Single-cell heterogeneity in interferon induction potential is heritable and

governed by variation in cell state

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SUMMARY

Type I and III interferons (IFNs) are among the first lines of defense against viral

infection, yet they are generally only produced by a tiny fraction of infected cells. Here,

we show that cellular heterogeneity in IFN induction potential upon treatment with

immunostimulatory RNA is not due to variability in sensing of stimuli but instead is

shaped by heterogeneity in tonic cell signaling state. Using complementary single-cell

approaches, we found that baseline variation in the c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) and

activator protein (AP)-1 transcription factor families correlated with *IFNL1* expression

predisposition. We further show that drug-based inhibition of JNK signaling virtually

eliminates the innate antiviral response to immunostimulatory RNA. Finally, we show

that single cell heterogeneity in IFN induction potential is heritable and stably

maintained over numerous generations. Together, our study emphasizes the influence

of intrinsic variability in cell state on innate immune regulation and IFN induction

heterogeneity.

INTRODUCTION

The induction of interferon (IFN) is a critical determinant of infection outcome for a wide

variety of viruses[1–5]. Respiratory epithelial cells express both type I and III IFNs (IFNα/β

and IFNλ, respectively) as part of their first line of defense against the replication and

spread of viruses like influenza A virus (IAV). While most cells in the body can respond

to type I IFN, only epithelial cells and a subset of immune cells express the correct

receptor for responding to type III IFN[3,6]. Due to this tissue specificity in responsiveness,

IFNλ is thought to be less inflammatory while still inducing the expression of IFN-

stimulated genes (ISGs) that are important for cellular antiviral defense[1,6].

Retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I) and melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5

(MDA5) are cytosolic pathogen recognition receptors that recognize viral and synthetic

foreign RNAs with distinct molecular features[7–9]. RIG-I and MDA5 share similar

downstream signaling pathways, as they activate mitochondrial antiviral-signaling

protein (MAVS) and ultimately lead to the nuclear translocation of interferon regulatory

factor 3 (IRF3) and the initiation of IFN transcription[6,8]. We and others have

demonstrated that only a small percentage of infected cells typically express IFNs,

independent of virus type[10–15]. The specific factors contributing to heterogeneity in IFN-

induction potential remain poorly understood.

The existence of substantial phenotypic heterogeneity within cellular populations, even

for cells of a given "type", is a well-established phenomenon. Many studies have

investigated how cell-intrinsic factors, such as cell cycle stage, mitogen-activated

protein kinase (MAPK) signaling state, and patterns of chromatin accessibility, influence

variability in response to a stimulus or other cellular phenotypes[16–21]. Intrinsic 2'-5'-

oligoadenylate synthase-like protein (OASL) expression has been recently identified as

a critical factor governing cellular heterogeneity in IFN induction potential during IAV

infection, but it is not clear whether this effect is IAV-specific[22].

Here, we investigated the sources of cellular heterogeneity in the ability of A549 cells to

produce IFN in response to the commonly used RIG-I agonist, polyinosinic:polycytidylic

acid (pIC). We used single-cell RNA sequencing and pseudotime analysis to identify

transcriptional determinants of IFN induction potential. Additionally, we found that

single-cell clonal populations isolated from a single parental population exhibited

massive differences in IFN-induction phenotypes that were maintained over numerous

generations. This heritable phenotypic variation correlated in part with basal

transcriptional and epigenetic profiles. Using multiple approaches, we identified cellular

variation in (a) basal expression of ISGs, and (b) MAPK-activator protein (AP)-1

signaling activity as key predictors of the ability of individual cells to mount a robust

innate immune response to foreign RNA.

RESULTS

Following pIC treatment, most cells exhibit IRF3 nuclear translocation but do not transcribe IFNλ

Figure 1. IFNL1 is rarely expressed in A549 cells after pIC stimulation. (A) Percent of cells positive for IFNL1 transcripts at 0-, 8-, 16-, and 24-hours post-pIC treatment with 0.5, 5, and 10 ng/mL concentrations. (B) Representative images of A549 cells stimulated with pIC with the nucleus and IRF3 stained. White bars indicate 50 μm. Brightness enhanced evenly for publication. (C) Quantification of raw fluorescence of IRF3 in the nucleus using Imaris. Significance calculated using Dunnett's multiple comparisons. Percent of cells IRF3+ in the nucleus determined by the number of cells in the stimulated populations with a higher MFI than the highest untreated cell.

Despite the critical importance of the IFN response for host defense, we and others have demonstrated that only a small fraction of cells are generally capable of expressing IFN following viral infection[10–13,23–25]. Viral infection dynamics are highly heterogeneous at the single-cell level, and it is unclear how much of the observed variation in IFN induction is due to cellular heterogeneity in viral processes[14,26,27].

To examine single-cell heterogeneity in IFN induction without the confounding effects of
viral heterogeneity, we treated the human lung adenocarcinoma cell line A549 with
increasing concentrations of pIC and quantified *IFNL1* transcription within single cells
using hybridization chain reaction[28] fluorescence *in situ* hybridization coupled with flow
cytometry (HCR-Flow)[29]. Even after 24 hours post-treatment with the highest dose
tested, fewer than 20% of cells expressed detectable levels of *IFNL1* (**Fig. 1A**). Thus,
most cells are incapable of expressing IFN in response to pIC, regardless of dosage or
timing.
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Activation of pattern recognition receptors like RIG-I or toll-like receptor 3 (TLR3)
typically triggers a signaling cascade that results in the phosphorylation and nuclear
translocation of IRF3, the primary transcription factor responsible for driving type I and
type III IFN induction[6]. If the low frequency of *IFNL1* induction we observed following
pIC stimulation was due to a failure to deliver or detect pIC, then we would expect that
IRF3 translocation would occur at similarly low frequencies. We treated A549 cells with
pIC and measured the percentage of cells in which IRF3 translocated to the nucleus
using confocal fluorescent microscopy. We observed IRF3 nuclear translocation in most
pIC-treated cells at 12- and 16-hours post-treatment (**Fig. 1B,C**). These results suggest
that the low frequency of *IFNL1* induction cannot simply be explained by defects in
sensing of pIC or canonical IRF3 signaling.
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Gene expression profile prior to treatment is predictive of *IFNL1* induction following pIC treatment

Figure 2. Charting the single-cell transcriptional response to pIC using RNA velocity. (A) UMAP dimensional reduction of the cells from each time point aggregated together, then colored by time point – time indicating sample collection after 5 ng/mL pIC treatment. (B) UMAP dimensional reduction of all cells from every time point. (Left) Terminal states were calculated using temporal-noSpliceVelo and used to determine the probability that each cell in the dataset would end up in those terminal states. (Middle) UMAP dimensional reduction of all cells colored by log₁₀(IFNL1 Counts). (Right) Table showing the percent of cells with IFNL1 counts >= 5 within each terminal state (probability = 1). (C) Distribution of the Terminal 1 transition probability of cells in each collection time point. Line at 0.31 indicating the mean transition probability among the full dataset, ultimately being the threshold for high-probability cells. (D) Distribution of the terminal 1 transition probability per cell in the 0-hour collection time point. Line at

 0.31, the previously established as the threshold for high-probability cells. (E)

Visualization of the genes significantly more expressed in the high-probability cells at 0

hours. Points in black are the unfiltered genes, and points in red are filtered genes -

$\log_{10}$(adjusted p-value) > 1.3 and Mann-Whitney effect size > 0.5. (F) Percent of cells at

0 hours expressing the top 20 genes from the Mann-Whitney analysis, separated by the

cells' Terminal 1 transition probabilities.

Pseudotime analysis has previously been used to identify genes whose baseline

expression at the single-cell level correlates with the likelihood that a given cell

expresses *IFNL1* in response to IAV infection[22,30]. Since active IRF3 signaling alone is

insufficient for robust *IFNL1* expression after pIC stimulation, we sought to use this

approach to identify other crucial contributors to the *IFNL1* response following pIC

treatment. We isolated A549 cells at 0-, 4-, 8-, 12-, and 16-hours post-pIC treatment for

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) to then infer the velocity of individual cells

moving through the UMAP dimensions (**Fig. 2A**). This approach identified five terminal

states at 16 hours, two of which were *IFNL1+* (**Fig. 2B**).

We next inferred the probability of each individual cell ending up in terminal state 1, the

only terminal state where cells were 100% *IFNL1+* (**Fig. 2B**). The probabilities are not

normally distributed and become increasingly bimodal with time, making a correlation

analysis between the probabilities and the gene expression of each cell suboptimal.

Instead, we set a threshold for high- and low-probability cells, where "high" is classified

as having greater than the mean probability across all time points (**Fig. 2C**). This

threshold, when plotted on the 0-hour distribution alone, showed that the high-

probability cells were outliers, which was consistent with the rarity of *IFNL1+* cells (**Fig.

2D**). We used the top 4,000 most variable genes across the time points to conduct a

Mann-Whitney test to identify genes that are more likely to be expressed in the high-

probability cells at 0 hours than the low-probability cells.

This analysis identified 301 genes expressed at the 0-hour time point with an adjusted

p-value lower than 0.05 and an effect size greater than 0.5, indicating they are more

likely to be expressed in high-probability cells (**Fig. 2E**). Upon further analysis, we could

visualize the result of the test when comparing the percentage of high- or low-probability

cells at 0 hours expressing the top 20 genes. All but two of the top genes were

expressed in most of the high-probability cells at 0 hours, with all the genes expressed

in a greater percentage of high-probability cells (**Fig. 2F**). Additionally, all of the top 20

genes have been reported as ISGs, consistent with the emerging idea that intrinsic ISG

expression and/or tonic IFN signaling governs IFN induction potential[22,31].

Single-cell clones exhibit substantial heritable variation in IFN induction potential

Our results indicated that pre-existing heterogeneity within cell populations underlies

variability in IFN-induction potential. We next asked whether this variability in IFN-

induction potential was transient or if it could be maintained over multiple generations.

To distinguish between these possibilities, we sorted single cells from a population of

A549 cells and expanded them into 11 individual clonal lines, denoted ET1-ET11.

Figure 3. Sibling clonal cell lines exhibit substantial heritable variability in IFN

induction phenotypes. (A) *IFNL1 expression 16 hours post 0.5 ng/mL pIC treatment*

among the cell lines was quantified using RT-qPCR. Relative log$_{10}$(ddCt) fold changes

to their ACTB expression and the mean IFNL1 level from the mock of each respective

population. One-way ANOVA analysis p < 0.0001. (B) PCA plot comparing the

  transcriptional profiles of each bulk population. (C) PCA plot comparing the chromatin

accessibility profiles of each bulk population. (D) Correlation between the PC1 (left) and

PC2 (right) components of the bulk RNA sequencing data and the log_2(Mean IFNL1

Expression) of each of the clonal lines. Trendline and 95% confidence interval

generated with simple linear regression. ρ and p-value calculated based on Spearman's

correlation. (E) Correlation between the PC1 (left) and PC2 (right) components of the

bulk ATAC sequencing data and the log_2(Mean IFNL1 Expression) of each of the clonal

lines. Trendline and 95% confidence interval generated with simple linear regression. ρ

and p-value calculated based on Spearman's correlation.

We treated the parental cell population and the individual clonal lines with 0.5 ng/mL pIC

and quantified *IFNL1* induction at 16 hours post-treatment. *IFNL1* transcript levels

varied nearly 1000-fold between the individual clonal lines (**Fig. 3A**). Thus, the

individual clonal lines exhibited substantial variation in pIC responsiveness that was

maintained through the numerous rounds of cell division required to expand them.

In parallel, we compared the basal transcriptional profiles of the individual clonal lines in

the absence of treatment using bulk RNA sequencing and observed that most of the

clonal lines diverged substantially from the parental population (**Fig. 3B**). We compared

the PC1 component with *IFNL1* induction phenotypes and found a strong correlation

between basal transcriptional state and *IFNL1* induction potential (**Fig. 3D**).

The apparent heritability of heterogeneity in IFN induction phenotypes over numerous

generations led us to ask whether this phenotypic variability correlated with any

epigenetic signatures. We compared patterns of chromosomal accessibility across the

clonal lines using bulk Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin with sequencing

(ATAC-seq). We found that global patterns of chromatin accessibility were highly distinct

across the clonal lines (**Fig. 3C**). Like what we observed for patterns of transcriptional

similarity, ET10 (low *IFNL1* induction) was separated from the group and clearly distinct

from ET9 (high *IFNL1* induction). We then asked if variation in the lines' accessibility

profiles related to their *IFNL1* responses (**Fig. 3E**). While we did not find a significant

correlation between the chromosomal accessibility PC1 and the magnitude of the *IFNL1*

response, there was a significant correlation when using the PC2 coordinates (**Fig. 3E**).

This suggests that, although the main factor contributing to the heterogeneity in the

ATAC data may not be linked to *IFNL1* predisposition, there is significant connection

between chromatin accessibility patterns and *IFNL1* expression potential.

Variation in basal expression of RIG-I pathway components does not explain the

heterogeneity in *IFNL1* induction phenotypes

We next sought to determine whether the basal expression patterns of individual

transcripts in the clonal populations could also explain heterogeneity in the IFN

response to pIC, as we observed in our longitudinal scRNA-seq dataset. We used a

generalized linear model, where the x-axis values were the mean $\log_2$ fold changes in

IFNL1 expression of the clonal lines following pIC treatment, and the y-axis values

represented the relative expression levels of individual transcripts in the same cell lines

in the absence of treatment.

We first examined the transcripts that encode proteins known to be centrally involved in

the RIG-I-based RNA-sensing pathway: *DDX58*, *MAVS*, *TBK1*, and *IRF3*[8,32] (**Fig. 4A,B**).

We focused specifically on RIG-I because knocking down other RNA sensors, MDA5

(*IFIH1*) and *TLR3*, did not reduce *IFNL1* expression after pIC stimulation as we saw with

DDX58 knockdown, suggesting that the response to pIC in this system is RIG-I-

dependent (**Fig. 4A**). While *DDX58, MAVS,* and *TBK1* transcripts did exhibit significant

positive correlations with *IFNL1*-induction potential, they only varied in expression levels

by 2- to 4-fold across the clonal lines. The expression of the main transcription factor

thought to be involved in initiating *IFNL1* expression, *IRF3*, was not significantly

correlated with *IFNL1* across the cell lines. Overall, these weak trends appear

insufficient to explain the nearly 1000-fold range in IFN expression levels we observed

across the clonal lines.

Figure 4. Identification of genes showing a correlation with IFNL1-induction

Figure 4. Identification of genes showing a correlation with IFNL1-induction
potential. (A) IFNL1 expression 16 hours post 0.5 ng/mL pIC treatment after 48-hour
siRNA treatment was quantified using RT-qPCR. Relative log$_{10}$(ddCt) fold changes to
their ACTB expression and the mean IFNL1 level from the mock of the non-targeting
(NT) control. Significance determined by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. (B) Gene
trajectory analysis correlating pIC-induced IFNL1 expression with basal gene
expression. Trendline and 95% confidence interval generated with simple linear
regression. ρ and p-value generated using Spearman's correlation. (C) Plot of the
genes following the generalized linear model (grey), with the genes passing set
thresholds of $|\rho| > 0.5$, $-log_{10}(FDR) > 3$, $|log_2(FC)| > 2$, and $log_2(CPM) > 0.1$ (black). (D)
STRING analysis of the top genes found in the clonal bulk RNA sequencing and the
single-cell data (PPI enrichment p < 0.0001). The thickness of the edges indicates the
strength of data support for the function and physical protein associations (interaction
score > 0.4). Nodes colored purple are annotated to be involved in immune system
processes.

To identify gene products outside of the canonical RIG-I/MAVS pathway that could
modulate IFN induction potential, we identified all transcripts that exhibited both (a) a

linear trend ($|\rho| > 0.5$) between expression level and *IFNL1* induction, and (b) a wide
range of expression ($|\log_2 FC| > 2$) across the clonal lines (**Fig. 4C**). Over 500 genes
passed these filtering criteria, so to narrow down the list we examined the common
genes present in both the clone and longitudinal scRNAseq datasets. There were 21
genes in both lists, with significantly more interactions[33] than expected (PPI enrichment
$p < 0.0001$), suggesting a significant biological connection (**Fig. 4D**). Indeed, there are
known ISGs in the list, *TRIM22*, *IFIT1*, *IFIT3*, *IFIT2*, and *IFI35*[34–36], consistent with the
observation that basal ISG expression is associated with enhanced IFN induction
potential[22,31]. Notably, two components of the AP-1 complex, *JUN* and *FOSB* were also
on this list. While cJun is known to bind to the IFNB enhanceosome[37,38], AP-1 signaling
has not been implicated in modulating type III IFN expression. These data raised the
possibility of AP-1 signaling as another source of heterogeneity in IFN-induction
potential.

MAPK pathway signaling status modulates *IFNL1* induction potential

Figure 5. Investigation of MAPK/JNK signaling status effects on IFN expression.
(A) IFNL1 expression of parental and representative "high" IFNL1 expressor A549 clone
in the presence of 10 µM Ruxolitinib with and without 50 ng/mL TNF pretreatment
before 0.5 ng/mL pIC treatment for 16 hours. Relative $\log_{10}$(ddCt) fold changes to their
ACTB expression and the mean IFNL1 level from the mock of each respective
population. Significance determined by Šídák's multiple comparisons test. (B) IFNL1
expression in the parental and representative "high" IFNL1 expressor A549 clone was
assessed following pretreatment with 10 µM U0126 or 24 µM JNK-IN-8, followed by 0.5
ng/mL pIC treatment for 16 hours. Relative $\log_{10}$(ddCt) fold changes to their ACTB
expression and the mean IFNL1 level from the mock of each respective population.

AP-1 activity is heavily influenced by upstream MAPK signaling and is potently activated

by tumor necrosis factor (TNF)[39–42]. To examine the role of AP-1 activity in IFN induction

heterogeneity in our system, we first asked how activation of MAPK signaling via TNF

pretreatment affected IFN induction by pIC in both the parental A549 cell population and

the ET9 clonal line that exhibited a high IFN induction phenotype. However, we wanted

to focus only on TNF's potential role in *IFNL1* induction, so we used ruxolitinib[43] pre-

treatment to block the JAK/STAT signaling pathway, which is involved in TNF

signaling[44]. We found that treatment with TNF alone elicited very little *IFNL1* expression

at similar levels in both parental and ET9 populations, indicating that (a) TNF treatment

is insufficient to trigger IFN induction in A549 cells, and (b) that TNF responsiveness

does not vary significantly across clonal A549 lines, contrasting with pIC

responsiveness. Despite TNF not inducing a large amount of *IFNL1* alone, we observed

that TNF pre-treatment synergized with pIC stimulation to drive robust *IFNL1* induction

in both cell lines, well beyond what would be expected if the contributions of pIC and

TNF were simply additive. Importantly, TNF pretreatment reduced variation in IFN

induction between parental and ET9 populations, suggesting that variability in IFN

induction between clonal lines can be partially overcome by activating the MAPK

signaling network (**Fig. 5A**).

We then aimed to inhibit the two MAPKs known to regulate AP-1, JNK and extracellular

signal-regulated kinases (ERK), and to examine how this inhibition affected *IFNL1*

expression[45,46]. Inhibition of ERK with the MEK inhibitor U0126 did not have a drastic

effect on *IFNL1* expression in either population, although it did eliminate the difference

between parent and ET9 (**Fig. 5B**). On the other hand, JNK inhibition with the highly

selective JNK inhibitor JNK-IN-8[47] almost completely eliminated *IFNL1* expression in the

parent and drastically reduced its expression in ET9 (**Fig. 5B**). We also used another

JNK inhibitor, SP600125, to affirm our finding with JNK-IN-8. Although it was less

dramatic than with JNK-IN-8 treatment, JNK inhibition using SP600125 did lead to a

significant decrease in *IFNL1* expression. (**Fig. 5C**). As a follow-up, we wanted to see if

this reduction in expression was from the same number of cells producing less *IFNL1*,

or if inhibition of JNK signaling changed the number of cells able to produce *IFNL1* in a

population. JNK-IN-8 pre-treatment significantly affected the percentage of cells

responsive to pIC stimulation (**Fig. 5D**). Together, these data suggest a role for the

MAPK/AP-1 signaling network in governing single-cell heterogeneity in IFN induction

potential.

JNK-IN-8 treatment largely eliminates the transcriptional response to pIC

Given that IFN induction was obliterated by JNK-IN-8 treatment, we next asked whether

the entire global transcriptional response to pIC was JNK-IN-8-sensitive. We stimulated

A549 cells with pIC in the presence or absence of JNK-IN-8 and the JAK1/JAK2

inhibitor ruxolitinib[43] (to block effects downstream of IFN signaling) and quantified

transcriptional changes using bulk RNA-seq 16 hours after pIC treatment. As expected,

ruxolitinib treatment partially decreased pIC-stimulated *IFNL1* expression in A549s,

likely due to the role of IFN signaling in enhancing IFN induction (**Fig. 6A**).

Treatment with either pIC, JNK-IN-8, or ruxolitinib alone had profound, divergent effects

on the cellular transcriptome (**Fig. 6B**). Interestingly, JNK-IN-8 and ruxolitinib pre-

treatment shifted the transcriptional phenotype of pIC-treated cells to closely resemble

that of the DMSO-only controls. This suggested that almost the entirety of the

transcriptional response to pIC in A549 cells could be eliminated by inhibiting both JNK-

and JAK-dependent signaling.

Figure 6. JNK-IN-8 treatment virtually eliminates the innate immune response to pIC. (A) IFNL1 expression 16 hours post-treatment with 5 ng/mL pIC. $Log_{10}(ddCt)$ relative to ACTB and DMSO-treated control. Inhibitor treatments with 10 µM ruxolitinib and 24 µM JNK-IN-8 4 hours before pIC stimulation. Significance determined by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. *(B)* PCA plot comparing the transcriptional profiles of the different treatment groups. *(C)* Venn diagram showing the distinct and shared DE genes in the Ruxolitinib+pIC and JNK-IN-8+Ruxolitinib+pIC treatments. Parts of a whole diagram below detailing what genes of the pIC-stimulated group are JNK-dependent. *(D)* Heatmap comparing the expression of the shared 27 DE genes of Ruxolitinib+pIC and JNK-IN-8+Ruxolitinib+pIC. Gene expression is relative between the two conditions and is represented by the Z-score.

To specifically define the JNK-dependent portion of the transcriptional response to pIC, we analyzed the differentially expressed (DE) genes in either the ruxolitinib+pIC or JNK-IN-8+ruxolitinib+pIC group relative to the ruxolitinib-only group (**Fig. 6C**). Fifty-two transcripts were significantly upregulated in the ruxolitinib+pIC group but not in the JNK-IN-8+ruxolitinib+pIC group, likely representing the portion of the transcriptional response to pIC that was fully JNK-dependent. Twenty-seven additional transcripts were DE

compared to ruxolitinib-only controls in both groups, but only four appeared unaffected

by the presence of JNK-IN-8, suggesting that almost the entirety of the transcriptional

response to pIC is fully or partially dependent upon JNK signaling (**Fig. 6D**).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we sought to identify the intrinsic sources of cell-to-cell heterogeneity in

IFN induction potential observed across a variety of infection systems[10,12–15,22,23,31],

using the synthetic dsRNA RIG-I ligand pIC. Using multiple complementary approaches,

we identified both basal expression of ISGs and the MAPK/AP-1 signaling network as

important determinants of single-cell IFN-induction heterogeneity in this system. While

we previously identified a role for intrinsic ISG expression (specifically OASL) in

influencing IFN induction potential during IAV infection[22], our data here extend that

finding to other stimuli and identify a new role for MAPK/AP-1 signaling in influencing

cellular heterogeneity in innate immune function.

Both our longitudinal scRNAseq experiment and our transcriptional analyses of single-

cell-derived clones identified the AP-1 transcription factors *JUN* and *FOSB* as correlates

of IFN-induction potential. These factors are activated downstream of the MAPK family,

an incredibly complex and highly conserved network of signaling molecules that

collectively integrate numerous diverse inputs to regulate multiple aspects of cellular

behavior, including innate immune function[48–50]. Because of the large number of input

signals that can modulate MAPK activity, including cytokines and various sources of

cellular stress, the potential involvement of MAPK/AP-1 signaling opens the door to the

possibility of a variety of external and internal stimuli contributing to the tuning of IFN

induction potential at the single-cell level.

To examine the role of the MAPK network and the downstream AP-1 family transcription

factors in governing cellular heterogeneity in IFN induction, we took two approaches,

each with significant caveats. First, we tried maximizing MAPK signaling activity by

pretreating with TNF in the presence of the JAK/STAT inhibitor ruxolitinib. Our findings

confirmed previous work demonstrating that TNF can enhance the production of type I

IFNs and their downstream ISGs[44,51–53]. Importantly, they also showed that TNF

pretreatment reduced the variability in IFN-induction potential between clonal lines of

A549 cells. While this is consistent with a role for MAPK signaling in IFN-induction

heterogeneity, the effects of TNF stimulation are many (including activation of IRF1[44,52–

54]), and thus these results do not provide much clarity on the specific players involved.

Second, we tried inhibiting AP-1 function by treating with drugs that target the two main

pathways connecting MAPK signaling and AP-1: JNK and ERK. Inhibition of JNK

activation nearly eliminated bulk expression of *IFNL1* and nearly every other transcript

induced by pIC stimulation. JNK-IN-8 treatment also significantly decreased the

percentage of cells capable of expressing *IFNL1* after pIC stimulation. In contrast, ERK

inhibition had no appreciable effect on IFN induction, suggesting that the effects of

MAPK activity on IFN induction are mediated through JNK. While JNK-IN-8 treatment

has been reported to exhibit a high degree of specificity for JNK relative to other

kinases[45], it is impossible to guarantee specificity at the μM concentrations used here.

While we found similar effects on IFN induction with the alternative JNK inhibitor

SP600125, we cannot rule out that the effects we observed with JNK inhibitors are due

to off-target effects. At a minimum, our results point towards a potential therapeutic role

for JNK-IN-8 or other JNK inhibitors in the treatment of some interferonopathies.

Our finding that cellular heterogeneity in IFN-induction potential could be stably

maintained through multiple generations has important implications for understanding

innate immune function within epithelial tissues. If there is significant heterogeneity

within populations of epithelial stem cells, this heterogeneity could be passed on

through transiently amplifying cells into descendant populations of differentiated

epithelial cells[55]. This could potentially result in microenvironments with differing

sensitivities to innate immune stimuli across the epithelia.

Though we could not pinpoint a specific mechanism underlying this heritability, it is likely

epigenetically encoded. If there were no epigenetic basis for single-cell heterogeneity in

pIC responsiveness, we would expect that the numerous generations required to

expand individual sorted cells into the clonal lines we examined would eliminate any

transient variability in responsiveness seen at the single-cell level. A large body of work

has demonstrated that cellular populations can exhibit substantial single-cell

heterogeneity in epigenetic states, which gives rise to phenotypic variation[19,21]. These

results are also consistent with previous studies demonstrating that IFN expression is

subject to epigenetic regulation[20,56–59] and that single cells isolated from populations

during CRISPR knockout generation are often not representative of the population as a

whole[60,61]. Our results further emphasize the need for extreme caution when interpreting

data generated from single-cell clones (*e.g.,* CRISPR knockouts).

Our results point towards important roles for MAPK/AP-1 signaling and intrinsic ISG

expression patterns in determining the fraction of cells capable of responding to viral

stimuli by producing IFNs. Because the IFN response is highly non-linear, even small

changes in the percentage of IFN-producing cells can have disproportionate effects on

the kinetics and magnitude of the downstream antiviral response[62]. The percentage of

cells capable of IFN induction effectively sets a threshold of how far viral replication

must proceed before triggering an IFN response. Such a system could help avoid

unnecessary IFN induction by harmless exposures to PRR ligands, such as might be

expected during (a) the limited viral replication that can occur within an immune host, or

(b) a transient breakdown in metabolism or containment of host-encoded

immunostimulatory RNAs. Future studies should more closely examine how patterns of

single-cell heterogeneity in IFN-induction potential vary across different cell populations

and environmental contexts.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are significant limitations surrounding the use of transformed cell lines like the

A549 human lung adenocarcinoma cell line used throughout this study. These cells

diverge from primary epithelial cells in many important ways, including genomic stability

and immune function. Further work is needed both in primary cell systems and *in vivo* to

validate and extend the results we report here. As indicated above, it is impossible to

rule out off-target effects when evaluating the results obtained using the JNK inhibitor

drugs. Both our analyses of single-cell clones and our single-cell pseudotime analysis

approaches rely upon correlative results, which do not conclude any causal relationship.

More work is needed to firmly establish causal relationships.

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact

All additional questions for further information or resources should be directed to the

lead contact, Chris Brooke (cbrooke@illinois.edu).

Materials availability

Clonal lines and other reagents are available upon request.

Data and code availability

All sequencing data can be found at NCBI GEO under accession numbers GSE313066,

GSE313067, GSE313068, and GSE313071. The code used for the data analysis in this

manuscript can be found at https://github.com/BROOKELAB.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.B. and E.A.T. conceptualized the study. E.A.T., G.S., J.R.C., and J.L., performed all

the experiments. E.A.T. and J.S.P. conducted all of the bulk RNA and ATAC sequencing

data processing and analysis. E.A.T. processed the single-cell RNA sequencing data for

T.M. to perform the temporal-noSpliceVelo analysis, and then E.A.T., with help from

J.R.C., analyzed the data further. S.M. and T.M. conceptualized temporal-noSpliceVelo.

Q.W.T., J.C., and N.C.W. provided critical reagents. E.A.T. and C.B. wrote the

manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare the following financial interest: J.S.P. is an employee of Talus

Biosciences, Inc., a company developing anticancer therapeutics. All other authors

declare no competing interests.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells

Human lung epithelial cells (A549) were a gift from Dr. Jonathan Yewdell and

maintained in Gibco's Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM) high glucose

supplemented with GlutaMax and sodium pyruvate, along with the addition of fetal

bovine serum (Avantor) for an ending concentration of 8.3%. The cells were cultured at

37°C with 5% CO_2.

Generation of single cell clonal lines

Low-passage A549 cells were collected for FACS and individual cells were distributed

into a 96-well flat-bottom plate (Falcon) containing culture media + 5%

Penicillin/Streptomycin (Gibco), with 1 cell per well. The wells were then monitored daily

until colonies were visible under a microscope. Each well was tracked for whether it

contained only one colony or multiple colonies (indicating that the seeding was not

perfectly 1 cell per well). Only wells containing a single colony were trypsinized (0.05%

Trypsin-EDTA 1X, Gibco) when confluent and expanded into 24-well plates, then into 6-

well plates, and finally into T-25 then T-75 flasks. The clones (ET1-11) were numbered

based on the order of initial collection.

Polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid (pIC) treatment

A549 cells were transfected using Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen) with the synthetic

double-stranded RNA, pIC (Poly(I:C) LMW, InvivoGen), for the indicated time points.

After the specified treatment times, the samples were collected based on the specific

downstream quantification method.

siRNA treatment

We used Dharmacon ON-TARGETplus SMARTpool siRNA (Horizon Discovery) to

knock down gene transcripts. The siRNAs used were against human DDX58 (Gene ID:

23586, L-012511-00-0005), TLR3 (Gene ID: 7098, L-007745-00-0005), IFIH1 (Gene ID:

64135, L-013041-00-0005), and non-targeting control (D-001810-10-05). The A549s

were transfected with 30 nM siRNA using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen)

according to the manufacturer's protocol. The cells were incubated for 48 hours, then

the RNA was extracted to determine knockdown efficiency, or the cells were treated with

pIC as previously described.

Tumor necrosis factor (TNF) treatment

JAK1/2 inhibition was achieved using ruxolitinib (MedChemExpress), which was first

dissolved in DMSO and diluted to 10 µM in cell culture media. The cells were treated

with ruxolitinib for 4 hours before TNF, pIC, or both were added to the cells and

remained in the media for the entirety of the incubation. Recombinant human TNF

(PeproTech) was diluted to 50 ng/mL in culture media, then added to cells 30 minutes

before the cells were either collected for western blot analysis or transfected with pIC.

The pIC-transfected cells were incubated for 16 hours, after which the RNA was

collected for gene expression analysis.

Drug treatments

All inhibitors were dissolved in DMSO and stored at -70°C in single-use aliquots for

long-term storage. Each inhibitor was diluted to its working concentration, with the

DMSO concentration not exceeding 1%, in culture media and remained in the culture

media throughout the experiment. The cells were incubated with the inhibitors for 4

hours before the addition of their specified stimulus.

RNA isolation, reverse transcription, and gene expression quantification

The cells were first washed with 1X DPBS (Gibco), then lysed with Buffer RLT
(QIAGEN). The samples were then collected and processed using the RNeasy Mini Kit
(QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's protocol, or frozen at -70°C until further
processing could be performed. cDNA synthesis was performed using the Verso cDNA
Synthesis Kit (Thermo Scientific) with the provided anchored oligo(dT) primers,
according to the user guide. qPCR could then be performed on the QuantiStudio 3
system (Applied Biosystems) with TaqMan reagents (Life Technologies). Gene
expression levels were calculated using ΔΔCt, normalizing to ACTB.

Hybridization chain reaction combined with flow cytometry (HCR-Flow)

HCR-Flow was performed as previously described[29]. As stated, a single cell suspension
of A549 cells was prepared by incubating cells with 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA (Gibco) at
37°C for 5 minutes. The cell suspension was washed with DPBS (Gibco) and fixed with
4% formaldehyde (Thermo Scientific) for 30 minutes at 4°C. After incubation, cells were
washed twice with PBST and incubated overnight in 70% ethanol. The single cell
suspension was washed twice with DPBS + 0.1% Tween20 (PBST) (Thermo Scientific
Chemicals) and incubated with amplification buffer (Molecular Instruments) for 30
minutes at 37°C. After incubation, 1 μM of each probe (Molecular Instruments) was
added to the cell suspension and incubated overnight at 37°C. Cells were resuspended
in probe wash buffer (Molecular Instruments), incubated at 37°C for 10 minutes, and
this was repeated three times. Cells were washed once with 5x sodium chloride sodium
citrate + 0.1% Tween 20 (SSCT) and incubated in amplification buffer (Molecular
Instruments) at RT for 30 mins. After incubation, 3 μM of each snap-cooled hairpin
(Molecular Instruments) was added to the cell suspension and incubated at RT
overnight. Cells were washed twice with SSCT and analyzed using BD FACSymphony
A1.

Immunofluorescence microscopy and analysis

A549 cells were transfected with 5 ng/mL pIC and incubated for 16 hours before they

were washed with DPBS and fixed with 4% formaldehyde (Thermo Scientific) for 30

minutes at 4C. The cells were then washed with PBST three times at RT, permeabilized

with DPBS + 0.2% Triton X-100 (Thermo Scientific Chemicals) for 30 minutes, and

washed again three times with PBST. Then the cells were blocked with DPBS + 0.1%

TritonX-100 + 4% FBS for 30 minutes at RT and incubated with Mouse anti-IRF3

(10949S, CST) in the blocking solution for 1 hour at RT. After washing three times with

PBST, the cells were incubated with AlexaFluor 647 AffiniPure Donkey anti-Mouse (715-

605-150, Jackson ImmunoResearch) in blocking buffer for 1 hour at RT. The cells were

washed three times with PBST, stained with DAPI (Thermo Fisher) in PBST buffer for 10

minutes at RT, then washed three more times in PBST. Finally, the slides were mounted

using ProLong Gold antifade reagent (Invitrogen), and a coverslip was set and sealed

with nail polish before imaging on a Zeiss LSM 880.

The images were analyzed using Imaris (Oxford Instruments). Briefly, DAPI was used to

generate 3D objects, and the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the IRF3 signal

within the nuclei was recorded. The MFI of untreated versus pIC-treated cells could then

be compared to determine the nuclear translocation of IRF3.

Bulk RNA sequencing of clonal cell lines

The A549 cell lines ET1-11, along with the parent line, were initially seeded at 1 million

cells per well in 6-well plates with three wells per cell line. 24 hours after seeding, the

cells were collected, and RNA was isolated as previously described. The Roy J. Carver

Biotechnology Center (RJCBC) sequencing facility was responsible for all downstream

preparation and sequencing. This included QC, MiSeq (Illumina) titration, cDNA library

generation using the TruSeq Stranded mRNAseq Sample Prep kit (Illumina), and

sequencing on the NovaSeq 6000 (Illumina) using a S4 flow cell with 2x150nt reads.

Bulk RNA sequencing of JNK-IN-8, Ruxolitinib, and pIC-treated A549s

The A549 cells were seeded at 1 million cells per well in 6-well plates, with three wells

per condition. Cells were either treated with 1% DMSO, 24 µM JNK-IN-8, 10 µM

ruxolitinib, or both inhibitors for 4 hours, then 5 ng/mL pIC was added as previously

described. The cells were incubated for 16 hours, then collected for sequencing using

the same methods. These samples were also processed and sequenced at the RJCBC

sequencing facility. The libraries were prepared with the Kapa Hyper Stranded mRNA

library kit (Roche) and sequenced using the NovaSeq X Plus (Illumina) on one 10B lane

with 1x100nt reads.

Bulk ATAC sequencing of clonal cell lines

The A549 cell lines ET1-11, along with the parent line, were initially seeded at 1 million

cells per well in 6-well plates with three wells per cell line. 24 hours after seeding, the

cells were trypsinized and collected on ice for transport to the RJCBC for processing.

This includes library preparation with the ATACseq kit from Active Motif and sequencing

on the NovaSeq X Plus (Illumina) on one 10B lane with 2x150nt reads.

Single-cell RNA sequencing of A549s

A549 cells were seeded at 1 million cells per well in 6-well plates. 24 hours after

seeding, the cells were treated with 5 ng/mL pIC as previously described. The cells

were then collected at their specific time points, transported to the RJCBC on ice, and

given to the sequencing facility for further processing and sequencing. The libraries

were prepared with the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell Fixed RNA Sample

Preparation Kit for Human Transcriptome (10X Genomics) and sequenced using a

NovaSeq X Plus (Illumina) on two 10B lanes with 28x150nt reads.

Modification and use of temporal-noSpliceVelo for the single-cell RNA

sequencing dataset

This method of expression-trajectory analysis has been detailed in previous work[22,30].

However, we modified the method to address differences in the samples used. Before

estimation of fate probabilities, we removed genes associated with the cell cycle

to ensure that we could specifically focus on genes that are not directly associated

with the cell cycle. For this, we collected cell-cycle genes[63] and filtered them. This led to

the removal of 38 genes from the 502 genes that were used to train temporal-

noSpliceVelo. We could then use the fate probabilities along with the gene expression

profiles of each cell for further analysis, which can be found in our code repository

https://github.com/BROOKELAB.

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