LXR-inducible host E3 ligase IDOL targets a human cytomegalovirus reactivation determinant to promote latency

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Summary

Liver X receptor (LXR) signaling broadly restricts virus replication, however the mechanisms of restriction are poorly defined. Here, we demonstrate that the LXR-inducible cellular E3 ligase IDOL (inducible degrader of low-density lipoprotein receptor, LDLR) restricts replication of the beta-herpesvirus, human cytomegalovirus (HCMV), for the establishment of viral latency. IDOL is highly expressed in undifferentiated hematopoietic cells where HCMV establishes latency, but is sharply downregulated upon differentiation, a stimulus for reactivation. Importantly, IDOL restricts replication by driving the instability of a key viral determinant required for reactivation, the 33-kDa protein encoded by *UL136* (UL136p33). *UL136* encodes multiple proteins that differentially impact latency and reactivation. UL136p33 is targeted for rapid turnover by the proteasome and its stabilization by mutation of lysine residues to arginine results in a failure to quiet replication for latency. We show that IDOL interacts with and targets UL136p33 for turnover, but not the stabilized variant. While induction of IDOL prevents reactivation, IDOL depletion increases viral gene expression in undifferentiated hematopoietic cells. This work establishes the UL136p33-IDOL interaction as a key regulator of the bistable switch between latency and reactivation. It further implicates cholesterol homeostasis as a key determinant of HCMV reactivation whereby UL136p33 acts a sensor at the tipping point between the decision to maintain the latent state or exit latency for reactivation.

Significance

Herpesviruses establish life-long latent infections, which pose an important risk for disease particularly in the immunocompromised. Defining the mechanisms by which herpesviruses establish latency or reactivate from latency is important to controlling disease. Here, we define host cholesterol homeostasis as an important factor in regulating decisions of human cytomegalovirus, a beta-herpesvirus infecting the

majority of the population worldwide, to enter or exit the latent infection. The cellular

inducible degrader of low-density lipoprotein receptor, IDOL, target a viral determinant

of reactivation at for degradation for the establishment of latency. This work defines a

pivotal virus-host interaction that allows HCMV to sense changes in host biology to

navigate decisions to establish latency or replicate.

Introduction

Viral latency, the ability of a virus to persist indefinitely in the infected host, is a hallmark

of herpesviruses. Latency is defined as a non-replicative state punctuated by sporadic

reactivation events where the virus replicates productively for transmission. Human

cytomegalovirus (HCMV) is a beta-herpesvirus that establishes latent infection in

hematopoietic progenitor cells (HPCs) and cells of the myeloid lineage (1). Reactivation

of HCMV from latency in the immunocompromised can result in life-threatening disease

and is a particularly important risk factor in the context of stem cell and solid organ

transplantation. The molecular mechanisms by which HCMV senses changes in the host

to make decisions to maintain latency or reactivate from latency is important in developing

novel strategies to control viral reactivation and subsequent CMV disease.

Latency is a complex multifactorial phenomenon dependent on viral determinants, host

cell intrinsic, innate, and adaptive responses, as well as host cell signaling and chromatin

remodeling (2). Current paradigms hold that HCMV reactivation is tightly connected to

hematopoietic cell differentiation (3-7) or inflammatory signaling (3, 8-10). However, much

remains to be understood about the precise host contributions and key viral factors that

navigate the entry into or exit from latency. We and others have defined roles of *UL133-*

138 gene locus encoded within the UL*b'* region of the HCMV genome for latency and

reactivation. UL138 is required for latency and functions by regulating cell surface

receptor trafficking and signaling (11-14), innate immune responses (15) and also

contributes to repression of viral gene expression (16). UL135, by contrast, is required for

reactivation from latency, functioning in part by opposing the function of UL138 (17-19).

UL136 is expressed as 5 protein isoforms that have differential effects on the

establishment of latency or reactivation. The largest, membrane-associated isoforms,

UL136p33 (UL136p33) and p26, are required for reactivation, whereas the small, soluble

isoforms are required for latency in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* experimental models (20, 21).

Importantly, UL136 proteins accumulate with delayed kinetics relative to UL135 and

UL138 and maximal accumulation of UL136 products depend on the onset of viral DNA

synthesis and/or entry into late phase. Given its kinetics and dependence on viral DNA

synthesis for maximal expression, we postulate that UL136 may negotiate checkpoints

that function to maintain latency or commitment to reactivation from latency. Identifying

host pathways regulating these viral determinants is key to defining the mechanistic basis

by which HCMV senses and responds to changes in host biology to maintain latency or

reactivate.

The cellular environment the virus encounters upon infection undoubtedly plays important

roles in the establishment of latency with a host of restriction factors prepared to silence

the viral genome, as well as a transcriptional milieu that impacts viral gene expression.

As an example, we have shown that the cellular transcription factor early growth response

factor-1 (EGR-1) drives the expression of UL138 for the establishment of latency (19, 22).

As EGR-1 is required to maintain stemness in the bone marrow niche and is highly

expressed in undifferentiated hematopoietic cells (23), cells are primed to drive the

expression of UL138 for latency upon infection. However, HCMV also regulates EGR-1

expression through the differential trafficking and turnover of the host receptor tyrosine

kinase, epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) upstream of EGR-1 (11, 18, 19) and

through direct targeting by microRNAs that promote reactivation (22). Thus, HCMV has

evolved to manipulate and utilized host pathways to regulate its gene expression,

hardwiring infection into host signaling pathways. With regards to reactivation, activation

of the major immediate early (MIE) transcriptional unit, encoding the major transactivators

for viral replication, is highly dependent on host transcription factors in myeloid cells (24).

Host transcription factors CREB, FOXO3a and AP-1 are downstream of major signaling

pathways, including Src, PI3K/Akt, and MEK/ERK, and are important for re-expression of

MIE genes (25-27). Further, UL7 encodes a ligand that binds the cellular Fms-like tyrosine

kinase 3 receptor (Flt-3R) that when secreted upon reactivation activates PI3K/AKT and

MAPK signaling to prevent cell death and stimulate differentiation for reactivation (28, 29).

Through its co-evolution with the human host, the biology of HCMV infection has become

tightly intertwined with the biology its host, which reflects the complex mechanisms the

virus has evolved to "sense" and "respond" to changes in the cellular environment to

navigate "decisions'' to maintain latency or reactivate from latency.

Here we demonstrate that the largest isoform of UL136, UL136p33, is targeted for rapid

turnover relative to other UL136 protein isoforms and that its instability ($t_{1/2}$~1 h) is

important to the establishment of latency. We identified the LXR-inducible degrader of

low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) IDOL (also known as myosin regulatory light

chain interacting protein or MYLIP), as the host E3 ligase that targets UL136p33 for

turnover. IDOL expression is induced by oxysterol activation of the liver X receptor (LXR)

(30) and is regulated through hematopoietic differentiation (31, 32). In addition to LDLR,

IDOL also targets VLDLR and ApoER-2 and, therefore, is an important homeostatic

regulator of intracellular cholesterol (30, 33-35). The targeting of UL136p33 by IDOL

suggests that the virus has evolved to be responsive to changes in cellular cholesterol in

its commitment to reactivation. A model emerges whereby high levels of IDOL maintains

low levels of UL136p33 for the establishment of latency, and the downregulation of IDOL

by differentiation results in the accumulation of UL136p33 to drive reactivation. Indeed,

induction of IDOL results in increased turnover of UL136p33 and prevents reactivation of

HCMV from latency, whereas depletion of IDOL increases viral gene expression in

hematopoietic cells. Our findings define UL133p33 is a "sensor" of metabolic changes in

the cellular environment that allows the virus to make "decisions" to maintain latency or

to reactivate.

Results

UL136p33 is unstable and is targeted for proteasomal degradation

UL136 is expressed as at least 5 co-terminal protein isoforms (Fig. 1A). These isoforms

are encoded by transcripts with unique 5' ends and have distinct roles in viral latency and

reactivation (20, 21). The largest of these isoforms is a 33 kDa protein (UL136p33) that

is required for replication in endothelial cells as well as reactivation from latency in CD34+

HPCs and in humanized mice (20). Inversely, the two small isoforms p23 and p19

suppress replication in endothelial cells and promote latency in CD34+ HPCs and

humanized mice (21). The diametric nature of the UL136 system presupposes additional

levels of control to coordinate and commit to one infection program over another, thereby

allowing for either optimal replication/reactivation or robust latency. The UL136 isoforms,

and particularly the full-length isoform UL136p33, are uniquely labile and sensitive to

mechanical lysis while being processed (21). Based on this, we hypothesized that the

concentration of some UL136 isoforms is regulated by increased proteolysis, and that the

instability of UL136p33 may be important to establishing or maintaining latency.

To explore the possibility that UL136 isoforms have different stabilities, we analyzed the

levels of UL136 isoforms in infected fibroblasts treated with cycloheximide (CHX) to halt

protein synthesis. Cycloheximide treatment resulted in a striking loss of UL136p33, p25,

and p23, but not p26 or p19 (Fig. 1B, left panel). These results indicated differential

stability whereby UL136p33, p25, and p23 may be subject to more rapid turnover, while

other UL136 isoforms are relatively stable. Proteasome inhibition robustly rescued

UL136p33, p25, and p23 isoforms (Fig. 1B, right panel). Inhibition of the lysosome with

NH_4Cl had no effect on rescue of any of the UL136 isoforms; however, inhibition of both

the lysosome and proteasome showed a somewhat additive effect. Together, these

results indicate that the rapid turnover of UL136p33, p25, and p23 is regulated by the

proteasome.

To establish the kinetics of isoform turnover, we analyzed the decay of UL136 isoforms

in fibroblasts infected with TB40/E-*UL136*myc and treated with CHX at peak UL136 isoform

expression (Fig 1C). UL136p33 decayed with a half-life of 1 h ($t_{1/2}$=1 h) and p25 exhibited

a $t_{1/2}$=3 h, while all other isoforms were stable over the 6 h time course (Fig 1D). Because

p23 accumulates to very low levels, the decay of this protein is difficult to determine. The

rapid decay of UL136p33 relative to the other isoforms, as well as its significance in

HCMV reactivation prompted us to focus on determining the factor(s) contributing to its

instability.

Lysine to arginine mutations stabilize UL136p33

UL136 has four lysine (K) residues (denoted by red lines in Fig. 1A), three of which lie

upstream of the transmembrane domain (TMD) and are specific to UL136p33. To

determine if the turnover of UL136p33 was regulated by ubiquitin-mediated proteolysis,

we substituted all lysine residues for arginine (R) through site-directed mutagenesis in an

expression vector encoding UL136p33 to generate *UL136p33mycΔK→R*. The p33$_{ΔK→R}$

mutant had a $t_{1/2}$=5 h, compared to ~1 h for UL136p33 following CHX treatment (Fig. 2A).

This observation, together with the stabilization of UL136p33 by proteasomal inhibition

(Fig. 1B), suggests that UL136p33 turnover is regulated by ubiquitin-mediated

proteasomal decay. Further, the rapid turnover of exogenously expressed UL136p33 (Fig.

2A, left panel) indicates that UL136p33's degradation is not dependent on virus or virus-

induced factors.

To determine the importance of UL136p33 instability in infection, we introduced the lysine

to arginine mutations into the $UL136_{myc}$ gene within the bacterial artificial chromosome

clone of TB40/E ($UL136_{myc}\Delta K\rightarrow R$). To test if the mutations translated to increased

UL136p33 stability in infection, we measured the relative rates of decay in fibroblasts

infected with either the parental $UL136_{myc}$ or $UL136_{myc}\Delta K\rightarrow R$ virus and treated with CHX.

p33$_{\Delta K\rightarrow R}$ was stabilized during infection relative to wild type UL136p33 (Fig. 2B).

Interestingly, we stabilization of UL136p33 diminished levels of UL136 isoforms p26, p25,

and p23.

We then performed multistep growth curves on fibroblasts infected with $UL136_{myc}$ or

$UL136_{myc}\Delta K\rightarrow R$ to analyze the impact of stabilizing UL136p33 on virus replication. No

change in the kinetics or yield of viral growth was observed during the productive infection

in fibroblasts when UL136p33 is stabilized relative to the WT infection (Fig. 2C). This was

not surprising since the UL136p33 isoform, while important for replication in endothelial

cells and CD34+ HPCs, is dispensable for replication in fibroblasts (20, 21). In summary,

UL136p33 instability is the result of lysine-dependent, proteasomal degradation and

mutating lysine residues to arginine in $UL136$ stabilizes the protein with no effect on virus

replication in fibroblasts.

Since UL136p33 is required for reactivation from latency in CD34+ HPCs (20), we

hypothesized that the instability of UL136p33 allows for a tunable concentration gradient

which is critical for establishing and maintaining latency. To test this hypothesis, we

performed a latency assay in primary human CD34+ HPCs infected with the parental

*UL136*_{myc} or *UL136*_{*myc*}*ΔK→R* viruses. *UL136*_{*myc*}-infected CD34+ HPCs generated >2-fold

frequencies of infectious centers following reactivation compared to the pre-reactivation

control (Fig. 2D). However, the pre- and post-reactivation frequencies of infectious

centers were not different in the *UL136*_{*myc*}*ΔK→R* infection and were almost two-fold above

*UL136*_{myc} pre-reactivation. These results indicate that HCMV replication in CD34+ HPCs

is not quieted when UL136p33 is stabilized, and that this virus does not establish a latent

infection. As is the case with many viral proteins, UL136 isoforms, even with a myc

epitope tag, are not expressed to detectable levels in hematopoietic cells, and we have

been unsuccessful in generating antibodies to UL136 isoforms. Nevertheless, the

*UL136*_{*myc*}*ΔK→R* infection phenotype is consistent with lower concentrations of UL136p33

being important for the establishment of HCMV latency and the accumulation of

UL136p33 beyond a critical threshold for commitment to reactivation.

The host E3 ligase IDOL targets UL136p33 for proteasomal degradation

Ubiquitination of cargo by E3 ligases is an important step in targeting a protein for

proteasomal degradation (36, 37). Because UL136p33 is rapidly turned over by the

proteasome even in the absence of infection and the K→R mutations stabilized

UL136p33, we hypothesized that a host E3 ligase targets UL136p33 for turnover. We

identified UL136 interacting proteins by a yeast two-hybrid screen (Y2H) using the C-

terminal region of UL136 (amino acids 141-240) as bait. Intriguingly, we identified the host

E3 ligase IDOL (**i**nducible **d**egrader **o**f **l**ow-density lipoprotein receptor), also known as

MYLIP, as a candidate host interactor of UL136 (Supporting information, SI Table 1).

IDOL induces the degradation of the low-density lipoprotein receptor family members

LDLR, VLDLR and ApoER-2 (34, 35). The degradation of these receptors is a

physiological response to increased cholesterol, which is modified to oxysterols that

activate the liver-X-receptor (LXR) transcription factor to induce *IDOL* expression (35, 38,

39).

To determine if IDOL targets UL136p33, we analyzed the ability of IDOL to interact with

and impact UL136p33 levels. We validated the interaction between IDOL and UL136p33

by immunoprecipitating (IP) UL136p33-IDOL complexes from cells transiently

overexpressing myc-tagged UL136p33 or HA-tagged IDOL. Transient overexpression is

necessary due to the lack of an antibody to detect endogenous IDOL. Pulldown of $p33_{myc}$

coprecipitated IDOL-HA (Fig. 3A). The reciprocal IP also pulled down the UL136p33-IDOL

complex, confirming the interaction between UL136p33 and IDOL. Further, analysis

indicated that co-expression of IDOL with UL136p33 resulted in a 60% reduction in

UL136p33 levels compared to when UL136p33 was co-expressed with an empty vector

(Fig. 3B left panel and Fig. 3C), consistent with IDOL driving UL136p33 turnover. By

contrast, $p33_{\Delta K \to R}$ levels were not affected by IDOL co-expression (Fig. 3B, right panel

and Fig. C), in agreement with the hypothesis that ubiquitination on lysine residues is

required for UL136p33 turnover via the proteasome (Fig. 1). Taken together, IDOL

functions as an E3 ligase that targets UL136p33 for proteasomal degradation.

We next induced endogenous IDOL expression with an LXR agonist GW3965 or LXR-

independent agonist HBX41-108 in cells transiently expressing UL136p33 or $p33_{\Delta K \to R}$.

Because endogenous IDOL cannot be detected by western blot using available

antibodies (33, 40, 41), the induction of IDOL was verified by the loss of its target ApoER-

2 (Fig. 3D). Induction of IDOL by both GW3965 and HBX41-108 resulted in the

degradation of UL136p33 (Fig. 3D, top 3 blots), but not p33$_{\Delta K \to R}$ (Fig. 3D, bottom 3 blots).

These results further confirm that endogenous IDOL targets UL136p33 for degradation.

The Y2H bait was composed of the C-terminal region of UL136 spanning amino acids

141-240 downstream of the predicted TMD. These residues are shared by all the UL136

isoforms (Fig. 1A). Further, our data indicated that p25 and p23 proteins are also labile

following CHX treatment and these smaller isoforms could be rescued, like UL136p33, by

inhibiting the proteasome (Fig. 1B, right panel). The p25 and p23 isoforms have a single

lysine which is located downstream of the TMD in the full length UL136 isoform (Fig. 1A).

Transient co-expression of IDOL with either p25 or p23 did not lead to any notable

turnover of these proteins (SI Fig. 1A-C). These data collectively led us to conclude that

IDOL specifically targets UL136p33 for turnover, and it does not mediate the degradation

of p25 and p23. The mechanism by which p25 and p23 are turned over remains to be

elucidated.

To further define the specificity of IDOL-mediated turnover of UL136p33, we co-

expressed UL136p33 with another E3 ligase, Cbl. Cbl targets tyrosine kinase receptors,

such as EGFR, for ubiquitination and subsequent degradation by the lysosome (42).

Levels of UL136p33 were unaffected by co-expression with Cbl (SI Fig. 1D-E), indicating

specificity of IDOL for proteasomal turnover of UL136p33.

IDOL impacts UL136p33 protein levels in HCMV-infected primary fibroblasts

In the context of a productive infection in fibroblasts, we found that infection with either the parental *UL136$_{myc}$* or a *UL136$_{myc}$ΔK→R* induced *IDOL* transcripts by at least 5-fold compared to mock-infection by reverse transcriptase, quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR), (SI Fig. 2A). *IDOL* transcript upregulation was sustained over time during infection and peaked at close to 10-fold by 3 dpi. No changes in *IDOL* transcript levels were detected in mock controls over the same time-course. Because *IDOL* induction is a consequence of increased cellular cholesterol, we measured cholesterol content in infected cells to correlate it to the upregulation of *IDOL* transcripts. Using this approach, we noted that HCMV increased cholesterol concentration by at least 29% from 1 dpi (SI Fig. 1B), consistent with previous findings on HCMV-modulation of lipid biosynthesis (43-48). Taken together, infection in fibroblasts upregulates expression levels of IDOL transcripts, which is correlated with increased intracellular cholesterol levels.

To address the effect of HCMV-mediated induction of IDOL on UL136p33 levels in a productive infection, we again induced IDOL expression with the LXR agonist GW3965 or HBX41-108 in TB40/E-*UL136*$_{myc}$- or -*UL136*$_{myc}$ΔK→R-infected fibroblasts. IDOL induction resulted in a 50% reduction in the levels of UL136p33 but did not significantly affect p33$_{ΔK→R}$ levels (SI Fig. 2C and D). Diminished levels of smaller UL136 isoforms are again apparent in the *UL136*$_{myc}$ΔK→R infection. We next disrupted *IDOL* expression in fibroblasts to answer the question whether IDOL depletion would rescue UL136p33 turnover. CRISPR-mediated knockout (KO) of *IDOL* using guide RNAs to disrupt all the isoforms of IDOL was validated by Sanger sequencing and increased ApoER-2 as a proxy

for IDOL KO (SI Fig. 2E). Further, CRISPR KO of *IDOL* had no effect on HDAC1, a

potential off-target hit when knocking out *IDOL*. In fibroblasts depleted of IDOL, UL136p33

levels increased at 2 and 3 dpi compared to luciferase KO controls (SI Fig. 2F and G).

Further, IE2 levels were also significantly increased in the *UL136$_{myc}$* virus infection of

IDOL KO cells (SI Fig. 2H), consistent with a role for UL136p33 in promoting virus

replication. As expected, depletion of IDOL had no significant impact on p33$_{ΔK→R}$ and

differences in IE2 expression levels were not evident in the context of a *UL136$_{myc}$ΔK→R*

infection (SI Fig 2 G-H). Together, these results indicate that IDOL regulates UL136p33

concentration, which indirectly impacts IE expression in the context of infection.

317   Induction of IDOL in CD34+ HPCs restricts HCMV reactivation

To define the role of IDOL on reactivation from latency in primary CD34+ HPCs, we

induced IDOL expression with the LXR agonist GW3965 in combination with a

reactivation stimulus. *IDOL* induction was validated by increased IDOL transcripts in

GW3965-treated cells compared to DMSO-treated cells (Fig. 4A). Induction of IDOL with

GW3965 in CD34+ HPCs restricted reactivation from latency relative to the DMSO control

(Fig. 4B), consistent with a requirement for accumulation of UL136p33 for reactivation.

Strikingly, reactivation of the *UL136$_{myc}$ΔK→R* was not restricted by GW3965-induction of

IDOL. Taken together, these results support the hypothesis that UL136p33 stability is

required for reactivation from latency and that induction of IDOL at reactivation

suppresses UL136p33 from accumulating to levels sufficient for reactivation.

IDOL is regulated by differentiation in THP-1 monocytes to suppress viral protein expression

We next wanted to understand how IDOL was regulated in hematopoietic cells and its impact on CMV gene expression and latency in hematopoietic cells. THP-1 monocytes are a model cell line in which HCMV establishes latency in undifferentiated cells, and a re-expression of viral genes for reactivation can be stimulated by differentiating the cells into macrophages with a phorbol ester, tetradecanoylphorbol acetate (TPA) (49-54). Because dynamic gene expression changes are associated with monocyte-to-macrophage differentiation (31, 55, 56), we hypothesized that IDOL expression in THP-1 cells may be dictated by the differentiation state of the cell. Indeed, we found that *IDOL* mRNA was highly expressed in undifferentiated THP-1 monocytes prior to infection, but were sharply downregulated upon THP-1 cell differentiation (Fig. 5A). Further, while no significant differences in *IDOL* expression were observed between uninfected cells and a *UL136$_{myc}$* infection, *UL136$_{myc}$ΔK→R* infection significantly downregulated *IDOL* expression in the undifferentiated, latent phase (Fig. 5A), suggesting that UL136p33 levels may feedback to impact IDOL expression in a cell type-dependent manner.

To determine how IDOL impacts HCMV infection in hematopoietic cells, we knocked out IDOL in THP-1 cells. The knockdown was validated using an ELISA assay for the detection of IDOL protein (Fig. 5B). Further, *IDOL* KO had no off-target effects on HDAC1 (Fig. 5C). Given the challenges of detecting UL136 isoforms, particularly in hematopoietic cells, we examined UL135 and IE gene expression as proxies for determining the effect of *IDOL* KO in infected THP-1 cells. UL135 and IE proteins are detected early during

infection in THP-1 cells but diminish as the virus establishes latency between 3 and 5 dpi (Fig. 5 D-E, upper panel) (49). *IDOL* KO resulted in an increased burst in the expression of IEs and UL135 at 1 dpi relative to control *Luc* KO cells, consistent with increased UL136p33 levels as observed in fibroblasts. Intriguingly, the burst was relatively quieted by 5 dpi, suggesting that other inherent cellular factors may impact HCMV protein expression during latent infection. In a *UL136$_{myc}$ΔK→R* there were no apparent differences in IEs or UL135 expression due to the KO of IDOL, as expected (Fig. 5D-E, lower panels). These results indicate that IDOL expression in undifferentiated THP-1 cells suppresses viral protein expression to drive a latent program, consistent with its role in maintaining low levels of UL136p33.

De novo cholesterol biosynthesis is required for HCMV reactivation from latency

Because LXR-mediated induction of IDOL is linked to cholesterol metabolism, we asked if there was a direct connection between host cholesterol metabolism and HCMV latency. To address this question, we measured cholesterol concentration in infected THP-1 cells. In contrast to infection in fibroblasts (SI Fig. 1B), the non-replicative infection in THP-1 cells did not induce cholesterol synthesis (Fig. 6A). A 14% increase was observed at 1 dpi, but it was not statistically significant and was not sustained. However, differentiation with TPA significantly increased cholesterol concentrations relative to undifferentiated cells, yet again there was no significant difference between mock- and HCMV-infected cells. These results are consistent with increases in cholesterol observed with differentiation and suggest that HCMV has a limited ability to alter cholesterol levels in hematopoietic cells.

Next, we hypothesized that inhibition of *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis at differentiation would suppress reactivation. To test this hypothesis, we used the statin, pravastatin (PRV), to block *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis by inhibiting the rate limiting enzyme HMG-CoA reductase. PRV inhibition of *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis was validated by measuring relative *SREBP2* transcripts (Fig. 6B), which are upregulated in response to cholesterol depletion (57-59). HMGcO-A reductase converts HMG-CoA tp mevalonate (MEV) for isoprenoid synthesis (60-62). Providing mevalonate (MEV), the product of HMG-CoA reductase, will rescue the statin-induced depletion of cholesterol (63, 64). As such, we find that feeding cells MEV rescued the induction of SREBP2. Consistent with the requirement for cholesterol for HCMV replication. PRV restricted the expression of both IE1 and IE2 in THP-1 cells infected with HCMV and differentiated to reactivate (Fig. 6C). Consistent with this finding, another statin, Simvastatin, also inhibited IE1 and IE2 gene expression (SI Fig. 2). However, we were suprisingly unable to rescue IE1 and IE2 gene expression with MEV treatment. These results support the hypothesis that *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis is required for reactivation from latency, but raises the question as to whether cholesterol itself is the important factor driving replication.

It was recently reported that statins attenuate poly:(IC)-induced IFN-β expression via inhibition of JAK/STAT signaling in mouse macrophages (65). Moreover, MEV prevented the statin-mediated suppression of IFN-β. We explored this by analyzing IFN-β expression in THP-1 cells treated with PRV with or without MEV. Consistent with Koike et al. (66), PRV treatment trended towards suppressing *IFN-β1* transcripts relative to TPA

treatment alone (Fig. 6D). Further, the addition of MEV resulted in a significant

upregulation *IFN-β1*. Because HCMV is sensitive to IFN (67-69), we reasoned that IFN-

β stimulated by the combined effect of PRV and MEV was preventing our attempt to

rescue reactivation. To determine if MEV induced an IFN-dependent block to HCMV gene

expression, we inhibited IFN signaling using the Jak inhibitor, ruxolitinib (Rux) (70), which

reduced levels of active phosphorylated signal transducer and activator of transcription

(pSTAT1) in differentiated THP-1 cells (Fig. 6E). Consistent with the possibility that MEV-

mediated induction of *IFN-β1* restricted HCMV gene expression, RUX treatment rescued

IE1 and IE2 gene expression in infected THP-1 cells stimulated to differentiation in the

context of PRV/MEV treatment resulted in robust rescue of IE transcript expression (Fig.

6F). Taken together, these results indicate that *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis is

required for reactivation of HCMV from latency.

Discussion

Latent viruses require mechanisms to sense the cellular environment, filter noise and

respond to host cues to make solid decisions to maintain a quiescent latent state or to

reactivate replication (1). While the decision to enter or exit latency is often depicted as a

simple binary on/off switch, the reality is that a number of thresholds must be cleared for

the commitment to productive reactivation. Developing strategies to control entry into or

exit from CMV latency and ultimately control CMV disease rests upon identifying the virus-

host interactions that govern the decisions around latency and reactivation. Here we

demonstrate the existence of an unstable viral determinant of reactivation, UL136p33.

We demonstrate that its instability is dependent upon a host E3 ligase, IDOL, which is

regulated by hematopoietic differentiation. Our results support a model whereby

UL136p33 is maintained at low levels for the establishment of latency because IDOL

levels are high (Fig. 7). Upon differentiation, IDOL levels fall allowing UL136p33 levels to

rise, which facilitates HCMV crossing at least one threshold towards reactivation.

UL135p33 levels are further ensured by the onset of viral DNA synthesis and entry into

late phase (21). These findings define novel virus-host interactions that govern entry into

and exit from latency. Moreover, these findings suggest that by utilizing IDOL to regulate

levels of a critical determinant for reactivation, the virus has evolved to hardwire this

decision into the regulation of intracellular cholesterol, which ultimately controls IDOL

levels.

IDOL is transcriptionally upregulated by excess cholesterol derivatives (oxysterols) that

are sensed by LXR (35, 71-74). Indeed, HCMV infection remodels the cellular lipid

metabolic landscape by upregulating *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis during a

productive infection (44, 47, 48). It is, therefore, expected that HCMV infection would

induce IDOL expression. IDOL recognizes a conserved motif WxxKNxxSI/MxF within the

cytoplasmic tail of its targets (ApoER-2, LDLR and VLDLR), to mediate ubiquitination for

lysosomal degradation (30, 34, 35, 75). Canonical IDOL targets reside at the plasma

membrane and are typically internalized via the endocytosis and trafficked to the

lysosome (75). By contrast, UL136p33 is predominantly Golgi-associated (21), lacks a

WxxKNxxSI/MxF motif and, is degraded via the proteasome (Fig. 1B). Thus, differences

in localization and trafficking pathways between natural IDOL targets and UL136p33 may

differentially direct the degradation pathway.

Activation of LXR in human foreskin fibroblasts with GW3965 prior to HCMV infection was reportedly shown to depresses expression levels of viral proteins, such as IE2, pp28, pp65 and gB (76). GW3965 treatment is also reported to induce IFN-γ (77), a cytokine which directly inhibits IE1/2 mRNA expression (78). These findings might suggest that possibility that the effects of LXR agonists on UL136p33 levels are due to a global repression of viral gene expression. However, our results argue against this scenario. First, we observed no effect on IE gene expression at 2 dpi in infected fibroblasts treated with GW3965 or HBX41-108 (Fig. S1C), consistent with the attenuation of IFN-γ at later times (79). Second, specific depletion of *IDOL* increases UL136p33, consistent with IDOL-specific effects on UL136p33 levels.

Regulation of IDOL is, in part, controlled by the cell niche. RNA sequencing to classify the tissue-specific expression of genes across a representative set of all major human organs and tissues revealed that IDOL is highly upregulated in the bone marrow (BM), where CD34+ HPCs and monocytes and are generated, at 31 RPKM (reads per kilobase per million mapped reads) (80). The level of IDOL expression in the BM is only second to the placenta. High expression of IDOL in undifferentiated progenitor cells suggests they are intolerant of high cholesterol levels. Consistent with this, undifferentiated THP-1 monocytes express significantly higher levels of cholesterol efflux genes, such as CES1, and express significantly lower levels of influx genes (81). By contrast, THP-1 monocyte-derived macrophages upregulate cholesterol influx genes, such as scavenger receptor A1 (SR-A1) and CD36 to become lipid-loaded macrophages or foam cells. Further, statin

treatment to lower cholesterol reduces CD34+ HPC populations in the circulation and

high cholesterol promotes CD34+ HPC proliferation, myelopoiesis as well as monocyte

and granulocytic differentiation (82-84). While carefully designed studies are required to

understand how statins specifically affect HCMV latency and/or reactivation, these

findings suggest the possibility that untreated hypercholesterolemia might lead to

increased hematopoietic differentiation and a higher frequency of HCMV reactivation

events, whereas statin treatments may restrict HCMV reactivation and replication. Given

the role demonstrated here for IDOL in the regulation of cholesterol and UL136p33

expression, the high levels of IDOL expression and the relatively low levels of cholesterol

make progenitor cells an ideal environment for HCMV latency in which UL136p33 is

suppressed by rapid turnover.

The LXR axis is important for the biology of other herpesviruses. A recent report

demonstrates that the alpha herpesvirus pseudorabies virus (PRV), etiologic agent of the

economically important Aujeszky's disease, has evolved to inhibit LXR at both

transcription and protein levels (85). Using an inverse LXR agonist SR9243, Wang and

colleagues showed that inhibiting LXR increased PRV replication, whereas 3 different

LXR agonists and the oxysterol 22R-hydroxycholesterol all inhibited virus replication (85).

However, PRV can be rescued from the suppressive effects of an LXR agonist by

supplementing with cholesterol (85), consistent with a viral need for cholesterol to

replicate. LXR also inhibits the murine gamma herpesvirus MHV68 as it replicates better

in *LXR*$^{-/-}$ macrophages and, contrary to PRV, MHV68 infection increases LXRα (86).

Importantly, LXRα restricts reactivation of MHV86 in peritoneal cells, but not in

splenocytes (87). The cell type-dependent role of LXR signaling for reactivation suggests

the possibility that a LXR signaling might control a MHV68 determinant of reactivation in

peritoneal cells that is dispensable in splenocytes. Similarly, disruption of or stabilization

of UL136p33 did not impact replication in fibroblasts (Fig. 2C) (21), but did impact

replication in HPCs and endothelial cells (Fig. 2D) (20). Viral factors encoded by MHV68

and regulated by LXR signaling have yet to be determined.

Apart from herpesviruses, suppresses the replication of other viruses, including Hepatitis

C Virus (HCV) (88, 89), human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) (90-92), and Newcastle

disease virus (NDV) (93). Intriguingly, activation of LXR signaling suppresses hepatitis C

virus (HCV) replication in an IDOL-dependent manner. The suppression of HCV is

presumably due to the requirement of LDLR for an entry receptor since once infection is

established, IDOL induction does not seem to have an effect on HCV replication (94).

However, there are mixed reports on the requirement for LDLR for HCV entry or its

specific function in HCV replication (95-97).

While many host pathways are implicated in the regulation of herpesvirus latency, the

interplay between viral determinants and their regulation by host mechanisms to

terminate activity is less well appreciated, particularly for HCMV. The expression of HSV-

1 ICP0, a critical protein for reactivation and replication, is suppressed by the host

neuronal microRNA-138 to facilitate latency (98, 99). Moreover, ICP0 was recently shown

to be regulated by the host E3 ligase, TRIM23, which is in turn countered by the HSV-1

late protein, $\gamma_1$34.5 (100). While speculative, TRIM23 may moderate ICP0 protein levels

to suppress reactivation, where $\gamma_1 34.5$ ensures the commitment to replication by blocking

TRIM23-mediated turnover of ICP0. Further, the E3 ubiquitin ligase, MDM2, restricts

levels of the Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) transactivator,

RTA/ORF50, acting as pro-viral factor for latency (101). RTA/ORF50 in turn induces

degradation of vFLIP through the host Itch E3 ubiquitin ligase to attenuate vFLIP-driven

NFκB signaling for reactivation (102, 103). It will be important to determine if UL136p33

feedsback to regulate IDOL expression based on the observation that stabilization of

UL136p33 represses IDOL expression in undifferentiated THP-1 cells (Fig. 5A). Coopting

and regulating host E3 ligases to target viral proteins for latency allows infections to

respond quickly (e.g., prior to changes requiring transcription of genes and translation of

proteins) to stimuli for reactivation. It will be important to further define the mechanisms

by which UL136p33 interacts with host pathways to impact viral gene expression and

promote context-dependent replication and reactivation.

The evolution of viruses to depend on host factor-mediated turnover of critical viral

determinants is shared across highly divergent systems. Bacteriophages establish a

dormant lysogenic state to cope with their variable and unpredictable environment (104).

Bacteriophage λ lysogeny depends on the competition between repressors and activators

of gene expression that serve as a gatekeeper for the lytic pathways (105, 106). As a

primary example, competitive binding of the lysogeny determinant CI and the immediate

early gene Cro at regulatory operator elements puts CI-Cro at the heart of a bistable

switch controlling lysogenic-lytic decisions. Another determinant, CII, is expressed with

later kinetics and is also critical to the commitment to lysogeny (107, 108). CII promotes

expression of CI while it represses expression of the anti-terminator Q, that must

accumulate to a threshold to drive lytic gene expression. Critical effectors in

bacteriophage lysogeny, such as CI and CII, are susceptible to destruction by host

proteases that are induced in response to stresses, such as DNA damage (109, 110). As

such, the decision to establish lysogeny depends on the accumulation of lysogenic

effectors and is responsive to host determinants regulated by environmental cues.

Further, while CI is robust, the expression of CII, like UL136, is sensitive to genome copy

number or other fluctuations in the system, providing additional checkpoints in regulating

the decision.

With respect to the system emerging for HCMV, the *UL133-UL138* locus coordinates the

expression of multiple genes impacting infection fate decisions. While UL135 and UL138

are not known to directly regulate gene expression, their opposing impact on host

EGFR/PI3K signaling (11, 17, 19) has parallels to the Cro-CI bistable genetic switch.

Further, UL136p33 is expressed with later kinetics than the UL135/UL138 determinants,

and its expression is dependent on crossing a threshold of viral DNA synthesis (21). In

addition, UL136p33 is remarkably unstable compared to other *UL133-UL138* genes and

other UL136 isoforms, and, as we have shown here, its instability is dependent upon a

host E3 ligase regulated by differentiation-linked changes in cholesterol homeostasis.

Although the UL136p33 protein is undetectable in THP-1 monocytes, KO of *IDOL*

increases expression of genes critical for replication (e.g., IEs and UL135). While UL135

is critical for overcoming the repressive effects of UL138 for successful reactivation, we

assert that the subsequent accumulation of UL136p33 beyond a threshold is also

important for commitment to the replicative state (Fig. 7). It will be important to understand

the relationship between UL135 and UL136p33 in the commitment to HCMV reactivation

since as both are required for reactivation and how other UL136 isoforms, for example

the latency-promoting UL136p23/19 isoforms (20), may counter the progression towards

reactivation to maintain a latent infection.

In conclusion, we have identified a host E3 ligase, IDOL, which controls UL136p33

concentrations by targeting it for turnover. IDOL is regulated by cell differentiation in a

cholesterol-linked manner. UL136p33 concentrations are critical to exit from latency.

Thus, HCMV senses changes in the host cell cholesterol environment through UL136p33

levels to make decisions to enter or exit latency. It will be important to understand how

HCMV infection regulates IDOL levels, potentially through UL136p33 feedback, during

latency or replicative states to further influence latent-replication decisions. Further, the

LXR-IDOL axis may be a potential target for studies aimed at controlling HCMV

reactivation clinically.

Methods

Cells and viruses

Human primary embryonic fibroblasts (MRC-5; ATCC) and human kidney embryonic

293T (HEK 293T; ATCC) cells were maintained in Dulbecco's Essential Media (DMEM).

The DMEM was supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 10 mM HEPES, 1 mM

sodium pyruvate, 2 mM l-alanyl-glutamine, 0.1 mM nonessential amino acids, 100 U/ml

penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin. CD34+ hematopoietic progenitor cells (HPCs)

were isolated from de-identified medical waste following bone marrow isolations from

healthy donors for clinical procedures at the Banner-University Medical Center at the

University of Arizona (111). THP-1 cells were maintained in RPMI1640 (Gibco)

supplemented with 10% FBS, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 0.1 mM β-mercapto-ethanol

(Sigma).

The wild type TB40E/05 strain expressing GFP as a marker for infection (112) was

engineered to fuse the myc epitope tag in frame at the 3' end of $UL136$ ($UL136_{myc}$ virus)

using BAC recombineering as described previously (21). The $UL136_{myc}\Delta K\rightarrow R$ virus was

constructed following methods previously described (Caviness 2014). See SI for detailed

description of virus recombineering.

CRISPR/CAS9-mediated knock out of *IDOL*

Guide RNAs (gRNAs) used to knock out IDOL were designed using online gRNA design

tools at atum.bio and synthego.com. Sequences of the gRNAs are shown in SI Table 2.

The gRNAs were cloned into lentiCRISPR v2 (113). Lentiviruses to deliver the gRNAs

were generated by co-transfecting the lentiCRISPR v2 constructs with pDMG.2 and

psPAX2 in HEK 293T cells. MRC-5 and THP-1 cells were transduced at a MOI of 3 and

10, respectively. Transduced cells were selected with 2 µg/ml puromycin for 2 days.

Validation of knock-out was done by blotting for ApoER-2, Sanger sequencing or

quantifying levels of IDOL by ELISA. The Synthego gRNA design algorithm

(synthego.com) indicates potential off-target genes for the gRNAs and we selected

HDAC1 to evaluate potential off-target effects by western blot analyses.

IDOL ELISA

We used a sandwich ELISA assay (Cusabio) to quantify IDOL protein levels in THP-1

cells. Cells were washed in cold PBS and resuspended at 10^8 cells/mL followed by

freezing at -20 °C. Following 3 freeze-thaw cycles, IDOL was quantified according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Optical densities were determined using a Clariostar plate

reader (BMG Labtech) and sample values were interpolated from a standard curve in

GraphPad Prism v9.

Cholesterol assay

Fibroblasts were seeded at 3 x 10^5 cells per well in 6-well dishes and incubated overnight.

Infections were done at a MOI of 1 for 1 h and the inoculum was removed followed by

washing cells twice with PBS. Infected cells were incubated in serum-free media and 50

000 cells were harvested at appropriate time points. Samples were prepared using a

cholesterol Glo bioluminescent assay (Promega) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Relative light unites were measured using a Clariostar Plus plate reader

(BMG Labtech) and sample values were extrapolated from a standard curve in GraphPad

Prism v9.

Please see SI for detailed description of materials and methods.

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     Figure legends

Figure 1. UL136p33 isoform is rapidly turned over by the proteasome. (A) Schematic

depiction of the *UL133-UL138* polycistronic gene locus and UL136 protein isoforms. A C-

terminal myc tag is used to detect UL136 isoforms. Red lines represent lysine residues,

and the black box shows the putative transmembrane domain. (B-D) Fibroblasts were

infected with TB40/E-*UL136$_{myc}$* virus at a MOI of 1. (B) At 48 hpi, cells were treated with

50 µg/ml cycloheximide (CHX) for 6 h. Alternatively, mock- or TB40/E-infected cells were

treated with CHX in the context of proteasomal (MG132) or lysosomal (NH$_4$Cl) inhibition

(right panel). UL136$_{myc}$ protein isoforms or tubulin as a loading control were detected by

immunoblotting using by a monoclonal α-myc antibody or tubulin, respectively (left panel).

(C) Cells were untreated or treated with CHX at 48 hpi and UL136 decay was analyzed

over a 6-hour time course by immunoblotting. (D) Relative quantification of UL136

isoforms normalized to tubulin.

Figure 2. Stabilizing UL136p33 results in virus that fails to establish latency. (A)

Fibroblasts were transduced with lentiviruses engineered to express p33$_{myc}$ or p33$_{K\rightarrow R}$

and protein decay was analyzed by immunoblotting following CHX treatment. (B)

Fibroblasts were infected with TB40/E-*UL136$_{myc}$* or -*UL136$_{myc}\Delta K\rightarrow R$* viruses (MOI =1)

and treated with CHX at 48 hpi or left untreated. Protein decay was analyzed as described

in Figure 1C. (C) Fibroblasts were infected at a MOI of 0.02 and samples collected for

TCID$_{50}$ at indicated times. All data points are an average of 3 biological replicates and

error bars represent standard deviation. (D) CD34+ HPCs were infected with *UL136$_{myc}$*

or *UL136$_{myc}\Delta K\rightarrow R$* viruses (MOI=2). Infected cells were purified by FACS at 1 dpi seeded

into long term culture. At 10 days, half of the culture was reactivated by seeding intact

cells by limiting dilution into co-culture with fibroblasts in a cytokine-rich media to promote

myeloid differentiation (reactivation). The other half of the culture was mechanically lysed

and seeded onto fibroblasts as the pre-reactivation control. The frequency of infectious

centers was determined for each sample by extreme limiting dilution. (C-D) The data

represents replicates with cells from 3 independent donors. The means were compared

with two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with a Tukey post hoc test and the were no

significant differences. **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$.

Figure 3. The host E3 ligase IDOL specifically targets UL136p33 for turnover. (A)

HEK cells were transiently transfected with plasmids expressing UL136p33, IDOL, empty

vector, or the indicated combinations. UL136p33 or IDOL was immunoprecipitated from

protein lysates using α-myc or α-HA magnetic beads. Protein was detected by

immunoblotting using the antibodies indicated. Lysates were blotted as a control for

expression and GAPDH used as a loading control. (B) HEK cells were transiently

transfected with plasmids expressing $p33_{\Delta K \to R}$, IDOL, or empty vector. Proteins were

detected by immunoblotting using α-myc or α-HA monoclonal antibodies. (C) Protein

densities of UL136p33 (from panel A) or $p33_{\Delta K \to R}$ (from panel B) relative to their loading

control. (D) HEK cells were transiently transfected to express UL136p33 or $p33_{\Delta K \to R.}$ IDOL

was induced 48 hours later with 2 µM of LXR-agonists, GW3965 or HBX41-108, or vehicle

(DMSO) for 6 h. Detection of ApoER-2 was used as a proxy for validating the induction

of IDOL. $p33_{myc}$, $p33_{K \to R}$, and tubulin as a loading control were detected by

immunoblotting using α-myc or α-tubulin. All data points represent the mean of at least 3

independent replicates and the means were compared by two-way ANOVA with a Tukey

post hoc test. Error bars represent standard deviation. ns, *p*>0.05. ****, p<0.0001.

Figure 4. Induction of IDOL in CD34+ HPCs inhibits reactivation. (A) CD34+ HPCs

were mock- or TB40/E-infected at a MOI of 2. At 1 dpi, cells were treated with 1 µM

GW3965 for 6 h and total RNA isolated for qPCR to measure *IDOL* transcript levels

relative to *H6PD*. The data points represent the mean from 3 independent experiments.

The means were analyzed by two-way ANOVA with a Tukey post-hoc test. ***p<0.001;

****, p<0.0001. (B) CD34+ HPCs were infected at a MOI of 2. At 24 hpi, infected CD34+

cells were isolated by FACS and seeded into long term culture. At 10 days, half of the

culture was reactivated by seeding intact cells by limiting dilution into co-culture with

fibroblasts in a cytokine-rich media to promote myeloid differentiation (reactivation). The

other half of the culture was mechanically lysed and seeded onto fibroblasts as the pre-

reactivation control. The frequency of infectious centers was determined for each sample

by ELDA. The data points represent replicates from 2 independent donors and the range

is indicated by squares (pre-reactivation) and dots (post-reactivation).

Figure 5. IDOL impacts viral protein expression in a THP-1 cell latency model. (A)

Total RNA was extracted from mock-, *UL136$_{myc}$*- or *UL136$_{myc}$ΔK→R*-infected THP-1 cells

at indicated time points. At 5 dpi, cells were treated with TPA to induce differentiation or

the vehicle control (DMSO). cDNA was synthesized from the RNA and qPCR was used

to determine the relative expression levels of *IDOL* transcripts compared to the low copy

cellular housekeeping gene *H6PD* using the ΔΔCT method. (B) Validation of *IDOL* KO in

undifferentiated THP-1 cells was confirmed by ELISA. Where indicated, cells were treated

with TPA as a positive control for the loss of IDOL. (C) Immunoblot of HDAC1 in *Luc*

control or *IDOL* KO THP-1 cells to rule out off-target CRISPR/CAS9 effects. (D) *IDOL* or

Luc KO THP-1 cells were infected with TB40/E-*UL136*$_{myc}$ (top panel) or *-UL136$_{myc}$K→R*

(bottom panel) at a MOI of 2 and cell lysates were collected at indicated time points. IE1/2

and UL135 accumulation was evaluated by immunoblotting protein lysates over a time

course using a monoclonal α-IE1/2 and polyclonal α-UL135. (E) IE1/2 and UL135 were

quantified, and levels normalized to Tubulin and levels present at 1 dpi in the Luc KO

control. All data points are representative of the mean 3 independent replicates and error

bars represent standard deviation. The means were compared by two-way ANOVA with

a Tukey post hoc test. ns, $p>0.05$; *, $p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; ****, $p<0.0001$.

Figure 6. *de novo* cholesterol biosynthesis is required for reactivation from latency.

(A) THP-1 cells were mock- or HCMV-infected at a MOI of 2 and total cholesterol was

measured at indicated times. (B) Total RNA was extracted from THP-1 cells to validate

pravastatin (PRV)-mediated inhibition of HMGCR as measured by *SREBP2* transcripts.

(C) Relative IE1 and IE2 transcripts were measured in infected THP-1 cells by qPCR at

2 days post differentiation following treatments with TPA, TPA and PRV, or TPA with PRV

and mevalonate (MEV). IE transcripts were normalized to *H6PD* transcripts. (D) *IFN-β1*

transcripts were measured by qPCR in the context of treatment with TPA, TPA with PRV,

or TPA with PRV and MEV. (E) Cell lysates were obtained from infected cells in which

ruxolitinib was used to block JAK/STAT signaling. pSTAT1 level in TPA-treated cells were

used as baseline control. (F) RT-qPCR analysis of IE1 and IE2 expression when IFN

signaling was disrupted by the JAK/STAT inhibitor ruxolitinib in the context of PRV and

MEV treatment, as indicated. All data points are representative of the mean 3

independent replicates and error bars represent standard deviation. The means were

compared by two-way ANOVA with a Tukey post hoc test. ns, $p>0.05$; *, $p<0.05$; **,

$p<0.01$; ****, $p<0.0001$.

Figure 7. Model for differentiation-dependent IDOL regulation to control UL136p33

levels. Progenitor cells are relatively small and are intolerant of high cholesterol, which

they control by upregulating IDOL. We propose that high levels of IDOL maintain low

levels of UL136p33 for the establishment of latency. Upon cell differentiation, cells

downregulate IDOL, which would result in a corresponding increase in UL136p33 levels

to drive infection towards reactivation. UL136p33 levels are further increased upon the

commitment to viral DNA synthesis. Stabilization of UL136p33 results in corresponding

downregulation of IDOL mRNAs, suggesting feedback to suppress of IDOL gene

expression. This work implicates IDOL as a host factor that fine-tunes levels of UL136p33

to control decisions to enter and exit latency. These findings further indicate a key role for

cholesterol homeostasis as a determinant of HCMV reactivation, whereby UL136p33 acts

as a sensor at the tipping point between the decision to maintain the latent state or exit

latency for reactivation. Cholesterol represented by beige droplets. Figure made with

Biorender.com.

A

B

U136_{myc}	+	+	−	−
UL136_{myc}ΔK→R	−	−	+	+
DMSO	+	+	+	+
GW3965	−	+	−	+