Cytoplasmic mRNA decay by the anti-viral nuclease RNase L promotes transcriptional repression

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SUMMARY

Ribonuclease (RNase) L is an antiviral factor that promiscuously degrades viral and cellular RNA in the cytoplasm. This causes extensive translational reprogramming and alters mRNA processing and export. Here, we reveal that another major consequence of cytoplasmic RNase L activity is the repression of nascent RNA synthesis in the nucleus. This is not associated with altered nuclear RNA stability but instead results from a global loss of RNA polymerase II (Pol II) occupancy across the genome. Prominent among the transcriptionally downregulated loci are immune-related genes, supporting a role for RNase L in tempering innate immune and inflammatory responses. These transcriptional changes are associated with reduced levels and altered localization of a portion of serine 5-phosphorylated Pol II into nuclear speckles. Crosstalk between RNA decay and transcription thereby contributes to the large-scale modulation of gene expression in RNase L-activated cells.

Introduction

Ribonuclease (RNase) L is an important player in the innate immune response stimulated by double-stranded RNA (dsRNA), a pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP) that is commonly associated with viral infection. RNase L dimerizes and is activated by 2'-5'-oligo(A), a second messenger produced by the oligoadenylate synthetases (OAS) 1-3 upon dsRNA binding. Once activated, RNase L promiscuously cleaves cytoplasmic RNA, including viral RNAs and host rRNA, mRNA, and tRNA, at sites defined by UN^N (Karasik and Guydosh, 2024).

RNase L was initially hypothesized to suppress translation through its ability to cleave rRNA and tRNA. However, rRNA and tRNA cleavage occurs after translation remodeling, and ribosomes with RNase L-cleaved rRNAs can still support translation (Burke et al., 2019; Donovan et al., 2017; Rath et al., 2019). Thus, widespread cleavage of mRNA most likely causes the prominent decrease in cellular translation (Burke et al., 2019; Chitrakar et al., 2019; Rath et al., 2019).

In addition to suppressing viral gene expression, RNase L-induced gene expression reprogramming can moderate the innate immune response in both positive and negative ways (Burke et al., 2021; Burke et al., 2019; Burke et al., 2022; Chitrakar et al., 2019; Karasik et al., 2024; Lee et al., 2023; Malathi et al., 2007; Rath et al., 2019; Xi et al., 2024; Yang et al., 2024). RNAse L has been shown to promote virus-induced IFNβ production in mice and in cells where its basal expression is low, but suppress IFNβ production in cells like macrophages with higher basal RNase L and OAS expression, perhaps to promote tissue protection (Banerjee et al., 2014; Malathi et al., 2007). Additionally, loss-of-function mutations in the OAS-RNase L pathway have been linked to autoimmune diseases, including some cases of multisystem inflammatory syndrome in children following SARS-CoV-2 infection (Lee et al., 2023). These observations suggest that RNase L activity may dampen

immune gene expression to prevent overactivation of the innate immune system. However, some mRNAs encoding antiviral factors are at least partially resistant to RNase L and may be preferentially translated due to the liberated translational resources, ensuring the execution of an antiviral response (Burke et al., 2019; Chitrakar et al., 2019; Rath et al., 2019). Much remains to be learned about the contexts governing the complex roles of RNase L in immune regulation.

While RNA cleavage is a prominent phenotype associated with RNase L, several recent findings reveal additional mechanisms contributing to its impact on gene expression. These include inhibiting mRNA export (Burke et al., 2021), altering mRNA processing (Burke et al., 2022), activating ribotoxic stress responses (Iordanov et al., 2000; Karasik et al., 2024; Xi et al., 2024), and activating RIG-I/MDA5-MAVS pathways through the production of small RNA cleavage fragments (Banerjee et al., 2014; Malathi et al., 2007). Each of these phenotypes relies on RNase L catalytic activity, suggesting that they occur in response to the widespread RNA cleavage.

Several oncogenic gamma-herpesviruses also engage broad-acting mRNA-targeting nucleases whose activity, like RNase L, can lead to upstream alterations in mRNA processing and export (Gaglia et al., 2012; Kumar and Glaunsinger, 2010; Kumar et al., 2011; Lee and Glaunsinger, 2009). Notably, viral cleavage of cytoplasmic mRNA also induces large-scale dampening of RNA polymerase II (Pol II) transcription (Abernathy et al., 2015; Gilbertson et al., 2018; Hartenian et al., 2020). Similarly, widespread cytoplasmic mRNA decay by the cellular exonuclease polyribonucleotide nucleotidyltransferase 1 (PNPT1) that is activated during early apoptosis leads to a subsequent Pol II transcriptional repression (Duncan-Lewis et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2018b; Thomas et al., 2015). These findings indicate there is positive feedback between mRNA synthesis and degradation under conditions of accelerated mRNA decay, which we hypothesized might similarly occur in response to RNase L.

Here, we reveal that activated RNase L causes a global repression of nascent RNA synthesis. This includes interferon-stimulated genes and other immune genes, suggesting that its impact on RNA biogenesis may help temper inflammatory responses. The reduction of newly synthesized RNA is not due to accelerated RNA decay in the nucleus but instead is triggered by RNase L-induced RNA degradation in the cytoplasm. This causes a broad reduction in Pol II occupancy across the genome and an associated changes in the abundance and distribution of serine 5-phosphorylated (S5P) RNA polymerase II (Pol II). Thus, transcriptional repression is a major consequence of cytoplasmic RNase L activation and contributes to the reshaping of the gene expression landscape in cells following innate immune stimulation.

Results

RNase L activation broadly reduces the abundance of newly synthesized RNA in the nucleus

Based on observations of positive feedback between RNA decay and synthesis (Abernathy et al., 2015; Duncan-Lewis et al., 2021), we sought to determine how RNase L impacts the abundance of newly synthesized RNA in the nucleus. We first designed an assay to quantify the total pool of newly transcribed RNA in response to RNase L activation. We activated RNase L by transfecting human A549 cells with the double-stranded RNA mimic poly(I:C) for 4 hours, then added the uridine analog ethynyl uridine (EU) for 30 minutes to label nascent transcripts. The EU-containing RNA was coupled to a Cy5 fluorophore by click chemistry and then visualized by flow cytometry or imaging (Figure 1A). We confirmed that the labeled RNA remained largely nuclear during the 30 min pulse (Figure S1A-B), which is important because upon export to the cytoplasm RNA is rapidly degraded by RNase L.

We observed a striking reduction in EU incorporation in poly(I:C) treated WT A549 cells

compared to control mock-treated cells (Figure 1B, C). In contrast, poly(I:C) treatment of

RNase L knock-out (RLKO) A549 cells resulted in only a modest reduction in EU signal (Figure

1B, C), suggesting that RNase L is the primary driver of the loss of newly transcribed RNA in

the nucleus. Furthermore, nascent RNA depletion was observed in A549 RLKO cells

complemented with WT RNase L but not those complemented with a catalytically dead

RNase L mutant R667A (Figure 1B, C), indicating that this effect required RNase L catalytic

activity. This phenotype was detected as early as 2 hours after poly(I:C) treatment and grew

progressively more pronounced over time (Figure S1C). Poly(I:C) transfection also reduced

EU signal in immortalized murine bone-marrow-derived macrophages (iBMDM), and this

effect was muted upon siRNA-mediated depletion of RNase L (Figure S1D-E). Although

RNase L activation can induce caspase-dependent apoptosis (Siddiqui and Malathi, 2012;

Yang et al., 2024), the irreversible pan-caspase inhibitor z-VAD(Ome)-FMK did not prevent

the loss of EU signal (Figure S1F), indicating that repression of nascent RNA does not require

caspase activation.

Zika virus is a potent activator of RNase L (Watkins and Burke, 2024; Whelan et al., 2019;

Whelan et al., 2021), and we therefore tested whether it also depletes nuclear RNA

synthesized during a 30 minute EU pulse. Indeed, Zika virus infection at an MOI of 5 for 24h

resulted in a significant reduction in EU-labeled RNA in WT A549 cells compared to RLKO

cells as visualized by immunofluorescence (Figure 1D-E, S1G). Interestingly, Zika virus

infection cause significant decrease in both WT and RLKO cells compared to mock-infected

cells, indicating RNase L-independent mechanism of reducing nuclear nascent RNA. These

may include effects induced by dsRNA (Figure 1B-C) and Zika virus capsid protein (Slomnicki

et al., 2017). Collectively, these data indicate that RNase L-mediated mRNA degradation

represses nascent RNA synthesis, both upon dsRNA transfection and viral infection.

RNase L reduces both nascent rRNA and pre-mRNA accumulation

EU is incorporated into transcripts by all three classes of RNA polymerases, with RNA polymerase I (Pol I) and Pol II transcripts each accounting for approximately half of the total signal during a short pulse (Berry et al., 2022). Thus, the loss in EU signal caused by RNase L activation is likely due to the reduction of both nascent Pol I and Pol II transcripts. To comprehensively investigate the nascent transcripts affected by RNase L activation, we sequenced the newly transcribed pool of RNA following pulse labeling for 10 min with another uridine analog, 4-thiouridine (4sU). After adding labeled and unlabeled spike-in controls for normalization, the 4sU-incorporated RNA was purified away from the pre-existing pool of RNA by biotinylation of the 4sU and purification over streptavidin beads (Figure 2A). We confirmed successful enrichment of the 4sU-labeled over unlabeled spike in RNA in our sequencing data and confirmed 4sU RNA enrichment by RT-qPCR using samples treated or untreated with 4sU (Figure S2A-B).

Initial rRNA filtering indicated that the rRNA reads accounted for no more than 56% of the total reads, which is in line with expectations (Radle et al., 2013). After alignment to the rDNA repeat and spike-in normalization, we observed a decrease in 4sU-seq signal coverage on the entire rDNA repeat in WT cells transfected with poly(I:C) (Figure 2B). We then aligned the remaining reads to the hg38 reference genome and performed a metagene analysis on protein-coding genes. In agreement with the EU flow cytometry data, we observed a global decrease in nascent mRNA transcripts in poly(I:C) treated WT cells relative to mock treated WT cells, as well as in WT cells treated with poly(I:C) compared to RLKO cells treated with poly(I:C) (Figure 2C). We also observed a prominent decrease in several Pol III transcribed genes (Figure S2C). Differential gene expression analysis on protein-coding genes and non-coding genes transcribed by all 3 RNA polymerases revealed a widespread decrease on a gene-by-gene basis, with 36.2% of genes significantly downregulated (Figure 2D). Thus, RNase L plays a major role in repressing the accumulation of nascent rRNA, noncoding RNA, and mRNA.

Fewer genes were significantly upregulated in an RNase L-dependent manner, and manual

inspection of these genes revealed that their apparent upregulation is largely explained by

one of two situations. The first category contains genes that are differentially expressed in

these cells even in the absence of poly(I:C) treatment, indicating they are the result of minor

genetic/epigenetic differences between the parental WT cell line and the clonal RLKO cell

line (Figure S2D-E). The second category includes genes whose apparent upregulation is

instead the result of read-through transcription from upstream highly expressed genes

(Figure S2F).

Notably, gene ontology analysis of the downregulated genes revealed an enrichment of

genes involved in cytoplasmic translation and the immune response (Figure 2E). The

translation term is likely due to the reduction in ribosomal protein-encoding mRNAs, which

are known targets of RNase L (Andersen et al., 2009), suggesting a coordinated response

with rRNA transcription inhibition to reduce ribosome biogenesis (Shore and Albert, 2022).

The abundance of immune-related categories suggests that RNase L-induced suppression

of nascent RNA contributes to its impact on the immune response. We validated this result

by performing RT-qPCR on selected immune transcripts in total RNA samples using intron-

exon spanning primer pairs to measure pre-mRNA (Figure 2F). Indeed, ISGs including IFIT1,

RSAD2, OAS1, and OASL displayed decreased pre-mRNA levels in WT cells compared to

RLKO cells stimulated with poly(I:C). In contrast, IFNL1 has previously been shown to

undergo intron retention upon RNase L activation, and we observed this expected increase

(and a similar trend for ISG15) in WT relative to RLKO cells.

We next considered the extent to which the decrease in ISG pre-mRNA was due to a

reduction in interferon (IFN) signal amplification versus a cell-autonomous effect, as we

observed decreased levels of both nascent IFNB1 and IFNL1. This is also relevant because

degradation and/or export inhibition of interferons and other cytokine cytoplasmic mRNA by

RNase L should reduce the level of their encoded secreted proteins, thereby dampening

their ability to induce ISG expression in neighboring cells via paracrine signaling. To evaluate

this for ISGs, we treated cells concurrently with poly(I:C) and brefeldin A (BFA), which

collapses Golgi-ER retrograde transport and inhibits protein secretion (Niu et al., 2005). BFA

reduced the difference in nascent mRNA levels between WT and RLKO cells for most of the

ISGs we tested, including IFIT1, RSAD2, OAS1, and OASL, confirming the impact of RNase L

activity on signal amplification of the interferon pathway (Figure 2F). However, the difference

between IL1A nascent mRNA levels in WT versus RLKO cells remained upon BFA treatment,

suggesting that the repression of nascent RNA can independently influence some immune

genes in a cell-autonomous manner.

Reduction of nascent RNA is not due to accelerated nuclear RNA degradation

RNase L is primarily described as a cytoplasmic nuclease (Burke et al., 2022; Cusic and

Burke, 2024), however even a small amount of active RNase L in the nucleus could lead to

rapid depletion of pre-mRNA. To directly test whether RNase L activation increases

degradation of nascent RNA in the nucleus, we measured nascent RNA turnover using an EU

pulse chase experiment. We transfected cells with poly(I:C) for 1 hour before EU pulse

labeling, a time point when EU incorporation is minimally affected by RNase L activation

(Figure S1C, S3A). We then chased with excess uridine over a 3h time course and measured

the decay of the labeled RNA. Notably, the rate of RNA decay was similar in A549 WT and

A549 RLKO cells, indicating that RNase L does not accelerate nascent RNA decay in the

nucleus (Figure 3A). We confirmed that the transfection conditions were sufficient to induce

RNase L-specific reduction of nascent RNA (Figure S3A-B, see the "pulse last" sample) and

that our measurements largely captured nuclear RNA (Figure S3C-D).

As an orthogonal way of confirming that the cytoplasmic fraction of RNase L is sufficient to

reduce nascent RNA in the nucleus, we complemented the RNase L knockout cells with a

Halo-tagged version of RNase L fused to a cytoplasmic retention signal (CRS) (Figure 3B)

derived from GDOWN1 (amino acid 250-368) (Zhu et al., 2022). This CRS promotes

cytoplasmic retention by both CRM1-dependent and -independent mechanisms and is

strong enough to retain HaloTag containing a SV40 nuclear localization signal within the

cytoplasm (Figure S3E). As expected, both CRS-Halo-RNase L and Halo-RNase L appeared

restricted to the cytoplasm (Figure 3C-E). Furthermore, both constructs reduced EU-pulse

labeled nascent RNA levels to a similar extent upon poly(I:C) transfection (Figure 3F-I),

indicating that cytoplasmic RNase L is sufficient to reduce nascent RNA in the nucleus. In

contrast, cells overexpressing CRS-Halo-NLS, a negative control, did not display such a

pattern (Figure 3F, I).

Taken together, these data argue against nuclear RNA decay as a mechanism by which

RNase L represses newly synthesized RNA. They instead indicate that its cytoplasmic RNA

decay activity indirectly impacts RNA biogenesis in the nucleus.

RNase L reduces serine-5-phosphorylated (S5P) Pol II levels in the nucleus

To investigate whether RNase L activity affects the transcriptional machinery, we first

monitored the large RPB1 subunit of Pol II by immunofluorescence, which undergoes

progressive phosphorylation within the heptad repeats in its C-terminal domain (CTD). We

used antibodies recognizing either the RPB1 N-terminus (i.e., all phosphorylation states), the

CTD serine 5 phosphorylated (S5P) version associated with transcription initiation, and the

CTD serine 2 phosphorylated (S2P) version associated with elongation. We observed a

significant RNase L-specific decrease in the abundance of total (NTD) and S5P Pol II, but not

S2P Pol II in poly(I:C)-treated cells (Figure 4A-C, S4A).

Nuclear speckles are hubs for co-transcriptional RNA processing. While they generally do

not contain Pol II, transcriptionally inactive Pol II has been reported within speckles when

using an antibody that cross-reacts with both S5P and S2P Pol II (Chapman et al., 2007; Xie

et al., 2006). Furthermore, inhibition of Pol II initiation by the CDK7 inhibitor THZ1 causes S5P

Pol II to accumulate in nuclear speckles (Hoboth et al., 2024). We similarly observed that

poly(I:C) treatment caused a specific accumulation of S5P Pol II in puncta that colocalize

with the nuclear speckle marker SC35 (Figure 4D-F, S4A). This S5P clustering in nuclear

speckles was less pronounced in RNase L-KO cells (Figure 4D-H). Finally, although nuclear

speckle size was unchanged (Figure S4B), there was an increase in SC35 intensity in

speckles in poly(I:C)-treated WT cells as well as a more rounded speckle morphology (Figure

4I-K). Thus, RNase L activation is associated with a reduction both in the total abundance

and a partial redistribution of S5P Pol II, as well as morphological changes to nuclear

speckles.

RNase L represses transcription via genome-wide reduction of Pol II occupancy

To directly measure how RNase L activation influences Pol II occupancy genome-wide, we

performed CUT&RUN-sequencing using an antibody to the Pol II S5P CTD (4H8) and applied

Greenlist normalization to account for potential global changes in occupancy. The Greenlist

method uses constant nonspecific signals in endogenous regions within the human genome

for normalization, which better accounts for the technical and experimental variations (de

Mello et al., 2024). Pol II occupancy was globally decreased in poly(I:C)-treated WT

compared to RLKO cells or untreated cells (Figure 5A). This RNase L-dependent decrease

spanned the length of the genes, including the transcript start site (TSS) (Figure 5B) and

transcript end site (TES) (Figure 5C). Analyzing subnucleosomal fragments (<120bp) and

nucleosomal fragments (>120bp) separately yielded similar results (Figure S5A-B).

To obtain a detailed landscape of Pol II occupancy on a gene-by-gene basis, we performed

differential binding analysis using DiffBind. This revealed a significant reduction in Pol II

binding at 87.1% of the TSS from expressed protein-coding genes in poly(I:C)-treated WT

cells compared to RLKO cells (Figure 5D). The 7 loci with increased Pol II binding were

associated with minor genetic/epigenetic differences and read-through transcription, akin

to the upregulation observed in the 4sU-seq data (Figure S5C-D). Differential binding

analysis on occupancy at the TES also revealed a similar decrease in Pol II occupancy (Figure 5E). The reduction was apparent both at housekeeping genes (Figure 5F) and at immune genes (Figure 5G). Thus, although immune genes are induced in response to poly(I:C) treatment (Figure 5G), RNase L tempers their level of transcriptional induction.

Finally, a subset of genes, including the housekeeping gene EEF1A1 (Figure 5H) and the stress-induced gene JUN (Figure 5I), showed a more pronounced reduction of Pol II occupancy at the 3' end compared to the 5' end, suggesting defects in Pol II transition to productive elongation. Collectively, our Pol II occupancy measurements demonstrate that RNase L activation promotes transcriptional repression, fine-tuning the levels of stress-induced and immune genes while globally downregulating most other genes when cells are under threat.

Discussion

RNase L-induced cytoplasmic mRNA degradation extensively remodels the cellular gene expression landscape, influencing how cells respond to viral infection. Though originally thought to mainly inhibit translation, it is now appreciated that RNase L triggers cascading impacts on upstream stages of gene expression, including mRNA processing and export (Burke et al., 2021; Burke et al., 2022). Here, we demonstrate through EU pulse labeling, nascent mRNA sequencing, and Pol II occupancy experiments that cytoplasmic RNase L activity also profoundly impacts RNA synthesis by repressing early stages of transcription, including at immune genes. RNase L-induced transcriptional repression coincides with changes in nuclear speckle morphology like those previously reported in transcriptionally inhibited cells (Hoboth et al., 2024). It also parallels Pol II transcriptional repression phenotypes induced by viral nucleases and cellular nucleases activated during early apoptosis (Abernathy et al., 2015; Duncan-Lewis et al., 2021; Gilbertson et al., 2018; Hartenian et al., 2020), highlighting the breadth of cellular stresses that engage RNA decay-transcription feedback signaling. The combination of these disruptions to the whole cellular

gene expression pathway, spanning RNA synthesis through translation and decay, is likely

what renders RNase L such a potent modulator of gene regulation.

Our data indicate that RNase L affects nascent mRNA via transcriptional inhibition. The most

prominent phenotype was reduced Pol II gene occupancy, although RNase L activation also

caused a modest reduction of total and S5P Pol II abundance in the nucleoplasm and

accumulation of S5P Pol II in nuclear speckles. S5P Pol II occupancy decreased at 87.1% of

TSS in an RNase L-dependent manner, suggesting that blocking Pol II recruitment and/or

initiation underlies much of the transcriptional repression. Some genes, including JUN, had

a more pronounced Pol II reduction at their 3' end, which may reflect additional gene-

specific effects on elongation, perhaps induced by stress responses.

Nuclear speckle-associated proteins play roles in co-transcriptional RNA processing, and

genes in close proximity to nuclear speckles often have enhanced expression (Khanna et al.,

2014) and splicing efficiency (Bhat et al., 2024; Wu et al., 2024). While active Pol II is not

generally found within nuclear speckles, certain forms of inactive Pol II accumulate in the

nuclear speckles during stress or upon transcription inhibitor treatment (Bregman et al.,

1995; Xie et al., 2006). It is therefore possible that in poly(I:C) treated cells, S5P Pol II is

inactive and accumulates in nuclear speckles in response to the dramatic loss in genome-

associated Pol II.

The fact that cytoplasmic RNase L promotes transcriptional repression indicates that its

mechanism of action is indirect. We envision several non-exclusive possibilities to explain

this connection. The first could involve the relocalization of RNA binding proteins (RBPs)

from the cytoplasm to the nucleus. More than 20 RBPs shuttle into the nucleus upon their

release from mRNA undergoing degradation by herpesviral nucleases (Gilbertson et al.,

2018), and several similarly relocalize in RNase L-activated cells (Burke et al., 2022). Nuclear

accumulation of these RBPs alters co-transcriptional RNA processing, including promoting

mRNA hyperadenylation and nuclear poly(A) RNA accumulation (Burke et al., 2021; Burke et

al., 2022; Decker et al., 2022; Lee and Glaunsinger, 2009). It is also associated with

transcriptional repression by herpesviral nucleases (Abernathy et al., 2015; Gilbertson et al.,

2018; Hartenian et al., 2020), suggesting that Pol II repression could result from aberrant

mRNA processing or export. Second, transcriptional repression may be induced by stress

signals conveyed by the global disruption of protein translation and the affected translation

machinery. This could occur as a consequence of ZAKα-dependent ribotoxic stress

responses or other ribosome quality control pathways induced by RNase L (Karasik et al.,

2024; Xi et al., 2024). In support of this hypothesis, nascent protein ubiquitinylation in

response to disrupted translation during heat shock contributes to transcriptional

repression via a mechanism involving p38 signaling (Aprile-Garcia et al., 2019). Third, RNase

L-induced translation arrest could result in a loss of proteins involved in global transcription

regulation, particularly those with shorter half-lives. Consistent with this possibility,

translation inhibition by cycloheximide in mouse embryonic stem cells can lead to depletion

of labile euchromatin modifiers like Chd1 and reduced euchromatin marks, reduced Pol II

occupancy, and less nascent RNA (Bulut-Karslioglu et al., 2018). Finally, it is possible that

RNA fragments generated by RNase L cleavage serve as signaling molecules in the

cytoplasm or upon transit into the nucleus (Takenaka et al., 2025).

A key outcome of transcriptional repression is modulation of immune gene transcription. We

find that although ISGs are robustly induced by poly(I:C) transfection independently of

RNase L, RNase L activity tempers ISG induction. Many ISGs are downregulated due to

reduced IFN signal amplification, which is relevant considering that RNase L activation is not

uniform in cultures of cells exposed to dsRNA and thus decreased gene expression by RNase

L should influence innate immune signaling in neighboring cells (Burke et al., 2021; Huai et

al., 2025; Rath et al., 2019). However, there are immune genes like IL1A whose transcription

is directly repressed by the cytoplasmic RNA decay, indicating that RNase L-induced

transcriptional repression can have both cell autonomous and paracrine effects. Given the

clinical implications of OAS and RNase L mutations in autoimmune diseases including MIS-

C (Karasik and Guydosh, 2024; Lee et al., 2023), elucidating how the RNA decay-driven

transcription repression shapes the immune landscape — in coordination with other

branches of RNase L-driven pathways — should remain a focus of future studies.

Figure legends

Figure 1. RNase L-mediated mRNA degradation represses nascent RNA accumulation.

(A) Diagram showing the experimental setup for nascent RNA measurement. (B) Flow cytometry histograms of A549 WT or RNase L knockout (RLKO) cells with the indicated treatment from one representative biological replicate (of 3 independent biological replicates). (C) Quantification of flow cytometry data from 3 independent biological replicates. Each dot represents the median fluorescence intensity of the sample with the indicated treatment from one biological replicate, normalized to the median fluorescence intensity of mock-transfected RLKO cells. Bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. P-values were calculated using a two-sided Welch's *t*-test. (D) Representative immunofluorescence images (max intensity projection, 3 independent biological replicates) of A549 WT or RLKO cells infected with Zika virus (MOI=5) at 24 hpi. Cells were stained with mouse anti-NS3 antibody to indicate infected cells, and Hoechst 33342 to mark nuclei. (E) Quantification of nuclear EU signal in 1 representative replicate of 3 independent biological replicates in *(D)*. Each dot represents the mean nuclear EU fluorescence intensity of one individual nucleus. Bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. P-value was calculated using Welch's *t* test.

Figure 2. RNase L reduces nascent rRNA and pre-mRNA.

(A) Diagram summarizing the 4sU-seq experiment. (B) IGV tracks showing 4sU-seq coverage

at rDNA repeat. Tracks represent the average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates.

(C) Metagene analysis of 4sU-seq signal coverage over expressed protein-coding genes (-1kb

from TSS to +2.5kb from TES, n=12,713). Lines represent the average coverage of 3

independent biological replicates. (D) Differential expression analysis of 4sU-seq comparing

WT cells transfected with poly(I:C) to RLKO cells transfected with poly(I:C). Each gene was

graphed with the log2(fold change) value on the y axis and log2 of mean expression level

expressed in count per million (CPM) on the x axis. Significantly-up (red) and significantly-

down (blue) are defined as adjusted p-value < 0.05 and log2(fold change) > 0.585 or < -0.585,

respectively. Dashed lines denote log2(fold change) of -0.585, 0, and 0.585. (E) GO-term

enrichment analysis of down-regulated genes identified in *(D)*. (F) Pre-mRNA level of

immune genes in WT or RLKO cells transfected with poly(I:C), with or without treatment of

brefeldin A (BFA). Pre-mRNA level is determined by RT-qPCR using intron-exon spanning

primer pairs, normalized to 18S. *, $p< 0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p< 0.001$; ns, not significant.

Figure 3. Reduction of nascent RNA is not due to accelerated nuclear RNA degradation by RNase L

(A) Quantification of EU signal intensity after uridine chase for durations indicated. Each point represents the average of median EU fluorescence intensity from 3 independent biological replicates, normalized to 0h chase. (B) Diagrams of the constructs used. (C) Representative images of the localization of tagged RNase L. The tagged RNase L was visualized by halo tag labeling with JF646 halo dye. A single z plane is shown per construct. (D) Line profile of CRS-Halo-RNase L shown in *(C)*. (E) Line profile of Halo-RNase L shown in *(C)*. (F) Flow cytometry scatter plot of A549 RLKO cells nucleofected with the indicated constructs, with or without poly(I:C) transfection. Data is from 1 representative replicate of 3 independent biological replicates. (G-I) Quantification of EU signals in *(F)*. The Halo intensity is gated at locations shown in (F) and separated into 2 populations. Each dot represents the median fluorescence intensity, normalized to the median fluorescence intensity of mock-transfected RLKO cells nucleofected with the constructs indicated. Bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. P-values were calculated using a ratio paired *t*-test.

Figure 4. RNase L reduces serine-5-phosphorylated Pol II levels in the nucleus

(A)-(C) Quantification of total Pol II (NTD), S5P, and S2P staining intensity after transfection as indicated for 4.5h, respectively. Each point represents the mean fluorescence intensity of each nucleus. Data is representative of 3 independent biological replicates. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. ****, p<0.0001 (Welch's t-test). (D) Representative max-intensity-z-projection images of the S5P Pol II and SC35 localization in poly(I:C)-transfected A549 WT or RLKO cells. Data is representative of 3 independent biological replicates. (E) Magnified view of representative nuclei in *(D)*. (F)-(G) Line profile of S5P and SC35 intensity in *(E)*. (H) Quantification of the ratio of mean S5P intensity in nuclear speckles and in nuclei using data in *(D)*. Each point represents the value calculated for each nucleus. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. ****, p<0.0001 (Welch's t-test). (I) Quantification of coefficient of variation (CV), defined as CV=σ/μ, where σ is the standard deviation and μ is the mean intensity. Data is the same as *(D)*. Each point represents the value calculated for each nucleus. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. ****, p<0.0001 (Welch's t-test). (J)-(K) Quantification of mean SC35 intensity and circularity for each SC35 focus, respectively, using data in *(D)*. Each point represents the value calculated for each SC35 focus. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. ****, p<0.0001 (Welch's t-test).

Figure 5. RNase L activation inhibits transcription by reducing RNA Pol II occupancy.

(A) Metagene analysis of Pol II occupancy on expressed protein-coding genes in WT or RLKO

cells, either mock transfected or transfected with poly(I:C). Lines represent the average

coverage of 3 independent biological replicates. N=12,713. (B) Metagene analysis of Pol II

occupancy at -1kb to +1.5kb around transcription start site (TSS) of expressed protein-

coding genes. Lines represent the average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates.

N=12,713. (C) Metagene analysis of Pol II occupancy at -1kb to +1.5kb around transcript end

site (TES) of expressed protein-coding genes. Lines represent the average coverage of 3

independent biological replicates. N=12,713. (D) Differential binding analysis of CUT&RUN-

seq signal at the TSS (-500bp to +50bp) comparing WT cells transfected with poly(I:C) to

RLKO cells transfected with poly(I:C). Each locus was graphed with the log2(fold change)

value on the y axis and the mean expression level on the x axis. Significantly-up (red) and

significantly-down (blue) are defined as adjusted *p*-value < 0.05 and log2(fold change) >

0.585 or < -0.585, respectively. Dashed lines denote log2(fold change) of -0.585, 0, and 0.585.

(E) Differential binding analysis of CUT&RUN-seq signal at the TES (-100bp to +500bp)

comparing WT cells transfected with poly(I:C) to RLKO cells transfected with poly(I:C).

Significantly-up (red) and significantly-down (blue) are defined as adjusted *p*-value < 0.05

and log2(fold change) > 0.585 or < -0.585, respectively. Dashed lines denote log2(fold

change) of -0.585, 0, and 0.585. (F) IGV tracks showing Pol II CUT&RUN signal coverage on

HSPA8 and RPL13, two examples of housekeeping genes. (G) IGV tracks showing Pol II

CUT&RUN signal coverage on IFNL1 and B2M, examples of immune genes. (H)-(I) IGV track

overlay showing Pol II CUT&RUN signal coverage on EEF1A1 and JUN genes. All tracks in *(F)-*

(I) represent the average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates.

Figure S1. RNase L activation reduces nascent RNA progressively in A549 and iBMDM cells,

independent of caspase activity. Related to Figure 1

(A) Representative max-intensity-projected images of mock-transfected A549 WT cells

pulsed with 1mM EU for 30 minutes. (B) Normalized fluorescence intensity across line trace

in (*A*). (C) A549 WT or RLKO cells were either mock-transfected with RNAiMAX or transfected

with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) for durations indicated, followed by a 30-min pulse labeling with 1

mM EU. Error bars represent the mean ± SD of log2-fold change over mock-transfected

RNase L KO cells at the indicated time point. Data is from 2 biological replicates. (D) Murine

iBMDM cells were nucleofected with either control or RNaseL-targeting siRNA for 48 hours,

either mock-transfected with RNAiMAX or transfected with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) for 4 hours,

followed by a 30-minute pulse labeling with 1 mM EU. EU signal was gated according to no-

EU controls. Error bars represent mean ± SD of 3 biological replicates. (E) Western blot

validation of RNase L siRNA knockdown efficiency. (F) A549 WT or RNase L KO cells were

transfected with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) in the presence of z-VAD at the indicated concentration

for 4 hours, followed by 30-min pulse labeling with 1mM EU. Each dot represents the median

fluorescence intensity of the sample with indicated treatment from one biological replicate,

normalized to the median fluorescence intensity of DMSO-treated KO cells. Bars represent

mean ± SD. P-values were calculated using a two-sided Welch's *t*-test. Data is from 2

biological replicates. (G) Low magnification (20X) field of view of Zika virus-infected cells,

from the same sample as *Figure 1D-E*.

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Figure S2. 4sU-seq data accurately captures changes on the nascent RNA level. Related to

Figure 2.

(A) Differential expression analysis of 4sU-seq comparing WT cells to RLKO cells transfected

with poly(I:C) cells (same as Figure 2D), with spike-ins highlighted. See Figure 2D for details.

(B) RT-qPCR of 4sU samples compared to no-4sU control. RNA samples were the same as

the ones used in 4sU-seq. *, $p < 0.05$ (ratio paired *t* test). (C) IGV tracks showing 4sU-seq

signal coverage on RN7SK, VTRNA1-3 and RN7SL3, examples of downregulated Pol III

transcribed genes. Tracks represent the average coverage of 3 independent biological

replicates. Positive value indicates coverage in the positive strand direction while negative

value indicates coverage in the negative strand direction. (D) Differential expression analysis

of 4sU-seq comparing mock-transfected WT cells RLKO cells. (E) IGV tracks showing 4sU-

seq signal coverage on CADM2, an example of cell line-specific expression variation. Tracks

represent the average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates. Positive value

indicates coverage in the positive strand direction while negative value indicates coverage in

the negative strand direction. (F) IGV tracks showing 4sU-seq signal coverage on FAP

downstream of IFIH1, an example of read-through transcription. Tracks represent the

average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates. Positive value indicates coverage in

the positive strand direction while negative value indicates coverage in the negative strand

direction.

Figure S3. EU pulse chase experiments accurately measure nuclear RNA turnover kinetics

and functional confirmation of the CRS tag. Related to Figure 3.

(A) Diagram showing the experimental setup of the "EU pulse last" control in parallel to the

EU pulse chase experiments shown in Figure 3A. (B) Quantification of EU signal in the "EU

pulse at last" control. Data from Figure 3B, replotted as the ratio of EU signals in A549 WT to

RLKO cells, are included for comparison. Each dot represents one biological replicate. Bars

represent mean $\pm$ SD. (C) Representative max-intensity-projected images of cells

transfected with poly(I:C) for 1 hour, pulsed with 1mM EU for 30 minutes then chased for 2

hours. WT cells were labeled with CFDA-SE dye and co-cultured with RLKO cells. (D)

Normalized fluorescence intensity across line trace in *(C)*. CFDA-SE signal is included as a

uniform distributed control for comparison. (E) Representative images of the localization of

CRS-Halo-NLS and Halo-NLS. A single z plane is shown per construct. Diagram showing the

constructs are included.

Figure S4. RNase L activation reduces nuclear total Rpb1 and S5P Rpb1 and does not affect

nuclear speckle sizes. Related to Figure 4.

(A) Representative max-intensity-z-projection images of Pol II (NTD), S5P and S2P staining in

A549 WT or RLKO cells transfected as indicated. Data are the same as Figure 4A-C. (B)

Quantification of SC35 foci area for each SC35 focus using data in Figure 4D. Each point

represents the value measured for each SC35 focus. Error bars represent mean $\pm$ SD. Data

are from 1 representative replicate of 3 total replicates.

Figure S5. RNase L activation reduces CUT&RUN subnucleosomal and nucleosomal signals

at TSS, and CUT&RUN-seq mirrors apparent upregulation in 4sU-seq. Related to Figure 5.

(A) Metagene analysis of subnucleosomal fragment (<120bp) coverage at -1kb to +1.5kb

around transcription start site (TSS) of expressed protein-coding genes. (B) Metagene

analysis of nucleosomal fragment (>120bp) coverage at -1kb to +1.5kb around the

transcription start site (TSS) of expressed protein-coding genes. The enrichment of

subnucleosomal fragments slightly upstream of TSS and the bimodal peaks around the TSS

of the nucleosomal fragments likely reflect the local nucleosome organization around Pol II

occupancy sites. (C) IGV tracks showing Pol II CUT&RUN-seq and 4sU-seq signal coverage

on ZNF724, an example of cell line-specific expression variation. Tracks represent the

average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates. For the 4sU track, positive value

indicates coverage in the positive strand direction while negative value indicates coverage in

the negative strand direction. (G) IGV tracks showing Pol II CUT&RUN-seq and 4sU-seq signal

coverage on GALR3 downstream of H1-0, an example of read-through transcription. Tracks

represent the average coverage of 3 independent biological replicates. For the 4sU track,

positive value indicates coverage in the positive strand direction while negative value

indicates coverage in the negative strand direction.

Materials and Methods

Plasmids

All plasmids generated in this study were sequence verified by whole plasmid sequencing and have been deposited on Addgene (accession numbers pending). All PCR reactions were performed using Q5 2X master mix (NEB, cat # M0494S). Sequences encoding the CRS tag, HALO tag, and RNase L with appropriate overhangs were PCR amplified. pLJM1-Halo-RNaseL was constructed by directly cloning the HALO and RNase L PCR fragments into linearized pLJM1-puro (Sancak et al., 2008) using InFusion (Takara Bio, Cat # 639650). pLJM1-CRS-Halo-RNaseL was constructed by first assembling CRS, HALO and RNase L PCR fragments into a single fragment by overlap extension PCR, followed by cloning into linearized pLJM1-puro using InFusion. pLJM1-CRS-Halo-NLS was generated from pLJM1-CRS-Halo-RNaseL using a site-directed mutagenesis protocol described previously (Chiu et al., 2004) to replace RNase L fragment with an SV40 NLS (PKKKRKV). pLJM1-Halo-NLS was generated from pLJM1-Halo-RNaseL using the same mutagenesis method as above.

Cells and culture conditions

A549 WT, RLKO, RLKO-RL and RLKO-CM cell lines were generously provided by James Burke (University of Florida Scripps) and Roy Parker (University of Colorado, Boulder). Immortalized murine bone marrow macrophages were generously provided by Susan Carpenter (UC Santa Cruz). All cell lines were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and tested for mycoplasma routinely using Universal Mycoplasma Detection Kit (ATCC, cat # 50189644FP).

EU pulse chase for flow cytometry

Cells were were mock-transfected or transfected with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) HMW (InVivoGen, cat # tlrl-pic) using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Thermo Fisher, cat # 13778-150) as indicated, then the media was replaced with 1mM EU (Click Chemistry Tools cat #CCT-1261-500 or

Lumiprobe cat # 2439-500mg) in DMEM with 10% FBS. The cells were incubated at 37°C for

30 minutes. For flow cytometry samples, cells were washed once with 1ml PBS, harvested,

and fixed with 1% PFA. The cells were then permeabilized by resuspending in 100ul 0.05%

w/v saponin in PBS. To visualize EU incorporation, 500ul click reaction mix (4mM $CuSO_4$,

100mM sodium ascorbate, 2 µM sulfo-cyanine5-azide (Lumiprobe cat# A3330) in TBS,

50mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 150mM NaCl) was added to the cell suspension and the samples

were incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes, protected from light. The samples were

then washed twice with 1ml 0.05% w/v saponin in PBS, once with 1ml PBS, then

resuspended in PBS before flow cytometry analysis. The samples were then analyzed on an

BD Accuri C6 Plus flow cytometer.

For EU pulse chase experiments, WT cells were first color-labeled with 1 µM CFDA-SE

(cayman chemical, cat # 14456) in PBS for 10 min at room temperature, quenched with equal

volume of DMEM with 10% FBS, then washed with DMEM with 10% FBS 3 times. The labeled

WT cells were resuspended in DMEM with 10% FBS, pooled with unlabeled RLKO cells at a

1:1 ratio and were seeded in 6-well plates the day before experiment. Cells were transfected

with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) HMW (InVivoGen, cat # tlrl-pic) using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX

(Thermo Fisher, cat # 13778-150) for 1 hour and pulsed with 1mM EU in DMEM with 10% FBS

for 30 minutes at 37°C. The EU-containing media was removed, and cells were washed with

PBS once and immediately chased with 10mM uridine in DMEM with 10% FBS. The samples

were harvested at the indicated time-points. An additional well without transfection and EU

pulse labeling was harvested at the same time as the 0-hour chase samples, serving as a

no-EU control. The "Pulse last" sample, which served as a control for transfection efficiency,

was transfected with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) for 1 hour, incubated DMEM with 10% FBS without

EU for 30 minutes at 37°C, washed with PBS once and replaced the supernatant with DMEM

with 10% FBS and incubated for 1.5 hours. Then the cells were pulsed with 1mM EU in DMEM

with 10% FBS for 30 minutes at 37°C and harvested at the same time as the 2-hour chase

samples.

To characterize EU incorporation in cells overexpressing tagged RNase L, A549 RLKO cells

were first nucleofected with the indicated construct using Neon transfection system

(Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's recommended settings for A549 cells (1230V,

30ms, 2 pulses), using 5µg DNA per 750,000 cells in 100µL E2 buffer. The nucleofected cells

were cultured in 6-well plates overnight. The cells were then incubated with 20nM Halo

ligand Janelia Fluor 646 (Promega, cat # GA1121) diluted in 1mL DMEM + 10%FBS per well

30 minutes prior to poly(I:C) transfection, then transfected with 0.76µg/ml poly(I:C) for 4

hours without removing the Halo dye and pulsed with 1mM EU for 30 minutes same as above.

The samples were processed as above, with the exception that 5uM Alexa Fluor™ 488 Azide

(Thermo Fisher, cat #A10266) was used.

To characterize EU incorporation in murine iBMDM cells depleted of RNase L, cells were

maintained in DMEM with 10% FBS and grown to 90% confluence. Cells were removed and

washed once with Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS) (Gibco). Nucleofections

were done using the Neon Transfection System (Thermo Fisher). 2×10^6 cells were

resuspended in 100 µL of buffer R, to which control non-targeting or RNase L targeting pools

of siRNA (ON-TARGETplus SMARTpool siRNA – Horizon Discovery) were added to a final

concentration of 200nM. This was loaded into a Neon 100-µL pipette tip and Neon tube with

3 mL of buffer E2 with electroporation parameters set to 1,680 V, 20 ms, 1 pulse. Following

electroporation, cells were plated in 10 mL of DMEM with 10% FBS in 10 cm TC-treated

plates and were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. Cells were then transfected with 0.76µg/ml

poly(I:C) pulsed with 1mM EU for 30 minutes same as above. The samples were processed

as above.

Immunofluorescence

For Zika infection in Figure 1D-E and Figure S1G, A549 WT or RLKO cells were seeded in glass-

bottomed 24 well-plates at a density of 100,000 cells per well the day before experiment,

and after media change were infected with Zika virus (Nica 2–16, GenBank accession

KX421194.1) at an MOI = 5 for 24 hours. Cells were treated with 1 mM EU for 30 min before

they were washed once with 1ml PBS then fixed with 4% PFA for 15 minutes. The cells were

then permeabilized with 0.5% Triton X-100 in PBS for 15 minutes and washed 3 times with

PBS. Samples were then incubated with 500µL click reaction mix at room temperature for 30

minutes, then washed twice with PBS and kept in PBS. Samples were then blocked with 1%

BSA in PBS with 0.02% Tween-20 for 1 hour and incubated with mouse anti-NS3 antibody

(Clone E1D8) (Balsitis et al., 2009) diluted 1:100 in the blocking solution overnight at 4°C.

The samples were then washed 3 times with PBS+0.02% Tween-20, incubated with goat anti-

mouse IgG AlexaFluor Plus 488 (Invitrogen, cat #A32723) diluted 1:1000 in blocking solution,

and washed 3 times with PBS+0.02% Tween-20. The nuclei were stained with 8 µM Hoechst

33342 in PBS for 30 minutes, followed by 2 PBS washes.

For RNase L localization studies, A549 RLKO cells were nucleofected as in the "EU pulse

chase for flow cytometry" section and 340,000 cells were seeded per well in a glass-

bottomed 24-well plate and incubated overnight. Cells were first labeled with 20nM Halo

ligand Janelia Fluor 646 for 30 minutes and transfected with poly(I:C) at a concentration of

0.76µg/ml for 4 hours without removing the Halo ligand. The cells were then pulse labeled

with EU and fixed, permeabilized, labeled with click reaction and Hoechst 33342 as above.

For characterizing changes in RPB1 and nuclear speckle morphology, A549 WT or RLKO cells

were seeded in glass-bottomed 24 well-plates at a density of 100,000 cells per well the day

before experiment and transfected with either lipofectamine RNAiMAX alone or with poly(I:C)

at a concentration of 0.76µg/ml for 4 (optionally pulsed with 1mM EU for 30min) to 4.5 hours.

Samples fixed and permeabilized and optionally labeled with click reaction as above, then

were blocked with 0.3%-0.5% BSA in PBS with 0.3-0.5% Triton X-100 for 0.5-1 hour. Then

samples were stained with primary antibodies against Rpb1 NTD (clone D8L4Y, Cell

Signaling Technology, 1:500), Rpb1 S5P (ab5131, Abcam, 1:500), Rpb1 S2P (ab5095, Abcam,

1:500) and SC35 (ab11826, Abcam, 1:500) diluted in blocking solution overnight at 4°C, goat

anti-rabbit IgG AlexaFluor Plus 488 (Invitrogen, cat #A32723) alone or goat anti-mouse IgG

AlexaFluor 546 (Invitrogen, cat # A11035) and goat anti-rabbit IgG AlexaFluor 647 (Invitrogen,

cat # A27040) diluted 1:1000 in blocking solution as secondaries, and 8-10µM Hoechst

33342.

All samples were imaged on a Nikon Eclipse Ti spinning disk confocal microscope or a Zeiss

LSM 880 confocal laser scanning microscope.

Image processing

All confocal image processing was performed using FIJI, either manually or with custom

macros. Line profile measurements were performed using the plot profile function and the

data was exported to Prism 10 for normalization and visualization. For nuclear signal

quantification in Figure 1D-E and Figure 4A-C, the nuclear regions of interest (ROIs) were

generated from the Hoechst channel in the image z-stack by Gaussian blur, thresholding

with the Otsu method, and 3D segmentation using the 3D Manager. To fill holes within ROIs

and exclude objects on edges, the 3D segmentation map was converted to binary, followed

by "3D fill holes" and "3D exclude edges". The processed binary map was 3D segmented

again using the 3D Manager to generate the final ROIs. The ROIs were then used to quantify

mean intensity in selected channels with the "quantify" function in 3D Manager.

For quantification in Figure 4I, the image z-stack was first max-intensity projected. Then the

nuclear ROIs were generated from the Hoechst channel by Gaussian blur, thresholding with

the Otsu method, hole filling by the "Fill holes" function, and size selected with the "Analyze

particle" function to only include particles larger than 50 μm^2. Then the ROIs were used to

quantify mean intensity and standard deviation in selected channels with the "Measure"

function. For analysis in Figure 4H, a 0-and-1-based binary mask for the nuclear speckles

was first generated from the SC35 channel by Gaussian blur and local thresholding with the

Bernsen method. The mask was multiplied with the S5P channel to isolate S5P signal in

nuclear speckles. The measurement for the total nuclear S5P or nuclear speckle S5P signal

in nuclei was carried out as above. For nuclear speckle analysis, a 0-and-1-based binary

mask for the nuclei was first generated, then the channels of interest were multiplied to the

mask to isolate nuclei. A duplicated SC35 channel was then used to generate nuclear

speckle ROIs by Gaussian blur, local thresholding with the Bernsen method, size selected

with the "Analyze particle" function to only include particles larger than 0.4 μm^2. Then the

ROIs were used to quantify mean intensity, area, and circularity in original SC35 channel with

the "Measure" function.

4sU-Seq

Six million A549 WT or RLKO cells were seeded in 15cm tissue culture dishes and cultured

overnight before transfection. Then cells were then transfected with poly(I:C) for 4 hours,

followed by pulse labeling with 500µM 4sU dissolved in DMEM media supplemented with 10%

FBS for 10 minutes. The plates were washed once with PBS then lysed with 2ml TRIzol. RNA

was extracted from the TRIzol lysate, followed by isopropanol precipitation. 100µg or 300µg

(WT with poly(I:C)) total RNA was biotinylated with HPDP-biotin (Thermo Scientific cat #

PI21341, 50µg per 25µg of RNA) for 2 hours, followed by two chloroform extraction and

isopropanol precipitation. The RNA samples were denatured at 65°C for 5 minutes, then

incubated with Dynabeads MyOne Streptavidin C1 magnetic beads (Thermo Fisher cat #

65002) previously blocked with glycogen for 1 hour. The beads were washed twice with wash

buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl, 10 mM EDTA, 1 M sodium chloride, and 0.1% Tween 20) at 65°C

then twice at room temperature. To increase the stringency of the washes, the beads were

further washed with TE buffer (10mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 1mM EDTA) twice at 55°C (Li et al.,

2017). 4sU-RNA was then eluted from beads twice with 100µL 100mM DTT, and the

combined eluent was precipitated with isopropanol.

The sequencing library was constructed using KAPA Stranded RNA-Seq Kit with RiboErase

(HMR) (cat # KK8484, 07962304001) following manufacturer's instructions, with the

following modifications: Briefly, 60ng to 100ng RNA was used as input without rRNA

depletion and fragmented at 85 °C for 6 minutes; the PCR cycle numbers were determined

empirically by qPCR. The library was submitted to QB3-Berkeley Genomics Sequencing Core

for QC and sequencing on a NovaSeq 6000 S1 chip.

Analysis of published RNA-seq datasets

Published total RNA-seq datasets for mock- or poly(I:C)-transfected A549 cells (GEO:

GSE124144) (Burke et al., 2019) were used to as a proxy to assign the dominant transcript

for each gene. The raw fastq files were first pre-processed using HTStream

(https://github.com/s4hts/HTStream) then pseudo-aligned and quantified using Kallisto

(Bray et al., 2016). For each gene, the highest expressed transcript (measured by transcript-

per-million, TPM, first criteria) with the longest transcript length (second criteria) was

selected as the dominant transcript. Only genes on the main nuclear chromosomes (i.e.,

chr1-22, chrX and chrY) and the corresponding dominant transcript with average TPM > 0 are

included.

4sU-Seq data processing

The raw reads were pre-processed with HTStream v1.3.2

(https://github.com/s4hts/HTStream), including separation of rRNA and non-rRNA reads

into separate files by HTStream SeqScreener. The rRNA reads were aligned to the rDNA

repeat (GenBank Accession U13369.1) concatenated with ERCC sequences and the non-

rRNA reads were aligned to the human genome (hg38) concatenated with ERCC sequences

using STAR v2.6.1b (Dobin et al., 2013). When aligning rRNA reads, options *--alignIntronMax*

1 and *--alignSJDBoverhangMin 999* were set to suppress gapped alignment. Aligned reads

were counted using Rsubread (v2.16.1) FeatureCounts (Liao et al., 2014) and differential

gene expression analysis was performed with limma-Voom v3.58.1, normalized to 4sU-

labeled spike-in. (Ritchie et al., 2015). A model of ~0+group+replicate is used to account for

batch effects. Segments of pre-rRNA (i.e., 5' ETS, 18S, ITS1, 5.8S, ITS2, 28S, 3' ETS) were

included in the differential expression analysis. Scaled, stranded BigWig files were

generated with Deeptools bamCoverage function, using scaling factors generated in limma-

Voom (proportional to the reciprocal of norm.factors × lib.sizes). BigWig files of biological

replicates were averaged using Deeptools bigwigAverage function. For both operations, bin

sizes were set to 20bp. The metagene coverage plots were generated using Deeptools

(Ramirez et al., 2016) using the coordinates of dominant transcripts defined in "Analysis of

published RNA-seq datasets".

CUT&RUN-sequencing

CUT&RUN was done according to previous reports (Miura and Chen, 2020; Morgens et al.,

2025) with modifications. Briefly, 250,000 A549 WT or RNase L KO cells per well were seeded

on a 12-well plate and cultured overnight before transfection. Then cells were then

transfected with RNAiMAX alone or with 0.76 µg/ml poly(I:C) for 4 hours The cells were

permeabilize on plate with 500µL Perm buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5

mM Spermidine (Sigma, S2626), 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma, X100), and proteinase inhibitor

(Roche, 04693132001)) for 15 minutes at room temperature. The cells were washed again

with Perm buffer then incubated with either anti-Rpb1 S5P CTD (4H8, Cell Signaling, cat

#2629) at 1:50 dilution in 200µL Perm buffer or equal mass of mouse normal IgG (Santa Cruz,

cat # sc-2025) for 1 hour at room temperature. The cells were then washed twice with Perm

buffer and incubated with pAG-MNase (Cell Signaling, cat #40366) at 1:33 dilution in 200µL

Perm buffer for 1 hour at room temperature. The cells were then washed twice with Perm

buffer and chill on ice. Then 225 µL ice-cold Perm buffer containing 5 mM $CaCl_2$ was

dispensed per well, and the plate was incubated in a refrigerator at 4°C for 30 min for

targeted digestion. The reaction was halted by adding 75 µL 4× STOP solution (680 mM NaCl,

40 mM EDTA, 8 mM EGTA, 100 µg/ml RNase A (Invitrogen, cat # 12091021) and 0.1% Triton

X-100, spiked with yeast genomic DNA (Cell Signaling, cat #40366) at 10pg per sample). The

plate was then incubated at 37°C for 30min to facilitate fragment release. The supernatant

was collected and then 3µL 20% SDS solution and 3.75µL 20mg/ml proteinase K solution

was added. The mixture was then incubated at 50°C for 1 hour. The DNA was extracted with

phenol:chloroform.

The sequencing library was constructed with NEBNext® Ultra™ II DNA Library Prep Kit (NEB,

cat # E7645L) following a previous report (Liu et al., 2018a) with modifications. Briefly, equal

volume of purified DNA fragments was used. End prep was performed at 20°C for 30 min and

then 50°C for 60min to prevent short fragment melting. Fragments were then ligated to

adaptors from NEBNext® Multiplex Oligos for Illumina® (Unique Dual Index UMI Adaptors

DNA Set 1, NEB, cat # E7395S) and cleaned up twice with 1.1X Ampure XP beads (Beckman

Coutler, cat # A63880). The resulting ligated products were then PCR amplified for 10 cycles

and 14 cycles for 4H8 and IgG samples, respectively. The cycle numbers were determined

empirically by qPCR. The amplified libraries were double-sided size selected with 0.6X and

1.1X Ampure XP beads and further cleaned up by 1 round or 3 rounds with 1.1X bead for 4H8

or IgG samples, respectively, to remove adaptor dimers. The library was pooled and

sequenced on AVITI platform (Element Biosciences) by UC Davis sequencing core.

CUT&RUN data processing

Reads were trimmed with Trimmomatic v0.39 (Bolger et al., 2014) and aligned to a

concatenated human (hg38) and yeast (SacCer3) genome with bowtie 2 v2.5.2 (Langmead

and Salzberg, 2012). The BAM files were then deduplicated with UMI_tools v1.1.5 (Smith et

al., 2017) and optionally splitted into subnucleosomal (<120bp) and nucleosomal (>120bp)

fractions using Deeptools (v3.5.5) alignmentSieve. The normalization factors were

calculated according to de Mello et al (de Mello et al., 2024), using Deeptools

multibamSummary functions to quantify reads in the Greenlist regions provided and to

calculate scaling factors. BigWig files were generated with Deeptools bamCoverage function,

using scaling factors generated above. BigWig files of biological replicates were averaged

using Deeptools bigwigAverage function. For both operations, bin sizes were set to 20bp. The

metagene coverage plots were generated using Deeptools. Differential binding analysis was

performed with DiffBind v3.12.0 (Ross-Innes et al., 2012) using the reciprocal normalization

factors generated above.

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR)

For Figure 2F, 500,000 A549 WT or RLKO cells per well were seeded in 6-well plates the day

before experiment and were either mock-transfected or transfected with 0.76μg/ml poly(I:C),

in the absence or in the presence with 1X brefeldin A (eBiosciences, cat # 00-4506-51) when

indicated, for 3 hours. RNA samples were prepared by TRIzol extraction. They were then

treated with Turbo DNase (Thermo Fisher, cat # AM2238) for 30 minutes at 37°C and re-

purified by phenol:chloroform extraction. 500ng to 1µg RNA was used for reverse

transcription using AMV-RT (Promega, cat # M5108) and random 9-mer primer (IDT). cDNA

was then quantified by qPCR with iTaq Universal SYBR Mastermix (BioRad, cat # 1725125)

and indicated primer pairs. Transcript levels were normalized to 18S.

For Figure 2F, equal volume of 4sU RNA eluent were directly reverse transcribed using AMV-

RT (Promega) and random 9-mer primer (IDT) and quantified as above with indicated primer

pairs. Transcript levels were normalized to spike-in.

Western blotting

To prepare whole-cell lysates for evaluating RNase L knock-down murine iBMDMs

transfected with RNase L targeting siRNAs (Horizon, cat # L-043480-00-0010), cells were

washed with cold DPBS (Gibco) followed by lysis with radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA)

lysis buffer (50 mM Tris HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 1.0% [vol/vol] NP-40, 0.5% [wt/vol] sodium

deoxycholate, 1.0 mM EDTA, and 0.1% [wt/vol] SDS, Halt™ Protease and Phosphatase

Inhibitor Cocktail (Thermo Fisher, cat # PI78440). Cell lysates were vortexed briefly, rotated

at 4°C for 15 min, and then clarified by centrifugation at 21,000 × g in a tabletop centrifuge at

4°C for 10 min to remove debris. 30 µg of whole-cell lysate were resolved on 4% to 15% mini-

PROTEAN TGX gels (Bio-Rad). Transfers to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (Bio-

Rad) were done with the Trans-Blot Turbo transfer system (Bio-Rad). Blots were incubated in

5% milk in TBS with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-T) to block, followed by incubation with primary

antibodies against anti-RNase L (Abcam, ab191392, 1:10,000) and anti-GAPDH antibody

(abcam ab8245, 1;5,000). Washes were carried out with TBS-T. Blots were then incubated

with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (Southern Biotechnology, 1:5,000). Washed

blots were incubated with Clarity Western ECL substrate (Bio-Rad) for 5 min and visualized

with a ChemiDoc imager (Bio-Rad).

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed with GraphPad Prism 10.

Resource Availability

4sU-seq and CUT&RUN-seq datasets were deposited in NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus under the accession numbers GSE298174 and GSE298175, respectively.

Acknowledgements

We thank all members of the Glaunsinger and Coscoy labs for helpful discussions. We thank James Burke and Roy Parker (CU Boulder) for providing the A549 RNaseL KO and complementation cell lines and Susan Carpenter (UC Santa Cruz) for providing the iBMDM cell line. We thank Nharae Eugene Lee for generating the viral stocks used in this study. We thank Alejandro Rivera-Madera for generating the pLJM1-Halo-NLS plasmid used in this study. Imaging was performed at CRL Molecular Imaging Center (RRID:SCR_017852) and the Biological Imaging Facility at UC Berkeley, with special thanks to Holly Aaron and Denise Schichnes for training and technical support. Sequencing of the 4sU-seq samples were performed at Vincent J. Coates Genomics Sequencing Laboratory at UC Berkeley (QB3 Genomics, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA, RRID:SCR_022170). Sequencing of the CUT&RUN samples were performed at DNA Technologies and Expression Analysis Core at the UC Davis Genome Center, supported by NIH Shared Instrumentation Grant 1S10OD010786-01. B.G. is an investigator of the Howard Hughes Medical institute and this research was also supported by NIH R01CA136367. Diagrams were created with BioRender.

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Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure S1

A

A549 WT　　　　　　　　　　　　A549 RLKO

poly(I:C)　　−　　　　　　+　　　　　　　−　　　　　　+

RPB1-NTD

RPB1-S5P

RPB1-S2P

Fluorescence
Intensity

B

SC35 foci area

area (µm^2)

Poly(I:C)　　−　　　+　　　　−　　　+

WT　　　　　RLKO

Figure S5