A protein hydroxylase couples epithelial membrane biology to nucleolar ribosome biogenesis

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Abstract

Jumonji-C (JmjC) ribosomal protein hydroxylases are an ancient class of oxygen- and Fe(II)-dependent oxygenases that spawned the wider JmjC family and Histone Lysine Demethylases (KDMs) in eukaryotes. Myc-induced Antigen (MINA) has been implicated in ribosome biogenesis and was assigned as a nucleolar-localized JmjC histidyl hydroxylase of the large ribosomal subunit protein RPL27A, consistent with reports that it supports cell growth and viability in a variety of tumor cell types. Reported roles in diverse aspects of disease biology may be consistent with additional MINA functions, although the molecular mechanisms involved remain unclear. Here, we describe an extra-nucleolar interaction of MINA with the Hinge domain of the membrane-associated guanylate kinase, MPP6. We show that MINA promotes the expression and membrane localization of MPP6 and that the MINA-MPP6 pathway is required for epithelial tight junction integrity and barrier function. The function of MINA in this novel pathway is suppressed by ribosomal RNA transcription and the nucleolar MINA interactome, which sequesters MINA in the nucleoli of growing cells. Our work sheds light on how quiescent cells lose adhesion as they switch to proliferate states associated with increased ribosome biogenesis.

Keywords: Myc, ribosome biogenesis, tight junction, polarity, barrier function, RNA polymerase I, protein hydroxylase, MAGUK, polarity

Introduction

Cross-talk between cellular processes is key to enabling a coordinated multisystem response to a change in cell fate. The switch to a proliferative state requires increased metabolic activity and accumulation of biomass to feed cell growth and cell cycle-dependent changes in adhesion to support division (Jones et al., 2019; Pelletier et al., 2018; Zhu and Thompson, 2019). Cells have evolved sophisticated signaling mechanisms to couple such processes. For example, bidirectional cross-talk has been demonstrated between cell adhesion and the cell cycle (Jones et al., 2019). Whether cell adhesion is coupled to other fundamental processes linked to growth remains unclear.

Ribosomal RNA (rRNA) synthesis is a rate-limiting step of ribosome biogenesis and is upregulated as cells switch from growth-arrested to proliferative states in response to major growth responsive signaling pathways and transcription factors, such as Myc (Pelletier et al., 2018; van Riggelen et al., 2010). Activation of Myc or the RNA polymerase I (RNApol1) transcription initiation factor RRN3 is sufficient to induce RNApol1 activity and proliferation in human epithelial cells (Arabi et al., 2005; Grandori et al., 2005; Rossetti et al., 2010; Rossetti et al., 2016). Remarkably, normal 3D morphogenesis (which requires functional polarity and adhesion) is impaired under such conditions (Rossetti et al., 2010; Rossetti et al., 2016), suggesting that ribosome biogenesis, like the cell cycle, might also be coupled to epithelial membrane biology in some way.

MINA is a nucleolar-localized Myc target gene implicated in ribosome biogenesis (Bundred et al., 2018; Eilbracht et al., 2005; Tsuneoka et al., 2002). It is a member of the 2-oxoglutarate (2OG)-, Fe(II)-, and oxygen-dependent oxygenase family, and is highly related to NO66, a prokaryotic orthologue of which is believed to have evolved into the eukaryotic JmjC enzymes, including KDMs (Chowdhury et al., 2014). Despite the presence of a JmjC catalytic domain, detailed structural and biochemical studies suggest that MINA and NO66 may not be KDMs (Chowdhury et al., 2014). Indeed, they catalyze non-redundant and site-specific histidine hydroxylation of the large ribosomal subunit proteins RPL27A and RPL8, respectively (Ge et al., 2012). Hydroxylation has been proposed to support the optimal conformation of the target residue to promote its interaction with rRNA (Yanshina et al., 2020). Consistent with a positive role in ribosome biogenesis/function, multiple studies have described upregulation of MINA in rapidly growing cells, including in tumors (reviewed in (Bundred et al., 2018)). However, recent reports have also implicated MINA in suppressing cell migration, invasion, and epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) (Komiya et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2014). How MINA controls these aspects of epithelial biology, and whether it is independent of, or may be coupled to, its role in nucleolar ribosome biogenesis, remains unclear.

Here, we describe a novel extra-nucleolar function for MINA in epithelial barrier function
through its pseudosubstrate-like interaction with MPP6, a member of the 'palmitoylated
membrane protein' (MPP) subfamily of the MAGUK superfamily of cell adhesion and polarity
adaptor proteins. Furthermore, we provide evidence suggesting that increased RNAPol1
activity sinks MINA into the nucleolus to suppress the role of MINA in cell adhesion, thereby
coupling ribosome biogenesis to epithelial membrane biology.

Results

MINA promotes epithelial barrier function

Although MINA has been implicated as an oncogenic driver of tumor proliferation, there is
emerging literature on its role in suppressing cell migration and invasion. However, these
functional studies have generally focused on the role of MINA in highly proliferative cells that
have undergone a robust EMT, such as rapidly proliferating tumor cell lines (Bundred et al.,
2018) and references therein)). MINA is ubiquitously expressed in normal healthy human
tissues (Figure S1), and yet its role in such contexts is poorly characterized. To begin to
explore its physiological role in more detail we studied MINA in intestinal epithelial cells that
retain good cell adhesion, polarity, and barrier function, and that can differentiate and undergo
morphogenesis in 3D (Jaffe et al., 2008; Sambuy et al., 2005). As such, we generated Caco-
2 cell lines stably expressing doxycycline-inducible MINA shRNA sequences. In these cells
MINA depletion did not affect proliferation (Figure S2) or grossly alter apico-basal asymmetry,
as assessed by the localization of tight and adherens junction markers ZO-1 and E-cadherin,
respectively (Figure 1A). However, we observed an increase in cell perimeter and cell
flattening following MINA knockdown (Figures 1A and 1B). MINA depletion also resulted in
delayed formation of transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER; Figure 1C) and a reduction in
'domes' (Figures 1D and 1E), which are normally formed when fluid is pumped under a cell
monolayer, in the context of good cell:cell adhesion. Taken together, these data suggest that
MINA may be required for tight junction (TJ) integrity and barrier function (MacCallum et al.,
2005; Srinivasan et al., 2015). Consistent with this hypothesis, we noted reduced membrane
localization and expression of tight junction-associated protein Claudin-1 in response to MINA
depletion (Figures 1F, 1G and 1H). How a nucleolar ribosomal protein hydroxylase regulates
such membrane-related biology is unclear.

Figure 1. MINA promotes tight junction integrity and epithelial barrier function

(A) Increased perimeter of cells in MINA-depleted monolayers. Caco-2 cells expressing a non-targeting (shCTRL) or MINA-targeting shRNA (shMINA#1) were grown on a semi-permeable membrane for 10 days and stained for ZO-1 (yellow), E-cadherin (magenta) and DNA (DAPI, cyan). Consecutive images were taken from the basal to the apical side and presented as a maximum projection image (top panels) or orthogonal view (rectangular bottom panels). Orthogonal views show the basal side at the bottom and apical side (as indicated by ZO-1) at the top. Scale bars, 20 μm.

(B) Quantification of cell perimeters under conditions presented in (A). Violin plot represents the data from 3 independent experiments. n = 4572 (shCTRL), 2616 (shMINA #1) and 2426 (shMINA #3) cells. The average of each condition is shown underneath each respective violin.

(C) Delayed establishment of transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) in MINA-depleted cells. Monolayer integrity and permeability were analyzed on the indicated days by measuring the electrical resistance across the monolayer. Line graph shows the average of three technical repeats of one representative biological experiment. The experiment was repeated 5 times with similar results.

(D) Top, phase-contrast image of a dome, as viewed from the top. Scale bar, 100 μm. Bottom, illustration of a dome, as viewed from the side.

(E) Quantification of dome formation in monolayers of stable Caco-2 cells expressing the indicated shRNA sequences. Bars represent the average number of domes per mm² of n = 3 independent experiments. The average of each condition is shown above each respective bar.

(F) Altered localization of tight junction protein Claudin-1 following MINA knockdown.

Representative images of Caco-2 monolayers expressing the indicated shRNAs were stained for Claudin (magenta), ZO-1 (gray) and DNA (DAPI; cyan). Scale bars, 20 μm.

***(G)** Reduced Claudin-1 protein expression in response to MINA knockdown. Extracts from Caco-2 cells expressing the indicated shRNA sequences were grown into a monolayer over 5 days and immunoblotted for Claudin-1 (23 kDa) and MINA (53 kDa). β-actin was used as loading control. Uncropped images are shown in source data.*

***(H)** Quantification of (G). Bar graph shows Claudin-1 expression relative to β-actin. Bars represent the average of n = 3 biological repeats.*

(B), (C), (E), and (H); Statistical significance was determined using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and p values were calculated post-hoc using a Dunnett's test for multiple comparisons. Error bars, standard deviation (SD).

MINA localization is dependent on its nucleolar interactome and active ribosome biogenesis

To investigate the role of MINA in epithelial membrane biology we first re-evaluated its subcellular localization. Consistent with reports describing nucleolar MINA staining in highly proliferative normal tissues, such as the testes (Tsuneoka et al., 2006), and in tumors (reviewed in (Bundred et al., 2018)), we observed strong nucleolar enrichment of MINA in rapidly growing mesenchymal-like cell lines (e.g. SW620 and A549; Figure 2A). Surprisingly, this enrichment was diminished in slower growing cell lines with a more epithelial morphology. In U2OS and Caco-2 cells the localization of MINA appeared heterogenous with some cells showing diffuse nucleoplasmic staining and no nucleolar enrichment (Figures 2A and S3A).

We hypothesized that the subcellular localization of MINA might be related to growth status. To test this, we cultured Caco-2 to either subconfluence or confluence (Figure 2B): In subconfluent cells we observed a more homogenous subcellular distribution of MINA with diffuse nucleoplasmic staining *and* nucleolar enrichment. In confluent cells MINA distributed evenly throughout the nucleus without any nucleolar enrichment. The nucleolar enrichment of overexpressed MINA was partly dependent on its catalytic activity in subconfluent cells, suggesting a role for RPL27A hydroxylation (Figures 2C and S3B). To explore whether MINA localization is dynamic and responds to external cues we grew Caco-2 cells to confluence before scratching the monolayer. As expected, confluent cells distal to the scratch showed nucleoplasmic MINA localization. However, cells proximal to the scratch showed elevated levels of MINA and nucleolar enrichment (Figure 2D). Taken together, these data suggest that the growth status of the cell is an important determinant of MINA localization.

Figure 2. MINA nucleolar localization is regulated by growth and hydroxylase activity

(A) Localization of MINA in selected cancer cell lines. Representative immunofluorescence images showing nucleolar and/or nucleoplasmic MINA. Cells were fixed with methanol and stained for endogenous MINA (magenta) and the nucleolar marker nucleolin (cyan). Scale bars, 10 µm.

(B) Nucleolar MINA localization depends on cell confluence. Representative immunofluorescence images showing the localization of wildtype (WT) 3xFLAG-MINA in subconfluent and confluent conditions. Cells were incubated with 0.1 µg/mL doxycycline for 48 h to induce expression of 3xFLAG-MINA and stained with an antibody raised against endogenous MINA (magenta). To confirm that the detected signal was of overexpressed, exogenous 3xFLAG-MINA, an empty vector control was used (Figure S3B). Cells were counterstained for nucleolin (NCL, green) and DNA (DAPI, gray). Scale bars, 10 µm

(C) Bar graph showing the percentage of cell in which nucleolar enrichment could ('Nucleolar') or could not ('Nuclear') be observed. 'Low' and 'High' refer to the level of confluence. Bars

show the average of three biological repeats. Error bars, SD. A total of one hundred cells were
counted per condition per experiment. Samples were blinded before analysis. Statistical
significance was determined using an unpaired t-test.
(D) MINA becomes enriched in the nucleolus following disruption of a confluent monolayer. A
scratch was introduced to disrupt a confluent monolayer of Caco-2 cells expressing wildtype
3xFLAG-MINA. Cells were fixed 24 h after the scratch was made. Re-localization of 3xFLAG-
MINA was observed in cells proximal to the scratch (top, indicated by the white dashed line).
In contrast, at a distance from the scratch, 3xFLAG-MINA remained in the nucleoplasm
(bottom). Scale bars, 50 or 10 (enlargements) μm.
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Considering the importance of MINA hydroxylase activity, and the established links between
growth and ribosome biogenesis, we hypothesized that increased ribosome biogenesis might
act as a nucleolar sink for MINA. Consistent with this possibility, we observed significant
nucleolar enrichment of nascent proteins that colocalized with MINA in subconfluent cells
(Figure 3A). Under these conditions, inhibition of rRNA transcription and ribosome biogenesis
with RNAPol1 inhibitors was sufficient to redistribute MINA from the nucleolus to the
nucleoplasm (Figures 3B and S4A) (Eilbracht et al., 2005). Publicly available SILAC proteomic
data demonstrate that the response to RNAPol1 inhibition is rapid and dynamic (Figure 3C)
(Andersen et al., 2005). Conversely, overexpression of the RNAPol1 activator RRN3 was
sufficient to enrich some MINA in the nucleoli of confluent cells (Figure S4B). Nucleophosmin
(NPM1) is a highly abundant nucleolar protein involved in ribosome biogenesis and a major
MINA-binding partner (Eilbracht et al., 2005; Ge et al., 2012). To test whether NPM1
contributes to nucleolar sequestration of MINA we targeted it with siRNA in subconfluent Caco-
2 cells. Consistent with the hypothesis, loss of NPM1 expression was sufficient to redistribute
MINA to the nucleoplasm (Figure S4C). Overall, our localization analyses suggest that
nucleolar enrichment of MINA is dependent on elevated levels of ribosome biogenesis and its
nucleolar interactome. In cells where these determinants are lost or suppressed, MINA is
redistributed to the nucleoplasm, where (we hypothesize) it undertakes an alternative function
in epithelial membrane biology.

We reasoned that a nucleolar localization mutant would support efforts to dissect nucleolar
versus extra-nucleolar MINA functions. We searched the MINA primary sequence for
nucleolar localization sequences (NoLSs) (Scott et al., 2011) and identified two potential
candidates, one at the N-terminus and a bipartite-like motif within residues 100-125 (Figure
S5A). The latter was more highly conserved than the N-terminal sequence (Figure S5B). The
basic residues at the C-terminal end of the conserved bipartite motif (R125/K126) are within
an a-helix and their side chains are solvent-exposed, which are known determinants of NoLSs
(Figure 3D) (Scott et al., 2010). The C-terminal part of bipartite NoLSs have previously been
shown to be involved in nucleolar targeting (Scott et al., 2010). Therefore, we considered

R125/K126 as residues of interest to experimentally test their contribution to MINA nucleolar
localization. Consistent with predictions, an R125G/K126G mutant (NoLS) was unable to
localize to the nucleolus (Figure 3E) and did not interact with the nucleolar targets RPL27A
and NPM1 (Figure 3F). The R125G/K126G mutation retained nuclear localization (Figure 3E)
and hydroxylase activity (Figure S5C), suggesting that MINA NoLS mutant is a viable tool for
investigating the extra-nucleolar role of MINA.

Figure 3. Determinants of subnuclear MINA localization
(A) 3xFLAG-MINA colocalizes with newly synthesized proteins in the nucleoli of subconfluent
cells. Stable Caco-2 cells expressing wildtype (WT) 3xFLAG-MINA and seeded at a high or

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Extra-nucleolar MINA interacts with membrane palmitoylated protein 6 (MPP6)

To investigate how extra-nucleolar MINA regulates barrier function we next sought to identify

extra-nucleolar MINA interactors. We hypothesized that a physiologically relevant extra-

nucleolar MINA interactor might exist in multiple independent cell types and be enriched in

NoLS versus wildtype MINA pulldowns. Therefore, we first immunopurified wildtype 3xFLAG-

MINA from three diverse cell types (Caco-2, U2OS, and mouse embryonic fibroblasts) before

trypsinolysis and MS-based protein identification. We removed contaminants present in

control samples before applying strict filtering criteria to identify only the highest confidence

and most abundant interactors. Cross-referencing the three datasets identified just four

proteins in common, two of which were the known interactors RPL27A and NPM1. Next, we

compared NoLS and wildtype MINA proteomic screens performed in Caco-2 cells to identify

proteins with increased binding to extranucleolar MINA: We cross-referenced these

candidates with the four proteins identified in multiple cell lines above, which identified one protein, MPP6 (Figure 4A). Because MPP6 is a member of the MAGUK superfamily of cell adhesion and polarity proteins (Figure S6) (Chytła et al., 2020), we considered it a viable candidate to mediate the extra-nucleolar functions of MINA in epithelial membrane biology. Therefore, we sought to study the MINA:MPP6 interaction in more detail.

First, we independently validated the proteomic results in multiple cell types (Figures 4B, S7A and S7B). As expected, we observed a specific interaction between MPP6 and MINA that was increased in the nucleolar localization mutant. Intriguingly, the interaction was dependent on the catalytic activity of MINA, being completely abolished by an inactivating Fe(II)-binding mutation (H179A) (Figures 4B, S7A and S7B) (the role of MINA activity is investigated in more detail below). Next, we explored the specificity of the MINA:MPP6 interaction. Under conditions where endogenous MPP6 interacted with HA-MINA, it did not bind to the closely related hydroxylase NO66 (Figure S7C). Similarly, FLAG-MINA coprecipitates with MPP6-HA, but not with the highly related MPP2 (sequence identity = 65.2%) (Figure S7D). Endogenous MPP6 coprecipitates endogenous MINA (Figure S7E). Consistent with the MINA localization (Figure 1) and proteomic analyses (Figure 4), immunofluorescence and proximity ligation assays (PLA) indicate that 3xFLAG-MINA and MPP6-HA colocalize and interact in the nucleoplasm of subconfluent cells (Figures 4C and Figure S7F). Moreover, the PLA signal was reduced in confluent monolayers (Figure 4C), consistent with the translocation of MPP6 from the nuclear compartment to the membrane (Figure S7G). Unsurprisingly therefore, less MPP6 interacts with 3xFLAG-MINA in highly confluent monolayers of Caco-2 (Figure S7H). Increasing the pool of extra-nucleolar MINA in subconfluent cells (through RNApol1 inhibition, Figure 1) increased its interaction with MPP6 (Figure 4D). The NoLS mutant showed constitutively increased MPP6 binding, as expected, and was completely resistant to the effects of RNApol1 inhibition (Figure 4D). These data indicate that RNApol1 activity and ribosome biogenesis sequester MINA in the nucleolus of subconfluent cells, thereby suppressing its interaction with MPP6.

Figure 4. Extra-nucleolar MINA interacts with MPP6, a member of the 'membrane-associated guanylate kinase' (MAGUK) family

(A) Venn diagram showing the overlap between high stringency MINA-interactomes identified in Caco-2, U2OS and MEF cells. Note that the only common factor that was also upregulated with extra-nucleolar MINA (NoLS^{mut}) was MPP6.

(B) Validation of proteomic data. Anti-FLAG immunoprecipitates (IP) from extracts of stable Caco-2 cells expressing the indicated doxycycline-inducible 3xFLAG-MINA constructs were immunoblotted for endogenous MPP6 (61 kDa), FLAG (MINA, 53 kDa). For MPP6 the input is 0.6% of the IP, for FLAG and β-actin it is 31%.

(C) Proximity ligation assays (PLA, green foci) indicate that MINA and MPP6 preferentially interact in the nuclei (gray) of subconfluent Caco-2 cells. Scale bars, 10 µm.

(D) The interaction of MPP6 with MINA is suppressed by RNA polymerase I activity. Anti-FLAG IPs from extracts of stable SW620 cells expressing an empty vector (EV) or the indicated 3xFLAG-MINA constructs were immunoblotted for MPP6 (61 kDa) and FLAG (MINA, 53 kDa). Expression of 3xFLAG-MINA was induced with 0.2 µg/mL doxycycline for 24 h before the cells were treated with 40 ng/mL actinomycin D (AMD) for 4 h. Input = 1%.

(E) MPP6 domain architecture. Top, Cartoon representation of the 'PSG' supramodule. Bottom, Comparison of the X-ray structure of the PDZ-SH3-GUK region from a canonical

MAGUK protein ZO-1 (PDBID:3SHW) and the predicted structure of the equivalent region of
MPP6 generated with AlphaFold. The GPFCG motif is highlighted in space-filling
representation and is located at the tip of the unstructured 'Hinge' insert. The yellow ball
represents residue C298.
(F) The Hinge domain of MPP6 is sufficient for MINA binding. An MPP2 chimera that contains
the Hinge domain of MPP6 (AAs 285-338) ('MPP2/6'), but not wildtype MPP2, coprecipitates
FLAG-MINA. Top, Graphical representation of the constructs used in the bottom panel.
Bottom, Anti-HA immunoprecipitates from extracts of HEK293T cells expressing the indicated
constructs were immunoblotted as indicated. For FLAG and β-actin the input is 10% of the IP,
for HA it is 20%.
(G) An MPP6 peptide containing the minimal determinants for MINA binding
*(SQFLEEKRKAFVRRDWDNS**GPFCG**TISSKKKKK) blocks RPL27A peptide*
*(GRGNAGGL**H**HHRINFDKYHP)-induced MINA activity in vitro. An NO66 substrate peptide*
(Rpl8; NPVEHPFGGGNHQHIGKPSTI), which is known not to support MINA activity (Ge et
al., 2012) was used as negative control. MINA activity was determined using an indirect
coupled assay based on succinate production (see Methods). Bars represent the average of
n = 3 biological repeats. Averages are indicated above each respective bar. Error bars, SD.
Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA and p values were calculated
post-hoc using a pairwise t test. P values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg
correction for multiple comparisons. Uncropped western blot images are presented in source
data.

The Hinge regions of MPP2 and MPP6 confer MINA binding specificity

As scaffold proteins, MAGUK proteins are characterized by the presence of several protein-
protein interaction domains. These include a characteristic PDS-95/DLG/ZO-1 (PDZ) – Src
homology 3 (SH3) – guanylate kinase (GUK) tandem motif ('PSG') (Figure S6) that can fold
into a structural supramodule (Ye et al., 2018). Folding requires a disordered 'Hinge' region
that loops out of the non-canonical SH3 domain and that includes a polybasic sequence
implicated in membrane localization and protein:protein interactions (Hanada et al., 2003).
Modeling the tertiary structure of MPP6 using AlphaFold confirms the likelihood that the PDZ,
SH3, and GUK domains of MPP6 form a PSG supramodule analogous to ZO-1 (Figure 4E).
Furthermore, the AlphaFold model of MPP6 also predicts the presence of a Hinge insert within
its non-canonical split SH3 domain.

To test the requirements of these MPP6 domains for MINA binding we analyzed a series of
MPP6 truncation mutants in immunoprecipitation and immunofluorescence experiments
(Figures S8A, S8B, and S8C). The results suggest that the minimal MPP6 domain required
for MINA binding is within the non-canonical SH3 domain, i.e. amino acids 285-338, which
contains the so-called Hinge domain (Figures 4E and S8B). To test whether this domain is
sufficient for MINA binding we created an MPP2/6 chimera by swapping the Hinge domain of

MPP2 (which does not bind MINA; Figure S7D) with the corresponding domain of MPP6
(Figure 4F, top). Immunoprecipitation analysis confirmed that the MPP6 Hinge domain is
sufficient for MINA binding in this context (Figure 4F, bottom). To further narrow down the
binding determinants, we next focused on the differences in primary sequence between MPP2
and MPP6 in this region. The sequence identity of this region is 67.9%, suggesting that the
strikingly different MINA binding profiles are determined by the relatively few regions of low
homology (Figure S8D). To test the importance of these regions we swapped residues within
them in the context of the MPP2/6 chimera. A small insertion at the N-terminal end of the
MPP2 Hinge domain was sufficient to prevent MINA binding (Figure S8E). Next, we alanine
scanned residues 287-303 within the Hinge domain of full-length MPP6 and identified residues
295-299 (sequence GPFCG) as critically required for MINA binding (Figure S8F). These
residues are situated at the predicted apex of the unstructured and solvent-exposed loop of
the Hinge domain (Figure 4E), and are therefore likely to be available for protein:protein
interactions. Together, these data are consistent with a site-specific interaction of MINA with
a minimal sequence motif within the Hinge domain of MPP6.
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The Hinge region of MPP6 mediates a pseudo-substrate-like interaction with MINA

MINA interacts with MPP6 in an activity-dependent manner (Figures 4B, 4D, S7A and S7B).
The interaction of MINA with the MPP6 Hinge domain retains its dependence on MINA
hydroxylase activity (Figures S8G and S8H). Activity-dependence of binding can be an
indicator that a hydroxylase interactor is a novel substrate (Feng et al., 2014; Markolovic et
al., 2018). Therefore, we next explored whether MPP6 is hydroxylated by MINA.
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MPP6-3xFLAG was overexpressed in the presence or absence of HA-MINA before
immunoprecipitation (Figure S9A), in-solution chymotrypsin digest, and LC-MS/MS analysis.
Near complete (98%) peptide-level sequence coverage of MPP6 was achieved in database
searches that also considered a wide-range of residue-specific oxidations (Figure S9B).
Consistent with the lack of homology between the known substrate RPL27A and the Hinge
domain of MPP6 (Figure S9C) we did not detect histidyl hydroxylation in this region. Oxidized
peptides encompassing the Hinge domain were detected that could be confidently assigned
to W291 (Figures S9D and S9E). However, the stoichiometry was low and did not respond to
MINA overexpression (Figure S9F). Neither subconfluent culture (where MINA binding is
predicted to increase), or proteasomal inhibition, led to elevated W291 oxidation, even in the
presence of MINA overexpression (Figure S9F). We note that tryptophan can undergo
spontaneous chemical oxidation as an artefact of sample preparation for MS (Cockman et al.,
2019; Perdivara et al., 2010; Verrastro et al., 2015).

In order to take an orthogonal approach that avoids the limitations of mass spectrometry analysis and artefactual oxidation we next used a coupled in vitro enzyme assay. Although the currently assigned hydroxylase activity of MINA is restricted to histidyl residues, we noted the absence of a histidine in the minimal domain within MPP6 that is required for MINA binding (residues 295-299). Since some closely related JmjC-hydroxylases can target multiple amino acid types (Cockman et al., 2006; Coleman et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2011a; Yang et al., 2011b), we first explored the potential for wider biochemical specificity of MINA, including the amino acids in this region of MPP6 (Gly, Pro, Phe, and Cys). To do this we used RPL27A peptides with the corresponding amino acid substitutions at the H39 target residue: Unlike the wildtype RPL27A peptide sequence, neither H39G, H39P, H38F or H39C peptides were able to support MINA activity (Figure S10A). Similar data were obtained using H39W-, H39S-, H39N-, H39D-, H39K-, and H39R-substituted peptides. These data indicate that MINA does not have a broad biochemical activity and is unlikely to hydroxylate residues found within the MPP6 minimal binding domain. To explore this directly, we tested three MPP6 peptides of varying length and position that overlap the GPFCG motif and wider Hinge region of MPP6 (which is sufficient for activity-dependent MINA binding, Figure 4F) (Figure S10B). Unlike the RPL27A peptide, none of the MPP6 peptides supported MINA activity (Figure S10C).

Overall, therefore, our cell-based and in vitro studies did not identify a MINA-dependent hydroxylation of MPP6. We cannot rule out the presence of a modification that was below the limits of detection, the catalysis of a previously undescribed oxidative modification, or subsequent processing of an oxidized species. However, it is also possible that, unlike the activity-dependent interactions of related JmjC hydroxylases that led to novel substrate assignments (Feng et al., 2014; Markolovic et al., 2018), the activity-dependent interaction described here is unique. For example, the interaction of MPP6 with MINA may require the integrity and availability of the catalytic pocket, rather than being 'activity-dependent' per se. In line with MPP6 binding directly to the MINA catalytic pocket, an MPP6 peptide containing the GPFCG motif prevented RPL27A-induced MINA activity (Figure 4G; compare 2nd and 3rd bar) and significantly reduced its 'uncoupled' turnover (compare 1st and 7th bar). Both effects were specific as they were not observed with a control peptide (NO66 substrate Rpl8) (compare 2nd, 3rd, and 5th bars, and 1st, 6th and 7th bars). Furthermore, both effects of the MPP6 peptide were ablated by the C298A substitution (compare 3rd and 4th bar, and 7th and 8th bar) (Figure 4G), which is sufficient to block binding of MPP6 to MINA (Figure S8F). Overall, our data are consistent with the possibility that the solvent exposed C298 residue of the MPP6 Hinge domain binds to the MINA catalytic pocket in a pseudo-substrate-like manner.

MINA regulates MPP6 expression and localization

Although we did not identify a modification arising from MINA binding to MPP6, we were intrigued that the function of the interaction might be related to the role of the Hinge domain in other MAGUKs, i.e. membrane localization and protein stability (Hanada et al., 2003; Moreno-García et al., 2010). MINA knockdown caused a reduction in membrane staining and increase in nuclear localization of MPP6 in low-density cultures (Figures 5A and 5B), in parallel with a reduction in MPP6 protein expression (Figure 5C). Consistent with these changes being a direct consequence of the interaction with MINA, a constitutively expressed MPP6 mutant that fails to bind MINA (C298A) was nuclear localized and underexpressed (Figures 5D and 5E). These data suggest that the interaction of MINA with MPP6 in the nucleus (Figures 4C) promotes the subsequent localization of MPP6 to the plasma membrane.

MPP6 is required for the timely establishment of cell-cell junctions

Considering the effect of MINA knockdown on barrier function (Figure 1) and MPP6 membrane localization and expression (Figures 5A and 5B), we hypothesized that MPP6 knockdown would phenocopy MINA loss of function. Indeed, shRNA knockdown of MPP6 severely impaired dome formation and TEER (Figures 5F, 5G and 5H) and increased the length of the cell perimeter (Figures 5I), with concomitant reduction in membrane staining and expression of Claudin-1 (Figures 5J, S11A and S11B). Similar to MINA knockdown, this occurred in the absence of gross changes in cell proliferation (Figure S11C). To explore the effect of the MPP6 C298A mutant we switched to a tunable doxycycline-inducible system, due to the known confounding effects of overexpressing membrane/polarity proteins in some circumstances, and the differential expression of constitutively expressed wildtype and C298A MPP6 (Figure 5E). Using this system, we observed that modest expression of MPP6-3xFLAG was sufficient to promote dome formation (Figures 5K and 5L). The MPP6 C298A mutant, which impairs MINA binding, was completely inactive in this regard (Figure 5K and 5L).

Figure 5. MPP6 promotes tight junction integrity and epithelial barrier function

(A) MINA depletion reduces membrane localization and increases nuclear distribution of
MPP6. Representative immunofluorescence images of subconfluent Caco-2 cells expressing
the indicated shRNAs and stained for HA (magenta), β-catenin (cyan) to mark the membranes
and DNA (DAPI, gray). Scale bars, 20 μm.
(B) Reduced membrane staining of MPP6-HA in MINA-depleted cells under conditions
presented in (A). Line graphs indicate the average fluorescence intensity of a line drawn
across the membrane connecting two cells, measured with Fiji. The average of n = 3 biological
experiments is shown. The total number of images analyzed for each condition is shown above
each respective graph. β-catenin was used as membrane marker.

(C) MINA depletion reduced MPP6 expression in subconfluent Caco-2 cultures. Whole cell extracts from cells expressing the indicated shRNAs were immunoblotted for MPP6 (61 kDa) and MINA (53 kDa).

(D) Altered localization of HA-tagged MINA-binding mutant MPP6^C298A. Stable Caco-2 cell lines constitutively expressing an empty vector (EV), wildtype (WT) or MPP6-HA C298A were stained for HA (MPP6, cyan) and DNA (DAPI, cyan). Scale bars, 20 µm.

(E) Reduced expression of HA-tagged MINA-binding mutant MPP6^C298A. Whole cell extracts were immunoblotted for HA (MPP6, 61 kDa).

(F) Representative immunoblot from whole cell extracts of stable Caco-2 cells expressing the indicated shRNAs showing efficient depletion of MPP6 (61 kDa).

(G) MPP6 depletion reduces dome formation. Bar graph showing the average number of domes per mm^2 of n = 3 independent experiments. The average of each condition is shown above each respective bar.

(H) Delayed establishment of transepithelial electrical resistance in MPP6-depleted cells. Line graph depicts the average of three technical repeats of one biological repeat. The experiment was repeated 4 times with similar results. Statistical significance was determined on day 5.

(I) Increased perimeter of cells in MPP6-depleted monolayers. Violin plot represents the data from n = 3 experiments. Average of each condition is shown underneath each respective violin. n = 2612 (shCTRL), n = 1450 (shMPP6 #2) and n = 1958 (shMPP6 #3) cells were quantified.

(J) Altered localization of Claudin-1 following MPP6 knockdown. Representative images of Caco-2 monolayers expressing the indicated shRNAs were stained for Claudin-1 (magenta), ZO-1 (gray) and DNA (DAPI; cyan). Scale bars, 20 µm.

(K) MPP6-induced dome formation is dependent on C298. Expression of wildtype (WT) or MINA-binding mutant C298A MPP6-3xFLAG were induced with doxycycline (dox) at the indicated concentrations. Note that a reduced concentration of dox (0.5 µg/mL) was included for WT to allow fair comparison to the reduced expression levels observed for C298A (as also presented in (E)). Domes were counted 4 days post seeding.

(L) Cell extracts of samples treated as in (K) were immunoblotted for FLAG (MPP6) and MPP6 (61 kDa).

(G-I and K) Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA and p values were calculated post-hoc using a Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Error bars, SD.

(C, E, F and L) β-actin (42 kDa) was used as loading control. Uncropped western blot images are presented in source data.

The MINA-MPP6 pathway is required for normal 3D growth and morphogenesis

To investigate the importance of the MINA-MPP6 pathway in 3D growth and tissue morphogenesis, Caco-2 cells expressing doxycycline-induced control, MINA or MPP6 shRNA were seeded as single cells in Matrigel and grown for 7 days to form polarized spheroids with a fluid-filled lumen (Jaffe et al., 2008). Depletion of MINA or MPP6 was sufficient to interfere with spheroid morphology including lumenogenesis (Figures 6A,B and S12A,B), size (Figure 6C,D), and growth (Figure 6E,F). Immunofluorescence analysis revealed a diffuse staining pattern of Claudin-1 and ZO-1 and altered nuclear morphology (Figure 6G,H). Although these observations may be consistent with some level of defective polarity, a luminal surface was still largely maintained in these spheroids (Figure 6G,H). Consistent with the 2D data

presented above, MINA and MPP6 depletion also reduced Claudin-1 levels (Figure S12C,D). Expression of the MINA binding defective MPP6 mutant (C298A) phenocopied MINA and MPP6 loss of function, causing reduced lumenogenesis, decreased spheroid size, and diffuse localization of ZO-1 (Figure 6I).

Figure 6. The MINA-MPP6 pathway is required for spheroid lumenogenesis, growth and polarity.

(A and B) Quantification of lumen formation in spheroids grown from stable Caco-2 cells expressing the indicated MINA (A) or MPP6 (B) shRNA sequences. Bars represent the

average percentage of spheroids with one central lumen of n = 5 (C) and n = 3 (D) independent experiments. The average of each condition is shown above each respective bar.

(C and D) Quantification of size of spheroids grown from stable Caco-2 cells expressing the indicated MINA (C) or MPP6 (D) shRNA sequences. Horizontal lines represent the average spheroid diameter from n =   3 independent experiments. The average of each condition and the number of spheroids counted are shown below each respective beeswarm.

(E and F) MINA (E) and MPP6 (F) depletion reduces spheroid growth. Growth of spheroids was analyzed using a CellTiter-Glo Luminescent Cell Viability Assay kit after 3, 5 and 7 days in culture. Presented values are the average of n = 4 independent experiments. AU, arbitrary unit.

(G and H) MINA (G) and MPP6 (H) depletion prevent appropriate membrane localization of Claudin-1 and ZO-1. Representative immunofluorescence images of 3D Caco-2 spheroids expressing the indicated shRNAs and stained for Claudin-1 (magenta), ZO-1 (yellow), and DNA (DAPI, cyan). Scale bars, 20 μm.

(I) MPP6 C298A overexpression phenocopies MINA and MPP6 knockdown. Single cells were grown to spheroids for 7 days, fixed and stained for HA (MPP6, magenta) and tight junction marker ZO-1 (yellow). Nuclei were visualized with DAPI (cyan). Scale bars represent 10 μm.

(A – D) Statistical significance was determined using a one-way ANOVA and p values were calculated post-hoc using a Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Error bars, SD.

Overall, our data are consistent with MPP6 acting in a pathway downstream of extra-nucleolar MINA that regulates cell adhesion, barrier function, and morphogenesis. Because this pathway is suppressed by RNApol1 activity and the nucleolar proteome, the work identifies a novel link between ribosome biogenesis and epithelial membrane biology.

Discussion

Here in this paper, we have uncovered the extra-nucleolar function of the protein hydroxylase MINA, demonstrating, for the first time, that it controls epithelial TJ integrity, barrier function, and morphogenesis through its interaction with the MAGUK protein MPP6. In doing so we have discovered that cellular growth status and ribosome biogenesis are functionally coupled to the epithelial plasma membrane, via a novel nuclear partnership between MPP6 and the 2OG-oxygenase MINA (Figure 7). The work raises the intriguing possibility that ribosome biogenesis might also couple to membrane biology in other ways, and that other growth responsive cellular processes might sink proteins that would otherwise suppress such roles. Could the uniquely nutrient-dependent 2OG-oxygenase family play a more general role in signaling between subcellular compartments to couple cell systems controlling cell growth and differentiation?

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Figure 7. Model depicting the localization of MINA and MPP6 in different physiological
and pathological contexts and the consequences on adhesion and barrier function.
(A) In a healthy differentiated epithelium, cells have basal levels of ribosome biogenesis and
MINA is mostly nucleoplasmic. Nuclear MINA binds MPP6 and promotes subsequent
membrane localization of MPP6 and cell:cell adhesion, thus facilitating barrier function.
(B-C) To maintain tissue homeostasis (B) or upon injury (C) cells re(enter) the cell cycle.
Increased ribosome biogenesis sequesters MINA in the nucleolus, where it drives RPL27a
hydroxylation and supports cell growth. The corresponding reduction in nucleoplasmic MINA
inhibits the MINA:MPP6 interaction and impairs membrane localization of MPP6, thereby
inhibiting cell:cell adhesion to support cell growth and tissue morphogenesis.
(D) Similar to a proliferative epithelium, as shown in (B) and (C), pathogenic signals such as
oncogene activation trigger nucleolar localization of MINA, thereby suppressing cell adhesion
and promoting tumor progression. In such contexts, RNA polymerase I inhibition is predicted
to cause translocation of MINA into the nucleoplasm (i.e. a return to (A)), thereby 'normalizing'
cell adhesion and barrier function.
(A-D) It should be noted that the intestinal epithelium is used for illustrative purposes only, and
that this hypothesis could equally apply to other tissue types.

Although 2OG-oxygenases are still considered an emerging enzyme family, relative to others

(such as kinases), they have already been implicated in a variety of essential cellular systems,

from oxygen sensing and epigenetics to protein translation and collagen synthesis (Islam et

al., 2018; Ploumakis and Coleman, 2015). These enzymes have not previously been

demonstrated to play a role in regulating cell polarity and adhesion through the direct

interaction with peripheral membrane proteins, however. Although the interaction with MPP6

was entirely dependent on the integrity of a critical Fe(II)-binding residue within the MINA

catalytic pocket (Figure 4), it did not result in a detectable hydroxylation event (Figures S9 and

S10). Although more work is required to definitively conclude that a modification is not

catalyzed, it is also possible that MPP6 is sensing the availability of the catalytic pocket as an

indicator of the absence of RPL27A and/or co-factors. Indeed, computational investigation of

potential MPP6 interaction modes suggests that the GPFCG region at the tip of the Hinge

domain (Figures 4E and S8F) might directly bind the MINA active site through formation of β-

turn like structures (Figure S13). Although 'pseudo-substrates' have been identified for other

enzyme classes, this may be one of the first potential candidates that we know of for the 2OG-

oxygenase family. As such, the work is relevant to the wider field: Protein hydroxylases,

including Hypoxia Inducible Factor prolyl hydroxylases, may be at risk of substrate

misassignment (Cockman et al., 2019), in part because of the artefactual oxidation of residues

such as tryptophan during MS sample preparation, as also demonstrated here (Figure S9).

Our work raises the possibility that some proteins that interact with the catalytic domain of

2OG-oxygenases may be doing so in a pseudo-substrate-like manner, rather than as prime

substrates.

Through our phenotypic and proteomic analyses of MINA, we have helped clarify the function

of the poorly characterized human MAGUK protein MPP6. The *drosophila* homologue of

MPP6 (*Varicose*) has been more extensively studied than its human counterpart: *Varicose* is

essential for the assembly and function of septate junctions (which are thought to be the

equivalent of vertebrate TJs) and for normal tracheal development (Moyer and Jacobs, 2008;

Wu et al., 2007). A similar role for MPP6 in TJ function in human cells is supported by our

results showing that its loss of function causes reduced dome and TEER formation and

decreased Claudin-1 expression (Figure 5). Under conditions of MINA or MPP6 knockdown

we did not observe widespread mis-localization of tight or adherens junction markers however,

particularly in 2D. Similar observations were made with *Varicose (Wu et al., 2007)* and with

other human polarity proteins, including MPP7, Scribble and Par3 (Qin et al., 2005; Stucke et

al., 2007; Xue et al., 2013). The prevailing hypothesis is that such proteins are not primarily

involved in the establishment of apico-basal cell polarity, but rather in ensuring and

maintaining junctional functionality. MINA appears to promote this function at least in part by

facilitating MPP6 membrane localization (Figures 5A and 5B), which could in turn support normal expression (Figure 5C), as observed for other peripheral membrane proteins (e.g. (Perdivara et al., 2010)). How MINA achieves this is not yet clear, although it seems likely that this is a consequence of the direct interaction with the Hinge domain of MPP6 in the nucleus. Although the function and interacting partners of the MPP6 Hinge domain are poorly characterized, mutagenesis screens in the fly model demonstrate it is essential (Wu et al., 2007). The Hinge domain of related human MAGUK proteins have been implicated in membrane localization, protein-protein interactions, and proteasomal degradation (Hanada et al., 2003; Moreno-García et al., 2010), consistent with the results described here. Further work is required to explore how extra-nucleolar MINA supports the translocation of nuclear MPP6 to the plasma membrane to function in TJ biology.

TJs are critical for normal physiology and have been heavily implicated in disease (Buckley and Turner, 2018; Krug et al., 2014; Sawada, 2013). Their barrier function plays a critical role in regulating permeability to small molecules, immune cells, pathogens, and parasites, and as such has been implicated in a wide variety of diseases across multiple tissues, including colitis, infection, edema, and allergy (Buckley and Turner, 2018; Krug et al., 2014; Sawada, 2013). In light of the results presented here, it will be of interest to study the role of the MINA-MPP6 pathway in these contexts. A single-nucleotide polymorphism in the MINA gene is associated with increased risk of asthma in children (Chen et al., 2011), and MINA knockout reduces the allergic response to inhaled allergens in mice (Mori et al., 2013). MINA knockout mice also show increased clearance of parasitic gastrointestinal nematode worms (Pillai et al., 2019), which in some contexts can be associated with increased barrier permeability that supports the 'washer/sweeper' effect and/or immunological access (Bąska and Norbury, 2022; McKay et al., 2017). Whether a deregulated MPP6-TJ pathway could play a role in these contexts is of interest and warrants future investigation.

Alterations in cell:cell junctions and adhesion is a hallmark of cancer (Hanahan and Weinberg, 2011). Loss of tumor suppressor genes in TJ complexes and signaling pathways disrupts their fence function, resulting in abnormal polarity and reduced cell:cell adhesion, which together disrupt morphogenesis and promote migration/invasion (Martin and Jiang, 2009). Although several mechanisms have been described by which TJs are rendered dysfunctional in epithelial cancers, it is likely that others remain to be discovered: We propose that the MINA-MPP6 pathway is one such candidate that is worthy of further investigation, for the following reasons. Firstly, although MINA has been proposed as a biomarker and drug target in a range of tumor types (reviewed in (Thakur and Chen, 2015)), there is emerging evidence supporting a paradoxical and poorly characterized role in tumor suppression (Komiya et al., 2010; Yu et

al., 2014). Secondly, low MPP6 expression is associated with poor prognosis in some cancers,
and the MPP6 gene is located in a chromosomal region (7p15-21) altered in several tumor
types (Grundy et al., 1998; Miozzo et al., 1996; Parada et al., 1998; Powlesland et al., 2000;
Schmidt et al., 1999; Tseng et al., 2001; Wong et al., 1999; Xu et al., 2019). Thirdly, MPP6
interacts with Cell Adhesion Molecule 1 (CADM1), an immunoglobulin superfamily
transmembrane protein that is a tumor suppressor in a wide variety of cancers (Murakami,
2005) . Future work should focus on the mechanisms by which the MINA-MPP6 pathway may
be inactivated in cancer and the consequences of this on the barrier and fence functions of
TJs. Furthermore, the work presented here suggests that an important mechanism by which
the MINA-MPP6 pathway could be suppressed is through oncogene-induced nucleolar
sequestration of MINA due to elevated RNAPol1 activity and ribosome biogenesis (Figure 7).
RNAPol1 inhibitors are being considered as novel chemotherapeutics (reviewed in (Ferreira
et al., 2020)): Our hypothesis would predict that such treatments might not only negatively
impact growth and viability, but also help to 'normalize' cell:cell adhesion and polarity in some
contexts.
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Methods

Plasmid constructs and cloning procedures

Coding sequences of MINA, MPP6 and NO66 were PCR cloned from plasmid DNA or cDNA
into pFLAG (Sigma), pEF6 (Invitrogen), pTIPZ, pIPZ or pIHZ vectors. pIPZ and pTIPZ are
derivatives of the pGIPZ and pTRIPZ lentiviral vectors (Open Biosystems) that lack green
fluorescent protein (GFP) and red fluorescent protein (RFP), respectively. The coding
sequences of MPP2 and MPP2/6 hybrids containing C-terminal HA-tags and restriction sites
required for cloning into the pIPZ vector were obtained from Thermo Scientific as GeneArt
String Fragment. Non-targeting control (ULTRA-NT#4), MINA (ULTRA-3406274, ULTRA-
3406273) and MPP6 (ULTRA-3337606, ULTRA-3337607) shRNA sequences in pZIP-TRE3G
vectors were obtained from TransOMIC. PCR reactions were driven by the Phusion High
Fidelity DNA polymerase (New England Biolabs (NEB), M0530). Primers were designed to
contain a C- or N-terminal tag and the required restriction sites for subsequent ligations.
Constructs were confirmed by sequencing, carried out by Source Bioscience. For nucleotide
exchanges, site-directed mutagenesis was performed using a Phusion Site-directed
Mutagenesis kit (Thermo, F541). 5' termini of the primers were phosphorylated using T4
polynucleotide kinase (PNK, Thermo, EK0031) prior to the reactions. All constructs were
confirmed by sequencing.

Cell culture

HEK293T, Caco-2, SW620 and U2OS cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma) and 100 international units/mL (IU/mL) penicillin and 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Gibco). Cell culture medium for stable cell lines was supplemented with 1 µg/mL puromycin (Gibco). For 3D spheroid cultures, Caco-2 cells were seeded into Matrigel-coated (Corning, 35621) chamber slides and the culturing medium was supplemented with 4% (v/v) Matrigel. All cell lines were grown at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% (v/v) CO_2. All cell lines were regularly tested for mycoplasma contamination using a LookOut® Mycoplasma PCR Detection kit (Sigma, MP0036).

Where doxycycline-inducible shRNA cell lines were used for experiments, shRNA expression was induced using 1 µg/mL doxycycline (Sigma, D9891) for 72 h before seeding. Subsequently, the culturing medium was refreshed, and fresh doxycycline was added every 48-72 h.

Transient transfection

Plasmid DNA transfections were performed using FuGENE® 6 transfection reagent (Promega). Briefly, the transfections mix was made up in Opti-MEM™ (Gibco, 31985070) using a ratio of DNA to transfection reagent of 1:3 and incubated for 15-30 min at room temperature (RT) before the complexes were added to the cells. 500 ng of DNA was used per mL of culturing medium. Cells were seeded 24 h before transfection and lysed or fixed 48 h after transfection.

Generation of stable cell lines

Stable expression cell lines were generated by transduction with lentivirus. For lentivirus production, HEK293T cells were transfected with the plasmid of interest (50%), the packaging vector psPAX2 (35%) and envelope vector pMD2.G (15%) as described above. The lentivirus-containing supernatant was collected 48 h after transfection, passed through a 0.45 µM polyethersulfone (PES) filter, diluted 1:1 with fresh medium and added to the recipient cells for 48 h. Thereafter, transduced cells were selected using puromycin (2 µg/mL final concentration, Gibco).

Metabolic labelling of newly synthesized proteins

Protein synthesis was monitored with L-azidohomoalanine (AHA) using a Click-iT™ Nascent Protein Synthesis kit (Thermo Scientific) according to the instructions of the manufacturer. Briefly, cells were incubated with methionine-free medium for 1 h before AHA was added at a final concentration of 50 mM. After 1 h, cells were fixed and permeabilized as described below.

743 Next, Alexa Fluor 595 Alkyne diluted in Click-iT® Cell Reaction Buffer (Thermo Scientific) at a

744 final concentration of 2.5 mM was conjugated to any incorporated AHA.

Proximity ligation assay

746 Duolink® proximity ligation assay kits were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and performed

747 according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Immunofluorescence staining

For immunofluorescence studies of 2D cultures, cells were grown on poly-D-lysine-coated or

uncoated glass coverslips and fixed or 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 15 min at RT

with methanol for 10 min at -20°C. Where methanol was used, it is stated in the figure caption.

Cells fixed with PFA were subsequently permeabilized using 0.1% (v/v) Triton in PBS for 10

min at RT. Next, cells were blocked with 1% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA) in PBS for 1

h at RT and subsequently incubated overnight (ON) at 4°C with primary antibodies diluted in

1% (w/v) BSA in PBS. The following primary antibodies were used: FLAG (Sigma, F1804,

1:1,000), HA (Covance, MMS-101P, 1:500), HA (Cell Signaling Technology (CST), C29F4,

1:500), nucleolin (Santa Cruz Biotechnology (SCB), sc-13056, 1:200-1:1,000),

nucleophosmin-1 (SCB, sc-6013-R, 1:200), MINA (Invitrogen, 39-7300, 1:100), Claudin-1

(Abcam, ab211737, 1:500), β-catenin (BD Transduction Laboratories, 610153, 1:500). The

next day, coverslips were washed with 1% (w/v) BSA in PBS and incubated with secondary

antibodies diluted in 1% (w/v) BSA in PBS for 1 h at RT. Alexa Fluor 488, 555 or 633 secondary

antibodies were purchased from Invitrogen and used at a final concentration of 1:1,000. Nuclei

were stained by incubation with 0.5 – 1 µg/mL 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, D1306,

Invitrogen) in PBS for 10 min at RT, and the coverslips were mounted with Prolong Gold

antifade mountant (Molecular Probes) onto microscope slides.

Caco-2 cells grown as 3D cultures were fixed with 4% (w/v) PFA/5% (w/v) sucrose in PBS for

20 min at RT, washed 3 times with PBS and incubated with 100 mM glycine in PBS for 20 min

at RT to quench unreacted aldehydes. Subsequent permeabilization, blocking and staining

were performed as described above. Stained spheroids were stored in PBS at 4°C until they

were imaged.

Image acquisition, processing and quantification

772 Confocal images were acquired using a Zeiss LSM 780 or 880 laser scanning confocal system

773 equipped with a 20x, 40x or 60 C-Apochromat 1.2 W Korr M27 objective. Immunofluorescence

774 images of similarly stained experiments were acquired with identical laser power and detector

775 gain. Images were processed using Fiji software (https://fiji.sc) and arranged in Adobe

Illustrator. Brightness and contrast were adjusted using only linear operations applied to the entire image.

Cell perimeters were measured using the CellMorph plugin for Fiji (https://github.com/viboud12/CellMorph). Ten random images were taken for each condition in each experiment. Quantification was based on ZO-1 staining.

Phase-contrast images were acquired using an EVOS™ FL color imaging system equipped with a 4x or 10x Plan PH2 objective. To quantify domes, a total of 30 phase-contrast images were taken per condition per experiment, 4 or 5 days after seeding when the cells had formed a confluent monolayer. To quantify spheroids, a total of 10 images were taken per condition per experiment, 7 days after seeding.

Transepithelial electrical resistance measurements

Caco-2 cells were seeded onto cellQART® permeable support inserts (0.4 mm pore size). The transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) was measured using an EVOM2 epithelial voltohmmeter (World Precision Instruments, Inc.) and a STX2 electrode (World Precision Instruments, Inc.) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Background resistance was measured using cell-free inserts. Three measurements were taken for each sample at each time point.

Whole cell extracts

Cells were washed and harvested in ice-cold PBS, pelleted by centrifugation at 234 x g and lysed by rotation at 4°C for 1 h in JIES buffer (100 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4], 5 mM MgCl2, 0.5% (v/v) NP-40) containing 1x SIGMAFAST protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich, S8830). Subsequently, cell debris was pelleted by centrifugation (10 min at 21,910 x g at 4°C) and the supernatant was collected. Protein concentration was determined using Pierce™ 660nm Protein Assay Reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions (Thermo, 22660). Finally, protein samples were prepared at equal concentrations in 1x Laemmli Loading Buffer (6x: 125 mM Tris-HCl [pH 6.8], 6% (w/v) SDS, 50% (v/v) glycerol, 225 mM dithiotheitol (DTT), 0.1% (w/v) bromophenol blue) and boiled for 5 min. 3D cell cultures were harvested in ice-cold PBS containing 1x SIGMAFAST protease inhibitor cocktail, pelleted by centrifugation at 21,910 x g at 4°C and washed 3 times with PBS containing 1x SIGMAFAST protease inhibitor cocktail to remove the Matrigel. Subsequently, the cell pellets were resuspended in 1x Laemmli Loading Buffer, boiled for 5 min and sonicated.

Immunoprecipitation

For immunoprecipitations, cells were harvested on ice and lysed by rotation for 1 h at 4°C in JIES buffer (see above) containing 1x SIGMAFAST protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich,

S8830). Subsequently, cell debris was pelleted by centrifugation (10 min at 21,910 x g at 4°C)

and the supernatant was incubated with anti-FLAG® M2 Magnetic Beads (Sigma-Aldrich,

M8823) or anti-hemagglutinin (HA) agarose beads (Sigma-Aldrich, A2095) overnight at 4°C.

The next day, beads were washed 6 times with JIES buffer before the immunoprecipitates

were boiled for 5 min in 1x Laemmli Loading Buffer or eluted using 100 µg/mL HA (Thermo

Scientific, 26184) or 40 ng/mL FLAG (Generon, A6001) peptide in JIES for 15 min at 1,400

rpm at RT.

SDS-PAGE and immunoblot analysis

Protein lysates were resolved by sodium dodecyl-sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis

(SDS-PAGE). Protein samples prepared in Laemmli Loading Buffer (see above) were loaded

onto either 10%, 12% or 15% (v/v) polyacrylamide gels made in-house, Novex WedgeWell 8-

16% gels (Invitrogen, XP08165BOX) or NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris Midi gels (Invitrogen,

WG1403A). Electrophoresis was performed in Tris/Glycine/SDS (National diagnostics) or

NuPAGE MOPS SDS (Invitrogen, cat. no. NP0001) running buffer. Following SDS-PAGE, the

samples were electroblotted onto methanol-activated Amersham Hybond P0.45

polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (GE Healthcare) in Tris/Glycine transfer buffer

(National diagnostics). Following transfer, the membrane was blocked with 5% (w/v) milk

powder dissolved in PBS/0.1% (v/v) Tween-20 (PBS-T) and incubated with primary antibody

for 1 h at RT or overnight at 4°C. Where unconjugated primary antibodies were used,

immunoblots were subsequently incubated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated

secondary antibodies purchased from Cell Signaling. Signals were visualized using Clarity

Western ECL reagent (Bio-Rad) or Femto (Thermo Scientific) using a Vilber Fusion Fx. The

following primary antibodies were used: FLAG-HRP (Sigma, A8592, 1:10,000), β-actin-HRP

(Abcam, ab49900, 1:25,000), HA-HRP (Roche, 12013819001, 1:1,000-1:5,000), MPP6 (Atlas

antibodies, HPA019085, 1:500), RPL27A (Abcam, ab74731, 1:500), LIN7C (Proteintech,

14656-1-AP, 1:1000), MINA (DSHB, 6C6, 1:40), Claudin-1 (Abcam, ab211737, 1:1000).

Mass spectrometry

MPP6-3xFLAG was anti-FLAG immunopurified from overexpressing HEK293T cells and

eluted with 3XFLAG peptide, as outlined above. Samples were extracted, in-solution digested

with chymotrypsin, desalted, and analyzed by mass spectrometry as described previously

(Markolovic et al., 2018). Data were searched against the UniProt Reference Homo sapiens

database with PEAKS Studio X Software (Bioinformatics Solutions). Cysteine

carbamidomethylation was selected as a 'fixed' modification, with oxidation (M), deamidation

(N, Q) and hydroxylation (P, K, D, N, R, Y, H, W) as variable modifications. The data were

then filtered to remove methionine oxidations and those with an A-score of <20 (an A-score of

20 corresponds to a modification correctly localized with 99% certainty).

In vitro **hydroxylation assays**

For *in vitro* hydroxylation assays, HA-tagged MINA was overexpressed and purified from

HEK293T cells, as described above. Following immunoprecipitation, the purified protein was

eluted using 2 µg/mL HA peptide (Thermo Scientific, 26184) in 50 mM HEPES, 50 mM NaCl.

Purified enzyme was then incubated with RPL27A peptide (GRGNAGGLHHHINFDKYHP) at

a final concentration of 100 µM in 50 mM Tris [pH 7.5], 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT for 5 min at

37°C in the presence of 200 µM 2OG, 100 µM Fe(II) and 100 µM ascorbate (final volume 20

µL). For peptide competition assays HA-MINA was incubated with a combination of 50 µM of

RPL27A peptide and 50 µM of Rpl8 peptide (NPVEHPFGGGNHQHIGKPSTI) or 50 µM of

MPP6 peptide (SQFLEEKRKAFVRRDWDNSGPFCGTISSKKKKK) and incubated for 30 min

at 37°C. Thereafter, the reaction was quenched with 10 µL of 1% (v/v) formic acid (HCOOH)

in H_2O. The presence of hydroxylation was subsequently analyzed using a Succinate-Glo

JmjC Demethylase/Hydroxylase Assay kit (Promega), as follows. Samples were diluted 1:10

in H_2O and 5 µL of the diluted reaction was mixed with an equal volume of Succinate-Glo

detection reagent 1 and incubated for 1 h at RT in a clear bottom 384-well plate. Each reaction

was performed in triplicate. Subsequently, 10 µL of Succinate-Glo detection reagent 2 was

added, mixed and incubated for 10 min at RT, before luminescence was analyzed.

Structural analysis

Molecular modelling and structural comparisons were carried out using the SSM superposition

facility (Krissinel and Henrick, 2004) in Coot (Emsley and Cowtan, 2004) and visualized in

PyMOL (The PyMOL Molecular Graphics System, Version 1.2r3pre, Schrödinger, LLC).

Coordinates for human MPP6 full-length were obtained either from the AlphaFold database or

generated *ab initio* using the ColabFold server (Mirdita et al., 2022).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed in R. Statistical significance was determined using

unpaired t test or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a Dunnett's test or

pairwise t tests with Benjamini-Hochberg correction for multiple comparisons. Differences

were considered significant at $p<0.05$. Calculated *p* values are shown in each graph. Sample

sizes were chosen empirically. Western blot quantifications were performed with Fiji.

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Author contributions

E.H. and R.A. designed and performed the experiments, analyzed the data and generated the figures. A.K contributed to generation of data. U.B., J.R.B. and A.Z. contributed to molecular biology. R.H. and R.F. performed mass spectrometry analysis. E.H. and M.L.C wrote the manuscript. M.L.C. co-designed the experiments and directed the project. S.J.S. performed structural analyses. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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