Zika Virus Infection Prevents Host mRNA Nuclear Export by Disrupting UPF1 Function

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Abstract

Zika virus (ZIKV) is a mosquito-borne RNA virus that can infect fetuses *in utero* causing

characteristic neurodevelopmental disorders including microcephaly. We previously

showed that ZIKV infection downregulates expression of up-frameshift protein 1 (UPF1),

a helicase/ATPase and central regulator of the nonsense-mediated mRNA decay

pathway. Here, we identify a novel function of nuclear UPF1 in mRNA export. Using

crosslinking immunoprecipitation of UPF1 followed by sequencing of associated

transcripts as well as fluorescent in situ hybridization experiments, we find widespread

mRNA accumulation in the cell nucleus of human neural progenitor cells (NPCs) upon

ZIKV infection or UPF1 knockdown. Knockdown of *FREM2*, a top UPF1 target transcript

encoding an extra-cellular matrix protein critical in fetal development, decreased

expression of pluripotency markers and increased neuronal differentiation in NPCs,

consistent with the model that trapping *FREM2* mRNA in the nucleus perturbs proper

NPC function. Collectively, our data uncovers a new posttranscriptional mechanism by

which ZIKV "shuts off" host mRNA export via UPF1. As we find UPF1 linked to many

neurodevelopment pathways, we propose that the lack of host mRNA export contributes

to virally induced neurodevelopmental disorders in ZIKV infection.

Introduction

Zika virus (ZIKV) is a mosquito-borne, enveloped virus with a positive sense, single stranded RNA genome (Musso & Gubler, 2016). ZIKV is a member of the *Flaviviridae* family that includes Dengue virus (DENV), West Nile virus (WNV) and Hepatitis C virus (HCV). In 2015, an outbreak of ZIKV in Brazil was linked to a dramatic increase in the number of infants born with microcephaly (Fauci & Morens, 2016; Pierson & Diamond, 2018). It was subsequently shown that *in utero* ZIKV infects neural progenitor cells (NPCs), resulting in neurodevelopmental delays that ultimately cause a range of birth defects including microcephaly, ocular damage, and contractures, collectively known as congenital Zika syndrome (Costa et al., 2016; Cugola et al., 2016; Shao et al., 2016; Souza et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2016). NPCs are critical for brain development because they differentiate into the glial and neuronal cells that compose the majority of the brain parenchyma (Martínez-Cerdeño & Noctor, 2018). Proposed molecular mechanisms by which ZIKV disrupts NPC function and differentiation include perturbation of the autophagy, apoptosis and unfolded protein response pathways (Ojha et al., 2018). It remains unknown how ZIKV causes such widespread developmental reprogramming, manipulating multiple cellular pathways at once.

We and others showed previously that ZIKV infection suppressed the host nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (NMD) pathway (Fontaine et al., 2018; M. Li et al., 2019). NMD is an RNA quality control mechanism that targets faulty host transcripts for degradation and acts as an antiviral pathway on many viral species, particularly single-stranded RNA viruses (Balistreri, Bognanni, & Mühlemann, 2017; Leon & Ott, 2020). Different models of the NMD pathway have been described, but the exon-junction

complex (EJC)-mediated NMD pathway is the best defined (Kurosaki & Maquat, 2016;

Kurosaki, Popp, & Maquat, 2019). This pathway is classically triggered by premature

termination codons in mRNAs that prevent the regular displacement of EJCs from mRNAs

downstream of the stop codons as translation is prematurely ended (Niels H. Gehring,

Neu-Yilik, Schell, Hentze, & Kulozik, 2003).

EJCs are normally loaded onto mRNAs in the nucleus (Popp & Maquat, 2013),

which are exported to the cytoplasm to undergo translation, leading to proper

displacement of the EJCs (N. H. Gehring, Lamprinaki, Kulozik, & Hentze, 2009). Non-

displaced EJCs recruit the master regulator and helicase up-frameshift protein 1 (UPF1),

which induces a recruitment cascade activating NMD-mediated degradation of the faulty

transcript (Loh, Jonas, & Izaurralde, 2013; Lykke-Andersen et al., 2014). However, the

NMD pathway and UPF1 also target non-faulty mRNAs, especially those with long and

GC-rich 3' untranslated regions (UTRs), a feature found in many viral RNAs (Imamachi,

Salam, Suzuki, & Akimitsu, 2017; Kebaara & Atkin, 2009; Peccarelli & Kebaara, 2014;

Toma, Rebbapragada, Durand, & Lykke-Andersen, 2015). Because knockdown of UPF1

enhances replication of many RNA viruses including ZIKV, WNV, DENV, Rous Sarcoma

virus, Potato virus X, Pea Enation Mosaic virus 2, and Turnip Crinkle virus, NMD is

recognized as a *bone fide* antiviral restriction pathway, often targeted by viruses including

ZIKV for inactivation (Leon & Ott, 2020).

We previously defined how ZIKV inactivates the antiviral activity of NMD through

interactions between the ZIKV capsid protein and UPF1 (Fontaine et al., 2018; M. Li et

al., 2019). Similar interactions of capsid proteins with the NMD pathway were

subsequently confirmed in other flaviviruses (M. Li et al., 2019). However, ZIKV stands

out as infection or capsid expression selectively downregulated UPF1 expression in the

host nucleus (Fontaine et al., 2018). This is unusual as viral RNA replication occurs

exclusively in the host cytoplasm, and the role of nuclear UPF1 in ZIKV infection remains

unclear.

Here we show that UPF1 occupancy of host transcripts is globally decreased

during infection with many of these transcripts downregulated in the cytoplasm. ZIKV

infection or UPF1 knockdown resulted in polyadenylated transcript accumulation in the

nucleus, causing decreased protein levels of a UPF1 target and consequent perturbation

of NPC differentiation. We propose that by targeting nuclear UPF1 and trapping host

mRNAs in the nucleus, ZIKV has evolved a mechanism to "shut off" host mRNA function

while promoting translation of its own proteins, uncovering a new central role for UPF1 in

mRNA export connected to many cellular pathways associated with neurodevelopment.

Results

ZIKV infection decreases UPF1 interaction with the 3'UTR of host transcripts

While ZIKV inhibits the NMD by capsid mediated degradation of UPF1, the impact of the

loss of UPF1 is still unknown. We first aimed to define the UPF1-RNA binding landscape

by performing infrared crosslinking immunoprecipitation and RNA sequencing (irCLIP-

Seq) in human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived NPCs (Zarnegar et al., 2016). UPF1

is an RNA helicase and ATPase found associated with many transcripts (Fiorini, Bagchi,

Le Hir, & Croquette, 2015). To identify differences in UPF1 binding during infection, NPCs

were mock-infected or infected with ZIKV (isolate PRVABC59) at an MOI of 1 for 48 hours,

followed by UV-crosslinking of transcripts with proteins and immunoprecipitation of UPF1

(**Figure 1A**). RNA-protein complexes were separated by SDS-PAGE, and mass

spectrometry was performed on the excised bands to confirm UPF1 enrichment (**Figure**

S1A, Supplemental File 1) before RNA was extracted and submitted to next-generation

sequencing (**Figure 1A**, **Supplemental File 2**).

In mock-infected NPCs, UPF1 bound 6778 transcripts, predominantly at the

3'UTR, as previously reported (Kebaara & Atkin, 2009; Toma et al., 2015). In infected

NPCs, this number decreased to 4557 transcripts, with a marked decrease in binding at

the 3'UTR (**Figure 1B**). Overall, a greater than 4-fold decrease in binding was observed

in 3% of UPF1 target transcripts. Notably, known NMD-resistant transcripts such as

glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) maintained UPF1 interaction,

underscoring the central role of UPF1 in the NMD pathway (**Figure 1C**).

In infected samples, UPF1 also interacted with ZIKV RNA, again mostly within the

3'UTR, supporting the model that UPF1 targets the viral RNA to restrict infection (**Figure**

1D). To determine if viral RNA sequestered UPF1 away from host RNA (leading to

decreased UPF1 occupancy during infection), we quantified the percent of UPF1-bound

reads mapping to host vs. viral RNAs. The majority of sequences isolated with UPF1

pulldown mapped to the host transcriptome; viral reads only accounted for 0.33% of all

mapped reads, excluding a "sponge" effect of viral RNA for UPF1 **(Figure 1E).**

Figure 1

Figure 1: UPF1 interactions with many host transcripts are lost during ZIKV infection of NPCs

A) irCLIP schematic describing the workflow to obtain sequencing data. After 48 hrs of ZIKV infection, UPF1 and RNA are crosslinked using UV light, followed by UPF1 pulldown and protease degradation to expose the UPF1-bound RNA for sequencing. **B)** Metagene profile of all transcripts sequenced from the irCLIP experiment. The graphs show Reads Per Kilobase of transcript, per Million mapped reads (RPKM) values for positions in the CDS and the 3'UTR. Experiment was produced from 2 biological replicates. Representative metagene plots (FREM2, NELL2, POU3F4, MDFIC) of loci found to have a loss of UPF1 interaction. **C)** A metagene plot of GAPDH, a transcript resistant to UPF1 degradation, and ACTB are shown as negative controls. **D)** Metagene plot of reads mapping to the ZIKV genome, with the 3'UTR marked. **E)** Tabular breakdown of read map percentages from the UPF1-CLIP experiment.

Selective reduction of UPF1 target transcripts in the cytoplasm of infected NPCs

During ZIKV infection, we saw a widespread decrease in UPF1 occupancy of host transcripts. To understand the consequences of the loss of UPF1, we sought to define the changes in the abundance of transcripts identified in the irCLIP-Seq experiment. We performed whole transcriptome sequencing of ZIKV-infected NPCs followed by differential expression analysis (**Supplemental File 3**). As expected, expression of genes associated with the interferon response were predominantly upregulated upon infection, consistent with previous RNA-seq studies of ZIKV-infected NPCs (C. Li et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2019) (**Figure 2A, Supplemental Figure 2C**). The NMD pathway and UPF1 are associated with RNA degradation, and we previously found that ZIKV infection upregulated select NMD target mRNAs (Fontaine et al., 2018). We thus expected that transcripts that had lost UPF1 interaction upon infection would also be selectively upregulated. However, the abundance of transcripts which lost UPF1 occupancy upon infection was not significantly changed, indicating that the majority of UPF1 targets were not automatic subjects of NMD (**Figure 2B, Supplemental File 2**). Metascape analysis of transcripts with stable abundance but a loss of UPF1 binding showed a characteristic enrichment for neural and neurodevelopmental functions, underscoring the relevance of UPF1 binding for proper neurodevelopment, with axon guidance being the top pathway (**Figure 2C**). Axon guidance is essential for appropriate establishment of neural circuits in the brain (Stoeckli, 2018).

Since transcript abundance was not affected by UPF1 occupancy, we next hypothesized the loss of UPF1 binding may instead impact the subcellular localization of cellular mRNAs. This was based on: a) UPF1 translocates between the nucleus and

cytoplasm, and b) we previously observed a selective downregulation of UPF1 in the cell

nucleus upon infection. Thus, to test this hypothesis, we fractionated ZIKV-infected NPCs

into cytoplasmic and nuclear compartments and performed RNA sequencing and

differential expression analysis with each fraction (**Supplemental File 4,5**). We confirmed

successful fractionation by comparing the $\log_2$ fold change of known cytoplasmic

(*GAPDH*) and nuclear (*ANRIL*) transcripts, which showed 3.2-fold enrichment of *GAPDH*

in the cytoplasmic fraction and a 2.3-fold increase of *ANRIL* in the nuclear fraction, as

expected (**Supplemental Figure 2A**). We identified 585 and 312 significantly upregulated

mRNAs in the cytoplasm and nucleus, respectively, depicted in volcano plots showing

$\log_2$ fold changes of transcripts (**Figure 2D**). These upregulated transcripts were

predominantly interferon response genes (**Supplemental Figure 2D**). In contrast,

downregulated genes were overwhelmingly cytoplasmic, with 912 genes downregulated

in the cytoplasm compared to 22 in the nuclear fraction (**Figure 2E**). A significant overlap

was found between the 912 transcripts with reduced cytoplasmic expression and the 331

transcripts that lost UPF1 occupancy without changing overall abundance **(Figure 2F)**. In

contrast, considerably less overlap existed with transcripts that were upregulated in the

cytoplasm and had lost UPF1 binding (**Supplemental Figure 2B**). Moreover, of the top

53 genes with the most significant decrease in UPF1 interaction upon infection, all but 6

were exclusively downregulated in the cytoplasm (**Figure 2G**). These results show a

selective loss of UPF1 target mRNAs in the cytoplasm of infected cells. As no change in

total abundance was observed, we considered an accumulation of these transcripts in the

nucleus upon ZIKV infection.

Figure 2

Figure 2: **Loss of UPF1 interaction during ZIKV infection causes mRNA downregulation in the cytoplasm**
A) Volcano plot of whole transcriptome RNA sequencing of ZIKV infected NPCs compared to Mock, n=2 biological replicates. **B)** X-axis shows ZIKV: Mock $\log_2$ fold change in whole transcriptome sequencing, Y-Axis shows ZIKV:Mock $\log_2$ fold change from the UPF1 CLIP experiment. The green transcripts are >2 $\log_2$ fold change in the UPF1-CLIP and <2 log2 fold change in total RNA. **C)** Metascape analysis of transcripts identified to have a significant loss of UPF1 interaction in ZIKV infected cells compared to Mock. **D)** Volcano plot of sequencing from ZIKV-infected NPCs compared to Mock fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions, n=2 biological replicates. **E)** Number of differentially expressed genes from sequencing of ZIKV-infected NPCs compared to Mock fractionated into cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. **F)** Overlap of transcripts found to be significantly downregulated in the cytoplasm and those with greater than a 2 $\log_2$ fold decrease in the UPF1 CLIP. Statistics performed by hypergeometric probability test, ***, P ≤ 0.001. **G)** A heatmap showing $\log_2$ fold changes of transcripts identified in the CLIP experiment in cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions.

ZIKV infection, capsid expression or UPF1 knockdown results in accumulation of host transcripts in the nucleus

To test the hypothesis that transcripts were selectively accumulating in the nucleus in ZIKV-infected cells, we analyzed global transcript localization by using RNAscope analysis with a polyA tail probe. We first optimized the technology in Huh7-Lunet cells, a hepatoma cell line frequently used to study flavivirus infection (Vicenti et al., 2018), and NPCs, both infected with ZIKV at an MOI of 1. In both cell types, polyadenylated RNA fluorescence was significantly increased in the nucleus upon infection, supporting the model that mRNA location rather than abundance is perturbed in ZIKV infected cells (**Figure 3A,B**). To understand if this effect was UPF1-mediated, we leveraged the previously demonstrated ability of ZIKV capsid to specifically degrade nuclear UPF1 (Fontaine et al., 2018), and used Huh7-Lunet cells expressing ZIKV capsid protein in a tetracycline-inducible manner. Addition of doxycycline, and consequent expression of capsid in the inducible system, lead to reduced levels of nuclear UPF1 (**Figure 3C**). This

also led to a similar accumulation of polyadenylated RNAs in the cell nucleus, mirroring

the data observed in ZIKV-infected cells (62% nuclear fluorescence in vector vs 78% in

capsid overexpressing cells) (**Figure 3D**). Furthermore, siRNA-mediated knockdown of

UPF1 in NPCs also resulted in retention of polyadenylated RNAs in the nucleus (36%

nuclear fluorescence in control vs 40% in siUPF1 NPCs) (**Figure 3E**) (**Supplemental**

Figure 3). Collectively, these data indicate that UPF1 regulates nuclear mRNA export, a

function perturbed upon nuclear UPF1 degradation during ZIKV infection.

Figure 3

Figure 3: ZIKV-mediated degradation of UPF1 leads to mRNA retention in the nucleus.
A and B) During ZIKV infection (ZIKV ENV, green), polyA RNA (red) is shifted toward the nucleus (Hoechst, blue) in Huh7-Lunet cells. Statistics produced by a Linear Mixed Model. 3 biological replicates, n=25 cells (A) or 15 cells (B) per condition per replicate. **C)** Tetracycline-inducible Capsid expression in Huh7-Lunet cells was used to degrade nuclear UPF1. Leptomycin B (LMB) was used to increase UPF1 degradation. Statistics performed by Student's t-test, n=3, and representative western blot shown. **D)** Capsid overexpression in Huh7-Lunet cells results in an increased ratio of polyA RNAs (red) in the nucleus. N=3 biological replicates, 25 cells per condition per replicate. **E)** Knockdown of UPF1 in NPCs results in an increased ratio of polyA RNAs (red) in the nucleus. NPCs were treated with siNT and siUPF1 for 96 hours. Statistics produced by a Linear Mixed Model. n=3 biological replicates, 15 cells per condition per replicate. *, P ≤ 0.05; **, P ≤ 0.01; ***, P ≤ 0.001. Error bars are SEM.

FREM2, a UPF1 target, regulates NPC differentiation

Next, we focused on *FREM2*, the transcript with the largest fold decrease in UPF1 interaction in the irCLIP studies (**Figure 1B**). FREM2 is an extracellular matrix protein involved in cell-cell interactions that is important in many developmental pathways including tissue and vascular morphogenesis (Pavlakis, Chiotaki, & Chalepakis, 2011; Timmer, Mak, Manova, Anderson, & Niswander, 2005). The *FREM2* transcript was also specifically downregulated in the cytoplasm of infected NPCs (**Figure 2G**). We confirmed select cytoplasmic downregulation of *FREM2* mRNA expression upon infection by qPCR (**Figure 4A**). Using RNAscope, we found enrichment of the *FREM2* transcript in the nucleus of cells treated with UPF1-targeting siRNAs as compared to cells treated with non-targeting control siRNAs, where it was found in both the cytoplasm and the nucleus (**Figure 4B**). FREM2 protein levels were significantly decreased in UPF1 siRNA-treated cells (42% decrease in siUPF1 compared to the siNT control), supporting the model that nuclear mRNA retention leads to reduced translation of UPF1 target transcripts upon ZIKV infection (**Figure 4C**).

To determine the functional consequences of reduced FREM2 expression, we used siRNAs to knockdown FREM2 in NPCs (**Supplemental Figure 4).** FREM2 knockdown increased the percentage of cells expressing βIII-Tubulin (neuronal marker) by 44%, and decreased the percentage of cells expressing Sox2 (pluripotency marker) by 51% (**Figure 4D**). This indicates that by preventing FREM2 nuclear export and protein expression, ZIKV infection may promote premature neuronal differentiation of NPCs, thus reducing the number of NPCs that determine brain and ultimately head size.

Figure 4: UPF1 knockdown leads to retention of *FREM2* mRNA and decreased protein production, which causes premature differentiation of NPCs.
A) qPCR of *FREM2* in cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions in ZIKV infected NPCs. **B)** RNAscope of *FREM2* in UPF1 knockdown NPCs. NPCs were treated with siRNAs for 96 hours prior to harvesting for microscopy. Number of nuclear puncta compared to cytoplasmic as calculated by Imaris. 3 biological replicates, 10 cells per biological replicate per condition averaged. Statistics produced by Student's t-test. **C)** Western blot of siNT and siUPF1 treated NPCs. NPCs were treated with siRNAs for 96 hours prior to harvesting for microscopy. Densitometric analyses of FREM2 were performed using ImageJ to quantify relative band intensities. **D)** siNT and siFREM2 treated NPCs stained for βIII-Tubulin, Soxs2 and Vimentin. NPCs were treated with siRNAs for 7 days prior to analysis. Statistics produced by Student's t-test. *, P ≤ 0.05; **, P ≤ 0.01; ***, P ≤ 0.001. Error bars are SEM.

Discussion

In this study, we identified a novel mechanism by which ZIKV infection prevents RNA export from the nucleus, a phenotype described in other viral infections, but not seen previously with flaviviruses (Fortes, Beloso, & Ortín, 1994; Kumar & Glaunsinger, 2010; Kuss, Mata, Zhang, & Fontoura, 2013; Sakuma et al., 2014). We determine that many transcripts lost UPF1 occupancy during ZIKV infection, especially in the 3'UTR, consistent with the finding that UPF1 expression is downregulated in ZIKV infection. Loss of UPF1 binding altered transcript localization with only a minor effect on transcript abundance, underscoring the functional significance of UPF1's role in mRNA export. The accumulation of mRNA in the nucleus induced by ZIKV infection could be recapitulated both by ZIKV capsid expression known to degrade nuclear UPF1 and by UPF1 knockdown, linking UPF1's new function with its nuclear localization. Lastly, we show that when UPF1 is unable to export *FREM2* mRNA from the nucleus, FREM2 protein abundance decreases, ultimately disrupting neural differentiation. The majority of these experiments were performed in human NPCs, the natural target cells of ZIKV in fetuses, providing a physiologically relevant view into pathways and transcripts disrupted by ZIKV infection and how that might lead to congenital Zika syndrome.

UPF1 is an RNA helicase involved with a plethora of functions within the cell. Besides its function in NMD, it also plays important roles in several other RNA decay pathways (Kim & Maquat, 2019), as well as telomere maintenance (Chawla et al., 2011), and ubiquitination (Feng, Jagannathan, & Bradley, 2017). While this study was underway, a study in fruit flies connected nuclear UPF1 function with co-transcriptional binding and

export of mRNAs from the nucleus (Singh et al., 2019). UPF1 is also required for HIV

RNA export from the nucleus (Ajamian et al., 2015).

Here we show a role of nuclear UPF1 in mRNA export in mammalian cells, a role

prominently targeted by ZIKV. While the precise mechanisms of UPF1 mediated nuclear

export are not yet clear, two findings underscore its significance: 1) most transcripts are

not upregulated in NPCs after loss of UPF1 binding, which points to another major

function of UPF1 in cells besides NMD, and 2) many polyadenylated transcripts are

retained in the nucleus upon UPF1 knockdown, demonstrating that the effect of UPF1 on

mRNA export is widespread. Additional studies are needed to determine whether specific

features of these mRNAs, such as the 3'UTR sequence or structure, underlie their

targeting for export by UPF1 (Carmody & Wente, 2009). This includes UPF1 binding to

ZIKV RNA and the features that lead to UPF1 enrichment in the viral 3'UTR. Interestingly,

a non-coding subgenomic flavivirus RNA (SfRNA) is derived from the 3' UTR of ZIKV and

is known to be resistant to XRN1 degradation (Göertz, Abbo, Fros, & Pijlman, 2018). The

production of an SfRNA is shared among flaviviruses and antagonizes the interferon

response. UPF1 interaction with the SfRNA is potentially important for ZIKV replication

and would be important to explore in future studies.

The host shutoff effect is a common viral strategy to reduce host gene expression,

potentially for the purposes of competing with cellular resources and evading immune

responses. Flaviviruses have been reported to cause host shutoff by translational

repression (Roth et al., 2017). The host shutoff described here is achieved by retention

of host transcripts in the nucleus. We confirm that a single viral protein, the capsid protein,

is sufficient to specifically degrade nuclear UPF1 and cause nuclear mRNA retention.

This underscores the importance of the localization of ZIKV capsid to the cell nucleus

(Oliveira, Mohana-Borges, de Alencastro, & Horta, 2017), which is independent from its

function as a structural component of the virion as the virus replicates exclusively outside

of the nucleus (Mohd Ropidi, Khazali, Nor Rashid, & Yusof, 2020). This also highlights

the significance of nuclear UPF1, which is less studied as compared to cytoplasmic UPF1.

UPF1 has been associated with a number of roles in the nucleus, including cell cycle

progression, DNA replication, telomere maintenance, and mRNA release (Singh et al.,

2019; Varsally & Brogna, 2012).

The nuclear retention of host mRNAs caused by the disruption of UPF1 function

could contribute to the neurodevelopmental defects seen during fetal ZIKV infections. As

it impacts many mRNAs, it may represent a central mechanism explaining pleotropic

effects of ZIKV infection on many cellular pathways. Here we follow up on *FREM2* as a

top UPF1 target and show that it is downregulated at the protein level when UPF1 is

unable to perform its role as a nuclear mRNA export regulator. FREM2 is both a member

of the FRAS/FREM complex and regulates its formation (Pavlakis et al., 2011). The

FRAS/FREM complex is found in cellular basement membranes and is expressed

differentially during development (Timmer et al., 2005). FREM2 itself is important for

proper development of the eye and mutation is associated with Fraser syndrome, in which

cryptopthalamos (a congenital defect where the eyes are covered completely by skin and

often associated with small or missing eyeballs) is commonly seen (Slavotinek & Tifft,

2002). As developmental defects in the eyes are also seen in children with congenital

Zika syndrome, the retention of the *FREM2* transcript in the nucleus could be directly

involved in pathogenesis (de Paula Freitas, Ventura, Maia, & Belfort, 2017; Ventura &

Ventura, 2018).

Our studies in NPCs and Huh7 hepatoma cells show that at least in these cell

types UPF1's role in nuclear export affects more mRNAs than its known function in NMD.

How this function is regulated and whether it involves known UPF1 interacting proteins

such as the EJC or the known RNA export pathways such as CRM-1, remains to be

determined. The finding that ZIKV has evolved a mechanism to selectively target nuclear

UPF1 and the mRNA export function of the protein underscores its central yet so far

underappreciated role in biology.

Materials and Methods

Cell Culture and Viruses

Human iPSC-derived NPCs were generated and maintained as described previously

(Consortium, 2017). The human fibroblast cell line used to generate iPSCs came from

the Coriell Institute for Medical Research and Yale Stem Cell Center. The iPSCs used in

these studies was the CTRL2493n17 line. CTRL2493n17 was derived from the parental

fibroblast line ND31845 that was biopsied from a healthy female at 71 years of age. iPSCs

were cultured and maintained in complete mTESR (StemCell Techologies). NPCs were

differentiated and maintained using EFH media (Stemline Neural Stem Cell Media [Sigma

Aldrich], EGF [R&D Biosystems], rhFGF basic [R&D Biosystems]. Heparin Sulfate [Sigma

Aldrich]). NPCs were dissociated and plated onto Matrigel-coated plates (Corning) prior

to infecting with ZIKV (MOI of 1) or treating with siRNAs. Experiments were harvested 48

hours post infection and up to 7 days after siRNA treatment. Huh7-Lunet cells (Ralf

Bartenschlager, Heidelberg University), and Vero cells were maintained in Dulbecco's

modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM l-glutamine,

100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin.

N-terminally Strep TagII tagged ZIKV Capsid was cloned to pLVX-TetOne-Puro Vector

(Clontech, Cat: 631849) using BamHI & EcoRI cut sites. We used a 2nd generation

lentiviral system to generate a stably expressing ZIKV Capsid Huh7-Lunet cell line. After

transduction Huh7-Lunet cells were selected with puromycin (2ug/ml) for one weeks and

later clonally expanded. Clones with the highest & specific expression was used for

experiment. Huh7-Lunets were maintained in DMEM with 10% FBS, P/S and L-glut.

The strain PRVABC59 of ZIKV (ATCC VR-1843) was used for all experiments. ZIKV

stocks were propagated in Vero cells (ATCC), and titers were determined by plaque

assays on Vero cells. ZIKV infections were performed by adding viral inoculum to DMEM

with 2% FBS or EFH followed by a two-hour incubation at 37C with a rock every 15

minutes. After infection was completed, inoculum was aspirated and then fresh DMEM

with 10% FBS or EFH was added to the cells. Infected cells were cultured for 48 hours

prior to harvesting for all sequencing and IF experiments.

Antibodies and other reagents

Primary antibodies used were anti-UPF1 (Bethyl laboratories, A300-38A, CST, 12040S

and Abcam, ab109363), anti-FREM2 (Invitrogen, PA5-20982), anti-FLAG (Abcam,

ab18230), anti-Actin (CST, 4967S), anti-GFAP (Abcam, ab53554), anti-Nestin (Abcam,

ab22035) and anti-Beta III tubulin (Abcam, ab18207). Secondary antibodies used include

goat anti-rabbit Alexa 488 (Invitrogen, A-11008), goat anti-mouse Alexa 488 (Invitrogen,

A-11001), goat anti-rabbit Alexa 594 (Invitrogen, A-11012), goat anti-mouse Alexa 594

(Invitrogen, A-11005), donkey anti-goat Alexa 647 (Invitrogen, A-21447), donkey anti-

rabbit Alexa 488 (Invitrogen, A-21206), donkey anti-mouse Alexa 594 (Invitrogen, A-

21203). The RNAScope Multiplex Fluorescent V2 Assay (ACD, 323100) was used with

RNAscope Probes include polyA RNA (ACD, 318631) and FREM2 (ACD, 482841).

Opal570 (Akoya Biosciences, FP1488001KT) were used for visualization of RNAscope

probes. Accell siRNA was used for knockdown of FREM2 (Dharmacon, E-021693-00-

0010) and UPF1 (Dharmacon, E-011763-00-0010) according to manufacturer's

instructions. Non-targeting siRNAs used were cat. D-001910-10-20 (Dharmacon). Huh7-

Lunets were treated with 60 ng/mL of Leptomycin B (Cayman Chemical) for 16 hours.

Infrared Crosslinking and Immunoprecipitation

irCLIP was performed as in Zarnegar et al. 2016 (BJ et al., 2016). HeLa cells grown as

described above and UV crosslinked to a total of 0.35 J/cm^2. Whole-cell lysates were

generated in CLIP lysis buffer (50 mM HEPES, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol,

0.1% NP-40, 0.2% Triton X-100, 0.5% N-lauroylsarcosine) and briefly sonicated using a

probe-tip Branson sonicator to solubilize chromatin. Each experiment was normalized for

total protein amount, typically 1 mg, and partially digested with RNase A (ThermoFisher

Scientific, EN0531) for 10 minutes at 37°C and quenched on ice. UPF1 (Bethyl

laboratories, A300-38A) IP's were performed, 15 μg each antibody with 50 μL Protein G

Dynabeads (ThermoFisher Scientific), for 8 hours at 4°C on rotation. Samples were

washed sequentially in 1 mL for 1 minutes each at 25°C: 1× high stringency buffer (15 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 5 mM EDTA, 2.5 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 1% sodium

deoxycholate, 120 mM NaCl, 25 mM KCl), 1× high salt buffer (15 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5,

5 mM EDTA, 2.5 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 1% sodium deoxycholate, 1 M NaCl), 2×

NT2 buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.05% NP-40). After

the NT2 wash, RNA-protein complexes were dephosphorylated with T4 PNK (NEB) for

45 minutes in an Eppendorf Thermomixer at 37°C, 15 seconds 1400rpm, 90 seconds of

rest in a 30 μL reaction, pH 6.5, containing 10 units of T4 PNK, 0.1 μL SUPERase-IN

(ThermoFisher Scientific), and 6 μL of PEG-400 (16.7% final). Dephosphorylated RNA-

protein complexes were then rinsed once with NT2 buffer and 3'-end ligated with T4 RNA

Ligase 1 (NEB) overnight in an Eppendorf Thermomixer at 16°C, 15 seconds 1400rpm,

90 seconds of rest in a 60 μL reaction containing 10 units T4 RNA Ligase, 1.5 pmol pre-

adenylated-IR800-3'biotin DNA-adapter, 0.1 μL SUPERase-IN, and 6 μL of PEG400

(16.7% final). The following day, samples were again rinsed once with 500 μL NT2 buffer

and resuspended in 30μL of 20 mM DTT, 1x LDS (ThermoFisher Scientific) in NT2 buffer.

Samples were headed to 75°C for 10 min, and released RNA-protein complexes were

separated on 4-12% Bis-Tris SDS-PAGE (1.0mm X 12 well) at 200V for 45 min. Resolved

RNP complexes were wet-transferred to nitrocellulose at 550 mA for 45 minutes at 4°C.

Nitrocellulose membranes were imaged using an Odyssey CLx scanner (LiCor), RBP-

RNA complexes were excised using scalpels, and RNA was recovered by adding 0.1 mL

of Proteinase K reaction buffer (100 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.2%

SDS) and 5 μL of 20mg/mL Proteinase K (ThermoFisher Scientific). Proteins were

digested for 60 minutes at 50°C in an Eppendorf Thermomixer. Next, 200 µL of saturated-

phenol-chloroform, pH, 6.7 was added to each tube and incubated for 10 minutes at 37°C

in an Eppendorf Thermomixer, 1400 rpm. Tubes were briefly centrifuged and the entire

contents transferred to a 2 mL Heavy Phase Lock Gel (5Prime, 2302830). Samples were

centrifuged for 2 minutes at >13000 rpm. The aqueous layer was re-extracted with 1 mL

of chloroform (inverting 10 times to mix; no vortexing) in the same 2 mL Phase Lock Gel

tube and centrifuged for 2 minutes at >13000 rpm. The aqueous layer was then

transferred to a new 2 mL Heavy Phase Lock Gel tube and extracted again with an

additional 1 mL of chloroform. After 2 minutes centrifugation at >13000 rpm, the aqueous

layer was transferred to a siliconized 1.5 mL tube and precipitated overnight at -20°C by

addition of 10 µL 5M NaCl, 3 µL Linear Polyacrylamide (ThermoFisher Scientific) and 0.8

mL 100% ethanol. RNA fragments were pelleted at >13000 rpm for 45 minutes at 4°C,

washed once with 1 mL of ice cold 75% ethanol and air dried.

RNA pellets were resuspended in 12 µL water 1 µL of 3 µM cDNA and 1 µL of 10mM

dNTPs and heated to 70°C for 5 minutes then rapidly cooled to 4°C. cDNA Master Mix (4

µL 5x Super Script IV (SSIV) Buffer, 1 µL 100mM DTT, 1 µL SSIV, 6 µL total) was added

to the annealed RNA and incubated for 30minutes at 55°C. cDNA:RNA hybrids were

captured by addition of 5 µL of MyOne Streptavidin C1 Dynabeads (ThermoFisher

Scientific) that had been rinsed and suspended in 50 µL of Biotin-IP buffer (100mM Tris,

pH 7.5, 1M NaCl, 1mM EDTA, 0.1% Tween), and end over end rotation for 45 minutes at

room temperature. Beads were placed on a 96-well magnet and washed sequentially

twice with 100 µL of Biotin IP buffer and 100 µL ice-cold 1xPBS. Beads were resuspended

in 10 μL of cDNA elution buffer (8.25 μL water, 1 μL of 1 μM P3 short oligo, and 0.75 μl

of 50 mM MnCl$_2$) and headed to 95°C for 10 minutes, ramp 0.1 degree/second to 60°C

forever. Next 5 μL of circularization reaction buffer (3.3 μL water, 1.5 μL 10x Circligase-II

buffer, and 0.5 μL of Circligase-II (Epicentre)). cDNA was circularized for 2 hours at 60°C.

cDNA was purified with 30 μL of AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) and 75 μL of

isopropanol. Samples were incubated for 20 minutes at 25°C, washed twice with 100 μL

80% ethanol, air dried for 5 minutes, and eluted in 14 μL of water. Elution took place at

95°C for 3 minutes and immediately transferred to a 96-well magnet. Eluted cDNA was

transferred to a new PCR tube containing 15 μL of 2X Phusion HF-PCR Master Mix

(NEB), 0.5 μL of 30 μM P3/P6 PCR1 oligo mix and 0.5 μl of 15x SYBR Green I

(ThermoFisher Scientific). Real-time quantitative PCR was preformed: 98°C 2 min, 15

cycles of 98°C 15 seconds, 65°C 30 seconds, 72°C, 30 seconds, with data acquisition

set to the 72°C extension. PCR1 reactions were cleaned up by adding of 4.5 μL of

isopropanol, 54 μL of AMPure XP beads and incubation for 10 min. Beads were washed

once with 80% ethanol, dried for 5 min, and eluted in 15 μl of water. Illumina flow cell

adaptors were added by adding 15 μL 2X Phusion HF-PCR Master Mix and 0.4 μL

P3solexa/P6solexa oligo mix and amplified: 98°C 2 min, 3 cycles of 98°C 15 seconds,

65°C 30 seconds, 72°C, 30s seconds. Final libraries were purified by addition of 48 μL of

AMPure XP beads and incubation for 5 min. Beads were washed twice with 70% ethanol,

dried for 5 min, and eluted in 20 μL of water. 1-2μL of libraries were quantitated by HS-

DNA Bioanalyzer. Samples were deep sequenced on the Illumina NextSeq machine:

single-end, no index, high-output, 75-bp cycle run.

Whole transcriptome RNA sequencing was performed using the same above method for

RNA extraction, library preparation and sequencing.

Nuclear/cytoplasmic RNA fractionation and sequencing

Fractionation was performed using the Cytoplasmic and Nuclear RNA Purification Kit

(Cat. # 2100, Norgen Biotek Corp). Purified RNA was treated with DNase I followed by

library preparation using the NuGEN V2 RNA-Sequencing Library Preparation kit (Tecan

Genomics). Both RNA and library quality were analyzed via a Bioanalyzer (Agilent).

Sequencing was performed on a NextSeq 500 (Illumina): single-end, no index, high-

output, 75-bp cycle run.

IF and RNAscope protocol

For immunofluorescence and RNAscope, infected NPCs were collected at 48 hr and

plated onto 22- by 22-mm no. 1.5 coverslips. Cells were then fixed with 4% PFA in PBS

for 15 minutes. For the RNAscope protocol, we followed manufacturer's instructions for

adherent cell lines. Briefly, we first dehydrated the cells using 50%, 70% and then 100%

ethanol in PBS. This was followed by a rehydration of the cells using 70% and then 50%

of ethanol in PBS. Lastly, cells were fully rehydrated in PBS. Cells were then

permeabilized by hydrogen peroxide, followed by protease 3 treatment. Next, we

hybridized the RNAscope probes to the cells for 2 hours or O/N at 40C. Probe

amplification was then performed, followed by labelling with Opal570 (Akoya

Biosciences). Nuclei were stained using Hoechst 33258 (Thermofisher).

For immunofluorescence, cells were fixed, permeabilized by 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma

Aldrich), blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin (Sigma Aldrich) in PBS. Cells were then

immunostained with the indicated antibody, followed by the appropriate secondary.

Lastly, nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33258.

Microscopy was performed on an LSM880 with Airyscan (Zeiss) or an Olympus

FV3000RS. On the LSM880, imaging of Huh7-Lunet cells were performed with 20x

magnification objective, while NPCs were imaged with a 63x oil objective. On the

FV3000RS, the 20x objective was used for imaging NPCs. All images were taken as a Z-

stack.

Western blot analysis

Cells were lysed in RIPA lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 8], 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40,

0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, supplemented with Halt protease inhibitor cocktail

[Thermo Fisher Scientific]) to obtain whole-cell lysates or lysed using the NE-PER nuclear

and cytoplasmic extraction kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to obtain cytoplasmic and

nuclear fractions. Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to

nitrocellulose membranes (Bio-Rad). Proteins were visualized by chemiluminescent

detection with ECL and visualized on a ChemiDoc MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad).

Computational and Statistical Analyses

For western blot analysis, differences in band intensity were quantified by densitometry

using ImageJ (Schneider, Rasband, & Eliceiri, 2012). Student's t-test was used for

statistical analysis of Western Blots. Imaris (Oxford Instruments) was used for analysis of

confocal images, using the surface function for polyA mRNA analysis and dot function

identifying specific transcripts by RNA-scope. Nuclei were also bounded and identified by

the surface function of Imaris. PolyA RNA-scope experiments were statistically analyzed

using a linear mixed model to account for individual cell values across multiple biological

replicates. Data are represented as means plus standard errors of the means (SEM).

Gene set overlap statistics were performed using a hypergeometric test. Statistical

significance was defined as follows: *, $P \leq 0.05$; **, $P \leq 0.01$; ***, $P \leq 0.001$; ****, P

≤ 0.0001. Biological replicates are defined as the same experimental design but

performed sequentially, with a different cell passage number and on different days.

Analysis of RNA sequencing data

PCR duplicates were removed using unique molecular identifiers in the RT primer region.

The adaptor and barcode sequences were trimmed and reads were mapped step-wise to

viral (ZIKV), repetitive and finally non-repetitive (GRCh38) genomes. Bowtie2 indexes

were generated using the 'bowtie2-build' command in Bowtie2 for the ZIKV (KU501215.1)

RNA genome sequences. The specific parameters used for the FAST-iCLIP pipeline were

as follows: -f 18 (trims 17 nt from the 5′ end of the read), -l 16 (includes all reads longer

than 16 nt), –bm 29 (minimum MAPQ score from bowtie2 of 29 is required for mapping;

unique mapping only), –tr 2,3 (repetitive genome) and –tn 2,3 (non-repetitive genome)

RT stop intersection (n,m; where n = replicate number and m = number of unique RT

stops required per n replicates). Using the –tr/tn 2,3 parameters, a minimum of six RT

stops are required to support any single nucleotide identified as a crosslinking site.

Analysis of the sequencing data was performed using a custom analysis pipeline, with

the peak finding software uploaded to Github (https://github.com/ChangLab/FAST-

iCLIP/tree/lite). Other analyses were performed by aligning the reads to the human

genome using STAR, followed by gene counts using Bedtools (AR & IM, 2010). Only

reads in the canonical 3'UTR of the human transcripts were counted. The count

distribution across the metagene of the CDS and 3'UTRs was visualized using deeptools

(F, F, S, BA, & T, 2014). Log$_2$ fold changes were calculated by comparing RPKM values

between Mock and ZIKV infected cells. Genes with less than 10 total read counts were

excluded from analysis.

Heat maps and XY plots were produced using Prism 8 (GraphPad).

For total RNA and cytoplasmic/nuclear fractionated sequencing, reads were aligned to

the human genome using the STAR aligner (A et al., 2013) (version 2.7.5) followed by

HTSeq (S, PT, & W, 2015) (version 0.12.3) to obtain counts and then using the DeSeq2

(MI, W, & S, 2014) (version 1.28.1) pipeline to determine log$_2$ fold changes in transcripts.

Volcano plots were produced using the R-package, Enhanced Volcano

(https://github.com/kevinblighe/EnhancedVolcano).

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Author Contributions

KEL, MO contributed to experimental design, data acquisition, data analysis and

manuscript writing. RAF, CB, JEC contributed to experimental design, data acquisition

and data analysis. MK, CS contributed to data acquisition. KAF, TN, ST and GRK

contributed to experimental design and data analysis. DJ-M, PSS and NJK contributed

with computational analysis. MD, JK and SF contributed assistance with data acquisition.

Competing Interests

No competing or conflicts of interest to report.

655 **Supplemental Figures**

Supplemental Figure 1

657 Supplemental Figure 1: Electrophoresis of RNA pulled down with UPF1, visualized using

658 the IR handle ligated to the RNAs. The region bounded by the red box indicates the part

659 of the gel excised and then analyzed by irCLIP and AP-MS. AP-MS analysis is indicated

660 in Supplemental File 1.

Supplemental Figure 2

663   Supplemental Figure 2

664   A) Log$_2$ fold change from the fractionated RNA-sequencing between the nucleus and

665   cytoplasm for markers of successful fractionation in the mock infected samples:

666   GAPDH for cytoplasm and ANRIL for nucleus.

667   B) Comparison of transcripts increased in the cytoplasm and transcripts that lost

668   interaction with UPF1 as determined by CLIP. Only 6 transcripts overlapped

669   between the two groups.

670   C) Metascape Analysis of significantly upregulated transcripts found in the bulk RNA

671   sequencing of Figure 2A. The top 400 upregulated genes were used to produce

672   this GO clustering.

673   D) Metascape Analysis of significantly upregulated transcripts found in the

674   cytoplasmic and nuclear fractionated RNA sequencing of Figure 2D. The top 400

675   and 300 upregulated genes were used to produce this GO clustering.

Supplemental Figure 3

677   Supplemental Figure 3

678   Western blot for UPF1 in siNT and siUPF1 treated cells. Actin is shown as a loading

679   control.

Supplemental Figure 4

682   Supplemental Figure 4:

683   Western blot for FREM2 in siNT and siFREM2 treated NPCs after 7 days. Densitometric

684   analyses of FREM2 were performed using ImageJ to quantify relative band intensities

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