Hepatitis C virus induces HuR relocalization by coordinating PKC-δ and AMPK-α

function

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Running title: HCV-induced HuR translocation mechanism

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Abstract

Host protein HuR translocation from nucleus to cytoplasm following infection is crucial for

the life cycle of several RNA viruses including hepatitis C virus (HCV), a major causative

agent of hepatocellular carcinoma. HuR assists the assembly of replication-complex on the

viral-3′UTR, and its depletion hampers viral replication. Although cytoplasmic HuR is

crucial for HCV life cycle, little is known about the mechanism of its translocation. We show

that the viral protein NS3 activates protein kinase C (PKC)-δ, which in-turn phosphorylates

HuR on S318 residue, triggering its export to the cytoplasm. The mechanism of retention of

translocated HuR in cytoplasm was further studied. HCV protein NS5A reduces AMP-

activated kinase (AMPK) activity in the cytoplasm, thereby preventing AMPK-mediated

phosphorylation and acetylation of importin-α1, the nuclear carrier of HuR. The resulting

increased retention of HuR in cytoplasm was reversed by treatment of cells with an AMPK

activator. Our results show that viral NS3 and NS5A proteins orchestrate two different

cellular kinases, PKC-δ and AMPK, to determine the cytoplasmic availability of HuR, to

regulate HCV life cycle and pathogenesis.

Keywords: Hepatitis C virus/ HuR translocation/ HuR phosphorylation/ PKC-δ in virus

infection/ AMPK in virus infection

Introduction

Hepatitis C virus (HCV) is an RNA virus, whose 9.6-kb genome codes for three structural

and seven non-structural proteins (Lindenbach & Rice, 2005). Structural proteins form the

viral capsid and envelope, whereas non-structural proteins are involved in the regulation of

various viral life processes, including double-membrane vesicle formation, replication,

translation, packaging, and release (Dentzer, Lorenz et al., 2009, Gu & Rice, 2013, Jirasko,

Montserret et al., 2010, Ray & Das, 2011). The viral open reading frame is flanked by two

regulatory elements, the 5'-untranslated region (UTR) and 3'-UTR, which are involved in

initiating viral translation and replication, respectively (Gu & Rice, 2013).

Multiple host factors are required at various stages of the viral life cycle. Upon viral

infection, proteins, such as some IRES trans-acting factors and Nups relocate from the

nucleus to the cytoplasm to regulate the viral life cycle (Bonamassa, Ciccarese et al., 2015,

Niepmann & Gerresheim, 2020, Sharma, Raheja et al., 2018). Our laboratory has previously

shown that human antigen R (HuR), also known as ELAVL1, relocates from nucleus to the

cytoplasm upon HCV infection. HuR binds to the viral 3'-UTR, where it displaces the

replication inhibitor protein PTB and assists in the binding of the La protein. La further

recruits the entire replication complex to initiate viral replication (Shwetha, Kumar et al.,

2015). HuR is an RNA-binding protein (RBP), that shuttles between nucleus and cytoplasm.

Its endogenous function is to regulate the transport, stability, and translation of cellular RNAs

(Ma, Cheng et al., 1996, Schultz, Preet et al., 2020, Srikantan & Gorospe, 2012). Infection-

induced relocalization of HuR to the cytoplasm is required for interaction with viral RNA,

which guides viral replication. In a genome wide CRISPR screen, HuR was identified as a

major host factor required for HCV replication and the specific knockout was found to

abolish the HCV RNA replication in cells (Marceau, Puschnik et al., 2016).

HuR contains three RNA recognition motifs (RRMs) and a hinge region, also known as the

HuR nuclear shuttling domain (HNS domain) (Fan & Steitz, 1998, Fialcowitz-White, Brewer

et al., 2007, Ripin, Boudet et al., 2019). Phosphorylation of HuR residues regulates its

structure, RNA-binding affinity, and subcellular localization (Grammatikakis, Abdelmohsen

et al., 2017). HuR is phosphorylated in a cell-cycle dependent manner by CDKs. CDK1

phosphorylates HuR on S202, which is required for its nuclear retention during the S and G2

phases of the cell cycle (Kim, Abdelmohsen et al., 2008). Phosphorylation on the same site

by CDK5 has been shown to reduce its binding to cyclin A mRNA, leading to cell cycle

arrest in glioma cells (Filippova, Yang et al., 2012). Checkpoint kinase 2 (CHK2)

phosphorylates HuR on S88, S100, and T118, which modulates HuR binding to RNA by

decreasing its affinity for certain mRNAs (e.g., SIRT1) and increasing it for others (e.g., Myc

and occludin) (Abdelmohsen, Pullmann et al., 2007). Phosphorylation on S242 augments the

amount of HuR in the cytoplasm, regardless of stress conditions such as exposure to short-

wavelength ultraviolet light (Kim, Yang et al., 2008). The MAP kinase p38, which is

activated during inflammatory response, phosphorylates HuR on T118, increasing its binding

to and the stabilization of inflammatory mRNAs, such as p21, COX2, and $cPLA_2\alpha$, in

addition to promoting HuR accumulation in the cytoplasm (Lafarga, Cuadrado et al., 2009,

Liao, Wang et al., 2011). Several members of the protein kinase C (PKC) family are also

involved in HuR phosphorylation. PKC-α phosphorylates HuR on S158 and S221, which

leads to its cytoplasmic relocalization and enhanced binding to targets, such as COX2 and

PTGS2 (Doller, Huwiler et al., 2007). PKC-δ-mediated phosphorylation on S318 and S221

has been shown to induce cytoplasmic translocation and increased binding to COX2,

CCNDA2, and CCND1 mRNAs (Doller, Akool el et al., 2008, Doller, Schlepckow et al.,

2010). Abrogation of phosphorylation on S318 hinders the migration and invasion of colon

cancer cells (Doller, Winkler et al., 2011). Other kinases, such as IKKα, ERK8, and JAK3,

also phosphorylate HuR to regulate its localization and function (Chu, Chuang et al., 2012,

Liwak-Muir, Dobson et al., 2016, Yoon, Abdelmohsen et al., 2014). Activated JAK3

phosphorylates HuR on Y200, which prevents its inclusion in stress granules formed upon

arsenic treatment (Yoon et al., 2014). Phosphorylation of Y5, Y95, Y105, and Y200 residues

by SRC and ABL1 kinases is important for centrosomal accumulation of HuR and, therefore,

genomic stability (Filippova, Yang et al., 2015). In addition to phosphorylation, HuR is

methylated on R217 by CARM1, which correlates with its cytoplasmic localization in non-

small cell lung carcinoma (Vigouroux, Casse et al., 2015). Ubiquitination on K313 and K326

leads to the dissociation of HuR from p21, MKP1, and SIRT1 mRNA (Zhou, Geng et al.,

2013); whereas neddylation on K283, K313, and K326 promotes nuclear localization and

protein stability (de Sousa, Lima Mde et al., 2015).

Subcellular localization of HuR is also regulated by AMP-activated kinase (AMPK) (Wang,

Fan et al., 2002). Inhibition of AMPK has been associated with cytoplasmic localization of

HuR, leading to increased stability of the HuR-bound transcripts p21, cyclin B1, cyclin A,

and IL-20. AMPK phosphorylates importin-α1 on S105 and acetylates it on K22, thereby

preventing its interaction with HuR and import to the nucleus (Wang, Yang et al., 2004).

Cells adopt multiple strategies to regulate the subcellular localization of HuR and,

consequently, the stability of its cognate transcripts under different conditions. Here, we

investigated the viral mechanism driving the nuclear export of HuR, the cytoplasmic

partitioning of HuR, and the effect of its altered localization. We report that PKC-δ and

AMPK work in a coordinated manner to achieve cytoplasmic localization of HuR via direct

modification and indirect regulation of its nuclear carrier. Thus, HCV modulates two separate

kinases to promote replication and pathogenesis. Relocalization of HuR and its interaction

with cytoplasmic RNAs could reveal the molecular basis of HCV-induced hepatocellular

carcinoma and provide an attractive target for preventing its progression.

Results

Phosphorylation of HuR regulates its cellular localization upon HCV infection

Viruses are known to modify host proteins (Kumar, Mehta et al., 2020). To study the post-

translational modifications of host proteins after HCV infection, total protein extracts

prepared from mock (control) and HCV-RNA transfected Huh7.5 cells were analyzed by

two-dimensional gel electrophoresis and HuR-specific spots were detected using anti-HuR

antibody. In control cells, two spots were observed for HuR, one at the acidic end towards pH

3 and the other at the basic end towards pH 10. The spots had the same molecular weight,

suggesting the presence of two sub-populations of HuR with separate charged modifications

that did not alter overall protein weight. An additional spot, slightly more acidic than the one

at pH 10 (marked with an asterisk in Fig 1A), was observed upon HCV infection (Fig 1A, B),

indicating a negatively charged modification on HuR.

Phosphorylation is a post-translational modification that imparts a negative charge on

proteins. Therefore, we examined the involvement of phosphorylation on HuR following

HCV infection. Some phosphorylation sites known to impact HuR subcellular localization

include T118, Y200, S221, S242, and S318. The phospho-dead mutants of these sites were

generated using site-directed mutagenesis, wherein the serine or threonine residues were

replaced by alanine (T118A, S221A, S242A, S318A), and tyrosine was replaced by

phenylalanine (Y200F). The mutants were verified by sequencing and employed in the

relocalization assay. Endogenous HuR translocates from the nucleus to the cytoplasm 48h

after HCV-RNA transfection (Shwetha et al., 2015). If phosphorylation of a particular residue

is crucial for guiding this translocation, the corresponding phospho-dead mutant would

prevent the cytoplasmic relocalization of the mutant protein upon viral infection. Wild-type

(WT) HuR overexpression was used as a positive control for HuR localization. Using

immunostaining, the subcellular localization of WT and mutant HuR proteins was detected in

uninfected control and HCV-infected cells. Myc-tagged WT and mutant HuR was

overexpressed in Huh7.5 cells, followed by HCV-RNA transfection (Fig 1C). An anti-Myc-

tag antibody was used to visualize the overexpressed protein, the HCV Core protein was used

to identify HCV-infected cells, and DAPI was used to mark the nuclei. In untransfected

control cells, WT and all mutant HuR proteins localized to the nucleus (Fig 1D, E). HCV-

RNA transfection led to the relocalization of WT HuR to the cytoplasm. The same was

observed for HuR mutants S221A and S242A. Instead, mutants S318A, Y200F, and T118A

localized to the nucleus even after 48h of HCV-RNA transfection (Fig 1F, G). This finding

suggests that phosphorylation of S318, Y200, and T118 might be involved in relocalization

of HuR to the cytoplasm upon HCV infection.

145   HuR is differentially phosphorylated upon HCV infection

To validate HCV induced HuR phosphorylation, total phosphorylated proteins were

immunoprecipitated using pan-anti-phospho-Ser/Thr and pan-anti-phospho-Tyr antibodies.

The presence of HuR in the pull-down fraction of both antibodies confirmed HuR

phosphorylation in cells (Fig 2A, B). To identify the phosphorylation sites on HuR, the latter

was immunoprecipitated from control or HCV-RNA-transfected cells, and the pull-down

fraction was subjected to mass-spectrometric analysis (Fig 2C, D). The results revealed six

previously characterized sites, including T80, S88, T143, S146, S202, and S318, as well as

two new sites, S135 and T293 (Fig 2E). The abundance of phosphorylated peptides at a

particular site was calculated as the fraction of phosphorylated peptides to total peptides

observed for that site. Quantification was performed for S318, which was previously found to

be regulated by HCV infection, as well as for S202, which is known to regulate HuR

localization, and S135, which has not yet been characterized. The percentage of

phosphorylated S318 increased in all three sets of HCV-RNA transfected cells compared to

control cells (Fig 2F). S202 phosphorylation varied among separate sets of experiments (Fig

2G); whereas S135 phosphorylation was reduced upon HCV-RNA transfection in all three

sets (Fig 2H). Differential phosphorylation at distinct HuR sites might explain the absence of

an overall variation (Fig 2A, B). Because S318 phosphorylation was higher following HCV

infection and was found to be important for HuR relocalization (Fig 1F,G), this site was

selected for further studies.

165   Phosphorylation of S318 influences HCV replication

The location of the S318 site on HuR was visualized using Pymol software. The X-ray

structure of HuR RRM3 (PDB ID: 6GD2) complexed with RNA indicated that the S318 site

was on the surface of the protein and interacted directly with the bound RNA (Fig 3A).

Accordingly, phosphorylation of S318 might affect the RNA binding of HuR. To study the

impact of phosphorylation on the affinity for HCV-RNA, we used surface plasmon

resonance. Biotinylated HCV 3'-UTR RNA was immobilized on a streptavidin-coated SPR

chip (SA Chip) and recombinant purified WT, S318A, and S318D HuR proteins were passed

over as analytes to calculate the binding affinity (Fig 3B–D). The Kd values for WT and

S318A HuR were 25.7 nM and 46.2 nM, respectively; whereas the phospho-mimic mutant

S318D showed approximately five-fold better affinity (Kd 6.36 nM) (Fig 3E). This result

indicates that, along with relocalization to the cytoplasm, S318 phosphorylation of HuR also

augments the binding affinity for HCV 3'-UTR. To assess the impact of S318

phosphorylation on HCV replication, WT, S318A, and S318D constructs were overexpressed

in Huh7.5 cells, followed by HCV-RNA transfection (Fig 3F). The effect on replication was

checked by analyzing the levels of HCV negative-strand RNA compared to the vector-

overexpression control. Viral replication was increased upon overexpression of WT HuR but

not S318A HuR, which did not relocalize to the cytoplasm and was rescued by

overexpression of S318D HuR (Fig 3G, H). This finding confirmed the importance of S318

phosphorylation in HuR localization and hence, HCV replication.

PKC-δ activity is required for HCV-mediated cytoplasmic export of HuR

Once the involvement of S318 phosphorylation in guiding HuR localization was ascertained,

we determined the role of the kinase responsible for this modification. An earlier study

suggested that PKC-δ participated in the phosphorylation of S318 on HuR and its

nucleocytoplasmic shuttling (Grammatikakis et al., 2017). Therefore, the involvement of

PKC-δ in regulating HuR localization upon HCV infection was investigated (Fig 4A). The

levels of total and phosphorylated PKC-δ at different time points after HCV infection were

analyzed. An increase in p-PKC-δ/total PKC-δ after 48h of HCV-RNA transfection was

observed, suggesting the activation of PKC-δ upon HCV infection (Fig 4B). To visualize the

interaction between HuR and PKC-δ in cells, immunoprecipitation of HuR was performed in

mock (control) and HCV-infected cells, and the presence of PKC-δ in the pull-down fraction

confirmed their physical interaction (Fig 4C). The increase in HuR associated with PKC-δ

indicated a stronger interaction in cells upon HCV infection. The association was further

strengthened by reverse pull-down, wherein immunoprecipitation of PKC-δ was performed

and increased HuR association was observed upon HCV infection (Fig 4D). To correlate this

finding with HuR localization, an inhibitor of PKC-δ (rottlerin) was used. The effect of PKC-

δ inhibition on HCV-induced HuR relocalization was assessed. Huh7.5 cells were transfected

with HCV-JFH1 RNA and 3 μM rottlerin was added to the medium after 6 h of transfection

(Fig 4E). The cells were incubated with the inhibitor for 48h, after which HuR localization

was visualized by confocal microscopy.

In the absence of the inhibitor, HuR relocated from the nucleus to the cytoplasm upon HCV

infection (Fig 4F, G). The presence of the inhibitor did not alter the localization of HuR in

control cells, but it prevented its relocalization to the cytoplasm upon HCV infection. These

results confirmed the involvement of PKC-δ in altering the localization of HuR upon HCV

infection.

PKC-δ regulates the HCV life cycle through HuR

Given that HuR is involved in viral RNA replication, we investigated the effect of rottlerin on

HCV-RNA levels. Huh7.5 cells were transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA and 3 μM rottlerin

was added to the medium for 24h (Fig 5A). After 24h, the abundance of viral RNA in the

cells was quantified by real-time PCR, which showed that addition of rottlerin decreased

HCV-RNA levels by > 90% (Fig 5B). Similarly, confocal microscopy indicated that the

percentage of infected cells dropped from ~20% in untreated cells to <2% in rottlerin-treated

cells (Fig 5C, D). In all assays, the PKA inhibitor KT5720 was used as a negative control,

which did not show any effect on HuR localization upon HCV infection.

The expression of PKC-δ in healthy and hepatocellular carcinoma patients in The Cancer

Genome Atlas (TCGA) database was analyzed. Increased PKC-δ expression in virus-induced

hepatocellular carcinoma patients suggested its involvement in disease progression (Fig 5E),

and survival probability was inversely proportional to PKC-δ expression levels (Fig 5F). This

result suggested that patients with elevated PKC-δ would have more and early relocalisation

of HuR upon HCV infection, which would lead to enhanced viral replication and, hence,

increased likelihood of severe disease progression.

HCV non-structural proteins are involved in HuR relocalization

Activation of PKC-δ and relocalization of HuR seemed to be a viral strategy for its efficient

replication. Therefore, candidate viral protein(s) involved in PKC-δ activation were

investigated. Over-expression of either the structural protein, Core or all the non-structural

proteins together through pSGR-Luc construct was performed in Huh7.5 cells and

localization of HuR was assessed after 48h of overexpression. Viral non-structural proteins

were found to be sufficient to cause the relocalization of HuR (Fig 6A, B). Among non-

structural proteins, NS3 is a major pathogenic protein that interacts with multiple host

proteins and kinases (Borowski, Oehlmann et al., 1997, Borowski, zur Wiesch et al., 1999,

Lu, Zhang et al., 2015, Otsuka, Kato et al., 2005). To assess the physical interaction between

NS3 and PKC-δ, PKC-δ was modeled with the I-TASSER tool and docked with the available

NS3 structure using Pydockweb. Based on the docked structure with the lowest energy (Fig

6C), NS3 was found to interact with PKC-δ near its activation loop (highlighted in magenta).

The distance between NS3 and the T505 activation phosphorylation site of PKC-δ was ~11

Å, indicating possible regulation of phosphorylation and thereby PKC-δ activation. Similar

docking with other non-structural proteins NS5A and NS5B did not show close association

around T505 of PKC-δ (Fig 6D,E).

AMPK is involved in cytoplasmic retention of HuR upon HCV infection

Viral infection leads to HuR relocalization to the cytoplasm; however, at the same time, it is

essential for the virus that HuR is prevented from reentry in the nucleus. The nuclear

localization signal for HuR is not very well characterized. AMPK has been shown to

phosphorylate and acetylate importin-α1, which carries newly synthesized HuR to the

nucleus. Here, we assessed whether this mechanism was disrupted during HCV infection,

thus allowing HuR to be retained in the cytoplasm. Huh7.5 cells were treated with an AMPK

inhibitor (Compound C) or an AMPK activator (A769662) following HCV-RNA

transfection. HuR localization was assessed by confocal microscopy 48h after drug treatment.

Inhibition of AMPK activity did not alter HuR localization, whereas activation of AMPK led

to HuR transport back to the nucleus, even upon HCV infection (Fig 7A, B). To correlate

AMPK activity with hepatocellular carcinoma progression, TCGA database AMPK levels

were analyzed. A decrease in total AMPKα1 levels was observed upon virus-induced tumor

progression (Fig 7C). No significant correlation was observed between survival probability

and AMPK-α1 levels (Fig 7D). The viral non-structural protein NS5A inhibits AMPK

activity (Mankouri, Tedbury et al., 2010, Meng, Liu et al., 2019), and we showed here that

this inhibition was responsible for the cytoplasmic retention of HuR.

Our results uncovered the participation of multiple viral proteins in achieving increased

cytoplasmic abundance of HuR. We describe the underlying mechanism wherein viral RNA

translates upon entry into the cell, producing viral proteins. Viral NS3 protein activates PKC-

δ, which phosphorylates HuR on S318, leading to its relocalization to the cytoplasm, where it

is available for the replication of cytoplasmic viral RNA. At the same time, viral NS5A

protein inhibits AMPK, which retains relocalized and newly synthesized HuR in the

cytoplasm (Fig 8). The proposed mechanism depicts a coordinated effort to regulate a host

RNA binding protein, so it can be exploited to guide the viral life cycle.

Discussion

HCV is a hepatotropic virus that can cause chronic infection, leading to hepatocellular

carcinoma. Host factors play an essential role in regulating the virus life cycle and cellular

pathogenesis. HCV is a positive-strand RNA virus, whose RNA is replicated and translated in

the cytoplasm. RNA binding proteins (RBPs) such as HuR bind to viral RNA and regulate

these processes.

HCV is a completely cytoplasmic virus with no nuclear history of viral RNA. Therefore, it

mediates the relocalization of RBPs to the cytoplasm to enable RNA binding. We show that

phosphorylation of the S318 residue on HuR is essential for this relocalization. This site lies

in RRM3 of HuR, which is critical for its binding to HCV-RNA. Indeed, we demonstrate that

phosphorylation of S318 promotes the binding of HuR to HCV-RNA. Altered S318

phosphorylation levels have been detected in various pathologies such as colon cancer

(Doller et al., 2011), suggesting that the same could happen in hepatocellular carcinoma. We

report that S318 phosphorylation is mediated by PKC-δ. Inhibition of PKC-δ by lenvatinib

has recently been associated with decreased tumorigenicity in Huh7 and Hep3B

hepatocellular carcinoma cells (Wu, Hsu et al., 2022). One of the underlying mechanisms

behind the pro-proliferative effect of PKC-δ could be its regulation of HuR localization in

cells, which directly influences the cellular transcripts involved in tumorigenicity. These

reports and the evidence presented herein point to the key role of S318 phosphorylation in the

transport of HuR to the cytoplasm and in HCV infection.

HuR is not known to be mutated in many cancers. However, its localization and binding to

different RNA transcripts affect cancer progression (Wang, Guo et al., 2013). Reduced

AMPK activity, which leads to cytoplasmic localization of HuR, is known to stabilize

oncogenic molecules that promote progression of the proliferative phenotype. Here, we show

that this mechanism is activated also by HCV, pointing to the significant role of HuR

cytoplasmic localization in the progression of HCV-mediated hepatocellular carcinoma. HuR

targets include invasive and metastatic RNAs (e.g., MMP-9, MTA1, and uPA), angiogenic

RNAs (e.g., VEGF-1 and HIF-1), and cell proliferative RNAs (e.g., EGF, cyclin A, cyclin

B1, cyclin E, and cyclin D1), through which it can influence hepatocellular carcinoma

progression (Chen, Dai et al., 2020, Papatheofani, Levidou et al., 2021). By stabilizing these

target RNAs and increasing their protein products, HuR promotes the transformation from

non-cancerous to cancerous cells. Hence, HuR has been proposed as a potential target for

cancer treatment (Wu, Tong et al., 2019).

AMPK regulates the availability of HuR to the above RNAs in the cytoplasm. AMPK levels

and activity are reduced in patients with hepatocellular carcinoma, and low p-AMPK levels

correlate with higher tumor occurrence (Jiang, Tan et al., 2019, Yang, Liu et al., 2018).

Regulation of pathogenic RNAs by cytoplasmic HuR may be one of the mechanisms

underlying this correlation. AMPK is a double-edged sword, which influences cell

proliferation in either way. A recent report has shown that the effect of AMPK on cell

proliferation is a function of nutrient abundance. In cancer cells subjected to chronic nutrient

deprivation, AMPK inactivation limits cell proliferation (Sadria, Seo et al., 2022). This

limitation could be explained by direct activation of mTORC1 and mTORC2. Another

possibility is the cytoplasmic retention of HuR, which is known to stabilize and enhance the

translation of rictor, thereby activating mTORC2 (Holmes, Benavides-Serrato et al., 2018).

This could be one of the mechanisms of regulation of viral replication in cells and

hepatocellular carcinoma progression.

PKC-δ and AMPK are important cellular kinases that direct cell fate under various

conditions. HCV exploits these kinases to regulate replication and pathogenesis through HuR.

Preventing the cytoplasmic relocalization of HuR by either PKC-δ inhibition or AMPK

activation could offer a novel therapeutic intervention against hepatocellular carcinoma

progression.

Materials and methods

Plasmids and constructs:

pJFH1: Plasmid encoding all HCV proteins. The plasmid was linearized using XbaI to

synthesise JFH1 RNA (Obtained from Apath,LLC).

pSGR-JFH1/Luc: Bicistronic plasmid where the luciferase expression is driven by HCV-

IRES while HCV non-structural proteins are expressed by EMCV IRES. The plasmid was

linearised by XbaI to synthesise SGR-JFH1/Luc RNA (A kind gift from Dr. Ralf

Bartenschlager, Heidelberg University).

pcDNA3.1-myc-HuR: The sequence coding for HuR cloned between EcoRI and XhoI sites of

pcDNA3.1-myc vector.

HuR mutants: HuR mutants were generated in the pcDNA3.1-myc-HuR background by site

directed mutagenesis and the mutations were confirmed by sequencing

Cell Lines and Transfections

Huh7.5 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium DMEM (Sigma) with

10 % Fetal Bovine Serum. Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) was used for JFH1 RNA

transfections and TurboFect (Thermo Scientific) was used for DNA transfections according

to manufacturer's protocol. For generation of the infectious virus, HCV-JFH1 RNA was *in*

vitro transcribed and transfected into Huh7.5 cells. Supernatant from the transfected cells was

concentrated and used for viral infection. Uninfected Huh7.5 cells were used as a mock

control.

2D-gel electrophoresis:

The protein lysates for Mock and HCV transfected samples were precipitated using 10 %

TCA and pellets washed with acetone. The protein pellets were resuspended in sample

rehydration buffer (8 M urea, 2 % [wt/vol] 3-[(3-cholamidopropyl)-dimethylammonio]-1-

propanesulfonate [CHAPS], 15 mM dithiothreitol [DTT], and 0.5 % [vol/vol] IPG buffer [pH

3 to 10]). Isoelectric focusing was performed using immobilized pH gradient (IPG) strips

(Bio-Rad). IPG strips with a pH range from 3 to 10 were used. For the first dimension, 500

µg of protein samples in 150 µl of rehydration solution was used to rehydrate the IPG strip (7

cm [length]; pH 3 to 10). The IPG strips were passively rehydrated overnight, and then the

proteins were focused for 10,000V. h at 20 °C under mineral oil. After focusing, the strips

were incubated for 10 min in 2 ml of equilibrium buffer I (6 M urea, 30 % [wt/vol] glycerol,

2 % [wt/vol] sodium dodecyl sulfate [SDS], and 1 % [wt/vol] DTT in 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer

[pH 8.8]), followed by equilibrium buffer II (6 M urea, 30 % [wt/vol] glycerol, 2 % [wt/vol]

SDS, and 4 % [wt/vol] iodoacetamide in 375 mM Tris-HCl buffer [pH8.8]). After the

equilibration steps, the strips were transferred to a 12 % SDS-polyacrylamide gel

electrophoresis (PAGE) gel for the second dimension. Protein spots were visualized by silver

staining.

Immunofluorescence staining

For immunofluorescence staining, ~$0.2*10^6$ Huh7.5 cells were seeded on coverslips in a 12-

well plate for 14 h followed by transfection of HCV-JFH1 RNA (1µg). After desired time of

infection/ RNA transfection, cells were washed twice with 1X PBS and fixed using 4 %

formaldehyde at room temperature for 20 min. After permeabilization by 0.1 % Triton X-100

for 2 min at room temperature, cells were incubated with 3 % BSA at 37 °C for 1 h followed

by incubation with the indicated antibody for 2 h at 4 °C and then detected by Alexa-633-

conjugated anti-mouse or Alexa-488 conjugated anti-rabbit secondary antibody for 30 min

(Invitrogen). Images were taken using Zeiss microscope and image analysis was done using

the Zeiss LSM or ZEN software tools.

Western-blot analysis:

Protein concentrations of the extracts were assayed by Bradford reagent (Bio-Rad) and equal

amounts of cell extracts were separated by SDS-12 % PAGE and transferred onto a

nitrocellulose membrane (Sigma). Samples were then analyzed by western blot using the

desired antibodies, anti-HCV core antibody (ab2740, Abcam), anti-HuR antibody (3A2,

Santa Cruz and 07-1735, Merck Millipore), anti-pan-p-Ser/Thr antibody (AP0893, Abclonal),

anti-pan-p-Tyr antibody (AP0905, Abclonal), anti-PKC-δ antibody (A7778, Abclonal), anti-

p-PKC-δ-T505 (AP0776) followed by the respective secondary antibodies (horseradish

peroxidase-conjugated anti-mouse or anti-rabbit IgG; Sigma). Mouse-monoclonal anti-β-

actin- peroxidase antibody (A3854, Sigma) was used as a control for equal loading of total

cell extracts. Antibody complexes were detected using the ImmobilonTM Western systems

(Millipore).

Immunoprecipitation:

Huh7.5 cells were scraped in polysome lysis buffer (100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 10 mM

HEPES pH 7.0, 0.5 % NP-40, 1 mM DTT, 100 U/ml RNasin) and kept on cyclomixer for 1 h,

followed by spinning at 16000×g for 15 min at 4 °C. The supernatant obtained was

precleared with Protein G Sepharose beads for 1 h at 4 °C. The samples were spun at 1000×g

for 2 min to pellet the beads, and the supernatant was removed. Protein G Sepharose beads

were incubated with 1 ug of respective antibody overnight at 4 °C in a total volume of 200 μl

of polysome lysis buffer and added to the precleared lysates followed by incubation for 3 h

with continuous mixing on a rotator device at 4°C. The beads were washed three times with

polysome lysis buffer. SDS sample buffer was then added to the beads and boiled to release

the immunoprecipitated protein, and the supernatant was electrophoresed on a SDS-12 %

PAGE.

Surface Plasmon Resonance:

Surface plasmon resonance spectroscopy was performed using a BIAcore3000 optical

biosensor (GE Healthcare Lifescience) to study the binding kinetics of HuR with SARS

CoV2 5'UTR RNA. Biotin-labelled HCV 3'UTR RNA was immobilized on streptavidin-

coated sensor chips (GE Healthcare Lifescience) to a final concentration of 300 Resonance

Units (RU)/flow cell. RNA–protein interactions were carried out in a continuous flow of Tris

buffer (25 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 100 mM KCl, 7 mM β-mercaptoethanol, and 10% glycerol) at

25 °C at a flow rate of 10 μl/min. Increasing concentrations of HuR protein loaded on the

biosensor chip for 100 s (characterized as the association phase), followed by a dissociation

phase of 300 s with buffer alone. For normalising background non-specific interaction, a

blank surface without any RNA was used for simultaneous injections of the sample during

the experiment. BIAevaluation software (version 3.0) was used to determine the on rate, $k$on

($M^{-1} s^{-1}$), and off rate, $k$off (s^{-1}), using a 1:1 Langmuir binding model. The binding affinity,

Kd was determined using the following equation: *Kd =koff/kon.*

Molecular docking of HCV-NS3 and PKC-δ:

For molecular docking of PKC-δ with HCV-NS3, PKC-δ sequence was taken from NCBI and

structure was predicted using I-TASSER server. For HCV-NS3, structure with PDB ID:

5WDX was used. pyDOCK webtool was used for blind docking of the two molecules. The

result file with lowest energy has been demonstrated.

Immunoprecipitation of HuR followed by Mass spectrometry:

Huh7.5 cells were transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA and harvested after 48h of transfection.

Total proteins were extracted in IP lysis buffer (Pierce, Thermo Scientific) containing 1×

halt-protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) with

intermediate vortexing followed by mild sonication. The lysate was centrifuged at 14,000 × g

for 30 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was quantified by the BCA method (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, USA). An equivalent amount (4 mg) of proteins from each condition was

incubated with 3μg of anti-HuR antibody for overnight at 4 °C. The immunocomplex was

captured by using protein G Sepharose 4 fast flow beads (17-0618-01/ GE Healthcare). The

immunoprecipitated complex was washed two times with IP lysis buffer and one time with

mili-Q. Bound protein complexes were eluted in 50 μl SDS-PAGE 2X Laemmli sample

buffer. The samples were resolved on 12% SDS–PAGE and stained with Coomassie stain

(0.1% w/v). The gel was subjected to further in-gel mass spectrometry analysis.

Gel slices corresponding to each lane were excised in individual eppendorf and destained

using wash buffer (50 mM ammonium bicarbonate (ABC) and 50% ACN). Slices were

hydrated with 10 mM DTT (56°C, 30 min), alkylated using 50 mM IAA (30 min, RT, dark),

and further dehydrated using 100% ACN before digestion. The available proteins in-gel

pieces were digested with MS grade trypsin (Pierce™ Trypsin Protease MS grade, cat no.

1862743, USA) and incubated at 37 °C for 18 h. Digested peptides were extracted by adding

60% ACN with 0.1% FA and 100% ACN with 0.1% FA, followed by ultra-sonication. The

digested peptides were collected, vacuum dried, and reconstituted in 40 μl of solvent A (2%

(v/v) ACN, 0.1% (v/v) FA in water) and subjected to LC−MS/MS experiments using Sciex

5600$^+$ Triple-TOF mass spectrometer coupled with ChromXP reversed-phase 3 μm C18-CL

trap column (350 μm × 0.5 mm, 120 Å, Eksigent, AB Sciex) and nanoViper C18 separation

column (75 μm × 250 mm, 3 μm, 100 Å; Acclaim Pep Map, Thermo Scientific, USA) in

Eksigent nanoLC (Ultra 2D plus) system. The binary mobile solvent system was consisted

with solvent A (2% (v/v) ACN, 0.1% (v/v) FA in water) and solvent B (98% (v/v) ACN,

0.1% (v/v) FA). The peptides were analysed with 300 nl/min flow rate in a 60 min gradient

with a total run time of 75 minutes. The acquisition was executed with conventional data-

dependent IDA mode. Each cycle consisted of 250 and 100 ms acquisition time for MS1 (m/z

350−1250 Da) and MS/MS (100–1500 m/z) scans respectively with a total cycle time of 2.8

s. Each fraction was run in duplicate.

Phospho-peptide and phospho-site identification

All raw files (.wiff) were processed to ProteinPilot software (version 4.5, SCIEX) using the

Paragon algorithm (version 4. 5. 0. 0,1654). The phospho-peptides along with phospho-sites

were identified against the complete sequence of Hepatitis C virus JFH-1 polyprotein. The

identification settings were used as follows: (a) trypsin for proteolytic cleavage (b) Iodoacetic

acid used for Cys alkylation and (c) phosphorylation emphasis used as a special factor.

Peptides and proteins were validated at <1% false discovery rate (FDR) and with unused

ProtScore > 0.05.

Acknowledgments

SD acknowledges the J.C. Bose Fellowship from the Department of Science and Technology

(DST), Govt. of India, for research support. This study was also supported by the DBT-IISc

partnership program, DST Fund for Improvement of Science and Technology Infrastructure

(DST- FIST) level II infrastructure, and the University Grants Commission Centre of

Advanced Studies. We also acknowledge the funding through Indo-Swiss Joint Research

Program (ISJRP) from Department of Biotechnology. HR is supported by the research

fellowship from the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR-SPM). We

recognize the divisional SPR facility at the Biological Science division at IISc.

Author contributions

HR and SD: Conceptualisation, design, analysis and interpretation of experiments, and

manuscript writing. HR, BG, SS, SM and TKM: Performing the experiments.

Disclosure statement

The authors state they have no competing interests or disclosures.

Figure legends

Figure 1. HuR gets phosphorylated upon HCV infection.

(A) Huh7.5 cells were transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA. Mock and transfected cells were

harvested after 48h and cell lysates were precipitated using TCA precipitation. The

precipitated proteins were run in 2 dimensions as described in the methods, followed by

Western blotting of the gel. Western blotting was done with anti-HuR and anti-Actin

antibodies. Appropriate HRP-conjugate secondary antibodies were used.

(B) HCV infection was detected by western blotting using Anti-HCV core antibody for same

lysates run on 12% SDS-PAGE.

(C) Schematic for experimental protocol followed.

(D) Huh 7.5 cells were transfected with Myc-tagged overexpression construct of WT HuR,

S318A HuR mutant, S242A HuR mutant, Y200F HuR mutant, T118A HuR mutant and

S221A HuR mutant and mock transfected. Cells were processed for immunofluorescence

staining using Alexa Fluor conjugated secondary antibody against Myc (Green) and viral

protein Core (Red). The nucleus was stained with DAPI (Blue). Scale bar represents 10 µm.

(E) Nuclear and cytoplasmic ratio was quantified for images in (D) using Zen 2.3 lite

software.

(F) Images of HCV transfected cells following the schematic in (C).

(G) Nuclear and cytoplasmic ratio was quantified for images in (F) using Zen 2.3 lite

software. n=10.

Student t-test was performed for statistical analysis. *= p<0.05, **= p<0.01, ***=p<0.001.

Figure 2. Differential phosphorylation on HuR upon HCV infection.

(A, B) Huh7.5 cells were mock transfected or transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA and after

48h, immunoprecipitation was performed using either anti-p-Ser/Thr antibody (A) or anti-p-

Tyr antibody (B). Associated HuR was detected by western blot. Western blot for Core was

done for confirmation of HCV infection and β-actin was used as loading control.

(C) Identification of phosphorylation sites on HuR. Immunoprecipitation of HuR was

performed from mock or HCV-JFH1 RNA transfected cells and the phosphorylation sites

detected using mass-spectrometry.

(D) HCV infection was confirmed by western blotting for Core using anti-core antibody.

(E) The phosphorylation sites obtained in mass-spectrometry data were mapped on HuR

schematic diagram.

(F-H) Percentage of phosphorylated S318 (F), S202 (G), S135 (H) sites were calculated as

the ratio of peptides containing phosphorylation to the total number of peptides containing

respective site. Each dot pair represents a separate set of experiment.

Figure 3. S318 site phosphorylation influences HCV-RNA replication.

(A) S318 site in HuR RRM3 in association with AU-rich RNA. The red balls indicate S318

site, directly involved in interaction with associated RNA.

(B-D) Sensorgrams for interaction of (B) WT, (C) S318D HuR and (D) S318A HuR with HCV 3'UTR at indicated concentrations. The y-axis represents the change in Response Units in Association and dissociation phases and x-axis represents time.

(E) Table for the average Kd value obtained for HuR binding to HCV 3'UTR.

(F) Schematic for the workflow.

(G) Following the workflow in (F), total cellular RNA was isolated, and HCV negative strand RNA detected by real time PCR (n=3).

(H) Western blotting for HuR was performed following the workflow in (F).

Student t-test was performed for statistical analysis. *= p<0.05, **= p<0.01, ***=p<0.001.

Figure 4. Involvement of PKC-δ in HuR localisation.

(A) Table for kinase known for S318 site of HuR.

(B) Huh7.5 cells were transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA and cells harvested at indicated time-points. Western blotting was done with anti-PKCδ, anti-p-PKCδ, anti-Core and anti-actin antibodies. Appropriate HRP-conjugate secondary antibodies were used.

(C) Immuno-pulldown of HuR was performed from Huh7.5 cells, post 72h of HCV infection and associated PKC-δ was checked by western blotting with specific antibody. The values at bottom represent ratio of densitometry values of PKC-δ in the IP fraction to that of HuR in IP fraction.

(D) Immuno-pulldown of PKC-δ was performed from Huh7.5 cells, post 72h of HCV infection and associated HuR was checked by western blot using HuR-specific antibody. The values at bottom represent ratio of densitometry values of HuR in the IP fraction to that of PKC-δ in IP fraction.

523 **(E, F)** Huh7.5 cells were treated with infectious HCV-JFH1 virus in the presence of 3µM of

524 Rottlerin and immunofluorescence staining was carried out at 24h post infection using Alexa

525 Fluor conjugated secondary antibodies against HCV-NS3 (Red) or HuR (Green). The nucleus

526 was counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar represents 10 µm.

527 **(G)** Nuclear and cytoplasmic ratio was quantified for images in (F) using Zen 2.3 lite

528 software. n=30. Student t-test was performed for statistical analysis. *= $p < 0.05$, **= $p < 0.01$,

529 ***=$p < 0.001$.

530 **Figure 5. Role of PKC-δ. In HCV life cycle.**

531 **(A)** Workflow of the experiment.

532 **(B)** According to the workflow, cells were harvested after 24h of addition of inhibitors. Total

533 RNA was isolated from the cells and HCV negative strand RNA was detected using RT-

534 qPCR. Fold change in RNA levels was calculated as compared to RNA levels in cells with no

535 inhibitor treatment. (n=3)

536 **(C)** Huh7.5 cells were transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA in the presence of 3µM of Rottlerin

537 or 10µ*M* KT5720 and immunofluorescence staining was carried out at 24h post infection

538 using Alexa Fluor conjugated secondary antibodies against HCV-NS3 (Red). The nucleus

539 was counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar represents 100µm.

540 **(D)** Quantification of the confocal images in panel C. (n=3)

541 **(E)** Expression level of PKC-δ (PRKCD gene) in healthy tissue and Virus induced primary

542 HCC tissue samples from TCGA database.

543 **(F)** Kaplan Meier plot for survival probability for Virus induced primary HCC patients with

544 varying level of expression of PKC-δ. Data taken from TCGA database.

545 Student t-test was performed for statistical analysis. *= $p < 0.05$, **= $p < 0.01$, ***=$p < 0.001$.

Figure 6. Viral protein involved in relocalisation of HuR.

(A) Huh7.5 cells were transfected with plasmid expressing HCV protein as indicated.

Immunofluorescence staining was carried out at 24h post transfection using Alexa Fluor

conjugated secondary antibodies against HuR (Green) and indicated viral proteins (Red). The

nucleus was counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar represents 20μm.

(B) Nuclear and cytoplasmic ratio was quantified for images in (A) using Zen 2.3 lite

software. n=10.

(C) Molecular docking for NS3 and PKC-δ interaction. The structure of PKC-δ was modelled

using the software I-TASSER and docked with NS3 structure using Pydockweb. Cyan color

represents NS3, green color represents PKC-δ and magenta represents the activation loop in

PKC-δ.

(D) Molecular docking for NS5A and PKC-δ interaction. The structure of PKC-δ was

modelled using the software I-TASSER and docked with NS5A structure using Pydockweb.

Cyan color represents NS5A, green color represents PKC-δ and magenta represents the

activation loop in PKC-δ.

(E) Molecular docking for NS5B and PKC-δ interaction. The structure of PKC-δ was

modelled using the software I-TASSER and docked with NS5B structure using Pydockweb.

Cyan color represents NS5B, green color represents PKC-δ and magenta represents the

activation loop in PKC-δ.

Student t-test was performed for statistical analysis. *= $p<0.05$, **= $p<0.01$, ***=$p<0.001$.

Figure 7. AMPK in relocalisation of HuR.

(A) Huh7.5 cells were transfected with HCV-JFH1 RNA in the presence of 10μM of AMPK

inhibitor Compound C (CC) or 100mM A76 and immunofluorescence staining was carried

out after 48h using Alexa Fluor conjugated secondary antibodies against HCV-Core (Red)

and HuR (Green). The nucleus was counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar represents 20µm.

(B) Nuclear and cytoplasmic ratio was quantified for images in (A) using Zen 2.3 lite

software. n=30.

(C) Expression level of PRKAA2 (AMPKα2) in healthy tissue, HCC primary tumor samples

and Virus induced primary HCC tissue samples from TCGA database.

(D) Kaplan Meier plot for survival probability for Virus induced primary HCC patients with

varying level of expression of AMPKα2. Data taken from TCGA database.

Student t-test was performed for statistical analysis. *= $p<0.05$, **= $p<0.01$, ***=$p<0.001$.

Figure 8. Proposed mechanism of HuR relocalisation upon HCV infection. (0) Cellular

mechanism of HuR transport to nucleus. AMPK phosphorylates Importin-α1 which guides

HuR to the nucleus. (1) HCV entry in the cells followed by Viral RNA release in the cell

cytoplasm. (2) Viral RNA translates to produce structural and non-structural proteins. (3)

Non-structural protein 3, NS3, activates PKC-δ. (4) PKC-δ phosphorylates HuR on S318

residue, guiding its cytoplasmic export. (5) Non-structural protein 5A, NS5A, inhibits AMPK

to retain the cytoplasmically relocalised and new synthesised HuR in the cytoplasm. (6) The

cytoplasmically localised HuR assists in viral replication by binding to viral 3'UTR.

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Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

A.

S318 site in HuR RRM3

HuR RRM3: 6GD2

E.

Protein	Kd (nM)
WT HuR	25.7 +/- 1.6 nM
S318D HuR	6.36 +/- 2.2 nM
S318A HuR	46.2 +/- 6.2 nM

B.

C.

D.

F.

G.

H.

Figure 4.

A.

HuR Phosphorylation Site	Upstream Kinase involved
S318	PKCδ (Doller A et al., Carcinogenesis, 2011)

B.

C.

D.

E.

F.

G.

Figure 5.

A.

B.

C.

D.

E.

F.

Figure 6.

Figure 7.

Figure 8.