Epithelial control of colonisation by *Streptococcus pneumoniae* 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, microcolony formation and invasion, without overt disease. The finding of co-association with junctional proteins provides a possible mechanism for this so-called micro-invasion. Using epithelial modules from a human epithelial cell model that recapitulates our *in vivo* findings, comprising 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 which enhances the inflammatory/ innate immune response associated with clearance which may also trigger transmission.

Introduction

Colonisation of upper respiratory tract (URT) mucosa by a range of pathogenic bacteria is a necessary precursor to both disease and onward transmission. *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, also known as pneumococcus, is a common coloniser of the human nasopharynx but is also estimated to be responsible for >500,000 deaths due to pneumonia, meningitis and sepsis in children under five years of age worldwide[1]. In comparison to gut pathogen-mucosal interactions[2], the control of pneumococcal URT colonisation is far less well understood, particularly in humans[3].

In Europe and North America, there has been a dramatic effect of pneumococcal conjugate vaccine (PCV) on vaccine serotype (VT) invasive disease and carriage[4,5]. Indeed, more than 50% of PCV impact has been attributed to a reduction in VT colonisation resulting in reduced transmission and therefore disease, so-called herd protection[4,5]. However, the emergence of non-VT pneumococcal disease across the world and the more modest impact of PCV on colonisation in high transmission settings threaten this success[6-10]. 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.

We and others have previously shown that in humans, URT mucosal T cell immune memory specific to subcapsular pneumococcal protein antigens is acquired with age and predominately pro-inflammatory, but heavily controlled by Treg[11-13]. In contrast to PCV-induced protection, this naturally acquired protective immunity is thought to also comprise antibodies to protein antigens which have been implicated in the prevention of colonisation and the mediation of clearance[14]. The URT epithelium is at the centre of this process[15,16] through the binding and transporting of antibodies, sensing bacteria colonising the mucosal surface via a range of surface and intracellular pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) receptors, and rapidly transducing signals to recruit both innate, inflammatory and adaptive immune mechanisms[17-19].

Murine models of colonisation and invasion suggest that adherence of *S. pneumoniae* to the mucosal

epithelium may be followed by paracellular transmigration and tight junction modulation[20-22]. In

contrast, studies of immortalised epithelial cell monolayers implicate endocytosis of *S. pneumoniae*,

mediated though pneumococcal protein C–polymeric immunoglobulin receptor interactions[23,24]. The

relative importance of epithelial endocytosis and paracellular migration in colonisation and invasion

remains uncertain[24], but may influence epithelial sensing of this otherwise extracellular pathogen.

This may include TLR2 signalling via lipoteichoic acid[25,26], Nod1 signalling via peptidoglycan[27] and

TLR4 signalling via pneumolysin[28,29], a pore-forming toxin that mediates both clearance and

transmission in an infant mouse model[28-30].

We have therefore 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[31]. We have used human epithelial cell lines to further

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

in the EHPC model. Here, we show that pneumococcal colonisation in humans is characterised by

microcolony formation, junctional protein association (Junctional Adhesion Molecule A (JAM-A) and

β-catenin) 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 the epithelial barrier is

breached in the early phases of pneumococcal colonisation, and that this may occur without eliciting

a marked host response. As colonisation becomes more established, epithelial sensing of *S.*

pneumoniae enhances innate immunity/ inflammation which we propose promotes clearance and

may also trigger transmission.

RESULTS

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

We have used an EHPC model[32] 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 (days 2, 6, 9, 14 - 27). 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 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 JAM-A as a marker of tight junctions, yielded intact sheets of epithelial cells 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) which over time became associated with microcolony formation (Figure 1e). There was also evidence of pneumococcal invasion of the epithelial monolayer without disease which we have termed "micro-invasion" (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 in the EHPC model is

suggestive of an active process that reflects natural asymptomatic pneumococcal carriage in humans.

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 stained nasal curette biopsy cell suspensions for surface expression of EpCAM (epithelial cell identification), IL-22Ra1, HLADR, CD40, CD54 and CD107a prior to analysis by flow cytometry (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 [33-36]), HLADR (mediates T cell-antigen recognition and is a marker of epithelial activation[37]), CD40 (co-stimulatory protein which binds CD154[38] (Supplementary Figure 2e-g) or CD54 (a leukocyte adhesion molecule which is also upregulated by CD40[38-40], initiating neutrophil migration and recruitment[41,42]) (Figure 1g). However, although the number of epithelial cells expressing CD107a did not change over time (Figure 1h), we did observe an increase in CD107a^{high} expression at day 2 post inoculation in carriage positive volunteers vs. carriage negative volunteers (Figure 1h). CD107a is also known as lysosomal associated membrane protein 1 (LAMP-1), which in the epithelium forms the membrane glycoprotein of late endosomes and phagolysosomes and endosomes[24] and has previously been implicated in pneumococcal endocytosis[24]. 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, microcolony formation and micro-invasion**

To further understand the epithelial responses to *S. pneumoniae* adherence and micro-invasion observed in the EHPC model, we undertook infection experiments with Detroit 562 epithelial cells (nasopharyngeal carcinoma derived). We compared the 6B response with two other representative clinical isolates, TIGR4 (the original sequenced strain[43]) and 23F, and a TIGR4 pneumolysin deletion

mutant strain (dPly). Pneumolysin is a key pore-forming virulence factor that induces

inflammation[15,29].

TIGR4 association (adherence and invasion as detected by culture) 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 2a-b). Using confocal microscopy to identify the nature of this

association (Figure 2d-e, and Supplementary Figure 3a), pneumococcal adhesion to the epithelial

surface was found associated with microcolony formation and also internalisation of this

conventionally extracellular pathogen[22] (Figure 2d-e, Supplementary Figure 3a). Intracellular

pneumococci were contained within intracellular vesicles suggestive of endocytosis, which was most

marked with the TIGR4 strain (Figure 2b)[24]. Intracellular pneumococci were coated with JAM-A

(Figure 2f, Supplementary Figure 3a) and associated with the adherens junction protein β catenin

but not Claudin 4 (Supplementary Figure 3a). Laterally located pneumococci were identified

transiting between cell junctions (Figure 2g), located at the level of the nuclei and below the basal

membrane (Figure 2h). 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 2c, five-fold higher compared to TIGR4, after three hours

infection). In each of these experiments a similar pattern of epithelial interaction was seen at one

hour suggesting that these observations are not simply explained by differential growth during

colonisation.

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

2a, ten-fold higher after three hours infection), internalisation (Figure 2b, three-fold higher after three

hours infection), but no significant differences in transmigration (Figure 2c) 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

bronchial carcinoma Calu3 epithelial cells and human alveolar epithelial carcinoma A549 epithelial

cell lines demonstrating that these findings are not cell-line dependent (Supplementary Figure 4).

Furthermore, primary epithelial cells from curette biopsies were differentiated on an air-liquid

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

microcolony formation, micro-invasion and epithelial junctional protein association were also

observed with these long-term primary nasal epithelial cells (Supplementary Figure 1b).

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

which mirror the pathways for epithelial micro-invasion seen *in vivo*.

Endocytosis-related micro-invasion and transmigration

To confirm that the pneumococcal endocytosis observed by confocal microscopy leads to

transmigration across the epithelium, endocytosis was inhibited with dynasore and nystatin[24]. After

one hour of infection, cellular uptake of 23F was inhibited by 82% (Figure 2i) and transmigration

across the cell monolayer by 85% (Figure 2j). This inhibition of endocytosis and transmigration was

also seen with TIGR4 (data not shown). In agreement with previous studies using A549 and Calu3

cells[44], 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 have

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[21,45]. Having demonstrated pneumococcal micro-invasion in the EHPC model and

in epithelial cells *in vitro* without obvious epithelial morphological disruption, we have explored the

possibility that pneumococcal micro-invasion, particularly paracellular transmigration, may occur

without disruption of epithelial barrier function. As it was not possible to directly assess epithelial

barrier function in the EHPC model, we have measured trans-epithelial electrical resistance (TEER)

and permeability as assessed by 4kDa FITC-dextran in Detroit 562 cells. TEER was not adversely

affected by pneumococcal co-culture (Figure 2k) and permeability was maintained with all the

pneumococcal strains (Figure 2l). 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 is not dependent on loss of epithelial cell barrier function during early interactions.

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

To further explore the possibility that the epithelial surface marker expression seen in the 6B EHPC

model reflects the pattern of epithelial adhesion and micro-invasion, we assessed Detroit 562 cell

surface marker expression in response to our *S. pneumoniae* panel as before (Supplementary Figure

7a-c). There were no significant changes in IL-22Ra1, HLADR or CD40 expression in response to

6B, 23F, TIGR4 and dPly strains (Supplementary Figure 7d-e). However, CD54^{high} expression was

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

(Figure 3a). Epithelial CD107a was upregulated in response to the 6B, 23F and TIGR4 strains

(Figure 3b), but this was not seen with the dPly mutant. 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*.

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

To further assess the inflammatory consequences of the pneumococcal-epithelial infection *in vitro*,

we measured a panel of cytokines in the supernatants of Detroit 562 cells following incubation with

S. pneumoniae (Figure 3c). We detected a significant increase in IL-6 and IL-8, which were strain-

dependent and partially pneumolysin dependent. In line with the surface marker observations, only

TIGR4 significantly upregulated the secretion of soluble CD54, which was again dependent on the

presence of pneumolysin in this strain (Figure 3c). These data highlight the less inflammatory nature

of the 6B strain used in the EHPC model compared to the more invasive strain, TIGR4 and the

importance of pneumolysin in the epithelial response. Pneumococcal wild-type strain differences are

not explained by differences in pneumolysin activity, as determined by hemolysis (Supplementary

Figure 7).

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

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

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

of *S. pneumoniae* strains for 3 hours. In comparison to non-infected epithelial cell cultures (Figure

4a), infection with TIGR4 upregulated expression of 1127 genes (550 unique genes), 23F

upregulated 650 genes (69 unique genes), and 6B upregulated 153 genes (10 unique genes). The

pneumolysin deficient isogenic mutant of TIGR4 upregulated 220 genes (14 unique genes).

Compared to non-infected cells, 1193 genes were upregulated by *S. pneumoniae* infection overall

and 93 were core to all the strains tested. 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 4b, Online Supplementary File). From 20 clusters

of pathways, the pathway consisting of the largest total number of genes was selected to provide a

representative annotation for each cluster (Figure 4c and Supplementary Figure 8). 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 4b, 4c). In general,

the greater number of transcripts upregulated by TIGR4 and 23F strains compared to 6B translated

to a larger number of biological pathways with differential innate immune responses to each strain

(Figure 4b). Fewer transcriptional responses at the level of functional pathways in response to the

pneumolysin deficient mutant of TIGR4 is consistent with a role for pneumolysin in innate immune

recognition of *S. pneumoniae* previously reported in macrophages[46]. Fewer transcriptional

responses to 6B is consistent with our observations that this strain is associated with the lowest level

of cellular association and transmigration.

To further explore the pathways that drive the transcriptional responses to each strain, we also

undertook transcription factor binding site enrichment analysis (Figure 4d, Online Supplementary

File). The responses to 6B and pneumolysin deficient strains were principally enriched in binding

sites for the NFkB/Rel family of transcription factors, indicating that an NFkB activation pathway was

the dominant driver for the responses to these strains. In contrast, cellular responses to TIGR4 and

23F strains revealed enriched binding sites for more diverse transcription factors, suggesting diverse

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 SP1 and KLF4, suggesting that these strains upregulate mitogen activated protein

kinase pathways upstream of these transcription factors[47].

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 significant enrichment of 158 transcripts

among individuals who became colonised (Supplementary Figure 9). 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. At day 9 post-inoculation, innate molecules such as CCR3, matrix metalloproteinase 12

and MHC II molecules are enriched, suggesting innate activation. However, these gene sets 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

responses.

Gene expression modules have been used successfully to detect specific transcriptional programs

in bulk tissue[48-50]. 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. To expand the sensitivity

of the approach, we evaluated the expression of two transcriptional modules in the nasal samples

(Figure 5). A 'core' module comprised of 16 interacting genes (Figure 5b) that were upregulated in

the Detroit epithelial cells by all the pneumococcal strains from Figure 5a, and a second 'integrated'

module that comprised of 200 interacting genes (Figure 5c) which were upregulated in the Detroit

epithelial cells by at least one of the pneumococcal strains from Figure 5a. Among the individuals

who failed to become colonised by the bacterial challenge, we found no increase in expression in

either gene expression modules (Figure 5b-c). In contrast among the individuals who became

colonised, the expression of both modules but significantly increased within the integrated module

at day nine (Figure 5b,5c). The prominence of this response at day nine may reflect time-dependent

proliferation of the 6B bacterial inoculum and the subsequent epithelial interactions. This response

was apparent around the time of the subsequent clearance of these bacteria.

DISCUSSION

It is widely accepted that colonisation of the upper respiratory tract mucosa by many potentially

pathogenic bacterial species, involves transient association with the overlying mucus layer but

adherence to the epithelial surface avoids mucus entrapment and muco-ciliary clearance[22,51]. While

evading immunity, bacterial replication then occurs prior to onward transmission to a new host. Even

for *S. pneumoniae,* one of the most common infectious causes of human life-threatening disease,

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,

microcolony 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. We also demonstrate that the innate epithelial response to

pneumococcal colonisation is dependent on the pattern of bacterial-host cell association. Indeed,

epithelial micro-invasion and not bacterial load *per s*e, appears to dictate unique transcription factor

binding site signatures, and downstream cytokine, chemokine and metabolic pathway enrichment

(Figure 6).

The concept of mucosal micro-invasion without overt disease moves us away from current models

of colonisation in which the pneumococcus is held up at the epithelial surface. Our data are

supported by murine colonisation experiments[52,53] and the detection of pneumococcal DNA in the

blood of otherwise healthy colonised children[54]. Using primary and immortalised epithelial cell line

models that mirror this process, and in line with other cell culture and murine models[45,52,55,56], we

have demonstrated that pneumococcal micro-invasion occurs by endocytosis through the formation

of cytoplasmic vacuoles, and by paracellular transcytosis across the epithelium. Micro-invasion of

the epithelium may overcome the inaccessibility of PAMP receptors located either at the epithelial

basolateral surface or intracellularly[57-59]. We have found that micro-invasion *in vitro* is also

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

barrier dysfunction at early time points. In murine models at later time points, TLR-dependent Claudin

7 and Claudin 10 down-regulation and disruption of multiple junctional proteins in human lung tissue,

that enhanced pneumococcal translocation across the epithelium, has been observed[21,45]. While this

may occur as inflammation becomes more prominent, our data suggest that microinvasion can

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

regulation of these complex host-pathogen interactions[19,60,61].

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[20,62], but

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

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

established in the absence of a marked host response. In the EHPC, clearance occurred around the

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

long made the case that the colonising pneumococcus induces the host response that mediates

clearance, but also promotes nutrient acquisition and transmission[22,63]. This is supported by murine

models[64] and epidemiological studies of viral-coinfection[65,66] that suggest that the host response to

pneumococcal colonisation promotes onward transmission to susceptible individuals.[29] The

enrichment of binding sites for SP1 and KLF4 transcription factors seen in our *in vitro* data suggest

that there may be 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 the autolysin

LytA[47,67,68]. 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[29,69]. We found pneumolysin to be a prominent trigger of epithelial surface molecule

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

by autolysin, the pneumococcus undergoes autolysis when reaching stationery growth phase,

resulting in the release of additional PAMPs including bacterial DNA. In mice, pneumococcal DNA

triggers inflammation through a DAI/STING/TBK1/IRF3 cascade[62,70], a response that may also

contribute to pneumococcal clearance. We detected enriched activation of IRF3/IFR7 in the TIGR4

pneumolysin deficient strain in our *in vitro* transcriptomic analyses. Whether induction of type 1

interferons by host or bacterial RNA during human pneumococcal infection mediates bacterial

clearance by the epithelium remains to be determined. We therefore suggest that in the context of

micro-invasion, pneumococcal DNA may act as a trigger of epithelial sensing, inducing inflammation

and that cellular entry of DNA may be enhanced by pneumolysin pore formation[70].

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

enable direct comparisons between the *in vivo* and *in vitro* data. Nonetheless, the use of different

strains *in vitro* has enabled us and others[56,71] to determine the impact of different patterns of epithelial

adherence and invasion on the host inflammatory/ innate immune response. Although, our

observations have been based on immortalised cell lines, the findings are supported by studies of

primary cell lines *ex vivo* in an air-liquid interface derived from the EHPC and by the EHPC itself.

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

otherwise healthy humans. Micro-invasion may influence the outcome of colonisation by altering the

balance between innate immunity/ inflammation-driven transmission and clearance. This balance

may be further modulated by the frequency of carriage events, pneumococcal strain co-colonisation,

viral co-infections and other environmental pressures[1,64,72]. The pathways critical for onward

pneumococcal transmission remain to be determined in humans. Our approach combining *in vitro*

and *in vivo* human systems offers a potentially tractable way to interrogate this question.

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METHODS

Bacteria

S. pneumoniae clinical strains used were 6B (BHN 418[73]), 23F (P1121[74]) and TIGR4 (P1672[75]), together with a pneumolysin deficient TIGR4 mutant strain (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[76]. Individuals naturally colonised with *S. pneumoniae* or in regular contact with at-risk individuals were excluded. 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[77]. 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. 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 then 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. 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 anti-6B pneumococcal antisera, JAM-A, Claudin-4 or β-

catenin primary antibodies (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.

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) 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 a 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-1β, IL-6, IL-8, IFNγ, TNFα, 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). Library preparation and RNA-sequencing (Illumina Hiseq4000, 20M reads, 100 paired-end reads) were performed at the Beijing Genome Institute (China) or the Sanger Institute (UK) for mucosal curettage samples. For the Detroit 562 samples, library preparation was performed using the Kappa Hyperprep kit (Roche Diagnostics) and sequencing was performed 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[78], 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[79]. DESeq2 and SARTools packages[80], 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 (Supplementary Figure)[81].

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

package[82]. Interacting genes (supported by at least one experimental source of evidence) were

identified from the Pathway Commons database for directed interactions (Supplementary File).

These were then subjected to Reactome pathway enrichment analysis with FDR<0.05

(Supplementary File). 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. The expression of gene modules in the nasal

transcriptomes was represented by the mean Log_2 TPM value of the genes in each module.

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, microcolony formation and micro-invasion but

does not alter epithelial surface marker expression, in response to 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. (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, with bacteria associated. (e) Examples of cells showing; (ei) Microcolony 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).

Epithelial cells from nasal curette biopsies were analysed by flow cytometry for (g) CD54 and (h)

CD107a. Results were expressed as median fluorescence intensity (left) and high cell surface

expression (≥95% of the baseline expression) representing at least two volunteers per time point

who were carriage negative (black) and carriage positive (grey).

Figure 2. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* infection of nasopharyngeal epithelium *in vitro* is

associated with adhesion, microcolony formation, micro-invasion, transmigration and is

partially influenced by pneumolysin. Transmigration of *S. pneumoniae* is endocytosis-

dependent but does not disrupt barrier integrity or function

(a) Pneumococcal association and (b) internalisation: ~$1x10^6$ Detroit 562 cell monolayers were

stimulated with ~$7x10^6$ pneumococci for 1 or 3 hours and the quantity of bacteria associated with the

cells was determined by culture (CFU); n>3. (****P = <0.0001: (a) 1hr (dashed lines) - ANOVA; 3hr

(solid lines) - Kruskall-Wallis; (b) Kruskall-Wallis). (c) Pneumococcal transmigration: ~$4.9x10^5$ cells

cultured on transwell inserts were stimulated with ~$1.2x10^7$ pneumococci for 3 hours and bacterial

density in the basal chamber was determined (**P = 0.0092, Kruskall-Wallis test). N = 5. (di)

Representative pneumococcal-density (green) images of cells (blue nuclei) after infection. Scale bar

= 20µm. n>3. (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 co-

localised with JAM-A with associated intracellular vesicle-like bodies (yellow); (g) lateral localisation

of pneumococci (XY images) with possible paracellular movement co-associated with JAM-A (XZ

images); (h) basal localisation of bacteria at the level of nuclei and insert pores. n = >20. (i and j)

Cells were treated with dynasore and nystatin for 30 minutes prior to and during incubation with 23F,

for 1 hour. (i) Intracellular bacteria were quantified and CFUs counted (****P = <0.0001, Mann-

Whitney Test). (j) Transmigrated bacteria after one hour were counted by CFUs (*P = 0.013 Mann-

Whitney Test). N = 4. (k and l) Cells were co-infected with pneumococci for three hours on transwell

inserts and barrier function recorded. (k) TEER was compared before and after exposure to

pneumococci. n = 9. Calcium withdrawal = positive control (***P = 0.0013, unpaired T-test). n = 3. (l)

Permeability was assessed by leak to 4kDa FITC-dextran, collected from the basal chamber. N =

>4. ****P = <0.0001 comparing non-infected against pneumococcal strains (Kruskall-Wallis test).

Blank inserts = positive control (Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 3. Epithelial surface activation-marker expression and cytokine secretion is

upregulated after *S. pneumoniae* exposure

(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 3. 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 Test). (b) Bacteria that had

transmigrated after one hour were then counted by CFUs (* $P = 0.013$ Mann-Whitney Test). N = 4

independent experiments with replicates. (c and d) Detroit 562 cells were co-infected with

pneumococci for three hours on transwell inserts and TEER and permeability were recorded. (c).

TEER was compared before and after exposure to pneumococci. n = 9 independent experiments

with replicates. Calcium withdrawal was used as a positive control *** $P = 0.0013$ (n = 3 with

replicates, unpaired T-test). (d) Permeability was assessed by leak to 4kDa FITC-dextran, collected

from the basal chamber. N = >4 independent experiments. **** P = <0.0001 comparing non-infected

against pneumococcal strains (Kruskall-Wallis test). Blank inserts were used as a positive control

(Mann-Whitney test).

Figure 4. *Streptococcus pneumoniae* induces epithelial innate transcriptomic responses *in*

***vitro* that are influenced by the pattern of 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 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 as representative of the group and visualised here. 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. (c) Selected bubble heat map clusters representing

the individual pathways within each cluster from 5b. (d) 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 to red as before) and the size shows the number of genes annotated to the

particular pathway.

Figure 5. Epithelial transcriptomic responses to *Streptococcus pneumoniae* in the EHPC

model

(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 6. Model of the control of pneumococcal colonisation by the human mucosal

epithelium.

Following pneumococcal adhesion and microcolony formation on the epithelial surface, the

host response is dependent on the subsequent pattern of interaction. Microinvasion

(endocytosis and paracellular transmigration) 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 transmission and

clearance. 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	+	0	0
	Microscopy (counts)	0	+	+	0	+			
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	POS			
2	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	0	0	0	0	++	+	0
	Microscopy (counts)	+	+	0	0	0			
	LytA PCR	NEG	NEG	NEG	n/a	NEG			
3	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	0	0	0	0	+	0	0
	Microscopy (counts)	0	+	0	0	0			
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	NEG	n/a	NEG			
4	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	3	9	0	0	+	0	0
	Microscopy (counts)	0	0	0	+	0			
	LytA PCR	NEG	POS	POS	n/a	NEG			
5	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	7×10^3	223	22	0	+	+	0
	Microscopy (counts)	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	0	0	0
	Microscopy (counts)	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	+	0	0
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	0	+	0	n/a			
	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)	NR	++	0	0	n/a			
	LytA PCR	NEG	NEG	NEG	n/a	NEG			
13	Culture (CFU/ml)	0	23	2	0	0	+	0	0
	Microscopy (counts)	n/a	+	0	0	n/a			
	LytA PCR	POS	POS	POS	n/a	POS			

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

a

b

Core module

Days from challenge

Module score (log₂)

c

Integrated module

Days from challenge

Module score (log₂)

Non-colonised
Colonised

Figure 6