A Conserved Mycobacterial Nucleomodulin Hijacks the Host COMPASS Complex to Reprogram Pro-Inflammatory Transcription and Promote Intracellular Survival

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ABSTRACT

Nucleomodulins are a class of effector proteins secreted by bacterial pathogens that translocate into the host cell nucleus to modulate nuclear processes. However, their target proteins and underlying molecular mechanisms remain poorly understood in mycobacteria. Herein, we identified a conserved hypothetical protein Rv1075c, designated MgdE, as a nucleomodulin that enhances mycobacterial intracellular survival. MgdE undergoes nuclear translocation via two nuclear localization signals, KRIR[108-111] and RLRRPR[300-305], and interacts with ASH2L and WDR5, two subunits of the host histone methyltransferase COMPASS complex. This interaction suppresses histone H3 lysine 4 (H3K4) methylation-mediated transcription of pro-inflammatory genes, including *IL6* and *IL1B*, thereby promoting mycobacterial survival in both macrophages and mice. Our study provides the first experimental evidence that a bacterial nucleomodulin facilitates intracellular survival by directly targeting the host COMPASS complex. These findings advance our understanding of mycobacterial pathogenesis by revealing a novel mechanism that contributes to its intracellular survival strategy.

Keywords Mycobacteria; Nucleomodulin; Histone methyltransferase; Inflammatory genes; Pathogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Nucleomodulins constitute a distinct class of bacterial proteins capable of translocating into the nuclei of eukaryotic cells, where they strategically modulate nuclear processes to promote pathogen survival and persistence (Radoshevich et al., 2018; Hanford et al., 2021). These

evolutionarily diverse effector proteins, secreted by distinct pathogens, exhibit remarkable

adaptability in infiltrating host nuclei and reprogramming the transcriptional and epigenetic

regulatory networks (Bierne et al., 2012; Bierne et al., 2020). Upon nuclear localization,

nucleomodulins employ diverse molecular mechanisms to subvert host cellular processes,

including but not limited to: (i) direct interactions with genomic DNA or nuclear proteins

(Rennoll-Bankert et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2016; Prokop et al., 2017), (ii) hijacking post-

translational modification systems (Lebreton et al., 2014; Rolando et al., 2023), (iii)

dysregulating signaling molecule activity or localization (Zhao et al., 2019; Chambers et al.,

2020; Evans et al., 2018), and (iv) destabilizing nuclear architecture (Pourpre et al., 2022; Fu

et al., 2021). Specific examples include AnkA, a bacterial protein from *Anaplasma*

phagocytophilum, which binds to specific A/T-rich sequences in the host cell, alters chromatin

architecture, and modulates gene transcription (Rennoll-Bankert et al., 2015). In *Listeria*

monocytogenes, LntA interacts with the proline-rich domain of BAHD1, to disrupt BAHD1-

mediated gene silencing and promote histone H3 acetylation (Lebreton et al., 2014). Another

example is OspF from *Shigella flexneri*, which exploits its phosphothreonine lyase activity to

irreversibly dephosphorylate MAPKs, thereby preventing the transcriptional activation of NF-

κB-regulated genes (Chambers et al., 2020). Unlike these effectors, *L. monocytogenes* InlP

takes a different approach by hijacking the splicing factor RBM5. This interaction not only

suppresses apoptosis but also reorganizes nuclear speckles through SC35 redistribution and

RBM5-dependent granule formation (Pourpre et al., 2022). These examples illustrate the

diverse and sophisticated mechanisms used by nucleomodulins to reprogram host nuclear

functions, ultimately manipulating the intracellular environment to their advantage.

The evolutionary refinement of nucleomodulins is exemplified by their ability to exploit chromatin-based regulatory systems, with histone methylation emerging as a pivotal axis in host–pathogen interactions (Bierne et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2021). As a central epigenetic modification, histone methylation dynamically controls chromatin accessibility and transcriptional outcomes (Yu et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2025). By precisely targeting specific histone residues, nucleomodulins reprogram chromatin states to either suppress host immune responses or promote cellular pathways conducive to pathogen survival (Lebreton et al., 2014; Schator et al., 2023; Rolando et al.,2023; Denzer et al., 2020). A paradigm of this molecular strategy is demonstrated by the *Chlamydia trachomatis* nuclear effector NUE, which utilizes its conserved SET domain to catalyze the methylation of histones H2B, H3, and H4, establishing a repressive chromatin state that downregulates antimicrobial gene expression (Fol et al., 2020). Similarly, RomA uses its ankyrin and SET domains to bind and methylate histone H3, thereby altering the host chromatin to enhance *Legionella* intracellular survival (Schator et al., 2023; Rolando et al., 2013). *Legionella* LegAS4 catalyzes H3K4 methylation to promote an open chromatin state, enhancing ribosomal RNA transcription and facilitating bacterial intracellular replication (Denzer et al., 2020). These cases emphasize how pathogens exploit histone methylation as a molecular lever to hijack the host epigenetic machinery.

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb), the causative agent of tuberculosis, is a highly successful pathogen because of its ability to survive within macrophages, evade the immune system, and persist in the host, ultimately leading to a chronic disease state (Chandra et al., 2022; Chai et al., 2020). Central to its pathogenic strategy is the secretion of a diverse array of effector proteins (Chai et al., 2022; Bates et al., 2024; Qiang et al., 2023), including

nucleomodulins that subvert host nuclear processes. The tyrosine phosphatase PtpA exemplifies this strategy by directly binding to the promoter regions of immune-related genes, including *GADD45A*, to suppress innate immune responses (Wang et al., 2017). The methyltransferase Rv1988 mediates an unconventional histone modification by methylating histone H3 at arginine 42 (H3R42me), thereby silencing antimicrobial defense mechanisms (Yaseen et al., 2015). Similarly, the acetyltransferase Rv3423.1 modulates chromatin accessibility through acetylation of histone H3 at lysine 9 and 14 (H3K9/K14ac), attenuating pro-inflammatory signaling pathways (Jose et al., 2016). Rv2966c represents a unique bacterial DNA methyltransferase that establishes non-canonical CpG methylation patterns to epigenetically silence host immune-related gene expression (Sharma et al., 2015). Despite these molecular insights, the comprehensive landscape of the nuclear effector systems of Mtb, particularly the mechanistic details of nucleomodulin interactions with host chromatin-modifying complexes and their spatiotemporal regulation during infection, remains poorly defined. This critical knowledge gap impedes our understanding of how Mtb coordinates system-level transcriptional rewiring in the host cellular environment.

In this study, we utilized bioinformatics analysis combined with fluorescence imaging to rapidly screen for potential nucleomodulins in pathogenic mycobacterial species. Using this approach, the hypothetical protein Rv1075c (designated as MgdE) was identified and subsequently validated. MgdE undergoes nuclear translocation mediated by two nuclear localization signals, KRIR$^{108-111}$ and RLRRPR$^{300-305}$, and interacts with the histone methyltransferase COMPASS complex subunits ASH2L and WDR5. This interaction suppresses H3K4me3-mediated inflammatory gene expression, thus dampening host immune

responses and enhancing bacterial survival in macrophages and murine infection models. Our

findings identify MgdE as a nucleomodulin that targets the COMPASS complex, revealing a

novel epigenetic strategy exploited by mycobacteria for intracellular survival.

RESULTS

Functional screening of potential nucleomodulins in pathogenic mycobacterial species

To identify conserved nucleomodulins in pathogenic mycobacteria, we first conducted a

comparative pan-genome analysis across four relevant species, including *M. tuberculosis*

H37Rv and H37Ra, *M. bovis* BCG, *M. marinum*, and *M. avium*, to categorize the core genes.

Subsequently, a dual-threshold screening approach was employed to predict the classical and

non-canonical secreted proteins encoded by these shared genes using SignalP 5.0 and

SecretomeP 2.0, with thresholds set at a D-score ≥0.5 (Hammond et al., 2018) and a neural

network (NN) score ≥0.9 (Bendtsen et al., 2005) (Table S1). This analysis yielded 135 high

confidence secreted protein candidates. Further analysis of these candidate nuclear

localization signal (NLS) motifs using cNLS Mapper (NLS score ≥2) identified 56 proteins

containing at least one putative NLS (Table S2). Following systematic classification based on

secretion machinery dependencies, the candidate proteins were categorized into four distinct

pathways: 26 Sec/SPI (signal peptide-driven), 7 Tat/SPI (twin-arginine translocase pathway),

18 Sec/SPII (lipoprotein-targeted), and 5 unclassified candidates lacking canonical secretion

motifs (Figure 1A and B, Figure S1A and B). Functional validation of nuclear trafficking was

conducted through the heterologous expression of enhanced green fluorescent protein

(EGFP)-tagged constructs in HEK293T cells, followed by quantitative profiling of the

subcellular distribution using laser scanning confocal microscopy (LSCM). Among them, six

Tat/SPI-associated proteins including Rv0519c, Rv0846c, Rv0945, Rv1075c/MgdE, Rv1291c

and Rv2577 (Table S3) exhibited nuclear localization and MgdE exhibited distinct nuclear

aggregation (Figure 1C). Nucleomodulins are effector proteins secreted by pathogens that

translocate into the host cell nucleus to modulate host functions. To examine whether MgdE

is secreted by mycobacteria, recombinant *M. bovis* BCG strains expressing C-terminally Flag-

tagged MgdE were constructed. Immunoblotting showed that MgdE and the secreted antigen

Ag85B were present in both cell pellets and culture supernatants, while the cytoplasmic protein

GlpX as the negative control was only detected in the cell pellets (Figure S2A), indicating that

MgdE is indeed secreted by *M. bovis* BCG. Collectively, these results suggest that MgdE might

be a potential nucleomodulin in the pathogenic mycobacteria.

MgdE translocates into the host nucleus through its dual NLS

MgdE is a putative GDSL-like lipase characterized by conserved esterase sequence motifs,

with the GDSx motif containing a nucleophilic Ser residue as part of block I (equivalent to the

classical G-x-S-x-G motif of lipases/esterases), and the consensus amino acids Gly, Asn, and

His located in blocks II, III, and V, respectively (Yang et al., 2019). Phylogenetic analysis

across the mycobacterial species revealed strict evolutionary conservation of MgdE, with most

strains encoding two predicted NLS: $KRIR^{108-111}$ (NLS1) and $RLRRPR^{300-305}$ (NLS2) (Figure 2A

and B). To further investigate the nuclear translocation capability of MgdE, HEK293T cells

were transfected with MgdE-EGFP, and its subcellular localization was examined at multiple

time points post-transfection. Confocal microscopy revealed a time-dependent increase of

MgdE-EGFP in the nucleus by 48 hours post-transfection (Figure S2B and C). To

quantitatively assess this process, MgdE expression and nuclear enrichment were analyzed

by cell fractionation and immunoblotting. These results demonstrated that MgdE protein levels

increased over time and progressively accumulated in the nucleus, consistent with the

confocal imaging observations (Figure S2D–E). Taken together, these experiments indicate

that MgdE is an evolutionarily conserved mycobacterial nucleomodulin with nuclear

translocation capacity.

To dissect the functional contributions of the predicted NLS motifs, EGFP-tagged NLS

deletion mutants including MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, MgdE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ were constructed and

transfected into HEK293T cells. Fluorescence intensity profiling revealed that individual

deletion of either NLS1 or NLS2 partially reduced the nuclear targeting efficiency, whereas

simultaneous deletion of both the NLS motifs (MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$) completely abrogated its nuclear

localization (Figure 2C and D). These observations were further confirmed by immunoblot

analysis of nuclear fractions, which showed that at 36 h post-transfection, MgdE-EGFP and

its mutants were consistently detected in the cytoplasmic compartment, and nuclear

accumulation of MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ was nearly undetectable compared to that of MgdE (Figure 2E,

Figure S2F).　To determine whether MgdE translocates into the host nucleus during

mycobacterial infection, recombinant BCG strains expressing Flag-tagged MgdE mutants

were constructed, including single and double NLS deletion mutants (BCG/MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1}$-Flag,

BCG/MgdE$^{\Delta NLS2}$-Flag, and BCG/MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$-Flag). THP-1 macrophages were infected with

the recombinant strains, followed by subcellular fractionation. Nuclear-cytoplasmic

fractionation experiments showed that WT MgdE and the NLS single mutants could be

detected both in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus by immunoblotting, while the double mutant

MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ was detectable only in the cytoplasm (Figure 2F). These results indicate that

MgdE translocates into the host nucleus via a dual NLS mechanism, with both NLS1 and NLS2

required for efficient nuclear import.

Nuclear localization of MgdE enhances mycobacterial intracellular survival within

macrophages

Given that MgdE exhibits nuclear translocation ability, we sought to determine whether this

ability plays a role in bacterial survival during infection. We generated various recombinant *M.*

bovis BCG strains, including wild-type BCG (WT), a *mgdE* deletion mutant (ΔMgdE) (Figure

S3A and B), ΔMgdE complemented with WT *mgdE* (Comp-MgdE), and ΔMgdE complemented

with NLS-deleted mutant (Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$). All strains exhibited similar growth in 7H9 liquid

media supplemented with OADC (Figure S3C). To assess intracellular survival, we infected

THP-1 macrophages with each strain and monitored bacterial burden over time. As shown in

Figure 3A, the ΔMgdE mutant strain exhibited significantly reduced survival compared to the

WT strain, with accelerated bacterial clearance over time. This defect was rescued in the

Comp-MgdE strain, with intracellular survival levels restored to that in the WT strain. Notably,

the Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ showed bacterial clearance equivalent to that in the ΔMgdE strains.

These results were consistent with the infection experiments using RAW264.7 macrophage

(Figure 3B). Furthermore, THP-1 macrophages infected with the ΔMgdE mutant strain

exhibited significant upregulation of inflammatory cytokines, including *IL1B*, *IL6*, *IL10,* and the

colony-stimulating factors *CSF1–CSF3* compared to the macrophages infected with the WT

strain (Figure 3C–H). Collectively, these results demonstrated that (i) MgdE enhances

mycobacterial intracellular survival and suppresses host inflammatory responses during

infection, and (ii) both NLS1 and NLS2 motifs are essential for the nuclear trafficking-

dependent function.

MgdE physically interacts with the host COMPASS complex subunits ASH2L and WDR5

To identify the potential host target proteins of MgdE, we employed AlphaFold to predict the

interactions between MgdE and majority of the nuclear proteins in the host. The prediction

results showed that MgdE binds to WDR5, a core component of the histone methyltransferase

COMPASS complex, with high confidence (pLDDT = 0.77) (Figure S4A and B). To

experimentally validate this prediction, we performed yeast two-hybrid (Y2H) assays. The

yeast cells co-expressing MgdE with either ASH2L or WDR5 exhibited robust growth on

selective SD/-Trp-Leu-His-Ade medium, whereas the cells co-expressing MgdE with DPY30

or RbBP5 showed no detectable growth, indicating specific interactions between MgdE and

ASH2L/WDR5 (Figure 4A). Further, these interactions were validated by co-

immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assays. HEK293T cells were co-transfected with Flag-tagged

MgdE and HA-tagged ASH2L, WDR5, or RbBP5. The results revealed that HA-tagged ASH2L

and WDR5, but not RbBP5, co-precipitated with Flag-tagged MgdE (Figure 4B). Conversely,

Flag-tagged MgdE precipitated HA-tagged ASH2L and WDR5, but not RbBP5 (Figure 4C).

Taken together, these results demonstrate that MgdE specifically interacts with the

COMPASS complex subunits ASH2L and WDR5.

The conserved residues D224 and H247 are critical for mediating the binding of MgdE

to WDR5

To further confirm the interactions between MgdE and WDR5/ASH2L, the key amino acids of

MgdE (S80, D244, and H247) were individually replaced with alanine (A) (Yang et al., 2019).

The Y2H assays showed that single-residue substitutions of MgdE did not affect its interaction

with ASH2L or WDR5. However, the D244A/H247A double mutation specifically abrogated its

interaction with WDR5 but retained its ASH2L binding ability (Figure 5A). These findings were

further confirmed by Co-IP assays in HEK293T cells. Flag-tagged MgdE precipitated HA-

tagged ASH2L and WDR5 but not RbBP5, with reciprocal pull-downs confirming bidirectional

binding specificity. The D244A/H247A double mutant maintained its interaction with ASH2L

but failed to bind WDR5, suggesting that these interactions are mediated through distinct

molecular interfaces (Figure 5B, Figure S4C). To further investigate the functional

consequences of these mutations, we analyzed the subcellular localization of the MgdE

mutants in transfected HEK293T cells using fluorescence co-localization assays. Wild-type

MgdE exhibited distinct nuclear aggregation over time, a phenomenon that was abrogated

following transfection with the D244A/H247A mutant (Figure 5C), suggesting that the double

mutation impairs MgdE activity.

Given that MgdE interacts with WDR5, a subunit of COMPASS complex, which is a key

regulator of H3K4me3 methylation (Deng et al., 2024), we sought to determine whether this

interaction contributes to an epigenetic regulatory mechanism that facilitates bacterial

persistence within host cells. HEK293T cells were transfected with EGFP-tagged wild-type

MgdE (WT), the catalytic mutant MgdE-D244A/H247A, or EGFP protein. Immunoblot analysis

of nuclear extracts showed that cells expressing WT MgdE had ~25% lower H3K4me3 levels

than EGFP-expressing cells and ~40% lower levels than those expressing the D244A/H247A

mutant (Figure 5D). Taken together, these data indicate that the residues D244 and H247 are

essential for the MgdE-WDR5 interaction, which enables MgdE to attenuate H3K4me3

deposition in the host nuclei by subverting COMPASS complex function, a mechanism critical

for bacterial survival and immune evasion.

MgdE suppresses host inflammatory responses probably by inhibition of COMPASS

complex-mediated H3K4 methylation

As H3K4me3, a hallmark of transcriptionally active promoters, facilitates transcriptional

machinery assembly and RNA polymerase II recruitment (Wang et al., 2023), we further

investigated the transcriptional consequences of MgdE-mediated H3K4me3 suppression via

its interaction with the COMPASS complex. To assess the genome-wide effects of MgdE on

host gene expression, we performed RNA-seq profiling of THP-1 macrophages infected with

either WT BCG or ΔMgdE strains. Transcriptomic analysis at 24 h post-infection revealed that

271 genes showed significant differential expression in the cells infected with ΔMgdE strain

compared to those infected with the WT BCG strain, with 222 genes being transcriptionally

upregulated (Figure 6A). Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis indicated that these

upregulated genes were primarily associated with biological processes involved in immune

responses, with a notable enrichment in "Positive regulation of cytokine production (GO:

0001819)", a critical pathway for amplifying inflammatory signaling (Figure 6B). Furthermore,

the Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes (KEGG) pathway enrichment analysis

highlighted a significant activation of the "Cytokine–cytokine receptor interaction (hsa04060)"

and "JAK–STAT signaling pathway (hsa04630)" in THP-1 cells infected with the ΔMgdE strain

(Figure 6C, Figure S5A). Heatmap analysis further confirmed the significant upregulation of

inflammation-associated transcripts in ΔMgdE-infected cells, including inflammatory cytokines

(*IL6*, *IL7*, *IL10*, *IL12B*) and colony-stimulating factors (*CSF2–CSF3*) (Figure 6D, Figure S5B).

Protein–protein interaction (PPI) network analysis of the upregulated genes revealed tightly

interconnected clusters within inflammatory networks, particularly those orchestrated by the

central inflammatory mediator IL-6 (Figure S5C). To validate this result, we infected

macrophages with the *M. bovis* BCG strains, including WT, ΔMgdE, Comp-MgdE, and Comp-

MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$, under identical conditions for 24 h and examined the expression of relevant

inflammatory factors. Compared to cells infected with the WT and Comp-MgdE strains, those

infected with the ΔMgdE and Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains exhibited significantly increased

expression levels of inflammatory factors (*IL1B*, *IL6*, *IL10*) (Figure 6E–G). Collectively, these

results demonstrate that MgdE effectively inhibits the production of inflammatory factors

during BCG infection and highlights the critical role of its NLS in this process. Through its

interaction with the COMPASS complex, MgdE suppresses H3K4me3 levels, thereby

attenuating the transcriptional activation of inflammation-related genes.

Nuclear localization of MgdE is essential for mycobacterial survival in mice

Our experimental data demonstrated that MgdE enhances bacterial survival in macrophages.

To further investigate the *in vivo* functional significance of MgdE in host–pathogen interplay,

we infected C57BL/6 mice with different *M. bovis* BCG strains, including WT, ΔMgdE, Comp-

MgdE, and Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$, and comprehensively evaluated bacterial survival, pulmonary

inflammation, and cytokine dynamics. Mice infected with ΔMgdE exhibited a significantly

reduced lung bacterial burden compared to those infected with WT or Comp-MgdE strains.

Moreover, mice infected with Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ exhibited a significantly lower pulmonary

bacterial load than those infected with Comp-MgdE (Figure 7A). These findings collectively

establish that MgdE is essential for optimal bacterial survival during infection, with the NLS

being critical for its full functionality. Furthermore, histopathological assessment of the lung

tissues corroborated these observations. Hematoxylin–eosin (H&E) staining revealed more

pronounced inflammatory pathology in the lungs of mice infected with WT or Comp-MgdE

strain compared to those infected with ΔMgdE or Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ (Figure 7B), underscoring

the necessity of MgdE and its NLS in sustaining inflammation during infection. To further

investigate the systemic immune modulation mediated by MgdE, we quantified splenic

bacterial colonization and the inflammatory cytokine profiles. Consistent with the attenuated

bacterial survival observed in the lungs, mice infected with ΔMgdE and Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$

strains exhibited a significantly reduced splenic bacterial load compared to those infected with

WT or Comp-MgdE (Figure S6). Despite diminished bacterial dissemination, infections with

ΔMgdE and Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains triggered elevated expression of inflammatory

cytokines (*Il6, Il1b*) relative to infection with the WT and Comp-MgdE strains (Figure 7C and

D). Collectively, these findings indicate that MgdE orchestrates mycobacterial survival within

host tissues by suppressing inflammatory responses to evade pathogen clearance, with the

NLS playing a pivotal role in mediating these host–pathogen interactions.

DISCUSSION

MgdE functions as a critical nucleomodulin that contributes to mycobacterial

pathogenesis. Its evolutionary conservation across mycobacterial species, coupled with

nuclear translocation via dual N-terminal and C-terminal NLS, supports its classification as a

nucleomodulin. Previous investigations have described MgdE as a secreted effector protein

(Penn et al., 2018), and our experimental results confirm its secretion (Figure S2A).

Furthermore, our findings demonstrate that MgdE's nuclear localization plays a critical role

during infection. Disruption of MgdE expression or its NLS motifs significantly attenuated *M. bovis* BCG viability within macrophages (Figure 3A and B) and reduced bacterial burden in mice (Figure 7A, Figure S6), supporting the notion that nuclear targeting contributes to bacterial virulence. This phenotype aligns with transcriptomic data showing upregulation of MgdE during *M. tuberculosis* infection of alveolar macrophages (Pisu et al., 2020). In parallel, Yang et al. (2019) characterized MgdE as a lipase involved in intracellular lipid metabolism and showed that its transposon mutant exhibited impaired intracellular growth in THP-1 cells and PBMC-derived macrophages, as well as a moderately reduced bacterial load in C3HeB/FeJ mice at later stages of infection. These findings align with our data and highlight the multifaceted role of MgdE in both metabolic adaptation and host-cell interaction. Together, these findings suggest a functional duality in which MgdE contributes to both metabolic adaptation and host nuclear modulation. By coupling enzymatic activity with nuclear targeting, MgdE may enable Mtb to balance metabolic needs and immune evasion.

MgdE directly subverts the COMPASS complex to reprogram host epigenetics. To our knowledge, MgdE is the first identified bacterial effector that directly targets the COMPASS complex, a central regulator of H3K4 methylation. Nuclear-localized MgdE specifically interacts with the core COMPASS subunits ASH2L and WDR5, disrupting H3K4me3 deposition through structural interference (Guarnaccia et al., 2021; Hsu et al., 2018; Xue et al., 2019). The COMPASS complex facilitates H3K4 methylation through a conserved assembly mechanism involving multiple core subunits. WDR5, a central scaffolding component, interacts with RbBP5 and ASH2L to promote complex assembly and enzymatic activity (Qu et al., 2018; Wysocka et al., 2005). It also recognizes the WIN motif of

methyltransferases such as MLL1, thereby anchoring them to the complex and stabilizing the

ASH2L–RbBP5 dimer (Hsu et al., 2018). ASH2L further contributes to COMPASS activation

by interacting with both RbBP5 and DPY30 and by stabilizing the SET domain, which is

essential for efficient substrate recognition and catalysis (Qu et al., 2018; Park et al., 2019).

Our work shows that MgdE interacts with both WDR5 and ASH2L, leading to a decrease in

H3K4me3 levels (Figure 4A-C, Figure 5D). Site-directed mutagenesis revealed that residues

D224 and H247 of MgdE are critical for WDR5 binding, as the double mutant MgdE-

D224A/H247A fails to interact with WDR5 and shows diminished suppression of H3K4me3

levels (Figure 5D).

Moreover, MgdE accumulates in the nucleus (Figure 1C, Figure 2C, Figure 5C, Figure S2B),

reminiscent of *L. monocytogenes* InlP, which modulates nuclear speckles to inhibit apoptosis

(Pourpre et al., 2022). This interaction silences the expression of antimicrobial effector genes,

thereby facilitating immune evasion. Similar to *L. pneumophila* RomA, which methylates

H3K14 to repress innate immune responses (Schator et al., 2023; Rolando et al., 2013), or

Mtb Rv2067c, a structural mimic of host DOT1L that catalyzes non-nucleosomal H3K79

trimethylation to subvert pro-inflammatory signaling (Singh et al., 2023), MgdE exemplifies a

broader pathogen strategy of hijacking the host histone methylation machinery.

MgdE-mediated epigenetic silencing suppresses pro-inflammatory responses.

Transcriptome analysis showed that the *mgdE*-deleted BCG strain induced hyperactivation of

"Cytokine–cytokine receptor interaction (hsa04060)" and "JAK–STAT signaling pathway

(hsa04630)" (Figure 6C), along with significantly elevated production of inflammatory

cytokines, including *IL6* and *IL1B*, in THP-1 macrophages compared to the WT BCG strain

(Figure 3C and D, Figure 6E and F). This profile is consistent with the functional restoration of

the COMPASS complex (Wang et al., 2025; Yu et al., 2017). These findings support the

hypothesis that MgdE suppresses host inflammatory responses by disrupting COMPASS-

mediated H3K4me3 deposition at active promoters. H3K4me3 is a well-established histone

mark associated with transcriptional activation, in part through the recruitment of PHD domain-

containing reader proteins (Hyun et al., 2017). For instance, SET1-dependent deposition of

H3K4me3 at NF-κB target promoters facilitates the activation of inflammatory gene expression

(Bhattacharya et al., 2023). In addition, WDR5 has been implicated in upregulating

immunosuppressive cytokines, including *IL6* and *TGFβ* (Deng et al., 2024). In transfected

HEK293T cells, WT MgdE significantly reduced global H3K4me3 levels, whereas the

catalytically inactive D224A/H247A mutant failed to do so (Figure 5D), supporting the notion

that MgdE-mediated suppression of H3K4me3 depends on its ability to interact with WDR5.

Furthermore, during infection, the ΔMgdE strain markedly activated the expression of

inflammatory factors compared to the WT BCG strain (Figure 6E–G). These results suggest

that MgdE attenuates the expression of inflammatory mediators such as *IL6* and *IL1B* by

reducing host H3K4me3 levels during Mycobacterium infection. This mechanism is similar to

those observed in other pathogens, such as spirochete-derived factors that suppress

inflammation by reducing H3K4me3 levels at the *TNFα* and *IL6* promoters (Chauhan et al.,

2015).

In summary, our study identified MgdE as a critical mycobacterial nucleomodulin and

uncovered a novel paradigm of pathogen-mediated epigenetic regulation through the "MgdE–

COMPASS complex–H3K4me3–cytokine" axis (Figure 7E). Mechanistically, MgdE might

destabilize the COMPASS assembly via the interaction with ASH2L or WDR5, resulting in

reduced H3K4me3 levels at the promoters of pro-inflammatory genes. This epigenetic

suppression downregulates cytokine transcription (e.g., *IL6 and IL1B*) and enhances bacterial

survival in macrophages and in mice. Our findings reveal the COMPASS complex as a

previously unrecognized target of bacterial effectors and offers mechanistic insights into

immune evasion and host–pathogen epigenetic interplay.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study are detailed in Table S5. *Escherichia coli* DH5α was

cultured in Luria-Bertani medium under standard conditions. *Mycobacterium bovis BCG*

strains were grown in Middlebrook 7H9 broth (BD Biosciences), containing 1× OADC (oleic

acid, albumin, dextrose, catalase), 0.05% Tween-80, and 2% glycerol. Antibiotics were added

as required at the following final concentrations: 50 µg/mL hygromycin (for mycobacteria) and

50 µg/mL kanamycin (for both mycobacteria and *E. coli*). The Y2H Gold yeast strain (Takara

Bio) was maintained in YPDA (yeast extract, peptone, dextrose, and adenine sulfate) medium.

Transformants were selected on SD/-Trp medium, which lacks tryptophan, to select for

plasmid uptake. Protein-protein interactions were assessed in SD/-Trp/-Leu (lacking

tryptophan and leucine) and SD/-Trp/-Leu/-Ade/-His (lacking tryptophan, leucine, adenine,

and histidine) media, with growth on higher stringency media indicating positive interactions.

Cell culture

THP-1 cells were cultured in Roswell Park memorial institute 1640 (RPMI 1640) medium

supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1 mM sodium

pyruvate, 2 mM L-glutamine, 10 mM HEPES buffer (pH 7.2–7.5), and 50 μM 2-

mercaptoethanol. For differentiation into macrophages, THP-1 cells were treated with 200 nM

phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) for 48 h to allow complete differentiation prior to their

use in experiments.

HEK293T and RAW264.7 monocytes were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium

(DMEM) supplemented with 10% FBS and 50 μg/mL penicillin-streptomycin. All cells were

maintained at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5% CO_2.

Screening of conserved nucleomodulins in Mycobacteria

To systematically identify evolutionarily conserved nucleomodulins in pathogenic

mycobacteria, a comparative pan-genome analysis was performed across four

phylogenetically representative mycobacterium strains: *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Rv

(NCBI RefSeq assembly GCF_000195955.2), *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* H37Ra (NCBI

RefSeq assembly GCF_001938725.1), *Mycobacterium bovis* BCG (NCBI RefSeq assembly

GCF_000009445.1), *Mycobacterium marinum* (NCBI RefSeq assembly GCF_000018345.1),

and *Mycobacterium avium* subsp (NCBI RefSeq assembly GCF_009741445.1). Complete

genome sequences and annotations were obtained from NCBI RefSeq with strict inclusion

criteria requiring "Complete Genome" status and fewer than 50 contigs to ensure the assembly

integrity. Plasmid sequences, as well as low-complexity and repetitive regions, were filtered

using the NCBI Genome Data Viewer toolkit. Genome quality control was rigorously conducted

using CheckM with a *Mycobacteriaceae*-specific marker set, confirming that all the selected

genomes exhibited >99% completeness and <1% contamination. Ortholog clustering of

protein-coding sequences was performed using OrthoFinder with DIAMOND for sequence

alignment. Orthogroups were inferred using the Markov Cluster Algorithm (MCL) with an

inflation parameter of 1.5 to balance sensitivity and specificity. Core orthologs were defined

as groups present in all four strains, with additional filtering to retain only single-copy genes in

≥90% of the strains, thereby minimizing paralog-related artifacts.

To prioritize candidate nucleomodulins, a sequential screening pipeline was applied, beginning

with the prediction of classical secretory proteins using SignalP v5.0 (D-score ≥0.5), followed

by the identification of non-classically secreted proteins via SecretomeP v2.0 (NN score ≥0.9),

and culminating in NLS detection using cNLS Mapper (NLS score ≥2.0), which predicts both

monopartite and bipartite NLS. This integrated strategy enabled the systematic identification

of conserved candidates that exhibit both secretory potential and nuclear targeting capacity.

Immunoblot analysis of MgdE secretion

The procedure for immunoblot analysis of MgdE secretion was adapted from Zhang et al.

(2022) with minor modifications. *M. bovis* BCG strains expressing C-terminally Flag-tagged

MgdE were cultured in Middlebrook 7H9 broth supplemented with 0.5% glycerol, 0.02%

Tyloxapol, and 50 µg/mL kanamycin. Cultures were incubated at 37 °C with gentle agitation

(80 rpm) until reaching an OD_{600} of ~0.6. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at 4,000 × g

for 15 min at 4 °C. The culture supernatants were filtered through 0.22 µm PES membranes

(Millipore) to remove residual bacteria and subsequently concentrated ~100-fold using Amicon

Ultra-15 centrifugal filters with a 10 kDa molecular weight cutoff (Millipore). The resulting

culture filtrates were used for detection of secreted MgdE. Bacterial pellets were washed twice

with PBS and resuspended in lysis buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl,

1 mM PMSF, and 1× protease inhibitor cocktail. Cells were lysed by sonication on ice, and the

lysates were cleared by centrifugation at 10,000 × g for 15 min at 4 °C to obtain whole-cell

lysates. Whole-cell lysates and concentrated culture filtrates were resolved on 10% SDS–

PAGE gels and transferred to PVDF membranes (Millipore). Membranes were blocked with

5% skimmed milk powder in TBST (Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween-20) for 1 h at

room temperature and then incubated overnight at 4 °C with a monoclonal anti-Flag antibody.

After washing, membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 h

at room temperature. Immunoreactive bands were visualized using enhanced

chemiluminescence (ECL) substrate and imaged with a ChemiDoc MP imaging system (Bio-

Rad).

Phylogenetic and sequence analysis

To investigate the evolutionary conservation and sequence features of MgdE homologs,

phylogenetic reconstruction was performed using MEGA 12.0 with a neighbor-joining

algorithm. The parameters included pairwise deletion for gap treatment, a Poisson substitution

model (selected for its suitability in analyzing closely related bacterial sequences), and 1,000

bootstrap replicates to assess node support. Nodes with ≥50% bootstrap values were retained,

and no additional pruning was performed.

The analysis incorporated MgdE homologs from 12 Mycobacterium strains spanning clinical,

environmental, and attenuated lineages. These included Rv1075c (*M. tuberculosis* H37Rv),

BCG_1133c (*M. bovis* BCG), MRA_1085 (*M. tuberculosis* H37Ra), MAF_10880 (*M.*

africanum), MT1105 (*M. tuberculosis* CDC1551), TBMG_02912 (*M. tuberculosis* GM041182),

MSHI_02760 (*M. shinjukuense*), MMAR_4392 (*M. marinum*), MULP_04607 (*M. lupini*),

MAV_1199 (*M. avium*), MMAN_54310 (*M. manitobense*), and MIP_01781 (*M. intracellulare*).

Genomic sequences were retrieved from the NCBI RefSeq database, filtered for

completeness, and aligned using Clustal Omega v1.2.4 with default parameters (gap opening

penalty = 10, gap extension = 0.2, and iterative refinement enabled). Sequence conservation

was visualized using ESPript 3.0, highlighting residues with ≥90% identity across all homologs

in red.

Computational prediction of sequence and structural features

AlphaFold v2.2.0 was used to predict the interaction between MgdE and COMPASS complex

subunits, following the methodology established in a previous study (Gómez Borrego et al.,

2024). The specific parameters used for the prediction were as follows: model_preset =

multimer; db_preset = full_dbs. A FASTA file containing the sequences of both MgdE and

COMPASS complex subunit proteins was input into the AlphaFold software. The resulting

models were evaluated and ranked based on the AF-score, which is a linear combination of

the interface score (ipTM) and the predicted TM-score (pTM). The top-ranked model (rank 1)

was selected for further analysis.

Cell transfection and confocal microscopy

HEK293T cells were seeded at 70% confluency in poly-L-lysine-coated 35-mm glass-bottom

dishes and maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS at 37 °C under 5% CO_2.

Transfection was performed using the Hieff Trans™ Liposomal Transfection Reagent (Yeasen)

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 0.5 μg of DNA and 1.5 μL of transfection

reagent were mixed with 50 μL of Opti-MEM and incubated for 20 min at room temperature.

The mixture was added dropwise to each chamber of 35-mm six-chamber glass-bottom dishes

containing cells at 40–60% confluency.

At 4–48 h post-transfection, the cells were washed with PBS, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde

for 15 min, and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 for 10 min. Nuclei were counterstained

with 1 µg/mL DAPI for 10 min. Confocal imaging was performed using an Olympus FV1000

Confocal Laser Scanning Microscope equipped with a 100×/1.40 NA oil immersion objective.

EGFP and DAPI signals were detected with 488 nm and 405 nm lasers, respectively. Spectral

unmixing was applied using the Olympus FV10-ASW software (v4.2) to minimize signal cross-

talk, and Z-stacks were acquired in sequential mode by applying a step size of 0.5 µm across

all samples to ensure comparability.

Cell fractionation and Immunoblotting

During infection, THP-1 cells were differentiated with 200 ng/mL PMA for 48 hours, followed

by infection with BCG/MgdE-Flag, BCG/MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1}$-Flag, BCG/MgdE$^{\Delta NLS2}$-Flag, or

BCG/MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$-Flag strains at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 50 for 24 hours. Cell

fractionation was performed with minor modifications based on a previously described method

(Wang J et al., 2017). Briefly, cells were lysed in a hypotonic buffer containing 10 mM HEPES

(pH 7.9), 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM KCl, 0.34 M sucrose, 10% glycerol, and 0.02% Tyloxapol,

supplemented with 1% protease inhibitor cocktail, and incubated for 10 minutes at 4 °C. The

lysates were then centrifuged at 1300 × g for 10 minutes. The pellet from uninfected THP-1

cells was collected as the nuclear fraction. For infected THP-1 cells, the pellet was

resuspended in PBS containing 0.1% SDS and centrifuged at 2500 × g for 15 minutes at 4 °C.

The resulting supernatant was collected as the nuclear fraction.

During transfection, HEK293T cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS at

37 °C in a 5% CO_2 incubator. Transfection was performed as described in the "Cell transfection

and confocal microscopy" section. At 36 hours post-transfection, nuclear and cytoplasmic

protein fractionation was conducted using the Nuclear and Cytoplasmic Protein Extraction Kit

(Beyotime) with minor modifications. Cells were washed with PBS, detached using a cell

scraper, and pelleted by centrifugation at 2000 × g for 5 minutes. After removing the

supernatant, 150 µL of Cytoplasmic Extraction Reagent A (with PMSF) was added to ~20 µL

of packed cells, vortexed for 5 seconds, and incubated on ice for 15 minutes. Then, 10 µL of

Reagent B was added, followed by vortexing and ice incubation. The mixture was centrifuged

at 12,000 × g for 5 minutes at 4 °C, and the supernatant was collected as the cytoplasmic

fraction. The pellet was resuspended in 50 µL of Nuclear Extraction Reagent (with PMSF),

vortexed intermittently over 30 minutes on ice, and centrifuged at 12,000 × g for 10 minutes

at 4 °C. The resulting supernatant was collected as the nuclear protein fraction.

Protein concentrations were quantified using the BCA assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Equal

amounts of protein (20–40 µg) were resolved by sodium dodecylsulfate polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis (SDS–PAGE) and transferred onto PVDF membranes. The membranes were

blocked for 1 h at room temperature with 5% non-fat milk in TBSTand incubated overnight at

4 °C with primary antibodies. After three washes with TBST, the membranes were incubated

with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies at room temperature for 1 h. Following three

additional TBST washes, protein signals were detected using an ECL substrate and imaged

on a ChemiDoc MP system (Bio-Rad). The antibody information is listed in Table S4.

Co-IP assays

The Co-IP assays were performed to analyze protein-protein interactions. HEK293T cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS and lysed in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40) supplemented with 1.5% protease inhibitor cocktail (Boster) for 30 min on ice. Crude lysates were centrifuged at 12,000 ×*g* for 15 min at 4 °C to remove the debris. For immunoprecipitation, 1 mg of total protein was incubated with 5 μg of primary antibody overnight at 4 °C with gentle agitation. Protein A/G magnetic beads (MedChemExpress) were added to the antibody-protein complexes and incubated for 6 h at 4 °C. The beads were washed three times with PBS-T buffer (PBS containing 0.5% Tween-20) to remove nonspecific interactions. Proteins were eluted by boiling the beads in 1× SDS sample buffer at 95 °C for 5 min. The eluted proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analyzed by immunoblotting. Antibody information is listed in Table S4.

Y2H assay

The Yeast Two-Hybrid System (Clontech) was used to assay protein-protein interactions between MgdE (WT and mutants) and subunits of the COMPASS complex (ASH2L, WDR5, RbBP5, and DPY30). Full-length cDNAs encoding WT MgdE and its mutants (see Table S6) were cloned into the bait vector pGBKT7, whereas genes encoding the COMPASS subunits were cloned into the prey vector pGADT7. The yeast strain Y2H Gold was co-transformed with bait and prey plasmids using the lithium acetate/polyethylene glycol method, and the transformed colonies were initially selected on SD agar plates lacking leucine and tryptophan (-Leu/-Trp) to confirm plasmid retention. For interaction screening, colonies were replica-plated onto selective SD agar plates lacking leucine, tryptophan, adenine, and histidine (-Leu/-Trp/-Ade/-His) and supplemented with 200 ng/μL aureobasidin A (AbA, Sigma-Aldrich). The

plates were incubated at 30 °C, and colony growth was monitored daily, with final assessments

performed after 5 days of incubation. Interaction strength was qualitatively assessed by

comparing colony density and growth rates with those of the controls. The positive controls

included the co-transformation of pGBKT7-p53 with pGADT7-T, which produced robust growth

on -Leu/-Trp/-Ade/-His plates. Negative controls included co-transformation of pGBKT7-Lam

(human lamin C, a non-interacting bait) with pGADT7-T, as well as individual transformations

with empty pGBKT7 or pGADT7 vectors to assess the background growth. The yeast strains

used in this study are listed in Table S5.

RNA-seq analysis

THP-1 cells were seeded at a density of 1×10^6 cells/well in 6-well plates and differentiated

into macrophages by treatment with 200 nM PMA for 48 h. Following differentiation, the cells

were washed with PBS and infected with *M. bovis* BCG WT or ΔMgdE strains at a MOI of 10:1.

Following 24 h of infection, total RNA was extracted using TRIzol® reagent (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. High-quality reads were then mapped

to the human reference genome (GRCh38) using HISAT2 (v2.2.1). FeatureCounts (v2.0.3)

was used to quantify transcript abundance, and differential gene expression analysis was

conducted using DESeq2 (v1.38.3) in R. Genes with an adjusted *P*-value <0.05 and an

absolute $\log_2$-foldchange ≥1 was considered significantly differentially expressed. RNA-seq

data were visualized using GraphPad Prism 8.0, and volcano plots, heatmaps, and other

visualizations were generated to summarize the results.

qRT-PCR assay

THP-1 cells were infected with the *M. bovis* BCG strain and harvested 24 h post-infection for

RNA isolation. Total RNA was extracted using 1 mL of TRIzol® reagent (Aidlab) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. To remove genomic DNA contamination, the RNA samples

were treated with DNase I (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 30 min at 37 °C, followed by heat

inactivation at 65 °C for 10 min. RNA concentration and purity were assessed using a

NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). For cDNA synthesis, 1 μg of

total RNA was reverse transcribed using the HiScript® III cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit

(Vazyme) with random hexamers, according to the manufacturer's protocol. qRT-PCR was

performed using ChamQ SYBR® Green RT-PCR Master Mix (Vazyme). The relative mRNA

expression of different genes was calculated by comparing their cycle threshold (Ct) values to

that of a control gene *HPRT* using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method. Real-time qRT-PCR experiments were

performed in triplicate, with at least three independent biological replicates and two technical

replicates per condition. Primer sequences used for qRT-PCR are listed in Table S7.

CFU assay

For bacterial preparation, mid-log phase cultures (OD_{600} = 0.8) of *M. bovis* BCG were washed

with PBS and resuspended in fresh medium. THP-1 cells were seeded at a density of 5×10^5

cells/well in 24-well plates and subsequently infected at a MOI of 10:1. Following 4 h of

infection, extracellular bacteria were eliminated by treatment with penicillin-streptomycin (100

μg/mL) for 2 h. The cells were then washed three times with PBS and maintained in an

antibiotic-free medium until harvest. For bacterial recovery, the macrophages were lysed with

0.25% SDS for 10 min at room temperature, followed by serial dilution of the lysates in PBS.

Aliquots (100 μL) of each dilution were plated on Middlebrook 7H10 agar supplemented with

10% OADC and kanamycin (50 µg/mL). Plates were incubated at 37 °C for 14 days, and CFUs

were calculated by applying dilution factors to the colony counts. *M. bovis* BCG strains used

in this study are listed in Table S5.

Animal experiments

Specific pathogen-free (SPF) female C57BL/6 mice (6–8 weeks old) were obtained from

Chang-sheng Bio (Liaoning, China). All animals were housed under SPF conditions under

controlled temperature, humidity, and a 12-hour light/dark cycle, with free access to food and

water.

Mice were infected as described previously with slight modifications (Chen et al., 2022). Mid-

log phase *M. bovis* BCG cultures were washed twice in PBS containing 0.05% Tween 80 and

sonicated to disrupt clumps. Female C57BL/6 mice (6–8 weeks old, 16–18g) were

anesthetized using isoflurane and intranasally administered 1×10^7 CFUs of *M. bovis* BCG in

40 µL of PBS. At 2 days post-infection, the bacterial load in the lungs of six mice was assessed

to confirm the inoculation dose. The lungs were homogenized in 1 mL of PBS using a tissue

homogenizer, and serial dilutions of the homogenates were plated onto Middlebrook 7H10

agar with 10% OADC. The plates were then incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 14 d prior to

colony counting.

Histological analysis

Lung tissues from *M. bovis* BCG-infected mice were fixed in 4% phosphate-buffered formalin

at room temperature for 24 h and embedded in paraffin wax. Paraffin-embedded tissue

samples were sectioned into 2–3 µm thick slices using a microtome. The sections were

deparaffinized, rehydrated with graded ethanol, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E).

Stained slides were visualized using an Olympus BX53 light microscope, and CaseViewer

version 2.0 (3DHISTECH) was used to view and annotate the scanned slides.

Ethics approval

All animal experiments were conducted in accordance with the protocols approved by the

Animal Ethics Committee of the Huazhong Agricultural University.

Statistical analyses

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was assessed

using unpaired t-tests or two-way ANOVA. Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Significance levels are denoted in the figures as follows: $P > 0.05$ (ns, not significant), $P <$

0.05 (*), $P < 0.01$ (**), and $P < 0.001$ (***). All statistical analyses were performed using

GraphPad Prism (version 8.0). Data were collected from at least three independent biological

replicates, each with two or more technical replicates.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China

(#2021YFD1800403), Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities

(#2662023DKQD001), Talent Start-up Funds of Huazhong Agricultural University

(#11042310008), National Natural Science Foundation of China (#32473123), China

Agriculture Research System of MOF and MARA (#CARS-37).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

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DISCLOSURE AND COMPETING INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figures

Figure legends

Figure 1. Identification of conserved nucleomodulins in mycobacteria through

functional screening.

(**A**) Schematic representation of the bioinformatic pipeline for identifying conserved nucleomodulins in Mycobacterium species. Genomic sequences from *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv, *M. tuberculosis* H37Ra, *M. avium*, *M. marinum*, and *M. bovis* BCG were analyzed. Signal peptides were predicted using SignalP 5.0 (D-score ≥ 0.5), non-classical secretion signals were identified using SecretomeP 2.0 (NN score ≥ 0.9), and nuclear localization signals (NLS) were predicted using cNLS Mapper (score ≥ 2.0). (**B**) Classification of conserved cellular nucleomodulins. Secreted proteins were categorized based on the presence or absence of predicted NLS motifs. (**C**) Subcellular localization of EGFP-tagged candidate nucleomodulins. (left) Confocal microscopy images of seven Tat/SPI proteins fused to EGFP (green), nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). (right) Quantification of nuclear EGFP fluorescence intensity. Scale bar, 10 μm. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 25 cells/group).

Figure 2. Hypothetical protein MgdE enters the host nucleus via dual NLS.

(**A**) Domain architecture of MgdE. Schematic representation of MgdE with the annotated functional domains, including a Tat signal peptide (1–37 aa, twin-arginine translocation motif), a GDSL-like lipase/acylhydrolase catalytic domain (74–258 aa), and two nuclear localization signals (NLS1: 108–111 aa, NLS2: 300–305 aa). (**B**) Phylogenetic and structural conservation of MgdE. (left) Neighbor–joining phylogenetic tree of MgdE homologs across Mycobacterium species (1,000 bootstrap replicates, values ≥50% shown). (right) Clustal Omega sequence alignment highlighting conserved residues (≥90% identity, red). Species abbreviations: *M. tuberculosis* (Mtu), *M. bovis* BCG (Mbb), *M. tuberculosis* H37Ra (Mra), *M. africanum* (Maf), *M. marinum* M (Mmi), *M. tuberculosis* CDC1551 (Mtc), *M. tuberculosis* KZN 1435 (Mtb), *M. shinjukuense* (Mshj), *M. avium* (Mav), *M. liflandii* (Mli), *M. mantenii* (Mman), *M. intracellulare subsp* (Mid). (**C**) Subcellular localization of EGFP-tagged wild-type MgdE and its NLS-deletion mutants (MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, MgdE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$). (left) Schematic representation of EGFP-tagged constructs. (right) Representative confocal microscopy images of HEK293T cells transfected with the indicated constructs for 36 h. EGFP fluorescence (green) and nuclear staining with DAPI (blue) were visualized using FLUOVIEW software. Scale bar, 10 µm. Images were acquired using a 100× oil immersion objective (NA = 1.4). (**D**) Quantification of nuclear EGFP intensity in cells expressing wild-type or mutant MgdE constructs. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 15 cells). Statistical significance was assessed by two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests (***$P < 0.001$). (**E**) Western blot analysis of nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions from HEK293T cells transfected with wild-type MgdE and its NLS-deletion mutants. The empty EGFP vector was used as a negative control. EGFP and MgdE-EGFP fusion

proteins were detected using an anti-GFP antibody. Histone H3 and β-actin served as nuclear

and cytoplasmic markers, respectively. (**F**) Nuclear localization of MgdE during infection. THP-

1 macrophages were infected with recombinant *M. bovis* BCG strains expressing Flag-tagged

wild-type MgdE or NLS-deletion mutants (MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, MgdE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1\text{-}2}$) for 24

hours. Subcellular fractionation was performed, and cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions were

analyzed by immunoblotting using anti-Flag antibodies. Histone H3 and β-actin were used as

nuclear and cytoplasmic markers, respectively.

Figure 3. Nuclear localization of MgdE facilitates mycobacterial intracellular survival in

macrophages.

(**A**–**B**) Intracellular survival of *M. bovis* BCG strains. THP-1 human macrophages (**A**) and

RAW264.7 murine macrophages (**B**) were infected (MOI = 10) with wild-type BCG (WT), MgdE

deletion mutant (ΔMgdE), complemented strain (Comp-MgdE), or NLS-deficient complement

(Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$). Bacterial survival was assessed by CFU enumeration at 2, 24, 48, and

72 h post-infection. (**C**–**H**) Cytokine expression in the infected THP-1 cells. qRT-PCR analysis

of cytokine mRNA levels in THP-1 cells infected with WT or ΔMgdE strains for 4–24 h. Target

genes include *IL1B* (**C**), *IL6* (**D**), *IL10* (**E**), *CSF1* (**F**), *CSF2* (**G**), and *CSF3* (**H**). Data represent

mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using

two-way ANOVA or two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P <$

0.001.

Figure 4. MgdE directly interacts with ASH2L and WDR5, core components of the host COMPASS complex.

(**A**) Yeast cells were co-transformed with bait (pGBKT7) and prey (pGADT7) plasmids expressing wild-type MgdE and human COMPASS components (ASH2L, WDR5, RbBP5, and DPY30). Growth was monitored on non-selective (-Leu/-Trp, left) and selective (-Leu/-Trp/-Ade/-His + 200 ng/µL aureobasidin A, right) media. Controls: CK− (pGBKT7-*lam* + pGADT7-T, negative), CK+ (pGBKT7-*p53* + pGADT7-T, positive). (**B**–**C**) Cells were co-transfected with Flag-MgdE and HA-tagged ASH2L, WDR5, or RbBP5 (1:1 molar ratio). At 36 h post-transfection, the lysates were immunoprecipitated using (**B**) anti-HA or (**C**) anti-Flag antibodies, followed by immunoblotting with anti-HA, anti-Flag, and anti-GAPDH (loading control). The input lanes represent 5% of the total lysate.

Figure 5. The conserved residues D224 and H247 mediate the binding ability of MgdE

 to WDR5.

(**A**) Y2H assay identifying interactions between MgdE mutants and COMPASS complex

subunits. Yeast cells were co-transformed with bait (pGBKT7) and prey (pGADT7) plasmids

expressing wild-type or mutant MgdE and human COMPASS subunits (ASH2L, WDR5,

RbBP5, and DPY30). Growth was assessed on non-selective (-Leu/-Trp, left) and selective (-

Leu/-Trp/-Ade/-His + 200 ng/µL aureobasidin A, right) media. Controls: CK− (pGBKT7-*lam* +

pGADT7-T, negative) and CK+ (pGBKT7-*p53* + pGADT7-T, positive). (**B**) Co-IP analysis of

MgdE mutants with WDR5. HEK293T cells were co-transfected with Flag-tagged MgdE

mutants and HA-tagged WDR5 (1:1 molar ratio). Complexes were immunoprecipitated using

anti-HA antibody and protein A/G beads, followed by immunoblotting with anti-Flag and anti-

HA antibodies. (**C**) Nuclear distribution of wild-type and mutants MgdE. Confocal microscopy

of HEK293T cells expressing wild-type or D224A/H247A MgdE-EGFP at 12 and 24 h post-

transfection (hpt). Nuclear foci were visualized by EGFP (green) and DAPI (blue) staining.

Scale bar, 10 µm. Images were acquired with a ×100 oil immersion objective (NA = 1.4). (**D**)

Immunoblot analysis of H3K4me3 levels. HEK293T cells expressing wild-type or

D224A/H247A mutant MgdE were analyzed for changes in H3K4me3 levels over 0–24 h post-

transfection. Histone H3 was used as a loading control. Data represent mean ± SD of three

independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-tailed unpaired

Student's *t*-tests, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

Figure 6. MgdE suppresses host inflammatory responses probably by inhibition of COMPASS complex-mediated H3K4 methylation.

(**A**) Volcano plot of DEGs. DEGs between MgdE-deleted strain (ΔMgdE) and wild-type BCG (WT) were visualized in a volcano plot. Genes with |log$_2$-fold change| ≥ 1 and $P < 0.05$ were considered significant. The *x*-axis represents log$_2$fold change, and the *y*-axis shows -log$_{10}$(*P*-value). (**B**) GO enrichment analysis of DEGs. GO analysis revealed the significant enrichment of immune and inflammatory processes in ΔMgdE-infected macrophages compared to that in WT-infected cells, including positive regulation of response to external stimulus (GO:0032103), response to molecule of bacterial origin (GO:0002237), response to virus (GO:0009615), response to lipopolysaccharide (GO:0032496), leukocyte migration (GO:0050900), viral process (GO:0016032), regulation of response to biotic stimulus (GO:0002831), T cell activation (GO:0042110), and mononuclear cell differentiation (GO:1903131). (**C**) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis of DEGs. Chord diagram of KEGG pathway enrichment analysis showing signaling pathways that are significantly enriched in ΔMgdE. (**D**) Heatmap of the inflammatory gene expression. Heatmap depicting log$_2$-foldchange levels of inflammatory genes involved in the JAK–STAT and cytokine signaling pathways. Upregulated and downregulated genes in ΔMgdE are shown in green and red, respectively. The data were *Z*-score normalized. (**E**–**G**) qRT-PCR analysis of cytokine mRNA levels in THP-1 cells infected with WT, ΔMgdE, MgdE-complemented (Comp-MgdE), and NLS-deleted complement (Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$) at 24 h post-infection. Cytokines analyzed include *IL1B* (**E**), *IL6* (**F**), and *IL10* (**G**). Data represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

Figure 7. Nuclear localization of MgdE is essential for mycobacterial survival in mice.

(**A**) Bacterial burden in the lungs of the infected mice. C57BL/6 mice (n = 6/group) maintained

under SPF conditions were intratracheally infected with 1.0 × 10⁷ colony-forming units (CFU)

of *M. bovis* BCG strains, including wild-type (WT), MgdE-deleted (ΔMgdE), MgdE-

complemented (Comp-MgdE), and NLS-deleted complement (Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$). Lung

bacterial loads were quantified using CFU assays at 0, 14, 21, 28, and 56 d post-infection.

The data were obtained from a single experiment. (**B**) H&E-stained lung sections from infected

mice (as in **A**) revealed granulomatous inflammation. Scale bars: 200 µm. (**C**–**D**) Pro-

inflammatory cytokine expression in mice spleen. qRT-PCR analysis of cytokine mRNA levels

of *Il1b* (**C**) and *Il6* (**D**) in spleen tissues from infected mice (n = 6/group) at 2 and 28 days post-

infection. Data are presented as mean ± SD from six biologically independent experiments.

Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

(**E**) Mechanistic model showing how mycobacterial nucleomodulin MgdE hijacks the

COMPASS complex to suppress H3K4me3 and promote immune evasion. Upon *M. bovis*

BCG infection, the nucleomodulin MgdE is delivered into the host nucleus via its NLS and

directly binds to the COMPASS complex subunits, ASH2L or WDR5. This interaction disrupts

H3K4 trimethylation (H3K4me3) deposition, leading to the epigenetic suppression of pro-

inflammatory cytokine transcription (e.g., *IL6*), thereby facilitating the intracellular survival of

the pathogen.

Supplementary figures

Supplementary figure 1. Comparative analysis of classical and non-classical secreted proteins in mycobacterial species.

(**A**) Venn diagram showing the distribution of predicted classical secreted proteins in four Mycobacterium species: *M. tuberculosis* H37Rv (Mtu) and *M. tuberculosis* H37Ra (Mra), *M. bovis* BCG (Mbb), *M. marinum* (Mmar), and *M. avium* (Mav). Proteins were predicted using SignalP 5.0, with a signal peptide score (D-score) ≥ 0.5. A total of 125 proteins were conserved across all species. (**B**) Venn diagram showing the distribution of predicted non-classical secreted proteins across the same Mycobacterium species, predicted using SecretomeP 2.0 with a neural network (NN) score ≥ 0.9. Ten proteins were conserved across all species. Bar graphs (left: classical, right: non-classical) summarize the total number of predicted secreted proteins per species.

Supplementary Figure 2. Subnuclear localization of MgdE-EGFP.

(**A**) Immunoblot analysis of bacterial lysates and culture supernatants from *M. bovis* BCG

strains expressing C-terminally Flag-tagged MgdE. Ag85B and GlpX were detected using anti-

Ag85B and anti-GlpX antibodies, serving as positive and negative controls for protein

secretion, respectively. MgdE-Flag was detected using an anti-Flag antibody. (**B**) Confocal

microscopy was used to assess the nuclear distribution of MgdE-EGFP at various time points

post-transfection. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue), MgdE-EGFP is shown in green. Scale

bar: 10 µm. Images were acquired using a 100× oil immersion objective (NA = 1.4). (**C**)

Quantification of nuclear EGFP intensity in cells expressing wild-type or mutant MgdE

constructs. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 12 cells). (**D**) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis

of *mgdE* mRNA expression in HEK293T cells at different time points post-transfection (4–48

h). Data represent the transcriptional level of *mgdE* relative to *HPRT*. (**E**) Western blot analysis

of nuclear fractions at different time points post-transfection (4–48 h), showing time-dependent

nuclear accumulation of MgdE-EGFP. Histone H3 was used as a loading control for nuclear

proteins. The lower panel shows quantification of nuclear MgdE-EGFP levels normalized to

Histone H3. (**F**) Quantification of the nuclear and cytoplasmic distribution of EGFP, wild-type

MgdE, and its NLS-deletion mutants based on the Western blot results shown in (**Figure 2E**).

Data represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance

determined using two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests, $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$.

Supplementary Figure 3. Deletion of the nuclear localization signal of MgdE does not

affect the growth of *M. bovis* BCG strains.

(**A-B**) Construction and validation of the MgdE-deleted strain of *M. bovis* BCG. (**A**) Schematic

diagram of the homologous recombination strategy used to delete *mgdE* from the *M. bovis*

BCG genome. (**B**) Wild-type and mutant strains were used as templates to amplify the *mgdE*

gene (600 bp upstream–600 bp downstream) by PCR. Lanes 1 and 3: wild-type genomic DNA,

lanes 2 and 4: Δ*mgdE* genomic DNA. (**C**) Growth curve analysis of *M. bovis* BCG strains.

Growth of BCG strains, including wild-type BCG (WT), MgdE-deleted (ΔMgdE), MgdE-

complemented (Comp-MgdE), and NLS-deleted complemented (Comp-MgdE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$) strains,

was measured in 7H9 medium. Data represent mean ± SD of three independent biological

replicates.

A

Function	COMPASS complexes	Predicted binding confidence (pLDDT)
The catalytic subunit	SET1A/B	-
Required for H3K4me3	ASH2L	0.47
Required for assembly	RBBP5	0.30
Required for assembly	WDR5	0.77
	DPY30	0.62
Components of the Set1 complexes	CXXC1	0.51
	WDR82	-
Components of the Set1 complexes	HCF1	0.37

B

MgdE-ASH2L	MgdE-DPY30	MgdE-RBBP5	MgdE-WDR5

C

Supplementary Figure 4. MgdE interacts with COMPASS complex subunits.

(**A**) Predicted binding affinities between MgdE and COMPASS core subunits. The predicted

local distance difference test (pLDDT) scores calculated using AlphaFold 2.2.0 for the

interactions between MgdE and the COMPASS subunits were as follows: ASH2L (pLDDT =

0.47), RbBP5 (pLDDT = 0.30), WDR5 (pLDDT = 0.77), and DPY30 (pLDDT = 0.62).

Confidence levels are categorized as follows: High confidence: pLDDT ≥ 0.7 (strong predicted

binding), Medium confidence: 0.5 ≤ pLDDT < 0.7 (moderate binding), Low confidence: pLDDT

< 0.5 (weak predicted binding). (**B**) Structural modeling of MgdE-COMPASS interactions.

AlphaFold generated models of the simulated binding interfaces are shown, with MgdE

highlighted in red and COMPASS subunits (ASH2L, WDR5, RbBP5, and DPY30) shown in

gray. (**C**) Co-IP analysis of MgdE mutants with ASH2L. HEK293T cells were co-transfected

with Flag-tagged MgdE mutants and HA-tagged ASH2L (1:1 molar ratio). Co-IP was performed

using anti-HA antibody-bound protein A/G beads, and immunoprecipitated complexes were

analyzed by immunoblotting with anti-Flag and anti-HA antibodies.

Supplementary Figure 5. MgdE suppresses cellular inflammatory responses during *M.*

bovis BCG infection.

(**A**) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis. KEGG pathway analysis identified significantly

enriched pathways in THP-1 cells infected with the ΔMgdE strain compared to those infected

with wild-type BCG (WT). DEGs were predominantly associated with immune and signaling

pathways, including thyroid hormone synthesis (hsa04918), AMPK signaling pathway

(hsa04152), PPAR signaling pathway (hsa03320), apelin signaling pathway (hsa04371),

Cytokine–cytokine receptor interaction (hsa04060), JAK–STAT signaling pathway (hsa04630),

and hematopoietic cell lineage (hsa04640). (**B**) Elevated inflammatory gene expression in

ΔMgdE-infected cells. Key upregulated inflammatory genes in ΔMgdE- *vs*. WT-infected cells

are highlighted. (**C**) Functional enrichment analysis of upregulated genes. Analysis using

STRING and Cytoscape revealed regulation of inflammatory responses as a top enriched

biological process ($P < 0.05$).

Supplementary Figure 6. MgdE facilitates bacterial colonization in the spleens of

infected mice.

Bacterial colonization was assessed in splenic homogenates from infected mice (as described

in **Figure 7A**) by quantifying bacterial DNA using quantitative PCR at 2, 14, 21, 28, and 56

days post-infection. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 3). Statistical significance

determined using two-way ANOVA, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$.