Navigating contradictions: Salmonella Typhimurium chemotactic responses to conflicting effector stimuli

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Summary

Chemotaxis controls swimming motility and colonization of many intestinal bacteria, but how enteric pathogens navigate the complex chemical landscape of the gut, which contains contradictory chemoattractant and chemorepellent stimuli, remains poorly understood. We find *Salmonella* Typhimurium requires chemotactic sensing of two opposing signals present in the intestinal lumen—the microbiota metabolite and bacteriostatic chemorepellent indole, and the nutrient chemoattractant L-Ser—for efficient invasion of colonic tissue. Despite feces being the major biological source of indole, accumulating to millimolar levels, non-typhoidal *Salmonella* are strongly attracted to fecal material because chemoattraction to L-Ser and other attractants override indole chemorepulsion. This behavior is orchestrated through the chemoreceptor Tsr, which coordinates a spectrum of distinct rearrangements in the bacterial population structure based on the ratio of L-Ser to indole. Through seeking niches with the highest L-Ser to indole ratio, *S.* Typhimurium presumably optimizes nutrient access and avoids regions of high-competitor density.

Keywords:

Chemotaxis, *Salmonella*, chemoeffector, chemohalation, serine, indole, chemoreceptor, Tsr, microbiome, gastrointestinal pathogen

Introduction

Many bacteria that colonize the gastrointestinal tracts of humans and other animals employ chemotaxis to sense chemical effectors in the gut lumen and swim to environments conducive for growth and colonization [1–5]. Chemotaxis enables motile bacteria to seek nutrients, avoid toxins, and respond to molecular cues [1,2,4,5]. This process is controlled by chemoreceptor proteins, which recognize chemical effectors and transduce signals through a phosphorylation cascade to regulate flagellar rotation and swimming direction, ultimately determining the spatial and temporal patterns of bacterial colonization (Fig. 1A) [1,2,6,7]. While many effectors have been studied and characterized in isolation as attractants or repellents [4,7], natural environments contain mixtures of opposing signals. In the enteric lumen, bacteria encounter a complex milieu of conflicting effector signals, and little is known about how they prioritize these signals to direct their movement and colonization (Fig. 1B). Ultimately, the colonization topography of bacteria within the gut influences the health of the host through nutrient absorption, developmental regulation, and resistance to pathogens [8–10].

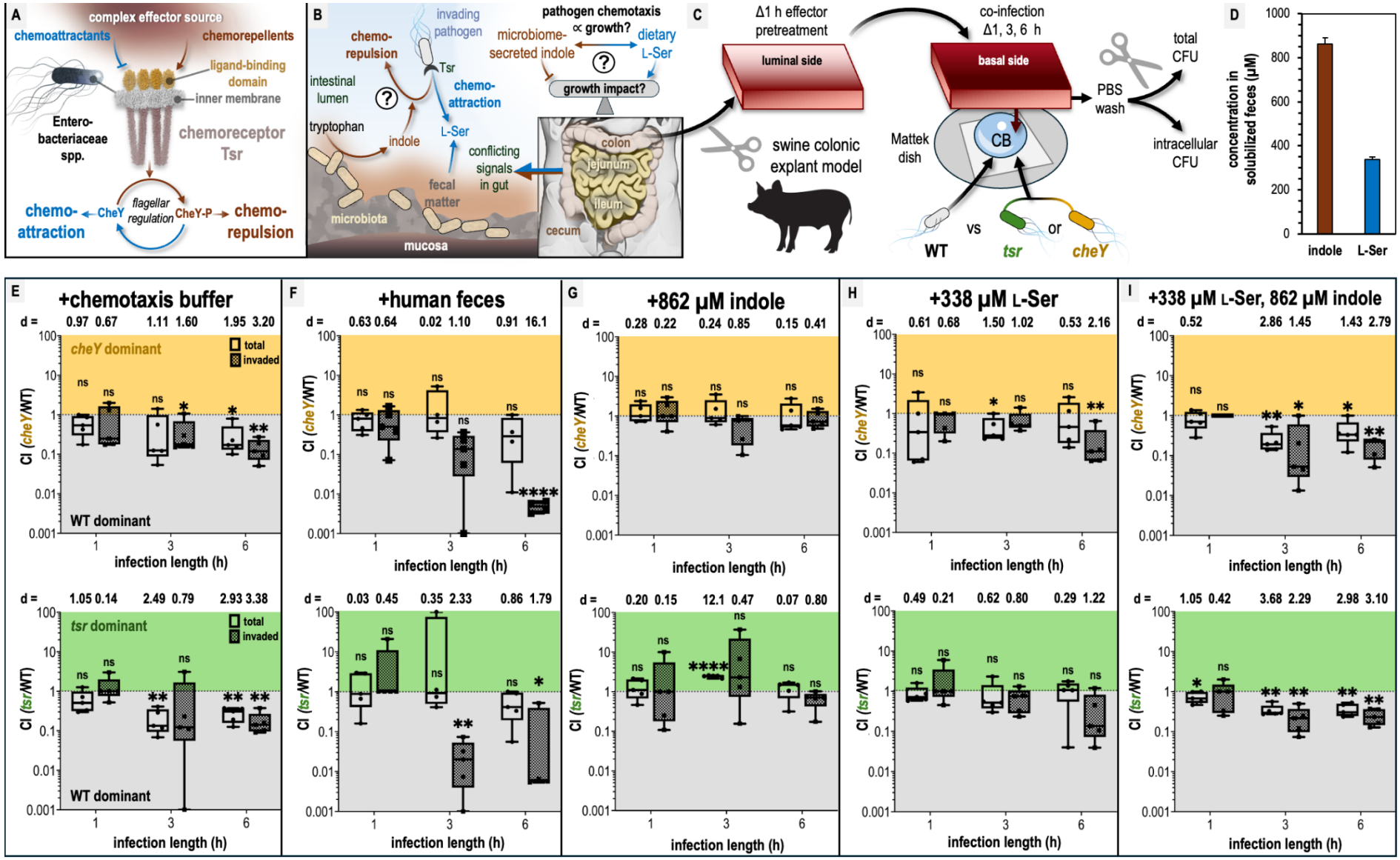
A chemical effector of major importance for enteric bacterial communities is indole, an interbacterial signaling molecule that regulates diverse aspects of bacterial physiology and lifestyle [11–13]. Indole is excreted by gut microbiota as a byproduct of tryptophan metabolism and accumulates to millimolar levels in human feces (Fig. 1A-B) [11,14,15]. Indole is amphipathic and can transit bacterial membranes to regulate biofilm formation and motility, suppress virulence programs, and exert bacteriostatic and bactericidal effects at high concentrations [11–13,15–17]. Indole was one of the earliest identified chemorepellents, and subsequent work has extensively explored its role in *Escherichia coli* chemotaxis (Table S1) [13,18–22]. The molecular mechanism by which *E. coli* senses indole remains unclear, but is known to involve the chemoreceptor taxis to serine and repellents (Tsr) (Fig. 1A-B) [18,20,21]. From this body of work, the hypothesis emerged that indole repels pathogens and restricts their growth as a mechanism of colonization resistance conferred by the microbiota [11–13,18,23]. However, no prior work has actually tested whether human fecal material, the major biological source of indole in the gut, which contains a complex mixture of effectors, induces chemorepulsion or inhibits pathogen growth at physiologically relevant levels.

We were interested in further studying the role of Tsr in navigating contradicting effector stimuli because this chemoreceptor has an interesting dual function: it both senses chemorepellents and also recognizes the amino acid and nutrient, L-Ser as a chemoattractant (Fig. 1A-B) [1,24–26].

63 Prior *in vitro* work with purified effectors showed that when both attractants and repellents are
64 present, Tsr facilitates "intermediate" responses between chemoattraction and chemorepulsion,
65 suggesting that, in some cases, navigating conflicting chemotactic stimuli is regulated at the single
66 chemoreceptor level [20,21]. The mechanisms and temporal dynamics of these intermediate
67 chemotactic behaviors are mostly uncharacterized, but could be relevant in natural settings that
68 contain conflicting effectors. We recently reported that many enteric pathogens and pathobionts
69 possess Tsr orthologues, including the genera *Salmonella*, *Citrobacter*, and *Enterobacter* [24].
70 Whether these and other bacteria respond to indole as a chemorepellent has remained unclear
71 because all prior studies of indole taxis focused on *E. coli* (Table S1).
72 *Salmonella* Typhimurium is a frank pathogen that relies on chemotaxis for enteric invasion
73 [27–30], and differs fundamentally from *E. coli* because it lacks tryptophanase genes and cannot itself
74 produce indole, which could provide a novel perspective on indole taxis [31,32]. In this study, we
75 used the pathogen *S.* Typhimurium as a model to: (1) test the hypothesis that the microbiota
76 secretion product indole is protective against enteric invasion, (2) investigate if pathogens are
77 repelled by indole-containing fecal material, and (3) examine how the chemoreceptor Tsr regulates
78 pathogen spatial localization in response to conflicting chemotactic stimuli of the intestinal
79 environ. Our study is the first to employ live imaging to directly visualize how enteric pathogen
80 populations dynamically restructure in response to physiological mixtures of attractants and
81 repellents. We demonstrate that the ability to navigate conflicting effector signals in fact mediates
82 efficient pathogen invasion, and that chemotaxis responses to natural biological combinations of
83 effectors and their impacts on infection outcomes, are not easily predicted based on responses to
84 individual effectors.
85
86 **Results & Discussion**
87
88 *Opposing chemoeffector stimuli mediate efficient pathogen invasion in swine colonic explants*
89 We sought to determine whether indole in human fecal matter protects against *S.*
90 Typhimurium infection and whether this involves chemotaxis mediated by the chemoreceptor Tsr.
91 To address this, we developed a swine colonic explant model that mimics the architecture and size
92 of adult human colonic tissue [33–37]. The explant tissue was gently cleaned and treated with various
93 effector solutions: solubilized human feces, purified indole and/or L-Ser at fecal-relevant

concentrations, or buffer as a control (see Method Details). The tissue was then exposed to co-infection with wild-type (WT) *S.* Typhimurium strain IR715 and either a *cheY* mutant (motile but non-responsive to chemoeffector stimuli) or a *tsr* deletion mutant (Fig. 1C-D, Key Resources Table) [28]. To assess the role of chemotaxis in infection, we quantified total bacteria harvested from tissue homogenates and enumerated intracellular bacteria using a gentamicin wash at 1-, 3-, and 6-h post-infection (Fig. 1C, Method Details) [38,39]. For buffer-treated explants, WT *S.* Typhimurium showed a modest time-dependent advantage in colonization and invasion compared to chemotactic mutants, indicating that chemotaxis, and specifically Tsr, promotes tissue colonization under baseline conditions (Fig. 1E, Fig. S1A-B).

Contrary to the hypothesis that indole-rich fecal matter would inhibit pathogen colonization, we found that fecal treatment significantly enhances intracellular invasion of WT *S.* Typhimurium, providing a >100-fold competitive advantage mediated by Tsr (Fig. 1F, Fig. S1C-D). Analysis of the liquified human fecal matter used in this study revealed an indole concentration of 862 μM, consistent with previously reported ranges (0.5–5 mM) (Fig. 1D, Method Details) [11,14–17]. However, when colonic tissue was treated with purified indole at the same concentration, the competitive advantage of WT over the chemotactic mutants was abolished (Fig. 1G, Fig. S1E-F). Given that Tsr mediates attraction to L-Ser in both *E. coli* and *S.* Typhimurium, we hypothesized that L-Ser present in feces might be responsible for increased colonization of fecal-treated tissue [1,24,40,41]. However, treatment with 338 μM L-Ser, the concentration present in our fecal sample (Fig. 1D, Method Details), actually reduces the competitive advantage of WT bacteria, similar to the effect of indole alone (Fig. 1H). While treatments with either indole or L-Ser alone reduce the WT advantage, total bacterial loads are similar, suggesting that neither effector is "protective" in terms of total infection burden (Fig. S1). We then wondered whether Tsr might require sensing of both indole and L-Ser in combination to coordinate infection. Interestingly, we found that treatment containing a mixture of indole and L-Ser restores the competitive advantage of WT (Fig. 1I, Fig. S1I-J). Thus, we discovered that fecal material, the major biological source of indole in the gut, does not protect against *S.* Typhimurium invasion, and that the fecal effectors indole and L-Ser, in combination, direct efficient colonic invasion through chemotaxis and the chemoreceptor Tsr (Fig. 1, Fig. S1).


A
complex effector source
chemoattractants
chemorepellents
ligand-binding domain
inner membrane
Entero-bacteriaceae spp.
chemoreceptor Tsr
chemo-attraction
CheY
flagellar regulation
CheY-P
chemo-repulsion
B
invading pathogen
chemo-repulsion
Tsr
intestinal lumen
chemo-attraction
tryptophan
indole
L-Ser
conflicting signals in gut
fecal matter
microbiota
mucosa
pathogen chemotaxis
∝ growth?
microbiome-secreted indole
dietary L-Ser
growth impact?
colon
jejunum
ileum
cecum
C
Δ1 h effector pretreatment
luminal side
swine colonic explant model
co-infection Δ1, 3, 6 h
basal side
Mattek dish
CB
PBS wash
total CFU
intracellular CFU
WT
vs
tsr
or
cheY
D
concentration in solubilized feces (μM)
indole
L-Ser
E
+chemotaxis buffer
F
+human feces
G
+862 μM indole
H
+338 μM L-Ser
I
+338 μM L-Ser, 862 μM indole
cheY dominant
tsr dominant
WT dominant
total
invaded
CI (cheY/WT)
CI (tsr/WT)
infection length (h)

123

Fig. 1. Tsr and chemotaxis mediate efficient pathogen invasion of colonic tissue in the presence of conflicting chemotactic stimuli. A-B. Overview of the role of Tsr in chemotactic responses and premise of this study. C. Experimental design of colonic explant infections. D. Serine (presumed to be nearly 100% L-Ser, see Materials & Methods) and indole content of liquid human fecal treatments. E-I. Competitive indices (CI) of colony-forming units (CFU) recovered from co-infected swine explant tissue, either from the total homogenate (open box and whiskers plots), or the invaded intracellular population (checkered box and whisker plots), as indicated (n=5). Boxes show median values (line) and upper and lower quartiles, and whiskers show max and min values. Effect size (Cohen's *d*) and statistical significance are noted (not significant, ns; * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, **** $p < 0.0001$). See also Figure S1.

124 *Non-typhoidal S. enterica are attracted to human feces despite high indole content*

125 Having found that Tsr mediates colonic invasion for *S.* Typhimurium, we next sought to learn what
126 chemotactic behaviors this chemoreceptor orchestrates in response to human fecal material; given
127 the high concentration of indole, we expected to observe chemorepulsion based on earlier studies
128 of Tsr function in *E. coli* (Fig. 1D, Table S1) [18–21]. We employed the chemosensory injection rig
129 assay (CIRA) for live-imaging of bacterial chemotaxis responses to a source of effectors injected
130 through a glass microcapillary [24]. In this assay, chemoattraction is observed as an influx of cells
131 toward the effector source and chemorepulsion as decreasing cells (Figure S2). As described
132 previously, effector injection introduces a steep microgradient, and using mathematical modeling
133 of the diffusion of the fecal sources of indole and L-Ser, we can approximate the local
134 concentrations experienced by bacteria at a given distance from the injection source, which for
135 most of the field of view is in the picomolar to low nanomolar range (Fig. 2A, Method Details) [24].

136 Over five minutes, we found both WT and *tsr* exhibit strong chemoattraction to fecal
137 material, whereas *cheY* remains randomly distributed (Fig. 2B, Movie S1). By examining the radial
138 distribution of the bacterial populations, we found WT more tightly centers around the treatment
139 source than *tsr* (Fig. 2C-E, Movie S1). In terms of the rate of accumulation of bacteria at the
140 treatment source, the chemoattraction of *tsr* lags behind the WT for the first 120 s (Fig. 2F-G,
141 Movie S1). We wondered how these deficiencies in fecal attraction might translate to direct
142 competition, where different strains are experiencing the same treatment source simultaneously.
143 To address this, we performed CIRA with solubilized human feces and two strains present in the
144 same pond, which we tracked independently through fluorescent markers (Fig. 3). As expected,
145 WT shows a strong chemoattraction response versus *cheY* (Fig. 3A, Movie S2). Interestingly, we
146 found that when competed directly, WT vastly outperforms *tsr*, with the maximal bacterial
147 distribution in proximity to the treatment source higher by about 4-fold (Fig. 3B, Movie S2).

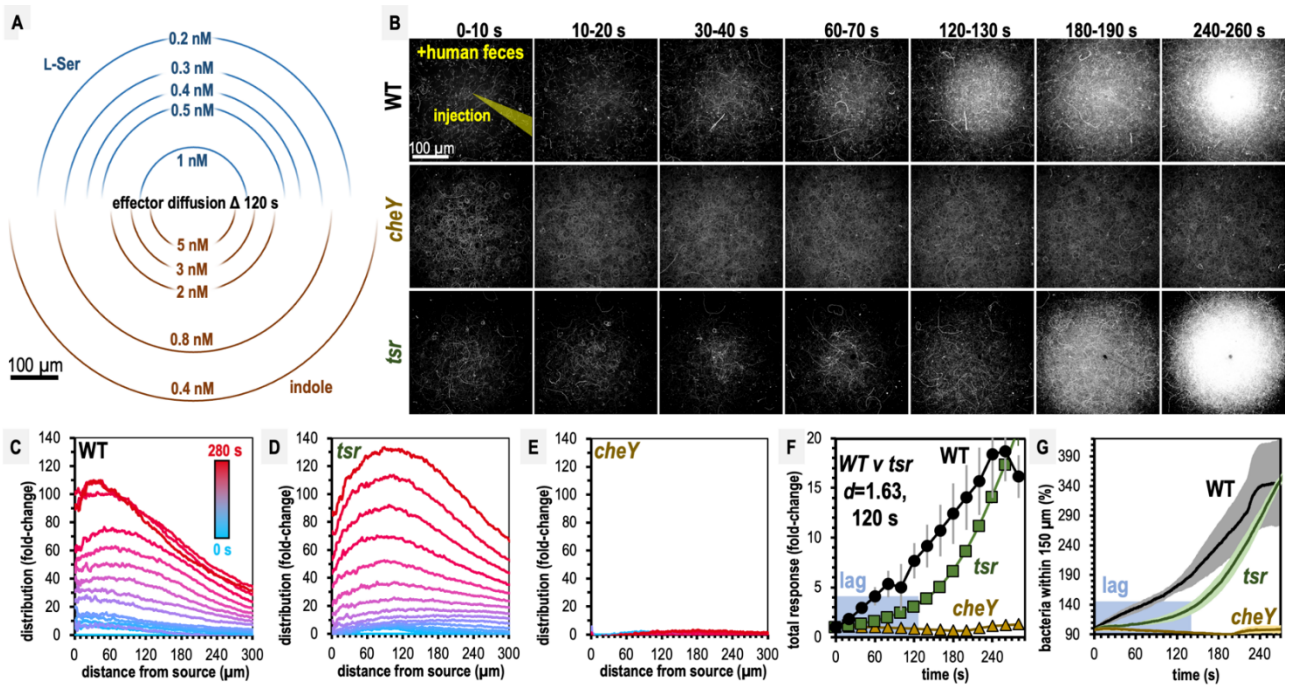
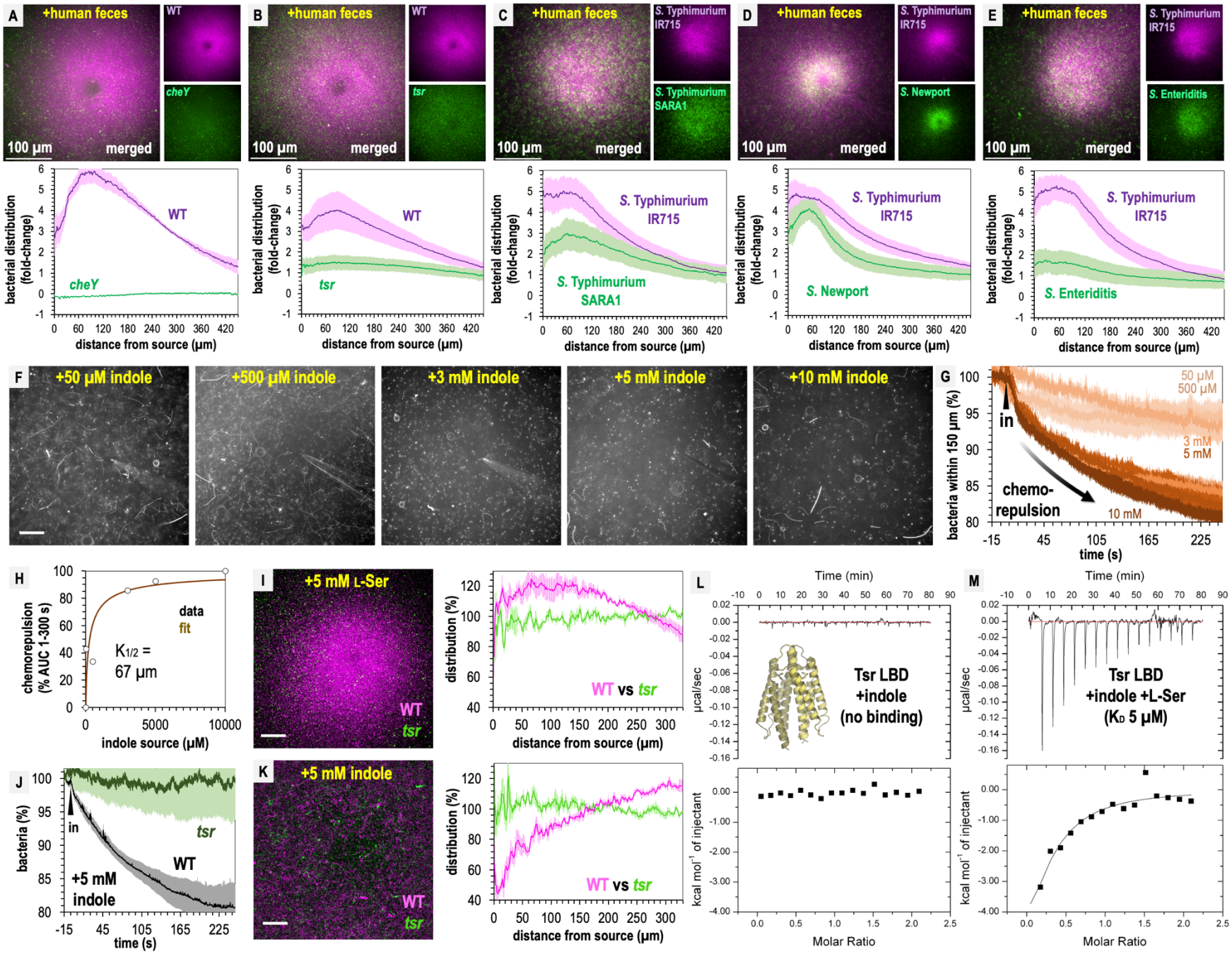


Fig. 2. *Salmonella* Typhimurium exhibits attraction toward liquid human fecal material. A. Diffusion modeling showing calculated local concentrations in CIRA experiments with liquid human fecal material. B. Max projections of representative *S.* Typhimurium IR715 responses to a central source of liquid human fecal material. C-E. Mean bacterial distribution at 10 s intervals. F-G. Temporal analyses of area under the curve (AUC) or relative number of bacteria within 150 µm of the source. Effect size (Cohen's *d*) comparing responses of WT and *tsr* attraction at 120 s post-treatment is indicated. Data are means and error bars are standard error of the mean (SEM, n=3-5). See also Movie S1, Table S1 and Figure S2.

These data confirm that despite its high indole content, *S.* Typhimurium is attracted to human fecal material through chemotaxis, and this response involves Tsr, although not as the sole mediator. We expect the attraction of the *tsr* mutant is explained by the fact that *S.* Typhimurium possesses other chemoreceptors that detect glucose, galactose, and L-Asp as chemoattractants, which are present in human feces [1,7,42–45].

To understand the broader relevance of these behaviors to enteric infections, we examined chemotaxis responses to fecal material among diverse *Salmonella* serovars and strains responsible for human infections. Using dual-channel imaging, we compared *S.* Typhimurium IR715 with a clinical isolate of *S.* Typhimurium, SARA1, and found both strains exhibit fecal attraction, although SARA1 shows a slightly weaker response (Fig. 3C, Movie S3). We then tested a clinical isolate of *S.* Newport, an emerging cause of salmonellosis in the United States and Europe [46,47]. This strain is strongly attraction to fecal material, with a tighter accumulation of cells at the

161 treatment source than *S.* Typhimurium IR715 (Fig. 3D, Movie S3). Lastly, we examined a clinical
162 isolate of *S.* Enteritidis, a zoonotic pathogen commonly transmitted from poultry, which displays
163 weak attraction to fecal material (Fig. 3E, Movie S3) [47]. Overall, we found that chemoattraction to
164 fecal material is conserved among non-typhoidal *Salmonella* serovars responsible for human
165 infections, although the degree of attraction varies. Notably, despite the high indole content in
166 feces, none of the strains tested exhibit chemorepulsion.
167
168 *Mediation of opposing chemotactic responses by Tsr*
169 We wondered if our inability to observe repulsion from fecal material might be due to *S.*
170 Typhimurium not sensing indole as a chemorepellent since this chemotactic response has only
171 been previously described for *E. coli* (Table S1). We again employed CIRA to address this
172 question, comparing chemotaxis responses to either 5 mM L-Ser or 5 mM indole, and found that
173 *S.* Typhimurium responded rapidly to these two effectors as chemoattractants and chemorepellents,
174 respectively (Fig. S2H-I). Treatment with 5 mM indole, a concentration at the upper end of what
175 occurs in the human gut [17], induces rapid chemorepulsion with the bacteria vacating the region
176 proximal to the source (Fig. S2B). Interestingly, the chemorepulsion response occurs faster than
177 chemoattraction, with a zone of avoidance clearly visible within the first 10 s of indole exposure
178 (Fig. S2I, Movie S4).
179 We next wondered if perhaps our fecal treatments contained insufficient indole to elicit
180 chemorepulsion from *S.* Typhimurium. To identify the effective source concentrations that drive
181 indole chemorepulsion and understand the temporal dynamics of this response, we performed a
182 titration of indole across 0.05-10 mM (Fig. 3F). At all concentrations tested, indole induces
183 chemorepulsion, and the bacteria avoid the treatment source for the duration of the 5-minute
184 experiment (Fig. 3F-G). At source concentrations exceeding 3 mM, essentially all motile cells
185 vacate the field of view within 60 s (Fig. 3F-G). Integrating these chemorepulsion responses and
186 fitting them to a Monad curve suggests an indole source concentration of approximately 67 μM is
187 sufficient for half-maximal ($K_{1/2}$) chemorepulsion (Fig. 3H). These data show that even though we
188 observed a strong chemoattraction response to fecal material, indole at the concentration present
189 in fecal material, and far lower, is indeed a strong chemorepellent for *S.* Typhimurium.
190 Based on its function in *E. coli*, we hypothesized that both indole chemorepulsion and L-
191 Ser chemoattraction for *S.* Typhimurium could be partly or fully mediated through Tsr [7,18,26].


A
+human feces
WT
cheY
100 µm
merged
B
+human feces
WT
tsr
100 µm
merged
C
+human feces
S. Typhimurium IR715
S. Typhimurium SARA1
100 µm
merged
D
+human feces
S. Typhimurium IR715
S. Newport
100 µm
merged
E
+human feces
S. Typhimurium IR715
S. Enteriditis
100 µm
merged
bacterial distribution (fold-change)
distance from source (µm)
WT
cheY
tsr
S. Typhimurium IR715
S. Typhimurium SARA1
S. Newport
S. Enteriditis
F
+50 µM indole
+500 µM indole
+3 mM indole
+5 mM indole
+10 mM indole
G
bacteria within 150 µm (%)
time (s)
in
chemo-repulsion
50 µM
500 µM
3 mM
5 mM
10 mM
H
chemorepulsion (% AUC 1-300 s)
indole source (µM)
data
fit
K1/2 = 67 µm
I
+5 mM L-Ser
WT
tsr
distribution (%)
distance from source (µm)
WT vs tsr
J
bacteria (%)
time (s)
in
tsr
WT
+5 mM indole
K
+5 mM indole
WT
tsr
distribution (%)
distance from source (µm)
WT vs tsr
L
Time (min)
µcal/sec
Tsr LBD +indole (no binding)
kcal mol⁻¹ of injectant
Molar Ratio
M
Time (min)
µcal/sec
Tsr LBD +indole +L-Ser (KD 5 µM)
kcal mol⁻¹ of injectant
Molar Ratio

192

Fig. 3. Fecal indole is insufficient for chemorepulsion but indole in isolation is a strong chemorepellent. A-E. Dual-channel imaging of chemotactic responses to solubilized human feces by WT *S.* Typhimurium IR715 (pink) and isogenic mutants or clinical isolate strains, as indicated. Shown are max projections at time 295-300 s post-treatment. Data are means and error bars are standard error of the mean (SEM, n=3-5). See also Movies S2-S3. F. Representative max projections of responses at 295-300 s of indole treatment. G-H. Quantification of chemorepulsion as a function of indole concentration (n=3-5). I-K. Comparison of WT and *tsr* mutant responses to L-Ser or indole. See also Fig. S2. L-M. Isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC) experiments with 50 μM *S.* Typhimurium Tsr ligand-binding domain (LBD) and indole, or with L-Ser in the presence of 500 μM indole. Data are means and error bars are standard error of the mean (SEM, n=3-5). AUC indicates area under the curve. Scale bars are 100 μm. See also Movies S2-S3.

We compared the chemotactic responses of the WT and *tsr* strains when exposed to sources of these effectors, and found Tsr to be required for both chemorepulsion from indole and chemoattraction to L-Ser (Fig. 3I-K). The canonical mode of chemoreceptor effector recognition involves binding of the effector to the ligand-binding domain (LBD) [7,48], but the mechanism by which indole is sensed through Tsr has not been elucidated. We recently reported the first crystal structure of *S.* Typhimurium Tsr LBD, which clearly defines how the binding site recognizes the L-Ser ligand (PDB code: 8fyv), and we thought it unlikely indole can be accommodated at the same site [24]. Nevertheless, to test whether the Tsr LBD binds indole directly, we expressed and purified the LBD, corresponding to the soluble periplasmic portion, and performed isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC). These data show that no binding occurs between the Tsr LBD and indole (Fig. 3L). We next wondered if indole acts as an allosteric regulator, possibly through interacting with the L-Ser bound form or interfering with L-Ser recognition. To address these possibilities, we performed ITC of 50 μM Tsr LBD with L-Ser in the presence of 500 μM indole and observed a robust exothermic binding curve and K_D of 5 μM, identical to the binding of L-Ser alone (Fig. 3M) [24]. These data indicate that indole does not alter the Tsr LBD affinity for L-Ser.

We conclude that Tsr senses indole through an atypical mechanism, which might either involve regulation through a solute-binding protein [18,49], responsiveness to perturbation in the proton motor force [13], or binding to a different region other than the periplasmic LBD. Our findings reveal that while indole acts as a chemorepellent for *S.* Typhimurium in isolation, sensed through Tsr, its presence within fecal material mixed with other effectors is insufficient to elicit chemorepulsion.

Compromising between conflicting effector signals through chemohalation

Earlier work with *E. coli* revealed that exposure to mixtures of L-Ser and indole can generate

217 intermediate chemotactic responses between chemoattraction and chemorepulsion after prolonged
218 exposure (1-6 h) (Table S1) [20]. Having confirmed that Tsr in *S.* Typhimurium mediates opposing
219 chemotactic responses to the chemoattractant L-Ser and the chemorepellent indole in isolation, we
220 next sought to learn how the bacterial population behaves when confronted with physiological
221 combinations of these effectors. To address this, we performed a series of CIRA experiments with
222 500 μM L-Ser and increasing concentrations of indole at L-Ser:indole molar ratios of 10:1, 1:1, or
223 1:10 (Fig. 4A-D, Movie S4).

224 These experiments reveal a fascinating transition in the distribution of the pathogen
225 population as a function of increasing chemorepellent, which occurs within minutes of exposure
226 (Fig. 4A-D, Movie S4). With only chemoattractant present, the bacterial population organizes
227 tightly around the effector source (Fig. 4A, Movie S4). When indole is introduced at a
228 concentration 10-fold lower than L-Ser, the bacterial distribution still exhibits chemoattraction but
229 becomes more diffuse (Fig. 4B, Movie S4). At a 1:1 ratio of chemoattractant and chemorepellent,
230 a novel population structure emerges in which the swimming bacteria are attracted toward the
231 source but form a halo around the treatment with an interior region of avoidance (Fig. 4C, Fig. 4E,
232 Movie S4). When the concentration of indole is 10-fold higher than L-Ser, the bacteria exhibit a
233 wider zone of avoidance (Fig. 4D-E, Movie S4). Interestingly, whereas 5 mM indole on its own
234 induces strong chemorepulsion (Fig. S2I, Movie S4), the addition of 10-fold lower L-Ser
235 effectively converts the behavior to a null response (Fig. 4D-E, Movie S4). This demonstrates that
236 even at the highest concentrations of indole *S.* Typhimurium might encounter in the gut, the
237 presence of chemoattractant can override indole chemorepulsion.

238 The intermediate responses to opposing effector mixtures bear similarities to CIRA
239 experiments with fecal material, some of which also exhibited a halo-like structure around the
240 treatment source (Fig. 2, Movies S2-S3). To our knowledge, there exists no consensus term for
241 intermediate chemotaxis responses of this nature, so here we introduce "chemohalation," in
242 reference to the halo formed by the cell population, and which is congruent with the established
243 nomenclature of chemoattraction and chemorepulsion. We expect chemohalation is a compromise
244 in positional location at the population level between the chemoattraction driven by L-Ser and the
245 chemorepulsion driven by indole. Across these experiments, the interior zone of avoidance roughly
246 corresponds to where the local concentration of indole exceeds 10 nM (Fig. 4E-F). In a biological
247 setting, we presume that the distribution bias orchestrated by chemohalation regulates the

248 probability that cells will colonize, adhere, and transition to sessility at a given site; the greater the
249 local indole content, the wider the zone of avoidance and the less likely tissue invasion occurs.
250 We questioned why non-typhoidal *Salmonella* are attracted to a biological solution with
251 high concentrations of indole, a chemical reported to inhibit bacterial growth [12,50,51]. We examined
252 how bacterial growth is affected by 0-25 mM indole or L-Ser in a background of minimal media
253 (MM). As expected, increasing amounts of the nutrient L-Ser provide a growth advantage for all
254 *Salmonella* strains analyzed, with maximal benefit achieved by approximately 500 μM (Fig. 4G).
255 Equivalent treatments with indole show tolerance up to approximately 1 mM, with growth
256 inhibition occurring in the 1-5 mM range and lethality occurring at indole concentrations greater
257 than 5 mM (Fig. 4H). However, adding L-Ser in a background of 500 μM indole provides only a
258 small growth enhancement (Fig. 4I), and addition of 500 μM L-Ser increases tolerance for indole
259 up to about 1 mM, above which indole toxicity is unavoidable (Fig. 4J). So, we conclude that
260 mixtures of these effectors also impact growth differently than the effectors in isolation, and the
261 relative attraction to combinations of these effectors relates to their propensity to enhance or inhibit
262 growth.
263
264 **Conclusions**
265 Bacteria in the human gastrointestinal tract encounter complex chemical landscapes that contain
266 both chemoattractants and chemorepellents. However, chemotaxis responses are often studied in
267 isolation, outside of their biological and ecological contexts, which can lead to an over- or
268 underestimation of the roles specific interactions play in natural settings. In the present work, we
269 contribute to an emerging understanding that bacteria exhibit rapid and well-orchestrated
270 responses to conflicting stimuli distinct from chemoattraction or chemorepulsion and relate these
271 chemotactic compromises to enteric infection and pathogen growth (Fig. S3) [20,52]. Previously, no
272 study had addressed whether bacteria other than *E. coli* sense indole as a chemorepellent. In the
273 model system we investigated, we confirm that *S.* Typhimurium utilizes the chemoreceptor Tsr to
274 respond to indole as a chemorepellent and L-Ser as a chemoattractant (Fig. 3). Further, we show
275 that physiological mixtures of these effectors induce the behavior we define here as chemohalation,
276 where the bacteria accumulate at a distance from the treatment source and form a halo with an
277 interior zone of avoidance (Fig. 3, Fig. 4, Fig. S2, Movie S4). Our study is the first to capture real-
278 time videos of this phenomenon for an enteric pathogen and visualize how the population structure

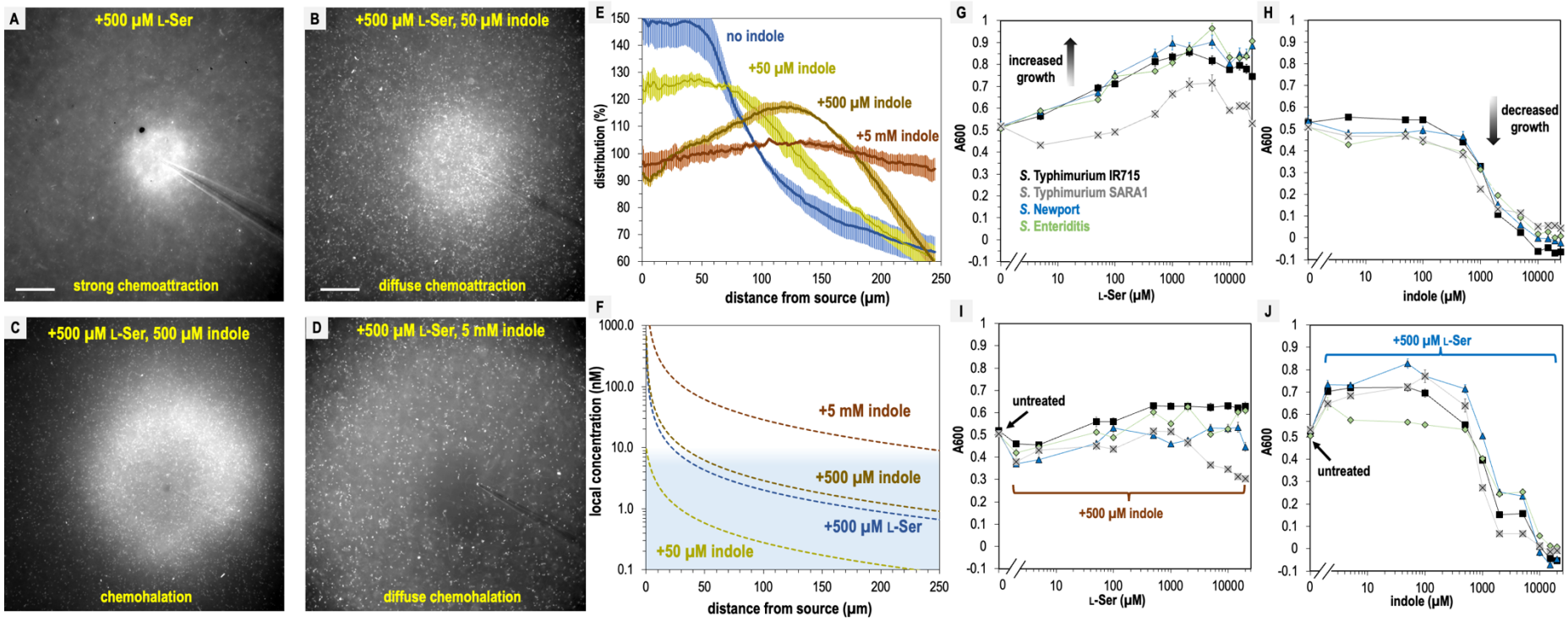


Fig. 4. *S.* Typhimurium mediates distinct chemotactic responses based on the ratio of L-Ser to indole. A-D. Representative max projections of responses to treatments of L-Ser and indole at 295-300 s, as indicated. E. Relative bacterial distribution in response to treatments of 500 μM L-Ser and varying amounts of indole, from panels A-D, with the mean value normalized to 100%. F. Diffusion modeling of local effector concentrations based on sources of 5 mM indole (dark brown), 500 μM L-Ser (blue), 500 μM indole (light brown), and 50 μM indole (yellow) are shown as dashed lines. The approximate local concentration of indole that elicits a transition in chemotactic behavior is highlighted in light blue. Data are means and error bars are standard error of the mean (SEM, n=3-5). Scale bars are 100 μm. G-H. Bacterial growth as a function of L-Ser or indole, at the time point where the untreated culture reaches A_{600} of 0.5. I-J. Bacterial growth +/- pretreatment with 500 μM indole or L-Ser, and increasing concentrations of indole or L-Ser, as indicated at the time point where the untreated culture reaches A_{600} of 0.5. Data are means and error bars are standard error of the mean (SEM, n=8-24). See also Figure S3.

281 changes based on the ratio of attractant to repellent, ranging from chemoattraction, diffuse
282 chemoattraction, chemohalation, diffuse chemohalation, and chemorepulsion (Fig. 4, Fig. S2, Fig.
283 S3, Movie S4). These dynamic micron-scale population structures would be difficult or impossible
284 to detect and quantify without directly viewing them through live imaging.

285 We predicted that human fecal material, rich in indole, would elicit chemorepulsion, inhibit
286 pathogen growth, and protect against infection. Instead, we found that chemotactic sensing of
287 human fecal material promotes colonic invasion, predominantly eliciting chemoattraction or
288 chemohalation (Fig. 1, Fig. S1, Fig. 2, Movies S1-S3). We also found that chemotactic sensing of
289 opposing effectors mediates efficient colonic invasion but provides no advantage when only a
290 single effector is present (Fig. 1, Fig. S1). As evidenced by the phenomenon of chemohalation, the
291 bacteria bias their spatial location based on the ratio of chemoattractant to chemorepellent, and we
292 expect this behavior functions to rank colonization niches and regulate the probability of invading
293 specific sites. In the context of *S.* Typhimurium infection, we propose that Tsr orchestrates a
294 compromise between seeking niches rich in nutrients, signaled by local L-Ser concentrations, and
295 avoiding niches with high microbial competition, indicated by local indole concentrations (Fig.
296 S3). Chemorepulsion from indole can be overridden by the presence of chemoattractants, and *S.*
297 Typhimurium growth is quite tolerant of indole within physiological ranges, suggesting the
298 bacteria generally prioritize nutrient acquisition over the inhibitory effects of indole (Fig. 4). Since
299 the enteric lumen may never be devoid of attractant stimuli, it is possible that outright
300 chemorepulsion from a source of indole may not actually occur *in vivo*.

301 Having characterized and confirmed the dual sensing role of Tsr for *S.* Typhimurium, we
302 speculate that the diverse bacterial species that possess Tsr orthologues, particularly common
303 among *Enterobacteriaceae* [24], are capable of similar chemohalation behaviors and regulating taxis
304 based on local indole content, further supporting indole as a key regulator of polymicrobial
305 communities of the gut [12,16]. Recently, we reported on *Enterobacteriaceae* chemotactic sensing of
306 blood serum, another complex biological effector source at the host-pathogen interface, and those
307 responses appear to involve chemohalation [24]. Evidence of chemohalation is also seen in the case
308 of the gastric pathogen *Helicobacter pylori* responding to mixtures of urea, a chemoattractant, and
309 acid, a chemorepellent [53,54]. Continuing to investigate chemohalation behaviors and understanding
310 how they coordinate bacterial colonization may provide important insights into how chemotaxis
311 confers fitness advantages in natural environments.

312 **STAR Methods**

313 RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

314 KEY RESOURCES TABLE

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Bacterial Strains		
S. enterica Typhimurium IR715 nalidixic acid derivative of ATCC 14028	Rivera-Chávez, F. et al.[28]	N/A
S. enterica Typhimurium IR715 Δ*cheY::Tn10* (Tet^R)	Rivera-Chávez, F. et al.[28]	N/A
S. enterica Typhimurium IR715 Δ*tsr::pFR3* (Cm^R)	Rivera-Chávez, F. et al.[28]	N/A
S. enterica SARA1	Beltran, P. et al.[55]	N/A
S. enterica Newport	Shariat, N. et al.[46]	M11018046001A
S. enterica Enteriditis	Shariat, N. et al.[46]	05E01375
E. coli BL21-DE3	Millipore-Sigma	Cat# 70954-3
Biological Samples		
Single Human Donor Fecal Sample	Lee BioSolutions	Cat# 991-18
Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins		
L-Serine	Fisher	Cat# 56-45-1
Indole	Sigma	Cat# I3408-100G
Hydroxylamine hydrochloride	Sigma	Cat# 159417-100G
Recombinant DNA		
pXS-sfGFP	Glenn et al.[24]	N/A
pXS-mPlum	Glenn et al.[24]	N/A
pET-30a(+)-SeTsrLBD	Glenn et al.[24]	N/A
Software and Algorithms		
Matlab R2022a	The MathWorks Inc., Natick, Massachusetts, USA	Mathworks.com
Fiji	ImageJ, Bethesda, Maryland, USA[56]	Fiji Home
TrackingGUI_rp	R. Parthasarathy [57]	TrackingGUI Public

315

316 *Lead contact*

317 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be
318 fulfilled by the lead contact, Arden Baylink (arden.baylink@wsu.edu).

319

320 *Materials availability*

321 Strains and plasmids generated in this study will be made available upon request by the Lead
322 Contact with a completed Materials Transfer Agreement.

323

Data availability

Source data from this work are archived and available upon request by the Lead Contact. This paper does not report original code. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY DETAILS

All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines, regulations, and state and federal law. Experimental protocols were approved by the Institutional Biosafety Committee (IBC) of Washington State University (#1372).

Bacterial strains and growth conditions

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Table 1. As previously described [24], bacteria intended for chemotaxis assays were grown overnight in tryptone broth (TB) with antibiotic selection, as appropriate. Motile bacteria were prepared with a 1:1000 back-dilution and grown shaking for approximately 4 hours at 37˚ C to reach A_{600} of 0.5. Cells were centrifuged, washed, and resuspended in a chemotaxis buffer (CB) containing 10 mM potassium phosphate (pH 7), 10 mM sodium lactate, and 100 µM EDTA to A_{600} of 0.2 and rocked gently at room temperature until fully motile. For *in vitro* growth analyses, cultures were grown overnight in Lysogeny Broth (LB) at 37˚ C. Subsequently, 5 µl of A_{600} 2.0 cells were used to inoculate 200 µl of minimal media (MM), containing 47 mM Na_2HPO_4, 22 mM KH_2PO_4, 8 mM NaCl, 2mM $MgSO_4$, 0.4% glucose (w/v) 11.35 mM $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, 100 µM $CaCl_2$ and L-Ser and/or indole at the described concentrations, and cultured in a 96-well microtiter plate. Cultures were grown at 37˚ C and monitored by A_{600} readings at 5-minute intervals.

METHOD DETAILS

Chemosensory injection rig assay (CIRA)

CIRA was performed as described previously [24]. Briefly, an Eppendorf Femtotip 2 microcapillary containing the treatment of interest was lowered into a pond of 50 µl of motile cells using a Sutter micromanipulator. An injection flow of effector into the pond at approximately 300 fl per minute was achieved using a Femtojet 4i set to P_c 35. Solubilized fecal treatments were prepared by

355 dissolving 1 g of commercially obtained human feces (Innovative Research) in 10 ml of CB. The
356 solution was clarified by centrifugation at 10,000 g for 20 minutes, followed by sterile filtration
357 through a 0.2 µm filter. Treatment solutions of indole and L-Ser were also diluted into CB and
358 sterile-filtered before application. Videos were recorded using an inverted Nikon Ti2 microscope
359 with heated sample chamber at 37 ˚C.
360
361 *CIRA microgradient modeling*
362 Modeling the microgradient generated through CIRA was performed as described earlier [24], based
363 on the continual injection and diffusion of an effector from a fixed-point source. Briefly, diffusion
364 is modeled as a 3D process where the diffusing substance is gradually and continuously introduced
365 at a fixed point within a large surrounding fluid volume. The substance is prepared at a
366 concentration of M_s (typically between 0.5 µM and 5 mM) and injected at a volume rate of Q =
367 305.5 fl/min. The species then diffuses into the ambient fluid with a diffusion constant D.
368
$$C(r,t) = \frac{q}{4\pi Dr} erfc \frac{r}{2\sqrt{Dt}}$$
369 Here, r is the distance from the point source, t is the time from initial injections, q is the injection
370 rate of the species (equal to M_sQ), and C is the species concentration.
371
372 *Purification of recombinant S. Typhimurium Tsr LBD*
373 Purification of *S.* Typhimurium Tsr LBD was performed as described previously [24]. Rosetta
374 BL21(DE3) *E. coli* cells with a Tsr-LBD-pet-30a(+) vector were grown with LB and 20 µg
375 kanamycin and induced at A_{600} of 0.8 with 0.4 mM isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG).
376 Cells were harvested after 3 h of growth at 37˚ C. Cells were lysed, the lysate was clarified through
377 centrifugation, and the soluble fraction was subjected to an ammonium sulfate precipitation, with
378 Tsr LBD precipitating in the 20-40% fraction. The fractions were pooled, treated with TEV
379 protease to remove the N-terminal expression sequence, and purified using an anion exchange
380 column and Akta FPLC. Lastly, the protein was purified by gel filtration using an S200 column
381 with a final buffer of 50 mM Tris pH 7.5, 1 mM EDTA, and 150 mM NaCl and stored at 7 mg/ml
382 at -80 C.
383
384
385

386 *Isothermal titration calorimetry ligand binding studies (ITC)*
387 ITC experiments were performed using a Microcal ITC200 instrument (GE Healthcare). Either
388 500 μM indole or L-Ser was titrated in 2.5 μL injections into a 200 μL sample cell containing 50
389 μM Tsr LBD. For the indole/L-Ser competition experiment, 500 μM indole was added to both the
390 titrant and sample cell, thus providing a constant excess background concentration of indole. For
391 all experimental conditions, blank titrations were also collected in which indole or L-Ser was
392 titrated into a cell containing buffer alone. All experiments were performed using thoroughly
393 degassed samples at 25 °C in 50 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.5. The reference
394 power was set to 5 μcal/sec. The resulting power curves were integrated using the Origin analysis
395 software included with the instrument. The heat of dilution was subtracted from each point using
396 the blank. A single-site binding model was then fit to the data, floating parameters describing the
397 binding enthalpy (ΔH), equilibrium constant (K_D), and apparent binding stoichiometry (n). The
398 instrument software was used for this purpose.
399
400 *Quantification of indole and serine in human fecal samples*
401 Solubilized human feces was prepared as described above for CIRA and analyzed by mass
402 spectrometry to determine the molar serine content as a service through the University of
403 Washington Mass Spectrometry Center. This measurement reflects total serine, of which close to
404 100% is expected to be L-Ser [24]. As described in earlier work, the indole content of solubilized
405 human fecal samples was determined using a hydroxylamine-based calorimetric assay with
406 purified indole as a reference and standard [58].
407
408 *Explant infection assays*
409 Swine intestinal tissue was acquired from the descending colon of an 8-week-old animal, pursuant
410 to animal protocol ASAF #7128, approved through the Washington State University IACUC.
411 Before infection, the luminal side of an approximately 20 by 20 mm piece of swine intestinal
412 explant tissue was gently washed with PBS to remove fecal matter. Next, the tissue section was
413 bathed in 2 ml of chemoeffector solution (solubilized human fecal matter, a mixture of 338 μM L-
414 Ser and 862 μM indole, 338 μM L-Ser alone, or 862 μM indole alone) in a 6-well tissue culture
415 plate (Celltreat) and incubated at 4° C for 1 h. Then, tissue was transferred to a 35 mm Mattek dish
416 where the luminal side of the tissue was exposed to a bacterial solution containing a 1:1 mixture

417 (10^9 CFU each) of WT *S.* Typhimurium IR715 and either the isogenic *tsr* or *cheY* mutant,
418 suspended in CB at a volume of 300 µl. The tissue was then incubated in the dish with the
419 competing bacteria at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 for 1-, 3-, or 6-h. After, half of the tissue was transferred
420 into screwcap tubes containing 500 µl LB media and 5-10 2.3 mm zirconia beads (BioSpec
421 Products) on ice and homogenized using a Bead Mill 24 (Fisher Scientific, 6.5 m/s for 60 s, four
422 times). To enumerate the intracellular bacteria, the other half of the tissue was washed in PBS and
423 incubated in PBS containing 100 g/ml gentamicin for 1 h at 37 °C and 5% CO_2, then washed twice
424 in PBS, as done previously [39,59,60]. The homogenization process was then repeated for the
425 gentamicin-treated tissue. CFUs were enumerated by 100 µl spot plating of 10-fold dilutions on
426 LB agar plates containing the appropriate antibiotic [39,61]. Competitive index values were calculated
427 by dividing the number of mutant CFUs by the number of WT CFUs for each treatment and time
428 point [62,63].
429
430 QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS
431 *Quantification of CIRA data*
432 Videos of chemotactic responses were quantified as described previously [24]. The number of cells
433 in each frame was calculated by determining a fluorescence intensity ratio per cell for frames pre-
434 treatment and extrapolated using the 'plot profile' function of ImageJ. The distribution of the
435 bacteria was calculated using the Radial Profile ImageJ plugin. Local background subtraction was
436 performed based on experiments with the non-chemotactic *cheY* strain to control for
437 autofluorescence in solubilized fecal samples.
438
439 *Statistical Analyses*
440 Competitive indices (CIs) for explant experiments were calculated for each treatment group at
441 each time point. Log-transformed CI values were obtained by taking the logarithm ($\log_{10}$) of the
442 original CI measurements. These log-transformed values were then subjected to statistical analysis.
443 First, a one-sample t-test was performed to determine whether the mean of the log-transformed
444 CIs significantly differed from zero. In cases where the assumption of normality was violated, the
445 non-parametric Wilcoxon rank sum test was applied as an alternative. Effect size was assessed
446 using Cohen's *d and* calculated using the same log-transformed CIs.
447

448 The formula for Cohen's *d* value is as follows:

449

450 $$d = \frac{\mathrm{M}_1 - \mathrm{M}_2}{\sigma_{\mathrm{pooled}}}$$

451 Where M_1 serves as the mean of the treatment group, M_2 serves as the mean of the control group,
452 and σ_{pooled} is the pooled standard deviation:

453

454 $$\sigma_{pooled} = \sqrt{\frac{{\sigma_1}^2 + {\sigma_2}^2}{2}}$$

455 Here, σ_1 is the standard deviation of the treatment group, and σ_2 is the standard deviation of the
456 control group.

457

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462 NARMS and GenomeTrakr Programs, and Andreas Bäumler (University of California, Davis).
463 All research on human samples was performed in accordance with, and approval of, the
464 Institutional Biosafety Committee and Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at
465 Washington State University.

466

467 **Author Contributions**

468 K.F. performed the microgradient modeling and explant experiments. A.B. conducted the CIRA
469 experiments and purification of Tsr-LBD. Z.G. performed bacterial growth experiments. M.S. and
470 M.J.H. performed the ITC experiments. All authors contributed to data analyses and writing of the
471 manuscript.

472

473 **Declaration of Interests**

474 A.B. owns Amethyst Antimicrobials, LLC.

475

476

Declaration of generative AI and AI-assisted technologies in the writing process

During the preparation of this work the authors used ChatGPT in order to proof-read and enhance the clarity and organization of the text. After using this tool/service, the authors reviewed and edited the content as needed and take full responsibility for the content of the published article.

Supplemental Information

Document S1. Table S1 and Figures S1–S3.

Movie S1. Chemotactic response of *S.* Typhimurium IR715 to solubilized human feces, related to Figure 2. Representative CIRA experiments showing *S.* Typhimurium IR715 WT and mutant strains responding to a source over 300 s (shown at 10x speed) Viewable at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=BqUcRN3YwjU

Movie S2. Chemotactic response of *S.* Typhimurium IR715 WT and chemotactic mutant strains to solubilized human feces, related to Figure 3. Representative CIRA experiments showing competition between *S.* Typhimurium IR715 (mPlum) and *cheY*, or *tsr*, as indicated (GFP), over 300 s. Viewable at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=D5JL46b4lsI

Movie S3. Chemotactic response of *S. enterica* clinical isolates to solubilized human feces, related to Figure 3. Representative CIRA experiments showing competition between *S.* Typhimurium IR715 (mPlum) and clinical isolates, as indicated (GFP), responding to a source of solubilized human feces over 300 s. Viewable at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dLsFDV0XgpY

Movie S4. Chemotactic response of *S.* Typhimurium IR715 to L-Ser and indole treatments, related to Figure 4 and Figure S2. Representative CIRA experiments with treatment sources as indicated, over 300 s. Viewable at: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bNQMqF2QMek

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