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

Epithelial-Mesenchymal Transition and Lung Cancer Progression

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Abstract

The emergence and progression of tuberculosis (TB) result from the intricate interplay

among the pathogen, host, and environmental factors. In 2022, there were 10.6 million new TB

cases reported globally, leading to 1.3 million deaths. In regions with a high prevalence of

zoonotic TB, *Mycobacterium bovis* (*M. bovis*) accounts for approximately 10% of human TB cases.

The immune evasion mechanisms and latent infections of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*M. tb*)

complicate our understanding of the host immune response to TB. This study identifies a novel

host factor, RNA-binding motif protein X-linked 2 (RBMX2), which shows potential against *M.*

bovis infection. However, the specific molecular mechanisms and roles of RBMX2 during *M. bovis*

infection remain poorly understood. Our investigations revealed that following infection, RBMX2

was highly expressed in various cell types, including embryonic bovine lung (EBL) cells, bovine

macrophage (BoMac) cells, bovine lung alveolar primary cells, and human pulmonary alveolar

epithelial cells (A549). Using a multifaceted approach that included global transcriptional

sequencing, proteomics, cell adhesion assays, ChIP-PCR, and Western blot analyses, we

demonstrated that RBMX2 inhibits cell adhesion and tight junction formation in EBL cells while

promoting the adhesion and invasion of *M. bovis* through the activation of the p65 pathway.

Furthermore, our data suggest that RBMX2 regulates epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), a

process strongly associated with cancer, as indicated by our global transcriptomics, proteomics,

and metabolomics analyses. To further explore the relationship between RBMX2 and cancer, we

analyzed the TIMER2.0 database and found elevated expression levels of RBMX2 in lung

adenocarcinoma (LUAD) and lung squamous carcinoma (LUSC) tissues compared to normal lung

tissues. This finding was corroborated by immunofluorescence validation. After constructing an

M. bovis-infected BoMac-induced EBL-EMT model, we confirmed that RBMX2 contributes to EMT

by activating the p65/MMP-9 pathway post-infection.

This study elucidates the role of *RBMX2* as a novel host factor with potential anti-TB

functions that inhibit TB-induced EMT. These insights have vital implications for the development

of TB vaccines and therapeutic strategies for TB-mediated lung cancer, highlighting *RBMX2* as a

promising target for future research.

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 significant global health challenge, with approximately 10.6 million new cases reported in 2022, leading to 1.3 million deaths worldwide [1]. *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (*M. tb*) variant *Mycobacterium bovis* (*M. bovis*), a zoonotic pathogen, accounts for approximately 10% of human TB cases in regions with high prevalence of zoonotic diseases. The immune evasion mechanisms employed by *M. tb* pose challenges in understanding the host immune response and the progression of TB.

Recent studies have highlighted the interplay between chronic infections, such as TB, and cancer development [2, 3]. Emerging evidence suggests that the inflammatory environment induced by persistent infections can contribute to cellular transformations associated with epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT), a process linked to cancer metastasis [4]. However, the specific mechanisms underlying this relationship, particularly concerning host factors involved in TB infection, remain poorly understood.

In this context, we focus on RNA-binding motif protein X-linked 2 (RBMX2), a host factor that

has emerged as a potential modulator of both TB infection and cancer progression. In previous

studies, we also reported that RBMX2 can regulate the retention of APAF-1 introns through

alternative splicing, mediating apoptosis following *M. bovis* infection [5]. Moreover, previous research

also indicates that RBMX displays significant and contrasting effects depending on the tumor type,

functioning either as an oncogene or a tumor suppressor. For instance, its overexpression has

been associated with hepatocellular carcinoma [6] and T-cell lymphomas[7], while a reduction in

RBMX levels has been noted in Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma[8], suggesting a role in

tumorigenesis and metastasis. However, RBMX2 involvement in TB infection and its regulatory

effects on EMT have not been thoroughly investigated.

This study aims to elucidate the role of RBMX2 in *M. bovis* infection and its impact on EMT

in epithelial cells. We hypothesize that RBMX2 promotes the adhesion and invasion of *M. bovis* in

host cells while facilitating the EMT process through the activation of the p65/MMP-9 signaling

pathway. By investigating these interactions, we seek to provide insights into the potential dual

role of RBMX2 in TB and lung cancer, highlighting its significance as a therapeutic target.

Results

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

Lesions

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

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

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

factors with potential anti-*M. bovis* capabilities. Notably, the RBMX2 knockout cells exhibited

significant resistance to the infection.

Further analysis using AlphaFold multimer revealed that amino acid positions 56–134 of

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

611 RBM family sequences at the bovine protein exon level and categorized them into

subfamilies based on motif similarity. *RBMX2* was primarily classified within subfamily VII, which

includes proteins such as *EIF3G*, *RBM14*, *RBM42*, *RBMX44*, *RBM17*, *PUF60*, *SART3*, and *RBM25*

(Supplementary Fig. 1B). A comparison of amino acid sequences indicated a high degree of

conservation of RBMX2 across different species (Supplementary Table 1).

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

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

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

demonstrated that *RBMX2* expression was significantly upregulated after both *M. bovis* and *M.*

bovis BCG infections (Figs. 1A and B). Moreover, elevated *RBMX2* levels were observed in bovine

lung macrophages (BoMac cells), bovine lung alveolar primary cells, and human lung epithelial

cells (A549 cells) following *M. bovis* infection (Figs. 1C-E).

Additionally, we investigated *RBMX2* expression in clinical tissue samples from cows affected

by *M. bovis*. Livers and lung samples with visible tuberculous lesions were obtained from a

slaughterhouse. RT-qPCR analysis revealed that *RBMX2* expression was upregulated in both the

lungs and livers infected with *M. bovis* (Fig. 1F).

RBMX2 did not affect cell proliferation 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).

The impact of *RBMX2* knockout on EBL cells indicated that *RBMX2* did not alter cell

morphology, as evidenced by cytoskeleton staining using phalloidine (Supplementary Fig. 2B).

Additionally, cellular proliferation was assessed using the EDU assay (Figs. 1G and H) and CCK-8

assay (Fig. 1I), along with cell cycle progression evaluated by Flow cytometry (Supplementary Fig.

2C).

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 polyclonal and

monoclonal EBL cells following *M. bovis* infection (Figs. 1J and K). Furthermore, RBMX2-silenced

H1299 cells exhibited a higher survival rate compared to H1299 ShNc cells after *M. bovis* infection

(Fig. 1L). 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. 2D).

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

In investigate the role of *RBMX2* knockout in the process of *M. bovis* infection, we selected

RBMX2 knockout EBL cells and WT EBL cells at 0 (2 hpi, recorded as 0 hpi), 24, and 48 hpi for

RNA-Seq analysis. A total of 16,079 genes were detected, with a significance level of $p < 0.05$ and

log2 (fold change) > 2 compared to WT EBL cells. Notably, 42 genes are significantly regulated at

all three-time points (0, 24, and 48 hpi) (Fig. 2A). Among these, 11 genes were significantly

upregulated, while 31 genes were significantly downregulated. A heat map illustrates the

expression level of each gene across various samples, with each row representing a specific gene

and each column representing the expression levels in a given sample (Fig. 2A).

The functional significance of these differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in EBL cells

infected with *RBMX2* knockout was further explored using GO and KEGG analyses. The most

significantly affected biological processes included epithelial cell differentiation, cell adhesion and

biological adhesion. The cellular components most affected were the extracellular region,

extracellular region part, extracellular space, and plasma membrane part. The molecular

functions primarily associated with activin receptor activity, type I (Fig. 2B).

The KEGG pathway entries revealed that these genes were linked to a various pathways,

including ECM—receptor interaction, cGMP-PKG signaling pathway, PI3K-Akt signaling pathway,

cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction, and vascular smooth muscle contraction (Fig. 2C).

Proteomics also validated these phenotypes related to cell tight junction and EMT using 48hpi

protein samples, highlighting pathways such as extracellular space, integrin binding, basement

membrane, and glucose homeostasis via GO analysis, along with cell adhesion molecules,

ECM-receptor interaction, and TGF-beta signaling pathway through KEGG analysis (Figs. 2D and

E).

We also examined the impact of varying infection durations on *RBMX2* knockout EBL cellular

lines via GO analysis. At 0 hpi, genes were primarily related to the pathways of cell junctions,

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

were mainly associated with pathways of the basement membrane, cell adhesion, integrin

binding and cell migration (Supplementary Fig. 3B). By 48 hpi, genes were annotated into

epithelial cell differentiation and were negatively regulated during epithelial cell proliferation

(Supplementary Fig. 3C). This indicated that *RBMX2* can regulate cellular connectivity throughout

the stages of *M. bovis* infection.

For KEGG analysis, genes linked to the *MAPK* signaling pathway, chemical carcinogen-DNA

adducts, and chemical carcinogen−receptor activation were observed at 0 hpi (Supplementary Fig.

3D). At 24 hpi, significant enrichment was found in the ECM–receptor interaction, PI3K–Akt

signaling pathway, and focal adhesion (Supplementary Fig. 3E). Upon enrichment analysis at 48

hpi, significant enrichment was noted in the TGF-beta signaling pathway, transcriptional

misregulation in cancer, microRNAs in cancer, small cell lung cancer, and p53 signaling pathway

(Supplementary Fig. 3F).

To validate the RNA-seq data, we confirmed a random selection of 10 genes using RT-qPCR

(Fig. 2F). The mRNA levels of the selected genes were consistent with the RNA-seq outcomes,

including *FRMD4B*, *MCTP1*, *HSPB8*, *ST14*, and *OMD*, which are linked to scaffold proteins, cell

adhesion, and epithelial barriers. Additionally, *MCTP1*, *HSPB8*, *IL-24*, *1L-7*, *GPX2*, and *NOS3* were

associated with 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 all mRNAs and proteins was 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*

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

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

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

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

predicted through the JASPAR database (Supplementary Table 2).

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

RBMX2 knockout EBL cells, revealing that the phosphorylation of p65 and MAPK/p38/JNK was

significantly reduced in these cells after *M. bovis* infection compared to WT EBL cells (Figs. 4A and

B).

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

promote tight junction disruption and decrease intercellular adhesion, *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells

were treated with *PMA* (*p65* activator), *Anisomycin* (*JNK* activator), and *ML141* (*p38* activator) for

12 h prior to *M. bovis* infection. The optimal concentrations for these activators were determined

through WB and CCK-8 cell viability assays, yielding 100 nm for PMA, 10 μm for *Anisomysin*, and

10 μm for ML141, all without significant effects on cell viability (Supplementary Figs. 5A, B, and C).

WB results indicated that the p65 and *MAPK/p38* pathways could impede the expression of tight

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

To examine whether RBMX2 regulates cell adhesion ratio via p65 and MAPK/p38/JNK

pathways, we investigated the impact of *p65, p38* and *JNK* activators on cell adhesion in *RBMX2*

knockout EBL cells. Cell adhesion assays showed that treatment with p65 activator significantly

reduced cell adhesion ratio compared to the p38 and JNK activators (Figs. 4E and F).

To further substantiating the association between p65 and tight junction regulation in WT

EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection, we used siRNA to inhibit p65. WB analysis demonstrated that

siRNA significantly reduced p65 and *p-p65* expression (Figs. 4G and H). WB and

Immunofluorescence (IF) analyses revealed that suppressing p65 facilitated the expression of

ZO-1, OCLN, and CLDN-5 after *M. bovis* infection (Figs. 4G, H and I). Additionally, silencing p65 in

WT EBL cells inhibited the invasion of *M. bovis* into epithelial cells, as shown by plate counting

assay (Fig. 4J).

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. 4K and L).

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 facilitates 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

(Fig. 4M) at 15 min, 30 min, 1 h, and 2 h post-infection (Fig. 4N). Furthermore, the invasion of *M.*

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

compared with WT EBL cells. 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 (Fig. 4O).

Silencing *RBMX2* in human lung epithelial cells (H1299) also led to a significant reduction in the

adhesion, invasion, and intracellular survival of *M. bovis* (Figs. 4P-R). 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. 6A and B).

Hence, RBMX2 promotes *M. bovis* adhesion and invasion in EBL cells by regulating the

phosphorylation and nucleation of p65

To further explore the influence of *RBMX2* on adhesion and invasion in the context of

different virulence *Mycobacterial* species, we utilized attenuated virulent *M. bovis* BCG and

Mycobacterium smegmatis (*M. smegmatis*) to infect EBL cells. The plate count assays revealed a

significant reduction in the adhesion of both *M. bovis* BCG and *M. smegmatis* in *RBMX2* knockout

EBL cells at various time points post-infection compared to WT EBL cells (Supplementary Figs. 6C

and D). Additionally, the invasion of *M. bovis* BCG and *M. smegmatis* was markedly diminished at

different hpi in *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells (Supplementary Figs. 6E and F). Consequently, the

virulence of *Mycobacterium* does not appear to affect the capacity of *RBMX2* to promote the

adhesion and invasion of *M. bovis* BCG and *M. smegmatis* in EBL cells.

Furthermore, we examined the role of *RBMX2* in regulating other bacteria associated with

bovine pneumonia by infecting EBL cells with *Salmonella* and *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*). Our

findings indicated that *RBMX2* knockout EBL cells exhibited a degree of inhibition in bacterial

adhesion and invasion across all tested bacterial species compared to WT EBL cells

(Supplementary Figs. 6G-J).

In summary, our experiments provide compelling evidence that RBMX2 broadly promotes

the adhesion and invasion of pathogens associated with bovine pneumonia, highlighting its

potential as a 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. 7A). 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. 7B). 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. 7C).

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. 7D). 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. 8A 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. 8C).

To determine the specific pathways regulating the EMT phenotype of p65 and

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

Anisomysin, and *ML141.* We observed that p65 downregulates the expression level of *E-cadherin*

while simultaneously upregulating *MMP-9* expression (Fig. 7A). The *MAPK/p38* pathway inhibits

E-cadherin expression while promoting *N-cadherin* expression. Conversely, the *MAPK/JNK*

pathway impedes *N-cadherin* expression while facilitate the expression of *E-cadherin and MMP-9*.

Furthermore, we comprehensively investigated the correlation between pathway activation and

the migration and invasion of phenotypes, demonstrating that the activation of the p65 pathway

enhances the migratory and invasive capabilities of EBL cells, as evidenced by the Transwell assay

(Figs. 7B and C) and wound-healing assay (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 verify the regulatory mechanism between *RBMX2* and *p65*, we first identified multiple

amino acid residues in the *RBMX2* promoter that form strong interactions through docking (Fig.

7H). Additionally, we queried the *RBMX2* promoter region for binding sites of the transcription

factor p65 using JASPAR data, subsequently validating this interaction using a dual luciferase

reporter plasmid system (Fig. 7I) and Chip-PCR (Fig. 7J). Notably, *RBMX2* and p65 exhibited

multiple amino acid residues forming strong bonds in protein docking, yielding a docking score of

1978.643 (Fig. 7K).

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 utilized a CRISPR-Cas9 mutant library developed in our laboratory to

investigate potential host factors influencing M. bovis infection. Notably, we identified *RBMX2* as

a protein with significant anti-*M. bovis* infection capabilities. 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 and tissues,

demonstrating the capacity to inhibit *M. bovis* invasion. Transcriptomic analyses indicate that

RBMX2 may disrupt tight junctions within epithelial cells and promote epithelial-mesenchymal

transition (EMT) following *M. bovis* infection.

Our findings reveal that *RBMX2* is upregulated in TB-infected cells and tissues,

demonstrating its capacity to inhibit *M. bovis* invasion. 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].

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

adenocarcinoma epithelial cells [74]. Chronic infection with *M. tb* is associated with oxidative stress

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

[75, 76]. 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.

In conclusion, our study identifies *RBMX2* as a novel host factor influencing susceptibility to

M. bovis infection, playing a crucial role in both TB pathogenesis and the EMT process associated

with lung cancer. 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 findings demonstrate that *RBMX2* significantly facilitates the invasion of *M. bovis* by

promoting the activation of the p65 protein. This activation undermines the integrity of the

epithelial cell barrier and promotes the EMT of epithelial cells through the *p65/MMP-9* signaling

pathway. These insights elucidate the critical role of RBMX2 in *M. bovis* pathogenesis and

highlight its potential as a therapeutic target for mitigating infection-related complications.

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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

[77]. 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 [78]. 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 pKLV2‑U6gRNA5 (BbsI)‑PGKpuro2ABFP

(#67991), kindly provided by Professor Zhao Shuhong of Huazhong Agricultural University, to

construct the recombined lentivirus. EBL cells were then infected with either the *RBMX2* pKLV2‑

U6gRNA5(BbsI)‑PGKpuro2ABFP (#67991) lentivirus or the empty vector pKLV2‑U6gRNA5(BbsI)‑

PGKpuro2ABFP (#67991) lentivirus as a negative control. After 48 to 60 hpi, puromycin (2.0

mg/mL) was added to select the positive clones. Finally, the monoclonal cells obtained through

limiting dilution were expanded, and the knockout of RBMX2 was confirmed via PCR assay

(Table S1).

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 an 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 any extracellular bacteria.

After thorough washing, cell lysis was achieved using 0.1% Triton X-100 (Beyotime, China). The

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

facilitate colony-forming unit (CFU) enumeration.

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. Following infection, gentamycin (Procell, China) was added at a concentration of

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

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

extracellular bacteria. After sufficient washing, the cells were lysed using 0.1% Triton X-100

(Beyotime, China). The resulting cell lysates were subsequently 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 bacteria at an MOI of 20 for 6 hours at 37°C.

Following infection, gentamycin (Procell, China) was added at a concentration of 100 μg/mL to

eliminate extracellular bacteria for 2 hours. The infected cells were then washed three times with

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (Gibco, USA) to remove any remaining extracellular bacteria,

which is referred to as the 0-hour time point.

Subsequently, the infected cells were cultured in complete medium supplemented with

Triton X-100 (0.1%) (Beyotime, China) at various time points: 0, 24, 48, and 72 hours hpi. Cell

lysates were plated onto 7H11 or LB agar plates and allowed to incubate for several days to

facilitate colony-forming unit (CFU) counting.

RNA-Seq, proteomics and metabolomics

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

HTSeq (0.9.1) RRID:SCR_005514 statistical methods were employed to compare the read

count values for each gene, which served as the original expression measurements, while FPKM

was utilized for normalization. Subsequently, differential gene expression was analyzed using

DESeq (1.30.0) RRID:SCR_000154 under the following screening criteria: a fold change of

$|log2FoldChange| > 2$ and a significant P-value < 0.05. We employed the R language Pheatmap

(1.0.8) software package to conduct bidirectional clustering analysis of all differentially expressed

genes across samples. A heatmap was generated based on the expression levels of the same

gene in various samples and the expression patterns of different genes within the same sample,

utilizing the Euclidean method for distance calculation and the complete linkage method for

clustering. Data analysis was performed using the free online platform Personalbio GenesCloud

(https://www.genescloud.cn).

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

Approximately 2×10^5 treated cells were added to a 6-well plate after EBL cells were

cocultured with BoMac cells for 48 hours following *M. bovis* infection and subsequently digested

with 1× trypsin. Once the cells were evenly spread, a cross was drawn along a ruler using a 200 μL

pipette tip to create a wound.

The cells were washed three times with PBS (Gibco, USA) to remove any detached cells, and

serum-free medium was added to each well. Images were taken at 0, 12, and 24 hours of culture,

and the healing rate was calculated using ImageJ software.

Cell adhesion assay

To assess the level of cell adhesion between RBMX2 knockout and wild-type (WT) EBL cells

after *M. bovis* infection, a cell adhesion assay was performed using a cell adhesion detection kit

(Bestbio, China) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Matrigel (20 mg/L) was added to a

96-well plate at 100 μL per well. Subsequently, 3×10^4 cells were added to the adhesion plate and

incubated in a CO2 incubator for 6 hours. After incubation, the wells were washed twice with PBS,

and the adhered cells were stained with 10 μL of cell stain solution A for 2 hours at 37°C. The

level of cell adhesion was quantified by measuring the absorbance at 560 nm.

Transwell assay

5×10^4 treated cells and 200 μL of serum-free medium were added to each upper chamber of

a Transwell (Corning, USA), while 550 μL of complete medium was added to the lower chamber.

The cells were incubated for 24 hours.

The following day, the upper chamber was removed, and 550 μL of 4% paraformaldehyde

(Beyotime, China) was added for 30 minutes. After fixation, 550 μL of crystal violet dye (Beyotime,

China) was added to each well for another 30 minutes. The upper chamber was then washed

with PBS for 30 seconds and dried upside down with a cotton swab.

After drying, the membrane of the chamber was removed and placed on a glass slide,

followed by the addition of a neutral gum seal. Three random fields of view were selected under

the microscope for imaging, and the cell count was performed using ImageJ RRID:SCR_003070

software.

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 [79]. 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, PY, HY, SX, LB, LZ, and CH

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* mRNA in clinical TB tissues infected by *M. bovis* via RT-qPCR. Data were represented by fold expression relative to uninfected tissues.

(G, H) The effect of *RBMX2* on the proliferation of EBL cells was observed by EDU assay. Data were represented by the Fluorescence cells relative to WT EBL cells.

(I) The effect of *RBMX2* on the proliferation of EBL cells was observed by CCK-8 assay. Data were represented by the absorbance value relative to WT EBL cells.

(J) Detection of the ability of *RBMX2* knockout Polyclonal EBL cells resisting to *M. bovis* infection by CCK-8 assay. Data were represented by the absorbance value relative to WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection.

(K) 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.

(L) 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, 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, 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, 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.

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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.

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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) Detect the correlation between p65 expression and ZO-1 in WT EBL cells after *M. bovis* infection via IF analysis. ZO-1 is stained with green fluorescence, p65 is stained with yellow fluorescence, and the nucleus is stained with blue fluorescence. Data were relative to SiRNA-NC in WT EBL cells with *M. bovis* infection.

(J) 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.

(K) 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.

(L) 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.

(M, N, O) 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.

(P, Q, R) 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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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.

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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) Using phalloidine to stain the EBL cell skeleton, observing cell morphology under a
high-intensity microscope. The cytoskeleton is labeled with red fluorescence, and the nucleus is
stained with blue fluorescence. Scale Bar: 20　μm.

(C) 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.

(D) 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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1566 **Supplementary Fig 4| Transcriptomic analysis of *M. bovis* infected EBL cells.**
1567 (A, B) A volcano map illustrating the transcriptional enrichment genes after WT EBL cells with *M.*
1568 *bovis*-infection. Data were relative to WT EBL cells without *M. bovis* infection.

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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 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 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* 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 8| *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.

1705 S TABLE 1

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1707 **Supplementary Table 1| *RBMX2* exhibits high homology in amino acid sequence alignment**
1708 **across different species**

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