The C-type Lectin Receptor Dectin-2 is a receptor for *Aspergillus fumigatus*

galactomannan

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Receptor

Abstract:

Aspergillus fumigatus is a ubiquitous environmental mold that causes significant mortality particularly amongst immunocompromised patients. The detection of the *Aspergillus*-derived carbohydrate galactomannan in patient sera and bronchoalveolar lavage fluid is the major biomarker used to detect *A. fumigatus* infection in clinical medicine. Despite the clinical relevance of this carbohydrate, we lack a fundamental understanding of how galactomannan is recognized by the innate immune system. Galactomannan is composed of a linear mannan backbone with galactofuranose sidechains and is found both attached to the cell surface of *Aspergillus* and as a soluble carbohydrate in the extracellular milieu. In this study, we utilized fungal-like particles composed of purified *Aspergillus* galactomannan to identify a C-type lectin host receptor responsible for binding this fungal carbohydrate. We identified a novel interaction between *Aspergillus* galactomannan and the C-type lectin receptor Dectin-2. We demonstrate that galactomannan bound to Dectin-2 and induced Dectin-2 dependent signaling including activation of spleen tyrosine kinase and potent TNFa production. Deficiency of Dectin-2 increased neutrophil recruitment to the lungs but was dispensable for survival in a mouse model of pulmonary aspergillosis. Our results identify a novel interaction between galactomannan and Dectin-2 and demonstrate that Dectin-2 is a receptor for *Aspergillus* galactomannan which leads to a pro-inflammatory response.

48 **SUMMARY:**

49 The *Aspergillus* carbohydrate galactomannan is the primary clinical biomarker for diagnosis of

50 invasive aspergillosis. In this manuscript, we identify a novel interaction between galactomannan

51 and the C-type lectin receptor Dectin-2. We demonstrate that galactomannan induces Dectin-2

52 dependent proinflammatory signaling in macrophages.

INTRODUCTION

Aspergillus fumigatus is a saprophytic mold that causes a wide spectrum of clinical manifestations ranging from allergic disease to invasive infections, including pneumonia and disseminated disease. While the majority of patients that develop invasive aspergillosis are immunocompromised due to transplantation, inherited immune deficiencies, or use of immunosuppressant therapies, invasive aspergillosis also occurs in otherwise healthy individuals in association with preceding influenza or SARS-CoV2 infection (1-3). The mortality rate for invasive aspergillosis remains unacceptably high with approximately 65 – 80% of patients succumbing to disease despite antifungal therapy (4), and is a major cause of morbidity, particularly among patients with compromised immune systems.

Humans are infected with *A. fumigatus* through inhalation of conidia deposited within small airways and alveoli. Conidia are eliminated by mechanical expulsion through the action of mucus and ciliated cells, as well as killing by macrophages and neutrophils (5, 6). Upon encountering a fungal pathogen, innate immune cells synchronously engage multiple fungal cell wall antigens through a diverse array of pattern recognition receptors including Toll-like receptors, scavenger receptors, complement receptors, and C-type lectin receptors (CLRs), and integrate those signals to generate a coordinated immune response (7-11). The majority of the fungal cell wall antigens are polysaccharides, as > 90% of the fungal cell wall is composed of complex carbohydrates. The cell wall is commonly composed of an inner chitin and middle b-1,3 glucan layer with additional carbohydrate constituents like an outer mannan layer depending upon the genus of fungus (12, 13). In *A. fumigatus*, the mannan content is primarily exists within the galactomannan polymer. Although specific cell wall carbohydrate–pattern recognition receptor interaction pairings have been defined for a few cell wall polysaccharides, such as b-1,3 glucan and the CLR Dectin-1 (8, 14), we lack a fundamental understanding of the specific receptors that engage many other fungal carbohydrates and how these ligand-receptor cognate pairs drive the innate immune response.

The carbohydrate galactomannan was identified approximately 40 years ago as an

important clinical biomarker for the diagnosis of invasive aspergillosis, as it can be detected in

serum and bronchial fluid from infected patients (15-18). However, the biological and

immunological responses to this carbohydrate remain poorly defined. Galactomannan is

composed of a linear mannan core composed of a-1,2-linked mannotetraose units attached via

a-1,6-linkage with side changes composed of four to five b-1,5-linked galactofuranose residues

(19, 20). Galactomannan can be found in both the conidial and mycelial stages of the *Aspergillus*

lifecycle. It is bound to the cell membrane through a GPI-anchor, covalently attached to b-1,3-

glucan in the cell wall and released as a soluble polysaccharide into the extracellular milieu (21,

22). Most studies have utilized soluble galactomannan, since strains of *Aspergillus* that lack

galactomannan have altered growth morphology and kinetics (23, 24). Stimulation of peripheral

blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) with soluble galactomannan suppressed LPS-induced cytokine

production. Furthermore, an *Aspergillus* vaccine protection model demonstrated that treatment

with soluble galactomannan induced a non-protective Th2/Th17 immunity (25, 26). Dendritic cell

and macrophages internalization of *A. fumigatus* conidia by the C-type Lectin Receptor DC-SIGN

could be inhibited through the addition of soluble galactomannan (27), suggesting that DC-SIGN

could play a role in recognizing this carbohydrate. These observations indicated that *Aspergillus*

subverts the immune response by shedding galactomannan, but the innate immune response to

cell-associated galactomannan has yet to be determined.

In this study, we identified Dectin-2 as a receptor for cell wall-associated galactomannan

by using fungal-like particles (FLPs), a novel technique previously developed in our laboratory

(28). To determine how the immune system recognizes galactomannan in the cell-associated

state, we isolated galactomannan from *A. fumigatus* and created FLPs consisting of purified

galactomannan. Using these particles to screen a library of CLR reporter cells, we identified

Dectin-2 as a receptor for galactomannan. We confirmed the binding of Dectin-2 to

galactomannan FLPs, using a solubilized receptor and demonstrated galactomannan FLPs

stimulate production of TNFα by murine macrophages in a Dectin-2 dependent manner.

Furthermore, we determined that immunocompetent mice lacking Dectin-2 recruit more

neutrophils to lungs compared with wild-type mice in a model of pulmonary aspergillosis, but

Dectin-2 is dispensable for survival. Taken together, our results demonstrate a novel and

important role for Dectin-2 in innate immune recognition of *Aspergillus* galactomannan.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Mice were maintained in specific-pathogen-free barrier facilities at Massachusetts General

Hospital (MGH; Boston, MA) according to Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC)

Guidelines. Wildtype C57BL/6 mice were obtained from Jackson Laboratories (Bar Harbor, ME)

and Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice (29) were from the University of Wisconsin-Madison. All mice used for bone

marrow harvests and *in vivo* experiments were 8 – 20 weeks of age. Wildtype and Dectin-2$^{-/-}$

mice were both age and sex-matched for each experiment. Unless noted, an equal distribution

of male and female mice was used.

Cell lines and cell culture

Immortalized C57BL/6 bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) were a gift from Doug

Golenbock (University of Massachusetts Medical School, Worcester, MA). Macrophages were

cultured in complete RPMI media (RPMI 1650, L-glutamine, 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine

serum (FBS; Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL), 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 1%

HEPES buffer, and 50 μM of β-mercaptoethanol). Puromycin and blastocidin were added to a

final concentration of 5 µg/mL as needed for the selection of transduced cells. Primary BMDMs

from C57BL/6 and Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice were harvested as previously described (30). After harvest,

primary BMDMs were grown for 7 days in complete RPMI media containing 20 ng/mL of

recombinant MCSF (Peprotech, Rocky Hill, NJ) prior to use in assays. HEK293T cells were

purchased from the ATCC (American Type Cell Collection, Manassas, VA) and were grown in

complete DMEM (DMEM, L-glutamine, 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 1%

HEPES buffer). All cell lines were grown at 37^{0}C in the presence of 5% CO_2.

Lentiviral transduction of cells with Dectin-2 and FCRy

Murine Dectin-2 was amplified from plasmid pFB-dectin2-IRES-eGFP from Caetano Reis e Sousa

using a 5' primer containing NotI digestion site with sequence

TATTGCGGCCGCCATGGTGCAGGAAAGACAATCCCAAGG and a 3' primer containing a BglII

restriction site with sequence

TCGACGATAGATCTTCATAGGTAAATCTTCTTCATTTCACATATTGAATTG. Primers were

synthesized by Integrated DNA technologies (IDT, Research Triangle Park, NC). The gamma

chain protein (FcRg) of the Fc-gamma receptor (FcgR) was PCR amplified from plasmid pSVL-

mo FceRI gamma (plasmid was a gift from Jean Kinet, Addgene plasmid #8372), using 5' primer

containing a NotI digestion site with sequence

TATTGCGGCCGCCATGATCTCAGCCGTGATCTTGTTCTTG and 3' primer containing a BamHI

digestion site TCGACGATGGATCCCTACTGGGGTGGTTTTTCATGCTTC. The constructs were

cloned into a pHAGEII lentiviral vector containing either puromycin or blasticidin selectable

markers using NotI and BamHI digestion and sequence verified. Generation of lentivirus in

HEK293T cells and transduction was performed as previously described (31). Cells were

selected for uptake of the lentivirus vector using puromycin or blasticidin at 5 µg/mL. After

selection, expression of the desired gene was confirmed using western blot. Surface localization

of Dectin-2 was confirmed using flow cytometry using anti-murine Dectin-2-APC (R&D Systems,

Minneapolis, MN, FAB1515A) or anti-human Dectin-2 polyclonal goat antibody (R&D, AF3114)

with Donkey anti-Goat AF488 secondary antibody (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford,

IL, A11055).

Fungal culture

A. fumigatus strains Af293 and CEA10 were grown at 37℃ for 5 days on Sabouraud's Dextrose

Agar (Difco, Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL) or for 3 days on glucose minimal media slants (GMM),

respectively. Slants were seeded from frozen stocks of conidia maintained at -80℃. To harvest

conidia, a sterile solution of purified deionized water (Milli-Q, Millipore Sigma, Burlington, MA)

containing 0.01% Tween 20 was added to each slant and spores were liberated using gentle

shaking and surface agitation with a sterile cotton tip swab. The solution containing liberated

spores was passed through a 40 μm cell strainer to separate hyphal debris. Spores were washed

three times with sterile PBS and then counted on a LUNA™ automated cell counter (Logos

Biosystems, Annandale, VA) and diluted to the appropriate concentration. To generate *A.*

fumigatus germlings with strain Af293, conidia were incubated in complete RPMI media at 37℃

for 4-6 hours and visually inspected under the microscope for the presence of emerging germ

tubes. Germlings were then washed, counted, and resuspended in PBS at the desired inoculum.

For heat-killing studies, *A. fumigatus* germlings were incubated at 95℃ for 30 minutes.

173 *Purification of galactomannan from* Aspergillus fumigatus

174 The galactomannan was isolated as lipogalactomannan from the cellular membrane of mycelium

175   that had been grown in Sabouraud's Dextrose medium using previously described methods (21).

176   The lipid moiety was removed by nitrous deamination and the polysaccharide moiety was purified

177   by gel filtration chromatography on Superdex 75 column (10/300 GL, GE-Healthcare) (21).

179 *Generation and quality control of fungal FLP*

Carbohydrate coated-FLP were creating using previously published methods (28). Briefly, 300

ml of amine-coated polystyrene beads (Polysciences, Warrington, PA) were washed three times

in sterile anhydrous dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO, MilliporeSigma,Burlington, MA) using 0.45 um

PTFE centrifugal filters (MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA) to remove any aqueous solution. The

beads were then resuspended in either DMSO (adsorbed beads) or DMSO containing 0.5 M 1,1'-

carbonyldiimidazole (CDI) and incubated at room temperature for 1 hour with shaking. Beads

were then rinsed three times with DMSO using centrifugal filters. Beads were resuspended in

200 ml of purified carbohydrates dissolved in DMSO. Soluble b-1,3 glucan (Wellmune, Biothera,

Saccharomyces cerevisiae, Eagan, MN) was used at 10mg/ml, mannan (*S. cerevisiae*, Sigma-

Aldrich, M704-1G) at 2.5 mg/ml, and galactomannan at 1mg/ml. Unmodified beads were

resuspended just in DMSO without additional carbohydrates. The mixture was incubated for 1

hour at room temperature with shaking and centrifuged using centrifugal filters to remove the

DMSO and excess carbohydrates. Beads were then washed three times in PBS, resuspended

in PBS, counted on a Luna™ automated cell counter, and stored at 4°C.

To confirm the association of carbohydrates with the FLPs and ensure rigor, a subset of

each newly created batch of FLPs was analyzed by flow cytometry. Briefly, 3 ml of beads were

blocked overnight in PBS containing 2% BSA at 4℃. To analyze mannan binding to the surface,

10 ml of 20 mg/ml stock fluorescein labeled Concanavalin A (Con A; Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Carlsbad, CA; C827) was added to each sample and incubated for 1 hour at room

temperature while shaking. Samples were washed and resuspended in FACS buffer (PBS

containing 2% BSA) and then analyzed on a BD FACSCalibur™ or BD FACSCelesta™ Flow

Cytometer (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ). For analysis of b-1,3 glucan, 20 ng of primary monoclonal

anti-b-1,3 glucan antibody (Biosupplies Australia Pty LTD, Victoria, Australia; 400-2) was added

to each sample and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. FLPs were washed and then

incubated for 30 minutes with a 1:100 dilution of secondary rabbit anti-mouse IgG conjugated with

Alexa Fluor 488 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA; A11059). FLPs were then washed, resuspended in

FACS buffer, and analyzed by flow cytometry. For galactomannan-coated beads, FLPs were

centrifuged, and the blocking buffer was removed. FLPs were resuspended in 50 ml of component

R6 from the Platelia *Aspergillus* Ag kit (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) containing rat anti-galactomannan

IgM antibody and were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. FLPs were then washed and

resuspended in a 1:200 dilution of secondary goat anti-rat IgM conjugated with Alexa Fluor 488

(Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA; A-21212) in FACs Buffer. FLPs were incubated for 30 minutes at room

temperature and then washed and resuspended in FACS buffer.

To assess the stability of carbohydrate association, 10 ml of FLP were incubated in 800

ml of either 3% SDS, 1X NP40, 1% Triton X-100 for 1 hour at room temperature with constant

shaking, or 3% SDS at 95^0C for 1 hour. The FLPs were centrifuged, washed with detergent, and

washed three times with FACS buffer. FLPs were then subjected to antibody staining to assess

for carbohydrate association as detailed above.

For fluorescent imaging of carbohydrate coated FLPs, FLPs were fluorescently labeled in

the same manner as for flow cytometry and then placed onto glass slides. FLPs were imaged

using a Nikon Ti-E inverted microscope with a CSU-X1 confocal spinning-disk head (Yokogawa,

Sugarland, TX) with a Coherent 4-Watt laser (Coherent, Santa Clara, CA) as the excitation

source.   Images were acquired through an EM-CCD camera (Hamamatsu, C9100-13,

Bridgewater, NJ) and performed using MetaMorph® software (Molecular Devices, Downington,

PA). Image data files were processed using Adobe Photoshop 2021 and assembled in Adobe

Illustrator 2022 (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA).

ELISA

1 x10^5 macrophages (immortalized or BMDM) were plated in triplicate in tissue culture treated 48-

well plates and stimulated overnight with FLP or fungal germlings at the indicated target-to-

effector ratios. Supernatants were collected for cytokine analysis using ELISA (Duoset, R&D

Systems, Minneapolis, MN) per the manufacturer's instructions and read using an i3X

Spectrophotometer (Molecular Devices, LLC, San Jose, CA). Results were analyzed using

PRISM9 software (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA).

FLP binding assays

FLPs were blocked overnight in PBS containing 2% BSA. FLPs were washed and resuspended

in 100 ml of binding buffer (20 mM Tris-HCL, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 10 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.05% Tween-

20). Dectin-2(murine)- IgG1 Fc (human) fusion protein (ENZO Life Sciences, Inc, Farmingdale,

NY) or IgG1 Fc (human) protein (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL) was added to a final

concentration of 10 mg/ml and samples were incubated with gentle mixing for 2 hours at room

temperature. Following washing, samples were resuspended in binding buffer containing a 1:100

dilution of mouse anti-human IgG1 Fc conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Rockford, IL; A-10631) and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature in the dark. FLPs were

washed with binding buffer, resuspended in FACS buffer (PBS containing 2% BSA), examined

on a BD FACSCalibur™ or BD FACSCelesta™⁻ Flow Cytometer (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ), and

data analyzed using FlowJo 10. For neutralizing antibody experiments, mouse anti-Dectin-2

antibody (R&D Systems, MAB1525) was preincubated with the Dectin-2-Fc fusion protein at a

concentration of 50 mg/ml for 30 minutes prior to adding the mixture to FLPs.

CLR ligand reporter cell assay

Reporter cells were used based on previously published protocols (32). B3Z and BWZ cells

carrying an NFAT-lacZ reporter construct have been previously described (33, 34). B3Z cells

expressing Dectin-2 or a wildtype FCRg-chain as well as BWZ cells expressing Dectin-1CD3z

(the extracellular domain of mouse Dectin-1 fused to CD3z intracellular tail) were constructed by

Dr. Caetano Reis e Sousa (London Research Institute, London, U.K) (35). Mincle and Dectin-3

expressing cells were created as previously described (32). Briefly, cells were seeded at 1×10^5

cells per well in 96-well plates followed by stimulation with FLPs or media alone. Cells were

incubated for 18 hours in a tissue culture incubator at 37℃ with 5% CO_2. Cells were pelleted and

the supernatant was removed. Cells were lysed with triton lysis buffer (1% Triton X-100, 9 mM

KH_2PO_4, 90 mM K_2HPO_4) on ice for 30 minutes. Plates were centrifuged to pellet cellular debris

and 40 ml of lysate was transferred to a new 96-well plate. Assay buffer containing chlorophenol

red-b-D-galactopyranoside (CPRG) was added to each well and plates were incubated for 6 hours

at 37℃ protected from light and then absorbance at 560 nm and 620 nm was measured using an

i3x Spectrophotometer (Molecular Devices LLC, San Jose, CA).

In vivo Aspergillus survival model

Wildtype C57BL/6 mice or Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice were immunosuppressed with 40 mg/kg subcutaneous

triamcinolone acetonide (Kenalog®-10, Bristol-Myers Squibb, New York, NY) starting the day prior

to infection and every 7 days thereafter if needed. The mice were infected with 2.4 x10^4 CEA10

conidia intranasally under isoflurane anesthesia. Mice were then monitored twice daily for the

first 5 days of the experiment and then daily thereafter. Mice were assessed based upon a 12-

point scale to determine when an individual animal should be euthanized due to illness and

removed from the study. This was developed in conjunction with the MGH IACUC and includes

the following symptoms and points assigned to each in parentheses: hunched posture (3), ruffled

and/or matted fur (3), shivering (3), abnormal breathing (increased respiratory rate) (12), 75%

reduction in activity compared to controls (3), inactivity leading to inability to acquire food or water

(12), and barrel rolling (12). If any animal reaches 12 points, they are humanely euthanized and

counted as a death for the purposes of survival analysis. All animal experiments were approved

under the MGH IACUC protocol #2008N000078.

Immunophenotyping of pulmonary infiltrates

Wildtype or Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice were infected with 4 x 10^7 conidia of *A. fumigatus* strain CEA10

through oropharyngeal inhalation under isoflurane anesthesia. Mice were monitored daily for the

duration of the experiment and euthanized at 48 hours. Immunophenotyping was performed

based on previously published methods (36). The lungs were perfused with PBS through cardiac

puncture to flush intravascular blood cells and the lungs were carefully dissected and placed into

Digestion Solution (38 mg Collagenase Type I and 100 U DNase I in 100 ml RPMI 1640). Lung

tissue was finely minced using scissors and incubated for 1 hour with shaking at 37℃. After 1

hour, 800 ml of 0.5 M EDTA was added to each sample to stop the collagenase activity. Lungs

samples were passed through a 70 mM filter, pelleted, resuspended in a 40% Percoll-RPMI

solution, and under-layered with a 67% Percoll-RPMI solution. Samples were centrifuged at 650

x g for 20 minutes and leukocytes were collected at the interface between the two layers and

washed twice with FACS buffer (PBS with 2% FBS). Cells were pelleted, resuspended in FACS

buffer (PBS containing 2% BSA), counted, and $1 - 2$ x 10^6 cells were stained for flow cytometry

analysis. Fc block (anti-Mouse CD16/CD32, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL, 14-0161-85)

was added to cells at 1:100 dilution and incubated at room temperature for 15 minutes. Cells

were then labeled with a mixture of the following fluorophore-conjugated antibodies for 1 hour at

4℃ (all antibodies are from Biolegend, San Diego, CA unless otherwise noted): anti-CD45 BV605

(Biolegend, 103139), anti-CD90.2 BV786 (Biolegend, 105331), anti-CD19 PE-Dazzle (Biolegend,

115553), anti-CD4 BV510 (Biolegend, 100559), anti-CD8 APC FIRE (Biolegend, 100765), anti-

Siglec-F APC (Biolegend, 155507), anti-Ly6G AF 488 (Biolegend, 127625), anti-Ly6C BV510

(Biolegend, 128033), anti-I-A/I-E AF700 (Biolegend, 107622), anti-NCR1 BV421 (Biolegend,

137611), anti-CD64 PE (Biolegend, 139303), anti-CD103 BV421 (Biolegend, 121421), anti-

CD11b APC FIRE (Biolegend, 101261), anti-CD11c BV650 (Biolegend, 117339), anti-

B220/CD45R PE (Biolegend, 103207), anti-TCRγδ APC (Biolegend, 118115), and anti-TCRβ

BV650 (Biolegend, 109251). Cells were washed with FACS buffer, and 7-AAD (Stem Cell

Technologies, 75001.1) was added for live-dead cell staining just prior to flow cytometry. Flow

cytometry was performed using BD FACSCelesta™ and analysis was performed using FlowJo 10

software (BD, Ashland, OR).

Quantification of Fungal Burden in Lungs

Wildtype or Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice were infected with 4 x 10^7 conidia of *A. fumigatus* strain CEA10

through oropharyngeal inhalation under isoflurane anesthesia**.** Each experiment consisted of 5

wild-type and 5 Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice infected with CEA10 *Aspergillus* and one mock infection (PBS

only) control per mouse line. After 48 hours lungs were extracted, frozen at -80°C, and lyophilized

overnight. Freeze-dried tissue was homogenized using 0.5 mm glass beads with a TissueLyser

LT homogenizer (Qiagen, Germantown, MD) to create a fine powder. DNA was extracted from

the homogenized tissue using the E.Z.N.A Fungal DNA Extraction Kit (Omega Bio-tek, Norcross,

GA). The total quantity of DNA extracted from each sample was quantified using a NanoDrop™

One Microvolume UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL). Fungal

DNA in each sample was quantified using qPCR. A standard curve was created using *A.*

fumigatus genomic DNA and consisted of 10-fold serial dilutions from 1 pg to 100 ng. 500 ng of

sample DNA was analyzed per reaction and each sample was analyzed in triplicate.   The

sequences for the amplification primers and dual-labeled fluorogenic hybridization probe for the

A. fumigatus 18S rRNA gene were previously published(37). All three probes were synthesized

by Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT, Research Triangle Park, NC). Each 20 μl qPCR contained

TaqMan® Fast Advanced Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockland, IL), 500 ng of sample

DNA and 1 μM each of forward primer, reverse primer and probe. Samples were run and

analyzed using the Applied Biosystems™ 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, Rockland, IL). The percent of fungal DNA in each sample was determined by dividing

the quantified fungal DNA in each PCR by 500 ng (input DNA per sample).   The total DNA

obtained from each lung sample was multiplied by the percent fungal DNA to obtain the total

fungal DNA/lung.

Western blot

Cells were placed on ice and lysed with 1% NP40 lysis buffer containing protease and

phosphatase inhibitors. Proteins were denatured using NuPAGE LDS Sample Buffer (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL). The proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE on 4-12% NuPAGE

gels using NuPAGE MOPS buffer (NuPage gels, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL), and

transferred to methanol-activated PVDF membrane (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA) using transfer

buffer (0.025M Tris, 0.192 M glycine, 20% methanol) and electrophoretic transfer at 100V for 1

hour. For detection of proteins, PVDF membranes were blocked for 1 hour at room temperature

in 5% BSA in PBS-0.01% Tween 20 (PBST). Blots were incubated with anti-phospho spleen

tyrosine kinase (Syk) antibody (Cell Signaling Technologies, Danvers, MA; 2710S) or anti-total

Syk antibody (Cell Signaling Technologies, 13198S), in 5% BSA in PBST overnight at 4℃. The

membranes were washed and incubated with secondary swine anti-rabbit HRP conjugated

antibody (Agilent DAKO, Santa Clara, CA, P0399) in 1% milk in PBST for 1 hour at room

temperature. Membranes were washed and then visualized using Western Lightning Plus ECL

chemiluminescent substrate (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA) on Kodak BioMax XAR film

(MilliporeSigma, Burlington, MA). Films were then scanned and processed using Adobe

Photoshop 2021. Any contrast adjustments were applied evenly to the entire image and adheres

to standards set forth by the scientific community (38).

RESULTS

Screening of a C-type lectin library identifies Dectin-2 as a receptor for galactomannan

The fungal cell wall is a dynamic structure that can change in both structure and composition depending on the morphological stage, environmental milieu, and upon engagement with immune cells (13, 39). Therefore, probing the role of a single carbohydrate entity is challenging. Standard techniques have relied upon solubilized carbohydrates or genetic deletion mutants, however these techniques have limitations including pleiotropic changes that occur in genetic deletion strains, such as compensatory changes in cell wall composition or structure, growth defects, alterations in antigen exposure (40), and known differences in immune response to soluble versus particulate (or cell-bound) carbohydrates. Most fungal cell wall carbohydrates remain bound to the cell wall, however galactomannan and β-1,3 glucan are unique as they exist as both cell wall-associated and free/soluble carbohydrates. β-1,3 glucan has been extensively studied revealing differences in how soluble and cell wall β-1,3 glucan interact with immune cells (41-43). Cell wall associated β-1,3 glucan signals via both the CLR Dectin-1 and complement receptor 3, whereas soluble β-1,3 glucan is Dectin-1 independent (41-43). Although both cell wall β-1,3 glucan and soluble β-1,3 glucan bind Dectin-1, only cell wall β-1,3 glucan activates signaling (41). In contrast, receptors such as TLRs signal in response to both soluble and cell associated ligands. Activation of Dectin-1 requires receptor clustering into phagocytic synapses which exclude regulatory phosphatases licensing activation of Dectin-1 (41, 44). Whether the difference in response to cell wall and soluble carbohydrates is unique to β-1,3 glucan and Dectin-1 or extends to other fungal carbohydrates and CLRs remains unknown. We hypothesize that the innate immune system distinguishes between soluble and cell-associated fungal carbohydrates to tailor the immune response. Most studies to date have been conducted using soluble galactomannan. Thus, we sought to characterize the immune response to cell-associated galactomannan to understand how innate immune cells interact with *Aspergillus* at the site of infection.

Since CLRs are known to be involved in sensing of fungal pathogens and bind to

carbohydrates, we examined if any of the known CLRs were potential receptors for

galactomannan in the *Aspergillus* cell wall. We first screened a CLR library using *A. fumigatus*

germlings to determine which CLRs were stimulated by the whole organism and confirm utility of

the assay. T cell hybridomas containing an NFAT-lacZ reporter were engineered to express

individual or combinations of CLRs: Dectin-1, Dectin-2, Dectin-3, or Mincle. Dectin-2, Dectin-3,

and Mincle require interaction with the gamma subunit of the Fc gamma receptor (FcRg) for both

cell surface localization and signaling, thus this protein was co-expressed. We stimulated the

CLR reporter cells for 18 hours at 37℃ 5% CO_2 with live and heat-killed *Aspergillus* germlings

and observed robust activation of Dectin-1, Dectin-2, and Dectin-2/Dectin-3 co-expressing cells

(Figure 1A). Since cells that express Dectin-3 alone were not activated, the activation of the

Dectin-2/Dectin-3 co-expressing cells is likely due to either activation of Dectin-2 alone or possible

Dectin-2/Dectin-3 in combination (Figure 1A). Activation of Dectin-1 is known to occur through

binding of cell-wall associated b-1,3 glucan, but the Dectin-2 ligand on the surface of *Aspergillus*

has not been established. We hypothesized that galactomannan could be a potential Dectin-2

ligand.

To dissect individual carbohydrate contributions to CLR reporter cell activation, we

employed a technique developed in our laboratory for creating FLPs that consist of polystyrene

beads coated with a discrete, purified fungal carbohydrates (28). We have previously generated

FLPs made from purified b-1,3 glucan and demonstrated that carbohydrate-coated FLPs mimic

cell-associated or particulate carbohydrates. These b-1,3 glucan FLPs can activate Dectin-1

signaling and elicit the formation of a phagocytic synapse (28, 30, 44). Generation of

galactomannan FLPs was performed using methods previously described for the creation of b-

1,3 glucan and mannan FLPs (28) (Supplemental Methods). All generated FLPs underwent

quality control using flow cytometry to demonstrate the stable attachment of carbohydrates to the

FLP surface (Figure S1). We stimulated the reporter cell library with unmodified beads, b-1,3

glucan FLP, mannan FLP, and galactomannan FLP. Activation of CLR signaling resulted in

expression of a LacZ reporter and was quantified using a CPRG assay to measure β-

galactosidase activity. As expected, b-1,3 glucan FLPs activated Dectin-1 expressing reporter

cells and *S. cerevisiae* mannan FLPs stimulated Dectin-2 expressing reporter cells. The

galactomannan FLPs also stimulated Dectin-2 (Figure 1B) and Dectin-2/Dectin-3 co-expressing

cells (data not shown), suggesting that not only did galactomannan bind to Dectin-2, but also

triggered signaling by the CLR. None of our FLPs stimulated Mincle or Dectin-3 signaling alone,

however these cells were activated by incubation with trehalose-6,6-dibehenate (TDB) (data not

shown) demonstrating that the receptors are functional, and that absence of observed stimulation

is due to lack of CLR activation by the galactomannan FLPs. These data suggested that Dectin-

2, but not Dectin-3 or Mincle, is a potential receptor for galactomannan.

Soluble Dectin-2 binds to galactomannan FLPs

After identifying Dectin-2 as a receptor for galactomannan using the CLR reporter cell screen, we

next assessed whether Dectin-2 binds directly to galactomannan FLP. To do this, we used

soluble murine Dectin-2-human IgG1 Fc fusion protein and a control human IgG1 Fc protein

(lacking Dectin-2). Flow cytometry using an anti-human IgG1 Fc antibody and an AF488 labeled

secondary antibody was used to detect adherence of Dectin-2-Fc to the surface of FLP (Figure

2A). Dectin-2-Fc was specifically bound to both *Aspergillus* galactomannan FLPs and

Saccharomyces mannan FLPs but did not bind to either unmodified or b-1,3 glucan FLPs. As

expected, human IgG1 Fc protein did not bind to any FLP. As an additional control to demonstrate

that binding to the galactomannan FLPs was Dectin-2 specific, we incubated the Dectin-2-Fc

protein with anti-Dectin-2 neutralizing antibody or isotype control for 30 minutes prior to incubation

with galactomannan FLPs. The Dectin-2 neutralizing antibody, but not the isotype control,

blocked binding of Dectin-2-Fc to galactomannan FLP demonstrating a specific interaction (Figure

2B).

Galactomannan FLPs induce Dectin-2 dependent Syk activation

The CLR reporter assay and binding studies demonstrated that Dectin-2 is capable of binding

Aspergillus galactomannan. Next, we investigated whether this binding results in downstream

signaling. Dectin-2 does not possess an intrinsic signaling domain within its short intracellular tail

and signaling occurs through partnering of Dectin-2 with the gamma subunit (FcRg) of the Fc

gamma receptor (FcgR) (35). Activation of Dectin-2 through ligand binding leads to

phosphorylation of the ITAM motif of FcRg and subsequent signaling through Syk. FcRg is also

required for localization of Dectin-2 to the cell surface (35). Macrophages are known to express

Dectin-2, however immortalized C57BL/6 macrophages have low levels of Dectin-2 surface

expression at baseline (data not shown). Therefore, we transduced macrophages with lentivirus

containing either the murine Dectin-2 receptor or the human Dectin-2 receptor. As macrophages

produce abundant FCRg, we did not observe any difference in Dectin-2 surface expression

between macrophages transduced with only Dectin-2 or those transduced with both Dectin-2 and

FCRg. To determine if galactomannan is sufficient to trigger Dectin-2 dependent Syk activation,

we stimulated macrophages with galactomannan FLPs for 1 hour as well as unmodified FLPs, b-

1,3 glucan FLPs, mannan FLPs, and *C. albicans.* We used *C. albicans* as a positive control in

these experiments since it is a strong activator of Syk phosphorylation in wild-type macrophages.

Lysates from stimulated cells were immunoblotted for phosphorylated and total Syk. As expected,

we observed phosphorylation of Syk when wildtype macrophages were stimulated by *Candida*

albicans and b-1,3 glucan FLPs (positive controls for Syk stimulation) (Figure 3A). There was

increased phosphorylation of Syk in response to both galactomannan and mannan in Dectin-2

expressing macrophages demonstrating that galactomannan is sufficient to drive Dectin-2

dependent Syk phosphorylation (Figure 3A).

***Dectin-2 mediates TNFa production by murine macrophages in response to both* A.**

***fumigatus* and galactomannan FLPs**

Having demonstrated that galactomannan is sufficient to activate Dectin-2 dependent Syk

signaling, we next interrogated the downstream effects of this activation. Specifically, we aimed

to determine if galactomannan stimulation of Dectin-2 is both sufficient and necessary for cytokine

production. To determine if galactomannan stimulation of Dectin-2 is sufficient to trigger cytokine

production, Dectin-2 expressing macrophages were stimulated overnight with unmodified FLPs,

b-1,3 glucan FLPs, *A. fumigatus* galactomannan FLPs, or *S. cerevisiae* mannan FLPs (positive

control) and TNFa production was measured by ELISA. Galactomannan and mannan FLPs

enhanced TNFa production in Dectin-2 expressing macrophages (Figure 3A). To demonstrate

that this effect was specific to Dectin-2, we pre-incubated the macrophages with a Dectin-2

neutralizing antibody or an isotype control for 30 minutes prior to stimulation with FLPs. TNFa

production was blocked by the Dectin-2 specific antibody, but not by the isotype control,

demonstrating a specific role for Dectin-2 in mediating the TNFa production in response to

galactomannan (Figure 3B).

To examine if Dectin-2 is required for primary BMDMs to respond to galactomannan FLPs,

primary BMDM from wildtype or Dectin-2 deficient mice were stimulated by galactomannan FLPs,

unmodified FLPs (negative control), or LPS (positive control). There was a significant decrease

in TNFa production in response to galactomannan FLPs (Figure 3C), indicating that

galactomannan triggers the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines in BMDMs in a Dectin-2

dependent manner.

Dectin-2 is dispensable for survival in a murine model of infection

Our data suggest that Dectin-2 is a receptor for *A. fumigatus* galactomannan, and that recognition

of galactomannan by Dectin-2 results in Syk phosphorylation and cytokine production. To

determine if this pathway is required for survival during *Aspergillus* infection, we intranasally

infected corticosteroid immunosuppressed C57BL/6 mice and Dectin-2 deficient mice with *A.*

fumigatus (CEA10 strain) and monitored the mice for signs of infection. There was no difference

in survival between wild-type and Dectin-2 deficient mice, suggesting that in this model, Dectin-2

is dispensable for survival (Figure 4A).

Deletion of Dectin-2 results in increased recruitment of neutrophils, but does not alter

fungal burden

Although Dectin-2 did not affect the overall survival of the mice, we sought to determine if the

immune cell influx in response to infection was altered in the absence of Dectin-2. Since treatment

with steroids affects immune cell function, we chose to perform this experiment in an

immunocompetent, rather than a steroid-induced immunosuppression mouse model.

Immunocompetent mice were administered either *A.   fumigatus* strain CEA10 or PBS via

oropharyngeal aspiration. After 48 hours of infection lungs were harvested, digested, and the

resulting single cell suspension was enriched for leukocytes using a Percoll gradient. A multi-

channel flow cytometry experiment was performed to allow simultaneous assessment of multiple

cell lines including neutrophils, eosinophils, T cells, B cells, dendritic cells (including cDC1, cDC2,

monocyte derived DCs, and plasmacytoid dendritic cells [pDCs]), NK cells, monocytes, and

alveolar macrophages. All infected mice demonstrated a marked increase in cellular infiltrates

compared to the PBS control mice, however only neutrophil influx was altered by Dectin-2

deficiency. We infected mice with 1×10^7, 2×10^7 and 4×10^7 conidia of CEA10 *A. fumigatus* and

noted a dose-dependent increase in immune cell infiltrate. At doses higher than 4×10^7 most

mice succumbed within 24 – 48 hours, presumably due to an exuberant inflammatory response.

While at all doses, there was a trend toward increased neutrophil influx in Dectin-2 deficient mice,

this only reached the level of significance in mice infected with 4×10^7 conidia. Dectin-2 deficient

mice had increased neutrophil infiltration of lungs compared to wild-type (Figure 4B), suggesting

that Dectin-2 is involved in the coordination of neutrophil response in this airway model of

infection.

To determine whether the increased influx of neutrophils could be the result of difference

in fungal burden between wild-type and Dectin-2 deficient mice, we quantified fungal burden in

the lungs of mice infected with 4 x 10^7 conidia at 48 hours post-infection using qPCR to detect

and quantify *Aspergillus* DNA(37). *Aspergillus fumigatus* DNA was detected in all samples from

infected mice, but not in PBS controls. There was no difference in *Aspergillus* DNA between wild-

type and Dectin-2 deficient mice (Figure 4C). CFU assays were also performed as a confirmatory

test to ensure that there was no difference in live *Aspergillus* fungal burden, since fungal DNA

testing cannot distinguish between live versus dead organisms. Lungs from both wild-type and

Dectin-2 deficient mice still contained live *Aspergillus fumigatus* at 48 hours, and there was no

difference in CFU between strains (data not shown). Taken together these results suggest that

the enhanced neutrophil infiltrate in Dectin-2 deficient mice is not due to a difference in fungal

burden.

DISCUSSION

Galactomannan is a clinically important polysaccharide that is released into patients' blood and

bronchial lavage fluid and used to diagnose invasive aspergillosis infections. However, we do not

understand the immunological implications of the wide-scale release of this carbohydrate into

patient tissue, or the role that it plays in mediating direct immunological interactions between *A.*

fumigatus and innate immune cells at the site of infection. Here, we utilized FLPs coated with

purified *A. fumigatus* galactomannan to identify Dectin-2 as a receptor for galactomannan. Our

results demonstrate that cell-associated galactomannan binds Dectin-2 inducing phosphorylation

of Syk and TNFa production.

Although BMDMs from Dectin-2 deficient mice had decreased cytokine production in

response to galactomannan FLPs, there was no difference in overall survival of

immunosuppressed Dectin-2 deficient mice compared with wild-type mice when challenged

intranasally with *A. fumigatus*. There is significant redundancy in CLRs signaling, therefore it is

possible that the lack of Dectin-2 is compensated for through Dectin-1 or other CLR-ligand

interactions in the context of the whole organism. However, publications have suggested a critical

role for Dectin-2 in the immune response to *A. fumigatus(45, 46)*. A recent case report identified

a patient without previously recognized immunodeficiency that developed invasive aspergillosis

and was found to have a mutation in Dectin-2 that led to decreased responsiveness to *Aspergillus*

(45). Previous work has also demonstrated a role for Dectin-2 in mediating plasmacytoid dendritic

cell (pDC) responses to *A. fumigatus* (46). These observations, coupled with this study, suggest

that while Dectin-2 may not be required for survival in a murine model, it may contribute to human

disease through modulating interactions with discrete cell populations.

Interestingly, immunocompetent mice that lacked Dectin-2 have increased recruitment of

neutrophils into the lung tissue upon infection with *Aspergillus*, which is in sharp contrast to

galactosaminogalactan (GAG) from *A. fumigatus* which led to a reduction of neutrophil infiltration

(47). The difference in neutrophil infiltrates was not due to difference in the fungal burden within

the lungs, suggesting that it is a direct result of Dectin-2 deficiency. This result is interesting, as

our data also demonstrated that galactomannan-induced Dectin-2 signaling in macrophages

leads to pro-inflammatory TNFα release. We anticipated that the absence of Dectin-2 would

result in decreased pulmonary inflammation, but surprisingly observed increased neutrophil

recruitment. Our results suggest that Dectin-2 may normally temper neutrophil recruitment to the

lungs, or that Dectin-2 signaling normally leads to increased neutrophil turnover. There are

multiple potential hypotheses to explain these findings which will provide fertile ground for future

studies. In the absence of Dectin-2, expression of Dectin-1 and/or other C-type Lectin Receptors

may be upregulated and thus these receptors may play a more substantial role in driving the

immune response. Additionally, Dectin-2 is expressed not just by macrophages, but also by many

immune cells and other lung resident cells, including epithelial cells. Thus, a cell type other than

macrophages, may be responsible for mediating the difference in neutrophil influx that we

observed. For instance, studies by Loures, *et al* (46) demonstrated that plasmacytoid dendritic

cell production of type I IFNs in response to *Aspergillus fumigatus* is dependent upon Dectin-2

mediated recognition of *Aspergillus fumigatus*. While we did not observe a difference in pDC

recruitment to the lungs in wild-type compared to Dectin-2 deficient mice, these cells are likely

impaired in their ability to produce type I IFNs during infection. While the increased PMN influx

observed in Dectin-2 deficient mice did not affect fungal clearance, whether the increased PMN

influx seen in Dectin-2 deficient mice could have detrimental effects on the host, such as

increasing lung damage during infection is unknown.

Our current work addresses the mechanism by which cell-wall associated galactomannan

is recognized by Dectin-2. Galactomannan and β-1,3 glucan are both fungal cell wall

carbohydrates that exists in both soluble and cell-wall associated states. B-1,3 glucan is known

to interact with the immune system differently depending upon its form. Whether galactomannan-

induced immune activation is triggered only at sites of infection or more systemically and how this

could impact the outcome of infection remain critically important questions. Whether circulating

soluble galactomannan can stimulate recognition by Dectin-2 will be the subject of future studies.

Dectin-2 has also been implicated in allergic disease(48-51), suggesting that galactomannan from

Aspergillus could play a role in stimulating allergic manifestations to this pathogen. Overall, our

data demonstrate that galactomannan is recognized by Dectin-2 and lays the exciting groundwork

for dissecting the role of galactomannan in an important clinical disease.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. *A. fumigatus* and galactomannan activate Dectin-2 expressing CLR reporter cells.

Reporter cells were stimulated for 18 hours using (A) either live or heat killed germlings of *A.*

fumigatus Af293 at MOI 20:1 or (B) unmodified FLPs, b-1,3 glucan (BG) FLPs, *S. cerevisiae*

mannan FLPs, and *A. fumigatus* galactomannan (GALM) FLPs at an effector to target ration of

30:1. LacZ activity was measured in total cell lysates using CPRG as a substrate. Error bars

represent the SEM of duplicate wells, and each experiment was repeated three times.

Figure 2. Recombinant Dectin-2 Fc protein binds galactomannan FLPs. (A) Unmodified FLPs, b-

1,3 glucan FLPs, and galactomannan FLPs were blocked overnight in PBS/2% BSA then washed

and resuspended in binding buffer. FLP were incubated with soluble recombinant murine Dectin-

2- human IgG1 Fc protein conjugate, control IgG1-Fc protein, or in buffer only, incubated with

anti-human IgG1 conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 and analyzed by flow cytometry. Dectin-2-Fc

bound to galactomannan FLPs, but not to either unmodified or b-1,3 glucan FLPs. (B) FLPs were

incubated for 2 hours in binding buffer alone or containing Dectin-2-Fc protein or Dectin-2-Fc pre-

incubated for 30 minutes with a Dectin-2 neutralizing antibody. Dectin-2 neutralizing antibody

disrupted the association of Dectin-2-Fc with galactomannan FLPs.

Figure 3. Galactomannan FLPs activate Dectin-2 dependent signaling in macrophages. (A)

Immunoblot of immortalized wildtype C57BL/6 macrophages or C57BL/6 macrophages

expressing Dectin-2 stimulated with live *C. albicans* (SC5314), unmodified FLPs, galactomannan

FLPs, b-1,3 glucan FLPs, or mannan FLPs at MOI 10:1 for 1 hour at 37°C and probed for both

total Syk and phosphorylated (active) Syk. Overexpression of Dectin-2 increased phosphorylation

of Syk in response to *C. albicans*, galactomannan and mannan FLPs, but not to unmodified or b-

1,3 glucan FLPs. (B) Immortalized wildtype C57BL/6 macrophages or C57BL/6 macrophages

expressing Dectin-2 were stimulated overnight with unmodified (UM), galactomannan (GALM), or

mannan (MAN) FLPs at a target to effector ratio of 10:1. Prior to FLPs stimulation, macrophages

were pre-treated for 30 minutes with either a Dectin-2 neutralizing antibody or an isotype control

antibody as indicated. Supernatants were analyzed for TNFa using ELISA. Both galactomannan

and mannan FLPs induced robust TNFa production by macrophages expressing Dectin-2, which

was blocked by Dectin-2 neutralizing antibody, but not the isotype control. The significance

indicated is in relation to the wild-type cell stimulated with the same FLPs. (C) BMDMs from wild-

type C57BL/6 and Dectin-2^{-/-} mice were stimulated with LPS (500ng/ml), and unmodified (UM) or

galactomannan (GALM) FLPs at an effector to target ration of 20:1 for 18 hours. Supernatants

were analyzed for TNFa using ELISA. Dectin-2^{-/-} BMDM produced less TNFa when stimulated

with galactomannan FLP compared with wildtype BMDM. Error bars represent standard error of

three biological replicates, statistics were calculated with two-way ANOVA using PRISM 9

software (not significant, ns, *** $p<0.001$, **** $p<0.0001$).

Figure 4. Dectin-2 is dispensable for survival, however deficiency of Dectin-2 leads to increased

neutrophil influx. (A) Wild-type C57BL/6 and Dectin-2^{-/-} mice were immunosuppressed with

corticosteroids and infected intranasally with 2.5×10^4 conidia of *A. fumigatus* strain CEA10.

There was no significant difference in survival between wildtype and Dectin-2^{-/-} mice as

determined based upon Kaplan-Meyer and Cox Analysis using PRISM 9 software (B)

Immunocompetent wild-type and Dectin-2^{-/-} mice were infected via oropharyngeal inhalation of 4

$\times 10^7$ conidia of *A. fumigatus* CEA10. Lung tissue was harvested 48 hours post-infection and

digested to obtain a single cell suspension that was then analyzed by flow cytometry. The

neutrophil fraction was identified as live (7-AAD low), CD45+, CD90.2-, CD19-, SiglecF-, Ly6G+

cells. Each point represents an individual animal and horizontal lines represent the median

neutrophil burden in the lungs. One-way ANOVA was performed using PRISM9 software to

determine statistical significance (**; $p<0.01$). (C) Immunocompetent wild-type and Dectin-2^{-/-}

mice were infected with 4 x 10^7 CEA10. After 48 hours lungs were extracted, and fungal burden

was quantified using qPCR. There was no difference in fungal burden between wild-type and

Dectin-2$^{-/-}$ mice. Each point represents an individual animal and horizontal lines represent the

median fungal burden in the lungs. Each experiment was repeated at least twice, and concordant

results were obtained in each experiment.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4