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MARCO⁺ lymphatic endothelial cells sequester arboviruses to limit viremia and viral dissemination

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23 Abstract

24 While viremia in the vertebrate host is a major determinant of arboviral reservoir competency, transmission efficiency, and disease severity, immune mechanisms that control 25 arboviral viremia are poorly defined. Here, we identify critical roles for the scavenger receptor 26 27 MARCO in controlling viremia during arthritogenic alphavirus infections in mice. Following 28 subcutaneous inoculation, alphavirus particles drain via the lymph and are rapidly captured by MARCO⁺ lymphatic endothelial cells (LECs) in the draining lymph node (dLN), limiting viral spread 29 to the bloodstream. Upon reaching the bloodstream, alphavirus particles are cleared from the 30 31 circulation by MARCO-expressing Kupffer cells in the liver, limiting viremia and further viral dissemination. MARCO-mediated accumulation of alphavirus particles in the dLN and liver is an 32 important host defense mechanism as viremia and viral tissue burdens are elevated in MARCO-/-33 34 mice and disease is more severe. These findings uncover a previously unrecognized arbovirus 35 scavenging role for LECs and improve our mechanistic understanding of viremia control during arboviral infections. 36

37

38 Key Words

39 Arbovirus / Kupffer cells / lymphatic endothelial cells / MARCO / viremia

40 Introduction

41 Over the last two decades we have experienced the unanticipated emergence or reemergence of multiple arboviruses, leading to far-reaching epidemics. In 2004, chikungunya virus 42 (CHIKV), a mosquito-borne alphavirus, re-emerged in the Indian Ocean region and has since 43 44 infected millions of people in epidemics spanning the globe, including the Americas (Moro et al, 2010: Volk et al, 2010; Zeller et al, 2016). CHIKV and closely related alphaviruses (e.g., Mayaro, 45 o'nyong'nyong (ONNV), and Ross River (RRV) viruses) cause severe arthralgia and arthritis 46 affecting the small joints. These debilitating symptoms can persist for months to years after 47 48 infection (Borgherini et al, 2008; Couturier et al, 2012; Rodríguez-Morales et al, 2016; Schilte et 49 al, 2013), and have severe economic consequences (Cardona-Ospina et al, 2015; Soumahoro et al, 2011; Vijayakumar et al, 2013). In 2007, the previously obscure Zika virus (ZIKV) caused 50 51 multiple outbreaks in islands of the Pacific Ocean before spreading to the Americas in 2015 (Duffy 52 et al, 2009; Metsky et al, 2017; Musso et al, 2018). This epidemic revealed an unexpected association of ZIKV with severe disease manifestations, including Guillain-Barré syndrome and 53 54 congenital ZIKV syndrome (Pierson & Diamond, 2018). Because of this, in 2016 the WHO 55 declared the ZIKV outbreak in the Americas a Public Health Emergency of International Concern. 56 These events underscore the ongoing threat that zoonotic arboviruses pose.

Arboviral infections in humans are often the result of spillover from enzootic cycles, and 57 58 for many arboviruses, humans are a dead-end host. However, some arboviruses sustain humanmosquito-human transmission, including dengue virus (DENV), yellow fever virus (YFV), ZIKV, 59 and CHIKV (Weaver, 2018), which facilitates global emergence through air travel and allows for 60 rapid spread of the virus through urban areas. While there are many determinants of arbovirus 61 urbanization, a key factor is the development of a magnitude and duration of viremia sufficient to 62 63 support infection of mosquitoes (Weaver, 2018). Beyond influencing reservoir competency and 64 transmission efficiency, viremia also positively correlates with arboviral disease severity (Chow et al, 2011; de St Maurice et al, 2018; Pozo-Aguilar et al, 2014; Vaughn et al, 2000; Vuong et al, 65

66 2020; Waggoner *et al*, 2016). Thus, understanding factors that influence the magnitude and 67 duration of viremia following arboviral infection is of critical importance.

Following the delivery of arboviruses via a mosquito bite, the virus replicates at the site of 68 inoculation before spreading via the lymph to ultimately reach the bloodstream (Johnston et al. 69 70 2000; MacDonald, 2000). Given this, arboviruses must evade immune defenses in draining lymph 71 nodes (dLNs) to establish a primary viremia. Within the dLN, subcapsular sinus (SCS) macrophages and medullary sinus (MS) macrophages are strategically positioned to encounter 72 lymph-borne pathogens (Bellomo et al, 2018). These cells have been described as molecular 73 74 "flypaper" given their roles in rapidly capturing a wide range of incoming particulate antigen, 75 including lymph-borne virions (Farrell et al, 2015; Junt et al, 2007). Moreover, viral replication 76 within SCS macrophages initiates interferon production and facilitates recruitment and activation 77 of immune cells to limit further viral dissemination (lannacone et al, 2010; Kastenmuller et al, 78 2012).

Upon reaching the bloodstream, virus particles must evade clearance by blood-filtering 79 organs to maintain viremia and disseminate to distal tissues. The liver and spleen contain 80 phagocytic cells strategically positioned to recognize and remove circulating self and non-self 81 82 molecules. In the splenic marginal zone, marginal zone (MZM) and metallophilic (MMM) macrophages remove circulating apoptotic cells, antigen and microbes (Borges da Silva et al. 83 84 2015; Lewis et al, 2019). In the liver, Kupffer cells (KCs), which account for 80-90% of all tissue 85 macrophages (Bilzer et al, 2006), line the sinusoids to detect and clear blood-borne microbes and 86 modified host molecules from the circulation (Hickey & Kubes, 2009; Lee et al, 2010; Zeng et al, 2016). 87

In prior studies, we found that i.v. inoculated arthritogenic alphavirus virions were rapidly removed from the circulation and accumulated in the liver (Carpentier *et al*, 2019). In addition, we identified the scavenger receptor MARCO as essential for alphavirus particle clearance from the blood (Carpentier *et al.*, 2019). These findings revealed a critical host defense mechanism that

92 contributes to the control of arbovirus viremia once viral particles have reached the bloodstream. Here, using genetic approaches, confocal microscopy, and single cell mRNA sequencing (scRNA-93 94 seq) analysis of dLN cell populations, we expand these analyses to improve our mechanistic understanding of the role of MARCO during arthritogenic alphavirus infection following a more 95 96 natural subcutaneous inoculation route. Our studies revealed two distinct roles for MARCO in 97 controlling arthritogenic alphavirus dissemination in vertebrate hosts. First, MARCO⁺ LECs in the dLN sequester CHIKV particles to delay the establishment of viremia. Once this barrier is 98 99 breached, MARCO-expressing Kupffer cells in the liver provide a second layer of protection by 100 removing circulating viral particles. These findings advance our understanding of the immune mechanisms that control arthritogenic alphavirus viremia and dissemination and reveal an 101 102 arbovirus-scavenging role for LECs.

103 Results

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105 CHIKV infection outcomes are more severe in MARCO^{-/-} mice.

To further elucidate the role of MARCO during arthritogenic alphavirus infection, we 106 inoculated four-week-old WT or MARCO^{-/-} mice subcutaneously (s.c.) in the left rear footpad with 107 CHIKV and evaluated disease outcomes. As a control, WT and MARCO^{-/-} mice were inoculated 108 with CHIKV E2 K200R, a mutant virus that evades MARCO-mediated clearance from the 109 circulation (Carpentier et al., 2019) and causes severe disease in WT mice (Hawman et al, 2017). 110 WT mice inoculated with WT CHIKV steadily gained weight (Fig 1A) and displayed little to no 111 defects in gait or hind-limb gripping ability (Fig 1B). In contrast, and similar to previous findings 112 (Hawman et al., 2017), WT mice inoculated with CHIKV E2 K200R had delayed weight gain and 113 114 developed more severe signs of musculoskeletal disease. Similarly, MARCO^{-/-} mice infected with either WT CHIKV or CHIKV E2 K200R developed more severe disease signs (Fig 1A and 1B). 115 Notably, the disease observed in MARCO^{-/-} mice infected with CHIKV E2 K200R was not more 116 severe than disease in MARCO^{-/-} mice infected with WT CHIKV, suggesting that the enhanced 117 disease caused by CHIKV E2 K200R in WT mice is due to evasion of MARCO. These findings 118 119 demonstrate that the scavenger receptor MARCO protects from severe CHIKV disease.

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121 CHIKV viremia and tissue burdens are elevated in MARCO^{-/-} mice

Since our previous work identified a critical role for MARCO in clearing arthritogenic alphavirus particles from the circulation (Carpentier *et al.*, 2019), we evaluated the extent to which the magnitude and duration of viremia is altered in MARCO^{-/-} mice. At 1-day post-inoculation (dpi), infectious virus in the blood of MARCO^{-/-} mice was elevated (230-fold; P < 0.0001) compared with WT mice (**Fig 1C**). Viremia peaked in both WT and MARCO^{-/-} mice at 2 dpi, but peak viremia was 150-fold higher in MARCO^{-/-} mice. In addition, MARCO^{-/-} mice maintained an elevated level of infectious virus in the serum through day five post-infection (**Fig 1C**). As neutralizing antibody can mask viral particles in the circulation at later times post-infection, we also analyzed serum samples for viral genomes by RT-qPCR. This analysis revealed that while CHIKV particles were mostly cleared from the blood of WT mice by 7 dpi, they remained detectable in the blood of MARCO^{-/-} mice (**Fig 1D**). These findings demonstrate that in the absence of MARCO both the magnitude and duration of viremia are increased.

We next evaluated whether the presence or absence of MARCO influences viral 134 dissemination by quantifying viral burden in tissues proximal and distal to the inoculation site at 1 135 dpi. CHIKV burdens were similar in the ipsilateral ankle of WT and MARCO^{-/-} mice, suggesting 136 that MARCO does not influence replication near the site of inoculation (Fig 1E). In contrast, 137 MARCO^{-/-} mice had 2-3 orders of magnitude more infectious virus in distal tissues compared with 138 WT mice (contralateral ankle: 3,163-fold, P < 0.0001; contralateral quadriceps: 951-fold, P < 139 0.0001) (Fig 1E). These findings were not unique to CHIKV, as infection of MARCO^{-/-} mice with 140 141 two other arthritogenic alphaviruses, ONNV and RRV, also resulted in elevated viral burdens in distal tissues and in the serum at 1 dpi compared with WT mice (Fig 1F-G). The elevated viral 142 burden observed in the contralateral ankle and guadriceps of MARCO^{-/-} mice infected with CHIKV 143 persisted throughout the course of infection, with increased viral burden observed at days 3, 7 144 145 and 14 post-infection (Fig S1A-C). These findings demonstrate that in the absence of MARCO, arthritogenic alphaviruses develop a much higher viremia and are better able to disseminate to 146 147 distal tissues.

148

149 Kupffer cells rapidly remove CHIKV particles from the circulation.

In prior studies, we found that i.v. inoculated CHIKV particles are rapidly cleared from the circulation and accumulate in the liver in a MARCO-dependent manner (Carpentier *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, depletion of phagocytic cells in the spleen and liver in contact with the blood, through i.v. administration of clodronate-loaded liposomes (CLL), prevented accumulation of CHIKV RNA in the liver (Carpentier *et al.*, 2019). These data suggest that KCs play a dominant role in the 155 removal of CHIKV particles from the circulation. Based on these data, we hypothesized that 156 MARCO-mediated clearance of viral particles by KCs limits the magnitude and duration of viremia, thus restricting viral dissemination and pathogenicity. To test this, we evaluated the extent to 157 which specific depletion of KCs impaired the clearance of circulating CHIKV particles. To do this, 158 159 we used Clec4F-DTR mice (Scott et al, 2016), which express the diphtheria toxin receptor (DTR) under the control of Clec4f, a gene expressed exclusively in KCs. We treated WT or Clec4F-DTR⁺ 160 mice with DT 1-2 days prior to i.v. inoculation of CHIKV. In WT mice, CHIKV particles were rapidly 161 cleared from the circulation by 45 min (Fig 2A). In contrast, Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice had increased 162 163 viral particles in the serum at this time point (77-fold; P < 0.0001) (Fig 2A), demonstrating that KCs contribute to CHIKV clearance. However, the block to clearance in DT-treated Clec4F-DTR⁺ 164 165 mice was not as robust as observed in mice treated i.v. with CLL (Fig 2B). Given the broad effects 166 of CLL treatment (Seiler et al, 1997; Van Rooijen & Sanders, 1994), we employed CD169-DTR⁺ 167 mice (Miyake et al, 2007), which allow for specific depletion of CD169⁺ cells, including liver KCs 168 and splenic MMM and MZM (Gupta et al, 2016; Miyake et al., 2007). CHIKV clearance was blocked in DT-treated CD169-DTR⁺ mice to levels similar to that observed in CLL-treated mice 169 170 (Fig 2C). However, we found that KC depletion was much more efficient in CLL-treated WT mice 171 and DT-treated CD169-DTR⁺ mice compared with DT-treated Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice, with averages 172 of 1.25 (CLL), 2.5 (CD169-DTR⁺) and 11.5 (Clec4F-DTR⁺) F4/80⁺ cells per field of view (Fig 2D-173 E). The less efficient depletion of KCs in Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice likely accounts for the less potent block to clearance of circulating CHIKV particles. Collectively, these findings suggest that KCs 174 are primarily responsible for the rapid removal of CHIKV from the circulation following i.v. 175 inoculation. 176

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178 **Depletion of KCs is not sufficient to enhance early CHIKV dissemination.**

We reasoned that if clearance of viral particles by MARCO-expressing KCs was responsible for the enhanced viremia and dissemination observed in MARCO^{-/-} mice following s.c. 181 virus inoculation, depletion of KCs would also enhance CHIKV dissemination. To test this idea. we treated WT or Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice with DT prior to s.c. inoculation of CHIKV in the left rear 182 footpad and measured viral burden in tissues at 1 dpi. Surprisingly, unlike what we observed in 183 MARCO^{-/-} mice (Fig 1E), the amounts of CHIKV in tissues and the circulation of WT and DT-184 185 treated Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice were indistinguishable (Fig 3A). Given that depletion of KCs is not complete in DT-treated Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice (Fig 2D-E), we i.v. treated WT mice with PLL or CLL 186 42 h prior to s.c. inoculation of CHIKV in the left rear footpad, as i.v. CLL treatment efficiently 187 depletes F4/80⁺ cells in the liver (Fig 2D-E). Despite this, we found that CHIKV levels in distal 188 189 tissues at 1 dpi were indistinguishable among PLL- and CLL-treated mice (Fig 3B). However, viremia was elevated in CLL-treated mice (27-fold; P < 0.001) (Fig 3B), confirming a role for 190 phagocytic cells in limiting CHIKV viremia. These data demonstrate that while the absence of 191 192 MARCO is sufficient to enhance CHIKV dissemination, depletion of KCs is not, suggesting that 193 additional MARCO expressing cells restrict CHIKV dissemination.

194

195 The draining lymph node limits arthritogenic alphavirus dissemination.

196 Following replication at the site of inoculation, arthritogenic alphaviruses spread through 197 the lymph to the dLN before establishing viremia and disseminating to distal tissues. Given this, we hypothesized that MARCO-expressing cells in the dLN capture CHIKV particles, delaying the 198 199 establishment of viremia and limiting viral dissemination to distal tissues. To test this, we used lymphotoxin alpha deficient mice ($LT\alpha^{-/-}$), which developmentally lack peripheral lymph nodes (De 200 Togni et al, 1994). To evaluate the relative contributions of the dLN and liver in controlling CHIKV 201 dissemination, WT or LT $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were treated i.v. with PLL or CLL to deplete phagocytic cells in 202 the liver prior to s.c. inoculation of CHIKV in the left rear footpad. At 1 dpi, the viral burden in 203 tissues proximal and distal to the site of inoculation were quantified. In WT mice, low levels of 204 virus were detected in distal tissues and serum of both PLL- and CLL-treated mice (Fig 4A). In 205

contrast. PLL-treated LT $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, which lack LNs but retain liver KCs, had an elevated viral burden 206 207 in distal muscle (29-fold: P < 0.0001) and joint tissue (107-fold: P < 0.0001), and had moderately elevated viremia (10-fold; P < 0.0001) (Fig 4A). Compared with PLL-treated $LT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, $LT\alpha^{-/-}$ 208 209 mice treated with CLL, which lack both LNs and KCs, had higher viral burdens in distal muscle (4-fold; P < 0.05) and joint tissue (7-fold; P < 0.0001), and a highly elevated viremia (223-fold; P 210 < 0.0001) (Fig 4A). These findings demonstrate that the dLN functions as a major barrier to 211 CHIKV dissemination, as in its absence viral dissemination to distal tissues is strongly increased. 212 The modest elevation in viremia in PLL-treated $LT\alpha^{--}$ mice compared with CLL-treated $LT\alpha^{--}$ mice 213 214 suggests that phagocytic cells in the liver remove much of the circulating virus. An important role 215 for liver phagocytes in controlling dissemination is supported by the elevated viral burden in both distal tissues and the circulation in CLL-treated $LT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, which lack both LNs and KCs (**Fig** 216 217 **4A**).

The enhanced viral dissemination observed in CLL-treated $LT\alpha^{--}$ mice (**Fig 4A**) is similar 218 to what was observed in MARCO^{-/-} mice (**Fig 1E**), suggesting that MARCO-expressing cells in 219 the dLN sequester alphavirus particles. To explore this idea, we inoculated WT or MARCO^{-/-} mice 220 s.c. in the footpad with WT CHIKV or CHIKV E2 K200R (mutant virus that evades MARCO). At 221 2 hpi, a time point at which no new infectious virus has been produced, we collected the dLN and 222 serum to evaluate the fate of the inoculated virus. In WT mice inoculated with WT CHIKV, we 223 detected high levels of viral RNA in the dLN, while little to no virus was observed in the serum 224 (Fig 4B). In contrast, WT mice inoculated with CHIKV E2 K200R and MARCO^{-/-} mice inoculated 225 226 with either WT CHIKV or CHIKV E2 K200R had 7-10-fold lower levels of viral RNA in the dLN, 227 and remarkably had 3.700-6.200-fold more virus in the serum (Fig 4B). Moreover, we found that MARCO^{-/-} mice inoculated with RRV, a closely related arthritogenic alphavirus, also had reduced 228 viral RNA in the dLN (5-fold; P < 0.001) and higher levels of virus in the blood (1,790-fold; P < 0.001) 229 0.0001) compared with WT mice (Fig 4C). Importantly, MARCO^{-/-} mice inefficiently clear 230

- 231 circulating viral particles (Carpentier et al., 2019). Therefore, the increased viremia in MARCO-/-
- mice 2 h following s.c. virus inoculation is likely a reflection of not only reduced virus accumulation
- in the dLN, but also the lack of clearance of circulating virus by liver KCs.
- 234

LN Macrophages are not required for CHIKV accumulation in the dLN or for limiting viral dissemination

We next sought to define the cell type(s) in the dLN that limit CHIKV dissemination. Within 237 the LN, MARCO is reported to be expressed by MS macrophages (Elomaa et al, 1995) and a 238 239 subset of LECs in the medullary region (Fujimoto et al, 2020; Takeda et al, 2019; Walsh et al, 2021; Xiang et al, 2020). Consistent with these data, using flow cytometry we found that MARCO 240 was expressed specifically on MS macrophages and LECs (Fig S2). Previous studies found that 241 242 macrophages in the dLN capture lymph-borne viruses (Farrell et al., 2015; Gonzalez et al, 2010; 243 Hickman et al, 2008; Junt et al., 2007), and that CLL-mediated depletion of dLN macrophages decreased viral capture by the dLN and increased viremia and dissemination (Farrell et al., 2015; 244 Junt et al., 2007). Given this, we hypothesized that MARCO⁺ MS macrophages limit the 245 dissemination of arthritogenic alphaviruses. As MS and SCS macrophages in the LN are CD169⁺ 246 247 (Gray & Cyster, 2012), we used CD169-DTR mice to deplete LN macrophages and evaluate their capacity to promote virus accumulation in the dLN and limit virus accumulation in the circulation. 248 249 WT or CD169-DTR mice were treated with DT, which results in efficient depletion of CD169⁺ cells 250 in the dLN (Fig 5A). Mice were then inoculated with CHIKV s.c. in the footpad and at 2 hpi, viral 251 RNA in the dLN and serum was quantified by RT-qPCR. Remarkably, there was no difference in the amount of viral RNA detected in the dLN of DT-treated WT or CD169-DTR⁺ mice, and low 252 levels of viral RNA in the blood were observed in both WT and CD169-DTR⁺ mice (Fig 5B). 253 254 Importantly, DT treatment of CD169-DTR mice also depletes KCs (Fig 2D and 3E), and thus any 255 virus that traffics from the dLN to the blood should remain circulating and not be masked by the 256 clearance effects of KCs. These findings suggest that macrophages in the dLN are not required

to sequester viral particles and limit access to the circulation. Consistent with this, CHIKV dissemination to distal tissues was not enhanced in DT-treated CD169-DTR⁺ mice compared with WT mice (**Fig 5C**), or in mice treated with CLL both i.v. and s.c. in the footpad to deplete phagocytic cells in the liver and dLN, respectively (**Fig S3**). These findings reveal that in contrast to previous reports for other viruses (Junt *et al.*, 2007), LN macrophages are not required for clearance of arthritogenic alphavirus particles from the lymph.

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264 CHIKV-E2-mCherry particles co-localize with MARCO⁺ LECs in the dLN

265 Given that medullary macrophages are not required for accumulation of arthritogenic 266 alphavirus particles in the dLN, we next investigated the role of LECs, as recent reports identified a subset of LECs in the medullary region of the lymph node that express MARCO (Fujimoto et 267 al., 2020; Xiang et al., 2020). Moreover, LECs have been shown to capture and archive viral 268 269 antigen (Tamburini et al, 2014), further supporting a potential role for LECs in capturing alphavirus particles. To determine whether viral particles colocalized with MARCO⁺ LECs in the dLN, we 270 used a recombinant CHIKV in which mCherry is fused to the E2 glycoprotein present in viral 271 272 particles (CHIKV-E2-mCherry). Importantly, CHIKV-E2-mCherry particles were efficiently cleared 273 from the circulation, and clearance could be blocked by pre-treatment of mice with poly(I), a class A SR inhibitor that competitively inhibits MARCO (Chen et al. 2006) (Fig S4). CHIKV-E2-mCherry 274 275 particles were inoculated s.c. into the foot and the popliteal dLN was collected at 2 hpi. Frozen LN sections were stained for Lyve1⁺ LECs, MARCO, B220 (marking B cell follicles and revealing 276 nodal orientation) and mCherry⁺ CHIKV particles. As previously reported, we detected a robust 277 MARCO⁺ Lyve1⁺ LEC population in both infected and uninfected WT mice that was primarily 278 restricted to the LN medullary sinus (Fig 6A). Although MARCO^{-/-} mice lacked MARCO⁺ cells as 279 280 expected, the medullary sinus remained intact with similar morphology to that of WT mice (Fig 281 **6A**, middle panels). Visually, mCherry staining for CHIKV particles was most intense in Lyve1⁺ MARCO⁺ LECs (Fig 6A, far right panels). To better quantify CHIKV⁺ cells in the LECs of WT and 282

MARCO^{-/-} mice, we first colocalized mCherry and Lyve1⁺ signals in the LN, detecting many double 283 positive cells in WT but not MARCO^{-/-} LNs (**Fig 6B-C**). Indeed, while 39.3% of Lyve1⁺ voxels in 284 were also mCherry⁺ in WT LNs, only 3.0 % were mCherry⁺ in MARCO^{-/-} mice, consistent with the 285 decreased accumulation of viral genomes in the dLN of MARCO^{-/-} mice at 2 hpi (Fig 5B). Higher 286 287 magnification images demonstrated that in WT mice, mCherry staining overlapped with both Lyve1 and MARCO staining (Fig 6D). In contrast, in MARCO^{-/-} LNs, we observed only a small 288 amount of mCherry staining in CD11b⁺ cells, some of which co-expressed CD169 (representing 289 medullary sinus macrophages) (Fig 6E). Collectively, these findings demonstrate that following 290 s.c. inoculation, CHIKV particles are bound by medullary sinus LECs using MARCO^{-/-}. 291

292

293 MARCO⁺ LECs harbor CHIKV RNA

294 To further characterize LEC subsets that capture virus, at 24 hpi we generated single cell 295 suspensions from the dLN for three biological replicates each of mock- and CHIKV-infected mice. We then enriched for CD45⁻ cells (Fig S5) and performed scRNA-seq to identify cell populations 296 that harbor viral RNA. Between mock- and CHIKV-infected samples, which clustered distinctly, 297 298 we captured a total of 60,185 cells (Fig 7A). To identify the cell types represented in these 299 samples, we used an automated approach (Fu et al, 2020) that classifies cells based on their correlation with reference RNA-seg data. Using published data for cell types found in the mouse 300 301 LN (Heng, 2008; Malhotra et al, 2012; Rodda et al, 2018), we were able to identify large 302 populations of endothelial cells, non-endothelial stromal cells including fibroblastic reticular cells (FRC) and perivascular cells (PvC), along with smaller populations of CD45⁺ cells including B 303 cells, T cells, and macrophages (Fig 7B). To identify endothelial cell subsets, we further divided 304 the endothelial cells into niche-specific subpopulations using published reference data (Xiang et 305 306 al., 2020). By this method, we identified blood endothelial cells (BEC) as well as LEC subsets 307 including MARCO⁺, ceiling (cLEC), floor (fLEC), valve, collecting, Ptx3, and transition zone (tzLEC) (Fig 7C and EV6). Cells collected from the dLN of CHIKV-infected mice contained fewer 308

LEC subsets and were mainly composed of MARCO⁺ LECs, valve LECs, and a population of endothelial cells that we were unable to further classify (**Fig 7C**). The limited number of LEC subsets identified in CHIKV-infected samples could be due to cell death within the dLN at 24 hpi. However, one caveat to our approach is that we are using reference data from uninfected mice which could make it more challenging to accurately annotate LN cell populations during CHIKV infection.

To identify cell types harboring CHIKV RNA, we classified cells based on the number of 315 viral sequence counts. As expected, we detected only background levels of CHIKV RNA 316 317 (3/26,500 cells with 1 CHIKV count each) in dLN cells of mock-infected mice (Fig S7A), while 318 cells collected from the dLN of CHIKV-infected mice had viral RNA sequence counts as high as 319 >8,000 per cell (Fig S7A). We used k-means clustering to divide cells from each sample into 320 CHIKV-low and CHIKV-high groups and identified a small number of cells (n = 690, 1.1%) with 321 high amounts of CHIKV RNA (Fig S7A). CHIKV-high cells displayed fewer mouse mRNA counts per cell and fewer expressed mouse genes (Fig S7B) potentially due to inhibition of host cell 322 transcription or cell lysis, both of which can occur in CHIKV-infected cells (Fros & Pijlman, 2016). 323

324 We next analyzed the cell populations containing high amounts of CHIKV RNA. CHIKV-325 high cells are mainly composed of MARCO⁺ LECs (n = 231, 33%), FRCs (n = 89, 13%), BECs (n = 10, 10%), = 49, 7%), and PvCs (n = 44, 6%), along with a group of LECs that we were unable to further 326 327 classify (unassigned-LEC, n = 232, 34%) (Fig 7F). Among the CHIKV-high cell types, we found 328 that the unassigned-LECs and MARCO⁺ LECs show the highest viral burden as indicated by a 329 high fraction of CHIKV counts per cell (Fig 7E-G), suggesting that these are the predominant cell populations in the dLN that capture viral particles. To further investigate the role of MARCO in 330 these interactions, we compared MARCO expression for CHIKV-low and CHIKV-high MARCO⁺ 331 332 LECs. This analysis revealed that CHIKV-high MARCO⁺ LECs had significantly higher expression 333 of MARCO in comparison to their CHIKV-low counterparts (Fig 7D and 7H). Moreover, CHIKVlow and CHIKV-high MARCO⁺ LECs expressed little to no Mxra8, a cell entry receptor for CHIKV 334

335 (Zhang *et al*, 2018) (Fig 7I). These data further support a role for MARCO and LECs in
 336 sequestering viral particles in the dLN and limiting CHIKV dissemination.

337

338 Discussion

339 Our results reveal a critical role for the scavenger receptor MARCO in controlling arthritogenic alphavirus viremia, dissemination, and disease. Similar protective roles for MARCO 340 have been observed during other infections. For example, MARCO^{-/-} mice are impaired in their 341 ability to clear Streptococcus pneumonia from the nasopharynx and lungs (Arredouani et al. 2004; 342 343 Dorrington et al, 2013). Moreover, MARCO enhances phagocytosis of Mycobacterium tuberculosis in vitro (Bowdish et al, 2009), and MARCO polymorphisms are associated with 344 345 altered susceptibility to pulmonary tuberculosis (Bowdish et al, 2013; Lao et al, 2017; Ma et al, 346 2011; Thuong et al, 2016). Finally, during influenza A virus infection in mice, MARCO suppresses early immunopathologic inflammatory responses, and accordingly, MARCO^{-/-} mice have 347 increased morbidity and mortality compared with WT mice (Ghosh et al, 2011). However, MARCO 348 also can be exploited by pathogens. For example, herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1) interactions 349 with MARCO enhance epithelial cell adsorption, and MARCO^{-/-} mice have reduced wound sizes 350 351 following s.c. HSV-1 inoculation (MacLeod et al, 2013).

Our findings identify two distinct MARCO expressing cell types that limit arthritogenic 352 353 alphavirus dissemination and viremia: MARCO⁺ LECs in the dLN and KCs in the liver. KCs are 354 well established to play a critical role in controlling bacteremia (Jenne & Kubes, 2013; Lee et al., 355 2010) However, the role of KCs in controlling viremia is not as well characterized. We find that specific depletion of KCs using Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice impairs CHIKV clearance from the circulation. 356 While it remains possible that MARCO⁺ MZM in the spleen contribute, our findings demonstrate 357 358 that KCs are the major cell type involved in the efficient removal of arthritogenic alphavirus 359 particles from the blood, expanding their surveillance function to arboviruses.

360 Despite the critical role for KCs in removing alphavirus particles from the circulation, we found that depletion of KCs had no impact on CHIKV dissemination following s.c. viral inoculation. 361 This led us to investigate the role of MARCO⁺ cells in the dLN in controlling CHIKV viremia and 362 dissemination, as lymph nodes can function as barriers to pathogen dissemination (Bogoslowski 363 364 & Kubes, 2018). For example, within minutes of subcutaneous inoculation, fluorescently labeled vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) particles can be found trapped within SCS macrophages in the 365 dLN (Junt et al., 2007). This observation extends to other viruses, including adenovirus (AdV) and 366 vaccinia virus (VV) (Hickman et al., 2008; Junt et al., 2007), thus lending to the description of 367 368 these SCS macrophages as "molecular flypaper" in regard to their ability to capture incoming viral 369 particles. This macrophage-mediated capture has important implications for pathogen 370 dissemination, as depletion of macrophages in the draining lymph node via s.c. CLL 371 administration decreased accumulation of VSV in the dLN at early times post-infection, and 372 increased viral dissemination to the blood (Junt et al., 2007). Similarly, depletion of macrophages in the dLN was shown to enhance the dissemination of murine cytomegalovirus (MCMV), West 373 374 Nile virus (WNV), and Pseudomonas aeruginosa (P. aeruginosa), and facilitate CNS invasion of 375 neurotropic VSV (Farrell et al., 2015; Iannacone et al., 2010; Kastenmuller et al., 2012; 376 Winkelmann et al, 2014).

377 Our results demonstrate the dLN is a major barrier to arthritogenic alphavirus 378 dissemination, but unlike prior reports of macrophage-mediated capture our findings uncover a 379 previously unrecognized role for LECs in scavenging arboviral particles to impair dissemination. We found that CHIKV-E2-mCherry particles colocalized with MARCO⁺ LECs in the dLN, and 380 scRNA sequencing of dLN stromal cell populations identified MARCO⁺ LECs as the predominant 381 cell type harboring CHIKV RNA. Notably, CHIKV RNA levels among MARCO⁺ LECs correlated 382 383 with MARCO expression levels, with CHIKV-high cells showing higher expression of MARCO, 384 suggesting MARCO may mediate internalization. MARCO⁺ LECs were negative for Mxra8, a 385 known arthritogenic alphavirus entry receptor (Zhang et al., 2018). The genetic absence of Mxra8

in mice reduced but did not eliminate viral replication and dissemination *in vivo* (Zhang *et al*, 2019), demonstrating that additional entry receptors exist. Notably, MARCO has been reported to facilitate entry of other viruses, including HSV-1, VV, and adenovirus into target cells (MacLeod *et al*, 2015; MacLeod *et al.*, 2013; Maler *et al*, 2017; Stichling *et al*, 2018).

390 The role of LECs in capturing lymph-borne viral particles likely extends beyond arthritogenic alphaviruses. While macrophages were reported to play a major role in capture of 391 other viruses, fluorescently labeled VSV, AdV, and VV particles co-localized with LECs in the 392 medullary region of the dLN (Junt et al., 2007; Reynoso et al, 2019), which is where MARCO⁺ 393 394 LECs reside. Future investigations are needed to understand whether MARCO is responsible for 395 broadly mediating capture of diverse viruses by LECs, or whether other pattern recognition 396 receptors (PRRs) are also involved. LECs express a wide range of PRRs, including toll-like 397 receptors, Fc receptors, C-type lectin receptors, and additional scavenger receptors, suggesting 398 they may have multiple mechanisms for scavenging diverse viral particles (Berendam et al, 2019; Jalkanen & Salmi, 2020). 399

Additional work is also needed to better understand the consequences of viral capture by 400 401 LECs. Our findings suggest that capture of arthritogenic alphaviruses by MARCO⁺ LECs 402 contributes to the control of viral dissemination. However, whether LECs become productively 403 infected by arthritogenic alphaviruses remains under investigation. In prior studies, we were 404 unable to detect fluorescent signal in the dLN following s.c. inoculation with a recombinant CHIKV 405 expressing the fluorescent protein mKate (McCarthy et al, 2018). However, our scRNA-seq 406 results reveal that only a small fraction of stromal cells in the dLN harbor CHIKV RNA, suggesting 407 flow cytometry may not be sensitive enough to detect whether the virus is productively replicating in these cells. Our scRNA-seq analysis provides hints that the MARCO⁺ LECs may be actively 408 409 infected. For example, cells harboring CHIKV RNA have high viral reads, suggestive of genome 410 replication, and CHIKV-high cells have reduced reads for mouse genes, which is consistent with 411 virus-mediated transcriptional shutoff (Fros & Pijlman, 2016). Further studies are needed, but

these findings raise the possibility that MARCO facilitates arthritogenic alphavirus entry and
infection of distinct cell types, such as MARCO⁺ LECs.

LEC-mediated capture of viral particles also could influence innate and adaptive immune 414 responses. LECs have been reported to archive viral antigen for weeks following the resolution 415 416 of the adaptive immune response (Kedl et al, 2017; Tamburini et al., 2014), and our findings may provide insight as to how these antigens are initially acquired by LECs. This archived antigen can 417 be either directly presented or exchanged with dendritic cells to allow for cross-presentation to 418 CD8⁺ T-cells to stimulate memory T cells and augment protective immunity (Kedl et al., 2017; 419 420 Tamburini et al., 2014; Vokali et al, 2020). In other studies evaluating factors that influence alphavirus viremia and dissemination, injection of Semliki Forest virus, a closely related 421 422 alphavirus, at the site of a mosquito bite in the skin of mice was found to delay viral spread to the 423 lymph node, which ultimately enhanced early viremia and viral dissemination, and led to more 424 severe disease outcomes (Pingen et al, 2016). It is possible that the retention of viral particles at 425 the site of inoculation allows the virus to replicate to high titers before initiating potent immune responses due to viral capture in the dLN. Future studies are necessary to better understand how 426 427 MARCO⁺ LEC-mediated capture of arthritogenic alphaviruses influences downstream innate and 428 adaptive immune responses.

In summary, our results reveal a critical scavenging role for MARCO during arthritogenic 429 430 alphavirus infection. We find that following s.c. inoculation, alphavirus particles accumulate in the dLN in association with MARCO⁺ LECs, limiting viral spread to the blood. Once reaching the 431 432 blood, liver KCs provide a second line of defense and rapidly clear circulating alphavirus particles in a MARCO-dependent manner. Collectively, these findings advance our mechanistic 433 434 understanding of how viremia is controlled during arboviral infections, which has several important 435 implications for arboviral biology. First, viremia has been shown to positively correlate with 436 disease severity following infection with CHIKV and other arboviruses (Chow et al., 2011; de St Maurice et al., 2018; Pozo-Aguilar et al., 2014; Vaughn et al., 2000; Vuong et al., 2020; Waggoner 437

438 et al., 2016). Consistent with this, we find that the high magnitude and duration of viremia observed in CHIKV-infected MARCO^{-/-} mice promoted more rapid viral dissemination, increased 439 viral tissue burdens, and resulted in more severe disease signs. These finding raise the possibility 440 that MARCO also influences disease severity in humans. The MARCO gene is highly polymorphic 441 442 in humans and mice (Bowdish & Gordon, 2009), and this genetic variation has been demonstrated to influence human susceptibility to tuberculosis and respiratory syncytial virus (Bowdish et al., 443 2013; High et al, 2016; Lao et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2011; Thuong et al., 2016). Given our findings, 444 it is possible that MARCO polymorphisms similarly influence disease severity following 445 446 arthritogenic alphavirus infection. In addition to influencing disease severity, MARCO-virus interactions likely also affect virus transmission efficiency and reservoir host competency in 447 448 nature, as the magnitude and duration of viremia is an important factor dictating which vertebrate 449 species can serve as reservoirs for arboviruses (Weaver, 2018). Thus, differences in MARCO 450 alleles may influence which vertebrate hosts participate in arthritogenic alphavirus transmission cycles. While humans are dead-end hosts for most arboviruses, a select few including CHIKV. 451 DENV, and ZIKV generate a sufficiently high level of viremia to facilitate human-mosquito-human 452 453 transmission cycles (Weaver, 2018). These viruses pose a high risk for emergence and re-454 emergence, as evidenced by the now global distribution of DENV and the recent ZIKV and DENV epidemics. This underscores the need for an improved understanding of viremic control. 455 456 Collectively, our findings shed light on the mechanistic control of viremia during arboviral 457 infections, and more broadly advance our understanding of how the lymph node restricts virus 458 dissemination.

459

460 Materials and Methods

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462 **Ethics Statement.** This study was performed in strict accordance with the 463 recommendations in the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health. All of the animals were handled according to approved institutional animal care and use committee (IACUC) protocols (#00026) of the University of Colorado School of Medicine (Assurance Number A3269-01). Experimental animals were humanely euthanized at defined endpoints by exposure to isoflurane vapors followed by thoracotomy.

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469 **Cells.** Vero cells (ATCC CCL81) were cultured at 37° C in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle 470 medium (DMEM)-F-12 (Gibco) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 1x nonessential 471 amino acids (Life Technologies), and 1X penicillin-streptomycin. BHK-21 cells (ATCC CCL10) 472 were cultured at 37° C in α -minimum essential medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS, 473 10% tryptone phosphate broth, and penicillin-streptomycin.

474

Viruses. The CHIKV strain used in these studies is AF15561, an Asian genotype strain 475 isolated from a human patient in Thailand (GenBank accession no. EF452493). cDNA clones of 476 AF15561 and AF15561 E2 K200R have been described previously (Hawman et al., 2017). The 477 478 recombinant CHIKV AF15561 cDNA clone encoding mCherry-tagged E2 glycoprotein was 479 derived from a 181/25 CHIKV E2 mCherry-tagged cCNA clone kindly provided by Richard Kuhn (Purdue University). Site-directed mutagenesis was first used to revert positions E2 12 and E2 84 480 481 from attenuated 181/25 to WT AF15561 using the following primers: CHIKV-181/25 E2 I12T FOR (5'-gtgagctaggtacggtcttgtggctttatagacattgaa-3'), CHIKV-181/25 E2 112T REV (5'-482 483 ttcaatgtctataaagccacaagaccgtacctagctcac-3'), CHIKV 181/25 E2 R82G FOR (5'gttcttacaaatagcccggccctctctgcgtc-3') 181/25 R82G (5'-484 and CHIKV Rev gacgcagagagggccgggctatttgtaagaac-3'). A fragment containing part of capsid, mCherry, and part 485 486 of E2 was then subcloned into an AF15561 cDNA clone using restriction sites XhoI and XmaI. To generate virus stocks, linearized cDNA clones were in vitro transcribed with SP6 RNA 487 polymerase, and viral RNA was electroporated into BHK-21 cells as described previously 488

489 (Ashbrook et al, 2014). At 24-28 h post-electroporation, clarified supernatant containing infectious virus was collected, aliquoted and stored at -80°C. The RRV strain used is SN11 (Liu et al, 2011), 490 491 a clinical isolate (kindly provided by John Aaskov, Queensland University of Technology) that was 492 passaged 1X on C6/36 cells before we propagated the stock used in these studies in BHK-21 cells. ONNV SG650 (Lanciotti, 1998), a strain isolated from human sera in Uganda in 1996, was 493 derived from a cDNA clone ((Vanlandingham, 2006); provided by Stephen Higgs, Kansas State 494 495 University) through electroporation into BHK-21 cells, and propagated on BHK-21 cells for one 496 passage to increase titer. Infectious virus was titered by plaque assay on BHK-21 cells. To quantify viral genomes, viral stocks were treated with RNase1 at 37°C for 1 h. RNA was extracted 497 498 and viral genomes were quantified by RT-gPCR.

499

Mouse Experiments. WT C57BL/6 and congenic Lymphotoxin alpha^{-/-} (LT $\alpha^{-/-}$) mice (De 500 Togni et al., 1994) were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory. Congenic CD169-DTR⁺ (Miyake 501 502 et al., 2007) mice were provided by Jason Cyster (University of California San Francisco) and congenic MARCO^{-/-} mice (Arredouani et al., 2004) were provided by Dawn Bowdish (McMaster 503 504 University). Clec4F-DTR⁺ C57BL/6 mice (Scott et al., 2016) were provided by Martin Guilliams (Ghent University). CD169-DTR⁺, MARCO^{-/-}, LT $\alpha^{-/-}$ and Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice were housed and bred 505 506 at the University of Colorado School of Medicine under specific pathogen-free conditions and 507 were distributed randomly into groups containing approximately even division of sexes for 508 experiments. WT male mice were purchased commercially and were age matched and distributed 509 randomly across groups. Mice 4 weeks of age were used in all experiments. All mouse experiments were performed under animal biosafety level 2 or 3 conditions, as appropriate. 510

511 For experiments involving Clec4F-DTR⁺ mice, mice were treated with 50 ng of DT either 512 i.v. or i.p. as indicated in the Figure legend, 48 h and 24 h prior to virus inoculation. For 513 experiments involving CD169-DTR⁺ mice, mice were injected with 100 ng of DT i.p. 48 h and 24

h prior to virus inoculation. For experiments involving depletion of liver and splenic phagocytes,
mice were inoculated i.v. with 100 μl per 10 g of body weight of PBS- (PLL) or clodronate-loaded
liposomes (CLL) (clodronateliposomes.org) 42 h prior to virus inoculation. To deplete phagocytic
cells in the draining lymph node, mice were inoculated s.c. in the left-rear footpad with 20 μl of
PLL or CLL 24 h prior to virus inoculation.

In experiments evaluating disease or viral tissue burdens, mice were anesthetized with 519 isoflurane vapors and inoculated in the left-rear footpad with a 10 µl volume containing 10³ PFU 520 521 of virus diluted in PBS/1% FBS. Mice were weighed daily and disease scores were assigned as described previously (Jupille et al, 2011). In brief, the following criteria were used: score of 1: mild 522 523 deficit in hind paw gripping of injected foot; score of 2: mild deficit in bilateral hind-paw gripping; 524 score of 3: bilateral loss of gripping ability; score of 4: bilateral loss of griping ability, moderate 525 bilateral hind-limb paresis, altered gait, difficulty righting self; score of 5: bilateral loss of gripping 526 ability, severe bilateral hind-limb paresis, altered gait, inability to right self; score of 6: moribund 527 state. At experiment termination, mice were euthanized by exposure to isoflurane vapors followed by bilateral thoracotomy. Blood was collected, mice were perfused with 5-10 mL of 1X PBS or 4% 528 529 paraformaldehyde (PFA) (for experiments involving histology), and indicated tissues were harvested in *in vitro* diluent (1X PBS with 1% FBS and 1x Ca²⁺Mg²⁺) for analysis of infectious virus 530 by focus formation assay (FFA) or plaque assay, or in TRIzol reagent Life Technologies) for RNA 531 532 isolation and quantification of viral genomes by RT-qPCR. Tissues were homogenized using a 533 MagNA Lyser instrument (Roche).

534 For serum clearance experiments, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane vapors and 535 inoculated i.v. with 10^8 genomes of CHIKV diluted in 100 μ l of PBS/1% FBS. At 45 min post 536 inoculation, mice were sacrificed and serum was collected. For lymph node accumulation 537 experiments, mice were anesthetized with isoflurane vapors and inoculated s.c. in the left-rear

footpad with a 10 μ l volume containing 5 x 10⁴ PFU of virus. At 2 hpi, blood and the draining pLN were collected in TRIzol.

540

Viral Genome Quantification by RT-qPCR. To quantify viral genomes, RNA was 541 542 extracted from 20 µl of serum or from homogenized tissues in TRIzol reagent using the PureLink 543 RNA mini kit (Life Technologies). CHIKV cDNA was generated from 10 µl of serum derived RNA 544 or 1 µg of tissue derived RNA using random primers (Invitrogen) with SuperScript IV reverse 545 transcriptase (Life Technologies). CHIKV genome copies were quantified by RT-gPCR using a CHIKV specific forward primer (5'-TTTGCGTGCCACTCTGG-3') and reverse primer (5'-546 547 CGGGTCACCACAAAGTACAA-3') with internal TaqMan probe (5'an ACTTGCTTTGATCGCCTTGGTGAGA-3'), as previously described (Hawman et al, 2013). RRV 548 cDNA was generated from 10 μ l of serum derived RNA or 1 μ g of tissue derived RNA using a 549 550 sequence-tagged (indicated with lower case letters) RRV-specific RT primer (5'ggcagtatcgtgaattcgatgcAACACTCCCGTCGACAACAGA-3') with SuperScript IV reverse tran-551 552 scriptase (Life Technologies). RRV genomes were quantified by RT-qPCR using a tag sequence-553 specific reverse primer (5'-GGCAGTATCGTGAATTCGATGC-3') with a RRV sequence-specific 554 forward primer (5'-CCGTGGCGGGTATTATCAAT-3') and an internal TaqMan probe (5'-ATTAAGAGTG TAGCCATCC-3'), as previously described (Stoermer et al, 2012). 555

556

Plaque Assay and Focus Formation Assay. To quantify infectious virus, a plaque assay or focus formation assay (FFA) were used as previously described (Hawman *et al.*, 2017). For plaque assays, samples were serially diluted 10-fold in 1X PBS + 2% FBS + 1X $Ca^{2+}Mg^{2+}$ and absorbed to BHK-21 cells in a 6-well plate for 1 h, after which cells were overlayed with 1% immunodifusion agarose (MP Biomedical). After incubation at 37°C for 40-44 h, cells were stained with neutral red stain and plaques were counted. For the FFA, serum or tissue homogenate were

serially diluted 10-fold in 1X PBS+ 2% FBS+ 1X Ca²⁺Mg²⁺ and adsorbed to Vero cells in a 96-well plate for 2 h. Cells were then overlaid with 0.5% methylcellulose in MEM-alpha + 10% FBS and incubated at 37°C for 18 h. Following fixation with 1% PFA, cells were probed with CHK-11 monoclonal antibody (Pal *et al*, 2013) at 500 ng/ml diluted in Perm Wash (1x PBS, 0.1% saponin, 0.1% BSA), followed by a secondary goat anti-mouse IgG conjugated to horseradish peroxidase at 1:2,000 in Perm Wash. Foci were visualized with TrueBlue substrate (Fisher) and counted with a CTL Biospot analyzer using Biospot software (Cellular Technology).

570

Immunohistochemistry. To evaluate KC depletion in the livers of DT-treated WT, 571 Clec4F-DTR⁺, and CD169-DTR⁺ mice and PLL- or CLL-treated WT mice, at the time of harvest 572 mice were perfused with 4% PFA and livers were harvested and fixed in 4% PFA for 24 h. Livers 573 574 were paraffin-embedded and immunohistochemistry was performed on 5-micrometer sections 575 using F4/80 antibody clone CI:A3-1 (BioRad Cat. No. MCA497) and the VECTASTAIN Elite ABS HRP kit (Vector Laboratories, PK-6100) as previously described (Carpentier et al., 2019). To 576 quantify the efficiency of KC depletion, F4/80⁺ cells were counted from 10 randomly selected high-577 power fields (HPF; 40X) for each stained liver section, and were used to calculated the average 578 579 number of F4/80⁺ cells per HPF of view.

580

Isolation of cells from lymph nodes and flow cytometry. To evaluate MARCO expressing cells in lymphoid tissue, popliteal and inguinal lymph nodes were pooled from WT or MARCO^{-/-} mice. Lymph nodes were minced with a 22-gage needle in 1 mL of digestion media (EHAA with 0.25 mg/mL Liberase DL and 17 µg/mL DNase) and incubated at 37°C for 1 h, after which an equal volume of dissociation buffer (0.1M EDTA in EHAA) was added and incubated at 37°C for 5 min. Cells were passed through a 100 µm cell strainer (BD Falcon). Single-cell suspensions were incubated for 20 min at 4°C with anti–mouse FcγRIII/II (2.4G2; BD

⁵⁸⁸ Pharmingen) prior to staining for 1 h at 4°C with the following antibodies from BioLegend (most) ⁵⁸⁹ or Novus Biologicals (MARCO) diluted in FACS buffer (PBS with 2% FBS): anti-CD45 (30-F11), ⁵⁹⁰ anti-PDPN (8.1.1), anti-CD31 (390), anti-CD169 (3D6.112), anti-CD11c (BV510), anti-CD11b ⁵⁹¹ (M1.70), anti-B220 (RA3-6B2), anti-TCR β (H57-597), anti-F4/80 (BM8), anti-NK1.1 (PL136) and ⁵⁹² anti-MARCO (2359A). Cells were fixed overnight in 1× PBS/1% paraformaldehyde (PFA) and ⁵⁹³ analyzed on a BD LSR Fortessa cytometer using FACSDiva software. Further analysis was ⁵⁹⁴ performed using FlowJo software (Tree Star).

595

596 **Immunofluorescence and confocal microscopy.** Lymph nodes were fixed in 1 mL of 597 phosphate buffer containing 0.1 M L-lysine, 2% PFA, and 2.1 mg/mL NaIO4 at pH 7.4 for 24 h at 4°C, followed by incubation in 30% sucrose phosphate-buffered solution for 48 h, then in 30% 598 599 sucrose/PBS for 24 hr. LNs were then embedded in optimal-cutting-temperature medium (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and frozen in dry-ice-cooled isopentane. Eighteen-um sections 600 were cut on a Leica cryostat (Leica Microsystems). Sections were blocked with 5% goat, donkey, 601 602 bovine, rat or rabbit serum and then stained with one or more of the following: B220 (clone RA3-603 6B2, ThermoFisher), Lyve-1 (clone ALY7, ThermoFisher), CD169 (clone 3D6.112, BioLegend) 604 MARCO (clone ED31, BioRad), CD11b (clone M1/70, BioLegend) and mCherry (polyclonal, 605 Novus Bio, Cat# NBP2-25157). Images were acquired using identical photomultiplier tube (PMT) 606 and laser power settings on a Leica Stellaris confocal microscope (Leica). Confocal microscopy 607 images were collected over the entire popliteal lymph node (representing approximately a 7 mm² 608 imaged area) and individual fields (tiles) were merged into a single image file. Images were 609 analyzed using Imaris v9.02 software (Oxford Instruments). Colocalization of Lyve1 and mCherry 610 was performed using the Coloc module of Imaris (Oxford Instruments) and % of colocalized 611 (double positive) voxels quantitated by the program using the same settings for each LN.

612

613 **Preparation of single-cell suspensions for single-cell mRNA sequencing.** The draining popliteal lymph node from mock- or CHIKV-inoculated mice were pooled into individual 614 replicates (3 replicates; LNs from 5 mice pooled per replicate). Lymph nodes were mechanically 615 homogenized using a 22G needle in Click's medium (Irvine Scientific, 9195) supplemented with 616 617 5 mg/mL liberase DL (Roche, 05401160001) and 2.5 mg/mL DNase (Roche 10104159001) for 1 618 h at 37°C. After incubation, digested tissues were clarified by passing through a 100 µm cell strainer. Cell suspensions were enriched for CD45⁻ cells by labeling cells with PE-conjugated anti-619 mouse CD45 (30-F11), CD140A (APA5), and Ter119 (Ter119) monoclonal antibodies and 620 subsequent depletion of PE-labeled cells using Miltenyi anti-PE microbeads (130-048-801) and 621 622 Miltenyi MACS LS (130-042-401) columns according to the manufacturer's instructions with the 623 following modifications: (1) we used 25% of the recommended volume of anti-PE microbeads and 624 (2) we subjected the CD45⁻ enriched cell fraction to a second MACS LS column. All cell 625 suspensions post-column enrichment were enumerated using a hemacytometer. Cell fractions 626 throughout the procedure were analyzed for PE-labeled cell depletion and enrichment of CD45 cells by flow cytometry. Cell fractions were stained with fixable LIVE/DEAD dye (Invitrogen, 627 628 L34955) and antibodies against the following cell surface antigens: CD45 (30-F11), CD31 (390), 629 PDPN (8.1.1), B220 (RA3-6B2), TCRβ (H57-597), CD11b (M1/70), and Ly6C (HK1.4). All flow 630 cytometry antibodies from obtained from BioLegend, BD Bioscience or eBioscience. Following 631 surface antigen staining, cells were washed, fixed in 1%PFA/1%FBS, and data was acquired on 632 a BD LSR Fortessa X-20 flow cytometer. Data analysis was performed using FlowJo analysis 633 software (Tree Star).

634

635 **Single-cell library preparation using the 10x Genomics platform.** Lymph node cell 636 suspensions enriched for CD45⁻ cells were subject to single-cell droplet-encapsulation using the 637 Next GEM Chip G Kit (1000127) and a 10x Genomics chromium controller housed in our BSL3 638 laboratory. We targeted recovery of 10,000 cells for single-cell RNA sequencing for each

replicate. Single-cell gene expression libraries were generated using the Next GEM single-cell 3'
GEM library and gel bead kit v3.1 (1000128) and single index kit T set A (1000213) according to
the manufacturer's instructions (10x Genomics). Sequences were generated with the Illumina
NovaSEQ 6000 instrument using S4 flow cells and 300 cycle SBS reagents. We targeted 50,000
reads per cell, with sequencing parameters of Read 1:151 cycles; i7 index: 10 cycles; i5 index: 0
cycles; Read 2: 151 cycles.

645

Transcriptome and oligonucleotide detection and analysis. FASTQ files for each 646 647 replicate (3 mock, 3 CHIKV-infected) were processed using the cellranger count pipeline (v5.0.1). 648 Reads were aligned to the mm10 and CHIKV AF15561 (EF452493.1) reference genomes. Analysis of gene expression data was performed using the Seurat R package (v4.0.0). Gene 649 650 expression data for each biological replicate were combined into a single Seurat object. CHIKV 651 counts were included as a separate "assay" in the Seurat object so they would not influence downstream processing (dimensionality reduction, clustering) of the mouse gene expression 652 data. 653

CHIKV-low and -high cells were identified by first filtering cells to only include those with 654 655 >5 CHIKV counts. K-means clustering was then used to independently group each biological replicate into CHIKV-low and -high populations (Walsh et al., 2021). Cells with 5 CHIKV counts 656 657 or less were included in the CHIKV-low population. Cells were filtered based on the number of 658 detected mouse genes (>250 and <6000) and the percent mitochondrial counts (<20%). Genes 659 were filtered to only include those detected in >5 cells. Potential cell doublets were removed using 660 the DoubletFinder (v2.0.3) R package using an estimated doublet rate of 10%. Due to the ability 661 of CHIKV to inhibit host transcription (Fig. S8), CHIKV-high cells with a low number of detected 662 mouse genes (<250) or a high fraction of mitochondrial reads (>20%) were not filtered and 663 remained in the dataset for the downstream analysis. The fraction of CHIKV counts was 664 calculated by dividing the number of CHIKV counts by the total number of counts for each cell.

Mouse gene expression counts were normalized by the total mouse counts for the cell, multiplied by a scale factor (10,000), and log-transformed (NormalizeData), Normalized mouse counts were scaled and centered (ScaleData) using the top 2000 variable features (FindVariableFeatures). The scaled data were used for PCA (RunPCA) and the first 40 principal components were used to find clusters (FindNeighbors, FindClusters) and calculate uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) (RunUMAP).

B cells and T cells were identified based on CD19 and CD3 expression, respectively. The 671 R 672 remaining cell types were annotated using the package clustifyr 673 (https://rnabioco.github.io/clustifyr) with published reference RNA-seg data (Heng, 2008; 674 Malhotra et al., 2012; Rodda et al., 2018) available for download through the clustifyrdata R 675 package, https://rnabioco.github.io/clustifyrdata). Endothelial cells were further classified using 676 reference data for mouse LEC subsets (Xiang et al., 2020).

677

678 Statistical Analysis. Appropriate experimental sample sizes were determined using a power calculation (80% power, 0.05 type I error) to detect a 4-5-fold effect in pre-existing sample 679 sets. Each Figure legend defines the biological replicates of individual mice (N) and the number 680 681 of experiments performed. Data are represented as mean ± SD or mean ± SEM, as indicated. The statistical tests conducted on each data set are indicated in the Figure legend and were 682 683 performed using GraphPad Prism 8.0. Two-sided t-tests (parametric) or Mann Whitney tests 684 (nonparametric) were used to compare two groups. One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple 685 comparison test (parametric) or Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's multiple comparisons test (nonparametric) were used to compare three or more groups, and two-way ANOVA with 686 687 Bonferroni's multiple comparison test was used to compare two groups at multiple time points.

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697

698 Author Contributions

- 699 K.S.C., E.D.L., B.A.J.T., J.R.H., H.D.H., and T.E.M. designed the experiments. K.S.C., B.J.D.,
- 700 M.K.M., N.A.M, C.J.L, F.S.L., and G.V.R. performed the experiments. K.S.C., R.M.S., M.K.M.,
- G.V.R., H.D.H., and T.E.M. performed the data analysis. K.S.C., R.M.S., and T.E.M. wrote the initial draft of the manuscript, with the other authors providing comments and edits to the final
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- 704

705 Declaration of Interests

- 706 The authors declare no competing interests
- 707
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997 Figure Legends

Figure 1. CHIKV infection outcomes are more severe in MARCO^{-/-} mice and viremia 998 and dissemination are enhanced. (A-B) WT or MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice were inoculated 999 subcutaneously (s.c.) in the left rear footpad with 10³ PFU of CHIKV or CHIKV E2 K200R. The 1000 percent of starting body weight (A) and disease score (B) were recorded daily over 14 days. Mean 1001 1002 ± SEM. N=7-12, three experiments. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; ****P < 0.0001. (**C-E**) WT or MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice were inoculated s.c. in the left rear footpad 1003 with 10[°] PFU of CHIKV. Serum collected on days 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, and 14 was analyzed by focus 1004 formation assay (FFA), mean ± SD (C) and by RT-gPCR, mean ± SD (D). (E) Viral tissue burdens 1005 1006 were analyzed at 1 day post inoculation (dpi) by FFA. Mean ± SEM. Two experiments, n=5-10. 1007 Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test (C-D) or Mann-Whitney test (E); ****P < 0.0001. (F-G) WT or MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice were inoculated s.c. in the left rear footpad 1008 with 10³ PFU of ONNV (F) or RRV (G). Tissues and serum were collected at 1 dpi and analyzed 1009 1010 by plague assay. Mean ± SEM. Two experiments, n= 8-10. Mann-Whitney test; ****P < 0.0001.

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Figure 2. Depletion of Kupffer cells impedes CHIKV clearance from the circulation. 1012 (A) WT and Clec4F-DTR⁺ C57BL/6 mice were treated with diphtheria toxin (DT) either 1013 1014 intraperitoneally (i.p.) 24 h prior to inoculation (n=10, two experiments, black dots) or intravenously (i.v.) 48 and 24 h prior to inoculation (n=4, one experiment, grey dots) to deplete KCs and 1015 inoculated i.v. with 10[°] CHIKV particles. Viral genomes in the inoculum and serum at 45 minutes 1016 (min)-post inoculation were determined by RT-qPCR. Mean ± SD. Three experiments, n= 14. 1017 Mann-Whitney test; ****P < 0.0001. (B) WT or Clec-4F-DTR⁺ C57BL/6 mice were treated i.v. with 1018 DT, PLL or CLL prior to i.v. inoculation of 10⁸ CHIKV particles. Viral genomes were guantified as 1019 in (A). Mean \pm SD. One experiment, n=4. Mann-Whitney test; **P < 0.01, ****P < 0.0001. (C) WT 1020

or CD169-DTR⁺ mice were treated i.p. with DT prior to i.v. inoculation of 10⁸ CHIKV particles. Viral genomes were quantified as in (A). Mean \pm SD. Two experiments, n=7-8. Mann-Whitney test; ****P* < 0.001. (**D**) Livers from WT, Clec4F-DTR⁺ or CD169-DTR⁺ mice treated i.p. with DT, or WT mice treated i.v. with PLL or CLL were analyzed by IHC to visualize F4/80⁺ macrophages (brown). Representative sections are shown. (**E**) F4/80⁺ cells in 10 randomly selected high-powered fields (HPF) per liver section were counted to calculate average F4/80⁺ cells per HPF. Mean \pm SD. N=2-4 mice per group.

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Figure 3. Depletion of KCs is not sufficient to enhance early CHIKV dissemination. (A) WT or Clec4F-DTR⁺ C57BL/6 mice were treated i.v. with DT prior to s.c. inoculation in the left rear footpad with 10^3 PFU of CHIKV. Infectious virus was quantified at 24 hpi by FFA. Mean ± SEM. Two experiments, n=8. Mann-Whitney test; P > 0.05. (B) WT C57BL/6 mice were treated i.v. with PLL or CLL 42 h prior to s.c. inoculation in the left rear footpad with 10^3 PFU of CHIKV. Infectious virus at 24 hpi was quantified by FFA. Mean ± SD. Two experiments, n=8. Mann-Whitney test; ***P < 0.001.

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Figure 4. The draining lymph node limits arthritogenic alphavirus dissemination. (A) 1037 WT or $LT\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were treated i.v. with PLL or CLL 42 h prior to s.c. inoculation of the left rear 1038 footpad with 10³ PFU of CHIKV. Infectious virus at 24 hpi was analyzed by FFA. Mean ± SEM. 1039 Two experiments, n=8-10. Mann-Whitney test; **P* < 0.05, ****P* < 0.001, *****P* < 0.0001. (**B**) WT or 1040 MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice were inoculated s.c. in the left rear footpad with 10⁸ particles of WT 1041 1042 CHIKV or CHIKV E2 K200R. Viral genomes in the dLN and serum at 2 hpi were guantified by RTqPCR. Mean ± SD. Two experiments, n=10. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple 1043 comparisons test: ***P < 0.001. ****P < 0.0001. (**C**) WT or MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice were 1044

inoculated s.c. in the left rear footpad with 10^8 particles of RRV. Viral genomes in the dLN and serum were quantified by RT-qPCR. Mean ± SD. Two experiments, n=8-9. Mann-Whitney test; ****P* < 0.001, *****P* < 0.0001.

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Figure 5. Macrophages in the dLN are not required for CHIKV accumulation in the 1049 **dLN or limiting viral dissemination.** (A) CD169-DTR⁺ mice were treated i.p. with PBS or DT 1050 prior to collection of the popliteal LN. Frozen LN sections were stained for CD169⁺ macrophages 1051 (green), B220⁺ B cells (blue) or ERTR-7⁺ stromal cells (red). (**B**) WT or CD169-DTR⁺ C57BL/6 1052 mice were treated i.p. with DT prior to s.c. inoculation in the left rear footpad with 10⁸ particles of 1053 1054 WT CHIKV. Viral genomes in the dLN and serum at 2 hpi were quantified by RT-gPCR. Mean ± SD. Two experiments, n=8. Mann-Whitney test; P > 0.05. (**C**) WT or CD169-DTR⁺ C57BL/6 mice 1055 were treated i.p. with DT prior to s.c. inoculation in the left rear footpad with 10³ PFU of CHIKV. 1056 Infectious virus at 24 hpi was quantified by FFA. Mean ± SEM. Two experiments, n=9-10. Mann-1057 1058 Whitney test; **P < 0.01.

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Figure 6. MARCO⁺ LECs capture lymph-borne CHIKV particles. WT or MARCO^{-/-} 1060 C57BL/6 mice were inoculated s.c. in the rear feet with 5*10⁴ PFU of CHIKV-E2-mCherry and the 1061 popliteal dLNs were collected at 2 hpi. (A) Frozen dLN sections were stained for Lyve-1⁺ LECs 1062 (white), MARCO (green), B220 (blue) and mCherry CHIKV particles (red). (B) Representative 1063 histograms of confocal images showing voxel intensities for Lyve1 and mCherry. (C) Percent of 1064 1065 Lyve1^{*} voxels with mCherry signal; dots represent individual sections. (D) Higher magnification 1066 confocal image of a WT lymph node section stained as in (A) (E) Higher magnification confocal image of a MARCO^{-/-} lymph node stained for CD11b⁺ cells (white), mCherry⁺ CHIKV particles 1067

1068 (red), B220⁺ B cells (blue), and CD169⁺ macrophages (green). Data are representative of 2 1069 experiments, n=6-9. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test; *****P*<0.0001.

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Figure 7. MARCO⁺ LECs harbor CHIKV RNA . WT C57BL/6 mice were s.c. inoculated 1071 with PBS (mock, n=3) or 10^3 PFU of CHIKV (n = 3) in the left rear footpad. At 24 hpi, the dLN was 1072 1073 collected and enzymatically digested into a single cell suspension. Cells were enriched for CD45cells and analyzed by scRNA-seq as described in the materials and methods. (A) UMAP 1074 projection shows each replicate for mock- and CHIKV-infected mice; the number of cells obtained 1075 1076 for each replicate is shown at the bottom. (B) UMAP projection shows annotated cell types (top) 1077 and the proportion of cells identified for each cell type (bottom). (C) UMAP projection shows 1078 endothelial subtypes (top) and the proportion of cells identified for each cell type (bottom). Non-1079 endothelial cells are shown in white. (D) UMAP projection shows Marco expression. (E) UMAP 1080 projection shows the fraction of counts that align to the CHIKV genome. (F) UMAP projection 1081 shows cell types for cells classified as CHIKV-high. CHIKV-low cells are shown in white. The proportion of CHIKV-high cells belonging to each cell type is shown on the right. (G) The fraction 1082 1083 of counts that align to the CHIKV genome is shown for CHIKV-high cells. Only cell types that 1084 include >20 cells are shown. (H, I) MARCO (H) and Mxra8 (I) expression is shown for MARCO⁺ 1085 LECs for mock-infected cells and CHIKV-infected cells classified as either CHIKV-low or CHIKV-1086 high. P-values were calculated using a two-sided Wilcoxon rank-sum test with Bonferroni 1087 correction.

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1093 Supplemental Figure Legends

Figure S1. CHIKV tissue burdens in distal tissues are enhanced in MARCO^{-/-} mice at days 3, 7 and 14 pi. (A-C) WT or MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice were inoculated subcutaneously in the left rear footpad with 10^3 PFU of CHIKV. Viral tissue burdens were analyzed at 3 (A), 7 (B) and 14 (C) days post inoculation (dpi) by FFA (A), or RT-qPCR (B and C). Mean ± SEM Two experiments for each time point, n= 10. Mann-Whitney test; **P* < 0.05, ****P* < 0.001, *****P* < 0.0001.

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1101 Figure S2. MARCO is expressed by medullary sinus macrophages and LECs in LNs.

LNs were pooled from uninfected WT or MARCO^{-/-} C57BL/6 mice. Representative flow plots and percentages of MARCO expressing cells by resident macrophage populations (A, C) and stromal cell populations (B, D) are shown. Mean \pm SEM. Two experiments, n=4-5. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; ***P* < 0.01, *****P* < 0.0001.

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1107 Figure S3. Depletion of phagocytic cells in the lymph node and liver does not 1108 enhance CHIKV dissemination. WT C57BL/6 mice were i.v. injected with PLL or CLL 42 h prior to virus inoculation and subcutaneously injected in the left rear footpad (FP) with PLL or CLL 24 1109 h prior to virus inoculation as indicated. Mice were then inoculated s.c. with 10³ PFU of CHIKV in 1110 1111 the left rear footpad, and tissues and serum were collected at 24 hpi. Infectious virus was 1112 quantified by FFA. Mean ± SEM. Two experiment, n=8. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test, comparing all groups to IV PLL+ FP PLL group: **P < 0.01. ****P < 0.011113 1114 0.0001.

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Figure S4. CHIKV-E2 mCherry is susceptible to clearance by a poly(I) sensitive
 scavenger receptor. WT C57BL/6 mice were treated i.v. with poly(C) or poly(I) 5 min prior to i.v.

inoculation of 10⁸ particles of CHIKV-E2 mCherry. Genomes in the inoculum and serum at 45 min
post-inoculation were quantified by RT-qPCR. Mean ± SD. N=3, one experiment.

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Figure S5. CD45⁻ cell enrichment. Pre- and Post-CD45⁺ cell depletion cell populations were analyzed by flow cytometry. (A) Representative plots of gating strategy used. (B-C) Representative flow plots of cell viability (B) and CD45⁺ and CD45⁻ cell populations (C) in preand post depleted postulations. (D) Percentages of CD45⁺ and CD45⁻ subsets among replicates. One experiment, n=3.

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Figure S6. LEC Annotations. To assess the accuracy of endothelial cell type annotations, the subtype assignments were compared back to the reference data. The correlation with the reference RNA-seq data is shown for each subtype. Correlation coefficients (Spearman) are shown for each subtype.

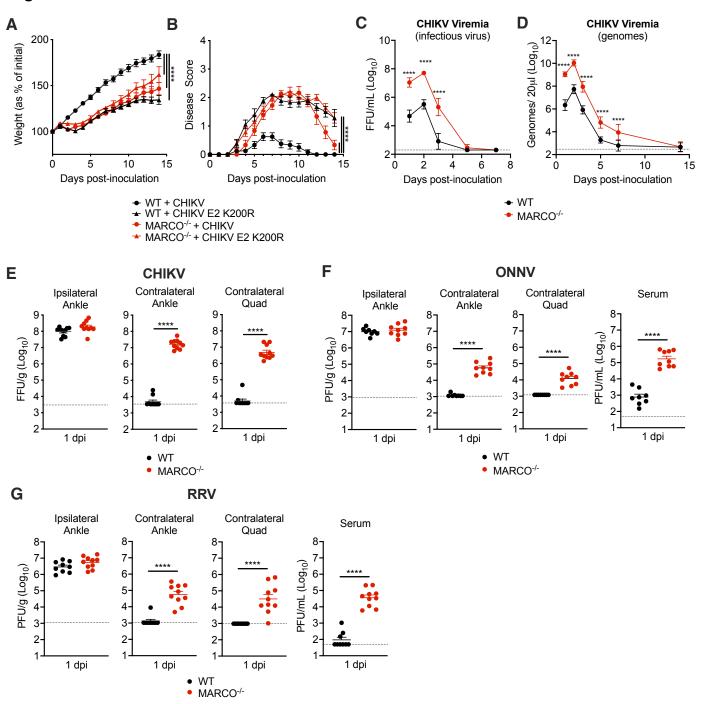
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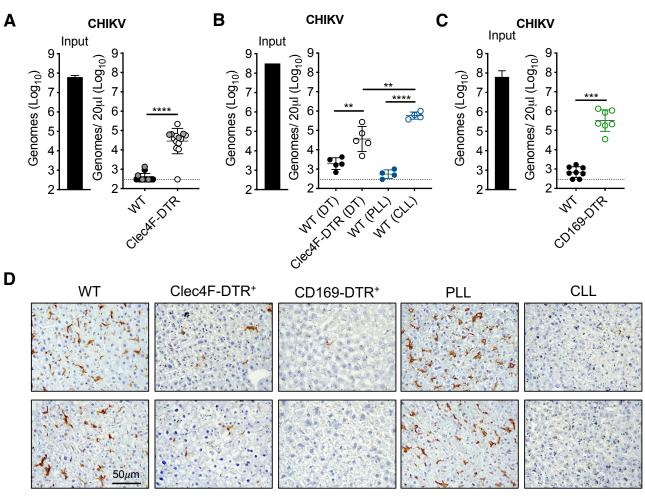
1132 Figure S7. CHIKV-high classification and gene expression among CHIKV-high and 1133 CHIKV low cells. (A) To identify cells with high amounts of viral RNA, cells were first filtered to 1134 only include those with >5 CHIKV counts. K-means clustering was then used to independently 1135 group each biological replicate into CHIKV-low and -high populations. Cells with <=5 CHIKV counts are included in the CHIKV-low group. CHIKV counts are shown below for each sample 1136 1137 before filtering low quality cells (this includes all captured cells). (B) Cell quality metrics are shown 1138 for CHIKV-low and CHIKV-high cells for each replicate. These plots include all captured cells 1139 before quality filtering. CHIKV-high cells have fewer expressed mouse genes and an increased 1140 percentage of mitochondrial counts.

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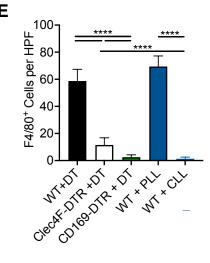
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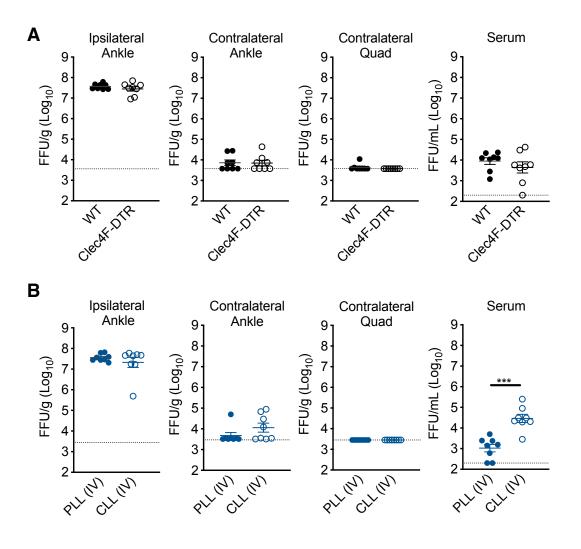
Figure 1

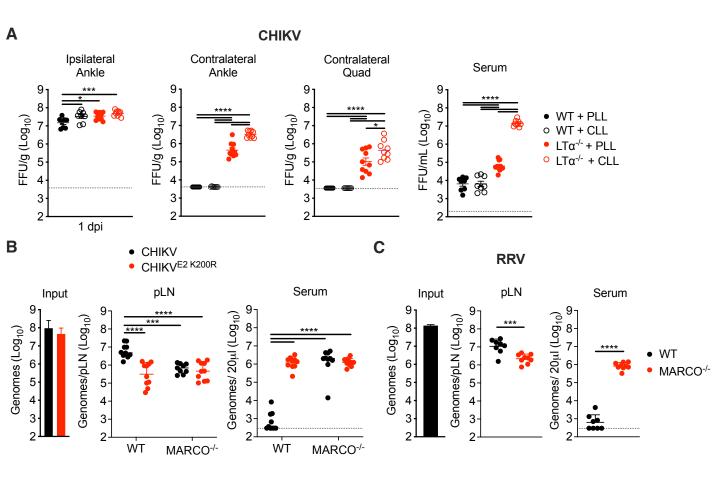


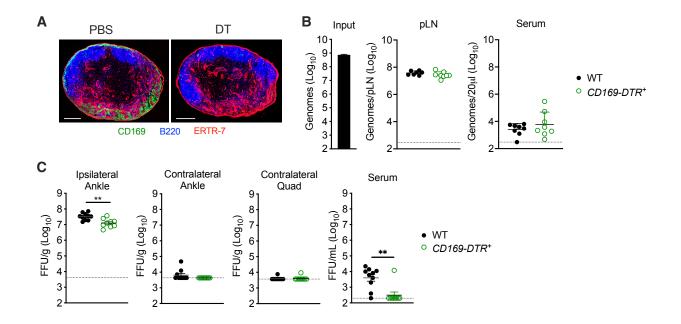


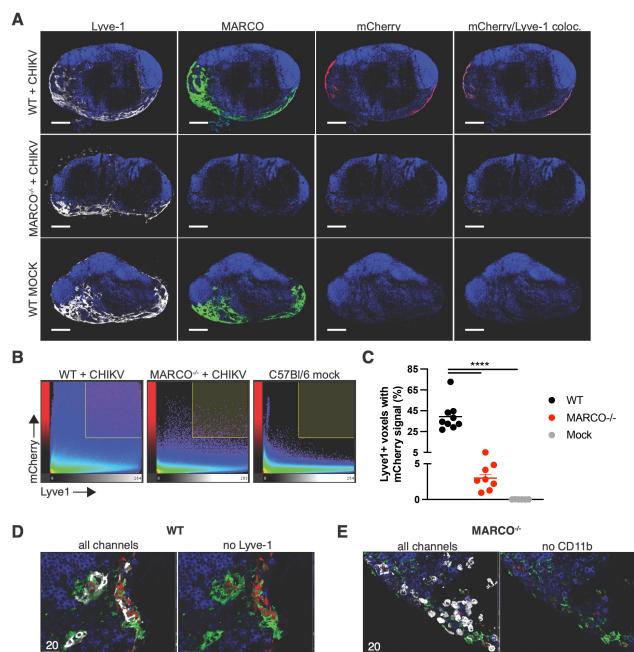
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Lyve-1 (white) mCherry B220 MARCO

CD11b (white) mCherry B220 CD169

