***Odoribacter splanchnicus* mitigates *Salmonella*-induced gut inflammation and its**
associated pathogenesis via its secreted bacteriocin

Dipasree Hajra[1], Debapriya Mukherjee [1#], Rhea Vij [1#], Raju S Rajmani [2], Venkatareddy
Dadireddy[3], Deepakash Das[4], Tanweer Hussain[4], Mahipal Ganji[3,] Utpal Tatu [3],
Chakravortty D [1,5] *

[1]Department of Microbiology and Cell Biology, Indian Institute of Science

[2]Centre of Infectious Disease Research, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India

[3]Department of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India

[4]Department of Developmental Biology and Genetics, Indian Institute of Science,

Bangalore, India

[5]Adjunct Faculty, School of Biology, Indian Institute of Science Education and Research,
Thiruvananthapuram

*Corresponding author: Prof. Dipshikha Chakravortty

#Equal Contribution

Email: dipa@iisc.ac.in

Tel. No. 0091 80 22932842

Abstract

Foodborne pathogens pose a major global health hazard, worsened by drug-resistant strains.

Therefore, designing novel therapeutic strategies is crucial. Here, we identified the protective

role of gut-commensal *Odoribacter splanchnicus* (OS) against *Salmonella* in mice by

promoting colonization resistance, preserving gut barrier integrity, and preventing acute

inflammation and biofilm formation. *In vitro,* both live *O. splanchnicus* (OS) and their culture

supernatant inhibited *Salmonella* biofilm formation, intracellular proliferation in human

intestinal cells, and virulence gene expression. Further, our results depicted that OS's protective

role acts over a broad spectrum as it confers protection against Gram-positive, *Listeria*

monocytogenes and Gram-negative, *Salmonella* Typhimurium. Notably, OS conferred protection even when administered post-infection in mice, highlighting its therapeutic potential. Using several biochemical and proteomics approaches, we characterized key OS-secreted molecules that limit intracellular *Salmonella* and *Listeria* replication in human intestinal epithelial cells by regulating key virulence effectors and flagella. Collectively, our study establishes OS as the broad-spectrum protective agent against *Salmonella* and *Listeria* infections, with promising therapeutic potential.

Keywords: *Salmonella* pathogenesis, **Gut vascular barrier permeability**, **inflammation**, **inter-species bacterial regulation**, *Listeria*, *Odoribacter splanchnicus*, **gut commensal**, **biofilm, flagella**

Teaser

O. splanchnicus **as an antidote to foodborne bacterial infections**

Main Text

Introduction

The existence of the gut vascular barrier (GVB) acts as a protective barrier against the entry of microorganisms into systemic blood circulation (1, 2). Enteric pathogens such as *Salmonella enterica* can cross the mucus and intestinal epithelial barrier, ultimately leading to GVB damage and systemic dissemination (1). The gut microbiota aids in the maintenance of the intestinal epithelial barrier by the production of several metabolites such as Short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), indoles, and polyphenol metabolites that contribute to epithelial barrier integrity and turnover by regulating the expression of Tight-junction (TJ) genes (3). Additionally, these SCFAs have the potential to exert anti-inflammatory properties by regulating cytokine production, mucosal immune cell migration, and secretion of antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) by intestinal epithelial cells and macrophages (4-6).

Our previous study reported an incidence of increased *Salmonella* dissemination in blood, liver, and spleen upon SIRT1 and SIRT3 inhibition owing to the increased inflammatory response (7, 8). SIRT1, a NAD+-dependent nuclear deacetylase, and the mitochondrial counterpart SIRT3, mediates an immune-metabolic shift in the infected host during *Salmonella* infection progression and maintains a replication niche for the pathogen. In the systemic mice model of *Salmonella* infection, both SIRT1 and SIRT3 have been reported to regulate *Salmonella* dissemination to secondary sites of infection such as the MLN, liver, and spleen via the bloodstream. SIRT1 inhibitor (EX-527) and SIRT3 inhibitor (3TYP)-treated mice cohorts exhibited enhanced bacterial dissemination, and organ loads due to heightened production of inflammatory arsenals such as ROS, IL-1β, and IL-6 (7). Therefore, in this study, we have additionally assessed the effect of OS treatment under SIRT1 and SIRT3 inhibitor-treated conditions to mimic aggravated inflammatory conditions during *Salmonella* infection.

Salmonella enters the body through the ingestion of contaminated food and water, resisting the acidic stomach pH with acid tolerance response (ATR) genes, and finally reaches the lumen of the small intestine(9). The pathogen gains entry into the non-phagocytic epithelial cells via *Salmonella* Pathogenicity Island-1 (SPI-1) effectors to breach the intestinal barrier (10). Once traversing through the mucosal lining of the gut epithelium, it reaches the lamina propria (10). In the lamina propria, *Salmonella* encounters various host immune cells like neutrophils, macrophages, and dendritic cells. Macrophages, dendritic cells, and neutrophils are responsible for successful dissemination throughout the body through the reticulo-endothelial system (RES) to the secondary organs such as Mesenteric Lymph Node (MLN), liver, and spleen(10). *Salmonella* relies on the SPI-2 secretion for its intracellular and intravacuolar life by injecting various virulence factors into the host cell cytosol (11, 12).

Here, in the present study, we aim to understand whether colonization with the gut commensal,

Odoribacter splanchnicus (OS) could ameliorate *Salmonella*-induced inflammation and

pathogenic dissemination. OS, belonging to the order Bacteroidales, is a common member of

the human intestinal microbiota. *Bacteroidetes* is one of the major commensal phyla

dominating the healthy mouse as well as the human gut (13). A decrease in *Odoribacter*

abundance has been linked to different microbiota-associated diseases, such as non-alcoholic

fatty liver disease, cystic fibrosis, and inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)(14). A recent report

indicated the ability of OS and its effectors transported in Outer membrane vesicles (OMVs)

to exhibit anti-inflammatory effects on the gut epithelium(14). Further, OS has been implicated

in conferring resistance against colitis and colorectal cancer(15). This led us to hypothesize

that *O. splanchnicus* might ameliorate the inflammatory disease conditions associated with

Salmonella infection and dissemination.

Our study shows that OS colonization promotes colonization resistance of *Salmonella*, and

systemic dissemination even under aggravated inflammatory responses such as SIRT1 or

SIRT3-inhibited conditions. OS ameliorates acute *Salmonella*-induced inflammation and its

associated pathogenesis by promoting colonization resistance, resulting in decreased

Salmonella invasion of gut tissue, the preservation of tight junctions, and GVB maintenance.

Further, we demonstrate that not only live OS but its culture supernatant inhibits *Salmonella in*

vitro biofilm formation, intracellular proliferation in human intestinal cells, and virulence gene

expression. Subsequently, our results depict that the specific protective role of OS acts over a

broad spectrum as it confers protection against both flagellated Gram-positive, *Listeria*

monocytogenes and Gram-negative, *Salmonella* Typhimurium. Furthermore, OS conferred

protection even after its administration to mice post-establishment of infection highlighting its

therapeutic potential. Subsequently, we identified the key OS-secreted bacteriocin protein

responsible for limiting intracellular *Salmonella* and *Listeria* replication in human intestinal

cells by regulating virulence genes such as flagella. Overall, our study implicates the broad-

spectrum protective role of OS in mitigating foodborne infections caused by *Salmonella* and

Listeria pathogenesis.

Results

***O. splanchnicus* hinders *Salmonella* burden and its systemic dissemination**

To denote the role of OS in *Salmonella* pathogenesis, we colonized C57BL/6 mice with 10^5

CFU of OS 1 day prior to *Salmonella* infection via the oral route and validated the colonization

by undertaking OS 16S rRNA qPCR analysis (Fig 1, A-B). OS pre-colonized mice showed

decreased susceptibility to *Salmonella* infection in comparison to the non-colonized mice

cohort which succumbed to death by day 9 post-infection (p.i.). Contrastingly, 100% of the OS

colonized mice were alive even at day 11 post *Salmonella* infection (Fig 1, C). *Salmonella*

colonization of the feces and intestinal tissue and dissemination to the MLN, blood, and liver

were reduced upon OS pre-colonization (Fig 1, D-K). OS non-colonized mice exhibited

increased weight loss percentage upon *Salmonella* infection and OS pre-colonization prevented

weight loss (Fig 1, H). Our previous findings revealed increased bacterial dissemination owing

to heightened inflammatory responses in the case of SIRT1 and SIRT3 knockdown or inhibitor-

treated conditions(7). Therefore, in this study, we intended to examine whether OS could exert

its protective role against *Salmonella* infection even in the case of aggravated inflammatory

conditions such as in the case of SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3 (3TYP) inhibited conditions. Our

result suggests that even in aggravated conditions of inflammation and *Salmonella*

dissemination under SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitory conditions, OS could prevent *Salmonella*

organ burden and dissemination (Fig 1,H-K).

***O. splanchnicus* colonization ameliorate the acute *Salmonella-induced* inflammation and**

its associated pathogenesis

Heightened inflammatory responses facilitate *Salmonella* dissemination in mice(7). Thus, we

hypothesized that OS gut colonization might ameliorate the *Salmonella*-induced inflammation.

ELISA-mediated IL-6 serum quantification revealed reduced IL-6 production upon *S.*

Typhimurium (STM) infection in the OS colonized mice group to the non-colonized cohort

(Fig 2, A). The reduced IL-6 production upon OS colonization was even observed in elevated

inflammatory conditions of SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibition. To combat the enteric pathogen

challenge, the host employs one of its major defence arsenals, that is, the production of

antimicrobial peptides (AMPs)(16, 17). STM infection induces enhanced mRNA expression of

AMPs in mice with respect to the uninfected control as per previous literature findings (17).

We found that OS colonization in mice resulted in the downregulation of several AMP genes

such as Lysozyme-C1 precursor, Angiogenin-4 precursor, CCL20, Beta-defensin-4 and

Regenerating-islet-derived 3 beta-precursor (Fig 2, B). Mucus lining serves as another crucial

barrier against the entry of enteric pathogens(18). However, enteric pathogens adopt several

strategies to circumvent this barrier to reach the underlying epithelium(19). To assess the mucin

layer dynamics upon the *Salmonella* challenge, we assessed MUC2 expression in the ileal

tissues of OS colonized versus non-colonized mice groups. Our result depicted enriched MUC2

expression in the OS non-colonized mice cohort compared to the colonized cohort (Fig.2, C).

The increase in the mucus lining upon *Salmonella* infection could be one of the host defense

mechanisms to bolster the barrier and exclude pathogens(20). As per previous literature, the

rate of mucin production is modulated by several stimuli including inflammatory cytokines

(21), vasoactive antimicrobial peptides, and other innate and adaptive immune responses (18).

Germ-free mice depict a reduced number of goblet cells, and mucin storage granules(22) as

well as reduced expression of AMPs(23). The haematoxylin eosin-stained intestinal sections

suggested increased intestinal tissue damage with irregularly organized villi, necrotic

submucosa layer, and detached intestinal cells in all the STM-infected non-OS-colonized

cohorts. However, OS pre-colonization restored the intestinal tissue architecture in all the mice

cohorts (Fig 2, D).

O. splanchnicus restricts _Salmonella_-mediated GVB damage by promoting tight junction gene expression

Salmonella breaches the gut vascular barrier (GVB) by inducing tight junction disruption.

Salmonella like other food-borne antigens enters into the Mesenteric Lymph Node (MLN) by

accessing the lymphatics and subsequently gains entry into the liver via the bloodstream(24).

The translocation of the pathogen across the blood endothelial cells is governed by the integrity

of the GVB(1). The GVB refers to the endothelial barrier and the microvasculature

characterized by the elaborate framework of the junctional complexes (1). The GVB

architecture is maintained by several tight junctions and adherens junction proteins that control

paracellular trafficking(25, 26). Other cell types associated with the microvasculature of the

GVB forming a vascular unit includes pericytes and fibroblasts(27). PV-1 (plasmalemma-

vesicle associated protein-1) expression is a marker of GVB damage and heightened PV-1

expression denotes EC permeability(28, 29). Our data depict heightened PV-1 marker

expression alongside reduced tight junction protein mRNA expression such as _Tjp1_ and

Claudin5 upon _Salmonella_ infection correlating with the previously observed increased

bacterial dissemination in blood and liver (Fig. 3, A-B, Fig. S1, A; Fig. 1 I-K). CD34, an

endothelial marker lining the blood vessels (30, 31), is induced upon OS colonization in

Salmonella-infected mice intestines indicative of intact vasculature (Fig. 3, B-D, Fig.S1, B).

On the contrary, OS mice cohorts exhibited reduced CD34 expression in secondary sites of

dissemination such as the liver, suggesting toward reduced vasculature (Fig.S1, C). Therefore,

OS pre-colonization attenuates the _Salmonella_ dissemination by exhibiting reduced PV-1

protein expression and promoting tight junction protein expression (Fig. 3, A-D). Angiogenesis

is one of the processes that facilitate bacterial dissemination. Previous studies in

Mycobacterium marinum have shown that transcriptional induction of pro-angiogenic markers

like *Vegfa* contributes to increased bacterial burden and dissemination(32). In our study, OS

pre-colonization in the gut resulted in reduced expression of the pro-angiogenic *Vegfa* in the

infected liver tissues, which coincided with the reduced *S.* Typhimurium burden in the

bloodstream and liver (Fig S1, D). Together, our results depict the ability of OS to suppress

angiogenesis. OS could exert its angiogenesis inhibitory effects even in instances of aggravated

dissemination conditions like in the case of SIRT1 and SIRT3 inhibitor treatment in mice.

Previous literature suggested reduced expression of *Axin2,* a β catenin target gene, upon

wildtype *Salmonella* infection, even after Wnt3a stimulation suggesting that *Salmonella* affects

the GVB by inhibiting canonical Wnt signalling (1). Here, our results suggest that OS pre-

colonization restores the *Salmonella*-triggered attenuated Wnt signalling response with

increased Axin2 expression in the *Salmonella*-infected intestinal tissues (Fig. S1, E). The

integrity of the infected mice gut was estimated by the gut permeability assay using FITC-

Dextran (Fig. 3, E). Our results indicate increased gut vascular permeability upon *Salmonella*

challenge which declined upon OS pre-colonisation, implicating the ability of OS to prevent

gut barrier disruption.

***O. splanchnicus* culture supernatant restricts *Salmonella* biofilm formation and**

intracellular proliferation in human intestinal cells

To delineate the mechanism behind the protective role of OS against *Salmonella* pathogenesis,

we performed *Salmonella* infection studies in human intestinal epithelial cell line Caco-2 in

the presence of OS. The intracellular survival assay suggested decreased STM invasion and

subsequently attenuated intracellular replication within the infected Caco-2 cells upon co-

infection with live OS and in the presence of OS culture supernatant (Fig 4, A-B). However,

STM co-infection with fixed OS showed percent invasion and intracellular replication like that

of STM infection (Fig 4, A-B). Together, these results hinted at the presence of some secreted

inhibitory components in the OS culture supernatant that has the propensity to limit STM

infection. The reduced invasion and proliferation of STM within Caco-2 cells in presence of

OS was subsequently validated in immunofluorescence studies, wherein STM showed a

significant reduction in invasion at 2hr p.i. and intracellular proliferation at 16hr p.i. in case of

OS co-infection (Fig 4, C-D). Similar results were obtained upon infection with the human-

restricted serovar *S.* Typhi (STY) to the Caco-2 cells wherein OS and its supernatant attenuated

STY invasion and intracellular replication (Fig. 4, E-F). Further, we assessed the *in vitro* growth

of the STM in co-culture conditions with OS or in the presence of OS culture supernatant in

anaerobic conditions to mimic the microaerophilic or hypoxic environment of the gut or in

aerobic culture conditions. We observed no significant delay *in vitro* growth of STM at its

initial lag to log phase of its growth in the presence of OS supernatant or with live OS under

anaerobic culture conditions (Fig S2, A-B). In aerobic growth conditions as well, *Salmonella*

growth remained unperturbed even in the presence of OS or its culture supernatant (Fig S2, C-

D). Several previous studies have corroborated the ability of commensal bacterial culture

supernatants to inhibit colonization and the biofilm formation of several pathogens. For

instance, a commensal bacterium, *Staphylococcus epidermis*, could inhibit biofilm formation

and nasal colonization of its pathogenic counterpart, *Staphylococcus aureus* (33). Moreover,

biofilm formation is also regulated at the interspecies level. Indole is an inter-species biofilm

regulator that decreases *E. coli* biofilm formation and facilitates biofilm formation of

pseudomonads (34). STM forms biofilm to colonize the host, evade host defence arsenals and

antibiotics, persist during chronic infections, and transmit to new hosts (35, 36). We, therefore,

examined the biofilm pellicle strength and biofilm formation of STM via crystal violet staining

on the solid-liquid interface in the presence or absence of live, PFA-fixed-OS or OS culture

supernatant by inoculating STM in biofilm-inducing media with low salinity. STM exhibited

biofilm formation defect in the presence of live OS or OS supernatant (Fig 4, G). However, the

STM biofilm inhibitory property of OS was diminished upon treatment with paraformaldehyde (PFA)-fixed OS (Fig 4, G). Further, qPCR-mediated gene expression studies of *Salmonella* biofilm genes revealed decreased expression of genes regulating biofilm (*csgD*, *csgA*, *bapA*) under treatment with live OS or its culture supernatant (Fig.4, H-J). Flagella-mediated attachment and several virulence factors such as SPI-1 and SPI-2 genes are responsible for *Salmonella* pathogenesis and its biofilm formation (37-39). Therefore, we evaluated a few of the *Salmonella* flagellar and SPI-1 and SPI-2 gene expression in the presence or absence of OS or its culture supernatant via quantitative real-time PCR. Our results depicted attenuated expression of flagellar gene (*fliC*), SPI-1 (*sipC*) and SPI-2 (*pipB2*) genes both in the presence of live OS and its spent media but not in presence of PFA fixed-OS (Fig. 4, K-M). The loss in *Salmonella* flagellar motility was further validated via TEM imaging wherein OS or its supernatant reduced the flagella formation of *Salmonella* considerably (Fig.4, N). Together, our results implicate the ability of OS to inhibit STM biofilm formation via active secretion of certain inhibitory molecules in the supernatant.

***O. splanchnicus* inhibitory effect on *Salmonella* is specific as *Enterococcus faecalis*, another gut resident microbe, fail to inhibit *Salmonella* intracellular proliferation or biofilm formation**

The resident gut microbes provide colonization resistance against invading pathogens by deploying several mechanisms, including the production of inhibitory molecules, nutrient competition, maintenance of the intestinal epithelial integrity, immune activation, and via the deployment of bacteriophages (40, 41). To understand whether our observed inhibitory trait of OS against *Salmonella* is due to a common colonization restriction phenomenon of gut microbes via competitive inhibition, or it is a specific phenomenon, we evaluated the role of another gut resident microbe, *Enterococcus faecalis* on *Salmonella* intracellular replication in human intestinal epithelial cells and *Salmonella* biofilm formation. *Enterococcus sp.* belong to

the phylum of Firmicutes in the family Enterococcaceae. Approximately, 10^6-10^7 *Enterococcus*

sp. reside in the human intestine with major abundance of *E. faecalis* (10^5-10^7 CFU/gm feces)

and *E. faecium* (10^4-10^5/gm feces) (42). *E. faecalis*, *E. faecium*, *Bifidobacterium sp.*

Lactobacillus sp., and *E. coli* colonize the gut of healthy breastfed infants during the initial 7-

10 days post birth (43). Our intracellular survival assay data showed no defect in *Salmonella*

invasion or intracellular replication capability in Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of *E.*

faecalis, its culture supernatant or PFA-fixed *E. faecalis* (Fig. S3, A-B). Moreover, *E. faecalis*

or its *E. faecalis* supernatant did not inhibit *Salmonella* biofilm formation (Fig. S3, C).

Together, our results suggest the inability of *E. faecalis* to inhibit *Salmonella* invasion,

intracellular proliferation or its *in vitro* biofilm formation, thereby highlighting the specificity

of OS in restricting *Salmonella* pathogenesis.

O. splanchnicus* confers protection against another foodborne pathogen *Listeria
monocytogenes

To understand whether OS exerts a common broad-spectrum protection or colonization

resistance against other foodborne pathogens such as *Listeria monocytogenes*, we orally

infected 6-8-week-old C57Bl/6 mice with 10^8 CFU of *L. monocytogenes* (LM) 1 day post

colonization with 10^5 CFU of *O. splanchnicus* for organ burden evaluation via oral gavage. For

survival study, mice were orally gavaged with 10^9 CFU of *L. monocytogenes*. OS-colonized

mice exhibited increased survival rates upon LM challenge compared to the non-colonized

mice cohort (Fig. 5, A). In line with the survival data, the increased bacterial burden was

observed in the blood, feces, intestinal tissue, MLN, spleen and liver alongside enhanced

percent loss in mice body weight in the case of *Listeria* infection in non-colonized mice group

with respect to OS-precolonized- mice group (Fig. 5, B-J). In a similar line to *Salmonella*

infection, OS mitigated host antimicrobial response with reduced expression of antimicrobial

peptide transcripts and Muc2 production during LM infection amounting to reduced intestinal

tissue damage. Further, OS promoted tight junction functions during *Listeria* infection with reduced expression of GVB damage marker, *PV-1* and angiogenesis marker, *Vegf* expression (Fig. S4, A-E). Moreover, OS colonization could restrict the *in vivo Salmonella* and *Listeria* biofilm within the spleens of the infected mice cohorts as opposed to the non-colonized mice cohorts (Fig.S4, F-G). We estimated the biofilm or the communities of bacterial cells within the spleen tissue via Calcofluor white staining (44). Calcofluor white stains the biofilm matrix or extracellular polymeric substances (EPS) comprised of cellulose (44, 45) and exopolysaccharides that help in the adherence of the bacterial cells. This is the first study demonstrating biofilm-like bacterial colonies of *Salmonella* or *Listeria* secreting EPS in spleens. Like *Salmonella*, *in vitro* culture of *Listeria* with OS or its culture supernatant led to a loss in flagella as evidenced via the TEM imaging (Fig.S4, H). Since flagella is one of the factors facilitating biofilm formation and invasion, OS could inhibit both *Salmonella* and *Listeria* colonisation and biofilm formation. Similar to *Salmonella* infection, OS colonization enhanced CD34 expression in *Listeria*-infected mice intestines and reduced CD34 expression in the *Listeria*-infected liver (Fig. S4, I-J). Further, LM exhibited attenuated intracellular proliferation within human intestinal Caco-2 cells upon live OS or OS supernatant treatment (Fig. 6). Altogether, this result hints at the potency of OS to act broadly against Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria.

The protective role of *O. splanchnicus* against *Salmonella* Typhimurium and *Listeria* monocytogenes persists even on administration post-establishment of infection

Next, we sought to examine whether the protective role of OS against *Salmonella* and *Listeria* is sustained when the infection has been fully developed and whether it can serve as a treatment regimen against foodborne diseases. Our results indicate the protective ability of OS against both foodborne pathogens in their intestinal phase of infection when administered at 1-day post-infection (dpi) as depicted by lower pathogen loads in all the organs and blood along with

reduced percent weight loss at 5th-day post-*Salmonella* or *Listeria* challenge in the OS-administered (1-dpi) cohort when compared to the untreated cohorts (Fig. 7,A-K, Fig. S5, A-C). Although the protective ability of OS persists even upon establishment of infection when administered at 3rd-day post-*Salmonella* or *Listeria* challenge as indicated by reduced organ loads and percent weight loss in the OS-colonized cohorts, the extent of protection is lower compared to its administration at 1-dpi (Fig. 7, L-W, Fig. S5, D-S), Further, the OS challenge at 1-dpi reduced the mice's susceptibility to the *Salmonella* and *Listeria* challenge(Fig. 7, L,R). However, administration of OS at 3-dpi delayed the death of the *Salmonella* and *Listeria*-infected mice cohorts by 1 day (Fig. 7, L,R). In line with the survival and organ burden data, OS treatment at both 1st and 3rd dpi reduced both *Salmonella* and *Listeria*-induced GVB damage with reduced PV-1 expression, mucin, AMPs*, and Vegf* expression, alongside promoting tight junction protein (*Tjp1* and *Claudin5*) and *Axin2* expression (Fig. S5, D-M). However, OS administration at 3-dpi conferred less protection than at 1-dpi as indicated by the protein expression profiles of Muc2, PV-1, and tight junction protein ZO-1 (Fig. S5, R-S). Moreover, the hematoxylin- eosin-stained intestinal sections revealed reduced intestinal tissue damage with restoration in the villi architecture in the 1- and 3-dpi OS-administered mice cohorts compared to the non-OS-treated groups (Fig.7, X).

Moreover, OS colonization could restrict the *in vivo Salmonella* and *Listeria* biofilm within the spleens of the infected mice cohorts as opposed to the non-colonized mice cohorts both when administered at 1-day and 3-day post-pathogen challenge. (Fig.7, Y-Z). Additionally, OS colonization mitigated gut vascular permeability during *Salmonella* and *Listeria* challenges as indicated by reduced FITC-dextran fluorescence units in the plasma both upon pre or post-OS colonization (Fig. S5, T).

323 Furthermore, OS alleviated *Salmonella*-induced intestinal inflammation with reduced IL-1β

324 production in the infected intestinal tissues both upon pre-colonization and post-colonization

325 at 1-dpi (Fig. S6).

Characterization of the inhibitory active molecule within *O. splanchnicus* culture

supernatant

Our results suggested that not only live OS but also its spent culture supernatant could inhibit

Salmonella invasion and intracellular proliferation in intestinal human epithelial cells.

Moreover, the OS and its supernatant could inhibit STM biofilm formation *in vitro*. This

inhibitory effect disappeared upon co-culture with paraformaldehyde-fixed-OS indicating the

presumable role of certain inhibitory microbial products secreted by metabolically live OS. To

delineate the nature of the secreted molecule/s, we subjected the supernatant to various

conditions such as high temperature, divalent cationic chelator, EDTA, and protease (proteinase

K), and subsequently assessed the biofilm formation (Fig. 8, A-C). Our biofilm assay suggested

that the active molecule is resistant to EDTA treatment and is stable at higher temperatures

(Fig. 8, A-B). Nevertheless, the active molecules within the fraction were sensitive to the

proteinase K treatment, suggesting the possibility of being protein in nature (Fig. 8, C). SDS-

PAGE of the OS supernatant revealed the size of the differential proteins with respect to the

media control ranged below 65kDa. (Fig. 8, D). Concentration-dependent estimation of the

biofilm activity of the supernatant revealed that the active molecules retain their activity at a

minimal concentration of 0.4% v/v (Fig. 8, E). We further fractionated the supernatant using

an Amicon 3k MWCO and 10k MWCO ultra filter device (Fig. 8, F-G). We found that the

active molecule/s is/ are higher than 3kDa cut-off range eliminating the role of small molecules

and ions (Fig. 8, F-G). A summary of the conditions tested for active molecule characterisation

and their effective outcome has been summarized in Fig. 8, H. Subsequently, we subjected the

culture supernatant to gel filtration chromatography (Fig. S7, A). Out of all the fractions tested,

around 24 fractions showed a biofilm inhibitory role. These 24 fractions were further subjected to a titration experiment to zero down upon the three fractions with the highest inhibitory activity (A82,A83,A84) (S7, B-D). The gel filtration standard curve run suggested that the active molecules fall in the size range of <60kDa and >3kDa (Fig. S7, A). These three fractions along with the total concentrated supernatant (serving as positive control) and fractions with no or least inhibitory activity (serving as negative control-A31,B12) were ultimately subjected to Reverse Phase LC-MS mass spectrometry. Upon analysis of the proteomics dataset (Fig. S7, E), we obtained 364 proteins showing enrichment in the positive fractions. Among the 364 proteins, 74 proteins exhibited known or predicted function as per UniProt and STRING database and 11 proteins were linked to antibacterial, bacteriostatic, flagella, and biofilm regulation based on data curation and literature survey (Table-S1). We selected bacteriocin proteins exhibiting direct association with antibacterial activity for further analysis. These proteins include bacteriocins (A0A412WSU3 and A0A412WSS0) which are antimicrobial peptides that can kill or inhibit closely related or unrelated bacterial strains(46, 47). We purified the bacteriocins via ammonium sulphate precipitation followed by gel filtration chromatography to obtain a single fraction comprising of bacteriocins with close-range molecular weight (6.6 kDa and 7.156kDa, respectively) (Fig. S8).

O. splanchnicus-derived purified peptide, bacteriocin, limits both *Salmonella* and *Listeria* pathogenesis *in vitro*

Treatment of the Caco-2 cells with the purified bacteriocin inhibited STM, STY, and LM invasion and fold proliferation without compromising host-cell viability (Fig. 9, A-D). Additionally, the purified bacteriocin treatment inhibited STM biofilm formation in a dose-dependent manner alongside reduced transcript level expression of *Salmonella* biofilm regulatory genes (Fig. S9, A-D). Moreover, bacteriocin treatment (10µg/ml) attenuated *Salmonella* virulence gene expression such as SPI-1 gene- *sipC*, SPI-2 gene-*pipB2,* and

flagellar gene *fliC* (Fig. S9, E-G). Subsequently, TEM imaging revealed a complete loss of *Listeria* flagella upon treatment with the OS-derived bacteriocin in contrast to *Salmonella* which retained few flagella even on bacteriocin treatment (Fig. 9, E-H). Furthermore, the motility assay demonstrated a significant swimming defect of *Listeria* and *Salmonella* upon treatment with either OS supernatant or bacteriocin to the untreated control (Fig. 9, I-J). Overall, our study depicts the novel role of OS-derived bacteriocin in limiting *Salmonella* and *Listeria* invasion and pathogenesis by regulating virulence effectors such as SPI-1, SPI-2 genes, biofilm regulatory genes, and flagella.

DISCUSSION

Salmonella gains access to the systemic sites by traversing the gut intestinal barrier via utilizing several routes. Its primary site of entry is the distal ileum wherein it induces the SPI-1 Type Three Secretion System (T3SS) effector proteins to facilitate its uptake. After its initial entry into the enterocytes and M-cells overlying the Peyer's patches, *Salmonella* colonizes the draining MLN and eventually disseminates to the liver and spleen via the circulating lymphatics and the bloodstream (48). *Salmonella* uptake by M cells facilitates its stealthy entry via avoidance of the mucus barrier. Additionally, the presence of flagella allows them to propel through the viscous mucus and activate the immune responses(18). The onset of systemic dissemination coincides with GVB disruption and loss of tight-junction protein expression (1). Several reports have suggested the protective role of gut commensals in maintaining gut epithelial health against food-borne pathogen insults. *E. coli* provide colonization resistance against STM in the presence of a specific microbial consortium by limiting galactitol wherein *Lachnospiraceae* consume the free sugar, conferring colonization resistance (49). Moreover, *E. coli* contribute to colonization resistance by competing with *S.* Enteritidis for aerobic respiration (50). Similarly, the commensal *Klebsiella michiganensis* retention or transmission provided colonization resistance to Enterobacteriaceae by exhibiting nutrient competition (51).

In this study, we report the broad-spectrum protective role of the gut commensal of bacteroidales order *O. splanchnicus* that limits *Salmonella* and *Listeria* invasion, pathogenesis, and systemic dissemination by promoting colonization resistance and regulating virulence effectors such as SPI-1, SPI-2, flagella, and biofilm regulatory genes. Additionally, not only OS but its culture supernatant could exert its inhibitory effect on *Salmonella* invasion and intracellular proliferation in intestinal human epithelial cells. Moreover, the OS and its supernatant could inhibit STM biofilm formation by regulating flagella formation. This STM biofilm inhibitory effect was however lost upon co-culture with paraformaldehyde-fixed-OS indicating the presumable role of certain inhibitory microbial products secreted by metabolically live OS. Further, our studies identified OS-produced bacteriocins responsible for restricting intracellular replication of *Salmonella* and *Listeria* in intestinal epithelial cells by regulating bacterial virulence arsenals such as biofilm regulatory genes, SPI-1, SPI-2 genes, and flagellar machinery. However, the presence of flagella on *Salmonella* post bacteriocin treatment hints towards the possibility of other secreted accessory molecules within the OS supernatant and warrants future research. Due to the proteinaceous nature of the bacteriocin, oral administration experiments in mice were aborted. Previous studies have suggested that bacteriocin expression by commensal bacteria can influence gut niche competition and bacteriocin delivery can serve as an effective therapeutic strategy to eliminate colonization of multi-drug resistant bacteria in the gastrointestinal tract without disrupting the indigenous microbiota (52, 53). Several studies have highlighted the role of commensal-produced bacteriocins. Bacteriocin-producing *Streptococcus salivarius* has been shown to effectively target the CRC-causing pathogen *Fusobacterium nucleatum* in a model of the human distal colon(54). *Lactobacillus plantarum* bacteriocin has been linked to intestinal and systemic improvements in diet-induced obese mice and confers epithelial barrier integrity (55). Further

studies show that a class IIa bacteriocin, Pediocin PA-1, has an anti-bacterial effect against *L.*

monocytogenes (56).

This study provides evidence about inter-species regulation of gut colonization in maintaining

gut homeostasis and protecting against several invading foodborne pathogens. Moreover, the

long-term protective ability conferred by OS during pre-or post-infection colonization to mice

against broad-spectrum foodborne pathogens such as *Salmonella* and *Listeria* highlights its

therapeutic potential as a prebiotic for prophylaxis or post-infection treatment option, paving

the way for future therapeutic interventions to thwart food-borne infections.

Materials and Methods

Bacterial Strains and Culture Conditions

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

constitutively expressing mCherry (pFPV25.1-mCherry-Amp^R, RFP), laboratory stock of

Enterococcus faecalis MTCC 439 (Ef), *Listeria monocytogenes* MTCC 657 (LM) expressing

mCherry and *Odoribacter splanchnicus* (OS) strain NCTC 10825 [1651/6] from ATCC were

used in this study. 4% paraformaldehyde-fixed-OS was used as killed bacteria control. The

STM, LM, and Ef bacterial strain was grown overnight in LB broth at 37 ^{0}C under 160 rpm

shaking conditions. OS was cultured in anaerobic condition in tryptic soy broth at 37ºC for 48-

72h after its revival from glycerol stock.

Preparation of Cell-free Bacterial Culture Supernatant

The overnight grown OS culture in tryptic soy broth was centrifuged at 10,000rpm for 10 min

and the supernatant was harvested. The collected supernatant was further subjected to another

two rounds to centrifugation to remove any residual cells. The supernatant was subsequently

filtered using a 0.2 µm filter and stored at -20˚C.

Animal Experiments

The animal experiments were conducted in accordance with the approved guidelines of the institutional animal ethics committee at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, India (Registration No: 48/GO/ReRcBiBt-S/Re-L/99/CPCSEA). All procedures involving the use of animals were performed according to the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee (IAEC)-approved protocol (CAF/Ethics/853/2021). 6–8 weeks old adult C57BL/6 male mice were used in this study (bred, housed, and provided (purchased) by Central Animal Facility, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore). After one day of OS colonization (10^5 CFU/mice via oral gavage), the mice were infected with 10^6 (organ burden) CFU or 10^8 CFU (for assessing survival) of *S*. Typhimurium, and 10^8 (organ burden) or 10^9 (survival) CFU of *L. monocytogenes* via oral gavage. The colonization of *O. splanchnicus* was confirmed via RT-qPCR mediated quantitation of OS 16S rRNA from the mice fecal (3 fecal pellets harvested from the intestine and resuspended in Trizol) and ileal samples at 6th day post-OS colonization. Infected mice were subjected to intraperitoneal injection of either 1 mg/kg body weight of SIRT1 inhibitor EX-527 (Sigma-Aldrich), or SIRT3 inhibitor 3TYP (Selleck Chemical) or vehicle control alone on every alternate day. For post-infection OS administration studies, OS was orally administered (10^5 CFU/ mice) post 1 or 3dpi. 5-day post-infection, mice were euthanized, dissected out, and blood and organs were harvested. The bacterial organ load was enumerated by plating the tissue homogenates on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS) agar plates for *Salmonella* or LB plates containing 50µg/ml of Ampicillin for LM. The harvested tissues and the fecal samples were collected in protein lysis buffer and TRIzol (Takara) for protein and RNA extraction respectively and were stored at -80ºC. For calculating percentage survival, the infected mice cohorts were monitored till fatality and fatalities were reported.

Blood collection and serum preparation

Blood collection was performed on the 5th day post-infection via cardiac puncture post-

euthanization of the mouse. The collected blood was allowed to clot by incubating the vials at

room temperature for 45 minutes. After allowing the standing time of 45 mins, centrifugation

was performed at 2000g for 15 minutes in a refrigerated centrifuge. Following the

centrifugation, the clear, yellowish supernatant was transferred to an autoclaved microfuge tube

and stored at -80ºC till further downstream processing.

ELISA

Cytokines in mice serum were quantified according to the manufacturer's instructions(12, 57).

Briefly, 96-well ELISA plates of IL-6 ELISA kit (BD Bioscience- Cat No-555240) were coated

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

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

and incubated with 50µl of serum samples in duplicates for 2 h at room temperature.

Subsequently, plates were washed and incubated with detection antibody and enzyme reagent

for 1 h at room temperature (BD Bioscience). TMB (Sigma) was used as a substrate and

reactions were stopped with 2 N H_2SO_4.

For the estimation of IL-1β, pre-coated ELISA (SARD Biosciences-Cat:SB-EKM1085) plates

of IL-1β ELISA kit were used, and ELISA was performed as per the manufacturer's protocol.

The ileal tissues were harvested in phosphate-buffered saline solution and homogenized using

gentleMACS homogenizer. The homogenized tissue samples were centrifuged to collect cell-

free supernatant and the cell-free supernatant was subjected to ELISA for cytokine estimation.

Absorbance was measured at 450 nm wavelength in Tecan Plate reader and the concentration

of cytokines were interpolated from a standard curve.

Quantitative Real Time PCR

Total RNA was isolated from the ileal section of the intestinal tissues or feces harvested in

TRIzol (Takara) as per manufacturer's protocol. RNA was quantified using Nano Drop

(Thermo-Fischer scientific). Integrity of isolated RNA was detected by performing 2% agarose

gel electrophoresis. 3 μg of total isolated RNA was subjected to DNaseI (Thermo Fischer

Scientific) treatment at 37°C for 1 hr followed by heat inactivation at 75°C in the presence of

5mM concentration of EDTA for 10 mins. The mRNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using

oligo (dT)$_{18}$ primer, random hexamer primer, buffer, dNTPs and reverse transcriptase (Takara)

as per manufacturer's protocol. The expression profile of target gene was evaluated using

specific primers (Table-S2) by using SYBR green RT-PCR master mix (Takara) in Applied

Biosystems (Quantstudio 5) or BioRad Real time PCR instrument. β-actin was used as an

internal control for mammalian genes and for bacterial genes 16S rRNA was used. All the

reaction was setup in 384 well plate with three replicates for each sample.

Western blotting
505
The harvested tissue samples were lysed in ice-cold RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8.0, 150

mM NaCl, 5mM EDTA, 1% NP-40, 1 % Sodium deoyxycholate, 1% SDS) containing protease

inhibitor cocktail (Roche). Total protein was estimated using Bradford reagent (BioRad).

Protein samples were denatured in **Laemmli SDS loading buffer** at 95ºC for 10 min and then

subjected to separation on 12% SDS-PAGE gels followed by transfer onto activated 0.45μm

PVDF membrane. Finally, the membrane was blocked with 5% skimmed milk in TBST (Tris

Buffered Saline containing 0.1% Tween-20) and probed with appropriate primary (Table-S3)

and secondary HRP-conjugated antibodies. The blots were developed using ECL substrate

(Bio-Rad) using a Chemidoc (BioRad). All densitometric analysis was performed using

ImageJ software.

Immunohistochemistry

The harvested tissues were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, embedded in paraffin and 5 μm

thick paraffin sections were collected on poly-lysine coated glass slides. The sectioned tissue

samples were deparaffinized using standard protocol. Briefly, the slides containing the

paraffinized tissues were immersed in xylene for 10 minutes and this step was repeated twice.

After the xylene treatment, the tissues were subjected to absolute alcohol treatment for 5

minutes twice, followed by 95% and 70% alcohol treatment for 5 minutes. The slides were

rinsed in water followed by boiling step in water for 2 minutes and then dried. Primary antibody

staining of the deparaffinized sections was performed with specific primary antibody in the

presence of a permeabilizing agent, 0.01% saponin (Sigma) dissolved in 2.5% BSA containing

PBS at 4°C for overnight. Following wash with PBS, sections were stained with appropriate

secondary antibody tagged with fluorochrome for 1 hr at RT. This was followed by DAPI

staining and mounting. For in vivo estimation of biofilm, deparaffinized tissue samples were

stained with Calcofluor White (Sigma) stain for 20 min at RT. All immunofluorescence images

were obtained using Zeiss multi-photon 880 microscope and were analyzed using ZEN black

2012 software.

Haematoxylin and Eosin Staining

The harvested ileal tissues were collected and fixed using 3.5% paraformaldehyde. The fixed

liver was then dehydrated using a gradually increasing concentration of ethanol and embedded

in paraffin. 5μm sections were collected on coated plates. Sections were further rehydrated and

then stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Images were collected in a Leica microscope.

The scoring of the pathological changes is graded as 0-4; for each of the pathological lesions

(Severe/ marked -4; Moderate -3; mild -2; Minor/minimum -1; No pathology -0) considering

the intestinal inflammation and associated villi injury as described previously (58, 59).

Cell Culture

Human colorectal adenocarcinoma cell line Caco-2 were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Media (DMEM) (Lonza) and supplemented with 10% FCS (Fetal calf serum, Gibco) and 1% non-essential amino acid solution (Sigma Aldrich) at 37ºC temperature in the presence of 5% CO_2 in humidified incubator. Prior to each experiment, cells were seeded into 24 well or 6 well plate as per requirement at a confluency of 60%.

Intracellular proliferation or gentamicin protection assay

Caco-2 epithelial were infected with 3 to 4 h old log phase *S*. Typhimurium (STM) or *Listeria monocytogenes* (LM) or *S*. Typhi (STY) bacterial culture, STM (or LM or STY) with *O. splanchnicus*, STM (or LM or STY) in presence of *O. splanchnicus* supernatant and STM along with PFA-fixed OS at an MOI of 10. For attachment of bacteria to the cells, tissue culture plates were subjected to centrifugation at 600xg for 5 min and incubated at 37 ^{0}C humified incubator with 5% CO_2 for 25 min. Following infection of the cells with STM at an MOI of 10, cells were treated with DMEM (Sigma) + 10% FBS (Gibco) containing 100 μg/ml gentamicin for 1 hr. Subsequently, the gentamicin concentration was reduced to 25 μg/ml and maintained until the specified time point. Post 2hr and 16hr post-infection, cells were lysed in 0.1% triton-X-100. Lysed cells were serially diluted and plated on *Salmonella-Shigella* (SS) or LB agar to obtain colony-forming units (CFU). Percent invasion was determined using the following formula (60, 61):

Percent invasion= [CFU at 2 h]/ [CFU of pre-inoculum] X 100

Fold proliferation was calculated as CFU at 16hr divided by CFU at 2hr.

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

Immunofluorescence confocal microscopic studies

At the specified time points post infection with mCherry-tagged STM, or GFP-tagged OS or

with both mCherry-STM and GFP-OS, cells were fixed with 3.5% paraformaldehyde for 15

min. Primary antibody staining was performed with specific primary antibody in the presence

of a permeabilizing agent, 0.01% saponin (Sigma) dissolved in 2.5% BSA containing PBS at

4°C for overnight or for 6hr at room temperature (RT). Following this, cells were washed with

PBS stained with appropriate secondary antibody tagged with fluorochrome for 1 hr at RT. This

was followed by DAPI staining and mounting of the coverslip onto a clean glass slide using

the mounting media containing the anti-fade agent. The coverslip sides were sealed with a

transparent nail paint. All immunofluorescence images were obtained using Zeiss Multiphoton

880 and were analyzed using ZEN black 2012 software.

Growth Curve analysis

For *in vitro* growth curve experiments a single colony of STM and OS was inoculated in 5mL

of LB broth singly or in co-culture and grown overnight at 37ºC in anaerobic jar. In another

set, STM was inoculated in 5mL of LB in presence of OS supernatant. Overnight-grown

stationary phase bacteria were sub-cultured at a ratio of 1: 100 in freshly prepared LB in

presence or absence of OS supernatant and kept at 37ºC. At different time intervals, aliquots

were taken for measurement of [OD]600nm by TECAN 96 well microplate reader and were

plated for CFU enumeration.

Biofilm-inducing growth media and conditions

LB medium lacking NaCl and containing 1% casein enzyme hydrolysate (Hi-Media, India) and

0.5% yeast extract (Hi-Media, India)) was used as biofilm media as per previous literature (38).

Overnight grown culture was subcultured in 2 ml biofilm medium at the dilution of 1:100 in a

flat-bottom 24-well plate (Tarsons, India) and incubated at 28˚C for 72 h without shaking.

Biofilm inoculation with OS culture supernatant

20 µl of STM overnight culture and indicated volume (1% v/v or as indicated) of the OS culture supernatants were added to 2 ml of biofilm media and incubated under biofilm-promoting conditions(38). For co-culture experiments, the overnight cultures of the STM and OS or STM and PFA-fixed OS were added in a 1:1 ratio to 2 ml of biofilm media and incubated under biofilm-inducing conditions.

Crystal Violet Staining

Post 72 h of biofilm induction, the media was discarded, and the plates were thoroughly washed in water. The plates were dried, and 2 ml of 1% Crystal Violet (CV) was added to each well and incubated for 15 min. Post 15 min incubation, the CV stain was removed, and the plate was thoroughly rinsed in water to remove excess stain. The stained biofilm was destained with 70% ethanol, and the intensity of the colour of the destained solution was quantified at OD_{595} in the Tecan plate reader (Infinite Pro 200) (38).

Glass bead assay

1 mm glass beads were added onto the pellicle to assess the strength of the pellicle at the air-liquid interface. The initial weight of the glass beads was noted. The glass beads were added until the pellicle collapsed, and the final weight was noted down and plotted.

Gut Permeability Assay

The infected mice cohorts were orally administered with FITC Dextran (25mg/kg,FD-4-100MG, Sigma) 4h before euthanization. The blood plasma was collected post-euthanization by cardiac puncture followed by centrifugation. The blood plasma was evaluated for mean fluorescence via plate reader (TECAN) and flow cytometry(CytoFlex, Beckman).

MTT Assay

609 Post-16h treatment of pre-seeded Caco-2 cells with 10μg/ml of bacteriocin, MTT staining

610 solution (0.5mg/ml) was added to each well followed by incubation at 37ºC CO_2incubator for

611 4h. 50μl of DMSO was added per well for solubilizing the formazan crystals. Absorbance was

612 measured at 570nm using a plate reader (TECAN).

Transmission electron microscopy

Overnight STM or LM-grown cultures (in the presence or absence of OS supernatant or

bacteriocin) were subcultured into fresh media (1:10) ratio and incubated at 37ºC for 6 hours

under shaking conditions. These samples were centrifugated at 1000rpm for 10 min to obtain

the bacterial pellet. The bacterial pellet was subjected to PBS wash twice via centrifugation at

1000 rpm for 10 min.5 μl of the finally resuspended cell suspension was added on a glow-

discharged copper-grid, air dried, stained with 1% uranyl acetate for 30 s, and visualized under

a transmission electron microscope (JEM-100 CX II; JEOL).

Supernatant Treatment

The supernatant was treated with 7.5 mM concentrations of EDTA and incubated at 65 °C for

1 h. 10 μl of proteinase-K (NEB, stock 20 mg/ml) was added to the 200 μl supernatant and

incubated at 37 °C for 1 h. The proteinase was inactivated with 0.5 mM PMSF and incubated

at 28 °C for 1 h. The supernatant was subjected to heating at 37˚C (60 min), 65˚C (15 min) or

95˚C (15 min) and immediately frozen at − 20˚C (38). Post-treatment, the supernatants were

used to inoculate the biofilm to test the nature of the biofilm inhibitory molecules.

Supernatant concentration and molecular weight-based separation

629 4 ml of the supernatants were transferred to the 3k MWCO or 10k MWCO Amicon ultra filter

630 centrifugal device (Amicon® Ultra-4 centrifugal filter device, 3k MWCO, UFC800324;

631 Amicon® Ultra-4 Centrifugal filter Unit, 10k MWCO, UFC801024) and centrifuged at 4000 g

632 for 30 min in a swing bucket rotor(38). The concentrated solute from the bottom of the filter

633 device and the flowthrough were collected and subjected to biofilm inoculation.

Size Exclusion Chromatography

The bacterial supernatant was concentrated to 0.5ml using 3k MWCO-Amicon-Ultra-4-

centrifugal unit and loaded onto the Superdex 200pg size exclusion column (XK16/60, 124mL;

Cytiva, USA), pre-equilibrated Tris-Cl buffer (pH-8) containing 100mM NaCl and 20mM Tris-

Cl. The sample was eluted with the same buffer at a flow rate of 0.8mL/min, and 1mL fractions

were collected. The fractions corresponding to the elution peaks were analyzed for biofilm

inhibition activity and subjected to mass spectrometry.

LC/MS analysis of the supernatant fractions

The concentrated gel filtration fractions of supernatants were subjected to in-solution trypsin

digestion for LC Q-TOF MS analysis. Briefly, 100 μg of total protein was resuspended in

100 μl of 7-8M of urea buffer. To this, 5 μl 200mM DTT was added and incubated at room

temperature for 1 hr, followed by alkylation with 20μl of 200 mM iodoacetamide and

incubation at room temperature for 1h in the dark. This was followed by the addition of 1mM

of Calcium chloride and incubation at RT for 10 min. For protein digestion, trypsin solution

was added to the sample to a final trypsin to protein ratio of 1:30 (w/w) and incubated at 37˚C

for 16 h, with frequent shaking. The reaction was stopped by adding 0.1% formic acid to adjust

the pH to 3-4. The digested protein samples were desalted using a reverse phase C-18 column

(Acclaim prep EASY-Spray (C18-RP)) using mobile phase solvent A-2% acetonitrile and

solvent B- 80% acetonitrile. The sample injection volume was 10μl. All the samples were

analyzed using Thermo Scientific SII for Xcalibur method. The MS scan was acquired using

Orbitrap detector with 60000 resolution in the positive polarity and scan range (m/z) 350-2000.

The ion source type was NSI with static voltage; positive ion (V)- 2200V and negative ion (V)-

600 along with temperature settings at 275ºC. This was followed by ddMS^2 IT HCD with 30%

fragmentation HCD collision energy using ion trap detector. The raw data was analyzed using

Proteome Discoverer 2.5 against the *O. splanchnicus* proteome available in UniProt (Proteome

ID: UP000006657).

Purification of bacteriocin

O. splanchnicus culture supernatant was concentrated within the range of >3kDa and <10kDa

using the Amicon Ultra-4 Centrifugal filter units of 10MWCO and 3MWCO. The concentrated

cell-free supernatant containing the bacteriocin (~7kDa) was precipitated by ammonium

sulphate (80% to 98%). The precipitate was collected by centrifugation at 12000rpm for 30

min and dissolved in 1X PBS. The dissolved precipitate was again filtrated using the 3KDa

cutoff Amicon centrifugal filter units. This concentrated fraction was further subjected to Fast

Performance Liquid Chromatography using Superdex 75 Increase 10/300 GL- 24ml volume

(GE Healthcare) column. The column was equilibrated with 1X Phosphate Buffered Saline

buffer and 0.5ml of concentrated sample (23.6 mg/ml) was injected into the column. Based on

the increase in Absorbance units at 280nm from baseline, 0.3ml fractions were collected at a

retention volume of 13.3ml to 21.8ml (Fig. S9). The fractions were analyzed by 20% SDS-

PAGE electrophoresis and stained with Coomassie staining solution.

In vitro **swim motility assay**

674 2 µl ($2*10^6$ CFU/ml) of treated or untreated stationary phase bacterial samples were spotted on

675 the 0.3% agar (LB-STM, BHI-LM) plates supplemented with 0.5% yeast extract, 1% casein

676 enzyme hydrolysate, 0.5% NaCl, and 0.5% glucose. The plates were incubated at 37°C and

677 images were taken every 6 h (STM) or 24h (LM) using the camera of Biorad illuminator.

Statistical analysis

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

Statistical significance was determined by Student's t-test or One-way ANOVA followed by

Dunnett's Multiple Comparisons test to obtain p values. ANOVA was used during comparison

among three or more groups whereas Student's t-test was used to compare the difference

between two groups. Mann Whitney t-test was used as a non-parametric counterpart of Student

t-test when variances differed. The log-rank test also known as Mantel-Cox test is used to

compare the survival percentages of the mice groups. Adjusted p-values below 0.05 are

considered statistically significant (****$p<0.0001$, *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p<0.01$, * $p<0.05$). The

results are expressed as mean $\pm$ SD or SEM of three independent experiments.

Acknowledgements

690 We thank Nikhita Kirthivasan for her support during the commencement of the project.

691 We also thank our Divisional Mass Spectrometry facility, TEM facility, Departmental

692 Confocal Facility, Divisional Flowcytometry Facility and Central Animal Facility at IISc.

Funding

This work was supported by the DAE SRC fellowship (DAE00195) and DBT-IISc partnership

umbrella program for advanced research in biological sciences and Bioengineering to DC.

Infrastructure support from ICMR (Centre for Advanced Study in Molecular Medicine), DST

(FIST), UGC (special assistance) and TATA fellowship is highly acknowledged.

DH sincerely acknowledges the CSIR- SPM fellowship for her financial support.

DM and RV are supported by MHRD-GATE and CSIR fellowships respectively.

The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or

preparation of the manuscript.

Author Contribution

Conceptualization: DH, DC

Methodology: DH, DM, RV, VD (Gel Filtration Chromatography), DD (Fast Performance
Liquid Chromatography)

Investigation: DH, DM, RV, VD (Gel Filtration Chromatography), DD (Size exclusion
chromatography for bacteriocin purification), RSR (Scoring of haemoxylin and eosin-
stained samples)

Visualization: DH, DM, RV

Formal analysis: DH

Funding acquisition: DC

Project administration: DH, DC

Supervision: DC, UT (Proteomics), TH (Size Exclusion Chromatography),

MG (Size Exclusion Chromatography)

Writing – original draft: DH

Writing – review & editing: DH, DM, RV, RSR, VD, DD, TH, MG, UT, DC

Competing interests Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials.

The article has been submitted to the preprint server (62).

REFERENCES

1. Spadoni I, Zagato E, Bertocchi A, Paolinelli R, Hot E, Di Sabatino A, et al. A gut-vascular barrier
controls the systemic dissemination of bacteria. Science (New York, NY). 2015;350(6262):830-4.
2. Brescia P, Rescigno M. The gut vascular barrier: a new player in the gut–liver–brain axis.
Trends in Molecular Medicine. 2021;27(9):844-55.
3. Ghosh S, Whitley CS, Haribabu B, Jala VR. Regulation of Intestinal Barrier Function by
Microbial Metabolites. Cellular and Molecular Gastroenterology and Hepatology. 2021;11(5):1463-
82.
4. Zhao Y, Chen F, Wu W, Sun M, Bilotta AJ, Yao S, et al. GPR43 mediates microbiota metabolite
SCFA regulation of antimicrobial peptide expression in intestinal epithelial cells via activation of
mTOR and STAT3. Mucosal immunology. 2018;11(3):752-62.
5. Schulthess J, Pandey S, Capitani M, Rue-Albrecht KC, Arnold I, Franchini F, et al. The short
chain fatty acid butyrate imprints an antimicrobial program in macrophages. Immunity.
2019;50(2):432-45. e7.
6. Hajra D, Kirthivasan N, Chakravortty D. Symbiotic Synergy from Sponges to Humans:
Microflora-Host Harmony Is Crucial for Ensuring Survival and Shielding against Invading Pathogens.
ACS infectious diseases. 2024;10(2):317-36.
7. Hajra D, Rajmani RS, Chaudhary AD, Gupta SK, Chakravortty D. Salmonella-induced SIRT1 and
SIRT3 are crucial for maintaining the metabolic switch in bacteria and host for successful
pathogenesis. eLife Sciences Publications, Ltd; 2024.
8. Hajra D, Rajmani RS, Chaudhary AD, Gupta SK, Chakravortty D. Salmonella-induced SIRT1 and
SIRT3 are crucial for maintaining the metabolic switch in bacteria and host for successful
pathogenesis. bioRxiv. 2024:2022.11.21.517246.
9. Garcia-del Portillo F, Foster JW, Finlay BB. Role of acid tolerance response genes in
Salmonella typhimurium virulence. Infection and immunity. 1993;61(10):4489-92.
10. Haraga A, Ohlson MB, Miller SI. Salmonellae interplay with host cells. Nat Rev Microbiol.
2008;6(1):53-66.
11. Hensel M. Evolution of pathogenicity islands of Salmonella enterica. International journal of
medical microbiology : IJMM. 2004;294(2-3):95-102.

12.   Hajra D. Understanding the mechanism of host deacetylase SIRT1 and SIRT3 in the
modulation of Salmonella pathogenesis. 2024.
13.   Wang J, Lang T, Shen J, Dai J, Tian L, Wang X. Core Gut Bacteria Analysis of Healthy Mice.
Frontiers in microbiology. 2019;10:887.
14.   Hiippala K, Barreto G, Burrello C, Diaz-Basabe A, Suutarinen M, Kainulainen V, et al. Novel
Odoribacter splanchnicus Strain and Its Outer Membrane Vesicles Exert Immunoregulatory Effects in
vitro. Frontiers in microbiology. 2020;11:575455.
15.   Xing C, Wang M, Ajibade AA, Tan P, Fu C, Chen L, et al. Microbiota regulate innate immune
signaling and protective immunity against cancer. Cell host & microbe. 2021;29(6):959-74.e7.
16.   Balakrishnan A, Schnare M, Chakravortty D. Of men not mice: bactericidal/permeability-
increasing protein expressed in human macrophages acts as a phagocytic receptor and modulates
entry and replication of Gram-negative bacteria. Frontiers in immunology. 2016;7:455.
17.   Chatterjee R, Chowdhury AR, Nair AV, Hajra D, Kar A, Datey A, et al. Salmonella Typhimurium
PgtE is an essential arsenal to defend against the host resident antimicrobial peptides.
Microbiological research. 2023;271:127351.
18.   McGuckin MA, Lindén SK, Sutton P, Florin TH. Mucin dynamics and enteric pathogens. Nature
reviews Microbiology. 2011;9(4):265-78.
19.   Estimates of the global, regional, and national morbidity, mortality, and aetiologies of lower
respiratory infections in 195 countries, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of
Disease Study 2016. The Lancet Infectious diseases. 2018;18(11):1191-210.
20.   Davis CW, Dickey BF. Regulated airway goblet cell mucin secretion. Annual review of
physiology. 2008;70:487-512.
21.   Enss ML, Cornberg M, Wagner S, Gebert A, Henrichs M, Eisenblätter R, et al.
Proinflammatory cytokines trigger MUC gene expression and mucin release in the intestinal cancer
cell line LS180. Inflammation research : official journal of the European Histamine Research Society
[et al]. 2000;49(4):162-9.
22.   Hill RR, Cowley HM, Andremont A. Influence of colonizing micro-flora on the mucin
histochemistry of the neonatal mouse colon. The Histochemical journal. 1990;22(2):102-5.
23.   Cash HL, Whitham CV, Behrendt CL, Hooper LV. Symbiotic bacteria direct expression of an
intestinal bactericidal lectin. Science (New York, NY). 2006;313(5790):1126-30.
24.   Goubier A, Dubois B, Gheit H, Joubert G, Villard-Truc F, Asselin-Paturel C, et al. Plasmacytoid
Dendritic Cells Mediate Oral Tolerance. Immunity. 2008;29(3):464-75.
25.   Müller-Redetzky HC, Suttorp N, Witzenrath M. Dynamics of pulmonary endothelial barrier
function in acute inflammation: mechanisms and therapeutic perspectives. Cell and tissue research.
2014;355(3):657-73.
26.   Daneman R, Rescigno M. The gut immune barrier and the blood-brain barrier: are they so
different? Immunity. 2009;31(5):722-35.
27.   Yuan SY, Rigor RR. Integrated Systems Physiology: From Molecule to Function to Disease.
Regulation of Endothelial Barrier Function. San Rafael (CA): Morgan & Claypool Life Sciences

Copyright © 2011 by Morgan & Claypool Life Sciences.; 2010.
28.   Wang Y, Rattner A, Zhou Y, Williams J, Smallwood PM, Nathans J. Norrin/Frizzled4 signaling in
retinal vascular development and blood brain barrier plasticity. Cell. 2012;151(6):1332-44.
29.   Liebner S, Corada M, Bangsow T, Babbage J, Taddei A, Czupalla CJ, et al. Wnt/beta-catenin
signaling controls development of the blood-brain barrier. The Journal of cell biology.
2008;183(3):409-17.
30.   Simmons DL, Satterthwaite AB, Tenen DG, Seed B. Molecular cloning of a cDNA encoding
CD34, a sialomucin of human hematopoietic stem cells. Journal of immunology (Baltimore, Md :
1950). 1992;148(1):267-71.
31.   Pusztaszeri MP, Seelentag W, Bosman FT. Immunohistochemical expression of endothelial
markers CD31, CD34, von Willebrand factor, and Fli-1 in normal human tissues. The journal of
histochemistry and cytochemistry : official journal of the Histochemistry Society. 2006;54(4):385-95.

32.   Oehlers SH, Cronan MR, Scott NR, Thomas MI, Okuda KS, Walton EM, et al. Interception of
host angiogenic signalling limits mycobacterial growth. Nature. 2015;517(7536):612-5.
33.   Iwase T, Uehara Y, Shinji H, Tajima A, Seo H, Takada K, et al. Staphylococcus epidermidis Esp
inhibits Staphylococcus aureus biofilm formation and nasal colonization. Nature.
2010;465(7296):346-9.
34.   Lee J, Jayaraman A, Wood TK. Indole is an inter-species biofilm signal mediated by SdiA. BMC
microbiology. 2007;7(1):1-15.
35.   Fux CA, Costerton JW, Stewart PS, Stoodley P. Survival strategies of infectious biofilms. Trends
in microbiology. 2005;13(1):34-40.
36.   Costerton JW, Stewart PS, Greenberg EP. Bacterial biofilms: a common cause of persistent
infections. Science (New York, NY). 1999;284(5418):1318-22.
37.   Hajra D, Nair AV, Chakravortty D. An elegant nano-injection machinery for sabotaging the
host: Role of Type III secretion system in virulence of different human and animal pathogenic
bacteria. Physics of life reviews. 2021;38:25-54.
38.   Chandra K, Nair AV, Chatterjee R, Muralidhara P, Singh A, Kamanna S, et al. Absence of
proline-peptide transporter YjiY in Salmonella Typhimurium leads to secretion of factors which
inhibits intra-species biofilm formation. Microbiological research. 2023;273:127411.
39.   Jennings ME, Quick LN, Ubol N, Shrom S, Dollahon N, Wilson JW. Characterization of
Salmonella type III secretion hyper-activity which results in biofilm-like cell aggregation. PloS one.
2012;7(3):e33080.
40.   Ducarmon QR, Zwittink RD, Hornung BVH, van Schaik W, Young VB, Kuijper EJ. Gut Microbiota
and Colonization Resistance against Bacterial Enteric Infection. Microbiology and molecular biology
reviews : MMBR. 2019;83(3).
41.   Caballero-Flores G, Pickard JM, Núñez G. Microbiota-mediated colonization resistance:
mechanisms and regulation. Nature Reviews Microbiology. 2023;21(6):347-60.
42.   Qin J, Li R, Raes J, Arumugam M, Burgdorf KS, Manichanh C, et al. A human gut microbial
gene catalogue established by metagenomic sequencing. Nature. 2010;464(7285):59-65.
43.   Gewolb IH, Schwalbe RS, Taciak VL, Harrison TS, Panigrahi P. Stool microflora in extremely
low birthweight infants. Archives of disease in childhood Fetal and neonatal edition.
1999;80(3):F167-73.
44.   Chakraborty P, Bajeli S, Kaushal D, Radotra BD, Kumar A. Biofilm formation in the lung
contributes to virulence and drug tolerance of Mycobacterium tuberculosis. Nature communications.
2021;12(1):1606.
45.   Yamamoto K, Tsujimura Y, Ato M. Catheter-associated Mycobacterium intracellulare biofilm
infection in C3HeB/FeJ mice. Sci Rep. 2023;13(1):17148.
46.   Heilbronner S, Krismer B, Brötz-Oesterhelt H, Peschel A. The microbiome-shaping roles of
bacteriocins. Nature reviews Microbiology. 2021;19(11):726-39.
47.   Cotter PD, Ross RP, Hill C. Bacteriocins - a viable alternative to antibiotics? Nature reviews
Microbiology. 2013;11(2):95-105.
48.   Watson KG, Holden DW. Dynamics of growth and dissemination of Salmonella in vivo.
Cellular microbiology. 2010;12(10):1389-97.
49.   Eberl C, Weiss AS, Jochum LM, Durai Raj AC, Ring D, Hussain S, et al. E. coli enhance
colonization resistance against Salmonella Typhimurium by competing for galactitol, a context-
dependent limiting carbon source. Cell host & microbe. 2021;29(11):1680-92.e7.
50.   Litvak Y, Mon KKZ, Nguyen H, Chanthavixay G, Liou M, Velazquez EM, et al. Commensal
Enterobacteriaceae Protect against Salmonella Colonization through Oxygen
Competition. Cell host & microbe. 2019;25(1):128-39.e5.
51.   Oliveira RA, Ng KM, Correia MB, Cabral V, Shi H, Sonnenburg JL, et al. Klebsiella
michiganensis transmission enhances resistance to Enterobacteriaceae gut invasion by nutrition
competition. Nat Microbiol. 2020;5(4):630-41.

52.	Kommineni S, Bretl DJ, Lam V, Chakraborty R, Hayward M, Simpson P, et al. Bacteriocin
production augments niche competition by enterococci in the mammalian gastrointestinal tract.
Nature. 2015;526(7575):719-22.
53.	Kommineni S, Kristich CJ, Salzman NH. Harnessing bacteriocin biology as targeted therapy in
the GI tract. Gut Microbes. 2016;7(6):512-7.
54.	Lawrence GW, McCarthy N, Walsh CJ, Kunyoshi TM, Lawton EM, O'Connor PM, et al. Effect of
a bacteriocin-producing Streptococcus salivarius on the pathogen Fusobacterium nucleatum in a
model of the human distal colon. Gut Microbes. 2022;14(1):2100203.
55.	Heeney DD, Zhai Z, Bendiks Z, Barouei J, Martinic A, Slupsky C, et al. Lactobacillus plantarum
bacteriocin is associated with intestinal and systemic improvements in diet-induced obese mice and
maintains epithelial barrier integrity in vitro. Gut Microbes. 2019;10(3):382-97.
56.	Kuniyoshi TM, O'Connor PM, Lawton E, Thapa D, Mesa-Pereira B, Abulu S, et al. An oxidation
resistant pediocin PA-1 derivative and penocin A display effective anti-Listeria activity in a model
human gut environment. Gut Microbes. 2022;14(1):2004071.
57.	Gogoi M, Chandra K, Sarikhani M, Ramani R, Sundaresan NR, Chakravortty D. Salmonella
escapes adaptive immune response via SIRT2 mediated modulation of innate immune response in
dendritic cells. PLoS pathogens. 2018;14(11):e1007437.
58.	Schaefer JS, Montufar-Solis D, Nakra N, Vigneswaran N, Klein JR. Small intestine inflammation
in Roquin-mutant and Roquin-deficient mice. PloS one. 2013;8(2):e56436.
59.	Erben U, Loddenkemper C, Doerfel K, Spieckermann S, Haller D, Heimesaat MM, et al. A
guide to histomorphological evaluation of intestinal inflammation in mouse models. International
journal of clinical and experimental pathology. 2014;7(8):4557-76.
60.	Hajra D, Nair AV, Roy Chowdhury A, Mukherjee S, Chatterjee R, Chakravortty D. Salmonella
Typhimurium U32 peptidase, YdcP, promotes bacterial survival by conferring protection against in
vitro and in vivo oxidative stress. Microbial pathogenesis. 2022;173(Pt B):105862.
61.	Roy Chowdhury A, Hajra D, Mukherjee D, Nair AV, Chakravortty D. Functional OmpA of
Salmonella Typhimurium provides protection from lysosomal degradation and inhibits autophagic
processes in macrophages. The Journal of infectious diseases. 2024.
62.	Hajra D, Mukherjee D, Vij R, Rajmani RS, Dadireddy V, Das D, et al.Odoribacter splanchnicus
mitigates Salmonella-induced gut inflammation and its associated pathogenesis via its secreted
bacteriocin. bioRxiv. 2024:2024.08.23.609322.

882
883

884 **MAIN FIGURES AND LEGENDS**

Figure 1. *Odoribacter splanchnicus* **colonization protects mice from *Salmonella* colonization and dissemination**

A-Schematic representation showing animal experimental strategy of infection.

B-OS colonization validation via qPCR quantification of *O. splanchnicus* 16S rRNA from fecal samples of mice at 6th day post-OS colonization in the presence or absence of SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3 (3TYP) inhibitor treatment (1mg/kg of mice body weight).

C-Survival percentage of non-colonized-STM-infected mice versus OS-colonized-STM-infected mice cohorts. Data is representative of N=2, n=5 where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mantel Cox or the log-rank test was used to determine the p values.

D-G- STM organ loads in feces at 1st day post-infection (D), 3rd day post-infection (E), 5th post-infection (F) and in ileal tissues (contents and wall) at 5th day post-infection (G) in OS colonized and non-colonized mice cohorts. Data is representative of N=1, n=6 where N

denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann

Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

H-Percent of initial weight (at Day 0) exhibited by OS colonized and non-colonized mice upon

STM infection at 5th day post-infection in the presence or absence of SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3

(3TYP) inhibitor treatment (1mg/kg of mice body weight). Data is representative of N=3,n=6

where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group.

I-K- STM organ loads in MLN (I), liver (J) and blood (K) at 5th post-infection in OS colonized

and non-colonized mice cohorts in untreated, and SIRT1 (EX-527) or SIRT3 (3TYP) inhibitor

treatment (at 1mg/kg mice body weight concentration). Data is representative of N=3, n=6

where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group.

Mann Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

Figure 2. *O. splanchnicus* reduces *Salmonella* induced inflammation and intestinal damage

A-Estimation of serum IL-6 production via ELISA upon STM infection in OS non-colonized

and colonized mice cohorts in presence or absence of SIRT1 or SIRT3 inhibitor treatment at

5th day post-*Salmonella* infection. Unpaired t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is

representative of N=3, n=3.

B-Quantitative gene expression data of several antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) precursor genes

in uninfected and STM-infected mice intestinal tissues harvested at 5th dpi from OS colonized

or non-colonized cohorts. Unpaired t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is

representative of N=3, n=4.

C- Immunostaining representing Muc2 protein expression in intestinal ileal tissues of OS non-

colonized and colonized mice cohorts upon STM infection. Unpaired t-test is performed to

obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=3, n=5.

D-Haematoxylin-eosin-stained intestinal sections harvested from STM-infected OS non-

colonized or colonized mice cohorts at 5th dpi. 0-represents normal pathology, 1- represents-

mild pathology, 2-3-represents severe pathology.

Fig 3. *Odoribacter splanchnicus* gut colonization prevents *Salmonella*-induced GVB damage by promoting tight junction gene expression.

A-Quantitative gene expression studies of tight junction protein complexes (*Tjp1*, *Claudin5*) and PV-1 gene (marker of GVB damage) in STM-infected mice intestinal (ileal) tissue in presence or absence of OS gut colonization at 5th day post-infection. Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=3, n=4.

B-Immunoblotting depicting expression of PV-1 and CD34 protein in intestinal (ileal) tissues of OS non-colonized and colonized mice cohorts upon STM infection at 5th day post-infection.

C-Immunofluorescence images representing CD34 (endothelial marker of vasculature) protein expression in intestinal ileal tissues of OS non-colonized and colonized mice cohorts upon STM infection at 5th day post-infection.

D-Quantitative representation of the Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) of CD34 protein expression in intestinal (ileal) immunofluorescence images shown in (C). Data is representative of N=2, n>50. Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

E- Estimation of FITC fluorescence in mice plasma via gut permeability assay in infected mice cohorts upon oral administration of FITC Dextran (25mg/kg) 4h before euthanization at 5th day post *Salmonella* infection. Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n>2.

Fig 4. *O. splanchnicus* **exhibits its inhibitory effect on** *Salmonella* **biofilm formation and**

inhibits invasion and intracellular replication in human intestinal cells

A-Percent invasion of STM in human Caco-2 human intestinal cells in presence or absence of

live OS, OS culture supernatant, PFA-fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=3, n=4. One-way

ANOVA was used to determine the p-values.

B-Intracellular proliferation of STM Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of live OS, OS culture

supernatant, PFA-fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=3, n=4. One-way ANOVA was used to

determine the p-values.

C- Representative immunofluorescence images depicting STM invasion into Caco-2 cells in

the presence or absence of OS at 2hr post-infection. Data is representative of N=3, n=100.

D- Representative immunofluorescence images depicting STM invasion into Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of OS at 2hr post-infection. Data is representative of N=3, n=100.

E-Percent invasion of STY in Caco-2 human cells in presence or absence of OS, OS culture supernatant, PFA-fixed OS. Data is representative of N=3, n≥9. One-way ANOVA was used to determine the p-values.

F-Intracellular proliferation of STY in Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of live OS, OS culture supernatant, PFA-fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=3, n≥9. One-way ANOVA was used to determine the p-values.

G- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM-WT or STM-WT grown in OS supernatant after 72h of inoculation in presence or absence of live OS, OS culture supernatant, PFA-fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=4, n=4.One-way ANOVA was used to determine the p-values. Image of the STM biofilm-formed plate in the above stated conditions has been shown.

H-M- RT-qPCR mediated gene expression of STM biofilm regulatory genes (*csgD*) (H), *csgA* (I), *bapA* (J), along with flagellar gene (*fliC*) (K), SPI-1 (*sipC*) (L) and SPI-2 (*pipB2*) (M) genes in presence or absence of live OS or its spent media or PFA-fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=4, n=4. One-way ANOVA was used to determine the p-values.

N- Transmission Electron Microscopic (TEM) images of STM in presence or absence of *Salmonella* WT supernatant, OS and its supernatant to assess the possession of flagella. The quantification plot exhibits the percentage of bacterial flagellated or non-flagellated cells (number of cells quantified n≥ 100)

Fig 5. *Odoribacter splanchnicus* exerts its protective role against *Listeria monocytogenes*

in mice

A- Survival percentage of non-colonized LM-infected mice versus OS-colonized *Listeria*-infected mice cohorts. Data is represantative of N=2, n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mantel Cox or the log-rank test was used to determine the p values.

B-Percent of initial weight (at Day 0) exhibited by OS colonized and non-colonized mice upon LM infection at 5th dpi. Data is representative of N=2,n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

C-F- LM organ loads in feces at 1st day post-infection (C), 3rd day post-infection (D), 5th post-infection (E) and in ileal tissues (contents and wall) at 5th day post-infection (F) in OS pre-colonized and non-colonized mice cohorts. Data is representative of N=1, n=7 where N

denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann
Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

G-J- LM organ loads in Mesenteric lymph Node (MLN) (G), liver (H), spleen (I) and blood
(J) at 5th dp. in OS colonized and non-colonized mice cohorts Data is representative of N=2,
n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per
group. Mann Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

Fig. 6 *Odoribacter splanchnicus* and its culture supernatant restricts *Listeria*
***monocytogenes* pathogenesis in human intestinal cells**

A- Percent invasion of LM in Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of live OS, OS sup, PFA-
fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=3, n=4. One-way ANOVA and Multiple Comparison test
is used to obtain the p-values.

1016 **B**-Intracellular fold proliferation of LM in Caco-2 cells in the presence or absence of live OS,

1017 OS sup, PFA-fixed-OS. Data is representative of N=3, n=4. One-way ANOVA and Multiple

1018 Comparison test is used to obtain the p-values.

1019

1020

1021

Fig. 7 *O. splanchnicus* **even confers protection against foodborne pathogens when administered post-pathogenic challenge**

A- Schematic representation showing the animal experimental strategy of infection.

B- Percent of initial weight (at Day 0) exhibited by OS colonized (1-dpi) and non-colonized mice upon LM infection at 5th dpi. Data is representative of N=2,n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

C-F- LM organ loads in MLN (C), liver (D), spleen (E) and blood (F) at 5th dpi upon OS administration at 1-dpi. Data is representative of N=2, n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

G- Percent of initial weight (at Day 0) exhibited by OS colonized (1-dpi) and non-colonized mice upon STM infection at 5th dpi. Data is representative of N=2,n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

H-K- STM organ loads in MLN (H), liver (I), spleen (J) and blood (K) at 5th-dpi upon OS administration at 1-dpi. Data is representative of N=2, n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann-Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

L- Survival percentage of non-colonized LM-infected mice versus OS-colonized (1 dpi or 3 dpi) *Listeria*-infected mice cohorts. Data is representative of N=2, n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mantel Cox or the log-rank test was used to determine the p values.

M- Percent weight loss exhibited by OS colonized (3-dpi) and non-colonized mice upon LM infection at 5th-day post-infection. Data is representative of N=2,n=8, where N denotes number

of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group.Mann-Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

N-Q- LM organ loads in MLN (N), liver (O), spleen (P) and blood (Q) at 5th-dpi upon OS administration at 3-dpi. Data is representative of N=2, n=8, , where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann-Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

R- Survival percentage of non-colonized *Salmonella*-infected mice versus OS-colonized (1 dpi or 3 dpi) *Listeria*-infected mice cohorts. Data is represantative of N=2, n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mantel Cox or the log-rank test was used to determine the p values.

S- Percent weight loss exhibited by OS-colonized (3-dpi) and non-colonized mice upon STM infection at 5th-day post-infection. Data is representative of N=2,n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann-Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

T-W-STM organ loads in MLN (T), liver (U), spleen (V), and blood (W) at 5th-dpi upon OS administration at 3-dpi. Data is representative of N=2, n=8, where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann-Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

X- Haematoxylin-eosin-stained intestinal sections harvested at 5th-dpi from Uninfected (UI) or *Salmonella* or *Listeria*-infected mice cohorts having non-administered or administered OS (at 1st or 3rd dpi). 0-represents normal pathology, 1- represents- mild pathology, 2-3-represents severe pathology.

Y- Representative Calcofluor white (CW) staining of STM-infected mice spleen tissues at 5th-day post-infection with or without OS administration at 1st or 3rd dpi depicting the quantification of the length of the fibril architecture of CW-stained sections. One-way ANOVA and multiple comparison test were used to obtain the p-values.

Z- Representative CW staining of LM-infected mice spleen tissues at 5th-dpi with or without OS administration at 1st or 3rd dpi depicting the quantification of the length of the fibril architecture of CW-stained sections. One-way ANOVA and multiple comparison test were used to obtain the p-values.

Fig. 8- Characterization of the nature of inhibitory active molecule within *O. splanchnicus* culture supernatant

A- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in presence of OS culture supernatant upon EDTA treatment. Data is representative of N=4, n=4. One-way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

B- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in presence of OS culture supernatant at high temperature conditions. Data is representative of N=4, n=4. One-way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

C- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in presence of OS culture supernatant under Proteinase K treatment. Data is representative of N=4, n=4. One-way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

D- Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE demonstrating the size range of the differential protein bands present in OS supernatant as opposed to the tryptic soy broth media control.

E- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in

presence of varying concentration OS culture supernatant. Data is representative of N=4, n=4.

One-way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

F- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in

presence of OS culture supernatant fractions fractionated using 3kDa Amicon filter. Data is

representative of N=4, n=4. One-way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

G- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in

presence of OS culture supernatant fractions fractionated using 10kDa Amicon filter. Data is

representative of N=4, n=4. One-way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

H- Summary table demonstrating the conditions tested for active molecule characterization and

their effective outcome.

1107

1108

I   STM   STM+ *O. splanchnicus* supernatant   STM+ *O. splanchnicus* bacteriocin

J   LM   LM+ *O. splanchnicus* supernatant   LM+ *O. splanchnicus* bacteriocin

Fig. 9- *O. splanchnicus* bacteriocin restricts both *Salmonella* and *Listeria* pathogenesis *in vitro*

A- Percent invasion and intracellular fold proliferation of STM in Caco-2 cells under OS bacteriocin (10μg/ml) treatment. Data is representative of N=2, n=3. Unpaired t-test is used to obtain the p-values.

B- Percent invasion and intracellular fold proliferation of LM in Caco-2 cells under OS bacteriocin (10μg/ml) treatment. Data is representative of N=2, n=3. Unpaired t-test is used to obtain the p-values.

C- Percent invasion and intracellular fold proliferation of STY in Caco-2 cells under OS bacteriocin (10μg/ml) treatment. Data is representative of N=2, n=3. Unpaired t-test is used to obtain the p-values.

D-MTT assay evaluating the viability of Caco-2 cells upon 16h of mock or bacteriocin (10μg/ml) treatment. Data is representative of N=2, n=4.

E-F-TEM images of STM under untreated (D) or bacteriocin (10μg/ml) (E) treatment to assess the possession of flagella.

G-H- TEM images of LM under untreated (D) or bacteriocin (10μg/ml) (E) treatment to assess the possession of flagella.

I- Swimming motility assay of STM under OS supernatant or bacteriocin treatment.

1128   **J**- Swimming motility assay of LM under OS supernatant or bacteriocin treatment.

1129

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

1130

1131

1132

1133   **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES AND LEGENDS**

1134

1135

1136

1137

1138

1139

1140

Fig S1. *O. splanchnicus* **gut colonization prevents** *Salmonella* **dissemination by restricting**

intestinal GVB damage and angiogenesis

A-Immunofluorescence image demonstrating PV-1 protein expression in intestinal (ileal)

tissues of OS non-colonized and colonized mice cohorts upon STM infection. Data is

representative of N=2, n=5 (tissue samples). Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

B-C Immunofluorescence image representing CD34 (an endothelial marker of vasculature)

protein expression in intestinal (ileal) (B) and liver (C) tissues of OS non-colonized and

colonized mice cohorts upon STM infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=5 (tissue

samples). Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

D- qPCR mediated gene expression of pro-angiogenic marker *Vegf* in STM-infected mice liver

tissues in presence or absence of OS pre-colonization. Data is representative of N=2, n=4. Un-

paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

E- qPCR mediated gene expression of *Axin2* in STM-infected mice intestinal tissues in the

presence or absence of OS pre-colonization. Data is representative of N=2, n=4. Un-paired t-

test was used to obtain the p-values.

1156

Fig. S2 In vitro growth kinetics of *Salmonella* Typhimurium in presence of live or dead

***O. splanchnicus* or its culture supernatant**

A-B Growth kinetics of STM-WT, OS, STM-WT in presence of OS, STM-WT in presence of

STM or OS culture supernatant and STM-WT in presence of PFA-fixed OS in LB under

anaerobic growth conditions.

C-D- Growth kinetics of STM-WT, OS, STM-WT in presence of OS, STM-WT in presence of

STM or OS culture supernatant, STM-WT supernatant, and STM-WT in presence of PFA-fixed

OS in LB under aerobic growth conditions.

1165

Fig S3. Unlike *O. splanchnicus, E. faecalis* fail to exert any inhibitory effect on *Salmonella*

***in vitro* biofilm formation or *Salmonella* invasion and intracellular replication in human**

intestinal cells

A-Percent invasion of STM in Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of live *E. faecalis* (Ef), Ef

culture supernatant, PFA-fixed-Ef. Data is representative of N=3, n=3. One-way ANOVA is

used to obtain the p-values.

B-Intracellular proliferation of STM in Caco-2 cells in presence or absence of live Ef, Ef culture

supernatant, PFA-fixed-Ef. Data is representative of N=3, n=3. One-way ANOVA is used to

obtain the p-values.

C- Biofilm assay depicting the biofilm formation ability of STM-WT or STM-WT grown in Ef

supernatant after 72h of inoculation in presence or absence of live Ef, Ef or STM culture

supernatant, PFA-fixed. Crystal-violet staining was performed to assess the biofilm formation

on the solid-liquid interphase and the $[OD]_{595}$ absorbance reading was recorded. Data is

representative of N=3, n=3. One-way Anova is used to obtain the p-values.

1186

1187

1188

1189

1190

1191

1192

1193

1194

1195

1196 **Fig. S4.** ***Odoribacter splanchnicus* gut colonization protects mice against *Listeria***

1197 ***monocytogenes* pathogenesis similar to *Salmonella* infection**

1198 **A**-Haematoxylin-eosin-stained intestinal sections harvested from OS non-colonized or

1199 colonized mice cohorts at 5th-day-post-LM-infection. 0-represents normal pathology, 1-

1200 represents- mild pathology, 2-3-represents severe pathology.

B-Quantitative gene expression data of several antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) precursor genes in LM-infected mice intestinal tissues harvested at 5th day post-infection from OS colonized or non-colonized cohorts. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=9.

C- Quantitative gene expression study of tight junction protein genes *Tjp1*, *Claudin5*, GVB damage marker *PV-1*, angiogenesis marker-*Vegf,* and *Axin2* in LM- infected mice intestinal tissues harvested at 5th-dpi from OS colonized or non-colonized cohorts. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=5.

D-E- Immunofluorescence images representing PV-1 protein expression (D) and Muc2 (E) in intestinal (ileal) tissues of OS-non-colonized and colonized mice cohorts at 5th day post LM infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=8 (tissue samples). Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

F- Representative Calcofluor white (CW) staining of STM-infected mice spleen tissues at 5th-dpi. Data is representative of N=2, n=8 (tissue samples). Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

G- Representative CW staining of LM-infected mice spleen tissues at 5th-dpi. Data is representative of N=2, n=8 (tissue samples). Un-paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

H- Transmission Electron Microscopic (TEM) images of LM in presence or absence of LM supernatant, OS and its supernatant to assess the possession of flagella. The quantification plot exhibits the percentage of bacterial flagellated or non-flagellated cells (number of cells quantified n$\geq$ 100)

I-J- Immunofluorescence images representing CD34 (an endothelial marker of vasculature) protein expression in intestinal (N) and liver (O) tissues of OS non-colonized and colonized

 mice cohorts upon LM infection. Data is representative of N=2, n=5 (tissue samples). Un-

 paired t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

1226

1227

1228

1229

1230

1231

1232

1233

1234

Fig. S5 *Odoribacter splanchnicus* administration post-establishment of infection protected mice against *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Salmonella* Typhimurium

A-C- STM and LM organ loads in feces at 3rd day post-infection (A), 5th post-infection (B) and in ileal tissues (contents and wall) at 5th day post-infection (C) upon OS administration at 1-dpi or 3-dpi. Data is representative of N=1, n=6 where N denotes number of biological replicates and n denotes the number of mice per group. Mann-Whitney Test was performed to obtain p-values.

D-H-Quantitative gene expression data of several antimicrobial peptides (AMPs) precursor genes in LM and STM-infected mice intestinal tissues harvested at 5th dpi upon OS colonization at 1-dpi or 3-dpi. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=4.

I-M- Quantitative gene expression study of tight junction protein genes *Tjp1*, *Claudin5*, GVB damage marker *PV-1*, angiogenesis marker-*Vegf,* and *Axin2* in LM and STM-infected mice intestinal tissues harvested at 5th-dpi upon OS colonization at 1-dpi or 3-dpi. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=6.

N-O- Intestinal (ileal) immunofluorescence images representing PV-1 protein expression in *Salmonella* (N) or *Listeria* (O)-infected mice harvested on 5th-dpi with or without OS administration at 1-dpi or 3-dpi. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=8 (or 9).

P-Q- Intestinal (ileal) immunofluorescence images representing Muc2 protein expression in *Salmonella* (M) or *Listeria* (N)-infected mice harvested on the 5th dpi with or without OS administration at 1-dpi or 3-dpi. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=6 (or 5).

R-S- Immunoblotting representing the protein expression profile of Muc2, ZO-1, and PV-1 in *Salmonella* (O) or *Listeria* (P)-infected mice intestinal tissue harvested on 5th-dpi with or without OS pre-or post-colonization (1-dpi or 3-dpi).

T- Estimation of FITC fluorescence in mice plasma via gut permeability assay in *Salmonella* or *Listeria*-infected mice cohorts with or without OS pre-or post-colonization (1dpi or 3dpi) upon oral administration of FITC Dextran (25mg/kg) 4h before euthanization at 5th-dpi. Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=4 (UI and OS, n=2).

1266

Fig. S6 *Odoribacter splanchnicus* alleviates *Salmonella*-induced intestinal inflammation in mice both during pre and post-treatment

A- Estimation of IL-1β in the ileal sections of UI or *Salmonell*a-infected mice tissues harvested at 5th dpi with or without OS pre-or post-colonization (1dpi). Unpaired Student's t-test is performed to obtain the p-values. Data is representative of N=2, n=4 (UI and OS, n=2).

1272

1273

E Schematic Representation of workflow of mass spectrometric analysis of the fractions

1274

Fig. S7 Characterization of the inhibitory active molecule within *O. splanchnicus* culture

supernatant

A-Gel filtration chromatogram of protein standards and the OS culture supernatant. Red shaded

region shows the fractions with biofilm inhibitory activity. The dark shaded region indicates

the fractions with the highest inhibitory activity.

B-C- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in

presence of OS supernatant gel filtration fractions. Data is representative of N=2, n=2. One-

way ANOVA is used to obtain the p-values.

D- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation in

presence of varying concentration of OS supernatant biofilm inhibitory gel filtration fractions.

Data is representative of N=2, n=1.

E-Schematic representation of the workflow of mass spectrometric analysis of the gel filtration

fractions (A82, A83, A84 and Concentrated supernatant).

1288

Fig. S8 Purification procedure of *O. splanchnicus* produced bacteriocin via ammonium sulphate precipitation method followed by Fast Performance Liquid Chromatography

A-Size exclusion chromatogram of OS-produced bacteriocin fractions post 95-98% ammonium sulphate precipitation.

B- Coomassie-stained SDS PAGE showing the purified and concentrated OS bacteriocin.

1294

1295

Fig. S9 *O. splanchnicus* bacteriocin attenuates *Salmonella* pathogenesis *in vitro*

A- Biofilm assay showing the biofilm formation ability of STM after 72h of inoculation under varying concentration of OS bacteriocin. Data is representative of N=2, n=2. Unpaired t-test is used to obtain the p-values.

B-G- RT-qPCR mediated gene expression of STM biofilm regulatory genes *csgD* (B), *csgA*(C), *bap* (D), along with flagellar gene *fliC*(E), SPI-1-*sipC* (F) and SPI-2-*pipB2*(G) in presence or absence of OS bacteriocin treatment. Data is representative of N=2, n≥5. Unpaired Student's t-test was used to obtain the p-values.

1304

1305

1306

Table S1- Selected List of 11 proteins from Mass Spectrometric Analysis based on

bibliographic search

Accession ID	Protein Name and	Referenced Function
A0A412WBT8	Immunity protein Imm5 domain-containing protein	Uncharacterized
F9Z8G5	Peptidase	Modulate biofilm formation and host defense.
R6F650	Carboxyl-terminal protease	Critical for post-translational processing and associated with regulation of gene expression, stress response, maintenance of cell envelope integrity and bacterial virulence.
A0A412TJE3	ATP-dependent Clp protease proteolytic subunit	Influence virulence and infectivity of pathogenic bacteria. ClpP enhance biofilm formation in *Enterococcus faecalis*.
F9Z604	Peptidase C39 bacteriocin processing	The cysteine peptidase cleave the double glycine leader peptides from the precursors of bacteriocin
A0A412TJV3	UDP-2,4-diacetamido-2,4, 6-trideoxy-beta-L-altropyranose hydrolase	It catalyzes the third step in the biosynthesis of pseudaminic acid. Pseudaminic acid is a sialic-like sugar that modifies flagellin.
A0A412WSU3	Bacteriocin	Antimicrobial peptides that can kill or inhibit closely related or unrelated bacterial strains.
A0A413I832	Serine Protease	Extracellular proteases regulate biofilm formation and growth of competitors.
A0A412W3J2	Glutamate dehydrogenase	Involved in bacterial response to stress adaptation and virulence.
A0A412WSS0	Bacteriocin	Antimicrobial peptides that can kill or inhibit closely related or unrelated bacterial strains.
F9ZBU9	Peptidylprolyl isomerase	Promote biofilm formation in *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*.

Table S2-List of primers

Primer Name	Sequence (5'---3')
O. splanchnicus 16S rRNA FP	ATGTAATGATGAGCACTCTAACGG
O. splanchnicus 16S rRNA RP	GGCTTTTGAGATTGGCATCC
PV-1 FP	CGAACTGGAGGCGCGTAA
PV-1 RP	GCAGCGACTTGGCCTTGAC
Claudin5 FP	CCCAGTTAAGGCACGGGTAG
Claudin5 RP	GGCACCGTCGGATCATAGAA
ßactin FP	CAGCAAGCAGGAGTACGATG
ßactin RP	GCAGCTCAGTAACAGTCCG
Vegf FP	GCAGCGACAAGGCAGACTAT

Vegf RP	AACCTCCTCAAACCGTTGGC
Tjp1 FP	TCTTGCAAAGTATCCCTTCTGT
Tjp1 RP	CAGAAATCGTGCTGATGTGCC
Reg3b FP	GCTTGTCAAGAGCTTCTGGATTTC
Reg3b RP	TGTCCCTTGTCCATGATGCTC
Reg3g FP	CGCTGAAGCTTCCTTCCTGT
Reg3g RP	GGGTTCATAGCCCAGTGTCG
Lysozyme C FP	GGTCTACAATCGTTGTGAGTTG
Lysozyme C RP	TGAGCTAAACACACCCAGTCA
CCL 20 FP	GCAACTACGACTGTTGCCTC
CCL20 RP	TTCTTGACTCTTAGGCTGAGGA
Ang4 FP	TGGTTGTGATTCCTCCAACTCT
Ang4 RP	TGTTGACATCTTTGCAAGGCG
fliC FP	CTAAACAAACTGGGTGGCGC
fliC RP	GCACCCAGGTCAGAACGTAA
bapA FP	ACGGTGACTACGCCTAAAAC
bapA RP	CTTCCGCCTCAGTCACTTTT
csgD FP	ACGATTATCCCTACCGTGAA
csgD RP	GCGGACTCGGTGCTGTTGTA
Salmonella 16S rRNA FP	GTGAGGTAACGGCTCACCAA
Salmonella 16S rRNA RP	TAACCGCAACACCTTCCTCC
sipC FP	GCAGTACGCCGCTACTCAGG
sipC RP	AGCGCGAATATTGCCTGCGA
pipB2 FP	TGGCGCCAATTTACAACACGC

pipB2 RP	CTCGCCTTTCGCAGGTTTGC
csgA FP	TCGCAGCAATCGTAGTT
csgA RP	CGGAACCGTACTGATAA

1311

1312   **Table S3-List of Antibodies**

Antibody Name	Catalogue Number	Source
PV-1	**A15906-20ul (Abclonal)**	**Rabbit**
CD34	**A19015-20ul (Abclonal)**	**Rabbit**
Muc2	**A4767 (Abclonal)**	**Rabbit**
ZO-1	**R26.4C DHSB, CRL 1597**	**Mouse**
β actin	**A3854 (Sigma), Clone AC-15**	**Mouse**

1313

1314