1 **Title:**
2 Pneumococcus uses COMMD2 to alter host cellular immunity.
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Abstract:

NF-κB driven cellular immunity is essential for both pro- and anti-inflammatory responses to microbes, which makes it one of the most frequently targeted pathways by bacteria during pathogenesis. How NF-κB tunes the epithelial response to *Streptococcus pneumoniae* across the spectrum of commensal to pathogenic outcomes is not fully understood. In this study, we compare a commensal-like 6B ST90 strain to an invasive TIGR4 isolate and demonstrate, through comparative mass spectrometry of the p65 interactome, TIGR4 challenge triggers a novel interaction of COMMD2 with p65 and p62. Mechanistically, we show this complex mediates export of p65 for degradation and COMMD2 is necessary for altering host cellular immunity. With these results, we reveal for the first time a new bacterial pathogenesis mechanism to repress host inflammatory response though COMMD2 and p65 degradation while presenting a paradigm for diverging NF-κB responses to pneumococcus.

Introduction:

Airway epithelial cells, which line the entirety of the human respiratory tract, play a key role in both driving and shaping the host inflammatory and homeostatic response(s) to both pathogenic and commensal microbes [1-3]. Indeed, defining molecular processes of bacterial-host crosstalk at this interface has emerged as a key determinant shaping how bacterial pathobionts escape from asymptomatic carriage within the human upper respiratory tract (URT) to become pathological agents causing symptomatic disease. In fact, for human restricted pathobionts, such as *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (the pneumococcus), *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Moraxella catarrhalis*, and *Staphylococcus aureus,* colonization of the human URT is critical for maintenance of their natural reservoir and a prerequisite for potentially lethal disease [4,5]. Yet mechanistic understanding of the cellular processes involved in compartmentalizing commensal-like versus pathogenic host outcomes to these pathobionts remains unclear.

We previously showed that isolates of *Streptococcus pneumoniae* drive differential host responses by fine tuning airway epithelia cellular immunity [6-12]. A commensal-like serotype 6B ST90 CC156 lineage F isolate, in contrast to an invasive favoring TIGR4 isolate, triggered a unique NF-κB signature through the chromatin remodeler KDM6B, that was required for host mediated confinement to the upper respiratory tract in a murine infection model. Surprisingly, these studies also revealed that the pathogenic *S. pneumoniae* strain TIGR4 largely suppressed NF-κB activation and downstream gene transcription [6]. As the eukaryotic NF-κB family of transcriptional regulators are well documented for their potent ability to drive both pro- and anti-inflammatory cellular immune responses during microbe-host interaction, we sought to better define this dichotomy [13-15].

To date, a large majority of bacterial virulence phenotypes either co-opt NF-κB repressors or directly target NF-κB pathway components using virulence factors (general review [15,16]). Generally, upon sensing of inflammatory molecules, such as cytokines (IL-1β or TNFα), pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs; i.e. lipopolysaccharide), or danger-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs; i.e. IL-1α or nuclear protein HMGB1), NF-κB subunits are rapidly activated by phosphorylation on serine residues (S536 and S276). Simultaneously, NF-κB dimers are released from their inhibitory IkB proteins and translocated to the nucleus for additional modification. Ultimately, this process leads to the binding of activated dimers to cognate NF-κB DNA motifs, thereby inducing NF-κB dependent gene transcription. NF-κB activation is tightly controlled for precise and rapid induction, but also for prompt repression. NF-κB dimers can be repressed through extraction, sequestration, and degradation from within the nucleus, while in parallel blocking cytoplasmic activation and promoting transcription of negative regulators [17,18,20,22-26]. However, in contrast to the myriad of studies on activators only a few negative regulators of NF-κB and their pathways have been documented.

COMMD (copper metabolism gene MURR1 domain)[27] proteins are among the select few known negative regulators of NF-κB [25,27-32]. There are ten members of the COMMD family, all of which, interact with NF-κB to regulate signaling. The best-studied architype member, COMMD1, upon stimulation by TNF will lead to extraction of p65 from chromatin, followed by ubiquitination and

proteasomal degradation. This process functions independently of NF-κB nuclear translocation and
IkBa, but through association with Cullin proteins, is able to terminate NF-κB signaling [25,27,29-35]. For the
other COMMD proteins, however, neither their functional activity, their mechanism of NF-κB
repression, or their interacting partners, outside of cullins, are known.

Here, we demonstrate that a pathogenic TIGR4 pneumococcal strain [6], in contrast to a
commensal-like 6B ST90 isolate [6], represses phosphorylation and activation of NF-κB p65. In fact,
TIGR4 infection leads to specific degradation of p65 in airway epithelial cells, even upon stimulation
with a strong inflammatory agonist, IL-1β. We performed an interactome of p65 and show that each
pneumococcal strain interacts with diverging p65 interacting partners, revealing an original
aggrephagy mechanism involving COMMD2 and p62. Furthermore, our studies on the understudied
functionality of COMMD2 by RNAi demonstrated it is necessary in regulating host cellular immunity
both basally and during pneumococcal challenge. Finally, deeper investigation of the COMMD2
interactome in comparison to the 6B ST90 isolate and under stimulation with the potent pro-
inflammatory cytokine IL-1β revealed further specificity during TIGR4 challenge, with its COMMD2
interactome enriching for additional transcriptional and translational components. Altogether, we
report a novel mechanism of pathogenesis to degrade p65 and repress the host response that is
specifically induced by TIGR4.
91
Results:
<u>TIGR4 engages a divergent NF-κB p65 interactome in comparison to commensal-like 6B ST90.</u>
We previously showed that TIGR4, in comparison to 6B ST90 (hereafter 6B), induced a
transcriptionally different NF-kB dependent response, which was largely associated with gene
repression [6]. To understand NF-κB p65 activation differences between the invasive TIGR4 and
commensal-like 6B pneumococcal isolates we performed mass spectrometry of NF-κB p65 (Fig. 1A).
An A549 GFP-p65 cell line was challenged with either TIGR4 or 6B and 2 hrs post-challenge GFP-p65
was immunoprecipitated with a matched A549 GFP alone control for mass spectrometry interactome
analysis along with p65 posttranslational modifications (Fig. 1B; Sup. Table 1).
Analysis of the individual TIGR4 and 6B volcano plots in comparison to GFP alone showed
specific enrichment for known NF-kB p65 associated partners (blue), reflecting the robustness of our
A549 GFP-p65 cell line (Fig. 1C & D). GO ontology analysis of these individual p65 interactomes to GFP
alone showed TIGR4 enriched for cellular trafficking components along with p62/SQSTM1 (Fig. 1C;
Sup. Fig 1A), whereas the interactome of 6B reflected enrichment for classical NF-kB signaling
components and signaling processes (Fig. 1D; Sup. Fig 1B). While the overall interactomes of TIGR4
and 6B appear similar, deeper investigation revealed key differences. This agrees with our previous
findings demonstrating fine-tuning of NF-kB p65 signatures between TIGR4 and 6B was essential for
commensal-like vs. invasive host responses [6].
However, to directly investigate any divergent p65 interactors between the TIGR4 and 6B
datasets we compared the interactomes against each other (Fig. 1E). This comparison showed lower
overall association of known NF-κB partners for TIGR4 alongside significant specific enrichment for
COMMD proteins (2 & 4) and proteins associated with degradation/ubiquitin pathways (HDAC6,
UBE2C…) by GO ontology (Fig. 1E & F; Sup. Table 1) [36].
Indeed, p62 and HDAC6 are classical mediators of aggrephagy, which is a form of selective
autophagy to degrade protein aggregates [36-38]. Interestingly, it has also been shown that abnormal NF-
kB p65 activation may be a signal p62 mediated turnover [39]. Moreover, COMMD proteins, such as
COMMD2, are known to negatively regulate NF-kB family members through degradation [27,29,30,34,35,40].
Of the two COMMD proteins found in our TIGR4 dataset, COMMD2 was previously shown, by ectopic
expression, to reside in the cell cytosol and had a higher association with RelA and NF-κB1 [27,35].
Therefore, our proteomic data suggested that p65 could be targeted for degradation through an
aggrephagy pathway under TIGR4 infection conditions.
123
<u>TIGR4 differentially engages NF-κB p65 in comparison to commensal-like 6B ST90.</u>

Previously, we clearly showed commensal-like 6B pneumococcal strain activates p65 to drive a unique
inflammatory signature in comparison to a disease causing TIGR4 strain [6,41]. Interestingly, this was also
seen in kinetic NF-kB dependent gene expression profiles when comparing TIGR4 to 6B and a positive
control IL-1β [6,41]. Given our previous findings and the mass spectrometry data showing enrichment for
aggrephagy, we hypothesize that TIGR4 disrupted NF-κB activation. To directly test the NF-κB
activation hypothesis, we challenged A549 cells with either TIGR4 or 6B ST90 alone, or in combination
with IL-1β, a pro-inflammatory stimulus known to induce p65 phosphorylation of key serine residues
536 and 276 (review [23]). Cells were collected 2hr post-challenge for immunoblotting to determine the
total levels of p65 and phosphorylated p65. The ratio of phos-S536 to total p65 between TIGR4 and
6B (± IL-1β) against the IL-1β control showed decreased levels, whereas the ratio of phos-S276 to total
p65 showed minimal differences (Fig. 2A – C). Curiously, for all TIGR4 challenge groups total level of
p65 was significantly reduced (pV ≤ 0.01) compared to uninfected, IL-1β or 6B exposed cells (Fig. 2B).
Thus, we compared phosphorylated p65 S536 and S276 to actin in order to determine whether TIGR4
challenge reduced their total cellular pool. Indeed, from this analysis it was clear that TIGR4 in
comparison to 6B, reduced the total cellular amount of S536 p65 and not S276 (Sup. Fig. 2 A & B).
Moreover, through cross-comparison between TIGR4 and 6B (± IL-1β) a trend emerged that either
TIGR4 condition reduced total p65 S536 or S276 amounts, with the most substantial difference being
on levels of p65 S536 (Sup. Fig. 2 A & B). Next, we tested whether TIGR4 challenge also lowered the
level of p65 S536 phosphorylation in primary human nasal epithelial cells, since *S. pneumoniae* is an
opportunistic respiratory pathogen that primarily colonizes first the upper airway epithelial cells. Our
results showed a comparable trend for TIGR4 (± IL-1β) in comparison to uninfected, IL-1β or 6B.
Importantly in TIGR4 lysates the total levels of p65, S536 and S276 were decreased in comparison to
uninfected, IL-1β and 6B groups (Sup. Fig. 2C). Altogether, these data clearly indicated that TIGR4
challenge reduced total amounts of p65, phos-S536 and phos-S276, which primarily affected the ratio
of phos-S536 to total p65, and aligned well with the interactome data.
As p65 phos-S536 is a marker reflecting p65 nuclear translocation (review [23]), our observations
that TIGR4 challenge resulted in significant difference in the S536 / p65 ratio raised the possibility that
TIGR4 challenge induced differential nuclear localization kinetics in comparison to 6B. To assess this
we completed time course microscopy of A549 cells to evaluate nuclear S536 levels by
immunofluorescence, as this reflects p65 translocation post liberation from the cytoplasmic NEMO
complex (review [23]). For this, we segmented on cellular nuclei (Draq5) and quantified nuclear p65 S536
intensity (Fig. 2E & F). Our kinetics show nuclear S536 profile between TIGR4 and 6B differs. TIGR4
leads to a slow and modest increase starting at 10 minutes and peaks at 90 mins before coming back
down. In contrast 6B kinetics mirror the positive control, IL-1β, with a rapid increase by 10 minutes
followed by a gradual decline (Fig. 2E & F). When A549 are challenged with either TIGR4 or 6B in
combination with IL-1β, the levels of nuclear S536 increase rapidly for both, similarly to IL-1β alone.
These data supported differences observed by immunoblot, whilst suggesting that TIGR4 (± IL-1β) was
triggering aberrant and low level p65 activation in comparison to IL-1β and 6B.
Since we previously showed that TIGR4 alone, in comparison to 6B and IL-1β, drove minimal
NF-kB p65 dependent gene expression kinetically [6,41], we tested if IL-1β at the time of challenge could
restore expression profiles to TIGR4. Total RNA was periodically collected from A549 cells out to 120
minutes post challenge with TIGR4 (± IL-1β) and IL-1β alone. Relative expression was determined for
CFS2 and PTGS2 (COX-2) against uninfected/untreated controls at each time point. TIGR4 in
comparison with IL-1β alone did not lead to activation of any of the genes out to 2h post challenge,
which aligns with our previous findings [6] (Sup. Fig. 2D & E). Furthermore, under conditions where IL-
1β was added during TIGR4 challenge, there was both a delay and a repression of these transcripts in
comparison to IL-1β alone.
Transcriptional activation by p65 requires its binding to cognate kappa-binding sites at the
chromatin level. Therefore, we evaluated levels of chromatin bound p65 at the locus of the NF-κB
dependent gene *PTGS2* and *CSF2* as these two genes had striking transcriptional profiles. Chromatin
was collected from A549 cells 2 hrs post-challenge with TIGR4 (± IL-1β) and the recovery of p65

quantified against uninfected and IL-1β controls by ChIP-qPCR targeting kappa-binding sites upstream
of the *PTGS2* and *CSF2* transcriptional start site (Sup. Fig. 2F - H). For both genes TIGR4 challenged
cells resulted in less than 5% recovery of p65. This stands in contrast to the three-fold higher p65
recovery in IL-1β alone (Sup. Fig. 2G & H). Interestingly, in the TIGR4 + IL-1β condition p65 recovery
was comparable to IL-1β alone (Sup. Fig. 2G & H). Therefore, the lack of p65 driven transcription under
TIGR4 challenge is intrinsically due to the absence of p65 at the chromatin. Altogether, these results,
in combination with our previous findings, show that TIGR4, in contrast to the IL-1β, is driving
dysfunctional p65 signaling [6,41].
184
<u>Blocking autophagy increases cytoplasmic COMMD2, p62 and p65 levels.</u>
To study the localization of COMMD2, we generated a COMMD2 cell line. Strikingly, upon
TIGR4 challenge of the GFP-COMMD2, we observed by microscopy that TIGR4 drove COMMD2
localization to the nucleus. COMMD2 is an otherwise cytoplasmic protein containing two nuclear
export signals [34,35,43]. We confirmed this translocation by immunoblotting GFP-COMMD2 cell
fractionations obtained from cells challenged with TIGR4 (± IL-1β) alongside from uninfected and IL-
1β controls (Sup. Fig. 3A – C). Cells treated with IL-1β or uninfected had 20% COMMD2 in the nucleus,
in contrast to that of TIGR4 (± IL-1β) which showed 80% of COMMD2 was nuclear (Sup. Fig. 3B). Finally,
we tested if the commensal-like strain 6B ST90 could also induce COMMD2 nuclear localization.
Immunoblotting of cell fractions of the GFP-COMMD2 we show 6B ST90 was incapable of triggering
nuclear localization of COMMD2 (Sup. Fig. 3C). Thus, these data demonstrate TIGR4 specifically
triggers COMMD2 nuclear localization.
Using the COMMD2 cell line, we tested the effect of blocking aggrephagy with Bafilomycin A1
on the levels of p65, p62 and COMMD2, 2 hrs post-challenge with either IL-1β or TIGR4 (± IL-1β; MOI
20) using confocal microscopy (Fig. 3A – F; rep. images Sup. Fig. 4 p65 & Sup. Fig. 5 p62). Baf. A1
treatment had minimal effect on total or nuclear COMMD2 for uninfected and IL-1β, whereas TIGR4
(± IL-1β) stimulation significantly (pV ≤ 0.001) increased total COMMD2 (Fig. 3 A &B). Interestingly,
there was a slight inverse decrease in TIGR4 (± IL-1β) nuclear COMMD2 – strongly supporting a role
for aggrephagy in cytoplasmic turnover. Similarly to COMMD2, TIGR4 (± IL-1β) challenged cells treated
with Baf. A1 displayed an increase in p62, and restored p65 levels comparable to uninfected controls
(Fig. 3C - F). Moreover, in Baf. A1 treated cells challenged with TIGR4 the area of p65 and p62 puncta
increased, which is a conventional phenotype associated with blocked autophagosomes (Fig. 3G & H;
rep. images Sup. Fig. 4 p65 & Sup. Fig. 5 p62).
Overall, the combination of these data clearly shows TIGR4 challenge of airway epithelial cells
specifically led to COMMD2 nuclear localization and aggrephagy, a largely cytoplasmic process,
contributing to reduce the levels of p65 and COMMD2 within the cell.
211
<u>COMMD2 is associated with both p65 and p62.</u>
To further test the aggrephagy hypothesis, we wanted to determine whether COMMD2, p65
and p62 formed a complex; thus, a plausible explanation why blocking aggrephagy with Baf. A1 would
increase all three of these components. Currently, the only commercial COMMD2 antibody has limited
suitability for immunoprecipitation or immunofluorescence, thus, we used the GFP-COMMD2 cell line.
For this we challenged cells with either 6B ST90 (± IL-1β), TIGR4 (± IL-1β) or IL-1β controls for 2h and
performed immunoprecipitation of GFP-COMMD2 from cell lysates. Samples were probed for p65 or
p62 to detect interaction with COMMD2. Our results show that only under TIGR4 challenge conditions
do p65 and p62 interact with COMMD2 (Fig. 4A & B). Furthermore, upon addition of IL-1β, p65
interacts with COMMD2 to even higher levels.
To evaluate complex formation in primary cells, we collected lysates from primary nasal cells
challenged with either TIGR4 or 6B, as well as from uninfected controls. We performed p65
immunoprecipitation and tested whether TIGR4 could drive an endogenous native interaction of p65
with COMMD2 (Sup. Fig. 6A). Samples were probed for p65 and COMMD2 prior to being revealed with
the VeriBlot secondary HRP antibody. This secondary HRP antibody does not recognize denatured

heavy and light chain IgG, which would otherwise occur closely to our targets potentially masking
positive bands (65kda & 25kda). Our results showed a 4-fold increase in COMMD2 interaction with
p65 under TIGR4 challenge (Sup. Fig. 6B). However, there was a significant reduction of the detected
levels of COMMD2 and p65 under TIGR4 conditions in comparison to uninfected or 6B (Sup. Fig. 6C
&D). This is consistent with results shown above and degradation of COMMD2 and p65 by aggrephagy.
Interestingly, there was a weight shift of COMMD2 in the p65 IP, suggestive of posttranslational
modification – known to occur on COMMD proteins. Therefore, COMMD2 is a new TIGR4 induced
interacting partner of p65 and is a component of a p65-COMMD2-p62 complex.
235
COMMD2 exports p65 for lysosomal degradation.
It is known that the architype COMMD family member, COMMD1, undergoes
nucleocytoplasmic trafficking [25,35,42]. Given that aggrephagy primarily occurs in the cellular cytosol, we
reasoned that aberrantly phosphorylated p65 during TIGR4 challenge led to nuclear translocation of
COMMD2, which in turn was involved with facilitating nuclear export of these p65 complexes.
Therefore, we tested whether COMMD2 was exported through CRM1 by using the
Leptomycin B inhibitor [43]. GFP-COMMD2 cells were treated with Leptomycin B (10 nM) prior to
immunofluorescence imagining of p62 and p65. Strikingly, blocking nuclear export resulted in
COMMD2, p62 and p65 now becoming localized to the nucleus even in uninfected and IL-1β treated
cells. In fact, COMMD2 and p62 were detected within nuclear puncta (Fig. 5A) where p65 was located
(Fig. 5B). Notably, our IL-1β positive pro-inflammatory stimulus control, known to drive nuclear
translocation of p65, had a significant (pV ≤ 0.0001) increase in the nuclear level of COMMD2 and p62
in comparison to treated cells (Fig. 5C & D). These surprising data suggest that under nuclear export
blockage, which occurs with Leptomycin B treatment [43], COMMD2 and p62 are naturally recruited to
the nucleus at specific puncta through a defined process.
Interestingly, upon challenge with TIGR4, Leptomycin B treated cells displayed higher levels
of COMMD2 and p62 accumulation in the nucleus than without treatment (Fig. 5A, C & D). Thus, upon
inhibiting nuclear export of COMMD2 and p62, these proteins are no longer degraded upon infection
and accumulate in the nucleus. Although COMMD2 and p62 puncta are observed upon addition of
Leptomycin B, the substantial amount of p65 trapped within the nucleus of these cells rendered
definitive scoring of puncta and colocalization for both difficult. Due to this, we measured a tangent
line (20 μm) across observed local maxima intensity "spots" to overlay the traces of p62 and p65 with
COMMD2 in uninfected, IL-1β and TIGR4 conditions demonstrating that indeed p62 and p65
associated with COMMD2 (Fig. 5C & D). Quantification of the total nuclear COMMD2 intensity
however showed inhibition of CRM1 did not increase total levels in comparison to untreated across
all groups (Fig. 5E). Thus, Leptomycin B inhibition led to concentrated accumulation of COMMD2 into
puncta. In contrast, Leptomycin B inhibition increased both p62 and p65 nuclear levels in all conditions
compared to untreated cells (Fig. 5F & G). Furthermore, under conditions of TIGR4 + IL-1β and
Leptomycin B inhibition, we observed a significant (pV ≤ 0.0001) increase in p62 puncta compared to
TIGR4 alone (Sup. Fig. 7A & B). These data show that TIGR4 challenge leads to an active CRM1
dependent export of p65 and the COMMD2 complex.
267
The TIGR4 COMMD2 interactome is unique and enriched for NF-kB associated partners.
Our results to this point clearly show the role of COMMD2–p65 during TIGR4 bacterial
challenge is unique even with respect to IL-1β. However, to date knowledge of COMMD protein
interacting partners and biological roles are largely centered around their interactions with NF-κB
subunits and cellular processes of trafficking, proteasome degradation and transcription [25,31,44,45], with
limited understanding of their potential mechanisms or impact during bacterial infection.
To deepen our investigation of TIGR4 induced COMMD2-p65 interaction and better define a
biological role for it during bacterial challenge, we assessed the COMMD2 interactome by mass
spectrometry (Fig. 6A-D). For this we immunoprecipitated GFP-COMMD2 from A549 cells 2 hrs post-
challenge with either TIGR4, 6B ST90 or our positive inflammatory control IL-1β for comparison against

uninfected. Pointedly in this mass spectrometry study we used the cross-comparison of GFP-COMMD2
against GFP alone to control for both non-specific COMMD2 complexes and artifacts which may be
intrinsic to ectopic expression (Sup. Fig. 8A; Sup. Table 2). The results of this comparison identified
known COMMD2 associations with other COMMD proteins, Commander and Retriever complexes
(CCDC22, CDC93, VPS35L, COMMD6, COMMD2, COMMD1, COMMD4, COMMD8, COMMD9,
COMMD3 & VPS29) [46], which further strengthens the robustness of our approach.
In contrast to 6B and IL-1β volcano plots, TIGR4 prompted positive enrichment for p65 (RelA),
p62 (SQSTM1) and HDAC6, which is another aggrephagy associated protein (Fig. 6B-C). Notably, for IL-
1β, the volcano plot shows none of the significant partners of COMMD2 held any known NF-kB
association (via BioGRID) at 2hrs (Fig. 6D). Moreover, there was a 5- and 80-fold higher recovery of
significantly enriched interacting partners under the TIGR4 condition compared to 6B ST90 and IL-1β
respectively (Fig. 6B-D; Sup. Table 3). Cross comparing these targets, we discovered that 254 unique
proteins were associated with COMMD2 under TIGR4 challenge with 92 of them being also found in
our p65 interactome dataset (Fig. 6E; Sup. Table 1). Remarkably overall this unique comparison of the
COMMD2 interactome datasets clearly supported the specificity of COMMD2 – p65 (RelA) during
TIGR4 challenge.
Finally, analysis using Panther ontology protein class of the significant targets obtained from
the interactome underscored a unique TIGR4 enrichment for host metabolite and protein modifying
enzymes as well as proteins associated with translation (Fig. 6F). From the analysis we also identified
a putative COMMD2 posttranslational modification associated with ubiquitination at Lysine residue
50 (Sup. Table 2), which aligns with our previous endogenous co-immunoprecipitation of COMMD2-
p65 (Sup. Fig. 6A). Altogether, these results showed during TIGR4 challenge COMMD2 function was
specific with a potential role in host inflammatory response.
301
<u>COMMD2 is a selective negative regulator of host cellular immunity.</u>
Having previously shown TIGR4 directly represses host transcription and in particularly NF-kB
dependent targets [6,41], we speculated that COMMD2 was required to alter NF-κB p65 driven host
immunity upon stimulation with TIGR4. Thus, inhibiting COMMD2 would lead to increased cytokine
production. To our knowledge, no direct chemical inhibitors of COMMD2 exist, so we used RNAi to
knockdown COMMD2 and p62 in primary human nasal epithelial cells (Sup. Fig. 9A-C). Whereas both
siRNAs to COMMD2 or their mixture resulted in 50-60% reduction, a single siRNA to p62 reduced the
target >70% (Sup. Fig. 9C). While knockdown of COMMD2 was not ideal it was consistently greater
with the second siRNA, thus we proceeded with bacterial challenge suspecting this minimal reduction
in COMMD2, in comparison to scrambled or p62, would be enough to discern roles for COMMD2
and/or p62 upon the analytes within our Luminex panel.
Following 48hrs of either Scrambled (Scr), COMMD2 or p62 RNAi primary human nasal cells
were challenged for 4 hrs with either IL-1β, TIGR4 or 6B (± IL-1β), with post-challenge supernatants
collected for Luminex (27-plex; COMMD2 Fig. 7A; Scr Sup. Fig. 9D; p62 Sup. Fig. 9E). Strikingly
COMMD2 RNAi resulted in selective elevation of multiple targets, even in the uninfected group, with
several being significantly higher than their respected scr control (pV reported; Fig. 7A). These analytes
- CCL20, CXCL1, CXCL10, IL-1ra, IL-8 and PTX3 - either border or were significantly different with
respect to each sample scr control. Interestingly, CCL20, CXCL1, CXCL10, IL-1ra, and IL-8 were also
elevated in the p62 RNAi data (Sup. Fig. 9E). Given this surprising result, we determined whether
COMMD2 RNAi impacted uninfected, IL-1β, TIGR4 or 6B equally. For this we first compared the
absolute difference of COMMD2 RNAi to scr (Fig. 7B). Our results showed that while on average TIGR4
challenge of COMMD2 RNAi cells increased all 27 analytes in comparison to 6B and uninfected cells
these elevated levels remained comparable to the IL-1β treated control. However, to assess the
degree in which COMMD2 or p62 RNAi affected TIGR4 or 6B we compared each RNAi condition to the
scr control (Fig. 7B). This comparison clearly showed knockdown of COMMD2 and p62 during TIGR4
challenge had far more impact on the profiles of the 27 analyte examined than for 6B. Altogether,
these data show that: 1) COMMD2, and likely p62, have a role in regulating specific cellular immunity

molecules in uninfected cells, and 2) TIGR4 relies on both COMMD2 and p62 to alter secreted host
immunity analytes.
Due to this, we explored whether a commonality existed in predicted NF-kB p65 (RelA) binding
motifs among these targets transcriptional start site (TSS). Herein, we pulled ± 2kb surrounding the
gene TSS (UCSC genome browser) for Transcription factor Affinity Prediction (TRAP) analysis [47] and for
comparison of the NF-kB motif to the canonical motif (JASPAR). Mapping predicted NF-kB motifs from
the COMMD2 targets did reveal several. However, there was no apparent commonality in location or
binding affinity of these predicted motif sites in this small dataset (Fig. 7C). However, the NF-kB motif
consensus sequence of the small COMMD2 targets, in comparison to the canonical motif using
Weblogo [48], showed a subtle change with higher probability of G/A (pos. 3) and C/T (pos. 7; Fig. 7D).
Interestingly, p62 RNAi also resulted in selective elevation of CCL20, CXCL1, CXCL10, IL-1ra, IL-8, SPI,
CXCL2, IL-6, MMP-1 and TNFα in one or more samples (Sup. Fig. 9E). CXCL10, even in uninfected
samples, was significantly increased (p value reported) under both COMMD2 and p62 RNAi conditions,
potentially suggesting a role of each in its regulation.
Overall, these results are the first evidence that COMMD2 is indeed a selective negative
regulator of NF-kB dependent gene transcription. Moreover, analysis of the targeted genes suggests
an unknown chromatin level component in the role of COMMD2 – p65 for gene expression.
346
<u>COMMD2 nuclear translocation favors invasive pneumococcal strains.</u>
Since COMMD2 nuclear localization only occurred during TIGR4 challenge we sought to
substantiate whether key TIGR4 virulence determinants were responsible. We first investigated
whether Pneumolysin (Ply) or hydrogen peroxide production via Pyruvate oxidase (SpxB) were
responsible for COMMD2 nuclear translocation.
Herein, we challenged GFP-COMMD2 cells with the ΔPly or ΔSpxB TIGR4 mutants alongside
their parental wildtype strain (Fig. 8A). Comparing ΔSpxB to ΔPly and their parental wildtype showed
that a ΔPly mutant does not trigger translocation, whereas the ΔSpxB mutant induced a partial
phenotype with ΔSpxB increasing nuclear COMMD2 levels over ΔPly but remaining at 75-80% of
wildtype (Fig. 8B). Given this result, we tested if a functional pneumolysin pore was required. For this
we used the JWTIGR4 ΔPly W433F pore mutant [49,50]. This mutant did not induce COMMD2
translocation (Fig. 8B). Altogether we concluded that COMMD2 translocation was dependent on
Pneumolysin pore formation in combination with SpxB.
However, the ΔSpxB phenotype was puzzling as the strain retains functional native PLY yet
still has reduced COMMD2 levels in comparison to wildtype TIGR4. This disparity suggested that both
SpxB and PLY are necessary for COMMD2 nuclear accumulation under wild type conditions. We
addressed the synergy between PLY and SpxB by comparing different phenotypes using exogenous
purified Pneumolysin toxin alone or in combination with the main byproduct of SpxB, hydrogen
peroxide. We first determined the IC_{50} for hydrogen peroxide and purified Pneumolysin toxin
individually at 28.30μM and 7.10nM, respectively, however when combined the calculated IC_{50} for
hydrogen peroxide dropped to 10μM (Sup. Fig. 10A & B). These results show that the combination of
PLY and SpxB impact cellular toxicity more than with each individual component [51].
We then tested the impact of exogenous supplementation of 0 – 6.25μM hydrogen peroxide
during challenge with either a wildtype, a TIGR4 ΔSpxB, or a TIGR4 ΔSpxBΔPly mutant strain (Sup. Fig.
10D – F). Our results showed increasing concentration of exogenous hydrogen peroxide resulted in
TIGR4ΔSpxB phenocopying wildtype except at the highest concentrations, where wildtype induced
more nuclear COMMD2. There was no significant increase in nuclear COMMD2 levels for either the
TIGR4 ΔSpxBΔPly or JW TIGR4ΔPLY W433F pore mutants against their parental wildtype strains (Sup.
Fig. 10E & F). Overall, these data suggest, at least for TIGR4, that PLY and hydrogen peroxide are
mutually synergistic in driving nuclear COMMD2 levels.
Capsule is another key bacterial determinant of pneumococcus and drives many virulence
mechanisms. We therefore tested whether capsule was required for COMMD2 nuclear translocation.

By comparing a wild type (JW TIGR4) to a capsule mutant (JW TIGR4ΔCPS), we observed no difference
in their ability to induce nuclear translocation of COMMD2 (Fig. 8E).
We next assessed the association of COMMD2 nuclear localization with isolates favoring
either commensal-like/carriage (6B ST138, 11A ST6521 & 19A ST276) or invasive (1 ST304 or 1 ST306
- which harbors a non-hemolytic Pneumolysin toxin) for their capacity to drive COMMD2 nuclear
translocation. As expected, our results showed that invasive TIGR4 challenge significantly increased
nuclear COMMD2 (pV≤ 0.0001) in comparison to the commensal-like 6B ST90 isolate and uninfected
cells (Fig. 8E). Comparing the invasive serotype 1 ST304 and ST306 (non-hemolytic) isolates to TIGR4
revealed no significant differences in their capacity to induce nuclear COMMD2, whereas the
commensal-like/carriage 11A ST6521 and 19A ST276 isolates resembled 6B ST90 which did not display
COMMD2 localization (Fig. 8E). Interestingly, the two 6B strains, which only differ in their genomic
sequence rather than their capsule, were phenotypically different in their nuclear COMMD2 levels. In
contrast to 6B ST90 (Global Pneumococcal Sequence Cluster[52]; GPSC 23), 6B ST138 (GPSC 24) not only
induced significantly (pV≤ 0.05) more COMMD2 translocation in comparison with the uninfected
control but had an elevated level compared to 6B ST90 (pV = 0.07; Fig. 8E). Given this result, we
assessed whether the elevated COMMD2 levels with 6B ST138 correlated with in vivo lethality using
two challenge doses in an intranasal murine challenge model comparing 6B ST138 to TIGR4 (Fig. 8F &
Sup. Fig 10G). At the high dose 6B ST138 induced lethality to a comparable level to that of TIGR4,
which stands in contrast to our previously demonstrated findings that 6B ST90 was not lethal in this
model even at a log higher dose to that of TIGR4 [6]. Therefore, we concluded that in a dose dependent
manner challenge with 6B ST138 (GPSC 24) has higher pathogenic potential than 6B ST90 (GPSC 23),
and this correlates with the differential COMMD2 nuclear signal. Overall, the combination of these
data provides strong evidence that COMMD2 translocation is predominantly associated with
pneumococcal virulence phenotypes both in vitro and in vivo.
403
Discussion:
Cellular inflammatory response is a critical component of the host defense to bacteria. Yet,
the molecular processes that fine-tune cellular immunity cascades across the range of colonizing to
virulent bacteria are poorly understood. We show that an invasive *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 strain, which
causes symptomatic disease in murine models [6], drives a different NF-κB p65 activation profile in
comparison to a commensal-like 6B ST90 strain and IL-1β – a potent inflammatory cytokine. Our mass
spectrometry interactome and post-translational modification analysis, showed these two
pneumococcal isolates have diverging p65 interacting partners and phosphorylation status. Analysis
of these partners demonstrated that the invasive TIGR4 strain enriched for aggrephagy pathway
components and COMMD2, whereas the 6B ST90 strain did not. Through our study of COMMD2 we
show that TIGR4 triggers p65 degradation and induces a unique interaction of COMMD2 with p65 and
p62. By deeply investigating this process we discovered COMMD2 is a negative regulator of cellular
immunity and its nuclear levels associated with invasive favoring pneumococcal isolates. Altogether,
we show a bacterial pathogenesis mechanism repressing host cellular immunity through bacterial
driven degradation of NF-κB p65 via novel fine-tuning of its interacting partners.
Negative regulation of NF-κB signaling, in contrast to the breadth of knowledge on activatory
mechanisms, is poorly documented. This is in part due to the lack of identified targets and mechanisms
responsible for attenuating this signaling cascade. Of the known negative regulators, A20 (TNAIP3)
and COMMD1 are the better described with the studies using cytokine stimulation. Pointedly neither
of these proteins were found in our TIGR4 p65 interactome, which suggests that COMMD2
recruitment during bacterial infection is specific. A20 is primarily a deubiquitinase whose transcription
is NF-κB activation dependent. A20 functions in a negative feedback loop to deubiquintinate NEMO,
which results in its stabilization with the IKK complex to restore NF-κB sequestration in the cytoplasm.
This ultimately terminates the downstream canonical NF-κB signaling cascade of inflammatory
response [18,25,53]. In contrast, COMMD1 transcription is NF-κB independent, and facilitates p65
termination by CRM1 mediated export and translocation of p65 to the proteasome for degradation,

while in parallel occupying the formerly p65 bound kappa-binding site at specific gene promoters
[27,29,30,32,34,35] [33]. It was put forth that the diversity of potential COMMD and NF-κB assemblies respond
to an array of physiological stimuli to fine-tune cellular immunity positioning this family of proteins as
powerful selective negative regulators of NF-κB signaling. Interestingly, our post-translational
modification analysis of COMMD2 discovered a ubiquitinated peptide associated with a lysine at
residue 50, which aligns with our results indicating selective degradation of COMMD2-p65-p62
complex. The COMMD2 negative feedback loop on p65 that we uncover here may represent, even in
a cellular state without bacterial infection, a precise mechanism to terminate or shift a given p65
dependent transcription repertoire.
Given the vast array of post-translational modifications on p65 and other NF-κB subunits
across differential stimulations has given rise to the "NF-κB barcode hypothesis", which suggests that
distinct patterns are linked to how inflammatory gene transcription occurs [54,55]. Supporting this is our
exploratory mass spectrometry of p65 phosphorylation, which identified serine 45 (S45) as the only
enriched phosphorylated mark during TIGR4 challenge. This mark has previously been shown to
negatively regulate p65, although the mechanism is unknown [56]. Lanucara et al., showed that a
phosphomimetic mutant of S45 prevented IL-6 transcription and p65 binding to the IL-6 promoter
after 3 hours of TNFα stimulation [56]. It remains to be evaluated how this modification affects
COMMD2-p62 degradation of p65 or upon repressing p65 host transcription. Notably our previous
studies showed TIGR4 challenge induces de-phosphorylation of histone H3 serine 10, which is an
essential histone modification associated with inflammatory gene transcription [41,57]. Understanding
how this event relates to p65 turnover and COMMD2 may shed light on essential chromatin
remodeling dynamics needed to precisely regulate NF-κB p65 DNA binding, extraction and
transcription termination not only to pneumococci but also under inflammatory stimuli. Excitingly,
the commensal-like 6B ST90 does not induce phosphorylation of this S45 residue. Instead, this strain
leads to phosphorylation on S203 in addition to S536 and S276. These marks may be critical for the
upregulation of the histone demethylase KDM6B, which we previously showed was required for
bacterial containment in the upper respiratory tract [6]. Future investigations here may be the best
positioned to decipher outstanding questions on how bacteria engage the non-canonical NF-κB
pathway and how KDM6B is selectively recruited to gene targets during bacterial infection. Whether
differential phosphorylation of p65 is the determining factor in the host response to different strains
of pneumococcus remains to be determined. It is tempting to speculate that posttranslational
modifications of p65 may represent markers of either host response to commensal or to invasive
bacteria.
To date our work is the first to show that COMMD2 mediates p65 turnover through p62 and
aggrephagy, a selective form of autophagy, while simultaneously repressing host cellular immunity.
TIGR4, along with other pneumococcal isolates associated with higher virulence potential, triggered
COMMD2 nuclear accumulation. These findings suggest that nuclear localization of COMMD2 could
be a marker of virulence, distinguishing the host response from commensal-like isolates. We show
that COMMD2 nuclear translocation was independent of the TIGR4 capsule, but dependent on a
tandem function of Pneumolysin (Ply) and Pyruvate oxidase (SpxB), as a ΔPly mutant shows no
COMMD2 nuclear accumulation, but a ΔSpxB mutant induced partial COMMD2 translocation with a
distinct phenotype. Our efforts titrating hydrogen peroxide, the product of *SpxB*, with the TIGR4
ΔSpxBΔPly or JW TIGR4ΔPLY W433F pore mutants revealed at least for TIGR4, PLY and hydrogen
peroxide are mutually synergistic in driving nuclear COMMD2 levels and strongly support that
Pneumolysin may be "masking" other bacterial effectors. Given the documented influence of
Pneumolysin toxin, like other CDC toxins, on host plasma membrane, the known differences in
Pneumolysin alleles [58], and the known role of COMMD proteins, along with CCDC22 and CCDC93 (the
CCC complex), in phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate (PI3P) equilibrium within endosomes [44] raises the
possibility that combinations of Pneumolysin toxin alleles with hydrogen peroxide may alter host
membrane compositions. Deeper comparative studies between pneumococcal isolates and virulence
associated bacterial protein mutants may likely identify new bacterial proteins that alter host

response. Moreover, our comparison of two serotype 6B isolates varying in sequence type and Global
Pneumococcal Sequence Cluster resulted in different COMMD2 nuclear amounts which correlated
with increased 6B ST138 (GPSC 24) dose dependent lethality during intranasal murine challenge. Thus,
we propose invasive favoring pneumococcal isolates, as opposed to commensal-like ones, shape host
cellular immunity, and potentially disease onset and lethality, through potent shifts in host
transcription factor partners.
Tuning cellular immunity is fundamental for processes of airway epithelial cells exposed to
pneumococcus [7,59]. The pro-inflammatory cytokines, TNF-α and IL-1β, are major cytokines necessary
for neutrophil recruitment and are found in bronchoalveolar lavage fluid of animals challenged with
pneumococcal isolates [7,59,60]. However, a study showed that isolated murine lung epithelial cells
exposed to serotypes 19 and 3 failed to induce p65 (RelA) nuclear translocation in comparison to TNFα
and IL-1β cytokine treatment alone [7]. Indeed during respiratory infection with other microbes [61,62], a
balance is needed between pro-inflammatory responses and negative regulation to ensure minimal
tissue damage from the influx of neutrophils into the airway tissues [60]. Airway epithelial cells play a
crucial role in both situations by regulating neutrophil recruitment and promoting epithelial repair
pathways leading to tissue resilience and resolution of inflammation [59,60,63,64]. With invasive
pneumococci actively antagonizing the ability of airway epithelial cells to mount a cellular immune
response, we hypothesize an amplifying and runaway inflammatory cascade is created in latter stages
of infection where neutrophil influx is detrimental [59,64,65]. This could lead to exacerbated and severe
pneumonia with excessive tissue damage, allowing pneumococcus to transmigrate to deeper tissues.
We put forth that COMMD2, or combinations of COMMD proteins are modulators of bacterial driven
inflammatory processes and may represent a therapeutic target to circumvent collateral tissue
damage.
In conclusion, our study shows a new regulatory role for COMMD2 in restraining p65 through
aggrephagy mediated turnover triggered by bacterial interaction. We reveal this process to be specific
to invasive TIGR4 pneumococcal challenge and partially depend on pneumolysin. Further studies
characterizing both the p65 and COMMD2 interactome under bacterial challenge with isolates
representing divergent pneumococcal host interaction may identify new processes exploited at the
microbe-host interface to regulate cellular immunity.
510
Materials and methods:
Bacteria strains, growth, and enumeration. Pneumococcal isolates of 6B ST90 CC156 lineage F (ST90),
6B ST138, 11A ST6521, 19A ST276, 1 ST304 or 1 ST306, and TIGR4 were obtained from either the
Centre National de Référence des Pneumocoques (Emmanuelle Varon; Paris, France) or (Thomas
Kohler, Universität Greifswald) respectively. JW TIGR4 and ΔW433F pore mutants were a gift from Dr.
Jeffrey N. Weiser [49]. The TIGR4 ΔSpxB and TIGR4 ΔSpxBΔPly mutants were generated previously [41].
Experimental starters were made from master glycerol stocks struck on 5% Columbia blood agar plates
(Biomerieux Ref# 43041) and grown overnight at 37°C with 5% CO_2 prior to outgrowth in Todd-Hewitt
(BD) or Brain heart infusion (BHI) broth as previously described [6]. Inocula were prepared from frozen
experimental stocks grown for 3 – 4 hrs to midlog phase in BHI at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in closed falcon
tubes. Bacterial cultures were pelleted at 1,500xg for 10 mins at room temperature (RT), washed in
DPBS, and concentrated in 1mL DPBS prior to dilution at desired CFU/mL using 0.6 OD_{600} /mL
conversion factors in desired cell culture media [6]. Bacterial counts were determined by serial dilution
plating on 5% Columbia blood agar plates and grown overnight at 37°C with 5% CO_2.
525
Cell culture conditions and in vitro challenge. A549 human epithelial cells (ATCC ref# CCL-185) and
A549 stable cell lines were maintained in F12K media (Gibco) supplemented with 1x GlutaMax (Gibco)
and 10% heat inactivated fetal calf serum (FCS) at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Primary human nasal epithelial
cells (HNEpC; PromoCell ref# C-12620; lot# 475Z023) were cultured and maintained in PneumaCult™-
Ex Plus Medium (STEMCELL Technologies cat# 16237380). All cell lines were discarded after passage
4. For challenge studies cells were plated in tissue culture treated plates at $2x10^5$ cells (6well; for 72

hrs), $5x10^4$ cells (24well; for 48 hrs), or $1x10^4$ cells (96well; for 48 hrs) [66]. Bacterial inocula (Multiplicity
of infection (MOI) 20) were diluted in cell culture media, added to cells, and bacterial-epithelial cell
contact synchronized by centrifugation at 200xg for 10 mins at RT. Plates were moved to 37°C with
5% CO_2 for 2 hrs and processed as desired for experiment termination. For inhibitor studies, cell
culture media was aspirated, and replaced with filter sterilized culture media containing either
Bafilomycin A1 400 nM final concentration (Sigma ref# SML1661) or Leptomycin B 10 nM final
concentration (Sigma ref# L2913) for 3 hrs prior to bacterial addition. Human IL-1β (Enzo Life Sciences
ref# ALX-522-056) was used at 10 ng/mL final concentration in cell culture media.

<u>RNA isolation and RT-qPCR.</u> Total RNA isolated and extracted using TRIzol (Life technologies
ref#15596-026) method as per manufacturer's recommendations. Recovered RNA (5 μg) was
converted to cDNA with Super Script IV as per manufacturer's instructions, diluted to 20 ng/μL in
molecular grade water and 1 μL used for Sybr Green reactions as per manufacturer's instructions on
a BioRad CFX384 (BioRad). Relative expression was calculated by ΔΔCt method to *GapDH* [67] with RT-
PCR primers in Sup. Table 3 [6].

<u>ChIP and ChIP-qPCR.</u> Detailed ChIP buffer components and procedure were completed as previously
reported [66]. Briefly, $8x10^6$ A549 cells were cross-linked with 1% formaldehyde at room temperature
and quenched with 130 mM glycine. Chromatin was generated from the collected cell pellets by lysis
and sonication in chromatin shearing buffer to a size of 200-900bp. ChIP grade antibody to p65 (L8F6)
(CST ref #6956) was used at manufacturer's recommended concentrations and bound to DiaMag
beads (diagenode ref # C03010021-150) overnight with gentle rotation. Quantified chromatin was
diluted to 10 μg per immunoprecipitation and added to antibody bound DiaMag beads overnight with
gentle rotation and 8% of input reserved. Beads were washed as previously described [66], and DNA
purified using phenol-chloroform extraction followed by isopropanol precipitation. Recovered DNA
suspended in molecular grade water was used for Sybr Green reactions (1 μL) on a BioRad CFX384
(BioRad). ChIP-qPCR primers (50-150 bp; 60 °C max melt temperature) were designed to span the NF-
κB sites of interest within the promoters of *CFS2* or *PTGS2* [68]. % recovery was calculated as 2 raised
to the adjusted input Ct minus IP Ct multiplied by 100. ChIP qPCR primers listed in Sup. Table 3.

<u>Plasmids, molecular cloning and stable cell line generation.</u> All plasmids and primers are listed in Sup.
Table 3 . Routine cloning was carried out by in vivo assembly [69,70]. Briefly, primers were designed with
a 15-20 bp overlap to amplify nucleic acid targets using Phusion Plus polymerase (Thermo ref# F630S).
Correct sized bands were excised and nucleic acid extracted by "Freeze and squeeze" [71,72]. Herein,
0.7% - 1% agarose gel fragments were frozen for 5 mins on dry ice and centrifuged for 15 mins at
>21,000 xg with the supernatant collected – the process was completed two additional times.
Collected supernatant containing nucleic acid was then purified using phenol-chloroform extraction
followed by isopropanol precipitation and suspension in molecular grade water. Collected nucleic acid
was quantified spectrophotometrically using a NanoDrop and mixed at 3:2 (vector: insert) in 10 μl and
added to chemically competent E. coli MC1061 or DH5α for transformation. After 1 hr incubation on
ice bacteria outgrowth was done for 1 hr in Luria-Bertani (BD) prior to selection on LB agar containing
Ampicillin antibiotic (100 μg/mL). All plasmids were isolated with the QIAprep Spin Miniprep Kit
(Qiagen ref# 27106) and eluted in molecular grade water (endotoxin free) as per manufacturer's
instructions. A549 stable cell lines were generated using the transposon-based sleeping beauty system
[73,74]. A549 cells were plated in tissue culture treated plates at $2x10^5$ cells (6well) one day prior to
transfection with 2 μg plasmid DNA + 150 ng SB100 transposase DNA. After transfection, cells were
selected with 1 mg/mL Geneticin (Thermo ref# 10131035) for 7 days, with media exchanged on days
1, 3, 5 & 7. Cells were collected with Trypsin 0.25% EDTA (Thermo ref# 25200056) and two-way serial
diluted in a 96 well tissue culture plate for another 7 – 14 days with 1 mg/mL Geneticin to select
colonies that were phenotypically bright were mixed and expanded prior to FACS sorting to ensure
purity, and uniform expression.

<u>Immunoblots and quantification.</u> Whole cell lysates were obtained by RIPA lysis (10 mM Tris HCL pH
7.5, 150 mM EDTA, 0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100 & 1% Deoxycholate) supplemented with inhibitor
cocktail (1X PhosSTOP, 10 mM sodium butyrate, 0.2 mM PMSF). Samples combined with 5x with
Laemmli buffer [75], sonicated for 5 mins in a ultrasonic water bath, boiled at 98°C (dry bath) for 10 mins
and frozen at -20°C. Whole cell lysates were ran on 4 – 20% pre-cast polyacrylamide SDS PAGE gels
(BioRad), transferred to PVDF membrane (BioRad TransBlot) and blocked 1 hr in 5% BSA TBST at room
temperature. Membranes were probed overnight at 4°C in 5% BSA TBST with primary antibody to p65
(CST ref #6956 or CST ref# 8242), p65 phosphorylation at serine 536 (CST ref# 3033), p65
phosphorylation at serine 276 (abcam ref# ab183559), SQSTM1 / p62 antibody [EPR4844] (abcam ref#
ab109012) or actin AC-15 monoclonal (Sigma ref# A5441) as per manufacturer's recommendations.
COMMD2 immunoblots were blocked for 1 hr at room temperature in 3% milk TBST and probed
overnight at 4°C with the primary antibody (Sigma ref# HPA044190) suspended in 3% milk TBST.
Appropriate secondary-HRP conjugated antibodies in 5% Milk TBST were incubated for 1 hr at room
temperature prior to development with clarity ECL (BioRad) developing reagents with a ChemiDoc
Touch (BioRad). Band intensity was quantified by Image Lab (BioRad) with linear intensity values $\log_{10}$
transformed and normalized to actin prior to any additional ratio metric comparisons.
599
<u>siRNA and transfection.</u> Primary human nasal cells were seeded at $2x10^4$ cells per well in a 96well plate
the day before RNAi transfection. For RNAi 1 µl of 2 µM Silencer Select siRNA stock for either COMMD2
(Ambion ID# s27490; or Ambion ID# s27488) or SQSTM1 (p62; Ambion ID# s16961) was diluted with
9 µl Opti-MEM (Thermo cat# 31985062) and mixed with 10 µl of 0.003% (vol/vol) Lipofectamine
RNAiMAX (Thermo cat# 13778030)/ Opti-MEM. For COMMD2 siRNA mix, a final 2 µM concentration
of siRNA was respected. Complexes were formed during 15 min incubation at room temperature prior
to 20 µl of mixture added to previously seeded cells. 96well plate was incubated for an additional 72
hrs 37°C with 5% CO_2 prior to challenge studies.
608
<u>Cell fractionation.</u> Fractionation was performed as previously described as previously described [66].
Faction lysates were combined with 5x with Laemmli buffer [75], sonicated for 5 mins in a ultrasonic
water bath, boiled at 98°C (dry bath) for 10 mins and frozen at -20°C. Samples were ran on either 10%
(for GFP-COMMD2) or 12% (for fraction quality controls) polyacrylamide SDS PAGE gels (BioRad),
transferred to PVDF membrane (BioRad TransBlot), blocked 1 hr in 5% BSA TBST at room temperature.
Primary antibody in 5% BSA TBST to GFP (abcam ref# ab290), GapDH (abcam ref# ab8245), or histone
H4 (abcam ref# ab177840) was completed overnight at 4°C. After 3x 10 min washes in TBST
appropriate secondary-HRP conjugated antibodies in 5% Milk TBST were incubated for 1 hr at room
temperature and developed with a ChemiDoc Touch (BioRad) as described above.
618
<u>Immunofluorescence microscopy and Cellprofiler analysis.</u> For microscopy cells were seeded either on
acid washed and UV treated coverslips (24well) or directly in 96well plates as described above. Two
hours post-challenge media was aspirated, cells washed in DPBS, and fixed with 2.5% PFA for 10 mins
at RT. Fixed cells were blocked and permeabilized overnight in 5% BSA 0.5% Tween20 at 4°C. Primary
antibody to p65 (CST ref #6956 or CST ref# 8242), or p62 (SQSTM1; abcam ref# ab109012) were diluted
at 1:1,000 in 5% BSA 0.5% Tween20, for time course of p65 phosphorylation at serine 536 cells were
stained with MA5-15160 (Thermo; 1:1000), and incubated overnight at 4°C. Cells were washed 3x 10
mins at RT in PBS + 0.1% Tween20 prior to 1 hr incubation at 1:1,000 dilution of either Alexa Fluor 594
or Alexa Fluor 647 secondary antibody. Nuclei were stained with 10 ng/mL final concentration of
Hoechst 33342 or Draq5 for 15 mins. Coverslips were rinsed in PBS and molecular grade water prior
to mounting with Fluoromount-G Mounting Medium (INTERCHIM). Confocal microscopy images were
acquired on a Nikon TiE inverted microscope with an integrated Perfect Focus System (TI-ND6-PFS
Perfect Focus Unit) and a Yokogawa Confocal Spinning disk Unit (CSU-W1). Nine images per well were
acquired using a 20X air objective (NA 0.75) at a step-size of 0.9µm in z-plane. Deconvoluted

epifluorescent images were acquired on a Cytation 5 (BioTek) using a 20X air objective (NA 0.75) with
a grid of 3 x 3 (9 images en total).
635
Images were processed for background using Fiji [76], and segmented using Cell Profiler [77-79]. Briefly,
image analysis consisted of sequential modules to 'IdentifyPrimaryObjects' based on channel signal
for nuclei (Hoechst 33342 or Draq5 stain), p65 (Alexa594), or p62 (Alexa594). This was followed by
'IdentifySecondaryObjects' for the GFP-COMMD2 signal via propagation of identified nuclei. Objects
were related to each other to maintain cohesion between identified nuclei, cell and cellular contents
(p65 or p62). For puncta, the additional module, 'EnhanceorSupressFeatures' with 'Speckles', was
used. This used a global threshold strategy with Otsu threshold method and a 2% minimum boundary
to identify puncta contained within the segmented nuclei.
644
Immunoprecipitation. Cells were lysed in 250 μL of RIPA lysis (10 mM Tris HCL pH 7.5, 150 mM EDTA,
0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100 & 1% Deoxycholate) supplemented with a protease mixture inhibitor
(Roche Complete, EDTA free). Lysates were either immunoprecipitated using GFP-trap agarose beads
(ChromoTek ref# gta-10) or with DynaBeads Protein G (Thermo ref# 10004D). For GFP-p65 and GFP-
COMMD2 the samples were immunoprecipitated as per manufacturer's instructions with the elution
was recovered in either 5x with Laemmli buffer [75] and boiled at 98°C (dry bath) for 10 mins, or left in
Trypsin digest buffer (see LC-MS/MS Mass-spectrometry and analysis). All samples were frozen at -
20°C. For endogenous samples the lysates were incubated on a rotating wheel at 4 °C for 20 min before
adding 1 mL of dilution buffer (150 mM NaCl and 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 supplemented with Protease
mixture inhibitor) to reduce the detergent final concentration below 0.1%. The lysates were then
centrifuged at 10,000 × g for 10 min. For p65 IP the lysates were then incubated with 2 μg of antibody
CST ref #6956) at 4 °C overnight before adding 50 μL of Dynabeads for 1 hr. The beads were then
washed three times in 0.01%Tween20 PBS before adding 20 μL of Laemmli buffer supplemented with
2% β-mercaptoethanol and boiled for 5 min.
659
Exogenous Hydrogen peroxide and Pneumolysin toxin challenges. For viability studies titrations of
hydrogen peroxide (9 M stock, Thermo ref# 411881000; 0 μM – 240 μM) and Pneumolysin toxin
(50μM stock; gift Dr. T. Mitchell; final 0 nM – 50 nM), concentrations were serial diluted into cell
culture media. After 2 hrs of incubation samples were PFA fixed and nuclei stained with Draq5 (Thermo
ref# 62252) to determine viability. Bacterial challenge experimental starters of TIGR4 ΔSpxB, TIGR4
ΔSpxBΔPly, JW TIGR4 and ΔW433F were grown and diluted in cell culture media as in "Bacterial strains,
growth and enumeration". These inocula were combined with cell culture media containing indicated
hydrogen peroxide concentrations (0 μM – 6.25 μM) and added to cells seeded in 96 well plates. After
2 hrs cells were PFA fixed and COMMD2 nuclear levels determined as in "Immunofluorescence
microscopy and Cellprofiler analysis".
670
Cytokine quantification by Luminex. Supernatants we collected from primary nasal epithelial cells
seeded in a 96well plate as previously described. For this 200 μl of supernatant per well was collected
2 hrs post-challenge with IL-1β or bacteria, centrifuged in a 96well U-bottom plate for 10 min at 1,500
x g to pellet bacteria and cellular debris. 120 μl of cleared supernatant was collected into a 96well flat
bottom plate and frozen at -20°C until use. Secretion in the supernatant of 29 proteins (Human
Magnetic Luminex Assays, R&D Systems) was measured following manufacturer's instructions using
Luminex xMAP technology. Briefly, samples and standards were incubated with capture beads for 2
hours at RT. After washing, detection antibody mix was added and incubated for 1 hour at RT. After
washing, streptavidin-PE was added and incubated for 30 minutes at RT. Samples were acquired on a
Bioplex 200 (Biorad). Analysis was performed using the Bioplex Manager Software. Concentration of
each analyte was calculated using a 5-PL regression curve.
682

<u>LC-MS/MS Mass-spectrometry and analysis.</u> For label-free quantitative proteomic analysis of GFP-p65
and GFP-COMMD2 the respected A549 cell lines were plated in 6well tissue culture plates, and
challenged with bacteria for 2hrs as described above. One plate (~5x10^7 cells) per condition was
harvested using RIPA lysis and immunoperciptated with GFP-trap agarose beads (ChromoTek ref# gta-
10) as per manufacturer's instructions. Three or four independent biological replicates were prepared
and analyzed for each condition. Prior to on-bead Trypsin digestion, the samples were washed 3x in
trypsin digest buffer (20 mM Tris.HCl pH 8.0, 2 mM CaCl$_2$).

For pull down of GFP-p65 on bead digestion was performed strictly as described by Chromotek. Briefly,
beads were suspended in digestion buffer (Tris 50 mM pH 7.5, urea 2 M, 1 mM DTT and 5 µg.µl of
trypsin (Promega)) for 3 min at 30°C. Supernatants were transfer to new vials and beads were washed
twice using (Tris 50 mM pH 7.5, urea 2 M and iodoacetamide 5 mM). All washes were pulled and
incubated at 32°C for overnight digestion in the dark. Peptides were purified using C18 stage tips
protocol [80].

LC-MS/MS analysis of digested peptides was performed on an Orbitrap Q Exactive Plus mass
spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen) coupled to an EASY-nLC 1200 (Thermo Fisher
Scientific). A home-made column was used for peptide separation (C$_{18}$ 30 cm capillary column picotip
silica emitter tip (75 µm diameter filled with 1.9 µm Reprosil-Pur Basic C$_{18}$-HD resin, (Dr. Maisch GmbH,
Ammerbuch-Entringen, Germany)). It was equilibrated and peptide were loaded in solvent A (0.1 %
FA) at 900 bars. Peptides were separated at 250 nl.min^{-1}. Peptides were eluted using a gradient of
solvent B (80% ACN, 0.1 % FA) from 3% to 31% in 45 min, 31% to 60% in 17 min, 60% to 90% in 5 min
(total length of the chromatographic run was 82 min including high ACN level step and column
regeneration). Mass spectra were acquired in data-dependent acquisition mode with the XCalibur 2.2
software (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen) with automatic switching between MS and MS/MS scans
using a top 12 method. MS spectra were acquired at a resolution of 70000 (at m/z 400) with a target
value of 3×10^6 ions. The scan range was limited from 300 to 1700 m/z. Peptide fragmentation was
performed using higher-energy collision dissociation (HCD) with the energy set at 27 NCE. Intensity
threshold for ions selection was set at 1×10^6 ions with charge exclusion of z = 1 and z > 7. The MS/MS
spectra were acquired at a resolution of 17500 (at m/z 400). Isolation window was set at 1.6 Th.
Dynamic exclusion was employed within 30 s. Recorded spectra were searched with MaxQuant
(version 1.5.3.8) using the Andromeda search engine[81] against a human database (74368 entries,
downloaded from Uniprot the 27th of September 2019), a Streptococcus pneumoniae R6 database
(2031 entries, downloaded from Uniprot the 1st of January 2020) and a Streptococcus pneumoniae
serotype 4 database (2115 entries, downloaded from Uniprot 1st of January 2020).

The following search parameters were applied: carbamidomethylation of cysteines was set as a fixed
modification, oxidation of methionine and protein N-terminal acetylation were set as variable
modifications. The mass tolerances in MS and MS/MS were set to 5 ppm and 20 ppm respectively.
Maximum peptide charge was set to 7 and 5 amino acids were required as minimum peptide length.
At least 2 peptides (including 1 unique peptides) were asked to report a protein identification. A false
discovery rate of 1% was set up for both protein and peptide levels. iBAQ value was calculated. The
match between runs features was allowed for biological replicate only.

For pull down of GFP-COMMD2, washed beads were re-suspended in 150 µl digestion buffer (20 mM
Tris.HCl pH 8.0, 2 mM CaCl$_2$) and incubated for 4 hours with 1 µg trypsin (Promega) at 37°C and shaking
at 1200 rpm. Beads were removed, another 1 µg of trypsin was added and proteins were further
digested overnight at 37°C , shaking at 750 rpm. Peptides were acidified with trifluoroacetic acid (TFA)
to lower the pH below 3 and desalted on reversed phase (RP) C18 OMIX tips (Agilent). The tips were
first washed 3 times with 100 µl pre-wash buffer (0.1% TFA in water/acetonitrile (ACN, 20:80, v/v))
and pre-equilibrated 5 times with 100 µl of wash buffer (0.1% TFA in water) before the sample was

loaded on the tip. After peptide binding, the tip was washed 3 times with 100 µl of wash buffer and
peptides were eluted twice with 100 µl elution buffer (0.1% TFA in water/ACN (40:60, v/v)). The
combined elutions were transferred to HPLC inserts and dried in a vacuum concentrator. The peptides
were re-dissolved in 20 µl loading solvent A (0.1% TFA in water/ACN (98:2, v/v)) of which 2 µl was
injected for LC-MS/MS analysis on an Ultimate 3000 RSLCnano system in-line connected to a Q
Exactive HF mass spectrometer (Thermo). Trapping was performed at 10 µl/min for 4 min in loading
solvent A on a 20 mm trapping column (made in-house, 100 µm internal diameter (I.D.), 5 µm beads,
C18 Reprosil-HD, Dr. Maisch, Germany). The peptides were separated on an in-house produced
column (75 µm x 250 mm), equipped with a laser pulled electrospray tip using a P-2000 Laser Based
Micropipette Puller (Sutter Instruments), packed in-house with ReproSil-Pur basic 1.9 µm silica
particles (Dr. Maisch). The column was kept at a constant temperature of 50°C. Peptides eluted using
a non-linear gradient reaching 33% MS solvent B (0.1% FA in water/acetonitrile (2:8, v/v)) in 60 min,
55% MS solvent B in 75 min and 70% MS solvent B after 90 min at a constant flow rate of 300 nl/min.
This was followed by a 5-minutes wash at 70% MS solvent B and re-equilibration with MS solvent A
(0.1% FA in water). The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent mode, automatically
switching between MS and MS/MS acquisition for the 12 most abundant ion peaks per MS spectrum.
Full-scan MS spectra (375-1500 m/z) were acquired at a resolution of 60,000 in the Orbitrap analyzer
after accumulation to a target value of 3,000,000. The 12 most intense ions above a threshold value
of 13,000 were isolated (isolation window of 1.5 m/z) for fragmentation at a normalized collision
energy of 30% after filling the trap at a target value of 100,000 for maximum 80 ms. MS/MS spectra
(145-2,000 m/z) were acquired at a resolution of 15,000 in the Orbitrap analyzer. The
polydimethylcyclosiloxane background ion at 445.120028 Da was used for internal calibration (lock
mass) and QCloud [82] has been used to control instrument longitudinal performance during the project.
Recorded spectra were searched with MaxQuant (version 2.0.3.0) using the Andromeda search engine
with default search settings including a false discovery rate set at 1% on PSM, peptide and protein
level.
760
Spectra were searched against the *Streptococcus pneumonia setotype 4* (TIGR4) (Taxid: 170187)
protein sequences in the Uniprot database (database release version of 04_2022, UP000000585),
containing 2,109 sequences (www.uniprot.org), the *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (Taxid: 1313) protein
sequences in the Uniprot database (database release version of 04_2022, UP000046310), containing
2,115 sequences (www.uniprot.org) and the human protein sequences in the Swiss-Prot database
(database release version of 2022_01, reference proteome: UP000005640), containing 20,588
sequences (www.uniprot.org). The mass tolerance for precursor and fragment ions was set to 4.5 and
20 ppm, respectively, during the main search. Enzyme specificity was set as C-terminal to arginine and
lysine, also allowing cleavage at proline bonds with a maximum of three missed cleavages. Variable
modifications were set to oxidation of methionine residues, acetylation of protein N-termini and lysine
residues, phosphorylation of serine, threonine and tyrosine and ubiquitination of lysine residues.
Matching between runs was enabled with a matching time window of 0.7 minute and an alignment
time window of 20 minutes. Only proteins with at least one unique or razor peptide were retained
leading to the identification of 2,328 proteins. Proteins were quantified by the MaxLFQ algorithm
integrated in the MaxQuant software. A minimum ratio count of two unique or razor peptides was
required for quantification.
777
Data analysis for quantitative proteomics. Quantitative analysis was based on pairwise comparison of
protein intensities. Values were log-transformed (log2). Reverse hits and potential contaminant were
removed from the analysis. Proteins with at least 2 peptides were kept for further statistics after
removing shared proteins from the uninfected GFP alone control. Intensity values were normalized by
median centering within conditions (normalized function of the R package DAPAR [83]). Remaining
proteins without any iBAQ value in one of both conditions have been considered as proteins
quantitatively present in a condition and absent in the other. They have therefore been set aside and

considered as differentially abundant proteins. Next, missing values were imputed using the impute.
MLE function of the R package imp4p (https://rdrr.io/cran/imp4p/man/imp4p-package.html).
Statistical testing was conducted using a limma t-test thanks to the R package limma [84]. An adaptive
Benjamini-Hochberg procedure was applied on the resulting p-values thanks to the function adjust.p
of R package cp4p[85] using the robust method described in ([86]) to estimate the proportion of true null
hypotheses among the set of statistical tests. The proteins associated to an adjusted p-value inferior
to a FDR level of 1% have been considered as significantly differentially abundant proteins.
792
<u>Statistical analysis.</u> All experiments, unless otherwise noted, were biologically repeated 3–5 times and
the statistical test is reported in the figure legend. Data normality was tested by Shapiro-Wilk test, and
appropriate parametric or non-parametric tests performed depending on result. P values calculated
using GraphPad Prism software and the exact values are in source data. Microscopy data obtained
from analysis of 3 − 5 image fields per biological replicate after being automatically acquired by the
microscope software to ensure unbiased sampling with the total number of analyzed cells or nuclei
noted in the figure legend.
800
801 **Data Availability:**
802 All data in the present study is available upon request from the corresponding authors. The mass
803 spectrometry proteomics data of GFP-p65 and GFP-COMMD2 have been deposited to the
804 ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifiers
805 PXD032970 (p65) and PXD043886 (COMMD2).
806
807 **Code Availability:**
808 No custom code or software was used in the manuscript.
809

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832

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Conceived and designed all experiments: MGC and MAH. Performed and analyzed data for all
experiments: MGC with specific contributions from LS (confocal microscopy imaging); FC, MGE, & TC

(p65 mass spectrometry data, repeats for GFP & endogenous immunoprecipitations validations,
analysis…); FI, SD and SB (COMMD2 mass spectrometry data, and analysis…), and CC (western blot
and cell culture). MGC and TMNC conducted murine challenge models. MGC and MAH edited and
reviewed the manuscript. MC and MAH supervised the research and secured funding. All authors
approved the final manuscript.
841
<u>Conflict of interest statement:</u>
The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Figure 1: TIGR4 p65 interactome is divergent from 6B ST90 and enriches for aggrephagy. Mass-
spectrometry interactome (n=4 biological replicates per condition) of immunoprecipitated GFP-p65
from a stable A549 GFP-p65 cell line ($1x10^7$ cells total) 2 hrs post challenge with either 6B ST90 or
TIGR4 (MOI 20). A) Experimental scheme of mass-spectrometry study. B) Tabular summary of NF-kB
protein partners for TIGR4 and 6B in comparison to the GFP control. C-E) Volcano plots of TIGR4 vs.
GFP (C), 6B ST90 vs. GFP (D), and TIGR4 vs. 6B ST90 (E). Known NF-kB p65 partners in blue and general
significant targets in yellow. Lines represent -log10(pV) and fold-change (log2) cutoffs with targets of
interested denoted. F) STRING GO Ontology analysis of significant TIGR4 targets with term strength
and FDR. Full data in Sup. Table 1.

Figure 2: TIGR4 engages NF-kB differently than commensal-like 6B ST90. Immunoblot of A549 human
airway epithelial cells 2 hrs post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml), TIGR4 (MOI 20) or 6B ST90
(MOI 20) (± IL-1β; 10 ng/ml). Whole cell lysates probed for p65, phosphorylated p65 at Serine 276,
phosphorylated p65 at Serine 536 or Actin. A) Representative image of immunoblot. Actin normalized
ratiometric B) phosphorylated p65 at Serine 5366 to total p65, C) phosphorylated p65 at Serine 276
to total p65, and D) total p65. Dot blot with mean (red line). One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple
comparison post-hoc test for B & C. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test
for D. Intergroup comparison paired T-Test for B-D. **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001. Full
blots provided in Supplementary Information 1. E) Representative BioTek objective focused Zstack (10
μm) immunofluorescence microscopy of paraformaldehyde fixed A549 cells 2 h post-challenge with
either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (± IL-1β 10 ng/ml; MOI 20) stained for phosphorylated p65 S536
(magenta) and actin (phalloidin; gray). Scale bar = 50μm. F) Quantification of scaled (x16bit) mean
nuclear intensity of phosphorylated p65 S536. Dot blot of mean ± SEM with connected line over time
(n = 3 biological replicates; counts in Sup. Table 4). Comparisons are Paired T-Test at each time
indicated. * = significant; pV reported in Sup. Table 4.

Figure 3: Blocking aggrephagy increases total COMMD2, p62 and p65. Immunofluorescence confocal
microscopy of stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cells pre-treated with Bafilomycin A1 (400nM) or DMSO for
3 h prior to 2 h post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (± IL-1β 10 ng/ml; MOI 20).
Representative images Sup. Fig. 4 & 5. Bar graph of mean ± STD (n = 3 biological replicates for p65 and
p62; n = 6 biological replicates for COMMD2; counts in Sup. Table 4). A & B) Quantified levels of total
or nuclear COMMD2. C & D) Quantified levels of total or nuclear p62. E & F) Quantified levels of total
or nuclear p65. G &) Quantified area (pixels) of total p65 puncta or p62 puncta (n = 3 biological
replicates for p65 and p62). For G & H Tukey box and whisker plot with defined box boundaries being
the upper and lower interquartile range (IQR), whiskers' (fences) being ± 1.5 times IQR and the median
depicted by the middle solid line. Dots represent outliers. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple
comparison post-hoc test for A - H. **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001.

Figure 4: TIGR4 challenge induces formation of a COMMD2 – p65 – p62 complex. GFP-Trap agarose
immunoprecipitants were collected from a stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cell line 2 hrs post-challenge
with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI 20) or 6B ST90 (MOI 20) (± IL-1β; 10 ng/ml). A & B)
Representative immunoblot from 3 biological replicates of GFP-COMMD2 immunoprecipitation
lysates (input & IP) probed for p65, p62 or GFP for COMMD2. Full blots provided in Supplementary
Information 1.

Figure 5: COMMD2-p65-p62 is exported from nucleus through CRM1. Representative
immunofluorescence confocal microscopy of stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 pretreated for 3 hrs with
Leptomycin B (10 nM) prior to 2 hr challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI 20).

Paraformaldehyde fixed cells stained for A) p62 (magenta), or B) p65 (cyan) against GFP-COMMD2
(gray). Scale bar = 100 μm or 10 μm for single nuclei inserts. C & D) Co-association of intensity peaks
across a 20 μm segment (white line) for p62 (magenta) or p65 (cyan) to COMMD2 (black). E-G)
Quantified nuclear intensity of COMMD2 (E), p62 (F), p65 (G) from untreated uninfected, IL-1β or
TIGR4 conditions to Leptomycin B treatment. Graphed as mean ± STD with dots representing biological
replicates. Intergroup comparisons paired T.Test. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ****P ≤ 0.0001.

Figure 6: TIGR4 driven COMMD2 interactome is unique in comparison to 6B ST90 or IL-1β. Mass-
spectrometry interactome (n=2 biological replicates per condition) of immunoprecipitated GFP-
COMMD2 from a stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cell line (1x10^7 cells total) 2 hrs post challenge with either
TIGR4 (MOI 20), 6B ST90 (MOI 20) or IL-1β (10 ng/ml). A) Experimental scheme of mass-spectrometry
study. B – D) Volcano plots of TIGR4 vs. GFP-COMMD2 (B), 6B ST90 vs. GFP-COMMD2 (C), and IL-1β
vs. GFP-COMMD2 (D). Identified interacting partners with known NF-kB p65 interaction in blue and
significant targets in yellow. Lines represent -log10(pV) and fold-change cutoffs with targets of
interested denoted. E) Venn diagram describing the numbers of unique and shared significant proteins
and their total % from the mass-spectrometry dataset. Table breakdown of identified partners that
were significant, of the significant targets that are unique, and of the significant targets shared with
the p65 interactome. F) Panther classification analysis of protein class of identified COMMD2
interactors unique to TIGR4, shared between TIGR4 and 6B ST90, or unique to 6B ST90.

Figure 7: COMMD2 RNAi selectively elevates host analytes associated with cellular immunity. A)
Secreted analytes (Luminex) at 4 hrs from RNAi COMMD2 primary nasal cells normalized to scrambled
controls (n=3 biological replicates). Cells were challenged with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI
20) ± IL-1β (10 ng/ml). Individual p values shown in comparison to respected Scr control. Calculated
by unpaired T. Test. B) Absolute difference of COMMD2 RNAi to scramble control for all analytes. Dot
blot with mean (bars). Wilcoxon matched pairs signed rank test to TIGR4. ns = not significant, *P ≤
0.05, ****P ≤ 0.0001. C) Difference of either RNAi COMMD2 or p62 against scramble control for TIGR4
and 6B ST90. Before-after line graph. Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test to TIGR4. *P ≤ 0.05,
P ≤ 0.01,*P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001. D) Transcription factor Affinity Prediction (TRAP) analysis [47]
of predicted NF-kB binding motifs ± 2kb of indicated gene TSS. Scale bar represents predicted affinity
score color coded. E) Weblogo [48] visual of nucleotide probability of CMD2 target genes in comparison
to canonical JASPAR NF-kB motif and all targets. Full details of analysis in Sup. Table 4.

Figure 8: Invasive favoring pneumococcal isolates drive COMMD2 nuclear localization. A)
Immunofluorescence deconvolution epifluorescence microscopy of A549 GFP-COMMD2 (gray) cells 2
hr post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml), or MOI 20 for each bacterial strain 6B ST90, 6B ST138,
11A ST6521, 19A ST276, 1 ST304, 1 ST306, JW TIGR4 (JW parental wildtype), JW TIGR4 Δ*cps*, JW TIGR4
Δ*ply* W433F, TIGR4 (parental wildtype), TIGR4 Δ*spxB* or TIGR4 Δ*ply*. Relevant bacterial strain
information for favoring carriage or invasive host states along with mutant genotypes. Scale bar =
50μm. B-E) Bar graph of mean ± STD quantification of nuclear GFP-COMMD2 normalized to the
segmented nuclei using DAPI signal (omitted in representative images for clarity; B,D & E n = 3
biological replicates; C n = 6 biological replicates; counts in Sup. Table 4). One-way ANOVA with Tukey's
multiple comparison post-hoc test for A - H. **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001. F) C57B6 mice
(8-9weeks) were intranasally challenged with TIGR4 (3 - 4x10^6 CFU; n=3), 6B ST138 (3 - 4x10^6 CFU;
n=6), or 6B ST138 (3 - 4x10^7 CFU; n=6). Survival monitored for 14 days post-infection. Kaplan-Meier
percent survival curve with Holm-Šídák's multiple comparisons test. **P ≤ 0.01. # = single animal
survived.

Sup. Figure 1: Individual GO biological process enrichment for TIGR4 and 6B ST90 p65 interactomes.
A-B) TIGR4 or 6B ST90 enrichment over GFP. Lollipop graph indicating FDR by color scale and number
of proteins by lollipop size.

942
Sup. Figure 2: TIGR4 drives disparity in NF-kB gene expression and chromatin binding. A-B)
phosphorylated p65 at Serine 536 or Serine 276 to actin. C) Immunoblot of primary nasal whole cell
lysates 2 hrs post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml), TIGR4 (MOI 20) or 6B ST90 (MOI 20) (± IL-1β;
10 ng/ml) probed for phosphorylated p65 at Serine 536 and actin (n=3 biological). A – C) Dot blot with
mean (red line). One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison post-hoc test. Intergroup
comparison paired T-Test. **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001. Full blots provided in
Supplementary Information 1. D-E) Inflammatory gene transcription profiles by RT-qPCR for PTGS2 &
CSF2 of A549 cells over a 2 hr time course with either IL-1β or TIGR4 (± IL-1β 10 ng/ml; MOI 20).
Graphed as the relative expression of each indicated transcript to matched uninfected/unstimulated
control per time point (n = 3 biological replicates; 2 technicals per replicate). Displayed as a dot plot
with each data point and a bar representing the mean. Statistics table reporting significance calculated
by unpaired T.Test at each time point indicated. * = significant; full details of analysis in Sup. Table 4.
F) Schematic representation of PTGS2 or CSF2 promoter with ChIP-qPCR primer locations and NF-κB
sites denoted as predicted by Alibaba2-curated eukaryotic transcription factor DNA-binding motifs
from the TRANSFAC database [68]. G-H) 10μg chromatin input from A549 cells either untreated (light
gray), IL-1β treated (10 ng/ml; dark gray) or 2 hrs post-challenge with TIGR4 (± IL-1β; 10 ng/ml; MOI
20; light blue or dark blue respectively). ChIP-qPCR represented as % recovery against input of p65 at
indicated NF-κB sites. Tukey box and whisker plot with defined box boundaries being the upper and
lower interquartile range (IQR), 'whiskers' (fences) being ± 1.5 times IQR and the median depicted by
the middle solid line (n=3 biological replicates with 2 or 3 technicals per replicate). One-way ANOVA
comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ns=not significant, ****P ≤
0.0001.

965
Sup. Figure 3: Proteasomal degradation is not involved in TIGR4 mediated p65 turnover. Cell
fractions from a stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cell line 2 hrs post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml),
TIGR4 (MOI 20) or 6B ST90 (MOI 20). A) Representative immunoblot of cell fractions probed for GFP
(COMMD2) enrichment across cellular compartments with GapDH (cytoplasm control) or H4 (nuclear
control). B) Quantified nuclear COMMD2 (n = 3 biological). Bar graph with dots representing
experiments. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ns = not significant,
****P ≤ 0.0001. C) Representative immunoblot of cell fractions and coomassie stained PVDF
membrane.

974
975 **Sup. Figure 4: Representative images of COMMD2 & p65 with Bafilomycin A1.** Representative
976 confocal microscopy images. Puncta analysis of area in pixels highlighted with color scale.

977
978 **Sup. Figure 5: Representative images of COMMD2 & p62 with Bafilomycin A1.** Representative
979 confocal microscopy images. Puncta analysis of area in pixels highlighted with color scale.

980
981 **Sup. Figure 6: TIGR4 induces endogenous COMMD2-p65 complex.** A) Representative immunoblot of
982 p65 immunoprecipitation from primary nasal cells 2 hr post-challenge with either TIGR4 or 6B ST90
983 (MOI 20; n= 4 biological). B-D) Quantified ratio of p65 to COMMD2 (prey :: bait) normalized to
984 uninfected (B), target COMMD2 ratio to uninfected normalized to input (C) and bait p65 ratio to
985 uninfected normalized to input (D). Dot and bar graph. (B) Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple

comparison test. C-D) One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison post-hoc test. *P ≤ 0.05.

Sup. Figure 7: CRM1 inhibition increases p62 puncta. A) Representative immunofluorescence confocal microscopy of stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 pretreated for 3 hrs with Leptomycin B (10 nM) prior to 2 hr challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 ± IL-1β (MOI 20). Paraformaldehyde fixed cells stained for p62 (magenta) against GFP-COMMD2 (gray) and nuclei (DAPI; n=3 biological replicates; nuclei counts for Uninfected n=1041, IL-1β n=831, TIGR4 n=1164, TIGR4 + IL-1β n=1269). Scale bar = 10 μm. B) Nuclear p62 puncta average counts per cell. Graphed as mean with dots representing individual experiments. One-way ANOVA comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ns=not significant, *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ****P ≤ 0.0001.

Sup. Figure 8: GFP-COMMD2 vs. GFP volcano plot. Mass-spectrometry interactome (n=2 biological replicates per condition) of immunoprecipitated GFP-COMMD2 from a stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cell line ($1x10^7$ cells total) or GFP A549 cell line control ($1x10^7$ cells total). Volcano plot of GFP-COMMD2 vs. GFP alone control. Identified interacting partners with known NF-kB p65 interaction in blue and significant targets in yellow. Lines represent -log10(pV) and fold-change cutoffs with targets of interested denoted.

Sup. Figure 9: RNAi efficiency in primary nasal cells and Luminex analyte analysis of p62 RNAi. A) Representative immunoblot of RNAi conditions targeting COMMD2 or p62 in primary human nasal epithelial cells from whole cell lysates at 48 hrs of RNAi. PVDF membrane probed for either COMMD2 or p62 protein levels. B & C) Quantification of COMMD2 and p62 protein levels post RNAi. Dot blot with mean (bars) ± STD. One-way matched ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison post-hoc test comparing RNAi conditions to scrambled control. ns = not significant, **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001. D) Secreted analytes (Luminex) at 4 hrs from Scr control in primary nasal cells (n=3 biological replicates) challenged with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml), TIGR4 (MOI 20) ± IL-1β or 6B ST90 (MOI 20) ± IL-1β. E) Luminex of secreted analytes at 4 hrs from RNAi p62 in primary nasal cells normalized to scrambled controls (n=3 biological replicates). Cells were challenged with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml), TIGR4 (MOI 20) ± IL-1β or 6B ST90 (MOI 20) ± IL-1β. Individual p values shown in comparison to respected Scr control. Calculated by unpaired T. Test. Full details of analysis in Sup. Table 4.

Sup. Figure 10: CMD2 nuclear translocation screen with pneumococcal mutants and hydrogen peroxide. A-C) Titration of hydrogen peroxide (A), purified Pneumolysin toxin (B), or their combination (C) upon viability of the GFP-COMMD2 A549 stable cell line (n=4 biological replicates). Graphed as a dot ± STD of biological replicates for IC_{50} calculations by 4 parameter variable slope curve (red) with IC_{50} denoted in purple dashed line. Tabular comparison of IC_{50}. D) Representative deconvolution epifluorescence microscopy of A549 GFP-COMMD2 (gray) cells 2 hr post-challenge with either MOI 20 for each bacterial strain JW TIGR4 (wildtype), JW TIGR4 Δ*ply* W433F, TIGR4 (wildtype), TIGR4 Δ*spxB* or TIGR4 Δ*spxB*Δ*ply* under titrated hydrogen peroxide treatment (0 – 6.25μM). E-F) Graphed as Dot blot with mean (bars) ± STD. One-way matched ANOVA comparing selected columns with Bonferroni's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ns = not significant, *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001. G) Inocula of intranasal mouse challenge shown as bar graph of mean ± STD. One-way ANOVA comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ns=not significant, **P ≤ 0.01.

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1269

A

p65 mass spectrometry interactome (4x biological)

6B ST90   TIGR4   Uninfected control

A549 GFP-p65

A549 GFP

B

Summary of unique proteins to uninfected GFP - control	
6B ST90 up	709 proteins
6B ST90 down	403 proteins
TIGR4 up	1120 proteins
TIGR4 down	874 proteins

C

D

E

F

TIGR4 vs. 6B ST90 positive enrichment

STRING GO Ontology (Biological Process)			
#term ID	Term Description	strength	FDR
GO:1905337	Positive regulation of aggrephagy	1.63	0.0162
GO:1905821	Positive regulation of chromosome condensation	1.41	0.0341
GO:0007091	Metaphase/anaphase transition of mitotic cell cycle	1.33	0.0097
GO:1902966	Positive regulation of protein localization to early endosome	1.33	0.0097
GO:2000643	Positive regulation of early endosome to late endosome transport	1.33	0.0097
GO:0090522	Vesicle tethering involved in exocytosis	1.28	0.0123
GO:0033147	Negative regulation of intracellular estrogen receptor signaling pathway	1.24	0.00081
GO:0048194	Golgi vesicle budding	1.24	0.0162
GO:0010968	Regulation of microtubule nucleation	1.19	0.02
GO:0051469	Vesicle fusion with vacuole	1.19	0.02

A

TIGR4 drives disparity in NF-kB p65 driven gene expression and chromatin binding

A

B

C

A

A

Representative images of COMMD2 and p62

Sup. FIG 5

A549 GFP-COMMD2 cells

A

	5% input	IP GFP-COMMD2
Uninfected	+ - - - - -	+ - - - - -
IL-1β	- + - - - -	- + - - - -
TIGR4	- - + - - -	- - + - - -
TIGR4 + IL-1β	- - - + - -	- - - + - -
6B ST90	- - - - + -	- - - - + -
6B ST90 + IL-1β	- - - - - +	- - - - - +

p65
65kDa

GFP-COMMD2
50kDa

IB anti-GFP

B

	5% input	IP GFP-COMMD2
Uninfected	+ - - - - -	+ - - - - -
IL-1β	- + - - - -	- + - - - -
TIGR4	- - + - - -	- - + - - -
TIGR4 + IL-1β	- - - + - -	- - - + - -
6B ST90	- - - - + -	- - - - + -
6B ST90 + IL-1β	- - - - - +	- - - - - +

p62
62kDa

GFP-COMMD2
50kDa

IB anti-GFP

A

Primary human nasal cells

IB anti-COMMD2
VeriBlot secondary

B

Ratio CMD2 to IP p65
(prey :: bait)

0.07   ns

TIGR4 4-fold
avg. increase

Un   TIGR4   6B ST90

C

Target COMMD2 ratio to un.
(norm. input)

*   *

TIGR4 62%
avg. reduction

Un   TIGR4   6B ST90

D

Bait p65 ratio to un
(norm. input).

*   ns

TIGR4 39%
avg. reduction

Un   TIGR4   6B ST90

A

Leptomycin B (10 nM) / p62

| p62 | GFP COMMD2 | DAPI |

TIGR4

TIGR4 + IL-1β

B

Avg. p62 puncta per nucleus

Un   IL-1β   TIGR4   TIGR4 + IL-1β

TIGR4 induces a unique COMMD2 interactome, enriched with NF-kB associated partners FIG 6

A Mass spectrometry interactome (2x biological)

A549 GFP-COMMD2
6B ST90 | TIGR4 | IL-1β | Uninfected

A549 GFP
Uninfected

B TIGR4 vs. Uninfected GFP-COMMD2
- USP7, ETHE1, PIN1, RPS3, NPM1, NR3C1, RELA, PPP4C, HMGA2, XPO1, PRKDC, SNRNP70, CSH3, SQSTM1, HDAC6
- x-axis: Fold-Change (TIGR4 / GFP-COMMD2)
- y-axis: -log10(adj. pV)
- NF-kB associated ● Significant ●

C 6B ST90 vs. Uninfected GFP-COMMD2
- USP7, PIN1, ANXA1, SNRNP70, POLR2A, NPM1, RELA, FUS, PRKDC, GAP18, SQSTM1, HDAC6
- x-axis: Fold-Change (6B ST90 / GFP-COMMD2)
- y-axis: -log10(adj. pV)
- NF-kB associated ● Significant ●

D IL-1β vs. Uninfected GFP-COMMD2
- x-axis: Fold-Change (IL-1β / GFP-COMMD2)
- y-axis: -log10(adj. pV)
- NF-kB associated ● Significant ●

E

Venn diagram: TIGR4 / 6B ST90 / IL-1β
- TIGR4: 254 (50.1%)
- TIGR4 ∩ 6B ST90: 191 (37.7%)
- 6B ST90: 49 (9.7%)
- center: 8 (1.6%)
- TIGR4 ∩ IL-1β: 1 (0.2%)
- 6B ST90 ∩ IL-1β: 1 (0.2%)
- IL-1β: 3 (0.6%)

Summary proteins to uninfected GFP - control			
	Unique	Significant	in p65 interactome
TIGR4	254	454	92
6B ST90	49	249	59
IL-1β	3	13	NA

F Panther # of proteins per class

6B ST90 — 49 total: 9 | 12 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 3

Shared — 191 total: 51 | 42 | 19 | 12 | 11 | 9

TIGR4 — 254 total: 25 | 53 | 34 | 28 | 26 | 21

- ■ unclassified
- ■ metabolite interconversion enzyme (PC00262)
- ■ translational protein (PC00263)
- ■ protein modifying enzyme (PC00260)
- ■ RNA metabolism protein (PC00031)
- ■ cytoskeletal protein (PC00085)
- ■ scaffold/adaptor protein (PC00226)
- ■ transporter (PC00227)

A

COMMD2 RNAi selectively elevates secreted cellular immunity landscape

A Primary human nasal cells

B **C** **D** NF-kB motif prediction **E** NF-kB motif predicted sequence alignment

A Primary human nasal cells

	Scrambled	RNAi p62	*RNAi CMD2 #1	**RNAi CMD2 #2	RNAi CMD2 mix	Negative RNAi
Scrambled	+	-	-	-	-	-
RNAi p62	-	+	-	-	-	-
*RNAi CMD2 #1	-	-	+	-	-	-
**RNAi CMD2 #2	-	-	-	+	-	-
RNAi CMD2 mix	-	-	-	-	+	-
Negative RNAi	-	-	-	-	-	+

p62 — 62kDa
CMD2 — 23kDa
Actin — 47kDa

*CMD2 Ambion ID# s27490
**CMD2 Ambion ID# s27488

B (*** ns ns ns) % p62 norm. scrambled — Scrambled, RNAi p62, RNAi CMD2 #1, RNAi CMD2 #2, RNAi CMD2 mix, Negative RNAi

C (*** 0.07 ** **) % CMD2 norm. scrambled — Scrambled, RNAi p62, RNAi CMD2 #1, RNAi CMD2 #2, RNAi CMD2 mix, Negative RNAi

Primary human nasal cells

D To Scr uninfected

	IL-1β	TIGR4	6B ST90	TIGR4 + IL-1β	6B ST90 + IL-1β
CCL3	1.977	1.343	0.473	1.917	2.063
CCL20	2.863	1.023	1.133	2.743	2.770
CXCL1	1.600	0.427	0.580	1.893	1.890
CXCL10	3.113	0.950	1.263	2.793	3.123
ICAM1	3.680	1.527	1.967	2.510	2.490
IL1ra (IL1RN)	0.357	1.270	1.703	1.480	1.763
IL-8	2.723	1.460	1.543	3.090	3.390
IL11	3.287	0.990	1.657	3.473	3.493
IL-13	0.867	0.440	0	1.490	1.157
IL-18	1.023	0.347	0.300	1.317	0.913
MMP2	4.107	2.763	3.140	4.217	4.243
MMP9	0.663	0.400	0.393	0.893	1.103
SELE	1.100	0.677	0.503	1.280	1.313
SLPI	0.333	0.273	0.197	0.427	0.310
SCGB1A	0.307	0.520	0.553	0.740	0.683
CX3CL1	1.810	1.310	1.473	1.930	1.863
CXCL2	4.113	1.577	1.547	4.653	4.613
CSF2	2.220	0.533	0.507	2.510	2.440
IFNA1	0.433	0.313	0.070	0.467	0.470
IL-6	5.320	1.940	1.797	6.157	5.943
IL-10	0.923	0.643	0.397	1.083	1.387
IL-17C	4.763	0.910	0.097	4.850	6.480
MMP1	0.890	0.477	0.647	0.920	0.807
MMP3	2.147	1.400	1.463	2.233	2.397
PTX3	2.030	0.863	0.340	2.280	2.240
SELP	2.917	2.397	2.383	3.217	2.973
TNFa	5.110	0.447	1.450	6.007	5.580

4hr Avg. Luminex Analyte Expression to uninfected Scr control (log$_2$) — scale 0, 2, 4, 6

E

	RNAi p62						Significance to Scr					
	Un.	IL-1β	TIGR4	6B ST90	TIGR4 + IL-1β	6B ST90 + IL-1β	Un.	IL-1β	TIGR4	6B ST90	TIGR4 + IL-1β	6B ST90 + IL-1β
CCL3	0.260	-0.037	0.040	1.210	0.143	-0.017	0.1420	0.7760	0.6940	0.3637	0.3870	0.8420
CCL20	0.073	0.137	0.700	0.620	0.657	0.200	0.8780	0.6810	0.1160	0.0044	0.0070	0.3800
CXCL1	0.137	0.113	0.173	0.087	-0.130	-0.200	0.5980	0.5560	0.2270	0.4627	0.4890	0.0380
CXCL10	3.423	2.447	3.347	3.067	2.777	2.357	0.0060	0.0010	0.0020	0.0004	0.0020	0.0020
ICAM1	0.933	-0.790	0.237	0.287	1.100	0.757	0.3740	0.2410	0.8040	0.8613	0.3910	0.5940
IL1ra (IL1RN)	0.153	0.200	0.357	0.437	0.503	0.513	0.7580	0.3880	0.1360	0.1112	0.0360	0.0620
IL-8	0.587	0.250	0.370	0.163	0.283	-0.283	0.0470	0.6170	0.2370	0.6062	0.5020	0.1870
IL11	0.483	0.103	1.040	0.687	0.093	0.033	0.1410	0.5380	0.1800	0.3629	0.6230	0.7520
IL-13	0.660	0.037	0.113	0.973	0	0.087	0.3740	0.9630	0.7140	0.1902	1.0000	0.8100
IL-18	0.077	0.023	0.320	-0.177	-0.223	0.967	0.8740	0.9550	0.1300	0.6342	0.5400	0.5020
MMP2	1.460	0.083	0.273	0.100	0.010	-0.070	0.4550	0.3210	0.5470	0.1755	0.9340	0.1170
MMP9	0	0.403	-0.400	0.303	0.237	-0.263		0.5440	0.3740	0.1298	0.2030	0.3740
SELE	0.033	0.017	-0.090	0	0.413	0.120	0.3740	0.9500	0.3740		0.3520	0.4250
SLPI	0.093	0.200	0.090	0.303	0.300	0.320	0.5310	0.2440	0.3880	0.0226	0.0920	0.0930
SCGB1A	0.207	0.280	0.063	0.217	0.127	0.100	0.4320	0.2200	0.4350	0.2467	0.4610	0.5550
CX3CL1	1.267	0.100	0.263	0.200	-0.013	0.020	0.1210	0.4880	0.5900	0.3068	0.9280	0.8180
CXCL2	0.087	-0.130	-0.013	0.130	-0.163	-0.130	0.8540	0.3120	0.9200	0.4146	0.1670	0.0230
CSF2	0.120	-0.077	0.380	0.093	-0.063	0.083	0.1190	0.8210	0.2730	0.3739	0.6730	0.6150
IFNA1	0.017	-0.067	-0.100	0.180	-0.033	-0.260	0.9350	0.7480	0.3740	0.5329	0.8480	0.1780
IL-6	0.077	-0.467	-0.147	-0.290	-0.450	-0.553	0.8450	0.0070	0.3030	0.4049	0.0620	0.0400
IL-10	0	0.710	-0.483	0.063	0.613	0.323		0.4030	0.6100	0.3739	0.2670	0.3190
IL-17C	1.477	-1.073	-0.367	0.080	2.320	-0.737	0.1950	0.1560	0.8460	0.3739	0	0.3280
MMP1	0.340	0.257	0.447	0.570	0.493	0.497	0.0530	0.3240	0.1420	0.0003	0.1060	0.0870
MMP3	0.600	-0.083	0.303	0.200	0.023	-0.307	0.1980	0.7950	0.3740	0.5122	0.9000	0.1130
PTX3	0.263	0.693	0.427	0.950	0.317	0.453	0.1190	0.1420	0.5190	0.1228	0.2890	0.2140
SELP	1.747	0.190	0.040	0.087	0.187	-0.070	0.1240	0.5410	0.8950	0.5686	0.6530	0.1580
TNFa	0.387	-0.527	1.200	0.080	-0.453	-0.263	0.1380	0.0860	0.3960	0.5309	0.1140	0.0240

Not calculated | Borderline | pV ≤0.05

4hr Avg. Luminex Analyte Expression to individual Scr control (log$_2$) — scale -1, 0, 1, 2, 3

A

A549 GFP-COMMD2 2 hrs post-treatment

IC50 = 28.30 [H$_2$O$_2$ µM]

% Viability (nuclei counts)

Log$_{10}$ [H$_2$O$_2$ µM]

B

IC50 = 7.102 [PLY nM]

% Viability (nuclei counts)

Log$_{10}$ [PLY nM]

C

% Viability (nuclei counts)

Log$_{10}$ [H$_2$O$_2$ µM]

Condition	IC50 [H$_2$O$_2$ µM]
No PLY	28.30
1.5 nM PLY	ND
3.0 nM PLY	15.30
6.0 nM PLY	13.96

■ +1.5nM PLY
● +3.0nM PLY
▲ +6.0nM PLY

D

Screen A549 GFP-COMMD2
(2 hrs post-treatment)

[H$_2$O$_2$ µM]

0 µM   0.78 µM   1.56 µM   3.12 µM   6.25 µM

Uninfected

TIGR4 ΔSpxB ΔPly

TIGR4 ΔSpxB

TIGR4

JW TIGR4

JW TIGR4 ΔW433F pore

E

■ Uninfected
■ TIGR4
■ TIGR4 ΔSpxB (PLY +)
■ TIGR4 ΔSpxBΔPly

Nuclear COMMD2 (scaled mean intensity A.U.)

[H$_2$O$_2$ µM]   0   0.78   1.56   3.12   6.25

F

■ JW TIGR4
■ JW TIGR4 ΔW433F pore (SpxB +)

Nuclear COMMD2 (scaled mean intensity A.U.)

[H$_2$O$_2$ µM]   0   0.78   1.56   3.12   6.25

G

CFU / mouse (log10)

TIGR4   6B ST138 (low)   6B ST138 (high)