A *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* secreted virulence factor disrupts host snRNP biogenesis

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Running title: Regulation of host RNA splicing by Mtb

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Abstract

Alternative splicing is a fundamental eukaryotic process that fine-tunes cellular responses

post-transcriptionally. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) infection of human macrophages

triggers extensive dysregulation of host alternative splicing (AS) to alter the host responses.

However, the mechanism behind this remains unknown. Here, we present an unexpected

mechanism exploited by the Mtb to achieve the same. We identify several bacterial secretory

proteins that interact with the host splicing factors (SFs) and alter select RNA splicing events

in vitro, *in cell* and during *ex vivo* infections. We show bacterial proteins disrupt AS by

impairing Small nuclear ribonucleoprotein (snRNP) biogenesis, primarily by interacting with

and sequestering U5snRNA and SNRPF, key spliceosome constituents. These interactions are

driven, in part, by one of the identified Mtb proteins, Hsr1, whose access to the host cytosol

is ESX1-dependent. The Mtb*Δhsr1* is unable to interact and sequester U5snRNA or SNRPF

and fails to alter host AS. Consequently, Mtb*Δhsr1* shows compromised survival and

pathogenesis in macrophages and mice. Lungs of infected mice show distinct SNRPF

staining, which is hsr1 dependent. Similar distinctive SNRPF staining is also noted in human

tuberculous granulomas. Moreover, monocytes from tuberculosis patients show a substantial

splicing dysregulation indicating splicing defects as a key determinant behind systemic

tuberculosis pathology. We propose mycobacterial exploitation of the evolutionarily

conserved mechanism of snRNP biogenesis, aided its adaptation for human pathogenesis and

provides a unique therapeutic opportunity.

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) is one of the leading causes of human mortality due to infectious diseases.[1] *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), the causative organism, is known to alter a variety of host cellular processes that eventually help establish the infection and cause disease. Thus, cellular mechanisms like signaling, autophagy, apoptosis, inflammation etc., have been extensively explored for potential host-directed therapy (HDT) against tuberculosis [2-5]. Mtb infection also alters host gene expression, which determines the long-term host responses against infection. In fact, the pathogen regulates host gene expression at multiple tiers, including epigenetic, transcriptional and post-transcriptional stages [6-9]. Previously, reports from our group and other showed that infection of human macrophages with Mtb triggers a massive alteration in the pattern of host RNA splicing[10,11]. Altered RNA splicing can impact the target proteins function, localization, stability and stoichimetry[12]. We reported increased instances of transcripts which either do not get translated or are substrate of a process called nonsense-mediated decay[13], were upregulated as a result of alternative splicing in the infected macrophages[8,11,13]. Curiously, genes typically belonging to functional classes that are activated upon infection are impacted by AS[8,9,12]. This targeted blunting of host response by bacterial infection favours the bacteria[11]. Incidentally, infection of macrophages with *Salmonella typhimurium* or *Lysteria monocytogenes* were also reported to alter isoform usage, in addition to a widespread shortening of 3'UTR[14]. The macrophage transcriptome also appears to get spliced differently during other inflammatory conditions [15,16]. However, the mechanism determining differential isoform usage in most of these conditions is unclear. Given the fundamental function of RNA splicing in shaping the host proteome and its perturbation by Mtb during macrophage infections, insights into the mechanism of infection-dependent alternative RNA is critical to understand molecular details of tuberculosis pathogenesis[9]

Host RNA splicing is a complex and fundamental physiological process in all eukaryotes.

RNA splicing is performed by a multimolecular and dynamic spliceosome complex, which

employs a large number of proteins to ensure the accuracy of splicing to form mature

mRNAs [17-19]. One of the key components is U-rich U snRNAs, which form protein-RNA

complexes known as small nuclear ribonucleoproteins (snRNPs)[20-22]. The snRNPs are

recruited stepwise onto the pre-mRNA exon-intron boundaries to form a functional

spliceosome, join the adjoining exons, and splice out the intervening intron [18,23].

Like other bacterial pathogens, Mtb also secretes virulence factors to alter host physiology [24-

29]. Since mycobacterial secretory proteins in the infected macrophages have access to both

cytosol and the nucleus [24-26,30], we asked whether secreted Mtb proteins could impact

spliceosome complex assembly and, consequently, host RNA splicing. This study extensively

maps the interactions between mycobacterial secretory proteins and host proteins involved in

RNA splicing. We identify the Mtb proteins capable of altering the assembly of spliceosome

complex by exploiting an evolutionarily conserved quality control mechanism of RNA

splicing in the eukaryotes.

112 Results

113 A targeted high-throughput yeast-2-hybrid (Y2H) screen to identify *Mtb*-human protein

114 interactions

Eukaryotic RNA splicing is a highly conserved, multi-step process involving a large number

of proteins and protein-RNA complexes (herein referred to as splicing factors or SF). Our

hypothesis was to test whether Mtb secretory proteins could directly interact with the SFs to

interfere in the host RNA splicing. For this, we performed a high-throughput one-to-one

yeast-2-hybrid assay. The bait library (binding domain or BD) comprised of mycobacterial

secreted proteins while the prey library (activation domain or AD) comprised the protein-

coding isoforms of genes belonging to functional classes "RNA splicing" and "Spliceosome

function", making it a unique custom library of human transcripts (Table S1). Briefly, our BD

library contained 384 *Mtb* genes and also included 37 putative negative controls (Fig. S1A-B

Table S1 and S2)[24,27-29,31].

Four independent mating reactions were performed between 384 BD and 162 AD clones to

obtain high-quality interaction data, leading to 2,48,832 mating reactions. The schematic of

the Y2H strategy followed for the study is shown in Fig. 1A. In total, 123 Mtb proteins

showed interactions with one or more SFs, together consisting of 439 incidences of

interactions, including 121 autoactivation incidences (Table S3). The BD clones showing

autoactivation were excluded from the list of interactors. A few negative control list proteins

also showed interactions, including 56 autoactivation incidences (Table S3).

The interactome between *Mtb* secretory proteins and host SFs, as observed by the Y2H

screen, is shown in Fig. 1B (Table S4). The interactions spanned across all classes of host

genes involved in RNA splicing, including RNA polymerases, Sm proteins, SMN complex

proteins, U2 snRNPs, LSm proteins, HnRNPs, U4/U6.U5 snRNP tricomplex proteins and

non-snRNP proteins (Fig. 1C). The Venn-Diagram shows the number of Mtb proteins

interacting with the host SFs (Fig. 1C). Overall, host proteins from RNA Pol II subunits, Sm

Core, catalytic step II factors, HnRNPs and SMN complex (Fig. S1C) and Mtb proteins from

information pathway, virulence factors and conserved hypothetical proteins functional class

showed most interactions (Fig. S1D). To note, there were many instances where different

proteins of similar functional sub-class shared their interacting partner with *Mtb* (Fig. 1D).

Interaction of Mtb proteins with the splice variants of human proteins

Since the human library consisted of all protein-coding isoforms of the corresponding genes,

among the 162 AD clones that were screened, a total of eighteen genes were represented by

more than one transcript (Fig. S2A). Among them POLR2H, SYF2, SNRPD2, LSm7,

RBMX, LUC7L2, DCAF4, PPIH and U2AF1 showed interaction with Mtb protein in Y2H

(Fig. S2A). The analysis of interaction patterns observed for the different transcripts of the

same gene revealed unique insights (Fig. S2B). It shows the gain or loss of interacting

partners as a consequence of the gain or loss of exons (Fig. S2B). Most strikingly, truncated

isoforms for three genes showed an unusually high number of interactions with the Mtb

proteins (Fig. S2B). In our earlier report, we noted a significant increase in the expression of

truncated protein-coding isoforms of many host genes, which appeared to help Mtb. Possibly,

the truncated spliced variants take confirmations that allow it to interact with more partners.

However, this remains a preliminary observation and needs a more focused study to

specifically understand the underlying mechanisms and consequences.

***In vitro* splicing assays point to a direct role of *Mtb* proteins in regulating host-RNA**

splicing.

We asked whether the mycobacterial proteins interacting with the host SFs, either through

Y2H or MS approach, could also alter host RNA splicing. For functional assays, we selected

transcripts from a handful of genes like *ACSL1*, *ACADVL*, *DDX11*, *DDX42* and *NFYA*, each

representing a specific exon exclusion event upon H37Rv infection (Fig 1E)[11]. These

transcripts were specifically upregulated in H37Rv infected macrophages but not in H37Ra

infected ones[11]. We designed primers to screen for the specific splicing events (Fig. S3A).

The selected transcripts from the above genes showed an exon exclusion event specifically

upregulated upon H37Rv infection (Fig. S3B). The increase was not due to an increased

transcriptional event since the exon inclusion primers did not show any change in expression

(Fig. S3C). Moreover, using primers that spanned the junction between flanking exons after

excluding the middle exon, we reconfirmed that the increased expression of the transcripts

noted above was indeed due to an increased exon exclusion event (Fig. S3D). The first set of

functional assays involved *in vitro* splicing assays. For *in vitro* splicing assays, we generated

minigene constructs for four specific isoforms for the genes *ACSL1*, *ACADVL*, *DDX11* and

DDX42. The schematic details for *in vitro* splicing assay are shown in Fig. 1E and Fig.S3E.

We verified the substrate RNAs produced via *in vitro* transcribing the minigene constructs,

undergo splicing and form the desired product in the presence of splicing-competent nuclear

extract from THP-1 macrophages (Fig. S3F).

Next, to test whether Mtb proteins could directly interfere with RNA splicing, we purified

several Mtb proteins identified in the Y2H screen and spliceosome complex pulldown assays

(Fig. 1, Fig. S1, Fig. S3G) and used them in independent in *vitro* splicing assays. Most Mtb

proteins did not have any impact on the inclusion or exclusion of the test exon in the *in vitro*

assays, a few mycobacterial proteins appeared to cause the exclusion of test exon in the case

of ACADVL minigene substrate (Fig. 1F). Thus, Mtb secretory proteins could indeed

selectively alter the choice of inclusion/exclusion of specific exons. While the *in vitro* assay

provided evidence for the possible role of Mtb proteins in altering the host RNA splicing, it

did not capture the mechanism for global impact on RNA splicing as reported earlier and

which was our major interest [11].

Mycobacterium smegmatis-based knock-in system to verify the role of _Mtb_ proteins in

regulating host RNA splicing

As an alternate approach, we recapitulated the infection-like scenario, by generating 19 non-

pathogenic _M. smegmatis_ (_Msmeg_) lines inducibly expressing Mtb proteins identified through

Y2H (_Rv1390, Rv0170, Rv0639, Rv0780, Rv0288, Rv1094, Rv3864, Rv1566c, Rv1643,_

_Rv3849_ and _Rv1435c_) (Fig S4A). These were sub-cloned under the IVN-inducible promotor

to develop corresponding knock-in _Msmeg::Rv_ lines (Fig. 2A). We next used each of the

Msmeg::Rv lines to infect THP-1 macrophages and analyzed specific RNA splicing events of

a set of target genes through RT-PCR using the exclusion primers (Fig. S3A), against

transcripts from _ACSL1_, _ACADVL_, _DDX11_, _DDX42_ and _NFYA_ (Fig. S4A). After the first

biological experiment, out of 11 genes screened 6 genes (Rv1566c, Rv1643, RV1435c,

Rv3849, Rv1390) showed IVN-induction dependent AS event in one or more of the five test

exons analysed (Fig. S4A). Out of these Rv1390 did not show consistent patterns during the

subsequent biological replicates (Fig. S4B). The _Msmeg::Rv_ lines expressing _Rv1566c,_

_Rv1435c_ or _Rv1643_ showed significant exon skipping events for one or more test exons

analyzed across three biological replicates (Fig. 2B). Another _Msmeg::Rv_ line, expressing

Rv3849, also showed consistent AS events across three biological replicates (Fig. S4B);

unlike Rv1566c, Rv1435c and Rv1643, we could not confirm its secretion from the

Msmeg::Rv line and therefore Rv3849 was not taken forward for further studies (Fig. S4C).

Most importantly, we observed insignificant changes in the AS for the target transcripts when

Msmeg alone or upon IVN-induction were used for infection (Fig. S4D). Thus, with the

limitation of using only five test exons, each Mtb protein expressed in _Msmeg_ impacted the

splicing of a unique and overlapping subset of test exons analyzed (Fig. 2B). Despite the

limitations, the results from this surrogate approach suggests that select Mtb proteins were

able to alter specific host RNA splicing events during infection in THP-1 macrophages.

In-cell splicing reporter assays illustrate the direct role of *Mtb* proteins in regulating host-RNA splicing.

We next developed an *in-cell* splicing reporter assay to test the three Mtb proteins identified in the results in Fig. 2B. The reporters included a constitutive pRint vector and a set of test pGint vector[32]; the latter was modified to incorporate the custom exon-intron boundaries from our list of splicing events (Fig. 2C). In HEK293T cells, stably expressing pRint, pGint constructs (pGint_ACADVL, pGint_DDX11, pGint_DDX42, pGint_ACSL1 and pGint_NFYA) were co-transfected with plasmids encoding *Rv1566c, Rv1435c and Rv1643* respectively, in separate experiments (Fig. 2D). We used a plasmid encoding *Rv1252c* as a non-interacting control (NIC) for this experiment. We measured the %pGint$^+$ cells (GFP$^+$) in the pRint$^+$ gated population (Fig. 2D). As shown in Figure 2E, transfecting NIC marginally but consistently increased the splicing event for *ACADVL* and *ACSL1*. However, transfecting *Rv1566c*, *Rv1435c,* and *Rv1643* further increased the exon exclusion event in *ACADVL* but not in *ACSL1* (Fig. 2E). NIC transfection had no impact on the exon exclusion event for *DDX11*, *DDX42* and *NFYA* (Fig. 2E). In contrast, expressing *Rv1566c*, *Rv1435c* or *Rv1643* led to a significant increase in the exon exclusion event for *DDX11*, *DDX42* and *NFYA* (Fig. 2E). We also analyzed pRint expression in pGint$^+$-population across all the conditions, which did not show any significant differences, suggesting no impact on the basal splicing event as a result of ectopically expressing Mtb proteins in 293T cells (Fig. S5A). Taken together, through the validation experiments in figures 1-2, *in vitro* assays, *ex vivo* infection assays, and *in-cell* reporter-based assays, we demonstrate that the Mtb proteins identified in this study were capable of systemically altering host RNA splicing in a targeted fashion.

Verification of physical interaction between Mtb proteins and host splicing factors

The three Mtb proteins identified above (Rv1435c, Rv1566c and Rv1643) were next verified for their physical interaction with the human SFs in a mammalian system. Mtb proteins

(Flag-tagged) and human SFs (3X-HA-tagged) were co-transfected in HEK293T cells, and

co-immunoprecipitation was performed using anti-HA and anti-FLAG antibodies,

respectively. The Y2H interaction combinations thus verified included PRPF18-Rv1435c,

SNRPD2-Rv1435c, GEMIN3-Rv1435c, POLR2H-Rv1566c, and SNRPD2-Rv1643 (Fig. 2F).

The combination of SNRPD2-Rv1566c, while showed interactions in the Y2H screen, did not

show interaction in the co-IP experiment (Fig. S5B). We also included a few combinations

that did not show interaction in the Y2H screen as the additional negative control. Thus, co-

transfecting *SNRPF* with *Rv1566c* in HEK293T cells did not result in their co-

immunoprecipitation (Fig. S5B). On the other hand, co-transfecting *SNRPF* with *Rv1435c*

showed only limited interaction (Fig. S5B). While Rv1435c could pulldown SNRPF, the

reverse was not true (Fig. S5B). For a couple of Rv1435c interactions, we also verified the

interaction by exchanging the BD and AD clones in Y2H (Fig. S5C). Overall, from the above

set of results, we conclude that the Mtb proteins, which were able to alter targeted host-RNA

splicing in the functional assays, also showed physical interactions with the host splicing

factors in the mammalian system. Finally, each of these three proteins was able to alter exon

inclusion for ACADVL test transcript in the *in vitro* splicing assay (Fig. S5D).

Mtb infection impacts levels and distribution of splicing-associated proteins in

macrophages.

The results above together show that select Mtb proteins could interact with host SFs and

alter the host RNA splicing. However, these results did not provide any insights into the

possible mechanisms. We next analyzed *in vivo* assembled spliceosome complexes from

Mtb-infected macrophages by label-free quantitative proteomics. The spliceosome complexes

were pulled down using anti-SNRPB (Y12) antibody from nuclear and cytosolic lysates of

the infected and uninfected macrophages to analyse the abundance and distribution of host

spliceosome proteins (Table S5). In the nuclear fractions of the Mtb-infected cells, there was

a significant depletion of SR proteins like SRSF3, SRSF7, Sm Core proteins like SNRPC,

SNRPB, SNRPN and SNRPD2 and some HNRNP proteins, as compared to the uninfected

ones (Fig. 3A). Other proteins like RPL4, SF3B2 and SYNCRIP followed a reversed pattern

in the infected cells, getting more enriched in the cytosol unlike the uninfected cells (Fig.

3A). Similarly, proteins like EIF5A and EIF5AL1 showed increased nuclear enrichment in

the infected macrophages, in contrast to the uninfected cells (Fig. 3A). With the limited

example of proteins identified in the immunoprecipitated spliceosome complexes, it was

evident that a diverse set of SFs were either getting depleted or mislocalized in the Mtb-

infected macrophages.

Mtb infection dramatically alters the levels and distribution of proteins involved in

RNA splicing.

To specifically investigate the levels and distribution of host SFs in Mtb-infected cells, we

systematically analyzed a representative set of SFs involved at different stages of RNA

splicing (Fig. 3B). We monitored three different parameters- MFI/cell, foci/cell and the

cytosolic to the nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) for these proteins. (Fig. 3C-H). We also included

some transcription-related proteins for this analysis, since splicing begins while the RNA is

still being transcribed [33,34]. Both POLR2G and RBP8 (transcription related proteins) showed,

unexpectedly, increased nuclear retention (S6A). The U1 snRNP protein SF1 showed

increased MFI and increased cytosolic retention upon infection (Fig. 3C). The U5 snRNP

component DDX23 showed a decrease in MFI upon infection (Fig. 3D). The SMN complex

proteins GEMIN8 and GEMIN3 showed differential MFI and foci/cell (Fig. 3E-F). A couple

of SFs like PRPF4 (U4/U5.U6 associated) and SNRP200 (U5 associated) did not show

alteration in any of the three parameters analyzed (Fig. S6B). Among the Sm proteins, LSM7

showed decreased MFI/cell in the infected macrophages and SNRPF showed an increased

cytosolic retention (Fig. 3G-H). However, a more perplexing observation was the direct

interaction of SNRPF with Mtb phagosomes (Fig. 3H). It also appeared that SNRPF was

getting sequestered in the cytoplasm due to its strong interaction with Mtb phagosomes (Fig.

3I). The results in Figure 3 together indicated that the components of the RNA splicing

machinery, specifically snRNP complex biogenesis, could be dysregulated in the Mtb-

infected macrophages.

U5 snRNA directly interacts with *Mtb* phagosomes

The nuclear-cytosolic transport of U-rich snRNAs is fundamental to their assembly into U

snRNPs, which, together with different snRNPs, form the spliceosome complex[35]. The

snRNP complex assembly requires cytosolic transport of the snRNAs, which then interact

with SMN complex and Sm Core proteins to form snRNP before entering back into the

nucleus to form spliceosome complexes (Fig. 4A). Since SNRPF, a part of the pentameric

partial Sm ring, which first recognizes the Sm-sites present on snRNAs before the assembly

of the full heptameric ring takes place with the help of the SMN complex [20], was increasingly

retained in the cytoplasm of Mtb-infected macrophages, we anticipated that some snRNAs

could also show dysregulation in the infected macrophages. We analyzed the U2 and U5

snRNAs by fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) in the Mtb-infected macrophages. The

U2 FISH did not show any aberrant pattern for the parameters- MFI/cell, foci/cell and

Cyt/Nuc ratio, except for an increased MFI/cell at 24 hours post-infection (hpi, Fig. 4B).

Unlike U2 FISH, U5 FISH showed remarkable patterns in the Mtb-infected macrophages

(Fig. 4C). There was a decrease in MFI/cell and foci/cell at 24 hpi; however, a substantial

increase was noted in all three parameters at 48 hpi (Fig. 4C). At 48 hpi, there was significant

cytosolic retention of U5snRNA (Fig. 4C). More surprisingly, as in the case of SNRPF, we

noted direct interaction of U5snRNAs with Mtb in the cytosol (Fig. 4D), which quantitatively

increased from 24 to 48 hpi (Fig. 4D). The direct interaction of Mtb with SNRPF and

U5snRNA suggests binding and cytosolic sequestration of these specific splicing components

by Mtb. This would also mean stoichiometric disbalance among the components of snRNPs

in the infected macrophages, a condition which is known to cause widespread splicing defects

[9,36]. Interestingly, we verified that the expression of both U5 snRNA (by qPCR) and SNRPF

(by immunoblot) consistently increased post-infection, which could be a compensatory

mechanism to sustain the snRNP biogenesis in the Mtb-infected cells (Fig. 4E-F). Therefore,

disruption of snRNP biogenesis appears to serve as the major mechanism that triggers large-

scale splicing alterations in the Mtb-infected macrophages.

_Rv1435c_ deletion strain of Mtb fails to alter the splicing of target transcripts.

We next asked whether the Mtb proteins identified in this study were directly responsible for

dysregulating snRNP biogenesis. To test the above, we deleted one of the three identified

Mtb proteins, _Rv1435c,_ in H37Rv using recombineering (Fig. S6C)[37]. This protein is

annotated as a secretory protein and showed positive results in most of the interaction and

splicing assays. We confirmed the deletion of _Rv1435c_ by PCR (Fig. S6D) and also generated

a complemented strain _ΔRv1435c::WT_ using an integrative vector (see Methods). We first

verified the impact of _Rv1435c_ deletion on the splicing of five target transcripts used in this

study. All five target transcripts, _ACADVL, DDX11, DDX42, ACSL1_ and _NFYA_, showed

significantly reduced test exon exclusion events for these transcripts upon infection with the

H37Rv_ΔRv1435c_ strain compared with the WT Mtb (Fig. 5A). Moreover, in the cells infected

with H37Rv_ΔRv1435c_::_WT_, the exon exclusion event was restored to the same extent or

higher than the WT infected cells (Fig. 5A). These results conclusively show that Rv1435c

can directly alter host RNA splicing during Mtb infection. We designated the Mtb protein

Rv1435c as the host splicing regulator 1 or Hsr1.

H37Rv_Δhsr1_ alters infection-induced global alternative splicing.

We next wanted to see whether the loss of _hsr1_ causes global recovery in the infection-

induced RNA splicing events. We performed RNAseq analysis from the THP-1

macrophages, uninfected or infected with WT or H37RvΔ*hsr1* strains and analyzed the

relative abundance of different splice variants of the protein-coding genes. The clustergram in

figure 5B shows that H37Rv infection causes increased expression of a large number of

transcripts, most of which were effectively restored in H37RvΔ*hsr1* infected cells (Fig. 5B).

Interestingly, H37RvΔ*hsr1*-infected cells show increased expression of another unique set of

transcripts, likely represented those splicing events, which were possibly inhibited during WT

H37Rv infection (Fig. 5B). Curiously, a large number of transcripts showing upregulation in

the Mtb-infected macrophages actually represented NMD substrates or processed transcripts

(Table S6), which usually don't form a functional protein. Expression of splice variants that

are either truncated in length or do not code for a functional protein is one of the ways

through which infection-induced alternative splicing helps Mtb evade host responses [11]. The

results here show a direct role of Mtb protein Hsr1 in manipulating host RNA splicing events

favoring the pathogen.

Mtb *hsr1* directly perturbs snRNP biogenesis by sequestering U5snRNAs to alter host

RNA splicing.

We next investigated how the loss of Mtb *hsr1* contributed to the reversal in the splicing

events in the macrophages. We analyzed U5snRNA interaction and distribution in MtbΔ*hsr1*

infected cells by FISH. In concurrence with the altered RNA splicing events reported above,

MtbΔ*hsr1* infected cells did not show cytosolic retention of U5snRNA (Fig. 5C). On the

similar line, the interaction between Mtb and U5snRNA was almost entirely lost in MtbΔ*hsr1*

infected cells (Fig. 5C). Like U5 snRNA, even SNRPF interaction with MtbΔ*hsr1* was

significantly lower than that observed with the WT Mtb (Fig. 5D). The effect of *hsr1* deletion

on the regulation of U5snRNA and SNRPF was specific since we did not observe any

difference in any of the parameters analysed for U2snRNA (Fig. S6E). These results imply

that Mtb Hsr1 perturbs host snRNP biogenesis by sequestering the U5snRNA and SNRPF in

the cytosol, leading to widespread RNA splicing defects.

Hsr1-mediated impact on host RNA splicing is ESX1-dependent

While we did observe secretion of Hsr1 from Mtb as well as when expressed in *Msmeg*, it

was not evident whether it also gets secreted inside the macrophages during infection. We

generated anti-sera against Hsr1 in mice to check its secretion and localization during

infection in macrophages. Interestingly, we could observe significant Hsr1 secretion in the

cytosol of THP-1 macrophage infected with the WT or *Δhsr1::WT* Mtb (Fig. 5E). The Hsr1

signal was almost completely lost in the cells infected with *Δhsr1* (Fig. 5E). Curiously, when

we used the *ΔCE* Mtb strain (lacking both *Esx1*/ESAT6 and *Esx2/CFP10*), we could not see

any cytosolic staining for Hsr1. The Hsr1 staining in THP-1 cytosol was restored when the

complemented strain *ΔCE::WT* was used for infection (Fig. 5E). Expectedly, THP-1

macrophages infected with Mtb strains lacking the *esx1* system failed to alter RNA splicing

for the target genes like ACSL1 and ACADVL (Fig. 5F). Consistent with the above

observation, the Mtb *ΔCE* strain could not alter SNRPF cytosolic/nuclear distribution (Fig.

S6F). These results suggest that the Hsr1-mediated impact on host RNA splicing reported in

this study is ESX1-dependent.

Evolutionary perspective of hsr1 in mycobacterial virulence

On UniProtKB, Rv1435c is characterized as a conserved proline, glycine, valine-rich secreted

protein. There are several orthologs present in diverse mycobacterial species, like *M.*

marinum, where it is classified as a conserved hypothetical protein; in opportunistic

pathogenic species like *M. paratuberculosis, M. avium,* and *M. helveticum,* the identified

orthologue codes for secreted beta-xylosidase enzyme (Fig. S7A-B). *In M. smegmatis*, the

orthologue, with very poor similarity, encodes a translation initiation factor (IF-2). In a few

pathogenic species like *M. lacus and M. heidelbergense,* it codes for a beta-xylosidase (Fig.

S7A-B). Thus, most *hsr1* orthologues in the genus *Mycobacterium* encode a secreted protein,

and their functions are better characterized in non-pathogenic or opportunistic pathogens. It is

likely that the ability of hsr1 to alter host splicing events was likely a gain-of-function event

during the course of Mtb co-evolution as a human pathogen.

Mtb Hsr1 is a virulence factor.

Since Mtb*Δhsr1* infection could not alter RNA splicing events as in WT Mtb-infected cells,

we wondered whether loss of *hsr1* also impacts bacterial pathogenicity. The Mtb*Δhsr1*

showed reduced intra-macrophage survival compared to the WT Mtb (Fig. 6A, S8A). The

Mtb*Δhsr1* strain, as such, did not have a growth defect *in vitro*. Rather, it grew faster than the

WT cells in liquid culture which was consistent with a decrease in the bacterial cell length

(Fig. S8B-C). Curiously, *Δhsr1::WT* grew inside the THP-1 macrophages even better than the

WT Mtb, pointing to Hsr1 being an important virulence factor (Fig. 6A, Fig. S8A).

Interestingly, *Δhsr1* showed increased targeting to the lysosomes and also the cell had higher

cathepsin D staining (Fig. S8D). Since Mtb*Δhsr1* was unable to bind and sequester SNRPF,

we wondered whether overexpressing SNRPF during WT Mtb infection could have an impact

on Mtb CFU. Overexpressing SNRPF in human macrophages caused a relative decline in

cytosolic retention of SNRPF and a reduced intracellular CFU of WT Mtb (Fig. S8E),

indicating that SNRPF sequestration by Hsr1 serves as the virulence mechanism of Hsr1. On

the contrary, overexpression of SNRPD2 did not have any impact on Mtb CFU (Fig. S8F).

Next, to assess the role of Hsr1 in bacterial virulence *in vivo*, we infected BALB/c mice with

WT, Mtb*Δhsr1* and Mtb*Δhsr1::WT* strains and analyzed bacterial CFU at two and four weeks

post-infection. At both two- and four-weeks post-infection, Mtb*Δhsr1* had fewer CFUs in the

lungs of the animals (Fig. 6B). Unlike in THP-1 macrophages, the complemented strain

Mtb*Δhsr1::WT* was not able to rescue the bacterial CFU (Fig. 6B). At both 2- and 4- weeks

post-infection, analysis of a panel of eight cytokines in the lung homogenates showed an

increase in cytokine levels in WT infected animals, which, to some extent, were diminished

in the Mtb*Δhsr1* infected mice (Fig. S8G). The lung homogenates from mice infected with

Mtb*Δhsr1::WT* did not revert the expression to the WT levels (Fig. S8G). The lung tissue

sections from mice that were infected for four weeks showed strong SNRPF staining in case

of WT and *Δhsr1::WT* Mtb infection (Fig. 6C). The SNRPF staining was strikingly lower in

uninfected mice or those infected with Mtb*Δhsr1* (Fig. 6C). Remarkably, SNRPF staining in

the WT or *Δhsr1::WT* Mtb infected mice appeared mostly cytosolic in nature. Together, the

ex-vivo assays in macrophages and *in vivo* assays corroborate Mtb Hsr1 as a virulence factor

which helps its survival in the animals, largely by sequestering the host SNRPF.

419 Macrophages in human TB granulomas show altered snRNP complex component

420 localization.

Specific SNRPF cytosolic retention in THP1 macrophage and in the lungs of infected mice

prompted us to explore the clinically relevant human samples. Tissue sections from the

confirmed human TB granulomas belonging to abdominal TB cases were stained with

SNRPF. To our surprise, all granuloma lesions showed strong SNRPF staining (Fig. 6D,

S9A). Moreover, it was evident that there were more cytosolic SNRPF than in the nucleus

(Fig. 6D). Lesions that were highly necrotic showed even higher SNRPF levels (Fig. 6D).

Multinucleated giant cells, a hallmark of TB granulomas, showed intense staining for

cytosolic SNRPF (Fig. S9A). Unlike the granuloma lesions, in healthy tissue sections,

SNRPF staining was not remarkable (Fig. S9B). Finally, we also stained for another sm Core

protein, i.e., SNRPD2, in the granulomatous lesions or healthy sections. In both cases,

SNRPD2 staining was conspicuously nuclear and indistinctive (Fig. S9C). Thus, these results

highlight an unusual SNRPF-dependent dysregulation in human TB lesions. No previous

report of such rampant dysregulation of snRNP biogenesis in human TB granulomas exists.

Monocytes from human pulmonary TB patients show pervasive regulation of alternative splicing.

Next, from an RNAseq dataset from monocytes of 20 PTB cases and 19 healthy contacts, we analyzed and compared the relative abundance of different transcripts [38]. We focused our analysis on four major functional classes- RNA splicing, immune response, inflammation and metabolism (Fig. 6E, Table S7). As can be seen from the clustergrams, transcript level expression of genes belonging to each of these functional classes was able to classify the PTB and HC subjects (Fig. 6E). In each of the cases, there were two major clusters of transcripts- one showing increased expression in the TB cases (Cluster 1) and the other in the control cases (Cluster 2). We analyzed the biotypes of the transcripts present in these clusters across all the groups. In the RNA splicing class, cluster 2 was much bigger than cluster 1, showing more downregulation events in the TB cases (Fig. 6E). Moreover, the small number of transcripts that were upregulated in TB subjects were either not the protein-coding isoforms or encoded a truncated protein isoform (Fig. 6F). A similar analysis performed for other functional classes revealed systemic splicing defects (Fig. 6F). In inflammation, immune response and metabolism classes, while a large number of transcripts were upregulated in the PTB subjects, a significant number of those genes did not code for a protein or encoded a truncated isoform of the corresponding protein (Fig. 6F). For example, the upregulated genes in the immune response class show increased expression of the transcripts of genes like TLR4, THBS1, OAS, OASL3, GRN, CXCL16, etc. (Fig. 6G), however for each of them one or more splice variants with highly truncated protein length were also upregulated, which could significantly blunt the host responses. Comparison of monocyte expression data with those from H37Rv-infected THP-1 (Fig. 5B) showed around 45 commonly upregulated transcripts; however, almost a third of those genes did not code for a protein-coding variant (Fig. S9D, Table S8). Taken together, these observations make it evident that by perturbing

459 host RNA splicing, the mechanism for which we report in this study, Mtb exerts a pervasive

460 influence on host physiology and contributes towards systemic pathologies witnessed in TB

461 patients.

Discussions

RNA splicing is a conserved eukaryotic process which impacts cellular proteome diversity [10,39]. Also, its dysregulation is associated with diverse pathologies [40]. This study was designed to understand the mechanism of Mtb infection-mediated alteration of host RNA splicing[9]. Hijacking of host RNA splicing machinery by viral pathogens, including influenza virus and SARS-CoV2 is well-known [41-44]. However, very little is understood in the context of bacterial pathogens. Identification of several Mtb proteins that could directly interact with and alter host RNA splicing is a significant leap in our understanding of host-pathogen interactions. Similarly, the observation that different spliced variants could interact differently with Mtb proteins adds a new dimension to host-pathogen interactions. There are only limited efforts to systematically study and map out how alternative splicing events could contribute to the functional divergence in the proteome [45]. However, our results underscore that more efforts are needed to understand the consequences of this fundamental aspect of eukaryotic regulation.

The dysregulation in the abundance and distribution of SFs in the infected macrophages provided crucial insights into the underlying mechanism. The U snRNPs biogenesis is fundamental to eukaryotic gene expression, given their critical role in RNA splicing [46-48]. For snRNPs to form, pre-snRNAs from the nucleus are transported to the cytoplasm, where they interact with the multi-molecular SMN complex and Sm Core ring [46-48]. The snRNA-protein complex comprising SMN complex and Sm Core ring, is transported back to the nucleus where they mature into snRNPs and participate in the splicing reactions [49,50]. SMN complex, including SMN1/2 dimer and Gemin proteins, charge snRNAs with the Sm core ring [51]. A loss or altered stoichiometry in either the Gemins or SMN1 or 2, can lead to widespread splicing defects in different tissues [20,52-54].

Thus, while a few Mtb proteins could alter RNA splicing of test transcripts in the *in vitro*

assays, the dysregulation of SMN complex proteins and Sm core proteins reported in this

study appears to be the major driver for the global alteration of AS in Mtb-infected

macrophages. To our surprise, we also noted direct interactions between SNRPF and U5

snRNA with Mtb, which suggests potential sequestration of these key regulatory components

by Mtb. While several viral proteins are reported to directly interact with the SFs [9,36,44,55],

there is no precedence of such interaction of SFs or snRNAs directly with a viral or bacterial

pathogen.

There could be concerns about the specificity of this regulation since targeted dysregulation

of splicing factors (SFs) can lead to a pervasive impact on alternative splicing. However,

studies suggest it does not alter the splicing of all introns in the cell [19,56,57]. Rather, the impact

of one splicing factor dysregulation could be very distinct and selective from another SF

dysregulation [19]. At the same time, there is some functional congruence, too, in that a specific

SF could regulate AS of functionally related genes [19,56,57].

Experiments using the *hsr1* deleted Mtb strain provide definite proof that Mtb Hsr1 regulates

host RNA splicing in an ESX1-dependent manner. More strikingly, the loss of *hsr1* impacted

the ability of Mtb to interact and sequester U5snRNA or SNRPF. It is pertinent to ask why

Mtb targets U5snRNA and no other snRNAs or at least the U2snRNAs, which we analyzed.

During splicing, U5snRNPs recognize the acceptor splice site [58]. Several viral proteins

interact with the U5 components to disrupt the normal RNA splicing [36,55]. Thus, targeting of

U5snRNA through interaction reveals somewhat conserved pathogenic mechanisms across

diverse human pathogens. The decline in Mtb*Δhsr1* survival in macrophages and in mice

clearly indicates that the ability to disrupt snRNP biogenesis is a desirable phenotype for

tuberculosis pathogenesis. To note, the orthologues of *hsr1* are secreted xylose hydrolysing

enzymes, which is probably required by non-pathogenic, or opportunistic pathogenic bacteria

in search of diverse carbon sources. Therefore, the gain of function to interact with host SFs

appears to be an important adaptation during the evolution of Mtb as a human pathogen.

Interestingly, all snRNAs, with a few exceptions, while synthesized in the nucleus, must

travel to the cytosol for assembly before they are transported back to the nucleus for

participation in the splicing reaction [49]. The cytosolic export of pre-snRNAs ensures that

immature snRNAs do not get incorporated into the spliceosomal complexes in the nucleus,

which can alter host RNA splicing catastrophically [35,59]. This evolutionarily conserved quality

control step appears to be co-opted by the pathogenic mycobacteria during its evolution as the

human pathogen.

Tuberculosis granulomas evolve through a complex interplay between the bacterial factors

and host machinery, which largely benefits the pathogen [60]. Therefore, the intense SNRPF

staining of human tuberculosis granulomas is of great interest. Similarly, the monocyte

RNAseq data from the patients emphasize the pervasiveness of infection-induced alteration in

host RNA splicing. Incidentally, differentially expressed transcript isoforms were recently

reported in an LTBI cohort and identified those associated with resistance to TST/IGRA

conversion [61]. There are systemic inflammation, metabolic dysregulation and muscle loss

reported in TB patients [62], some of which could potentially be a consequence of the large-

scale splicing defects observed in these individuals.

To conclude, with the limitation of only select splicing events analyzed, we present a new

paradigm of pathogen-mediated perturbation of host physiology and show the hijacking of

this evolutionarily conserved mechanism by Mtb to blunt host responses. We propose that

inhibition of molecular interactions between the host and the pathogenic partners identified in

this study could be exploited for developing a novel class of therapeutics.

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Figures and Figure Legends

Figure 1: Mycobacterial secretory proteins and host spliceosome proteins interactome.

A) The schematic flow chart for high-throughput one-to-one Y2H assay in 1536-well format. Protein pairs showing interaction in 3 or 4 biological replicates were considered as positive interactions.

B) Mtb proteins -host splicing factor interactome- the positive interactions from the Y2H screen were used to generate the network shown here. The diamond and circle represent the host and Mtb proteins, respectively, and the size corresponds to the number of interactions observed. The proteins coloured yellow in the network are discussed in detail in the text.

C) The Venn diagrams show proteins belonging to the major spliceosome components and their corresponding overlap with the interacting Mtb proteins.

D) A more descriptive representation of the Venn diagrams, shown above in Fig. 1C is presented in the table as a list of interactions.

E) Transcripts that were used for making the minigene constructs to test the role of Mtb proteins in host RNA splicing. Only exons are shown, and two different transcripts for each of the five genes are shown. The red bars indicate the overlapping sequences, and the skipped exons are shown in yellow.

F) On the left, a schematic of the minigene cassettes for DDX42 and ACADVL is shown. The constitutive exons are shown in green, while the alternative exons are shown in blue. *In vitro* transcribed products of minigenes were used for in-vitro splicing assays in the presence of purified Mtb proteins Rv3867, Rv0360, Rv1566c and Rv1471.

Figure 2: *Ex vivo* infection assays and reporter assays to test the role of Mtb proteins in host RNA splicing

A) The schematic representation of infecting THP-1 macrophages with *M. smegmatis* strains that express mycobacterial proteins under IVN inducible promotor. Isoform-specific qPCR for the truncated isoforms of ACADVL, DDX11, DDX42, ACSL1 and NFYA was used to assess the impact on alternative splicing.

B) Expression of spliced isoforms of the five target genes (as indicated) in THP-1 macrophages upon infection with WT or *Rv1566c, Rv1435c* and *Rv1643* knock-in *M smegmatis* lines. *M smegmatis* lines were induced with IVN (indicated dose) for 12 hours before infection. Data from three independent biological experiments. The p-values shown are from One-way ANOVA.

C) Designing of the custom *in vivo* fluorescent splicing reporter. Schematic for the constitutive splicing reporter pRint with a short adenovirus intron intervening the DsRed gene with a strong 5' and 3' splice sites. In the pGint splicing constructs, the alternative exon of ACADVL, DDX11, DDX42, ACSL1 and NFYA, along with the flanking 100bp intronic sequences, were inserted within eGFP reading frame. The exon disrupts the reading frame, however, skipping of the test exon reconstitutes EGFP fluorescence.

D) The pRint expressing stable HEK293T cell lines were co-transfected with a pGint construct and pDest-FLAG construct encoding proteins Rv1252c (NIC), Rv1566c, Rv1435c, Rv1643, or empty vector control, followed by Flow cytometry. In the DsRed$^+$ gate, %FITC$^+$ population was calculated to measure the extent of the test exon-skipping event.

E) %FITC$^+$ population for each of the indicated reporter constructs in the presence of indicated mycobacterial protein, non-interacting control or vector controls. Each dot represents an independent biological replicate (N=3), indicating p values from One-way ANOVA.

F) Validation of physical interactions between indicated pairs of *Mtb* proteins (FLAG-tagged) and host proteins (HA-tagged) in HEK293T cells. Data is representative of two or more biologically independent transfection and pulldown experiments.

Figure 3: Dysregulation of host RNA splicing machinery in Mtb-infected macrophages

A) Heatmap shows massive dysregulation in the level and cellular distribution of human proteins involved in RNA splicing and identified in MS of the spliceosome complex pulldown from the Mtb infected THP-1 macrophages 48 hours post-infection.

B) A schematic model depicting the ordered pathway of mRNA transcription by RNAP II and splicing catalyzed by spliceosome complex. The U1snRNP binds the 5' splice site and U2 snRNP binds the branch point adenine to form complex A. U4/U5.U6 snRNP binds to form complex B and causes conformational changes to form activated complex B. This is followed by the first transesterification reaction releasing U1 and U4 snRNP and the second transesterification reaction forming complex C releasing the lariat intron and U2, U5 and U6 snRNP. The U snRNP are the major players in splicing catalysis and their biogenesis is mediated by the SMN complex and the Sm proteins in the cytoplasm.

C-H) The proteins were visualized by indirect immunofluorescence (green), the nucleus was visualized by DAPI staining (blue) and mCherry-expressing bacteria (red) was used for infection. Each dot in the bar graphs represents a field analyzed, and an average of a hundred cells were quantified. The confocal images were analyzed for three different parameters- overall MFI (MFI/cell), number of Foci (Foci/cell) and cytosolic to the nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) for all major splicing-related proteins upon Mtb infection such as **C)** U1 associated proteins (SF1), **D)** U5 associated proteins (DDX23), **E)** SMN complex proteins (GEMIN8) **F)** SMN complex proteins (GEMIN3) and **G)** Sm Core proteins (LSM7) and **H)** Sm Core proteins (SNRPF)

I) Image showing SNRPF colocalizing with bacterial phagosomes. The 3D reconstruction of the nucleus, SNRPF foci and bacteria (see methods) was done to show the SNRPF Foci at <0.2 microns distance from the bacterial phagosomes. Scale bar: 2 μm and p values indicate One-way ANOVA.

Figure 4: Dysregulation in SMN complex and Sm proteins impact U snRNA localization and overall assembly of U snRNPs.

A) Schematic representation of U snRNA nucleo-cytoplasmic trajectory and assembly of Sm core ring on snRNA by SMN complex to form snRNPs

B) Representative images for RNA FISH against U2 snRNA in THP-1 macrophages upon Mtb infection 24- and 48-hrs post-infection. The U2 snRNA probe was labelled with Alexa 488 (green), the nucleus was stained with DAPI (blue) and mCherry-expressing H37Rv (red) was used for infection. The plots corresponding to overall MFI (MFI/cell), number of Foci (Foci/cell) and cytosolic to nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) of U2 snRNA are shown here. Each dot represents a field analyzed, and an average of a hundred cells are quantified. The p-values is from one-way ANOVA.

C) Representative images for RNA FISH against U5 snRNA in THP-1 macrophages upon Mtb infection 24- and 48-hrs post-infection. The U5 snRNA probe was labelled with Alexa 488 (green), the nucleus was stained with DAPI (blue) and mCherry-expressing H37Rv (red) was used for infection. The plots corresponding to overall MFI (MFI/cell), number of Foci (Foci/cell) and cytosolic to nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) of U5 snRNA are shown here. Each dot represents a field analyzed, an average of a hundred cells are quantified, and p values are from one-way ANOVA.

D) Direct interaction between H37Rv (red) and U5snRNA at 24- and 48-hrs post-infection. For the plot at the right, the number of U5snRNA puncta within 0.2 microns from H37Rv surface was counted, p values from one-way ANOVA. Representative images for colocalization of Sm core protein SNRPF (green) to the H37Rv phagosome (red). The 3D reconstruction and spot analysis are done as previously described.

E) Expression of U5 snRNA in THP-1 macrophages, 12 and 48 hpi with H37Rv. Data from three independent biological experiments.

F) Immunoblot showing SNRPF protein expression in the whole cell lysates of uninfected (UI) and H37Rv-infected THP-1 macrophages, 48 hpi. Data is representative of two independent biological experiments.

Figure 5: Role of H37Rv hsr1 protein in snRNP biogenesis and altering host RNA splicing.

A) Q-PCR for the target transcripts as mentioned after infection with H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1* and H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT* strain. Data from three biological replicates (N=3), *p<0.05, **p<0.01 (one-way ANOVA).

B) Clustergram of RNAseq data obtained from uninfected, or THP1 macrophages infected with H37Rv or H37Rv*Δhsr1* strains. Transcripts showing an infection-dependent increase (red box), hsr1-triggered increase (purple) or hsr1-blocked transcripts (turquoise) are shown. The distribution of different transcript biotypes across the three groups is shown in the aligned plot towards the right.

C) Representative image for the U5snRNA FISH in THP-1 macrophages infected with WT H37Rv or H37Rv*Δhsr1* strains. The plots at the right show the cytosolic to nuclear ratio and the ratio of interacting to non-interacting U5snRNA with WT H37Rv or H37Rv*Δhsr1*. **p<0.01 (one-way ANOVA).

D) Representative images of SNRPF staining in THP-1 macrophages infected with WT H37Rv or H37Rv*Δhsr1* strains. For the plot at the right, the number of SNRPF puncta within 0.2 microns from the H37Rv surface was counted as interacting and shows the ratio of interacting to non-interacting SNRPF with WT H37Rv or H37Rv*Δhsr1*. *p<0.05 (one-way ANOVA).

E) Representative images of THP1-macrophages stained with DAPI (nucleus) and Rv1435c antisera (green) upon infection with WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1,* H37Rv*ΔCE* and H37Rv*ΔCE::WT* and H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT.* Images are representative of two independent biological experiments. Scale bar-2 μm.

F) Expression of truncated isoform as indicated upon infection with WT H37Rv, H37Rv*ΔCE* and H37Rv*ΔCE::WT* at 48hpi from three biologically independent experiments. The p values are from One-way ANOVA.

Figure 6: Regulation of host alternative splicing as a virulence mechanism

A) THP-1 macrophages were infected with WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1,* H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT* strains. At 48 hours post-infection, bacterial load was examined using CFU plating. Data represent fold change in CFU at 48 hrs compared to 0 hr post-infection. (N=3), p values are from one-way ANOVA.

B) BALB/C mice (6-8 weeks old) were infected with 200 CFU of WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1,* H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT* in separate experiments. At 2- and 4 weeks post-infection, bacterial load in the lungs of the animals were determined by CFU plating. P values are from one-way ANOVA.

C) The 4 week post-infection lung tissue sections of WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1,* H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT* were stained with DAPI (nucleus) and SNRPF. Scale bar: 20 μm

D) Human intestinal tuberculosis granulomatous lesions were stained with SNRPF. The arrows indicate multinucleated giant cells with intense staining for cytosolic SNRPF. Black arrows show areas of intense SNRPF staining in the granulomas and in the giant cells.

E) RNAseq data from the monocytes of pulmonary TB cases (N=20) and healthy contacts (N=19) was analyzed for expression of differential alternatively spliced transcripts. Genes belonging to the indicated functional classes were selected for the cluster analysis. Cluster 1 in each case shows transcripts upregulated in PTB cases.

F) For each of the functional classes shown in Fig. 6D, the relative distribution of transcript biotypes (as indicated) is plotted and binned separately for those that were up- (cluster 1, red) or down- (cluster 2, blue) regulated in PTB cases.

G) The transcripts from the list of genes in the immune response class (Fig. 6D) were further analyzed for their length with respect to the longest encoded isoform of the corresponding gene. Only genes with more than one transcript in the list were chosen for this analysis. The red dotted line separates cluster 1 and cluster 2 transcripts. Transcripts of DYSF and RNASET2 are present in both clusters.

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Figure 1

Figure 3

Figure 5

Figure 6

1 **Supplementary information for the manuscript:**

2 **A *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* secreted virulence factor disrupts host**
3 **snRNP biogenesis**
4
5 Chauhan, K et al.
6
Supplementary methods
Supplementary Figures and Legends to Figures S1-S9
Supplementary tables S1-S9

Ethics statement: Studies on human samples were approved by the IEC of AIIMS, New Delhi

(Ref no. IEC-304/02-06-2017). For animal experiments, approval was obtained from the

Institutional Animal Ethics Committee, ICGEB, New Delhi (ICGEB/IAEC/22092022/CI-28).

Biological materials: Tissue sections from Intestinal TB biopsy samples used in the

study were obtained from the Department of Pathology, AIIMS, New Delhi. Access to

these materials is subject to institutional guidelines. **Clinical diagnosis of ITB subjects:**

The diagnoses depend on clinical features of nocturnal fever, weight loss, diarrhoea, and

radiological suspicion of short-segment bowel thickenings, narrowed ileocaecal region,

significant mesenteric lymphadenopathy, and/or necrosis. In such cases, an intestinal biopsy is

taken, or a segment of the intestine is resected if there is a feature of intestinal obstruction due

to fibrosis. All our cases underwent intestinal resection. Histological examination is critical in

such cases, and demonstration of large, confluent, multiple, necrotic granulomas with

multinucleated giant cells in deeper layers of the intestine are suggestive of ITB, as we have

demonstrated in our cases. ZN stain has a very low sensitivity, varying from 5-10%. Such cases

are confirmed by either the Gene-Xpert test, Mycobacterial culture, or where such tests are not

possible, by ATT trial followed by re-evaluation at two months and six months. All our cases

underwent either a *Mycobacterial* culture or a gene-Xpert test.

Antibodies and reagents

The antibodies used in the immunofluorescence experiments were as follows: POLR2G

(#NBP2-47329), RBP8 (#NBP2-93995), SNRPD2 (#NBP2-95236), SNRPF(#NBP1-57463),

LSm7 (#NBP1-92084), Gemin3 (#NBP2-52454) and Gemin8(#NBP1-83925) from Novus

biologicals. SF1(#A303-213A), PRPF4B(#A301-665A), SNRP200(#A303-453A),

DDX23(#A300-693A) from Bethyl Laboratories were used. PKH26 red and PKH67 green

fluorescent labelling dyes were used from Sigma-Aldrich. The spliceosome complex pull-

down was done using an anti-SNRPB antibody (Y-12, MA513449). The antibodies used in

immune-blotting experiments were as follows DHX8 (bethyl laboratories; A300-624A),

tubulin (Abcam plc; ab6046), histone (Abcam plc; ab18521), IRDye 800CW Goat anti-mouse

IgG secondary antibody (LI-COR Biosciences)and IRDye 680RD goat anti-rabbit IgG

secondary antibody(LI-COR Biosciences). The co-immunoprecipitation was done using

EZView Red Anti-HA affinity gel (E6779), Anti-FLAG M2 Affinity gel (A2220) and

immunoblots were detected using Anti-HA antibody, Mouse monoclonal (H3663) and

Monoclonal Anti-FLAG M2 antibody mouse (F1804) from Sigma-Aldrich. Bio-11-UTP

(#AM8450) from Invitrogen was used for *in-vitro* splicing assays.

Cell culture

Mammalian cells: THP1 monocytes (ATCC) were maintained in RPMI 1640 media (Cell

Clone), and HEK293T cells (ATCC) were maintained in DMEM media (Cell Clone). Cells

were grown at 37°C with a 5% CO2 atmosphere. All the media was supplemented with 10%

fetal bovine serum. HEK293T cells were transfected with plasmids at a 30-50% confluency

using jetPRIME buffer (Polyplus #712-60) as per manufacturer protocol. The siRNA was

transfected using the Dharmafect reagent. HEK293T constitutively expressing PRINT plasmid

was selected in the presence of blasticidin (Gibco) 20 μg/ml concentration.

Bacterial Cells: *M. tuberculosis H37Rv*, *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 and mutant strains were grown

at 37°C to log phase in Middlebrook 7H9 media with 0.05% Tween80, 10% ADC Enrichment,

and 0.2% glycerol. Plasmids were selected with 50 mg/ml kanamycin or hygromycin

depending upon the resistance marker.

Infection

THP-1 cells were activated into macrophages by treatment with 32 nM PMA (Sigma) for 24

hours, followed by another 24 hours for recovery. The THP-1-derived macrophages were

infected with *Mtb* strains at an MOI of 10 for 4 hours, followed by 2 hours of amikacin (200

μg/μl) treatment. *M. smegmatis* infection was performed at an MOI of 10 for 1 hour, followed

by 2 hours of amikacin treatment. Amikacin treatment clears all the extracellular bacteria,

which are washed following the treatment, and this time point is considered as 0 hours of

infection throughout the manuscript.

RNA isolation and qPCR

RNA was isolated at indicated time points using MDI mammalian Total RNA isolation kit (MTRK250) as per the manufacturer's protocol. The RNA was quantified using a nanodrop spectrophotometer. 1000ng RNA was used to make cDNA using the Iscript cDNA synthesis kit (BioRad #170-8891), and 2 µl of 1:5 diluted cDNA was used to set qPCR on the BioRad CFX384 well plate qPCR machine. Primers were custom synthesized from Sigma Aldrich Chemicals Ltd.

Transformation of yeast cell

The yeast competent cells were prepared by harvesting yeast cells by centrifugation at 400 rpm for 5 min at 25 °C. The supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was washed and resuspended in filter-sterilized SORB buffer (100 mM Lithium acetate, 100 mM Tris HCl, pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0, 1 M sorbitol pH 8.0) to which denatured salmon sperm DNA was added (10 mg/ml). The bait (pGBDKT7 vector) plasmids were mixed gently with the Y187 competent cells. Then PEG mixture was added and incubated at 30 °C for 30 min, 42 °C for 30 min and 4 °C for 30 min in a thermocycler machine. Tubes were taken out and plated on 15 cm diameter SC-TRP plates (Cat No. Clonetech 630413). Plates were incubated at 30°C for 2 to 7 days. A similar protocol was used for the prey (pGADT7 vector) plasmid in the AH109 yeast strain on SC-Leu medium (Cat No. Clonetech 630414).

Y2H assay between bait and prey libraries

The bait library was prepared by plating the Y187 yeast strain (bait) transformed with Mtb proteins in 384 well patterns on the Singer Robot Plate. The AH109 (prey) yeast strain transformed with host spliceosome protein was grown in SC-leu broth medium and equally plated on a robotic compatible square plate. Using 384 pinned robotic pad bait libraries were patched on another YAPD plate. Each plate was then patched with individual cells containing prey plasmid and mixed well using the robotic system. This step was performed 4 times as four independent mating steps, thereby making it a total of 1536 spots per plate. The plate containing mixed colonies was kept for mating of both strains at 30 °C for 36 hours. After 36 hours these colonies were selected on SC-Trp-Leu (Cat No. Clonetech 630417) plates for the selection of those cells which contain both plasmids (bait as well as prey). After 72 hours these plates were replicated on SC-Trp-Leu-His (3 drops-out, Clonejet 630419) and SC-Trp-Leu-His-Ade (4 drop-outs, Clonetech 630428) for the screening of interaction between the protein which was

94 fused with bait and prey respectively. The colonies that appear on both 3-DO and 4-DO plates
95 represented very specific and strong interactions between the bait and prey proteins.

Co-immunoprecipitation and Immunoblotting

The cells were lysed using a non-denaturing IP lysis Buffer (20 mM Tris-Cl, 137 mM NaCl, 2
mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 1% NP-40, pH 8) and centrifuged at 14000 rpm for 10 min at 4 °C.
The supernatant was precleared using IgG beads, and 300 μg of protein was used for IP. The
IP was performed using FLAG-tagged beads (Sigma) and HA-tagged beads (Sigma) at 4 °C
for 4 hours, followed by three washes with IP buffer. The beads were then boiled in 2X SDS
loading dye. The protein samples were subjected to SDS PAGE followed by transfer on
nitrocellulose membrane (BioRad) using BioRad Turbo transfer blot. The blocking was
performed by Odessey blocking buffer (LI-COR Biosciences) in 1:1 dilution with 1X PBS at
room temperature. The blots were immunoblotted with primary antibodies, followed by IR-
tagged secondary antibodies (LI-COR Biosciences). Blot imaging was done using Odessey IR
Imaging System (LI-COR Biosciences).

Immunofluorescence

For immunofluorescence experiments, ~0.2x 10^6 cells were plated on 12 mm coverslips per
well in a 24- well plate. Cells were infected with m-cherry expressing *Mtb*, and other strains
were labelled with PKH67 fluorescent dye (Sigma). The cells were fixed using 4% v/v
paraformaldehyde for 20 min at room temperature for indicated time points. The cells were
incubated with blocking buffer (0.02% Triton-X100, 3% w/v BSA in 1XPBS) for 1 hour. The
cells were washed thrice with 1X PBST and incubated with primary antibodies for 3 hours.
The cells were washed thrice with 1XPBST and incubated with secondary Alexa Flour (488,
555, 590 or 670nm) tagged antibodies (Invitrogen). The nucleus was stained using DAPI (300
nM) for 10 min. The cells were mounted on slides with Pro-Long Gold antifade reagents (Life
Technologies). All the incubation and staining were done at room temperature. Images were
acquired by NIS-Elements software using the Nikon A1R laser scanning confocal microscope
equipped with a Nikon Plan Apo VC ×20, NA 0.75, and Plan Apo VC ×100 oil, NA 1.40
objectives were used. Serial confocal sections, 0.5 μm thick, were acquired with a z-stack
spanning 10–15 μm to form a composite image. Images were analysed using Imaris 9.6.6
imaging software using several tools like deconvolution, 3D-reconstruction and shortest
distance calculation amongst others, NIS-Elements and image J software.

Fluorescent reporter splicing assay using flow cytometry

For Flow cytometry experiments, ~0.5 x 10^6 HEK293T cells constitutively expressing pRINT

vector (Addgene plasmid # 24218) were plated on 12 well plates. These were co-transfected

with 800ng of modified pGINT vector (Addgene plasmid # 24217) with exon skipping cassette

and *Mtb* protein-expressing vectors at a ratio of 1:1 using jetPRIME buffer. The cells were

fixed using 4% v/v paraformaldehyde in 1X PBS for 20 minutes at room temperature. Then,

the cells were scraped and resuspended in 1X PBS. The data were acquired using BD

FACSDiva acquisition software in BD FACS Fortussa cytometer (BD).

Spliceosome complex Co-IP

For the pulldown experiment, ~200 million THP-1 derived macrophages were infected with

H37Rv at an MOI of 10 and samples were processed 48-hour post-infection. The nuclear and

cytoplasmic extract was prepared using the Active Motif Nuclear Complex Co-IP kit

(catalogue No.54001) per the manufacturer's guidelines. The nuclear extract and cytoplasmic

extract were passed through a 0.2-micron filter. 500 μg of nuclear extract and cytoplasmic

extracts were used for pulldown using 10 μg Y-12 antibody (MA5-13449, Thermo Fisher) or

IgG-control (Sigma) antibody for each condition. The Y-12 antibody was crosslinked using

DMP (20 mM) to Protein A-Sepharose beads for 1 hour (beads were washed prior with 0.2 M

sodium borate, pH 9.0) followed by 0.2 M ethanolamine incubation for 1 hour at room

temperature. The Nuclear and Cytosolic extracts were then incubated with crosslinked beads

overnight at 4 °C. The beads were washed thrice with wash buffer (0.025 M Tris, 0.15 M NaCl,

pH 7.2). The protein was finally eluted in 50 μl of an elution buffer containing primary amine

pH 2.8. To neutralize the low pH of the elution buffer, 1 M Tris (pH 9.5) was added to the

collection tube.

Mass Spectrometric Data analysis for pulled down spliceosome complex

Sample Preparation- An equal volume of eluted protein sample (50ul) was used for digestion

and reduced with 5 mM TCEP and further alkylated with 50 mM iodoacetamide and then

digested with Trypsin (1:50, Trypsin/lysate ratio) for 16 h at 37 °C. Digests were cleaned using

a C18 silica cartridge to remove the salt and dried using a speed vac. The dried pellet was

resuspended in buffer A (2% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid). An equal amount of peptide (1ug)

was injected into the analytical column. *Mass Spectrometric Analysis of Peptide Mixtures*- All

the experiments were performed using EASY-nLC 1000 system (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

coupled to Thermo Fisher-QExactive plus equipped with nano electrospray ion source. 1ug

peptide was loaded on C18 column 50 cm, 3.0μm Easy-spray column (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) at column heating temp 40 C. Peptides were eluted with a 0–40% gradient of buffer

B (80% acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid) at a flow rate of 300 nl/min) and injected for MS

analysis. LC gradients were run for 90 minutes MS1 spectra were acquired in the Orbitrap

(Max IT = 50ms, AGC target = 3e6; R=70K, mass range = 350-1750; Profile data). Dynamic

exclusion was employed for 30s excluding all charge states for a given precursor. MS2 spectra

were collected for top 15 peptides. MS2 (Max IT= 100ms, R= 17.5K, AGC target 1e5). *Data*

Processing- All samples were processed and RAW files generated were analysed with

Proteome Discoverer (v2.2) against the Uniprot Human database. For dual Sequest and

Amanda search, the precursor and fragment mass tolerances were set at 10 ppm and 0.5 Da,

respectively. The protease used to generate peptides, i.e. enzyme specificity was set for

trypsin/P (cleavage at the C terminus of "K/R: unless followed by "P"). Carbamidomethyl on

cysteine as fixed modification and oxidation of methionine, N-terminal acetylation were

considered as variable modifications for database search. Both peptide spectrum match and

protein false discovery rate were set to 0.01 FDR. Only statistically significant proteins (Using

ANNOVA p-value cut off 0.05) that were found in all three biological replicates across and in

all experimental groups were used to generate heatmap and for further analysis.

Splicing competent nuclear extract preparation

For the *in-vitro* splicing assay, the splicing-competent nuclear extract was prepared from THP-

1 macrophages. The cells were gently scraped, washed with 1X PBS and centrifuged at 1000

rpm for 10 min. The pellet was washed with 5X PCV (packed cell volume) of hypotonic buffer

(10 mM HEPES, 1.5 mM MgOAc, 10 mM KOAc, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.2 mM PMSF) and

centrifuged at 1850 g for 10 min. The cell pellet was incubated in 3X PCV of hypotonic buffer

on ice for 60 min, then douncing for 50-150 plunges. Cell lysis was confirmed using trypan

blue, and the lysate was centrifuged at 3300 g for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was stored

as cytoplasmic extract and the nuclear pellet was resuspended in 0.5X PNV (packed nuclear

volume) of Low salt buffer (20 mM HEPES, 1.5 mM MgOAc, 0.02 mM KOAc, 0.2 mM

EDTA, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.2 mM PMSF, 25% glycerol). An equal volume of high salt buffer (20

mM HEPES, 1.5 mM MgOAc, 1.2 M KOAc, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.2 mM PMSF, 25% glycerol)

was added in a drop-wise manner while continuous stirring on ice for 30 minutes. It was then

centrifuged at 25000g for 30 min. The supernatant was collected, aliquoted and stored at -80

°C. These aliquots were used for *in-vitro* splicing reactions. Preparation of splicing-competent

extract was confirmed by immunoblotting for Histone H3 and tubulin.

In-vitro splicing assay

Unique exons from the alternatively spliced isoforms were selected for cloning the minigenes. The entire native intronic sequence was amplified from THP-1 genomic DNA and cloned in the pcDNA3.1 vector under the T7 promoter. These minigenes were used for T7 run-off transcription in the presence of Biotin-UTP using MEGAscript® T7 Kit as per the manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Fisher). For the splicing reaction, one µg of biotinylated *in vitro* transcribed mRNA was added to the 50 µg of nuclear extracts in splicing buffer (Creatine Phosphate 20 mM, 3.2 mM MgOAc, 1 mM DTT, 72 mM KOAc, 12 mM HEPES, 1 mM ATP). The splicing reaction was incubated at 30°C. The biotinylated RNA was isolated using Dynabeads™ M-270 Streptavidin (65305), followed by proteinase K digestion from the splicing reaction using a Qiagen RNA isolation kit. The primers designed from the flanking exons were used to perform a one-step RT-PCR reaction (Qiagen). Splicing events were observed by running the PCR products on Agilent Tape Station 3000. A list of all primers used in the study is provided in Table S9.

RNA FISH

RNA-fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (RNA FISH) was performed using previously described snRNA probes [1]. The sequences of the oligonucleotides used for FISH were as follows: U2 snRNA, 5′-GAA CAG ATA CTA CAC TTG ATC TTA GCC AAA AGG CCG AGA AGC-3′; U5 snRNA, 5′-CTC TCC ACG GAA ATC TTT AGT AAA AGG CGA AAG ATT TAT ACG ATT TGA AGA G-3′; The U2 snRNA and U5 snRNA probes were labelled with Alexa Fluor 488 and Alexa Flour 647 (Invitrogen) respectively at their 5' end. Next, the cells were fixed with 4% v/v paraformaldehyde for 20 min at room temperature. Next, cells were permeabilized and incubated with RNA-FISH probes for three hours at 40 °C by using the ViewRNA™ ISH Cell Assay Kit system (Thermo Fischer). Subsequently, cells were immune-stained and mounted using a Pro-Long gold antifade (Life technologies).

Bacterial transformations

For the generation of *M. smegmatis* mutants expressing *H37Rv* proteins, 50 ml of an early exponential phase culture of *M. smegmatis* mc^{2}155 was washed twice and concentrated ice-cold 10% ultrapure glycerol (Invitrogen). Concentrated cells were electroporated with approximately 10 µg of pNit plasmid. Electroporation was carried out at 2500 V, 25 µF, and 1000 Ω in the Biorad gene pulsar. Electroporated cells were allowed to recover at 37 °C in 7H9

222 Middlebrook broth and plated on 7H11 supplemented with 10% OADC and kanamycin (25
223 µg/ml; Sigma).

Mtb survival assay

For CFU experiments, ~0.01 million THP-1 macrophages were seeded in a 96-well plate and
Mtb infection was done at an MOI of 10. The lysis was done by incubating with 0.06% SDS
for 5 min at indicated time points. The lysed cells were diluted to 1:10 and 1:50 in 7H9 media
and 10 µl of the dilutions were plated in a drop-wise fashion on a 7H11 plate supplemented
with 10% OADC. The plates were incubated for approximately around 3 weeks for colony
enumeration at 37 °C.

Expression and purification of recombinant proteins

The Mtb proteins were cloned in the pEZY19 vector and transformed into E. coli BL21(DE3)
competent. Protein expression was induced with 0.1 mM isopropyl b-D-1-
thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) for 16-19 hours. Collected frozen cells were lysed in a lysis
Buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH. 8.0 containing 300 mM NaCl,10% Glycerol, 1mm DTT, 1mm
PMSF,1mm BHCL,0.1% Triton X-100, 10mM imidazole and lysozyme 1mg/ml) followed by
sonication (0.5 s pulse and 0.9 s rest) at 2 min intervals to prevent overheating. After
centrifugation, the proteins were purified from the supernatant using nickel-nitrilotriacetic acid
(Ni-NTA) affinity chromatography (Cat. No.- 30410, Sigma). The recombinant proteins were
eluted from Ni-NTA resins by elution buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH. 8.0 and 300 mM NaCl)
containing 300mm Imidazole. The purified protein was concentrated using 10Kda Centricon
(ACS501024, Millipore) subjected to gel permeation chromatography on GE Healthcare
Superdex 75 Increase 10/300 GL where the monomeric fraction of the protein was eluted. The
final protein was stored in 50 mM Tris-HCl pH. 8.0 containing 300 mM NaCl,10% Glycerol
buffer at -80˚C.
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BALB/c aerosol challenge

All mice experiments were carried out in the Tuberculosis Aerosol Challenge Facility (TACF,
ICGEB, New Delhi, India). BALB/c mice have been housed in individually ventilated cages
contained within the biosafety level 3 enclosure. The animal holding area of the BSL3 lab is
maintained at 20–25 °C, 30–60% humidity and 12–12 h of the light–dark cycle. An aerosol
challenge of ~100 CFUs was given to the animals in a Wisconsin–Madison chamber according
to the standardized protocol in the TACF facility. Two animals were selected randomly and

humanely euthanized 24 h post aerosol challenge to check for infection establishment. The
lungs and spleen tissues were harvested and homogenized to enumerate CFU. Tissue lysates
were serially diluted and plated on Petri plates containing Middlebrook 7H11 agar (Difco)
supplemented with 10% OADC (Becton, Dickinson) and 0.5% glycerol.
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RNA-Seq analysis
Reads were quality filtered using Trimmomatic (v.0.39, LEADING:10 TRAILING:10
SLIDING WINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:75) [2] and were assessed for quality using FastQC (v.10.1)
[3] and visualised with MultiQC (v.1.9)[4]. Salmon (v.1.8, –numGibbsSamples 30) [5] was used to
quantify quality filtered reads against the human genome (GRCh38, primary assembly) with
Gencode annotation (v.40) [6]. Profiles were imported using tximeta (v.1.10) [7] and [8] (v.1.22) and
filtered to retain all transcripts from only protein-coding genes. Statistical analysis was done
using swish methodology from fishpond (v.1.8) [9] and significantly differentially expressed
transcripts (DETs) were defined based on *qvalue* ≤ 0.1. Furthermore, Isoform usage was
analysed using IsoformSwitchAnalyzeR (v.1.18) [10] with reduceToSwitchingGenes = FALSE,
reduceFurtherToGenesWithConsequencePotential = FALSE, No dIFcutoff and Isoform
fraction cuffoff. Heatmap of the DETs was generated with [11] using mean z-scaled normalised
scaled TPM values and clustered based on Euclidean distance and Ward.D2 methodology.
Clusters were defined manually. Enrichment analysis was done separately on overexpressed
and repressed DETs from each pairwise comparisons using enrichR (v.3.0) [12] with KEGG
Human 2021 and Gene Ontology (GO) [13] (Biological Process (BP), Cellular Component (CC)
and Molecular Function (MF)) 2021 database figures were generated using ggplot2 (v.3.3.5)
[14]. Analyses were done in R statistical software environment (v.4.1) [15].
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Generation of Rv1435c mutant
Rv1435c mutant was generated using recombineering methodology which requires an Allelic
exchange substrate [16]. To construct that, 836bp upstream (LHS) and 1Kb downstream (RHS)
regions of the *Rv1435c* locus (retaining ~170 bp of the gene at both ends) were amplified from
Mtb (*H37Rv* genome) with the help of primers having appropriate restriction endonuclease sites
(LHS-DraIII; RHS-SfiI). The flanks were then digested and ligated with other two fragments-
Hygromycin resistant cassette and *oriE*+cosλ with compatible ends to create a four-piece AES.
The latter was then digested with SnaBI sites to release the linearised fragment consisting of
LHS-*Hyg*r-RHS and electroporated into recombineering proficient *Rv::pNitET* (Kanr) strain
that overexpresses RecET recombinases upon over-expression using Isovaleronitrile. Mutant

colonies were analysed using different primer sets to confirm legitimate recombination at the

required locus and cured of the pNitET plasmid by negative selection on 2% sucrose-containing

7H11-hyg[r] agar plates.

Primers used:

Rv1435c 5' Flank forward primer with DraIII & SnaBI site:

5'CACCTTTTCACAAAGTGTACGTACGTGGTGCACGACGCATTGGA 3'

Rv1435c 5' Flank reverse primer with DraIII site:

5' TTTTTTTTCACTTCGTGCGCCGGCGGCTACCGGCGCGT 3'

Rv1435c 3' Flank forward primer with SfiI site:

5' CACCTTTTGGCCTAGATGGCCGGGCCGGTCCTGGCTGGTGCT 3'

rv1435c 3' Flank reverse primer with SfiI site and SnaB1 site:

5' TTTTTTTTGGCCACTTAGGCCTACGTAGGGATCGCTGGGAGCGTGGTT 3'

Generation of Rv1435c complementation construct pSCW-F-Rv1435c

Rv1435c was cloned along with its native promoter (500bp upstream of the gene) between ScaI

and HindIII sites using an integrative vector, pSCW-F (C-terminal 3X FLAG tag), which

facilitates the integration of the gene at Tweety attP sites in the *Mtb* genome.

Primers used:

FP *Rv1435c* (with UPSTREAM 500bp) ScaI

5' FP : 5' CACCAGTACTATGCGCCAGCGTGCTGTTG 3'

RP *Rv1435c* HindIII, w/o stop codon

5'TTTTAAGCTTGCGCGCACCTGCGGGC 3'

Immunohistochemical staining: The paraffin-embedded specimens were cut into 4–5 μm-

thick sections, deparaffinized in xylene for 5–10 min, and dehydrated through a series of graded

alcohols (100%, 100%, 95% and 80%). Tissue sections were boiled at 100°C for 30 min in

10mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0), followed by cooling and treatment with blocking solution (100%

methanol containing 0.3% H_2O_2) for 30 min to block any endogenous peroxidase activity. They

were incubated with SNRPF or SNRPD2 primary antibody (1:600, pH 9) overnight at 4°C,

followed by incubation with secondary antibody (Ultra trek anti polyvalent kit with HRP

conjugated secondary kit, Scy Tek Laboratories, Logan, USA) for 30 mins at room

temperature. The slides were thereafter stained with 3,3′-Diaminobenzidine (DAB). Finally,

the sections were counterstained with Hematoxylin and Eosin and observed under a

microscope. **Interpretation of IHC results:** SNRPF staining in >10% of cells was considered
positive. Both cytoplasmic and nuclear staining were looked for. The spatial distribution of the
stained sections, in terms of granulomas areas and areas away from granulomas, were noted
down to identify polarization of staining, if any.
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327   **Legends to Figures S1-S9:**

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Figure S1: Mycobacterial secretory proteins and host spliceosome proteins interactome.

A) The Venn diagrams show the overlap of Mtb secretory proteins present in the bait library with the secretory Mtb proteins identified in other studies.

B) The percentage of Mtb proteins in the Y2H bait library belongs to the different functional classifications.

C) The percentage of the interaction shown by spliceosome-related proteins belonging to different spliceosome protein categories

D) The percentage of the interacting Mtb proteins belonging to the different functional classifications.

Gene	No. of isoform in Y2H	Interacting transcript	Interaction
SNRP40	2	0	No
PQBP1	2	0	No
NCBP2	2	0	No
POLR2H	4	4	19/10/4/1
SF3B1	2	0	No
SYF2	2	2	2 (Rv1643, Rv2927c)
DCAF4	2	1	2 (Rv1643, Rv2927c)
SNRPD2	2	1	16 (Rv1643, Rv2927c, Rv1566c)
LSm7	2	1	26 (Rv3864, Rv1643, Rv2927c, Rv1566c)
LSm4	2	0	No
SNRPG	3	0	No
RBPMS	2	0	No
SF1	3	0	No
CSTF	2	0	No
LUC7L2	2	1	4 (Rv1643, Rv2927c)
RBMX	2	1	8 (Rv3849)
U2AF1	3	1	2 (Rv1643, Rv2927c)
PPIH	3	1	1

Loss of one exon, Identical Interactions	SYF2	identical 2 interactions
Mutually exclusive exons, Loss of interaction in one isoform	LUC7L2	4 interactions
	U2AF1	2 interaction
Loss of one exon, Loss of interaction in shorter isoform	DCAF4	2 interactions
	PPIH	1 interaction
Loss of one functional domain due to AS, Multiple interaction for truncated variant	SNRPD2	16 interactions for the truncated variant
	LSm7	26 interactions for the truncated variant
	RBMX	8 interactions for the truncated variant
Multiple isoforms interact, Shorter transcripts, more interactions	POLR2H	19 interactions
		10 interactions
		4 interactions
		1 interaction

Figure S2: Interaction of Mtb proteins with the splice variants of human proteins.
A) A descriptive list of the interactions between the human spliceosome protein
isoforms and the corresponding Mtb protein is presented in the table.
B) The table shows the distinct spliced mRNA isoforms that are classified as loss of
exon, mutually exclusive exon and loss of the functional domain. The isoforms of
SYF2, differing by only one exon, show interaction with the same Mtb proteins,
suggesting no contribution of alternatively spliced exons towards interaction. Only
one of the isoforms of genes which show exon skipping like DCAF4 and PPIH or
mutually exclusive exons like U2AF1 and LUC7L2 showed interaction with any
Mtb proteins suggesting the involvement of alternative exons in the interactions.
The truncated isoforms of SNRPD2, LSm7 and RBMX show a loss of functional
domains and multiple interactions with Mtb proteins while the longer isoforms for
these genes did not show any interactions. Similarly, the truncated isoforms of
POLR2H show more interactions.
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Figure S3

Figure S3: *In vitro* **splicing assays point to a direct role of** *Mtb* **proteins in regulating host-RNA splicing.**

A) The schematic shows the primer design strategy for exon-inclusion, exon-exclusion and exon-junction primers.

B) Expression of five target genes (as indicated) in THP-1 macrophages upon infection with H37Rv using exon exclusion primers at 48 hpi. Data from three independent biological experiments.

C) Expression of five target genes (as indicated) in THP-1 macrophages upon infection with H37Rv using exon inclusion primers at 48 hpi. Data from three independent biological experiments.

D) Expression of five target genes (as indicated) in THP-1 macrophages upon infection with H37Rv using exon junction primers at 48 hpi. Data from three independent biological experiments.

E) The schematic flow chart for In vitro splicing assay. The splicing-competent nuclear extract (NE) and biotin-labelled substrate are used for the reaction. The spliced products are amplified by one-step RT PCR.

F) The splice products for minigene cassettes of *ACADVL, DDX11, DDX42* and *ACSL1* are analyzed on the Agilent tape station 3000.

G) His tagged *Mtb* protein Rv1566c, Rv0360, Rv1471 and Rv3867 are purified using Ni-NTA affinity and size exclusion chromatography for *in vitro* splicing assay and confirmed using immunoblotting.

Figure S4: Mycobacterial proteins can influence RNA splicing during infection.

A) The M. smegmatis strains expressing the Mtb proteins identified through Y2H and spliceosome pulldown are used for infecting THP-1 macrophages followed by qPCR for truncated isoforms of *ACADVL, DDX11, DDX42, ACSL1* and *NFYA*. The plot represents the groups in the following order: Uninfected, M. smegmatis WT, M. smegmatis IVN induced, *M. smegmatis::Rv* uninduced, *M. smegmatis::Rv* 2.5μM IVN induced and *M. smegmatis::Rv* 5μM IVN induced. Each dot represents a different strain used for infection. The strains showing more than 2-fold increase in expression of truncated transcripts (dotted line) uniquely upon IVN induction are labelled.

B) Expression of five target genes (as indicated) in THP-1 macrophages upon infection with Rv1390 and Rv3849 expressing M. smegmatis strains. The plot represents the groups in the following order: Uninfected, M. smegmatis WT, M. smegmatis IVN induced, *M. smegmatis::Rv* uninduced, *M. smegmatis::Rv* 2.5μM IVN induced and *M. smegmatis::Rv* 5μM IVN induced. Each dot represents an independent biological replicate.

C) The protein expression in modified *M. smegmatis* strains expressing Rv1566c, Rv1435c and Rv1643 upon induction with 2.5μM and 5 μM IVN was checked by immunoblotting in whole cell lysate and culture supernatant (SN). As control, the modified *M. smegmatis* strains expressing pknB were also induced with IVN and its expression in the supernatant or whole cell lysate was measured by immunoblotting.

D) The plot represents the expression of truncated isoforms of *ACADVL, DDX11, DDX42, ACSL1* and *NFYA* upon infection with *pNit*-transfected *M. smegmatis* (vector control) or those where *M. smegmatis::Rv* lines without IVN-induction were used for infection. The p values are from One-way ANOVA.

Figure S5: Mycobacterial secretory proteins and host spliceosome proteins interactome.

A) The PE MFI in PE$^+$ FITC$^+$ dual positive population for each indicated reporter construct in the presence of indicated mycobacterial protein or vector controls. Each dot represents an independent biological replicate (N=3)

B) Co-immunoprecipitation assays to test the physical interactions between indicated pairs of *Mtb* proteins (FLAG-tagged) and host proteins (HA-tagged) in HEK293T cells.

C) The 3-dropout and 4-dropout plates for reverse Y2H showing interaction for two pairs: Rv1435c (in AD vector) and two human splicing-related proteins PRPF18 and MFAP1 (in BD vector).

D) In-vitro splicing assay in the presence of purified Mtb proteins Rv1435c, Rv1566c and Rv1643 for ACADVL minigene cassette.

Figure S6: Deletion of Hsr1 does not impact U2 snRNA localization.

    A) Representative image for staining of transcription-related proteins (POLR2G and RBP8).The confocal images were analyzed and three different parameters were plotted- overall MFI (MFI/cell), number of Foci (Foci/cell) and cytosolic to the nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) for SNRPF. Each dot represents a field analyzed, and an average of hundred cells are quantified. Scale bar: 2 μm. The indicated p values are from One-way ANOVA.

    B) Representative image for staining of U4/U5.U6 related protein (PRPF4) and U5 associated protein (SNRP200). Each dot represents a field analyzed, and an average of hundred cells are quantified.

    C) The schematic of knocking out the *Rv1435c* or *hsr1* gene in H37Rv using the recombineering approach. Positive colonies were screened with the F1 (gene forward) & R1 (gene reverse) primer set shown by red arrows

    D) Agarose gel electrophoresis to confirm the replacement of 609bp product (*Rv1435c*) with 1.4Kb hygromycin cassette in the knockout line.

    E) The plots corresponding to overall MFI (MFI/cell), number of Foci (Foci/cell) and cytosolic to nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) of U2 snRNA 48 hpi are shown here.

    F) The plot show cytosolic to the nuclear ratio (Cyt/Nuc) for SNRPF in THP-1 macrophages infected with WT H37Rv, H37RvΔCE and H37RvΔCE::WT at 12hpi and 24 hpi. The indicated p values are from One-way ANOVA.

A

B

Species	Trait	Function
M smegmatis	Non-pathogenic	Translation initiation factor
M kansasii824	opportunistic-pathogenic	Collagen-like protein
M marinum	true-pathogenic	hypothetical membrane protein
M sp. 852002-51057	Unclasssified	Beta-xylosidase
M helveticum	opportunistic-pathogenic	Beta-xylosidase
M sp. 1164966.3	opportunistic-pathogenic	Beta-xylosidase
M paratuberculosis	opportunistic-pathogenic	Beta-xylosidase
M avium	opportunistic-pathogenic	Secreted protein
M sp. MOTT36Y	opportunistic-pathogenic	Small proline-rich protein
M shinjukuense	opportunistic-pathogenic	Beta-xylosidase
M lacus	true-pathogenic	Beta-xylosidase
M tuberculosis	true-pathogenic	proline, glycine, valine-rich secreted protein
M heidelbergense	true-pathogenic	Beta-xylosidase

444   **Figure S7: Hsr1 show dynamic interaction with U5snRNA.**
445   **A)** Multiple sequence alignment of Hsr1 protein in different mycobacterial species
446   using CLUSTAL Omega. The red bar indicates the conserved sequence among
447   different species.
448   **B)** A phylogenetic tree corresponding to the multiple sequence alignment is shown in
449   S6C.
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Figure S8: Regulation of host alternative splicing as a virulence mechanism.

A) The bacterial CFU of WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1* and H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT* strains in THP-1 macrophages at 0hr and 48hr post-infection.

B) The graph showing growth kinetics of WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1* and H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT* strains over the course of 6 days at 37°C to log phase in Middlebrook 7H9 media with 0.05% Tween80, 10% ADC Enrichment, and 0.2% glycerol.

C) The representative image for SEM of WT H37Rv and H37Rv*Δhsr1* and the plot indicate quantification of the bacterial length.

D) The plot shows quantification for staining of cathepsin D in THP1 macrophages infected with WT H37Rv and H37Rv*Δhsr1* at 48hpi. The different parameters plotted show overall MFI (MFI/cell) and the ratio of cathepsin D foci interacting with bacterial phagosomes (int/non-int). Each dot represents a field analyzed, and an average of a hundred cells are quantified. The values represent p-values (One-way ANOVA).

E) The plot shows quantification for staining of SNRPF in WT THP1 macrophages and THP1::SNRPF infected with WT H37Rv at 48hpi. The different parameters plotted show overall MFI (MFI/cell) and the ratio of cytosolic localization (Cyt/Nuc) Each dot represents a field analyzed, and an average of a hundred cells are quantified. The plot on the lower right panel shows the bacterial survival after 48 hours post-infection in both WT THP1 and THP1::SNRPF. Each dot represent an independent biological experiment. Indicated p values represent One-way ANOVA.

F) The plot represents the bacterial survival in WT THP-1 and THP-1::SNRPD2 at 48hr post-infection.

G) Heatmap showing the cytokine levels in the lung homogenates of BALB/c mice after 2 weeks and 4 weeks of infection with WT H37Rv, H37Rv*Δhsr1* and H37Rv*Δhsr1::WT*.

483 **Figure S9: Regulation of host alternative splicing as a virulence mechanism**
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A) Human intestinal tuberculosis granulomatous lesions were stained with SNRPF.
Intense cytosolic staining in multinucleated giant cells (black arrow) is shown.
B) Representative image for IHC staining of SNRPF in gut sections from healthy
controls.
C) Representative image for IHC staining of SNRPD2 in gut sections from healthy
controls and in intestinal tuberculosis granulomatous lesions from diseased
individuals.
D) Heatmap showing comparison of transcripts regulated in THP-1 macrophages upon
H37Rv infection and in the human monocytes from PTB subjects
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500   **Supplemental Tables:**
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Table S1: List of Mtb genes in the bait library (BD library) and human splicing factor coding
transcripts in the prey library (AD library).
Table S2: List of genes included in the BD library as negative controls
Table S3: Yeast-2-hybrid interaction matrix for AD and BD proteins
Table S4: Two-column file for the interaction network shown in Fig 1B.
Table S5: Spliceosome proteins identified in Y-12 pulldown MS analysis
Table S6: RNAseq data from THP-1 macrophages uninfected or infected with WT H37Rv or
H37RvΔhsr1 shown in Fig. 5B.
Table S7: RNAseq data shown in Fig. 6E.
Table S8: Transcripts present in THP-1 RNAseq and human monocyte RNAseq
Table S9: List of primers
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