1	The Gene Expression Profile of Uropathogenic Escherichia coli in Women with
2	Uncomplicated Urinary Tract Infections Is Recapitulated in the Mouse Model
3	
4	Arwen E. Frick-Cheng ^{1*} , Anna Sintsova ¹ , ^{2*} , Sara N. Smith ¹ , Michael Krauthammer ² , Kathryn A.
5	Eaton ¹ and Harry L. T. Mobley ¹
6	
7	¹ Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, USA
8	² Department of Quantitative Biomedicine, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland
9	
10	
11	* Authors contributed equally
12	Correspondence should be addressed to Harry L. T. Mobley (hmobley@med.umich.edu)
13	
14	Keywords: UPEC, transcriptome, human infection, mouse model of UTIs
15	

16 Abstract

17 Uropathogenic Escherichia coli (UPEC) is the primary causative agent of uncomplicated urinary tract infections (UTIs). UPEC fitness and virulence determinants have been evaluated in a 18 19 variety of laboratory settings that include a well-established mouse model of UTI. However, the 20 extent to which bacterial physiology differs between experimental models and human infections 21 remains largely understudied. To address this important question, we compared the transcriptomes 22 of three different UPEC isolates in human infection and a variety of laboratory conditions 23 including LB culture, filter-sterilized urine culture, and the UTI mouse model. We observed high 24 correlation in gene expression between the mouse model and human infection in all three strains 25 examined (Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.86-0.87). Only 175 of 3,266 (5.4%) genes shared by all three strains had significantly different expression levels, with the majority of them (145 26 27 genes) down-regulated in patients. Importantly, gene expression of both canonical virulence 28 factors and metabolic machinery were highly similar between the mouse model and human 29 infection, while the *in vitro* conditions displayed more substantial differences. Interestingly, 30 comparison of gene expression between the mouse model and human infection hint at differences 31 in bladder oxygenation as well as nutrient composition. In summary, our work strongly validates 32 the continued use of this mouse model for the study of the pathogenesis of human UTI.

33

34 Importance

35 Different experimental models have been used to study UPEC pathogenesis including *in vitro* 36 cultures in different media, tissue culture, as well as mouse models of infection. The latter is 37 especially important since it allows evaluation of mechanisms of pathogenesis and potential 38 therapeutic strategies against UPEC. Bacterial physiology is greatly shaped by environment and it is therefore critical to understand how closely bacterial physiology in any experimental model
relates to human infection. In this study, we found a very strong correlation in bacterial gene
expression between the mouse model and human UTI using identical strains, suggesting that the
mouse model accurately mimics human infection, definitively supporting its continued use in UTI
research.

45 Introduction

46 Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are one of the most common bacterial infections in 47 otherwise healthy individuals. Over 50% of women will experience at least one UTI in their 48 lifetime, and half of these women will experience a recurrent infection within a year (1, 2). These 49 infections affect 150 million people per year and result in annual medical costs of \$3.5 billion in 50 the US alone (3). Uropathogenic Escherichia coli (UPEC) is responsible for 80% of uncomplicated 51 UTIs (1) and deploy diverse strategies to survive and replicate in the human host. These comprise 52 an array of virulence factors including, but not limited to, iron acquisition systems (siderophores 53 and heme receptors), fimbriae and other adhesins, flagella, and toxins (4-7). The importance of 54 these systems to bacterial fitness has been studied in detail using multiple models including 55 cultures in laboratory media, human urine cultures, tissue culture, and a mouse model first 56 established over 30 years ago (8). However, animal models can fail to recapitulate important 57 aspects of the human response to disease (9). Whether the mouse model accurately reflects the 58 native environment found during human infection has not been adequately addressed. Therefore, 59 it is vitally important to determine if the mouse model of ascending UTI recapitulates human UTI 60 since defining mechanisms of pathogenesis and the development of UTI therapies relies on this 61 assumption (10).

Previous studies compared the mouse model to human UTIs using microarrays to assess differences in bacterial gene expression (11, 12). Initially, urine from mice infected with UPEC type strain CFT073 was collected over a period of ten days, pooled and analyzed using a microarray based on the CFT073 genome (11). In a follow-up study, urine was collected from eight women with complicated UTIs and bacterial gene expression in the human host was analyzed, again using microarrays based on the CFT073 genome (12). Relative expression levels 68 of 46 fitness genes were compared between the mouse model and human UTI. This comparison 69 demonstrated a Pearson's correlation coefficient of 0.59 and was strongest for iron acquisition 70 systems and weakest for adhesin and motility systems (12). While encouraging, this study did not 71 provide conclusive evidence that the mouse model closely replicated human UTI. A key weakness 72 of our previous comparison was that genetic differences between currently circulating isolates and 73 strain CFT073 used for the mouse infections would obscure strain-specific responses, either due 74 to differences in mouse *versus* human UTI or because the CFT073-specific microarrays would not detect expression of genes that are not encoded by that strain. 75

76 We have recently used RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) to quantify the UPEC transcriptome during acute infection in 14 female patients (13). Importantly, RNA-seq is a more comprehensive 77 78 platform to analyze the transcriptome of clinical UPEC strains since, unlike microarrays, it is not 79 limited by strain-specific probes. In this study, we report the transcriptome during murine UTI for 80 three of the 14 clinical strains using RNA-seq and directly compare the gene expression patterns 81 for these identical strains between human UTI and the mouse model. We observed a high 82 correlation between human infection and mouse infection (Pearson correlation coefficient ranging 83 from 0.86-0.87) with only 175 of 3,266 shared genes being differentially expressed. Gene 84 expression of classical virulence factors as well as metabolic genes in the mouse model closely 85 resembled that observed during human UTI. Our study is the first of its kind to directly compare 86 the bacterial transcriptomes between human and mouse UTI using identical strains. We conclude 87 that the mouse model accurately reflects bacterial gene expression observed during human 88 infection.

90 **Results**

91 **Study Design.** We previously sequenced the transcriptomes of 14 UPEC strains isolated directly from the urine of patients with uncomplicated UTIs (hUTI) and immediately stabilized with 92 93 RNAprotect (13). Three out of 14 strains (HM43, HM56, and HM86) were chosen to conduct 94 transcriptomic studies in the prevailing mouse model of UTI (mUTI) (8). We selected strains 95 whose hUTI transcriptomes had the highest proportion of bacterial reads to eukaryotic reads 96 (Supplemental Table 1) and that possessed a prototypical UPEC virulence factor profile. All three 97 strains belong to the B2 phylogroup (13), where the majority of UPEC strains reside, and encode 98 a range of siderophores, heme receptors, as well as multiple fimbrial types (Fig. 1).

To compare UPEC gene expression during mUTI against hUTI, 40 mice were 99 100 transurethrally inoculated with each UPEC strain and mouse urine was collected directly into 101 RNAprotect, 48 hours post inoculation, for RNA isolation and sequencing. Animals were then 102 sacrificed and the bacterial burden of their urine, bladder and kidneys was quantified. All three strains successfully colonized the animals with bacterial burdens ranging between $5.0 \times 10^3 - 4.4$ 103 $x10^4$ CFU/g in the bladder and $1x10^4 - 1.2x10^6$ CFU/g in the kidneys (Fig. 2A), levels of 104 105 colonization that are consistent with an active UTI. We also assessed levels of inflammation (on a 106 scale from 0 to 3) in the bladders and kidneys of these infected mice, comparing them to mice that 107 were mock-infected with PBS (Fig. 2B, Supplemental Fig.1). After 48 hours, infection with all 108 of the three UPEC strains resulted in mild levels of inflammation in the bladder (median 109 inflammation scores of 1.0, 0.25, and 0.5 for HM43, HM56 and HM86, respectively) and slightly 110 higher levels in the kidneys (median inflammation scores of 1.25, 1.5, and 1.0 for HM43, HM56 111 and HM86, respectively). These similar scores indicated that the general host responses were 112 comparable across these three different strains.

In addition to isolating RNA from mouse urine during mUTI, we also isolated and sequenced RNA from HM43, HM56 and HM86 cultured to mid-logarithmic phase in both filtersterilized human urine and lysogeny broth (LB). All samples processed in this study underwent identical treatments to deplete eukaryotic mRNA, prepare libraries, and conduct sequencing (see Methods).

The bacterial transcriptome is highly correlated between human and mouse infections. First, 118 119 we assessed how UPEC gene expression during hUTI compared to that during in vitro conditions 120 and mUTI. For each strain, we compared log₂ transcripts per million (TPMs) of every gene 121 between LB and hUTI, human urine culture and hUTI, and finally mUTI and hUTI. Gene 122 expression during hUTI and mUTI was most highly correlated with the Pearson correlation 123 coefficient (r) ranging from 0.86 to 0.87 (Fig. 3). In contrast, the *in vitro* human urine culture when 124 compared to hUTI exhibited lower correlation values of 0.73-0.80 (Fig. 3), consistent with our 125 previous report (13). Interestingly, gene expression correlation between LB and hUTI was higher 126 than the correlation between urine and hUTI (r between 0.80-0.88) (Fig 3). Our data demonstrate 127 that murine infection is the most reliable and consistent model to recapitulate the conditions that 128 are observed during human infection.

Gene expression during infection is distinct from that during urine culture. We have recently shown that diverse UPEC strains show a conserved gene expression pattern in human patients with uncomplicated UTIs (13). Since we saw such strong correlation between gene expression in patients and in mice for each of the UPEC strains (**Fig 3**), we hypothesized that we would also observe a conserved pattern of gene expression between different UPEC strains during mUTI. To address this question, we performed principal component analysis (PCA) on gene expression of the 3,266 genes present in all three UPEC strains (**Fig. 4A**). We observed four distinct clusters that 136 corresponded to the two *in vitro* growth conditions (LB and filter-sterilized human urine cultures)
137 and the two infection sites (human patients and mice) all displaying condition-specific gene
138 expression programs. Samples from patients and mice clustered closer to each other than to *in vitro*139 samples, suggesting that there is an infection-specific gene expression pattern conserved between
140 the two hosts.

141 These observations were confirmed when we examined correlations in gene expression between different strains (Fig 4B). Once again, gene expression during mouse infection showed 142 143 the highest correlation with gene expression during human infection for all three strains, with a 144 median correlation coefficient of 0.84. Surprisingly, gene expression in human urine correlated 145 less well with patient data compared to gene expression during LB culture (average correlation 146 coefficient from all LB comparisons of 0.81, while the value for urine was 0.71). We also 147 demonstrated that growth in rich medium (LB) more closely mimics human infection than growth 148 in nutrient-poor human urine, in agreement with the previously demonstrated rapid growth of 149 UPEC in the host (both mouse and human) compared to slow growth in human urine (13-16).

150 Differentially regulated genes between human and mouse infection suggest nutritional 151 disparities. Despite the high concordance of hUTI and mUTI gene expression data, we wanted to 152 determine whether any genes are differentially regulated between human and mouse infection. To 153 answer this question, we used the R package DEseq2 (17) to find significant differences in gene 154 expression between the two different infections. Strikingly, only 175 genes, representing 5.4% of 155 the 3,266 genes analyzed, were differentially regulated (30 upregulated, 145 downregulated) in 156 human infection compared to the mouse model (Fig. 5A, Table 1 and 2, Supplemental Table 2). 157 The upregulated gene with the highest fold-change difference (4.3) between human and mouse

was *cspA*, which encodes an RNA chaperone initially identified as a cold shock protein (18, 19).
However, this protein may have other functions as it is highly expressed during early exponential
phase (20) and during the introduction of fresh nutrient sources (21). In addition, the cell division
gene *ftsB* and the upstream regulator of ribosomal RNA transcription *fis* were upregulated in hUTI
as compared to mUTI.

163 The majority of differentially regulated genes were downregulated in patients compared to 164 mice, and several of these genes span operons encompassing specific systems (Table 2 and 165 Supplemental Table 2). For example, during mUTI, we observed: increased expression of citrate 166 lyase operon *citCDEFGTX*, which is responsible for the conversion of citrate oxaloacetate and 167 acetate and feeds into the production of acetyl-COA under anaerobic conditions (22); the pathway 168 for allantoin breakdown (allABDC); and ethanolamine utilization (eutABCDEGHJLMNPQST) 169 (Table 2 and Supplemental Table 2). In addition, genes encoding transporters for the uptake of 170 L-arabinose (araADFGH), L-ascorbate (ulaABCDEDF), and allantoin (ybbW) were transcribed at 171 higher levels during mUTI (Table 2 and Supplemental Table 2). Furthermore, several genes 172 related to anaerobic metabolism or fermentation (*hycBDF* and *frdAB*) were more highly expressed 173 in mice (Table 2 and Supplemental Table 2). All of these results indicate subtle nutrient differences between the mouse and human urinary tract. 174

Infection-specific gene expression. Additionally, we were interested in identifying genes that behaved similarly during both human and mouse infection, *i.e.*, genes that were up- or downregulated in both mouse and human UTI when compared to either of the *in vitro* conditions (LB or filter-sterilized human urine). There were 54 downregulated genes in both mouse and human UTI when compared to LB (Fig. 5B, Supplemental Table 3) and there were 67 upregulated genes during both mUTI and hUTI when compared to LB (Fig. 5B, Supplemental Table 4). 181 Interestingly, both chemotaxis (*cheABWYZ*) and flagellar machinery (*flgCFGLM* and *fliS*) were 182 downregulated during infection, which may be attributed to the fact that the UPEC strains we are 183 analyzing were isolated from the urine of infected individuals; motility genes tend to be 184 upregulated when UPEC enters the ureters to ascend to the kidneys (23). In contrast, *nrdEFHI* 185 genes are upregulated in both mice and humans compared to LB. These genes are ribonucleotide 186 reductases required for DNA synthesis, and therefore often associated with fast growth, fitting the 187 previously established paradigm of UPEC's rapid *in vivo* growth rate during human and murine 188 infection (13-16).

189 There were 82 genes that were downregulated during either mUTI or hUTI when compared 190 to urine (Fig. 5C, Supplemental Table 5). These included branched-chain amino acid 191 biosynthesis (*ilvCDEMN*) and leucine biosynthesis (*leuABCD*) operons, consistent with previous 192 literature indicating that UPEC scavenges amino acids and peptides during infection. In contrast, 193 there were 72 genes that were upregulated in humans and mice when compared to urine (Fig. 5C, 194 Supplemental Table 6). As previously reported (13), we observed 16 genes associated with 195 ribosomal subunit production as well as the master regulator *fis*, which activates rRNA 196 transcription, together reinforcing our observation that bacteria are growing rapidly in the host 197 (15).

Expression of fitness factors during murine infection is predictive of gene expression during human infection. Finally, we wanted to determine whether previously identified UPEC virulence factors that have been studied using *in vivo* mouse models would show comparable levels of expression during both mouse and human infections. We focused on three major functional groups of fitness factors: iron acquisition systems, adhesins, and metabolism (Supplemental Table 7). We plotted log₂ TPM of the genes in each functional group, comparing expression between hUTI

and LB, hUTI and urine, as well as hUTI and mUTI for each of the UPEC strains (Fig. 6,
Supplemental Fig. 2, Supplemental Fig 3.)

As expected, iron acquisition gene expression is much higher during human infection than during growth in rich LB medium (**Fig. 6A**). The expression levels are more similar between urine culture (an iron-poor medium) and human infection, but murine infection provides the most analogous profile (**Fig. 6A**). The only adherence gene cluster that was highly expressed in any of the assayed conditions was the *fim* operon, which encodes type 1 fimbriae. Expression of *fim* genes was higher in patients compared to either of the *in vitro* conditions, but almost perfectly matched the expression levels observed during mouse infection (**Fig. 6B**).

213 Metabolic genes showed a major difference between human infection and *in vitro* growth. 214 The converse is also true; aerobic respiration genes, in particular, were expressed at lower levels 215 in humans than in either *in vitro* condition. Importantly, we also observed that the expression levels 216 of aerobic respiration genes align concordantly between human and mice (Fig. 6C), while 217 anaerobic respiration gene expression was elevated in mice compared to humans. This observation 218 corroborates results from Fig. 5A, Table 2 and Supplemental Table 2, where several genes 219 involved in anaerobic metabolism were expressed at higher levels in mice compared to hUTI. 220 Overall, we conclude, with only limited exceptions, that the mouse model of UTI not only shows 221 a strong global correlation of gene expression with hUTI, but also closely reflects the expression 222 of virulence and fitness genes that are known to contribute to UPEC fitness during human 223 infection.

225 Discussion

226 UPEC virulence factors as well as potential therapeutic strategies have been studied in 227 detail using a well-established mouse model of infection that involves transurethral inoculation of 228 UPEC into the bladder. This mouse model has been extensively used in the field, and the original 229 papers defining this model (8, 24) have been cited nearly 500 times. Until now, there has been no direct comparison of global bacterial gene expression between human and mouse studies using the 230 231 identical strain, and it is essential to understand how the mouse model relates to human disease. 232 This study is the first to define the bacterial transcriptome from infected patients and infected mice 233 using the same UPEC strains, thus presenting a direct comparison between the murine model and 234 human infection. Our study demonstrates that the UTI mouse model accurately recapitulates the 235 human disease with respect to the bacterial transcriptional response.

We compared three UPEC strains (HM43, HM56, and HM86) that were isolated in 2012 236 237 from women with symptoms of cystitis and documented bacteriuria (25). We isolated bacterial 238 RNA, stabilized immediately, from their urine to conduct RNA-seq and define the core bacterial 239 transcriptome during acute human infection (13). The same strains were then used for mouse 240 infection, followed by urine collection, bacterial RNA isolation and sequencing. We consistently 241 observed an extraordinarily high correlation between the bacterial transcriptome during mouse and 242 human infection, with the Pearson correlation coefficient ranging from 0.86 to 0.87. This correlation is not strain-specific, as infections with all three stains showed similar results. 243 244 Expression of virulence and metabolic genes was also found to be very similar between human 245 and mouse infection. This provides strong evidence that the mouse model is an accurate 246 representation of the infection that occurs in humans.

247 Mounting evidence suggests that UPEC in the human host are rapidly dividing (13, 15). 248 We have recently shown that this is recapitulated in the mouse model, although to a lesser degree 249 (13). This difference in growth rate between human and mouse UTIs potentially can be understood 250 by examining the genes that are differentially expressed between human and mouse infections. 251 Most of the differentially expressed genes were expressed at a lower level during hUTI compared 252 to mUTI (145 of 175 genes). Many of these 145 genes are involved in anaerobic metabolism. 253 Several of them were clustered in operons encoding oxidoreductases involved in fumarate or nitrite 254 reduction. Additionally, genes involved in nutrient usage under anaerobic conditions were also 255 expressed at a lower level during hUTI, such as the *all* operon, which encodes the catabolic 256 pathway for allantoin degradation (a step in purine catabolism (26)), or the *ula* operon, which 257 encodes both an L-ascorbate transporter and the corresponding enzymes for L-ascorbate 258 utilization, a compound that can be present in urine due to its water soluble nature (27). Therefore, 259 we hypothesize that the human bladder is better oxygenated than the mouse bladder, likely due to a higher surface area to volume ratio. Indeed, a higher oxygen level in human bladders might also 260 261 account for the higher levels of replication observed in hUTI (13), since an aerobic lifestyle can 262 support more rapid growth. There were also differences in transport systems involved in nutrient 263 acquisition between hUTI and mUTI. Arabinose transport (araADFGH) was expressed at a lower 264 level in humans; this sugar has been shown to be present in human bladders in μ M amounts when 265 normalized to creatine (27). It is also present in murine bladders (28), but has never been precisely 266 quantified. It would be interesting if arabinose is present in lower amounts in humans compared 267 to mice, accounting for this difference in regulation. One of the few genes that was upregulated in 268 humans compared to mice was dsdX, which encodes a D-serine transporter. Interestingly, D-serine 269 is present in micromolar amounts in human urine (29), D-serine utilization is associated with

uropathogenic strains (30, 31) and accumulation of D-serine leads to a "hypervirulent" phenotype
(31, 32) in the urinary tract. Since there was an upregulation in D-serine transport, and not in the
deaminase required for its breakdown (*dsdA*), perhaps this presents a mechanism to increase the
intracellular levels of D-serine specific to hUTI.

274 We also compared the gene expression profiles of UPEC during infection with the two 275 most common *in vitro* models, LB cultures and pooled filter-sterilized human urine cultures. 276 Surprisingly, even though urine might seem to be the more physiologically relevant medium for 277 in vitro experimentation, LB overall provided a better model for infection compared to urine 278 cultures. The lower correlation between hUTI and urine culture gene expression could be due a 279 nutrient limitation that is not present during infection. The bladder is akin to a chemostat, with 280 fresh urine constantly being introduced into the organ, a condition that is not recapitulated in our 281 in vitro conditions. Furthermore, the collected urine is typically filter-sterilized and this method 282 excludes exfoliated bladder epithelial cells, likely another major source of nutrients for the 283 pathogen during human infection. In future studies, we could add lysed bladder cells from cell 284 culture to supplement the filter-sterilized urine and determine if this represents a better model of 285 the nutrient milieu. However, when studying specific systems, such as iron acquisition, urine is a 286 better model than LB, since it more accurately recapitulates the iron-limited environment of the 287 host.

In summary, while both *in vitro* models have advantages and disadvantages, the mouse model provides the most holistic representation of infection and provides the best platform to answer questions that are more difficult or impossible to assess when working with human patients.

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.02.18.954842; this version posted February 19, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

292 Methods

Bacterial culture conditions. Clinical UPEC strains HM43, 56 and 86 (25) were cultured
overnight in LB medium at 37°C with aeration. The next morning, cultures were centrifuged and
the pellets washed twice with PBS, then diluted 1:100 into either fresh LB medium or human urine.
The human urine was collected and pooled from at least four healthy female volunteers and passed
through a 0.22 µm filter for sterilization. Bacteria were cultured at 37°C with aeration to midexponential phase (3 hours), then stabilized in RNAprotect (Qiagen). Bacterial pellets were stored
at -80°C until RNA isolation.

300

Mouse infection. Forty female CBA/J mice were transurethrally inoculated, using the previously established ascending model of UTI (8), with 10⁸ CFU of either HM43, 56, or 86, and the infection was allowed to progress for 48 hours. Urine from five mice was collected to enumerate bacterial burden, while the rest was collected for RNA (see below for method). Mice were sacrificed, and their bladders and kidneys aseptically removed, homogenized, and plated to determine bacterial burden. Mouse urine was collected as previously described (13). Briefly, urine was directly collected into RNAprotect, pooled, pelleted, and stored at -80°C until RNA isolation.

308

RNA isolation and library preparation. RNA was isolated as previously described (13). Briefly,
all bacterial pellets were treated with both lysozyme and proteinase K, and then total RNA was
extracted using a RNeasy kit (Qiagen). Genomic DNA was removed using the Turbo DNA-free
kit (ThermoFisher). Eukaryotic mRNA was depleted using Dynabeads covalently linked with
oligo dT (ThermoFisher). The *in vitro* samples underwent the same treatment with Dynabeads to
reduce any potential biases this procedure might introduce to the downstream sequencing. The

supernatant was collected from this treatment, and RNA was concentrated and re-purified using aRNA Clean and Concentrator kit (Zymo).

317 To compare the results of the new RNA-sequencing experiment to the published 318 expression data obtained from the human samples (13), the library preparation method needed to 319 be identical to avoid batch effects. The original sequencing data were obtained using the ScriptSeq 320 Complete kit (Bacteria) to prepare the cDNA library. However, at the time of this study, Illumina 321 had discontinued this kit. As a result, we used ScriptSeq Complete Gold Kit (Epidemiology), 322 which contains rRNA removal for prokaryotes and eukaryotes for the HM86-mouse sample, the 323 HM43-mouse, HM43-LB and HM43-urine samples, we had to switch to ScriptSeq Complete 324 (Bacteria), which contains prokaryotic rRNA removal for HM56-mouse, HM56-LB, HM56-urine, 325 HM86-LB, and HM86-urine. Mammalian rRNA was then removed from HM56-mouse with 326 ThermoFisher's mammalian rRNA removal kit (cat #457012).

327

RNA-sequencing. *E. coli* HM43 was sequenced using an Illumina HiSeq2500 (single end, 50 bp
read length) and *E. coli* HM56 and HM86 were sequenced using the Nextseq-500 with identical
conditions (single end, 50 bp read length).

331

Histology and tissue processing. Bladders were removed and halved by cutting on the transverse plane, while kidneys were cut on the sagittal plane. One half of each organ was used to enumerate CFU, while the other halves were placed into tissue cassettes and immersion-fixed in 10% formalin for at least 24 hours. They were then embedded in paraffin, cut into thin sections and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) by the *In Vivo* Animal Core at the University of Michigan. Tissue sections were scored as described in Table 7. Briefly, this is a scale of 0-3, where 0 was no

- inflammation, and 3 was severe inflammation. Each organ section was scored by two different
- people in a blinded manner and the scores averaged together.

340

Table 3: Scoring criteria for histopathological analysis.					
		Score			
Lesion	0	1	2	3	
Cystitis	No scorable lesions	very rare PMNs in stroma or lumen or occasional perivascular lymphoid cuffs	many PMNs and moderate edema	Many PMNs; widespread, marked edema, transmural inflammation	
Pyelonephritis	No scorable lesions	very occasional PMNs in lumen or peripelvic tissue	Rafts of PMNs in the pelvis and/or scattered focal aggregates of PMNs in peripelvic tissue	many PMNs in all sections, or a single large focus of PMNs in one section	

341

RNAseq Data Processing. A custom bioinformatics pipeline was used for the analysis
(github.com/ASintsova/rnaseq_analysis). Raw fastq files were processed with Trimmomatic (21)
to remove adapter sequences and analyzed with FastQC to assess sequencing quality. Mapping
was done with bowtie2 aligner (33) using default parameters. Alignment details can be found in
Supplemental Table 1. Read counts were calculated using HTseq htseq-count (34).

Pearson correlation coefficient calculation and PCA analysis. For PCA and correlation analysis, transcript per million (TPM) was calculated for each gene; TPM distribution was then normalized using log₂ transformation. Pearson correlation and PCA were performed using Python sklearn library. Jupyter notebooks used to generate the figures are available at https://github.com/ASintsova/HUTI-RNAseq

353

354 Differential expression analysis. Differential expression analysis was performed using DESeq2

R package (17). Genes with log₂ fold change of greater than 1 or less than -1 and adjusted *p* values

356 (Benjamini-Hochberg adjustment) of less than 0.05 were considered to be differentially expressed.

357 Pathway analysis was performed using R package topGO (35).

358

359 Data access. Jupyter notebooks as well as all the data used to generate the figures in this paper are

360 available on github: <u>https://github.com/ASintsova/HUTI-RNAseq</u>

361 Figures

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.02.18.954842; this version posted February 19, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

Fig.1			
Gene	HM43	HM56	HM86
entB			
cirA			
fepA			
fiu			
iha			
ireA			
iroB			
iroN			
irp1			
fyuA			
iucC			
fitA			
iutA			
fhuA			
chuA			
hma			
sitA			
tonB			
cheW			
cheY			
flgM			
motA			
motB			
csgA			
aufA			
focA			
c1936			
c2395			
fimH			
papG			
pixC			
, ppdD			
yadN			
yehA			
ygiL			
yfcV			
cnf1			
hlyA			
picU			
sat			
tosA			
vat			
	Present		
	Absent		
	Iron Acq	uisition	
	Motility	distion	
	Adhesin		
	Toxin		

363

Fig. 1 Virulence factors present in select clinical UPEC strains. Three clinical isolates, HM43,
HM56, and HM86, were assessed for the presence of 42 virulence factors commonly associated
with UPEC. Presence or absence of these genes was determined via BLAST (≥80% coverage and
(≥90% identity). White indicates absence of gene, while black indicates presence. Color coding on
gene names identifies the function of each virulence factor. Goldenrod is iron acquisition, green is
motility, blue is adhesins, while red is toxins.



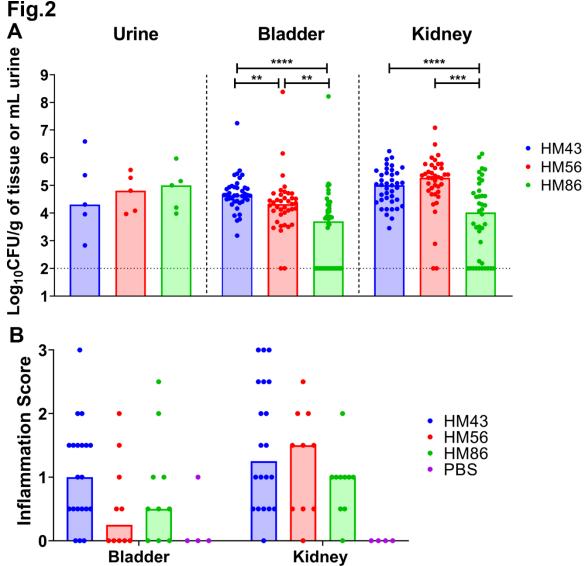


Fig. 2 Murine colonization and inflammatory response of selected clinical UPEC strains. CBA/J mice were transurethrally inoculated with 10^8 CFU of the indicated strain (HM43, HM56 of HM86). (A) Bacterial burden was enumerated from urine, bladder and kidneys 48 hours post infection. Symbols are individual animals and bars represent the median. Dotted line indicates limit of detection. A two-tailed Mann-Whitney test was performed to test significance, ** *P* <0.01, ****P* <0.005 *****P* <0.0001. (B) Inflammation was assessed using histopathological analysis of stained thin sections of each specified organ. Inflammation was scored on a 0-3 scale, with zero

being no inflammation, and 3 being severe. Mice were mocked-infected with PBS to serve as anegative control. Symbols are individual animals and bars represent the median.

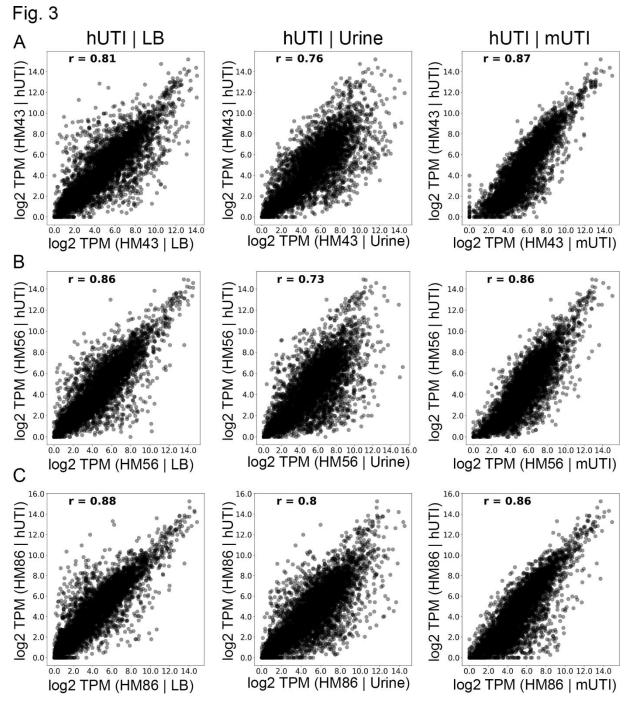




Fig. 3. UPEC gene expression during mouse and human infections is highly correlated. Gene
expression (log₂ TPM) for three UPEC strains: HM43 (A), HM56 (B), and HM86 (C) was
compared between LB culture and human infection (hUTI *vs* LB); urine culture and human
infection (hUTI *vs* urine); and mouse infection and human infection (hUTI *vs* mUTI). Pearson
correlation coefficient (*r*) is shown in top left corner of each plot.

bioRxiv preprint doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.02.18.954842; this version posted February 19, 2020. The copyright holder for this preprint (which was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder. All rights reserved. No reuse allowed without permission.

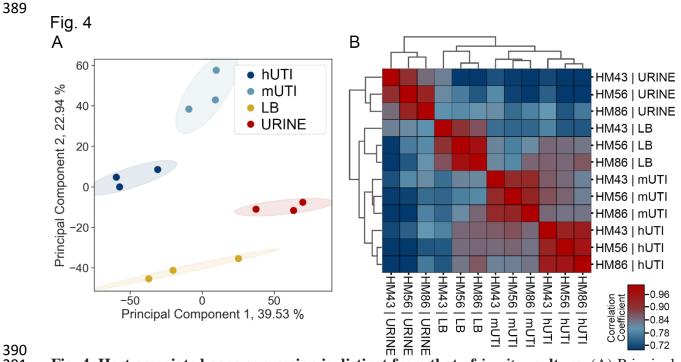


Fig. 4. Host-associated gene expression is distinct from that of *in vitro* **culture.** (A) Principal component analysis of normalized gene expression of 3 clinical UPEC strains during human infection (hUTI), during mouse infection (mUTI), during *in vitro* LB culture (LB), and *in vitro* urine cultures (URINE). (B) Correlations among *in vitro* and patient samples measured by Pearson correlation coefficient of normalized gene expression for genes present in all 3 strains (n=3266) plotted according to hierarchical clustering of samples.

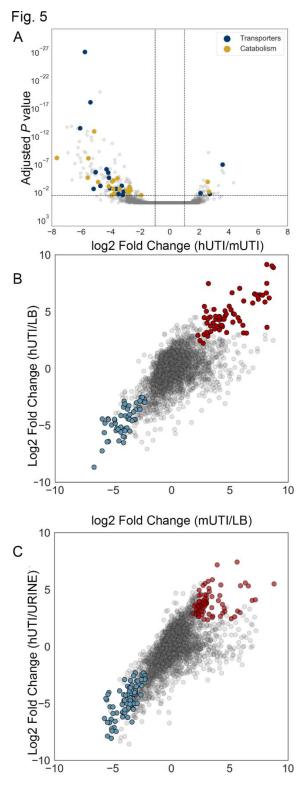
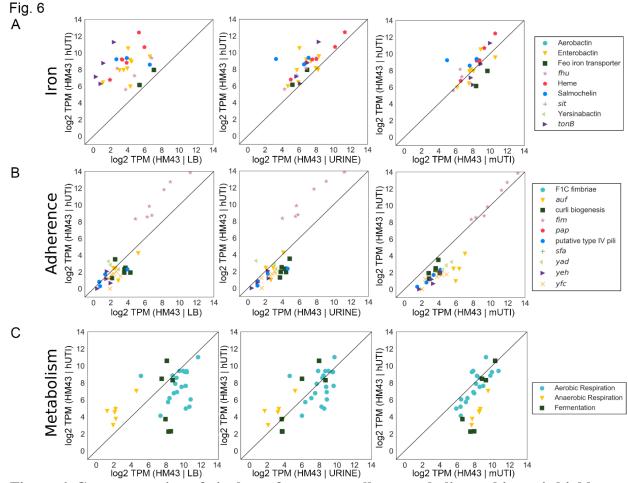


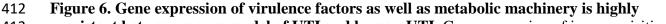


Figure 5. Differential expression analysis reveals infection-specific gene expression responses. (A) The DESeq2 R package was used to compare UPEC gene expression during m UTI to that in patients. Each UPEC strain was considered an independent replicate (n = 3). Genes were considered up-regulated (down-regulated) if log_2 fold change in expression was higher

402 (lower) than 1 (vertical lines), and P value < 0.05 (horizontal line). Using these cutoffs, we 403 identified 30 upregulated genes and 145 downregulated genes in patients. GO/pathway analysis 404 showed a number of transporters and catabolic enzymes among differentially expressed genes 405 (individually labeled). (B and C) Identification of genes differentially expressed during infection (hUTI or mUTI) compared to LB (B) or urine (C). Genes were considered to be up/downregulated 406 407 in both mouse and human if \log_2 fold change was higher/lower than 1, and P value < 0.05 in both 408 cases. Genes that were upregulated during infection when compared to LB (B) or urine (C) are 409 shown in red, genes that were downregulated during infection compared to LB are shown in blue.

410





- 413 **consistent between mouse model of UTI and human UTI.** Gene expression of iron acquisition
- 414 operons (A), adherence genes (B), and metabolic pathways (C) for HM43 was compared
- between LB and human infection (LB vs hUTI), urine and human infection (urine vs hUTI), and
 mouse UTI and human UTI (mUTI vs hUTI).
- 417

Gene	Annotation	log ₂ FC	Locus Tag
ahpC	alkyl hydroperoxide reductase, AhpC component	2.6	b0605
cspA	cold shock protein CspA	4.3	b3556
dsdX	D-serine transporter	2.7	b2365
fis	DNA-binding transcriptional dual regulator Fis	2.4	b3261
ftsB	cell division protein FtsB	2.3	b2748
gntK	D-gluconate kinase, thermostable	2.7	b3437
gpt	xanthine-guanine phsophoribosyltransferase	2.4	b0238
gspH	hypothetical type II secretion protein GspH	3.0	UTI89_C338
gspL	hypothetical type II secretion protein GspL	3.3	UTI89_C337
hpt	hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase	2.1	b0125
ibaG	acid stress protein IbaG	2.2	b3190
lysP	lysine:H(+) symporter	2.1	b2156
opgC	protein required for succinyl modification of osmoregulated periplasmic glucans	2.6	b1047
ribE	6,7-dimethyl-8-ribityllumazine synthase	2.1	b0415
rpmE	50S ribosomal subunit protein L31	2.7	b3936
suhB	inositol-phosphate phosphatase	2.6	b2533
yajG	putative lipoprotein YajG	2.6	b0434
yceA	UPF0176 protein YceA	3.5	b1055
yciB	inner membrane protein	2.3	b1254
ydiE	PF10636 family protein YdiE	2.1	b1705
yecJ	DUF2766 domain-containing protein YecJ	2.5	b4537
yejL	DUF1414 domain-containing protein YejL	2.2	b2187
yfaZ	putative porin YfaZ	2.9	b2250
yfhL	putative 4Fe-4S cluster-containing protein YfhL	2.6	b2562
yghD	putative type II secretion system M-type protein	3.6	b2968
yghG	lipoprotein YghG	3.3	b2971
yifK	putative transporter YifK	3.6	b3795
yqcC	DUF446 domain-containing protein YqcC	2.5	b2792
yqgF	ribonuclease H-like domain containing nuclease	2.3	b2949
yqiA	esterase YqiA	2.3	b3031

Gene	Annotation	log ₂ FC	Locus Tag
allB	allantoinase	-7.0	b0512
allD	ureidoglycolate dehydrogenase	-6.0	b0517
araA	L-arabinose isomerase	-5.6	b0062
citC	citrate lyase synthetase	-6.2	b0618
citD	citrate lyase acyl carrier protein	-5.6	b0617
citG	triphosphoribosyl-dephospho-CoA synthase	-5.5	b0613
citX	apo-citrate lyase phosphoribosyl-dephospho-CoA transferase	-5.9	b0614
eutG	putative alcohol dehydrogenase in ethanolamine utilization	-5.7	b2453
eutM	putative structural protein, ethanolamine utilization microcompartment	-6.1	b2457
eutN	putative carboxysome structural protein	-6.6	b2456
fdrA	putative acyl-CoA synthetase FdrA	-6.2	b0518
frdA	fumarate reductase flavoprotein subunit	-5.6	b4154
frdB	fumarate reductase iron-sulfur protein	-5.3	b4153
frdC	fumarate reductase membrane protein FrdC	-6.1	b4152
glxR	tartronate semialdehyde reductase 2	-7.7	b0509
hycA	regulator of the transcriptional regulator FhIA	-5.3	b2725
hycB	formate hydrogenlyase subunit HycB	-6.0	b2724
ompW	outer membrane protein W	-6.4	b1256
ssnA	putative aminohydrolase	-5.3	b2879
tdcA	DNA-binding transcriptional activator TdcA	-6.2	b3118
tdcB	catabolic threonine dehydratase	-5.5	b3117
ulaA	L-ascorbate specific PTS enzyme IIC component	-6.1	b4193
ulaB	L-ascorbate specific PTS enzyme IIB component	-5.8	b4194
ulaC	L-ascorbate specific PTS enzyme IIA component	-5.4	b4195
ybbW	putative allantoin transporter	-6.7	b0511
ygeW	putative carbamoyltransferase YgeW	-6.9	b2870
ygeY	putative peptidase YgeY	-6.1	b2872
ygfK	putative oxidoreductase, Fe-S subunit	-5.8	b2878
yhjX	putative pyruvate transporter	-5.4	b3547
ylbE	DUF1116 domain-containing protein YIbE	-5.6	b4572

^a FC: Fold Change, N/A: not available

419

420 **References**

- Flores-Mireles AL, Walker JN, Caparon M, Hultgren SJ. 2015. Urinary tract infections:
 epidemiology, mechanisms of infection and treatment options. Nature Reviews
 Microbiology 13:269-284.
- 424 2. Foxman B. 1990. Recurring urinary tract infection: incidence and risk factors. Am J
 425 Public Health 80:331-3.
- 426 3. Foxman B. 2010. The epidemiology of urinary tract infection. Nature reviews Urology 7:653-660.

428 4. Terlizzi ME, Gribaudo G, Maffei ME. 2017. Uropathogenic Escherichia coli (UPEC) Infections: Virulence Factors, Bladder Responses, Antibiotic, and Non-antibiotic 429 430 Antimicrobial Strategies. Frontiers in Microbiology 8:1566. 431 5. Subashchandrabose S, Mobley HLT. 2015. Virulence and Fitness Determinants of 432 Uropathogenic Escherichia coli. Microbiology Spectrum 3. 433 Sivick KE, Mobley HLT. 2010. Waging war against uropathogenic Escherichia coli: 6. 434 winning back the urinary tract. Infection and Immunity 78:568-585. 435 Alteri CJ, Mobley HLT. 2015. Metabolism and Fitness of Urinary Tract Pathogens. 7. 436 Microbiology Spectrum 3. 437 8. Hagberg L, Engberg I, Freter R, Lam J, Olling S, Svanborg Edén C. 1983. Ascending. 438 unobstructed urinary tract infection in mice caused by pyelonephritogenic Escherichia 439 coli of human origin. Infection and Immunity 40:273-283. 440 9. Seok J, Warren HS, Cuenca AG, Mindrinos MN, Baker HV, Xu W, Richards DR, 441 McDonald-Smith GP, Gao H, Hennessy L, Finnerty CC, López CM, Honari S, Moore 442 EE, Minei JP, Cuschieri J, Bankey PE, Johnson JL, Sperry J, Nathens AB, Billiar TR, 443 West MA, Jeschke MG, Klein MB, Gamelli RL, Gibran NS, Brownstein BH, Miller-444 Graziano C, Calvano SE, Mason PH, Cobb JP, Rahme LG, Lowry SF, Maier RV, 445 Moldawer LL, Herndon DN, Davis RW, Xiao W, Tompkins RG, Inflammation, Host 446 Response to Injury LSCRP. 2013. Genomic responses in mouse models poorly mimic 447 human inflammatory diseases. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the 448 United States of America 110:3507-3512. 449 10. O'Brien VP, Hannan TJ, Nielsen HV, Hultgren SJ. 2016. Drug and Vaccine Development 450 for the Treatment and Prevention of Urinary Tract Infections. Microbiology Spectrum 4. 451 Snyder JA, Haugen BJ, Buckles EL, Lockatell CV, Johnson DE, Donnenberg MS, Welch 11. 452 RA, Mobley HLT. 2004. Transcriptome of uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* during urinary 453 tract infection. Infection and Immunity 72:6373-6381. 454 12. Hagan EC, Lloyd AL, Rasko DA, Faerber GJ, Mobley HLT. 2010. Escherichia coli 455 global gene expression in urine from women with urinary tract infection. PLoS pathogens 456 6:e1001187. 457 13. Sintsova A, Frick-Cheng AE, Smith S, Pirani A, Subashchandrabose S, Snitkin ES, 458 Mobley H. 2019. Genetically diverse uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* adopt a common 459 transcriptional program in patients with UTIs. eLife 8. 460 14. Bielecki P, Muthukumarasamy U, Eckweiler D, Bielecka A, Pohl S, Schanz A, Niemeyer U, Oumeraci T, von Neuhoff N, Ghigo J-M, Häussler S. 2014. In vivo mRNA profiling of 461 uropathogenic *Escherichia coli* from diverse phylogroups reveals common and group-462 463 specific gene expression profiles. mBio 5:e01075-01014. 464 15. Forsyth VS, Armbruster CE, Smith SN, Pirani A, Springman AC, Walters MS, 465 Nielubowicz GR, Himpsl SD, Snitkin ES, Mobley HLT. 2018. Rapid Growth of 466 Uropathogenic Escherichia coli during Human Urinary Tract Infection. mBio 9. 467 16. Burnham P, Dadhania D, Heyang M, Chen F, Westblade LF, Suthanthiran M, Lee JR, De 468 Vlaminck I. 2018. Urinary cell-free DNA is a versatile analyte for monitoring infections 469 of the urinary tract. Nature Communications 9:2412. 470 17. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. 2014. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion 471 for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biology 15:550. 472 18. Jones PG, VanBogelen RA, Neidhardt FC. 1987. Induction of proteins in response to low temperature in Escherichia coli. Journal of bacteriology 169:2092-2095. 473

Goldstein J, Pollitt NS, Inouye M. 1990. Major cold shock protein of *Escherichia coli*.

Brandi A, Pon CL. 2012. Expression of Escherichia coli cspA during early exponential

Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 87:283-287.

474

475

476

19.

20.

477 growth at 37 °C. Gene 492:382-388. Yamanaka K, Inouye M. 2001. Induction of CspA, an E. coli major cold-shock protein, 478 21. 479 upon nutritional upshift at 37 degrees C. Genes to cells : devoted to molecular & cellular 480 mechanisms 6:279-290. 481 22. Pos KM, Dimroth P, Bott M. 1998. The Escherichia coli Citrate Carrier CitT: a Member of a Novel Eubacterial Transporter Family Related to the 2-Oxoglutarate/Malate 482 483 Translocator from Spinach Chloroplasts. Journal of Bacteriology 180:4160-4165. 484 Lane MC, Alteri CJ, Smith SN, Mobley HLT. 2007. Expression of flagella is coincident 23. with uropathogenic Escherichia coli ascension to the upper urinary tract. Proceedings of 485 486 the National Academy of Sciences 104:16669-16674. 487 24. Hagberg L, Hull R, Hull S, Falkow S, Freter R, Svanborg Edén C. 1983. Contribution of 488 adhesion to bacterial persistence in the mouse urinary tract. Infection and immunity 489 40:265-272. 490 25. Subashchandrabose S, Hazen TH, Brumbaugh AR, Himpsl SD, Smith SN, Ernst RD, 491 Rasko DA, Mobley HLT. 2014. Host-specific induction of Escherichia coli fitness genes 492 during human urinary tract infection. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 493 of the United States of America 111:18327-18332. 494 Xi H, Schneider BL, Reitzer L. 2000. Purine catabolism in Escherichia coli and function 26. 495 of xanthine dehydrogenase in purine salvage. Journal of Bacteriology 182:5332-5341. 496 27. Bouatra S, Aziat F, Mandal R, Guo AC, Wilson MR, Knox C, Bjorndahl TC, 497 Krishnamurthy R, Saleem F, Liu P, Dame ZT, Poelzer J, Huynh J, Yallou FS, Psychogios 498 N, Dong E, Bogumil R, Roehring C, Wishart DS. 2013. The human urine metabolome. 499 PloS One 8:e73076. 500 Justice SS, Lauer SR, Hultgren SJ, Hunstad DA. 2006. Maturation of intracellular 28. 501 Escherichia coli communities requires SurA. Infection and Immunity 74:4793-4800. 502 29. Brückner H, Haasmann S, Friedrich A. 1994. Quantification of D-amino acids in human 503 urine using GC-MS and HPLC. Amino Acids 6:205-211. 504 30. Korte-Berwanger M, Sakinc T, Kline K, Nielsen HV, Hultgren S, Gatermann SG. 2013. 505 Significance of the D-serine-deaminase and D-serine metabolism of Staphylococcus 506 saprophyticus for virulence. Infection and immunity 81:4525-4533. Schaeffer AJ. 2004. Uropathogenic Escherichia coli use d-Serine Deaminase to Modulate 507 31. 508 Infection of the Murine Urinary Tract. Journal of Urology 172:1571-1571. 509 Anfora AT, Haugen BJ, Roesch P, Redford P, Welch RA. 2007. Roles of serine 32. 510 accumulation and catabolism in the colonization of the murine urinary tract by 511 Escherichia coli CFT073. Infection and immunity 75:5298-5304. 512 33. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. 2012. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. Nature 513 Methods 9:357. 514 Anders S, Pyl PT, Huber W. 2015. HTSeq--a Python framework to work with high-34. 515 throughput sequencing data. Bioinformatics (Oxford, England) 31:166-169. 516 35. Alexa A, Rahnenfuhrer J. 2018. topGO: Enrichment Analysis for Gene Ontology. R 517 package version 2.34.0. 518