Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of antiviral responses and viral antagonism in Chikungunya virus-infected synovial fibroblasts

Fabian Pott[a,b], Dylan Postmus[a,b], Richard J. P. Brown[c], Emanuel Wyler[d], Elena Neumann[e], Markus Landthaler[d,f], and Christine Goffinet[a,b*]

[a]Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, corporate member of Freie Universität Berlin and Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin, Institute of Virology

[b]Berlin Institute of Health at Charité – Universitätsmedizin Berlin, Germany

[c]Division of Veterinary Medicine, Paul Ehrlich Institute, Langen, Germany

[d]Max-Delbrück-Center for Molecular Medicine in the Helmholtz Association (MDC), Berlin Institute for Medical Systems Biology (BIMSB), Berlin, Germany

[e]Internal Medicine and Rheumatology, Justus-Liebig-University Giessen, Campus Kerckhoff, Bad Nauheim, Germany

[f]IRI Life Sciences, Institut für Biologie, Humboldt Universität zu Berlin, Berlin, Germany

*Corresponding author:

Christine Goffinet, Institute for Virology, Charité – Universitaetsmedizin Berlin, Charitéplatz 1, 10117 Berlin, Germany, christine.goffinet@charite.de

Abstract

In recent years, (re-)emerging arboviruses including Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) and Mayaro virus (MAYV) have caused growing concern due to expansion of insect vector ranges. No protective vaccine or specific antiviral strategies are currently available. Long-term morbidity after CHIKV infection includes debilitating chronic joint pain, which has associated health and economic impact. Here, we analyzed the early cell-intrinsic response to CHIKV and MAYV infection in primary human synovial fibroblasts. This interferon-competent cell type represents a potential source of polyarthralgia induced by CHIKV infection. Synovial fibroblasts from healthy and osteoarthritic donors were similarly permissive to CHIKV and MAYV infection *ex vivo*. Using RNA-seq, we defined a CHIKV infection-induced transcriptional profile with several hundred interferon-stimulated and arthralgia-mediating genes upregulated. Type I interferon was both secreted by infected fibroblasts and protective when administered exogenously. IL-6 secretion, which mediates chronic synovitis, however, was not boosted by infection. Single-cell RNA-seq and flow cytometric analyses uncovered an inverse correlation of activation of innate immunity and productive infection at the level of individual cells. 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, fibroblasts, innate immunity, single-cell RNA-seq, transcriptomics

Introduction

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) and Mayaro virus (MAYV) are arthritogenic alphaviruses of the *Togaviridae* family, which are transmitted by *Aedes sp.* mosquitoes and circulate both in urban cycles between vectors and humans, and in sylvatic cycles [1-3]. Beyond the typically short acute phase associated with febrile illness and rashes, excruciating pain in multiple joints represents the most severe consequence of a CHIKV or MAYV infection in humans. The arthritis-like pain often manifests itself during the acute phase of the infection, but can persist in a subgroup of patients for months to years [4-6]. Symptoms cause a severe loss of quality of life and high economic costs, which is a burden especially for low-income countries [7]. The underlying pathophysiology of the chronic symptoms remains largely unclear, but appears to associate with circulating IL-6 [8] and IL-12 [9]. Furthermore, it may involve persisting viral RNA [9,10], although this scenario has been debated [11].

Multiple studies on alphaviruses in immortalized model cell lines and *in vivo* in immunodeficient mice have provided valuable information on key aspects of CHIKV and MAYV tropism and replication, including host factors for entry and replication [12,13], the impact of mutations in the viral glycoproteins on cell entry [14], and cellular restriction factors acting against CHIKV and other alphaviruses [15,16]. Additionally, studies investigating immune responses to infection have demonstrated that CHIKV nsP2 counteracts host immunity by blocking nuclear translocation of STAT1 [17,18] and inducing a host transcriptional shutdown [19,20]. However, the relevance of these and potentially additional immunity-subverting mechanisms in infected patients remains unclear. *In vivo* studies in mice, though recapitulating both innate and adaptive immune responses, require a type I interferon (IFN)-deficient background, neglecting the impact of type I IFN-mediated antiviral responses [21]. 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* [22-24]. Therefore, these systems do not

fully recapitulate the cellular environment of human primary cells and tissues that are targeted

by CHIKV and MAYV *in vivo*. Primary human cells have been used sporadically, but only few

studies properly characterized their unique properties [25-27]. Here, we perform an in depth-

characterization of primary human synovial fibroblasts as an *ex vivo* model of CHIKV and

MAYV infection. Synovial fibroblasts have been described to be a key driver for rheumatoid

arthritis by facilitating proinflammatory processes and stimulating the degradation of cartilage

[28,29]. Here, we establish synovial fibroblasts as being fully susceptible and permissive to

CHIKV and MAYV infection. Using bulk and single-cell approaches, we identified cell-

intrinsic immune responses that were most pronounced in abortively infected bystander cells,

suggestive of effective viral antagonism of innate immunity in productively infected cells.

Material and Methods [1372 Words]

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 cells (ATCC SCRC-1041), human HL116 cells (a kind gift from Sandra Pellegrini, Institut Pasteur, France [30]), and hamster BHK-21 cells (ATCC CCL-10) were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium - high glucose (DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich D5671) supplemented with 10 % heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, Sigma-Aldrich F7524), 2mM L-Glutamine (Gibco 25030081), and 100 units/ml penicillin-streptomycin (Gibco 11548876). HL116 cell received 1X HAT supplement (Gibco 21060017) in addition. 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 [31]. 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 expanded and 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 11140050), and 1 % sodium pyruvate (Gibco 11360070). The CHIKV LR2006-OPY 5'GFP and MAYV TRVL4675 5'GFP infectious clones expressing EGFP under the control of a subgenomic promotor (hereafter referred to as CHIKV and MAYV) have been described previously [32,33]. 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 or MAYV infection was quantified 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 C9, Lot INT MAB-003) at 1 µg/ml or with recombinant MXRA8-Fc (a kind gift from M. Diamond) at 150 ng/ml. Recombinant IFN-α2a (Roferon L03AB04, Roche) and IFN-λ1 (Peprotech 300-02L) was used where indicated. Transfections were performed using Lipofectamine2000 (Thermo Fisher 11668019) for plasmid DNA (pcDNA6 empty vector) or 5'triphosphate dsRNA (InvivoGen tlrl-3prna).

Bulk RNA-Seq Analysis

RNA was extracted using the Promega Maxwell 16 with LEV simplyRNA Tissue Kits (Promega AS1270). 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 (NEB E7760) 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 subsequently mapped onto the CHIKV genome LR2006_OPY (DQ443544.2). For HSF, infection and analysis were performed similarly, but RNA was extracted with the Direct-Zol RNA MiniPrep Kit (Zymo Research R2051), NGS libraries were prepared with the TruSeq stranded mRNA kit (Illumina 20020594) and sequencing was performed on the Illumina NextSeq500 with 65 mio reads per sample. Biological process enrichment was analyzed by Gene Ontology [34,35].

Single-Cell RNA-Seq Analysis

Infected cells were trypsinized, debris was removed by filtration, and the suspension was adjusted to a final amount of ~16,000 cells per lane to achieve the recovery of 10,000 cells per donor after partitioning into Gel-Beads in Emulsion (GEMs) according to the instructions for Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' GEM, Library & Gel Bead Kit v3.1 provided by the manufacturer (10X Genomics PN-1000121). Polyadenylated mRNAs were tagged with unique 16 bp 10X barcodes and the 10 bp Unique Molecular Identifiers (UMIs), reverse transcribed and resulting cDNAs were bulk amplified. After enzymatic fragmentation and size selection, resulting double-stranded cDNA amplicons optimized for library construction were subjected to adaptor ligation and sample index PCRs needed for Illumina bridge amplification and sequencing. Single-cell libraries were quantified using Qubit (Thermo Fisher) and quality-controlled using the Bioanalyzer System (Agilent). Sequencing was performed on a HiSeq4000 device (Illumina) aiming for 175 mln reads per library (read1: 26 nucleotides, read2: 64 nucleotides). Data was analyzed using CellRanger v5.0 (10X Genomics) using human and CHIKV genome scaffolds as described above, and the R packages Seurat v4.0 [36] and DoRothEA v3.12 [37].

Quantitative RT-PCR

RNA was extracted using the Promega Maxwell 16 with the LEV simplyRNA tissue kit (Promega AS1270), the Roche MagNAPure with the Cellular Total RNA Large Volume kit (Roche 05467535001), or the DirectZol RNA Mini kit (Zymo R2051). cDNA was prepared using dNTPs (Thermo Fisher R0181), random hexamers (Jena Bioscience PM-301) and M-MuLV reverse transcriptase (NEB M0253). For quantitative RT-PCR, specific Taqman probes and primers (Thermo Fisher 4331182) were used with TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems 4305719) or LightCycler© 480 Probes Master (Roche 04887301001).

PCRs were performed on the Applied Biosystems ABI 7500 Fast or the Roche LightCycler 480

in technical triplicates.

Flow Cytometry, Confocal and Live Cell Imaging

For flow cytometric analysis of protein expression, OASF were fixed in 4 % PFA (Carl Roth

4235.2), permeabilized in 0.1 % Triton-X (Invitrogen HFH10) and immunostained with

antibodies against IFIT1 (Origene TA500948, clone OTI3G8), MX1/2 (Santa Cruz sc-47197),

and IFITM3 (Abgent AP1153a) in combination with Alexa Fluor-647 conjugated antibodies

against mouse- (Thermo Fisher A28181), rabbit- (Thermo Fisher A27040), or goat-IgG

(Thermo Fisher A-21447). Flow was performed on a BD FACSCalibur or FACSLyric and

analyzed with FlowJo v10. For immunofluorescence microscopy, OASF were seeded in 8-well

μ-slides (ibidi 80826), fixed and permeabilized as described above, stained with antibodies

against MXRA8 (biorbyt orb221523) with AlexaFluor647-conjugated secondary antibody

(Thermo Fisher A28181), and counterstained with DAPI (Invitrogen D1306). For fluorescence

microscopy and live cell imaging, cells were infected with CHIKV at an MOI of 10 and imaged

with the Zeiss LSM800 Airyscan Confocal Microscope. Images were analyzed and merged

using Zeiss ZEN Blue 3.0.

Immunoblotting

Cell lysates were separated on 10 % acrylamide gels by SDS-PAGE and protein transferred to

a 0.45 μm PVDF membrane (GE Healthcare 15259894) using the BioRad TransBlot Turbo

system. Expression was detected using primary antibodies detecting MXRA8 (biorbyt

orb221523), FHL1 (R&D Systems MAB5938), IFITM3 (Abgent AP1153a), MX2 (Santa Cruz

sc-47197), ISG15 (Santa Cruz sc-166755), and α-Tubulin (Cell Signaling Technology 2144S)

and appropriate secondary IRDye antibodies. CHIKV proteins were detected using anti-CHIKV

antiserum (IBT Bioservices Cat #01-0008 Lot #1703002). Fluorescence was detected and

quantified using the LI-COR Odyssey Fc system.

Measurement of IL-6 and Bioactive IFN

Anti-IL-6 ELISA (BioLegend 430504) was performed according to manufacturer's protocols.

Briefly, plates were coated with capture antibodies and incubated with diluted supernatant from

CHIKV- or mock-infected cell cultures . Detection antibody and substrate were added and the

OD measured with the Tecan Sunrise microplate reader. Concentrations were then calculated

the concentration according to a standard curve measured on the same plate. Bioactive type I

IFN was quantified by incubating supernatant from CHIKV-infected cells on HL116 cells

harboring a firefly luciferase gene under the control of an IFN-sensitive promotor. After six h,

cells were lysed, incubated with luciferase substrate solution (Promega E1500), and luciferase

activity was quantified with the BioTek Synergy HTX microplate reader.

Data and Code Availability

RNA-seq and single-cell RNA-seq datasets are available at the NCBI GEO database under the

accession number GSE152782 and GSE176361, respectively. All generated code is available at

https://github.com/GoffinetLab/CHIKV_scRNAseq-fibroblast.

Data Presentation and Statistical Analysis

If not stated otherwise, bars and symbols show the arithmetic mean of indicated amount of

repetitions. Error bars indicate S.D. from at least three or S.E.M. from the indicated amount of

individual experiments. Statistical analysis was performed using CLC Workbench for RNA-

seq and GraphPad Prism 8.3.0 for all other analysis. Unpaired t-tests were applied with assumed

equal standard deviation when comparing results obtained in the same cell line and Mann-

Whitney-U-tests when comparing between cell lines or between cell lines and primary cells.

For treatment analysis, ratio paired t-tests were applied. For IC50 calculation, nonlinear fit

curves with variable slopes were calculated. FDR correction was applied for RNA-seq analysis

and Bonferroni correction for Gene Ontology analysis. P values <0.05 were considered

significant (*), <0.01 very significant (**), <0.001 highly significant (***); < 0.0001 extremely

significant, n.s. = not significant (≥0.05).

Results

Osteoarthritic fibroblasts are susceptible and permissive to CHIKV and MAYV infection

First, we examined the ability of primary human synovial fibroblasts to support the entire CHIKV and MAYV 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 or MAYV strain TRVL7546 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 % for CHIKV and between 8.5 and 39 % for MAYV and did not differ between fibroblast types (Fig. 1A). At the same time point, supernatants of both OASF and HSF displayed CHIKV titers of $1.6-8.8 \times 10^5$ infectious particles per ml and MAVV titers of $0.12-2.75 \times 10^5$ infection particles per ml, with significantly higher titers produced by OASF. At 48 hours post-infection, CHIKV titers produced by HSF did not further increase, whereas the titers produced by OASF reached up to 1.5×10^7 infectious particles per ml (Fig. 1B, left panel), suggesting slightly higher virus production and/or viral spread in OASF as compared to HSF. MAYV titers did not significantly increase in OASF or HSF at 48 hours post-infection (Fig. 1B, right panel).

Susceptibility of cells to CHIKV infection is enhanced by the attachment factor MXRA8 [12] and the cytosolic protein FHL-1 is essential for CHIKV genome replication [13]. We confirmed 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 [12,38]. At a low MOI, MXRA8-Fc-preincubated CHIKV was 50 % less infectious to synovial fibroblasts, and this inhibition was abolished when saturating amounts of infectious virus particles were used (Fig. 1D), indicating that endogenous MXRA8 contributes, at least partially, to CHIKV entry in OASF.

Subsequently, we investigated whether IL-1β-mediated activation of synovial

fibroblasts, a hallmark of rheumatoid arthritis [39-41], modulates their susceptibility to CHIKV

infection. Treatment with IL-1β, did not alter the percentage of EGFP-positive cells upon

CHIKV challenge (Fig. 1E), while readily inducing IL-6 secretion (Fig. 1F). Conversely,

CHIKV infection only very mildly, if at all, enhanced IL-1β-induced IL-6 secretion (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 analyzed the secretion of type I IFN upon CHIKV infection, which reached higher

levels than after prestimulation with IFN-α (Fig. 1G). Additionally, we monitored the CHIKV

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, with an onset of cytopathic

effects observed after 24 hours in all infected cultures (Fig. 1H, Suppl. Mov. 1). Analysis of the

EGFP intensity in each frame over time confirmed the higher expression of EGFP in

Ruxolitinib-treated cultures (Fig. 1I, Suppl. Mov. 2). Overall, these experiments establish the

susceptibility and permissiveness of synovial fibroblasts to CHIKV and MAYV infection and

their expression of important cellular cofactors. Furthermore, we show an absence of

interconnection between IL1-β activation and susceptibility to CHIKV infection, and restriction

of infection through JAK/STAT-mediated innate immunity.

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

Next, we performed RNA-seq analysis on OASF and HSF that had been infected with CHIKV

in the presence or absence of the glycoprotein E2-binding, neutralizing antibody C9 [42], and

on mock-infected cells. C9 pre-treatment resulted in potent inhibition of the infection by on

average 16-fold (Fig. 2A). Upon infection, expression of numerous IFN-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). Global transcriptional profiling by RNA-seq revealed 992 (OASF) and 1221 (HSF)

upregulated genes as well as 99 (OASF) and 353 (HSF) downregulated genes in CHIKV-

infected cells 24 hours post-infection as compared to uninfected cells (Fig. 2C). Uninfected

cells and cells exposed to C9-treated virus shared a similar profile (data not shown). A high

similarity of the gene expression profile of uninfected OASF and HSF (R^2=0.9086) argues

against a potential transcriptional predisposition that could have exerted a rheumatoid arthritis-

related gene expression profile or a broad proinflammatory activation (Fig. S1A). Uninfected

OASF and HSF differed in genes involved in organ development and cellular regulatory

processes, and not inflammatory or antiviral processes (Fig. S1B). Additionally, the

transcriptional profile in infected OASF and HSF was very similar (R^2=0.9085, Fig. S1C-D),

with an equivalently strong upregulation of a set of prototypic inflammation and arthritis-

related genes which we defined for further analysis (R^2=0.8202, Fig. 2D). Interestingly, the

number of genes significantly up- and downregulated upon infection was 1.23-fold and 3.57-

fold higher in HSF compared to OASF, respectively, but 55.4% of upregulated genes from both

groups overlapped (Fig. 2E). Most of the prototypic antiviral and proinflammatory genes were

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

immune responses in cells from four different donors with no statistically significant deviation

in the magnitude of induction (Fig. 2F, left panel). Upregulation of *IFNB* and *IFNL1*, *IFNL2*,

and *IFNL3* expression was statistically significant but low in magnitude, with almost no *IFNA*

mRNA detectable. Expression of arthritis-associated genes, including genes encoding immune

cell chemoattractants (*CXCL5, IL8, CD13, RANTES/CCL5*), matrix-metalloproteases (*MMP3,*

-9, -14, ADAMTS5) and genes commonly expressed by fibroblasts in rheumatoid arthritis

(*FGF2, PDPN, NGF, FAP*), was not grossly altered in CHIKV-infected cells. Exceptions were

a strong CHIKV-induced upregulation of *RANTES/CCL5* in both OASF and HSF and *IL8* in

HSF (Fig. 2F, right panel). mRNAs for all IFN receptors were detectable and stable with

exception of *IFNLR1*, whose expression was upregulated upon CHIKV infection (Fig. S1E).

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 fibroblasts [31] (Fig. S1E). Conclusively, OASF

and HSF share similar basal and CHIKV infection-induced transcriptional profiles. Overall,

CHIKV-infected OASF sense and react to productive CHIKV infection with the extensive

upregulation of antiviral and proinflammatory ISGs. IFN expression itself was low at 24 hours

post-infection, not excluding the possibility that it peaked transiently at earlier time points.

High viral RNA levels in cells of infected cultures with an excess replication of the viral

structural subgenome

We noticed very little inter-donor variation regarding the distribution of identified viral reads

along the viral genome. The 5´ region of the genome, encoding the non-structural CHIKV

proteins, was replicated to a lower extent than the 3´, 26S subgenomic promoter-driven,

structural protein-encoding genomic region. Interestingly, this differential abundance of 5´and

3´ reads was also detected in cultures inoculated with C9-neutralized virus, suggesting infection

in a small number of cells (Fig. 3A). Overall, the 26S subgenomic viral RNA was 5.3-fold more

abundant than nonstructural subgenomes (Fig. 3B). 18-54 % and 17-44 % of the total reads in

productively infected OASF and HSF, respectively, were attributed to the CHIKV genome (Fig.

3C, D). In summary, our analysis revealed efficient replication of the CHIKV genome in

infected fibroblasts with an excess of structural protein-encoding subgenomic RNA.

Exogenous IFN administration provokes higher immune responses and leads to improved

protection from infection in primary fibroblasts than in commonly used cell lines

CHIKV and MAYV infection rates in OASF did not increase after 24 hours post-infection (Fig.

4A), and we suspected this to be the result of the strong immune activation and subsequent IFN

signaling. The commonly used osteosarcoma cell line U2OS was more susceptible, while the

immortalized fibroblast cells line HFF-1 displayed reduced susceptibility to alphaviral infection

(Fig. 4A). OASF exhibited strong induction of *IFIT1* and *MX2* CHIKV infection, which

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

15- to 150-fold. MAYV infection-provoked ISG responses in OASF were inferior to those

induced by CHIKV, despite similar percentages of infected cells (Fig. 4B). Contrasting the cell

system-specific magnitude of gene expression upon CHIKV infection, both OASF and cell lines

shared similar responsiveness to 5'-triphosphate dsRNA (5-ppp-RNA) transfection, which

exclusively stimulates the RNA sensor RIG-I [43], the main sensor of CHIKV RNA in infected

cells [44], and plasmid DNA transfection (Fig. S2A).

Next, we tested the cells´ ability to respond to exogenous type I and III IFNs, which

play a crucial role in limiting virus infection and protecting the host [45-47]. We stimulated

OASF individually with a range of IFN-α2 and -λ concentrations at 48 hours prior to infection.

At all investigated concentrations, even the lowest dose, of IFN-α induced a potent upregulation

of *IFIT1* and *MX2* (Fig. S2B), and almost completely inhibited CHIKV infection (Fig. 4C). In

contrast, IFN-λ induced lower ISG expression levels (Fig. S2B), and inhibited infection less

efficiently (Fig. 4C). Although less effective than in OASF, IFN-α restricted CHIKV infection

both in U2OS and HFF-1 cells, while IFN-λ pre-treatment was more potent in U2OS cells than

in OASF, and ineffective in HFF-1 cells (Fig. 4C). These antiviral activities were largely

consistent with the respective degree of ISG expression at the time point of infection (Fig. S2B).

IFN-α and -λ induced expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* was higher in U2OS cells than in HFF-1.

We next investigated the sensitivity of CHIKV infection to IFN when applied four hours post-

infection. In this set-up, IFN-α still displayed a clear, though less potent antiviral activity when

compared to the pre-treatment setting (Fig. 4D). In contrast, treatment of both immortalized cell

lines with IFN-α post-infection was very ineffective (Fig. 4D).

Interestingly, in all three cells systems, a preceding CHIKV infection did not antagonize

IFN-mediated induction of ISGs, and led to expression levels of *IFIT1* and *MX2* exceeding

those induced by IFN-α alone (Fig. S2C). Overall, the data suggest a stronger sensitivity of

OASF to IFN-α-induced immunity compared to commonly used immortalized cell lines. 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. Collectively, these data uncover crucial differences between primary synovial

fibroblasts and widely used immortalized cell lines regarding their cell-intrinsic innate response

to infection and their sensitivity to exogenous IFNs.

Virus-inclusive single-cell sequencing reveals a switch from induction to repression of immune responses depending on a threshold level of viral RNA in infected cells

Finally, we asked how the cell-intrinsic defenses correlate with the amounts of viral RNA

within cells of a given infected culture by analyzing infected OASF for their expression of

antiviral proteins using flow cytometry. As expected, expression of IFIT1, IFITM3 and MX1/2

was enhanced in OASF upon IFN-α treatment (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, these proteins were

expressed at even higher levels in EGFP-negative cells of CHIKV-infected cultures, while the

productively infected, EGFP-positive cells displayed markedly reduced expression levels of these factors (Fig. 5A).

Since absence of EGFP expression does not necessarily exclude the presence of viral, potentially abortive RNA, we performed virus-inclusive single-cell RNA-seq to establish potential correlations of the quantity of viral RNA and a specific cellular transcriptional profile. To this end, we analyzed infected OASF infected at escalating MOIs. No EGFP-positive cells were detectable at six hours post-infection by flow cytometry (Fig. 5B, left panel). In contrast, 24 hours post-infection, the reporter was expressed in an MOI-dependent fashion, ranging from virtually 0% to 15% (Fig. 5B, left panel). *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA expression was largely proportional to EGFP expression (Fig, 5B, right panel).

Single-cell (sc) RNA-seq of the very same cells showed very little inter-donor variability, and we merged data from both donors throughout the rest of the analysis (Fig. 5C). In order to identify potential correlations of viral RNA abundance and the cellular transcription profile, we compared the expression of CHIKV RNA to expression of 203 IFN signaling genes listed in the REACTOME database (identifier R-HSA-913531, Table 1). For each cell, the expression of this collection of genes was summarized using Seurat's AddModuleScore function. Briefly, this summarizes the expression of a select group of genes by normalizing the aggregate expression to a randomly selected, non-overlapping subset of genes and scores each cell based on its expression of genes in this module, creating a module score (IFN Module Score, IMS). 24 hours post-infection, most identified CHIKV reads corresponded to the 3' end of the genome, along with a minor number of reads mapping to the 3' end of *EGFP*, which is expressed as a subgenomic RNA in infected cells (Fig. S3A). As expected for mock-infected cells, CHIKV reads were undetectable, and IFN signaling genes were expressed at basal levels, as calculated by the IMS. CHIKV RNA abundance per cell increased in an MOI-dependent manner, however susceptibility to infection was unequally distributed over individual cells, and

a subset of cells displayed a higher susceptibility than others, as reflected by a high percentage

of reads attributed to the viral genome (Fig. S3B). Most interestingly, IFN signaling genes

appeared to be induced predominantly in cells displaying low CHIKV gene expression. *Vice*

versa, CHIKV RNA-positive cells maintained basal or reduced expression of IFN signaling

related genes (Fig. 5D). Of note, six hours post-infection, CHIKV expression was low and

antiviral responses as presented by the IMS was were largely absent at low MOIs, while

individual ISGs were induced at higher MOIs (Fig. S3C, D). As opposed to the induction of

IFN signaling genes, known CHIKV cofactors *MXRA8*, *FHL1*, and the fibroblast marker genes

VIM and *COL3A1* were broadly and stably expressed under all experimental conditions.

Surprisingly, *FURIN*, encoding the cellular protease considered important for viral polyprotein

cleavage, was detectable only in a minority of cells (Fig. S4).

Correlating viral and cellular gene expression reveals a selective suppression of

transcription factor and ISG expression

In order to quantify expression of IFN signaling genes according to viral RNA abundance, we

divided cells into three groups: cells without detectable viral RNA expression (bystander), cells

displaying low amounts of viral RNA (low) and cells displaying high levels of viral RNA (high)

(Fig. 6A). Mirroring our initial observations (Fig. 5), we detected a significantly lower IMS in

high cells when compared to low or bystander cells of the identical culture (Fig. S5A). Six

hours post-infection, differential expression of non-ISGs was very modest between bystander

and viral RNA-positive cells, while it was clearly more pronounced 24 hours post-infection

(Fig. S5B). In contrast, over 250 ISGs, including *ISG15*, *IFIT1*, *MX2*, *IFITM3*, *MX1*, and *IFI6*,

were upregulated in viral RNA-positive cells as compared to bystander cells at both investigated

time points. Individual comparisons of either low or high cells with bystander cells gave similar

overall observations. However, at both investigated time points, no further upregulation of ISGs

was detected in the high cells as compared to low cells, but rather a significant downregulation

of three ISGs at 24 hours post-infection and six ISGs at six hours post-infection. This suggests

either a loss of cellular transcription activity or a lowered stability of cellular RNA in cells

containing high loads of CHIKV RNA (Fig. S5B).

To improve resolution, we calculated the average CHIKV and EGFP RNA expression

and the average IMS in bins of 1000 cells for a total of 36 bins, sorted by their expression level

of CHIKV RNA. At both time points, while the first 7-10 bins represented cells expressing no

or virtually no CHIKV RNA, the following 18-21 bins represented cells displaying (according

to the cut-off defined in Fig. 6A) low, but gradually increasing levels of CHIKV RNA, and

largely undetectable EGFP RNA. We considered the latter cells to represent abortively infected

cells due to their lack of subgenomic transcripts. The last eight bins displayed cells with overall

high, starkly increasing levels of CHIKV RNA and with significant levels of EGFP mRNA.

We hypothesize that these cells represent productively infected cells. Strikingly, in abortively

infected cells, IMS values increased proportionally to the abundance of viral RNA per cell,

whereas in productively infected cells, an inverse proportionality was observed (Fig. 6B). This

dataset suggests that expression of IFN signaling genes is upregulated in cells harboring low-

to-intermediate levels of viral RNA, which, however, do not or have not yet progressed to a

productive infection. In contrast, cells that exceed a certain threshold of viral RNA show a

prevention or downregulation of the expression of IFN signaling genes. The analysis of

expression of selected genes confirmed this observation. Expression of individual ISGs,

including including *ISG15*, *IFI6*, *MX1*, *OASL*, *IFITs*, and *IFITMs,* and transcription factors,

including *STAT1* and *IRF7*, was low in mock-infected and bystander cells, and more

pronounced in a representative low cells (six hours post-infection: bin 27-29, 24 hours post-

infection: bin 26-28) than in high cells (bins 34-36) (Fig. 6C). To identify further putative

targets of viral antagonism, we correlated the expression of all 203 genes of the IMS to the viral

RNA expression in infected cells at 24 hours post-infection. We identified 13 genes displaying

a significant positive correlation (r > 0.3) in the low CHIKV group, and a significant negative

correlation (r < -0.3) in the high CHIKV group (*IFITM3, IFIT3, OAS1, XAF1, GBP1, EIF4A1,*

EIF2AK2, STAT1, GBP3, UBC, PSMB8, UBA52). Strikingly, the only transcription factor

present in both groups, *STAT1*, was also negatively correlated at six hours post-infection in the

high viral RNA group. We additionally identified transcription factors *JAK1* and *IRF7* to switch

from weak correlation in the low CHIKV group to a negative correlation in the high CHIKV

group at 24 hours post-infection (Fig. 6D). We confirmed this finding using a transcription

factor activity score analysis using the DoRotheEa database, which scores cells based on the

activity of transcription factors inferred from the expression of the associated target genes in

regulons, and found the regulon of *STAT1* to be strongly induced in bystander and low CHIKV

groups at high MOIs, yet highly susceptible to viral antagonism in the high CHIKV group. This

was also true for multiple other transcription factors – IRFs and STATs as well as NFκB and c-

JUN - at higher MOIs, indicating a strong and sensitive induction that is counteracted in highly

infected cells (Fig. 6E). Taken together, we demonstrate that the interaction between the virus

and the host cell can be defined more precisely at single-cell resolution than by analyzing bulk

data, and that the activation of innate immune responses can be well defined and correlated to

the amount of viral RNA in the cell. Furthermore, viral antagonism may be masked by strong

immune responses in cells infected at low levels, making it difficult to analyze using

conventional RNA-seq.

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 [9], 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* [12,50,51]. 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 describe their basal and infection-induced transcriptional programs. 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 [44,53,54]. Indeed, experimental ligands of both sensors were highly reactive in OASF, as was IFN-α 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 [55]. Finally, CHIKV infection of synovial fibroblasts was sensitive to IFN-α applied after inoculation with virus. These findings appear to contrast with 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 [17,18]. CHIKV was unable to suppress ISG expression upon exogenous IFN treatment in any cell type, indicating that the

proposed antagonistic functions may not be strong enough to be detectable at the bulk level.

Also, unaltered levels of expression of housekeeping genes and genes encoding fibroblast

markers in primary synovial fibroblasts did not generate evidence for a general virus-mediated

host transcriptional shut-off that has been reported for several cell lines [19,20]. Overall,

synovial fibroblasts appear to respond differently to CHIKV infection as commonly used cell

lines. The underlying reason for this difference is unknown, but may involve a different

intracellular milieu that is hyper-responsive to CHIKV infection.

While our single-cell RNA-seq approach is dependent on 3' end capture and does not

allow for the discrimination between full-length and partial viral RNA, we found an excess of

subgenomic RNA in infected cells. We found a similar the ratio of subgenomic to genomic

RNA as measured in Sindbis virus infected cells [56]. The enhanced replication of the

subgenomic RNA, which is mediated by the four cleaved nonstructural proteins forming a

replication complex, ensures the rapid production of viral structural proteins and the formation

of new virions [57,58]. While packaging of subgenomic RNA into virions has been described

so far for one alphavirus, Aura virus [59], CHIKV holds a packaging signal in the nsP2 region

of its genome, selecting only for full genomic RNA to be packaged into virions [60]. Therefore,

we assume that the different abundance is based on de *novo* produced subgenomic RNA rather

than on incoming viral RNA.

Through correlating cellular gene expression with CHIKV RNA abundance in

individual infected cells, it appears that a certain threshold of viral RNA is required to initiate

viral RNA sensing and eventually trigger ISG expression. However, expression of most ISGs

is negatively regulated in the presence of a high viral RNA burden per cell. This is fully

consistent with the idea that productive infection involves the synthesis of viral antagonists that

hamper the induction and/or evade the function of ISGs, resulting in efficient virus propagation.

Along these lines, West Nile virus infection also results in lowered ISG expression levels in

cells harboring high viral RNA quantities [61]. *In vivo,* actively SARS-CoV-2 infected monocytes of COVID-19 patients expressed lower levels of ISGs than non-infected bystander [62]. Monocytes of Ebola-infected rhesus monkeys display similar dynamics, with an additional downregulation of *STAT1* mRNA in infected cells [63]. On the contrary, cells that undergo abortive infection, or alternatively haven´t yet reached sufficient levels of virus replication, fail to mount a strong antiviral profile. HIV-1 infection of lymphoid resting T-cells, that provide a sub-optimal environment for HIV-1 infection, has been reported to result in the accumulation of abortive viral cDNA products that are sensed by IFI16 in an inflammasome/pyroptosis-dependent manner [64]. HSV-1 infection results in antiviral signaling specifically in cells in which replication is stalled and that display relatively low levels of viral gene expression [65]. Owing to genetic recombination and low fidelity of the alphaviral RNA-dependent polymerase, defective alphaviral genomes (DVGs) and defective alphaviral particles arise during virus replication, but are themselves replication-incompetent [66,67]. Of note, our virus-inclusive sequencing approach does not have the power to distinguish between full-length viral genomes and defective or otherwise dead-end genomes. It will be interesting to test the contribution of the latter to triggering the strong cell-intrinsic innate recognition that we linked here to high intracellular viral RNA quantities in general. Strikingly, we find indication that the expression of some genes, such as proinflammatory transcription factors, may be actively targeted by CHIKV.

Finally, the interplay of tissue-resident, synovial macrophages and fibroblasts likely additionally modulates CHIKV infection and cellular responses. Macrophages have been found to productively infect primary human macrophages [68] and to harbor persistent viral RNA in a nonhuman primate infection model [48]. Furthermore, human synovial fibroblasts secrete cytokines such as IL-6, IL1B, and RANTES stimulating monocyte migration upon CHIKV infection, and drive them towards an osteoclast-like phenotype [69,70]. Interestingly, we find

a similar phenotype in infected fibroblasts with upregulation and/or secretion of IL-6 and

RANTES, but not matrix-metalloproteases (MMPs), as described before [69]. This suggests an

indirect role of synovial fibroblasts in the induction of arthralgia upon infection, however, a

paracrine stimulation of MMP expression by infiltrating immune cells can not be excluded in

this model. Bystander cells, defined here as cells from infected cultures without detectable viral

RNA, may be strongly impacted through paracrine signaling by infected cells [71].

Interestingly, at 24 hours post-infection we do not observe an extensive activation of bystander

cells in cultures infected with a low MOI, despite an established infection and a number of

IFNB-expressing cells. On the other hand, at six hours post-infection in cultures infected with

an MOI 10, a condition in which we expect that almost all cells have made contact with virus

particles, we observe a strong activation of the RNA-negative cells. This indicates that either a

rapid release of cytokines and interferons only in highly infected cultures, or an interferon-

independent sensing of viral PAMPs leads to abortive infection.

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

synovial fibroblasts invade the joint matrix, destroying/disrupting the cartilage and causing

long-term inflammation [28,72]. 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 [73]. Indeed, data obtained in recent clinical studies

suggests that treatment of chikungunya-induced arthritis with the immunosuppressant

methotrexate may be a beneficial strategy [74,75]. The data presented here does not fully

support the hypothesis that infected synovial fibroblasts display a phenotype similar to

fibroblasts in rheumatoid arthritis, but key features such as the IL-1β-mediated IL-6 release, the

aggressive proinflammatory gene expression in productively infected cells, and the strong

expression of important cofactors make them likely to contribute to viral replication and disease

progression *in vivo*.

Author contributions

FP and CG conceptualized the study, designed experiments, and interpreted the data. FP and

CG wrote the manuscript with input from all co-authors. FP performed all experiments. EN

extracted the fibroblasts and performed the first culturing passages. DP, RJPB, and EW

performed RNA-seq alignments and bioinformatic analysis. DP wrote major parts of the code

used for single-cell RNA-seq analysis and performed the transcription factor analysis. CG, ML,

and TP supervised the study and acquired funding. All authors critically discussed the findings

and approved of the final version of the manuscript.

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Declaration of Interest

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

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Figure Legends [1150 Words]

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

(**A**) OASF or HSF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV or -MAYV (MOI 10). 24 hours post-infection, the percentage of EGFP-positive cells was quantified by flow cytometry (n = 3-12).

(**B**) Supernatants of CHIKV- and MAYV-infected OASF or HSF were collected at 24 and 48 hours post-infection, and titers were determined by analyzing EGFP expression at 24 hours post-infection of HEK293T cells. For background controls (post-wash), samples were taken after one hour of 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 at the indicated MOIs upon treatment of the virus with MXRA8-Fc recombinant protein or mock treatment. At 24 hours post-infection, cells were analyzed for EGFP expression (n = 4).

(**E**) OASF were stimulated with IL-1β at 10 ng/ml for 16 hours and subsequently infected with CHIKV (MOI 10) in the presence of IL-1β. Mock-stimulated OASF were infected as a control. At 24 and 48 hours post-infection, cells were analyzed for EGFP expression and (**F**) supernatant was collected and analyzed for IL-6 secretion by ELISA (n = 3).

(**G**) OASF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV or treated with 200 IU/ml IFN-α. 24 h later, supernatants of the infected cells were incubated on HL116 reporter cells to quantify secreted bioactive type I IFN (n = 4).

(**H**) OASF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10) in the presence or absence of 1 or 10 µM Ruxolitinib or mock-infected. Infection was recorded by live-cell imaging and representative images for untreated and 10 µM Ruxolitinib-treated cells are shown. Scale bar = 100 µm.

(**I**) Infected cells recorded by live-cell imaging in G were analyzed for EGFP intensity using

ImageJ (n = 3).

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

in OASF and HSF.

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

the anti-E2 antibody C9 and the percentage of EGFP-positive cells was measured by flow

cytometry (OASF: squares, HSF: diamonds. The infected samples are marked with their

respective donor number).

(**B**) Selected proteins of cells infected in A were analyzed by immunoblotting.

(**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.

Dotted lines indicate cutoff for <1.5 fold regulation and a p-value of >0.05.

(**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, dot sizes indicate significance.

(**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**) Heatmaps of selected gene expression profiles related to innate immune responses (left) or

to secreted proinflammatory mediators and arthritis-connected genes (right) in uninfected or

CHIKV-infected cells.

Figure 3. The CHIKV genome is replicated to a high degree with a strong bias towards the structural subgenome in infected OASF.

(**A**) 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 (nAb). SGP: subgenomic promotor.

(**B**) Normalized amount of reads attributed to the structural and nonstructural part of the CHIKV genome in CHIKV-infected OASF and HSF.

(**C**) Number of NGS reads attributed to the human or CHIKV reference genome in CHIKV or neutralizing antibody-treated CHIKV infected OASF or (**D**) HSF.

Figure 4. OASF react to CHIKV infection more strongly than commonly used cell lines and can potently inhibit viral infection after IFN treatment.

(**A**) OASF and HFF-1 cells were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV at an MOI of 10, U2OS cells were infected at an MOI of 0.5. EGFP-positive cells were quantified at 24 and 48 hours post-infection by flow cytometry (n = 3-6).

(**B**) Cells infected in (A) were analyzed for expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA at 24 and 48 hours post-infection by quantitative RT-PCR (n = 3-6).

(**C**) Cells were treated with IFN-α or -λ for 48 h before infection with 5'EGFP-CHIKV (OASF and HFF-1: MOI 10; U2OS: MOI 0.5) in the continuous presence of IFN. Inset numbers indicate IC50 values for each timepoint.

(**D**) Cells were infected with 5'-EGFP CHIKV (OASF and HFF-1: MOI 10; U2OS: MOI 0.5) and IFN-α was added four hours post-infection. 24 and 48 hours post-infection, EGFP-positive cells were quantified by flow cytometry. Inset numbers indicate IC50 values for each timepoint. UT: untreated, IU: international units (n = 3 for all experiments)

Figure 5. Reduced induction of antiviral protein and gene expression in productively infected cells.

(**A**) OASF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV (MOI 10) or treated with 100 IU/ml IFN-α and immunostained for IFIT1, IFITM3, and MX1/2 24 hours post-infection. Numbers in the dot plots indicate mean fluorescence intensities (MFI) of one representative experiment, and the bar diagram shows quantification of three individual experiments.

(**B**) OASF were infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV at indicated MOIs. Six and 24 hours post-infection, EGFP-positive cells were quantified by flow cytometry (left panel), and cells were analyzed for expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA (right panel, n = 6).

(**C**) Using OASF infected with 5'EGFP-CHIKV, single-cell RNA-sequencing was conducted and UMAP visualizations for sample overlapping after integration are shown.

(**D**) UMAP projections from infected OASF (24 hours post-infection) indicate the abundance of CHIKV 3' end reads, EGFP 3' end reads, and IFN signaling gene expression as calculated by IMS.

Figure 6. Transcriptomic differences between uninfected, bystander, and lowly or highly CHIKV infected OASF.

(**A**) Visualization of the viral RNA content of infected OASF from Fig. 5 at six and 24 hours post-infection. Line indicates the cutoff dividing cells displaying low and high content of viral RNA. Bystander cells were defined as cells with no detectable viral RNA.

(**B**) Infected OASF were sorted into digital bins of 1000 cells displaying a gradual increase of the amount of viral reads per cell. Viral reads and the IMS at six and 24 hours post-infection are plotted. Colored bins indicate selected representative cells for low and high content of viral RNA.

(**C**) Expression of selected genes within mock, bystander, representative low cell bins (bin 26-29) and high cell bins (bin 34-36) defined in A and B at six and 24 hours post-infection. Arrows indicate a statistically significant (p<0.05, fold change >1.5) up- or downregulation (depending on the arrow direction) in low or high CHIKV bins versus bystander (inside the boxes) or in high CHIKV bins versus low (next to the boxes).

(**D**) Correlation of CHIKV RNA expression with expression of IFN signaling genes in high and low CHIKV RNA groups calculated by non-parametric Spearman's test. Transcription factors are plotted in white, with selected genes in red.

(**E**) Activity of transcription factor regulons within groups defined in A at six and 24 hours post-infection. Arrows indicate a significant up- or downregulation between bystander and low or high CHIKV groups (inside the boxes) or between low and high CHIKV groups (next to the boxes).

Supplemental Figure 1. HSF and OASF share a similar basal and CHIKV infection-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**) Gene ontology analysis of the top significantly upregulated pathways in OASF, HSF, and shared by both in response to CHIKV infection.

(**E**) Heatmaps of selected gene expression profiles of IFN receptors, CHIKV host cofactors, and celltype markers.

Supplemental Figure 2. OASF, U2OS, and HFF-1 respond with a differently strong upregulation of ISGs to IFN treatment and CHIKV infection despite similar responsiveness to PAMPs.

(**A**) Indicated cell cultures were transfected with 5'-triphosphate dsRNA (5-ppp-RNA, left) or plasmid DNA (right) and analyzed for the expression of *IFIT1* (left) and *MX2* (right) mRNA at 24 and 48 hours post transfection (n = 3-4).

(**B**) OASF, U2OS, and HFF-1 cells were analyzed for the expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* by quantitative RT-PCR after 48 h treatment with the indicated amounts of IFN-α or –λ.

(**C**) OASF, U2OS, and HFF-1 cells were infected with 5'-EGFP CHIKV (MOI 10) and indicated amounts of IFN-α were added four hours post-infection. At 24 and 48 hours post-infection, OASF were analyzed for the expression of *IFIT1* and *MX2* mRNA by quantitative RT-PCR (n = 3).

Supplemental Figure 3. Cofactor expression in OASF and mild IFN signaling gene expression in infected OASF.

(**A**) NGS reads after 3' mRNA capture attributed to each individual position in the CHIKV genome plotted for cells infected with CHIKV at six and 24 hours post-infection. SGP = subgenomic promotor

(**B**) Infected OASF were sorted into 100 digital bins per infection condition (MOI) displaying a gradual increase of the amount of viral reads per cell. Average proportion of reads per cell attributed to CHIKV at six and 24 hours post infection are plotted.

(**C**) UMAP projections were generated for the six hours post infection time point. Shown is the

abundance of CHIKV 3' end reads and of IFN signaling genes according to IMS.

(**D**) Expression of IFN-stimulated genes in infected OASF at six and 24 hours post-infection.

UMAP visualization shows infected cells split by the MOI and mock-infected cells separately.

Supplemental Figure 4. IFN-stimulated gene expression in infected OASF.

Expression of alphavirus infection cofactors and fibroblast marker genes in infected OASF.

UMAP visualization shows infected cells split by the MOI and mock-infected cells separately.

Supplemental Figure 5. IFN signaling gene expression and transcriptional changes

between infected subgroups of cells.

(**A**) IMS in uninfected, bystander, CHIKV low and CHIKV high OASF at six and 24 hours

post-infection. Statistical significance between groups was tested using a non-parametric KS-

test.

(**B**) Analysis of significantly up- and downregulated genes between indicated cell subgroups at

six and 24 hours post-infection.

Supplemental Movie 1. CHIKV spreads in OASF culture.

OASF 5'-EGFP-CHIKV-infected OASF were monitored for EGFP expression by live-cell

imaging. Scale bar = 100 μm.

Supplemental Movie 2. Ruxolitinib treatment boosts CHIKV spread.

OASF were pretreated with 10 µM Ruxolitinib for 16 hours, infected with 5'-EGFP-CHIKV in

the presence of Ruxolitinib and monitored for EGFP expression by live-cell imaging. Scale bar

= 100 µm.

● non-ISGs with >1.5-fold up- or downregulation   ● ISGs with >1.5-fold up- or downregulation

○ Genes with <1.5-fold up- or downregulation

Pott et al., Table 1

AAAS	HLA-DRB3	ISG15	PLCG1	TRIM68
ABCE1	HLA-DRB4	ISG20	PML	TRIM8
ADAR	HLA-DRB5	JAK1	POM121	TYK2
ARIH1	HLA-E	JAK2	POM121C	UBA52
B2M	HLA-F	KPNA1	PPM1B	UBA7
BST2	HLA-G	KPNA2	PRKCD	UBB
CAMK2A	HLA-H	KPNA3	PSMB8	UBC
CAMK2B	ICAM1	KPNA4	PTAFR	UBE2E1
CAMK2D	IFI27	KPNA5	PTPN1	UBE2L6
CAMK2G	IFI30	KPNA7	PTPN11	UBE2N
CD44	IFI35	KPNB1	PTPN2	USP18
CIITA	IFI6	MAPK3	PTPN6	USP41
DDX58	IFIT1	MID1	RAE1	VCAM1
EGR1	IFIT2	MT2A	RANBP2	XAF1
EIF2AK2	IFIT3	MX1	RNASEL	
EIF4A1	IFITM1	MX2	RPS27A	
EIF4A2	IFITM2	NCAM1	RSAD2	
EIF4A3	IFITM3	NDC1	SAMHD1	
EIF4E	IFNA1	NEDD4	SEC13	
EIF4E2	IFNA10	NUP107	SEH1L	
EIF4E3	IFNA13	NUP133	SOCS1	
EIF4G1	IFNA14	NUP153	SOCS3	
EIF4G2	IFNA16	NUP155	SP100	
EIF4G3	IFNA17	NUP160	STAT1	
FCGR1A	IFNA2	NUP188	STAT2	
FCGR1B	IFNA21	NUP205	SUMO1	
FLNA	IFNA4	NUP210	TPR	
FLNB	IFNA5	NUP214	TRIM10	
GBP1	IFNA6	NUP35	TRIM14	
GBP2	IFNA7	NUP37	TRIM17	
GBP3	IFNA8	NUP42	TRIM2	
GBP4	IFNAR1	NUP43	TRIM21	
GBP5	IFNAR2	NUP50	TRIM22	
GBP6	IFNB1	NUP54	TRIM25	
GBP7	IFNG	NUP58	TRIM26	
HERC5	IFNGR1	NUP62	TRIM29	
HLA-A	IFNGR2	NUP85	TRIM3	
HLA-B	IP6K2	NUP88	TRIM31	
HLA-C	IRF1	NUP93	TRIM34	
HLA-DPA1	IRF2	NUP98	TRIM35	
HLA-DPB1	IRF3	OAS1	TRIM38	
HLA-DQA1	IRF4	OAS2	TRIM45	
HLA-DQA2	IRF5	OAS3	TRIM46	
HLA-DQB1	IRF6	OASL	TRIM48	
HLA-DQB2	IRF7	PDE12	TRIM5	
HLA-DRA	IRF8	PIAS1	TRIM6	
HLA-DRB1	IRF9	PIN1	TRIM62	