Mycobacterial Metallophosphatase MmpE acts as a Nucleomodulin to Regulate Host Gene Expression and Promote Intracellular Survival

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Abstract

Mycobacterium tuberculosis, the causative agent of tuberculosis, remains a major global health challenge. Nucleomodulins, bacterial effectors that target the host cell nuclei, are increasingly recognized as key virulence factors, but their roles in mycobacterial pathogenesis remain incompletely elucidated. Here, we characterize a hypothetical protein Rv2577 (designated MmpE) not only as a Fe^{3+}/Zn^{2+}-dependent metallophosphatase but also as a critical nucleomodulin involved in immune evasion and intracellular persistence. MmpE utilizes two nuclear localization signals, RRR^{20-22} and $RRK^{460-462}$, to enter the host cell nucleus, where it binds to the promoter region of the vitamin D receptor (VDR) gene, thereby inhibiting host inflammatory gene expression. Additionally, MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway, thereby arresting lysosome maturation. These actions collectively facilitate immune suppression and promote mycobacterial survival in macrophages and in mice. Our findings identify MmpE as a conserved nucleomodulin in mycobacteria and reveal a novel mechanism of MmpE-mediated intracellular survival.

Keywords Mycobacterium; Nucleomodulin; Metallophosphatase; Immune evasion; Intracellular survival.

Introduction

Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb), the etiological agent of tuberculosis, has posed a persistent global health burden for centuries. Despite significant advances in elucidating the molecular mechanisms of its pathogenesis, current research has largely focused on effector proteins that modulate host cell membrane and cytoplasmic processes (Nisa *et al.,* 2022; Nasiri and Venketaraman, 2025). In contrast, investigations into effector proteins that target the host cell nucleus, the central hub for gene regulation and cellular control, remain comparatively limited.

Nucleomodulins are a class of bacterial effector proteins that can translocate into the host nucleus, where they modulate nuclear processes to promote pathogen survival (Chai *et al.,* 2020; Bierne and Cossart, 2021). These proteins affect host gene

expression by directly interacting with chromatin or by mimicking transcription factors,

chromatin modifiers, or other nuclear regulators (Li *et al.,* 2013; Rolando *et al.,* 2013；

Mitra *et al.,* 2018; Hanford *et al.,* 2021). For instance, LntA from *Listeria*

monocytogenes directly binds the chromatin repressor BAHD1, disrupting its function

and derepressing interferon-stimulated genes in a type III interferon-dependent

manner, ultimately promoting bacterial persistence (Lebreton *et al.,* 2011; Lebreton *et*

al., 2014). Similarly, Ank1 and Ank6 from *Orientia tsutsugamushi* localize to the host

nucleus and facilitate the export of the NF-κB p65 subunit via exportin 1, thereby

suppressing the transcription of pro-inflammatory genes (Evans *et al.,* 2018; Steiert

and Weber, 2025). Although bacterial nucleomodulins utilize diverse strategies to

manipulate host nuclear functions, the identity and functional characterization of *M.*

tuberculosis nucleomodulins remain poorly defined.

Nucleomodulins employ various strategies to enter access to the host cell nucleus,

including passive diffusion, hijacking host proteins that contain nuclear localization

signals (NLSs), or using of their own NLSs to interact with the nuclear pore complex

(Hanford *et al.,* 2021). Among these mechanisms, NLSs play a particularly important

role. Classical NLSs are further divided into monopartite (MP) and bipartite (BP) forms.

Monopartite NLSs consist of a single cluster of 4-8 basic residues, primarily lysine (K)

or arginine (R), with a typical consensus motif of K-K/R-X-K/R (Fontes *et al.,* 2000;

Kosugi *et al.,* 2009; Cautain *et al.,* 2015). Nuclear localization enables these effectors

to manipulate host gene expression, disrupt immune signaling, and reprogram cellular

processes to promote pathogen survival. For example, EspF from enteropathogenic

Escherichia coli contains an N-terminal NLS that directs it to the nucleolus, where it

interferes with ribosome biogenesis (Dean *et al.,* 2010; Singh *et al.,* 2018). NUE, a

SET domain-containing nucleomodulin secreted by *Chlamydia trachomatis*, also

possesses an NLS that mediates its nuclear localization, where it functions as a

histone lysine methyltransferase (HKMTase) targeting host histones H2B, H3, and H4

(Pennini *et al.,* 2010; Jermy, 2010).

Beyond their nuclear localization capabilities, some nucleomodulins directly affect host

immunity through intrinsic enzymatic activities (Agarwal *et al.,* 2012). For example, the nucleomodulin PtpA promotes Mtb survival within macrophages by dephosphorylating host cytoplasmic proteins (Wang *et al.,* 2017). NleC from *E. coli*, a Zn^{2+}-dependent metalloprotease, suppresses host immune responses by cleaving the p65 subunit of NF-κB in the cytoplasm, thereby inhibiting its nuclear translocation, and can enter the nucleus to reduce nuclear p65 levels, blocking NF-κB-dependent transcription of pro-inflammatory genes (Baruch *et al.,* 2011; Hodgson *et al.,* 2015). Among these enzymatically active nucleomodulins, purple acid phosphatases (PAPs) represent a distinct and functionally significant, yet underexplored, subclass within the metallophosphatase superfamily. PAPs are characterized by a conserved β-α-β-α-β fold and five signature motifs (DxG, GDXXY, GNH[D/E], VXXH, GHXH), which coordinate seven metal-ligating residues at a binuclear metal center (Rodriguez *et al.,* 2014; Bhadouria *et al.,* 2017; Bhadouria and Giri, 2022). These enzymes have been extensively studied in plants and mammals, where they are involved in key biological processes such as phosphorus metabolism and the generation of reactive oxygen species (Comba *et al.,* 2013; Feder *et al.,* 2020; Liu *et al.,* 2025). However, only a few bacterial PAPs have been identified, such as BcPAP from *Burkholderia cenocepacia*, and their functions remain largely unknown (Yeung *et al.,* 2009). Notably, in Mtb, MmpE is the only identified PAP protein (Schenk *et al.,* 2000), but its specific contribution to infection and pathogenesis remain elusive.

In this study, we characterized MmpE as a conserved nucleomodulin in mycobacteria and demonstrated its nuclear translocation mediated by two functional motifs. Nuclear-localized MmpE regulates host immune responses by repressing the vitamin D receptor (VDR), a key regulator of antimicrobial gene expression, and disrupting lysosome maturation through suppression of the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway. Additionally, MmpE exhibits Fe^{3+}-dependent metallophosphatase activity, contributing to intracellular survival. These findings establish MmpE as a bifunctional effector that integrates immune modulation and enzymatic catalysis, underscoring its role in mycobacterial pathogenesis and potential as a therapeutic target.

Results

NLSs are required for the nuclear translocation of MmpE

In a prior study, we screened conserved nucleomodulins in Mtb and found that

hypothetical protein Rv2577 (MmpE) exhibits strong nuclear localization in HEK293T

cells (Chen *et al.,* 2025). Furthermore, we observed a time-dependent increase in

nuclear MmpE-EGFP levels in HEK293T cells (Figure 1A, Figure S1A). Nuclear-

cytoplasmic fractionation assays further confirmed these results, showing a

progressive enrichment of MmpE in the nucleus during the course of transfection

(Figure 1B), suggesting that MmpE might possess a nuclear translocation ability.

MmpE contains two putative nucleus localization signals, NLS1 (RRR^{20-22}) and

NLS2 ($RRK^{460-462}$) which are located in the loop regions of the MmpE structure

predicted by AlphaFold (Figure 1C). Deleting either the individual NLSs or both

simultaneously does not lead to a conformational change in the core structure (Figure

S1B). To assess the effects of NLSs on nuclear localization, we constructed NLS-

deleted mutants, including MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ and transfected

them into HEK293T cells. Fluorescence microscopy at 36 hours post-transfection (hpt)

revealed that deletion of either NLS significantly reduced nuclear accumulation of

MmpE-EGFP, while simultaneous deletion of both NLS motifs (MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$)

completely abolished nuclear localization, resulting in exclusive cytoplasmic

distribution (Figure 1D and E). Consistent with the microscopy results, nuclear-

cytoplasmic fractionation showed that WT MmpE was present in detected both

cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions, whereas MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$ and MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$ exhibited

substantially reduced nuclear levels. Notably, the double mutant MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ was

completely undetectable in the nucleus (Figure 1F and G), suggesting that both NLS

motifs are necessary for nuclear import.

To further detect whether MmpE translocates into the host nucleus during

mycobacterial infection, we conducted recombinant *M. bovis* BCG strains expressing

C-terminally Flag-tagged WT MmpE or the NLS deletion mutants including MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$,

MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$ and MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$. Immunoblot analysis of culture filtrates showed that both MmpE-Flag and the secreted antigen Ag85B were detectable in the supernatant of wild-type strains, whereas secretion of MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$ or MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ was barely detectable. These observations indicate that MmpE is secreted by BCG and that NLS1 is essential for its efficient export (Figure S1C). Following infection of THP-1 macrophages, nuclear-cytoplasmic fractionation revealed that wild-type MmpE localized to both cytoplasmic and nuclear compartments, while MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$ or MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ were almost undetectable in nuclear fractions (Figure S1D). These findings indicate that nuclear localization of MmpE depends on two distinct NLS motifs, with NLS2 being essential for effective nuclear translocation.

Deletion of NLSs does not alter the phosphatase activity of MmpE

MmpE is a putative a Fe^{3+}/Zn^{2+}-metallophosphatase with a purple acid phosphatase (PAP) motif (Figure 2A; Figure S2A). Multiple sequence alignment and phylogenetic reconstruction revealed that MmpE is highly conserved across mycobacterial species and harbors canonical characteristics of metallophosphatases with GD, GNHX, and GHXH motifs (Figure 2B, Figure S2B). These motifs are typically associated with enzymes that catalyze phosphate hydrolysis via a binuclear metal ion-dependent mechanism, wherein residues such as Asp, His, and Asn coordinate essential metal cofactors, commonly Fe^{3+}, Mn^{2+}, or Zn^{2+}, at the active site. To test this, recombinant MBP-tagged MmpE without the Tat signal peptide (MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$) was purified and subjected to *in vitro* phosphatase assays using *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate (*p*-NPP) as the substrate. Different concentrations of Fe^{3+} or Zn^{2+} were added to the reactions to detect their effects on the enzyme activity of MmpE. At the same ion concentrations, Fe^{3+} is more effective than Zn^{2+} in stimulating MmpE hydrolysis of *p*-NPP. The maximal enzymatic activity was observed at 50 µM Fe^{3+} (Figure 2C). To identify the key residues of MmpE involved in metal coordination, molecular docking experiment was performed using PyMOL on the structure of MmpE predicted by AlphaFold. His348 and Asn359 are supposed to be involved in metal ion coordination within the active site (Figure 2D). Then, the double mutant MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$-H348A/N359A was conducted to verify the

essential residues for enzyme activity. As shown in Figure 2E, the addition of 50 μM

Fe^{3+} significantly increased the *in vitro* phosphatase activity of MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$ compared to

reactions without metal ions. However, the enzymatic activity of the MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$-

H348A/N359A was significantly reduced under the same conditions, indicating that the

residues His348 and ASN359 are essential for metal binding and catalytic activity.

Additionally, we found that deletion of the NLSs does not affect the phosphatase

activity of MmpE (Figure 2F), consistent with the observation on comparison of the

structures (Figure S1B). Collectively, these results indicates that MmpE is a highly

conserved Fe^{3+}-dependent metallophosphatase in mycobacteria, and its enzymatic

activity is independent of the NLSs.

The nuclear translocation and phosphatase activity of MmpE are essential for *M.*

***bovis* BCG survival in macrophage cells**

To examine whether MmpE is important for bacterial intracellular survival, we

constructed *mmpE*-deletion mutant (ΔMmpE) in BCG strain by homologous

recombination (Figure S3A-C). The ΔMmpE mutant and the ΔMmpE strains

complemented with WT *mmpE* (Comp-MmpE) or NLS-deleted *mmpE* (Comp-

MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$) exhibited similar growth rate

in the standard 7H9 media (Figure S3D). During infection of THP-1 macrophages, the

ΔMmpE strain exhibited a significantly reduced intracellular bacterial burden and

accelerated clearance compared to the WT strain, while this phenotype was restored

by complementation with wild-type MmpE. Importantly, the load of the Comp-

MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$ displayed significantly lower compared to Comp-MmpE in THP-1 cells

(Figure 3A). A comparable phenotype was also observed in RAW264.7 macrophages

(Figure 3B). These findings indicate that NLS2-mediated nuclear localization is critical

for the intracellular function of MmpE. Furthermore, the Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$ and Comp-

MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains showed partial restoration of bacterial load compared to the

ΔMmpE strain, but remained lower than those of the Comp-MmpE strain (Figure 3C

and D). These results demonstrate that both NLSs are critical for MmpE-mediated

bacterial survival within macrophages. Given that MmpE functions as a Fe^{3+}-

dependent metallophosphatase in mycobacteria, we examined whether its enzymatic activity contributes to intracellular persistence and constructed a phosphatase-deficient double mutant strain (Comp-MmpE-H348A/N359A) (Figure S3E) to infect THP-1 macrophage. The result showed that a significantly reduced intracellular bacterial burden compared to Comp-MmpE, indicating that the phosphatase activity also plays an important role in MmpE-mediated bacterial survival (Figure 3E). To further investigate the underlying mechanism, we analyzed cytokine expression in infected macrophages. Cells infected with the ΔMmpE and Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains exhibited significantly increased levels of pro-inflammatory cytokine, including *IL1A*, *IL1B*, and *IL6*, compared to the WT and Comp-MmpE strains. Furthermore, in comparison to the Comp-MmpE strains, cells infected with the Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and Comp-MmpEH348A/N359A strains also demonstrated substantial upregulation of these cytokines (Figure 3F-H). Collectively, these results suggest that both nuclear localization and phosphatase activity are essential for the immunomodulatory function of MmpE, which facilitates bacterial survival by suppressing host inflammatory responses.

MmpE regulates host transcription network involved in inflammation response and lysosomal maturation

To investigated the effect of MmpE on host gene expression, we performed RNA-seq experiments on THP-1 macrophages infected with WT or ΔMmpE at 24 hpi. A total of 175 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were identified, with 142 upregulated and 33 downregulated in ΔMmpE-infected cells compared to WT-infected cells (Figure 4A, Table S2). Gene ontology (GO) analysis revealed significant enrichment in immune-related biological processes, including apoptosis and cell death, molecular functions associated with immune activation and cellular stress responses such as pyrophosphatase activity and nucleoside-triphosphatase activity (Figure 4B). KEGG pathway enrichment analysis showed that these DEGs were primarily involved in immune and inflammatory signaling pathways, including cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction, TNF, Toll-like receptor, chemokine, NF-κB, JAK-STAT, and PI3K-Akt

signaling pathways. Additionally, a subset of DEGs was involved in lysosome-associated host pathways, consistent with previous findings that MmpE inhibits lysosomal maturation (Forrellad *et al.*, 2020) (Figure 4C). To further explore the functional relevance of the DEGs, we performed protein-protein interaction (PPI) network analysis focusing on protein-coding genes, which accounted for 38% of the total DEGs (Figure S4C). The results suggested that some core proteins including IL23A, IL12B, CSF2, CD69, IDO1, and CEACAM1, are mainly related to the production of inflammatory cytokine and immune regulation (Figure 4D). Consistently, these genes showed increased expression in ΔMmpE-infected macrophages compared to those infected with wild-type BCG (Figure 4E). These results suggest that MmpE suppresses immune and lysosome-associated gene expression during infection.

Further, we performed qRT-PCR to confirm the expression of key lysosomal maturation markers, including *TFEB, LAMP1, LAMP2*, and several V-ATPase subunit genes (*ATP6V0A1, ATP6V0C, ATP6V1A, ATP6V1B2,* and *ATP6V1E1*), as well as inflammatory cytokine. The expression levels of these genes were significantly higher in ΔMmpE-infected macrophages compared to those infected with WT (Figure 4F and G). Moreover, infection with the Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1\text{-}2}$ strain resulted in significantly increased gene expression compared to the Comp-MmpE strain (Figure S4B-D). Taken together, these results suggest that MmpE suppresses host immune and lysosomal responses to facilitate immune evasion during infection.

MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway during macrophage infection

Given that MmpE modulates host transcriptional responses and functions as a nucleomodulin, we investigated whether it associates with host chromatin to regulate gene expression. Cleavage under targets and tagmentation (CUT&Tag) was performed in HEK293T cells transfected with MmpE-EGFP. A total of 2,903 putative MmpE-binding sites were identified (Table S3), of which 18.49% (n = 537) were located in intergenic regions and 39.44% (n = 1,145) in intragenic regions (Figure 5A). Chromosomal mapping revealed preferential enrichment on chromosomes 1 and 2

(Figure 5B). Notably, 99.7% (n = 2,894) of these binding sites were associated with

protein-coding genes, and 1,013 of them were located within 3 kb upstream of

transcription start sites (TSSs), including 63.18% within 1 kb, 22.9% between 1-2 kb,

and 13.92% between 2-3 kb (Figure 5C and D), suggesting that MmpE primarily targets

promoter regions to modulate transcription. PPI analysis of the 1,013 putative target

genes revealed significant enrichment in immune-related kinases genes, including

PRKCB, *PLCG2* and *PIK3CB*, which are key regulators of inflammatory signaling and

blockes lysosomal maturation via the PI3K-AKT-mTOR pathway (Tian *et al*., 2020;

Zheng et al., 2025) (Figure S5A and B). These findings are consistent with

transcriptomic analysis (Figure 4C) and support the hypothesis that MmpE modulates

host immune responses, potentially through the PI3K-AKT signaling axis. To validate

this hypothesis, we examined activation of the PI3K-AKT-mTOR pathway in THP-1

macrophages infected with either WT or ΔMmpE strains. Immunoblot analysis

demonstrated a time-dependent increase in the phosphorylation of AKT (Ser473),

mTOR (Ser2448), and p70S6K (Thr389) following WT infection, whereas

phosphorylation of these targets was attenuated in cells infected with the ΔMmpE

mutant (Figure S5C). To investigate the roles of nuclear localization and phosphatase

activity in MmpE-mediated signaling, THP-1 macrophages were infected with WT,

ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$, or

Comp-MmpE-H348A/N359A. Cells infected with WT or Comp-MmpE exhibited

increased phosphorylation of Akt, mTOR, and p70S6K compared to those infected with

ΔMmpE and Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ (Figure 5E and F). These results further indicate that

nuclear localization is the key determinant of MmpE-mediated activation of the PI3K-

AKT-mTOR pathway during mycobacterial infection.

As PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling is known to inhibits phagolysosomal fusion (Yang *et*

al., 2020), and MmpE downregulates lysosomal genes (Figure 4G), we hypothesized

that MmpE may impair lysosomal maturation. To test this, we examined lysosomal

maturation in THP-1 macrophages infected with WT and mutant BCG strains by

confocal microscopy, using LysoTracker staining to assess lysosomal acidification. We

observed that ΔMmpE and MmpE^NLS1-2 mutants exhibited significantly higher co-
localization with LysoTracker compared to WT and Comp-MmpE strains at 24 hpi
(Figure 5G), indicating that MmpE suppresses lysosomal maturation during infection.
To determine whether this effect is mediated through the PI3K-AKT-mTOR pathway,
THP-1 macrophages were treated with the dual PI3K/mTOR inhibitor BEZ235 at
concentrations ranging from 0 to 200 nM (Hsu *et al.*, 2018). Growth assays confirmed
that BEZ235 had no effect on the viability of BCG strains over 8 days (Figure S6A).
However, under normal conditions, the ΔMmpE mutant exhibited approximately a 3-
fold reduction in intracellular survival compared to the wild-type strain. Upon BEZ235
treatment, this difference in bacterial load was substantially diminished (Figure S6B),
suggesting that PI3K-AKT-mTOR signaling contributes to MmpE-mediated immune
evasion. We further examined the intracellular survival of WT MmpE, NLS-deleted
mutant and phosphatase-inactive strains in THP-1 macrophages treated with 100 nM
BEZ235. Under untreated conditions, NLS-deficient and phosphatase-inactive strains
exhibited approximately a 2-fold reduction in intracellular survival compared to the WT
and complemented MmpE strains. This difference was abolished upon BEZ235
treatment (Figure S6C), further supporting the notion that activation of the PI3K-AKT-
mTOR pathway is essential for MmpE-mediated subversion of host antimicrobial
responses during mycobacterial infection.

MmpE suppresses the expression of *VDR* during BCG infection

Given the role of MmpE in modulating host signaling pathways, we next investigated
whether it directly targets specific host genes during macrophage infection. Focusing
on promoter regions (≤1 kb upstream of the transcription start site) of significantly
upregulated genes ($|Log_2FC > 1|$ and $P < 0.05$), we identified four candidate
transcription factors, including *CREBBP*, *VDR*, *GREB1*, and *FOXP4* (Figure 6A).
HOMER *de novo* motif analysis revealed a putative MmpE-binding motif specifically
with the promoter of *VDR*, a key anti-inflammatory gene (Aggeletopoulou *et al.,* 2022)
(Figure 6B). We next examined *VDR* expression in THP-1 macrophages infected with
recombinant strains. Compared to the WT, *VDR* expression was significantly

downregulated in cells infected with the ΔMmpE mutant (Figure 6C), suggesting that MmpE suppresses *VDR* transcription. Furthermore, we cloned the *VDR* promoter region (−100 bp to +50 bp) and conducted chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays in HEK293T cells. While both *VDR* and *GAPDH* sequences were detected in input controls, *VDR* promoter DNA was selectively detected in ChIP samples from MmpE-EGFP transfected cells (Figure 6D and E). In addition, the DNA-binding capacity of MmpE was unaffected by its phosphatase activity (Figure 7F and G). Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) further confirmed the interaction, demonstrating a shifted band corresponding to the MmpE-VDR promoter complex and a dose-dependent increase in complex formation (Figure 7H and I). Collectively, these results suggest that MmpE binds the VDR promoter to modulate its transcription.

To further characterize the MmpE-regulated transcriptional network, we integrated CUT&Tag and RNA-seq data to identify 298 related genes (Table S4; Figure S7A and B). GO enrichment analysis revealed that these genes were significantly enriched in biological processes such as cell differentiation and regulation of small GTPase-mediated signal transduction, both of which are fundamental to immune cell function, trafficking, and inflammatory responses (Li *et al.,* 2023; Ma *et al.,* 2024) (Figure S7C and D). These findings further establish MmpE as a nucleomodulin that rewires host transcriptional programs involved in immune regulation and cellular defense.

Nuclear translocation of MmpE is critical for mycobacterial survival in mice

To investigate the role of MmpE as a nucleomodulin in vivo, C57BL/6 mice were infected with WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, and Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains. Compared with mice infected with WT or Comp-MmpE strains, mice infected with ΔMmpE or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains had significantly lower bacterial loads in their lungs (Figure 7A). Similar results were observed in splenic bacterial colonization (Figure S8A). Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of lung tissues from the mice infected with WT or Comp-MmpE strains showed extensive inflammatory infiltrates, while the lungs of the mice infected with ΔMmpE or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains exhibited markedly reduced inflammation (Figure 7B). In addition, compared with mice infected with WT

or Comp-MmpE strains, mice infected with ΔMmpE or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains

showed a significant increase in *Il1a*, *Il1b*, and *Il6* in the spleen (Figure 7C and E).

These results indicate that the nuclear translocation of MmpE is critical for

mycobacterial intracellular survival.

Since MmpE modulates host transcriptional responses in THP-1 macrophages,

we examined the expression of *Vdr*, inflammation-related, and lysosome-associated

genes in the lungs and spleens of mice at 14 and 28 days post infection (dpi). *Vdr*

expression was significantly reduced in both lungs and spleens infected with the

ΔMmpE or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains compared to those infected with WT or Comp-

MmpE strains (Figure S8B). Consistent with H&E observation, the expression of

inflammation-related genes (e.g., *Il23a*, *Csf2*, *Cd69*, *Ido1*, *Il12b,* and *Ceacam1*) were

markedly decreased in lungs infected with the ΔMmpE or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$, but

significantly elevated in spleens from the same groups (Figure S8C-D). Moreover, as

observed in vitro, lysosomal maturation-associated genes, such as *Tfeb*, *Lamp1*,

Lamp2, together with genes encoding V-ATPase subunits, were upregulated in both

lung and spleen tissues of the mice infected with ΔMmpE or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$

(Figure S8E-H). Taken together, our experiments demonstrate that MmpE promotes

mycobacterial survival in vivo through its nuclear translocation, likely by modulating

host immune responses and lysosomal maturation pathways.

Discussion

MmpE is a bifunctional virulence factor in Mtb

Previously, Forrellad *et al*. (2020) characterized Rv2577/MmpE of Mtb as an alkaline

phosphatase/phosphodiesterase that affects phagosome maturation arrest and

virulence of Mtb. While the enzymatic activity and virulence-related phenotype of

MmpE have been established, specific cofactor dependencies, catalytic residues, and

the mechanisms underlying host-pathogen interactions remain inadequately defined.

Here, our study shows that MmpE possesses Fe^{3+}-dependent phosphatase activity,

with H348 and N359 identified as critical catalytic residues (Figure 2C-E). Moreover,

deletion of these residues significantly impairs the survival of recombinant BCG strains

in THP-1 macrophages, indicating that its phosphatase activity is essential for

intracellular persistence (Figure 3E). Furthermore, our study identifies MmpE as a

novel nucleomodulin that translocates into the host nucleus primarily via its nuclear

localization signal (NLS; RRK$^{460\text{-}462}$) (Figure 1D-G, Figure S1D). Upon infection, MmpE

modulates a broad range of host immune signaling pathways, including cytokine-

cytokine receptor interactions, TNF, Toll-like receptor, chemokine, NF-κB, JAK-STAT,

and PI3K-Akt pathways. Specifically, MmpE enhances the phosphorylation levels of

AKT (Ser473), mTOR (Ser2448), and p70S6K (Thr389), modulating the PI3K-AKT-

mTOR signaling pathway and ultimately impairing lysosomal maturation to promote

intracellular survival of the pathogen (Figure 5E and G, Figure S5C, Figure S6B and

C). Additionally, it also regulates the expression of key transcription factors, such as

VDR, CREBBP, GREB1, and FOXP4 (Figure 6A). Notably, the deletion of the NLS

significantly impairs the functionality of MmpE, thereby reducing the survival of BCG

strains in both macrophages and murine models (Figure 3A-D, Figure 7A). Taken

together, these findings indicate that MmpE functions as a bifunctional virulence factor,

combining phosphatase activity with nuclear localization to modulate host responses

during infection.

Targeting host *VDR* gene might represent a unique immune evasion strategy by

Mtb.

Nucleomodulins are effector proteins secreted by bacterial pathogens that specifically

target the host cell nucleus, where they modulate nuclear processes to subvert host

responses (Hanford *er al*., 2021). Their mechanisms of action within the nucleus

typically involve indirect interference with host transcriptional programs, such as

through epigenetic modifications, chromatin remodeling, or inhibition of key signaling

pathways (Jose *et al.,* 2016; Singh *et al.,* 2023). Despite extensive characterization of

nucleomodulin functions, direct binding to host gene promoters remains rare and

mechanistically distinct. In this study, we found that MmpE directly binds to the

promoter of the *VDR* gene (Figure 6) and attenuates the expression of VDR-regulated

inflammatory genes (Zhou *et al*., 2020; Yang *et al*., 2019) (Figure 3F-H). VDR is a critical nuclear receptor that controls the expression of numerous genes involved in host immune defense, including antimicrobial peptides and cytokine (Usategui-Martín *et al.,* 2022). For example, Mtb suppresses the expression of the host gene *CYP27B1* to reduce active vitamin D synthesis, thereby limiting VDR activation and downstream antimicrobial responses (Liu *et al.,* 2006). Similarly, *Salmonella* downregulates *VDR* through miRNA-mediated mechanisms, weakening mucosal immunity (Chen *et al.,* 2014). This mechanism of MmpE regulating VDR expression reveals a novel strategy by bacterial pathogens to evade host defenses through direct manipulation of host gene promoters by nucleomodulins.

MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR pathway to inhibit lysosomal maturation and enhance pathogen survival.

Mtb employs multiple strategies to evade phagolysosomal degradation, a process essential for bacterial clearance (Chandra *et al.,* 2022; Zhang *et al.,* 2023; Singh and Nagaraja, 2025). For example, approximately 70% of phagosomes harboring Mtb fail to fuse with lysosomes, partly due to the activity of secreted phosphatases such as PtpA, PknG, and SapM, which disrupt vesicular trafficking (Wong *et al.,* 2011; Ge *et al.,* 2022; Zhang *et al.,* 2024; Alsayed and Gunosewoyo, 2024). MmpE has also been shown to contribute to the arrest of lysosomal maturation in human cells; however, the underlying mechanisms remain unclear (Forrellad *et al.,* 2020).

In this study, we elucidate a mechanism by which MmpE inhibits lysosomal maturation. The absence of MmpE during BCG infection resulted in substantial upregulation of lysosome-associated genes, including *TFEB*, a master regulator of lysosomal biogenesis and function, underscoring MmpE's role in lysosomal regulation (Jeong *et al*., 2021; Wang *et al*., 2024) (Figure 4G, Figure S4C). Moreover, the ΔMmpE and MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1\text{-}2}$ mutants exhibited significantly increased expression of lysosomal maturation-associated genes in both mice and infected THP-1 cells, along with enhanced LysoTracker co-localization in THP-1 cells, compared to WT and Comp-MmpE strains (Figure 4G, Figure 5G, Figure S8C-F). Collectively, these findings

indicate that MmpE inhibits lysosomal maturation during mycobacterial infection. Furthermore, CUT&Tag analysis revealed that MmpE binds to the promoter regions of host genes within the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway, including *PRKCB*, *PLCG2*, and *PIK3CB*, which are key upstream regulators of TFEB activity (Fang *et al.,* 2021; Gounis *et al.,* 2025) (Figure S5A). Additionally, during infection, WT strains exhibited significantly elevated phosphorylation of Akt, mTOR, and p70S6K compared to the ΔMmpE and the Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strain (Figure 5E-F, Figure S5C). When THP-1 macrophages were treated with the dual PI3K/mTOR inhibitor BEZ235, the survival difference between WT and MmpE mutants was significantly reduced (Figure S6B-C). These results collectively indicate that MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR-TFEB axis, thereby inhibiting lysosomal maturation and enhancing bacterial survival in the host.

In summary, our study identifies MmpE as a novel bifunctional virulence factor of mycobacteria, combining Fe^{3+}-dependent phosphatase activity with nuclear translocation capability. MmpE translocates into the host nucleus and directly binds to the promoters of some key host genes, such as *VDR*, thereby inhibiting the expression of the downstream targets implicated with the inflammation responses and lysosomal maturation, thereby promoting mycobacterial survival in macrophages and in mice (Figure 8). These findings reveal a sophisticated mechanism by which bacterial pathogen manipulates host gene transcription and signaling pathway to promote intracellular persistence.

Materials and methods

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

The bacterial strains used in this study are detailed in Table S6. *E. coli* DH5α and BL21 were cultured in Luria-Bertani (LB) medium under standard conditions. *M. bovis* BCG strains were grown in Middlebrook 7H9 broth supplemented with 10% (v/v) OADC (oleic acid, albumin, dextrose, catalase), 0.05% (v/v) Tween-80, and 2% (v/v) 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.*

433 _coli_).

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 24 h to allow complete
differentiation prior to experimental use.

HEK293T cells and RAW264.7 macrophages were cultured in Dulbecco's modified
Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS and 50 µg/mL penicillin-
streptomycin. All cells were maintained at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere with 5%
CO_2.

Animal experiments

446 Specific pathogen-free (SPF) female C57BL/6 mice (6-8 weeks old, 16-18 g) were
447 obtained from Chang-sheng Bio (Liaoning, China). All animals were maintained under
448 SPF conditions in individually ventilated cages with controlled temperature and
449 humidity, on a 12-hour light/dark cycle. Mice had ad libitum access to sterilized food
450 and water.

Phylogenetic and sequence analysis

Homologs of the metallophosphatase MmpE were identified from 11 _Mycobacterium_
species, including _M. tuberculosis_ (Mtu), _M. bovis_ BCG (Mbb), _M. orygis_ (Mory), _M._
kubicae (Mku), _M. paraterrae_ (Mpa), _M. farcinogenes_ (Mfg), _M. mucogenicum_ (Mmuc),
M. vicinigordonae (Mvg), _M. lentiflavum_ (Mlf), _M. avium_ (Mav), and _M. manitobense_
(Mman). Genomic sequences were retrieved from the NCBI RefSeq database and
filtered for completeness.

Protein sequences were aligned using Clustal Omega v1.2.4 with default parameters
(gap opening penalty = 10, gap extension = 0.2, and iterative refinement enabled).
Conserved residues (≥90% identity) were visualized using ESPript 3.0. Phylogenetic

reconstruction was performed in MEGA v12.0 using the neighbor-joining algorithm with
pairwise deletion for gap treatment and a Poisson substitution model, appropriate for
closely related bacterial sequences. Bootstrap support was calculated with 1,000
replicates, and nodes with values $\geq 50\%$ were retained. The resulting tree was
visualized using the iTOL platform, without additional pruning.

Structural Analysis of MmpE

Structural models of full-length MmpE and its NLS-deletion mutants (MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$,
MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$) were generated using AlphaFold v2.2.0. Predictions were
performed with default settings, including use of the pre-trained model and MSA
generation via UniRef90 and MGnify. Model confidence was assessed using pLDDT
scores. All structures were analyzed in UCSF ChimeraX for conformational differences
between mutants. The AlphaFold-predicted reference model was further examined in
PyMOL to identify putative metal-binding residues based on spatial proximity and
coordination geometry within the predicted active site.

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% (v/v) FBS at 37 °C
with 5% CO_2. Transfection was performed using the Hieff Trans™ Liposomal
Transfection Reagent according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 0.5 μg of
plasmid DNA and 1.5 μL of transfection reagent were diluted in 250 μL of Opti-MEM,
incubated at room temperature for 20 minutes, and added dropwise to each well.

At 24-48 hpt, 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. Imaging was performed using an Olympus FV1000 Confocal
Laser Scanning Microscope equipped with a 100×/1.40 NA oil immersion objective.
Fluorescence was detected using the following parameters: EGFP, excitation at
488 nm, emission at 509 nm; DAPI, excitation at 405 nm, emission at 461 nm. Spectral
unmixing was applied using FV10-ASW v4.2 to minimize channel cross-talk. Z-stack

images were acquired in sequential mode with a step size of 0.5 µm to ensure

consistency across samples.

Cell fractionation and Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in RIPA buffer supplemented with 1 % (v/v) protease inhibitor cocktail,

and protein concentrations were determined using the BCA assay. Equal amounts of

protein were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred onto PVDF membranes.

Membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature with 5% (w/v) non-fat milk in

TBST (25 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM KCl, 0.2% Tween-20, pH 7.4), then incubated

overnight at 4 °C with primary antibodies. After three 6-min washes with TBST,

membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 h at room

temperature. Signal detection was performed using enhanced chemiluminescence

(ECL), and images were acquired with the ChemiDoc™ MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad).

For subcellular fractionation, nuclear and cytoplasmic protein fractions were prepared

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 2,000 × g for 5 min. The pellet (~20 µL packed cells) was

resuspended in 150 µL of Cytoplasmic Extraction Reagent A (with PMSF), vortexed for

5 s, and incubated on ice for 15 min. After addition of 10 µL Reagent B, the sample was

vortexed briefly, incubated on ice, and centrifuged at 12,000 × g for 5 min at 4 °C to

collect the cytoplasmic fraction (supernatant). The remaining pellet was extracted with

50 µL of Nuclear Extraction Reagent (with PMSF), vortexed intermittently for 30 min on

ice, and centrifuged at 12,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C to obtain the nuclear fraction. β-

actin, or histone H3 was used as a loading control for cytoplasmic or nuclear fractions.

Antibody information is listed in the Table S1.

Immunoblot analysis of MmpE secretion

The procedure for immunoblot analysis of MmpE secretion was adapted from previous

studies with minor modifications (Zhang *et al*., 2022; Chen *et al*., 2025). BCG strains

expressing C-terminally Flag-tagged MmpE were cultured in Middlebrook 7H9 broth

with 0.5% glycerol, 0.02% Tyloxapol, and 50 µg/mL kanamycin at 37 °C (80 rpm) until

OD600 ~0.6. Cells were harvested by centrifugation (4,000 × g, 15 min, 4 °C), and

supernatants filtered through 0.22 µm PES membranes. Filtrates were concentrated

~50-fold using Amicon Ultra-15 filters (10 kDa cutoff) for secreted MmpE detection.

Bacterial pellets were washed, resuspended in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5;

150 mM NaCl; 1 mM PMSF; protease inhibitors). Lysates were clarified by

centrifugation (10,000 × g, 15 min, 4 °C). Whole-cell lysates and concentrated culture

filtrates were analyzed by immunoblotting as described above, using anti-Flag

antibodies for detection.

Protein Expression and Purification

N-terminal maltose-binding protein (MBP)-tagged and C-terminal His$_6$-tagged wild-

type MmpE, as well as mutant lacking the Tat signal peptide were expressed in *E. coli*

BL21 (DE3). Protein expression was performed in 1 L of LB medium. Cultures were

grown at 37 °C until the optical density at 600 nm (OD$_{600}$) reached approximately 0.8,

after which protein expression was induced with 0.2 mM IPTG at 18 °C for 24 h.

Following induction, cells were harvested by centrifugation and lysed by sonication in

ice-cold lysis buffer containing 150 mM NaCl, 30 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), and 1 mM

PMSF. The lysate was clarified by centrifugation, and the supernatant was subjected

to affinity purification using an MBP affinity column.

Phosphatase activity assay

Phosphatase activity was measured using *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate (*p*-NPP) as the

substrate in a final reaction volume of 200 µL. Reactions were initiated by incubating

0-80 µg of purified protein with *p*-NPP at 37 °C for 60 min. The release of *p*-nitrophenol

(*p*-NP), the dephosphorylated product, was quantified by measuring absorbance at

405 nm using a microplate spectrophotometer.

Kinetic parameters were determined under initial velocity (V$_0$) conditions using

substrate concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 10 mM *p*-NPP. The kinetic constants Km

and Vmax were calculated by fitting the data to the Michaelis-Menten equation using

nonlinear regression analysis in GraphPad Prism 8.0. The catalytic turnover rate (Kcat)

was calculated using the equation Kcat = Vmax/E_0, where Vmax was expressed as

nM p-NP min^{-1} and E_0 represents the active enzyme concentration. Control reactions

were carried out in the absence of either the substrate or the enzyme to measure

background absorbance. All assays were performed in triplicate to ensure the

reproducibility of results.

Quantitative real-time PCR

THP-1 cells were infected with the BCG strain and harvested 24 hpi for total RNA

isolation. RNA was extracted using 1 mL of TRIzol® reagent following the

manufacturer's protocol. To eliminate genomic DNA contamination, RNA samples were

treated with DNase I 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 with random hexamers primers, according to the

manufacturer's protocol. qRT-PCR was performed using ChamQ SYBR® Green RT-

PCR Master Mix. Relative mRNA expression levels were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$

method, normalizing Ct values to the housekeeping gene *HPRT*. All qRT-PCR

experiments were conducted in triplicate, with at least three independent biological

replicates and two technical replicates per condition. Primer sequences are listed in

Table S7.

RNA-seq analysis

THP-1 cells were seeded at a density of 1 × 10⁶ cells well in 6-well plates and

differentiated into macrophages by treatment with 100 nM PMA for 48 h. After

differentiation, cells were washed with PBS and infected with BCG WT or ΔMmpE

strains at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 10:1. Following 24 h of infection, total RNA

was extracted using TRIzol® reagent according to the manufacturer's protocol.

High-quality sequencing reads were then aligned to the human reference genome

(GRCh38) using HISAT2 (v2.2.1). Transcript quantification was performed using

FeatureCounts (v2.0.3), 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$_2$ fold change ≥ 1| were considered significantly differentially expressed. RNA-seq data were visualized using GraphPad Prism version 8.0, as well as volcano plots, heatmaps, and other graphical outputs generated via the SRplot platform (Tang *et al.,* 2023).

CUT&Tag analysis

HEK293T cells were seeded in 10 cm² dishes at a density of 1×10^7 cells per well and transfected with 10 µg of the MmpE-pEGFP expression plasmid using Hieff Trans™ Liposomal Transfection Reagent, following the manufacturer's instructions. Cells transfected with the empty vector pEGFP-N1 were used as controls. At 36 hpt, cells were collected for CUT&Tag analysis. For the CUT&Tag, cells were fixed with 1% formaldehyde at room temperature for 10 min, and the reaction was quenched with 0.125 M glycine. After centrifugation, cells were permeabilized using ice-cold wash buffer containing 0.05% digitonin. Primary antibody incubation was carried out overnight at 4 °C using mouse anti-GFP antibody (1:1000), followed by a 2 h incubation at room temperature with Protein A/G-conjugated secondary antibody (1:100). Cells were then incubated at 37 °C for 1 h with a Protein A-Tn5 transposase complex (1:100) preloaded with Illumina sequencing adapters.

The reaction was terminated using lysis buffer containing 10% SDS, followed by proteinase K digestion. DNA was purified and amplified by PCR (12 cycles) using the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Preparation Kit. Fragment size distribution (150-300 bp) was confirmed using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Sequencing was performed on the Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform, producing 150 bp paired-end reads. Raw reads were quality-checked using FastQC and aligned to the human reference genome (hg38). Peak calling was conducted using MACS2 (v2.2.7) with the parameters --nomodel --qvalue 0.05. Genomic annotation, GO analysis, and *de novo* motif discovery were performed using HOMER (v4.11). Identified motifs were matched to known transcription factor binding motifs using TOMTOM, with a statistical significance

603 threshold of $p < 0.001$.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays

ChIP assays were performed to validate the direct binding of MmpE to the promoter
regions of target genes. HEK293T cells were transfected with either EGFP, or MmpE-
EGFP expression plasmids. Cross-linking, chromatin isolation, fragmentation, and
immunoprecipitation were carried out following the same procedure described for the
CUT&Tag assay. DNA was purified from both input and immunoprecipitated (IP)
samples and subjected to PCR using primers specific to the promoter regions of the
target genes (-100 bp to +50 bp relative to the transcription start site). *GAPDH* primers
were used as a negative control. PCR products were analyzed by agarose gel
electrophoresis. For quantitative analysis, ChIP-qPCR was carried out using the same
primer sets. All reactions were performed in triplicate. Relative enrichment was
calculated using the $2^{-\Delta Ct}$ method with normalization to input DNA.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA)

DNA substrates were amplified by PCR from the genomic DNA of *Mycobacterium*
tuberculosis H37Rv. The sequences of the oligonucleotide fragments used in the assay
are listed in Table S7. EMSA was carried out using a modified protocol as previously
described (Li *et al.,* 2020). Each 20 μL reaction contained PCR-amplified DNA
fragments, purified MmpE protein at varying concentrations, and binding buffer
composed of 20mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 50mM KCl, 50mM $MgCl_2$, 0.2 mM $NiSO_4$,
0.05 mg/mL bovine serum albumin (BSA), 1mM DTT, 10% (v/v) glycerol. Reaction
mixtures were incubated on ice for 30 minutes to allow protein-DNA complex formation.
Samples were then resolved on a 4.8% native polyacrylamide gel using a running
buffer containing 15 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 0.1 M glycine, 1mM DTT, 50 μM $MgCl_2$ and
0.2 μM $NiSO_4$ at 80 V. Following electrophoresis, gels were stained with ethidium
bromide and visualized using a Gel Imaging Analysis System (JIAPENG, China).

Detection of Phagosomal Acidification

THP-1 cells were seeded at 70% confluency in poly-L-lysine-coated 35-mm glass-

bottom dishes and maintained in RPMI 1640 supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS and

200 nM PMA for 24 h at 37 °C under 5% CO_2. After two washes with PBS, the cells

were infected with DiD-labeled BCG strains at a MOI of 10 for 24 h, LysoTracker was

added for 1 h, followed by Hoechst staining for 15 minutes to visualize the nuclei.

Hoechst staining was excited at 350 nm and emitted at 461 nm (blue), while

LysoTracker was excited at 504 nm and emitted at 511 nm (green); DiD was excited

at 644 nm and emitted at 665 nm (red). Image analysis was performed by calculating

the percentage co-localization of LysoTracker with the phagosomes to assess the

effects of different mutants.

Colony-Forming Unit (CFU) assay

For bacterial preparation, mid-log phase cultures of BCG (OD_{600} = 0.6) were harvested,

washed with PBS, and resuspended in fresh medium. THP-1 cells were seeded in 12-

well plates at a density of 5×10^5 cells per well and and differentiated into macrophage-

like cells by treatment with 100 nM PMA for 24 h. After differentiation, cells were

washed with PBS and treated with the PI3K-Akt-mTOR pathway inhibitor BEZ235 at

various concentrations (0-200 nM). BEZ235 was applied with bacterial infection (co-

treatment). An equivalent volume of DMSO was used as a vehicle control for all

treatment conditions.

Cells were infected at a MOI of 10:1 and incubated for 4 h. After infection, extracellular

bacteria were removed by treatment with penicillin-streptomycin (100 μg/mL) for 4 h.

Cells were then washed three times with PBS and maintained in antibiotic-free medium

until harvest. Intracellular bacterial burdens were assessed at multiple time points post-

infection, macrophages were lysed with 0.25% SDS for 10 minutes at room

temperature. Lysates were serially diluted in PBS, and 100 μL aliquots 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. CFUs were enumerated, and

final counts were calculated by applying the corresponding dilution factors. BCG

strains used in this study are listed in Table S6.

Mice infection

Mice were infected as described previously (Chen *et al.,* 2022), with minor modifications. Mid-log phase BCG cultures were washed twice in PBS containing 0.05% Tween 80 and briefly sonicated to disrupt bacterial clumps. Female C57BL/6 mice were anesthetized with isoflurane and intranasally inoculated with 1×10^7 CFUs of BCG in 40 μL of PBS. To confirm the inoculation dose, six mice were euthanized at 48 hpi. Lungs were harvested, homogenized in 1 mL of PBS using a tissue homogenizer, and serial dilutions of the homogenates were plated on Middlebrook 7H10 agar supplemented with 10% OADC. Plates were incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 14 days, after which CFUs were enumerated.

Histological analysis

Lung tissues from BCG-infected mice were fixed in 4% phosphate-buffered formalin at room temperature for 24 h, followed by paraffin embedding. Paraffin-embedded tissue samples were sectioned into 2-3 μm thick slices using a microtome. Sections were deparaffinized, rehydrated through a graded ethanol series, and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E). Stained tissue sections were examined using an Olympus BX53 light microscope. For digital analysis and annotation, scanned slides were visualized using CaseViewer software (version 2.0; 3DHISTECH).

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 comparisons were performed using two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests or two-way ANOVA. A *P*-value of less than 0.05 was considered significant, with significance levels indicated as follows: $P < 0.05$ (*), $P < 0.01$ (**), and $P < 0.001$ (***). All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism (version 8.0). Data were obtained from at least three independent biological replicates, each including two or more technical replicates.

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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., Q. J., and Y. W.; Resources: A. G., L. Z., and Y. C.; Data curation: L. C., Q. J., and Y. W.; 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., L. Z., and A. G.; Supervision: A. G., and L. Z.; Project administration: A. G., and L. Z.; Funding acquisition: A. G., L. Z., and Y. C.

Disclosure and competing interest statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Legends

Figure 1. NLSs are required for the nuclear translocation of MmpE.

(A) qRT-PCR analysis of *mmpE* mRNA expression in HEK293T cells over 48 hpt. **(B)**

Western blot analysis of nuclear fractions showing time-dependent accumulation of

MmpE-EGFP (top), and corresponding quantification of nuclear MmpE-EGFP levels

(bottom). Histone H3 and β-actin were used as nuclear and cytoplasmic markers,

respectively. **(C)** Domain architecture of MmpE, including a Tat signal peptide (1-54

amino acids, with a twin-arginine translocation motif) and two nuclear localization

signals (NLS1: 20-22 aa; NLS2: 460-462 aa). The structure of the MmpE protein was

predicted using AlphaFold 2.2.0, with NLS1 and NLS2 highlighted in red and green,

respectively. **(D)** Subcellular localization of EGFP-tagged wild-type and NLS-deleted

MmpE. (left) Schematic representation of EGFP-tagged constructs. (right) Confocal

microscopy images of HEK293T cells transfected with the indicated constructs for 36

hpt. EGFP fluorescence (green) and nuclear staining with DAPI (blue) were visualized

using an FLUOVIEW software (v5.0). Scale bar, 10 μm. Images were acquired with a

×100 oil immersion objective (NA = 1.4). **(E)** Quantification of nuclear EGFP intensity

of wild-type and mutant MmpE in (Figure **1D**). Data are shown as mean ± SD, n = 12

cells. **(F)** Western blot analysis of nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions from HEK293T

cells transfected with wild-type and mutant MmpE-EGFP confirmed their subcellular

localization. MmpE-EGFP was detected using an anti-GFP antibody, and histone H3

and β-actin served as nuclear and cytoplasmic markers, respectively. **(G)** Quantitative

analysis of MmpE-EGFP levels in the cytoplasmic and nuclear compartments of

(Figure **1F**). 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 2. Deletion of NLSs does not alter the phosphatase activity of MmpE.

(**A**) Domain architecture of MmpE. Schematic representation of MmpE with the annotated functional domains, including a Tat signal peptide (1-41 aa, twin-arginine translocation motif), a purple acid phosphatase domain (68-149 aa), a calcineurin-like phosphoesterase domain (211-389 aa) and two nuclear localization signals (NLS1: 20-

22 aa; NLS2: 460-462 aa). (**B**) Phylogenetic and structural conservation of MmpE.

Neighbor-joining phylogenetic tree of MmpE homologs across Mycobacterium species

(1,000 bootstrap replicates; values ≥50% shown). Species abbreviations: *M.*

tuberculosis (Mtu), *M. bovis* BCG (Mbb), *M. orygis* (Mory), *M. kubicae* (Mku), *M.*

paraterrae (Mpa), *M. farcinogenes* (Mfg), *M. mucogenicum* (Mmuc), *M. vicinigordonae*

(Mgor), *M. lentiflavum* (Mlf), *M. avium* (Mav), *M. manitobense* (Mman). (**C**)

Phosphatase activity of MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$ (lacking the N-terminal Tat signal peptide) was

measured using *p*-NPP as the substrate in the presence of increasing concentrations

(0-500 µM) of Fe^{3+} and Zn^{2+}. (**D**) Prediction of metal ion-binding residues in MmpE.

Structural modeling and visualization were performed using PyMOL. Conserved

residues in the putative metal-binding pocket are shown as sticks, colored by atom

type. The predicted metal coordination site is highlighted, with key binding residues

labeled. Surface representation depicts the spatial accessibility of the pocket. (**E**)

Phosphatase activity of increasing concentrations of MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$ and the mutant

MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$-H348AN359A was measured in the absence or presence of 50 µM Fe^{3+}. (**F**)

Phosphatase activity of increasing concentrations of MmpE$^{\Delta Tat}$ and MmpE$^{\Delta Tat/\Delta NLS1-2}$

was measured under standard conditions. Data represent mean ± SD of three

independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way

ANOVA, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

Figure 3. The nuclear translocation and phosphatase activity of MmpE are essential for *M. bovis* BCG survival in macrophage cells.

(A-B) Intracellular survival of BCG strains in human THP-1 macrophages **(A)** and RAW264.7 macrophages **(B)**. Strains include BCG WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, and Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$. **(C-D)** Intracellular survival of strains in THP-1 **(C)** and RAW264.7 macrophages **(D)**. Strains include BCG WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$ and Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$. **(E)** Intracellular survival of Comp-MmpE-H348AN359H

973   mutant in THP-1 cells. **(F-H)** Inflammatory cytokine expression in infected THP-1 cells.

974   mRNA levels of *IL-1A* (**F**), *IL-1B* (**G**), and *IL-6* (**H**) were quantified by qRT-PCR 24 hpi

975   with the indicated BCG strains. Data represent mean ± SD of three independent

976   biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA or two-

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

Figure 4. MmpE regulates host transcription network involved in inflammation response and lysosomal maturation.

(A) Volcano plot showing DEGs in THP-1 cells infected with ΔMmpE versus WT strains. DEGs were defined as | $\log_2$(fold change) | ≥ 1 and P < 0.05. **(B)** Enrichment analysis

of DEGs shown in **(A)**. The circular plot shows enriched biological process and

molecular function terms. Outer rings represent GO terms (red) and downregulated

(green) genes; inner rings reflect z-scores (blue to pink). Selected terms are listed with

GO IDs and descriptions. **(C)** KEGG enrichment analysis of DEGs shown in **(A)**. Bar

length denotes the number of associated DEGs, and color represents statistical

significance ($-\log_{10}$ (*P*-value)). **(D)** Protein-protein interaction network of immune-

related DEGs, constructed using STRING v12.0 and visualized in Cytoscape. **(E)**

Heatmap of immune-related DEGs in ΔMmpE-infected and WT-infected THP-1 cells.

$\log_2$(fold change) values are shown across three biological replicates. Red and blue

indicate upregulation and downregulation, respectively. **(F-G)** qRT-PCR validation of

representative DEGs in THP-1 cells infected with WT or ΔMmpE for 24 hpi. Cytokine-

related genes (**F**); lysosomal acidification and V-ATPase subunits genes (**G**). Data

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

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

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Figure 5. MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway during
macrophage infection.

(A-D) Cut&Tag analysis of MmpE-binding regions in HEK293T cells. **(A)** Genomic

distribution of potential MmpE-binding regions in HEK293T cells. **(B)** Chromosomal

localization of MmpE-enriched peaks (fold enrichment > 9). **(C)** Biotype distribution of

potential MmpE-binding regions in HEK293T cells. **(D)** Distribution of binding sites

relative to the nearest transcription start sites (TSS) within ±20 kb of protein-coding

genes. (**E**) Immunoblot analysis of pathway activation in THP-1 macrophages infected

with WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, Comp-

MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$, or Comp-MmpE-H348A/N359A. Phosphorylation of Akt, mTOR, and

p70S6K was evaluated at 8 hpi. **(F)** Quantification of phosphorylation levels across

time points. **(G)** (left) Confocal microscopy analysis of phagosome acidification in

infected THP-1 macrophages at 24 hpi. Cells were stained with LysoTracker Red and

BCG strains were stained with DiD. (right) Co-localization between mycobacteria and

LysoTracker was assessed. Representative images showing co-localization of

intracellular bacterial with LysoTracker signal. Scale bar, 10 μm. 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,

***P < 0.001.

1017

Figure 6. MmpE suppresses the expression of *VDR* during BCG infection

1018

(A) Heatmap of transcription factors associated with MmpE ChIP-seq peaks in

HEK293T cells. Color scale indicates expression changes (red: upregulated; blue:

downregulated). **(B)** *De novo* motif analysis of MmpE-bound sequences using HOMER.

Enrichment P-values were calculated with TOMTOM. "% of targets" indicates the

proportion of peaks containing each motif; letter height reflects nucleotide frequency.

(C) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of VDR expression in THP-1 cells infected with WT

or ΔMmpE strains for 24 h. **(D-G)** ChIP-PCR and qPCR analysis of the *VDR* promoter

region. HEK293T cells were transfected with EGFP, MmpE-EGFP, or MmpE-

H348A/N359A-EGFP. Chromatin was immunoprecipitated using anti-GFP antibody.

PCR was performed with primers targeting the *VDR* promoter and GAPDH (negative

control), and products were analyzed by agarose electrophoresis (**D, F**). Enrichment

was quantified by qPCR using the $2^{-\Delta Ct}$ method (**E, G**). (**H-I**) EMSA using purified MmpE

protein and a DNA probe corresponding to the VDR promoter. Samples were resolved

by native PAGE. Arrows indicate the positions of free DNA and slower-migrating

species (**H**); signal intensities were quantified by densitometry (**I**). Data represent mean

± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined

using two-way ANOVA or two-tailed unpaired Student's *t*-tests, ***$P < 0.001$.

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1037　**Figure 7. Nuclear translocation of MmpE is essential for mycobacterial survival**

1038　**in mice.**

1039　(**A**) Bacterial burden in lungs of infected mice. Specific pathogen-free (SPF) C57BL/6

1040　mice (n = 6 per group) were intranasally infected with 1.0×10^7 CFUs of BCG strains,

1041　including WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, or Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$. Bacterial titers in lung

homogenates were quantified by CFU assays at 0, 14, 28, and 56 dpi. **(B)** Histopathology of infected lung tissues. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E)-stained lung sections from mice infected as in (**A**) show granulomatous inflammation, Scale bars: 200 µm. **(C-D)** Pro-inflammatory cytokine expression in the spleen of infected mice. qRT-PCR analysis of cytokine mRNA levels of *Il1a* (**C**), *Il1b* (**D**)and *Il6* (**E**) in spleen tissues from infected mice (n = 6/group) at 2 to 28 dpi. Data represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

Figure 8. Schematic diagram of nucleomodulin MmpE-mediated immune suppression and enhanced mycobacterial survival.

During infection, the nucleomodulin MmpE translocates into the host nucleus via its C-terminal NLS2 motif (RRK[460-462]), where it binds to the VDR promoter and suppresses transcription of inflammatory genes. Simultaneously, MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway, thereby inhibiting lysosome maturation. These dual mechanisms contribute to immune evasion and promote intracellular survival of mycobacteria.

1059 **Supplementary figures**

Supplementary Figure 1. Identification of MmpE as a nucleomodulin in Mycobacterium.

(**A**) Subnuclear distribution of MmpE-EGFP in transfected cells. Confocal microscopy was performed at indicated time points post-transfection. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue); MmpE-EGFP is shown in green. Scale bar, 10 μm. (**B**) Structural modeling of MmpE and NLS mutants. Predicted structures of wild type MmpE, NLS-deletion construct, and mutants lacking NLS1, NLS2, or both were generated using AlphaFold2. Models were visualized with UCSF ChimeraX, and prediction confidence was evaluated using pLDDT scores. **(C)** Immunoblot analysis of MmpE-Flag expression in bacterial lysates and culture supernatants from recombinant BCG strains. Ag85B and GlpX served as positive and negative controls for secretion, respectively. MmpE-Flag was detected with anti-Flag antibody. **(D)** Subcellular distribution of MmpE during infection. THP-1 macrophages were infected for 24 h with recombinant BCG strains expressing Flag-tagged wild-type MgdE or NLS-deletion mutants (MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, and MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1\text{-}2}$). Cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions were prepared and analyzed by immunoblotting using anti-Flag antibody. Histone H3 and β-actin were included as nuclear and cytoplasmic markers, respectively.

A

PDB ID	Description	Z Value	RMSD Value
6py9-C	$Fe^{(3+)}$-$Zn^{(2+)}$ purple acid phosphatase	36.5	2.3
6py9-D	$Fe^{(3+)}$-$Zn^{(2+)}$ purple acid phosphatase	36.5	2.3
6py9-A	$Fe^{(3+)}$-$Zn^{(2+)}$ purple acid phosphatase	36.4	2.3
4kkz-C	purple acid phosphatase	36.3	2.3
4kkz-A	purple acid phosphatase	36.3	2.3
6g46-D	$Fe^{(3+)}$-$Zn^{(2+)}$ purple acid phosphatase	36.3	2.3
2qfp-B	purple acid phosphatase	36.3	2.3

Z value>10 and RMSD value<4 indicate that the comparison
result is extremely reliable

B

1078

Supplementary Figure 2. Identification of MmpE as a conserved Fe^{3+}/Zn^{2+}-metallophosphatase in Mycobacteria.

(A) Sequence and structure-based analyses of MmpE. UCSF Chimera was used to analyze conserved domains and structural features. Structural similarity was evaluated by comparison with known metallophosphatases. Alignments with *Z*-scores >10 and RMSD <4 were considered high-confidence matches. **(B)** Clustal Omega sequence alignment of MmpE from various mycobacterial species, highlighting conserved

residues (≥90% identity, shown in red). Blue stars indicate the predicted NLSs, and red

triangles mark characteristic sequences found in metallophosphatases. Species

abbreviations: *M. tuberculosis* (Mtu), *M. bovis* BCG (Mbb), *M. orygis* (Mory), *M.*

kubicae (Mku), *M. paraterrae* (Mpa), *M. farcinogenes* (Mfg), *M. mucogenicum* (Mmuc),

M. vicinigordonae (Mgor), *M. lentiflavum* (Mlf), *M. avium* (Mav), *M. manitobense*

(Mman).

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Supplementary Figure 3. The nuclear translocation and phosphatase activity of MmpE are essential for *M. bovis* BCG survival in macrophage cells.

(**A**) Construction and validation of the MmpE-deleted strain of BCG. (left) Schematic diagram of the homologous recombination strategy used to delete *mmpE* from the BCG genome. (right) Wild-type and ΔMmpE strains were used as templates to amplify the *mmpE* gene (600 bp upstream-600 bp downstream) by PCR. Lanes 1 and 3: wild-type genomic DNA; lanes 2 and 4: ΔMmpE genomic DNA. (**B**) qRT-PCR detected the *mmpE* expression level in WT and ΔMmpE strains. (**C**) Sequencing results of ΔMmpE genomic DNA. The forward primer amplified a 300 bp upstream fragment, and the reverse primer a 300 bp downstream fragment. (**D-E**) Growth curve analysis of BCG strains. Strains including WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ strains(**C**), or Comp-MmpE-H348AN359H (**D**), were measured in 7H9 medium. Data represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA, $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$.

1108

Supplementary Figure 4. MmpE modulates host transcription network involved in inflammation response and lysosomal maturation

(**A**) Biotype distribution of potential MmpE-regulating DEGs in THP-1 cells. (**B-D**) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of gene expression in infected THP-1 cells. Cells were infected with WT, ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$ and Comp-MmpE-H348AN359H strains for 24 hpi. Cytokine-related genes (*IL23A*, *CSF2*, *CD69*, *IDO1*, *IL12B*, *CEACAM1*) (**B**); genes associated with lysosomal maturation (*TFEB*, *LAMP1*, *LAMP2*) (**C**); genes encoding V-ATPase subunits (*ATP6V0A1*, *ATP6V0C*, *ATP6V1A*, *ATP6V1B2*, and *ATP6V1E1*) (**D**). Data represent mean ± SD of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.

1120

Supplementary Figure 5. MmpE regulates the PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway during macrophage infection.

(A) Interaction network of DEGs associated with MmpE-binding sites. The network was constructed using STRING v12.0 and visualized with Cytoscape. **(B)** KEGG pathway enrichment analysis of MmpE-binding sites identified in MmpE-EGFP-transfected HEK293T cells. Selected significantly enriched pathways are shown. Bar length indicates the number of associated genes; color represents -$\log_{10}(P$-value). Enriched pathways include aldosterone-regulated sodium reabsorption (hsa04925), mTOR signaling (hsa04150), axon guidance (hsa04360), serotonergic synapse (hsa04726), circadian entrainment (hsa04713), inflammatory mediator regulation of TRP channels (hsa04750), cAMP signaling (hsa04024), calcium signaling (hsa04020), glutamatergic

synapse (hsa04724), and cGMP-PKG signaling (hsa04022). **(C)** (left) Immunoblot

analysis of PI3K-Akt-mTOR pathway activation in THP-1 macrophages infected with

either wild-type (WT) or ΔMmpE strains. Phosphorylation of Akt (Ser473), mTOR

(Ser2448), and p70S6K (Thr389) was assessed at 0, 2, 4, and 8 hpi. (right)

Quantification of phosphorylation levels across time points. Data represent mean ± SD

of three independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using

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

Supplementary Figure 6. MmpE promotes pathogen intracellular survival via the

PI3K-Akt-mTOR signaling pathway.

(A-C) Effects of BEZ235 on the growth and intracellular survival of BCG strains.

Bacterial growth in 7H9 medium with or without BEZ235 (0-200 nM) (**A**). Intracellular

survival of WT and ΔMmpE strains in THP-1 macrophages treated with or without

BEZ235 (0-200 nM); CFUs were quantified at 48 hpi (**B**). Intracellular survival of WT,

ΔMmpE, Comp-MmpE, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS2}$, Comp-MmpE$^{\Delta NLS1-2}$,

Comp-MmpE-H348AN359H in THP-1 macrophages treated with or without 100 nM

BEZ235; CFUs were determined at 4, 48 hpi (**C**). Data represent mean ± SD of three

independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way

ANOVA, *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

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Supplementary Figure 7. MmpE modulates the transcription of immune-associated genes.

Supplementary Figure 8. MmpE facilitates bacterial colonization in the spleens of infected mice.

(A) 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 dpi. **(B-I)** mRNA expression in mice spleen at 14 and 28 dpi in lung and spleen tissues of infected animals. *Vdr* expression (**B**); Cytokine-related genes (**C** and **D**); lysosomal acidification (**E** and **F**) and V-ATPase subunits genes (**G** and **H**). Data represent mean ± SD of six independent biological replicates. Statistical significance determined using two-way ANOVA, *$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$.