Title

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

temperatures of the upper respiratory tract.

Authors

Hannah L Coutts[1], Hannah L Turkington[1], Stefano Bonazza[1], Erin M P E Getty[1], Swathi

Sukumar[1], Ultan F Power[1], David G Courtney[1]

Affiliations

1 Wellcome-Wolfson Institute for Experimental Medicine, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast

BT9 7BL, UK

Abstract

Temperature regulation is a key aspect of homeostasis, and several systems are involved in orchestrating adjustments in gene expression at the cellular level. One such factor is RBM3, a cold-inducible RNA-binding protein implicated in several aspects of mRNA processing and regulation. The upper respiratory tract serves as a unique environment regarding temperature regulation. Physiologically, the lower tract is relatively stable at 37°C, while the upper tract fluctuates at or below 33°C. Adapting to this temperature differential, and the subsequent differences in transcriptome and proteome, is essential for respiratory viruses that infect and cause disease in the lower tract while simultaneously replicating and transmitting from the upper tract. At present, our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying influenza virus infection at cooler temperatures is lacking. Unsurprisingly, RBM3 protein levels are highest in nasopharyngeal tissue. Coupled with its known role in positively regulating bound RNA, it is an appealing candidate for manipulation by respiratory viruses. We found siRNA knockdown of RBM3 significantly decreased viral replication. To disentangle the direct effect of RMB3 from the shift in global gene expression at colder temperatures, we generated an A549 cell line constitutively overexpressing RBM3 at 37°C. Overexpression resulted in a significant increase in levels of viral replication. RBM3 was found to readily bind viral NP mRNA during infection and prolong the half-life of these transcripts. In contrast, an RBM3 RNA binding null mutant reverses this phenotype, validating that direct interaction of RBM3 has a stabilising effect on viral transcripts. The proviral nature of increased RBM3 levels was further validated in the more clinically relevant model of well-differentiated primary nasal epithelial cells. These data suggest a role for RBM3 in supporting influenza virus replication in the nasopharyngeal tract. Understanding IAV replication in this

36   environment could prove fundamental to elucidating the mechanisms of influenza

37   transmission and reassortment.   - 3 -

Author Summary

To establish a productive infection, respiratory viruses must overcome or adapt to several systems within the body. One such obstacle is the temperature gradient of the respiratory tract. The upper respiratory tract, which serves as the primary route of viral transmission, provides the virus with a drastically different cellular environment compared to the lower respiratory tract, due to differences in growth temperatures. Here, we detail our investigation into the differences in the RNA binding protein (RBP) landscape between 33°C and 37°C. Our aim was to identify specific RBPs that are upregulated at 33°C and to explore their role in the influenza A virus (IAV) lifecycle, thereby advancing our knowledge of the molecular mechanisms underlying IAV infection in the upper respiratory tract. Through a combination of molecular virology and mass spectrometry, we identified a cold-inducible RBP, RBM3, as an important post-transcriptional regulator of IAV nucleoprotein (NP) mRNA. We show that RBM3 binds specifically to viral NP mRNA, stabilising the mRNA, and ultimately promoting the production of infectious virions, while abolishing the RNA binding capabilities of RBM3 reversed this effect. Overall, we find that enhanced RBM3, as seen in the upper respiratory tract, positively influences viral replication.

Introduction

Respiratory viruses are an ever-present pandemic concern, due in part to their airborne mode of transmission (1). While severe pathology from respiratory viruses such as influenza A virus (IAV) or SARS-CoV-2 generally occurs due to viral replication in the lower respiratory tract (LRT), viral transmission predominantly occurs from small droplets and aerosols from the upper respiratory tract (URT) (1–4).Thus, advancing research into the unique cellular environment of the nasopharyngeal epithelium is crucial to furthering our understanding of viral transmission (5) and will ultimately aid public health bodies in developing the next generation of nasal vaccines to boost mucosal immunity (6,7). A key aspect of this environment is the lower physiological temperature at which nasopharyngeal epithelial cells grow, generally at or below 33°C, compared to the average core body temperature around 37°C (8). This seemingly small difference in temperature can have wide-ranging effects on normal cell biology, and by extension viral replication kinetics (9).

Molecular interactions and reaction kinetics are governed by thermodynamics, and temperature constitutes a fundamental factor in regulating such processes. Consequently, the interaction landscape, concerning both nucleic acids and proteins, is considerably different in colder environments (10). Such variations can result in the misfolding of proteins or RNA, dramatically affecting the cell as a whole (10–12). Meanwhile, differences in affinities between RNA-binding proteins (RBPs) and target RNAs can have substantial effects on an array of post-transcriptional processes (13). Although differences in transcript and protein production have been observed with changing temperatures (14,15), it is not well understood how, on a global level, growth temperature affects the RBPs that bind to cellular mRNAs.

The central aim of this study was to better understand the cellular landscape encountered by

respiratory viruses, with a focus on IAV, and to determine how altered growth temperature

affects post-transcriptional regulation of viral mRNAs. Specifically, this work investigated how

the overall landscape of RBPs bound to mRNAs, termed the RBPome, of lung epithelial cells

(A549 cells) differs between growth temperatures of 37°C and 33°C. Previous studies have

recently demonstrated how important the host RBPome is to viral replication, affecting

critical aspects of viral RNA regulation (16,17), such as nuclear export (18), translational

control (17) and replication (19).

The data presented here describes a large variation in RBPs associating with cellular mRNAs,

finding a comparable number of RBPs whose association with mRNA is enriched or depleted

at 33°C when compared to that of 37°C. One of the most interesting RBPs highlighted by this

study, significantly enriched in the 33C dataset, was RNA Binding Motif 3 (RBM3). This RBP is

a classic cold-inducible protein and is reported to be important for the management of

cellular stress under hypothermic conditions (20,21). Moreover, it was recently identified by

ourselves and colleagues in an IAV mRNA interactome screen (22). Here, we uncovered that

RBM3, through its stabilisation of viral transcripts, is wholly pro-viral during IAV infection of

A549 cells. Importantly, this pro-viral role was further validated in well differentiated primary

nasal epithelial cells (PNAECs) from multiple donors through antisense oligonucleotide (ASO)-

mediated overexpression of RBM3 followed by infection.

Overall, these findings demonstrate a vastly different regulatory landscape for RNA likely

exists in the human URT, where cellular growth temperatures are just a few degrees lower

than core body temperature. This has an important impact on the replication of respiratory

viruses, providing a contrasting environment to that of the lower respiratory tract, which

viruses must adapt to and overcome in order to transmit efficiently.

Results

<u>The cold RBPome of A549 cells reveals RBM3 as a significantly enriched mRNA interactor</u>

As previously mentioned, the temperature gradient normally observed in the respiratory tract is known to yield distinct variations in cellular transcriptomes and proteomes (14,15) (Figure 1A). To identify specific RBPs that are differentially regulated through temperature, we employed RNA Interactome Capture (RIC) (23) 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.

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.

Loss of RBM3 negatively regulates IAV replication in A549s

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

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

mRNA interactome screen, 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).

Recently, the splicing factor Heterogenous Nuclear Ribonucleoprotein H1 (HNRNPH1), has

been identified to be the temperature-dependent regulator of RBM3 (13). In brief, RBM3 pre-

mRNA contains exon 3a, between exons 3 and 4, whose inclusion targets RBM3 mRNA for

decay via the nonsense-mediated decay (NMD) pathway (24). At 37°C HNRNPH1 binds only

weakly to exon 3a, resulting in the inclusion of the poison exon and a decrease in RBM3 levels.

However, at cooler temperatures (30-33°C), HNRNPH1 strongly binds within exon 3a,

resulting in the exclusion of the poison exon and a robust expression of RBM3 (13). Here, we

sought to characterise the inclusion of RBM3's poison exon in A549 cells, and to assess the

role of HNRNPH1 as a regulator of RBM3 during IAV infection. A549 cells were transfected for

48 h with either siNSC or an siRNA targeting HNRNPH1 (siH1), then treated with either DMSO

or cycloheximide (CHX) (40 μg/mL), for 16 h. CHX treatment was used to inhibit NMD,

preventing the degradation of RBM3 transcripts containing the poison exon, thereby making

the visualisation of the poison exon easier. Total RNA was harvested 16 h post-treatment and

RBM3 poly(A) cDNA was generated by reverse transcription. The cDNA was PCR amplified

using primers spanning RBM3 exons 3 and 4, so that transcripts including exon 3a would

generate longer amplicons. From Figure 2D inclusion of exon 3a is clearly visible for the

samples that were treated with both the siHNRNPH1 and CHX, and to a much lesser extent

the siHNRNPH1/DMSO-treated sample. Further quantification of exon 3a inclusion by qPCR

showed a nearly 11-fold increase for siHNRNPH1/CHX-treated samples compared to

siHNRNPH1/DMSO-treated samples (Figure 2E).

These data confirmed that the regulation of RBM3 in A549 cells is similar to that described

for induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived neurons (13). We next investigated whether

knockdown of HNRNPH1 would downregulate expression of RBM3 and mirror siRBM3

knockdown cells. A significant decrease in RBM3 transcript levels was confirmed by qPCR

upon transfection with siH1 (Figure 2F). HNRNPH1-depleted A549 cells were then infected

with WSN (MOI 0.01), and NP mRNA transcript levels were quantified at 0, 8, 24 and 48 hpi.

qPCR analysis revealed a significant reduction in viral transcripts in cells transfected with siH1

(Figure 2G). This again translated to a significant decrease in viral titres from siH1 treated

cells. (Figure 2H). Taken together, abrogation of RBM3 expression, through siRNAs targeting

directly RBM3 or indirectly via HNRNPH1, has adverse effects on IAV replication, and may

affect the post-transcriptional regulation of viral mRNA.

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) 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. (E) qPCR quantification of poison exon inclusion in the samples from Fig. 2D. (F) Quantification of RBM3 mRNA levels in siHNRNPH1 (siH1) A549 cells compared to siNSC treated cells. (G) Transcription levels of NP mRNA in siHNRNPH1 or siNSC treated A549 cells infected with WSN at 37°C. (H) Viral titres 72 hpi with WSN MOI 0.01 for siHNRNPH1 or siNSC treated cells.

RBM3 overexpression increases IAV replication and binds NP mRNA

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

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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 3A).

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 3B), 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 3C). Having these cell lines in

place, a direct interaction between RBM3 and viral transcripts could next be established.

Using RBPmap (25) and the published RBM3 binding motif (minimally GSNGSNG) (26), the

number of RBM3 high-confidence binding motifs on WSN transcripts was predicted (Figure

3D). 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. These

data, coupled with the previously published NP mRNA interactome dataset, suggest that

RBM3 could directly interact with NP mRNA (22). To confirm this hypothesis CLIP-qPCR was

performed in which A549-RBM3+ cells were infected at MOI 3 for 6 h, then UV crosslinked,

and subjected to FLAG immunoprecipitation. Finally, the covalently bound RNA was released

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

pulled down by an anti-Flag immunoprecipitation (Figure 3E), with Actin used as a control to

show that this enrichment was specific. Finally, RBM3-bound RNA was quantified by qPCR.

We evaluated whether NP mRNA was bound to RBM3, based on 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 and no primary antibody control samples, while no

enrichment in HA or Actin levels were observed, indicating little or no binding was by RBM3.

Taken together, these data indicate that an increase in RBM3 expression positively regulates

viral replication kinetics and establish a direct interaction between RBM3 and NP viral mRNA

transcripts.

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

(A) 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. (B) Generation of a lentiviral RBM3 overexpression (RBM3+) A549 cell line alongside a control empty vector line (EMP). (C) Titres of WSN at 72 hpi after an MOI 0.01 infection in EMP or RBM3+ A549 cells. (D) RBPmap predicted RBM3 binding motifs for each WSN positive strand segment, separated by predicted confidence of each motif. (E) Western blot showing input and pulldown samples for CLIP-qPCR, blotting for Actin and overexpressed RBM3-Flag. (F) qPCR quantification of the RNA extracted from CLIP samples demonstrated a significant increase in viral NP mRNA levels with minimal differences in HA or Actin transcripts, when comparing RBM3 to no antibody control pulldowns.

Overexpression of RBM3 selectively stabilises viral and cellular mRNA transcripts

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 (20,21). 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 (27). 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 mRNA was observed

(Figure 4A), a clear and significant increase in stability was quantified for NP mRNA with a

>70% increase in RNA half-life (Figure 4B). While viral M2 mRNA showed a modest increase

in half-life but no significant difference in stability (Figure 4C), it is noteworthy that

overexpression of RBM3 significantly and positively regulated cellular GAPDH levels (Figure

4D). This suggests that RBM3 stabilises mRNA transcripts, likely a form of cellular post-

transcriptional regulation for transcripts such as GAPDH, YAP1 (20) or GAS6 (21). This

mechanism is seemingly exploited by IAV during infection to promote viral transcript stability

and overall viral replication.

Figure 4 – Binding of RBM3 has a stabilising effect on mRNA transcripts.

Transcript stability in empty vector or RBM3 overexpression A549 cells was established by an actinomycin D (ActD) assay commenced at 6 hpi. Viral transcripts HA (A), NP (B) and M2 (C), and the cellular transcript GAPDH (D) were quantified over 5 hours with transcript half-lives quantified by a one-phase decay using a least squares regression.

An RNA-binding null RBM3 and a tethering reporter system confirms the stabilisation of RBM3-bound transcripts

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 5A) (28). 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 5A). Previous studies have shown that

single L>F substitutions within RNP motifs disrupt the RNA binding ability (29). When viral

titres from infected A549-RBM3+ and A549-RBM3 mutant cell lines were compared (Figure

5B), we observed a significant >95% decrease in titres from the RBM3 mutant cells.

Actinomycin D assays to determine RNA stability were repeated in A549-RBM3+ and RBM3

mutant cell lines. These revealed a loss of the stabilisation phenotype in the RBM3 mutant

cells for viral NP transcripts as well as cellular GAPDH (Figure 5C and 5D). Interestingly, a 70%

decrease in half-life for NP mRNA in the RBM3 mutant cells was observed, mimicking the

phenotype observed in the A549-EMP cells. These results indicate that, through mutation of

the RNA-binding motifs of RBM3 to generate an RNA-binding null mutant, we can obviate the

stabilisation capacity of RBM3, consequently leading to a decrease in virus output.

Figure 5 – Stability of mRNAs conferred by the overexpression of RBM3 is lost upon mutagenesis of the RNA-binding domains.

*Schematic representation of RBM3. Single nonsense mutations were introduced into the RNA binding domains, RNP2 and RNP1, creating an RNA-binding null mutant RBM3. **(B)** 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. **(C,D)** A549-RBM3+ or A549-RBM3 mut cells were infected with MOI 3 WSN for 6 hours, then treated with ActD. Viral NP transcripts (C) and cellular GAPDH (D) were quantified over 4 hours with transcript half-lives quantified by a one-phase decay using a least squares regression.*

Although our half-life experiments suggest a role for RBM3 as a NP mRNA stabilising agent,

we wanted to be certain of this function using a minimalist tethering experiment. To

accomplish this, 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 6A). 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 (30). 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 6B), providing further evidence that supports the role of RBM3 as an mRNA

stabilising agent.

Figure 6 – Confirmation of RBM3 as a stabilising agent using a tethering function assay.

(A) Schematic representation of the tethering reporter assay. (B) 293T cells were transfected with a Luciferase BoxB reporter
alongside either WT RBM3 or fused λN-RBM3. Cells were treated with Act D 48 hours post-transfection. Luciferase transcripts
were quantified over 4 hours with transcript half-lives quantified by a one-phase decay using a least squares regression.

<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 7A), 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 7B). 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 7C). 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 7 - 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

Considering the persistent threat of a respiratory virus pandemic, whether that be another coronavirus as seen with SARS-CoV-2, or a novel influenza strain such as the avian H5N1 circulating globally in wildlife, a thorough understanding of the tissues in which these viruses replicate is critical to combat potential pandemic risk. The URT serves as an important tissue for understanding the transmission of these respiratory virus. To prevent onward transmission, it is critical to limit viral replication and shedding from the URT (7). Therefore, there is a need to better characterise the cell biology of the URT, specifically the nasopharyngeal epithelium, to uncover unique virus-host interactions that may be essential for viral replication. Given the nasopharyngeal tissue of the URT is cooler than conventional core body temperature of around 37°C, it is likely that this reduction in temperature will have substantial effects on cell biology, resulting in important mechanistic differences in viral replication.

Herein, we uncovered how the overall environment of mRNA-binding proteins is altered in A549 cells cultured at 33°C compared to 37°C (Figure 1), and investigated how this would affect IAV replication. While we identified 63 RBPs unique to our 33°C dataset and 151 unique to our 37°C dataset, there were 209 RBPs in common between both growth temperatures. RBM3 was one such factor, shown to be significantly enriched on mRNAs at 33°C compared to 37°C. RBM3 is a known cold-inducible protein that has recently been shown to be regulated by the binding efficiency of HNRNPH1 to a poison exon (13). Studies have uncovered a role for RBM3 in promoting cell survival during cold stress (31,32), which may be due to positive regulation of post-transcriptional processes including mRNA stability (20,21) and translation (33). Aside from RBM3, several of the most enriched RBPs we observed in the 33°C RBPome,

including SND1, HNRNPC, TIA1 and ZC3H11A, have previously been reported to directly

associate with and regulate the RNAs of multiple respiratory viruses. SND1 has been reported

to associate with SARS-CoV-2 negative-sense RNA, with its binding required for viral RNA

synthesis (19). HNRNPC and TIA1 have also been identified as important SARS-CoV-2 RNA

binders, both promoting overall virus replication (34,35). Additionally, ZC3H11A has been

shown to positively regulate polyadenylation of HAdV-5 viral transcripts (36) and a further

cold-enriched RBP, YBOX1, may direct IAV vRNPs to the microtubule organising centre

(MTOC) (37).

Furthermore, RBM47 was found to be enriched over 3.5-fold in the 33°C dataset over that of

the 37°C. RBM47 is a broadly anti-viral RBP that has been shown to increase in expression in

the presence of viral infection or IFN stimulation and is essential for enhancing host IFN

signalling (38). Given that we have identified a greater level of RBM47 on cellular mRNAs at

33°C, it is interesting to speculate what role this may play in the baseline innate immune

responses of nasopharyngeal epithelial cells. If the increased abundance of RBM47 on host

mRNAs leads to a more anti-viral environment through enhancement of IFN signalling, then

RBM47 may be an important factor for our understanding of viral replication kinetics in the

URT and warrants further investigation.

With strong evidence that RBM3 is highly expressed in the URT (39), positively regulates

bound RNAs (20,21), and may bind to IAV NP mRNAs (22), we investigated how RBM3 directly

affects IAV replication. Knockdown of RBM3 resulted in a significant reduction in viral tires

and mRNA production (Figure 2). However, this is not necessarily indicative of a direct

interaction between RBM3 and viral mRNAs. Through a combination of RBPmap prediction

(25) of RBM3 binding motifs within WSN transcripts and CLIP-qPCR, we confirmed that RBM3

directly interacts with at least the NP mRNA of WSN (Figure 3). We next investigated how NP

mRNA may be affected by RBM3 binding. Recent studies identified RBM3 as a likely stabilising

factor for YAP1 (20) and GAS6 (21) transcripts, thus we investigated the stability of viral

mRNAs in our RBM3 overexpressing A549 cell line (Figure 4). We observed a significantly

elongated degradation profile for NP mRNA when RBM3 was overexpressed, but this was lost

upon mutagenesis of the RNA-binding domains of RBM3. We confirmed this phenotype in an

RBM3 tethering experiment, finding that recruitment of RBM3 to the 3'UTR of a reporter

mRNA significantly increased RNA half-life (Figure 5). Finally, to validate whether this

phenotype translates to a more clinically relevant model of IAV infection, we used a targeted

ASO treatment to increase RBM3 expression in primary nasal epithelial cells, prior to

infection. While there was the expected donor-to-donor variability in infection levels, overall

higher levels of RBM3 expression in each donor had a significant effect on multicycle viral

replication, quantified by increases in both NP mRNA and vRNA levels (Figure 6).

From these data, it is clear that the increased levels of RBM3 found in the nasopharyngeal

tissue of the URT would provide a pro-viral environment for IAV replication and transmission.

However, it remains to be determined if this would extend to the positive regulation of other

respiratory viruses. We have shown that RBM3 directly binds to IAV transcripts, with a

particular focus on NP mRNA. As RBM3 clearly increases the stability of NP mRNA, it is

incumbent to further investigate how cooler temperatures affect more general aspects of

RNA biology. Some cellular processes slow down due to cooler growth temperatures, with

translation rates being a key process among those reported to measurably decline (33).

Consequently, mature mRNAs would have to reside in the cell longer to be efficiently

translated. It is worth speculating that the stabilising role for RBM3 may then be in directly

preventing bound mRNAs from degradation by nucleases. This may be through protecting the

bound mRNA from endonuclease recognition and cleavage, or inhibiting binding of decay

factors, such as the exosome complex (40). Alternatively, Dresios et al., have reported that

overexpression of RBM3 enhances protein synthesis of targeted genes (33). As stated earlier,

it is well known that cooler growth conditions inhibit protein synthesis. Therefore, if RBM3

increases the ribosome loading of bound transcripts, the protection conferred by the

translation machinery would positively regulate transcript half-life. However, it cannot be

discounted that stability stemming from RBM3 binding may arise from stabilisation of RNA

secondary structures shown to be important for viral RNAs (41), modulation of RNA

modifications which are known to affect IAV transcripts (42), or even sequestration of mRNA

into membraneless organelles, already known to be important during vRNA trafficking (43).

While it appears IAV has evolved to recruit RBM3 to NP mRNA to positively regulate transcript

stability, and by extension overall IAV replication, we should also consider that this

mechanism of action may be hijacked for therapeutic purposes. With the seemingly rapid,

and successful deployment of mRNA vaccines to combat severe pathology arising from a

pandemic respiratory virus (44), in SARS-CoV-2, the next potential avenue in pandemic

preparedness would be the development of nasal vaccines that can induce a robust IgA

response and prevent onward transmission from the URT (45,46). With an inhalable form of

mRNA therapeutic having recently been successfully delivered to the airways of mice (6), it is

perhaps pertinent to explore whether the mRNA stabilising effects of RBM3 may be exploited

to enhance such therapies in the future.

Herein, we present RBM3 as an important host factor for IAV replication in the URT. RBM3 is

highly expressed in the nasopharyngeal tract due to cooler growth temperatures influenced

by the external environment. RBM3 binds to and stabilises IAV NP mRNA, while its loss has a

significantly inhibitory effect on viral replication. Taken together, it is clear that RBM3 is an

important host factor for efficient replication and onward transmission of IAV from the

nasopharyngeal tract.

Methods

Cells

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).

Virus stocks and infections

IAV WSN (A/WSN/33) stocks were generated from a reverse genetics system previously described (47). 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.

RIC

The protocol employed here to capture the RNA interactome of poly(A)+ RNA (RIC) from A549 cells has been described previously (17,23). 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 (23).

Protein visualisation

Western blotting was performed as has been previously described (48). 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

(49). 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 (50). 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) (51). 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>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 (42). 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>CLIP-qPCR</u>

The CLIP-qPCR protocol employed here has been published previously (52). Briefly, A549-

RBM3 and A549-EMP 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) 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 (53) (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>IAV growth kinetics at 37°C and 33°C</u>

For multicycle IAV infections, A549 cells were seeded 48hrs before infection. Cells were

infected with A/WSN/33 at an MOI 0.01 PFU/cell in DMEM for 1 h. The inoculum was then

removed, and cells incubated for 48 h in IAV growth media, described above, supplemented

with TPCK-trypsin. Supernatants were then titrated on MDCK cells by plaque assay.

<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 (53). 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 $\Delta\Delta$CT method.

<u>Actinomycin D assays</u>

A549-RBM3+, A549-Mut and A549-EMP cells were seeded at a density of 1 x 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 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 $\Delta\Delta$CT method and normalised to either A549-EMP or

A549-RBM3 levels.

λN tethering assay

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 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 $\Delta\Delta$CT method and normalised to the corresponding 0 h mRNA levels.

Well-Differentiated Primary Airway Epithelial Cell Culture

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

nasal epithelial cell (WD-PNEC) cultures were established as described previously (54). 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.

ASO transfection and IAV infection of cells

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.

Statistical analysis

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.

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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 Figure 1 – Growth curve of WSN replication quantified by viral transcript levels

Viral transcripts HA (A), NA (B) and M2 (C) were quantified in siRNA transfected A549 cells infected with WSN at MOI 0.01 at 0, 8, 24 and 48 hpi. Cells treated with an RBM3 targeting siRNA (siRBM3) for 48 h prior to infection demonstrated diminished transcript levels compared to a negative control (siNSC) siRNA.