***Salmonella* endorses a dormant state within human epithelial cells for persistent infection**

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Short title: *Salmonella* dormancy in enterocyte

Abstract

Salmonella Typhimurium (*S. Typhimurium*) is an enteric bacterium capable of invading a wide range of hosts, including rodents and humans. It targets different host cell types showing different intracellular lifestyles. Within the infected cells *S. Typhimurium* colonizes multiple intracellular niches, and it is able to either actively divide at various rates, or remain dormant to persist. A comprehensive tool to monitor these distinct *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles has not been available so far. Here we developed a novel fluorescent reporter, *Salmonella* Intracellular Analyzer (SINA), compatible for fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry for quantification at the single-bacterium level. Using SINA, we identified a *S. Typhimurium* subpopulation in infected epithelial cells that exhibits a unique phenotype in comparison to the previously documented vacuolar or cytosolic *S. Typhimurium*. This newly identified subpopulation remained dormant within a vesicular compartment distinct from either conventional *Salmonella*-containing vacuoles (SCV) or the previously reported niche of dormant *S. Typhimurium* inside macrophages. The dormant *S. Typhimurium* inside enterocytes were viable and expressed *Salmonella* Pathogenicity Island 2 (SPI-2) virulence factors at later infection time points. We found that the formation of these dormant *S. Typhimurium* is not triggered by the loss of SPI-2 expression but it is regulated by (p)ppGpp-mediated stringent response through RelA and SpoT. We predict that intraepithelial dormant *S. Typhimurium* represents an important pathogen niche as it provides an alternative strategy for *S. Typhimurium* pathogenicity and persistence.

Author Summary

Salmonella Typhimurium is a clinically relevant bacterial pathogen that causes Salmonellosis. It can actively or passively invade various host cell types and reside in a *Salmonella*-containing vacuole (SCV) within host cells. The SCV can be remodeled into a replicative niche with the aid of *Salmonella* Type III Secretion System 2 (T3SS2) effectors or else, the SCV is ruptured for the access of the nutrient-rich host cytosol. Depending on the infected host cell type, *S. Typhimurium* undertake different lifestyles that are distinct by their subcellular localization, replication rate and metabolic rate. We present here a novel fluorescent reporter system that rapidly

detects *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles using fluorescence microscopy and flow cytometry. We identified a dormant *S. Typhimurium* population within enterocytes that displays capacities in host cell persistence, dormancy exit and antibiotic tolerance. We found that the molecular pathway suppressing *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in enterocytes is the one that has been shown to promote dormancy in macrophages. This suggests a divergent physiological consequence regulated by the same set of *S. Typhimurium* molecular mediators depending on the challenged host cell type. Altogether, our work demonstrates the potential of fluorescence reporters in facile bacterial characterization, and revealed a dormant *S. Typhimurium* population in human enterocytes that is distinct from those observed in macrophages and fibroblasts.

Introduction

Salmonella enterica serovar Typhimurium (*S. Typhimurium*) is an enteric bacterium that closely associates with global food-borne illnesses. The prevalence of *S. Typhimurium* has placed a severe burden on healthcare and the global food industry [1,2]. *S. Typhimurium* resides in different natural reservoirs and is transmitted to humans through contaminated food.

Upon arrival in the human intestine after ingestion, a portion of the luminal *S. Typhimurium* expresses the Type III Secretion System 1 (T3SS1) and its cognate effectors encoded in *Salmonella* Pathogenicity Island 1 (SPI-1) to induce its active entry into non-phagocytic epithelial cells. *S. Typhimurium* also targets other cell types, such as fibroblasts and macrophages. During these events, it induces local tissue injuries and eventually breaches the intestinal barrier to reach the lamina propria and tissue-resident immune cells. Then, *S. Typhimurium* is carried by macrophages to mesenteric lymph nodes and eventually to the liver and spleen for persistent infection (-reviewed in Ilyas et al. 2017).

Within enterocytes *S. Typhimurium* are encapsulated in an endocytic compartment coined *Salmonella*-containing vacuole (SCV) that matures by acidification within the first hours of internalization. The reducing pH and changing osmolarity of SCV induce the shutdown of T3SS1 and expression of a second T3SS, T3SS2, from *Salmonella* Pathogenicity Island 2 (SPI-2). The T3SS2 effectors remodel the SCV into a viable niche for *S. Typhimurium* replication [4,5]. Default maturation of the SCV is marked by the sequential acquisition and removal of endocytic trafficking markers, such as the small GTPase RAB5 and RAB7 as well as Lysosome-associated membrane glycoprotein 1 (LAMP1) [6]. During these events, the SCV dynamically interacts with the surrounding macropinosomes, which controls SCV stability. Consequently, *S. Typhimurium* can reside either in a remodeled SCV or disrupt the SCV exhibiting distinct replication rates and specific metabolic activity [7–9].

Differential lifestyles are also known for *S. Typhimurium* infecting other cell types. In fibroblasts, the SCV associates with the aggrephagy machinery that either clears the infection or allows *S. Typhimurium* to putatively persist in the cell [10]. In macrophages, *S. Typhimurium* expresses the T3SS2 to remodel the SCV immediately

after bacterial entry, or the pathogen adopts a dormant behavior mediated by toxin-antitoxin (TA) system [11,12].

Persistence and relapse of *S. Typhimurium* infection due to the failure of bacterial eradication with antibiotics has been tied to *S. Typhimurium* dormancy. Numerous antibiotics target major active machineries, including DNA replication, transcription and translation of extracellular bacteria, therefore dormant intracellular pathogens appear to be less or not susceptible to such treatments [13]. *S. Typhimurium* dormancy and antibiotics persistence have been reported in macrophages regulated by the Guanosine pentaphosphate (ppGpp) stringent response pathway. The two (p)ppGpp synthases RelA and SpoT control the bacterial (p)ppGpp level, which regulates in turn the activity of the ATP-dependent protease Lon to degrade the antitoxin and release the toxin TacT for arresting protein translation. The arrest of translation by TacT leads to a halt of bacterial growth giving rise to the insensitivity and tolerance towards antibiotics [12,14]. Despite reports of *S. Typhimurium* antibiotics persistence in the epithelium and lamina propria of the mouse intestine, it is not clear whether this involves dormant bacteria [15].

With our *Salmonella* Interacellular Analyzer (SINA) system, we precisely depicted the intracellular bacterial lifestyles at the single bacterium level, identifying a novel *S. Typhimurium* population within enterocytes that is dormant. Dormant persisters within enterocytes are localized in a unique vacuolar compartment different from the one described in macrophages. We found that T3SS2 expression and the Lon protease are dispensable for this new *S. Typhimurium* population, while the bifunctional enzyme SpoT and monofunctional enzyme RelA negatively regulate *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in epithelial cells.

Results

Development of a multiplex fluorescent reporter series, the *Salmonella* INtracellular Analysers (SINA) to distinguish different intracellular *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles

The distinct intracellular lifestyles of *S. Typhimurium* upon invasion of epithelial cells have been described either with regard to the specific pathogen localization or with regard to the bacterial growth dynamics. To date, fluorescent reporters are available to identify *S. Typhimurium* within vacuolar and cytosolic localizations; while the others measure the replication rate of the pathogen [16–18]. However, these localization and replication-rate reporters have not been coupled, as it has been generally assumed that the bacterial localization determines its replication rate. This notion has been challenged by different reports, for example on the different growth rates of *S. Typhimurium* within the cytosol depending on the targeting by autophagy [19–23]. A combined reporter system would enable a comprehensive elucidation of the intracellular lifestyle of a given intracellular pathogen. Therefore, we developed a novel fluorescent reporter series, the *Salmonella* INtracellular Analysers (SINA). Our SINA1.1 reporter is composed of two separated modules to indicate the bacterial localization and replication rate. The localization module consists of two transcription reporters driven by localization-specific promoters, while the replication rate module carries a constitutively expressed fluorescent timer (Fig 1A, S1 Fig). At the molecular level, the localization module is composed of vacuolar (Vac) and cytosolic (Cyt) submodules, which utilize two characterized promoters, P_{ssaG} and P_{uhpT} to drive the expression of tagBFP and smURFP, respectively [16,17]. We confirmed the functionality of the fluorescent P_{ssaG} and P_{uhpT} reporters for our experimental setup during *S. Typhimurium* invasion of epithelial cells using a digitonin assay measured by flow cytometry (S2-3 Figs). The replication rate module encodes Timer^{bac}, a DsRed mutant (S197T), which has been previously employed to differentiate *S. Typhimurium* subpopulations by their replication rates [18]. The emission spectrum of Timer^{bac} shifts from green to red as it matures, which reflects the bacterial metabolic activity (change in slope, Fig 1B top) as well as the replication rate (unvarying slope, varying green:red ratio, Figure 1B bottom) [24]. When Timer^{bac} is constitutively expressed, a metabolically active *S. Typhimurium* bacterium emits both green and red signals resulting from immature green and maturing red fluorophores. In case such a bacterium experiences a metabolic halt, it eventually emits only red

signals, due to the maturation of the existing green fluorophores in concert with ceased *de novo* synthesis of the green fluorophores. With SINA, we are able to simultaneously collect information on these replication rate changes of *S. Typhimurium* and its localization at single bacterium resolution, which enables a comprehensive and quantitative reflection of *S. Typhimurium* physiology inside an infected host.

To validate the functionality of our SINA system during *S. Typhimurium* invasion of epithelial cells, we employed fluorescence microscopy and FACS analysis (Fig 1C). With fluorescence microscopy, we observed intracellular *S. Typhimurium* simultaneously emitting both green and red signals (Timer^{bac}), but not Vac (P_{ssaG-tagBFP}) and Cyt (P_{uhpT-smURFP}) signals at 1 hour post-infection (pi) (Fig 1D). As these bacteria committed to vacuolar or cytosolic lifestyles at 6 hours pi, we observed that *S. Typhimurium* in cells with <10 bacteria emitted Vac signal during this time course. On the other hand, we observed a mixed population of *S. Typhimurium* in cells with >10 bacteria, where clusters of Cyt⁺ *S. Typhimurium* of low Timer^{bac} signals (arrow) and individual Vac⁺ *S. Typhimurium* (arrowhead) were detected. In the cells containing mixed *S. Typhimurium* populations, bacteria were either Vac⁺ or Cyt⁺ but not double positive, showing the presence of two populations with distinct discernible lifestyles (Fig 1D). We were also able to track the onset of bacterial division and signal output from SINA by time-lapse microscopy (S1-3 Movies).

We devised a gating strategy to quantitatively analyze the SINA reporter output as readout for the bacterial lifestyles in single *S. Typhimurium*-infected cells using FACS (S2 Fig). In brief, we first defined the infected cells by the size of the analyzed events (under SSC-A vs FSC-A plot), followed by the positive signals in Timer⁵⁸⁰ vs Timer⁵¹⁰ plot (i.e. cells harboring *S. Typhimurium*). We then further classified the *S. Typhimurium*-infected cells into four sub-types according the signals of the localization module (tagBFP::SPI-2 vs smURFP::cytosolic plot), corresponding to cells with either vacuolar bacteria (Vac⁺Cyt⁻) or cytosolic bacteria (Vac⁻Cyt⁺) or cells with both vacuolar and cytosolic populations (Vac⁺Cyt⁺) or cells harboring *S. Typhimurium* that express only basal levels of the Vac and Cyt signals (S2 Fig). We observed that intracellular *S. Typhimurium* behaved as a population with a homogenous replication rate and basal expression levels of Vac and Cyt at 1 hour pi

(Fig 1E). At 6 hours pi, this homogenous population segregated into Vac⁺ and Cyt⁺ subpopulations, with a Cyt⁺ distribution similar to that reported in literature (10-20% cytosolic) (Fig 1E) [19]. The gradual separation of these subpopulations could be detected with SINA1.1 throughout the course of infection (S4 Fig). As we backgated the infected cells, we observed either cells harboring only vacuolar *S. Typhimurium* (Vac⁺Cyt⁻), and some cells with both vacuolar and cytosolic bacteria (Vac⁺Cyt⁺), each of them formed a distinct population of different Green:Red ratio on the plot of Timer⁵¹⁰ against Timer⁵⁸⁰ (S5A Fig). Together, this demonstrated that our novel SINA1.1 reporter is capable of simultaneously and quantitatively distinguishing the *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles by their subcellular localization and replication rate at both single infected cell and single bacterium level using flow cytometry and fluorescence microscopy. The combination of the SINA reporter with FACS fosters higher throughput analysis of *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles in infected cells as compared to microscopy, extending the possibility for rapid screening.

A novel dormant *S. Typhimurium* subpopulation in human epithelial cell

With the SINA1.1 reporter, we used the SPI-2 expression module to distinguish vacuolar *S. Typhimurium* from cytosolic bacteria. In the plot of the localization module, we identified an easily discernable population (~5-10%) of infected epithelial cells harboring Vac⁻Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* detectable as early as 2 hours pi, which became apparent at 6 hours pi (Fig 2A, S6 Fig). We backgated the Vac⁻Cyt⁻ population, and we extracted physical parameters from the Timer^{bac} plot. This revealed that the Vac⁻Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* exhibit a similar replication rate (S5A Fig) but a reduced metabolic activity (S5B Fig) compared to Vac⁺Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* as depicted by the green:red ratio and slope of Timer^{bac} plot, respectively. The capacities of Timer^{bac} in the measurement of bacterial replication rate and metabolism have been well-elaborated in previous applications [18,25]. This Vac⁻Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* population was also visualized using live microscopy to confirm their presence using different detection approaches (S3 Movie). This was intriguing as metabolically inactive *S. Typhimurium* have not been reported in enterocytes so far. We thus infected polarized intestinal epithelial Caco-2 monolayers, and confirmed the presence of the Vac⁻Cyt⁻ subpopulation of shifted metabolic profile in a cellular model system for intestinal infections (S7 Fig). We also performed control infections in differentiated THP-1 cells to test the sensitivity of SINA1.1 in observing dormant

S. Typhimurium in this macrophage model as described before (S8 Fig). To determine the intracellular localization of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium*, we further performed a digitonin assay localizing this subpopulation to a host vesicular compartment (S3A-F Fig) [19]. Together, these results demonstrated the presence of a novel intracellular *S. Typhimurium* population within epithelial cells that exhibits a lowered metabolic rate and resides in a host vesicular compartment, implicating a putative dormant phenotypic variant.

Intracellular *S. Typhimurium* encounters a number of stresses upon uptake into host cells, including oxidative, pH and osmotic stress, which serve as key signals to trigger transcription reprogramming for the adaptation of an intra-host environment [26]. During infection of macrophages, the SCV microenvironment drives a portion of *S. Typhimurium* into a dormant state that contributes to the elevation of antimicrobial persistence and polarization of infected macrophage [12,27]. To characterize whether Vac⁻Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* shares similar physiologies with dormant *S. Typhimurium* inside macrophages, we set out to determine the metabolic state of the Vac⁻Cyt⁻ population. By replacing the cytosolic submodule of SINA1.1 with an arabinose inducible cassette to generate SINA1.5, we measured *S. Typhimurium*'s capacity to respond to arabinose treatment. This modification enabled us to directly monitor the metabolic activity of *S. Typhimurium* during the infection process (Fig 2B). The response of intracellular bacteria towards extracellular arabinose induction has been reported previously to characterize the metabolic state of macrophage-borne dormant *S. Typhimurium* [11]. With SINA1.5, we observed that approximately half of the Vac⁻ *S. Typhimurium* did not respond to arabinose induction at designated time intervals (Fig 2C). Combining this with our observations on the reduced metabolism (S5B Fig), we were able to put forward the first evidence to propose that the Vac⁻Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* adopts a dormant state (coined as dormant *S. Typhimurium* hereafter) upon their internalization into epithelial cells. We also addressed whether this dormant phenotype confers a reduced sensitivity towards antibiotics. To test this, we supplemented ciprofloxacin (CIP) to the infected cell and determined the viability of dormant *S. Typhimurium* by CFU. We observed a higher survival rate of dormant *S. Typhimurium* as compared to vacuolar *S. Typhimurium*, similar to that observed in the murine intestine (Fig 2D) [15]. Thus, the newly identified dormant *S. Typhimurium* population within enterocytes is less susceptible to antibiotic treatment.

Dormant *S. Typhimurium* resides in a unique vesicular compartment

We set out to determine whether the dormant *S. Typhimurium* localization is distinct from conventional SCVs. To determine this by immunofluorescence staining, we simplified SINA1.1 to SINA1.4 to free the red and far-red channels for indirect immunofluorescence staining of selected endocytic markers (Fig 2B). LAMP1 labels host lysosomes as well as the matured SCV, which is also present on the SCV of dormant *S. Typhimurium* in macrophages [6,11]. By fluorescence microscopy, we only observed minor recruitment of LAMP1 to the proximity of dormant *S. Typhimurium* within epithelial cells, in contrast to the high LAMP1 incidence proximal to Vac⁺ *S. Typhimurium* (Fig 3A and B). To address if this dormant population is targeted by host autophagy, we next analyzed the localization of the autophagy marker LC3. Intriguingly, we did not detect any localization of LC3 proximal to the majority of the dormant *S. Typhimurium* (Fig 3A and B). Therefore, we conclude that dormant *S. Typhimurium* are localized within a unique membrane-bound compartment distinct from the conventional SCV and that of dormant *S. Typhimurium* in macrophages, suggesting such dormancy formation is heavily governed by endocytic trafficking [11,28].

Dormant *S. Typhimurium* are viable, cultivable, resume metabolism and express virulence genes in host cells.

Endocytic vesicles are either recycled or undergo fusion with the lysosomes for degradation. The same fate also applies to vacuolar *S. Typhimurium*, where SPI-2 deficient strains have a reduced survival capacity compared to SPI-2 competent strains [29]. We collected the infected cells harboring dormant *S. Typhimurium* by cell sorting at >90% purity and plated them for colony forming unit (CFU) measurement, a classical approach to determine the viability of the intracellular *S. Typhimurium*. We observed that dormant *S. Typhimurium* are viable and cultivable (Fig 4A), contrasting to the viable but not cultivable nature of dormant *S. Typhimurium* in murine macrophages [11,12]. To determine the fate of the dormant *S. Typhimurium*, we enriched and plated the viable cells harboring dormant *S. Typhimurium*, and monitored the bacterial behavior at 24 hours pi (S9 Fig). We observed that 50% of the dormant *S. Typhimurium* in infected cells collected at 6 hours pi became metabolically active and expressed SPI-2 at 24 hours pi, as

demonstrated by the population shift in the Timer^{bac} plot, and becoming Vac⁺ (Fig 4B). To determine if the dormant *S. Typhimurium* persists in the host, we further enriched infected cells harboring dormant *S. Typhimurium* and monitored the presence and the viability of dormant *S. Typhimurium* at 7 days pi. The dormant *S. Typhimurium* were found to persist in cells and remained viable and cultivable over the whole period of 7 days (Fig 4A, “168h”).

These results demonstrated that dormant *S. Typhimurium* are viable, they exhibit a delayed expression of SPI-2, and they persist in the epithelial host cells for up to 7 days. Such unique metabolic and virulence reprogramming could serve as a strategic step for intestine-borne *S. Typhimurium* to prolong gut inflammation for community benefits and reservoir for relapse [30].

***S. Typhimurium* dormancy does not rely on the loss of SPI-2 expression, but is regulated by (p)ppGpp biogenesis.**

We then studied whether the lack of SPI-2 expression drives *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in epithelial cells. Using our SINA1.1 reporter in the *S. Typhimurium* SPI-2 secretion deficient mutant *ΔssaV* [31], we observed no significant difference in the proportion of Vac⁺Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* between wild type and the *ΔssaV* mutant (Fig 5A). This indicates that the formation of dormant *S. Typhimurium* is not a consequence caused by the lack of SPI-2 expression or T3SS2 effectors secretion during the infection of epithelial cells.

Class II toxin-antitoxin (TA) systems regulate the formation of non-pathogenic *E. coli* in laboratory conditions. TA systems are comprised of a toxin and an antitoxin that counter-balances the toxin to regulate bacterial physiology, including growth arrest. A major TA system involves the stringent response mediated by the monofunctional (p)ppGpp synthases RelA and bifunctional (p)ppGpp synthases SpoT, after which (p)ppGpp binds to DksA to mediate transcription reprogramming for bacterial adaptation. The surge in (p)ppGpp levels also activates the ATP-dependent Lon protease to degrade Type II antitoxins to release the free toxins [32–34]. In recent reports, stringent response has been associated with slow growing *S. Typhimurium* populations, and TA systems are implicated in the *S. Typhimurium* persistence in macrophages [12,14]. Therefore, we assessed the links between the stringent response

and *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in epithelial cells, studying the mutant strains (i) $\Delta relA$ ((p)ppGpp synthase), (ii) $\Delta relA \Delta spoT$ ((p)ppGpp synthases), (iii) $\Delta dksA$ ((p)ppGpp-binding transcription regulator) and (iv) Δlon (protease targeting antitoxin). With the Δlon mutant, we did not observe any difference in the level of dormant *S. Typhimurium* population in infected cells (~5-10%), suggesting that Lon protease is dispensable for *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in epithelial cells (Fig 5C). As $\Delta relA \Delta spoT$ and $\Delta dksA$ were reported to suffer reduced invasiveness in epithelial cells due to the reduced SPI-1 expression, we decided to construct SINA1.9 (Fig 5B), a derivative of SINA1.1 with an additional cassette for an inducible expression of *hila* to compensate the reduced invasiveness of the mutants (S10 Fig) [35]. With the SINA1.9-complemented mutant strains, we obtained rescued cell invasiveness as compared to wild type *S. Typhimurium*. This allowed us to address the requirement of (p)ppGpp biogenesis and (p)ppGpp-regulated transcription for *S. Typhimurium* persistence. A significant increase in the Vac⁺Cyt⁻ population was observed in $\Delta relA \Delta spoT$, whereas the increment was less pronounced in the $\Delta relA$ single mutant and was indifferent in $\Delta dksA$ mutant, when comparing with the wild type strain (Fig 5C and 5D, Left and Middle panel). We further confirmed that the Vac⁺Cyt⁻ population of $\Delta relA \Delta spoT$ shared a comparable metabolic profile as the one observed in the wild type strain (Figure 5D, Right panel).

Together, these results suggested that (p)ppGpp stringent response mediated by SpoT but not RelA is required to restrict dormancy entry of *S. Typhimurium* within epithelial cells independent of the DksA regulon, while SPI-2 effector expression and secretion and Lon protease are dispensable.

Discussion

S. Typhimurium has been reported to survive in different host cells by adopting distinctive metabolic profiles, subcellular localizations and replication rates, which has also been proposed to account for various clinical complications. Herein, we report a dormant population of *S. Typhimurium* residing in a unique vesicular compartment in epithelial cells of the intestine. These dormant epithelial *S. Typhimurium* persist within host cells for a prolonged period. The SINA reporter system was instrumental for the discovery of enterocyte-borne dormant *S.*

Typhimurium as it allowed the simultaneous depiction of the metabolism, subcellular localization and replication rate of the intracellular bacteria. The compatibility of the SINA system with microscopy and flow cytometry offers the opportunity for multi-omics analysis as well as high-throughput genetic and chemical screenings on the influence of bacterial pathophysiology.

The dormant *S. Typhimurium* within epithelial cells, while remaining viable in the absence of SPI-2 expression, reside in a unique vesicular compartment distinct from the LAMP1-labelled SCV or the LC3-positive autophagosomes. Upon endocytosis, endosomes are either recycled or matured and eventually degraded via fusion with lysosomes. The SCV shares such a fate if T3SS2 effectors are not secreted to hijack the vesicular maturation pathway [31]. Therefore, we propose that dormant *S. Typhimurium* reside in a vesicular compartment idle to endocytic trafficking pathways that are independent of SPI-2 expression. The precise nature of this compartments remains to be investigated in detail. Subsequent resumption of metabolism and SPI-2 expression potentially serve as a signal to reengage the dormant membrane-enclosed *S. Typhimurium* with endocytic trafficking pathways for remodeling this novel dormant bacteria containing SCV into the default replicative niche (Fig 6A). The persistence of dormant *S. Typhimurium* in host cell for up to at least 7 days in our tested condition is also striking as the bacteria inside this vacuolar compartment possible have restricted access to the extracellular nutrients.

S. Typhimurium has been reported previously to enter dormant or persistent states within a modified SCV from a range of host cell types, including macrophages and fibroblasts [10,11]. Considering the presumably identical *S. Typhimurium* dormancy observed across the different cell models, there are substantial distinctions among the targeted host cell types in terms of the detection approaches and bacterial physiology. The first *S. Typhimurium* persisters were identified in macrophages using a dilution reporter on non-replicating *S. Typhimurium*, which enters dormancy and a viable-but-not-cultivable state upon entry [11]. The dormancy is regulated by the TA system toxin, TacT that halts protein translation and induces antibiotic persistence, where the *S. Typhimurium* subsequently exits dormancy and activates SPI-2 [14,27]. The *S. Typhimurium* persisters in fibroblast were later reported, where *S. Typhimurium* activates SPI-2 to remodel the SCV and interacts with endocytic trafficking pathways.

The SCV subsequently interacts with host aggrephagy, where majority of the SCV *S. Typhimurium* are eradicated whereas the remaining *S. Typhimurium* were proposed to persist in the host. However, limited evidence regarding the viability, persistence, pathological implication as well as the underlying mechanism of persistence have been presented to date [10]. In epithelial cells, the reported *S. Typhimurium* dormancy by us is distinct from that in fibroblast and macrophage. This discrepancy lies in the commence of dormancy, capacity to replicate and permeability to the surrounding microenvironment [11]. The distinct niches of dormant *S. Typhimurium* may reflect cell-type specific vesicular trafficking, for example SCV maturation in these different target cells is not identical. Alternatively, it is possible that the way of entry impacts the development of dormant *S. Typhimurium*. Epithelial dormant *S. Typhimurium* is independent of Lon protease and is negatively regulated by SpoT, contrasting to that in macrophage that requires Lon protease, (p)ppGpp synthases RelA and SpoT [12,34]. The substantial difference between the *S. Typhimurium* dormancy sheds light on their potentially diverge pathophysiological implications as well as the molecular cue and mechanism that signal the establishment and exit of dormancy. It will be interesting to investigate why these regulatory modules are differentially involved in the formation of dormant *S. Typhimurium* in the different cell types, and whether the distinct niche impacts their expression and implication.

(p)ppGpp, is a bacterial alarmone that functions as a key regulator of bacterial physiology. The (p)ppGpp-mediated stringent response has been closely associated with antibiotics persistence via inhibition of protein synthesis and transcription reprogramming [36–38]. The persistent *S. Typhimurium* in macrophages is dependent on a (p)ppGpp-Lon protease-Class II TA systems axis, where TacT leads to a halt in protein translation [14]. In non-pathogenic *E. coli* and *S. Typhimurium* models, the loss of Lon and its downstream regulated TA systems leads to a diminished persister formation due to the inactivity of toxins [39]. In our findings, the dormant phenotype is negatively regulated by (p)ppGpp synthases SpoT and partially by RelA, but is independent of DksA and Lon protease-mediated pathways (Fig 6A). Our finding contrasts the current understanding on the role of stringent response on bacterial persistence, where stringent response is activated by various stress signals and (p)ppGpp synthesis would act on its molecular target to achieve persistence. Therefore, we suggest that bifunctional SpoT is required while monofunctional RelA

is dispensable in *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in enterocytes, which echoes the previous report on the requirement of SpoT but not RelA in *S. Typhimurium* invasion and colonization of an *in vivo* model [35]. The essence of SpoT but not RelA for *S. Typhimurium* dormancy could suggest that either or both the (p)ppGpp hydrolysis and synthase function is required, or *relA* is not expressed during the course of infection. Considering that *S. Typhimurium* dormancy is independent of DksA and Lon, it implies that dormancy is likely to be mediated by pathways independent of DksA transcription reprogramming and Lon protease-mediated degradation. As RelA and SpoT function to convert GDP and GTP to (p)ppGpp, and SpoT hydrolyzes (p)ppGpp to give GTP/GDP and pyrophosphate, an imbalance of RelA/SpoT activity upsets the bacterial energy status, which could potentially act as a cue for dormancy.

With the traits we uncovered in the dormant *S. Typhimurium* within epithelial cells, this population could represent the intestinal persister, given the close association between bacterial dormancy and antibiotic persistence. Besides the proposed antibiotic persistence and horizontal gene transfer, the physiological features of enterocyte-borne dormant *S. Typhimurium* could also provide two plausible benefits to *S. Typhimurium* colonization of the host gut [40] (Fig 6B): 1) Dormancy and delayed expression of SPI-2 allow *S. Typhimurium* to evade cellular immunity during early invasion and to provide a sustained and extended SPI-2 expression at tissue scale, where *S. Typhimurium* reactivated from dormancy supports SPI-2 expression as classic vacuolar *S. Typhimurium* is eradicated. The sustained SPI-2 expression fuels gut inflammation to release electron acceptors for *S. Typhimurium* survival benefits in the gut lumen [30]. 2) Persistent *S. Typhimurium* within the intestinal tissue could serve as the source of subsequent infection relapse or systemic spread, where the maximum duration of persistence and molecular cues for reactivation remain to be elucidated (Fig 6B).

The cell type-specific role of the alarmone pathway on dormancy regulation indicates that the micro-environment in different cell types serves as the unique molecular cues for *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles. The generation of phenotypic variants in different cell types and host tissues potentially represent a sophisticated strategy of pathogens to evade the host defense and antibiotics treatment as well as offering community-level

benefits [15]. Overall, our work highlights the importance of phenotypic heterogeneity in pathogens and its link with the pathophysiological outcomes.

Materials and methods

Mammalian cell culture

HeLa cervical adenocarcinoma cells, Caco-2 colorectal adenocarcinoma cells and THP-1 acute monocytic leukemia cells were purchased from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) and used within 20 passages of receipt. HeLa cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, high glucose, GlutaMAX™ Supplement, ThermoFisher) containing 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma) and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ and 100% humidity. Caco-2 cells were cultured in DMEM containing 10% FBS, 1% Non-essential amino acids (Gibco), 1% HEPES (Gibco), 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin (Gibco) and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ and 100% humidity. THP-1 cells were cultured in RPMI-1640 medium (ThermoFisher) containing 10% FBS and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO₂ and 100% humidity. HeLa and Caco-2 cells were seeded in 12-well tissue-culture treated plates (Corning Costar®) at a density of 9×10^4 cells/well 48 hours prior to infection. THP-1 cells were seeded in 12-well tissue-culture treated plates at a density of 9×10^4 cells/well 96 hours prior to infection, and differentiated in 50 µg/mL phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA, Sigma) for 24 hours, and incubated in RPMI-1640 + 10% for 72 hours. For immunofluorescence staining, HeLa cells were seeded on UV-treated glass coverslips (Marienfeld) in 12-well plates 48 hours prior to infection. For cell sorting experiments, HeLa cells were seeded in 10 cm tissue-culture treated dishes (Corning Costar®) at a density of 1.8×10^6 cells/well 48 hours prior to infection.

Bacterial strains

Bacterial strains and plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplementary Table 1 and 2, respectively. All mutants were constructed using bacteriophage λ red recombinase system from parental strain *S. Typhimurium* strain SL1344 using primers listed in Supplementary Table 3 [41]. Bacteria were cultured in Lysogeny broth (LB) supplemented with appropriate antibiotics, where necessary (Ampicillin 100 µg/mL; Kanamycin 50 µg/mL).

Plasmid construction

The replication rate module, *Timer^{bac}* is a generous gift from Dr. Dirk Bumann (University of Basel, Switzerland) [18]. To construct the localization module, *tagBFP*

was amplified from pHrdsV40-NLS-dCas9-24xGCN4_v4-NLS-P2A-BFP-dWPRE using primers tagBFP_fw and tagBFP_rv, and replaced the GFP in pM973 to yield vacuolar module (pP_{ssaG}-tagBFP) [17,42]. For the cytosolic module (pP_{uhpT}-smURFP), smURFP-HO-1 and uhpT promoters were amplified from pBAD smURFP-HO-1 (smURFP_fw and smURFP_rv) and *S. Typhimurium* gDNA (uhpT_fw and uhpT_rv), respectively, and replaced the *sfGFP* and *mxiE* promoter in pTSAR1 [43,44]. The vacuolar (Vac_fw and tagBFP_rv) and cytosolic (uhpT_fw and Cyt_rv) modules were amplified and inserted into *EcoRV* and *SmaI* sites, respectively, of pBlueScript II KS (+) to generate pSINA-int. The localization module on pSINA-int was excised and inserted between *SalI* and *SphI* sites of pBR322 Timer^{bac} to yield pSINA1.1. pSINA1.4 was generated by replacing Timer^{bac} with GFP in pBR322 Timer^{bac} and inserted the vacuolar module at the *SalI* and *SphI* sites. pSINA1.5 was generated by inserting the amplified inducible smURFP cassette (Ara_fw and Ara_rv) and vacuolar cassette between the *SalI* and *EagI* sites of pBR322 Timer^{bac}. pSINA1.7 was constructed by reverting Timer^{bac} to DsRed by site-directed mutagenesis using DsRed_fw and DsRed_rv. pBAD *hila* was generated by inserting the amplified *hila* (hila_fw1 and hila_rv1) between the *BamHI* and *PmeI* sites of pBAD smURFP-HO-1. The inducible *hila* cassette was amplified using primer hila_fw2 and hila_rv2 and inserted into the *EcoRV* site of pSINA1.1 to generate pSINA1.9.

Bacterial infections

Bacteria strains were streaked from glycerol stock on LB agar plates with appropriate antibiotics 2 days prior to infection. Three bacterial colonies were picked for overnight culture in LB medium supplemented with 0.3 M NaCl with shaking at 37°C. 150 µL overnight culture was subculture in 3 mL LB + 0.3 M NaCl (1:20 dilution) with shaking at 37°C for 3 h. For strains harboring pSINA1.9, 0.1% L-arabinose was supplemented to the subculture 1 h before harvest. Bacteria were harvested with centrifugation (1 mL, 6000 x g, 1 min, RT), washed once in 1 x PBS and resuspended in DMEM with no FBS. HeLa cells were infected at a MOI of ~100 for 25 min at 37°C. Extracellular bacteria were removed and washed with 1 x PBS (5X). Cells were then incubated in DMEM + 10% FBS for 1 h, washed with 1 x PBS (3X), incubated in DMEM + 10% FBS for 2 h, washed with 1 x PBS (3X) and then

incubated in DMEM + 10% FBS supplemented with 10 µg/mL gentamicin for the remaining time course of the infection.

Flow cytometry

At designated time points, cells were washed with 1 x PBS (1X) and detached with 0.05% Trypsin for 5 min at 37°C. Detached cells were mixed with equal volume of DMEM + 10% FBS, passed through 40 µm strainer and collected by centrifugation (500 x g, 5 min, 4 °C). Cell pellets were dislodged and fixed in 4% PFA (15 min, RT). Fixed cells were washed with 1 x PBS (2X) and resuspended in 200 µL 1 x PBS for further analysis. For digitonin permeabilization experiment, cells were permeabilized with 45 µg/mL digitonin (1 min, RT) or 0.25% saponin (30 min, RT), then washed and stained with anti-*S. Typhimurium* primary antibody and Alexa488-conjugated goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody [19]. The fluorescence intensities of the samples were assayed with LSR Fortessa (BD) (tagBFP Ex: 405 nm Em: 450/50 nm; Timer⁵¹⁰ Ex: 488 nm Em: 525/50 nm; Timer⁵⁸⁰ Ex: 562 nm Em: 582/15 nm; smURFP Ex: 633 nm Em: 670/30 nm) and analyzed with FlowJo (v10.0.4). The recorded events were gated according to the strategy described (S2 Fig).

Cell sorting

At designated time points, cells were washed with 1 x PBS (1X) and detached with 0.05% Trypsin for 5 min at 37°C. Detached cells were mixed with equal volume of DMEM + 10% FBS, passed through 40 µm strainer and collected by centrifugation (500 x g, 5 min, 4 °C). Cells were washed with 1 x PBS (1X) and resuspended in DMEM + 10% FBS supplemented with 10 µg/mL gentamicin. Cells were sorted with Aria III (BD) (tagBFP Ex: 405 nm Em: 450/50 nm; Timer⁵¹⁰ Ex: 488 nm Em: 530/30 nm; Timer⁵⁸⁰ Ex: 561 nm Em: 586/15 nm; smURFP Ex: 633 nm Em: 660/20 nm) to collect uninfected cells, infected cells with dormant or SPI-2 *S. Typhimurium* populations. The recorded events were gated according to the strategy described (S2 Fig).

Immunofluorescence microscopy

Cells seeded on coverslips were washed with 1 x PBS (1X) and fixed in 4% PFA (8 min, RT). After washing with 1 x PBS (3X), cells were permeabilized and blocked in 1 x PBS, 20% FBS, 0.25% saponin (30 min, RT). Coverslips were washed with 1 x

PBS (3X) and incubated with anti-LC3 or anti-LAMP1 primary antibodies and phalloidin-rhodamine diluted in 1 x PBS, 2% FBS (60 min, RT), and then washed with 1 x PBS (3X) and incubated with Cy5-conjugated goat anti-rabbit secondary antibodies diluted in 1 x PBS, 2% FBS (60 min, RT). Stained coverslips were then washed with 1 x PBS (3X) and mounted on SuperFrost Plus microscope slides (Thermo Scientific) with ProLong™ Gold Antifade Mountant without DAPI (Invitrogen). Samples were imaged with Perkin Elmer Ultraview confocal spinning disk microscope equipped with Volocity software and a 20X/1.3 NA air objective. Images were analyzed with FIJI (NIH) and figures were prepared using Adobe Illustrator CS6.

Colony forming unit plating

Infected cells were enriched by cell sorting, where 1000 infected cells were sorted for each sample. The cells were then collected by centrifugation at 500 x g for 5 min, and subsequently lysed in 0.1% Triton X-100 for 5 min at room temperature. The lysed cells were then serially diluted and plated on LB agar plates with appropriate antibiotics.

Dormant *S. Typhimurium* persistence assay

Infected HeLa cells harboring dormant *S. Typhimurium* were enriched by cell sorting using the gate Vac⁻Cyt⁻, and plated on 12-wells plates in DMEM + 10% FBS + Gen¹⁰. The medium was replaced with fresh DMEM + 10% FBS + Gen¹⁰ to avoid the growth of *S. Typhimurium* being released from dead cells. Cells were harvested at 24 h and 168 h pi for analysis and CFU plating.

Ciprofloxacin survival assay

A final concentration of 10 µg/mL of ciprofloxacin (CIP) were supplemented to the cell culture medium of the infected cells at 3 h pi. The cells were harvested at 6 h pi for cell sorting and CFU plating. CIP was administered at 3 h pi, which offered sufficient time for the infected population to differentiate into Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ for downstream cell sorting.

Statistical analysis

Unless further specified in the figure legend, data were analyzed for statistical significance with a Mann-Whitney test using Prism 8.0 (GraphPad). P value of ≤ 0.05 is considered statistically significant. $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$, $****P < 0.0001$, ns: not significant/ $P \geq 0.05$.

Supplemental information

Supplemental information including 4 tables, 10 figures and 3 live-imaging movies can be found with this article.

Table S1. *S. Typhimurium* strains used in this study

Table S2. Plasmids used in this study

Table S3. Primers used for molecular cloning in this study

Table S4. Antibodies used in this study

Supplementary figure 1. Construction strategy of SINA1.1.

Supplementary figure 2. Gating strategy of SINA1.1 reporter system.

Supplementary figure 3. Localization modules indicate subcellular localization of *S. Typhimurium*.

Supplementary figure 4. SINA1.1 performance in HeLa cells at 2 h, 4 h and 6 h pi.

Supplementary figure 5. *S. Typhimurium* exhibits distinct replication rates and metabolism in HeLa cells.

Supplementary figure 6. Dormant *S. Typhimurium* are observed as early as 2 h pi in HeLa cells.

Supplementary figure 7. Performance of SINA1.1 in Caco-2 cells.

Supplementary figure 8. Performance of SINA1.1 in THP-1 cells.

Supplementary figure 9. Infected cells harboring dormant *S. Typhimurium* are viable.

Supplementary figure 10. Ectopic expression of *hilA* rescues the loss of invasiveness.

S1 Movie. Connected to Fig 1D: Time-lapse microscopy shows the fluorescence signal output from SINA1.1 in Vac⁺Cyt⁻ intracellular *S. Typhimurium* population. Fluorescence output of Timer^{bac}, P_{ssaG} and P_{uhpT} from SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium* exhibiting Vac⁺Cyt⁻ profile. Images were taken every 15 min starting from 1 h pi. (AVI)

S2 Movie. Connected to Fig 1D: Time-lapse microscopy shows the fluorescence signal output from SINA1.1 in Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁻Cyt⁺ intracellular *S. Typhimurium* population. Fluorescence output of Timer^{bac}, P_{ssaG} and P_{uhpT} from SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium* exhibiting Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁻Cyt⁺ profiles. Images were taken every 15 min starting from 1 h pi. (AVI)

S3 Movie. Connected to Fig 1D: Time-lapse microscopy shows the fluorescence signal output from SINA1.1 in Vac⁻Cyt⁻ intracellular *S. Typhimurium* population. Fluorescence output of Timer^{bac}, P_{ssaG} and P_{uhpT} from SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium* exhibiting Vac⁻Cyt⁻ profile. Images were taken every 15 min starting from 1 h pi. (AVI)

Author contributions

C.H.L. and J.E. conceptualized the project, C.H.L. and Y.Y.C. conducted the investigation, C.H.L. and J.E. prepared and reviewed the manuscript.

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Figure 1. SINA enables precise determination of the different *Salmonella* intracellular lifestyles in human epithelial cells.

(A) Schematic diagram of the construction of subcellular localization and replication rate modules of SINA1.1. The subcellular localization module is composed of the vacuolar submodule (P_{ssaG} -tagBFP) and cytosolic submodule (P_{uhpT} -smURFP), while the replication rate module is composed of a constitutively expressed Timer^{bac} (P_{ybaJ} -Timer^{bac}) (B) (Top) Schematic diagram of the emission spectrum shifts of *S. Typhimurium* harboring Timer^{bac} as Timer^{bac} matures, where emission shifts from green to red (Bottom) Green:Red ratio increases with elevating *S. Typhimurium* replication rates. As *S. Typhimurium* divides, both Timer⁵¹⁰ and Timer⁵⁸⁰ fluorophores are diluted. With a higher production rate of Timer⁵¹⁰ than Timer⁵⁸⁰, fast dividing *S. Typhimurium* exhibits a higher Green:Red ratio. (C) Expected output by SINA as *S. Typhimurium* dwells in distinct subcellular localizations. Vacuolar *S. Typhimurium* are of lower replication rate (i.e. lower Green:Red ratio) and are expected to emit blue fluorescence; cytosolic *S. Typhimurium* are of higher replication rate (i.e. higher Green:Red ratio) and are expected to emit far red fluorescence (D) HeLa cells infected by *S. Typhimurium* harboring SINA1.1. Output of SINA from intracellular *S. Typhimurium* was detected by fluorescence microscopy at 1 h pi, vacuolar (arrowhead) and cytosolic (arrow) *S. Typhimurium* at 6 h pi. (3 independent experiments). Scale bar is 10 μ m. (E) HeLa cells infected by *S. Typhimurium* harboring SINA1.1. Output of SINA from intracellular *S. Typhimurium* at 1 h and 6 h pi was detected by flow cytometry (3 independent experiments).

Figure 2. *S. Typhimurium* displays a novel dormant intracellular lifestyle in epithelial cells.

(A) (Left and Middle) Timer^{bac} profile and distribution of single cells with no infection (Vac⁻Cyt⁻) (red), infected cells with only vacuolar bacteria (Vac⁺Cyt⁻) (blue) and infected cells with both vacuolar and cytosolic populations (Vac⁺Cyt⁺) (green) at 6 h pi. (Right) Abundance of *S. Typhimurium*-infected cells (Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺) as illustrated in (A) (n = 3). (B) Schematic illustration for the constructions of SINA derivatives, SINA1.4 and SINA1.5. SINA1.4 was used for immunofluorescence staining against LAMP1 and LC3; SINA1.5 was used for arabinose induction assay. (C) (Left) Responsiveness of intracellular *S. Typhimurium* towards an arabinose pulse between 5-6 h pi, uninduced control (black); arabinose-induced (red). (Right) Quantification on the responsiveness of Vac⁻ *S. Typhimurium*

pulsed at different time intervals during the infection time course, dormant (black), inducible (maroon). Samples were all harvested at 6 h pi. (n = 3) (D) Survival percentage of dormant and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ intracellular *S. Typhimurium* against 3 h of CIP treatment, infected cells were harvested at 6 h pi, enriched by cell sorting and plated for CFU. (n = 3)

Figure 3. Dormant *S. Typhimurium* dwells in a vacuolar compartment distinct from the conventional SCV.

(A) HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.4-harboring *S. Typhimurium*, harvested at 6 h pi, fixed and stained. Quantification of the presence of LAMP1 and LC3 proximal to Vac⁻Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺ *S. Typhimurium* at 6 h pi. (n = 3) (B) Representative images of Vac⁻ *S. Typhimurium* quantified in (A); *S. Typhimurium* (green), Vac⁻ (blue), LAMP1 (grey, top), LC3 (grey, bottom), Phalloidin (red).

Figure 4. Dormant *S. Typhimurium* persists in host cells and reactivates virulence gene expression.

(A) Designated populations of infected cells were enriched by cell sorting and plated for CFU. Quantification of CFU from dormant *S. Typhimurium* at 6 h, 24 h and 168 h pi and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ *S. Typhimurium* at 6 h pi. (n = 5 for Vac⁺Cyt⁻ 6 h, Dormant 6 h, 24 h; n = 3 for Dormant 168 h) (B) Quantification of SPI-2 activity using flow cytometry in enriched dormant *S. Typhimurium* at 6 h and enriched Vac⁻Cyt⁻ infected cells re-plated until 24 h pi. (n = 3)

Figure 5. *S. Typhimurium* dormancy is negatively regulated by SpoT.

(A) HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium*, the abundance of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ population in wild type and SPI-2 mutant Δ ssaV infected cells were quantified with flow cytometry at 6 h pi. (n = 3) (B) Schematic diagram for the construction of SINA derivative, SINA1.9, yielded from the introduction of an arabinose-inducible *hla* expression cassette into SINA1.1. SINA1.9 was used to rescue the reduced invasiveness of Δ dksA, Δ relA and Δ relAspoT mutant strains. (C) HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.1 or SINA1.9-harboring *S. Typhimurium*, the abundance of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ population in (p)ppGpp biogenesis and regulon mutants, Δ lon, Δ dksA, Δ relA and Δ relAspoT were quantified by flow cytometry at 6 h pi (n = 3) (D) Distribution of Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ populations in wild type (Left) and Δ relAspoT mutant (Middle) infected HeLa cells at 6 h pi quantified by flow cytometry. Overlay Timer⁵⁹⁰ profile (Left) of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ (red) and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ (blue) populations of wild type and Vac⁻Cyt⁻ population of Δ relAspoT mutant (grey) in infected HeLa cells quantified by flow cytometry at 6 h pi. (3 independent experiments) Statistics were performed using unpaired t test. ns: not significant ($P > 0.05$), ** $P < 0.01$, **** $P < 0.0001$.

Figure 6. Schematic illustration of the role of (p)ppGpp alarmone pathway on *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in enterocytes and the proposed pathophysiological implication of *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in enterocytes. (A) Schematic diagram of *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles and the regulatory role of SpoT on *S. Typhimurium* dormancy in human epithelial cells. *S. Typhimurium* can opt for three distinct lifestyles: cytosolic, vacuolar and dormant, which exhibits discernible subcellular localization, replication rate and metabolism. The entry of dormant state is negatively regulated by (p)ppGpp synthetase SpoT, while the regulatory mechanism on the

dormancy exit remains to be determined. (B) Schematic diagram of *S. Typhimurium* infection progression in the gut epithelium. As *S. Typhimurium* reaches the intestinal epithelium, a portion of *S. Typhimurium* expresses T3SS1 (purple) to enter host cells and adopts various intracellular lifestyles. Distinct *S. Typhimurium* lifestyles support rapid tissue colonization and gut inflammation to increase competitiveness of luminal *S. Typhimurium* (red). (Top) Reactivation of dormant *S. Typhimurium* leads to prolonged gut inflammation that supports the continuous growth of *S. Typhimurium* at gut lumen. (Bottom) Dormant *S. Typhimurium* reactivates after the eradication of gut *S. Typhimurium*, which serves as the reservoirs of infection relapse.

Supporting Information

***Salmonella* endorses a dormant state within human epithelial cells for persistent infection**

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Table S1. *S. Typhimurium* strains used in this study

Name	Genotype	Plasmid	Reference
JL129	Wild type	pSINA1.1	This study
JL147	Wild type	pSINA1.4	This study
JL148	Wild type	pSINA1.5	This study
JL177	Wild type	pSINA1.7	This study
JL179	Wild type	pSINA1.9	This study
JL171	<i>ΔssrB</i>	pSINA1.1	This study
JL173	<i>ΔssaV</i>	pSINA1.1	This study
JL158	<i>Δlon</i>	pSINA1.1	This study
JL180	<i>ΔdksA</i>	pSINA1.9	This study
JL185	<i>ΔrelA</i>	pSINA1.9	This study
JL181	<i>ΔrelA ΔspoT</i>	pSINA1.9	This study

Table S2. Plasmids used in this study

Name	Description	Reference
pBR322 Timer^{bac}	Timer^{bac} expression	Claudi et al. 2014
pM973	SPI-2 activity of <i>S. Typhimurium</i>	Hapfelmeier et al. 2005
pTSAR1	<i>Shigella</i> T3SS activity	Campbell-Valois et al. 2014
pHRdSV40- NLS-dCas9- 24xGCN4_v4- NLS-P2A-BFP- dWPRE	Template of tagBFP	Tanenbaum et al. 2014
pBAD smURFP- HO-1	Inducible expression of smURFP	Rodriguez et al. 2016
pPssaG-tagBFP	SPI-2 activity of <i>S. Typhimurium</i>	This study
pPuhpT- smURFP	Cytosolic access of <i>S. Typhimurium</i>	This study
pSINA-int	Subcloning PssaG-tagBFP and PuhpT-smURFP	This study
pSINA1.1	Detection of <i>S. Typhimurium</i> lifestyles	This study
pSINA1.4	Detection of <i>S. Typhimurium</i> lifestyles using immunofluorescence	This study
pSINA1.5	Detection of <i>S. Typhimurium</i> lifestyles with inducible smURFP expression	This study

pSINA1.7	Detection of <i>S. Typhimurium</i> lifestyles	This study
pBAD <i>hla</i>	Inducible expression of <i>hla</i>	This study
pSINA1.9	Detection of <i>S. Typhimurium</i> lifestyles with inducible <i>hla</i> expression	This study

Table S3. Primers used for molecular cloning in this study

Name	Sequence	Purpose
tagBFP_fw	<u>GAATTC</u> AGGAGGTAGTATTGatgagcgagctgattaagg	Amplification of <i>tagBFP</i>
tagBFP_rv	<u>ATC</u> ttaattaagcttggtccccag	Amplification of <i>tagBFP</i>
uhpT_fw	<u>GAATTC</u> cgcgagaccacgaagcgtg	Amplification of <i>uhpT</i> promoter
uhpT_rv	<u>GGATCCC</u> ATggattactcctgagc	Amplification of <i>uhpT</i> promoter
smURFP_fw	<u>ggatcc</u> AAAACCTTCTGAACAACGTGTAAACATCGC	Amplification of <i>smURFP</i>
smURFP_rv	<u>tctaga</u> CTAGCCTTCGGAGGTGGCgag	Amplification of <i>smURFP</i>
Vac_fw	<u>TCTAGAC</u> GGTAGATTAGCCTTAACCGCg	Amplification of vacuolar module
Cyt_rv	<u>gcatgc</u> GTAAAACGACGGCCAGTGCC	Amplification of cytosolic module
GFP_fw	<u>tctagatt</u> taagaaggagatatacatATGAGTAAAGGAGAAGAACTTTTCACTGGA	Amplification of <i>GFP</i>

GFP_rv	<u>AAGCTTTTATTTGTATAGTTCATCCATGCC</u>	Amplification of <i>GFP</i>
Ara_fw	<u>GTCGAC</u>atgtgcctgtcaaatggacg	Amplification of inducible <i>smURFP</i> cassette
Ara_rv	<u>GCATGCG</u>TAGAAACGCAAAAAGGCCATCCG	Amplification of inducible <i>smURFP</i> cassette
DsRed_fw	gtccacgtagtagtagccgggc	Mutagenesis of <i>Timer^{bac}</i> to <i>DsRed</i>
DsRed_rv	tccaagetggacatcacctccc	Mutagenesis of <i>Timer^{bac}</i> to <i>DsRed</i>
hilA_fw1	<u>GGATCC</u>atgccacattttaatcctgttcc	Amplification of <i>hilA</i>
hilA_rv1	<u>gtttAAAC</u>ttaccgtaatttaatacaagcggggGtcctgtttccatctttgaa cc	Amplification of <i>hilA</i>
hilA_fw2	atctaaGTCGACatgtgcctgtcaaatggacg	Amplification of inducible <i>hilA</i> cassette
hilA_rv2	gtagaaacgcaaaaaggccatccg	Amplification of inducible <i>hilA</i> cassette

Table S4. Antibodies used in this study

Name of reagent	Concentration	Supplier	Reference
Anti-LAMP1 antibody	1:200	abcam	ab19294
Anti-LC3B antibody	1:200	abcam	ab51520
Anti-S. Typhimurium antibody	1:200	abcam	ab35156
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Highly Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Alexa Fluor 488	1:200	Invitrogen	A11034
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) Cross-Adsorbed Secondary Antibody, Cyanine5	1:200	Invitrogen	A10523
Rhodamine Phalloidin	1:100	Invitrogen	R415

Supplementary figure 1. Construction strategy of SINA1.1.

The vacuolar and cytosolic modules were first individually tested with GFP (pM973 and puhpT-GFP), and then switched to tagBFP and smURFP, respectively. The vacuolar (P_{ssaG} -tagBFP) and cytosolic (P_{uhpT} -smURFP) modules were subsequently amplified and introduced into pBR322 Timer^{bac} between *SphI* and *SalI* sites to yield SINA1.1.

Supplementary figure 2. Gating strategy of SINA1.1 reporter system.

Analyzed events were first gated for “Cells” on SSC-A vs FSC-A plot to remove cell debris. In the “Cells” events, “Uninfected” population was gated by double-negative; “Infected” was gated by double-positive on Timer⁵⁸⁰ vs Timer⁵¹⁰ plot. To gate for the basal intensity of SINA1.1 at 1 h pi, four quadrants were drawn in the “Infected” events on tagBFP::SPI-2 vs smURFP::cytosolic plot, where the biological interpretations of the four quadrants were denoted in the bottom-right sketch.

Supplementary figure 3. Localization modules indicate subcellular localization of *S. Typhimurium*.

(A) Gating strategy for applying SINA1.7 for digitonin assay. HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.7-harboring wild type *S. Typhimurium*, and harvested at 6 h pi for analysis by flow cytometry. The events were first gated for “Cells” to remove cell debris and subsequently gated for “uninfected” and “infected” based on DsRed signal. The “infected” events were subsequently gated for Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ on tagBFP::SPI-2 vs smURFP::cytosolic plot. The fluorescence profiles FITC::S. Typhimurium (after immunostaining using anti-*S. Typhimurium* antibody) of Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ and “uninfected” were plotted as overlay histograms. The gating strategy displays a positive control sample treated with saponin. (B) Schematic diagram for the constructions of the SINA derivative SINA1.7, where Timer^{bac} was replaced with DsRed as compared to SINA1.1. (C) Digitonin assay on SINA-1.7 harboring wild type *S. Typhimurium*-infected HeLa cells at 6 h pi, signal intensities of uninfected (black), Vac⁻Cyt⁻ (red), Vac⁺Cyt⁻ (blue) and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ (green) populations immunostained against anti-*S. Typhimurium*. (D) Digitonin assay on SINA-1.7 harboring wild type *S. Typhimurium* infected HeLa cells at 6 h pi, signal intensity of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ population unpermeabilized (black, negative control), permeabilized with digitonin (red) and saponin (maroon, positive control). (E) Digitonin assay on SINA-1.7 harboring wild type *S. Typhimurium* infected HeLa cells at 6 h pi, signal intensity of Vac⁺Cyt⁻ population unpermeabilized (black, negative control), permeabilized with digitonin (blue) and saponin (navy, positive control). (F) Digitonin assay on SINA-1.7 harboring wild type *S. Typhimurium* infected HeLa cells at 6 h pi, signal intensity of Vac⁺Cyt⁺ population unpermeabilized (black, negative control), permeabilized with digitonin (green) and saponin (dark Green, positive control).

Supplementary figure 4. SINA1.1 performance in HeLa cells at 2 h, 4 h and 6 h pi.

HeLa cells were infected with wild type *S. Typhimurium* harboring SINA1.1, Infected cells were harvested and analyzed at time intervals of 2 h, 4 h and 6 h pi. (Left) Timer^{bac} profile of total cells at 2 h (top), 4 h (middle) and 6 h (bottom) pi in HeLa cells. (Right) Fluorescence output of the localization module of infected cells at 2 h (top), 4 h (middle) and 6 h (bottom) pi in HeLa cells.

Supplementary figure 5. *S. Typhimurium* exhibits distinct replication rates and metabolism in HeLa cells.

HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium* and harvested at 6 h pi for analysis by flow cytometry. The three infected cell populations, Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ on tagBFP::SPI-2 vs smURFP::cytosolic plot were backgated on Timer⁵⁸⁰ vs Timer⁵¹⁰ plot. Timer⁵⁸⁰ and Timer⁵¹⁰ intensities were extracted from each event. (A) Quantification of Green:red ratio of Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ population in Timer^{bac} plot at 6 h pi. Green:red ratios were calculated by dividing Timer⁵¹⁰ by Timer⁵⁸⁰ values, and plotted against infected cell populations. (B) Quantification of the slope of the best-fitted line of Vac⁻Cyt⁻, Vac⁺Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ population in Timer^{bac} plot at 6 h pi. For each population, a best-fitted line was plotted on the Timer⁵⁸⁰ vs Timer⁵¹⁰ plot to extract the slopes for each infected cell populations. Unpaired t-tests were carried out for triplicated experiments, **P* < 0.05, *****P* < 0.0001, ns: not significant.

Supplementary figure 6. Dormant *S. Typhimurium* are observed as early as 2 h pi in HeLa cells.

HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium*, and harvested at 1 h, 2 h and 3 h pi for analysis by flow cytometry. The infected cells were gated and the fluorescence profiles of vacuolar submodule P_{ssaG}-tagBFP at 1 h (black), 2 h (red) and 3 h (blue) pi were plotted as overlaying histograms.

Supplementary figure 7. Performance of SINA1.1 in Caco-2 cells.

Polarized Caco-2 monolayers were infected with SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium* and harvested at 1 h and 6 h pi for analysis by flow cytometry. (Left) Timer^{bac} profile of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ (red) and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ (blue) populations and total cells (black) at 1 h (top) and 6 h (bottom) pi in Caco-2 cells. (Right) Distribution of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ populations at 1 h (top) and 6 h (bottom) pi in polarized Caco-2 cells.

Supplementary figure 8. Performance of SINA1.1 in THP-1 cells.

Differentiated THP-1 cells were infected with SINA1.1-harboring *S. Typhimurium* and harvested at 1 h and 6 h pi for analysis by flow cytometry. (Left) Timer^{bac} profile of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ (red) and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ (blue) populations and total cells (black) at 1 h (top) and 6 h (bottom) pi in THP-1 cells. (Right) Distribution of Vac⁻Cyt⁻ and Vac⁺Cyt⁻ populations at 1 h (top) and 6 h (bottom) pi in differentiated THP-1 cells.

Supplementary figure 9. Infected cells harboring dormant *S. Typhimurium* are viable.

HeLa cells were infected with SINA1.7 harboring *S. Typhimurium*, harvested at 6 h pi and stained with SYTOX Green and analyzed by flow cytometry. The infected cells were gated and the fluorescence profiles of SYTOX Green in uninfected cell (black), Vac⁻Cyt⁻ (red), Vac⁺Cyt⁻ (blue) and Vac⁺Cyt⁺ (green) were plotted as offset histograms.

Supplementary figure 10. Ectopic expression of *hilA* rescues the loss of invasiveness.

HeLa cells were infected with various *S. Typhimurium* strains and harvested at 6 h pi for flow cytometry analysis. The losses of invasiveness in $\Delta dksA$ and $\Delta relAspoT$ mutants are rescued by ectopic expression of *hilA* from the arabinose inducible cassette in SINA1.9. Unpaired t-test was carried out for triplicated experiments, **** $P < 0.0001$.

Supplementary movies

The manuscript contains 3 supplementary movies. The figures to which they refer are indicated in the titles of the movies.