Title: Neutrophils prime unique transcriptional responses in intestinal organoids

during infection with nontyphoidal *Salmonella enterica* serovars

Authors/Affiliations

Anna-Lisa E. Lawrence[1], Ryan P. Berger[1], David R. Hill[2], Sha Huang[3], Veda K. Yadagiri[2],

Brooke Bons[2], Courtney Fields[2], Jason S. Knight[2], Christiane E. Wobus[1], Jason R.

Spence[3], Vincent B. Young[1,2], Basel H. Abuaita[1,a,b], and Mary X. O'Riordan[1a]

[1] Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan Medical School,

Ann Arbor, MI, USA

[2] Department of Internal Medicine/Infectious Diseases Division, University of Michigan

Medical School, Ann Arbor, MI, USA

[3] Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University of Michigan Medical School,

Ann Arbor, MI, USA

Author list footnotes

[a] M.X.O and B.H.A contributed equally to the work

[b] B.H.A Present address: Department of Pathobiological Sciences, Louisiana State

University School of Veterinary Medicine, Baton Rouge, LA, USA

Contact Info

*Correspondence: babuaita@lsu.edu, oriordan@umich.edu

Abstract:

Nontyphoidal strains of *Salmonella enterica* are a major cause of foodborne illnesses and infection with these bacteria result in inflammatory gastroenteritis. Neutrophils are a dominant immune cell type found at the site of infection in *Salmonella*-infected individuals, but how they regulate infection outcome is not well understood. Here we used a co-culture model of primary human neutrophils and human intestinal organoids to probe the role of neutrophils during infection with two of the most prevalent *Salmonella* serovars: *Salmonella enterica* serovar Enteritidis and Typhimurium. Using a transcriptomics approach, we identified a dominant role for neutrophils in mounting differential immune responses including production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and antimicrobial peptides. We also identified specific gene sets that are induced by neutrophils in response to Enteritidis or Typhimurium infection. By comparing host responses to these serovars, we uncovered differential regulation of host metabolic pathways particularly induction of cholesterol biosynthetic pathways during Typhimurium infection and suppression of RNA metabolism during Enteritidis infection. Together these findings provide insight into the role of human neutrophils in modulating different host responses to pathogens that cause similar disease in humans.

Importance:

Nontyphoidal serovars of *Salmonella enterica* are known to induce robust neutrophil recruitment in the gut during early stages of infection, but the specific role of neutrophils in regulating infection outcome of different serovars is poorly understood. Due to differences in human infection progression compared to small animal models,

characterizing the role of neutrophils during infection has been challenging. Here we used

a co-culture model of human intestinal organoids with human primary neutrophils to study

the role of neutrophils during infection of human intestinal epithelium. Using a

transcriptomics approach, we define neutrophil-dependent reprogramming of the host

response to *Salmonella*, establishing a clear role in amplifying pro-inflammatory gene

expression. Additionally, the host response driven by neutrophils differed between two

similar nontyphoidal *Salmonella* serovars. These findings highlight the importance of

building more physiological infection models to replicate human infection conditions to

study host responses specific to individual pathogens.

Introduction:

Foodborne illnesses account for an estimated 48 million infections in the United States

every year with 128,000 individuals needing to be hospitalized (1). One of the most

common causes of foodborne disease is *Salmonella enterica,* which is responsible for an

estimated 1.35 million infections in the United States each year (2). *Salmonella enterica*

is comprised of over 2500 different serovars with *Salmonella enterica* serovar

Typhimurium (STM) and Enteritidis (SE) among the most prevalent serovars globally.

Salmonella enterica infects via the fecal-oral route and once it reaches the intestinal tract

it stimulates a strong inflammatory response from the host leading to gastroenteritis and

diarrheal disease (3). Although these symptoms are usually self-resolving, individuals

with compromised immune systems or malnutrition can experience severe systemic,

sometimes fatal, illness (4).

Salmonella pathogenesis is commonly studied *in vivo* using inbred mouse models.

Notably, disease progression caused by *Salmonella* is often different in mice compared

to humans, including the fact that mice rarely develop diarrhea during these infections

(5). To better understand human infection, human-derived cells including human intestinal

organoids (HIOs) have been used to define human-specific host responses to *Salmonella*

(6–8). HIOs are derived from human pluripotent stem cells and self-organize to form a 3-

dimensional polarized epithelium with differentiated epithelial cells and an underlying

mesenchyme (9). Bacteria, including *Salmonella,* are able to replicate and stimulate

robust inflammatory responses in HIOs (6–8, 10–12). Although the HIO model and other

tissue culture models have been invaluable in revealing human-specific responses to

Salmonella infection (6–8, 13–15), key features missing from these models are known to

shape the outcome of infection, including immune cells.

Several immune cell types contribute to the control and resolution of *Salmonella*

infections, however one of the earliest responders and the most abundant cell type found

in *Salmonella*-infected individuals are polymorphonuclear leukocytes (PMNs), specifically

neutrophils (16, 17). PMNs defend against bacterial infections through both cell-intrinsic

and -extrinsic mechanisms - antimicrobial effectors like degradative proteases and ion

chelators, production of reactive oxygen species and formation of sticky antimicrobial

neutrophil extracellular traps (NETs) can directly kill bacteria (18,19)). PMNs also can

influence surrounding cells and tissues, including the intestinal epithelium, changing the

microenvironment via molecular oxygen depletion, regulating nutrient availability, and

through production of inflammatory mediators (20, 21). How the interaction between

intestinal epithelial cells and PMNs affect the outcome of bacterial infections is still poorly

understood. To address this gap in knowledge, we generated a PMN-HIO model by co-

culturing primary human PMNs with HIOs that were infected with *Salmonella enterica*

serovar Enteritidis (SE) or Typhimurium (STM) by microinjection of bacteria into the

lumen. Using this PMN-HIO model, we characterized how PMNs modulate intestinal

epithelial host defenses during infection, compared to HIOs alone. We show here that the

presence of PMNs elevates intestinal epithelial proinflammatory signaling, including

production of cytokines, chemokines, and antimicrobial effectors. PMN-HIOs also

distinguished between the two serovars through differential upregulation of metabolic

pathways indicating that there are additional nuances in how PMN-HIOs respond to

different pathogens.

Results:

PMNs enhance HIO immune activation and other transcriptional responses during

***Salmonella* infection**

PMNs are potent drivers of inflammation, so we reasoned that PMNs would likely

modulate the intestinal host response to *Salmonella* infection. Using the PMN-HIO model,

we previously characterized the degree of PMN recruitment and effect on bacterial

colonization during *Salmonella* infection (22). Here, to probe the contribution of PMNs to

the global intestinal transcriptional responses during infection, HIOs and PMN-HIOs were

microinjected with SE, STM or PBS and harvested at 8h post-infection (8hpi) for bulk

RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq). Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed on

normalized gene counts to determine whether PMNs drove separation between HIOs and

PMN-HIOs and therefore changed the transcriptional profile during infection (Fig. 1A).

While there was definitive segregation between infected HIOs in the presence and

absence of PMNs, there was no clear separation between PBS control HIOs and PMN-

HIOs, suggesting that PMNs change the transcriptional profile of the HIOs only during

infection. To determine which biological pathways contributed most to the segregation

between HIOs and PMN-HIOs, we extracted the loadings data from principal component

1 and subjected the top 50 genes to pathway enrichment analysis in Reactome to identify

biological processes that these genes participate in (Fig. 1B). Approximately 75% of these

genes belonged to the immune system, disease processes, and signal transduction

suggesting a dominant role of immune activation for PMNs in the PMN-HIO model.

Collectively, these data support that PMNs induce changes in HIO responses only during

infection and that PMNs primarily induce enrichment of immune-related pathways.

To further analyze which specific processes were induced by PMNs and how these

pathways were enriched under various culture conditions, we performed pathway

enrichment analysis of these top pathways with all genes that had a p-adjusted value

<0.05 relative to control PBS-injected HIOs (Fig. 1C, and Table S1). Each pathway was

analyzed for gene ratio (fraction of genes in a pathway that were significantly changed

relative to total genes in that pathway) plotted on the x-axis, and the statistical

significance, depicted as dot size, based on $-\log_{10}$(p-adjusted). As anticipated, immune

system-related pathways were among the most significantly enriched pathways in

response to infection (Fig. 1C). These included pathways belonging to processes

involving signaling by interleukins, Toll-like receptor signaling, as well as PMN-specific

pathways like neutrophil degranulation. We also detected enrichment of signal

transduction pathways that also relate to PMN function. These pathways were related to

Rho GTPase signaling. Activation of Rho GTPases has been shown in numerous studies

to be critical in membrane remodeling during *Salmonella* infection and are targeted by

secreted *Salmonella* effectors (23). Taken together, these results highlight the viability of

the PMN-HIO model, demonstrating that neutrophils enhance the inflammatory tone of

the HIO in an infection-specific manner.

One hallmark of infection with nontyphoidal *Salmonella* serovars is the development of

inflammatory diarrhea. Since many of the top genes driving segregation between PMN-

HIOs and HIOs were related to immune system processes, we assessed infected HIOs

and PMN-HIOs for enrichment of genes associated with diarrhea (24). As predicted, the

number of diarrhea-associated genes that were significantly changed increased with

infection (Fig 1D). Consistent with our findings that PMNs upregulate immune pathways,

the number of diarrhea-associated genes further increased in infected PMN-HIOs

compared to infected HIOs. PMNs also appeared to increase the fold change of many

genes that were changed in infected HIOs. These results suggest that PMNs not only

amplify inflammatory processes during intestinal infection but may also promote induction

of diarrhea.

To investigate how PMNs changed the HIO response during infection at the gene level,

significant gene changes were calculated relative to PBS control HIOs and filtered for

adjusted p-value <0.05 (Table S2). Venn diagrams were generated to compare gene

changes during SE infection +/- PMNs or STM infection +/-PMNs (Fig. 1E). Although a

substantial number of genes were changed during infection in both HIOs and PMN-HIOs,

over 1700 additional genes were induced in SE-infected PMN-HIOs and over 1900 in

STM-infected PMN-HIOs relative to HIOs alone. Importantly, there were very few genes

induced in PBS control PMN-HIOs, confirming that adding PMNs to the HIOs alone does

not trigger major changes in transcriptional programming, but the complex interaction

between PMNs, HIOs and *Salmonella* drove a robust transcriptional response. Together

these results demonstrate that co-culture with PMNs amplifies the HIO response to

Salmonella infection including expression of genes that were not induced in infected HIOs

alone, as well as enhanced enrichment of immune-related processes.

Fig 1. PMNs enhance HIO immune activation and other transcriptional responses during
Salmonella **infection**
A.PCA plot of HIOs and PMN-HIOs infected with STM or SE with PBS as the mock control for 8h.
B. Loadings data from PC1 was extracted from A to identify the top 50 genes driving separation

of samples via PC1. Genes were then assessed for pathway enrichment using the Reactome
database. Pie chart shows the percent of the top 50 pathways belonging to each of the Major
Reactome pathway categories C. Dot plot assessing pathway enrichment of the top 50 identified
pathways in (B) using all differentially expressed genes (p-adjusted value<0.05 compared to PBS-
injected HIOs). Gene ratio is shown on the x-axis and the dot size corresponds to the -log10(p-
value). HIO samples are outlined in black while PMN-HIOs are outlined in gray. PBS-injection
(red), SE-injection (blue), STM-injection (green). D. Number of diarrhea associated genes with p-
adjusted <0.05 and log2(fold change)>1.5 in each condition. Gene list for this analysis was used
from (23). E. Venn diagram comparing differentially regulated genes with p-adjusted value <0.05
relative to PBS-injected HIOs for SE-injected HIOs, PBS-injected PMN-HIOs, and SE-injected
PMN-HIOs (i.) and STM-injected HIOs, PBS-injected PMN-HIOs and STM-injected PMN-HIOs
(ii.).

PMNs elevate production of cytokines and chemokines in the PMN-HIOs

We recently reported that both SE and STM induce robust pro-inflammatory signaling in

the HIO through transcriptional upregulation of cytokine and chemokine genes and

downstream secretion of these effectors (6, 8). Because we observed a further increase

in pathway enrichment of several pro-inflammatory pathways in the infected PMN-HIOs

compared to infected HIOs, we examined the contribution of PMNs in changing

expression and production of some of these pro-inflammatory mediators including

cytokines and chemokines. Consistent with pathway enrichment results, PMN-HIOs

increased expression of almost every cytokine and chemokine that was significantly

changed during either SE or STM infection in the HIOs alone (Fig. 2A-2B). This elevated

PMN-dependent response was primarily driven by infection, as there was little

upregulation of these genes in PBS control PMN-HIOs. Of interest, in infected PMN-HIOs,

we observed increased transcript levels of cytokines CSF-3, IL-6, IL-8 (Fig. 2A) and

chemokines CXCL-10 and CCL-2 (Fig. 2B), all of which are essential for progression and

resolution of intestinal inflammation (25–27). To assess whether these transcriptional

changes were reflected at the protein level, supernatants from HIOs and PMN-HIOs were

collected for ELISA to measure cytokine and chemokine output (Fig. 2C). Protein level

analyses revealed similar patterns to the transcriptional results. Overall, the production of

most cytokines and chemokines in infected PMN-HIOs was increased compared to

infected HIOs or uninfected PMN-HIO controls. This included significant increases in IL-

6, IL-8, CXCL-10, and CCL-2 production in infected PMN-HIOs compared to infected

HIOs. However, some cytokines such as G-CSF (encoded by *CSF3*) or CXCL-2 did not

significantly change with the addition of PMNs. While most other pro-inflammatory

proteins correlated well with the transcript data, *CSF3* transcript was dramatically

upregulated in infected PMN-HIOs, compared to infected HIOs, even though there was

no difference in secreted protein levels. It is notable that although SE and STM induce

similar degrees of *CSF3* transcript upregulation, protein levels of G-CSF in the

supernatant are significantly lower in SE-infected PMN-HIOs compared to STM,

suggesting that SE may regulate G-CSF post-transcriptionally. All together, we found that

inflammatory signaling was elevated when PMNs are present in infected HIOs.

Fig 2. PMN-HIO co-culture amplifies production of cytokines and chemokines in infected HIOs

A-B. Gene expression data presented as log2(fold change) relative to PBS-injected HIOs for (A) cytokines and (B) chemokines. Genes that were significantly changed from PBS-injected HIOs in at least one condition with p-adjusted <0.05 are included. C. ELISA data from culture media sampled at 8hpi with 5 HIOs per well with n=4 replicates. Significance was determined by 2-way ANOVA where *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

HIO co-culture with PMNs strengthens the antimicrobial environment

Antimicrobial effectors such as defensins are a key component of the host defense in the

intestine and our previous work demonstrated that antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) are

strongly upregulated during infection in the HIO model (6, 8). Among the pathways

enriched (Fig. 1C), was 'metal sequestration by antimicrobial proteins' suggesting that

PMNs strongly affect the antimicrobial milieu in the HIOs. PMNs are known to have a

wide arsenal of antimicrobial effectors, but specifically how PMNs affect the antimicrobial

response during infection in complex environments such as in the PMN-HIO model has

not been fully defined. In contrast to what we had predicted, PMNs did not dramatically

enhance transcriptional upregulation of antimicrobial effectors above what was observed

in infected HIOs. This included beta-defensins (DEFB4A/B), nutritional immunity effectors

such as lipocalin (LCN2) or calprotectin (S100A8/9), and opsonins like SAA1/2 (Fig. 3A),

which were all highly upregulated during infection in both HIOs and PMN-HIOs. Since

PMNs represent approximately less than 5% of the cells in the PMN-HIO model (22), the

contribution of PMN transcripts in the overall bulk-RNA-seq is likely minimal. However,

analysis of culture supernatants via ELISA revealed that all these mediators were present

at significantly higher levels in infected PMN-HIOs compared to HIOs (Fig. 3B). Some of

these effectors were responsive to infection stimuli including beta-defensin (BD2,

encoded by DEFB4A and DEFB4B) and elafin (encoded by PI3) as they were not present

at high concentrations in the uninfected controls. In contrast, the nutritional immunity

effectors calprotectin and lipocalin were constitutively produced by PMNs, whether HIOs

were injected with PBS or *Salmonella*. Collectively, transcript and protein analyses of

infected PMN-HIOs reveal that a small population of neutrophils can substantially

enhance the antimicrobial environment.

Fig 3. Presence of PMNs strengthens the antimicrobial environment
A. Gene expression data presented as log2(fold change) relative to PBS-injected HIOs for
antimicrobial genes. Heatmap is divided into functional categories: Microbicidal, Nutritional
Immunity, and Opsonins. Genes that were significantly changed from PBS-injected HIOs in at
least one condition with p-adjusted <0.05 are included. B. ELISA data from culture media sampled
at 8hpi with 5 HIOs per well with n=4 replicates. Significance was determined by 2-way ANOVA
where *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

PMN-HIOs induce unique responses to two nontyphoidal *Salmonella* serovars

SE and STM share high levels of gene homology but accessory genes unique to SE

contribute to its pathogenesis in a mouse model of infection (28–30). We also found that

these serovars elicit unique responses by human intestinal epithelium (8). Consistent with

this earlier finding, we observed clustering of SE-infected PMN-HIOs away from STM-

infected PMN-HIOs via principal component analysis (PC2) (Fig. 1A). These data suggest

that PMN-HIOs also mount distinct responses to these two serovars. To characterize

these responses, significant genes from SE, STM, and PBS-injected PMN-HIOs were

compared to determine the overlap in transcriptional responses to infection (Fig. 4A).

Surprisingly, while there was a core set of host genes that were changed in response to

both SE and STM, the majority of genes were uniquely induced by only one serovar with

over 1000 genes uniquely changed during SE-infection of the PMN-HIOs and over 2000

genes uniquely changed during STM-infection. To better characterize the functional

differences in these responses, the top 25 significant genes that were changed in either

SE-infected or STM-infected PMN-HIOs were plotted and assessed for fold change

relative to PBS-injected HIOs (Fig. 4B). The genes that were uniquely changed during

SE-infection belonged to multiple biological processes including metabolism (PFKFB4

and HK2) although RNA modification-related genes were highly represented among the

downregulated genes (ATIC, RRP12, NSUN2, and PUS1). More genes were

downregulated in SE-infected PMN-HIOs compared to STM-infected PMN-HIOs where

most genes that were uniquely responding to STM were upregulated. While these genes

also fell into multiple categories, upregulation of cholesterol biosynthetic genes in STM-

infected PMN-HIOs were highly prevalent in this heatmap (ACAT2, DHCR24, SCD,

ACLY, and LSS). To further characterize which pathways were differentially induced

during infection with the two serovars, pathway enrichment analysis on uniquely regulated

genes identified in Fig. 4A was performed. To classify these pathways into different

biological processes, each significantly enriched pathway was mapped back to the parent

pathway in the Reactome database (Fig. 4C, Tables S3 and S4). Out of the 1012 genes

that were uniquely induced in SE-infected PMN-HIOs, only 2 pathways were significantly

enriched: 'metabolism of RNA' and 'rRNA modification'. Most of the genes differentially

expressed only during SE infected were downregulated (Fig. 4B). In contrast, 143

Reactome pathways were enriched in STM-infected PMN-HIOs representing a much

more diverse set of biological processes. Cell cycle-related and signal transduction

pathways were all highly represented among genes that were only induced in STM-

infected PMN-HIOs, but we also noted that additional genes belonging to immune system

pathways were uniquely induced in STM-infected PMN-HIOs leading to higher

enrichment of these pathways. These findings suggest that while both serovars trigger

different responses by PMN-HIOs, responses unique to SE infection largely relate to RNA

metabolism while STM induces a broad range of host cell responses. Lastly, to compare

pathway enrichment across all differentially expressed genes, pathways that were

significant in either SE or STM infected PMN-HIOs were selected and sorted based on

biggest difference in gene ratio between the two serovars (Fig. 4D). Multiple biological

processes were differentially enriched when assessing the entire set of significant genes,

including cell cycle, disease-related processes specifically relating to beta-catenin

stability, immune system and metabolism related pathways. Pathways where SE

exhibited greater gene ratios compared to STM-infected samples were mostly related to

interferon signaling, although the 'HIF1A stabilization' pathway was also more enriched

in SE-infected PMN-HIOs. Most of these pathways were also highly enriched during STM-

infection with only a slight increase in gene ratio in the SE samples suggesting that both

serovars trigger these pathways. In contrast, STM infection resulted in much stronger

enrichment of beta-catenin related pathways and cholesterol biosynthesis pathways.

Sub-pathways of cholesterol biosynthesis, namely biosynthesis via lathosterol and

desmosterol had a gene ratio of 1 in STM-infected PMN-HIOs, meaning that all genes in

these pathways were significantly changed during infection. Overall, our findings reveal

differential responses between infection with SE and STM in the PMN-HIOs, including

regulation of genes involved in RNA modification in SE-infected PMN-HIOs. Host

responses to the two serovars were strikingly different in their stimulation of metabolic

pathways, specifically highly enriched cholesterol biosynthetic pathways observed only in

STM-infected PMN-HIOs.

Fig 4. PMN-HIOs distinguish between SE and STM infection
A. Venn diagram comparing differentially regulated genes with p-adjusted value <0.05 relative to PBS-injected HIOs for STM-injected, SE-injected, or PBS-injected PMN-HIOs. B. Heatmap of unique differentially expressed genes. Top 25 genes based on adjusted p-value that were significant in only SE-injected PMN-HIOs (i.) or in STM-injected PMN-HIOs (ii.). Data are presented as log2(fold change) relative to PBS-injected HIOs. *Cholesterol biosynthetic genes, #RNA modification genes. C. Pathway enrichment analysis of 1012 SE-induced genes (i.) or 2098 STM-induced genes identified in (A) from the Reactome database. Pie chart shows the number of each major Reactome pathway category represented by the pathway enrichment results out of 2 significant pathways in SE-infected PMN-HIOs or 143 significant pathways in STM-infected PMN-HIOs. D. Dot plot assessing pathway enrichment in PMN-HIOs of all differentially expressed genes (p-adjusted value<0.05 compared to PBS-injected HIOs). Top pathways were selected by the biggest difference in gene ratio between SE and STM-injected PMN-HIOs. Gene ratio is shown on the x-axis and the dot size corresponds to the -log10(p-value). PBS-injection (red), SE-injection (blue), STM-injection (green).

Discussion:

PMNs, particularly neutrophils, are early responders to inflammation and represent a

dominant immune cell type recruited to the intestine during infection with nontyphoidal

Salmonella serovars. Although it is appreciated that neutrophils are present during the

early phases of *Salmonella* infection, how neutrophils contribute to the host response in

a complex microenvironment like the intestine remains poorly understood. Here we used

a transcriptomics approach in a PMN-HIO co-culture model to probe the role of PMNs

during infection with two prevalent serovars of *Salmonella*: *Salmonella enterica* serovar

Enteritidis and Typhimurium. We identified a dominant role for PMNs in enhancing

inflammatory responses, including production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and

chemokines as well as antimicrobial proteins during infection with both serovars. More

broadly, PMNs acted on HIO cells to mount a more complex response to *Salmonella* as

there were over 1000 genes in each infection condition that were uniquely and

differentially expressed in the presence of PMNs. Lastly, we observed distinct responses

between serovars; metabolic pathways were differentially regulated in the PMN-HIOs

during SE and STM infection with robust enrichment of cholesterol biosynthesis genes

during infection with STM, and downregulation of RNA modification-related genes during

SE infection suggesting that PMNs can reprogram the environment in the presence of

different pathogens.

Infection with nontyphoidal strains of *Salmonella enterica* induce robust inflammatory

responses in the gut leading to gastroenteritis, and although neutrophils are known to be

present at the site of infection, the specific contribution in tuning the inflammatory

environment has been difficult to study in more complex animal models. We found via

RNA-seq, as well as assessing secreted effectors, that the presence of PMNs during

infection increased enrichment of cytokine signaling pathways, increased the

upregulation of several cytokines that were already induced in infected HIOs alone, as

well as led to a significant increase in levels of secreted cytokines and chemokines in the

culture supernatants. This pattern was also conserved for antimicrobial effectors including

a PMN-dependent upregulation in bactericidal and nutritional immunity related proteins.

While a subset of these effectors are likely produced by PMNs such as calprotectin

(encoded by S100A8/9) which is known to be highly produced in neutrophils, other

effectors such as beta-defensins (encoded by DEFB4A/B) or elafin (encoded by PI3) are

antimicrobial effectors known to be secreted by epithelial cells (31–33). This pattern would

suggest that PMNs program the epithelium to enhance antimicrobial responses during

infection. This pattern is supported by the prior finding that neutrophil elastase can induce

production of elafin by epithelial cells (34). We also note a dramatic increase in the

number of significant gene changes during infection in PMN-HIOs compared to HIOs,

suggesting that PMNs likely stimulate a broad epithelial response to infection given the

relatively low numbers of neutrophils in the PMN-HIOs. Further work may better elucidate

the specific contribution of each cell type in the response to infection by performing single-

cell RNA-seq, or other single cell approaches.

PMNs did not function to solely reprogram the inflammatory environment in response to

Salmonella infection, but also affected other cellular processes that differentiated

between infecting serovars. We found that over 3000 genes were differentially regulated

during infection with SE and STM in the PMN-HIO model. One of the most striking

differences we observed was transcriptional induction of cholesterol biosynthesis genes

in STM infection of the PMN-HIOs, but not SE infection. In contrast, we noted that SE-

infection uniquely induced upregulation of INSIG2, a negative regulator of cholesterol

biosynthesis. There are numerous reports investigating the role of cholesterol during

Salmonella infection including affecting invasion into epithelial cells, remodeling of the

Salmonella containing vacuole (SCV), bacterial replication, and susceptibility to typhoid

fever (35–43). Although there may be some cell type differences, the overarching pattern

from these studies reveal that increased cholesterol generally enhances *Salmonella*

infection. Our findings that SE does not induce upregulation of cholesterol biosynthetic

genes is intriguing. It is possible that the two serovars have evolved to have a different

dependence on cholesterol for productive infection. Alternatively, redistribution of existing

cholesterol in the cells may be sufficient for SE. We previously reported that SE and STM

exhibit different kinetics in their ability to invade and replicate within HIO epithelial cells,

with SE invading at reduced frequency compared to STM (8). Our findings here point to

cholesterol regulation as a potential mechanism that could contribute to differences in

infection kinetics. Differential regulation of cholesterol biosynthesis as well as other

serovar-specific responses warrant future study to better understand how these closely

related serovars may be interacting with the intestinal epithelium in distinct ways.

The findings reported herein lay the groundwork for many future directions. In addition to

PMN-dependent regulation of inflammatory responses and serovar-specific regulation of

cholesterol biosynthesis genes, we also measured a shift in gene expression in response

to *Salmonella* infection by using this co-culture model that was not observed in the HIO

model alone. This included an increase in expression of diarrhea-associated genes.

Modeling diarrheal diseases using mouse models has been difficult since mice rarely

develop diarrhea in response to bacterial infections. Thus, our results open up an area

for future study where the PMN-HIO co-culture model can be used to monitor human

genes that are associated with diarrheal responses when infected with *Salmonella* or

other microbial pathogens. Additionally, we show the feasibility of co-culturing HIOs with

immune cells and in the future, this will allow us to add back components incrementally

to model the intestinal environment and individually probe the role of immune cell

subtypes in various pathological conditions. Further characterization of the HIO model

and development of co-culture models of HIOs with immune cells will allow us to more

closely study mechanisms governing the complex human-specific responses of the

intestinal epithelium to bacterial infections.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the NIH awards U19AI116482-01 (V.B.Y, J.R.S, C.E.W, and

M.X.O) and R21AI13540 (M.X.O). A-L.E.L was supported by NIH T32 AI007528. We

thank the Host Microbiome Initiative, the Comprehensive Cancer Center Immunology

(supported by the NCI and NIH award P30CA046592) and Histology Cores and the DNA

Sequencing Core at University of Michigan Medical School. We gratefully acknowledge

the O'Riordan lab members for helpful discussions, and Dr. Roberto Cieza for assistance

with data management.

Author contributions

A-L.E.L and B.H.A performed the experiments and analyzed the data. A-L.E.L, M.X.O

and B.H.A designed the experiments and wrote the manuscript. R.P.B and D.R.H

assisted in RNA-seq analysis. S.H, V.K.Y, B.B and C.F assisted in HIO differentiation and

culturing. J.R.S, V.B.Y, C.E.W and J.S.K assisted in experimental preparation and data

interpretation.

Declaration of interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Materials and Methods:

Contact for reagent and resource sharing

All RNA sequences are deposited in the EMBL-EBI Arrayexpress database (E-MTAB-

11089). Source code for RNA-seq analyses can be found at aelawren/PMN-HIO-RNA-

seq: R scripts for PMN-HIO RNA-seq analysis (github.com). Other reagents and

resources can be obtained by directing requests to the Lead Contacts, Basel Abuaita

(babuaita@lsu.edu) and Mary O'Riordan (oriordan@umich.edu).

Experimental model and subject details

Human Intestinal Organoids (HIOs)

HIOs were generated by the *In Vivo* Animal and Human Studies Core at the University of

Michigan Center for Gastrointestinal Research as previously described (9). Prior to

experiments, HIOs were removed from the Matrigel, washed with DMEM:F12 media, and

re-plated with 5 HIOs/well in 50µl of Matrigel (Corning) in ENR media ((DMEM:F12, 1X

B27 supplement, 2mM L-glutamine, 100ng/ml EGF, 100ng/ml Noggin, 500ng/ml

Rspondin1, and 15mM HEPES). Media was exchanged every 2-3 days for 7 days.

Human Polymorphonuclear Leukocytes (PMNs)

454 PMNs were isolated from blood of healthy human adult donors as previously described

455 (44), according to the protocol approved by the University of Michigan Medical School

456 (HUM00044257). Written consent was obtained from all donors. The purity of PMNs was

457 assessed by flow cytometry using APC anti-CD16 and FITC anti-CD15 antibodies

458 (Miltenyi Biotec), markers characteristic of human neutrophils.

Bacterial Growth and HIO Microinjection

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium SL1344 (STM) and *Salmonella enterica*

serovar Enteritidis P125109 (SE) were used throughout the manuscript. Bacteria were

stored at -80°C in Luria-Bertani (LB, Fisher) medium containing 20% glycerol and cultured

on LB agar plates. Individual colonies were grown overnight at 37ºC under static

conditions in LB liquid broth. Bacteria were pelleted, washed and re-suspended in PBS.

Bacterial inoculum was estimated based on OD_{600} and verified by plating serial dilutions

on agar plates to determine colony forming units (CFU). Lumens of individual HIOs were

microinjected with glass caliber needles with 1µl of PBS, SE or STM (10^5 CFU/HIO) as

previously described (6, 45, 46). HIOs were then washed with PBS and incubated for 2h

at 37°C in ENR media. HIOs were treated with 100µg/ml gentamicin for 15 min to kill any

bacteria outside the HIOs, then incubated in fresh medium +/- PMNs (5 X 10^5

PMNs/5HIOs/well in a 24-well plate).

Method Details

Cytokine Analyses

For cytokine analysis, media from each well containing 5 HIOs/well were collected at 8hpi.

Cytokines, chemokines and antimicrobial proteins were quantified by ELISA at the

University of Michigan Cancer Center Immunology Core.

RNA Sequencing and Analysis

Total RNA was isolated from 5 HIOs per group with a total of 4 replicates per condition

using the mirVana miRNA Isolation Kit (Thermo Fisher). The quality of RNA was

confirmed, ensuring the RNA integrity number (RIN)> 8.5, using the Agilent TapeStation

system. cDNA libraries were prepared by the University of Michigan DNA Sequencing

Core using the TruSeq Stranded mRNA Kit (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's

protocol. Libraries were sequenced on Illumina HiSeq 2500 platforms (single-end, 50 bp

read length). All samples were sequenced at a depth of 10.5 million reads per sample or

greater. Sequencing generated FASTQ files of transcript reads that were pseudoaligned

to the human genome (GRCh38.p12) using kallisto software (47). Transcripts were

converted to estimated gene counts using the tximport package (48) with gene annotation

from Ensembl (49).

Gene Expression and Pathway Enrichment Analysis

Differential expression analysis was performed using the DESeq2 package (50) with P

values calculated by the Wald test and adjusted P values calculated using the Benjamani

& Hochberg method (51). Pathway analysis was performed using the Reactome pathway

database and pathway enrichment analysis in R using the ReactomePA software

package (52).

Quantification and Statistical Methods

RNA-seq data analysis was done using RStudio version 1.1.453. Plots were generated

using ggplot2 (53) with data manipulation done using dplyr (54). Euler diagrams of gene

changes were generated using the Eulerr package (55). Other data were analyzed using

Graphpad Prism 9. Statistical differences were determined using statistical tests indicated

in the fig. legends. The mean of at least 2 independent experiments were presented with

error bars showing standard deviation (SD). *P* values of less than 0.05 were considered

significant and designated by: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 and **** P < 0.0001.

Supplemental information

Table S1. Complete list of significant REACTOME pathways with p-value <0.05.

Genes with p-adjusted value <0.05 and $\log_2$(fold change) >0 relative to PBS-injected

HIOs were selected for analysis.

Table S2. Complete list of differentially expressed genes with p-adjusted value of

<0.05 compared to PBS-injected HIOs.

Table S3. Complete list of significant REACTOME pathways from genes

differentially expressed only in SE-infected PMN-HIOs. Genes with p-adjusted value

<0.05, $\log_2$(fold change) >0 relative to PBS-injected HIOs and p-adjusted value >0.05 in

STM-infected PMN-HIOs were selected for analysis.

Table S4. Complete list of significant REACTOME pathways from genes differentially expressed only in STM-infected PMN-HIOs. Genes with p-adjusted value <0.05, log$_2$(fold change) >0 relative to PBS-injected HIOs and p-adjusted value >0.05 in SE-infected PMN-HIOs were selected for analysis.

References

1. CDC. 2020. Foodborne Germs and Illnesses. https://www.cdc.gov/foodsafety/foodborne-germs.html. Retrieved 10 September 2021.

2. 2021. Salmonella Homepage. https://www.cdc.gov/salmonella/. Retrieved 10 September 2021.

3. Baird-Parker AC. 1990. Foodborne salmonellosis. Lancet 336:1231–1235.

4. Gilchrist JJ, MacLennan CA. 2019. Invasive Nontyphoidal Salmonella Disease in Africa. EcoSal Plus 8.

5. Hapfelmeier S, Hardt W-D. 2005. A mouse model for S. typhimurium-induced enterocolitis. Trends Microbiol 13:497–503.

6. Lawrence A-LE, Abuaita BH, Berger RP, Hill DR, Huang S, Yadagiri VK, Bons B, Fields C, Wobus CE, Spence JR, Young VB, O'Riordan MX. 2021. Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium SPI-1 and SPI-2 Shape the Global Transcriptional Landscape in a Human Intestinal Organoid Model System. MBio 12.

7.   Forbester JL, Goulding D, Vallier L, Hannan N, Hale C, Pickard D, Mukhopadhyay

S, Dougan G. 2015. Interaction of Salmonella enterica Serovar Typhimurium with

Intestinal Organoids Derived from Human Induced Pluripotent Stem Cells. Infect

Immun 83:2926–2934.

8.   Abuaita BH, Lawrence A-LE, Berger RP, Hill DR, Huang S, Yadagiri VK, Bons B,

Fields C, Wobus CE, Spence JR, Young VB, O'Riordan MX. 2021. Comparative

transcriptional profiling of the early host response to infection by typhoidal and non-

typhoidal Salmonella serovars in human intestinal organoids. PLoS Pathog

17:e1009987.

9.   Spence JR, Mayhew CN, Rankin SA, Kuhar MF, Vallance JE, Tolle K, Hoskins EE,

Kalinichenko VV, Wells SI, Zorn AM, Shroyer NF, Wells JM. 2011. Directed

differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells into intestinal tissue in vitro. Nature

470:105–109.

10. Hill DR, Huang S, Nagy MS, Yadagiri VK, Fields C, Mukherjee D, Bons B, Dedhia

PH, Chin AM, Tsai Y-H, Thodla S, Schmidt TM, Walk S, Young VB, Spence JR. 2017.

Bacterial colonization stimulates a complex physiological response in the immature

human intestinal epithelium. Elife 6.

11. Karve SS, Pradhan S, Ward DV, Weiss AA. 2017. Intestinal organoids model human

responses to infection by commensal and Shiga toxin producing Escherichia coli.

PLoS One 12:e0178966.

12. Pradhan S, Weiss AA. 2020. Probiotic Properties of Escherichia coli Nissle in Human

Intestinal Organoids. MBio 11.

13. Schulte LN, Schweinlin M, Westermann AJ, Janga H, Santos SC, Appenzeller S,

Walles H, Vogel J, Metzger M. 2020. An Advanced Human Intestinal Coculture Model

Reveals Compartmentalized Host and Pathogen Strategies during Salmonella

Infection. MBio 11.

14. Hannemann S, Galán JE. 2017. Salmonella enterica serovar-specific transcriptional

reprogramming of infected cells. PLoS Pathog 13:e1006532.

15. Hannemann S, Gao B, Galán JE. 2013. Salmonella modulation of host cell gene

expression promotes its intracellular growth. PLoS Pathog 9:e1003668.

16. Rydström A, Wick MJ. 2007. Monocyte recruitment, activation, and function in the

gut-associated lymphoid tissue during oral Salmonella infection. J Immunol

178:5789–5801.

17. Tükel C, Raffatellu M, Chessa D, Wilson RP, Akçelik M, Bäumler AJ. 2006.

Neutrophil influx during non-typhoidal salmonellosis: who is in the driver's seat?

FEMS Immunol Med Microbiol 46:320–329.

18. Amulic B, Cazalet C, Hayes GL, Metzler KD, Zychlinsky A. 2012. Neutrophil function:

from mechanisms to disease. Annu Rev Immunol 30:459–489.

580 19. Brinkmann V, Reichard U, Goosmann C, Fauler B, Uhlemann Y, Weiss DS,

581   Weinrauch Y, Zychlinsky A. 2004. Neutrophil extracellular traps kill bacteria. Science

582   303:1532–1535.

583 20. Campbell EL, Bruyninckx WJ, Kelly CJ, Glover LE, McNamee EN, Bowers BE,

584   Bayless AJ, Scully M, Saeedi BJ, Golden-Mason L, Ehrentraut SF, Curtis VF,

585   Burgess A, Garvey JF, Sorensen A, Nemenoff R, Jedlicka P, Taylor CT, Kominsky

586   DJ, Colgan SP. 2014. Transmigrating neutrophils shape the mucosal

587   microenvironment through localized oxygen depletion to influence resolution of

588   inflammation. Immunity 40:66–77.

589 21. Fournier BM, Parkos CA. 2012. The role of neutrophils during intestinal inflammation.

590   Mucosal Immunol 5:354–366.

591 22. Lawrence A-LE, Berger RP, Hill DR, Huang S, Yadagiri VK, Bons B, Fields C, Sule

592   GJ, Knight JS, Wobus CE, Spence JR, Young VB, O'Riordan MX, Abuaita BH. 2022.

593   Human neutrophils direct epithelial cell extrusion to enhance intestinal epithelial host

594   defense during Salmonella infection. bioRxiv.

595 23. Patel JC, Galán JE. 2005. Manipulation of the host actin cytoskeleton by Salmonella-

596   -all in the name of entry. Curr Opin Microbiol 8:10–15.

597 24. Rouillard AD, Gundersen GW, Fernandez NF, Wang Z, Monteiro CD, McDermott

598   MG, Ma'ayan A. 2016. The harmonizome: a collection of processed datasets

599   gathered to serve and mine knowledge about genes and proteins. Database 2016.

25. Sumagin R, Parkos CA. 2015. Epithelial adhesion molecules and the regulation of

intestinal homeostasis during neutrophil transepithelial migration. Tissue Barriers

3:e969100.

26. Andrews C, McLean MH, Durum SK. 2018. Cytokine Tuning of Intestinal Epithelial

Function. Front Immunol 9:1270.

27. Wang D, Dubois RN, Richmond A. 2009. The role of chemokines in intestinal

inflammation and cancer. Curr Opin Pharmacol 9:688–696.

28. Ray S, Das S, Panda PK, Suar M. 2018. Identification of a new alanine racemase in

Salmonella Enteritidis and its contribution to pathogenesis. Gut Pathog 10:30.

29. Silva CA, Blondel CJ, Quezada CP, Porwollik S, Andrews-Polymenis HL, Toro CS,

Zaldívar M, Contreras I, McClelland M, Santiviago CA. 2012. Infection of mice by

Salmonella enterica serovar Enteritidis involves additional genes that are absent in

the genome of serovar Typhimurium. Infect Immun 80:839–849.

30. Dhanani AS, Block G, Dewar K, Forgetta V, Topp E, Beiko RG, Diarra MS. 2016.

Correction: Genomic Comparison of Non-Typhoidal Salmonella enterica Serovars

Typhimurium, Enteritidis, Heidelberg, Hadar and Kentucky Isolates from Broiler

Chickens. PLoS One 11:e0148706.

31. Caruso JA, Akli S, Pageon L, Hunt KK, Keyomarsi K. 2015. The serine protease

inhibitor elafin maintains normal growth control by opposing the mitogenic effects of

neutrophil elastase. Oncogene 34:3556–3567.

32. Pazgier M, Hoover DM, Yang D, Lu W, Lubkowski J. 2006. Human beta-defensins.

Cell Mol Life Sci 63:1294–1313.

33. Jukic A, Bakiri L, Wagner EF, Tilg H, Adolph TE. 2021. Calprotectin: from biomarker

to biological function. Gut 70:1978–1988.

34. Reid PT, Marsden ME, Cunningham GA, Haslett C, Sallenave JM. 1999. Human

neutrophil elastase regulates the expression and secretion of elafin (elastase-

specific inhibitor) in type II alveolar epithelial cells. FEBS Lett 457:33–37.

35. Santos AJM, Meinecke M, Fessler MB, Holden DW, Boucrot E. 2013. Preferential

invasion of mitotic cells by Salmonella reveals that cell surface cholesterol is maximal

during metaphase. J Cell Sci 126:2990–2996.

36. Misselwitz B, Dilling S, Vonaesch P, Sacher R, Snijder B, Schlumberger M, Rout S,

Stark M, von Mering C, Pelkmans L, Hardt W-D. 2011. RNAi screen of Salmonella

invasion shows role of COPI in membrane targeting of cholesterol and Cdc42. Mol

Syst Biol 7:474.

37. Nawabi P, Catron DM, Haldar K. 2008. Esterification of cholesterol by a type III

secretion effector during intracellular Salmonella infection. Mol Microbiol 68:173–

185.

38. Greene AR, Owen KA, Casanova JE. 2021. Salmonella Typhimurium manipulates

macrophage cholesterol homeostasis through the SseJ-mediated suppression of the

host cholesterol transport protein ABCA1. Cell Microbiol 23:e13329.

39. Catron DM, Lange Y, Borensztajn J, Sylvester MD, Jones BD, Haldar K. 2004.

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium requires nonsterol precursors of the

cholesterol biosynthetic pathway for intracellular proliferation. Infect Immun 72:1036–

1042.

40. Gilk SD, Cockrell DC, Luterbach C, Hansen B, Knodler LA, Ibarra JA, Steele-

Mortimer O, Heinzen RA. 2013. Bacterial colonization of host cells in the absence of

cholesterol. PLoS Pathog 9:e1003107.

41. Rotimi SO, Ojo DA, Talabi OA, Balogun EA, Ademuyiwa O. 2012. Tissue

dyslipidemia in Salmonella-infected rats treated with amoxillin and pefloxacin. Lipids

Health Dis 11:152.

42. Huang F-C. 2014. The critical role of membrane cholesterol in salmonella-induced

autophagy in intestinal epithelial cells. Int J Mol Sci 15:12558–12572.

43. Alvarez MI, Glover LC, Luo P, Wang L, Theusch E, Oehlers SH, Walton EM, Tram

TTB, Kuang Y-L, Rotter JI, McClean CM, Chinh NT, Medina MW, Tobin DM, Dunstan

SJ, Ko DC. 2017. Human genetic variation in *VAC14* regulates *Salmonella* invasion

and typhoid fever through modulation of cholesterol. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A

114:E7746–E7755.

44. Abuaita BH, Sule GJ, Schultz TL, Gao F, Knight JS, O'Riordan MX. 2021. The IRE1α

Stress Signaling Axis Is a Key Regulator of Neutrophil Antimicrobial Effector

Function. J Immunol https://doi.org/10.4049/jimmunol.2001321.

45. Abuaita BH, Lawrence A-LE, Berger RP, Hill DR, Huang S, Yadagiri VK, Bons B,

Fields C, Wobus CE, Spence JR, Young VB, O'Riordan MX. 2020. Comparative

transcriptional profiling of the early host response to infection by typhoidal and non-

typhoidal Salmonella serovars in human intestinal organoids. bioRxiv.

46. Hill DR, Huang S, Tsai Y-H, Spence JR, Young VB. 2017. Real-time Measurement

of Epithelial Barrier Permeability in Human Intestinal Organoids. J Vis Exp

https://doi.org/10.3791/56960.

47. Bray NL, Pimentel H, Melsted P, Pachter L. 2016. Near-optimal probabilistic RNA-

seq quantification. Nat Biotechnol 34:525–527.

48. Soneson C, Love MI, Robinson MD. 2015. Differential analyses for RNA-seq:

transcript-level estimates improve gene-level inferences. F1000Res 4:1521.

49. Rainer J. 2017. EnsDb.Hsapiens.v75: Ensembl based annotation package. R

package version 2.99.0.

50. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. 2014. Moderated estimation of fold change and

dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol 15:550.

51. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. 1995. Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A Practical

and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. Journal of the Royal Statistical Society:

Series B (Methodological) https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2517-6161.1995.tb02031.x.

52. Yu G, He Q-Y. 2016. ReactomePA: an R/Bioconductor package for reactome

pathway analysis and visualization. Mol Biosyst 12:477–479.

53. Wickham H. 2016. ggplot2: Elegant Graphics for Data Analysis. Springer.

54. Wickham H, Francois R, Henry L, Müller K, Others. 2015. dplyr: A grammar of data

manipulation. R package version 0 4 3.

55. Larsson J. 2019. eulerr: Area-Proportional Euler and Venn Diagrams with Ellipses (R

package version 5.1.0).