analyzed by flow cytometry. (E) Mincle-CD3 ζ - or MCL-CD3 ζ -expressing NFAT-GFP reporter cells were stimulated by individual HPTLC-separated fractions of *H. pylori* lipid extract for 20 h. Induction of GFP was analyzed by flow cytometry. (H) BMDCs from WT

and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice were stimulated with HPTLC-separated lipids from *H. pylori* lipid extract for 1 d. The concentrations of TNF in the supernatants were determined by ELISA. **(I)** Fraction 13-14 was purified by HPTLC using chloroform/methanol/water (65:25:4, vol/vol/vol) and visualized by copper(II) acetate-phosphoric acid staining. **(J)** Reporter cells expressing Mincle + FcRγ or FcRγ alone were stimulated by fraction 13-14 (0.01, 0.1 and 1 μg/well) for 20 h and analyzed for GFP expression. **(K)** Human Ig or Mincle-Ig was incubated with plate-coated fraction 13-14 (0.01, 0.1, and 1 μg/well). Bound proteins were detected with anti-human IgG-HRP. **(L)** Full-scan MS spectra of fraction 13-14 in the positive ion mode. Ion peak at *m/z* 781.5979 [*M* + Na]⁺ is assigned as cholesteryl acyl-pyranoside (calculated mass, 781.5953). **(M)** ¹H-NMR (600 MHz, CDCl₃:CD₃OD [1:1], 298 K) spectrum of fraction 13-14. **(N)** Chemical structure and ¹H-NMR chemical shifts assignment of fraction 13-14. Chemical shifts are given in δ ppm, followed by integration, multiplicity, and *J* in hertz. **(O)** Reporter cells expressing Mincle + FcRγ were stimulated by HPTLC-separated lipids from WT (*H. pylori*^{WT}) or *Hp0421*-deficient *H. pylori* (*H. pylori*^{Δhp0421}) for 20 h and analyzed for GFP expression. The black arrow indicates αCAG, and the gray arrow indicates cholesterol (Chol). **(P)** WT BMDCs were stimulated for 1 d with lipid subfractions from *H. pylori*^{WT} or *H. pylori*^{Δhp0421} as in O. The concentrations of TNF in the supernatants were determined by ELISA. Data are presented as the mean ± SD of triplicate (B, H, K, and P) or duplicate (D, E, J, and O) assays and representative of two (B, D, E, H, K, O, and P) or four (J) independent experiments.

detected IFN-γ production after restimulation of T cells from WT mice, whereas levels were lower in Mincle- and FcRγ-deficient mice (Fig. 2 I). Thus, the αCAG-Mincle-FcRγ axis promotes antigen-specific T cell priming through APC activation.

Pathophysiological contribution of Mincle to *H. pylori*-induced gastritis

To assess the pathophysiological consequences of an αCAG-Mincle interaction, we used a model of chronic *H. pylori* infection (Nagai et al., 2007). WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice were infected with *H. pylori* SS1 strain, and 6 wk after infection, *H. pylori*-specific recall responses were detected in T cells isolated from gastric LNs and Peyer's patches. The production of IFN-γ and IL-17 from these T cells was much weaker when *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice were infected (Fig. 3, A and B). Nevertheless, bacterial numbers in the stomach were comparable between *Clec4e*^{-/-} and WT mice (Fig. 3 C), suggesting that *H. pylori*-specific Th1/17 cell responses do not efficiently contribute to the eradication of bacteria. Chronic gastritis was observed in WT mice after infection of *H. pylori*; however, the severity of gastritis as assessed by histological analysis was ameliorated in *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3 D). Increased numbers of neutrophils and macrophages in stomach homogenates from infected mice was suppressed in *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3 E and Fig. S2, A and B). Transcriptome analysis of gastric tissue revealed that the expression of inflammatory gene sets was significantly lower in *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3 F), further confirming that chronic gastritis was attenuated in the absence of Mincle. This effect is unlikely due to the difference of gastric microbiota in WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice, as assessed by metagenome analysis (Fig. S2 C). Collectively, these results indicate that Mincle contributes to *H. pylori*-induced gastritis. In line with these results, antibody (Ab) blockade of Mincle resulted in the suppression of T cell responses (Fig. 3, G-I; and Fig. S2 D) and chronic gastritis (Fig. 3 J and Fig. S2 E) without increasing the number of *H. pylori* (Fig. 3 K).

Nontargeting lipidomics reveals inflammatory conversion of *H. pylori* metabolites

Helical *H. pylori* bacilli in the stomach transform into dormant coccoid forms under anaerobic conditions, such as in the small intestine and Peyer's patches (Noach et al., 1994). As previous studies revealed that the coccoid form has more potent immunostimulatory activity, we reproduced this transformation in vitro under anaerobic culture (Fig. 4 A; Nagai et al., 2007). Extracts from helical and coccoid forms were subjected to

lipidomic analysis using liquid chromatography coupled with quadrupole/TOF MS (Tsugawa et al., 2020). Nontargeted lipidomics revealed that the lipid composition was markedly altered by the helical/coccoid conversion, particularly for cholesterol-containing lipids (Fig. 4 B), although cholesterol ester species were mostly unchanged (Fig. S3, A and B). TLC analysis also confirmed the alteration of lipid composition, with the most prominent changes being the band shift of αCAG (Fig. 4 C, black arrow) and the appearance of newly generated lipids in coccoid form (Fig. 4 C, gray arrow; designated as Spot-specific for coccoid form [Spot C]). Analysis of the molecular composition of αCAG revealed that longer fatty acids that were trace components in helical form became abundant in the coccoid form (Fig. 4 D and Fig. S3 C); correspondingly short-chain myristate (C14:0) αCAG decreased in coccoid form. We therefore synthesized αCAG with different fatty acids, myristate (C14:0), palmitate (C16:0), and stearate (C18:0) and found that the activity of αCAG increased as their fatty acyl chains were elongated, as assessed by production of inflammatory cytokines (Fig. 4, E-G) and using reporter cells expressing Mincle (Fig. 4 H).

As described above, the amount of a polar glycolipid, Spot C, that was visualized by orcinol staining was markedly increased in coccoid form (Fig. 4 C, Spot C). When peritoneal macrophages were stimulated with Spot C, IL-6 production was detected in a CARD9-dependent manner (Fig. 4 I). Since Spot C was not recognized by Mincle, we tested several receptors and identified DC immunostimulating receptor (DCAR; *Clec4bi*; Fig. 4 J), an FcRγ-coupled CLR, as the candidate receptor. DCAR is known to recognize acylated phosphatidylinositol mannosides (AcPIMs) in mycobacteria (Toyonaga et al., 2016). However, as *H. pylori* does not possess AcPIM species (Tannaes et al., 2000), DCAR must recognize a previously unappreciated ligand in *H. pylori*. Using ESI-quadrupole Orbitrap MS (ESI-Q-Orbitrap-MS; Fig. 4, K and L; and Fig. S4, A and B), methanolysis followed by GC-MS (Fig. S4, C and D), and NMR spectroscopic analysis (Fig. 4, M and N; and Fig. S4 E), Spot C was identified as cholesteryl phosphatidyl α-glucoside (αCPG; Fig. 4 N). Lipidomics data targeted on αCPG revealed that the relative amount of αCPG was markedly increased in the coccoid form as observed on TLC (Fig. 4 C), whereas in contrast to αCAG, its fatty acid composition was unchanged (Fig. 4 O and Fig. S3 D). αCPG is distinctive in structure from known DCAR ligands AcPIMs (Toyonaga et al., 2016), except that both share a phosphate-containing phosphatidyl group. We thus synthesized αCPG and an αCPG

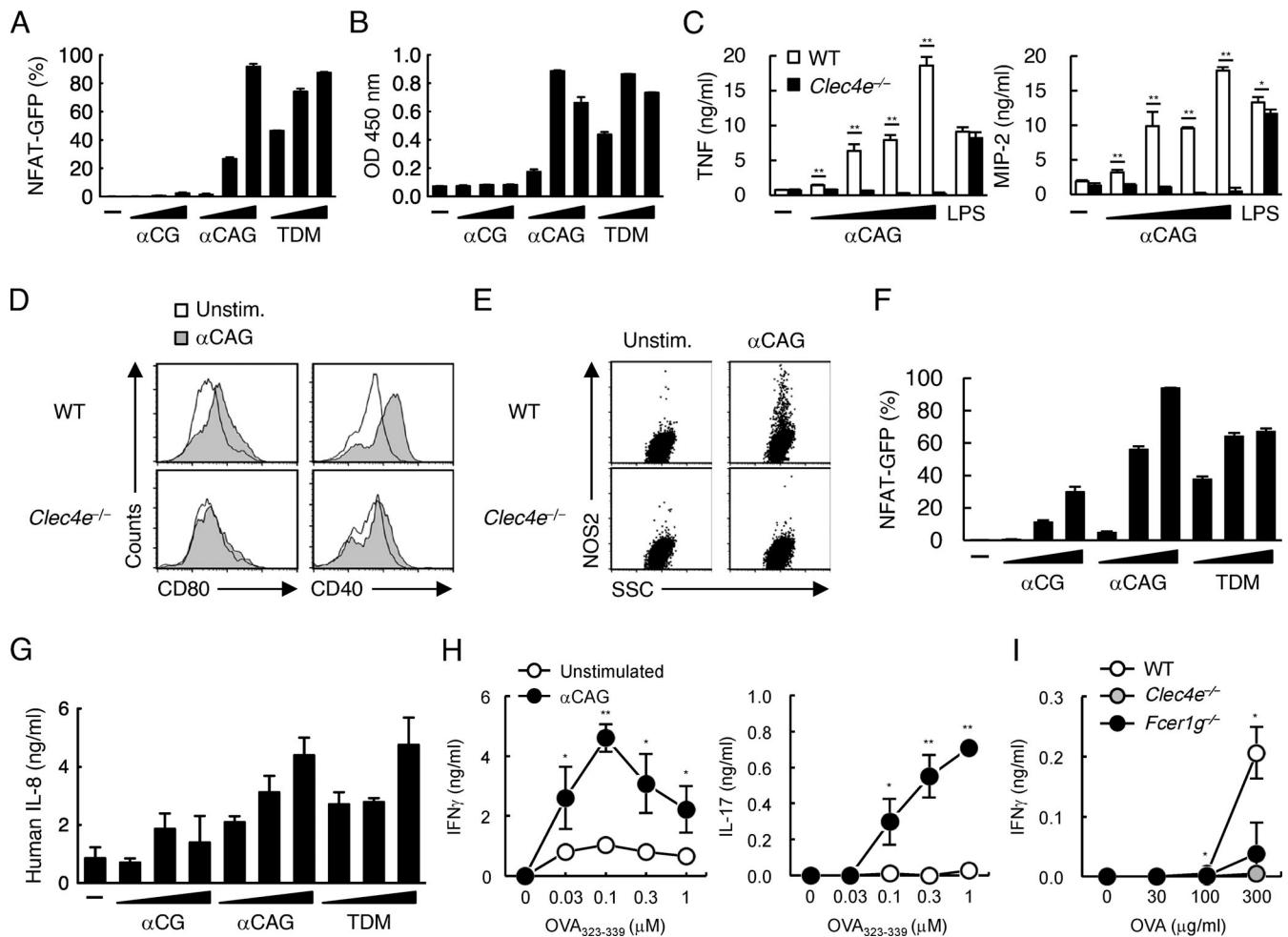


Figure 2. αCAG induces innate and acquired immune responses as potent as TDM. (A) Reporter cells expressing Mincle + FcRγ were stimulated with αCG, αCAG C14:0, or TDM (0.003, 0.03, and 0.3 nmol/well) for 20 h and analyzed for GFP expression. (B) Binding of Mincle-Ig to plate-coated αCG, αCAG C14:0, or TDM (0.001, 0.01 and 0.1 nmol/well). Bound proteins were detected with anti-human IgG-HRP. (C) WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} BMDCs were stimulated with αCAG C14:0 (0.001, 0.01, 0.1, and 1 nmol/well) or LPS for 1 d and cytokine production was quantified. (D) WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} BMDCs were stimulated with αCAG C14:0 for 1 d and analyzed for the surface expression of CD80 and CD40. (E) IFN-γ-primed BMDCs were stimulated with αCAG C14:0 for 1 d and analyzed for the expression of intracellular NOS2. SSC, side scatter. (F) Reporter cells expressing human Mincle + FcRγ were stimulated with αCG, αCAG C14:0, or TDM (0.003, 0.03, and 0.3 nmol/well) and analyzed for GFP expression. (G) hMoDCs were stimulated with αCG, αCAG C14:0 or TDM (0.04, 0.1, and 0.3 nmol/well) for 1 d, and IL-8 production was quantified. (H) BMDCs were stimulated with 0.1 nmol/well of αCAG C14:0, and co-cultured with OT-II CD4⁺ T cells in the presence of OVA₃₂₃₋₃₃₉ peptide for 3 d. Cytokine concentrations were measured by ELISA. (I) Mice were immunized with OVA + αCAG C14:0 and challenged with heat-aggregated OVA at 7 d after immunization. At day 7 after OVA challenge, B cell-depleted inguinal LN cells were stimulated with indicated amounts of OVA for 4 d, and IFN-γ production was quantified. The results of the statistical analysis show the difference between WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice. Data are presented as the mean ± SD of triplicate (B, C, G, and H) or duplicate (A, F, and I) assays and representative of three (A, B, F, and H), five (C and D), two (E and I), or four (G) independent experiments. An unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for the statistical analyses. *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01.

analogue lacking the phosphate moiety, cholesteryl amide-linked α-glucoside (Fig. S4 F). Synthetic αCPG, but not the amide analogue, signaled through DCAR (Fig. 4 P), suggesting that phosphate is a key structural feature for DCAR binding which is absent in αCAG.

Depletion of αCAG/αCPG in *H. pylori* impairs its virulence

To examine the contribution of αCAG/αCPG to host responses against *H. pylori*, we investigated the immunostimulatory activity of mutant *H. pylori* lacking cholesterol glucosyltransferase (*H. pylori*^{Δhp0421}), which cannot generate αCAG and αCPG (Lebrun et al., 2006). We confirmed complete loss of these cholesteryl glucosides in both helical and coccoid forms of *H.*

pylori^{Δhp0421} (Fig. 5 A). The up-regulation of CD80 on the surface of BMDCs in response to *H. pylori* was impaired in this mutant strain (Fig. 5 B). Thus, *H. pylori*^{WT} and *H. pylori*^{Δhp0421} were further evaluated for their T cell priming potential via co-culture with model antigen-pulsed DCs and OT-II T cells. The antigen-dependent secretion of IFN-γ and IL-17 from OT-II T cells was significantly lower when cultured with *H. pylori*^{Δhp0421} compared with *H. pylori*^{WT} (Fig. 5, C and D, left panels). Reduction in cytokine secretion was similar to the suppression detected when we used FcRγ-deficient BMDCs in which Mincle and DCAR are nonfunctional (Fig. 5, C and D, right panels). However, cytokine production was restored following the addition of synthetic αCAG to *H. pylori*^{Δhp0421}

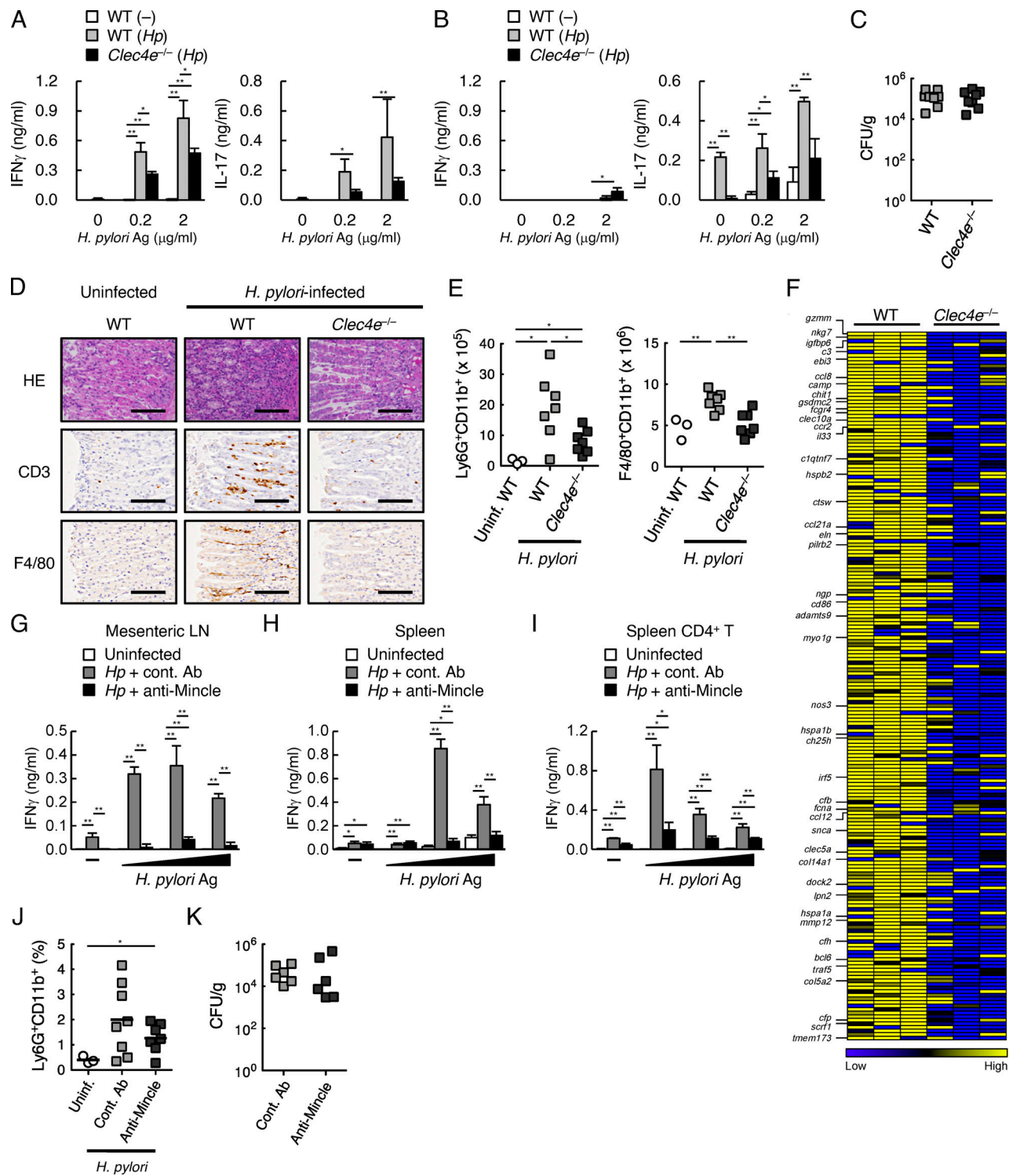


Figure 3. Pathogenic role of Mincle in *H. pylori*-induced gastritis. (A and B) WT or *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice were orally administered with 3×10^8 CFU of *H. pylori* SS1 three times in 2 d. At 6 wk after infection, cells from gastric LNs (A) or Peyer's patches (B) were stimulated with indicated concentrations of *H. pylori* lysates (Ag) in the presence of BMDCs for 4 d. Uninfected WT mice were used as control. The concentrations of IFN- γ (left panel) and IL-17 (right panel) in the supernatant were determined by ELISA. (C) The number of bacteria recovered from the stomachs of WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice at 8 wk after *H. pylori* infection. Bacterial numbers were determined by counting the number of colonies on *H. pylori* selective agar plates. (D) H&E (HE) staining and immunohistochemical staining of anti-CD3 and F4/80 of stomach sections from uninfected and *H. pylori*-infected mice after 8 wk. Scale bar, 100 μ m. (E) The numbers of Ly6G⁺CD11b⁺ or F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ cells in gastric MNC from mice at 6 wk after infection. (F) Heat map of differentially expressed genes based on RNA-sequencing analysis using RNA extracted from the stomachs of *H. pylori*-infected WT or *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice ($n = 3$ in each group) after 8 wk. (G–I) *H. pylori*-infected mice were injected with anti-Mincle mAb or rat IgG as a control Ab (cont. Ab). After 8 wk, single-cell suspensions of mesenteric LN (G), spleen (H), or splenic CD4⁺ T cells (I; in the presence of BMDCs) were stimulated with *H. pylori* lysates (2, 20, and 200 μ g/ml) for 4 d. Uninfected WT mice were used as control. The concentrations

of IFN- γ in the supernatant were determined by ELISA. **(J)** The frequency of Ly6G⁺CD11b⁺ cells in gastric MNCs was analyzed at 6 wk after infection with anti-Mincle mAb or cont. Ab treatment. Bars indicate the average number. **(K)** Bacterial CFU in the stomach of infected mice was determined by counting the number of colonies on *H. pylori* selective agar plates. Littermates (A–F) or C57BL/6 mice obtained from CLEA Japan (G–K) were used as WT mice. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD of triplicate assays (A, B, and G–I) from three (WT vs. *Clec4e*^{-/-}) or two (Control Ab vs. Anti-Mincle) independent experiments (at least six infected mice in each group) with similar results. An unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for the statistical analyses. *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01.

(Fig. 5, E and F), suggesting that α CAG is one of the major components of *H. pylori* responsible for T cell priming.

Finally, we addressed the role of cholesteryl glucosides in *H. pylori*-induced gastritis. Gastritis was significantly ameliorated in mice infected with *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} compared with *H. pylori*^{WT}, as assessed by inflammatory cell infiltration in the mucosa (Fig. 5, G and H). In contrast, bacterial numbers in the stomach were not significantly altered (Fig. 5 I). Similarly, we detected a substantial titer of anti-*H. pylori* Ab upon infection with *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} in WT mice, as well as *H. pylori*^{WT} in *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5, J and K). These results suggest that the production of cholesteryl glucosides, α CAG and α CPG, by *H. pylori* is required for its virulence to promote gastritis without affecting humoral immune responses.

Discussion

In the present study, we provide the first example of an innate immune recognition of self-lipid-derived virulence factor generated by bacterial pathogens. These immune responses did not, however, efficiently contribute to *H. pylori* clearance (Adamsson et al., 2017).

In addition to the established role of Th1 (Eaton et al., 2001), recent studies have underscored the contribution of the Th17 population for the induction and development of gastritis during *H. pylori* infection (Ericksen et al., 2014; Gray et al., 2013). In the present study, *H. pylori* lipids augmented both Th1 and Th17 responses, which is consistent with the reported characteristics of CLR signaling (Geijtenbeek and Gringhuis, 2016). Another T cell subset, invariant natural killer T (iNKT) cells, are reported to be activated by cholesteryl glucosides (Chang et al., 2011; Ito et al., 2013; Shimamura, 2012), although we did not observe detectable iNKT cell activation by α CAG and α CPG (Fig. S2 F). Alternatively, α CAG and α CPG might activate iNKT cells through macrophage/DC-derived IL-12 in a TCR-independent manner (Cohen et al., 2011). However, there was no significant difference in the phenotypes of WT mice and *J α 18*-deficient (*Trajl18*^{-/-}) mice lacking iNKT cells after *H. pylori* infection (Fig. S2, G and H), suggesting that iNKT cells play a limited role in immune responses against *H. pylori* in the present SS1 model.

Some bacteria and fungi produce nonsteryl aliphatic ligands bearing flexible tails that signal through Mincle (Lu et al., 2018). *H. pylori*-derived Mincle ligand is atypical in its structure (Fig. 1 N) and recognition mode (Fig. S1 E), and the induction of gastritis is a pathology specific to *H. pylori*. Possibly, the continuous priming of APCs by rigid steroid-based ligands during chronic infection in gastric lymphoid tissues may efficiently induce pathogenic T cells. Most likely, these events take place in a less acidic environment, as the immune-active coccoid form of *H. pylori* is efficiently taken up by DCs in the duodenum or small

intestine, particularly in secondary lymphoid organs (Nagai et al., 2007). Indeed, these DCs are activated in *H. pylori*-infected individuals and induce Th1 response (Bimczok et al., 2010).

α CAG is the most potent Mincle ligand in human. Although humans lack a DCAR orthologue (Flornes et al., 2004), α CPG potently activated human DCs (Fig. S4 G), indicating that α CPG may also exert their effect in humans via an unidentified receptor. Our recent report of murine DCAR-ligand complex structure (Omahdi et al., 2020) will help with the structure-based identification of human counterpart. Collectively, these results suggest that blockade of *Hp0421* may prevent gastritis in humans by reducing the level of α CAG and α CPG. Although an *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} mutant did not show an apparent growth disadvantage in our experimental setting, inactivation of this enzyme in other clinical strains of *H. pylori* led to impaired growth (Kawakubo et al., 2004; McGee et al., 2011), which may further provide therapeutic benefit.

α CAG and α CPG are unique to *Helicobacter* spp. (Grille et al., 2010; Haque et al., 1996; Hirai et al., 1995; Mayberry and Smith, 1983). Although the physiological advantage of cholesterol glycosylation in *H. pylori* remains to be fully understood, several beneficial roles of α CAG for the bacteria have been reported (Grille et al., 2010; McGee et al., 2011; Morey et al., 2018; Wunder et al., 2006). The function of α CPG has not been demonstrated in both bacteria and host. It is also proposed that sterol glycosylation and subsequent acylation by *H. pylori* may detoxify environmental sterols that may be harmful to bacteria (Shimomura et al., 2013).

On the other hand, the conservation of apparently disadvantageous recognition of these metabolites by the host implies that these interactions may confer other advantages to the host, although we could not observe it in the context of *H. pylori* infection. Given that Mincle plays a protective role against mycobacterial infection (Kabuye et al., 2019; Lu et al., 2018), it may have conferred a survival advantage to the host. Such a trade-off between “chronic inflammation” and “protective immunity” may provide selection pressures that could potentially alter the CLR family lineup during evolution. Indeed, some CLR members have been lost/pseudogenized or arisen by gene duplication in mammalian species (Flornes et al., 2004).

Nontargeted lipidomics allowed for the identification of uncharacterized cholesteryl lipid species in *H. pylori*. In addition to the above-mentioned “diacyl” α CPG, we detected *lyso*-type CPG C19c:0 (*lyso*- α CPG) in the coccoid form, yet its biological function remains unclear. We also identified cholesteryl glycerophosphate glycoside and cholesteryl ethanolamine-phosphate glycoside (Fig. S5), which have not been previously reported. These are potential candidates for as-yet-uncharacterized immunomodulatory metabolites.

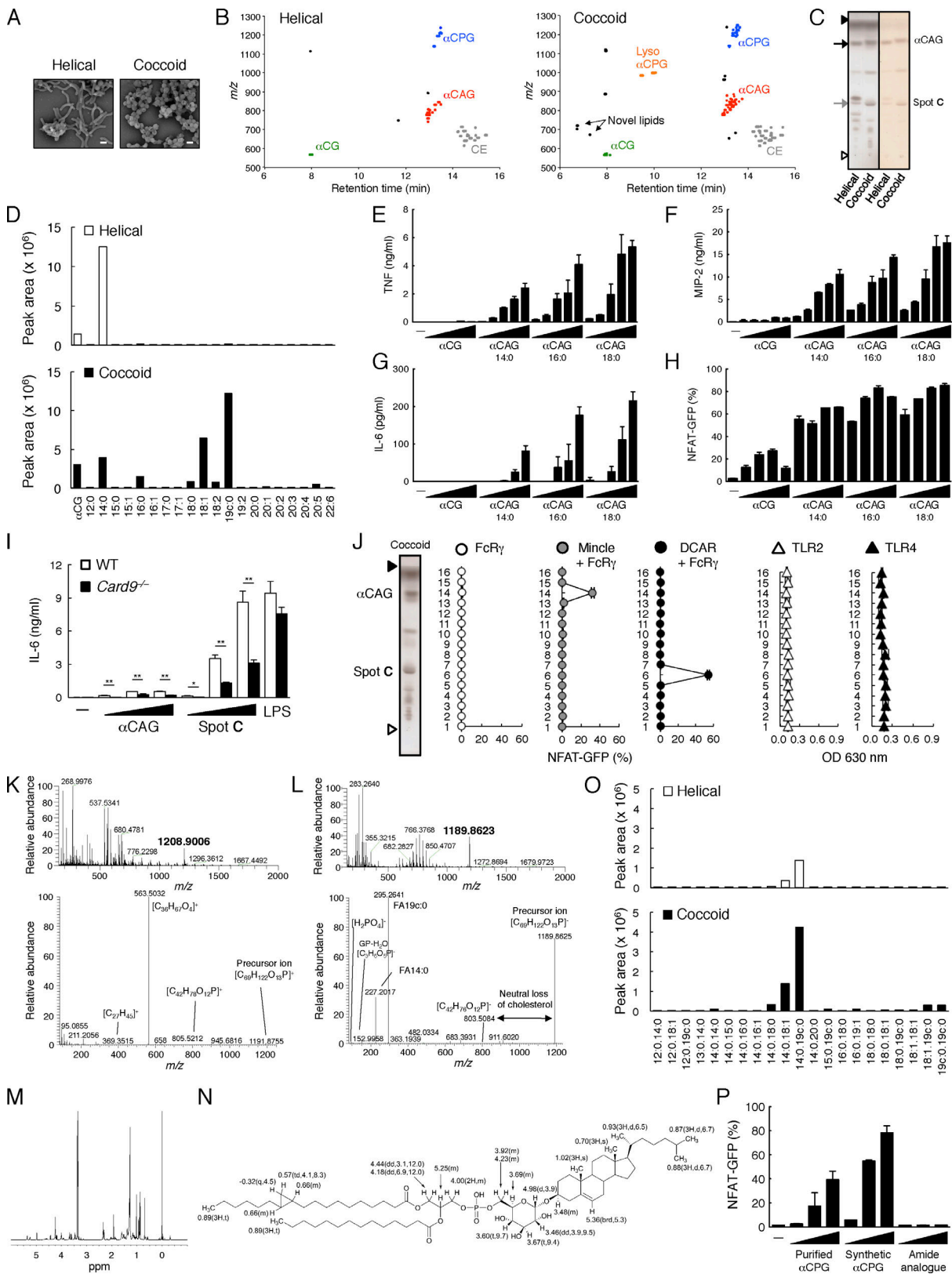


Figure 4. **Nontargeted lipidomics of *H. pylori* revealed the regulation of immunostimulatory potential by changing lipid composition.** (A) Scanning electron micrographs of helical form and coccoid form of *H. pylori*. Scale bar, 10 μ m. (B) 2D map of mass (m/z of precursor ions) versus liquid chromatography retention time of cholesteryl lipids isolated from helical (left panel) or coccoid (right panel) form of *H. pylori*. Plots of precursor ions were identified as cholesterol ester (CE), α CG, α CAG, α CPG, and lyso α CPG (detected only in coccoid form). (C) Lipid extracts from helical or coccoid form of *H. pylori* were analyzed by HPTLC using chloroform/methanol/water (65:25:4, vol/vol/vol) and stained with copper(II) acetate-phosphoric acid (left) and orcinol (right). Open

and closed arrowheads denote the origin and the solvent front, respectively. The black arrow indicates α CAG, and the gray arrow indicates the lipid component increasing in coccooid form (Spot C). **(D)** Peak area of each fatty acid fragment ion of α CAG that is analyzed in Fig. S3 C. **(E–G)** BMDCs were stimulated with α CG, α CAG C14:0, C16:0, or C18:0 (0.02, 0.06, 0.2, 0.6, and 2 nmol/well) for 1 d. The concentrations of TNF (E), MIP-2 (F), and IL-6 (G) in the supernatants were determined by ELISA. **(H)** Reporter cells expressing Mincle + FcR γ were stimulated with α CG, α CAG C14:0, C16:0, or C18:0 (0.016, 0.08, 0.4 and 2 nmol/well) for 20 h and analyzed for GFP expression. **(I)** Resident peritoneal exudate cells from WT or *Card9*^{-/-} mice were stimulated with α CAG C14:0, Spot C (0.02, 0.2, and 2 nmol/well) or LPS. IL-6 production was quantified by ELISA. **(J)** NFAT-GFP reporter cells expressing FcR γ alone, Mincle + FcR γ or DCAR + FcR γ or HEK-based NF- κ B reporter cells expressing TLR2 or TLR4 were stimulated with HPTLC-separated lipids from coccooid *H. pylori* for 20 h and analyzed for GFP or SEAP expression. **(K)** Full scan MS spectra of Spot C (upper panel) and MS/MS spectra of *m/z* 1208.9006 [M+NH₄]⁺ (lower panel) in the positive ion mode. Ion peak at *m/z* 1208.9006 [M + NH₄]⁺ is proposed to be cholesteryl α -phosphatidylpyranoside (calculated mass, 1208.9040). **(L)** Full-scan MS spectra of Spot C (upper panel) and MS/MS spectra of *m/z* 1189.8623 [M-H]⁻ (lower panel) in the negative ion mode. Ion peak at *m/z* 1189.8623 [M-H]⁻ is supposed to be cholesteryl α -phosphatidylpyranoside (calculated mass, 1189.8629). **(M)** ¹H-NMR spectrum (600 MHz, CDCl₃:CD₃OD:D₂O [65:35:5], 298 K) of Spot C. **(N)** Chemical structure and ¹H-NMR chemical shifts assignment of Spot C. Chemical shifts are given in δ ppm, followed by integration, multiplicity and J in hertz. **(O)** Peak area of each fatty acid fragment ion of α CPG that is analyzed in Fig. S3 D. **(P)** Reporter cells expressing DCAR + FcR γ were stimulated with purified α CPG, synthesized α CPG (C14:0 19c:0) or α CPG amide analogue (0.1, 0.3 and 1 nmol/well) for 20 h and analyzed for GFP expression. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD of triplicate (E–G and I) or duplicate (H, J, and P) assays and are representative of two independent experiments. An unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for the statistical analyses. *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01.

Clinical studies have demonstrated that a low vitamin D concentration is correlated with severe gastritis and that vitamin D administration attenuated *H. pylori* infection and decreased gastritis; however, the molecular basis remains unclear (Antico et al., 2012; Hosoda et al., 2015; Kawamura et al., 2006). Vitamin D3 is a 3 β -OH steroid that is efficiently assimilated by *H. pylori* (Shimomura et al., 2013), implying that one of the molecular mechanisms of the effect of vitamin D is through its action as a competitive inhibitor of *Hp0421*. Development of vitamin D derivatives that inhibit this enzyme might provide a harmless regimen for the prevention of *H. pylori*-induced gastritis and subsequent malignancy.

Antibiotic eradication of *H. pylori* is an established therapy to prevent *H. pylori*-induced gastritis. Recently, however, such methods are limited due to the emergence of drug resistance and microbial dysbiosis (Labenz, 2001; Wu et al., 2012). Furthermore, incomplete treatment with antibiotics increases the risk of accelerating gastritis through induction of the coccooid form (Poursina et al., 2013). Therefore, targeting *Hp0421* or conversely the innate immune receptors for its products may provide a complementary approach to current antibiotic treatments. *Helicobacter*-specific T helper cells are also implicated in the pathophysiology of hematopoietic diseases such as mucosa-associated lymphoid tissue lymphoma and idiopathic thrombocytopenia purpura (D'Elis et al., 2005; Frydman et al., 2015), which can be addressed in mice using clinical isolates of *Helicobacter* spp. (Matsui et al., 2014). Thus, the identification of host lipid-derived bacterial adjuvants and their host receptors that drive T cell activation is potentially of broad clinical significance.

Materials and methods

Mice

Mincle-deficient mice (Yamasaki et al., 2009) were backcrossed for at least 16 generations with C57BL/6. FcR γ -deficient mice (Park et al., 1998) were provided by T. Saito (RIKEN, Yokohama, Japan). CARD9-deficient mice (Hara et al., 2007) were provided by H. Hara (Kagoshima University, Kagoshima, Japan). MyD88-deficient mice (Adachi et al., 1998) were purchased from Oriental Yeast. α 18-deficient mice (Cui et al., 1997) were provided by M. Taniguchi (RIKEN, Yokohama, Japan). OVA-specific TCR

OT-II transgenic mice (Barnden et al., 1998) were used on a C57BL/6 background. All mice were maintained in a filtered-air laminar-flow enclosure and given standard laboratory food and water ad libitum. All animal protocols were approved by the committee of Ethics on Animal Experiment, Faculty of Medical Sciences, Kyushu University and Research Institute for Microbial Diseases, Osaka University.

Reagents

TDM and α CG were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Synthetic α CAG, α CG, α CPG, and α CPG analogue were synthesized as described below. Anti-CD11b (M1/70), Ly6G (1A8), B220 (RA3-6B2), and CD40 (3/23) mAbs were from BD Biosciences. Anti-CD80 (16-10A1), TCR- β (H57), and CD69 (H1.2F3) mAbs were from BioLegend. Anti-F4/80 (BM8) and NOS2 (CXNFT) mAbs were from eBioscience. Anti-Mincle (1B6) mAb was from MBL. For histological analysis, anti-CD3 (AO452) Ab and F4/80 (Cl:A3-1) mAb were from Dako and AbD Serotec, respectively. The ELISA kits for TNF, IL-6, and IFN- γ were from BD Biosciences. The ELISA kits for MIP-2, IL-17, and human IL-8 were from R&D Systems and Invitrogen, respectively.

Cells

2B4-NFAT-GFP reporter cells expressing murine CLR and human Mincle were prepared as previously described (Kiyotake et al., 2015; Miyake et al., 2013; Toyonaga et al., 2016; Yamasaki et al., 2008; Yonekawa et al., 2014). HEK293-derived reporter cells that stably express an NF- κ B-inducible secreted embryonic alkaline phosphatase (SEAP) reporter gene and TLR2 or TLR4 gene were obtained from InvivoGen. BMDCs and hMoDCs were prepared as previously described (Kiyotake et al., 2015; Nagata et al., 2017). DN32.D3 (Lantz and Bendelac, 1994) cells were provided by Y. Kinjo (Jikei University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan).

Bacteria

The *H. pylori* strain SS1, a mouse-adapted human isolate, was used for all the experiments. The *Hp0421*-deficient SS1 strain (*H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421}) was described previously (Chang et al., 2011). Glycerol stocks of *H. pylori* SS1 were first grown on 5% sheep blood agar plates (BBL: 251239) under microaerobic conditions

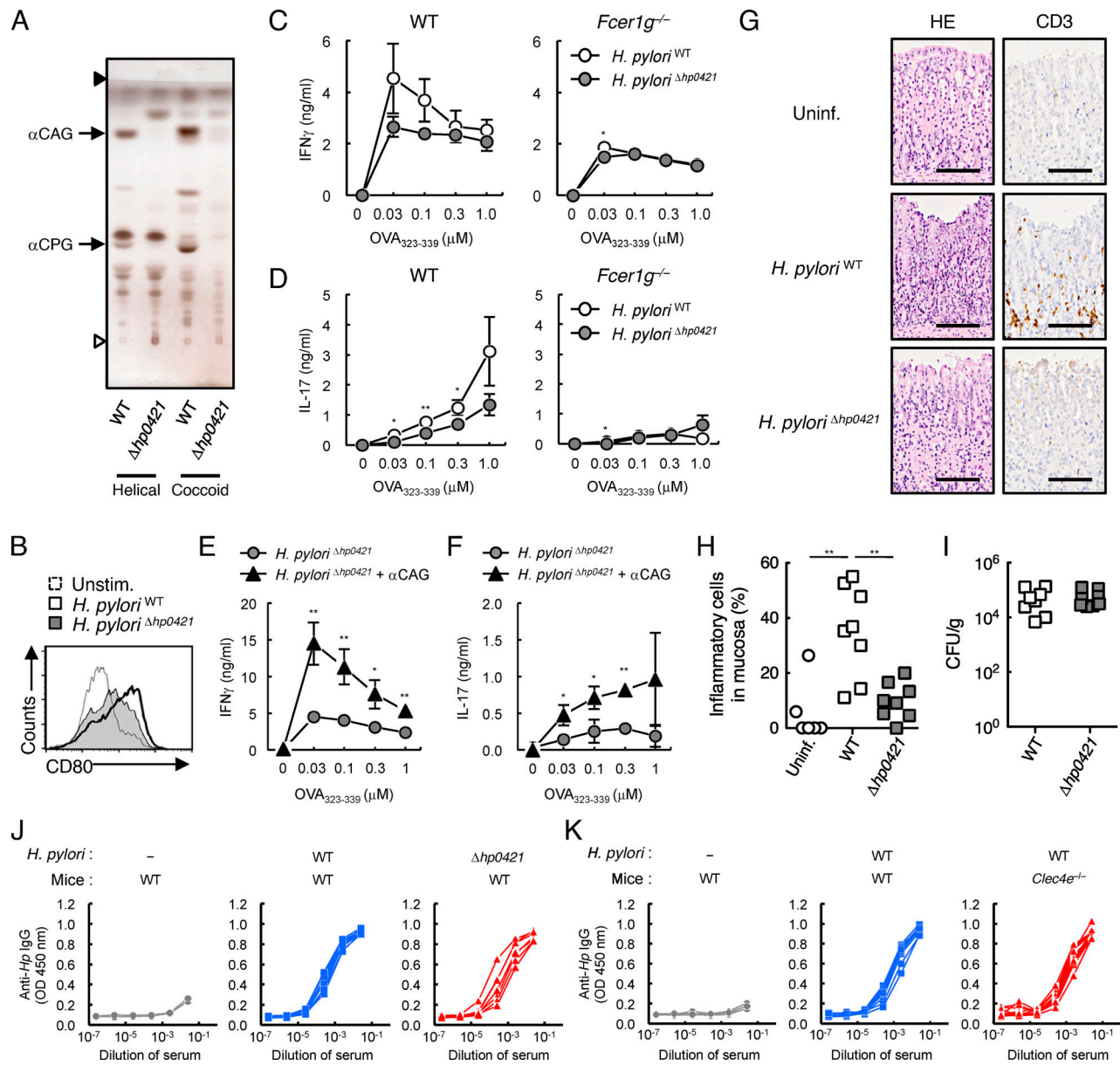


Figure 5. Ameliorated gastritis by depletion of α CAG/ α CPG in *H. pylori*. (A) The lipid extracts from helical or coccoid form of *H. pylori*^{WT} or *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} were analyzed by HPTLC. Open and closed arrowheads denote the origin and the solvent front, respectively. The black arrows indicate α CAG and α CPG. (B) BMDCs were stimulated with multiplicity of infection (MOI) 30 of *H. pylori*^{WT} or *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} for 1 d, and the surface expression of CD80 was analyzed. (C and D) WT or *Fcεr1g*^{-/-} BMDCs were stimulated with MOI 30 (C) or 100 (D) of *H. pylori*^{WT} or *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} and co-cultured with OT-II CD4⁺ T cells in the presence of indicated concentrations of OVA₃₂₃₋₃₃₉ peptide for 3 d. IFN γ (C) and IL-17 (D) productions were quantified by ELISA. (E and F) BMDCs were stimulated with *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421} (MOI 30 in E or MOI 100 in F) alone or with 0.1 nmol/well of α CAG (C14:0) and co-cultured with OT-II CD4⁺ T cells. Cytokine production was quantified as in C and D. (G) H&E (HE) staining and immunohistochemical staining of anti-CD3 of stomach sections from *H. pylori*^{WT}- or *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421}-infected mice at 8 wk after infection. Uninfected WT mice were used as control. Scale bar, 100 μ m. (H) The percentage of microscopic fields with inflammatory cells in one section of gastric mucosa. Two H&E-stained sections (14–25 fields) per mice were analyzed. (I) The number of bacteria recovered from the stomachs of *H. pylori*^{WT}- or *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421}-infected mice. Bacterial numbers were determined by counting the number of colonies on *H. pylori* selective agar plates. (J and K) Production of *H. pylori*-specific Ab in the sera of *H. pylori*^{WT}- or *H. pylori* ^{Δ hp0421}-infected WT mice (J), and *H. pylori*^{WT}-infected WT or *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice (K). *H. pylori*-specific IgG was detected by ELISA using *H. pylori* lysate as an antigen. Each line represents an individual mouse. C57BL/6J mice obtained from CLEA Japan, Inc. were used as WT mice (G–I). Data are presented as the mean \pm SD of triplicate assays (C–F) and representative of two independent experiments. An unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for the statistical analyses. *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01.

for 2 d. After the plate culture, *H. pylori* SS1 was grown in Brucella broth (BD Biosciences) with 5% FCS for 14–16 h at 37°C under microaerobic conditions with gentle agitation. For the preparation of the coccoid form, SS1 was incubated in Brucella broth with 5% FCS for 2–3 d under anaerobic conditions after the microaerobic liquid culture or on 5% sheep blood agar plates for

7 d under anaerobic conditions after the first growth on the agar plates for 3 d.

Lipid extraction and purification

H. pylori was washed with PBS and then treated with chloroform/methanol (2:1, vol/vol) for 1 d. This mixture was partitioned by

centrifugation and the lower organic phase was used as the lipid extract. To isolate α CAG or α CPG, the lipid extracts were separated by HPTLC (Merck) and visualized by copper(II) acetate-phosphoric acid (180°C, 15 min) or orcinol (120°C, 5–15 min) staining. The fractions containing these lipids were scraped from the plate, and chloroform/methanol (2:1, vol/vol) was used to elute the lipids. The purified lipids were filtered using Millex-LG (0.2 μ m; Merck) to remove silica gel contamination.

ESI-TOF-MS and GC-MS analysis of α CAG and α CPG

ESI-TOF-MS was measured with a Bruker micro-TOF mass spectrometer in the positive ESI mode (Bruker Daltonics). For conversion to FAMES for GC-MS analysis, α CAG from the helical form of *H. pylori* was subjected to methanolysis by heating with 10% HCl/methanol in a sealed tube at 80°C for 3 h. The reaction mixture was diluted with methanol and extracted with *n*-hexane. The *n*-hexane extract was concentrated in vacuo to give a mixture of FAMES. The FAMES were dissolved in acetone and subjected to GC-MS with GC-MS-QP2010 SE (Shimadzu). The conditions of GC-MS were as follows: column, INERTCAP 5MS/SIL (0.25 mm i.d. \times 30 m; GL Science); column temperature, 100–280°C; rate of temperature increase, 18°C/min. Three major FAMES were detected and the retention time (t_R), and the proportions (%) of each FAME of α CAG were as follows: methyl tetradecanoate (14:0), t_R [min] = 12.3, 35.4%; methyl palmitate (16:0), t_R [min] = 14.5, 6.7%; methyl stearate (18:0), t_R [min] = 16.6, 5.8%. Dehydro cholesterol was also detected: Δ 3,5-cholesterol, 41.4%, t_R [min] = 24.4, m/z = 368 (M^+). FAMES of α CPG: methyl tetradecanoate (14:0), t_R [min] = 12.3, 20.4%; methyl palmitate (16:0), t_R [min] = 14.5, 3.0%; methyl octadecanoate (18:1), t_R [min] = 16.4, 3.7%; methyl stearate (18:0), t_R [min] = 16.6, 11.1%; methyl nonadecanoate, t_R [min] = 18.1, 14.3%; methyl 11,12-methyl-eneoctadecanoate (19c:0), t_R [min] = 19.0, 4.9%; methyl nonadecanoate (19:1), t_R [min] = 19.4, 1.9%; dehydrocholesterol was also detected: Δ 3,5-cholesterol, t_R [min] = 24.4, 29.2%.

ESI-Q-Orbitrap-MS analysis of α CPG

Lipid fractions were dissolved in 5 mM ammonium acetate (wt/vol) in methanol/water (95:5, vol/vol; 50 μ g/ml). Flow injection analysis was performed using a Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) coupled with a Q Exactive, a high-performance benchtop Q-Orbitrap-MS, fitted with an ESI ion source (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The flow injection conditions in the positive and negative ionization modes were as described previously (Nagata et al., 2017).

NMR analysis of α CAG and α CPG

1 H- and 13 C-NMR spectra were recorded on an Agilent INOVA 600 spectrometer. The conditions for α CAG were as follows: 1 H: 600 MHz, $CDCl_3/CD_3OD$ (1:1, vol/vol), 298 K and 13 C: 150 MHz, $CDCl_3/CD_3OD$ (1:1, vol/vol), 298 K. The conditions for α CPG were as follows: 1 H: 600 MHz, $CDCl_3/CD_3OD/D_2O$ (65:35:5, vol/vol/vol), 298 K and 13 C: 150 MHz $CDCl_3/CD_3OD/D_2O$ (65:35:5, vol/vol/vol), 298 K. 1 H chemical shifts were assigned by 1 H- 1 H correlation spectroscopy and total correlation spectroscopy

experiments and 13 C chemical shifts were assigned by HSQC and HMBC experiments.

Chemical synthesis

CG and CAGs were synthesized in a multistep route as follows. Glycosylation of cholesterol using 3,4,6-tri-*O*-acetyl-2-*O*-benzyl- α -D-glucopyranosyl *N*-phenyltrifluoroacetimidate afforded cholesteryl 3,4,6-tri-*O*-acetyl-2-*O*-benzyl- α -D-glucopyranoside. Transfer hydrogenolysis of the benzyl groups (cyclohexene, Pd(OH)₂/C, ethanol) and then deacetylation (NaOMe, methanol/THF) afforded α CG. Trimethylsilylation (TMSCl, Et₃N, CH₂Cl₂) of α CG yielded cholesteryl 2,3,4,6-tetra-*O*-trimethylsilyl- α -D-glucopyranoside. Removal of the primary trimethylsilyl group (NH₄OAc, CH₂Cl₂/methanol) and acylation with myristoyl, palmitoyl, or stearoyl chloride (DMAP, pyr/CH₂Cl₂) afforded the cholesteryl 6-*O*-acyl-2,3,4-tri-*O*-trimethylsilyl- α -D-glucopyranosides. Finally, treatment with Dowex 50 (H⁺ form) resin in methanol/CH₂Cl₂ provided α CAG-C14:0, α CAG-C16:0, and α CAG-C18:0. Natural α CPG was chemically synthesized as below. First, a common α CG derivative having a single hydroxyl group at the C6 position of glucose residue was prepared based on an in situ anomerization method to form an α -glucoside linkage. The conversion of penta-*O*-trimethylsilyl-D-glucose into the corresponding glucosyl iodide followed by the coupling with cholesterol afforded the desired cholesteryl glucoside as a mixture of diastereoisomers. Subsequent four-step reaction sequence, including the removal of TMS groups, C6-protection by the trityl group, the introduction of the Fmoc group to other hydroxyl groups, and the removal of the trityl group, gave the α CG derivative in pure form. Glycerol moiety found in natural α CPG was prepared starting from commercially available L-(-)-1,2-isopropylidene-glycerol. The coupling of the glycerol derivative and myristic acid in the presence of *N,N'*-dicyclohexylcarbodiimide and 4-dimethylaminopyridine followed by the removal of the isopropylidene group afforded the diol product. The primary alcohol was then protected as a trityl ether. The introduction of phytomonic acid to the remaining secondary alcohol and subsequent removal of the trityl group by hydrogenolysis provided the desired glycerol unit used for natural α CPG in good yields. The prepared glycerol unit was treated with 2-cyanoethyl *N,N,N',N'*-tetraisopropylphosphoroamidite and 1*H*-tetrazole to form the corresponding phosphoroamidite derivative, which was then subjected to the phosphoroamidite coupling reaction with the above-mentioned α CG derivative. The coupling successfully yielded the corresponding fully protected target framework. Finally, global deprotection delivered natural α CPG. On the other hand, the amide-linked α CPG analogue was chemically prepared via 15 reaction steps starting from the commercially available D-glucose pentaacetate. First, D-glucose pentaacetate was converted into phenyl 4,6-*O*-di-*tert*-butylsilylene-2,3-di-*O*-*p*-methoxybenzyl-1-thio- β -D-glucopyranoside as the glycosyl donor in six steps. The coupling of the glucosyl donor and cholesterol in the presence of dimethyl(methylthio)sulfonium triflate and 2,4,6-tri-*tert*-butylpyrimidine in dichloromethane at room temperature followed by the removal of the DTBS group of the glucose moiety afforded the 4,6-dihydroxy α -glucosyl

cholesterol derivative. Subsequent Mitsunobu reaction with phthalimide, 1,2-bis(diphenylphosphino)ethane, and bis(2-methoxyethyl) azodicarboxylate installed an imide functionality at the C6 position of the glucose. The 6-phthalimide derivative obtained was then transformed into the 6-NH₂ glucosyl cholesterol having *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl groups at O2, O3, and O4 positions of the glucose. The prepared 6-NH₂ glucosyl cholesterol derivative was condensed with the same glycerol unit as that used for natural α CPG in the presence of *N,N'*-disuccinimidyl carbonate and triethylamine, giving the fully protected amide-linked α CPG framework in good yield. Finally, the removal of *tert*-butyldimethylsilyl groups by the action of tetra-*n*-butylammonium fluoride furnished the amide-linked α CPG analogue.

In vitro stimulation assay

To stimulate the cells, each lipid was diluted in isopropanol and the 20 μ l dilutions were added to each well of the 96-well plate followed by evaporation of the solvent. LPS (10 ng/ml) was used as a positive control. The reporter activity of 2B4-NFAT-GFP cells was analyzed by flow cytometry and SEAP secretion from HEK293-based NF- κ B cells were detected using an alkaline phosphatase detection reagent (QUANTI-Blue; InvivoGen).

In vitro Mincle binding assay

The Mincle-Ig protein, composed of the C-terminus of the extracellular domain of Mincle fused to the N-terminus of the human IgG1 Fc region (hIgG1), was prepared as described previously (Miyake et al., 2013). For the in vitro binding assay, 3 μ g/ml hIgG1-Fc (Ig) and Mincle-Ig diluted in binding buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM CaCl₂, and 2 mM MgCl₂, pH 7.0) were incubated with plate-coated glycolipids. The bound proteins were detected with anti-hIgG-HRP followed by the addition of a colorimetric substrate. Peroxidase activity was measured using the UV/Vis spectrophotometer.

Co-culture of OT-II CD4⁺ T cells and BMDCs

BMDCs were stimulated with *H. pylori*, plate-coated α CAG, or both during this assay. OT-II CD4⁺ T cells were sorted by CD4 microbeads (Miltenyi Biotec) from single-cell suspensions of spleen and inguinal LNs from OT-II mice. Sorted OT-II CD4⁺ T cells were co-cultured with BMDCs at the ratio of 10:1 for 3 d in the presence of OVA₃₂₃₋₃₃₉ peptide.

Immunization

Mice were sensitized by a subcutaneous injection with 200 μ g OVA in oil-in-water emulsion (mineral oil/Tween-80/PBS [9:1:90, vol/vol/vol]) containing 100 μ g α CAG. At day 7, mice were challenged by an injection of 200 μ g heat-aggregated OVA (70°C, 1 h) in 20 μ l PBS into both footpads. For the in vitro restimulation analysis, at 7 d after the challenge, B cell-depleted inguinal LN cells were stimulated with the OVA protein for the indicated periods.

Bacterial infection

H. pylori SS1 were prepared from plate and liquid cultures. Mice were orally administered 3 \times 10⁸ CFUs of *H. pylori* SS1 in 400 μ l

of 5% FCS/Brucella broth three times in a week. For the anti-Mincle (1B6) mAb administration, mice were intravenously injected with 100 μ g anti-Mincle mAb or control rat IgG twice a week for 4 wk. After the indicated time period, mice were sacrificed, and gastric LNs were collected before harvesting other tissues. Half of the stomachs were fixed with 10% formalin for 24 h and embedded in paraffin. Specimens were stained with H&E or taken for immunohistochemical analysis with anti-CD3 and F4/80 Abs. The remainder was used for the preparation of gastric mononuclear cells (MNCs) and RNA and the calculation of bacterial CFUs. The CFU was determined by plating serial dilutions of the stomach homogenates onto *H. pylori* selective agar plates (NISSUI) and counting colonies.

Preparation of gastric MNCs

Mouse stomachs were minced into small pieces and treated with 3 mM EDTA. After treatment, small pieces of stomach were digested with 250 μ g/ml collagenase II (Sigma-Aldrich) and 100 μ g/ml DNaseI (Roche) for 30 min at 37°C. Gastric MNCs were purified by Percoll density gradient centrifugation.

Recall responses after infection

Gastric LNs, Peyer's patches, mesenteric LNs, and spleens were collected from *H. pylori*-infected mice. These tissues were homogenized, and then single-cell suspensions were stimulated with *H. pylori* lysate in the presence or absence of WT BMDCs (tissue cells/BMDCs = 10:1). CD4⁺ T cells were sorted by CD4 microbeads from splenocytes.

Preparation of *H. pylori* lysate

H. pylori SS1 was grown on 5% sheep blood agar plates under microaerobic conditions for 3 d and was sequentially incubated on 5% sheep blood agar plates under anaerobic condition for 7 d. After cultures, *H. pylori* SS1 were collected and sonicated in PBS. The supernatants after centrifugation were collected and used as the whole lysate of *H. pylori*. The protein concentration of the filtered whole lysate was determined using the Protein Assay Bicinchoninate Kit (Nacalai Tesque).

RNA sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from the stomachs with Sepasol-RNA I Super G (Nacalai Tesque) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Library preparation was performed using a TruSeq stranded mRNA sample prep kit (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Whole-transcriptome sequencing was applied to the RNA samples by using an Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform in a 75-base single-end mode. The Illumina Casava ver.1.8.2 software was used for base calling. Sequenced reads were mapped to the mouse reference genome sequences (mm10) using TopHat ver. 2.0.13 in combination with Bowtie2 ver. 2.2.3 and SAMtools ver. 0.1.19. The number of fragments per kilobase of exon per million mapped fragments was calculated using Cufflinks ver. 2.2.1. The transcriptome RNA-sequencing datasets have been deposited to the National Center for Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus database under the accession number GSE136203.

16S rRNA gene sequencing of gastric microbiota

Gastric mucosal swabs were collected from uninfected WT mice, *H. pylori*-infected WT mice, and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice for 12 wk. Bacterial DNA was extracted from swab samples using a DNeasy PowerSoil Pro kit (Qiagen). Each library was prepared according to the Illumina 16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library Preparation Guide with primer set 27Fmod: 5'-AGRGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG-3' and 338R: 5'-TGCTGCCTCCGTAGGAGT-3' targeting the V1-V2 region of 16S rRNA genes; 301-bp paired end sequencing of the amplicons was performed on a MiSeq system (Illumina) using a MiSeq Reagent v3 600 cycle kit. The paired end sequences obtained were merged, filtered, and denoised using DADA2. Taxonomic assignment was performed using QIIME2 feature-classifier plugin with the Greengenes 13_8 database. The QIIME2 pipeline, version 2020.2, was used as the bioinformatics environment for the processing of all relevant raw sequencing data. Metagenomic datasets are available at the DNA Data Bank of Japan Sequence Read Archive (DRA010478).

Nontargeted lipidomics

Whole lipids of cultured *H. pylori* SS1 were prepared by single-phase extraction as described by Tsugawa et al. (2020). Briefly, 1.0×10^9 CFUs of dried bacterial cells were suspended in 100 μ l chloroform. After 1 h incubation, 195 μ l methanol and 5 μ l EquiSPLASH (Avanti Polar Lipids) were mixed and incubated for another 2 h at room temperature. Thereafter, 20 μ l of water was added, and the samples were incubated for 10 min. After extraction, samples were centrifuged at 2,000 $\times g$ for 10 min, and the supernatants were collected. The extracted lipids were measured using the ACQUITY UPLC I class system (Waters) coupled with a TripleTOF 6600 (AB Sciex; Tsugawa et al., 2020). Liquid chromatography separation was performed using a reverse-phase column (ACQUITY UPLC BEH C18 column [2.1 mm i.d. \times 50 mm, particle size 1.7 μ m; Waters]), and data acquisition was performed by data-dependent MS/MS in the negative and positive ion modes. The detected lipid species were annotated using MS-DIAL (Tsugawa et al., 2015) and Peak View (AB Sciex).

Histological analysis

For the assessment of gastric histopathology, two H&E-stained sections per mouse were analyzed for lymphocytic inflammation using a previously described method (Eaton et al., 2007). Briefly, lymphocytic inflammation was defined as inflammatory cell infiltration that displaced the gastric glands. Positive field numbers were divided by the total number of fields and multiplied by 100% to calculate the percentage of the affected fields.

Statistical analysis

An unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for all the statistical analyses. Asterisks denote level of statistical significance (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$).

Data availability

The transcriptome RNA-sequencing and metagenomic datasets generated during this study are available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information Gene Expression Omnibus database

(GSE136203) and the DNA Data Bank of Japan Sequence Read Archive (DRA010478), respectively.

Online supplemental material

Fig. S1 shows structural analysis of immunostimulatory components in *H. pylori*. Fig. S2 shows cellular and humoral immune responses during *H. pylori* infection. Fig. S3 shows nontargeted lipidomics of helical and coccoid form of *H. pylori*. Fig. S4 shows structural analysis of Spot C. Fig. S5 shows MS spectra of uncharacterized cholesteryl lipid species in *H. pylori*.

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Supplemental material

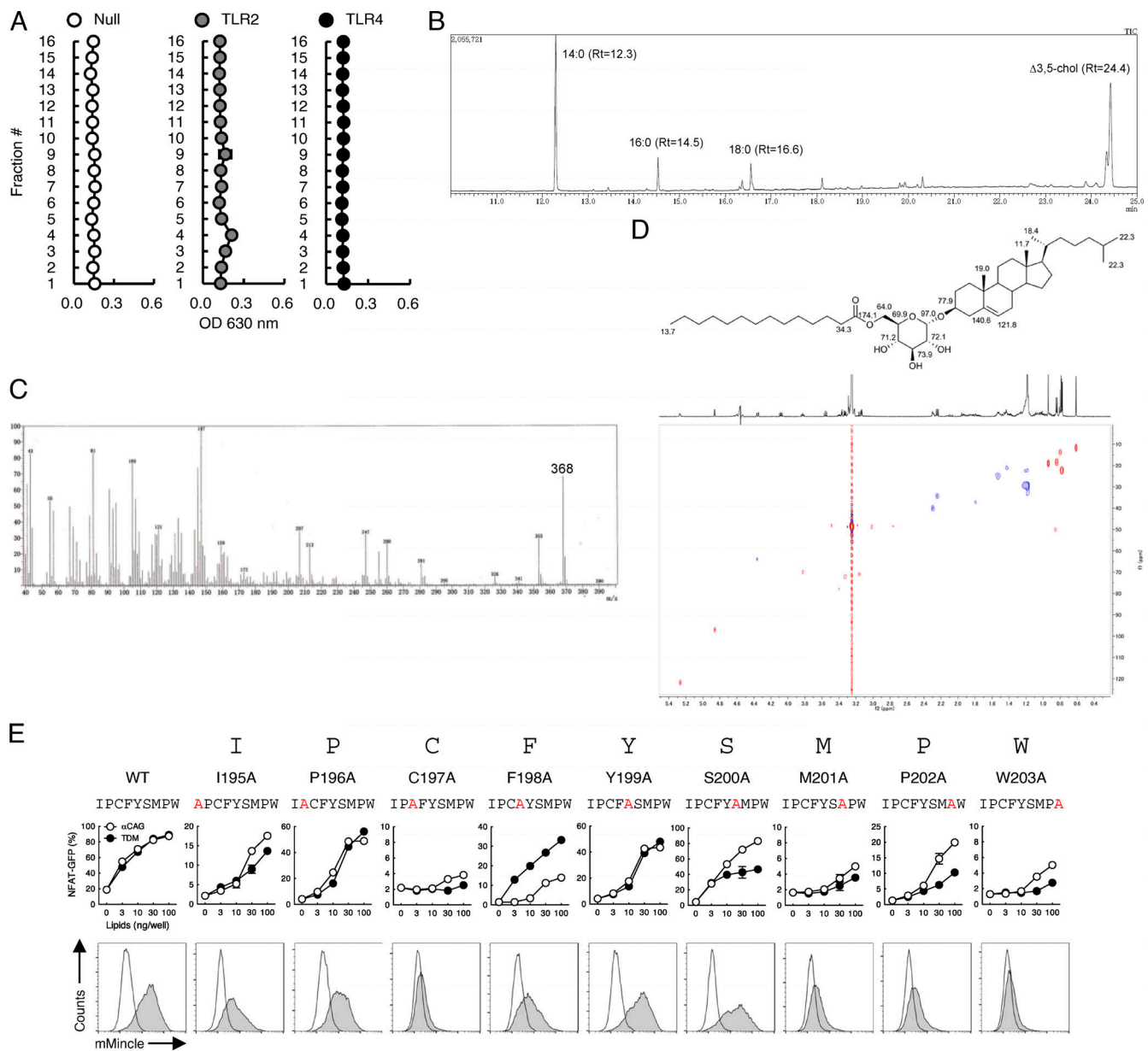


Figure S1. **Identification of chemical structure of fraction 13-14 as αCAG.** (A) HEK-based NF-κB reporter cells expressing TLR2 or TLR4 were stimulated with HPTLC-separated lipid fractions from *H. pylori* for 20 h. Activation of NF-κB was assessed by monitoring SEAP activity in the supernatants. (B) GC-MS chromatogram of FAMES and sterol derived from fraction 13-14. (C) MS spectrum of 24.4 min in B. (D) ¹³C-NMR chemical shifts of fraction 13-14 (upper panel) were assigned by HSQC (lower panel) and HMBC experiments. (E) NFAT-GFP reporter cells expressing Fcγ + Flag-tagged MinclE mutants generated by site-directed mutagenesis were stimulated with indicated lipids for 20 h. Induction of GFP was analyzed by flow cytometry (upper panels). Cell surface expression of MinclE was detected by anti-Flag mAb (lower panels). Open histograms show staining with isotype control. The spectrum of binding preferences for the mutants was distinct; in particular, the F198A mutation did not affect TDM recognition, while this mutant poorly recognized αCAG. In contrast, S200A and P202A selectively impaired TDM binding. Note that the C197 is considered to be involved in intramolecular disulfide bonds. Data are presented as the mean ± SD of duplicate assays (A and E).

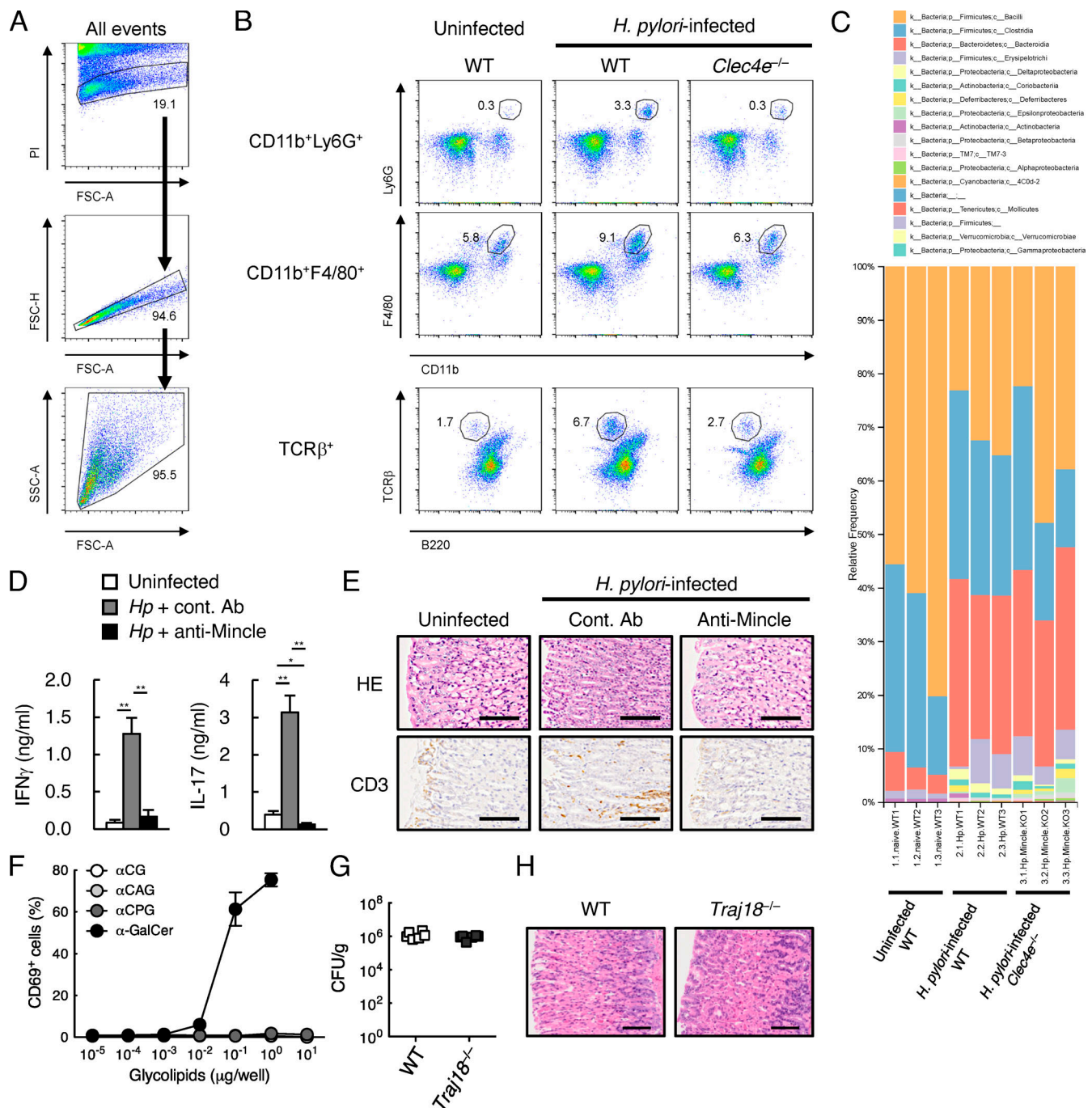


Figure S2. Cellular immunity during *H. pylori* infection. (A) Gating strategy for analyzing gastric MNCs by flow cytometry. Numbers indicate the percentages of cells in each gate. PI, propidium iodide; SSC, side scatter; FSC, forward scatter. (B) Gastric MNCs from uninfected and *H. pylori*-infected WT or *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice were stained with anti-Ly6G, F4/80, CD11b, TCRβ and B220 at 6 wk after infection. Numbers indicate the percentages of cells in each gate. (C) Metagenome analysis of gastric mucosal swabs from uninfected WT mice, *H. pylori*-infected WT and *Clec4e*^{-/-} mice (*n* = 3 in each group) after 12 wk. (D) *H. pylori*-infected WT mice were injected with anti-Mincle mAb or rat IgG as a control Ab (cont. Ab). At 8 wk after infection, Peyer's patch cells were collected and cultured for 4 d in the absence of exogenous *H. pylori* lysates. Uninfected WT mice were used as control. The concentrations of IFN- γ and IL-17 in the supernatants were determined by ELISA. (E) H&E (HE) staining and immunohistochemical staining with anti-CD3 of stomach sections from uninfected and *H. pylori*-infected mice treated with anti-Mincle mAb or control Ab. Scale bar, 100 μ m. (F) Mouse invariant NKT hybridoma cells (DN32.D3) expressing CD1d were incubated with indicated amounts of α CG, α CAG, α CPG, or α -GalCer for 1 d. Each lipid was dissolved in DMSO. The expressions of CD69 were analyzed by flow cytometry. (G) The number of bacteria recovered from the stomachs of WT and *Traja18*^{-/-} mice at 8 wk after *H. pylori* infection. Bacterial numbers were determined by counting the number of colonies on *H. pylori* selective agar plates. (H) H&E staining of stomach sections from *H. pylori*-infected WT and *Traja18*^{-/-} mice after 8 wk. Scale bar, 100 μ m. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD of triplicate assays (D and F) from two independent experiments (at least six infected mice in each group) with similar results. An unpaired two-tailed Student's *t* test was used for the statistical analyses. *, *P* < 0.05; **, *P* < 0.01.

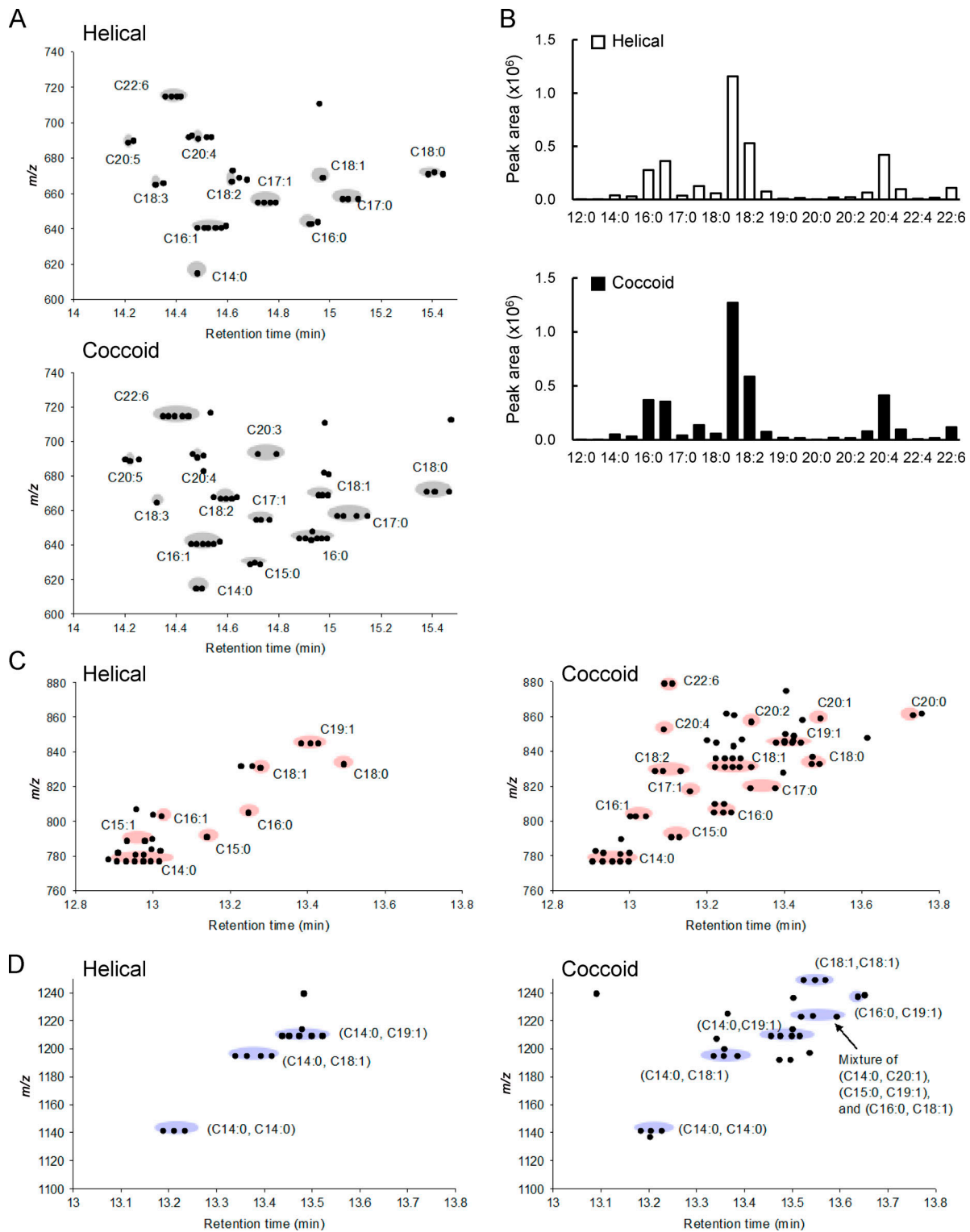


Figure S3. **Lipidomics of helical and coccoid form of *H. pylori*.** (A) 2D map of mass (m/z of precursor ions) versus LC retention time of fatty acids focused on the cholesterol ester isolated from the helical (upper panel) or coccoid (lower panel) form of *H. pylori*. The 2D map consists of the m/z values of the precursor ions along the vertical axis and the retention times along the horizontal axis. (B) Peak area of each fatty acid fragment ion analyzed in A. (C and D) 2D map of mass (m/z of precursor ions) versus liquid chromatography retention time of fatty acids focused on α CAG (C) and α CPG (D) isolated from the helical (left panels) or coccoid (right panels) forms of *H. pylori*. The 2D map consists of the m/z values of the precursor ions along the vertical axis and the retention time along the horizontal axis.

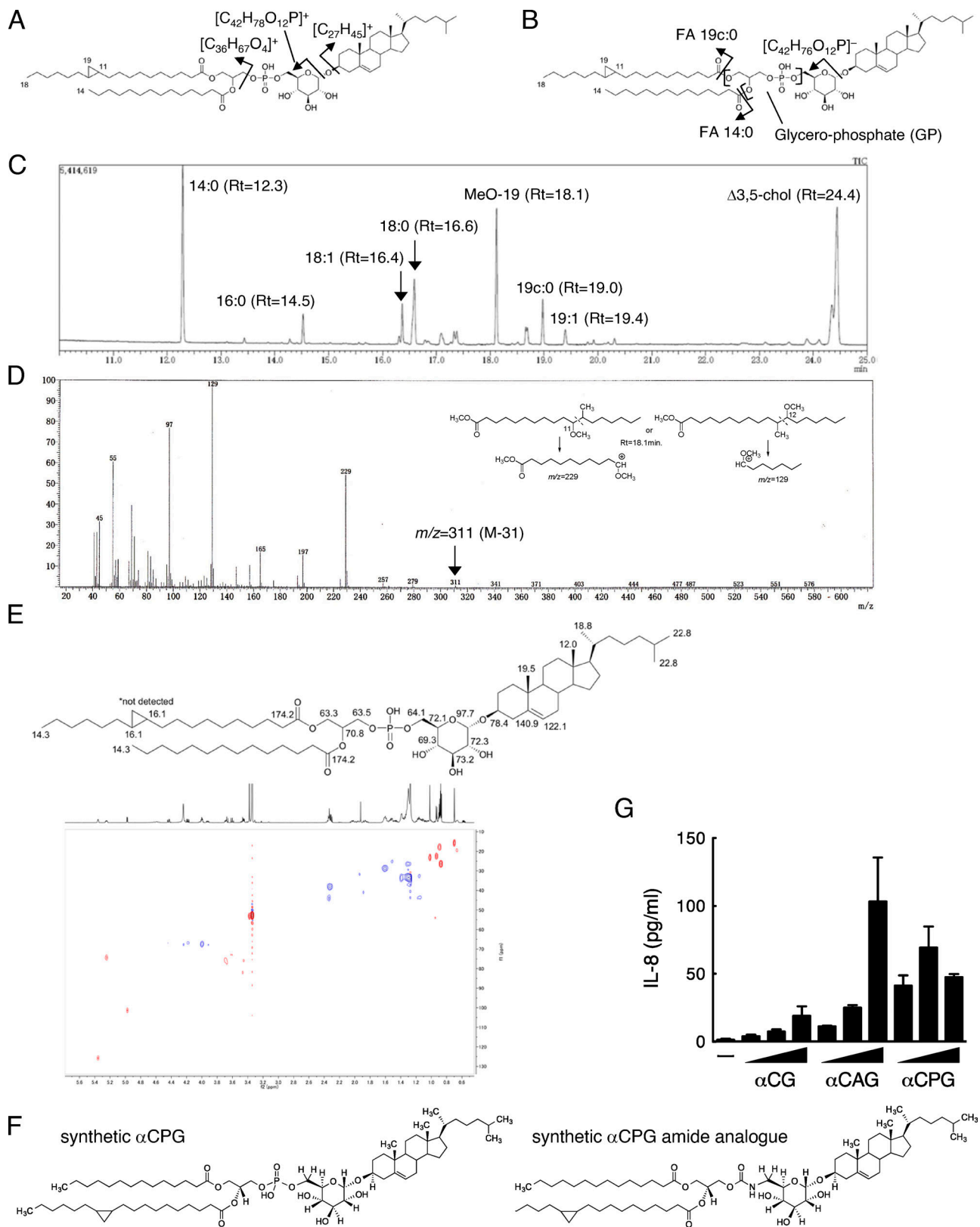


Figure S4. **Determination of the chemical structure of Spot C as α CPG.** (A) Scheme of the cleavage site of Spot C in Fig. 4 K in the positive ion mode of MS/MS analysis. (B) Scheme of the cleavage site of Spot C in Fig. 4 L in the negative ion mode of MS/MS analysis. (C) GC-MS FAME analysis of Spot C after methanolysis. (D) MS spectrum of MeO-19 at 18.1 min in C. (E) ^{13}C -NMR chemical shift assignment of Spot C (upper panel). Each chemical shift was assigned by HSQC (lower panel) and HMBC experiments. (F) Chemical structure of the synthesized α CPG (C14:0 19c:0; left panel) and synthesized α CPG amide analogue (right panel). (G) hModCs were stimulated with indicated amounts α CG, α CAG, or α CPG (0.1, 0.3, and 1 nmol/well) for 1 d. The concentrations of IL-8 in the supernatants were determined by ELISA. Data are presented as the mean \pm SD of triplicate assays (G).

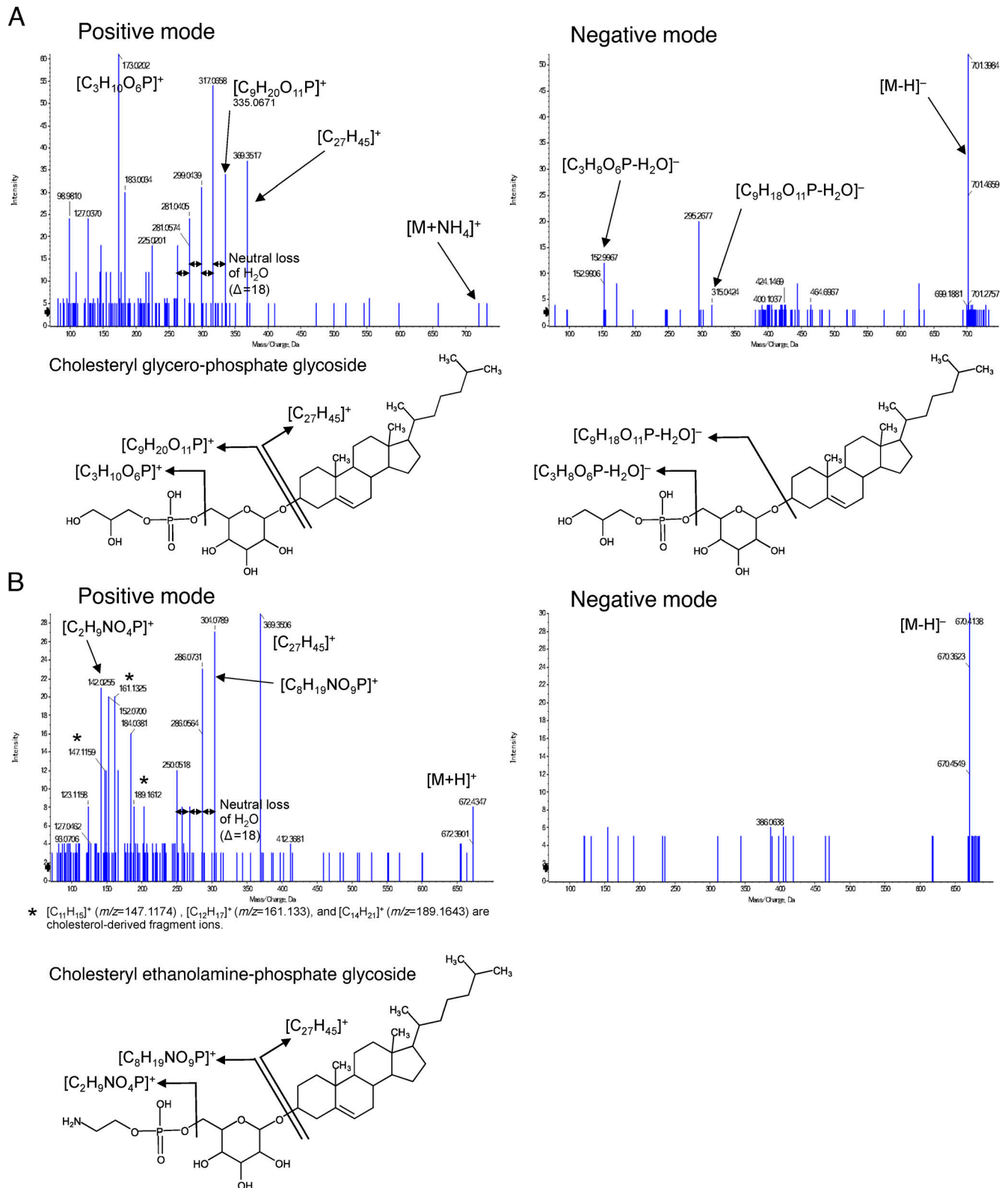


Figure S5. **Identification of uncharacterized cholesteryl lipid species in *H. pylori*.** (A and B) MS spectra of cholesteryl glycerophosphate glycoside (A, upper panels) and cholesteryl ethanolamine-phosphate glycoside (B, upper panels). Schemes of the cleavage site are shown in the lower panels.