Human non-canonical inflammasomes activate CASP3 to limit intracellular *Salmonella* replication in macrophages.

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Abstract

Inflammasomes are multiprotein signaling platforms that activate inflammatory caspases to induce pyroptosis. In humans, canonical inflammasomes activate CASP1, which cleaves the pore-forming protein gasdermin D (GSDMD) and the cytokines IL-1β and IL-18. In contrast, the non-canonical inflammasome detects bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS) through CASP4/5, which cleave GSDMD to drive pyroptosis. While CASP1 substrates are well characterized, CASP4/5 substrates remain less defined. Here, we show that in response to intracellular LPS and gram-negative bacterial infection, CASP4/5 directly cleave and activate the executioner caspases CASP3/7. CASP3 in turn cleaves and activates gasdermin E (GSDME). Surprisingly, CASP3, but not GSDME, was required for restricting intracellular *Salmonella* replication, suggesting that CASP4/5-induced apoptosis contributes to host defense. We further show that most GSDMD cleavage during non-canonical inflammasome activation is mediated by CASP1, and that GSDMD is the primary driver of pyroptosis. Finally, we confirm that CASP4/5 activate CASP3/7 and GSDME in human primary macrophages. These findings establish CASP4/5 as dual apoptotic initiator and inflammatory caspases and reveal a central role for the apoptotic signaling cascade in non-canonical inflammasome-mediated immunity.

Introduction

The detection and elimination of invading pathogens by the immune system is essential for host survival. It is critical that the immune response to invading pathogens be tightly regulated such that an appropriate response can be mounted without excessive inflammation, a condition known as sepsis. Sepsis is a life threatening condition which mainly occurs in children under the age of five and is one of the leading causes of death worldwide[1,2].

A key component of the host response to invading pathogens is the assembly of multi-protein signaling complexes called inflammasomes[3]. Inflammasome assembly activates cysteine proteases called caspases that induce inflammation and lytic cell death known as pyroptosis, which is critical for infection control[4,5]. The canonical inflammasome pathway activates caspase-1 (CASP1), while the non-canonical pathway activates caspase-4 and caspase-5 (CASP4/5) in humans and caspase-11 (CASP11) in mice, collectively referred to as inflammatory caspases[6,7]. CASP1 activation can be triggered by diverse stimuli, such as host or pathogen proteases, and potassium efflux[8-11]. In contrast, CASP4/5 and -11 sense and are activated by intracellular lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from Gram-negative bacteria like *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium (*Stm*), an intracellular pathogen that is a major cause of food-borne disease globally[6,12-14]. A recent study demonstrated that while CASP1 is important during early infection, CASP4 is essential in preventing intracellular *Salmonella* replication at late stages of infection in human macrophages[15]. However, the mechanism by which CASP4 restricts replication at late stages remains unclear.

The substrates of inflammatory caspases are crucial mediators of immunity yet their full repertoire and functional significance remain incompletely defined[16]. Human inflammatory caspases are known to cleave the interleukin family of cytokines, IL-1β and IL-18, and the pore-forming protein gasdermin D (GSDMD), leading to pyroptosis[17-23]. In this manner, pyroptosis protects the host from infection[24-28]. In the absence of GSDMD, CASP1 can process the apoptotic executioner caspases-3 and -7 (CASP3/7) to induce apoptosis[29]. A proteomic screen also identified CASP7 as a substrate of inflammasome-activated CASP1 in mice, but in the same study, CASP3 activation was found to be independent of CASP1[30]. It was later shown that, like human cells, CASP1 could mediate CASP3 processing in mice to induce apoptosis in the absence of GSDMD when infected with *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium or poly(dA:dT)[31,32]. This process was dependent on CASP1 cleaving Bid (BH3-interacting domain death agonist), which subsequently induced caspase-9 (CASP9)-dependent activation of CASP3[31,32]. These findings

suggest that CASP1 activation can lead to either direct or indirect activation of executioner CASP3
and -7 and that inflammatory caspases can initiate apoptosis.

Apoptosis is a regulated form of cell death that maintains organismal development and
homeostasis and is generally thought to be immunologically silent. Emerging evidence suggests
that the induction of apoptosis during infections may have important consequences for host
defense. For example, dendritic cells activate both pyroptosis and apoptosis during late stages of
infection and this is essential for restricting *Legionella pneumophila* replication[33,34]. Similarly,
activation of the apoptotic signaling cascade during viral infection led to CASP3-dependent
cleavage of gasdermin E (GSDME), which induced pyroptosis and protected human skin
organoids from viral replication[35,36]. Whether the induction of apoptosis or CASP3 and GSDME-
mediated pyroptosis contributes broadly to host defense remains unknown. Moreover, while
CASP1 is well-established to activate the apoptotic signaling cascade, whether human non-
canonical inflammasomes (CASP4/5) similarly cleave apoptotic caspases remains less clear.

Substrates of the non-canonical inflammasome pathway are generally not well-defined. A recent
proteomics screen identified CASP7 as a substrate of CASP4 in humans, though its functional
significance remained unknown[37]. We also recently reported that IL-1β and IL-18 are substrates
of CASP4/5[21]. Notably, in CASP4/5-deficient cells, we observed a loss of CASP3 activation in
response to intracellular LPS, suggesting that the human non-canonical inflammasomes engage
the apoptotic pathway. However, whether this is a direct processing event and its functional
significance regarding pathogen defense remained to be elucidated.

In this study, we identify CASP3 and CASP7 as direct substrates of human inflammatory
caspases. We found that CASP4/5 directly cleave CASP3/7, and active CASP3 subsequently
cleaves and activates GSDME during intracellular LPS stimulation and *Salmonella* infection.
CASP3-induced GSDME-mediated pyroptosis has been described in the context of
chemotherapeutics activating apoptotic signaling or during cytotoxic lymphocyte-mediated cell
death[38], but this pathway has not been known to be activated during non-canonical inflammasome
activation. We demonstrate that CASP3/7 and GSDME processing occurs in primary human cells
in response to intracellular LPS and *Salmonella* infection. Interestingly, we discovered that
GSDME   was   dispensable,   but   CASP3   was   required   for   inhibiting
intracellular *Salmonella* replication, demonstrating that non-canonical inflammasomes mediate
host defense in part by activating the apoptotic signaling cascade.

Results

Human inflammatory caspases directly cleave and activate executioner CASP3 and CASP7

Because previous work has shown that CASP1 can cleave CASP3/7, and CASP4 has been
implicated in CASP7 processing[37], we first investigated whether inflammatory caspases directly
target CASP3 and -7. We expressed human GSDMD (as a control), CASP3, or CASP7 in HEK
293T cells and incubated lysates with recombinant active CASP1, CASP4, CASP5, CASP8, or
mouse CASP11 for 1 or 3 hours. As expected, inflammatory caspases efficiently processed
GSDMD at both time points (Fig. 1A). CASP1, CASP4, CASP5 and CASP8 processed human
CASP3 (Fig. 1B). Mouse CASP11 treated lysates exhibited very minimal processing of human
CASP3 at prolonged incubation, suggesting a divergence between human and murine non-
canonical inflammasomes. This aligns with prior reports that CASP4/5 can cleave human IL-18,
whereas CASP11 cannot cleave mouse IL-18[20-22]. Surprisingly, only CASP1 and CASP4
processed CASP7 in this assay (Fig. 1C), despite the well-established role of CASP8 in cleaving
both CASP7 and CASP3[39]. (Fig. 1B,C), indicating that complementary methods are needed to
confirm processing.

We next sought to determine whether active inflammatory caspases would cleave CASP3/7 in
cells. We generated *CASP3/7* double knockout (KO) HEK 293T cells (Fig. S1A) and co-
transfected these cells with either active or catalytically inactive human inflammatory caspases
along with catalytically inactive CASP3 or CASP7. Consistent with our *in vitro* assays, all
inflammatory caspases processed catalytically inactive CASP3 and CASP7 (Fig. S1B,C), and this
processing was dependent on their catalytic activity and not on the catalytic activity of CASP3 or
CASP7.

We also confirmed that inflammatory caspases cleave CASP3/7 using an orthogonal activation
mechanism. We utilized our previously established dimerizable inflammatory caspase cell system
in which cells express a modified caspase where the caspase activation and recruitment domains
(CARD) are swapped with a dimerizable domain (DmrB), allowing selective activation of CASP1,
CASP4, or CASP5 by the small molecule drug AP20187[21]. HEK 293T cells expressing DmrB-
caspases and IL-18, a known substrate of inflammatory caspases that serves as a positive
control, were transfected with either CASP3 or CASP7. Following AP20187 treatment, we
observed activation of the DmrB-CASP1, -4, and -5, as indicated by IL-18 cleavage (Fig. S1D-I).
Consistent with our *in vitro* biochemical assays, activated CASP1, -4, and -5 all processed CASP3

(Fig. S1D-F) and CASP7 (Fig. S1G-I). These findings suggest that upon direct activation in cells,

inflammatory caspases cleave the executioner caspases CASP3 and CASP7.

Caspases cleave peptide bonds at aspartic (Asp) acid residues[40,41]. During apoptosis, the initiator

caspases (CASP8/9) activate executioner caspases by cleaving CASP3 at Asp175 and CASP7

at Asp198, generating catalytically active large and small subunits[30,42]. Because inflammatory

caspase processing of CASP3/7 produced fragments that were detected by antibodies specific

for their active forms, we hypothesized that this cleavage activates the executioner caspases. To

test this, we co-expressed catalytically competent CASP3 (Fig. 1D) or CASP7 (Fig. 1E) with

GSDME, a known substrate of CASP3[43], along with either catalytically active or inactive human

inflammatory caspases in HEK 293T *CASP3/7* KO cells. Consistent with their activation, CASP3,

and to a lesser extent CASP7, induced GSDME cleavage, indicating that inflammatory caspases

cleave and activate CASP3/7. We ruled out that inflammatory caspases do not directly process

GSDME through recombinant protein assays. Lysates from GSDME-expressing HEK293T cells

were incubated with apoptotic (CASP3, CASP6, CASP7, CASP8) or inflammatory (CASP1,

CASP4, CASP5, CASP11) caspases (Fig. 1C). As expected, CASP3 robustly cleaved GSDME,

while CASP7 produced only minimal processing after prolonged incubation, suggesting CASP7-

mediated GSDME cleavage is possible but likely not physiologically relevant. Collectively, these

findings demonstrate that inflammatory caspases directly cleave and activate CASP3/7, and that

CASP3 is the primary mediator of GSDME cleavage.

CASP1, CASP8, and CASP9 are dispensable for CASP3/7 and GSDME processing during

non-canonical inflammasome activation by intracellular LPS.

Our in vitro and cellular assays indicated that inflammatory caspases cleave and activate

CASP3/7, and that CASP3 can subsequently cleave GSDME to drive pyroptosis[38]. Although

CASP3-mediated GSDME cleavage has been shown to induce pyroptosis, whether GSDME

contributes to non-canonical inflammasome mediated cell death is unknown. To address this, we

transfected LPS into PMA-differentiated THP-1 macrophages to activate CASP4/5 (Fig. 2A).

CASP1 can cleave CASP3/7 and can be activated via the NLRP3 inflammasome downstream of

CASP4/5 due to K+ efflux through GSDMD pores[8,9,44]. Prior work indicated that during CASP1

activation, both GSDME and GSDMD contribute to cell death and cytokine release[45]. To rule out

a contribution from downstream CASP1 activation, we pretreated THP1 cells with the NLRP3

inhibitor MCC950[46] prior to LPS transfection (Fig. 2A). LPS treatment resulted in CASP3, CASP7,

and GSDME cleavage. As expected, LPS also induced robust GSDMD cleavage and CASP1

activation, as evidenced by the appearance of the cleaved 30 kDa fragment of GSDMD and p10

species of CASP1 by immunoblotting (Fig. 2A). MCC950 abolished CASP1 activation, which led

to a slight decrease in GSDMD processing (Fig. 2A). Interestingly, we observed increased

CASP3, CASP7 and GSDME cleavage in MCC950-treated cells compared to LPS-only treated

cells (Fig. 2A), suggesting that in the absence of CASP1, CASP4/5 activation induces robust

processing and activation of CASP3/7, and GSDME. Consistent with this notion and the increased

CASP3/7 processing, we observed increased CASP3/7 activity compared to control and LPS-

only treated cells (Fig. 2C) using an intracellular CASP3/7 activity reporter dye. Despite loss of

CASP1 activation, the kinetics of pyroptosis remained unchanged in MCC950-treated cells

compared to LPS-only treated cells, as assessed by Sytox Green uptake, likely due to elevated

GSDME processing (Fig. 2B).

Because GSDME can be processed by CASP3 downstream of the extrinsic and intrinsic

apoptotic pathways mediated by CASP8 and CASP9 respectively[43], we next sought to genetically

dissect the contribution of CASP1, CASP8, and CASP9 to CASP3 activation and GSDME

processing. In *CASP1* KO THP-1 cells, LPS still triggered robust cleavage of CASP3, CASP7,

and GSDME, accompanied by increased CASP3/7 activity (Fig. 2D-F). In contrast, GSDMD

processing was nearly abolished, confirming that most GSDMD cleavage downstream of non-

canonical inflammasome activation is driven by CASP1. This aligns with our previous

observations that in cells, GSDMD is a poor substrate for CASP4 and -5 compared to CASP1[21].

Importantly, these results indicate that CASP1 is not required for CASP3/7, and GSDME

processing.

Both CASP8 and CASP9 are known to activate CASP3 and CASP7 to induce apoptosis, a

process constantly ongoing to maintain cellular homeostasis[47,48]. Like in *CASP1* KO cells, deletion

of CASP8 (Fig. 2G-I) or CASP9 (Fig. 2J-L) did not block CASP3/7 or GSDME processing, nor

alter GSDMD cleavage or pyroptosis. In fact, CASP3/7 activity was modestly increased,

suggesting that CASP8 or -9 may normally compete for CASP3/7 engagement.

Finally, because CASP1 is known to cleave Bid, a member of the Bcl-2 family of proteins that

activates CASP9 to induce CASP3/7 cleavage[31,32,49], we sought to determine whether CASP4/5

activate CASP3/7 indirectly through activation of Bid. We incubated lysates from THP-1

macrophages with equivalent activity units of recombinant caspases and assessed processing of

substrates at different time points by immunoblotting. As expected, CASP1 and CASP8

processed Bid into the truncated form (Fig. 2M). However, CASP4 and CASP5 failed to cleave

Bid, but were active and able to process IL-18 and GSDMD (Fig. 4M). In this assay, where multiple

substrates are present simultaneously, IL-18 processing appeared to be favored by CASP4

compared to other caspases while GSDMD processing was favored by CASP1 (Fig. 2M). Taken

together, these data indicate that CASP1, CASP8, and CASP9 are dispensable for CASP3/7

activation during noncanonical inflammasome activation and support a model in which CASP4/5

directly cleave CASP3/7 to promote CASP3/GSDME-mediated pyroptosis.

CASP3, and CASP4/5 are required to induce GSDME processing during non-canonical

inflammasome activation by intracellular LPS.

Our findings above suggest that CASP4/5 activate the executioner CASP3/7, leading to

CASP3/GSDME-mediated pyroptosis. To directly test this, we transfected WT, *CASP4/5* KO,

CASP3 KO, or *CASP7* KO cells with LPS (Fig. 3A-I). We then assessed CASP3/7 and GSDME

processing by immunoblotting, cell death by Sytox Green uptake, and CASP3/7 activity using a

cell permeable reporter dye. Loss of CASP4/5 significantly impaired CASP3/7 and GSDME

cleavage, cell death, and CASP3/7 activity compared to control cells in response to intracellular

LPS (Fig 3A-C). *CASP3* KO cells lacked GSDME cleavage but exhibited increased GSDMD

processing in LPS transfected cells (Fig. 3D). Despite loss of GSDME processing, pyroptosis was

not significantly diminished (Fig. 3E), suggesting functional compensation through enhanced

GSDMD activation. CASP3 deficiency slightly reduced overall CASP3/7 activity, likely due to

preserved CASP7 activity (Fig. 3F). Unexpectedly, *CASP7* KO cells retained CASP3 activation

and GSDME processing (albeit less than control cells), but CASP1 processing into the p10

species and GSDMD processing were nearly abolished, resulting in delayed cell death (Fig.

3G,H). *CASP7* KO cells also had attenuated CASP3/7 activity, as expected (Fig. 3I). Taken

together, these findings demonstrate that CASP4/5 activate CASP3/7, with CASP3 serving as the

primary protease that cleaves GSDME. While CASP3/GSDME activation can drive pyroptosis

downstream of the non-canonical inflammasome in part, loss of CASP3 is buffered by increased

GSDMD activity, highlighting plasticity in the execution of pyroptosis.

Mammals encode six gasdermins: gasdermin A, B, C, D, E, and PJVK (also known as

DFNB59)[36,50,51]. Typically, their N-terminal pore-forming domains are autoinhibited by the C-

termini, but upon cleavage, the N-termini are liberated and form pores to induce pyroptosis.

Inflammatory caspases cleave GSDMD to induce pyroptosis[17-19]. While CASP3 has been reported

to cleave GSDME to induce pyroptosis, this has primarily been described in the context of

chemotherapy-induced apoptosis or cytotoxic lymphocyte-mediated cell death[38,52,53]. Whether

CASP3/GSDME contributes to pyroptosis during non-canonical inflammasome activation has not

been established.

To address this, we transfected WT, *GSDMD* KO, *GSDME* KO, or *GSDMD/E* double KO THP-1

macrophages with LPS and assessed gasdermin processing, cell death, CASP3/7 activation, and

IL-1α/β release (Fig. 3J-M). Immunoblots revealed increased CASP3/7 processing, but decreased

CASP1 processing in *GSDMD*, *GSDME*, or *GSDMD/E* KO cells compared to control cells with

LPS transfection (Fig. 3J), suggesting that both GSDMD and GSDME may contribute to

downstream CASP1 activation via the NLRP3 inflammasome. Loss of either GSDMD or GSDME

led to increased CASP3 and CASP7 activation compared to WT cells. However, the CASP3/7

activity was only significantly increased in *GSDME* KO cells (Fig. 3L). GSDME processing was

increased in *GSDMD* KO cells, but GSDMD processing was attenuated in *GSDME* KO cells

compared to WT cells (Fig. 3J). Interestingly, GSDME loss did not affect cell death, whereas

GSDMD deficiency markedly reduced lysis, and *GSDMD/E* double KO cells phenocopied

GSDMD KO cells (Fig. 3K), implying that GSDMD is the principal driver of lytic cell death in

response to intracellular LPS.

In contrast, IL-1α/β release required both gasdermins, as assessed by the HEK Blue assay which

reports on the activity of active IL-1α/β[21] (Fig. 3M). Either GSDMD or GSDME was sufficient to

release similar amounts of active IL-1α/β as WT cells, but loss of both GSDMD/E resulted in

significantly attenuated cytokine release (Fig. 3M), consistent with reports that both contribute to

cytokine release during canonical inflammasome signaling[45]. Altogether these findings suggest

that both GSDMD and GSDME contribute to cytokine release during non-canonical

inflammasome activation but GSDMD is the primary driver of pyroptosis.

CASP3, and CASP4/5 are required for GSDME processing during non-canonical

inflammasome activation by intracellular *Salmonella*.

The non-canonical inflammasomes detect gram-negative bacteria. We next asked if CASP4/5

cleave and activate CASP3/7 during bacterial infections. We infected WT, *CASP4/5* KO, and

CASP3 KO cells with *Salmonella enterica* serovar Typhimurium (*Stm*) then assessed CASP3/7

and GSDME processing by immunoblotting, cell death by Sytox Green uptake, and CASP3/7

activity using a cell permeable reporter dye. Log-phase *Salmonella* induces expression of the type

3 secretion system (T3SS) encoded by *Salmonella* pathogenicity island 1 (SPI-1) that activates

both canonical and non-canonical inflammasome signaling [54-57]. Thus, we first infected WT and

CASP4/5 KO (Fig. S2A,B) or *CASP3* KO THP1-1 macrophages with *Salmonella* grown to

stationary phase ($Stm^{Stat.}$) to minimize the contribution of the canonical caspase-1 signaling

pathway then measured cell death and processing of caspases and gasdermins by

immunoblotting. Since CASP4 is thought to contribute to resolving infection at later time in

infection, we tested different multiplicity of infections (MOIs) to mimic different infection burdens.

In control cells, we observed dose-dependent cleavage of GSDME and GSDMD (Fig.

S2A,C). Importantly, CASP3/7 and GSDME processing was largely abrogated in *CASP4/5* KO

cells while GSDMD processing was retained, likely due to the activation of the NLRP3

inflammasomes (Fig. S2A)[57-59]. GSDME, but not GSDMD processing, was also abrogated in

CASP3 KO cells (Fig. S2C). Interestingly, despite cleavage of the pore-forming proteins, we

observed little to no cell death by Sytox Green (Fig. S2B,D). This indicates that CASP3/7

activation and subsequent GSDME cleavage is CASP4/5-dependent, but processing does not

generate enough pores to induce cell lysis with stationary phase *Salmonella*.

Given that there was no cell death observed with ($Stm^{Stat.}$) and the fact that SPI-1 is important for

Salmonella to invade and replicate in host cells[60,61], we focused on SPI-1-induced infection

models for further studies. We infected WT, *CASP4/5* KO and *CASP3* KO cells with SPI-1-

induced *Salmonella* (Stm^{SPI-1}) (Fig. 4A-D). Like infections with stationary phase *Salmonella*, we

observed CASP4/5-dependent activation of CASP3/7, and CASP3-dependent processing of

GSDME (Fig. 4A,C). However, consistent with the notion that CASP1 is the dominant protease

that processes GSDMD in cells, SPI-1-induced *Stm* infection triggered more cell death than

stationary-phase *Stm* infections, which was attenuated in *CASP4/5* KO cells compared to control

cells, but unchanged between control and *CASP3* KO cells (Fig. 4B,D).

To determine the contribution of the gasdermin proteins to cell death, we infected WT, *GSDMD*,

GSDME, or *GSDMD/E* KO THP-1 macrophages with Stm^{SPI-1} (Fig. 4E,F). We observed similar

results in activation of CASP3/7 with *Salmonella* infection as with LPS transfections, but there

were some notable differences in cell death (Fig. 4E,F). GSDME processing was increased in

GSDMD KO cells and GSDMD processing was increased in *GSDME* KO cells unlike with LPS

treatment where GSDMD processing was attenuated in *GSDME* KO cells, likely due to the

activation of CASP1 by SPI-1-induced *Salmonella* (Fig. 4E). Indeed, CASP1 processing was

similar in WT and *GSDME* KO cells, but was attenuated in *GSDMD* and *GSDMD/E* KO cells

compared to WT cells. Strikingly, cell death, as assessed by Sytox Green uptake, was not

attenuated in *GSDMD*, *GSDME,* or *GSDMD/E* KO cells at 24h post infection compared to WT
cells and although not significant in all cases, trended higher (Fig. 4F).

Despite the loss of both pore-forming proteins, *GSDMD/E* KO cells displayed pyroptotic
morphology (Fig. 4G). This implies that enhanced CASP3/7 activity may drive rapid cell lysis,
potentially through alternative pore-forming mechanisms such as Ninjurin-1 (NINJ1)-mediated
membrane rupture[60,62] or pannexin-1 (PANX1), a substrate of CASP3/7 that can form pores
independently of GSDMD and GSDME[63]. To test this, WT, *GSDMD* KO and *GSDMD/E* KO cells
were infected with *Stm*[SPI-1] at MOI 50 after pretreatment with spironolactone, a pannexin-1
inhibitor, or glycine, an osmoprotectant that inhibits NINJ1-mediated lysis, or a combination of
both[62,63]. Pretreatment with PANX1 and NINJ1 inhibitors significantly reduced LDH release in all
groups (Fig. 4H), demonstrating that CASP3-mediated PANX1 activation and NINJ1 lysis
occurring downstream of apoptosis contribute to cell death during bacterial infection, like recently
described[15,64]. However, inhibiting PANX1 and NINJ1 had no impact on pore formation in WT
cells, as assessed by Sytox Green uptake, but significantly inhibited Sytox Green uptake in
GSDMD/E KO cells (Fig. 4I). Collectively, these findings suggest that during intracellular LPS
sensing, GSDMD is the dominant pore-forming protein mediating cell lysis, while both GSDMD
and GSDME contribute to cytokine release. In contrast, during *Salmonella* infection, gasdermin-
independent pathways can drive cell rupture downstream of non-canonical inflammasome
mediated CASP3/7 activation.

GSDMD and CASP3 are essential, but GSDME is dispensable for limiting *Salmonella*
replication in human macrophages.

Recent work revealed that CASP4 plays a role in limiting intracellular *Salmonella* replication,
particularly at late stages of infection, though the mechanism remains unclear[15]. Activation of
pyroptosis in response to infection is generally thought to be host-protective by limiting cellular
replicative niches and activating cytokines that potentiate innate and adaptive immune responses.
We hypothesized that CASP4 prevents replication by activating CASP3 to induce GSDME-
mediated pyroptosis once bacterial burdens become high. To test the contribution of GSDME in
preventing *Salmonella* replication, we infected WT, *GSDMD*, *GSDME,* and *GSDMD/E* KO THP-
1 macrophages with GFP-expressing *Salmonella (GFP-Salmonella)* at increasing MOIs (MOI =
20, 50, or 100) and measured the change in GFP intensity during infection as a proxy for bacterial
replication (Fig. 5). We collected images and quantified the fold change in *GFP-Salmonella*
intensity at 24 h post infection relative to the start of imaging (t = 2 h) infection (Fig. 5A,).

Unexpectedly, GSDME was dispensable for limiting bacterial replication (Fig. 5B). Only *GSDMD*
KO cells had significantly higher GFP-*Salmonella* burdens relative to WT infected cells (Fig. 5B),
consistent with a recent study demonstrating that GSDMD is essential for limiting intracellular
Salmonella replication[60]. *GSDME* KO cells had decreased burdens compared to WT cells,
suggesting that GSDME may promote, instead of limit infection and replication. Consistent with
this idea, *GSDMD/E* KO cells had similar bacterial burdens to WT cells and had decreased
burdens compared to *GSDMD* KO cells. Cell death was assessed by LDH release and observed
to be largely independent of both GSDMD and GSDME (Fig. 5C), consistent with contributions
from PANX1 and NINJ1 activation.

We next examined the role of CASP3 in restricting bacterial replication, but not CASP7 as *CASP7*
KO cells had a defect in GSDMD processing. WT and *CASP3* KO cells were infected with GFP-
Salmonella and images of infected cells were collected to quantify the fold change in GFP
intensity. In WT cells, GFP intensity remained stable, indicating replication control at all MOIs (Fig.
5D,E). In contrast, *CASP3* KO cells showed a significant increase in bacterial burden across all
MOIs tested compared to WT cells (Fig. 5D,E). We tested two independent *CASP3* KO clones
and LDH release at MOI = 20 was decreased in one clone compared to WT cells but unaffected
at MOI = 50 and 100 (Fig. 5F). Together, these data indicate that in human macrophages,
GSDMD and CASP3 are essential for restricting intracellular *Salmonella*, whereas GSDME is
dispensable and may even facilitate replication.

CASP3/7 and GSDME are cleaved in primary human macrophages during non-canonical
inflammasome activation.

To evaluate the physiological relevance of CASP4/5-induced CASP3/GSDME activation, we
transfected primary human monocyte-derived macrophages (differentiated with macrophage
colony stimulating factor (M-CSF)) with LPS [65]. Consistent with observations in THP-1 cells, LPS
transfection induced robust processing of CASP3/7 and GSDME in primary macrophages (Fig.
6A). Representative immunoblots from three independent donors are shown (Fig. 6A).
Pretreatment with the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 blocked CASP1 activation and reduced GSDMD
processing but did not alter CASP3/7 or GSDME cleavage, indicating that CASP3/7 activation is
primarily mediated by CASP4/5, whereas GSDMD processing is largely downstream of CASP1
(Fig. 6A). Intracellular LPS-induced cell death and CASP3/7 activity were comparable between
untreated and MCC950-treated cells (Fig. 6B-D), consistent with non-canonical inflammasome
activation. Representative images from Donor 7 illustrate pyroptotic morphology and Sytox Green

uptake used to monitor cell death kinetics (Fig. 6B). Aggregate analysis across all donors
confirmed that cell death was unchanged by MCC950 treatment (Fig. 6E). Importantly, *Salmonella*
infection induced CASP3/7, GSDME, and GSDMD processing in primary cells (Fig. 6F). Together,
these findings demonstrate that intracellular LPS and bacterial infections trigger CASP4/5-
dependent activation of CASP3, leading to GSDME cleavage and pyroptosis in primary human
macrophages.

Discussion

Cell death is central to maintaining cellular homeostasis and resolving infections, with
inflammasome-mediated pyroptosis serving as a critical defense mechanism against intracellular
pathogens[66]. Previous studies have revealed complex crosstalk between apoptotic and pyroptotic
caspases, particularly in canonical inflammasome signaling, where CASP1 can indirectly or
directly activate executioner CASP3 and -7 [23,29,31,32,67-70]. These signaling cascades appears to be
both species- and stimulus-dependent. Direct cleavage of CASP3/7 by CASP1 has been reported
in human cells under certain conditions, such as dipeptidyl peptidase 8/9 inhibitor treatment[29],
while in mouse bone marrow–derived macrophages, CASP1-mediated CASP3/7 activation
requires upstream CASP8 and CASP9 activation induced by CASP1-dependent Bid cleavage in
response to inflammasome agonists like LPS plus nigericin (NLRP3 agonist), *Salmonella* (NLRC4
agonist), or poly(dA:dT) (AIM2 agonist) [31,32]. Whether human non-canonical inflammasomes
(CASP4/5) similarly activate apoptotic executioner caspases remained unclear.

In the present study, we demonstrate that human CASP4/5 directly cleave CASP3 and CASP7,
and CASP3 subsequently cleaves GSDME, but our data suggests that most of the cell death is
mediated by GSDMD. Unlike CASP1, CASP4/5 did not cleave Bid, and neither CASP8 nor
CASP9 contributed to CASP3 activation during non-canonical inflammasome signaling. These
data identify CASP4/5 as direct upstream activators of apoptotic executioner caspases in human
cells. Although previous *in vitro* studies suggested that murine CASP11 (the ortholog of human
CASP4) can cleave mouse CASP3/7, we did not observe significant CASP11 processing of
human CASP3[69,71]. Other work indicates that in mouse macrophages, CASP11 triggers CASP1
activation, that then cleaves CASP3[70]. This points to species-specific differences in non-canonical
inflammasome signaling, consistent with other observations that human CASP4/5, but not mouse
CASP11, can cleave IL-18[20-22].

Our data also reveal that pharmacological or genetic inhibition of CASP1 attenuated GSDMD
processing while increasing GSDME cleavage, indicating that CASP4/5 preferentially drive

CASP3/GSDME-mediated pyroptosis. Both GSDMD and GSDME contributed to IL-1β release as
measured by immunoblotting, in agreement with prior observations[45]. However, IL-1β levels
measured using an IL-1 receptor activation assay were not significantly reduced by single
GSDMD or GSDME deletion, likely reflecting contributions from IL-1α release downstream of pore
formation, which activates IL-1α via calpains[72]. Consistent with this, *GSDMD/E* double knockout
cells transfected with LPS showed a reduction in released IL-1α/β compared to wild-type or single
knockout cells, highlighting the collective role of these gasdermins in coordinating cytokine
release.

The CASP4/5–CASP3/GSDME axis may function as a backup pathway when pathogens inhibit
canonical CASP1-GSDMD signaling. For example, SARS-CoV-2 NSP5 protease cleaves
GSDMD N-term to inactivate the pore forming ability, but the protease also activates CASP1 and
CASP8, that subsequently activate CASP3 to induce GSDME-mediated pyroptosis[73]. Similarly,
Enterovirus 3C protease cleaves and inactivates GSDMD N-term[74], and gram-negative bacterial
pathogen *Shigella flexneri* can degrade GSDMD, thereby impairing canonical pyroptosis and
promoting infection[75]. Consistently, we observed increased CASP3/7 and GSDME cleavage in
GSDMD-deficient cells, highlighting the compensatory nature of this pathway, similar to
observations made by others[32,45].

While GSDMD has long been recognized as the primary effector of LPS-induced pyroptosis via
inflammatory caspases[17-19], our data suggest that in human macrophages, most GSDMD
processing is mediated by CASP1, which is activated downstream of the non-canonical pathway.
In contrast, CASP4/5 preferentially induce GSDME-mediated pyroptosis via CASP3 activation,
but the GSDME pores are sublytic. As CASP4/5 can cleave and inactivate IL-1β[21] and CASP3 is
known to inactivate GSDMD[29], IL-1β[76,77], and IL-18[78], it is possible that this pathway may have
evolved to induce pyroptosis while limiting inflammation that could result in sepsis. GSDME-
mediated pyroptosis may also have a distinct role in promoting a sublytic phase that enables rapid
IL-1β release, which could have important ramifications for pathogen defense[45].

Our data suggest reciprocal regulation between CASP1 and CASP3-induced pyroptosis. In
CASP1-deficient cells, GSDME processing was increased, while GSDMD processing was
increased in CASP3-deficient cells, suggesting that these pathways can compensate for one
another to maintain overall cell death. This crosstalk may ensure robust inflammatory responses
even when pathogens attempt to inhibit one arm of the pathway. Notably, GSDMD appears to
play a dominant role in the kinetics of pyroptotic cell death, consistent with previous reports that

GSDMD pore formation precedes apoptotic caspase activation during canonical inflammasome
signaling[29,79]. However, this only applied in the context of when CASP4/5 were activated by LPS.
In this study, neither GSDMD nor GSDME were required for *Salmonella* induced cell lysis at 24h
post infection, contrasting with a recent study demonstrating that GSDMD and NINJ1 were
essential for LDH release in THP-1 macrophages infected with *Salmonella*[15]. Differences in
infection timepoint (6 h vs 24 h here), cell priming (e.g., Pam3CSK4 vs. unprimed in our study)
and contributions of alternative pore-forming proteins such as NINJ1 or PANX1 may explain these
discrepancies. Notably, recent work in mice found that LPS or *Escherichia coli* infection plus heat
shock induced cell lysis that was independent of the typical pore-forming proteins such as,
GSDMD, GSDME, and MLKL (mixed lineage kinase domain-like protein), but was critically
dependent on NINJ1, which mediates plasma membrane rupture downstream of several cell
death pathways[62,80]. Furthermore, this death only occurred with certain priming agents, such as
poly(I:C) and LPS, but not Pam3CSK4[62]. Hence, it's possible that under certain conditions,
Salmonella can induce rapid cell lysis that is independent of GSDMD and GSDME. More studies
using human cells are needed to understand the precise contributions of the different pore-
forming proteins in pathogen defense.

Much of our understanding of the innate immune response to *Salmonella* has stemmed from work
using mice, but emerging studies using human cells have begun to yield critical insights. Recent
work in human macrophages demonstrated that CASP1-dependent pyroptosis is important for
limiting intracellular *Salmonella* replication early during infection but CASP4 was important for
restricting replication at later stages of infection[15]. Our data suggests that CASP4 inhibits
replication by activating CASP3/7 to induce apoptosis and cell lysis that is likely dependent on
NINJ1 or PANX1. Indeed, NINJ was reported to be important for cell death in THP1 macrophages
infected with *Salmonella*[15]. Recent work also revealed that CASP3 can activate PANX1 to induce
pyroptosis independently of CASP1, CASP8, GSDMD, and GSDME[63]. Consistent with this notion,
we found that *GSDMD/E* KO cells exhibited pyroptotic morphology and GSDME was dispensable
for inhibiting bacterial replication. Also in agreement, a recent report also noted that GSDME was
dispensable, and that GSDMD is the only gasdermin that confers protection against acute
Salmonella infection in the gut of mice[81]. Additional support for this mechanism stems from
observations that apoptosis is critical for restricting *Legionella* infection and replication in dendritic
cells[34], and apoptosis was reported to be essential for limiting *Salmonella* replication in mice[64,82].
Collectively, this implies that apoptosis may play a broader role in preventing intracellular

pathogen replication and future studies should focus on delineating the contributions of apoptosis

and pyroptosis in restricting infection.

Controlled activation of pyroptosis protects the host from infection, and therefore it was surprising

that GSDME was dispensable for protecting against *Salmonella* replication. If CASP3/GSDME-

induced pyroptosis occurs without CASP1 activation, it could be detrimental to the host as it can

facilitate bacterial egress and infection of bystander cells without the full immune response

induced by CASP1 activation. In support of this idea, it was demonstrated that CASP11-mediated

cell death in the absence of CASP1 activation was detrimental and resulted in increased

susceptibility to *Salmonella* infection in mice[54]. Similarly, it was shown that GSDMD pores promote

the release of the fungal pathogen *Candida albicans* from mouse macrophages, and inhibiting

GSDMD was protective as it prevented *Candida albicans* escape while maintaining CASP1

activation and GSDMD-independent IL-1β release[83]. Alternatively, if GSDME pores are sublytic,

as has been suggested[45], it could facilitate pathogen entry and render *GSDME* KO cells less

susceptible to initial infection. We note that our GSDME KO cells were more resistant to infection

than WT and *GSDMD* KO cells and required higher MOIs to observe similar levels of infections.

Intriguingly, CASP3/GSDME-mediated pyroptosis appears to be critical for limiting viral

replication[35], suggesting that the impact on pathogen defense could be pathogen-specific.

Importantly, we demonstrate that CASP3/GSDME are processed in primary human macrophages

following non-canonical inflammasome activation, underscoring the physiological relevance of

this pathway.

In conclusion, we identify CASP3/7 as direct substrates of human non-canonical inflammasomes

(CASP4/5) in both immortalized and primary human macrophages. Mechanistically, CASP4/5

mediated cleavage of CASP3 initiates GSDME processing, but our data shows that CASP3 and

GSDMD, but not GSDME, are critical for limiting intracellular *Salmonella* replication. CASP3

activation can drive cell lysis that is independent of GSDMD and GSDME, likely through PANX

and NINJ1, which have both been demonstrated to be important in limiting *Salmonella*

replication[15,64]. Given that apoptosis has recently been reported to be important for infection

control, our data suggests that this seemingly immune silent form of cell death may be more

important than previously recognize in controlling infections. A key outstanding question is the

molecular mechanism by which CASP4/5 recognize and cleave CASP3/7. Given that

inflammatory caspases utilize exosites or tetrapeptide recognition sequences for substrate

specificity[16], it is likely that a combination of these factors underlies recognition. Future work is

needed to uncover the molecular mechanism of how CASP4/5 recognize and activate CASP3/7.

Method Details

Antibodies and Reagents

Antibodies used include: GSDMD Rabbit polyclonal Ab (Novus Biologicals, NBP2-33422), FLAG®

M2 monoclonal Ab (Sigma, F3165), GAPDH Rabbit monoclonal Ab (Cell Signaling Tech, 14C10),

CASP1 p12/10 Rabbit monoclonal Ab (Abcam, ab179515), CASP4 Rabbit polyclonal Ab (Cell

Signaling Tech, 4450S), CASP5 Rabbit monoclonal Ab (Cell Signaling Tech, 46680S), Myc Mouse

monoclonal Ab (Cell Signaling Tech, 2276S), CASP3 (Cell Signaling Tech 9664S), CASP3 (Cell

Signaling Tech, 9662), CASP7 (Cell Signaling Tech, 8438S), CASP7 (Cell Signaling Tech,

12827S), GSDME (Abcam, ab215191), hIL-1β Goat Polyclonal Ab (R&D systems, AF-201-NA),

hIL-18 Goat Ab (R&D systems, af2548), CASP8 (Cell Signaling Tech, 4790S), CASP9 (Cell

Signaling Tech, 9508S), Bid (Cell Signaling Technology, 2002), IL-1α (Novus, AF-200-NA), HA

Rabbit monoclonal Ab (Cell Signaling Tech, 3724S), FKBP12 Rabbit polyclonal Ab (Abcam,

ab24373). IRDye 800CW anti-rabbit (LICOR, 925-32211), IRDye 800CW anti-mouse (LI-COR,

925-32210), IRDye 680CW anti-rabbit (LI-COR, 925-68073), IRDye 680CW anti-mouse (LI-COR,

925-68072). Other reagents used include: LPS-EB Ultrapure (Invivogen, tlrl-3pelps), FuGENE

HD   (Promega,   E2311),   AP20187   (Tocris™   6297/5).

Recombinant Caspase Assays

All *in vitro* assays using recombinant caspases were performed in 20 µL reactions containing

caspase assay buffer (20 mM PIPES, 100 mM NaCl, 10 mM DTT, 1mM EDTA, 0.1% CHAPS,

10% sucrose, pH 7.) as previously described[23]. 10 µg of plasmids encoding for GSDMD, CASP3,

CASP7, or GSDME were transfected into HEK 293T cells (10 cm plates) using FuGENE HD

Transfection Reagent (Promega, E2312) according to the manufacturer's protocol. After 24 hours,

cells were harvested and lysed by sonication for 10 second pulses for 60 seconds at 30%

amplitude in PBS and centrifuged at 12,000 g to remove cell debris. Lysates were diluted 10x in

caspase assay buffer and incubated with 0.25 activity units/µL of each indicated caspase. At the

indicated time points, samples were mixed 1:1 with 2x Licor Protein Sample Loading Buffer (Neta

Scientific, 928-40004) and boiled at 95 °C for 10 minutes, then analyzed by immunoblotting.

Cell Culture

All cells were grown at 37 °C in a 5% CO2 atmosphere incubator. HEK 293T cells were purchased
from ATCC and THP1 cells were obtained previously or acquired from the Bryant lab[21] or Abbott
lab[45]. HEK 293T cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) with L-
glutamine and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). THP-1 cells were cultured in Roswell Park Memorial
Institute (RPMI) medium 1640 with L-glutamine and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Purified
human monocytes from healthy donors were purchased from the University of Pennsylvania
Human Immunology Core. Purified monocytes were cultured in RPMI + 10% FBS and 25 ng/ml
rm-csf in 96 well plates at a density of 100,000 cells/well. Media was removed and replaced with
Opti-MEM containing Sytox Green and MCC950 as indicated for 30 minutes prior to LPS
transfection as previously described. Cell lines were negative for mycoplasma contamination.
518
IncuCyte CASP3/7 activity and Sytox Green uptake assays
The kinetics of CASP3/7 activity and Sytox Green uptake were measured in cells using the
IncuCyte S3 Live cell imaging system (Sartorius). THP-1 cells were resuspended in RPMI medium
containing 50 ng/mL phorbol 12-myristate 12-acetate (PMA) and plated in black, clear-bottom 96-
well plates at a density of 8×10^4 cells/well. After 48 h, the media was then replaced with Opti-
MEM (0.1 mL/well) supplemented with either the cell-permeable CASP3/7 green dye (final
concentration: 10 µM (1:200 dilution)) or Sytox Green (final concentration: 0.2-0.5 µM), as
indicated. A series of images were collected with a 10x objective at 1h intervals for 24 hours. The
number of Sytox Green or CASP3/7 dye-positive cells in each image was determined using the
IncuCyte S3 software with 3 different areas/well. Cell death was quantified relative to 0.1% Triton
treated macrophages.
530
Cloning
All plasmids were cloned using Gateway technology as previously described[21]. DNA encoding the
indicated proteins were inserted between the *attR* recombination sites and shuttled into modified
pLEX_307 vectors (Addgene) using Gateway technology (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to
the manufacturer's instructions. Proteins expressed from these modified vectors contain an N-
terminal *att*B1 linker (GSTSLYKKAGFAT) after any N-terminal tag or a C-terminal *att*B2 linker
(DPAFLYKVVDI) preceding any C-terminal tag such as Myc or HA.
538
sgRNAs were designed using the Broad Institute's web portal and cloned into the
pXPR016_Hygro or plentiGuide-Puro vector (pXPR003) (Addgene #52963) as described
previously[29,84]. The sgRNA sequences used were:

h*CASP3 clone#1* 5′-CGTGGTACAGAACTGGACTG -3′

h*CASP3* clone#2 5′- TGTCGATGCAGCAAACCTCA -3′

h*CASP7* 5′- AGACAATCACGTCAAAACCC -3′

h*CASP9* 5′- ACATCGACTGTGAGAAGTTG -3′

control (GFP) 5′-GGGCGAGGAGCTGTTCACCG-3′

All plasmids were verified by DNA sequencing (Genewiz).

550   THP1 Knockout cell lines

Constructs were packaged into lentivirus in HEK 293T cells using the Fugene HD transfection

reagent (Promega) and 2 µg of the vector, 2 µg psPAX2, and 0.2 µg pMD2-G. THP-1 were

spinfected with virus for 2 h at 1000g at 30 °C supplemented 8 µg/mL polybrene. After 2 days,

cells were selected for stable expression of S. pyogenes Cas9 (Addgene #52962) using blasticidin

(5 µg/mL for THP-1) and for stable expression of sgRNAs using puromycin (0.5 µg/mL for THP-

1) or hygromycin (100 µg/mL for THP-1). After 10 d, single cells were isolated by serial dilution

and expanded. Cells were then harvested for immunoblotting or used in experiments.

559   Generation of HEK 293T CASP3/7 double KO cells

560   HEK 293T cells were transiently transfected with plasmids encoding for CAS9 and sgRNAs

561   targeting CASP3 (sgRNA Sequence: AATGGACTCTGGAATATCCC) and CASP7 (sgRNA

562   Sequence: GCATCTATCCCCCCTAAAGT). After 48, the cells were selected with puromycin (1

563   µg/mL) until all control cells were no longer viable. Single cell clones were then obtained by serial

564   dilution and were confirmed by immunoblotting.

566   Transient Transfection

567   HEK 293T cells were seeded in 12-well culture plates at 0.25×10^6 cells/well in DMEM. The

568   following day, the indicated plasmids were mixed in Opti-MEM and transfected using FuGENE

569   HD (Promega) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

570   LPS Transfection of human macrophages

THP-1 cells were resuspended in RPMI medium containing 50 ng/mL phorbol 12-myristate 12-

acetate (PMA). Cells were plated in 96-well plates at a density of 8×10^4 cells/well. After 48 h, the

media was then replaced with Opti-MEM (0.1 mLs/well). Where indicated, cells were treated with

MCC950 (10 µM) for 30 min at 37 °C 5% CO_2 before LPS transfection. The LPS solution was

prepared by adding LPS (25 mg/mL final concentration) and FuGENE (0.5% final concentration)

to Opti-MEM. This solution was gently mixed by flicking and incubated for 30 min at room

temperature before drop-wise addition to each well. The supernatants were collected separately,

and cells were lysed by sonication 24 h post transfection. Harvested supernatants were

precipitated by chloroform/methanol and analyzed by immunoblotting.

HEK Blue IL-1α/β reporter assay

HEK-Blue IL-1β (Invivogen) reporter cells were used according to manufacturer's protocols as

previously described[21] to quantify the amount of active IL-1α/β released. HEK Blue cells were

seeded in 96 well plates at 5×10^4 cells/well in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) with

L-glutamine and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) to a total volume of 150 ml. 10 μL of supernatant

from control or treated THP1 cells were added, and the samples were incubated overnight at

37°C in a 5% CO2 atmosphere incubator. A serial dilution of recombinant IL-1β (Invivogen) was

included in all experiments to generate a standard curve which to calculate absolute levels of

active IL-1β. 50 μL of supernatant was mixed with 150 μL of freshly prepared Quanti-Blue solution

and incubated at room temperature for 10 minutes in the dark before reading absorbance at 620

nm using a Cytation 5 plate reader (Bio Tek).

***Salmonella* Infection of human macrophages**

Salmonella Typhimurium SL1344 or SL1344 pDisC was streaked to isolation from frozen stock

on LB + Streptomycin (100μg/ml) agar plates. Carbenicillin (100μg/ml) was included for all studies

with SL1344 pDisC. For SPI-I induced bacteria, single colonies were inoculated in LB +

Streptomycin broth overnight (~18h). The overnight culture was back diluted 40-fold into LB +

Streptomycin broth containing 300 mM NaCl. After three hours bacteria were washed 2x in sterile

PBS and cell density was determined by quantifying OD_{600}. MOI was prepared according to OD

and bacterial cells were resuspended in PBS. 10μL suspension of bacteria was added to

macrophages in triplicate in 96-well plates. Macrophages were spun for 10 min at 400g to allow

infection and then placed in incubator for 1h. Media was then removed and replaced with fresh

RPMI without FBS containing gentamicin (100 μg/ml). After 1h, media was removed and wells

were washed 3x with PBS and replaced with fresh RPMI without FBS containing gentamicin (10

μg/ml). GFP fluorescence was monitored using IncuCyte live cell imaging for 24h.

For SL1344 (non-fluorescent) infection, after 1h 100μg/ml gentamicin, media was replaced with

fresh RPMI without FBS containing gentamicin (10 μg/ml) and Sytox Green (0.5 μM). Cell death

was quantified relative to 0.1% Triton treated macrophages.

For stationary phase bacterial infections, single colonies were inoculated in LB + Streptomycin for
2 days. MOI were prepared as described above and 10µL suspension of bacteria were added to
macrophages in triplicate in 96 well plates. Macrophages were spun for 10 min at 400g to allow
infection and then placed in incubator for 2h.

LDH Assays

612 Supernatants were harvested for LDH analyses at 24 h after bacterial infections and analyzed
613 using the Cyquant LDH Cytotoxicity Assay (Thermo Scientific) according to the manufacturer's
614 protocol. LDH activity was quantified relative to a lysis control where cells were lysed using Triton-
615 X at the beginning of each experiment.

Western Blotting

Protein samples were run on Nupage 4-12% Bis-Tris Midi Protein Gel (Thermo Scientific,
WG1403BOX) at 175 volts. Proteins were transferred to 0.45 µm nitrocellulose membranes
(BioRad,1704271) at 25 volts for 7 minutes on the Biorad Transblot Turbo System. Membranes
were blocked using LICOR Intercept blocking buffer (Neta scientific, 927-70010) for 1 hour and
stained with primary antibodies at 1:1000 concentration in 50% Licor blocking buffer and 50%
TBS buffer with 0.1% Tween for 1 hour at room temperature or overnight at 4C. Membranes were
washed 3x 15 minutes, followed by incubation with Donkey Anti-Mouse/Rabbit/Goat IgG
Polyclonal Antibody (IRDye® 800CW) for 1 hour at room temperature. Membranes were then
washed 3x10 minutes and imaged on an Odyssey M Imaging System (LI-COR Biosciences).
Images were analyzed with Empiria studio version 3.2 (Licor), and brightness, contrast, and tone
parameters were adjusted uniformly for entire membranes on Adobe Photoshop.

Statistical Analysis

629 Data and statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 10 software. Statistical
630 analysis was determined using One-way or Two-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons test.
631 Further details are listed under each figure legend.

Author contributions CRediT:

Conceptualization: CYT, Ma.Ku., CMB Methodology: CYT, Ma.Ku, CMB, Investigation: Ma.Ku.,
CMB, ABM, PME, CM, SC, Ma.Ka., Mi.Ka., WY, TJW, RCP, BMD Visualization: CYT, Ma.Ku.,
CMB, Funding acquisition: CYT, CMB, Project administration: CYT Data curation: CYT, Ma.Ku.,
CMB, Formal Analysis: CYT, Ma.Ku., CMB, ABM, PME, CM, SC, Ma.Ka., Mi.Ka., Resources:

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Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interests.

661   **FIGURES**

Figure 1. Caspases 1, 4, and 5 directly cleave and activate caspases-3 and -7. (A-C) HEK
293T cells were transiently transfected with plasmids coding for human GSDMD **(A)**, CASP3 **(B)**,
or CASP7 **(C)**. Lysates were then incubated with 0.25 activity units/µL of each indicated
recombinant caspase for 1 or 3 h and cleavage products were assessed by immunoblotting. **(D,E)**
CASP3/7 KO HEK 293T cells were transiently co-transfected with the indicated constructs coding
for active CASP3 **(D)** or CASP7 **(E)** along with GSDME, and catalytically active or inactive CASP1,
-4, or -5 for 24 h before the cell lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting. **(F)** HEK 293T cells
were transiently transfected with a plasmid coding for GSDME for 24 h. Lysates were harvested
and incubated with 0.25 activity units/µL of each recombinant caspase for 1 or 3 h. Cleavage
products were assessed by immunoblotting. Data are representative of three or more independent
experiments.

Figure 2. CASP1, CASP8, and CASP9 are dispensable for CASP3/7 and GSDME processing during non-canonical inflammasome activation by intracellular LPS. (**A-C**) WT THP-1 cells were transfected with 25 μg/mL LPS in the presence or absence of the NLRP3 inhibitor MCC950 (10 μM) for 24 h. Supernatants and lysates were then analyzed by immunoblotting (**A**), cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**B**), and CASP3/7 activity was determined using CellTreat CASP3/7 detection reagent (**C**). (**D-F**) Control-matched *CASP1* KO (**D-F**), *CASP8* KO (**G-I**), and *CASP9* KO (**J-L**) THP-1 cells were transfected with 25 μg/mL LPS for 24 h then supernatants and lysates were then analyzed by immunoblotting (**D, G, J**), cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**E, H, K**), and CASP3/7 activity was determined using CellTreat CASP3/7 detection reagent (**F, I, L**). (**M**) PMA-differentiated WT THP-1

690   macrophages were lysed and incubated with 0.25 activity units/μL of recombinant caspases for

691   the indicated times before immunoblot analysis. Data are means $\pm$ SEM of three independent

692   replicates, and representative of at least three independent experiments except for M (n = 2).

693   ****$P < 0.0001$, ***$P < 0.001$, **$P < 0.01$, and *$P < 0.05$ by two-way ANOVA test with Tukey's

694   multiple comparison test comparing the control treated to KO treated samples at 24 h.

Figure 3. CASP3, and CASP4/5 are required to induce GSDME processing during non-canonical inflammasome activation by intracellular LPS. (**A-C**) WT and *CASP4/5* double KO THP-1 cells were transfected with 25 μg/mL of LPS for 24 h then supernatants and lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting (**A**), cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**B**), and CASP3/7 activity was determined using CellTreat CASP3/7 detection reagent (**C**). (**D-F**) WT and *CASP3* KO THP-1 cells were transfected with 25 μg/mL of LPS for 24 h then supernatants and lysates were then analyzed by immunoblotting (**H**), cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**I**), and CASP3/7 activity was determined using CellTreat CASP3/7 detection reagent. (**G-I**) WT and *CASP7* KO THP-1 cells were transfected with 25 μg/mL of LPS for 24 h then supernatants and lysates were then analyzed by immunoblotting (**H**), cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**I**), and CASP3/7 activity was determined using CellTreat CASP3/7 detection reagent. (**J-M**) WT, *GSDMD* KO, *GSDME* KO and *GSDMD/E* KO

THP-1 macrophages were transfected with 25 μg/mL of LPS for 24 h then supernatants and

lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting (**J**), cell death was measured by Sytox Green uptake

(**K**), and CASP3/7 activity was determined using CellTreat CASP3/7 detection reagent (**L**), and

the amount of active IL-α/β released into the supernatants was quantified (**M**). Data are means $\pm$

SEM of three independent replicates, and representative of at least three independent

experiments. ****$P < 0.0001$, ***$P < 0.001$, **$P < 0.01$, and *$P < 0.05$ by two-way ANOVA test with

Tukey's multiple comparison test comparing the control treated to KO treated samples at 24 h.

Data in M were analyzed by One-way Anova with Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 4. CASP3, and CASP4/5 are required for GSDME processing during non-canonical inflammasome activation by intracellular *Salmonella*. (A-D) WT and *CASP4/5* KO (A,B) or

WT and *CASP3* KO THP-1 macrophages (C,D) were treated with the indicated MOI of WT SPI1-

induced *Salmonella* for 24 h then supernatants and lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting

(**A,C**), and cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**B,D**). **(E-G)** WT, *GSDMD*

KO, *GSDME* KO and *GSDMD/E* KO THP-1 macrophages were treated with the indicated MOI of

WT SPI1-induced *Salmonella* for 24 h then supernatants and lysates were analyzed by

immunoblotting (**E**), and cell death was measured by monitoring Sytox Green uptake (**F**).

Examples of Images of WT and *GSDMD/E* KO cells at MOI 20 used to quantify Sytox Green

uptake are shown in **G.** White arrows show pyroptotic morphology. **(H,I)**. WT, *GSDMD* KO, and

GSDMD/E KO THP-1 macrophages were infected with WT SPI1-induced *Salmonella* at MOI = 50

in the presence or absences of pretreatment with the PANX1 (20 μM spironolactone) or NINJ1(50

mM glycine) inhibitors for 24 h then LDH release (H) and Sytox Green (**I**) were assessed. Data in

H were analyzed by One-way Anova with Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Data are means $\pm$

SEM of three independent replicates, and representative of at least three independent

experiments.****$P < 0.0001$, ***$P < 0.001$, **$P < 0.01$, and *$P < 0.05$ by two-way ANOVA test with

Tukey's multiple comparison test comparing the control treated to KO treated samples at 24 h.

Figure 5. GSDMD and CASP3 are essential, but GSDME is dispensable for limiting *Salmonella* replication in human macrophages. (**A-C**) WT, *GSDMD* KO, *GSDME* KO and *GSDMD/E* KO THP-1 macrophages were treated with the indicated MOI of SPI1-induced GFP-expressing *Salmonella*. Representative images of the GFP-*Salmonella* (MOI = 20) are shown in **A**. Quantification of the fold change in green intensity is depicted in **B**. After 24 h, LDH assays were performed **C**. (**D-F**) WT or *CASP3* KO THP-1 macrophages were treated with the indicated MOI of SPI1-induced GFP expressing *Salmonella*. Representative images of the GFP-*Salmonella* (MOI = 20) are shown in **D.** Quantification of the fold change in green intensity is depicted in **E**.

773 After 24 h, LDH assays were performed **F**. Data are means $\pm$ SEM of three independent

774 replicates, and representative of at least three independent experiments. ****$P < 0.0001$, ***$P <$

775 0.001, **$P < 0.01$, and *$P < 0.05$ by two-way ANOVA test with Tukey's multiple comparison test

776 comparing the control treated to KO treated samples at 24 h.

Figure 6. CASP3/7 and GSDME are cleaved in primary human macrophages during non-canonical inflammasome activation. (**A-E**) Primary monocytes were differentiated into macrophages and transfected with 25 μg/mL of LPS for 24 h. Some cells were pretreated with 10 μM MCC950 for 30 minutes before LPS transfection and supernatants were then analyzed by immunoblotting (**A**), cell death for a representative donor (Donor 7), as assessed by Sytox Green uptake is depicted in (**B**), and CASP3/7 activity CASP3/7 is depicted in (**C**). A summary of the Sytox Green uptake for all donors is shown in **E**. Data are means ± SEM of three or more independent experiments   ****P < 0.0001, ***P < 0.001, **P < 0.01, and *P < 0.05 by two-way ANOVA test with Tukey's multiple comparison test comparing the control vs treated samples at 24 h. Data in E were analyzed by One-way Anova with Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 7. Proposed model of how non-canonical inflammasomes contribute to limiting intracellular *Salmonella* replication. Upon sensing LPS or *Salmonella*, CASP4/5 directly cleave CASP3/7 (CASP7 not shown), and CASP3 subsequently cleaves GSDME to induce pyroptosis. In response to *Salmonella*, CASP3 activation can also induce rapid cell lysis resembling pyroptosis independently of GSDMD and GSDME, likely mediated by NINJ1 and PANX1. CASP3 activation is important for limiting intracellular *Salmonella* replication. CASP4/5 can also directly cleave GSDMD and IL-18 to induce pyroptosis, and GSDMD is also essential for limiting bacterial replication. Figure generated in Biorender.

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