

Intestinal epithelial cell autophagy is required to protect against TNF-induced apoptosis during chronic colitis in mice

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Running title: Epithelial autophagy dampens chronic colitis.

31 **Summary**

32 Genome-wide association studies have linked polymorphisms in the autophagy
33 gene *ATG16L1* with susceptibility to inflammatory bowel disease (IBD).
34 However, the cell-type specific effects of autophagy on the regulation of chronic
35 intestinal inflammation have not been investigated. Here, we assessed the effect
36 of myeloid-specific or intestinal epithelial cell (IEC)-specific deletion of *Atg16l1*
37 on chronic colitis triggered by the intestinal opportunistic pathogen *Helicobacter*
38 *hepaticus* in mice. Although *Atg16l1*-deficiency in myeloid cells had little effect
39 on disease, mice selectively lacking *Atg16l1* in IEC (*Atg16l1^{VC}*) developed
40 severely exacerbated pathology, accompanied by elevated pro-inflammatory
41 cytokine secretion and increased IEC apoptosis. Using *ex vivo* IEC organoids, we
42 demonstrate that autophagy intrinsically controls TNF-induced apoptosis and *in*
43 *vivo* blockade of TNF attenuated the exacerbated pathology in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice.
44 These findings suggest that the IBD susceptibility gene *ATG16L1* and the process
45 of autophagy within the epithelium controls inflammation-induced apoptosis
46 and barrier integrity to limit chronic intestinal inflammation.

47 **Introduction**

48 Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD) is a chronic inflammatory disorder with
49 unknown etiology, with two main clinical forms – Crohn’s disease (CD) and
50 ulcerative colitis (UC). Although there are broadly conserved features of
51 intestinal immunopathology that present in IBD patients, including dysregulated
52 immune responses, aberrant cytokine secretion, and alterations in barrier
53 function and intestinal microbiota (Maloy and Powrie, 2011; Neurath, 2014), the
54 clinical manifestations are heterogeneous (Lonnfors et al., 2014). The
55 heterogeneous nature of IBD is further emphasized by genome wide association
56 studies (GWAS) that have identified many pathways that potentially contribute
57 to the pathogenesis of IBD (Jostins et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015), and which allow
58 further stratification of patients, besides disease manifestations and
59 immunological profiling (de Souza et al., 2017). Much current IBD research
60 focuses on unraveling the mechanistic effects of genes and pathways that have
61 been implicated by GWAS. A better understanding of how host genetics control
62 disease development and progression should enable treatments to be utilized in
63 more effective and cost-efficient manner. Current treatment options for IBD
64 include, anti-inflammatory and immune-suppressive drugs, surgery, and
65 biologics that specifically target the dysregulated immune response (Chang and
66 Hanauer, 2017). In the latter category, anti-TNF treatment has high efficacy and
67 has been increasingly employed, however 40 % of IBD patients do not respond
68 to this therapy and many become refractory to treatment (Cohen and Sachar,
69 2017; Hendy et al., 2016). As it is not fully understood how anti-TNF treatment
70 acts and which cell types are targeted, it is difficult to predict which patients are
71 most likely to benefit and what mechanisms prevent responsiveness.

72 Polymorphisms in *ATG16L1* and other autophagy genes suggest an important
73 role of autophagy in IBD pathogenesis (Hampe et al., 2007; Rioux et al., 2007).
74 *ATG16L1* is an essential autophagy gene and the *T300A* polymorphism that
75 shows the strongest link to IBD development results in destabilization of the
76 protein, facilitating caspase 3 dependent degradation during cellular stress
77 (Mizushima et al., 2011; Murthy et al., 2014). Autophagy is a conserved
78 intracellular degradation pathway that facilitates maintenance of cellular
79 homeostasis during periods of stress or malnutrition, but it also impacts on
80 many pathways of cellular immune defense (Kabat et al., 2016b). The ubiquitous
81 nature of autophagy and its interactions with many other essential homeostatic
82 cellular processes makes it difficult to unravel precisely how disease-associated
83 polymorphisms can predispose to IBD. Nevertheless, several studies have
84 described cell-type specific functions of autophagy in the context of mucosal
85 homeostasis (Adolph et al., 2013; Cadwell et al., 2008; Kabat et al., 2016a; Kabat
86 et al., 2016b; Saitoh et al., 2008). In myeloid cells autophagy is implicated in
87 regulation of the proinflammatory cytokine response, particularly secretion of
88 inflammasome dependent cytokines and ROS levels are increased in autophagy-
89 deficient macrophages (Lassen et al., 2014; Saitoh et al., 2008; Zhang et al.,
90 2017). Bone-marrow chimeric mice with autophagy-deficient haematopoietic
91 cells, *Atg16l1*-hypomorphic mice or mice lacking *Atg16l1* in the myeloid
92 compartment all show increased pathology in the chemically induced model of
93 DSS colitis (Cadwell et al., 2010; Saitoh et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2017). Although
94 autophagy enhances killing of *Salmonella* by DCs and macrophages *in vitro*, how
95 much this impacts on disease development during infection is less clear (Conway
96 et al., 2013; Thurston et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2017). Recent studies also

revealed that autophagy in T cells is required for the maintenance of intestinal homeostasis, as Treg cells rely on autophagy for their survival and function in the gut (Kabat et al., 2016a; Wei et al., 2016). Autophagy has also been reported to regulate many key functions of intestinal epithelial cells (IEC). Autophagy has been shown to influence granule structure of goblet and Paneth cells (secretory cells of the intestinal epithelium) under stressed conditions, such as during norovirus infection or ER stress (Adolph et al., 2013; Cadwell et al., 2010; Lassen et al., 2014; Patel et al., 2013). Epithelial autophagy has also been implicated in barrier enforcement during *Salmonella* infection, as autophagy-deficiency of IEC led to increased bacterial dissemination and inflammation (Benjamin et al., 2013; Conway et al., 2013; Lassen et al., 2014).

Taken together, these studies indicate that autophagy has wide-ranging functional effects on various cell types that could potentially regulate inflammatory responses. However, thus far, there have been few comparative studies of the cell-type specific effects of autophagy on the regulation of chronic intestinal inflammation. Here, we have undertaken a comprehensive analysis of the consequences of autophagy deficiency within different cellular compartments on chronic intestinal pathology. We have utilized a well-characterized mouse IBD model in which chronic intestinal inflammation is induced by infection with the gram negative enteric bacterium *Helicobacter hepaticus* together with concomitant blockade of immune regulatory circuits using anti-IL10R (Kullberg et al., 2006). Our previous work has shown that this model recapitulates several features of chronic intestinal pathology found in IBD patients, that pathology is driven by similar excessive innate and adaptive immune responses, and that disease is controlled by the same key pro-

122 inflammatory mediators (Hue et al., 2006; Kullberg et al., 2006; Maloy et al.,
123 2003; Schiering et al., 2014; West et al., 2017). We find that selective autophagy
124 deficiency in myeloid cells only marginally affects colitis development, whereas
125 autophagy deficiency in IEC results in severely exacerbated pathology. We
126 further show that autophagy regulates cytokine-induced apoptosis in IEC and
127 blockade of TNF attenuates chronic colitis in IEC-specific *Atg16l1*-deficient mice
128 by ameliorating epithelial apoptosis.

Results

Autophagy-deficiency in intestinal epithelial cells (IEC) predisposes to chronic colitis

To analyze the cell-type specific role of autophagy in chronic intestinal inflammation, we crossed *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* mice (Hwang et al., 2012) with strains expressing Cre recombinase under the control of various cell-type specific promoters. Thus, we generated transgenic mice lacking *Atg16l1* in neutrophils/macrophages (*Atg16l1^{LysM}*), in dendritic cells (*Atg16l1^{CD11c}*) or in IEC (*Atg16l1^{VC}*). Analyses of *Atg16l1* expression by quantitative PCR confirmed that LysM-Cre and CD11c-Cre driven recombination selectively reduced expression of *Atg16l1* in myeloid cell compartments (CD11c⁺, MHC2⁺, CD45⁺ DC and CD64⁺, CD11b⁺, CD45⁺ macrophages), whereas Villin-Cre driven recombination selectively ablated *Atg16l1* expression in IEC (Fig. S1 A-C).

Intestinal inflammation was induced by oral infection with *Helicobacter hepaticus* and blockade of the regulatory response with anti-IL10R antibody (Kullberg et al., 2006)(Fig. 1 A). To exclude any potential microbiota differences, the transgenic lines were bred as heterozygous for the *Cre* allele, allowing experimental groups to be set up using littermate controls (*Atg16l1^{fl/fl}*) that were co-housed throughout the experiment.

At two weeks after colitis induction, assessment of histopathology of the caecum and colon revealed slightly elevated pathology in *Atg16l1^{CD11c}* and *Atg16l1^{LysM}* mice compared to *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* mice, but these differences were not statistically significant (Fig. 1 B, C). Comparison with the concurrent littermate controls confirmed that there was only a minor increase in pathology and revealed no

significant alterations within the lamina propria CD4⁺ T cell compartments in either *Atg16l1*^{CD11c} or *Atg16l1*^{LysM} mice (Fig. S1 D-K). In contrast, *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice showed significantly elevated histopathology in both the caecum and colon at 2 weeks and 4 weeks after colitis induction (Fig. 1 B - G). Although overall disease severity varied slightly between experiments, we consistently observed significantly increased histopathology in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice compared to their *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates. This was in accordance with increased weight loss in the *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice (Fig. 1 H) and increased numbers of CD4⁺ T cells in the lamina propria compared to *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates (Fig. 1 I). Furthermore, secretion of inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF, IFN- γ and IL1- β , by colon explants isolated from *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice were significantly elevated at 2 weeks after colitis induction compared to explants obtained from *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates (Fig. 1 J-L). However, frequencies of CD4⁺ T effector and Treg subsets in the lamina propria and *H.h.* colonization levels were not altered in the *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice relative to their *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates (Fig. S2). We also tested the role of intestinal epithelial autophagy in a model of acute intestinal infection using oral infection with *Citrobacter rodentium* (Collins et al., 2014). We found that *Citrobacter rodentium* infection induced comparable levels of intestinal pathology in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} mice (Fig. S3 A, B, E, F), which was in accordance with similar bacterial colonization levels (Fig. S3 C, D). Taken together, these data reveal that autophagy within IEC exerts a protective effect during *Helicobacter hepaticus*-triggered chronic colitis, whereas autophagy in myeloid cell compartments (CD11c⁺ or LysM⁺ cells) plays only a marginal role. Therefore, we focused our further analyses on the consequences of autophagy

impairment in IEC and the impact that it has on the development of chronic colitis.

Autophagy does not regulate chemokine expression or ER stress induction in IEC

We next sought to analyze how autophagy-deficiency within the epithelium influences colitis development. First, we noticed that *in vivo* IEC from *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice expressed elevated levels of chemokines *Cxcl2* and *Cxcl5* at 2 weeks and 4 weeks after colitis induction (Fig. 2 A, B).

To analyze whether the chemokine response of the epithelium is intrinsically controlled by autophagy, we employed the *ex vivo* organoid system to grow primary IEC from either *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* or *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice (Heijmans et al., 2013). Western blot analysis of LC3 lipidation confirmed autophagy deficiency in IEC organoids derived from *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice (Fig. 2 D). In the presence of complete medium containing the essential IEC growth factors (Wnt3a, R-spondin and noggin), we found that autophagy-deficient colonic IEC proliferated and formed organoids that were morphologically indistinguishable from wild type organoids.

To mimic the conditions present in the inflamed intestine, we isolated lamina propria leucocytes (LPL) from colitic mice (WT mice subjected to *H.h.* + α IL10R treatment for 2 weeks) and cultured them overnight to generate inflammatory conditioned medium (iCM) that was harvested from the culture supernatant. We then stimulated *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* or *Atg16l1^{VC}* IEC organoids with 10% iCM to assess IEC responses to the colitic microenvironment. We found that both *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}* IEC responded to stimulation with iCM, as evidenced by rapid

202 phosphorylation and nuclear translocation of Stat3 (Fig. 2 C, D). Western blot
 203 analysis also confirmed robust and equivalent activation of the intracellular Map
 204 kinase pathway in response to iCM stimulation in both *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}*
 205 IEC (Fig. 2 D). In addition, *Cxcl2* and *Cxcl5* expression were induced to
 206 comparable levels in *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}* organoids after 6h of stimulation
 207 with iCM (Fig. 2 E, F).

208 In order to test the response of primary IEC from *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* or *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice to
 209 bacterial stimulation, we adapted the primary IEC culture system to generate
 210 polarized monolayers (Moon et al., 2013). Thus, IEC organoids from *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* or
 211 *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice were seeded as monolayers and subsequently infected with *H.*
 212 *hepaticus* at the apical surface. Autophagy deficiency of the IEC monolayer
 213 derived from *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice was again verified by blotting for lipidated LC3 (Fig.
 214 2 G). We found that both WT and autophagy-deficient IEC rapidly responded to
 215 *H. hepaticus* infection, with comparable phosphorylation of Erk1/2 and NFκB
 216 p65 (Fig. 2 G). Furthermore, *Cxcl2* induction was also comparable between
 217 *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}* IEC at 6h post *H. hepaticus* infection (Fig. 2 H).

218 Taken together, the *ex vivo* primary IEC stimulation experiments suggest that the
 219 exacerbated chemokine production observed in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice during colitis
 220 (Fig. 2 A, B) is a consequence of the elevated inflammatory environment, rather
 221 than any intrinsic hyperactivity caused by autophagy impairment in IEC.

222 Several recent reports have linked the ER stress pathway and autophagy in the
 223 intestinal epithelium in the context of colitis (Adolph et al., 2013;
 224 Tschurtschenthaler et al., 2017). Therefore, we also assessed ER stress induction
 225 following iCM stimulation or *H. hepaticus* infection of primary IEC *ex vivo*. We
 226 found that *Grp78* expression was not altered following iCM stimulation in either

Atg16l1^{fl/fl} or *Atg16l1*^{VC} IEC organoids (Fig. 2 I). In contrast, *H. hepaticus* infection of IEC monolayers resulted in comparably increased expression of *Grp78* in both *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} and *Atg16l1*^{VC} IEC (Fig. 2 J). Moreover, phosphorylation of eIF2 α was also increased following *H. hepaticus* infection; and again the levels were similar in *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} or *Atg16l1*^{VC} IEC monolayers (Fig. 2 K). We also analyzed markers of ER stress in IEC isolated from *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} or *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice after colitis induction with *H. hepaticus* infection and α IL10R treatment. Consistent with the *in vitro* data, *Grp78* expression was elevated to similar levels during colitis in both *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} and *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice, both in isolated IEC fractions, as well as in whole colon tissue (Fig. 2 L, M).

Overall, these results suggest that, under these experimental conditions, ER stress pathways in IEC do not seem to be influenced by the presence or absence of the autophagy pathway.

Autophagy deficiency predisposes IEC to apoptosis

We next hypothesized that the absence of a functional autophagy pathway might predispose IEC to cell death during inflammatory conditions (Marino et al., 2014). To assess whether autophagy regulated apoptosis in IEC during chronic colitis, we assessed the number of apoptotic cells by TUNEL staining. We observed increased numbers of TUNEL-positive IEC in both caecal and colonic sections of *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice compared to *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at 2 weeks after colitis induction (Fig. 3 A). Moreover, western blot analyses of intestinal samples revealed increased levels of cleaved caspase 8 in isolated IEC lysates and whole colonic lysates obtained from *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice compared to those obtained from *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates (Fig 3 B, C, D).

To determine whether the increased number of apoptotic IEC in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice was a consequence of the increased inflammation and elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, or whether autophagy intrinsically regulates apoptosis in IEC, we next assessed cytokine-induced apoptosis in primary IEC *ex vivo*. Organoids generated from *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice were stimulated with 40% iCM for 24h and cell death and apoptosis were assessed in parallel. We observed that cell death and caspase 3/7 activity was induced by iCM stimulation in both *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}* IEC (Fig. 4 A, B), with increased caspase activation detected in *Atg16l1*-deficient IEC (Fig. 4 B). Furthermore, blockade of TNF and IFN- γ through addition of monoclonal antibodies prevented cell death and apoptosis induction in IEC (Fig. 4 A, B), suggesting that these cytokines were largely responsible for the apoptosis induction in response to iCM. Indeed, stimulation of IEC organoids with TNF and IFN- γ induced significantly higher levels of apoptosis (Fig. 4 A, B) and decreased metabolic activity (Fig. 4 C, D) in *Atg16l1^{VC}* IEC organoids compared with *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* organoids. Western blot analysis confirmed increased apoptosis levels in the *Atg16l1^{VC}* IEC organoids after stimulation with TNF and IFN- γ , as they showed increased cleavage of caspases 8 and 3 (Fig. 4 E) and staining for cleaved caspase 3 revealed increased numbers of apoptotic cells and disrupted cell morphology (Fig. 4 F).

To confirm that TNF induced elevated IEC apoptosis in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, we assessed small intestinal epithelial cell apoptosis in mice that received an intraperitoneal injection of TNF (Vereecke et al., 2014) (Fig. 5A). We observed that *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice lost significantly more weight than littermate controls following TNF injection (Fig5 B). Furthermore, TUNEL staining of small intestinal

tissue sections revealed increased numbers of apoptotic IEC in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice compared to *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates (Fig. 5 C) and this correlated with increased cleavage of caspase 8 in IEC lysates (Fig. 5 D,E).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that autophagy impairment renders IEC more responsive to apoptosis induction following exposure to the pro-inflammatory cytokine milieu present in the inflamed intestine.

TNF induced apoptosis drives exacerbated disease in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice

To functionally test whether TNF was the key driver of the increased IEC apoptosis and exacerbated pathology in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice in the complex setting of chronic colitis, we induced colitis (*H. hepaticus* infection + anti-IL-10R treatment) in *Atg16l1^{VC}* and *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates and concomitantly treated a group of mice with a blocking antibody against TNF (α TNF) (Fig. 6 A). We found that, in contrast to their *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates, *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice exhibited significant weight loss during the first two weeks after colitis induction and that this was completely prevented by treatment with α TNF (Fig. 6 B). Furthermore, α TNF treatment also reduced intestinal pathology in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice (Fig. 6 C; Fig. S4 A, B, C). Finally, in these experiments we also assessed the influence of α TNF treatment on apoptosis levels in IEC. We found that α TNF treatment of *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice led to a marked reduction of TUNEL positive IEC (Fig. 6 D; Fig. S4 D), as well as decreased levels of cleaved caspase 8 in IEC lysates (Fig. 6 E-G). Indeed, α TNF treatment reduced the exacerbated apoptosis induction in IEC of *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice during chronic colitis to the levels present in IEC isolated from *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates (Fig. 6 D-G). However, following TNF blockade, some reduction of pathology was also observed in the *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* mice

302 and pro-inflammatory mediators were reduced in both *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} and *Atg16l1*^{VC}
303 littermates at two weeks of colitis (Fig. 6 C; Fig. S4 A, B, C, E, F), suggesting
304 several modes of action. In contrast, treating established colitis at day 6 post
305 colitis induction with α TNF resulted in reduction of pathology only in the
306 *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice (Fig. S5 A-C) and this correlated with reduced expression of pro-
307 inflammatory mediators (Fig. S5 D, E).
308 Overall, these findings confirm that TNF-induced apoptosis of autophagy-
309 deficient IEC is a key contributor to the exacerbated pathology, as blockade of
310 the TNF pathway attenuates the disease.

Discussion

GWAS studies linked polymorphisms in *ATG16L1* and other autophagy genes to the development of IBD (Hampe et al., 2007; Rioux et al., 2007), suggesting an important role of autophagy in IBD pathogenesis. However, despite extensive investigation, the mechanistic relationship between autophagy and intestinal inflammation is not fully understood. We performed comparative analyses to assess the consequences of autophagy deficiency within different cellular compartments of the intestinal mucosa. We found that autophagy deficiency in LysM⁺ or CD11c⁺ cells only marginally affected chronic colitis development, whereas autophagy deficiency in IEC resulted in severely exacerbated pathology. This comparative approach, using tissue-specific *Atg16l1*-deficient mouse lines in the same disease model, highlights the pivotal role of autophagy in maintaining epithelial barrier function during inflammation. Our results indicate that intestinal epithelial cells can function quite normally without autophagy, as long as intestinal homeostasis is not perturbed. We could not detect any abnormal growth pattern, differentiation or chemokine response of *Atg16l1*-deficient IEC, nor altered susceptibility during acute *Citrobacter rodentium* infection in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice. *C. rodentium* infection induces an acute and self-limiting epithelial hyperplasia, accompanied by mild inflammation, both of which abate as the infection is cleared. In contrast, the *H. hepaticus* plus anti-IL-10R model results in sustained activation of innate and adaptive immune circuits that drive prolonged secretion of high concentrations of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Under the severe stress conditions present during this chronic colitis, *Atg16l1*-deficient IEC showed increased apoptosis, which contributed to exacerbation of intestinal inflammation.

The effects of autophagy-deficiency in IEC have been studied in several different models and mouse strains (Adolph et al., 2013; Benjamin et al., 2013; Cadwell et al., 2008; Conway et al., 2013; Tschurtschenthaler et al., 2017). It has been reported that autophagy deficiency in IEC resulted in enhanced bacterial translocation and inflammation following acute *Salmonella* challenge (Benjamin et al., 2013; Conway et al., 2013). However, when we evaluated *H. hepaticus* DNA levels in MLNs of mice in the chronic colitis model (data not shown) as well as systemic translocation of *C. rodentium* to liver and spleen following oral infection, we did not observe elevated levels in the *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice compared to *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* mice. These results suggest that epithelial autophagy may be important for containing invasive intestinal pathogens, but is not essential for preventing systemic dissemination of non-invasive pathogens.

Several studies reported altered granule structure in autophagy-deficient secretory IEC, such as Paneth cells and goblet cells (Adolph et al., 2013; Cadwell et al., 2008; Lassen et al., 2014; Patel et al., 2013). This phenotype was linked to increased pathology in norovirus infected *Atg16l1* hypomorphic mice during DSS colitis (Cadwell et al., 2010). However, whether aberrant Paneth cell morphology is a spontaneously occurring phenotype in autophagy-deficient IEC or requires an additional trigger such as viral or bacterial infection or ER stress is not clear (Adolph et al., 2013; Bel et al., 2017; Cadwell et al., 2008; Lassen et al., 2014; Patel et al., 2013). Furthermore, in IBD patients, altered granule structure in Paneth cells was associated with the *ATG16L1* T300A SNP (Cadwell et al., 2008). How this morphologic phenotype in the small intestine might predispose to colonic inflammation is poorly understood. Altered Paneth cell morphology could lead to altered AMP secretion, which might impact on microbiota

composition, a plausible factor for disease susceptibility. However it was recently described that *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice do not harbor an altered tissue-adherent microbiota in the ileum compared to *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* mice (Tschurtschenthaler et al., 2017). In our study, we used *Atg16l1^{VC}* and *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates to avoid any potential microbiota effects and to ensure that any differences in disease susceptibility were due to genotype.

Several studies have illustrated compensatory mechanisms of ER stress and autophagy in intestinal epithelial cells. Indeed, transgenic mice lacking both the ER stress effector *Xbp1* and *Atg16l1* selectively in IEC develop severely exacerbated levels of ER stress and spontaneous pathology in the ileum (Adolph et al., 2013; Tschurtschenthaler et al., 2017). Furthermore, these investigators also reported spontaneous inflammation in the ileum of aged (>35weeks of age) *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, concomitant with enhanced ER stress levels (Tschurtschenthaler et al., 2017). During chronic colitis induction we observed elevated levels of *Grp78* in colonic IEC, indicative of enhanced ER stress, however we detected similar levels of *Grp78* in IEC isolated from *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* and *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, suggesting autophagy-independent regulation of ER stress during colonic inflammation. Moreover, *ex vivo* primary colonic IEC organoids stimulated with inflammatory cytokines or infected with *H. hepaticus* exhibited ER stress responses that were independent of the *Atg16l1* genotype. These findings suggest that autophagy and ER stress responses are only under certain conditions compensatory and could have different regulatory functions in the epithelium of the small intestine and colon.

Our study reveals a link between autophagy and apoptosis in IEC. We found that autophagy-deficiency in IEC enhanced apoptosis induction during inflammatory

conditions, thereby potentially weakening the barrier integrity. Furthermore, we observed that *Ag16l1*-deficient IEC organoids were hyper-susceptible to TNF-induced apoptosis. Similarly, during chronic colitis we observed that high intestinal TNF levels were associated with increased numbers of apoptotic IEC in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, but not *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates. Of note, experimental administration of TNF also induced elevated levels of apoptosis in small intestinal epithelial cells of *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, confirming an intrinsic control of IEC apoptosis by autophagy. Indeed blocking TNF during chronic colitis resulted in a specific and marked reduction of IEC apoptosis in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, confirming our hypothesis that the exacerbated pathology was caused by increased apoptosis of autophagy-deficient IEC under inflammatory conditions. However, continuous blockade of TNF throughout chronic colitis resulted in reduced pro-inflammatory chemokine levels and decreased intestinal pathology in both *Atg16l1^{VC}* and *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* mice, which indicates that TNF also has additional roles in chronic inflammation, such as immune cell activation and survival (Billmeier et al., 2016). Furthermore, although treatment of already established colitis with α TNF does not reduce pathology in WT (*Atg16l1^{fl/fl}*) mice (Kullberg et al., 2001; West et al., 2017), we found that it attenuated colitis in *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice, indicating that autophagy-deficiency in IEC renders the disease responsive towards α TNF treatment.

In accordance with our results, a recent study reported that autophagy-deficiency also renders small intestinal epithelial cells hyper susceptible to TNF-induced cell death (Matsuzawa-Ishimoto et al., 2017). These investigators used a model of intestinal inflammation triggered by infection with murine norovirus and treatment with DSS, and primarily focused on the small intestine, where a

lack of autophagy led to increased susceptibility to necroptosis and a loss of Paneth cells (Matsuzawa-Ishimoto et al., 2017). In contrast, we observed exacerbated activation of caspase-8 and caspase-3 in *Atg16l1*-deficient colonic IEC, as well as DNA fragmentation, all of which are hallmarks of apoptotic death. Therefore, although autophagy appears to generally protect IEC from TNF-induced cell death, there may be differences in the dominant death pathways triggered in distinct compartments or cell types (eg. small intestine versus colon; Paneth cells versus absorptive enterocytes), or during different types of inflammatory challenge (eg. Norovirus + DSS versus *H. hepaticus* + anti-IL-10R). These results are consistent with previous studies in which epithelial apoptosis has been linked to IBD pathology, with IEC having been described to be particularly susceptible to TNF induced apoptosis (Takahashi et al., 2014; Zeissig et al., 2004). For example, in a mouse model of spontaneous ileitis (SAMP1/YitFc model) a single shot of α TNF treatment ameliorated disease in the ileum correlating with reduction of epithelial apoptosis (Marini et al., 2003). Similarly, in the *Atg16l1/Xbp1^{VC}* model of spontaneous enteritis, the pathology scores strongly correlated with the degree of epithelial apoptosis (Adolph et al., 2013). Moreover, mice with hypomorphic expression of *Atg16l1* showed increased pathology with transmural inflammation in chemically induced colitis, which was reduced to wild-type levels by α TNF/ α IFN γ treatment (Cadwell et al., 2010). Together with these studies, our findings emphasise the links between autophagy in IEC and regulation of apoptosis in the inflamed intestine.

Of great interest is whether IBD patients bearing polymorphisms in autophagy genes present with increased IEC apoptosis and a more severe disruption of the

436 epithelial barrier. Although the IBD associated *ATG16L1* T300A SNP does not
437 confer loss of function under homeostatic conditions, it results in a
438 destabilization of the protein by enhancing caspase 3 dependent degradation
439 (Murthy et al., 2014). Therefore, under inflammatory conditions the T300A SNP
440 will enhance degradation of *ATG16L1* and may thereby make the IEC more
441 susceptible to apoptosis. Interestingly, α TNF treatment of IBD patients has been
442 linked to reduction of IEC apoptosis (Zeissig et al., 2004), therefore a key future
443 issue is to determine whether patients that harbor genetic predisposition for IEC
444 apoptosis show better responsiveness to α TNF treatment. For example, it has
445 been shown that SNPs in *A20*, an inhibitory regulator of TNF signaling correlate
446 with α TNF responsiveness of patients (Vereecke et al., 2014). In this context, it is
447 striking that a recent study reported a correlation between the *ATG16L1* T300A
448 SNP and a beneficial outcome in colon cancer (Grimm et al., 2016), which might
449 be a result of increased apoptosis susceptibility of IEC harboring the SNP.

450 Overall our study proves that impaired autophagy in epithelial cells, but not in
451 myeloid cells, results in exacerbated chronic colonic inflammation. We showed
452 that autophagy-deficiency leads to enhanced cytokine-induced IEC apoptosis.
453 The potential to attenuate the exacerbated pathology in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice by α TNF
454 treatment is of great clinical interest and may have implications for treatment of
455 IBD patients harboring SNPs in autophagy genes.

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Author Contributions

J.P. and A.M.K. designed and performed experiments. J.P. analyzed data. J.P. and K.J.M. secured funding and wrote the manuscript. A.M.K edited the manuscript.

Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure legend

Figure 1: Epithelial autophagy dampens chronic colitis

Atg16l1^{VC}, *Atg16l1*^{CD11c}, *Atg16l1*^{LysM} or *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were orally infected with 10⁸ CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and injected with 1 mg anti-IL10R weekly. **A)** Schematic of treatment protocol. **B, C)** Histopathology of the caecum (B) or colon (C) was assessed on day 14 and presented relative to the respective *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates. **D, E)** Representative H&E sections of caecum (D) or colon (E) from *Atg16l1*^{VC} or *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at day 14. **F, G)** Histopathology scores of the caecum (F) and colon (G) of *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at 2 and 4 weeks. **H)** Weight curves of *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates during chronic colitis. **I)** Total numbers of CD4⁺TCRβ⁺ T cells in isolated colonic LPLs from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at steady-state and at day 14 after colitis induction. **J-L)** TNF (J), IFNγ (K) and IL-1β (L) levels in colonic organ culture supernatants from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at steady-state and at day 14 after colitis induction.

Data are combined from at least 3 independent experiments (B,C,F,G,H,I) (representative D,E) or 2 independent experiments (J,K,L). Each dot represents an individual mouse (B,C,F,G,I,J,K,L), or data are shown as mean ± s.e.m (H). Horizontal bars denote medians. Scale bars are 100 μm. Statistical significance was determined using Kruskal-Wallis test with correction for multiple comparisons (B, C), two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons (H) or Mann Whitney test, * p<0.05; ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001. ns – not significant, *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*, p.i. – post infection.

Figure 2: *Atg16l1*-deficient IEC do not exhibit enhanced inflammatory or stress responses

A, B) qPCR analysis of *Cxcl2* (A) and *Cxcl5* (B) expression in IEC isolated from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at day 14 after colitis induction. **C-K)** IEC from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} mice were grown *ex vivo* in organoids. Inflammatory conditioned medium (iCM) was harvested from LPL cultures from colitic mice. **C)** Organoids stimulated with 10% iCM for 30 min were stained for pSTAT3 (red) and STAT3 (green) and DAPI (blue). **D)** *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} organoids were stimulated with 10% iCM for indicated times and lysates were probed with antibodies directed against indicated proteins. **E, F)** qPCR analysis of *Cxcl2* (E) and *Cxcl5* (F) expression by *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} organoids treated with 10% iCM for 6h. **G, H)** Monolayers of *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} IEC were infected with *H.h.* at a MOI of 100:1. **G)** Lysates were blotted after indicated times for indicated proteins. **H)** qPCR analysis of *Cxcl2* expression by IEC monolayers after 6h of *H.h.* infection. **I)** qPCR analysis of *Grp78* expression by *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} organoids treated with 10% iCM for 12h. **J)** qPCR analysis of *Grp78* expression by *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} monolayers infected with *H.h.* (MOI 100:1) for 6h. **K)** Lysates of *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} monolayers infected with *H.h.* (MOI 100:1) were blotted after indicated times for p ϵ IF2 α and ϵ IF2 α . **L, M)** qPCR analysis of *Grp78* expression in whole colonic tissue (L) or IEC (M) isolated from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at day 14 after colitis induction.

Data are representative of 2 (C, G, K) or 3 (A, B, D, L, M) independent experiments or combined from at least 3 independent experiments (E, F, H, I, J).

705 Data are shown as medians \pm s.e.m (E, F, H, I, J), or each dot represents individual
706 mouse (A, B, L, M). Horizontal bars denote medians. Scale bar is 50 μ m. Statistical
707 significance was determined using Mann Whitney test, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; ***
708 $p < 0.001$. iCM – inflammatory conditioned medium, *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*.

Figure 3: Autophagy deficiency increases IEC apoptosis during chronic colitis

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were orally infected with 10⁸ CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and injected with 1 mg anti-IL10R weekly. **A)** TUNEL (red) stainings of caecum and mid colon sections isolated at day 14 after colitis induction. Counterstaining with wheat germ agglutinin (green) and DAPI (blue). **B,C)** Lysates of IEC isolated from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at 1 week (B) and 2 weeks (C) after colitis induction were blotted for cleaved caspase 8. **D)** Quantification of western blot bands of caspase 8 p43 (upper panel) and p18 (lower panel) in lysates of whole colon tissue isolated from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at day 14 after colitis induction.

Data are representative of 3 independent experiments (A-D). Each dot represents individual band (D). Horizontal bars denote median. Scale bar is 100 μ m. ctl- control, Atg- *Atg16l1*, *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*.

Figure 4: Autophagy deficiency predisposes IEC to apoptosis

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} IEC were grown *ex vivo* in organoids. Inflammatory conditioned medium (iCM) was harvested from LPL cultures from colitic mice. **A, B)** *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} organoids were stimulated for 18h with 40% iCM (iCM); iCM plus anti-TNF (10µg/ml) and anti-IFN γ (10µg/ml) (iCM+ $\alpha\alpha$); or with TNF (100ng/ml) and IFN γ (20ng/ml) (IFN γ + TNF). Cytotoxicity (A) and apoptosis (B) were assessed with Apotox-Glo (Promega kit). **C, D)** *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} IEC organoids were stimulated with TNF (100ng/ml) and IFN γ (20ng/ml) for 24h prior to incubation with alamarBlue for 3h. C) Fluorescence intensity was measured at 540nm/ 590nm, normalized to values prior to treatment and plotted relative to the untreated genotype control. D) Picture of the 96-well plate after further 24h incubation with alamarBlue. **E)** *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} IEC organoids were stimulated with TNF (100ng/ml) and IFN γ (20ng/ml) for indicated times and caspase 8 and 3 cleavage detected by western blot. **F)** *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} IEC organoids were stimulated with TNF (100ng/ml) and IFN γ (20ng/ml) for 18h and cells were stained for cleaved caspase 3 (red), the epithelial marker E-cadherin (green) and DAPI (blue).

Data are representative of 3 independent experiments (A-F). Data are shown as mean \pm s.e.m (A-C). Scale bar is 50 μ m. Statistical significance was determined using students t test, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. iCM – inflammatory conditioned medium, $\alpha\alpha$ – anti-TNF and anti-IFN γ , T – TNF, γ - IFN γ .

Figure 5: TNF induces epithelial apoptosis in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were injected intraperitoneally with 10 µg of TNF and sacrificed 6h later. **A)** Schematic of the treatment protocol. **B)** Body weight at 6h post-injection as percentage of initial weight. **C)** TUNEL staining (red) of small intestinal sections; counterstaining with wheat germ agglutinin (green) and DAPI (blue). **D, E)** Representative western blot (D) and quantification (E) of cleaved caspase 8 in isolated IEC.

Data are combined (B, E) or representative (C, D) of 3 independent experiments. Each dot represents individual mouse (B, E). Scale bar is 100 µm. Statistical significance was determined using Mann Whitney test, * p<0.05; ** p<0.01. Horizontal bars denote medians. i.p.- intraperitoneal, WGA – wheat germ agglutinin, cl. casp8- cleaved caspase 8, ctl- control, Atg - *Atg16l1*.

Figure 6: TNF blockade attenuates colitis and IEC apoptosis in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were orally infected with 10⁸ CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and injected with 1 mg anti-IL10R i.p., with some cohorts also receiving 1 mg anti-TNF i.p. at d0 and d6. **A)** Schematic of the treatment protocol. **B)** Weight curves and **C)** representative micrographs of H&E stained colonic sections from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at day 14 after colitis induction. **D)** Representative images of TUNEL (red) staining of caecal sections at day 14 after colitis induction; counterstaining with WGA (green) and DAPI (blue). **E, F, G)** Western blot analysis for cleaved caspase 8 in colonic IEC lysates isolated from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates at day 14 after colitis induction. Representative blot (E) and quantification of caspase 8 p43 (F) and p18 (G) relative to tubulin.

Data are combined (B, F, G) or representative (C, D, E) from 3 independent experiments. Each dot represents an individual mouse (F, G), or data are shown as mean \pm s.e.m (B). Scale bars are 100 μ m. Statistical significance was determined using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Bonferroni's correction for multiple comparisons. Results shown for comparison between *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{VC} + α TNF group (B) or Mann Whitney test, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001, ****p<0.0001. *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*, pi – post infection.

STAR Methods

Contact for Reagent and Resource Sharing

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Dr. Kevin Maloy (kevin.maloy@path.ox.ac.uk).

Experimental model and subject details

Mice

Atg16l1^{fl/fl} mice and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} Villin-Cre (*Atg16l1*^{VC}) mice were generated and provided by the H. Virgin laboratory (Washington University, Saint Louis, MO, USA), as described (Hwang et al., 2012). *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} mice were crossed to C57BL/6J-Tg (Itgax-cre,-EGFP) and *Lyz2*^{tm1(cre)} to generate *Atg16l1*^{CD11c} and *Atg16l1*^{LysM} mice. All above strains were bred and maintained under specific pathogen-free conditions and tested negative for *Helicobacter* species. Mice were housed in groups of 2-5 in individually ventilated cages (IVC) and were 6-12 weeks old when used. All procedures on mice were conducted in accredited animal facilities at the University of Oxford (Oxford, UK) in accordance with the UK Scientific Procedures Act (1986) under a project license (PPL 30/3423) authorized by the UK Home Office Animal Procedures Committee and approved by the local ethical review panel. Mice were bred hemizygous for the Cre allele, resulting in *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} Cre⁻ and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} Cre⁺ littermates. The colitis models show some variability over time and between cages, which suggest a strong contribution by the microbiota. Therefore, in all experiments age- and sex-matched littermates were used that were kept co-housed throughout the experiments. Mice were allocated to experimental groups according to genotype,

litter and cage, ensuring that in every cage and from every litter both genotypes were present and treatment regimes were evenly distributed over cages.

Organoid culture

Organoids were cultured as previously described by van den Brink and colleagues (Heijmans et al., 2013). Colonic crypts were isolated from *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} mice or *Atg16l1*^{vc} mice and seeded in matrigel (Corning, Wiesbaden, Germany) and cultured in the presence of N2 and B27 supplements (Fisher Scientific- UK Ltd, Loughborough, UK), mEGF (Fisher Scientific; 50ng/ml), Y-27632 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, US; 10uM), N-Acetylcysteine (Sigma-Aldrich, 1mM) and conditioned medium containing Wnt3a (20%), Noggin (20%) and R-Spondin (10%). The conditioned media were generated from Rspol-Fc Hek 293T cells (kind gift from Dr. Calvin Kuo, Stanford) and Nog-Fc Hek 293T cells (kind gift from Dr. Gjis van den Brink, Amsterdam) and Wnt3A L cells (ATCC® CRL-2647™). After expansion by several passages organoids were seeded in 24 well plates for experiments with indicated stimuli.

For bacterial infection experiments, organoids were trypsinized, filtered and about 4 wells (from a 24-well plate) of organoids were seeded into one collagen-coated 24-well plate well (Collagen-I, A1048301, ThermoFisher Scientific). The resulting IEC monolayers were cultured in complete organoid medium for 2 days prior to infection.

830 **Method details**

831 ***Colitis models***

832 *H. hepaticus* (NCI-Frederick isolate 1A) (Ward et al., 1994) was cultured in TSB
833 media supplemented with 10% FCS and trimethoprim (5µg/ml), vancomycin (10
834 µg/ml) and polymyxin B (25 IU/ml) (TVP, Oxoid) under microaerophilic
835 conditions (10% CO₂, 10% H₂, 80% N₂) (Song-Zhao and Maloy, 2014). Chronic
836 colitis was induced by infecting mice intragastrically with 10⁸ CFU *H. hepaticus* at
837 3 consecutive days and injecting intraperitoneally 1 mg of mAb anti-IL10R (clone
838 1B1.2) weekly. For protection experiments mice were treated with 1 mg of mAb
839 anti-TNF (XT3.11) weekly.

840 For infection experiments *C. rodentium* (ICC169) was grown in Luria Broth
841 supplemented with nalidixic acid in log phase to an OD of 1. Mice were infected
842 intragastrically with 5x10⁹ CFU *C. rodentium* (Song-Zhao et al., 2014).

843

844 ***TNF-induced enteropathy***

845 Mice were injected intraperitoneally with 10 µg of murine TNF (Peprotech) and
846 scarified after 6h for tissue isolation.

847

848 ***Histological assessment of intestinal inflammation***

849 Mice were sacrificed at indicated time points whereupon tissue sections were
850 fixed in buffered 10% formalin and paraffin-embedded. Histological analysis of
851 H&E stained sections for intestinal inflammation was performed as described
852 (Song-Zhao and Maloy, 2014). Briefly, inflammation was graded semi-
853 quantitatively on a scale from 0 to 3, for four criteria; (a) epithelial hyperplasia
854 and goblet cell depletion, (b) lamina propria leukocyte infiltration, (c) area of

tissue affected, and (d) markers of severe inflammation, including crypt abscesses, sub- mucosal inflammation, and ulceration. Scores for individual criteria were added up for an overall inflammation score between 0 and 12. Scoring was performed by two scientists in a blinded fashion.

Isolation of cells and flow cytometry analysis and sorting

For IEC preparations colons were isolated and digested in 5mM EDTA in RPMI (5% FCS) for 10 min. Digests were vigorously shaken and cell suspension filtered. Cell pellets were lysed in RLT (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) for RNA preparation or RIPA buffer containing proteinase inhibitors (Roche) for western blot analysis. Cell suspensions from spleen, mLN, and intestinal lamina propria were prepared as previously described (Uhlig et al., 2006). For intracellular cytokine staining cells were stimulated for 3h with PMA (100 ng/ml) and Ionomycin (1 µg/ml) in the presence of Brefeldin A (10 µg/ml). For FACS analysis the following antibodies from eBioscience (Hatfield, UK) were used: anti-CD4 (GK1.5), anti-TCRβ (H57-597), anti-CD45 (30-F11), anti-GR.1 (RB6-8C5), anti-Foxp3 (FJK-16s), anti-IFN-γ (XMG1.2), anti-IL-17A (eBio17B7). The following antibodies were from BioLegend (San Diego, USA): anti-F4/80 (BMB), anti-CD11b (M1/70). Fixable Viability Dye from eBioscience was used to stain dead cells. For data acquisition a Cyan ADP was used (Beckman Coulter, High Wycombe, UK) and analyzed using FlowJo software (Tree Star, Ashland, USA). To verify excision efficiency of Atg16l1 in distinct cellular population of the intestinal mucosa, cells were sorted with a MoFlo Astrios Sorter (Beckman Coulter). LPL were stained with viability dye (eFluor 780), anti-CD45-APC, anti-CD11c-Fitc, anti-MHC2-eFluor450, anti-CD11b-PerCP Cy5.5, anti-CD64-PE and

two populations were collected in RLT buffer: DC defined as live, CD45⁺, CD11c⁺ and MHC2⁺ and macrophages as live, CD45⁺, CD11b⁺ and CD64⁺.

Immunofluorescent stainings

Colonic tissue samples were formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded. Sections were deparaffinized, rehydrated, proteinase k treated and stained according to the *in situ* cell death detection kit, Fluorescein (Sigma-Aldrich). Counterstaining was performed with Wheat Germ Agglutinin, Alexa Fluor 647 Conjugate (Fisher Scientific) and DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich). Slides were mounted with ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant (Fisher Scientific).

For immunofluorescent staining of organoids, cells were grown on cover slips. Following stimulation cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature followed by methanol treatment at -20C. Cells were blocked in 5% goat serum, 5% BSA and 0.5% saponine. Stainings were performed with pAb mouse-anti-Ecadherin (BD Bioscience), rabbit-anti-phospho Stat 3, mouse-anti Stat 3 and rabbit-anti-cleaved caspase 3 from Cell Signalling (Danvers, USA) and goat-anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 555 or goat-anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 (Fisher Scientific). Images were acquired with an Olympus Fluoview FV1000 confocal microscope and Olympus Fluoview Software (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). One representative image of the TUNEL stained sections per mouse was taken after careful screening of all sections while blinded for the genotype. We then grouped the images according to the treatment/ genotype and a different still blinded scientist in terms of genotype or treatment chose the representative image per group.

Western blot analysis

For immunoblot analysis cells were lysed after indicated times in RIPA buffer and 1-5 ug total protein were analyzed per lane. For detection the following primary antibodies were used: anti-LC3 antibody (L7543; Sigma-Aldrich) anti-phospho-Stat3, anti-Stat3, anti-phospho-ERK1/2, anti-phospho-Mek, anti-phospho-p65, anti-p65, anti-phospho-eIF2a, anti-eIF2a, anti-phospho-p38, anti-cleaved caspase 8, anti-cleaved caspase 3, (all antibodies from Cell Signalling) and anti-tubulin antibody (sc5286, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, USA), and secondary HRP conjugated anti-rabbit or anti-mouse antibody (Cell Signalling).

Cell death and metabolic assay

For cell death detection the ApoTox Glo Assay from Promega (Southampton, UK) was used. Organoids were seeded in 4ul matrigel in a 96 well pate; following stimulation the ApoTox Glo Assay was used according to manufactures instructions.

For the assessment of metabolic activity with AlamarBlue (Fisher Scientific) as a correlate of cell viability organoids were seeded in 4ul matrigel in a 96 well plate. Organoids were incubated with AlamarBlue for 3h prior to stimulation to generate reference metabolic activity. Fluorescent intensity was measured at 540nm/ 590nm. Following stimulation same procedure was repeated and values were normalized to untreated values.

RNA and qPCR

For qPCR analysis cells were lysed in RLT and RNA purified using the RNeasy kit from Qiagen. 1-2 µg of RNA were reverse transcribed with SuperScript III

reverse transcriptase (Fisher Scientific) and quantitative real-time PCR was carried out with the StepOnePlus Real time system from Applied Biosystems. RNA from sorted cell populations was purified with the RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen) and all RNA was transcribed. qPCR Mastermix (Eurogentec, Liege, Belgium) was used for Taqman reactions and iQ Sybr Green Supermix (Biorad, Kidlington, UK) for Sybr green reactions. Taqman probes for *Cxcl2* (Mm_00436450_m1), *Atg16l1* (Mm_00513084_m1) and *Hprt* (Mm_03024075_m1) were from Applied Biosystems and primers for *Grp78* (forwards: acttggggaccacattctct; reverse: atcgcaatcagacgctcc) for Sybr green PCR from Sigma-Aldrich. Relative expression was analysed according to the Pfaffl method (Pfaffl, 2001).

Organ explants

Pieces of 10-20 mg of colon or caecum were isolated and cultured in complete RPMI (10% FCS, 5 μ M β -mercaptoethanol (Fisher Scientific), 1x Penicillin/Streptomycin (Fisher Scientific), 1x Glutamine (Fisher Scientific)) for 20h. Supernatants were tested for cytokine levels with the Luminex Multiplex Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and normalised to input tissue weight.

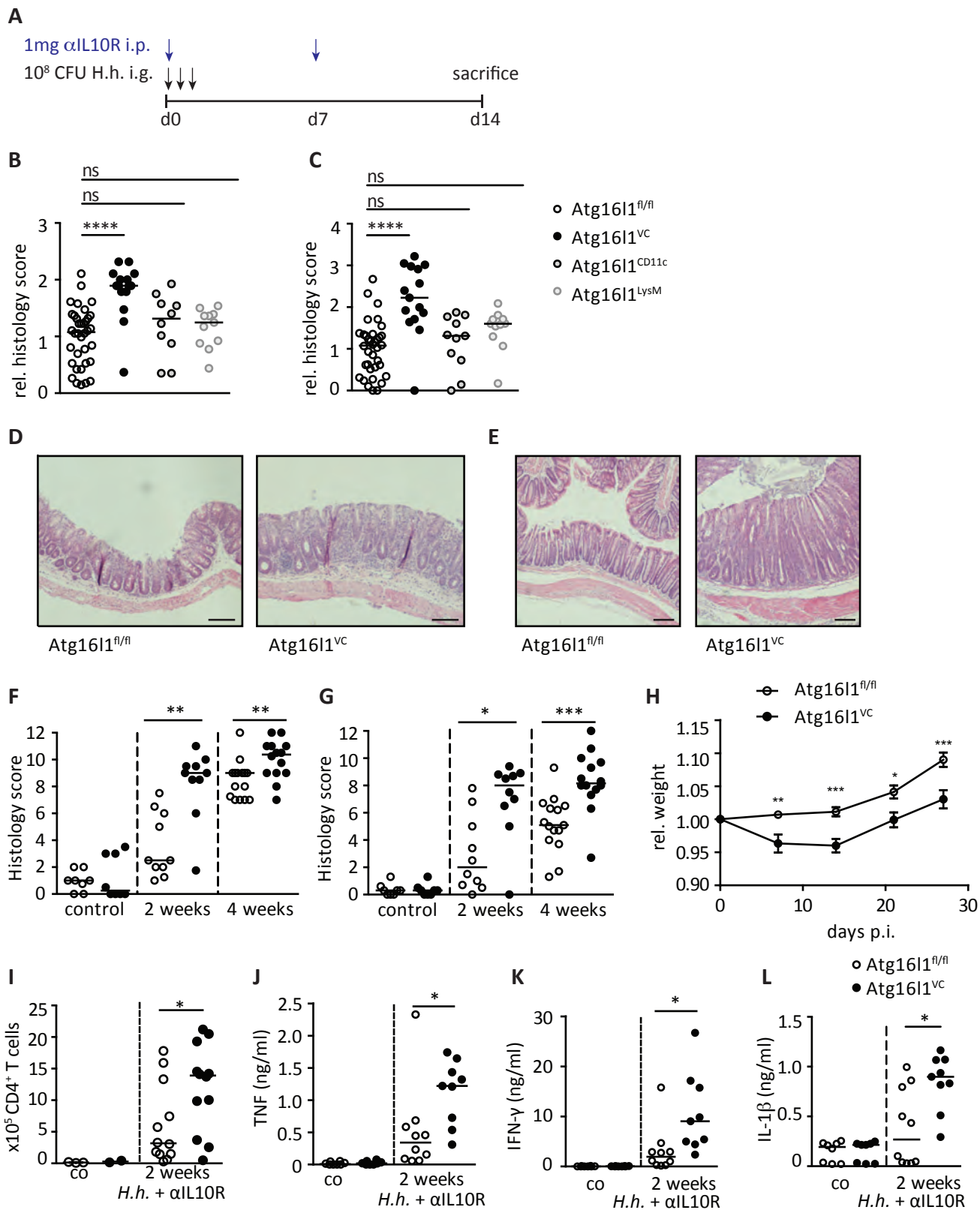
Generation of inflammatory conditioned medium (iCM)

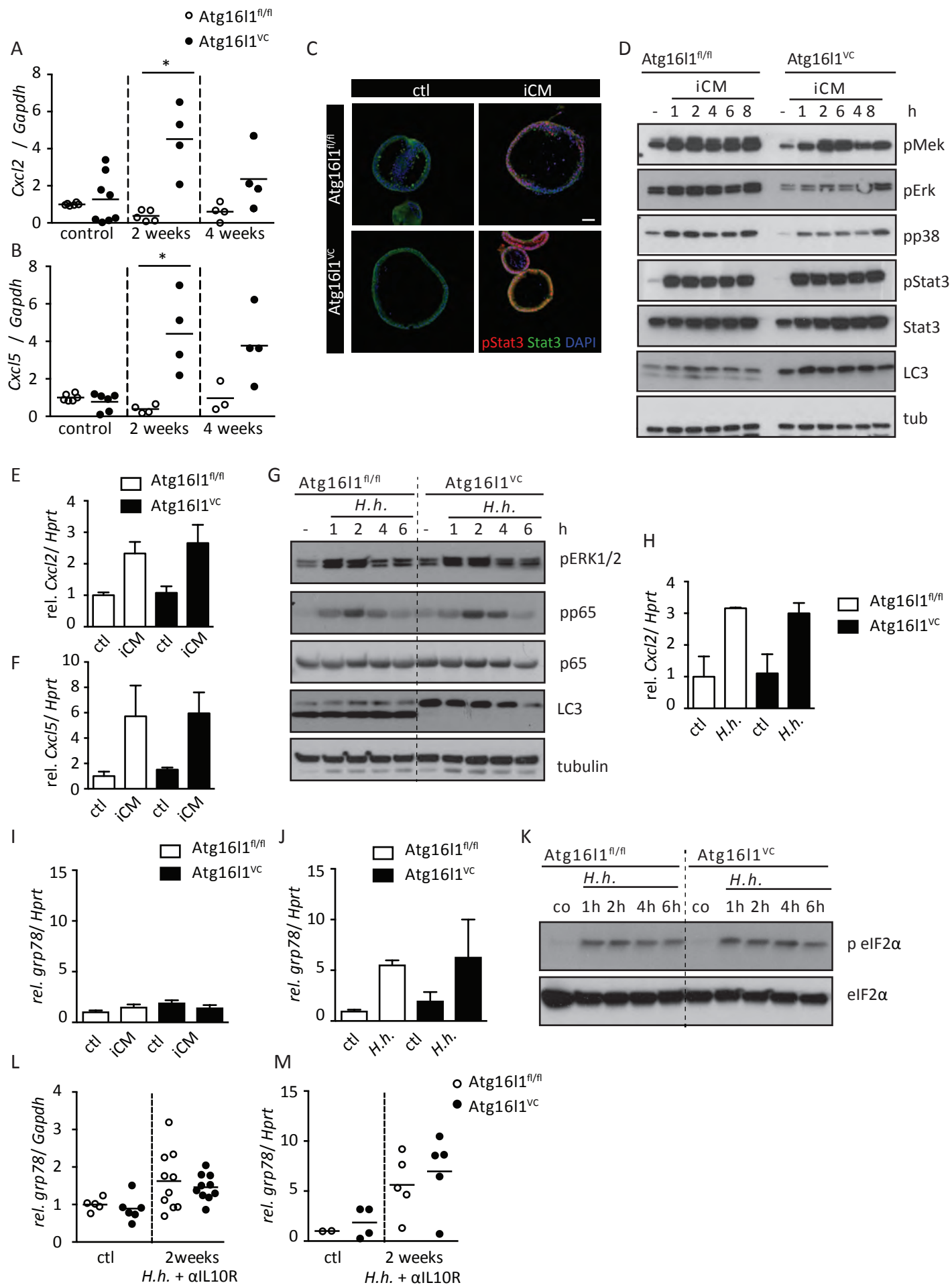
Lamina propria leukocytes were isolated from C57Bl/6 mice at 2 weeks of *H.h.* + α IL10R colitis and 2.3x10⁶ cell/ml were seeded in complete RPMI for 20h. Supernatants from cells of 7 mice were pooled and frozen at -80C.

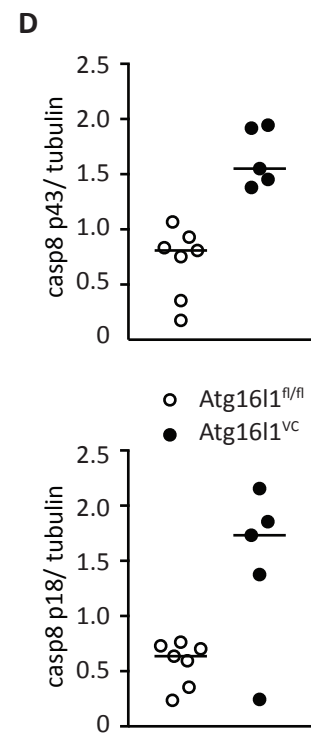
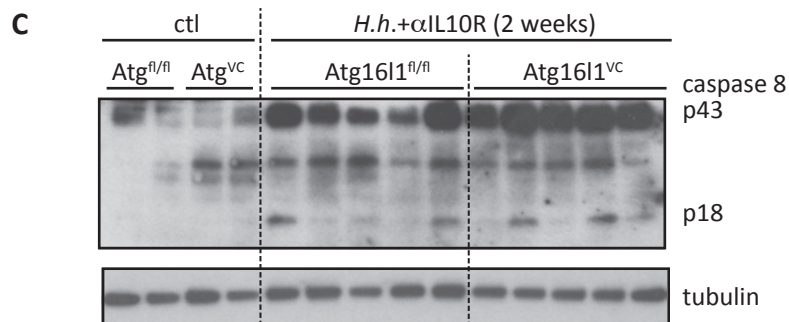
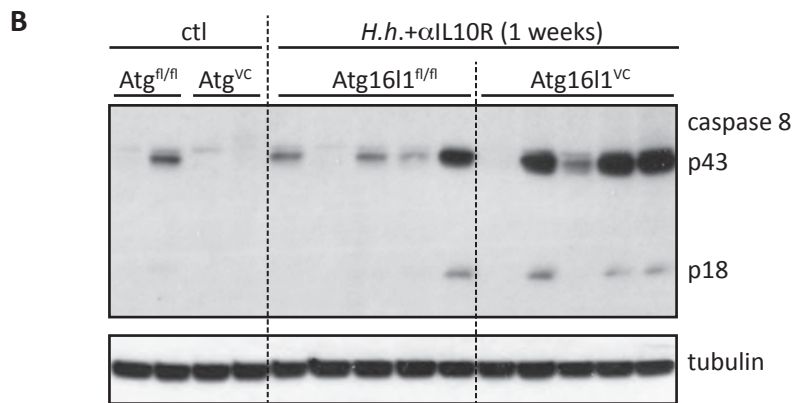
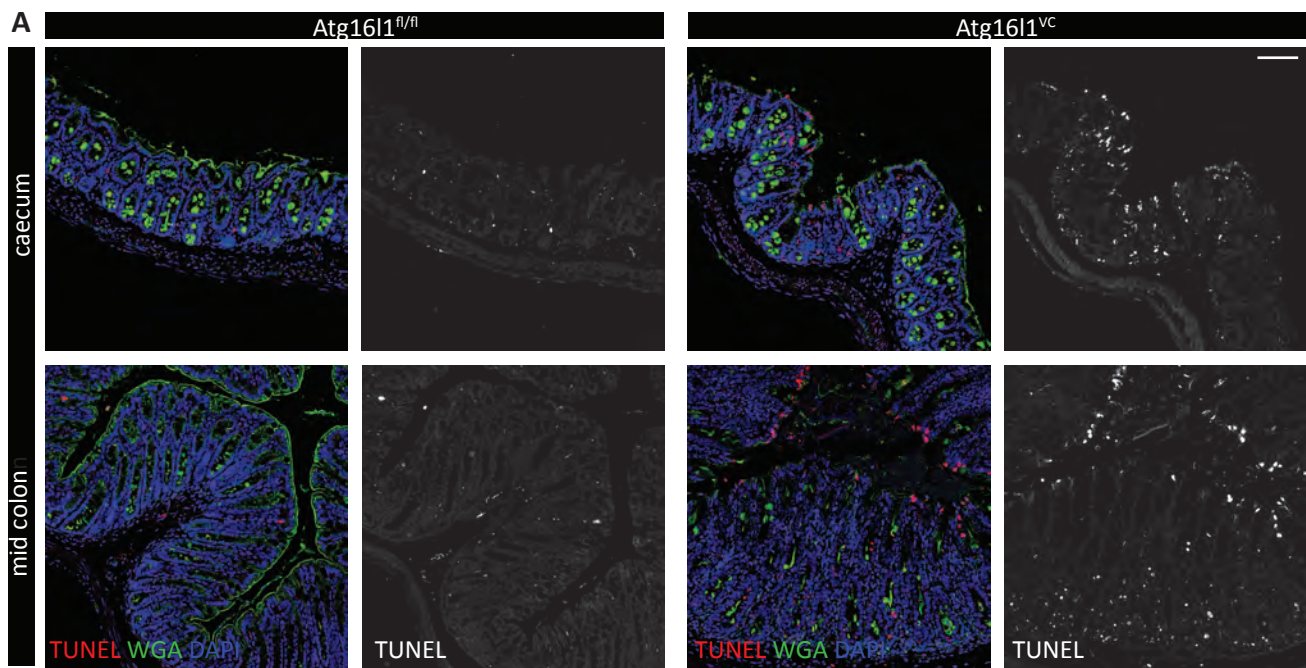
Quantification and statistical analysis

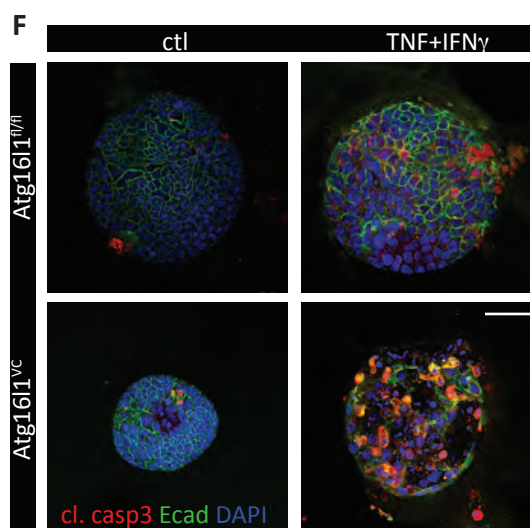
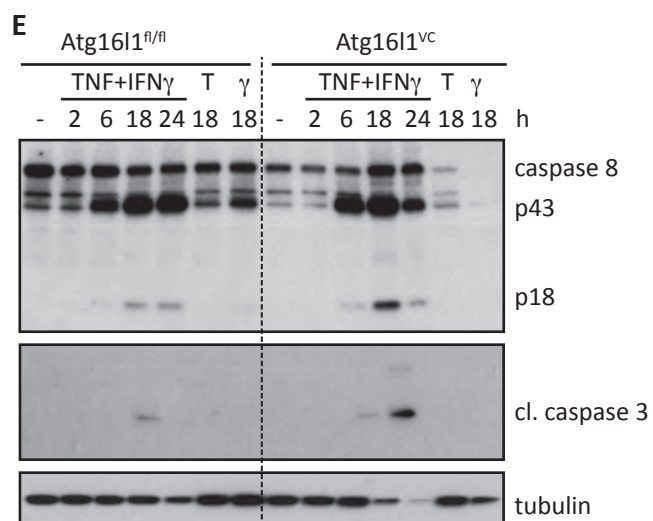
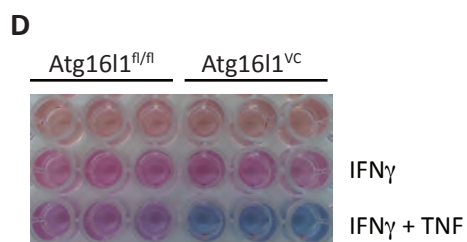
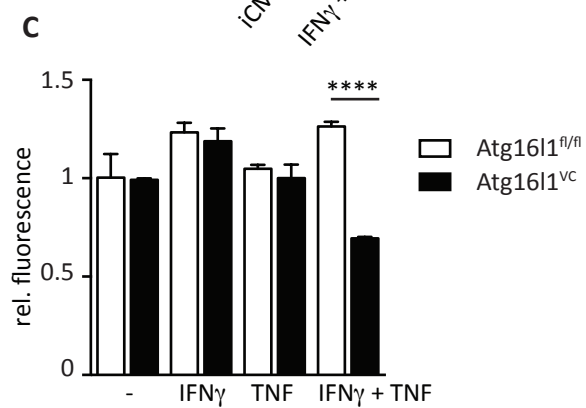
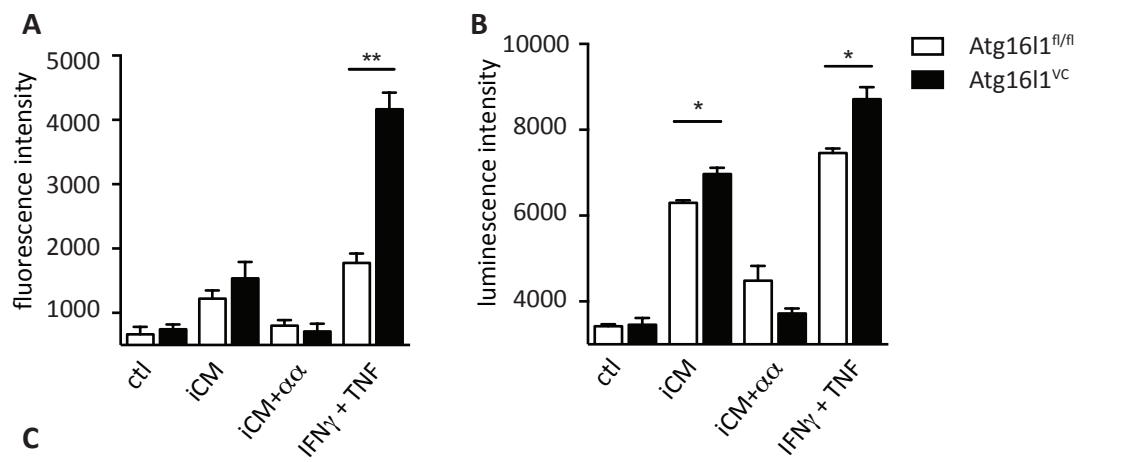
For weight curves p-values were determined by two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post-tests. For other experiments, p-values were determined by nonparametric Mann–Whitney test, or by Kruskal-Wallis test with correction for multiple comparisons. Differences were considered statistically significant when $p < 0.05$ (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$). Statistics were calculated using GraphPad Prism 6 software. The statistical tests applied, definition of center, dispersion and precision measures depicted, as well as the number of experimental repeats are specified in the figure legends.

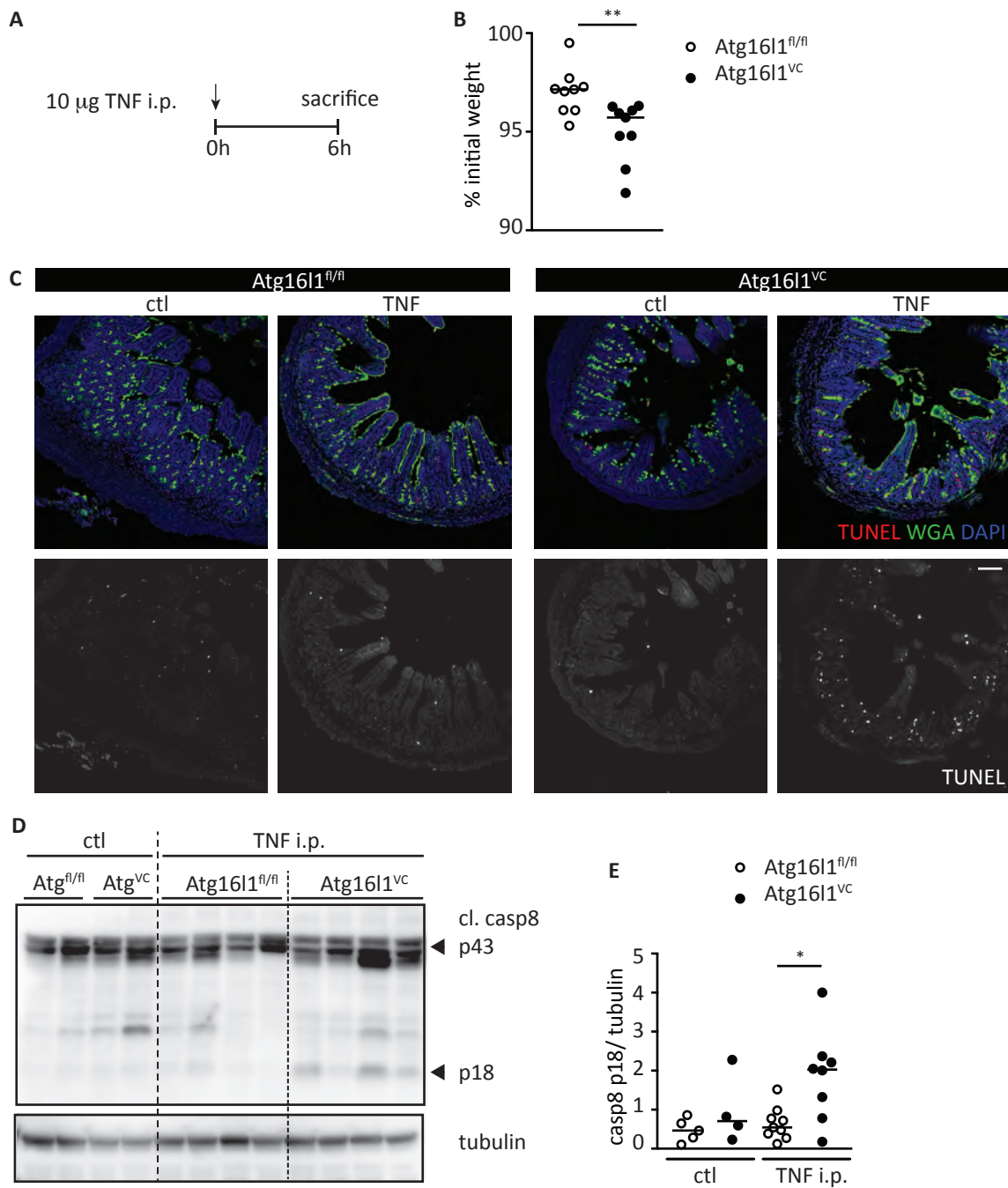
For *in vivo* experiments, sample size was determined by power analysis using power of trial software, which calculates a power value based on X^2 test statistics. Calculated required sample sizes were applied whenever possible.

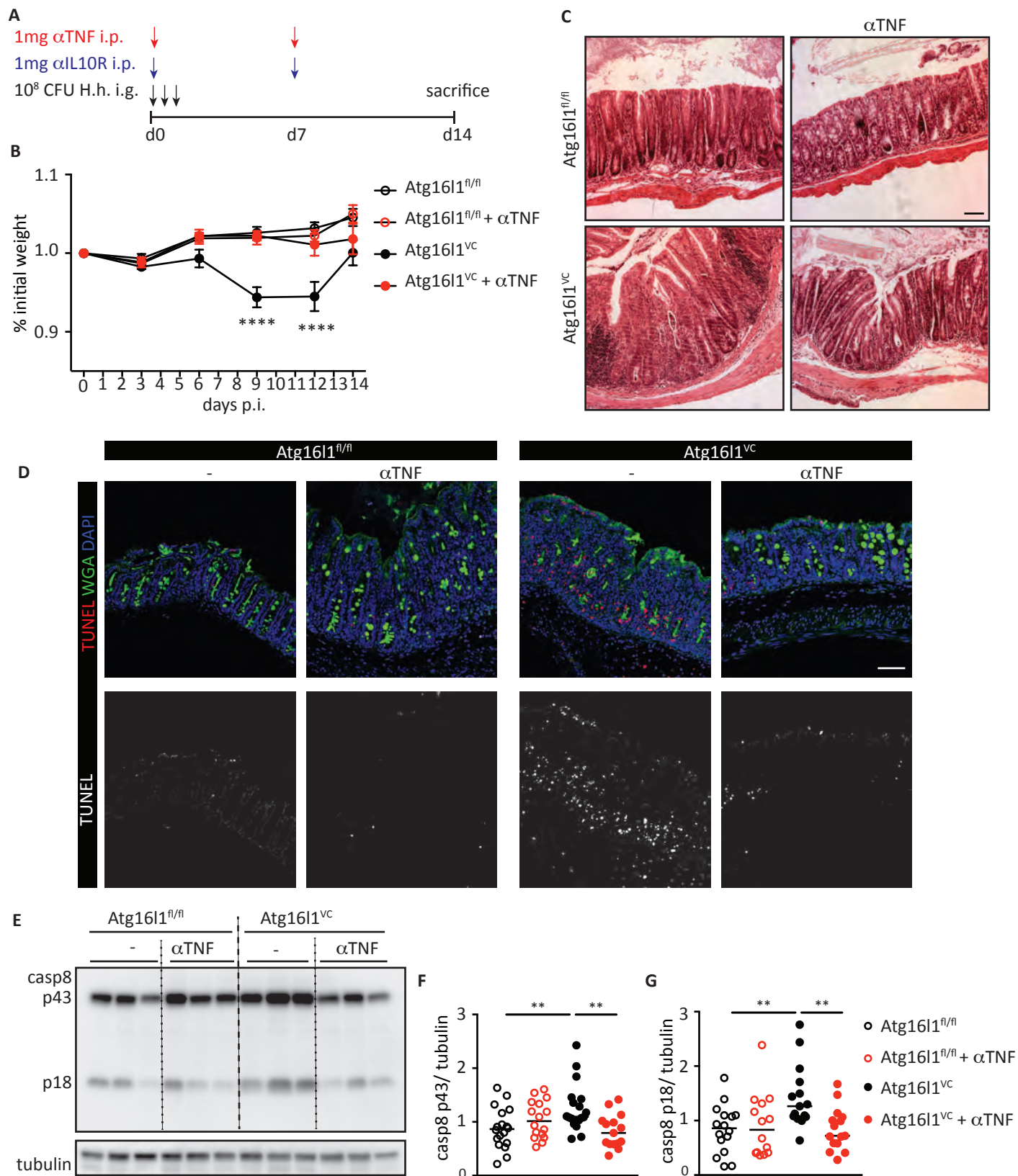












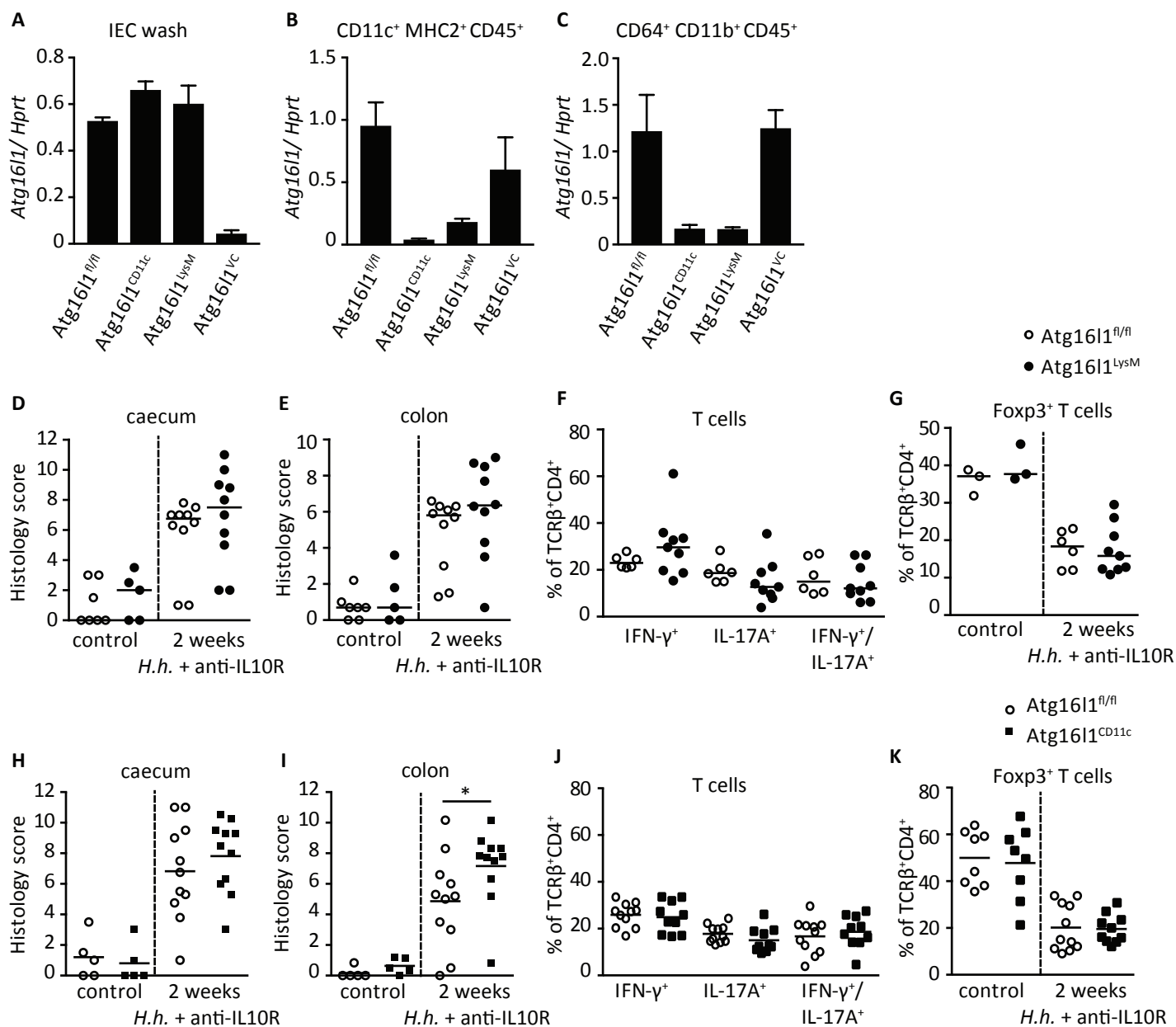


Figure S1. Related to Figure 1. Detailed analysis of $Atg16l1^{LysM}$, $Atg16l1^{CD11c}$ and $Atg16l1^{VC}$ mice.

A-C) Verification of $Atg16l1$ deletion in distinct compartments of the intestinal mucosa in $Atg16l1^{CD11c}$, $Atg16l1^{LysM}$, $Atg16l1^{VC}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ mice. qPCR analysis of $Atg16l1$ expression from IEC washes (A) or on sorted DC (B) and macrophage (C) populations from LPL. $Atg16l1^{CD11c}$, $Atg16l1^{LysM}$ or $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ mice were orally infected with 10^8 CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and injected with 1 mg anti-IL10R weekly and sacrificed at day 14 after colitis induction. D, E) Histopathology scores of caecum (D) and colon (E) samples from $Atg16l1^{LysM}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ littermates. F) Frequencies of cytokine positive CD4⁺TCRβ⁺ T cells in PMA, Ionomycin re-stimulated colonic LPLs from $Atg16l1^{LysM}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ littermates. G) Frequencies of Foxp3⁺ CD4⁺TCRβ⁺ T cells in colonic LPLs from $Atg16l1^{LysM}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ littermates. H, I) Histopathology scores of caecum (H) and colon (I) samples from $Atg16l1^{CD11c}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ littermates. J) Frequencies of cytokine positive CD4⁺TCRβ⁺ T cells in PMA, Ionomycin re-stimulated colonic LPLs from $Atg16l1^{CD11c}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ littermates. K) Frequencies of Foxp3⁺ CD4⁺TCRβ⁺ T cells in colonic LPLs from $Atg16l1^{CD11c}$ and $Atg16l1^{fl/fl}$ littermates.

Data are combined from 2 independent experiments (A-K). Bars represent means with SEM (A-C) or each dot represents individual mouse (D-K). Horizontal bars denote medians. Statistical significance was determined using Mann Whitney test, * $p < 0.05$; *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*, pi – post infection.

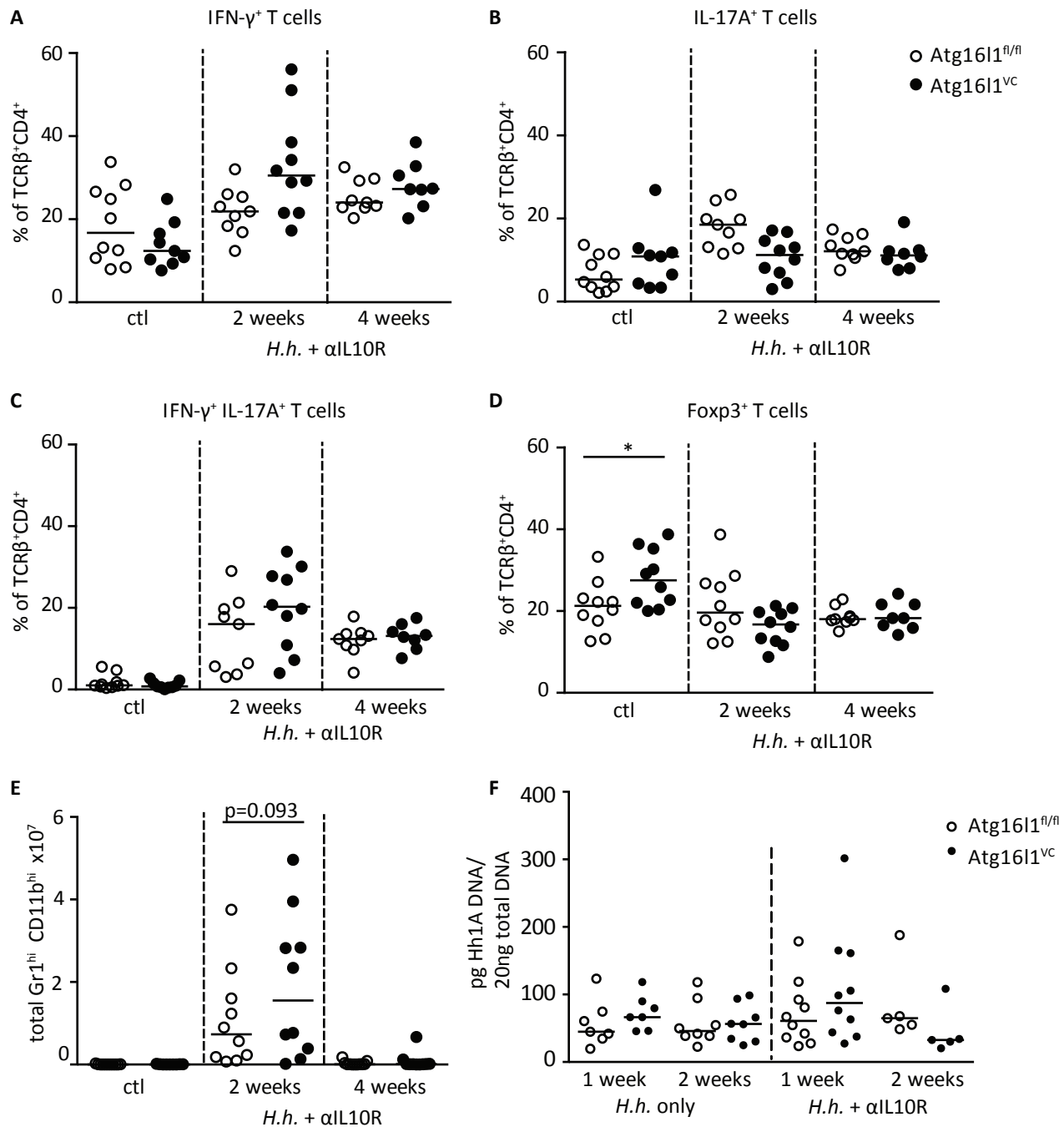


Figure S2. Related to Figure 1. Lamina propria leukocyte analysis of *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice.

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were orally infected with 10⁸ CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and injected with 1 mg anti-IL10R weekly. LPLs were analyzed by FACS at 2 weeks and 4 weeks after colitis induction. A-C) Prior to FACS staining LPLs were restimulated with PMA, Ionomycin and Brefeldin A for 3 h. Frequencies of IFN- γ ⁺ (A), IL-17A⁺ (B) and IFN- γ ⁺ IL-17A⁺ cells of CD4⁺TCR β ⁺ T cells (C). D) Frequencies of Foxp3⁺ cells of CD4⁺TCR β ⁺ T cells. E) Total numbers of Gr1^{high} CD11b^{high} cells in LPLs. F) *H.h.* DNA quantities were determined by qPCR in caecal content of *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates infected with *H.h.* only or treated with anti-IL10R weekly.

Data are combined from at least 3 independent experiments (A-E) or from 2 independent experiments (F). Each dot represents an individual mouse (A-F). Horizontal bars denote medians. Statistical significance was determined using Mann Whitney test, * p<0.05; ctl – control, *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*, p.i. – post infection.

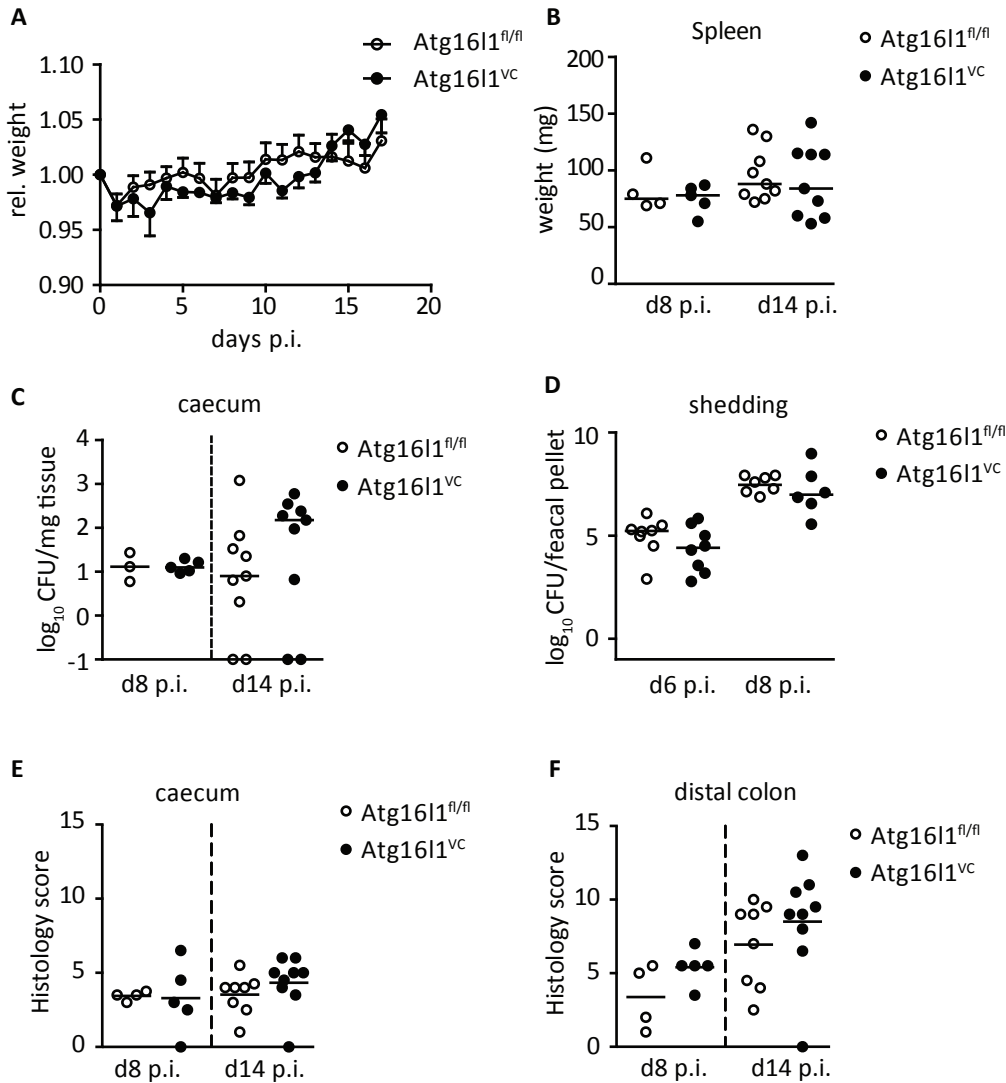


Figure S3. Related to Figure 1. *Atg16l1^{VC}* mice do not show increased susceptibility to *Citrobacter rodentium* infection. *Atg16l1^{VC}* and *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates were orally infected with 10^9 CFU *C. rodentium*. A) Weight was followed over 18 days. B) Spleen weights at day 8 and day 14 p.i.. C) Tissue adherent CFU in caecal tissue and D) CFU in faecal pellets of *Atg16l1^{VC}* and *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates at day 8 and day 14 p.i.. E, F) Histopathology scores of the caecum (E) and distal colon (F) of *Atg16l1^{VC}* and *Atg16l1^{fl/fl}* littermates at day 8 and day 14 p.i..

Data are combined from 2 independent experiments (A-F). Each dot represents an individual mouse (B-F) or mean \pm S.E.M. (A). Horizontal bars denote medians. Statistical significance was determined using Mann Whitney test. CFU- colony forming units, p.i. – post infection.

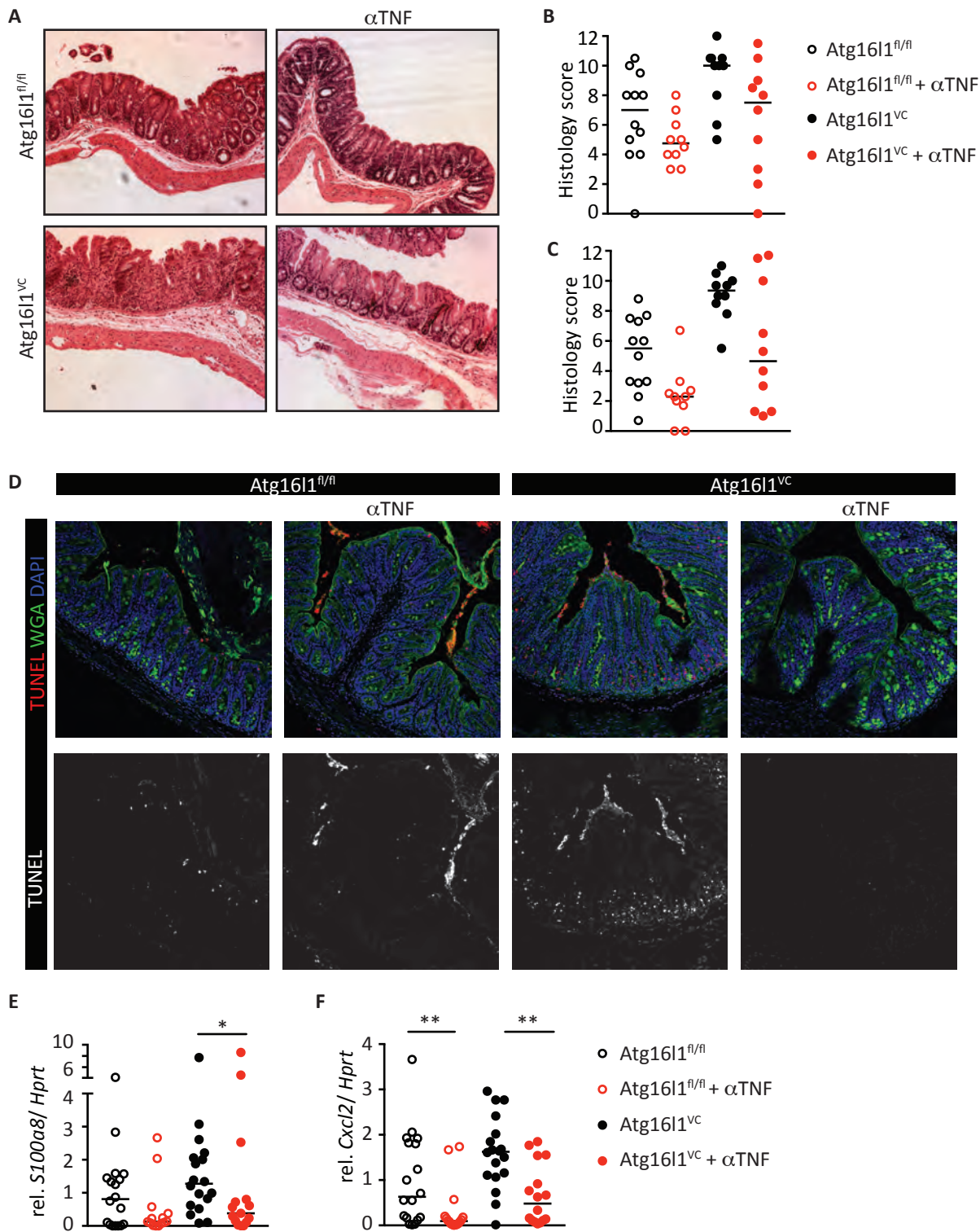


Figure S4. Related to Figure 6. TNF blockade attenuates colitis and epithelial apoptosis in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice.

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were orally infected with 10⁸ CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and treated weekly with 1 mg anti-IL10R i.p. with indicated groups also receiving 1 mg anti-TNF i.p. at day 0 and day 6. Mice were sacrificed at day 14 after colitis induction. A) Representative micrographs of H&E stained caecal sections of *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates. B) Histopathology scores of the caecum (B) and colon (C) of samples from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates. D) Representative images of TUNEL (red) staining of colon sections, counterstaining with WGA (green) and DAPI (blue). E, F) qPCR analysis of expression of *S100a8* (E) and *Cxcl2* (F) in isolated IECs from *Atg16l1*^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates. Results were normalized to *Hprt* expression and expressed relative to the *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} group.

Data are combined (B, C, E, F) or representative (A, D) of 3 independent experiments. Each dot represents an individual mouse (B, C, E, F). Horizontal bars denote medians. Statistical significance was determined using Mann Whitney test, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*, p.i. – post infection.

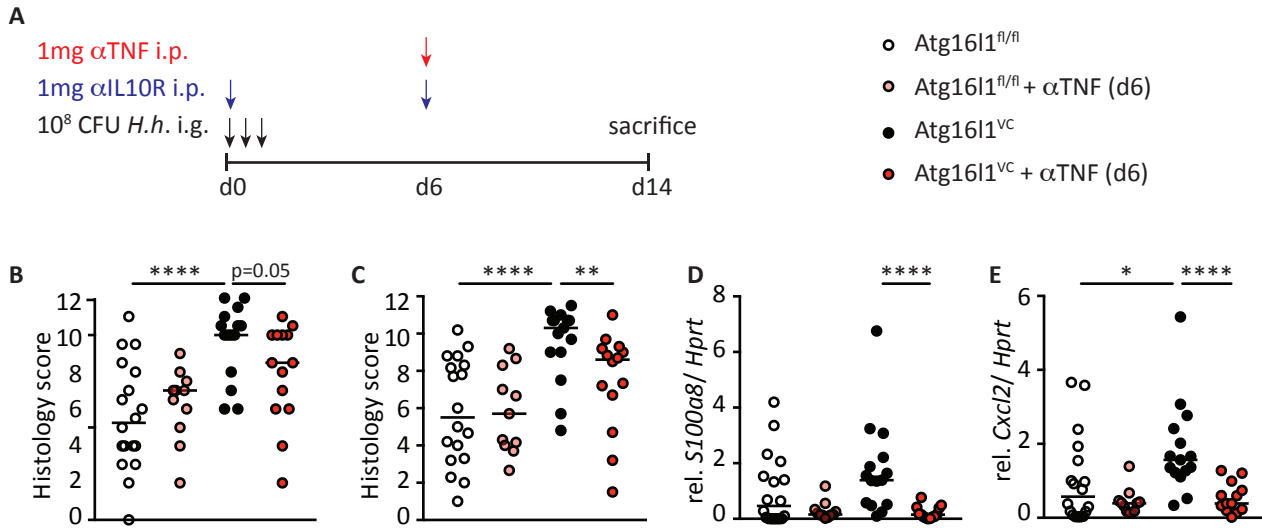


Figure S5. Related to Figure 6. α TNF therapy attenuates pathology in *Atg16l1*^{VC} mice.

Atg16l1^{VC} and *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} littermates were orally infected with 10^8 CFU *H.h.* on 3 consecutive days and treated weekly with 1 mg anti-IL10R i.p. with indicated groups also receiving 1 mg anti-TNF i.p. at day 6 after colitis induction. Mice were sacrificed at day 14 after colitis induction. A) Schematic of the treatment protocol. B,C) Histopathology scores of the caecum (B) and colon (C) samples. D,E) Gene expression analysis of isolated IECs for *S100a8* (D) and *Cxcl2* (E). Results were normalized to *Hprt* expression and expressed relative to the *Atg16l1*^{fl/fl} group.

Data are combined from 3 independent experiments (B-E). Each dot represents an individual mouse (B-E). Horizontal bars denote medians. Statistical significance was determined using Mann Whitney test, * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; **** $p < 0.0001$. *H.h.* – *Helicobacter hepaticus*.