1 **Comprehensive gene expression analysis of organoid-derived healthy human**
2 **colonic epithelium and cancer cell line by stimulated with live probiotic bacteria**
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Abstract

The large intestine has a dense milieu of indigenous bacteria, generating a complex
ecosystem with crosstalk between individual bacteria and host cells. *In vitro* host cell
modeling and bacterial interactions at the anaerobic interphase have elucidated the
crosstalk molecular basis. Although classical cell lines derived from patients with
colorectal cancer including Caco-2 cells are used, whether they adequately mimic normal
colonic epithelial physiology is unclear. To address this, we performed transcriptome
profiling of Caco-2 and Monolayer cells derived from healthy Human Colonic Organoid
(MHCO) cultured hemi-anaerobically. Coculture with the anaerobic gut bacteria,
Bifidobacterium longum subsp. *longum* differentiated the probiotic effects of test cells
from those of physiologically normal intestinal and colorectal cancer cells. We cataloged
non- or overlapping gene signatures where gene profiles of Caco-2 cells represented
absorptive cells in the small intestinal epithelium, and MHCO cells showed complete
colonic epithelium signature, including stem/progenitor, goblet, and enteroendocrine
cells colonocytes. Characteristic gene expression changes related to lipid metabolism,
inflammation, and cell-cell adhesion were observed in cocultured live *Bifidobacterium*

longum and Caco-2 or MHCO cells. *B. longum*-stimulated MHCO cells exhibited barrier-
enhancing characteristics, as demonstrated in clinical trials. Our data represent a
valuable resource for understanding gut microbe and host cell communication.
38
39 **Keywords**
40 Colon cancer cells, Colonic epithelium, gene expression, gut microbiome, probiotic
41 bacteria, transcriptome profiling
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Introduction
The large intestine, also known as the colon, is a crucial component of the human
digestive system with a wide range of physiological functions vital for maintaining overall
health[1]. One of the primary physiological functions of the colon is the absorption of
water and electrolytes from residual undigested food materials entering the colon from
the small intestine[2]. The content of the partially digested chyme that passes through
the colon is concentrated through water absorption, an essential process that maintains
body fluid balance and prevents dehydration.
Additionally, the colon hosts a diverse community of beneficial bacteria, known
as the gut microbiota, which contribute significantly to human health[3]. These
microorganisms aid in fermenting undigested carbohydrates and breaking down certain
substances to produce metabolites, gasses, and vitamins[4]. The gut microbiota plays a
crucial role in bolstering the immune system, protecting against harmful pathogens and
maintaining the intestinal lining integrity[5]. The role of microorganisms in maintaining
homeostasis and influencing various aspects of human physiology has spurred research
into probiotics development.
Probiotics are live microorganisms that confer health benefits when consumed in
adequate quantities, and they have emerged as a promising strategy for improving
human health and well-being[6]. To promote research and development of probiotics,
the physiological functions of microorganisms and their effects on the host need to be
investigated [7]. However, details of the fundamental molecular mechanisms underlying
host cell-bacteria interactions remain largely unknown. Recent improvements in next-
generation sequencing and mass spectrometry technologies have increased interest in
the trans-omics analysis of gut microbiota. However, the results only provide a
correlation between changes in microorganisms and their traits and do not allow direct
causal inference. Therefore, *in vitro* models are required to elucidate the detailed

mechanisms of microbe-host cell interactions. However, existing models do not assess
the response of normal human intestinal epithelial cells because of the difference in
oxygen demands between gut bacteria (most bacteria living in the colon are anaerobes)
and host cells (propagate under normoxia).

To overcome this shortcoming, researchers including our group, have developed
a state-of-the-art coculture system of human colonic epithelium with highly oxygen-
sensitive gut bacteria[8-12]. Colonic epithelial cells were cultured using a two-
dimensional (2D) design on the Boyden chamber to establish the coculture system.
Immortalized cell lines derived from human colorectal cancer tissue, such as Caco-2
cells, are commonly used to analyze gut bacteria and their metabolites[13]. Although the
molecular basis is still unclear, the morphological and biochemical properties of Caco-2
cells are known to spontaneously transform, converting them into a small intestine-like
epithelium following prolonged culture under confluent 2D layer conditions[14].
Consequently, Caco-2 cell monolayers have been extensively used as *in vitro* models of
the small intestine to characterize certain aspects of nutrient uptake [15].

Most probiotic bacteria, such as *Akkermansia* and *Bifidobacterium* species,
reside and function in the colon rather than the small intestine[16]. Thus, colonic
epithelium must be used in analyzing the role of microbes inhabiting the colon. Recently,
normal colonic epithelial cells were stably cultured for extended periods using three-
dimensional (3D) mouse and human organoid culture methods[17, 18]. Self-renewing
2D Monolayer cultured colonic epithelium cells derived from healthy Human Colonic
Organoids (MHCO) are also a physiologically relevant model[10, 19]. Moreover, primary
cultured intestinal epithelial cells derived from organoids are increasingly used to study
intestinal microbes.

In this study, we investigated the feasibility of using organoid-based normal
human epithelium instead of Caco-2 cells in an intestinal hemi-anaerobic coculture
system (iHACS)[10] containing the probiotic bacteria, *Bifidobacterium longum*. This
system was established to address the limitation of currently available *in vitro* coculture
systems of representative human and microbial cells. We conducted a detailed molecular
analysis of the differential effects on cell physiology induced by coculture experiments
with Caco-2 cells and normal colonic epithelium. By stimulating a colorectal cancer-
derived cell line or normal colonic epithelium with bacteria, we aimed to generate an
expression profile for the stratification of probiotic responses.

Results

Characterization of Caco-2 and colonic organoid-derived monolayer

We performed RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) analysis to decipher the complete genetic information of the intestinal epithelium cultured using iHACS and compared two *in vitro* cell culture models of Caco-2 and 2D cultured normal colonic epithelium derived from MHCO. To collect RNA samples for transcriptome analysis, we first aligned the culture conditions of the Caco-2 and MHCO cells (Fig. 1A). To collect RNA samples for transcriptome analysis, we first align the culture conditions of Caco-2 and MHCO cells (Fig. 1A). Caco-2 was found to be able to grow in the organoid-conditioned medium, which is devoid of serum completely, so after 17 days of culture under sufficiently confluent conditions in fetal bovine serum-based DMEM Cell Culture Medium[20, 21]. The medium was changed to the organoid-conditioned medium, and RNA was recovered from cells for a further 3 days culture (Fig. 1A). Contrastingly, MHCO cells were cultured for 3 days after reaching confluence under similar conditions to those used for the Caco-2 cells (Fig. 1A). Importantly, we comparatively analyzed the gene expression in MHCO and Caco-2 cells following growth under hemi-anaerobic conditions.

Principal component analysis (PCA) of RNA-seq data from Caco-2 and MHCO cells cultured using iHACS revealed substantial differences and a clear separation of transcriptional patterns between both samples (Fig. 1B). The transcriptomes of Caco-2 and MHCO cells differed significantly, and among genes with an expression difference of > 1.5 fold change (adjusted *P*-value [*P*adj] < 0.05), we identified 4,942 and 4,824 genes that were enriched explicitly in Caco-2 and MHCO cells, respectively (Fig.1C). Furthermore, we visualized two non-overlapping classes of cell type-specific transcripts using hierarchical clustering, Caco-2 specific and MHCO cell signatures that were expressed in a mutually exclusive manner (Fig. 1D). Among the top 2,000 differentially expressed genes (DEGs), we observed several marker genes of functionally differentiated cells constituting the colonic epithelium: *Keratin 19 (KRT19*, colonocytes), *Mucin 2* (*MUC2*), *Trefoil factor 3* (*TFF3*, goblet cells), and *Chromogranin A* (*CHGA*, enteroendocrine cells) in the MHCO cell RNA-seq data (Fig. 1E, D). The stem cell marker gene, *Leucine rich repeat containing G protein-coupled receptor 5* (*LGR5*) was highly expressed in the cancer-derived cell line, whereas other markers of differentiated cells constituting the colonic epithelial tissue were highly expressed in MHCO cells (Fig. 1E). This finding was further supported by data showing that several known marker genes of the small intestine, such as *Alkaline Phosphatase, intestinal* (*ALPI*)*, Alanyl*

Aminopeptidase, membrane (*ANPEP*), and *Apolipoprotein B* (*APOB*)*,* were more highly

expressed in Caco-2 than they were in MHCO cells (Fig. 1D, E).

Next, the DEGs that differed significantly between Caco-2 and MHCO cells (Fig

1D) were examined using gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis. GO analysis of the

genes upregulated in cultured Caco-2 cells showed enrichment of GO terms associated

with the Wnt signaling pathway (GO:0016055) and different transport processes,

including lipids (GO:0006869), organic anions (GO:0015711) and vitamins (GO:0051180,

Fig. 2A). The GO enrichment analysis of Caco-2 cells showed enrichment of terms

related to Wnt signaling pathway and lipids, organic anions, and vitamin transport

processes. These findings are consistent with those previously reported on the identity

of Caco-2 cells derived from a patient with colorectal cancer who had a mutation in the

APC gene. *APC* is a negative regulator of Wnt signaling[22] that induces the expression

of the target genes, *LDL Receptor Related Protein 1* (*LRP1)*[23], *Dickkopf-1* (*DKK1*)[24],

and *Naked cuticle 1* (*NKD1*)[25]. Additionally, GO analysis revealed a significant

association between the transporters of lipids (apolipoprotein family genes), organic

anions (*D-allose ABC transporter membrane subunit* [*ASLC*]*/solute carrier organic anion*

transporter family member [*SLCO*] family genes), and vitamins (*solute family carrier*

[*SLC*] *family*, *NPC1 like intracellular cholesterol transporter 1* [*NPC1L1*], *ATP binding*

cassette subfamily G member 2 [*ABCG2*]) because Caco-2 cells are an extensively used

in vitro assay for nutrient abruption studies[15] (Fig. 2B).

In contrast, genes upregulated in MHCO cells showed a pronounced enrichment

of GO terms related to tissue homeostasis (GO:0001894) involved in goblet cell marker

genes (*MUC2* and *TFF3*) and different glycosylation processes, such as protein

glycosylation (GO:0006486) and macromolecular glycosylation (GO:0043413) involved

in the glycosylation of mucin proteins (*ST6 N-acetylgalactosaminide alpha-2,6-*

sialyltransferase 1 [*ST6GALNAC1*]*, beta-1,3-galactosyltransferase 5* [*B3GALT5*]*,* and

Fucosyltransferase 2 [*FUT2*]; Fig. 1E and 2A and C).

Furthermore, GO analysis indicated the enrichment of tissue homeostasis genes

(GO:0001894) exclusive to MHCO cells and involved in the mucosal immune system

(Fig. 2A). Immune responses to gut bacteria, Toll-like receptor 4 (*TLR4*)[26], *Aldehyde*

dehydrogenase 1A1 (*ALDH1A1*)[27], and *Polymeric immunoglobulin receptor*

(*PIGR*)[28], were detected in MHCO cells (Fig.2C). Collectively, the presence of these

genes and enrichment of relevant GO confirmed that MHCO cells are more pertinent to

observe the physiological response of the colonic epithelium than Caco-2 cells when

those cells were cultured under semi-anaerobic conditions.

Response of Caco-2 and MHCO cells to live anaerobes in the colon

Caco-2 cells have been used to analyze interactions between host cells and gut

bacteria[29], and, therefore, we determined whether the responses of those cells to gut

bacteria differed from those of MHCO cells. To test the physiological effects of

commensal anaerobes in the colon, we cocultured Caco-2 or MHCO cells with a probiotic

strain of *B. longum* using iHACS. The incubation time was recently extended to allow the

coculture of the intestinal epithelium with anaerobic microbes[10]. Because

Bifidobacterium is generally localized in the colon, we used healthy MHCOs in this

study[30].

We confirmed that *Bifidobacterium longum* expression increased similarly in

Caco-2 and MHCO cells cultured with iHACS (Fig. 3A, B). After 24 h, an inoculum of $1 \times$

10^7 colony forming units (CFU)/mL of *B. longum* increased to a median of 6.98×10^8 and

8.93×10^8 CFU/mL in coculture with MHCO and Caco-2 cells, respectively ($P = 0.26$,

Fig. 3B). RNA was extracted from Caco-2 and MHCO cells to assess their general

responses to the probiotic bacteria. In the PCA of the characterized compound classes

in Caco-2 and MHCO cells in the presence or absence of *B. longum* exposure (Fig. 3C),

the first two principal components explained 33.8% (PC1) and 17% (PC2) of the total

variation. PC1 indicated that MHCO cells were more distant from the clusters of Caco-2

cells, whereas PC2 showed the response of Caco-2 cells cocultured with *B. longum*.

Samples of MHCO cells alone and cocultured with *B. longum* showed a low variation in

each data set (Fig. 3C). Compared to the bacteria-free axenic culture, Caco-2 and

MHCO cells incubated with *B. longum* showed distinct transcriptomic responses, as

shown in the volcano plot of replicates exposed to identical conditions (Fig. 3D). After

filtering for adj$P > 0.05$, the results showed that stimulation with *B. longum* affected the

expression of 6,127 genes in Caco-2 cells by 1.5-fold, consisting of 3,062 and 3,065

upregulated and downregulated genes, respectively (Fig. 3D). Similarly, 2,886 genes

were differentially expressed in MHCO cells, consisting of 1,407 and 1,479 upregulated

and downregulated genes, respectively (Fig. 3D). Additionally, the overlap of

upregulated DEGs between MHCO cells and Caco-2 was minimal, with only 269

commonly expressed genes (Fig 3E). Similarly, 296 DEGs exhibited decreased

expression (Fig. 3E).

The results of the GO analysis of genes that exhibited variations in expression in

each cell are shown in Fig. 4. We identified GO terms derived from Caco-2 or MHCO
cell-specific gene expression variations following stimulation with *B. longum*. The DEGs
that showed increased expression exclusively in MHCO cells were predominantly
enriched in terms related to lipid metabolism, with the most enriched GO term being lipid
transport (GO:0006869) (Fig. 4A). Genes downregulated in MHCO cells were associated
with cell proliferation pathways such as nuclear division (GO:0000280) and chromosome
segregation (GO:0007059, Fig. 4B). In Caco-2 cells, the most enriched and least
downregulated GO terms were cytoplasmic translation (GO:0002181) and the Wnt
signaling pathway (GO:0016055), respectively (Fig. 4C, D). Conversely, most enriched
terms in the commonly upregulated genes were associated with lipopolysaccharide (GO:
0032496) and response to tumor necrosis factor (GO:0034612 and GO:0071356),
whereas downregulated genes were related to double-strand break repair (GO:0006302)
(Fig. 4E, F).
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B. longum regulates the expression of transcription factors and genes involved in
host metabolic pathway
Our analysis of the differentially induced gene expression in Caco-2 and MHCO cells
following bacterial treatment showed a significant increase in the expression of genes
involved in peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) signaling in MHCO cells
(Fig. 5A). Furthermore, our transcriptome data showed that the expression of *PPARG*
and *PPARA* were upregulated and downregulated in MHCO and Caco-2 cells,
respectively following stimulation with *B. longum* (Fig. 5A, B). Genes of signaling
pathways associated with PPARs, ketogenesis, lipid transport, cholesterol, fatty acid
transporter/oxidation, adipocyte differentiation, and gluconeogenesis were upregulated
in MHCO cells but not in Caco-2 cells (Fig. 5A).
To validate the upregulation of PPAR signaling in MHCO cells cocultured with *B.*
longum, we focused on the expression of the PPARA and PPARG target genes. In
MHCO cells coculturing with *B. longum*, *a fatty acid oxidation gene acyl-CoA oxidase 1*
(*ACOX1*), a direct target gene of PPARA in the intestine[31], was elevated (Fig. 5B).
Angiopoietin like 4 (*ANGPTL4*), another identical target gene of PPARG in
colonocytes[32], was also upregulated in MHCO cells (Fig. 5B). As expected, gene set
enrichment analysis (GSEA) indicated that MHCO cells, but not Caco-2 cells cocultured
with *B. longum* were enriched in genes related to PPAR signaling (normalized
enrichment score [*NES*] = 2.06, *adj P* = 0.016 in MHCO cells, *NES* = -1.15, adj*P* = 0.53,

Fig. 5C). These data indicated that live *B. longum* has a potential to activate PAPR
signaling on normal physiological conditions of colonic epithelium.
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Differential inflammatory response to MHCO and Caco-2 cells to *B. longum*
stimulation
Next, we characterized the reaction of each of the cell lines to microbial stimulation by
determining their immune responses following stimulation and further investigated gene
expression profiles in the production of cytokine and chemokine molecules and their
regulators[33]. GSEA revealed that Caco-2 and MHCO cells stimulated by *B. longum*
were commonly enriched for genes associated the NF-κB signaling pathway (NES = 1.92,
P < 0.01, adj*P* < 0.05 in MHCO cells; NES = 2.43, *P* < 0.001, adj*P* < 0.001 in Caco-2
cells; Fig. 6A). To assess the responses of the Caco-2 and MHCO cells comparatively,
we calculated the vehicle control and *B. longum*-induced log$_2$ fold change (FC) for each
gene. As expected, the responses induced by five chemokine genes (*C-C motif*
chemokine ligand 20 [*CCL20*], *C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 1* [*CXCL1*], *CXCL2*, *CXCL3*,
and *CXCL8*) implicated in bacterial sensing[34] showed more pronounced FC values in
Caco-2 cells than in MHCO cells (Fig. 6B, C).
256   Moreover, bacterial inoculation of Caco-2 and MHCO cells enhanced the
expression of NFKB signaling target genes (*TNFAIP3*, *NFKB inhibitor alpha* [*NFKBIA*],
NFKB inhibitor epsilon [*NFKBIE*], NFKB inhibitor zeta [*NFKBIZ*], RELB proto-oncogene,
NF-κB subunit [*RELB*])[35] (Fig. 6B, C). Furthermore, *Interleukin 1A* (*IL-1A*) and *IL-1B*,
inflammatory cytokine genes crucial for inflammation and infection defense, were
significantly upregulated following coculturing of *B. longum* and MHCO cells specifically
[36] (Fig. 6B, C). Those results suggest that a probiotic microbe, *B. longum,* raises the
level of immune surveillance.
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***B. longum* upregulates intestinal barrier function in MHCO cells.**
We investigated the effect of Bifidobacteria on the intestinal barrier function, by
examining the effects on expression patterns of relevant genes. Our RNA-seq results
revealed substantial differences in expression patterns of genes related to the mucosal
barrier function between Caco-2 and MHCO cells in response to *B. longum*. The tight
junction-related genes, *Claudin 3* (*CLDN3*), *CLDN4,* and *Occludin* (*OCLDN),* were
upregulated in both Caco-2 and MHCO cells following exposure to *B. longum*. In contrast,
other related genes, *CLDN7* and *Tight junction protein 3* (*TJP3*), were only upregulated

in MHCO cells, whereas *CLDN2* was upregulated in Caco-2 cells (Fig. 7A, B). Other

components of the adherens junction (Cadherin 1 [*CDH1*], *CDH17*, *Epithelial cell*

adhesion molecule [*EPCAM*]) or desmosomes (*Desmoglein 2* [*DSG2*] and *Dystonin*

[*DST*]) were linked to a set of genes that were upregulated in *B. longum*-stimulated

MHCO cells and conversely downregulated in Caco-2 cells (Fig. 7A, C, D). The polarity

of intestinal epithelial cells plays a central role in establishing the barrier function for

symbiotic relationships with microbiota[37]. The *B. longum*-induced expression pattern

of *Integrin subunit α6* (*ITGA6*), a significant factor in the epithelium and basement

membrane interaction, also differed between MHCO and Caco-2 cells (Fig. 7A, E).

To investigate whether increased gene expression induced by *B. longum* was

associated with improved barrier function, we measured the transepithelial electrical

resistance (TEER) in MHCO cells. Compared to the vehicle control, TEER was

significantly increased in cells cocultured with *B. longum* (Fig. 7D). We also evaluated

the paracellular permeability of the colonic epithelium using the Lucifer yellow (LY) flux

assay with the fluorescent molecule LY, which does not interact with cell components[38].

Consistent with the changes in TEER, LY flux was downregulated when MHCO cells

were cultured with *B. longum* (Fig. 7E). Overall, these results confirmed the previous

studies in MHCO cells with live *B. longum* in hemi-anaerobic culture conditions that

probiotic *Bifidobacteria* enhance intestinal barrier integrity through PPARG/STAT3

pathway.

Discussion

In this study, we compared gene expression data between Caco-2 and MHCO cells

cultured under hemi-anaerobic conditions to provide valuable datasets for investigating

host cells and anaerobic bacteria in the colon. We demonstrated the presence of all cell

types that form the colonic epithelium, including stem, goblet, and enteroendocrine cells

and colonocytes among the MHCO cells cultured under hemi-anaerobic conditions. In

contrast, the gene expression pattern of Caco-2 cells was similar to that of epithelial cells

of the small intestine, as shown previously[39]. Therefore, MHCO cells may be a

physiologically appropriate model for studying probiotic activities, including of

Bifidobacterium and *Akkermansia*, in the colon[30, 40].

The Caco-2 cell line generated from a patient with colorectal cancer is the most

commonly used in studying the physiological functions of the human intestinal epithelium.

These cells spontaneously transform to differentiate and form monolayers of polarized

cells with functions similar to those of enterocytes in the small intestine when grown
under confluent conditions in Boyden chambers. Consequently, Caco-2 cells have been
widely used to investigate the metabolism and absorption of drugs and nutrients[15, 41].
The intestinal environment where enterobacteria are localized is physiologically hypoxic,
which affects gene expression patterns through the chromatin state and metabolic
pathways[42].

Gnotobiotic mice have been the primary animal model used in previous studies
of the effect of microbes on hosts. Although studies using in vivo mouse models provide
important insights into the physiology of host-microbiome interactions, they are unable
to account for significant differences between mice and humans because bacteria exhibit
strong species specificity[43]. Conventionally, cell lines derived from patients with cancer
have been used to study microbial responses. In this study, healthy primary colonic
epithelial cells cultured as organoids and a conventional colorectal cancer-derived cell
line were used to examine the physiological response of the host epithelium to microbiota.
The gene expression patterns in the DEG analysis in our study indicated that healthy
human colonic epithelium derived from organoids was more robust against gut bacteria
than the cancer-derived Caco-2 cell line was. These results demonstrated the observed
low incidence of overlapping upregulated DEGs between MHCO and Caco-2 cells and
decreased expression of DEGs, indicating that the impact of coculturing with *B. longum*
on gene expression was not conserved across these two cell types.

Caco-2 cells have been used to assess the efficacy of probiotics and intestinal
bacteria in evaluating mucosal barriers and inflammatory responses. However, two
independent reports demonstrated the immunoreactivity of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*
(recently reclassified as *Faecalibacterium duncaniae*) in host cells using Caco-2 cells or
primary colonic epithelium (organoid)[12, 44]. To the best of our knowledge, this study is
the first to evaluate the effect of gut bacteria on Caco-2 cells and colonic organoids
incubated under matched culture and hemi-anaerobic conditions.

In this study, the expression of various inflammation-related genes was similarly
induced by *B. longum* in Caco-2 and organoid-derived healthy epithelial cells. However,
the fold-change ratio was higher in Caco-2 cells than it was in the organoid cells. This
probably occurred because Caco-2 cells lack goblet cells and poorly express genes such
as *MUC2*, which renders the barrier function of the intestinal epithelium vulnerable.
Moreover, the bacteria may have more readily caused inflammation in the Caco-2 cells
than in MHCO cells. Therefore, we focused on immune responses to characterize the

reaction of Caco-2 and MHCO cells to microbial stimulation because genes commonly
upregulated in these cell lines show pronounced enrichment of GO terms associated
with inflammation. The intestinal epithelium interfaces directly with the external
environment and acts as a constant frontline defense for the immune response[45].
Epithelial cells play an essential role in preventing bacterial invasion by producing
cytokines and chemokines that determine the nature of the immune response by
controlling immune cells. These facts prompted our investigation of gene expression
profiles in the production of immune-related molecules and their regulators, including
NFKB inhibitors and TNFAIP[33]. The results suggest that the probiotic microbe, *B.*
longum, raised levels of immune surveillance.

In addition, our GSEA results showing the enrichment of genes related to PPAR
signaling in bacterial-stimulated MHCO but not Caco-2 cells led us to conclude that live
B. longum has the potential to activate PAPR signaling under normal physiological
conditions in the colonic epithelium. These observations further confirmed that MHCO
cells are more pertinent for observing the physiological response of the colonic
epithelium than Caco-2 cells are when cultured under semi-anaerobic conditions.

Moreover, the results of the TEER analysis corroborated the relationship between
B. longum-induced increase in gene expression and improved barrier function in MHCO
cells. These observations further confirmed the findings of previous studies in MHCO
cells cocultured with live *B. longum* under hemi-anaerobic culture conditions, which
showed that probiotic *Bifidobacteria* enhanced the intestinal barrier integrity through the
PPARG/signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3) pathway. Previous
animal and clinical studies have revealed that *Bifidobacterium*, a probiotic, positively
regulates the barrier function of mucosal epithelial cells[46].

Epithelial cells are held together by strong anchoring junctions that include tight
junctions, adherens junctions, and desmosomes, which are formed by transmembrane
adhesion proteins*[47]*. The expression of *CLDN4*, a component of tight junctions, has
been shown to be upregulated in the colonic epithelial cells of mice administered
Bifidobacteria[48]. Similarly, our investigation using human colonic organoids cocultured
with *B. longum* also showed the upregulation of *CLDN4*. Contrastingly, several
molecules related to epithelial cell junctions, such as *CLDN2*, showed conflicting
expression patterns in Caco-2 and MHCO cells stimulated with *B. longum. CLDN2* is a
pore-forming CLDN that permeates water and ions and has been reported to be elevated
in patients with inflammatory bowel disease or neonatal necrotizing enterocolitis[49-52].

Furthermore, we found that *CLDN7*, a tight junction-related gene, was upregulated only

in MHCO monolayer cells cocultured with *B. longum*. Increased *CLDN2* and decreased

CLDN7 levels have previously been observed in the gastrointestinal tracts of patients

with ulcerative colitis[53], and *CLDN7* knockout mice develop colitis spontaneously[54].

In this study, to the best of our knowledge, we provide the first proof that *Bifidobacterium*

modulates *CLDN7* expression in the physiologically normal human colonic epithelium.

The polarity of intestinal epithelial cells plays a central role in establishing a

barrier function for symbiotic relationships with microbiota[37]. Hemidesmosomes, which

are composed of ITGA6T and are a significant factor in the interaction between the

epithelium and basement membrane, are expressed at specific junctions in the basal

portion of intestinal epithelial cells[55]. In addition to other factors, improvement of the

mucus barrier function is a known molecular mechanism in coculture systems. A novel

finding of this study is that more genes were altered by bacterial stimulation in Caco-2

cells than they were in the organoids. While both organoids and Caco-2 cells share

certain variable gene sets, each cell line exhibited a unique variation in the expression

of genes linked to inflammation and the mucosal barrier, which are well-known roles of

Bifidobacterium. However, the potential usefulness and applicability of *Bifidobacterium*

needs to be further investigated using appropriate *in vitro* culture systems.

Methods

Colonic organoid culture

Clinical samples for healthy human colonic organoid establishment and coculturing microbes were obtained from patients at Gunma University Hospital with informed consent after study approval by the ethical committees (HS2022-054). The human colonic organoid was cultured as in the previous report with minor modifications[10]. Briefly, three-dimensional colonic organoids were maintained with Modified human colonic organoid (MHCO) medium, consisting of advanced Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM)/F12 supplemented with penicillin/streptomycin, HEPES, Glutamax, B-27 Supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA), 1 mM N-acetylcysteine (Sigma-Aldrich), 50 ng/mL recombinant mouse epidermal growth factor (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 100 ng/mL mouse recombinant noggin (Peprotech), 1µg/mL human recombinant R-spondin1 (R&D), 100 ng/mL recombinant human insulin-like growth factor-1 (BioLegend, San Diego, CA), 50 ng/mL recombinant human fibroblast growth factor-basic (FGF-2) (PeproTech) and conditioned medium containing Wnt3A. The human colonic organoid was derived from a nonpathological biopsy and confirmed by genomic sequencing analysis that it has no driver mutations related to colorectal cancer, as shown in the previous paper[2]. Organoids were passed approximately every 5-7 days by physical dissociation using fire-polished Pasteur pipettes. To generate MHCO cells, ThinCert culture inserts (24-well insert, 0.4 µm pore polyester membrane; Greiner bio-one, Kremsmunster, Austria) were coated with 4% Matrigel diluted with advanced DMEM/F12 medium and incubated at 25ºC for 30 minutes, then Matrigel solution was removed. The membrane was dried in a tissue-culture hood for 15 minutes. Human colonic organoids were cultured for 3 to 5 days before being used to plate into monolayer culture in MHCO medium. Three-dimensional cultured organoids were treated with TrypLE Express (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to dissociate into single cells. The cells were resuspended to 1×10^6 cells/mL in MHCO medium containing 10 µM Y-27632 (FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation, Osaka, Japan), and 200 uL of cell suspension was added into the transwell inserts. After 1 day of monolayer culture, MHCO without Y-27632 was used, and the medium was changed every 2 days. When MHCO cells were cultured in the inserts, MHCO without penicillin/streptomycin was used for their maintenance.

Caco-2 cell culture

The cell line Caco-2 maintained in our group was confirmed by the Cell Line
Authentication Service (ATCC). Caco-2 cells were maintained with the medium
consisting of DMEM (high glucose) with L-Glutamine and Phenol Red (FUJIFILM Wako
Pure Chemical Corporation) supplemented with 10% heat-treated FBS (Hyclone, Logan,
UT), MEM Non-Essential Amino Acids Solution (Nacalai tescue, Kyoto, Japan), and
penicillin/streptomycin. Caco-2 cells were passaged approximately 3-5 days before
reaching 80% confluency using 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA (Gibco, Waltham, MA, USA) and
seeded at 2-4 $\times 10^4$ cells/cm^2. 10^5 cells were seeded in transwell culture insert coated
Matrigel solution described above. Cells were cultured with the 10% FBS-containing
DMEM medium for 17 days. Before the coculture experiment, the culture medium was
changed to MHCO medium without antibiotics and cultured for 2 days.
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Bacterial culture
B. longum subsp. *longum* JCM1217^T (*B. longum*) was obtained from the Riken
BioResource Research Center (JCM, Tokyo, Japan). This strain was cultured in modified
GAM broth (Nissui Pharmaceutical, Gifu, Japan) for 4 hours at 37ºC under anaerobic
conditions using a BACTRON300 anaerobic chamber (Sheldon Manufacturing, Inc.,
Cornelius, USA). The culture medium was centrifuged (8,000 x g, 1 min, 25ºC) and
suspended to approximately 5.0×10^7 CFU/mL in a deoxygenated WENRAIF medium
supplemented with 100mM HEPES in an anaerobic chamber. Then, 200 uL bacterial
suspension was added at the apical side of the transwell in an anaerobic chamber and
capped in butyl gum caps. Then, the basolateral side's medium was cultured in a CO2
incubator for 24 hours. The number of colony-forming units (CFU) on TOS propionate
agar (Yakult Pharmaceutical Industry, Tokyo, Japan) was used to calculate the number
of live *B. longum*.
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RNA isolation and sequencing
Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen) with an RNase-Free DNase
Set (Qiagen). Library preparation was performed using Illumina Stranded mRNA Prep
and IDT® for Illumina® RNA UD Indexes Set A-B Ligation (Illumina, San Diego, CA,
United States). The concentration and quality of the extracted RNA and adapter-tagged
sequence library were calculated using Agilent RNA 6000 Nano and Agilent High
Sensitivity DNA Kits (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA), respectively.
Sequences were obtained using the NextSeq 1,000 system with the Illumina NextSeq

1000/2000 P2 Reagent kit (100 cycles) (Illumina). Read files were trimmed and mapped

to the human reference genome (GRCh38.p.13) using Trim Galore! (ver.0.6.4,

https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) and HISAT2 (ver.2.2.1) (Graph-Based

Genome Alignment and Genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype - PMC (nih.gov))

with default settings[56]. Transcript assembly, GTF document merging, and transcript

quantification were performed using Stringtie (ver.2.2.0) (StringTie enables improved

reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads - PubMed (nih.gov))[57]. A matrix

of read counts mapped to genes was extracted using prepDE.py

(http://ccb.jhu.edu/software/stringtie/dl/prepDE.py3).

Data analysis and visualization

Normalization from read counts and identifying differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

were performed via iterative differential expression analysis (DESeq2) by iDEP1.1

software. Adjusted p-value <0.05 and $\log_2$ fold change >1.5 were defined as DEGs.

Statistical analysis and data visualization were performed using R (ver.4.3.2). The

principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using the 'prcomp' function with TPM

matrix in the stats package (ver.3.6.2,

https://www.rdocumentation.org/packages/stats/versions/3.6.2) with scaling. The

hierarchical clustering and plotting of the heatmap were performed by the 'Heatmap'

function in the ComplexHeatmap package (ver.2.18.0,

https://github.com/jokergoo/ComplexHeatmap). Functional enrichment analysis of DEGs

was performed using the 'enrichGO' function in the clusterProfiler package (ver.4.10.0,

https://github.com/YuLab-SMU/clusterProfiler) and GO terms with p-value <0.05 and

adjusted p-value <0.05 were considered significant. KEGG pathway enrichment analysis

was performed using the 'gseKEGG' function in the clusterProfiler package, and the

significantly enriched pathways were defined by nominal adjusted p-value <0.05.

Measurement of the integrity of the cell monolayer

The integrity of the cell monolayer was assessed with relative TEER value and LY assay.

TEER was measured by Millicell ERS-2 Voltohmmeter (Merck Millipore, USA) following

the manufacturer's instruction. Relative TEER was calculated by TEER value after Hemi-

Anerobic cultivation for 24 hours relative to their initial value (0 hours). HBSS

supplemented with 10mM HEPES, D-PBS(+) Preparation Reagent (Ca, Mg Solution)

(Nacalai tesque, Kyoto, Japan) were used as transport buffers. After washing the

monolayer with transport buffer, 300uL of Lucifer yellow solution (300uM prepared in transport buffer) and 1000uL of transport buffer were added to the apical and basolateral sides of the monolayers, respectively. The monolayers were incubated for 60 minutes in a CO_2 incubator. After incubation, 200uL of apical and basolateral solution was collected in the 96-well black assay microplate, and the fluorescence was measured at an emission wavelength of 538 nm and excitation at 485 nm using Perkin Elmer Enspire 2300 Multi-mode Microplate Reader with EnSpire Workstation (version 4.13.3005.1482) n=4 biological replicates.

Acknowledgment: The authors thank the members of Gastroenterological Surgery, School of Medical Faculty of Medicine at Gunma University for human sample collection and all members of the laboratory for Mucosal Ecosystem Design for their assistance in experiments and discussion. A Wnt3a-producing cell line was a kind gift from Hans Clevers (Hubrecht Institute).

Funding: This work was supported in part by the Japan Agency for Medical Research and Development (AMED) grant (JP 23ae0121046), JST FOREST program (JPMJFR2161), Grants-in-Aid for the Japanese Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) KAKENHI (19H03455, 23H02713), a Grant-in-Aid for Challenging Research (Pioneering, 23K17415), the Astellas Foundation for Research on Metabolic Disorders, and the LOTTE Foundation.

Author contributions:

A.S., A.I., F.S., and T. Odamaki performed all the empirical experiments and analyzed the data. A. S., A. I., K. Y., E. M., and T. Oda. performed and analyzed the RNA-seq data. S.U., T. Okada, T.Y., and H.S. provided tissue specimens. N.S. conceived and conducted the project. A.S. and N.S. wrote the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and edited the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

A. S. and T. O. are employees of Morinaga Milk Industry Co. Ltd. The remaining authors disclose no conflicts.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Comparison of gene expression profiles between human colonic

organoid-derived monolayers (MHCO) and Caco-2.

(A) A schematic representation of the experiment. **(B)** PCA of the transcriptomes of

MHCO and Caco-2. Each plot represents a single transcriptome. Transcriptomes from

three replicates were plotted. Ellipses indicate the 95% confidence interval. **(C)**

Volcano plot depicting the DEGs of the transcriptomes of MHCO and Caco-2. The x-

and the y-axis show the $\log_2$ transformed fold change and the $-\log_{10}$ transformed

adjusted p-value. Red and blue dots indicate significantly upregulated genes in MHCO

and Caco-2 according to adjusted p-value <0.05 and $\log_2$ fold change >1.5. **(D)**

Heatmap depicting the top-2000 DEGs of the transcriptomes of MHCO and Caco-2

when sorted by adjusted p-value. **(E)** TPM values of marker genes for each gut

epithelial cell type. Data are presented as the mean ± Standard derivatives (SD).

Statistical significance was evaluated by Welch's *t*-test.

Figure 2. GO enrichment analysis of DEGs of the transcriptomes of MHCO and

Caco-2.

(A) Dot plot showing GO terms associated with DEGs for Caco-2 (left panel) and

MHCO (right panel) identified in **Figure 1D**. **(B)** TPM values of representative genes for

each GO term. Data are presented as the mean ± Standard derivatives (SD). Statistical

significance was evaluated by Welch's *t*-test.

Figure 3. Differences in gene expression change among MHCO and Caco-2 after

coculturing with *B. longum*.

(A-D) A schematic representation of the experiment. **(B)** Colony-forming units (CFU)

counts per milliliter of *B. longum* inoculated after 24-hour incubation with MHCO and

Caco-2 using iHACS. **(C)** PCA of the transcriptomes of MHCO and Caco-2 cocultured

with or without *B. longum*. Each plot represents a single transcriptome. Transcriptomes

from three replicates were plotted. Ellipses indicate the 95% confidence interval. **(D)**

Volcano plot depicting the upregulated and downregulated genes of Caco-2 (left panel)

and MHCO (right panel) after coculturing with *B. longum*. The x- and the y-axis show

the $\log_2$ transformed fold change and the $-\log_{10}$ transformed adjusted p-value. Red and

blue dots indicate significantly upregulated and downregulated genes after coculturing

with *B. longum* according to adjusted p-value <0.05 and $\log_2$ fold change >2. **(E)** Venn

diagram comparing the significantly upregulated (left panel) and downregulated genes

(right panel) in MHCO or Caco-2 after coculturing with *B. longum*.

Figure 4. GO enrichment analysis of upregulated and downregulated genes in

MHCO and Caco-2 after coculturing with *B. longum*.

(A-F) Dot plot showing GO terms associated with upregulated (**A-C**) and

downregulated genes (**D-F**) in MHCO (**A**, **D**), Caco-2 (**B**, **E**), and both (**C**, **F**) identified

in **Figure 3E**.

Figure 5. *B. longum* regulates the PPAR signaling pathway.

(A) Heatmap of relative expression of PPAR signaling-related genes by co-cultivation

of *B. longum* in Caco-2 and MHCO. Statistical significance was evaluated by a Deseq2

(*adjusted p-value <0.05, ** adjusted p-value <0.01, *** adjusted p-value <0.001). **(B)**

TPM values of representative PPAR receptor and its target genes. Data are presented

as the mean ± Standard derivatives (SD). Statistical significance was evaluated by

Welch's *t*-test. **(C)** Enrichment plot of genes in Ppar Signaling Pathway (KEGG) for

MHCO (left panel) and Caco-2 (right panel). Each vertical bar represents a gene, and

genes enriched in upregulated and downregulated after coculturing with *B. longum* are

at the left and right part of the graph, respectively. The normalized enrichment score

(NES), the p-value, and the false discovery rate (Adjusted p-value) were indicated in

the insert.

Figure 6. *B. longum* regulates inflammatory response differently in MHCO and

Caco-2.

(A) Enrichment plot of genes in Nf-Kappa B Signaling Pathway (KEGG) for MHCO (left

panel) and Caco-2 (right panel). **(B)** Heatmap of relative expression of inflammatory

response-related genes by co-cultivation of *B. longum* in Caco-2 and MHCO. Statistical

significance was evaluated by a Deseq2 (*adjusted p-value <0.05, ** adjusted p-value

<0.01, *** adjusted p-value <0.001). **(C)** TPM values of representative chemokine, NF-

κB related, and inflammatory cytokine genes. Data are presented as the mean ±

Standard derivatives (SD). Statistical significance was evaluated by Welch's *t*-test.

Figure 7. *B. longum* regulates intestinal barrier function.

(A) Heatmap of relative expression of cell junction-related genes by co-cultivation of *B.*

longum in Caco-2 and MHCO cells. Statistical significance was evaluated by a DESeq2

(*adjusted p-value <0.05, ** adjusted p-value <0.01, *** adjusted p-value <0.001). **(B)**

TPM values of representative tight junction (upregulated in both MHCO and Caco-2

cells, specifically upregulated in MHCO), adherence junction, and hemidesmosome-

related genes. Data are presented as the mean ± Standard derivatives (SD). Statistical

significance was evaluated by Welch's *t*-test. **(C, D)** Relative TEER value adjusted by

the initial value (**C**) and permeability of Lucifer Yellow (LY) from apical to basolateral

compartment (**D**) in MHCO cocultured with *B. longum* versus vehicle control. Data are

expressed as means ± SD. Statistical significance was evaluated using Welch's t-test.

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Figure 1. Sen et al.

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