Epithelial micro-invasion by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* induces epithelial-derived innate immunity

during colonisation at the human mucosal surface

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ABSTRACT

Control of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* colonisation at human mucosal surfaces is critical to reducing the burden of pneumonia and invasive pneumococcal disease, interrupting transmission, and achieving herd protection. Using an Experimental Human Pneumococcal Carriage Model (EHPC), we show that *S. pneumoniae* colonisation is associated with epithelial surface adherence, micro-colony formation and invasion, without overt disease. Interactions between different strains and the epithelium *in vitro* shaped the host transcriptomic response. Using epithelial modules from a human epithelial cell model that recapitulates our *in vivo* findings, comprising of innate signalling/ regulatory pathways, inflammatory mediators, cellular metabolism and stress response genes, we find that inflammation in the EHPC model is most prominent around the time of bacterial clearance. These results show that rather than being confined to the epithelial surface and the overlying mucus layer, the pneumococcus undergoes micro-invasion of the epithelium that enhances the inflammatory/ innate immune response associated with clearance.

INTRODUCTION

Colonisation of upper respiratory tract (URT) mucosa by a range of pathogenic bacteria is a necessary precursor to both disease and onward transmission. Although *Streptococcus pneumoniae* is a common coloniser of the human nasopharynx, it is estimated to be responsible for >500,000 deaths due to pneumonia, meningitis and sepsis in children under five years of age worldwide[1].

In Europe and North America, there has been a dramatic effect of pneumococcal conjugate vaccine (PCV) on vaccine serotype (VT) invasive disease, carriage and transmission[2]. However, the emergence of non-VT pneumococcal disease worldwide and the more modest impact of PCV on colonisation in high transmission settings, threaten this success[3]. Control of pneumococcal URT colonisation in humans is not fully understood[4], and so defining the mechanistic basis for host control of pneumococcal colonisation at the mucosal surface is therefore crucial for the further optimisation of therapeutic interventions which target carriage and transmission. The process of transmission is not fully understood, but mucosal inflammation, potentially enhanced by co-infection with viruses such as Influenza A, has been proposed to mediate bacterial shedding from the nasopharynx[5].

Naturally acquired immunity to *S. pneumoniae* proteins are primarily mediated by mucosal T cells and anti-protein antibodies, controlled by Treg[6-8]. The role of anti-capsule polysaccharide antibodies in naturally acquired immune control remains unresolved[9]. URT epithelium is central to this immunity[10], binding and transporting antibodies, sensing bacteria via a range of surface and intracellular pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) receptors, and rapidly transducing signals to recruit innate and inflammatory immune mechanisms[11,12].

Murine models suggest that adherence of *S. pneumoniae* to the mucosal epithelium may be followed by paracellular transmigration and tight junction modulation[13,14]. In contrast, studies of immortalised epithelial cell monolayers implicate endocytosis of *S. pneumoniae*, mediated though pneumococcal protein C–polymeric immunoglobulin receptor interactions[15,16]. The relative importance of epithelial endocytosis and paracellular migration in colonisation and invasion remains uncertain[16], but could

influence epithelial sensing of this otherwise extracellular pathogen[14]. For example this may include

Nod1 signalling via peptidoglycan[17] and TLR4 signalling via pneumolysin, a pore-forming toxin that

induces inflammation and mediates both clearance and transmission in an infant mouse model[18-20].

We have explored the hypothesis that pneumococcal-epithelial engagement dictates the

inflammatory/ innate immune response and therefore the outcome of colonisation. Much of what we

understand of the control of pneumococcal colonisation is derived from epidemiological studies and

murine carriage models. The Experimental Human Pneumococcal Carriage (EHPC) model provides

a well-controlled, reproducible tool to characterise the cellular and molecular mechanisms that

underlie pneumococcal colonisation in humans[21]. The model has revealed that pneumococcal

carriage results in neutrophil degranulation and monocyte recruitment to the nasopharynx[22],

protecting against re-challenge with the same strain for up to one year[21,23].

We have used human epithelial cell lines and different strains of *S. pneumoniae* to further probe

these mechanisms and derive an epithelial transcriptome module to interrogate the host response

in the EHPC model. We show that pneumococcal colonisation in humans is characterised by micro-

colony formation, junctional protein association and migration across the epithelial barrier without

disease, which we have termed micro-invasion. This pattern of bacterial-host cell association shapes

epithelial sensing of *S. pneumoniae,* which is partially pneumolysin dependent. Together, our data

suggest that pneumococcal engagement with the epithelium in the early phases of colonisation may

occur without eliciting a marked host response, but as colonisation becomes more established,

epithelial sensing of *S. pneumoniae* enhances innate immunity/ inflammation which we propose

promotes clearance.

RESULTS

Pneumococcal colonisation of the human nasopharynx is associated with epithelial adhesion, micro-colony formation and micro-invasion

We have used an EHPC model[21] to capture the epithelial events central to pneumococcal colonisation, obtaining human mucosal samples by curette biopsy. We defined a carrier as an individual colonised by 6B *S. pneumoniae* as detected by culture of nasal wash at any day following inoculation. Clearance was defined as when *S. pneumoniae* colonisation became negative by culture of nasal wash.

Colonisation was detected in 9/13 healthy volunteers by culture, 12/13 by microscopy (using 6B capsule-specific antibody labelling) and 9/11 by LytA PCR (Table 1). Carriage was detected by culture/ PCR at day 2, whereas maximum detection by microscopy was evident at day 6. This is not explained by colonisation density and therefore the sensitivity of culture/ PCR. This could be explained by greater association with the epithelium (detected by all techniques) rather than the overlying mucus (detected by culture/ PCR but not microscopy) over time. Clearance generally occurred between day 9 and day 27 (Table 1 and Figure 1b).

Curette biopsy samples visualised by confocal microscopy using Wheat Germ Agglutinin (WGA) as a marker for surface carbohydrates and Junctional Adhesion Molecule A (JAM-A) as a marker of tight junctions, yielded intact sheets of epithelial cells (Supplementary Figure 1bi, 1bii) associated with polymorphonuclear leukocytes, characterised morphologically (Figure 1a and Supplementary Figure 1a). Amongst carriers, pneumococci were found on the epithelial surface (Table 1; Figure 1c, Figure 1d, Supplementary Figure 1biii) which over time (typically by 6 days), consisted of two or more pneumococci at the same location on the epithelial surface, which we have termed micro-colonies (Figure 1e, Supplementary Figure 1biv). There was evidence of what we have termed pneumococcal "micro-invasion" of the epithelial monolayer consisting of either internalisation of bacteria and/ or transmigration across the epithelial barrier (Figure 1e-f). Pneumococci were also observed in phagocytic cells (Supplementary Figure 1a). Colonisation was frequently characterised

by co-association between *S. pneumoniae* and JAM-A (Figure 1f). This intimate association between inoculated pneumococci and the mucosa during asymptomatic pneumococcal carriage in humans is suggestive of an active engagement process which may influence the outcome of colonisation.

Further visualization of this bacteria-host interaction by transmission electron microscopy has proven problematic, but we have been able to demonstrate the integrity of the nasal epithelial curette biopsy samples (Supplementary Figures 1bi and 1bii). We provide evidence of diplococci on the epithelial cell surface and chains or micro-colonies of diplococci that may have been dislodged from the epithelial surface (Supplementary Figures 1biii and 1biv).

Epithelial surface marker expression *in vivo* is not altered in response to colonisation with *S. pneumoniae*

To determine whether pneumococcal colonisation leads to epithelial activation, we analysed nasal curette biopsy cells for surface expression of molecules expressed in airway epithelium which have previously been shown to be upregulated in response to common bacterial stimuli and are involved in immune cell recruitment. These were EpCAM (for epithelial cell identification), IL-22Ra1, HLADR, CD40, CD54 and CD107a (Supplementary Figure 2a-d). We did not detect a significant change in the relative expression of IL-22Ra1 (protects the epithelial barrier, promotes anti-microbial product secretion during infection, modulating pneumococcal carriage and clearance[24]), HLADR (mediates T cell-antigen recognition and is a marker of epithelial activation[25]), CD40 (co-stimulatory protein which binds CD154[26] (Supplementary Figure 2e-g)), or CD54 (a leukocyte adhesion molecule which is also upregulated by CD40[26,27], initiating neutrophil migration and recruitment[28], Figure 2a). However, although numbers of epithelial cells expressing CD107a did not change over time (Figure 2b, left), we observed an increase in CD107a^{high} expression at day 2 post inoculation in carriage positive volunteers vs. carriage negative volunteers (Figure 2b, right). CD107a in the epithelium forms the membrane glycoprotein of late endosomes and phagolysosomes[16] and has previously been implicated in pneumococcal endocytosis[16]. These data highlight the ability of the pneumococcus to colonise the nasopharynx without marked inflammation and potentially implicate CD107a in the process.

S. pneumoniae infection of nasopharyngeal epithelial cells _in vitro_ is associated with

pneumococcal adhesion, micro-colony formation and micro-invasion

To further understand epithelial responses to _S. pneumoniae_ observed in the EHPC model, we

undertook infection experiments with Detroit 562 epithelial cells. We compared the 6B response with

two other representative clinical isolates; a 23F strain, TIGR4 (the original sequenced strain[29]) and

a TIGR4 pneumolysin deletion mutant strain (dPly).

TIGR4 association with Detroit 562 cells was over 100-fold higher for adhesion and over 70-fold

higher for invasion after three hours infection, compared to 6B or 23F strains (Figure 3a-b). Using

capsule-specific antibody stain for confocal and electron microscopy, pneumococcal adhesion to the

epithelial surface at 3 hours was found to be associated with micro-colony formation, pneumococcal

chain formation and internalisation of this conventionally extracellular pathogen[14] (Figure 3d-e,

Figure i-j, Supplementary Figure 3a). Internalisation was associated with the formation of epithelial

membrane folds (Figure 3j left). Intracellular pneumococci were contained within intracellular

vesicles suggestive of endocytosis, which was most marked with the TIGR4 and dPLY-TIGR4 strains

(Figure 3b, 3j)[16]. Intracellular pneumococci were seen within vacuoles (Figure 3j middle), coated with

JAM-A (a tight junction protein that regulates barrier function and cell polarity, Figure 3f,

Supplementary Figure 3a) and associated with the adherens junction protein β catenin (that is

involved in epithelial adhesion), but not Claudin 4 (a tight junction protein that regulates paracellular

permeability, Supplementary Figure 3a). Pneumococci were located laterally, transiting between cell

junctions (Figure 3g, 3j right), at the level of the nuclei and, below the basal membrane (Figure 3h).

Transmigration across the epithelium (endocytosis or paracellular movement), as measured by the

culture of pneumococci from the basal chamber of transwell inserts, was most marked with 23F

(Figure 3c, five-fold higher compared to TIGR4, after three hours infection). A similar pattern of

epithelial interaction was also seen at one hour suggesting these observations are not simply

explained by differential growth.

Epithelial infection with the dPly-TIGR4 mutant showed a significant increase in adherence (Figure

3a, ten-fold higher after three hours infection), internalisation (Figure 3b, three-fold higher after three

hours infection, Figure 3j), but no significant differences in transmigration (Figure 3c) compared to

the wild-type strain, implicating pneumolysin in the modulation of bacterial interactions with the

epithelium.

Similar patterns of adherence and invasion were observed in infection experiments with human

Calu3 and A549 epithelial cells demonstrating that these findings are cell-line independent

(Supplementary Figure 4). Furthermore, primary epithelial cells differentiated on an air-liquid

interface for 30 days and co-cultured with either 6B or 23F *S. pneumoniae* also revealed

pneumococcal micro-colony formation, micro-invasion and epithelial junctional protein association

(Supplementary Figure 1c).

Together these data show the strain dependency of pneumococcal-epithelial interactions *in vitro*

which mirror the epithelial micro-invasion (both internalisation and/ or transmigration of

pneumococci) seen *in vivo*.

Endocytosis-related micro-invasion and transmigration

To confirm that the pneumococcal endocytosis leads to transmigration across the epithelium,

endocytosis was inhibited with dynasore and nystatin[16]. After one hour of infection, cellular uptake

of 23F was inhibited by 82% (Figure 4a) and transmigration across the cell monolayer by 85% (Figure

4b). This inhibition of endocytosis and transmigration was also seen with TIGR4 (data not shown).

In agreement with previous studies using A549 and Calu3 cells[30], we found that viable pneumococci

in Detroit 562 cells decreased over time (Supplementary Figure 5a). Using gentamicin treatment to

eliminate the original extracellular inoculum, we observed *S. pneumoniae* in the apical and basal

media (Supplementary Figure 5b), suggesting egress from the epithelium.

Loss of epithelial cell barrier function is not a pre-requisite for micro-invasion by *S. pneumoniae*

S. pneumoniae has been shown to affect the integrity of epithelial barriers and tight junction function

in murine models[13,31]. Having demonstrated pneumococcal micro-invasion without marked epithelial

morphological disruption both by confocal and electron microscopy, we explored possible effects on

epithelial barrier function by measuring Trans-Epithelial Electrical Resistance (TEER) and

permeability to 4kDa FITC-dextran in Detroit 562 cells. TEER was not adversely affected by

pneumococcal co-culture (Figure 4c) and permeability was maintained with all the pneumococcal

strains at three hours post-infection (Figure 4d). Although co-localisation of pneumococci was seen

with host proteins, we did not detect marked epithelial membrane carbohydrate or protein re-

distribution (WGA, Claudin 4 JAM-A, β catenin, Supplementary Figure 3a). Similar observations

were made with A549 cells and Calu3 cells (Supplementary Figure 4). These data suggest that

pneumococcal micro-invasion was not dependent on loss of epithelial cell barrier function during

early interactions.

S. pneumoniae upregulates epithelial surface CD54 and CD107a *in vitro*

In a similar manner to primary cells collected from nasal curettes, we assessed Detroit 562 cell

surface marker expression in response to *S. pneumoniae* (Supplementary Figure 6a-c). There were

no significant changes in IL-22Ra1, HLADR or CD40 expression in response to 6B, 23F, TIGR4 and

dPly-TIGR4 strains (Supplementary Figure 6d -f). However, CD54^{high} expression was significantly

greater in response to the TIGR4 and dPly-TIGR4 strains, compared to non-infected cells (Figure

5a). Epithelial CD107a was upregulated in response to the 6B, 23F and TIGR4 strains (Figure 5b),

but this was not seen with dPly-TIGR4. These data implicate pneumolysin in the induction of CD107a

but not CD54 epithelial surface expression and support the possibility that CD107a is involved in

pneumococcal-epithelial micro-invasion events seen *in vivo*.

240 *Streptococcus pneumoniae* **induces epithelial secretion of IL-6, IL-8 and CD54**

241 To assess the inflammatory consequences of pneumococcal-epithelial infections *in vitro*, we

242 measured a cytokine panel in Detroit 562 cell supernatants following *S. pneumoniae* incubation

243 (Figure 5c). We detected a significant increase in IL-6 and IL-8, which were strain dependent and

244 partially pneumolysin dependent. In line with surface marker observations, only TIGR4 significantly

245 upregulated the secretion of soluble CD54, which was dependent on pneumolysin (Figure 5c). These

246 data highlight the less inflammatory nature of the 6B strain compared to the more invasive strain,

247 TIGR4, and the importance of pneumolysin in the epithelial response. Pneumococcal wild-type strain

248 differences were not explained by differences in pneumolysin activity, as determined by hemolysis

249 (Supplementary Figure 7).

250

251 **Innate transcriptomic responses to epithelial infection by** *S. pneumoniae in vitro*

252 To explore the hypothesis that the pattern of epithelial adhesion and micro-invasion results in

253 differential epithelial responses, we performed RNAseq of Detroit 562 cells infected with our panel

254 of *S. pneumoniae* strains. In comparison to non-infected epithelial cell cultures, infection with TIGR4

255 upregulated expression of 1127 genes (517 unique genes), 23F upregulated 650 genes (69 unique

256 genes), and 6B upregulated 153 genes (10 unique genes), (Figure 6a). The pneumolysin deficient

257 isogenic mutant of TIGR4 upregulated 220 genes (14 unique genes). Compared to non-infected

258 cells, 1193 genes were upregulated by *S. pneumoniae* infection overall and 93 were core to all

259 strains tested (differentially upregulated genes in Supplementary Excel file 1 and Reactome

260 pathways in Supplementary Excel file 2).

261

262 To elucidate the pathways that drive the transcriptional responses to each strain, we also undertook

263 transcription factor binding site enrichment analysis (Figure 6b, transcription factor binding site

264 enrichment analysis in Supplementary Excel file 3). The responses to 6B and pneumolysin deficient

265 strains were principally enriched in binding sites for the NFkB/Rel family of transcription factors,

266 indicating that an NFkB activation pathway was the dominant driver for responses to these strains.

In contrast, cellular responses to TIGR4 and 23F strains revealed enriched binding sites for more

diverse transcription factors, suggesting broader molecular pathways by which these strains may

influence cellular function. This analysis revealed particular enrichment of binding sites for beta-beta-

alpha zinc finger superfamily of transcription factors, including KLF4, suggesting that these strains

upregulate mitogen activated protein kinase pathways upstream of these transcription factors[32].

The sets of genes upregulated by each strain individually were subjected to core and interactome

and pathway-enrichment analysis for functional annotation of the cellular response at systems level

(Figure 6c). From 20 clusters of pathways, significant enrichment of innate immune system

responses was evident in all strains and included specific enrichment in Toll receptor cascades,

peptide ligand-binding receptors, NFkB and MAP kinase activation, Interferon signalling and cytokine

and chemokine signalling, (Figure 6c, 6d, Supplementary Figure 8). In general, each pneumococcal

strain induced a distinct transcriptomic profile, with TIGR4 and 23F strains inducing a broader

number of biological pathways than the 6B strain (Figure 6c). Fewer transcriptional responses at the

level of functional pathways in response to dPly-TIGR4 is consistent with a role for pneumolysin in

innate immune recognition of *S. pneumoniae*[33]. Fewer transcriptional responses to 6B is consistent

with our observations that this strain exhibits the lowest level of cellular association and

transmigration.

Epithelial transcriptomic responses to 6B are detectable *in vivo*

Next, we sought to test whether these epithelial transcriptomic responses to *S. pneumoniae* were

also evident in the 6B EHPC model. We compared nasal transcriptomes sampled at two or nine days

after inoculation to pre-inoculation samples. These revealed enrichment of 162 transcripts among

individuals who became colonised (differential gene expression in Supplementary Excel file 4).

These genes included Claudin 5 and Claudin 17, Defensin β 103A/B, Cadherin 16, Desmocollin 1

and Gap junction protein α1, which suggests cytoskeletal re-organisation two days post-inoculation

in carriage positive individuals. By day 9 post-inoculation, molecules such as CCR3, matrix

metalloproteinase 12 and MHC II molecules were enriched, suggesting activation of the nasal

mucosa[34]. However, these genes were not significantly enriched for any immune response pathway

annotation perhaps because of the statistical stringency necessary for genome-wide multiple testing

and were not epithelial-specific.

Gene expression modules can successfully detect specific transcriptional programs in bulk tissue[35].

Therefore, as an alternative approach, we sought to target specific epithelial responses *in vivo* using

the *in vitro* interactome. A direct comparison of transcripts for 6B revealed FOSL-1, an AP-1

transcription factor subunit, to be enriched with carriage, which has previously been reported to

become activated following pneumococcal challenge in BEAS-2B and HEK293 cells[36]. To expand

the sensitivity of the approach, we evaluated the expression of two transcriptional modules in the

nasal samples (Figure 7). A 'core' module comprised of 16 interacting genes (Figure 7b) that were

upregulated in the Detroit epithelium by all the pneumococcal strains from Figure 7a, and a second

'integrated' module that comprised of 200 interacting genes (Figure 7c), which were upregulated in

the Detroit epithelium by at least one of the pneumococcal strains from Figure 7a. Among carriage

negative individuals, we found no increase in expression in either gene expression modules (Figure

7b-c). In contrast among the individuals who became colonised, the increased expression of both

modules, (significantly increased within the integrated module, Figure 7b,7c), suggests that the

prominence of responses at day nine may reflect time-dependent proliferation of the 6B bacterial

inoculum, epithelial engagement and the subsequent epithelial activation. These responses coincide

around the time of bacterial clearance.

DISCUSSION

It is widely accepted that colonisation of the URT mucosa by many potentially pathogenic bacterial

species, involves transient association with the overlying mucus layer but that adherence to the

epithelial surface avoids mucus entrapment and muco-ciliary clearance[14,37]. While evading immunity,

bacterial replication then occurs prior to onward transmission to a new host. Even for *S. pneumoniae,*

the mechanisms underlying this transition from acquisition to established colonisation, and then

transmission and/or disease, are not well understood. By combining an EHPC model and *in vitro*

human cell culture systems, we show that pneumococcal colonisation leads to epithelial adherence,

micro-colony formation and migration across the epithelial barrier without disease, which we have

termed micro-invasion. The finding of co-association with junctional proteins provides a possible

mechanism for micro-invasion. Clearance of the pneumococcus from the mucosa *in vivo* occurs in

the context of micro-invasion. Indeed, epithelial micro-invasion and not bacterial load *per s*e, appears

to dictate unique transcription factor binding site signatures, downstream cytokine, chemokine and

metabolic pathway enrichment (Figure 8).

The concept of mucosal micro-invasion moves us away from current models of colonisation where

the pneumococcus is held up at the epithelial surface and that invasion leads to disease. Our data

are supported by murine colonisation experiments[38,39] and the detection of pneumococcal DNA in

blood of otherwise healthy, colonised children[40]. In line with other cell culture and murine

models[13,16,38,41], we have demonstrated that pneumococcal micro-invasion occurs by endocytosis

through the formation of cytoplasmic vacuoles, and by paracellular transcytosis across the

epithelium. This process appears to be association with the formation of epithelial folds different from

the membrane ruffles previously reported with conventionally intracellular pathogens such as

Salmonella typhimurium[42]. Our study emphasises the active nature of these processes without

marked cellular damage or loss of barrier function. Micro-invasion of the epithelium may overcome

the inaccessibility of PAMP receptors located either at the epithelial basolateral surface or

intracellularly[43,44]. We have found that at early time points, micro-invasion *in vitro* is also

characterised by pneumococcal co-association with JAM-A and β catenin without evidence of barrier

dysfunction. In murine models at later time points, TLR-dependent Claudin 7 and Claudin 10 down-

regulation enhanced pneumococcal translocation across the epithelium has been observed[13]. While

this may occur as inflammation becomes more prominent, our data suggest that micro-invasion can

happen without barrier disruption and that the epithelium plays an active role in the regulation of

these complex host-pathogen interactions[12]. How micro-invasion relates to the risk of invasive

pneumococcal disease remains to be determined but as demonstrated by the EHPC model, micro-

invasion may occur in healthy individuals without symptoms.

The differential impact of micro-invasion on the epithelial transcriptomic response was striking with

considerable enrichment of multiple diverse transcription factors and signalling pathways related to

innate immunity with the most invasive pneumococcal strains. The interactome module highlights

that although enrichment of gene activation in response to all pneumococcal strains is apparent (the

core module), a more diverse range of epithelial gene activation occurs between strains, reflecting

specific host-pathogen interactions. Nasal colonisation in murine models is proinflammatory[45,46], but

our *in vitro* and EHPC experiments with serotype 6B suggests this is not always the case, whereby

pneumococcal-host cell adherence, growth, endocytosis and paracellular migration can be

established without a marked host response. In the EHPC, clearance occurred around the time the

epithelial transcriptomic response was most prominent. Weiser and colleagues argue that the

colonising pneumococcus induces a host inflammatory response that mediates clearance, but also

promotes nutrient acquisition, mucus production and onward transmission[14,18,47], which is supported

by murine models[48] and epidemiological studies of viral-coinfection[49]. It has been suggested that

pneumolysin induces neutrophil influx and degranulation, leading to increased secretions from the

nasopharynx, so promoting transmission[5,18]. We therefore suggest that the epithelial innate response

resulting from pneumococcal colonisation could promote both clearance and transmission.

The enrichment of binding sites for the transcription factor KLF4 transcription factors seen in our *in*

vitro data suggests a counter-regulatory process aimed at minimising inflammation. KLF4 plays a

role in barrier function, suppression of NFκB-dependent IL-8 secretion, regulation of IL-10 expression

via TLR9-MyD88 and Yes-1, in response to *S. pneumoniae,* which is partially dependent on autolysin

LytA[32,50,51]. Thus, by exploiting micro-invasion, the pneumococcus may carefully calibrate the host

innate immune/ inflammatory response to promote survival through transmission.

A range of pneumococcal PAMPs including pneumolysin, may trigger this epithelial sensing

process[18,52]. We found pneumolysin to be a prominent inducer of epithelial surface molecule

upregulation, cytokine production and transcriptomic inflammatory response *in vitro*. Following

internalisation of the pneumococcus by neutrophils, pneumolysin has been shown to induce ROS

following bacterial autolysis, which leads to cellular activation[53]. We speculate that pneumolysin

released intracellularly may signal directly in epithelial cells or through host cell pore-formation

leading to entry of other PAMPs. Mediated by autolysin, the pneumococcus undergoes autolysis

during stationery growth phase, resulting in additional PAMPs' release including bacterial DNA[53]. In

mice, pneumococcal DNA triggers inflammation through a DAI/STING/TBK1/IRF3 cascade[45,54], a

response that may contribute to pneumococcal clearance. In our *in vitro* transcriptomic analyses, we

detected enriched activation of IRF3/IFR7 in dPly-TIGR4. We suggest that in the context of micro-

invasion, pneumococcal DNA may also act as a trigger of epithelial sensing, inducing inflammation[54].

Our findings are limited by the pneumococcal strains available for testing in the EHPC model to

enable direct comparisons with *in vitro* data. Nonetheless, the use of different strains *in vitro* has

enabled us and others[55,56] to determine the impact of different patterns of epithelial adherence and

invasion on the host inflammatory/ innate immune response. Currently, the EHPC model does not

allow us to definitively assess human to human transmission although the appropriate methods are

under development.

In conclusion, our data implicates the novel finding of micro-invasion during pneumococcal

colonisation of otherwise healthy humans, promoting epithelial-derived innate immunity/

inflammation and ultimately clearance. The pathways critical for onward pneumococcal transmission

remain to be determined in humans but based on murine models, we propose that this epithelial

response may also facilitate transmission. The balance between innate immunity/ inflammation-

driven transmission and clearance may be further modulated by the frequency of carriage events,

pneumococcal strain co-colonisation, viral co-infections and other environmental pressures[1,22,48].

Our approach combining *in vitro* with *in vivo* human systems offers a potentially tractable way to

further interrogate these processes.

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METHODS

Bacteria

S. pneumoniae clinical strains used were 6B (BHN 418[57]), 23F (P1121[58]) and TIGR4 (P1672[59]),

together with a pneumolysin deficient TIGR4 mutant strain (P1672, a kind gift from Prof T Mitchell,

University of Birmingham). Stocks of bacterial aliquots grown to O.D.$_{600nm}$ 0.3 were stored at -80°C,

defrosted, resuspended in cell culture media and used once. Colony forming units (CFU) were

counted on horse blood agar plates (EO Labs).

Experimental Human Pneumococcal Carriage Model (EHPC)

Following written informed consent, healthy non-smoking adults between the ages of 18 – 59 were

inoculated with 80,000 CFU/nostril live 6B *S. pneumoniae* (BHN418), grown to mid-log phase in

vegetone broth as previously described[60]. Individuals naturally colonised with *S. pneumoniae* or in

regular contact with at-risk individuals were excluded (except for EM images in Supplementary

Figure 1b). Blood and mucosal T cell and antibody immunity were not systematically measured in

this cohort but previous studies of volunteers from this population have demonstrated background T

cell and antibody-mediated anti-pneumococcal immunity, but a relationship between pre-challenge

immunity and the development of carriage in the model has not been established[21,23]. To exclude

the influence of viral-coinfection, EHPC model volunteers who had coryzal or flu-like symptoms prior

to challenge were excluded. Volunteers were screened for the presence of 20 common respiratory

viruses before inoculation. 1/13 asymptomatic volunteers (volunteer 1) was positive for enterovirus.

Nasal washes and mucosal cells (curette biopsy) from the inferior turbinate were obtained by PBS

syringe and curettage using a plastic Rhino-probe™ (Arlington Scientific), in this order of collection

respectively, before pneumococcal inoculation. Sampling was then repeated on days 2, 6, 9, and 14

- 27 post pneumococcal inoculation[61]. Volunteers received the TIV vaccine intramuscularly at day 3

post pneumococcal inoculation. Bacteria collected from nasal washes were quantified by CFU

counts. At each time-point, two curettage samples were obtained and processed for confocal

immunofluorescence, flow cytometry, primary cell culture and /or transcriptomic analysis by RNA

sequencing (RNAseq). There were no adverse events. The carriage status of each volunteer was

blinded until sample analysis was completed.

Ethical approval was given by NHS Research and Ethics Committee (REC)/Liverpool School of

Tropical Medicine (LSTM) REC, reference numbers: 15/NW/0146 and 14/NW/1460 and Human

Tissue Authority licensing number 12548.

Human Respiratory Tract Epithelial Cell Lines

Human pharyngeal carcinoma Detroit 562 epithelial cells (ATCC_CCL-138) and human bronchial

carcinoma Calu3 epithelial cells (ATCC_HTB-55) were grown in 10% FCS in alpha MEM media

(Gibco). Human alveolar epithelial carcinoma A549 epithelial cells (ATCC_CCL-185) were grown in

10% FCS with 1% L-glutamine in Hams/F-12 media (Gibco).

Pneumococcal-epithelial cell co-culture

Association and Invasion assays - confluent Detroit 562 (typically day 8 post plating), Calu3 (typically day 10 post plating) and A549 (typically day 4 post plating) monolayers cultured on 12 well plates (Corning), were exposed to *S. pneumoniae* for three hours in 1% FCS alpha MEM (~MOI approximately 1 cell: 10 pneumococci). The medium was removed, and cells washed three times in HBSS$^{+/+}$. Cells were incubated in 1% saponin for 10 minutes at 37°C and lysed by repetitive pipetting. Dilutions of bacteria were plated on blood agar and colonies counted after 16 hours. To quantify internalised bacteria, 100µg/ml gentamicin was added for 1 hour to the cells, which were washed another three times, before incubating with 1% Saponin and plating on blood agar plates. CFUs were counted after 16 hours incubation at 37°C, 5% CO_2. There were no differences in pneumococcal pre- or post-inoculum, or growth density between the strains, in the cell supernatant three hours post-infection.

Transmigration assay - Detroit 562 cells were cultured on 3µm pore, PET Transwell Inserts (ThermoFisher) typically for 10 days to achieve confluent, polarised monolayers. Calu3 cells were plated onto Transwell inserts typically for 12 days and A549 cells typically for 6 days. Cell culture media was changed 1 hour prior to addition of bacteria to 1% FCS (250µl apical chamber, 1ml basal chamber). Resistance was recorded before and after *S. pneumoniae* were added using an EVOM2 (World Precision Instruments). 1mg/ml FITC-dextran (Sigma Aldrich) was added to the apical chamber of selected inserts to assess permeability. Approximately 12 million bacteria were added to the cells (~MOI 1 cell: 25 bacteria). During the time course, 50µl was removed, diluted and plated, from the basal chamber to measure bacterial load by counting CFU/well. Permeability was recorded using a FLUOstar Omega (BMG Labtech) at 488nm.

Endocytosis inhibition assays - Detroit 562 cells cultured on 12 well plates were treated with 100µM dynasore (Cambridge Biosciences) and 7.5µg/ml nystatin (Sigma Aldrich) to block endocytosis for 30 minutes prior to, and for the duration of pneumococcal infection incubation period. DMSO was

used as a control. Cells were washed and treated with gentamicin and lysed with saponin as

described above.

Confocal Microscopy

For the *in vivo* analysis, mucosal cells derived by curettage from the EHPC model were placed

directly into 4% PFA for 1 hour. Cells were cytospun onto microscope slides and allowed to air dry.

For the *in vitro* analysis, epithelial cell lines on transwell membranes were fixed in either 4% PFA

(Pierce, Methanol Free) or 1:1 mix of methanol: acetone for 20 minutes. For both *in vivo* and *in vitro*

samples, cells were permeabilised with 0.2% Triton X-100 for 10 minutes and blocked for 1 hour in

blocking buffer (3% goat serum and 3% BSA in PBS) before incubation with either pneumococcal

antisera Pool Q (for 6B or 23F detection, SSI Diagnostica), or pneumococcal antisera Type 4 (for

TIGR4 and dPly detection, SSI Diagnostica) to detect pneumococci, and JAM-A, Claudin-4 or β-

catenin primary antibodies to detect cellular junctional proteins (see Supplementary Information) for

one hour and then secondary and/or conjugated antibodies for 45 minutes. DAPI solution was added

for 5 minutes. After washing, the stained samples were mounted using Aqua PolyMount (VWR

International) with a coverslip onto a microslide. The entire cytospin for each sample was manually

viewed by microscopy for detection of pneumococci. Multiple fields of view (>3) were imaged for

each transwell insert, for each condition. Images were captured using either an inverted LSM 700,

LSM 880, or TissueFAXS Zeiss Confocal Microscope. Z stacks were recorded at 1μm intervals at

either 40x oil or 63x oil objectives. For the *in vivo* samples, the operator (CMW) was blinded to the

colonisation status of the volunteer at the time of sampling.

Electron Microscopy

Detroit 562 cells cultured on either transwells (scanning EM) or coverslips (transmission EM)

were fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde and 1.5% glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer

and post-fixed in 1% OsO4 / 1.5% K4Fe(CN)6 in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer pH7.3. Samples

were dehydrated in graded ethanol-water series and infiltrated with Agar 100 resin mix.

Ultra-thin sections were cut at 70-80 nm using a diamond knife on a Reichert ultracut

microtome. Sections were collected on 300 mesh copper grids and stained with lead citrate.

Samples were viewed in a Joel 1010 transition electron microscope and images recorded

using a Gatan Orius camera. Further details of TEM and SEM methods can be found in the

Supplementary information.

Flow cytometry

For the *in vivo* analysis, cells from two curette samples were incubated in cold PBS++ (PBS

supplemented with 5mM EDTA and 0.5% FCS) were dislodged by pipetting and centrifuged at 440g

for 5 mins at 4°C. Supernatant was removed, and cells resuspended in 25µl of PBS++ with

Live/Dead™ Fixable Violet Dead Cell Stain (ThermoFisher). After 15 minutes incubation on ice, an

antibody cocktail to stain for epithelial surface marker expression (see Supplementary Information)

was added and incubated for another 15 minutes. Samples were vortexed, resuspended in 3.5mls

of PBS++ and filtered over a pre-wetted 70µm filter. Samples were transferred to a 5ml FACS tube,

centrifuged and resuspended in 200µl Cell Fix (BD Biosciences) and acquired on LSRII Flow

Cytometer (BD Biosciences). Compensation was run and applied for each experimental replicate

and voltages consistent throughout. Isotype controls (Biolegend) and FL-1 controls were also run for

each antibody. Analyses of data was performed using FlowJo LLC version 10 software. Data was

performed on the gated epithelial cell population and only samples containing 500 or more cells are

reported.

For the *in vitro* analysis, confluent monolayers of Detroit 562 cells on 6 well plates were incubated

with *S. pneumoniae* for 6 hours in 1% FCS phenol free alpha MEM (base media, Life Technologies).

Cells were washed three times in PBS and gently lifted from the plate using a cell scraper in 300µl

of base media supplemented with 1mM EDTA. Samples were transferred to 5ml FACS tubes and

placed on ice for the duration of the protocol. Each cell sample was incubated with an antibody

cocktail for epithelial surface marker expression (see Supplemental Information) and Live/Dead™

Fixable Zombie Blue UV Cell Stain (Biolegend) for 30 minutes before rinsing in 1ml base media and

centrifuging at 300g for 5 minutes at 4°C. Cells were fixed in 600µl of 4% PFA and acquired on an

LSR II Flow Cytometer (BD Biosciences). Compensation was run and applied for each experimental

replicate and voltages consistent throughout. Isotype controls (BD Biosciences), FL-1 and single

stains were also run for each experiment. Samples were acquired until 300,000 events had been

collected. Analyses were performed using FlowJo LLC version 10 software.

ELISAs

Supernatant from Detroit 562 cells that had been incubated with *S. pneumoniae* for 6 hours, was

collected for cytokine analysis. IL-6, IL-8 and ICAM-1 DuoSet® ELISA kits were purchased from

R&D Systems and protocol followed according to manufacturers' instructions.

RNA samples and sequencing (RNASeq)

Mucosal curettage samples and epithelial cell cultures (incubated with or without *S. pneumoniae* for

3 hours) were collected in RNALater (ThermoFisher) and stored at -80°C. RNA Extraction was

performed using the RNEasy micro kit (Qiagen) and genomic DNA was removed with on column

DNA digestion or with the Turbo DNA-free Kit (Qiagen). Extracted RNA quality was assessed and

quantified using a BioAnalyser (Agilent 2100). For mucosal curettage samples, library preparation

and RNA-sequencing (Illumina Hiseq 4000, 15 lanes in total with 7 samples per lane, 100bp and

75bp paired-end reads) were performed at the Beijing Genome Institute (China) or the Wellcome

Sanger Institute (UK), respectively. For the Detroit 562 samples, library preparation was performed

using the Kappa Hyperprep kit (Roche Diagnostics) and sequencing was undertaken by the

Pathogens Genomic Unit (UCL) on the Illumina Nextseq using the Nextseq 500/550 High Output 75

cycle kit (Illumina) according to manufacturers' instructions, giving 15-20 million 41bp paired end

reads per sample.

All data processing and analysis was conducted in R, language and environment for statistical

computing (https://www.R-project.org). Paired end reads were mapped to the Ensembl human

transcriptome reference sequence (homo sapiens GRCh38). Mapping and generation of read counts

per transcript were performed using Kallisto[62], based on pseudoalignment. R/Bioconductor package

Tximport was used to import the mapped counts data and summarise the transcripts-level data into

gene level data[63]. DESeq2 and SARTools packages[64], were used for differential gene expression

analysis, using a false discovery rate (FDR) <0.05, following normalisation with a negative binomial

generalised linear model. In addition, transcript abundance for protein coding genes was expressed

as $\log_2$-transformed transcripts per million (TPM) by normalising the read counts to gene length and

then read depth. Transcriptomes from nasal samples ranged from 16 to 66 million reads per sample

and in principle component analysis, revealed a batch effect that was corrected by the Combat

function in the Surrogate Variable Analysis (SVA) R/Bioconductor package[65].

Identification of interacting networks and pathway enrichment analysis was performed using XGR R

package[66]. Interacting genes (supported by at least one experimental source of evidence) were

identified from the Pathway Commons database for directed interactions. These were then subjected

to Reactome pathway enrichment analysis with FDR<0.05. K-means clustering of Jaccard indices

to quantify similarity between the composition of genes mapping to each pathway was used to

identify 20 groups of pathways, from which the pathway consisting of the largest total number of

genes was selected to provide a representative annotation for each group. Transcription factor

binding site enrichment analysis was performed using the human single site analysis function in

oPOSSUM[67]. The expression of gene modules in the nasal transcriptomes was represented by the

mean $\log_2$ TPM value of the genes in each module.

Code and RNAseq data availability

Codes used to process the RNAseq data can be found at https://github.com/cristina86cristina.

RNAseq data from the EHPC are accessible through GEO Series Number GSE124949. RNAseq

data from the Detroit 562 cell infections is accessible through the ArrayExpress database at EMBL-

EBI under accession number E-MTAB-7841. Data from differential gene expression from

upregulated genes following infection, Reactome pathways and transcription factor analysis can be

found in Supplemental Excel Files 1 - 4.

Statistics

All experiments were conducted with replicates in three or more independent experiments unless

stated otherwise. Error bars represent SEM unless stated otherwise. GraphPad Prism Version 10

was used to perform two-tailed parametric (t-tests or ANOVA) or non-parametric (Mann-Whitney or

Kruskal-Wallis tests) analysis, which was based on the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. P values less

than 0.05 were considered significant and are derived from non-parametric statistical tests unless

stated otherwise.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Table 1. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* association with the nasal epithelium in the EHPC model

detected by culture, confocal microscopy and LytA PCR

Nasal washes and nasal curette biopsies were collected from carriage positive and carriage negative

volunteers over time. Standard methods for measuring bacterial density by culture (CFU) and LytA

PCR were compared against counts visualised by confocal microscopy for pneumococcal

association with nasal cells over time. The data was derived from 13 volunteers. + (1-10

pneumococci); ++ (11-50 pneumococci); +++ (51-100 pneumococci); ++++ (>100 pneumococci); n/a

= reading not taken.

Figure 1. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* colonisation of the human nasal epithelium from the EHPC model is associated with adhesion, micro-colony formation and micro-invasion in response to *S. pneumoniae* 6B colonisation

(a) Representative fields from the EHPC model nasal curette biopsies show intact epithelium can be obtained from the samples (as visualised by XY planes) and they retain their size and shape (as visualised by XZ planes). Cells were stained with Wheat Germ Agglutinin (WGA) or Junctional Adhesion Molecule -A (JAM-A, red) and nuclei (blue). (b) The pattern of pneumococcal density detected by culture and microscopy. (c) The proportion of bacteria located on the cell surface, intracellularly, or paracellularly visualised by confocal microscopy, quantified from 8 volunteers collected over time from microscopy counts. (d) Cells were stained for surface carbohydrates using WGA (red), and the bacteria were marked with specific serotype antiserum (green). XY images of 1μm slices through a layer of cells from top (stack 1) to bottom (stack 4), with bacteria associated. (e) Examples of cells collected on day 6 post-inoculation stained with WGA (red) showing; (ei) mMicro-colony formation on the surface of the epithelium, (eii) bacterial internalization, (eiii) migration through epithelial uptake internally or between cells. (f) Co-association between *S. pneumoniae* (green) and JAM-A (red). Nuclei (blue). Bacterial uptake appeared co-associated with JAM-A (yellow).

Figure 2. Epithelial surface marker expression is not altered in response *to S. pneumoniae* 6B colonisation *in vivo*

Epithelial cells from nasal curette biopsies were analysed by flow cytometry for (a) CD54 and (b) CD107a. Results were expressed as median fluorescence intensity (left) and high cell surface expression (≥95% of the baseline expression, right) representing at least two volunteers per time point who were carriage negative (black) and carriage positive (grey). Comparisons between carriage negative and carriage positive, on each day of sampling, was analysed by 1-way ANOVA (a – parametric, b – non-parametric). P = 0.84 CD54 MFI; p = 0.98 CD54 %; p = 0.09 CD107a MFI; p = 0.10 CD107a %.

Figure 3. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* infection of nasopharyngeal epithelium *in vitro* is associated with adhesion, micro-colony formation, micro-invasion, transmigration and is partially influenced by pneumolysin.

(a) Pneumococcal association and (b) internalisation: Detroit 562 cell monolayers were stimulated with pneumococci for 1 or 3 hours and the quantity of associated bacteria was determined by culture (CFU); n = 6. ****P = <0.0001, ***P = 0.0001: - (a) 1hr (dashed lines, ANOVA); 3hr (solid lines, Kruskall-Wallis); (b) (Kruskall-Wallis). (c) Pneumococcal transmigration: Cells on transwell inserts were stimulated with pneumococci for 3 hours and bacterial density in the basal chamber was determined (**P = 0.0092, Kruskall-Wallis). N = 5. (d) Representative pneumococcal-density (green) images of cells (blue nuclei). Scale bar = 20μm. n = 5. (e - h) Representative images of pneumococcal localization (green) from cells (red, JAM-A), illustrating: (e) differences in adherence by 6B and TIGR4; (f) internalised bacteria (top 6B; bottom TIGR4) co-localised with JAM-A with associated intracellular vesicle-like bodies (yellow); (g) lateral localisation of pneumococci (XY images, TIGR4) with possible paracellular movement co-associated with JAM-A (XZ images, 6B); (h) basal localisation of bacteria (23F) at the level of nuclei and insert pores N = 5 with replicates. (i) Scanning EM images of Detroit 562 cells infected with *S. pneumoniae* which appear as diplococci. Left – pneumococcal chain formation (strain 23F, arrow); middle and right – micro-colony formation by strains 6B and TIGR4 on the epithelial surface. (i) Micro-invasion of dPLY-TIGR4 shown by EM: left - scanning EM showing epithelial membrane folding (arrows) and pneumococci below the cell membrane surface (*); middle – internalisation of TIGR4 pneumococci encased within a vacuole (arrow); and right – transmission EM showing transmigration of dPLY-TIGR4 pneumococci between epithelial cells (arrow).

Figure 4. Transmigration of *S. pneumoniae* is endocytosis-dependent but does not disrupt barrier integrity or function

(a and b) Detroit 562 cells were treated with dynasore and nystatin for 30 minutes prior to and during

incubation with 23F, for 1 hour. (a) Intracellular bacteria were quantified using a gentamicin

protection assay and CFUs counted (****P = <0.0001, Mann-Whitney). (b) Transmigrated bacteria

after one hour were counted by CFUs (*P = 0.013 Mann-Whitney). N = 4. (c and d) Cells were co-

infected with pneumococci for three hours on transwell inserts and barrier function was measured.

(c) Trans-Epithelial Electrical Resistance (TEER) was compared before and after exposure to

pneumococci. N = 9. Calcium withdrawal was used as a positive control (***P = 0.0013, unpaired T-

test, n = 3). (d) Permeability was assessed by leak to 4kDa FITC-dextran, collected from basal

chamber. N = 4. ****P = <0.0001 comparing non-infected against pneumococci (Kruskall-Wallis).

Blank inserts were used as a positive control (Mann-Whitney).

Figure 5. Epithelial CD107a and CD54 surface expression and secretion of IL-6, IL-8 and CD54

are upregulated after _S. pneumoniae_ exposure _in vitro_

(a and b) Detroit 562 cells were stimulated with _S. pneumoniae_ for 6 hours and the median

fluorescence intensity and high-expressing cells for (a) CD54 and (b) CD107a were analysed by flow

cytometry. n = 3 independent experiments (**** P < 0.0001 CD107a MFI, compared to non-infected

cells, ANOVA. *** P = 0.0009 for MFI CD107a, TIGR4 v dPly, unpaired T-test. *** P < 0.001 CD107a

high expression, compared to non-infected cells, ANOVA *P = 0.028 for high expression CD107a,

TIGR4 vs. dPly, Mann-Whitney). (* P = 0.048 NI v TIGR4; * P = 0.0367 NI v dPly for CD54, ANOVA).

(c) IL-6, IL-8 and CD54 in the supernatants from Detroit 562 cells stimulated with _S. pneumoniae_ for

6 hours, were measured by ELISA. N = 6 independent experiments with replicates. (**** P <0.0001

IL-6; *** P = 0.0013 CD54; **** P < 0.0001 IL-8 (Kruskall-Wallis test)).

Figure 6. The epithelial transcriptomic response to _Streptococcus pneumoniae in vitro_ is

influenced by epithelial adhesion and micro-invasion

(a) The total number of Detroit 562 epithelial genes upregulated following exposure to 6B, 23F,

TIGR4 and TIGR4-dPly pneumococci, compared to non-infected samples. N = 3 independent

experiments with replicates. Genes with an FDR <0.05 were considered for further analysis. The

matrix shows intersections for the four strains, sorted by size. Dark circles in the matrix indicates

sets that are part of the intersection. (b) Bubble heat map showing the results of transcriptional factor

analysis in Opossum for each strain. Transcriptional factors are ordered by family and then sorted

by number of genes in the database. The colour represents the log2 z-scores (a continuum from

blue (lowest values) to red (highest values) and the size shows the number of genes annotated to

the particular pathway. (c) Bubble heat map showing the results of Reactome Pathway Analysis for

upregulated genes in each strain compared to non-infected cells. Pathways were clustered in 20

groups using K-means on Jaccard index and the biggest pathway for each group was selected for

representative annotation of each cluster. Individual pathways within clusters are shown in

Supplementary Figure 8. The colour represents the log2 z-scores (a continuum from blue (lowest

values) and red (highest values) and the size shows the number of genes annotated to each

pathway. (d) Selected bubble heat map clusters representing the individual pathways within each

cluster from (c).

Figure 7. Epithelial-derived transcriptomic responses to *S. pneumoniae* in the EHPC model

co-incides with bacterial clearance

(a) Network representation generated from the *in vitro* analyses for each strain. From the genes

present in the networks, an integrated gene list (200 genes) and a core genes list (16 genes) were

generated and tested as modules in the *in vivo* data. (b and c) Upregulated genes in comparison to

the transcriptomes of carriage negative and carriage positive volunteers were compared between

time points. Plots represent log2 TPM arithmetic mean for genes in the core (b) and integrated (c)

modules. P = <0.05, (one tail Mann-Whitney test). Number of samples for carriage negative and

positive, respectively: pre (17:14), day 2 (15:14), day 9 (7:7).

Figure 8. Model of pneumococcal colonisation at the human mucosal epithelium.

Pneumococcal adhesion and micro-colony formation on the epithelial surface may lead to micro-

invasion; internalisation of the bacteria and/ or transmigration across the epithelial barrier (micro-

invasion). The epithelial-derived response is dependent on the subsequent pattern of interactions.

Micro-invasion amplifies epithelial sensing and inflammation/ innate immunity, which we postulate

leads to immune cell engagement. This process of epithelial sensing inflammation/ innate immunity

may enhance both clearance and transmission. Co-association with junctional proteins may facilitate

migration across the barrier.

Table 1

ID	Pneumococcal density	Pre	D2	D6	D9	D27	Surface	Intracellular	Lateral
				Sample day				**Pneumococcal association**	
1	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	373	520	10	2			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	+	+	0	+	+	0	0
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	POS			
2	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	0	0	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	+	+	0	0	0	++	+	0
	LytA PCR	NEG	NEG	NEG	n/a	NEG			
3	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	0	0	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	+	0	0	0	+	0	0
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	NEG	n/a	NEG			
4	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	3	9	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	0	0	+	0	+	0	0
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	NEG			
5	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	7×10^3	223	22	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	+	+	+	0	+	+	0
	LytA PCR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a			
6	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	1.9×10^4	5.7×10^3	3.7×10^4	11			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	++	++++	++	0	+++	++	+
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	POS			
7	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	822	1.1×10^3	160	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	+	+++	++	0	++	+	+
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	NEG			
8	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	0	0	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	LytA PCR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a			
9	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	221	695	4	<1			
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	+	+++	+	n/a	+++	+	+
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	NEG			
10	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	1×10^3	0	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	0	+	0	n/a	+	0	0
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	POS			
11	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	1.8×10^6	1.8×10^6	1.9×10^4	<1			
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	++++	++++	+	n/a	+++	+	+
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	NEG			
12	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	0	0	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	++	0	0	n/a	++	+	+
	LytA PCR	NEG	NEG	NEG	n/a	NEG			
13	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	23	2	0	0			
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	+	0	0	n/a	+	0	0
	LytA PCR	POS	POS	POS	n/a	POS			

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

a

b

c

d

Figure 7

a

b

c

Figure 8