

Original Research

m6A eraser ALKBH5/treRNA1/DDX46 axis regulates BCR expression

Bandish Kapadia^{a,b,c,*}, Anirban Roychowdhury^{a,b,c}, Forum Kayastha^{a,b,c}, Won Sok Lee^d, Nahid Nanaji^e, Jolene Windle^{c,f,g}, Ronald Gartenhaus^{a,b,c,*}

^a Division of Hematology, Oncology, and Palliative Care, Department of Internal Medicine, School of Medicine, Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, USA

^b Section of Hematology and Oncology, Medicine Service, Richmond VA Cancer Center, Richmond Veteran Affairs Medical Center, Richmond, VA, USA

^c VCU Massey Comprehensive Cancer Center, Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Medicine, Richmond, VA 23298, USA

^d Department of Pathology, Richmond Veteran Affairs Medical Center, Richmond, VA, USA

^e Department of Veteran Affairs, Maryland Healthcare System, Baltimore, MD, USA

^f Department of Human and Molecular Genetics, Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Medicine, Richmond, VA 23298, USA

^g VCU Institute of Molecular Medicine, Virginia Commonwealth University, School of Medicine, Richmond, VA 23298, USA

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ABSTRACT

Epitranscriptomic modifications, particularly N6-methyladenosine (m6A), have emerged as critical regulators of RNA stability, localization, and translation, shaping immune responses and tumor progression. In B-cell biology, m6A modifications influence germinal center formation and antigen-driven differentiation, underscoring their importance in immune regulation. Among m6A regulators, ALKBH5 (RNA demethylase) is pivotal in removing methylation marks and modulating gene expression in diverse cellular contexts. Despite advancements in understanding m6A dynamics, the mechanistic interplay between m6A demethylation and B-cell receptor (BCR) signaling pathways still needs to be explored. This study reveals a novel regulatory axis involving ALKBH5, treRNA1 (Translation Regulatory Long Non-Coding RNA 1), and DDX46 (RNA helicase). Upon activation signals, ALKBH5 and treRNA1 translocate to the nucleus, forming a functional complex with DDX46 to orchestrate the removal of m6A modifications on key transcripts, including those involved in BCR signaling. This demethylation enhances transcript stability and facilitates cytoplasmic export through interaction with the RNA-binding protein HuR, promoting efficient translation. Disruption of this axis, via loss of ALKBH5, DDX46, or treRNA1, led to impaired transcript processing and diminished BCR-related gene expression, highlighting the critical role of m6A demethylation in maintaining RNA dynamics. These findings uncover a previously unrecognized epitranscriptomic mechanism driven by the ALKBH5-treRNA1-DDX46 complex, with significant implications for B-cell functionality, immune regulation, and oncogenic pathways. Targeting this axis offers a promising avenue for developing therapeutic strategies in cancer and immune-related disorders where m6A dysregulation plays a central role.

Introduction

B-cells are pivotal in adaptive immunity, safeguarding the host by recognizing pathogens and differentiating into plasma cells that secrete pathogen-specific antibodies. B-cell activation is initiated by antigen binding to the B-cell receptor (BCR), triggering cascades that drive proliferation and affinity maturation within germinal centers [1]. These signaling pathways define a mature lymphocyte's functionality and fate. However, aberrant activation of the BCR pathway is a hallmark of B-cell leukemias and lymphomas, fueling tumor proliferation and making it an attractive therapeutic target [2,3]. Over the past few decades,

BCR-targeted therapies have emerged as promising alternatives to conventional chemoimmunotherapy, but their clinical application often falls short of producing durable responses [4,5]. Challenges include inherent biological complexity, resistance mechanisms, and significant toxicities when combined with standard regimens like R-CHOP. Emerging evidence suggests that epitranscriptomic modifications—chemical alterations of RNA without changing its sequence—may critically influence B cell activation by modulating transcript stability, translation efficiency, and interactions with regulatory proteins [6–8]. Indeed, emerging data highlight the underappreciated role of epitranscriptomic modifications in regulating B cell functionality,

* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: bandish.kapadia@vcuhealth.org (B. Kapadia), Ronald.gartenhaus@vcuhealth.org (R. Gartenhaus).

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potentially driving tumorigenesis and resistance to targeted therapies. These dynamic RNA modifications, such as N6-methyladenosine (m6A), have been implicated in both physiological B-cell processes and oncogenic pathways.

The proper function of B-cells in adaptive immunity depends on tightly regulated signaling cascades initiated by antigen binding to the B-cell receptor (BCR) [9]. This activation triggers BLK-mediated phosphorylation of CD79A (Ig- α) and CD79B (Ig- β), subsequently activating downstream pathways, including BTK and CARD11, that drive NF- κ B and MAPK signaling [10–12]. These pathways are critical for B-cell activation, proliferation, and survival. Given the central role of BCR signaling in maintaining B-cell homeostasis, its dysregulation is a key driver of B-cell malignancies, particularly Diffuse Large B-Cell Lymphoma (DLBCL)—the most common and aggressive form of non-Hodgkin lymphoma. DLBCL is characterized by significant molecular and clinical heterogeneity, with genetic alterations frequently leading to constitutive BCR activation, fueling tumor proliferation and survival [12–15]. Despite extensive characterization of downstream BCR signaling, upstream regulatory mechanisms, including post-transcriptional and translational controls, remain less explored. Our previous studies revealed that BCR mimetics enhance eIF4A-dependent [16] BCR signalosome expression, while HuR promotes BCR transcript translation [17]. However, the regulatory role of RNA modifications in shaping these processes is poorly understood. A deeper understanding of these regulatory layers could provide novel therapeutic opportunities in DLBCL.

The field of epitranscriptomics has transformed our understanding of gene regulation, particularly in immune and oncogenic contexts. N6-methyladenosine (m6A), the most prevalent RNA modification, dynamically regulates RNA stability, localization, and translation in processes essential to cellular homeostasis and tumorigenesis [18–21]. Mediated by m6A writers (e.g., METTL3, METTL14), erasers (e.g., ALKBH5), and readers (e.g., YTHDF2), this reversible modification integrates diverse signaling networks, including those underlying immune responses. In B-cell biology, m6A has been shown to influence pre-B cell transition [7,22] and germinal center development [8] by modulating key transcripts. Dysregulated m6A pathways, however, are often exploited in cancer, enabling malignant cells to adapt to stress, evade immune surveillance, and sustain oncogenic signaling. For instance, m6A-mediated regulation of CD40 signaling in B-cells highlights its potential role in immune-modulatory pathways [23]. Thus, dysregulated m6A contributes to immune evasion and resistance mechanisms commonly observed in B-cell lymphomas by altering the stability and translational output of key immune and oncogenic transcripts.

Materials and methods

Ethics declaration

All experiments were conducted according to relevant Institutional guidelines and regulations related to the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. All animal procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Richmond VAMC and were per the 2011 Eighth Edition of the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Human tissue samples were acquired through the R. Adams Cowley Shock Trauma Center and University of Maryland Greenebaum Cancer Center Pathology Biorepository and Research Core. They were compliant with research ethics stated by the University of Maryland Medical School. All donors completed University of Maryland Institutional Review Board-approved consent documents. They were informed via these consent documents that the donated tissue would be used for distribution to qualified researchers and that such distributions could be made at any time. These consent documents also assured that the donor's identity would remain unknown to any tissue recipients and those reviewing the results of their work.

B-cell activation assay

Human B-cells (5×10^6) were cultured in 100 cm tissue culture dishes (BD Falcon). These culture dishes were pre-seeded overnight with B-cell culture media (RPMI 1640 with 10 % human serum (Sigma-Aldrich), 55 μ M 2-mercaptoethanol, 2 mM l-glutamine, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 μ g/ml streptomycin, 10 mM HEPES, 1 mM sodium pyruvate and 1 % MEM nonessential amino acids) [24]. The following day, human B cells were exposed to treatment with mouse IgG1 κ (isotype control; eBioscience), anti-human IgA+IgG+IgM(H + L) (anti-BCR; Jackson ImmunoResearch), anti-CD40 clone 5C3 (anti-CD40; eBioscience), or anti-BCR + anti-CD40 and maintained for 24 h [16]. Each B-cell culture reached a final 6 ml/dish volume when using 10 cm dishes.

Institutional review board statement

This study is reported under ARRIVE guidelines (<https://arriveguidelines.org>). Richmond VAMC approved the study, protocol # 1572637, 1676330, 1721572, and 1610627.

Mice and immunization

μ Myc[±] (B6.Cg-Tg(IghMyc)22Bri/J) and Wild type mice (C57Bl/6, Strain #:000664) were procured from The Jackson Laboratory. For breeding, μ Myc heterozygote males were mated with wild-type females. Once the mice developed spontaneous tumors, animals were humanely euthanized, and the tumor was preserved for immunohistochemistry and/or downstream molecular biology experiments. Wild-type mice were intraperitoneally injected with 100 μ L of 20 % SRBC for immunization. Seven days post-injection, mice were humanely euthanized, and the spleen was collected for IHC or single-cell sorting. All mice were housed in a clean and antigen-free environment in the Transgenic/Knockout Mouse Shared Resource and/or at Richmond Veterans Affairs Medical Center (Richmond, VA). All mice were housed in groups of ≤ 5 mice/cage, maintained in a temperature- and humidity-controlled environment with a 12 h light-dark cycle, and provided with food and water ad libitum. Mice were age and sex-matched within each experiment (both males and females were used). All experimental procedures involving animals complied with the guidelines outlined by the animal component of the research protocol (ACORP) at the Richmond Veterans Affairs Medical Center and received proper approval.

Global m6A/m measurements

Quantification of m6A RNA methylation was detected by an m6A RNA methylation assay kit (Epigentek Group, Farmingdale, NY) following the manufacturer's protocol. Total RNA samples of 200 ng for each group were used to determine the percentage of m6A. The absorbance was measured at 450 nm using a microplate reader, and the percentage of m6A in total RNA was calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{m6A\%} = ((\text{Sample OD} - \text{Blank}) \div S) / ((\text{Positive Control OD} - \text{Blank}) \div P) \times 100\%$$

where S represents the amount of input RNA sample in ng, and P represents the amount of positive control input in ng.

ALKBH5 demethylase assay

The in vitro ALKBH5 demethylation activity assay was performed as previously reported with minor modifications [25,26]. Briefly, the reactions were performed in a 50 μ L demethylation reaction buffer containing 2 μ g of total RNA resuspend in 50 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 μ M 2OG, 100 μ M Ascorbate, 50 μ M (NH₄)₂Fe(SO₄)₂·6H₂O and 1 mM TCEP.

The reaction was incubated at room temperature for 2 h. Post-reaction was purified as described earlier for downstream analysis.

MeRIP and HuR IP-RT-qPCR

All the specific manipulations were performed according to the protocol of Magna MeRIP™ m6A Kit (Catalog No 17–10,499, Merck Millipore) with minor modifications. Briefly, total RNA was subjected to immunoprecipitation with antibody, and the elute RNA was subjected to cDNA synthesis as described earlier. For HuR RNA enrichment, recombinant HuR (N-terminal GST-tagged, Abcam, ab152360) was incubated with purified RNA (2 µg) in HuR-RIP buffer (150 mM KCl, 25 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM dithiothreitol, 0.05 % NP-40, 100 µg/ml RNase inhibitor RiboLock (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,

USA) for 4 h at 4°C on rotation. Prewashed GST Sepharose beads (40 µL) were added to each sample and rotated for 1 h. The beads were washed with HuR-RIP buffer, and RNA was isolated with a trizol reagent. Purified Luciferase mRNA (10 pg) was added to each cDNA synthesis reaction as the internal control.

Additional technical details are provided in supplemental Materials.

Results

RNA methylation dynamics are altered in normal and malignant B-cell SIGNALING

The regulation of gene expression in B-cells is intricately controlled at the transcriptional and translational levels and through post-

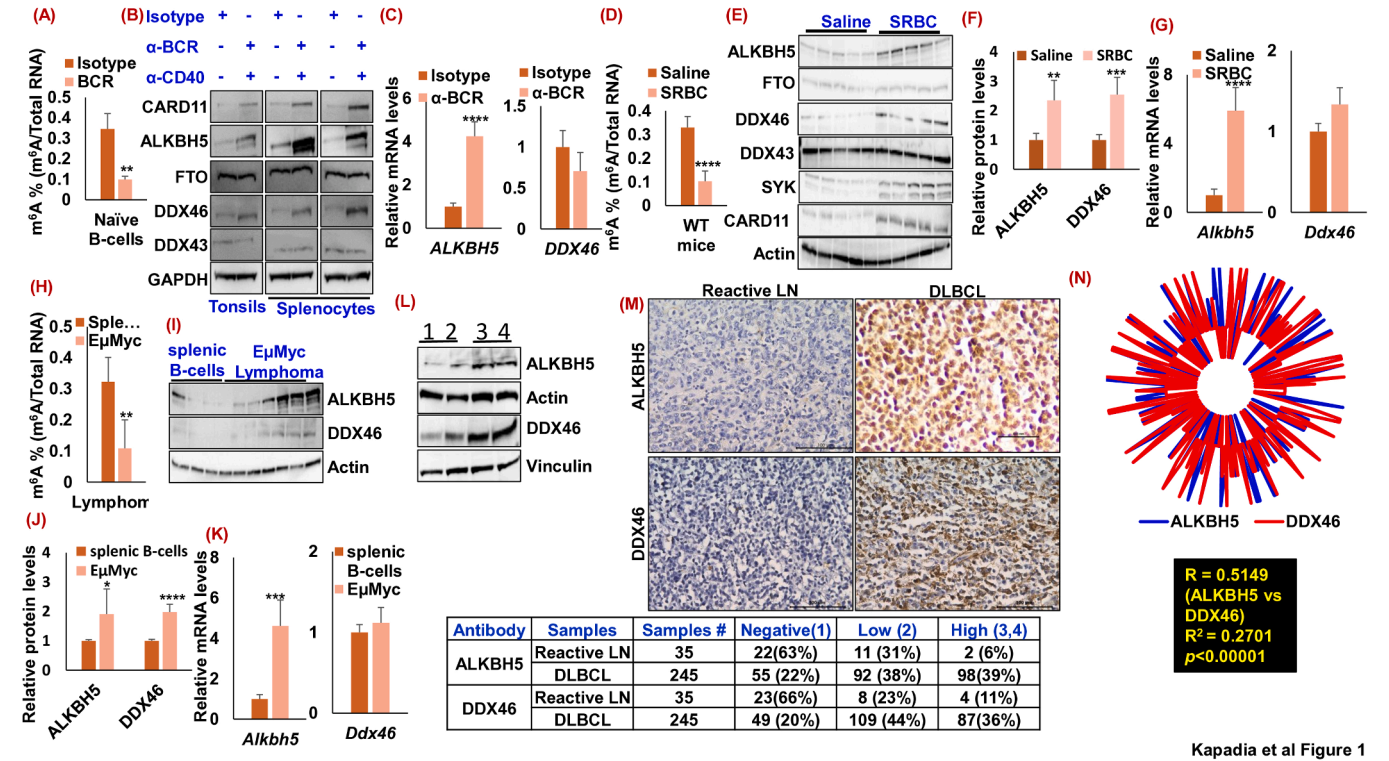


Fig. 1. Induction of ALKBH5 and DDX46 Expression by BCR Mimetics Enhances RNA Demethylation: (A) Naïve B-cells were exposed to BCR mimetics or isotype antibodies, and total RNA was collected after 24 h for m6A quantification. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean±SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ***p* < 0.01 vs. isotype-treated cells. (B) Protein lysates were harvested from the naïve B-cells after 24 h of treatment with BCR mimetics or isotype and were analyzed using immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies. (C) Total RNA was subjected to quantification of *ALKBH5* and *DDX46* with real-time quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR). The results were normalized with *GAPDH* (reference gene), set to 1 for Isotype treatment, and expressed as mean±SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *****p* < 0.001 vs. Isotype-treated cells. (D) Wild-type mice were injected with SRBC or saline, and the total splenic B-cell RNA was isolated after 7 days of injection for m6A quantification. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean±SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *****p* < 0.001 vs saline-treated cells. (E) Protein lysates were harvested from the splenic B-cells of wild-type mice after 7 days of injection with SRBC or saline and were analyzed using immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies. (F) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of *ALKBH5* and *DDX46* from Fig. 1E. Values were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Actin) and neutralized with the average of saline injected B cells and expressed as mean ± SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ***p* < 0.01 vs saline-treated cells. (G) Total RNA was subjected to quantification of *Alkbh5* and *Ddx46* with RT-qPCR. The results were normalized with *Gapdh* (reference gene), set to 1 for saline-injected cells, and expressed as mean±SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *****p* < 0.001 vs saline injected cells. (H) EµMyc tumors and non-immunized splenic B-cells isolated RNA were subjected to m6A quantification. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean±SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ***p* < 0.01 vs splenic non-immunized B-cells. (I) Protein lysates were harvested from EµMyc tumors and non-immunized splenic B-cells and were analyzed using immunoblotting *ALKBH5* and *DDX46*. (J) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. 1I. Values were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Actin) and neutralized with the average of splenic non-immunized B-cells and expressed as mean ± SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. **p* < 0.05 vs splenic non-immunized B-cells. (K) Total RNA isolated from EµMyc and splenic non-immunized B-cells was subjected to quantification of *Alkbh5* and *Ddx46* with RT-qPCR. The results were normalized with *Gapdh* (reference gene), set to 1 for splenic non-immunized B-cells, and expressed as mean±SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ****p* < 0.005 vs splenic non-immunized B-cells. (L) Protein lysates from naïve B-cells (splenic (1) and tonsils (2)) and primary DLBCL tumors (3 & 4) were subjected to immunoblotting with indicated antibodies. (M) Representative immunohistochemistry image of commercially procured (US Biomax, Inc) TMA slides stained with *ALKBH5* and *DDX46* antibody, followed by a summary of respective antibody stained slides for DLBCL samples and reactive lymph nodes (LN). No staining was detected: 1, low; 2 staining density, and high: 3–4 staining density. (N) Radar chart of the Pearson correlation efficiency of stained *ALKBH5* and *DDX46* slides.

transcriptional RNA modifications. Understanding the role of epitranscriptomic mechanisms in B-cell activation, differentiation, and malignancy provides crucial insights into immune responses and the development of B-cell lymphomas. To investigate this, we exposed human splenic/tonsillar B-cells and cultured DLBCL cell lines (SUHDL4 and Toledo) to optimize [16] BCR mimetics and assessed global m6A RNA methylation. BCR activation led to a significant reduction in global m6A levels (Fig. 1A), coupled with increased expression of the RNA demethylase ALKBH5 and its interacting RNA helicase, DDX46, while FTO and DDX43 levels showed minimal changes. CARD11 and SYK served as internal controls [16]. ALKBH5 transcript levels were significantly elevated, whereas other gene transcripts were largely unchanged (Fig. 1B, 1 C, S1A–S1D). Transcriptomic analysis of B-cells stimulated with BCR mimetics ($n = 5$; data from GEO: GSE156195 [27]) confirmed increased ALKBH5 mRNA expression, underscoring its role in regulating BCR-mediated responses. (Fig. S1E, S1F). In vivo, C57BL/6 mice immunized with sheep red blood cells (SRBCs) [28] exhibited reduced global RNA methylation in splenic B-cells and upregulation of ALKBH5, DDX46, and CARD11. At the same time, FTO and DDX43 levels remained largely unaltered (Fig. 1d–1 G). Microscopic analysis revealed germinal center (GC) formation surrounded by a mantle and marginal zone B-cells in spleens of immunized mice, with immunohistochemistry confirming increased ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression, specifically within the GC compartment (Fig. S2A, S2B).

To evaluate the roles of ALKBH5 and DDX46 in malignant B-cells, RNA from EμMyc lymphoma tumor [29] was analyzed. Tumor-derived RNA exhibited significantly reduced m6A methylation compared to age-matched naïve splenic B-cells (Fig. 1H). Both protein and transcript analyses demonstrated elevated ALKBH5 expression in EμMyc tumors, while DDX46 upregulation was observed only at the protein level (Fig. 1I–1 M). Immunohistochemistry further revealed increased ALKBH5 and DDX46 staining in EμMyc lymphoma samples compared to wild-type spleens (Fig. S2C, S2D). Similarly, primary human DLBCL samples showed elevated ALKBH5 protein expression compared to naïve B-cells (Fig. 1L), supported by public transcriptomic datasets indicating higher ALKBH5 mRNA levels in DLBCL samples relative to normal lymphoid tissues (Supp Fig. S2E). Tissue microarrays of primary DLBCL specimens ($n = 245$) showed robust ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression in ~78 % of cases, compared to 36 % in reactive lymph nodes ($n = 35$). Pearson's correlation analysis revealed a strong positive relationship between ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression ($R^2 = 0.5149$, $p < 0.00001$) (Fig. 1M, 1 N, S2F). These findings suggest a critical role for ALKBH5 and DDX46 in modulating RNA methylation dynamics in normal and malignant B cells. Their upregulation during immune activation and in lymphoma underscores their potential as therapeutic targets in conditions characterized by dysregulated epitranscriptomic mechanisms.

Epitranscriptomic coordination of ALKBH5 and DDX46 in malignant B-Cells

Signals emanating from the BCR promote the survival of malignant B-cells, such as the heterogeneous Diffuse large B-cell lymphoma (DLBCL) [13]. Given the intrinsic heterogeneity of DLBCL, we utilized a panel of cell lines representing both ABC- and GCB-subtypes to capture the spectrum of BCR signaling dependencies. Additionally, RC, a double-hit lymphoma cell line, was included to assess the role of ALKBH5 in a genetically distinct, high-risk B-cell malignancy [30]. Genetic aberrations frequently found in DLBCL samples lead to constitutive activation of BCR signaling [9,13–15,31,32], providing an ideal context to investigate the role of ALKBH5 in regulating BCR-associated gene expression (Figure S3A). We depleted ALKBH5 or DDX46 using two independent shRNAs across a panel of BCR-addicted DLBCL cell lines. Efficient knockdown was confirmed by immunoblotting and qPCR, demonstrating robust reductions in ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression, with minimal effects on FTO and DDX43 levels. Knockdown of ALKBH5 or DDX46 led to substantial decreases in protein levels of key BCR

signaling components, including CD79A, SYK, BLK, BTK, and CARD11, across all tested cell lines (Fig. 2A–C, S3B, S4, S5). CARD11, BTK, and SYK were significantly downregulated at the transcript level, whereas CD79A and BLK mRNA levels remained largely unaffected (Fig. 2C, S5). These findings point to a direct role for ALKBH5 and DDX46 in regulating essential components of the BCR signaling pathway. Chronic BCR signaling is a defining feature of several B-cell lymphomas, driving oncogenic pathways, while tonic BCR signaling supports normal B-cell survival and development [33,34]. In scrambled shRNA-transduced control DLBCL cells, treatment with BCR mimetics elevated BCR pathway genes alongside ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression. Conversely, ALKBH5 or DDX46 knockdown abrogated the upregulation of key BCR components upon activation, indicating that this demethylase complex is crucial for optimal BCR signaling (Fig. 2D, S6).

To further explore the interdependence of ALKBH5 and DDX46, we examined the expression of DDX46 upon ALKBH5 depletion in BCR-addicted DLBCL cell lines. ALKBH5 knockdown significantly reduced DDX46 protein levels without affecting its mRNA levels, while DDX43 levels were marginally altered. Similarly, DDX46 knockdown diminished ALKBH5 expression at both protein and transcript levels, while FTO expression was unaffected (Fig. 2E–2 G, S7). These findings underscore the critical role of epitranscriptomic mechanisms in modulating chronic and tonic BCR signaling in DLBCL.

ALKBH5/DDX46-Mediated m6A demethylation drives nuclear export via HuR

To further investigate the mechanisms behind epitranscriptomic regulation, we conducted an m6A RNA methylation assay, which revealed that depletion of ALKBH5 or DDX46 led to a significant increase in overall m6A methylation in DLBCL cells (Fig. 3A, S8A). To determine whether ALKBH5 and DDX46 specifically affect m6A modification, we performed methylated RNA immunoprecipitation followed by qPCR (meRIP-qPCR) for CD79A and BLK transcripts. These transcripts were selected because their expression levels remained unchanged upon ALKBH5 or DDX46 depletion, ensuring that any observed differences in m6A enrichment were not confounded by alterations in transcript abundance. This analysis demonstrated the knockdown of either ALKBH5 or DDX46 enriched m6A marks on these transcripts compared to the mock antibody group (Fig. 3B, S8B). ALKBH5 depletion decreased DDX46 protein without affecting its mRNA levels, so we hypothesized that ALKBH5 could similarly regulate DDX46 via epitranscriptomic modifications. In line with this hypothesis, ALKBH5 depletion enhanced m6A methylation on DDX46 transcripts. These findings align with our previous observation that ALKBH5 and DDX46 depletion reduces the expression of key BCR signaling components. Given the role of Human antigen R (HuR) in stabilizing BCR gene transcripts [17], enhancing their nuclear export, and promoting translation [16,17], we speculated that demethylation of these transcripts could affect their interaction with HuR. To test this, RNA immunoprecipitation (RNA-IP) with recombinant HuR revealed that HuR binding to DDX46, CD79A, and BLK transcripts was significantly reduced upon ALKBH5 or DDX46 knockdown (Fig. 3C, S8C).

To assess the subcellular dynamics of these transcripts, we performed nuclear and cytoplasmic RNA fractionation in ALKBH5/DDX46-depleted cells. The results showed nuclear retention of DDX46, CD79A, and BLK transcripts, with a concurrent decrease in their cytoplasmic levels compared to control cells (Fig. 3D, S8D). This suggests that the m6A demethylation function of the ALKBH5/DDX46 complex is crucial for efficiently exporting these mRNAs to the cytoplasm. To confirm that ALKBH5 directly regulates the m6A modification of these genes, we treated RNA purified from wild-type (C57BL/6) splenic B-cells with recombinant ALKBH5 enzyme. A dose-dependent reduction in overall m6A methylation was observed (Fig. 3E). Moreover, m6A RNA-IP and HuR-IP assays on the demethylated RNA demonstrated that ALKBH5 treatment significantly reduced the interaction of BCR

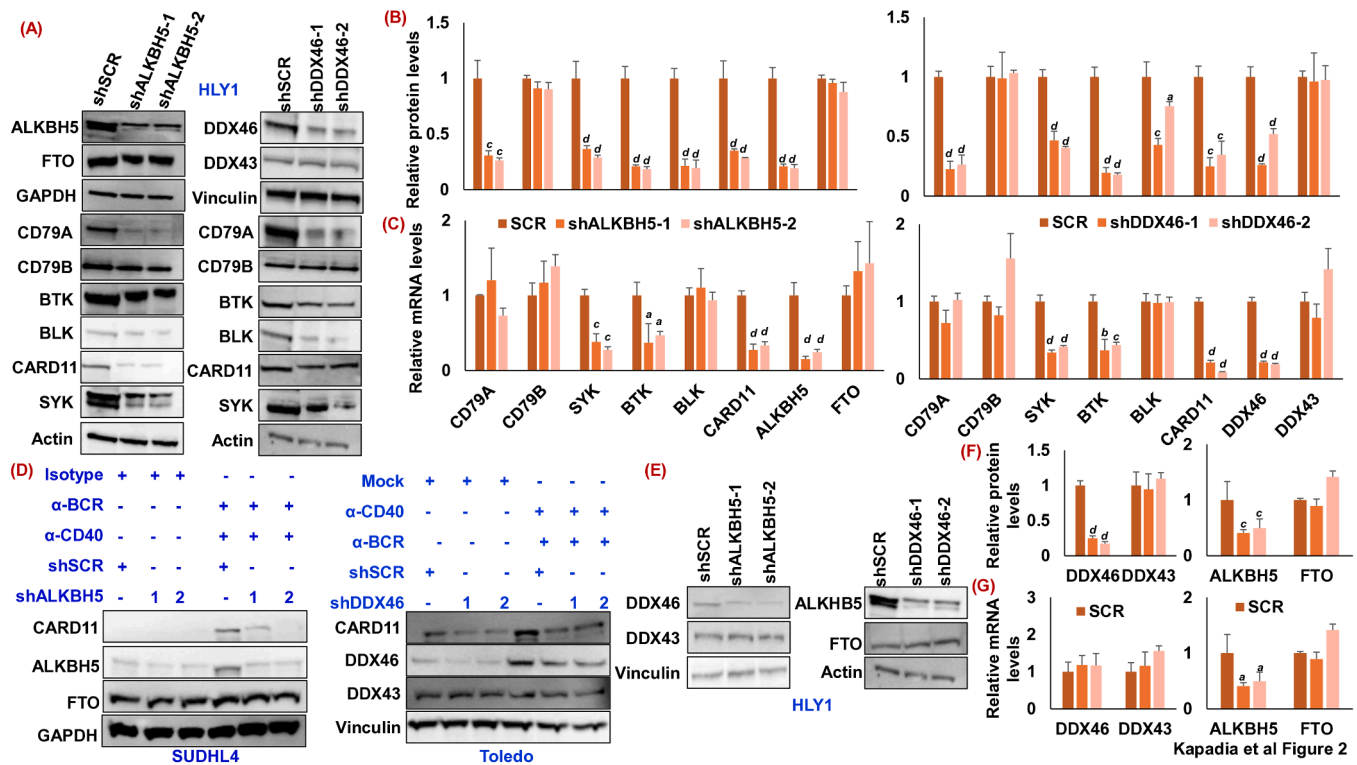


Fig. 2. Impact of ALKBH5 or DDX46 Depletion on Key B-Cell Signaling Transcripts. (A, E) Protein lysates were harvested from indicated shALKBH5 or shDDX46 stably infected DLBCL cells and were analyzed using immunoblotting with the specified antibodies. shSCR-infected cells were used as an internal control (B, F). Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of specified antibodies from Fig. 3A and F, respectively. Values were first normalized with their respective loading controls (GAPDH, Actin, and Vinculin), neutralized with the average of shSCR infected cells, and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^b $p < 0.01$, ^c $p < 0.005$, ^d $p < 0.001$ versus shSCR infected cells. (C, G) Total RNA was subjected to quantification of indicated genes with RT-qPCR. The results were normalized with GAPDH (reference gene), set to 1 for shSCR-infected cells, and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^a $p < 0.05$, ^c $p < 0.005$, ^d $p < 0.001$ versus shSCR infected cells. (D) Protein lysates were harvested from shALKBH5 or shDDX46 stably infected SUDHL4 or Toledo cells treated with either isotype or BCR mimetics and were analyzed using immunoblotting with the specified antibodies. shSCR-infected cells were used as an internal control.

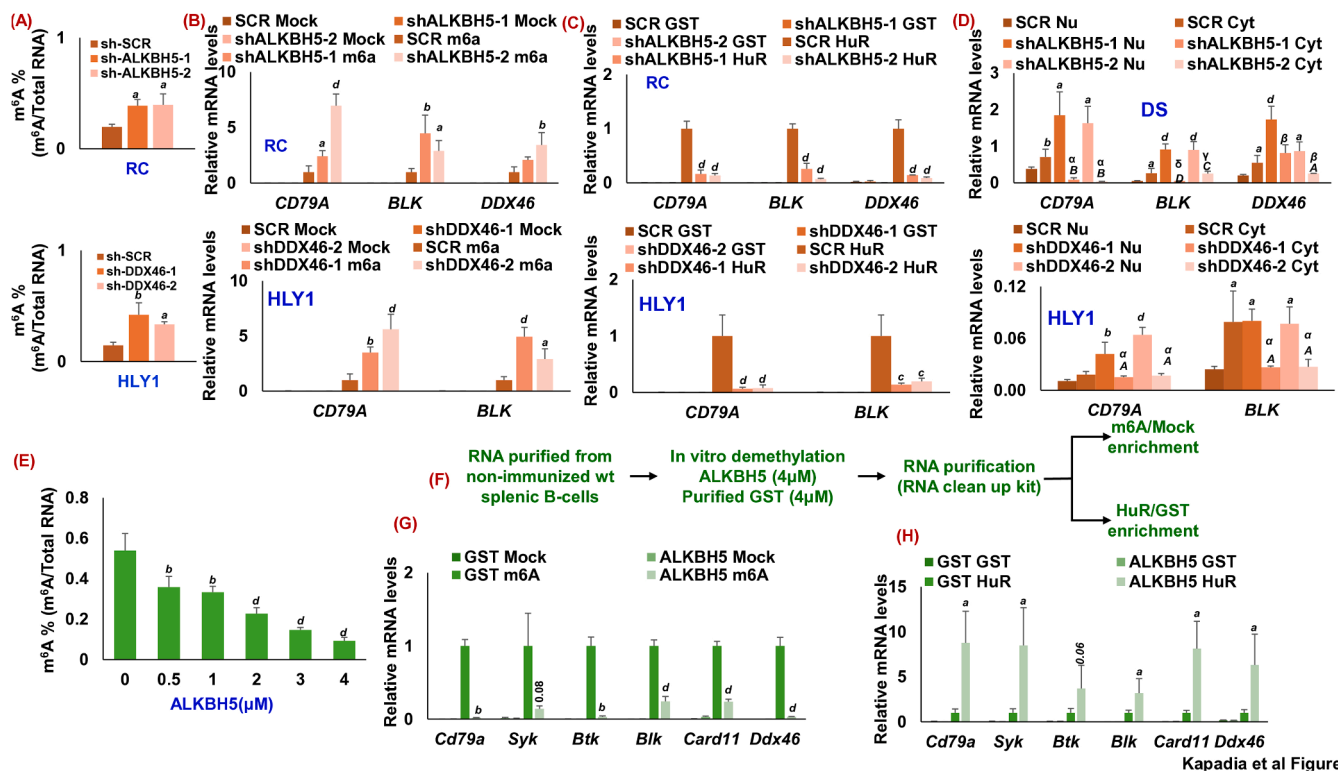
signature transcripts (Cd79A, Blk, Btk, Card11, Syk) and Ddx46 with m6A antibodies while enhancing their binding to HuR (Fig. 3F–3 H). These findings highlight that ALKBH5-mediated m6A demethylation is essential for interacting these key transcripts with HuR, facilitating their nuclear export and stabilization in the cytoplasm, thereby promoting gene expression and signaling.

ALKBH5-DDX46 complex formation Is RNA-dependent

Two unexpected findings emerged while investigating the ALKBH5/DDX46-mediated gene regulation mechanism. First, under basal conditions, ALKBH5 was observed to co-precipitate with DDX46 (Fig. 4A). The potential influence of the intracellular nucleic acids is often overlooked in routine cellular protein interaction assessment [35]. Zheng et al. reported DDX46 precipitated ALKBH5 in the presence of vesicular stomatitis virus [36]. To determine whether the interactions were mediated by nucleic acids, immunoprecipitation was performed on nucleic acid-digested cell lysates. Precipitation of ALKBH5 with DDX46, but not of SF3B3, was significantly lost upon nuclease treatment (Benzonase) (Fig. 4B, 4 C, S9A, and S9B), indicating a potential nucleic acid-mediated interaction. Further analysis revealed that the interaction between DDX46 and ALKBH5 was hampered with RNase A treatment, but DNase I was substantially ineffective (Fig. 4D, 4 E, S9C, and S9D). Second, considering the nuclear role of m6A demethylation machinery in promoting BCR transcript translocation, we hypothesized their enhanced nuclear retention. Here, we treated lymphoblastoid cells with BCR mimetics. Lymphoblastoid cell line, served as a surrogate model for normal B-cell studies, allowing us to evaluate BCR-related

transcriptional and epitranscriptomic changes in a non-malignant context [37–40]. Treating transformed B-cells (lymphoblastoid cells) with BCR mimetics unexpectedly revealed that ALKBH5 was predominantly localized in the cytoplasm. Notably, BCR activation promotes its translocation to the nucleus. Consistently [36,41], DDX46 was predominantly present in the nuclear fraction, with enhanced nuclear retention upon BCR induction (Fig. 4F, G, S9E, and S9F).

Our earlier studies showed that knockdown of ALKBH5 and DDX46 increased nuclear retention of CD79A, BLK, and DDX46 transcripts, suggesting an alteration in mRNA export upon BCR induction. To investigate this further, we performed subcellular fractionation of RNA and quantified nuclear-to-cytoplasmic transcript ratios. Consistent with our hypothesis, BCR induction significantly reduced the nuclear-to-cytoplasmic ratio of the studied transcript panel, supporting enhanced mRNA export (Fig. 4H, I, S9 G, S9H). Interestingly, ALKBH5 also regulated long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs), such as *trRNA1*, which has been implicated in promoting cellular proliferation. Upon BCR induction, *trRNA1* translocated from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, mirroring ALKBH5 protein behavior. Moreover, *trRNA1* transcript levels were upregulated in BCR-mimetic-treated cells and depleted upon knockdown of ALKBH5 or DDX46, indicating that *trRNA1* may serve as an internal regulator of the ALKBH5-DDX46 complex (Fig. 4J, K, S9I, and S9 J). These findings highlight a complex regulatory network involving ALKBH5, DDX46, and *trRNA1* in controlling m6A demethylation, mRNA export, and subcellular RNA localization. It is important to note that tumor suppressor LINC01125 [42–44] lncRNA expression was noted to be upregulated upon depletion of ALKBH5 and DDX46, respectively.



Kapadia et al Figure 3

Fig. 3. Enhanced Nuclear Retention of Transcripts Upon Epitranscriptomic Disruption. (A) Total RNA was collected from shALKBH5 or shDDX46 stably infected DLBCL and shSCR infected cells and subjected to m6A quantification. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. $^a p < 0.05$ versus shSCR-infected cells. (B, C) m6A IP and HuR IP enriched RNA were subjected to RT-qPCR. Normal mouse IgG (mock) (B) and purified GST protein (C) were used as experimental controls. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA) and neutralized with the average of shSCR infected cells (enriched with m6A and HuR, respectively) and expressed as mean \pm SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus respective shSCR infected cells. (D) RT-qPCR of nuclear- and cytoplasmic-enriched fraction isolated from shALKBH5 or shDDX46 stably infected DS DLBCL and shSCR infected cells. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA), neutralized with the average of shSCR infected nuclear fraction, and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding SCR nuclear fraction, $^b p < 0.01$, $^c p < 0.005$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding SCR cytoplasmic fraction, $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.005$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding shALKBH5 nuclear fraction. (E) Commercially procured active recombinant ALKBH5 demethylated non-immunized splenic B-cell mRNA with increasing concentration. Purified GST was an experimental control. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus GST incubated (no ALKBH5) RNA. (F) Experimental Setup. Purified total RNA isolated from nonimmunized splenic B-cells was subjected to in vitro demethylation using recombinant ALKBH5 (4μM) or GST (4μM). RNA was purified and subjected to m6A RNA IP and HuR IP after incubation. (G, H) Quantification of m6A RT-qPCR (G) and HuR IP RT-qPCR. Mock antibody/ GST protein was used as an experimental control. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA), neutralized with the average of respective total RNA, and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ vs m6A enriched GST treated RNA (G) or HuR precipitated GST treated RNA (H).

treRNA1 enhances ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression

Alteration and translocation of the lncRNA treRNA1 following BCR induction and ALKBH5/DDX46 depletion prompted us to investigate whether treRNA1 regulates the ALKBH5-DDX46-mediated BCR signaling cascade. Upon ectopic expression of treRNA1 in 293T cells, we observed a notable increase in ALKBH5 and DDX46 protein levels, whereas the expression of FTO and DDX43 showed only marginal changes (Fig. 5A, 5 B). The correlative expression along with co-dependency in the expression between ALKBH5, DDX46, and treRNA1 suggest a stronger association in functional activity. The interaction between DDX46 and ALKBH5 was hampered with the RNase A and Benzonase treatment. Moreover, BCR activation induced the nuclear translocation of treRNA1, raising the possibility that treRNA1 may serve as a molecular bridge facilitating the ALKBH5-DDX46 interaction. Using MS2-TRAP [45], ectopic expression of treRNA1 significantly enhanced the interaction between DDX46 and ALKBH5 (Fig. 5C, 5 D). Conversely, the interaction between endogenous DDX46 and ALKBH5 was hampered upon transient depletion of treRNA1, with minimal impact on DDX46 and SF3B3 association (Fig. 5E, 5 F, S10A, S10B). Next, we examine the

impact of treRNA1 expression on ALKBH5 translocation under BCR mimetics. It was observed that treRNA1 knockdown in BCR-activated lymphoblastoid cells significantly hampered the ALKBH5 nuclear translocation with enhanced cytoplasmic levels of DDX46 (Fig. 5G, 5 H, S10C, S10D). These findings strongly endorse the potential role of treRNA1 in the epitranscriptomic regulation of the BCR signature.

treRNA1 enhances ALKBH5-Mediated m6A demethylation

To elucidate the functional role of treRNA1 in ALKBH5-mediated demethylation activity, we first evaluated the in vitro demethylation activity of ALKBH5 in the presence of increasing concentrations of custom-synthesized, HPLC-purified treRNA1. As expected, recombinantly purified ALKBH5 effectively demethylated splenic B-cell mRNA isolated from non-immunized mice. Notably, the demethylation activity of ALKBH5 was significantly enhanced with increasing concentrations of treRNA1 (Fig. 6A). To explore the functional impact of this enhanced demethylation, we analyzed the interaction of the in vitro demethylated RNA from non-immunized splenic B cells with m6A and HuR. Supporting our hypothesis, BCR signature transcripts demethylated by the

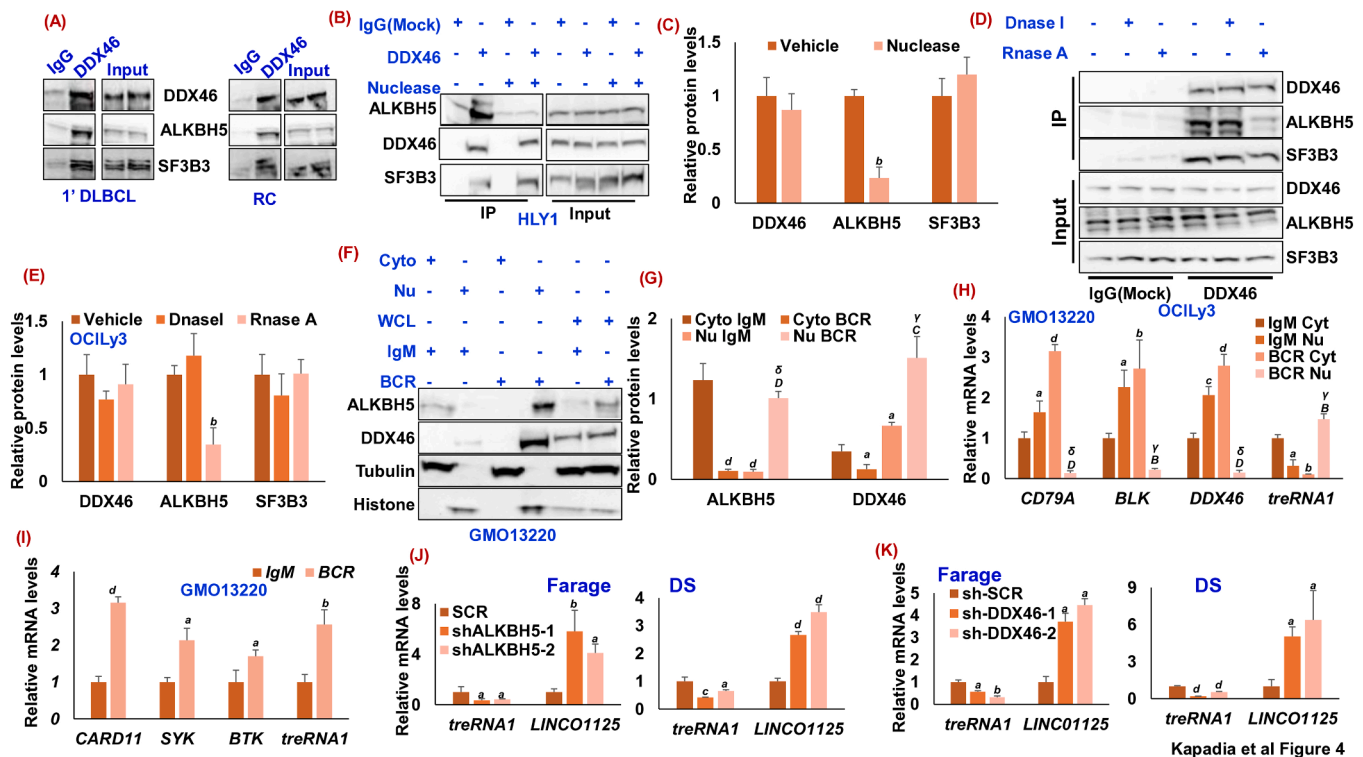


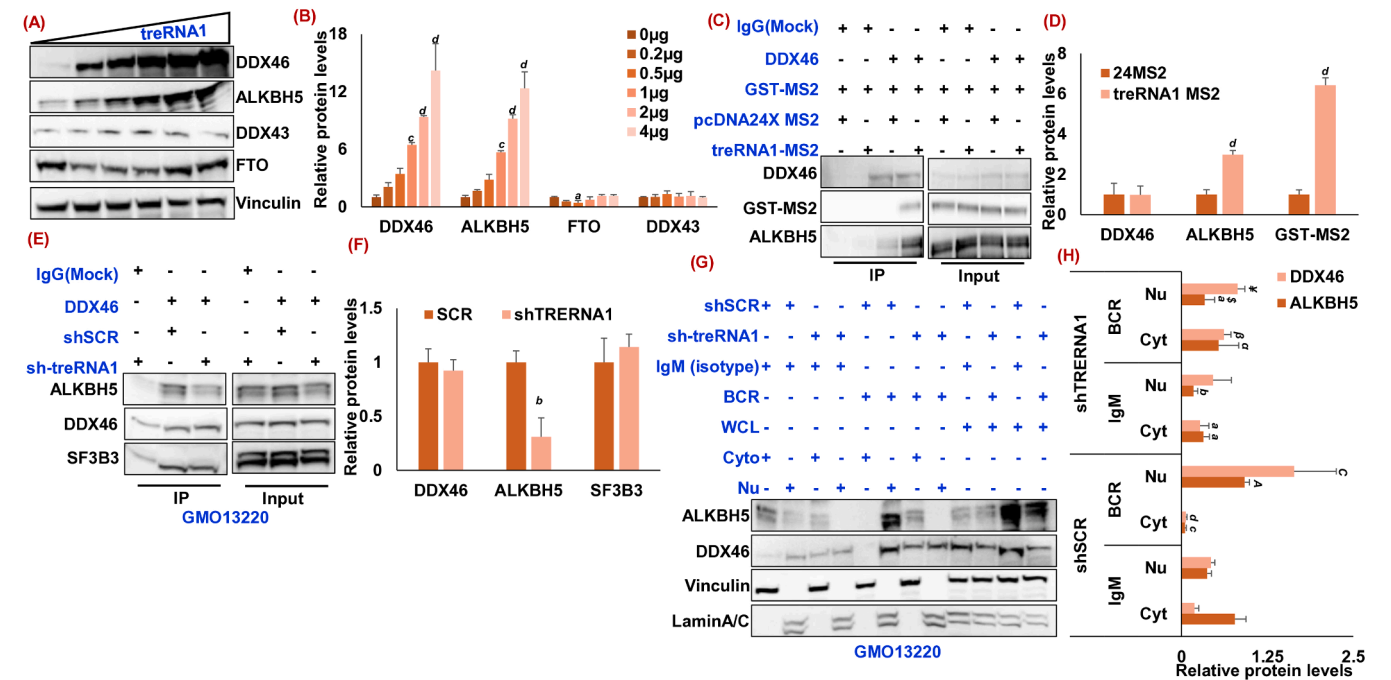
Fig. 4. DDX46 complex with ALKBH5 is sensitive to RNase treatment: (A) DDX46 Immunoprecipitation, immunoblot analysis, and whole cell lysates of indicated antibodies from primary DLBCL samples (ABC-subtype) or RC cells. (B) HLY1 protein lysates were subjected to nuclease treatment followed by DDX46 immunoprecipitation. The enriched fraction was subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies. Nuclease untreated fraction (vehicle) was used as experimental control, and whole cell lysates (input) were used as internal controls. (C) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. B. Values were first normalized with their corresponding whole cell lysates. They were neutralized with the average DDX46-precipitated vehicle cell lysates and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *****p* < 0.001 vs. Vehicle enriched fraction. (D) OCI-Ly3 lysates were subjected to either DNase I or RNase A treatment, enrichment with DDX46, and immunoblotting with indicated antibodies. Vehicle-treated lysate was used as experimental control, and whole cell lysates (input) were used as internal control. (E) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. D. Values were first normalized with their corresponding whole cell lysates. They were neutralized with the average DDX46-precipitated vehicle cell lysates and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^b*p* < 0.01 vs. Vehicle enriched fraction. (F) GMO13220 cells were subjected to BCR mimetics treatment for 24 h, followed by nuclear-cytoplasmic fractionation. The cellular fractions and whole cell lysates were subjected to immunoblotting using indicated antibodies. Histone and Tubulin were used as an internal control for nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions, respectively. (G) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. F. Values were first normalized with their corresponding internal controls followed by whole cell lysates and neutralized with the average of isotype (IgM) cytoplasmic fraction and expressed as mean \pm SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^b*p* < 0.01 vs. Vehicle enriched fraction. (H) RT-qPCR of the nuclear- and cytoplasmic-enriched fraction of BCR mimetics treated GMO13220 cells. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA), neutralized with the average of isotype (IgM) cytoplasmic fraction, and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^a*p* < 0.05, ^b*p* < 0.01, ^d*p* < 0.001 versus corresponding SCR nuclear fraction, ^b*p* < 0.01, ^c*p* < 0.005, ^d*p* < 0.001 versus corresponding SCR cytoplasmic fraction, ^a*p* < 0.05, ^y*p* < 0.005, ^d*p* < 0.001 versus corresponding shDDX46 nuclear fraction. (I) Total RNA isolated from BCR mimetics-treated GMO13220 cells was subjected to quantification of indicated genes with RT-qPCR. The results were normalized with GAPDH (reference gene), set to 1 for isotype (IgM) treated cells. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ^a*p* < 0.05, ^b*p* < 0.01, ^d*p* < 0.001 vs IgM treated cells. (J, K) Total RNA isolated from shALKBH5 (J) or shDDX46 (K) stably infected DLBCL cells were subjected to quantification of indicated genes with RT-qPCR. The results were normalized with GAPDH (reference gene), set to 1 for shSCR-infected cells, and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^a*p* < 0.05, ^b*p* < 0.01, ^d*p* < 0.001 versus corresponding shSCR infected cells.

ALKBH5-treRNA1 complex exhibited reduced m6A antibody binding and increased interaction with purified HuR protein (Fig. 6B, 6 C).

To investigate the dependency of ALKBH5 and DDX46 expression on treRNA1, we transduced DLBCL cell lines with shRNA targeting treRNA1. Quantitative analysis confirmed the successful depletion of treRNA1, which was accompanied by an increased expression of the lncRNA LINC01125 (Fig. 6D, S10E). Immunoblotting revealed a significant reduction in ALKBH5 and DDX46 protein levels, while FTO and DDX43 levels remained largely unaffected (Fig. 6E, 6 F, S11A, S11B). Only ALKBH5 showed altered expression at the transcript level, whereas FTO, DDX46, and DDX43 transcripts remained unchanged (Fig. 6G, S11C).

Given the observed dependency of demethylation on treRNA1, we measured overall m6A levels in RNA isolated from treRNA1-depleted cells. As anticipated, treRNA1 depletion significantly reduced global

m6A methylation levels (Fig. 6H, S11D). To assess the role of treRNA1 in the epitranscriptomic regulation of the BCR signature, we analyzed m6A enrichment and HuR interactions for BCR signature transcripts. TreRNA1 knockdown enhanced m6A enrichment on DDX46, CD79A, and BLK transcripts (Fig. 6I, S11E), increased their nuclear retention (Fig. 6J, S11F), and reduced their complex formation with HuR (Fig. 6K, S11 G). Furthermore, we evaluated the impact of treRNA1 knockdown on BCR protein and transcript levels. While BCR protein expression and transcript levels were generally impaired in treRNA1-depleted cells, CD79B expression and mRNA levels were comparable to controls (Fig. 6L-6 N, S12A-S12C). We exposed non-BCR cell lines to BCR mimetics to extend our findings and assess protein induction. Consistent with our earlier observations, treRNA1 depletion markedly reduced the protein levels of SYK and CARD11 upon BCR mimetic stimulation (Fig. 6O, S12D, S12E). Finally, we confirmed that ALKBH5 and DDX46



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Fig. 5. treRNA1 is molecular glue between DDX46 and ALKBH5. (A) 293T cells were transfected with increasing concentrations of treRNA1. After 48 h of transfection, cellular lysates were subjected to immunoblotting using the indicated proteins. (B) Densitometric quantification of Fig. A. GFP transfection was used as an experimental control. Values were first normalized with their corresponding loading control (Vinculin), neutralized with the average of GFP transfected cells (treRNA1 0 μg), and expressed as mean ± SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^a*p* < 0.05, ^c*p* < 0.005, ^d*p* < 0.001 versus 0 μg transfected cells. (C) 293T cells were transfected with treRNA1-24 MS2 in presence of MS2-GST. After 24 h of transfection, cellular lysates were subjected to enrichment with DDX46. Immunoblotting analysis was pursued with indicated antibodies. Empty 245X MS2 construct with MS2-GST expression construct was used as an experimental control. Whole-cell lysates were used as internal controls. (D) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. C. Values were first normalized with their corresponding whole cell lysates and neutralized with the average of DDX46-precipitated 24MS2 cell lysates and expressed as mean ± SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ^d*p* < 0.001 vs 24MS2 enriched fraction. (E) GMO13220 cells were transiently infected with shTRERNA1 or shSCR. 24 h post-infection, cellular lysates were subjected to enrichment with DDX46. Immunoblotting analysis was pursued with indicated antibodies. Empty 245X MS2 construct with MS2-GST expression construct was used as an experimental control. Whole-cell lysates were used as internal controls. (F) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. E. Values were first normalized with their corresponding whole cell lysates and neutralized with the average of DDX46-precipitated shSCR cell lysates and expressed as mean ± SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. ^b*p* < 0.01 vs SCR-enriched fraction. (G) GMO13220 cells transiently infected with shTRERNA1 were subjected to BCR mimetic treatment for 24h. Cells were subjected to cellular fractionation and immunoblotting with indicated antibodies after treatment. Isotype (IgM) treatment was used to control BCR mimetics—shSCR infection for shTRERNA1 and whole cell lysates for cellular fractionation. Vinculin and LaminA/C were used as internal controls for cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions. (H) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of indicated antibodies from Fig. G. Values were first normalized with their corresponding internal controls followed by whole cell lysates and neutralized with the average of isotype (IgM) cytoplasmic fraction and expressed as mean ± SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. ^b*p* < 0.01 vs. Vehicle enriched fraction.

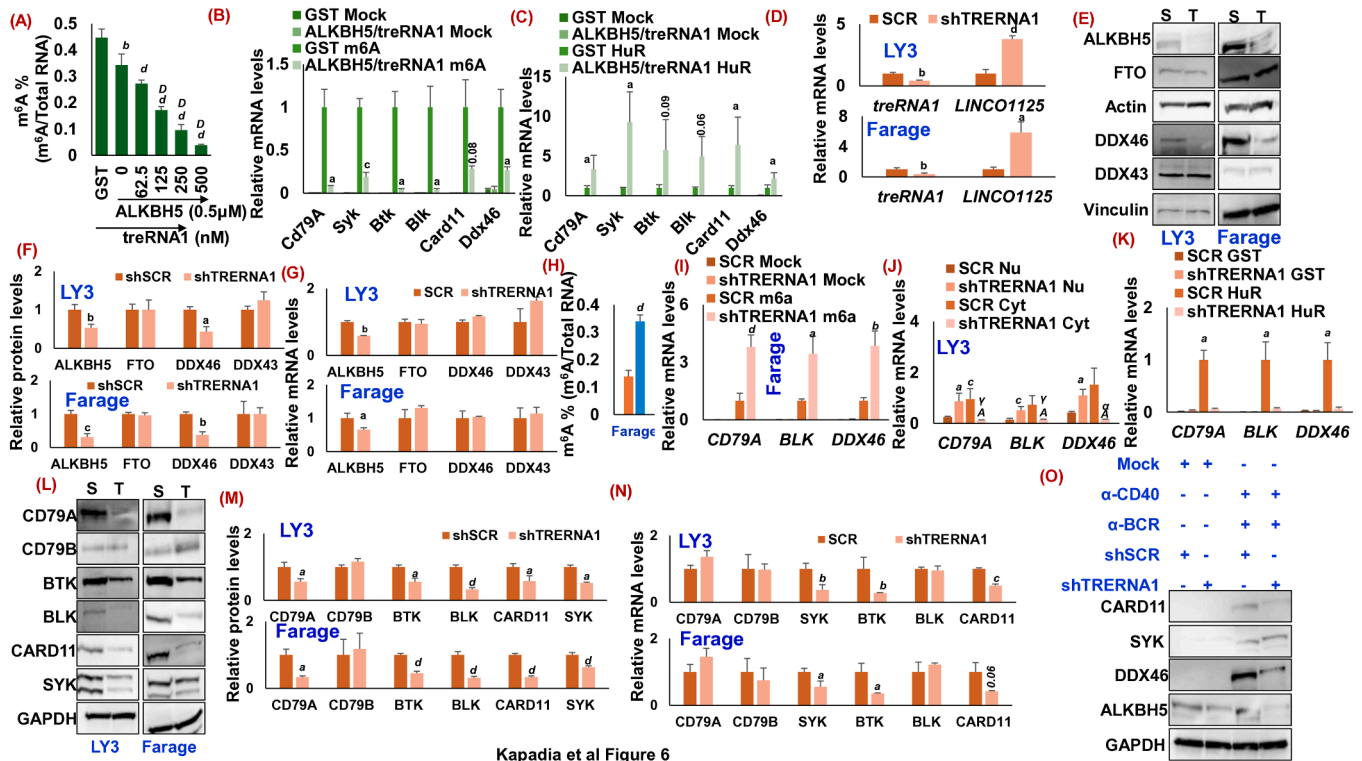
are induced upon BCR activation, and their expression is significantly reduced upon treRNA1 knockdown in the context of BCR activation (Figs. 6O, S12F, S12 G). Collectively, these findings establish the critical role of the ALKBH5-treRNA1-DDX46 axis in regulating the BCR signature. Disruption of this regulatory axis significantly attenuates the BCR signaling pathway in DLBCL, highlighting its therapeutic potential.

Discussion

Epitranscriptomics has gained relevance, especially with advancements in techniques for studying RNA modifications, notably N6-methyladenosine (m6A), the most prevalent modification in mRNA. This modification plays important roles in many physiological processes and is implicated in numerous disease states, including cancer [18]. In tumor cells' epitranscriptomic homeostasis is disrupted to promote cancer-prone features, by the machinery of writers, readers, and erasers [46–49]. Although, m6A has been explored in many perspectives and different contexts in the past few years [50–52], its role in immune

development especially in B-cell biology is poorly understood. Here, we demonstrate the role of mRNA methylation in augmenting the BCR expression that is critical for germinal center formation [7,34,53,54] and tumor development/progression [4,9,10,14,16,17,32,55–58] along with tumor vascularization [59–61]. We observed that the activated B-cells, most notably with BCR mimetics, exhibit a substantial decrease in overall m6A levels. Simultaneously, crucial elements of the demethylase apparatus: ALKBH5, DDX46, and the novel regulator treRNA1, exhibit strong nuclear localization and increased expression. Together, these findings portray the emergence of a new protein-RNA complex that facilitates efficient translocation and translation for optimal BCR functionality of essential BCR signature genes.

In the last few years, biological and clinical studies in antitumor response have highlighted the multifaceted role of B-cells in tumor biology [3]. Although controversial, several independent studies using clinical datasets have demonstrated that non-tumorous B-cells in the tumor microenvironment can influence the response to cancer therapy [62–64]. Pre-clinical studies using BCR inhibitors displayed positive



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Fig. 6. treRNA1 enhances ALKBH5 demethylase activity: (A) Commercially procured active recombinant ALKBH5 in the presence of an increasing concentration of HPLC purified treRNA1 demethylated non-immunized splenic B-cell mRNA. Purified GST was an experimental control. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus GST incubated (no ALKBH5) RNA. $^p p < 0.001$ versus ALKBH5 0.5 μ M (no treRNA1). (B, C) Quantification of m6A RT-qPCR (G) and HuR IP RT-qPCR of demethylated non-immunized splenic B-cell mRNA. Mock antibody/ GST protein was used as the experimental control. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA), neutralized with the average of respective total RNA, and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. $^a p < 0.05$ vs m6A enriched GST treated RNA (B) or HuR precipitated GST treated RNA (C). (D, G, N) Total RNA isolated from shTRENA1 stably infected DLBCL cells were subjected to quantification of indicated genes with RT-qPCR. The results were normalized with GAPDH (reference gene), set to 1 for shSCR-infected cells, and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding shSCR infected cells. (E, L) Protein lysates were harvested from indicated shTRENA1 stably infected DLBCL cells and were analyzed using immunoblotting with the specified antibodies. shSCR infected cells were used as internal control; S: shSCR, T: shTRENA1 (F, M) Densitometric quantifications of immunoblots of specified antibodies from Fig. E and L, respectively. Values were first normalized with their respective loading controls and neutralized with the average of shSCR infected cells and expressed as mean \pm SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^c p < 0.005$ versus corresponding shSCR infected cells. (H) Total RNA was collected from shTRENA1 stably infected Farage cells along with shSCR infected cells and subjected to m6A quantification. The results were normalized with total RNA and expressed as mean \pm SD. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding shSCR-infected cells. (I, K) m6A IP and HuR IP enriched RNA were subjected to RT-qPCR. Normal mouse IgG (mock) (I) and purified GST protein (K) were used as experimental controls. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA) and neutralized with the average of shSCR infected cells (enriched with m6A and HuR, respectively) and expressed as mean \pm SD, which was set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-test. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding shSCR infected cells. (J) RT-qPCR of nuclear- and cytoplasmic-enriched fraction isolated from shDDX46 stably infected DLBCL and shSCR infected cells. The results were first normalized with their respective loading controls (Luciferase mRNA), neutralized with the average of shSCR infected nuclear fraction, and expressed as mean \pm SD, set at 1. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.01$, $^d p < 0.001$ versus corresponding SCR nuclear fraction, $^b p < 0.01$, $^c p < 0.005$, $^p p < 0.001$ versus corresponding SCR cytoplasmic fraction, $^a p < 0.05$, $^b p < 0.005$, $^p p < 0.001$ versus corresponding shDDX46 nuclear fraction. (O) Protein lysates were harvested from shTRENA1 stably infected Toledo cells treated with either isotype or BCR mimetics and were analyzed using immunoblotting with the specified antibodies. shSCR infected cells were used as internal control.

outcomes in solid cancer [65,66], indicating BCR signature genes may be potential targets in impacting harmful tumor growth. Given the modest clinical responses of the current BCR inhibitors, there is a critical need to expand our understanding of BCR regulation and identify new druggable targets. Similarly, analysis of the publicly available datasets [27] verified that the ALKBH5 transcripts levels are frequently up-regulated, including those of the primary lymphoma samples. This study validates the functional role of ALKBH5 in augmenting BCR signature gene expression and a tumor-promoting role in DLBCL through RNA interference. ALKBH5 knockdown demonstrated a robust reduction in BCR signature gene expression (except CD79B). Critically, our *in vitro* studies demonstrated that ALKBH5 directly demethylates BCR signature transcripts, hijacking the post-transcriptional/translational regulation of gene

expression, crucial for normal B-cell development and lymphoma-genesis. Consistent with our report [67], both protein and transcript levels of ALKBH5 were enhanced in human and rodent tumor samples. Clinical datasets predict that ALKBH5 expression correlates with poor patient survival as it promotes PD-L1-mediated immune escape [68–70]. Indeed, pan-cancer analysis indicates that ALKBH5 is a potential prognostic and immunotherapeutic biomarker for numerous cancers [71]. Our study indicates that molecular targeting of ALKBH5 may overcome the immunotherapeutic resistance, in part, by curtailing the BCR signature.

Our study suggests a distinct mechanism of DDX46-mediated BCR regulation and lymphoma growth. In agreement with Zheng et al. [36], we noted DDX46 form complex with ALKBH5 to remove the m⁶A

residues from the BCR transcript. Hijacking this event retains BCR transcript in the nucleus and hampers their gene expression. The sub-cellular mobility of the mRNA has an important role in the gene expression regulation and in-depth analysis is warranted to evaluate epitranscriptomic's role for this intrinsic movement [72]. In part, we noted the m6A levels of BCR transcript govern its interaction with HuR [17] and thus nuclear transport. Unexpectedly, we came upon a crucial observation. Evaluating the DDX46 gene expression regulation under BCR mimetic conditions, similar to BCR signature genes, alteration of the overall m6A levels of the helicase's transcript modifies its interaction with HuR leading to nuclear export. Of relevance, Silanes et al. also predicted that HuR directly regulates DDX46 expression in colon cancer [73]. Independently, this observation indicates a feedforward loop-mediated BCR signaling regulation. Similarly, the protein levels of DDX46 were independent of its mRNA levels revealing epitranscriptomic modulation as a major form of its regulation. In addition, DDX46 is a member of the multiprotein complex and is involved in the physiological process of mRNA splicing and ribosome assembly and is critical for hematopoietic development and immunity [36,74–76]. Several studies have also reported the altered expression of DDX46 in numerous cancers [41,77,78]. Our finding that DDX46 is critical for the BCR signature further supports the mounting evidence that the protein is an oncogenic effector contributing to tumor progression. Future studies should investigate the potential implication of DDX46 in tumor development, immunotherapy, and anti-tumor resistance.

While searching for the mechanism by which ALKBH5-DDX46 regulates the BCR signature, we determined that treRNA1 bridges the complex in a *trans* manner. While, treRNA1 has been reported to be upregulated in DLBCL with a positive correlation with ALKBH5 [67], the current study delves deeper into its functional role. The findings demonstrate that treRNA1, upon BCR induction, translocates ALKBH5 into the nucleus and enhances its demethylation activity. Importantly, treRNA1 depletion is strongly correlated with notable suppression of BCR signature gene expression highlighting the potential significance of targeting treRNA1 as a pivotal element for augmenting immunotherapeutic approaches in DLBCL. Indeed, several studies report that enhanced expression of treRNA1 augments the metastatic properties of the tumorous cells, indicating the lncRNA, independent of tumor origin, plays a dominant role in altering the tumor microenvironment facilitating the cancer cell migration [79–81]. Along with the BCR signature, treRNA1 is reported to regulate metastatic markers including E-cadherin [82], CDH1 [83], and SNAI [79]. To point, treRNA1 is a tumor-oncogenic lncRNA.

Despite extensive research on the roles and underlying molecular mechanisms of RNA m6A modification in cancer, many unanswered questions remain. The observation that both m6A writers like METTL3 and erasers like ALKBH5 display similar roles in the same cancer type raises intriguing questions about the complex and context-dependent nature of m6A modification in cancer biology [6,67,84]. Quantitative, site-specific analysis of m6A alterations may help unravel the complexities associated with the overlapping roles of writers and erasers. We previously established that BCR signatures like CARD11 are dependent upon eIF4A activity [16]. Recent reports suggest that under duress eIF3D mediated translational regulation is achieved for ALKBH5-sensitive transcript [85]. The interplay between the epitranscriptomic and the translational apparatus including eIF4A and eIF3D highlights the need for a comprehensive understanding of how m6A modifications contribute to gene expression. In this manuscript, we demonstrated that the activity of ALKBH5 is enhanced with interactions/complex formation with DDX46 and treRNA1. Moreover post-translation modifications of ALKBH5, like ubiquitination and acetylation alter its functionality/stability [86–88]. Exploring the impact of classical oncogenic signaling pathways, including the mTOR pathway, on m6A machinery could provide additional insights into the regulatory mechanisms. This knowledge could pave the way for the development of targeted therapeutic strategies based on m6A

regulation.

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Data availability

All the supporting data for this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Bandish Kapadia: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Anirban Roychowdhury:** Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Forum Kayastha:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Won Sok Lee:** Visualization, Formal analysis. **Nahid Nanaji:** Formal analysis, Data curation. **Jolene Windle:** Formal analysis. **Ronald Gartenhaus:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.neo.2025.101144](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neo.2025.101144).

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