The genetic driver of Acute Necrotizing Encephalopathy, *RANBP2*, regulates the inflammatory response to Influenza A virus infection

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ABSTRACT

Influenza virus infections can cause severe complications such as Acute Necrotizing Encephalopathy (ANE), which is characterised by rapid onset pathological inflammation following febrile infection. Heterozygous dominant mutations in the nucleoporin RANBP2/Nup358 predispose to influenza-triggered ANE1. The aim of our study was to determine whether RANBP2 plays a role in IAV-triggered inflammatory responses. We found that the depletion of RANBP2 in a human airway epithelial cell line increased IAV genomic replication by favouring the import of the viral polymerase subunits, PB1, PB2 and PA, and promoted an abnormal accumulation of some viral segments in the cytoplasm. In human primary macrophages, this corroborated with an enhanced production of the pro-inflammatory chemokines CXCL8, CXCL10, CCL2, CCL3 and CCL4. Then, using CRISPR-Cas9 knock-in for the ANE1 disease variant RANBP2-T585M, we demonstrated that the point mutation is sufficient to drive CXCL10 expression following activation downstream of RIG-I and leads to a redistribution of RANBP2 away from the nuclear pore. Together, our results reveal that RANBP2 regulates influenza RNA replication and nuclear export, triggering hyper-inflammation, offering insight into ANE pathogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Influenza viral infections are responsible for seasonal epidemics with respiratory manifestations but can also lead to severe complications. Among these, Acute Necrotizing Encephalopathy (ANE), also called ANE of Childhood (ANEC), is a severe reaction to febrile infection that is characterized by rapid progression and very poor prognosis (Lee et al., 2023; Sakuma et al., 2025; Wu et al., 2015; Mizuguchi et al., 2007). Influenza viruses are thought to be responsible for ~50% of all ANE episodes and are associated with high morbidity and mortality (Bartolini et al., 2024; Jiang et al., 2022; Mizuguchi et al., 2007; Neilson et al., 2003; Chatur et al., 2022; Bashiri et al., 2020). Although the pathogenesis is unclear, a hyperinflammatory response triggered by the virus is proposed as the underlying mechanism (Levine et al., 2020; Mizuguchi et al., 2007; Sugaya, 2002), and early anti-inflammatory therapy may help mitigate the disease (Chatur et al., 2022; Koh et al., 2019; Okumura et al., 2009).

Influenza viruses belong to the *Orthomyxoviridae* family and are classified into types, Influenza A and B being the most prevalent ones associated with seasonal flu cases. Influenza A is further divided into subtypes based on their surface glycoproteins, haemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA). The H1N1 and H3N2 strains are responsible for major outbreaks and epidemics, and in the 2024-2025 winter

season, there has been an unprecedented surge in H1N1 cases, leading to an unusual spike in
hospitalizations and ANE in children (Bartolini et al., 2024).

The Influenza A virus (IAV) is an enveloped particle containing 8 negative-sense single-stranded viral RNA
(vRNA) gene segments, each packaged by nucleoprotein (NP) into a viral ribonucleoprotein (vRNP)
complex, and associated with the viral polymerase complex (PB1, PB2, and PA). Unlike most RNA viruses,
IAV replicates in the nucleus and hijacks the nuclear pore complex (NPC) machinery for four critical steps
of its replication cycle. (i) After endocytosis and uncoating, vRNPs are trafficked to the nucleus where the
viral polymerase transcribes the viral genome. (ii) Capped and polyadenylated mRNAs are exported into
the cytoplasm for translation by cytoplasmic ribosomes. (iii) The newly translated viral proteins,
including NP, PB1, PB2 and PA, are imported back into the nucleus, which allows the viral polymerase to
replicate the viral genome into complementary RNAs (cRNA) and genomic vRNA. (iv) Lastly, new vRNPs,
assembled with M1 and NS2/NEP, are exported back from the nucleus for incorporation into budding
virions (Dou et al., 2018; Carter and Iqbal, 2024; Fodor and Te Velthuis, 2020; Zhu et al., 2023).

Many viral and host factors are thought to contribute to severe influenza, and genetic susceptibility
particularly in genes that regulate innate signalling and antiviral response, has been reported
(Mettelman and Thomas, 2021; Clohisey and Baillie, 2019; Gounder and Boon, 2019). However, the
mechanisms that drive severe influenza-triggered ANE in previously healthy children are not known. One
clue to understanding the pathogenesis of influenza-associated ANE comes from genetic susceptibility in
familial, recurrent cases, known as ANE1 (or ADANE) (Neilson et al., 2003). Patients with ANE1 present
with autosomal dominant missense mutations in *RANBP2* and have a significantly increased lifetime risk
of developing ANE (Neilson et al., 2009). Mutations in *RANBP2* increase the risk of relapse and
recurrence (Levine et al., 2020; Chatur et al., 2022) and may associate with greater morbidity and
mortality.

RANBP2 (Nup358) is a cytoplasmic fibril (CF) nucleoporin that regulates nucleocytoplasmic transport by
interacting with nuclear transport receptors such as Karyopherin α/β and CRM1/Exportin 1 (Yokoyama
et al., 1995; Hutten et al., 2008). Additional functions have been attributed to RANBP2 at the NPC, many
of which are linked to its C-terminal domain (CTD) E3 SUMO ligase activity, and away from the NPC,
namely at annulate lamellae, mitochondria-endoplasmic reticulum junctions and in the nucleus
(Desgraupes et al., 2023). Moreover, at least 4 protein isoforms have been identified for RANBP2,
however, it is not known if these have distinct functions or subcellular localisations. The predominant
ANE1-associated mutation (c.C1754T, p.T585M), and most other pathogenic mutations in RANBP2, all
cluster in the N-terminal domain (NTD), which is responsible for anchoring to NPCs (Jiang et al., 2022;
Joseph and Dasso, 2008). This suggests that the localization of RANBP2 to CF may be physiologically
essential, although no changes in localisation could be demonstrated following the overexpression of
disease variants (Shen et al., 2021; Bley et al., 2022).

Previous work showed that RANBP2 can modulate viral infection of several viruses, such as Adenovirus
(Carlon-Andres et al., 2020), Herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1) (Copeland et al., 2009; Hofemeister and
O'Hare, 2008) and Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 (HIV-1) (Bichel et al., 2013; Di Nunzio et al.,
2012; Schaller et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2010), however no work has uncovered a role for RANBP2 in
Influenza virus infection. In fact, although some studies showed that NPC components can impact the
replication and transcription of Influenza virus, such as Nup62, Nup98 and Nup153, RANBP2 was not
identified as a host factor for Influenza virus (Khanna et al., 2024; Watanabe et al., 2010; Munier et al.,
2013).

Previous work also showed that RANBP2 can modulate innate immune signalling, however this activity
was consistently attributed to its E3 SUMO ligase activity or Cyclophilin-homology motif in the CTD

(Maarifi et al., 2018; Portilho et al., 2016; Shen et al., 2021; Li et al., 2023), and no work has yet
demonstrated a role for the NTD where ANE1 mutations are clustered.

The aim of our study was to determine how RANBP2 contributes to or regulates inflammatory responses
to infection by Influenza virus. We show that RANBP2 impacts the replication of genomic vRNAs of IAV
into cRNA by controlling the re-import of newly translated viral polymerase complex. Interestingly,
RANBP2 also controls RNP export from the nucleus but in a segment-specific manner, only impacting the
long segments encoding the PB1, PB2 and PA proteins, thus leading to their cytoplasmic accumulation
and triggering hyper-inflammation, which could provide a first clue in understanding the pathogenesis of
ANE.

RESULTS

Knockdown of RANBP2 stimulates non-productive Influenza vRNA replication in infected cells

To investigate the role of RANBP2 in IAV infection, RANBP2-knockdown (RANBP2-KD) was induced in
A549 human alveolar cells by lentiviral vector (LV) transduction before infection with
A/WSN/1933(H1N1) virus at MOI 0.5. Supernatants were harvested at 10 h post-infection (hpi) to
investigate the production of infectious viral particles by TCID50 titration. No differences were observed
between the Control and RANBP2-KD cells, suggesting that RANBP2 had no effect on the production of
infectious particles **(Figure 1A, Figure S1)**.

However, an unexpected phenotype was observed for viral RNA quantification in both A549 and the
monocytic cell line THP-1. Infection kinetics were performed and viral RNA levels were determined at
early (2 h) and late (6, 8, 16 and 24 h) time points using qPCR primers recognizing M1 on segment 7. In
the monocytic cell line THP-1 **(Figure 1B)** and in A549 cells **(Figure 1C)**, a significant increase of M1 RNA
was induced in RANBP2-KD cells. Although the change was most striking in THP-1 cells (40-fold), this led
to considerable cell death and, therefore, A549 cells were preferred for further analysis. The increase in
viral RNA was confirmed with another IAV segment, encoding the NP **(Figure 1D)**, and appeared to be
specific since no increase was observed for any of the housekeeping genes that were measured **(Figure**
1E). Together, these data suggested that RANBP2 is involved in controlling Influenza viral RNA synthesis
but that this does not translate into increased productive infection.

Because different types of viral RNAs are produced during the IAV life cycle, we investigated which RNAs
are impacted by the depletion of RANBP2. Tagged RT primers were used to specifically recognize the
negative-sense genomic vRNA sequence or the positive-sense cRNA sequence in order to specifically
reverse transcribe (RT) each type of viral RNA **(Figure S2A)**. First, the specificity of each primer was
validated by amplifying only vRNAs after vRNA-specific RT, or only cRNAs after cRNA-specific RT, while
not amplifying any target in non-infected cells **(Figure S2B)**. In RANBP2-KD cells, we observed a
significant increase of both vRNAs and cRNAs **(Figure 1F)**, thus showing that RANBP2 is involved in IAV
RNA replication. Although this was unexpected given the absence of phenotype in terms of viral
production, the marked increase in cRNA and vRNA levels suggested an enhancement in viral genome
replication.

Having observed an increase in genomic vRNAs, we tested if this correlated with more newly produced
vRNPs. As previously, A549 cells were transduced with Control- or RANBP2-shRNAs then infected with
IAV (MOI 0.5). At 8 hpi, the distribution of NP was investigated by immunofluorescence. Although export
is ongoing in every condition, RANBP2-KD cells showed a striking increase in cytoplasmic NP **(Figure 1G**
and 1H, Figure S3). In order to determine if signal corresponded to vRNPs or free NP in the cytoplasm,
we performed co-stainings with other components of vRNPs (i.e. PB1 and PA). We observed a co-
localisation of cytoplasmic NP with PB1 and with PA **(Figure 1I and 1J, Figure S4)**, showing that RANBP2-
KD induces an increase in vRNPs exported to the cytoplasm.

Increased IAV replication does not result from enhanced viral entry into cells or into the nucleus

To determine how vRNA is increased in RANBP2-depleted cells, we first tested whether RANBP2 regulates IAV infection by modulating viral entry into cells and/or nuclei, thereby increasing the quantity of IAV RNA to be copied.

To assess whether RANBP2 regulates cell or nuclear entry, Control or RANBP2-KD cells were infected with IAV (A/WSN/33) at MOI 4 in order to increase signal detection during early steps of the viral cycle, and NP localization was studied by immunofluorescence at 1 hpi to assess internalization, and at 2 h to monitor NP nuclear entry. Results indicate that depletion of RANBP2 from A549 cells affects neither internalization **(Figure 1K and 1L)** nor nuclear import **(Figure 1M and 1N)**.

To further validate these findings, we adapted an Alpha-Centauri protein-complementation assay previously developed to monitor the nuclear import of HIV-1 (Fernandez et al., 2021). Briefly, the NanoLuc protein was expressed as two unequal non-luminescent fragments. The smaller fragment was fused to PB2 (called Alpha), while the larger fragment (Centauri) was fused to a NLS and expressed in A549 cells by lentiviral vector (LV) transduction **(Figure 1O, Figure S5A and S5B)**. Upon vRNP nuclear import, the two fragments reconstitute a functional NanoLuc, generating a measurable signal upon addition of substrate **(Figure S5C)**. No significant differences in luminescence were detected between control and RANBP2-KD cells at 1 and 2 hpi, confirming that RANBP2 is not essential for vRNP nuclear import **(Figure 1P, Figure S5D)**, thus demonstrating that RANBP2 does not regulate IAV vRNP nuclear import.

RANBP2 Knockdown facilitates the nuclear import of the neo-synthesised viral polymerase complex proteins PB1, PB2 and PA

Since RANBP2 does not impact the quantity of template available for replication, we investigated whether it modulates the quantity or transport of the polymerase complex subunits. First, the total levels of PB1, PB2, PA and NP were assessed by Western-Blot at 8 hpi, however, no differences were observed between RANBP2-KD cells and Control cells **(Figure 2A)**, suggesting that RANBP2 does not impact the translation of the viral polymerase complex.

Being an NPC component, we hypothesised that RANBP2 may control the replication of vRNA by regulating the import of the viral polymerase. Therefore, we tested the impact of RANBP2 on the nuclear import of newly synthesised PB1, PB2, and PA subunits. To focus specifically on import, we inhibited vRNP export using a pharmacological inhibitor of CRM1, KPT-330/Selinexor. First, we confirmed that KPT-330 inhibits vRNP export in a dose-dependent manner **(Figure S6A)**, with negligible toxicity **(Figure S6B)** and that inhibition operates from 5 hpi onwards **(Figure S6C)**. Then we performed subcellular fractionation followed by Western blotting at 6 hpi to determine the localisation of the different polymerase subunits. Results revealed an increase in PB1, PB2 and PA protein levels in the nucleus, confirmed by the immunofluorescence detection of nuclear PB1, indicating that the import of the neo-synthesised polymerase is facilitated in the absence of RANBP2 **(Figure 2B and 2C, Figure S7)**.

RANBP2 depletion disrupts the segment stoichiometry by selectively favouring the export of some vRNA segments to the cytoplasm

Having determined that RANBP2 controls Influenza virus replication in the nucleus by regulating the import of the newly synthesised viral polymerase, we asked why the increase in vRNA and vRNP does not translate into an increased production of infectious particles **(Figure 1A)**. To address this, we performed strand-specific RT to distinguish vRNA and cRNA, as previously **(Figure S2A)**, then quantified the 8 IAV segments by qPCR to investigate segment stoichiometry **(Figure 2D, Figure S8A and S8B)**. After sub-cellular fractionation, analysis of viral RNA localization revealed that, while cRNA levels increased for all

influenza segments in the nucleus **(Figure 2E)**, segments 1, 2, 3, 7 and 8 exhibited increased vRNA export to the cytoplasm in the absence of RANBP2 compared to other segments **(Figure 2F)**. These findings indicate that, while the depletion of RANBP2 increases the replication of all vRNA segments, it disproportionately affects their export back to the cytoplasm.

Taken together, our results indicated that the knockdown of RANBP2 greatly perturbs infection by IAV, first by facilitating the re-import of polymerase into the nucleus, which increases cRNA and vRNA, second by selectively favouring the export of some vRNA into the cytoplasm. The dysregulation of both these steps may cause an abnormal accumulation of some vRNA segments in the cytoplasm, thus constituting potential pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) that may be sensed by the infected cell.

RANBP2 knockdown exacerbates the inflammatory response to IAV infection in primary human macrophages

In ANE1, it is thought that innate immune cells may contribute to the deleterious production of cytokines following IAV infection. To test this in relevant innate immune cells, primary monocytes were isolated from PBMCs from healthy donors and differentiated into pro-inflammatory M1-like macrophages. After 7 days of differentiation, primary monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM) were CD3- CD14+ CD16+ CD11b+ HLA-DR+ CD80- **(Figure S9)**. We first determined that IAV can infect MDMs **(Figure S10A)**, and stimulate an effective immune response without additional pre-stimulation, triggering the synthesis of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-6 and IL-1β **(Figure S10B)**. MDM were then transduced with LVs coding for control or RANBP2 shRNA and infected with IAV **(Figure S1)**. The stimulation of innate immunity was initially assessed by qPCR detection of representative transcripts, namely CXCL10, IL-6, TNFα and IL-1β, comparing MDM with THP-1 and A549 cells. Although some cell-dependent changes were observed, the knockdown of RANBP2 led to a ~2-fold increase in IL-6, up to 6-fold increase in TNFα and IL-1β, and up to 50-fold increase in CXCL10 **(Figure 3A)**, suggesting that RANBP2 regulates the inflammatory response to IAV infection.

To confirm this at the protein level, supernatants were collected at 24 hpi and the secretion of pro-inflammatory mediators was analysed by Multiplex Luminex assay. Strikingly, the knock-down of RANBP2 in primary macrophages led to an exacerbated inflammatory response to IAV infection, with a stronger induction of the pro-inflammatory chemokines CXCL8, CXCL10, CCL2, CCL3 and CCL4 **(Figure 3B)**.

Together, these findings suggest that RANBP2 plays a critical role in modulating the inflammatory response to IAV infection by regulating vRNA replication, nucleocytoplasmic trafficking of viral polymerase subunits, and selective vRNA export. The abnormal accumulation of viral components in the cytoplasm amplifies inflammatory signalling, highlighting a potential mechanism underlying the pathogenesis of ANE.

The RANBP2-T585M ANE1 variant drives hyper-inflammation following IAV infection

Having identified the role of RANBP2 in controlling the IAV-triggered inflammation, we investigated if this function is compromised by the predominant ANE-associated mutation, c.C1754T, p.T585M. Heterozygous mutations in *RANBP2* are associated with increased susceptibility to acute necrotizing encephalopathy, however it is not known how these affect protein function. In particular, previous work showed that ANE1 mutations do not alter the structure of RANBP2 (Bley et al., 2022), and that ectopically-expressed RANBP2-T585M still localises to the nuclear envelope (Bley et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2021).

We introduced the predominant mutation (c.C1754T, p.T585M), by CRISPR-Cas9 knock-in of U2OS cells **(Figure 4A)**. A total of 47 clones were isolated after puromycin selection during 3 weeks. Mutations were confirmed by allelic qPCR **(Figure 4B, Figure S11A-S11C)**, as previously described (Gouy et al., 2023), and

by Sanger sequencing of the cDNA **(Figure 4C and 4D)**. For many clones, we noted that CRISPR repair had
occurred using the highly homologous RGPD sequences present on the same chromosome (Desgraupes
et al., 2023), rather than the repair plasmid, therefore only clones that did not recombine with RGPD
were selected **(Figure S11B)**. In total, two wild-type clones (C4 and C15, referred to as WT/WT), one
heterozygously-mutated (C10, WT/C1754T) and three homozygously-mutated (C6, C9 and C14, C1754T/
C1754T) clones were isolated.

CRISPR-knock-in clones were infected with IAV and activation of innate immune pathways was assessed
by qPCR, normalised for house-keeping genes, as previously **(Figure 3A)**. IAV infection induced
expression of CXCL10 and TNFα transcript expression in all clones. However, a striking phenotype
emerged in cells homozygous for the RANBP2-T585M disease variant, where CXCL10 expression
following IAV infection was exacerbated by a fold change of 1-2-log compared to WT or heterozygous
clones **(Figure 4E).** A similar phenotype was observed upon transfection of the constitutively active
caspase recruitment domain (2-CARD) of the retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I), which mimics viral
RNA sensing (Maarifi et al., 2018), suggesting that the ANE1-associated variant amplifies innate immune
responses to agonist stimulation.

In CRISPR-Cas9 knock-in cells, RANBP2 mislocalises away from nuclear pores

Although previous studies reported that ectopically expressed RANBP2-T585M localizes to the NPC (Bley
et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2021), its localization has not been examined in genetically edited cell lines. We
therefore examined the subcellular localisation of RANBP2 by immunofluorescence in the clones
expressing RANBP2-T585M heterozygously and homozygously using a RANBP2-specific antibody
recognising the CTD. As expected, RANBP2 localised to the nuclear envelope in WT clones. In contrast, all
three clones homozygous for RANBP2-T585M lost the characteristic nuclear rim staining, indicating that
the mutation disrupts RANBP2 retention at the nuclear envelope **(Figure 4F-4H)**. Despite this, nuclear
pores appeared intact, since the labelling of FG-repeat Nups with the MAb414 antibody was comparable
across all clones **(Figure 4F, Figure S12)**.

In conclusion, our findings suggest that RANBP2 localization at the nuclear envelope is critical to
safeguard cells from the pathological inflammation following viral infection. In ANE1, mutations in the
NTD of RANBP2 are specifically associated with hyperinflammation.

DISCUSSION

In this work, we show that the NPC component RANBP2 regulates the nucleocytoplasmic transport of
Influenza A virus proteins and RNAs. Its absence from nuclear pores contributes to exacerbated viral
replication in the nucleus, and a disproportionate increase in some viral RNAs. While previous work
indicated that RANBP2 is a co-factor for the infection by some viruses (Bichel et al., 2013; Di Nunzio et
al., 2012; Schaller et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2010; Copeland et al., 2009; Hofemeister and O'Hare, 2008),
this study reveals an opposite role in IAV infection, namely the restriction of key nuclear transport steps.

RANBP2 can regulate the nucleocytoplasmic transport of macromolecules by two major mechanisms,
first by regulating the cycle of Ran, second by interacting with nuclear transport receptors (Yokoyama et
al., 1995; Hutten et al., 2008). The replication of IAV involves four distinct sequential NCT steps, namely
the import of incoming vRNPs, the export of viral mRNAs, the import of translated viral proteins, and the
export of vRNPs. RANBP2 was found to regulate only two of these steps, suggesting a specific
mechanism. In particular, RANBP2 was not involved in the initial entry of incoming vRNPs into the
nucleus, which involves the classical karyopherin α/β nuclear import pathway (Miyake et al., 2019;
Nguyen et al., 2023; Dou et al., 2018), nor in the initial export of viral transcripts, which involves the
general mRNA export pathway via NXF1:NXT1. Rather, RANBP2 acted on late nuclear transport steps of
IAV, after translation of the viral proteins. First, RANBP2 was found to regulate the re-import of the

polymerase complex subunits, which is known to involve different pathways, the best characterised being via the β-karyopherin RanBP5 (Huet et al., 2010; Hemerka et al., 2009; Cros et al., 2005). Second, results suggest that RANBP2 exerts a quality control checkpoint for vRNAs that are exported back to the cytoplasm, a step known to depend on the β-karyopherin CRM1 (Elton et al., 2001; Ma et al., 2001; Watanabe et al., 2001). Our results therefore suggest that RANBP2 may impact viral NCT by interacting with key β-karyopherins.

Despite increased vRNA levels, infectious viral particle production did not increase. Our results indicated that the absence of RANBP2 disrupted the segment stoichiometry, leading to the disproportionate increase in the largest segments (1, 2, 3), and in segments that undergo splicing (7 and 8). Changes in segment stoichiometry could lead to packaging defects, however, the mechanism responsible for this imbalance in viral RNA export is not known. It is possible that the increase in vRNA corresponds to truncated RNA segments, especially since large deletions are frequent in the segments coding for PB1, PB2 and PA.

After replication, Influenza viral genomic single stranded RNA molecules are sensed by RIG-I, which results in the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines downstream of NF-κB (Iwasaki and Pillai, 2014). In the absence of RANBP2, IAV infection led to a dramatic increase in the pro-inflammatory response, especially with the production of chemokines. We hypothesize that the disproportionate increase of some cRNA/vRNA segments in the cytoplasm could constitute PAMPs that exacerbate the inflammatory response.

Influenza viruses are responsible for the majority of ANE1 cases in children. The high prevalence for Influenza over other respiratory infections (e.g., RSV, SARS-CoV-2) and childhood febrile illnesses (e.g., streptococcal infections) is puzzling and unexplained. Our work suggests that, by restraining key steps of IAV nucleocytoplasmic trafficking, RANBP2 is responsible for limiting the accumulation of viral PAMPs in the cytoplasm. Additionally, in CRISPR knock-in cells expressing the ANE1 disease variant, stimulation of innate immune signalling downstream of RIG-I led to a high expression of some pro-inflammatory transcripts, indicating that RANBP2 also regulates innate immune signalling. Although the prevalent phenotype was observed in homozygously edited cells, this is the first demonstration that ANE1 mutation is associated with exacerbated inflammation. This role of RANBP2 in controlling innate immunity is coherent with the symptoms observed in ANE1 patients as they express elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines.

It remains unclear how heterozygous dominant single point mutations in the NTD of RANBP2 contribute to disease. Previous work suggests that both wild-type and mutant alleles are expressed in patients (Gouy et al., 2023), suggesting that the mutant allele might have dominant negative activity. However, ANE1 mutations were shown not to affect protein structure, nor localisation at the NPC using ectopically-expressed RANBP2 (Bley et al., 2022; Shen et al., 2021). In CRISPR knock-in cells, we demonstrate that the T585M mutation in the NTD causes its redistribution away from the nuclear envelope. This change was only observed in homozygously-edited cells, suggesting that the mutation affects the ability of mutant-RANBP2 to anchor into the NPCs. Future work in patient samples will be essential to determine whether ANE1 mutations favour the accumulation of RANBP2 isoforms or truncated forms.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Viruses, lentiviral vectors and cells

Infections with IAV were carried out with the H1N1/A/WSN/1933 strain in all experiments except for the Alpha-Centauri assay where this same strain was engineered to express a fragment of the NanoLuc (IAV-

alpha) as described below. Lentiviral vectors (LV) were produced by transfecting HEK-293T cells in
calcium phosphate with a pVSVg plasmid, an encapsidation Gag-Pol plasmid (p8.74) and the plasmid of
interest (i.e. mCherry-shRNA-Control, mCherry-shRNA-RANBP2 or Centauri-NLuc-NLS) (see **Table S1** for
plasmid information). After 48 h, vectors were harvested and ultracentrifuged for 1 h at 22,000 rpm
(Optima XE-90, Beckman Coulter) at 4°C. A549 cells (ATCC) and CRISPR U2OS clones (homemade) were
cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco) containing 10% of Fetal bovine serum
(FBS, Serana) and 1× penicillin/streptomycin (PS, Gibco) at 37°C with 5% CO_2. THP-1 cells and monocyte-
derived macrophages (MDM) were cultured in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI-1640, Gibco)
medium containing 10% FBS and 1× of PS.

IAV infections

Cells were infected with IAV at MOI 0.5 in all experiments, except when monitory the early steps of the
viral cycle (i.e. internalization, nuclear import), when MOI 4 was used to increase signal detection. Cells
were exposed to IAV for 1 h in a small volume of 2% FBS culture medium to promote viral adsorption at
the cell surface before replacing viral inoculum with warm culture medium and incubation at 37°C with
5% CO_2. For experiments with NF-κB canonical pathway inhibition, cells were pre-treated with 2% FBS
culture medium containing 20 μM of PS1145 (MedChemExpress) for 1 h at 37°C.

RNA extractions and RTqPCR

Intracellular RNAs were extracted using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's
protocol. RNA yields and purity were assessed by spectrophotometry (NanoDrop 2000c, Thermofisher
Scientific). Unspecific reverse transcription (RT) was performed using the PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit
(Perfect Real Time, Takara Bio Inc.) with random and polyT primers. IAV strand-specific RT was
performed using tagged primers that bind either to the consensus 3'-end sequence of vRNAs (all 8
segments) or to the consensus 3'-end sequence of cRNAs (all 8 segments as well) with Superscript III
(Invitrogen, Thermofisher Scientific) in the presence of DTT 0.1M (Invitrogen, Thermofisher Scientific),
dNTP 10mM (Invitrogen, Thermofisher Scientific) and RNAsin (Promega). Distinction between segments
was then made using specific qPCR primers (**Table S2**). RANBP2-specific RT was performed using a primer
(at 1μM) that binds to RANBP2 on a sequence absent from RGPDs, as published in (Gouy et al., 2023)
PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit was used (Perfect Real Time, Takara Bio Inc.) (**Table S2**). Real-time
quantitative PCR was performed using the Power Up kit (Applied Biosystems, Thermofisher Scientific) on
the ViiA7 thermocycler (Life technologies, Thermofisher Scientific). All qPCR primers are listed in **Table
S2**.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were washed with PBS and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Thermofisher Scientific) for 10
min at room temperature (R/T). After 3 PBS washes, remaining PFA was neutralized with PBS containing
50mM of NH_4Cl for 10 min at R/T. After 2 PBS washes, cells were permeabilized using PBS containing
0.5% of Triton-100X (Sigma-Aldrich) for 15 min at R/T. Cells were washed twice in PBS and saturated in
PBS supplemented with 2% of Normal goat serum (NGS, Invitrogen, Thermofisher Scientific). Primary
stainings were performed for 1h at R/T with antibodies listed in **Table S3**. Cells were washed 5 times with
PBS and secondary antibodies were added for 30 min at R/T (**Table S3**). After 5 PBS washes, cells were
stained with Hoechst (Thermofisher Scientific) diluted to the 1/10,000 in PBS for 5 min at R/T. Cells were
washed 5 times with PBS and mounted in Prolong Diamond anti-fade mounting medium (Invitrogen,
Thermofisher Scientific). Imaging was carried out using the Confocal Zeiss LSM880 Airyscan microscope
of the Montpellier Ressources Imagerie (MRI) platform. Image processing and quantifications were done
using the Fiji software (2.14.0): Alexafluor-488 staining of the NP was changed to the color « Orange

Hot » for aesthetic purposes and brightness was increased uniformly in all conditions. Full panels of
images are provided in supplementary data.

Alpha-Centauri assay

357 Cloning steps. A DNA fragment coding for αNluc (GVTGWRLCERILA) flanked by NotI and NheI overhangs
358 was obtained by annealing two overlapping oligonucleotides:

NotI-αNLuc-NheI-F GGCCGCAGGGGGAGTGACAGGGTGGAGACTATGCGAAAGAATACTTGCATAAG

NotI-αNLuc-NheI-R CTAGCTTATGCAAGTATTCTTTCGCATAGTCTCCACCCTGTCACTCCCCCTGC

The reverse genetics plasmid pPolI-SL-PB2-αNluc was obtained by subcloning this restriction fragment
between the NotI and NheI sites of the pPolI-SL-PB2-Nanoluc described in Diot 2016.

Particle production by reverse genetics. The eight pPolI-WSN-PB2-αNluc, -PB1, -PA, -HA, -NP, -NA, -NS, -
M, and four pcDNA3.1-WSN-PB2, -PB1, -PA, -NP plasmids (0.5 μg of each) were co-transfected into a co-
culture of 293T and MDCK cells (seeded in a 6-well plate at 4×10^5 and 3×10^5 cells, respectively) using
10 μL of FuGENE® HD transfection reagent (Promega). After 24 h of incubation at 35°C, cells were
washed twice with DMEM and incubated in DMEM containing 1 μg/mL of TPCK-treated trypsin for 48 h.
The reverse genetics supernatant was titrated on MDCK by plaque assay and the recombinant PB2-αNluc
virus was amplified at an MOI of 10^{-4} on MDCK cells for 3 days at 35°C. The viral stock was titrated on
MDCK by plaque assays and sequenced to verify the presence of the αNluc coding sequence.

Cells were transduced with LV Centauri-NLuc-NLS for 3 days, then with LV shRNA-Control or LV shRNA-
RANBP2 at MOI 15 for 4 days. Cells were then infected with IAV-α at MOI 4 for the indicated times.
NanoGlo live cell substrate (Promega) was added and luminescence was measured with the Infinite M
Plex spectrophotometer (Tecan).

Nucleo-cytoplasmic fractionation

Nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions were separated using the NE-PER Kit (Thermofisher Scientific)
according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 1-2 million cells were washed with PBS then lysed in
cold CER I buffer, vortexed 15 seconds and incubated on ice for 10 min. Cold CER II buffer was then
added and cells were vortexed 5 seconds then incubated on ice for 1 min. After 5 second vortex and full
speed centrifugation, supernatants (cytoplasmic fraction) were harvested and stored at -80°C. Pellets
(nuclei) were resuspended in cold NER buffer and 4 cycles of 15 second vortex then 10-min incubation
on ice were performed. After full speed centrifugation, supernatants (nuclear fraction) were harvested
and stored at -80°C.

Western blot

Cell lysates were sonicated for 20 cycles of 30 seconds ON, 30 seconds OFF (Bioruptor Pico, Diagenode)
and 4X Laemmli (250 mM Tris-HCl pH 7, 8% sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), 40% glycerol, 10% β-
mercaptoethanol and 0.005% bromophenol blue) was added. After denaturation at 95°C for 5 min,
samples underwent SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SureCast Gel Handcast System, Thermo
Fisher Scientific) and were transferred on a 0.45 μm nitrocellulose membrane (Sigma Aldrich).
Membranes were saturated in PBS containing 0.05% Tween 20 (Sigma) and 10% milk powder for 30 min.
Primary antibodies were added and left overnight at 4°C (**Table S3**). After 3 PBS washes, secondary
antibodies were added for 1 h at R/T (**Table S3**). Protein revelation was carried out by measuring HRP
activity (Immobilon Forte Western HRP substrate, Merck) with a Chemidoc imager (Biorad).

TCID50 assay

MDCK cells were washed in FBS-free MEM medium (Gibco) and serially diluted cell supernatants were
added in 2% FBS in octoplicates. After 3 days at 37°C and 5% CO2, cells were washed twice in PBS and
fixed with 4% PFA for 10 min at R/T. Violet crystal was added, washed twice in water and cytopathic
effect was observed. The TCID50 titer was determined using the formula:

log10 (TCID50/mL) = x0 - (d/2) + (d*xi/n) + v

x0: decimal logarithm of initial dilution factor.

d: decimal logarithm of serial dilution factor.

xi: score of positive events.

n: number of replicates.

v: decimal logarithm of the inoculum volume (mL).

Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) isolation

Buffy coats from healthy donors were obtained from the Établissement Français du Sang (EFS). Whole
blood was diluted by half with Phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and loaded on an equivalent volume of
Lymphoprep (Stemcell technologies) at R/T. Tubes were centrifuged at 800g for 30 min at 20°C without
brakes. The PBMC ring was collected using a 5 mL pipet and washed 3 times in a final volume of 50 mL of
PBS (centrifugations at 1200 rpm for 5 min at 20°C with brakes on). The cell pellet was resuspended in 30
mL of 10% FBS RPMI-1640 medium. PBMCs were counted manually using counting chambers (Kova).

Monocyte-derived macrophages differentiation

411 After PBMC isolation, 20 million cells were seeded per well into 6-well plates and incubated for 45 min,
412 at 37°C with 5% CO2. After monocyte adherence, cells were washed 3 times with 10% FBS RPMI-1640
413 medium directly on the cell layers to remove non-attached cells. For monocyte-derived macrophage
414 (MDM) differentiation, monocytes were cultured in 10% FBS RPMI-1640 medium containing GM-CSF (50
415 ng/mL, Gentaur) for 8 days.

Flow cytometry phenotyping

417 After 8 days of MDM differentiation, phenotypic markers were analysed by flow cytometry on a Fortessa
418 using the following antibodies: CD3-BV421 (clone UCHT1, Biolegend 300433), CD14-PerCP-Cy5.5 (clone
419 HCD14, Biolegend 325621), CD16-Alexa700 (clone 3G8, Biolegend 302026), CD11b-APC-Cy7 (clone
420 M1/70, Biolegend 101225), HLA-DR-FITC (REA805, Miltenyi 130-111-941), and CD80-BV650 (clone 2D10,
421 Biolegend 305227).

Multiplex LUMINEX assay

The presence of mediators of inflammation was assessed in supernatants of stimulated cells using the
ProcartaPlex Human inflammation Panel 20-plex kit (Invitrogen, ThermoFisher Scientific). A few samples
were centrifuged and diluted to the 1/10 or to the 1/50 in order to determine optimal dilution for the
experiment. Dilution to the 1/50 was chosen to detect the strongly induced mediators (e.g. IL-8) in the
range of the standard curves supplied in the kit. Buffers and standards were prepared according to the
manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, Capture Bead mix was vortexed and added to the plate, washed in
Wash buffer, then samples and standards were added. The plate was incubated 1 h at R/T on a shaker.
After 2 washes, Biotinylated Detection Antibody mix was added for 30 min at R/T on a shaker. After 2
washes, Streptavidin-PE was added for 30 min at R/T on a shaker. After 2 more washes, the plate was
read on the MAGPIX flow cytometer (LUMINEX).

Establishment of U2OS clones expressing RANBP2 T585M by CRISPR knock-in

The plasmid pUcIDT Amp (synthetized by Integrated DNA Technologies) containing the donor sequences (see below) and the plasmid pSpCas9(BB)-2A-Puro (PX459) (Addgene #62988) modified to contain the guide sequences (GGCAGAATGCCTTCAGAAAA) were co-transfected at equal quantity in the human osteosarcoma cell lines U2OS using Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen, ThermoFisher Scientific) following the manufacturer's instructions. Two days post-transfection, cells were selected using puromycin (Gibco) at 2µg/ml during four days. The different clones were established by limiting dilution. A total of 198 cells were split in 576 different wells containing 10% FBS DMEM medium. After 3 weeks, 47 clones were established and analyzed by RANBP2-specific RTqPCR as describe above and Sanger sequencing (Eurofins).

Donor DNA sequence:

(GCGGTTTGTACTCTGATTCACAGAAAAGCAGTgtaagtagtaaaacaaaaatattgctttcacttagtgcgtaggttttaccggggattt aatcctcatgtgaagatttaatttgtcatgtgacccattaacatatatgtatgtaagccctgaactgtgtatttagaaagcaatttttagtaaattgaactat tttttagACCTGGAAACGTAGCAAAATTGAGACTTCTAGTTCAGCATGAAATAAACACTCTAAGAGCCCAGGAAAAAC ATGGCCTTCAACCTGCTCTGCTTGTACATTGGGCAGAgTGtCTgCAGAAAAtGgtgagttttaaagtataagcatttttaaagaa cattaccttaattttttaaaatcatgaacttttttattgaaagtttttttgttctgaaaacagcagcttggtcacattatgacagatgtgttttttattgctgca aaatagttaatgtagttaaatataagcacttagaggagcaatgcctggcacacagtgaatgttacatattagctgagctgttactgttattccttaataat taagttctgataattattcagcctgaaaattaaaaaaa)

Capital letters: exon

lowercase: intron

underlined: mutations

Bold lowercase: C1754T mutation

Generation of homozygous/heterozygous RANBP2-expressing control cells for allelic qPCR

HEK-293T cells were transfected with plasmids encoding the mCherry-RanBP2-shRNA and either GFP-RANBP2-WT, GFP-RANBP2-T585M or both (**Table S1**) in calcium phosphate. After 48 h of culture, cells were detached using trypsin (Gibco) and sorted on the ARIA IIu cytometer (Becton Dickinson) of the MRI platform to isolate the mCherry-positive cells. Sorted cells were lyzed and total RNAs were extracted using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using the GraphPad Prism software (10.2.3).

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Knockdown of RANBP2 stimulates non-productive Influenza vRNA replication in infected cells
without altering the initial vRNP import into the nucleus.

(A) A549 cells were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or shRANBP2, and infected with influenza A virus
(IAV) (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.5. RANBP2 transcripts were quantified by RT-qPCR and normalized on
RPL13a housekeeping gene and on the control condition. Supernatants were harvested at 10h post-
infection and viral titers were determined by TCID50 assay on MDCK cells. Results represent mean values
+/- SD. **(B)** A549 cells or **(C)** THP-1 cells were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or -RANBP2 or not
transduced (NTD) then infected with influenza A virus (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.5. At the indicated time
points, cells were lysed and total intracellular RNAs were extracted. Viral RNAs encoding the Matrix 1
(M1) protein were amplified by RTqPCR. **(D)** Nucleoprotein-encoding (NP) viral RNAs were amplified by
RTqPCR in the A549 infected cells. Results from B-C-D are normalized on a housekeeping gene and on
the control condition. Results are presented as mean +/- SD. **(E)** Housekeeping gene expression was not
affected by the knock down. **(F)** Transduced A549 cells were infected at MOI 0.5 and total intracellular
RNAs were extracted at 6h post-infection. Strand-specific reverse transcription (RT) was performed with
tagged-primers to amplify separately the genomic viral RNA (vRNA) and the complementary viral RNA
(cRNA). M1-encoding viral RNAs were amplified by RTqPCR. Results are normalized on the control
condition and presented as mean +/- SD. **(G)** Transduced A549 cells were infected at MOI 0.5 and stained
for the NP at 8h post-infection. Scale bar: 20µm. **(H)** Cytoplasmic fluorescence was quantified using the
Fiji software. Each dot represents the cytoplasmic fluorescence of a cell, normalized by its area. **(I)**
Transduced A549 cells were infected at MOI 0.5 and co-stained for the NP and PB1 proteins at 8h post-
infection. Scale bar: 20µm. BJ) Colocalization was quantified using the Fiji software. **(K)** Transduced A549
cells were infected at MOI 4 and stained for the NP at 1h post-infection. Scale bar: 20µm. **(L)** Confocal
Airyscan image processing and quantifications were performed in the Fiji software. Each dot represents
the cytoplasmic fluorescence of a cell, normalized by its area. **(M)** Transduced A549 cells were infected
at MOI 4 and stained for the NP at 2h post-infection. Scale bar: 20µm. **(N)** Nuclear fluorescence was
quantified using the Fiji software. Each dot represents the nuclear fluorescence of a cell. **(O)**
Experimental strategy of the Alpha-Centauri assay. IAV (A/WSN/1933) particles containing the PB2
protein fused to a fragment of the NanoLuc (α-Nluc) were produced by reverse genetics. A plasmid
containing a nuclear localization signal (NLS) fused to the other fragment of the NanoLuc (Centauri-Nluc)
was generated and transfected into A549 cells. Transfected cells were infected at MOI 4 and the
luminescence was measured to assess the NanoLuc complementation upon nuclear import of the viral
ribonucleoproteins. **(P)** NanoLuc complementation results are normalized on the last time point. Two-
tailed unpaired Student's t test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.002, ***P < 0.0002, ****P < 0.0001, ns: non-
significant.

Figure 2: RANBP2 Knockdown facilitates the Nuclear Reimport of the viral polymerase complex
proteins PB1/PB2/PA and segment-selective vRNP over-export to the cytoplasm.

(A) A549 cells were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or shRNA-RANBP2 and infected with influenza A
virus (IAV) (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 4. At 6h post-infection, protein levels of PB1, PB2, PA and NP were
determined by western blot. **(B)** Transduced A549 cells were treated with KPT-330 for 2h and infected
with IAV at MOI 0.5. Nucleo-cytoplasmic fractionation was performed at 6h post-infection and PB1, PB2
and PA levels were determined by western blot (N: nucleus, C: cytoplasm). Lamin and tubulin protein
levels were investigated to verify the efficacy of the fractionation. **(C)** Transduced A549 cells were
infected with IAV at MOI 0.5 in the absence of KPT-330. The PB1 was stained at 6h post-infection and
nuclear fluorescence **(Figure S7)** was quantified using the Fiji software. Each dot represents the nuclear
fluorescence of a cell. **(D)** Strand- and segment-specific RTqPCR strategy. Strand-specific reverse

transcription (RT) was performed with tagged-primers to amplify separately the genomic viral RNA (vRNA) and the complementary viral RNA (cRNA). Each of the 8 segments of IAV were then amplified by qPCR using specific primers. **(E)** Transduced A549 cells were infected with IAV at MOI 0.5. At 6h post-infection, nuclear (N) and cytoplasmic (C) fractions were separated and total intracellular RNAs were extracted. cRNAs were reverse transcribed by strand-specific RTqPCR and results were normalized on the nuclear fraction of the control condition. **(F)** vRNAs were reverse transcribed by strand-specific RTqPCR and results were normalized on the control condition of each fraction. Results are presented as mean +/- SD.

Figure 3: RANBP2 knockdown exacerbates the inflammatory response to IAV infection.

(A) Monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM), THP-1 cells and A549 cells were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or shRNA-RANBP2 at MOI 30 and stimulated with influenza A virus (IAV) (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.1 overnight. Cytokine transcripts were assessed by RT-qPCR and results were normalized on RPL13a or β-actin and on the non-stimulated control condition. Results are presented as mean +/- SD. Two-tailed unpaired Student's t test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.002, ***P < 0.0002, ****P < 0.0001, ns: non-significant. **(B)** Supernatants from IAV-stimulated MDM were collected at 24h post-stimulation and pro-inflammatory mediators were quantified by multiplex LUMINEX assay on samples diluted 1:50. The mean fluorescence intensities (MFI) for RANBP2-KD samples were normalized on the Control samples. Results are represented as heat maps of fold values.

Figure 4: Mislocalisation of the ANE1-mutated N-terminal part of RANBP2 drives hyper-inflammation upon immune stimulation.

(A) CRISPR editing strategy. A guide sgRNA hybridizing directly upstream the C1754 position was used to induce the cleavage by the Cas9 enzyme. A donor DNA sequence carrying the C1754T mutation (corresponding to T585M at the protein level) was supplied. After homology directed repair (HDR), three types of CRISPR clones were generated (box below): (top) WT homozygous clones (middle) WT/C1754T heterozygous clones and (bottom) C1754T/C1754T homozygous clones. **(B)** RNA expression of the WT or C1754T form of RANBP2 was assessed by RANBP2-specific RTqPCR. HEK-293T cells transfected with plasmids encoding the WT form, the T585M form or both forms of RANBP2 were used as control. **(C)** Illustration of the RANBP2 sequence from positions 1749 to 1757, carrying a C on the WT sequence at position 1754, replaced by a T on the T585M mutant. **(D)** Sanger sequencing of the CRISPR clones showing either a C, a T or both at position 1754. **(E)** CRISPR clones were stimulated overnight either by IAV (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.5 or by transfection with the 2CARD module of RIG-I, and total intracellular RNAs were extracted. Pro-inflammatory cytokine expression was assessed by RTqPCR to detect CXCL10 and TNFα transcripts. Values were normalized on RPL13a and for the untransfected control condition. Results are presented as mean +/- SD. **(F)** CRISPR clones were fixed and stained for RANBP2 using either an antibody recognizing the NTD (amino acids 1 to 18) or the CTD (amino acids 2550 to 2837) parts of RANBP2. **(G)** Schematic representation of the RANBP2 protein sequence and the epitopes recognized by the antibodies. Nuclear fluorescence was quantified using the Fiji software for **(H)** RANBP2^{NTD} and **(I)** RANBP2^{CTD}.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure S1: Assessment of RANBP2 knock-down in human primary macrophages and A549 cells.

(A) Monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM) were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or shRNA-RANBP2 at MOI 20. Knock-down efficacy was assessed by RTqPCR at 24h post-infection **(B)** Knock-down efficacy was confirmed by Western blot in A549 cells at 72h post-infection.

Figure S2: RT-qPCR strategy to distinguish cRNA and vRNA.

(A) Strand-specific Reverse Transcription (RT) strategy. Genomic viral RNAs (vRNA) and complementary RNAs (cRNA) were reverse transcribed using specific tagged-primers hybridizing to the consensus 3'-sequences of each of the 8 viral segments. **(B)** Validation of the specificity of the strand-specific RT. qPCR primers complementary to the tags were used to amplify cDNAs produced by each RT and verify that only vRNAs were amplified after vRNA-specific RT, only cRNAs after cRNA-specific RT and no cellular RNAs were reverse transcribed by any of the two RT. RT-specificity was check for 2 segments (segment 1 and segment 4).

Figure S3: Increase in cytoplasmic NP in RANBP2-KD cells at 8 hpi.

Full panel of images for Figure 1G. A549 cells were transduced or not (NTD) with LV shRNA-Control or shRNA-RANBP2 and infected with influenza A virus (IAV) (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.5. At 8h post-infection, cells were fixed and stained for the nucleoprotein (NP). Scale bar: 20μm. Image processing was done using the Fiji software. NP (AlexaFluor-488) and shRNA (mCherry) colors were changed to « Orange Hot » and « cyan » for aesthetic purposes.

Figure S4: Increase in cytoplasmic vRNP in RANBP2-KD cells at 8 hpi.

Transduced A549 cells were infected at MOI 0.5 and co-stained for the NP and PA proteins at 8h post-infection. Scale bar: 20μm. Colocalization was quantified using the Fiji software.

Figure S5: Alpha-Centauri assay to measure IAV nuclear import.

(A-B) A549 cells were transduced with a plasmid containing the Centauri-Nluc tagged with HA. Cells were stained for the HA and analyzed by flow cytometry to determine the percentage of transduced cells. **(C)** Cells were infected at MOI 4 and the luminescence was measured to assess the Nanoluciferase complementation upon nuclear import of the viral ribonucleoproteins. **(D)** Centauri-Nluc-transduced A549 cells were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or shRNA-RANBP2 expressing the mCherry. The percentage of mCherry-positive cells was determined by flow cytometry.

Figure S6: Inhibition of CRM1-dependent NP export using KPT-330/Selinexor.

A549 cells were treated or not (Vehicle) with KPT-330 at the indicated doses for 2 h at 37°C, then infected with IAV. **(A)** Cells were fixed and stained for the NP at 8 hour post-infection (hpi) to verify the efficacy of the NP export inhibition. **(B)** KPT-330 cytotoxicity was assessed by MTT assay. Uninfected cells were incubated with MTT (5 mg/mL) for 3 h at 37°C. Acid isopropanol was added and absorbance was read at 570nm. **(C)** At the indicated times post-infection, cells were fixed and stained for the NP to determine when vRNP export starts.

Figure S7: Increase in nuclear PB1 in RANBP2-KD cells.

Full panel of images for Figure 2D. A549 cells were transduced with LV shRNA-Control or shRNA-RANBP2 and infected with influenza A virus (IAV) (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.5. At 6h post-infection, cells were fixed and the PB1 protein was stained. Scale bar: 20μm. Image processing was done using the Fiji software.

Figure S8: qPCR strategy to amplify the 8 segments of IAV.

(A) Segment-specific qPCR strategy. After strand-specific RT, the 8 segments were detected using qPCR primers amplifying the indicated regions of each segments. All 8 segments were amplified after each RT. **(B)** Segment-specific qPCR was performed after total RT (amplifying all RNAs) and all primer pairs were still specific of the viral RNA segments. Melting curves are presented.

Figure S9: Phenotypic analysis of primary human MDM.

PBMCs were isolated from blood samples of two healthy donors. Monocytes were isolated by plastic adherence for 45 minutes and differentiated into macrophages by addition of GM-CSF. After 7 days of

differentiation, monocyte-derived macrophages from 2 donors were stained for phenotypic markers.
The expression of CD3, CD14, CD16, CD11b, HLA-DR and CD80 was assessed by flow cytometry.

Figure S10: Stimulation of MDM with IAV triggers IL-6 and IL-1β synthesis.

PBMCs were isolated from blood samples of two healthy donors. Monocytes were isolated by plastic
adherence for 45 minutes. Supernatants containing the peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBL) were
collected. Macrophages were differentiated by addition of GM-CSF to monocytes for 7 days at 37°C. Each
cell types was infected with influenza A virus (IAV) (A/WSN/1933) at MOI 0.5. At 16h post-infection, total
intracellular RNAs were extracted. **(A)** M1-encoding viral RNAs were amplified by RTqPCR. **(B)** IL-6 and IL-
1ß RNAs were amplified by RTqPCR. Results are presented as mean +/- SD and normalized on the non-
infected condition for each cell type.

Figure S11: CRISPR-Cas9 knock-in strategy to generate ANE1-variants in U2OS cells.

(A) RANBP2-specific allelic qPCR strategy. RANBP2-specific reverse transcription was performed using a
primer specific to the RANBP2 sequence and not present on the highly homologous RGPD sequence
(conserved parts are indicated in gray). Mutant and WT RANBP2 were distinguished using a reverse qPCR
primer carrying either an A or a G at its 3' end. A set of primers was also designed to amplify RANBP2
(near the same region) without distinguishing both forms. **(B)** Representation of the RANBP2 sequence
upstream of the repair site, and one of the eight RGPDs. Sanger sequencing of the CRISPR clones shows
no recombination with the RGPD sequence as all carry a G at the indicated positions (black arrows). **(C)**
To produce controls for the screening of CRISPR clones by allelic qPCR, HEK-293T cells were transfected
with mCherry-shRNA-RANBP2 and either GFP-RANBP2-WT, GFP-RANBP2-T585M or both. mCherry-
expressing cells were sorted by FACS and total intracellular RNAs were extracted for the allelic RTqPCR.
Results of the FACS sorting are presented.

Figure S12: Localization of RANBP2 in CRISPR knock-in clones

CRISPR knock-in clones were fixed and stained for RANBP2 (Proteintech 27606-1-AP) and FG-repeats
(Biolegend mab414) to investigate the localization of RANBP2. **(A)** Full sets of confocal images used for
the quantification of RANBP2 at the nuclear rim. Scale bar = 5μm. **(B)** Higher resolution images obtained
by confocal microscopy. Scale bar = 5μm.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE LEGENDS

Table S1: List of plasmids.

Table S2: List of reverse transcription and qPCR primers.

Table S3: List of antibodies.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

B

Multiplex LUMINEX assay

Figure 4

A CRISPR editing strategy

B *RANBP2*-specific allelic qPCR

RanBP2 relative expression

C *RANBP2* sequence

D CRISPR clones sanger sequencing

E
CXCL10   TNFα   CXCL10   TNFα

F

| C4 WT/WT | C15 WT/WT | C10 WT/T585M | C6 T585M/T585M | C9 T585M/T585M | C14 T585M/T585M |

Merge

FG repeats

RanBP2

G RanBP2 antibody epitope

H RanBP2 at NPC

Supplementary

Supplemental Figure S1

A549

A   MDM

RANBP2 relative expression

1.5

1.0

0.5

0.0

Control   RanBP2

shRNA :   Control   RanBP2

B   shRNA

MDMi   Control   RanBP2

RANBP2 relative expression

1.5

1.0

0.5

0.0

315kD

130kD

RANI   (358kD)

Vinc   (117kD)

Control   RanBP2

THP-1

1.5

1.0

0.5

0.0

Control   RanBP2

Supplemental Figure S2

A

Strand-specific RT

Validation of RT specificity

B

Validation of RT specificity

Supplemental Figure S3

Additionnal images for Figure 1G

Supplemental Figure S5

Supplemental Figure S6

A   Dose-response to KPT-330 (8 hpi)

B Viability

C Time-response to KPT-330 (5µM)

Supplemental Figure S7

Images for Figure 2D

Supplemental Figure S8

A

B

Segment 1

Segment 2

Segment 3

Segment 4

Segment 5

Segment 6

Segment7

Segment 8

| | | | | CD3 | CD14 | CD16 | CD11b | HLA-DR | CD80 |

■ **Donor 1 unstained**   □ **Donor 1 stained**   ■ **Donor 2 unstained**   ■ **Donor 2 stained**

Subset Name	Count
Macrophages	9806
Macrophages	10205
Macrophages	3778
Macrophages	4085

Donor A+   Donor A+   Donor A+   Donor A+

Donor O+   Donor O+   Donor O+   Donor O+

Q3: CD14+ , CD16- Median : *MS4A4A* : 181

Q2: CD14+ , CD16+ Median : *MS4A4A* : 157

Q1: CD14- , CD16+ Median : *MS4A4A* : 134

Sample Name	Subset Name	Count
Macrophages_phenotype	CD14+ , CD16-	17.0
Macrophages_phenotype	CD14+ , CD16-	644
Macrophages_phenotype	CD14+ , CD16+	2481

Supplemental Figure S11

A   *RANBP2*-specific allelic qPCR strategy

B   No recombination with RGPDs

C   mCherry-cell sorting for allelic qPCR control cells

Condition	% mCherry-positive cells	% GFP-positive cells	% double-positive cells	Nb of cells after sorting
NTF	0	0	0	200000
GFP	0,1	90,9	0	N/A
mCherry	35,7	0	0	N/A
Ran + WT	25	37,4	24,8	106440
Ran + T585M	26,1	31,6	17,8	69272
Ran + WT/T585M	33,2	33,7	21,4	133453

Supplemental Figure S12

A

C4
WT/WT

C6
T585M/T585M

RanBP2 · FG repeats · Merge

C15
WT/WT

C9
T585M/T585M

RanBP2 · FG repeats · Merge

C10
WT/T585M

C14
T585M/T585M

RanBP2 · FG repeats · Merge

B

| **C4** WT/WT | **C15** WT/WT | **C10** WT/T585M | **C6** T585M/T585M | **C9** T585M/T585M | **C14** T585M/T585M |

Table S1   **Plasmids**

Target	Reference
pVSVg	pHCMV-G (Yee et al., PNAS 1994)
p8.74	pCMVΔR8.74 (Dull et al., J Virol 1998)
mCherry-shRNA-Control	ddgene #1864 (Gouy et al., Front Neurol 2023)
mCherry-shRNA-RanBP2	Gouy et al., Front Neurol 2023
GFP-RanBP2-WT	Gift from J Joseph (Pune University)
GFP-RanBP2-T585M	This paper, availbale upon request
Centauri-Nluc-NLS	This paper, availbale upon request

Table S2   **Reverse transcription primers**

IAV strand-specific RT	
Target	Sequence (5' -> 3')
vRNA	GGCCGTCATGGTGGCGAATAGCGAAAGCAGG
cRNA	CCAGATCGTTCGAGTCGTAGTAGAAACAAGG

The colored sequence corresponds to the tag

RanBP2-specific RT	
Target	Sequence (5' -> 3')
RanBP2	ATGCTGTTGGGGTGGAAGCC

qPCR primers

Target	Forward primer (5'-3')	Reverse primer (5'-3')
IAV M1	CAGCACTGGAGCTAGGATGA	AAGGCTATGGAGCAAATGGC
IAV NP	CCTCGGGCCAAATCAGCATA	ATTCCCAGTGAATGCTGCCA
Segment 1	CGGGATATTGCCCGACATGA	TCCGCGCTGGAATACTCATC
Segment 2	TACCGGTGCCATAGAGGTGA	TGGGTTTGCTCCCACAGTTT
Segment 3	CAAGCTTGCCGACCAAAGTC	TTGCCCTCAATGTAGCCGTT
Segment 4	GGCATCATCACCTCAAACGC	CCCTGGGGTGTTTGACACTT
Segment 5	TCAAGTGAGAGAGAGCCGGA	TGAGTGCAGACCGTGCTAAA
Segment 6	TTAATGAGCTGCCCTGTCGG	GCTGACCAAGCAACCGATTC
Segment 7	CCACTGAAGTGGCATTTGGC	GCTGGGAGTCAGCAATCTGT
Segment 8	GCTCATGCCCAAGCAGAAAG	CCATGATCGCCTGGTCCATT
RanBP2 (Total)	AAAACATGGCCTTCAACCTG	TCAACAATTTCTGATGCCTGA
RanBP2 (WT)	TGGGATGCGGTTTGTACTCT	AGAATTAAGACCGCTGCCCG
RanBP2 (T585M)	TGGGATGCGGTTTGTACTCT	AGAATTAAGACCGCTGCCCA
RanBP2 (Exon24)	CAGGAAGCTCAAAAATCTCAGACA	ACCATCACTTCAGTCCCACC
IL-6	TAACCACCCCTGACCCAACC	ATTTGCCGAAGAGCCCTCAG
IL-1ß	GGCATCCAGCTACGAATCTC	GAACCAGCATCTTCCTCAGC
TNFα	GGCGTGGAGCTGAGAGATAAC	GGTGTGGGTGAGGAGCACAT
IL-18	GGAATTGTCTCCCAGTGCAT	ACTGGTTCAGCAGCCATCTT
CXCL10	GTCCACGTGTTGAGATCATTGC	TTGCTCCCCTCTGGTTTTAAGG
RPL13a	AACAGCTCATGAGGCTACGG	TGGGTCTTGAGGACCTCTGT
Actine B	CTGGAACGGTGAAGGTGACA	AAGGGACTTCCTGTAACAATGCA

Table S3   **Antibodies**

Immunofluorescence			
Target	Reference	Brand	Dilution
NP	MCA400	Biorad	1/1000
PB1	GTX125923	GeneTex	1/500
RANBP2	27606-1-AP	Proteintech	1/100
FG repeats NPC (clone mab414)	902901	Biolegend	1/200
Goat anti-Mouse AF488	A11001	Thermofisher Scientific	1/1000
Goat anti-Rabbit AF488	A11034	Thermofisher Scientific	1/1000
Goat anti-Mouse AF555	A21424	Thermofisher Scientific	1/1000

Flow cytometry and MDM phenotyping			
Target	Reference	Brand	Dilution
HA (Centauri)	11988506001	Roche, Sigma	1/100
CD3-BV421 (clone UCHT1	300433	Biolegend	1/100
CD14-PerCP-Cy5.5 (clone HCD14)	325621	Biolegend	1/100
CD16-Alexa700 (clone 3G8)	302026	Biolegend	1/100
CD11b-APC-Cy7 (clone M1/70)	101225	Biolegend	1/100
HLA-DR-FITC (REA805)	130-111-941	Miltenyi	1/100
CD80-BV650 (clone 2D10)	305227	Biolegend	1/100

Western Blot			
Target	Reference	Brand	Dilution
NP	MCA400	Biorad	1/5000
PB1	GTX125923	GeneTex	1/5000
PB2	GTX125925	GeneTex	1/5000
PA	GTX125932	GeneTex	1/5000
Pro-IL1ß	16806-1-AP	Proteintech	1/1000
NLRP3	AG-20B-0014	Adipogen	1/1000
Actin ß	A1978	Roche, Sigma	1/3000
Lamin A/C	10298-1-AP	Proteintech	1/400
Tubulin	ab6160	Abcam	1/5000
Goat anti-Mouse HRP	NA931V	GE Healthcare	1/5000
Donkey anti-rabbit HRP	NA934V	GE Healthcare	1/5000