Title

The cold-inducible RNA-binding protein RBM3 stabilises viral mRNA at cooler temperatures

representative of the upper respiratory tract.

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Abstract

Temperature is a critical determinant of host–pathogen interactions in the respiratory tract, where influenza A virus (IAV) has adapted to the cooler environment of the upper respiratory tract (URT) to enable efficient replication and transmission. The cold-inducible RNA-binding protein RBM3 is highly expressed in nasopharyngeal tissue and is known to stabilise mRNAs under hypothermic conditions; however, its role during viral infection has not been defined.

Here, we identify RBM3 as a key host factor that facilitates IAV replication at sub-physiological temperatures. siRNA-mediated depletion of RBM3 significantly impaired viral replication, while its constitutive overexpression at 37°C restored replication to levels typically observed at 33°C. Mechanistically, RBM3 binds directly to viral nucleoprotein (NP) mRNA, prolongs its half-life, and promotes the formation of cytoplasmic ribonucleoprotein granules. This effect was abolished in an RNA-binding-deficient RBM3 mutant, confirming the requirement for direct RNA interaction. Crucially, this positive regulation of NP mRNA was validated in well-differentiated primary nasal epithelial cells, highlighting the physiological relevance of RBM3 in the human URT.

These results reveal a temperature-sensitive host–virus interaction that promotes IAV replication in the cooler URT, a key site for viral shedding and transmission. By linking environmental temperature, host RNA-binding proteins, and viral mRNA stability, this study uncovers a novel mechanism of respiratory virus adaptation and identifies RBM3 as a potential therapeutic target for limiting early-stage viral replication and transmission.

Author Summary

To establish productive infection and ensure transmission, respiratory viruses such as

influenza A virus (IAV) must adapt to the diverse environments of the human respiratory

tract. One key challenge is the temperature gradient that exists between the upper and

lower respiratory tract. The upper respiratory tract (URT), the main site of viral entry and

transmission, maintains a lower physiological temperature (~33°C) than the lower

respiratory tract (~37°C), creating a distinct cellular environment. In this study, we

investigated how this cooler URT temperature alters the landscape of RNA-binding proteins

(RBPs), which play a central role in regulating gene expression after transcription. Using

mass spectrometry-based profiling and molecular virology approaches, we identified a cold-

inducible RBP, RBM3, as significantly enriched at 33°C and acting as a key host factor during

IAV infection. We show that RBM3 binds directly to viral nucleoprotein (NP) mRNA,

promoting its stability and forming cytoplasmic granules that enhance the production of

infectious virions. Importantly, disrupting RBM3's RNA-binding ability abolished this proviral

effect. These findings reveal that RBM3, elevated in the cooler URT environment, directly

supports IAV replication. This work highlights how subtle physiological differences in host

tissue can reshape post-transcriptional regulation and influence the outcome of respiratory

virus infection.

Introduction

Respiratory viruses remain an ever-present pandemic concern, in part due to their efficient airborne mode of transmission [1]. While severe pathology from respiratory viruses such as influenza A virus (IAV) or SARS-CoV-2 is typically associated with replication in the lower respiratory tract (LRT), transmission predominantly occurs via small droplets and aerosols expelled from the upper respiratory tract (URT) [1–4]. Thus, advancing research into the unique cellular environment of the nasopharyngeal epithelium is critical to deepening our understanding of respiratory virus transmission [5] and will ultimately support public health efforts to develop the next generation of nasal vaccines that boost mucosal immunity [6,7].

A key feature of this URT environment is its lower physiological temperature, with nasopharyngeal epithelial cells typically residing at or below 33°C—several degrees cooler than the average core body temperature of 37°C [8]. Though seemingly minor, this temperature difference has far-reaching effects on cellular processes, including viral replication kinetics [9]. Because molecular interactions and reaction rates are governed by thermodynamic principles, temperature is a fundamental variable in regulating biochemical activity. Accordingly, the interaction landscape—including RNA and protein folding, stability, and binding—is substantially altered under cooler conditions [10]. These changes can lead to RNA or protein misfolding [10–12], and, crucially, to temperature-sensitive differences in RNA-binding protein (RBP) affinities for target RNAs, with wide-ranging effects on post-transcriptional regulation [13].

Temperature-dependent variation in RBP–RNA binding has significant implications for mRNA spatial localisation, stability, and translation, processes that can influence viral RNA processing and immune evasion [14]. While prior studies have observed temperature-driven

changes in transcript and protein abundance [15,16], it remains poorly understood how

growth temperature alters the global landscape of RBPs that bind to cellular mRNAs—

collectively known as the RBPome.

The central aim of this study was to characterise the post-transcriptional environment

encountered by respiratory viruses, with a focus on IAV, and to determine how altered

growth temperature affects viral mRNA regulation. Specifically, we profiled the mRNA-

bound RBPome of lung epithelial cells (A549 cells) grown at 37°C and 33°C, mimicking LRT

and URT temperatures, respectively. Recent studies have highlighted the critical role of the

host RBPome in shaping viral replication by regulating nuclear export [17], translation [18],

and genome replication [19], underscoring the importance of this approach [18,20].

Our data reveal extensive temperature-dependent variation in RBPs associated with cellular

mRNAs, identifying large sets of RBPs whose binding is either enriched or depleted at 33°C

relative to 37°C. Among the most striking findings was the cold-induced enrichment of RNA

Binding Motif 3 (RBM3), a well-characterised cold-shock protein known to support cell

survival under hypothermic stress [21,22]. Notably, RBM3 was recently identified by our

group in an IAV mRNA interactome screen [23]. Here, we build on that work and

demonstrate that RBM3, by stabilising viral transcripts, acts as a pro-viral host factor during

IAV infection in A549 cells.

Crucially, we validate these findings in well-differentiated primary nasal epithelial cells

(PNECs) derived from multiple human donors. Using antisense oligonucleotide (ASO)-

mediated induction of RBM3 expression [24] followed by infection, we show that elevated

RBM3 enhances IAV replication in this physiologically relevant URT model.

Together, these findings reveal that RNA regulation in the URT occurs within a distinct post-

transcriptional landscape, shaped by cooler tissue temperature. This environment

profoundly impacts viral replication dynamics and represents a key barrier that respiratory

viruses, such as IAV, have overcome to establish infection and achieve transmission.

Understanding these adaptations not only provides new insights into viral evolution and

host–pathogen interactions but also offers a foundation for developing temperature-

sensitive antiviral strategies and next-generation respiratory vaccines.

Results

The cold RBPome of A549 cells reveals RBM3 as a significantly enriched mRNA interactor

As previously mentioned, the temperature gradient normally observed in the respiratory

tract is known to yield distinct variations in cellular transcriptomes and proteomes [15,16]

(Figure 1A). To identify specific RBPs that are differentially regulated through temperature,

we employed RNA Interactome Capture (RIC) [25] on A549 cells incubated for 48 h at 33°C

or 37°C. This method allowed for the purification and identification of poly(A) RNA-binding

RBPs via UV crosslinking and mass spectrometry (Figure 1B). Quality control of the protein

samples to be analysed by MS was assayed by silver staining, highlighting the presence of

distinct protein compositions between experimental conditions (Figure 1C). We observed

clear differences in band patterns between the 33°C and 37°C in the pulldown samples

indicative of the differences between the two proteomes, which were evaluated by LC-

MS/MS. The resulting dataset was analysed for enrichment of RBPs in the 33°C compared to

the 37°C samples (Figure 1D). Adjusted P values were calculated with a cutoff of p<0.05.

Between these datasets, we identified a considerable number of RBPs that were

preferentially enriched in either temperature. Interestingly, a total of 209 RBPs were shared

between 33°C and 37°C (Figure 1E and 1F). Of the total 423 RBPs identified across all

datasets, 296 were found to be significantly regulated by alterations in growth temperature.

Those that were present in both datasets, but significantly enriched at 33°C, included RBM3,

YBOX1, HNRNPC, RBM47 and SND1 (Supplementary Table 1 and 2). Overall, these datasets

are important evidence that the RBP environment of the cell is very plastic. Several factors

are selectively overrepresented at cold temperatures and thus could play a role in

respiratory virus infections.

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Figure 1 – Cooler growth temperatures vastly alter the RBPome of A549 cells.

(A) Schematic representation of the temperature gradient between the URT and LRT. (B) Schematic of the workflow for RIC
in A549 cells incubated at 33°C or 37°C. (C) Representative silver stain of a gel with the RIC whole cell lysate input (WCL) and
pulldown (RIC) samples from protein populations at 33°C and 37°C. (D) Venn diagram showing RBPs present in either 33°C
datasets, 37°C datasets or both. (E) Volcano plot showing the enrichment of RBPs isolated from A549 33°C and 37°C
pulldown samples. (F) Representation of the proteins significantly altered between datasets, whether by presence/absence
or enrichment/depletion. Datasets derived from 3 independent biological samples.

<u>RBM3 is a positive regulator of IAV replication in A549s, mediated by its RNA-binding activity</u>

One of the top hits enriched in the 33°C dataset was RBM3. This cold-inducible protein was

recently identified by us and our colleagues when performing an IAV A/WSN/33 NP mRNA

interactome screen [23], and therefore presented an attractive option as an RBP that could

play a role in IAV replication in the URT. Firstly, to investigate whether RBM3 impacts IAV

replication we performed siRNA-mediated knockdown of RBM3 in A549 cells, followed by

infection by WSN at an MOI 0.01 for 48 h. qPCR analysis confirmed effective knockdown

with a >95% decrease in RBM3 mRNA levels compared to a nonspecific control siRNA (NSC)

(Figure 2A). Total RNA was harvested at 0, 8, 24 and 48 hours post infection (hpi), and levels

of viral mRNA were analysed via qPCR. Overall, depletion of RBM3 resulted in a significant

decrease in viral HA, NA, NP and M2 mRNA at 24 and 48 hpi (Figure 2B and Supp Figure 1).

Most notably, we observed a nearly four-fold decrease in levels of NP mRNA at 24 hpi

(Figure 2B). Not surprisingly, this negative impact on viral transcript levels translated

through to virus production, resulting in a significant drop in viral titres below the level of

detection (Figure 2C).

Recent work shows HNRNPH1 controls RBM3 via poison-exon splicing: inclusion of exon 3a

in RBM3 pre-mRNA triggers NMD [25], and weak HNRNPH1 binding at 37 °C permits exon

inclusion (low RBM3), whereas stronger binding at 30–33 °C excludes exon 3a, boosting

RBM3 levels [13]. In A549s transfected with siNSC or siH1 for 48 h and then treated ±CHX for

16 h, RT–PCR spanning exons 3–4 revealed exon 3a only in siH1+CHX samples (Supp Fig 2A),

and qPCR showed an ~11-fold greater inclusion versus siH1+DMSO (Supp Fig 2B). siH1 also

reduced RBM3 mRNA (Supp Fig 2C). After WSN infection (MOI 0.01), siH1 cells had

significantly lower NP mRNA at 0–48 hpi (Supp Fig 2D) and reduced viral titres (Supp Fig 2E).

Thus, HNRNPH1 modulates RBM3 expression by poison-exon regulation, affecting IAV

replication.

On identifying RBM3 as a potentially important RBP during IAV replication, we sought to

determine whether this pro-viral phenotype arises from a direct interaction between RBM3

and viral RNA. However, as evidenced from the RIC MS, the cold environment affects the

host globally, and it would be difficult to ascertain the effect of RBM3 alone on viral

replication at 33°C. To circumvent this limitation, a cell line expressing cold-induced levels of

RBM3 at 37°C was needed. First, a panel of cell lines commonly used to study respiratory

viruses was assessed to determine their cold responsiveness, quantified by their ability to

induce RBM3 when cultured at 33°C for 48 h. Primary nasal epithelial cells (PNECs) were

used as a positive control as it was expected that these would be highly responsive to cooler

growth temperatures. RNA was extracted and the levels of RBM3 expression were

quantified by qPCR, normalised to the levels observed with culturing at 37°C for each cell

type (Figure 2D). While PNECs were the greatest responders, with an approximate 7-fold

increase in RBM3 mRNA levels, A549s and 293Ts both demonstrated a >3-fold increase in

RBM3 levels. Considering that immortalised cells can be manipulated to a greater extent

that PNECs, we proceeded to use A549s to develop greater mechanistic insights into the

role of RBM3 during IAV infection. A lentivirus-mediated stably overexpressing RBM3-Flag,

clonal A549 cells line, termed A549-RBM3+, was established that could be cultured at 37°C.

Upon quantification by qPCR, RBM3 levels were found to be >3-fold increased over an

empty vector control line (Figure 2E), mimicking the levels seen upon culturing of parental

A549s at 33°C. Viral production was then quantified in these A549-RBM3+ cells, with RBM3

overexpression inducing a significant increase in viral titres of >3.5-fold (Figure 2F).

RBM3 is composed of two major domains; an RNA Recognition Motif (RRM) found at the C-

terminus, and an N-terminus arginine-glycine rich (RGG) domain (Figure 2G) [26]. The

former contains two highly conserved RNA binding regions, RNP2 and RNP1. After

establishing the binding between NP mRNA and RBM3, we proceeded to investigate how an

RNA-binding null mutant RBM3 would affect viral replication. We hypothesised that any

pro-viral function would be lost through ablation of RNA-binding. To test this, we created an

RBM3 RNA-binding null mutant cell-line, in which mutations were introduced to substitute

phenylalanine (F) residues within RNP2 and RNP1 to leucine (L) (Figure 2G). Previous studies

have shown that single L>F substitutions within RNP motifs disrupt the RNA binding ability

[27]. When viral titres from infected A549-RBM3+ and A549-RBM3 mutant cell lines were

compared (Figure 2H), we observed a significant >95% decrease in titres from the RBM3

mutant cells.

Figure 2 – Reducing RBM3 levels in A549 cells greatly inhibits IAV replication.

(A) Quantification of RBM3 knockdown using RBM3-targeting siRNAs (siRBM3) compared to a nonspecific control siRNA
(siNSC). (B) Transcription levels of NP mRNA in siRBM3 or siNSC treated A549 cells infected with WSN at 37°C. (C) Viral titres
72 hpi with WSN MOI 0.01 in siRBM3 or siNSC treated cells. (D) Cold-responsiveness of a panel of cell lines and primary
nasal epithelial cells (PNECs) as determined by the induction of RBM3 expression by qPCR over 48 h and normalised to 37°C
levels. (E) Generation of a lentiviral RBM3 overexpression (RBM3+) A549 cell line alongside a control empty vector line
(EMP). (F) Titres of WSN at 72 hpi after an MOI 0.01 infection in EMP or RBM3+ A549 cells. (G) Schematic representation of
RBM3. Single nonsense mutations were introduced into the RNA binding domains, RNP2 and RNP1, creating an RNA-
binding null mutant RBM3. (H) A549-RBM3+ or A549-RBM3 mut cells were infected at MOI 0.01 with WSN for 48 hours.
Supernatants were harvested and titrated. Dotted line indicates the limit of detection. Significance was determined using
Student's t-test with *=p<0.05, **=p<0.01 and ***=p<0.001.

With these cell lines in place, a direct interaction between RBM3 and viral transcripts could

next be established. To directly visualise the interaction between RBM3 and viral NP mRNA,

we employed proximity ligation assay coupled with fluorescence in situ hybridisation (PLA-

FISH) [28], a technique adapted here for the first time in the context of virus-infected cells

(Figure 3A). This approach revealed prominent cytoplasmic PLA signals in cells expressing

wild-type (WT) RBM3, indicating a specific and spatially distinct interaction with NP mRNA

(Figure 3B). In contrast, cells expressing either an empty vector or the RNA-binding-deficient

RBM3 mutant exhibited only low background signal, consistent with the loss of RNA-binding

capability. Notably, in WT RBM3-expressing cells, PLA spots were especially enriched at the

cytoplasmic face of the nuclear membrane. This localisation pattern may suggest that RBM3

engages NP mRNA soon after nuclear export, potentially stabilising viral transcripts at an

early post-transcriptional stage. These findings validate the specificity of RBM3–NP mRNA

interactions and highlight the utility of PLA-FISH in mapping host–viral RNA contacts with

subcellular resolution.

To further validate a direct interaction between RBM3 and NP mRNA we performed CLIP-

qPCR in A549-RBM3+ cells infected at MOI 3 for 6 h, then UV crosslinked, and subjected to

FLAG immunoprecipitation or an IgG control. The covalently bound RNA was then released

by proteinase K digestion, purified and analysed by qPCR. Flag-tagged RBM3 was efficiently

pulled down by an anti-Flag immunoprecipitation (Figure 3C & Supp Figure 3), with Actin

used as a control to show that this enrichment was specific. RBM3-bound RNA was

evaluated by qPCR to determine whether NP mRNA is strongly enriched in RBM3 pulldowns

(Figure 3D), due to the presence of multiple predicted high confidence motifs. We also

quantified levels of HA mRNA as a likely non-interactor and Actin mRNA, as a host mRNA.

We observed a strong and significant enrichment of NP mRNA between the RBM3-Flag and

IgG control samples, while no enrichment in HA or Actin levels was observed, indicating little

or no binding with RBM3. Taken together, these data collectively establish a direct

interaction between RBM3 and NP viral mRNA transcripts, and that this predominantly

takes place in the cytoplasm. Finally, using RBPmap [29] and the published RBM3 binding

motif (minimally GSNGSNG) [30], we generated a prediction of the number of RBM3 high-

confidence binding motifs on WSN transcripts (Figure 3E). While every transcript contained

at least 1 putative RBM3 motif with $p<0.05$, NP mRNA was predicted to have multiple highly

significant binding motifs with 3 sites of $p<0.001$. Collectively, these data demonstrate that

RBM3 directly interacts with NP mRNA upon infection.

Figure 3 – RBM3 directly associates with viral transcripts, increasing overall viral replication.

(A) Schematic of PLA-FISH, used to confirm a tight proximity between an RBP and a target mRNA, and the intracellular
localisation of this interaction. (B) Representative PLA-FISH images showing specific cytoplasmic NP mRNA–RBM3
interactions in WT RBM3-expressing cells, with prominent signal observed near the nuclear periphery, while only
background signal is detected in empty vector and RBM3 mutant controls. n=60 cells. (C) Western blot showing input and

<u>Overexpression of RBM3 and subsequent binding to NP mRNA stabilises transcripts</u>

Having confirmed the interaction between RBM3 and NP mRNA, we next sought to identify

how this interaction positively regulates WSN replication. Previous reports have suggested

that RBM3 may stabilise certain bound transcripts in neuronal cells [21,22]. Given this

context, we next explored the stability of a subset of viral transcripts in the A549-RBM3+ or

empty vector A549 cells. Cells were infected with WSN at an MOI 3 for 6 h, then treated

with actinomycin D to prevent further cellular and viral transcription [31]. Transcript levels

were quantified hourly over 5 timepoints from 0-4 h post-actinomycin D treatment. The

data were plotted to visualise the decay of RNA over this treatment period (Figure 4), with a

one-phase decay model fitted to the data using a least squares regression. Observed

differences in RNA stability were significantly different between cell lines and were assessed

by comparing the decay constant (k) values using an extra sum-of-squares F test, with

$p < 0.05$ deemed significant. Although no significant effect on the stability of viral HA or M2

mRNA was observed (Figure 4A & B), a clear and significant increase in stability was

quantified for NP mRNA with a >70% increase in RNA half-life (Figure 4C). Actinomycin D

assays were then performed in A549-RBM3+ or the RBM3 RNA-binding mutant cell line after

IAV infection. These revealed a loss of the stabilisation phenotype in the RBM3 mutant cells

for viral NP transcripts as well as GAPDH (Figure 4D and Supp Figure 4). Interestingly, we

also observed that overexpression of RBM3 significantly and positively regulated cellular

GAPDH levels (Supp Figure 4A), with this phenotype again obviated in the RBM3mut cells.

This suggests that RBM3 stabilisation is a direct result of RBM3 binding to target transcripts,

and that this is likely a form of cellular post-transcriptional regulation for transcripts such as

GAPDH, YAP1 [21] or GAS6 [22]. This mechanism is then seemingly exploited by IAV during

infection to promote viral transcript stability upon nuclear export, and overall viral

replication.

To be certain of our conclusions we employed a minimalist tethering approach. We set up a

reporter system in which 293T cells were transfected with a Renilla Luciferase encoding for

BoxB hairpins in the 3' UTR, and either WT RBM3 or LambdaN (λN)-RBM3 fusion protein

(Figure 4E). The 19 nt BoxB hairpin acts as the target sequence for λN binding and fusion of

λN with an RNA-binding protein allows for elucidation of the RBP's function on the BoxB-

encoded reporter RNA [32]. Actinomycin D assays were repeated 48 hours post-transfection

and levels of luciferase RNA were assessed by qPCR. A significant enhancement in transcript

half-life was observed upon expression of the fused λN-RBM3 protein (Figure 4F), providing

further evidence that supports the role of RBM3 as an mRNA stabilising agent.

Figure 4 - RBM3 is a stabilising agent through directly binding to target mRNA including IAV NP mRNA.

Transcript stability in empty vector (EMP) or RBM3 overexpression (RBM3+) A549 cells was established by an actinomycin D
(ActD) assay commenced at 6 hpi. Viral transcripts HA (A), M2 (B) and NP (C) were quantified over 5 hours with transcript
half-life quantified by a one-phase decay using a least squares regression. (D) The same assay was performed in RBM3+ or
the RBM3 RNA-binding mutant (RBM3mut) cell lines, with half-life quantified. (E) Schematic representation of the tethering
reporter assay. (F) 293T cells were transfected with a Luciferase BoxB reporter alongside either WT RBM3 or fused λN-

<u>RBM3-NP mRNA complexes induce granule formation</u>

IF analysis revealed striking cytoplasmic granule formation in WSN-infected cells

overexpressing wild-type RBM3 (WT). At both 6 and 8 hpi, RBM3 localised in multiple

discrete cytoplasmic foci (white arrows), which strongly colocalised with viral NP mRNA

detected by smiFISH, suggesting the assembly of RNA-protein granules involving both RBM3

and viral transcripts (Figure 5). These granules were consistently observed across multiple

fields but noticeably increased in frequency between 6 and 8 hpi, implying that rising levels

of NP mRNA proliferated the formation of these granules (Figure 5).

In contrast, cells expressing the RNA-binding-deficient RBM3 mutant (MUT) or empty vector

(EMP) did not display granule formation at either time point. In these cells, RBM3 staining

was diffuse, and NP mRNA remained evenly distributed in the cytoplasm without foci

(Figure 5). This absence of granules in MUT and EMP conditions highlights the requirement

for RBM3's RNA-binding capacity and sufficient protein expression for granule formation.

The consistent colocalisation of RBM3 and viral mRNA in the WT condition supports a model

in which, when expressed to sufficient levels, RBM3 drives the assembly of cytoplasmic RNA

granules during infection, potentially stabilising viral transcripts or modulating their

localisation.

Figure 5 – Formation of RBM3 and NP mRNA granules late in infection.

smiFISH of A/WSN/33 NP mRNA (Red) in Mock and infected A549-Emp, A549-RBM3+ and A549-RBM3 mut cells (MOI5, 6/8
hpi) was performed to determine the subcellular localisation of NP mRNA and to assess the colocalisation with RBM3+/mut.
Cells were stained to detect NP (green), Flag (Magenta) and Höchst (Blue). Scale Bar: 10 µM. Z stacks were acquired on
Leica STELLARIS ONE 660 tauSTED Nanoscope with a 100x objective with 1.4 NA. Images were analysed using Fiji/ImageJ
version 1.54f.

<u>ASO-mediated increase of RBM3 levels in primary cells promotes overall viral replication</u>

Finally, we wanted to determine whether RBM3-mediated increase of overall viral replication would be mirrored in PNECs. Previous studies have determined that targeted ASO treatment of the RBM3 poison exon Ex3a in immortalised cell lines can result in the exclusion of the poison exon, preventing NMD of RBM3 transcripts, and thus increasing overall RBM3 levels, effectively mimicking the function of HNRNPH1 [24]. Treatment of A549 cells with this previously published Ex3a-specific ASO for 48 h resulted in an almost 4-fold increase in RBM3 transcript levels compared to that of a non-targeting control (Figure 6A), confirming its effectiveness. Next, ASO treatment was applied apically to PNEC cultures from 3 donors. Primary cells are much less permissive to transfection, therefore, ASO treatment would be predicted to be much less effective at inducing RBM3 in these cultures. Nevertheless, we observed a robust and significant ~50% increase in RBM3 transcript levels after 48 h compared to the control ASO for all 3 donors (Figure 6B). Following this, we subjected PNEC cultures from the same 3 donors to ASO treatment followed by infection with WSN for 48 h. We then evaluated viral replication in these PNECS by quantification of viral RNA levels at 48 hpi. A significant increase in both NP mRNA and vRNA levels was observed by qPCR for each donor upon treatment with the Ex3A-specific ASO, with mRNA levels on average more than doubling after Ex3a ASO treatment (Figure 6C). These data confirm our earlier observations that increasing RBM3 levels positively regulates IAV replication, in a highly relevant human respiratory epithelial model of infection.

Figure 6 - Increasing expression of RBM3 in PNECs significantly increases IAV replication

(A) Control (Ctrl) or Exon3a (Ex3a) specific ASOs were initially tested in A549 cells to determine their effectiveness in
increasing overall RBM3 mRNA levels, with an approximate 4-fold increase observed at 48 h post-transfection. (B) This was
replicated in PNECs at 48 h post-transfection where an approximate 50% ASO-mediated increase in RBM3 levels was
quantified. (C) Quantifying viral mRNA and vRNA production in 3 donors (indicated by different shaped data points)
previously treated with Ctrl or Ex3a ASOs, demonstrated a significant increase in overall viral replication at 48 hpi.

Discussion

Given the continuing risk of respiratory virus pandemics, due to coronaviruses such as SARS-CoV-2 or zoonotic influenza strains like H5N1, a detailed understanding of virus-host interactions in relevant tissue environments is critical for future preparedness. The upper respiratory tract (URT) is a primary site of viral replication and transmission, particularly the nasopharyngeal epithelium, which functions at cooler temperatures than core body temperature (~33°C vs. 37°C). This cooler environment likely alters host cell biology and, in turn, viral replication dynamics. To reduce transmission, it is essential to understand how viruses exploit host factors in this unique tissue niche.

Here, we present a comprehensive, temperature-resolved RBPome, identifying RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) that are differentially associated with mRNAs in A549 cells cultured at 33°C compared to 37°C (Figure 1). This is the first high-resolution characterisation of the cold-adapted RBPome in a context relevant to URT infection. We identified 63 RBPs unique to 33°C and 151 unique to 37°C, with 209 shared across both conditions. Among these, the cold-inducible protein RBM3 was significantly enriched at 33°C, suggesting temperature-dependent regulation of host–RNA interactions.

RBM3, known to be regulated by HNRNPH1-mediated splicing [13], has been previously implicated in cell survival under cold stress [33,34], and in stabilising mRNAs such as YAP1 and GAS6 [21,22]. However, its role in viral RNA regulation remained largely unexplored. Our study uncovers a previously underappreciated role for RBM3 as a direct stabiliser of IAV mRNA, specifically the NP transcript. This discovery positions RBM3 as a critical modulator of viral gene expression in the URT.

We employed multiple, orthogonal assays to robustly validate this interaction. RBM3

knockdown significantly reduced viral titres and NP mRNA levels (Figure 2B-C, Supp. Fig. 4),

while wild-type RBM3 overexpression enhanced replication. In contrast, an RNA-binding-

deficient mutant had no effect (Figure 2E-H), underlining the functional importance of

RBM3's RNA-binding capacity.

To directly assess RBM3–viral RNA interactions, we combined PLA-FISH (to detect close

spatial proximity in situ) and CLIP-qPCR (to confirm direct physical association), supported

by in silico binding motif prediction via RBPmap [29]. PLA-FISH revealed strong cytoplasmic

co-localisation between RBM3 and NP mRNA at 6 hpi, absent in the RNA-binding mutant

(Figure 3B), while CLIP-qPCR confirmed direct enrichment of NP mRNA with RBM3 (Figure

3C-E).

Next, we explored the functional consequences of RBM3 binding on mRNA stability. RBM3

overexpression extended NP mRNA half-life (Figure 4C), an effect abolished in the RNA-

binding mutant (Figure 4D). We further validated this stabilising effect in a reporter-based

tethering assay, where recruitment of RBM3 to a 3' UTR significantly increased RNA stability

(Figure 4F). Together, these data demonstrate a clear and direct role for RBM3 in stabilising

viral transcripts, independent of indirect host responses.

In virus-infected cells, RBM3 overexpression also induced cytoplasmic granule formation

that co-localised with viral mRNAs (Figure 5), a phenotype absent in the mutant or under

low RBM3 expression. Given RBM3 is naturally upregulated at 33°C, our overexpression

model mimics URT-relevant conditions, suggesting that cooler temperatures promote

protective RNA granule formation that shields viral mRNAs from decay. This granule-based

mechanism likely contributes to elevated viral mRNA levels during infection.

To confirm the translational relevance of our findings, we tested whether increasing RBM3

levels in primary human nasal epithelial cells would alter IAV replication. Using ASO-

mediated induction of RBM3 [24], we observed donor-specific but consistently increased

viral replication, as reflected by elevated NP mRNA and vRNA levels (Figure 6). This

demonstrates the functional impact of RBM3 in a clinically relevant URT model.

Taken together, our data reveal that RBM3 plays a previously unrecognised, yet pivotal role

in stabilising IAV NP mRNA, enhancing replication particularly at cooler URT temperatures.

This stabilisation may occur via several mechanisms: protection from endonucleolytic

cleavage, inhibition of decay factor binding (e.g., exosome complex [35]), enhanced

ribosome loading [36], stabilisation of viral RNA structures [37], or modulation of

epitranscriptomic marks [38]. Alternatively, RBM3 may promote mRNA sequestration into

membraneless organelles already known to influence vRNA trafficking [39].

While IAV appears to have evolved to exploit RBM3 for replication efficiency in the URT, this

mechanism could be repurposed therapeutically. Given the success of mRNA vaccines for

SARS-CoV-2 [40], and ongoing development of nasal vaccine platforms to induce mucosal

immunity [41,42], RBM3's RNA-stabilising properties could be harnessed to enhance mRNA

stability and translation in future respiratory therapies. Notably, recent advances have

shown inhalable mRNA delivery to the airway epithelium in vivo [6], making this a viable

direction for translational research.

In conclusion, RBM3 is a temperature-sensitive host factor that directly binds and stabilises

influenza A virus mRNAs in the URT. Our multi-assay validation, the creation of a novel

temperature-specific RBPome, and the identification of a new functional axis in viral RNA

biology collectively underscore the originality and impact of this work. Beyond IAV, our

findings suggest that cold-inducible RBPs may represent a broader class of modulators

shaping respiratory virus replication in epithelial tissues. These insights expand our

understanding of host–pathogen interactions under physiologically relevant conditions and

open new avenues for therapeutic intervention and pandemic preparedness.

Methods

<u>Cells</u>

All immortalised cell lines were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 1% Pen-Strep

(Thermo Fisher Scientific; 15140122) and 5% FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 10270106) at

37°C/33°C and 5% CO_2. Cell lines used were A549s (ATCC; CCL-185), HEK 293Ts (ATCC; CRL-

3216), MDCKs (CCL-34), Hep2s (ATCC; CCL-23), HeLa H1s (ATCC; CRL-1958), Beas2Bs (ATCC;

CRL-3588), RPMI 2650s (ATCC; CCL-30) and Calu3s (ATCC; HTB-55).

<u>Virus stocks and infections</u>

IAV WSN (A/WSN/33) stocks were generated from a reverse genetics system previously

described [43]. WSN stocks were grown on MDCK cells in IAV growth media consisting of

DMEM, Pen-Strep, 0.2% BSA (Merck; A8412), 25mM HEPES (Merck; H0887) and TPCK-

trypsin (Merck; T8802) and titrated on MDCK cells by plaque assay.

<u>RIC</u>

The protocol employed here to capture the RNA interactome of poly(A)+ RNA (RIC) from

A549 cells has been described previously [18,25]. However, we made one minor

modification. At the time of seeding, 48 h before crosslinking and harvesting, A549 cells

were either incubated under the normal growth temperature of 37°C, to determine the

37°C RBPome, or incubated in a 33°C incubator, to determine the 33°C RBPome. Cells were

grown for 48 h at these conditions before performing UV crosslinking at 254nm and lysis.

The remaining steps were followed exactly as has been described previously [25].

<u>Protein visualisation</u>

Western blotting was performed as has been previously described [44]. Primary antibodies

for influenza PA (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Pa5-32223), RBM3 (Proteintech; 14363-1-AP),

ACTB (Proteintech; 66009-1-ig), and Flag (Proteintech; 66008-3-ig) were all used at a 1:5000

dilution. Proteins bands on blots were visualised by chemiluminescence. Total protein was

imaged by silver staining (Thermo Fisher Scientific; 24612), following the manufacturer's

protocol.

<u>LC-MS/MS and data analysis</u>

Mass spectrometry of RIC samples was performed at the Cambridge Centre for Proteomics.

Sample treatment, preparation and trypsin digestion were performed as described

previously [45]. Data for each sample were acquired on an Orbitrap Fusion Lumos Tribrid

mass spectrometer over a 60 min run. No fractionation was performed due to the likely low

complexity of the sample. Raw mass spectrometry data was analysed using MaxQuant

software (v2.4.7.0) and utilising the Andromeda search engine [46]. The MS/MS spectra

were aligned to the Uniprot Homo sapiens protein database, with known mass

spectrometry contaminants and reversed sequences also included. The search was

performed with trypsin selected as the specific enzyme and a maximum of 2 missed

cleavage events allowed. The MS accuracy was set to 10 ppm, then 0.05 Da for the MS/MS.

The maximum peptide charge was set to seven and seven amino acids were required for the

minimum peptide length. One unique peptide to the protein group was required to call the

presence of a specific protein, while a false-discovery rate (FDR) of 1% was set. Statistical

analysis to determine enriched proteins in one set of biological samples over another was

performed using the intensities quantified by MaxQuant on Perseus software (v2.0.11) [47].

First, any potential contaminants, reverse hits or proteins that were not well identified (fell

below 1% FDR) were removed. Then only proteins that were identified in at least 2

replicates from a single biological condition were utilised. After filtering, the intensities were

log transformed ($\log_2$) and statistical significance was calculated by way of an unpaired two-

tailed Student's t-test for each protein group. These values were then log transformed (-

$\log_{10}$) and the resulting p values and enrichments were graphed as volcano plots. The cutoff

for statistical significance was set to $p < 0.05$.

<u>siRNA knockdowns</u>

A pair of siRNAs targeting the specified mRNA were used in each knockdown experiment,

aside from when a single non-specific control siRNA (siNSC) was used. Sequences of these

siRNAs are listed in Supplementary Table 3. A final concentration of 20nM total siRNA was

used, and these were transfected using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen; 13778075)

following the manufacturer's instructions. A549 cells were seeded and transfected

simultaneously and incubated for 24 h, after which media was changed with fresh growth

media. Cells were then incubated for a further 24 h prior to infection.

<u>IAV qPCR growth curves</u>

A549 cells were infected with A/WSN/33 virus at an MOI 0.01 PFU/cell. At 0, 8, 24 and 48

hpi RNA was extracted from cells using TRIzol (Invitrogen; 15596026). RNA was isolated and

precipitated following the manufacturer's instructions and 200ng was reverse transcribed

into cDNA using the ABI cDNA synthesis kit (Applied Biosystems; 4368814). For all cellular

targets RT was performed using an oligo dT, while viral RNA underwent separate RT

reactions with primers specific to each mRNA or vRNA [48]. These primers are listed in

Supplementary Table 4 alongside the primers used for qPCR amplification. All qPCR

experiments were performed using SYBR Select Master Mix (Applied Biosystems; 4472908)

following the manufacturer's instructions. All qPCR data were quantified using the ΔΔCT

method.

<u>Establishment of a RBM3 overexpression cell line using a lentiviral vector</u>

A lentiviral expression plasmid was generated encoding for either a full length wild-type

RBM3 C-terminally tagged with 2X Flag epitope tags (RBM3+), a full-length RNA-binding

mutant (RBM3-Mut), containing two single phenylalanine to leucine substitutions within

RNP1 (L48F) and RNP2 (L9F), or an empty vector (A549-EMP). A549-RBM3, A549-EMP and

A549-Mut were followed by a P2A self-cleaving peptide and a puromycin resistance gene,

similar to a system we have published previously [38]. Again, similar to previous

publications, we rescued lentiviral particles by co-transfecting 293T cells with the RBM3,

RBM3 Mut or EMP lentiviral vector alongside d8.74 (Addgene; 22036) and MD2G (Addgene;

12259). At 72 h post-transfection the supernatant was harvested, passed through a 0.45 μm

filter and then overlaid onto fresh A549 cells. At 72 h post transduction cells were treated

with 2 μg/ml puromycin and left to select for 72 h. Cells were then single cell cloned in 96

well plates in the presence of 2 μg/ml puromycin and left to grow for 3 weeks. Single cell

colonies were then selected, expanded, and checked by Western blot to confirm the

expression of the transgene.

<u>PLA-FISH</u>

A549 cells expressing Flag, RBM3 WT or RBM3 Mt were seeded on to a 12 mm coverslip in

24 well plates. 24 hrs later cells were infected in a synchronised manner with IAV/WSN at an

MOI of 5 for 1 hr at 4°C. The infection was allowed to follow through for 6 hrs to allow for

peak viral mRNA production. 6 hrs later, cells were fixed with 4% PFA for 15 min at RT, then

washed thrice with PBS. Cells were permeabilised with 0.5% Triton X for 10 min at RT, then

washed thrice with PBS. Following a protocol adapted from Alagia et al. [28], coverslips

were incubated with 30 µl of PLA-blocking buffer in a pre-warmed humidified chamber and

incubated for 1 h at 37°C. Cells were incubated with 30 µl of FISH-PLA probe buffer in the

humidified chamber in a hybridisation oven at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 18 h incubation at

37°C. The next day, coverslips were placed into a 24 well plate and three washes were

performed with 2× SSC wash buffer, followed by two washes with PBS at 20°C for 5 min with

gentle rocking. Cells were incubated with 30 µl of Duolink Blocking Solution and incubated

at 37°C for 1 h. Cells were incubated with 30 µl of primary antibody against Flag (Sigma,

F1804) diluted in Duolink Antibody Diluent for 18 h at 37°C in a humidified chamber. The

next day, coverslips were placed into a 24 well plate and three washes were performed with

pre-warmed Wash Buffer A at 20°C for 5 min with gentle rocking. Cells were incubated with

30 µl of Minus PLA probe diluted 1:5 and Phalloidin diluted 1:200 in Duolink Antibody

Diluent in a humidity chamber at 37°C for 1 h followed by three washes with Wash Buffer A.

Duolink ligase buffer was diluted 1:5 in ddH2O. For 60 µL of ligase reaction solution, 1.5 µL

of ligase enzyme was added to 58.5 µL of the diluted Duolink ligase buffer dilution. Cells

were incubated with 20 µl of ligase buffer in a humidity chamber at 37°C for 30 min

followed by three washes with Wash Buffer A. Duolink amplification buffer was diluted 1:5

in ddH2O and protected from light. For a 60 µL of amplification reaction, 0.75 µL of

polymerase enzyme was added to 59.25 µL of the diluted Duolink amplification buffer

dilution. Cells were incubated with 20 µl of amplification buffer in a humidity chamber at

37°C for 1h and 40 min followed by two washes with pre-warmed Wash Buffer B containing

1:4000 Hoechst (Abcam; ab228551) in a 24 well plate. Wash steps were performed at 20°C

for 10 min with gentle rocking followed by a last wash with 0.01× Wash Buffer B. Coverslips

were mounted on to slides with Diamond antifade Mounting medium and imaged the

following day on the Leica STELLARIS ONE 660 tauSTED Nanoscope with a 100x objective

with 1.4 NA. Z stacks were acquired and analysed using Fiji/ImageJ version 1.54f.

CLIP-qPCR

The CLIP-qPCR protocol employed here has been published previously [49]. Briefly, A549-

RBM3+ cells were seeded one day prior to infection. Cells were infected with A/WSN/33 at

an MOI 3 PFU/cell and incubated for 6 h. At 6 hpi media was removed from the cells, before

being washed in ice cold PBS. UV crosslinking was performed at 254nm. Cells were then

scraped, pelleted and lysed in 250 µl of NP40 lysis buffer (HEPES-KOH pH 7.5 50mM, KCl

150mM, EDTA pH 8.0 2mM, NaF 1mM and NP40 0.5%) on ice for 30 min. Lysates were

clarified by centrifugation and 10% of the sample was saved as an input and boiled in

Laemmli buffer containing 2% β-mercaptoethanol at 95°C for 10 min for western blotting.

The remaining 90% of lysate underwent immunoprecipitation with anti-Flag antibody

(Merck, F1804) or IgG control antibody coupled to Protein G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher,

10004D) for 1 h at room temperature. Beads were then captured, washed five times with 1

mL NP40 lysis buffer and three times with PBS. A fraction (10%) of the beads was removed,

resuspended in Laemmli buffer and boiled at 95°C for 10 min for Western blotting. The

remaining 90% of beads underwent proteinase K digestion (ThermoFisher, EO0491) at 55°C

for 60 min to release bound RNA, following the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was then

isolated from the digestion by TRIzol LS (ThermoFisher, 10296028) and ethanol precipitation

and cDNA were synthesized using oligo dT or A/WSN/33 specific primers [48]

(Supplementary Table 4). Quantification of the cDNAs was performed by qPCR, as described

below. Fold enrichment of RNA levels was quantified using the $\Delta\Delta CT$ method and

normalised to input levels.

<u>Actinomycin D assays</u>

A549-RBM3+, A549-Mut and A549-EMP cells were seeded at a density of 1×10^5 cells/well

one day prior to infection. Cells were infected with WSN at a MOI of 3 PFU/cell. At 6 hpi,

RNA was harvested from a single well for each cell type, constituting the 0 h timepoint. All

remaining infected wells underwent media exchange for growth media containing 2 µg/mL

Actinomycin D (SBR00013). RNA was harvested hourly from 7-10 hpi representing 1-4 h post

Actinomycin D treatment. RNA underwent cDNA conversion using oligo dT or A/WSN/33

specific primers, with the ABI cDNA synthesis kit (Applied Biosystems; 4368814).

Quantification of the cDNAs was performed by qPCR, described above. Fold enrichment of

RNA levels was quantified using the ΔΔCT method and normalised to either A549-EMP or

A549-RBM3 levels.

<u>λN tethering assay</u>

λN was cloned into a lentiviral expression vector expressing full-length WT RBM3. 293T cells

were seeded at a density of 1×10^5 cells/mL in a 12-well plate the day before transfection.

The following day, cells were transfected with 500 ng of pCI-RLuc-BoxB [50] and 100 ng of

either the WT RBM3 or the λN-RBM3 WT expressing plasmids. At 48 hours post-

transfection, RNA was harvested from a single well for each transfection to represent a 0h

timepoint. All remaining cells were treated with 2 µg/mL Actinomycin D (SBR00013). RNA

was harvested by TRIzol hourly up to 4 hours post-treatment. RNA underwent DNaseI

(Invitrogen, EN0521) digestion to remove any residual plasmid DNA before cDNA conversion

using oligo dT primers with the ABI cDNA synthesis kit (Applied Biosystems; 4368814).

Quantification of the cDNAs was performed by qPCR, described above. Fold enrichment of

luciferase RNA levels was quantified using the ΔΔCT method and normalised to the

corresponding 0 h mRNA levels.

<u>Immunofluorescence</u>

A549-Emp, A549-RBM3+, A549-RBM3 mut cells were seeded in 24-well plates onto 12 mm

coverslips. 24h post seeding, cells were infected with influenza A/WSN/33 at MOI 5. Cells

were fixed at 6 hpi with 4% PFA and permeabilised with 70% ethanol for 2 hours at 4°C. Cells

were briefly washed with FISH wash buffer (10% SSC, 10% formamide, 80% ddH2O) and

incubated O/N at 37°C with smiFISH probes (Supplementary Table 6) against WSN NP mRNA

annealed to a Cy3 imager strand, as we have previously described [17]. Cells were washed

twice with FISH wash buffer at 37°C for 30 minutes. Cells were stained with primary

antibodies Rabbit anti-NP (PA5-32242, Invitrogen) and Mouse anti-Flag (66008-3-ig,

Proteintech) to detect RBM3+/mut for 1 hr at 37°C, followed by Goat anti-Ms AF647

(A32728, Invitrogen) and Goat anti-Rb AF488 (A11008, Invitrogen) secondary antibodies.

Cells were counterstained with Hoechst (ab228551, abcam) and mounted using ProLong™

Diamond antifade mounting media (P36961, Invitrogen). Coverslips were imaged with a

Leica STELLARIS ONE 660 tauSTED Nanoscope with a 100x objective with 1.4 NA. Z stacks

were acquired and analysed using Fiji/ImageJ version 1.54f.

<u>Well-Differentiated Primary Airway Epithelial Cell Culture</u>

Primary nasal epithelial cells were obtained from Promocell and well differentiated primary

nasal epithelial cell (WD-PNEC) cultures were established as described previously [51].

Briefly, WD-PNECs were seeded onto collagen coated 6 mm Transwells (Sarstedt,

83.3932.041) at 3×10^4 cells/transwell. Cells were submerged in modified Promocell Airway

Epithelial Cell Growth Medium which was replaced on the apical and basal side every 2 days

until the cells reached confluency. Once confluent, an air liquid interface (ALI) was initiated

by completely removing the apical medium. Cells were differentiated using Pneumacult ALI

medium (Stemcell Technologies, #05001) supplemented with hydrocortisone and heparin.

For downstream experiments, WD-PNECs were only used when there was extensive cilia

coverage and mucus production, clear hallmarks of full differentiation.

<u>ASO transfection and IAV infection of cells</u>

A549s were transfected with control or Exon 3a targeting ASOs [24] (Supplementary Table

5) to initially test whether induction of RBM3 could be achieved in airway cells. ASOs were

resuspended in DMEM at a concentration of 1 µM and transfected using Lipofectamine

2000 (Invitrogen, 1 µL/mL). At 48 h post-transfection RNA was harvested, cDNA synthesised

as described above, and RBM3 levels quantified by qPCR. For WD-PNEC cells, the

transfection conditions were the same, with the ASO-containing transfection mix added

apically to WD-PNECs. Cells were incubated for 48 h prior to infection with WSN MOI 0.01

PFU/cell in DMEM. At 1 hpi, the inoculum was removed and transwells were washed 5 times

in DMEM to remove unbound virus. RNA was harvested from WD-PNECS using Trizol™

either before infection or at 72 hours post-infection.

<u>Statistical analysis</u>

Unless otherwise stated, all experiments were performed as 3 independent biological

replicates. When bar graphs are used to represent the data, each individual replicate can be

observed as a point overlaid on the bar, with error bars indicating standard deviation.

Significance was calculated by performing Student's t-test with * indicating $p < 0.05$, **

indicating $p < 0.01$ and *** indicating $p < 0.001$.

Acknowledgements

This research was funded in part by an ERC-STG grant, PTFLU 949506 awarded to D.G.C. This

research received infrastructure support from the Wellcome-Wolfson Institute for

Experimental Medicine at Queen's University Belfast. Authors would like to thank Dr Seyed

Mehdi Jafarnejad for providing the plasmids for the BoxB reporter system.

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Supplementary data

Supplementary Table 1 – Initial RIC dataset prior to downstream analysis

Supplementary Table 2 – RIC dataset of RBP identified in at least 2 replicates of each

condition, with fold enrichment and p values included.

Supplementary Table 3 – siRNA sequences

Supplementary Table 4 – Primer sequences

Supplementary Table 5 – Sequences of antisense oligonucleotides

Supplementary Table 6 – smiFISH probe sequences

Supplementary Figure 1 – IAV transcript levels upon loss of RBM3.

A549 cells were initially transfected with a negative control NSC siRNA or an RBM3-targeting siRNA and incubated for 48h.
RNA was harvested from these cells after infection with WSN at an MOI 0.01 and further incubation for 0, 8, 24 or 48 hpi.
Individual viral transcript levels were quantified by qPCR and normalised to GAPDH levels. Upon loss of RBM3 there was a
significant reduction in HA (A), NA (B) and M2 (C) mRNA levels, as determined by multiple t-tests. *=p<0.05, **=p<0.01,
***=p<0.001

Supplementary Figure 2-Reduced RBM3 levels through manipulation of HNRNPH1 expression suppressed IAV replication

(A) DNA gel showing inclusion of RBM3's poison exon, exon 3a. Cells were treated with siHNRNPH1 or siNSC and further
treated 48 hours post-transfection with DMSO or CHX. (B) qPCR quantification of poison exon inclusion in the samples from
Fig. 2D. (C) Quantification of RBM3 mRNA levels in siHNRNPH1 (siH1) A549 cells compared to siNSC treated cells. (D)
Transcription levels of NP mRNA in siHNRNPH1 or siNSC treated A549 cells infected with WSN at 37°C. (E) Viral titres 72 hpi
with WSN MOI 0.01 for siHNRNPH1 or siNSC treated cells.

Supplementary Figure 3 – Western blot replicates for CLIP-qPCR in Figure 3E.

3 replicates of CLIP-qPCR experiments to pulldown RBM3-Flag in infected A549 cells demonstrating that RBM3-Flag is
present in both input samples but only pulled down in the presence of Flag antibody, while Actin is not enriched in either
pulldown sample.

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