Early immunomodulatory program triggered by pro-tolerogenic *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum* drives cardiac transplant outcomes

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ABSTRACT

Despite ongoing improvements in regimens to prevent allograft rejection, most cardiac and other types of allografts eventually succumb to chronic vasculopathy, interstitial fibrosis, or endothelial changes, and eventually graft failure. Adaptive immune-mediated damage is considered the primary cause of long-term graft failure, though the events leading to chronic rejection are still poorly understood. Gut microbiota is a known driving force in immune dysfunction. We previously showed that gut microbiota dysbiosis profoundly influences the outcome of vascularized cardiac allografts and subsequently identified biomarker species or "bacterial determinants" associated with these differential graft outcomes (anti-inflammatory *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum* (*Bifido*) and pro-inflammatory *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans* (*Desulfo*)). In this study, we further detailed the multifaceted immunomodulatory properties of the pro-tolerogenic bacterial species over time, using our clinically relevant model of allogenic heart transplantation. This model simultaneously accounts for the immunomodulatory properties of antibiotics and tacrolimus immunosuppression, in addition to bacterial determinants. We observed that *Bifido* induced an early anti-inflammatory phenotype within 7 days, while *Desulfo* resulted in a pro-inflammatory phenotype, defined by alterations in leukocyte distribution and lymph node (LN) structure. These effects were further modulated by inhibition of myeloid cell migration by CCR2 inhibition, supporting the notion that bacterial determinants regulate innate immunity which subsequently influences adaptive immunity. Indeed, *in vitro* results showed that *Bifido* and *Desulfo* acted directly on primary innate immune cells. However, by 40 days after treatment, these two bacterial determinants were associated with mixed effects in their impact on LN architecture and immune cell composition. These dynamic effects suggest a critical role for early bacterial determinant-triggered immunological events such as innate immune cell engagement and LN architectural changes in the subsequent modulation of pro-tolerant versus pro-inflammatory immune responses in organ transplant recipients.

Abbreviations:
Abx – antibiotics
APC – antigen presenting cell
Bifido – *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum*
CR – Cortical ridge
DC – Dendritic cell
Desulfo – *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans*
FRC – Fibroblastic reticular cell
HEV – High endothelial venule
IHC – Immunohistochemistry
ILC – Innate lymphoid cell
LN – Lymph node
MΦ - Macrophage
SBT – Single bacterial strain transfer
Treg – Regulatory T cell
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INTRODUCTION

One-year survival rates in solid organ transplantation routinely exceed 90-95%, and many well-characterized variables (such as donor organ quality and recipient comorbidities) determine short-term outcomes. However, most cardiac and other types of allografts eventually succumb to chronic vascular, interstitial, or endothelial impairment beyond the first year, despite the many improvements over the past decades in donor organ preservation, recipient selection, immunosuppressive regimens and monitoring, and infection prophylaxis [1-7]. As a result, the long-term rate of decline of allograft function after transplant remain frustratingly high and has not changed in the past 20 years [5, 8]. Though adaptive immune-mediated damage is generally considered the primary cause of the long-term graft failure, the immunological events leading to chronic rejection are still poorly understood, with a resulting dearth of predictive diagnostic tools and interventions. A significant portion of studies have focused on adaptive immunity to alloantigens, yet chronic rejection is only loosely associated with T and B cell immunity [2, 3, 9], necessitating a novel approach.

Numerous studies have shown that the microbiota is a driving force in immune dysfunction and thus a potential diagnostic or therapeutic target [10-12]. Gut microbiota was shown to trigger pro- or anti-inflammatory signals that regulate local and systemic innate and adaptive immune homeostasis [13]. Cell surface and secreted microbial components such as cell walls, nucleic acids, and metabolites interact with innate and adaptive immunity through receptors on endothelial cells, innate lymphoid cells (ILC), dendritic cells (DC), and lymphocytes [14-16]. Conversely, regulatory T cells (Tregs) influence the microbiota composition and directly recognize the microbiota through antigen-specific receptors [17], while the microbiota directly instructs Foxp3+ Tregs [18, 19]. While changes in the microbiota following organ and bone marrow transplant have been well documented [20-31], these studies, as well as those focused on different diseases, have been largely associative. Together, these observations emphasize the

challenges while also providing the rationale for characterizing the microbiota and determining

the precise mechanisms it employs to modulate inflammation and immunity, that consequently

affect chronic organ damage.

Given the myriad therapeutic interventions during the transplant process, defining the

specific mechanisms through which the gut microbiota interacts with the host immune system

remains elusive. The immune system and microbiota have bidirectional interactions, and in

transplantation, immunosuppression alters the immune system, while antibiotic (abx) and

immunosuppression administration both alter the microbiota [32-34]. Disruption of the microbiota,

for example through abx treatment, has been shown to impact graft survival. Lei et al. [22] showed

that abx alone improved graft survival. We observed significant changes in LN stromal structures

defined by laminin α4:α5 ratios in mice treated with abx and single bacterial strain transfer (SBT)

[35], consistent with other studies showing that abx have long-term effects on microbiota structure

[15, 32, 36-38], and immune events initiated by the microbiota persist as changes in LN structure

and function [39]. While studies have previously demonstrated associations of bacteria such as

Bifidobacterium species with anti-inflammatory activities [40, 41], or *Desulfovibrio* species with

pro-inflammatory consequences [42, 43], the host pathways leading to these inflammatory

outcomes have not been fully characterized, as most studies have focused on the early and local

gut host responses to these bacteria, and few studies have investigated distal or systemic and

long-term consequences of these bacterial stimuli.

We previously demonstrated that both the gut microbiota as a whole or the responsible

single species can profoundly influence the outcomes of vascularized cardiac allografts [35]. Oral

gavage with a single anti-inflammatory strain of *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum* (*Bifido*) resulted

in similarly significant improvement in long-term allograft survival and the prevention of

inflammation and fibrosis in the grafts as did gavage with the whole feces of pregnant mice

(immune suppression) [35]. On the other hand, the single pro-inflammatory strain of

Desulfovibrio desulfuricans (*Desulfo*) triggered higher inflammation, similar to using the whole

feces of colitic mice (immune inflammation) [35]. These findings implicated these single bacterial

strains as major microbial drivers of the overall immunomodulatory effects and allograft outcomes

from the pregnant and colic mouse microbiomes. Further characterization of the *Bifido*-induced

innate immune response revealed a balanced anti-inflammatory and homeostatic cytokine

response from DCs and macrophages (MΦ). *Bifido* also induced changes in LN structure,

resulting in an increased ratio of laminin α4:α5 in the cortical ridge (CR), a microdomain structure

mechanistically associated with immunologic suppression and tolerance [35]. In comparison,

Desulfo was associated with inflammation and induced diametrical effects with reduced laminin

α4:α5 ratios [35]. These initial observations demonstrated that single bacterial species influence

inflammation and fibrosis, and ultimately affect allograft outcomes and alloimmunity, through

broad effects on the local, regional, and systemic innate and adaptive immune systems.

This study expanded on our initial findings [35] by further dissecting the molecular

pathways involved in the interactions among specific immune cell populations, LNs, and selected

members of the gut microbiota (i.e., *Bifido* and *Desulfo* species). Using our *in vivo* model

combining SBT, allogenic heart transplant, abx and immunosuppression drug treatment, we

further detailed the dynamic immunomodulatory properties of pro-tolerogenic and pro-

inflammatory bacteria on graft outcome. We specifically investigated the immunologic changes

that take place over time in order to understand the onset, progression, and durability of SBT-

induced immunomodulatory effects. Similar to our previous findings [44], different strains of *Bifido*

exerted unique immunomodulatory effects both *in vivo* and *in vitro.* Furthermore, *Bifido* and

Desulfo directly acted on innate immune cells *in vitro*. In addition to charactering the individual

immunomodulatory properties of abx and tacrolimus immunosuppression, we also showed that

Bifido induced an anti-inflammatory phenotype while *Desulfo* resulted in a pro-inflammatory

phenotype *in vivo*. Most outstandingly and unique to this study, the *Bifido* effect on LN architecture

and immune cell composition was most pronounced within 7 days of treatment, with the bacteria-

driven effects becoming attenuated over time, so that pro- and anti-inflammatory effects of both

bacteria were observed. These dynamic changes highlight the importance of early innate immune

cell engagement and LN architectural changes in the modulation of pro-tolerant versus pro-

inflammatory immune responses in organ transplant recipients.

RESULTS

Bifido and Desulfo result in changes in long term graft health and LN laminin $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ ratios

Mice were treated with the antibiotics (abx) cocktail to deplete their normal microbiota, after which gavage was performed using WT mouse whole stool samples (control) or single bacterial strains of *B. pseudolongum* ATCC27774 (*Bifido* ATCC), *B. pseudolongum* UMB-MBP-001 (*Bifido* MD), or *D. desulfuricans* (*Desulfo*) for SBT. Cardiac transplants were then performed with low dose tacrolimus immunosuppression that was administered daily. Allografts were assessed for inflammation and fibrosis 40 days after transplant along with LNs for architectural changes characterized by the ratio of laminin $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ via immunohistochemistry (IHC).

Mice that received *Bifido* ATCC SBT had lower cardiac allograft inflammation scores than mice gavaged with *Desulfo* or treated with control gavage (**Fig. 1a**), consistent with our previous results [35]. Histology revealed more CD4+ helper and CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes in the grafts of *Desulfo* treated mice (**Fig. 1b**), compatible with increased cytotoxicity, rejection, and inflammation. The LN laminin $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ ratio in the CR and the high endothelial venules (HEV) was significantly higher in *Bifido* ATCC gavaged mice compared to WT stool control mice (**Fig. 1c**), consistent with a more suppressive and tolerogenic immune environment.

We previously demonstrated that porcine-derived *Bifido* ATCC and murine-derived *Bifido* MD elicited strain-specific patterns of immune changes both *in vitro* and *in vivo* [44]. To examine whether these differences extended to allograft inflammation and long-term changes in LN architecture and immune cell homing, we performed allogeneic cardiac transplants comparing both *Bifido* ATCC *and Bifido* MD SBT as well as *Desulfo* and control PBS gavage. There were no episodes of early rejection and animals were sacrificed at day 40. Analysis of their LNs, spleen, and intestine revealed the following:

Flow cytometry: By flow cytometry, there were increased CD11c+ DCs within pLN of *Bifido* ATCC treated compared to control and other SBT groups (**Fig. 1d)**. Otherwise, no differences were

observed between treatment groups for CD4 or CD8+ T cells, Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DCs, or

F4/80+ MΦ populations in mLN, pLN, or spleen.

Mesenteric LN immunohistochemistry cell analysis: By IHC, there were increased Foxp3+ Tregs

around HEV of mLN in *Desulfo* treated mice **(Fig. 1e)**.

Peripheral LN immunohistochemistry cell analysis: In the pLN, *Bifido* MD and *Desulfo* treated

mice had decreased Foxp3+ Tregs around HEVs (**Fig. 1f**). *Bifido* ATCC treated mice had

increased F4/80+ MΦ compared to control and *Desulfo*, and decreased CD11c+ DCs in pLN CR

(Fig. 1f). *Bifido* MD also displayed decreased CD11c+ DCs around pLN HEV (**Fig. 1f**).

LN laminin ratios: Bifido and *Desulfo* treated mice had decreased laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios around the

mLN CR, consistent with a more inflammatory immune environment **(Fig. 1g)**.

Intestine immunohistochemistry: In the intestine, *Bifido* ATCC treated mice had increased Foxp3+

Tregs, decreased F4/80+ MΦ, and increased CD11c+ DCs compared to control. While *Desulfo*

treated mice had decreased F4/80 MΦ compared to control and decreased Foxp3+ Tregs and

CD11c+ DCs compared to *Bifido* ATCC **(Fig 1h)**. Overall, *Desulfo* had mixed effects in mLN with

anti-inflammatory Foxp3+ Treg increases as well as pro-inflammatory decreased laminin ratios.

While in the pLN and intestine, *Desulfo* had pro-inflammatory effects with decreased Foxp3+

Tregs. *Bifido* MD showed pro-inflammatory changes as well with decreased pLN Foxp3+ Tregs

and decreased mLN laminin ratios. *Bifido* ATCC showed anti-inflammatory effects with increased

intestine Foxp3+ Tregs. Both *Bifido* MD and ATCC showed decreased CD11c+ DCs in the pLN.

Bifido ATCC showed increased pLN F4/80+ MΦ. In contrast to pLN, *Bifido* ATCC showed an

increase in intestinal CD11c+ DCs and decreased F4/80+ MΦ.

We next investigated whether these changes persisted 60 days after transplant and SBT.

Analysis of their LNs and spleen revealed the following:

Flow cytometry: By flow cytometry, splenic CD4 and CD8+ T cells were decreased in *Bifido* MD

treated mice compared to control. B220+ B cells were increased in spleens of *Bifido* MD treated

mice **(Fig. 1i)**. In the mLN, B220+ B cells were increased with *Bifido* MD treatment **(Fig. 1j)**. In

the pLN of *Bifido* MD treated animals, F4/80+ MΦ were decreased compared to control **(Fig. 1j)**.

Mesenteric LN immunohistochemistry cell analysis: By IHC, *Bifido* MD treated mice had

decreased Foxp3+ Tregs in the CR, increased F4/80+ MΦ around HEV and CR, and decreased

CD11c+ DCs around HEV and CR **(Fig. 1k)**. *Desulfo* treated animals had decreased Foxp3+

Tregs in CR, increased F4/80+ MΦ in CR, and decreased CD11c+ DCs around both HEV and

CR **(Fig. 1k)**.

Peripheral LN immunohistochemistry cell analysis: In the pLN, *Bifido* MD treated mice had

decreased Foxp3+ Tregs in the CR and increased CD11c+ DCs around HEV and CR **(Fig. 1l)**.

Desulfo treated mice also had decreased CD11c+ DCs in CR compared to *Bifido* **(Fig. 1l)**.

LN laminin ratios: In the pLN CR, *Desulfo* treated mice showed increased ratios compared to both

control and *Bifido* **(Fig. 1m)**. Laminin ratios were also increased with *Desulfo* compared to *Bifido*

in pLN HEV and mLN HEV **(Fig. 1m)**.

Intestine immunohistochemistry: In the intestine, *Bifido* MD treated mice had decreased Foxp3+

Tregs compared to control and *Desulfo* and increased CD11c+ DCs compared to control and

Desulfo **(Fig. 1n)**. Overall, on day 60, *Bifido* MD mice showed decreased splenic T cells and

increased B cells along with increased mLN B cells and decreased pLN F4/80+ MΦ by flow

cytometry. By IHC, *Bifido* MD showed pro-inflammatory effects with decreased Foxp3+ Tregs in

mLN, pLN, and intestine, similar to day 40. *Desulfo* resulted in mixed effects with pro-inflammatory

mLN changes with decreased Foxp3+ Tregs and anti-inflammatory laminin ratios in both mLN

and pLN in contrast to its effects at day 40. *Bifido* MD and *Desulfo* showed increased mLN F4/80+

MΦ and decreased mLN CD11c+ DCs.

Single dose administration of *Bifido MD, Bifido ATCC*, and *Desulfo* each elicited significant

differences in LN architecture and immune cell homing compared to one another. Based on gut

microbiota and IHC data from 40 and 60 days post-SBT, we hypothesized that the systemic

effects of SBT take place early and attenuate over time, as the immune system re-equilibrates

and as the microbiota reverts over time.

Early changes in intestinal and LN immune compartment structure due to *Bifido* and

Desulfo

The above results suggested that the microbiota regulated global immune states, with

functional consequences for alloimmunity. To assess the initial immune changes that set the

stage for this immunomodulation, we focused on early changes in LN and intestine T cell and

myeloid cell content and distribution as well as LN laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios. Given the complex and

multidirectional interactions of abx, SBT, and tacrolimus treatments on the gut microbiome and

immune system, we assessed these components individually by treating mice with abx alone for

7 days, tacrolimus alone for 3 days, or both treatments together (7 days of abx followed by 3 days

of tacrolimus). By flow cytometry, tacrolimus reduced overall cellularity of CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T

cells, Foxp3+ Tregs, and B220+ B cells in mLN. However, there were no significant differences

in the pLN **(Fig. 2a)**. By IHC, Foxp3+ Tregs were decreased in mLN HEV by abx, tacrolimus, and

the two together compared to untreated control **(Fig. 2b)**. In the mLN CR, Foxp3+ Tregs

decreased with tacrolimus alone and tacrolimus with abx **(Fig. 2b)**. CD11c+ DCs decreased with

tacrolimus treatment compared to control **(Fig. 2b)**. In the pLN, Foxp3+ Tregs were decreased

with abx treatment only **(Fig. 2c)**. CD11c+ DCs were decreased by tacrolimus and abx alone in

pLN CR **(Fig. 2c)**. In the mLN HEV, laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios were decreased by abx alone (**Fig. 2d**).

In the intestine, Foxp3+ Tregs were decreased by either abx or tacrolimus, but not the two

together in intestine **(Fig. 2b)**. Conversely, intestine F4/80+ MΦ were increased by either abx or

tacrolimus, but not the two together **(Fig. 2c)**. CD11c+ DCs were only increased by tacrolimus in

intestine **(Fig. 2d)**. In the intestine tacrolimus increased Foxp3+ Tregs, F4/80+ MΦ, and CD11c+

DCs **(Fig. 2e)**. Overall, tacrolimus alone decreased mLN cellularity by flow cytometry. Tacrolimus,

abx, and the two together were pro-inflammatory, as shown by decreased Foxp3+ Tregs in mLN

and pLN as well as decreased laminin ratios in mLN. It was only in intestine that tacrolimus alone

had anti-inflammatory effects by increasing Foxp3+ Tregs. These findings reinforce the notion

that abx and immunosuppression, alone and in concert, exert distinct pro-inflammatory LN

perturbations, prior to addition of SBT.

Building on these early immune changes due to these single or combined variables, mice

were next treated with abx (6 days), SBT (PBS, *Bifido* MD, *Bifido* ATCC, or *Desulfo)* at day 0 and

then tissues obtained for analysis at day 3. The results are as follows:

Flow cytometry analysis: By flow cytometry, in the mLN, *Bifido* ATCC resulted in decreased CD4+

T cells. *Desulfo* resulted in increased CD11c+ DCs compared to *Bifido* MD. F4/80+ MΦ were also

increased with *Desulfo* compared to *Bifido* MD **(Fig 3a)**. In pLN, *Bifido* ATCC resulted in increased

CD8+ T cells compared to control. CD11c+ DCs were decreased in the pLN of all treatment

groups compared to control. B220+ B cells were increased in the pLN of *Desulfo* treated animals

compared to *Bifido* MD. In the spleen, there were increased F4/80+ MΦ with *Bifido* MD treatment

compared to *Desulfo* and control **(Fig. 3a)**.

Mesenteric LN immunohistochemistry: Foxp3+ Tregs were increased in mLN CR with *Bifido* and

Desulfo treatments. F4/80+ MΦ were decreased in CR by *Bifido* ATCC and in CR and HEV by

Bifido MD and *Desulfo* **(Fig. 3b)**.

Peripheral LN immunohistochemistry: In pLN CR, *Bifido* ATCC resulted in decreased Foxp3+

Tregs compared to control. CD11c+ DCs were increased compared to control with *Bifido MD* in

pLN CR. F4/80+ MΦ were increased in pLN CR with *Bifido* MD compared to control **(Fig. 3c)**.

LN laminin ratios: In the mLN HEV and CR, *Bifido* ATCC resulted in increased laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios

compared to control, *Desulfo*, and *Bifido* MD. There were no changes in pLN laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios

(Fig. 3d).

Intestine immunohistochemistry cell analysis: In the intestine, *Desulfo* treated mice showed

increased Foxp3+ Tregs compared to *Bifido* and control **(Fig 3e)**. *Bifido* MD mice had decreased

CD11c+ DCs compared to *Desulfo, Bifido* ATCC, and control. F4/80+ MΦ were decreased in all

SBT treatment groups compared to control **(Fig. 3e)**. Overall, despite pro-inflammatory decreased

pLN Foxp3+ Tregs with *Bifido* ATCC, there were also anti-inflammatory mLN architectural and

Foxp3+ Treg changes. *Bifido* MD had a smaller anti-inflammatory effect with increased Foxp3+

Tregs in the mLN. *Desulfo* treated mice showed anti-inflammatory changes in the intestine with

increased Foxp3+ Tregs. Since both *Bifido* strains differentially modulated immune responses

and since *Bifido MD* is murine-tropic with improved anti-inflammatory capacity *in vitro* [44], further

transplant experiments were carried out using the *Bifido MD* strain.

We then sought to incorporate immunosuppression at this early time point. Mice were next

treated with abx (6 days), single bacterial SBT at day 0, daily tacrolimus starting on day 0, and

then tissues obtained for analysis at day 3.

Flow cytometry analysis: By flow cytometry, there were no changes observed in mLN or pLN

numbers or relative percentages of CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, Foxp3+ Tregs, or B220+ B cells.

There were also minimal changes observed in numbers and percentages of CD11c+ DCs or

F4/80+ MΦ, or their subsets defined by CD11b, CD103, and/or CX3CR1 surface receptors

(Suppl. Fig. S1). Our data indicated that the addition of tacrolimus to the above treatment protocol

eliminated the minor changes observed by flow cytometry in mLN, pLN, and spleen after 3 days.

Mesenteric LN immunohistochemistry: Foxp3+ Tregs and CD11c+ DCs were increased and

F4/80+ MΦ decreased in the CR in both *Bifido* and *Desulfo* treated groups. Thus, while the

absolute numbers and ratios of cell content did not change as assessed by flow cytometry, the

microanatomic distribution of these cells around the CR, the region where Foxp3+ Tregs are

induced and activated, did change **(Fig. 4a)**.

Peripheral LN immunohistochemistry: In the pLN, *Desulfo* resulted in increased F4/80+ MΦ in the

HEV **(Fig. 4b)**. There were otherwise no significant changes in Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DCs, or

F4/80+ MΦ in the pLN HEV or CR.

LN laminin ratios: Analysis of LNs for stromal fiber remodeling in regional mLN showed increased

laminin α4:α5 ratios, suggestive of a more suppressive environment, in the CR with *Bifido* MD

treatment as compared to *Desulfo* and *Bifido* ATCC **(Fig. 4c)**. In the systemic pLN, there were

decreased laminin α4:α5 ratios in the HEV and CR with *Desulfo* compared to control **(Fig. 4c)**. In

the pLN HEV, both *Bifido* treatments also resulted in decreased laminin ratios compared to

control.

Intestine immunohistochemistry: IHC of intestinal segments showed a decrease in Foxp3+ Tregs

cells in *Bifido* and *Desulfo* treated groups compared to control (**Fig. 4d**). There were no changes

in F4/80+ MΦ and CD11c+ DCs. These observations suggested that the addition of

immunosuppressant may inhibit early intestinal changes between animals treated with abx and

SBT only. Overall, *Bifido* resulted in anti-inflammatory changes in the mLN with increased Foxp3+

Tregs and laminin ratios, similar to the prior treatment regimen without tacrolimus. However, *Bifido*

also caused pro-inflammatory changes in pLN and intestine with decreased laminin ratios and

Foxp3+ Tregs, respectively. *Desulfo* displayed a largely pro-inflammatory phenotype with

decreased pLN laminin ratios and decreased Foxp3+ Tregs in the intestine despite increased

mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, in contrast with a *Desulfo* anti-inflammatory effect with the prior treatment

regimen lacking tacrolimus. These results showed that the early microbiota induced changes in

immune content and structure of LNs and subsequent suppressive or inflammatory

responsiveness was further modulated by the addition of immunosuppressant tacrolimus.

We next studied the capability of tacrolimus to modulate the alloimmune response to abx

and SBT. C57BL/6 mice were treated with abx, followed by SBT using PBS, or gavage with either

Bifido MD or *Desulfo*, cardiac transplantation, and tacrolimus (3 mg/kg/d) on the day of transplant.

The tacrolimus was continued daily for 7 days, and the recipients were euthanized on day 8 after

transplant to assess changes in immune cell content and LN architecture between treatment

groups. The results are as follows:

Mesenteric LN immunohistochemistry: *Desulfo* treatment resulted in decreased mLN Foxp3+

Tregs compared to control and *Bifido* and decreased mLN CR CD11c+ DCs compared to *Bifido*

(**Fig. 5a**).

Peripheral LN immunohistochemistry: *Desulfo* resulted in decreased pLN Foxp3+ Tregs and

CD11c+ DCs compared to control and *Bifido* (**Fig. 5b**) consistent with a more pro-inflammatory

environment.

LN laminin ratios: *Bifido* resulted in a pro-tolerant phenotype, with increased laminin α4:α5 ratios

in the mLN CR compared to control (**Fig. 5c**)**,** whereas *Desulfo* resulted in increased ratios in the

pLN HEV compared to control and *Bifido*.

Intestine immunohistochemistry: Both *Desulfo* and *Bifido* treated mice had decreased CD11c+

DCs compared to control (**Fig. 5d**)*.* Overall, *Bifido* resulted in pro-tolerant mLN laminin changes

while *Desulfo* resulted in pro-inflammatory changes with decreased mLN and pLN Foxp3+ Tregs

at day 7.

We further assessed this immunomodulatory effect after a longer period of time. C57BL/6

mice were treated with abx, followed by gavage with PBS, or SBT with either *Bifido* MD or *Desulfo*,

cardiac transplantation, tacrolimus daily for 14 days, and the recipients were euthanized on day

15 after transplant to assess changes in immune cell content and LN architecture between

treatment groups. The results are as follows:

Mesenteric LN immunohistochemistry: There were no changes in Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DCs,

or F4/80+ MΦ in pLN HEV or CR (**Fig. 5e**).

Peripheral LN immunohistochemistry: *Bifido* treatment resulted in increased Foxp3+ Tregs in HEV

compared to control and CR compared to both *Desulfo* and control. *Desulfo* had increased

CD11c+ DCs in CR and around HEV compared to control (**Fig. 5f**).

LN laminin ratios: *Bifido* resulted in increased laminin α4:α5 ratios around mLN HEV compared

to control and *Desulfo* (**Fig. 5g**). However, there were no differences in the ratios of laminin

expression with *Bifido* treatment in pLN.

Intestine immunohistochemistry: In the intestine, *Desulfo* treated mice had decreased F4/80 MΦ

compared to control **(Fig. 5h)**. Overall, *Bifido* resulted in pro-tolerogenic changes in pLN with

increased Foxp3+ Tregs and mLN with increased laminin ratios, whereas *Desulfo* appeared to

have a neutral effect at day 14.

Bifido and Desulfo induced early changes in T cell responses

To characterize T cell trafficking in response to the gut microbiota, C57BL/6 mice were

treated with abx, followed by gavage with PBS, or SBT with either *Bifido* MD or *Desulfo*, and

cardiac transplantation. Mice also received adoptive transfer of alloantigen specific, T cell receptor

transgenic TEa T cells (2×10^5) along with tacrolimus on the day of transplant. The tacrolimus

was continued daily for 7 days, and the gut microbiota characterized over this time. The recipients

were euthanized on day 8 after transplant to assess migration and differentiation of the alloantigen

specific T cells to mesenteric and systemic LNs, spleens and grafts as assessed by both IHC and

flow cytometry. Analysis of their LNs revealed the following:

Flow cytometry analysis: After 7 days, the proportion of transferred TEa cells in mLN or pLN did

not differ between treatment groups. However, very few transferred cells were detected in spleen

of *Desulfo* treated animals compared to *Bifido* and control (**Fig. 6a**). Transferred TEa cells

differentiated into more Foxp3+ Tregs in the pLNs of *Desulfo* treated groups compared to control

(**Fig. 6a**). However, there were fewer effector CD4 CD44+CD69- T cells (Teff) in *Bifido* mLNs and

pLNs compared to the *Desulfo* and control groups (**Fig. 6a**). These changes in the *Bifido* group

were consistent with an increased suppressive mLN environment and the increased suppressive

environment observed by IHC above **(Fig 5a)**.

Graft inflammation and fibrosis were similar across the 3 study groups, as expected for

this very early post-transplant time point (**Suppl. Fig. S2**). Importantly, the gavage treatments did

not affect serum tacrolimus levels across study groups (**Suppl. Fig. S3**), showing that these

immunologic effects were not due to microbiota induced alterations in exposure to

immunosuppression.

Given the small differences in allograft outcomes at 7 days post-transplant between

treatment groups, we next sought to characterize T cell trafficking, LN occupancy and structure,

and allograft outcomes after additional time had passed (14 days post-transplant). Mice were

treated as above and euthanized after 14 days. Analysis of their LNs revealed the following:

Flow cytometry analysis: After 14 days, the proportion of transferred TEa cells in pLN and spleen

was greater in *Bifido* treated animals compared to control and *Desulfo*. There was no difference

between groups in the mLN **(Fig. 6b)**. Contrary to 7 days, after 14 days, transferred TEa cells

differentiated into the greatest percentage of Foxp3+ Tregs in the pLN and spleen of control

animals with *Desulfo* treated animals also having a greater percentage than *Bifido MD* in spleen

(Fig.6c). Furthermore, there was a greater percentage of Teff cells in *Bifido* mLN compared to

control and *Desulfo.* In the pLN, there was a decreased percentage of Teff cells in *Desulfo* treated

animals compared to control **(Fig. 6d)**. The ratio of Treg:Teff was greatest in *Desulfo* compared

to *Bifido* in mLN, pLN, and spleen **(Fig. 6e)**. Overall, these data show a reversal of the trend of

increased mLN Treg:Teff seen in the 7 day treatment group. This may suggest that despite

decreased LN Foxp3+ Tregs in the *Bifido* group compared to *Desulfo* at 14 days, the increased

Foxp3+ Tregs seen at 7 days may have been redeployed to the allograft by this timepoint,

explaining the decreased fibrosis in *Bifido* allografts at day 14. It is also important to note that

fewer overall TEa cells survived in *Desulfo* treated animals compared to *Bifido* and control, and

thus it is difficult to strictly compare the percentages of individual cell types in *Desulfo* treated

mice to the other two treatment groups. Lastly, as noted above, the early tolerogenic versus pro-

inflammatory effects of *Bifido* and *Desulfo*, respectively, became mixed and less distinct at later

time points.

Graft inflammation was similar across the 3 study groups, as expected for this very early

post-transplant time point (**Suppl. Fig. S2**). However, there was greater fibrosis in *Desulfo* treated

animals compared to *Bifido* or control after 14 days **(Fig. 6f)** consistent with our previous findings

[45].

Myeloid response involved in LN remodeling

The results above demonstrated that anti- and pro-inflammatory signals from the gut

microbiome were transmitted to the LN, resulting in remodeling of the laminin $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ fiber ratios

and subsequent graft acceptance or graft inflammation and fibrosis. Since the gut is the largest

immune organ and functions as a physical barrier against luminal microbes and also a critical

interface between commensal microbiota and innate immune cell populations [46], we sought to

investigate the role of myeloid cell homing in transducing signals between the gut and LN. To

understand the sequence of immunologic events that lead to these alterations, we characterized

the requirement for CCR2-dependent myeloid cell mobilization and responses in LN remodeling.

The CCR2 antagonist RS504393 was administered for 7 days to inhibit monocyte and MΦ

recruitment. Mesenteric and systemic LNs were harvested and laminin $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ ratios evaluated by

IHC, and lymphoid and myeloid cells by IHC and flow cytometry. Transplantation and graft survival

were also evaluated in mice treated with the CCR2 antagonist.

RS504393 administration alone decreased the expression of both laminin $\alpha4$ and $\alpha5$ in

the pLN CR and HEV, however the $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ ratios remained unchanged (**Fig. 7**). RS504393

treatment showed a minor, but significant (p=0.02) prolongation in graft survival, median survival

time (MST) of 15.3 days, compared to control, MST of 6.7 days.

Next, mice received combinations of abx (6 days), gavage with *Bifido* MD or *Desulfo* single

bacterial species or PBS (day 0), and RS504393 (7 days). Assessing LN and spleen by flow

cytometry, the *Bifido* group had decreased mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, but otherwise revealed no major

effects on the overall numbers or percentages of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, B220+ B cells, CD11c+

DCs, or F4/80+ MΦ (**Fig. 8a**).

By IHC in the mLN CR, Foxp3+ Tregs decreased after *Desulfo* treatment compared to

Bifido and control **(Fig. 8b)**. Both *Desulfo* and *Bifido* decreased CD11c+ DCs in mLN CR **(Fig.**

8b). F4/80+ MΦ were decreased in the mLN HEV and CR with both *Desulfo* and *Bifido* (**Fig 8b**)*.*

In the pLN, there were minimal changes apart from *Desulfo* treatment resulted in increased

F4/80+ MΦ compared to *Bifido* in CR **(Fig. 8c)**.

Bifido and *Desulfo* caused increased laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios compared to control, with *Bifido*

causing greater ratios than *Desulfo* in mLN **(Fig. 8d)**. In the pLN, *Desulfo* resulted in increased

laminin ratios compared to *Bifido* and control **(Fig. 8d)**. Since SBT with both bacterial species and

RS504393 increased laminin ratios in mLN compared to abx alone which decreased the ratios

(Fig. 2d), this suggests that CCR2 inhibition abrogated these pro-inflammatory LN changes.

In the intestine, by IHC, CD11c+ DCs decreased with *Desulfo* and F4/80+ MΦ were

decreased with *Bifido*, compared to control **(Fig. 8e)**. Overall, *Bifido* resulted in anti-inflammatory

mLN laminin ratios while *Desulfo* resulted in a mixed effect with decreased Foxp3+ Tregs in the

mLN as well as increased laminin ratios in mLN and pLN. Notably, both *Bifido* and *Desulfo*

resulted in decreased mLN F4/80+ MΦ and CD11c+ DCs. These effects suggest that CCR2

inhibition may abrogate some of the pro-inflammatory effects of *Desulfo*, but not *Bifido.*

To assess the impact of CCR2-mediated myeloid migration on allograft outcomes, mice

were transplanted with allogeneic hearts along with combinations of abx (6 days), gavage with

Bifido or *Desulfo* single bacterial species or PBS (day 0), and RS504393 (7 days). Consistent with

previously shown differences in graft inflammation scores between *Bifido* MD and *Desulfo groups*,

Desulfo treated mice rejected allografts earlier than PBS and *Bifido* treated mice (MSTs 12.5, 16,

and 19 days, respectively, p<0.004) (**Fig. 8f**).

As noted above, abx (6 days), SBT, allogeneic cardiac transplant, and tacrolimus (7 days)

showed that *Bifido* resulted in pro-tolerant mLN laminin changes while *Desulfo* resulted in pro-

inflammatory pLN laminin changes as well as decreased Foxp3+ Tregs. *Desulfo* treatment also

resulted in decreased pLN CD11c+ DCs compared to control. Both *Desulfo* and *Bifido* treated

mice had decreased CD11c+ DCs compared to control. Compared to RS504393 treatment,

tacrolimus did not disturb the pro-tolerant or pro-inflammatory effects of *Bifido* or *Desulfo*,

respectively.

To further understand whether CCR2-mediated myeloid homing was required for

mediating immunomodulatory effects of microbiota during pharmacologic immunosuppression,

combinations of abx (6 days); SBT with *Bifido* MD, *Desulfo*, or PBS (day 0); and tacrolimus plus

RS504393 (7 days) were administered. Intestinal tissues, LN, and spleens were then obtained.

Flow cytometry for CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, B220+ B cells, CD11c+ DCs, and F4/80+ MΦ showed

no major effects on the overall numbers or percentages (**Suppl. Fig. S4**). By IHC in the mLN,

Desulfo resulted in increased Foxp3+ Tregs and CD11c+ DCs in HEV and CR **(Fig. 9a)**. In the

mLN CR, *Bifido* also resulted in increased Foxp3+ Tregs. In pLN, *Desulfo* resulted in decreased

Foxp3+ Tregs in pLN HEV **(Fig. 9b)**. Both *Desulfo* and *Bifido* resulted in decreased CD11c+ DCs

in pLN HEV and CR. In the pLN HEV, *Desulfo* resulted in decreased and F4/80+ MΦ **(Fig. 9b)**.

There were no changes in LN laminin $\alpha4{:}\alpha5$ ratios in mLN or pLN **(Fig. 9c)**.

In the intestine, there was also no difference in immune cell populations **(Fig. 9d)**. Overall,

Bifido resulted in minor anti-inflammatory changes in mLN with increased Foxp3+ Tregs while

Desulfo resulted in pro-inflammatory decreases in Foxp3+ Tregs in mLN and pLN. Neither *Bifido*

nor *Desulfo* resulted in LN architectural changes. Together, these observations suggest that

RS504393 and tacrolimus together inhibit at least some of the immunomodulatory capabilities of

Bifido and *Desulfo*.

Bifido* and *Desulfo* impact the activation programming of myeloid cells *in vitro

We further sought to characterize the nature of gut microbiota-myeloid cell interactions.

We previously demonstrated that *Bifido* induced more balanced anti-inflammatory and

homeostatic cytokine responses in the JAWS DC and RAWS MΦ cell lines, compared to *Desulfo*.

We extended these initial observations by using the different strains of *Bifido* against primary bone

marrow derived DCs (BMDCs) and peritoneal MΦ. These isolated myeloid cells were then

stimulated in culture with UV-killed *Bifido* ATCC, *Bifido* MD, or *Desulfo*. After 24 hours of

stimulation, the myeloid cells were harvested, and supernatants tested for IL-6, IL-10 and TNFα

by ELISA. BMDC and MΦ were analyzed by flow cytometry for activation markers MHC II, CD40,

CD80, and CD86. BMDCs displayed increased MHC II in response to *Desulfo* and *Bifido* ATCC.

Bifido ATCC, *Bifido* MD, and *Desulfo* all increased CD40 expression, with *Desulfo* stimulating the

greatest increase. Both *Bifido* MD and *Desulfo* increased CD80 expression, whereas only *Desulfo*

increased CD86 **(Fig. 10a)**. Amongst cultured peritoneal MΦ, the proportion of M1 phenotype

(F4/80+ MHC II+) was not affected by treatment **(Fig. 10b)**. However, *Bifido* MD treatment led to

an increased proportion of M2 (F4/80+ CD206+) compared to control, *Desulfo* leading to more

M2 than *Bifido* MD, and *Bifido* ATCC with the greatest proportion of M2. CD40 expression

increased with any bacteria treatment compared to control amongst the M1 subset **(Fig. 10b)**.

Although not surprising that bacteria directly activate antigen presenting cells (APCs), each

bacteria triggers a unique activation pattern suggesting that APCs may contribute to mediating

microbiota-specific signals from the gut.

Furthermore, examining the concentration of cytokine in the supernatant of each of these

cultures also revealed unique patterns. In BMDCs, TNFα was elevated with *Desulfo* and *Bifido*

ATCC, but not *Bifido* MD **(Fig. 10c)**. IL-6 was elevated in all groups with progressively higher

levels from *Bifido* MD to ATCC to *Desulfo*, respectively. While IL-10 was elevated in all treatment

groups, levels were highest with *Bifido* ATCC **(Fig. 9c)**. BMDC responses to *Bifido* co-culture was

consistent with relative anti-inflammatory phenotype (decreased TNFα and IL-6 with increased

IL-10) compared to *Desulfo.* In peritoneal MΦ, TNFα was elevated by *Desulfo* **(Fig. 10d)**. Both

Bifido ATCC and *Desulfo* led to increased IL-6. While both *Bifido* ATCC and *Bifido* MD led to

increased IL-10, and *Desulfo* treated MΦ expressed an even higher level **(Fig. 10d).** While

Desulfo treatment also seemed to stimulate a pro-inflammatory phenotype in MΦ with elevated

IL-6 and TNFα, the bacteria also stimulated more IL-10 compared to *Bifido*. However, in keeping

with flow cytometry data and prior cell line findings, *Bifido* and *Desulfo* were able to stimulate

distinctive activation patterning in APCs as evidenced by surface marker expression and cytokine

production.

Early changes in intestinal barrier function due to tacrolimus and bacterial gavage

Intestinal epithelial barrier function is critical for normal gut homeostasis, whereas its

dysfunction and associated microbial dysbiosis have been associated with both gastrointestinal

and neuroinflammatory diseases [47-49]. Changes in intestinal permeability therefore are

reflective of the gut epithelial barrier response to luminal environmental cues. Given the

differential impact of *Desulfo* and *Bifido* on allograft outcomes and LN architecture, as well as the

modulatory effect of abx (7 days) and tacrolimus (3 days), we sought to assess changes in

intestinal permeability in response to these treatments. We observed that tacrolimus induced

decreased permeability compared to no treatment, whereas abx did not significantly change

permeability **(Fig. 11a)**. Mice that received abx pre-treatment followed by SBT and tacrolimus

showed decreased intestinal permeability with both *Bifido* and *Desulfo* compared with control after

3 days; and *Bifido* showed less of a decrease compared to *Desulfo* **(Fig. 11b)**. These results

indicate tacrolimus alone significantly reduced intestinal permeability, likely via induced anti-

inflammatory intestinal changes [50]. However, with addition of abx to tacrolimus, this effect was

abolished.

However, in mice receiving SBT, tacrolimus, and heart transplants, *Desulfo* treated

animals displayed elevated permeability compared to controls at day 7 **(Fig. 11c)**. At day 14,

although the *Desulfo* group still demonstrated significantly higher permeability compared to

control, this difference was less prominent than at day 7 **(Fig. 11d)**. These results suggest that

the pro-inflammatory *Desulfo* exerted a profound impact on the intestinal epithelium compared to

Bifido after 7 days, while this effect became attenuated by 14 days.

Early profound impact of bacterial gavage on microbiota with equilibration at later time

points

We next sought to address the stability of bacterial determinant colonization and its

relationship with the host microbiome in a clinically relevant murine model following cardiac

transplant [35]. In brief, C57BL/6 mice were treated with abx, followed by SBT with either *Bifido*

MD or *Desulfo* or gavage with control WT stool, and cardiac transplantation. Mice also received

tacrolimus daily for 40 days, and the gut microbiota was characterized longitudinally over this time

using 16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing. The among-sample diversity of the microbial

community, as measured by Shannon diversity index, showed that overall microbial diversity

decreased within the first 2 weeks after *Bifido* and *Desulfo* SBT, with restoration of diversity at

later time points **(Fig. 12a)**. The between-sample diversity of the microbial community, calculated

using Jensen–Shannon divergence distance, demonstrated distinct separation of *Bifido* and

Desulfo after SBT, while the gut microbiota composition profiles of all 3 treatment groups

converged by week 2 **(Fig. 12b)**. These results indicate the profound, yet transient impact of both

Bifido and *Desulfo* on the gut microbiota.

Further taxonomic analysis revealed the major species responsible for the altered gut

microbiota composition and structure following SBT **(Fig. 12c-j)**. The change in relative

abundance of all taxonomic groups is shown in **Suppl. Fig. S4**. Most outstandingly, we observed

Bifidobacterium, *Bacteroides*, and *Clostridiales* were among the groups most responsive to SBT.

Notably, *Bifidobacterium pseudolongum* was most abundant after SBT with *Bifido*, although it was

present at lower levels in *Desulfo* and control groups, but sharply decreased within 2 weeks in

the *Bifido* group **(Fig. 12c)**. This decrease in *B. pseudolongum* was accompanied by a steep

increase in *Bifidobacterium animalis*, a murine gut commensal that cohabitates with *B.*

pseudolongum, which likely became more abundant due to their complementary carbohydrate

assimilation capabilities of luminal substrates **(Fig. 12d)**. *Bacteroidales* family S24-7, a group of

fermentative anaerobic commensals that often predominate murine gut microbiota [51], sharply

decreased after SBT and was restored from week 2 onward **(Fig. 12e)**. Further, *Akkermansia*

muciniphila, a human and murine commensal known for its anti-inflammatory and mucin-

degrading properties [52], sharply increased only in response to *Bifido* gavage **(Fig. 12f)**. *A.*

muciniphila reached peak abundance at week 2, followed by a stable, reduced level through week

6. In our previous study [44], *A. muciniphila* was shown to be enriched in the gut microbiota in

Bifido MD gavaged mice, despite its overall low abundance. Further, *Lachnospiraceae* and

Ruminococcus, obligate anaerobes within *Clostridiales* with diverse fermentative capabilities,

were highly variable following SBT, potentially due to shifting luminal substrates **(Fig. 12g-j)**.

Overall, these results indicate the drastic and dynamic changes in gut microbiota composition and

structure brought on by single bacterial gavage. The significant, yet transient impact of bacterial

determinants on the host microbiome further implicates the profound influence these strains exert

on the gut microbiome as well as their critical role in host immunomodulation.

DISCUSSION

This study recapitulated our initial findings of the deterministic role that single bacterial

strains play in pro- and anti-inflammatory host immune modulation [35] and further elucidated the

cellular and molecular pathways involved over time in the multifaceted interactions among

different immune cell populations in response to bacterial determinants. Not only were specific

bacterial strains able to skew alloimmune responses toward tolerance or rejection, but we also

showed that abx, immunosuppression, and transplantation each modified this process. Most

outstandingly, we demonstrated the time-dependent effect of pro-tolerogenic and pro-

inflammatory bacterial strains (*Bifido* and *Desulfo*, respectively) on immunological events and

graft outcome. These results emphasize a critical holistic understanding of these variables

including timing of SBT administration, as transplant recipients are exposed to all of these agents

over the course of their medical care.

We previously showed that *Bifido* and *Desulfo* gavage were able to exert pro-tolerant and

pro-inflammatory LN effects after 14 days, respectively [35]. In this study, we expanded on these

findings to show that *Bifido* and *Desulfo* affected LN architecture and immune cell content and

distribution as early as 3 days following gavage and was stable at the cellular level up to 7 days.

Improved allograft fibrosis with pro-tolerant bacteria was stable up to 14 days. These bacterial

effects, which were most pronounced at early time points became obscured over time, as

evidenced by both pro and anti-inflammatory changes in LN architecture and immune cell content

and distribution beyond 14 days of treatment. We speculate that these kinetic changes may be

the result of complex interactions among the multiple treatments each mouse received. First, long-

term immunosuppression can lead to dysbiosis in human transplant recipients [53]. Preliminary

work by our group has confirmed that treatment with immunosuppression alone significantly alters

the gut microbiome after 30 days [54] and that the host metabolome is altered by SBT after 7

days [55]. Second, abx can significantly impede the colonization of specific bacterial strains due

to increased colonization by antimicrobial drug resistance strains, resulting in blooms of

pathogenic bacteria [56, 57]. Third, the availability of nutrient niches within the host microbiota

strongly influences the colonizing potential and stability of individual administered bacteria [57].

Our data showed that both abx and tacrolimus exerted pro-inflammatory mLN architectural

changes and decreased Foxp3+ Treg content in both mLN and pLN, although tacrolimus also

showed anti-inflammatory effects in the intestine by increasing Foxp3+ Tregs and decreased

intestinal permeability. Our results confirmed our earlier findings that *Bifido* exerts pro-tolerant

changes and *Desulfo* exerts pro-inflammatory LN changes early on, while suggesting that LN

architecture and lymphocyte content changes are dynamic over longer treatment periods, as in

the case of this study, at 40 to 60 days. These observations strongly suggest that immune

analyses require a detailed appreciation of several major variables and an assessment of both

short and long-term changes. In particular, for microbiota-informed interventions, longitudinal

monitoring of bacteria colonization and consideration of repeated administration may be critical

to ensure a long term biotherapeutic effect [53, 58].

We previously showed that *Bifido* MD and ATCC elicited strain-specific differential effects

on innate immune cell activation, tolerogenic LN architecture, and host transcriptome profiles [44].

In this study, when mice were treated with abx and SBT, murine-isolated *Bifido* MD elicited early

pro-tolerant immune changes after 3 days while porcine-isolated *Bifido* ATCC demonstrated

mixed pro and anti-inflammatory effects. We speculate that these strain-specific

immunomodulatory effects may be rooted in adaption to the mammalian gut microenvironments

from which they were derived. This is in agreement with other studies showing that bacteria-

induced immune modulation is not dictated by bacterial phylogeny [59, 60]. Though the specific

mechanisms of bacterial immunomodulatory effects vary among strains and remain largely

unclear, the modulation of endogenous gut microbiome with consequent effects on intestinal

metabolism and immunity is critically involved in this process [61]. The various taxonomic groups

that were shown to respond to SBT in this study demonstrate the major involvement of

endogenous gut microbiota as intermediate variables between the bacterial determinant and host

immune response. For example, S24-7, one of the major responders to both *Bifido* and *Desulfo*,

can be considered an innate immune system target due to their degree of IgA-labeling [62, 63].

Furthermore, the observed decrease in *B. pseudolongum* with concomitant increase in

Bifidobacterium animalis following SBT, highlights the complex dynamic nature of the gut

microbiota as well as the phenomenon of "functional redundancy", describing that physiologic

processes, such as anti-inflammatory signals, can be carried out by different bacterial species of

the microbiome at different times. In fact, recent studies redefine the "microbiome core" as the

"ecological core" that presents components of the microbiome, keystone species or metabolic

pathways, that are disproportionally important for shaping community physiological properties

[64]. *Bifido* SBT therefore affects the ecological core, potentially through alterations to pivotal

metabolic activities of keystone species.   When mice were treated with abx, SBT, and

immunosuppression, *Bifido* MD also showed increased anti-inflammatory activity in mLN with

increased laminin ratios; however, both strains displayed pro-inflammatory effects in pLN with

decreased laminin ratios. These data confirm that *Bifido* MD and ATCC possess strain-specific

immunomodulatory properties *in vivo* and that these effects were likely due to the gut

microenvironment, which was further modulated by the addition of immunosuppressant

tacrolimus.

Having observed LN changes in architecture and Treg content, we next showed that mice

receiving abx, SBT, heart transplant, and donor specific TEa cell infusion developed fewer CD4

Teff in mLN and pLN with *Bifido* treatment after 7 days compared to *Desulfo* and control groups,

consistent with a suppressive environment. IHC data matched this in showing more anti-

inflammatory changes with *Bifido* and pro-inflammatory changes with *Desulfo*. In similarly treated

mice followed for 14 days, *Bifido* mice continued to show anti-inflammatory LN architecture

changes by IHC, but relatively fewer TEa Treg compared to *Bifido* treatment after 7 days,

suggesting that these cells may have been redeployed to the allograft. In fact, *Bifido* treated mice

had decreased allograft fibrosis scores after 14 days compared to *Desulfo* and control. In a recent

study of mouse model of spontaneous tolerance, by 2-3 weeks post-transplant, accepted renal

allografts develop peri-arterial Treg-rich organized lymphoid structures [65], suggesting that Treg

deployment to the graft is important. In keeping with 16S rRNA data above, the pro-tolerant

immunomodulatory effects of *Bifido* SBT were stable for at least 14 days following gavage.

We also focused on the roles of innate immune cells in the mechanisms of gut microbiota

induced immunomodulation. CCR2 is necessary for MΦ migration, and blocking CCR2 modified

the immunomodulatory properties of *Bifido* and *Desulfo.* In particular, RS504393 abrogated the

pro-inflammatory effects of *Desulfo* more than *Bifido*. Despite this effect, when mice were treated

with abx, SBT, heart transplant, and RS504393, *Desulfo* treated mice still rejected faster than the

Bifido treated group. This further supports that while CCR2 may play a role in mediating the

immunomodulatory effects of *Bifido* and *Desulfo*, there are additional mechanisms at play.

Furthermore, when tacrolimus was added to abx, SBT, and RS504393, pro-tolerant LN laminin

architectural changes in mLN and pLN seen with abx, SBT, and RS504393 were eliminated.

Using an in vitro culture system of primary DC and MΦ to specifically study the effect of microbiota

on innate immune cells, we also showed that *Bifido* and *Desulfo* act directly on innate immune

cells. Furthermore, different strains of *Bifido* exerted unique immunomodulatory effects. Similar

to *in vivo* data, porcine derived *Bifido* ATCC yielded more pro-inflammatory effects compared to

murine derived *Bifido* MD. *Desulfo* was even more pro-inflammatory compared to *Bifido* ATCC.

Overall, these observations demonstrated that DC and MΦ were likely critical for transducing

microbiota induced changes in the intestine to adaptive immune cells in the gut and further

downstream to mLN and pLN.

The gut microbiota is intimately involved with innate immunity through cells such as MΦ

and DC, and their subsequent effects on the host adaptive immune response. Intestinal MΦ form

an interdigitated network with the entire mucosal lamina propria vasculature; these connections

are disrupted in the absence of microbiota, which also correlates with increased bacterial

translocation across the lamina propria [66]. Sensing of mucosal-associated bacteria is triggered

by the Mincle-Syk (and not MyD88) signaling pathway in lysozyme-expressing DCs, inducing IL-

6 and IL-23 which in turn stimulate intestinal Th17 and IL-17-secreting ILCs to produce IL-17 and

IL-22 [67]. In addition to their well-known roles in antigen presentation, myeloid cells have major

roles in regulating secondary lymphoid organ structure and function. Chyou *et al.* [68] and Kumar

et al. [69] showed the importance of DCs in regulating the structure of LN vasculature and stromal

cells in response to and resolution of immune responses. Matozaki and colleagues identified

important roles for SIRPα+ DCs in determining the growth and differentiation of LN stromal

fibroblastic reticular cells (FRC) [70, 71]. FRCs in turn are responsible for constructing the laminin

α-chain scaffold that promotes immunogenic or tolerogenic niches within the LN to regulate

immune responses [72-74]. Together, these investigations suggest an essential mechanism

whereby the microbiota stimulates gut myeloid responses, which in turn regulate regional or

systemic responses via soluble mediators or migration to the LN. The LN responses include

functional alterations in FRC and vascular stromal cells that determine microdomain structures in

the LN that regulate adaptive immune responses. Future studies may assess the axis of

communication between microbiota, APCs homing between gut and LN, and FRCs.

Our results emphasize that abx and immunosuppression alone and in concert modulate

LN architecture and immune cell composition. Within this network, SBT with *Bifido* induced an

early anti-inflammatory phenotype while *Desulfo* resulted in a pro-inflammatory phenotype using

both the in vivo transplant model and primary cell culture. This is effect is likely related to the

transient stability of each gavaged bacterial determinant within the host microbiota, as evidenced

by our longitudinal 16S RNA data. The gut microbiota can act directly on MΦ and DC, and the

immunomodulatory effect of *Desulfo* is mediated at least partially through CCR2, as receptor

blockade abrogated bacterial pro-inflammatory effects *in vivo*. At later times, both bacteria were

associated with mixed effects in their impact on LN architecture and immune cell composition.

However, *Bifido* and *Desulfo* likely act through several other mechanisms. Future studies are

warranted to assess the stability of *Bifido* and *Desulfo* colonization following bacterial gavage

using longitudinal high resolution metagenome analysis, the ideal timing and dosing regimen of

bacterial determinants to achieve long lasting immune modulation, and probe bacteria-secreted

mediators that exert critical immunomodulatory effects over time. These dynamic effects highlight

the importance of early innate immune cell engagement and LN architectural changes in the

modulation of pro-tolerant versus pro-inflammatory immune responses in organ transplant

recipients.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

Study approval

All the procedures involving mice were performed in accordance with the guidelines and regulations set by the Office of Animal Welfare Assurance of the University of Maryland School of Medicine, under the approved IACUC protocol nos. 1518004 and 0121001.

Mice

Female C57BL/6 mice were used as cardiac transplant recipients, normal stool donors, and pregnant stool donors. C57BL/6 mice were from the University of Maryland School of Medicine Veterinary Resources breeding colony. Cardiac donors were female BALB/c mice, purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). C57BL/6 and BALB/c mice were used between 8 and 14 weeks of age. TEa T cell receptor transgenic mice [75] on a C57BL/6 background that spontaneously develop colitis, due to a lack of Tregs, were used as the source for colitic stool and were a gift from Alexander Rudensky (Memorial Sloan Kettering Cancer Center, New York, NY, USA) [76, 77].

Bacterial strain cultivation

We previously described *B. pseudolongum* isolation methods from mouse feces [78] , from which the *B. pseudolongum* UMB-MBP-01 (*Bifido* MD) strain was isolated. The *B. pseudolongum subsp*. *pseudolongum Mitsuoka* ATCC25526 (*Bifido* ATCC) isolate was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassas, VA). Both *B. pseudolongum* UMB-MBP-01 and ATCC25526 isolates were used in cell stimulation and cytokine assays, after being initially grown anaerobically at 37°C for 3–5 days on Bifidus Selective Media (BSM) agar plates (Millipore Sigma, Burlington, MA), from which a single colony was selected and grown in BSM broth (Millipore Sigma, 90273-500G-F) until stationary phase (up to 3 days). *Desulfovibrio desulfuricans subsp. desulfuricans* (ATCC 27774) was purchased from ATCC (Manassas, VA) and grown in ATCC 1249 Modified Baar's Medium (MBM) for sulfate reducers, which was made according to

739   the ATCC protocol. Cultures were initially incubated under anaerobic conditions for 5 days on

740   MBM agar plates, after which single colonies were chosen, transferred to liquid media, and

741   incubated for up to 3 weeks.

742
Cell culture

Murine bone marrow (BM) derived dendritic cells (BMDC) were generated using a previously

published protocol [79]. Briefly, the marrows from femurs and tibiae of female C57BL/6 mice were

flushed with PBS. The single cell suspension was cultured in a 100 mm petri dish in cell culture

medium RPMI-1640 supplemented with penicillin (100 U/ml), streptomycin (100 µg/ml), L-

glutamine (2 mM), 2-mercaptoethanol (50 µM), heat inactivated FCS (10%) (Sigma-Aldrich, St.

Louis, MO).   The medium was supplemented with rmGM-CSF (10 ng/ml, R&D Systems,

Minneapolis, MN), refreshed every 3 days. After 10 days, loosely attached cells were collected

as immature BMDC and stimulated as described below. Peritoneal MΦ were harvested using a

previously published protocol [80]. Briefly, elicited MΦ were harvested from C57BL/6 mice which

received 3 ml of 3% Brewer Modified Thioglycolate Medium (Becton Dickinson, Sparks, MD) i.p.

Four days later, MΦ were harvested by injecting 5 ml of ice-cold PBS, three times, into the

peritoneal cavity. Cells were resuspended in complete medium and stimulated as described

below.

757
Cell stimulation, cytokine and chemokine assays

D. *desulfuricans* ATCC 27774 or *B*. *pseudolongum* cultures were spun down, the supernatant

collected, and bacterial cells killed by UV exposure at 100 µJ/cm^2 for four 15-minute cycles with

a UV CrossLinker (Fisher Scientific, Hampton, NH). BMDC and peritoneal MΦ (1 x 10^6) were

seeded into duplicate 12-well plates in 1 ml complete medium. The following day, myeloid cells

were   stimulated   with   UV-killed *B. pseudolongum* MD,   *B. pseudolongum* ATCC,

or *D. desulfuricans* bacteria at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 5 for 24 hours. Culture

supernatants were collected for ELISA. ELISAs for TNFα, IL-6, and IL-10 were purchased from

BioLegend (San Diego, CA) and CCL19 from Boster Biological Technology (Pleasanton, CA).

767
Source stool collection and SBT

Stool was collected from normal female C57BL/6 mice between 8 and 14 weeks of age, pregnant

C57BL/6 mice at approximately days 8–14 of pregnancy, and colitic TEa mice after the onset of

colitis (usually 3 months of age). Pregnant mice were timed using a combination of vaginal plug

monitoring, mouse weight tracking, and back-calculation from day of mouse pup birth (C57BL/6

gestation is 19.25 days). Pellets were weighed, homogenized in PBS at 200 mg/ml, and frozen at

–80°C until use. Cultured *B. pseudolongum* ATCC25526 bacteria were suspended at $1 \times$

10^8 CFU/ml in PBS and used fresh. For SBT, mice were fed abx (kanamycin, gentamicin, colistin,

metronidazole, and vancomycin) ad libitum in drinking water on days –6 to –1 before transplant.

On day 0, C57BL/6 mice received BALB/c hearts. Fecal samples (200 µl, 200 mg/ml) or

cultured *B. pseudolongum* ATCC25526 (200 µl, 1×10^7 CFU/ml) were also transferred on day 0

by oral gavage. Mice received daily immunosuppression of tacrolimus (3 mg/kg/d s.c.) starting on

day 0 [81, 82]. Fecal pellets and intestinal tissue were collected from transplanted mice and

analyzed via 16S rRNA gene sequencing.

782
Reagents

Antibiotics were USP grade or pharmaceutical secondary standard: kanamycin sulfate (0.4 mg/ml,

MilliporeSigma), gentamicin sulfate (0.035 mg/ml, MilliporeSigma), colistin sulfate (850 U/ml,

MilliporeSigma), metronidazole (0.215 mg/ml, MilliporeSigma), and vancomycin hydrochloride

(0.045 mg/ml, MilliporeSigma) were dissolved in vivarium drinking water and administered ad

libitum. Tacrolimus (USP grade, MilliporeSigma) was reconstituted in DMSO (USP grade,

MilliporeSigma) at 20 mg/ml. DMSO stock was diluted to 2–3 mg/kg with absolute ethanol (USP

grade, Decon Labs). DMSO/ethanol stock was diluted 1:5 in sterile PBS for s.c. injection and

injected at 10 µl/g. Anti-CD40L mAb (clone MR1) grown in serum-free medium was obtain from

BioXCell (Lebanon, NH). The CCR2 antagonist RS504393 (Tocris Bioscience, Bristol, UK) by

resuspending to 10 mM in DMSO and then further diluting in PBS for administration at 2 mg/kg/d

s.c. for 7 days to inhibit monocyte and MΦ recruitment.

795
Histology

Cardiac allografts were assessed for survival by abdominal palpation; harvested at day 40, day

60, or time of rejection defined by two consecutive days without palpable heart beats; fixed for 2

days in 10% buffered formalin (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA); and transferred to 70%

ethanol. Samples were embedded in paraffin, processed and stained with H&E or Masson's

trichrome. H&E samples were evaluated for parenchymal rejection score (from 0–4) using

previously published criteria [83]. Trichrome samples were scored 1–4, with 1 as minimal (<10%

area), 2 as mild (10%–30%), 3 as moderate (30%–50%), and 4 as severe (>50%). Slides were

read by multiple individuals blinded to the treatment group of the specimen. Scores for each slide

were averaged.

806
Immunohistochemistry

Mesenteric and peripheral LN, and segments of intestine between the duodenum and jejunum

were separately excised and immediately submerged in OCT compound (Sakura Finetek,

Torrance, CA) or fixed using paraformaldehyde. Sections (6 µm) were cut in triplicate using a

Microm HM 550 cryostat (ThermoFisher Scientific) and fixed in cold 1:1 acetone:methanol, for 5

minutes, washed in PBS, or left unfixed for fluorescent microscopy. Primary antibodies were

diluted between 1:20 and 1:200 in PBS and incubated for 1 hour in a humidified chamber. The

antibodies are listed in Supplemental Table 1. Sections were then washed with PBS, and the

secondary antibody was applied at a 1:50–1:400 dilution for 30 minutes (Supplemental Table 1).

Slides were washed in PBS for 5 minutes, coverslipped, and imaged using an Accu-Scope EXC-

500 fluorescent microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) and the images analyzed with Volocity

software (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA). Three mice/group, 3-4 mesenteric LN or peripheral LN or

pieces of intestine, 3-6 sections/tissue sample, and 10-15 fields/tissue samples were analyzed.

Mean of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) was calculated within demarcated high endothelial

venules (HEV) and cortical ridge (CR) regions of mLN and pLN as well as of whole intestinal

images. Percent area was calculated by dividing the sum area of demarcated regions with marker

fluorescence greater than a given threshold divided by total area analyzed. Treatment groups

were compared using quantitation of MFI multiplied by percent area to express both area and

intensity of cell and ECM markers.

826
Intestinal permeability assay

Intestinal permeability was assessed as described previously [84]. Briefly, mice were gavaged

with FITC-dextran (Catalog# 46944, MW: 4000; Sigma, St. Louis, MO) at a dose of 60 mg/100g

body weight at a 120 mg/mL concentration. Four hours later, after euthanasia, blood was collected

via cardiac puncture and allowed to clot at room temperature for 2 hours in the dark. Tubes

containing blood were centrifuged at 10,000xg for 10 minutes at 4°C and supernatant serum

collected. FITC-dextran serum concentration (μg/ml) was measured in duplicates using a black,

flat-bottom, 96-well plate (Greiner bio-one, Frickenhausen, Germany) on a FlexStation 3

Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA) using an excitation wavelength of 490 nm

and emission wavelength of 530 nm.

837
Statistics

Datasets were analyzed using GraphPad Prism 9.3.1 (San Diego, CA) with statistical significance

defined for $P < 0.05$. For comparisons of fluorescent markers (including laminin $\alpha4$:$\alpha5$ ratios),

serum markers, and inflammation scores, Turkey's multiple comparisons tests of one-way

ANOVA were used to test for significance.

Stool specimen collection and DNA extraction

Stool pellets were collected fresh from cardiac transplant recipients at weekly or biweekly intervals

until graft rejection or termination of the experiment. Stool samples were placed in RNAse-free

1.7-ml tubes (Denville Scientific, Holliston, MA), stored at 4°C overnight, and then frozen at –80°C

until analyzed. DNA extraction from mouse stool pellets was adapted from procedures developed

at the Institute for Genome Sciences and previously published [35]. In brief, 0.15-0.25 grams of

fecal samples were extracted using the MagAttract PowerMicrobiome DNA/RNA kit (Qiagen,

Hilden, Germany) implemented on a Hamilton STAR robotic platform and after a bead-beating

step on a TissueLyzer II (Qiagen) in 96-deep well plates. Negative extraction controls were

included to ensure that no exogenous DNA contaminated the samples during extraction. DNA

quality control/quality assurance was performed using spectrophotometric measurements on a

NanoDrop (ThermoFisher Scientific) and gel electrophoresis.

16S rRNA gene amplicon sequencing

Using a dual-indexing strategy for multiplexed sequencing developed at the Institute for Genome

Sciences and described in detail elsewhere [85, 86], the V3-V4 hypervariable region of the 16S

rRNA gene was PCR amplified and sequenced on the Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, San Diego, CA).

PCR reactions were set up in 96-well microtiter plates using 319F (5′ -

ACTCCTACGGGAGGCAGCAG - 3′) and 806R (5′ - GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT - 3′) as

universal primers, each with a linker sequence required for Illumina MiSeq 300bp paired-end

sequencing, and a 12-bp heterogeneity-spacer index sequence to minimize biases associated

with low-diversity amplicon sequencing [85, 86]. Reactions were performed using Phusion High-

Fidelity DNA polymerase (ThermoFisher Scientific) and 50 ng of template DNA in a total reaction

volume of 25 µl. PCR-negative controls without DNA template were performed for each primer

pair. The following cycling parameters were used: 30 seconds at 98°C, followed by 30 cycles of

10 seconds at 98°C, 15 seconds at 66°C, and 15 seconds at 72 °C, with a final step of 10 minutes

at 72 °C. Successful amplification was confirmed using gel electrophoresis, after which amplicon

cleanup and normalization was performed using the SequalPrep Normalization Plate kit

(Invitrogen). A total of 25 ng of 16S PCR amplicons from each sample was pooled, and

sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq (Illumina) according to the manufacturer's

protocol.

875
Microbiota analysis

After screening 16S rRNA gene reads for low-quality bases and short read lengths [85, 86],

paired-end read pairs were assembled using PANDAseq [87], demultiplexed, trimmed of artificial

barcodes and primers, and assessed for chimeras using UCHIME in *de novo* mode implemented

in Quantitative Insights Into Microbial Ecology (QIIME; release v. 1.9.1) [88]. The resulting quality

trimmed sequences were then clustered *de novo* into OTUs with the GreenGenes 16S database

(v. 13.8) in QIIME, with a minimum confidence threshold of 0.97. Taxonomic ranks were assigned

to each sequence using the Ribosomal Database Project [89] Naïve Bayesian Classifier v.2.2 [90]

trained on the Greengenes database (Aug 2013 version) [91], using a confidence value cutoff of

0.8. To account for uneven sampling depth and to ensure less biases than the standard approach

(total sum normalization), data were normalized with metagenomeSeq's cumulative sum scaling

(CSS) [92] when appropriate. Sequencing analyses includes denoising, *de novo*, and reference-

based chimera detection were conducted with UCHIME v5.1 [93]. R packages of Vegan [94],

Phyloseq [95], Bioconductor [96], metagenomeSeq [92] and ggplot2 [97] were used for the

following analyses. The α diversity (within-sample diversity) was estimated using the Shannon

diversity index [98]. β-Diversity (between-sample diversity) was determined through

multidimensional scaling (MDS) plots using Jensen–Shannon divergence distance to visualize

the level of divergence at the different sampling times. Jensen-Shannon divergence is a

measurement of dissimilarity between probability distribution, and the Jensen-Shannon metric is

the square root of the normalized Jensen-Shannon divergence value [99, 100].

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CONTRIBUTIONS

B.M., E.F.M, J.S.B, S.J.G, and V.S. designed the experiments. S.J.G, A.K., V.S., R.L., J.I., L.W., H.D., Z.L.L., L.L., M.W.S., C.M.P., W.P., and Y.L conducted and analyzed the *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments. T.Z. performed mouse microsurgery. L. H., H.W.L. performed bacteria cultivation and verification. B.M., E.M., J.S.B, S.J.G., and V.S. wrote the manuscript.

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Data availability

The 16S rRNA gene sequencing data generated in this study was deposited to Genbank under BioProject PRJNA809764 (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/809764).

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

FIGURES

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Figure 1. Effect of *Bifido* and *Desulfo* compared to normal SBT on cardiac graft

inflammation and LN remodeling. Mice given abx (6 days), then SBT (WT stool, *Bifido ATCC,*

or *Desulfo*) on the day of heart transplant, followed by tacrolimus for 40 days. **(a)** Graft

inflammation scores. **(b)** Foxp3+ Tregs, CD4, and CD8 T cells in the cardiac grafts. **(c)** Laminin

α4, α5, and ratios in pLNs. **(d)** Flow cytometry for CD11c+ DC in pLN. IHC for **(e)** Foxp3+ Tregs,

CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ around HEV and in CR of mLN, **(f)** Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and

F4/80+ MΦ around HEV and in CR of pLN, **(g)** laminin α4 and α5 ratios in pLN and mLN; **(h)**

intestine for F4/80+ MΦ, CD11c+ DC, and Foxp3+ Tregs. Mice given abx (6 days), SBT (WT stool,

Bifido MD, or *Desulfo*) on the day of heart transplant, followed by tacrolimus for 60 days. Flow

cytometry for **(i)** CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, and B220+ B cells in spleen; **(j)** mLN B220+ B cells,

and pLN F4/80+ MΦ. IHC of **(k)** Foxp3+ Tregs, F4/80+ MΦ, and CD11c+ DC in mLN; **(l)** Foxp3+

Tregs, F4/80+ MΦ, and CD11c+ DC in pLN; **(m)** laminin α4:α5 ratios in mLN and pLN; and **(n)**

Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ in intestine. Three mice per group, at least 2 mLN,

pLN, and sections of intestine at duodenal-jejunal junction per mouse, 3 sections/LN/staining

panel. Ordinary one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$,

*** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

1238

Figure 2. Changes in the distribution of lymphocytes and myeloid cells and LN structure

due to abx and tacrolimus. Mice given abx (6 days) with or without 2 days of tacrolimus. **(a)**

Flow cytometry for mLN CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, Foxp3+ Tregs, and B220+ B cells. IHC for

(b) mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ around HEV and in CR; **(c)** pLN Foxp3+

Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ around HEV and in CR; **(d)** laminin α4 and α5 and ratios in

mLN and pLN; **(e)** intestine Foxp3+ Tregs, F4/80+ MΦ, and CD11c+ DC. Statistical analysis as

in **Fig. 1**.

1246

Figure 3. Early changes in LN architecture and immune cell distribution due to SBT. Mice

given abx (6 days), then SBT (*PBS, Bifido ATCC, Bifido MD, or Desulfo*). After 3 days, LN, spleen,

and intestinal segments harvested. **(a)** Flow cytometry of mLN CD4+ T cells, CD11c+ DCs, and

F4/80+ MΦ; pLN CD8+ T cells, B220+ B cells, and CD11c+ DC; spleen F4/80+ MΦ. IHC for **(b)**

mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(c)** pLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and

F4/80+ MΦ; **(d)** laminin α4 and α5 and ratios in mLN and pLN; **(e)** intestine Foxp3+ Tregs,

CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ. Statistical analysis as in **Fig. 1**.

1254

Figure 4. Early changes in LN architecture and immune cell distribution due to SBT and

tacrolimus. Mice treated with abx (6 days), then SBT (*PBS, Bifido ATCC, Bifido MD, or Desulfo*),

followed by tacrolimus for 2 days. After 3 days, LN and intestinal segments harvested for IHC.

IHC for **(a)** mLN CR Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(b)** pLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+

DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(c)** laminin α4 and α5 and ratios in mLN and pLN; (d) intestine Foxp3+

Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ. Statistics as in **Fig. 1**.

1261

Figure 5. Changes in LN structure and immune cell distribution due to abx, SBT, heart

transplant, and tacrolimus at 7 and 14 days. (a-d) Mice given abx (6 days), then SBT

(PBS/*Bifido*/*Desulfo*) on the day of heart transplant with injection of TEa T cells (2 x 10^5 cells i.v.),

followed by tacrolimus for 7 days. IHC for **(a)** mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ;

(b) pLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(c)** laminin α4 and α5 and ratios in mLN

and pLN; **(d)** intestine Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ. **(e-h)** Mice given abx (6 days),

then SBT (PBS/*Bifido*/*Desulfo*) on the day of heart transplant with injection of TEa T cells (2 x 105

cells i.v.), followed by tacrolimus for 14 days. IHC for **(e)** mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and

F4/80+ MΦ; **(f)** pLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(g)** laminin α4 and α5 and ratios

in mLN and pLN; **(h)** intestine Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ. Statistics as in **Fig.**

1.

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Figure 6. Early changes in T cell and allograft responses due to abx, SBT, heart transplant,

and tacrolimus at 7 and 14 days. Mice given abx (6 days), then SBT (PBS/*Bifido*/*Desulfo*) on

the day of heart transplant with injection of TEa T cells (2 x 10^5 cells i.v.), followed by tacrolimus

for 7 days. **(a)** Flow cytometry of mLN, pLN, and spleen for CD4, TEa TCR, Foxp3, CD44, and

CD69. **(b-f)** Mice given abx (6 days), then SBT (PBS/*Bifido/Desulfo*) on the day of heart transplant

with injection of TEa T cells (2 x 105 cells i.v.), followed by tacrolimus for 14 days. Flow cytometry

of TEa cells in mLN, pLN, and spleen for **(b)** % of overall cells, **(c)** Foxp3+ Tregs, **(d)** CD44 and

CD69 markers, and **(e)** Treg:Teff ratio. **(f)** Cardiac allograft fibrosis by trichrome stain. Statistics

for IHC as in **Fig. 1**.

1283

1284   **Figure 7. Effect of CCR2 antagonist RS504393 on LN remodeling and graft survival. Mice**

1285   **received heart transplant followed by RSS504393 or IgG control for 7 days**. **(a)** IHC of pLN

1286   laminin expression. **(b)** Kaplan Meier Survival Curves. RS504393 (MST 15.3 +/- 5.1; n=3), Control

1287   IgG (MST 6.7 +/- 0.5; n=5). Statistics for IHC as in **Fig. 1**.

1288

Figure 8. Changes in the distribution of lymphocytes and myeloid cells and LN structure

due to abx, SBT and RS504393. Mice received abx (6 days), then SBT (PBS, *Bifido*, or *Desulfo*),

followed by RS504393 days for 7 days. **(a)** Flow cytometry of mLN Foxp3+ Tregs. IHC for **(b)**

mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(c)** pLN F4/80+ MΦ; **(d)** laminin α4 and α5

and ratios in mLN and pLN; **(e)** intestine CD11c+ DC and F4/80+ MΦ. Statistics for IHC as in **Fig.**

1. **(f)** Allograft survival in mice given abx (6 days), then SBT (PBS, *Bifido*, or *Desulfo*) on the day

of heart transplant, followed by RS504393 for 7 days . Kaplan-Meier analysis with Log Rank

Mantel-Cox test. (p=0.0033).

1297

Figure 9. Changes in the distribution of lymphocytes and myeloid cells and LN structure

due to abx, SBT, tacrolimus and RS504393. Mice received abx (6 days), then SBT, followed

by tacrolimus and RS504393 for 7 days. IHC for **(a)** mLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+

MΦ; **(b)** pLN Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC, and F4/80+ MΦ; **(c)** laminin α4 and α5 and ratios in

mLN and pLN; **(d)** intestine Foxp3+ Tregs, CD11c+ DC and F4/80+ MΦ. Statistics for IHC as in

Fig. 1.

1304

Figure 10. Microbiota directly modulate activity of innate immune cells *in vitro*. Bone

marrow derived DCs (BMDCs) and freshly isolated peritoneal MΦ stimulated with UV-killed *Bifido*

ATCC, *Bifido* MD, *Desulfo*, or media alone. After 24 hours **(a)** BMDC and **(b)** MΦ were analyzed

by flow cytometry for MHC II, CD40, CD80, and CD86. **(c)** BMDC and **(d)** MΦ culture supernatants

tested for IL-6, IL-10 and TNFα by ELISA. One-way ANOVA. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$,

**** $p < 0.0001$. Data representative of two separate experiments.

1311

Figure 11. Early changes in intestinal permeability are associated with abx, SBT, cardiac

transplant, and tacrolimus. (a) Mice given abx (6 days) or tacrolimus (2 days). **(b)** Mice given

abx (6 days), then SBT (PBS/*Bifido/Desulfo*), followed by tacrolimus for 3 days. **(c-d)** Mice given

abx (6 days), then SBT (PBS/*Bifido/Desulfo*) on the day of heart transplant with injection of TEa

T cells (2 x 10^5 cells i.v.), followed by tacrolimus for **(c)** 7 or **(d)** 14 days post-transplant. 3

mice/group. Serum samples analyzed in duplicate. Ordinary one-way ANOVA. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p <$

0.01, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$.

Figure 12. Profound early influence of SBT on gut microbiota with subsequent loss of

colonization and distinctive gut microbiota features after 2 weeks . Mice given abx (6 days),

then SBT (*Bifido* MD*/Desulfo*) or gavage with WT stool on the day of heart transplant, followed by

tacrolimus for 40 days post-transplant. 3 mice/group. Stool pellets collected longitudinally through

day 40. **(a)** The α diversity (within-sample diversity) was estimated using the Shannon diversity

index [98]. **(b)** β-Diversity (between-sample diversity) was determined through multidimensional

scaling plots using Jensen–Shannon divergence distance to visualize the level of divergence at

the different sampling times.

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Figure 1

Figure 1

Figure 1

g

Figure 1

Figure 1

Fig. 2

a

mLN
CD4⁺ T cells

mLN
CD8⁺ T Cells

mLN
Foxp3⁺ Treg

mLN
B220⁺ B cells

b

mLN HEV
Foxp3⁺ Treg

mLN CR
Foxp3⁺ Treg

mLN HEV
F4/80⁺ MΦ

mLN CR
F4/80⁺ MΦ

mLN HEV
CD11c⁺ DC

mLN CR
CD11c⁺ DC

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

a

Fig. 3

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 4

c

mLN HEV
Laminin α4:α5 Ratio

pLN HEV
Laminin α4:α5 Ratio

mLN CR
Laminin α4:α5 Ratio

pLN CR
Laminin α4:α5 Ratio

d

Intestine
Foxp3$^+$ Treg

Intestine
CD11c$^+$ DC

Intestine
F4/80$^+$ MΦ

Fig. 5

a

mLN CR
Foxp3+ Treg

mLN CR
CD11c+ DC

mLN CR
F4/80+ MΦ

mLN HEV
Foxp3+ Treg

mLN HEV
CD11c+ DC

mLN HEV
F4/80+ MΦ

b

pLN CR
Foxp3+ Treg

pLN CR
CD11c+ DC

pLN CR
F4/80+ MΦ

pLN HEV
Foxp3+ Treg

pLN HEV
CD11c+ DC

pLN HEV
F4/80+ MΦ

Fig. 5

Fig. 5

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

Fig. 6

e

mLN
Treg:T$_{eff}$ Cell Ratio

pLN
Treg:T$_{eff}$ Cell Ratio

spleen
Treg:T$_{eff}$ Cell Ratio

f **Trichrome Cardiac Allografts**

Fig. 7

a

b

Fig. 8

Fig. 9

Fig. 9

Fig. 10

Fig. 10

Fig. 11

Fig. 12