RBMX2: A Pivotal Regulator Linking *Mycobacterium bovis* Infection to

Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition and Lung Cancer Progression

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Abstract

Tuberculosis (TB) is a complex disease that arises from the dynamic interplay among the pathogen, host, and environmental factors. In 2022, TB affected approximately 10.6 million people worldwide, resulting in 1.3 million deaths. In regions with a high burden of zoonotic TB, Mycobacterium bovis (M. bovis) accounts for nearly 10% of human TB cases. The immune evasion strategies and latent nature of Mycobacterium tuberculosis (M. tb) pose significant challenges to understanding the host immune response to TB infection. In this study, we identify RNA-binding motif protein X-linked 2 (RBMX2) as a novel host factor that may facilitate *M. bovis* infection. However, the molecular mechanisms and functional roles of RBMX2 during M. bovis infection remain poorly understood.

Our findings show that RBMX2 is significantly upregulated across multiple cell types following infection, including embryonic bovine lung (EBL) cells, bovine macrophage (BoMac) cells, bovine pulmonary alveolar primary cells, and human alveolar epithelial cells (A549). Using a combination of global transcriptomic sequencing, proteomic profiling, cell adhesion assays, ChIP-PCR, and Western blotting, we demonstrate that RBMX2 suppresses cell adhesion and tight junction formation in EBL cells while promoting M. bovis adhesion and invasion through activation of the p65 signaling pathway. Importantly, integrated analyses of transcriptomic, proteomic, and metabolomic data reveal that RBMX2 plays a key role in regulating epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), a cellular process closely associated with cancer progression.

To further explore the potential link between RBMX2 and cancer, we analyzed the TIMER2.0 database and found elevated RBMX2 expression in lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) tissues compared to normal lung tissues. These findings were corroborated by immunofluorescence staining. Using an M. bovis-infected BoMac-induced EBL-EMT model, we show that RBMX2 promotes EMT through activation of the p65/MMP-9 pathway following infection. Additionally, we validated the EMT process in human lung epithelial cancer cells (H1299), further supporting the involvement of RBMX2 in this transition.

Collectively, our study identifies RBMX2 as a novel host factor that may enhance M. bovis infection and drive infection-induced EMT. These findings provide new insights into the molecular

mechanisms underlying TB pathogenesis and suggest that RBMX2 could serve as a potential

target for the development of TB vaccines and therapeutic strategies against TB-associated lung

cancer.

Keywords: *Mycobacterium bovis*, RNA-binding motif protein X-linked 2, embryo bovine lung,

bovine macrophage, cell tight junction, epithelial–mesenchymal transition, bovine tuberculosis,

cell tight junction

Abbreviations

RBMX2 RNA-binding motif protein X-linked 2; EBL embryo bovine lung cells; BoMac bovine

macrophage cells; A549 human pulmonary alveolar epithelial cells; TB tuberculosis; *M. bovis*

Mycobacterium bovis; *M. tb Mycobacterium tuberculosis*; BCG *Bacillus* Calmette–Guerin; WOAH

World Organisation for Animal Health; hpi hours postinfection; *M. smegmatis Mycobacterium*

smegmatis; *E. coli Escherichia coli*; p65 RELA proto-oncogene, NF-kB subunit;MAPK

mitogen-activated protein kinase; EMT epithelial–mesenchymal transition; PARP poly ADP-ribose

polymerase; ZO-1 tight junction protein 1; CLDN-5 claudin 5; OCLN occludin; MMP-9 matrix

metallopeptidase 9; SP-A surfactant protein A; GO Gene Ontology; KEGG Kyoto Encyclopedia of

Genes and Genomes; WB Western blot; RT-qPCR real-time quantitative polymerase chain

reaction; IF immunofluorescence; ECM extracellular matrix; TCGA the cancer genome atlas

Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) remains a major global health threat, with approximately 10.6 million new

cases and 1.3 million deaths reported worldwide in 2022 [1]. Mycobacterium tuberculosis (M. tb)

and its zoonotic variant, Mycobacterium bovis (M. bovis), are responsible for a significant

proportion of TB cases, particularly in regions with a high burden of zoonotic diseases, where M.

bovis accounts for up to 10% of human TB infections. The immune evasion strategies of M. tb and

its variants complicate our understanding of host immune responses and disease progression.

Recent studies have increasingly linked chronic infections, including TB, to cancer

development [2, 3]. The persistent inflammatory environment induced by chronic infection can

drive cellular transformations, such as epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), which is closely

associated with cancer initiation and metastasis [4]. However, the specific molecular mechanisms

and host factors involved in this infection-cancer axis remain largely uncharacterized.

In this context, RNA-binding motif protein X-linked 2 (RBMX2) has emerged as a potential

host factor involved in both TB infection and cancer progression. Our previous studies

demonstrated that RBMX2 regulates alternative splicing of APAF-1 introns, thereby modulating

apoptosis following M. bovis infection [5]. Furthermore, accumulating evidence suggests that its

homolog, RBMX, plays dual and context-dependent roles in tumorigenesis, acting as either an

oncogene or a tumor suppressor. For example, RBMX is overexpressed in hepatocellular

carcinoma [6] and T-cell lymphomas [7], whereas its expression is reduced in pancreatic ductal

adenocarcinoma, indicating a complex and tissue-specific regulatory function [8].

Despite these findings, the role of RBMX2 in M. bovis infection and its potential involvement

in EMT regulation remain largely unexplored. Based on our preliminary data, we hypothesize that

RBMX2 promotes M. bovis adhesion and invasion by modulating host cell properties, and further

facilitates EMT through activation of the p65/MMP-9 signaling pathway. This study aims to

elucidate the molecular mechanisms by which RBMX2 contributes to M. bovis infection and its

potential role in infection-associated EMT, thereby providing novel insights into the intersection

of TB and lung cancer. These findings may highlight RBMX2 as a promising therapeutic target for

TB and TB-related malignancies.

Results

Elevated expression of RBMX2 in *Mycobacterium bovis*-infected cells and tuberculous

Lesions

M. bovis was used to infect the EBL cell library, which was constructed using CRISPR/Cas9

technology in our laboratory, at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 100:1. We evaluated cell

survival and performed high-throughput sequencing on the viable cells to identify key host

factors potentially involved in anti-M. bovis defense. Notably, RBMX2 knockout cells exhibited

significant resistance to infection.

Further analysis using AlphaFold Multimer revealed that amino acid residues 56 – 134 of

RBMX2 contain an RNA recognition motif (Supplementary Fig. 1A). Additionally, we identified 611

RBM family sequences at the bovine protein exon level and classified them into subfamilies based

on motif similarity. RBMX2 was predominantly assigned to subfamily VII, which includes proteins

such as EIF3G, RBM14, RBM42, RBMX44, RBM17, PUF60, SART3, and RBM25 (Supplementary Fig.

1B). Comparative analysis of amino acid sequences indicated a high degree of conservation of

RBMX2 across species (Supplementary Table 1).

To further validate RBMX2 expression in EBL cells following infection with M. bovis and M.

bovis Bacillus Calmette – Guerin (BCG), RNA samples were collected at 24, 48, and 72 hours

post-infection (hpi). Real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (RT-qPCR) results showed

that RBMX2 expression was significantly upregulated after infection with both M. bovis and M.

bovis BCG (Figs. 1A and B). Moreover, increased RBMX2 expression was observed in bovine

monocyte-derived macrophages (BoMac cells), bovine alveolar type II primary cells, and human

lung epithelial cells (A549 cells) following M. bovis infection (Figs. 1C – E). Furthermore, we used

WB to verify the expression levels of RBMX2 protein in EBL cells after M. bovis infection. The results

showed that M. bovis infection upregulates the expression of RBMX2 protein in EBL cells.(Fig. 1F).

RBMX2 did not affect cell cycle but inhibited epithelial cell survival during *M. bovis*

infection

In generating *RBMX2* monoclonal knockout (KO) cells, monoclonal cells were selected

through limited dilution in 96-well plates. Sanger sequencing was conducted to identify different

monoclonal cells with distinct knockout sites (Supplementary Fig. 2A). We validated the effect of

RBMX2 knockout on the cell cycle using flow cytometry, and the results indicated that RBMX2

does not affect the cell cycle.(Supplementary Fig. 2B).

To investigate the potential role of *RBMX2* in resistance to *M. bovis* infection, we assessed

the survival rate of EBL cells and H1299 cells at different hours post-infection using CCK-8 assay.

The findings revealed an enhanced survival rate in both *RBMX2* knockout monoclonal EBL cells

following *M. bovis* infection (Fig. 1G). Furthermore, RBMX2-silenced H1299 cells exhibited a

higher survival rate compared to H1299 ShNc cells after *M. bovis* infection (Fig. 1H). Notably,

RBMX2 knockout in EBL cells and silencing in H1299 cells demonstrated significant improvements

in cells survival at 96 and 120 hpi compared to Wild Type (WT) EBL cells and H1299 ShNC cells, as

evidenced by crystal violet staining (Supplementary Fig. 2C).

***RBMX2*-regulated genes associated with cell tight junction and EMT-related pathways**

To investigate the role of RBMX2 knockout during M. bovis infection, we selected RBMX2

knockout EBL cells and wild-type (WT) EBL cells at 0 hours post-infection (hpi) (2 hpi

post-gentamicin, referred to as 0 hpi), 24 hpi, and 48 hpi for RNA-Seq analysis. A total of 16,079

genes were identified with a significance threshold of $p < 0.05$ and a log2(fold change) > 2 relative

to WT EBL cells. Notably, 42 genes were significantly regulated at all three time points (0, 24, and

48 hpi) (Fig. 2A). Of these, 11 genes were significantly upregulated, while 31 were significantly

downregulated. A heat map illustrating the expression levels of these genes across all samples is

presented, with each row representing a gene and each column representing a sample (Fig. 2A).

To further explore the functional implications of these differentially expressed genes (DEGs)

in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells during infection, Gene Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of

Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathway analyses were conducted. The most significantly enriched

biological processes included epithelial cell differentiation, cell adhesion, and biological adhesion.

The most affected cellular components were the extracellular region, extracellular region part,

extracellular space, and plasma membrane part. Molecular functions were primarily associated

with activin receptor activity, type I (Fig. 2B). KEGG pathway analysis revealed that these DEGs

were involved in several pathways, including ECM－receptor interaction, cGMP-PKG signaling

pathway, PI3K-Akt signaling pathway, cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction, and vascular

smooth muscle contraction (Fig. 2C).

Proteomic analysis of 48 hpi protein samples further validated the phenotypes related to

cell tight junctions and epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT). GO analysis identified significant

enrichment in pathways related to extracellular space, integrin binding, basement membrane,

and glucose homeostasis, whereas KEGG analysis highlighted pathways such as cell adhesion

molecules, ECM－receptor interaction, and the TGF-beta signaling pathway (Figs. 2D and 2E).

We also assessed how varying infection durations influenced RBMX2 knockout EBL cells

using GO analysis. At 0 hpi, differentially expressed genes were primarily associated with cell

junctions, extracellular regions, and cell junction organization (Supplementary Fig. 3A). At 24 hpi,

enriched pathways included basement membrane, cell adhesion, integrin binding, and cell

migration (Supplementary Fig. 3B). By 48 hpi, genes were mainly annotated to epithelial cell

differentiation and were negatively regulated during epithelial cell proliferation (Supplementary

Fig. 3C), suggesting that RBMX2 modulates cellular connectivity throughout the stages of M.

bovis infection.

KEGG analysis revealed distinct enrichment patterns over time. At 0 hpi, genes were

enriched in the MAPK signaling pathway, chemical carcinogen-DNA adducts, and chemical

carcinogen – receptor activation (Supplementary Fig. 3D). At 24 hpi, significant enrichment was

observed in ECM – receptor interaction, PI3K – Akt signaling pathway, and focal adhesion

(Supplementary Fig. 3E). At 48 hpi, enrichment was noted in the TGF-beta signaling pathway,

transcriptional misregulation in cancer, microRNAs in cancer, small cell lung cancer, and the p53

signaling pathway (Supplementary Fig. 3F).

To validate the RNA-seq results, we selected 10 genes at random for RT-qPCR analysis (Fig.

2F and Supplementary Fig. 4C). The mRNA levels of these genes were consistent with RNA-seq

data. These genes included FRMD4B, MCTP1, HSPB8, ST14, and OMD, which are associated with

scaffold proteins, cell adhesion, and epithelial barrier function. Additionally, MCTP1, HSPB8, IL-24,

IL-7, GPX2, and NOS3 were linked to apoptosis, inflammation, and oxidative stress.

RBMX2* interferes with the integrity of tight junctions in epithelial cells caused by *M. bovis

Through transcriptome sequencing, we identified 41 genes that underwent transcript

changes following *M. bovis* infection. Of these, 22 genes were upregulated, while 19 genes were

downregulated (Supplementary Figs. 4A and B). The downregulated genes were primarily

associated with tight junction and leukocyte transendothelial migration (Fig. 3A). In contrast, the

upregulated genes were mainly linked to immunity-related pathways, including the defense

response to viruses and regulation of viral processes (Fig. 3B).

Based on these finding,we hypothesized that *RBMX2* could damage the integrity of

epithelial cell tight junction. To validate this prediction, we constructed a model of *M.*

bovis-destroyed tight junctions in EBL cells. EBL cells were infected with *M. bovis* and we

subsequently performed RT-qPCR and Western blot (WB) analyses to assess the expression of cell

tight junction-related mRNAs (*TJP1*, *OCLN*, *CLDN-5*, and *CLDN-7*) and proteins (ZO-1, OCLN, and

CLDN-5). We found that the expression levels of most mRNAs and proteins were significantly

reduced following *M. bovis* infection compared to the uninfected coutrol (Figs. 3C and D).

Tight junctions are critical intercellular adhesion structures that define the permeability of

barrier-forming epithelial cells [9]. The ability of epithelial cells to maintain functional intercellular

adhesion is essential for forming a tight epithelial protective barrier [10]. To further investigate the

effect of *M. bovis* on epithelial cell adhesion, we conducted a cell adhesion assay, revealing a

significant decrease in the intercellular adhesion ratio (Fig. 3E). These results validated that *M.*

bovis can compromise the tight junction of EBL cells.

To explore the impact of *RBMX2* on the epithelial cells barrier, we infected RBMX2 knockout

and WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* and assessed the expression of epithelial barrier-related mRNAs

(*TJP1*, *OCLN*, and *CLDN-5*) and proteins (ZO-1, OCLN, and CLDN-5) using RT-qPCR and WB. The

RBMX2 knockout EBL cells exhibited a significant upregulation of all three proteins compared to

WT EBL cells (Figs. 3F and G). The cell adhesion assay also demonstrated that *RBMX2* knockout

EBL cells displayed a heightened adhesion ratio relative to WT EBL cells (Fig. 3H).

Tight junctions are essential component of the epithelial barrier and can be compromised by

bacteria infections, contributing to inflammation [11, 12]. To investigate whether *RBMX2* mediates

intracellular inflammation by regulating the tightness of the epithelial barrier, we measured the

mRNA levels of inflammatory factors (IL-1β, TNF, and IL-6) in *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells

post-infection. The results showed a decrease in the expression of these inflammatory factors in

RBMX2 knockout EBL cells compared to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection (Fig. 3I).

In summary, our findings indicate that *RBMX2* affects the integrity of epithelial cell tight

junctions, and knocking out *RBMX2* enhances tight junction formation while decreasing the

inflammatory response induced by *M. bovis*.

RBMX2* disrupted the epithelial barrier via activating *p65

234   The MAPK pathway and NF-kappaB pathway play crucial roles in regulating tight junctions

235 between epithelial cells [13-16]. To further elucidate the regulatory mechanism of *RBMX2* in the

236 epithelial barrier's tight junctions, we found that the MAPK pathway was enriched in our

237 transcriptome sequencing data, and the potential regulatory transcription factor p65 was

238 predicted through the JASPAR database (Supplementary Table 2).

239   We assessed the phosphorylation levels of MAPK pathway proteins and p65 in RBMX2

240 knockout EBL cells, revealing a significant reduction in the phosphorylation of p65 and

241 MAPK/p38/JNK in these cells following M. bovis infection compared to wild-type (WT) EBL cells

242 (Figs. 4A and B).

243   To determine whether RBMX2 specifically regulates MAPK/p38/JNK proteins and p65 to

promote disruption of tight junctions and reduce intercellular adhesion, RBMX2 knockout EBL

cells were treated with PMA (a p65 activator), Anisomycin (a JNK activator), and ML141 (a p38

activator) for 12 h prior to M. bovis infection. The optimal concentrations of these activators

were determined using Western blotting (WB) and CCK-8 cell viability assays, resulting in

concentrations of 100 nM for PMA, 10 μM for Anisomycin, and 10 μM for ML141, with no

significant effects on cell viability (Supplementary Figs. 5A, B, and C). WB results indicated that

activation of p65 and the MAPK/p38 pathways suppressed the expression of tight junction

proteins, including ZO-1, OCLN, and CLDN-5, following M. bovis infection (Figs. 4C and D).

252   To investigate whether RBMX2 regulates the cell adhesion ratio via p65 and MAPK/p38/JNK

253 pathways, we examined the effects of p65, p38, and JNK activators on cell adhesion in RBMX2

254 knockout EBL cells. Cell adhesion assays demonstrated that treatment with the p65 activator

255 significantly reduced the adhesion ratio compared to treatments with the p38 and JNK activators

256 (Figs. 4E and F).

257   To further confirm the association between p65 and tight junction regulation in WT EBL cells

after M. bovis infection, we used siRNA to knock down p65 expression. WB analysis showed that

siRNA effectively reduced both p65 and phosphorylated p65 (p-p65) expression (Figs. 4G and H).

Furthermore, WB results revealed that p65 suppression enhanced the expression of ZO-1, OCLN,

and CLDN-5 following M. bovis infection (Figs. 4G and H). Additionally, silencing p65 in WT EBL

cells inhibited M. bovis invasion into epithelial cells, as demonstrated by plate counting assays

(Fig. 4I).

Finally, to investigate the relationship between *RBMX2*-mediated p65 and the findings above,

EBL cells were infected with *M. bovis* and *M. bovis* BCG. WB and high-content live imaging system

outcomes demonstrated diminished nuclear translocation of the p65 protein in *RBMX2* knockout

EBL cells compared with WT EBL cells (Figs. 4J and K).

In summary, our findings validate that *RBMX2* can regulate the phosphorylation and nuclear

translocation of p65 protein, leading to the degradation of tight junction proteins in EBL cells

infected with *M. bovis*.

***RBMX2* promotes adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival of pathogens**

Disrupting the intercellular tight junction barrier enhances bacterial adhesion and invasion [17,]

[18]. Based on these findings, we hypothesize that *RBMX2* may facilitate the adhesion and invasion

of *M. bovis* by degrading the tight junction proteins in EBL cells. To test this hypothesis, EBL cells

were infected with *M. bovis* at an MOI of 20:1, plate count assays indicated a significant

reduction in *M. bovis* adhesion in *RBMX2*-KO#17 and KO#23 EBL cells compared with WT EBL cells

at 15 min, 30 min, 1 h, and 2 h post-infection (Supplementary Fig. 6A) . Furthermore, the invasion

of *M. bovis* in *RBMX2*-KO#17 and KO#23 EBL cells were decreased at 2, 4, and 6 h post-infection

compared with WT EBL cells (Supplementary Fig. 6B). Additionally, the intracellular survival of *M.*

bovis in *RBMX2*-KO#17 and KO#23 EBL cells was lower at 24, 48, 72 and 96 hpi compared with

WT EBL cells (Supplementary Fig. 6C). Silencing *RBMX2* in human lung epithelial cells (H1299)

also led to a significant reduction in the adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival of *M. bovis*

(Supplementary Figs. 6D-F). Thus, the host factor *RBMX2* is critical for promoting the adhesion,

invasion, and intracellular survival of *M. bovis*. In addtion, pathway activators were employed to

investigate the relationship between pathway activation and the regulation of *M. bovis* adhesion

and invasion by *RBMX2*. The results showed that applying a p65 activator to *RBMX2* knockout EBL

cells significantly impaired the tight junction function of the epithelial barrier, thereby enhancing

M. bovis adhesion and invasion in EBL cells by regulating the phosphorylation and nucleation of

p65 (Supplementary Figs. 7A and B). Hence, RBMX2 promotes *M. bovis* adhesion and invasion in

EBL cells by regulating the phosphorylation and nucleation of p65.

To further investigate the role of RBMX2 in adhesion and invasion across different virulent

mycobacterial species, we employed both attenuated virulent Mycobacterium bovis BCG and

Mycobacterium smegmatis (M. smegmatis) to infect EBL cells. Plate count assays demonstrated a

significant decrease in the adhesion of both M. bovis BCG and M. smegmatis   in RBMX2

knockout EBL cells at multiple time points post-infection compared to wild-type (WT) EBL cells

(Supplementary Figs. 7C and D). Moreover, the invasion of both mycobacterial species was

notably reduced at various hours post-infection in RBMX2 knockout cells (Supplementary Figs. 7E

and F). These findings suggest that the virulence of Mycobacterium does not influence the ability

of RBMX2 to facilitate adhesion and invasion in EBL cells.

Additionally, to assess whether RBMX2 regulates interactions with other pathogens

associated with bovine pneumonia, EBL cells were infected with Salmonella and Escherichia coli

(E. coli). Our results revealed that RBMX2 knockout EBL cells exhibited a reduction in bacterial

adhesion and invasion across all tested species compared to WT cells (Supplementary Figs. 7G –

J).

Collectively, these experiments provide strong evidence that RBMX2 broadly enhances the

adhesion and invasion of pathogens linked to bovine pneumonia, underscoring its potential as a

therapeutic target for developing disease-resistant cattle.

RBMX2 is highly expressed in lung cancer and regulates cancer-related metabolites

Previous studies have demonstrated a link between bacterial infection and the initiation of

EMT [19-21]. Prolonged infection with *M. tb* or *M. bovis* induces oxidative stress, activates Toll-like

receptors (TLR), and elicits the release of inflammatory cytokines [22-24]. Consequently, this

phenomenon creates a favorable microenvironment for tumor development, progression, and

dissemination [25, 26]. Epidemiological investigations have established a correlation between TB and

the occurrence of lung cancer [27-30]. However, the precise cellular mechanism underlying this

association remain unclear.

In our research, we conducted a comprehensive analysis of gene families, revealing a

remarkable degree of *RBMX2* conservation among bovine, monkey, and human sources (Fig. 5A).

To further elucidate the involvement of *RBMX2* in cancer, we utilized the *TIMER2.0* database to

assess its expression patterns across various cancer types within The Cancer Genome Atlas

(TCGA). Our findings indicated a notable upregulation of *RBMX2* in lung cancer, specifically in

lung adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC) (Fig. 5B).

To investigate the elevated expression of *RBMX2* in lung cancer further, we measured its

expression in both lung cancer epithelial cell lines and normal lung epithelial cell lines using

RT-qPCR. The results demonstrated that *RBMX2* expression in lung cancer epithelial cell lines

(NCIH1299, NCIH460, and CALU1) was significantly higher than that in normal lung epithelial cells

(BEAS-2B) (Fig. 5C). Additionally, immunofluorescence (IF) analysis revealed that *RBMX2*

expression levels were also higher in LUAD and LUSC tumor tissues compared to adjacent

non-cancerous lung tissues (Figs. 5D-F).

Furthermore, we investigate whether *RBMX2* regulates specific EMT-related metabolites to

mediate the EMT process in EBL cells following *M. bovis* infection. Our metabolomic analysis of

EBL cell samples at 48 hpi revealed that *RBMX2* knockout primarily enriched pathways related to

nucleotide metabolism, biosynthesis of cofactors, biosynthesis of nucleotide sugars, pentose and

glucuronate interconversions, vascular smooth muscle contraction, amino sugar, and nucleotide

sugar metabolism, chemokine signaling pathway, aldosterone synthesis and secretion, and

cGMP-PKG signaling pathway. Thes pathways are associated with tumor cells proliferation,

migration, and invasion (Fig. 5G). Differential metabolites are related to tumor metabolism,

mainly including 6-glucuronic acid estriol, adenosine, uridine 5 '- triphosphate, and 5' - deoxy-5 '-

(methylthio) (Figure 5H).

RBMX2 promotes the transformation of EBL cells from epithelial cells to mesenchymal

cells

To investigate the association between *RBMX2* and EMT induced by *M. bovis*, we intially

infected EBL cells directly with *M. bovis*. This infection did not effectively induce the expression of

mesenchymal cell marker proteins (Supplementary Fig. 8A). Previous literature indicates that *M.*

bovis infection in macrophages, along with its secreted proteins, can stimulate the production of

cytokines such as TNF, IL-6, and TGF-β, all of which promote EMT process [31-34].

To further explore the impact of *M. bovis* infection on EMT progression in EBL cells, we

constructed a coculture model using *M. bovis*-infected BoMac cells (Fig. 6A and Supplementary

Fig. 8B). In this model, we identified EMT-related cytokines, including IL-6 and TNF, in *M.*

bovis-infected BoMac cells, revealing a significant increase compared to uninfected BoMac   and

EBL cells (Fig. 6B). Notably, *RBMX2* expression was upregulated in EBL cells within this coculture

model following *M. bovis* infection (Fig. 6C).

We then examined the morphology changes in epithelial cells within the coculture model

using electron microscopy. The results demonstrated that most cells transitioned from circular to

an elongated morphology (Fig. 6D). Staining of the EBL cells cytoskeleton with ghost pen cyclic

peptide highlighted significant morphological alterations, with EBL cells transforming from

spherical to spindle-shaped (Supplementary Fig. 8C).

Additionally, we assessed the expression of EMT-related mRNAs and proteins in EBL cells

after coculture with *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells. This analysis reveald a significant

downregulation of the epithelial cell marker protein *E-cadherin* and a notable upregulation of

mesenchymal markers *N-cadherin* and *MMP-9*, as determined by RT-qPCR and WB (Fig. 6E,

Supplementary Fig. 8D). The coculture with, *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells enhanced the

migratory and invasive properties of EBL cells, as demonstrated by Transwell assay (Figs. 6F and

G).

To confirm the impact of *RBMX2* knockout on the EMT process in the coculture model, we

observed that *RBMX2* knockout cells exhibited significant upregulation of the epithelial cell

marker protein *E-cadherin* and downregulation of the mesenchymal cell marker *N-cadherin* and

MMP-9 compared to WT EBL cells, as shown by RT-qPCR and WB (Fig. 6H and Supplementary Fig.

7E). Wound healing and Transwell assays demonstrated that the migration and invasion rates of

RBMX2 knockout cells were markedly lower than those of WT EBL cells (Figs. 6I, J, and K).

Finally, we silenced RBMX2 in the human lung cancer epithelial cell line H1299, which

expresses high levels of RBMX2, to assess the effect on EMT-related proteins, as well as invasion

and migration ability following *M. bovis* infection. The results indicated that RBMX2 significantly

inhibited the EMT process in H1299 cells post-infection (Supplementary Figs. 9A and B).

In conclusion, we successfully established a coculture model involving *M. bovis*-infected

BoMac cells that induce EMT in EBL cells, thereby demonstrating that the host factor *RBMX2*

effectively promotes the EMT process in this context.

***RBMX2* facilitates the EMT process via the *p65/MMP-9* pathway**

EMT enhances the migration and invasion capabilities of tumor cells [35-37]. Both p65 and

MAPK/p38/JNK pathways have been shown to regulate the EMT process through various

mechanisms. [38-41].   To elucidate the precise regulatory role of *RBMX2* in the EMT process within

the coculture model of EBL cells, we assessed the *MAPK* pathway and p65 protein levels via WB.

Our findings revealed a significant reduction in the phosphorylation of *p65* and *MAPK/p38/JNK* in

RBMX2 knockout cells infected with *M. bovis,* compared to WT EBL cells (Supplementary Fig. 9C).

To identify the specific signaling pathways regulating the EMT phenotype involving p65 and

MAPK/p38/JNK in the coculture model, RBMX2 knockout EBL cells were treated with PMA,

Anisomycin, and ML141. Our results showed that p65 suppresses E-cadherin expression while

enhancing MMP-9 expression (Fig. 7A). Activation of the MAPK/p38 pathway inhibits E-cadherin

expression and promotes N-cadherin expression. In contrast, the MAPK/JNK pathway suppresses

N-cadherin expression while enhancing the expression of both E-cadherin and MMP-9.

Furthermore, a comprehensive analysis of the relationship between pathway activation and

cellular migration and invasion revealed that activation of the p65 pathway increases the

migratory and invasive abilities of EBL cells, as demonstrated by Transwell assays (Figs. 7B and C)

and wound-healing assays (Figs. 7D and E).

Invasion and migration are critical stages in tumor development, influenced by

p65-dependent factors such as matrix metalloproteinases, urokinase fibrinogen activators, and

interleukin-8 [42-46]. To further substantiate the correlation between the p65 protein and the

regulation of the EMT process in EBL cells post-*M. bovis* infection, we employed siRNA to inhibit

p65 expression in WT EBL cells. This suppression was found to inhibit *MMP-9* expression, as

demonstrated by WB (Figs. 7F and G).

To thoroughly verify the regulatory mechanism between RBMX2 and p65, we initiated our

investigation by conducting an in-depth analysis of the RBMX2 promoter region to identify

potential interactions with the transcription factor p65. Initially, we performed molecular docking

simulations to predict the binding affinity and interaction patterns between RBMX2 and p65

proteins. These simulations revealed multiple amino acid residues within the RBMX2 protein that

formed strong, stable interactions with p65. The docking analysis yielded a high docking score of

1978.643 (Fig. 7K), indicating a significant likelihood of a direct physical interaction between

these two proteins.

To complement the protein-protein interaction analysis, we next investigated whether p65

could directly bind to the promoter region of the RBMX2 gene at the transcriptional level. Using

the JASPAR database, a comprehensive resource for transcription factor binding profiles, we

queried the RBMX2 promoter sequence for potential p65 binding sites. This analysis identified

several putative binding motifs, suggesting that p65 may act as a transcriptional regulator of

RBMX2 expression.

To experimentally validate this transcriptional regulatory relationship, we employed a

dual-luciferase reporter assay. We cloned the RBMX2 promoter region containing the predicted

p65 binding sites into a luciferase reporter plasmid. This construct was then co-transfected into

cultured cells along with a plasmid expressing p65. The luciferase activity was significantly

increased in cells expressing p65 compared to control groups, providing functional evidence that

p65 enhances the transcriptional activity of the RBMX2 promoter (Fig. 7I).

Furthermore, to confirm the direct binding of p65 to the RBMX2 promoter in a chromatin

context, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by quantitative PCR (ChIP-qPCR).

In this assay, we used specific antibodies against p65 to immunoprecipitate chromatin fragments

containing p65-bound DNA. The enriched DNA fragments were then analyzed using primers

targeting the RBMX2 promoter region. Our results demonstrated a significant enrichment of the

RBMX2 promoter in the p65 immunoprecipitated samples compared to the IgG control, thereby

confirming that p65 physically associates with the RBMX2 promoter in vivo (Fig. 7J). Collectively,

these findings-ranging from computational docking predictions to transcriptional reporter assays

and ChIP validation-provide strong evidence supporting a direct regulatory interaction between

p65 and RBMX2. This regulatory mechanism may play a critical role in the biological pathways

involving these two molecules, particularly in contexts such as inflammation, immune response,

or cellular stress, where p65 (a subunit of NF-κB) is known to be prominently involved.

Moreover, MMP-9 is known to induce EMT in epithelial cells, enhancing their invasiveness.

The regulatory mechanisms involving p65 and *MMP-9* have been documented in several studies

[47, 48].   In our research, we identified multiple binding sites in the promoter sequences of p65 and

MMP-9 through molecular docking (Fig. 7L) and confirmed the biding site between *MMP-9*

promoter and *p65* protein via Chip-PCR (Fig. 7M). Using protein docking, we validated the

relationship between bovine p65 protein and MMP-9, with a binding score of 1784.378 (Fig. 7N).

In summary, *RBMX2* facilitates the EMT process of EBL cells following *M. bovis* infection by

activating the *p65/MMP-9* pathway.

Discussion

The resurgence of *M. bovis*-associated TB presents a substantial global challenge, affecting

both livestock and human populations. Notably, *M. bovis* exhibits over 99% nucleotide similarity

with *M. tb* [49]. The pathogenesis of TB is complex process influenced by a confluence of bacterial,

host, and environmental factors. Both *M. tb* and *M. bovis* have evolved sophisticated strategies to

evade host immune responses, enabling their long-term intracellular persistence. It is estimated

that approximately one-third of the global population harbors latent TB infections [50, 51].

The successful establishment of infection by mycobacteria is contingent upon their ability to

circumvent   early   innate   immune   defenses,   employing   both   transcriptional   and

post-transcriptional regulatory strategies within host macrophages [52-56]. Despite notable

advancements in the field, unraveling the mechanisms of immune evasion and understanding the

dynamics of latent infections caused by *M. tb* and *M. bovis* remains a substantial challenge. The

cellular immune response to these pathogens is inherently complex, further compounded by the

microdiversity of mycobacteria within individual hosts and the variability of immune responses

among different individuals [54, 57].

Lung epithelial cells serve as the primary physical barrier against infection and play a pivotal

role in the innate immune response. These cells not only function as a frontline defense but also

recruit and activate antigen-presenting cells, such as macrophages, to initiate adaptive immune

responses against *M. bovis* infection [58, 59]. Given that alveolar epithelial cells can act as reservoirs

for *M. bovis*, their role in the infection process is particularly significant. Additionally, activated

macrophages and neutrophils enhance the bactericidal effects of alveolar epithelial cells, further

contributing to the host's defense mechanisms [60, 61].

In our study, we employed a CRISPR-Cas9 mutant library generated in our laboratory to

explore potential host factors involved in M. bovis infection. Notably, we identified RBMX2 as a

protein that significantly promotes M. bovis infection. The *RBMX2* protein, characterized by an

RNA recognition motif within its 56-134 amino acid residue region, is implicated in mRNA splicing

through spliceosomes and is emerging as a potential molecular marker for sperm activity. [62]. The

downregulation of RBMX2 in the X chromosome of lung telocytes suggests its involvement in

cellular immunity [63].

Further exploration of RBM genes in cattle revealed that EIF3G, RBM14, RBM42, RBMX44,

RBM17, PUF60, SART3, and RBM25 belong to the same subfamily as RBMX2. Previous studies

have demonstrated that genes within this subfamily can regulate the proliferation and lifecycle of

cancer cells. For instance, EIF3G modulates the mTOR signaling pathway, inhibiting the

proliferation and metastasis of bladder cancer cells [64]. Similarly, RBM14 has been linked to the

reprogramming of glycolysis in lung cancer, acting as a novel epigenetically activated oncogene [60].

Despite these insights, the specific function of RBMX2 in the context of *M. bovis* infection and its

potential role in cancer pathogenesis remain largely unexplored.

Our findings reveal that *RBMX2* is upregulated in TB-infected cells, demonstrating its

capacity to enhance *M. bovis* infection. Transcriptomic analyses suggest that *RBMX2* may disrupt

tight junctions within epithelial cells and promote EMT following *M. bovi*s infection.

Epithelial cells serve as more than passive barriers; they actively participate in innate

immunity by regulating cytokine secretion and maintaining barrier integrity [61]. Disruptions in

epithelial tight junctions, often exacerbated by pro-inflammatory stimuli from pathogenic

bacteria, can facilitate bacterial translocation and subsequent infection [61] [65, 66]

In our experiments, we observed that the disruption of the epithelial barrier facilitated *M.*

bovis adhesion and invasion. Conversely, the knockout of RBMX2 stabilized the epithelial barrier,

attenuating *M. bovis* invasion and intracellular survival. This stabilization also mitigated

downstream innate immune responses, reducing cellular inflammation, ROS production, and

apoptosis.

The loss of tight junction integrity is a precursor to EMT, a process increasingly recognized

for its role in cancer progression [20, 65-67]. Recent studies have established a link between bacterial

infections and EMT induction, particularly in the context of gastric adenocarcinomas [68, 69].

Epidemiological evidence suggests that TB may serve as a risk factor for lung cancer [70, 71];

however, the underlying cellular mechanisms remain elusive. Chronic TB infection has been

implicated in lung carcinogenesis, with reports indicating that BCG vaccination can enhance the

survival of tumor cells under inflammatory conditions [72] [73]. There is growing epidemiological

evidence suggesting that chronic TB infection represents a potential risk factor for the

development of lung cancer. Studies have shown that individuals with a history of TB exhibit a

significantly increased risk of lung cancer, particularly in areas of the lung with pre-existing

fibrotic scars, indicating that chronic inflammation, tissue repair, and immune microenvironment

remodeling may collectively contribute to malignant transformation [74]. Moreover, EMT not only

endows epithelial cells with mesenchymal features that enhance migratory and invasive capacity

but is also associated with the acquisition of cancer stem cell-like properties and therapeutic

resistance [75]. Therefore, EMT may serve as a crucial molecular link connecting chronic TB

infection with the malignant transformation of lung epithelial cells, warranting further

investigation in the intersection of infection and tumorigenesis.

Moreover, *M. tb*-infected THP-1 cells have been shown to induce EMT in lung

adenocarcinoma epithelial cells [76]. Chronic infection with *M. tb* is associated with oxidative stress

and inflammatory cytokine production, fostering an environment conducive to tumor progression

[77, 78]. Our analysis of RBMX2 across various cancers revealed increased expression levels in lung

adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and lung squamous cell carcinoma (LUSC), suggesting a conserved role in

tumor biology across species.

In light of these findings, we constructed a model of *M. bovis* infection in EBL cells to

investigate EMT induction. Initial results indicated that *M. bovis* alone did not induce EMT;

however, a co-culture model incorporating *M. bovis*-infected BoMac cells successfully induced

EMT in EBL cells. Notably, the knockout of RBMX2 in this context inhibited EMT, suggesting that

RBMX2 may elevate the risk of lung cancer through EMT induction following *M. bovis* infection.

Meanwhile, metabolic pathways enriched after RBMX2 knockout, such as nucleotide metabolism,

nucleotide sugar synthesis, and pentose interconversion, primarily support cell proliferation and

migration during EMT by providing energy precursors, regulating glycosylation modifications, and

maintaining redox balance; cofactor synthesis and amino sugar metabolism participate in EMT

regulation through influencing metabolic remodeling and extracellular matrix interactions;

chemokine and cGMP-PKG signaling pathways may further mediate inflammatory responses and

cytoskeletal rearrangements, collectively promoting the EMT process.

In summary, RBMX2 drives TB pathogenesis by compromising epithelial barriers and

inducing EMT. Targeting RBMX2 may present a promising avenue for the prevention and

treatment of TB in both humans and animals. Additionally, the effective modulation of *RBMX2*

could potentially mitigate the incidence of TB-associated EMT and its implications for lung cancer

development in the near future.

Conclusion

Our research findings indicate that RBMX2 significantly enhances the invasive capacity of

Mycobacterium bovis by promoting the activation and nuclear translocation of the p65 protein.

This activation compromises the integrity of the epithelial cell barrier and induces

epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) through the p65/MMP-9 signaling pathway. These

results highlight the crucial role of RBMX2 in M. bovis pathogenesis and underscore its potential

as   a   therapeutic   target   for   preventing   infection-related

complications.

Methods

Patients and lung tissues

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region People's Hospital, and written informed consent was obtained from all participating patients (Approval Number: No. 2020021). A total of 35 specimens of lung cancer tissue, along with adjacent normal lung tissue, were collected. We randomly selected the above specimens, including age and gender. All patients involved in this study had not received any medication, chemotherapy, or radiation therapy prior to surgical resection. The samples were subsequently prepared for immunohistochemistry (IHC) and fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) assays.

Bovine clinical tissues

This project has received approval from the Experimental Animal Ethics Center of Huazhong Agricultural University (Approval Number: HZAUCA-2024-0014). Following examination by researchers at the National Animal Tuberculosis Professional Laboratory (Wuhan), bovine tuberculosis tissue samples were collected from the lungs and livers of slaughtered cattle, with each specimen measuring at least 5 cm × 5 cm × 5 cm and specifically including tissues exhibiting tuberculous lesions.

Cell lines

EBL and 293T RRID:CVCL_0063 cells were generously provided by M. Heller from Friedrich-Loeffler-Institute. These cells were cultured in heat-inactivated 10% fetal bovine serum supplemented with Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM, Gibco, USA) at 37°C and 5% CO_2 [79]. BoMac cells were kindly provided by Judith R. Stabel from the Johne's Disease Research Project at the United States Department of Agriculture in Ames, Iowa, and were maintained according to previously established protocols [80]. BoMac cells were grown in heat-inactivated 10% fetal bovine serum supplemented with Roswell Park Memorial Institute 1640 (RPMI 1640, Gibco, USA) at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Bovine lung alveolar primary cells were isolated in our laboratory and cultured in heat-inactivated 10% fetal bovine serum supplemented with DMEM (Gibco, USA) at 37°C and 5% CO_2. BEAS-2B RRID:CVCL_0168, NCIH1299, NCIH460 RRID:CVCL_0459, and CALU1 epithelial cells were all provided by Professor Shi Lei from Lanzhou University, and all culture

procedures were conducted according to standardized protocols. We conduct regular testing on

all cell lines to eliminate contamination from mycoplasma and black fungus.

Bacterium

M. bovis (ATCC:19210), originally isolated from a cow, is maintained in this laboratory. *M.*

smegmatis mc^{2}155 (NC_008596.1) and *M. bovis* BCG-Pasteur (ATCC:35734) were generously

provided by Professor Luiz Bermudez from Oregon State University. All strains were cultured in a

Middlebrook 7H9 broth (BD, MD, USA) supplemented with 0.5% glycerol (Sigma, MO, USA), 10%

oleic acid–albumin–dextrose–catalase (OADC, BD, USA) and 0.05% Tween 80 (Sigma, MO, USA) or

on Middlebrook 7H11 agar plates (BD, MD, USA) containing 0.5% glycerol (Sigma, MO, USA) and

10% OADC (BD).

Prior to infection, the optical densities of bacterial cultures at 600 nm (OD600) were

adjusted to the required MOI using the standard turbidimetric card. The cultures were then

centrifuged at 3,000 g for 10 min. The precipitated bacteria were resuspended in medium and

dispersed using an insulin syringe. Subsequently, 50 μL of 10-fold serially diluted bacterial

suspension was plated onto Middlebrook 7H11 agar to determine the number of viable bacteria

(colony-forming units, CFUs). All experiments involving *M. bovis* were conducted in strict

accordance with the biosafety protocols established for the Animal Biosafety Level 3 Laboratory

of the National Key Laboratory of Agricultural Microbiology at Huazhong Agricultural University.

E. coli (ATCC:25922) was donated by Professors Zhou Rui and Wang Xiangru of Huazhong

Agricultural University, while *Salmonella* (ATCC:14028) has been preserved and passed down

through generations in our laboratory. These strains were resuscitated, and single colonies were

purified, cultured, and grown in Luria–Bertani broth.

Generation of the *RBMX2*-KO EBL cells

The small guide RNA (sgRNA) sequence targeting the bovine RBMX2 gene (5 '

-GAATGAGCGTGAGGTCGAAC-3 ') was cloned into the lentiviral vector

pKLV2-U6gRNA5(BbsI)-PGKpuro2ABFP (#67991), kindly provided by Professor Zhao Shuhong from

Huazhong Agricultural University, to generate the recombinant lentivirus. EBL cells were infected

with either the RBMX2-targeting lentivirus or the empty vector lentivirus as a negative control. At

48 to 60 hours post-infection (hpi), puromycin (2.0 mg/mL) was added to select for stably

transduced cells. Positive clones were subsequently enriched and monoclonal cell lines were

obtained through limiting dilution. Successful knockout of RBMX2 was confirmed by PCR

analysis..Table S1

sgRNA	sequence
sgRNA- F	5'-CCTTGCCCAATTTTTCGGAGG-3'
sgRNA- R	5'-ACAGGAGGATGGTAGTAACGG-3'

Extraction of total RNA and RT-qPCR

Cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, HyClone, China) was used to wash the cells three times,

after which 1 mL of Trizol (Invitrogen, USA) was added per well to lyse the cells. The lysate was

collected in EP tubes, and 200 μL of chloroform was subsequently added. The mixture was

vortexed for 30 seconds and then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 10 minutes at 4°C. Following

centrifugation, 500 μL of the supernatant was transferred to a new EP tube. To this supernatant,

500 μL of isopropanol was added and mixed gently by inversion. The mixture was allowed to

stand for 10 minutes at 4°C before being centrifuged again at 12,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4°C.

The supernatant was discarded, revealing the RNA pellet. Next, the RNA pellet was washed with

1 mL of 75% ethanol and centrifuged at 7,500 rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was

removed, and the RNA pellet was air-dried for 15 minutes. Subsequently, 20 μL of DEPC-treated

water was added, and the mixture was incubated at 58°C in a water bath for 10 minutes to

dissolve the RNA. Purified RNA was then obtained.

To assess RNA purity, the OD260/OD280 ratio was measured using a NanoDrop ND-1000

instrument (Agilent Inc., USA), with values between 1.8 and 2.0 indicating acceptable purity. RNA

integrity and potential contamination with genomic DNA were evaluated using denaturing

agarose gel electrophoresis. The samples were stored at -80°C for later analysis.

Reverse transcription of the RNA samples was performed using HiScript III RT SuperMix for

qPCR (+gDNA wiper, Vazyme, China). Four microliters of 4× gDNA wiper mix were added to 1 μg

of RNA, followed by the addition of 16 μL of RNase-free ddH2O. The mixture was incubated at

42°C for 2 minutes to eliminate genomic DNA. Reverse transcription was subsequently carried

out by adding 4 μL of 5× HiScript III qRT SuperMix, with the mixture incubated at 37°C for 15

minutes and then at 85°C for 5 seconds to synthesize cDNA.

cDNA expression across different sample groups was quantified using AceQ qPCR SYBR

Green Master Mix (Vazyme, China) in a ViiA7 real-time PCR machine (Applied Biosystems Inc.,

USA). The final volume of each real-time PCR reaction was 20 μL, comprising 10 μL of 2× AceQ

qPCR SYBR Green Master Mix, 0.4 μL of upstream primer (10 μM), 0.4 μL of downstream primer

(10 μM), 0.4 μL of 50× ROX reference dye 2, 3 μL of cDNA template, and 5.8 μL of ddH$_2$O. The PCR

conditions were as follows: 95°C for 5 minutes (1 cycle), 95°C for 10 seconds (40 cycles), and 60°C

for 30 seconds (40 cycles). The primer sequences for RT-qPCR are provided in Table S2.

Table S2

Number	Primer	Sequence
1	Bovine-β-actin-F	5'-AGCAAGCAGGAGTACGATGAG-3'
2	Bovine-β-actin-R	5'-ATCCAACCGACTGCTGTCA-3'
3	Human-β-actin -F	5'- CACCATTGGCAATGAGCGGTTC-3'
4	Human-β-actin -R	5'- AGGTCTTTGCGGATGTCCACGT-3'
5	Bovine-RBMX2-F	5'-TCCCACCGGCACAAAAAGTC-3'
6	Bovine-RBMX2-R	5'-TCAGTGATACCTGAGCTCCC-3'
7	Human-RBMX2-F	5'-ACCCCCTCACCAAGTTTGTC-3'
8	Human-RBMX2-R	5'-GTGCTTCTTAGGGCCAGTGT-3'
9	Bovine-HSPB8-F-1	5'-GACCAAGGACGGATACGTGG-3'
10	Bovine-HSPB8-R-1	5'-AGTTCTTGGAGACGATGCCC-3'
11	Bovine-ST14-F-1	5'-CTCGGCGCTGGATTCAAGTA-3'
12	Bovine-ST14-R-1	5'-CAAGAACTCCACGCCTTCCT-3'
13	Bovine-MUC16-F-1	5'-TGTGCATGTGACAGCAGAGC-3'
14	Bovine-MUC16-R-1	5'-CTGGAAACTGGGAGTGGTCG-3'
15	Bovine-TNC-F-1	5'-TGGCATCGGAGAATGCCTTT-3'

16	Bovine-TNC-R-1	5'-CAGCTTCCTCTGGGTTCCTG-3'
17	Bovine-GPX2-F-1	5'-ACCCGTTTTCCCTCATGACC-3'
18	Bovine-GPX2-R-1	5'-CGGCCCAATGAGGAACTTCT-3'
19	Bovine-THBS2-F-1	5'-GGGGACGCTTGTAAAGACGA-3'
20	Bovine-THBS2-R-1	5'-AATCTGAGTGGTGCCCTTGG-3'
21	Bovine-IL-7-F-1	5'-GCAATTGCCTGAATAACGAACCT-3'
22	Bovine-IL-7-R-1	5'-TTACCCTTGCTGGTGCAGTT-3'
23	Bovine-IL-24-F-1	5'-GACGCCTGCCCAACTTTCTT-3'
24	Bovine-IL-24-R-1	5'-AAGGGATGCTTGAGGGCTTG-3'
25	Bovine-FRMD4B-F-1	5'-CAGAGACAGGAGCACCAAGG-3'
26	Bovine-FRMD4B-R-1	5'-TTAAACTGCCGTTGCTTGCC-3'
27	Bovine-OMD-F-1	5'-GCTCAACGTTGGACACAACA-3'
28	Bovine-OMD-R-1	5'-AGCTTATTGGCGCTTTCAGC-3'
29	Bovine-NOS3-F-1	5'-GTTCCCTCGCGTGAAGAACT-3'
30	Bovine-NOS3-R-1	5'-CTGGTTGATGAAGTCCCTGGC-3'
31	Bovine-MCTP1-F-1	5'-AGTTCCGACTTGGGCATCAG-3'
32	Bovine-MCTP1-R-1	5'-TACTGAGAGCCGACAGGTCA-3'
33	Bovine-MFAP5-F-1	5'-TGATATCCAGCCTTCCACCG-3'
34	Bovine-MFAP5-R-1	5'-CCGATGCACGGAGTAGAGTC-3'
35	Bovine-MMP-9-1-F	5'-CGCTATGGCTACACTCCTGG-3'
36	Bovine-MMP-9-1-R	5'-TGAGTTCGCCCTCAAAGGTC-3'
37	Bovine-N-cadherin-1-F	5'-CACTGCGATTGATGCTGACG-3'
38	Bovine-N-cadherin-1-R	5'-TGCCACCGTGATAATGTCCC-3'
39	Bovine-E-cadherin 1-F	5'-CAGAAGATGACACCCGGGAC-3'
40	Bovine-E-cadherin 1-R	5'-AGCATCCAGGCCCCTATGTA-3'
41	Bovine-CLDN-5-F-1	5'-CCTGGACCACAACATCGTGA-3'
42	Bovine-CLDN-5-R-1	5'-GGAGTCGTACACCTTGCACT-3'
43	Bovine-OCLN-F-1	5'-CTTTCAAAAAGGGCTCCCGC-3'

44	Bovine-OCLN-R-1	5'-TGGATATTCCCTGATCCAGTCG-3'
45	Bovine-TJP1-F-1	5'-CTCAAGTTCCTGAAGCCCGT-3'
46	Bovine-TJP1-R-1	5'-TAGGATCACCCGACGAGGAG-3'
47	Bovine-TNF-F-1	5'-GAAGTTGCTTGTGCCTCAGC-3'
48	Bovine-TNF-R-1	5'-AACCAGAGGGCTGTTGATGG-3'
49	Bovine-IL-6-F-1	5'-CTTCTGCTTTCCCTACCCCG-3'
50	Bovine-IL-6-R-1	5'-TTCTGCCAGTGTCTCCTTGC-3'
51	Bovine-IL-1β-F-1	5'-AAAAGCTTCAGGCAGGTGGT-3'
52	Bovine-IL-1β-R-1	5'-AACTCGTCGGAGGACGTTTC-3'

Western blot

RIPA reagent (Sigma, USA), supplemented with protease inhibitors and phosphatase

inhibitors (Roche, China), was added to the cell samples, and the cells were lysed on ice for 30

minutes. The supernatant was collected by centrifugation at 12,000 rpm and 4°C for 10 minutes.

Protein concentrations of each sample were determined using a BCA kit (Beyotime, China), and

the proteins were adjusted to equal concentrations.

The protein samples were mixed with 5× protein loading buffer and boiled for 10 minutes.

Proteins were then separated using SDS-PAGE on 10% polyacrylamide gels at 100 V for 90

minutes, followed by transfer to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore,

Germany) at 100 V for 70 minutes. The PVDF membrane was incubated in 5% skimmed milk for 4

hours to block non-specific binding. The membrane was washed three times with Tris-buffered

saline containing 0.15% Tween-20 (TBST) for 5 minutes each.

Subsequently, the membrane was incubated with a primary antibody at 4°C for 12 hours,

followed by a secondary antibody at room temperature for 1 hour. The following primary

antibodies were utilized: ZO-1 (Bioss, China), OCLN (Proteintech, China), CLADN-5 (Proteintech,

China), MMP-9 (Proteintech, China), E-cadherin (Proteintech, China), N-cadherin (Bioss, China),

LaminA/C (Proteintech, China), β-actin (Bioss, China), p65 (CST, USA), p-p65 (CST, USA), and a

MAPK-related antibody (CST, USA). The following secondary antibodies were used: anti-mouse

HRP secondary antibody and anti-rabbit HRP (Invitrogen, USA).

Phylogenetic tree construction and gene structure and function predictive analysis of the

bovine RBM family

The bovine RBM protein sequences were converted into FASTA format files and imported

into MEGA-X for comparative analysis. The neighbor-joining method was employed to construct

the phylogenetic tree of the CsGRF protein. The iTOL website (https://itol.embl.de/) was utilized

to enhance the visualization of the CsGRF phylogenetic tree. Additionally, the MEME Suite

database (http://meme-suite.org/) was used for the online analysis of conserved motifs within

the RBM gene family.

Adhesion Assay

EBL cells were infected with different live bacteria at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 20

for durations of 15 minutes, 30 minutes, 1 hour, and 2 hours at 4°C. Following infection, the cells

were washed three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Gibco, USA) to remove

extracellular bacteria. After washing, cells were lysed using 0.1% Triton X-100 (Beyotime, China).

The resulting lysates were plated onto 7H11 or LB agar plates and incubated for several days to

enable enumeration of colony-forming units (CFUs).

Invasion Assay

EBL cells were infected with various live bacteria at an MOI of 20 for durations of 2, 4, and 6

hours at 37 °C. After infection, gentamicin (Procell, China) was added at a concentration of 100

μg/mL for 2 hours to eliminate extracellular bacteria. The infected cells were then washed three

times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Gibco, USA) to remove residual extracellular bacteria.

Following thorough washing, the cells were lysed using 0.1% Triton X-100 (Beyotime, China). The

resulting lysates were plated onto 7H11 or LB agar plates and incubated for several days to allow

for colony-forming unit (CFU) enumeration.

Intracellular Survival Assay

EBL cells were infected with various live bacterial strains at a multiplicity of infection (MOI)

of 20 for 6 hours at 37°C. After infection, extracellular bacteria were removed by treating the cells

with gentamicin (100 μg/mL; Procell, China) for 2 hours. The infected cells were then washed

three times with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; Gibco, USA) to eliminate any remaining

extracellular bacteria, marking the 0-hour time point.

Following this, the infected cells were cultured in complete medium supplemented with

0.1% Triton X-100 (Beyotime, China) and harvested at selected time points: 0, 24, 48, and 72

hours post-infection (hpi). Cell lysates were plated onto 7H11 or LB agar plates and incubated for

several days to allow for colony-forming unit (CFU) enumeration.

RNA-Seq, proteomics and metabolomics

We collected cells at different time points after infection, where the cells at 0 hours were

treated with gentamicin 2 hours post-infection with *M. bovis* to eliminate extracellular bacteria.

Total RNA was isolated using Trizol Reagent (Invitrogen Life Technologies), and the concentration,

quality, and integrity were determined using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific).

Three micrograms of RNA were used as input material for RNA sample preparation. Sequencing

libraries were generated according to the following steps: mRNA was purified from total RNA

using poly-T oligo-attached magnetic beads. Fragmentation was performed using divalent cations

under elevated temperature in an Illumina proprietary fragmentation buffer. First-strand cDNA

was synthesized using random oligonucleotides and Super Script II. Second-strand cDNA synthesis

was subsequently performed using DNA Polymerase I and RNase H. The remaining overhangs

were converted into blunt ends via exonuclease/polymerase activities, and the enzymes were

removed. After adenylation of the 3' ends of the DNA fragments, Illumina PE adapter

oligonucleotides were ligated for hybridization. To select cDNA fragments of the preferred length

of 400–500 bp, the library fragments were purified using the AMPure XP system (Beckman

Coulter, Beverly, CA, USA). DNA fragments with ligated adaptor molecules at both ends were

selectively enriched using the Illumina PCR Primer Cocktail in a 15-cycle PCR reaction. The

products were purified (AMPure XP system) and quantified using the Agilent high-sensitivity DNA

assay on a Bioanalyzer 2100 system (Agilent). The sequencing library was then sequenced on the

NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina) by Shanghai Personal Biotechnology Co., Ltd.

RNA sequencing services were provided by Personal Biotechnology Co., Ltd. Shanghai, China.

The data were analyzed using the free online platform Personalbio GenesCloud

(https://www.genescloud.cn). Proteomics and metabolomics were performed by METWARE.

Differential expression analysis of the transcriptome

The statistical methods of HTSeq (0.9.1) RRID:SCR_005514 were used to compare read count

values for each gene, which served as raw measurements of gene expression, while FPKM

(Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads) was used for data normalization.

Subsequently, differential gene expression analysis was performed using DESeq (1.30.0)

RRID:SCR_000154 under the following screening criteria: |log2FoldChange| > 2 indicated a

significant fold change in expression, and a P-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

The resulting list of differentially expressed genes was used for further functional enrichment and

pathway analysis.

For clustering analysis of differentially expressed genes, the Pheatmap (1.0.8) package in R

was used to perform bidirectional clustering analysis on the expression patterns of all

differentially expressed genes across various samples. The heatmap was constructed based on

the expression levels of the same gene across different samples and the expression patterns of

different genes within the same sample. Distance calculations were based on Euclidean distance,

and complete linkage clustering was used to visualize overall expression differences among

samples and similarities in gene expression patterns.

Moreover, to further enhance the flexibility and reproducibility of data analysis, a localized

analysis workflow was introduced. All raw sequencing data (FASTQ files) underwent quality

control (using FastQC) and were aligned (using STAR or HISAT2) to the reference genome,

followed by gene expression quantification and differential analysis using locally installed HTSeq

and DESeq2 pipelines. This local workflow not only improves the transparency and controllability

of data processing but also enhances data privacy protection, making it particularly suitable for

handling sensitive or large-scale datasets. All analysis parameters were thoroughly documented

to ensure experimental reproducibility and result traceability.

Finally, data analysis was also supported by the free online analytical platform Personalbio

GenesCloud (https://www.genescloud.cn), which provides a graphical interface and efficient

cloud computing resources, supporting differential analysis, functional annotation (GO/KEGG),

gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), and visualization. The results from local and cloud-based

analyses complement each other, ensuring comprehensive and accurate data interpretation.

GO and KEGG enrichment analysis

We mapped all genes to terms in the Gene Ontology (GO) database and calculated the

number of differentially enriched genes for each term. GO enrichment analysis was conducted on

the differentially expressed genes using the topGO package, where P-values were determined

using the hypergeometric distribution method. A threshold of P-value < 0.05 was set to identify

significant enrichment, allowing us to pinpoint GO terms associated with significantly enriched

differential genes and to elucidate the primary biological functions they perform. Additionally, we

employed ClusterProfiler (3.4.4) software to conduct KEGG pathway enrichment analysis for the

differential genes, concentrating on pathways with a P-value < 0.05. The data analysis was carried

out using the free online platform Personalbio GenesCloud (https://www.genescloud.cn).

Flow cytometry assay

Cells were washed with cold PBS and then centrifuged at 1,500 rpm for 5 minutes; the

supernatant was discarded. The cells were fixed in 70% ethanol for 12 hours. Following fixation,

the cells were centrifuged again at 1,500 rpm for 5 minutes, and the supernatant was removed.

The cells were washed once with cold PBS.

For staining, a Cell Cycle and Apoptosis Analysis Kit (Beyotime, China) was utilized. The

staining mixture was prepared with a total volume of 535 µL, comprising 500 µL of staining buffer,

25 µL of PI dye, and 10 µL of RNase A. The samples were incubated with the staining mixture at

37°C for 30 minutes prior to detection.

Cell viability assay

EBL cells were infected with *M. bovis* at an MOI of 100. Cell viability was assessed at 48, 72,

96, 120, and 144 hpi using the CCK-8 assay (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan).

At each time point, fresh medium containing 10% CCK-8 was added to a 96-well cell plate

and incubated for 60 minutes at 37°C. The cell viability was then determined by measuring the

absorbance at 450 nm. The percentage of cell viability was calculated using the following

formula:

cell viability (%) = [A (infection group) − A (blank group)] / [A (infection group) A (blank

group)] × 100

Wound-Healing Assay

A wound-healing assay was performed to evaluate the migratory capacity of treated cells

following experimental intervention. Briefly, after a 48-hour co-culture of EBL cells with BoMac

cells post-M. bovis infection, the cells were harvested and dissociated using 1x trypsin.

Approximately 2×10^5 cells were then seeded into each well of a 6-well culture plate and allowed

to adhere until they reached confluence and formed a uniform monolayer.

Once a confluent cell monolayer was achieved, a standardized "wound" was created by

gently scratching the surface of the monolayer along a straight edge using a 200 μL pipette tip. To

remove non-adherent and detached cells, the monolayer was rinsed three times with

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, Gibco, USA). Subsequently, serum-free culture medium was

added to each well to minimize cell proliferation and to better assess cell migration.

Phase-contrast images of the wound area were captured at defined time points-0, 12, and

24 hours-using an inverted microscope. The wound closure rate was quantitatively analyzed using

ImageJ software by measuring the change in wound width over time. The percentage of wound

healing was calculated relative to the initial wound width at time   0.

This assay provided insights into the effects of M. bovis infection and subsequent treatments

on cell migration, a critical component of the wound-healing process.

Cell Adhesion Assay

To evaluate the impact of RBMX2 knockout on the adhesive properties of EBL cells following

M. bovis infection, a cell adhesion assay was performed using a commercially available cell

adhesion detection kit (Bestbio, China), following the manufacturer's instructions.

Matrigel (20 mg/L), used to simulate an extracellular matrix environment, was coated onto

the wells of a 96-well plate at a volume of 100 μL per well. Subsequently, 3 x10^4 cells (from

either RBMX2 knockout or wild-type (WT) EBL cell lines) were seeded into each well and

incubated for 6 hours in a CO_2 incubator at 37°C to allow cell attachment.

Following incubation, non-adherent cells were gently removed by washing the wells twice

with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Adherent cells were then fixed and stained with 10 μL of

cell stain solution A per well and incubated for an additional 2 hours at 37 °C.

The absorbance was measured at 560 nm using a microplate reader to quantify the intensity

of staining, which correlates with the number of adhered cells. The results were used to compare

the adhesive capacities of RBMX2 knockout versus wild-type EBL cells under the experimental

conditions.

This assay provided a quantitative assessment of cell-matrix adhesion, offering insights into

the potential role of RBMX2 in modulating cell adhesion during M. bovis infection.

Transwell Assay

To evaluate the migratory and invasive potential of treated EBL cells, a Transwell assay was

performed using Transwell chambers (Corning, USA). A total of 5 x 10^4 cells suspended in 200

μL of serum-free culture medium were seeded into the upper chamber, while 550 μL of complete

medium containing fetal bovine serum was added to the lower chamber to serve as a

chemoattractant.

The cells were allowed to migrate through the membrane for 24 hours in a CO_2 incubator at

37 °C.

Following incubation, the Transwell insert was carefully removed, and the cells on the upper

surface of the membrane were gently wiped away with a cotton swab. The migrated cells on the

lower surface were then fixed by incubation with 550 μL of 4% paraformaldehyde (Beyotime,

China) for 30 minutes at room temperature. After fixation, the cells were stained with 550 μL of

crystal violet solution (Beyotime, China) for an additional 30 minutes to allow for visualization of

the migrated cells.

The stained membrane was rinsed briefly with PBS for 30 seconds to remove excess dye,

air-dried upside down, and then carefully removed from the insert. It was subsequently mounted

onto a glass slide and sealed with neutral balsam to preserve the staining.

Images were captured under a light microscope, and three random fields of view were

selected for analysis. The number of migrated cells was quantified using ImageJ software

(RRID:SCR_003070). The results were used to compare the migratory abilities of different

experimental groups.

This assay provided a quantitative assessment of cell migration, which is essential for

understanding the functional impact of treatments or genetic modifications on cell motility.

Crystal violet staining assay

EBL cells were infected with *M. bovis* at an MOI of 100. The surviving cells on six-well plates

were then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Beyotime, China). After fixation, the cells were

stained with 0.1% crystal violet staining solution (Beyotime, China) and rinsed five times with PBS

(Gibco, USA). The plates were placed in a 37°C oven for 6 hours before being photographed.

M. bovis infection of BoMac and coculture with EBL cells

BoMac cells were seeded into the upper chamber of a 0.4 μm pore size Transwell (Corning,

USA) at a density of $3×10^4$ cells per insert in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS.

The following day, the cells were infected with *M. bovis* at an MOI of 5 for 4 hours. After infection,

the cells were washed three times with 1× warm PBS and treated with Gentamycin (100 μg/mL)

for 2 hours to eliminate any extracellular bacilli.

The infected and uninfected BoMac cells were then incubated for 24 hours to mitigate the

effects of *M. bovis* infection. Afterward, the cells underwent an additional 24-hour incubation

period in fresh RPMI 1640 medium before coculturing with EBL cells.

In parallel, EBL cells were seeded at a density of $2×10^5$ cells per well onto 12-well plates

containing DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS. The following day, culture inserts containing

either *M. bovis*-infected or uninfected BoMac cells were introduced into the wells of the 12-well

plates containing EBL cells, and the coculture was incubated for up to 24 and 48 hours in

serum-free DMEM.

Small interfering RNA (siRNA) transfection

EBL cells were transfected with p65 siRNA (Tsingke, China) using jetPRIME (Polyplus, France)

following the manufacturer's instructions. Scrambled siRNA (Tsingke, China) served as a negative

control.

Cells were seeded in 12-well plates and cultured at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. To prepare

the transfection mixture, 0.8 µg of jetPRIME was incubated with 1 µL of siRNA for 10 minutes.

This mixture was then added to the cells and incubated for 12 hours.

Following the incubation, RNA extraction was performed, and the efficiency of transfection

was calculated.

The siRNA sequences used were as follows:

Cattle p65-1 siRNA, sense 5'-GCAGUUUGAUACCGAUGAA (dT)(dT)-3';

Cattle p65-1 siRNA, antisense 5'-UUCAUCGGUAUCAAACUGC (dT)(dT)-3';

Cattle p65-2 siRNA, sense 5'-GGACGUACGAGACCUUCAA (dT)(dT)-3';

Cattle p65-2 siRNA, antisense 5'-UUGAAGGUCUCGUACGUCC (dT)(dT)-3'.

P65 nuclear translocation assay

For the p65 nuclear translocation assay, RBMX2 knockout and wild-type cell lines were

transfected with the pCMV-EGFP-p65 plasmid. Following transfection, bovine lung epithelial cells

were infected with *M. bovis*.

After infection, the cell nuclei were stained with Hoechst dye. The entry of p65 into the

nucleus was analyzed at different time points using a confocal high-resolution cell imaging

analysis system from PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences Ltd. (Britain). This imaging

technique allowed for the assessment of p65 translocation into the nucleus in response to

infection.

CHIP-PCR

Formaldehyde cross-linking and ultrasonic fragmentation of cells were performed. One plate

of cells was removed, and the volume of the culture medium was measured. 37% formaldehyde

was added to achieve a final concentration of 1%, and the plates were incubated at 37°C for 10

minutes. Glycine (2.5 M) was then added to the plates at a final concentration of 125 mM to

terminate cross-linking. After mixing, the culture medium was left at room temperature for 5

minutes, and the cells were cleaned three times with cold PBS. The cells were scraped off with

PBS, centrifuged at 2,000g for 5 minutes, and the supernatant was removed. IP lysis solution

containing a protease inhibitor was added to lyse the cells (the amount of lysis solution

depending on the amount of cell precipitation), and the mixture was fully lysed on ice for 30

minutes, with the cells being repeatedly blown with a gun or shaken on a vortex mixer to ensure

complete lysis.

After sonication, the mixture was centrifuged at 12,000 rpm at 4°C for 10 minutes to remove

insoluble substances and collect the supernatant. 90 μL of the input was retained, and the rest

was stored at −80°C. To confirm the presence of the target protein in the sample, 40 μL of the

ultrasonic crushing product was taken, mixed with 10 μL of L5 reduced protein loading buffer, and

heated for denaturation before performing Western blot detection.

For the remaining 50 μL of the product, 5 μL of Protease K and 2 μL of 5M NaCl (final NaCl

concentration of 0.2M) were added and incubated at 55°C overnight for cross-linking. After

cross-linking, the nucleic acid concentration was measured, and a portion of the sample was

taken for PCR amplification, followed by agarose gel electrophoresis to detect the effectiveness of

ultrasonic fragmentation and confirm the presence of the target DNA. After verifying the Input

result, 100 μL of the ultrasonic crushing products was frozen at −80°C.

Next, 900 μL of ChIP Diffusion Buffer containing 1 mM PMSF and 20 μL of 50% of 1× PIC was

added, along with an additional 60 μL of Protein A+G Agarose/Salmon Sperm DNA. The mixture

was stirred at 4°C for 1 hour, allowed to stand at 4°C for 10 minutes to precipitate, and then

centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 5 minutes. The sample was divided into two 1.5 mL EP tubes; the

target protein IP antibody was added to one tube, while IgG (1 μg of the corresponding species)

was added to the other. The samples were shaken overnight at 4°C for precipitation and cleaning

of immune complexes.

After the overnight incubation, 200 μL of Protein A+G Agarose/Salmon Sperm DNA was

added to each tube, shaken at 4°C for 2 hours, allowed to stand at 4°C for 10 minutes, and then

centrifuged at 4,000 rpm for 1 minute. The supernatant was removed, and 8 μL of 5M NaCl and

20 μL of Protein K were added for overnight cross-linking at 55°C. Using databases like JASPAR to

predict transcription factor binding sites, primers were designed and synthesized based on these

binding sites. RT-PCR was employed to verify the binding, and after amplification, the products

were taken for gel electrophoresis to confirm the correct fragment size (Table S3).

Table S3

Gene name	Sequence
MMP9	5'-AGGCACTGAAGGAATGAGGC-3'
	5'-CCCCGCTTGGTGGAAAT-3'
RBMX2	5'-CTGACAGGAGGACCAGAGTTT-3'
	5'-TGCCTAGTTGTAGGGTTGAAGT-3'

Dual-luciferase reporter assay

293T cells in the logarithmic growth phase were adjusted to a density of 5×10^4 cells/mL and

inoculated into 48-well cell culture plates, with 300 cells per well. Each concentration gradient

was represented by three replicate wells. On the second day after plating, when the cells reached

a density of approximately 60-70%, transfection was performed with the following experimental

groups: pGL4.10 RRID:Addgene_72684 basic+pRL TK+Over NC, pGL4.10 basic+pRL TK+Over p65,

pGL4.10-*RBMX2*-WT+pRL TK+Over NC, pGL4.10-*RBMX2*-WT+pRL TK+Over p65,

pGL4.10-*RBMX2*-MUT+pRL TK+Over NC, pGL4.10-*RBMX2*-MUT+pRL TK+Over p65. Transfection

complexes were prepared, and dual-luciferase detection was carried out 48 hours

post-transfection.

For cell lysis, the cell culture medium was removed, and the cells were gently rinsed twice

with PBS. Then, 50 μL of 1× PLB lysis solution was added to each well, and the plates were placed

on a shaking table at room temperature for 15 minutes to ensure complete lysis.

From each sample, 20 μL was taken for measurement. To assess Firefly luciferase activity,

100 μL of Firefly luciferase detection reagent (LAR II reagent, Promega, USA) was added, mixed

well, and the relative light unit (RLU1) was measured. After this, 100 μL of Sea Kidney luciferase

detection reagent (1× Stop&Glo® Reagent, Promega, USA) was added, mixed thoroughly, and the

relative light unit (RLU2) was measured.

The activation level of the target reporter genes was compared between different samples

by calculating the ratio of RLU1 from the Firefly luciferase assay to RLU2 from the Sea Kidney

luciferase assay.

Protein docking

Molecular docking simulations were conducted to predict the formation of stable complexes

between proteins RBMX2 or MMP9 with p65. The aligned sequences of RBMX2, MMP9, and p65

proteins were sourced from the UniProt RRID:SCR_002380 database. Their three-dimensional

structures were predicted using AlphaFold and refined by constructing the structures in Avogadro.

The structures were then optimized using the MMFF94 force field and exported in PDB format for

further optimization in Gauss09.

The docking of the proteins was performed using Hdock, where each protein was treated

separately as the receptor and ligand to assess their interactions [81]. The resulting docking

affinities were annotated to provide insight into the binding interactions. Finally, PyMOL

RRID:SCR_000305 was utilized to visualize the binding interaction geometries, allowing for a

detailed examination of the molecular interactions between the proteins.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed on all assays conducted in triplicate, with data expressed

as the mean ± standard error of the mean. Each experiment was independently repeated three

times. GraphPad Prism 7.0 RRID:SCR_002798 (La Jolla) was utilized for statistical analysis,

employing a two-tailed unpaired t-test with Welch's correction for comparisons between two

groups. For comparisons among multiple groups, one-way or two-way ANOVA was applied,

followed by the LSD test. Statistical significance was indicated at four levels: not significant (ns

presents $p > 0.05$), * presents $p < 0.05$, ** presents $p < 0.01$, and ***   presents $p < 0.001$.

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Author Contributions

YC and AG contributed to the conception and design of the study. CW, YP and HY carried out

the experiment and wrote sections of the manuscript and made equal contribution. YJ, AK, ZY, KZ,

and SX were involved in bacterial and cell research studies. CW, YP, HY, SX, LB, LZ, YY, and HC

performed the statistical analysis. CW, AG, and YC wrote the manuscript with all authors

providing feedback. All authors contributed to manuscript revision, proof-reading, and approval

of the submitted version.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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FIGURE 1| Expression of *RBMX2* after infection, and *RBMX2* did not affect cell proliferation but
inhibited cell survival during *M. bovis* infection.
(A, B) The expression of *RBMX2* in EBL cells infected by (A) *M. bovis* and (B) *M. bovis* BCG were
analyzed by RT-qPCR. Data were represented by fold expression relative to uninfected cells.
(C,-E) The expression of *RBMX2* mRNA in (E) BoMac cells, (F) A549 cells, and (G) bovine lung
alveolar primary cells infected by *M. bovis* were analyzed via RT-qPCR. Data were represented by
fold expression relative to uninfected cells.
(F) The expression of *RBMX2* in EBL cells infected by *M. bovis was* analyzed by WB. Data were
represented by fold expression relative to uninfected cells.
(G) Detection of the ability of different *RBMX2* knockout site Monoclonal EBL cells against *M.*
bovis infection by CCK-8 assay. Data were represented by the absorbance value relative to WT
EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.
(H) Detection of the ability of *RBMX2* slicing H1299 cells against *M. bovis* infection by CCK-8
assay. Data were represented by the absorbance value relative to Sh-NC H1299 cells after *M.*

bovis infection.

One-way ANOVA and two-way ANOVA were used to determine the statistical significance of

differences between different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$,

presents $p < 0.01$, and * presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data

were representative of at least three independent experiments.

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FIGURE 2| Transcriptome and proteomic analysis in *RBMX2* knockout and WT EBL cells after *M.

bovis infection.**

(A) The heat map illustrates some genes that had been all enriched in RBMX2 knockout and WT

EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection in 0 (2 hpi post-gentamicin, recorded as 0 hpi), 24, and 48hpi.

Red represents upregulated genes, and blue represents downregulated genes. Each group

represented three independent samples.

(B) GO Analysis of all enriched genes in 0 (2 hpi post-gentamicin, recorded as 0 hpi), 24 and 48hpi.

Data were represented as all enriched pathways in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to WT EBL

cells after *M. bovis* infection thrice.

(C) KEGG Analysis of all enriched genes in 0 (2 hpi post-gentamicin, recorded as 0 hpi), 24, and

48hpi. Data were represented as all enriched pathways in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to

WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection in three times.

(D) GO Analysis of all enriched proteins in 48hpi. Data were represented as all enriched pathways

in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.

(E) KEGG Analysis of all enriched genes in 48hpi. Data were represented as all enriched pathways

in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis*-infection (MOI 20) in three

times.

(F) Identification the expression of related genes mRNA enriched by RT-qPCR. Data were

represented as the fold expression in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to WT EBL cells after *M.*

bovis infection.

Two-way ANOVA was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between

different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$, **presents $p < 0.01$, and ***

presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences.

FIG3

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FIGURE 3| *RBMX2* had the potential to induce the disruption of tight junctions in EBL cells after

***M. bovis* infection.**

(A, B) KEGG analysis was conducted to identify the (A) down-regulated and (B) up-regulated

pathways among the enriched genes after *M. bovis* infection of WT EBL cells. Data were relative

to WT EBL cells without *M. bovis* infection.

(C, D) The expression of epithelial cells tight junction-related (C) mRNAs (*TJP1*, *CLDN-5*, *CLDN-7*,

and *OCLN*) and (D) proteins (ZO-1, CLDN-5, and OCLN) were assessed after *M. bovis* infection of

WT EBL cells via RT-qPCR and WB. Data were relative to WT EBL cells without *M. bovis* infection.

(E) Cell adhesion ratio was evaluated via cell adhesion assay after WT EBL cells were infected with

M. bovis using High-content imaging. Data were relative to WT EBL cells without *M. bovis*

infection. Scale bar: 20 μm.

(F, G) The expression of epithelial tight junction-related (F) mRNAs (*TJP1*, *CLDN-5*, and *OCLN*) and (G) proteins (ZO-1, CLDN-5, and OCLN) in *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis*-infection through RT-qPCR and WB. Data were relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

(H) Cell adhesion assay was conducted to assess the cell adhesion ratio of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells after infection with *M. bovis*. Data were relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection. Scale bar: 20 μm.

(I) Expression of inflammatory factors-related factors (*IL-6*, *IL-1β*, and *TNF*) were assessed after *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells infected by *M. bovis*. Data were relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

T-test and Two-way ANOVA were used to determine the statistical significance of differences between different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$, **presents $p < 0.01$, and *** presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative of at least three independent experiments.

FIG4

FIGURE 4| *RBMX2* facilitated the disruption of epithelial tight junctions through the promotion of p65 protein phosphorylation and translocation and then enhanced the processes of *M. bovis* adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival.

(A, B) Activation of the MAPK pathway-related protein and p65 protein were activated after *RBMX2* knockout and WT EBL cells infected by *M. bovis* via WB. Data were relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

(C, D) Expression of tight junction-related proteins (ZO-1, CLDN-5, and OCLN) was assessed in *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells treated with three p38/p65/JNK pathways activators after *M. bovis* infection via WB. Data were relative to *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells untreated activators with *M. bovis* infection.

(E, F) Evaluate the impact of three *p38/p65/JNK* pathways activators on the ratio of intercellular adhesion via cell adhesion assay. Data were relative to *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells untreated activators with *M. bovis* infection. Scale bar: 20 μm.

(G, H) Evaluate the silencing efficiency of siRNA on p65 protein expression and its impact on the expression of ZO-1, CLDN-5, and OCLN proteins through WB. Data were relative to SiRNA-NC in WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

(I) The effect of p65 silencing on the invasive ability of *M. bovis* in WT EBL cells. Data were relative to SiRNA-NC in WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

(J) The effect of *RBMX2* on the nuclear translocation of p65 protein after *M. bovis* infection using WB. β-actin presents cytosol and Lamin A/C presents nucleus. Data were relative to RBMX2 knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.

(K) The effect of *RBMX2* on the nuclear translocation of p65 protein after *BCG*-infection using High-content real-time imaging. Using pCMV-EGFP-p65 plasmid transfect RBMX2 knockout and WT EBL cells. The nucleus is stained with blue fluorescence. Data were relative to WT EBL cells without BCG infection.

One-way ANOVA and two-way ANOVA were used to determine the statistical significance of differences between different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$, **presents $p < 0.01$, and *** presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative of at least three independent experiments.

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FIGURE 5| *RBMX2* **is highly expressed in tumor tissues and regulates cancer-related**
metabolites

(A) A comparative analysis of the functional domains of the *RBMX2* protein across ten different
species.

(B) Analyzing the expression patterns of *RBMX2* in pan cancer using *TIMER2.0* cancer database.

(C) The expression of *RBMX2* in different lung cancer cells and normal lung epithelialcells via
RT-qPCR. Data were relative to normal lung epithelialcells (BEAS-2B).

(D-E) The expression of *RBMX2* in lung cancer clinical tissues via IF. RBMX2 is stained with yellow
fluorescence, and the nucleus is stained with blue fluorescence. Data were relative to
pericancerous lung tissues. Scale Bar: 5000 μm.

(F) The expression of *RBMX2* and p65 in LUAD and LUSC clinical tissues via IF. *RBMX2* is stained
with red fluorescence, p65 is stained with green fluorescence, and the nucleus is stained with
blue fluorescence. Data were relative to normal lung tissues. Scale Bar: 100 μm.
(G) KEGG analysis of differential metabolite enrichment pathways in *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells
compared to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.
(H) Dynamic distribution map of top 20 differential metabolites in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells
compared to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.

FIG6

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FIGURE 6| *RBMX2* facilitates EMT process in EBL cells after *M. bovis*-infected BoMac cells.
(A) A pattern diagram illustrated a *M. bovis*-infected BoMac cells inducing EMT of EBL cells
coculture model, drawing by BioRender.
(B) Detection of IL-6 and TNF expression levels in EBL cells and BoMac cells infected with *M.*
bovis using RT-qPCR. Data were relative to BoMac cells without infection of *M. bovis*.
(C) Detection of RBMX2 expression levels in a coculture model EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection
using RT-qPCR. Data were relative to BoMac cells without infection of *M. bovis*.
(D) Observation of morphological changes in EBL cells infected with *M. bovis* under electron
microscopy.
(E) EMT-related proteins (*MMP-9*, *N-cadherin*, and *E-cadherin*) expression was verified in
coculture model EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection through WB. Data were relative to coculture
model EBL cells without *M. bovis* infection.
(F, G) The impact of coculture model EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection on migration and invasion

capacity was detected using Transwell assay. Data were relative to coculture model EBL cells

without *M. bovis* infection.

(H) The detection of EMT-related proteins (*MMP-9*, *N-cadherin*, and *E-cadherin*) of *RBMX2*

knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells via WB. Data were relative to WT EBL cells

after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells.

(I) The change in the migratory and invasive capabilities of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells after *M.*

bovis-infected BoMac cells was assessed via Transwell assay. Data were relative to WT EBL cells

after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells.

(J, K) Validate the changes in migration abilities of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells after *M.*

bovis-infected BoMac cells through wound healing assay. Data were relative to WT EBL cells after

M. bovis-infected BoMac cells.

T-test and two-way ANOVA were used to determine the statistical significance of differences

between different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$, **presents $p < 0.01$,

and *** presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative

of at least three independent experiments.

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FIGURE 7| *RBMX2* facilitates the EMT in EBL cells via *p65/MMP-9* pathway.

(A) Evaluate the impact of pathway activations on expression of EMT-associated proteins (*MMP-9*,

N-cadherin, and *E-cadherin*) in *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells.

Data were relative to *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells untreated activators.

(B, C) Evaluate the impact of pathway activations on the migratory and invasive capabilities of

RBMX2 knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells via Transwell assay. Data were

relative to *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells untreated activators.

(D, E) Evaluate the impact of pathway activations on the migratory capabilities of *RBMX2*

knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells via wound healing assay. Data were

relative to *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells untreated activators.

(F, G) The impact of p65 silencing on the expression of *MMP-9* protein in WT EBL cells after *M.*

bovis infection was assessed using WB. Data were relative to SiRNA-NC in WT EBL cells with *M.*

bovis infection.

(H) Predicting the binding ability of RBMX2 promoter and p65 using molecular docking dynamics

(I) Verification of *RBMX2* promoter region and p65 interaction using dual luciferase reporter

system.

(I) Using p65 antibody to precipitate p65 protein in EBL cells, and verification of *RBMX2*

promoter region and p65 interaction using Chip-PCR assay.

(K) Predicting potential binding sites for p65 and *RBMX2* via protein docking.

(L) Verification of MMP-9 promoter region and p65 interaction using dual luciferase reporter

system.

(M) Verification of MMP-9 promoter region and p65 interaction using Chip-PCR.

(N) Predicting potential binding sites for p65 and *MMP-9* via protein docking.

Two-way ANOVA was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between

different groups. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, and $***p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant

differences. Data were representative of at least three independent experiments.

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Supplementary Fig 1| Protein structure analysis, subfamily localization.

(A) AlphaFold Multimer predicted the sequence and structure of *RBMX2* protein.

(B) Construction of RBM Gene Family Tree and structural Analysis of genes in *RBMX2* subfamily.

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Supplementary Fig 2| The influence of *RBMX2* in cell cycle, cell morphology, cell proliferation, and resistance to *M. bovis* infection.

(A) The different knockout sites of *RBMX2* EBL cells were observed by sequencing compared to the bovine *RBMX2* sequence or WT EBL cells.

(B) Observation of the effect of *RBMX2* knockout on cell cycle of EBL cells by flow cytometry assay. Data are represented as the G0/G1 and S phase relative to WT EBL cells.

(C) The change in cell number of *RBMX2* knockout and silence following 96 and 120 hours of *M. bovis* infection was observed via crystal violet assay in EBL cells and H1299 cells, respectively. Data were represented as the cell number relative to WT EBL cells and H1299-ShNC cells after *M. bovis*-infection. Data were representative of at least three independent experiments.

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Supplementary Fig 3| Transcriptome analysis in *RBMX2* knockout and WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection in different time points.

(A-C) GO analysis of enriched genes of (A) 0 , (B) 24 and (C) 48h after *M. bovis* infection, respectively. Data were in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection. The changes of these pathways from cell junction-related pathways in 0 hpi to cell proliferation and differentiation-related pathways in 48 hpi.

(D-F) KEGG analysis of enriched genes of (D) 0, (E) 24 and (F) 48hpi after *M. bovis* infection, respectively. Data were in RBMX2 knockout EBL cells relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection. The changes of these pathways from inflammation-related pathways in 0 hpi to cancer-related pathways in 48 hpi.

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Supplementary Fig 4| Transcriptomic analysis of *M. bovis* infected EBL cells.

(A, B) A volcano map illustrating the transcriptional enrichment genes after WT EBL cells with *M.*

bovis-infection. Data were relative to WT EBL cells without *M. bovis* infection.

(C)Identification the expression of related genes mRNA enriched by RT-qPCR. Data were

represented as the fold expression in 24hpi/48hpi relative to 0hpi (2 hpi post-gentamicin,

recorded as 0 hpi).

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Supplementary Fig 5| The optimal concentration of activators and their impact on cell viability.
(A-C) Ascertain the optimal concentration of the three pathway activators and their impact on
cellular viability via WB and CCK-8 assays. Data were relative to WT EBL cells untreated activators.
One-way ANOVA was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between
different groups. Ns presents no significance, **presents $p < 0.01$, and *** presents $p < 0.001$
indicate statistically significant differences.

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Supplementary Fig 6| *RBMX2* **enhanced the processes of** *M. bovis* **adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival.**

(A, B, C) The impact of *M. bovis* on the adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival of *RBMX2* knockout and WT EBL cells through plate counting. Data were relative to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.

(D, E, F) The impact of *M. bovis* on the adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival of Sh-NC and Sh-RBMX2 H1299 cells through plate counting. Data were relative to H1299 ShNC cells after *M. bovis* infection.

One-way ANOVA and two-way ANOVA were used to determine the statistical significance of differences between different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$, **presents $p < 0.01$, and *** presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative of at least three independent experiments.

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Supplementary Fig 7| *RBMX2* enhanced the processes of pathogen adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival.

(A, B) The impact of *M. bovis* on the adhesion and invasion of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells following treatment with related-pathway activators, verified by plate counting. Data were relative to *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells untreated by activators.

(C, D) The impact of *M. bovis* BCG and *M. smegmatis* on the adhesion of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells through plate counting assay. Data were relative to WT EBL cells after BCG and *M. Smegmatis* infection.

(E, F) The impact of *M. bovis* BCG and *M. smegmatis* on the invasion of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells through plate counting assay. Data were relative to WT EBL cells after BCG and *M. Smegmatis* infection.

(G, H) The impact of *Salmonella* and *E. coli*, on the adhesion of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells through plate counting assay. Data were relative to WT EBL cells after *Salmonella* and *E. coli* infection.

(K, L) The impact of *Salmonella* and *E. coli* on the invasion of *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells through plate counting assay. Data were relative to WT EBL cells after *Salmonella* and *E. coli* infection.

One-way and two-way ANOVA were used to determine the statistical significance of differences

1662   between different groups. Ns presents no significance, * presents $p < 0.05$, **presents $p < 0.01$,

1663   and *** presents $p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative

1664   of at least three independent experiments.

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 Supplementary Fig 8| *RBMX2* **facilitates EMT process in EBL cells after** *M. bovis***-infected BoMac**

cells.

(A) WB detection of changes in mesenchymal cell markers (*MMP-9* and *N-cadherin*) after

infection of EBL cells with different infection ratios (10, 20, and 50) of *M. bovis*. Data were relative

to EBL cells without infection of *M. bovis*.

(B) WB detection of the ability of *M. bovis* infection with macrophages (BoMac cells) to induce

epithelial (EBL cells) mesenchymal transition. Data were relative to the addition of PBS in the

upper chamber of the coculture model.

(C) Staining the skeleton of EBL cells in coculture model after *M. bovis* infection using ghost pen

cyclic peptides. The cytoskeleton is labeled with red fluorescence, and the nucleus is stained with

blue fluorescence. Scale Bar: 20 μm.

(D)EMT-related mRNAs (*MMP-9*, *N-cadherin*, and *E-cadherin*) expression was verified in coculture

model EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection through RT-qPCR. Data were relative to coculture model

EBL cells without *M. bovis* infection.

(E) The detection of EMT-related mRNAs (*MMP-9*, *N-cadherin*, and *E-cadherin*) of *RBMX2*

knockout EBL cells after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells via RT-qPCR. Data were relative to WT EBL

cells after *M. bovis-infected* BoMac cells.

Two-way ANOVA was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between

different groups. Ns presents no significance, **presents $p < 0.01$, and *** presents $p < 0.001$

indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative of at least three

independent experiments.

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Supplementary Fig 9| *RBMX2* facilitates EMT in H1299 cells.

(A) EMT-related proteins expression was verified in H1299 cells after *M. bovis* infection through WB. Data were relative to H1299 Sh-Con cells.

(B) The change in the migratory and invasive capabilities of H1299 cells was assessed via Transwell assay. Data were relative to H1299 Sh-Con cells. Scale Bar: 100 μm.

(C) Activation of the MAPK pathway-related protein and p65 protein were activated after *RBMX2* knockout and WT EBL cells infected by *M. bovis* in this coculture model via WB. Data were relative to WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

Two-way ANOVA was used to determine the statistical significance of differences between different groups. *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, and ***$p < 0.001$ indicate statistically significant differences. Data were representative of at least three independent experiments.

1721   S TABLE 1

Supplementary Table 1| *RBMX2* exhibits high homology in amino acid sequence alignment across different species

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