Niche-specific profiling reveals transcriptional adaptations required for the cytosolic

lifestyle of *Salmonella enterica*

TuShun R. Powers[a,1], Amanda L. Haeberle[a,1], Disa L. Hammarlöf[b,d], Jennifer A. Cundiff[a],

Alexander V. Predeus[b], Karsten Hokamp[c], Jay C.D. Hinton[b], Leigh A. Knodler[a,2]

[1] these authors contributed equally

[2] **Corresponding author:** Leigh A. Knodler PhD, Paul G. Allen School for Global Animal Health,

College of Veterinary Medicine, Washington State University, 240 SE Ott Rd, Pullman WA 99164-

7090. Email: leigh.knodler@wsu.edu

Short title: Transcriptional profiling of cytosolic *Salmonella*

[a] Paul G. Allen School for Global Animal Health, College of Veterinary Medicine, Washington

State University, Pullman, WA 99164-7090, USA

[b] Institute of Infection, Veterinary and Ecological Sciences, University of Liverpool, Liverpool,

United Kingdom

[c] Smurfit Institute of Genetics, School of Genetics and Microbiology, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin,

Ireland

[d] Present address: SciLifeLab, Science for Life Laboratory, KTH, Sweden

Author contributions: T.R.P. and L.A.K. conceptualization; T.R.P., A.L.H., L.A.K. investigation

and methodology; D.L.H. and J.A.C. methodology; A.V.P., L.A.K. visualization; A.V.P., K.H.

methodology, formal analysis and data curation; L.A.K., formal analysis; T.R.P., L.A.K., J.C.D.H.

funding acquisition; L.A.K. and J.C.D.H. supervision and writing – original draft; T.R.P., A.L.H.,

D.L.H., J.A.C., A.V.P., K.H. writing – review and editing

Abstract

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (*S*. Typhimurium) is a zoonotic pathogen that causes diarrheal disease in humans and animals. During salmonellosis, *S*. Typhimurium colonizes epithelial cells lining the gastrointestinal tract. *S*. Typhimurium has an unusual lifestyle in epithelial cells that begins within an endocytic-derived *Salmonella*-containing vacuole (SCV), followed by escape into the cytosol, epithelial cell lysis and bacterial release. The cytosol is a more permissive environment than the SCV and supports rapid bacterial growth. The physicochemical conditions encountered by *S.* Typhimurium within the cytosol, and the bacterial genes required for cytosolic colonization, remain unknown. Here we have exploited the parallel colonization strategies of *S.* Typhimurium in epithelial cells to decipher the two niche-specific bacterial virulence programs. By combining a population-based RNA-seq approach with single-cell microscopic analysis, we identified bacterial genes/sRNAs with cytosol-specific or vacuole-specific expression signatures. Using these genes/sRNAs as environmental biosensors, we defined that *Salmonella* is exposed to iron and manganese deprivation and oxidative stress in the cytosol and zinc and magnesium deprivation in the SCV. Furthermore, iron availability was critical for optimal *S*. Typhimurium replication in the cytosol, as well as *entC*, *fepB*, *soxS* and *sitA-mntH*. Virulence genes that are typically associated with extracellular bacteria, namely *Salmonella* pathogenicity island 1 (SPI1) and SPI4, had a cytosolic-specific expression profile. Our study reveals that the cytosolic and vacuolar *S*. Typhimurium virulence gene programs are unique to, and tailored for, residence within distinct intracellular compartments. Therefore, this archetypical vacuole-adapted pathogen requires extensive transcriptional reprogramming to successfully colonize the mammalian cytosol.

Author Summary

Intracellular pathogens reside either within a membrane-bound vacuole or are free-living in the cytosol and their virulence programs are tailored towards survival within a particular intracellular compartment. Some bacterial pathogens (such as *Salmonella enterica*) can successfully colonize both intracellular niches, but how they do so is unclear. Here we have exploited the parallel intracellular lifestyles of *S. enterica* in epithelial cells to identify the niche-specific bacterial expression profiles and environmental cues encountered by *S. enterica*. We have also discovered bacterial genes that are required for colonization of the cytosol, but not the vacuole. Our results advance our understanding of pathogen-adaptation to alternative replication niches and highlight an emerging concept in the field of bacteria-host cell interactions.

Introduction

There are two major niches in which intracellular bacteria survive and proliferate after internalization into host cells, confined within a membrane-bound vacuole or free-living within the cytosol. Different pathogenic mechanisms are required to occupy these diverse environments. Historically, bacterial pathogens have been categorized as being either vacuolar or cytosolic, but it has recently been realized that some bacteria can occupy both niches, often in a cell-type specific manner. Examples are *Salmonella enterica*, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* and *Listeria monocytogenes* [1–3]. What is unclear is how bacteria that are adapted to survive within one intracellular niche can successfully colonize a distinct cellular compartment.

Of the foodborne bacterial, protozoal and viral diseases, non-typhoidal *Salmonella enterica* (NTS) cause the largest burden of illness and death worldwide [4]. Infection can cause either a self-limiting gastroenteritis or a life-threatening, invasive disease (invasive non-typhoidal salmonellosis) in immunocompromised individuals, which is particularly a public health problem in sub-Saharan Africa and south-east Asia [5]. Upon ingestion of contaminated food or water, *S. enterica* enters epithelial cells lining the gut and resides within a membrane-bound compartment derived from the endocytic pathway [6,7], the *Salmonella*-containing vacuole (SCV). Entry into non-phagocytic cells is largely governed by a type III secretion system, T3SS1, that is encoded by *Salmonella* pathogenicity island (SPI) 1. The T3SS acts as a molecular syringe to inject bacterial effector proteins across the eukaryotic cell plasma membrane to modulate host signaling networks that induce rearrangement of the actin cytoskeleton, leading to the formation of plasma membrane "ruffles" and engulfment of bacteria (reviewed in [8]). Establishment and maintenance of the SCV is dependent upon effectors being translocated across the vacuolar membrane by T3SS1 and another T3SS, T3SS2, which is specifically induced by environmental cues sensed by bacteria within the SCV lumen [9,10]. T3SS2 is also important for survival within phagocytic cells, which *S. enterica* encounters in the lamina propria during an enteric infection or in the

mesenteric lymph nodes, reticuloendothelial tissues (liver and spleen) and circulating blood during

invasive disease.

S. enterica resides within a membrane-bound vacuole within epithelial cells, fibroblasts,

macrophages and dendritic cells (reviewed in [11]). However, the intracellular lifestyle of *S.*

enterica differs between cell types, with a proportion of the total bacterial population living freely

in the cytosol of epithelial cells, a phenomenon described for *Salmonella enterica* serovar

Typhimurium (*S*. Typhimurium) and *S*. Typhi infections *in vitro* and/or *in vivo* [12–16]. The

eventual outcome of epithelial cells harboring cytosolic bacteria is their expulsion from the

monolayer into the lumen of the gut and gall bladder [12,17]; we have proposed that this is a

mechanism utilized by *Salmonella* for spreading within and between hosts. Notably, the cytosol

of macrophages is not permissive for *S.* Typhimurium replication [18,19], possibly due to nutrient

limitation or enhanced host cell innate immune defenses such as autophagy and/or

inflammasomes [19]. Considering that the site of intracellular replication is cell-type restricted*,* we

propose that *S. enterica* is an "opportunistic" cytosolic pathogen.

A specialized form of autophagy, called xenophagy, protects the mammalian cytosol by

targeting intracellular pathogens to autophagosomes for their eventual degradation in lysosomes

(reviewed in [20])*.* In fact, many of the components of the autophagic machinery have been

identified using *S*. Typhimurium as a model pathogen. In the first report of autophagic recognition,

Brumell and colleagues showed that a sub-population of internalized *S*. Typhimurium damage

their nascent vacuole in epithelial cells in a T3SS1-dependent manner and these bacteria are

decorated with the autophagy marker, microtubule-associated light chain-3 (LC3) [21]. A recently

identified type III effector, SopF, limits the decoration of SCVs with LC3 [22,23]. Damage exposes

host glycans restricted to the vacuole lumen to the cytosol, which are then recognized by β-

galactoside-binding lectins, specifically galectin-3 (GAL3), GAL8 and GAL9 [24]. Galectin binding

acts as an "eat me" signal that initiates a cascade of receptor binding, phagophore formation and

tethering to the bacterium, culminating in autophagosome formation [24,25]. However, autophagic

control of *Salmonella* is temporal and incomplete, at least in epithelial cells [12,21]. Furthermore,

S. Typhimurium can also use autophagy to repair damaged SCVs in mouse embryonic fibroblasts

[26] and promote replication in the cytosol of epithelial cells [27]. Autophagy therefore serves both

a pro- and anti-bacterial role in *S. enterica* infections.

Previous studies have largely investigated the infectious cycle of *S*. Typhimurium in

epithelial cells by population-based analyses, which do not account for the heterogeneous

population of intracellular bacteria. Only by determining the distinct responses of intracellular

Salmonella to the cytosolic and the vacuolar niche can the infection biology of this important

pathogen be accurately defined. Whilst the distinct milieus encountered within a vacuole versus

the cytosol provide site-specific cues for *Salmonella* gene induction, little is known about what

these cues might be, or which bacterial genes drive replication/survival in the cytosol. Using a

combination of RNA-seq-based transcriptomics and single-cell microscopic analysis, here we

define the niche-specific environments encountered by *S*. Typhimurium in epithelial cells and

identify *S*. Typhimurium genes that are required for bacterial proliferation in the cytosol.

Results

Modulation of autophagy affects bacterial proliferation in the epithelial cell cytosol.

We hypothesized that the modulation of autophagy in epithelial cells would selectively perturb the cytosolic, and not vacuolar, proliferation of *S*. Typhimurium. Autophagy levels can be manipulated by pharmacological or genetic means (reviewed in [28]). To test our hypothesis, we used nutrient starvation to upregulate autophagy and the class III phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) inhibitor, wortmannin (WTM), to inhibit autophagy (Fig 1A). To enumerate cytosolic bacteria after autophagy activation/inhibition, we used the digitonin permeabilization assay [12,13] to label the bacteria accessible to cytosol-delivered anti-*S*. Typhimurium lipopolysaccharide (LPS) antibodies at the early stages of infection (15 min – 3 h p.i., Fig 1B). Wild-type bacteria were constitutively expressing *mCherry* from a plasmid, pFPV-mCherry. In untreated cells (basal levels of autophagy), 6.8% of bacteria were accessible to the cytosol as early as 15 min p.i. This proportion increased to ~20% by 45 min p.i. and remained at a steady-state thereafter (Fig 1B). Upon activation of autophagy (EBSS), the fraction of bacteria that were accessible to the cytosol was reduced at 45 min, 90 min and 180 min p.i. (Fig 1B), consistent with enhanced autophagic capture of bacteria in, or repair of, damaged vacuoles. In contrast, inhibition of autophagy (WTM) increased the proportion of cytosolic bacteria at all timepoints examined (Fig 1B), in agreement with previous findings [14,29].

To verify cytosolic localization, we used a transcriptional reporter plasmid, pNF101, that only expresses *gfp-ova* in the sub-population of *S*. Typhimurium that are in damaged vacuoles and/or free in the cytosol. Epithelial cells were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium (*S*. Typhimurium wild-type bacteria constitutively expressing *mCherry* on the chromosome) harboring pNF101. In untreated cells, 35% and 13% of infected cells harbored GFP-positive (cytosolic) bacteria at 2 h and 8 h p.i., respectively (Fig 1C). EBSS treatment lowered this proportion at both timepoints to 23% and 8%, respectively. Conversely, WTM treatment increased the level of infected cells with cytosolic bacteria at both 2 h and 8 h p.i. (79% and 48%).

To quantify the niche-specific effects of EBSS and WTM treatments on bacterial

replication, epithelial cells were infected with *S*. Typhimurium harboring pFPV-mCherry and the

number of bacteria per cell was scored. Cytosolic *S*. Typhimurium that evade autophagic

clearance replicate at a much faster rate than vacuolar bacteria in epithelial cells [12,13,30],

eventually occupying the entire cytosolic space (≥100 bacteria/cell). By contrast, vacuolar bacteria

display low to moderate replication (2-40 bacteria/cell). Comparing the three treatment conditions,

the incidence of infected cells with ≥100 bacteria at 8 h p.i. (8.2±1.6% in control, n=3 experiments)

was reduced by EBSS treatment (1.2±2.0%) and promoted by WTM treatment (16±5.4%) (Fig

1D). Neither bacterial invasion at 1 h p.i. nor vacuolar replication at 8 h p.i. was overtly affected

(Fig 1D). In agreement, total bacterial proliferation was restricted and promoted by EBSS and

WTM treatment, respectively, compared to untreated cells (Fig 1E). Collectively, these data

confirm that modulation of autophagy selectively affects the proliferation of *S*. Typhimurium in the

cytosol of epithelial cells.

Identification of cytosol- and vacuole-specific genes by RNA-seq analysis.

To define the transcriptional signature of cytosolic *S*. Typhimurium, we isolated bacterial RNA

from epithelial cells that had been enriched for either cytosolic or vacuolar S. Typhimurium by

EBSS- or WTM-treatment, respectively, for transcriptomic analysis. Treated cells were infected

with wild-type bacteria (Fig 1A), samples were collected and processed at 8 h p.i. and bacterial

RNA was extracted using an enrichment protocol described previously ([31]; Fig S1). Four cDNA

libraries were derived from two biological replicates and analyzed by RNA-seq (see Materials and

Methods; [32]). The entire dataset is available in Dataset S1 and includes the expression profiles

of the 4,742 coding genes and 280 sRNA identified previously in *S*. Typhimurium SL1344 [32,33].

We defined genes/sRNAs as preferentially induced in the cytosol ("up cytosol", WTM/EBSS

≥1.40-fold change) and vacuole ("up vacuole", WTM/EBSS ≤0.61-fold change), respectively, and

identified 113 statistically-significant "up cytosol" genes/sRNAs and 242 "up vacuole"

genes/sRNAs (Dataset S1).

Of the twelve chromosomally-encoded pathogenicity islands (PAIs) in *S*. Typhimurium, only

four were up-regulated in the cytosolic environment (Fig S2). Most obvious was the abundance

of SPI1 genes that were up-regulated, consistent with the reported induction of *prgH* in the

cytosolic population at later times in epithelial cells [12,34]. SPI4, which encodes a giant non-

fimbrial adhesin and its cognate type I secretion system and is co-regulated with SPI1 [35,36],

was also up-regulated in the cytosol. Lastly, genes encoding for two T3SS1 effectors within SPI5

and SPI11, SopB [37,38] and SopF [22,23,39], respectively, were up-regulated in cytosolic

bacteria. The remaining SPI5 and SPI11 genes were either up-regulated in the vacuolar

population, or had unchanged expression, highlighting the mosaic nature of PAIs. Most SPI2

genes were up-regulated in the vacuolar population, as were genes encoding two type III effectors

translocated by T3SS2 (*pipB* in SPI5 and *sspH2* in SPI12). SPI3 genes were up-regulated in the

SCV of epithelial cells, like in macrophages [40,41]. Similarly, most genes within SPI11, a PAI

that is important for macrophage survival [42], and SPI12 were up-regulated in the epithelial SCV.

The majority of SPI6 genes (which encode a type VI secretion system; [43]), all SPI9 genes

(encode a type I secretion system; [44]) and SPI16 genes were not expressed in bacteria residing

within either niche in epithelial cells. Overall, the transcriptional signatures of cytosolic and

vacuolar bacteria at the PAI level (Fig S2) validates the basis of our RNA-seq analysis.

To put the observed gene expression changes into the context of the extensive *S. enterica*

literature, we used an innovative approach that involved the curation of 80 custom pathways from

previously published regulons that had been defined by RNA-seq, ChIP-seq or microarray-based

analysis. We combined these pathways with KEGG and GO gene sets to annotate the subsets of

"up cytosol" and "up vacuole" *S*. Typhimurium genes/sRNAs (Fig 2; Dataset S2). The list of "up

vacuole" genes/sRNAs included an abundance (e.g. SPI2, *pipB*, *pgtE*, PinT, InvS, *steB*) that are

positively regulated by the two-component systems that govern SPI2 induction in the SCV,

namely PhoPQ, SsrAB and OmpRZ. Conversely, genes/sRNAs that are negatively regulated by

these two component systems were in the "up cytosol" category. The SPI1-encoded transcription

factors, HilA, HilD, and InvF, are required for the expression of SPI1 genes [45], and accordingly

many of the "up cytosol" genes/sRNAs (e.g. *sipBCDA*, *siiCD*, *sopF*, *sopB*) grouped with these

regulons. Our analysis also revealed many specific gene signatures (Fig 2). For example, genes

associated with iron transport were solely up-regulated in the cytosol. Up-regulation of the

tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, lysine degradation and molybdate transport was evident in vacuolar

bacteria, suggesting increased reliance of *Salmonella* on these energy sources in the SCV.

Interestingly, genes/sRNAs that are repressed by Ferric uptake regulator (Fur) in iron-replete

conditions and activated by Hfq, BarA/SirA and FliZ were up-regulated in both the vacuole and

cytosol.

We used the expression profiles of *S*. Typhimurium grown in 22 distinct infection-relevant

in vitro growth conditions [32] to predict the environmental conditions experienced by *S*.

Typhimurium when in the cytosol and vacuole. For the 113 genes/sRNAs up-regulated in the

cytosol, three main patterns emerged: (i) up-regulation by bile shock (3% bile for 10 min) and/or

low Fe^{2+} shock (200 µM 2,2-dipyridyl (DPI) for 10 min) (e.g. *mntH*, *sitABCD*, *entCEBA*), (ii) up-

regulation by NaCl shock (0.3 M NaCl for 10 min) (e.g. *proVW*, *ilvX*), (iii) up-regulation during late

exponential/early stationary phase of growth (e.g. *sopE2*, *sipBCDA*, *siiABCDEF*) (Dataset S1).

This suggests that cytosolic bacteria are growing fast and exposed to a low iron, high osmolarity

physicochemical environment. The rapid growth of cytosolic *S*. Typhimurium has been previously

observed [12,13,30], validating the latter prediction. A common theme observed for the 242

genes/sRNAs up-regulated in the vacuole was induction by: (i) *in vitro* SPI2 growth conditions

and/or (ii) internalization into macrophages (Dataset S1).

Cytosolic iron-limitation is a cue for *S*. Typhimurium gene/sRNA induction

To validate the cytosolic expression of genes/sRNAs predicted by RNA-seq analysis using

gfpmut3 transcriptional fusions because green fluorescent protein (GFP) is an ideal reporter to

study differential gene expression in individual bacteria in infected host cells and tissues

[12,17,46,47]. Previously *gfpmut3* transcriptional fusions have demonstrated the vacuole-specific

induction of SPI2 genes [48], for example. We initially focused on those genes/sRNAs that are

induced when *Salmonella* are exposed to low Fe^{2+} and/or bile shock in broth [32] (Dataset S1).

Epithelial cells were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium carrying individual *gfpmut3* reporters

and bacterial GFP fluorescence intensity was assessed qualitatively and quantitatively at 8 h p.i.

The following genes/sRNAs were confirmed to be up-regulated in the cytosol: *entC* (*entCEBA*

operon), *fepA* (*fepA-entD* operon), *fepB*, *fhuA* (*fhuACBD* operon), *fhuE*, *iroB* (*iroBCDE* operon),

iroN, *mntH*, *nrdH* (*nrdHIEF* operon), *sitA* (*sitABCD* operon), SL1802, SL3990 (SL3990-SL3989

operon), *sufA* (*sufABCDSE* operon), *yjjZ* (SL1344_4483), STnc3080 and STnc3250 (Fig 3, upper

panels; Fig S3). Up-regulation of STnc4000, *ilvC* and SL1344_2715 was not observed by

fluorescence microscopy (Fig S6). Quantification using ImageJ software of the mean

fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the GFP signal associated with individual bacteria confirmed the

qualitative analysis for *iroB* (11.2-fold increase in MFI for cytosolic bacteria), *nrdH* (10.6-fold), *sitA*

(13.3-fold), *sufA* (Fig 6.2-fold), *yjjZ* (23.2-fold) and STnc3080 (11.1-fold) (Fig 3, lower panel).

All of the confirmed genes/sRNAs are up-regulated by "low Fe2+ shock" in broth (addition

of 200 µM DPI for 10 min (35)). DPI chelation is not specific to iron, however [49,50], raising the

possibility that other metals also regulate the expression of these genes/sRNAs. We used *iroN*,

sitA, *yjjZ*, *sufA*, *fepA* and STnc3250 promoters to determine metal cation specificity *in vitro*. The

effect of increasing concentrations (0.1-100 µM) of Co^{2+}, Fe^{3+}, Mn^{2+}, Ni^{2+} or Zn^{2+} on GFP

fluorescence for bacteria grown in defined minimal media (M9) was measured (Fig S4). For all

reporters, maximal expression was observed in the absence of metal addition. Upon addition of

Fe^{3+} and Co^{2+}, GFP expression of *S*. Typhimurium carrying P*iroN-gfpmut3*, P*yjjZ-gfpmut3* and

P*fepA-gfpmut3* reporters decreased in a dose-dependent manner. Notably, the promoter

responses were 10- to 100-fold more sensitive to Fe^{3+} than Co^{2+}. P$sitA$-$gfpmut3$ expression was

modulated by Fe^{3+}, Mn^{2+} and Co^{2+}, although Fe^{3+} and Mn^{2+} were clearly the most potent

repressors by an order of magnitude, in agreement with a previous study using a $sitA$::$lacZ$

reporter [51]. Lastly, expression of P$STnc3250$-$gfpmut3$ and P$sufA$-$gfpmut3$ were only reduced

by increased concentrations of Fe^{3+}. P$iroN$-$gfpmut3$ was the most sensitive iron reporter, with a

>50% reduction in fluorescence at 0.1 µM Fe^{3+}. Collectively, the in $vitro$ repression of these

genes/sRNAs by 0.1-1 µM Fe^{3+} hinted that the cue for cytosol-specific induction was iron limitation

(<0.1 µM).

To test the response of reporters to iron concentrations during infection, we used ferric

ammonium citrate (FAC) to increase free iron levels in mammalian cells [52,53]. Epithelial cells

were incubated overnight in growth media containing increasing concentrations (10-300 µM) of

FAC. Untreated and FAC-treated cells were infected with mCherry-S. Typhimurium carrying

transcriptional reporters, fixed at 8 h p.i. and the MFI of GFP signal for cytosolic and vacuolar

bacteria quantified by fluorescence microscopy and ImageJ (Fig 4). The MFI of cytosolic bacteria

harboring P$iroN$-$gfpmut3$, P$sitA$-$gfpmut3$ or P$yjjZ$-$gfpmut3$ reporters was reduced in a dose-

dependent manner over the FAC concentration range. Specifically, fluorescence was reduced by

56.7-, 35.9- and 14.5-fold, respectively, upon the addition of 300 µM FAC to growth media (Fig

4A), indicating repression of $iroN$, $sitA$ and $yjjZ$ expression in the cytosol under iron-replete

conditions. The low MFI for vacuolar bacteria in untreated cells limited our analysis of the iron-

dependent repression of $iroN$, $sitA$ and $yjjZ$ in the SCV.

We used the lipophilic, cell-permeable chelator, DPI, as an independent way to assess the

effects of metals on S. Typhimurium gene expression in the mammalian cytosol. Because DPI

has a high affinity for various metal cations, we assessed the specificity for iron by means of an

"add-back" experimental design [49,54,55] whereby an equimolar amount of Fe^{3+} was added to

the DPI-treated media. Epithelial cells were treated overnight with 200 µM DPI, 200 µM DPI plus

200 µM FAC, or 200 µM FAC alone and infected with mCherry-S. Typhimurium harboring P$iroN$-

gfpmut3, P*sitA-gfpmut3* or P*yjjZ-gfpmut3* reporters. Cells were fixed at 8 h p.i. and the intensity

of GFP signal for cytosolic and vacuolar bacteria quantified via fluorescence microscopy. Addition

of DPI increased the expression of *iroN*, *sitA* and *yjjZ* for both cytosolic and vacuolar bacteria (Fig

4B), indicating that DPI accesses both cellular compartments. However, the effects of divalent

cation chelation were more pronounced for the vacuolar population (13- to 43-fold increase in

MFI) than the cytosolic population (1.7- to 2.2-fold increase in MFI). Add-back of iron restored the

MFI to that of untreated cells for cytosolic bacteria harboring P*iroN-gfpmut3* and P*sitA-gfpmut3*

reporters (Fig 4B), demonstrating that iron limitation is the primary stimulus for the up-regulation

of these genes in the cytosol. Add-back of iron had negligible effects on the MFI of bacteria

harboring the P*yjjZ-gfpmut3* reporter, regardless of their intracellular niche (Fig 4B), possibly due

to a lower sensitivity of *yjjZ* to changes in free iron levels (Fig 4A) or a responsiveness to

deprivation of metals other than iron in the intracellular environment (Fig S4). Add-back of iron

only partially restored the expression of *sitA* and *iroN* in vacuolar bacteria (Fig 4B) suggesting

that *sitA* and *iroN* respond to multiple divalent cations in the SCV or FAC treatment does not

significantly increase free iron levels in endocytic-derived compartments. Taken together, our

data show that iron limitation in the mammalian cytosol is a major cue sensed by *S*. Typhimurium.

Using the same treatment conditions, we determined the role of iron limitation on bacterial

replication in epithelial cells. As assessed by gentamicin protection assay (Fig 4C), total bacterial

replication was limited by treatment with DPI (4.0-fold replication over 8 h) and DPI plus FAC (5.6-

fold), but not FAC alone (8.8-fold), compared to untreated cells (10.0-fold). The chloroquine

(CHQ) resistance assay, which quantifies the proportion of cytosolic bacteria in the total

population, showed a similar profile (Fig 4D). Compared to untreated cells at Fig 6 h p.i (50±3.4%

cytosolic bacteria), treatment with DPI reduced the levels of cytosolic bacteria to 28±6.Fig 6%.

The proportion of cytosolic bacteria was increased to 42±11% upon add-back of iron (DPI+FAC),

whereas it was indistinguishable from untreated cells for FAC alone (52±5.5% cytosolic).

It has been shown that epithelial cells contain either cytosolic bacteria, vacuolar bacteria

or a mix of both populations at later times p.i. [30]. We used single-cell analysis to monitor the

effect of metals on the distribution of these intracellular populations. Using mCherry-*S*.

Typhimurium harboring pFN101 as a fluorescent reporter for cytosolic access, we analyzed the

intracellular populations at 8 h p.i., in addition to the number of cytosolic (GFP+, mCherry+) and

vacuolar (GFP-, mCherry+) bacteria within each infected cell. There was no significant difference

in the frequency of epithelial cells that only contained cytosolic bacteria (0-1.2% of infected cells),

only vacuolar bacteria (84.0-86.4% of infected cells) or a mixed population (12.4-16.0% of infected

cells) between any of the treatments (Fig 4E, left panel), indicating that metal chelation does not

alter the intracellular distribution of bacteria. However, the ability of *Salmonella* to replicate in the

cytosol was noticeably affected (Fig 4E, right panel), in agreement with the CHQ resistance assay

results. In untreated (control) cells, 6.4±0.89% of infected cells contained ≥100 cytosolic

bacteria/cell. DPI treatment reduced proliferation of *S*. Typhimurium in the cytosol such that only

0.40±0.89% of infected cells contained ≥100 cytosolic bacteria/cell (p<0.05, n≥4 experiments).

Add-back of iron (DPI+FAC) partially restored the hyper-proliferative capacity of *S*. Typhimurium

in the cytosol (3.3±1.9%; p<0.05 compared to untreated, n≥4 experiments) whereas FAC

treatment alone (7.8±1.7%) was no different than control. DPI also limited bacterial replication in

the SCV (Fig 4E, right panel) as evidenced by a reduction in the mean number of vacuolar

bacteria/cell at 8 h p.i. (14.0 for untreated and 10.4 for DPI-treated, p<0.05, n≥5 experiments).

Add-back of iron restored vacuolar replication (12.5 bacteria/cell) whereas FAC alone (11.5

bacteria/cell) was not significantly different to untreated cells. In summary, iron restriction affects

S. Typhimurium proliferation in both the cytosol and vacuole in epithelial cells but has a more

profound effect in the cytosol.

Zinc and magnesium are limiting in the vacuole but not the cytosol.

We investigated whether metals other than iron affected intracellular S. Typhimurium gene

expression in epithelial cells. S. Typhimurium encodes multiple transporters for divalent cations

[56]. The up-regulation of *sitA* and *mntH* in cytosolic S. Typhimurium (Fig 3; Fig S3), which are

induced by iron and manganese limitation (Fig S4) [51,54] and encode high affinity Mn^{2+}

transporters [57,58], suggests that Mn^{2+} availability is low in the cytosol. Zn^{2+} transport in S.

Typhimurium is dependent on a high affinity transport system, ZnuABC [59], and its accessory

protein, ZinT [60,61], and a low affinity ZIP family metal permease, ZupT [62,63]. *zupT* is

constitutively expressed [62], in agreement with our RNA-seq analysis (Dataset S1). By contrast,

znuA and *zinT* are induced when zinc is limiting [64] and both genes are in the "up vacuole"

shortlist (Dataset S1). We found that a P*zinT-gfpmut3* reporter was exquisitely sensitive to zinc

concentrations, with a 54% and 99% reduction in GFP fluorescence observed upon the addition

of 0.1 µM and 1 µM Zn^{2+} to minimal media, respectively (Fig S4). When epithelial cells were

infected with mCherry-S. Typhimurium harboring P*zinT-gfpmut3*, GFP fluorescence was evident

in vacuolar, but not cytosolic, bacteria at 8 h p.i. (Fig 5), indicating that low-zinc conditions prevail

in the SCV (<0.1 µM). Quantification of the MFI of the GFP signal associated with individual

bacteria confirmed the qualitative findings (5.8-fold increase in vacuole; Fig 5, lower panel).

S. Typhimurium also multiple Mg^{2+} transporters. CorA is a constitutively expressed Mg^{2+}

transporter, and MgtA and MtgB are inducible Mg^{2+} transporters [65]. Consistent with its

constitutive expression, expression of *corA* was similar in both vacuolar and cytosolic bacteria

(Dataset S1). Low Mg^{2+} induces *mgtA* and *mgtB* transcription [65,66]. Expression of *mgtA* was

not induced in the vacuole, however (Dataset S1). Acidic pH abolishes the *mgtA* (but not *mgtB*)

transcriptional response to Mg^{2+} concentration [66], which could explain why *mgtA* is not induced

in the SCV of epithelial cells. In contrast, all three genes within the *mgtCBR* operon were up-

regulated in vacuolar bacteria according to the RNA-seq data (Dataset S1). Using mCherry-S.

Typhimurium harboring P*mgtC-gfpmut3*, we confirmed *mgtCBR* is responsive to Mg^{2+} levels (Fig

S4) and the operon is specifically up-regulated in the SCV (Fig 5). The MFI of GFP signal was

increased by 6.2-fold for vacuolar bacteria (Fig 5, lower panel). Altogether, our studies of Zn^{2+}

and Mg^{2+} transporters reveal that levels of these cations are more limiting in the SCV than the

cytosol.

Confirmation of growth-phase related, cytosol-specific genes.

Our transcriptomic analysis highlighted another set of cytosol-induced genes that were highly

expressed during late exponential/early stationary phase of *in vitro* growth in broth, and in some

cases responsive to oxygen shock (Fig 2; Dataset S1). Many of the genes encode for T3SS1

structural proteins (*orgA*, *spaQ*, *sipB*, *sipC*, *sipD*) and effectors known to be translocated by

T3SS1 (*sipA*, *sopB*, *sopD*, *sopE*, *sopE2*, *sopF* [SL1344_1177]). Using GFP transcriptional

reporters, we confirmed the cytosol-specific induction of *sicA* (*sicA-sipBCDA* operon), *sopE2* and

sopF (Fig 6). We have previously shown that *prgH* (*prgHIJK-orgABC* operon), encoding a

structural T3SS1 component, is up-regulated in cytosolic bacteria [12], in agreement with our

RNA-seq results (Dataset S1). PipB, a T3SS2 effector encoded on SPI5 [67], was used as a

control for the vacuole-specific induction of a type III effector. GFP fluorescence was only detected

for vacuolar bacteria harboring a P*pipB-gfpmut3* reporter (Fig 6). We confirmed that *siiA*

(*siiABCDEF* operon) and *lpxR* also showed cytosol-specific expression (Fig 6). The *siiABCDEF*

operon in SPI4 (Fig S2) encodes for a type I secretion system for the secretion of SiiE, a giant

non-fimbrial adhesin [68,69]. Immunostaining with anti-SiiE antibodies detected the adhesin on

the surface of cytosolic bacteria (Fig S5, upper panel), and diffusely spread throughout the cytosol

(Fig S5, lower panel). Vacuolar bacteria were negative for SiiE staining (Fig S5). We have

previously shown by electron microscopy that cytosolic bacteria have extensive filamentous

material on their surface [12]. Taken together, our findings suggest the filaments could be SiiE.

Like *siiABCDE*, *lpxR* (SL1344_1263) is also co-regulated with SPI1 [70] and encodes a

hypothetical outer membrane protein. Transcriptional reporters did not verify cytosolic up-

regulation of *ygbA* (SL1344_2840), which encodes a conserved hypothetical protein required for

S. Typhimurium growth during nitrosative stress [71], or *asnA*, which is involved in asparagine

biosynthesis [72] (Fig S6).

We conclude that there is a generalized up-regulation of "SPI1 associated" genes in the

mammalian cytosol. However, we do not observe uniform up-regulation of these genes within the

cytosolic population (Fig 6), in agreement with previous reports for *prgH* [12,14,34], which is

different than that observed for the iron-responsive cytosol-specific genes/sRNAs (Fig 3). Such

heterogeneity was verified by ImageJ quantification of the MFI of GFP signal associated with

individual bacteria carrying P*sicA-gfpmut3*, P*sopE2-gfpmut3*, P*sopF-gfpmut3*, P*siiA-gfpmut3* or

P*lpxR-gfpmut3* reporters. All genes were more highly expressed in cytosolic bacteria (Fig Fig 6,

lower panel) – *sicA* (2.6-fold), *sopE2* (6.0-fold), *sopF* (3.7-fold), *siiA* (8.7-fold) and *lpxR* (2.3-fold)

– yet with broader variability in MFI/bacterium than the iron-regulated genes (Fig 3), and with

many cytosolic bacteria having background levels of GFP fluorescence.

Extraneous genes that belong to the cytosol-specific program.

Several osmotically-sensitive genes that are up-regulated when *S.* Typhimurium is exposed to

NaCl shock [32] were identified as candidate cytosol-specific genes, namely *cysP* (*cysPUWA*

operon), *soxS* and *proV* (*proVWX* operon) (Dataset S1). We qualitatively and quantitatively

confirmed the cytosol-specific expression of *cysP* and *soxS* using transcriptional reporters (Fig

S7). However, the *proV-gfpmut3* transcriptional fusion was not up-regulated in the cytosol (Fig

S6). The *cysPUWA* operon encodes a sulfate/thiosulfate permease and periplasmic binding

protein [73]. SoxS is a member of the AraC/XylS family of transcriptional regulators that is required

for bacterial resistance to oxidative stress [74,75].

Four additional *S.* Typhimurium genes were identified as being up-regulated in the cytosol

according to the transcriptomics data, namely *uhpT*, *sfbA* (*sfbABC* operon), *mtr* and *trpE*

(*trpEDCBA* operon) (Dataset S1). All four genes are constitutively expressed in infection-relevant

broth conditions [32], and *sfbA*, *mtr* and *trpE* are also up-regulated upon infection of macrophages

([41]; Dataset S1). Infection of epithelial cells with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring P*uhpT-*

gfpmut3 or P*sfbA-gfpmut3* confirmed the RNA-seq-based prediction of their cytosol-specific

induction (Fig S7). However, *mtr* and *trpE* were not induced in the cytosol (Fig S6). UhpT is a

hexose phosphate transporter whose induction has been reported previously for cytosolic *S*.

Typhimurium [34]. The *sfbABC* operon is predicted to encode a periplasmic iron-binding

lipoprotein SfbA, a nucleotide-binding ATPase SfbB and a cytoplasmic permease SfbC [76].

Identification of *S*. Typhimurium genes required for optimal cytosolic proliferation.

Having identified *S*. Typhimurium genes/sRNAs that are specifically up-regulated within the

epithelial cytosol, we next tested whether any of these genes/sRNAs are required for colonization

of this niche. We did not focus on the SPI1-associated effectors as their individual contributions

to the cytosolic stage of the intracellular cycle have been reported previously [22,30,77,78].

Eighteen gene deletion mutants were constructed and their ability to access and replicate within

the cytosol was first assessed in a population-based assay by CHQ resistance. We identified five

genes required for cytosolic replication in epithelial cells, namely *entC*, *fepB*, *sitA, mntH* and *soxS*.

Deletion of these genes led to a reduced proportion of cytosolic bacteria at 7 h p.i. (42.5% for

Δ*entC*, 41.9% for Δ*fepB*, 40.1% for Δ*mntH*Δ*sitA* and 42.6% for Δ*soxS*; Fig 7A). The remaining

mutants had similar proportions of cytosolic bacteria as wild-type S. Typhimurium (50.2%, Fig

7A).

We extended this population-based assay with single-cell analysis using *S*. Typhimurium

harboring the dual fluorescence reporter plasmid, pCHAR-Duo(ASV), in which constitutive

expression of *mCherry* is driven by the synthetic promoter ProB and destabilized GFP

(*gfpmut3.1(ASV)*) is under the control of the *S*. Typhimurium *uhpT* promoter. All bacteria

harboring this plasmid are mCherry-positive and only those bacteria in the cytosol will be GFP-

positive. Epithelial cells were infected with wild-type, Δ*entC*, Δ*fepB*, Δ*sitA*Δ*mntH* or Δ*soxS* bacteria

harboring pCHAR-Duo(ASV) and the number of infected cells containing only cytosolic bacteria,

only vacuolar bacteria or a mixed population (cytosolic and vacuolar) at 8 h p.i. was scored by

fluorescence microscopy. For all the deletion mutants, we detected fewer infected epithelial cells

in the mixed population category than for wild-type bacteria (Fig 7B). Furthermore, fewer infected

cells contained ≥100 cytosolic bacteria at 8 h p.i. (wild-type bacteria = 6.25%, Δ*entC* = 3.75%,

Δ*fepB* = 5.0%, Δ*sitA*Δ*mntH* = 4.0% and Δ*soxS* = 4.0%; n=4 experiments). Altogether, these results

identify *entC*, *fepB*, *sitA-mntH* and *soxS* as being specifically required for the optimal proliferation

of *S*. Typhimurium in the cytosol of epithelial cells.

Discussion

Compared to an endocytic-derived vacuole, the host cell cytosol could naïvely be viewed as a nutrient-rich milieu that allows for the efficient growth of bacteria. However, not all pathogens can survive within this niche, and *S*. Typhimurium can only replicate in the cytosol of epithelial cells and certain embryonic fibroblast lines [12,14,19]. Our findings that vastly different virulence gene programs are activated when *S*. Typhimurium colonizes the SCV and cytosol confirm previous suggestions that the mammalian cytosol is a complex environment that requires pathogen-specific adaptations for efficient bacterial survival and replication [79].

Here we report the "cytosol transcriptional signature" of bacteria by integrating our data with the available gene expression profiles of Gram-negative pathogens that colonize the cytosol (Table 1). We focus on the prototypical cytosolic pathogen, *S. flexneri* [80,81], and uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* (UPEC) [82,83], which forms intracellular bacterial communities (IBCs) in the cytosol of bladder epithelial cells. The most striking feature that emerges is the enrichment of genes that mediate the acquisition of iron (Table 1). *Salmonella* acquires ferric (Fe^{3+}) iron by secreting two siderophores, enterobactin and salmochelin, a C-glucosylated form of enterobactin [56,84,85]. Iron-loaded siderophores then transit back into bacteria by first binding the outer membrane receptors, FepA and IroN [86,87], then FepB in the periplasm, and finally across the cytoplasmic membrane via the ABC-type transporter, FepDGC [88]. FhuE, FhuA and FoxA also function as outer membrane receptors to exploit the utilization of ferric siderophores produced by other bacteria [89]. All of the siderophore synthesis and transport loci are up-regulated in cytosolic *S*. Typhimurium (Table 1, Fig 2). *S. flexneri* uses a similar strategy involving the synthesis of another siderophore, aerobactin [90], and the genes required for aerobactin synthesis and binding (*iucABCD* operon) are highly up-regulated in the cytosol (Table 1). The limited data available for UPEC IBCs are consistent with an important role of ferric iron acquisition for this bacterium (Table 1). Genes encoding the ferrous (Fe^{2+}) iron transport systems of *S. flexneri* (*feoB*, *sitABCD* and *mntH*) and *S*. Typhimurium (*sitABCD* and *mntH*) are also up-regulated, but not *feoB* (Table 1).

The Sit and MntH systems in *S*. Typhimurium transport both ferrous iron and manganese, but

likely function as manganese transporters under physiological conditions [57,58]. We found that

a *S*. Typhimurium Δ*sitA*Δ*mntH* mutant is compromised for growth in the epithelial cytosol (Fig 7),

indicating a specific requirement for Mn^{2+} acquisition in this compartment, but the same transport

systems do not contribute to the growth of *S. flexneri* in epithelial cells [91]. The panopoly of iron

acquisition systems used by enteric bacteria means that genetic deletions in multiple pathways

are required to affect intracellular proliferation. For example, single gene deletions of *sitA*, *iucB* or

feoB in *S. flexneri* have no effect on intracellular growth but a mutant in all three genes is unable

to grow [92]. Similarly, *S*. Typhimurium Δ*entC* (defective in the synthesis of enterobactin and

salmochelin; [93]) and Δ*fepB* (defective for the import of enterobactin, salmochelin and

catecholate breakdown products containing iron; [84]) mutants fail to proliferate in the epithelial

cytosol (Fig 7).

Table 1: Cytosol signature genes

Gene	Function	Up-regulated in epithelial cytosol?		
		S. Typhimurium	*S. flexneri*[a,b,c]	UPEC[d,e]
bioA	Biotin synthesis	No	Yes	
cysP	Thiosulfate binding protein	Yes	No (downregulated)	
entC	Siderophore biosynthesis	Yes	Pseudogene	
entF	Enterobactin synthesis	Yes	Yes	Yes
feoB	Ferrous iron transporter	No	Yes	
fepA	Ferri-enterobactin receptor	Yes	Yes	Yes
fepB	Enterobactin binding protein	Yes	Pseudogene	
fhuA	Ferrichrome receptor	Yes	Yes	
fhuE	Ferric-coprogen transporter	Yes	Pseudogene	
foxA	Ferrioxamine B transporter	Yes	Gene is absent	
iroBCDE	Salmochelin synthesis, export and utilization	Yes	Gene is absent	
iroN	Siderophore receptor	Yes	Gene is absent	Yes
iucABCD	Aerobactin synthesis	Gene is absent	Yes	
iutA	Aerobactin receptor	Gene is absent	Yes	
lysA	Lysine biosynthesis	No	Yes	
mgtA	Mg^{2+} transport ATPase	No	Yes	
mntH	Mn^{2+}/Fe^{2+} transport	Yes	Yes	
nrdHIEF	Ribonucleotide reductases	Yes	Yes	
phoRB	Regulation of pho regulon	No	Yes	

proVWX	Glycine, betaine, proline transport	No	Yes	
pstSC	Phosphate acquisition	No	Yes	
sfbABC	ABC-type transporter	Yes		
sitABCD	Mn^{2+}/Fe^{2+} transport	Yes	Yes	Yes
soxS	Regulation of superoxide response regulon	Yes	Yes	
sufA	Fe-S cluster maturation protein	Yes	Yes	Yes
uhpT	Sugar phosphate transporter	Yes	Yes	
yjjZ	Unknown function	Yes	Yes	

[a][80]; [b][81]; [c][91]; [d][82]; [e][83]

We identified twelve other signature genes of cytosolic colonization: *nrdHIEF*,

sufABCDSE, *yjjZ* and *uhpT* (Table 1). NrdEF is a Mn^{2+}-dependent ribonucleotide reductase that

functions under aerobic conditions, but only during iron restriction [94,95]. The *suf* operon

encodes for an iron-sulfur cluster system and is induced by oxidative stress and iron starvation

[96], like the *nrdHIEF* operon [97,98]. Fur is the master regulator of iron homeostasis in bacteria

[99]. While the function of YjjZ remains unknown, *yjjZ* (SL1344_4483) is part of the Fur regulon in

S. Typhimurium [100] and UPEC [101]. In summary, transcription of *nrdHIEF*, *sufABCDSE* and

yjjZ is controlled by iron deprivation and Fur. The sole metabolic gene identified as part of the

cytosol transcriptional signature is *uhpT*, a gene that is not induced by iron deprivation or oxidative

stress but rather by glucose-6-phosphate levels in the cytosol [80].

The combination of available transcriptome data revealed bacterial species-specific

cytosol-induced genes. Specifically, *bioA*, *lysA*, *pstSC*, *phoRB*, *proVWX* and *mgtA* were only

induced in *Shigella* and not in *S*. Typhimurium (Table 1; Dataset S1; [81,92]). The differential

expression profile suggests variance in the metabolic and phosphate acquisition strategies used

by these two pathogens in the epithelial cytosol. The contribution of Mg^{2+} transport also seems to

differ between the two bacteria, as *mgtA*-encoded Mg^{2+} acquisition is only induced by the cytosolic

environment for *S. flexneri*, and not for *S*. Typhimurium. Unlike *S. flexneri*, *S*. Typhimurium has a

second Mg^{2+} transport system encoded by *mgtB*, which is only up-regulated in the vacuole

(Dataset S1; Fig 5). *S. flexneri* does not encode for *mgtB*. Furthermore, the third $Mg^{2+}/Ni^{2+}/Co^{2+}$

transporter (CorA) is constitutively expressed in *S*. Typhimurium [102,103] and is required for

optimal proliferation in the cytosol [104]. The importance of Mn^{2+} acquisition also seems to differ

(see above).

We identified *S*. Typhimurium-specific genes/sRNAs that serve as signatures of the

cytosolic lifestyle. Examples include STnc3080, STnc3250, SL1802 and *siiABCDEF*, as well as

eight type III effectors that are translocated by T3SS1 (Fig 3, Fig 6, Figure S3, Dataset S1).

STnc3080, STnc3250 and SL1802 are all negatively regulated by Fur [32,100,105] and have not

previously been reported to play a role in *Salmonella* pathogenesis. Intracellular expression of

the *siiABCDEF* operon has not been reported before, prompting us to establish that the SiiE

protein, which mediates adhesion to the MUC1 on the apical surface of intestinal epithelial cells

[106], is both on the surface of cytosolic bacteria and secreted into the cytosol of epithelial cells

(Fig S5). The combination of findings from this study, and others [12,34], shows that cytosolic *S*.

Typhimurium are induced for T3SS1, secrete T3SS1-associated effectors, are flagellated and

decorated with SiiE. We conclude that cytosolic *S*. Typhimurium are "primed" to enter naïve

enterocytes following cellular release.

The major environmental factor that controls the transcriptional program of cytosol-

residing bacteria is clearly iron-limitation. Within mammalian cells, the "labile iron pool" refers to

the pool of chelatable and redox-active iron [107,108]. In resting cells, the labile iron pool is

estimated to be ~1 µM, representing only a minor fraction of the total cellular iron (50-100 µM)

[107,108]. At a subcellular level, measurements have shown that the concentration of labile iron

is lower in the cytosol than the nucleus, mitochondria or endosomes/lysosomes [109,110], in

agreement with our findings. We believe that consumption of free iron from the cytosol by rapidly

growing *S*. Typhimurium further depletes the pool compared to uninfected/resting cells.

The uniform induction of iron-responsive *S*. Typhimurium genes/sRNAs in the cytosol (Fig

3, Figure S3) indicates a generalized bacterial response to iron deprivation. Fur is the major iron-

responsive transcriptional regulator that controls iron homeostasis and oxidative stress defenses

in bacteria [99]. When bound to iron (i.e. in iron-replete conditions), Fur acts as both a repressor

and activator of gene expression, either directly or indirectly, and modulates expression of ~10%

of the *S*. Typhimurium genome [100,111]. Except for SL3990, all the low Fe^{2+}/bile shock-regulated

"up cytosol" genes/sRNAs (Dataset S1) that were validated using transcriptional reporters (Fig 3,

Fig S3) are negatively regulated by Fur [89,100,112](Fig 2). Many have a Fur box in their promoter

regions, the regulatory site to which iron-bound Fur binds, suggesting direct regulation. However,

an unanswered question is why all Fur-repressed *S*. Typhimurium genes/sRNAs are not induced

in the cytosolic population ([100]; Dataset S1). It is also unclear why SPI1-associated genes are

induced in a subset of cytosol-exposed bacteria in an iron-limited environment, when expression

of the SPI1 regulon is typically activated by iron-bound Fur under iron-replete conditions via HilD

and H-NS [113,114]. The regulation of SPI1 and its associated genes is complex [45], with

numerous environmental signals feeding into the regulatory network including osmolarity, oxygen

and bacterial growth phase, as well as iron. Bacterial cell-to-cell variation in the integration of all

the relevant signals could explain the phenotypic heterogeneity observed for SPI1-associated

gene expression in cytosolic bacteria. Such heterogeneity in T3SS1 gene expression has been

reported previously in broth cultures [115,116].

We have identified the site-specific cues encountered by *S*. Typhimurium in the distinct

milieus of a vacuole versus the cytosol. *S*. Typhimurium residing within the epithelial cytosol have

limited access to iron and manganese, are experiencing oxidative stress and utilize hexose-6-

phosphate sugars as a carbon source. Other studies of *S. flexneri* and *L. monocytogenes*

colonization suggested that the mammalian cytosol is a nutrient-rich environment of neutral pH

with low concentrations of Na^{2+}, Mg^{2+}, Ca^{2+} and PO_4^{3-} ions, but a high concentration of K^+

[79,81,117,118]. In contrast, the mature SCV is acidic [7,119,120], has high levels of K^+, Fe^{2+} and

oxygen, but is limiting in Mg^{2+}, PO_4^{3-} and Fe^{3+}, and *S*. Typhimurium are experiencing oxidative

stress but not amino acid starvation [40,41,81].

Based on single-cell analysis, we can refine previous conclusions drawn from population-

based studies of *S*. Typhimurium and epithelial cells. For example, in the landmark study of

Hautefort *et al*. (2008) [31], the simultaneous induction of SPI1 and flagella within epithelial cells

was reported, which at the time was puzzling. Single-cell microscopic analysis has solved this

mystery by showing that the cytosolic population is solely responsible for the intracellular

expression of both SPI1 and flagella ([12,14,34]; this study). Based on the intracellular induction

of *iroA-* and *mgtB-lacZ* reporter fusions in MDCK (epithelial) cells, concentrations of Fe^{2+} and Mg^{2+}

were thought to be low in the mature vacuole [121]. Additionally, a recent proteomic analysis of

S. Typhimurium isolated from infected epithelial cells at 6 h p.i. suggested that bacteria are

starved for numerous metals, including iron, manganese, and zinc [122]. Our findings show that

metal limitation experienced by intracellular bacteria is niche-dependent; levels of iron and

manganese are low in the cytosol, whereas zinc and magnesium are limiting in the vacuole.

Here, we demonstrate the importance of verifying results derived from population-based

studies at the single-cell level. We suggest that the many studies that have identified individual *S*.

Typhimurium or mammalian genes that influence bacterial proliferation in epithelial cells should

be revisited, especially if the distinct replication niches were not considered. As heterogeneity in

terms of bacterial proliferation and intracellular colonization site clearly influences the outcome of

infection [123,124], it is crucial that the study of host-pathogen interactions incorporates the

investigation of individual bacteria, as well as host cells.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and plasmids

S. Typhimurium SL1344 was the wild-type strain used in this study [125]. Gene deletion mutants

were constructed using *sacB* allelic exchange, λ red recombinase technology or P22

transduction. SL1344 $\Delta sitA$ (deleted for amino acids 4-298), $\Delta mntH$ (deleted for amino acids 1-

411), $\Delta yjjZ$ (ΔSL1344_4483, deleted for amino acids 4-Fig 66) and ΔSL1344_1802 (deleted for

amino acids 4-53) deletion mutants were made via *sacB* negative selection. Two fragments of ~1

kb upstream and downstream of the gene of interest were amplified from *S.* Typhimurium SL1344

genomic DNA using Phusion High-Fidelity DNA polymerase (Thermo Scientific) (primer

sequences are listed in Table S1). The two fragments were combined for a second round of

amplification by overlap extension PCR. The amplicon was then digested with appropriate

restriction enzymes, ligated into the suicide vector pRE112 (Cm^R) [126], and electroporated into

E. coli SY327λpir. After sequence confirmation, the pRE112 plasmids were transferred to *E. coli*

SM10λpir (Kan^R) for conjugation into SL1344 wild-type or $\Delta mntH$ bacteria (for the $\Delta sitA\Delta mntH$

double mutant). For the second recombination event, *sacB*-based counterselection on LB agar

containing 5% (w/v) sucrose was used, and streptomycin-resistant, chloramphenicol-sensitive

colonies were screened by PCR with primers outside the recombination region to confirm the

deletion of each gene. *S.* Typhimurium SL1344 $\Delta sufABCDSE$::kan, $\Delta nrdHIEF$::kan, $\Delta fhuB$::kan

and $\Delta fepB$::kan strains were generated using λ red recombineering technology [127]. λ red

cassettes were amplified using pKD4 as a template with the oligonucleotide pairs listed in Table

S1 and electroporated into *S.* Typhimurium SL1344 wild-type containing the temperature-

sensitive helper plasmid, pKD46. Transformants were selected on LB agar plates containing

streptomycin (100 µg/ml) and kanamycin (50 µg/ml). Verification of λ red promoted gene

replacement was by PCR using a target-flanked primer and a kanamycin resistance gene-specific

primer. Each mutation was transferred into a clean SL1344 wild-type background using P22

phage transduction. The following insertional mutants were constructed by P22 transduction into

a SL1344 wild-type background from phage lysates prepared from the following *S*. Typhimurium

mutants: Δ*entC*::kan (Raffatellu, unpublished), Δ*iroN*::kan [84], ΔSTnc3080::kan (Kroeger,

unpublished), ΔSL1344_3990::kan [128], Δ*cysP*::kan [128], Δ*foxA*::kan [128], Δ*soxS*::kan [128],

Δ*sfbA*::kan [128], Δ*uhpT*::kan [128], Δ*lpxR*::kan [128], Δ*siiABCD*::kan [129]. Selection was on LB

agar plates containing kanamycin (50 µg/ml).

SL1344 wild-type bacteria constitutively expressing *mCherry* from the chromosome

(*glmS*::*Ptrc-mCherryST*::FRT, denoted as mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium) or a plasmid (pFPV-

mCherry) have been described previously [7,130]. *mCherry* expression is driven by the

constitutive *trc* promoter or *S*. Typhimurium *rpsM* promoter, respectively. The *PuhpT-gfpova*

plasmid, pNF101 [22], was used as a biosensor for bacterial exposure to the mammalian cytosol.

Expression of the unstable GFP variant, *gfp_ova* (protein half-life <60 min, [131]), is under the

control of the glucose-6-phosphate responsive *uhpT* promoter from *S. flexneri*. Alternatively,

bacterial access to the cytosol was assessed using the bidirectional reporter plasmid, pCHAR-

Duo(ASV), whereby constitutive *mCherry* expression is driven by the synthetic ProB promoter

and *gfpmut3.1(ASV)* expression is under the control of the *S*. Typhimurium *uhpT* promoter. To

create pCHAR-Duo(ASV), the coding sequence for the stable GFP variant, *gfpmut3.1* (protein

half-life >24 h), was excised from pCHAR-Duo [30] by XmaI/ApaI digestion and replaced with the

coding sequence for a destabilized GFP variant, *gfpmut3.1(ASV)* (protein half-life ~110 min),

which had been released from pGFP(ASV) (Clontech) by XmaI/ApaI digestion.

To construct fluorescent transcriptional reporters, we extracted the precise transcriptional

start sites from the online SalComMac database (http://tinyurl.com/SalComMac; [32,41]).

Approximately 500 bp of sequence upstream of the ATG start codon of each gene, or transcript

start site of each sRNA, was amplified from SL1344 genomic DNA with the oligonucleotide pairs

listed in Table S2. Amplicons were digested with XbaI/SmaI and ligated into the corresponding

restriction sites of pGFPmut3.1 (Clontech). XbaI/ApaI digestion released the gene/sRNA

promoter-*gfpmut3* fragment, which was then ligated into the corresponding sites of the low copy

number plasmid, pMPMA3ΔPlac [132]. The *pipB* and *sopB* promoters were excised from

pMPMA3ΔPlac-P*pipB*-GFP(LVA) and pMPMA3ΔPlac-P*sopB*-GFP(LVA), respectively [132], by

digestion with XbaI/KpnI and ligated into the corresponding sites of pGFPmut3.1 and then

transferred to pMPMA3ΔPlac as described above. The pMPMA3ΔPlac-P*uhpT*-*gfpmut3* construct

has been described previously [133]. GFP reporter plasmids were electroporated into wild-type

mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium.

Reporter assays for metal sensitivity

For metal repression studies, wild-type mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium bacteria harboring *gfpmut3*

fusions were grown shaking overnight (220 rpm) at 37°C in LB-Miller broth containing 100 μg/ml

streptomycin and 50 μg/ml carbenicillin, then washed twice in M9 salts pH 7.0 (6 g Na_2HPO_4, 3 g

KH_2PO_4, 0.5 g NaCl, 1 g NH_4Cl per liter) supplemented with 1 mM $MgSO_4$, 0.4% (w/v) glucose

and 0.01% (w/v) histidine – hereafter referred to as M9-supplemented media – and resuspended

in an equal volume of M9-supplemented media. Washed bacteria were diluted 1:200 in M9-

supplemented media containing 100 μg/ml streptomycin and 50 μg/ml carbenicillin and the

desired concentration of cobalt (II) chloride (Alfa Aesar, Puratronic®, 99.998%), iron (III) chloride

(Acros Organics, 99+%), manganese (II) chloride (Alfa Aesar, Puratronic®, 99.999%), nickel (II)

chloride (Alfa Aesar, Puratronic®, 99.9995%) or zinc chloride (Alfa Aesar, Puratronic®, 99.999%).

All solutions were prepared fresh in MilliQ water. Bacteria were grown overnight at 37°C, shaking

at 220 rpm for ~16 h. GFP fluorescence was measured in black 96-well plates (Costar) using a

TECAN SPARK plate reader (excitation wavelength of 485 nm, bandwidth 20 nm; emission

wavelength of 535 nm, bandwidth of 20 nm). All readings were normalized for bacterial growth

(OD_{600}). The background fluorescence of mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium bacteria (no reporter plasmid)

was subtracted from all readings.

Mammalian cell culture

HeLa human cervical adenocarcinoma epithelial cells were purchased from American Type

Culture Collection (ATCC, CCL-2) and used within 15 passages of receipt. Cells were maintained

at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in the growth medium (GM) recommended by ATCC i.e. Eagle's minimum

essential medium (EMEM, Corning) containing sodium pyruvate, L-glutamine and 10% (v/v) heat-

inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS; Gemini Bio Products). Tissue culture plasticware was

purchased from Thermo Scientific Nunc.

Bacterial infection of mammalian cells

HeLa cells were seeded 24 h prior to infection at the following densities: (i) $5x10^4$ cells/well in 24-

well tissue culture plates, (ii) $6x10^4$ cells/well on acid-washed glass coverslips in 24-well plates,

or (ii) $2.6x10^6$ cells/15 cm tissue culture dish. T3SS1-induced bacterial subcultures were prepared

in LB-Miller broth (Difco) [134] and cells were infected for 10 min with bacterial subcultures (MOI

~50) as described [134]. To induce autophagy, HeLa cells were shifted to Earle's Balanced Salt

Solution (EBSS, Sigma) 3 h prior to infection and maintained in EBSS until 90 min post-infection.

Thereafter, infected cells were switched back to regular growth medium. To inhibit autophagy,

cells were incubated in growth media containing 100 nM wortmannin (WTM, Calbiochem) for 45

min prior to infection, continuing to 90 min post-infection, whereupon cells were transferred back

to regular growth media. For manipulation of cellular cation levels, epithelial cells were treated

16-18 h prior to infection in growth media containing 200 µM 2,2'-dipyridyl (DPI, Sigma-Aldrich),

200 µM DPI and 200 µM ammonium iron (III) citrate (FAC, Alfa Aesar) or 200 µM FAC alone. DPI

+/- FAC treatment continued throughout the infection. DPI was prepared as a 100 mM stock in

ethanol and stored at -80°C for a maximum of 2 weeks. FAC was prepared extemporaneously in

MilliQ water. Gentamicin protection and CHQ resistance assays (chloroquine diphosphate salt,

Sigma) were as described previously [134]. Monolayers were solubilized with 0.2% (w/v) sodium

deoxycholate (Sigma) and serial dilutions were plated on LB-Miller agar (Remel) for enumeration

of colony forming units (CFUs).

Bacterial enrichment and RNA extraction from infected cells

S. Typhimurium was enriched from infected HeLa cells (12 x 15 cm dishes for EBSS treatment,

6 x 15 cm dishes for WTM treatment) as described previously by Hautefort *et al*. (2008) [31] with

minor modifications. Briefly, infected HeLa cells were washed once with 30 ml chilled phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS), then lysed on ice for 10-20 min in 0.1% SDS, 1% acidic phenol, 19%

ethanol in water (15 ml per 15 cm dish). Pooled lysates were collected into 50 ml conical tubes

and centrifuged at 3,220 xg for 30 min, 4°C. After three washes in ice-cold wash buffer (0.1%

phenol, 19% ethanol in water) (30 min, 3,220 xg, 4°C each wash), the remaining bacterial pellet

was resuspended in <1 ml of wash buffer, transferred to an RNase-free microcentrifuge tube and

centrifuged at 16,000 xg for 2 min. The supernatant was discarded, and the pellet resuspended

in 1 ml TRIzol® reagent (Life Technologies) by gently pipetting up-and-down (~60 times), then

transferred to -80°C for storage. Total RNA was extracted as described [32] and the RNA

concentration quantified using a Nanodrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). RNA

quality was analyzed using an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100. RNA samples isolated from two

independent experiments were sent to Vertis Biotechnologie AG (https://www.vertis-biotech.com)

for RNA sequencing.

RNA-seq data analysis

A total of 42 to 57 million sequence reads were generated from each sample on the Illumina HiSeq

platform. For the RankProduct analysis, segemehl [135] was used to map against the reference

genome sequence, resulting in 18.2 million uniquely mapped reads per sample on average. For

the BitSeq analysis, mapping against the transcriptome was required. This was accomplished

through Bowtie2 [136] and generated 7.1 million uniquely mapped reads per sample on average.

Gene/sRNA expression values were calculated by the Transcripts Per Million (TPM) approach

[137]. All genes/sRNAs with mapped reads were reported as TPM and a threshold TPM value of

10 was used as a cut-off to distinguish gene expression from background noise [32].

Genes/sRNAs were deemed differentially expressed using fold-change criteria of ≥1.40 (cytosol

up-regulated) and ≤0.71 (vacuole up-regulated) for WTM/EBSS treatment conditions (cells

highlighted in yellow in Dataset S1). Statistical significance was assessed using two independent

platforms, Bayesian interference of transcripts from sequencing data (BitSeq; [138]) and rank

products (RankProduct; [139,140]). For Bitseq analysis, we arbitrarily set a Probability of Positive

Log Ratio (PPLR) of >0.90 for "up cytosol" genes/sRNAs and <0.1 for "up vacuole" genes/sRNAs

for statistical significance (cells highlighted in green in Dataset S1). For RankProduct analysis,

the cutoff for differentially expressed genes was arbitrarily set to a percentage of false positive

(pfp) value of <0.2 (cells highlighted in green in Dataset S1) for statistical significance.

Pathway enrichment analysis

A collection of 80 custom pathways was generated from previous RNA-seq, ChIP-seq, and

microarray studies of S. Typhimurium regulons [100,111,114,141,142], as well as transcriptional

profiling of S. Typhimurium 4/74 under infection-relevant *in vitro* growth conditions [32] and inside

murine macrophages [41]. Detailed description of the pathway curation process and all relevant

scripts can be found at https://github.com/apredeus/salmonella_pathways. Additionally, KEGG

pathways for S. Typhimurium SL1344 were obtained using the KEGGREST R package v1.28.0,

and gene ontology (GO) mapping of SL1344 genes was extracted from SL1344 protein annotation

by InterProScan v5.41-78. See Dataset S2 for the entire dataset. The combined pathways were

used to annotate gene sets up-regulated in the vacuole and cytosol using the clusterProfiler R

package v3.16.1. The resulting overlaps were visualized using ggplot2 v3.3.2.

Fluorescence microscopy

HeLa cells were seeded on acid-washed, 12 mm glass coverslips (#1.5 thickness, Fisher

Scientific) in 24-well plates. Infected HeLa cells were fixed with 2.5% (w/v) paraformaldehyde in

PBS for 10 min at 37°C. The immunostaining procedure has been described previously [22].

Rabbit anti-SiiE serum (kindly provided by Michael Hensel) was used at a dilution of 1:200.

Digitonin permeabilization to deliver anti-*Salmonella* LPS antibodies (*Salmonella* O-Antiserum

Group B Factors 1, 4, 5, 12; Difco; 1:300 dilution) directly to the cytosol was as described

previously [14]. Cells were stained with Hoechst 33342 (1:10,000 in DDH$_2$O, Life Technologies)

to label DNA and coverslips were mounted onto glass slides using Mowiol. Samples were

visualized on a Leica DM4000 upright fluorescence microscope for scoring the number of bacteria

per cell, the proportion of cytosolic bacteria and quantification of transcriptional reporter activity.

ImageJ software was used to quantify the activity of transcriptional reporters at the individual

bacterium level. Images in the red (mCherry) and green (GFP) channels were acquired under 63x

magnification on a Leica DM4000 upright fluorescent microscope using the same acquisition

settings (exposure and gain) for each group of transcriptional reporters (determined by the

reporter with the highest intensity in the green fluorescence channel). A minimum of 100 cytosolic

and 100 vacuolar bacteria, from cells with ≥100 bacteria and 2-40 bacteria, respectively, acquired

from ≥5 fields of view were quantified for each transcriptional reporter from each experiment. From

grayscale images, well-defined, individual bacteria were randomly chosen on the mCherry

channel (represents all bacteria) and manually outlined, converted to a binary image and the pixel

intensity associated with each identified particle (i.e. one bacterium) quantified from the

corresponding GFP channel image. GFP fluorescence/bacterium was subsequently plotted as

the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI).

Image acquisition on a Leica SP8 Scanning Point confocal microscope was using the

sequential acquisition mode through an optical section of 0.3 µm in the z-axis. Images are

maximum intensity projections of z-stacks.

Statistical analysis

All experiments were conducted on at least three separate occasions, unless otherwise indicated, and results are presented as mean ± SD. Except for the RNA-seq data (see separate paragraph on RNA-seq data analysis), statistical analyses were performed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Dunnett's post-hoc test or Student's t-test (GraphPad Prism). A p-value of ≤0.05 was considered significant.

Acknowledgements

We kindly thank Michael McClelland, Corrie Detweiler, Carsten Kroeger, Denise Monack, Martina Sassone-Corsi and Manuela Raffatellu for sharing bacterial mutants; Michael Hensel for providing the anti-SiiE antibody; Olivia Steele-Mortimer for providing the pCHAR-Duo plasmid; Zeus Saldana-Ahuactzi and Sadie Izaguirre for generating the P*zinT-gfpmut3* and P*mgtC-gfpmut3* constructs; Isabelle Hautefort for invaluable advice about bacterial RNA purification; Andrea Battistoni for helpful discussions about zinc transporters and Jean Celli and Johanna Elfenbein for critical reading of this manuscript.

References

1.   Fredlund J, Enninga J. Cytoplasmic access by intracellular bacterial pathogens. Trends in
Microbiology. 2014;22: 128–137. doi:10.1016/j.tim.2014.01.003

2.   Knodler LA. Salmonella enterica: living a double life in epithelial cells. Current Opinion
in Microbiology. 2015;23: 23–31. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2014.10.010

3.   Bierne H, Milohanic E, Kortebi M. To Be Cytosolic or Vacuolar: The Double Life of
Listeria monocytogenes. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2018;8: 136.
doi:10.3389/fcimb.2018.00136

4.   Kirk MD, Pires SM, Black RE, Caipo M, Crump JA, Devleesschauwer B, et al. World
Health Organization Estimates of the Global and Regional Disease Burden of 22
Foodborne Bacterial, Protozoal, and Viral Diseases, 2010: A Data Synthesis. PLOS
Medicine. 2015;12: e1001921. doi:10.1371/journal.pmed.1001921

5.   Stanaway JD, Parisi A, Sarkar K, Blacker BF, Reiner RC, Hay SI, et al. The global burden
of non-typhoidal salmonella invasive disease: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden
of Disease Study 2017. The Lancet Infectious Diseases. 2019;19: 1312–1324.
doi:10.1016/S1473-3099(19)30418-9

6.   Steele-Mortimer O, Méresse S, Gorvel J-P, Toh B-H, Finlay BB. Biogenesis of
Salmonella typhimurium-containing vacuoles in epithelial cells involves interactions with
the early endocytic pathway. Cellular Microbiology. 1999;1: 33–49.
doi:https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1462-5822.1999.00003.x

7.   Drecktrah D, Knodler LA, Howe D, Steele-Mortimer O. Salmonella trafficking is defined
by continuous dynamic interactions with the endolysosomal system. Traffic. 2007;8: 212–
225. doi:10.1111/j.1600-0854.2006.00529.x

8.   Hume PJ, Singh V, Davidson AC, Koronakis V. Swiss Army Pathogen: The Salmonella
Entry Toolkit. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2017;7: 348. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2017.00348

9.   Deiwick J, Nikolaus T, Erdogan S, Hensel M. Environmental regulation of Salmonella
pathogenicity island 2 gene expression. Mol Microbiol. 1999;31: 1759–1773.
doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01312.x

10. Beuzón CR, Banks G, Deiwick J, Hensel M, Holden DW. pH-dependent secretion of
SseB, a product of the SPI-2 type III secretion system of Salmonella typhimurium.
Molecular Microbiology. 1999;33: 806–816. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01527.x

11. Castanheira S, García-del Portillo F. Salmonella Populations inside Host Cells. Front Cell
Infect Microbiol. 2017;7: 432. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2017.00432

12. Knodler LA, Vallance BA, Celli J, Winfree S, Hansen B, Montero M, et al. Dissemination
of invasive Salmonella via bacterial-induced extrusion of mucosal epithelia. Proc Natl
Acad Sci USA. 2010;107: 17733–17738. doi:10.1073/pnas.1006098107

13.   Malik-Kale P, Winfree S, Steele-Mortimer O. The bimodal lifestyle of intracellular
805   Salmonella in epithelial cells: replication in the cytosol obscures defects in vacuolar
806   replication. PLoS ONE. 2012;7: e38732. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0038732

807   14.   Knodler LA, Nair V, Steele-Mortimer O. Quantitative assessment of cytosolic Salmonella
808   in epithelial cells. PLoS ONE. 2014;9: e84681. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0084681

809   15.   Fowler CC, Galán JE. Decoding a Salmonella Typhi Regulatory Network that Controls
810   Typhoid Toxin Expression within Human Cells. Cell Host & Microbe. 2018;23: 65-76.e6.
811   doi:10.1016/j.chom.2017.12.001

812   16.   Hausmann A, Böck D, Geiser P, Berthold DL, Fattinger SA, Furter M, et al. Intestinal
813   epithelial NAIP/NLRC4 restricts systemic dissemination of the adapted pathogen
814   Salmonella Typhimurium due to site-specific bacterial PAMP expression. Mucosal
815   Immunol. 2020. doi:10.1038/s41385-019-0247-0

816   17.   Laughlin RC, Knodler LA, Barhoumi R, Payne HR, Wu J, Gomez G, et al. Spatial
817   Segregation of Virulence Gene Expression during Acute Enteric Infection with Salmonella
818   enterica serovar Typhimurium. mBio. 2014;5. doi:10.1128/mBio.00946-13

819   18.   Beuzón CR, Salcedo SP, Holden DW. Growth and killing of a Salmonella enterica serovar
820   Typhimurium sifA mutant strain in the cytosol of different host cell lines. Microbiology
821   (Reading, Engl). 2002;148: 2705–2715. doi:10.1099/00221287-148-9-2705

822   19.   Thurston TLM, Matthews SA, Jennings E, Alix E, Shao F, Shenoy AR, et al. Growth
823   inhibition of cytosolic Salmonella by caspase-1 and caspase-11 precedes host cell death.
824   Nat Commun. 2016;7: 13292. doi:10.1038/ncomms13292

825   20.   Kohler LJ, Roy CR. Autophagic targeting and avoidance in intracellular bacterial
826   infections. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2017;35: 36–41.
827   doi:10.1016/j.mib.2016.11.004

828   21.   Birmingham CL, Smith AC, Bakowski MA, Yoshimori T, Brumell JH. Autophagy
829   controls Salmonella infection in response to damage to the Salmonella-containing vacuole.
830   J Biol Chem. 2006;281: 11374–11383. doi:10.1074/jbc.M509157200

831   22.   Lau N, Haeberle AL, O'Keeffe BJ, Latomanski EA, Celli J, Newton HJ, et al. SopF, a
832   phosphoinositide binding effector, promotes the stability of the nascent Salmonella-
833   containing vacuole. PLOS Pathogens. 2019;15: e1007959.
834   doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1007959

835   23.   Xu Y, Zhou P, Cheng S, Lu Q, Nowak K, Hopp A-K, et al. A Bacterial Effector Reveals
836   the V-ATPase-ATG16L1 Axis that Initiates Xenophagy. Cell. 2019;0.
837   doi:10.1016/j.cell.2019.06.007

838   24.   Thurston TLM, Wandel MP, Muhlinen N von, Foeglein Á, Randow F. Galectin 8 targets
839   damaged vesicles for autophagy to defend cells against bacterial invasion. Nature.
840   2012;482: 414–418. doi:10.1038/nature10744

841   25.   Ravenhill BJ, Boyle KB, von Muhlinen N, Ellison CJ, Masson GR, Otten EG, et al. The
842   Cargo Receptor NDP52 Initiates Selective Autophagy by Recruiting the ULK Complex to
843   Cytosol-Invading Bacteria. Mol Cell. 2019;74: 320-329.e6.
844   doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2019.01.041

845   26.   Kreibich S, Emmenlauer M, Fredlund J, Rämö P, Münz C, Dehio C, et al. Autophagy
846   Proteins Promote Repair of Endosomal Membranes Damaged by the Salmonella Type
847   Three Secretion System 1. Cell Host & Microbe. 2015;18: 527–537.
848   doi:10.1016/j.chom.2015.10.015

849   27.   Yu HB, Croxen MA, Marchiando AM, Ferreira RBR, Cadwell K, Foster LJ, et al.
850   Autophagy facilitates Salmonella replication in HeLa cells. MBio. 2014;5: e00865-00814.
851   doi:10.1128/mBio.00865-14

852   28.   Klionsky DJ, Abdelmohsen K, Abe A, Abedin MJ, Abeliovich H, Acevedo Arozena A, et
853   al. Guidelines for the use and interpretation of assays for monitoring autophagy (3rd
854   edition). Autophagy. 2016;12: 1–222. doi:10.1080/15548627.2015.1100356

855   29.   Brumell JH, Tang P, Zaharik ML, Finlay BB. Disruption of the Salmonella-Containing
856   Vacuole Leads to Increased Replication of Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium in
857   the Cytosol of Epithelial Cells. IAI. 2002;70: 3264–3270. doi:10.1128/IAI.70.6.3264-
858   3270.2002

859   30.   Chong A, Starr T, Finn CE, Steele-Mortimer O. A role for the Salmonella Type III
860   Secretion System 1 in bacterial adaptation to the cytosol of epithelial cells. Molecular
861   Microbiology. 2019;112: 1270–1283. doi:10.1111/mmi.14361

862   31.   Hautefort I, Thompson A, Eriksson-Ygberg S, Parker ML, Lucchini S, Danino V, et al.
863   During infection of epithelial cells Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium undergoes a
864   time-dependent transcriptional adaptation that results in simultaneous expression of three
865   type 3 secretion systems. Cellular Microbiology. 2008;10: 958–984. doi:10.1111/j.1462-
866   5822.2007.01099.x

867   32.   Kröger C, Colgan A, Srikumar S, Händler K, Sivasankaran SK, Hammarlöf DL, et al. An
868   Infection-Relevant Transcriptomic Compendium for Salmonella enterica Serovar
869   Typhimurium. Cell Host & Microbe. 2013;14: 683–695. doi:10.1016/j.chom.2013.11.010

870   33.   Kröger C, Dillon SC, Cameron ADS, Papenfort K, Sivasankaran SK, Hokamp K, et al.
871   The transcriptional landscape and small RNAs of Salmonella enterica serovar
872   Typhimurium. PNAS. 2012;109: E1277–E1286. doi:10.1073/pnas.1201061109

873   34.   Finn CE, Chong A, Cooper KG, Starr T, Steele-Mortimer O. A second wave of
874   Salmonella T3SS1 activity prolongs the lifespan of infected epithelial cells. PLoS Pathog.
875   2017;13: e1006354. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1006354

876   35.   Gerlach RG, Jäckel D, Geymeier N, Hensel M. Salmonella Pathogenicity Island 4-
877   Mediated Adhesion Is Coregulated with Invasion Genes in Salmonella enterica. IAI.
878   2007;75: 4697–4709. doi:10.1128/IAI.00228-07

36. Main-Hester KL, Colpitts KM, Thomas GA, Fang FC, Libby SJ. Coordinate Regulation of
Salmonella Pathogenicity Island 1 (SPI1) and SPI4 in Salmonella enterica Serovar
Typhimurium. IAI. 2008;76: 1024–1035. doi:10.1128/IAI.01224-07

37. Galyov EE, Wood MW, Rosqvist R, Mullan PB, Watson PR, Hedges S, et al. A secreted
effector protein of Salmonella dublin is translocated into eukaryotic cells and mediates
inflammation and fluid secretion in infected ileal mucosa. Molecular Microbiology.
1997;25: 903–912. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2958.1997.mmi525.x

38. Zhou D, Chen L-M, Hernandez L, Shears SB, Galán JE. A Salmonella inositol
polyphosphatase acts in conjunction with other bacterial effectors to promote host cell
actin cytoskeleton rearrangements and bacterial internalization. Molecular Microbiology.
2001;39: 248–260. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.2001.02230.x

39. Cheng S, Wang L, Liu Q, Qi L, Yu K, Wang Z, et al. Identification of a Novel Salmonella
Type III Effector by Quantitative Secretome Profiling. Mol Cell Proteomics. 2017;16:
2219–2228. doi:10.1074/mcp.RA117.000230

40. Eriksson S, Lucchini S, Thompson A, Rhen M, Hinton JCD. Unravelling the biology of
macrophage infection by gene expression profiling of intracellular Salmonella enterica.
Molecular Microbiology. 2003;47: 103–118. doi:https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-
2958.2003.03313.x

41. Srikumar S, Kröger C, Hébrard M, Colgan A, Owen SV, Sivasankaran SK, et al. RNA-seq
Brings New Insights to the Intra-Macrophage Transcriptome of Salmonella Typhimurium.
PLOS Pathogens. 2015;11: e1005262. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1005262

42. Gunn JS, Alpuche-Aranda CM, Loomis WP, Belden WJ, Miller SI. Characterization of the
Salmonella typhimurium pagC/pagD chromosomal region. Journal of bacteriology.
1995;177: 5040–5047. doi:10.1128/JB.177.17.5040-5047.1995

43. Blondel CJ, Jiménez JC, Contreras I, Santiviago CA. Comparative genomic analysis
uncovers 3 novel loci encoding type six secretion systems differentially distributed in
Salmonella serotypes. BMC Genomics. 2009;10: 354. doi:10.1186/1471-2164-10-354

44. Sabbagh SC, Forest CG, Lepage C, Leclerc J-M, Daigle F. So similar, yet so different:
uncovering distinctive features in the genomes of Salmonella enterica serovars
Typhimurium and Typhi: Genomic comparison of S. Typhimurium and S. Typhi. FEMS
Microbiology Letters. 2010;305: 1–13. doi:10.1111/j.1574-6968.2010.01904.x

45. Ellermeier JR, Slauch JM. Adaptation to the host environment: regulation of the SPI1 type
III secretion system in Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. Current Opinion in
Microbiology. 2007;10: 24–29. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2006.12.002

46. Roche B, Bumann D. Single-cell reporters for pathogen responses to antimicrobial host
attacks. Current Opinion in Microbiology. 2021;59: 16–23. doi:10.1016/j.mib.2020.07.013

47.   Bumann D, Valdivia RH. Identification of host-induced pathogen genes by differential
916   fluorescence induction reporter systems. Nat Protoc. 2007;2: 770–777.
917   doi:10.1038/nprot.2007.78

918   48.   Valdivia RH, Falkow S. Fluorescence-Based Isolation of Bacterial Genes Expressed
919   Within Host Cells. Science. 1997;277: 2007–2011. doi:10.1126/science.277.5334.2007

920   49.   Maguire ME. Magnesium, Manganese, and Divalent Cation Transport Assays in Intact
921   Cells. In: Schatten H, Eisenstark A, editors. Salmonella. Totowa, NJ: Humana Press;
922   2007. pp. 289–305. doi:10.1007/978-1-59745-512-1_14

923   50.   Chambers JAA. CHAPTER 1 - BUFFERS, CHELATING AGENTS AND
924   DENATURANTS. In: Chambers JAA, Rickwood D, editors. Biochemistry Labfax.
925   Academic Press; 1993. pp. 1–36. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-167340-6.50008-2

926   51.   Ikeda JS, Janakiraman A, Kehres DG, Maguire ME, Slauch JM. Transcriptional
927   Regulation of sitABCD of Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium by MntR and Fur.
928   JB. 2005;187: 912–922. doi:10.1128/JB.187.3.912-922.2005

929   52.   Breuer W, Epsztejn S, Cabantchik ZI. Iron Acquired from Transferrin by K562 Cells Is
930   Delivered into a Cytoplasmic Pool of Chelatable Iron(II). J Biol Chem. 1995;270: 24209–
931   24215. doi:10.1074/jbc.270.41.24209

932   53.   Nakamura K, Kawakami T, Yamamoto N, Tomizawa M, Fujiwara T, Ishii T, et al.
933   Activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome by cellular labile iron. Experimental
934   Hematology. 2016;44: 116–124. doi:10.1016/j.exphem.2015.11.002

935   54.   Kehres DG, Janakiraman A, Slauch JM, Maguire ME. Regulation of Salmonella enterica
936   Serovar Typhimurium mntH Transcription by H2O2, Fe2+, and Mn2+. J BACTERIOL.
937   2002;184: 8.

938   55.   Kim CC, Falkow S. Delineation of Upstream Signaling Events in the Salmonella
939   Pathogenicity Island 2 Transcriptional Activation Pathway. JB. 2004;186: 4694–4704.
940   doi:10.1128/JB.186.14.4694-4704.2004

941   56.   Osman D, Cavet JS. Chapter 5 - Metal Sensing in Salmonella: Implications for
942   Pathogenesis. In: Poole RK, editor. Advances in Microbial Physiology. Academic Press;
943   2011. pp. 175–232. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-381043-4.00005-2

944   57.   Kehres DG, Zaharik ML, Finlay BB, Maguire ME. The NRAMP proteins of Salmonella
945   typhimurium and Escherichia coli are selective manganese transporters involved in the
946   response to reactive oxygen. Molecular Microbiology. 2000;36: 1085–1100.
947   doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.2000.01922.x

948   58.   Kehres DG, Janakiraman A, Slauch JM, Maguire ME. SitABCD Is the Alkaline Mn2+
949   Transporter of Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium. J BACTERIOL. 2002;184: 8.

59. Ammendola S, Pasquali P, Pistoia C, Petrucci P, Petrarca P, Rotilio G, et al. High-Affinity
Zn2+ Uptake System ZnuABC Is Required for Bacterial Zinc Homeostasis in Intracellular
Environments and Contributes to the Virulence of Salmonella enterica. IAI. 2007;75:
5867–5876. doi:10.1128/IAI.00559-07

60. Petrarca P, Ammendola S, Pasquali P, Battistoni A. The Zur-Regulated ZinT Protein Is an
Auxiliary Component of the High-Affinity ZnuABC Zinc Transporter That Facilitates
Metal Recruitment during Severe Zinc Shortage. JB. 2010;192: 1553–1564.
doi:10.1128/JB.01310-09

61. Ilari A, Alaleona F, Tria G, Petrarca P, Battistoni A, Zamparelli C, et al. The Salmonella
enterica ZinT structure, zinc affinity and interaction with the high-affinity uptake protein
ZnuA provide insight into the management of periplasmic zinc. Biochimica et Biophysica
Acta (BBA) - General Subjects. 2014;1840: 535–544. doi:10.1016/j.bbagen.2013.10.010

62. Grass G, Franke S, Taudte N, Nies DH, Kucharski LM, Maguire ME, et al. The Metal
Permease ZupT from Escherichia coli Is a Transporter with a Broad Substrate Spectrum.
JB. 2005;187: 1604–1611. doi:10.1128/JB.187.5.1604-1611.2005

63. Karlinsey JE, Maguire ME, Becker LA, Crouch M-LV, Fang FC. The phage shock protein
PspA facilitates divalent metal transport and is required for virulence of Salmonella
enterica sv. Typhimurium. Molecular Microbiology. 2010;78: 669–685.
doi:10.1111/j.1365-2958.2010.07357.x

64. Cerasi M, Ammendola S, Battistoni A. Competition for zinc binding in the host-pathogen
interaction. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2013;3. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2013.00108

65. Groisman EA, Hollands K, Kriner MA, Lee E-J, Park S-Y, Pontes MH. Bacterial Mg2+
Homeostasis, Transport, and Virulence. Annu Rev Genet. 2013;47: 625–646.
doi:10.1146/annurev-genet-051313-051025

66. Smith RL, Kaczmarek MT, Kucharski LM, Maguire ME. Magnesium transport in
Samonella typhimurium :regulation of mgtA and mgtC during invasion of epithelial and
macrophage cells. 1998; 9.

67. Knodler LA, Celli J, Hardt W-D, Vallance BA, Yip C, Finlay BB. Salmonella effectors
within a single pathogenicity island are differentially expressed and translocated by
separate type III secretion systems. Molecular Microbiology. 2002;43: 1089–1103.
doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.2002.02820.x

68. Morgan E, Bowen AJ, Carnell SC, Wallis TS, Stevens MP. SiiE Is Secreted by the
Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium Pathogenicity Island 4-Encoded Secretion
System and Contributes to Intestinal Colonization in Cattle. IAI. 2007;75: 1524–1533.
doi:10.1128/IAI.01438-06

69. Gerlach RG, Jäckel D, Stecher B, Wagner C, Lupas A, Hardt W-D, et al. Salmonella
Pathogenicity Island 4 encodes a giant non-fimbrial adhesin and the cognate type 1

secretion system. Cellular Microbiology. 2007;9: 1834–1850. doi:10.1111/j.1462-
5822.2007.00919.x

70. Martínez-Flores I, Pérez-Morales D, Sánchez-Pérez M, Paredes CC, Collado-Vides J,
Salgado H, et al. In silico clustering of Salmonella global gene expression data reveals
novel genes co-regulated with the SPI-1 virulence genes through HilD. Scientific Reports.
2016;6: 37858. doi:10.1038/srep37858

71. Karlinsey JE, Bang I-S, Becker LA, Frawley ER, Porwollik S, Robbins HF, et al. The
NsrR regulon in nitrosative stress resistance of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium.
Molecular Microbiology. 2012;85: 1179–1193. doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-
2958.2012.08167.x

72. Felton J, Michaelis S, Wright A. Mutations in two unlinked genes are required to produce
asparagine auxotrophy in Escherichia coli. Journal of Bacteriology. 1980;142: 221–228.

73. Turnbull AL, Surette MG. L-Cysteine is required for induced antibiotic resistance in
actively swarming Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. Microbiology. 2008;154:
3410–3419. doi:10.1099/mic.0.2008/020347-0

74. Fang FC, Vazquez-Torres A, Xu Y. The transcriptional regulator SoxS is required for
resistance of Salmonella typhimurium to paraquat but not for virulence in mice. Infection
and Immunity. 1997;65: 5371–5375.

75. Pomposiello PJ, Demple B. Identification of SoxS-Regulated Genes in Salmonella
enterica Serovar Typhimurium. J Bacteriol. 2000;182: 23–29.

76. Pattery T, Hernalsteens J-P, Greve HD. Identification and molecular characterization of a
novel Salmonella enteritidis pathogenicity islet encoding an ABC transporter. Molecular
Microbiology. 1999;33: 791–805. doi:10.1046/j.1365-2958.1999.01526.x

77. Klein JA, Grenz JR, Slauch JM, Knodler LA. Controlled Activity of the Salmonella
Invasion-Associated Injectisome Reveals Its Intracellular Role in the Cytosolic
Population. MBio. 2017;8. doi:10.1128/mBio.01931-17

78. Röder J, Hensel M. Presence of SopE and mode of infection result in increased
Salmonella-containing vacuole damage and cytosolic release during host cell infection by
Salmonella enterica. Cellular Microbiology. 2020;22: e13155.
doi:https://doi.org/10.1111/cmi.13155

79. Eisenreich W, Dandekar T, Heesemann J, Goebel W. Carbon metabolism of intracellular
bacterial pathogens and possible links to virulence. Nature Reviews Microbiology. 2010;8:
401–412. doi:10.1038/nrmicro2351

80. Runyen-Janecky LJ, Payne SM. Identification of chromosomal Shigella flexneri genes
induced by the eukaryotic intracellular environment. Infect Immun. 2002;70: 4379–4388.
doi:10.1128/iai.70.8.4379-4388.2002

81. Lucchini S, Liu H, Jin Q, Hinton JCD, Yu J. Transcriptional adaptation of Shigella
flexneri during infection of macrophages and epithelial cells: insights into the strategies of
a cytosolic bacterial pathogen. Infect Immun. 2005;73: 88–102. doi:10.1128/IAI.73.1.88-
102.2005

82. Reigstad CS, Hultgren SJ, Gordon JI. Functional Genomic Studies of Uropathogenic
Escherichia coli and Host Urothelial Cells when Intracellular Bacterial Communities Are
Assembled. J Biol Chem. 2007;282: 21259–21267. doi:10.1074/jbc.M611502200

83. Conover MS, Hadjifrangiskou M, Palermo JJ, Hibbing ME, Dodson KW, Hultgren SJ.
Metabolic Requirements of Escherichia coli in Intracellular Bacterial Communities during
Urinary Tract Infection Pathogenesis. mBio. 2016;7: e00104-00116.
doi:10.1128/mBio.00104-16

84. Nagy TA, Moreland SM, Andrews-Polymenis H, Detweiler CS. The Ferric Enterobactin
Transporter Fep Is Required for Persistent Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium
Infection. Payne SM, editor. Infect Immun. 2013;81: 4063–4070. doi:10.1128/IAI.00412-
13

85. Osman D, Martini MA, Foster AW, Chen J, Scott AJP, Morton RJ, et al. Bacterial sensors
define intracellular free energies for correct enzyme metalation. Nat Chem Biol. 2019;15:
241–249. doi:10.1038/s41589-018-0211-4

86. Skare JT, Ahmer BM, Seachord CL, Darveau RP, Postle K. Energy transduction between
membranes. TonB, a cytoplasmic membrane protein, can be chemically cross-linked in
vivo to the outer membrane receptor FepA. J Biol Chem. 1993;268: 16302–16308.

87. Hantke K, Nicholson G, Rabsch W, Winkelmann G. Salmochelins, siderophores of
Salmonella enterica and uropathogenic Escherichia coli strains, are recognized by the
outer membrane receptor IroN. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences.
2003;100: 3677–3682. doi:10.1073/pnas.0737682100

88. Rabsch W, Voigt W, Reissbrodt R, Tsolis RM, Bäumler AJ. Salmonella typhimurium
IroN and FepA Proteins Mediate Uptake of Enterobactin but Differ in Their Specificity for
Other Siderophores. J Bacteriol. 1999;181: 3610–3612. doi:10.1128/JB.181.11.3610-
3612.1999

89. Tsolis RM, Bäumler AJ, Stojiljkovic I, Heffron F. Fur regulon of Salmonella
typhimurium: identification of new iron-regulated genes. Journal of bacteriology.
1995;177: 4628–4637. doi:10.1128/JB.177.16.4628-4637.1995

90. Payne SM, Wyckoff EE, Murphy ER, Oglesby AG, Boulette ML, Davies NML. Iron and
Pathogenesis of Shigella: Iron Acquisition in the Intracellular Environment. Biometals.
2006;19: 173–180. doi:10.1007/s10534-005-4577-x

91. Runyen-Janecky L, Dazenski E, Hawkins S, Warner L. Role and Regulation of the
Shigella flexneri Sit and MntH Systems. IAI. 2006;74: 4666–4672.
doi:10.1128/IAI.00562-06

92. Runyen-Janecky LJ, Reeves SA, Gonzales EG, Payne SM. Contribution of the Shigella
flexneri Sit, Iuc, and Feo Iron Acquisition Systems to Iron Acquisition In Vitro and in
Cultured Cells. Infection and Immunity. 2003;71: 1919–1928. doi:10.1128/IAI.71.4.1919-
1928.2003

93. Crouch M-LV, Castor M, Karlinsey JE, Kalhorn T, Fang FC. Biosynthesis and IroC-
dependent export of the siderophore salmochelin are essential for virulence of Salmonella
enterica serovar Typhimurium. Molecular Microbiology. 2008;67: 971–983.
doi:10.1111/j.1365-2958.2007.06089.x

94. Andrews SC. Making DNA without iron – induction of a manganese-dependent
ribonucleotide reductase in response to iron starvation. Molecular Microbiology. 2011;80:
286–289. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2958.2011.07594.x

95. Martin JE, Imlay JA. The alternative aerobic ribonucleotide reductase of Escherichia coli,
NrdEF, is a manganese-dependent enzyme that enables cell replication during periods of
iron starvation. Molecular Microbiology. 2011;80: 319–334. doi:10.1111/j.1365-
2958.2011.07593.x

96. Outten FW, Wood MJ, Muñoz FM, Storz G. The SufE Protein and the SufBCD Complex
Enhance SufS Cysteine Desulfurase Activity as Part of a Sulfur Transfer Pathway for Fe-S
Cluster Assembly in *Escherichia coli*. J Biol Chem. 2003;278: 45713–45719.
doi:10.1074/jbc.M308004200

97. Monje-Casas F, Jurado J, Prieto-Álamo M-J, Holmgren A, Pueyo C. Expression Analysis
of the *nrdHIEF* Operon from *Escherichia coli*: CONDITIONS THAT TRIGGER THE
TRANSCRIPT LEVEL *IN VIVO*. J Biol Chem. 2001;276: 18031–18037.
doi:10.1074/jbc.M011728200

98. Panosa A, Roca I, Gibert I. Ribonucleotide Reductases of Salmonella Typhimurium:
Transcriptional Regulation and Differential Role in Pathogenesis. Dobrindt U, editor.
PLoS ONE. 2010;5: e11328. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0011328

99. Troxell B, Hassan HM. Transcriptional regulation by Ferric Uptake Regulator (Fur) in
pathogenic bacteria. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2013;3. doi:10.3389/fcimb.2013.00059

100. Colgan AM, Kröger C, Diard M, Hardt W-D, Puente JL, Sivasankaran SK, et al. The
Impact of 18 Ancestral and Horizontally-Acquired Regulatory Proteins upon the
Transcriptome and sRNA Landscape of Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium. PLoS
Genet. 2016;12: e1006258. doi:10.1371/journal.pgen.1006258

101. Banerjee R, Weisenhorn E, Schwartz KJ, Myers KS, Glasner JD, Perna NT, et al.
Tailoring a Global Iron Regulon to a Uropathogen. Gottesman S, editor. mBio. 2020;11:
e00351-20, /mbio/11/2/mBio.00351-20.atom. doi:10.1128/mBio.00351-20

102. Hmiel SP, Snavely MD, Miller CG, Maguire ME. Magnesium transport in Salmonella
typhimurium: characterization of magnesium influx and cloning of a transport gene.
Journal of Bacteriology. 1986;168: 1444–1450. doi:10.1128/JB.168.3.1444-1450.1986

103. Snavely MD, Florer JB, Miller CG, Maguire ME. Magnesium transport in Salmonella
typhimurium: Mg2+ transport by the CorA, MgtA, and MgtB systems. Journal of
Bacteriology. 1989;171: 4761–4766. doi:10.1128/JB.171.9.4761-4766.1989

104. Wrande M, Andrews-Polymenis H, Twedt DJ, Steele-Mortimer O, Porwollik S,
McClelland M, et al. Genetic Determinants of Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium
Proliferation in the Cytosol of Epithelial Cells. Infect Immun. 2016;84: 3517–3526.
doi:10.1128/IAI.00734-16

105. Perez-Sepulveda BM, Hinton JCD. Functional Transcriptomics for Bacterial Gene
Detectives. Microbiology Spectrum. 2018;6. doi:10.1128/microbiolspec.RWR-0033-2018

106. Li X, Bleumink-Pluym NMC, Luijkx YMCA, Wubbolts RW, van Putten JPM, Strijbis K.
MUC1 is a receptor for the Salmonella SiiE adhesin that enables apical invasion into
enterocytes. Baumler AJ, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2019;15: e1007566.
doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1007566

107. Kakhlon O, Cabantchik ZI. The labile iron pool: characterization, measurement, and
participation in cellular processes1 1This article is part of a series of reviews on "Iron and
Cellular Redox Status." The full list of papers may be found on the homepage of the
journal. Free Radical Biology and Medicine. 2002;33: 1037–1046. doi:10.1016/S0891-
5849(02)01006-7

108. Kruszewski M. Labile iron pool: the main determinant of cellular response to oxidative
stress. Mutation Research/Fundamental and Molecular Mechanisms of Mutagenesis.
2003;531: 81–92. doi:10.1016/j.mrfmmm.2003.08.004

109. Tenopoulou M, Kurz T, Doulias P-T, Galaris D, Brunk UT. Does the calcein-AM method
assay the total cellular 'labile iron pool' or only a fraction of it? Biochemical Journal.
2007;403: 261–266. doi:10.1042/BJ20061840

110. Petrat F, de Groot H, Rauen U. Determination of the Chelatable Iron Pool of Single Intact
Cells by Laser Scanning Microscopy. Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics.
2000;376: 74–81. doi:10.1006/abbi.2000.1711

111. Troxell B, Fink RC, Porwollik S, McClelland M, Hassan HM. The Fur regulon in
anaerobically grown Salmonella enterica sv. Typhimurium: identification of new Fur
targets. BMC Microbiol. 2011;11: 236. doi:10.1186/1471-2180-11-236

112. Bjarnason J, Southward CM, Surette MG. Genomic Profiling of Iron-Responsive Genes in
Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium by High-Throughput Screening of a Random
Promoter Library. Journal of Bacteriology. 2003;185: 4973–4982.
doi:10.1128/JB.185.16.4973-4982.2003

113. Ellermeier JR, Slauch JM. Fur Regulates Expression of the Salmonella Pathogenicity
Island 1 Type III Secretion System through HilD. JB. 2008;190: 476–486.
doi:10.1128/JB.00926-07

114. Troxell B, Sikes ML, Fink RC, Vazquez-Torres A, Jones-Carson J, Hassan HM. Fur
Negatively Regulates hns and Is Required for the Expression of HilA and Virulence in
Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium. Journal of Bacteriology. 2011;193: 497–505.
doi:10.1128/JB.00942-10

115. Hautefort I, Proença MJ, Hinton JCD. Single-copy green fluorescent protein gene fusions
allow accurate measurement of Salmonella gene expression in vitro and during infection
of mammalian cells. Appl Environ Microbiol. 2003;69: 7480–7491.
doi:10.1128/aem.69.12.7480-7491.2003

116. Sturm A, Heinemann M, Arnoldini M, Benecke A, Ackermann M, Benz M, et al. The
Cost of Virulence: Retarded Growth of Salmonella Typhimurium Cells Expressing Type
III Secretion System 1. Ausubel FM, editor. PLoS Pathog. 2011;7: e1002143.
doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1002143

117. Joseph B, Przybilla K, Stühler C, Schauer K, Slaghuis J, Fuchs TM, et al. Identification of
Listeria monocytogenes Genes Contributing to Intracellular Replication by Expression
Profiling and Mutant Screening. Journal of Bacteriology. 2006;188: 556–568.
doi:10.1128/JB.188.2.556-568.2006

118. Chatterjee SS, Hossain H, Otten S, Kuenne C, Kuchmina K, Machata S, et al. Intracellular
Gene Expression Profile of Listeria monocytogenes. Infect Immun. 2006;74: 1323–1338.
doi:10.1128/IAI.74.2.1323-1338.2006

119. Alpuche Aranda CM, Swanson JA, Loomis WP, Miller SI. Salmonella typhimurium
activates virulence gene transcription within acidified macrophage phagosomes. Proc Natl
Acad Sci U S A. 1992;89: 10079–10083. doi:10.1073/pnas.89.21.10079

120. Rathman M, Sjaastad MD, Falkow S. Acidification of phagosomes containing Salmonella
typhimurium in murine macrophages. Infect Immun. 1996;64: 2765–2773.
doi:10.1128/IAI.64.7.2765-2773.1996

121. Garcia-del Portillo F, Foster JW, Maguire ME, Finlay BB. Characterization of the micro-
environment of Salmonella typhimurium-containing vacuoles within MDCK epithelial
cells. Mol Microbiol. 1992;6: 3289–3297.

122. Liu Y, Zhang Q, Hu M, Yu K, Fu J, Zhou F, et al. Proteomic Analyses of Intracellular
Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium Reveal Extensive Bacterial Adaptations to
Infected Host Epithelial Cells. Payne SM, editor. Infect Immun. 2015;83: 2897–2906.
doi:10.1128/IAI.02882-14

123. Avraham R, Haseley N, Brown D, Penaranda C, Jijon HB, Trombetta JJ, et al. Pathogen
Cell-to-Cell Variability Drives Heterogeneity in Host Immune Responses. Cell. 2015;162:
1309–1321. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2015.08.027

124. Saliba A-E, Li L, Westermann AJ, Appenzeller S, Stapels DAC, Schulte LN, et al. Single-
cell RNA-seq ties macrophage polarization to growth rate of intracellular Salmonella. Nat
Microbiol. 2017;2: 16206. doi:10.1038/nmicrobiol.2016.206

125. Hoiseth SK, Stocker BAD. Aromatic-dependent Salmonella typhimurium are non-virulent
and effective as live vaccines. Nature. 1981;291: 238–239. doi:10.1038/291238a0

126. Edwards RA, Keller LH, Schifferli DM. Improved allelic exchange vectors and their use
to analyze 987P fimbria gene expression. Gene. 1998;207: 149–157. doi:10.1016/S0378-
1119(97)00619-7

127. Datsenko KA, Wanner BL. One-step inactivation of chromosomal genes in Escherichia
coli K-12 using PCR products. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA. 2000;97: 6640–6645.
doi:10.1073/pnas.120163297

128. Porwollik S, Santiviago CA, Cheng P, Long F, Desai P, Fredlund J, et al. Defined Single-
Gene and Multi-Gene Deletion Mutant Collections in Salmonella enterica sv
Typhimurium. Hensel M, editor. PLoS ONE. 2014;9: e99820.
doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0099820

129. Lawley TD, Chan K, Thompson LJ, Kim CC, Govoni GR, Monack DM. Genome-Wide
Screen for Salmonella Genes Required for Long-Term Systemic Infection of the Mouse.
PLoS Pathog. 2006;2: e11. doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.0020011

130. Knodler LA, Crowley SM, Sham HP, Yang H, Wrande M, Ma C, et al. Noncanonical
inflammasome activation of caspase-4/caspase-11 mediates epithelial defenses against
enteric bacterial pathogens. Cell Host Microbe. 2014;16: 249–256.
doi:10.1016/j.chom.2014.07.002

131. Rollenhagen C, Sorensen M, Rizos K, Hurvitz R, Bumann D. Antigen selection based on
expression levels during infection facilitates vaccine development for an intracellular
pathogen. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 2004;101: 8739–8744.
doi:10.1073/pnas.0401283101

132. Ibarra JA, Knodler LA, Sturdevant DE, Virtaneva K, Carmody AB, Fischer ER, et al.
Induction of Salmonella pathogenicity island 1 under different growth conditions can
affect Salmonella-host cell interactions in vitro. Microbiology (Reading, Engl). 2010;156:
1120–1133. doi:10.1099/mic.0.032896-0

133. Holly MK, Han X, Zhao EJ, Crowley SM, Allaire JM, Knodler LA, et al. *Salmonella*
enterica infection of murine and human enteroid-derived monolayers elicits differential
activation of epithelial-intrinsic inflammasomes. Infect Immun. 2020; IAI.00017-20,
iai;IAI.00017-20v1. doi:10.1128/IAI.00017-20

134. Klein JA, Powers TR, Knodler LA. Measurement of Salmonella enterica Internalization
and Vacuole Lysis in Epithelial Cells. Methods Mol Biol. 2017;1519: 285–296.
doi:10.1007/978-1-4939-6581-6_19

135. Hoffmann S, Otto C, Kurtz S, Sharma CM, Khaitovich P, Vogel J, et al. Fast mapping of
short sequences with mismatches, insertions and deletions using index structures. PLoS
Comput Biol. 2009;5: e1000502. doi:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1000502

136.   Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nat Methods.
2012;9: 357–359. doi:10.1038/nmeth.1923

137.   Li B, Dewey CN. RSEM: accurate transcript quantification from RNA-Seq data with or
without a reference genome. BMC Bioinformatics. 2011;12: 323. doi:10.1186/1471-2105-
12-323

138.   Glaus P, Honkela A, Rattray M. Identifying differentially expressed transcripts from
RNA-seq data with biological variation. Bioinformatics. 2012;28: 1721–1728.
doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/bts260

139.   Breitling R, Armengaud P, Amtmann A, Herzyk P. Rank products: a simple, yet powerful,
new method to detect differentially regulated genes in replicated microarray experiments.
FEBS Letters. 2004;573: 83–92. doi:10.1016/j.febslet.2004.07.055

140.   Hong F, Breitling R, McEntee CW, Wittner BS, Nemhauser JL, Chory J. RankProd: a
bioconductor package for detecting differentially expressed genes in meta-analysis.
Bioinformatics. 2006;22: 2825–2827. doi:10.1093/bioinformatics/btl476

141.   Smith C, Stringer AM, Mao C, Palumbo MJ, Wade JT. Mapping the Regulatory Network
for Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium Invasion. MBio. 2016;7.
doi:10.1128/mBio.01024-16

142.   Fink RC, Evans MR, Porwollik S, Vazquez-Torres A, Jones-Carson J, Troxell B, et al.
FNR Is a Global Regulator of Virulence and Anaerobic Metabolism in Salmonella enterica
Serovar Typhimurium (ATCC 14028s). Journal of Bacteriology. 2007;189: 2262–2273.
doi:10.1128/JB.00726-06

1232

1233

Figure Legends

Fig 1. EBSS and wortmannin inversely affect the cytosolic population. (A) Schematic of the

experimental design employed to differentially modulate host cell autophagy. (B) Epithelial cells

seeded on glass coverslips were pretreated with EBSS or 100 nM WTM as depicted in (A) and

infected with *S*. Typhimurium wild-type bacteria harboring pFPV-mCherry for plasmid-borne,

constitutive expression of *mCherry*. The proportion of bacteria accessible to anti-*Salmonella* LPS

antibodies delivered to the mammalian cell cytosol was determined by digitonin permeabilization

assay and fluorescence microscopy. n≥3 independent experiments (C) Epithelial cells seeded on

coverslips were pretreated as in (A) and infected with mCherry-S. Typhimurium (wild-type

glmS::P*trc-mCherryST*::FRT bacteria constitutively expressing a chromosomal copy of *mCherry*)

harboring the fluorescent reporter plasmid, P*uhpT-gfpova* (pNF101). At the indicated times, cells

were fixed and the proportion of infected cells containing cytosolic bacteria (GFP-positive) was

scored by fluorescence microscopy. n=3 independent experiments. (D) Cells seeded on

coverslips were pretreated as in (A) and infected with wild-type bacteria harboring pFPV-mCherry.

The number of bacteria in each infected cell was scored by fluorescence microscopy. Cells with

≥100 bacteria contain cytosolic *S*. Typhimurium. Each dot represents one infected cell. n=2 (1 h)

or 3 (8 h) independent experiments. (E) Epithelial cells were infected with wild-type bacteria and

the number of intracellular bacteria at 1 h and 8 h p.i. was determined by gentamicin protection

assay. Fold-replication is CFUs at 8 h/1 h. n=3 independent experiments. For all panels, control

= untreated cells; EBSS = Earle's balanced salt solution treatment; WTM = wortmannin treatment.

1254

Fig 2. Pathway enrichment analysis results for the RNA-seq analysis. Top panels indicate

regulons generated from transcriptional profiling of key regulatory mutants, while bottom panels

display enriched gene sets generated from KEGG, GO, or from RNA-seq profiling of *S.*

Typhimurium under 22 infection-relevant *in vitro* growth conditions. All displayed enrichments are

significant (adjusted p-value <0.05) according to Fisher's exact test with Benjamini-Hochberg

correction for multiple comparisons. The number of genes/sRNAs in each category is shown in

$\log_2$ scale. Only a selection of non-redundant pathways is presented; the full data set is available

in S2 Table.

1263

Fig 3. Iron-associated genes/sRNAs are induced in the epithelial cytosol. (A) Epithelial cells

seeded on coverslips were infected wild-type mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring fluorescent

transcriptional reporters. The promoter region of each gene of interest was inserted upstream of

a promoterless *gfpmut3*. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and stained with Hoechst 33342 to detect

DNA. Representative confocal microscopy images show induction of *iroB*, *nrdH*, *sitA*, *sufA*, *yjjZ*

and *STnc3080* promoters in cytosolic bacteria. Green = transcriptional reporter, red = *S*.

Typhimurium, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 μm. (B) Quantification of the mean fluorescence

intensity (MFI) of GFP signal in individual bacteria. Bacteria were designated as being cytosolic

(Cyto) or vacuolar (Vac) if residing within cells with ≥100 bacteria or 2-40 bacteria, respectively.

Each dot represents one bacterium. Solid black line indicates the mean. Acquisition parameters

(acquisition time and gain) were set up using P*sitA-gfpmut3* (the highest GFP intensity) and these

same parameters were applied throughout. The MFI for each bacterium was determine using

ImageJ. Dashed lines indicate the range of background fluorescence in the GFP channel

measured for mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium (no reporter). n=2 independent experiments.

1278

Fig 4. Manipulation of cellular iron levels primarily affects cytosolic bacteria. (A) Epithelial

cells seeded on coverslips were left untreated (control) or treated overnight in growth media

supplemented with 10 μM, 30 μM, 100 μM or 300 μM ferric ammonium citrate (FAC). Cells were

infected with wild-type mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring P*iroN-gfpmut3*, P*sitA-gfpmut3* or

P*yjjZ-gfpmut3* reporters, fixed at 8 h p.i. and the MFI of GFP signal in individual bacteria was

quantified by fluorescence microscopy. Bacteria were designated as being cytosolic (Cyto) or

vacuolar (Vac) if residing within cells with ≥100 bacteria or 2-40 bacteria, respectively. Each dot

represents one bacterium. Solid black line indicates the mean. Acquisition parameters (acquisition

time and gain) were set-up using P*iroN-gfpmut3* (the highest GFP intensity) and these same

parameters were applied throughout. The MFI for each bacterium was determine using ImageJ.

Dashed lines indicate the range of background fluorescence in the GFP channel measured for

mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium (no reporter). n=2 independent experiments. (B) Epithelial cells seeded

on coverslips were left untreated (control) or treated overnight with growth media containing 200

µM 2,2-dipyridyl (DPI), a metal-chelating compound, 200 µM DPI + 200 µM ferric ammonium

citrate (DPI+FAC) or 200 µM FAC alone (FAC). Infection strains and quantification of GFP signal

were as described for (A). n=2 independent experiments. (C) Cells were treated as in (B) and

infected with wild-type bacteria. The number of intracellular bacteria was quantified by gentamicin

protection assay at 1 h and 8 h p.i. Fold-replication is CFUs at 8 h/1 h. n=3 experiments. (D) Cells

were treated as in (B) and infected with wild-type bacteria. The proportion of cytosolic bacteria

was quantified by CHQ resistance assay at Fig 6 h p.i. n≥3 experiments. (E) Cells were treated

as in (B) and infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring a plasmid-borne reporter of

cytosolic access, pNF101, and fixed at 8 h p.i. Left panel: the proportion of infected cells

containing only cytosolic (all bacteria are GFP-positive, mCherry-positive), only vacuolar (all

bacteria are GFP-negative, mCherry-positive) or a mixed population (Cyto+Vac) of bacteria was

blindly scored by fluorescence microscopy. n≥5 independent experiments. Right panel: the

number of cytosolic or vacuolar bacteria in each cell was scored. Horizontal black lines indicate

the mean number of bacteria/cell. Cumulative data from two independent experiments is shown.

1306

Fig 5. Zn^{2+} and Mg^{2+} are limiting in the vacuole, not the cytosol. Upper panels: Epithelial cells

seeded on coverslips were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring P*zinT-gfpmut3* or

P*mgtC-gfpmut3* transcriptional reporters. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and stained with Hoechst

33342 to detect DNA. Representative confocal microscopy images show induction of *zinT* (upper

panel) *and mgtC* (lower panel) promoters in vacuolar bacteria. Green = transcriptional reporter,

red = *S*. Typhimurium, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 µm. Lower panels: Quantification of the

MFI of GFP signal in individual bacteria. Bacteria were designated as being cytosolic (Cyto) or

vacuolar (Vac) if residing within cells with ≥100 bacteria or 2-40 bacteria, respectively. Each dot

represents one bacterium. Solid black line indicates the mean. Acquisition parameters (acquisition

time and gain) were set-up using P*zinT-gfpmut3* (the highest GFP intensity) and these same

parameters were applied throughout. The MFI for each bacterium was determine using ImageJ.

Dashed lines indicate the range of background fluorescence in the GFP channel measured for

mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium (no reporter). n=2 independent experiments.

1320

Fig 6. SPI1-associated genes are specifically up-regulated in the epithelial cytosol. (A)

Epithelial cells seeded on coverslips were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring

gfpmut3 transcriptional reporters. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and stained with Hoechst 33342 to

detect DNA. Representative confocal microscopy images show induction of *sicA*, *sopE2*, *sopF*,

siiA and *lpxR* promoters in cytosolic bacteria. PipB is a type III effector translocated by T3SS2

and the P*pipB-gfpmut3* reporter served as a control for vacuole-specific gene induction. Green =

transcriptional reporter, red = *S*. Typhimurium, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 µm. (B)

Quantification of the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of GFP signal in individual bacteria.

Bacteria were designated as being cytosolic (Cyto) or vacuolar (Vac) if residing within cells with

≥100 bacteria or 2-40 bacteria, respectively. Each dot represents one bacterium; solid black line

indicates the mean. Acquisition parameters (acquisition time and gain) were set-up using P*sicA-*

gfpmut3 (the highest GFP intensity) and these same parameters were applied throughout. The

MFI for each bacterium was determine using ImageJ. Dashed lines indicate the range of

background fluorescence in the GFP channel measured for mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium (no

reporter). n=2 independent experiments.

1336

Fig 7. A subset of up-regulated genes is required for optimal proliferation in the cytosol.

(A) Epithelial cells were infected with wild-type (WT) bacteria or the indicated gene deletion

mutants and the proportion of cytosolic bacteria at Fig 6 h p.i. was quantified using the CHQ

resistance assay. n≥5 independent experiments. (B) Epithelial cells seeded on coverslips were

infected with WT bacteria or gene deletion mutant harboring pCHAR-Duo(ASV), a plasmid-borne

dual reporter – constitutive *mCherry* expression is driven by the synthetic ProB promoter and

gfpmut3.1(ASV) (encoding for destabilized GFP) is under the control of the glucose-6-phosphate

responsive *uhpT* promoter from *S*. Typhimurium. The proportion of infected cells at 8 h p.i.

containing only cytosolic (all bacteria are GFP-positive, mCherry-positive), only vacuolar (all

bacteria are GFP-negative, mCherry-positive) or a mixed population (cytosolic and vacuolar) of

bacteria was blindly scored by fluorescence microscopy. n=4 experiments.

1348

Supporting Information

Dataset S1 (separate file). RNA-seq data set. All genes/sRNAs with mapped reads were

reported as TPM and a threshold TPM value of 10 was used as a cut-off to distinguish gene

expression from background. Genes/sRNAs were deemed differentially expressed using fold-

change criteria of ≥1.40 (cytosol up-regulated) and ≤0.71 (vacuole up-regulated) for WTM/EBSS

treatment conditions (cells highlighted in yellow in Tab 1). Statistical significance was assessed

using two independent platforms, Bayesian interference of transcripts from sequencing data

(BitSeq) and rank products (RankProduct). For Bitseq analysis, we arbitrarily set a Probability of

Positive Log Ratio (PPLR) of ≥0.90 for "up cytosol" genes/sRNAs and ≤0.1 for "up vacuole"

genes/sRNAs for statistical significance (cells highlighted in green in Tab 1). For RankProduct

analysis, the cutoff for differentially expressed genes was arbitrarily set to a percentage of false

positive (pfp) value of ≤0.2 (cells highlighted in green in Tab 1) for statistical significance. Tab 2

is the short list of "up cytosol" genes/sRNAs that passed statistical significance. Tab 3 is the

short-list of "up vacuole" genes/sRNAs that passed statistical significance. Expression profiles of

these genes/sRNAs in 22 distinct infection-relevant *in vitro* growth conditions is shown in Tab 2

and Tab 3 (http://bioinf.gen.tcd.ie/cgi-bin/salcom.pl?db=salcom_mac_HL).

1365

1366   **Dataset 2 (separate file).** Custom pathway enrichment analysis of "up cytosol" and "up

1367   vacuole" genes/sRNAs. Tab 1 represents the curated list shown in Figure 2. Tab 2 shows the

1368   starting entire dataset.

1369

Top section - vacuole (blue):

Label	exemplar genes/sRNAs
ΔphoPQ ↓	SPI2, *pipB*, *pgtE*, PinT
ΔssrB ↓	SPI2, *pipB*, *pgtE*, PinT
ΔslyA ↓	SPI2, *pipB*, *pgtE*, PinT
Δfur ↑	*pagM*, *pagO*, *csiD*, STnc3210
Δhfq ↓	PinT, InvS, STnc1480
ΔbarA ΔsirA ↓	*ssaGHIJ*, *steB*, *aroQ*
ΔfliZ ↓	*ssaGHIJ*, *pipB*, *modABC*
ΔompR ΔenvZ ↓	*sdhAB*, *steB*, InvS, PinT
ΔslyA ↑	
Δfur ↓	
ΔrpoS ↓	
ΔphoPQ ↑	
ΔrpoS ↑	*ssaGHIJ*, *sifB*, *sseK3*, CyaR
ΔhilD (ESP) ↓	*ssaGHIJ*, *sopD2*, PinT
ΔhilD (MEP) ↓	
ΔhilD (Smith) ↓	
ΔhilA (Smith) ↓	
ΔhilA ↓	
ΔssrB ↑	
ΔinvF (Smith) ↓	

Top section - cytosol (red):

exemplar genes/sRNAs
sufABCD, *iroBCDE*, STnc3080
sopF, *sopE2*, InvR, RfrA
siiCD, *sipBCDA*, *sopF*, DapZ
siiCD, *sipBCDA*, *sopF*, DapZ
proVW, *sopB*, *sipBCDA*, DapZ
sipBCDA, *siiCD*, *sopB*, InvR
sitABCD, *yjjZ*, *sopF*, STnc3080
sipBCDA, *siiCD*, *sopE2*, *sopB*
siiCD, *sipBCDA*, *sopB*, DapZ
siiCD, *sopE2*, InvR, DapZ
sipBCDA, *siiCD*, *sopF*, *sopB*
sipBCDA, *siiCD*, *sopF*, *sopB*
sipBCDA, *siiCD*, *sopB*, *sopE2*
siiCD, *sipBC*, *sopB*,
sipBCDA, *sopB*, *sopF*

Bottom section - vacuole (blue):

Label	exemplar genes/sRNAs
4/74 Mac ↑	SPI2, *mgtR*, *znuA*, *spvBC*
4/74 InSPI2 ↑	SPI2, *spvBC*, *sifA*, *ssphH2*, PinT
SPI2 + effectors	*sifA*, *pipB*, *ssaL*, *sopD2*
4/74 Low Iron ↑	
4/74 ESP ↑	
Iron transport	
SPI1 + effectors	
4/74 O₂ shock ↑	
ABC transporters (KEGG)	
4/74 LEP ↑	*sucABCD*, *sdhAB*, *yjcGH*
4/74 H₂O₂ shock ↑	
TCA cycle (KEGG)	*sucABCD*, *sdhAB*, *nifJ*
Lysine degradation (KEGG)	*gabDT*, *csiD*, *sucB*, *oat*
Molybdopterin cofactor (GO)	
Molybdate transport (GO)	*modABC*

Bottom section - cytosol (red):

exemplar genes/sRNAs
sitABCD, *sufBCDES*, *iroCDE*, *trpDE*
iroBCDE, *nrdIEF*, *sitABCD*, *yjjZ*
sipBCDA, *sopE2*, InvR, DapZ
iroBCDE, *mntH*, *sitABCD*, *sfbABC*
sopF, *sopB*, *sopE2*, *sopD*
sopB, *sopE2*, *sipBCDA*, *siiCD*
sitABCD, *proVW*, *sfbABC*
sufABC, *ilvC*, *mntH*, *sitA*, RfrA
moaABCE

Number of genes

Figure S1. Enrichment of bacterial RNA from infected cells. Total RNA was extracted from HeLa epithelial cells (HeLa), wild-type *S*. Typhimurium SL1344 grown to late log-phase (STm), *S*. Typhimurium isolated from Earle's balance salt solution (EBSS)-treated cells at 8 h p.i. or *S*. Typhimurium isolated from wortmannin (WTM)-treated cells at 8 h p.i. RNA quality was analyzed by electrophoretic separation using an Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100. Ladder sizes shown in kb.

Figure S2. Relative expression of the different PAIs of *S*. Typhimurium. Each arrow represents an individual gene to scale within each PAI. The different islands are also scaled against each other. The color of each arrow represents relative gene expression – red arrows depict genes up-regulated in the cytosol (≥1.40-fold change WTM/EBSS), blue are genes up-regulated in the vacuole (≤0.71-fold change WTM/EBSS), yellow are genes with unchanged expression (0.72-1.39-fold change) and grey arrows are genes with a TPM value <10 and considered not expressed. See Dataset S1 for the entire data set. Adapted from Srikumar et al. (41)

Figure S3. Additional iron-associated genes/sRNAs that are cytosol-specific. Epithelial cells were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring *gfpmut3* transcriptional reporters. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and stained with Hoechst 33342 to detect DNA. Representative confocal microscopy images show induction of *mntH*, *entC*, SL3990, STnc3250, *fhuE*, SL1802, *iroN*, *fepB*, *fepA* and *fhuA* promoters in cytosolic bacteria. Green = transcriptional reporter, red = *S*. Typhimurium, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 μm.

Figure S4. The common metal regulator of cytosol-specific gene/sRNA transcription is iron. (A). GFP fluorescence in mCherry-*S.* Typhimurium harboring P*iroN-gfpmut3*, P*sitA-gfpmut3*, P*yjjZ-gfpmut3*, P*sufA-gfpmut3*, P*fepA-gfpmut3* or P*STnc3250-gfpmut3* reporter plasmids. Bacteria were grown shaking overnight at 37°C for 16 h in M9-supplemented media containing increasing concentrations of CoCl$_2$, FeCl$_3$, MnCl$_2$, NiCl$_2$ or ZnCl$_2$ (0.1 µM, 1 µM, 10 µM or 100 µM). No added cation (0) served as the control. The relative fluorescence units (RFU) were normalized to OD$_{600}$ and expressed as a percentage of control. Background GFP fluorescence of mCherry-*S.* Typhimurium (no reporter) was subtracted from all values. n≥3 independent experiments. (B) GFP fluorescence in mCherry-*S.* Typhimurium harboring P*zinT-gfpmut3* or P*mgtC-gfpmut3* plasmids. Growth and analysis of *zinT* expression was as described in (A).Standard M9 minimal media contains 1 mM MgSO$_4$ which completely represses *mgtC* expression. The effect of Mg^{2+} concentration on *mgtC* expression was therefore assessed in M9-supplemented media containing decreasing amounts of MgSO$_4$ i.e. 1000 µM (standard), 100 µM and 10 µM. Mg^{2+} concentrations lower than 10 µM considerably impacted bacterial growth. n=3 independent experiments.

Figure S5. Cytosolic bacteria produce SiiE. Epithelial cells seeded on coverslips were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring a P*siiA-gfpmut3* transcriptional reporter. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and immunostained with polyclonal antibodies directed against SiiE. DNA was stained with Hoechst 33342. Representative confocal microscopy images show SiiE attached to (upper panel) or secreted by (lower panel) cytosolic bacteria. Inset shows enlargement of boxed area. Green = P*siiA-gfpmut3* reporter, red = *S*. Typhimurium, white = SiiE, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 µm.

Figure S6. RNA-seq-predicted genes/sRNAs that were not confirmed by transcriptional reporters. Epithelial cells seeded on coverslips were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring *gfpmut3* transcriptional reporters. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and stained with Hoechst 33342 to detect DNA. Representative confocal microscopy images show equivalent expression of *asnA*, *ilvC*, *mtr*, *proV*, SL1344_2715, *ygbA*, STnc4000 and *trpE* promoters in vacuolar and cytosolic bacteria. Green = transcriptional reporter, red = *S*. Typhimurium, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 µm.

Figure S7. Identification of additional *S*. Typhimurium genes that are up-regulated in the epithelial cytosol.
Upper panels: Epithelial cells seeded on coverslips were infected with mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium harboring *gfpmut3* transcriptional reporters. At 8 h p.i., cells were fixed and stained with Hoechst 33342 to detect DNA. Representative confocal microscopy images show induction of *uhpT, cysP*, *soxS* and *sfbA* promoters in cytosolic bacteria.
Green = transcriptional reporter, red = S. Typhimurium, blue = DNA. Scale bars are 10 µm.
Lower panel: Quantification of the MFI of GFP signal in individual bacteria. Bacteria were designated as being cytosolic (Cyto) or vacuolar (Vac) if residing within cells with ≥100 bacteria or 2-40 bacteria, respectively. Each dot represents one bacterium; the solid black line indicates the mean. Acquisition parameters (acquisition time and gain) were set-up using P*cysP-gfpmut3* (the highest GFP signal intensity) and these same parameters were applied throughout. The MFI for each bacterium was determine using ImageJ. Dashed lines indicate the range of background fluorescence in the GFP channel measured for mCherry-*S*. Typhimurium (no reporter). n=2 independent experiments.