

1 Title: Intestinal Bacteria are Necessary for Doxorubicin-induced Intestinal Damage but not

- 2 for Doxorubicin-induced Apoptosis.
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- 4 **Running Title:** Doxorubicin-induced damage dependent on intestinal bacteria
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25 Abstract

Doxorubicin (DOXO) induces significant, but transient, increases in apoptosis in the stem cell 26 zone of the jejunum, followed by mucosal damage involving a decrease in crypt proliferation, 27 28 crypt number, and villus height. The gastrointestinal tract is home to a vast population of commensal bacteria and numerous studies have demonstrated a symbiotic relationship 29 between intestinal bacteria and intestinal epithelial cells (IEC) in maintaining homeostatic 30 functions of the intestine. However, whether enteric bacteria play a role in DOXO-induced 31 damage is not well understood. We hypothesized that enteric bacteria are necessary for 32 33 induction of apoptosis and damage associated with DOXO treatment. Conventionally raised (CONV) and germ free (GF) mice were given a single injection of DOXO, and intestinal tissue 34 was collected at 6, 72, and 120 h after treatment and from no treatment (0 h) controls. 35 36 Histology and morphometric analyses quantified apoptosis, mitosis, crypt depth, villus height, and crypt density. Immunostaining for muc2 and lysozyme evaluated Paneth cells, goblet 37 cells or dual stained intermediate cells. DOXO administration induced significant increases 38 39 in apoptosis in jejunal epithelium regardless of the presence of enteric bacteria; however, the resulting injury, as demonstrated by statistically significant changes in crypt depth, crypt 40 number, and proliferative cell number, was dependent upon the presence of enteric bacteria. 41 Furthermore, we observed expansion of Paneth and goblet cells and presence of 42 intermediate cells only in CONV and not GF mice. These findings provide evidence that 43 44 manipulation and/or depletion of the enteric microbiota may have clinical significance in limiting chemotherapy-induced mucositis. 45

47 Introduction

The small intestinal epithelium is one of the most rapidly proliferating tissues in the body. This property renders intestinal epithelial cells (IEC) particularly susceptible to chemotherapy-induced damage which is reported in up to 40% of patients who receive chemotherapy. ¹ Chemotherapy-induced cytotoxicity within the gastrointestinal tract manifests as mucositis, characterized by gross ulcerations of the intestinal mucosa. The development of mucositis is a limiting factor in administration of chemotherapeutic agents, and therefore strategies to reduce this side-effect are urgently sought.

55 Doxorubicin (DOXO) is a common chemotherapeutic utilized for sarcomas, select 56 breast cancers, and several metastatic cancers. We previously reported that a single injection 57 of DOXO given to mice induced significant, but transient, increases in apoptosis in the stem 58 cell zone of the jejunum, followed by mucosal damage involving a decrease in crypt 59 proliferation, crypt number, and villus height. ² Subsequently, repair occurred, characterized 59 by crypt hypertrophy, Paneth cell hyperplasia and, ultimately, return of the intestinal mucosa 51 to normal morphology. ³

The gastrointestinal tract is home to a vast population of commensal bacteria and 62 numerous studies have demonstrated the importance of the symbiotic relationship between 63 intestinal bacteria and IECs in maintaining homeostatic functions of the intestine, including 64 nutrient generation and metabolism and proper development of the innate immune system. 65 ^{4,5,6,7} Evidence in models of intestinal damage, indicate distinct effects of bacteria in different 66 regions of the gastrointestinal tract. For example, in colon of mice that lack TLR signaling 67 (MyD88-/-), restitution and repair following epithelial injury is impaired. ⁸ Similarly, germ free 68 (GF) mice have shorter colonic crypts ⁹ and are more susceptible to chemical-induced injury, 69 ¹⁰ providing additional support for a role of commensal microbiota in sustaining epithelial 70 integrity or promoting mucosal repair in the colon. In contrast, in the small intestine, the 71

presence of enteric bacteria and/or bacterial products appears to exacerbate damage. For 72 example, in both TLR4-/- and MyD88-/- mice, intestinal damage after exposure to 73 indomethacin was abrogated.¹¹ Similarly, deficiency of TLR2 or TLR9 expression or inhibition 74 of TLR9 activity were associated with significantly decreased DOXO-induced damage to the 75 small intestine. ¹² Additionally, the microbiota promotes inflammation and fibrosis following 76 small bowel resection, ¹³ reflective of the 'double edged-sword' role of intestinal microbiota 77 associated-signaling in mucosal repair. These data led us to question whether enteric 78 bacteria play a role in mucosal damage associated with chemotherapeutic agents like DOXO. 79

In this report, we tested the hypothesis that enteric bacteria were necessary for induction of apoptosis and mucosal damage associated with DOXO treatment. Our data show that DOXO administration induces apoptosis regardless of the presence of enteric bacteria, but that the resulting damage, as demonstrated by changes in crypt depth, crypt number, and proliferative index, is enteric bacteria-dependent. These findings provide evidence that manipulation and/or depletion of the enteric microbiota may have clinical significance in limiting chemotherapy-induced mucositis.

88 **Results**

89 DOXO treatment rapidly induced apoptosis in both GF and CONV small intestine.

We previously reported that DOXO exposure rapidly induces apoptosis in crypt epithelium of 90 91 CONV mice and that apoptosis peaked at 6h and remained elevated relative to control mice out to 120h after DOXO treatment.² In the current study, similar levels of apoptosis were 92 observed in crypt epithelium of both GF and CONV mice, as assessed by both H&E staining 93 and cleaved caspase 3 (Fig. 1A), at 6h following DOXO treatment. However, by 72h post 94 DOXO treatment apoptosis had returned to baseline levels (Fig. 1B). Consistent with prior 95 findings² cell positional analysis revealed that DOXO-induced apoptosis occurred primarily 96 in cell positions 3-6, indicative of involvement of the intestinal stem cell zone (Fig. 1C). 97 Although not significantly different from CONV, there may be an indication that apoptosis is 98 99 occurring in cell positions higher up the crypt in GF, compared with CONV mice. This may suggest that cells of different lineages and/or differentiation status are more susceptible to 100 DOXO-induced apoptosis in GF vs. CONV mice, or that DOXO-induced apoptosis induces a 101 102 higher turnover in GF mice.

103 Alterations in villus-crypt morphometry in CONV, but not GF mice, following DOXO.

104 We previously demonstrated that an increase in crypt depth 120h following DOXO treatment was a hallmark of the repair phase and that villus blunting was evident at that time 105 as well.² Though GF crypts were significantly shorter than CONV crypts at baseline, GF mice 106 showed no significant change in crypt depth throughout the entire time course after DOXO 107 108 treatment (Fig. 2A and B). In contrast, by 120h after DOXO, crypts were significantly deeper in CONV mice compared to both control CONV mice and to GF mice at 120h after DOXO. 109 110 GF mice showed no significant change in villus height throughout the entire time course after DOXO treatment (Fig. 2C). CONV mice, while not statistically different, demonstrated a trend 111 toward shorter villi after DOXO treatment similar to our previous report.² 112

Our previous studies demonstrated a significant increase in proliferative index during 113 repair following DOXO-induced damage which marked the movement of the intestinal 114 mucosa in the repair phase.² Immunohistochemistry revealed a significant increase in the 115 116 number pHH3⁺ cells in crypt epithelium of CONV mice at 120h following DOXO treatment, indicating an increase in crypt cell proliferation and this increase was not observed in GF 117 mice (Fig. 3A and B). Similarly, we previously observed increases in the number of mitotic 118 figures in crypt epithelium during repair.² Evaluation of the number of mitotic figures per crypt 119 in both GF and CONV mice following DOXO revealed significantly decreased numbers in 120 121 both GF and CONV crypts at 6h following DOXO, consistent with induction of DNA damage and cell cycle arrest (Fig. 3C). The number of mitotic figures per crypt remained significantly 122 decreased in CONV mice but returned to control levels in GF mice at 72h following DOXO. 123 124 A return of mitotic figure number to control levels in CONV mice was observed by 120h following DOXO treatment. Of note, at baseline the number of mitotic figures per crypt was 125 significantly greater in CONV compared to GF mice. 126

127 We previously demonstrated that DOXO-treatment of CONV mice resulted in significant crypt loss by 72h and this loss of crypts can be used as an indicator of loss of intestinal stem 128 cells.² Although apoptosis and cell cycle arrest were observed in both GF and CONV crypt 129 epithelium following DOXO treatment, only in CONV mice was this followed by significant 130 131 loss of crypt number assessed by reduced crypt density. By 72h following DOXO treatment, 132 crypt density was significantly decreased in CONV mice compared to control CONV mice, and compared to GF mice at 72h after treatment with DOXO (Fig. 4). This decrease in crypt 133 density was still observed at 120 h after DOXO in CONV mice, but trended toward restitution 134 of crypt number similar to our previous findings.² 135

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Expansion of the Paneth cell compartment is absent in GF mice following DOXO
 treatment.

We previously reported an expansion of the Paneth cell compartment in jejunal crypts 139 140 following DOXO-induced damage in CONV mice which in turn increases the intestinal stem cell niche.² This expansion included an increase in total lysozyme-positive cell and 141 intermediate cell (muc2 and lysozyme expressing cell) numbers suggesting alteration in 142 secretory cell lineage allocation or maturation.³ As Paneth cells play a critical role in sensing 143 and responding to enteric bacteria ¹⁴ we wished to evaluated whether the absence of enteric 144 145 bacteria in GF mice would alter the Paneth cell compartment. Following DOXO treatment, staining sections for lysozyme and muc2 revealed an expansion of lysozyme-positive cells at 146 the crypt base 120 h after DOXO in CONV mice. In addition, staining revealed the presence 147 148 of muc2- and lysozyme-expressing intermediate cells in CONV mice following DOXO treatment (Fig. 5). This is in contrast to the lack of expansion of lysozyme-positive cell 149 numbers and presence of intermediate cells is observed in GF crypts following DOXO 150 151 treatment (Fig. 5).

152 **Discussion**

This study demonstrates that enteric bacteria are necessary for the initiation and 153 maintenance of mucosal damage and repair observed in the jejunum of CONV mice following 154 DOXO treatment, which includes crypt loss and villus blunting, followed by an increase in 155 proliferating cells, and crypt hyperplasia. In contrast, enteric bacteria do not appear to be 156 necessary for the rapid DOXO-mediated induction of apoptosis which was induced to similar 157 levels in both GF and CONV raised mice, and in a similar cell position distribution. Likewise, 158 DOXO treatment results in a decreased number of mitotic figures in the crypt epithelium of 159 160 both GF and CONV mice. Together, these data suggest that the damage-associated crypt loss and subsequent crypt regeneration documented in CONV mice is not secondary to the 161 rapid induction of apoptosis observed in crypt epithelial cells following DOXO treatment; but, 162 163 rather, is coupled to the presence of enteric bacteria. While DOXO is a widely used anticancer drug, its mechanism of action is not completely understood. Classically, DOXO is 164 described as a topoisomerase II inhibitor and, as such, inhibits the re-ligation of cleaved DNA 165 166 strands which have been unwound for transcription and replication. This inhibition results in DNA double strand breaks, and ultimately, apoptosis of the cell. ¹⁵ Other mechanisms of 167 induction of apoptosis by DOXO have been suggested, as well, including inhibition of DNA 168 and RNA synthesis and formation of free radicals or formaldehyde-mediated DOXO-DNA 169 adducts. ¹⁶ Nonetheless, regardless of the mechanism of action of DOXO within the small 170 171 intestinal epithelium, our data demonstrate that DOXO induces apoptosis independent of the presence of enteric bacteria. What is unclear are the events that occur after the initial 172 induction of apoptosis, which culminate in crypt loss, villus shrinking, crypt hyperplasia, and 173 subsequent restitution of normal small intestinal mucosa, and moreover, what specific roles 174 enteric bacteria play in this damage and repair process. 175

One possibility is that DOXO treatment elicits a direct effect upon intestinal bacteria, 176 causing a rapid dysbiosis which, in turn, causes direct damage to the intestinal epithelium, 177 as has been shown for methotrexate.¹⁷ A similar theory has been put forth for the role of 178 dysbiosis in susceptibility for inflammatory bowel disease. ^{18,19} Though it is used in human 179 medicine primarily for its antineoplastic properties, DOXO is a natural anthracycline antibiotic 180 product of Streptomyces peucetius var. casieus.²⁰ Since DOXO targets rapidly dividing cells, 181 and bacteria tend to replicate frequently, bacteria may, indeed, be potential primary targets. 182 Interestingly, studies suggest that unconjugated DOXO may be available to small intestinal 183 enteric bacteria within a few hours after dosing.²¹ These studies were performed on isolated 184 perfused rat liver, and showed that approximately 30% of a dose of DOXO (equivalent to a 185 20 mg/kg intravenous dose) was excreted from isolated liver as unconjugated DOXO into bile 186 within 3 h of dosing. ²¹ However, in vitro studies indicate that DOXO has little direct impact 187 on bacterial growth. These prior findings provide no evidence that DOXO induces a dysbiosis 188 of the enteric bacterial census, however they do not inform about potential effects on specific 189 190 bacteria. Also, our findings do not rule out the possibility that dysbiosis occurs following DOXO-induced damage by an indirect, but DOXO-dependent, mechanism. Other 191 chemotherapeutic drugs have been shown to be reactivated by microbial β -glucuronidases, 192 leading to direct toxicity to mucosal cells. ^{22,23,24} Therefore, further studies to evaluate 193 194 microbial-dependent mucositis following DOXO treatment are underway.

Another potential mechanism of enteric bacteria-mediated intestinal damage following DOXO treatment is disruption of the physical barrier that separates the intestinal epithelium from luminal bacteria. In healthy intestine under homeostatic conditions, a barrier of mucin serves to minimize the direct contact of luminal bacteria with the mucosa. ²⁵ In addition, Paneth cells secrete a cadre of antimicrobial factors including: a-defensins, aPLA2, and lysozyme. ²⁶ However, DOXO-may alter barrier function, permitting an increase in the direct

association of bacteria with the epithelium, followed by initiation of a bacteria-dependent 201 signaling cascade via TLR or NOD receptors. An absence of bacteria, therefore, would fail to 202 trigger this cascade. Of note, Nigro et al. demonstrated an increase in DOXO-induced 203 204 apoptosis and dampened repair in Nod2 knock out mice suggesting that the presence of bacterial products such as muramyl-dipeptide (MDP) might be protective during damage.²⁷ 205 However, because Nod2 was knocked out in the entire mouse it is not clear whether the 206 protective effect came from Nod2 signaling within intestinal epithelium or lamina propria-207 derived cells. Other pro-mucositis chemotherapeutic agents, such as irinotecan, have been 208 shown to impact mucin secretion, ²⁸ and closer association of microbes with mucosa offers 209 increased opportunities for activation of TLR and/or NODs on or within epithelial cells and 210 immune cells intimately associated with the epithelial barrier. ^{29,30} Likewise, our previous 211 212 studies demonstrate alteration in secretory cell allocation within the intestinal crypt, resulting in increased intermediate cell (both muc2 and lysozyme positive) number which may alter the 213 mucin barrier. ^{2,3} This finding is echoed by the increase in muc2⁺/lysozyme⁺ cells observed 214 215 in crypts of CONV mice at five days after DOXO in the current study. The fact that increases in muc2⁺/lysozyme⁺ cells were not observed in GF mice after DOXO treatment may reflect 216 an absence of damage and regenerative response or indicate that the alterations in lineage 217 allocation that follow DOXO result from an increased interaction between enteric bacteria and 218 219 epithelium.

Alternatively, DOXO-driven disruption of the mucosal barrier may not increase the association between bacteria and epithelia, but instead allow direct penetration of bacteria or bacterial products through a more permeable epithelium and into the lamina propria, facilitating direct interaction with resident leukocytes. Sun et al. demonstrated an increase in epithelial permeability of rat small intestinal epithelium following treatment with DOXO. ³¹ This increase allowed particles as large as albumin to move from the intestinal lumen to the lamina

226 propria, suggesting that an increase in permeability following DOXO may allow bacteria and/or bacterial products to penetrate the IEC barrier. DOXO treatment may also result in an 227 inflammatory response following penetration of the epithelial barrier by bacterial products, or 228 229 via another distinct pathway, such as the AKT-dependent inflammation that leads to cardiomyopathy following DOXO, or the CCL2-dependent inflammation that leads to renal 230 fibrosis following DOXO. 32,33 To elucidate these mechanisms, future investigations will 231 evaluate epithelial permeability, as well as the role of the inflammatory response, following 232 DOXO. We hypothesize that treatment with DOXO causes an increase in the permeability of 233 234 the epithelial barrier (due to a transient induction of increased apoptosis), concomitant with increased association of enteric bacteria with the mucosa, allowing bacterial products to 235 penetrate and induce an inflammatory response, resulting in the significant mucosal damage 236 237 (and repair) observed in our studies.

The findings of the current study demonstrate that DOXO-induced apoptosis in small intestinal crypts occurs independent of the presence of bacteria while mucosal damage after DOXO is dependent upon the presence of bacteria. These findings have translational implications supporting that manipulation of the intestinal microbiota during DOXO-based chemotherapy may reduce damage to the intestinal mucosa. This could allow more effective anticancer therapies with fewer adverse effects

244 Materials and Methods

Animals. Conventionally raised (CONV) adult female C57BL/6 mice were purchased from 245 Jackson Laboratories and used between 8-10 weeks of age. Adult female C57BL/6 mice 246 247 were raised under germ free (GF) conditions in the National Gnotobiotic Research Center at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. Experimental procedures were approved by 248 the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of The University of North Carolina at 249 Chapel Hill. Mice were given a single intraperitoneal (IP) injection of DOXO (Pharmacia & 250 Upjohn Co.) at a dose of 20 mg/kg body weight. We have previously reported that this dose 251 induces a reproducible sequela of intestinal damage in mice.² Animals were killed at 6 (n=3 252 for CONV, n=3 for GF), 72 (n=3, n=3), or 120 h (n=3, n=2) after DOXO treatment and 253 compared with no treatment controls (n=3, n=6). Small intestine was flushed with ice-cold 254 255 phosphate buffered saline (pH 7.4) and a piece of middle jejunum was fixed in 10% buffered formalin and embedded in paraffin. 256

Histology. Formalin-fixed paraffin embedded specimens were oriented to provide sections 257 perpendicular to the long axis of the bowel, and 5µm sections were used for evaluating 258 259 general morphology. Longitudinal sections of crypts or villi were selected for scoring on the basis that a single, continuous layer of epithelium followed from crypt base to villus base and 260 from the crypt-villus junction to the villus tip, respectively. For scoring cell position, each crypt 261 262 was divided in half and cells were numbered sequentially from crypt base to crypt-villus junction, with cell position "one" being occupied by the first cell at the base of each half crypt, 263 as previously described.² Apoptosis was scored by H&E staining based on the presence of 264 one or more pyknotic bodies at a given cell position and confirmed by immunoflorescence for 265 cleaved caspase 3 (CC3). ³⁴ Number of cells in G2-M phase per crypt was assessed by 266 immunohistochemistry for phosphohistone H3 (pHH3) and counting the number of pHH3 267 positive cells per crypt. To directly quantify mitosis, the number of mitotic figures per crypt 268

was counted. Crypt density for each animal was calculated by averaging the number of crypts contained within five-500 μ m lengths of mucosa. Villus height and crypt depth were measured using Axio Imager software on images captured using an Axio Imager A1 microscope and an AxioCam MRC 5 high-resolution camera (Carl Zeiss Microimaging, Inc.).

Immunostaining. For immunohistochemistry, slides were deparaffinized, rehydrated, and 273 incubated in 3% hydrogen peroxide for 15 min at room temperature (RT) to quench 274 endogenous peroxidase activity. Sections were treated to heat-induce epitope retrieval 275 276 (Antigen Unmasking Solution cat. # H-3300, Vector Laboratories) and allowed to cool to RT. Primary antibody (rabbit anti-phospho histone H3 cat. 9701S Cell Signaling Technology) was 277 applied to each section at 1:300 dilution and incubated for 1h at RT. Sections were then 278 washed and incubated with biotinylated goat anti-rabbit secondary antibody for 30-60 min at 279 RT. After washing, slides were incubated in Vectastain ABC reagent (PK-4000, Vector 280 Laboratories) for 30 min and then developed in a DAB substrate solution. Quantification of 281 pHH3⁺ cells was performed on 25-30 crypts. Data are expressed as number of positive cells 282 per crypt. For immunofluorescence, slides were deparaffinized, rehydrated, treated to antigen 283 284 retrieval in 10mM sodium citrate (pH 6.0) with 0.05% Tween 20 for 30 min, and allowed to come to RT. Sections were washed and incubated with primary antibodies as previously 285 reported.³ Primary antibodies used were as follows: anti-lysozyme (sc-27958, Santa Cruz 286 287 Biotechnology, 1:100 dilution), anti-mucin2 (Muc2; sc-15334, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, 1:200 dilution), and anti-active caspase 3 (cat. no. 9661, Cell Signaling Technology, 1:200 288 dilution). Sections were washed and incubated with corresponding fluorescently conjugated 289 secondary antibodies. Finally, sections were mounted using Vectashield Mounting Medium 290 291 with DAPI (H-1200 Vector Laboratories) and evaluated using an Axio Imager A1 microscope and an AxioCam MRC 5 high resolution camera. 292

Statistics. All quantitative results are presented as mean \pm standard error (SE). All data were subjected to one-way ANOVA with correction for multiple comparisons using the Fisher's procedure. For all comparisons, a *P* value of \leq 0.05 was considered significant.

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303 Figure Legends

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Figure1. DOXO induces apoptosis in intestinal epithelium irrespective of the presence of 305 enteric bacteria. A. H&E images demonstrating mitotic bodies and immunofluorescence 306 307 staining indicating the presence of active caspase 3-positive cells (green) 6h following DOXO treatment in both CONV and GF mice. Arrows indicated apoptotic cells. B. Quantitation of 308 the number of apoptotic cells per crypt, for a total of 20 crypts per animal, in CONV and GF 309 jejunal tissue from control mice and 6, 72, and 120h after DOXO treatment. * indicates values 310 significantly different from their respective 0h controls p≤0.05. C. Positional analysis of 311 apoptotic bodies in jejunal epithelium from CONV and GF mice 6h following DOXO treatment. 312 Scale bar: 30 µm. 313

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Figure 2. DOXO treatment does not alter crypt depth or villus height in GF mice. A. 315 Micrographs of representative H&E stained sections from GF and CONV mice of control 316 tissue and 6, 72 and 120h following DOXO treatment. B. Quantitation of crypt depth on 10-317 15 crypts/villi in CONV and GF jejunal tissue from control mice and 6, 72, and 120h after 318 DOXO treatment. * indicates values significantly different from their respective controls 319 p≤0.05. [#] indicates values significantly different within a particular time point p≤0.05. **C.** 320 Quantitation of villus height in CONV and GF jejunal tissue from control mice and 6, 72, and 321 120h after DOXO treatment. Scale bar: 50 µm. 322

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324 Figure 3. DOXO treatment does not impact proliferation or mitotic index in jejunal epithelium of GF mice. A. Micrograph showing representative staining for pHH3 on jejunal sections from 325 GF and CONV mice. B. Quantitation of pHH3+ cells in CONV and GF jejunal tissue from 326 control mice and 6, 72, and 120h after DOXO treatment. * indicates values significantly 327 different from their respective controls $p \le 0.05$.[#] indicates values significantly different within 328 a particular time point p≤0.05. C. Quantitation of mitotic index in CONV and GF jejunal tissue 329 from control mice and 6, 72, and 120h after DOXO treatment.[#] indicates values significantly 330 different within a particular time point p≤0.05. ND means "not detected". Scale bar: 50 µm. 331 332

Figure 4. DOXO treatment does not alter crypt density in jejunal mucosa of GF mice. * indicates values significantly different from their respective controls $p \le 0.05$. # indicates values significantly different within a particular time point $p \le 0.05$.

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Figure 5. Expansion of the Paneth cell compartment and allocation of intermediate cells are
not observed in GF mice following DOXO. Immunofluorescent detection of lysozyme (red),
muc2 (green), and nuclei (blue) in jejunal sections from GF and CONV mice. Arrows indicate
'intermediate cells', characterized by their co-expression of lysozyme (red) and muc2 (green).
Scale bar: 50 µm.

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Figure 1





Figure 2

Α.



0h

6h

72h





Figure 3











Time (h)





Figure 4



Crypt Density

Figure 5 Lysozyme

Muc2

Combination

Conv 0h

Conv 120h

GF 0h

