

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

Open Access

Differential roles of RIG-I like receptors in SARS-CoV-2 infection



Duo-Meng Yang¹, Ting-Ting Geng, Andrew G. Harrison and Peng-Hua Wang*

Abstract

Retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I) and melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5 (MDA5) sense viral RNA and activate antiviral immune responses. Herein we investigate their functions in human epithelial cells, the primary and initial target of severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). A deficiency in MDA5, RIG-I or mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein (MAVS) enhanced viral replication. The expression of the type I/III interferon (IFN) during infection was impaired in *MDA5*^{-/-} and *MAVS*^{-/-}, but not in *RIG-I*^{-/-}, when compared to wild type (WT) cells. The mRNA level of full-length angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2), the cellular entry receptor for SARS-CoV-2, was ~2.5-fold higher in *RIG-I*^{-/-} than WT cells. These data demonstrate MDA5 as the predominant SARS-CoV-2 sensor, IFN-independent induction of ACE2 and anti-SARS-CoV-2 role of RIG-I in epithelial cells.

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2, Pathogen pattern recognition receptor, Melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5, Retinoic acid-inducible gene I

Dear Editor,

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is an enveloped, positive sense single-stranded RNA virus that has caused the greatest global public health crisis in the twenty-first century. Its pathogenesis remains largely unknown—highlighting a critical need for new research in this area. The cytoplasmic retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I) like receptors (RLRs) are major pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) for RNA viruses. Once engaged by viral RNA, RLRs bind mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein (MAVS), which ignites a signaling cascade, leading to transcription of immune genes [1]. Because of their importance to initiation of antiviral immune responses, these pathways are thus common targets of immune evasion by many viruses including SARS-CoV-2 [2].

We investigated the role of RLRs in controlling SARS-CoV-2 infection and mounting immune responses in

a human lung epithelial cell line Calu-3. We generated individual knockouts using CRISPR-Cas9, and validated them by immunoblotting (Additional file 1: Fig. S1a). To prove that these gene functions are precisely silenced, we infected mutant cells with vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV, specifically activates RIG-I-MAVS) with a green fluorescence protein (GFP) integrated into its genome. As expected, *RIG-I*^{-/-} or *MAVS*^{-/-} cells presented a higher VSV-GFP load than wild type (WT) cells, while *MDA5*^{-/-} cells had a similar viral load as WT cells (Additional file 1: Fig. S1b). We then compared SARS-CoV-2 load and interferon (IFN) in these cells. The intracellular viral RNA loads were significantly higher in all knockout cells than WT cells at 24 and 72 h post infection (p.i.) (Additional file 2: Fig. S2a). Consistently, the extracellular viral titers produced by all knockout cells were also higher than those by WT cells (Additional file 2: Fig. S2b). We confirmed these observations in another human lung epithelial cell line A549 (Additional file 2: Fig. S2c), though which is significantly less permissive to SARS-CoV-2. Although primarily sensing DNA viruses, the cyclic GMP-AMP synthase (cGAS)-stimulator-of-interferon-genes (STING) signaling pathway also

*Correspondence: pewang@uchc.edu

Department of Immunology, School of Medicine, University of Connecticut Health Center, Farmington, CT 06030, USA



© The Author(s) 2021. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

restricts many RNA virus infection [3]. We noted a slight increase in SARS-CoV-2 load in *STING*^{-/-} cells (Additional file 2: Fig. S2d, e), suggesting that STING signaling is largely dispensable for control of SARS-CoV-2.

We next examined antiviral immune responses. The *IFNBI* (type I IFN) and *IL29* (type III IFN) mRNA levels were continuously upregulated during the course of infection in WT cells; while this induction was impaired in *MDA5*^{-/-} and *MAVS*^{-/-} cells, so was one of interferon-stimulated genes (*ISG15*) (Additional file 3: Fig. S3a). The concentrations of IFN- λ and C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10 (*CXCL10*) proteins in the cell culture supernatants from *MDA5*^{-/-} and *MAVS*^{-/-} were much lower than WT cells (Additional file 3: Fig. S3b). However, type I/III IFN and *ISG15* expression was higher in *RIG-I*^{-/-} than WT cells (Additional file 3: Fig. S3a), suggesting that RIG-I interferes with SARS-CoV-2 replication independently of IFNs. We next examined if RLR signaling regulates expression of angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (*ACE2*), the predominant cellular entry receptor for SARS-CoV-2, thus influences viral replication. In the airway epithelium, in addition to full-length *ACE2* (805 amino acids), a short isoform (459 amino acid) without the 17 aa of the signal peptide and 339 aa of the N-terminal peptidase domain is expressed. The short form, but not full-length, is inducible by type I/III IFNs. However, the short isoform fails to bind the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein, thus likely has no role in viral entry. We first quantitated full-length *ACE2* using our own primers (targeting Exon 4 and 5) by quantitative RT-PCR. Of note, the mRNA level of full-length *ACE2* was induced by over twofold in WT at 24 and 72 h when compared to 1 h p.i. It was also induced in *MDA5*^{-/-} and *MAVS*^{-/-} as normally as in WT cells (Additional file 3: Fig. S3c), though these knockout cells were deficient in type I/III IFN expression (Additional file 3: Fig. S3a, b), suggesting that SARS-CoV-2 infection induces *ACE2* expression in an IFN-independent manner. Intriguingly, it was ~2.5 fold higher in *RIG-I*^{-/-} than WT cells throughout the course of infection (Additional file 3: Fig. S3c), suggesting that RIG-I might suppress full-length *ACE2* transcription. We confirmed these results using a published primer pair for full-length *ACE2* only (Additional file 3: Fig. S3d). We next assessed the expression of the short isoform with two unique pairs of primers according to recent studies, which designated it *MIRb* and *dACE2* respectively. The short isoform was upregulated in WT cells by >3.5 times at 72 h, when compared to 1 h p.i., however, it was not induced at all in *RIG-I*^{-/-} cells (Additional file 3: Fig. S3d).

Understanding the major PRR pathways in the respiratory tract epithelial cells is physiologically meaningful as these cells are the first line of host defense. The RLR

signaling is functional in all tissues and cell types, in contrast to viral RNA-sensing TLR3/7 that are primarily limited to immune cells. Our results demonstrate that *MDA5* is the predominant RLR for SARS-CoV-2, consistent with two recent studies [4, 5]. However, in neither *MDA5* nor *MAVS* knockout cells, induction of IFNs was completely abolished, suggesting that other PRRs may collectively play a role. RIG-I deletion had no negative impact on IFN responses, but still enhanced viral replication, suggesting that RIG-I plays a *MAVS*-IFN-independent antiviral role. However, the role of RIG-I in SARS-CoV-2 infection is inconsistent. Yin et al. [4] demonstrated that RIG-I was dispensable for the control of SARS-CoV-2 replication, while both our and Yamada's [5] data suggested otherwise. Mechanistically, RIG-I likely binds the 3' untranslated region of the SARS-CoV-2 RNA genome via its helicase domains and prevents viral RNA replication independently of IFNs [5]. In addition to the above-mentioned mechanisms, our results suggest that RIG-I could restrain full-length *ACE2* expression, consequently SARS-CoV-2 cellular entry. To our surprise, induction of the short isoform of *ACE2* expression by SARS-CoV-2 seems dependent on RIG-I. Although the mechanism underlying the contrasting role of RIG-I in full-length/short *ACE2* transcription remains unknown, notably, their transcription is indeed regulated differently. Comprehensive future work is necessary to elucidate this.

We want to point out that our findings are limited to human lung epithelial cell lines, and other PRRs such as viral RNA-sensing TLR3/7 may be important SARS-CoV-2 sensors in other cell types. Nonetheless, given the essential role of *MDA5* in initiation of antiviral immune responses in the airway epithelium, the *MDA5* agonists could thus be potentially therapeutic against early SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Abbreviations

ACE2: Angiotensin-converting enzyme 2; *cGAS*: Cyclic GMP-AMP synthase; *CXCL10*: C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10; *GFP*: Green fluorescence protein; *IFN*: Interferon; *ISG15*: Interferon-stimulated gene 15; *MAVS*: Mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein; *MDA5*: Melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5; *MOI*: Multiplicity of infection; *PFU*: Plaque forming unit; *p.i.*: Post infection; *PRR*: Pathogen pattern recognition receptor; *RIG-I*: Retinoic acid-inducible gene I; *RLR*: Retinoic acid-inducible gene I like receptor; SARS-CoV-2: Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; *STING*: Stimulator-of-interferon-genes; *TLR*: Toll-like receptor; *VSV*: Vesicular stomatitis virus; *WT*: Wild type.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40779-021-00340-5>.

Additional file 1: Fig. S1. Functional validation of gene knockouts by CRISPR-Cas9. **a** The immunoblots show gene knockout efficiency in Calu-3 cells. β -actin is a housekeeping gene and serves as a protein loading

control. **b** Fluorescent microscopic images of VSV-GFP at several time points post infection (p.i.). Magnification: 100 ×. The results are representative two reproducible independent experiments. GFP green fluorescence protein, MAVS mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein, MDA5 melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5, RIG-I retinoic acid-inducible gene 1, VSV vesicular stomatitis virus.

Additional file 2: Fig. S2. An important role of the MDA5-MAVS axis in control of SARS-CoV-2 infection. **a** Quantitative RT-PCR analyses of SARS-CoV-2 RNA loads in Calu-3 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.5. **b** The extracellular viral titers in the cell culture supernatants of Calu-3 cells. **c** Quantitative RT-PCR analyses of SARS-CoV-2 RNA loads in A549 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a MOI of 0.5. **d** The immunoblots show STING knockout efficiency in Calu-3 cells. β -actin is a housekeeping gene and serves as a protein loading control. **e** Quantitative RT-PCR analyses of SARS-CoV-2 RNA loads in Calu-3 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a MOI of 0.5. All the data are presented as mean \pm SEM and statistical significances are analyzed by one-way ANOVA. The results are representative two reproducible independent experiments, $n = 3-4$ in each group. Compared with WT, * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$. MAVS mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein, MDA5 melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5, PFU plaque forming unit, RIG-I retinoic acid-inducible gene 1.

Additional file 3: Fig. S3. An essential role of the MDA5-MAVS axis in induction of type I/III IFNs by SARS-CoV-2. **a** Quantitative RT-PCR analyses of immune gene transcripts. **b** Quantification of IFN- λ and CXCL10 proteins by ELISA, in Calu-3 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.5. **c** Quantitative RT-PCR analyses of full-length ACE2 mRNA. **d** The short isoform of ACE2. MIRb ACE2 and dACE2 are different designations for the same short isoform from two recent publications. All the data are presented as mean \pm SEM and statistical significances are analyzed by one-way ANOVA (**a** and **b**), and non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test (**d**). The results are representative two reproducible independent experiments, $n = 3$ for each group. Compared with WT, * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; **** $P < 0.0001$. Compared with 1 h, # $P < 0.05$; ## $P < 0.01$. ACE2 angiotensin-converting enzyme 2, CXCL10 C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 10, IFNB1 type I IFN, IFN interferon, IL29 type III IFN; ISG15 interferon-stimulated gene 15, MAVS mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein, MDA5 melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5, RIG-I retinoic acid-inducible gene 1.

Acknowledgements

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

DMY performed the majority of the experimental procedures and data analyses. TTG and AGH contributed to some of the figures. PHW conceived

and oversaw the study. DMY and PHW wrote the paper and all the authors reviewed and/or modified the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This work was in part supported by a National Institutes of Health grant (No. R01AI132526), and a UConn Health Startup fund to Wang P.

Availability of data and materials

All relevant data and materials are within this paper and its additional files.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Received: 2 June 2021 Accepted: 17 August 2021

Published online: 07 September 2021

References

1. Tan X, Sun L, Chen J, Chen ZJ. Detection of microbial infections through innate immune sensing of nucleic acids. *Annu Rev Microbiol.* 2018;72:447–78.
2. Hayn M, Hirschenberger M, Koepke L, Nchioua R, Straub JH, Klute S, et al. Systematic functional analysis of SARS-CoV-2 proteins uncovers viral innate immune antagonists and remaining vulnerabilities. *Cell Rep.* 2021;35(7):109126.
3. Geng T, Lin T, Yang D, Harrison AG, Vella AT, Fikrig E, et al. A critical role for STING signaling in limiting pathogenesis of Chikungunya virus. *J Infect Dis.* 2021;223(12):2186–96.
4. Yin X, Riva L, Pu Y, Martin-Sancho L, Kanamune J, Yamamoto Y, et al. MDA5 governs the innate immune response to SARS-CoV-2 in lung epithelial cells. *Cell Rep.* 2021;34(2):108628.
5. Yamada T, Sato S, Sotoyama Y, Orba Y, Sawa H, Yamauchi H, et al. RIG-I triggers a signaling-abortive anti-SARS-CoV-2 defense in human lung cells. *Nat Immunol.* 2021;22(7):820–8.

Ready to submit your research? Choose BMC and benefit from:

- fast, convenient online submission
- thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field
- rapid publication on acceptance
- support for research data, including large and complex data types
- gold Open Access which fosters wider collaboration and increased citations
- maximum visibility for your research: over 100M website views per year

At BMC, research is always in progress.

Learn more biomedcentral.com/submissions

