From vacuole to cytosol – Disruptive invasion triggers cytosolic release of
***Salmonella* Paratyphi A and subsequent cytosolic motility favors evasion of**
xenophagy

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Abstract

Salmonella enterica is a common foodborne, facultative intracellular enteropathogen. Typhoidal *S. enterica* serovars like Paratyphi A (SPA) are human restricted and cause a severe systemic disease, while many *S. enterica* serovars like Typhimurium (STM) have broad host range, and in human hosts usually lead to self-limiting gastroenteritis. There are key differences between typhoidal and non-typhoidal *Salmonella* in pathogenesis, but underlying mechanisms remain largely unknown. Several genes encoding *Salmonella* pathogenicity island (SPI) effector proteins are absent or pseudogenes in SPA. Expression of virulence and metabolism genes show differential expression compared to STM. The intracellular transcriptomic architecture and phenotypes during presence in epithelial cells were recently described. Surprisingly, induction of motility, flagella and chemotaxis genes showed distinct expression patterns in intracellular SPA vs. STM and led to cytosolic motility of SPA. This study applies single cell microscopic analyses approaches to investigate the triggers and cellular consequences of cytosolic motility. Live cell imaging (LCI) revealed that SPA invades host cells in a highly cooperative manner. Extensive membrane ruffling at the invasion site leads to increased membrane damage in the nascent SCV with subsequent cytosolic release. After release into the cytosol, motile bacteria showed same velocity as under culture conditions used for infection. Reduced capture of SPA by autophagosomal membranes was observed by LCI and electron microscopy. Our results reveal flagella-mediated cytosolic motility as possible xenophagy evasion mechanism that could drive disease progression and contributes to dissemination of invasion-primed SPA during systemic infection.

Importance

Intracellular pathogens are commonly adapted to life in host cells either in a pathogen-containing

vacuole, or free in host cell cytosol. However, transitions between these lifestyles are possible and

demand specific adaptations, especially to avoid recognition and killing by host cell-autonomous

immune defense. *Salmonella enterica* serovar Paratyphi A (SPA) belongs to typhoidal *Salmonella*

able to cause live-threatening systemic infections in human hosts. We observed that SPA invades

host cells in a way that often results in damage of the nascent vacuole and release of SPA in host

cell cytosol. Here, SPA deploy flagella-mediated motility for rapid locomotion within infected

cells. We demonstrate on single cell level that flagella-mediated motility enables evasion of

xenophagic capture and control by the host cells. SPA uses a novel form of intracellular motility

to successfully colonize human host cells.

Introduction

Life inside mammalian host cells is a common virulence strategy of microbial pathogens and

various forms of adaptation to life within host cell cytosol or pathogen-containing vacuoles (PCV),

as well as exit strategies from host cells occur.

Salmonella enterica is a ubiquitous, invasive and facultative intracellular pathogen. Oral uptake of

S. enterica by contaminated food or water causes infectious diseases ranging from self-limiting

gastroenteritis to systemic infections with often fatal outcome (Dougan & Baker, 2014). While

non-typhoidal *Salmonella* (NTS) serovars, such as *S. enterica* serovar Typhimurium (STM) often

have broad host range, typhoidal *Salmonella* (TS) serovars such as *S*. Typhi (STY) or *S*. Paratyphi

A (SPA) are characterized by adaptation to primate hosts in which typhoid or paratyphoid fever

are important systemic diseases. The strict host adaptation limits studies of virulence mechanism

of TS, and frequently infection models of STM in susceptible mouse strains are used as surrogate

to investigate systemic *Salmonella* infections. However, SPA, STY and other TS are distinct from

NTS by presence of increased accumulation of pseudogenes (Holt et al., 2009; McClelland et al.,

2004), additional virulence factors as Vi capsule (STY) or typhoid toxin (STY, SPA), and distinct

regulation of expression of virulence functions (Cohen et al., 2022; Reuter et al., 2021).

Both NTS and TS invade non-phagocytic mammalian cells, such as epithelial cells, by trigger

invasion mediated by translocation of effector proteins by the *Salmonella* pathogenicity island 1

(SPI1)-encoded type III secretion system (T3SS). Host cell invasion is considered to initiate the

intracellular lifestyle of *Salmonella*, and allows to breach epithelial barriers. Translocation of SPI1-

T3SS effector proteins also evokes strong proinflammatory responses of epithelial cells, leading to

intestinal inflammation, a hallmark of gastroenteritis by NTS. While SPI1-T3SS also mediates

invasion by SPA and STY, intestinal inflammation usually is absent and other routes of entry

appear to be used to breach epithelial barriers of the intestines in order to reach systemic sites

(reviewed in Dougan & Baker, 2014).

Compiling data on the intracellular lifestyle in mammalian host cells reveal that STM is well-

adapted to life in specific PCV, referred to as *Salmonella*-containing vacuole, or SCV. The SCV

possesses canonical markers of late endosomal compartments, yet allows STM survival and

proliferation. The manipulation of the host cell endosomal system mainly mediated by effector

proteins of the SPI2-encoded T3SS is central to SCV formation and maintenance (Jennings et al.,

2017).

In addition to survival and proliferation in the SCV, further intracellular fates of STM are observed.

If the integrity of the SCV is not maintained, STM is exposed to host cell cytosol. This may evoke

xenophagic clearance, induce pyroptotic cell death, or may lead to cytosolic hyper-replication

resulting in release of highly infected enterocytes as observed for STM (Brumell et al., 2002;

Knodler et al., 2010).

In an approach to understand specific virulence mechanisms of TS, a comprehensive comparative

transcriptional analyses of intracellular STM and SPA was performed (Cohen et al., 2022). The

data revealed various differences in expression of metabolic functions and distinct patterns of

expression of flagella genes. We followed potential phenotypic consequences of the distinct

expression patterns and observed that a subpopulation of intracellular SPA expresses flagella and

is motile in host cell cytosol. Such flagella-mediated cytosolic motility was not observed for STM

present in host cell cytosol, and clearly is distinct from intracellular motility evolved by other

pathogens, where host cell actin polymerization is hijacked by various surface proteins.

Here we set out to analyze why SPA is released into cytosol, and how host cells respond to

intracellular motile SPA. In contrast to intracellular motility mediated by actin polymerization

(reviewed in Dowd et al., 2021), intracellular motility of SPA did not allow intercellular spread.

However, flagella-mediated motility enables SPA to avoid xenophagic clearance, as prerequisite

of host cell exit of invasion-primed motile SPA.

Results

Early escape to host cell cytosol depends on invasion mechanism of SPA

Although STM and SPA belong to the same species, the disease they cause in humans is very

different ranging from a self-limiting gastroenteritis in case of STM infection, to severe systemic

disease with potentially lethal outcome caused by SPA. We recently compared the intracellular

gene expression profiles of STM and SPA during infection and identified differences in the

expression of flagella/chemotaxis, SPI1, and carbon utilization pathways, and demonstrated

flagella-mediated movement of SPA in cytosol of host cell (Cohen et al., 2022). Flagella-mediated

motility was not observed for intracellular STM, despite a small proportion of STM also enters

host cell cytosol.

To further investigate phenotypic heterogeneity of intracellular SPA, we performed live cell

imaging (LCI) of infected LAMP1-GFP expressing HeLa cells, and compared SPA WT to isogenic

mutant strains deficient in flagella synthesis (Δ*fliC*), torque generation (Δ*motAB*), or certain

effector proteins of SPI1-T3SS (Δ*sopE*, Δ*sopE2*) or SPI2-T3SS (Δ*sifA*) crucial for early and late

SCV integrity. Furthermore, a SPA strain with a synthetic zipper invasion mechanism was

investigated, i.e. SPA Δ*invA* [P$_{invF}$::*Y.p. inv*] with defective SPI1-T3SS and *Yersinia*

pseudotuberculosis (*Y.p.*) Invasin protein Inv synthesized under control of SPI1 promoter P$_{invF}$.

We quantified the intracellular phenotypes in categories of 'cytosolic motile' and 'cytosolic non-

motile', while 'other' includes SPA residing in an SCV or showing cytosolic hyper-replication

(**Fig. 1**). In line with previous findings (Cohen et al., 2022), in about 38% of SPA WT-infected

host cells harbored cytosolic SPA exhibiting intracellular motility, while in 5% of infected cells

cytosolic SPA WT were non-motile (**Fig. 1AB**). SPA mutant strains with defects in maintaining

SCV integrity (Δ*sifA*), or lacking SPI1-T3SS effectors (Δ*sopE*, Δ*sopE2*) showed similar results of

phenotypes with cytosolic motile SPA Δ*sopE*, Δ*sopE2,* or Δ*sifA* in 30%, 39%, or 40 % of infected

cells, respectively. This population was absent in cells infected with non-motile mutant strains

lacking the flagella filament subunit FliC (**Fig. 1A** and **Fig. 1C**), or defective in energizing flagella

rotation ($\Delta motAB$), similar to cells exposed to the antibiotics cefotaxime and ciprofloxacin

affecting bacterial cell wall synthesis and DNA replication during infection. Because $\Delta motAB$ and

$\Delta fliC$ strains are non-motile, we also tested if motility during invasion may affect intracellular

phenotypes. For this, expression of *motAB* was placed under control of promoter P_{tetA}, and induced

by addition of anhydrotetracycline (AHT) (Schulte et al., 2019). We induced expression of *motAB*

with AHT in bacterial culture and omitted AHT during infection and the following incubation time

to avert motility in infected HeLa cells. SPA $\Delta motAB$ [$P_{tetA}::motAB$] showed increased invasion

compared to $\Delta motAB$ (**Fig. S 4**), but also completely lacked the cytosolic motile subpopulation.

Further, we set out to evaluate the contribution of the mode of invasion to cytosolic release and

subsequent intracellular motility using mutant strain $\Delta invA$ incapable of translocation of trigger

invasion-mediating SPI1-T3SS effectors. We introduced a plasmid for expression of *Y.p. inv* under

control of SPI1 promoter P_{invF}, allowing expression under similar conditions as the SPI1-T3SS,

and therefore conferring zipper invasion to SPA. Interestingly, for this strain the subpopulation of

cytosolic motile bacteria was highly reduced to 1% of infected cells, the cytosolic subpopulation

was almost absent (5%), and SPA predominantly residing in SCV (**Fig. 1A** and **Fig. 1D**). These

data confirm previously data stating trigger invasion as driving force for cytosolic release (Röder

& Hensel, 2020).

Cooperative trigger invasion of SPA leads to increased membrane damage of SCV

It was previously described that the mode of trigger invasion and also strain-specific equipment

with SPI1-T3SS effectors affect cytosolic release following host cell entry and that trigger invasion

is often cooperative between *Salmonella* (Lorkowski et al., 2014; Röder & Hensel, 2020). We set

out to investigate membrane ruffling during invasion by LCI of different STM serovars and SPA

WT as well as SPA invading through zipper mechanism (**Fig. 2**, **Fig. S 1, Movie 1, Movie 2, Movie**

3, Movie 4). We observed rather small membrane ruffling for STM NCTC 12023 (**Fig. 2A**, **Fig. S**

1, Movie 1) and more extensive membrane ruffling for STM SL1344 (**Fig. 2B**, **Fig. S 1, Movie 2**).

Prolonged and extensive membrane ruffling of a larger cell area was observed for SPA WT (**Fig.**

2C, **Fig. S 1, Movie 3**). SPA Δ*invA* [P$_{invF}$ *Y.p. inv*] showed lowest actin rearrangement at the

invasion site (**Fig. 2D**, **Fig. S 1, Movie 4**). Image analysis of foci of invasion indicated that STM

NCTC 12023 entry occurs mostly by single bacteria at invasion sites (mean = 1.6 STM cells per

site), whereas during the invasion of STM SL1344 multiple bacteria were involved in the process

(mean = 3.2 STM cells per site). SPA WT showed highest accumulation of bacteria at sites of

membrane rearrangement (mean = 7.3 SPA cells per site), but numbers were far lower when SPA

invaded through zipper mechanism (mean = 2.1 SPA cells per site).

Trigger invasion enhances membrane damage at nascent SCVs

Previous work revealed that the SCV is prone to rupture, and damages compartments are targeted

by membrane damage sensors and repair mechanisms such as galectins, sphingomyelinases, or the

ESCRT machinery (Ellison et al., 2020; Göser et al., 2020; Paz et al., 2010; Thurston et al., 2012).

We used an engineered version of equinatoxin II (EqtSM) as rapid membrane damage reporter that

is binding cytosol-exposed sphingomyelin in damages endosomal membranes (Deng et al., 2016;

Niekamp et al., 2022). HeLa cells expressing Halo-tagged EqtSM were infected by SPA WT or

SPA Δ*invA* [P$_{invF}$::*Y.p. inv*] to assess contribution of invasion mechanism to membrane damage of

the nascent SCV (**Fig 3**). LCI revealed that trigger invasion by SPA WT led to 45% of SCV positive

for EqtSM indicating transient membrane damage, while only 14% of SCV were EqtSM-positive

if SPA invaded through zipper mechanism (**Fig 3D**). The results underline the critical role of entry

mechanism for SCV integrity, and for subsequent intracellular lifestyle of *Salmonella*.

Motility of cytosolic SPA interferes with xenophagic clearance

A subset of intracellular pathogens such as *Listeria monocytogenes* (*L.m.*) or *Shigella flexneri* actively escape the early PCV. As the host cell cytosol is a hostile environment for cytosolic bacteria, e.g. due to recognition and clearance by cell-autonomous defense mechanism such as the autophagosomal machinery, these pathogens evolved sophisticated defense mechanisms to avoid decoration and degradation by expression of proteins interfering and inhibiting xenophagy. Such mechanisms have not been reported for cytosolic *Salmonella*. An event preceding autophagic clearance of cytosolic bacteria is ubiquitylation of their surface structures, such as LPS (Otten et al., 2021). We also observed ubiquitylation of SPA located in host cell cytosol (**Fig. S 2**), and analyzed if subsequent xenophagic clearance occurs. Alternatively, we hypothesized that cytosolic motility of SPA may possibly interfere with xenophagy. To investigate on single cell level the capture of SPA by autophagosomal membranes, we deployed late-autophagosomal membrane protein LC3B as marker, generated a HeLa line stably expressing LC3B-GFP, and used this cell line for infection by SPA and LCI. Individual intracellular SPA were scored for motility and association with LC3B-positive membranes (**Fig. 4**, **Movie 5**, **Movie 6**). We compared SPA WT to SPA Δ*motAB* [P*tetA*::*motAB*] (motile during infection, but no intracellular motility), and SPA WT treated with cefotaxime and ciprofloxacin (non-motile and non-replicative) regarding levels of LC3B decoration. SPA-infected cells showed heterogenous populations as representative images in **Fig. 4D-F** illustrate. The number of bacteria and also the degree of LC3B decoration varied from cell to cell (**Fig. 4D-F**, **Movie 5**, **Movie 6**).

Image analysis of more than 170 infected cells with over 1,200 bacteria per condition (**Fig. 4A**, **Fig. 4B**) revealed that residing in SCV efficiently avoids LC3B decoration for all strains (4.5% LC3B-positive SPA WT, 5.7% LC3B-positive SPA Δ*motAB* [P*tetA*::*motAB*]), with the highest rate of LC3B decoration observed in cefo/cipro-treated SPA WT (9% LC3B-positive, **Fig. 4C**),

possibly due to failure of maintaining SCV integrity due to antibiotics treatment. However, the

cytosolic populations of the respective strains showed significant differences regarding LC3B

decoration. The enteric cytosolic population of SPA WT showed about 41.5% LC3B-positive

bacteria, whereas cytosolic populations of SPA Δ*motAB* [P*tetA*::*motAB*], and SPA WT + cefo/cipro

both showed a high frequency of LC3B decoration (70.6%, 79.7%, respectively, **Fig. 4C**). We next

dissected the cytosolic population into groups of non-motile SPA and motile SPA to analyze effects

of motility on xenophagic escape. Surprisingly, SPA WT showed a high frequency of LC3B

decoration for the non-motile subpopulation (87.7%), but low frequency for the motile

subpopulation (18.6%). In contrast, the motile fraction was almost absent for SPA Δ*motAB*

[P*tetA*::*motAB*] and SPA WT + cefo/cipro strains with only 31 and 8 counted bacteria, respectively

(**Fig. 4B**). Thus, the frequency of LC3B decoration of the cytosolic population of these strains

reflects that of the non-motile fraction with 71.1% and 80.2%, respectively. We conclude that

cytosolic motility is a major factor for xenophagic escape of SPA.

To further investigate the heterogenous fate of individual intracellular SPA subpopulations,

correlative light and electron microscopy (CLEM) analyses were performed to reveal ultrastructure

and membrane association (

Fig. 5). Light microscopy allowed identification of cytosolic motile and non-motile, as well as

SCV-bound SPA for subsequent analyses by transmission electron microscopy (TEM). Whereas

cytosolic motile SPA showed no contact to membranous structures, we observed SCV harboring

SPA with distinct single membrane compartment in close contact to the bacterial envelope (

Fig. 5D, E). Cytosolic non-motile SPA showed association with LC3B-positive membranes (

Fig. 5F). The LC3B signal correlated double membrane structures characteristic for

autophagosomes. We also detected SPA that were partially enclosed by LC3B-positive

membranes, indicating either ongoing autophagosomal capture, or futile xenophagy.

Increasing LC3B decoration hinders motility of cytosolic SPA

For many bacteria of various cell shapes, flagellar rotation provides force for locomotion in their

habitat. The rotation of one or multiple flagellar filaments is thereby mediating phases of straight

swimming, alternating with phases of tumbling allowing orientation in chemical gradients. We set

out to investigate the maximum velocity of flagella-mediated movement of cytosolic SPA. As

previously demonstrated for multiple other bacteria, swimming speed is dependent on type of

flagellation and rotation speed of the flagellum (reviewed in Wadhwa & Berg, 2022). First, we

compared maximum velocity during different growth conditions in LB medium (**Fig. 6A**). SPA

cultures grown under aerobic conditions showed a median maximum velocity of 11 µm s^{-1} when

grown overnight and 42 µm s^{-1} when grown for 3.5 h while SPI1-inducing microaerophilic

conditions led to a median maximum velocity of 26 µm s^{-1}. Other intracellular pathogens such as

L.m. utilize actin polymerization to energize locomotion in host cell cytosol. We observed median

maximum velocity of cytosolic *L.m.* of 0.5 µm s^{-1} (**Fig. 6**B) which was within the range of

previously published data (Lacayo & Theriot, 2004). In contrast, cytosolic SPA were able to move

almost as fast as SPA grown in media under microaerophilic conditions (25 µm s^{-1}; **Fig. 6C**).

As described above, a subpopulation of LC3B-decorated SPA was still able of movement (**Fig. 4**,

Movie 5, **Movie 6**). We hypothesized that increased autophagosomal capture delimits intracellular

motility of SPA, or in turn, intracellular motility prevents autophagosomal capture. To test these

possible correlations, we determined the signal intensity of SPA-associated LC3B-GFP as proxy

of degree of autophagosomal capture of individual SPA, and determined by tracking of the same

cytosolic SPA cells the maximum velocity (Fig. 6**D**, Fig. S 3). Plotting LC3B-GFP signal intensity

vs. maximal velocity of individual SPA indicated that velocity decreases with increasing

association with autophagosomal membranes. Linear regression with principal component analysis

showed a negative slope (y=-19.5x + 21.9) with maximum velocity, dropping to <5 µm s^{-1} at a

relative LC3B-GFP fluorescence of 0.86 which reflects an almost complete enclosure of SPA. We

conclude that flagella-mediated cytosolic motility of SPA counteracts host cell xenophagy.

Discussion

Our study investigated the causes of the recently described cytosolic motility of SPA (Cohen et al., 2022) and its contributions to intracellular lifestyle. We demonstrated that mode of invasion and equipment with SPI1-T3SS effector proteins is substantial for membrane damage at the nascent SCV membrane and cytosolic release in early stage of infection. Furthermore, we showed that non-motile SPA are targeted by autophagosomal membranes, However, the population of cytosolic motile SPA is able to delay or escape xenophagic clearance as infection progresses. Our work adds flagella-mediated motility of intracellular bacteria to the mechanisms of evasion of host cell xenophagy.

The main findings of this study are summarized in **Fig 7**. We propose that release of SPA into cytosol occurs early after invasion, and is likely due to the inability to generate a stable nascent SCV (**Fig 7E**). We frequently observed clusters of invading SPA that induce high levels of local actin recruitment, and extensive membrane ruffles. Such events likely lead to incomplete SCV formation, and may allow clusters of bacteria to directly enter cytosol. This early exit from a labile nascent SCV occurs so rapid that the transcriptional profile cannot be adjusted to the SCV-specific repression of SPI1 and flagella regulons. We propose that a large proportion of intracellular SPA maintains the transcriptional profile of invading bacteria. This hypothesis may be tested by labelling of flagella, infection, and live cell imaging to follow the fate of flagella on SPA single cells after invasion.

SPA possesses both SopE and SopE2. We previously demonstrated that STM harboring SopE2 and SopE induce more severe membrane ruffles compared to the majority of STM strains only harboring SopE2 (Röder & Hensel, 2020). The more overt trigger invasion by SopE-positive STM was associated with increased cytosolic release, also occurring early after invasion. This may be similar to damage of nascent SCV induced by SPA. However, we did not observe flagella-mediated

intracellular motility of SopE/SopE2-positive STM SL1344 (Cohen et al., 2022), indicating further

differences between STM and SPA. SPA possesses functional *sopE* and *sopE2*, while STY strains

possess functional *sopE* and pseudogenic *sopE2* (Valenzuela et al., 2015), thus damage of nascent

SCV after invasion of STY may be less pronounced compared to SPA.

A further factor possible contributing to decreased stability of the nascent SCV is the altered

function of SptP, a SPI1-T3SS effector protein with activity antagonistic to SopE. Prior work

showed that host cells fail to restore normal actin cytoskeleton organization when SptP is defective

and SopE activity overrules (Kubori & Galan, 2003). Recent work by Johnson *et al*. (Johnson et

al., 2017) demonstrated that SptP in STY and SPA have several AA exchanges that affect the

binding of chaperone SicP, and by this the efficiency of translocation.

Virtually all intracellular bacterial or parasitic pathogens adapted to cytosolic lifestyle have

convergently evolved mechanisms to recruit host cell G-actin for polar polymerization to F-actin,

resulting in actin-based motility (ABM) (reviewed in Dowd et al., 2021). ABM enables cell-to-cell

spread, and thus enables infection of new host cells without demanding exit and exposure to

antimicrobial mechanisms acting on extracellular bacteria. We did not observe intercellular spread

of SPA. While ABM is slower compared to flagella-mediated cytosolic motility of SPA, the higher

force generated by actin polymerization leads to generation of membrane protrusions and

ultimately to intercellular spread. Furthermore, switching between swimming and tumbling

motility restricts generation of membrane protrusions that are productive in infection of

neighboring cells. Yet, we have to consider that the applied model of confluently cultured non-

polarized epithelial cells may not reflect host cell types relevant during infection of human hosts

as main host cells of SPA are phagocytic cells, leading to dissemination through the lymphatic

system and further colonization of internal organs such as the liver, spleen, bone marrow and gall

bladder. Motility of SPA inside phagocytic cell line U937 has only been observed in spacious

vacuoles rather than in the cytosol of host cells (Cohen et al., 2022), probably because presence of

bacteria in cytosol of phagocytic cells most likely results in inflammatory cell death, so-called

pyroptosis (Castanheira & Garcia-Del Portillo, 2017). Similar observations were made for STM in

gallbladder epithelium (Knodler et al., 2010). In contrast to STM, SPA shows a lower replication

rate in host cells (Reuter et al., 2021). Defects in metabolic utilization of nutrients in host cell

cytosol such as glucose-6-phosphate and amino acids, and low SPI2-mediated replication inside

SCV may contribute to reduced replication numbers of intracellular SPA (Cohen et al., 2022; Forest

et al., 2010; Holt et al., 2009).

The cytosolic presence of pathogens such as *L. monocytogenes* or *S. flexneri* induce host cell-

intrinsic defense mechanisms, resulting in ubiquitination and xenophagy. Xenophagy is partially

avoided by ABM (Yoshikawa et al., 2009), but additional mechanisms appear required to

efficiently avoid autophagosomal degradation. These include the T3SS effector protein IcsB of *S.*

flexneri (Ogawa et al., 2005) with an acyltransferase activity affecting small GTPases and

membrane fusion machinery (Liu et al., 2018), or secreted Listeriolysin O and phospholipases of

L. monocytogenes targeting autophagosomal membranes (Birmingham et al., 2007). For SPA, the

high speed of flagella-mediated motility is sufficient to enable protection of a subpopulation of

cytosolic SPA against xenophagy (**Fig 7F**). Xenophagic clearance of cytosolic SPA is likely an

arms race between host cell and pathogen. If the autophagosomal machinery is rapidly delivered

to SPA and its flagella filament, motility is stopped and autophagy can be completed before SPA

motility and proliferation initiates (**Fig 7G**). The mode of trigger invasion by clusters of SPA, and

resulting simultaneous cytosolic presence of several SPA cells likely contributes to rapid

exhaustion of xenophagic capacity of the host cell, and inability to control SPA proliferation.

We showed that the cytosolic population is escaping xenophagic clearance by flagella-based

motility. Motile bacteria showed same maximum velocity in host cell cytosol as in culture media,

interfering with decoration by autophagosomal membranes, although cytosolic bacteria are already

ubiquitylated. If decoration by LC3B-positive membranes is only delayed to late time points of

infection and if this also leads to lysosomal degradation of engulfed bacteria deserves further

investigation. For several *Yersinia* strains it was reported that degradation by fusion with lysosomes

is inhibited and *Yersinia* is able to replicate in a non-acidic autophagosome (Connor et al., 2018;

Lemarignier & Pizarro-Cerda, 2020; Moreau et al., 2010; Straley & Harmon, 1984). Further

investigations assessing acidification of LC3B-positive compartments and interfering with

autophagosome formation using Lysotracker, siRNA approaches, and autophagy inhibitors such as

3-MA in combination with replication assays could help to understand the host-pathogen

interactions in SPA in more detail.

During systemic infections by TS induction of massive inflammatory response due to bacteria-

induced extrusion of infected cells which and not observed ad this is considered to contribute to

stealth strategy of TS (reviewed in Dougan & Baker, 2014; Hiyoshi, Tiffany, et al., 2018). Certain

features of immune evasion, such as avoidance of neutrophil oxidative burst have convergently

evolved, i.e. by expression of Vi capsule (STY) or the very long O-antigen of LPS (SPA) (Hiyoshi,

Wangdi, et al., 2018). Flagella-mediated intracellular motility has not been reported for STY, and

we did not observe increased numbers of cytosolic STY, nor detected flagella expressed by

intracellular STY. Functional flagella are expressed by intracellular *Legionella pneumophila*

during transition from the replicative to non-replicative, transmissive forms, and a recent study

showed that flagellated subpopulations emerge in the *Legionella*-containing vacuole (Schell et al.,

2016; Striednig et al., 2021). This transition occurs at the end of the intracellular replication cycle,

and stimulates host cell pyroptotic death, and release of *L. pneumophila* for new rounds of host cell

infection (Schell et al., 2016). We did not observe induction of host cell death by cytosolic motile

SPA, but this host cell response is highly cell type dependent. Further understanding of

physiological consequences of intracellular motility of SPA demand analyses in improved infection

models such as organoids of human origin (Sepe et al., 2020) that are capable to simulate tissues

closely related to *in vivo* conditions.

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Materials and Methods

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

In this study, *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium (STM) NCTC 12023, STM SL1344 and

S. enterica serovar Paratyphi A (SPA) 45157 were used as wild-type (WT) strains. All mutant

strains are isogenic to the respective WT and **Table 1** shows the characteristics. STM and SPA

strains were routinely cultured at 37 °C on Luria-Bertani (LB) agar or in LB broth using a roller

drum at 60 rpm. *Listeria monocytogenes* was grown on brain heart infusion (BHI) agar or in BHI

broth using a roller drum at 60 rpm. Antibiotics for maintenance of plasmids listed in **Table 2** were

added to LB in concentrations of 50 µg x ml^{-1} carbenicillin, 50 µg x ml^{-1} kanamycin, or 12 µg x

ml^{-1} chloramphenicol.

Generation of bacterial strains

Isogenic mutant strains were generated by λ Red recombineering for insertion of kanamycin

resistance (*aph*) cassettes amplified from template plasmids pKD4 or pKD13 as described before

(Chakravortty et al., 2002; Datsenko & Wanner, 2000) using oligonucleotides listed in **Table S1**.

Insertion of *aph* cassettes was confirmed by colony PCR. If required, the *aph* cassette was removed

by introduction of pE-FLP for FLP-mediated recombination.

Construction of plasmids

Plasmids were generated by Gibson assembly as described before (Röder et al., 2021; Röder &

Hensel, 2020; Schulte et al., 2019) using oligonucleotides listed in **Table S1**. Plasmids used in this

study are listed in **Table 2** and were introduced into the respective strains by electroporation.

Host cell culture and infection

Host cells were cultured and infected as described previously (Cohen et al., 2021). In short, HeLa

cells (ATCC no. CCL-2) were seeded in surface-treated 8-well chambered coverslips (ibidi) 24 or

48 h prior to infection to reach ~80% confluency (~80,000 cells) and were then used for infection.

Cells were continuously maintained in high glucose (4.5 g x l^{-1}) DMEM (Merck) supplemented

with 10% inactivated fetal calf serum (iFCS, Sigma) at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5%

CO_2. If indicated, cells were pulse-chased with 100 µg x ml^{-1} fluid phase marker Dextran

AlexaFluor 647 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) 16 h prior infection. STM strains for infection

experiments were subcultured from an overnight culture (1:31) in fresh LB medium and grown for

3.5 h at 37 °C under aerobic conditions using a roller drum at 60 rpm. SPA strains for infection

were grown for 8 h under aerobic conditions as described above and subcultured (1:100) in fresh

LB medium and stationary phase subcultures were grown for 16 h under microaerophilic conditions

as described in (Elhadad, Desai, et al., 2015). For infection with *Listeria monocytogenes*, overnight

cultures grown under aerobic conditions were used. Bacteria were adjusted to an optical density of

0.2 at 600 nm in PBS and used for infection with the respective MOI (between 5 and 90, dependent

on strain and experiment). Bacteria were centrifuged onto the cells for 5 min at 500 x *g* to

synchronize infection and incubated for 25 min. After washing thrice with PBS, cells were

incubated in medium containing 100 µg x ml^{-1} of gentamicin to kill extracellular bacteria.

Afterwards, cells were maintained in medium containing 10 µg x ml^{-1} gentamicin until fixation or

LCI. To image invasion of *Salmonella* into HeLa cells, cells were infected directly on microscope

stage and imaged for ~1 h.

Generation of HeLa cells stably expressing LC3B::GFP

HeLa cells stably expressing LC3B-GFP were generated using 3rd generation lentiviral vectors and

subsequent fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) (Broad, 2015; Institute, 2015; TRC, 2015a,

2015b). Supernatant containing lentivirus was generated by seeding 3.8 x 10^5 cells x ml^{-1} HEK

293FT cells (Invitrogen R700-07) in 10 cm tissue culture plates (10 ml per plate, TPP) in antibiotic-

free growth media (high glucose DMEM + 10% iFCS). After 24 h, cells should be 70-80%

confluent and were then transfected with lentiviral packaging plasmid (9 µg psPAX2), envelope

plasmid (0.9 µg pMD2.G) and pLX304 carrying eGFP-LC3B (9 µg) using Opti-MEM (Fisher

Scientific) and FuGENE HD transfection reagent (Promega). Transfection mix was incubated for

30 min at room temperature before added to cells dropwise. Cells were incubated for at least 18 h

and medium was changed to 15 ml growth medium containing 30% iFCS. Medium containing

lentivirus was harvested after 24 h and 48 h and centrifuged at 350 x g for 5 min to pellet any

residual packaging cells. Supernatant was stored in sterile polypropylene storage tubes and stored

at -80 °C. Half of the harvested supernatant was filtered using fast flow & low binding filters

(Merck Millipore).

HeLa cells were seeded in 24-well plates (1 x 10^5 cells x ml^{-1}) and incubated for 24 h before 8 µg

x ml^{-1} Polybrene (Sigma) was added to the cells. Filtered supernatant containing lentivirus was

added to cells 48 h after seeding. 48 h after lentivirus was added to cells, medium was exchanged

to DMEM containing 10 µg x ml^{-1} Blasticidin (Invitrogen) and incubated for 72 h. Medium was

changed to DMEM without antibiotics to allow growth for 24 h before cells were detached for

culture in tissue culture flasks (TPP) to obtain sufficient cells numbers for FACS.

For FACS of lentivirus transfected HeLa cells, cells were detached from tissue culture flask and

resuspended in appropriate amount of medium to reach concentration of 1 x 10^7 cells x ml^{-1}. A 100

µm cell strainer (BD Falcon) was used to prevent aggregation of cells prior to FACS. Cells were

sorted for GFP fluorescence with BD FACS Aria. A mixed population of cells with different GFP

expression levels was obtained. GFP-positive cells were cultured again in tissue culture flasks

before a second round of FACS with Sony SH800S was conducted. Single cells were sorted into

96-well plates to obtain single clones of LC3B-GFP expressing cells. Cell clones were analyzed

regarding GFP intensity, cell division, and phenotypes of intracellular *Salmonella* prior to use in

further experiments.

Live cell imaging (LCI)

Prior to LCI, medium of infected HeLa cells was changed to high glucose DMEM without phenol

red supplemented with 30 mM HEPES. LCI was performed at 37 °C and an atmosphere of 5% CO_2

with Cell Observer microscope (Zeiss) equipped with Yokogawa Spinning Disc Unit CSU

X1a5000, an incubation chamber, 63x objective (α-Plan-Apochromat, NA 1.46) and 40x objective

(Plan-Apochromat, NA 1.4), two ORCA Flash 4.0 V3 cameras (Hamamatsu) and appropriate

filters for the respective fluorescence proteins or dyes.

Correlative light and electron microscopy (CLEM)

CLEM of HeLa LC3B-GFP infected by SPA was performed as previously described (Krieger et

al., 2014). Briefly, HeLa LC3B-GFP cells were grown on MatTek dishes with gridded coverslips.

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and 0.1%

glutaraldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences) in 200 mM HEPES directly on microscope stage

during imaging of cytosolic motile SPA. Cells were incubated for 30 min and were then rinsed

thrice with 200 mM HEPES buffer. Cells were subsequently fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde in

200 mM HEPES for 1 h, washed thrice with buffer and post-fixed with 2% osmium-tetroxide

(Electron Microscopy Sciences), 0.1% ruthenium red (Applichem) and 1.5% potassium

ferrocyanide (Sigma) in 200 mM HEPES on ice. After several washing steps, the cells were

dehydrated in a cold graded series of ethanol and finally one rinse in anhydrous ethanol and two

rinses in anhydrous acetone at room temperature. Infiltration was performed with increasing

concentrations of EPON812 (Sigma) in anhydrous acetone. Utilizing the coordinate system, the

ROI from light microscopy was relocated on the EPON block, trimmed and 70 nm serial sections

were cut with an ultramicrotome (Leica EM UC7, Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) and collected on

formvar-coated copper slot grids (Plano). Grids were post-stained for 30 min with 2% uranyl

acetate (Roth) and 20 min with 3% lead citrate (Leica). TEM images were acquired using a Zeiss

Leo 912 Omega (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany) equipped with a CCD camera (TRS, Moorenwies,

Germany). Overlays of the light and electron microscopic images were generated using LAS AF

(Leica) and Photoshop CS6 (Adobe).

Tracking analyses

For microscopic tracking analyses, bacterial cultures were imaged with Cell Observer microscope

(Zeiss) equipped with 100x objective (α-Plan-Apochromat, NA 1.46) and CoolSNAP camera at

about 8 frames per second (fps) over 1 min. For tracking of intracellular SPA, infected cells were

imaged with Cell Observer microscope (Zeiss) equipped with Yokogawa Spinning Disc Unit CSU

X1a5000, an incubation chamber, 63x objective (α-Plan-Apochromat, NA 1.46), two ORCA Flash

4.0 V3 cameras (Hamamatsu) and appropriate filters for the respective fluorescence proteins at

about 18 fps over 1 min. Tracking analyses were performed in Fiji with TrackMate v5.0.2 plugin

(Tinevez et al., 2017) with minimal displacement threshold of 1 μm. For tracking of intracellular

L.m., infected cells were imaged with setup as described for intracellular SPA at ~0.1 fps over 10-

30 min. Tracking analyses were performed in FIJI with manual tracking plugin.

Analyses of LC3B decoration

For analyses of LC3B-decoration of intracellular SPA, randomly selected infected cells were

imaged 3-4 h p.i. as described above and were analyzed manually regarding LC3B-GFP signal at

SPA cell bodies. 100 μg x ml^{-1} cefotaxime and ciprofloxacin were added 2 h p.i. if indicated.

For correlation of maximum velocity and LC3B decoration of cytosolic SPA, individual bacteria

were analyzed regarding LC3B-GFP fluorescence intensity using ZEISS Efficient Navigation

(ZEN) software. Manual tracking with the same bacteria was performed as described above.

Transfection of HeLa cells with Halo-tagged EqtSM

HeLa cells were maintained and infected as described above. In short, cells were seeded in 8-wells

2 d prior infection. Cells were transfected with Halo-tagged EqtSM expression construct 1 d prior

infection using FuGENE HD in 1:2 ratio. Infected cells were labeled with 100 nM Janelia Fluor

646 HaloTag ligand (Promega, GA1120) for 30 min, washed five times with PBS and subsequently

imaged using the Zeiss Cell Observer SD microscope set-up.

Suppl. Materials and Methods

Immuno-staining and fluorescence microscopy

For immuno-staining of HeLa LAMP1-GFP cells infected by SPA, cells were seeded in 24-well

plates (TPP) on coverslips 24 h or 48 h prior infection to reach ~80% confluency (~180,000 cells).

Cultivation of bacteria and infection of HeLa cells was carried out as described above. Infected

cells were fixed with 3% PFA at the desired time point. After washing thrice with PBS, cells were

incubated in blocking solution (2% goat serum, 2% BSA, 0.1% saponin in PBS) for 30 min. Next,

cells were incubated for 1 h at RT with mouse monoclonal antibodies against Ubiquitin (Biomol

PW 8810). After washing cells thrice with PBS, cells were incubated with primary antibodies

against *Salmonella* O-Antigen of SPA (BD Difco 229471) for 1 h. After washing thrice with PBS,

cells were stained with the appropriate secondary antibodies for 1 h (Invitrogen A11031, Dianova

111-607-003). After three washing steps with PBS, coverslips were mounted with Fluoroshield

(Sigma) and sealed with Entellan (Merck). Microscopy of fixed samples was performed with Leica

SP5 confocal laser-scanning microscope using 100x objective (HCX PL APO CS, NA 1.4-0.7) and

polychroic mirror TD 488/543/633.

Flow cytometry

The assay was performed as described previously (Reuter et al., 2021). Briefly, HeLa cells were

seeded in 12-well plates (TPP) 48 h prior infection to reach confluency (~4 x 10^5 cells per well) on

the day of infection. Cells were infected with STM and SPA cultures at MOI 30 as described above.

The bacterial strains harbored fluorescence reporter plasmids. At 1 h and 3 h p.i., cells were washed

thrice with PBS, detached from culture plates, fixed with 3% PFA and analyzed by flow cytometry

using Attune NxT cytometer. At least 3,000 infected cells were measured and analyzed regarding

expression of fluorescence reporter.

Gentamicin protection assays

The assay was performed as described before (Kuhle & Hensel, 2002). Briefly, HeLa cells were

seeded in 24-well plates (TPP) 48 h prior infection to reach confluency (~2 x 10^5 cells per well) on

the day of infection. Cells were infected with STM and SPA cultures at MOI 5 as described above.

Cells were washed thrice with PBS and lysed using 0.1% Triton X-100 at 1 h and 16 h p.i. Colony

forming units were determined by plating serial dilutions of lysates and inoculum on Mueller-

Hinton II agar and incubated overnight at 37 °C. The percentage of internalized bacteria of the

inoculum (from subcultures) and the replication rate of intracellular bacteria was calculated.

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Tables:

Table 1. Bacterial strains used in this study

Designation	Relevant characteristics	Reference
S. Typhimurium NCTC 12023 (ATCC 14028) (MvP)	wild type, *sopE2*	Lab collection
MvP503	Δ*sifA*::FRT	(Kuhle & Hensel, 2002)
MvP1890	Δ*ssaV*::FRT	(Noster et al., 2019)
MvP2769	Δ*uhpT*::*aph*	This study
MvP2801	Δ*uhpT*::FRT	This study
MvP818	Δ*invC*::FRT	(Gerlach et al., 2008)
S. Typhimurium SL1344	wild type, *sopE*, *sopE2*	Lab collection
S. Paratyphi A 45157 (SPA)	wild type, clinical isolate, Nepal outbreak in 2009	(Gal-Mor et al., 2012)
SPA146	Δ*sopE*::*aph*	This study
SPA147	Δ*sopE2*::*aph*	This study
SPA110	Δ*sifA*::*aph*	(Reuter et al., 2021)
SPA144	Δ*fliC*::FRT	(Cohen et al., 2022)
SPA145	Δ*motAB*::*aph*	This study
SPA *invA*	Δ*invA*::FRT	(Elhadad, McClelland, et al., 2015)
SPA *ssaR*	Δ*ssaR*::FRT	(Reuter et al., 2021)
Listeria monocytogenes EGD	EGDe::pPL2P$_{xyllong}$-Lm RFP	(Studer et al., 2016)

725 **Table 2**. Plasmids used in this study

Designation	Relevant characteristics	Reference
p3589	P$_{rpsM}$::mCherry, Cm^r	(Lorkowski et al., 2014)
pFPV-mCherry	P$_{rpsM}$::mCherry, Carb^r	(Drecktrah et al., 2008)
pKD4	template *aph* cassette	Datsenko and Wanner, 2000
pKD13	template *aph* cassette	Datsenko and Wanner, 2000
pWRG730	Red recombinase expression	(Hoffmann et al., 2017)
pMD2.G	2nd generation lentiviral packaging vector, Carb^r	Addgene #12259
psPAX2	VSV-G envelope expressing vector, Carb^r	Addgene #12260
p3776	P$_{EM7}$::RFP P$_{ssaG}$::sfGFP, Carb^r	(Röder & Hensel, 2020)
p5400	pLX304 eGFP::LC3B, 3rd generation lentivirus vector, Carb^r	This study, based on Addgene #25890
p4114	P$_{invF}$::*Y.p. inv,* Carb^r	(Röder & Hensel, 2020)
p4889	P$_{EM7}$::RFP P$_{uhpT}$::sfGFP, Carb^r	(Röder & Hensel, 2020)
p5212	STM *uhpABCT*, Kan^r	This study
p5387	P$_{EM7}$::mScarlet-I P$_{sopE}$::sfGFP, Carb^r	This study
p5776	EqtSMcyto::HaloTag in pLX304, Carb^r	This study, based on (Niekamp et al., 2022)
p5825	P$_{sopE}$::sfGFP::LVA, Carb^r	This study

p5833	P*invF*::*Y.p. inv* P*EM7*::tagRFP-T, Carb^r	This study
p6159	*tetR* P*tetA*::*motAB*, Carb^r	This study

Figures and figure legends:

Fig. 1. **Quantification of intracellular SPA phenotypes**. **A-E.** HeLa cells stably expressing

LAMP1-GFP (green) were infected with *Salmonella* Paratyphi A (SPA) WT or isogenic mutant

strains expressing mCherry (red) at MOI 30, 60, or 90 for WT, Δ*invA* [P*invF*::*Y.p. inv*], or Δ*fliC*,

Δ*motAB*, respectively. **A.** Quantification of intracellular phenotypes was performed during live cell

imaging. From 4-6 h p.i., at least 100 infected cells per strain were examined for intracellular

phenotypes. Data are means and standard deviations (SD) from three independent experiments.

Statistical analysis was performed with one-way ANOVA and is indicated as n.s., not significant;

*, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$. **B, C.** Time-lapse images of infected HeLa-LAMP1-GFP

cells showing movement of three cytosolic SPA WT (**B**, turquoise, magenta and yellow

arrowhead), no movement of cytosolic SPA Δ*fliC* (**C**, red and blue arrowhead) and SPA Δ*fliC*

residing in SCV (**C**, green arrowheads). **D.** Maximum intensity projection of HeLa-LAMP1-GFP

cells infected with SPA Δ*invA* [P*invF*::*Y.p. inv*] residing in SCV (green arrowheads). Scale bars: 10

μm.

Fig. 2. **SPA induces massive membrane ruffles during trigger invasion, and invades in highly**

cooperative manner. A-D. HeLa cells stably expressing Lifeact-eGFP (green) were infected with

STM NCTC 12023 (**A**), STM SL1344 (**B**), SPA WT (**C**), or SPA Δ*invA* [P*invF*::*Y.p. inv*] (**D**)

expressing mCherry (red) at MOI 75. Cells in chambered coverslips were infected on microscope

stage and imaged for 1 h by spinning disc confocal microscopy with intervals of 3-5 min between

images. Still images from time-lapse are shown. Arrowheads indicate sites of ongoing invasion.

Scale bars: 10 μm. **E.** Image series were assessed for numbers of invading bacteria per ruffle.

Shown are Tukey´s box plots of invading bacteria per ruffle during infection with error bars

including data of 1.5 x interquartile range (IQR). Outliers beyond the 1.5 x IQR are shown as dots.

Middle lines and "+" denote median and mean value, respectively. Compiled from three

independent experiments, 200, 169, 170, and 130 individual invasion events were analyzed for

STM NCTC 12023, STM SL1344, SPA WT, and SPA Δ*invA* [P*invF*::*Y.p. inv*], respectively,.

Statistical analysis compared to SPA WT was performed with unpaired two-tailed t test and is

indicated as *** for p < 0.001.

Fig 3. Trigger invasion by SPA destabilizes nascent SCVs. A. To localize sites of SPA-induced

membrane damage and to quantify the frequency of SCV damage, HeLa cells stably expressing

LAMP1-GFP (**B**) or Lifeact-eGFP (**C**) (green) were transfected for expression of EqtSM-HaloTag

and labeled with Janelia Fluor 646 HaloTag ligand (blue). Subsequently, cells were infected with

SPA WT or SPA Δ*invA* [P$_{invF}$::*Y.p. inv*] expressing mCherry (red). Infected cells were imaged 1-2

h p.i. and representative infected cells are shown as maximum intensity projection. Arrowheads

indicate intact SCVs (green), or SCVs targeted by EqtSM (orange). Scale bars: 10 µm. **D**. SCVs

were scored for association with EqtSM-HaloTag. Data are means and SD from three independent

767   experiments. Statistical analysis was performed with unpaired two-tailed t test and is indicated as

768   * for p < 0.05.

769   SPA   Dextran   LC3B   merge

Fig. 4. Cytosolic non-motile SPA are targeted by autophagosomal membranes. A-C. HeLa

cells stably expressing LC3B-GFP (green) were pulse-chased with Dextran-Alexa647 (blue) and

infected with SPA WT or SPA Δ*motAB* [P*tetA*::*motAB*] expressing mCherry (red) at MOI 30. 100

μg x ml^{-1} cefotaxime and ciprofloxacin were added to infected cells at 2 h p.i. if indicated. At 3-4

h p.i., randomly selected cells were imaged and later assessed for SPA associated with LC3B-

positive membranes. **A, B.** Total counts of SPA with (dashed bars) or without (bars) LC3B

decoration, compiled from three independent experiments. **B.** Cytosolic SPA quantified in **A** were

further scored as motile or non-motile, and assessed for LC3B decoration. **C.** Percentage of SPA

targeted by LC3B-containing membranes calculated from data shown in **A** and **B**. Data are means

and SD of 195 infected cells with 2,450 bacteria for WT, 171 infected cells with 3,360 bacteria for

Δ*motAB* [P*tetA*::*motAB*], and 215 infected cells with 1,291 bacteria for WT + cefo/cipro from three

independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed with one-way ANOVA and is

indicated as n.s., not significant; *, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$. **D-F.** Representative

images showing subpopulations in SPA-infected cells. Arrowheads indicate SPA residing in SCV

(blue), cytosolic SPA (red), LC3B-decorated SPA (yellow). Images are shown as single Z-plane

from stack (**D**) or as maximum intensity projection (**E, F**). Scale bars: 10 μm.

Fig. 5. Various degrees of xenophagic capture of distinct subpopulations of intracellular SPA.

HeLa cells expressing LC3B-GFP (green) were pulse-chased with Dextran-Alexa647 (blue) and

infected with SPA WT expressing mCherry (red) at MOI 30. Cells were fixed 4 h p.i. during LCI

(**A**), and subsequently processed for transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of ultrathin sections.

LCI and TEM images were superimposed for correlation (**D**) and details are shown at higher

magnification (**E**, **F**). Arrowheads indicate SPA residing in SCV (blue), cytosolic SPA (red) and

SPA targeted by LC3B-positive autophagosomal membrane (yellow). Partial enclosure by

autophagosomal membranes is indicated by green arrowheads. Scale bars: 10 µm (**A**, **B**), 5 µm (**C**,

D), 1 µm (**E**), 500 nm (**F**).

Fig. 6. Xenophagic capture reduces velocity of intracellular motile SPA. Single bacterial cells

after culture in broth media (**A**), or within infected host cells (**B**, **C**) were registered by LCI.

Subsequently, bacterial motility was analyzed by automated (**A**, **C**) or manual (**B**) tracking

analyses. **A-C.** Maximum velocity of single bacterial cells from tracking SPA grown in culture

(**A**), or intracellular SPA (**B**) or *L.m.* (**C**). For single cell analyses, tracks of 476 SPA WT from O/N

culture, 7,058 SPA WT from late log culture, 2,998 SPA WT from micro-aerobic culture were

collected from one experiment. For intracellular bacteria, tracks of 16,248 cytosolic SPA WT were

collected from three independent experiments, and 42 tracks for *L.m.* from one experiment. Data

are shown as Tukey´s box plots with error bars including data of 1.5 x IQR. Outliers beyond the

1.5 x IQR are shown as dots. Middle line denotes median and "+" mean value. **D.** Plotting of SPA-

associated relative LC3B-GFP intensity against maximum velocity of individual cytosolic SPA.

Representative images from measurement of fluorescence intensity are shown as single Z-plane

from image stacks. Linear regression and 95% confidence bands were calculated for analyses of

63 cytosolic SPA from two independent experiments.

Fig 7. Model for SPA entry into host cell cytosol and autophagic decoration. Zipper or trigger
invasion with limiting extend of membrane ruffling (**A**, **B**) primarily lead to an intracellular
lifestyle with SCV maturation (**D**). Trigger invasion with extensive membrane ruffling and
increased cooperative invasion (**C**) lead to membrane damage and rupture of the nascent SCV (**E**)
and a cytosolic lifestyle of SPA. Flagellated and motile cytosolic SPA delay or escape xenophagic

819   capture (**F**). Non-motile cytosolic SPA are captured by LC3B-positive membranes, while flagella-

820   mediated motility permits evasion of xenophagy (**G**).

Suppl. Tables

Table S1. Oligonucleotides used in this study

Designation	Sequence 5' – 3'
Red mutagenesis	
sopE-Del-For	GGGCCGGGCAGTGTTGACAAATAAAGTCGTTAAAGATTTTGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC
sopE-Del-Rev	AGGAAGAGGCTCCGCATATTTTTTGGTTTTTCAGTGTTCACATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
sopE2-Red-Del-For	AAAGTGTAGCTATGCATAGTTATCTAAAAGGAGAACTACCGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTC
sopE2-Red-Del-Rev	TTAATTCATATGGTTAATAGCAGTATTGTATTTACTACCACATATGAATATCCTCCTTAG
MotA-Del13-For	CAACAGCGGAAGGATGATGTCGTGCTTATCTTATTAGGTTATTCCGGGGATCCGTCGACC
MotB-Del13-Rev	TTCCGCTTTTGGCGATGTGGGTACGCTTGCCGGCGGGGCTTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTCG
uhpT Del13 For	CCATTCGCAGGTATAAAAATTAGCTCAGGAGTAATCCATGATTCCGGGGATCCGTCGACC
uhpT Del13 Rev	CGTTACCAAATGCACACATTTAAGCGATATTGACTTGCTGTGTAGGCTGGAGCTGCTTCG
Check PCR	
K2-red-del	CGGTGCCCTGAATGAACTGC
SopE-Delcheck-Rev	TTAGCACTGGTAAATGACGGTTTA
sopE2-ckeck-rev4	GCGTCGCCATAAAAACGAATA
MotB-Check-Rev	CCTGCAGAATAGTGAAGCCG
Q5SDM-ins-sfGFP-Rev	GCACCACACCGGTAAACA
Seq-For	CGCCAGGGTTTTCCCAGTCACGAC
MotA-Check-Rev	ATCATCGCCGTCATAAAATC

842	uhpT DelCheck For	GCTGTTGCCATTTCTGAACG
843	uhpT DelCheck Rev	ACAGGATGCCCATCATAACG
844	Gibson assembly	
845	Vf-p3776_5	GATCCTACGTACCCGGGAAAGAGGAGAAAAGTATGC
846	Vr-p4589_3	AGAAAATAATAAAAAAGCCGGATTAATAATCTG
847	1f-SPA-PsopE	GATTATTAATCCGGCTTTTTTATTATTTTCTCGGCCAGTGTACGTTCAA
848	1r-SPA-PsopE	TCCCGGGTACGTAGGATCGGTAATGATCCTTTTATATGTACATAAC
849	Vf-PtetA	TCCGGCGATTGATTCACCGAC
850	Vr-PtetA	TTCACTTTTCTCTATCACTGATAGGGAGTGGTA
851	1f-ptetA-SPAmotAB	CCCTATCAGTGATAGAGAAAGTGAAGTGCTTATCTTATTAGGTTACCTGGT
852	1r-SPAmotAB-ptetA	GGTGAATCAATCGCCGGATCACCTCGGTTCCGCTTTTG
853		

Suppl. Figures and figure legends:

856 **Fig. S 1. SPA trigger invasion induces massive membrane ruffles and mediates highly**

857 **cooperative invasion.** HeLa cells stably expressing Lifeact-eGFP (green) were infected as

858 indicated with STM NCTC 12023, STM SL1344, SPA WT, or SPA Δ*invA* [P*$_{invF}$*::*Y.p. inv*]

859 expressing mCherry (red) at MOI 75. Cells were infected on microscope stage and imaged for

860 1 h by spinning disc confocal microscopy. Still images from representative time-lapse series

861 are shown, corresponding with the quantitative analyses shown in **Fig. 2**. Time stamp indicating

862 min:sec. Sites of ongoing invasion used for quantification of number of bacteria are indicated

863 by arrowheads. Scale bars: 10 μm.

SPA WT

Ubiquitin

LAMP1

merge

Fig. S 2. Ubiquitylation of cytosolic SPA. HeLa cells expressing LAMP1-GFP (green) were infected with SPA WT at MOI 30. Cells were fixed at 7 h p.i. and immunolabeled for SPA LPS (blue) and ubiquitin (red) prior to confocal microscopy. A representative maximum intensity projection of an infected host cell is shown. Arrowheads indicate SPA in SCV without ubiquitin signal (white), cytosolic SPA with ubiquitin signal (yellow), and SPA within partially intact SCV and ubiquitin signal (orange), Scale bar: 10 μm.

LC3   SPA WT   merge

Fig. S 3. **Single cell quantification of LC3B-GFP fluorescence intensity and velocity of**

cytosolic SPA. HeLa LC3B-GFP cells were infected with SPA WT expressing mCherry at MOI

30. At 3-4 h p.i. cells were imaged and cytosolic SPA were identified (boxes). For single SPA

cells LC3B-GFP fluorescence signal intensity was recorded, and velocity was determined by

single cell tracking. Three time points of a representative time lapse series are shown, and

quantitative data are displayed in **Fig. 6**. Images shown are single Z-planes from a stack. Scale

bar: 10 μm.

Fig. S 4. **Host cell invasion and intracellular replication of various STM and SPA strains.**
HeLa cells were infected with STM (green) or SPA (cyan) WT or isogenic mutant strains at
MOI 5. Presence of plasmids for expression *Y. pseudotuberculosis inv*, P$_{tetA}$::*motAB*, or STM
uhpABCT is indicated by hatched bars. AB indicates addition of antibiotics cefotaxime and
ciprofloxacin. Invasion (A) and intracellular replication (B) were determined by gentamicin
protection assays comparing CFU counts of inoculum with lysates 1 h and 16 h p.i. Depicted
are means and standard deviations of triplicate samples from one biological replicate
performed.

Suppl. Movie Captions

Movie 1: Live cell imaging of STM NCTC 12023 trigger invasion. HeLa cells stably

expressing Lifeact-GFP (green) were infected with STM NCTC 12023 WT expressing mCherry

(red) and imaged over 1 h. The movie successively shows two individual clips. Time stamps in

upper corner indicates h:min:sec. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Link to movie: https://myshare.uni-osnabrueck.de/f/01372357bfbb44c49087/

Movie 2: **Live cell imaging of STM SL1344 trigger invasion.** HeLa cells stably expressing

Lifeact-GFP (green) were infected with STM SL1344 WT expressing mCherry (red) and

imaged over 1 h. The movie successively shows three individual clips. Time stamps in upper

corner indicates h:min:sec. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Link to movie: https://myshare.uni-osnabrueck.de/f/7c96d08641e24bc3b293/

Movie 3: Live cell imaging of SPA WT trigger invasion. HeLa cells stably expressing

Lifeact-GFP (green) were infected with SPA WT expressing mCherry (red) and imaged over 1

h. The movie successively shows two individual clips. Time stamps in upper corner indicates

h:min:sec. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Link to movie: https://myshare.uni-osnabrueck.de/f/62a3a98281dc496a9b04/

Movie 4: Live cell imaging of SPA zipper invasion. HeLa cells stably expressing Lifeact-

GFP (green) were infected with SPA *invA* [*Y.p. inv*] expressing mCherry (red) and imaged over

1 h. The movie successively shows three individual clips. Time stamps in upper corner indicates

h:min:sec. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Link to movie: https://myshare.uni-osnabrueck.de/f/5ae1904709b64a679b56/

Movie 5: **Live cell imaging of intracellular SPA WT targeted by LC3B.** HeLa cells stably

expressing LC3B-GFP (green) were infected with SPA WT expressing mCherry (red) and

imaged every two minutes over two hours. The movie successively shows three individual clips

with various degrees of xenophagic capture. Time stamps indicates minutes. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Link to movie: https://myshare.uni-osnabrueck.de/f/bbd7f3927781420382dc/

Movie 6: Real-time imaging of intracellular SPA WT. HeLa cells stably expressing LC3B-

GFP (green) were infected with SPA WT expressing mCherry (red) and pulse-chased with

Dextran AlexaFluor 647 (blue) if indicated, and imaged at frame rates of 2-3 frames per second.

Movie successively shows thee individual clips with various degrees of xenophagic capture.

Time stamps indicates seconds. Scale bar: 10 µm.

Link to movie: https://myshare.uni-osnabrueck.de/f/50d491e54e6a48c68c5a/