

# 1 Infection with *Listeria monocytogenes* alters the placental 2 transcriptome and eicosanome

## 3 4 Author Names and Affiliations:

5 Kayla N. Conner<sup>1,2</sup>, Derek Holman<sup>3,4</sup>, Todd Lydic<sup>5</sup>, Jonathan W. Hardy<sup>1,2</sup>

6  
7 <sup>1</sup>Michigan State University Department of Microbiology and Molecular Genetics. East  
8 Lansing, MI, United States.

9 <sup>2</sup>Michigan State University Institute for Quantitative Health Science and Engineering.  
10 East Lansing, MI, United States.

11 <sup>3</sup>Stanford University School of Medicine Molecular Imaging Program, Department of  
12 Radiology. Stanford, CA, United States.

13 <sup>4</sup>Stanford University School of Medicine Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology,  
14 Department of Medicine. Stanford, CA, United States.

15 <sup>5</sup>Michigan State University Department of Physiology. 567 Wilson Road. East Lansing,  
16 MI 48824, United States.

## 17 18 Corresponding Author:

19 Jonathan W. Hardy

20 Michigan State University

21 775 Woodlot Dr., Office 3313

22 East Lansing, MI 48840

23 Email: [hardyjon@msu.edu](mailto:hardyjon@msu.edu)

## 24 25 Abstract

26 **Introduction:** Placental infection and inflammation are risk factors for adverse  
27 pregnancy outcomes, including preterm labor. However, the mechanisms underlying  
28 these outcomes are poorly understood. **Methods:** To study this response, we have  
29 employed a pregnant mouse model of placental infection caused by the bacterial  
30 pathogen *Listeria monocytogenes*, which infects the human placenta. Through *in vivo*  
31 bioluminescence imaging, we confirm the presence of placental infection and quantify  
32 relative infection levels. Infected and control placentas were collected on embryonic day  
33 18 for RNA sequencing to evaluate gene expression signatures associated with  
34 infection by *Listeria*. **Results:** We identified an enrichment of genes associated with  
35 eicosanoid biosynthesis, suggesting an increase in eicosanoid production in infected  
36 tissues. Because of the known importance of eicosanoids in inflammation and timing of  
37 labor, we quantified eicosanoid levels in infected and uninfected placentas using semi-  
38 targeted mass spectrometry. We found a significant increase in the concentrations of  
39 several key eicosanoids: leukotriene B<sub>4</sub>, lipoxin A<sub>4</sub>, prostaglandin A<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin D<sub>2</sub>,  
40 and eicosatrienoic acid. **Discussion:** Our study provides a likely explanation for  
41 dysregulation of the timing of labor following placental infection. Further, our results  
42 suggest potential biomarkers of placental pathology and targets for clinical intervention.

43  
44  
45 **Key Words:** *Listeria*, listeriosis, transcriptome, eicosanoid, prostaglandins,  
46 eicosanome

## 47 Introduction

48 To ensure the development of the allogeneic fetus, placental immune responses  
49 must be precisely balanced between protective immunity and deleterious inflammation  
50 [1,2]. Bacterial infection of the placenta can affect this balance, leading to adverse  
51 pregnancy outcomes even in the absence of severe disease [1,2]. One such infection is  
52 prenatal listeriosis caused by the Gram-positive bacterium *Listeria monocytogenes*  
53 (*Lm*). *Lm* is an opportunistic foodborne pathogen that primarily affects the  
54 immunocompromised, especially pregnant individuals, who are typically exposed to *Lm*  
55 through contaminated meat and dairy products [3]. Following ingestion, *Lm* invades the  
56 gut epithelium and traffics in maternal monocytes to the female reproductive organs  
57 where it uses cell to cell spread to invade the placenta [3]. Invasion of the placenta can  
58 result in a myriad of adverse pregnancy outcomes including preterm labor and  
59 downstream abnormal development of the offspring [4–6]. Despite great strides that  
60 have been made in the understanding of *Lm* invasion of the placenta, little information is  
61 available on the molecular mechanisms underlying listeriosis-associated preterm labor.

62 Labor and parturition are complicated processes controlled by many genetic,  
63 metabolic, and physical factors within the female reproductive tract. Eicosanoids, a  
64 family of hormone-like fatty acids, dictate the timing of labor by signaling cervical  
65 ripening, breaking down fetal membranes, and promoting myometrial contractility [7–9].  
66 These lipids are produced enzymatically by all cells in the body beginning with the  
67 liberation of arachidonic acid from cell membrane phospholipids [10]. Downstream  
68 processing by cyclooxygenase (COX) and lipoxygenase (LOX) enzymes yields the two  
69 eicosanoid classes: prostaglandins and lipoxins, respectively [10]. Eicosanoids are key  
70 players in the delicate balance between protective immunity and deleterious  
71 inflammation throughout the body, including the placenta [10]. While associations have  
72 been made between eicosanoid pathway perturbations and placental pathology, little  
73 information exists regarding infection-induced perturbations to the eicosanoid pathway  
74 and downstream consequences in the placenta.

75 Due to its well characterized lifecycle and genetic malleability, *Lm* has been used  
76 as a model for placental infection for decades [11]. In this study, we use a pregnant  
77 CD1 mouse model of bioluminescent *Lm* placental infection to begin exploring infection-

78 induced eicosanoid pathway perturbations. We demonstrate through RNA sequencing  
79 that mouse placentas colonized with *Lm* have gene expression profiles associated with  
80 placental dysfunction and preterm labor. We verify, using semi-targeted mass  
81 spectrometry, that these aberrant gene expression profiles result in significant changes  
82 to placental eicosanoid concentrations, which we refer to as the placental eicosanome.  
83 Together, our data identify a likely mechanism for the induction of preterm labor  
84 associated with placental listeriosis infection.

85

## 86 **Materials and Methods**

87 **Strains/Bacterial Culture.** The bacterial strain used in this study is the  
88 bioluminescent *Listeria monocytogenes* strain Xen32 (Perkin Elmer, Inc.). Cultures were  
89 grown overnight, shaking at 37°C in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth supplemented with  
90 kanamycin for selection. On the day of mouse infection, overnight cultures were  
91 subcultured in fresh BHI supplemented with kanamycin for selection and grown to an  
92 OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.5. The subculture was then diluted in sterile phosphate buffered saline (PBS)  
93 to yield 10<sup>6</sup> colony forming units (CFU) per mL.

94 **Animals and *In Vivo* Imaging:** All mouse experiments were approved by the  
95 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees at Michigan State University and  
96 Stanford University. Mice were housed at the Stanford University Research Animal  
97 Facility and the Michigan State University Clinical Center animal facility under the care  
98 of Campus Animal Resources. The BSL-2 animal procedures were approved under  
99 Stanford University Protocol 12342 (formerly 8158) and Michigan State University  
100 Animal Use Protocol 201800030. Timed gestation day 11 (E11) pregnant CD-1 mice  
101 were delivered on that day from Charles River Laboratories. On E14.5, mice were  
102 infected via tail vein injection with 2 x 10<sup>5</sup> CFU of *Listeria monocytogenes* Xen32 in  
103 200µL phosphate buffered saline prepared as described above (see “*Strains/Bacterial*  
104 *Culture*”). Uninfected control mice were not injected. On E18.5, mice were imaged using  
105 the PerkinElmer In Vivo Imaging System (IVIS) to confirm placental infection, then  
106 humanely sacrificed under anesthesia according to approved guidelines. Uterine horns  
107 were immediately excised and imaged separately using the IVIS to identify infected  
108 placentas. Placentas were excised and snap frozen on dry ice then frozen at -80°C for

109 downstream analyses. All animals were imaged using the IVIS for 5 minutes prior to  
110 euthanasia, and uterine horns were imaged for 1 minute following excision. Image  
111 analysis was performed using the Living Image software by Caliper Life Sciences, and  
112 average radiance (light intensity) is expressed as photons per second per centimeter  
113 squared per steradian (photons/s/cm<sup>2</sup>/str).

114 **RNA Sequencing:** Twenty infected and four uninfected mouse placentas were  
115 excised for downstream RNA sequencing (RNAseq). Tissues were snap frozen on dry  
116 ice and stored at -80°C until homogenization. Tissues were homogenized by  
117 suspending them in Qiagen Buffer RLT and passing them each subsequently through  
118 16G, 18G, 20G, and 22G needles. Total RNA was extracted from each placenta using  
119 the Qiagen RNeasy Midi kit and DNase treated with DNase I (Qiagen) according to the  
120 manufacturer's instructions. Isolated RNA was analyzed for RNA integrity (RIN) values  
121 by the Stanford PAN Facility prior to submission for RNAseq analysis by SeqMatic Inc.,  
122 Mountain View, CA. Single-read sequencing on libraries was performed using the  
123 Illumina Genome Analyzer Iix. Data was analyzed on the Galaxy webserver [12]. Raw  
124 read files from RNAseq analysis were assessed for quality using FastQC [13], and  
125 adapters were removed using Trimmomatic sliding window trimming [14]. To align reads  
126 to the mouse reference genome (GRCm39), we used Bowtie2 [15], and resulting  
127 alignment files were analyzed for read counts with FeatureCounts [16]. Finally,  
128 differential expression analysis was carried out using DESeq2 [17]. Gene ontology and  
129 pathway analyses were performed by submitting respective lists for significantly up- and  
130 down-regulated genes to g:Profiler with default options  
131 (<https://biit.cs.ut.ee/gprofiler/gost>) [18]. Gene ontology networks were generated using  
132 GOnet with custom GO terms related to the eicosanoid pathway ([https://tools.dice-](https://tools.dice-database.org/GOnet/)  
133 [database.org/GOnet/](https://tools.dice-database.org/GOnet/)) [19].

134 **Lipidomics:** Semi-targeted mass spectrometry (MS) analysis was performed on  
135 six infected and six uninfected mouse placentas that had been snap frozen and kept at -  
136 80°C. Placentas were homogenized in methanol acidified with formic acid. Samples  
137 were then incubated overnight at -20°C for protein precipitation, then centrifuged.  
138 Supernatants were subjected to solid phase extraction using Phenomenex Strata-X 33-  
139 micron SPE columns as previously described to concentrate eicosanoids and remove

140 biological matrix components. Eluates were reconstituted in methanol containing 0.01%  
141 butylated hydroxytoluene, then centrifuged immediately prior to analysis. Fatty acids  
142 and their oxygenated derivatives were analyzed by high resolution/accurate mass  
143 (HRAM)-LC-MS. Data-dependent product ion spectra were collected on the four most  
144 abundant ions at 30,000x resolution using the FT analyzer. Lipidomics data was  
145 analyzed using the Metaboanalyst software according to statistical methods previously  
146 published by Xi *et al* [20,21]. Lipid concentrations were normalized to placenta mass,  
147 log transformed, and subjected to Pareto scaling prior to statistical analyses.

148 **Data Availability:** Raw sequencing files, normalized count tables, and DESeq2  
149 outputs can be accessed through the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus.

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## 151 **Results**

152 **Placental infection by *Lm* alters placental gene expression.** At the dose of  
153  $2 \times 10^5$  colony forming units (CFU) of bioluminescent *Lm* in pregnant CD1 mice, a range  
154 of infection levels is observed across placentas in a single uterine horn, which permits  
155 the analysis of many outcomes of prenatal listeriosis including stillbirth and fetal  
156 abnormality [22]. Using this model, *in vivo* bioluminescence imaging (BLI) was  
157 employed to identify and isolate infected placentas (**Fig 1**). RNA sequencing analysis of  
158 20 infected placentas and 4 control placentas from uninfected animals revealed 498  
159 significantly underexpressed and 862 significantly overexpressed ( $\text{Log}_2\text{FC} \leq -1$  or  $\geq 1$ ;  
160 adjusted P value  $\leq 0.05$ ) in the infected placentas (**Fig. 2A, Supplementary Material**).  
161 The top five overexpressed genes following infection included *Zbp1*, *GM12250*, *Igtp*,  
162 *Tap1*, and *Ido1* (**Fig. 2A, Supplementary Material**). These results were expected  
163 considering the various immunoregulatory roles these genes are known to play. We  
164 observed minimal variability in the four uninfected sample gene expression profiles,  
165 which formed their own distinct cluster (Fig. 2B). Conversely, the infected sample gene  
166 expression profiles displayed considerable variability, which is consistent with the range  
167 of infection levels in our model (**Fig. 1, Fig. 2B**).

168 To better understand the pathways associated with significantly dysregulated  
169 genes, we performed functional profiling using g:Profiler. This analysis revealed several  
170 pathways of interest in both up- and down-regulated gene data sets (**Table S2**,

171 **Supplementary Material**). Interestingly, pathways associated with underexpressed  
172 genes were largely related to ion transport across the membrane (**Supplementary**  
173 **Material**). As expected, most pathways associated with overexpressed genes were  
174 linked to pro-inflammatory processes typical of bacterial infection, consistent with the  
175 expected infiltration and activation of immune cells (**Supplementary Material**). Notably,  
176 GO terms related to prostanoid and prostaglandin biosynthesis were enriched in our  
177 upregulated gene data set (**Supplementary Material**). To visualize overexpressed  
178 gene networks associated with eicosanoid metabolism, we submitted our  
179 overexpressed genes and custom gene ontology ID list to GOnet to generate a visual  
180 custom gene ontology network (**Fig. 2C**).

181 Following gene ontology analysis, we became interested in the enrichment of  
182 eicosanoid metabolism genes due to the known roles of eicosanoids in pregnancy and  
183 listeriosis elsewhere in the body. In our RNAseq data, we observed a significant  
184 overexpression (approximately 2.3-fold increase, adjusted P value  $\leq 0.05$ ) in the *Ptgs2*  
185 gene encoding cyclooxygenase 2, a key enzyme in the eicosanoid pathway (**Fig. 2C**,  
186 **Supplementary Material**). While *Ptgs2* encoding cyclooxygenase 2 was significantly  
187 overexpressed, the *Ptgs1* gene encoding cyclooxygenase 1 (the constitutive  
188 housekeeping isoform of this enzyme) was not significantly dysregulated  
189 (**Supplementary Material**). In addition to *Ptgs2*, we observed overexpression of several  
190 other eicosanoid-associated genes (**Table S1, Fig. 2C**). We hypothesized that, due to  
191 overexpression of several genes associated with eicosanoid production, the  
192 concentrations of these lipids would be increased in infected placentas. Specifically, we  
193 hypothesized that infected placentas would harbor increased concentrations of  
194 prostaglandins due to the upregulation of several enzymes implicated in prostaglandin  
195 synthesis (**Fig. 3**). In addition, because eicosanoid pathway enzymes can be regulated  
196 by post-transcriptional mechanisms including allosteric induction [23], it was important  
197 to measure the pathway products themselves to fully characterize changes in this  
198 pathway.

199 ***Lm* infection alters eicosanoid concentrations in the placenta.** Because we  
200 wanted to know if eicosanoid levels were perturbed along with eicosanoid pathway gene  
201 expression, we carried out semi-targeted mass spectrometry to measure concentrations



202 of various eicosanoids in infected and uninfected placentas (**Fig. 1**). Our analysis  
203 revealed distinct profiles for infected versus uninfected placentas (**Fig. 4**). We observed  
204 12 eicosanoids showing a  $\geq 2$ -fold increase or decrease in concentration in the placenta  
205 following infection with *Lm* (**Fig. 4**). Strikingly, leukotriene B<sub>4</sub> (LTB<sub>4</sub>) exhibited a ~25-fold  
206 increase following infection (**Fig. 4, Supplementary Material**). Also of note were  
207 prostaglandin A<sub>2</sub> (PGA<sub>2</sub>), prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub> (PGE<sub>2</sub>), prostaglandin D<sub>2</sub> (PGD<sub>2</sub>), and  
208 prostaglandin F<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  (PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub> ) which showed ~4.8-, ~2.4-, ~2.1, and ~2.3-fold increases  
209 following infection, respectively (**Fig. 4, Supplementary Material**). Of these  
210 dysregulated eicosanoids, nine reached statistical significance ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) including  
211 LTB<sub>4</sub>, LXA<sub>4</sub>, PGA<sub>2</sub>, PGD<sub>2</sub>, and eicosatrienoic acid (**Fig. 5, Supplementary Material**)  
212 Together, these data supported our hypothesis that altered gene expression in the  
213 placenta results in changes in placental eicosanoid profiles, which we refer to as the  
214 placental eicosonome.

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## 216 Discussion

217 Pregnancy complications including preterm birth are relatively common, and  
218 preterm birth is the leading cause of infant mortality worldwide [24,25]. While many  
219 factors can contribute to the occurrence of preterm birth, the outcome can be  
220 developmentally devastating for the infant. Infants born prematurely are more likely to  
221 exhibit breathing problems, sensory problems, and developmental delay [26]. Infection  
222 is a well-known cause of preterm birth, necessitating studies of prenatal responses to  
223 distinct pathogens [25]. Because of the crucial role of the placenta in immune responses  
224 during pregnancy, pathogens that infect this organ are especially important to  
225 understand. For example, it will be crucial to distinguish placental infection from other  
226 prenatal infections such as chorioamnionitis, which may elicit completely different  
227 responses and require different interventions. In addition, placental infection can induce  
228 inflammatory responses, which have been associated with preterm birth [27]. Therefore,  
229 animal models of placental infection are vital tools in understanding preterm birth.

230 *Listeria monocytogenes* is a known placental pathogen that can cause preterm  
231 labor as well as other perinatal pathologies [11,28]. Animal models of prenatal listeriosis  
232 have revealed details of placental infection, including the target cell type, bacterial

233 virulence factors and molecular mechanisms of invasion [29]. However, host placental  
234 responses to this bacterium have not been previously defined and may reveal clues as  
235 to the function of the placenta in prenatal resistance to infection. Our data sheds light on  
236 the molecular and metabolic mechanisms underlying listeriosis-induced preterm labor.  
237 We have shown using a pregnant mouse model of placental listeriosis that infected  
238 placentas harbor distinct gene expression profiles compared to their uninfected  
239 counterparts. Unsurprisingly, we have identified an enrichment of genes associated with  
240 inflammation and response to infection in infected placentas. We were particularly  
241 interested to observe an enrichment of genes associated with eicosanoid biosynthesis  
242 and metabolism following infection. Though this result is not entirely surprising due to  
243 the role of eicosanoids in inflammation, it was noteworthy considering that eicosanoids  
244 are known to play critical roles in the regulation of labor, as well as other aspects of  
245 pregnancy such as placental function [30]. Further, this discovery warrants further  
246 investigation due to previous associations between placental eicosanoid dysregulation  
247 and pathological pregnancy outcomes in previous studies [31].

248 To determine if eicosanoid concentrations were perturbed along with gene  
249 expression profiles, we employed a semi-targeted mass spectrometry approach to  
250 quantify the eicosanoid concentrations in infected and uninfected mouse placentas. This  
251 analysis highlighted perturbations in eicosanoid concentrations in infected placentas.  
252 We noted significant increases in the concentrations of LTB<sub>4</sub>, LXA<sub>4</sub>, PGA<sub>2</sub>, PGD<sub>2</sub>, and  
253 eicosatrienoic acid. Previous studies strongly support the association between the  
254 eicosanoids we have identified as increased in placental infection and placental  
255 pathology, including LTB<sub>4</sub> [32], LXA<sub>4</sub> [33], and PGD<sub>2</sub> [34].

256 Broadening our understanding of molecular mechanisms underlying listeriosis-  
257 induced adverse pregnancy outcomes has the potential to propel the development of  
258 improved clinical interventions for pregnancy associated listeriosis and other placental  
259 infections. Our study offers insight into the genetic and metabolic changes that take  
260 place in the placenta following *Lm* infection. While our study begins to offer possible  
261 mechanisms of listeriosis-induced preterm labor, much remains to be investigated.

262 To our knowledge, this is the first study associating increased PGA<sub>2</sub>  
263 concentrations with placental infection or preterm labor. This is noteworthy as PGA<sub>2</sub> is a



264 known degradation product resulting from the dehydration of PGE<sub>2</sub>, which has been  
265 studied extensively for its role in the timing and induction of parturition. Increased PGA<sub>2</sub>  
266 concentrations could imply an increase in upstream PGE<sub>2</sub> production and its  
267 subsequent degradation, which could be contribute to dysregulation of labor. Future  
268 studies should address the mechanistic role of this eicosanoid in the context of  
269 infection-induced preterm labor.

270 Our observations confirm that the known role of eicosanoids in infection and  
271 inflammation in other tissues also applies to the placenta, where the eicosanoids are  
272 also known to function in the timing of labor. It is noteworthy that many of the  
273 eicosanoids identified in our study have been implicated in pathological pregnancy  
274 outcomes and placental disease. In addition, the induction of specific prostaglandins  
275 and leukotrienes suggests the possibility of receptor-specific interventions. It is  
276 important to identify new detection and intervention methods that can be utilized to  
277 prevent adverse pregnancy outcome. We propose that future studies assess eicosanoid  
278 concentrations in maternal circulation to assess the usefulness of eicosanoids as  
279 clinical biomarkers of placental disease. Further, we suggest that eicosanoid synthesis  
280 and uptake be studied as a potential route of intervention in the prevention of infection-  
281 induced adverse pregnancy outcome.

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297 Molecular Genetics departmental fellowships. This work was supported by MSU  
298 start-up funds granted to JWH.

299

300 **Author Contributions**

301 Conceptualization: JWH, KNC; Investigation: KNC, DH, TL, JWH; Analysis: TL,  
302 KNC; Writing: All Authors; Visualization: KNC; Project Administration: JWH;  
303 Resources and Funding Acquisition: JWH.

304

305 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

306 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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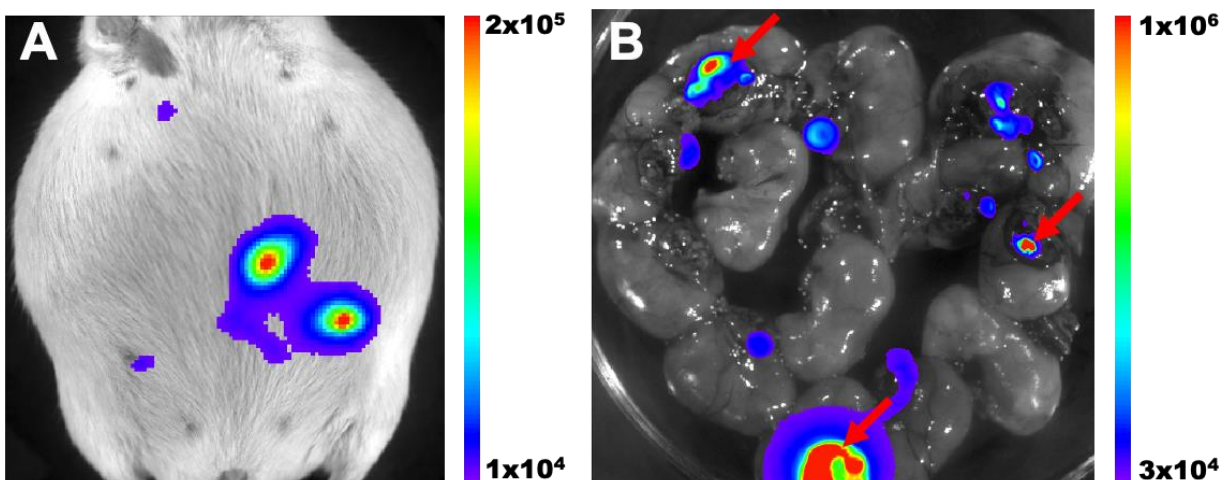
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## 324 Figures and Tables

325 **Figure 1. *In vivo* bioluminescence imaging of *Lm* in the placenta.** (A) Example of  
326 bioluminescence imaging of a pregnant mouse infected with *Lm* on E14.5 and imaged on  
327 E18.5. (B) Excised uterine horns from a similar animal showing the placentas used for  
328 RNAseq. RNA from infected placentas (arrows) was sequenced and compared to controls  
329 from uninfected mice. The false color scale is photons/second.

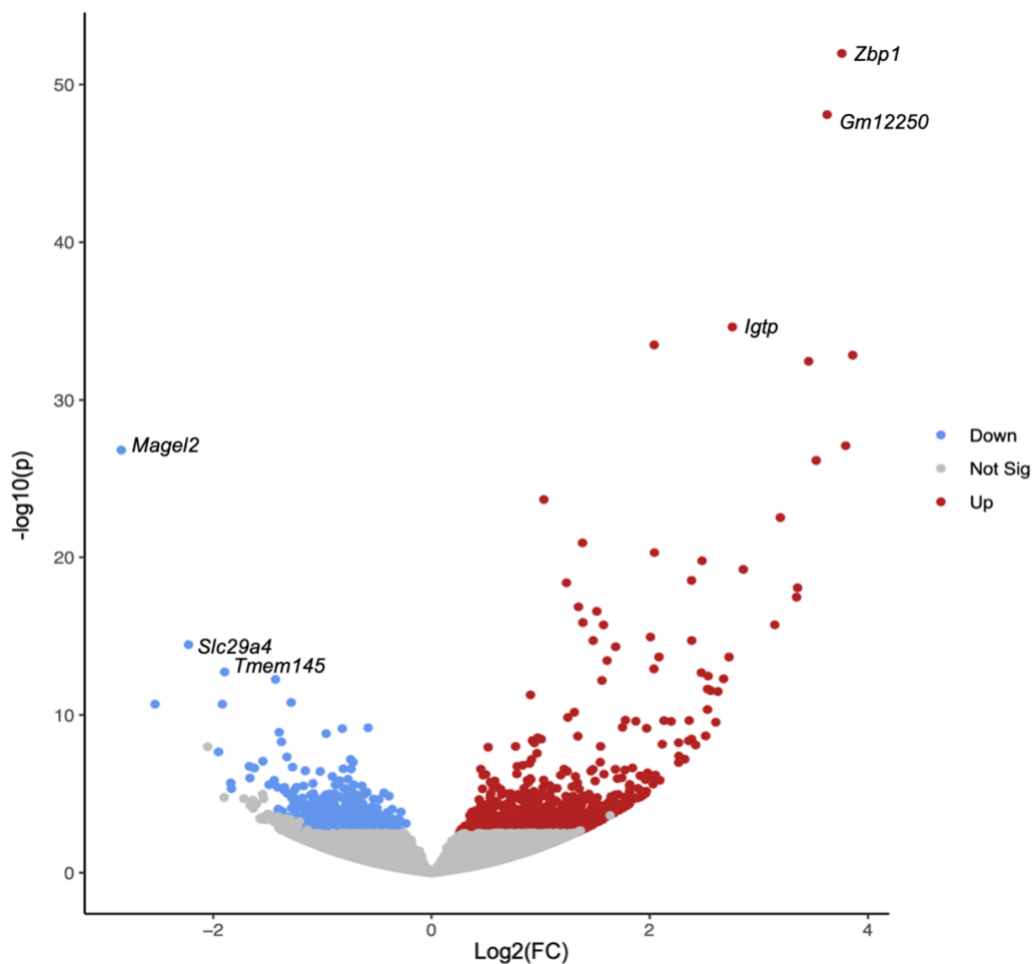


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347 **Figure 2. Gene expression profiles are altered in *Lm*-infected placentas.**

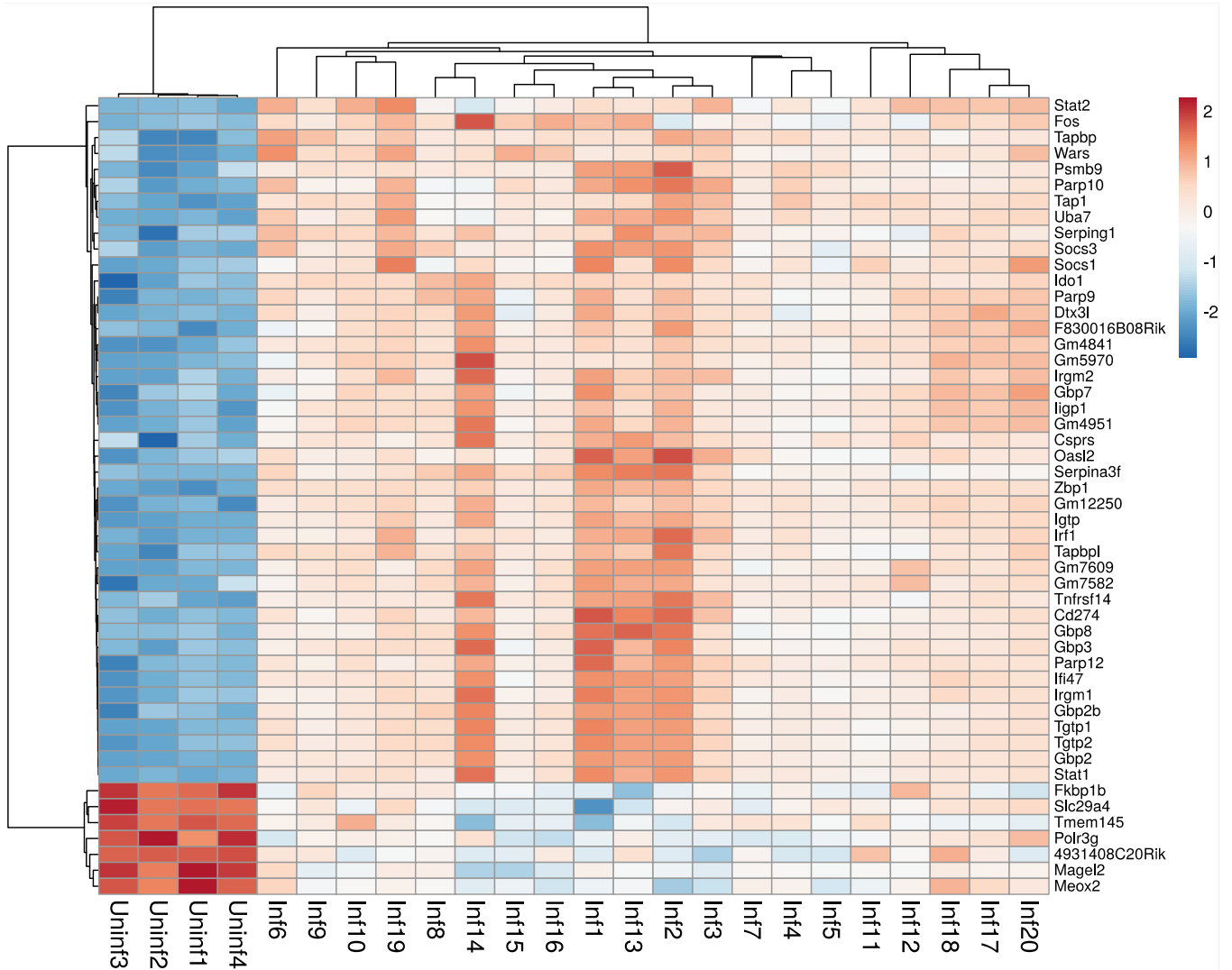
348 Differentially expressed genes in *Listeria*-infected placentas (compared to uninfected)  
349 were determined using DEseq2 and expressed as a volcano plot (A). Significantly  
350 overexpressed genes (fold change  $\geq 2$ ; Adjusted P value  $\leq 0.05$ ) are highlighted in red  
351 while significantly underexpressed genes (fold change  $\leq -2$ ; Adjusted P value  $\leq 0.05$ ) are  
352 highlighted in blue. Values are presented as Log<sub>2</sub> Fold Change and Log<sub>10</sub> Adjusted P  
353 Value. The top 50 differentially expressed genes are expressed as a heatmap of  
354 normalized counts per sample (B). Heatmap was generated using Heatmapper [35], and  
355 sample clustering was computed with average linkage clustering and Euclidian distance  
356 measurement (represented by the sample dendrogram). Gene ontology analysis was  
357 conducted using g:profiler, and network visualization was generated using GOnet (C).  
358 GO terms are in blue-green rectangles and gene names are in orange ovals.

359 **A.**



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361 **B.**



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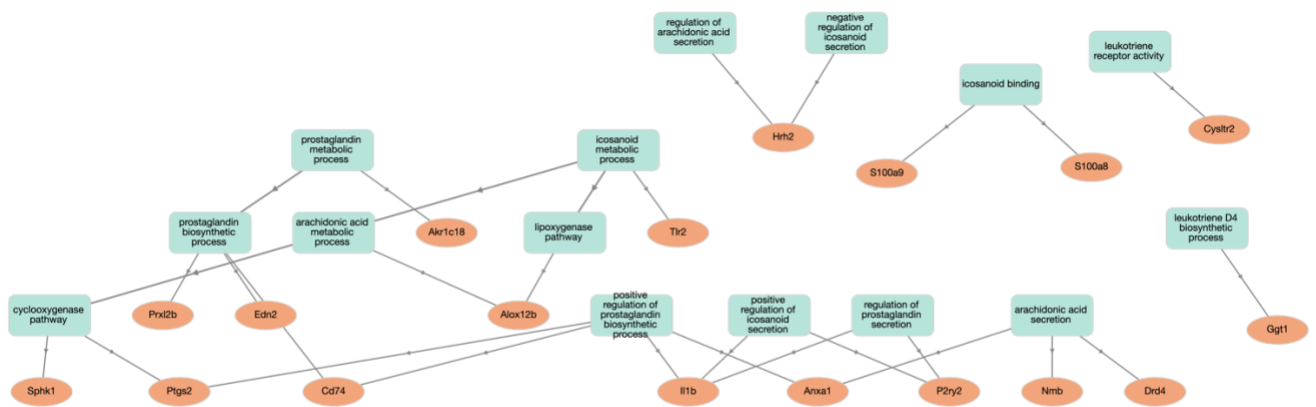
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373 C.



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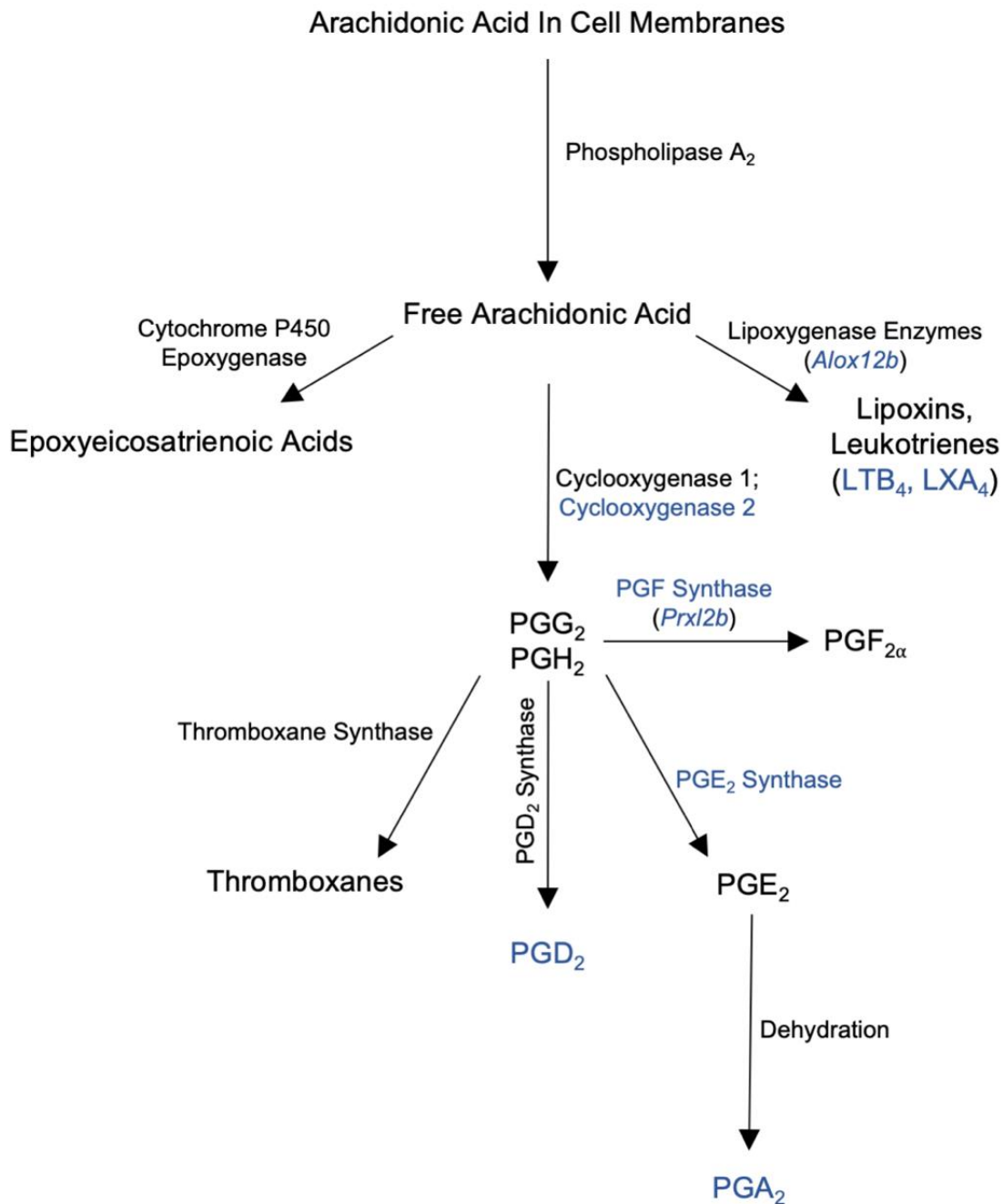
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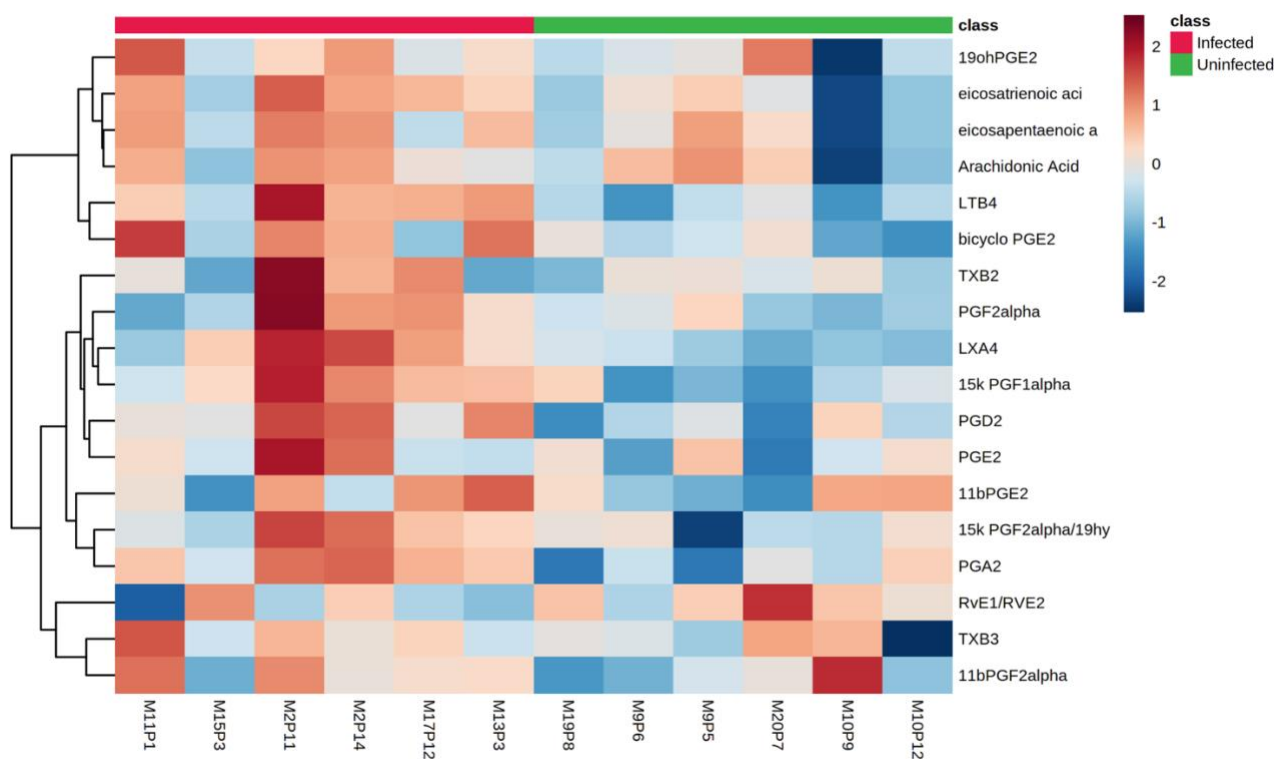
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395 **Figure 3. *Lm* infection results in upregulation of key eicosanoid pathway enzymes**  
396 **and increased concentrations of specific eicosanoids in the placenta.** This adapted  
397 eicosanoid pathway figure illustrates the points at which this pathway is altered by  
398 listeriosis in the placenta. Genes for enzymes represented in blue text as well as  
399 eicosanoids represented in blue text are significantly overexpressed in our data sets.

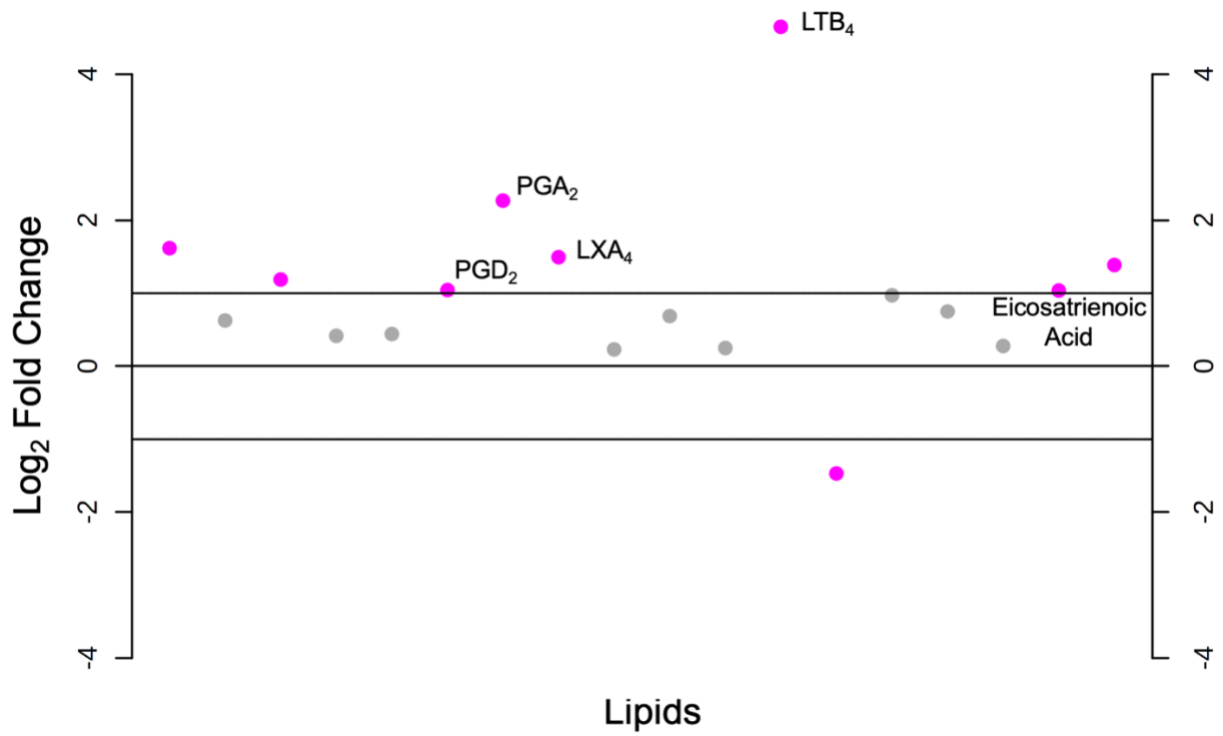


401 **Figure 4. *Lm* infection alters the placental eicosanome.** Eicosanoid profiles for  
402 infected and uninfected placentas were assessed using semi-targeted mass  
403 spectrometry. A heatmap was generated using Metaboanalyst to compare relative  
404 eicosanoid concentrations in infected versus uninfected placental samples (A). Fold  
405 change was analyzed using Metaboanalyst and is expressed as a dot plot with each dot  
406 representing the Log2 fold change (infected/uninfected) of each compound in our  
407 eicosanoid panel (B). Eicosanoids with >2-fold change are represented by pink dots, and  
408 significantly overexpressed eicosanoids are labeled.  
409 **A.**



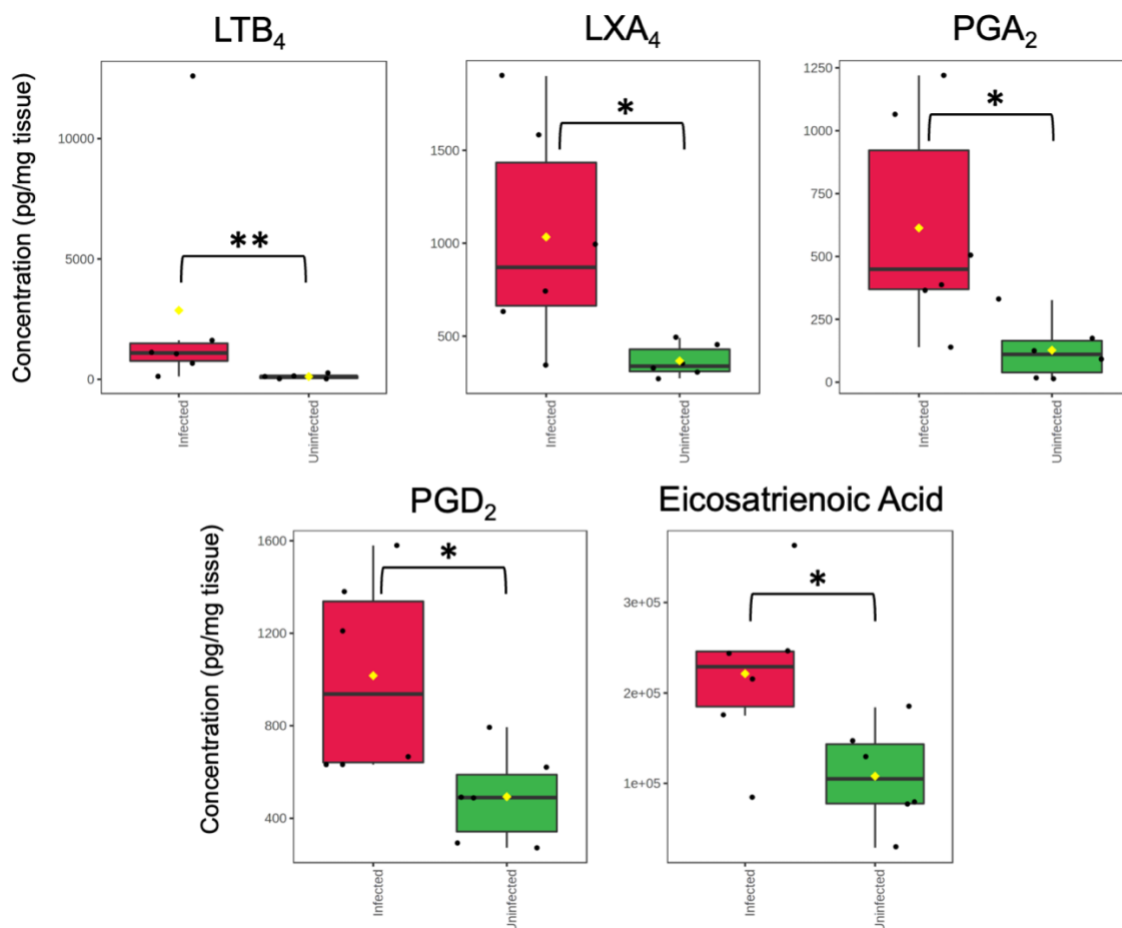
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418 **B.**



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435 **Figure 5. Several eicosanoids are significantly overexpressed following placental**  
436 **infection.** Eicosanoid profiles for infected and uninfected placentas were assessed using  
437 semi-targeted mass spectrometry. Data was analyzed using Metaboanalyst, and  
438 eicosanoids which reached statistical significance ( $*p < 0.05$ ,  $**p < 0.01$ ) are represented  
439 as box plots below. Infected samples are in red while uninfected samples are in green.  
440 Each dot represents one sample. Concentrations are expressed as pg/mg of tissue.



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