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

Liu Chen[1,2], Baojie Duan[1], Pingping Chen[1], Qiang Jiang[1], Yifan Wang[1], Lu Lu[1], Yingyu Chen[1,3,4], Changmin Hu[1,3], Lei Zhang[1,3,4]* and Aizhen Guo[1,2,3,4]*

[1]   National Key Laboratory of Agricultural Microbiology, College of Veterinary Medicine, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan 430070, China

[2]   Hubei Hongshan Laboratory, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan 430070, China

[3]   National Professional Laboratory for Animal Tuberculosis, Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan 430070, China

[4]   Hubei Jiangxia Laboratory, Wuhan 430207, China

*Address correspondence to: Lei Zhang, zhanglei2023@mail.hzau.edu.cn; Aizhen Guo, aizhen@mail.hzau.edu.cn

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 pan-

genomic comparative 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 candidates 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 mutant variants 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 variants

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 variant (Comp-MgdE$^{ΔNLS1-2}$). 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$^{ΔNLS1-2}$ 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 D^{224} and H^{247} 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 (S^{80}, D^{244}, and H^{247}) 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 $D^{244}A/H^{247}A$ 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 $D^{244}A/H^{247}A$ 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 $D^{244}A/H^{247}A$ 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-$D^{244}A/H^{247}A$, or EGFP protein. Immunoblot analysis of

nuclear extracts revealed that cells expressing WT MgdE exhibited the lower levels of

H3K4me3 than EGFP or $D^{244}A/H^{247}A$ double mutant (Figure 5D). Taken together, these data

indicate that the residues D^{244} and H^{247} 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 that in the cells infected with WT BCG strain, with 222 genes being

transcriptionally upregulated in the absence of MgdE (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 S56B). Protein–protein interaction

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$^{ΔNLS1-2}$, 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$^{ΔNLS1-2}$ 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 NLSs 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$^{ΔNLS1-2}$, 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$^{ΔNLS1-2}$ 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 NLSs 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$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$

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 NLSs, supports its classification as a

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

(Penn et al., 2018), and our experimental results independently 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 and inhibits the methyltransferase activity of the COMPASS complex (Figure 4A-C, Figure 5D). Site-directed mutagenesis revealed that residues D^{224} and H^{247} of MgdE are critical for WDR5 binding, as the double mutant MgdE-D^{224}A/H^{247}A 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 $D^{224}A/H^{247}A$ 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 MgdE-deleted BCG 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.

Pan-genomic nucleomodulin screening

To systematically identify evolutionarily conserved nucleomodulins in pathogenic

mycobacteria, a pan-genomic comparative 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 v1.2.2 with a *Mycobacteriaceae*-specific marker set (including essential

housekeeping genes such as *dnaA* and *rpoB*), confirming that all the selected genomes

exhibited >99% completeness and <1% contamination.

Ortholog clustering of protein–coding sequences (CDS) was executed through OrthoFinder

v2.5.4, employing Diamond alignment in ultra-sensitive mode (--ultra-sensitive), an E-value

cutoff of ≤1e-5 (--blastp_evalue 1e-5), and a minimum sequence identity threshold of ≥50% (-

-min_percent_identity 50). The Markov cluster algorithm (MCL) was applied with an inflation

parameter of 1.5 (--mcl_inflation 1.5) to define orthologous groups, balancing sensitivity, and

specificity. Core orthologs were identified as clusters present in all four strains, with additional

filtering to retain only single-copy genes in ≥90% of the strains, minimizing paralog-related

artifacts.

Functional annotation of the core genes was conducted using InterProScan v5.62, which

integrates domain predictions from the Pfam, TIGRFAM, and SUPERFAMILY databases. 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 NLSs. 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 (Millipore). The

membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature with 5% non-fat milk in TBST (25 mM

Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, and 0.2% Tween-20, pH 7.4) and incubated overnight at 4 °C

with primary antibodies. After three washes with TBST (6 min each), 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 enhanced

chemiluminescence (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

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

602   Animal Ethics Committee of the Huazhong Agricultural University.

Statistical analyses

Data are presented as mean ± standard deviation (SD). For comparisons between the two

groups, statistical significance was determined using two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests after

confirming normality. 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

Conceptualization: L. C., A. G., and L. Z.; Methodology: L. C.; Validation: L. C., B. D., and Q. J.; Formal analysis: L. C., Y. W.; Investigation: L. C., B. D., P. C., Q. J., Y. W., and L. L.; Resources: A. G., L. Z., and Y. C.; Data curation: L. C., Q. J., Y. W., and L. L.; Writing - original draft: L. C., L. Z., and A. G.; Writing - review & editing: L. C., L. Z., and A. G.; Visualization: L. C., Q. J., Y. C., C. H., L. Z., and A. G.; Supervision: A. G., L. Z., Y. C., and C. H.; Project administration: A. G., L. Z., Y. C., and C. H.; Funding acquisition: A. G., L. Z., and Y. C.

DISCLOSURE AND COMPETING INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no competing interests.

REFERENCES

Bates TA, Trank-Greene M, Nguyenla X, Anastas A, Gurmessa SK, Merutka IR, Dixon SD, Shumate A, Groncki AR, Parson MAH (2024) **ESAT-6 undergoes self-association at phagosomal pH and an ESAT-6-specific nanobody restricts *M. tuberculosis* growth in macrophages** *Elife* **12**:RP91930.

Bendtsen JD, Kiemer L, Fausbøll A, Brunak S (2005) **Non-classical protein secretion in**

bacteria *BMC Microbiol* **5**:58.

Bhattacharya A, Fushimi A, Wang K, Yamashita N, Morimoto Y, Ishikawa S, Daimon T, Liu T,

Liu S, Long MD (2023) **MUC1-C intersects chronic inflammation with epigenetic**

reprogramming by regulating the set1a compass complex in cancer progression

Commun Biol **6**:1030.

Bierne H, Cossart P (2012) **When bacteria target the nucleus: the emerging family of**

nucleomodulins *Cell Microbiol* **14**:622-633.

Bierne H, Pourpre R (2020) **Bacterial factors targeting the nucleus: the growing family of**

nucleomodulins *Toxins* (Basel) **12**:220.

Chai Q, Wang L, Liu CH, Ge B (2020) **New insights into the evasion of host innate**

immunity by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* *Cell Mol Immunol* **17**:901-913.

Chai Q, Yu S, Zhong Y, Lu Z, Qiu C, Yu Y, Zhang X, Zhang Y, Lei Z, Qiang L (2022) **A bacterial**

phospholipid phosphatase inhibits host pyroptosis by hijacking ubiquitin *Science*

378:eabq0132.

Chambers KA, Scheck RA (2020) **Bacterial virulence mediated by orthogonal post-**

translational modification *Nat Chem Biol* **16**:1043-1051.

Chandra P, Grigsby SJ, Philips JA (2022) **Immune evasion and provocation by**

Mycobacterium tuberculosis *Nat Rev Microbiol* **20**:750-766.

Chauhan A, Quenum FZ, Abbas A, Bradley DS, Nechaev S, Singh BB, Sharma J, Mishra BB

(2015) **Epigenetic modulation of microglial inflammatory gene loci in helminth-induced**

immune suppression: implications for immune regulation in neurocysticercosis *ASN*

Neuro **7**:1759091415592126.

Chen L, Li X, Xu P, He ZG (2022) **A Novel Zinc Exporter CtpG Enhances Resistance to**

Zinc Toxicity and Survival in *Mycobacterium bovis* *Microbiol Spectr* **10**:e0145621.

Deng K, Liang L, Yang Y, Wu Y, Li Y, Zhang R, Tian Y, Lu C (2024) **The Wdr5-H3K4me3**

epigenetic axis regulates pancreatic tumor immunogenicity and immune suppression

Int J Mol Sci **25**:8773.

Denzer L, Schroten H, Schwerk C (2020) **From gene to protein-how bacterial virulence**

factors manipulate host gene expression during infection *Int J Mol Sci* **21**:3730.

Evans SM, Rodino KG, Adcox HE, Carlyon JA (2018) *Orientia tsutsugamushi* **uses two Ank**

effectors to modulate NF-κB p65 nuclear transport and inhibit NF-κB transcriptional

activation *PLoS Pathog* **14**:e1007023.

Fol M, Włodarczyk M, Druszczyńska M (2020) **Host epigenetics in intracellular pathogen**

infections *Int J Mol Sci* **21**:4573.

Fu M, Liang S, Wu J, Hua Y, Chen H, Zhang Z, Liu J, Li X, Zhang B, Zhao W, Wan C (2021)

An *Escherichia coli* **effector protein EspF may induce host DNA damage via interaction**

with SMC1 *Front Microbiol* **12**:682064.

Gómez Borrego J, Torrent Burgas M (2024) **Structural assembly of the bacterial essential**

interactome *Elife* **13**:e94919.

Guarnaccia AD, Rose KL, Wang J, Zhao B, Popay TM, Wang CE, Guerrazzi K, Hill S, Woodley

CM, Hansen TJ (2021) **Impact of WIN site inhibitor on the WDR5 interactome** *Cell Rep*

34:108636.

Hammond DE, Kumar JD, Raymond L, Simpson DM, Beynon RJ, Dockray GJ, Varro A (2018)

Stable isotope dynamic labeling of secretomes (SIDLS) identifies authentic secretory

proteins released by cancer and stromal cells *Mol Cell Proteomics* **17**:1837-1849.

Hanford HE, Von Dwingelo J, Abu Kwaik Y (2021) **Bacterial nucleomodulins: a**

coevolutionary adaptation to the eukaryotic command center *PLoS Pathog* **17**:e1009184.

Hsu PL, Li H, Lau HT, Leonen C, Dhall A, Ong SE, Chatterjee C, Zheng N (2018) **Crystal**

structure of the COMPASS H3K4 methyltransferase catalytic module *Cell* **174**:1106-

1116.e9.

Hyun K, Jeon J, Park K, Kim J (2017) **Writing, erasing and reading histone lysine**

methylations *Exp Mol Med* **49**:e324.

Jose L, Ramachandran R, Bhagavat R, Gomez RL, Chandran A, Raghunandanan S,

Omkumar RV, Chandra N, Mundayoor S, Kumar RA (2016) **Hypothetical protein Rv3423.1**

of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* is a histone acetyltransferase *FEBS J* **283**:265-281.

Khan AA, Khan Z (2021) **Bacterial nucleomodulins and cancer: an unresolved enigma**

Transl Oncol **14**:100922.

Lebreton A, Job V, Ragon M, Le Monnier A, Dessen A, Cossart P, Bierne H (2014) **Structural**

basis for the inhibition of the chromatin repressor BAHD1 by the bacterial

nucleomodulin LntA *mBio* **5**:e00775-13.

Park SH, Ayoub A, Lee YT, Xu J, Kim H, Zheng W, Zhang B, Sha L, An S, Zhang Y, Cianfrocco

MA, Su M, Dou Y, Cho US (2019) **Cryo-EM structure of the human MLL1 core complex**

bound to the nucleosome *Nat Commun* **10**:5540.

Penn BH, Netter Z, Johnson JR, Von Dollen J, Jang GM, Johnson T, Ohol YM, Maher C, Bell

SL, Geiger K (2018) **An Mtb-human protein-protein interaction map identifies a switch**

between host antiviral and antibacterial responses *Mol Cell* **71**:637-648.e5.

Pisu D, Huang L, Grenier JK, Russell DG (2020) **Dual RNA-Seq of Mtb-Infected**

Macrophages In Vivo Reveals Ontologically Distinct Host-Pathogen Interactions *Cell*

Rep **30**:335-350.e4.

Pourpre R, Lakisic G, Desgranges E, Cossart P, Pagliuso A, Bierne H (2022) **A bacterial**

virulence factor interacts with the splicing factor RBM5 and stimulates formation of

nuclear RBM5 granules *Sci Rep* **12**:21961.

Prokop A, Gouin E, Villiers V, Nahori MA, Vincentelli R, Duval M, Cossart P, Dussurget O (2017)

OrfX, a nucleomodulin required for *Listeria monocytogenes* virulence *mBio* **8**:e01550-

17.

Qiang L, Zhang Y, Lei Z, Lu Z, Tan S, Ge P, Chai Q, Zhao M, Zhang X, Li B (2023) **A**

mycobacterial effector promotes ferroptosis-dependent pathogenicity and

dissemination *Nat Commun* **14**:1430.

Qu Q, Takahashi YH, Yang Y, Hu H, Zhang Y, Brunzelle JS, Couture JF, Shilatifard A, Skiniotis

G (2018) **Structure and Conformational Dynamics of a COMPASS Histone H3K4 Methyltransferase Complex** *Cell* **174**:1117-1126.e12.

Radoshevich L, Cossart P (2018) *Listeria monocytogenes*: **towards a complete picture of its physiology and pathogenesis** *Nat Rev Microbiol* **16**:32-46.

Rennoll-Bankert KE, Garcia-Garcia JC, Sinclair SH, Dumler JS (2015) **Chromatin-bound bacterial effector ankyrin A recruits histone deacetylase 1 and modifies host gene expression** *Cell Microbiol* **17**:1640-1652.

Rolando M, Sanulli S, Rusniok C, Gomez-Valero L, Bertholet C, Sahr T, Margueron R, Buchrieser C (2013) *Legionella pneumophila* **effector RomA uniquely modifies host chromatin to repress gene expression and promote intracellular bacterial replication** *Cell Host Microbe* **13**:395-405.

Rolando M, Wah Chung IY, Xu C, Gomez-Valero L, England P, Cygler M, Buchrieser C (2023) **The SET and ankyrin domains of the secreted *Legionella pneumophila* histone methyltransferase work together to modify host chromatin** *mBio* **14**:e0165523.

Schator D, Mondino S, Berthelet J, Di Silvestre C, Ben Assaya M, Rusniok C, Rodrigues-Lima F, Wehenkel A, Buchrieser C, Rolando M (2023) **Legionella para-effectors target chromatin and promote bacterial replication** *Nat Commun* **14**:2154.

Sharma G, Upadhyay S, Srilalitha M, Nandicoori VK, Khosla S (2015) **The interaction of mycobacterial protein Rv2966c with host chromatin is mediated through non-CpG methylation and histone H3/H4 binding** *Nucleic Acids Res* **43**:3922-3937.

Singh PR, Dadireddy V, Udupa S, Kalladi SM, Shee S, Khosla S, Rajmani RS, Singh A,

Ramakumar S, Nagaraja V (2023) **The *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* methyltransferase**

Rv2067c manipulates host epigenetic programming to promote its own survival *Nat*

Commun **14**:8497.

Sun H, Kamanova J, Lara-Tejero M, Galán JE (2016) **A Family of Salmonella Type III**

Secretion Effector Proteins Selectively Targets the NF-κB Signaling Pathway to

Preserve Host Homeostasis *PLoS Pathog* **12**:e1005484.

Wang H, Fan Z, Shliaha PV, Miele M, Hendrickson RC, Jiang X, Helin K (2023) **H3K4me3**

regulates RNA polymerase II promoter-proximal pause-release *Nature* **615**:339-348.

Wang H, Helin K (2025) **Roles of H3K4 methylation in biology and disease** *Trends Cell*

Biol **35**:115-128.

Wang J, Ge P, Qiang L, Tian F, Zhao D, Chai Q, Zhu M, Zhou R, Meng G, Iwakura Y (2017)

The mycobacterial phosphatase PtpA regulates the expression of host genes and

promotes cell proliferation *Nat Commun* **8**:244.

Wysocka J, Swigut T, Milne TA, Dou Y, Zhang X, Burlingame AL, Roeder RG, Brivanlou AH,

Allis CD (2005) **WDR5 associates with histone H3 methylated at K4 and is essential for**

H3 K4 methylation and vertebrate development *Cell* **121**:859-72.

Xue H, Yao T, Cao M, Zhu G, Li Y, Yuan G, Chen Y, Lei M, Huang J (2019) **Structural basis**

of nucleosome recognition and modification by MLL methyltransferases *Nature*

573:445-449.

Yang D, He X, Li S, Liu J, Stabenow J, Zalduondo L, White S, Kong Y (2019) **Rv1075c of**

Mycobacterium tuberculosis **is a GDSL-Like esterase and is important for intracellular**

survival *J Infect Dis* **220**:677-686.

Yaseen I, Kaur P, Nandicoori VK, Khosla S (2015) **Mycobacteria modulate host epigenetic**

machinery by Rv1988 methylation of a non-tail arginine of histone H3 *Nat Commun*

6:8922.

Yu H, Lesch BJ (2024) **Functional roles of H3K4 methylation in transcriptional regulation**

Mol Cell Biol **44**:505-515.

Yu L, Fang F, Dai X, Xu H, Qi X, Fang M, Xu Y (2017) **MKL1 defines the H3K4Me3 landscape**

for NF-κB dependent inflammatory response *Sci Rep* **7**:191.

Zhang L, Kent JE, Whitaker M, Young DC, Herrmann D, Aleshin AE, Ko YH, Cingolani G, Saad

JS, Moody DB, Marassi FM, Ehrt S, Niederweis M (2022) **A periplasmic cinched protein is**

required for siderophore secretion and virulence of Mycobacterium tuberculosis *Nat*

Commun **13**:2255.

Zhang YJ, Reddy MC, Ioerger TR, Rothchild AC, Dartois V, Schuster BM, Trauner A, Wallis D,

Galaviz S, Huttenhower C, Sacchettini JC, Behar SM, Rubin EJ (2013) **Tryptophan**

biosynthesis protects mycobacteria from CD4 T-cell-mediated killing *Cell* **155**:1296-308.

Zhao J, Liu Y, Lin F, Wang W, Yang S, Ge Y, Chen PR (2019) **Bioorthogonal engineering of**

bacterial effectors for spatial-temporal modulation of cell signaling *ACS Cent Sci* **5**:145-

152.

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 (NLSs) 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. tuberculosis* CDC1551 (Mtc), *M. tuberculosis* GM041182 (Tbm), *M. shinjukuense* (Msh), *M. marinum* (Mma), *M. lupini* (Mli), *M. avium* (Mav), *M. manitobense* (Mman), *M. intracellulare* (Min). (**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 (v5.0). 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$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$) 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$^{ΔNLS1-2}$). 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 are

presented as mean ±SD of three biologically independent experiments, analyzed using 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 D[224] and H[247] 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 $D^{224}A/H^{247}A$ 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 $D^{224}A/H^{247}A$

mutant MgdE were analyzed for changes in H3K4me3 levels over 0–24 h post-transfection.

Histone H3 was used as a loading control. The data represent three independent biological

replicates.

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 $|\log_2\text{-fold change}| \geq 1$ and $P < 0.05$ were

considered significant. The x-axis represents $\log_2$fold change, and the y-axis shows $-\log_{10}(P\text{-}$

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 are presented as mean ± SD of three biologically independent experiments, analyzed

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

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 1.0×10^7 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$^{\Delta NLS1\text{-}2}$). Lung

bacterial loads were quantified using CFU assays at 0, 14, 21, 28, and 56 d post-infection. (**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 was determined by a two-tailed

unpaired Student's *t*-test (*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$). (**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 nuclear localization signal (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. Endogenous 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. Data are presented as mean ± SD (n = 3). (**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**).

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.

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

955 **Supplementary Figure 4. MgdE interacts with COMPASS complex subunits.**

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

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

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

959 0.47), RbBP5 (pLDDT = 0.30), WDR5 (pLDDT = 0.77), and DPY30 (pLDDT = 0.62).

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

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

962 < 0.5 (weak predicted binding). (**B**) Structural modeling of MgdE-COMPASS interactions.

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

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

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

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

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

968 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 was

determined using a two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test ($P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, and ***$P < 0.001$).

992