Cellular polarity asymmetrically functionalizes pathogen recognition receptor-mediated intrinsic immune response in human intestinal epithelium cells

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Summary

Intestinal epithelial cells (IECs) act as a physical barrier separating the commensal-containing intestinal tract from the sterile interior. These cells have found a complex balance allowing them to be prepared for pathogen attacks while still tolerating the presence of bacteria/viral stimuli present in the lumen of the gut. Using primary human IECs, we probed the mechanisms, which allow for such a tolerance. We discovered that viral infection emanating from the basolateral side of IECs elicited a stronger intrinsic immune response as compared to lumenal apical infection. We determined that this asymmetric immune response was driven by the clathrin-sorting adapter AP-1B which mediates the polarized sorting of Toll-like receptor 3 (TLR3) toward the basolateral side of IECs. Mice and human IECs lacking AP-1B showed an exacerbated immune response following apical stimulation. Together these results suggest a model where the cellular polarity program plays an integral role in the ability of IECs to partially tolerate apical commensals while remaining fully responsive against invasive basolateral pathogens.

Keywords: Intrinsic innate immunity, type III interferon, TLR3, cellular polarity, clathrin, AP-1B, lambda interferon, enteric viruses, organoids, intestinal epithelial cells

Introduction

Intestinal epithelial cells (IECs) lining the gastrointestinal tract constitute the

primary barrier separating us from the outside environment. These cells protect

the human body from enteric bacterial and viral pathogens (Peterson and Artis,

2014). They sense and combat these pathogens using Pathogen Recognition

Receptors (PRRs) (e.g. the Toll-like receptors (TLRs)) to trigger an intrinsic

innate immune response (Pott and Hornef, 2012, Fukata and Arditi, 2013, Arpaia

and Barton, 2011, Barton and Medzhitov, 2003). Importantly, IECs are in

constant contact with the ever-present microbiota and therefore have developed

mechanisms to tolerate the presence of the commensals while maintaining

responsiveness against pathogen (Fukata and Arditi, 2013). The intrinsic innate

immune response is regulated not only by complex signal transduction pathways

downstream of PRRs but also by compartmentalization of these receptors

(Odendall and Kagan, 2017, Chow et al., 2015). This compartmentalization is

described to be an important mechanism by which cells avoid self-recognition

(Yu and Gao, 2015, Kagan and Barton, 2014). In IECs, this compartmentalization

of innate immune functions is believed to be even more critical to maintain gut

homeostasis (Yu and Gao, 2015). IECs are polarized, they display a unique apical

membrane facing the lumen of the gut and a basolateral membrane facing the

lamina propria (Yu and Gao, 2015, Rodriguez-Boulan and Macara, 2014). Enteric

pathogens and commensals are normally located in the lumen of the gut thereby

generally challenging hIECs through their apical membrane. However, when the

barrier function is lost, in the presence of invasive pathogens, or during

spreading of infection, pathogens and commensals can gain access the

basolateral side of hIECs. The concept that PRRs can induce a different signaling

depending on whether the pathogen challenges emanate from the apical or

basolateral side of hIECs have been pioneered by studying TLR9 and TLR5

(Gewirtz et al., 2001, Lee et al., 2006). The mechanisms leading to this polarized

immune response have been described to be mediated by a different signal

transduction pathway between apical or basolateral stimulation for TLR9 (Lee et

al., 2006) and due to the asymmetric distribution of the PRRs in hIECs for TLR5

(Gewirtz et al., 2001). The precise intracellular localization of TLRs and, most

importantly, which ones are actually expressed in IECs has been a matter of

debate (Price et al., 2018). Additionally, how viruses are detected and combatted

in human IECs has been largely understudied. It remains unknown whether virus

specific PRRs (i.e. TLR3) can be asymmetrically distributed thereby providing

IECs the capacity to distinguish between viral infection emanating from the

apical or their basolateral side and as a consequence mount a different immune

response.

In our study, we determined that IECs respond to viral infection in a side

specific manner. We could directly correlate this polarized immune response to

the asymmetric distribution of TLR3 towards the basolateral side of IECs. We

identify the clathrin sorting adaptor protein AP-1 as the key machinery to sort

TLR3 to the basolateral side of IECs. Our results suggest a mechanism used by

IECs to generate a moderate immune response against stimuli emanating from

the physiological lumenal side while remaining fully responsive against invasive

pathogens or in conditions of barrier integrity loss where stimuli can access the

normally sterile basolateral side.

Results

Results

To address the extent by which TLRs act in a polarized manner in intestinal

epithelial cells, the model human IEC line T84 cells were polarized on transwells

(Madara et al., 1987). Cellular polarization was controlled through

immunostaining of the tight junction belt (data not shown and (Stanifer et al.,

2016)). The integrity of the epithelial barrier, a pre-requisite for side specific

stimulation, was validated by monitoring the Trans-Epithelium Electrical

Resistance (TEER) (Sup. Figure 1A) and by controlling the capacity of the hIEC

monolayer to block dextran diffusion in a transwell diffusion assay (Sup. Figure

1B). These polarized hIECs were used to evaluate the relative expression of each

TLR by q-RT-PCR. Results showed that TLR2, 3, 4 and 5 were the most expressed

in hIECs (Figure 1A). Following side-specific stimulations by TLR agonists

(Figure 1B), the specific response of hIECs was evaluated by monitoring the

transcription upregulation of both IL-6 and type III interferon (IFNλ2/3).

Stimulation with TLR7, 8 and 9 agonists did not induce an immune response in

hIECs which was consistent with their low expression levels (Figure 1A-D).

However, these agonists were fully potent in inducing IL-6 production in pBMCs

(Sup. Figure 2A). Importantly, while treatments of the cells with TLR2, 3, 4 and 5

agonists resulted in the production of IL-6 (and IL-8, data not shown) and

IFNλ, basolateral stimulation of the cells by TLR3 agonist induced a significantly

higher production of IFNλ compared to apical stimulation (Figure 1C-D). This

stronger induction of interferon upon basolateral stimulation with the TLR3

agonist was true at any time post-treatment (Figure 1E). This TLR3-specific

polarized immune response was not the result of a more efficient update of the

agonist from the basolateral side of the cells as quantification revealed that the

kinetics of fluorescently labeled TLR3 agonist uptake was identical between the

apical and basolateral side of hIECs (Sup. Figure 2B). Together, these results

suggest that hIECs can distinguish between apical and basolateral stimulation of

TLR3 and adapt their response in a side specific manner.

Basolateral viral infection of hIECs induces a stronger immune response

compared to apical infection. To control that the polarized TLR3 immune

response was not agonist specific we infected hIECs with mammalian reovirus

which is actively sensed by TLR3 during infection (Stanifer et al., 2016).

Polarized hIECs grown on transwells were infected in a polarized manner

(Figure 2A) and virus replication and cellular immune response was followed

overtime as function of infection side (apical vs. basolateral). Results showed

that the onset of viral replication was identical between apical and basolateral

infection. No significant differences between apical and basolateral infection

could be detected in the efficacy of virus uptake (Sup. Figure 3A), in the number

of cells infected during the primary round of infection (Figure 2B-C), and in viral

replication as measured by viral genome load and production of the viral non-

structural protein µNS overtime (Sup. Figure 3B-C). However, at late time points

and during multiple rounds of infection, apical infection resulted in a higher level

of replication and production of progeny viruses (Figure 2D-E and Sup. Figure

3C-E). Interestingly, the lower production of *de novo* viruses following

basolateral infection correlated with a stronger intrinsic innate immune

response at both the RNA and protein level (Figure 2F-H). A similar stronger

immune response following basolateral infection was also observed when using

a different hIEC cell line (SKCO15) (Le Bivic et al., 1989) (Sup. Figure 4).

Additionally, as observed using the TLR3 agonist poly I:C (Figure 1E), basolateral

viral infection of hIECs resulted in a higher production of interferon at all times

post-infection at both the RNA and protein levels (Sup. Figure 5).

This higher production of interferon following basolateral stimulation and

infection could be due to an increased RNA stability or sustained transcription.

To address this possibility, cells were treated with actinomycin to inhibit new

RNA synthesis (Sup. Figure 6A). The half-life of both apical and basolateral

IFNλ2/3 transcripts were found to be similar, however basolateral infection lead

to a slightly lower half-life of IFNβ1 transcripts compared to apical infection

(Sup. Figure 6B-C). These finding argue that the stronger immune response

generated upon basolateral challenges is not the result of differences in the

stability of the IFN transcripts. To gain a global understanding of the extent by

which apical and basolateral infection/stimulation leads to a different immune

response hIECs were infected in side specific manner and their transcriptional

profiles was analyzed by microarray. Results show that infection from both sides

leads to an increase in immune response related genes however, basolateral

infection resulted in a greater number of upregulated genes as well as a higher

induction of the genes also upregulated upon apical infection (Sup. Figure 7). In

addition, KEGG analysis shows that the upregulated genes are predominantly

associated with immune response pathways and interferon-mediated responses.

(Sup. Figure 7C).

All together these data show that hIECs can react in a side specific manner to

TLR3 agonist and viral infection. Basolateral infection/stimulation induces a

stronger interferon-mediated immune response compared to the same stimuli

coming from their apical side.

Primary intestinal cells respond in a side specific manner to TLR3 stimuli.

To validate our findings in human primary cells we exploited human mini-gut

organoids. To perform a side specific stimulation/infection, organoids were

grown and differentiated on transwells (Figure 3A). Cell differentiation and the

integrity of the barrier function was controlled by immunostaining and TEER

measurements (Figure 3B and data not shown). Primary hIECs were infected

from either their apical or basolateral side. Although infectivity was not side

dependent, basolateral infection lead to a stronger production of interferon

(Figure 3C-E). Similar findings were observed when performing side specific

infection of 3D organoids. Using microinjection, MRV was introduced within the

lumen of the organoids to allow for apical infection or juxtaposed at the organoid

periphery to promote basolateral infection (Sup Figure 8A). Following validation

that our apical and basolateral microinjection approaches led to equivalent

infection of the human mini-gut organoids (Sup Figure 8B-C), we confirmed that

basolateral infection lead to a stronger production of interferon compared to

apical infection (Sup Figure 8D). To investigate whether this polarized immune

response also applies to other TLRs, we performed a side specific stimulation

with TLR agonist of primary human organoids on transwells. As observed in our

T84 cell line, primary hIECs mostly express TLR2, 3, 4 and 5 (Sup. Figure 8E)

which was consistent with previous work using murine IECs (Price et al., 2018).

Importantly, although these cells responded to the respective agonists (Figure

3F-G), they only show a polarized interferon induction upon TLR3 stimulation

(Figure 3G). Altogether, our results demonstrate that hIECs respond in an

asymmetric manner to TLR3 stimulation.

The clathrin sorting adapter AP-1B mediates the basolateral localization of

TLR3 in hIECs. To address whether the polarized response to

infection/stimulation was due to a polarized distribution of the pathogen

recognition receptor, we performed immunostaining of TLR3 in hIECs. Human

organoids were seeded as a 2D monolayer as described above (Figure 3A), and

results show that TLR3 was restricted to the basolateral membrane of hIECs

(Figure 4A). Similar results were obtained with both T84 cells grown as

spheroids and primary hIECs grown as 3D organoids (Figure 4B-C).

Quantification revealed that TLR3 was exclusively localized to the basolateral

membrane in human organoids and was mostly localized to the basolateral

membrane in T84 cells (Figure 4D).

The clathrin sorting adapter AP-1 is well known for sorting proteins to the

basolateral membrane of polarized cells ((Folsch, 2015). AP-1 comes in two

forms; the ubiquitously expressed AP-1A and the epithelial specific AP-1B. To

investigate if AP-1B was responsible for both the polarized distribution of TLR3

and the polarized immune response, we used shRNA to knock-down AP-1B in

our T84 cell line model (Sup. Figure 9A). Immunostaining of TLR3 revealed that

upon AP-1B down regulation, TLR3 was re-localized from the basolateral

membrane to the apical side of hIECs (Figure 5A-C). Quantification revealed that

most of the AP-1B knock-down spheroids display TLR3 at their apical side

(Figure 5D). After controlling the barrier function and integrity of AP-1B knock-

down hIECs (Sup. Figure 9B-D), WT and AP-1B knock-down cells were infected in a side specific manner with reovirus. As observed before, basolateral infection of WT hIECs resulted in a stronger production of interferon compared to apical infection. Interestingly, knock-down of AP-1B resulted in an inversion of this polarized response leading to a stronger production of interferon upon apical challenges both at the transcript (Figure 6A) and protein level (Sup. Figure 9E). This stronger interferon production upon apical infection of AP-1B knock-down cells fully correlates with the observation that TLR3 is re-localized to the apical side of hIECs (Figure 5A-D). To control that AP-1B knock-down did not impact global TLR mediated signaling, WT and AP-1B knock-down cells were treated with TLR agonists in a side specific manner. No significant differences were observed for TLR2, 4, 5, 7/8-, and 9-mediated signaling upon AP-1B knock-down (Sup. Figure 10). Importantly, similar to viral infection, an inversion of polarized immune response in AP-1B knock-down cells was observed leading to a higher induction of interferon upon apical treatment of the cells with the TLR3 agonist (Figure 6B and Sup. Figure 10B). To validate that the observed increased immune response in AP-1B knock-down cells upon apical challenges was directly mediated by TLR3, we used a pharmacological inhibitor approach. As TLR3 requires TRIF as adapter protein to mediate downstream signaling (Yamamoto et al., 2003), we used a TRIF specific inhibitor. Results confirm that the observed immune response generated by hIECs upon viral infection is largely due to TLR3 (Sup. Figure 11A). Importantly, inhibition of TLR3-mediated signaling in AP-1B knock-down cells resulted in a strong reduction of immune response upon apical infection (Sup. Figure 11B). These results strongly suggest that the observed inversion of polarized immune response in AP-1B knock-down is directly

associated with the re-localization of TLR3 to the apical side of hIECs. All

together these data support a model where the clathrin sorting adapter AP-1

mediates the polarized sorting of TLR3 in hEICs rendering them more

responsive to pathogen challenges emanating from their basolateral side.

IECs derived from AP-1B knock-out mice show a reversion of their

polarized immune response. To confirm that AP-1B was contributing to the

observed polarized immune response we evaluated mice, which express an

inducible intestinal specific knock-out of AP-1B (villin-CreER Ap1m2$^{flox/flox}$,

(Takahashi et al., 2011)) (Figure 6C). Intestinal organoids were generated from

these mice and exploited for apical and basolateral infection as side specific

infection is not possible *in vivo*. While apical infection can be mimicked through

gavaging of virus, basolateral infection cannot be controlled as intraperitoneal

infection will also deliver virus to the surrounding immune cells and stroma cells

thereby resulting in an immune response generated not only by IECs but also by

other cell types. Organoids generated from villin-CreER Ap1m2$^{flox/flox}$ were

treated with or without tamoxifen and the loss of AP-1B was controlled by qPCR

(Figure 6C-D) (see method). AP-1B$^{+/+}$ and AP-1B$^{-/-}$ organoids were seeded onto

transwells and infected apically or basolaterally with reovirus. The innate

immune induction was controlled by q-RT-PCR and confirmed that similar to our

T84 cell model and to our human organoids, murine organoids also show a

polarized immune response where a basolateral infection leads to a stronger

production of IFN compared to an apical one at both the RNA and protein level

(Figure 6E-F). Importantly, in AP-1B knock-out murine organoids, an inversion

of polarized immune response was observed where apical infection lead to a

higher production of interferon compared to basolateral infection (Figure 6E-F).

Similar findings were observed when using a TLR3 agonist to induce an immune

response in murine organoids further confirming the role of AP-1B in TLR3-

mediated polarized interferon induction (Figure 6G-H).

Discussion

In this study we unraveled that the extent of the immune response which

is generated downstream TLR3 depends on the side (apical vs. basolateral) of

infection/stimulation. Precisely, we show that basolateral infection/stimulation

leads to a higher induction and secretion of IFNλ2/3 compared to an apical

infection. We show that the clathrin adaptor AP-1B sorting machinery allows for

the asymmetric distribution of TLR3, allowing IECs to be more responsive from

their basolateral side. Interference with AP-1B renders IECs more sensitive to

apical stimuli. We propose that this polarized immune response represents a

unique immune-strategy to create a homeostatic interface between the complex

microbial environment of the gut lumen and the intestinal epithelial barrier. It

allows IECs to restrain their immune response against the naturally present

apical stimuli while remaining fully responsive to infection/stimulation

emanating from the physiologically sterile basolateral side, which will only be

accessible during loss of barrier function or during infection by invasive

pathogens.

Only a few studies have tried to correlate the specific localization of TLRs

at the apical and basolateral side of IECs with their capacity to respond to

PAMPs. TLR5 has been shown to be located on the basolateral membrane, which

was suggested to be critical to limit overstimulation of IECs by the commensal

bacterial components flagellin (Gewirtz et al., 2001). TLR2 and 4 have been

described to be redistributed near the basolateral side of IECs upon activation

(Cario et al., 2002, Hiemstra et al., 2015). It was suggested that this trafficking is

a mechanism used by IECs to transmit information from the lumen into

underlying the immune cells (Hiemstra et al., 2015). TLR9 was shown to be

located in both the apical and basolateral membranes but has been described to

signal in a polarized manner. Basolateral stimulation of TLR9 leads to NFkB

activation and the induction of an immune response however, apical stimulation

leads to the ubiquitination of IkBa which causes it to accumulate therefore

blocking apical signaling (Lee et al., 2006). Together with the current work on

TLR3, the asymmetric distribution of TLRs in IECs appears to represent a

mechanism to avoid/control response against lumenal stimuli. Interestingly, a

new study suggests that to achieve homeostasis, which we define here as co-

habitation of IECs with the commensal flora, TLRs are differentially localized to

specific sections in the GI tract (Price et al., 2018). Compatible to the present

study, TLR2, 4, and 5 were found at both the apical and basolateral membranes.

Interestingly, this study also showed that TLR7 and 9 were absent from the

epithelium and their expression was limited to underlying immune cells. Our

findings are consistent with this work as we also measured very low expression

levels of TLR7/9 and observed that IECs are not responsive to the corresponding

agonists. TLR3 was found to be expressed in all intestinal sections (Price et al.,

2018, Pott et al., 2012, Cario and Podolsky, 2000). We show that TLR3 is

specifically localized at the basolateral side of IECs providing these cells the

possibility of mounting a polarized immune response. We could demonstrate

that TLR3 displays a polarized functionality independently of its location within

the GI tract. We found that basolateral infection leads to a stronger immune

response in organoids derived from duodenum, ileum and colon (data not

shown). Together these studies suggest that to achieve homeostasis, TLRs

expression has to be spatially controlled both at the cellular level

(apical/basolateral) and at the longitudinal level along the GI tract.

We report that AP-1B is responsible for targeting TLR3 to the basolateral

side of IECs. The function of clathrin adapter proteins in participating in the

regulation of TLR-mediated signaling was previously suggested. Adapter protein

AP-3, has been shown to be critical for TLR4 and TLR7/9 mediated signaling

(Mantegazza et al., 2012, Blasius et al., 2010). In the absence of AP-3, TLR7/9 are

unable to produce type I IFN and TLR4's recruitment and signaling from

phagosomes is impaired. Additionally, AP-1 sigma1c mutations have been found

in patients that exhibit a severe auto inflammatory skin disorder and it is

suggested that this is due to misregulation of the TLR3 receptor further

supporting our model of a key role for AP-1 in TLR3 signaling (Setta-Kaffetzi et

al., 2014).

Due   to   the   challenge   associated   with   the   commensal

microbiota/epithelium interface, IECs finely tune their intrinsic immune system.

Regulation can be found at the quantitative level by selecting the expression of a

subset of TLRs or can be achieved by creating a uniquely tailored response that

allows for directional partial tolerance of PAMPs. We propose that in addition to

plasma membrane-associated TLRs, IECs also functionally polarize the

intracellular endosomal TLR3. This polarization of function is intrinsically linked

to the polarized nature of the cell and allows for TLR3 to strongly respond to

basolateral challenges while limiting response to apical challenges (Sup. Figure

12). A recent study has shown that production of a type III interferon mediated

antiviral immune response in mice was key to protect them from subsequent

enteric virus infections (Ingle et al., 2019). This suggests that production of type

III IFN against enteric viruses is key to protecting the gut against further

challenges. In the context of our polarized immune response to viral infection,

we propose that apical infection/challenges create a sufficient immune response

allowing the non-infected bystander cells to be primed for further challenges. If

this primed antiviral state is overruled by viruses, upon spreading and infection

of IECs from their basolateral side, a stronger immune response will be

generated acting as a second line of defense against the pathogen. Importantly,

AP-1B knock-out mice show an increase in inflammation and infiltration of CD4+

T cells due to an overreaction of IECs against the commensal flora (Takahashi et

al., 2011). In the line with our results that AP-1B functionally polarizes PRR

sensing and signaling, we propose that within the physiological organization of

the gut, this side specific polarized immune response of IECs participates in the

tolerance of the commensal flora located in the lumen while remaining

responsive to invading pathogens that will gain access to the sterile basolateral

side.

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Author Contributions

SB[a]=Steeve Boulant , SB[b]=Sina Bartfeld

MLS and SB[a] designed experiments, MLS, SM, KP, MM and DA performed experiments, MLS analyzed data, TH analyzed microarray data, TK and HO generated the KO mice organoids, CO and JK assisted in establishing polarized infection. SB[b] designed and performed microinjection, VH assisted for the polarized sorting, MLS and SB[a] wrote the manuscript. The final version of the manuscript was approved by all authors.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends:

Figure 1. T84 cells respond to TLR3 agonist in a side-specific manner. (A).

The relative expression of TLR2-9 was evaluated in T84 cells by q-RT-PCR.

Results are expressed as a relative expression to the house-keeping gene HPRT1.

(B) Diagram depicting the side specific stimulation (apical vs. basolateral) of

polarized T84 cells grown on transwells by TLR agonists. (C) T84 cells were

seeded on transwells and after establishment of barrier function, cells were

treated with the following TLR agonists: TLR1/2 (PAM3CSK4, 1 µg/mL); TLR3

(1:1 HMW and LMW poly I:C, 10 µg/mL); TLR4 (LPS-EK, 0.01 µg/mL); TLR5

(Flagellin-ST, 1 µg/mL); TLR7/8 (R848, 1 µg/mL), TLR9 (ODN 2395 5 µM). 6

hours post-treatment, RNA was harvested and evaluated for the up-regulation of

IL-6 by q-RT-PCR. Results are normalized to mock-treated samples. (D) Same as

C except type III IFN (IFNλ2/3) was measured. (E) T84 cells were seeded on

transwells and treated with 10 µg/mL of poly I:C. Cells were harvested at the

indicated time points and up-regulation of both type I (IFNβ) and type III

(IFNλ2/3) IFNs were analyzed by q-RT-PCR. Experiments were performed in

triplicate, error bars indicate the standard deviation. ns=not significant, *<P.05

(unpaired t-test)

Figure 2. Intrinsic immune response of T84 cells to viral infection is side

specific. T84 cells were seeded onto transwell inserts and allowed to establish

barrier function. (A) Schematic depicting infection of T84 cells in a side specific

manner. (B) Polarized T84 cells were infected apically or basolaterally with

mammalian reovirus (MRV). 16 hours post-infection (hpi) cells were fixed and

indirect immunofluorescence was performed to control the integrity of the tight

junction belt (tight junction protein ZO-1, red) and to evaluate the viral non-

structural protein µNS (green). Nuclei were visualized with DAPI. (C) Polarized

T84 cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. At indicated time

points, cells were fixed and stained for the viral non-structural protein µNS. The

number of infected cells was counted in ten independent fields of view for each

sample. (D) Polarized T84 cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV.

At indicated time points cells were harvested and Western blot was used to

detect the amount of the non-structural protein µNS in each sample (left panel).

The relative amount of µNS normalized to actin was quantified for each time

point post-infection (right panel). (E) Same as D except cells were lysed and

production of progeny viruses was evaluated using a plaque assay. (F-G)

Polarized T84 cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. 16 hpi, cells

were harvested and the production of interferons was analyzed by q-RT-PCR. (F)

Type I (IFNβ). (G) Type III (IFNλ2/3). (H) Same as G except that production of

type III (IFNλ2/3) IFN was analyzed by ELISA. Experiments were performed in

triplicate, representative images for Western blot and immunofluorescence are

shown, error bars indicate the standard deviation. ns=not significant, *<P.05, **P

< 0.01 (unpaired t-test)

Figure 3. Human organoids respond in a polarized manner to TLR3 agonist.

(A) Human organoids were seeded onto transwells and allowed to polarize and

differentiate for five days (see method for details). Polarized monolayers were

infected with MRV apically or basolaterally and assessed 16 hpi for (B) viral

infection by indirect immunofluorescence (green=µNS, red=ZO-1, blue=DAPI)

and (C) for the amount of viral genome present. (D) The production of both type

I (IFNβ) and type III (IFNλ2/3) interferons was evaluated by q-RT-PCR. (E) Same

as D except type III IFN secretion was quantified by ELISA. (F) Colon organoids

were seeded on transwells and treated with the indicated TLR agonist. TLR1/2

(PAM3CSK4, 1 µg/mL); TLR3 (1:1 HMW and LMW poly I:C, 10 µg/mL); TLR4

(LPS-EK, 0.01 µg/mL); TLR5 (Flagellin-ST, 1 µg/mL); TLR7/8 (R848, 1 µg/mL),

TLR9 (ODN 2395 5 µM). 6 hours post-treatment RNA was harvested and

evaluated for the up-regulation of IL-6 by q-RT-PCR. Results are normalized to

mock-treated samples. (G) Same as F, except type III IFN (IFNλ2/3) was

evaluated. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Representative

immunofluorescence images are shown. Error bars indicate the standard

deviation. Scale bar in (B) represents 10 µm. ns=not significant, *<P.05, **P <

0.01 (unpaired t-test).

Figure 4. TLR3 is localized to the basolateral side of intestinal epithelial

cells. (A). Human colon organoids were seeded flat on a Labtek chamber pre-

coated with Matrigel. Following fixation with PFA, cells were immunostained

against TLR3 (red), ZO-1 (green), actin was labeled with phalloidin 647

(magenta) and the nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). (B) Schematic depicting

a T84-derived spheroid or a small organoid, with the apical membrane of hIECs

facing the lumen of the structure and their basolateral membrane facing

outward. (C) Human colon organoids and T84-derived spheroids were

immunostained against TLR3 (green), ZO-1 (red), actin was labeled with

phalloidin 647 (magenta) and the nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). (D) The

percentage of spheroids displaying TLR3 at the apical or basolateral membrane

of hIECs was quantified (For organoids n=51, for T84 cells n=84). Experiments

were performed in triplicate, representative images are shown. Scale bar

represents 20 μm.

Figure 5. The clathrin sorting adaptor AP-1B is responsible for the

basolateral localization of TLR3 in hIECs. (A) WT and AP-1B knock-down T84

spheroids were immunostained against TLR3 (green), ZO-1 (red), actin was

labeled with phalloidin 647 (magenta) and the nuclei were stained with DAPI

(blue). (B) Same as A except cells were immunostained for Laminin (red) as a

basolateral marker. (C) Quantification of the localization of TLR3 in WT and AP-

1B knock-down T84 spheroids. The relative fluorescence intensity of TLR3 is

depicted along a transversal line going in the middle of the spheroids. (D) The

percentage of spheroids displaying TLR3 at the apical or basolateral membrane

of hIECs was quantified. (for WT spheroids n=84, for AP-1B knock-down T84

spheroids n=111). Experiments were performed in triplicate, representative

images are shown. Scale bar represents 20 μm.

Figure 6. The clathrin sorting adaptor AP-1B is responsible for the TLR3-

mediated polarized immune response. (A) WT and AP-1B knock-down T84

cells were polarized on transwell inserts. Cells were infected with MRV apically

or basolaterally. At indicated time points, the production of type III (IFNλ2/3)

interferon was evaluated by q-RT-PCR. (B) Same as A except polarized T84 cells

were stimulated with the TLR3 agonist poly I:C (10 μg/mL). (C) Schematic for

the generation of the inducible murine AP-1B knock-out organoids from the

Villin-CreER Ap1m2 flox/flox mice. (D). AP-1B knock-out was confirmed by q-RT-

PCR for exon 4-5 of the Ap1m2 locus. (E) Non-tamoxifen treated Villin-CreER

Ap1m2 flox/flox mice (AP-1B+/+) and tamoxifen treated Villin-CreER Ap1m2 flox/flox

mice (AP-1B -/-) derived organoids were seeded onto transwells and infected

with MRV in a polarized manner. 48 hpi, cells were harvested and analyzed for

the induction of IFNλ2/3 by q-RT-PCR. (F) Same as E, except IFNλ2/3 was

analyzed by ELISA. (G) Non-tamoxifen treated Villin-CreER Ap1m2 flox/flox mice

(AP-1B+/+) and tamoxifen treated Villin-CreER Ap1m2 flox/flox mice (AP-1B -/-)

derived organoids were seeded onto transwells and stimulated with the TLR3

agonist poly I:C (10 µg/mL). 8 hours post-stimulation, cells were harvested and

analyzed for the induction of IL-6 by q-RT-PCR (H) Same as G, except IFNλ2/3

was analyzed. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Error bars indicate

the standard deviation. ns=not significant, *<P.05, **P < 0.01 (unpaired t-test).

Materials and Methods

Cell and Viruses. T84 human colon carcinoma cells (ATCC CCL-248) were maintained in a 50:50 mixture of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) and F12 (GibCo) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco). Mammalian reovirus (MRV) strains Type 3 clone 9 (T3C9) derived from stocks originally obtained from Bernard N. Fields were grown and purified by standard protocols (Sturzenbecker et al., 1987).

Antibodies and Inhibitors. Rabbit polyclonal antibody against MRV µNS was used at 1/1000 for immunostaining and western blots (Broering et al., 2000, Shah et al., 2017); ZO-1 (mouse from Santa Cruz Biotechnology and rabbit from Thermo Scientific) were both used at 1/100 for immunostaining; actin (Sigma-Aldrich) was used at 1/2000 for western blots; Phalloidin-AF647 (Molecular Probes) was used at 1/200 for immunostaining; Laminin (Abcam) was used at 1/100 for immunostaining, and TLR3 (Abcam) was used at 1/100 for immunostaining. Secondary antibodies were conjugated with AF488 (Molecular Probes), AF568 (Molecular Probes), AF647 (Molecular Probes), CW800 (Li-Cor) or HRP (Sigma-Aldrich) directed against the animal source. TRIF peptide inhibitor was used at a final concentration of 25 µM (Invivogen). Actinomycin D (Sigma) was used at a final concentration of 4 µg/mL. TLR stimuli: Flagellin-ST (InivoGen), ODN 2395, 2006, and 2243 (InvivoGen), LPS-EK (InvivoGen), poly I:C (Invivogen), poly I:C HMW Fluorescein (InvivoGen), Pam3CSK4 (InvivoGen) and R848 (InvivoGen) were used at the concentrations listed in figure legends.

Viral infections. All MRV infections were performed at a MOI of 1. Media was

removed from transwells and virus containing media was added to either the

apical or basolateral side. Virus was maintained for the course of the experiment.

Polarization of T84 cells on transwell inserts. 1.2×10^5 T84 cells were seeded

on polycarbonate transwell inserts (Corning, polycarbonate, 3.0 µM) in

DMEM/F12 medium. Medium was replaced 24h post-seeding and every two

days subsequently. The trans-epithelial electrical resistance (TEER) was tested

as indicated with EVOM^2 apparatus (World Precision Instrument). When the

TEER reached 1000 Ohm/cm^2, the T84 cells were considered polarized (Madara

et al., 1987). Polarization was controlled by immunostaining of the tight junction

protein ZO-1 (see indirect immunofluorescence assay).

Seeding of T84 cells into spheroids. T84 cells were dissociated using 0.25%

trypsin, washed with PBS and resuspended in culture medium containing 4%

Matrigel. Dissociated cells were seeded into Matrigel-coated eight-well chamber

slides (Lab-Tek, eight-well chamber slides, Nunc, 155411) at a concentration of

12,000 single cells per well. Chamber slides were coated with 10 µl pure Matrigel

and incubated at 37°C for 2 min before cell seeding. Cells were incubated for six

days and fixed using 2% PFA for 20 min. Immunostaining of spheroids was

carried out as described below.

RNA isolation, cDNA, and qPCR. RNA was harvested from cells using

NuceloSpin RNA extraction kit (Machery-Nagel) as per manufactures

instructions. cDNA was made using iSCRIPT reverse transcriptase (BioRad) from

250 ng of total RNA as per manufactures instructions. q-RT-PCR was performed

using SsoAdvanced SYBR green (BioRad) as per manufacturer's instructions, TBP

and HPRT1 were used as normalizing genes. For mouse interferon lambda and

HPRT1 TaqMan gene expression assays were used.

Indirect Immunofluorescence Assay. Polycarbonate transwell inserts were cut

in half or cells were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 20 mins at room

temperature (RT). Cells were washed and permeabilized in 0.5% Triton-X for 15

mins at RT. Primary antibodies were diluted in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)

and incubated for 1h at RT. Membranes were washed in 1X PBS three times and

incubated with secondary antibodies for 45 mins at RT. Membranes were

washed in 1X PBS three times and mounted on slides with ProLong Gold DAPI

(Molecular Probes). Cells were imaged by epifluorescence on a Nikon Eclipse Ti-

S (Nikon) or by confocal tile scans on a Zeiss LSM 780 (Zeiss). ZO-1 images were

acquired on an ERS 6 spinning disc confocal microscope and deconvolution was

performed using Huygens Remote Manager. Spheroids and 3D organoids were

imaged on an inverted spinning disc confocal microscope (Nikon, PerkinElmer)

with 60x (1.2 numerical aperture, PlanApo, Nikon) water immersion objective

and an EMCCD camera (Hamamatsu C9100-23B).

Western blot. At time of harvest, media was removed, cells were rinsed one

time with 1X PBS and lysed with 1X RIPA (150 mM sodium chloride, 1.0% Triton

X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), 50 mM

Tris, pH 8.0 with phosphatase and protease inhibitors (Sigma-Aldrich)) for 5

mins at RT. Lysates were collected and equal protein amounts were separated by

SDS-PAGE and blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane by wet-blotting (Bio-Rad,

Germany). Membranes were blocked with 5% milk or 5% BSA in TBS containing

0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-T) for one hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies

were diluted in blocking buffer and incubated overnight at 4°C. Membranes were

washed 3X in TBS-T for 5 mins at RT. Secondary antibodies were diluted in

blocking buffer and incubated at RT for 1 h with rocking. For film exposure:

membranes were washed 3X in TBS-T for 5 mins at RT. HRP detection reagent

(GE Healthcare) was mixed 1:1 and incubated at RT for 5mins. Membranes were

exposed to film and developed. For LiCOR assays, membranes were scanned on a

LiCOR Odyssey imager.

ELISA: Supernatants were collected at time points indicated in figure legends.

Supernatants were kept undiluted. IFNλ2/3 was evaluated using the IFNλ2/3

DIY ELISA (PBL Interferon source) for the basolateral supernatants only as we

have previously shown that IFNλ is preferentially secreted to the basolateral

compartment (Stanifer et al., 2016). IL-6 was evaluated using the IL-6 DIY ELISA

(Biolegend). ELISA was performed as per manufacturers instructions.

Plaque Assay. BSC-1 were seeded into 24-well plates at a density of

200,000cells/well. 24-48h post-seeding when cells had reached 100%

confluency, media was removed and cells were washed 1X with PBS+2mM MgCl$_2$

(PBS-M). Virus samples were harvested from infected T84 cells and were subject

to three rounds of freezing and thawing. Samples were spun to remove cellular

debris and virus containing supernatants were diluted in 10-fold serial dilutions

in PBS-M. Infection was allowed to proceed for 1h at RT with rocking every 15

mins. At the end of the incubation time, cells were overlaid with a 1:1 mixture of

2% agarose:2X 199 Media (Sigma-Aldrich) containing 10 µg/mL chymotrypsin.

Cells were incubated at 37°C for 48h or until the appearance of plaques. Cells

were fixed in 10% formaldehyde for 30 mins at RT. Plugs were removed and

cells were stained with 0.5% crystal violet for 15 mins at RT. Crystal violet was

removed and cells were washed with water. Plaques were counted and all

samples were performed in triplicate.

Fluorescent poly I:C uptake assay. 1×10^5 T84 cells were grown on collagen

coated transwell filters until reaching full polarization. HMW poly I:C fluorescein

was added to the apical or basolateral surface at a concentration of 10 µg/mL.

After incubating at 37°C for the indicated time points, transwells were washed

with PBS and then incubated with an acid wash (PBS, 0.2M acetic acid, 0.5M

NaCl) for 10 sec to remove any non-internalized poly IC. Cells were then washed

three times in 1X PBS followed by lysis in RIPA buffer. The amount of

fluorescence of the internalized virus was measured on a Tecan infinite M200

Pro at 495 nm. Cells which were not fed poly IC or where poly IC was added and

immediately removed were used as a background control.

Dextran uptake assay. 1×10^5 T84 cells were grown on collagen coated

transwell filters. At the indicated time, the diffusion of FITC-labelled dextran was

measured. FITC-labeled dextran (Sigma-Aldrich, 4 kDa) was to the apical surface

at a final concentration of 2 mg/mL. After incubating for 3 h 37°C, 100 µL

aliquots of the basal media were collected and the fluorescence was measured

with the FLUOstar Omega spectrofluorometer (BMG Labtech) at 495 nm. As

positive control, fluorescence of 100 μL aliquot of a collagen coated but cell-free

transwell filter was measured to assess maximum diffusion of FITC-labeled

dextran.

Fluorescent viral uptake assay. 1×10^5 T84 cells were grown on collagen

coated transwell filters until reaching $1000\Omega/cm^2$. AF488-labelled MRV (Boulant

et al., 2013) was to the apical or basolateral surface at a MOI=1. After incubating

at 37°C for the indicated time points, transwells were washed with PBS and then

incubated with an acid wash (PBS, 0.2M acetic acid, 0.5M NaCl) for 10 sec to

remove any non-internalized virus particle. Cells were then washed three times

in 1X PBS followed by lysis in RIPA buffer. The amount of fluorescence of the

internalized virus was then measured on a Tecan infinite M200 Pro at 495 nm.

Cells which were not infected with virus or were virus was added and

immediately removed were used as a background control.

Human organoid cultures. Human tissue was received from colon and small

intestine resection from the University Hospital Heidelberg. This study was

carried out in accordance with the recommendations of the University hospital

Heidelberg with written informed consent from all subjects in accordance with

the Declaration of Helsinki. All samples were received and maintained in an

anonymized manner. The protocol was approved by the "Ethics commission of

the University Hospital Heidelberg" under the protocol S-443/2017. Stem cells

containing crypts were isolated following 2 mM EDTA dissociation of tissue

sample for 1 h at 4°C. Crypts were spun and washed in ice cold PBS. Fractions

enriched in crypts were filtered with 70 μM filters and the fractions were

observed under a light microscope. Fractions containing the highest number of

crypts were pooled and spun again. The supernatant was removed and crypts

were re-suspended in Matrigel. Crypts were passaged and maintained in basal

and differentiation culture media (see table 1).

Mouse organoids. Mouse intestinal tissue was received from control floxed

mice or mice expressing a floxed Ap1m2 gene as previously described (Kanaya et

al., 2018). Organoids were harvested, passaged and maintained in cultures as

previously described for the human organoids, except using mouse specific

media conditions (see table 1). To obtain organoids lacking the Ap1m2 gene,

organoids were treated with 20 µM tamoxifen for 48h. Tamoxifen was removed

and cells were allowed to recover and grow in normal mouse media.

Microinjection. Human colon organoids were microinjected adapting a

previously published protocol (Bartfeld and Clevers, 2015). Microinjection was

carried out in a sterile laminar flow hood (KoJair, Finnland) using a

micromanipulator (Narishige) and microinjector (Eppendorf FemtoJet). In each

well, 30 organoids were injected. The injection needle was placed either inside

the organoid (apical infection), or outside the organoid (basal infection), but

both time in similar proximity to the epithelium. Pairs of inside and outside

injections were on the same plate.

Organoids on transwells. Tranwells were coated with 2.5% collagen in PBS for

1 h prior to organoids seeding. Organoids were collected at a ratio of 100

organoids/transwell. Collected organoids were spun at 450g for 5 mins and the

supernatant was removed. Organoids were washed 1X with cold PBS and spun at

450g for 5 mins. PBS was removed and organoids were digested with 0.5%

Trypsin-EDTA (Life technologies) for 5 mins at 37°C. Digestion was stopped by

addition of serum containing medium. Organoids were spun at 450g for 5 mins

and the supernatant was removed and organoids were re-suspended in normal

growth media at a ratio of 100 µL media/well. The PBS/matrigel mixture was

removed from the transwells and 100 µL of organoids were added to each well.

500 µL of normal organoid media was added to the bottom chambers. 24 hours

post-seeding media on both sides of the transwells was changed for

differentiation media and the TEER was monitored over five days.

RNA decay assay. T84 cells were seeded onto a 24-well plate at a density of

100,000cells/well. 24h post-seeding T84 cells were infected with MRV T3C9. 16

hours post-infection, cells were treated with 4 µg/mL actinomycin D and RNA

samples were collected at time points indicated in figure legend. RNA was

harvested and qPCR as performed as described above.

Production of Ap1 knock-down T84 cells. T84 cells were seeded onto 6-well

plates in a density of 500,000cells/well. 24h post-seeding cells were transduced

with lentiviruses expressing an shRNA targeted for the Ap1m2 gene (sequence

available upon request). 72h post-transduction, lentiviruses were removed and

T84 cells were put under antibiotic selection. When all control cells had died,

antibiotic selection was removed and T84 cells were allowed to re-grow. Knock-

down was confirmed through qPCR.

Microarray. T84 cells were seeded on transwell and were allowed to polarize. Once a TEER value of $1000\Omega/cm^2$ had been reached, cells were infected from the apical and basolateral membranes with MRV at a MOI=1. 16 hours post-infection RNA was collected and 1 µg of total RNA was used for an Illumina HumanHT-12 beadarray analysis. Expression values were quantile-normalized after background correction (Shi et al., 2010) and log2-transformed. Unspecific filtering was performed by discarding probes without significant detection p-value in any sample. Differentially expressed probes between A and Mock as well as between B and Mock were identified using the empirical Bayes approach (Smyth, 2004) based on moderated t-statistics as implemented in the Bioconductor package limma (Ritchie et al., 2015). P-values were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg correction in order to control the false discovery rate. Adjusted p-values below 5% were considered statistically significant. For heatmap display, expression values of significantly up-regulated genes (in A or B) were scaled across samples and hierarchical clustering was performed using euclidean distance and complete linkage. Analyses were carried out using R 3.5 with add-on package pheatmap.

Statistics. Statistical analysis was performed using the GraphPad Prism software package.

Supplemental Information

Supplementary Figure 1. Establishment of barrier function by T84 cells.

T84 cells were seeded onto transwell inserts. (A). The rate of establishment of

barrier function was measured by the trans-epithelial electrical resistance

(TEER) using a chop stick electrode. TEER greater than 1000 Ohm/cm^2 indicates

a tight barrier and is marked with a dashed line. (B). Barrier integrity was

assessed by dextran diffusion assay. T84 cells were allowed to grow on

transwells and at the indicated time points 4kDa fluorescent FITC-Dextran was

added to the apical chamber. Three hours post-incubation, basolateral media

was collected and analyzed by fluorometry to assess the amount of dextran

which has diffused to the basolateral compartment of the transwells. Experiment

were performed in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviation. n.d.=

not determined.

Supplementary Figure 2. Activation of pBMC by TLR ligands and uptake of

TLR3 agonist by T84 hIECs. (A) pBMCs were isolated and treated with 10-fold

serial dilutions of the indicated TLR agonists (starting concentrations: TLR1/2

(PAM3CSK4, 1 µg/mL); TLR3 (1:1 HMW and LMW poly I:C, 10 µg/mL); TLR4

(LPS-EK, 1 µg/mL); TLR5 (Flagellin-ST, 1 µg/mL); TLR7/8 (R848, 1 µg/mL),

TLR9 (ODN 2395 5 µM)). Supernatants were harvested 24 hours post-

stimulation and were tested for IL-6 by ELISA. (B) Polarized T84 cells were fed

FITC-labeled poly I:C in a side specific manner. Cells were harvested at indicated

time points, were washed with a quick acid wash to remove any non-internalized

poly I:C bound to the cell surface. Following acid wash, cells were lysed and the

relative amount of internalized FITC-labeled poly I:C was measured by

spectrofluorometry. Experiments were performed in triplicate. Error bars

indicate the standard deviation. ns=not significant (unpaired t-test).

Supplementary Figure 3. Apical infection of T84 cells by MRV leads to more

***de novo* virus production compared to basolateral infection.** Polarized T84

cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. (A) Fluorescently labeled

MRV was added to polarized T84 cells in a side specific manner. Cells were

collected at indicated times points and were washed with a quick acid wash to

remove any non-internalized virus particles bound to the cell surface. Following

acid wash, cells were lysed and the relative amount of internalized virus

particles was measured by spectrofluorometry. (B) Infected cells were collected

at the indicated time points and viral replication was assayed by q-RT-PCR

against the MRV μ2 genome segment. (C) Same as B except virus replication was

addressed by Western blot against the MRV non-structural protein μNS. Actin

was used as a loading control (left panel). Representative figure is shown. The

relative expression of μNS is normalized to actin is shown (right panel). (D)

Infected cells were fixed at indicated time points and immunofluorescence was

performed against the non-structural protein μNS. The number of infected cells

per field of view was counted. 10 fields of view were counted for each time point.

(E) Polarized T84 cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. Infected

cells were collected at the indicated time points and viral replication was

assayed by q-RT-PCR against the MRV μ2 genome segment. Experiments were

performed in triplicate, error bars indicate the standard deviation. ns=not

significant , *<P.05, **P < 0.01 (unpaired t-test)

Supplementary Figure 4. Side specific induction of IFN production upon

viral infection in the human intestinal epithelial line SKCO15 cells. SKCO15

cells were seeded on transwells. Following establishment of barrier function,

cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. (A) 16 hpi, the production

of type I (IFNβ) and type III (IFNλ2/3) IFNs was assessed by q-RT-PCR. (B)

Efficiency of the primary MRV infection in SKCO15 cells was controlled by

immunofluorescence against the non-structural protein μNS (red). Cell nuclei

were stained using DAPI (blue). Experiments were performed in triplicate.

Representative images for IF are shown. Scale bar =100 μm. Error bars indicate

standard deviation. ** P < 0.01 (unpaired t-test).

Supplementary Figure 5. Basolateral infection of T84 cells leads to a

stronger production of interferon compared to apical infection. (A) T84

cells were infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. RNA samples were

collected at the indicated times post-infection and production of type I (IFNβ)

and type III (IFNλ2/3) interferons was measured by q-RT-PCR. (B) T84 cells were

infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. Supernatants were collected at the

indicated times post-infection and analyzed by ELISA for the secretion of type III

(IFNλ2/3) interferon. A=apical infection. B =basolateral infection. Black line

indicates the limit of detection. All samples were performed in triplicate. Error

bars indicate the standard deviation. ns=not significant, *<P.05, **P < 0.01, ***P <

0.001 (unpaired t-test).

Supplementary Figure 6. Stronger immune response observed during

basolateral infection of hIECs is not due to differences in transcript

stability. (A) Polarized T84 cells were infected apically or basolaterally with

MRV. 16 hpi cells were treated with actinomycin D to block transcription. RNA

samples were collected at the indicated times post-actinomycin treatment. (B)

Relative amounts of type I (upper panel) and type III IFN (lower panel)

transcripts (normalized to the time of actinomycin treatment) were evaluated by

q-RT-PCR (left panel). The half-life of each transcripts was determined (right

panel). Experiments were performed in triplicate. Error bars indicate the

standard deviation. ns=not significant. *<P.05 (unpaired t-test).

Supplementary Figure 7. Basolateral infection of T84 cells by MRV leads to

the upregulation of many immune related genes. Polarized T84 cells were

infected apically or basolaterally with MRV. 16 hpi, RNA was collected and

subjected to microarray analysis. Expression values were quantile-normalized

after background correction and log2-transformed. Unspecific filtering was

performed by discarding genes with non-significant p-values in any sample. (A)

Differentially expressed genes between apical infection and mock infected cells

as well as between basolateral infection and mock infected cells were identified

using the empirical Bayes approach and are shown in a Venn diagram. (B)

Heatmap of expression values of significantly up-regulated genes in apically and

basolaterally infected cells were scaled across samples and hierarchical

clustering was performed using euclidean distance and complete linkage. (C)

KEGG analysis of significantly upregulated genes upon basolateral infection of

T84 cells.

Supplementary Figure 8. Basolateral infection of human organoids by MRV generates a stronger intrinsic immune response compared to apical infection. (A) Schematic of the microinjection approach used to infect organoids specifically from either their apical or basolateral sides. (B-C) Human intestinal organoids were infected by MRV apically or basolaterally through microinjection. Virus infection was assessed 16 hpi for (B) the production of the non-structural viral protein µNS using Western blot analysis and (C) the production of the MRV µ2 genome segment by q-RT-PCR. (D) Generation of intrinsic immune response was assessed by quantifying the production of type I (IFNβ) and type III (IFNλ2/3) IFNs using q-RT-PCR. (E) The relative expression of TLR2-9 was evaluated in human intestinal organoids. Results are expressed as a ratio to the house keeping gene HPRT1. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Representative western blot is shown. Error bars indicate the standard deviation. ns=not significant, *<P.05, **P < 0.01 (unpaired t-test).

Supplementary Figure 9. Knock-down of the clathrin adaptor AP-1B impacts the polarized immune response. (A) Knock-down efficiency AP-1B was evaluated by q-RT-PCR. (B-D) The integrity of the barrier function of the AP-1B knock down T84 cells was evaluated by (B) indirect immunofluorescence of the tight junction protein Zo-1 (red), (C) dextran diffusion assay and (D) TEER measurement.(E) Polarized WT and AP-1B knock-down T84 cells were infected with MRV in a side specific manner. Supernatants were collected at indicated time points and subjected to ELISA to monitor the amount of secreted type III IFNs. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Error bars indicate the standard deviation. Representative image for immunofluorescence is shown.

1005   Scale bar =100 μm. ns=not significant, ** P < 0.01, **** P < 0.0001 (unpaired t-

1006   test).

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Supplementary Figure 10. Stimulation of AP-1B knock-down T84 cells by

TLR agonists. (A) AP-1B knock-down T84 cells were seeded on transwells and

treated with indicated TLR agonists: TLR1/2 (PAM3CSK4, 1 μg/mL); TLR3 (1:1

HMW and LMW poly I:C, 10 μg/mL); TLR4 (LPS-EK, 0.01 μg/mL); TLR5

(Flagellin-ST, 1 μg/mL); TLR7/8 (R848, 1 μg/mL), TLR9 (ODN 2395 5 μM). 6

hours post-treatment RNA was harvested and evaluated for the upregulation of

IL-6 by q-RT-PCR. Results are normalized to mock-treated samples. (B) Same as

A except type III IFN (IFNλ2/3) was evaluated. Experiments were performed in

triplicate; error bars indicate the standard deviation. ns=not significant, *<P.05

(unpaired t-test)

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Supplementary Figure 11. Inhibition of TRIF interferes with the polarized

immune response generated by T84 cells. WT and AP-1B knock-down T84

cells were seeded on transwell inserts. (A) WT cells were treated with a TRIF

inhibitor or a control peptide. T84 cells were infected with MRV in a side specific

manner. RNA samples were harvested at indicated time points post-MRV

infection and the intrinsic innate immune induction was analyzed by q-RT-PCR

for type III IFN (IFNλ2/3). (B) Same as A, except AP-1B knock-down cells were

evaluated. All experiments were performed in triplicate. Error bars indicate the

standard deviation. ns=not significant, * P < 0.05. ** P < 0.01. Statistics in panel B

are between AP-1B and AP-1B+TRIFi.

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1030 **Supplementary Figure 12. The clathrin sorting adaptor protein AP-1**

1031 **localizes TLR3 to the basolateral side of hIECs leading to an asymmetric**

1032 **IFN-mediated immune response.** Schematic showing TLR3 localization in

1033 polarized intestinal epithelial cells and its implication for side specific interferon

1034 induction upon viral infection.

1035

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6