SIRT1 and SIRT3 mediated immuno-metabolic switch govern *Salmonella* survival within

infected macrophages both *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

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ABSTRACT

Salmonella continues to be a threat to the human population by taking a toll on the lives of

about 20,000 individuals globally per year. Host sirtuins or NAD+-dependent deacetylases are

the major players in host immuno-metabolic regulation. However, the role of sirtuins in the

modulation of the immune metabolism pertaining to Salmonellosis is largely unknown. Here,

we investigated the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in mediating immuno-metabolic switch along the

progression of *Salmonella* infection. Gene profiling (Nanostring) data along with flow

cytometric analysis indicated the ability of the wildtype *Salmonella* Typhimurium to skew the

polarization state of the macrophages from a pro-inflammatory M1 state toward an

immunosuppressive M2 state along its course of infection. Further, using shRNA-mediated

knockdown studies and catalytic inhibitor treatment, we showed that SIRT1 and SIRT3 play a

crucial role in mediating the immuno-metabolic switch that governs macrophage polarization

in *Salmonella*-infected macrophages. SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown or inhibition led to

decreased expression of M2 surface markers such as CD206 and showed increased production

of pro-inflammatory cytokines and ROS generation which together resulted in attenuated

bacterial intracellular proliferation within the infected RAW264.7 macrophages. Alongside

immunological functions by modulating p65 NF-κB acetylation, SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown

or inhibition also skew *Salmonella*-induced host metabolic shift towards increased fatty acid

oxidation by regulating acetylation status of HIF-1α and PDHA1 which in turn impacts the

metabolism of *Salmonella* within the infected macrophages. *In vivo* mice-model infection

studies highlighted the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in controlling bacterial burden and

dissemination.

Keywords: Immune regulation, metabolic shift, macrophage polarization, *Salmonella*

infection, bacterial dissemination, deacetylation

INTRODUCTION

Sirtuins are NAD+-dependent deacetylases that are present in all forms of life. *Saccharomyces*

cerevisiae serve as the founder of the discovery of Sir2. Sirtuins comprise a conserved core

catalytic domain that removes acetyl moiety from the lysine residues of proteins in presence of

NAD+ as a cofactor [1] giving rise to 2'O-acetyl-ADP-ribose and free nicotinamide as

products[2][3]. Free nicotinamide acts as a non-competitive inhibitor of sirtuins[4]. They

possess variable N terminal and C terminal domains that confer different subcellular

localization, substrate specificity, and functions[5]. Mammals have seven sirtuins that act on

different substrates like histones and transcriptional factors like p53, FOXO, PGC1α, UCP2,

liver X-receptor, and others. Thus, they are responsible for regulating various biological

functions such as cell survival, apoptosis, oxidative stress, metabolism, and

inflammation[6][7]. SIRT1,6 and 7 have nuclear localization, SIRT2 is cytoplasmic in nature

and SIRT 3,4 and 5 comprise the mitochondrial SIRTs. SIRT1 is the most characterized of all

the SIRTs and possesses strong homology with the yeast Sir2 protein. In addition to their

deacetylase activity, they possess ADP ribosylation (SIRT1, SIRT4, and SIRT6), desuccinylation and demalonylation (SIRT5), delipoylation (SIRT4), and demyristoylation and depalmitoylation (SIRT6) enzymatic activities [8]. Previous studies have shown that SIRT1-mediated alteration in gene expression interlinks metabolism and inflammation. SIRT1 gets activated in response to acute immune response and helps in its resolution. It deacetylates RelA/p65 component of NFκB thereby mediating its proteasomal degradation[9]. On the other hand, it activates RelB component of NFκB pathway. RelB causes heterochromatinization of pro-inflammatory genes like TNF-α and IL-β[10] alongside, it causes activation of the fatty acid oxidation genes. With the gradual progression toward the adaptive phase of the immune response, SIRT1 activates Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPARγ) coactivator-1α (PGC-1α) mediating a metabolic switch from glycolysis toward fatty acid oxidation. SIRT1-mediated RelB activation, in turn, activates SIRT3 causing the promotion of mitochondrial bioenergetics[11]. PGC-1α, a major player in mitochondrial biogenesis, activates SIRT3 [12] which in turn causes activation of PGC-1α, thereby fuelling a positive feedback loop. SIRT3 accounts for the major mitochondrial deacetylase orchestrating several metabolic processes such as fatty acid oxidation, promotion of the TCA cycle, and inhibition of ROS production[13].

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium is a facultative intracellular Gram-negative enteric pathogen, causing a wide array of infections ranging from self-limiting gastroenteritis to diarrhea in humans [14]. *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhi cause systemic infection in humans with typhoidal symptoms. Recent reports reported incidences of 21 million [15] typhoid cases and 93 million of non-typhoidal [16] cases round the year. The virulence of *Salmonella* is majorly regulated by two pathogenicity islands, namely, SPI-1 and SPI-2. It uses SPI-1 encoded T3SS and the effector proteins to invade host cells [17]. Inside the macrophages, they harbour within the SCV by virtue of its SPI-2 effectors [18]. Macrophages, dendritic cells and

neutrophils are responsible for successful dissemination throughout the body through the

reticulo-endothelial system (RES) [17].

Macrophages, serving as an intracellular niche for *Salmonella,* exhibit several continua of

polarization states. At the two extreme ends of the spectrum lie the classically polarized M1

macrophages and alternatively activated M2 macrophages. M1 macrophages comprise of the

proinflammatory antimicrobial state producing IL-1β, IL-6, TNF-α,IL-12, IFN-γ cytokines and

exhibit enhanced expression of CD80, CD86 surface markers. The anti-inflammatory M2

macrophages promote bacterial persistence by producing anti-inflammatory cytokines like IL-

10,TGF-β and show increased expression of Arg-1, CD206 surface markers[19][20]. To sustain

the continuous production of proinflammatory cytokines M1 macrophages rely on glycolysis

for their energy requirements. On the other hand, M2 macrophages are fuelled by enhanced

oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and fatty acid oxidation (FAO)[21].It has been

previously reported that sirtuins mediated attuning of metabolism impact polarization of

macrophages *in vivo*. SIRT1 has the ability to promote the polarization of M2 macrophages

and inhibit inflammation in macrophages of adipose tissue[22][23][24]. SIRT3 suppresses

ROS by deacetylating and activating MnSOD[25].

Several bacteria are known to subvert the host immune system toward an immunosuppressive

state. Pathogens like *Salmonella* or *Mycobacterium* have evolved mechanisms to counteract

the M1 state of the host macrophage. *Salmonella* Typhimurium uses its SPI-2 effectors to

inhibit the recruitment of NADPH oxidase to the *Salmonella* Containing Vacuoles (SCV),

thereby preventing oxidative burst mediated microbicidal activity[26]. Similarly,

Mycobacterium bovis bacillus Calmette-Gue´rin prevents NOS2 recruitment to

phagosomes[27]. *Salmonella* Dublin causes inhibition of the production of pro-inflammatory

cytokine like IL-18 and IL-12p70[28]. Moreover, *Mycobacteria* inhibits NFκB signalling and

IFN-γ mediated downstream pathways[29]. Furthermore, *Yersinia enterocolitica* elicits an M2

response by inducing Arginase-1 expression and TGFβ1 and IL-4production[30]. *Yersinia*

TTSS effector LcrV induces an M2 phenotype supposedly by IL-10 production[31].

Since SIRT1 and SIRT3 are the major modulators of the immuno-metabolic paradigm

governing the macrophage polarization, we intend to decipher the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in

influencing immuno-metabolism in *Salmonella* infection scenario. We show that *Salmonella*

infection modulates SIRT1 and SIRT3 expression along with the progression of infection.

Furthermore, we highlight the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in intracellular pathogen survival, ROS

production, immuno-metabolic switch together amounting to the modulation of macrophage

polarization. Here, we have showed that SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown triggered decreased

M2 surface marker expression such as CD206 along with increased production of pro-

inflammatory cytokines and ROS generation, together amounting to attenuated bacterial

intracellular proliferation within the infected macrophages. Moreover, SIRT1 mediated p65

NF-κB deacetylation played a vital role in immune function regulation within the *Salmonella*

infected macrophages. Further, we report the ability of the *Salmonella* pathogen to drive the

metabolic state of the host from glycolysis toward increased fatty acid oxidation in RAW264.7

macrophages. SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown or inhibition skewed this *Salmonella*-induced

host metabolic shift by regulating acetylation status of HIF-1α and PDHA1 which in turn

impacted the metabolism of *Salmonella* within the infected macrophages. In the contrary, in *in*

vivo mice-model of infection, SIRT1 and SIRT3 inhibition resulted in increased pathogen loads

in organs and triggered enhanced bacterial dissemination, together leading to increased

susceptibility of the mice to *S*. Typhimurium infection.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial Strains, and culture conditions

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (STM) strain ATCC 14028S or ATCC 14028S

constitutively expressing green fluorescent protein (eGFP) or mCherry (RFP) through pFPV

plasmid were used. 4% paraformaldehyde fixed STM (PFA) was used as the killed fixed

bacteria control. The above-mentioned live bacterial strain was grown overnight in LB broth

in 37 ^{0}C at 160 rpm shaking condition in presence or absence of appropriate antibiotic

(Ampiciilin-50μg/ml) (Table-1) after revival of the bacterial strains from glycerol stock (stored

at -80 ^{0}C).

Table:1: List of strains and plasmids used in this study

Strains/Plasmids	Characteristics	Source
Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium ATCC strain 14028S	Wild Type (WT)	Gifted by Prof. M. Hensel
pFPV:GFP	Amp^R	Laboratory Stock
pFPV:mCherry	Amp^R	Laboratory Stock
pLKO.2 : shRNA	Amp^R	Gifted by Prof. Subba Rao Gangi Shetty

Cell Culture

RAW 264.7 and J774A.1 murine macrophages were cultured in DMEM (Lonza) containing

10% FBS (Gibco) at 37 ^{0}C in a humified incubator with 5% CO_2. Prior to each experiment,

cells were seeded into 24 well or 6 well plate as per requirement at a confluency of 60%.

Peritoneal macrophages were collected in PBS from the peritoneal cavity of C57BL/6 mice

aseptically post thioglycolate treatment using 20G needle and 5ml syringe. Following

centrifugation, cell pellet was resuspended in RPMI-1640 (Lonza) containing 10% heat-

inactivated FBS (Gibco), 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 μg/ml streptomycin and seeded into 6

well- plate. 6hr prior to infection, antibiotic containing media was replaced with Penicillin-

Streptomycin free RPMI-1640 (Lonza) containing 10% heat-inactivated FBS (Gibco).

Transfection

shRNA mediated knockdown was carried out by PEI mediated transfection protocol. Plasmid

harbouring shRNA in pLKO.2 vector backbone specific to SIRT1 and SIRT3 were used for

transfection. Plasmid harbouring scrambled sequence of shRNA, served as a control, was also

used for transfection. Plasmid DNA was used at a concentration of 500ng per well of a 24-well

plate. Plasmid and PEI were added in 1:2 ratio in serum free DMEM media and incubated for

20 mins at room temperature. Post incubation, the DNA: PEI cocktail was added to the seeded

RAW 264.7 macrophages. After 6-8hrs of incubation, serum-free media was replaced with

complete media containing 10% FBS. Post 48hr of transfection, transfected cells were either

harvested for knockdown confirmation studies or subjected to infection with STM.

Table 2: List of shRNA used for knockdown

Sirtuins	Construct ID	TRC ID	Sequence (5'---3')
SIRT1	C4	TRCN0000218734	GTACCGGCATGAAGTGCCTCAGATAT TACTCGAGTAATATCTGAGGCACTTC ATGTTTTTTG
SIRT1	C12	TRCN0000018979	CCGGGCAAAGCCTTTCTGAATCTATC TCGAGATAGATTCAGAAAGGCTTTGC TTTTT

SIRT3	E8	TRCN0000038889	CCGGCCCAACGTCACTCACTACTTTC TCGAGAAAGTAGTGAGTGACGTTGG GTTTTTG
SIRT3	E12	TRCN0000038893	CCGGCCACCTGCACAGTCTGCCAAAC TCGAGTTTGGCAGACTGTGCAGGTGG TTTTTG

Infection Protocol

Macrophages were infected with stationary-phase bacterial culture with MOI of 10. For

synchronization of the infection, tissue culture plates were subjected to centrifugation at 600xg

for 5 min and incubated at 37 ^{0}C humified incubator with 5% CO_2 for 25 min. Cells were

washed with PBS and were treated with DMEM (Sigma) + 10% FBS (Gibco) containing 100

µg/ml gentamicin for 1 hr. Subsequently, the gentamicin concentration was reduced to 25

µg/ml and maintained until the cells were harvested.

Immunofluorescence confocal microscopic studies

At the specified time points post infection with GFP tagged STM, cells were fixed with 3.5%

paraformaldehyde for 15 min. Primary antibody staining was performed with specific primary

antibody in the presence of a permeabilizing agent, 0.01% saponin (Sigma) dissolved in 2.5%

BSA containing PBS at 4°C for overnight or for 6hr at room temperature (RT). Following this,

cells were washed with PBS stained with appropriate secondary antibody tagged with

fluorochrome for 1 hr at RT. This was followed by DAPI staining and mounting of the coverslip

onto a clean glass slide using the mounting media containing the anti-fade agent. The coverslip

sides were sealed with a transparent nail paint. All immunofluorescence images were obtained

using Zeiss LSM 710 or Zeiss LSM 880 and were analyzed using ZEN black 2012 software.

Quantitative Real Time PCR

Total RNA was isolated at specific time points post infection by using TRIzol (Takara) as per manufacturer's protocol. Quantification of RNA was performed in Nano Drop (Thermo-Fischer scientific). Quality of isolated RNA was detected by performing 2% agarose gel electrophoresis. 2 µg of RNA was subjected to DNaseI (Thermo Fischer Scientific) treatment at 37°C for 1 hr followed by addition of 0.5M EDTA (final concentration 5mM) and heat inactivation at 65°C for 10 mins. The mRNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using oligo $(dT)_{18}$ primer, buffer, dNTPs and reverse transcriptase (Takara) as per manufacturer's protocol. The expression profile of target gene was evaluated using specific primers (Table-3) by using SYBR green RT-PCR master mix (Takara) in BioRad Real time PCR instrument. β-actin was used as an internal control. All the reaction was setup in 384 well plate with two replicates for each sample.

Table 3: List of primers

Primer Name	Sequence (5'---3')
SIRT1 FP	ACAAAGTTGACTGTGAAGCTGTAC
SIRT1 RP	GTTCATCAGCTGGGCACCTA
SIRT3 FP	GCTGCTTCTGCGGCTCTATAC
SIRT3 RP	GAAGGACCTTCGACAGACCGT
PPARδ FP	CACAACGCTATCCGCTTTGG
PPARδ RP	ATGCTCCGGGCCTTCTTTTT
βactin FP	CAGCAAGCAGGAGTACGATG
βactin RP	GCAGCTCAGTAACAGTCCG
Acadl FP	CTTGGGAAGAGCAAGCGTACT
Acadl RP	CTGTTCTTTTGTGCCGTAATTCG

Hadha FP	AGCAACACGAATATCACAGGAAG
Hadha RP	AGGCACACCCACCATTTTGG
Acox1 FP	TCGAAGCCAGCGTTACGAG
Acox1 RP	ATCTCCGTCTGGGCGTAGG
Pdha1 FP	TGTCGGTTCCCAGTCCATCA
Pdha1 RP	CGTTTCCTTTTCACAGCACATGA
Pfkl FP	GAACTACGCACACTTGACCAT
Pfkl RP	CTCCAAAACAAAGGTCCTCTGG
ptsG	TATCTGGGCTTCTTTGCGGG
ptsG	ACCAGGCAACGCTCGATAAA
fadA FP	TCTGGGATTGATGGAGCAGA
fadA RP	AGACCAATACACATCGTCGC
fadB FP	GTCCCCGAAGAGCAGTTAAG
fadB RP	CCAGTTTAGTTTCCGGCAGA
aceA FP	CGATCTGGTATGGTGCGAAA
aceA RP	TTCTGCCAGTTGAAGGATGG
aceB FP	AGCGTTTCAATCAACAGGGT
aceB RP	CCCGTATTTTTACCTGCCGA
16S rRNA FP	GTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCAA
16S rRNA RP	TAACCGCAACACCTTCCTCC

Intracellular proliferation or gentamicin protection assay

Following infection of the transfected cells with STM at an MOI of 10, cells were treated with

DMEM (Sigma) + 10% FBS (Gibco) containing 100 μg/ml gentamicin for 1 hr. Subsequently,

the gentamicin concentration was reduced to 25 µg/ml and maintained until the specified time

point. Post 2hr and 16hr post-infection, cells were lysed in 0.1% triton-X-100. Lysed cells were

serially diluted and plated on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS) agar to obtain colony-forming units

(cfu). Fold proliferation was calculated as cfu at 16hr divided by cfu at 2hr.

Fold Proliferation= [CFU at 16h]/[CFU at 2h]

Western Blotting

Post appropriate time points of infection, the cells were washed in PBS and subsequently

harvested in PBS. The cell pellets were obtained after centrifugation at 300g for 7 minutes at

4ºC. Cells were lysed in 1X RIPA (10X-0.5M NaCl, 0.5M EDTA pH-8.0, 1M Tris, NP-40,

10% sodium deoxycholate, 10% SDS) buffer containing 10% protease inhibitor cocktail

(Roche) for 30 min on ice. Total protein was estimated using Bradford method of protein

estimation. Protein samples were subjected to 12 % SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

and then were transferred onto 0.45µm PVDF membrane (18V, 2 hrs). The membrane was

blocked using 5% skim milk in TBST (Tris Buffered Saline containing 0.1% Tween-20) for

1hr at RT and subsequently probed with appropriate primary antibody (Table-4) for overnight

at 4°C. Following wash in TBST, blot was probed with specific HRP conjugated secondary

antibody for 1hr at RT. The membrane was developed using ECL (Advansta) and images were

captured using ChemiDoc GE healthcare. All densitometric analysis was performed using

ImageJ software.

Table 4: List of Antibodies

Antibody Name	Catalogue Number
SIRT1 Polyclonal Antibody	Cat #PA5-85921 (ThermoFisher Scientific)

SIRT3 Polyclonal Antibody	**Cat#** PA5-13222(ThermoFisher Scientific)
CD 86	**Cat#**12-086282PE(ThermoFisherScientific)
CD 206	**Catalog#** 17-2069-42 (ThermoFisherScientific)
F4/80 Antibody	BD Horizon, Cat-565411
HIF-1α	sc-13515 SCBT
NF-κβ p65	**CST**(D14E12)XP® RabbitmAb #8242
PDHA1	**Catalog No. A13687 (ABclonal)**
HADHA	**Catalog No. A5346 (ABclonal)**
ACOX1	**Catalog No. A8091 (ABclonal)**
PGK	**Catalog No. A12686 (ABclonal)**
PFK	**Catalog No. A5477 (ABclonal)**
β actin	A3854 (Sigma)

Immunoprecipitation

For co-immunoprecipitation, cells were washed with PBS and were lysed in native lysis buffer

containing 1% Nonidet P-40, 20 mM Tris (pH 8), 2 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl and protease

inhibitors mixture (Roche Diagnostics) for 30 min at 4°C. Cell debris was removed by

centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 10 min and the supernatant was treated with anti-HIF1-α

antibody (Santa Cruz). Antibody-lysate complexes were immunoprecipitated using Protein

A/G- linked magnetic beads (MagGenome) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Beads

were extensively washed with washing buffer and denatured at 95 °C for 10 min. Denatured

precipitates were subjected to SDS-PAGE (12% gel) followed by transfer to 0.45 μ PVDF

membrane. The membrane was blocked using 5% skimmed milk in TBST (Tris Buffered

Saline containing 0.1% Tween-20) for 1h at room temperature and eventually probed for

SIRT1 or Anti-acetylated Lysine (Ac-K) primary antibody overnight at 4°C. The blot was

probed with a specific HRP-conjugated secondary antibody for 1hr at RT after rigorous

washing in TTBS. ECL (BioRad) was used for detection and images were captured using

ChemiDoc GE healthcare.

ELISA

Estimation of cytokines in cell-free supernatant was performed according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 96-well ELISA plates (BD Bioscience) were coated

overnight with capture antibody at 4°C. Following day, plates were washed with 0.1% Tween-

20 containing PBS and blocked with 10% FBS for 1 h. Following blocking, wells were washed

and incubated with 100 μL of test samples for 2 h at room temperature. Subsequently, plates

were washed and incubated with detection antibody and enzyme reagent for 1 h at room

temperature (BD Bioscience). TMB (Sigma) was used as a substrate and reactions were

stopped with 2 N H_2SO_4. Absorbance was measured at 450 nm wavelength in Tecan Plate

reader and the concentration of cytokines was interpolated from a standard curve.

Flow cytometry

After specific time points post infection, cells were washed and harvested in PBS. Following

centrifugation, cell pellet was resuspended in FACS buffer comprised of 1% BSA in PBS.

Blocking was performed with Fc blocker (purified Anti-mouse CD16/CD32, eBioscience)

dissolved in FACS blocking buffer for 30 min on ice. Following a washing step with PBS,

antibody staining was performed with PE-conjugated CD86 antibody or APC-conjugated

CD206 (Thermo Scientific) for 45 min on ice. After washing in PBS, the cell pellet was

resuspended in 1% PFA in PBS. Subsequently, PFA was removed, and cells were resuspended

in FACS buffer and reading was taken in BD FACSVerse instrument. For flow cytometry

studies, the harvested liver or spleen were homogenized into single cell suspension post RBC

lysis (RBC lysis Buffer, Sigma). The homogenized cell suspension was washed and

resuspended in FACS buffer containing the PE-conjugated Rat anti-mouse F4/80 antibody (BD

Horizon, Cat-565411). Following staining protocol, the cells were washed in PBS and the cells

were resuspended in FACS buffer and the FACS protocol was performed in BD FACSVerse.

For DCFDA staining, one hour before the indicated time point of infection, cells were

incubated with 10μM DCFDA containing DMEM media at 37°C humidified incubator with

5% CO_2 for 45 min. Post incubation, cells were washed and harvested in PBS. Readings were

measured in BD FACSVerse instrument.

All analysis was done using BD FACSuite software.

Phenol Red-Hydrogen Peroxidase Assay

Post 48hr of transfection, cells were infected with STM culture at an MOI of 10. Cells were

incubated with Phenol Red solution containing hydrogen peroxidase enzyme (8.5U/ml). At,

the designated time points post-infection, the supernatant was collected, and the absorbance

was taken at 610 nm in Tecan Plate reader. The exogenously produced H2O2 was quantified

using a standard curve of known concentration of H2O2.

Gene expression studies by nanoString nCounter technology

Total RNA was isolated at specific time points post infection by using TRIzol (Takara) as per

manufacturer's protocol. Quantification of RNA was performed in Nano Drop (Thermo-

Fischer scientific) and Qubit Bioanalyzer (Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer). Quality of isolated RNA

was detected by performing 2% agarose gel electrophoresis. Post quality check, samples were

subjected to nanoString nCounter technology (theraCUES). This technology allows multi-plex,

spatially resolved RNA expression quantification with appropriate probes designed against the

target gene.

Lactate Estimation Assay

Cell-supernatant was harvested at the specific time-points post-infection and lactate content of

the sample was estimated using the Lactate Assay Kit (Sigma, Catalog Number-MAK064) as

per manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 50µl of the sample was added to each 96 well-plate and

each of the well 50µl of the master reaction mix containing 46µl of lactate assay buffer, 2µl of

lactate enzyme mix, and 2µl of lactate probe was added. After the addition of the master

reaction mix to the sample, they were mixed by horizontal shaker or via pipetting. The plate

was incubated for 30 minutes in dark at room temperature. Post incubation, absorbance was

measured at 570nm. The lactate content of the sample was estimated from the lactate standard

curve ranging from 0-10 nmole/µl.

Animal Experiment

For all experiments, 6–8 weeks old C57BL/6 or *gp91phox*-/- mice were used. For organ burden

analysis, 6 weeks old C57BL/6 or *gp91phox*-/- mice were infected with 10^7 CFU bacteria via

oral gavaging. For bacterial enumeration via flow cytometry, mice were infected with 10^7 GFP-

expressing bacteria orally. Infected mice were intraperitoneally injected on every other day

with either 1 mg/kg body weight of SIRT1 inhibitor EX-527 (Sigma-Aldrich) [32], or SIRT3

inhibitor 3TYP (Selleck Chemical) [33] or SIRT1 activator SRT1720 (Calbiochem, Sigma-

Aldrich) [34] or treated with vehicle alone. 5 days post infection, mice were sacrificed, and

bacterial organ load was estimated by plating the tissue homogenates on SS agar plates. For

calculating percentage survival, 6 weeks old C57BL/6 mice were infected with 10^8 bacteria

orally and monitored till fatality. For flow cytometry studies, the harvested liver or spleen were

homogenized into single cell suspension and were subjected to flow cytometry. The animal

experiments were carried out in accordance with the approved guidelines of the institutional

animal ethics committee at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India (Registration No:

48/1999/CPCSEA). All procedures involving the use of animals were performed according to

the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee (IAEC)-approved protocol.

Haematoxylin and Eosin Staining

6-8 weeks old C57BL/6 mice were infected with 10^7 bacteria orally. Infected mice were

intraperitoneally injected every alternate with either 1 mg/kg body weight of SIRT1 inhibitor

EX-527, or SIRT3 inhibitor 3TYP or SIRT1 activator SRT1720 or treated with vehicle alone.

5 days post infection, mice were euthanized, and livers were collected and fixed using 3.5%

paraformaldehyde. The fixed liver was then dehydrated using a gradually increasing

concentration of ethanol and embedded in paraffin. 5μm sections were collected on coated

plates. Sections were further rehydrated and then stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Images

were collected in a Leica microscope.

Statistical analysis

Data were analyzed and graphed using the GraphPad Prism 8 software (San Diego, CA).

Statistical significance was determined by Student's t-test or Two way ANOVA and

Bonferroni post-t-test to obtain p values. Adjusted p-values below 0.05 are considered

statistically significant. The results are expressed as mean ± SD or SEM of three independent

experiments.

RESULTS

Salmonella **modulates SIRT1 and SIRT3 expression along its course of infection in**

macrophages

Upon infection of RAW 264.7 murine macrophages with wildtype *Salmonella* Typhimurium

strain 14028S, we observed an increased expression level of SIRT 1 and SIRT3 at initial and

middle phases of infection, precisely at 2hr and 6hr post infection through qPCR (Fig.1, A and

B). The SIRT1 expression level declined at later phases of infection. On the other hand, the

SIRT3 transcript levels remained elevated at all time points with respect to uninfected control

with marked increment at 16hr time point post infection which subsided at 20hr post infection.

We even monitored the expression profile of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in primary macrophages like

peritoneal macrophages of C57BL/6 mice and observed a similar trend of elevated expression

at initial and middle time points post infection and a gradual decrease at later time points (Fig.1,

C and D). In Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy (CSLM) studies, we observed an increase

in SIRT1 expression at 2hr post infection followed by a decrease at 6hr and again a rise at 16hr

post infection (Fig.1, E and F). Alongside an increase in expression of SIRT1 at 16hr, we

observed a marked increase in bacterial colocalization with SIRT1 at 16hr (Fig.1, E and G).

SIRT3 showed progressive increase in expression pattern from 2hr to 16hr time points of

infection and then a decline at 20hr post infection with no substantial co-localization with

bacteria. (Fig.1, H, I and J). Immunoblotting revealed increased protein expression of both

SIRT1 and SIRT3 at 2hr post-infection in comparison to the uninfected control (Fig. S1).

However, SIRT1 expression exhibits a gradual decline at the late phase of infection (Fig. S1A-

B). In line with the confocal microscopy data, SIRT3 immunoblotting data shows an increased

protein expression profile at 6hr and 16hr post-infection (Fig. S1C-D). Thus, an increase in

expression profile both at transcript and protein levels indicate their role in *Salmonella*

pathogenesis.

SIRT1 and SIRT3 play crucial role in intracellular bacterial proliferation in infected

murine macrophages

To evaluate the role of SIRT 1 and SIRT3 in intracellular proliferation of the bacteria within

murine macrophages, we have undertaken knock down of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in RAW 264.7

(Fig. S2) and J774A.1 macrophages through PEI mediated transfection of shRNA plasmids

directed against SIRT1 and SIRT3. Post 48hr of transfection, the transfected cells were infected

with MOI=10 of wildtype *S*. Typhimurium and gentamicin protection assay was performed.

Intracellular proliferation of the bacteria was quantified by plating the cell lysate at 2hr and

16hr post-infection. *Salmonella* exhibits compromised intracellular survival in SIRT1 and

SIRT3 knock-down RAW264.7 and J774A.1 macrophages in comparison to the un-transfected

and scrambled controls (Fig.2, A and B).

SIRT1 and SIRT3 inhibition contribute to skewed inflammatory host responses upon

Salmonella **infection**

Several reports indicate the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in modulation of host immune responses

pertaining to infection scenario[35][36][37][38]. Therefore, we intend to check whether SIRT1

or SIRT3 regulate immune functions in *Salmonella* infected macrophages**.** To delineate the role

of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in the modulation of immune responses, we wished to investigate the

production of pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokines in knock down (KD) RAW

264.7 macrophages upon *S*. Typhimurium infection. After following the transfection for 48hr,

cells were subjected to wildtype *S*. Typhimurium infection at an MOI of 10. At the indicated

time points, cell free supernatant was harvested and evaluated for pro-inflammatory and anti-

inflammatory cytokine production by ELISA. Inhibition of both SIRT1 and SIRT3 resulted in

increase in production of pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-6 significantly at 2hr and 20hr post

infection (Fig.S3, A). Nevertheless, there was only significant reduction in anti-inflammatory

IL-10 production upon knockdown of SIRT3 at 2hr and 20hr post infection but knockdown of

SIRT1 did not show any effect on anti-inflammatory cytokine production, IL-10 (Fig.S3, B).

In peritoneal macrophages upon SIRT1(EX-527-1μM) or SIRT3(3-TYP-1μM) chemical

inhibitor treatment an increase in IL-6 cytokine levels were observed at 6hr post infection

(Fig.S3, C). This indicates the possible role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in regulation of cytokine

production upon *Salmonella* infection.

Immune functions are an important determinant of macrophage polarization. Since, SIRT1 and

SIRT3 played an immune-modulatory role in *Salmonella* infection, we investigated whether

Salmonella infection is associated with shift in macrophage polarization status. To assess the

ability of the pathogen to alter the polarization state of the macrophage, we have undertaken

gene expression profiling of various M1 and M2 markers using nanoString nCounter

technology along the course of *Salmonella* Typhimurium infection at the indicated time points

in RAW 264.7 macrophages. A gradual shift from pro-inflammatory M1 toward the anti-

inflammatory M2 state was observed with the progression of *Salmonella* infection. With the

progression of infection there was a reduction in the expression of M1 markers like NOS2,

CD40,CD86, TNF-α, Nfkb2,IL-6 and a corresponding increase in the expression of the M2

markers such as Arg-1, CCL-17, CD 206, IL4ra with an exception of Tgf-β (Fig.3, A).In order

to validate the polarization potency of the pathogen, FACS was performed using a pro-

inflammatory M1 surface marker, CD86 tagged with PE. The data suggests a distinct decrease

in CD86 positive population in the infected sets in comparison to the uninfected and the fixed

dead bacteria control along the course of *S.* Typhimurium infection (Fig.3, B,C). Thus, the live

pathogen has a propensity to skew the polarization state of the macrophage toward an anti-

inflammatory M2 state to subvert the initial acute inflammatory response mounted by the host

immune system.

To assess the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in macrophage polarization, we determined anti-

inflammatory CD206 surface marker profiling of the infected macrophages through flow

cytometry. Knockdown of SIRT1 or SIRT3 in infected RAW 264.7 macrophages resulted in

reduction in anti-inflammatory CD206 surface marker expression at 16hr post infection (Fig.

3 D, E). Moreover, SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown led to enhanced intracellular ROS generation

within the infected macrophages in comparison to the scrambled or the untransfected control

(Fig.S4) which further gets recruited onto the bacteria (Fig. S5) (Data described later).

NanoString gene profiling in knockdown condition of SIRT1 and SIRT3 infected RAW264.7

macrophages indicated decreased levels of M2 markers such as Arg-1, CD206, IL-10, CCL17,

CCL8, IL4ra, and Tgf-β at 6hr post-infection (Fig. S6A) and at 16hr post-infection, SIRT1

knockdown led to increased M1 gene expression such as CD40 and CD86 expression (Fig.

S6B).   Further, the Haematoxylin and Eosin staining of the *S*. Typhimurium infected mice

liver tissue sections depicted exacerbated signs of inflammation in the SIRT1 (EX-527) or

SIRT3 (3TYP) inhibitor treated cohorts in comparison to the untreated controls with multiple

necrotic foci and increased influx of inflammatory cell inflates. Moreover, these acute

inflammatory signs of the liver sections gets ameliorated in the SIRT1 (SRT1720) activator

treated infected cohort (Fig.9 L,M) (Data described later).   Together, these data suggest the

role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in modulation of host inflammatory response. Previous literature

reports have shown that SIRT1 physically interacts with p65 subunit of NF-κB and inhibits

transcription by deacetylating p65 at lysine 310 [39]. Moreover, SIRT1 mediated deacetylation

of the p65 subunit of the master regulator of the inflammatory response, NF-κB, results in the

reduction of the inflammatory responses mediated by this transcription factor [40]. To evaluate

the immune regulatory mechanism of SIRT1 in the *S*. Typhimurium (STM) infection scenario,

we undertook SIRT1 immunoprecipitation in the infected RAW264.7 macrophages at 16h post

infection alongside the uninfected macrophages and probed for NF-κB p65 interaction. We

observed an increased interaction of SIRT1 with NF-κB p65 in the infected macrophages in

comparison to the uninfected control (Fig.4, A). Further, the knockdown of SIRT1 resulted in

increased acetylation status of the NF-κB p65 upon infection in comparison to the scrambled,

infected control (Fig.4, B-D). To understand whether the enzymatic domain of SIRT1 have any

role in mediating this interaction, we carried out NF-κB p65 immunoprecipitation in infected

RAW264.7 macrophages in presence or absence of SIRT1 catalytic chemical inhibitor, EX-

527(1μM) treatment at 16h post-infection. We observed an increased interaction of NF-κB p65

with SIRT1 in the infected untreated macrophages when compared to the untreated uninfected

control (Fig.4, E-F). However, the interaction of NF-κB p65 with SIRT1 gets abrogated under

the EX-527 inhibitor treatment in the infected macrophages thereby implying the function of

the catalytic domain in mediating the interaction. Moreover, an increased acetylation status of

NF-κB p65 was observed in the EX-527 treated infected macrophages in comparison to the

untreated infected macrophages (Fig. 4 E).

SIRT1 and SIRT3 relieve oxidative stress in infected macrophages and alleviation of the

intracellular ROS generation restores intracellular survival of *S*. Typhimurium within

the SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown macrophages

Previous reports have suggested the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in oxidative stress conditions.

They are known to act in concert as anti-oxidants by reducing ROS production[41][42][43].

Moreover, enhanced ROS production is also a prototype of the classically activated

macrophages[44][45], which lie at one of the extreme end of the spectra of the macrophage

polarization. Here, we examined the effect of SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown in intracellular

ROS generation in *S*. Typhimurium infected RAW264.7 or J774A.1 macrophages through

DCFDA staining in FACS. Results depicted significant enhancement in the production of ROS

at 16hr post infection upon knockdown of SIRT1 or SIRT3 in comparison to untransfected or

scrambled control (Fig.S4, A,B). Similarly, there was higher ROS generation in SIRT1 or

SIRT3 KD J774A.1 macrophages at 16hr post infection (Fig.S4, C,D). Upon detection of

extracellular ROS generation through Phenol Red Hydrogen Peroxidase assay, we detected

higher ROS generation upon SIRT3 KD at 6hr post infection and greater ROS production at

16hr and 20hr time points in SIRT1 knockdown macrophages (Fig.S4,E). Moreover, the

increased ROS produced upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown gets targeted to the bacteria within

the infected RAW264.7 macrophages (Fig. S5) Therefore, SIRT1 and SIRT3 play an important

role in mitigating the oxidative burst in *Salmonella* infected macrophages. Our previous

findings depicted decreased intracellular burden of *S*. Typhimurium within the SIRT1 or SIRT3

knockdown macrophages along with increase in intracellular ROS generation. Therefore, we

speculated that the decreased intracellular proliferation within the SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown

macrophages might be on account of increased intracellular ROS production which might lead

to increased killing of the intracellular bacteria. This hypothesis led us to evaluate the

intracellular bacterial burden within the infected SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown RAW264.7

macrophages or SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treated peritoneal macrophages (isolated from

C57BL/6 adult mice post 5th day of thioglycolate injection) in presence of a ROS inhibitor

named N-Acetyl Cysteine (NAC). NAC acts as a scavenger of ROS by antagonizing the

activity of proteasome inhibitors [46]. The attenuated intracellular proliferation of *Salmonella*

Typhimurium within the knockdown or the chemical inhibitor treated macrophages got

restored upon 1mM treatment of ROS scavenger, NAC (Fig.S7). Therefore, intracellular ROS

production within the knockdown murine macrophages is one of the reasons for the attenuated

survival of the bacteria.

SIRT1 and SIRT3 play crucial role in mediating metabolic switch in infected

macrophages

Macrophage polarization is not only governed by immunological changes but also contributed

by metabolic reprogramming[47][24][48]**.** Since previous data suggested progression of

Salmonella infection with the shift in polarization state of the macrophage, we decided to

investigate alteration of the metabolic state of the macrophage as macrophage polarization is

governed by immune-metabolic shift. In pursuit of fulfilling such requirement, we performed

gene expression studies of various metabolic genes through nanoString nCounter technology

in *S.* Typhimurium infected RAW 264.7 macrophages. Analysis of the gene profile revealed

upregulation of genes involved in fatty acid oxidization and tricarboxylic acid cycle and

corresponding downregulation of genes involved in glycolysis (Fig.5, A). To validate the

findings, we carried out qRTPCR to quantitatively measure the expression of a fatty acid

oxidation gene, PPARδ in infected RAW 264.7 macrophages. We found that mRNA level was

elevated to 2-fold at 2hr and 6hr post infection. At late phase of infection, 20hr post infection

around 6-fold upregulation in mRNA transcript was noted (Fig.5, B). Lactate estimation assay

of *S.* Typhimurium infected RAW264.7 macrophages at the initial time point of 2hr and at the

late time point of 16hr post infection revealed decline in lactate (glycolysis end product)

production at 16hr in comparison to 2hr post-infection timepoint (Fig. 5C). Together, these

results suggest the capability of the pathogen to drive a shift in metabolic status of the infected

macrophages toward fatty acid oxidation. Next, we evaluated the function of SIRT1 and SIRT3

in influencing the metabolic switch in the infected macrophages through qRT PCR with several

host fatty acid oxidizing genes (*Acox*, *Hadha, Pdha*, *and AcadL)* and glycolytic gene (*PfkL*) in

SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown macrophages and via lactate production assay. Lactate

estimation assay in SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown condition revealed enhanced lactate

production at 16hr post infection in comparison to the scrambled control which further

authenticate the increased host glycolysis upon SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown scenario (Fig.

5D,E). SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown RAW 264.7 infected macrophages showed decreased

expression of fatty acid oxidizing genes and increased expression of glycolytic *PfkL* gene in

comparison to the scrambled infected control (Fig.5, F). Metabolic gene expression studies in

SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown RAW264.7 macrophages via nanoString gene profiling depicted

decreased expression of fatty acid metabolic genes such as *Acadl*, *Pgc1α*, *Pgc1β*, *Pparα*, *Pparδ*,

Pparγ (Fig. S6C). Similar results were obtained in the infected peritoneal macrophages under

the SIRT1 or SIRT3 catalytic inhibitor treatment (Fig. 5 G, H) Moreover, qRT PCR mediated

metabolic gene profiling of liver and spleen isolated from wildtype *S.* Typhimurium infected

macrophages revealed decreased transcript level expression of murine fatty acid oxidation

genes upon treatment with SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3 (3TYP) catalytic inhibitors which got

reversed upon SIRT1 activator (SRT1720) treatment (Fig.5, I, J). Moreover, SIRT1 and SIRT3

knockdown or catalytic inhibition in RAW264.7 macrophages resulted in increased protein

expression of host glycolytic genes such as Phosphoglycerate kinase (Pgk),

Phosphofructokinase (Pfk) with concomitant reduction in protein expression of TCA cycle

gene like Pyruvate dehydrogenase (Pdha1) and fatty acid oxidation genes such as Hadha and

Acox1 (Fig.5 K-N, Fig.S8).

Collectively, these data suggest the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in mediating the host metabolic

shift in the infected macrophages.

SIRT1 and SIRT3 concomitantly influences *Salmonella* metabolism

Our previous data indicated a shift in host metabolism toward increased fatty acid oxidation

along the course of *Salmonella* Typhimurium infection in murine RAW 264.7 macrophages.

Salmonella Typhimurium drives the metabolism of the infected macrophage toward fatty acid

oxidation. This observation led us to investigate the influence of host metabolic shift on the

metabolic status of the pathogen harboring inside the infected macrophages[49]. We were

intrigued whether increased glucose availability within the fatty-acid oxidizing macrophages

is utilized by the bacteria. Thus, we undertook simultaneous gene expression studies of various

Salmonella genes involved in their pathogenesis and metabolism through nanoString nCounter

technology in *S.* Typhimurium infected RAW 264.7 macrophages. The nanoString gene profile

revealed enhanced expression of genes involved in *Salmonella* glycolysis and glucose uptake

such as *pfkA* and *ptsG*, respectively (Fig.6, A). This finding indicates the ability of the pathogen

to drive the metabolic state of the host toward fatty acid oxidation with corresponding increased

glucose utilization by the bacteria favoring their survival inside the host. qRT PCR results with

several bacterial fatty acid oxidizing genes (*fadA, fadB,fadL,aceA, aceB*) and glycolytic genes

(*ptsG*) in knockdown condition of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in RAW 264.7 macrophages further

validated the nanoString gene expression profiles (Fig.6, B). In scrambled control, *Salmonella*

infection progresses with increased *Salmonella* glycolytic flux and reduced bacterial fatty acid

oxidation. However, knockdown of SIRT1 and SIRT3 abrogate this bacterial metabolic shift

by reducing its glycolytic flux and by exhibiting enhanced fatty acid oxidation thereby

attenuating pathogen intracellular survival. Similar observations were obtained from the qPCR

data in the infected mice liver and spleen samples with increased transcript level expression of

bacterial fatty acid oxidation genes and decreased expression of bacterial glycolytic genes (Fig.

6 C,D).

Mechanism behind SIRT1 or SIRT3 mediated metabolic switch

As per our previous findings, SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition led to increased host glycolysis and

decline in fatty oxidation in the infected macrophages. HIF1α is a master regulator of glycolysis

in host during stress conditions [50]. Previous reports have suggested HIF1α to be a target of

deacetylation by SIRT1 at Lys 674 which contribute to metabolic reprogramming in cancer

cells. During hypoxia, downregulation of SIRT1 leads to increased acetylation and activation

of HIF1α [51]. Additionally, in CD4+ T cells, ectopic expression of SIRT1 inhibited IL-9

production and glycolysis by negatively HIF1α [52]. To delve into the mechanism behind

SIRT1 mediated modulation of metabolic responses, we assessed the interaction of SIRT1 with

HIF-1α in infected RAW264.7 macrophages. The immunoprecipitation studies of SIRT1

showed increased interaction of the SIRT1 with HIF1α in the *S*. Typhimurium infection

scenario with respect to the uninfected control (Fig.7, A). Further, we evaluated the acetylation

status of HIF1α in the SIRT1 knockdown status of the infected macrophages. We found that

SIRT1 knockdown showed increased acetylation of HIF1α in the infected macrophages in

comparison to the scrambled infected control at 16hr post infection (Fig. 7, B, C).

Immunoprecipitation studies under SIRT1 (EX-527) inhibitor treatment in RAW264.7

macrophages revealed increased acetylation of HIF1-α along with reduced interaction of HIF-

1α with SIRT1, thereby indicating the probable role of the catalytic domain in influencing the

interaction (Fig. 7 D-F). Together, our results implicate the role of SIRT1 in governing

glycolytic shift in the infected macrophages by deacetylating HIF1α. Upon SIRT1 knockdown

or inhibition, HIF1α gets hyperacetylated which cause activation of the downstream glycolytic

genes. Alternatively, several key literatures suggest the role of SIRT3 in modulating metabolic

programming by deacetylating several proteins involved in fatty acid oxidation, the

tricarboxylic acid cycle and oxidative phosphorylation [53][54]. PDHA1 (Pyruvate

Dehydrogenase E1 subunit alpha) is a key enzyme linking glycolysis to TCA cycle and

oxidative phosphorylation. SIRT3 regulates PDHA1 acetylation by deacetylating PDHA1 at

lysine 385 residue, thereby playing a key role in metabolic reprogramming [54]. PDHA1

acetylation coincides with PDH activity and increased PDHA1 phosphorylation [54].

Therefore, we investigated the role of SIRT3 in the modulation of the host fatty acid oxidation

upon *S*. Typhimurium infection in RAW264.7 macrophages. To do so, we immunoprecipitated

PDHA1 and checked for its interaction with SIRT3 under knockdown condition of SIRT3 or

upon SIRT3 inhibitor treatment. We observed an increased interaction of PDHA1 with SIRT3

in the infection scenario in comparison to the uninfected control which gets eventually

abolished under the knockdown condition and under the chemical inhibitor treatment of SIRT3

suggesting the role of the SIRT3 catalytic domain in mediating the interaction with PDHA1

(Fig.8).

SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition enhances bacterial burden in mice in vivo

6-8 weeks old adult male C57BL/6 mice were treated with SIRT1 inhibitor EX-527, SIRT3

inhibitor 3TYP and SIRT1 activator SRT1720 at a dose of 1mg/kg each via intraperitoneal

injection (every alternate Day) (Fig. 9A). Following the inhibitor treatment, the mice were

orally gavaged with 10^7 cfu of *S*. Typhimurium 14028S for organ burden evaluation or with

10^8 cfu of wildtype *S*. Typhimurium for survival studies. On day 5th post infection, mice were

sacrificed, and the liver, spleen and Mesenteric Lymph Node (MLN) were harvested for

enumeration of the organ burden. The SIRT1 inhibitor, EX-527 and SIRT3 inhibitor, 3TYP

treated mice cohorts exhibited increased organ loads in liver, spleen and MLN in comparison

to the vehicle control. On the contrary, the SRT1720 treated mice group showed organ burden

comparable to that of the vehicle control (Fig. 9, B). Moreover, the SIRT1 and the SIRT3

inhibitor treated mice cohorts died earlier than the vehicle treated control mice group or the the

SIRT1 activator treated group (Fig. 9, C). Further, the SIRT1 and the SIRT3 inhibitor treated

mice cohorts showed increased splenic length in comparison to the vehicle treated mice group

and the SIRT1 activator treated mice cohort (Fig. 9, D). The increased organ burden in the EX-

527 or 3TYP treated group might be due to increased bacterial dissemination in blood. To

assess bacterial dissemination, blood was collected from infected mice post inhibitor treatment

at specific days post infection retro-orbitally and plated onto *Salmonella Shigella* (SS) agar

plates for bacterial enumeration. Indeed, increased bacterial dissemination was observed in the

blood of mice treated with SIRT1 inhibitor, EX-527 or SIRT3 inhibitor, 3TYP at day 1-, 2-, 3-

,4- and 5- day post infection in comparison to the vehicle treated mice (Fig. 9, E). Further, we

wanted to examine whether the increased bacterial dissemination was due to increased ROS

production or due to the presence of elevated inflammatory cytokine levels like IL-6 in the

serum. In the wildtype C57BL/6 mice treated with SIRT3 inhibitor 3TYP showed heightened

bacterial burden in blood at 5th day post infection in comparison to the vehicle control.

Nevertheless, the *gp91phox*-/- mice group did not depict significant variation in the bacterial

load among the different mice treatment cohorts (Fig. 9, F). Further, the EX-527 (SIRT1

inhibitor) and the 3TYP (SIRT3 inhibitor) treated mice possessed elevated levels of serum IL-

6 in comparison to the vehicle treated control and the SRT1720 (SIRT1 activator) treated mice

group (Fig. 9, G). The increased mouse serum IL-6 production was in similar line with the

increased IL-6 cytokine generation in EX-527 or 3TYP treated peritoneal macrophages under

infection scenario (Fig. S3, C). However, contrary to the in vitro studies wherein SIRT1 or

SIRT3 knockdown or inhibition resulted in attenuated intracellular proliferation, here in *in vivo*

mouse model of infection, we observed increased bacterial organ loads owing to increased

bacterial dissemination. To delineate this observation further, we evaluated the bacterial load

within splenocytes isolated from control or inhibitor treated C57BL/6 mice infected with GFP

expressing *S*. Typhimurium at 5th day post-infection via flow cytometry. We observed

heightened bacterial load in the EX-527 or the 3TYP treated mice cohorts (Fig. 9, H, I).

However, when we enumerated the bacterial count within the F4/80+ macrophage population

of the infected splenocytes, we noticed decreased bacterial loads in the EX-527 or 3TYP treated

mice group in comparison to the vehicle treated control group or the SRT-1720 activator treated

group (Fig. J, K). This opposing phenotype could be attributed to the increased IL-6 cytokine

storm and elevated ROS production upon the SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treatment which in

turn resulted in bacterial dissemination *in vivo* and concomitantly restricted the *in vitro*

intracellular proliferation within macrophages. To validate this observation, we estimated the

ROS levels within the liver and spleen tissues harvested from *S*. Typhimurium infected

C57BL/6 mice, treated with specific catalytic inhibitor, activator or vehicle via DCFDA

staining using flow cytometry at 5th day post infection. We detected escalated levels of ROS

within both the infected liver and spleen tissues of the EX-527 or 3TYP treated mice groups in

comparison to the vehicle treated or the SRT1720 treated mice cohorts (Fig. S9). Haematoxylin

and eosin staining of the liver sections (harvested at 5th day post infection) revealed increased

inflammation with multiple areas of severe acute hepatic necrosis with complete loss of hepatic

architecture in the EX-527 and 3-TYP treated liver samples in comparison to the vehicle treated

control and SRT-1720 treated liver samples (Fig. 9, L,M). Altogether, our results implicate the

role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in controlling *S*. Typhimurium infection in vivo.

DISCUSSION

Several studies have confirmed the propensity of *Salmonella* to skew the polarization state of

the infected macrophages toward an immunosuppressive anti-inflammatory state[55][56][57].

We have validated such findings and further elaborated it by depicting the role of SIRT1 and

SIRT3 in the modulation of host immune responses. *Salmonella* Typhimurium infection

modulates the expression profile of both SIRT1 and SIRT3 in the infected macrophages at both

mRNA and protein level. SIRT1 show reduced mRNA and protein expression at late time point

of infection (16hr p.i) in comparison to the initial time point of infection (2hr p.i). On the other

hand, SIRT3 depicts enhanced expression levels even at later points of infection both at the

transcript and protein level. Downregulation of SIRT1 and SIRT3 through shRNA mediated

knockdown resulted in heightened pro-inflammatory immune responses with increased

production of IL-6 cytokine and decreased surface expression of anti-inflammatory CD206.

SIRT1 and SIRT3 downregulation also resulted in increased intracellular ROS production in

the infected macrophages. SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown macrophages not only show altered

host immune status but also depicted shift in the metabolic state with increased glycolytic shift.

This altered host metabolism upon SIRT1 and SIRT knockdown condition influence the

outcome of infection by regulating the intracellular bacterial metabolism which show reduced

bacterial glycolysis and increased fatty acid oxidation. All these outcomes account for the

reason for attenuated intracellular bacterial proliferation in the SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown

macrophages. Together, our study for the first time highlights the crucial role of SIRT1 and

SIRT3 in governing the immune-metabolic shift pertaining to *Salmonella* infection.

Previous reports have elucidated the role of SIRT1 and SIRT2 pertaining to *Salmonella*

infection. Ganesan et al., have depicted the role of SIRT1 in autophagy in *Salmonella* infection

scenario[58]. Gogoi et al., have demonstrated SIRT2 mediated modulation of immune

responses in dendritic cells[59]. Till date, there is no report highlighting the role of SIRT3

governing the *Salmonella* pathogenesis. The function of SIRT3 in infection scenario has been

explored quite recently. In *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection condition, SIRT3 control

mitochondrial function and autophagy[38]. SIRT3 downregulation in *Mycobacterium*

tuberculosis infected macrophages is associated with dysregulated mitochondrial metabolism

and increased cell death[60]. In this study we have explored the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in

mediating immune-metabolic switch in *Salmonella* Typhimurium infected macrophages.

Our findings suggest the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in mediating polarization of the *Salmonella*

infected macrophages toward an anti-inflammatory state. Upon knockdown of SIRT1 and

SIRT3 in the infected macrophages we detect robust pro-inflammatory response and oxidative

burst. This is in line with the findings by S.Elsela et al., wherein SIRT1 knockout

RSV(Respiratory Syncytial Virus) - infected BMDCs showed significant increase in *Il1β*, *Il6*

and *Il23* expression and ROS generation in comparison to the wild type RSV-infected

BMDCs[35]. Also, Kim et al., showed presence of aggravated inflammatory responses in

Mycobacterium tuberculosis infected SIRT3-/- BMDMs[38]. This heightened pro-

inflammatory cytokine burst and oxidative burst restrict the intracellular survival of the

pathogen as detected by the lower intracellular burden in the SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown

murine macrophages. *Salmonella* showed enhanced proliferation in the M2 macrophages

owing to the reduced arsenals in terms of pro-inflammatory cytokines, ROS production and

iNOS generation. Moreover, the M2 macrophages are fuelled by increased fatty acid oxidation

and reduced glycolysis[61]. This facilitates enhanced bacterial proliferation as the host un-

utilized intracellular glucose can be readily up taken and utilized by the pathogen to support

glycolysis. Similarly, M1 or pro-inflammatory macrophages resort to glycolysis to meet their

energy demands[62] thereby limiting the glucose availability for the intracellular

pathogen[62][63]. In such condition, bacteria show enhanced fatty acid metabolism to sustain

their energy demand[64]. In our study, we found that wild type *S*. Typhimurium infection drive

host metabolism toward increased fatty acid oxidation with concomitant increase in the

bacterial glycolysis. SIRT1 and SIRT3 inhibition abrogates the metabolic switch and triggers

increase in host glycolysis which in turn skew the bacterial metabolism from increased

glycolysis to enhanced fatty acid oxidation and reduced glycolysis. Together, these findings

implicate the role of SIRT1 and SIRT3 in reprograming the host metabolism which in turn

affect the intracellular nutrient niche of the pathogen thereby influencing intracellular

Salmonella proliferation. However, our in vivo findings in the murine model of infection show

increased bacterial burden upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition. This increased burden could be

attributed to increased dissemination from the macrophages into the bloodstream owing to the

increased level of serum IL-6 levels. This is in concert with previous findings in Klebsiella

pneumoniae infection in mice wherein increased inflammatory response upon HIF-1α induces

bacterial dissemination [65]. Further correlation analysis of immune responses to *Salmonella*

infection revealed that increased innate immune "cassette" opposes the adaptive immune arm

leading to increased bacterial load [66]. Future studies might explore the interacting partners

of SIRT1 and SIRT3 through mass spectrometry analyses in *Salmonella* infected macrophages

which might hint at the underlying mechanism of their action and regulation.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

DH and DC have conceptualized the study. DH has contributed to the experiment designing,

visualization, methodology, investigation, formal analysis, literature survey, validation, writing

(original draft), reviewing and editing of the manuscript. RSR has performed the

histopathological scoring of the liver sections. DC has contributed to the funding acquisition,

project administration, and overall supervision of the work. All authors approved the final

version of the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTEREST

The authors are unaware of any conflicting interests and thereby declare no conflict of interest.

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MANUSCRIPT_1 TITLE:

SIRT1 and SIRT3 mediated immuno-metabolic switch govern *Salmonella* survival within infected macrophages both in vitro and in vivo.

MAIN FIGURES

Fig.1- *Salmonella* modulates the expression of Sirtuin 1 and 3 along its course of infection

F

SIRT 1

G

SIRT1

H

Fig.1- *Salmonella* modulates the expression of Sirtuin 1 and 3 along its course of infection

A-B Expression studies through qRT PCR in RAW 264.7 macrophages. Data is representative of N=3, n=2.

C-D Expression studies through qRT PCR in peritoneal macrophages derived from C57BL/6. Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

E- Representative confocal images of RAW macrophages exhibiting SIRT1 expression upon *S.* Typhimurium infection at indicated time points post infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=80 (microscopic field).

F-Quantitative representation of the expression profile as depicted in the confocal images (E) in terms of Mean Fluorescence Intensity (MFI). Unpaired two tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$)

G-Colocalization coefficient of *S.* Typhimurium with SIRT1 in infected RAW macrophages as depicted in E of Fig.1. Unpaired two tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$)

H- Representative confocal images of RAW macrophages exhibiting SIRT3 expression upon *S.* Typhimurium infection at indicated time points post infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=80 (microscopic field).

I- Quantitative representation of the expression profile as depicted in the confocal images (H) in terms of Mean Fluorescence Intensity (MFI). Unpaired two tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$)

J- Colocalization coefficient of *S.* Typhimurium with SIRT3 in infected RAW macrophages as depicted in E of Fig.1. Unpaired two tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$)

Fig.2- Effect of SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown in intracellular bacterial proliferation within RAW 264.7 and J774A.1 murine macrophages.

A-Fold Proliferation of *Salmonella* Typhimurium within RAW 264.7 macrophages in transfected and un-transfected conditions. Data is representative of N=3, n=3. Unpaired two tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (* $p<0.05$)

B- Fold Proliferation of *Salmonella* Typhimurium within J774A.1macrophages in transfected and un-transfected conditions. Unpaired two tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (* $p<0.05$)

A

	SI_2hr	SI_6hr	SI_16hr	UI_2hr	UI_6hr	UI_16hr
Arg-1						
CCL17						
CD206						
CD40						
CD86						
IL4ra						
IL6						
NOS2						
Nfkb2						
Tgf-B						
Tnfa						

Nanostring

M2 Markers

M1 Markers

D

Autofluorescence

UI SCRAMBLED 2h — Tube_010 - P2 — 0.06

STM SCRAMBLED 2h — Tube_011 - P2 — 0.37

STM shSIRT1 2h — Tube_015 - P2 — 0.05

STM shSIRT3 2h — Tube_019 - P2 — 0.08

Tube_001 - P2 — 0.02

UI SCRAMBLED 16h — Tube_023 - P2 — 0.10

STM SCRAMBLED 16h — Tube_026 - P2 — 0.90

STM shSIRT1 16h — Tube_030 - P2 — 0.32

STM shSIRT3 16h — Tube_034 - P2 — 0.14

E

%CD206(APC) positive population

Scrambled UI 2h, Scrambled STM 2h, shSIRT1 STM 2h, shSIRT3 STM 2h, Srambled UI 16h, Scrambled STM 16h, shSIRT1 STM 16h, shSIRT3 STM 16h

ns, *

Fig.3- *Salmonella* Typhimurium skews the polarization state of the macrophage toward an immunosuppressive M2 state along the course of infection

A-nanoString gene expression profiling data of *S*. Typhimurium infected RAW 264.7 macrophages versus uninfected control data sets at 2hr, 6hr and 16hr time points of infection. Red oval and green oval suggest M2 and M1 markers respectively.

B-Flow cytometric analysis of alteration in M1 CD86 positive population in *S*. Typhimurium (STM) infected samples in comparison to uninfected (UI) and Paraformaldehyde Fixed (PFA) bacteria at the indicated time post-infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=3.

C- Quantitative representation of the Flow cytometric analysis depicted in Fig.5, B. Two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni post-t-test was used to obtain p values. (*** $p < 0.001$)

D-Flow cytometric analysis of M2 surface marker CD206 in *S*. Typhimurium (STM) infected SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown RAW264.7 macrophages in comparison to the scrambled control at the indicated time post-infection. UI-Uninfected sample. Data is representative of N=3, n=3.

E- Quantitative representation of the Flow cytometric analysis depicted in Fig.5, A. Two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni post-t-test was used to obtain p values. (*** $p < 0.001$)

Fig.4- SIRT1 mediates modulation of immune functions via deacetylation of p65 subunit of NF-κB in *S.* Typhimurium infected macrophages.

A-An immunoblot depicting p65 NF-κB interaction with SIRT1 post immunoprecipitation of SIRT1 in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages at 16hr post-infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=1

B-Immunoblotting of SIRT1 in SIRT1 knockdown uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW 264.7 cells at 16hr post-infection to assess the acetylation status of p65 subunit of NF-κB. Data is representative of N=2, n=1.

C-D- Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of (C) total p65 NF-κB and (D) Acetylated p65 subunit of NF-κ B over total p65 NF-κB in blot B.

E- An immunoblot depicting p65 NF-κB interaction with SIRT1 as well as the p65 NF-κB acetylation status post immunoprecipitation of p65 (IP:p65) or with control IgG (IP:IgG) in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages upon SIRT1 inhibitor (EX-527, 1µM) treatment at 16hr post-infection. UT- Untreated.

F- Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of Acetylated p65 subunit of NF-κ B over total p65 NF-κB in blot E.

RAW264.7

G

Peritoneal Macrophages

Hadha

Fold change/β actin

Acox1

Fold change/β actin

Acadl

Fold change/β actin

Pdha1

Fold change/β actin

Pfkl

Fold change/β actin

H

Peritoneal Macrophages

Lactate concentration in ng/µl

LIVER

I

Acadl

Fold change/β actin

* ****
* ****
* ****

UI Vehicle control
UI EX-527 (1mg/kg)
UI 3TYP (1mg/kg)
UI SRT1720 (1mg/kg)
STM Vehicle control
STM EX-527 (1mg/kg)
STM 3TYP (1mg/kg)
STM SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

Hadha

Fold change/β actin

* ****
* **
* ****

UI Vehicle control
UI EX-527 (1mg/kg)
UI 3TYP (1mg/kg)
UI SRT1720 (1mg/kg)
STM Vehicle control
STM EX-527 (1mg/kg)
STM 3TYP (1mg/kg)
STM SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

Acox1

Fold change/β actin

* ****
* ***
* ****

UI Vehicle control
UI EX-527 (1mg/kg)
UI 3TYP (1mg/kg)
UI SRT1720 (1mg/kg)
STM Vehicle control
STM EX-527 (1mg/kg)
STM 3TYP (1mg/kg)
STM SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

Pdha1

Fold change/β actin

* ****
* ****
* ****

UI Vehicle control
UI EX-527 (1mg/kg)
UI 3TYP (1mg/kg)
UI SRT1720 (1mg/kg)
STM Vehicle control
STM EX-527 (1mg/kg)
STM 3TYP (1mg/kg)
STM SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

Pfkl

Fold change/β actin

* ****
* *
* **

UI Vehicle control
UI EX-527 (1mg/kg)
UI 3TYP (1mg/kg)
UI SRT1720 (1mg/kg)
STM Vehicle control
STM EX-527 (1mg/kg)
STM 3TYP (1mg/kg)
STM SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

J

SPLEEN

K

UI UT   UI EX-527   STM UT   STM EX-527

PFKM

PGK

PDHA1

β actin

L

Pfk

Pgk

Pdha

M

SCR UI   shSIRT1 UI   shSIRT3 UI   SCR STM   shSIRT1 STM   shSIRT3 STM

PGK
0.06   1.46   0.117   0.32   1.63   1.01

HADHA
0.00   0.00   0.00   1.58   1.10   1.12

ACOX-1
0.03   0.63   0.31   0.78   1.09   0.18

SCR UI   shSIRT1 UI   shSIRT3 UI

SIRT3
3.02   0.50   0.46

β actin

SCR UI   shSIRT1 UI   shSIRT3 UI

SIRT1
1.00   0.07   1.02

Fig.5- *Salmonella* Typhimurium drives the metabolism of the infected macrophage toward fatty acid oxidation

A-Metabolic gene expression data of *S*. Typhimurium infected RAW 264.7 macrophages at 2hr, 6hr and 16hr time points of infection through nanoString. Red oval, green oval and blue oval represent fatty acid oxidizing genes, glycolytic genes and Tricarboxylic acid cycle genes respectively. Data is representative of N=1, n=1.

B-PPARδ qRT PCR expression data in *S*. Typhimurium infected RAW 264.7 macrophages at the indicated time points of infection. Data is representative of N=3, n=2.

C- Lactate estimation assay of *S*.Typhimurium infected RAW264.7 macrophages at the initial time point of 2hr and at the late time point of 16hr post infection. Data is representative of N=3,n=3. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

D-E-Lactate estimation assay of *S*.Typhimurium infected RAW264.7 macrophages upon SIRT1 (D) or SIRT3 (E) knockdown condition at16h post-infection. Data is representative of N=3,n=3. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

F- qRT PCR mediated gene expression analysis of several host metabolic genes in SIRT1 or SIRT3 knockdown RAW264.7 macrophages at 6 hr post infection. Data is representative of N=2,n=2. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=3, n=3.

G-qRT PCR mediated gene expression analysis of several host metabolic genes in SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor-treated (1µM) peritoneal macrophages isolated from 6-8 week old C56BL/6 male mice liver harvested at 5th day post thioglycolate injection. Data is representative of N=2,n=2. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=3, n=3.

H- Lactate estimation assay of *S*.Typhimurium infected peritoneal macrophages upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 catalytic inhibition at16h post-infection. Data is representative of N=3,n=3. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

I- qRT PCR mediated gene expression profiling of several host metabolic genes in SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treated 6-8 week old C56BL/6 male mice liver harvested at 5-day post infection of *S*.Typhimurium (10^7 cfu units/animal). Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=3, n=3

J- qRT PCR mediated gene expression profiling of several host metabolic genes in SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treated 6-8 week old C56BL/6 male mice spleen harvested at 5 day post infection of *S*.Typhimurium (10^7 cfu units/animal). Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=3, n=3

K- Immunoblotting of host glycolytic (PGK) and TCA cycle (PDHA) proteins in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages upon SIRT1 enzymatic inhibitor treatment at 16hr post-infection.

L- Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of proteins in blot K.

M- Immunoblotting of host glycolytic (PGK) and fatty acid oxidation (HADHA, ACOX-1) proteins under SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown condition of *S.* Typhimurium infected RAW264.7 macrophages at 16h post-infection. The knockdown efficiency of SIRT1 and SIRT3 has been shown alongside.

A

RAW264.7

	SI_2hr	SI_6hr	SI_16hr	PI_2hr	PI_6hr	PI_16hr
Inv						
PrgH						
glk						
pfkA						
ptsG						
ssaV						
stfF						

B

fadA   *fadB*   *aceA*   *aceB*   *ptsG*

Fig.6- *Salmonella* Typhimurium infection proceeds with increased glycolysis and glucose uptake inside the infected RAW 264.7 macrophages

A-*Salmonella* gene expression profiling data of *S*. Typhimurium infected RAW 264.7 macrophages at 2hr, 6hr and 16hr time points of infection through nanoString. SI- *S*. Typhimurium infected, PI- PFA fixed *S*. Typhimurium infected. SPI-1 genes- *Inv, PrgH* , SPI-2 genes- *ssaV,stfF, glk-* glucokinase, *pfkA-* phosphofrucktose kinase A, *ptsG-* Phosphophenolpyruvate-dependent sugar phosphotransferase system (PTS). Data is representative of N=1, n=1.

B-qRT PCR gene expression profiling of *Salmonella* metabolic genes within infected RAW264.7 macrophages in knockdown condition of either SIRT1 or SIRT3 at 6hr post infection. Data is representative of N=3, n=3.

C- D-qRT PCR gene expression profiling of *Salmonella* metabolic genes within infected female C57BL/6 mice spleen (C) and liver (D) under SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treatment harvested at 5th day post infection of *S*.Typhimurium (10^7 cfu units/animal). Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. Data is representative of N=3, n=3.

Fig.7- SIRT1 inhibition triggers hyperacetylation of glycolytic master regulator HIF-1α within *S.* Typhimurium infected macrophages.

A-An immunoblot depicting HIF-1α interaction with SIRT1 post immunoprecipitation of SIRT1 in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages at 16hr post-infection. (Same blot as used in Fig.4 A)

B-Immunoblotting of SIRT1 in SIRT1 knockdown uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW 264.7 cells at 16hr post-infection to assess the acetylation status of p65 subunit of HIF-1α.

C-Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of Acetylated HIF-1α over total HIF-1α in blot B.

D-An immunoblot depicting HIF-1α interaction with SIRT1 as well as the HIF-1α acetylation status post immunoprecipitation of HIF-1α (IP:HIF-1α or with control IgG (IP:IgG) in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages upon SIRT1 inhibitor (EX-527, 1μM) treatment at 16hr post-infection. UT-untreated.

E- Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of Acetylated HIF-1α over total HIF-1α in blot D.

F-Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of SIRT1 in blot D.

Fig.8- SIRT1 and SIRT3 skews metabolism of *S.* Typhimurium infected macrophages via interaction with PDHA1.

A-An immunoblot depicting PDHA1 interaction with SIRT3 post immunoprecipitation of PDHA1 in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages at 16hr post-infection under SIRT3 inhibitor (3-TYP, 1µM) treatment at 16hr post-infection. UT-untreated..

B- Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of SIRT3 interaction over total input in blot A.

C-An immunoblot depicting PDHA1 interaction with SIRT1 and SIRT3 post immunoprecipitation of PDHA1 in uninfected (UI) or *S.* Typhimurium (STM) infected RAW264.7 macrophages in SIRT3 knockdown condition at 16hr post-infection.

D-Densitometric plot depicting the band intensities of SIRT3 interaction over total input in blot C.

H

Vehicle Control   EX-527(1mg/kg)   3TYP (1mg/kg)   SRT (1mg/kg)

I

EX-527-SIRT1 inhibitor
3TYP-SIRT3 inhibitor
SRT1720-SIRT1 activator

J

Autofluorescence

Vehicle Control STM

K EX-527 (1mg/kg) STM

EX-527 (1mg/kg) STM

SRT 1720 (1mg/kg) STM

L

STM Vehicle Control

Score:1

4X   10X   40X

Slide- 1

Showing minimal/ mild focal inflammatory cell collections in lobular parenchyma

STM SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

Score-1

Slide- 9

Showing minimal/ mild pathology in lobular parenchyma with normal hepatic architecture

STM EX-527(1mg/kg)

Score : 3

V

C

N

N

INF

N

INF

SLIDE- 4

Showing multiple (small and big areas) severe acute hepatic necrosis (N), with complete loss of hepatic architecture due to loss of hepatic cells, the necrotic area filled with edema and surrounded by inflammatory cells, hepatocytes with cytoplasmic vacuolation (V), inflammatory cells (INF), and damage of the endothelial lining of central vein (C)

STM 3TYP (1mg/kg)

Score-3

INF

N

INF

HPV

H

HPV

V

N

HPV

HPV

HPV

N

Slide- 7

Showing small multiple necrotic foci (N), severe blood hemorrhage (H) congested hepatic portal veins of liver clogged with clumps and inflammatory cell infiltrates (HPV) vacuolar degeneration (V). Multiple Microgranuloma formation with the aggregation of inflammatory cells (INF)

EX-527-SIRT1 inhibitor
3TYP-SIRT3 inhibitor
SRT1720-SIRT1 activator

Score-0 UI Vehicle Control

4X 10X 40X

normal pathology with normal hepatic architecture

Score-1 UI EX-527(1mg/kg)

Showing minimal/ mild focal inflammatory cell collections in lobular parenchyma

Score-1 UI 3TYP (1mg/kg)

Showing minimal/ mild focal inflammatory cell collections in lobular parenchyma

Score-0 UI SRT1720 (1mg/kg)

normal pathology with normal hepatic architecture

M

Fig.9- Effect of SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition on *S*. Typhimurium infected C57BL/6 mice

A-The schematic representation of the experimental strategy for studying the effect of SIRT1 and SIRT3 on the *in vivo* pathogenesis of STM (WT).

B-In-vivo organ burden of *S*. Typhimurium upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition in C57BL/6 mice at day 5 post infection under specified dosage of inhibitor treatment. Data is representative of N=3, n=3.

C-Survival proportions of *S*. Typhimurium infected C57BL/6 mice upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treatment at a specific dose of inhibitor treatment. Data is representative of N=3, n=3

D- Representation of splenic length of *S*. Typhimurium infected spleen tissue harvested from C57BL/6 mice (males) at day 5 post-infection upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition at 1mg/kg dosage.

E- Bacterial load in blood at different days post-infection upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition at 1mg/kg dosage in C57BL/6 mice (males) at day 5 post-infection. Data is representative of N=1, n=1.

F- Bacterial load in blood at day 5 post-infection upon SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition at 1mg/kg dosage in C57BL/6 WT mice (males) and gp91phox-/- (males) mice. Data is representative of N=1, n=1.

G- Serum IL-6 levels of *S*. Typhimurium infected C57BL/6 WT mice (males) and gp91phox-/- (males) mice treated with SIRT1(EX-527) or SIRT3 (3TYP) inhibitors or SRT1720 (SIRT1 activator) at 1mg/kg dosage. Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

H-Enumeration of GFP positive bacterial cells through flow cytometry in splenic tissues homogenate harvested from adult male 6-8 week old C56BL/6 mice (subjected to different chemical treatment-Vehicle treated or SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3 (3-TYP) inhibitor or SIRT1 activator SRT1720 treated at a dose of 1mg/kg) at 5th day post *S*. Typhimurium (expressing GFP) infection (10^8 CFU orally). Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

I- Quantitative analysis of the percentage population of splenic cells harboring GFP+ bacterial cells shown in A. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed.

J- Enumeration of GFP positive bacterial cells through flow cytometry within F4/80 positive splenic macrophages present within splenic tissues homogenate harvested from adult male 6-8 week old C56BL/6 mice (subjected to different chemical treatment-Vehicle treated or SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3 (3-TYP) inhibitor or SIRT1 activator SRT1720 treated aa t dose of 1mg/kg) at 5th day post *S*. Typhimurium infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=2.

K- Quantitative analysis of percentage population of F4/80 positive macrophage cells harboring GFP+ bacteria shown in C. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t test was performed to obtain the p values. (** $p < 0.01$)

L-Representative image of haematoxylin-eosin stained liver sections to assess the liver tissue architecture upon *Salmonella* infection at 5th days post-infection in different mice cohorts. (UI-Uninfected, STM- *S*. Typhimurium infected, EX-527-SIRT1 inhibitor, 3TYP-SIRT3 inhibitor, SRT1720- SIRT1 activator, Vehicle Control-PBS containing 0.1% DMSO).

M-Graph representing the histopathological scoring of the liver sections depicted in L.