Title

Evolution and antiviral activity of a human protein of retroviral origin

<u>**Summary**</u>

We found that the human genome expresses a vast pool of envelope sequences of retroviral origin

and provide proof of principle that such proteins can restrict zoonotic viruses.

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Abstract

Endogenous retroviruses are abundant components of mammalian genomes descended from

ancient germline infections. In several mammals, the envelope proteins encoded by these

elements protect against exogenous viruses, but this activity has not been documented in

human. We report that our genome harbors a large pool of envelope-derived sequences with

the potential to restrict retroviral infection. To further test this, we characterize in detail the

envelope-derived protein, *Suppressyn*. We found that *Suppressyn* is expressed in

preimplantation embryos and developing placenta using its ancestral retroviral promoter.

Restriction assays in cell culture show that *Suppressyn*, and its hominoid orthologs, can

restrict infection by extant mammalian type D retroviruses. Our data support a

generalizable model of retroviral envelope cooption for host immunity and genome defense.

Viruses pose a persistent threat to human health and may be potent evolutionary drivers of immune

adaptation (*1–3*). Thus, it is critical to identify host factors that protect against viral infection.

Endogenous retroviruses (ERV) are abundant components of mammalian genomes that descend

from ancient retroviral germline infections (*1*). ERV sequences are a source of novel genes in

evolution (*2*). ERV-derived envelopes (*env*) are particularly interesting because they can serve as

antiviral factors by binding to and competing for target cell receptors of exogenous viruses (*1*).

Env-derived proteins restricting against contemporary infectious retroviruses have been

documented in mouse (Fv4), cat (Refrex-1), and sheep (enJSS6A1) but not in humans (*1, 2, 4*).

Importantly, the receptor-binding surface domain of an *env* can be sufficient to restrict infection

by this interference mechanism (*4*). Because the human genome contains thousands of remnant

retroviral sequences with coding potential, we hypothesized that it includes envelope sequences

with the capacity to restrict against modern viruses.

To assess the pool of potentially antiviral sequences, we scanned the human genome for *env*-

derived open reading frames (*envORF)* that encode at least 70 aa and are predicted to include the

receptor-binding surface domain (see Methods). This search identified a total of 1,507 unique

envORFs, including ~20 *env*-derived sequences currently annotated as human genes such as

Supppressyn (*SUPYN*), *Syncytin-1* and *Syncytin-2* (*5*, *6*). This number is consistent with a previous

genome-wide scan for ORFs derived from endogenous viral elements predicting 1,731 ORFs with

homology to retroviral envelopes (*7*). Next, we mined transcriptome datasets generated from

human embryos and various adult tissues **(Table S1)** and observed that ~44% of *envORF*s

(668/1507) showed evidence of RNA expression in at least one of the cell types surveyed **(Fig 1a).**

These analyses revealed three general trends about expressed *envORFs*: (i) like known *env*-derived

genes, *envORFs* exhibit tissue-specific expression patterns **(Fig 1a; fig S1, S2)**; (ii) the majority

of *envORFs* are expressed during early human development, often in stem and progenitor germ

cells, and/or in placenta **(Fig 1a; fig S1)**; (iii) with the exception of brain, *envORFs* are rarely

expressed in differentiated tissues under normal conditions **(Fig 1a; fig S1, S2)**. Since antiviral

factors are generally expressed in immune cells and/or induced upon immune stimulation or

infection, we also profiled *envORF* expression using transcriptome datasets generated from a

variety of immune cells, including resting, stimulated, and HIV-infected cells **(Table S1)**. These

analyses revealed that a substantial fraction of *envORFs* (145 loci from multiple families) are

expressed in immune cells and tend to be induced by immune simulation **(Fig 1b; fig S3).**

Consistent with previous reports (*8*), we also observed that a subset of *envORFs* are induced upon

HIV infection **(Fig 1b, c; fig. S3, S4)**. Together, these data suggest that the human genome harbors

a vast reservoir of *env*-derived sequences with coding potential for receptor-binding proteins, many

of which are expressed in a tissue-specific or infection-inducible fashion, suggesting that they may

function as antiviral factors.

Figure 1: Expression profile of env-derived transcripts over a subset of human cell types.

(a-c) Heatmaps show *envORF* expression in 66 distinct cell-types from 8 independent datasets (a),
and in response to stimulation (b) and HIV infection in immune cells (c). Rows and columns
represent individual *envORF* loci and cell identity respectively. *EnvORF* loci were included in
heatmap if log2 CPM > 1 in at least one cell type. Bars located above heatmaps denote sequencing
strategy (a, top), tissue source (a: bottom) or treatment (b, c) with the same color scheme shown
in figures S1, S3, and S4 respectively. Rows and columns are ordered by hierarchical clustering
based on *envORF* expression. Significant *envORF* enrichment in indicated clusters was calculated
by hypergeometric test. **(b, c)** Boxplots represent the distribution of envORF expression levels
relative to unstimulated (b) and Mock-infected cells (c) (NS: not significant; ***p < 0.01;
Wilcoxon rank-sum test)
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As a paradigm to test the antiviral activity of an envORF, we focused on SUPYN for two primary

reasons. First, SUPYN was reported to be expressed in the developing placenta, as we observe for

many envORFs, a tissue that can be vulnerable to viral infection and a barrier against vertical

transmission to the fetus (*9*). Second, *SUPYN* lacks a transmembrane domain but retains the ability

to bind the amino acid transporter ASCT2 (also known as SLC1A5), which is the receptor for a

diverse group of retroviruses, including endogenous (e.g. HERV-W) and exogenous viruses such

as RD114 in cat and Simian Retrovirus (SRV) in Old World monkeys (*5*, *10–12*). These viruses

are collectively referred to as RD114 and Type D (RDR) retroviruses (*12*). Thus, we hypothesized

that SUPYN might restrict RDR retroviruses by virtue of its binding to ASCT2 .

To obtain a more detailed view of *SUPYN* expression and regulation in adult tissues and during

human development, we analyzed publicly available bulk and single-cell RNA-seq, ATAC-seq,

DNase-seq, and ChIP-seq datasets generated from adult tissues, preimplantation embryos, human

embryonic stem cell lines (hESC), *in vitro* trophoblast (TB) differentiation models, and placenta

explants isolated at multiple stages of pregnancy **(Table S1).** Apart from testis and cerebellum,

SUPYN expression is generally low (<1 $\log_2$ (TPM+1)) or absent in adult tissues (**fig S2**).

Conversely, *SUPYN* is expressed at high levels in preimplantation embryos from the 8-cell stage

of development **(Fig 2a, fig S5a)**. Accordingly, the *SUPYN* promoter region, including the long

terminal repeat (LTR) of the ancestral HERVH48 provirus, is marked by several peaks of

accessible chromatin from the 8-cell to blastocyst stages **(fig S5b)**. In hESCs, *SUPYN* RNA is also

abundant (fig 2a) and its promoter region is marked by histone modifications characteristic of

transcriptionally active chromatin (H3K4me1, H3K27ac) and bound by core pluripotency (OCT4,

NANOG, KLF4, SMAD1) and self-renewal (SRF, OTX2) transcription factors **(Fig 2b)**. During

hESC to TB differentiation, pluripotency factors (NANOG, OCT4) occupying the *SUPYN*

promoter region are replaced by TB-specific transcription factors (TFAP2A, GATA3); and active

chromatin marks (H3K27ac, H3K4me3, H3K9ac) are maintained across all analyzed TB lineages

(Fig 2b). These observations indicate *SUPYN* expression persists through the TB differentiation

process. We next mined single-cell RNA-seq data generated from placenta at multiple

developmental stages. After classifying cell clusters based on known markers, we found *SUPYN*

and *ASCT2* expression was relatively high in cytotrophoblasts (CTB) and extra-villous

trophoblasts (EVTB), but also detectable in syncytiotrophoblasts (STB) **(Fig 2c-f, fig S6)**. To

confirm these transcriptomic observations, we performed immunostaining of SUPYN in

preimplantation embryos as well as in second and third trimester placentas. In early embryos,

SUPYN is primarily detectable in the trophectoderm, which will give rise to the placenta, and in

some OCT4-expressing cells, which mark pluripotent stem cells of blastocysts **(Fig 2g, fig S7)**. In

the placenta, SUPYN is widely expressed in STB and potentially CTB of second trimester

placental villi **(Fig 2h, fig S8).** The combined transcriptome, genome regulatory data and

immunohistochemical staining firmly establish that *SUPYN* is expressed throughout human fetal

development (**Fig 2a, 2e, fig S6-8**). These analyses also indicate that *SUPYN* transcription

consistently initiates from its ancestral LTR promoter **(Fig 2b, fig S5b, S13)**.

Figure 2: Pluripotency and placentation regulatory factors drive SUPYN expression during fetal development.

(a) Violin plots summarizing *SUPYN*, *SYN1* and *ASCT2* expression in human preimplantation embryo and ESC single-cell RNA-seq data. **(b)** Genome browser view of the regulatory elements surrounding the *SUPYN* locus in hESCs, cyto- (CTB), syncytio- (STB), BMP4-differentiated trophoblasts (TB), and 293T cells. ChIP-seq profiles are shown for indicated transcription factors

and histone modifications with shaded area highlighting regions of active chromatin. **(c)** UMAP
visualization of TB cell clusters, shown in figure S6. **(d)** Monocle2 pseudotime analysis of cell
clusters in (c) illustrates the developmental trajectory of CTBs that give rise to STB and EVTB
respectively. Color codes in (c) and (d) denote cell identity. **(e)** Heatmap represents the top 1000
differentially expressed genes (row) of single cells (column) and are sorted according to
pseudotime analyses in (c) and (d). Cells are ordered according to the pseudotime progression of
CTB (middle) to STB (left) and EVTB (right). SYN1, SUPYN, and ASCT2 were fetched from the
heatmap below. **(f)** Violin plots denote single-cell *SUPYN* expression in multiple placental-cell
lineages throughout indicated pregnancy stages. **(g,h)** Confocal microscopy of human
preimplantation embryos (g) and placental villus explants (h) stained for SUPYN (green), OCT4
(red), ACTIN (red) and DAPI (blue). In (g), Trophectorderm (white arrows) and OCT4-expressing
(red arrows) cells are highlighted in subpanels (A-C). In (h), STBs are marked by arrowheads.
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The expression profile of SUPYN is consistent with the hypothesis that it could protect the

developing embryo and germline against RDR infection. To test this hypothesis, we first examined

whether human placenta-derived Jar and JEG3 cell lines, and H1 hESC, which robustly express

SUPYN and ASCT2 **(Fig 1a, 2a; fig S9, S10)** (*10, 13*) are resistant to RDR env-mediated infection.

We generated HIV-EGFP viral particles pseudotyped with either the feline RD114 env (HIV-

RD114) or the glycoprotein G of vesicular stomatitis virus (HIV-VSVg), which uses the LDL

receptor (*14*), to monitor the level of infection in cell culture based on EGFP expression **(Fig 3a,**

fig S11). These experiments revealed that Jar, JEG3, and H1 cells were susceptible to HIV-VSVg,

as previously reported (*15, 16*), but highly resistant to HIV-RD114 infection **(Fig 3b, c).** By

contrast, 293T cells, which do not express *SUPYN* **(fig S5a)**, were similarly susceptible to infection

by HIV-RD114 and HIV-VSVg **(Fig 3b, c)**. To test whether SUPYN contributes to the HIV-

RD114 resistance phenotype, we repeated these infection experiments in Jar cells engineered to

stably express short hairpin RNAs (shRNA) depleting ~80% of *SUPYN* mRNA **(fig S10a).**

Depletion of *SUPYN* in Jar cells resulted in a significant increase in susceptibility to HIV-RD114

infection but not HIV-VSVg **(Fig 3d)**. To confirm that SUPYN expression confers RD114

resistance and control for potential off-target effects of *SUPYN*-targeting shRNAs, we transfected

Jar-shSUPYN cells with two shRNA-resistant, HA-tagged SUPYN rescue constructs and

examined their susceptibility to HIV-RD114 infection. Briefly, the shRNA-targeted SUPYN

signal peptide sequence was replaced with a luciferase (SUPYN-lucSP) or modified signal peptide

sequence (SUPYN-rescSP) that disrupts shRNA-binding but retains codonidentity (see Methods).

Transfection with either SUPYN-rescSP or SUPYN-lucSP restored a significant level of resistance

to HIV-RD114 infection **(Fig 3e).** Western blot analysis of transfected cell lysates showed

SUPYN-rescSP was more abundantly expressed than SUPYN-lucSP **(Fig 3f)**, which may account

for the stronger HIV-RD114 resistance conferred by the former **(Fig 3e).** These results suggest

that SUPYN expression is at least in part responsible for preventing Jar cells from RD114env-

mediated infection.

To test if SUPYN expression alone is sufficient to confer protection against RD114env-mediated

infection, we transfected 293T cells with unmodified or HA-tagged SUPYN overexpression

constructs and subsequently infected with HIV-RD114 and HIV-VSVg respectively. As a positive

control, we also transfected 293T cells with an unmodified RD114env overexpression construct,

which is predicted to confer resistance to HIV-RD114. Expression of either SUPYN or RD114env

resulted in ~80% reduction in the level of HIV-RD114 infection **(Fig 3g; fig S12a)** but had no

significant effect on HIV-VSVg infectivity **(fig S12b)**. Taken together, our knockdown and

overexpression experiments indicate SUPYN expression is sufficient to confer resistance to

RD114env-mediated infection.

Our RD114env-specific resistance phenotype **(Fig 3g, fig S12a, b)** suggests SUPYN restricts viral

entry via a mechanism of receptor interference. If so, this protective effect should extend to

infection mediated by other RDRenv (*11*, *17*, *18*). To test this, we generated HIV-GFP reporter

virions pseudotyped with Squirrel Monkey Retrovirus env (HIV-SMRVenv) (*11*) **(Fig 3h)** and

infected 293T cells previously transfected with SUPYN, SMRVenv (as a positive control) or an

empty vector. Cells expressing SUPYN or SMRVenv showed an ~80% reduction of HIV-

SMRVenv infected cells **(Fig 3h)**. Thus, SUPYN can restrict infection mediated by multiple

RDRenv.

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Figure 3: SUPYN confers resistance to RD114 env-mediated infection
(a) HIV-glycoprotein reporter virus production and infection assay approach (see Methods). **(b)**
Proportion of GFP+ 293T, JEG3, and Jar cells infected with indicated reporter viruses. **(c)** Relative
infection rate of 293T and H1-ESCs was normalized to mean proportion of HIV-VSVg-infected

cells. **(d)** Proportion of GFP+ 293T and shSUPYN-Jar cells infected with indicated reporter virus.
(e) Relative infection rates of shSUPYN-Jar cells transfected with HA-tagged wild-type (WT-SP),
rescue signal peptide (Resc-SP), or luciferase signal peptide (GPluc-SP) encoding SUPYN
overexpression constructs. (n ≥ 3 with ≥ 2 technical replicates; ***adj. *p < 0.001*; **adj. *p < 0.01*;
ANOVA with Tukey HSD). **(f)** Western Blot analysis (αHA, αGAPDH) of Jar-shSUPYN cell
lysates transfected with indicated SUPYN overexpression constructs. **(g,h)** Relative infection rates
of 293T cells transfected with unmodified SUPYN (g, h), RD114env (g), or SMRVenv
overexpression plasmids (h) and subsequently infected with indicated reporter viruses. **(i)** Model
of SUPYN-dependent RDR infection restriction. SUPYN likely binds ASCT2 following secretion
(i) or within the secretory compartment (ii).
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Another prediction of RDR restriction via receptor interference is that it should be a property of

env proteins recognizing ASCT2, such as SUPYN, but not those binding other cellular receptors.

Consistent with this prediction and previous work with overexpressed SYN1 (*19*), expressing HA-

tagged SUPYN and SYN1 strongly restricted HIV-RD114, while HA-tagged env from

amphotrophic murine leukemia virus (aMLV) or human endogenous retrovirus H (HERVH),

neither of which are expected to interact with ASCT2 (*20–22*), had no effect on HIV-RD114 nor

HIV-VSVg infection in 293T cells **(fig S12a, b)**. Importantly, all tested env proteins were

expressed at comparable levels **(fig S12c).** Furthermore, we observed that SUPYN overexpression

did not significantly alter the level of ASCT2 protein expression in 293T cells **(Fig S12c).** This

result suggests that if SUPYN acts by receptor interference, its interaction with ASCT2 does not

result in receptor degradation, which is consistent with some instances of receptor interference

(*23–25*). In agreement with previous observations (*5*), we noted that *SUPYN* knockdown in Jar

cells resulted in the selective loss of a putative non-glycosylated isoform of ASCT2 **(fig S10b)**.

We speculate that the presence of SUPYN-dependent non-glycosylated ASCT2 may be the result

of SUPYN sterically interfering with the glycosylation machinery within the secretory pathway.

Collectively, these observations converge on the model that SUPYN restricts against RDR

infection through receptor interference by two possible mechanisms that are not mutually

exclusive: SUPYN may bind ASCT2 within the secretory pathway or extracellularly following

secretion **(Fig 3i)**.

To gain insights into the evolutionary emergence of *SUPYN* antiviral activity, we used comparative

genomics to investigate the origin and functional constraint acting on *SUPYN*. We found that the

HERVH48 provirus from which *SUPYN* is derived is present at orthologous position across the

genomes of all available hominoids and most Old World monkeys (OWM), but is absent in other

primate lineages **(Fig 4a, fig S13).** Thus, the provirus that gave rise to *SUPYN* inserted in the

common ancestor of catarrhine primates ~27-38 million years ago (*26*) **(Fig 4a)**. We next

examined whether *SUPYN* ORFs have evolved under functional constraint during primate

evolution. The *SUPYN* ORF is almost perfectly conserved in length across hominoids, but not in

OWM where some species display frameshifting and truncating mutations **(Fig 4a, fig S14, S15)**,

suggesting *SUPYN* evolved under different evolutionary regimes in hominoids and OWMs. To test

this idea, we analyzed the ratio (ω) of nonsynonymous (dN) to synonymous (dS) substitution rates

using codeml (*27*), which provides a measure of selective constraint acting on codons. Log-

likelihood ratio tests comparing models of neutral evolution with selection indicate *SUPYN*

evolved under purifying selection in hominoids ($\omega = 0.38$; $p = 1.47\text{E-}02$) but did not depart from

neutral evolution in OWMs ($\omega = 1.44$; $p = 0.29$) **(Fig 4a).** These results indicate that *SUPYN*

antiviral activity may be conserved across hominoids but not in OWM. To assess this, we

transfected 293T cells with HA-tagged overexpression constructs for the orthologous *SUPYN*

sequences of two hominoid species (chimpanzee, siamang), and five OWM species (African green

monkey, pigtailed macaque, crab-eating macaque, rhesus macaque, olive baboon) and challenged

these cells with HIV-RD114. Both chimpanzee and siamang SUPYN proteins displayed antiviral

activity with potency comparable to or greater than human SUPYN, respectively **(Fig 4b).** By

contrast, of the five OWM, only African green monkey SUPYN exhibited a modest but significant

level of antiviral activity **(Fig 4b, c).** The lack of restriction activity for some of the OWM proteins

may be attributed to their relatively low expression level in these human cells **(Fig 4b)** and/or their

inability to bind the human ASCT2 receptor due to *SUPYN* sequence divergence **(fig S14, S15)**.

To further trace the evolutionary origins of SUPYN antiviral activity, we expressed ancestral

SUPYN sequences phylogenetically reconstructed for the hominoid and OWM ancestors **(Fig S15)**

and assayed their antiviral activity in 293T cells. Both ancestral proteins were expressed at levels

comparable to human and green monkey SUPYN and exhibited strong restriction activity **(Fig 4c).**

These data indicate that SUPYN antiviral activity against RDRenv-mediated infection is an

ancestral trait preserved over ~20 million years of hominoid evolution, but apparently lost in

several OWM lineages.

Figure 4: SUPYN emerged in a Catarrhine ancestor and has conserved antiviral activity in Hominoids.

(a) Consensus primate phylogeny with cartoon representation of *SUPYN* ORFs (blue box). Magenta boxes represent frameshifts in *SUPYN* ORFs. Red dashed lines denote conserved premature stop codon positions. Grey bars represent degraded HERVH48env sequence. Labeled triangles denote ancestral lineage where HERVH48env was acquired. Colored circles indicate species used in **b** and **c**. *SUPYN* dN/dS value is shown in box (*$p < 0.05$*; LRT). **(b, c)** Relative infection rates and Western Blot of 293T cells transfected with primate **(b)** or ancestral **(c)** SUPYN-HA constructs and subsequently infected with HIV-RD114env are shown. Relative infection rates were determined by normalizing GFP+ counts to empty vector. (n ≥ 3 with ≥ 2 technical replicates ***adj. *$p < 0.001$*; *adj. *$p < 0.05$*; ANOVA with Tukey HSD)

In this study, we show that the human genome harbors a large pool of novel and previously annotated envORF sequences (*6, 7*) that are dynamically expressed, particularly in the germline, early embryonic development, and in response to immune stimulation and infection. Because envORFs are predicted to encode proteins with the ability to bind receptors used by their ancestral retroviruses and possibly many contemporary exogenous viruses, we propose that they constitute a reservoir of potential antiviral factors. As a proof of principle, we established that one of these proteins, *SUPYN*, is both necessary and sufficient to confer resistance to RDRenv-pseudotyped reporter virus infection in human cell culture. We further determined that SUPYN expression in the human preimplantation embryo and throughout placental development is driven by a tightly regulated promoter derived from the LTR of its ancestral provirus. These results suggest that the complex cis-regulatory activities encoded by retroviral LTRs facilitate ERV gene cooption (*1, 2*) The prominent expression of envORF, including SUPYN, in the developing germ line suggests that they may have repeatedly acted as a barrier against the vertical propagation of the cognate endogenous retroviruses by reinfection (*28*). This may explain why most HERV families appear to have propagated in the genome primarily via retrotransposition rather than reinfection (*29*). Under this model, we predict the adaptive benefits of envORFs to be generally transient, unless they have broader antiviral activity or gain additional cellular function. This conjecture may

explain why *SUPYN* has been preserved by natural selection throughout hominoid evolution; not

only may *SUPYN* have shielded the early embryo and nascent germline from the persistent threat

of RDRs but also against the adverse effects of SYN1-mediated infections and syncytalization of

the developing placenta (*5*, *10*, *30*). In conclusion, this study provides evidence that truncated

envelope-derived peptides encoded in the human genome can evolve and maintain antiviral

activity. It is possible that our genome holds many other retrovirus-derived proteins with

protective effects against viral infection.

Methods

RNA-seq analyses

We mined published single cell transcriptome datasets (scRNA-seq) of human pre-implantation

embryos isolated at developmental stages ranging from oocyte to blastocyst (*31*), primordial germ

cells (*32*), human placenta (*33–35*), neuronal differentiation (*36*), haematopoietic stem cells (*37*),

pancreas (*38*), prefrontal cortex (*39*). Prior to analyzing the transcriptomic datasets, we first

recompiled the reference genome annotations using known gene (genecode V19) (*40*), and

envORF sequences to generate a reference transcriptome in fasta format. To guide the

transcriptome assembly, we converted this updated genome annotation to gtf format, which was

subsequently utilized for our expression quantifications. Reads were mapped to the curated human

genome (hg19) with STAR (*41*) using the following settings *--alignIntronMin 20 --*

alignIntronMax 1000000 --chimSegmentMin 15 --chimJunctionOverhangMin 15 --

outFilterMultimapNmax 20. Only uniquely mapped reads were considered for expression

calculations. Gene level counts were obtained using *featureCounts* (*42*) run with RefSeq

annotations. Gene expression levels were calculated at T̲ranscript P̲er M̲illion (TPM) from counts

mapped over the entire gene (defined as any transcript located between Transcription Start Site

(TSS) and Transcription End Site (TES)). Only genes and cells that met the following criteria were

included in this analysis: (1) each cell must express at least 5,000 genes; (2) each gene must be

expressed in at least 1% of cells; (3) each gene must be expressed with log2 TPM >1. We clustered

cells meeting these criteria using the default parameters of the Seurat (*43*) package (v3.1.1)

implemented in R (v3.6.0). Seurat applies the most variable genes to get top principal components

that are used to discriminate cell clusters in tSNE or UMAP plots. We set Seurat to use 10 principal

components in this cluster analysis. For the placental scRNAseq data **(Fig 2, Fig S5)**, the 2000

most differentially expressed genes were used to define cell clusters. Major clusters corresponding

to CTB, STB, EVTB, macrophages, and stromal cells were identified based on the expression of

known marker genes. Monocle2 (*44*) was used to perform single-cell trajectory analysis and cell

ordering along an artificial temporal continuum. The top 500 differentially expressed genes were

used to distinguish between CTB, STB and EVTB cell populations. The transcriptome from each

single cell represents a pseudo-time point along an artificial time vector that denotes the

progression of CTB to STB or EVTB respectively.

Data generated on the 10X Genomics scRNA-seq platforms were processed in the following way.

Normalized counts and cell-type annotations were used as provided by the original publications.

Seurat was used for filtering, normalization, and cell-type identification. The following data

processing steps were performed: (1) Cells were filtered based on the criteria that individual cells

must have between 1,000 and 5,000 expressed genes with a count $\geq$1; (2) cells with more than 5%

of counts mapping to mitochondrial genes were filtered out; (3) data was normalized by dividing

uniquely mapping read counts (defined by Seurat as unique molecular identified (UMI)) for each

gene by the total number of counts in each cell and multiplying by 10,000. These normalized

values were then natural-log transformed. Cell types were defined by using the top 2000 variable

features expressed across all samples. Clustering was performed using the "FindClusters" function

with largely default parameters; except resolution was set to 0.1 and the first 20 PCA dimensions

were used in the construction of the shared-nearest neighbor (SNN) graph and the generation of 2-

dimensional embeddings for data visualization using UMAP. Cell types were assigned based on

the annotations provided by the original publication.

Bulk RNAseq datasets generated from the GTEx consortium (*45*), placenta (*46*), 293T (*47, 48*),

and immune (*49, 50*) cells were processed as described above. Briefly, reads were mapped with

STAR and uniquely mapped reads were counted with featureCounts. We restricted the

visualization to only *envORFs* that were expressed (Log2 TPM > 1) in at least one of the analyzed

or compared samples (see the codes submitted on GitHub).

ChIP-seq, DNAse-seq and ATAC-seq data analysis

Various ChIP-seq datasets representing histone modifications and transcription factors in human

embryonic stem cells and their differentiation were retrieved from (*51, 52*). We obtained the

H3K27Ac for CTB to STB primary culture (*53*), H3K4Me1 for trophoblasts (*54*), H3K4Me3,

H3K27Me3 for differentiated trophoblasts (*55*), and GATA2/3, TFAP2A/C (*55*) ChIP-seq datasets

in raw fastq format. DNAse-seq and ATAC-seq datasets were retrieved from references (*56*) and

(*57*) respectively.

Reads from the above-described datasets were aligned to the hg19 human reference genome using

Bowtie2 (*58*) run in --*very-sensitive-local* mode. All reads with MAPQ < 10 and PCR duplicates

were removed using Picard and *samtools* (*59*). Peaks were called by MACS2 (*60*)

(https://github.com/macs3-project/MACS) with the parameters in narrow mode for TFs and broad

mode for histone modifications keeping FDR < 1%. ENCODE-defined blacklisted regions (*61*)

were excluded from called peaks. We then intersected these peak sets with repeat elements from

hg19 repeat-masked coordinates using bedtools *intersectBed* (*62*) with a 50% overlap. To

visualize over Refseq genes (hg19) using IGV (*63*), the raw signals of ChIP-seq were obtained

from MACS2, using the parameters: *-g hs -q 0.01 -B*. The conservation track was visualized

through UCSC genome browser (*13*) under net/chain alignment of given non-human primates

(NHPs) and merged beneath the IGV tracks.

Cell culture

293T cells were cultured in DMEM (GIBCO, 11995065) containing 10% Fetal Bovine Serum

(FBS) (GIBCO, 10438026). Jar cells (provided by Carolyn Coyne) were cultured in RPMI

(GIBCO, 11875093) containing 10% FBS. JEG3 cells were cultured in MEM (GIBCO, 11095080)

containing 10% FBS. Culture medium for these cell lines was supplemented with sodium pyruvate

(GIBCO, 11360070), glutamax (GIBCO, 35050061), and Penicillin Streptomycin (GIBCO,

15140122) according to manufacturer specifications. H1-ESCs (*64*) (obtained from WiCell) were

grown on Matrigel (Corning, 356277) coated plates in MTESR+ (Stemcell, 05825) growth-media

and sub-cultured using Accutase (Innovative Cell Technologies, AT-104) and MTESR+

supplemented with CloneR (Stemcell, 05888). All cell lines were cultured at 37°C and 5% CO_2.

Human embryos

Prior to starting the project (documentation available upon request), all the procedures to obtain

human pre-implantation embryos were approved by local regulatory authorities and the Spanish

National Embryo steering committee. After the signing of informed consent documents by parents,

all human pre-implantation embryos were donated and fully anonymized. The embryos used in this

study were cryopreserved sibling embryos after successful In Vitro Fertilization pregnancies.

<u>Culturing of human pre-implantation embryos.</u>

Human pre-implantation embryos at several stages of development (from +2 to +6 days post-

fertilization) were thawed and allowed to grow. Only embryos reaching the blastocyst stage and

showing viability in most individual cells were selected for further analyses. Cryopreserved human

embryos were thawed using thawing media from Vitrolife (G-1 v.5 and G-2 v.5 media), and were

classified based on morphological criteria using inverted Hoffman optical microscopy. More than

50% of thawed embryos showed signs of cell division.

Vector cloning

DHIV3-GFP, phCMV-RD114env, psi(-)-amphoMLV plasmids were provided by Vicente

Planelles (University of Utah). pCGCG-SMRVenv plasmid was provided by Welkin Johnson

(Boston University). psPAX2 and pVSVg plasmids were provided by John Lis (Cornell

University). The following cloning approaches were performed using primers and constructs

described in Supplementary Table 3. HERVH1env ORF was PCR-amplified using Q5 polymerase

(NEB, M0491L) from HeLa and 293T genomic DNA respectively and cloned into a TOPO vector

(ThermoFisher, 450245).

To generate stable *SYN1* and *SUPYN* knock-down cell lines, pHIV lentiviral constructs containing

shRNAs targeting *SYN1* and *SUPYN* respectively were cloned using the following strategy. The

shRNA encoded in pHIV7-U6-shW3, generously provided by Lars Aagaard (Aarhus University),

targets *SYN1* (*65*). *SUPYN*-targeting shRNAs were designed using siRNA sequences employed by

Jun Sugimoto[4] as a template. pHIV7 lentiviral constructs were cloned using the pHIV7-U6-shW3

plasmid (*65*) as a template. pHIV7-U6-shSup-cer, pHIV7-U6-shSup-puro, pHIV7-U6-shC-cer,

pHIV7-U6-shC-puro, pHIV7-U6-shSyn1-cer, pHIV7-U6-shSyn1-puro were generated using a

Gibson assembly approach. To replace the native GFP marker of pHIV7-U6-shW3 with a Cerulean

reporter or puromycin resistance marker, we digested pHIV7-U6-shW3 with NheI (NEB, R3131S)

and KpnI (NEB, R3142S). This digest resulted in the production of three DNA fragments: pHIV7

backbone, GFP-, and WPRE-containing fragments. We separately PCR amplified each selection

marker and WPRE containing pHIV7 fragment. InFusion cloning was then used to ligate the

digested pHIV7 backbone to the Cerulean or puromycin cassette and WPRE containing PCR

product. shRNAs were cloned into the pHIV7-Cerulean/puromycin transfer construct previously

digested with NotI (NEB, R0189S) and NheI. U6-promoter containing shRNA cassettes and the

CMV promoter driving marker cassette expression were PCR amplified and subsequently InFusion

cloned into the NotI/NheI digested pHIV7-cerulean/puromycin backbone.

All pHCMVenv and SUPYN expression constructs, described in this study, were generated as

follows: HA-tagged and untagged ORFs with pHCMV homologous overhanging sequence were

either PCR amplified using Q5 polymerase (NEB, M0491S) or synthesized (IDT) (see **Table S2**),

and cloned into EcoRI (NEB, R3101T) digested pHCMV backbones using the InFusion cloning

kit (Takara Bio, 638920). To generate siRNA-resistant SUPYN rescue constructs, we replaced the

native signal peptide sequence[4] (which is targeted by siRNAs used in this study) with (1) a *Gaussia*

princeps luciferase SP (SUPYN-lucSP) (*66, 67*) and (2) a shSUPYN resistant SUPYN rescue

construct (SUPYN-rescSP) in which the codons were modified to retain the codon identity but

disrupt siRNA binding.

Antibodies

All antibodies used in this study are commercially available. α-GAPDH (D4C6R, D16H11), α-βactin (D6A8), α-HA (C29F4), α-ASCT2 (V501) primary antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. α-SUPYN and αOCT4 primary antibodies were purchased from Phoenix Pharma (H-059-052) and Santa Cruz Biotechnology respectively. α-Mouse (#7076) and α-Rabbit (#7074) HRP conjugated secondary antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology. IRDye secondary antibodies were purchased from Licor (925-32211, 925-68072, 925-32210, 925-68073). Alexa-fluor conjugated secondary antibody was purchased from Invitrogen.

Western Blot

Whole cell extracts from cultured cell lines were prepared using 1x GLO lysis buffer (Promega, E266A). One third volume of 4x Laemli buffer was added to one volume whole cell extract samples, then incubated at 95°C for 5 minutes, and sonicated for 15 minutes at 4°C (amplitude 100; pulse interval 15 seconds on, 15 seconds off). Approximately 30 ug of protein were separated by SDS-PAGE (BioRad, 1610175), transferred to PVDF membrane (BioRad, 1620177), blocked according to antibody manufacturers specification, and incubated overnight in appropriate primary antibody then incubated in IRDye or peroxidase conjugated goat anti-mouse or anti-rabbit secondary antibodies for 1 hour at room temperature. Protein was then detected using ECL reagent (BioRad, 1705061) or the Licor Odyssey imaging system.

IF microscopy

For placenta: Human second trimester placental tissue that resulted from elective terminations

was obtained from the University of Pittsburgh Health Sciences Tissue Bank through an honest

broker system after approval from the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board (IRB)

and in accordance with the University of Pittsburgh's tissue procurement guidelines. Tissue was

excluded in cases of fetal anomalies or aneuploidy. Third trimester placental tissue was obtained

through the Magee Obstetric Maternal & Infant (MOMI) Database and Biobank after approval

from the University of Pittsburgh IRB. Women who had previously consented for tissue donation

and underwent cesarean delivery were included. Placental tissues were fixed in 4% PFA (in 1x

PBS) for 30 minutes, permeabilized with 0.25% Triton X-100 for 30 minutes (on a rocker), washed

with 1x PBS and then incubated with primary anti-Suppressyn antibody at 1:200 in 1x PBS for 2-

4 hours at room temperature. These samples were incubated with Alexa-fluor conjugated

secondary antibody (Invitrogen) diluted 1:1000 and counterstained with actin. DAPI was included

in our PBS and then mounted in Vectashield mounting medium with DAPI (Vector Laboratories,

H-1200).

For embryo: Pre-implantation embryos at the blastocyst stage were washed with 1x PBS

(Invitrogen) and fixed for 15 minutes using fresh 4% (w/v) paraformaldehyde (Sigma) at room

temperature. After fixation, embryos were washed twice on a petri dish using 1x PBS containing

0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma). Next, embryos were permeabilized on a lo-bind 2ml Eppendorf

tube using 1x PBS containing 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100 for 24 hours at 4ºC. After permeabilization,

embryos were incubated for 24 hours at 4ºC in blocking solution [1x PBS containing 0.1% (v/v)

Triton X-100, 1% (v/v) Tissue Culture Grade DMSO (Sigma), and 5% (v/v) Normal Goat Serum

(Abcam)]. Next, embryos were incubated with the primary antibodies [1:200 anti-Rabbit

Suppressyn (Phoenix Pharmaceuticals, Inc), and 1:200 anti-Goat OCT4 (Santa Cruz

Biotechnology, Inc)] in fresh blocking solution for 24 hours at 4ºC. After 30 minutes at room

temperature, embryos were washed twice for 5 minutes using 1x PBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Triton

X-100, and subsequently incubated with secondary antibodies in blocking solution containing

DAPI (Thermo Scientific) [1:1000 anti-Rabbit Alexa 488 (Life Technologies), and 1:1000 anti-

Goat Alexa 555 (Life Technologies)] for 24 hours at 4ºC in the dark. Next, embryos were washed

twice for 5 minutes using 1x PBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 and mounted in a μ-Slide 8

well (Ibidi®) using 1xPBS and avoiding the generation of air bubbles.

A confocal Zeiss LSM 710 device (Genyo, Spain) was used to process the slides, using a 63X

objective, zoom 0.6x, with a 1024x1024 pixels resolution (corresponding to 224.70 μm x 224.70

μm). Fluorescence channels were recorded independently to avoid artifacts, and microscope

images shown are maximum projections of several images (2-3 or more). As negative controls,

embryos were also incubated with only the secondary antibody.

Virus production

Low passage 293T cells were used to produce lentiviral particles. DHIV3-GFP and env-

expression plasmids were co-transfected at a mass ratio of 2:1 using lipofectamine 2000

(ThermoFisher, 11668030). shRNA encoding lentiviral particles were produced by co-transfecting

pHIV7, psPAX2, pVSVg according to BROAD institute lentiviral production protocol

(https://portals.broadinstitute.org/gpp/public/resources/protocols) using Lipofectamine 2000.

Growth media was replaced on transfected cells after overnight incubation. At 72 hours post-

transfection, virus containing supernatant was harvested, centrifuged to remove cell debris, filtered

through a 0.45 um pore filter, and stored at -80°C.

Infection Assays

293T cells were transfected with env-overexpression constructs using Lipofectamine 2000 and incubated 24 hours. Transfected cells were infected with reporter virus by applying virus (HIV-RD114env, HIV-VSVg, HIV-SMRVenv) stocks in the presence of polybrene (Santa Cruz Bio, sc-134220) at a final concentration of 4 ug/mL. After 6-8 hours, virus stock was replaced with fresh growth media. Infected cells were maintained for 72 hours, replacing media when necessary, and harvested with trypsin. Detached cells were suspended in fresh growth media, strained and analyzed by flow cytometry. For the H1-ESC infection experiment, relative infection rates were calculated by normalizing the percent GFP+, HIV-RD114env infected cells to the percent GFP+ HIV-VSVg infected cells. For env/SUPYN overexpression experiments, relative infection rates were calculated by normalizing the percent GFP+ env/SUPYN-transfected cells to the percent GFP+ empty vector transfected cells. ANOVA with Tukey HSD tests were implemented in R (v3.6.3).

Placental cell shRNA transduction

Placenta-derived cell lines were treated with pHIV-shRNA-virus-containing supernatant and incubated for 72 hours as described in Infection Assays. Cerulean positive cells were sorted using the BD FACS Aria cytometer. Cells transduced with puroR cassette were treated with Puromycin (GIBCO, A1113802) at a final concentration of 3.5 ug/mL for 7 days, then cultured in regular growth media.

RT-qPCR

RNA was isolated from cultured cells using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, 74104) and an on

column dsDNAse digestion (Qiagen, 79254) was performed. 1-3 ug of total RNA were used to

generate cDNA with the maxima cDNA synthesis with dsDNAse kit (ThermoFisher, K1681).

qPCR reactions were performed using the LC480 Instrument with Sybr Green PCR master mix

(Roche, 04707516001) according to manufacturer's protocol and using primers indicated in

Supplementary Table 2. Gene expression was then quantified using the $\Delta\Delta$CT method (*68*). 18S

expression was used as a reference housekeeping gene. Wilcox rank sum tests were performed

using R (v3.6.3).

Envelope evolutionary sequence analyses

Orthologous *SUPYN*, *SYN1*, and *SYN2* sequences were extracted from the 30-species MULTIZ

alignment (*13*) and formatted for sequence alignment using the phast package (*69*). These and

additional syntenic *SUPYN* and *SYN2* open reading frame sequences were validated/identified by

BLASTn (*70*) search with default settings of publicly available Catarrhine primate genomes

(ncbi.nih.gov). Mariam Okhovat of the Carbone Lab (Oregon Health and Science University)

generously provided BAM files containing read alignment information for *SUPYN*, *SYN1*, and

SYN2 generated from whole genome sequencing of *Hoolock leuconedys* (Hoolock Gibbon),

Symphalangus syndactylus (Siamang), *Hylobates muelleri* (Müller's Gibbon), *Hylobates lar* (Lar

Gibbon), *Hylobates moloch* (Silvery Gibbon), *Hylobates pileatus* (Pileated Gibbon), and

Nomascus gabriellae (Yellow-cheeked Gibbon) (*71*). Where multiple individuals were sequenced,

a consensus sequence was generated using samtools (*59*) and JalView (*72*).

To perform *dN/dS* analyses, orthologous env sequences (>90bp length) encoding the mature

sequence downstream of the signal peptide cleavage site, were aligned using MEGA7 (*73*) and

manually converted to PHYLIP format. A Newick tree was generated based on this alignment

using the maximum likelihood algorithm implemented in MEGA7. *Codeml*, implemented in the

PAML package, was run to calculate *dN/dS* values and log likelihood (LnL) scores generated under

models M0, M1, M2, M7 and M8 (*27*). Chi-square tests comparing LnL scores generated under

models of neutral evolution and selection were performed.

We used two approaches to reconstruct ancestral hominoid and OWM *SUPYN* sequences. First,

we reconstructed ancestral *SUPYN* sequences using the majority rule consensus sequence

(calculated in JalView) of the hominoid and OWM clade respectively. At positions where

nucleotide identity was ambiguous, the dominant nucleotide identity in the neighboring clade was

used as a tiebreaker. These sequences were used for our infection assays shown in **Fig 4h.** We

also employed a maximum likelihood approach using the *baseml* program, implemented in PAML

(*27*). We reconstructed ancestral *SUPYN* sequences using the hominoid species, shown in **Fig 1**,

and the 6 OWM monkeys with the most complete *SUPYN*-coding open reading frame (olive

baboon, drill, crab-eating macaque, rhesus macaque, japanese macaque, green monkey) as our

input sequences. Because PAML requires a Newick tree as an input, the MEGAX maximum

likelihood algorithm was used to generate a Newick tree with the above described *SUPYN*

sequences (*74–76*). *Baseml* was run using models 3-7 (F84, HKY85, T92, TN93, REV). As shown

in **fig S16**, both the consensus- and maximum likelihood reconstructions were identical for the

OWM *SUPYN* sequences. The consensus-based hominoid sequence reconstruction differed from

our maximum likelihood-based reconstruction by two amino acids. These two positions are

unlikely to affect the function of the resulting protein because these sites are identical to siamang

SUPYN, which restricts RD114env-mediated infection **(Fig 4a, b)**.

Code availability

Code used to process and plot the high throughput datasets are available at https://github.com/Manu-1512/Envelopes_Suppressyn

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Author contributions

CF conceived of this project. JAF and CF designed and developed this project. JAF designed and

conducted all experiments, evolutionary sequence analyses, and analyzed all experimental data.

MS performed all gene expression and regulation analyses. HBC and RAK helped perform

infection assays and evolutionary sequence analyses. CBC performed placental stains. JLC and

JLGP obtained, cultured, and prepared human embryos for microscopy. MBB performed embryo

stains and imaging. JAF, CF and MS wrote this manuscript.

Competing interest declaration

The authors declare no competing interests.

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