1 **Title:**
2 Pneumococcus suppresses host inflammatory response through COMMD2 mediated NF-κB
3 degradation by aggrephagy
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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 that TIGR4 both blunts and antagonizes NF-κB activation. We identified, through comparative mass spectrometry of the p65 interactome, that the 6B ST90 isolate drives a non-canonical NF-κB RelB cascade, whereas TIGR4 induces p65 degradation though aggrephagy. Mechanistically, TIGR4 challenge triggers a novel interaction of COMMD2 with p65 and p62. This complex mediates export of p65 for degradation and is necessary for repressing host inflammatory transcription. With these results, we reveal for the first time a new bacterial pathogenesis mechanism to repress host inflammatory response though COMMD2 mediated turnover of p65, and present a paradigm for diverging NF-κB responses to pneumococcus.

**Introduction:**

The eukaryotic NF-kappaB 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 [1-3]. As such, it is also one of the most frequently targeted host pathways during pathogenic infection. Of the three main documented NF-κB activation pathways - canonical, non-canonical and atypical- the canonical cascade is the best documented as triggered and targeted for exploitation by bacteria [4-7].

The canonical pathway consists of NF-κB subunit heterodimers of p65/p50 or homodimers of p65/p65 bound to an inhibitory protein, such as IkBa. NF-κB subunits are normally sequestered in the cytoplasm in an inactive state [8]. Upon sensing of inflammatory molecules, such as cytokines (IL-1β or TNFα), pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs; i.e. lipopolysaccharide), and 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 of the cell 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 [4,5,7,9-13]. 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)[14] proteins are among the select few documented negative regulators of NF-κB [12,14-19]. There are ten members of the COMMD family, all of which, interact with NF-κB to regulate signaling. The best-studied archetype 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 [12,14,16-22]. 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.

Unsurprisingly many bacterial species actively target the NF-κB pathway to repress the innate immune defenses of the host and support their survival. To date, all bacterial processes either coopt NF-κB repressors or directly target NF-κB pathway proteins using virulence factors (general review [3,23]). We and others have shown the obligate human pathobiont, *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (the pneumococcus), fine-tunes NF-κB signaling to support its interaction with the host, across the spectrum of commensal to pathogenic outcomes [24-30]. Surprisingly, we showed that a pathogenic *S. pneumoniae* strain showed very little NF-κB signaling compared to a colonizing, asymptomatic strain.

Here, we demonstrate that a pathogenic TIGR4 pneumococcal strain [24], in contrast to a
commensal-like 6B ST90 isolate [24], 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 for TIGR4 repression of host
inflammatory cytokine production. 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 to TIGR4 and COMMD2 enrichment 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.
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**Results:**
TIGR4 antagonizes NF-κB p65 activation.
Previously we showed a commensal-like 6B ST90 pneumococcal strain activated p65 to drive
a unique inflammatory signature in comparison to a disease causing TIGR4 strain [24]. In contrast
challenge with an invasive TIGR4 strain resulted in decreased transcriptional activation of several
inflammatory cytokines [24,31]. This suggested that TIGR4 either disrupted NF-κB activation, or TIGR4
was not engaging NF-κB pathways in airway epithelial cells.
To directly measure NF-κB activation, we challenged A549 cells with either TIGR4 or 6B ST90
alone, or in combination with IL-1β, a pro-inflammatory stimulus known to drive p65 activation, by
phosphorylation of the key serine residues 536 and 276 (review [10]). Cells were collected 2hr post-
challenge for immunoblotting and the total levels of p65 were determined. Interestingly, upon
infection with TIGR4, p65 levels significantly decreased compared to uninfected or 6B infected cells
(Fig. 1A & B). It is important to note that p65 levels decreased even in the presence of IL-1β, which
normally drives p65 activation.
Regardless of the total level of p65, we also evaluated the activity level of p65 by measuring
phosphorylation at S536 and S276, under all conditions. TIGR4 was able to induce phosphorylation at
S276, albeit at levels significantly lower than IL-1β alone, or 6B infection, but not at S536 (Fig. 1A, C,
D). Importantly, time course monitoring of S536 phosphorylation, reveals that at no time point during
infection, do the levels increase above uninfected levels (Sup. Fig. 1A). Taken together, these results
show that TIGR4 is a poor activator of p65 in comparison to the 6B ST90 strain. Remarkably, the
addition of IL-1β during TIGR4 challenge did not restore phosphorylation of S536 or S276 to levels
comparable to IL-1β alone suggesting this strain of pneumococcus is actively antagonizing NF-κB
signaling.
*S. pneumoniae* is an opportunistic respiratory pathogen. Thus, upper airway epithelial cells
are among the first to be encountered and in turn are initial triggers of the host response to
pneumococcus. Therefore, we studied p65 levels and phosphorylation in primary human nasal
epithelial cells (Sup. Fig. 1A) and nasopharyngeal Detroit 562 cells (Sup. Fig. 1B). Importantly, both of
these cell types display the same blunting of NF-κB activation.
We further evaluated nuclear translocation of p65 by immunofluorescence, as this is a
hallmark of p65 activation. Nuclear p65 intensity was quantified and normalized to the nuclear area
by segmenting on the DAPI nuclear strain for TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) against uninfected and IL-1β controls
(Fig. 1E & F). In comparison to uninfected conditions, TIGR4 challenge caused slight nuclear
recruitment of p65, but remained significantly lower (pV ≤ 0.001) in comparison to IL-1β alone.
Unexpectedly, there was a significant increase in nuclear p65 between TIGR4 + IL-1β and IL-1β alone
(Fig. 1E & F), establishing that p65 is translocated in the TIGR4 + IL-1β condition even though
phosphorylation levels are aberrant. It should be noted that this increase could be overestimated due
to the cellular nucleus shrinking upon infection.

We then tested if abnormal activation influenced downstream transcription of p65 dependent
genes. Total RNA was collected from A549 cells at 10, 30, 90, and 120 minutes post challenge with
TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) and IL-1β alone. Relative expression was determined for IL-6, IL-8, 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 is in-line with our
previous findings [32] (Fig. 2A). 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.
This was corroborated with the diminished p65 phosphorylation at S536 at the protein level at the
same time points (Sup. Fig. 1A).
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.  Herein,
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 (Fig. 2B). 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 (Fig. 2C & D). Interestingly, in the TIGR4 + IL-1β condition p65 recovery was
comparable to IL-1β alone (Fig. 2C & D), which is in agreement with our previous data showing p65
nuclear translocation. Therefore, the lack of p65 driven transcription under TIGR4 challenge is
intrinsically due to the absence of p65 at the chromatin. Whereas in a potent inflammatory
environment the transcriptional repression suggests differences in p65 capacity to promote
transcription.
Altogether, these data show the TIGR4 pneumococcal strain antagonizes p65 activation even
in the presence of the pro-inflammatory cytokine, IL-1β. This creates a dysfunctional p65 signaling
cascade leading to poor downstream activation of p65 dependent transcription.
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A divergent NF-κB p65 interactome supports TIGR4 driven p65 degradation.
To begin to understand the NF-κB p65 activation differences and identify potential interacting
partners responsible for blunting NF-κB gene transcription between the two pneumococcal isolates
we performed mass spectrometry of NF-κB p65 (Fig. 3A). Herein, an A549 GFP-p65 cell line was
challenged with either TIGR4 or 6B ST90 and 2 hrs post-challenge GFP-p65 was immunoprecipitated
with a matched A549 GFP alone control for mass spectrometry interactome analysis. From the analysis
we identified p65 posttranslational modifications, as well as proteins interacting with p65 under the
different conditions tested (Sup. Table 1).
The interactome data for 6B ST90 showed the sole NF-κB associated target was RelB, a major
component of the non-canonical NF-κB pathway. Using whole cell lysates obtained from A549 cells 2
hrs post challenge with either 6B ST90 (+/- IL-1β) or TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) we confirmed that RelB was
significantly (pV ≤ 0.001) elevated during challenge with 6B ST90 (+/- IL-1β) in comparison to both
uninfected and TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β; Fig. 3B & C) and associated with p65 by co-immunoprecipitation (Sup.
Fig. 2C).
In contrast, the TIGR4 challenged p65 mass spectrometry dataset enriched for different NF-
κB associated targets. Gene Ontology and KEGG pathway analysis enriched for protein degradation
pathways, including proteins such as HDAC6, a p62, and ubiquitin (Sup. Table 1) [33]. Indeed, p62 is a
classical receptor of autophagy, HDAC6 an ubiquitin-binding histone deacetylase known to be
important in modulating autophagy, and together have been shown to degrade protein aggregates
through a process termed aggrephagy [33-35]. Therefore, our proteomic data suggested that p65 could
be targeted for degradation through an aggrephagy pathway under TIGR4 infection conditions.
To begin testing this hypothesis we probed whole cell lysates obtained from A549 cells 2 hrs
post challenge with either 6B ST90 (+/- IL-1β) or TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) for HDAC6 levels, as HDAC6 is
degraded along with its cargo during aggrephagy (Fig. 3B & D). Indeed, only during TIGR4 challenge
conditions did total HDAC6 levels decrease in comparison to uninfected, IL-1β alone and 6B ST90

groups. We then tested this hypothesis further using known chemical inhibitors to either proteasome
or aggrephagy/lysosomal pathways. We treated cells with MG132 (10µM) [36], a general proteasome
inhibitor, with Bafilomycin A1 (400nM) [37-39], an inhibitor of the terminal vATPase assembly during
aggrephagy/lysosome fusion, or with SAR405 (500nM) [39,40], a PI3K inhibitor of the initiation of
aggrephagy pathway, and assessed the levels of p65. Bafilomycin A1 and SAR405 treatments restored
levels of p65 during TIGR4 challenge (+/- IL-1β) to comparable levels of uninfected and IL-1β alone
(Fig. 3E-H), while MG132 had no effect in restoring p65 levels during TIGR4 challenge (Sup. Fig. 2A).
The same trend for Bafilomycin A1 upon p65 levels 2 hrs post-challenge with TIGR4 was observed in
primary human nasal epithelial cells (Sup. Fig. 2B). These data, along with the identification of HDAC6
and p62 in the p65 interactome strongly suggest that TIGR4 is inducing degradation of p65 through an
aggrephagy pathway.
We further determined if degradation was restricted to only the p65 subunit or was also
impacting the levels of p50, which in a heterodimer with p65 is the primary translocated unit to the
nucleus [5]. We immunoprecipitated endogenous p65 from A549 cells challenged with 6B ST90 or TIGR4
against uninfected and IL-1β and probed for the p50 subunit. Already in the input, the level of p50 is
lower upon infection with TIGR4 compared to 6B ST90, which is also noticeable from the
immunoprecipitation (Sup. Fig. 2C). This observation further supports that TIGR4 challenge is targeting
NF-κB p65 complex as a whole. Overall, these data demonstrate TIGR4, in contrast to 6B ST90, induces
diverging NF-κB p65 signaling cascade that results in: 1) differential protein binding and 2) degradation
of p65 through aggrephagy.
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COMMD2 associates with both p65 and p62 and translocates to the nucleus
Since aggrephagy primarily occurs in the cellular cytosol we analyzed the p65 interactome
data for an additional element that could link degradation with nuclear export. Upon deeper
investigation we noted our interactome identified COMMD2 and COMMD4 as among the most highly
enriched proteins associating to p65 under TIGR4 infection conditions compared to 6B ST90. All of
the COMMD protein family associate with NF-κB subunits, with the archetype member COMMD1
being shown to terminate NF-κB signaling through proteasomal degradation via export by exportin 1
(CRM1) and displacement from chromatin at kappa-binding sites [16,17,19,21,41]. 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 [14,22]. Given these previous studies
and our data we focused on COMMD2. We hypothesized that COMMD2 through association with p62,
could be involved in p65 turnover and thus a link to the aggrephagy pathway.
Herein, we generated an A549 GFP-COMMD2 ectopic expression stable cell line, from which
GFP-COMMD2 was immunoprecipitated from lysates 2 hrs post-challenge with either 6B ST90 (+/- IL-
1β), TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) or from our uninfected and IL-1β controls. 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. Therefore, COMMD2 is a new infection specific interacting
partner of p65, making a complex of p65-COMMD2-p62.
Although infection with TIGR4 leads to p65 degradation, the small amount left in the cell is
nuclear (Fig. 1E). Therefore, to evaluate the cellular localization of the p65-COMMD2-p62 we
performed immunofluorescence experiments using the GFP-COMMD2 A549 cell line. Using this cell
line, we further determined infection induced effect on p62. The GFP-COMMD2 A549 cell line was
challenged with TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) and compared to uninfected and IL-1β controls, followed by
paraformaldehyde fixation and probing for p62. Total p62 levels in the nucleus were determined per
cell, by segmentation on the GFP-COMMD2 signal for the cellular cell boundaries and DAPI for the
nucleus (Fig. 4C). There was a significant (pV ≤ 0.001) decrease in total p62 levels for TIGR4 challenged
cells (+/- IL-1β) in comparison to both uninfected and IL-1β alone (Fig. 4D), which is expected upon
activation of protein degradation pathways. Interestingly, there is a reciprocal increase in the nuclear
levels of p62 (Fig. 4E), showing that during TIGR4 challenge there is movement of p62 between the

cytoplasm and nuclear compartments in addition to degradation. Moreover, we noticed COMMD2,
an otherwise cytoplasmic protein containing two nuclear export signals [34,35,42], was translocated in the
nucleus of cells challenged with TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) (Fig. 4C). Similarly to p62, there was a decrease in
total COMMD2 levels, indicative of protein turnover, and an increase of COMMD2 in the nucleus (Fig.
4F & G).
We confirmed our microscopy observation by performing cell fractionations. We
immunoblotted cell fractions obtained from the GFP-COMMD2 stable cell line 2 hrs post-challenge
with TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) as well as from uninfected and IL-1β controls (Fig. 4H & I). Whereas cells treated
with IL-1β alone displayed 20% COMMD2 in the nucleus, similar to untreated/uninfected cells, TIGR4
(+/- IL-1β) challenge conditions had 80% of COMMD2 consistently nuclear (Fig. 4I). The levels of
cytoplasmic COMMD2 under TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) challenge conditions correspondingly decreased,
demonstrating a relocalization of COMMD2. Finally, we tested if the commensal-like strain 6B ST90
could also induce COMMD2 nuclear localization. Using cellular fractionation and immunoblotting, we
show that 6B ST90 was incapable of triggering nuclear localization of COMMD2 (Sup. Fig.3A), which
demonstrates relocalization is TIGR4 specific. Strikingly, upon challenge with TIGR4, we observed
perinuclear COMMD2 puncta formation (Fig. 4C). Such puncta of protein aggregates, along with a
decrease in p62 levels have previously been described [43-47] and further support our findings that TIGR4
is activating aggrephagy during infection.
To confirm that COMMD2 and p62 were degraded through the same lysosomal turnover
shown for p65 in figure 3E, we treated GFP-COMMD2 cells with Bafilomycin A1 (400nM; pre-treated
for 3 hrs) and quantified the total levels of p65, p62 and COMMD2 per cell 2 hrs post-challenge with
either IL-1β or TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β; MOI 20) using confocal microscopy. Similarly to figure 3E, TIGR4
challenged cells (+/- IL-1β) treated with Bafilomycin A1 displayed an increase in p65, but also
COMMD2, and restored p62 levels comparably to uninfected controls (Sup. Fig. 3B - D). Moreover, in
contrast to uninfected and IL-1β treated cells there was a significant (pV ≤ 0.0001) increase in both
p65 and COMMD2 levels in TIGR4 conditions. Therefore, the COMMD2-p65-p62 complex is being
degraded through aggrephagy-mediated turnover upon TIGR4 challenge and is amplified in the
presence of the pro-inflammatory stimulus IL-1β.
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COMMD2 exports p65 for lysosomal degradation.
From our data we reasoned that aberrantly phosphorylated p65 during TIGR4 challenge lead
to nuclear translocation of COMMD2 for facilitating nuclear export of these p65 complexes. This
mechanism of action would be similar to the architype family member COMMD1, which binds NF-κB
in the nucleus and exports it through CRM1 for degradation [12,22]. Therefore, we tested whether
COMMD2 was exported through CRM1 by using the Leptomycin B inhibitor [48]. GFP-COMMD2 cells
were treated with Leptomycin B (10 nM), and immunofluorescence was used to image p62 and p65.
Strikingly, by blocking nuclear export we observed that COMMD2 was now localized to the nucleus in
uninfected and IL-1β treated cells. Similarly, p62 and p65 are relocalized to the nucleus. In fact,
COMMD2 and p62 were detected in puncta in the nucleus (Fig. 5A), where p65 was localized (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 uninfected cells (Fig. 5C & D). These surprising data suggest that under nuclear export blockage,
which occurs with Leptomycin B treatment [48], 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 being degraded upon
infection and accumulate in the nucleus (Fig. 4). Similarly, Leptomycin B inhibition also increased the
nuclear p65 levels in all conditions compared to untreated cells (Fig. 5E), and even restored p65 levels
to those of cells stimulated with IL-1β alone. Although COMMD2 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 difficult. 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 (Fig. 5F & G). These data therefore show that without Leptomycin B
inhibition upon TIGR4 challenge leads to an active CRM1 dependent export of p65. Altogether, these
results imply the COMMD2 complex is exported by CRM1.
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<u>TIGR4 mediated COMMD2 nuclear translocation is dependent on Ply.</u>
We show in sup. Fig. 3A that nuclear translocation of COMMD2 does not occur upon 6B ST90
challenge, raising the question of which bacterial factors are important for the observed phenotypes.
Thus, we tested if COMMD2 relocalization occurred in a capsule dependent manner (Fig. 6A & B).
Herein, we challenged our stable cell line with either two 6B serotypes of different sequence type (6B
ST90 & 6B ST138), TIGR4, and a capsule mutant of TIGR4 (JW TIGR4ΔCPS) in parallel with its parental
wildtype strain (JW TIGR4). Cell were fixed 2 hrs post-challenge and imaged as previously to score the
nuclear levels of COMMD2 against uninfected controls. These data showed COMMD2 translocated to
comparable levels when cells were challenged with either the JW TIGR4ΔCPS or parental wildtype (JW
TIGR4; Fig. 6A). Furthermore serotype matched 6B strains, which differ in sequence type, were
phenotypically different with 6B ST138 inducing more COMMD2 translocation compared to
uninfected and 6B ST90 (Fig. 6A). From these data, we concluded COMMD2 translocation was not
dependent upon capsule, but on another pneumococcal protein.
Thus, we tested TIGR4 mutants of Pneumolysin (Ply) and Pyruvate oxidase (SpxB), two major
pneumococcal virulence factors we have previously shown to affect host cell signaling at the nuclear
level [49-51]. A549 GFP-COMMD2 stable cell line was challenged for 2 hrs with either wildtype TIGR4,
TIGR4Δply or TIGR4ΔspxB and the nuclear levels of COMMD2 quantified against uninfected or IL-1β
alone. Nuclear COMMD2 levels were measured by deconvoluted epifluorescence, and quantified by
measuring signal intensity normalized by nuclear area by segmenting the nucleus using DAPI stain (Fig.
6C & D). These data show COMMD2 was found primarily within the cytoplasm of uninfected and IL-β
treated cells, and translocated to the nucleus upon TIGR4 challenge. While not statistically significant
lower levels and phenotypically distinct nuclear translocation occurred for the ΔspxB mutant,
indicating that pneumococcal pyruvate oxidase and peroxide production may have a partial role in
COMMD2 translocation. However, deletion of the PLY toxin completely abrogated nuclear
translocation, indicating that this bacterial factor is essential (Fig. 6C).
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<u>COMMD2 is required for TIGR4 repression of the host response.</u>
To date knowledge of COMMD protein interacting partners or biological functions outside of
their established interaction with NF-κB subunits suggests they are broadly involved with cellular
trafficking, proteasome degradation and transcription [12,18,52,53]. To better define a molecular and
biological role for COMMD2 in p65 export and turnover during bacterial challenge we assessed the
COMMD2 interactome by mass spectrometry (Fig. 7A-C). 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 and GFP negative controls.
Remarkably our interactome data clearly supported the specificity of COMMD2 during TIGR4
challenge with 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. 7A-D; sup. Table 3). By cross-
comparison of these targets 254 unique proteins were associated with COMMD2 under TIGR4
challenge with 92 being also found in our p65 interactome dataset (Fig. 3A; sup. Table 1). From the
analysis we also identified a putative COMMD2 posttranslational modification associated with
ubiquitination or neddylation at Lysine residue 50. Finally, using Panther ontology protein class
analysis 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. 7E). Altogether, these results showed during TIGR4 challenge COMMD2 function was
specific with a potential role in host inflammatory response.

We previously showed during TIGR4 challenge the host gene transcriptional signature was
substantially repressed [31,32]. Within this context, we speculated that if COMMD2 was required by
TIGR4 to repress NF-κB p65 driven host immune gene transcription, that inhibiting COMMD2 would
lead to increased cytokine production. To our knowledge, no direct chemical inhibitors of COMMD2
exist, thus we used RNAi to knockdown COMMD2 and p62 in primary human nasal epithelial cells
which resulted in 20% and >70% knockdown respectively (Fig. 8A-C). While total knockdown of
COMMD2 was not ideal, it was consistent. Thus we proceeded with bacterial challenge suspecting this
minimal reduction in COMMD2, in comparison to p62, would be enough to discern a role for COMMD2
in transcription.
Prior to challenge 72 hrs of RNAi targeting COMMD2 or p62 was conducted in primary human
nasal cells. These cells were challenged for 2 hrs with either IL-1β or TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β; MOI 20), with
post-challenge supernatants collected for ELISA. At 2 hrs post-challenge there were modest changes
in IL-6 and IL-8 cytokine levels as expected for such an early time point (Fig. 8D & E). For both IL-6 and
IL-8 total levels were reduced during TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) challenge in the scrambled siRNA condition in
comparison to the match IL-1β group. This is in agreement with our RT-qPCR results showing minimal
and delayed transcription of these two genes (Fig. 2A). In contrast to IL-6 where RNAi of COMMD2
and p62 had little effect, the total level of IL-8 increased slightly when these cells were treated with
IL-1β or challenged with TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β) in respect to their scrambled control conditions (Fig. 8E).
Importantly, in both conditions knockdown of p62 (>70%) had little effect on IL-6 or IL-8 cytokine
production suggesting that p62 function was independent of the transcription capacity of the host.
Overall, these results suggest that COMMD2 is indeed involved with gene transcription and we suspect
larger knockdown of COMMD2 would have more effect. Inhibiting COMMD2 during TIGR4 challenge,
even at a mere 20%, was enough to increase IL-8 gene transcription.
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**Discussion:**
Cellular inflammatory response is a critical component of the host defense to bacteria. Yet,
the molecular processes that fine-tune NF-κB cascades across the range of colonizing to virulent
bacteria is poorly understood. We show that an invasive *S. pneumoniae* TIGR4 strain, which causes
symptomatic disease in murine models [24], blunts p65 activation and inflammatory gene transcription
even in the presence of IL-1β – a potent inflammatory cytokine. This is in contrast to a commensal-
like 6B ST90 strain that activates p65 and does not affect IL-1β driven NF-κB signaling [24]. Through mass
spectrometry interactome and post-translational modification analysis, we show these two
pneumococcal isolates have diverging p65 interacting partners and phosphorylation status. The 6B
ST90 strain upregulates RelB, a hallmark of non-canonical NF-κB signaling, whereas the p65
interactome for the invasive TIGR4 strain enriched for aggrephagy pathway components. We reveal
that p65 is being degraded through a unique TIGR4 induced interaction of COMMD2 with p65 and
p62. Our investigation of the COMMD2 interactome identified interacting partners associated with
enzymatic activity and gene translation. Altogether, this is the first demonstration of a bacterial
pathogenesis mechanism to repress inflammatory gene transcription through targeted degradation
of NF-κB p65.
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 deubiquintate 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 [5,12,54]. 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

via complex formation of COMMD1 with Elongins B & C, Cullin2 and SOCS1 (ECS[SOCS1]) [14,16,17,19,21,22]. In
parallel, COMMD1 contributes to repression of p65 driven gene transcription by occupying the
formerly p65 bound kappa-binding site at specific gene promoters [20]. It was put forth that the diversity
of potential COMMD, NF-κB and cullin assemblies and the array of physiological stimuli activating such
complex formations positioned this family of proteins as powerful selective negative regulators of NF-
κB signaling.
To date our work is the first to show that COMMD2 mediates p65 turnover through p62 and
aggrephagy while simultaneously repressing host NF-κB gene transcription. TIGR4 bacterial challenge
is the only stimulus to trigger COMMD2-p62-p65 complex formation, with the functional role of
COMMD2 on aggrephagy and host transcription being distinct as neither 6B ST90 nor IL-1β induced
comparable interactome. 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. These data could indicate that pneumolysin
functions as a conduit allowing hydrogen peroxide, or other unknown factors, to enter the host cell
for the COMMD2 phenotype. Moreover, given our comparison of two serotype 6B isolates varying in
sequence type resulted in different COMMD2 nuclear amounts we propose that pneumococcal
isolates of different genomic lineages may regulate expression of virulence factors differently in the
presence of host cells.
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. Additionally, by lowering the amount of p65 protein present
through degradation, a lower threshold of inhibitory IKK proteins would be needed to quench this
cascade within the cell. This could rapidly shift the balance in favor of IKK proteins sequestering p65,
and perhaps even favor a switch in NF-κB heterodimers, leading to activation of a different
transcriptional repertoire. In essence, such inhibition would be quite potent, as inflammatory
transcription, inflammatory signal sensing, and negative inflammatory feedback are all blocked
simultaneously. Such a mechanism would greatly favor pathogenic infection and host cell exploitation,
as we observe upon TIGR4 challenge. On the other end of the virulence spectrum, the commensal like
6B ST90 strain lead activation of the non-canonical NF-κB RelB pathway. Interestingly in the 6B ST90
p65 interactome COMMD6 was the only COMMD protein found. Altogether, this suggests that NF-κB
subunit association with COMMD protein(s) is stimulus dependent and these partners are possibly
strong influencers of how the NF-κB transcription factor family participates in transcription and (or)
chromatin binding. Therefore, such interactome studies, in combination with pro-inflammatory
stimulus, will reveal new partners that govern p65 regulation.
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 [55,56]. 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 [57]. 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 [57]. 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 [31,58]. 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 RelB, and (or) the histone demethylase KDM6B, which we previously showed was
required for bacterial containment in the upper respiratory tract [24]. 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 could represent markers of either host response to commensal or to invasive
bacteria.
Tuning NF-κB dependent immune gene transcription is fundamental for cellular immune
processes of airway epithelial cells exposed to pneumococcus [25,59]. 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 [25,59,60]. 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 [25]. Our
studies directly address this paradox showing that the invasive TIGR4 pneumococcal isolate is actively
engaged in repressing p65 signaling through degradation even in an environment containing pro-
inflammatory stimuli. We propose that pneumococcus interaction with the 'primary' contacted host
epithelial cell results in repressed NF-κB signaling with simultaneous prevention of negative feedback
upon this inflammatory response. However, what has been shown during respiratory infection with
other microbes [61,62], is that 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 pneumococci actively antagonizing the ability of airway epithelial cells to both induce
and respond to IL-1β 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 through
the lungs and into deeper tissues. We put forth that COMMD2, or combinations of COMMD proteins
are potent modulators of bacterial driven inflammatory processes, and may represent a novel
therapeutic target to avoid runaway inflammation.
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 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 NF-κB signaling and identify novel negative regulators of
inflammation.
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**Materials and methods:**
Bacteria strains, growth, and enumeration. Serotype 6B ST90 CC156 lineage F (ST90; CNRP# 43494)
and TIGR4 were obtained from the Centre National de Référence des Pneumocoques (Emmanuelle
Varon; Paris, France) and (Thomas Kohler, Universität Greifswald) respectively. 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) broth
supplemented with 50 mM HEPES (Sigma) (TH+H) as previously described [24]. Inocula were prepared
from frozen experimental stocks grown for 3 – 4 hrs to midlog phase in TH+H 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 [24]. Bacterial counts were determined by serial
dilution plating on 5% Columbia blood agar plates and grown overnight at 37°C with 5% $CO_2$.
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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% $CO_2$. Detroit 562 human
nasopharyngeal epithelial cells (ATCC ref# CCL-138) were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 1x
sodium pyruvate (Gibco) and 1x GlutaMax (Gibco) 10% heat inactivated FCS. Primary human nasal
epithelial cells (HNEpC; PromoCell ref# C-12620; lot# 475Z023) were cultured and maintained in
Airway Epithelial Cell Growth Medium (PromoCell ref# C-21060) mixed 1:1 with PneumaCult™-Ex Plus
Medium (STEMCELL Technologies cat# 16237380). All cell lines were discarded after passage 15, and
HNEpC 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) [24]. 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 of the inhibitors MG132 10 µM final concentration (Sigma ref# M7449), 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.

RNA isolation and RT-qPCR. 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* [66]. RT-PCR
primers listed in Sup. Table 2.

ChIP and ChIP-qPCR. Detailed ChIP buffer components and procedure were completed as previously
reported [24]. 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 [24], 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 *PTGS2* [67].  % recovery was calculated as 2 raised to the
adjusted input Ct minus IP Ct multiplied by 100. ChIP qPCR primers listed in Sup. Table 2.

Plasmids, molecular cloning and stable cell line generation. All plasmids and primers are listed in Sup.
Table 2. Routine cloning was carried out by in vivo assembly [68,69]. 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" [70,71]. 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

desired antibiotic (<mark>Sup. Table 2</mark>). 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 [72,73]. 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.
Selected cells were collected with Trypsin 0.25% EDTA (Thermo ref# 25200056) and two-way serial
diluted in a 96 well tissue culture plate for monoclonal selection for another 7 – 14 days with media
containing 1 mg/mL Geneticin and exchanged every 2 – 3 days. Selected colonies that were
phenotypically bright were mixed and expanded prior to FACS sorting to ensure purity, and uniform
expression.
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Immunoblots and quantification. 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 [74], 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), NFkB p105 / p50 (abcam ref# ab32360), RelB
(abcam ref# ab180127), 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).
Detroit562 immunoblots were developed using Licor Odessey using secondary antibodies at 1:7,500 -
Goat anti-rabbit IgG H&L (IRDye 800CW) and goat anti-mouse IgG H&L (IRDye 680RD) from abcam.
Band intensity was quantified by Image Lab (BioRad), or using Fiji [75] (Detroit 562 cells) with linear
intensity values $log_{10}$ transformed and normalized to actin prior to any additional ratio metric
comparisons.
567
siRNA and transfection. 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 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. 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.
575
Cell fractionation. Fractionation was performed as previously described as previously described [24].
Faction lysates were combined with 5x with Laemmli buffer [74], 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.
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Immunofluorescence microscopy and Cellprofiler analysis. For microscopy the desired cell line were
seeded on acid washed and UV treated coverslips in 24well or 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), COMMD2 (Sigma ref# HPA044190-25UL; only works
for immunofluorescence), or p62 (SQSTM1; abcam ref# ab109012) were diluted at 1:1,000 in 5% BSA
0.5% Tween20 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 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).

Images were processed for background using Fiji [75], and segmented using Cell Profiler [76-78]. Briefly, the
pipeline for image analysis consisted of sequential modules to 'IdentifyPrimaryObjects' based on
channel signal for nuclei (DAPI 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.

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 slurry protein G beads (Sigma-Aldrich Fast Flow Protein G sepharose).
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 [74] 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, and the insoluble pellet was
discarded. For p65 IP the lysates were then incubated with 2 µg of antibody CST ref #6956 or CST ref#
8242 at 4 °C for 2 hrs before adding 20 µL of slurry protein G beads (Sigma-Aldrich Fast Flow Protein
G sepharose) for 20 min. The beads were then washed before adding 20 µL of Laemmli buffer
supplemented with 2% β-mercaptoethanol and boiled for 5 min.

Cytokine quantification by ELISA. 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. 25 µl of supernatant was used as per manufacturer's
recommendations for ELISA kits measuring human IL-6, and IL-8 (R&D systems cat #s DY206-05, %
DY208-05).

LC-MS/MS Mass-spectrometry and analysis. 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 (~$5 \times 10^7$ 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 [79].

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 $3 \times 10^6$ 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 $1 \times 10^6$ 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[80] 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 [81] 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.
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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.
729
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 [82]). 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 [83]. An adaptive
Benjamini-Hochberg procedure was applied on the resulting p-values thanks to the function adjust.p
of R package cp4p[84] using the robust method described in ([85]) 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.
744
<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.
752
753   **Data Availability:**
754   All data in the present study is available upon request from the corresponding authors. The mass
755   spectrometry proteomics data of GFP-p65 and GFP-COMMD2 have been deposited to the
756   ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository with the dataset identifiers
757   PXD032970 (p65) and PXD043886 (COMMD2).
758
759   **Code Availability:**
760   No custom code or software was used in the manuscript.
761

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**Author contributions:**
Conceived and designed all experiments: MGC and MAH. Performed and analyzed data for all
experiments: MGC with specific contributions from LS (confocal microscopy imaging repeats); FC,
MGE, & TC (p65 mass spectrometry data, repeats for GFP & endogenous immunoprecipitations
validations, analysis…); CMW (Detroit562 immunoblot), FI, SD and SB (COMMD2 mass spectrometry

data, and analysis…), and CC (western blot and cell culture). MGC and MAH edited and reviewed the
manuscript. MC and MAH supervised the research and secured funding. All authors approved the final
manuscript.
793
794 **Conflict of interest statement:**
795 The authors declare no conflict of interest.
796

**Figure 1: TIGR4 antagonizes p65 activation in a pro-inflammatory environment but not NF-κB**
**nuclear translocation.** 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 B) total p65, C) phosphorylated p65 at Serine
276 and D) phosphorylated p65 at Serine 536 (n=11 biological replicates). Dot blot with mean (red
line). One-way ANOVA with repeated measures with mixed-effects analysis comparing all means with
Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test.   **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001. E)
Immunofluorescence confocal 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 p65 (cyan) and nucleus
(DAPI; gray). Scale bar = 100μm. F) Quantification of nuclear p65 normalized to the nuclei (n = 3
biological replicates with total nuclei counts for Uninfected n= 636, IL-1β n= 801, TIGR4 n=633, TIGR4
+ IL-1β n=516). 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.  Two-way ANOVA comparing all means with Tukey's multiple
comparison post-hoc test. ****P ≤ 0.0001. Full blots provided in Supplementary Information 1.

**Figure 2: TIGR4 represses p65 dependent transcription in the presence of IL-1β even though p65 is**
**associated with chromatin.** A) Inflammatory gene transcription profiles by RT-qPCR for IL-6, IL-8,
PTGS2 & CSF2 of A549 cells over a 2 hr time course challenged 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. 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). B) 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 [67]. C & D) 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.

**Figure 3: TIGR4 induces a divergent p65 interactome leading to NF-kB p65 turnover by 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
(MOI 20) or TIGR4 (MOI 20). A) Volcano plot of identified interacting partners with 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. B) Representative immunoblot of A549 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 RelB, HDAC6, or Actin. C & D) Quantification of RelB or HDAC6 levels
normalized to Actin (n=4 biological replicates). Displayed as a dot blot with mean (red line). One-way
ANOVA with repeated measures with mixed-effects analysis comparing all means. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤
0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001. Whole cell lysates from A549 cells 2 hrs post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml)
or TIGR4 (MOI 20; +/- IL-1β; 10 ng/ml) from E) Bafilomycin A1 (400nM) or G) SAR405 (500nM)
pretreated cells (both 3 hrs) and immunoblots probed for p65 or actin (n=3 biological replicates).
Quantified levels of total p65 normalized to actin from F) Bafilomycin A1 (400nM) or H) SAR405

(500nM). Dot blot with mean (red line). One-way ANOVA with repeated measures with mixed-effects
analysis comparing all means. ns = not significant. Full blots provided in Supplementary Information 2
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**Figure 4: TIGR4 drives NF-kB p65 interaction with COMMD2 and p62 (SQSTM1) and nuclear**
**translocation.** Immunoprecipitates using GFP-Trap agarose beads 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; +/- IL-1β;
10 ng/ml). A) A single representative immunoblot from 3 biological replicates of GFP-COMMD2
immunoprecipitation lysates (input & IP) probed for p65 or GFP.. B) Representative immunoblot from
3 biological replicates of GFP-COMMD2 immunoprecipitation lysates (input & IP) probed for p62 or
GFP. Full blots provided in Supplementary Information 3. C) Immunofluorescence confocal microscopy
of stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cells 2 h post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (+/- IL-1β
10 ng/ml; MOI 20) stained for p62 (magenta) against GFP-COMMD2 (gray). Scale bar = 100 μm. Red
inset images of single cell highlighting (white arrow) perinuclear punta. Inset scale bar 10 μm.
Quantification of total cellular p62 D) normalized to cell area (GFP-COMMD2 signal) and nuclear p62
E) normalized to the area of the nucleus (DAPI signal; n = 3 biological replicates with total cell counts
for Uninfected n= 548, IL-1β n= 670, TIGR4 n=356, TIGR4 + IL-1β n=271). Quantification of total cellular
COMMD2 F) normalized to cell area (GFP-COMMD2 signal) and nuclear COMMD2 G) normalized to
the area of the nucleus (DAP I signal; n = 3 biological replicates with total cell counts for Uninfected
n= 864, IL-1β n= 1068, TIGR4 n=596, TIGR4 + IL-1β n=534). 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. Two-way ANOVA
comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. **P ≤ 0.01, ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P
≤ 0.0001. H) Cell fractions from a stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cell line 2 hrs post-challenge with either
IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI 20; +/- IL-1β; 10 ng/ml). Representative immunoblot probed for GFP
(COMMD2) enrichment across cellular compartments. GapDH or histone H4 (H4) used to determine
fraction purity. Full blots provided in Supplementary Information 3. I) Percent nuclear COMMD2 levels
normalized to input (n=3 biological replicates). Graphed as mean ± STD with dots representing
individual biological replicates.  One-way ANOVA with repeated measures with mixed-effects analysis
comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ****P ≤ 0.0001.
874

**Figure 5: COMMD2-p65-p62 is exported from nucleus through CRM1.** 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) and nuclei (DAPI; blue). Scale bar =
100 μm or 10 μm for uninfected and untreated single cell inserts. Nuclear levels of C) GFP-COMMD2
or D) p62 normalized to the segmented nuclei using DAPI signal (n = 3 biological replicates with total
nuclei counts for Uninfected (-) n=1664, Uninfected n= 742, IL-1β (-) n=1068, IL-1β n= 920, TIGR4 (-)
n=585, TIGR4 n=798). E) Nuclear levels of p65 normalized to the segmented nuclei using DAPI signal
(n = 3 biological replicates with total nuclei counts for Uninfected (-) n=489, Uninfected n= 1492, IL-1β
(-) n=576 IL-1β n= 1658, TIGR4 (-) n=680, TIGR4 n=1514). 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. Two-way ANOVA
comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ***P ≤ 0.001, ****P ≤ 0.0001.
F) Representative immunofluorescence confocal microscopy of stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 pretreated
for 3 hrs with Leptomycin B (10nM) prior to 2 hr challenge TIGR4 (MOI 20; +/- IL-1β; 10 ng/ml).
Paraformaldehyde fixed cells stained for p62 (magenta) against GFP-COMMD2 (gray) and nuclei (DAPI;
blue). Scale bar = 10μm G) Nuclear p62 puncta quantification (n = 3 biological replicates with total
nuclei counts for Uninfected n=1041, IL-1β n=831, TIGR4 n=1164, TIGR4 + IL-1β n=1269). Graphed as

mean with dots representing individual biological replicates. One-way ANOVA comparing all means
with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ****P ≤ 0.0001.
895
**Figure 6: COMMD2 nuclear localization is dependent on pneumolysin.** A) Immunofluorescence
deconvolution epifluorescence microscopy of paraformaldehyde fixed stable A549 GFP-COMMD2
cells 2 h post-challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml), TIGR4 wildtype (MOI 20), TIGR4 *Δply* (MOI 20), or
TIGR4 *ΔspxB* (MOI 20) with GFP-COMMD2 (gray). Scale bar = 10µm. B) Quantification of nuclear GFP-
COMMD2 normalized to the segmented nuclei using DAPI signal (omitted in representative images for
phenotype clarity; n = 3 biological replicates with total nuclei counts for Uninfected n= 6292, IL-1β n=
6579, TIGR4 n=5061, TIGR4 ΔPly n=7607, TIGR4 ΔSpxB n=6566). Graphed as mean ± STD with dots
representing individual biological replicates. One-way ANOVA comparing all means with Tukey's
multiple comparison post-hoc test. *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01. C) Immunofluorescence deconvolution
epifluorescence microscopy of paraformaldehyde fixed stable A549 GFP-COMMD2 cells 2 hr post-
challenge with either indicated pneumococcus strains at MOI 20. Scale bar = 10µm. D) Quantification
of nuclear GFP-COMMD2 normalized to the segmented nuclei using DAPI signal (omitted in
representative images for phenotype clarity; n = 3 biological replicates with total nuclei counts for
Uninfected n= 469, 6B ST90 n=666, 6B ST138 n=566, TIGR4 n=571, JW TIGR4 WT (parent to JW TIGR4
ΔCPS) n=553, JW TIGR4 ΔCPS n=700 and Graphed as mean ± STD with dots representing individual
biological replicates. Two-way ANOVA comparing means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc
test. ns = not significant, ****P ≤ 0.0001.
913
**Figure 7: TIGR4 drives distinct COMMD2 interacting partners with enzymatic activity and associated**
**with RNA transcription.** 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 A) TIGR4 (MOI 20), B) 6B ST90 (MOI 20) or  C) IL-1β (10 ng/ml) . Shown as
volcano plot to uninfected control with 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. D) Venn diagram describing the numbers of unique and shared
significant proteins and their total % from the mass-spectrometry dataset. Table break down of
identified partners that were significant, of the significant targets that are unique, and of the
significant targets shared with the p65 interactome.  E) Panther classification analysis of protein class
of identified COMMD2 interactors unique to TIGR4, shared between TIGR4 and 6B ST90, or unique to
6B ST90.
926
**Figure 8: COMMD2 RNAi increases cytokine production.** A) Representative whole cell lysate
immunoblot of 72 hr RNAi targeting COMMD2 or p62 in primary human nasal epithelial cells. PVDF
membrane probed for either COMMD2 or p62 protein levels after 2 hr challenge with either IL-1β (10
ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI 20) +/- IL-1β (10 ng/ml). B & C) quantification of COMMD2 and p62 protein
levels post RNAi. Dot blot with mean (bars) ± STD. One-way ANOVA comparing all means by Fisher's
LSD test. ****P ≤ 0.0001. D & E) Cytokine levels from primary human nasal epithelial cells (n = 4
biological replicates with 2 technicals per replicate) after 72 hr RNAi targeting COMMD2 or p62 and
followed by challenge for 2 hrs with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI 20) +/- IL-1β (10 ng/ml). Dot
blot with mean (bars) ± STD. One-way ANOVA comparing all means by Fisher's LSD test. ns = not
significant, *P ≤ 0.05, **P ≤ 0.01, ****P ≤ 0.0001. Full blots provided in Supplementary Information 4.
937
**Sup. Figure 1: TIGR4 dampens p65 activation over time.** A) Representative graph of actin normalized
phosphorylated p65 S536 levels over 2 hrs quantified by immunoblot. B) Immunoblot of whole cell
lysates obtained from primary human nasal 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). PVDF membrane probed for
phosphorylated p65 Serine 536 or Actin (n=2 biological replicates). C) Immunoblot of whole cell
Detroit 562 cell lysates 2 hrs post-challenge with either TIGR4 (MOI 10) or 6B ST90 (MOI 10).
Nitrocellulose membrane probed for phosphorylated p65 Serine 536 or GapDH (n=2 biological
replicates).
946
**Sup. Figure 2: Proteasomal degradation is not involved in TIGR4 mediated p65 turnover.** A)
Quantification and representative immunoblot image of MG132 (10µM; 3 hr pretreatment) treated
A549 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) and probed for total p65 or actin (n=11 biological replicates). Dot blot
with mean (red line). One-way ANOVA with repeated measures with mixed-effects analysis comparing
all means with Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc test. ns=not significant, ****P ≤ 0.0001. B)
Representative immunoblot of whole cell lysates collected from primary human nasal epithelial cells
treated with Bafilomycin A1 (400nM; 3 hrs) prior to 2 hr challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or
TIGR4 (MOI 20; +/- IL-1β; 10 ng/ml). PVDF membrane probed for levels of p65 and actin. C)
Representative immunoblot of endogenous p65 immunoprecipitation (input & IP) from $1 \times 10^7$ A549
cells post 2 hr challenge using protein G sepharose beads. Collected lysates probed for p65, RelB or
NFkB1 (p105/p50).
959
**Sup. Figure 3: TIGR4 specifically drives COMMD2 translocation and inhibiting aggrephagy increases
total complex components.** A) 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). Representative
immunoblot of cell fractions and coomassie stained PVDF membranes. Blots probed for GFP
(COMMD2) enrichment across cellular compartments. Quantified immunofluorescence confocal
microscopy of A549 GFP-COMMD2 cells pretreated with Bafilomycin A1 (400nM; 3 hrs) prior to 2 hr
challenge with either IL-1β (10 ng/ml) or TIGR4 (MOI 20; +/- IL-1β; 10 ng/ml). Paraformaldehyde fixed
and stained for B) p65, C) COMMD2 or D) p62. (n = 3 biological replicates with total cell count for
Uninfected p62 & COMMD2 n=1648 & p65 n=1496, IL-1β p62 & COMMD2 n=2103 & p65 n=1703,
TIGR4 p62 & COMMD2 n=2033 & p65 n=1597, TIGR4 + IL-1β p62 & COMMD2 n=1724 & p65 n=1759).
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. Two-way ANOVA comparing all means with Tukey's multiple comparison
post-hoc test. ns=not significant, ***P ≤ 0.001,****P ≤ 0.0001.
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1197

# FIGURE 1

# Sup. FIGURE 1

**A**

**B**

Primary Human Nasal Epithelial Cells

**C**

Detroit 562

# FIGURE 2

# FIGURE 3

**A** 6B ST90 | TIGR4
NF-kB associated | Significant
RELB
UBQLN1
WDR26
COMMD4
UBE2C
COMMD2
-log10(pV)
Fold-Change

**B**
Ladder Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β 6B ST90 6B ST90 + IL-1β
RelB — 70kDa
HDAC6 — 160kDa
Actin — 47kDa

**C**
ns | ***
* | ns | ns
RelB norm. actin (Log$_{10}$)
Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β 6B ST90 6B ST90 + IL-1β

**D**
** | *
ns | ns | ns
HDAC6 norm. actin (Log$_{10}$)
Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β 6B ST90 6B ST90 + IL-1β

**E** Bafilomycin A1 (400nM)
Ladder Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β
p65 — 65kDa
Actin — 47kDa

**F**
ns
p65 norm. actin (Log$_{10}$)
Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β

**G** SAR405 (500nM)
Ladder Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β
p65 — 65kDa
Actin — 47kDa

**H**
ns
p65 norm. actin (Log$_{10}$)
Un IL-1β TIGR4 TIGR4 + IL-1β

# Sup. FIGURE 2

**A**

MG132 (10μM)

**B**

Primary Human Nasal Epithelial Cells
Bafilomycin A1 (400nM)

**C**

Input (10%)

| | IP: p65 | IP: IgG | Target |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | | p65 (65kDa) |
| | | | RelB (70kDa) |
| | | | p105 (105kDa) |
| | | | p50 (50kDa) |

NFKB1

# FIGURE 4

# Sup. FIGURE 3

**A**

**Input 25%**

| Nuclear | ladder | Cytoplasm | 6B ST90 | TIGR4 | IL1B | Un | ladder |

GFP-COMMD2 ～50kDa

Coomassie

Bafilomycin A1 (400nM)

**B**

Total p65 (signal/area of GFP)

ns
****
***
****

Un    IL-1β    TIGR4    TIGR4 + IL-1β

**C**

Total COMMD2 (signal/area of GFP)

ns
****
****
ns

Un    IL-1β    TIGR4    TIGR4 + IL-1β

**D**

Total p62 (signal/area of GFP)

ns

Un    IL-1β    TIGR4    TIGR4 + IL-1β

# FIGURE 5

# FIGURE 6

# FIGURE 7

**A** TIGR4
- NF-kB associated
- Significant

**B** 6B ST90

**C** IL-1β

**D**

| | Significant vs. Un | Unique | Significant targets shared with p65 interactome |
|---|---|---|---|
| TIGR4 | 454 | 254 | 92 |
| 6B ST90 | 249 | 49 | 59 |
| IL-1β | 13 | 3 | - |

**E**
Protein Classes
# of proteins per class

- 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)

# FIGURE 8

**A**

**B**

**C**

**D**

2 hrs post-challenge

**E**

2 hrs post-challenge

# Sup. Information – Immunoblots Figure 1

# Sup. Information – Immunoblots Figure 3

# Sup. Information – Immunoblots Figure 3 continued

# Sup. Information – Immunoblots Figure 4

**A**