1 **Comprehensive gene expression analysis of organoid-derived healthy human**
2 **colonic epithelium and cancer cell line by stimulated with live probiotic bacteria**
3

4 Akira Sen[1,2#], Atsuki Imai[1#], Eiji Miyauchi[1], Kota Yanagisawa[1], Tsukasa Oda[1], Fuki
5 Sasaki[1], Shintaro Uchida[3], Takuhisa Okada[3], Takehiko Yokobori[4], Hiroshi Saeki[3],
6 Toshitaka Odamaki[2], Nobuo Sasaki[1*]
7

1: The Laboratory for Mucosal Ecosystem Design, Institute for Molecular and Cellular
Regulation, Gunma University, Maebashi, Gunma 371-8512, Japan.
2: Innovative Research institute, Morinaga Milk Industry Co Ltd, Zama, Kanagawa 252-
8583, Japan
3: Department of General Surgical Science, Gastroenterological Surgery, Gunma
University, Graduate School of Medicine, Maebashi, Gunma 371-8511, Japan.
4: Division of Gene Therapy Science, Gunma University, Initiative for Advanced
Research (GIAR), Maebashi, Gunma 371-8511, Japan.
#: These authors contributed equally to this work.
*: Correspondence: nosasaki@gunma-u.ac.jp

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 are used, whether they adequately mimic normal
colonic epithelial physiology is unclear. To address this, we performed transcriptome
profiling of Caco-2 and Monolayer-cultured epithelial cells derived from healthy Human
Colonic Organoids (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
represented absorptive cells in the small intestinal epithelium, and MHCO 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. *B. longum*-stimulated MHCO exhibited

barrier-enhancing characteristics, as demonstrated in clinical trials. Our data represent

a valuable resource for understanding gut microbe and host cell communication.

Keywords

Colon cancer cells, Colonic epithelium, gene expression, gut microbiome, probiotic

bacteria, transcriptome profiling

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 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 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 epithelial 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 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 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 (Fig. 1A). To collect RNA samples for transcriptome

analysis, we first align the culture conditions of Caco-2 and MHCO (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 (FBS)-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 were cultured for 3 days after

reaching confluence under similar conditions to those used for the Caco-2 (Fig. 1A).

Importantly, we comparatively analyzed the gene expression in MHCO and Caco-2

following growth under hemi-anaerobic conditions.

Principal component analysis (PCA) of RNA-seq data from Caco-2 and MHCO

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 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, respectively (Fig.1C). Furthermore,

we visualized two non-overlapping classes of cell type-specific transcripts using

hierarchical clustering, Caco-2 specific and MHCO 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*/B (*CHGA and CHGB*,

enteroendocrine cells) in the MHCO RNA-seq data (Fig. 1D, E). 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 (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 (Fig. 1D, E).

Next, the DEGs that differed significantly between Caco-2 and MHCO (Fig 1D)
were examined using gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis. GO analysis of the genes
upregulated in cultured Caco-2 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 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 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 (*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 are an extensively used *in*
vitro assay for nutrient abruption studies[15] (Fig. 2B).

In contrast, genes upregulated in MHCO 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 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 (Fig.2C). Collectively, the presence of these genes
and enrichment of relevant GO confirmed that MHCO are more pertinent to observe the
physiological response of the colonic epithelium than Caco-2 when those cells were
cultured under semi-anaerobic conditions.

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

Caco-2 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. To test the physiological effects of commensal anaerobes in the colon, we cocultured Caco-2 or MHCO 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 *B. longum* expression increased similarly in Caco-2 and MHCO cultured with iHACS (Fig. 3A, B). After 24 h, an inoculum of 1×10^7 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, respectively ($P = 0.26$, Fig. 3B). RNA was extracted from Caco-2 and MHCO to assess their general responses to the probiotic bacteria. In the PCA of the characterized compound classes in Caco-2 and MHCO 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 were more distant from the clusters of Caco-2, whereas PC2 showed the response of Caco-2 cocultured with *B. longum*. Samples of MHCO 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 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 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, consisting of 1,407 and 1,479 upregulated and downregulated genes, respectively (Fig. 3D). Additionally, the overlap of upregulated DEGs between MHCO 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-specific gene expression variations following stimulation with *B. longum*. The DEGs that showed increased expression exclusively in MHCO 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 were associated with cell
proliferation pathways such as nuclear division (GO:0000280) and chromosome
segregation (GO:0007059, Fig. 4B). In Caco-2, 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).

***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 following
bacterial treatment showed a significant increase in the expression of genes involved in
peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) signaling in MHCO (Fig. 5A).
Furthermore, our transcriptome data showed that the expression of *PPARG* and *PPARA*
were upregulated and downregulated in MHCO and Caco-2, 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 but not in
Caco-2 (Fig. 5A).
To validate the upregulation of PPAR signaling in MHCO cocultured with *B.*
longum, we focused on the expression of the PPARA and PPARG target genes. In
MHCO 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 (Fig. 5B). As expected, gene set
enrichment analysis (GSEA) indicated that MHCO, but not Caco-2 cocultured with *B.*
longum were enriched in genes related to PPAR signaling (normalized enrichment score
[*NES*] = 2.06, *adj P* = 0.016 in MHCO, *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.

Differential inflammatory response to MHCO and Caco-2 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 stimulated by *B. longum* were

commonly enriched for genes associated the NF-κB signaling pathway (NES = 1.91, P

< 0.01, adj*P* < 0.05 in MHCO; NES = 2.45, *P* < 0.001, adj*P* < 0.001 in Caco-2; Fig. 6A).

To assess the responses of the Caco-2 and MHCO 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 than

in MHCO (Fig. 6B, C).

Moreover, bacterial inoculation of Caco-2 and MHCO 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 specifically [36]

(Fig. 6B, C). Those results suggest that a probiotic microbe, *B. longum,* raises the level

of immune surveillance.

***B. longum* upregulates intestinal barrier function in MHCO.**

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 in response to *B. longum*. The tight junction-

related genes, *Claudin 3* (*CLDN3*), *CLDN4,* and *Occludin* (*OCLN)*, were upregulated in

both Caco-2 and MHCO following exposure to *B. longum*. In contrast, other related

genes, *CLDN7* and *Tight junction protein 3* (*TJP3*), were only upregulated in MHCO,

whereas *CLDN2* was upregulated in Caco-2 (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 and conversely

downregulated in Caco-2 (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 (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. Compared to the vehicle control, TEER was significantly

increased in cells cocultured with *B. longum* (Fig. 7F). 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 were cultured with

B. longum (Fig. 7G). Overall, these results confirmed 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 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 cultured under hemi-anaerobic conditions. In contrast,

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

intestine, as shown previously[39]. Therefore, MHCO may be a physiologically

appropriate model for studying probiotic activities, including of *Bifidobacterium* and

Akkermansia, in the colon[30, 40].

The Caco-2, a 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 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 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 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 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 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 than it was in the organoid cells. This probably
occurred because Caco-2 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 than in MHCO.
Therefore, we focused on immune responses to characterize the reaction of Caco-2 and
MHCO 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 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
are more pertinent for observing the physiological response of the colonic epithelium
than Caco-2 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.
These observations further confirmed the findings of previous studies in MHCO
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
Bifidobacterium[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 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 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

than they were in the organoids. While both organoids and Caco-2 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, 10mM HEPES, 2 mM Glutamax, 1×B-27 Supplement (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 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), 500 nM A83-01 (Tocris), 100 ng/mL recombinant human insulin-like growth factor-1 (BioLegend), 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, ThinCert culture inserts (24-well insert, 0.4 μm pore polyester membrane; Greiner bio-one) 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), 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 were cultured in the inserts, MHCO without penicillin/streptomycin was used for their maintenance.

Caco-2 culture

The cell line Caco-2 maintained in our group was confirmed by the Cell Line
Authentication Service (ATCC). Caco-2 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), MEM Non-
Essential Amino Acids Solution (Nacalai tescue), and penicillin/streptomycin. Caco-2
cells were passaged approximately 3-5 days before reaching 80% confluency using
0.25% Trypsin-EDTA (Gibco) and seeded at 2-4 x10^4 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.
431

Bacterial culture

B. 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) was used to calculate the number of live *B. longum*.
444

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). 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), 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)

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

quantification were performed using Stringtie (ver.2.2.0) [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) 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) 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 Monolayer cells derived from healthy Human Colonic Organoid (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 Deseq2.

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, C)** TPM values of representative genes for each GO term enriched in Caco-2 (**B**) or MHCO (**C**). Data are presented as the mean ± Standard derivatives (SD). Statistical significance was evaluated by Deseq2.

Figure 3. Differences in gene expression change among MHCO and Caco-2 after coculturing with *B. longum*.

(A) 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, E**) and

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

Deseq2. **(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 Deseq2.

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. Statistical significance was evaluated by a DESeq2

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

TPM values of representative tight junction (B), adherence junction (C), desmosome

(D), and hemidesmosome (E) related genes. Data are presented as the mean ±

Standard derivatives (SD). Statistical significance was evaluated by by a Deseq2. **(F,**

G) Relative TEER value adjusted by the initial value (**F**) and permeability of Lucifer

Yellow (LY) from apical to basolateral compartment (**G**) in MHCO cocultured with *B.*

longum versus vehicle control. Data are expressed as means ± SD. Statistical

significance was evaluated using Welch's t-test.

References

[1] J.R. Turner, Intestinal mucosal barrier function in health and disease, Nat Rev Immunol, 9
(2009) 799-809.

[2] P.R. Kiela, F.K. Ghishan, Physiology of Intestinal Absorption and Secretion, Best Pract Res
Clin Gastroenterol, 30 (2016) 145-159.

[3] S.V. Lynch, O. Pedersen, The Human Intestinal Microbiome in Health and Disease, N Engl J
Med, 375 (2016) 2369-2379.

[4] I. Rowland, G. Gibson, A. Heinken, K. Scott, J. Swann, I. Thiele, K. Tuohy, Gut microbiota
functions: metabolism of nutrients and other food components, Eur J Nutr, 57 (2018) 1-24.

[5] D. Zheng, T. Liwinski, E. Elinav, Interaction between microbiota and immunity in health and
disease, Cell Res, 30 (2020) 492-506.

[6] M.E. Sanders, D.J. Merenstein, G. Reid, G.R. Gibson, R.A. Rastall, Probiotics and prebiotics
in intestinal health and disease: from biology to the clinic, Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol, 16
(2019) 605-616.

[7] J. Plaza-Diaz, F.J. Ruiz-Ojeda, M. Gil-Campos, A. Gil, Mechanisms of Action of Probiotics,
Adv Nutr, 10 (2019) S49-S66.

[8] S. Jalili-Firoozinezhad, F.S. Gazzaniga, E.L. Calamari, D.M. Camacho, C.W. Fadel, A. Bein, B.
Swenor, B. Nestor, M.J. Cronce, A. Tovaglieri, O. Levy, K.E. Gregory, D.T. Breault, J.M.S. Cabral,
D.L. Kasper, R. Novak, D.E. Ingber, A complex human gut microbiome cultured in an anaerobic
intestine-on-a-chip, Nat Biomed Eng, 3 (2019) 520-531.

[9] R. Kim, P.J. Attayek, Y. Wang, K.L. Furtado, R. Tamayo, C.E. Sims, N.L. Allbritton, An in
vitro intestinal platform with a self-sustaining oxygen gradient to study the human
gut/microbiome interface, Biofabrication, 12 (2019) 015006.

[10] N. Sasaki, K. Miyamoto, K.M. Maslowski, H. Ohno, T. Kanai, T. Sato, Development of a
Scalable Coculture System for Gut Anaerobes and Human Colon Epithelium, Gastroenterology,
159 (2020) 388-390 e385.

[11] P. Shah, J.V. Fritz, E. Glaab, M.S. Desai, K. Greenhalgh, A. Frachet, M. Niegowska, M. Estes,
C. Jager, C. Seguin-Devaux, F. Zenhausern, P. Wilmes, A microfluidics-based in vitro model of
the gastrointestinal human-microbe interface, Nat Commun, 7 (2016) 11535.

[12] J. Zhang, Y.J. Huang, J.Y. Yoon, J. Kemmitt, C. Wright, K. Schneider, P. Sphabmixay, V.
Hernandez-Gordillo, S.J. Holcomb, B. Bhushan, G. Rohatgi, K. Benton, D. Carpenter, J.C. Kester,
G. Eng, D.T. Breault, O. Yilmaz, M. Taketani, C.A. Voigt, R.L. Carrier, D.L. Trumper, L.G.
Griffith, Primary human colonic mucosal barrier crosstalk with super oxygen-sensitive
Faecalibacterium prausnitzii in continuous culture, Med, 2 (2021) 74-98 e79.

[13] Y. Qi, L. Yu, F. Tian, J. Zhao, Q. Zhai, In vitro models to study human gut-microbiota
interactions: Applications, advances, and limitations, Microbiol Res, 270 (2023) 127336.

[14] Y. Sambuy, I. De Angelis, G. Ranaldi, M.L. Scarino, A. Stammati, F. Zucco, The Caco-2 cell
line as a model of the intestinal barrier: influence of cell and culture-related factors on Caco-2 cell
functional characteristics, Cell Biol Toxicol, 21 (2005) 1-26.

[15] X. Ding, X. Hu, Y. Chen, J. Xie, M. Ying, Y. Wang, Q. Yu, Differentiated Caco-2 cell models
in food-intestine interaction study: Current applications and future trends, Trends in Food
Science & Technology, 107 (2021) 455-465.

[16] G.P. Donaldson, S.M. Lee, S.K. Mazmanian, Gut biogeography of the bacterial microbiota,
Nat Rev Microbiol, 14 (2016) 20-32.

[17] T. Sato, D.E. Stange, M. Ferrante, R.G. Vries, J.H. Van Es, S. Van den Brink, W.J. Van Houdt,
A. Pronk, J. Van Gorp, P.D. Siersema, H. Clevers, Long-term expansion of epithelial organoids
from human colon, adenoma, adenocarcinoma, and Barrett's epithelium, Gastroenterology, 141
(2011) 1762-1772.

[18] T. Sato, R.G. Vries, H.J. Snippert, M. van de Wetering, N. Barker, D.E. Stange, J.H. van Es,
A. Abo, P. Kujala, P.J. Peters, H. Clevers, Single Lgr5 stem cells build crypt-villus structures in
vitro without a mesenchymal niche, Nature, 459 (2009) 262-265.

[19] Y. Wang, M. DiSalvo, D.B. Gunasekara, J. Dutton, A. Proctor, M.S. Lebhar, I.A. Williamson,
J. Speer, R.L. Howard, N.M. Smiddy, S.J. Bultman, C.E. Sims, S.T. Magness, N.L. Allbritton, Self-
renewing Monolayer of Primary Colonic or Rectal Epithelial Cells, Cell Mol Gastroenterol Hepatol,
4 (2017) 165-182 e167.

[20] M. Fujii, M. Matano, K. Toshimitsu, A. Takano, Y. Mikami, S. Nishikori, S. Sugimoto, T.
Sato, Human Intestinal Organoids Maintain Self-Renewal Capacity and Cellular Diversity in
Niche-Inspired Culture Condition, Cell Stem Cell, 23 (2018) 787-793 e786.

[21] C. Jumarie, C. Malo, Caco-2 cells cultured in serum-free medium as a model for the study of
enterocytic differentiation in vitro, J Cell Physiol, 149 (1991) 24-33.

[22] D. Mouradov, C. Sloggett, R.N. Jorissen, C.G. Love, S. Li, A.W. Burgess, D. Arango, R.L.
Strausberg, D. Buchanan, S. Wormald, L. O'Connor, J.L. Wilding, D. Bicknell, I.P. Tomlinson,
W.F. Bodmer, J.M. Mariadason, O.M. Sieber, Colorectal cancer cell lines are representative
models of the main molecular subtypes of primary cancer, Cancer Res, 74 (2014) 3238-3247.

[23] B.E. Michels, M.H. Mosa, B.M. Grebbin, D. Yepes, T. Darvishi, J. Hausmann, H. Urlaub, S.
Zeuzem, H.M. Kvasnicka, T. Oellerich, H.F. Farin, Human colon organoids reveal distinct
physiologic and oncogenic Wnt responses, J Exp Med, 216 (2019) 704-720.

[24] A. Niida, T. Hiroko, M. Kasai, Y. Furukawa, Y. Nakamura, Y. Suzuki, S. Sugano, T. Akiyama,
DKK1, a negative regulator of Wnt signaling, is a target of the beta-catenin/TCF pathway,
Oncogene, 23 (2004) 8520-8526.

[25] D. Yan, M. Wiesmann, M. Rohan, V. Chan, A.B. Jefferson, L. Guo, D. Sakamoto, R.H.
Caothien, J.H. Fuller, C. Reinhard, P.D. Garcia, F.M. Randazzo, J. Escobedo, W.J. Fantl, L.T.
Williams, Elevated expression of axin2 and hnkd mRNA provides evidence that Wnt/beta -catenin
signaling is activated in human colon tumors, Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 98 (2001) 14973-14978.

[26] J.F. Burgueno, M.T. Abreu, Epithelial Toll-like receptors and their role in gut homeostasis
and disease, Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol, 17 (2020) 263-278.

[27] J.A. Hall, J.R. Grainger, S.P. Spencer, Y. Belkaid, The role of retinoic acid in tolerance and
immunity, Immunity, 35 (2011) 13-22.

[28] F.E. Johansen, C.S. Kaetzel, Regulation of the polymeric immunoglobulin receptor and IgA
transport: new advances in environmental factors that stimulate pIgR expression and its role in
mucosal immunity, Mucosal Immunol, 4 (2011) 598-602.

[29] R. McCoy, S. Oldroyd, W. Yang, K. Wang, D. Hoven, D. Bulmer, M. Zilbauer, R.M. Owens,
In Vitro Models for Investigating Intestinal Host-Pathogen Interactions, Adv Sci (Weinh), 11
(2024) e2306727.

[30] M. Derrien, F. Turroni, M. Ventura, D. van Sinderen, Insights into endogenous
Bifidobacterium species in the human gut microbiota during adulthood, Trends Microbiol, 30
(2022) 940-947.

[31] Y. Luo, C. Xie, C.N. Brocker, J. Fan, X. Wu, L. Feng, Q. Wang, J. Zhao, D. Lu, M. Tandon,
M. Cam, K.W. Krausz, W. Liu, F.J. Gonzalez, Intestinal PPARalpha Protects Against Colon
Carcinogenesis via Regulation of Methyltransferases DNMT1 and PRMT6, Gastroenterology, 157
(2019) 744-759 e744.

[32] S. Kersten, S. Mandard, N.S. Tan, P. Escher, D. Metzger, P. Chambon, F.J. Gonzalez, B.
Desvergne, W. Wahli, Characterization of the fasting-induced adipose factor FIAF, a novel
peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor target gene, J Biol Chem, 275 (2000) 28488-28493.

[33] M.M. Rahman, G. McFadden, Modulation of NF-kappaB signalling by microbial pathogens,
Nat Rev Microbiol, 9 (2011) 291-306.

[34] M. Friedrich, M. Pohin, F. Powrie, Cytokine Networks in the Pathophysiology of
Inflammatory Bowel Disease, Immunity, 50 (2019) 992-1006.

[35] G.D. Bren, N.J. Solan, H. Miyoshi, K.N. Pennington, L.J. Pobst, C.V. Paya, Transcription of
the RelB gene is regulated by NF-kappaB, Oncogene, 20 (2001) 7722-7733.

[36] A. Mantovani, C.A. Dinarello, M. Molgora, C. Garlanda, Interleukin-1 and Related Cytokines
in the Regulation of Inflammation and Immunity, Immunity, 50 (2019) 778-795.

[37] M.A. McGuckin, R. Eri, L.A. Simms, T.H. Florin, G. Radford-Smith, Intestinal barrier
dysfunction in inflammatory bowel diseases, Inflamm Bowel Dis, 15 (2009) 100-113.

[38] E.E. Marr, T.J. Mulhern, M. Welch, P. Keegan, C. Caballero-Franco, B.G. Johnson, M.
Kasaian, H. Azizgolshani, T. Petrie, J. Charest, E. Wiellette, A platform to reproducibly evaluate
human colon permeability and damage, Sci Rep, 13 (2023) 8922.

[39] K. Kulthong, G. Hooiveld, L. Duivenvoorde, I. Miro Estruch, V. Marin, M. van der Zande, H.
Bouwmeester, Transcriptome comparisons of in vitro intestinal epithelia grown under static and
microfluidic gut-on-chip conditions with in vivo human epithelia, Sci Rep, 11 (2021) 3234.

[40] D. Cheng, M.Z. Xie, A review of a potential and promising probiotic candidate-Akkermansia
muciniphila, J Appl Microbiol, 130 (2021) 1813-1822.

[41] N. Panse, P.M. Gerk, The Caco-2 Model: Modifications and enhancements to improve
efficiency and predictive performance, Int J Pharm, 624 (2022) 122004.

[42] R.G. Bristow, R.P. Hill, Hypoxia and metabolism. Hypoxia, DNA repair and genetic
instability, Nat Rev Cancer, 8 (2008) 180-192.

[43] E.K. Mallott, K.R. Amato, Host specificity of the gut microbiome, Nat Rev Microbiol, 19

(2021) 639-653.

[44] M. Sadaghian Sadabad, J.Z. von Martels, M.T. Khan, T. Blokzijl, G. Paglia, G. Dijkstra, H.J.

Harmsen, K.N. Faber, A simple coculture system shows mutualism between anaerobic

faecalibacteria and epithelial Caco-2 cells, Sci Rep, 5 (2015) 17906.

[45] J.M. Allaire, S.M. Crowley, H.T. Law, S.Y. Chang, H.J. Ko, B.A. Vallance, The Intestinal

Epithelium: Central Coordinator of Mucosal Immunity, Trends Immunol, 39 (2018) 677-696.

[46] R. Abdulqadir, J. Engers, R. Al-Sadi, Role of Bifidobacterium in Modulating the Intestinal

Epithelial Tight Junction Barrier: Current Knowledge and Perspectives, Curr Dev Nutr, 7 (2023)

102026.

[47] M.A. Garcia, W.J. Nelson, N. Chavez, Cell-Cell Junctions Organize Structural and Signaling

Networks, Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol, 10 (2018).

[48] X. Shu, J. Wang, L. Zhao, J. Wang, P. Wang, F. Zhang, R. Wang, Bifidobacterium lactis TY-

S01 protects against alcoholic liver injury in mice by regulating intestinal barrier function and gut

microbiota, Heliyon, 9 (2023) e17878.

[49] K.R. Bergmann, S.X. Liu, R. Tian, A. Kushnir, J.R. Turner, H.L. Li, P.M. Chou, C.R. Weber,

I.G. De Plaen, Bifidobacteria stabilize claudins at tight junctions and prevent intestinal barrier

dysfunction in mouse necrotizing enterocolitis, Am J Pathol, 182 (2013) 1595-1606.

[50] A. Horowitz, S.D. Chanez-Paredes, X. Haest, J.R. Turner, Paracellular permeability and tight

junction regulation in gut health and disease, Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol, 20 (2023) 417-432.

[51] S. Prasad, R. Mingrino, K. Kaukinen, K.L. Hayes, R.M. Powell, T.T. MacDonald, J.E. Collins,

Inflammatory processes have differential effects on claudins 2, 3 and 4 in colonic epithelial cells,

Lab Invest, 85 (2005) 1139-1162.

[52] S. Zeissig, N. Burgel, D. Gunzel, J. Richter, J. Mankertz, U. Wahnschaffe, A.J. Kroesen, M.

Zeitz, M. Fromm, J.D. Schulzke, Changes in expression and distribution of claudin 2, 5 and 8 lead

to discontinuous tight junctions and barrier dysfunction in active Crohn's disease, Gut, 56 (2007)

61-72.

[53] T. Oshima, H. Miwa, T. Joh, Changes in the expression of claudins in active ulcerative colitis,

J Gastroenterol Hepatol, 23 Suppl 2 (2008) S146-150.

[54] L. Ding, Z. Lu, O. Foreman, R. Tatum, Q. Lu, R. Renegar, J. Cao, Y.H. Chen, Inflammation

and disruption of the mucosal architecture in claudin-7-deficient mice, Gastroenterology, 142

(2012) 305-315.

[55] J. Stutzmann, A. Bellissent-Waydelich, L. Fontao, J.F. Launay, P. Simon-Assmann, Adhesion

complexes implicated in intestinal epithelial cell-matrix interactions, Microsc Res Tech, 51 (2000)

179-190.

[56] D. Kim, J.M. Paggi, C. Park, C. Bennett, S.L. Salzberg, Graph-based genome alignment and

genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype, Nat Biotechnol, 37 (2019) 907-915.

[57] M. Pertea, G.M. Pertea, C.M. Antonescu, T.C. Chang, J.T. Mendell, S.L. Salzberg, StringTie

enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq reads, Nat Biotechnol, 33

(2015) 290-295.

Figure 1. Sen et al.

Figure 2. Sen et al.

Figure 3. Sen et al.

Figure 4. Sen et al.

Figure 5. Sen et al.

Figure 6. Sen et al.

Figure 7. Sen et al.