Title

Enhancer lncRNA LOC730338 limits the innate immune response against lymphoma cells,
inhibiting ADAR2-dependent alternative transcription.

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Abstract (150 words)

Chronic antigenic stimulation is central to marginal zone lymphoma (MZL) development. While the pharmacological inhibition of the B-cell receptor (BCR) signaling is initially effective, secondary resistance frequently develops. We conducted a CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) screen investigating enhancer-associated long non-coding RNAs (elncRNAs) in MZL cells to identify transcripts crucial to shape their dependence on BCR pathway activation. We identified LOC730338, an elncRNA associated with A-to-I RNA editing, which we renamed ADARreg. Silencing ADARreg re-sensitized tumor cells to BCR pathway inhibition by modulating ADAR2 nuclear translocation and altering intronic RNA editing. The process preferentially affected genes that enhance immune responses, such as STING, IRF3, and p65. ADARreg knockdown also increased lymphoma cell sensitivity to NK cell-mediated cytotoxicity. Our results indicate that targeting elncRNAs like ADARreg represents a potential strategy to overcome drug resistance in lymphoma, also opening new therapeutic opportunities for immunotherapy.

Marginal zone Lymphoma (MZL) derives from MZ B cells under chronic inflammation and prolonged B cell
receptor (BCR) activation from persistent infections or autoimmune diseases [1]. A hallmark of MZL is the
interaction of tumor cells with the microenvironment, a complex network of various cell types, including
T cells, which communicate through soluble factors like cytokines and chemokines. BCR signaling plays a
key role in shaping these interactions and activating downstream pathways like NF-kB [2], to sustain
lymphoma growth [3]. Indeed, the pharmacological inhibition of BCR signaling, particularly through
Bruton's tyrosine kinase (BTK) inhibition with the first-in-class ibrutinib and newer agents, is an effective
therapeutic option for MZL patients as well as for other lymphoid neoplasms [4-6]. However, resistance
frequently develops [7, 8], and, in lymphoma cells, it is frequently sustained by , in lymphoma cells, it is
frequently sustained by epigenetic reprogramming [9-12].

Non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs), particularly enhancer-associated long non-coding RNAs (elncRNAs), play key
roles in regulating gene expression [13]. The elncRNAs are transcribed from enhancer regions and act as
transcription regulators in a tissue-specific and developmentally regulated manner [14]. They derive from
super-enhancers (SEs), large clusters of highly acetylated enhancers bound by transcription factors,
regulating key differentiation genes [15, 16]. ElncRNAs often stabilize protein complexes *in cis* but can also
acquire *in trans* activity, affecting both nuclear and cytoplasmatic additional functions [17, 18].

Here, we aimed to identify elncRNAs modulating the transcriptional reprogramming in ibrutinib-resistant
splenic MZL (SMZL) via a screen based on the Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats
Interference (CRISPRi) technology. Among the identified transcripts, the lncRNA LOC730338
(AC011294.3/ENSG00000233539) emerged due to its previously identified role in regulating A-to-I RNA
editing in B cells [19]. We show that it likely acts as a negative regulator of ADARB1 and, to a lesser extent,
ADAR, genes that encode the adenosine deaminases ADAR2 and ADAR1, respectively [19]. Based on this,
we renamed it ADARreg and demonstrated its role in modulating the sensitivity to ibrutinib and also for
an immune-suppressive capacity.

RESULTS

Acquired ibrutinib-resistance in SMZL cells is associated with changes in super-enhancer activation

The VL51 cell line, which originated from a patient with a SMZL [20], was cultured for up to nine months
under increasing doses of ibrutinib, leading to secondary resistance to BTK inhibitors and other BCR
pathway-targeting drugs, such as the PI3K inhibitors idelalisib, duvelisib and copanlisib [21]. *In vitro* BCR
stimulation revealed that, in ibrutinib-resistant cells, NF-κB signaling showed reduced BCR dependency
compared to parental cells (Fig.S1A).

To study the epigenetic remodeling of BCR-blocked cells, we investigated the enhancer activity in
ibrutinib-resistant VL51, using ChIP-sequencing to profile histone modifications (H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and
H3K4me3). We identified 33,264 H3K27ac peaks: 20,950 common, 2,830 unique to parental cells, and 541
to resistant cells (Fig.1A, Table S1). Bona fide enhancers were defined by the presence of H3K4me1 and
the absence of H3K4me3. Comparing ibrutinib-resistant cells to their parental counterparts, we found
that resistant cells lost 1,329 enhancers and gained 144 new ones (Fig.1A, B). Taking advantage of the
RNAseq from parental and derivative cells, we examined the genes within 40 kb of these differentially

activated enhancers. Loss of enhancers was linked to the downregulation of key genes, including CDKN2A,
CDKN2B, and MAP3K14, with the most notable decrease observed in NLRP4, a pattern-recognition
receptor (PRR) involved in immune activation (Fig.1C, left) [22]. A few genes near newly activated
enhancers were significantly upregulated in resistant cells (Fig.1C, right). This suggested that additional
non-coding transcripts might be associated with these enhancer gains.

Identification of elncRNAs associated with ibrutinib resistance

SEs, densely bound by transcription factors and highly acetylated, regulate crucial genes and are the main
source of elncRNAs. Using the ROSE algorithm [23], we identified 1,345 SEs from H3K27Ac ChIP-Seq data.
(Fig.S1B). To determine how many SEs were associated with elncRNA production, we reconstructed the
transcriptomes of parental and ibrutinib-resistant VL51 cells using total RNA-Seq profiling. We included a
VL51 derivative resistant to PI3Kδ inhibitors [11] to expand our analysis beyond ibrutinib-resistance. By
analyzing ribosomal RNA-depleted libraries, we detected polyadenylated and non-polyadenylated
transcripts and identified novel and known transcripts associated with SEs (Fig.S1B). We defined elncRNAs
as any transcript detectable within an active SE in either parental or resistant cells. We assigned a
transcription start site (TSS) based on the FANTOM project CAGE dataset [24] (Fig S1B). We excluded
transcripts annotated as protein-coding genes but included antisense or sense intronic transcripts. We
identified 427 elncRNAs, including 74 novel transcripts not listed in GENCODE (Fig.S1B). Of these, 13% (45
elncRNAs) were lost, and 9% (30 elncRNAs) were gained in the ibrutinib-resistant cells (Fig.S1A, Table S2).

Functional screening of elncRNAs linked to BCR blockade

To identify elncRNAs associated with BCR blockade, we performed a genome-wide CRISPRi screen in both
parental and ibrutinib-resistant cells (Fig.2A). We designed a custom library of paired guide RNAs (pgRNAs)
that targeted 255 annotated elncRNAs and 57 novel ones (Fig.2B). The library also included pgRNAs
targeting 225 lincRNAs differentially expressed between parental and resistant cells, 68 essential genes
as positive controls, and 33 non-expressed transcripts as negative controls. The whole library investigated
659 transcripts (Fig.2B, Table S2). The pgRNAs were designed to target regions within -300 to +300 base
pairs around the TSSs by a defective Cas9 fused with the repressor ZIM3 (dCas9-KRAB-ZIM3) [25] (Fig.2A,
S1C), allowing transcriptional repression without inducing DNA damage [25].

After elncRNA CRISPRi library infection (Fig.S1D), parental and resistant cells were treated with either
ibrutinib or DMSO for two weeks (Fig.2C). We analyzed two replicates per condition at three time points
(6, 10, and 14 days) compared to time 0 (Fig.2C). The effects of specific transcripts on cell survival and BCR
dependency, assessed by ibrutinib sensitivity, were measured through pgRNAs enrichment overtime,
represented by β score (Fig.2D, Table S3). Positive β values indicated that transcripts impaired
proliferation or increased drug sensitivity, negative β values the opposite. The high β correlation for
positive controls across replicates validated the robustness of our approach (Fig.S1E).

The β correlation for elncRNA targets was consistent, albeit higher in parental cells, possibly reflecting
greater heterogeneity in the resistant population (Fig.S1F). Multi-dimensional scaling (MDS) plots showed
lincRNA silencing differentiated parental from resistant cells, especially after 14 days (Fig.S1G). Similarly,
elncRNA silencing discriminated resistant from parental cells starting as early as day 6 (Fig.2D). Notably,
some elncRNAs affected resistant cell survival only with drug exposure (Fig.2D).

The distribution of β scores in parental and resistant cells exposed to ibrutinib showed concordance of
many transcripts modulating the drug response, especially among lincRNAs (Fig 2E, left). However, some
elncRNAs peculiarly affected ibrutinib efficacy in resistant or parental cells. Noteworthy, silencing
AC011294.3 (ADARreg) (FigS2A) and RP11-96H19.1 (lncPCED1b) (Fig.S2B) was sufficient to revert BCR
dependency in resistant cells (Fig 2E, right).

ADARreg affects the sensitivity to ibrutinib

To confirm ADARreg function, we transduced Ibrutinib-resistant VL51 cells with constructs expressing
mCherry and pgRNAs targeting the ADARreg TSS, and GFP-tagged dCas9ZIM3 (Fig.S2C). Dual fluorescent
markers tracked ADARreg knockdown (eRNA_kd) cells within mixed populations for a competitive assay.
We monitored double-positive cells over 10 days, comparing them to wild-type cells. The competition
assay confirmed the CRISPRi screening results. ADARreg knockdown cells were more sensitive to ibrutinib
than the wild-type and pgRNA-expressing cells, confirming transcriptional interference caused these
effects (Fig.S2C).

lncPCED1b validation as regulator of ibrutinib response

RP11-96H19.1 (ENSG00000257261), referred to as lncPCED1b due to its proximity to the *PCED1b* gene
(Fig.S2B), was identified in the CRISPRi screen as promoting ibrutinib sensitivity in Ibrutinib-resistant VL51
cells and, to a lesser extent, in parental cells (Fig.2E). Stable interference with lncPCED1b transcription in
both cell types reduced cell survival in resistant cells respect with control cells transduced with pgRNAs
targeting KLK12, a non-expressed gene in our model. (Fig.S2D).

After two weeks, double-positive cells were sorted and expanded to establish stable knockdown models.
We confirmed that ADARreg or lncPCED1b knockdown enhanced sensitivity to BTK inhibition in Ibrutinib-
resistant cells (Fig.S2E). However, parental cells with lncPCED1b knockdown did not retain the phenotype
(Fig.S2E).

ADARreg silencing affects A-to-I editing in intronic regions

Given ADARreg's potential role in regulating A-to-I RNA editing [19], we analyzed the transcriptional
variants between parental VL51 cells, Ibrutinib-resistant cells expressing KLK12 pgRNAs, and Ibrutinib-
resistant cells with stable knockdowns of ADARreg or lncPCED1b. Using the RED-ML algorithm, we
identified approximately 24,000 editing sites within Alu sequences and 13,000 outside them across all
experimental conditions (Table S4).

Focusing on sequence-specific editing sites found in at least three samples, we discovered that 66%
(n=1,857) occurred outside Alu sequences and 33% (n=952) within (Fig.3A, left). Differential editing
analysis identified 195 non-Alu and 86 Alu-specific editing sites in the resistant cells. Similar analyses
comparing ibrutinib-resistant cells with ADARreg knockdown (n=85 non-Alu; n=14 Alu) or lncPCED1b
knockdown (n=69 non-Alu; n=18 Alu) showed that elncRNA silencing primarily affected editing outside
Alu regions (Fig.3A, right).

We also examined the genomic distribution of editing sites. Approximately 30% occurred in the 3'UTR,
20% in exons (mostly synonymous variants), 15% as exonic missense variants, and 17% in introns (Fig.3B).
ADARreg and lncPCED1b knockdown notably affected the editing sites within introns (Fig.3B).

In Ibrutinib-resistant cells, intronic editing was largely lost compared to parental cells (Fig.3C, left).
ADARreg knockdown reversed this trend, increasing intronic editing in protein-coding genes while
decreasing in noncoding genes (Fig.3C, middle). Similarly, lncPCED1b knockdown also increased intronic
editing sites (Fig.3C, right). Many of the editing sites restored by ADARreg knockdown were initially
present in parental cells but lost in resistant cells (Fig.3D), and the differentially edited transcripts were
predominantly involved in immune and cancer-related pathways (Table S5).

ADARreg affects the editing of ncRNAs involved in ibrutinib sensitivity

Using the MEME tool, we identified a consensus sequence in the elncRNAs expressed in our model
(Fig.4A), complementary with a portion of the Alu element (Fig.4B, Table S6). This sequence is prone to
form a stable double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) structure (Fig.4C). When analyzing the full set of SEs active in
our model, no comparable consensus sequence with equal dsRNA-forming potential was identified
(Fig.4A, S3A). This suggested SE-transcribed regions were predisposed to editing. Indeed, several
elncRNAs and lincRNAs included in the CRISPRi screen were differentially edited in resistant compared to
parental cells (Fig.4D). Of particular interest, 37 editing sites showed significant differential editing in the
absence of ADARreg, most of which were more edited than the controls (Fig.4D). lncPCED1b (RP11-
96H19.1) was the third most edited ncRNA in ADARreg knockdown cells (Fig.4D). Remarkably, lncPCED1b
knockdown partially restored the parental editome in resistant cells (Fig.4E). Additionally, a subset of
differentially edited sites overlapped between lncPCED1b and ADARreg knockdown, suggesting that
lncPCED1b mediates A-to-I editing regulated by ADARreg (Fig.4F).

To further validate this, we analyzed parental cells with stable knockdowns of lncPCED1b or LINC00511, a
known oncogene not associated with RNA editing. Editing sites altered by LINC00511 knockdown were
less correlated with those involved in resistance than ADARreg knockdown (Fig.S3B-D). Notably,
lncPCED1b knockdown did not similarly affect the editome of parental cells, where ADARreg expression
was irrelevant for ibrutinib resistance (Fig.S3E). Furthermore, intronic editing events after lncPCED1b or
LINC00511 knockdown were less pronounced in parental cells than in resistant ones (Fig.S3F, G).

ADARreg modulates BTK inhibition by regulating ADAR2 activity

We tested ADARreg function in ibrutinib-resistant VL51 and Jeko1 cells. Jeko1, a mantle cell lymphoma
(MCL) line, expressed ADARreg and showed low sensitivity to ibrutinib. Stable ADARreg silencing in both
cell lines significantly increased their sensitivity to ibrutinib compared to cells expressing control KLK12-
pgRNAs (Fig.5 A, B, S4A).

To confirm that ADARreg *per se* contributed to drug resistance, we used antisense oligonucleotides to
degrade ADARreg in Jeko1 cells. Electroporation with Locked Nucleic Acids (LNAs) targeting ADARreg
reduced cell proliferation and increased sensitivity to ibrutinib (Fig.5C).

We further tested ADARreg's impact on drug sensitivity in HAIRM, an ibrutinib-sensitive cell line derived
from MZL or hairy cell leukemia variant. As in Jeko1, we observed a reduction in cell viability four days
after LNA electroporation (Fig.S4B). However, HAIRM did not exhibit permanent changes in proliferation
or drug sensitivity (Fig S4C).

We also examined ADARreg expression in a cohort of MCL patients, where higher ADARreg expression
correlated with poorer overall survival (Fig.5D). ADARreg expression was negatively correlated with
ADAR1 (Fig.5E, top) and positively correlated with ADAR2 (coded by ADARB1) (Fig.5E, bottom).

While ADARreg knockdown did not significantly alter ADAR transcription (Fig.S4D), it did shift the isoform
ratio of ADARB1 in ibrutinib-resistant VL51 cells. Three ADARB1 isoforms upregulated during resistance
were significantly repressed after ADARreg knockdown: ADARB1-214, which skips exon 7, resulting in a
slightly longer protein (ADAR2b) with lower enzymatic activity, and two untranslated alternatively spliced
transcripts (Fig.5F)[26, 27].

Immunoblotting confirmed that ADARreg knockdown did not affect ADAR1 levels (Fig.S4E) or subcellular
distribution (Fig.S4F). However, ADAR2 did not change in total level but showed increased nuclear
translocation, likely enhancing intronic RNA editing (Fig 5G, S5G). ADARreg was also mainly nuclear, in line
with its putative role in regulating intronic editing (Fig.S4H).

ADARreg and lncPCED1b maintain the BCR inactivation by altering RNA homeostasis

Transcriptomic analysis of the ibrutinib-resistant VL51 cells after ADARreg or lncPCED1b knockdown
(Table S7) revealed significant enrichment of genesets related to the proteasome, spliceosome, and RNA
degradation among the transcripts more expressed in resistant cells compared to parental cells (Fig.6A).
Inhibiting these elncRNAs, we also reversed genesets normally suppressed by BTK inhibition, in resistant
cells, confirming the reactivation of BCR dependency (Fig.6A). ADARreg and lncPCED1b inhibition reverted
the SMZL signature associated with ibrutinib-resistance, confirming their role in maintaining the resistant
phenotype (Fig.6A). Furthermore, resistant cells had lower expression of genes involved in interferon
response compared to parental cells. Still, ADARreg and lncPCED1b silencing reactivated immune
responses through PRR signaling (Fig.6A, Table S8). Specifically, ADARreg knockdown restored the
expression of interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) such as IFIH1 and DHX58, which encode critical proteins
in the RIG-I-like receptor (RLR) pathway that induces interferon production after detecting unedited
dsRNA, normally suppressed by ADAR editing [26] (Fig.6B).

ADARreg modulates IRF3 activity

Since A-to-I RNA editing can influence transcript stability [28], we assessed post-transcriptional
modulation of transcript abundance using exon-intron split analysis (EISA). Cells with ADARreg or
lncPCED1b knockdown exhibited increased transcript stability, particularly ADARreg kd cells (106
stabilized transcripts compared to 64 for lncPCED1b) (Fig.6C, Fig.S5B, Table S9). This aligned with reducing
many enzymes involved in RNA degradation in our models. The stabilized transcripts were involved in
metabolism pathways and viral infection response (Fig.6D), while lncPCED1b knockdown primarily
stabilized transcripts encoding proteasome components (Fig.S5B). Notably, IRF3, a key transcription factor
in immune response, was post-transcriptionally regulated by ADARreg. ADARreg kd stabilized the isoform
IRF3-203, encoding for the active IRF3, while destabilized IRF3-202, encoding for the dominant-negative
IRF3a, which is retained in the cytoplasm (Fig.6E, S5C) [29]. This shift in isoform balance was confirmed at
the protein level (Fig.6F, S5D), and immunofluorescence demonstrated increased nuclear localization of
IRF3 after ADARreg knockdown (Fig.6G, S5E). In resistant cells, ADARreg expression reduced all IRF3
transcripts, with the active IRF3-203 isoform completely depleted (Fig.6E, S5C). After ADARreg
knockdown, IRF3 target genes, typically downregulated in resistant cells, were reactivated (Fig.S5F).

ADARreg alters STING and NF-kB signaling

The cGAS-STING pathway is a major regulator of IRF3 [30]. The ibrutinib-resistant VL51 cells upregulated STING but favored an alternative translation initiation (Fig.7A), producing a dominant-negative STINGβ (encoded by STING1-216), which disrupts STING signaling [31]. ADARreg knockdown reverted the ratio between STING and STINGβ, restoring proper signaling (Fig.7A). Indeed, the STING agonist diABZI (10 μM) enhanced BTK inhibition in resistant cells like ADARreg knockdown, which further increased the synergism between ibrutinib and STING agonist in ibrutinib-resistant cells (Fig.7B). A similar mechanism propagated further downstream, with STING triggering NF-κB [30]. In resistant cells, ADARreg altered RELA transcription, producing an inactive N-terminal fragment of p65 (Fig.7C). ADARreg knockdown restored the balance between active p65 and its inhibitory N-terminal fragment at both the RNA (Fig.7C) and protein level (Fig.7D, S6A). This event was translated into higher nuclear translocation of NF-κB after ADARreg knockdown (Fig.7E). However, lncPCED1b knockdown only increased active p65 without affecting the inhibitory form, which explains its lesser nuclear NF-κB compared to ADARreg knockdown. (Fig.7D). Similarly, the phosphorylation of full-length p65 after BCR stimulation increased in resistant cells after ADARreg but not after lncPCED1b knockdown (Fig.S6B).

ADARreg alters transcript usage across key genes

We detected alternative transcripts in key genes as ADARB1 (Fig.5F), IRF3 (Fig.6E), STING (Fig.7A) and RELA (Fig.7C), so we investigated whether ADARreg knockdown generally affected transcript usage. Transcriptome analysis showed that ADARreg knockdown induced widespread alternative transcript usage, affecting 1,536 genes, while lncPCED1b knockdown altered only 469 genes (Fig.7F, 7S6C, Table S10). Many of these isoform changes were linked to intronic editing, with ADARreg affecting 160 genes and lncPCED1b affecting 63 genes (Fig.7S6C). Nineteen of these genes were common to both and primarily involved in p53 regulation after DNA damage (Fig.S6 D, E). Variations in 3'UTR editing were rarely associated with isoform changes (Fig 7F). Some genes with sequence-specific editing, ENO1, RPS3, CLEC2D, MFN1, and AUTS2, showed alternative transcript usage after ADARreg knockdown, with RPS3 being similarly affected by lncPCED1b knockdown (Fig.7F, 7S6C). Ribosomal protein S3 (*rpS3*), a multifunctional protein involved in translation, DNA repair, apoptosis, and immune regulation, interacts with p65 to activate specific genes [33]. The expression of the N-terminal fragment of p65 inhibits the RPS3-specific signature [28]. RPS3 has different domains responsible for apoptosis and DNA damage (Fig.7G)[34]. ADARreg and lncPCED1b knockdown restored expression of the RPS3-208 isoform, which was absent in resistant cells (Fig.7H). This isoform lacks the DNA repair domain but retains the apoptosis-inducing and p65-interacting domains (Fig.7G).

ADARreg inhibits NK cell-mediated cytotoxicity

ADARreg knockdown modulated the isoforms of LLT1 (encoded by *CLEC2D* gene), a ligand for the CD161 (NKR-P1A) receptor expressed on NK and T cells [35, 36] (Fig.7I). Along with the modulation of IRF3, this suggested that ADARreg knockdown could increase NK cell-mediated killing of resistant cells. Co-culturing ADARreg knockdown VL51 cells with NK cells from a healthy donor resulted in significantly higher NK cell-mediated killing than control cells (Fig.8A, S7A). Additionally, NK cells survived longer in co-cultures with ADARreg knockdown cells (Fig.S7B).

To validate these findings, we used publicly available single-cell RNA seq of four chronic lymphocytic
leukemia (CLL) patients undergoing ibrutinib treatment [37]to validate these findings. Using genes altered
by stable ADARreg kd as a surrogate for ADARreg level (undetectable in polyA datasets), we compared
CLL cells from two fast and two slow responders (Fig.S7C). Transcriptomic profiles of surviving cells after
treatment resembled the SMZL ADARreg^{high}-resistant model (Fig.S7C). Similar cells were also more
abundant at pretreatment time point in slow responders (Fig.S7C). We analyzed NK cells in untreated
samples, annotating them as cytotoxic, inflammatory, or tumor-associated NK (TANK) cells (Fig.S7D) [38],
and analyzed cell-cell communication using CellChat (Fig.8B, S8). At pretreatment, in a slow responder,
ADARreg^{high}-like B cells increased CLEC2D-CD161 interactions with active NKs, compared to ADARreg^{low}-
like B cells (Fig.8B). Conversely, ADARreg^{low}-like B cells interacted more with TANK cells through CD99-
PILRA signaling, recently associated with favorable immunotherapy outcomes [39] (Fig.8B). No differences
in cell communication between ADARreg $^{high/low}$-like B and NK cells were significant in the fast responder
(Fig. S8). Tumor cells persisting after treatment had higher CLEC2D expression and ADARreg signature in
both patients (Fig.8C). However, those cells were more abundant in slow than fast responder (Fig.8C). In
summary, ADARreg modulated CLEC2D isoform balance, favoring NK inhibition in IBR-resistant cells in
vitro. A transcriptional program like the one controlled by ADARreg linked high CLEC2D expression to
ibrutinib-resistance in CLL patients.

Discussion

This study demonstrated that LOC730338, which we renamed ADARreg, can affect the sensitivity to the
BTK inhibitor ibrutinib and play a key role in maintaining immune suppression in lymphoma cells. We
linked ADARreg to the regulation of the inflammatory response at multiple levels. ADARreg repressed IRF3
transcriptionally and post-transcriptionally. It reduced A-to-I editing of intronic regions, affecting the
alternative splicing of genes that stimulate an innate immune response. Without ADARreg, the BCR
signaling was reactivated, making the B cells more likely to be killed by NK cells.

In the presence of pathogens, PRRs activate pathways such as NF-κB, MAPK, and type-I interferon [40,
41]. This response must be tightly regulated to prevent overactivation without a real need [35]. ADAR1
and ADAR2, through A-to-I RNA editing, play a central role in preventing excessive immune activation by
editing self-dsRNA [42]. They also restrain the inflammatory response, modulating the stability and
alternative splicing of transcripts mainly involved in antiviral response[43]. Indeed, A-to-I editing can
drastically alter RNA's structural and coding properties [44]**.** In detail, A-to-I editing by ADAR2 can convert
an intronic AA dinucleotide into an AI dinucleotide that can act like the canonical AG 3' splice site acceptor,
impacting splicing events [45]. Our findings add a new layer of complexity to this regulatory network, as
we observed significant alterations in these mechanisms following ADARreg knockdown. Splicing was
strongly impaired by ADARreg knockdown that reduced the expression of many genes, such as DHX8,
DDX42, SF3B1, or PUS7.

Although ADARreg was previously associated with RNA editing, its exact role remained unclear [19]. We
showed that silencing ADARreg disrupts RNA editing, not by directly regulating ADAR expression, but by
possibly changing the intracellular distribution and target interactions of ADARs, particularly ADAR2. The
latter, a less abundant but more sequence-specific editor than ADAR1, was most affected by ADARreg

knockdown. This led to impaired editing, especially outside repetitive Alu sequences, in line with an
ADAR2-dependent mechanism [26, 27]. We hypothesize that ADARreg limits ADAR2's ability to edit
introns, influencing alternative transcript usage.

Alternative splicing is a critical regulatory mechanism in genes involved in innate immunity, such as cGAS,
STING, TBK, and IRF3 [31, 47, 48]. We observed that ADARreg knockdown altered the splicing of STING
and IRF3, which are key components of immune signaling. More broadly, ADARreg impacted the
alternative splicing of many genes involved in DNA damage repair, supporting its broader role in
maintaining RNA homeostasis in resistant cells.

ADAR2 has previously been proposed as a potential tumor suppressor in glioma [49] , and cancer often
takes advantage of alternative splicing to promote the expression of pro-tumorigenic isoforms [45, 50].
Furthermore, tumor cells, which often release fragmented DNA, can evade immune detection by
dampening DNA damage-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), decreasing antitumoral immune
attacks. ADARreg may contribute to this immune evasion mechanism by modulating alternative splicing
and inhibiting interferon responses.

In addition to the alternative transcript usage of IRF3 and STING, ADARreg affected immune signaling by
regulating the NF-κB signaling. We observed the production of an alternative form of p65, which retains
the ribosomal protein RPS3 in the cytoplasm. RPS3, beyond its ribosomal functions, is involved in
apoptosis, DNA repair, and transcriptional regulation [51]. RPS3 was identified as a non-Rel subunit of NF-
κB [33] and has already been reported to be involved in cell proliferation and drug resistance in multiple
myeloma [52]. RPS3 was our model's most heavily edited and alternatively spliced gene under ADARreg
control. The precise role of RPS3 in SMZL growth and BCR pathway activation remains to be elucidated.

Our findings suggest that ADARreg works within a broader epigenetic network of ncRNAs that regulate
intronic editing and alternative transcript usage. lncPCED1b knockdown showed similar effects, mirroring
ADARreg's influence on transcriptomic alterations. ADARreg also regulates the editing of relevant ncRNAs,
including lncPCED1b. It is possible that lncPCED1b, like others, might be a mediator of ADARreg action.
This is consistent with recent findings linking elncRNA splicing to enhancer activity[41]. We propose that
ADARreg, modulating ADAR2 accessibility to subsets of elncRNAs, depending on the presence of a
consensus sequence, can regulate their processing and, in turn, the balance of protumoral transcriptional
isoforms.

ADARreg silencing reactivates the INF-I response and modulates surface receptors such as LLT1, increasing
SMZL cells' immunogenicity and susceptibility to NK cell-mediated cytotoxicity. In SMZL patients, poorer
outcomes are associated with an immune-suppressive phenotype with immune checkpoint activation
[53]. These patients often exhibit KLF2 and NOTCH2 mutations, but a clear mechanism for immune escape
is missing. ADARreg may be a critical factor influencing tumor-microenvironment interactions.

This mechanism was further validated in CLL patients, where we observed a link between the selection of
tumor clones resistant to BCR inhibition and the suppression of an immunological signature modulated
by ADARreg. Moreover, an ADARreg[high]-signature in hematological tumors, such as MZL, CLL, and MCL,
may indicate an unfavorable prognosis for patients treated with BCR signaling inhibitors. Conversely,
ADARreg represents a promising therapeutic target for antisense oligonucleotide strategies to elicit
spontaneous immune responses against immune-suppressive cells.

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Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

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Figure 1. Ibrutinib-resistance is associated with changes in super-enhancer activation

(A) ChIP-seq H3k27 acetylated peak counts in three independent biological replicates of parental VL51 and ibrutinib-resistant (IBRr) derivatives. The horizontal bars show the number of total peaks in each sample. The red and green bars highlight the number of robust peaks differentially enriched in parental and ibrutinib-resistant cells. The number of *bona fide* enhancers is also indicated based on the co-occurrence of H3K4me1 peak and the absence of H3K4me3.

(B) Schematic representation of an example of enhancer lost in ibrutinib-resistant cells, close to CDKN2A and CDKN2B loci. H3K4me1, H3K4me3, and input tracks are overlays of parental (green) and ibrutinib-resistant derivatives (red) replicates. Genomic positions of acetylated H3 peaks and transcripts differentially expressed (red blocks) in ibrutinib-resistant versus parental cells are indicated.

(C) Volcano plot representing the expression of genes mapping within 40kb from an enhancer lost (left) or gained (right) in ibrutinib-resistant cells. Orange dots represent genes significantly downregulated, and green dots represent genes upregulated. The gene symbol of selected interesting genes is displayed.

Figure 2. Functional screening of elncRNAs linked to BCR blockade

(A) CRISPRi schematic representation.

(B) Composition of CRISPRi lentiviral library, in terms of the constructs targeting different subtypes of controls and target genes.

(C) Schematic overview of the CRISPRi screen experimental plan.

(D) MDS plots showing the distribution of samples at the beginning of CRISPRi screen (T0, squared labels) or after 6 (T6), 10 (T10) or 14 (T14) days, based on the drop out of elncRNAs. Parental cells are represented in green, ibrutinib-resistant in red. Samples exposed to the drug are labelled with triangle, to the vehicle with the circle. The blue circle highlights the clustering of resistant cells, exposed to ibrutinib.

(E) Scatter plot of β values measuring the drop out of single lincRNAs, left, or elncRNAs, right, in parental cells exposed to ibrutinib for 14 days respect to ibrutinib resistant cells. If the measurement is statistically significant (FDR<0.2) the label with gene symbol is displayed. The bold black label indicates elncRNAs selected for further validation steps.

Figure 3. ADARreg silencing affects A to I editing in intronic regions.

(A) Left, numbers of significative editing sites detected by RED-ML algorithm (FDR< 0.05). Red bars represent the number of editing sites falling within Alu sequences, light blue bars the ones outside. Right, numbers of significative editing sites differentially present in the ibrutinib-resistant cells compared to parental cells, or in ibrutinib resistant ADARreg kd or lncPCED1b kd, respect to the KLK12kd negative control (pvalue< 0.05, Limma test).

(B) Cumulative bar graphs showing the percentual genomic distribution of the total significative editing sites, or of the significative differentially edited sites in the comparisons of ibrutinib resistant cells versus parental cells, or ibrutinib resistant ADARreg kd or lncPCED1b kd, respect to the KLK12kd negative control cells (pvalue< 0.05, Limma test).

(C) Log fold change (FC) distribution of differentially not-Alu edited sites within different genomic locations, in the comparison of ibrutinib resistant cells versus parental cells (left), or ibrutinib resistant ADARreg kd (middle) or lncPCED1b kd (right), respect to the KLK12kd negative control cells (pvalue< 0.05, Limma test, mean and outlier values are shown).

(D) Scatter plots of editing site log FC in the comparison resistant versus parental and ibrutinib resistant ADARreg kd cells versus KLK12kd control. Red dots represent editing sites statistically significant in the comparison ADARreg kd versus control. The regression line represents Pearson correlation (pvalue< 0.05, Limma test).

Figure 4. lncPCED1b takes part to editome regulation with ADARreg.

(A) Consensus sequence identified by MEME tool within all SMZL elncRNA sequences (top) or within SMZL super-enhancer DNA sequences.

(B) Alignment of elncRNA consensus sequence and Alu element

(C) RNA structure prediction of the SMZL elncRNA consensus sequence (left) or SMZL super-enhancer DNA consensus sequence (right). Thermodynamic stability of the structure is represented by the energy value calculated by RNAHybrid.

(D) Scatter plots of ncRNA editing site Log FC in the comparison of ibrutinib-resistant ADARreg kd cells versus KLK12 kd control and ibrutinib-resistant versus parental. Blue dots represent significant differentially edited sites after ADARreg knockdown, red circled dots represent those significant differentially edited sites after ADARreg and lncPCED1b knockdown.

(E) Scatter plot of editing site Log FC in the comparison ibrutinib resistant versus parental and ibrutinib resistant lncPCED1b kd cells versus KLK12kd control. Green dots represent editing sites statistically significant in the comparison lncPCED1b kd versus control.

(F) Scatter plot of editing site Log FC in the comparison ibrutinib-resistant ADARreg kd cells versus control and ibrutinib-resistant lncPCED1b kd cells versus control. Red dots represent editing sites statistically significant in the comparison ADARreg kd versus control, green dots in the comparison lncPCED1b kd versus control. Genes that are significantly more or less edited after ADARreg kd and lncPCED1b kd, with respect to the KLK12 kd control, are listed in the boxes. The regression line represents Pearson correlation (pvalue< 0.05, Limma test).

629　**Figure 5. ADARreg modulates BTK inhibition response by regulating ADAR2 activity**

630   **(A)** Growth curve of ibrutinib resistant VL51 KLK12 or ADARreg kd built collecting green fluorescence
631   of GFP+ mCherry + cells over 5 days under exposure to ibrutinib or vehicle

632   **(B)** Growth curve of Jeko1 KLK12 or ADARreg kd built counting cells over 4 days under exposure to
633   ibrutinib or vehicle

634   **(C)** Growth curve of Jeko1 seeded 4 days after ADARreg LNA or negative control electroporation and
635   built counting cells over 3 days under exposure to ibrutinib or vehicle.

636   **(D)** The Kaplan-Meyer curve representing the overall survival of n=102 MCL patients dichotomized in
637   n=49 high-level ADARreg expressor and n=53 low-expressor patients.

638   **(E)** Pearson correlation of ADARreg and ADAR, top, or ADARB1, bottom, in 102 MCL patients.

639   **(F)** Top, ADARB1 isoforms measured in total RNAseq performed in parental and ibrutinib resistant
640   VL51 negative control cells and in ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd. The corresponding protein
641   isoform is reported at the bottom of the graph. * FDR<0.05. Bottom, schematic representation of
642   the isoforms ADARB1-204 and ADARB1-214.

643   **(G)** Left, immunofluorescence of ADAR2 in parental VL51 or ibrutinib-resistant KLKL12 kd (negative
644   control), top, or ADARreg kd or lncPCED1b kd monoclonal cell lines, bottom. DAPI stained nuclei,
645   blue, Alexa647-conjugated antibody stained ADAR2, red. A blue and red fluorescence overlay was
646   reported; a close-up from each picture shows a single-cell level magnification. Right, graph with
647   nuclei/ cytoplasm ratio of ADAR2 integrated density.

655　**Figure 6. ADARreg modulates IRF3 activity**

(A) Preranked GSEA of RNAseq data in ibrutinib resistant VL51 KLK12 kd respect to parental VL51 KLK12 kd (yellow), after ADARreg knock down in ibrutinib resistant VL51 (grey), or lncPCED1b knock down (blue). Gene sets are represented based on decreasing enrichment score (NES), dot size is representative of statistical significance.

(B) Scatter plot of logFC of interferon-stimulated genes in ibrutinib-resistant cells respect to parental cells and in ibrutinib-resistant cells VL51 ADARreg kd respect to negative control.

(C) Scatter plots representing the comparison of changes in intronic (Δintron) and exonic (Δexon) reads per each expressed transcript in ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd respect to KLK12 kd negative control. Δexon/ Δintron=1 reflects transcriptional modulation, Δexon/ Δintron≠1 reflects post-transcriptional modulation. Red dots represent robust post-transcriptionally modulated transcripts. P value<0.05.

(D) gProfiler gene ontology analysis of transcripts significantly modulated at post-transcriptional level after ADARreg kd.

(E) IRF3 isoforms measured in total RNAseq performed in parental and ibrutinib resistant VL51 negative control cells and in ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd. The corresponding protein isoform is reported at the bottom of the graph. * FDR<0.05

(F) IRF3 and IRF3a protein level quantification in ibrutinib resistance VL51 negative control cells and ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd. Average of two independent biological replicates. * P <0.05

(G) Left, immunofluorescence of IRF3 in parental VL51 or ibrutinib-resistant KLKL12 kd (negative control), top, or ADARreg kd or lncPCED1b kd monoclonal cell lines, bottom. DAPI stained nuclei, blue, Alexa647-conjugated antibody stained IRF3, red. A blue and red fluorescence overlay was reported; a close-up from each picture shows a single-cell level magnification. Right, graph with nuclei/ cytoplasm ratio of IRF3 integrated density.

Figure 7. ADARreg alters transcript usage across key genes, like STING and NF-kB.

(A) Top, STING1 isoforms measured in total RNAseq performed in parental and ibrutinib resistant VL51 negative control cells and ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd. The corresponding protein isoform is reported at the bottom of the graph. Bottom, schematic representation of the two isoforms, as reported in Ensembl database. White boxes represent untranslated sequences, 5'UTR and 3'UTR. * FDR<0.05

686   **(B)** MTT assay performed in ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd or KLK12 kd exposed to increasing
687   doses of ibrutinib alone or in combination with STING agonist diABZI (10 µM), or vehicle for 96 h.
688   Average of three independent biological replicates. * P <0.05.

689   **(C)** Left, RELA isoforms measured in total RNAseq performed in parental and ibrutinib resistant VL51
690   negative control cells and ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg kd. The corresponding protein
691   isoform is reported at the bottom of the graph. * FDR<0.05. Right, Bar graph representing the
692   ratio between the transcript producing the active p65 isoform and the N-terminal truncated p65.

693   **(D)** p65 and N-terminal truncated p65 protein level quantification in ibrutinib-resistant VL51
694   negative control cells and ibrutinib-resistant VL51 ADARreg kd. Average of two independent
695   biological replicates. * P <0.05

696   **(E)** Left, immunofluorescence of NF-kB in parental VL51 or ibrutinib-resistant KLKL12 kd (negative
697   control), top, or ADARreg kd or lncPCED1b kd monoclonal cell lines, bottom. DAPI-stained nuclei,
698   blue, Alexa647-conjugated antibody-stained NF-kB, red. A blue and red fluorescence overlay was
699   reported; a close-up from each picture shows a single-cell level magnification. Right, graph with
700   uclei/ cytoplasm ratio of NF-kB integrated density.

701   **(F)** Venn diagram intersecting total and sequence-specific edited transcripts significantly modulated
702   in introns or 3'UTR and alternative transcriptional isoforms in ibrutinib-resistant VL51 after
703   ADARreg kd.

704   **(G)** Scheme of protein domains in RPS3 isoforms encoded by RPS3-203 or-208 transcripts.

705   **(H)** Left, RPS3 isoforms measured in total RNAseq performed in parental and ibrutinib resistant VL51
706   negative control cells and ibrutinib resistant VL51 ADARreg or lncPCED1b kd. * FDR<0.05. Right,

707   **(I)** CLEC2D isoforms measured in total RNAseq performed in ibrutinib-resistant VL51 negative
708   control cells and ibrutinib-resistant VL51 ADARreg. * FDR<0.05.

Figure 8. ADARreg inhibits NK cell-mediated cytotoxicity

(A) Bar graph representing viable GFP+ mCherry+ ibrutinib resistant VL51, negative control or ADARreg kd, after 7 days of co-culture with activated healthy donor NK cells, normalized to the number of live tumor cells cultured alone.

(B) Intercellular communication networks inferred by CellChat analysis between ADARreg^{high}-like (blue) or ADARreg^{low}-like (green) B cell and cytotoxic or inflammatory NK (red), or tumor-associated NK (TaNK) (brown), in ibrutinib slow responder CLL patient (CLL6).

(C) Gene expression at single–cell level of CLEC2D and ADARreg signature in B cells of fast (left) or slow (right) ibrutinib-responder CLL patients at pretreatment (pink), after 30 days (green), 120 days (blue), or 280 days (purple, slow responder patient only) of ibrutinib treatment.