1   **The splicing factor kinase, SR protein kinase 1 (SRPK1) is essential for late events in**

2   **the human papillomavirus life cycle.**

Arwa A. A. Faizo[1], Claire Bellward[2], Hegel R. Hernandez-Lopez[3], Andrew Stevenson, Quan

Gu***, and Sheila V. Graham[4].

MRC-University of Glasgow Centre for Virus Research, School of Infection and Immunity,

College of Medical, Veterinary and Life Sciences, University of Glasgow. Glasgow, Scotland

UK.

*** Joint senior author Quan Gu: Quan.Gu@glasgow.ac.uk

[1]Current address:

Special Infectious Agents Unit, King Fahd Medical Research Center, King Abdulaziz

University, P.O. Box 128442, Jeddah 21362, Saudi Arabia and Department of Medical

Laboratory Technology, Faculty of Applied Medical Sciences, King Abdulaziz University, P.O.

Box 80324, Jeddah 21589, Saudi Arabia.

[2]Current address:

Fios Genomics, BioCube 1, 13 Little France Road, Edinburgh BioQuarter, Edinburgh EH16

4UX, Scotland.

[3]Current address:

Illumina Belgium, Schaliënhoevedreef 20H, 2800 Mechelen, Belgium.

[4]Corresponding author:

Address: Botham Building, Garscube Estate, University of Glasgow, Glasgow G61 1QH,

Scotland, UK.

Tel: +44 141 330 6256

E-mail: Sheila.Graham@glasgow.ac.uk

Short title: SRPIN340 inhibits late events in the HPV16 life cycle.

ABSTRACT

Human papillomaviruses (HPV) infect epithelial causing benign lesions. However, the so-called "high risk" HPVs that infect the anogenital regions and the oropharynx can cause precancerous lesions that can progress to malignant tumours. Understanding the HPV life cycle is important to the discovery of novel antiviral therapies. HPV uses cellular splicing for the production of the full suite of viral mRNAs. Members of the serine/arginine rich (SR) protein family can positively regulate splicing. SR protein activity and cellular location is regulated by kinases through phosphorylation of their serine-arginine domains. SR protein kinase 1 (SRPK1) phosphorylates SR proteins to licence their nuclear entry and can promote nuclear splicing in conjunction with another SR protein kinase, Clk1. SRPIN340 is a specific SRPK1 inhibitor that has been reported to inhibit replication of HCV, Sindbis virus and HIV. Using organotypic raft cultures supporting the HPV16 life cycle, we show that SRPIN340 inhibits the expression of the viral replication and transcription factor, E2. Drug-mediated loss of E2 is specifically associated with inhibition of late gene expression since early gene expression is unaffected. RNA sequencing revealed that SRPIN340 treatment resulted in many gene expression changes opposite to those induced by HPV16 infection. In particular, the loss of epithelial barrier structure and immune function was restored. SRPIN340 treatment resulted in changes in alternative splicing of 935 RNAs and pathway analysis showed a predominance of changes to RNAs encoding proteins involved in chromatin conformation, DNA repair and RNA processing. SRPIN340 treatment was not associated with changes in proliferation or differentiation of keratinocytes. Collectively, these results provide evidence that SRPK1 is a host factor that is essential for HPV16 replication and therefore, targeting this factor, or the phosphorylation events it mediates, could be considered as a therapeutic strategy for HPV16 infection.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

Human papillomavirus (HPV) can cause precancerous and cancerous tumours of the anogenital region, for example, the cervix. HPV infects epithelial cells and utilizes the host

cell gene expression machinery to produce its own proteins. Splicing is a key mechanism

used by HPV to synthesise messenger RNAs that encode the viral proteins. Splicing is

positively controlled by SR proteins which require to be phosphorylated by SR protein kinase

(SRPK) to enter the nucleus and regulate splicing. SRPIN340 is a specific inhibitor of SRPK.

SRPIN340 treatment of HPV16-infected epithelial cells resulted in loss of expression of the

viral replication and transcription factor, E2 and abrogation of late events in the viral life

cycle. SRPIN340 treatment counteracted some gene expression changes to the epithelium

known to be cause by HPV infection. These data suggest that SRPK1 is essential for the

HPV life cycle and that it could be a potential anti-viral target.

Key words: Human papillomavirus; SR protein kinase; splicing; drug therapy.

INTRODUCTION

Human papillomaviruses (HPVs) are sexually transmitted and infect cutaneous and mucosal epithelia to cause benign lesions or warts [1]. Most HPV infections are asymptomatic and are eventually cleared by the host immune system [2]. However, persistent infection with one of the so-called high-risk HPVs (HR-HPVs), primarily HPV16 and HPV18, can cause lesions in oropharyngeal and anogenital mucosa which may progress to cancer. Globally, HPV16 and HPV18 infections account for up to 70% of cervical cancers, with HPV also linked to cancers in the head and neck, particularly in the oropharynx [3]. Vaccination against the most prevalent HR-HPVs has been delivered over almost the last two decades to young people prior to sexual debut [4]. However, the vaccines are prophylactic which means that there are several decades-worth of infected individuals who have not been vaccinated or have declined vaccination. Therefore, development of antivirals against HR-HPV infection is essential. Understanding viral gene regulation is important to this aim.

The HPV life cycle is intimately linked to differentiation of the epithelium it infects and is tightly regulated by virus-host interactions [5]. HPV early proteins E1 and E2 control viral replication. They are first expressed in basal epithelial cells to establish infection, then are expressed later in the upper epithelial layers to enable vegetative viral genome replication prior to virion formation [6]. E2 is also the viral transcription factor. Viral E6 and E7 proteins, are expressed throughout the life cycle to activate the cell cycle and suppress differentiation of suprabasal epithelial cells while stopping the apoptotic response by degrading p53 [7, 8]. The most abundant late protein is E4, which can alter keratinocyte filaments to facilitate virus replication and egress [9]. The final event in the HPV life cycle is expression of the capsid proteins L1 and L2. Capsid protein expression is restricted to the outermost epithelial layers, an immune-privileged site, to avoid activation of the host immune response [5].

Constitutive and alternative splicing, directed by RNA Polymerase II (RNAPII) transcription and the splicesome, are essential host cell mechanisms for production of multiple mature

mRNAs from a single gene. Constitutive and alternative splicing is regulated and enhanced

by serine-arginine-rich splicing factors (SRSFs) through their roles in splice site selection,

exon definition, spliceosome recruitment and stabilisation [10, 11]. They can bind to exonic

and intronic sequence enhancers (ESEs/ISEs) to promote splicing at specific sites. The

classical SRSFs include SRSF1-9 which all have a common structure composed of an N-

terminal RNA recognition motif (RRM), a C-terminal domain, which functions in spliceosome

regulation and protein interactions, and a serine-arginine-rich (RS) domain [11]. The RS

domain is subject to phosphorylation by kinases including serine/arginine protein kinase 1

(SRPK1) and CDK-like kinase 1 (Clk1) [12, 13]. This post-translational modification regulates

both the function and subcellular localisation of SRSFs [14, 15]. SRPK1 is normally present

in the cytoplasm of cells where it phosphorylates newly synthesised SRSFs, to licence their

entry into the nucleus [16]. In the nucleus, SRPK1 interacts with Clk1 to promote splicing

[13].

HPV gene expression is regulated at the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels [17].

Production of viral proteins occurs from multiple alternatively spliced mRNAs [18]. HPV

utilizes the host cell splicing machinery, including SR proteins, for viral protein expression,

but also controls host cell splicing. For example, the E2 transcription factor of the HR-HPVs,

HPV16 and HPV31, transcriptionally activates the promoters of the genes encoding SRSFs

1, 2 and 3, up-regulates SRPK1, and can bind SRSFs [19-21].

SRPIN340 is a specific inhibitor of SRPK1 through binding to the enzyme's active site [22,

23]. SRPIN340 has been shown to have anti-angiogenesis properties by inhibiting VEGF

splicing and has been suggested as a potential therapy against exudative age-related

macular degeneration and diabetic nephropathy, among other diseases [22, 23]. SRPIN340

has been shown to inhibit replication of HIV, Sindbis virus and hepatitis C virus [24, 25].

SRPK1 and SR proteins are essential factors for the life cycle of other viruses such as

herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV1) [26] and hepatitis B virus (HBV) [27] suggesting that

drugs to inhibit SRPK1 could have a general activity against a range of viruses.

We tested the hypothesis that SRPIN340 could inhibit the HPV life cycle through regulating

the SR proteins known to be required for HPV mRNA expression [28, 29]. We focused on

HPV16 as the most prevalent HPV genotype. We assessed the effect of SRPIN340 on viral

protein expression (E2, E4, E6, E7 and L1), and cellular SR proteins (SRSF1-3). We also

investigated whether SRPIN340 is associated with toxicity to the host cells in three-

dimensional raft cultures. Our results demonstrate that inhibiting SRPK1 using SRPIN340

can inhibit the expression of the HPV E2 replication/transcription factor, and lead to loss of

HPV late gene expression. Early gene expression was unaffected. No significant change to

epithelial growth or differentiation or to cellular proliferation or viability was detected. RNA

sequencing revealed that SRPIN340 induced some changes to keratinocyte differentiation,

and to the epithelial barrier, opposite to those caused by HPV infection.

RESULTS

Work by others has shown inhibition of replication of HIV, Sindbis virus and hepatitis C virus

by the SRPK1 inhibitor SRPIN340 [24, 25]. Following on from our previous findings that

HPV16 E2 up-regulated SRPK1 during the HPV life cycle [20], we were interested in

determining if SRPIN340 could act as an antiviral against HPV. First, we wanted to check if

there was any effect of the drug on the growth or morphology of 3D raft tissues supporting

HPV infection. We grew raft tissues using HPV16-infected keratinocytes (NIKS16 cells:

normal immortalised keratinocytes stably transfected with episomal HPV16 genomes [30,

31] (Supplementary Fig 1)). HPV16 was chosen as the primary focus due to its high

prevalence among high-risk HPV types associated with anogenital and oropharyngeal

cancers. We chose to test concentrations of the drug at 10 µM or 50 µM since these

concentrations had been optimised in previous virus replication studies [24, 25]. Preliminary

titration assays confirmed that these concentrations were optimal for effective inhibition of

SRPK1 without compromising cell viability in keratinocyte monolayer cultures. Compared to

the drug vehicle DMSO, the addition of SRPIN340 in the culture medium after 12 days of

tissue growth at either 10 µM or 50 µM, and applied for 48 hours, caused disordered growth

of the raft tissues (Supplementary Fig 2A). To minimize the effect of the drug on tissue

morphology we developed a method of applying the drug to the upper surface of the tissues

in a 50 µl droplet also for the last 48 hours of a 14-day growth period. This volume was

chosen because it covered the surface of the tissue without reaching the edge. In contrast to

the significant disruption to tissue morphology when SRPIN340 was added to the culture

media, there was no observable difference in morphology between DMSO or 10 µM

SRPIN340-treated tissues when the drug was applied to the top of the tissues

(Supplementary Fig 2B). Some disruption of the upper epithelial layers was observed when

the drug was applied at 50 µM (Supplementary Fig 2B).

To test whether SRPIN340 could enter the epithelium upon topical application we applied the

fluorophore Alexa 488 in a 50 µl droplet to the top of the raft tissues. This molecule has a

similar chemical structure to SRPIN340, which has a molecular weight of 349 Daltons. Alexa

Fluor 488 with a molecular weight of 570 Daltons is known to be transmitted between cells

by gap junctions, which permit intercellular spread of molecules >1 kDa in size [32]. As a

control, topical application of DMSO produced no autofluorescence (Supplementary Fig 2C).

Topical application of Alexa 488 revealed penetration down to the basal layers of the tissues

and fluorescence was distributed into all the cell layers of the epithelium (Supplementary Fig

2D). This suggests that SRPIN340, which is a smaller molecule than Alexa Fluor 488, could

travel through gap junctions throughout the epithelium.

SRPIN340 treatment leads to reduced phosphorylation and relocation to the

cytoplasm of shuttling SR proteins in keratinocytes.

To assess whether topically applied SRPIN340 had biochemical effects in HPV16-positive

cells, we quantified the levels of SRSF1 and 3, which are phosphorylated by SRPK1 [10], in

NIKS16 tissues grown for 12 days and then topically treated for 48 hours with either DMSO

or SRPIN340 and compared this with a control SR protein SRSF2, which is a poor substrate

of SRPK1. Using a phospho-specific antibody (Mab104) we found that levels of

phosphorylated SRSF1 and SRSF3 were reduced upon drug treatment (Fig 1A, C), while

levels of SRSF2 did not change significantly, as expected (Fig 1B). Next, we analysed the

effect of SRPIN340 on the subcellular location of SRSF1 and SRSF3, whose import into the

nucleus is controlled by phosphorylation by SRPK1, and SRSF2, which is mostly confined to

the nucleus [10, 11]. Compared to a mainly nuclear location in DMSO-treated NIKS16 cells,

SRSF1 and SRSF3 were found in the cytoplasm in SRPIN340-treated NIKS16 cells (Fig 1D,

F). In contrast, SRSF2 maintained a nuclear location in both DMSO and SRPIN340-treated

cells (Fig 1E). These data confirm efficacy of SRPIN340 in inhibiting the activity of SRPK1 in

in HPV16-positive keratinocytes.

SRPIN340 treatment does not change E6E7 oncoprotein expression or activity.

First, as a measure of HPV early gene expression, we investigated if SRPIN340 as an anti-

splicing drug affected the expression of the alternatively spliced mRNAs encoding the

HPV16 E6 and E7 oncoproteins (Fig 2A). For these experiments we used NIKS16 cells

grown in monolayer culture. End-point PCR analysis showed that the four main splice

isoforms of E6E7 mRNAs were present, and their levels were unchanged in the presence of

the drug (Fig 2B). Levels of E7 and E6 proteins in NIKS16 cells were much lower than their

levels in HeLa cells as a control for oncoprotein detection.   Importantly, there was no

detectable difference in levels of E6 (Fig 2C, D) or E7 proteins (Fig 2E, F) upon drug

treatment. Expression levels of the E6 degradation target protein, p53 and the E7 target, Rb

were also unaffected (Fig 2G, H).

SRPIN340 inhibits the expression of the viral E2 replication/transcription factor.

Next, we investigated the expression of viral late mRNAs using NIKS16 cells grown and

differentiated in monolayer culture to express viral late proteins (Supplementary Fig 1B).

Expression of the major late HPV16 spliced transcript, E1^E4^L1 and the L2L1 portion of the

readthrough transcript E1^E4, E5, L2, L1 (Supplementary Fig 3A) was not altered by

SRPIN340 in differentiated NIKS16 cells (Supplementary Fig 3B, C). However, expression of

the major mRNA encoding the viral E2 replication/transcription factor [33] (Fig 3A) was

inhibited when differentiated NIKS16 cells were treated with the drug (Fig 3B, lane 3).

Treatment with DMSO (Fig 3B, lane 1) or with SRPIN349, a SRPIN340 derivative which

does not inhibit the kinase activity of SRPK1 [25] (Fig 3B, lane 2), did not affect the

expression of the E2 mRNA. Western blot analysis of SRPIN340-treated NIKS16 cells

differentiated in monolayer culture revealed that drug treatment inhibited expression of the

E2 protein (Fig 3C). Detection of involucrin revealed that the cells were differentiated (see

also Supplementary Fig 1B). Quantification of three separate experiments showed a

statistically significant difference in E2 levels upon drug treatment (Fig 3D). HPV-negative

NIKS cell extract was included in the western blot as a control for the specificity of the E2

antibody. E2 levels were also significantly reduced in drug-treated NIKS16 raft tissues

compared to DMSO-treated controls (Fig 3E). Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy

confirmed that while E2 expression was detected in the upper layers of NIKS16 3D raft

cultures treated with the drug vehicle DMSO, very little E2 was present in drug-treated

tissues (Fig 3F). Taken together, these data indicate that SRPIN340 treatment is associated

with reduced expression of the alternative spliced HPV16 E2 mRNA, suggesting that SRPK1

kinase activity is important for its expression.

SRPIN340 inhibits late events in the HPV16 life cycle.

Loss of the viral replication and transcription factor E2 could result in abrogation of late

events in the viral life cycle [6]. We tested this by examining the expression of the major

capsid protein L1. Expression of L1 was significantly reduced by SRPIN340 treatment in

differentiated NIKS16 cells grown in monolayer culture (Fig 4A, B). Once again, HPV-

negative NIKS cell extract was included in the western blot as a control for the specificity of

the L1 antibody. Detection of involucrin revealed that the cells were differentiated. A

reduction in L1 protein expression was also found in NIKS16 raft tissues grown for 12 days

and then topically treated with DMSO or SRPIN340 for 48 hours (Fig 4C, D). E4 is the most

abundantly expressed late viral protein. Although antibodies against E4 work poorly in

western blot, the E4 B11 antibody can be used successfully in confocal immunofluorescence

microscopy. We performed immunofluorescence staining with E4 (Fig 4E) and L1 (Fig 4F)

antibodies on sections of DMSO-treated or SRPIN340-treated NIKS16 raft tissues to confirm

drug-induced restriction of late events in viral replication. There was a substantial loss of

both these late proteins in 3D raft tissues upon drug treatment suggesting that SRPIN340

treatment is associated with inhibition of the late phase of the viral life cycle, potentially due

to SRPK1 inhibition.

SRPIN340 results in significant changes in gene expression in NIKS16 cells opposite

to those induced by HPV16 infection.

SRPK1 inhibition can change how SR proteins regulate splicing, leading to changes in the

cellular transcriptome. To our knowledge, SRPIN340-induced changes to cellular

transcription in keratinocytes have never been reported. In addition, HPV E2 is known to

regulate the expression of many cellular genes [34], including SR proteins [19], so loss of E2

expression could contribute to SRPIN340-induced gene expression changes in HPV-infected

cells. We carried out RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) to compare gene expression profiles of

SRPIN340-treated to DMSO-treated NIKS16 cells grown in monolayer culture in three

replicates of each condition (Fig 5A). Read coverage of the human and viral genomes was

not altered by drug treatment (Table 1). However, drug treatment caused a significant

change in cellular gene expression (Fig 5A). A total of 342 cellular transcripts were up-

regulated, while 241 transcripts were down-regulated (Supplementary Table 1) with a fold

change of >log 2.0, Q-value <0.05. Table 2 shows the top 20 up-and down-regulated genes.

Ingenuity pathway analysis showed that genes whose expression was up-regulated by

SRPIN340 treatment in HPV-infected cells were involved in keratinocyte differentiation,

metabolism, immune response and the epithelial barrier (Fig 5B). Down-regulated pathways

included aspects of morphogenesis and cell motility, while cell adhesion and the immune

system were upregulated, which is consistent with the antiangiogenic activity of the drug

(Fig 5C) [22].

We compared the gene expression profiles of SRPIN340-treated NIKS16 cells to HPV16-

induced gene expression changes that we identified in a previously acquired dataset

comparing compared gene expression changes between uninfected NIKS cells (baseline)

and HPV16-infected NIKS16 cells [35]. For this analysis, and to capture the maximum

number of genes in common, we focused on genes that exhibited a fold change >log 1.5.

Analysis of these changes revealed 91 genes whose expression was altered in both

conditions. One important known change to the epithelium caused by HPV16 infection is an

abrogation of keratinocyte differentiation and loss of both structural and immune aspects of

the epithelial barrier. Comparison of the datasets showed that SRPIN340 treatment led to

up-regulation of keratinocyte differentiation genes and epithelial barrier-associated genes

that were previously shown to be down-regulated by HPV16 infection. Genes encoding

proteins involved in keratinocyte terminal differentiation such as filaggrin and keratin 10,

epithelial structural barrier such as loricrin, transglutaminase and repetin [36], and the

immune barrier such as keratin 16 [37] and SPRR proteins [38] (Fig 5D), were up-regulated

by drug treatment. Moreover, SRPIN340 affected the expression of five genes encoding key

immune regulators, including the interferon response factor IRF1 (Fig 5E) which are known

to be modulated by HPV16 infection. These findings suggest that SRPIN340 may have the

potential to restore some aspects of normal keratinocyte function altered by HPV16

infection.

SRPIN340 induces alternative splicing changes related to key processes in the HPV

life cycle.

RNA-Seq data from triplicate 10 µM SRPIN340-treated and DMSO-treated NIKS16 cells

were aligned to the human genome and subjected to alternative splicing analysis using the

bioinformatic tool SplAdder. 'Percentage spliced in' (PSI) values, which are calculated based

on the frequency of a particular exon being spliced into a specific splice isoform, were

calculated by SplAdder, and used as a measurement of alternative splicing events

comparing between SRPIN340-treated and DMSO-treated cells. Differentially spliced genes

were then ranked by statistical significance. SRPIN340 treatment resulted in changes in

alternative splicing of 935 genes (Supplementary Table 2).

To infer the biological significance of the changes to alternative splicing induced by

SRPIN340 treatment in NIKS16 cells, the genes identified as alternatively spliced were

subject to pathway analysis. Over-representation analysis was performed on the 935

significantly alternatively spliced genes (p-value <0.05) by Webgestalt [39]. The biological

processes affected by the changes in alternative splicing caused by SRPIN340 treatment

included RNA splicing, as expected due to the major role of SRPK1 in regulating splicing.

However, splicing of transcripts encoding DNA repair factors/DNA damage response was

also significantly altered (Fig 5F). The DNA damage response is essential for HPV

replication and alternative splicing-induced changes in DNA repair factors could create a

cellular environment inhibitory to HPV replication.

SRPIN340 is not toxic to keratinocytes.

If SRPIN340 can inhibit HPV16 replication it could have therapeutic potential. However,

cellular toxicity due to effects on host cell alternative splicing must be considered. We

examined the toxicity of SRPIN340 in uninfected NIKS and HPV-infected NIKS16

keratinocytes. Drug concentrations of 10 μM and 50 μM were tested over a period of 72

hours using cells grown in monolayer culture. DMSO was used as the vehicle control. Cell

proliferation was not affected by either drug concentration in either cell line (Fig 6A, B). A

small decrease in proliferation of NIKS16 cells was observed at the highest drug

concentration following treatment for 72 hours, however, this was not statistically significant

(Fig 6B). Cell viability of NIKS cells was only decreased significantly at the highest drug

concentration following treatment for 72 hours (Fig 6C), while NIKS16 cell viability was

unaffected (Fig 6D). Quantification of two cell proliferation markers, Ki67 and MCM2

confirmed that there was no statistically significant change in cellular proliferation upon drug

treatment of either NIKS (Fig 6E, F) or NIKS16 cells (Fig 6G, H). These data suggest that

short-term SRPIN340 treatment is not toxic to HPV-negative or HPV-positive keratinocytes.

DISCUSSION

Here we have demonstrated that SRPK1 activity is essential for the expression of the HPV16 E2 replication and transcription factor. We showed that key early and late viral mRNAs were synthesised in the presence of SRPIN340. Therefore, transcription of the viral genome is not inhibited by drug treatment, as expected since SRPK1 is associated with post-transcriptional events. Drug treatment did not affect the production of early spliced mRNAs or the late unspliced read-through mRNA containing open reading frames for L2 and L1, suggesting that SRPIN340 specifically inhibits alternative splicing of the E2 mRNA. It is not known which SR proteins are required for E2 splicing. However, a bioinformatic tool, ESE finder [40], predicts with high confidence the binding of SRSF2 and SRSF5 to a sequence 182 bases from the E2 splice acceptor site at nt 2709. Since the activity of SRSF2 is not affected by SRPIN340 treatment, this suggests that E2 alternative splicing is regulated at least in part by SRSF5. Studies by others have shown that hnRNP G has an enhancing effect on splice acceptor 2709 by binding to a sequence between the E2 splice acceptor site and the E2 start codon [41]. Both splicing regulatory factors could cooperate to enhance recognition of the E2 splice site.

E2 regulates alternative splicing of cellular genes [42], which may be due to E2 activating transcription of SR proteins [19]. E2 can also interact with SR proteins and inhibit splicing of suboptimal introns [21]. HPV1 E2 is phosphorylated by SRPK1 [43] but although HPV16 E2 is subject to phosphorylation, it has not been shown to be a substrate of SRPK1, perhaps because it has a short hinge region that does not contain SR repeats. However, the close association of E2 with viral and cellular splicing suggests an important E2-splicing factor regulatory axis in the HPV-infected cell. The requirement for SRPK1 to produce E2 protein and E2 up-regulation of SRPK1 in differentiated epithelial cells [20] underscores this axis and suggests that SRPK1 may be involved in promoting viral DNA replication, genome transcription, and mRNA splicing.

Surprisingly, although SRPIN340 treatment did not inhibit splicing of other major HPV16

mRNAs, it did reduce the cellular levels of HPV major late proteins E4 and L1. This suggests

that SRPK1 could positively control viral late mRNA expression at a level other than splicing.

SRPK1 is present in the cytoplasm of differentiated HPV16-infected keratinocytes [20].

Therefore SRPK1 could affect mRNA stability, or translation, either directly via its interaction

with intracellular signalling pathways [44] or through phosphorylating SR proteins such as

SRSF1 involved in these processes [11]. Alternatively, loss of E2 protein, which can activate

L1 expression [45] and can bind both E4 and L1 proteins [46, 47], could cause a reduction in

levels of both proteins at a post-transcriptional level or perhaps by destabilising the proteins.

Inhibition of late events in the viral life cycle could imbalance the differentiation-dependent

life cycle and potentially result in persistent infection and cancer progression. However, we

found no evidence for any tumour-promoting activity of SRPIN340 in HPV16-positive

keratinocytes, since cell proliferation and viability were unchanged in the presence of the

drug, and repression of differentiation due to HPV infection was reversed. Importantly, we

found that E6E7 expression and activity were not enhanced by drug treatment.

In our RNA-Seq analyses, SRPIN340 treatment led to up-regulation of expression of

keratinocyte differentiation genes with 31% of drug-induced gene expression affecting

epithelial differentiation. Keratinocyte differentiation factors included Desmoglein 1, which

forms cell-cell junctions to resist mechanical stress and preserve epidermal homeostasis

[48], SPINK5 and Kallikrein-12 which are a serine protease inhibitor and serine protease,

respectively [49] and loricrin and repetin, which are components of the cornified envelope

together with transglutaminase 1, which is involved in its formation [36]. Expression of

several keratins was up-regulated as well as filaggrin which binds to keratin fibres [50].

Finally, several of the SPRR proteins involved in epithelial barrier protection and immune

defence were also up-regulated [38]. Taken together, the up-regulation of these genes could

enhance the epithelial barrier thus counteracting its disruption as a result of HPV16 infection.

This drug-induced effect would be predicted to mechanically strengthen infected,

differentiated keratinocytes and inhibit HPV virion egress from the surface of the epithelium.

In adddition, we discovered that SRPIN340 treatment of NIKS16 cells changed alternative

splicing of RNAs encoding factors involved in cellular processes that are essential for HPV

life cycle including DNA damage repair, mRNA processing and chromatin conformation [29].

The effects of SRPIN340 on host cell gene expression may provide an environment in which

the host cell can no longer support HPV16 replication, life cycle and transmission.

In monolayer cultures, SRPIN340 had no detectable effect on the proliferation or growth of

HPV negative and positive cell lines except when used at high concentration (50 µM).

Although there was significant disruption to 3D raft tissues when SRPIN340 was added in

the culture medium, there was no change in the morphology or the growth of 3D raft tissues

upon topical treatment with the drug at 10 µM. Although animal experiments have

demonstrated that systemic oral delivery of SRPIN340 (even at 2000 mg/kg rat body weight)

is well tolerated [24] the changes to the epithelium caused by growth of tissues in medium

containing the drug suggest that the drug would be best delivered topically if used as an

antiviral therapy. SRPIN340 has already been proposed as a topical therapy against

diseases such as exudative age-related macular degeneration [22] and next-generation

inhibitors to be used at nanomolar concentrations are being developed. VEGF mis-

regulation is a key player in HPV-associate cancer progression. SRPIN340 alters VEGF

splicing and inhibits angiogenesis [22]. Therefore, although we have studied SRPIN340

activity in the HPV16 life cycle, it may have potential in therapeutic treatment of HPV-

associated cancers. Cancer-specific splicing can lead to the expression of oncogenic protein

isoforms, as has been shown for HPV-positive HNSCC [51, 52], which SRPIN340 could

ameliorate.

There are several limitations to this study. It is important to note that we carried out the

analyses in differentiated HPV16-infected, monolayer cultured cells and in differentiated raft

cultured tissues so we cannot make any conclusions about the effect of SRPIN340 on early

events in the viral life cycle or on persistently infected cells. Additionally, we did not include

uninfected keratinocytes treated with SRPIN340 in our transcriptome analyses. Therefore,

we cannot conclusively determine whether the observed gene expression and splicing

changes upon SRPIN340 treatment are specific to HPV16-infected cells or represent

general effects on keratinocytes. Moreover, it would be important in future to determine if

SRPIN340 could alter expression of E2 from other high-risk HPVs, or from low-risk

genotypes that cause genital warts, or even those HPVs such as HPV1 that cause common

warts. The long-term effects of SRPK1 inhibition on epithelial cell function warrant

exploration, as sustained inhibition could impact processes such as cellular differentiation

and tissue repair. Understanding these effects will be essential for developing safe and

effective therapies targeting SRPK. Given that SRPIN340 targets a host factor, combining it

with direct-acting antivirals could yield synergistic effects, enhancing antiviral efficacy while

potentially lowering the risk of resistance.

CONCLUSIONS

We have identified host cell gene expression changes following SRPIN340 treatment in

HPV16 infected cells. The anti-viral effect of SRPIN340 may be a combination of down-

regulation of production of the viral replication and transcription factor E2, together with

changes to splicing of host cell transcripts which collectively may alter the host cell

environment such that it can no longer support late events in the HPV16 life cycle. The

inhibition of HPV16 replication by SRPIN340 suggests that SRPK1 is a host factor crucial to

the HPV life cycle.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Culture

NIKS16 cells are normal spontaneously immortalised keratinocytes which have been transfected with HPV16 genomes [30, 31]. NIKS16 cells were grown in monolayer culture on a feeder layer of mitomycin-C-treated J2 3T3 cells as previously described [53] and were used at a maximum passage number of 15 to avoid genome integration. NIKS16 were induced to differentiate by growth at a high density in the presence of 1.2mM Ca^{2+} [19]. Cells were maintained in 5% CO_2 at 37°C. NIKS16 cells were treated with either DMSO or SRPIN340 (Sigma, UK: SML1088) dissolved in DMSO at the given concentrations on day 8 post-seeding into culture plates and cells were incubated in the presence of the drug for 48 hours.

Raft cultures were established as previously described [54] by seeding NIKS16 cells onto the top of collagen matrices in 24 well plates and incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2 for 2 days in E-medium until a monolayer was formed. Rafts were lifted to the air-liquid interface on a sterile stainless-steel wire grid and cultured for 14 days. The E-medium was changed every other day. DMSO or SRPIN340 (Sigma) dissolved in DMSO was added to the culture medium or placed on top of the raft tissues in a 50 µl droplet at the described concentrations on day 12 following lifting to the air-liquid interface and incubated for 48 hours.

Cell growth kinetics, viability and tissue morphology

Formalin fixed tissue cultures were paraffin-embedded and sectioned (2.5 µm sections). Sections were haematoxylin and eosin-stained and morphology was examined under an Olympus Bx57 light microscope. For cell viability and estimation of cell number, cells were harvested by trypsinization, diluted in 0.1% trypan blue at a ratio of 1:1, and counted using a haemocytometer. The number of unstained (viable) and total number of cells were determined.

<u>Tissue permeability of Alexa fluor 488</u>

Cell to cell gap junction connectivity and raft permeability were assessed by the ability of

cells to transfer the Alexa Fluor 488 dye (A10436, Invitrogen). Alexa Fluor 488 dye at 10 µM

was added to the top of 3D cultured tissues in a 50 µl droplet on day 12 of tissue growth and

allowed to spread through the tissue structure for 2 days. At day 14, tissues were fixed,

sectioned, counterstained with DAPI and dye spread between neighbouring cells from the

top to the bottom of the raft structure was visualized using a Zeiss LSM 710 confocal

microscope. Zen black software (Zeiss) was used for capturing images.

<u>Southern blotting</u>

DNA was isolated using the QiaAmp DNA mini kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to the

manufacturer's instructions then subjected to restriction enzyme digestion overnight at 37°C

with 25 units of enzyme per 20 µg DNA. To prepare the DNA probe, plasmid pEF-HPV16

was linearised by digestion with Bam HI at 10 units per µg DNA for one hour at 37°C. The

digestion products were fractionated on an agarose gel and the 8 kb viral genome band was

excised and purified using the QIAquick gel extraction kit (Qiagen, Germany) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was denatured by boiling for 5 min followed by chilling

on ice. The denatured DNA was labelled with Biotin-16-dUTP (Roche #11093070910, Merck,

UK) using the random primer labelling system according to the manufacturer's protocol

(Roche #11004760001, Merck, UK). Restriction enzyme-digested NIKS16 DNAs and, as a

size control, pEF-HPV16 digested with Bam HI, were fractionated on a 0.8% agarose gel in

1 x Tris borate electrophoresis buffer overnight at 20 volts. Gel treatment, DNA transfer onto

nitrocellulose membrane and hybridisation with the pEF-HPV16 probe was carried out

exactly as described in the Amersham Hybond N+ protocol (Cytiva, UK).

<u>Western blotting</u>

Cells in monolayer were scraped into NP-40 lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 150 mM

NaCl, 0.5% (v/v) NP-40 (IGPAL CA-630)), containing PhosphoSTOP (Merck, UK catalogue #

04693116001) and complete miniprotease inhibitor cocktail (Merck, UK, catalogue # 200-

664-3). Protein extraction from raft culture was carried out by adding a small amount of liquid

nitrogen to the tissue and grinding to a powder in a mortar and pestle. NP-40 lysis buffer

containing PhosphoSTOP (Roche) and complete miniprotease inhibitor cocktail as above

was added to the ground tissue, mixed and collected in 0.5ml Eppendorf tubes. The

insoluble matrix was removed by centrifugation for 20 min at 13,000 g at 4°C. All protein

concentrations were determined using Bradford's assay and a NanodropTM

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific).

Protein samples were resolved by 4-12% Bis-Tris SDS-PAGE (Invitrogen, UK catalogue

#NP0322BOX) using 1X NuPAGE MES gel running buffer (Invitrogen, UK, catalogue #

NP0002). Separated proteins in the gel were electro-transferred onto nitrocellulose

membrane at room temperature using the iBlot™ Dry Blotting System (Invitrogen, UK).

Membranes were blocked in 5% foetal bovine serum (FBS) in phosphate buffered saline

(PBS) for 60 min at room temperature. Membranes were incubated with primary antibody

diluted in PBS-T (PBS with 0.1% Tween) containing 5% FBS overnight at 4°C before being

washed three times with PBS-T. Primary antibodies were SRSF1 (1:1000, Mab96, Thermo

Fisher Scientific, catalogue # 32-4500), SRSF2 (1:1000, Abcam, catalogue #Ab204916),

SRSF3 (1:500, Life Technologies, UK, catalogue #334200), SRPK1 (1:500, clone G211-637

BD Transduction Laboratories, catalogue #611072), α-tubulin (1:5000, clone A11126,

Thermo Fisher Scientific catalogue # 236-10501), involucrin (1:1000 clone SY5, Merck, UK,

catalogue #19018), GAPDH (1:1000, Meridian Life Sciences, UK, catalogue #H86504M,

clone 6C5), HPV16 E2 (1:500 Santa Cruz, Germany, catalogue #sc-53327, TVG271),

HPV16 E6 (1:500, Santa Cruz, Germany, catalogue # sc-365089), HPV16 E7 (1:500 Santa

Cruz, Germany, catalogue #sc-51951), HPV16 L1 (1:500 Dako, Denmark, clone K1H8), p53

(1:700, BD Pharmingen, UK, catalogue #554294), Rb (1:500, Cell Signaling Technologies,

Germany, catalogue #9309, clone 4H1), MCM2 (1:500, Abcam, UK, catalogue #Ab133325),

Ki67 (1:1000, Abcam, UK, catalogue #Ab197234), keratin 10 (1:500, Abcam, UK, catalogue

#Ab9025). Monoclonal antibody104 (Mab104), which detects phosphorylated SR proteins,

was prepared from hybridoma supernatants (ATCC CRL-2067) and used neat. Secondary

antibodies were diluted in PBS-T containing 5% FBS and incubated with the membrane for

1h followed by three washes in PBS-T, two washes in PBS, and one rinse in dH_2O.

Secondary antibodies were goat anti-rabbit Dylight 800 conjugate (1:2000, Thermo-Fisher,

UK, catalogue #SA5-35571), goat anti-mouse Dylight 800 conjugate (1:2000, Thermo-

Fisher, UK, catalogue #SA5-35521) and IRDye anti-mouse 800CW (1:2000, IRDye Licor

Biosciences Ltd, UK, catalogue #926-32210). Membranes were imaged on an Odyssey

Infrared Imager (LiCOR). The intensity of protein bands was quantified using Odyssey

Image Studio software. Protein levels were determined and normalised to the level of the

endogenous control.

<u>Immunofluorescence staining and confocal microscopy</u>

Monolayer cultured cells were grown on coverslips until 70% confluent. Coverslips were

washed three times with PBS and cells were fixed in PBS containing 5% formaldehyde at

room temperature for 10 min. Permeabilization was carried out with PBS containing 0.5%

NP40 at room temperature. Coverslips were then washed three times with PBS. Blocking

was done in 10% filtered donkey serum in PBS for 30 min, followed by incubation with

primary antibodies diluted in the blocking solution for 60 min at room temperature, and then

washed three times with PBS followed by another wash in distilled H_2O. Primary antibodies

were SRSF1 (1:250, Mab96, Thermo Fisher Scientific, catalogue # 324500), SRSF2 (1:500,

Abcam, catalogue #Ab204916), SRSF3 (1:300, Life Technologies, UK, catalogue #334200),

HPV16 L1 (1:300 Dako, Denmark, clone K1H8), HPV16 E2 sheep antibody was a kind gift

from Prof. Jo Parish, University of Birmingham, UK and was used at a dilution of 1:300, HPV

E4 antibody clone B11 was a kind gift from Prof John Doorbar, University of Cambridge and

was used at a dilution of 1:300. DAPI and secondary antibodies were diluted in blocking

solution and added to the cells for 60 min, protected from light, prior to six washes in PBS

followed by one wash in dH$_2$O. Alexa fluor secondary anti-rabbit antibody 555 (1:1000,

Invitrogen, UK, catalogue #A-31572), Alexa fluor secondary anti-mouse antibody 488

(1:1000, Invitrogen, UK, catalogue #A-21202), Alexa fluor secondary anti-sheep 488

antibody (1:1000, Invitrogen, UK, catalogue #A-11-15). Coverslips were mounted on glass

slides with a glycerol-based mounting medium (Citifluor, AF1) and sealed with nail enamel.

Samples were examined using a Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope and Zen black

software (Zeiss) was used for capturing images.

Immunofluorescence staining of 3D organotypic raft culture sections was carried out on

paraffin embedded fixed 2.5 μm sections. Antigen retrieval of the fixed section was

performed by the histopathology department, Veterinary Diagnostic Services, University of

Glasgow using heat induced epitope retrieval (HIER) using the Menarini Access Retrieval

Unit method. Sample blocking, staining, and examination were conducted as described

above.

<u>RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis</u>

Total mRNA extraction was performed using TRIZOL reagent (Invitrogen, UK) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. For cells in monolayer culture, medium was removed, and

cells were washed twice with PBS. Cells were lysed by scraping into 500 μl TRIZOL reagent

for each well of a 6 well plate. Purified RNA was dissolved in DEPC-treated H$_2$O and stored

at -20°C. SuperScript^{TM} III First-Strand synthesis system for RT-PCR (Invitrogen, UK) was

used for cDNA synthesis according to manufacturer's instructions using (dT)$_{20}$ primers.

<u>End point RT-PCR</u>

For a single round of amplification 500 ng of cDNA was used in a total volume reaction of 20

μl using 200nM primers, 200 μM dNTPs, 1.5 mM MgCl$_2$ and 2 units *Taq* polymerase

(Invitrogen, UK). The amplification protocol was one cycle at 94°C for 2 min followed by 35

cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, annealing temperature of 55 ^{o}C (E4^L1: E4 Forward primer 5'-

GTTGTTGCACAGAGACTCAGTGG-3'   with   L1   Reverse   primer   5'-

CGTGCAACATATTCATCCGTGC-3') or annealing temperature of 57.8 ^{o} C (E6E7: E6

Forward primer 5'- GAGAACTGCAATGTTTCAGGACCC-3' with E7 Reverse primer 5'-

GAACAGATGGGGCACACAATTCC-3') for 45 sec followed by extension of 72°C for 1 min.

There was a final extension cycle of 72°C for 10 min. GAPDH cDNA was amplified as an

internal control (Forward primer 5'-AGGAAATGAGCTTGACAAAG-3' and reverse primer 5'-

ACCACAGTCCATGCCATCAC-3')

<u>Nested RT-PCR</u>

Amplification of L2L1 readthrough and E2 spliced mRNAs required two rounds of

amplification. For L2L1, the first round of amplification used the same PCR reaction

conditions described above with one cycle at 94°C for 2 min followed by 35 cycles of 94°C

for 30 sec, annealing temperature of 57°C for 45 sec followed by an extension of 72°C for 1

min. There was a final extension cycle of 72° C for 10 min (L2 forward primer 5'-

ACATGCAGCCTCACCTACTT-3'   with   L1   reverse   primer   1   5'-

AACACCTACACAGGCCCAAA-3'). For the second round of amplification, 1µl of the first

round PCR product was diluted in a total volume of 60 µl containing 200nM primers, 200 µM

dNTPs, 1.5 mM MgCl$_2$ and 2 units *Taq* polymerase. The PCR conditions were one cycle at

94°C for 2 min followed by 25 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, annealing at 57°C for 45 sec and 72

^{o}C extension for 1 min. This was followed with a final extension of 72 ^{o}C extension for 10 min

(L2 forward primer 5'-ACATGCAGCCTCACCTACTT-3' with L1 reverse primer 2 5'-

TGTCCAACTGCAAGTAGTCTGGATGTTCCT-3'). For E2 cDNA the conditions for the first

round of amplification were the same as for L2L1 cDNA except using E1 Forward primer 5'-

ATCTACCATGGCTGATCCTGC-3'   and   E2   Reverse   primer   5'-

GCAGTGAGGATTGGAGCACTGTC-3'. The conditions for the second round of amplification

were the same as for L2L1 cDNA except that the annealing temperature was 63.2^{o}C for 35

cycles   of   amplification   using   E1^E2   cross   splice   Forward   primer   5'-

TGGCTGATCCTGCAGATTC-3' and E2 Reverse primer 5'-

CTTCGGTGCCCAAGGCGACGGCTTTGGTAT-3'. 10 µl of the final PCR products were

fractionated on a 6% acrylamide gel. Electrophoresis was performed at 100 V and the gel

was stained with 0.5 µg/ml EtBr for 15 min. PCR products were visualized under UV.

Statistical analysis

Microsoft Excel software was used for plotting the data and calculating mean, standard

deviations (SD), and p-values. Statistical significance was determined by students t-test with

p≤ 0.05 considered significant. All experiments were performed at least three times.

Next Generation Sequencing

RNA was prepared using the Qiagen RNeasy kit from monolayer cultured NIKS16 cells

grown for eight days to high density in the presence of 1.2. mM Ca^{2+} and treated either with

DMSO or 10 µM SRPIN340 dissolved in DMSO for 48 hours. RNA quantification and quality

was assessed by Qubit and Agilent TapeStation, respectively. Ribosomal RNA was depleted

using the Illumina RiboZero Gold H/M/R Kit (Illumina, UK). Libraries were prepared using the

TruSeq Stranded mRNA Kit (Illumina, UK) and cDNA was made using a Superscript II

reverse transcriptase reaction (Invitrogen, UK). cDNA was converted to dsDNA and cleaned

up using Beckman Coulter's RNAClean XP (1.8 ratio) and then A-tailed. Illumina TruSeq LT

adapters were ligated to the samples and cleaned up with a 1:1 bead ratio of AMPure XP

followed by size selection using SPRIselect (Beckman Coulter, UK). The library was

assessed for quality by Qubit and Agilent TapeStation. RNA paired-end sequencing was

carried out using Illumina Genome Analyzer sequencing at the University of Glasgow.

Alignment of fastq files and read summarization

The six raw RNA sequencing fastq files (3 x SRPIN340-treated and 3 x DMSO-treated) were

analysed for quality using FastQC (version 0.11.2) and reads were trimmed of adaptor

sequences and low-quality bases using Trimgalore. The trimmed reads were aligned to the

human genome GRCh38 (*Ensembl*) using Hisat2 (version 2.0.5) [55] in the Linux

environment (version 18.04.3). FeatureCounts (Version 1.5.1) [56] was used to quantify the

reads by read summarization.

Differential gene expression analysis

Differential gene expression analysis of SRPIN340-treated and DMSO-treated NIKS16 cells

was determined using the Bioconductor package (Version 3.12) and DESeq2 (Version

1.30.1) [57], in the R environment (version 4.0.5). Differentially expressed genes were

filtered by Q-value<0.05 and log fold change cut off of 2 except for comparison of

SRPIN340-related versus HPV16 infection-related changes to NIKS16 gene expression

where log fold change of 1.5 was used. Genes which were differentially expressed were

variance stabilisation transformed for normalisation and visualisation on a heatmap.

Pheatmap (version 1.0.12) was used for visualisation.

Pathway Analysis

BiomaRt (version as 2.46.3) was used to convert *ensembl* gene ID into gene symbols before

pathway analysis was performed. Over representation analysis was performed using

ClusterProfiler (version 3.18.1) [58] in the R environment. Enrichment of gene ontology (GO)

terms was determined for the subontology category, biological processes for 354 up and 241

down regulated genes (log fold change >2). The statistical test used includes a

hypergeometric statistical test with Bonferroni correction. The thresholds used were Q-value

< 0.05. Functional clustering of GO terms was performed using enrichplot (version 1.12.0).

Comparison of differentially expressed genes upon HPV16 infection

Differentially expressed genes from HPV16-infected NIKS16 cells and uninfected NIKS cells

[35] were compared manually to differentially expressed genes upon SRPIN340 treatment.

Genes involved in epithelial barrier function and innate immunity were identified from both

data sets.

<u>Over representation analysis of alternative splicing events.</u>

Bam files from the RNA paired-end sequencing of 10 µM SRPIN340-treated or DMSO-

treated NIKS16 cells were sorted by co-ordinate, indexed and subject to SplAdder analysis

[59] to measure and quantify alternative splicing events. Percentage spliced in (PSI) values

were quantified for each splicing event and an independent two-tailed students t-test was

performed for DMSO-treated and SRPIN340-treated values in order to determine the most

significant differentially spliced genes upon SRPIN340 treatment. Pathway analysis was

performed using Webgestalt ((http://www.webgestalt.org/) [39]. Over representation analysis

was carried out testing for biological processes using Benjamini-Hochberg multiple testing

adjustment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to thank Prof. John Doorbar, University of Cambridge, UK, for providing NIKS

and NIKS16 cells lines and the anti-E4 B11 antibody. The sheep anti-E2 antibody was a kind

gift from Prof. Joanna Parish, University of Birmingham, UK. Our thanks go to Dr Jean

Quinn, University of Glasgow, for 3D raft culture training.

DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The raw data for the results described here is available upon request. RNA-Seq data sets

are freely available from the European Nucleotide Archive accession number PRJEB80489**.**

FUNDING

This work was funded by a studentship #K1513 to AAA Faizo from the King Abdulaziz

University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. QG is funded by the Medical Research Council grant

number MC_UU_00034/5.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

AAA. Faizo: Investigation, formal analysis, validation and visualization, writing review and

editing.

C. Bellward: Investigation, formal analysis, validation and visualization.

H. Hernandez Lopez: Investigation, formal analysis, validation and visualization, writing

review and editing.

A. Stevenson: methodology, supervision, project administration.

Gu Q.: Investigation, formal analysis, supervision, writing review and editing.

S. Graham: Conceptualization, supervision, writing, review and editing

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

We declare no conflict of interest.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. SRPIN340 inhibits phosphorylation of SRSF1 and SRSF3. NIKS16 cells in

monolayer culture were mock-treated or treated with 10 μM SRPIN340 or with the drug

vehicle, DMSO. A. Representative western blot and graph of the quantification of levels of

SRSF1 relative to levels of β-tubulin. B. Representative western blot and graph of the

quantification of levels of SRSF2 relative to levels of β-tubulin. C. Representative western

blot and graph of the quantification of levels of SRSF3 relative to levels of β-tubulin. The

data shown are the mean and standard deviation from the mean from three separate

experiments. $p < 0.05$, p-value less than 0.05. *, statistically significant difference in relative

protein levels. ns, not statistically significant. D-F. NIKS16 cells treated with DMSO or with

10 μM SRPIN340 D. Immunofluorescence microscopy of cells stained with an antibody

against SRSF1. E. Immunofluorescence microscopy of cells stained with an antibody

against SRSF2. F. Immunofluorescence microscopy of cells stained with an antibody against

SRSF3. The left-hand panels show SRSF staining in green. The right-hand panels show

SRSF staining merged with DAPI (blue staining). Representative images from three

separate experiments are shown. Size bars = 10μm.

Figure 2. SRPK1 inhibition does not alter HPV16 oncoprotein expression or activity. A.

Diagram of the E6E7 coding region of the HPV genome showing the unspliced (E6fl) and

three spliced RNAs that are transcribed from the region (E6*I, E6*II, E6*X). P_{97}, HPV16 early

promoter located at nucleotide 97 on the genome. Forward and reverse facing chevrons

indicate the approximate position of the primers used in the PCR reaction in (B). B. Gel

image showing end point RT-PCR products using the primers indicated in (A) to amplify all

four E6E7 mRNAs from NIKS16 cells grown in monolayer culture and treated with DMSO or

10 μM SRPIN340. M = size marker. Western blot of levels of (C) E6 and (E) E7 in monolayer

cultured NIKS16 cells either mock-treated or treated with DMSO, or SRPIN340 at 10 μM or

50 μM. HeLa cell extract was included on the blot as a positive control for detection of E6.

The upper portion of the blot was reacted with an anti β-tubulin antibody as a loading control.

Graph showing quantification of three separate western blot experiments of the levels of (D)

E6 and (F) E7 relative to β-tubulin, in HeLa cells as a control and in NIKS16 cells using the

various experimental conditions in the western blots. G. Western blots of levels of Rb, p53

and GAPDH as a loading control, in monolayer cultured NIKS16 cells mock-treated or

treated with DMSO, or SRPIN340 at 10 µM or 50 µM. H. Graph showing quantification of

p53 and Rb levels in the western blot in G. Expression levels were calculated relative to the

GAPDH loading control. The data in all the graphs are the mean and standard deviation

from the mean from three separate experiments. ns, not statistically significant.

Figure 3. SRPK1 inhibition leads to loss of E2 expression through loss of the spliced

mRNA encoding E2. A. Diagram of the early region of the HPV16 genome downstream of

the E6E7 gene region. P_{670}, HPV16 late promoter located at nucleotide 670 in the E7 coding

region. p(A)E, the HPV16 early polyadenylation site. Open rectangles, HPV16 early genes

E1, E2, E4, E5. Below is the genome map is shown a diagram of the major spliced mRNA

encoding E2. Shaded rectangles, open reading frames. Lines represent RNA sequences

which are spliced out to form the E2 mRNA. AAAn, poly(A) tail. Chevrons indicate forward

and reverse primers used in the first round of the nested RT-PCR reaction shown in B. A red

split chevron indicates the forward primer used in the second round of the nested PCR

amplification shown in B. This cross-splice epitope primer was used with the reverse primer

located inside the E2 open reading frame. SD880, splice donor site at nucleotide 880.

SA2709, splice acceptor site at nucleotide 2709. B. Upper panel: ethidium bromide-stained

gel showing the products of an RT-PCR reaction to amplify the E2 mRNA from NIKS16 cells

cultured in monolayer and treated with DMSO (lane 1) or with SRPIN349 (lane 2), which

does not inhibit SRPK1, or with SRPIN340 (lane 3). Lower panel: GAPDH cDNA was

amplified as a loading control. The gel picture is split because the GAPDH reactions were

electrophoresed on the right-hand side of the same gel used to visualise the E2 amplification

products which were electrophoresed on the left-hand side adjacent to the size markers. C.

Western blot showing levels of E2 in monolayer cultured and differentiated NIKS16 cells

mock-treated, DMSO-treated or treated with either 10 µM or 50 µM SRPIN340. Protein

extract from HPV-negative NIKS cell was included in the experiment to demonstrate

specificity of the E2 antibody. The upper portion of the blot was reacted with an anti-

involucrin antibody to demonstrate that the cells were differentiated. β-tubulin was used as a

loading control. D. Graph showing quantification of E2 levels relative to the β-tubulin loading

controls in the various experimental conditions used in the western blot in C. The data

shown are the mean and standard deviation from the mean from quantification of three

separate western blot experiments. $p < 0.05^*$, p-value indicating a significant difference in E2

expression levels. E. Graph showing quantification of E2 levels relative to the β-tubulin

loading controls using protein extracts from NIKS16 cells grown in 3D raft cultures. The data

shown are the mean and standard deviation from the mean from three separate western blot

experiments Representative western blots showing E2 and β-tubulin levels are shown above

the graph. $p < 0.05^*$, p-value indicating a significant difference in E2 expression levels. F.

Immunofluorescence staining with an E2 antibody (green staining, left hand panels) and

counterstained with DAPI (blue staining, right hand panels) of sections of 3D NIKS16 raft

tissues topically treated with DMSO or with 10 µM SPRIN340. Dotted lines indicate the basal

membrane of the tissues. Size bars=50 µm.

Figure 4. SRPK1 activity is required for HPV16 late gene expression. A. Western blot

analysis of levels of L1 protein in monolayer cultured NIKS16 cells mock-treated or DMSO-

treated or treated with 10 µM or 50 µM SRPIN340. NIKS cell extract was included on the

blot as a control for the specificity of the L1 antibody. The upper portion of the blot was

reacted with an antibody against involucrin to demonstrate that the cells were differentiated.

GAPDH was used as a loading control. B. Graph showing quantification of L1 levels relative

to the GAPDH loading controls in the various experimental conditions used in the western

blot in A. The data shown are the mean and standard deviation from the mean from three

separate western blot experiments. p<0.05*, p-value indicating a significant difference in L1

expression levels. C. Western blot analysis of levels of L1 protein in 3D raft cultured NIKS16

tissues topically-treated with either DMSO or 10 µM SRPIN340. NIKS tissue extract was

included on the blot as a control for the specificity of the L1 antibody. GAPDH was used as a

loading control. D. Graph showing quantification of L1 levels relative to the GAPDH loading

control in the experimental conditions used in the western blot in C. The data shown are the

mean and standard deviation from the mean from three separate western blot experiments.

p<0.05*, p-value indicating a significant difference in L1 expression levels. E.

Immunofluorescence microscopy of sections of NIKS16 3D raft tissues topically-treated with

DMSO or with 10 µM SRPIN340 and stained with an antibody against E4 (green staining,

left-hand panels) or counterstained with DAPI (blue staining, right-hand panels). F.

Immunofluorescence microscopy of sections of NIKS16 3D rafts tissues treated with DMSO

or treated with 10 µM SRPIN340 and stained with an antibody against L1 (green staining,

left-hand panels) or counterstained with DAPI (blue staining, right-hand panels). Dotted lines

indicate the basal membrane of the tissues. Size bars=50 µm.

Figure 5. RNA sequencing of SRPIN340-treated tissues reveals that the drug

counteracts some of the effects of HPV16 infection on keratinocytes. A. Heatmap of

overall changes in gene expression in NIKS16 cells caused by SRPIN340 treatment. Three

replicates of DMSO-treated and 10 µM SRPIN340-treated NIKS16 cells were sequenced. B.

Pie chart showing the relative percentages of categories of SRPIN340 up-regulated genes in

NIKS16 cells. The GO terms for the up-regulated pathways are shown on the right-hand

side. C. Pie chart showing the relative percentages of categories of SRPIN340 down-

regulated genes in NIKS16 cells. The GO terms for the down-regulated pathways are shown

on the right-hand side. D. Graph showing genes involved in the epithelial structural barrier

that are down-regulated by HPV16 infection [35] but up-regulated by SRPIN340 treatment.

E. Graph showing genes involved in innate immunity that are oppositely regulated by HPV16

infection [35] and SRPIN340 treatment. F. Over representation analysis showing the various

cellular processes that are altered by SRPIN340-induced changes in alternative splicing.

Figure 6. SRPIN340 treatment does not alter cell proliferation or viability in monolayer

cultured keratinocytes. A. Proliferation of HPV-negative NIKS cells over 72 hours, mock-

treated or following treatment with the drug vehicle DMSO or with 10 μM or 50 μM

SRPIN340. B. Proliferation of NIKS16 cells over 72 hours, mock-treated or following

treatment with the drug vehicle DMSO or with 10 μM or 50 μM SRPIN340. C. Viability of

HPV-negative NIKS cells over 72 hours, mock-treated or following treatment with the drug

vehicle DMSO or with 10 μM or 50 μM SRPIN340. D. Viability of NIKS16 cells over 72 hours,

mock-treated or following treatment with the drug vehicle DMSO or with 10 μM or 50 μM

SRPIN340. $p < 0.05$, p=value of significance. E. Western blot analysis of levels of MCM2 and

Ki67 in NIKS cells mock-treated or following treatment with the drug vehicle DMSO or with

10 μM or 50 μM SRPIN340 for 48 hours. GAPDH was used a loading control. F. Graph of

quantification of levels of MCM2 and Ki67 relative to GAPDH in western blots of NIKS cell

extracts. The data shown are the mean and standard deviation from the mean from three

separate western blot experiments. ns, no significant difference. G. Western blot analysis of

levels of MCM2 and Ki67 in NIKS16 cells mock-treated or following treatment with the drug

vehicle DMSO or with 10 μM or 50 μM SRPIN340 for 48 hours. GAPDH was used a loading

control. H. Graph of quantification of levels of MCM2 and Ki67 relative to GAPDH in western

blots of NIKS16 cell extracts. The data shown are the mean and standard deviation from the

mean from three separate western blot experiments. ns, no significant difference.

Supplementary Figure 1. NIKS16 cells contain episomal genomes and undergo late

events in the viral life cycle. A. Southern blot analysis of HPV16 genomes in NIKS16 cells.

DNA was isolated from monolayer cultured NIKS16 cells and digested with either Bam HI,

which cuts the genome once (lane 2), or Hind III, which does not cut the genome (lane 3).

The HPV16 genome was cut from plasmid pEF-HPV16 with Bam HI as a size control for the

episomal genome (lane 1). B. Western blot analysis of HPV16 E2 and L1 expression in

protein lysates from NIKS and NIKS16 cells grown in monolayer culture to give an

undifferentiated cell population (U, lanes 1 & 2) or differentiated by growing to high density in

the presence of 1.2 mM Ca^{2+} (D, lanes 3 & 4). Involucrin and keratin 10 were used as

controls for keratinocyte differentiation. GADPH is used as a loading control.

Supplementary Figure 2. Topical SRPIN340 treatment of 3D raft tissues does not

disrupt tissue morphology and may be transmitted throughout the tissues. A. H&E

staining of NIKS16 3D raft tissues grown for 12 days then grown in the presence of 10 or 50

µM SRPIN340 in the culture medium for 48 hours. B. H&E staining of NIKS16 3D raft tissues

grown for 12 days followed by topical application of 10 or 50 µM SRPIN340 in a 50 µl droplet

and incubation for 48 hours. C. Autofluorescence control of NIKS16 3D tissues stained with

the same secondary antibody used in D. D. Immunofluorescence microscopy of NIKS16 3D

tissues topically treated with Alexa-fluor 488 (Alexa488: green staining). Tissues in the right-

hand panels of C. and D. are counterstained with DAPI. The junction of the basal layer of

cells with the dermal equivalent is indicated by a dotted line. Size bars = 50 µM.

Supplementary Figure 3. SRPIN340 treatment does not alter expression of the HPV16

major late mRNAs. A. Diagram of the portion of the HPV16 genome downstream of the P_{670}

promoter. The E1^E4^L1 alternatively spliced mRNA that encodes E4 and L1 and the

readthrough mRNA E1^E4, E5, L2 and L1 that is thought to encode L2 are shown beloiw the

genome map. P_{670}, HPV16 late promoter located at nucleotide 670. p(A)L, late

polyadenylation site. Open rectangles, HPV16 genes E1, E2, E4, E5, L2 and L1. Shaded

rectangles, open reading frames. Lines represent RNA sequences which are spliced out to

form the mRNAs. AAAn, poly(A) tail. Chevrons indicate the approximate positions of forward

and reverse primers used in the PCR reactions shown in (B) and (C). B. Ethidium bromide-

stained gel showing the PCR products obtained from amplification of NIKS16 cDNA using

the primer pair indicated in (A) for the E1^E4^L1 mRNA. GAPDH primer pairs were added to

the same reaction for a loading control. * non-specific bands. C. Upper panel: ethidium

bromide-stained gel showing the PCR products obtained from amplification of NIKS16 cDNA

using the primer pairs indicated in (A) in a nested PCR reaction to amplify across the L2-L1

junction from the E1^E4, E5, L2, L1 readthrough mRNA. Lower panel: amplification of

GAPDH as a loading control. In (B) and (C) the gel pictures are split because additional

reactions were electrophoresed between the marker lane and the DMSO and SRPIN340

lanes.

	Sample	No. of reads	Alignment to HPV16 genome (%)	Alignment to Human Genome (%)
No drug	1	46578063	0.04	82.10
No drug	2	29538705	0.04	85.16
No drug	3	37758387	0.04	80.54
SRPIN340	4	28468475	0.05	84.32
SRPIN340	5	31260092	0.05	86.22
SRPIN340	6	32025480	0.04	80.28

870   **Table 1**. Number of sequencing reads and percent alignment to the HPV16 and human

871   genomes for each sample subjected to RNA sequencing.

Gene	Negative fold change	Positive fold change	Q-value
TMPRSS11D		6.797647766	8.66E-05
SERPINB11		6.032431007	0.000679
CYP1A1		5.968312781	1.21E-25
HRNR		5.415118392	0.004903
ENDOU		4.90915265	1.9E-06
LOR		4.607461151	0.001384
FAIM2		4.555164059	0.010715
LIPN		4.437793821	0.017848
SH2D1B		4.393057631	2.56E-05
CRNN		4.163890496	6.37E-29
CAPN14		4.084787111	1.06E-05
AQP5		4.069593091	6.13E-19
KLK12		4.00172104	4.12E-13
TMPRSS11A		3.98695018	3.71E-15
FLG2		3.887629517	9.25E-17
CEACAM5		3.819780979	0.000152
S100A7		6.797647766	8.66E-05
ARG1		6.032431007	0.000679
SPINK7		3.463702469	1.75E-31
SPAG17		3.4159458	8.97E-05
ANKRD1	-4.307959272		0.000146
MYL9	-4.205082349		6.30E-05
MYL7	-3.538350233		2.91E-06
GLP2R	-3.287298644		0.021162

MGP	-2.883346003		5.85E-19
KDR	-2.856988802		3.51E-24
ALDH1L2	-2.742967901		0.000597
TGM2	-2.707864354		4.79E-17
DRD2	-2.678088804		0.007043
ALOX5AP	-2.67413198		6.89E-06
TAGLN	-2.544919939		5.02E-34
COL8A1	-2.329975942		1.59E-12
SELENOP	-2.313804905		0.035668
TOX2	-2.279567504		0.035591
WFDC2	-2.742967901		0.000102
SLC7A7	-2.087552302		6.50E-05
ANPEP	-1.964638827		0.003945
C3	-1.951676084		1.11E-30
PTPRB	-1.933491109		0.00429349
SLCO2A1	-1.915283426		1.33E-03

873 **Table 2**. Fold change of the top 20 up- and 20 down-regulated protein-coding genes by

874 SRPIN340 treatment compared to DMSO treatment in NIKS16 cells. Q-value adjusted for

875 multiple hypotheses by DESeq2 analysis.

REFERENCES

1.   Egawa N, Egawa K, Griffin H, Doorbar J. Human Papillomaviruses; Epithelial

Tropisms, and the Development of Neoplasia. Viruses. 2015;7(7):2802. PubMed PMID:

doi:10.3390/v7072802.

2.   Stanley MA. Epithelial Cell Responses to Infection with Human Papillomavirus. Clin

Microbiol Rev. 2012;25(2):215-22. doi: 10.1128/cmr.05028-11.

3.   Graham SV. The human papillomavirus replication cycle, and its links to cancer

progression: a comprehensive review. Clin Sci (Lond). 2017;131(17):2201-21. Epub

20170810. doi: 10.1042/cs20160786.

4.   Harper DM, DeMars LR. HPV vaccines – A review of the first decade. Gynecol

Oncol. 2017;146(1):196-204. doi: 10.1016/j.ygyno.2017.04.004.

5.   Kirk A, Graham SV. The human papillomavirus late life cycle and links to keratinocyte

differentiation. J Med Virol. 2024;96(2):e29461. doi: 10.1002/jmv.29461.

6.   McBride AA. Human papillomaviruses: diversity, infection and host interactions. Nat

Rev Microbiol. 2022;20(2):95-108. Epub 20210914. doi: 10.1038/s41579-021-00617-5.

7.   Vande Pol SB, Klingelhutz AJ. Papillomavirus E6 oncoproteins. Virology.

2013;445(1–2):115-37. doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2013.04.026.

8.   Roman A, Munger K. The papillomavirus E7 proteins. Virology. 2013;445(1):138-68.

doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2013.04.013.

9.   Egawa N, Wang Q, Griffin HM, Murakami I, Jackson D, Mahmood R, Doorbar J.

HPV16 and 18 genome amplification show different E4-dependence, with 16E4 enhancing

E1 nuclear accumulation and replicative efficiency via its cell cycle arrest and kinase

activation functions. PLOS Pathogens. 2017;13(3):e1006282. doi:

10.1371/journal.ppat.1006282.

10.   Zhou Z, Fu X-D. Regulation of splicing by SR proteins and SR protein-specific

kinases. Chromosoma. 2013;122(3):191-207. doi: 10.1007/s00412-013-0407-z.

11.   Long JC, Caceres JF. The SR protein family of splicing factors: master regulators of

gene expression. Biochem J. 2009;417(1):15-27.

12.   Giannakouros T, Nikolakaki E, Mylonis I, Georgatsou E. Serine-arginine protein

kinases: a small protein kinase family with a large cellular presence. FEBS J.

2011;278(4):570-86. doi: 10.1111/j.1742-4658.2010.07987.x.

13.   Aubol BE, Wu G, Keshwani MM, Movassat M, Fattet L, Hertel KJ, et al. Release of

SR Proteins from CLK1 by SRPK1: A Symbiotic Kinase System for Phosphorylation Control

of Pre-mRNA Splicing. Mol Cell. 2016;63(2):218-28. Epub 20160707. doi:

10.1016/j.molcel.2016.05.034.

14.   Yun CY, Fu XD. Conserved SR protein kinase functions in nuclear import and its

action is counteracted by arginine methylation in Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J Cell Biol.

2000;150(4):707-18. doi: 10.1083/jcb.150.4.707.

15.   Lai MC, Lin RI, Huang SY, Tsai CW, Tarn WY. A human importin-beta family protein,

transportin-SR2, interacts with the phosphorylated RS domain of SR proteins. J Biol Chem.

2000;275(11):7950-7. doi: 10.1074/jbc.275.11.7950.

16.   Nikolakaki E, Sigala I, Giannakouros T. Good Cop, Bad Cop: The Different Roles of

SRPKs. Front Genet. 2022;13:902718. Epub 20220602. doi: 10.3389/fgene.2022.902718.

17.   Graham SV. Human papillomavirus: gene expression, regulation and prospects for

novel diagnostic methods and antiviral therapies. Future Microbiol. 2010;5(10):1493-505.

18.   Yu L, Majerciak V, Zheng ZM. HPV16 and HPV18 Genome Structure, Expression,

and Post-Transcriptional Regulation. Int J Mol Sci. 2022;23(9). Epub 20220429. doi:

10.3390/ijms23094943.

19.   Klymenko T, Hernandez-Lopez H, MacDonald AI, Bodily JM, Graham SV. Human

papillomavirus E2 regulates SRSF3 (SRp20) to promote capsid protein expression in

infected differentiated keratinocytes. J Virol. 2016. doi: 10.1128/jvi.03073-15.

20.   Mole S, Faizo AAA, Hernandez-Lopez H, Griffiths M, Stevenson A, Roberts S,

Graham SV. Human papillomavirus type 16 infection activates the host serine arginine

protein kinase 1 (SRPK1) - splicing factor axis. J Gen Virol. 2020;101(5):523-32. Epub

20200313. doi: 10.1099/jgv.0.001402.

21.   Bodaghi S, Jia R, Zheng Z-M. Human papillomavirus type 16 E2 and E6 are RNA-

binding proteins and inhibit in vitro splicing of pre-mRNAs with suboptimal splice sites.

Virology. 2009;386(1):32-43. doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2008.12.037.

22.   Oltean S, Gammons M, Hulse R, Hamdollah-Zadeh M, Mavrou A, Donaldson L, et al.

SRPK1 inhibition in vivo: modulation of VEGF splicing and potential treatment for multiple

diseases. Biochem Soc Trans. 2012;40(4):831-5. doi: 10.1042/bst20120051.

23.   Bates DO, Morris JC, Oltean S, Donaldson LF. Pharmacology of Modulators of

Alternative Splicing. Pharmacol Rev. 2017;69(1):63-79. doi: 10.1124/pr.115.011239.

24.   Karakama Y, Sakamoto N, Itsui Y, Nakagawa M, Tasaka-Fujita M, Nishimura-Sakurai

Y, et al. Inhibition of hepatitis C virus replication by a specific inhibitor of serine-arginine-rich

protein kinase. Antimicrob Agents Chemother. 2010;54(8):3179-86. Epub 20100524. doi:

10.1128/aac.00113-10.

25.   Fukuhara T, Hosoya T, Shimizu S, Sumi K, Oshiro T, Yoshinaka Y, et al. Utilization of

host SR protein kinases and RNA-splicing machinery during viral replication. Proc Natl Acad

Sci U S A. 2006;103(30):11329-33. Epub 20060713. doi: 10.1073/pnas.0604616103.

26.   Sciabica KS, Dai QJ, Sandri-Goldin RM. ICP27 interacts with SRPK1 to mediate

HSV splicing inhibition by altering SR protein phosphorylation. EMBO J. 2003;22(7):1608-

19.

27.   Daub H, Blencke S, Habenberger P, Kurtenbach A, Dennenmoser J, Wissing J, et al.

Identification of SRPK1 and SRPK2 as the major cellular protein kinases phosphorylating

hepatitis B virus core protein. J Virol. 2002;76(16):8124-37. doi: 10.1128/jvi.76.16.8124-

8137.2002.

28.   Kajitani N, Schwartz S. The role of RNA-binding proteins in the processing of mRNAs

produced by carcinogenic papillomaviruses. Semin Cancer Biol. 2022;86(Pt 3):482-96. Epub

20220216. doi: 10.1016/j.semcancer.2022.02.014.

29.   Graham SV. HPV and RNA Binding Proteins: What We Know and What Remains to

Be Discovered. Viruses. 2024;16(5). Epub 20240515. doi: 10.3390/v16050783.

30.   Weschler EI, Wang Q, Roberts I, Pagliarulo E, Jackson D, Untersperger C, et al.

Reconstruction of human papillomavirus type 16-mediated early-stage neoplasia implicated

E6/E7 deeregualtion and the loss of contact inhibition in neoplastic progression. J Virol.

2012;86(11):6358-64.

31.   Flores ER, Allen-Hoffmann BL, Lee D, Sattler CA, Lambert PF. Establishment of the

human papillomavirus type 16 (HPV-16) life cycle in an immortalized human foreskin

keratinocyte cell line. Virology. 1999;262. doi: 10.1006/viro.1999.9868.

32.   Weber PA, Chang HC, Spaeth KE, Nitsche JM, Nicholson BJ. The permeability of

gap junction channels to probes of different size is dependent on connexin composition and

permeant-pore affinities. Biophys J. 2004;87(2):958-73. doi: 10.1529/biophysj.103.036350.

33.   Zheng Y, Cui X, Nilsson K, Yu H, Gong L, Wu C, Schwartz S. Efficient production of

HPV16 E2 protein from HPV16 late mRNAs spliced from SD880 to SA2709. Virus Res.

2020;285:198004. Epub 20200505. doi: 10.1016/j.virusres.2020.198004.

34.   Evans MR, James CD, Bristol ML, Nulton TJ, Wang X, Kaur N, et al. Human

Papillomavirus 16 E2 Regulates Keratinocyte Gene Expression Relevant to Cancer and the

Viral Life Cycle. J Virol 2019;93(4):e01941-18. doi: 10.1128/JVI.01941-18 %J.

35.   Klymenko T, Gu Q, Herbert I, Stevenson A, Iliev V, Watkins G, et al. RNA-Seq

Analysis of Differentiated Keratinocytes Reveals a Massive Response to Late Events during

Human Papillomavirus 16 Infection, Including Loss of Epithelial Barrier Function. J Virol

2017;91(24):e01001-17. doi: 10.1128/JVI.01001-17 %J.

36.   Matsui T, Amagai M. Dissecting the formation, structure and barrier function of the

stratum corneum. Int Immunol. 2015;27(6):269-80. doi: 10.1093/intimm/dxv013.

37.   Lessard JC, Piña-Paz S, Rotty JD, Hickerson RP, Kaspar RL, Balmain A, Coulombe

PA. Keratin 16 regulates innate immunity in response to epidermal barrier breach. Proc Natl

Acad Sci U S A. 2013;110(48):19537-42. Epub 20131111. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1309576110.

38.   Carregaro F, Stefanini ACB, Henrique T, Tajara EH. Study of small proline-rich

proteins (SPRRs) in health and disease: a review of the literature. Arch Dermatol Res.

2013;305(10):857-66. doi: 10.1007/s00403-013-1415-9.

39.   Liao Y, Wang J, Jaehnig EJ, Shi Z, Zhang B. WebGestalt 2019: gene set analysis

toolkit with revamped UIs and APIs. Nucleic Acids Res. 2019;47(W1):W199-w205. doi:

10.1093/nar/gkz401.

40.   Cartegni L, Wang J, Zhu Z, Zhang MQ, Krainer AR. ESEfinder: A web resource to

identify exonic splicing enhancers. Nucleic Acids Res. 2003;31(13):3568-71. doi:

10.1093/nar/gkg616.

41.   Hao C, Zheng Y, Jönsson J, Cui X, Yu H, Wu C, et al. hnRNP G/RBMX enhances

HPV16 E2 mRNA splicing through a novel splicing enhancer and inhibits production of

spliced E7 oncogene mRNAs. Nucleic Acids Res. 2022;50(7):3867-91. doi:

10.1093/nar/gkac213.

42.   Gauson EJ, Windle B, Donaldson MM, Caffarel MM, Dornan ES, Coleman N, et al.

Regulation of human genome expression and RNA splicing by human papillomavirus 16 E2

protein. Virology. 2014;468–470:10-8. doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2014.07.022.

43.   Prescott EL, Brimacombe CL, Hartley M, Bell I, Graham S, Roberts S. Human

Papillomavirus Type 1 E1^E4 Protein Is a Potent Inhibitor of the Serine-Arginine (SR)

Protein Kinase SRPK1 and Inhibits Phosphorylation of Host SR Proteins and of the Viral

Transcription and Replication Regulator E2. J Virol. 2014;88(21):12599-611. doi:

10.1128/jvi.02029-14.

44.   Patel M, Sachidanandan M, Adnan M. Serine arginine protein kinase 1 (SRPK1): a

moonlighting protein with theranostic ability in cancer prevention. Mol Biol Rep.

2019;46(1):1487-97. Epub 20181208. doi: 10.1007/s11033-018-4545-5.

45.   Johansson C, Somberg M, Li X, Backström Winquist E, Fay J, Ryan F, et al. HPV-16

E2 contributes to induction of HPV-16 late gene expression by inhibiting early

polyadenylation. EMBO J. 2012;31(14):3212-27. Epub 20120522. doi:

10.1038/emboj.2012.147.

46.   Davy C, McIntosh P, Jackson DJ, Sorathia R, Miell M, Wang Q, et al. A novel

interaction between the human papillomavirus type 16 E2 and E1^E4 proteins leads to

stabilization of E2. Virology. 2009;394(2):266-75. doi: 10.1016/j.virol.2009.08.035.

47.   Siddiqa A, Léon KC, James CD, Bhatti MF, Roberts S, Parish JL. The human

papillomavirus type 16 L1 protein directly interacts with E2 and enhances E2-dependent

replication and transcription activation. J Gen Virol. 2015;96(8):2274-85. doi:

doi:10.1099/vir.0.000162.

48.   Bazzi H, Christiano AM. Broken hearts, woolly hair, and tattered skin: when

desmosomal adhesion goes awry. Curr Opin Cell Biol. 2007;19(5):515-20.

doi:10.1016/j.ceb.2007.08.001.

49.   Morizane S, Sunagawa K, Nomura H, Ouchida M. Aberrant serine protease activities

in atopic dermatitis. J Dermatol Sci. 2022;107(1):2-7. Epub 20220628. doi:

10.1016/j.jdermsci.2022.06.004.

50.   Kanno Y, Matsui Y. Cellular coupling in cancerous stomach epithelium. Nature.

1968;218:775-6.

51.   Guo T, Zambo KDA, Zamuner FT, Ou T, Hopkins C, Kelley DZ, et al. Chromatin

structure regulates cancer-specific alternative splicing events in primary HPV-related

oropharyngeal squamous cell carcinoma. Epigenetics. 2020;15(9):959-71. Epub 20200322.

doi: 10.1080/15592294.2020.1741757.

52.   Kelley DZ, Flam EL, Guo T, Danilova LV, Zamuner FT, Bohrson C, et al. Functional

characterization of alternatively spliced GSN in head and neck squamous cell carcinoma.

Transl Res. 2018;202:109-19. Epub 20180726. doi: 10.1016/j.trsl.2018.07.007.

53.   Jeon S, Allen-Hoffman BL, Lambert PF. Integration of human papillomavirus type 16

into the human genome correlates with a selective growth advantage of cells. J Virol.

1995;69(5):2989-97.

54.   Anacker D, Moody C. Generation of organotypic raft cultures from primary human

keratinocytes. J Vis Exp. 2012;(60). Epub 20120222. doi: 10.3791/3668.

55.   Kim D, Paggi JM, Park C, Bennett C, Salzberg SL. Graph-based genome alignment

and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-genotype. Nat Biotechnol. 2019;37(8):907-15. Epub

20190802. doi: 10.1038/s41587-019-0201-4.

56.   Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. featureCounts: an efficient general purpose program for

assigning sequence reads to genomic features. Bioinformatics. 2014;30(7):923-30. Epub

20131113. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btt656.

57.   Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for

RNA-seq data with DESeq2. Genome Biol. 2014;15(12):550. doi: 10.1186/s13059-014-

0550-8.

58.   Yu G, Wang LG, Han Y, He QY. clusterProfiler: an R package for comparing

biological themes among gene clusters. Omics. 2012;16(5):284-7. Epub 20120328. doi:

10.1089/omi.2011.0118.

59.   Kahles A, Ong CS, Zhong Y, Rätsch G. SplAdder: identification, quantification and

testing of alternative splicing events from RNA-Seq data. Bioinformatics. 2016;32(12):1840-

7. Epub 20160211. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btw076.

1059

Figure 4 Faizo

A Major E2-encoding mRNA

P$_{670}$ E1 E4 E5 p(A)E

SD880 SA2709 AAAn

B

bp

M DMSO SRPIN349 SRPIN340

1630—
1018—

517—
506—

←E2 880^2709

506—
396—
334—
289—

←GAPDH

M 1 2 3

C

SRPIN340

mock DMSO 10μM 50μM mock

98— ←involucrin

38— ←E2

49— ←tubulin

NIKS16 NIKS

D

NIKS16 cells

relative band intensity

1.5
1.3
1.1
0.9
0.7
0.5
0.3
0.1

p<0.05

* *

NIKS Mock DMSO 10μM 50μM

SRPIN340

E

NIKS DMSO SRPIN 340

←E2

←tubulin

relative band intensity

1.2
1.0
0.8
0.6
0.4
0.2

p<0.05

*

NIKS cells DMSO 10μM
SRPIN340

NIKS16 cells

F

E2 E2+DAPI

DMSO

SRPIN340

Figure 6 Faizo

A

Normalised gene expression

Log fold change

Replicate: 1 2 3 | 1 2 3

10 μM SRPIN340 | DMSO control

D

Epithelial barrier genes

Fold change gene expression

DSG1 SPINK5 TGM1 FLG KRT6B SPRR1A SPRR1A RPTN KRT16 KRT10 KRT1 SPRR3 KRT2 LOR KLK12

■ HPV16-infected   ■ Infected and drug-treated

B

- Differentiation/development — 31%
- Metabolism — 27%
- Immune response — 18%
- Epithelial barrier — 24%

Up-regulated genes

E

Innate immune genes

Fold change gene expression

IL1A IL1B IL36RN CCL28 IFIT3 IRF1

■ HPV16-infected   ■ Infected and drug-treated

C

- -ve regulation of cell adhesion — 16%
- ERK signalling — 5%
- DNAconformation — 5%
- Cell morphogenesi — 16%
- -ve regulation of the immune system — 13%
- Cell motility — 18%
- Extracellular matrix — 8%
- -ve regulation of cell differentation — 19%

Down-regulated genes

F

Over Representation Analysis of Alternative Splicing events

DNA repair
RNA splicing
mRNA processing
Catabolic proteolysis
Chromatin
DNA damage response
RNA processing
DNA metabolic process
Protein modification
Cellular stress response

Enrichment ratio