Streptococcus pneumoniae with biosynthesis gene mutations attenuate disease but retain

their potential for epithelial microinvasion and epithelial innate immune activation

Short title: Pneumococcal epithelial microinvasion and induction of innate immunity

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ABSTRACT

Colonisation of the nasopharynx by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* is characterised by adherence to epithelial cells, microinvasion and an innate immune response. Here, we explore the hypothesis that pneumococcal virulence has primarily evolved to promote these colonisation processes and subsequent transmission, rather than to cause disease. We have used a *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B strain, alongside two biosynthesis gene mutants ($\Delta proABC$ and Δfhs with an additional $\Delta piaA$ mutation) known to colonise murine and human models without causing disease. We show that these *S. pneumoniae* mutations do not attenuate microinvasion in either experimental human pneumococcal challenge (EHPC) or *in vitro* in primary and immortalised epithelial cells. Additionally, we show that *S. pneumoniae* infection of primary human airway epithelium triggers strain-dependent cellular reorganisation, with preserved barrier function. The pro-inflammatory epithelial innate response and caspase 8 activity associated with these processes are attenuated by the $\Delta fhs/piaA$ but not the $\Delta proABC/piaA$ mutation. Compared to the WT and $\Delta proABC/piaA$ mutant strains, growth of the $\Delta fhs/piaA$ mutant was associated with increased pneumococcal hydrogen peroxide secretion and reduced pneumolysin activity. Analysis of the bacterial transcriptome under stress conditions revealed that deletion of the *proABC* and *fhs* genes had broad, differential effects on pneumococcal virulence and metabolic gene expression suggestive of compensatory changes that preserve microinvasion. The findings that cellular reorganisation, the innate immune response, and the ability to cause invasive disease are not necessarily interconnected emphasise the complexity of bacterial-host interactions at the mucosal surface. The outcome of colonisation at this crucial barrier cannot be fully explained by single or functionally grouped virulence or metabolic factors.

INTRODUCTION

Adaptation to the host environment is crucial for successful colonisation of the upper respiratory tract (URT) by a range of human pathogens, including bacteria, viruses and fungi. This includes the ability to withstand different ambient temperatures, overcome physical barriers such as mucus, evade epithelial soluble mediators such as antimicrobial peptides, compete with neighbouring polymicrobial communities and compensate for nutrient restriction (1). *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (the pneumococcus) is a common commensal of this URT niche (1). However, translocation of the pneumococcus from the nasopharynx to the lungs, blood or the brain results in life-threatening disease (1). Indeed, among children under five years, *S. pneumoniae* is the leading cause of pneumonia deaths globally (2).

Using experimental human pneumococcal challenge (EHPC) of healthy volunteers and well-characterised epithelial cell models, we have previously shown that colonisation by *S. pneumoniae* is characterised by epithelial surface microcolony formation and invasion which we have called microinvasion (i.e. invasion of the epithelial barrier without disease) (3). The pneumococcal capsule is a major virulence determinant, influencing carriage, transmission from person to person, and invasive disease potential (4). Indeed, we have shown that *S. pneumoniae* epithelial microinvasion also varies markedly between strains expressing different capsular serotypes, with a serotype 4 strain invading Detroit 562 nasopharyngeal cell monolayers more readily than serotype 6B and 23F strains, and inducing more marked pro-inflammatory epithelial transcriptomic and cytokine responses (3).

We and others have previously proposed that although the epithelial innate immune response that results from pneumococcal colonisation may facilitate clearance, this highly variable pathobiont (>100 serotypes; >600 global pneumococcal sequence clusters (5)) tunes the host response to enhance transmission(3, 4). In addition to capsule, these processes have been shown to be

modulated by a broad array of subcapsular and cytoplasmic virulence factors (6), and more recently,

by bacterial carbohydrate, nucleotide, fatty acid and purine/ pyrimidine metabolism (7-11).

To explore the hypothesis that pneumococcal virulence has primarily evolved to promote

colonisation and subsequent transmission, but not necessarily disease, we have used a unique set

of *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B Δ*proABC* and Δ*fhs* biosynthesis gene mutants developed to induce

protective immunity without causing disease (12). *proABC* and *fhs* were chosen as targets through

the analysis of previously published transcriptome and transposon mutational screens (11, 13, 14).

The *proABC* operon, consisting of genes predicted to encode a γ-glutamyl phosphate reductase

(*proA*), a γ-glutamyl kinase (*proB*) and a pyrroline-5-carboxylate reductase (*proC*), and *fhs* predicted

to encode a folate tetrahydrofolate reductase involved in one carbon metabolism pathways have

been implicated in metabolic adaptation to growth (15-17), and are highly transcribed in mouse

models of pneumococcal infection (16, 17). To further avoid reversion to a disease-causing

phenotype during EHPC, these mutants also contain a deletion of *piaA* which encodes the lipoprotein

component of the dominant pneumococcal iron uptake ABC transporter (18, 19). We have previously

shown that in a murine model, when compared to the *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B wild-type parent

strain (WT, BHN418), the Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* mutants colonise the nasopharynx as

effectively. However, despite expressing the same capsule as the wild type 6B strain, neither the

Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* 6B strains causes invasive disease (12) (17). We have subsequently

shown that this attenuated phenotype is at least in part due to impaired growth in serum and is

associated with increased oxidative stress and altered lipid profiles (17). In EHPC, we have also

shown that both Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* retain the ability to colonise the human host, and can

induce IgG-mediated immunity (20). Therefore, these otherwise isogenic strains allow us to compare

the pneumococcal-epithelial interactions of disease-causing and non-disease-causing phenotypes,

while avoiding the confounding of differences in capsular serotype.

Here, we reveal that although the *S. pneumoniae* Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* metabolic function

mutations result in disease attenuation, the ability of the mutant strains to colonise and cause

microinvasion in both EHPC and *in vitro* epithelial infection models is preserved. Crucially, we also

show that despite similar patterns of epithelial cellular engagement, disruption of these key

pneumococcal metabolic pathways has differential effects on cellular reorganisation and innate

responses, which we propose influences niche adaptation during colonisation.

RESULTS

***S. pneumoniae* 6B with Δ*proABC* or Δ*fhs* mutants colonise in EHPC with evidence of epithelial**

microinvasion

We have defined microinvasion as the process by which *S. pneumoniae* invades the mucosal

epithelium, inducing an innate immune response, without necessarily causing disease (Fig 1A).

Nasal curette samples from EHPC healthy volunteers inoculated with the *S. pneumoniae* serotype

6B WT or isogenic mutant strains *(*Δ*proABC/piaA* or Δ*fhs/piaA)* (21) were collected to investigate the

extent of epithelial association and microinvasion. A positive carrier was defined as colonisation at

any time point (day 2 or day 6 post-inoculation), as detected by microbiology culture (3). Visualisation

of the mucosal cells by confocal microscopy showed colonisation by the WT and mutant

pneumococcal strains (Fig 1B). At day 6 post challenge, compared to WT, there was no attenuation

of microinvasion with either the Δ*proABC/piaA* or Δ*fhs/piaA* strains, with a trend for greater

microinvasion (Fig 1C) with a higher microinvasive index (percentage of internalised bacteria /

associated bacteria; Supplemental Information Table 1).

Fig 1. Pneumococcal – epithelial interactions in the EHPC model. (A) Schematic showing that

during colonisation, pneumococci adhere to the epithelial cell surface (association), internalise inside

epithelial cells (microinvasion). Mucus – lime; pneumococci – purple; intracellular vacuole – dark

green; epithelial cells – yellow; nucleus – brown; cell junctions – pink. (B) Representative microscopy

images showing 6B association to the epithelium and microinvasion by the Δ*proABC/piaA* or Δ*fhs/piaA* mutants. Surface carbohydrates (red), nuclei (DAPI, blue), pneumococci (green). (C) Table summarising the percentage of bacteria that were found by microscopy, on the surface (association) or inside (microinvasion) cells in the EHPC model. Mucosal curettage samples were collected at day 6 post-pneumococcal challenge. Number of volunteers (n) in each group is indicated in brackets, along with the total numbers of pneumococci (Spn) counted.

S. pneumoniae colonisation and microinvasion of primary human airway epithelium leads to cellular reorganisation with retention of barrier function

To further explore the impact of microinvasion on epithelial biology in a complex environment, we cultured *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B WT and the isogenic biosynthesis mutants with primary normal human bronchial epithelial airway (NHBE-A) cells in air-liquid interface. We observed epithelial cell association and microinvasion with all three strains (Fig2A, top). TEM demonstrated that intracellular bacteria for all three strains were enclosed within vacuoles (Fig 2A, bottom). As seen previously with several different pneumococcal strains (3), the 6B WT and the mutant strains co-localised with Junctional Adhesion Molecule A (JAM-A, Supplemental Information Fig 1A, arrow), with no change in overall JAM-A expression. However, using confocal microscopy and automated image analysis, for cells infected with the 6B WT strain, we did observe an increase in the intensity of Zonula Occludens 1 (ZO-1) staining at the junctional membrane (Supplementary Fig 1B), and a significant increase in the intensity of β catenin staining for cells infected with either the Δ*proABC/piaA or* Δ*fhs/piaA* strain (Fig 2B, 2C). These changes in junctional protein expression most likely occurred as a result of cellular reorganisation, as de-novo protein production would have been insufficient over the 6-hour experimental infection period. As measured by transepithelial electrical resistance, barrier integrity was retained over the infection period, (Fig 2D).

Fig 2. Impact of pneumococcal infection on NHBE-A cell junctional protein expression and barrier integrity. NHBE-A Cells were cultured at ALI and infected with pneumococcal strains for

6hrs. (A) Top: Representative confocal microscopy images from 4 independent experiments with

replicates, showing pneumococcal (green) association with the epithelium (red, surface

carbohydrates; nuclei blue) at 6hr post infection. Bottom: Representative transmission electron

microscopy images from 2 independent experiments, showing pneumococcal microinvasion

examples of each strain (arrows), enclosed within a vacuole after 4hr infection. (B) Representative

confocal microscopy images from 4 independent experiments with replicates, showing

pneumococcal (green) interactions with junctional proteins (red) of β catenin. Colocalization of red

and green appears yellow. Nuclei (blue). (C) Integrated intensity of β catenin in pneumococcal

negative (not pneumococcal associated) or positive (pneumococcal associated) cells. Non infected

v pneumococcal negative cells **** p <0.0001 (NI v Δ*proABC/piaA*), ** p = 0.0026 (NI v Δ*fhs/piaA*);

non-infected v pneumococcal positive cells; **** p <0.0001 (NI v Δ*proABC/piaA* and NI v Δ*fhs/piaA*);

Kruskal-Wallis, n = 4 independent experiments. (D) Transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) was

recorded pre- and post- 6hr infection to assess barrier integrity. N = 3 independent experiments with

replicates. Average TEER pre-infection was 466Ω.cm^2 (430-484 Ω.cm^2, p = 0.1458 ANOVA) and

average TEER post-infection was 545Ω.cm^2 (527-567 Ω.cm^2. p = 0.04744 ANOVA). Change in

TEER comparing non-infected cells to infected cells p = 0.6592, Kruskal-Wallis. Error bars represent

SEM.

When cultured at an air-liquid interface, NHBE cells differentiate into a typical pseudostratified

columnar ciliated epithelium, consisting of goblet, Clara, basal and ciliated cells (Fig 3A). Although

there was no predilection by *S. pneumoniae* for particular epithelial cell-types, pneumococci were

observed amongst cilia (acetylated tubulin positive cells, Fig 3B and Supplemental Information Fig

2) and co-localised with mucus (mucin5ac positive, Fig 3C, arrows). Strikingly, while the cellular

composition of the epithelial cultures exposed to the Δ*fhs/piaA* strain were comparable in

appearance to non-infected cells by SEM, exposure to the 6B WT and Δ*proABC/piaA* strains resulted

in an increased abundance in secreted mucus globules compared to non-infected cells (Fig 3A).

This appeared to be due to differential cellular secretion of preformed mucus rather than de-novo

production as these differences were not reflected in an increase in the expression of the gel-forming

glycoprotein Mucin5AC (Fig 3C and 3E, right graph). Following infection by the Δ*proABC/piaA* strain we found a significant increase in expression of acetylated tubulin (Fig 3B and 3E, left graph), which has been shown to be associated with increased microtubule conformation and elasticity, and occurs by post-translational modification (22, 23). In contrast, following exposure to Δ*fhs/piaA* strain, we saw an increased expression of the anti-inflammatory protein, uteroglobin (UG), which is a multifunctional epithelial secreted protein with anti-inflammatory and anti-chemotactic properties, and a marker for non-ciliated Clara cells (Fig 3D and 3F, left graph). These changes in UG expression again most likely occurred as a result of cellular reorganisation, or secretion of pre-formed protein, as de-novo protein production would have been insufficient to detect over the 6-hour experimental infection period.

Fig 3. Pneumococcal – epithelial interactions with primary human epithelial cells. Cells were cultured at ALI and infected with pneumococcal strains for 6hrs. (A) Representative scanning electron microscopy images from 2 independent experiments, showing the surface of the epithelium. Representative examples of differentiated epithelia (basal cells, Clara cells, goblet cells, ciliated cells) are shown in yellow text. Colonising pneumococci are highlighted by arrows. Representative confocal microscopy images from 4 independent experiments with replicates for (B) Ciliated cells (acetylated tubulin, red), (C) Goblet cells (mucin5ac, red, (arrows indicate co-localisation of mucin5ac with pneumococci)), (D) Clara cells (uteroglobin, red) after 6hr infection. Pneumococci (green), nuclei (DAPI, blue), colocalization of red and green appears as yellow. (E) Integrated intensity of acetylated tubulin and Muc5ac in pneumococcal negative or positive cells from two or more images. Acetylated tubulin, neg $p = 0.2677$, pos $p = 0.017$; Mucin5ac, neg $p = 0.6852$, pos $p = 0.8510$, ANOVA. N = 3 or 4 independent experiments. (F) Integrated intensity of uteroglobin normalised to non-infected cells (left, $p = 0.0115$ non-infected v infected, Kruskal-Wallis) and percentage of Clara positive cells following infection (right, $p = 0.0003$ non-infected v strains, $p = 0.0036$ 6B v mutant strains, Kruskal-Wallis). N = 3 independent experiments.

Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* mutations of *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B do not affect

microinvasion of Detroit 562 epithelial cells

Detroit 562 epithelial nasopharyngeal cells enable the analysis of these host-pathogen interactions under multiple conditions, which are not feasible with the primary cell lines. We have previously shown that the pattern of Detroit 562 epithelial nasopharyngeal cell microinvasion, and subsequent innate immune response to *S. pneumoniae* 6B infection *in vitro* is similar to that seen in the EPHC *in vivo(3)*. We therefore then used Detroit 562 cells to further characterise colonisation by the WT, Δ*proABC/piaA* and/or Δ*fhs/piaA* pneumococcal strains. We found that although all the strains formed colonies on the epithelial surface (Fig 4A), the isogenic mutants associated less compared to 6B WT (Fig 4B). Nonetheless, microinvasion was observed with all the strains (Fig 4C), with a significantly elevated micro-invasive index for the Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* strains compared to WT (Fig 4D). Differences in microinvasion were not due to differences in intracellular viability (Fig 4E) or replication (Supplemental Information Fig 3A-F). All of the single and double biosynthesis genes mutants (Δ*proABC*, Δ*fhs*, Δ*proABC/piaA*, Δ*fhs/piaA*) were impaired in their ability to transmigrate across the epithelium (Fig 4F). Importantly, we show that a single Δp*iaA* mutation in the *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B did not affect epithelial association, microinvasion and transmigration (Fig 4B, 4C, 4F).

Fig 4. **Strain association, microinvasion and transmigration of Detroit 562 cells.** Cells were infected with *S. pneumoniae* for three hours and CFU counts recorded. (A) Representative confocal microscopy images from 6 independent experiments with replicates, showing pneumococcal (green) interactions with surface carbohydrates (red). (B) Association of pneumococcal strains to epithelial cells. *p* = 0.0009 (Kruskal-Wallis), n = 6 with replicates. (C) Internalisation of strains into cells, following a gentamicin protection assay. *p* = 0.0219 (Kruskal-Wallis) N = 6 with replicates. (D) Microinvasive index is defined as the percentage of internalised bacteria over all associated bacteria. *p* = 0.071 (Kruskal-Wallis) N = 6 with replicates. (E) Pneumococcal viability inside epithelial cells following a gentamicin protection assay. n = 3 or 4 independent experiments with replicates. Counts were normalised to microinvasion counts for each strain after 3 hours infection and compared to 6B

WT; +1hr p = 0.6517, +2hr p = 0.1377, +3hr p = 0.1183 (ANOVA). (F) Transmigration of

pneumococcal strains across confluent monolayers on transwell inserts. CFUs were recorded from

the basal chamber. N = 6 independent experiments with replicates. $p < 0.001$ (Kruskal-Wallis). (G)

Epithelial cell permeability was assessed via leak to 4kDa FITC-Dextran into the basal chamber. N

= 4 with replicates. $p <0.0001$ compared to non-infected cells, and p = 0.0689 between 6B WT and

mutant strains (Kruskal-Wallis). (H) Representative confocal microscopy images from 6 independent

experiments with replicates, showing pneumococcal (green) interactions with β catenin (red).

Nuclear DAPI stain (blue). (I) Image quantification of integrated intensity of β catenin normalised to

non-infected cells, following infection with the different strains. N = 5 independent experiments. Non

infected v pneumococcal negative cells **** $p <0.0001$ (NI v Δ*fhs/piaA*); non-infected v

pneumococcal positive cells; **** $p <0.0001$ (NI v 6B), * $p = 0.0183$ (NI v Δ*proABC/piaA*), * $p = 0.0149$

(NI v Δ*fhs/piaA*); Kruskal-Wallis.

Consistent with our previous findings for serotype 6B(3), Detroit 562 epithelial barrier function was

not compromised after three hours of infection; indeed, there was a tightening of the barrier

evidenced by reduced FITC dextran diffusion after pneumococcal exposure (Fig 4G). Pneumococcal

infection had no effect on Junctional Adhesion Molecule A (JAM-A), Zonula-Occludens 1 (ZO-1),

Claudin 1 or Claudin 4 expression (Supplemental Fig 4). However, we did observe a significant

increase in epithelial β catenin expression following incubation with the Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA*

strains, compared to the WT (Fig 4H, 4I).

Δ*fhs/piaA* but not the Δ*proABC/piaA* mutations attenuate the pro-inflammatory epithelial

innate response to pneumococcal colonisation and microinvasion

We have previously shown that the Detroit 562 cell innate immune response to *S. pneumoniae* is

strain dependent (3). Having found that serotype 6B biosynthesis gene mutants that are attenuated

for disease retain their capacity for microinvasion, we have further assessed the link between

colonisation, microinvasion and epithelial cell innate immunity by RNAseq. Compared to non-

infected cells (Fig 5A), all strains upregulated 78 core epithelial genes related to cytokine signalling

in immune system, NLR signalling and GPCR ligand binding. 193 genes were upregulated by both

the 6B WT and Δ*proABC/piaA* strains, characterised by Rhodopsin-like receptors, GPCR ligand

binding, cytokine signalling in Immune system, signalling by interleukins and Toll Receptor cascades.

Infection with the Δ*fhs/piaA* strain resulted in a markedly different transcriptomic profile with modest

upregulation of 254 genes, characterised by antigen processing, proteasomal pathways, GTP

hydrolysis, and intracellular stress responses (Fig 5A). Overall, the epithelial genes that were most

upregulated following infection with 6B WT or Δ*proABC/piaA* strain were similar and contrasted to

the reduced gene expression profile seen with the Δ*fhs/piaA* strain despite high levels of cell invasion

(Fig 5B). Since both mutant strains contained the *piaA* mutation, this could not account for the

differences seen in these responses. Together, these data demonstrate that microinvasion, the

innate epithelial response and disease are not necessarily linked.

Fig 5. Detroit 562 cell transcriptomic responses to pneumococcal strains. Epithelial cells were

infected for four hours with pneumococcal strains and RNA extracted and processed for RNAseq.

6B n = 11, PP n = 17, FP n = 14, non-infected n = 12, from 6 independent experiments. (A) All

significantly log2 fold change upregulated genes according to strain compared to non-infected cells.

Significance was defined as DEGs with a log2 fold change (logFC) of > 1.5 and false discovery rate

(FDR) of < 0.05. (B) Comparison of the top 20 most upregulated genes for each strain, compared to

non-infected cells. Upstream regulator analysis for (C) transcription factors and (D) kinases.

Transcription factors, cellular kinases and cytokines (Fig 5C, 5D) predicted to regulate the

differentially expressed genes, showed the greatest difference in profile following infection with

Δ*fhs/piaA* strain compared to infection with 6B WT and Δ*proABC/piaA* strains. Δ*fhs/piaA* was

predicted to show diminished NFκB and MAPK activation and was associated with a more intrinsic

and epithelial repair response that included TBK1, Raf1, JAK1 kinases and IL-1 and IL-33 cytokine

signalling.

Enhanced epithelial caspase 8 activity following pneumococcal infection with the wild-type and ΔproABC/piaA strains

The NLRP3 inflammasome drives programmed epithelial cell death via caspase 1, caspase 3/7 and caspase 8 activity (24). Caspase activity, primarily regulated post-translationally, enables a rapid response to cellular stress and pathogen-mediated activation (25). In health, caspase regulation is thought to be important for mucosal integrity (26). During bacterial pneumonia, caspase activation is thought to have an important pro-inflammatory role, possibly triggered by pneumolysin (27, 28). We have therefore explored whether the different patterns of microinvasion and epithelial reorganisation seen with the WT 6B, and mutant strains are associated with differential caspase activation.

Compared to non-infected cells, infection with all strains led up to a 1.5-fold increase in epithelial caspase activity 6-hour post infection (Fig 6A, dark grey bars). To test which caspases were activated, we incubated infected cell cultures with either a caspase 1 inhibitor (YVAD-CHO), a caspase 3/7 inhibitor (Z-VAD-FMK), or specifically measured caspase 8 activity. We found that the increase was not due to caspase 1 activity (Fig 6B). Compared to non-infected cells, caspase 3/7 accounted for 3% and 15% of the caspase activity induced following infection with 6B WT and Δ*fhs/piaA* strain respectively (Fig 6A). In contrast, Δ*proABC/piaA* strain did not induce caspase 3/7 activity. Significant caspase 8 activation was seen following infection with 6B WT and Δ*proABC/piaA* strain, but not with the Δ*fhs/piaA* strain (Fig 6C).

Fig 6. Effects of pneumococcal infection on caspase activity in Detroit 562 cells. Caspase activity was assessed by luminescence, following infection with pneumococcal strains for 6 hours. (A) Caspase 3/7 activity was determined following incubation with the specific inhibitor Z-VAD-FMK. $N = 4$ with replicates. In comparison to non-infected cells, caspase 3/7 $p = 0.0022$; caspase 3/7 + Z-

VAD-FMK inhibitor p = 0.0005. In comparison to 6B WT, caspase 3/7 p = 0.0215; caspase 3/7 + Z-

VAD-FMK inhibitor p = 0.0012 (Kruskal-Wallis). (B) Caspase 1 activity was determined following

incubation with the specific inhibitor YVAD-CHO. Negative signals indicate caspase activity other

than caspase 1. N = 6 with replicates. In comparison to non-infected cells, p = 0.39; caspase+YVAD-

CHO inhibitor p = 0.3604 and, in comparison to 6B WT, p = 0.6226; caspase+YVAD-CHO inhibitor

p = 0.5386 (Kruskal-Wallis). (C) Caspase 8 activity was assessed following infection with

pneumococcal strains. N = 3 with replicates. In comparison to non-infected cells, p = 0.0015

(ANOVA) and, in comparison to 6B WT, p = 0.0172 (ANOVA).

Together, these data suggest differential caspase induction following infection with the different

strains, linking the proinflammatory profile of the 6B WT and the Δ*proABC/piaA* with caspase 8

activation, which we postulate may regulate pneumococcal survival and transmission during

colonisation in the nasopharynx.

Deletion of the *proABC* and *fhs* genes have broad-ranging differential effects on the *S.*

***pneumoniae* virulence gene expression and metabolic gene pathways when under stress**

We have previously found marked transcriptional differences between the WT and both mutants in

response to serum stress (used to represent the physiological stress found during human infection),

with an over three-fold increase in the number of genes upregulated by the mutant strains compared

to WT (17). Further analysis revealed that these genes include well-characterised pneumococcal

virulence factors such as *ply*, *nanA*, *psaA,* those regulating oxidative stress such as *SpxB*, *lctO* and

adhE, and genes involved in purine and carbohydrate metabolism (Supplemental Information Table

2). Phosphotransferase systems, amino nucleotide sugar, fructose and mannose and metabolic

pathways were the most significantly enriched pathways in the Δ*proABC* mutant under serum stress

(Table 1). In contrast, competence, purine, pyruvate, metabolic pathways, amino nucleotide sugar

pathways and secondary metabolites were the most significantly enriched pathways in the Δ*fhs*

mutant under stress (Table 1). Together these data suggest that deletion of the *proABC* and *fhs*

genes have widespread but differential effects on *S. pneumoniae* virulence and metabolism which may explain then complex phenotypes seen following epithelial infection.

Table 1. Differentially expressed pathways from single isogenic mutants in human serum compared to WT.

Pathway	GeneRatio	P-adjust	qvalue
Δ*fhs* vs. WT			
Fatty acid metabolism/biosynthesis	10/57	1.08E-09	6.49E-10
Biosynthesis of secondary metabolites	26/57	2.09E-04	1.26E-04
Purine metabolism	10/57	1.34E-03	8.06E-04
Quorum sensing	11/57	3.20E-03	1.92E-03
Pantothenate and CoA biosynthesis	5/57	3.59E-03	2.16E-03
beta-Lactam resistance	5/57	7.59E-03	4.57E-03
Propanoate metabolism	4/57	1.51E-02	9.09E-03
2-Oxocarboxylic acid metabolism	4/57	1.51E-02	9.09E-03
Metabolic pathways	40/57	1.94E-02	1.16E-02
Amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism	7/57	4.22E-02	2.54E-02
Pyruvate metabolism	5/57	4.31E-02	2.59E-02
Δ*proABC* vs. WT			
Fatty acid metabolism/biosynthesis	10/71	1.17E-08	8.94E-09
Galactose metabolism	12/71	1.25E-04	2.47E-08
Phosphotransferase system (PTS)	13/71	2.54E-03	1.93E-03
Amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism	9/71	2.89E-02	2.20E-02

Table 1. Differentially expressed pathways from single isogenic mutants in human serum compared to WT. 55 genes were selected within competence pathways, amino acid metabolism, virulence factors, oxidative stress pathways and other known genes important for colonisation, for assessment of changes in gene expression following serum stress. *q-value* measures the proportion of false positives incurred (the false discovery rate) when that particular test is significant.

fhs gene mutation in *S. pneumoniae* 6B is associated with increased pneumococcal hydrogen peroxide secretion and decreased pneumolysin activity

S. pneumoniae SpxB and LctO generate hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) which has been shown to suppress ENaC-α transcription and inhibit the Na+–K+ pump, acting as an intracellular signal to increase mitochondrial production of ROS (29, 30). We therefore postulated that differential expression of pneumococcal H_2O_2 may modulate epithelial functional responses during nasopharyngeal colonisation by *S. pneumoniae* and explain the differences in the epithelial innate immune response to the 6B WT, Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* strains. To assess this, we measured H_2O_2 concentration using a luminescence-based bioassay, normalising against bacterial CFU. After three and six hours, we detected significantly higher levels of H_2O_2 in Δ*fhs/piaA* cultures compared to 6B WT and Δ*proABC/piaA* strains (Fig 7A). Furthermore, this was not ameliorated by epithelial cell contact (Fig. 7B).

Fig 7. Hydrogen peroxide secretion and pneumolysin activity from pneumococcal strains in the absence and presence of Detroit 562 cells. A) Fold change of hydrogen peroxide production from the mutants compared to WT, normalised to the CFU counts. 3hr *p* = 0.0087 (ANOVA), 6hr *p* = 0.0209 (Kruskal-Wallis). B) Fold change of hydrogen peroxide production from the mutants compared to WT, normalised to the CFU counts, following infection of Detroit 562 cells. Media was

replaced after 1hr infection and cells incubated for a further 5hrs. N = 3 independent experiments

with replicates. Compared to 6B WT, p = 0.0034 (ANOVA). C) Pneumolysin activity was assessed

using a red blood cell lysis assay. Strains were incubated with red blood cells for 30 minutes and

absorbance measured. N = 4 experiments with replicates. Pneumococcal strain haemolytic activity

is calculated in comparison to 100% lysis by 0.0625% saponin. p <0.0001 compared to 6B WT

(ANOVA).

The pore forming pneumococcal toxin pneumolysin can both activate and suppress the host innate

immune response and mediates the haemolytic activity characteristic of the pneumococcus (31-33).

H_2O_2 can increase the release of pneumolysin but paradoxically also negatively impairs its

haemolytic activity (34). Compatible with the latter and the higher production of H_2O_2 by the Δfhs

/piaA strain, despite having increased expression of ply, red blood cell lysis was reduced for Δfhs

strains compared to 6B WT and $\Delta proABC$ (Fig. 7C).

Differential pneumococcal H_2O_2 release may therefore explain at least in part, the effects of the $S.$

$pneumoniae$ serotype 6B WT and $\Delta proABC$ /piaA compared to the Δfhs /piaA strain on the epithelial

response to colonisation and microinvasion. Importantly, in the 6-hour timeframe assessed, the

increased H_2O_2 release the Δfhs /piaA strain was not associated with epithelial cellular toxicity or

loss of barrier function, but was associated with increased intracellular epithelial stress response, as

detected by RNAseq.

DISCUSSION

There is considerable variation in the propensity of different $S.$ $pneumoniae$ strains to colonise the

human host, cause invasive disease and transmit to others (1). During colonisation of the

nasopharyngeal niche, the pneumococcus was previously thought to be confined to the mucus layer

and the epithelial surface (1). However, using EHPC, we have previously reported that

pneumococcal microinvasion occurs in healthy volunteers (3), and we now show that even when

using isogenic serotype 6B pneumococcal biosynthesis pathway mutant strains that are attenuated

for systemic disease but not for carriage, this microinvasion is preserved (12). We found that

pneumococcal colonisation and microinvasion of primary human airway epithelium led to cellular

reorganisation and mucus production while retaining barrier function, although the pattern of this

reorganisation varied by strain. Furthermore, the pro-inflammatory innate response and caspase 8

activity associated with epithelial infection by *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B were attenuated by the

Δ*fhs/piaA* but not by the Δ*proABC/piaA* mutation. Under stress conditions, along with presumably

compensatory changes in the expression of multiple metabolic pathways, the Δ*proABC* and Δ*fhs*

mutations resulted in the upregulation of several pneumococcal virulence factor genes (Graphical

Abstract Summary). Notably, the *fhs* gene mutation in *S. pneumoniae* serotype 6B was associated

with increased pneumococcal hydrogen peroxide secretion and decreased pneumolysin activity.

Together these findings suggest that despite being attenuated for disease, the metabolic changes

and the increased expression of pneumococcal virulence genes in response to stress may explain

the preservation of epithelial microinvasion by these mutants. However, although epithelial

microinvasion, cellular reorganisation, innate immune response, and the propensity to cause

invasive disease are strain dependent, these properties do not appear to be directly co-correlated.

Graphical Abstract

S. pneumoniae colonisation is characterised by mucus association, epithelial adherence and

microinvasion – where the pneumococcus invades the epithelial barrier without causing disease.

Microcolonies form at the epithelial surface and pneumococcal transmigration can occur between

epithelial cells. Although mutations in *S. pneumoniae* biosynthesis genes (Δ*proABC* and Δ*fhs*)

attenuate disease in a murine model, they do not attenuate microinvasion in either experimental

human pneumococcal challenge (EHPC) or *in vitro* in primary and immortalised epithelial cells.

These mutations show strain-dependent effects on both the epithelial and bacterial responses to

infection. While not directly co-correlated, factors such as epithelial cellular reorganisation,

inflammation and caspase 8 activity alongside pneumococcal metabolic adaptation, virulence factor

expression and response to stress are key determinants of the outcome of colonisation in the

nasopharyngeal niche.

The complexity of the interaction between *S. pneumoniae* and the mucosal epithelium was

highlighted through infection of our well-characterised primary epithelial cell model(35). The model

consisting of Clara cells (involved in secretory, xenobiotic metabolic, and progenitor cell functions),

goblet cells (mucus production), ciliated cells (responsible for mucus and small particle transport),

exhibited considerable epithelial cellular re-organisation involving β catenin, acetylated tubulin and

uteroglobin in response to pneumococcal infection. In a rabbit pneumococcal meningitis model,

increased acetylated tubulin and microtubule stabilisation was attributed to pneumolysin activity(23).

Previously, using a pneumolysin deficient mutant of *S. pneumoniae* serotype 4 (TIGR4), we have

shown that pneumolysin is a key driver of the epithelial inflammatory response to pneumococcal

infection (3). We therefore speculate that the differential expression of pneumolysin and H_2O_2 by the

WT and mutant strains may contribute to the differing patterns of epithelial reorganisation, and goblet

cell mucus release that we observed, and may impact on both clearance and transmission (1).

Epithelial infection with the 6B WT and Δ*proABC/piaA* strains induced innate inflammatory pathway

gene expression typical of pneumococcal infection (3), including cytokine/chemokines, interleukins,

Toll Like Receptor and NFκB signalling, alongside apoptotic transcripts such as FOXO3 and TP53.

We also identified epithelial genes upregulated only during WT infection, potentially related to a

greater disease-causing potential. These genes are involved in RNA degradation, O-linked

glycosylation, wnt signalling, DNA sensing, RIG-I pathways and signal transduction. In contrast, the

Δ*fhs/piaA* strain activated a pro-survival and adaptation profile, upregulating genes such as JUN,

SMARCA4, NFAT5, KLF6 and TCF4, which are involved in homeostatic signalling and chromatin

remodelling (36, 37), suggestive of a more tolerant response. Ultimately, these capsule-independent

differences in pneumococcal-epithelial interactions may shape the adaptive immune response to

pneumococcal colonisation (21, 38), which could then further influence the outcomes of both

colonisation and disease. How these findings translate to differences in the duration of

nasopharyngeal carriage, invasiveness, transmission or clearance remains to be fully determined.

However, during EHPC, Δ*fhs/piaA* infection was associated with increased density at day 6 post-

inoculation compared the other strains (20).

Importantly, while WT serotype 6B infection led to epithelial cell reorganisation (β catenin localisation

to the junctional membrane and mucus secretion), pneumococcal transmigration, a more pro-

inflammatory innate immune transcriptomic profile and increased caspase 8 activity, all indicative of

a robust cellular response to *S. pneumoniae*, the Δ*fhs/piaA* but not Δ*proABC/piaA* strains was

attenuated for many of these characteristics. This suggests that similar to the macrophage response

to *S. pneumoniae*, intracellular signalling by pneumococci is not the sole determinant of the epithelial

response to infection (32, 39). The *proABC* operon consists of three genes involved in proline

biosynthesis (ProABC)(40). *fhs* catalyses the synthesis of N10 formyl tetrahydrofolate, essential for

carbon metabolism and purine nucleotide biosynthesis in various bacterial species (16, 41),

especially under hypoxic conditions (41, 42). It is increasingly recognised that bacterial virulence and

metabolism are intimately linked (43). Whether the distinct epithelial innate immune response to

Δ*fhs/piaA* infection is due to diminished epithelial NFκB and MAPK activation (potentially linked to

extracellular receptor engagement), reduced caspase 8 activity mediated by enhanced

pneumococcal H_2O_2 release, decreased pneumolysin activity, or a compensatory metabolic

response to the stress remains to be determined.

S. pneumoniae is highly adapted to colonise the human host and transmit from person to person.

Invasive pneumococcal disease, particularly in its most severe forms, is a dead end for the bacteria.

Our observation that the induction of inflammation/ innate immunity is not necessarily linked to

disease potential supports our proposition that microinvasion during colonisation by the

pneumococcus may facilitate immune evasion. As is typical of 'professional' intracellular bacterial

species such as *Listeria* and *Salmonella*, the resulting host response might also promote

transmission (44, 45). Whether the less pro-inflammatory Δ*fhs/piaA* is less transmissible than the

more inflammatory WT remains to be determined but this could be further explored using EHPC

(46).

In conclusion, these data further support our proposed paradigm that epithelial microinvasion by *S.*

pneumoniae in healthy people is frequent and usually does not lead to disease. Our findings highlight

the broad-ranging effects of even single gene mutations in pneumococcal biosynthesis pathways,

which may partially explain the complexity of differences between seemingly closely related strains.

However, strain differences in subsequent epithelial cell microinvasion, cellular reorganisation and

inflammatory responses are likely driven by differential expression of a range of bacterial virulence

and metabolic pathways that are not necessarily co-correlated with disease-causing potential. As

suggested by our bacterial transcriptomic data, no single pneumococcal virulence factor or group of

factors fully explains the differences seen between the strains under stress. The complexity of these

bacterial-host cell interactions is modulated by mediators such as hydrogen peroxide and

pneumolysin, which can have both enhancing and inhibitory effects on the epithelial cell response to

infection in different contexts. *S. pneumoniae* in constantly evolving, with new variants emerging

both due to stochastic events and under ecological pressure from numerous factors including

vaccines and antibiotic exposure (47, 48) (49). Extensive phenotyping of emerging, genotypically

related pneumococcal strains offers the opportunity to more effectively unravel *S. pneumoniae*

pathogenesis and its adaptation to the nasopharyngeal niche.

METHODS

Bacteria

The *Streptococcus pneumoniae* serotype 6B (strain BHN 418(50)) was a kind gift from Prof. Birgitta

Henriques Normark (Karolinska Institute). Δ*proABC/piaA* and Δ*fhs/piaA* mutant strains were

generated using overlap extension PCR as described by Ramos-Sevillano *et al*(12). Stocks of

bacteria were stored at -80°C when bacterial growth in Todd Hewitt Broth (THY) was 0.3 O.D.$_{600nm}$.

Aliquots were defrosted, centrifuged at 8000g for eight minutes and resuspended in 1% Fetal Bovine

Serum (FBS, Gibco) in MEM media (Gibco) for infections. Approximately 10 bacteria were added for

every epithelial cell. Colony forming units (CFU) were counted by serial dilutions on horse blood agar

plates (EO Labs). Starting inoculums were not significantly different across strains for all assays.

Bacterial RNA-seq sample collection, sequencing and reads

Mutant pneumococcal strains (three biological replicates for each mutant) and 6B WT (three

biological replicates) were grown in THY to mid log phase and the pellets resuspended in THY and

undiluted human serum for 60mins. The culture was then pelleted, and RNA stored in RNA Protect

at -70°C before extracting total RNA (17). Total RNA from each library was ribo-depleted and sent

for Illumina Next Seq Sequencing Pathogen Genomics Unit (PGU), UCL. The quality of raw FASTQ

reads was checked by FastQC v0.11.5, Babraham Bioinformatics, UK (51) and visualised using

multiQC v1.9 (52). Reads were trimmed using Trimmomatic 0.39 (53). Trimmed reads were also

checked by FastQC and multiQC. Trimmed reads were then mapped to KEGG annotated 6B

genome sequence (670-6B, Accession: CP002176.1) using bowtie2 with default settings(54).

Conversion into BAM files was performed using SAMtools (55). Mapped reads were visualized in

the Integrated Genome Browser (IGB) (56). FeatureCounts v2.0.0 was used to summarize read

counts for each annotated feature in the respective reference genomes in multimapping mode (-M)

(57).

Differential gene expression analyses

536 The generated count matrix was imported into R-studio (R v3.4.2) and normalization of counts and

537 differential gene expression analysis was performed by DESeq2 (58). DESeq2 normalized libraries

538 were regularized log transformed for visualizing heatmaps and clustering. Differential gene

539 expression was performed on raw counts. Fold change shrinkage was implemented with the apeglm

package within DESeq2. Genes with a log2 fold change > 1.5 and false discovery rate (FDR) of <

0.05 were categorized as differentially expressed. KEGG pathway enrichment and module analysis

were performed on differentially regulated genes using over representation analysis (ORA)

implemented by clusterProfiler (59).

Experimental Human Pneumococcal Carriage Model (EHPC)

A full explanation of experimental design and selection criteria has been previously described (3).

Following written informed consent, healthy non-smoking adults between the ages of 18 – 59 were

inoculated with 80,000 CFU/nostril live strains of *S. pneumoniae*. Mucosal cells from the inferior

turbinate using a plastic Rhino-probe™ (curettage, Arlington Scientific) were collected prior to

inoculation, and days 2 and 6 post-inoculation. Samples were processed for confocal microscopy

analysis. Nasal wash samples were collected for CFU count analysis. There were no adverse events.

Ethical approval was given by NHS Research and Ethics Committee (REC)/Liverpool School of

Tropical Medicine (LSTM) REC, reference number: 18/NW/0481 and Human Tissue Authority

licensing number 12548.

Primary Human Epithelial Cells

Normal Human Primary Bronchial/Tracheal Epithelial Cells (NHBE-A, ATCC® PCS-300-010™) were

plated at 6×10^3 cells/cm^2 on a layer of sub-lethally γ-irradiated (60 Gy) mouse embryonic fibroblasts

3T3-J2 cells (kind donation from Howard Green, Harvard Medical School, Boston(60)) with

keratinocyte culture medium cFAD (3:1 DMEM (Gibco) to Ham F-12 Nut Mix (Gibco), 10% FBS

(HyClone, Sigma), 1% Penicillin-Streptomycin (100X, Sigma), 0.4 µg/mL Hydrocortisone

(Calbiochem, USA), 5 µg/ml Insulin (various), 10-10 Cholera Toxin (Sigma) and 2x10-9

Triodothyronine (Sigma)). Epithelial cells were stimulated with 10 ng/mL human epidermal growth

factor (hEGF, PeproTech, USA) on days 3 and 5. Cultures were grown at 37°C 6% CO_2 and sub-

confluent cultures were trypsinised with 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA (Sigma). For NHBE-A differentiation

in Air Liquid Interface (ALI) culture, cells were plated at a density of 6×10^4/cm^2 on 1µm pore PET cell

culture inserts (12 wells, Greiner). The insert was supplemented with cFAD medium on the top and

bottom. After 48 hours, medium was removed from the top of the culture (exposure) and the culture

was fed with fresh PneumaCult™ differentiation Medium (Stemcell Technologies) from the bottom

of the well every 2 days for 3 weeks, until cell ciliation was observed. Antibiotics were removed from

the medium and cells washed 24 hours before infection experiments.

Human Epithelial Cell Lines

Human pharyngeal carcinoma Detroit 562 epithelial cells (ATCC_CCL-138) were grown in 10% FCS

in alpha MEM media (Gibco). For each set of experiments, cells were used within 5 passages. Cells

consistently tested PCR negative for mycoplasma (Cambridge Biosciences).

Pneumococcal-epithelial cell co-culture

For association and internalisation assays, confluent monolayers of Detroit 562 cells (typically day 7

- 8 post plating) cultured on 12 well plates (Corning), were exposed to *S. pneumoniae* (1 cell : 10

pneumococci) for three hours in 1% FCS alpha MEM (six-hour infection for HNBE-A cells in 1%

Pneumocult media without supplements) (3). Cells washed three times in HBSS$^{+/+}$ before incubation

in 1% saponin for 10 minutes at 37°C to lyse cells. Bacterial dilutions were plated on horse blood

agar for 16 hours and colony forming units counted. For internalisation quantification, 200µg/ml

gentamicin was added to the cells for one hour before incubation with saponin.

For transmigration assays, Detroit 562 cells were plated onto 3µm pore, PET Transwell Inserts

(ThermoFisher) typically for 10 days (3). Media was changed to 1% FCS (250µl apical chamber, 1ml

basal chamber) one hour prior to infection experiments. 1mg/ml FITC-dextran (Sigma Aldrich) was

added to the apical chamber of selected inserts for permeability assays. Transepithelial Electrical

Resistance (TEER) was measured before and after infection using an EVOM2 (World Precision

Instruments). Bacteria were added to the cells for three hours during of which 50µl of basal media

was repeatedly removed to measure bacterial load by counting CFU/well. Permeability was recorded

using a FLUOstar Omega (BMG Labtech) at 488nm.

Confocal Microscopy

Sample processing was performed as previously described(3). Briefly, mucosal cells from the EHPC

model were placed directly into 4% PFA and cytospun onto microscope slides. NHBE-A cells and

Detroit 562 cells cultured on transwell membranes were fixed in 4% PFA (Pierce, Methanol Free).

Cells were permeabilised with 0.2% Triton X-100 for 10 minutes, blocked for one hour in blocking

buffer (3% goat serum and 3% BSA in PBS (Sigma)) and incubated with pneumococcal antisera

Pool Q (raised against the polysaccharide capsule, SSI Diagnostica) for one hour. Wheat germ

agglutinin conjugated to Rhodamine (Vector Labs) was added along with goat-anti rabbit IgG

conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 for 45 minutes in blocking buffer. Primary (used at 1:100) antibodies

used for epithelial cell proteins can be found in Supplemental Information Table 3. Secondary (used

at 1:500) antibodies were either goat anti-mouse or goat anti-rabbit – Alexa Fluor 555 or 546,

ThermoFisher. Of note, for epithelial protein antibodies raised in rabbit (Uteroglobin), no

pneumococcal staining was possible and therefore pneumococci were not visible on the images.

DAPI was added for 5 minutes and cells were mounted with Aqua PolyMount (VWR International)

and a coverslip on the microslide. Pneumococci were recorded by manual scanning of the whole

cytospin for the EHPC samples. More than three fields of view were recorded for each bacterial

strain for Detroit 562 cell infections, using inverted Zeiss LSM (either 700 or 880) confocal

microscopes. Images were processed with Zeiss LSM Image Browser. Z stacks were recorded at

1µm intervals at either 40x oil or 63x oil objectives. Automated image analysis was carried out using

Cellprofiler (61).

Electron Microscopy

Preparation of Detroit 562 cells and NHBE-A cells was identical, and previously described(3). Briefly,

cells cultured on transwells were fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde and 1.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M

cacodylate buffer and post-fixed in 1% OsO_4 / 1.5% $K_4Fe(CN)_6$ in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer pH7.3.

Samples were dehydrated in graded ethanol-water series and infiltrated with Agar 100 resin mix.

Ultra-thin sections were cut at 70-80 nm using a diamond knife on a Reichert ultracut microtome.

Sections were collected on 300 mesh copper grids and stained with lead citrate. For transmission

electron microscopy the samples were hardened at 60°C for 48 hours. The coverslip was removed,

and a representative area was selected. Ultra-thin sections were cut at 70-80 nm using a diamond

knife on a Reichert ultra-cut S microtome. Sections were collected on copper grids and stained with

lead citrate. Samples were viewed with a Joel 1010 transition electron microscope and the images

recorded using a Gatan Orius CCD camera.

Pneumolysin activity

Adapted from Kirkham et al(62). Briefly, final concentration of 2% horse blood (EO Labs) solution

was prepared in phenol free alpha MEM (Life Technologies) and 100 µl added to wells of a 96 U-

bottom plate (Corning). 100 µl of bacterial solutions (containing ~2.5x10^6 bacteria) were suspended

in phenol free alpha MEM were added to each 96 well. Saponin was used as a positive control for

lysis. Solutions were incubated for 30 minutes at 37°C before centrifugation at 1000g for one minute.

100 µl was transferred into a new 96 well plate and absorbance recorded at 540nm on a plate reader.

Hydrogen Peroxide Assay

Detroit 562 cells were cultured in white 96 well plates (Corning). NHBE-A cells were cultured in 12

well plates in Pneumocult media. Cells were incubated with H_2O_2 substrate and infected with strains

of *S. pneumoniae* for up to six hours according to manufacturers' instructions (ROS-Glo^{TM} H_2O_2

Assay, Promega). ROS-Glo^{TM} Detection solution was added to the cells and incubated for 20

minutes. For primary cells, supernatant was then transferred to a white 96 well plate. Luminescence

was read using a GloMax -Multi Detection System plate reader (Promega).

Caspase assay

Detroit 562 cells were cultured in white 96 well plates (Corning). NHBE-A cells were cultured in 12

well plates in Pneumocult media. Cells were infected with strains of *S. pneumoniae* for up to six

hours. Primary cell supernatant was transferred to a white 96 well plate. Samples were incubated

with Caspase-Glo® 1 Reagent, Caspase-Glo® 1 YVAD-CHO Reagent, Caspase-Glo® Z-VAD-FMK

Reagent or Caspase-Glo® 8 Reagent, for one hour and according to manufacturers' instructions

(Promega). Luminescence was read using a GloMax-Multi Detection System plate reader

(Promega).

RNA samples and sequencing (RNA-Seq)

RNA-Seq data was collected as previously described (3). Confluent monolayers of Detroit 562

epithelial cells were infected with S. pneumoniae strains for four hours before collection in RNALater.

RNA was extracted using a Qiagen RNAEasy micro kit and treated for DNA removal using a Qiagen

Turbo DNA-free kit. RNA quality was assessed and quantified using a BioAnalyser (Agilent 2100).

Samples were sequenced using Illumina Nextseq 500/550 High Output 75 cycle kit giving 15-20

million 41bp paired-end reads per sample (Pathogens Genomic Unit, UCL).

Statistics

Each condition within each experiment was performed in duplicate or triplicate, and each experiment

was performed independently more than three times, unless stated otherwise. Error bars represent

SEM, unless stated otherwise. GraphPad Prism Version 7 was used for parametric (t-tests or

ANOVA) or non-parametric (Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis tests) analysis, which was based on

the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. Ad hoc tests were performed using Tukey's (for parametric data) or

Dunn's (for non-parametric data) multiple comparisons test. P values less than 0.05 were considered

significant.

Data and code availability

Source data are provided as a Source Data file. RNAseq data from the Detroit 562 cell infections is

publicly accessible through Zenodo with Accession (DOI:10.5281/zenodo.7997789).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS: CMW conceived, funded, designed and conducted the study, performed the experiments, acquired samples and processed data, and wrote the first draft of the manuscript. GP analysed and interpreted the RNAseq data. MB analysed and interpreted the bacterial transcriptomic data. RR cultured and differentiated primary epithelial cells. MC provided manuscript writing support. ERS generated the 6B mutant strains and bacterial transcriptomic data. JR collected and processed EHPC samples. JAGA processed the RNA-Seq data. MW ran the image analysis. PB provided investigator support. MN provided RNA-Seq analysis support. DF provided investigator support and EHPC clinical samples. JSB generated the 6B mutant strains, interpreted the data and revised the manuscript. RSH provided investigator support, designed and interpreted the data, revised the manuscript. All authors commented on and approved the manuscript.

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SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Streptococcus pneumoniae **with biosynthesis gene mutations that attenuate disease retain**

their potential for epithelial microinvasion and the induction of nasal epithelium innate

immunity

Table 1. Pneumococcal counts from microscopy nasal curettes. EHPC raw data for microscopy

pneumococcal counts per volunteer. Surface bacteria – association; intracellular – micro-invasion.

Microinvasion index (MI) calculated from intracellular bacteria as a percentage of total (intracellular

+ surface associated) bacteria.

Table 2. Differentially upregulated genes by *S. pneumoniae* biosynthesis mutants in comparison WT under serum stress. Enrichment analysis of virulence genes, experimentally deleted biosynthesis genes, purine related genes, hydrogen peroxide regulators and carbohydrate metabolism. A comparison of differential gene expression was assessed when pneumococcal strains were cultured in human serum, comparing the single Δ*proABC* Δ*fhs* mutant relative to the WT strain.

Table 3. Primary antibodies used for Microscopy. Primary and secondary antibodies for epithelial proteins. Primary antibodies were added for 1 hr at room temperature before washing off in HBSS and adding secondary antibodies for 45 minutes.

Fig 1. Junctional proteins in Primary HBE-A cells. Representative example of JAM-A (red, A) and ZO-1 (red, B) staining in primary HBE-A cells after a 6hr infection (green). Nuclei stained with DAPI in blue. Co-localisation of junctional proteins and pneumococci appear yellow, as highlighted by the arrow.

Fig 2. Ciliated Primary HBE-A cells. Representative example of pneumococcal (green) associations with ciliated (acetylated tubulin, red) cells as illustrated with the Δ*proABC+PiaA* mutant in primary HBE-A cells.

Fig 3. Association, microinvasion and transmigration of pneumococci following 1hr infection in Detroit 562 cells. Pneumococcal-epithelial interactions at 1hr post infection. Association, micro-invasion and transmigration of pneumococcal strains after 1hr infection in Detroit 562 cells and CFUs recorded. (A) Association of 6B strains. p = 0.0024. (B) Internalisation of 6B strains. p = 0.0107). (C) Micro-invasive index. Proportion of all bacteria internalised into cells p = 0.6478. (D) Transmigration of 6B strains after 1hr infection. Pneumococcal strains were added to the apical chamber of a transwell insert with a confluent monolayer of Detroit 562 cells. CFUs were recorded over time from the basal chamber, reflecting bacteria that had transmigrated across the epithelium. p = 0.0106. (E) Pre (p = 0.5403) and post (p = 0.6384) inoculum. N = 4 independent experiments with replicates (Kruskal-Wallis). (F) Pre and post inoculum after 3 hours infection. Pre- (light grey) and post- (dark grey) inoculums after 3 hours incubation with epithelial cells. Pre- p = 0.8366, Post- p = 0.0160, 6B v isogenic mutants (Kruskal-Wallis), n = 6 with replicates. (G) Cell supernatant from infected cells

922 was analysed for lactate dehydrogenase secretion. N = 3 - 5 with replicates. p = 0.046 compared to

923 non-infected cells, and p = 0.5649 between 6B WT and mutant strains (ANOVA).

925 **Fig 4. Junctional proteins in Detroit 562 cells.** Representative example of junctional protein

926 staining (red) in Detroit 562 cells after 3hr infection (pneumococci green). Nuclei (DAPI, blue). N = 4

927 independent experiments with replicates.

Figure 1

A

Pneumococci

Association

Micro-invasion

Transmigration

B

6B   ΔproABC/piaA   Δfhs/piaA

C

	Day 6 post-challenge	
	Association (%)	**Micro-invasion (%)**
6B	87.8 (n11, 43spn)	12.2 (n11, 6spn)
ΔproABC/piaA	59.3 (n11, 16spn)	40.7 (n11, 11spn)
Δfhs/piaA	48.7 (n5, 57spn)	51.3 (n5, 60spn)

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A

6B WT v not infected

Δ*proABC/piaA* v not infected

81 193 38

78 13

Δ*fhs/piaA* v not infected

B

log2foldchange	6B	ΔproABC/piaA	Δfhs/piaA
Upregulated genes			
AC256236.1	32.9	25.5	0.0
AC022149.1	30.2	27.6	0.0
Z84488.2	29.1	21.6	0.0
MUC21	25.8	29.0	0.0
VASN	20.9	0.0	0.0
BRD2	18.4	24.7	0.0
AC012254.2	18.2	13.8	0.0
CTAGE4	18.1	0.0	0.0
MICE	17.1	20.3	0.0
AC107075.1	10.1	0.0	0.0
CSNK2B	0.0	20.2	0.0
MTRNR2L6	0.0	19.4	15.8
LSM2	0.0	17.1	0.0
ALOX5	0.0	0.0	6.9
AC006064.6	0.0	0.0	3.4
TAP2	0.0	0.0	3.2
CYP1A1	0.0	0.0	1.7
FOSB	0.0	0.0	1.4
IL1B	0.0	0.0	1.3
CXCL8	0.0	0.0	1.1
CXCL2	0.0	0.0	1.1
CYP1B1	0.0	0.0	1.0

C

Transcription factors

0.00 2.01 7.00

CREB1
TP53
HIF1A
NUPR1
RELA
STAT3
NFKBIA
FOXO3
FOXO1
TGIF1
EZH2
JUN
SMARCA4
NFKB1
NFAT5
KLF6
TCF4

D

Kinases

0.00 0.73 4.00

MAPK1
PRKCA
SRC
TBK1
IKBKB
MAP3K8
MAPK8
EIF2AK3
RIPK1
MAP3K14
ERBB2
PRKCD
FGFR1
RAF1
JAK1
CHUK
MAPK7
PRKCE
MAPK3

Figure 6

A

B

Caspase 1activity

C

Figure 7

A

Hydrogen peroxide secretion without cells

B

Hydrogen peroxide secretion with cells

C

Pneumolysin activity

Graphical abstract