The mammalian SKI complex is a broad-spectrum antiviral drug target that upregulates cellular cholesterol to inhibit viral replication

Short Title: Drug targeting the SKI complex increases cellular cholesterol

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Abstract

There is a need for the development of broad-spectrum antiviral compounds that can act as first line therapeutic countermeasures to emerging viral infections. Host-directed approaches present a promising avenue of development and carry the benefit of mitigating risks of viral escape mutants. We have previously found the SKI (super killer) complex to be a broad-spectrum, host-target with our lead compound ("UMB18") showing activity against influenza A virus, coronaviruses, and filoviruses. The SKI complex is a cytosolic RNA helicase and we previously found that UMB18 inhibited viral RNA production but did not further define the mechanism. Here, we demonstrate that UMB18 directly binds to SKIC8 of the SKI complex and through transcriptomic analysis of UMB18 treated A549 cells revealed an upregulation of genes in the mevalonate pathway which drives cholesterol synthesis. Further investigation validated the genetic upregulation and confirmed an increase in total cellular cholesterol. This upregulation was dependent on the sterol regulatory element binding proteins (SREBPs) and their regulator SCAP, the major regulators for cholesterol and fatty acid synthesis. Depletion of the SREBPs or SCAP with siRNA, or extraction of cholesterol with methyl β-cyclodextrin attenuated UMB18 antiviral activity, emphasizing the role of increased cholesterol synthesis in this mechanism of action. Our findings further define the antiviral mechanism of a developmental host-directed therapeutic approach with broad applicability against emerging viral pathogens.

Author Summary

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the urgent need for effective countermeasures to novel and emerging viral pathogens. Our research presented here builds upon our previously published data on an experimental novel antiviral compound termed UMB18. We have found this compound capable of inhibiting replication of influenza A virus, coronaviruses and the filoviruses Marburg and Ebola virus, but did not fully define a mechanism of action. In this work, we demonstrate that UMB18 exerts antiviral activity by modulating cellular cholesterol levels. By targeting the SKI complex, UMB18 triggers an increase in endogenous cellular cholesterol which disrupts the fine balance viruses rely on for efficient infection. We demonstrate that this mechanism inhibits replication of SARS-CoV-2, revealing a previously undescribed host-directed strategy for antiviral intervention. These findings highlight UMB18's potential as a broad-spectrum antiviral agent and pave the way for further research into its mechanism and therapeutic applications, offering a promising avenue for development of antiviral countermeasures to current, novel and emerging pathogens.

Introduction

The coronavirus disease-2019 (COVID-19) pandemic caused by severe acute

respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) has highlighted the lack of broadly

acting therapeutics to treat coronaviruses and other emerging pathogens. These types

of chemicals could serve as first-line countermeasures, filling a crucial gap before

specific measures can be developed. Addressing this need, our research is focused on

a host-directed approach of targeting the SKI (super killer) complex (1).

As opposed to direct acting antivirals, host-directed therapeutics have a significantly

lower risk for the emergence of viral escape mutants, but such strategies come with a

greater risk of side effects. It is therefore essential to understand the mechanism of

action for any such approach.

Comprised of SKIC2, SKIC3, and SKIC8 (formerly SKIV2L, TTC37, and WDR61,

respectively) the SKI complex acts as a cofactor to the cytosolic RNA exosome to

facilitate 3' to 5' RNA degradation (2–4). SKIC2 is a member of the DExD/H helicase

family, while SKIC3 and SKIC8 have structural and regulatory functions (5). The

complex was first defined in yeast where it was implicated in resistance to the "super

killer" toxin of a yeast double stranded RNA virus, hence the naming convention of SKI

(6,7). Our previous study demonstrated that siRNA depletion of the SKI complex

inhibited replication of influenza A virus (IAV) and Middle East respiratory syndrome

coronavirus (MERS-CoV). We proceeded to use *in silico* modeling to predict chemicals

that could hypothetically bind SKIC8 and potentially disrupt the proviral activity of the

SKI complex. We demonstrated that our lead compound, termed UMB18, inhibited all of

IAV, MERS-CoV, SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, and the filoviruses Ebola virus and Marburg

virus. Then, using single cycle IAV infections, we determined that UMB18 did not impact

virus entry to cells, but potently inhibited RNA and subsequent protein production. Thus,

we defined UMB18 as a host-directed antiviral, targeting post-entry steps prior to RNA

production, with broad-spectrum activity (1).

In the present study, UMB18 was found to bind SKIC8 demonstrating specificity of our

previously predicted binding. We subsequently found transcriptomic upregulation of

genes involved in cholesterol synthesis and concomitant increases in total cholesterol

following UMB18 treatment of cells. Cholesterol can be obtained from external sources

through low-density lipoprotein (LDL) receptors or endogenously synthesized through

the mevalonate pathway (8–10). Sterol regulatory element binding proteins (SREBPs)

are master transcriptional regulators of cholesterol and fatty acid synthesis (11).

SREBPs comprise three isoforms, SREBP1a, SREBP1c, and SREBP2, expressed from

two genes *Srebf1* and *Srebf2* (12,13). Each of the SREBP proteins are regulated by

SREBP-cleavage activating protein (SCAP) (14,15). We found that depletion of *Scap,*

Srebf1 or *Srebf2* reduced UMB18-mediated increases in mevalonate pathway genes.

Notably, UMB18 antiviral activity against SARS-CoV-2 was significantly reduced with

either depletion of the *Scap* or *Srebf* genes or extraction of cholesterol with methyl-β

cyclodextrin. These results underscore the importance of increased total cellular

cholesterol in the mechanism of action for UMB18 as an antiviral compound.

Overall, the work presented here demonstrates the promise of UMB18 as a broad-

spectrum, host-directed antiviral compound and elucidates its mechanism of action

through upregulation of cellular cholesterol synthesis by targeting the SKI complex.

Results

UMB18 binds SKIC8 and upregulates genes involved in cholesterol synthesis.

We previously described the broad-spectrum antiviral activity of the SKI-targeted

compound UMB18 (1) and now aimed to identify its mechanism of action. The

compound was developed using *in silico* modeling and was predicted to bind to SKIC8

(formerly WDR61). The genes of the SKI complex are required for the antiviral activity of

UMB18, suggesting specificity but we did not demonstrate that UMB18 directly binds to

the predicted target SKIC8 (1). We therefore expressed and purified SKIC8 from

bacterial cells and analyzed UMB18 binding by surface plasmon resonance (SPR). The

fast association and dissociation rate constants observed at various compound

concentrations indicated binding to the SKIC8 target with a relatively low binding affinity,

$K_D = 81$ µM (Fig. 1A). These data suggest that UMB18 is indeed directly binding to

SKIC8.

Having determined that our compound is specific to the *in silico* predicted target, we

next utilized RNA transcriptomics to investigate the changes that UMB18 binding SKIC8

can cause, both in uninfected or SARS-CoV-2 infected cells. This provided an unbiased

approach to investigate potential mechanisms of antiviral activity. A549 cells (human

lung alveolar adenocarcinoma cells) overexpressing human angiotensin converting

enzyme 2 (A549-ACE2) to allow for productive SARS-CoV-2 infection were used for the

transcriptomic analysis and four conditions were analyzed: 1) 10 µM UMB18 treatment,

2) 0.1% DMSO treatment (carrier for UMB18), 3) 10 µM UMB18 with SARS-CoV-2

infection or 4) 0.1% DMSO with SARS-CoV-2 infection. We previously found 10 µM to

be inhibitory to viral replication with no cytotoxicity (see (1) and also Fig. 6F). All

infections were at multiplicity of infection (MOI) 0.1, performed across two experiments,

with either 24-hour (h) and 48h or just a 24h of infection and treatment. In uninfected

cells, the most prominently differentially expressed genes caused by UMB18 treatment

compared to DMSO were in the mevalonate pathway, associated with cholesterol

biosynthesis (Fig. 1B-D). As expected, SARS-CoV-2 infection had minimal impact on

the genes that were upregulated with UMB18 treatment compared to DMSO, with the

majority of significantly upregulated genes occurring in all conditions (Fig. 1E). Eight

genes (MSMO1, IDI1, FDFT1, HMGCS1, DHCR24, LSS, FDPS, MVD) were

significantly upregulated at both time points and both infection conditions, while five

genes (SQLE, ACAT2, EBP, TM7SF2, DHCR7) were upregulated by UMB18 treatment

at 24h and 48h infection as well as at the 24h but not the 48h time point in uninfected

cells. MVK and HSD17B7 were upregulated at 24h in infected and uninfected cells,

while CYP51A1 and NSDHL were upregulated in the context of infection at 24h and 48h

but not in uninfected cells. HMGCR was upregulated at 24h and 48h in uninfected cells

and at 48h in infected cells (Fig. 1E). These studies used bulk RNA sequencing with a

low MOI of SARS-CoV-2 and 10 µM UMB18 treatment causes a roughly 90% inhibition

of infection. As expected, low levels of SARS-CoV-2 replication are occurring in the

treated cells (for example see Fig. 6F), therefore we did not expect to see major

differences with infection. This data set was included for completeness and as a

comparator to the uninfected cells. The analysis demonstrated upregulation of genes

involved in the mevalonate pathway after treatment with UMB18 which may have a role

in antiviral activity.

UMB18 treatment increases cellular cholesterol levels.

The upregulation of the mevalonate pathway through the transcriptomic analysis

suggested that cholesterol synthesis may be affected by UMB18. We validated the

results of the transcriptomic analysis using qRT-PCR with primers targeting a subset of

the genes in the mevalonate pathway. Identical to the previous experiment, A549-ACE2

cells were treated with 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO as the vehicle control for 24 or

48h. Additionally, A549 cells not expressing ACE2 were subject to the same treatments

to further validate the results and ensure that ACE2 overexpression was not impacting

the transcriptional changes. Seven genes for enzymes involved in various stages of the

mevalonate pathway were analyzed to get a broad view of transcriptional changes

(pathway schematic in Fig. 2A, yellow boxes are selected genes for analysis). Relative

to DMSO treatment, UMB18 caused a significant increase in expression of genes in the

mevalonate pathway, ranging from approximately 2- to 5-fold. In the A549-ACE2 cells

(Fig. 2B), induction of the selected genes peaked at 24h and then declined by 48h. With

48h treatment, the genes were still more highly expressed than DMSO control cells but

lacked the statistically significant differences seen at 24h (Fig. 2B). We suspect this may

be a result of other feedback regulatory loops in the pathway or due to degradation of

UMB18 in the media as it was not replenished through the time course. In A549 cells,

UMB18 treatment caused an increase in expression of each of the genes that similarly

peaked at 24h and declined at 48h. These changes remained statistically significant

compared to DMSO controls at 48h (Fig. 2C). The magnitude of change between the

two cell lines was largely similar. Overall, these qRT-PCR data suggest that UMB18

caused an increase in genes that regulate cholesterol synthesis through the mevalonate

pathway and that the expression of ACE2, which allows for infection by SARS-CoV-2,

does not significantly alter the magnitude of change.

We next investigated whether total cellular cholesterol was increased in the cells, since

we identified an increase in the expression of genes involved in the mevalonate

pathway with UMB18 treatment. To this end, we utilized silver-assisted laser desorption

ionization mass spectrometry imaging (Ag-LDI MSI), a highly sensitive method of

detecting total cellular cholesterol. A549-ACE2 cell culture monolayers treated with

UMB18 showed a higher intensity of cholesterol signal compared to DMSO-treated

cells. Cholesterol was detected and visualized in the monolayers as the ion *m/z* 493.260

+/- 2.2 mDa ([cholesterol+Ag107]+) ion (Fig. 2D) and the silver isotopologue ion

[cholesterol+Ag109]+ data agreed. Treatment with UMB18 resulted in a significant

increase in relative cholesterol abundance, showing a nearly 2-fold increase in pixel

intensities. Further, a receiver-operator characteristic analysis showed an area-under-

the-curve value of 0.804 for cholesterol in UMB18 treated cells, making cholesterol

abundance a strong discriminator over DMSO-treated cells. These data demonstrate

that UMB18 treatment of A549-ACE2 cells results in significantly and discriminatorily

higher amounts of cholesterol compared to control.

UMB18 increases cellular cholesterol and exerts antiviral activity in serum

containing media.

Experiments to investigate changes caused by UMB18 treatment were performed in

serum supplemented media and therefore have exogenous cholesterol available. Cells

can endocytose cholesterol through the LDL-receptor and activate a negative feedback

loop to inhibit the mevalonate pathway. It therefore appeared UMB18 may activate this

metabolic pathway even in the presence of exogenous cholesterol. To further analyze

the system, we treated A549-ACE2 cells with 10 μM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO in serum-

containing or serum-free media, isolated RNA at 24h, and performed qRT-PCR for a

subset of the mevalonate pathway genes. In serum-containing media, UMB18 treatment

resulted in a similar significantly increased gene expression for the mevalonate pathway

genes HMGCS1, MVD and MSMO1 (Fig. 3A-C). In serum-free media, there was an

upregulation of these three genes, in both DMSO and UMB18 containing media, with no

significant differences between the two. Serum-free media caused a statistically

significantly larger increase in expression compared to UMB18 in serum-containing

media in all cases (Fig. 3A-C). These data show that in the absence of exogenous

cholesterol from serum, the mevalonate pathway was activated as expected and, in that

context, UMB18 did not further enhance the level of mevalonate pathway associated

gene transcription. However, in media containing serum, UMB18 did cause a

statistically significant increase in genes involved in the mevalonate pathway.

We hypothesized that this increase in cholesterol synthesis caused by UMB18 plays a

role in antiviral activity against SARS-CoV-2. We therefore infected A549-ACE2 cells

with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI 0.1 in serum-containing or serum-free media and treated with

10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO for 24h prior to supernatant collection and quantitation of

virus by plaque assay. UMB18 was equally effective at inhibiting viral replication

regardless of the presence of serum (Fig. 3D). In serum-free media containing DMSO,

there is a small (3x), but statistically significant drop in viral titer compared to serum-

containing media, suggesting that the increased expression of mevalonate pathway

genes may have an impact on viral replication (Fig. 3D). The inhibition is not as potent

as UMB18 treatment, and we hypothesize this may be a temporal effect with UMB18

causing a more rapid increase in expression of the genes that have activity and inhibit

early stages of the viral life cycle.

SCAP and SREBP are required for UMB18-induced increases in mevalonate

pathway genes.

Our data suggest that UMB18 binds to the SKI complex and consequently increases

expression of genes in the mevalonate pathway leading to an increase in total cellular

cholesterol. We set out to determine what cellular pathways the SKI complex might be

interacting with to mediate this effect. First, we looked at the mammalian target of

rapamycin (mTOR) complex because of published findings that demonstrated a loss of

SKIC2 activity was connected to an increase in mTORC1 signaling (16). The mTOR

complex is a master regulator of numerous aspects of cellular metabolism and it can

regulate activation of the sterol regulatory element binding proteins (SREBPs) which

promote expression of the mevalonate genes. We analyzed the ribosomal protein S6

kinase 1 (S6K1) which is phosphorylated when the mTOR pathway is activated. Using

treatment with epidermal growth factor (EGF), a known activator of the mTOR pathway,

we were able to detect phospho-S6K1 (pS6K1), demonstrating that our cells showed a

canonical marker for mTOR signaling (Fig. 4A). We proceeded to treat cells with UMB18

for various time points for analysis (Fig. 4B-C). None of these treatments showed any

significant changes to phospho-S6K1, suggesting that UMB18 did not cause a

detectable activation of mTOR, at least based on phosphorylation of S6K1.

Since UMB18 did not show any clear activation of mTOR, we next investigated the

master regulators of cholesterol and fatty acid synthesis, the SREBPs. Two genes,

Srebf1 and *Srebf2,* produce three proteins, SREBP-1a, SREBP-1c, and SREBP2 and

all of these are regulated by SREBP cleavage activating protein (SCAP), encoded by

the *Scap* gene (11,13,14,17). Transfection of siRNAs targeting each of these three

genes into A549-ACE2 cells was used for knockdown studies. At 72h post siRNA

transfection, cells were treated with DMSO or UMB18 for 24h and RNA collected to

perform qRT-PCR for each of the siRNA targets and three mevalonate pathway genes

(Fig. 5). We hypothesized that if UMB18 was activating mevalonate pathway gene

expression through the canonical route, reduced expression of SCAP or SREBPs would

reduce the impact of this treatment.

SCAP is the master regulator for activation of the SREBPs. We targeted SCAP with two

different siRNA sequences and both caused a significantly decreased expression of

Scap relative to scrambled siRNA (siScr), with sequence 2 being more potent that

sequence 1 (Fig. 5A). There was no significant impact of UMB18 treatment upon

expression of *Scap* in any context (Fig. 5A). In siScr transfected cells treated with

UMB18, there was a significant increase in expression of *MVD*, *FDPS* and *MSMO1*

compared to DMSO treated cells (Fig. 5B-D, right most pairs). Each gene had 4 times

the expression level based on the qRT-PCR data, matching previous results (Fig. 2 and

3). In the context of *Scap* siRNA there was no significant difference between UMB18

and DMSO treated cells for *MVD* and *FDPS* gene expression (Fig. 5B and C), but there

were significant changes for *MSMO1* (p = 0.0305 and 0.0158 for siRNA sequence 1 and

2; Fig 5D). However, the relative fold change was significantly lower than that caused by

UMB18 in siScr transfected cells (both p < 0.0001). These data all suggest that UMB18

did not impact the expression of *Scap*, but when expression of this gene was reduced

through siRNA-mediated knockdown there was a significantly reduced impact of UMB18

on the mevalonate pathway genes. This suggests that UMB18 treatment activates

expression of these genes through a canonical pathway mediated by SCAP.

To further validate that UMB18 is impacting this canonical signaling pathway, we also

targeted the *Srebf* genes with siRNA. *Srebf2* was knocked down with 2 separate siRNA

sequences similarly to *Scap* and both caused a significant decrease in expression.

Sequence 1 was more potent than 2, however both caused a significant decrease in

gene expression (Fig. 5E). UMB18 did have some impact on *Srebf2*, unlike the results

for *Scap*, but that could be attributed to the increase in mevalonate pathway genes

since *Srebf2* is in a positive feedback loop. In the context of siScr there was a mild

increase in expression, and the p value was calculated to 0.0504. Similarly, in the

context of siRNA sequence 2, there was significantly less reduction in *Srebf2*

expression cause by UMB18 treatment, with a p value of 0.0035 between UMB18 and

DMSO conditions. However, compared to siScr transfection and DMSO treatment, the

UMB18 treated cells still had an approximate 2-fold decrease in expression, suggesting

any impact from UMB18 does not outweigh the inhibition from the siRNA. For each of

the mevalonate pathway genes, once again, UMB18 caused a significant increase in

expression compared to DMSO within the control condition of siScr transfection (Fig 5F-

H, right most pairs). Loss of *Srebf2* appeared to have less impact on the UMB18-

mediated changes than *Scap* with significant changes observed in both siRNA

transfection conditions for *MVD* (Fig 5F), and the context of siRNA sequence 2 for

MSMO1 (Fig. 5H). However, the changes in *FDPS* were not significant between UMB18

and DMSO with either siRNA sequence (Fig 5H). and for sequence 1 for *MSMO1*

expression (Fig 5H, left most pair). These data suggest that reduced *Srebf2* expression

through siRNA reduced the impact UMB18 had on altering expression of these three

mevalonate pathway genes, however, the targeting of *Scap* with siRNA appeared to

cause a more potent inhibition.

Finally, to complete this investigation of the SCAP/SREBP pathway, *Srebf1* was

targeted with siRNA, with 3 different siRNA sequences. While all of the sequences

caused approximately a 4x or greater decrease in expression, these data did not reach

statistical significance, with the exception of siRNA sequence 2 compared to siScr in the

context of DMSO treatment (Fig 5I). UMB18 did not significantly impact expression of

Srebf1 (Fig. 5I). As for other experiments, UMB18, in the context of siScr transfection,

caused a significant increase in expression of *MVD*, *FDPS* and *MSMO1* compared to

DMSO treatment (Fig. 5J-L, right most pairs). Even though the three siRNA sequences

did not consistently cause a statistically significant decrease in expression, all of them

showed varying levels of decrease for UMB18 impact on gene expression. For *MVD*,

siRNA sequence 2 and 3 both had a significantly reduced fold change for UMB18

treatment (Fig 5J, p = 0.0006 and 0.0350). For *FDPS*, all three sequences had

significantly reduced fold changes (Fig. 5K) and for siRNA sequence 2 there was a

significant reduction in UMB18 induced changes to *MSMO1* expression (Fig. 5L). These

data suggest that even though these siRNA sequences did not cause statistically

significant reduction in *Srebf1* expression, all of them caused significant inhibition of

UMB18 induced changes.

Overall, the data in Fig. 5 demonstrate that UMB18 caused an increase in expression of

genes in the mevalonate pathway (represented by *MVD*, *FDPS* and *MSMO1*) without

causing major changes to *Scap*, nor the *Srebf* genes. However, when the

SCAP/SREBP axis is disrupted by siRNA treatment, there were significant reductions to

the impact from UMB18 on expression of mevalonate pathway genes. Our results

demonstrate that UMB18 directly binds to the SKI complex (Fig. 1A) and causes genetic

activation of the mevalonate pathway (Fig. 2, 3 and 5) which relies on the canonical

activation of SCAP/SREBPs.

Increased cellular cholesterol is required for UMB18-mediated antiviral activity.

We have found that UMB18 caused an increase in mevalonate pathway gene

expression and that the canonical signaling pathway mediated by SCAP and SREBPs is

involved. This transcriptional response increased total cellular cholesterol, leading to the

question of whether the increase in cholesterol is important for antiviral activity. To

investigate this, we again used siRNA to target *Scap* and the *Srebf* genes and treated

cells with UMB18 while also infecting with SARS-CoV-2. A549-ACE2 cells were plated

and transfected for 72h. Cells were then infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI 0.1 and

treated with 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO for 24h. Supernatant were collected, and

viral titer determined by plaque assay on VeroE6 cells expressing transmembrane

protease serine 2 (TMPRSS2). With scrambled siRNA there was an approximate 10-

fold drop in viral titer (Fig. 6A-C), similar to the effects we previously published (1).

However, when *Scap* was knocked down by siRNA, UMB18 lowered viral titer by 4.36-

and 2.92-fold compared to DMSO and was not significantly different (Fig. 6A and C).

These data suggest the reduction in *Scap* expression caused by siRNA reduced the

antiviral activity of UMB18, making it not statistically significant compared to DMSO.

When *Srebf2* was targeted by siRNA sequence 1 there was only a 2.05-fold difference

between UMB18 and DMSO (but this was statistically significant), while sequence 2 had

less impact with a 7.52-fold difference. These differences are in alignment with the

potency of the siRNA sequences for knockdown of *Srebf2*, with sequence 2 being less

potent (Fig. 5E) and causing less impact to UMB18 antiviral activity. For Srebf*1*

knockdown down, UMB18 lowered viral titer by only between 1.23- to 2.04-fold,

compared to DMSO (Fig. 6C), suggested even great loss of inhibition. In all cases, viral

titer inhibition due to UMB18 is attenuated by loss of SCAP and SREBPs, with varying

degrees of significance. Since the loss of these genes causes a decrease in

mevalonate pathway gene expression induced by UMB18 (Fig. 5), these data

collectively suggest that increased cellular cholesterol plays a role in UMB18-mediated

antiviral activity.

We also investigated the effects of methyl-β cyclodextrin (MβCD), a chemical that

extracts cholesterol from cells, to see if this would disrupt UMB18 antiviral activity.

Initially, A549-ACE2 cells were treated with a range of concentrations between 39 and

5000 µg/ml to investigate toxicity. The higher concentrations resulted in cell death based

on automated counting of nuclei in a 96-well plate format (Fig. 6D). At 625 µg/ml and

lower, there were no signs of toxicity. A549-ACE2 cells were then infected with SARS-

CoV-2 at MOI 3 and treated with MβCD at non-cytotoxic concentrations. At 24 hours

post-infection cells were fixed and immunofluorescent labeled for the viral N protein and

high content imaged to determine the percentage infection. Fig. 6E demonstrates that

MβCD has some level of antiviral activity with 625, 312.5, and 156.25 µg/ml causing

roughly 30-40% fewer infected cells compared to DMSO-treated cells. However, at 39

µg/ml, there was no antiviral activity from MβCD alone. We, therefore, combined 39

µg/ml MβCD with 10 µM UMB18 to investigate whether extracting cholesterol from cells

treated with UMB18 would reduce the antiviral activity. Fig. 6F demonstrates that

UMB18 is a potent inhibitor, reducing percentage infection by about 90% compared to

DMSO-treated control cells. When combined with MβCD, the percentage inhibition is

approximately 40%, demonstrating that MβCD significantly reduced the antiviral activity

of UMB18. These data demonstrate that reduced expression of the *Scap* or *Srebf* genes

or cholesterol extraction from cells significantly reduced the antiviral activity of UMB18,

pointing towards increased cholesterol being the antiviral mechanism of action for

UMB18.

Discussion

We have identified the SKI complex as a potential host-directed antiviral drug target (1)

and determined that the novel compound, UMB18, specifically binds to its *in silico*

predicted target, SKIC8. RNA transcriptomics, validated by qRT-PCR, demonstrated

that UMB18 treatment caused significant upregulation of genes involved in the

mevalonate pathway, and this corresponded to an increase in total cellular cholesterol

(Fig. 1 and 2). Interestingly, these results were in the context of media supplemented

with fetal bovine serum which contains cholesterol that can inhibit activation of the

mevalonate pathway through a negative feedback loop. We found that cells cultured in

serum-free media activated the mevalonate pathway and UMB18 had minimal additive

effect (Fig. 3). We propose that UMB18 cannot further increase signaling to the already

active pathway. However, we cannot rule out alternative hypotheses that UMB18 may

be modified by components of serum, may not be effectively taken into cells in the

absence of serum or may have impacts on roles adjacent to the mevalonate pathway

such as protein prenylation. We do suspect some of these may have a role since virus

replication is attenuated in serum-free media but UMB18 still provides a greater level of

inhibition (Fig. 3D). As this compound is further developed, biochemical experiments to

look at the impact of serum on its activity will be performed.

With the observed increase in expression of mevalonate pathway genes we were drawn

to the SCAP/SREBP axis as the master regulators of sterol and fatty acid synthesis

(11). Depletion of any of *Scap, Srebf1*, or *Srebf2* by siRNA resulted in an attenuation of

UMB18-induced upregulation of mevalonate pathway genes, indicating that the UMB18

effect is through this canonical signaling pathway (Fig. 5). Crucially, the antiviral activity

of UMB18 against SARS-CoV-2 was markedly decreased when *Scap* or *Srebf* genes

were depleted from cells, arguing that the increased expression of mevalonate pathway

genes is essential for antiviral activity (Fig. 6). Consistently, extraction of cellular

cholesterol using MβCD also attenuated the antiviral activity of UMB18, reinforcing the

importance of increased cellular cholesterol in mediating antiviral activity (Fig. 6).

Our findings collectively reveal that UMB18 binds the SKI complex and activates

SREBP-mediated gene expression, leading to an increase in cellular cholesterol which

is crucial for antiviral efficacy of the compound. We have shown that UMB18 and similar

SKI-targeting compounds exhibit broad-spectrum activity against enveloped viruses,

including coronaviruses, orthomyxoviruses, and filoviruses (1), all of which rely on

manipulation of cellular membranes for efficient replication. We hypothesize that

UMB18-mediated increase in total cellular cholesterol, which causes an increase in

membrane rigidity, impedes the ability of these viruses to manipulate membranes and

thus disrupts efficient replication.

Previous studies have suggested SARS-CoV-2 infection may downregulate expression

of mevalonate pathway genes associated with cholesterol synthesis (18,19). It would

therefore be reasonable to hypothesize that increasing expression of these genes would

have antiviral activity, in alignment with our data. However, contrasting studies have

suggested that SARS-CoV-2 and other coronaviruses cause an increase in lipid

metabolism, mediated by the SREBPs (20–22), and that lowered cellular cholesterol

can be antiviral (23,24). We also present data from our MβCD studies that lowered

cellular cholesterol can be antiviral (Fig. 6E). Therefore, we propose that there may be a

delicate equilibrium in cholesterol levels, or a "Goldilocks" range of cellular cholesterol

necessary to support viral replication. Deviations from this balance, whether through

insufficient or excessive cholesterol, disrupts membrane dynamics and adversely affects

viral replication. At an organismal level, increased cholesterol usually comes from, or

with, various other underlying health conditions which can all impact viral disease

pathogenesis. In future work, we intend to further study the role these cellular

cholesterol changes have at an organismal level using animal models of UMB18

treatment.

One hypothesis for the mechanism through which UMB18 is causing the SREBP-

mediated transcriptional changes draws from work by Yang *et al.* (16), which linked

SKIC2 deletion in mice to an increase in mTORC1 signaling. Despite efforts to

investigate whether UMB18 activated mTORC1 as assessed by phosphorylation levels

of S6K1, we observed no significant changes (Fig. 4). The activation of mTORC1 drives

many cellular changes, one of which is the activation of the SREBP proteins, and thus a

link between the SKI complex and mTORC1 activation could make sense in the context

of our data. It is possible that UMB18 could activate mTORC1 but not at a level to

observe changes to the phosphorylation status of S6K1.

Alternatively, UMB18 may alter the activity the RNA helicase activity of the SKI complex

and impact genes that regulate SCAP/SREBP proteins independently of mTORC1. For

instance, the SKI complex has been shown to have a role in resolution of stalled

ribosomes (25) which we hypothesize to be disrupted by treatment with UMB18. Stalled

ribosomes can activate ZAKα, which can in turn activate JNK signaling (26) and JNK

signaling has been linked to activation of SREBPs (27). Future research will explore the

interaction between UMB18, the SKI complex and these various cellular signaling

pathways.

This study advances our understanding of our developmental host-directed, broad-

spectrum antiviral therapeutic targeting the SKI complex. Building on our previous work

which established the SKI complex as a host-directed target to inhibit diverse highly

pathogenic human viruses, we reveal a crucial role for increased cellular cholesterol in

mediating this antiviral effect. Our findings prompt further investigation into the

mechanisms by which the SKI complex, an RNA helicase associated with 3' to 5' RNA

degradation, influences metabolic pathways crucial for lipid and cholesterol synthesis, a

finding that will be the focus of future work.

465   Material and Methods

Mammalian cell culture

A549 cells and A549 cells overexpressing human ACE2 (A549-ACE2, kindly provided

by Dr. Brad Rosenberg (MSSM, NYC)) were cultured in DMEM (Quality Biologicals),

supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; Sigma) and 1%

(v/v) penicillin/streptomycin (pen/strep, 10,000 U/ml / 10 mg/ml; Gemini Bio-Products).

VeroE6 cells overexpressing TMPRSS2 (VeroT, kindly provided by Shutoku Matsuyama

(National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Japan - Shirato2018_Virology) were cultured

in DMEM, supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% pen/strep and 1% (v/v) L-glutamine (2 mM

final concentration, Gibco). Cells were maintained at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

Chemical compounds

SKI targeting compounds were synthesized by, and purchased from, Dalriada Drug

Discovery and were previously described (1). Methyl-beta-cyclodextrin (MβCD) was

purchased from Sigma.

Viruses and infections

Details on stock production have been described previously (1). SARS-CoV-2 strain

Washington 1 (WA1) was initially provided by the CDC (BEI #NR-52281). All

coronavirus work was performed in a Biosafety Level 3 laboratory and approved by our

Institutional Biosafety Committee. In all cases of infection for experiments, cells were

plated one day prior to infection to be at a desired confluence for infection. All viral titer

were determined using plaque assays on VeroT cells as described (28). For

experimental infections, virus was diluted to indicated MOI in media used for culture of

A549 cells with addition of chemical compounds or controls as appropriate. For

experiments using MβCD, 50 mM Hepes (Gibco) was additionally added to the media.

RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

RNA extractions and cDNA reactions were performed as described previously (1) using

Direct-zol RNA miniprep kit (Zymo Research) and RevertAid RT Kit (Thermo Scientific).

The primers used are listed in the table below. A QuantStudio 5 (Applied Biosystems)

was used for the qRT-PCR reactions. Loading was normalized using GAPDH and fold

change was determined by calculating ΔΔCT after normalization.

RT-PCR primers

All primers for qRT-PCR were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies (IDT) using

their pre-designed qPCR assay primers:

Gene target	IDT Assay ID
SKIC2 (A.K.A SKIV2L)	Hs.PT.58.14722008
SKIC3 (A.K.A TTC37)	Hs.PT.58.26762302
SKIC8 (A.K.A WDR61)	Hs.PT.58.157001
HMGCS1	Hs.PT.58.4084870
HMGCR	Hs.PT.58.41105491
MVK	Hs.PT.58.40379926
MVD	Hs.PT.58.39035173
IDI1	Hs.PT.58.1930362
FDPS	Hs.PT.58.27570524
MSMO1	Hs.PT.58.3747602
SCAP	Hs.PT.58.45442299
SREBF1	Hs.PT.58.3359761

SREBF2	Hs.PT.58.45335433
GAPDH	Hs.PT.39a.22214836

Transcriptomic sequencing and analysis

Library preparation and sequencing were carried out by the University of Maryland

Institute of Genomic Sciences (IGS; Baltimore, MD, USA) on an Illumina NovaSeq

6000; 100bp paired-end sequencing on an S4 flow cell (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

Reads were preprocessed using cutadapt v3.4(29), then aligned to the *Homo sapiens*

genome with STAR v2.7.8(30). Gene expression analysis was carried out using

DESeq2 v4.1.0(31) in R (Rstudio, Boston, MA, USA). Pathway analysis was carried out

using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) using an alpha value of

p_{adj} < 0.01 to call a gene significantly differentially expressed. Raw sequence data is

available in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under the accession number

PRJNA1055076.

Mass spectrometry imaging

A modified cell culture apparatus was used for compatibility with mass spectrometry

imaging (MSI). Briefly, Superfrost plus gold microscope slides were autoclaved with

flexible silicon 12-well transwell adapters (Flexiperm, Starstedt), dried completely, and

the transwell adapters mounted. Wells were coated with 0.1 mg/mL poly-l-lysine (0.1 M

borate buffer pH 8.5) overnight at 37°C, aspirated, and dried. Cells were grown in the

transwells overnight and subsequently treated with 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO for

24h. At the end of the incubation, supernatants were aspirated, the transwell mount was

removed, and the slides were submerged in ice-cold 50 mM ammonium formate (pH

6.7) for 1 minute with gentle rocking. Excess buffer was removed by tilting and using

absorbent paper. Slides were dried, flat, in a desiccator for 20 minutes. Silver-assisted

laser desorption ionization (Ag-LDI) was used to ionize cholesterol on a quadropole time

of flight (qTOF) mass spectrometer in imaging mode (Yang2020_JMassSpectrom).

Silver nitrate (8.5 mg/mL in 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid/methanol) was sprayed on the

slides using an HTX M5 Matrix Sprayer with the following settings: 45°C nozzle, 40 mm

height, 24 passes, 0.075 mL/min flow, 500 mm/min speed, 4 mm track spacing, 20 psi,

2 L/min N2, in "CC" pattern, with 0 s dry time between passes. Cholesterol imaging data

were captured from an area of uniform monolayer (>80% confluence) integrity guided by

an optical pre-scan using a Bruker Daltonics timsTOF Flex (Billerica, MA) in positive ion

mode with a 50 µM scan area (11 µM x 11 µM beamscan), over range *m/z* 100-1000

with enhanced quadratic fit calibration to Agilent Tune-Mix, 500 shots per pixel at 10 kHz

with 5-point setting in M5 small laser focus. Total scan area per sample was ~3 mm^2

resulting in ~1200 pixels per replicate, with quadruplicate samples per condition. Data

analyzed in SCiLS Lab (Bruker Daltonics), normalized (total ion current), projected with

hotspotting on, and visualized as the ion *m/z* 493.260 +/-2.2 mDa ([cholesterol+Ag$_{107}$]$^+$)

ion; the [cholesterol+Ag$_{109}$]$^+$ ion data agreed. Student's T-test and a receiver-operator

characteristic were performed between vehicle-treated and UMB18-treated cells on

quadruplicate samples.

Expression and purification of SKIC8

Transformed *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cells containing the full-length human *SKIC8* gene with

a HisX6 tag in the pET-28a(+) vector were grown in Luria-Bertani (LB)-Kanamycin broth

at 37ºC until the optical density at 600 nm equaled 0.8. SKIC8 protein expression was

induced with 1 mM Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside for 20 h at 15°C. Cells were

lysed using Bugbuster (Novagen) supplemented with protease and phosphatase

inhibitors (Thermo Scientific). Lysates were clarified by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for

30 min. and the supernatant was applied to a Talon Metal Affinity Resin (Clontech)

column equilibrated in 50 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.8) containing 10 mM imidazole

and 300 mM NaCl. The column was washed with the same sodium phosphate buffer

containing 20 mM imidazole. SKIC8 was eluted in 50 mM sodium phosphate (pH 7.8)

containing a 50-250 mM imidazole gradient and 300 mM NaCl. The fractions containing

SKIC8, as determined following SDS-PAGE, were pooled, and concentrated with an

Amicon ultrafiltration cell (Millipore, Bedford, MA). The concentrated protein was

dialyzed against 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.8) containing 150 mM NaCl.

Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR)

SKIC8 and test compound interactions were evaluated using a Biacore T-200

instrument (GE Healthcare). A carboxymethylated dextran chip (CM5, GE Healthcare)

was used to immobilize SKIC8. A net positive charge is required for direct amine

coupling; therefore, the proteins were diluted to a final concentration of 30 µg/ml in 10

mM sodium acetate buffer pH 4.0. The protein was injected at 2 µl/min until

approximately a 4500 resonance/response unit level of immobilized SKIC8 was

reached, and then the flow cell was deactivated with 1 M ethanolamine HCl (pH 8.5).

Degassed 20 mM Hepes (pH 7.4) containing 5 mM MgCl2, 100 mM NaCl, and 0.005%

Nonidet P40 was utilized as continuous running buffer for all experiments. Test

compound binding interactions with SKIC8 were investigated by injecting test compound

(1.0 –50 μM) at a flow rate of 20 μl/min. The resulting sensorgrams were analyzed using

BIAevaluation 3.1 software (GE Healthcare) to determine the dissociation constant (K_D)

as previously described(32).

RNAi knockdown

Cells were seeded to 24-well plates at a density of 4.4e4 cells/well one day prior to

transfection. Transfections were performed using Oligofectamine (Thermo Scientific) to

the manufacture's methods. Briefly, per well of transfection, 4.4μl Opti-MEM (Gibco) was

mixed with 2.2μl Oligofectamine and incubated at room temperature (RT°C) for 5 min,

while 35.5μl Opti-MEM was mixed with 0.8μl 50mM siRNA in a separate tube. The two

tubes were combined and incubated at RT°C for 20 minutes prior to addition of 177μl

Opti-MEM. Cells were washed 1x with PBS and 1x with OptiMEM then 200μl of

transfection mixture was added per well. All siRNAs were purchased from Sigma using

their Rosetta prediction system for predesigned sequences. MISSION siRNA Universal

Negative Control #1 (Sigma) was used as the scrambled control sequence. Sequences

are displayed in table:

RNAi sequences

Gene name	siRNA ID
SKIC2 (A.K.A SKIV2L)	SASI_Hs01_00196881
SKIC3 (A.K.A TTC37)	SASI_Hs01_00010354

SKIC8 (A.K.A WDR61)	SASI_Hs01_00155941
SCAP si-1	SASI_Hs01_00032110
SCAP si-2	SASI_Hs01_00032111
SREBF1 si-1	SASI_Hs01_00051828
SREBF1 si-2	SASI_Hs01_00051829
SREBF2 si-1	SASI_Hs01_00075424
SREBF2 si-2	SASI_Hs01_00075425
SREBF2 si-3	SASI_Hs01_00075426

Western blotting

Whole cell lysates were made using Triton-X100 (Tx100) lysis buffer lysis buffer (1%

Tx100 (v/v), 150mM NaCl, 50mM Tris (all Sigma), pH8). In all cases 1x cOmplete Mini,

EDTA-Free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) was added to the lysis buffer and for

experiments involving S6K and phospho-S6K (pS6K), Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail 2

(Sigma) was additionally used. Western blotting procedures have been previously

described(33). Primary antibodies used as follows: p70 S6K (Cell Signaling

Technologies #9202S, 1:1000 dilution), phospho-p70 S6K (T421/S424) (Cell Signaling

Technologies #9204S, 1:1000 dilution) and mouse anti-tubulin (clone DMA1A, Sigma,

1:1000). Secondary antibodies were used as follows: goat anti-rabbit HRP and goat

anti-mouse HRP (both 0.8 mg/ml, Thermo Scientific, 1:10,000 diluted) which were

detected using ECL Prime (Amersham).

Data analysis

603 All graphs produced and statistical analysis performed using GraphPad Prism 10.5

604 software.

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Author Contributions:

- Conceptualization: SW, MBF

- Data curation: LT,

- Formal analysis: SW, LT, AS, PS,

- Funding acquisition: MBF

- Investigation: SW, LB, AS, GK,

- Methodology: SW, LT, AS, PS,

- Resources: ADM

- Supervision: MBF

- Visualization: SW, LT, AS, PS,

- Writing – original draft: SW, AS, PS, MBF

- Writing – review & editing: SW, MFB

Competing Interests: The authors declare the following competing interesting: M.B.F is

the lead inventor along with S.W. and A.D.M as contributing inventors for patents

held for development of SKI targeting compounds (of which UMB18 is one) with

antiviral activity. The patent filings were through University of Maryland, Baltimore

and listed as PCT/US20/36483 and PCT/US2021/1061863. There has been a

corporate partnership with Aikido Pharmaceuticals for developmental research on

the compound along with others that target the SKI complex. This developmental

work has not influenced the academic research presented in this paper.

Patents: Filed patents: Patents on UMB18 and related compounds have been filed

through University of Maryland, Baltimore and listed as PCT/US20/36483 and

PCT/US2021/1061863.

Data and Material Availability: All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in this paper

are present in the paper and supplementary materials. Data are also deposited at

https://osf.io/63h8t/.

Figure Legend

Figure 1 – UMB18 directly binds SKIC8 and causes transcriptomic increases in

mevalonate pathway.

A) Binding of UMB18 to SKIC8. The binding affinity of immobilized SKIC8 to UMB18 at

various concentrations was quantified by SPR as described in the methods. A KD of 81

μM was calculated for the binding. B) Volcano plots showing differential expression of

genes at 24h (top) and 48h (bottom) in uninfected A549-ACE2 cells treated with 10 μM

UMB18 compared to 0.1% DMSO treated, uninfected A549-ACE2 cells. Cholesterol

biosynthesis genes are colored blue and labeled. A horizontal dashed line is drawn at

p_{adj} = 0.01, vertical dashed lines are drawn at +/- 2-fold change. C) Plot showing

significantly enriched pathways in uninfected A549-ACE2 cells treated with UMB18

compared to DMSO treated, uninfected A549-ACE2 cells at 24h. Orange bars show

pathways with predicted increased pathway output (z > 2); white bars show pathways

with no predicted activity pattern (z = 0). D) Venn Diagram comparing upregulation of

cholesterol biosynthesis genes in UMB18-treated A549-ACE2 cells against timepoint-

and infection-matched, untreated controls. The number and color intensity in each area

corresponds to the number of cholesterol biosynthesis genes that are significantly

upregulated (p_{adj} < 0.01) and these genes are indicated.

A549-ACE2 cells

A549 cells

Figure 2 – UMB18 causes increased expression of mevalonate pathway genes

and cellular cholesterol.

A) Simplified schematic representation of the mevalonate pathway leading to

cholesterol synthesis. In blue are metabolic products of the pathway and in black are

the enzymes that regulate the various steps with those that are highlighted being

analyzed by qRT-PCR through the paper. B and C) A549-ACE2 cells (B) or A549 cells

(C) were treated with 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO vehicle control and collected at 24h

or 48h in TRIzol for qRT-PCR analysis of expression of various genes throughout the

mevalonate pathway. The Ct values were normalized to GAPDH as a housekeeping

gene control to calculate the ΔCt and then relative fold change calculated between

UMB18 treated cells and DMSO treated cells for the ΔΔCt. Plotted is the -ΔΔCt on a

Log2 scale to show relative fold change, plotting mean and standard error of the mean

as error bars. P values were calculated for the ΔCt values by two-way ANOVA with a

Tukey multiple comparison correction for each gene at the different time points and

treatments. Data are from 3 independent experiments each performed with triplicate

wells of treatment. D) Relative intensity cloud projection with box plot of *m/z* 493.260 +/-

2.2 mDa ($[\text{cholesterol}+\text{Ag}_{107}]^{+}$) ion per image pixel for UMB18- and DMSO-treated cells

with area-under-the-curve (AOC) from a receiver-operator characteristic analysis.

Student's T-test base on quadruplicate samples.

Figure 3 – UMB18 increases cellular cholesterol and exerts antiviral activity in

serum containing media

A-C) A549-ACE2 cells were treated with 10 μM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO in culture media

containing 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (as described in Materials & Methods) or

without supplemental serum (serum free). After 24h of treatment, cells were collected in

TRIzol for qRT-PCR analysis of the three indicated genes (HMGCS1, MVD and

MSMO1, A-C). Analysis was performed, and data plotted as described in Figure 2. D)

A549-ACE2 cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI 0.5 in serum containing or

serum free media with 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO. 24-hour post-infection

supernatant was collected and used to titer virus by plaque assay on VeroTMPRSS2

cells. Plotted is the mean pfu/ml value from 3 independent experiments performed in

triplicate wells, with that value being displayed within each bar. Significance calculated

by two-way ANOVA with a Tukey multiple comparison correction. Only statically

significant ($p < 0.05$) comparisons are shown on the graph.

Figure 4 – UMB18 does not appear to activate mTOR signaling as assessed by

phospho-S6K1.

A) A549-ACE2 cells were plated to plastic and the following day treated with 100 ng

recombinant EGF, or PBS carrier alone. At time points between 5 and 30 min, cells were

collected in Triton-X100 lysis buffer and prepared for western blotting (see Materials and

Methods). Samples were separated on gels and blotted for phospho-S6K1 or S6K1 and

tubulin was used as a loading control. All probes were detected with HRP. Density of

bands was determined and quantified by setting relative to tubulin control and then

reported as a relative band density of EGF treated compared to PBS treated at each

806   time point. B and C) A549-ACE2 cell were plated to plastic and the following day treated

807   with 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO for the indicated time points or left untreated (for 4

808   hours in B). At each timepoint, cells were collected, and western blots run similarly to A.

809   All gels were imaged with HRP, except tubulin in B which was visualized by AlexaFluor

810   488. Density of UMB18 compared to DMSO at each time point is reported as in A.

Figure 5 – UMB18 requires SCAP and SREBP genes to increase mevalonate

pathway gene expression.

A549-ACE2 cells were transfected with unique siRNA sequences targeting *Scap* (A-D)*,*

Srebf2 (E-H) or *Srebf1* (I-L) for 72h. The cells were then treated with 10 µM UMB18 or

0.1% DMSO for 24h and collected in TRIzol for qRT-PCR targeting the specified genes

(the siRNA targeted genes or MVD, FDPS or MSMO1 as representatives of the

mevalonate pathway). The Ct values were normalized to GAPDH as a housekeeping

gene to determine the ΔCt and then relative fold change was calculated compared to

scrambled siRNA (siScr) transfected cells treated with DMSO (siScr/DMSO) for each of

the conditions for the ΔΔCt. The mean -ΔΔCt is plotted on a Log2 scale to show relative

fold change, plotting mean and standard error of the mean as error bars. P values were

calculated for the ΔCt values by two-way ANOVA with a Tukey multiple comparison

correction for each gene. Values were calculated comparing the mean within each

siRNA condition (UMB18 vs DMSO), displayed with black bars or within each treatment

condition where gene specific knockdown siRNA was compared to siScr for UMB18

treatment (color bars above graph) or DMSO treatment (color bars below graph). For

this later comparison, only statistically significant p values (< 0.05) are displayed. Data

are from 3 independent experiments each performed with triplicate wells of treatment.

Figure 6 – Increased cellular cholesterol is required for UMB18-mediated antiviral

activity.

A and B) A549-ACE2 cells were transfected with siRNA sequences targeting *Scap or*

Srebf2 or Srebf1 (sequences as used in Figure 5, *Scap* and *Srebf2* [A] transfections

were experimentally performed together while *Srebf1* [B] were performed separately).

Following transfection, cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI 0.1 and treated with

10 µM UMB18 or 0.1% DMSO for 24h. Supernatant was collected from the cells and

viral titer determined by plaque assay on VeroTMPRSS2 cells. The titer is plotted as

plaque forming units/ml from each of the different transfection and treatment conditions.

Using scrambled siRNA (siScr) as the control. Two-way ANOVA analysis was

performed, and the p-values are plotted. Data are from three independent experiments

performed in triplicate. C) Fold change between titer of DMSO treated and UMB18

treated in each transfection condition summarized in a table format. D) A549-ACE2 cells

were treated with the indicated concentrations of methyl-beta-cyclodextrin (MβCD) for

24h prior to fixation with neutral buffered formalin. Cells were stained with Hoechst to

label nuclei and cell count per well (96 well format) was quantified with a Celigo high

content imager. Reported is the percentage total cell count compared to untreated cells

as a measure of cytotoxicity from MβCD treatment. E) A549-ACE2 cells were infected

with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI 3 and treated with the indicated concentrations of MβCD for

24h. Cells were similarly fixed with neutral buffered formalin then immunofluorescence

labeled for SARS-CoV-2 N protein and stained with Hoechst. High content imaging was

used to quantify percentage infection, and the plotted data are relative parentage

infection compared to untreated control cells. F) As in E, cells were infected with SARS-

CoV-2 at MOI 3 and treated with or without MβCD with either 10 µM UMB18 or 0.1%

DMSO. Cells were similarly fixed and labeled for high content imaging of percentage

infection. Plotted are the relative infection percentage to 0.1% DMSO treated cells for

each of the different conditions. An unpaired t-test was performed for each condition

and the p-values are reported. Data are from three independent experiments.