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1 Article

Role of enteric glial cells in the toxicity of phycotoxins: investigation with a tri-culture intestinal cell model

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11 Abstract: Lipophilic phycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by phytoplankton. They can accumulate 12 in edible filtering-shellfish and cause human intoxications, particularly gastrointestinal symptoms. Up to now, 13 the *in vitro* intestinal effects of these toxins have been mainly investigated on simple monolayers of intestinal 14 cells such as the enterocyte-like Caco-2 cell line. Recently, the combination of Caco-2 cells with mucus 15 secreting HT29-MTX cell line has been also used to mimic the complexity of the human intestinal epithelium. 16 Besides, enteric glial cells (EGC) from the enteric nervous system identified in the gut mucosa have been 17 largely shown to be involved in gut functions. Therefore, using a novel model integrating Caco-2 and 18 HT29-MTX cells co-cultured on inserts with EGC seeded in the basolateral compartment, we examined the 19 toxicological effects of two phycotoxins, pectenotoxin-2 (PTX2) and okadaic acid (OA). Cell viability, 20 morphology, barrier integrity, inflammation, barrier crossing, and the response of some specific glial markers 21 were evaluated using a broad set of methodologies. The toxicity of PTX2 was depicted by a slight decrease of 22 viability and integrity as well as a slight increase of inflammation of the Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures. PTX2 23 induced some modifications of EGC morphology. OA induced IL-8 release and decreased viability and 24 integrity of Caco-2/HT29-MTX cell monolayers. EGC viability was slightly affected by OA. The presence of 25 EGC reinforced barrier integrity and reduced the inflammatory response of the epithelial barrier following OA 26 exposure. The release of GDNF and BDNF gliomediators by EGC could be implicated in the protection 27 observed.

28 Keywords: pectenotoxin-2, okadaic acid, Caco-2 cells, HT29-MTX cells, enteric glial cells, toxicity

29

30 1. Introduction

31 Phycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by marine planktonic micro-algae that can accumulate 32 especially in filter-feeding bivalves such as clams, mussels and scallops (Reguera et al. 2014, EFSA Journal 33 2009). Due to the worldwide expansion of harmful algal blooms as well as the emergence of new toxin analogs, 34 phycotoxins remain an ecological, economic and public health concern that require consistent monitoring over 35 the world (EFSA Journal 2009). Among lipophilic phycotoxins, some including okadaic acid (OA) and analogs 36 have been reported to provoke human intoxications depicted by gastrointestinal symptoms such as nausea, 37 diarrhea, abdominal pains and vomiting (EFSA Journal 2008). For other few like pectenotoxins (PTX), acute 38 toxic effects were described in rodents (Ishige et al. 1988; Ito 2006; Ito et al. 2008), but no human intoxications have been proven so far. Although *in vivo* studies are still the gold standard for toxicity evaluation, *in vivo* data
on phycotoxins are limited due to toxin cost and availability, besides ethical reasons. Therefore, *in vitro*intestinal human cell models can be a simple, rapid and reproducible tool for a deeper investigation of

42 phycotoxin effects on intestine. So far, only the enterocyte-like Caco-2 cell line has been extensively used for

43 this purpose. Nevertheless, goblet cells, generally mimicked by the HT29-MTX cell line, are also potential key

44 players as they are the second more present cells of the human intestinal epithelium and produce a mucus layer

45 with a protecting role (Forstner, 1994). Thereby, co-cultures of Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells have already been

46 used to study the effects of various types of toxins such as mycotoxins (Ly et al. 2014) and more recently

47 phycotoxins such as OA and PTX2 (Reale et al 2020).

48 Concerning lipophilic phycotoxins, OA has been shown to induce intestinal toxicity in mice with cell 49 detachment, fluid accumulation, villous atrophy, inflammation and dilatation of the intestinal tract (Ito et al. 50 2004; Ito et al. 2002; Wang et al. 2012). Interestingly, on both intestinal Caco-2 and HT29-MTX cell 51 monocultures, OA has been shown to induce a decrease of cell viability, activate apoptosis (caspase-3) and 52 inflammation (NF-kB) as well as to disturb the cell cycle (Ferron et al., 2014). OA increased also the 53 paracellular permeability of intestinal T84 and Caco-2 cells monolayer (Ehlers et al., 2011; Dietrich et al., 54 2019). In contrast to OA, PTX2 induced only moderate damage on the intestinal epithelium with a fast recovery 55 in mice (Ito et al. 2008; Suzuki et al. 2006; Terao et al. 1986). In vitro, on differentiated Caco-2 cells, PTX2 did 56 not induce reduction of viability, neither IL-8 release and oxidative stress (Alarcan et al., 2019). Nevertheless, 57 an alteration of Caco-2 cells monolayer integrity has been reported with PTX2 (Hess et al., 2007) while PTX6, 58 an anlogue of PTX2, induced inhibition of F-actin polymerisation on rabbit primary enterocytes (Ares et al., 59 2005). Recently, we found that both toxins induced cytotoxicity and affected Caco-2/HT29-MTX cell 60 monolayer integrity (Reale et al., 2020). However, non-epithelial cell types of the intestinal barrier can 61 potentially contribute to the outcome of intestinal symptoms through their interaction with epithelial cells. 62 Among these non-epithelial cells, enteric glial cells (EGC), belonging to the enteric nervous system, maintain a 63 physiological crosstalk with intestinal epithelial cells for the regulation of homeostasis, gut functions, and 64 intestinal barrier permeability through the release of various gliomediators (Neunlist et al. 2014; Neunlist et al. 65 2013; Yu and Li 2014). Indeed, rodent models with EGC depletion have shown a clear disruption of the 66 intestinal barrier with inflammation, persistent diarrhea, and loss of integrity (Bush et al., 1998; Langness et al., 67 2017; Ochoa-Cortes et al., 2016). Therefore, EGC could modulate the intestinal barrier response to OA and 68 PTX2. Interestingly, EGC in monoculture have been shown to be sensitive to OA and PTX2 (Reale et al., 2019).

69 In the present study, we evaluated the toxicity of OA and PTX2 using a Caco-2/HT29-MTX/EGC cells

70 tri-culture model. Various approaches were used to investigate cell viability (neutral red uptake (NRU) assay),

71 morphology, barrier integrity (transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) evaluation and lucifer yellow (LY)

72 crossing), inflammation (ELISA), toxins barrier crossing (LC-MS/MS) and response of specific glial markers,

73 (RT-qPCR, and High Content Analysis (HCA)).

74

76 2. Materials and Methods

77 2.1 Chemicals

78 Cell culture products were purchased from Gibco (Cergy-Pontoise, France). Bovine serum albumin (BSA),

- 79 Tween 20, TritonX100, neutral red, lucifer yellow and HEPES were supplied by Sigma-Aldrich (Saint Quentin
- 80 Fallavier, France). Monoclonal IL-8, biotinyled monoclonal IL-8 antibodies, SuperBlock blocking buffer,
- 81 streptavidin peroxidase, TNFα and TMB were purchased from ThermoFisher Scientific (Waltham, MA). For *in*
- 82 vitro assays, PTX2 and OA, dissolved in methanol (MeOH), were purchased from the National Research
- 83 Council Canada (NRCC, Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada). For LC-MS/MS analysis, OA standard dissolved in
- 84 MeOH was supplied by Enzo Life Science (Lörrach, Germany). Acetonitrile (ACN) and MeOH were purchased
- 85 from Merck KGaA both of LC-MS/MS grades (Darmstadt, Germany).

86 5.2 Cell culture and toxins exposure

87 Caco-2 cells (HTB-37), obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) (Manasas, VA), were 88 maintained in Minimum Essential Medium containing 5.5 mM D-glucose, Earle's salts and 2 mM 89 L-alanyl-glutamine (MEM GlutaMAX) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1% non-essential 90 amino acids, 50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 µg/mL streptomycin at 37°C and 5% CO₂. HT29-MTX (kindly 91 provided by Dr T. Lesuffleur, Paris, France) were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium with high 92 glucose (DMEM) supplemented with 10% inactivated FBS, 50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 µg/mL streptomycin 93 (complete DMEM) at 37°C and 5% CO₂. The rat EGC (CRL2690), obtained from the ATCC, were grown in 94 DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 50 IU/mL penicillin and 50 µg/mL streptomycin at 37 °C and 5% CO₂. 95 For tri-culture experiments, first Caco-2 and HT29-MTX cells (3:1) were seeded at 157,000 cells/cm² in 96 complete DMEM in 12-well and 24-well inserts (polyester membrane, 0.4 µm pore size; Corning, USA) which 97 were used for qPCR assays, and for cytotoxicity and monolayer integrity assays, respectively. Culture medium 98 was changed three times each week up to 21 days post-seeding (Figure 1). At D20, EGC were seeded at 30,000 99 cells/cm² in 12-well and 24-well plates. At D21, inserts containing Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells were transferred 100 into the plates containing EGC. At D23, cells were exposed 24 hours to toxins loaded in the apical compartment 101 in FBS-free complete DMEM. Concentrations ranged from 50 nM to 260 nM for PTX2 and from 100 nM to 320 102 nM for OA. The maximal tolerated concentration of MeOH (5%) was chosen for the top concentration of each 103 toxin, and this experimental condition was included in each experiment as vehicle control.



- 114 apical treatment with the toxins was performed.
- 115 2.3 Neutral red upatke assay and morphological observations
- 116 After 24 hrs of treatment, inserts containing Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells were placed in a novel 12-well plates in
- 117 order to process to the NRU assay, separately from EGC. Cell morphological changes of EGC were observed by
- 118 phase contrast microscopy (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Cytotoxicity was assessed by the NRU
- 119 assay for Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures and for EGC as previously described (Reale et al. 2019). Three
- 120 independent experiments were performed and, for each experiment, the value was expressed relative to that of
- 121 the vehicle control.
- 122 2.4 IL-8 release
- 123 The levels of interleukin-8 (IL-8) released in the apical compartment were determined as previously described
- 124 (Tarantini et al. 2015). Three independent experiments with three technical replicates per experiment were
- 125 performed.
- 126 2.5 Monolayer integrity assays
- 127 2.5.1 TEER measurement

128 The trans-epithelial electrical resistance (TEER) of the Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures was measured to 129 evaluate the monolayer integrity before and after the 24-hrs treatment with toxins loaded in the apical 130 compartment. The TEER measurements and analyses were performed as previously described (Reale et al., 131 2020). Only Caco-2/HT29-MTX monolayers with TEER > 130 Ω .cm² were considered as intact. Three 132 independent experiments were performed.

133 2.5.2 LY crossing

135

134 After toxin treatment, the ability of LY to cross the Caco-2/HT29-MTX monolayers was determined as

- previously described (Reale et al., 2020). The amount of LY in the basolateral compartment was expressed 136 relative to that of the amount loaded in the apical compartment, and then expressed per hour. Three independent
- 137 experiments were performed.
- 138 2.5.3 ZO-1 immunofluorescence

139 After 24 hrs of treatment with toxins, the detection of ZO-1 in Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures was performed 140 by immunofluorescence as previously described (Ferron et al. 2014) with the following modifications.

141 Antibodies used were anti-rabbit ZO-1 (1/200, ThermoFisher Scientific) and goat anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) Alexa

- 142 Fluor®647 (1/1000, ab150079, Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Cell identification was performed using DAPI
- 143 (Sigma-Aldrich) labelling. The semi-permeable membranes were carefully removed from the insert and
- 144 mounted onto a glass slide using an aqueous mounting fluid. Two independent experiments were performed.
- 145 2.6 RT-qPCR

146 After 24 hrs of treatment with PTX2 (100, 150, and 200 nM) and OA (75, 125, and 175 nM), genes expression 147 in Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells in one hand and in EGC in the other hand was evaluated as previously described 148 (Reale et al. 2019) with the following modifications. For Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells, reverse transcription was 149 performed with 2.5 μ g of total RNA, and quantitative PCR reactions were carried out in a total volume of 5 μ L 150 containing 8.33 ng cDNA. For EGC analysis, reverse transcription was performed with 2 µg of total RNA, and 151 quantitative PCR reactions were carried out in a total volume of 5 µL containing 6.67 ng cDNA. All primers 152 were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and additional information on primers are listed in Table S1 (for 153 Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells) and S2 (for EGC). Using NormFinder software, the genes RPLP0 and ACTB were 154 chosen as reference gene for Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells and for EGC, respectively, since they did not exhibit any

155 significant variation of expression among the samples. Three independent experiments were performed.

156 2.7 LC-MS/MS analysis

157 After 24 hrs of treatment with phycotoxins, the basolateral compartments were harvested from the plates 158 dedicated to integrity testing and stored into glass vials at -20°C until analysis. Toxin analysis was conducted on 159 a TSQ Quantiva mass spectrometer system coupled to an Ultimate 3000 Ultra High Performance Liquid 160 Chomatography (both Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany). Chromatographic separation was carried 161 out on a Thermo Hypersil Gold C18 column (Thermo Fisher, Bremen, Germany) (150 × 2.1 mm, 1.9 µm) using 162 two mobile phase preparations, consisting of mobile phase (A), 100% water, and mobile phase (B), 5% water 163 and 95% acetonitrile. Both mobile phases contained 2 mM of ammonium formate and 50 mM of formic acid. 164 The gradient conditions were as follows: from 0 to 1 min, 90% of mobile phase A, then from 1 to 6 min, linear 165 ramp from 90% to 10% of mobile phase A which was held for 6 min, then ramp back in 0.5 min to initial 166 conditions and held for 5 min to re-equilibrate the system. The flow rate was set at 0.2 mL/min, the injection 167 volume was 5 μ L, and the column oven was maintained at 40°C. The mass spectrometer was operated in 168 negative mode. The following source parameters were used: sheath gas flow rate: 40 arb; auxiliary gas flow 169 rate: 10 arb; sweep gas flow rate: 1 arb; ion spray voltage: 4.0 kV in positive mode and 2.2 kV in negative mode; 170 capillary temperature: 335°C. The analytes were detected by Selected Reaction Monitoring (SRM). For analyte 171 identification and quantification, toxin specific transitions from molecular ions to product ions were chosen: 172 803.5>563.3 (CE: -40 V) and 803.5>785.5 (CE: -34 V) for identification and 803.5>255.0 (CE: -45 V) for 173 quantification. The mass spectrometer was operated in unit resolution (0.7 amu). Based on S/N, LOD and LOQ 174 were estimated at 60 and 200 pg/mL. OA was quantified using a calibration curve with toxin standards at 0, 1, 2, 175 3, 4, 5, 10, 20, 30, 50 ng/mL (OA). OA standard was solved in cell culture medium (complete DMEM without 176 FBS). Percentage of crossing was determined as the percentage of the absolute amount of toxin detected in the 177 basolateral compartment among the theoretical toxin amount loaded in the apical compartment.

178 2.8 Glial cell markers

After 24 hrs of treatment, the immunofluorescence detection of iNOS and GDNF was performed as previouslydescribed (Reale et al. 2019) with the following modifications. Antibodies were purchased from Abcam: mouse

181 anti-iNOS (1/350, ab49999), rabbit anti-GDNF (1/200, ab18956), goat anti-mouse IgG (H&L) Alexa Fluor®

182 555 (1/1000, ab150114) and goat anti-rabbit IgG (H&L) Alexa Fluor® 647 (1/1000, ab150079). The Target

- 183 Activation Module of the BioApplication software (Arrayscan VTI HCS Reader, Thermo Scientific) was used
- 184 to quantify iNOS and GDNF in the cytoplasm. Cytomix (50 ng/ml TNF α (BD Pharmigen Biosciences) + 50

- 185 ng/ml IL1β (Sigma Aldrich) + 50 ng/mL IFNγ (Thermo Fisher, Walthan, MA, USA)) was used as positive
- 186 control for iNOS. For each well, 6 fields (20X magnification) were analyzed. Cell counts were performed using
- 187 nuclear DAPI labelling. Three independent experiments were performed.
- 188 2.9 Statistics
- 189 GraphPad Prism software was used for statistical analyses. One sample T-test was performed for cytotoxicity
- and HCA assays. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed for TEER, LY crossing, IL-8 release and
- 191 RT-qPCR assays, and, if the effect of concentration was significant (P < 0.05), the values were compared to the
- 192 control using the Dunnett's test. Differences were declared significant at $P \le 0.05$. The values presented are
- 193 means ± SEM.
- **3. Results**
- 195 3.1. Cytotoxic effects of PTX2 and OA on Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures
- 196 After 24 hrs of apical treatment with the toxins, a slight decrease of cell viability (around 20%) was observed in
- 197 Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures from the lowest tested concentration (50 nM PTX2 and 100 nM OA) (Figure
- 198 2).



200Figure 2. Cytotoxicity on Caco-2/HT29-MTX cells after a 24 hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA.201Cytotoxicity was measured by the neutral red uptake (NRU) assay. Values are presented as means ± SEM and202expressed as percentages relative to the vehicle control (red line). Three independent experiments were203performed.

- 204 3.2. Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures monolayer integrity
- 205 *3.2.1 TEER and LY permeability*
- The TEER value for the vehicle control (with EGC) was on average 244 ± 16 ohm.cm² whereas it was around 162 ohm.cm² at D21 before to add EGC. The integrity of the Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures monolayers was significantly affected after 24 hrs treatment with the toxins: -64% and -83% at 180 and 260 nM PTX2
- respectively, and -87% at 320 nM OA (Figure 3). Although 200 nM OA induced a significant decrease of
- 210 TEER, the value remained above 130 ohm.cm², which was considered as not affecting the monolayer integrity.



212Figure 3. TEER measurement on Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures monolayer in the presence of EGC213after 24 hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. Values are presented as means \pm SEM. Red line: 130214ohm.cm². Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures monolayers with a TEER > 130 ohm.cm² were considered as intact.215Three independent experiments were performed. *, **, ***: value significantly different from the vehicle216control (P < 0.05, P < 0.01 and P < 0.001 respectively).

For the vehicle control, the rate of LY that crossed into the basolateral compartment was on average 0.51 ± 0.10

218 %/h (Figure 4). This value was significantly increased by apical treatment with both phycotoxins, reaching 4.80

and 5.60 %/h with 260 nM PTX2 and 320 nM OA respectively.



220

Figure 4. LY crossing through Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures monolayer in the presence of EGC after 222 24 hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. Values are presented as means \pm SEM, and expressed as 223 percentage of LY that crossed into the basolateral compartment per hour. Red line: 1%/h. Caco-2/HT29-MTX 224 co-cultures monolayers with a value of LY/h < 1% were considered as intact. Three independent experiments 225 were performed. *, **: value significantly different from the vehicle control (P < 0.01 and P < 0.001226 respectively).

227 *3.2.2. ZO-1 immunofluorescence*

In the vehicle control cells, ZO-1 staining was mainly distributed at the cell border (Figure 5). Treatment up to

229 260 nM PTX2 and up to 320 nM OA reduced the staining intensity of ZO-1 along the borders. Areas without

230 cells were observed with PTX2 treatment while with OA, an accumulation of ZO-1 was observed at the top of

the cell monolayer.



241Figure 5. Immunofluorescence localization of zonula occludens 1 (ZO-1) in the Caco-2/HT29-MTX242co-cultures monolayer in the presence of EGC after 24 hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. ZO-1243(red) and DAPI (blue) nucleus staining were carried out by immunocytology. Each image is representative of244three independent experiments. Scale bar (white) = 60 µm and scale bar (yellow) = 30 µm.

245 3.3. Inflammatory response of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures

246 After 24 hrs treatment, a concentration-dependent increase of IL-8 release in the apical compartment was

247 observed for both phycotoxins (Figure 6). The IL-8 concentration increased significantly up to 3.3-fold with

248 260 nM PTX2 and up to 14-fold with 320 nM OA compared to the vehicle control.



- 249
- 250Figure 6. IL-8 release of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures in the presence of EGC after a 24 hrs apical251treatment with PTX2 and OA. IL-8 release was expressed as fold change compared to the vehicle control set252to 1 (red line). IL-8 release in the vehicle control was 79.2 ± 5.6 pg/mL. Values are presented as means \pm SEM.253Three independent experiments were performed.**: value significantly different from the vehicle control (P < 0.01).
- 255 3.4. Modulation of genes expression following treatment with PTX2 and OA on Caco-2/HT29-MTX

256 Additional investigations were done through expression analysis of key genes involved in inflammation,

257 adherence, transport and mucus production for Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures (Table 1). For

258 Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures, IL-8 gene was up-regulated in a concentration-dependent manner reaching 259 4.4-fold with 200 nM PTX2 and 6-fold with 175 nM OA compared to the vehicle control. Concerning tight 260 junction genes, a concentration-dependent increase in CLDN4 expression was observed with OA (reaching 261 4.8-fold with 175 nM), while a 4.2-fold increase was observed with 100 nM PTX2 followed by a decrease with 262 higher concentrations. A significant but weak increase of mucin MUC13 expression was observed with each 263 toxin (2.2-fold with 200 nM PTX2 and 2.5-fold with 175 nM OA). For transporters, OA induced a 264 concentration-dependent increase of ABCC5 and ABCB1 expression (3.8-fold and 2.1-fold respectively with 265 175 nM OA).

- 266Table 1. Relative gene expression in Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures in the presence of EGC after 24 hrs267apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. The analysis of gene expression was carried out by RT-qPCR. Values268are normalized to the reference gene RPLP0 and presented as fold changes of the vehicle control (red for269up-regulated, blue for down-regulated). Three independent experiments were performed. *, **: significantly270different from the vehicle control (P < 0.05 and P < 0.01 respectively).
- 272

271

0.125			

Biological	G	PTX2			OA		
functions	Genes	100 nM	150 nM	200 nM	75 nM	125 nM	175 nM
Inflammation	IL1B						
	IL8						*
	OCLN						
	ZO1						
	CLDN1						
Adherence	CLDN3						
	CLDN4	*					*
	CLDN15						
	CDH1						
	MUC12						
	MUC13			*			*
	MUC17						
	MUC5AC						
Mucus	MUC5B						
	TFF1						
	TFF2						
	TFF3						
	PLIN3						
Transporter	ABCB1					*	*
	ABCC2						
	ABCG2						
	SLC22A1						
	SLC22A3						

SLCO1A2				
ABCC1				
ABCC5			*	**
ABCC3				

274 3.5 Transport of OA through the Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures

- 275 The amounts of OA found in the basolateral compartment were quantified 24 hrs after loading the toxins into
- the apical compartment. OA crossed the Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures in a concentration-dependent manner
- and reached 8% at 200 nM and 28.7% at 320 nM (Figure 7).



278

Figure 7. Basolateral relative quantities of OA following 24 hrs apical treatment of Caco-2/HT29-MTX
 co-cultures monolayer in the presence of EGC. Values are expressed as percentage of the initial amount
 loaded in the apical compartment and are presented as means ± SEM. Three independent experiments were
 performed.

- 283 3.6. Cytotoxic and morphological effects of PTX2 and OA on EGC
- 284 While treatment of PTX2 up to 260 nM did not affected the viability of basolateral EGC, a decrease of
- viability (28%) was observed with OA but only at the highest concentration (320 nM) (Figure 8).



- Figure 8. Cytotoxicity on EGC after a 24 hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. Cytotoxicity was
 measured by the neutral red uptake (NRU) assay. Values are presented as means ± SEM and expressed as
 percentages relative to the vehicle control (red line). Three independent experiments were performed.
- 290 The morphology of EGC was observed after 24 hrs of apical treatment with phycotoxins (Figure 9). Cells
- 291 treated with the vehicle control exhibited neurite branching characterized by a broad network. While OA
- did not induce any morphological modification up to 320 nM, PTX2 from 180 nM showed neurite atrophy
- and decrease of body cell area.



- 294
- 295Figure 9. Morphological modifications of EGC after a 24 hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA.296Evaluation of cell morphology was carried out by phase contrast microscopy. Each image is representative of297three independent experiments. A: vehicle control (5% MeOH); B: 260 nM PTX2; C: 320 nM OA. Scale bar =298100 µm.
- 299 3.7. GDNF and iNOS levels in EGC
- 300 After 24 hrs of apical treatment, GDNF and iNOS protein levels were not affected by PTX2 in EGC (Figure 10).
- 301 However, a significant increase of GDNF was observed with OA, reaching 1.5-fold at 150 nM. OA induced also
- 302 iNOS increase, but not significantly, reaching 1.4-fold at the highest dose.



309	Figure 10. GDNF and iNOS responses in EGC in tri-culture with Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures after 24
310	hrs apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. A: GDNF and iNOS levels were expressed as fold change compared
311	to the vehicle control set to 1. Values are presented as means ± SEM. Positive control (Cytomix): 1.7-fold
312	(± 0.2) for GDNF and 1.8-fold (± 0.1) for iNOS. Three independent experiments were performed *: value
313	significantly different from the vehicle control (P < 0.05). B: GDNF (green), iNOS (purple) and nucleus (DAPI)
314	after 24 hrs exposure to 260 nM PTX2 and 320 nM OA were carried out by HCA. Each image is representative
315	of three independent experiments. Scale bar $= 60$ um.

316 3.8. Modulation of genes expression following treatment with PTX2 and OA on EGC

0.125

- 317 Additional investigations were done through expression analysis of key genes involved in viability,
- 318 inflammation and gliomediators expression for EGC (Table 2). In basolateral EGC, 150 nM PTX2 induced *IL-6*
- 319 up-regulation (5.8-fold). BDNF and GDNF gliomediator genes were up-regulated in a concentration-dependent
- 320 manner by OA, reaching 3.8-fold and 3.5-fold respectively with 175 nM OA compared to the vehicle control.

321Table 2. Relative gene expression of EGC in tri-culture with Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures after 24 hrs322apical treatment with PTX2 and OA. The analysis of gene expression was carried out by RT-qPCR. Values323are normalized to the reference gene ACTB and presented as fold changes of the vehicle control (red for324up-regulated, blue for down-regulated). Three independent experiments were performed. *, **: significantly325different from the vehicle control (P < 0.05 and P < 0.01 respectively).</td>

8

326

Biological	Genes	PTX2 (nM)			OA (nM)		
functions		100	150	200	75	125	175
	BNIP3						
	CASP3						
Viability	GABARAP						
	MTOR						
	LC3B						
	IL6		*				
	MAPK8						
	MAPK11						
Inflammation	MYD88						
	ERK1						
	ERK2						
	CCL2						
Gliomediator	BDNF						*
	GDNF						**
	S100β						
	EGF						
	RAGE						
	TGFβ1						

328 4. Discussion

In this study, a relevant tri-culture cell model that includes key cells of the human intestinal epithelium (absorptive cells, goblet cells and enteric glial cells) has been experimented for the first time in the toxicology area. As already observed (Neunlist et al., 2007; Van Landeghem et al., 2011; Xiao et al., 2011; Coquenlorge et al., 2016), the addition of EGC in the basal compartment increased the TEER value. Globally, our results showed that the presence of EGC could affect the response of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures after toxins exposure. Interestingly, the impact of the presence of EGC was toxin-dependent.

335 In the present study, the viability of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures decreased down to 20% after apical 336 exposure to 260 nM PTX2. At the same time, an inflammatory response (increase of IL-8 mRNA and IL-8 337 release) was induced. Similar results on viability and inflammation were previously obtained with PTX2 on 338 Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures without EGC (Reale et al., 2020), suggesting that the presence of EGC did not 339 have a strong impact on these endpoints. Concerning Caco-2/HT29-MTX monolayer integrity, we observed a 340 significant decrease of TEER values and an increase of LY permeability from 180 nM PTX2. Although 341 numerous areas without cells were observed with the higher PTX2 concentrations, no modification of the tight 342 junction ZO-1 protein localization was noticed. Without EGC, the disruption of Caco-2/H29-MTX monolayer 343 integrity (TEER and LY results) was observed only from 260 nM PTX2 (Reale et al., 2020). In fact, in a glial 344 stress environment, EGC have been documented to affect intestinal permeability through the alteration of tight 345 junctions by the release of some gliomediators such as $S100\beta$ and NO (Neunlist et al. 2008; Turco et al. 2014, 346 Olson et al., 2009). Morphologically, PTX2 has been previously shown to induce neurite atrophy of EGC 347 (Reale et al. 2019). Interestingly, in this study, we observed also such morphological alterations in EGC with an 348 apical exposure from 180 nM PTX2. It suggests that the toxin was able to cross the Caco-2/HT29-MTX 349 monolayer or, that EGC were affected by other components such as IL-8 released by Caco-2/HT29-MTX 350 co-cultures in response to PTX2. Indeed, EGC have been documented to be sensitive to cytokines with the 351 induction of morphological alterations (Rosenbaum et al. 2016; Von Boyen et al. 2006a; Von Boyen 2004). 352 However, we did not detect PTX2 in the basal compartment (below the LOD of 25 pg/mL) (data not shown). 353 Several hypotheses can be proposed: chemical modifications of PTX2 (biotransformation, opening of the 354 lactone ring or conversion to the seco-acid form), efflux into the apical side or accumulation into cells.

355 In the present study, we reported a decrease of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures viability around 20% at 320 nM 356 OA. In addition, an inflammatory response of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures through IL-8 mRNA up 357 regulation (6-fold) and increase of IL-8 release (14-fold) was observed. At the same OA concentration but 358 without EGC, the decrease of viability reached 32% and a larger increase of IL-8 release (28-fold) was reported 359 (Reale et al., 2020). Cell protection of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures by the presence of EGC could be related 360 to the up-regulation of protective gliomediators secreted by EGC in response to the huge IL-8 cytokine release. 361 Other studies have pointed out that some factors such as inflammation could stimulate the secretion of 362 gliomediators by EGC (Rosenbaum et al. 2016; Von Boyen 2004). Indeed, we observed an up-regulation of 363 BDNF and GDNF mRNA strengthened by the increase of GDNF protein. These gliomediators have been 364 documented to promote cell viability (Coelho-Aguiar et al. 2015; Neunlist et al. 2014) and to possess 365 anti-inflammatory properties by reducing cytokines production of intestinal epithelial cells (Chow and 366 Gulbransen 2017; Coelho-Aguiar et al. 2015; Yu and Li 2014). Similarly, in vivo assays in mice suffering from

intestinal inflammation pointed out that GDNF administration reduced inflammation (Zhang et al. 2010).
Moreover, BDNF knock-out mice showed an important apoptosis of intestinal epithelial cells (Li et al., 2018;
Zhao et al., 2018). Nevertheless, other gliomediators could also be involved in the reduction of IL-8 release
observed in our study. Indeed, the literature reports that both GSNO and NGF gliomediators are up-regulated
during inflammation and are involved in the reduction of inflammation through the decrease of cytokine

372 production (Corti et al. 2014; Neunlist et al. 2013; von Boyen et al. 2006b).

- 373 Concerning the Caco-2/HT29-MTX monolayer integrity, a decrease of the TEER (around 38%) was noticed at 374 200 nM OA in the present study but the integrity of the monolayer at this dose stayed above the acceptable limit 375 (130 ohm.cm²). If a similar decrease of the TEER (around 40%) was also obtained without EGC, the TEER 376 reached a value below the threshold (Reale et al., 2020) indicating seemingly a protective effect of EGC on the 377 monolayer integrity. Regarding tight junctions, OA affected the localization of ZO-1 at 320 nM: the whole 378 staining was reduced and some accumulation occurred on the top of the cells. At the same concentration without 379 EGC, ZO-1 localization of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures was also perturbed and hugely redistributed into the 380 cytoplasm, showing irregular cell borders labelling and many areas without cells. Again, it seems that EGC 381 could prevent alterations of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures integrity probably through gliomediators 382 production and secretion. Indeed, it has been shown that, when provoking EGC stress by a cytomix treatment 383 $(TNF\alpha + IFN\gamma + IL-1\beta)$, the integrity of Caco-2 cells was enhanced through the release of some gliomediators 384 (Cheadle et al., 2013; Neunlist et al., 2013; Savidge et al., 2007). GDNF has been mainly documented to 385 strengthen the intestinal barrier by limiting the degradation of ZO-1 and occludin (Ben-Horin and Chowers 386 2008; Langness et al. 2017; Steinkamp et al. 2003; Steinkamp et al. 2012; Xiao et al. 2014; Yu and Li 2014). 387 Moreover, BDNF has been also implicated in the intestinal epithelium integrity (Li et al., 2018, Zhao et al., 388 2018).
- 389 In the present study, OA crossing through Caco-2/HT29-MTX monolayer reached 8% after an apical treatment 390 of 200 nM OA, while a previous study has observed only a limited crossing of OA (2%) with the same 391 concentration with Caco-2 cells (Ehlers et al. 2011). Since OA has been documented to be taken-up into the 392 cells by the human transporter OATP1B3 (Ikema et al. 2015), a higher crossing value could be expected in the 393 co-culture model due to the higher expression of this transporter in HT29-MTX cells compared to Caco-2 cells 394 where OATP1B3 is far less expressed (Li et al. 2014). Moreover, the transporter P-gP is implicated in the apical 395 efflux of OA by Caco-2 cells (Ehlers et al. 2014). This transporter is not expressed in HT29-MTX cells 396 (Barlovatz-Meimon and Ronot 2014; Mahler et al. 2009), thus probably decreasing the global efflux of OA by 397 Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures compared to Caco-2 cells alone.
- 398 Finally, we also observed a slight decrease of EGC viability (around 20%) at the highest OA concentration.
- 399 Such effect occurred concomitantly with an increase of iNOS level, hallmark feature of glial stress. In such
- 400 condition, the concentration of OA in the basolateral compartment was calculated as equal to 30.6 nM. At this
- 401 OA concentration, no decrease of viability on EGC alone was previously observed (Reale et al. 2019).
- 402 Therefore, other compounds might contribute to the alteration of EGC viability in the present study. As OA
- 403 induced a huge IL-8 release, that could be a good candidate (Von Boyen et al. 2006a; Von Boyen 2004).
- 404 **5.** Conclusions

405 In this study we investigated the impacts induced by PTX2 and OA exposure on an intestinal tri-culture model

406 made of Caco-2, HT29-MTX and EGC. In conclusion, the presence of EGC did not affect the viability and the

407 inflammation response of Caco-2/HT29-MTX co-cultures exposed to PTX2 but enhanced a decrease of the

408 monolayer integrity. With OA, the presence of EGC increased both the survival and the integrity of

409 Caco-2/HT29-MTX monolayers, as well as reduced their inflammatory response. The results of this study

410 suggested that EGC of the enteric nervous system could be activated by the response of intestinal epithelial cells

- 411 to phycotoxins and could be involved in preventing toxicity through the release of GDNF and BDNF
- 412 gliomediators.
- 413
- 414 **Author Contributions:** Conceived and designed the experiments: O.R., A.H. and V.F. Performed the experiments:
- 415 O.R and D.B. Analyzed the data: O.R., A.H. and V.F. Wrote the paper: O.R., D.B, A.H. and V.F.
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