Cell-intrinsic Innate Immune Responses against Chikungunya Virus in a Human *Ex*

***Vivo* Synovial Fibroblast Model**

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Abstract

In recent years, newly and re-emerging arboviruses including Chikungunya virus (CHIKV), have caused growing concern due to expansion of insect vector ranges, mediated by the exponential increase in international travel and accelerating climate change. Due to the absence of specific antiviral treatment strategies and a protective vaccine, over 2 million CHIKV cases have been reported since 2005. Long-term morbidity after CHIKV infection includes debilitating chronic joint pain, which has associated health, social, individual, and economic impact. Here, we analyzed the early cell-intrinsic response to CHIKV infection in primary human synovial fibroblasts. This cell type represents a potential source of polyarthralgia induced by CHIKV infection. Synovial fibroblasts from healthy donors and osteoarthritic patients were similarly permissive to CHIKV infection. We observed a CHIKV infection-induced transcriptional profile that consisted in upregulation of several hundred interferon-stimulated genes, in addition to transcription factor-encoding genes and effector genes of proinflammatory pathways. In contrast, IL-6, which mediates chronic synovitis by stimulating neutrophil and macrophage infiltration into the joints, was barely secreted by CHIKV-infected fibroblasts. Finally, the cell-intrinsic response to interferon type I and III treatment of synovial fibroblasts differed from that of immortalized model cell lines. In synovial fibroblasts, CHIKV replication was impaired by IFN-α administered post-infection. In summary, primary human synovial fibroblasts serve as *bona-fide ex vivo* primary cell model of CHIKV infection and provide a valuable platform for studies of joint tissue-associated aspects of CHIKV immunopathogenesis.

Keywords: chikungunya virus, primary cells, fibroblasts, innate immunity, RNA-seq, transcriptomics

Introduction

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) is an arthritogenic alphavirus of the *Togaviridae* family, which is transmitted by mosquitoes and circulates both in urban cycles between vectors and humans, and in sylvatic cycles [1,2]. Beyond the typically short acute phase associated with febrile illness and rashes, the most severe consequence of a CHIKV infection in humans is excruciating pain in multiple joints. The arthritis-like pain often manifests during the acute phase of the infection, but importantly can persist in a subgroup of patients for months to years [3,4]. The symptoms cause a severe loss of quality of life and high economic costs, which is a burden especially for low-income countries [5]. The underlying pathophysiology of the chronic symptoms remains largely unclear, but appears to associate with circulating IL-6 [6] and IL-12 [7]. Furthermore, it may involve persisting viral RNA [7,8], although this scenario has been debated [9].

Multiple studies on CHIKV in immortalized model cell lines or *in vivo* in immunodeficient mice have provided valuable information on key aspects of CHIKV tropism and replication, including host factors for entry and replication [10,11], the impact of mutations in the viral glycoproteins on cell entry [12], and cellular restrictions factors acting against CHIKV [13,14]. Additionally, studies investigating immune responses to infection have demonstrated that CHIKV nsP2 counteracts host immunity by blocking nuclear translocation of STAT1 [15,16] and inducing a host transcriptional shutdown [17,18]. However, it is unclear how relevant these and potentially additionally immunity-subverting mechanisms are in infected patients. *In vivo* studies in mice, though combining innate and adaptive immune responses, require a type I IFN-deficient background, neglecting the impact of type I IFN-mediated antiviral responses [19]. However, type I IFN induced in and acting on nonhematopoietic cells appears to be essential for the control and early clearance of CHIKV *in vivo* [20-22]. Therefore, these systems do not fully recapitulate the cellular

environment of human primary cells and tissues that are targeted by CHIKV *in vivo*. Primary

human cells have been used sporadically, but only few studies properly characterized their

unique properties [23-25]. Here, we perform an in depth-characterization of primary human

synovial fibroblasts as an *ex vivo* model of CHIKV infection. Synovial fibroblasts have been

described to be an aggressive key driver for rheumatoid arthritis by facilitating

proinflammatory processes and stimulating the degradation of cartilage [26,27]. We found

synovial fibroblasts to support the full replication cycle of CHIKV and characterized their

intrinsic immune responses against CHIKV infection and their sensitivity to IFN exposure.

Importantly, synovial fibroblasts from healthy donors and the more accessible synovial

fibroblasts from osteoarthritic patients displayed very similar phenotypes in the context of

CHIKV infection. Prospectively, this primary cell model provides the opportunity to address

preclinical questions regarding the physiopathology of CHIKV.

Material and Methods

Cells and Viruses

Human osteosarcoma U2OS cells (a kind gift from T. Stradal, Hanover), human HEK293T

cells (a kind gift from J. Bohne, Hanover), human foreskin fibroblast HFF-1 cell (ATTC-

SCRC-1041) and hamster BHK-21 cells (ATCC CCL-10) were grown in Dulbecco's

modified Eagle's medium - high glucose (DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 10%

heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma-Aldrich), 2mM L-Glutamine (Gibco), and

100 units/ml penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco). Primary human fibroblasts were obtained from

synovial biopsies from donors suffering from osteoarthritis (osteroarthrosis synovial

fibroblasts, OASF) or a non-arthritic background (healthy donor synovial fibroblasts, HSF),

purified, and cultured as described before [28]. The local ethic committee (Justus-Liebig-

University Giessen) approved the cooperative study (ethical vote IDs 66-08 and 74-05). All

patients gave written informed consent. Mycoplasma testing was routinely performed and

negative in all primary human cell cultures. After 2-4 passages of initial cultivation, cells

were used for experiments in high glucose DMEM supplemented with 20% FBS, 2 mM L-

Glutamine, 100 units/ml penicillin-streptomycin, 1% non-essential amino acids (Gibco), and

1 % sodium pyruvate (Gibco). The CHIKV LR2006-OPY 5'GFP infectious clone expressing

EGFP under the control of a subgenomic promotor (hereafter referred to as CHIKV) has been

described previously [29]. Virus was produced by *in vitro*-transcription of and subsequent

electroporation of RNA into BHK-21 cells. Virus-containing supernatant was collected,

passaged once on BHK-21 cells and viral titers were determined by titration on HEK293T

cells.

Infection, Treatments, Transfections

EGFP expression as surrogate for productive CHIKV infection was analyzed on a BD

FACSCalibur, FACSLyric or Accuri C6. For neutralization assays, virus-containing

supernatants were pre-incubated for one hour with anti-CHIKV E2 antibody C9 (Integral

Molecular) at 1 µg/ml or with recombinant MXRA8-Fc (a kind gift from M. Diamond) at 150

ng/ml. Recombinant IFN-α2a (Roferon, Roche) and IFN-λ1 (Peprotech) was used where

indicated. Transfections were performed using Lipofectamine2000 (Thermo Fisher) for

plasmid DNA (pcDNA6 empty vector) or 5'triphosphate dsRNA (InvivoGen).

RNA-Seq Analysis

RNA was extracted using the Promega Maxwell 16 with LEV simplyRNA Tissue Kits. RNA

quality was assessed using the Agilent Bioanalyzer and appropriate samples were used for

NGS library preparation with the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA kit and sequenced with

50 bp paired-end reads and 30 mio reads per sample on the Illumina HiSeq 2500. Data was

analyzed with CLC Genomics Workbench 12 (QIAGEN) by mapping the human reads onto

the hg19 reference genome scaffold (GCA_000001405.28). Unmapped reads not matching

the human genome were mapped onto the CHIKV genome LR2006_OPY (DQ443544.2). For

HSF, infection and analysis were performed similarly, but RNA was extracted with the Zymo

Research Direct-Zol RNA MiniPrep Kit, NGS libraries were prepared with the Illumina

TruSeq stranded mRNA kit and sequencing was performed on the Illumina NextSeq500 with

65 mio reads per sample. Biological process enrichment was analyzed by Gene Ontology

[30,31].

Results

Osteoarthritic fibroblasts are susceptible and permissive to CHIKV infection

First, we examined the capacity of primary human synovial fibroblasts to support the entire

CHIKV replication cycle. Therefore, we infected synovial fibroblasts obtained from

osteoarthritic patients (OASF) and from patients with a non-arthritic background (HSF) with

CHIKV strain LR2006-OPY expressing EGFP under the control of a second subgenomic

promotor. 24 hours post-infection, the proportion of EGFP-positive cells ranged between 4

and 24.5 % and did not differ between fibroblast types (Fig 1A). At the same time point,

supernatants of both OASF and HSF displayed titers of $1.6\text{-}8.8\text{x}10^5$ infectious particles per

ml, with significantly higher titers produced by OASF. At 48 hours post-infection, virus titers

produced by HSF did not further increase, whereas the titers produced by OASF reached up to

$1.5\text{x}10^7$ infectious particles per ml (Fig. 1B), suggesting slightly higher virus production

and/or viral spread in OASF as compared to HSF.

143   Susceptibility of cells to CHIKV infection is enhanced by the attachment factor

MXRA8 [10]. Similarly, the cytosolic protein FHL-1 is essential for CHIKV genome

replication [11]. We confirmed the expression of these two cellular cofactors in OASF and

HSF by immunoblotting and/or immunofluorescence (Fig. 1C). We assessed the functional

relevance of the MXRA8 attachment factor using a soluble MXRA8-Fc fusion protein, which

blocks the binding site on the E1-E2 glycoprotein complex on the virus surface [10,32]. At a

low MOI, MXRA8-Fc-preincubated CHIKV was 50 % less infectious to synovial fibroblasts,

and this inhibition was reversed when saturating amounts of infectious virus particles were

used (Fig. 1D), indicating that endogenous MXRA8 may contribute, at least partially, to

CHIKV entry in OASF.

We next wondered whether IL-1β-mediated activation of synovial fibroblasts, a

hallmark of rheumatoid arthritis [33-35], modulates their susceptibility to CHIKV infection.

Treatment with IL-1β, while readily inducing IL-6 secretion, did not alter the percentage of

EGFP-positive cells upon CHIKV challenge (Fig. 1E). Conversely, infection with CHIKV

induced very mild secretion of IL-6 only at 48 hours post-infection, and did not modulate the

amount of IL-6 secreted upon IL-1β treatment (Fig. 1F). These data suggest that CHIKV

infection of synovial fibroblasts neither induces nor modulates IL-6 secretion, arguing against

their activation.

To determine the importance of IFN-mediated antiviral immunity in this primary cell

system, we monitored the infection in the absence or presence of the JAK/STAT inhibitor

Ruxolitinib. Using live-cell imaging, we documented the increase in EGFP-positive cells

between ten and 48 hours post-infection, which progressed faster in Ruxolitinib-treated

cultures, and an onset of cytopathic effects after 24 hours in all infected cultures (Fig. 1G,

Suppl. Mov. M1). Analysis of the EGFP intensity in each frame over time confirmed the

higher expression of EGFP in Ruxolitinib-treated cultures (Fig. 1H, Suppl. Mov. M2).   To

assess the ability of CHIKV to persist in a fibroblast cultures over multiple passages, virus-

containing supernatants of infected OASF were transferred to an uninfected culture, in the

presence or absence of Ruxolitinib. The initial infection rates were markedly higher in

Ruxolitinib-treated cultures (18.6 times on average), however, EGFP positivity was lost after

two to three passages (Fig. 1I). Overall, these experiments establish the susceptibility and

permissiveness of synovial fibroblasts to CHIKV infection and their expression of important

cellular cofactors. Furthermore, we showed an absence of interconnection between IL1-β

activation and susceptibility to infection, and restriction of infection through JAK/STAT-

mediated innate immunity.

Productive CHIKV infection provokes a strong cell-intrinsic immune response in OASF

Next, we performed RNA-seq analysis on OASF infected with CHIKV, in the absence or

presence of the E2-binding, neutralizing antibody C9 [36], and on mock-infected cells. C9

pre-treatment resulted in potent inhibition of the infection by (Fig. 2A). Upon CHIKV

infection, expression of numerous interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) was induced at the

protein level in a C9 treatment-sensitive manner, including IFITM3, ISG15, and MX2. As

expected, production of the viral E1-E2 and Capsid proteins was detectable specifically in

CHIKV-infected, but not in cells exposed to C9-pretreated virus (Fig. 2B). We performed

global transcriptional profiling of mock- and CHIKV-infected OASF by RNA-Seq and

identified 992 significantly up- and 99 significantly downregulated genes in CHIKV-infected

cells 24 hours post-infection (Fig. 2C). No significant differences were observed between the

transcriptional profiles of uninfected cells and cells exposed to C9-treated virus (data not

shown). We defined a set of prototype effector genes of the cell-intrinsic immune response,

such as ISGs and proinflammatory transcription factors. Most of these genes were highly

upregulated in CHIKV-infected cells, demonstrating a broad and strong activation of antiviral

immune responses (Fig. 2D) in cells from four different donors with no statistically

significant deviation in the magnitude of induction. Upon CHIKV infection, upregulation of

IFNB and *IFNL1*, *IFNL2*, and *IFNL3* expression was statistically significant but low in

magnitude. Almost no *IFNA* mRNA was upregulated upon CHIKV infection. Expression of

mRNAs for all IFN receptors was detectable and stable with exception of the IFN-λ receptor,

which was upregulated upon CHIKV infection. Established host factors for CHIKV as well

as fibroblast marker genes and cellular housekeeping genes were not quantitatively altered in

their expression. Virtual absence of expression of monocyte/macrophage lineage-specific

genes excluded the possibility of a contamination of the fibroblast culture with macrophages,

which occasionally has been reported in early passages of *ex vivo* cultured synovial

203 fibroblasts [28] (Fig. 2D).   In productively infected cultures, 19-54 % of the reads were

204 attributed to the CHIKV genome (Fig. 2E). Additionally, the 26S subgenomic viral RNA was

205 10-fold more abundant than nonstructural subgenomes in both CHIKV-infected cells and cells

206 inoculated with C9-neutralized virus (Fig. 2F). Overall, CHIKV-infected OASF sense and

207 react to productive CHIKV infection with the extensive upregulation of antiviral and

208 proinflammatory ISGs. Interferon expression itself was low at 24 hours post-infection, not

209 excluding the possibility that it peaked transiently at earlier time points.

211 **HSF and OASF share a similar base-line and CHIKV-induced transcriptome**

212 We next aimed at uncovering potential differences between fibroblasts from donors with

213 different clinical conditions. In fibroblasts from healthy donors, infection rates, the resulting

214 immune response, and the ratio of human and CHIKV RNAs equaled those of OASF (Fig.

215 S1). A potential transcriptional predisposition in the cells of either category was largely

216 excluded by the finding of a good correlation of the gene expression profile of respective

217 uninfected samples (R^2=0.9086) (Fig. 3A). The CHIKV-inducible program of genes was not

218 significantly differentially dysregulated at baseline when comparing uninfected OASF and

219 HSF cells. Indeed, the pathways in which the differentially expressed genes were involved in

220 were mostly part of organ development and cellular regulatory processes, and not of

221 inflammatory or antiviral processes (Fig. 3B). Additionally, the transcriptional profile in

222 CHIKV-infected OASF and HSF displayed a similarly good correlation of the gene

223 expression (R^2=0.9085, Fig. 3C), with an equivalently strong upregulation of prototypic

224 inflammation genes (R^2=0.7565, Fig. 3D). Interestingly, the number of genes significantly up-

225 and downregulated upon CHIKV infection was 1.23-fold and 3.57-fold higher in HSF

226 compared to OASF, respectively, but 55.4% of upregulated genes from both groups

227 overlapped (Fig. 3E). Gene ontology analysis of the upregulated genes in HSF identified

pathways similar to those seen in OASF, such as the response to interferons and viruses,

cytokine-mediated processes, and cell-intrinsic defense mechanisms (Fig. 3F). Conclusively,

OASF and HSF share similar basal and CHIKV-inducible transcriptional profiles. Minor

differences were present only in gene families not linked to innate immunity, while important

mediators of antiviral immunity were equally strongly upregulated upon CHIKV infection in

both OASF and HSF.

The cell-intrinsic response to CHIKV infection in primary synovial fibroblasts exceeds

the one induced in immortalized cell lines

We noticed that infection rates in OASF rarely increased after 24 hours post-infection, and

suspected this to be the result of the strong immune activation and subsequent IFN signaling.

As a reference, the commonly used osteosarcoma cell line U2OS was much more susceptible

to CHIKV infection. As an additional reference, HFF-1, an immortalized fibroblast cell line,

displayed reduced susceptibility (Fig. 4A). OASF exhibited very strong ISG responses, which

exceeded those mounted by U2OS and HFF-1 cells at both 24 and 48 hours post-infection

(Fig. 4B). To exclude the possibility that cell lines are less able to sense viral RNA, we

performed stimulation experiments with a 5'-triphosphate dsRNA (5-ppp-RNA), which

exclusively stimulates the RNA sensor RIG-I [37], the main sensor of CHIKV RNA in

infected cells [38] (Fig. 4C). Because of the reported involvement of the DNA sensor cGAS

in modulating RNA-viral infections [39-42], we further tested the ability of all cell types to

sense plasmid DNA (Fig. 4D). All cell types responded to stimulation with 5-ppp-RNA and

DNA by upregulating *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA. There was a trend towards strongest responses

in OASF, despite the absence of statistical significance between the individual three cell

systems. These findings demonstrate that even though the response to a virus-independent,

specific stimulus led to immune responses of largely similar magnitudes in all cultured cells,

the response to the viral infection was highest in the primary synovial fibroblasts. This may

reflect a synovial fibroblast-specific response to CHIKV infection and/or inefficiency of viral

antagonism of host defenses.

Primary synovial fibroblast-specific sensitivities to type I and III IFN treatment

Type I and III IFNs play a crucial role in limiting virus infection and protecting the host [43-

45]. Here, we analyzed to what extent they restrict CHIKV infection in OASF. Furthermore,

we quantified the corresponding induction of expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNAs as

surrogates for the overall response to IFN treatment. First, we pre-stimulated OASF

individually with a range of IFN-α2a and –λ1 concentrations for 48 h and infected the cells

with CHIKV in the continuous presence of the IFNs. All investigated concentrations, even the

lowest dose, of IFN-α almost completely inhibited CHIKV infection. In contrast, IFN-λ

inhibited infection less efficiently, in a largely dose-dependent fashion (Fig. 5A, left panel).

The antiviral state induced by IFN-α pre-treatment manifested itself by a robust and dose-

dependent *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA expression at the time point of infection initiation. IFN-λ

pre-treatment mediated a comparably lower and less dose-dependent induction of ISGs (Fig.

S2A, left panel). Additionally, we investigated IFN-α in a post-infection treatment setting

(Post-treatment). When added four hours post-infection, IFN-α still displayed a clear, though

less potent antiviral activity when compared to the pre-treatment setting (Fig. 5A, right panel).

In parallel to the assessment of antiviral activity, we quantified the antiviral state induced by

either the IFN treatment alone, or the state resulting from the combination of infection and

subsequent IFN post-treatment. Interestingly, a preceding CHIKV infection failed to prevent

ISG induction, and led to expression levels of *IFIT1* and *MX2* even exceeding those induced

by IFN-α (Fig. S2). These data are in contrast to previous reports of efficient CHIKV-

mediated antagonism of IFN signaling in Vero cell lines [15].

Analogous experiments in U2OS and HFF-1 cells yielded partially different outcomes.

Although less effective than in OASF, IFN-α pre-treatment restricted CHIKV infection both

in U2OS and HFF-1 cells, despite more efficient IFN-α induced expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2*

in U2OS cells when compared to HFF-1, suggesting different abilities of the two cell lines to

exert ISG-mediated antiviral restriction. IFN-λ pre-treatment was more potent in U2OS cells

than in OASF, and largely ineffective in HFF-1 cells (Fig. 5B, left panels). IFN-λ antiviral

activity in U2OS cells was accompanied by a decent expression of ISG mRNAs (Fig. S2B,

left panel). In HFF-1 cells, a lack of IFN-λ antiviral activity correlated with a weak induction

of *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA expression, which was in the same range as those detected in

OASF and which was sufficient to exert an antiviral effect, pointing to different efficiencies

of a given antiviral state in the two cell systems (Fig. 5B, left panels). Post-treatment of both

immortalized cell lines with IFN-α was very ineffective (Fig. 5B, C, right panels), even

though we observed a dose-dependent ISG induction in both cells lines (Fig. S2B, C, right

panels). Overall, the data suggest a stronger sensitivity of OASF to IFN-α-induced immunity

compared to commonly used immortalized cell lines. IFN-λ pre-treatment of OASF, although

not as effective as in the osteosarcoma cell line U2OS, clearly inhibited CHIKV infection,

suggesting that these primary synovial fibroblasts express levels of IFN-λ receptors that are

sufficient to signal upon IFN-λ treatment. This corresponds to our observation that the

IFNLR1 gene is not only expressed, but upregulated in CHIKV infected OASF (Fig. 2D).

Most interestingly, and in striking contrast to the immortalized cell lines, OASF were unique

in their ability to transform a post-infection treatment of IFN-α into a relatively potent

antiviral program, suggesting that postulated virus-mediated antagonistic strategies against

IFNs such as the inhibition of STAT1 nuclear translocation or a host transcriptional and

translational shutoff [15-17,46,47] are poorly effective in primary synovial fibroblasts.

Collectively, these data uncover crucial differences between primary synovial fibroblasts and

widely used immortalized cell lines and underline the need to study virus-host interactions in

primary target cells of CHIKV infection.

Discussion

Considering the CHIKV-induced arthritis, it is likely that cells of the synovium are directly

implicated in the pathophysiology of CHIKV infection. Cells of the synovial tissue and

synovial fluid contain CHIKV RNA and protein upon CHIKV infection *in vivo* in humans [7],

experimentally infected macaques [48], and mice [49]. The main cell types composing the

synovium are macrophages and fibroblasts. The latter have been identified to be susceptible to

CHIKV infection *ex vivo* [10,50,51]. However, the corresponding basal innate immune state

of primary synovial fibroblasts and their ability to exert IFN-mediated antiviral restriction is

unknown. Here, we establish that the widely available OASF and less available HSF share

susceptibility and permissiveness to CHIKV infection and their basal and infection-induced

transcriptional program. These findings are in line with reports on overall transcriptional

similarity of the two cell types, except in some signaling pathways unrelated to immunity

[52]. CHIKV infection provoked a striking cellular response that involves upregulation of

multiple ISGs, many of them exerting antiviral activity. Although we did not define the

PAMP(s) that trigger responses in synovial macrophages, infection by alphaviruses typically

raises RIG-I-mediated responses through exposure of dsRNA intermediates and provokes

mitochondrial DNA leakage that is sensed via cGAS/STING [38,39,41]. Indeed, experimental

ligands of both sensors were highly reactive in OASF, as was IFN-α pre-treatment.

Surprisingly, also IFN-λ pre-treatment translated into an antiviral state, indicating that

synovial fibroblasts may represent an exception to the notion of otherwise IFN-λ-

nonresponsive fibroblasts [53]. Finally, CHIKV infection of synovial fibroblasts was sensitive

to IFN-α applied after inoculation with virus. These findings appear to contrast potent virus-

mediated antagonism of IFN in U2OS and HFF-1 cell lines, which has been suggested to

involve counteraction of nuclear translocation of STAT1 [15,16]. Also, unaltered levels of

expression of housekeeping genes and genes encoding fibroblast markers did not generate

evidence for virus-mediated host transcriptional shut-off reported in several cell lines [17,18].

Overall, synovial fibroblasts appear to react differently to CHIKV as compared to commonly

used cell lines, and to be particularly responsive to CHIKV infection. The underlying reason

for this difference is unknown, but may involve a different intracellular milieu that is hyper-

responsive to CHIKV infection. Future studies are required to delineate the exact mode of

CHIKV sensing in productively infected synovial fibroblasts. In addition, it will be important

to study the impact of potential abortive infection events, occurring either due to uptake of

defective interfering particles and/or due to high refractoriness of individual cells, to the

overall cellular response in an infected culture or tissue. Finally, the interplay of tissue-

resident, synovial macrophages and fibroblasts likely additionally modulates CHIKV

infection and cellular responses.

It is tempting to speculate that the synovial fibroblast-specific hyperreactivity is linked

to the long-term arthralgia observed *in vivo* in chronic CHIKV patients, and that

pharmacological interference with hyperinflammation represents a feasible intervention

approach towards alleviation of long-term arthralgia. In rheumatoid arthritis, hyperactivated

synovial fibroblasts are known to invade the joint matrix, destroying/disrupting the cartilage

and causing long-term inflammation [26,54]. This and the subsequent attraction of immune

cells, including monocyte-derived macrophages to the damaged sites, may represent

important events in the progression to long-term morbidity [55]. Indeed, data obtained in

recent clinical studies suggest that treatment of chikungunya-induced arthritis with the

immunosuppressant methotrexate may be a beneficial strategy [56,57].

Acknowledgements

We thank the sequencing core of the Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research (HZI) and the

Genomics platform of the Berlin Institute of Health (BIH) for preparation of the Illumina

sequencing libraries and the next generation sequencing. We thank M. Diamond for providing

the MXRA8-Fc proteins. We thank Theresia Stradal and Jens Bohne for providing U2OS

cells and HEK293T cells, respectively. We thank Christian Drosten for constant support. This

work was supported by funding from Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) to C.G.

(GO2153/3-1), by the Impulse and Networking Fund of the Helmholtz Association through

the HGF-EU partnering grant PIE-008 to C.G., and by funding from the Helmholtz Center for

Infection Research (HZI) and Berlin Institute of Health (BIH) to C.G.

Declaration of Interest

The authors declare they have no actual or potential competing financial interests.

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Legends

Figure 1. Osteoarthritis fibroblasts are susceptible and permissive to CHIKV infection.

(A) OASF or HSF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10). Tthe percentage of EGFP-

positive cells was quantified by flow cytometry (n = 12 for OASF, 5 for HSF. Values are

derived from data also shown in Fig. 2, 5, and S1). **(B)** Supernatants of CHIKV-infected

OASF were collected at 24 and 48 hpi, titrated on HEK293T cells, and titers were determined

by analyzing EGFP expression at 24 hpi. For background controls (post-wash), samples were

collected 1 h post virus inoculation and subsequent washing (n = 3). **(C)** Uninfected OASF

and HSF were analyzed for MXRA8 and FHL1 expression by immunoblotting (n = 4-6) and

for MXRA8 expression by immunofluorescence. Scale bar = 50 µm (n = 3, representative

images shown). **(D)** OASF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV treated with MXRA8-Fc

recombinant protein or mock-treated virus. At 24 hpi, cells were analyzed for EGFP

expression (n = 4). **(E)** OASF were stimulated with IL-1β at 10 ng/ml for 16 h and

subsequently infected with CHIKV (MOI 10) in the presence of IL-1β. Mock-stimulated

OASF were infected as a control. Cells were analyzed for EGFP expression and **(F)**

supernatant was analyzed for IL-6 secretion by ELISA (n = 3). **(G)** OASF were infected with

5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10) in the absence or presence of Ruxolitinib (10 µM) or mock-

infected. Infection was analyzed by live-cell imaging and representative images are shown.

Scale bar = 100 µm (n = 3). **(H)** Live-cell imaging from G was analyzed for EGFP intensity

using ImageJ. **(I)** OASF were treated with Ruxolitinib or mock-treated for 16 h, infected with

5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10) and supernatant was transferred to uninfected, untreated or

Ruxolitinib-pretreated OASF every two to three days. Expression of EGFP in the target cells

was quantified at indicated time points (n = 3).

Figure 2. Productive CHIKV infection provokes a strong cell-intrinsic immune response

in OASF.

(A) OASF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10) in the presence or absence of the

anti-E2 antibody C9. At 24 hpi, the percentage of EGFP-positive cells was measured by flow

cytometry (filled squares: donor cells used for RNA-seq, n = 4. Values shown for comparison

are derived from data plotted in Fig. 5). **(B)** Immunoblot of selected proteins expressed upon

infection in samples from A (n = 4). **(C-F)** RNA from cells infected in A was extracted and

subjected to RNA-seq (n = 4). **(C)** Analysis of up- and downregulated genes in CHIKV-

infected samples compared to mock infection. Dotted lines indicate cutoff for <1.5 fold

regulation and a p-value of 0.05. **(D)** Heatmaps of selected gene expression profiles related to

innate immune responses (left) or to secreted proinflammatory mediators (middle) as well as

to the expression of interferon receptors, CHIKV cofactors, and cellular expression markers

(right) in uninfected or CHIKV-infected cells. **(E)** Number of NGS reads attributed to the

human or CHIKV reference genome in CHIKV or neutralizing antibody-treated CHIKV

infected cells. **(F)** NGS reads attributed to each individual position in the CHIKV genome

plotted for cells infected with CHIKV in the presence or absence of neutralizing antibody.

SGP: subgenomic promotor-

Figure 3. HSF and OASF share a similar base-line and CHIKV-induced transcriptome.

(A) Visualization of global transcriptional differences between OASF and HSF under regular

culturing conditions. Average RPKM ($\log_{10}$) values for all detected transcripts from OASF

are plotted on the x-axis, with corresponding values from HSF plotted on the y-axis. R^2 value

and regression line for comparison are inset. **(B)** Gene ontology analysis of differentially

expressed genes in OASF compared to HSF. **(C)** Visualization of global transcriptomic

differences between CHIKV-infected OASF and HSF as described in A. **(D)** Visualization of

the fold change induction of indicated genes in CHIKV-infected OASF and HSF. Average

fold change (log$_2$) values for infected OASF are plotted on the x-axis, with corresponding

values from infected HSF plotted on the y-axis. R^2 value and regression line for the

comparison are inset. **(E)** Overlap of significantly (FDR-p <0.05) up- and downregulated

genes in infected OASF and HSF. Numbers of genes up- or downregulated in either OASF or

HSF only, or in both cell-types, are indicated. **(F)** Gene ontology analysis of the top

significantly upregulated pathways in OASF, HSF, and shared by both in response to CHIKV

infection.

Figure 4. The cell-intrinsic response to CHIKV infection in primary synovial fibroblasts

exceeds the one induced in immortalized cell lines.

(A) OASF and HFF-1 cells were infected (MOI 10), U2OS cells were infected (MOI 0.5), and

EGFP-positive cells were quantified by flow cytometry (n = 3-6). **(B)** Cells infected in A were

analyzed for expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA by quantitative RT-PCR (n = 3-6). Data

from (A) and (B) is derived from experiments shown in Fig. 5. **(C)** Indicated cell cultures

were transfected with 5'-triphosphate dsRNA (5-ppp-RNA) and analyzed for the expression

of *IFIT1* (left) and *MX2* (right) mRNA (n = 3-4) **(D)** Same as F, but with plasmid DNA as

transfectant (n = 3).

Figure 5. Primary synovial fibroblast-specific sensitivities to type I and III IFN

treatment

(A) For a pre-treatment setting, OASF were treated with IFN-α2a or –λ1 for 48 h before

infection with 5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10) in the presence of IFN (left panel). For a post-

treatment setting, OASF were infected with 5'-EGFP CHIKV (MOI 10) and IFN-α2a was

added 4 hpi (right panel). EGFP-positive cells were quantified by flow cytometry. **(B)** U2OS

cells were treated and analyzed as described in (A), but infected at an MOI of 0.5. **(C)** HFF-1

cells were treated, infected, and analyzed as described in (A). UT: untreated (n = 3 for all

experiments)