#### Aus dem

## Institut für Schlaganfall- und Demenzforschung (ISD)

## Klinikum der Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität München



# Unexpected mechanisms of the MIF/receptor network in activated T cells and neutrophils

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## List of abbreviations

ABC ATP-binding cassette

ACKR3 Atypical chemokine receptor 3

**AtMDL** A. thaliana MIF/D-dopachrome-tautomerase-like protein

**AMPK** Adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase

AIDS Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome

AhR Aryl hydrocarbon receptor

**APC** Antigen-presenting cell

Bcl 6 B cell lymphoma 6

**CD74** Cluster of differentiation 74

**CS** Chondroitin sulfate

**CXCL** CXC-type chemokine ligand

**CXCR** CXC-motif chemokine receptor

**DC** Dendritic cell

**D-DT** *D*-dopachrome-tautomerase

**DN** Double-negative

**DP** Double-positive

**ER** Endoplasmic reticulum

**ELR** Glutamic acid-leucine-arginine

**ERK** Extracellular signal-regulated kinase

**GPCR** G protein-coupled receptor

**HsMIF** Homo sapiens macrophage migration inhibitory factor

**HVEM** Herpes virus entry mediator

**JAB1** c-Jun activation domain-binding protein-1

**IRF4** IFN-regulatory factor 4

li Invariant chain

MDL MIF and D-dopachrome tautomerase-like

MHC Major histocompatibility complex class

MIF Macrophage migration inhibitory factor

**mTOR** Mammalian target of rapamycin

**NF-κB** Nuclear factor-κB

**PBMCs** Peripheral blood mononuclear cells

**PI3K/Akt** Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B

RNA seq RNA sequencing

TCR T-cell receptor

**Tfh** Follicular helper T cell

**Th1** T-helper 1

Th2 T-helper 2

Th9 T-helper 9

**Th17** T-helper 17

**TGF** $\beta$  Transforming growth factor- $\beta$ 

**Tr1** Type 1-regulatory T cell

Treg Regulatory T cell

**TRX** Thioredoxin

iTreg Induced regulatory T cell

**pTreg** Peripheral regulatory T cell

**tTreg** Thymic regulatory T cell

**SNP** Single nucleotide polymorphism

**SOJIA** Systemic-onset juvenile idiopathic arthritis

TLR4 Toll-like receptor 4

## List of publications

#### Journal articles

- Zhang, L., Woltering, I., Holzner, M., Brandhofer, M., Schaefer, C. C., Bushati, G., Ebert, S., Yang, B., Muenchhoff, M., Hellmuth, J. C., Scherer, C., Wichmann, C., Effinger, D., Hübner, M., El Bounkari, O., Scheiermann, P., Bernhagen, J., and Hoffmann, A. (2024) CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4(+) T cells. Cell Mol Life Sci 81, 296
- Spiller, L., Manjula, R., Leissing, F., Basquin, J., Bourilhon, P., Sinitski, D., Brandhofer, M., Levecque, S., Gerra, S., Sabelleck, B., Zhang, L., Feederle, R., Flatley, A., Hoffmann, A., Panstruga, R., Bernhagen, J., and Lolis, E. (2023) Plant MDL proteins synergize with the cytokine MIF at CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptors in human cells. Sci Signal 16, eadg2621

#### Poster presentation

Zhang, L., Abdyli, A., Zhang, Z., Kontos, C., Volta, B., Scheiermann, P., Kapurniotu, A., Bernhagen, J., and Hoffmann, A. Tackling acute lung injury by targeting the MIF inflammation axis. International Neutrophil Symposium 2024, Munich, Germany; 17-19 September, 2024.

## 1. Introduction

The integrated defense mechanisms of biological organisms comprise sophisticated networks, encompassing both innate and adaptive immune responses. (1-3). Acting as the body's primary protective barrier, the innate immune components against pathogens, providing a rapid but non-specific response to infections. Key players in this system include neutrophils, macrophages, monocytes, and others, which work together to initiate an inflammatory response (4). In contrast, the adaptive immune system is distinguished by its capacity to recognize specific antigens and develop immunological memory (5, 6). This system is facilitated by T and B lymphocytes, which mediate cellular and humoral immunity, respectively (3, 7). Central to both immune branches are cytokines (8, 9). These molecules regulate communication across immune cells, modulating the intensity and duration of immune activity to ensure an effective and coordinated defense (7, 10). One of these cytokines, macrophage migration inhibitory factor (MIF), has been identified as a crucial regulator within this network (11, 12). However, the precise function of MIF in T cells, particularly CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, remains largely unexplored. This thesis seeks to elucidate the MIF/receptor signaling network in activated T cells, with a specific emphasis on its functions and implications in CD4+ T cells.

#### 1.1. CD4<sup>+</sup>T cells

CD4+ T cells, also known as helper T cells, are fundamental elements of the adaptive immune system, coordinating the activities of various immune cells and driving diverse immune responses (13). Their defining characteristic lies in the presence of the T cell receptor (TCR), which engages with major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC-II) molecules on antigen-presenting cells (APCs) (14). Upon recognizing a specific antigen, CD4+ T cells activate and subsequently differentiate into various functional categories that shape the immunological responses (13, 15). The profound impact of CD4+ T cells on both protective immunity and immunopathology makes them an essential focus of study, particularly in understanding immune-related diseases and potential therapeutic interventions(16).

## 1.1.1 CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell development

T lymphocytes originally derived from hematopoietic stem cells located in the bone marrow and subsequently migrate to the thymus (17). In the initial stages of development, T cells within the thymus do not express the TCR or co-receptors CD4 and CD8, termed double-negative (DN) thymocytes. During multiple DN stages, thymocytes begin to express pre-TCR complex. Successful expression of the pre-TCR induces substantial proliferation of thymocytes, facilitating the transition toward the doublepositive (DP) stage(CD4+CD8+) (18). The fate of DP thymocytes is determined by their interaction with cortical epithelial cells presenting MHC I and II molecules complexed with self-peptides (19). Only appropriate TCR signaling promotes positive selection, enabling thymocytes to mature (18, 20). Thymocytes binding self-peptide-MHC I molecules differentiate into CD8+ T cells, whereas those binding self-peptide-MHC II molecules develop into CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Subsequently, negative selection in the thymic medulla eradicates thymocytes that demonstrate excessively strong affinities for self-antigens, ensuring the development of self-tolerance (21). Following this selection process, the surviving thymocytes are matured and prepared for export to peripheral lymphoid tissues, in which they are termed naive T cells.

#### 1.1.2 CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell activation and differentiation

Naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells remain quiescent within secondary lymphoid structures until they engage with their specific antigen presented by APCs. Major APC types of categories encompass B lymphocytes, macrophages, and dendritic cells (DCs), all of which can present antigens using MHC I or MHC II pathways (22, 23). The recognition of MHC class II-bound antigens by CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes occurs through their TCRs. This initial recognition event triggers the onset of lymphocyte activation (24). Nevertheless, TCR engagement alone is insufficient to trigger complete CD4<sup>+</sup> T cell activation. The activation process also needs co-stimulatory signals provided by stimulatory molecules. Without these essential accessory molecule-coreceptor interactions providing critical signals, this engagement may lead to unresponsiveness in naive lymphocytes (25). Among these interactions, the binding across T cell-expressed CD28 and APC-displayed B7 proteins (CD80/CD86) represents a crucial co-stimulatory pathway (26, 27). Upon activation, the T cell expresses various proteins that help sustain or modu-

late the co-stimulatory signals necessary for driving clonal expansion and differentiation. The CD40 ligand represents one such protein, which interacts with APC-expressed CD40 (28). This molecular partnership enhances T cell responses while promoting B7 expression on APCs. Additional pathways supporting T cell activation include the 4-1BB/4-1BBL axis and ICOS/LICOS interactions (29-32). However, cytotoxic T-lymphocyte associated protein 4 (CTLA-4) functions as a regulatory mechanism by competing for B7 molecules with an affinity 20 times stronger than that of CD28, delivering inhibitory signals that help maintain immunologic homeostasis (33, 34). Furthermore, T cell function and activation are also modulated by various membrane proteins, along with genetic and epigenetic mechanisms (35, 36). Upon achieving full activation status, T cells exhibit alterations in their surface protein expression profile. Several molecules serve as indicators of T-cell activation, including CD69, HLA-DR and CD25 (37-39) (Table 1).

**Table 1. Main characteristics of T-cell activation markers.** This table compiles data from various studies, presenting a detailed overview of key T-cell activation markers, their peak expression times, and functional roles (40-43).

Activation maker	Optimal expression time	Function
CD69	Peaks ~ 24 hours	Early activation marker; modulation retention in lymphoid tissues
CD25	Peaks ~ 96 hours	High-affinity IL-2 receptor; T-cell proliferation and survival; a marker for Treg cells
HLA-DR	Peaks ~ 120 hours	T-cell recognition and activation

The differentiation trajectory of activated helper T cells is orchestrated through an intricate interplay of multiple signaling cascades, encompassing TCR activation, cytokine signaling networks, costimulatory pathways, chemokine gradients, integrin-mediated adhesion, and metabolic cues (44). These signals collectively direct the development of distinct effector populations, including the canonical Th (T helper) 1 and Th2 subsets, along with more recently characterized lineages such as Th17, regulatory T cells (Tregs), follicular helper T cells (Tfh), Th9, and Th22 populations (44-47) (See Figure 1).

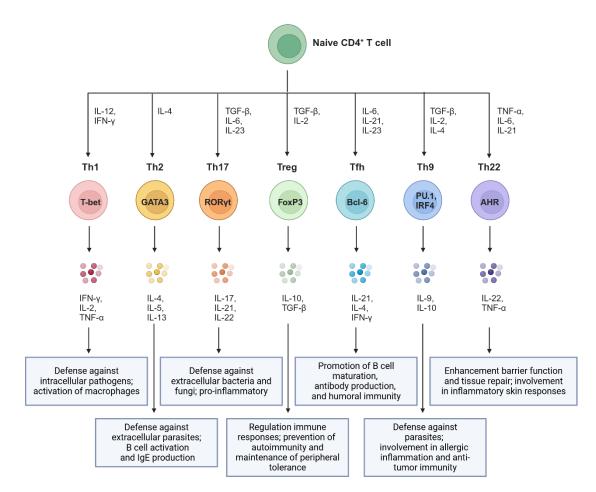
The initial classification of CD4 T<sup>+</sup> cells was established in mice built on patterns of lymphokine activity production, dividing them into two populations: Th1 and Th2. Th1 generated IFN-y, IL-2, IL3 and GM-CSF, whereas Th2 cells produce IL-3, BSF-1 and mast cell growth factor 2 (MCGF2) (48). Subsequent research established the instrumental role of specific cytokines in directing lineage commitment. The presence of IL-4 alongside IL-2 emerged as crucial determinants in effector subset specification (49, 50). IL-4 is crucial for developing Th2-like effectors that produce IL-4 and IL-5. In contrast, IL-2 fosters Th1-like effector development, maintaining the secretion of IL-2 and IFN-γ (49). Moreover, heat-killed *Listeria monocytogenes* could induce Th1 differentiation in vitro through macrophage-derived interleukin-12 (IL-12), correlating with in vivo observations of Th1-predominant responses to Listeria monocytogenes (51). These findings underscore how innate immune responses to microbial challenges guide appropriate T helper cell polarization. Whether the Th1 and Th2 phenotypes also exist in humans has generated considerable scientific interest. In 1991, a study showed that T cells isolated from human peripheral blood could also develop into Th1 or Th2 in different infectious agents, and consistency maintains the functional phenotype in vitro (52). Moreover, in allergic respiratory disorder patients, inhaling grass pollen allergens leads to the activation of Th2 within the respiratory mucosa, which is verified that Th2 can be found in vivo in humans (53). The molecular control of these lineages involves specific transcriptional regulators. T-bet / Eomes directs Th1 development, while GATA3 regulates Th2 differentiation (54, 55). With the T-bet gene knocked out, Th1 differentiation is significantly compromised (56). Similarly, GATA3 absence completely abolishes Th2 differentiation (57-60). Moreover, GATA3 drives Th2 differentiation by directing Th2 lineage commitment, selectively stimulating Th2 cell growth, and simultaneously suppressing Th1 differentiation (61).

Th17 cells as a distinct CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocyte expanded the classical Th1/Th2 dichotomy (62, 63). Furthermore, Th17 cells release IL-21, enhancing interaction with other immune cells (64, 65). Additionally, in Th17 cell differentiation, cytokines play a sequential and multilayered role, with early signals from transforming growth factor  $\beta$  (TGF- $\beta$ ) and IL-6 initiating this process, followed by contributions of IL-21 and IL-23 at later stages to further facilitate and maintain the Th17 phenotype(13). The transcriptional regulation of Th17 differentiation centers on retinoid-related orphan receptor-

yt (RORyt), whose expression sufficiently induces IL-17 production in naive CD4+ populations (66). The functional significance of RORyt is evidenced by marked IL-17 reduction in RORyt-deficient lymphocytes (66, 67). The cooperative activity of RORyt and RORα in driving IL-17 expression becomes apparent through their concurrent deletion, which completely abrogates IL-17 production (67, 68). Th17 cells demonstrate significant involvement across diverse pathological conditions, spanning autoimmune disorders, neuroinflammation, oncological processes, and allograft rejection (69, 70).

Tregs were found as the fourth lineage of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (71). Foxp3 positive Tregs can be produced in multiple locations: primarily in the thymus as thymic Tregs (tTregs), extrathymically at peripheral sites as peripheral Tregs (pTregs), or induced in vitro (iTregs) under the influence of TGF $\beta$  (72). A distinct regulatory population, type 1 regulatory T cells (Tr1 cells), lacks FOXP3 expression but maintains immunosuppressive function through IL-10 and TGF- $\beta$  secretion (73). Their regulatory mechanism operates through direct suppression of effector responses and modulation of APC function (74). These regulatory populations maintain immune homeostasis and self-tolerance (47, 75).

The other three new CD4 T lineages are Tfh, Th9 and Th22. Tfh cells, distinguished by C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 5 (CXCR5) expression, localize within lymphoid follicles where they coordinate B cell responses and germinal center formation (76). Their developmental program requires IL-6 and IL-21, with Bcl6 serving as the master transcriptional regulator (75). Th9 cells, characterized by predominant IL-9 production, develop under combined TGF-β, IL-4, and IL-2 signals (44). Their transcriptional program depends on IFN regulatory factor 4 (IRF4) and PU.1 (77). Functionally, Th9 cells contribute to promoting antitumor immune activities, such as those against melanoma, and facilitating immune defenses against intestinal parasites (78-80). Meanwhile, they also contribute to allergic and autoimmune pathologies(81). Th22 cells are primarily recognized for producing IL-22 and TNF-α, without concurrent IFN-γ or IL-17 expression (82-84). Their differentiation requires TNF-α, IL-6, and IL-21 signals, coordinated by signal transducer and activator of transcription 3 (STAT3), aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) and RORyt transcriptional activity (83, 85). In influenza and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), Th22 cells exhibit protective effects, whereas in hepatitis B infections, they play a pro-inflammatory role (86-88).



**Figure 1. Main characteristics of T helper cell lineages.** This figure integrates data from multiple studies, providing a comprehensive overview of T helper-cell subsets and their functions in the immune system(44, 89, 90). This graph was edited with BioRender (Created in BioRender. Bernhagen, L. (2025) https://BioRender.com/h51e818) and modified from Koh *et al,* Exp Mol Med 2023 (91).

After the initial immune response, most effector T lymphocytes undergo programmed cell death. In contrast, approximately 5-10% of activated CD4+ T cells differentiate into memory T cells(92-94). The distinction between naive and memory populations can be characterized by differential expression of CD45 isoforms, which fluctuate throughout cellular development (95). The CD45RA isoform predominates expression in naive populations, while activated subsets (effector and memory T cells) preferentially express CD45RO (96, 97). Age influences the expression of CD45RA and CD45RO. In newborns, the T cell population predominantly expresses CD45RA, and aged individuals shift towards a higher expression of CD45RO (97, 98).

Memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells are pivotal in mounting a robust secondary response upon antigenic rechallenge, surpassing magnitude and speed of the primary response, and

thereby contributing significantly to long-term protective immunity (99, 100). This compartment comprises two principal subsets: central memory T cells (TCM) and effector memory T cells (TEM) (101). TCM cells, primarily located in lymphoid tissues, exhibit a high proliferative capacity, allowing them to respond efficiently upon re-encounter with the antigen (94). They function as a reservoir capable of generating new effector cells, thus contributing to sustained immune surveillance and response (102). In contrast, TEM cells are predominantly found in peripheral tissues like lungs, skin and bone marrow, where they provide immediate protection through rapid effector functions (94, 103-105). The functional heterogeneity between these populations manifests through distinct cytokine profiles: TCM cells characteristically produce IL-2, supporting their proliferative capacity, while TEM cells generate IFN-y, IL-4, and IL-17 (101) (106). TEM populations further subdivide into specialized Th1, Th2, and Th17 memory subsets, reflecting distinct functional capabilities (93, 101, 107, 108). A novel subset of TEM, known as T effector memory cells re-expressing CD45RA (TEMRA), has been identified (109). These cells atypically re-express CD45RA. They exhibit unique phenotypic and functional properties, distinguishing them from TCM and TEM (110, 111). CD8+ TEMRA were found in blood, spleen and lung, whereas CD4+ TEMRA cells are rare (110). TEMRA is mainly studied on CD8+ T cells, and CD8+ TEMRA exhibits features of senescence or exhaustion, often associated with reduced telomere length and limited proliferative capacity (112, 113).

## 1.2 Macrophage migration inhibitory factor and MIF family proteins

MIF is a pleiotropic cytokine with extensive function in various pathological states (11). D-dopachrome tautomerase (D-DT), alternatively designated as MIF-2, exhibits significant structural and sequence homology to MIF, resulting in overlapping functional role (114). MIF and MIF/D-DT-like (MDL) proteins are evidenced by their conservation across diverse organisms, ranging from unicellular life forms to multicellular parasites, fungal species, and plant systems (100). The research in this PhD thesis primarily focused on elucidating the mechanisms and functions of MIF and MDL proteins in CD4+ T cells and neutrophils.

## 1.2.1 Macrophage migration inhibitory factor

MIF was initially identified during studies on delayed-type hypersensitivity reactions, where it was noted to inhibit macrophage migration (115). The field experienced significant advancement in the late 1980s and 1990s through human MIF cDNA isolation and its identification as a pituitary-derived inflammatory mediator (116). Subsequently, the generation of a *Mif*-knockout mouse model has significantly contributed to advancing research on this protein (117).

The human MIF gene is encoded on chromosome 22q11.2. It comprises three exons (107, 172, and 66 base pairs) separated by two introns (188 and 94 base pairs) (11). MIF gene expression is regulated not only by transcription factors but also by genetic polymorphisms within its promoter region. Notably, two polymorphisms significantly affect its expression: a -173 single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) and a -794 CATT tetranucleotide repeat (114). These genetic variations impact the MIF transcriptional activity, thereby influencing MIF protein levels and impacting its biological functions. For instance, studies have linked the MIF -173 G/C polymorphism to enhanced risk of systemic-onset juvenile idiopathic arthritis risk (118). A comparable association has been mentioned with inflammatory bowel disease (119). Furthermore, a comprehensive analysis of 1171 COVID-19 cases revealed that the -794 CATT7 allele correlates with reduced symptomatic SARS-CoV-2 infection susceptibility but an elevated risk of disease severity in affected individuals (120). Additionally, the MIF-794 CATT5 allele has been identified as a genetic variant associated with enhanced diffusion capacity in Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease individuals (121). Together, these findings highlight the significant impact of MIF gene polymorphisms on various disease conditions, emphasizing their potential as genetic markers for assessing disease risk and progression.

MIF exists as a 12.5 kDa non-glycosylated protein consisting of 114 amino acids, with a unique structure that includes a conserved tautomerase catalytic site (116, 122). The remarkable evolutionary conservation of MIF is demonstrated by the extensive homology between mouse and human variants, which exhibit 90% sequence identity at the amino acid level (123). Crystallographic analysis of human MIF demonstrates that the protein assembles into a homotrimer, comprising three identical subunits. In

its active conformation, this homotrimeric structure facilitates binding to MIF's cell surface receptor CD74, thereby initiating signaling cascades critical for its biological functions (124).

While initially identified in activated T lymphocytes, MIF expression extends across diverse cell populations, including monocytes, neutrophils, B lymphocytes, and others (115, 125-127). Additionally, MIF is also distributed differently across various tissues, including the lung, liver, kidney, and colon, highlighting its widespread physiological relevance (11, 12, 126). MIF production occurs through a non-classical pathway, unlike most cytokines that follow the conventional endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-Golgi route (128). MIF is continuously generated and stored in intracellular reservoirs, allowing for fast mobilization and release in response to stimulation, ensuring a quick response to reaction. Research indicates that ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters facilitate the direct transport of MIF from the cytosol to the extracellular environment, bypassing the ER-Golgi system (128). Additionally, recent studies suggest that MIF can be secreted via extracellular vesicles such as exosomes or microvesicles (129). This vesicular transport enables the targeted and concentrated delivery of MIF to recipient cells, enhancing its functional effectiveness. Various stimuli, including stress signals, mitogenic, hormonal and inflammatory mediators regulate MIF secretion process (130).

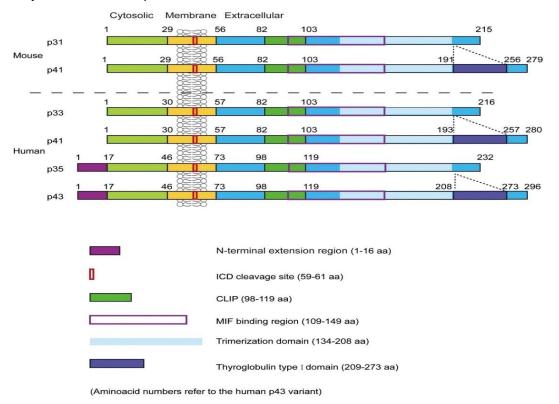
## 1.2.2 MIF receptors

MIF signals through several receptors, including CD74/invariant chain (Ii) and CXCR2, CXCR4 and atypical chemokine receptor 3 (ACKR3)/CXCR7, to regulate various immune cell functions, including proliferation, survival, and migration (131). Understanding the specific roles and mechanisms of MIF and its receptors provides valuable insights into therapeutic opportunities across numerous pathological conditions, including cancer, autoimmune and cardiovascular diseases and inflammatory disorders (132).

#### 1.2.2.1 CD74

CD74, initially characterized as a protein co-immunoprecipitating with MHC class II molecules (133). CD74 exhibits expression patterns beyond conventional class II-expressing immune cells to include endothelial populations and cardiac myocytes under

inflammatory conditions (134). CD74 contains three domains: a cytoplasmic N-terminus, a single transmembrane domain, and a luminal region (135, 136) (shown in Figure 2). In mice, two isoforms of CD74 (p31 and p41) generate from alternative splicing (137). In humans, CD74 gives rise to four isoforms: p33 and p41, similar to the mouse counterparts, and two additional isoforms, p35 and p43, which are generated through an alternative start codon that extends the N-terminus by 16 amino acids (138, 139). These isoforms contribute to the functional diversity of CD74, enhancing its regulatory capacity in immune responses.



**Figure 2. Structure and domains of CD74**. The architecture of the murine isoforms and the human isoforms is illustrated, highlighting key functional regions. The positions of the CLIP segment, intracellular domain (ICD), MIF-binding region, trimerization domain, and thyroglobulin type I domain are marked. Taken from Li *et al*, Front Cardiovasc Med 2022 (140).

CD74 proteins undergo several post-translational modifications. Glycosylation is one of these crucial modifications (141). Chondroitin sulphate modification, a specific form of glycosylation, has been shown to enable CD74 to function in T-cell stimulation by facilitating its interaction with CD44 (142). However, the exact role and mechanism of this modification, particularly in CD4+ T cells, remain unclear and warrant further

study. Phosphorylation is another important post-translational modification, occurring primarily in the cytoplasmic tail of CD74 (143). This modification is crucial for regulating signaling pathways and is essential for controlling CD74-mediated cell survival (144, 145). Furthermore, palmitoylation is a potential modification of CD74. Although it can influence the levels of the N-terminal fragment and modulate CD74 processing, it is not essential for intramembrane proteolysis (146).

CD74 serves as a critical molecular chaperone for MHC II molecules, ensuring their stability, proper folding, trafficking, and peptide loading in antigen-presenting cells (147, 148) (Figure 3). MHC class II molecules are heterodimers composed of two noncovalently associated transmembrane glycoproteins: the 34-kDa α chain and the 28kDa β chain (149). In the ER, CD74 trimerizes and associates with MHC class II α/β heterodimers, forming nonameric structures that facilitate proper protein folding and stabilization (147). CD74 and MHC class II interaction occurs through the class IIassociated invariant chain peptide (CLIP) segment, that binds to the peptide-binding groove of the MHC II complex (150). By occupying this groove, CD74 avoids premature peptide loading and protects the MHC II molecules from aggregation (151). Furthermore, CD74 facilitates the transport of the MHC II complex from the ER and guides it to the endosomal/lysosomal compartments via sorting signals in its cytoplasmic tail (152, 153). Within these compartments, CD74 undergoes proteolytic degradation, leaving behind the CLIP fragment (154). The chaperone human leukocyte antigen DM (HLA-DM), together with PH, subsequently facilitates CLIP release, allowing high-affinity, processed antigenic peptides to bind to MHC class II molecules (155). Finally, the peptide-loaded MHC class II complexes translocate to the cell surface, presenting the antigen to CD4+ T lymphocytes and initiating an immune response. Through these functions, CD74 ensures the effective presentation of pathogen-derived peptides by MHC II, contributing to adaptive immune surveillance and activation. Notably, CD74 can also participate in cross-presentation through the MHC class I pathway on DCs, contributing to MHC class I-induced cytolytic T lymphocyte (CTL) responses (156).

Beyond the chaperone function of CD74, the intracellular domain of CD74 (CD74-ICD) was discovered to be involved in various cellular processes, particularly in transcriptional regulation. The CD74-ICD is generated through a process called regulated intramembrane proteolysis (RIP), involving sequential proteolytic events (157). In antigen-processing compartments, CD74 undergoes cleavage by different proteases like

cathepsins, removing most of the luminal domain and creating a truncated, membrane-bound fragment (154, 158, 159). This fragment is further cleaved by intramembrane proteases (IMPs) within the transmembrane region, releasing the CD74-ICD into the cytoplasm (160). A specific member of the IMP family, known as signal-peptide-peptidase-like 2a (SPPL2a), has been demonstrated to be essential for executing this proteolytic event (161, 162). This liberated domain translocates to nuclear regions, engaging with transcription factors, including nuclear factor kappa B(NF-κB), to modulate gene expression and promote cellular survival (157, 163, 164)This proteolytic processing highlights the function of CD74 in antigen presentation and intracellular signaling, linking its chaperone activity to more extensive cellular roles.

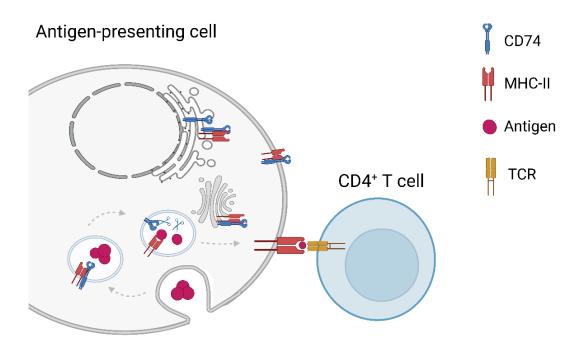


Figure 3. The role of CD74 in MHC II-antigen presentation. CD74 associates with MHC II  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  chains in the ER, aiding in their folding and dimer formation. Sorting signals in the N-terminus of CD74 facilitate its trafficking, either directly or via the plasma membrane. In the endosomal compartments, CD74 undergoes degradation, enabling MHC II to bind antigen-derived peptides for presentation. This graph was generated using BioRender (Created in BioRender. Bernhagen, L. (2025) https://BioRender.com/u47x538) and kindly provided by Dr. med. Adrian Hoffmann.

In 2003, CD74 was identified as the first receptor to exhibit high affinity for MIF (143). Upon binding to MIF, CD74 forms a complex with CD44, initiating downstream pathways, including NF-κB, mitogen-activated protein kinase/ERK (MAPK/ERK), and

phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B (PI3K/AKT) (165, 166). The CD74/CD44 complex has an essential role in various disease conditions. In rheumatoid arthritis, CD74 acts as a co-receptor with CD44 for MIF binding, promoting synovial fibroblast adhesion and migration. This interaction triggers inflammatory signaling pathways, contributing to joint inflammation and progressive damage (167, 168). In ischemic heart disease, the infarct region showed marked elevation of both MIF and the CD74/CD44 complex expression (169). Cardiomyocytes secrete MIF, which triggers cardioprotective effects through CD74/CD44-dependent AMPK (adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase) pathway activation, reducing both ischemic damage and apoptosis (170, 171). In atherosclerosis, the interaction of MIF to CD74/CD44 on macrophages facilitates the recruitment of inflammatory cells to the atherosclerotic plaques and enhances macrophage survival (165, 172, 173). Additionally, elevated serum levels of soluble CD74 (sCD74) have elevated during active disease phases compared to remission, indicating its role in RA activity (167). Similarly, plasma sCD74 also increases in COVID-19 patients (174). Furthermore, CD74 demonstrates increased expression across multiple tumor types, suggesting therapeutic potential (175). In addition, it has been speculated that MIF may facilitate the translocation of CD74-ICD to the nucleus, although this has not been conclusively demonstrated (164, 176). Moreover, extracellular MIF also binds to CD74 and forms a heterocomplex with co-receptors such as CXCR2, CXCR4, or CXCR7, facilitating its functional activity (126, 172, 177). Further details will be discussed in Chapters 1.2.2.2 and 1.2.2.3.

#### 1.2.2.2 CXCR2

CXCR2, a G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR), is encoded on chromosome 2. CXCR2 demonstrates broad cellular distribution across granulocyte and macrophage progenitors, tumor cells, and retinal glial cells (178-180). CXCR2 primarily binds to CXC chemokines such as CXCL8 (IL-8), along with other CXC motif chemokines like CXCL1-3 and CXCL5-7 (181). The binding of the ligand CXCL8 to CXCR2 involves the glutamic acid-leucine-arginine (ELR) motif and N loop (182). Furthermore, the interaction between CXCR2 and MIF has been confirmed through receptor binding and internalization assays, with a dissociation constant of 1.4 nanomolar (172). Similar to

CXCL8, MIF interacts with CXCR2 through a pseudo-(E) LR motif, formed by the residues R12 and D45, which together establish a three-dimensional ELR-like structure (183). Additionally, an N-like loop within the sequence spanning residues 47–56 further contributes to the functional MIF/CXCR2 binding (182).

The MIF/CXCR2 axis regulates crucial immunological processes, influencing cell adhesion, survival, and migration (172, 184, 185). Surface-associated MIF promotes monocyte arrest through CXCR2, which is further facilitated by CD74 (172, 186). This interaction contributes to inflammatory responses and the development of atherogenesis. Furthermore, blocking the MIF-CXCR2 interaction reduces monocyte adhesion and plaque formation in models of atherosclerosis (182). Additionally, CXCR2 supports MIF-induced arrest in Jurkat T cells, indicating its role in enhancing leukocyte sensitivity to MIF(185). In a PBMC-neutrophil coculture system, blocking CXCR2 on neutrophils prevented their survival when exposed to MIF-conditioned PBMC supernatants, while blocking CXCR2 on PBMCs abolished the inhibitory effect of their supernatants on neutrophil apoptosis (185). Moreover, the MIF/CXCR2 axis is also critical for the chemotactic migration of neutrophils towards inflammatory areas and tumor sites (185, 187).

#### 1.2.2.3 CXCR4

CXCR4 is also a member of the seven-span transmembrane GPCR family. It shows extensive distribution across Tfh cells, central memory CD4 T cells, memory B cells, hematopoietic progenitor cells, neurons, and cancer cells (188-192). This receptor regulates diverse physiological processes, including cancer progression, immune system regulation, and stem cell trafficking (193, 194). The CXCR4-CXCL12 axis is crucial as it influences cell migration, proliferation, and survival, making it a key therapeutic target (193). MIF engages CXCR4 distinctly from CXCL12, it does not interact with the transmembrane cavity of CXCR4; instead, it binds to the extracellular loops (EL1 and EL2) and the N-terminal region, functioning as a partial allosteric agonist (195). This distinct mode of engagement results in partial receptor activation, leading to different signaling outcomes compared to the CXCL12-CXCR4 interaction. For instance, MIF-CXCR4 binding promotes pro-atherogenic processes, such as atherosclerosis, whereas the CXCL12-CXCR4 axis is known to exert athero-protective effects (172, 196, 197). A novel strategy for targeting the MIF-CXCR4 axis in

atherosclerosis uses engineered peptides called msR4Ms, which are designed to effectively block the MIF-CXCR4 interaction without disrupting the beneficial or dichotomous signaling pathways elicited by CXCL12-CXCR4 and MIF-CD74 (198). A study using a mouse model of early atherosclerosis applied msR4M-L1, the current lead peptide of the msR4M class, which was found to be targeted to atherosclerotic plaques, effectively reducing arterial leukocyte adhesion and mitigating atherosclerosis (198). This offers a promising chemokine-targeted therapeutic intervention for atherosclerosis and possibly other inflammatory conditions. Moreover, CXCR4 serves as the dominant MIF receptor, driving mesenchymal stem cell migration and invasion via the MAPK pathway (199). Furthermore, CXCR4, in conjunction with CD74, facilitates MIF-induced migration of B cells via the ZAP-70 signaling (177). Additionally, CXCR4 forms a complex with CD74, as observed in HEK293 cells and monocytes. The CXCR4-CD74 complex functionally mediates MIFinduced Akt activation in T lymphocytes (200).

#### 1.2.2.4 CXCR7/ACKR3

CXCR7(ACKR3) is another member of the GPCR family. CXCR7 expression spans cardiac, neural, and immune tissues, influencing cardiovascular development, tumor progression, immune cell trafficking, and inflammation (201-204). CXCR7 serves as a receptor primarily for the chemokines CXCL11 and CXCL12 (205). Unlike classical chemokine receptors, CXCR7 does not engage G proteins to trigger typical intracellular signaling pathways. Instead, it functions mainly as a scavenger or decoy receptor for CXCL11 and CXCL12, modulating the activity of other chemokine receptors, such as CXCR4 (205-208). Furthermore, studies have identified CXCR7 as a novel receptor for MIF (209). Contrary to earlier findings, evidence indicates that MIF can directly interact with CXCR7. It has been demonstrated that MIF can induce the internalization of human CXCR7 independently of CXCR4. Furthermore, inhibition of CXCR7 resulted in the suppression of MIF-induced migration of mouse B cells (209). In platelets, MIF exerts a pro-survival function through binding with CXCR7, which activates the AKT signaling (202). In rhabdomyosarcoma, MIF secreted by tumor cells binds to CXCR7, enhancing cell adhesion and tumor vascularization while inhibiting the recruitment of cancer-associated fibroblasts (201). Moreover, CXCR7 was verified form complexes with CXCR4 and CD74 (209). This dual role suggests that MIF-CXCR7 interaction is significant in tumor microenvironment modulation.

### 1.2.3 Non-mammalian MIF family proteins

The MDL protein family exhibits remarkable evolutionary conservation across diverse species. Beyond mammals, these proteins appear in numerous organisms, including fish, parasites, and even plants (210-212). In the plant kingdom, MDL expression has been observed in Arabidopsis thaliana, which is the focus of my thesis. MIF is a highly conserved protein, and recombinant Arabidopsis MDLs (AtMDLs) share 28-33% sequence identity and similar secondary structure with human MIF (HsMIF). In Arabidopsis, three MDL genes produce the proteins AtMDL1, AtMDL2, and AtMDL3, which retain minimal residual tautomerase activity compared to MIF (213, 214). AtMDL1 and AtMDL2 are localized in cytoplasmic regions, while AtMDL3 is found in peroxisomal spaces (215). AtMDLs not only bind to CD74, a known receptor for MIF, but also interact with CXCR4, triggering PI3K/Akt signaling cascades. Additionally, AtMDLs prompted human monocytes and T cells chemotaxis in a dose-dependent manner, further highlighting their functional similarities to human MIF (214). However, the underlying mechanisms of these interactions and their function on neutrophils remained unclear. It is also unknown whether AtMDLs interact with other known MIF receptors, and further research is necessary to clarify these interactions and their potential biological significance. Additionally, there is growing interest in understanding how MDL and hsMIF interact and exploring the functional roles of the MDL/hsMIF complex.

## 1.3 MIF family proteins in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells

Initially discovered as a factor released by activated T lymphocytes, MIF expression occurs across Th0, Th1 and Th2 cells (11, 115, 125, 216). A research from 1996 using antibodies that neutralize MIF has demonstrated its crucial role in T-cell activation processes(216). Effective T-cell activation relies on three signals: antigen recognition via the TCR, co-stimulatory input from APCs, and cytokines that guide differentiation and promote cell expansion (127). APCs enhance CD4+ T-cell responses by presenting antigens via MHC class II. MIF exhibits dual regulatory functions in CD4+ T-cell activation during different conditions. In *vitro* studies show that MIF downregulates MHC

II levels in endothelial cells and macrophages, while upregulating co-stimulatory molecules (B7-2, CD40L and CD40) on astrocytoma cells and B cells (217). In *Schistosoma mansoni*-infected mice, MIF upregulated B7-1 on B cells alongside CD40L on T cells in the spleen (217). Conversely, MIF-deficient models of type 1 diabetes mellitus showed reduced levels of co-stimulatory molecules (CD80, CD86, and CD40) and MHC II on splenic macrophages and DCs, as along with decreased expression of TLR2 and TLR4 (218). Additionally, further research has shown that MIF enables CD4+T lymphocytes to mediate activation via TLR4 signaling (219).

Beyond activation, MIF influences CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell differentiation. MIF can enhance Th1 and Th2 cytokine production (220-222). Moreover, in MIF-deficient colon carcinoma mice, there are fewer Tregs (both CD4+Tregs and CD8+Tregs) in the spleen, as MIF facilitates Treg development by modulating IL-2 production (223). On the contrary, the absence of MIF facilitated Treg accumulation in visceral adipose tissue (224). In healthy subjects, MIF-treated PBMCs induced a clear increase in the Th17 cytokine profile, which are IL-17A, IL-17F and IL-21 (225). In patients suffering from HIV infection, MIF-CD74 interactions in monocyte-derived macrophages impact CD4+ T-cell populations, leading to an increase in Th17-like cells and thereby continuing to shape immune responses (226). In Hashimoto's thyroiditis, MIF promotes Th17 cell differentiation via the NF-kB pathway and enhances herpes virus entry mediator (HVEM) expression (227). In cancer, particularly nasopharyngeal carcinoma, MIF drives both the development and mobility of Th17 lymphocytes through mechanisms dependent on MIF-CXCR4 axis and reliant on the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) pathway (228). Taken together, these findings highlight MIF's multifaceted regulatory functions in CD4+ T cell activation, differentiation, and immune response modulation across a range of physiological and pathological conditions.

Naive and memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes both display the MIF receptor CXCR4 (229, 230). CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell activation lead to a downregulation in surface CXCR4, partly due to receptor internalization (230). Functionally, CXCR4 facilitates HIV-1 entry, and its downregulation upon activation helps restrict the spread of X4 HIV by limiting viral access to CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (230-232). Additionally, CXCR4 mediates T-cell migration through ZAP-70 signaling (233). On the contrary, CD74 was only descriptively described as expressing on CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, and its function as a MIF receptor in

T cells has remained poorly defined (174, 234, 235). The underlying receptor-related mechanisms activated by MIF in human T cells are still inadequately understood, highlighting a gap in current knowledge that requires further investigation.

### 1.4 MIF in acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS)

ARDS can cause severe pulmonary inflammation, leading to considerable morbidity, mortality, and substantial healthcare expenditures (236). The LUNG-SAFE study reports that ARDS affects 10% of intensive care unit (ICU) patients, and 23% of them require mechanical ventilation (237). The COVID-19 pandemic has highlighted the critical necessity for effective treatments for ARDS, as severe cases of COVID-19 frequently lead to ARDS development. As of October 27, 2024, there have been 776,754,317 confirmed global cases of COVID-19, including 7,073,466 fatalities, with infection cases continuing to escalate. In a study of 201 patients with SARS-CoV-2 infection, 41.8% developed ARDS, and 26.4% required intensive care (238). COVID-19 patients exhibit a sustained reduction in CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, with CD8+ T cell counts gradually increasing after six weeks of hospitalization (238-241). Additionally, T-helper cell subsets exhibit shifts in proportion, with a reduced ratio of Th1 cells, an elevated ratio in Th2 cells, and no significant change in Th17 cells compared to healthy individuals (239). Neutrophils are strongly related to the development and progression of ARDS (242). In patients with COVID-19, raised levels of neutrophils and a higher neutrophil/lymphocyte ratio in the blood linked to increased mortality (238, 243, 244). Accumulating evidence has identified MIF as a crucial mediator in the pathogenesis of both ARDS and COVID-19 (120, 245-247). However, MIF receptors expression profiles on immune cells, particularly on CD4+ T cells and neutrophils, remain inadequately characterized in the context of ARDS. Importantly, the precise functional roles and mechanistic actions of MIF and its receptors on CD4+T cells and neutrophils during ARDS pathogenesis require further elucidation.

## 2. Own contribution to the publications

This cumulative thesis is built on two publications that investigate different aspects of the interactions between MIF-family proteins and the CD4+T cell network. In this chapter, a comprehensive overview of my contributions to these studies will be presented.

#### 2.1 Publication I: Zhang, L. et al, 2024

#### CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4+ T cells

**Zhang, L.\***, Woltering, I.\*, Holzner, M., Brandhofer, M., Schaefer, C. C., Bushati, G., Ebert, S., Yang, B., Muenchhoff, M., Hellmuth, J. C., Scherer, C., Wichmann, C., Effinger, D., Hübner, M., El Bounkari, O., Scheiermann, P., Bernhagen, J., and Hoffmann, A. (2024) CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4(+) T cells. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **81**, 296

(\*: Lin Zhang and Iris Woltering are credited as co-first authors due to their equal contributions.)

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In this article (refer to Section 5 and Subsection 7.1 for supplementary data), the MIF receptor network during T-cell activation is characterized. We identified CD74 functions as a novel MIF receptor and activation marker without MHC II molecule dependence for primary human CD4+ T cells. As a joint first author, I conducted key experiments, analyzed and visualized the data, and revised the manuscript.

Specifically, I made significant contributions to the experiments investigating the roles of CD74 and CXCR4 in the chemotaxis of MIF-facilitated CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells. Our findings established the functional involvement of both receptors in MIF-driven migration, as shown by the complete abrogation of this process when using the AMD3100 (CXCR4 inhibitor) and LN2 (CD74-neutralizing antibody). These results indicated that MIF-induced chemotaxis in activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells is mediated through a coordinated mechanism involving CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplex formation or synergistic/converging significant contributions to the experiments investigating the roles of CD74 and CXCR4 in the chemotaxis of MIF-facilitated CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells. Our findings established the functional involvement of both receptors in MIF-driven migration, as

naling pathways. Using proximity ligation techniques, I observed CD74/CXCR4 complexes in activated CD4+ T cells. The experiment demonstrated a dramatic decrease in proximity ligation assay (PLA) signals following MIF stimulation, indicating that MIF induces internalization of these receptor complexes during signal transduction, a previously undocumented phenomenon in activated T cells. Additionally, I conducted experiments that demonstrated enhanced CD74 presence on T cells (CD4+ and CD8+ T cells) and classical monocytes (CD14++CD16-) from severe COVID-19 patients versus mild cases, pointing to CD74's potential role in disease severity. In summary, I significantly contributed to Figures 5, 6, Supplementary Figures 2, 4, and 5. I was also involved in experiments related to MIF receptor expression on the surface and intracellular levels, verifying CD74 localization in CD4+ T cells. Thus, I also partially contributed to Figures 1, 2, and Supplementary Figure 1. Additionally, I performed revision experiments for the paper.

For data analysis and interpretation, I consolidated and analyzed the data, presenting the results in graphical form. Regarding the manuscript, I prepared all figures, reviewed, and edited the final version, ensuring clarity and accuracy in the presentation of our findings.

#### 2.2 Publication II: Spiller, L. et al, 2023

Plant MDL proteins synergize with the cytokine MIF at CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptors in human cells.

Spiller, L., Manjula, R., Leissing, F., Basquin, J., Bourilhon, P., Sinitski, D., Brandhofer, M., Levecque, S., Gerra, S., Sabelleck, B., **Zhang, L**., Feederle, R., Flatley, A., Hoffmann, A., Panstruga, R., Bernhagen, J., and Lolis, E. (2023) Plant MDL proteins synergize with the cytokine MIF at CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptors in human cells. *Sci Signal* **16**, eadg2621

DOI: 10.1126/scisignal. adg2621.

In this article (refer to Section 6 and Subsection 7.2 for supplementary data), I contributed to the revision phase of the manuscript. I examined the inhibitory impacts of MIF

and MDL1 on the chemotactic migration of human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Results showed the combination of MIF and MDL1 exhibits distinct functions compared to either molecule alone, providing new perspectives on their impact on lymphocytes. Additionally, I further validated the synergistic effect of MIF and MDL1 in promoting inflammation-related gene expression in A549 (human lung epithelial cells) in a dose-responsive manner, offering insights into their combined role in inflammation. I also contributed to the establishment of the 3D neutrophil migration experimental set-up.

## 3. Summary

The first part of this cumulative thesis (corresponding to the study by Zhang, L. et al, *Cell Mol Life Sci* 2024) examined the MIF receptors functionality in CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes, with an emphasis on CD74. While traditionally recognized for its involvement in antigen presentation via MHC II molecules on APCs, CD74 has surprisingly been detected on CD4+ T lymphocytes (174, 234, 235). The investigation in my thesis aimed to clarify the functional capabilities of MIF receptor CD74 on CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells and to elucidate the regulatory mechanisms governing its expression, addressing a novel and unanticipated aspect of T cell biology.

Investigations uncovered distinctive patterns of MIF receptor distribution between quiescent and stimulated CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes. In their resting state, these cells exhibited minimal extracellular expression of CXCR2, ACKR3 and CD74, while CXCR4 appeared abundantly on approximately 90% of cellular surfaces. Upon activation of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, CD74 surface expression increased significantly, whereas CXCR4 expression declined. Notably, the upregulation of CD74 was independent of HLA-DR, indicating that CD74 functioned independently of MHC class II on CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes. Further investigations showed that CD74 was primarily localized intracellularly in both resting and activated states, mirroring the expression pattern observed on the cell surface. Transcriptomic and proteomic analyses supported these findings, providing the first comprehensive report on MIF receptor distribution on CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells across different states.

Additionally, the study revealed CD74 presence within ER and endolysosomal compartments, a distribution similar to that in B cells. Upon activation, CD74 underwent post-translational modification with CS, resulting in a new 55 kDa isoform. Previous studies have shown that CD74-CS rapidly translocated to the cell surface, subsequently undergoing immediate endocytosis, leading to its low surface detectability- a finding consistent with this study's observation of minimal surface CD74 in CD4+ T lymphocytes.

Moreover, the study showed CD74 form complexes with CXCR4 upon CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells activation. MIF stimulation reduced surface presence of these heterocomplexes, indicating MIF-induced internalization. These complexes also enhanced the MIF-induced

migration of stimulated CD4<sup>+</sup> T lymphocytes, underscoring the significance of MIF-CD74/CXCR4 signaling in lymphocyte functions.

Furthermore, analysis of a COVID-19 study uncovered that heightened CD74 expression on CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells during severe disease progression compared to mild cases. Notably, CXCR4 or HLA-DR remained constant between the groups, reinforcing that CD74 functions independently of MHC class II in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, even under infection conditions. These results positioned CD74 as a potential biomarker for assessing disease severity and as a promising target for therapeutic intervention in inflammation-driven disease.

The latter portion (corresponding to parts of the study by Spiller, L. et al, Sci Signal 2023) examined interactions between human MIF and plant-derived MDL proteins from the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*. High-resolution crystallographic analysis elucidation of the structure of all three MDL proteins at high resolution. The research also demonstrated that MDLs, despite evolutionary divergence, maintained structural similarities to mammalian MIF, allowing them to engage with human MIF receptors, specifically CXCR2 and CXCR4. Experimental findings showed that MDL1 and MDL2 from *Arabidopsis* bind to these receptors and could enhance immune signaling responses in human cells, particularly through hetero-oligomeric complexes with human MIF.

These complexes showed synergistic effects, promoting cellular responses such as chemotaxis in neutrophils and inflammatory gene expression in pulmonary epithelial cells. The study highlighted the evolutionary conservation in MIF-like proteins and proposed potential implications for human exposure to plant MDLs through dietary or environmental pathways.

## 4. Zusammenfassung

Der erste Teil dieser kumulativen Dissertation (entsprechend der Studie von Zhang et al., Cell Mol Life Sci 2024) untersuchte die Rolle von MIF-Rezeptoren in CD4+-T-Zellen mit einem Schwerpunkt auf der Charakterisierung von CD74. Historisch war CD74 für seine Funktion in der MHC-II-vermittelten Antigenpräsentation auf Antigenpräsentierenden Zellen (APCs) bekannt. Neuere Studien zeigten jedoch eine unerwartete Expression von CD74 auf CD4+-T-Zellen (174, 234, 235). Ziel dieser Arbeit war es, die funktionelle Relevanz des MIF-Rezeptors CD74 in CD4+-T-Zellen sowie die zugrunde liegenden Regulationsmechanismen seiner Expression zu untersuchen und damit einen neuen, unerwarteten Aspekt der T-Zell-Biologie aufzuzeigen.

Die Ergebnisse zeigten distinkte Expressionsmuster der MIF-Rezeptoren auf CD4+-T-Zellen in nicht aktivierten und aktivierten Zuständen. In nicht aktivierten CD4+-T-Zellen zeigten CD74, CXCR2 und ACKR3 eine minimale Oberflächenexpression, während CXCR4 mit etwa 90 % stark auf der Zelloberfläche exprimiert wurde. Nach Aktivierung der CD4+-T-Zellen nahm die Oberflächenexpression von CD74 signifikant zu, während die von CXCR4 abnahm. Bemerkenswert war, dass die Hochregulation von CD74 unabhängig von HLA-DR erfolgte, was darauf hinweist, dass CD74 unabhängig von MHC-II auf CD4+-T-Zellen exprimiert wird. Weitere Untersuchungen zeigten, dass CD74 sowohl in nicht aktivierten als auch in aktivierten Zuständen vorwiegend intrazellulär lokalisiert war. Reanalysen von bereits veröffentlichten Transkriptom- und Proteom-Datensätzen bestätigten diese Befunde und lieferten erstmals einen umfassenden Überblick über die Expression von MIF-Rezeptoren auf CD4+-T-Zellen in unterschiedlichen Aktivierungs- und Differenzierungszuständen. Zusätzlich wurde CD74 an seiner typischen Lokalisation im endoplasmatischen Retikulum und in endolysosomalen Kompartimenten nachgewiesen. Nach Aktivierung wurde eine posttranslationale Modifikation mit Chondroitinsulfat (CS) identifiziert, die zu einer neuen 55-kDa-Isoform führte. Frühere Studien zeigten, dass CD74-CS schnell zur Zelloberfläche transloziert wird, gefolgt von einer sofortigen Endozytose. Diese Befunde stimmen mit der in dieser Arbeit beobachteten niedrigen Oberflächenexpression von CD74 in CD4+-T-Zellen überein.

Die Arbeit zeigte zudem, dass CD74 auf aktivierten CD4+-T-Zellen einen Komplex mit CXCR4 bilden kann. Nach Stimulation mit MIF nahm die Präsenz des CD74/CXCR4-Heterokomplexes auf der Zelloberfläche ab, was darauf hinweist, dass MIF die Internalisierung des CD74/CXCR4-Komplexes vermittelt. Zudem wurde die funktionelle Rolle der MIF-CD74/CXCR4-Achse bei der MIF-induzierten T-Zell-Migration nachgewiesen.

Darüber hinaus zeigte die Analyse einer COVID-19-Patientenkohorte, dass die CD74-Expression auf CD4+- und CD8+-T-Zellen bei Patienten mit schwerem COVID-19 im Vergleich zu milderen Verläufen signifikant erhöht war. Dies deutet auf einen Zusammenhang zwischen CD74-Expression und der Schwere der Immunantwort bei COVID-19 hin. Bemerkenswerterweise gab es keine Unterschiede in der Expression von CXCR4 oder HLA-DR zwischen den Gruppen, was erneut die MHC-IIauf unabhängige **Funktion** von CD74 CD4+-T-Zellen selbst Entzündungsbedingungen bestätigt. Diese Ergebnisse positionieren CD74 als zur potenziellen Biomarker Bewertung der Krankheitschwere als vielversprechendes therapeutische Ziel für Interventionen bei entzündungsgetriebenen Erkrankungen.

Der zweite Teil dieser Dissertation (entsprechend Teilen der Studie von Spiller et al., Sci Signal 2023) untersuchte die Interaktionen zwischen humanem MIF und MIFähnlichen Proteinen (MDL) aus der Modellpflanze Arabidopsis thaliana. Diese Arbeit umfasste die röntgenkristallographische Aufklärung der Struktur aller drei MDL-Proteine und belegte, dass MDLs trotz evolutionärer Divergenz strukturelle Ähnlichkeiten humanem MIF aufweisen, ihre mit was Interaktion mit menschlichen MIF-Rezeptoren, insbesondere CXCR2 und CXCR4, ermöglicht. Experimentelle Befunde zeigten, dass MDL1 und MDL2 aus Arabidopsis an diese MIF-Rezeptoren binden und die Immunantwort in menschlichen Zellen durch heterooligomere Komplexe mit humanem MIF verstärken können. MIF/MDL-Komplexe zeigten synergistische Effekte auf zelluläre Reaktionen wie Chemotaxis in Neutrophilen und die Expression entzündungsfördernder Gene in Lungenepithelzellen. Die Studie hob die evolutionäre Konservierung von MIFähnlichen Proteinen hervor und diskutierte mögliche Implikationen für den menschlichen Kontakt mit pflanzlichen MDLs über Ernährung oder Umwelt.

## 5. Publication I: Zhang, L. et al, 2024

## CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4+ T cells

**Zhang, L**.\*, Woltering, I.\*, Holzner, M., Brandhofer, M., Schaefer, C. C., Bushati, G., Ebert, S., Yang, B., Muenchhoff, M., Hellmuth, J. C., Scherer, C., Wichmann, C., Effinger, D., Hübner, M., El Bounkari, O., Scheiermann, P., Bernhagen, J., and Hoffmann, A. (2024) CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4(+) T cells. *Cell Mol Life Sci* **81**, 296

(\*: Lin Zhang and Iris Woltering equally contributing first authors.)

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Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences

#### **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**



### CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells

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#### **Abstract**

Next to its classical role in MHC II-mediated antigen presentation, CD74 was identified as a high-affinity receptor for macrophage migration inhibitory factor (MIF), a pleiotropic cytokine and major determinant of various acute and chronic inflammatory conditions, cardiovascular diseases and cancer. Recent evidence suggests that CD74 is expressed in T cells, but the functional relevance of this observation is poorly understood. Here, we characterized the regulation of CD74 expression and that of the MIF chemokine receptors during activation of human CD4+ T cells and studied links to MIF-induced T-cell migration, function, and COVID-19 disease stage. MIF receptor profiling of resting primary human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells via flow cytometry revealed high surface expression of CXCR4, while CD74, CXCR2 and ACKR3/CXCR7 were not measurably expressed. However, CD4+ T cells constitutively expressed CD74 intracellularly, which upon T-cell activation was significantly upregulated, post-translationally modified by chondroitin sulfate and could be detected on the cell surface, as determined by flow cytometry, Western blot, immunohistochemistry, and re-analysis of available RNA-sequencing and proteomic data sets. Applying 3D-matrix-based live cell-imaging and receptor pathway-specific inhibitors, we determined a causal involvement of CD74 and CXCR4 in MIF-induced CD4+ T-cell migration. Mechanistically, proximity ligation assay visualized CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplexes on activated CD4+ T cells, which were significantly diminished after MIF treatment, pointing towards a MIF-mediated internalization process. Lastly, in a cohort of 30 COVID-19 patients, CD74 surface expression was found to be significantly upregulated on CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in patients with severe compared to patients with only mild disease course. Together, our study characterizes the MIF receptor network in the course of T-cell activation and reveals CD74 as a novel functional MIF receptor and MHC II-independent activation marker of primary human CD4+ T cells.

Keywords CD74/invariant chain · Macrophage migration inhibitory factor · MIF · T cells · Atypical chemokine · CXCR4

#### Introduction

Published online: 11 July 2024

CD74, also known as major histocompatibility complex class II (MHC II) invariant chain (Ii), is a type II transmembrane glycoprotein that plays a crucial role in MHC II-mediated antigen presentation mainly by acting as a class II chaperone [1]. Accordingly, CD74 expression is seen in antigen-presenting B cells, monocytes/macrophages, and dendritic cells. Beyond this canonical function, CD74 was discovered as a high affinity receptor for the cytokine and atypical chemokine MIF that has emerged as an upstream

regulatory and inflammatory mediator in the pathogenesis of various cardiovascular, infectious, autoimmune and cancerous diseases [2–5]. Next to CD74, the currently known MIF receptors comprise the classical chemokine receptors CXCR2, CXCR4 and ACKR3/CXCR7. These are found to a varying degree on nearly all leukocyte subsets enabling MIF to shape the local immune cell profile in inflamed tissues [3, 4, 6–8]. In-depth investigations of the underlying molecular mechanisms including the detailed characterization of ligand/receptor interactions not only placed MIF in this complex ligand/receptor network, but also enabled the development of various MIF-targeted treatment strategies [9, 10].

Lin Zhang and Iris Woltering equally contributing first authors.

Extended author information available on the last page of the article



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MIF-mediated signaling via CD74 has been shown to be dependent on receptor complex formation with CD44, CXCR2, CXCR4 and ACKR3/CXCR7, inducing downstream phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/protein kinase B (PI3K/Akt), adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase (AMPK), nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB), calcium signaling, and extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) pathways [4, 8, 11, 12]. Thereby, CD74 is critically involved in MIF-driven immune cell recruitment and activation of a variety of cellular responses, including cell proliferation and cell metabolism that have been found to play a role in cancer, metabolic and ischemic heart disease [4, 5, 13–17].

In T cells, MIF was previously shown to be secreted upon activation and to influence key immunological processes such as migration, proliferation, apoptosis and to promote a Th17-phenotype [18-24]. MIF-receptor pathways have been amply studied in numerous cell types, but despite its first description as a soluble T cell-derived mediator more than 50 years ago, our current understanding of the receptor mechanisms triggered by MIF in human T cells is still incomplete [25]. In particular, with only very few incidental descriptive reports on CD74 expression in human T cells available, the role of CD74 receptor activity in T cells is unclear. In fact, although CD74 upregulation in the context of inflammation and cell stress has previously been observed in MHC II-negative cell types such as endothelial cells, cancer cells, or cardiomyocytes, the occurrence of CD74 in T cells is surprising, as T cells, which are MHC class II-negative themselves, are best known for their role in MHC-based peptide recognition from MHC-II<sup>+</sup> antigenpresenting immune cells [21, 26–28]. Therefore, this study aimed to characterize the regulation of CD74 and its relevance for MIF-mediated functions in human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in the course of T-cell activation, with CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells representing the cornerstone of the adaptive immune system by mediating immune homeostasis, antigen-recognition, self-tolerance and immunological memory. CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell activation occurs through binding of the T-cell receptor (TCR) to an MHC II-bound antigen in the presence of costimulatory signals and represents the crucial mechanism by which T cells respond to foreign or endogenous antigens and differentiate into effector T cells [29].

Here, we provide evidence that CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells constitutively express CD74 intracellularly, which upon T-cell activation, is significantly and rapidly upregulated, post-translationally modified by chondroitin sulfate (CS) and translocated to the cell surface to fulfil its function as MIF receptor. By exploiting flow cytometry, Western blot (WB), immunohistochemistry, and re-analysis of published RNA-sequencing (RNAseq) and proteomic data sets, our study identified CD74 as a novel activation marker of T cells that is regulated independent of MHC II. Functional studies revealed a significant involvement of both CD74

and CXCR4 in MIF-elicited CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell chemotaxis. Proximity ligation assay (PLA) visualized CD74/CXCR4 complexes on activated T cells, which are internalized upon MIF-treatment.

With accumulating evidence pointing towards a critical role of MIF as a prognostic marker to predict disease severity and patient outcome in COVID-19 and observations of an impaired T cell response during Sars-CoV-2 infections often displayed by sustained T-cell activation, we aimed to confirm the translational relevance of our findings in the context of COVID-19 [30–32]. In a patient cohort of 30 patients with mild and severe COVID-19, we observed a significant upregulation of CD74 surface expression on CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in patients with severe (WHO grade  $\geq$  5) compared to patients with only mild disease (WHO grade 1–3), which was accompanied by CD74 upregulation on classical monocytes. Together, our data characterize CD74 as a relevant MHC II-independent functional MIF-receptor in activated human T cells.

#### Materials and methods

#### **Proteins and reagents**

Biologically active and endotoxin-free recombinant human MIF was prepared as previously described [9, 33]. Briefly, recombinant MIF was obtained by expression in the pET11b/E. coli BL21/DE3 system, followed by recovery of the supernatant of the bacterial lysate, centrifugation, filtration, purification by Mono Q anion exchange and C8 reverse-phase chromatography, as well as dialysis-based renaturation. The protein as purified by this procedure is essentially endotoxin-free (<10–15 pg/μg) and exhibits a purity grade of ~98% as determined by SDS/PAGE/silver staining [9, 33].

### Isolation of human peripheral blood-derived leukocyte subsets

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated by density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll-Paque Plus (GE Healthcare, Freiburg, Germany) from peripheral blood (1:3 mixture with PBS) that was collected in conical chambers of a Leukoreduction System (LRS) during thrombocyte apheresis of anonymous and healthy thrombocyte donors at the Division of Transfusion Medicine, Cell Therapeutics and Haemostaseology of the LMU University Hospital. Red blood cells (RBCs) were lysed using RBC lysis buffer (BioLegend, San Diego, USA) for 3 min at room temperature (RT). Subsequently, cells were washed with RPMI 1640 media (Gibco, Karlsruhe, Germany) and supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum



(FBS). Human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells were isolated by negative depletion from the enriched PBMC fraction using the human CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell isolation kit from Miltenyi Biotec (Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The purity of isolated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells was analyzed by flow cytometry using anti-CD3 and anti-CD4 antibodies and estimated to be 95–98% (Supp. Fig. 1A).

Human neutrophilic granulocytes were isolated from blood that was obtained from healthy human volunteers with informed consent by dextran sedimentation followed by a density gradient centrifugation using FicoII-Paque Plus. Cells were cultivated in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin in a cell culture incubator at 37 °C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Studies abide by the Declaration of Helsinki principles and were approved by ethics approvals 18-104 and 23-0639 of the Ethics Committee of LMU Munich, which encompasses the use of anonymized tissue and blood specimens for research purposes.

#### **Analysis of human COVID-19 clinical specimens**

PBMCs that were purified by density centrifugation (Histopaque 1077 from Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) from 30 patients with PCR-verified COVID-19 infection were obtained from the COVID-19 Registry of the LMU University Hospital Munich (CORKUM, WHO trial ID DRKS00021225). The study was approved by the local ethical committee of the University Hospital (project numbers: 20-245 and 23-0711) and was conducted according to the Guidelines of the World Medical Association Declaration of Helsinki. All patients provided informed consent. Baseline information like age, gender and laboratory status was provided. Patients were classified according to ordinal scale for clinical improvement of COVID-19 infection reported by the WHO (Blueprint W. Novel Coronavirus. COVID-19 Therapeutic Trial Synopsis. 2020. https://www.who.int/blueprint/priority-diseases/keyaction/COVID-19\_Treatment\_Trial\_Design\_Master\_Proto col\_synopsis\_Final\_18022020pdf (accessed on 5 February 2021) [Internet] Available from: https://bsitd.com.bd/wpcontent/uploads/2020/06/7\_an-international-randomisedtrial-of-candidate-vaccines-against-covid-19.pdf.) and grouped into two sub-cohorts based on disease severity in mild (18 patients, WHO grade I-III, mean age of 59.39 years  $\pm$  18.24 years, 5 female and 13 male patients) and severe disease (12 patients, WHO grade ≥ V, mean age of  $67.50 \text{ years} \pm 11.26 \text{ years}$ , 4 female and 8 male patients). Due to heterogeneity of available time-points for each patient, we chose the time-point closest to admission to the hospital. Using inflammation markers C-reactive protein (CRP) and Interleukin 6 (IL-6), we identified the inflammation peak for each patient, defined as the highest measured CRP or IL-6 value. Human CD3<sup>+</sup> T cells were isolated by positive depletion from the enriched PBMC fraction using CD3<sup>+</sup> microbeads from Miltenyi Biotec (Bergisch Gladbach, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. CXCR4 and CD74 expression was determined in CD3<sup>+</sup>-selected cells that were further characterized by CD4, CD8, and HLA-DR surface expression and CD3<sup>-</sup>-selected cells after identification of monocyte subpopulations by CD14, CD16 and HLA-DR surface expression as described by Marimuthu et al. via flow cytometry using a FACS Canto II (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, USA). Quantification was performed using FlowJo V10 software, version 10.2 (Tree Star, Ashland, USA). (Supp. Figure 1B and 1C, Supp. Table 1) [34].

### In vitro activation of peripheral blood-derived CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells

When indicated, purified CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells were cultivated and in vitro-activated using anti-CD3/CD28-coated magnetic beads (Dynabeads<sup>TM</sup> Human T Activator, ThermoFisher, Waltham, USA) for different time periods according to the manufacturer's protocol with a bead to cell ratio of 1:1.5 for flow cytometry experiments and 1:4 for WB, immunohistochemistry and functional studies. For following experiments, the activation beads were removed using magnetic separation.

#### Flow cytometry

The cell surface expression of immune cell markers or MIF receptors was analyzed by flow cytometry using antibodies directed against CD3, CD4, CD8, CD45RO/RA, CD74, CXCR4 or HLA-DR (details in Supp. Table 1). In brief, 2×10<sup>5</sup> cells were washed three times with ice-cold PBS supplemented with 0.5% BSA and then incubated with the above-mentioned antibodies for 1 h at 4 °C in the dark. For intracellular staining, cells were fixed and permeabilized using intracellular fixation and permeabilization buffer (ThermoFisher). After incubation, cells were washed thoroughly and analyzed using a BD FACSVerse<sup>™</sup> (BD Biosciences). Quantification was performed using FlowJo V10 software, version 10.2 (Tree Star).

#### **SDS-PAGE and Western blot**

For WB analysis, cells were washed three times with PBS and resuspended in Pierce<sup>TM</sup> RIPA lysis and extraction buffer (ThermoFisher). Protein concentrations of the according cell lysates were determined using the Pierce<sup>TM</sup> BCA protein assay kit (ThermoFisher) and an EnSpire plate reader (PerkinElmer, Waltham, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Samples were diluted in LDS



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sample buffer (NuPAGE, ThermoFisher), boiled at 95°C for 15 min and equal amounts of protein were loaded onto 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels (NuPAGE, ThermoFisher) and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany). The CozyHi prestained protein ladder (highqu, Kraichtal, Germany) was used as a protein size marker. For antigen detection, membranes were blocked in PBS-Tween-20 containing 5% BSA (Roth) for 1 h and subsequently incubated overnight at 4 °C with the primary antibodies anti-β-actin (sc-47778, 1:1000, Santa Cruz, Dallas, Texas, USA) or anti-CD74 (LN1, 555317, 1:500, BD Biosciences) diluted in blocking buffer. On the next day, membranes were washed and incubated with the HRP-linked secondary antibody goat anti-mouse IgG2a (ab97245, abcam, Cambridge, UK) or goat anti-rat IgG (HAF005, R&D Systems, Minneapolis, USA). To reveal protein content, signals were detected by chemiluminescence on an Odyssey® Fc Imager (LI-COR Biosciences GmbH, Bad Homburg, Germany) using SuperSignal™ West Dura ECL substrate (ThermoFisher).

#### **Chondroitinase treatment**

To specifically cleave CS modifications of protein in 72 h-activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, cells were washed with PBS and resuspended in chondroitinase buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 8.0, 50 mM sodium acetate). Cells were lysed by 5 min of sonication in a water bath (Elmasonic S 40, Elma Schmidbauer GmbH, Singen, Germany), followed by brief homogenization using steel beads in a bead mill at 50 Hz (TissueLyser LT, QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). To cleave CS from proteins, chondroitinase ABC from *Proteus vulgaris* (Sigma-Aldrich / Merck KgaA, Darmstadt, Germany) was added to a concentration of 0.6 U/ml. Samples were incubated for 2 h at the enzyme's temperature optimum of 37°C and directly prepared for analysis via SDS-PAGE and WB.

#### Re-analysis of RNA-seq and mass spectrometry datasets

For analysis of mRNA expression levels, single cell RNA-seq data published by Szabo et al. were re-analyzed [35]. The data is publicly available on the gene expression omnibus (GEO) with Accession Number GSE126030. Plots were generated using the Single Cell Expression Atlas of the European Bioinformatics Institute (EBI) of the European Molecular Biology Laboratory (EMBL) (https://www.ebi.ac. uk/gxa/sc/experiments/E-HCAD-8/results/tsne, last visited 20th of December, 2023). Secondly, a bulk-RNAseq data set together with the according proteomic data as recently published by Cano-Gamez et al. was re-analyzed [28]. The RNAseq raw data were accessed via the Open Targets

website (https://www.opentargets.org/projects/effectorne ss). Differential gene expression (DEG) analysis between the conditions was performed using R version 4.3.2 and the DESeq2 package [36]. Subsequently, differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were visualized using an EnhancedVolcano plot and ggplot2 [37, 38]. The full analysis code is published on GitHub (https://github.com/SimonE1220/CD74Tcelld iff). The available proteomic raw data were accessed via the Proteomics Identifications Database (PRIDE) under the accession number PXD015315 and analyzed using the Thermo Scientific Proteome Discoverer Software (Version 3.1.1.93). Additionally, proteomic data of resting and activated naive and memory CD4+ T cells published by Wolf et al. were re-analyzed [39]. The data-set is publicly accessible in the GEO with Accession Number GSE147229 and GSE146787 or via www.immunomics.ch (last visited 7th of December, 2023). Re-analysis was performed regarding protein abundance, protein renewal and protein degradation experiments. Graphs were generated using the annotation provided by the author.

## Database investigation to evaluate transcriptional CD74 gene regulation

Potential transcription factor binding sites at a maximum distance of 500 base pairs (bp) from the *CD74* gene locus were identified in the Gene Transcription Regulation Database (GTRD) http://gtrd2006.biouml.org/bioumlweb/#de=databases/EnsemblHuman85\_38/Sequences/chromosomes%20GRCh38&pos=5:150400041-150514325, last visited on the 25th of May 2024) [40]. The PathwayNet database (https://pathwaynet.princeton.edu/predictions/gene/?network=human-transcriptional-regulation&gene=15273, last visited on the 25th of May 2024) and the STRING network analysis tool (https://string-db.org/cgi/network?taskId=bVkIIE1RJOb3&sessionId=b4C13zpxyaPE, last visited on the 25th of May 2024) were used to identify relevant and MHC II-independent CD74 transcriptional regulation [41, 42].

## 3D migration of human peripheral blood-derived CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells by time-lapse microscopy

The three-dimensional (3D) migration behavior of 72 h-activated human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells was assessed by time-lapse microscopy and individual cell tracking using the chemotaxis  $\mu$ -Slide system from Ibidi GmbH (Munich, Germany). Briefly, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (4×10<sup>6</sup> cells) were seeded in rat tail collagen type I (Ibidi GmbH) gel in DMEM medium and subjected to a gradient of human MIF (concentration: 200 ng/ml) in the presence or absence of the neutralizing anti-CD74 antibody LN2 (sc-6262, Santa Cruz; 10  $\mu$ g/ml) or the respective IgG control



(sc-3877, 10 µg/ml) and the CXCR4 receptor inhibitor AMD3100 (A5602, Sigma Aldrich, 10 µg/ml). Cell motility was monitored performing time-lapse imaging every 1 min at 37 °C for 2 h using a Leica inverted DMi8 Life Cell Imaging System equipped with a DMC2900 Digital Microscope Camera with CMOS sensor and live cell imaging software (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Images were imported as stacks to ImageJ software and analyzed with the manual tracking and chemotaxis and migration tool (Ibidi GmbH) plugin for ImageJ.

#### Immunofluorescent staining

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS (Morphisto GmbH, Frankfurt a. M., Germany) for 15 min. For intracellular staining, cells were additionally permeabilized using TritonX-100 (Serva Electrophoresis, Heidelberg, Germany) in PBS for 10 min. After washing, T cells were blocked in 1% BSA in PBS for 1 h at RT. The blocking solution was removed and the cells incubated with primary antibodies against CD74 (LN2, sc-6262, 1:100, Santa Cruz), CXCR4 (PA3-305, 1:800, ThermoFisher), Bip (ab21685, 1:1000, abcam), or LAMP1 (H-228; 1:100, Santa Cruz) diluted in blocking buffer, at 4 °C overnight. After washing, secondary antibodies (goat anti-mouse Alexa-Fluor 647, A21235, Invitrogen; donkey anti-rabbit Cy3, 711-165-153, 1:300, Jackson ImmunoResearch) and, where indicated, 1×DAPI was added to the sample and incubated in a humidity chamber for 1 h at RT. Samples were washed and prepared for microscopy using Vectashield® mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, H-1000), either stored at 4 °C in the dark or analyzed directly using a LSM880 AiryScan confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, Jena, Germany).

#### Proximity ligation assay (PLA)

For detection of CD74/CXCR4 protein complexes, 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells were stimulated with MIF in indicated concentrations for 40 min following fixation and PLA using the Duolink<sup>TM</sup> InSitu Orange Starter Kit Mouse/Rabbit (DUO92102) from Sigma Aldrich. For immunofluorescent staining and PLA, the Duolink<sup>®</sup> PLA fluorescence protocol provided by the manufacturer was essentially followed, using primary antibodies against CD74 (sc-6262, 1:100, Santa Cruz) and CXCR4 (PA3-305, 1:800, ThermoFisher) as described above. Samples were then prepared for microscopy using Duolink<sup>®</sup> mounting medium with DAPI, and coverslips sealed with

commercially available nail polish and stored at  $-20\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$  until imaging on a Zeiss LSM880 AiryScan confocal microscope was performed. For quantification of complex formation, PLA dots per cell in four or more randomly selected fields of view were counted for each biological replicate.

#### Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism Version 8.4.3 software. Unless stated otherwise, data are represented as means ± standard deviation (SD). After testing for normal distribution (evaluated using D'Agostino–Pearson testing or Shapiro–Wilk testing for small sample sizes and QQ plotting), data were analyzed either by two-tailed Student's t-test or Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test, Mann–Whitney U test or unpaired t test with Welch's correction as appropriate. One-way ANOVA, Friedman test or Kruskal–Wallis test was performed, if more than two data sets were compared as appropriate. To account for multiple comparisons, either Dunnett's or Dunn's multiple comparisons tests were applied as appropriate. Differences with P < 0.05 were considered to be statistically significant.

#### Results

# Differentially regulated surface expression of MIF receptors CXCR4 and CD74 in primary human CD4<sup>+</sup>T cells upon activation

In order to systematically investigate MIF receptor expression in the course of T-cell activation, we first performed a flow cytometry-based receptor profiling of the known MIF receptors CD74, CXCR4, CXCR2, and ACKR3 on freshly isolated primary human CD4+ T cells. The analysis confirmed an abundant expression of CXCR4 close to 90% in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, whereas CD74, CXCR2, and ACKR3 showed no appreciable surface expression in non-activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells (Fig. 1A-D, Supp. Fig. 2D-2G). [43, 44]. However, in vitro T-cell activation with anti-CD3/anti-CD28coated beads for 72 h revealed a significant upregulation of CD74 surface expression from  $0.65 \pm 0.95$  to  $5.93 \pm 2.97\%$ (Fig. 1A), accompanied by a significant downregulation of CXCR4 from  $89.85 \pm 6.43$  to  $78.03 \pm 15.03\%$  (Fig. 1B). CXCR2 and ACKR3 surface expression levels remained unchanged upon activation (Fig. 1C, D, Supp. Fig. 2F and

The effectiveness of in vitro activation was verified by flow cytometry analysis of the surface activation markers CD45RA, indicating naive T cells, and CD45RO as a marker of activated effector and memory T cells, as well as for HLA-DR, a subunit of the MHC class II complex



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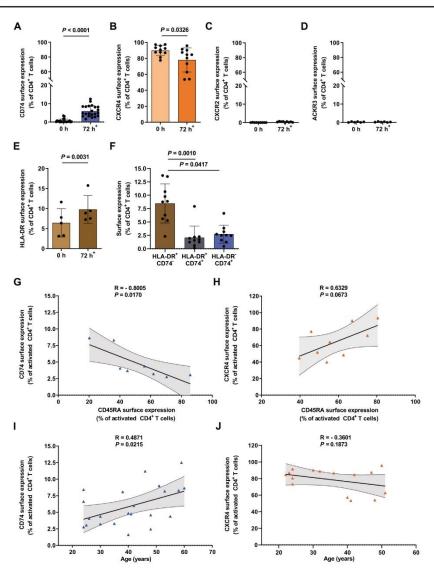


Fig. 1 Cell surface MIF receptor profiling reveals inverse regulation of CD74 and CXCR4 upon T-cell activation. A-D MIF receptor profiling on primary human CD4+ T cells upon activation. Flow cytometry-based cell surface receptor profiling of the four MIF receptors CD74, CXCR4, CXCR2, and ACKR3, as indicated, on purified human CD4+ T cells before (0 h) and after 72 h of in vitro T-cell activation. Cell surface receptor-positive cells are plotted for each of the four receptors as percentage of CD4+ T cells. E, F MHC class II-independent expression of CD74 on activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. HLA-DR surface expression on CD4+ T cells before (0 h) and after 72 h of in vitro T-cell activation determined by flow cytometry. Comparison of percentages of HLA-DR+CD74-, HLA-DR+CD74+ and HLA-DR<sup>-</sup>CD74<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells after 72 h of activation. For A-F, values are shown as means  $\pm \, SD$  with individual datapoints representing independent donors (A, n=22; B, n=11; C, n=9; D, n=6; E, n=5;  $\mathbf{F}$ , n = 10). Differences between the 0 h and 72 h time points were analyzed by paired student's t-test for B, D, E; by Wilcoxon matched-

pairs signed-rank test for A and C and Friedman test with Dunn posthoc test for **F** as appropriate. 72 h<sup>+</sup> indicates time of in vitro T-cell activation in A-E. G, H Inverse correlation of CD74 and CXCR4 surface expression with the naive cell marker CD45RA. Correlation of surface CD74 and CXCR4 expression with the naive cell marker CD45RA in 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells as evaluated by flow cytometry. Data is displayed as scatter diagrams with individual data points shown (G, n=8; H, n=9). Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for percentage of CD74+ and CXCR4+ vs. CD45RA+ cells. I. J Correlation between MIF receptor expression and donor age. Correlation between CD74 and CXCR4 surface expression and donor age after 72 h of T-cell activation. Data are depicted as scatter plots with individual data points shown (I, n=22; J, n=15). Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for relation between the percentage of CD74<sup>+</sup> and CXCR4<sup>+</sup> T cells and donor age. For all panels statistical significance is indicated by actual P values.



and previously described T-cell activation marker [45–49]. Activation led to a profound disappearance of the proportion of naive CD4+ T cells and shift towards the activated CD45RA-RO+ phenotype (Supp. Fig. 2A–2C). Consistent with previously published data, HLA-DR surface staining showed a significant activation-dependent increase in HLA-DR+CD4+ T cells from  $6.43\pm3.52$  to  $9.76\pm3.47\%$  after 72 h of activation (Fig. 1E). Co-analysis of both MHC-II related proteins CD74 and HLA-DR revealed that the majority of HLA-DR+ cells were CD74-. Focusing on the CD74+ population, we observed both HLA-DR+/CD74+  $(2.07\%\pm2.16\%)$  double positive cells and a fraction of T cells  $(2.71\%\pm1.68\%)$  that expressed CD74 independent of MHC-II (Fig. 1F).

The observed inverse regulation of CD74 and CXCR4 upon activation was further confirmed by analyses revealing a close-to-significant positive correlation between CXCR4 and the naive T-cell marker CD45RA (r=0.6329, P=0.0673) and a significant negative correlation between CD74 and the naive cell marker CD45RA (r= 0.8005, P=0.0170) (Fig. 1G, H). Notably, correlation of CD74 and CXCR4 expression with donor age upon activation showed enhanced upregulation of CD74 (r=0.4871, P=0.0215), but only a non-significant trend towards a more pronounced downregulation of CXCR4 (r= 0.3601, P=0.1873) with increasing age (Fig. 1I, J).

### Abundant intracellular CD74 expression in resting CD4<sup>+</sup>T cells and upregulation upon activation

Only a small fraction of CD74 is known to be expressed on the cell surface, while most of CD74 is present in intracellular compartments. This prompted us to investigate intracellular CD74 and CXCR4 protein abundance in T cells via flow cytometry [50, 51]. Remarkably, in freshly isolated non-activated CD4+ T cells, we detected a high percentage of CD74<sup>+</sup> cells  $(67.30\% \pm 16.94\%)$  after membrane permeabilization pointing towards abundant CD74 protein expression even in resting conditions (Fig. 2A). Upon a 72 h-T-cell activation regime, we observed a significant further upregulation of CD74<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells  $(67.30 \pm 16.94 \text{ vs.})$  $91.65 \pm 6.178\%$ ) up to almost 100% (Fig. 2A). The initially observed variability of CD74 positivity most likely reflected individual donor characteristics, whereas in vitro T-cell activation aligned the T-cell populations leading to a more homogeneously increased percentage. Using the same experimental settings, the percentage of CXCR4<sup>+</sup>CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells was determined before and after activation. CXCR4+CD4+ T cells were significantly diminished after 72 h activation from a baseline of nearly 100% in resting cells to approx. 85% (99.56%  $\pm 0.3386\%$  vs.  $82.50\% \pm 8.965\%$ ) after activation. Nevertheless, CXCR4 remained abundantly expressed (Fig. 2B).

## Intracellular localization of CD74 within the ER and endolysosome

CD74 is typically located in cytoplasmic membranes such as the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), the Golgi apparatus and in endosomal or lysosomal vesicles [50, 51]. To verify a potential intracellular localization in these compartments, immunofluorescent co-staining of CD4+ T cells for CD74 together with the ER marker immunoglobulin binding protein (BiP) and the lysosomal marker lysosomalassociated membrane protein 1 (LAMP-1) were performed. Both the distribution pattern of CD74 signal surrounding the nucleus and the overlap of CD74 and BiP signals (yellow) indicate its presence primarily in the ER. Partial colocalization with LAMP-1 further suggests trafficking of CD74 within the endolysosomal compartment. Taken together, immunofluorescent staining of activated CD4+ T cells provided additional proof for CD74 expression and confirmed its localization within the cell in the ER/ endolysosomal compartments (Fig. 2C).

# Upregulation of CD74 protein expression upon T-cell activation and identification of a chondroitin sulfate-modified p55 isomer

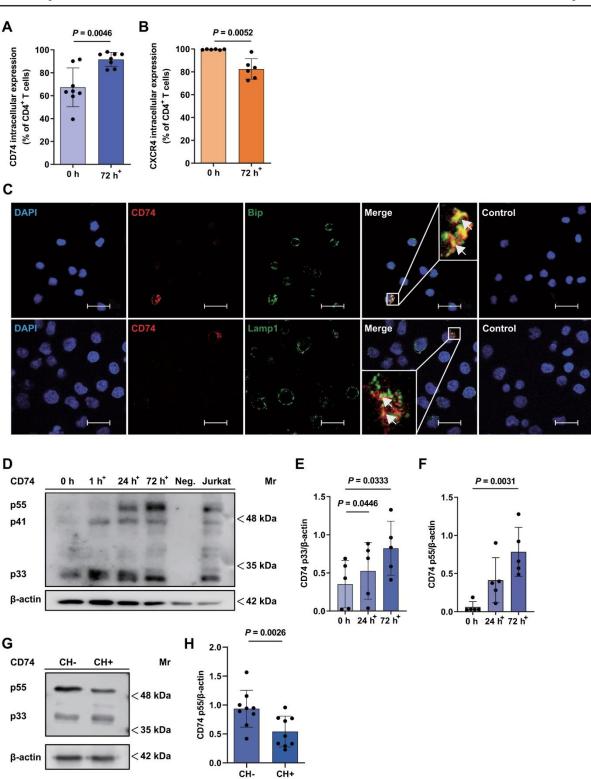
In order to verify and quantify CD74 protein expression in the course of T-cell activation, we performed additional time-dependent WB experiments from freshly isolated, 1 h-, 24 h- and 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells with an antibody against CD74. As expected, we observed protein bands at approx. 33 kDa and 41 kDa, corresponding to the most abundant human isoforms p33 and p41 (Fig. 2D) [52]. Quantification of CD74 protein expression was performed using the most reliably obtained p33 isoform and confirmed an upregulation of CD74 protein expression upon CD4+ T-cell activation (0 h:  $0.35\pm0.31$  vs. 24 h:  $0.53\pm0.37$  vs. 72 h:  $0.82\pm0.35$  (Fig. 2E).

Surprisingly, further comparing non-activated and activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in the time-dependent WB experiments revealed an emerging protein band at 55 kDa (p55), which was only present after T-cell activation for 24 h and 72 h (0 h:  $0.06\pm0.07$  vs 24 h:  $0.41\pm0.30$  vs 72 h:  $0.78\pm0.32$ ) (Fig. 2F). Lysates of Jurkat cells, an immortalized T cell clone that shares many of the features of primary human T cells, were electrophorized for comparison and contained not only the p33 and p41 isoforms, but also the novel p55 variant [53].

It seemed unlikely that p55 band signal is non-specific, as the band pattern was reproducible and was not observed in isolated primary human neutrophils that were included as a negative control in the experiment. The data are in line with previous reports of a specific post-translational chondroitinylated CD74 isoform, CD74-CS, running at



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√Fig. 2 Constitutive expression and intracellular localization of CD74 in CD4+ T cells. A, B CD74 and CXCR4 expression in permeabilized CD4+ T cells before and after activation. Intracellular CD74 and CXCR4 expression was evaluated by flow cytometry of permeabilized freshly isolated (0 h) and 72 h-activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Percentages of CD74+ (n=8) and CXCR4+ (n=6) cells are shown as means ± SD with individual datapoints representing independent donors. Statistical differences between the 0 h and 72 h time points were analyzed by paired student's t-test. C Localization of CD74 in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and endolysosomal compartments. Immunofluorescent staining of CD74 (red) together with an ER (BiP, upper row, green) or lysosomal marker (LAMP1, bottom row, green) in 72 h in vitro activated and permeabilized CD4+ T cells imaged via CLSM (scale bar=20 μm). Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). Samples stained with secondary antibodies alone served as controls. Arrows mark exemplary overlapping signals (yellow). Images shown are representative of three separate experiments. D-F CD74 protein expression in the course of CD4+ T-cell activation evaluated by SDS-PAGE/WB. CD4+ T cells were purified and lysed before (0 h) or after 1 h, 24 h or 72 h of in vitro T-cell activation following SDS-PAGE and WB analysis for CD74 and β-actin protein expression. Neutrophil cell lysates served as a negative control (Neg.), CD74 protein content of the Jurkat cell line was assessed without prior activation. OD values of the detected p33 and p55 CD74 isoforms before and after 24 h and 72 h of T-cell activation were determined and normalized to β-actin. Upregulation of the p33 and p55 isoforms is displayed as columns (means ± SD) with individual data points (n=5). For comparison of 24 h and 72 h timepoints to 0 h control, statistical differences were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett post-hoc test for E and Friedman test with Dunn post-hoc test for F. 1 h+, 24 h+, 72 h+ indicate the respective time of in vitro T-cell activation in A-F. G, H Evaluation of CD74 protein expression before and after chondroitinase treatment. 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells were lysed and treated with (CH+) or without (CH-) chondroitinase. SDS-PAGE and WB was performed as before for detection of CD74 and β-actin protein expression. Quantification of OD values of CD74 p55 in CH+ s. CH- samples normalized to  $\beta\text{-actin}$  displayed as bar chart (means  $\pm\,SD)$  with individual data points (n=9). Statistical differences were analyzed by paired student's t-test. For all bar diagrams, statistical significance is indicated by actual P values.

about the same molecular weight [54–56]. Consistent with our observations on CD74 dynamics, previous studies showed a rapid and transient translocation of CD74-CS to the cell surface, followed by immediate endocytosis, so that only a small portion of CD74 was detected on the cell surface [54, 57–62]. Thus, the following experiment was designed to confirm the presence of a CD74-CS isoform. For this purpose, 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells were subjected to either PBS (CH–) or chondroitinase (CH+) treatment. Indeed, following chondroitinase treatment, we noticed the p55 signal intensity to be significantly decreased in comparison to non-treated controls pointing towards a rapid post-translational modification of CD74 with CS, which mediates CD74 translocation to the cell membrane  $(0.94\pm0.32~{\rm vs.}~0.54\pm0.27)$  (Fig. 2G, H).

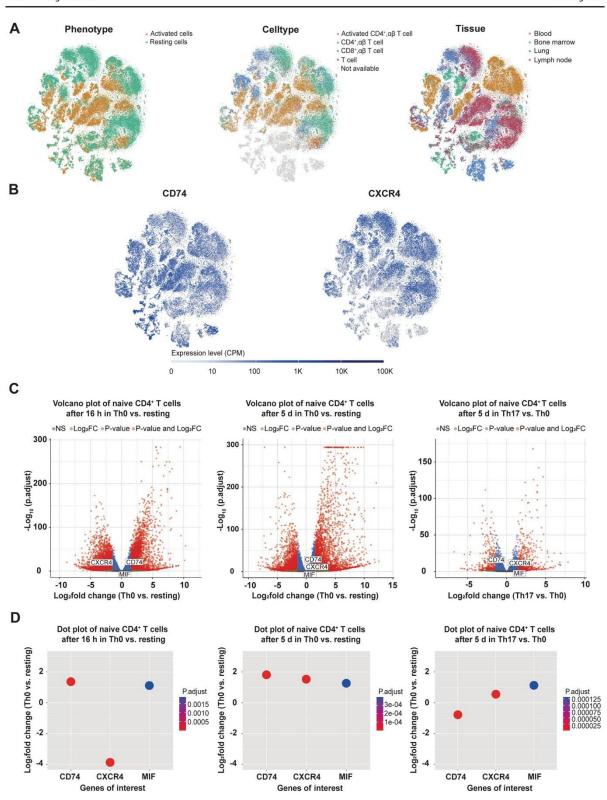
# In-depth confirmation of activation-dependent regulation of CD74 and CXCR4 by re-analysis of transcriptomic and proteomic data sets

To gain a deeper insight into the regulation of CD74 in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, we re-analyzed publicly available scRNA-seq data from Szabo et al. [35]. scRNA data was retrieved from data sets of resting and CD3/CD28-activated (16 h) blood, lung, lymph node and bone marrow-derived CD3<sup>+</sup> T cells from two deceased adult organ donors and PBMCs of two healthy blood donors. Ubiquitous expression of CD74 and CXCR4 was clearly evident in both activated and resting T-cell phenotypes (Fig. 3A). However, enhanced expression of CD74 was detected mainly in activated T-cell clusters, whereas enhanced CXCR4 expression was mainly observed in cells with a resting phenotype. Of note, a comparable inverse activation pattern for CD74 and CXCR4 was noted in CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells (Fig. 3B).

To verify these results and to assess whether CD74, CXCR4 and MIF expression is influenced by cytokine conditions driving CD4+ T-cell differentiation towards T-cell effector phenotypes during CD3/CD28 activation, we further re-analyzed a publicly available data set of Cano-Gamez et al., who performed a bulk-RNAseg analysis of polarized (resting: no activation, no added cytokines; Th0: control with no added cytokines; Th1: IL-12, anti-human IL-4 antibody; TH2: IL-4, anti-human IFN-γ antibody, Th17: IL-6, IL-23, IL-1β, TGF-β1, anti-human IL-4 antibody, anti-human IFN-γ antibody; iTreg: TGF-β1, IL-2; IFN-β-stimulated group) naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells after 16 h and 5 d of stimulation (Fig. 3C, D) [28]. DEG analysis confirmed a significant upregulation of CD74 (log2fold change 16 h: 1.37; 5 d: 1.82) and MIF (log2fold change 16 h: 1.12; 5 d: 1.27) expression in 16 h- and 5 d-activated naive T cells, when comparing the resting and Th0 experimental groups. CXCR4 expression in turn was significantly downregulated after 16 h, but showed enhanced expression after 5 d of activation in Th0 vs. resting naive T cells (log2fold change 16 h: - 3.87; 5 d: 1.53). To analyze cytokine-induced polarization of T cells, we performed DEG analysis of 16 h- and 5 d-activated naive T cells (Th0) with the respective polarized experimental group. In fact, most of the cytokine conditions did not lead to any significant changes in CD74, CXCR4 or MIF expression. The only observed significant change regarding CD74 expression was a downregulation in Th17 cells at 5 d (log2foldchange: -0.77986), accompanied by an upregulation of CXCR4 (log2foldchange: 0.553153) and MIF (log2foldchange: 1.130575). Overall, CD74 mRNA expression was markedly upregulated by T-cell activation in naive CD4+ T cells, while the specific cytokine milieu only showed minor effects. Inverse regulation of the MIF receptors CD74 and CXCR4 during the early activation process was confirmed on mRNA level. Additionally,



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√Fig. 3 Evaluation of mRNA expression dynamics of CD74, CXCR4 and MIF in CD4+ T cells. A, B CD74 and CXCR4 mRNA expression in resting and activated CD4+ T cells. t-SNE embedding for the scRNAseq dataset obtained from Szabo et al. including scRNA data of CD3<sup>+</sup> T cells from lung, lung draining lymph nodes and bone marrow of two deceased organ donors and PBMCs of two healthy volunteers [35]. Clusters depicted in the upper row colored by resting (green) vs. activated (orange) phenotype (left), by cell type (middle, orange: activated CD4+  $\alpha\beta$  T cells, green: CD4+  $\alpha\beta$  T cells, blue: CD8+ αβ T cells, red: T cells, gray: not available) or by tissue (right, orange: blood, green: bone marrow, blue: lung, red. lymph node). mRNA expression levels are depicted in copies per million (CPM) reads of CD74 and CXCR4. C, D DGE analysis of CD74, CXCR4 and MIF depending on T-cell activation and cytokine polarization in naive CD4+ T cells. Re-analysis of publicly available bulk-RNAseq data of naive CD4+ T cells from three healthy individuals in different activation and cytokine polarization conditions by Cano-Gamez et al. regarding DGE analysis of CD74, CXCR4 and MIF highlighted in volcano plots (upper row, red: genes with log2fold>11,51 and adjusted P < 0.05 changes, blue: genes with log2fold < 1,51 and adjusted P < 0.05 changes, green: genes with log2fold>11,51 but non-significant (ns) changes, grey: genes with log2fold<11,51 and ns changes) and in dot blots (bottom row, dots highlight significant results between experimental groups with adjusted P < 0.05, color scale indicates the respective p-values) including comparison of Th0 (activated without cytokine polarization) vs. resting (non-activated controls) conditions after 16 h (left) and 5 d (middle) as well as Th0 vs. Th17 cytokine polarization after 5 d (right) [28].

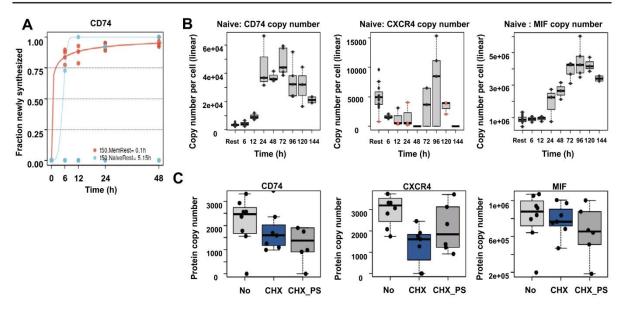
obtained data provides further evidence of an increased MIF expression upon T-cell activation (Fig. 3D). To assess whether these smaller effects of additional cytokine polarization on CD74 and CXCR4 mRNA levels are also reflected on protein level, we re-analyzed the proteomic data of 5 d-polarized CD4<sup>+</sup> memory T cells from the Cano-Gamez et al. study [28]. Re-analysis confirmed an upregulation of CD74 protein upon T-cell activation, whereas cytokine polarization to T-cell phenotypes did not have any significant impact on CD74 protein abundance (Supp. Fig. 3A). In contrast, CXCR4 protein abundance was markedly increased upon cytokine-driven polarization towards Treg and Th17 phenotypes (Supp. Fig. 3B).

Next, we re-analyzed the proteomic data set of Wolf et al., who studied mRNA translation kinetics, protein turnover and synthesis rates in human naive and activated T cells, to gain a better understanding on the dynamics of CD74 protein expression in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells [39]. At first, we assessed the data on protein turnover and renewal under resting conditions. For this experiment, Wolf et al. measured protein synthesis and turnover rates of non-activated naive and memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells by applying stable isotope labeling of amino acids in cell culture (SILAC) and subsequent liquidchromatography coupled mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) analysis. The protein synthesis rate was determined based on the proportion of newly synthesized, heavy isotope-labeled amino acid-containing proteins to total protein content after 6, 12, 24 and 48 h of cultivation. The study identified ETS1, a proto-oncogene associated with survival, activation and

proliferation in T cells as the most rapidly renewed transcription factor (renewal ratio of 0.99 after 24 h, estimated halflife of less than 1 h) [63, 64] (Supp. Fig. 3C). Of note, the retrievable data on CD74 renewal yielded comparable results (protein renewal ratio of 0.92 after 24 h, estimated half-life less than 1 h) and thus revealed that CD74 is among the proteins with fastest renewal and turnover rates in resting memory T cells (Fig. 4A). This effect was much less pronounced in naive T cells with a renewal ratio below 50% after 24 h, possibly linking CD74 to homeostasis and preparedness of memory T cells. Supp. Fig. 3C and 3D show protein renewal rates of selected other proteins for further comparison. Reanalysis of protein abundance in naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in the course of CD3/CD28 activation confirmed our previous findings showing an upregulation of CD74 and downregulation of CXCR4 protein levels upon activation (Fig. 4B). CD74 upregulation began at 12 h with peak expression of CD74 protein observed after 72 h of activation both in naive and memory T cells with an observed timespan of upregulation of up to 120 h. For comparison, we analyzed the proteomic time course of CD69, IL2Rα/CD25 and HLA-DR, i.e. wellestablished T-cell activation markers. CD74 upregulation occured between the 'early' marker CD69 and the 'intermediate' activation marker CD25 (Supp. Fig. 3E-3G) [65, 66]. The dynamics of CXCR4 protein expression in naive T cells confirmed the previously observed inverse profile and indicated an immediate down-regulation of CXCR4 protein with a minimum protein abundance seen after 48 h of activation with following protein reconstitution towards 96 h, supporting our above mentioned finding of initially downregulated and later-on induced mRNA expression. We also analyzed MIF in these data sets. Similar to the upregulation pattern seen for CD74, MIF protein was also markedly enhanced upon activation and showed elevated expression in resting naive and memory T cells starting from 24 h, with a peak observed at 96 h (Fig. 4B). In order to specifically address protein degradation, Wolf et al. quantified protein copy numbers by LC-MS/MS in naive CD4+ T cells after inhibition of mRNA translation by cycloheximide (CHX) alone or in combination with bortezomib (PS), a specific inhibitor of the 26S proteasome. CD74 protein levels were only mildly affected by blockade of protein synthesis, speaking in favor of a low protein degradation rate and consistent with a lower renewal in resting naive CD4+ T cells. As CD74 was previously described to be degraded strictly sequentially in the endolysosomal system, additional treatment with PS confirmed the expected proteasome-independent degradation of CD74, while CXCR4 is most likely partially degraded via the proteasome (Fig. 4C) [67]. Furthermore, inhibition of proteasomal degradation did not recover MIF protein levels, suggesting a proteasome-independent degradation of MIF in resting T cells (Fig. 4C).







**Fig. 4** Evaluation of protein dynamics of CD74, CXCR4 and MIF in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. **A** Rapid renewal of CD74 in resting memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. CD74 protein renewal rates in naive (blue) vs. memory (orange) CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Fraction of newly synthesized protein calculated from LC–MS/MS analysis of pulsed SILAC of resting CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Analysis conducted after 0, 6, 12, 24 and 48 h in culture. n=3–4. **B** Time course of CD74, CXCR4 and MIF protein expression upon activation in naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. CD74 (left), CXCR4 (middle) and MIF (right) copy number per cell in naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Label-free quantification of proteins via the MaxQuant algorithm without and after 6, 12, 24, 48, 72, 96, 120 and 144 h of in vitro activation. Proteins identified by MS/MS (black dots) or matching (orange dots). Estimation of copy

number per cell based on protein mass of cell. n=7 for resting naive T cells; n=3 for 6 h, 12, 48 h, 120 h T cells, n=4 for 24 h, 72 h, 96 h activated T cells. C Analysis of protein degradation in naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Protein copy numbers of CD74 (left), CXCR4 (middle) and MIF (right) in naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells without treatment (No), with 24 h of cycloheximide treatment alone (CHX, 50 µg/ml) or in combination with 10 µM bortezomib (CHX\_PS). Box plots depict median and interquartile range (IQR). Whiskers show lowest data point contained in the 1.5 IQR of lowest quartile and highest data point contained in the 1.5 IQR of highest quartile. n=5 for No, n=4 for CHX and n=6 for CHX\_PS. Data in A–C retrieved from Wolf et al. [39].

# Exploring MHC II-independent CD74 transcriptional gene regulation

To explore potential MHCII-independent CD74 transcriptional gene regulation, we performed a database analysis using the Gene Transcription Regulation Database (GTRD) yielding 375 different transcription factor binding sites within a maximum distance of 500 bp from the CD74 gene locus (Supp. Table 2) [40]. Relevant results were narrowed down by predicting the genes involved in the transcriptional regulation of CD74 using the PathwayNet database [41]. Genes with a relationship confidence of more than 0.1 were included for further consideration (Supp. Table 3). Of the 19 transcription factors identified, four lacked a binding site within 500 bp of the CD74 gene and were therefore excluded. Furthermore, STRING network analysis identified the seven transcription factors with the highest relationship confidence as MHC II transactivator (CIITA)-associated genes, representing the master regulator of MHC II class gene expression (Supp. Fig. 4) [42, 68]. Assuming a common transcriptional regulation of MHC II proteins and CD74 by these transcription factors,

we excluded these hits from our search as well [68, 69]. Among the remaining eight transcription factors, ETS1, a proto-oncogene associated with survival, activation and proliferation in T cells, seemed particularly noteworthy, as it was only recently identified by Wolf et al. as the most rapidly renewed transcription factor in T cells reflecting preparedness towards activating stimuli [39, 63, 64]. By performing an assay for transposase-accessible chromatin (ATAC) and ChIP sequencing, Wolf et al. further investigated genes regulated by ETS1 in CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cells [39]. Revisiting the ATAC and ChIP supplemental material of that study, we identified the CD74 gene to be located in ETS-1accessible chromatin regions in resting naive CD4+ T cells and revealed actual ETS1 binding in the CD74 promoter region, both suggesting an ETS1 transcriptional regulation of CD74 in CD4+ T cells. Binding of ETS1 to other MHC II-associated genes was not observed. In conclusion, these data reflect an independent regulation of gene expression for CD74 and MHC II in resting naive CD4+ T cells and identify ETS1 as an associated transcription factor.



### Involvement of CD74 and CXCR4 in MIF-mediated CD4<sup>+</sup>T-cell chemotaxis

One key attribute of T cells is their ability to migrate towards sites of inflammation. MIF-mediated T-cell recruitment is a well characterized atherogenic MIF effect that has been assumed to be primarily mediated via CXCR4 [4, 70]. In order to determine the functional relevance of CD74 surface upregulation in activated human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, we assessed their migratory capacity in response to MIF applying a 3D chemotaxis assay that allows for tracking single cell migration trajectories via live cell imaging. MIF potently promoted chemotactic migration of activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells in a bell-shaped dose-response behavior typically observed for chemokines, with maximal MIF-induced chemotaxis seen at 200 ng/ml of MIF (Supp. Fig. 5A and 5B). Therefore, this concentration was used for all subsequent migration assays. In a next step, we performed co-incubation experiments with AMD3100, a selective pharmacological CXCR4 inhibitor and the CD74-neutralizing antibody LN2. MIFinduced chemotaxis was fully abrogated when MIF was co-incubated with AMD3100 and LN2 either alone or in combination, while incubation of T cells with the inhibitors alone or isotype control immunoglobulin (IgG) showed no significant effects on cell motility (Fig. 5A, B, Supp. 5C and 5D). Taken together, we show involvement of CD74 and CXCR4 in MIF-elicited chemotaxis of activated CD4+ T cells. Mechanistically, joint involvement of CD74 and CXCR4 may be explained by CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplex formation as previously observed in model cell lines after overexpression or by synergistic/converging signaling pathways [8].

# CD74 and CXCR4 complex formation in activated CD4<sup>+</sup>T cells determined by proximity ligation assay

To evaluate whether CD74 and CXCR4 heterocomplex formation occurs in activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, we first established immunofluorescent co-staining of CD74 and CXCR4 on 72 h-activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Stainings were performed without cell permeabilization to specifically detect cell surface-bound receptors. Widefield and confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) provided initial evidence for a colocalization of CD74 and CXCR4 on 72 h-activated T cells (Fig. 5C). To investigate whether colocalized CD74 and CXCR4 indeed form heterocomplexes, a PLA was performed which detects inter-molecular interactions within a distance of < 40 nm and represents an established method to identify chemokine receptor heterocomplexes [12]. Specific PLA signals were detected in 72 h-activated T cells, demonstrating the occurrence of CD74 and CXCR4 heterocomplexes (Fig. 5D). Stimulation with 200 ng/ml MIF significantly decreased PLA-signal indicating a MIF-induced signal transduction by internalization of CD74/CXCR4 receptor complexes (Fig. 5E). To our knowledge these results provide the first evidence of CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplex internalization in the context of MIF signaling.

## CD74 surface upregulation in CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells during severe COVID-19 infection

Finally, to explore the translational relevance of our findings, we assessed CD74 and CXCR4 surface expression in T cells and monocytes isolated from patients with mild (WHO 1-3) and severe (WHO grade ≥ 5) COVID-19 disease, which were obtained from the COVID-19 Registry of the LMU University Hospital Munich (CORKUM). Due to the retrospective approach of this study and heterogeneity of available time points for each patient, we chose to evaluate the MIF receptor profile at time points closest to admission to the hospital. As not all laboratory indices were available at any given time point, we identified the inflammation peak for each patient defined as the highest measured CRP or IL-6 value for additional comparison of both groups. As expected, the inflammation markers CRP  $(9.71 \pm 9.07 \text{ vs. } 21.58 \pm 8.15)$  and IL-6  $(215.1 \pm 516.5 \text{ vs. } 2464 \pm 4654)$  were significantly increased in the severely affected patients (Fig. 6A).

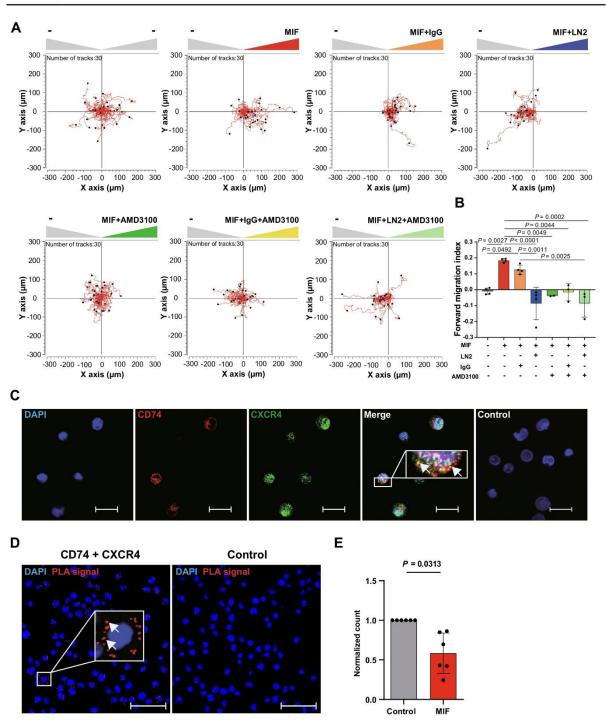
In line with a recently published report by Westmeier et al., we observed a significant upregulation of CD74 surface expression on CD4<sup>+</sup> (5.71%  $\pm$  3.87% vs. 23.75%  $\pm$  13.24%) and CD8<sup>+</sup>  $(9.52\% \pm 6.95\% \text{ vs. } 34.02\% \pm 17.80\%)$  T cells in the severe disease group compared to patients with mild disease (Fig. 6C, E) [71]. Notably, CD74 expression was higher in the CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells  $(34.02\% \pm 17.80\%)$  compared to CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells  $(23.75\% \pm 13.24\%)$  among severe patients. In contrast, we observed no significant differences between both groups regarding CXCR4 and HLA-DR surface expression again pointing towards an HLA-DR-independent upregulation of CD74 (Fig. 6D, F, G). When comparing CD74 and CXCR4 surface expression on monocyte populations, we further observed a significant upregulation of CD74 in classical (CD14<sup>++</sup>CD16<sup>-</sup>) monocytes in the severe disease group compared to patients with mild disease (Supp. Fig. 6A-6E). Overall, we confirmed an upregulation of the MIF receptor CD74 in CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in critically ill COVID-19 patients.

#### Discussion

Here, we provide novel insights in constitutive and activation-dependent mRNA and protein dynamics of CD74 in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Our analyses reveal CD74 upregulation, post-translational modification with CS and MHC II-independent translocation to the cell surface upon T-cell activation. Surface CD74 forms heterocomplexes with the



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classical chemokine receptor CXCR4 and is mechanistically involved in MIF-elicited T-cell chemotaxis. Dysregulated CD74 expression in severe COVID-19 disease patients demonstrates the translational relevance of our findings.

Most likely due to its classical and well-established MHC II-related functions, CD74 was initially overwhelmingly studied in antigen-presenting cells, most notably monocytes/macrophages and B cells [1]. The discovery of CD74 as the cognate MIF receptor has partially changed this picture.



√Fig. 5 Involvement of CD74 and CXCR4 in MIF-mediated CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell chemotaxis. A Both MIF receptors CXCR4 and CD74 are required for MIF-elicited migration of activated CD4+ T cells as assessed by 3D chemotaxis assay. Representative trajectory plots  $(x, y=0 \text{ at time } 0 \text{ h}) \text{ of migrated activated CD4}^+ \text{ T cells } (72 \text{ h}) \text{ in a}$ three-dimensional (3D) aqueous collagen-gel matrix towards a MIF chemoattractant gradient (MIF concentration: 200 ng/ml, -: control medium) that was established in presence or absence of a CD74 neutralizing antibody, a corresponding isotype control (IgG) or the CXCR4 receptor inhibitor AMD3100. Cell motility was monitored by time-lapse microscopy for 2 h at 37 °C, images were obtained every minute using the Leica DMi8 microscope. Single cell tracking was performed of 30 cells per experimental group. The blue crosshair indicates the cell population's center of mass after migration. B Quantification of the 3D chemotaxis experiment in A showing inhibition of MIF-induced CD4+ T-cell migration upon co-incubation with CD74 neutralizing antibody and AMD3100 either alone or in combination. Plotted is the calculated forward migration index (FMI, means ±SD) based on manual tracking of at least 30 individual cells per treatment (n = 2-4). Statistical differences were analyzed by oneway ANOVA with Tukey post-hoc test and indicated by actual P values. C Cell surface colocalization of the MIF receptors CD74 and CXCR4 on activated CD4+ T cells. Immunofluorescent cell surface staining of CD74 (red) and CXCR4 (green) either alone or in combination on 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells imaged via CLSM (scale bar=20 µm). Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). Samples stained with secondary antibodies alone served as controls. Images shown are representative of two independent experiments. **D**, E Proximity ligation assay indicating CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplex formation and MIF dependent internalization. D Display of a representative PLA result visualizing the interaction of CD74 and CXCR4 on the cell surface of 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells (red dots indicating positive PLA signal; imaged via CLSM; 40×objective, DAPI, blue; scale bar: 50 µm). E Quantification of CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplexes on the cell surface of 72 h-activated CD4+ T cells upon stimulation with MIF (200 mg/ml) prior to fixation (means ± SD of PLA dots /cell normalized to control, n=6). Statistical differences were analyzed by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test and indicated by actual P values

In the course of these studies, MIF/CD74 pathways were not only examined in monocytes and macrophages, but it turned out that CD74 can be abundantly expressed in several types of cancer cells and may be upregulated in certain other cell types such as endothelial cells or cardiomyocytes upon inflammatory stimulation or stress [21, 26–28]. However, MHC class II-negative T cells have mostly been neglected in this regard. Only a handful of descriptive reports on CD74 expression in human T cells exist, mainly in context of disease, and without scrutinizing any mechanisms. Yang et al. investigated CD74 surface expression in PBMCs after stroke and amongst other cell types found a significant increase in the number of CD74-expressing CD4+ T cells but not CD8+ T cells [26]. Fagone et al. showed an upregulation of CD74 gene expression in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells upon activation, that was unchanged in T cells from healthy donors vs. patients with multiple sclerosis [27]. In contrast, in the chronic inflammatory context of rheumatoid arthritis, Sánchez-Zuno et al. observed the percentage of CD74 expressing T cells to be below 1% [72]. To our knowledge, Gaber et al. provided the only functional evidence of CD74 in human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells reporting on an inhibition of MIF-induced T-cell proliferation using a neutralizing CD74 antibody [21]. However, the relevance of this observation has remained unclear, as no isotype control immunoglobulin was used in that study. In contrast to CD74, regulation of CXCR4 in T cells has been studied comprehensively, also as it plays an important role in the docking-process of the human immunodeficiency virus and mediates CXCL12-driven co-stimulatory and migratory T cell responses [73–76].

Our MIF receptor profiling of freshly isolated primary human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells revealed the expected abundant expression of CXCR4, whereas no substantial surface expression of CD74, CXCR2 and ACKR3 could be detected. This identifies non-activated human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells as a suitable cell type to study the MIF/CXCR4 axis. In previous reports, CXCR4 expression was shown to be downregulated in the context of T-cell activation, which is confirmed by our study [73, 75]. Nevertheless, CXCR4 remained abundantly expressed also in activated T cells.

An unanticipated effect was the observation of a significant upregulation of CD74 surface expression upon T-cell activation. Of note, this upregulation was independent of HLA-DR pointing towards an MHC II-independent role of CD74 in CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Interestingly, CD74 surface expression correlated with donor age, indicating a potentially more pronounced CD74 upregulation in memory and effector T cells compared to naive T cells, due to physiologically increased abundance of these phenotypes upon enhanced antigen encounters during aging [77–79].

Our MIF receptor profiling of resting and activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells as well as re-analysis of CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell proteome data from Wolf et al. revealed no expression of CXCR2 in T cells, which is in line with multiple literature reports, but stands in contrast to the recent finding of CXCR2/CD74 co-expression in T cells as reported by Westmeier et al. [80]. Expression of ACKR3 in T cells still remains controversial [81, 82].

As CD74 is known to be expressed only in small percentages on cell surfaces and is mainly stored in intracellular deposits, we next evaluated CD74 protein expression after membrane permeabilization via flow cytometry. Unexpectedly and to date unknown, we detected an abundant intracellular expression of CD74 in freshly isolated T cells, which was further enhanced by T-cell activation. WB experiments confirmed enhanced CD74 expression with detection of protein bands corresponding to the known p33 and p41 isoforms in humans [1, 52, 83, 84]. However, due to the small difference in size a clear differentiation between short and long isoforms of the protein regarding p33 vs. p35 and p41 vs. p43 isoforms was not possible. Interestingly, we observed an additional pronounced protein band at approximately 55 kDa, which appeared only after 24 h of T-cell activation and further 296 Page 16 of 24 L. Zhang et al.

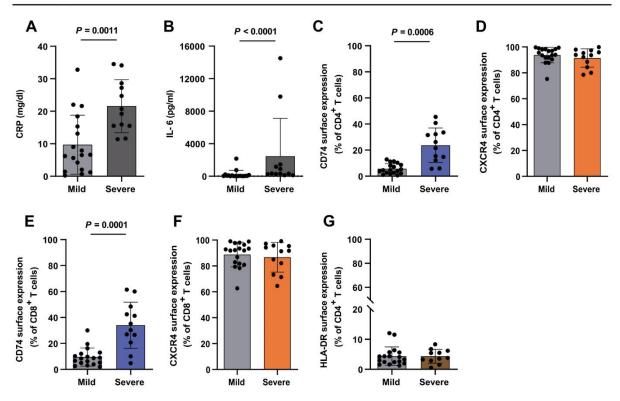


Fig. 6 MHC-II independent upregulation of CD74 in T cells of critically ill COVID-19 patients. A, B Increased inflammatory markers CRP and IL-6 in patients with severe COVID-19 disease. Serum peak concentrations of inflammatory markers CRP (mg/dl) and IL-6 (pg/ml) from laboratory results of patients with mild (WHO 1–3, n=18) vs. severe (WHO≥5, n=12) COVID-19 disease. C–F CD74 and CXCR4 surface expression on CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from mild vs. severe disease patients. G No significant differences in HLA-DR

surface expression in COVID-19 patient cohorts classified by disease severity. Results of a flow cytometry-based cell surface receptor profiling. Bar charts in A-G show means ±SD with individual datapoints representing independent patients. Cell surface receptor-positive cells are plotted as percentages of the respective T-cell phenotype. Statistical differences were analyzed by unpaired t test for A and C and Mann-Whitney U test for B, D, E, F, and G and indicated by actual P values.

increased in abundance during activation, even exceeding the most abundant p33 protein band. Previous reports identified a specific CD74 isoform, CD74-CS that is being reported to run at a similar molecular weight and is product of a post-translational modification with the glycosaminoglycan CS at Ser 201. The modification was shown to enable the translocation of CD74 molecules towards the cell surface, while due to following rapid endocytosis only a small proportion can be transiently detected on the cell surface [54-62]. In fact, when we treated our T-cell samples with chondroitinase, an enzyme that specifically cleaves CS, we noticed the signal intensity of the observed p55 isoform to be significantly decreased in comparison to untreated controls. Nevertheless, we acknowledge that treatment with chondroitinase did not lead to a complete disappearance of the observed band, which could be explained by sub-optimal buffer conditions due to the strong pH-dependency of the enzyme or non-sufficient incubation time. Furthermore, several other post-translational modifications, such as O- and N-silylation, palmitoylation and phosphorylation, have been reported for CD74 that were not studied in this work [85-87]. Despite these limitations, we speculate that post-translational modification of CD74 with CS might be the underlying mechanism of CD74 translocation to the cell surface during the process of T-cell activation. Immunofluorescent co-staining of CD74 with ER and lysosomal markers verified the typical localization of CD74 in the ER and suggested a functional trafficking of CD74 within the endolysosomal compartment. Re-analysis of two independent RNAseq data sets from the Cano-Gamez et al. and Szabo et al. studies and two proteomic data sets from the Cano-Gamez et al. and Wolf et al. publications comparing resting and activated T-cell states, complemented our data and provided substantial corroborating evidence that CD74 is constitutively expressed in resting T cells and becomes rapidly upregulated upon T-cell activation in a sustained manner [28, 35, 39]. The proteome data suggested a maximum CD74 protein abundance after 72 h and again



identified a counter-regulation of CD74 and CXCR4 in the early activation phase. After the initial downregulation, CXCR4 expression was then found to be reconstituted after approximately 3 to 4 d. Of note, CD74 upregulation occurred after upregulation of the early activation marker CD69, but before the intermediate activation marker CD25 [65, 66]. Cytokine polarization to T-cell effector phenotypes had no additional effects on CD74 protein abundance. In contrast, CXCR4 protein expression was upregulated after 5 days of Treg and Th17 polarization, possibly linked to an already described TGF-β-induced CXCR4 expression mechanism [88].

The study by Cano-Gamez et al. caught our attention as CD74 incidentally appeared as a strong marker protein of natural Tregs and effector memory T cells re-expressing CD45RA (TEMRA) in their presented data, possibly linking CD74 protein expression to T-cell effectorness [28]. Since observations of CD74 expression have often been made under inflammatory conditions, as for instance IFN-γ-rich environments, or in a disease context, we compared DEGs of regularly activated T cells (Th0) with activated T cells that were additionally differentiated towards Th0, Th1, Th2, iTreg and Th17 phenotypes through established cytokine polarization protocols [89]. Notably, except for the observed reduction of CD74 in Th17 conditions, cytokine conditions did not trigger significant changes. Therefore, T-cell activation represents the main stimulus for CD74 upregulation independent of the surrounding inflammatory cytokine milieu. Interestingly, Th17-polarized cells were also the only phenotype with significantly upregulated MIF expression compared to non-polarized CD4+ T cells, fitting to previous data indicating a role of MIF in Th17 T-cell differentiation [18, 20, 24]. Re-analysis of proteomic data further identified CD74 to be rapidly renewed in resting memory CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, potentially pointing towards a role of CD74 in memory T-cell homeostasis.

We also aimed to identify potential MHC II-independent CD74 transcriptional gene regulation. Combining a database analysis of the GTRD, PathwayNet and STRING network databases enabled us to narrow down relevant and potential MHC II-independent transcription factors within a 500 bp distance from the CD74 gene locus. However, we like to emphasize that the here provided database research approach mainly relies on the quality of the included pathway/protein interaction prediction tools and can only be interpreted as a first approximation to the subject. The list of eight CIITAindependent transcription factors with high confidence predictions included ETS1, a crucial transcription factor for T-cell survival and activation [63, 64]. In this context, Wolf et al. identified ETS1 as the most rapidly renewed transcription factor in T cells reflecting preparedness towards activating stimuli [39]. Accordingly, by performing an ATAC assay, Wolf et al. found that the ETS1 transcription factor binding motif can be detected in accessible promoter regions of the resting naive CD4+ T-cell genome. About half of these binding sites were located in promoter regions, suggesting ETS1 as a transcriptional regulator of the promoter-associated genes. Interestingly, supplementary data of Wolf et al. shows that the CD74 gene is located in accessible chromatin regions in naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Based on a ChIP analysis, showing actual ETS1 binding in the CD74 promoter region, transcriptional regulation of CD74 by ETS1, a transcription factor associated with T-cell preparedness for rapid activation, seems conceivable. Binding of ETS1 to other MHC II-associated genes was not observed, which may be either related to insufficient accessibility of the MHC II-related genes in resting naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells or differential ETS1 gene binding.

Taken together, we hypothesize that ETS1-driven regulation of CD74 expression might be the underlying process of the observed rapid CD74 induction after activation, which, together with post-translational chondroitin sulfatinylation of constitutively expressed intracellular CD74, serves to rapidly establish marked CD74 surface expression. Once positioned on the cell surface, CD74, functioning as the cognate MIF receptor, can mediate downstream signaling events [90].

In the absence of an identified classical signalingcompetent cytosolic domain in the short cytoplasmic tail of CD74, two alternative distinct tracks of CD74 signaling have been reported. First, CD74 signaling can be mediated by its intracytoplasmic domain (ICD), which is proteolytically cleaved by the intramembrane protease signal peptide peptidase-like (SPPL)2a and subsequently translocates into the nucleus, where it functions as a transcription factor and/or transcriptional coactivator [90-92]. Whether this process occurs in the endolysosomal compartment or on the cell surface and how it is exactly triggered by extracellular MIF has remained partly unclear. A second signaling CD74 pathway involves the association of CD74 with a co-receptor. Depending on the cellular and (patho)physiological context this can be CD44, the initially identified co-receptor of CD74, or one of the MIF chemokine receptors, i.e. CXCR2, CXCR4 or ACKR3/CXCR7 [4, 8, 11, 12]. In our study, we provide evidence for a role of CXCR4, as we obtained evidence from PLA and chemotaxis experiments for CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplex formation to facilitate MIFelicited chemotaxis of activated T cells. We also obtained evidence for MIF-induced internalization of CD74/CXCR4 heterocomplexes from the surface of T cells.

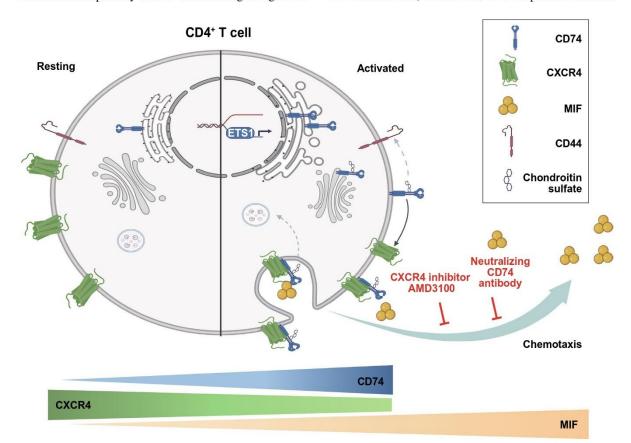
As mentioned above, CD44 represents another potential co-receptor of CD74 in T cells that is abundantly expressed and is an established activation marker of T cells. Additional studies are necessary to evaluate the functional relevance of CD74/CD44 interactions in T cells [11, 93].



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An impaired adaptive immune response linked to sustained T-cell activation and a dysregulated IFN-response is believed to be a significant determinant of COVID-19 progression [30, 32, 94, 95]. Furthermore, accumulating evidence points towards a critical role of MIF as a prognostic marker to predict disease severity and patient outcome in COVID-19 disease. Notably, a recent study by Westmeier et al. investigated MIF receptor expression in CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in COVID-19 patients with mild and severe disease and observed an increased expression of CD74 in CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells compared to healthy controls [71]. Interestingly, the authors also observed an inducible expression of CXCR2 and CXCR4 upon SARS-CoV-2 infection pointing towards increased susceptibility to MIF-mediated signaling in the

course of COVID-19 disease. A characterization of T-cell subpopulations in their study revealed a predominant central and effector memory phenotype of the CD74-expressing T cells that further produced higher cytotoxic molecules and expressed enhanced proliferation markers. In accordance, we observed a significant upregulation of CD74 surface expression on CD4<sup>+</sup> and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in the severe disease group, when comparing patient cohorts with mild and severe COVID-19 disease. In contrast, no significant differences between both groups regarding CXCR4 expression was observed. CD74 markedly exceeded HLA-DR expression, which showed no significant changes between both cohorts, again confirming an MHC II-independent regulation of CD74 in T cells. Of note, CXCR4 and CD74 expression was also



**Fig. 7** Scheme of the regulation of the MIF receptors CD74 and CXCR4 in resting and activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell state. During resting state, CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells express CXCR4 abundantly on the cell surface, while CD74 is constitutively expressed and synthesized intracellularly. Most likely due to its retention signal CD74 resides in the ER with functional circulation in the endolysoomal compartment. Triggered by T-cell activation, CD74 gene expression and protein synthesis is rapidly upregulated in contrast to the initially repressed CXCR4 expression. We speculate, that ETS1 might be involved in the rapid regulation of CD74 in this process. Furthermore, CD74 molecules are post-translationally modified by addition of chondroitin sulfate

moieties. This modification enables rapid transport of CD74 towards the cell surface, where it can act as a functional surface receptor for MIF, a proinflammatory cytokine that is secreted during T-cell activation and exerts additional auto- and paracrine effects. In activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells, MIF leads to internalization of CD74/CXCR4 receptor complexes. Both receptors are crucial for MIF-induced chemotaxis, as blockade of either CXCR4 or CD74 abrogates CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell migration towards MIF. Scheme was created with BioRender.com (license of the Institute for Stroke and Dementia Research)



monitored in monocyte subpopulations in the same patient cohort revealing enhanced expression of CD74 in classical monocytes again without significant changes in CXCR4 expression. We speculate that the observed upregulation of CD74 reflects increased COVID-19-induced T-cell activation states, which might enhance susceptibility towards MIF [30, 32]. However, suitability of T-cell CD74 as a potential biomarker for disease progression in COVID-19 and its relevance in other inflammatory or malignant diseases accompanied by broad T-cell activation still needs to be evaluated in future prospective trials. Furthermore, due to the small patient cohort and heterogeneity a subgroup-specific analysis based on factors such as age, gender or comorbidities was not feasible in the presented study.

In summary, our data identify CD74 as a functional MIF receptor and MHC II-independent activation marker of activated CD4+ T cells mediating MIF-driven CD4+ T-cell chemotaxis, most likely through complex formation with CXCR4. CD74 and CXCR4 expression levels behave inversely in the course of T-cell activation. Induction of CD74 occurs rapidly upon activation stimulus in naive and memory T cells leading to an activation-induced chondroitin sulfated isoform. We have thus unraveled a previously unrecognized MIF/CD74/CXCR4 signaling pathway in activated human T cells with functional relevance for T-cell motility and potentially other activities of activated T cells (Fig. 7). We confirm high CD74 surface expression in T cells under disease conditions in critically ill COVID-19 patients potentially linking dysregulated CD74 to disease severity. Thus, targeting the dysregulated MIF-CD74 axis might resemble a tractable treatment strategy to interfere with the critical role of MIF in the COVID-19 disease context. To this end, future studies will be needed to clarify whether CD74 could have implications in immunosenescence of T cells with potential relevance for the enhanced susceptibility of the aging population to infections like COVID-19 or reduced responses to vaccinations [96–98].

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Author contributions Adrian Hoffmann and Jürgen Bernhagen conceived and designed the study. Lin Zhang, Iris Woltering, Adrian Hoffmann, Mathias Holzner, Markus Brandhofer, Carl-Christian Schaefer, Genta Bushati, Simon Ebert, Bishan Yang performed research and analyzed data. Omar El Bounkari, Patrick Scheiermann, Lin Zhang, Iris Woltering, Adrian Hoffmann, and Jürgen Bernhagen contributed to the interpretation of the data. Maximilian Muenchhoff, Johannes C. Hellmuth, Clemens Scherer, Christian Wichmann, David Effinger and Max Hübner contributed to critical materials. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Adrian Hoffmann, Lin Zhang, and Iris Woltering, with help from Jürgen Bernhagen. All authors revised and commented on the manuscript drafts and approved the final manuscript. Jürgen Bernhagen and Adrian Hoffmann provided funding for the study.

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Data availability and material All data and materials as well as software application information are available in the manuscript, the supplementary information, or are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request. The dataset published by Szabo et al., which was re-analyzed during the current study is publicly available on the gene expression omnibus (GEO) under accession number GSE126030 [35]. Plots were generated using the Single Cell Expression Atlas of the European Bioinformatics Institute (EBI) of the European Molecular Biology Laboratory (EMBL) (https://www. ebi.ac.uk/gxa/sc/experiments/E-HCAD-8/results/tsne, last visited 20th of December, 2023). Secondly, a bulk-RNAseq data set together with the according proteomic data as recently published by Cano-Gamez et al. was re-analyzed [28]. The RNAseq raw data were accessed via the Open Targets website (https://www.opentargets.org/projects/effec torness) and subsequently re-analyzed as described in the manuscript. The full analysis code is published on GitHub (https://github.com/ SimonE1220/CD74Tcelldiff). The available proteomic raw data were accessed via the Proteomics Identifications Database (PRIDE) under the accession number PXD015315. Additionally, a data set published by Wolf et al. was re-analyzed [39]. The data-set is publicly accessible in the GEO with accession number GSE147229 and GSE146787 or via www.immunomics.ch (last visited 7th of December, 2023).

#### **Declarations**

Conflict of interest C.S. received speaker honoraria from AstraZeneca on topics outside of the submitted work. J.B. and O.E.B. are inventors on patent applications related to anti-MIF strategies. All other authors declare no competing interests.

Ethics approval and consent to participate Studies abide by the Declaration of Helsinki principles and all patients provided informed con-



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sent. Studies were approved by ethics approvals 18-104 and 23-0639 of the Ethics Committee of LMU Munich, which encompasses the use of anonymized tissue and blood specimens for research purposes. The study of patient samples from the COVID-19 Registry of the LMU University Hospital Munich (CORKUM, WHO trial ID DRKS00021225) was approved by the Ethics Committee of LMU Munich (project numbers: 20-245 and 23-0711).

#### Consent for publication N/A.

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### 6. Publication II: Spiller, L. et al., 2023

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#### **BIOCHEMISTRY**

### Plant MDL proteins synergize with the cytokine MIF at CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptors in human cells

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Mammalian macrophage migration inhibitory factor (MIF) and its paralog, D-dopachrome tautomerase, are multifunctional inflammatory cytokines. Plants have orthologous MIF and D-dopachrome tautomerase-like (MDL) proteins that mimic some of the effects of MIF on immune cells in vitro. We explored the structural and functional similarities between the three Arabidopsis thaliana MDLs and MIF. X-ray crystallography of the MDLs revealed high structural similarity between MDL and MIF homotrimers and suggested a potential explanation for the lack of tautomerase activity in the MDLs. MDL1 and MDL2 interacted with each other and with MIF in vitro, in yeast, and in plant leaves and formed hetero-oligomeric complexes with MIF in vitro. The MDLs stimulated signaling through the MIF receptors CXCR2 or CXCR4 and enhanced the responses to MIF in a yeast reporter system, in human neutrophils, and in human lung epithelial cells. Pharmacological inhibitors that disrupted MIF activity or prevented the formation of MIF-MDL hetero-oligomers blocked the observed synergism. These findings demonstrate that MDLs can enhance cellular responses to MIF, which may have functional implications in tissues exposed to MDLs from the diet or environment.

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#### INTRODUCTION

The immune defense system of vertebrates relies on a sophisticated network of innate and adaptive arms and is composed of a remarkable variety of immune cells that communicate and traffic through a circulatory system (1). Cytokines and chemokines are specialized soluble immune mediators and act as coordinators of the human immune response. Accordingly, dysregulated cytokine and chemokine responses are associated with numerous diseases (2). Macrophage migration inhibitory factor (MIF) and its paralog Ddopachrome tautomerase (D-DT; also known as MIF-2) are multifunctional inflammatory cytokines with chemokine-like properties that are key components of the host immune response (3-6). MIF not only signals through its cognate receptor CD74 to control proliferation, survival, and inflammatory responses (7) but also engages in noncognate interactions with the chemokine receptors CXCR2, CXCR4, and CXCR7 to promote immune cell recruitment (8). These activities also causally link MIF to a variety of human diseases, including acute and chronic inflammatory conditions,

atherosclerosis, autoimmune disorders, neurodegenerative diseases, and cancer (4, 8-14).

MIF and D-DT (MIF/D-DT)-like (MDL) proteins have been identified in nearly all kingdoms of life, including uni- and multicellular parasites, fungi, and plants, suggesting that the evolutionary origin of the gene encoding an ancestral form MIF/D-DT dates back more than 900 million years (15-17). Parasite-derived MIF orthologs can mimic mammalian MIF activities to act as virulence factors as a basis for immune evasion and are, in some cases, pharmacological targets (16). Plants have developed effective innate immune mechanisms, such as pattern recognition receptors, to fight microbial attacks but lack an adaptive immune system (18). Moreover, many of the primordial organisms expressing MIF-like genes lack a circulation and a cell-based immune system, and in some, even the existence of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs), which act as secondary MIF receptors in vertebrates, is controversial. These facts have fueled speculation about MIF as an ancient enzyme that acquired extracellular functions as a cytokine in a process of neofunctionalization (17).

The three-dimensional (3D) structure of human MIF (19) bears notable resemblance to a group of bacterial enzymes consisting of 4oxalocrotonate tautomerase, 5-(carboxymethyl)-2-hydroxymuconate isomerase, and malonate semialdehyde decarboxylase (20). The MIF monomer has a molecular mass of 12.5 kDa and is composed of two  $\alpha$  helices tightly packed against four antiparallel-oriented B strands. However, MIF crystallizes as a homotrimer, in which three monomers interact with each other to form a barrelshaped structure with a central solvent channel running through the protein assembly (19). Human MIF shares a sequence identity of <20% with the abovementioned microbial enzymes but has a tautomerase catalytic cavity between its subunits and an unusually acidic N-terminal proline residue, exposed after proteolytic removal of the initial methionine residue, with a p $K_a$  of 5.6

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(where Ka is the acid dissociation constant), consistent with a function as a catalytic base (21-23). Although MIF can catalyze the tautomerization of the nonphysiological substrate D-dopachrome [or D-dopachrome methyl ester (DME)] and enol-keto forms of the physiological molecule 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate (HPP) in vitro (21, 22), a bona fide substrate for MIF activity in humans has remained elusive, and a role for the enzymatic activity in human cells has not been clearly demonstrated. However, mutational and inhibitor studies have demonstrated that changes in the catalytic cavity lead to conformational alterations that affect MIF binding to CD74, CXCR2, and CXCR4 (24-28). The tautomerase catalytic site has been used in a variety of methods to identify small-molecule inhibitors that affect several mouse models of disease. Although much less studied, MIF also features redox-regulatory activity related to its redox-sensitive cysteine residues (29) and has been suggested to have nuclease activity owing to a PD-D/E(X)K nuclease motif (30).

Comparison of MIF and MDL proteins across different kingdoms reveals a high degree of sequence conservation, with many sites being under selection in some kingdoms, especially in plants (17, 31). Conservation is high for the tautomerase site, whereas other motifs known to be of functional importance in human MIF (such as the pseudo-*E*LR motif required for CXCR2 binding) are not well conserved (32). There seems to be a complex interplay between vertebrate MIF and parasite MIF orthologs, with implications for virulence and host defense (33).

Regarding MDLs in the plant kingdom, in silico analysis has demonstrated an extraordinary degree of evolutionary conservation in these proteins and the genes that encode them, and they may have a role in development and defense (17, 34). Multiple MDL genes are typically present per plant species, including model plants such as Arabidopsis thaliana, as well as crops and other food plants. The three Arabidopsis MDLs (herein termed MDLs for simplicity) share a sequence identity of 28 to 33% with human MIF, with higher conservation in the tautomerase cavity (fig. S1) (35). MDL1 and MDL2 localize to the cytoplasm of plant cells, whereas MDL3 resides in peroxisomes (34). In vitro assays indicate that the tautomerase activity of MDLs for the artificial substrates HPP and D-dopachrome is greatly reduced in comparison with human MIF (36). Given the sequence homology between MDLs and human MIF, we previously tested whether MDLs would interact with components of the human MIF signaling network, similar to the virulence paradigm established for parasite MIF orthologs (16, 33, 37). We observed an unexpected degree of cross-kingdom mimicry, with MDLs binding to and activating the human MIF receptors CXCR4 and CD74 and promoting the chemotaxis of human leukocytes (36). This observation expanded the previously established interplay between the plant immune system and MIF-like proteins delivered by the plant-parasitic aphid Acrythosiphon pisum, suggesting the possibility of an unanticipated cross-kingdom interaction between components of the plant and human immune system (38).

In this study, we sought to characterize the structures of MDLs and understand the mechanisms underlying the interplay between plant MDLs, human MIF (hereafter referred to as MIF), and MIF receptors. We determined the crystallographic structures of all three *Arabidopsis* MDLs, identified structural similarities between MDLs and MIF, and unraveled the presumed basis for the unexpectedly low tautomerase activity of MDLs. We demonstrated by biochemical, cell biological, and biophysical methodologies that MDLs and

MIF formed hetero-oligomeric complexes that affected MIF-driven receptor responses by cross-kingdom synergy.

#### RESULTS

# Crystal structures of *Arabidopsis* MDLs reveal high structural similarity to human MIF and a putative basis for their lack of tautomerase activity

We expressed and purified recombinant C-terminally hexahistidine-tagged MIF orthologs MDL1-6×His, MDL2-6×His, and MDL3-6×His (thereafter referred to as MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3) (fig. S2, A to C). The x-ray structure of these three MDLs was solved and refined to 1.56, 1.40, and 2.00 Å resolutions, respectively (Fig. 1A and table S1). All three MDL proteins crystallized as trimers with a very high overall structural similarity to the human MIF trimer, including three  $3_{10}$  helices (Fig. 1A) with a root mean square deviation (RMSD) ranging from 0.734 Å for MDL1 to 0.906 Å for MDL3 (Fig. 1B). Analysis of a structure-based alignment revealed 27% sequence identity for an all-against-all comparison of all three MDLs and 12% sequence identity for a comparison of the three MDLs with MIF (fig. S1) (35). The 14 invariant residues per monomer in the structural alignment (fig. S1) are localized into separate regions: Region 1 is the catalytic cavity between two subunits and contains Pro<sup>1</sup> and Ser<sup>63</sup> (all residue numbering refers to that for MIF; fig. S1), whereas region 2 is a discontinuous surface outside the catalytic cavity composed of the six residues Ala<sup>27</sup>, Gly<sup>31</sup>, Pro<sup>33</sup>, Gly<sup>65</sup>, Ser<sup>63</sup>, and Asp<sup>100</sup> (fig. S3, A and B). In region 3, a major portion of the Asp<sup>100</sup> surface area is outside the solvent channel, adjacent to the MIF allosteric site residue Tyr<sup>99</sup>, the side chain of which is within the channel serving as a solvent-gating residue (fig. S3C) (26). MDL1 and MDL2 also have a tyrosine residue at the equivalent position, and MDL3 has a phenylalanine residue (fig. S1). There are three residues that belong to multiple regions based on their structural orientation. For example, Ser<sup>63</sup> is part of both regions 1 and 2 with the hydroxyl group being part of the catalytic cavity and its backbone contributing to the surface area (fig. S3B). Asp $^{100}$  belongs to region 2, where Gly $^{65}$  makes a hydrogen bond between their backbone atoms, but the side chain of Asp $^{100}$ is the only residue in region 3. At region 4, the Arg<sup>93</sup> side chain makes a hydrogen bond to the backbone of Phe<sup>49</sup>, which is at the C-terminal end of a  $\beta$  strand involved in subunit-subunit interactions and serves a role in stabilizing this  $\beta$  strand that provides the specificity for MDLs and MIF to form homotrimers (fig. S3D). Regarding the remaining seven invariant residues (Thr<sup>7</sup>, Asn<sup>8</sup>, Phe<sup>49</sup>, Gly<sup>51</sup>, Ala<sup>57</sup>, Leu<sup>83</sup>, and Arg<sup>93</sup>), Ala<sup>57</sup> and Leu<sup>83</sup> are buried within the hydrophobic core of the protein, and Thr<sup>7</sup>, Asn<sup>8</sup>, Phe<sup>49</sup>, Gly<sup>51</sup>, and Arg<sup>93</sup> are localized in loop regions (fig. S3A).

We also examined the tautomerase catalytic cavity in more detail, focusing only on the structures of the MDLs. The electrostatic potential of the catalytic cavity of MDL3 was low, consistent with a lack of catalytic activity for HPP. A view of the electrostatic potential of MDL1 and MDL2 did not explain the large difference in catalytic activity between MIF and MDL1 or MDL2 because each displayed high active site identity and a positive electrostatic potential at the active site (Fig. 1A). We therefore superimposed each MDL on the MIF-HPP enzyme-substrate complex to create a model of HPP interacting with the MDLs' catalytic sites (Fig. 1B) (39). The interactions were analyzed and compared with the respective MIF-HPP

complex. The major difference in catalytic residues between human MIF (Pro<sup>1A</sup>, Lys<sup>32A</sup>, Ser<sup>63A</sup>, Ile<sup>64A</sup>, Tyr<sup>95C</sup>, and Asn<sup>97C</sup>, where A, B, and C refer to the trimer subunits) and those of the three MDLs was  $Lys^{98C}$ . Note that MDL  $Lys^{98}$  is equivalent to MIF  $Asn^{97}$  because of an extra residue in the MDLs (fig. S1). Substitution of  $\mathrm{Asn}^{97}$  in MIF by lysine markedly reduces the tautomerase activity for both HPP and DME (36), suggesting that Asn<sup>97</sup> in MIF is important for the tautomerase enzymatic activity of MIF using these artificial substrates, whereas a lysine residue in this position in MIF would not support the enzymatic activity. In turn, this may imply that the lysine residue at that position in the MDLs (Lys<sup>98</sup>) may not support or may even obstruct the enzymatic tautomerase activity. When we inspected the position of this residue in detail, the major structural difference between MDL1 and MIF was the different side-chain orientation of Lys98, which was oriented away from HPP with a distance of >5.4 Å for all three subunits in MDL1. By contrast, the side-chain amide group of Asn<sup>97</sup> in MIF formed a hydrogen bond with HPP (Fig. 1C). The large distance between Lys of the MDLs and HPP was similar in the analysis for MDL2 and MDL3 with the modeled HPP, resulting in a loss of a hydrogen bond interaction and presumed decreased affinity for HPP (fig. S4, A and B).

An unanticipated difference was observed in MDLs at residue 96, which is the equivalent position of MIF Tyr<sup>95</sup> (fig. S1). The side chain of Tyr<sup>96</sup> for MDL1 had different conformations in the three subunits. In one subunit, it clashed with the modeled HPP, and in the other two subunits, the side chain had no predicted interactions with HPP. The equivalent residues for MDL2 and MDL3 are Phe<sup>96</sup> and Ile<sup>96</sup>, respectively. The proteins differed in the position of these residues from Tyr<sup>96</sup> in MDL1, with Phe<sup>96</sup> of MDL2 making van der Waals interactions with HPP (fig. S4A), whereas the Ile<sup>96</sup> of MDL3 was not predicted to interact with HPP at all (fig. S4B). Together, the crystal structures of *Arabidopsis* MDLs revealed a high overall

structural similarity to human MIF. This similarity was even more notable at the catalytic cavity with exceptions at residues Lys<sup>98</sup> (which replaces Asn<sup>97</sup> in MIF) and Tyr<sup>96</sup>, Phe<sup>96</sup>, and Ile<sup>96</sup> (which replace Tyr<sup>95</sup> in MIF). A different orientation and conformation of these residues, respectively, could be the basis of the inactive tautomerase catalytic site in the *Arabidopsis* orthologs.

### MIF and MDLs engage in direct protein-protein interactions in vitro, in cells, and in planta

The high degree of structural similarity between MIF and the three MDLs and the capacity of each of these proteins to form homotrimers prompted us to investigate whether these proteins would also physically interact with each other across kingdom boundaries. To test this possibility experimentally, we first performed in vitro coimmunoprecipitation assays with MIF and MDL1 as a representative of the three MDLs. Purified MDL1-6×His and biotinylated MIF-6×His were mixed, complexes pulled down by streptavidincoated magnetic beads, and the resulting eluate analyzed by blotting and detection with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated streptavidin to verify precipitation of biotinylated MIF-6×His and with the custom-made, MDL1-specific monoclonal antibody Atm1 21G9 (fig. S5) to detect coprecipitated MDL1-6×His (Fig. 2A). Complex formation was further confirmed by analyzing immunoblots with an antibody specific for the histidine tag (fig. S6). This revealed an association of the recombinant MIF and MDL1 proteins in vitro.

To determine whether interactions between MIF and MDL also occurred in cells, we tested all pairwise interactions between MIF, MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3 in yeast two-hybrid assays. Similar to our previous report (34), we detected a weak homomeric MDL1-MDL1 interaction and a strong heteromeric MDL1-MDL2 interaction in this system. In accordance with earlier biochemical evidence (19, 40, 41), we also noticed a homomeric MIF-MIF interaction.

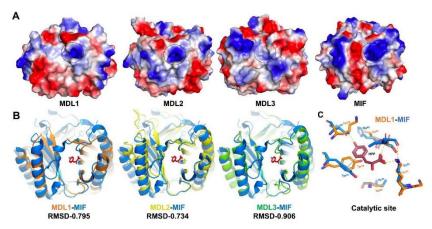


Fig. 1. Structural properties of each MDL protein and comparison to MIF. (A) Electrostatic surface potential representation of each Arabidopsis MDL (MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3) and human MIF. The tautomerase substrate binding sites are marked with dashed circles. Regions of negative potential are colored red, those of positive potential are colored blue, and neutral regions are shown in white and gray. (B) Overlays of MDL structures on the structure of the MIF-HPP complex (PDB 1CA7). The blue cartoon represents the structure of MIF. Orange, yellow, and green cartoons represent MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3, respectively. The RMSD of atomic positions is shown for each complex. The HPP (red) in these overlays is used as the position of the modeled HPP in the MDL-HPP complexes for analysis. (C) Residues of MDL1 analogous to the tautomerase catalytic site of human MIF (orange carbon atoms) superimposed on human MIF (blue carbon atoms from PDB 1CA7) with a modeled HPP substrate (red). Hydrogen bonds between MIF and HPP (red carbon atoms) are represented by yellow dashed lines, and the aromatic interaction is shown as a black dashed line.

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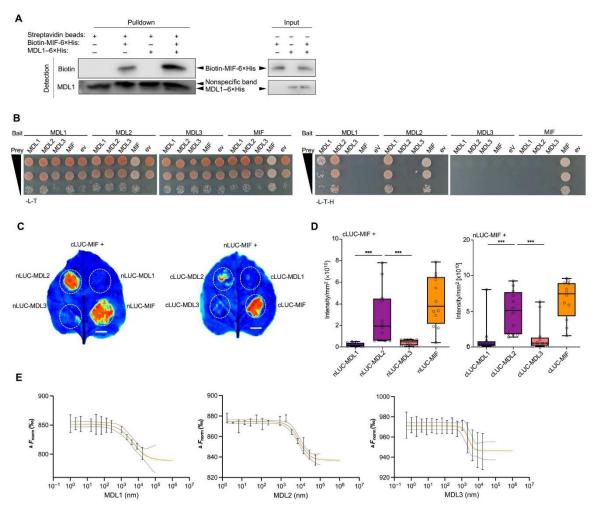


Fig. 2. MIF and MDL proteins interact in vitro, in yeast, and in plant tissues. (A) Purified tagged MIF (Biotin-MIF-6×His) and MDL1 (MDL1-6×His) were incubated alone or together, and complexes pulled down by streptavidin-coated beads were blotted after separation by SDS-PAGE. Blots were probed for biotin using a streptavidin $peroxidase\ conjugate\ to\ visualize\ MIF\ and\ for\ MDL1\ using\ an\ MDL1\ specific\ antibody.\ Input\ sample\ before\ pulldown\ is\ shown\ for\ comparison.\ The\ nonspecific\ band\ in\ peroxidase\ conjugate\ to\ visualize\ MIF\ and\ for\ MDL1\ using\ an\ MDL1\ specific\ antibody.\ Input\ sample\ before\ pulldown\ is\ shown\ for\ comparison.\ The\ nonspecific\ band\ in\ peroxidase\ pe$ the pulldown blot probed for MDL1, absent in the input samples, originates from the streptavidin-coated beads used to pull down biotin-tagged MIF and represents streptavidin monomers, which migrate with an apparent molecular mass of 16 kDa in SDS-PAGE. Pulldown and input samples were blotted on separate membranes for technical reasons. The pulldown experiment shown is representative of two independent experiments (n = 2). The pulldown blot was also probed with an antibody specific for the hexahistidine tag (fig. S6). (B) Interaction between MIF and MDL proteins in a yeast two-hybrid assay. All possible bait-prey combinations were tested as indicated. Control experiments for growth (left) were performed on synthetic complete medium lacking leucine (-L, selection for the bait vector) and tryptophan (-T, selection for the prev vector). Selection for interaction (right) was performed on synthetic complete medium lacking leucine (-L), tryptophan (-T), and histidine (-H, selection for interaction); ev, empty vector. For each condition, a  $10 \times \text{dilution series}$  is shown. Images are representative of three biological replicates (n = 3). (C and D) Interactions between MIF and MDL proteins tested in a luciferase complementation imaging assay in N. benthamiana leaves. Representative images (C) show luminescence in representative leaves transfected cLuc-MIF or nLuc-MIF and the indicated nLuc or cLuc MDL fusion constructs, respectively, in discrete areas marked by dashed white circles. Warmer colors indicate a higher amount of luminescence. Scale bars, 1 cm. Luminescence was quantified by measuring the intensity of light emission and calculated per square millimeter (D). The experiment was independently performed three times with four leaves for nLuc-MIF and four leaves for cLuc-MIF in each experiment. Boxplots show the results of the 12 data points per combination (n = 12). For statistical analysis, paired t test with post hoc Bonferroni correction was conducted accounting for correlations among intensity measurements on the same leaf (\*\*\*P < 0.001). (E) Direct protein-protein interaction studies between fluorescently labeled RED-NHS-MIF and MDL proteins using microscale thermophoresis (MST). For a constant MIF concentration of 100 nM, the difference in normalized fluorescence [per mil (‰)] is plotted against increasing MDL concentrations for analysis of thermophoresis. Values shown represent means ± SD as obtained from at least three biologically independent experiments ( $n \ge 3$ ).

MIF-MDL2 complex formation occurred in yeast, when MDL2 was used as the bait protein (Fig. 2B), but not when MIF was used as bait. To substantiate these findings suggesting direct binding between human MIF and a plant MDL, we performed in planta luciferase complementation imaging (LCI) assays. In this experimental setup, fusion proteins tagged with enzymatically inactive N- and C-terminal segments of firefly luciferase (nLUC and cLUC, respectively) were transiently expressed in Nicotiana benthamiana leaves (fig. S7A). Interaction of candidate proteins led to the reconstitution of enzymatically active luciferase, which was detected and quantified upon addition of the substrate luciferin. Coexpression of nLUC-MIF with cLUC-tagged MDL1, MDL2, MDL3, or MIF resulted in strong luciferase activity for the cLUC-MDL2 and nLUC-MIF combination. Similarly, expression of cLUC-MIF yielded strong luciferase activity in the reciprocal combination with nLUC-MDL2 and additionally with nLUC-MIF (Fig. 2, C and D, and fig. S7B). To quantify direct binding between MIF and its MDL homologs, we determined the dissociation constant  $(K_{\rm D})$  values of MIF-MDL interactions using microscale thermophoresis (MST), a biomolecular interaction methodology suitable to measure protein-protein binding at nano- to micromolar concentrations under solution conditions. We chemically labeled recombinant MIF with the RED-N-hydroxysuccinimidyl (NHS) dye to analyze the interaction with unlabeled recombinant MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3, respectively. We observed characteristic sigmoidal binding curves with K<sub>D</sub> values less than 5 μM for each MIF-MDL pair (Fig. 2E). Several negative controls, including buffer (fig. S8A), bovine serum albumin (BSA) (fig. S8B), and heat-denatured MDL1 protein (fig. S8C), did not result in sigmoidal binding curves, indicating that the MIF-MDL interactions were due to specific binding. Together, four different types of protein-protein interaction assays (in vitro coimmunoprecipitation, yeast twohybrid, in planta LCI experiments, and in vitro MST) provided evidence for direct association of MIF and MDL proteins.

### MIF and MDLs synergistically activate human chemokine receptors in yeast

We have previously used a genetically modified strain of Saccharomyces cerevisiae that expresses functional human chemokine receptors that signal through an altered S. cerevisiae Ga (GPA1) protein. In this system, GPA1 activation stimulates the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway, the transcription factor STE12, and STE12-dependent expression of a β-galactosidase (lacZ/β-gal) reporter (Fig. 3A) (25, 42-45). Capitalizing on this established system for assaying CXCR4 activation (25) and an analogous yeast strain expressing CXCR2 generated herein, we tested MIF and the MDLs for activation of intracellular signaling downstream of CXCR4 and CXCR2. Because MDL3 did not exhibit any interactions in the yeast and plant assays, we focused subsequent experiments on MDL1 and MDL2. Both MDL1 and MDL2 activated CXCR4 more potently than did MIF, with each protein used at 20  $\mu M$  (Fig. 3B). When 10  $\mu M$  MIF with 10  $\mu M$  either of MDL1 or MDL2 were tested together, a hyperactivated (synergistic) effect was observed, with the MIF-MDL2 mixture about three times more active than the MIF-MDL1 combination (Fig. 3B). We also verified the specificity of the synergistic effect applying an otherwise isogenic yeast strain lacking CXCR4, which was generated by a plasmid loss approach from the CXCR4-expressing strain (46). This experiment confirmed that only negligible reporter activity

was measurable in the absence of CXCR4, thus essentially excluding effects by endogenous yeast factors (fig. S9, A and B). Activation of the chemokine receptor CXCR2 by MIF occurs in mammalian cells (8, 28, 32). The MDLs lack the pseudo-ELR motif of two nonadjacent residues present in human MIF (Arg11 and Asp44) that contributes to binding and activation of CXCR2 (32). Consequently, MDL1 and MDL2 were not expected to activate CXCR2. However, application of 20 µM MIF, MDL1, and MDL2 revealed that MDL1 and MDL2 activated CXCR2 to a greater extent than did MIF, although the MDL proteins contain uncharged residues in positions 11 and 44 (Fig. 3C and fig. S1). Given the results with CXCR4, we also tested whether the coapplication of MIF and MDLs affected activation in the CXCR2-dependent yeast reporter system. Similar to the effect seen for CXCR4, joint application of MIF with either MDL1 or MDL2 resulted in hyperactivation, indicating a synergistic effect on CXCR2 activation when MIF was mixed with either MDL1 or MDL2 (Fig. 3C).

We used pharmacological probes to support these results. The MIF small-molecule inhibitor 4,5-dihydro-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl)-5-isoxazoleacetic acid methyl ester (ISO-1) binds to the tautomerase pocket of MIF, thereby inhibiting its catalytic activity as well as its CD74-mediated induction of MAPK activation, p53-dependent apoptosis, and cell proliferation (47-49). ISO-1 was previously also shown to partially block MIF-CXCR4 reporter activation (42) and MDL1-induced monocyte chemotaxis (36), indicating that this inhibitor might likewise affect CXCR4 activation by MDL1. In the yeast-based CXCR4 reporter system, coapplication of ISO-1 (100 μM) with MIF, MDL1, or MDL2 strongly reduced the activating capacity of these proteins (Fig. 3D). We also noticed a marked reduction of the synergistic effect triggered by the joint application of MIF with MDL1 or MDL2 by ISO-1. The US Food and Drug Administration-approved drug AMD3100 is a CXCR4 receptor antagonist that prevents the binding of CXCR4 ligands, such as CXCL12, and partially inhibits MIF, thus constraining CXCR4 signaling (25). Using AMD3100 in the yeast reporter assay at a 10-fold molar excess over the concentration of the tested ligands, we observed significantly reduced CXCR4 activation by MIF and MDL2, both in single application and in combination of the two proteins (Fig. 3E). For MDL1 alone, there was no inhibition by AMD3100 and only a mild reduction in signaling when coapplied with MIF. The CXCR2 antagonist SB225002 (50) (used at 20-fold molar excess over the ligands) reduced activation by MIF, MDL1, and MDL2 to similar degrees (Fig. 3F).

To further explore the observed synergistic effect between MIF and the MDLs, we performed concentration-response experiments using the synergism between MIF and MDL1 on CXCR4 (Fig. 3B) as an example. We initially coincubated the previously applied concentration of 20 µM MIF with 1 to 4 µM MDL1. Synergy occurred at 1 μM MDL1 and further increased at higher concentrations, with a fivefold enhancement of reporter activity at 4 µM MDL1 (Fig. 3G). To study synergy in greater detail, we next used a subthreshold concentration of 1  $\mu$ M MIF while varying MDL1 from 0.01 to 10  $\mu$ M. A significant synergistic effect was already noted at 1 µM MDL1 and continuously increased at higher concentrations (Fig. 3H and fig. S10, A and B). The apparent half maximal effective concentration (EC<sub>50</sub>) for a synergistic effect of MDL1 under 1 μM MIF for this assay was determined to be 2.5 to 3 µM (Fig. 3I and fig. S10, C and D). A similar value was determined when the luminescence response of the MDL1-alone treatment was subtracted (fig. S11, A to

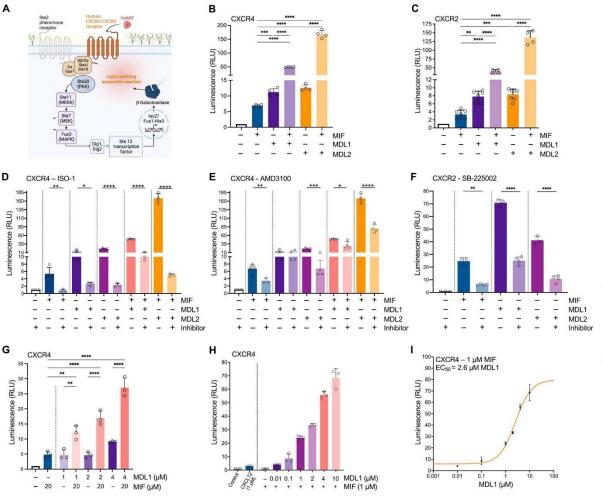


Fig. 3. MDL1 and MDL2 activate CXCR2 and CXCR4 in yeast and synergize with MIF. We measured the activation of CXCR2 and CXCR4 by recombinant MIF, MDL1, and MDL2, alone or in combination, and in the absence or presence of specific inhibitors, in a yeast-based reporter system. (A) Schematic illustration of the modified pheromone signaling pathway in S. cerevisiae. The endogenous GPCR Ste2 has been replaced by the human chemokine receptor CXCR2 or CXCR4 and linked to the Ste2 downstream signaling cascade. Ligand binding results in activation of the MAPK pathway and eventually triggers expression of the lacZ reporter gene. The resulting  $\beta$ galactosidase activity was measured using a luminescence assay. PAK, p21-activated protein kinase; MEK, MAPK kinase; MEKK, MEK kinase. (B and C) Quantification of luminescence [in relative light units (RLUs)] 30 min after the addition of recombinant proteins to the CXCR4 (B) or CXCR2 (C) yeast reporter system. MIF and MDLs were used either individually or mixed 1:1 for a final total concentration of 20 µM protein per treatment. (D to F) Quantification of luminescence in CXCR4 or CXCR2 reporter cells stimulated with MIF, MDL1, and MDL2 as indicated in the absence or presence of 100 µM ISO-1 (D), 100 µM AMD3100 (E), or 200 µM SB225002 (F). (G) Titration  $experiment in the yeast CXCR4 reporter system. Luminescence was measured in response to increasing concentrations (0, 1, 2, and 4 <math>\mu$ M) of MDL1 alone or in combination with 20 µM MIF. For comparison, the effect of MIF alone at a concentration of 20 µM is shown. Values shown in (B) to (G) represent means ± SD as obtained from at least three biologically independent experiments ( $n \ge 3$ ) with RLUs of each experiment assessed in technical duplicates and normalized to untreated controls. Individual data points are indicated by white circles. (H) Representative concentration-response experiment in the CXCR4 reporter system depicted as bar graph. The graph shows luminescence (in RLU) due to lacZ reporter gene activation upon the addition of subthreshold amounts of MIF (1 μM) and MDL (increasing concentrations 0 to 10 μM). The response to the endogenous CXCR4 ligand CXCL12 (1 μM) is shown for comparison. (I) Concentration-response curve for MIF-MDL1 interaction in the CXCR4 reporter system. The curve was modeled on the basis of (H) assuming a nonlinear fit and shows a half maximal effective concentration (EC50) of 2.6 µM MDL1 for the synergistic effect. In (H) and (I), technical triplicates from one experiment are shown. Two additional biologically independent experiments, each performed with technical triplicates, are presented in the Supplementary Materials (fig. S10, A to D) for n = 3 independent experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison (\*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001, and \*\*\*\*P < 0.0001).

D) (51). Together, the results of these experiments showed that MDL1 and MDL2 were better agonists than MIF when used alone. When used in combination with MIF, MDL1 or MDL2 induced receptor hyperactivation, which was largely blocked by MIF-, CXCR2-, or CXCR4-specific small-molecule inhibitors.

#### MIF-MDL hetero-oligomers are responsible for synergism

MIF can form various stable types of trimers or homo-oligomers, whereas monomers and dimers are less stable  $(24,\ 40,\ 52-54)$ . This prompted us to investigate whether MIF and MDLs can also form hetero-oligomers, which could be the basis of the observed synergistic effect on CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptor activation. MIF and MDL1 each eluted as trimers when individually subjected to size exclusion chromatography (SEC) (Fig. 4A), but a mixture of MIF and MDL1 showed formation of potential hexamers in addition to trimers (Fig. 4B). Elution volumes and protein markers were used to obtain a calibration curve (fig. S12, A and B) and to derive a standard equation (fig. S12C) to accurately calculate molecular masses from observed elution volumes (fig. S12D). This allowed estimations for the molecular masses of MIF  $(43.8 \pm 0.7 \text{ kDa})$  and MDL1  $(38.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ kDa})$ , as well as MDL2  $(35.9 \pm 0.6 \text{ kDa})$ , when

the proteins were applied individually (Table 1). These masses are well in line with the expected masses of the respective trimers. The estimated molecular masses obtained for SEC analysis of the MIF and MDL1 mixture were determined to be  $38.5 \pm 0.7$  and  $82.5 \pm 0.6$  kDa (Table 1), values that are in good agreement with the molecular masses of a (homomeric or heteromeric) trimer and a hetero-oligomeric hexamer, respectively.

We noticed that only about one-third of the MIF and MDL1 mixture formed hetero-hexamers (Fig. 4B). To establish whether this proportion of the hetero-hexamer had any functional role, we used the molecule p425, a sulfonated azo compound and allosteric MIF inhibitor proposed to bind at the interface of two adjacent MIF trimers (Fig. 4C) and to inhibit MIF tautomerase and CD74 activities (52, 53). We tested whether p425 affected hetero-hexamer formation between MIF and MDLs using SEC and MST assays. In the presence of 100  $\mu$ M p425, binding of MIF to MDL1 was disrupted, as indicated by a disappearance of the putative hexamer peak in the SEC chromatogram (Fig. 4D). Furthermore, no direct binding was observed in the MST experiment with the MIF-p425-MDL1 mixture (Fig. 4E) or for the MIF-p425-MDL2 and MIF-p425-MDL3 mixtures (fig. S13, A and B).

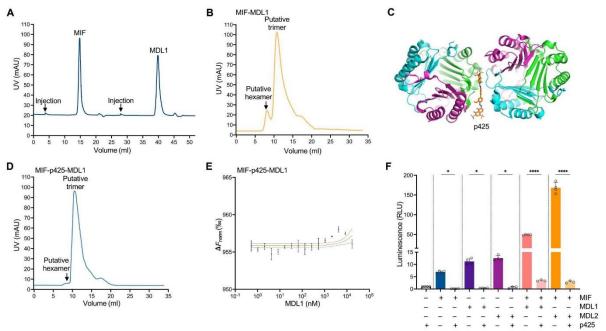


Fig. 4. MIF and MDL1 form hetero-oligomeric complexes in vitro. (A and B) Representative result from size exclusion chromatography (SEC) of MIF-6×His and MDL1-6×His applied to the column individually (A) or as a 1:1 mixture (B) in 20 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.4) at a constant flow rate of 0.5 ml/min. Depicted is the UV absorbance in milliarbitrary units (mAU) over the flow in milliliters. (C) The crystal structure of MIF and p425 showing interactions between two trimers. (D) Representative SEC of an MIF, MDL1, and p425 mixture. The positions of the putative hexamer and the trimer are shown. (E) Direct protein-protein interaction studies between fluorescently labeled RED-NHS-MIF and MDL1 using MST. Inhibitor p425 was used at a 10-fold excess to MIF. For a constant MIF concentration of 100 nM, the difference in normalized fluorescence (given in ‰) is plotted against increasing MDL1 concentrations for analysis of thermophoresis. Values shown represent means  $\pm$  SD as obtained from at least three biological replicates. (F) Quantification of luminescence (in RLUs) in CXCR4-*lacZ* reporter yeast stimulated with MIF, MDL1, and MDL2 recombinant proteins, alone or in 1:1 combination, at a final total protein concentration of 20  $\mu$ M, in the absence or presence of 100  $\mu$ M p425. Values shown represent means  $\pm$  SD as obtained from at least three independent experiments ( $n \ge 3$ ) with RLUs of each experiment assessed in technical duplicates and normalized to untreated controls. Individual data points are indicated by white circles. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc multiple comparisons test (\*P < 0.05 and \*\*\*\*P < 0.0001).

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$\begin{tabular}{ll} \hline & & & \\ & & & \\ \hline & & & \\ \hline & & & \\ \hline \\ \hline$	MIF- 6×His	MDL1- 6×His 12.39 ± 0.04	MDL2- 6×His 12.67 ± 0.08	MDL1-6×His + MIF-6×His*	
				8.673 ± 0.36	12.33 ± 0.09
Calculated molecular massaccording to $V_{\rm e}$ (Da)†	43,831± 731	38,039± 317	35,883± 598	82,543± 6,194	38,518± -723
Predicted monomericmolecular mass (Da)‡	13,410	13,258	13,045	_	_
Ratio calculated/predicted molecular mass	3.27	2.87	2.75	-	-

\*Note that the two subcolumns represent the two peaks obtained for this protein combination. †Values shown represent means ± SD as obtained from at least three independent experiments. ‡On the basis of the corresponding amino acid sequence.

To investigate whether the trimer or hexamer contributed to the observed activation and synergism in the yeast-based assay, we used p425 (100  $\mu M$ ) in the CXCR4 signaling assay with application of the individual agonists MIF, MDL1, or MDL2 alone or with coapplication of MIF with MDL1 or MDL2. Signaling activity was completely abolished by p425 with the individual proteins (Fig. 4F), suggesting that activation of CXCR4 requires access to the tautomerase site, in agreement with our findings with the MIF small-molecule inhibitor ISO-1 in the yeast-based CXCR4 reporter system (Fig. 3D) and in mammalian cells (25). Coadministration of p425 with MIF and either MDL1 or MDL2 also significantly reduced CXCR4 synergistic activity to slightly above basal amounts (Fig. 4E). This result, together with the SEC and MST data, strongly suggested that the observed synergism was due to a hexamer formed by trimeric MIF and a trimeric MDL.

### MIF and MDL1 synergistically promote chemotactic migration of human neutrophils

To determine whether synergism occurs in human cells, we tested the effect of MIF and MDL1 on primary human neutrophil chemotaxis because neutrophils abundantly produce CXCR2 and CXCR4 (but not CD74) and have been shown to migrate upon stimulation with MIF (50). Neutrophil chemotaxis was first examined in a Transwell migration device (fig. S14A). MDL1 was added to the lower chamber as a chemoattractant, and its chemotactic activity toward neutrophils in the upper chamber was compared with MIF and CXCL8 (10 ng/ml) as a bona fide CXCR2 agonist and positive control. MDL1 increased neutrophil chemotaxis in a concentration-dependent manner, with a typical bell-shaped curve and a maximal chemotactic index of about 2 observed at 500 ng/ml. This effect was significantly higher than that of MIF (500 ng/ml) (Fig. 5A). Experiments comparing chemotaxis of a mixture of MIF (250 ng/ml) and MDL1 (250 ng/ml) versus chemotaxis by an individual regimen of MIF (500 ng/ml) or MDL1 (500 ng/ml) demonstrated synergism (Fig. 5B).

We next studied 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils as assessed by single-cell migration tracks in the *x-y* direction using live-cell microscopy (fig. S14B). As expected, compared with the negative control (buffer), the positive controls CXCL8 (500 ng/ml) and MIF (500 ng/ml) led to a significant shift in migration tracks from a random distribution to chemotaxis toward the chemokines (Fig. 5, C to E, and fig. S15, A to C and F). MDL1 had a similar promigratory effect as MIF (Fig. 5F and fig. S15, D and F). Again, addition of an MIF and MDL1 mixture produced a synergistic effect (Fig. 5, G and H, and fig. S15, E and F).

We next tested the effect of the CXCR2 and CXCR4 inhibitors SB-225002 and AMD3100, respectively, on MIF- or MDL1-induced neutrophil chemotaxis in both Transwell and 3D live imaging chemotaxis assays. When assessed by Transwell assay, MIF-induced neutrophil chemotaxis was inhibited by both the CXCR2 and CXCR4 antagonists, but MDL1-induced chemotaxis was only inhibited by SB-225002 across the entire concentration range from 100 to 1000 ng/ml (Fig. 6A). The difference in inhibitor effects between MIF and MDL1 might be explained by only partially overlapping receptor binding sites. Similar results were observed with 3D chemotaxis viewed by live-cell microscopy. The CXCR4 antagonist AMD3100 only inhibited MIF-induced chemotaxis but not that elicited by MDL1 (Fig. 6B and fig. S16, A and C), whereas the CXCR2 antagonist SB-225002 inhibited chemotaxis induced by both proteins (Fig. 6C and fig. S16, B and C). In summary, these results were quantitated (Fig. 6D) and were similar to those obtained with the S. cerevisiae signaling system (Fig. 3, E and F), overall indicating that MDLs can elicit MIF chemokine receptormediated responses and interact synergistically with MIF in human cells.

# MIF and MDL1 synergistically promote AKT signaling downstream of CXCR4 and inflammatory gene expression in human lung epithelial cells

To test MIF receptor activation by MDLs and their synergistic effects with MIF on another human cell type, we assessed the effects of MDLs individually and in combination with MIF on the A549 human lung epithelial cell line. This cell line is a well-established model for human type II pneumocytes that has been used for a variety of studies on lung inflammation and infection (55), and MIF is known to promote inflammatory effects in pneumocytes (12). Flow cytometric analysis of known MIF receptors showed this cell line to produce substantial amounts of CXCR4, whereas CXCR2, CXCR7, and CD74 were not detected in our analysis (fig. S17). MIF can bind and activate CXCR4 to elicit downstream activation of phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) and the kinase AKT that is relevant in both physiology and pathophysiology (56). In line with previous studies, we observed an increase in phosphorylated AKT (pAKT) abundance up to three- to fourfold within 15 min of MIF stimulation (Fig. 7, A and B) (57, 58). We also confirmed the previously described capacity of MDL1 to activate AKT signaling (Fig. 7, A and B) (36). An equimolar coapplication of MIF and MDL1 resulted in a markedly stronger effect with an increase in pAKT concentrations of eight- to ninefold (Fig. 7B).

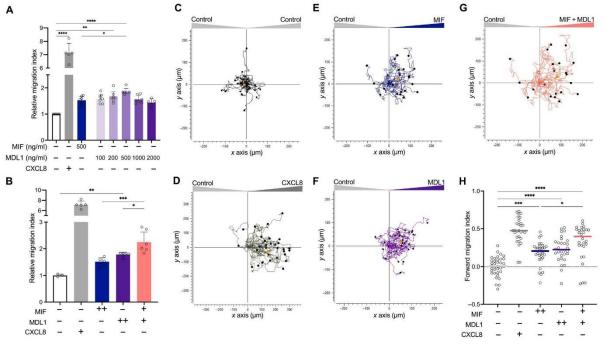


Fig. 5. MDLs promote human neutrophil chemotaxis and augment the chemotactic effect of human MIF. (A) Quantification of chemotactic migration of primary human neutrophils in Transwell chemotaxis assays, presented as the relative migration index, toward different concentrations of MDL1 in the lower chamber. Chemotaxis toward MIF (500 ng/ml) and that toward the cognate CXCR2 agonist CXCL8 (10 ng/ml) were included for comparison. Addition of 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) to the lower chamber served as negative control to normalize treatments to spontaneous (random) migration. The bars represent means ± SD of five to seven biological replicates (white circles indicate individual data points). (B) Comparison of chemotaxis in response to MIF (500 ng/ml), MDL1 (500 ng/ml), or a 1:1 combination of MIF and MDL1 (250 ng/ml each). CXCL8 (10 ng/ml) served as a positive control, and buffer was the negative control. Bars represent means ± SD of three to seven biological replicates (white circles indicate individual data points). (C to G) Representative experiments showing 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils as assessed by live-cell microscopy of single-cell migration tracks in the x/y direction in micrometers. Cells were placed in collagen matrices containing buffer only (control) to track random motility (C) or between a matrix containing buffer and one containing CXCL8 (10 ng/ml) (D), MIF (500 ng/ml) (E), MDL1 (500 ng/ml) (F), or a 1:1 mixture of MIF and MDL1 (250 ng/ml each) (G). Orange dots represent the center of mass in each experiment. (H) Quantification of results shown in (C) to (G). The migration tracks of 30 and migration index plotted (n = 30). Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc multiple comparison between the buffer control and the treatment groups (\*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*\*P < 0.001, and \*\*\*\*\*P < 0.0001).

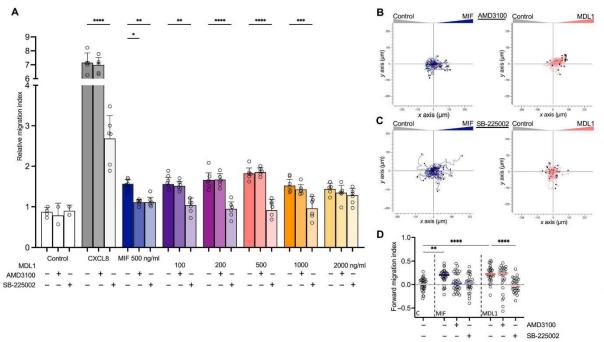
Together, these data supported a synergistic mechanism for AKT signaling promoted by MIF and MDL1 in A549 lung epithelial cells.

Lung macrophages and lung epithelial cells are important sources of inflammatory mediators after the inhalation of potentially harmful material. We therefore also used reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) to measure the expression of major proinflammatory mediator genes TNF-α, IFNγ, CCL2, IL-1β, IL-6, and CXCL8 in A549 cells after stimulation with bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS), MIF, MDL1, or a combination of MIF and MDL1 (Fig. 7, C to H). LPS stimulation resulted in a very strong (10- to 120-fold) increase in inflammatory gene expression in A549 cells for all cytokine genes examined, with the strongest effects observed for IFN- $\gamma$  and TNF- $\alpha$ . MIF increased the expression of all tested proinflammatory genes although to a lesser degree than did LPS. The strongest MIF effects were seen for TNF-α and IL-6, which increased over baseline by about sixfold (Fig. 7, C to H). Stimulation by MDL1 activated proinflammatory cytokine gene expression in a range similar to that observed for MIF, with slightly stronger increases for all transcripts (Fig. 7, C to H). When A549 cells were

stimulated with a combination of MDL1 and MIF, inflammatory cytokine gene induction was significantly stronger than for treatment with either alone, showing an observed rate of increase of 5- to 40-fold. This synergistic effect was most pronounced for  $IFN-\gamma$ ,  $TNF-\alpha$ , and IL-6 (Fig. 7, C to H). Together, these data demonstrated that MDL1 stimulated AKT activation in CXCR4-expressing human lung epithelial cells and induced proinflammatory cytokine responses. They also showed a marked synergistic effect for the combination of the human MIF and plant MDL1 proteins that was particularly pronounced for the cytokine gene expression response. These results are consistent with MDL1 promoting intracellular signaling and proinflammatory gene expression in lung epithelial cells by binding to CXCR4 and show that MDL1 can enhance the responses of lung epithelial cells to MIF.

Overall, our findings demonstrate that MDLs bound and activated CXCR4, stimulated CXCR4-dependent migration of primary human neutrophils, and elicited cellular proinflammatory responses in cultured human lung epithelial cells similarly to MIF. MDLs

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**Fig. 6. MDL1-mediated neutrophil chemotaxis is inhibited by a CXCR2 inhibitor but not by a CXCR4 inhibitor.** (**A**) Quantification of chemotaxis toward various concentrations of MDL1 (100 to 2000 ng/ml) in Transwell assays in the absence or presence of the CXCR4 inhibitor AMD3100 or the CXCR2 inhibitor SB-225002 as indicated. Migration toward CXCL8 (10 ng/ml) or MIF (500 ng/ml) is shown for comparison, and migration toward 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) was used to normalize treatments to random migration (control). The bars represent means  $\pm$  SD of three to six biological replicates (n = 3 to 6), except for the AMD3100 and SB225002 control incubations in the buffer control setting, which are arithmetic means of two independent experiments (n = 2). White circles indicate individual data points. (**B** and **C**) Representative experiments showing 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils as assessed by live-cell microscopy of single-cell migration tracks in the x/y direction in micrometer. The cells were placed between a matrix containing buffer only (control) and a matrix containing MIF (500 ng/ml) or MDL1 (500 ng/ml) in the presence of either AMD3100 (B) or SB225002 (C). Orange dots represent the center of mass for each experiment. (**D**) Quantification of the results in (B) and (C) plus experiments in the absence of the inhibitors. The migration tracks of 30 randomly selected cells per treatment group were recorded, and the forward migration index plotted (n = 30). Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc multiple comparison (\*P < 0.001, \*\*\*P < 0.001, \*\*\*P < 0.001, \*\*\*P < 0.001, \*\*\*P < 0.001.

formed hetero-oligomeric complexes with MIF in vitro and synergistically promoted MIF responses in cells.

#### DISCUSSION

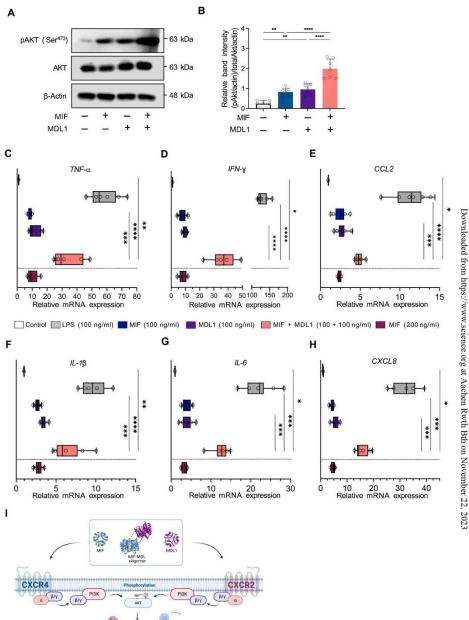
We investigated structural, biochemical, and functional properties of MDLs, plant orthologs of the atypical human cytokine MIF. Analysis of the structural data obtained for all three *Arabidopsis* MDLs showed an extraordinary degree of structural conservation with the overall architecture of mammalian MIF proteins, including the enzymatic site, thereby confirming previous sequence-based in silico modeling (31). Despite the high degree of conservation at the tautomerase active site, a notable difference in enzymatic catalysis was previously observed for all three MDLs in comparison with MIF (36). The crystal structures in our present study may offer a structural explanation for this observation. Lys<sup>98</sup>, which is present in all three MDLs and replaces Asn<sup>97</sup> in MIF, has no stabilizing interaction with the modeled substrate, HPP. In addition, there are other residues that differ between the MDLs and MIF, such as Tyr<sup>96</sup> of MDL1, which has a different conformation than the corresponding

tyrosine in MIF (Tyr<sup>95</sup>), and the existence of Phe<sup>96</sup> and Ile<sup>96</sup> at this position in MDL2 and MDL3, respectively. A different orientation or conformation of these residues in the 3D context of the cavity could be the structural basis of the inactive tautomerase catalytic site in the *Arabidopsis* orthologs (36). However, we cannot eliminate the possibility that binding of HPP to the MDL1 or MDL2 enzymatic site occurs in a nonproductive manner for catalysis because the MIF inhibitor ISO-1 was designed on the basis of the MIF-HPP structure (39) and inhibits MDL-mediated activities.

We present evidence for direct protein-protein interaction and cooperative signaling of MIF with MDLs tested in a variety of systems, including yeast two-hybrid assays, in planta experiments, MST, CXCR2, and CXCR4 signaling assays, and inhibition of signaling by pharmacological agents affecting MIF, CXCR2, and CXCR4 as well as MIF-MDL oligomerization. Furthermore, we obtained evidence for synergistic effects of MDL1 and MIF on inflammatory responses of human cells that can also be explained by protein-protein interactions or cooperative signaling. We acknowledge that in some assays in which an MIF-MDL2 interaction was detected, none was seen for MIF-MDL1. For example, in the yeast

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Fig. 7. MIF and MDL1 synergistically stimulate inflammatory gene expression in A549 lung epithelial cells. (A) Analysis of the AKT signaling pathway in A549 lung epithelial cells using immunoblotting for total AKT and phosphorylated (activated) AKT [pAKT(Ser<sup>473</sup>)] after short-term stimulation with MIF (200 ng/ml) or MDL1 (200 ng/ml) or a 1:1 mixture of the two (100 ng/ml each). Untreated control samples were used as negative control.  $\beta$ -Actin is a loading control. (**B**) Densitometric quantification of pAKT band intensities in (A) relative to AKT and normalized to  $\beta$ -actin. Bars represent means ± SD of five biologically independent experiments (white circles indicate individual data points). Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc multiple comparison between the untreated control and the treatments. (C to H) RTgPCR analysis of TNF-α (C), IFN-y (D), CCL2 (E), IL-1B (F), IL-6 (G), and CXCL8 (H) expression in A549 lung epithelial cells after 4 hours of stimulation with either MIF (100 ng/ml) or MDL 1 (100 ng/ml) or a 1:1 mixrture of MIF and MDL1 (100 ng/ml each). For comparison, stimulation with MIF (200 ng/ml) is shown as well as stimulation with LPS (10 ng/ml, positive control) and 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) (buffer control). Transcript abundance is shown as fold change relative to untreated controls and the housekeeping gene RPLPO. Values shown represent means  $\pm$  SD as obtained from four to six biological replicates (black dots indicate individual data points). Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with multiple comparison (\*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001, and \*\*\*\*P < 0.0001). (I) Schematic illustration of the CXCR4 receptor, a typical GPCR, which activates the PI3K-AKT pathway as one of its downstream signaling cascades known to be involved in cell proliferation and migration. MIF or MDL1 binding to CXCR4 results in activation of the pathway.



two-hybrid and in planta luciferase complementation assays, we found that only MDL2 interacted with MIF. By contrast, both MDL1 and MDL2 interacted with CXCR2 and CXCR4 in the yeast signaling system, and SEC showed interactions between MIF and MDL1 that were abrogated by the inhibitor p425. Further studies are necessary to provide an explanation for the observed MDL paralog–specific differences depending on the assay.

Moreover, we detected homomeric MDL1-MDL1 and heteromeric MDL1-MDL2 interactions in the yeast two-hybrid assay, confirming a previous in planta analysis (34). The assay does not provide any information as to whether these represented interactions of MDL subunits within a trimer or allosteric interactions between MDL trimers. To this end, future studies will be needed to clarify

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whether and to what extent homomeric MDL or MIF oligomerization competes with MDL-MIF hetero-oligomerization.

Plant cells do secrete proteins, but there is no evidence that MDLs are exported outside the cell (34). Furthermore, there are no proteins resembling the MIF receptors for MDLs to activate these types of receptors in plants. Although the absence of proteins resembling known receptors does not exclude the possibility that MDLs activate other receptors or intracellular proteins, evidence points to MDLs functioning as intracellular cytoplasmic (MDL1 and MDL2) or peroxisomal (MDL3) enzymes. To understand the role of MDLs in plant life, the respective physiological substrate needs to be identified for each MDL.

Whereas the yeast, in planta, and MST assays did not yield stoichiometric information, the SEC experiment suggested that a dimer of two different MIF-MDL homotrimers was formed and was functionally active. This conclusion was supported by experiments using the inhibitor p425, which prevented or disrupted oligomerization as analyzed by SEC, blocked MIF-MDL1 binding in the MST assay, and attenuated hetero-oligomer-mediated synergism in the CXCR2- or CXCR4-engineered strains of S. cerevisiae. Its mode of action involves intercalation between the interface region of two MIF trimers, thereby inhibiting MIF-mediated inflammatory responses (52, 53, 59). We would eliminate the possibility that there is a mixture of MIF and MDL within a trimer due to the dissociation rate of  $7.7 \times 10^{-16}$  M<sup>2</sup> for MIF as determined by sedimentation velocity and equilibrium experiments (54). Although the dissociation rates of the MDLs have not been measured, we assume, in analogy to MIF, that they function as tight trimers and that the MDL1-MDL2 association observed in the two-hybrid assay was also based on an oligomer of homotrimers, which also might be important information for determining the functional role of MDL1-MDL2 complexes in plants.

Given the results of the protein-protein interaction experiments, we probed whether there was signaling activity in a genetically modified strain of S. cerevisiae expressing functionally active CXCR4 (25, 42-45). In addition to CXCR4, in the present study, CXCR2 was also used for analogous experiments. Both MDL1 and MDL2 induced signaling through CXCR2 and CXCR4. The MIF inhibitor ISO-1 inhibited CXCR4 signaling by both MDLs, but antagonists of CXCR2 (SB-225002) and CXCR4 (AMD3100) had different effects on MDL1- and MDL2-mediated signaling. Whereas SB-225002 and AMD3100 inhibited MDL2-mediated activation of CXCR2 and CXCR4, respectively, there was significantly reduced or no effect of AMD3100 on CXCR4 activation by MDL1, suggesting an allosteric mechanism of MDL1 activation that bypasses the CXCR4 transmembrane cavity that is necessary for orthosteric activation (60). This finding thus also illustrated the plasticity of CXCR4 activation and must play a role in the synergy that occurred when MDL1 or MDL2 were mixed with MIF to costimulate either CXCR2 or CXCR4. The inhibitors (ISO-1, SB-225002, and AMD3100) decreased activation of the receptors. To assess how these two MIF-MDL complexes synergized, the inhibitor p425, which greatly reduced synergism to almost basal amounts, provided initial insight. To gain greater mechanistic insight as to whether MIF and MDL1 and MDL2 associated or acted independently to achieve signaling synergy, we used SEC to show that MIF and MDLs combined to form a putative trimer-trimer (hexameric) complex.

The synergism between MIF and Arabidopsis MDLs that occurred in vitro and in S. cerevisiae genetically modified to express functional chemokine receptors is not physiological. To investigate whether these interactions have biological relevance, we considered mammalian tissues and organs that could potentially interact with plants or plant cells, with the most obvious being the integumentary, digestive, and pulmonary systems. We chose to examine synergism between human MIF and plant MDLs using primary human neutrophils and the human lung epithelial cell line A549. We studied neutrophil chemotaxis, AKT activation, and proinflammatory gene expression as functional readouts of the host immune and inflammatory response. We found that synergistic MIF-MDL1 effects shaped both neutrophil migration and the inflammatory response of A549 cells. The receptor antagonist and receptor expression profiles suggested that synergism in neutrophils involved both CXCR2 and CXCR4, whereas the synergistic effects in A549 cells were likely mediated by CXCR4.

Despite the synergism we observed, we realize that the crosskingdom interactions between human MIF and Arabidopsis MDLs, which share high-sequence identity with MDLs from other plants, are unexpected. We speculate that mammalian MIF activity might be affected by direct association with plant-derived MDL proteins after contact with the skin, inhalation of plant particles, or upon ingestion in the pharyngeal tract or gut. For example, interactions might occur with immune cells within pharyngeal secondary lymphoid organs or with intestinal MIF by MDL fractions ondary lymphoid organs or with intestinal MIF by MDL fractions that have escaped digestion (61). It could be further speculated that synergism with host proteins could potentially be involved in hyperactivation responses of the integumentary or digestive system, but this aspect has not been explored. In addition, other plants are identified as "medicinal plants" with immunomodulatory activities on mammals through mechanisms that remain poorly understood. Plant-derived peptides (62) and proteins (63) have been likewise proposed to affect mammalian immune status and may be involved in enhancing allergic or inflammatory mechanisms. Although Arabidopsis is neither a medicinal nor an edible plant, the highly sequence-related MDL orthologs are omnipresent in other species of the plant kingdom (31). Additional in vitro and in vivo studies are necessary to test the hypothesis that the activity of MIF proteins as components of the human system might be altered when exposed to plant MDL proteins. Such studies involving MIF and MDLs are needed to broaden our understanding of these proteins in potential cross-kingdom interactions.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### Expression and purification of recombinant proteins

Clones of MIF and the three A. thaliana MIF ortholog genes, MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3, in pET21a were previously generated (64) and used in this work. Briefly, classical cloning strategies were applied, and all genes were C-terminally fused to a hexahistidine tag included in the pET21a vector using the restriction endonucleases Nde I and Xho I. Plasmids were transformed into competent Escherichia coli Rosetta (DE3) cells to express the pET21-derived genes and to yield MIF-6×His, MDL1-6×His, MDL2-6×His, and MDL3-6×His fusion proteins. Protein expression was induced by isopropyl-β-Dthiogalactopyranoside (Sigma-Aldrich, Deisenhofen, Germany) as previously described (36).

To release intracellular protein, a high-pressure cell homogenizer (French press, Avestin EmulsiFlex C5 by Avestin Europe GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) was used to lyse cells at about 75 MPa. Homogenization and all following purification steps were carried out on ice and under constant cooling. For homogenization, fresh or frozen bacterial pellets gently thawed on ice were resuspended in 1 ml of ice-cold immobilized metal affinity chromatography (IMAC) binding buffer [20 mM sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, and 20 mM imidazole (pH 7.2)]. Lysates were then centrifuged at 18,000g for 30 min at 4°C to remove cell debris. The protein-containing supernatants were collected and filtered before usage in fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC; ÄKTA Pure, GE Healthcare/Cytiva, Freiburg, Germany).

For purification, IMAC and subsequent SEC were performed on an FPLC. Nickel-loaded IMAC columns (HisTrap, GE Healthcare/ Cytiva) equilibrated with at least five column volumes of IMAC binding buffer were loaded with protein lysates under a flow rate of 1 ml/min. His-tagged protein was then eluted by a gradient over 30 min and a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min from 0 to 100% IMAC elution buffer [20 mM sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, and 0.5 M imidazole (pH 7.2)]. During elution, samples were collected in fractions of 0.5 ml, and protein content was monitored via an ultraviolet (UV) detector at 280 nm. Protein-containing fractions were combined and purified further via SEC on a Superdex 75 10/300 GL column (GE Healthcare/Cytiva) using 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2), a buffer condition previously reported to preserve MIF bioactivity (64). Protein-containing and imidazole-free fractions were collected and sterile-filtered over a 0.2-µm filter before further use. Protein purity was assessed by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) with Coomassie and silver staining as well as anti-6×His immunoblot (see below). Endotoxin content of every batch of protein was measured photometrically in sterile-filtered protein solution using the Pierce LAL Chromogenic Endotoxin Quantitation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Dreieich, Germany) essentially following the manufacturer's instructions. Purified protein was stored at 4°C and used within a maximum of 4 weeks.

#### Protein crystallization and structure determination

For crystallization, buffers of all MDL proteins were exchanged for 20 mM Hepes and 250 mM NaCl (pH 7.5) immediately after purification, and the protein was then concentrated (MDL1, 12.3 mg/ ml; MDL2, 11.1 mg/ml; MDL3, 9.8 mg/ml). For all MDL proteins, crystallization experiments were carried out using sitting drop/ vapor diffusion crystallization in a 200 + 200-nl format using a Phoenix crystallization robot in MRC-2 crystallization plates. Individual crystallization conditions for MDL1 consisted of 50 mM tris (pH 8.0), 0.2 M calcium acetate, and 26% PEG 8000. For MDL2, the crystallization conditions were 50 mM tris (pH 8.0) and 2.25 M ammonium sulfate; for MDL3, they were 50 mM MES (pH 6.0), 4% 2methyl-2,4-pentanediol (MPD), 0.2 M ammonium acetate, and 30% PEG 3350. All crystals were grown at 292.15 K. For cryoprotection, individual crystals were transferred to a new drop containing the mother liquor enriched with 30% ethylene glycol for MDL1, 30% glycerol for MDL2, and 30% ethylene glycol for MDL3 and flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. X-ray data were collected at 100 K at the Paul Scherrer Institute synchrotron using a Dectris Eiger2 16 M Detector (wavelength, 0.9999 Å).

Diffraction data reduction was done using the XDS program (65). The observed reflections were scaled and merged using

Aimless (66) provided in the CCP4 software. The crystal structures were solved with human MIF monomer by molecular replacement using Phaser (67). The structure solution yielded a trimer in the asymmetric unit for MDL1 and MDL2 and a monomer for MDL3. The refinement of the structures was performed using the module Phenix.refine (68) of the PHENIX package. Cycles of refinement and model building were performed using Phenix.refine and Coot (69). The stereochemistry of these crystal structures was assessed using MOLPROBITY (70). Individual refinement statistics for each protein are listed in table S1. Structural data for MDL1, MDL2, and MDL3 were collected at 1.56, 1.40, and 2.0 Å resolutions, respectively. The crystal structures were compared with each other and with the previously published MIF structure [Protein Data Bank (PDB) 3DJH; (71)] using PyMOL and Chimera software for visualization and analysis (72).

#### Generation of monoclonal antibodies recognizing MDL1

Lou/c rats were immunized with 60 μg of purified full-length MDL1-6×His protein, 5 nmol of CpG (TIB MOLBIOL, Berlin, Germany), and an equal volume of incomplete Freund's adjuvant (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA). Hybridoma supernatants were generated and screened as described previously (34). Selected supernatants were validated by slot blot immunoassay on recombinant purified human MIF, human MIF-2/D-DT, and the three MDL proteins for specificity and sensitivity (fig. S5). Hybridoma cells from clone ATM1 21G9 immunoglobulin G2b/k (IgG2b/k) were subcloned twice by limiting dilution to obtain a stable monoclonal antibody–producing cell line.

# SDS-PAGE and immunoblot analysis of recombinant MDL-6×His proteins

After purification, protein purity was assessed via SDS-PAGE and Coomassie staining or silver staining, and immunoblotting was performed with an antibody recognizing hexahistidine tags. Electrophoresis was performed in 15% acrylamide gels under reducing conditions as described before (36). For immunoblot analysis, electrophoresed proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes using tris-glycine transfer buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), followed by blocking (1% BSA) and staining in TBST [tris-buffered saline, 150 mM NaCl, 20 mM tris, and 0.01% Tween-20 (pH 7.3)] supplemented with 1% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich). Hexahistidine-tagged proteins were then detected using a murine monoclonal antibody specific for 6×His tag (Ma1-135, Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany) as primary antibody and revealed by HRP-conjugated goat antimouse IgG (ab6789, Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Imaging was performed upon addition of SuperSignal West Dura Extended Duration Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific) on an Odyssey Fc Imaging System using ImageStudioTM software (LICOR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany).

#### Coimmunoprecipitation

Before immunoprecipitation, MIF-6×His was biotinylated using a commercial biotin labeling kit (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany), performed essentially as per the manufacturer's instructions. For biotinylation, 1 mg of recombinant MIF-6×His at a concentration of 1 mg/ml in 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) was used. Coimmunoprecipitation experiments were then carried out using Dynabeads M-280 streptavidin (Thermo Fisher Scientific). To this end, 800  $\mu g$  of recombinant

proteins (biotin-MIF-6×His and/or MDL1-6×His) were mixed in a total volume of 100  $\mu$ l of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.4) and incubated overnight at 4°C to allow time for interaction. The beads were resuspended thoroughly, and 20  $\mu$ l of beads was washed with 0.5 ml of washing buffer [PBS and 0.1% Tween 20 (pH 7.4)]. After magnetic isolation, the beads were resuspended in the protein mixture and incubated with slight agitation for 2 hours at room temperature. Thereafter, the beads and all protein bound to them were magnetically isolated for 3 min, with the supernatant then removed. The beads were washed three times with 0.5 ml of washing buffer, resuspended in 40  $\mu$ l of denaturing SDS-PAGE sample buffer containing dithiothreitol as reducing agent, and boiled for 5 min at 95°C. Protein samples were magnetically separated from the beads before analysis by SDS-PAGE.

After blotting, biotin-MIF-6×His was revealed via its biotin tag using streptavidin-peroxidase conjugate (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany; 1:1000 dilution), whereas MDL1-6×His was revealed either via its hexahistidine tag using an HRPconjugated antibody specific for the 6×His tag (GeneTex Inc., USA; 1:1000 dilution) or by a custom-made antibody specific for MDL1 (clone ATM1 21G9; see above). This custom-made antibody was used in the form of a 1:10 dilution of hybridoma supernatant as a primary antibody, in combination with a mouse-derived, HRPconjugated secondary antibody specific for rat IgG2b immunoglobulins (1:1000 dilution). Where necessary, antibodies were removed from membranes by a 10-min incubation in Restore PLUS Western blot stripping buffer (Invitrogen), and membranes were again blocked with 1% BSA in TBST, followed by incubation with the respective antibodies. Imaging was performed on an Odyssey Fc Imaging System using ImageStudio software (LICOR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany) and SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

#### Yeast two-hybrid binding assay

For yeast two-hybrid assay, Gateway cloning-compatible vectors pDEST32 and pDEST22 (Invitrogen ProQuest yeast two-hybrid system) were used, which enable N-terminal fusions of bait and prey proteins with the Gal4 activation and DNA binding domains, respectively. MIF and MDL coding sequences were mobilized from pDONR207 entry clones via Gateway recombination into pDEST32 and pDEST22. The resulting plasmids were transformed into S. cerevisiae strain PJ69-4A (73). Yeast transformants were dropped on appropriate synthetic complete medium lacking selective amino acids for growth control and detecting putative interactions. For drop tests, yeast cultures were grown overnight, washed with sterile water, and adjusted to an optical density at 600 nm  $(OD_{600})$  of 1; 10-fold dilution series were established; and 4  $\mu$ l per strain and dilution was dropped onto the corresponding medium. Photographs were taken after 3 days of yeast growth. Bait and prey protein expression was validated by immunoblot analysis using the GAL4 (DBD) (SC-510) and GAL4 (AD) (SC-1663) monoclonal antibodies (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA).

#### Chemokine receptor signaling assay in yeast

For receptor signaling experiments, we used the functional CXCR4or CXCR2-expressing transformants of *S. cerevisiae* strain CY12946 that has been previously described (25, 42–44). Briefly, the endogenous yeast pheromone receptor was replaced by human CXCR4 or CXCR2, respectively, with the activated human chemokine receptor being functionally linked to the downstream MAPK-type signaling pathway, ultimately resulting in expression of the  $lacZ/\beta$ -gal reporter gene upon receptor binding. The  $\beta$ -galactosidase enzymatic activity (assessed photometrically) was therefore used as a surrogate parameter for chemokine receptor activation.

An S. cerevisiae CY12946 strain lacking CXCR4 was used as a negative control to account for potential background signaling mediated by endogenous yeast proteins or for off-target effects of MIF, MDL1, or CXCL12 not mediated via CXCR4. This strain was generated from the CXCR4-expressing clone by a plasmid loss assay [https://openwetware.org/wiki/McClean:\_Plasmid\_Loss\_Assay; modified from (46)]. A single yeast colony of CY12946-hCXCR4 was grown overnight to saturation in nonselective yeast extract, peptone, and dextrose (YPD) liquid medium. A subculture was grown in liquid medium to mid-log phase (OD<sub>600</sub>  $\sim$  0.5) and diluted by 100,000. Of these diluted cells, 200 µl was plated on a YPD agar plate. The culture plate was grown for 3 to 4 days at 30° C until the colonies had an appreciable size. A replica of this plate was then made on a selective agar plate in complete minimal dropout medium (synthetic medium-Leu). The replica plate was placed in an incubator at 30°C for 3 days and compared with the parent to select clones lacking CXCR4 (i.e., clones that lost the ability to grow on the selective medium).

To test for activation of the signaling reporter pathway, yeast cells were grown in a 24-well plate until reaching an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.3 to 0.8 and then incubated with the respective protein samples (MDL1-6×His, MDL2-6×His, and MDL3-6×His) or the known agonist MIF-6×His, either individually or as combinations, either with or without inhibitors added, or with controls as indicated (buffer, CXCL12). A concentration of 10 to 20 µM protein has previously been shown to create stable responses and was used as a reference point for the inhibitor studies. Because of the barrier function of the yeast cell wall, high ligand concentrations are needed for stable receptor activation, for example, 1 to 2 µM in the case of CXCL12 (43). Activation of chemokine receptors was detected by measuring β-galactosidase activity using the commercially available Beta-Glo assay system (Promega Corp, Madison, WI, USA), and the luminescence signal was recorded on a multimodal plate reader (Enspire 2300, PerkinElmer Life Sciences, Rodgau, Germany). The kit was used per the manufacturer's instructions and is based on coupling β-galactosidase enzymatic activity to a luciferase reaction. After mixing assay buffer and assay substrate in a 1:1 ratio, a volume of this mixture equal to the medium volume was added to each well. After mixing and incubation at room temperature for 30 min, luminescence of each sample was measured.

#### LCI assays

For LCI assays, Gateway cloning–compatible vectors pAMPAT-nLUC-GWY and pAMPAT-cLUC-GWY (34) were used, which enable N-terminal fusions of bait and prey proteins with the nLUC and cLUC, respectively. MIF and MDL coding sequences were mobilized from pDONR207 entry clones via Gateway recombination into pAMPAT-nLUC-GWY and pAMPAT-cLUC-GWY. The resulting plasmids were transformed into Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain GVG3101 (pMP90RK). Bacterial cultures were grown overnight, resuspended in infiltration medium [10 mM MES (pH 5.6), 10 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, and 200  $\mu$ M acetosyringone] to an OD<sub>600</sub> of 0.5, and incubated at room temperature for 2 hours. For coinfiltration, equal volumes of each A. tumefaciens transformant were mixed

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and infiltrated with a needleless syringe from the abaxial side into fully expanded leaves of 4- to 6-week-old *N. benthamiana* plants. The leaves were sprayed with 1 mM p-luciferin (PerkinElmer) dissolved in water supplemented with 0.01% (v/v) Tween 20 at 3 days after infiltration. Leaves were kept in the dark for 10 min before luminescence was detected with a ChemiDoc XRS+ imagine system (Bio-Rad, Feldkirchen, Germany). Luminescence intensities per square millimeter-infiltrated leaf area of different combinations were evaluated using the Image Lab software (Bio-Rad, version 6.1). For each combination of interaction partners, three independent experiments consisting of two different plants and two leaves per plant were evaluated. *Agrobacterium*-mediated transient expression of LCI constructs in *N. benthamiana* was validated by immunoblot analysis using a polyclonal primary antibody specific for luciferase (Merck; diluted 1:1000).

#### Primary human neutrophils and chemotaxis

Blood was obtained from healthy human volunteers [ethics approval, Ludwig-Maximilians-Universität (LMU), Munich, Germany; AZ 18-104]. After red blood cell lysis and removal of the supernatant, the neutrophil pellet was gently resuspended in RPMI 1640 medium (Invitrogen/Gibco, Karlsruhe, Germany) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin. Flow cytometric analysis of neutrophils using characteristic forward/side scatter verified a purity of 98 to 99%. Isolated primary human neutrophils were kept at room temperature and were used immediately after isolation.

For Transwell migration, freshly isolated neutrophils in RPMI 1640 without supplements were set up to migrate for 4 hours over a membrane with a pore size of 5  $\mu m$  (Corning Inc. New York, USA). Lower chambers were filled with 600  $\mu l$  of RPMI 1640 containing chemokines/treatments and inhibitors according to the respective experimental design. Transwell plates were incubated at 37° C for 30 min to allow prewarming of medium and plate. Then, 100  $\mu l$  of cell suspension containing 1  $\times$  106 cells in RPMI 1640 was carefully added to the upper chambers of a Transwell insert after placing the filters onto the lower chambers.

The 3D gel matrix chemotaxis assay was performed using commercially available Ibidi µ-slides (Ibidi GmbH, Gräfelfing, Germany) with a tissue-like collagen matrix, allowing the study of cell migration under native-like conditions. Live-cell imaging, timelapse microscopy, and single-cell tracking allow for measuring a variety of chemotactic parameters, complementing the end-point results obtained in Transwell migration experiments. To this end,  $8 \times 10^6$  cells/100  $\mu$ l in RPMI 1640 without supplements were prepared and used immediately. The collagen gel matrix was prepared at a final collagen concentration of 1 mg/ml, with all components handled on ice to ensure slow gel polymerization. Then, 6.3 µl of collagen-cell suspension was added to the appropriate filling ports. Afterward, all filling ports were closed with dedicated plugs, and gels were incubated at 37°C and 5% CO2 for 30 min to allow solidification of the collagen matrix. Channels were checked microscopically, and only perfectly filled channels were used in the experiment. After matrix preparation, 65 µl of chemoattractant-free RPMI 1640 was added to the chamber on one side of the matrix, and 65 μl of chemoattractant-containing RPMI 1640 medium was added to the other side. This created a native chemoattractant gradient over the cell-containing gel matrix. Immediately after adding treatments, slides were installed on a motorized and preheated

microscopy stage. Automated time-lapse microscopy was performed for 2 hours at a time interval of 1 min on a Leica inverted DMi8-Life Cell Imaging System equipped with a DMC2900 Digital Microscope Camera with complementary metal-oxide semiconductor sensor and live cell-imaging software (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany). Images were imported as stacks to ImageJ software and analyzed with the manual tracking extension and the chemotaxis/migration tools from Ibidi GmbH.

#### AKT signaling pathway analysis

The MIF-CXCR4-PI3K-AKT axis is a well-studied MIF response pathway, implicated among others in cell survival, migration, and cancer development (57, 74). A549 cells were obtained from the German Collection of Microorganisms and Cell Cultures GmbH (DSMZ) and maintained in Ham's F-12K medium (Invitrogen/ Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Sigma-Aldrich, Deisenhofen, Germany). The cells were plated in 150-cm<sup>2</sup> cell culture flasks and cultured at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Culture medium was changed every 2 days. The cells were subcultured before reaching confluency using a 0.1% trypsin solution in EDTA (Sigma-Aldrich). The cells were split 1:10 during each passage, with passages used in this study ranging from 3 to 10. The cells were treated with MIF, MDL1, or the combination of the two (1:1 ratio), each at a final concentration of 16 nM. After 10 min of incubation, treated cells were lysed in NuPAGE lithium dodecyl sulfate/dithiothreitol lysis buffer including PhosphoSTOP reagent (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany). Lysates were run in 11% SDS-PAGE gels and blotted onto nitrocellulose membrane. Immunoblots were developed with antibodies specific for phosphorylated (pAKT; ab81283, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and total (ab8805, Abcam) AKT, as well as an antibody directed against β-actin (ab8227, Abcam) as an internal reference. Respective HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (211-032-171, Jackson ImmunoResearch, Ely, UK) were used for detection. Imaging and densitometric band quantification were performed upon addition of SuperSignal West Dura Extended Duration Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific) on an Odyssey Fc Imaging System using ImageStudio software (LICOR Biosciences, Bad Homburg, Germany). Densitometric quantification was done by normalizing both total AKT and pAKT to β-actin and then comparing the amount of normalized pAKT with normalized AKT.

#### Isolation of mRNA and RT-qPCR in A549 cells

For RT-qPCR,  $1 \times 10^6$  A549 cells were seeded in six-well plates and grown as described above until they reached confluency. Cells were treated with recombinant proteins for 4 hours at the indicated concentrations. mRNA was extracted using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Karlsruhe, Germany) per the manufacturer's instructions. mRNA was reverse-transcribed into cDNA using the First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions. RT-qPCR was carried out using the SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) on a RotorGene 6000 (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany). The thermal cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 s and 55°C for 30 s and then followed by 95° C for 1 min and 55°C for 1 min. The fold change was derived by calculating the ratio between each experimental group and control. Ribosomal protein, large, P0 (RPLP0) was used as housekeeping gene for normalization. The relative expression levels were

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normalized to endogenous control and were expressed as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ . Primers used for the RT-qPCR experiments are listed in table S2.

#### Microscale thermophoresis

All MST experiments were performed on a Monolith NT.115 instrument with green/red filters (NanoTemper Technologies, Munich, Germany). MST and light-emitting diode power were set at 40 and 60%, respectively, for MDL1 and MDL2 or 40 and 90% for MDL3 measurements to obtain stable fluorescent signals around 1000 fluorescent counts. All measurements were performed at 37° C with MST traces tracked for 40 s (laser-off, 5 s; laser-on, 30 s; laser-off, 5 s). A stock solution of 200 nM RED-NHS-MIF-6×His was prepared in 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4), containing 0.2% BSA, according to the manufacturer's protocol.

For titration of each plant ortholog, each protein substock solution was prepared by serial 1:1 dilution, starting from a 20 µM stock solution in 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) and 0.1% BSA. RED-NHS-MIF-6×His and each MDL substock were mixed at a 1:1 ratio resulting in a final MIF concentration of 100 nM and incubated for 10 min in the dark at room temperature. Premium-coated capillaries we used as initial screening had shown slight sticking of protein to standard capillary walls. Incubated mixtures were loaded into capillaries, and MST measurements started immediately. Obtained MST traces were analyzed at an MST-on time of 1.5 s using the MO.Affinity Analysis version 2.2.4 (NanoTemper Technologies) for each of the three potential interaction pairs. Apparent  $K_D$  values were calculated using the same software. Visualization was done using Prism GraphPad (Version 9.4.1) assuming a one-on-one binding model with sigmoidal curve fitting models for each set up.

#### Size exclusion chromatography

SEC experiments were performed on an FPLC system (ÄKTA Pure, GE Healthcare/Cytiva, Freiburg, Germany) with a Superdex 75 10/300 GL column (GE Healthcare/Cytiva) using 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4) and a constant flow of 0.5 ml/min. Proteins were used for SEC 1 day after purification, either individually or in a 1:1 mixture of MIF-6×His and MDL1-6×His, incubated at 4°C overnight. Proteins were loaded individually, one after another, and peaks observed by UV absorbance (280 nm) in milliarbitrary units over the elution volume in milliliter. Unicorn 7.0 software (GE Healthcare/Cytiva, Freiburg, Germany) was used to analyze chromatograms for individual elution volumes. Experiments were performed in triplicates.

For the described SEC setup, a standard curve and standard equation were generated using the GE gel filtration calibration kit, low molecular weight, as per the manufacturer's instructions (GE Healthcare/Cytiva). From observed elution volumes and known molecular mass of sample proteins, a standard curve and standard equation were calculated and visualized using Prism GraphPad (version 9.4.1).

#### Statistics

Statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Prism Software Inc., San Diego, CA). After testing for normality by Shapiro-Wilk test, data were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by post hoc comparison with Tukey's test with multiple comparisons, paired t test with post hoc Bonferroni correction, or unpaired t test, as appropriate. To account for small

sample size and potential error in normality tests, appropriate non-parametric tests (Kruskal-Wallis test, Wilcoxon signed rank test, and Mann-Whitney test, respectively) were performed for comparison and showed similar results. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SD. P < 0.05 is considered as significant. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences as follows: \*P < 0.05; \*\*\*P < 0.01; \*\*\*\*P < 0.001.

#### **Supplementary Materials**

This PDF file includes:

Figs. S1 to S17 Tables S1 and S2

Other Supplementary Material for this manuscript includes the following: MDAR Reproducibility Checklist

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# **Science** Signaling

# Plant MDL proteins synergize with the cytokine MIF at CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptors in human cells

Lukas Spiller, Ramu Manjula, Franz Leissing, Jerome Basquin, Priscila Bourilhon, Dzmitry Sinitski, Markus Brandhofer, Sophie Levecque, Simona Gerra, Björn Sabelleck, Lin Zhang, Regina Feederle, Andrew Flatley, Adrian Hoffmann, Ralph Panstruga, Jürgen Bernhagen, and Elias Lolis

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# 7. Appendix

This section contains supplementary data files from chapters 5 and 6.

# 7.1 Supplementary data for Zhang, L. et al,2024

Supplementary File

# CD74 is a functional MIF receptor on activated CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells

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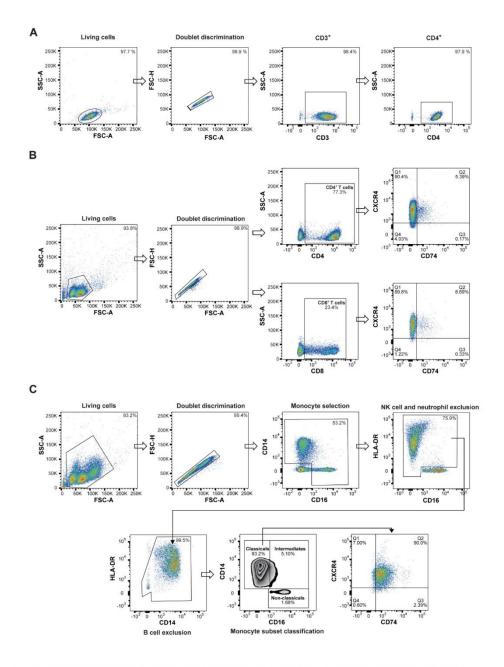
# **Supplementary Tables**

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Supplementary Table 2

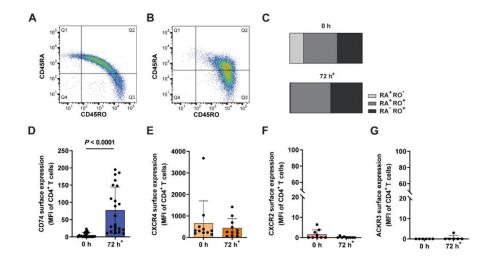
Supplementary Table 3

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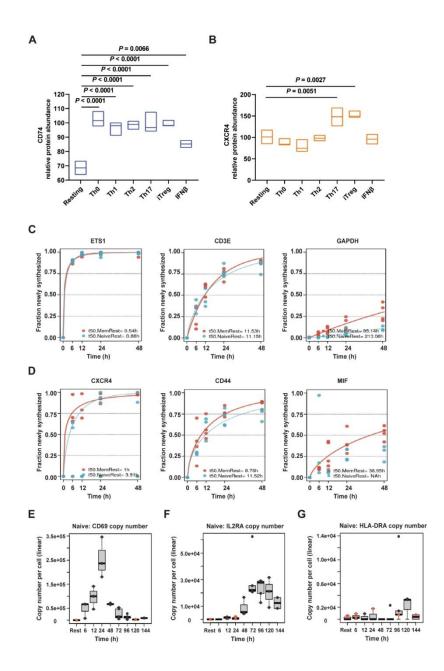


**Supplementary Figure 1.** Flow cytometry gating strategies. **A** Gating strategy and cell purity after CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell isolation. Visualization of a representative flow cytometry gating consisting of exclusion of debris, dead cells and doublets and verification of CD3<sup>+</sup> CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell purity after CD4<sup>+</sup> T-cell isolation from PBMCs of healthy donors. **B** Gating strategy to characterize T-cell subpopulations from COVID-19 patients after CD3<sup>+</sup> T-cell isolation. Visualization of a representative flow cytometry gating consisting of exclusion of debris, dead cells and doublets and validation of CXCR4 and CD74 receptor expression after CD3<sup>+</sup> T-cell isolation from PBMCs. **C** Gating strategy to characterize monocyte subpopulations from COVID-19 patients.

Visualization of a representative flow cytometry gating of monocyte subpopulations according to Marimuthu et al with determination of CD74 and CXCR4 expression on classical and non-classical monocytes in PBMC fraction of CD3+-negative cells after CD3+-positive selection. Steps include exclusion of debris, dead cells and doublets, and selecting monocyte subsets by CD16 vs. CD14 plot after exclusion of HLA-DR+ natural killer (NK) cells and HLA-DRhighCD14low B cells [1].

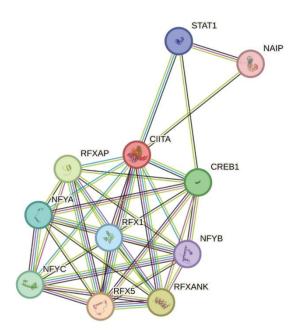


**Supplementary Figure 2.** Characterization of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. **A-C** Validation of *in vitro* T-cell activation. Surface expression of the naive cell marker CD45RA and CD45RO, as a marker of activated or effector/memory T cells, was measured **A** directly after isolation or **B** after 72 h of *in vitro* activation using anti-CD3<sup>+</sup>/anti-CD28<sup>+</sup> coated beads. **C** Quantification of RA<sup>+</sup>RO<sup>-</sup> (light gray), RA<sup>+</sup>RO<sup>+</sup> (dark gray) and RA<sup>-</sup>RO<sup>+</sup> (black) CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells of nine independent experiments (n = 9) is provided as fraction of a whole in the bottom row. **D-G** Alternative quantification of MIF receptor profiling on primary human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells upon activation as shown in Fig. 2. Flow cytometry-based cell surface receptor profiling of the four MIF receptors CD74, CXCR4, CXCR2, and ACKR3, as indicated, on purified human CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells before (0 h) and after 72 h of *in vitro* T-cell activation. Comparison and quantification of the cell surface median fluorescence intensity (MFI) for each of the four receptors (**E**, n=22; **F**, n=11; **G**, n=9; **H**, n=6). Statistical differences were analyzed by Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-rank test and indicated by actual *P* values.

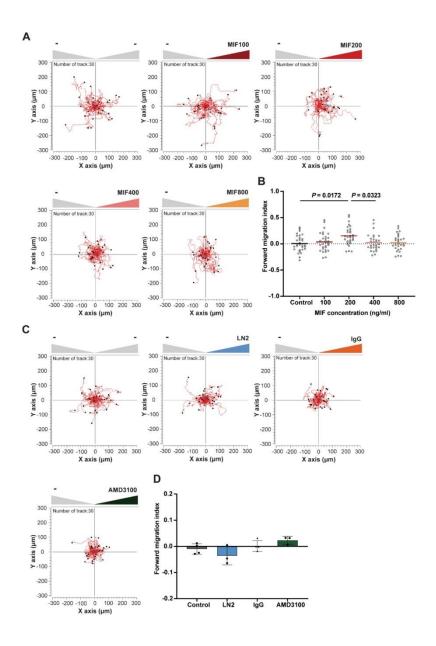


**Supplementary Figure 3.** Renewal rates and protein dynamics of selected proteins. **A-B** Reanalysis of publicly available proteomic data of memory CD4 $^+$  T cells after 5 d of different activation and cytokine polarization conditions (resting: no activation, no added cytokines; Th0: control with no added cytokines; Th1: IL-12, anti-human IL-4 antibody; TH2: IL-4, anti-human IFN-γ antibody, Th17: IL-6, IL-23, IL-1β, TGF-β1, anti-human IL-4 antibody, anti-human IFN-γ antibody; iTreg: TGF-β1, IL-2; IFN-β-stimulated group) according to Cano-Gamez et al. regarding protein abundance of **A** CD74 and **B** CXCR4 [2]. Statistical differences were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with post-hoc multiple comparisons test. **C-D** Comparison of protein

renewal rates in resting naive (blue) vs. resting memory (orange) CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Fraction of newly synthesized protein calculated from LC-MS/MS analysis of pulsed SILAC of CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Cells were analyzed after 0 h, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h and 48 h in culture. **C** Exemplary representation of fast (ETS1), intermediate (CD3E) and slow (GAPDH) renewal rate. **D** Renewal rates of CXCR4 (left), CD44 (middle) and MIF (right). **E-G** Time course of protein expression per cell upon activation of naive CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells. Label-free quantification of proteins via the MaxQuant algorithm without and after 6 h, 12 h, 24 h, 48 h, 72 h, 96 h, 120 h and 144 h of *in vitro* activation. Proteins identified by MS/MS (black) or matching (orange). Estimation of copy number per cell based on protein mass of cell. **E-G** Comparative presentation of established **E** fast (CD69), **F** intermediate (IL2Rα/CD25) and **G** late (HLA-DRA) T-cell activation markers. Data in **C-G** retrieved and re-analyzed from Wolf et al [3].

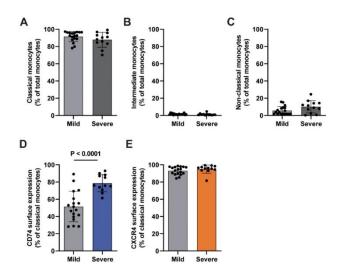


**Supplementary Figure 4.** CIITA interaction network. Visualization of the ten proteins most strongly associated with functional CIITA interaction as predicted by the STRING database [4].



**Supplementary Figure 5.** Dose curves and controls of the 3D chemotaxis experiments. **A-B** MIF dose-dependently induces chemotaxis of activated CD4 $^+$ T cells. Trajectory plots (x, y = 0 at time 0 h) and corresponding quantification of migrated activated CD4 $^+$ T cells in a three-dimensional (3D) aqueous collagen-gel matrix towards MIF chemoattractant gradients (MIF concentrations: 100 ng/ml – 800 ng/ml as indicated, -: control medium). Plotted is the calculated forward migration index (FMI, mean  $\pm$  SD) based on manual tracking of at least 30 individual cells per treatment (n=1). Statistical differences were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn post-hoc test. **C-D** Inhibitor-only controls of the presented chemotaxis experiment in Fig. 5. Representative trajectory plots and quantification of migrated activated CD4 $^+$ T cells in the

presence of a CD74 neutralizing antibody, a corresponding isotype control (IgG) or the CXCR4 receptor inhibitor AMD3100. Cell motility in  $\bf A-D$  was monitored by time-lapse microscopy for 2 h at 37°C, images were obtained every minute using the Leica DMi8 microscope. Single cell tracking was performed of 30 cells per experimental group. The blue crosshair indicates the cell population's center of mass after migration. Quantification of the 3D chemotaxis experiment in  $\bf C-D$  showing no chemotactic effects of the inhibitors alone. Plotted is the calculated forward migration index (FMI, mean  $\pm$  SD) based on manual tracking of at least 30 individual cells per treatment (n=3-4). Statistical differences were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's post-hoc test.



Supplementary Figure 6. Characterization of monocyte subpopulations from COVID-19 patients. A-C Comparison of monocyte subpopulations in patients with mild and severe COVID-19 disease. Percentages of monocyte subpopulations in patients with mild (WHO 1-3, 18 patients) vs. severe (WHO ≥ 5, 12 patients) COVID-19 disease determined via flow cytometry as described in Supp. Fig. 1C. D-E Upregulation of CD74 surface expression in classical monocytes of critically ill COVID-19 patients. CD74 and CXCR4 surface expression in classical monocyte subpopulation in mild vs. severe COVID-19 disease patients. Bar charts in A-E show means ± SD with individual datapoints representing independent patients. Statistical differences were analyzed by unpaired t test for A, C, D and Mann-Whitney U test for B and F and indicated by actual *P* values.

**Supplementary Table 1.** List of antibodies used for flow cytometry experiments with additional information.

Antibody	Dilution	Cat Nummber	Company
Anti- hCD14- Pacific Blue	1:100	301828	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCD16- PerCP	1:100	360720	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCD3- APC	1:100	300412	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCD4- PE	1:100	130-113-214	Miltenyi Biotec (Bergisch Gladbach, Germany)
Anti- hCD45 RA- PerCP	1:100	304156	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCD45 RO- APC	1:100	304210	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCD74- FITC	1:100	555540	BD Biosciences (Franklin Lakes, USA)
Anti- hCD8- Pacific Blue	1:100	344718	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCXCR2- FITC	1:100	FAB331F	R&D Systems (Minneapolis, USA)
Anti- hCXCR4- APC	1:100	305510	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCXCR4- APC/Cy 7	1:100	306528	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hCXCR7- PE	1:100	FAB4227P	R&D Systems (Minneapolis, USA)
Anti- hHLA-DR- PE	1:100	307606	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)
Anti- hHLA-DR- PerCP	1:100	307628	BioLegend (San Diego, USA)

**Supplementary Table 2.** List of potential transcription factor binding sites upstream from the *CD74* gene locus. Potential transcription factor binding sites at a maximum distance of 500 bp from the *CD74* gene locus were identified in the Gene Transcription Regulation Database (GTRD) [5]. See accompanying excel file for detailed list.

**Supplementary Table 3.** List of predicted transcription factors involved in CD74 gene expression. Potential transcription factors involved in the transcriptional regulation of CD74 identified using the PathwayNet database [6]. Shown are genes with a relationship confidence of more than 0.1. Yellow marked are CIITA-associated transcription factors that were identified in Supp. Fig. 4. Orange marked are genes with no binding site within 500 bp of the CD74 gene as identified in Supp. Table 2. See accompanying excel file.

Supplementary Chromosome	From	То	Туре	ID	TF Count
chr5	150399783	150399869		ms.IKZF3_HUMAN.43303.v1	1
chr5	150409943			ms.IKZF3_HUMAN.43304.v1	1
chr5	150409943			ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991826.v1	2
chr5	150409909				2
				ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991827.v1	
chr5	150411383			ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991828.v1	
chr5	150412020			ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991829.v1	
chr5	150412196			ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991830.v1	
chr5	150412372			ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991831.v1	
chr5	150412675	150412735		ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991832.v1	
chr5	150412945			ms.CEBPB_HUMAN.991833.v1	2
chr5	150400929			ms.SMAD3_HUMAN.205993.v1	3
chr5	150410326			ms.MUSC_HUMAN.38879.v1	4
chr5	150412400			ms.STAG2_HUMAN.64359.v1	5
chr5	150410264			ms.MAOX_HUMAN.216167.v1	6
chr5	150410605			ms.MAOX_HUMAN.216168.v1	
chr5	150410912			ms.MAOX_HUMAN.216169.v1	
chr5	150411264			ms.MAOX_HUMAN.216170.v1	
chr5	150407963	150408061	FOSB	ms.FOSB_HUMAN.27181.v1	7
chr5	150409779			ms.PRD10_HUMAN.35972.v1	8
chr5	150410155			ms.PRD10_HUMAN.35973.v1	
chr5	150410568	150410616	PRDM10	ms.PRD10_HUMAN.35974.v1	
chr5	150400629	150400729	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833725.v1	9
chr5	150401680	150401780	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833726.v1	
chr5	150403064	150403164	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833727.v1	
chr5	150407401	150407501	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833728.v1	
chr5	150408369	150408469	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833729.v1	
chr5	150409772	150409872	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833730.v1	
chr5	150410590	150410653	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833731.v1	
chr5	150412372	150412416	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833732.v1	
chr5	150412448	150412532	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833733.v1	
chr5	150412563	150412647	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833734.v1	
chr5	150412634	150412734	RAD21	ms.RAD21_HUMAN.833735.v1	
chr5	150412859	150412959	RAD21	ms.RAD21 HUMAN.833736.v1	
chr5	150399965	150400055	ZEB1	ms.ZEB1_HUMAN.146750.v1	10
chr5	150402737	150402810		ms.ZEB1 HUMAN.146751.v1	
chr5	150405488	150405513		ms.ZEB1 HUMAN.146752.v1	
chr5	150405873	150405957		ms.ZEB1 HUMAN.146753.v1	
chr5	150406225	150406259		ms.ZEB1_HUMAN.146754.v1	
chr5	150408653	150408743		ms.ZEB1_HUMAN.146755.v1	
chr5	150409122	150409206		ms.ZEB1 HUMAN.146756.v1	
chr5	150409290	150409380		ms.ZEB1_HUMAN.146757.v1	
chr5	150403230	150412968		ms.ZEB1_HUMAN.146758.v1	
chr5	150412883	150412308		ms.TRI22_HUMAN.29192.v1	11
chr5	150400879			ms.PEX2 HUMAN.114565.v1	12
chr5	150400879	150400973		ms.PEX2_HUMAN.114566.v1	12
chr5	150401936			ms.PEX2_HUMAN.114567.v1	
chr5	150402617	150402711		ms.PEX2_HUMAN.114568.v1	
chr5	150404631	150404725	PEXZ	ms.PEX2_HUMAN.114569.v1	

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chr5	150412765	150412865 REL	ms.REL_HUMAN.31543.v1	
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chr5	150412560	150412644 SMAD2	ms.SMAD2_HUMAN.139287.v1	17
chr5	150401910	150401970 NR1H3	ms.NR1H3_HUMAN.38319.v1	18
chr5	150402159	150402219 NR1H3	ms.NR1H3_HUMAN.38320.v1	
chr5	150407224	150407300 NR1H3	ms.NR1H3_HUMAN.38321.v1	
chr5	150410653	150410741 HES1	ms.HES1_HUMAN.71659.v1	19
chr5	150410503	150410591 SMAD1	ms.SMAD1_HUMAN.123423.v1	20
chr5	150412649	150412723 SMAD1	ms.SMAD1_HUMAN.123424.v1	
chr5	150412614	150412716 PHF8	ms.PHF8_HUMAN.57277.v1	21
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chr5	150410113	150410203 CDKN1B	ms.CDN1B_HUMAN.77752.v1	
chr5	150412626	150412689 CDKN1B	ms.CDN1B_HUMAN.77753.v1	
chr5	150412762	150412832 CDKN1B	ms.CDN1B_HUMAN.77754.v1	
chr5	150411584	150411676 CHD7	ms.CHD7_HUMAN.160552.v1	23
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chr5	150410148	150410280 ZFHX2	ms.ZFHX2_HUMAN.31202.v1	27
chr5	150400544	150400608 TARDBP	ms.TADBP_HUMAN.45603.v1	28
chr5	150412685	150412755 TARDBP	ms.TADBP_HUMAN.45604.v1	
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chr5	150410753	150410825 HIF1A	ms.HIF1A_HUMAN.289741.v1	
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chr5	150403293	150403357 SCRT1	ms.SCRT1_HUMAN.70016.v1	36
chr5	150410383	150410483 ZNF35	ms.ZNF35_HUMAN.44147.v1	37
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chr5	150410693	150410785 SRC	ms.SRC_HUMAN.25686.v1	
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chr5	150412694	150412774 EED	ms.EED_HUMAN.128436.v1	
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chr5	150409913	150409979 EBF1	ms.COE1_HUMAN.99204.v1	
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chr5	150411305	150411406 EBF1	ms.COE1_HUMAN.99206.v1	
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chr5	150410161	150410287 EGR3	ms.EGR3_HUMAN.118366.v1	
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chr5	150408625	150408713 RXRA	ms.RXRA_HUMAN.238631.v1	
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chr5	150401774	150401868 RUNX1	ms.RUNX1_HUMAN.823086.v1	
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chr5	150410091	150410184 RUNX1	ms.RUNX1_HUMAN.823092.v1	
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chr5	150410664	150410748 CRE	EBBP i	ms.CBP_HUMAN.92097.v1	
chr5	150410965	150411057 CRE	EBBP i	ms.CBP_HUMAN.92098.v1	
chr5	150412723	150412746 CRE	EBBP i	ms.CBP_HUMAN.92099.v1	
chr5	150412813	150412924 CRE	EBBP i	ms.CBP_HUMAN.92100.v1	
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chr5	150407178	150407264 ELF	1 1	ms.ELF1_HUMAN.192285.v1	
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chr5	150403137	150403229 REL	LA i	ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074102.v1	
chr5	150403429	150403521 REL	LA i	ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074103.v1	
chr5	150404172	150404194 REL	LA i	ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074104.v1	
chr5	150405530	150405622 REL	LA i	ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074105.v1	
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chr5	150410650	150410750 REL		ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074115.v1	
chr5	150411363	150411455 REL		 ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074116.v1	
chr5	150412382	150412474 REL		ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074117.v1	
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chr5	150412929	150413021	RELA	ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074121.v1	
chr5	150413108	150413125	RELA	ms.TF65_HUMAN.1074122.v1	
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chr5	150410531	150410615	DPF2	ms.REQU_HUMAN.182029.v1	
chr5	150411043	150411131	DPF2	ms.REQU_HUMAN.182030.v1	
chr5	150412155	150412255	DPF2	ms.REQU_HUMAN.182031.v1	
chr5	150412827	150412927	DPF2	ms.REQU_HUMAN.182032.v1	
chr5	150410200	150410300	APOBEC3B	ms.ABC3B_HUMAN.22363.v1	78
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chr5	150410733	150410759	RFXANK	ms.RFXK_HUMAN.10630.v1	
chr5	150411474	150411500	RFXANK	ms.RFXK_HUMAN.10631.v1	
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chr5	150410506	150410578 FOXO1	ms.FOXO1_HUMAN.124929.v1	
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chr5	150401133	150401193 GATA1	ms.GATA1_HUMAN.249719.v1	18
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chr5	150409866	150409944 FC	DXM1	ms.FOXM1_HUMAN.157640.v1	
chr5	150410389	150410485 FC	DXM1	ms.FOXM1_HUMAN.157641.v1	
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chr5	150402949	150403023 SN	NAI2	ms.SNAI2_HUMAN.271102.v1	34
chr5	150406264	150406314 SN	NAI2	ms.SNAI2_HUMAN.271103.v1	
chr5	150410168	150410222 SN	NAI2	ms.SNAI2_HUMAN.271104.v1	
chr5	150412902	150412952 SN	NAI2	ms.SNAI2_HUMAN.271105.v1	
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chr5	150410682	150410782 E2	2F1	ms.E2F1_HUMAN.252036.v1	
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chr5	150413232	150413314 JU	JNB	ms.JUNB_HUMAN.194986.v1	

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chr5	150407471	150407545 STAT5A	ms.STA5A_HUMAN.234448.v1	
chr5	150410386	150410464 STAT5A	ms.STA5A_HUMAN.234449.v1	
chr5	150411220	150411298 STAT5A	ms.STA5A_HUMAN.234450.v1	
chr5	150412654	150412702 STAT5A	ms.STA5A_HUMAN.234451.v1	
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chr5	150412670	150412710 CBX5	ms.CBX5_HUMAN.12086.v1	
chr5	150407003	150407023 HEXIM1	ms.HEXI1_HUMAN.81904.v1	42
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chr5	150404570	150404672 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807255.v1	
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chr5	150407278	150407349 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807257.v1	
chr5	150407648	150407758 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807258.v1	
chr5	150408993	150409095 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807259.v1	
chr5	150409921	150409951 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807260.v1	
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chr5	150410661	150410734 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807263.v1	
chr5	150411023	150411133 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807264.v1	
chr5	150411142	150411244 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807265.v1	
chr5	150411190	150411300 FOXA1	ms.FOXA1_HUMAN.1807266.v1	
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chr5	150404660	150404748 SSRP1	ms.SSRP1_HUMAN.410412.v1	
chr5	150406214	150406302 SSRP1	ms.SSRP1_HUMAN.410413.v1	
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chr5	150412620	150412640 CCAR2	ms.CCAR2_HUMAN.30078.v1	
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chr5	150401793	150401863 IKZF1	ms.IKZF1_HUMAN.196601.v1	
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chr5	150409698	150409824 ZNF22	ms.ZNF22_HUMAN.18973.v1	53
chr5	150410626	150410726 ZNF22	ms.ZNF22 HUMAN.18974.v1	
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chr5	150404251	150404341 MYCN	ms.MYCN_HUMAN.537837.v1	
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chr5	150406774	150406868 MYCN	ms.MYCN_HUMAN.537839.v1	
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chr5	150400842	150400934 HDAC6	ms.HDAC6 HUMAN.18345.v1	55
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chr5	150408062	150408150 HDAC6	ms.HDAC6_HUMAN.18347.v1	
chr5	150412323	150412359 HDAC6	ms.HDAC6_HUMAN.18348.v1	
chr5	150412591	150412627 HDAC6	ms.HDAC6 HUMAN.18349.v1	
chr5	150412450	150412516 STAT4	ms.STAT4 HUMAN.38676.v1	56
chr5	150409931	150409952 USF2	ms.USF2 HUMAN.91545.v1	57
chr5	150410718	150410763 USF2	ms.USF2_HUMAN.91546.v1	
chr5	150412750	150412804 USF2	ms.USF2_HUMAN.91547.v1	
chr5	150409902	150409972 JMJD6	ms.JMJD6_HUMAN.44214.v1	58
chr5	150410700	150410770 JMJD6	ms.JMJD6_HUMAN.44215.v1	
chr5	150411462	150411532 JMJD6	ms.JMJD6_HUMAN.44216.v1	
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chr5	150400621	150400660 BCL6	ms.BCL6_HUMAN.128038.v1	33
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chr5	150402210	150402266 USF1	ms.USF1_HUMAN.110413.v1	61
chr5	150406264	150406320 USF1	ms.USF1_HUMAN.110414.v1	
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chr5	150408574	150408658 NFATC1	ms.NFAC1_HUMAN.62289.v1	
chr5	150411390	150411474 NFATC1	ms.NFAC1_HUMAN.62290.v1	
chr5	150412711	150412797 CCND2	ms.CCND2_HUMAN.8687.v1	63
chr5	150399586	150399674 SMC3	ms.SMC3_HUMAN.310692.v1	64
chr5	150407044	150407112 SMC3	ms.SMC3_HUMAN.310693.v1	
chr5	150407432	150407520 SMC3	ms.SMC3_HUMAN.310694.v1	
chr5	150409833	150409921 SMC3	ms.SMC3_HUMAN.310695.v1	
chr5	150410376	150410464 SMC3	ms.SMC3_HUMAN.310696.v1	
chr5	150410741	150410829 SMC3	ms.SMC3_HUMAN.310697.v1	
chr5	150399732	150399810 NFYA	ms.NFYA_HUMAN.196203.v1	65
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chr5	150410701	150410742 NFYA	ms.NFYA_HUMAN.196205.v1	
chr5	150412642	150412660 NFYA	ms.NFYA_HUMAN.196206.v1	
chr5	150412702	150412788 NFYA	ms.NFYA_HUMAN.196207.v1	
chr5	150412872	150412950 NFYA	ms.NFYA_HUMAN.196208.v1	
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chr5	150412836	150412922 ETV5	ms.ETV5_HUMAN.57324.v1	68
chr5	150406738	150406834 EGR1	ms.EGR1_HUMAN.84371.v1	69
chr5	150407940	150408038 EGR1	ms.EGR1_HUMAN.84372.v1	
chr5	150408571	150408667 EGR1	ms.EGR1_HUMAN.84373.v1	
chr5	150412638	150412729 EGR1	ms.EGR1_HUMAN.84374.v1	
chr5	150413106	150413178 EGR1	ms.EGR1_HUMAN.84375.v1	
chr5	150409753	150409853 ATF7IP	ms.MCAF1_HUMAN.31049.v1	70
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chr5	150412476	150412564 CXXC1	ms.CXXC1_HUMAN.14668.v1	72
chr5	150412653	150412741 GATAD2A	ms.P66A_HUMAN.225472.v1	73
chr5	150409903	150409987 TBP	ms.TBP_HUMAN.213957.v1	74
chr5	150410205	150410315 TBP	ms.TBP_HUMAN.213958.v1	
chr5	150410741	150410825 TBP	ms.TBP_HUMAN.213959.v1	

chr5	150412747	150412785 TBP	ms.TBP HUMAN.213960.v1	
chr5	150403904	150403970 SIX5	ms.SIX5 HUMAN.17330.v1	75
chr5	150412950	150413016 SIX5	ms.SIX5 HUMAN.17331.v1	
			_	375

# **Supplementary Table 3**

Gene	Description	Confidence
RFX5	regulatory factor X, 5 (influences HLA class II expression)	0.9999
NFYC	nuclear transcription factor Y, gamma	0.9981
CREB1	cAMP responsive element binding protein 1	0.9893
NFYA	nuclear transcription factor Y, alpha	0.9832
RFXANK	regulatory factor X-associated ankyrin-containing protein	0.9061
NFYB	nuclear transcription factor Y, beta	0.8608
STAT1	signal transducer and activator of transcription 1, 91kDa	0.5640
SP1	Sp1 transcription factor	0.3411
TP53	tumor protein p53	0.2508
ETS2	v-ets erythroblastosis virus E26 oncogene homolog 2 (avian	0.1587
IRF1	interferon regulatory factor 1	0.1502
ETS1	v-ets erythroblastosis virus E26 oncogene homolog 1 (avian	0.1366
RELA	v-rel reticuloendotheliosis viral oncogene homolog A (avian	0.1359
IRF8	interferon regulatory factor 8	0.1097
NR1H3	nuclear receptor subfamily 1, group H, member 3	0.1074
GATA3	GATA binding protein 3	0.1055
HOXB3	homeobox B3	0.1022
ZFP36L1	zinc finger protein 36, C3H type-like 1	0.1013
CEBPB	CCAAT/enhancer binding protein (C/EBP), beta	<u>0.1010</u>

### Color code explanation:

CIITA associated no binding site within 500bp of CD74 gene

# CD74 transcriptional regulation

 $\frac{https://pathwaynet.princeton.edu/predictions/gene/?network=human-transcriptional-regulation\&general/111/2024$ 

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# 7.2 Supplementary data for Spiller, L. et al, 2023

# Science Signaling

# Supplementary Materials for

# Plant MDL proteins synergize with the cytokine MIF at CXCR2 and CXCR4 receptors in human cells

Lukas Spiller et al.

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Sci. Signal. 16, eadg2621 (2023) DOI: 10.1126/scisignal.adg2621

### The PDF file includes:

Figs. S1 to S17 Tables S1 and S2

# Other Supplementary Material for this manuscript includes the following:

MDAR Reproducibility Checklist

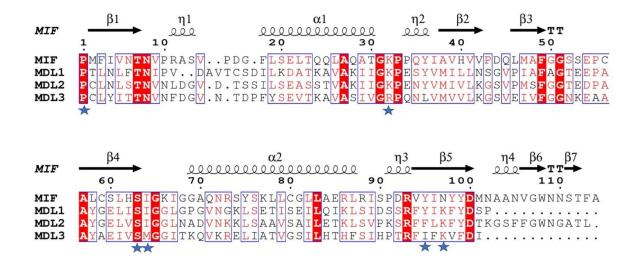
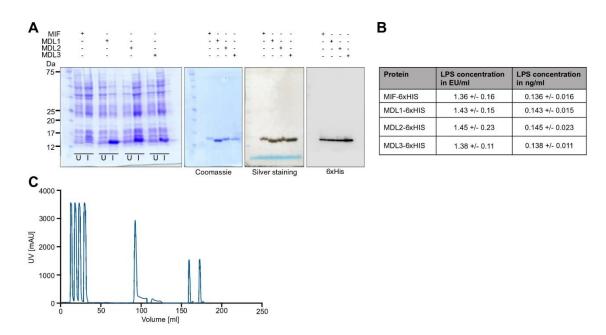
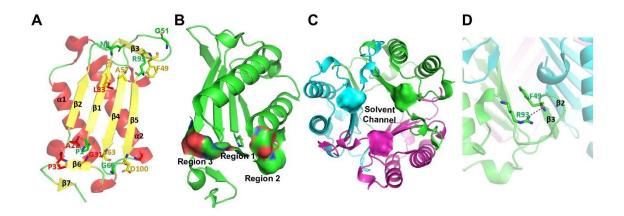


Fig. S1. Structure-based sequence alignment of the Arabidopsis MDLs and human MIF.

The ESpript application (35) was used to align the structures. The red boxes highlight the invariant residues among the three MDLs and MIF. Similar residues and regions are surrounded by blue boxes. The secondary structure elements are noted above the sequences, with the  $3_{10}$ -helix represented by the  $\eta$  symbol, helices with squiggles,  $\beta$ -strands with arrows, and  $\beta$ -turns with TT letters. Blue stars below the aligned sequences indicate the position of residues in the tautomerase catalytic site of MIF. The last 12 and 9 residues of MDL1 and MDL3, respectively, are not aligned due to the lack of electron density. Some MIF studies refer to the initiating Met<sup>1</sup>, which is later posttranslationally cleaved, as the first residue, but in this and some other studies, Pro<sup>1</sup> is used as the first residue. After residue 17, there is one extra amino acid in a loop for all three MDLs relative to MIF, resulting in residue numbers for MDLs that are greater than those for the corresponding residues in MIF.



**Fig. S2.** Expression and purification of recombinant MIF and MDL proteins. (A) Electrophoretic analysis of crude protein lysates before (uninduced, [U]) and after induction [I] with isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). Cell lysates are shown with Coomassie staining. Purified proteins after immobilized metal affinity chromatography (IMAC) and subsequent size exclusion chromatography (SEC) are also shown using Coomassie staining, silver staining, and immunoblotting with an antibody directed against the hexahistidine tag. The blots shown are representative of at least n = 3 independent experiments. (**B**) Quantification of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) content in purified recombinant proteins using a chromogenic endotoxin detection assay. LPS concentrations are given in endotoxin units (EU)/mL and ng/mL. Values are from three biological replicates (n=3). (**C**) Chromatogram of IMAC and subsequent SEC purification shown for MDL1 as an example. Injections of the bacterial lysate (up to 50 mL) are followed in the course of the elution of the hexahistidine-tagged protein by an imidazole gradient (around 100 mL). For further purification and buffer exchange, this step was followed by two runs of SEC (from 150 mL onward). The chromatogram is representative of at least n = 3 independent experiments.



(**A**) All 14 invariant residues among the three MDLs and MIF are shown in a MIF monomer. (**B**) Surface areas of regions 1, 2, and 3. Region 1 contains the Pro¹ and Ser<sup>63</sup> of the tautomerase enzymatic site. Region 2 consists of Ala<sup>27</sup>, Gly<sup>31</sup>, Pro³³, Gly<sup>65</sup>, Ser<sup>63</sup>, and Asp¹¹⁰. For Ser<sup>63</sup>, the backbone atoms are in region 2, whereas the side chain is part of region 1. (**C**) The human MIF trimer creates a solvent channel (water molecules not shown) along the 3-fold axis of the trimeric structure. The solvent channel is surrounded by three surface areas (shown as a smooth surfaces) of Asp¹¹⁰ side chains from each subunit (shown in different colors) at one end of the channel, which makes up region 3. (**D**) In region 4, a hydrogen bond between the side chain of

Arg<sup>93</sup> and the backbone of Phe<sup>49</sup> stabilizes the β-strand important for subunit-subunit interactions

(cartoons in blue and green represent two different subunits).

Fig. S3. Structural views and regions of the invariant residues in MIF and MDL proteins.

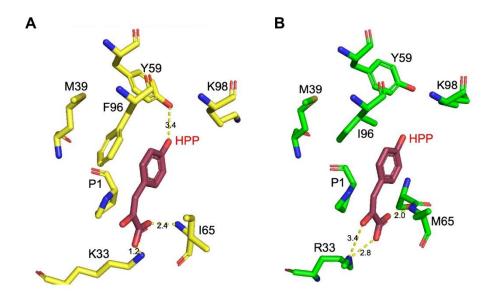


Fig. S4. Interactions of MDL2 and MDL3 tautomerase enzymatic site residues interacting with a modelled HPP substrate molecule. Residues of (A) MDL2 and (B) MDL3 analogous to the tautomerase catalytic site in human MIF, shown in yellow and green, respectively, were superimposed on the MIF-HPP complex to examine putative interactions between ligand and protein. Potential hydrogen bonds are shown between the MDLs and HPP represented by yellow lines.

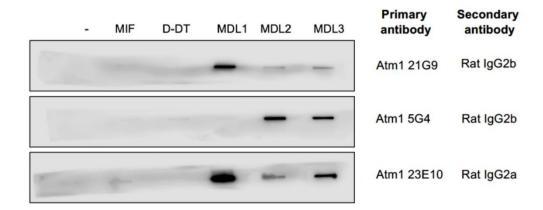
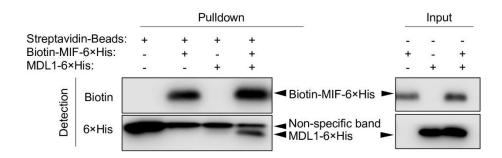


Fig. S5. Slot blot screening for sensitivity and specificity of custom-made monoclonal antibodies directed against MDL1 and MDL2. Custom-made monoclonal antibodies generated against MDL1 and MDL2 were screened by slot blotting. Promising monoclonal antibodies directed against MDL1 and MDL2 were probed against purified recombinant human MIF (MIF), human MIF-2/D-DT, and the three *Arabidopsis* MDL proteins as indicated. The far left-hand lane ( - ) was a negative control without protein. HRP-coupled immunoglobulin subclass-specific secondary antibodies were used as indicated for detection. Antibody clones directed against MDL2 were previously established (*34*). Clone Atm-5G4, generated against MDL2, was used in this study also recognizes MDL3. Two candidate antibodies directed against MDL1 (Atm1\_21G9 and Atm1\_23E10) distinguished between MIF or D-DT and the MDLs, but Atm\_21G9 showed greater specificity for MDL1. Screening was performed with the primary hybridoma supernatant (shown here) and then validated with the established clone, which was used for subsequent experiments. The blot is representative of n = 3 independent experiments.



**Fig. S6. MIF and MDL proteins bind to each other in vitro. (A)** Purified tagged MIF (biotin-MIF-6×His) and MDL1 (MDL1-6×His) were incubated alone or together, and complexes pulled down by streptavidin-coated beads were immunoblotted after separation by SDS-PAGE. Blots were developed for His-tagged proteins by using a hexahistidine tag–specific antibody to visualize MIF and MDL1. The upper band in the bottom panel of the pulldown, absent in the input samples, originates from the streptavidin-coated beads used to pull down biotin-tagged MIF and is non-specific. Blots are representative of n = 3 independent experiments.

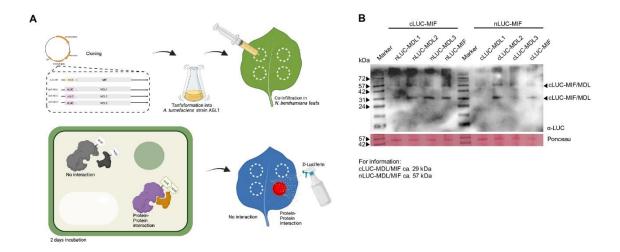


Fig. S7. Luciferase complementation imaging assay. (A) Schematic illustration of luciferase complementation imaging assay upon transient expression of test genes in N. benthamiana leaves. Constructs of MIF and three MDL genes were N-terminally fused to N- and C-terminal segments of firefly luciferase. These plasmids were transferred into A. tumefaciens strain GV3101 (pmP90RK) for subsequent transformation into plant cells. For co-infiltration, equal volumes of each A. tumefaciens transformant culture were mixed and infiltrated with a syringe lacking a cannula from the lower (abaxial) side into fully expanded leaves of four- to six-week-old N. benthamiana plants. Imaging was done after three days of incubation following spraying the leaves with the lucifase substrate D-luciferin. (B) Immunoblot analysis of transient expression of luciferase complementation fusion proteins. Protein extracts of A. tumefaciens infiltrated N. benthamiana leaves were separated by SDS-PAGE, blotted onto a nitrocellulose membrane, and probed with a luciferase-specific primary antibody and a secondary antibody coupled to horseradish peroxidase (HRP). Chemiluminescence detection of antigen-antibody complexes was performed with SuperSignal™ West Femto Western substrate. As a loading control, membranes were stained in Ponceau S solution, showing primarily the large subunit of ribulose-1,5-bisphophate carboxylase/oxygenase, a prominent protein of ~56 kDa in plant protein extracts. Expected molecular masses are ~57 kDa for the nLUC-MIF/MDL fusion proteins and ~29 kDa for the cLUC-MIF/MDL fusion proteins. Three independent luciferase complementation imaging assays were performed. The blot shown was performed from one of these experiments. X

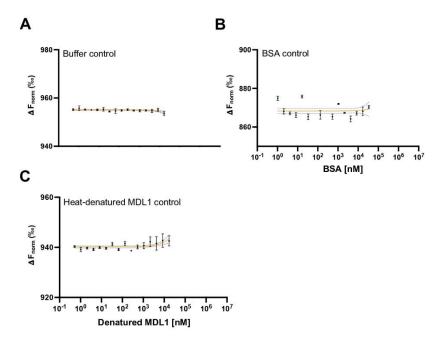


Fig. S8. Microscale thermophoresis (MST) control experiments. RED-NHS-MIF was tested in MST in different control conditions: (A) buffer control, (B) bovine serum albumin (BSA) as an unrelated control protein instead of MDL, and (C) heat-denatured MDL1 as a negative control for folded MDL1 protein. Settings and buffer conditions were the same as for the MIF-MDL experiments (20 mM sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.2, containing 0.2% Tween-20). Values shown represent means  $\pm$  SD as obtained from at least 3 biological replicates ( $n \ge 3$ ). Data analysis and  $K_D$ -fitting was performed using NanoTemper MOcontrol software, visualization was done by non-linear fitting using Graphpad Prism.

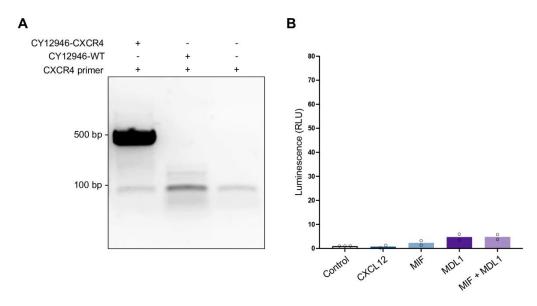
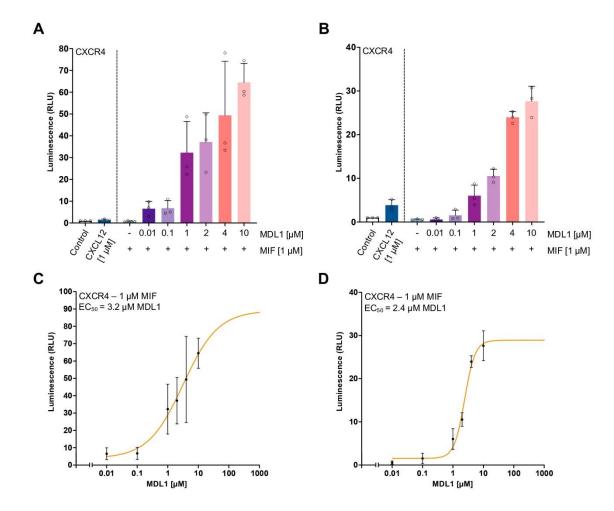


Fig. S9. A plasmid loss assay confirms the specificity of MIF and MDL effects in the yeast-based reporter system. The plasmid loss assay for the CXCR4-encoding plasmid was carried out as described in the Materials and Methods. (A) PCR confirms loss of the CXCR4-encoding plasmid from the yeast hCXCR4 clone (CY12946-CXCR4). The new clone lacking CXCR4 is designated CY12946-WT. (B) Control experiment with clone CY12946-WT, generated according to (A). Thirty minutes after addition of test proteins to the yeast system, luminescence (in relative light units, RLU) due to *lacZ* reporter gene activation was measured. MIF and MDL1 were used individually at 20 μM or in combination (10 μM each). Only minimal unspecific activation of the lacZ reporter pathway was observed in the yeast cells that have lost the CXCR4-encoding plasmid, confirming the specificity of the effects measured in the CXCR4 yeast reporter system. The effect with the cognate CXCR4 ligand CXCL12 (tested at 2 μM) is shown for comparison. Values shown represent means as obtained from two independent experiments (n=2), with RLUs of each experiment assessed in technical duplicates and normalized to untreated controls. Individual data points are indicated by white circles.



**Fig. S10.** Additional biological replicates showing synergistic CXCR4 activation by MIF and MDL1 in the yeast-based reporter system. Shown are two additional biological replicates of the concentration-response experiments (Fig. 3, H and I). (**A and B**) The bar diagrams show luminescence (in RLU) due to *lacZ* reporter gene activation upon the addition of a sub-threshold concentration of 1 μM MIF and increasing concentrations (0 - 10 μM) of MDL1. The effect of the cognate CXCR4 ligand CXCL12 (at 1 μM) is shown for comparison. (**C and D**) Concentration-response curves for MIF-MDL1 interaction in the CXCR4 reporter system according to (A) and (B), respectively, assuming a non-linear fit. From those fits, a half-maximal effective ('synergistic') concentration (EC<sub>50</sub>) of 3.2 and 2.4 μM MDL1, respectively, was derived. Each experiment was carried out in technical triplicates. White circles indicate individual data points.

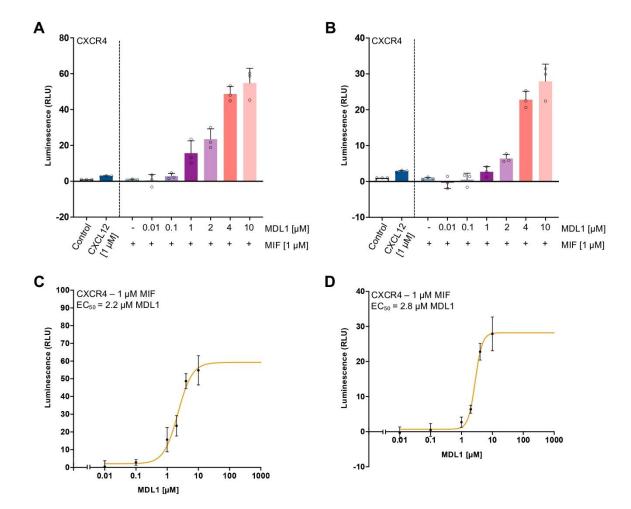


Fig. S11. Subtraction of the effect of MDL1 alone from experiments showing synergistic CXCR4 activation by MIF and MDL1 in the yeast-based reporter system. Shown are two biological replicates of the concentration-response experiment with combinations of constant MIF and increasing MDL1 concentrations (fig. S10, A to D), with the respective MDL1-alone values subtracted. (A and B) Bar diagrams show luminescence (RLU) due to *lacZ* reporter gene activation upon addition of a sub-threshold concentration of 1 μM MIF and increasing concentrations (0 - 10 μM) of MDL1. Luminescence of MDL1-alone at 0.01, 0.1, 1, 2, 4, 10 μM (measured separately) was deducted from values observed for the respective MIF + MDL1 combinations. Negative RLU values for combinations of MIF and low MDL1 concentration are due to this subtraction. The effect of the cognate CXCR4 ligand CXCL12 (at 1 μM) is shown for comparison. (C and D) Concentration-response curves for MIF-MDL1 interaction in the CXCR4 reporter system according to (A) and (B), respectively, assuming a non-linear fit. From those fits, a half-maximal effective ('synergistic') concentration (EC<sub>50</sub>) of 2.2 and 2.8 μM MDL1, respectively, was derived. Each experiment was carried out in technical triplicates. White circles indicate individual data points.

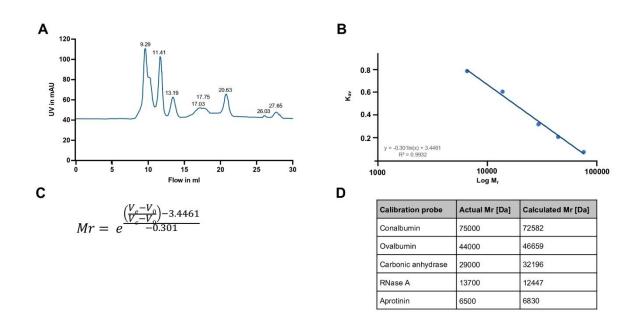


Fig. S12. Establishing a calibration curve and a standard equation for the Superdex 75 10/300 SEC column. The GE Healthcare Gel Filtration Calibration Kit was used to establish a standard curve and equation for the following conditions: 20 mM sodium phosphate buffer including 20 mM sodium chloride, pH 7.2, flow rate 0.5 mL/min. (A) Standard proteins with known molecular masses were prepared, mixed according to manufacturer's instructions and run over the column under the aforementioned conditions. The chromatogram shows the elution profile of the standard proteins with their corresponding elution volumes. (B) Standard curve generated from the known molecular mass and the observed elution volume for each of the test proteins. Notice the logarithmic x-axis. (C) Standard equation to calculate the molecular mass (Mr) of a protein according to its elution volume ( $V_e$ ).  $V_0$  = column volume, e = Euler's number. (D) Comparison of the known molecular masses of test proteins to their calculated mass based on their elution volumes ( $V_e$ ) and the standard equation shown in (C).

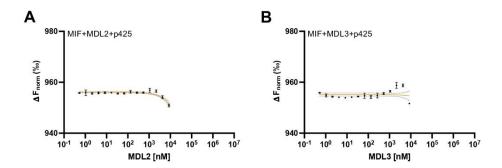
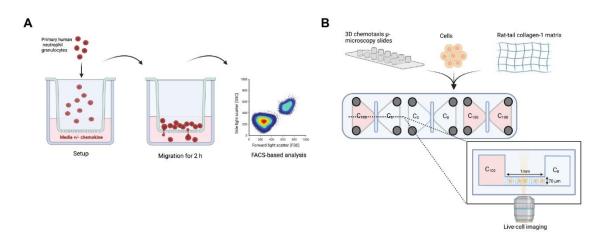


Fig. S13. p425 blocks the interaction between MIF and MDL2 or MDL3. The interaction between RED-NHS-MIF and different concentrations of (A) MDL2 or (B) MDL3 in the presence of the MIF allosteric inhibitor p425 was determined by microscale thermophoresis (MST). Values shown represent means  $\pm$  SD as obtained from at least 3 biological replicates (n $\geq$ 3). Data analysis and K<sub>D</sub>-fitting was performed using NanoTemper MOcontrol software, visualization was done by non-linear fitting using Graphpad Prism.



**Fig. S14.** Schematic illustrations of experiments used to study the chemotactic movement of primary human neutrophils. (A) Schematic illustration of the Transwell migration assay. Neutrophils migrating across the filter towards a chemotactic stimulus were quantified by flow cytometry. (**B**) Schematic illustration of the 3D collagen matrix migration assay using time-lapse live-cell microscopy and individual cell tracking, using the 3D-chemotaxis μ-Slide system from lbidi GmbH. Migration along this gradient was observed using time-lapse imaging for 1 h at 37 °C on a Leica inverted DMi8-Life Cell Imaging system.

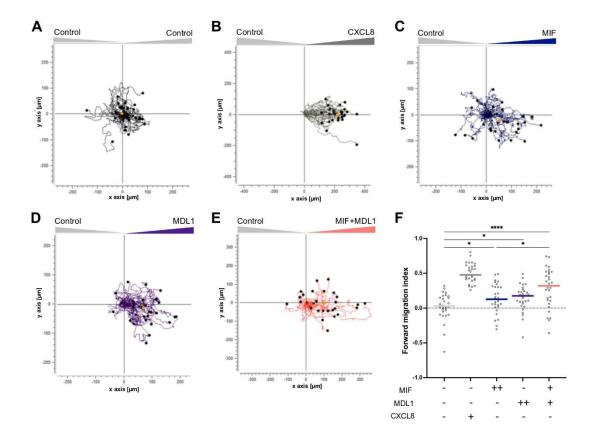


Fig. S15. MDLs promote human neutrophil chemotaxis and augment the chemotactic effect of human MIF. Chemotaxis was assessed by 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils applying live-cell microscopy of single-cell migration tracks in x/y direction in  $\mu$ m. (A to E) Representative experiments showing 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils towards (A) buffer control (gray), indicating random motility; (B) CXCL8 (1  $\mu$ M); (C) MIF (500 ng/mL); (D) MDL1 (500 ng/mL); or (E) a 1:1 mixture of MIF and MDL1 (250 ng/mL each). Orange dots represent the center of mass in each experiment. (F) Quantification of (A to E). The migration tracks of 30 randomly selected cells per treatment group (n=30) were recorded and the forward migration index plotted. This is an independent biological replication of the experiment shown in the main text (Fig. 5, C to H). Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc multiple comparison between the buffer control and the treatment groups (\* p < 0.05, \*\*\*\* p < 0.0001).

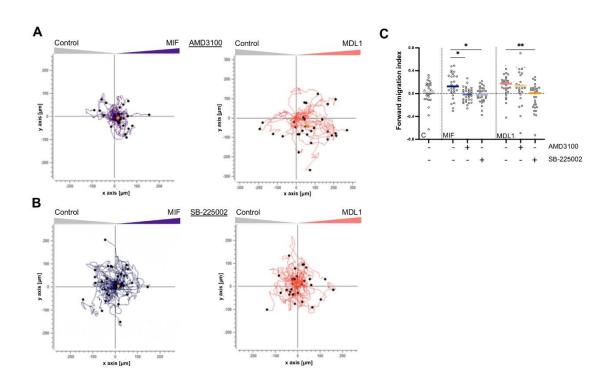


Fig. S16. MDL1-mediated neutrophil chemotaxis is inhibited by SB-225002 but not by AMD3100. 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils as assessed by live-cell microscopy of single-cell migration tracks in x/y direction in  $\mu$ m. (A and B) Representative experiments showing 3D chemotaxis of primary human neutrophils. Shown is the comparison between migration towards MIF (500 ng/mL) or MDL1 (500 ng/mL) in the presence of either the CXCR4 I nhibitor AMD3100 (A); or the CXCR2 inhibitor SB225002 (B). Orange dots represent the center of mass for each experiment. (C) Quantification of (B) and (C) plus experiments performed in the absence of the inhibitors. The migration tracks of 30 randomly selected cells per treatment group were recorded and the forward migration index plotted. This is an independent biological replication of this experiment is shown in the main text (Fig. 6, B to D). Statistics were performed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's posthoc multiple comparison (\* p < 0.05, \*\* p < 0.01).

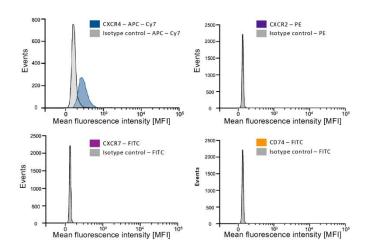


Fig. S17. MIF receptor expression in A549 lung epithelial cells and the CXCR4-PI3K-AKT signaling pathway. (A) Surface CXCR4 on A549 lung epithelial cells as assessed by flow cytometry. The histogram represents the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) on the x-axis and the number of fluorescent events on the y-axis. Antibody staining for CXCR4 (APC-Cy7), CXCR2 (PE), CXCR7 (FITC), CD74 (FITC) as well as staining with the corresponding isotype control (IgG control, grey) are shown. Data are representative of n = 3 independent experiments. (B) Schematic illustration of the CXCR4 receptor (a typical GPCR) and PI3K (phosphoinositid-3-kinase) as well as the AKT pathway as one of its downstream signaling cascades known to be involved in cell proliferation and migration. MIF or MDL1 binding to CXCR4 results in activation of the pathway as indicated.

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