1

**A panel of KSHV mutants in the polycistronic kaposin locus for precise analysis of**

**individual protein products**

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**Abstract**

Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) is the infectious cause of several human

cancers including the endothelial cell (EC) malignancy, Kaposi's sarcoma. Unique KSHV genes

absent from other human herpesvirus genomes, known as "K-genes", are typically important for

KSHV replication and pathogenesis. Among the K-genes, the kaposin mRNA is

highly expressed in both latent and lytic phases of infection, but its polycistronic nature has

hindered methodical analysis of the role of kaposin translation products in viral replication. At

least three proteins are produced from the kaposin transcript, Kaposin A (KapA), B (KapB), and

C (KapC). We have previously shown that KapB overexpression is sufficient to recapitulate two

KS phenotypes, EC spindling and elevated proinflammatory cytokine transcripts, the latter which

proceeds via the disassembly of RNA decay granules called processing bodies (PBs). To

pinpoint the relative contributions of kaposin proteins at different stages of KSHV infection,

we constructed four recombinant viruses by deleting or recoding the *kaposin* locus. Latent

infection of iSLK cells with kaposin-deficient viruses resulted in reduced viral genome copy

number and small LANA nuclear bodies; despite this, all iSLK cells were capable of progeny

virion production. *De novo* infection of ECs revealed that KapB was dispensable for EC

spindling but required for PB disassembly during KSHV latency, suggesting other viral proteins

contribute to spindling. These findings demonstrate that our panel of viruses enables precise

analysis of respective contributions of individual kaposin proteins to KSHV replication. This

approach serves as a guide for the functional analysis of complex multicistronic viral loci.

**Importance**

Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) expresses high levels of the kaposin transcript

during both latent and lytic phases of replication.  Due to its repetitive, GC-rich nature and

polycistronic coding capacity, until now no reagents existed to permit a methodical analysis of

the role of individual kaposin proteins in KSHV replication. We report the creation of a panel of

recombinant viruses and matched producer cell lines that delete kaposin proteins individually or

in combination. We demonstrate the utility of this panel by confirming the requirement of one

kaposin translation product to a key KSHV latency phenotype. This study describes a new panel

of molecular tools for the KSHV field to enable precise analysis of the roles of individual

kaposin proteins during KSHV infection.

## Introduction

Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) is the infectious cause of the endothelial cell (EC) neoplasm, Kaposi's sarcoma (KS) and two rare lymphoproliferative disorders: primary effusion lymphoma (PEL) and multicentric Castleman disease (MCD) (1–3). Like all herpesviruses, KSHV establishes persistent, life-long infection of its human host, and displays two modes of infection, latent and lytic replication. Latency is the default replication program upon *de novo* infection in most cell types (4, 5). Following a transient period of lytic gene expression which serves to amplify genome copy number and evade the intrinsic immune response (6, 7), the viral episome is circularized and tethered to the host chromosome by the viral latency-associated nuclear antigen (LANA) (8). This results in formation of microscopically visible LANA-nuclear bodies (NB), which correlate with intracellular viral genome copy number (9–13). In the latent state, the viral genome is passively replicated and unevenly partitioned to daughter cells by host cell machinery (10, 14, 15). The viral genome will remain in a highly chromatinized state until expression of the viral lytic switch protein, replication and transcription activator (RTA), which is both necessary and sufficient for lytic reactivation (16–18). Following reactivation, lytic gene expression follows a prescribed temporal cascade with genome replication marking the transition from early to late gene expression (19, 20). More recent analyses using single cell approaches describe lytic induction as a heterogenous population of infected cells that display various stages of reactivation (13, 21–23). The lytic replication phase produces progeny virions enabling transmission of the virus and culminates in cell death.

The KSHV-infected cells in KS lesions are predominantly proliferating endothelial cells (ECs) with an abnormal elongated or 'spindled' morphology. The majority of these tumor ECs exhibit latent KSHV infection, whereas lytic replication is limited (24–27). Lytic replication is

hypothesized to play a role in KS, likely due to the ongoing production of progeny virions as

well as the release of inflammatory and angiogenic factors (14, 28, 29). Consistent with this,

limiting viral lytic replication caused KS regression, suggesting that spontaneous lytic

reactivation is required for ongoing infection of naïve cells in the tumor environment and

supports the cancer (30–32).

As latently infected cells comprise the bulk of the KS lesion, the contribution of KSHV

latent gene expression to tumorigenesis has been explored extensively in both animal and cell

culture models (29, 33–37). *In vitro* infection of primary ECs with KSHV recapitulates many of

the features of KS tumors, including efficient establishment of viral latency. During latency,

gene expression is limited to six consensus protein products produced from an approximately

10kbp region of the viral genome termed the latency locus (LANA, viral cyclin [v-Cyclin], and

viral fas-associated death domain (FADD)-like interleukin-1-β-converting enzyme (FLICE)

inhibitory protein [v-FLIP], Kaposins [Kap] A, B, and C) and 12 pre-miRNAs that are processed

into at least 25 mature miRNAs (38–41) Using ectopic expression models, several latent gene

products have been shown to contribute to the establishment and maintenance of viral latency as

well as phenotypes associated with KS tumors (reviewed in (42, 43), but these studies have

predominantly focused on LANA, v-Cyclin and v-FLIP while the contributions of the

polycistronic kaposin locus is less clear. The kaposin mRNA was first identified as a marker of

KSHV latent infection in KS tumours in 1997 (27), and it remains the dominant viral transcript

in KS tumor isolates (44). The kaposin locus comprises a significant fraction of KSHV coding

capacity during latency and kaposin transcription is also upregulated during lytic replication,

suggesting that this region of the viral genome is important (45).  Despite this, we still know very

little about the role of the kaposin locus, or the proteins it encodes, during viral replication.

The kaposin transcript is polycistronic and can be translated into at least three

polypeptides, KapA, KapB and KapC (Figure 1A) (45), though we and others have observed

multiple banding patterns on immunoblots that suggest additional translation products may also

be derived from this locus (45, 46). Translation of KapA is initiated at a canonical AUG start

codon located distal to the 5' end of the transcript and encodes a small membrane spanning

protein (47–49). KapC is translated in the same reading frame as KapA, making its carboxy-

terminal region identical to KapA. However, translation of KapC is initiated at one of two

possible non-canonical CUG start codons proximal to the 5' end of the transcript. Therefore, in

addition to the KapA ORF, the KapC translation product contains two 23-amino acid direct

repeat (DR) regions termed DR1 and DR2 (DR1: PSSPGTWCPPPREPGALLPGNLV and DR2:

APQEPGAAHPRNPARRTPGTRRG) which are derived from three sets of GC-rich 23-

nucleotide repeats (Figure 1A-B). Translation of KapB is initiated at one of two possible non-

canonical CUG or GUG start codons that are most proximal to the 5' end of the kaposin mRNA,

but uses an alternative reading frame to that of KapA/C. The resulting polypeptide is comprised

largely of the same two 23-amino acid DRs (DR1 and DR2) found in KapC (Figure 1B) but

lacks the C-terminal membrane spanning domain found in both KapA and KapC. Moreover,

different isolates of KSHV display expansion or contraction of both direct repeats, the functional

significance of which is unknown, yet regardless of the diversity in size, the core DR1 and DR2

repeats remain constant (45).

Our knowledge about individual kaposin protein function is derived largely from ectopic

expression of individual kaposin proteins. KapA was reported to promote cell transformation *in*

*vitro* and *in vivo* (47, 48); however, more recent work showed that this function stems from one

of the viral miRNAs embedded within the KapA ORF (50). Previous work from our group has

shown that KapB is sufficient to induce angiogenesis in an *in vitro* EC tubule formation assay

and to promote actin stress fibers and elongation of ECs into a spindled morphology that

recapitulates the morphology of latently infected KS tumor cells (51). KapB also is sufficient to

induce the disassembly of RNA granules called processing bodies (PBs) (51, 52). PBs are

important sites for the constitutive turnover or translational suppression of inflammatory

cytokine mRNAs; PB loss correlates with enhanced levels of inflammatory cytokine transcripts

that are normally targeted to PBs via an AU-rich destabilizing element (51, 53–57). However,

our previous studies could not determine if KapB alone is necessary for these phenotypes during

KSHV latent infection as we used RNA silencing to knockdown the kaposin transcript, a strategy

that reduced expression of all kaposin proteins (51). No other studies have determined the role of

individual kaposin translation products in KSHV latent or lytic replication cycles.

Here, we describe our use of the KSHV BAC16 bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC)

and lambda Red recombination system (58) to construct a panel virus defective for specific

*kaposin* locus products. We have constructed a triple deletion BAC16ΔKapABC, a double

deletion BAC16ΔKapBC, two single deletions BAC16ΔKapB and BAC16ΔKapC, and a partial

revertant into which we have re-inserted a single copy of both DR1 and DR2, called 1X DRs

(Figure 1C). We confirmed that these viruses no longer express the deleted kaposin-derived

proteins and show that all kaposin-deficient viruses are competent for genome replication and

production of progeny virions. However, we show that ΔKapB is significantly impaired, and

demonstrates markedly reduced genome copy number, small LANA nuclear bodies, and lower

LANA protein levels. Additionally, ΔKapB fails to cause PB disassembly following *de novo*

infection of primary ECs, showing for the first time that KapB is necessary for PB disassembly

during KSHV latency. With this panel of kaposin recombinant KSHV viruses, it is now feasible

to interrogate, with unprecedented precision, the role of individual kaposin protein products in

the context of KSHV latent or lytic infection.

## Materials and Methods:

### Cell culture

All cells were grown at 37°C with 5% $CO_2$ and atmospheric $O_2$. HEK293T cells (ATCC) were

cultured in DMEM (Thermo Fisher) supplemented with 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL

streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine (Thermo Fisher) and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Thermo

Fisher). iSLK.RTA cells (59) were cultured likewise with the addition of 1 µg/mL puromycin

and 250 µg/mL geneticin (Thermo Fisher). BAC16-iSLK.RTA cells were cultured similar to

iSLK.RTA cells, with the addition of 1200 µg/mL hygromycin B (Thermo Fisher). Human

umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs, Lonza) were cultured in endothelial cell growth

medium (EGM-2) (Lonza). HUVECs were seeded onto gelatin (0.1% w/v in PBS)-coated tissue

culture plates or glass coverslips.

### Lambda Red recombination for BAC16 mutagenesis

All mutagenesis was carried out in the BAC16 background (58) supplied in the GS1783 strain of

*Escherichia coli (E.coli)* (A generous gift from Dr. Jae Jung). All restriction enzymes were

purchased from New England Biolabs (NEB) and all primers were purchased from Invitrogen.

A kanamycin resistance and levansucrase enzyme cassette (KanSacB) was amplified using

primers (Table 1) with 40bp overhanging sequences that correspond to the K12 sequence of the

*kaposin* locus in the BAC16 genome. These primers also allowed for the introduction of BamHI

and NotI restriction endonuclease sites. The resulting PCR product was then subcloned into

pcDNA3.1+ (Addgene) using BamHI and NotI restriction endonucleases (pcDNA3.1+-

KanSacB).

To create single deletions of KapB and KapC, two direct repeat (DR) region gene blocks were

synthesized (BioBasic) where the third nucleotide of each codon of DR1 and DR2 was altered to

insert premature stop codons and nonsynonymous mutations into one frame, while creating

synonymous mutations in the other. This allowed the primary amino acid sequence of either

KapB or KapC to be maintained while eliminating expression from the other ORF and vice

versa. Primers were used to amplify the gene block with 40bp overhanging sequences that: 1)

flank the gene block, 2) are homologous to the upstream and downstream regions of the DRs in

the BAC16 genome, and 3) introduce NheI and BamHI restriction sites. The resulting PCR

product was then subcloned into pcDNA3.1+-KanSacB (described above) using NheI and

BamHI restriction sites (pcDNA3.1+-geneblock-KanSacB).

Lambda Red recombination was conducted in the GS1783 *E.coli* strain, which expresses

the I-Sce enzyme and, in a temperature (42°C) dependent manner, the lambda Red recombinase

genes (beta, exo and gam). BAC16-GS1783 *E. coli* were cultured at 30°C in Lysogeny Broth

(LB) containing 30 $\mu$g/mL chloramphenicol (Sigma-Aldrich) until reaching an optical density

($OD_{600}$) of 0.6-0.8. Cultures were incubated for 30 minutes at 42°C prior to pelleting at room

temperature at 3000 x $g$ for 5 minutes. Bacterial pellets were resuspended in $ddH_2O$ and pelleted

again at 3000 x $g$ for 5 minutes. This step was repeated once more, following which bacterial

pellets were resuspended in 50 $\mu$L $ddH_2O$ and placed on ice. Meanwhile, pcDNA3.1+-geneblock-

KanSacB was digested with NheI and NotI restriction endonucleases to generate a linear DNA

fragment for recombination. This was purified by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis and gel

extracted according to QIAquick gel extraction kit (QIAGEN) standard protocol. The purified

fragment was electroporated (2.5kV, 25$\mu$F BioRad Gene Pulser®II) into 50 $\mu$L of $ddH_2O$-washed

BAC16-GS1783 *E.coli*. Bacteria was recovered for 1 hour in 1 mL of LB media at 30°C, plated

onto LB agar plates containing 50 µg/mL kanamycin, and incubated at 30°C overnight (O/N).

Colonies were screened for successful recombination using colony PCR and two sets of

screening primers designed to assess insert size and orientation (Table 1).

Colonies that produced bands of the expected size with both primer sets were inoculated

into 1 ml of LB containing 1% arabinose (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 hour at 30°C to induce I-Sce

expression to linearize the inserted KanSacB cassette. Bacteria were then incubated at 42°C for

30 minutes to induce recombinase gene expression and recovered for 1 hour at 30°C prior to

plating on LB agar plates containing 30 $\mu$g/mL chloramphenicol and 5% sucrose, which selects

for the loss of SacB that synthesizes a toxic compound in the presence of sucrose. Positive

colonies were replica-plated on LB agar plates containing 50 µg/mL kanamycin. Those colonies

that grew on both chloramphenicol and sucrose containing plates, and which were no longer

kanamycin resistant, were screened by colony PCR for having undergone the second

recombination to remove the KanSacB cassette and colony PCR products were verified by

Sanger sequencing using primers as listed (Table 1).

**Isolation of BACmid DNA**

BACmid DNA was isolated from GS1783 *E.coli* cultures of 5 mL of LB containing 30 $\mu$g/mL

chloramphenicol grown O/N at 30°C. Bacteria was pelleted at 3000 x $g$ for 5 minutes, re-

suspended in buffer P1 containing RNaseA, lysed using alkaline lysis in buffer P2 and

neutralized with buffer N3 (All reagents from QIAprep kits, QIAGEN). Following addition of

buffer N3, lysates were placed on ice for 10 minutes prior to centrifugation at 17 000 x $g$ for 10

minutes to pellet precipitate. 750 µL of supernatant was then mixed with 750 µL of 100%

isopropanol and placed on ice for 10 minutes prior to centrifugation at 17 000 x $g$ for 10 minutes

to pellet DNA. Supernatants were removed and the DNA pellet was left to air dry before being

resuspended in 50 µL 10mM Tris-Cl, pH 8.5. DNA was used immediately for transfection.

**Whole genome sequencing of KSHV BACs**

BACmid DNA was isolated from GS1783 *E.coli* cultures of 400 mL LB containing 30 $\mu$g/mL

chloramphenicol grown O/N at 30°C. Bacteria was pelleted at 4000 x *g* for 10 minutes at 4˚C.

DNA was then extracted using the Qiagen Large Construct Kit in accordance with

manufacturer's protocol. Critically, this isolation includes an exonuclease step which removes

sheared *E.coli* DNA thereby allowing greater coverage of the BAC16 genome.

Whole genome sequencing was performed by the Centre for Health Genomics and

Informatics (University of Calgary, Calgary, AB). Briefly, libraries were prepared using a NEB

ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB), quantified using a Kapa qPCR Library Kit

(Roche), and sequenced using a MiSeq 500 v2 nano run (MiSeq Reagent Kit v2, Illumina) to

generate 250+250bp paired end sequences. Raw reads were imported into Geneious Prime (60),

paired and trimmed according to default settings. Reads were then aligned to the BAC16

reference genome (NCBI accession #GQ994935). Average coverage was between ~670 and

1400x. Variations were identified based on a minimum coverage of 5 and minimum frequency in

variation of 0.25.

**Restriction length fragment polymorphism**

Isolated BACmid DNA was digested overnight using NheI restriction enzyme (New England

Biolabs) at 37°C. Digested DNA fragments were then subjected to 1% agarose pulsed-field gel

electrophoresis (PFGE) (Bio-Rad) using 0.5% Tris/Borate/EDTA (TBE) buffer and the following

conditions: 6 V/cm, 120° field angle, and switch time linearly ramped from 1 s to 5 s over 14-15

h (CHEF DR III, Bio-Rad). DNA bands were visualized by staining the gel with a solution of 0.5

µg/mL ethidium bromide; excess stain was washed away with deionized water and the gel was

imaged on a ChemiDoc Touch Imaging System (Bio-Rad). DNA molecular weight standard

(BioRad, CHEF DNA size 8-48-kb) was used as reference.

**Generation of Stable BAC16-iSLK.RTA cell lines**

6-well plates of 70% confluent 293T cells in antibiotic-free 10% FBS DMEM were washed once

with PBS, and media was replaced with 1 mL serum-free, antibiotic-free 10% FBS DMEM per

well prior to transfection. 5 uL of re-suspended DNA was incubated with 100 uL Opti-MEM

reduced serum media (Thermo Fisher) for 5 minutes. Separately, 18 uL of polyethylenimine

(PEI, Polysciences) was incubated with 100 uL Opti-MEM, also for 5 minutes. These two

mixtures were combined, incubated for 15 minutes, and added dropwise to each well. Cells were

incubated at 37°C for 4 hours at which time the media was replaced with antibiotic-free 10%

FBS DMEM before further incubation at 37C.

At 48 hours post transfection, cells were expanded into 10-cm dishes. One day later,

media was removed and replaced with fresh antibiotic-free 10% FBS DMEM containing 20

ug/mL hygromycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The concentration of hygromycin was steadily

increased until a final concentration of 100 $\mu$g/mL was reached. When a confluent monolayer of

hygromycin-resistant BAC16 293T cells was achieved, cells were split once prior to liquid N2

storage in 90% FBS and 10% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma-Aldrich).

To generate latent iSLK cells, each population of BAC16-transfected 293T cells was

individually co-cultured with puromycin-resistant iSLK.RTA cells in a 6-well dish at a 2:1 ratio.

Once cells reached 80% confluency, media was replaced with antibiotic-free 10% FBS DMEM

containing 1 mM sodium butyrate (NaB, Sigma-Aldrich) and 20 ng/mL 12-O-

tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate (TPA, Sigma-Aldrich) to induce latent BAC16-293T cells to

produce progeny virions. At 96 hours post reactivation, cells were expanded into 10 cm dishes.

One day following expansion, media was replaced with antibiotic-free 10% FBS DMEM

containing 10 ug/mL puromycin and 100 $\mu$g/mL hygromycin. Hygromycin concentration was

steadily increased in approximately 50 $\mu$g/mL increments until a final concentration of 240

$\mu$g/mL was reached. Once a near-confluent monolayer of BAC16-iSLK.RTA cells was achieved,

cells were split once prior to liquid $N_2$ storage as above.

**Production of KSHV BAC16 Wild-type and Recombinant Virus**

Each population of BAC16-iSLK cells were reactivated using 1 ug/mL Doxycycline (Dox,

Sigma-Aldrich) and 1 mM NaB in antibiotic-free 10% FBS DMEM. At 72 or 96 hours post

infection, supernatants were collected and clarified at 4000 x $g$ to remove cellular debris and

virus-containing supernatant stored at -80°C prior to use.

***De novo* infection of Naïve HEK293T of HUVEC cells**

Sub-confluent (50-70%) 12-well plates of 293T or HUVEC cells were incubated with viral

inoculum diluted in antibiotic and serum free DMEM containing 8 $\mu$g/mL hexadimethrine

bromide (polybrene; Sigma-Aldrich). Plates were centrifuged at 800 x $g$ for 2 hours at room

temperature (61), the inoculum was removed and replaced with either antibiotic-free 10% FBS

DMEM (293T) or full EGM-2 (HUVECs). Cells were then returned to the 37°C incubator.

**Immunofluorescence**

Cells were seeded onto 18mm round (#1.5, Electron Microscopy Sciences) coverslips, infected

or treated as noted for each experiment and fixed for 10 minutes at room temperature in 4% (v/v)

paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences) in PBS. Samples were permeabilized with

0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS for 10 min at room temperature and blocked in

1% human AB serum (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary antibody was

diluted in 1% human AB serum (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS at the concentrations in Table 2 and

incubated overnight. The following day secondary antibody was likewise diluted in 1% human

AB serum, alongside Hoechst (ThermoFisher Scientific) for nuclear staining, at the

concentrations in Table 2 and incubated for one hour. Samples were mounted with Prolong Gold

AntiFade mounting media (ThermoFisher Scientific). Images were captured using a Zeiss

AxioObserver Z1 microscope with the 40X objective unless otherwise stated.

**Image analysis**

Image analysis was performed using CellProfiler (cellprofiler.org), an open source software for

image analysis (62). Quantification of hedls/EDC4 and LANA-nuclear body (NB) puncta was

performed as previously described (63) with the following modifications. Rather than staining

cells with wheat germ agglutinin to identify cell periphery, individual cell cytoplasms were

defined based on a 150 pixel propagation away from the Hoescht-stained nucleus. The number of

Hedls/EDC4 puncta within a defined cell cytoplasm was reported. To quantify the number of

puncta in KSHV-infected cells, a gating strategy was applied to include only cells with LANA-

positive nuclei and defined cell cytoplasms for Hedls/EDC4 puncta quantification. LANA-NBs

were defined by thresholding and size was measured using the "MeasureObjectSizeShape"

function, respectively. Object area refers to the number of pixels within the identified region. At

least 50 cells were quantified for each condition.

**Immunoblotting**

Cells were lysed in 1x Laemmli buffer (4% SDS, 20% glycerol, 120 mM Tris-Cl (pH 6.8) and

ddH$_2$0) and stored at -20°C until use. The DC Protein Assay (Bio-Rad) was used to quantify total

protein concentration as per the manufacturer's instructions. 10-15 µg of protein lysate was

resolved by SDS-PAGE on TGX Stain-Free acrylamide gels (BioRad). Membranes were blocked

in 5% BSA or 5% skim milk in Tris buffered saline-Tween20 (TBS-T). Primary and secondary

antibodies were diluted in 2.5% BSA or 2.5% skim milk, dilutions can be found in Table 1.

Membranes were visualized using ProtoGlow ECL (National Diagnostics) and the ChemiDoc

Touch Imaging system (BioRad).

**Intracellular viral genome qPCR**

Confluent 6-well plates of BAC16-iSLK.RTA cells were lysed using a DNeasy Blood and Tissue

Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's protocol. Isolated DNA was stored at -20°C until

further use. DNA was diluted 1:30 prior to qPCR amplification using SsoFast EvaGreen

Supermix (Bio-Rad) and viral ORF26 or cellular β-actin (control) primers as listed in Table 3.

Fold change in viral genome copy number was determined using the ΔΔ-Quantitation cycle (Cq)

method.

**Dnase-protected viral genome qPCR**

Supernatants from reactivated iSLK cells were harvested and clarified at 4000 x *g* for 5 minutes.

Aliquots of 180 µL were stored separately at -80°C prior to use. Supernatants were thawed at

37°C and mixed with 20 µL of a 500U DNaseI (NEB), 10X buffer and nuclease free water

mixture and incubated at 37°C for 30 minutes. DNA was then extracted using a DNeasy Blood

and Tissue Kit with the following adjustments: per sample, 500 µg of salmon sperm DNA

(Invitrogen) and 1 ng of a luciferase (*luc2*) containing plasmid (pGL4.26, Clontech) was added

to buffer AL prior to lysis. DNA was not diluted prior to qPCR amplification using SsoFast

EvaGreen Supermix (Bio-Rad) and viral ORF26 and *luc2* (control) primers as listed in Table 3.

Since every viral particle contains one genome, and one genome contains a single copy of the

ORF26 gene, the number of viral DNA molecules could be calculated. Fold change in viral

DNase-protected genomes was determined using the ΔΔ-Quantitation cycle (Cq) method.

**Statistics**

Data shown are the mean ± standard deviation (SD). Statistical significance was determined

using a repeated measures 1-way ANOVA with a Dunnett's post-hoc test or simple linear

regression analysis. *P* values are indicated in figures, (*, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$;

ns, nonsignificant). All statistics were performed using GraphPad Prism version 9.0.1.

**Data Availability**

All BAC16 virus sequences were deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) and are

accessible through the following SRA accession numbers: SAMN19671530 (WT KSHV

BAC16), SAMN19671876 (KSHV BAC16 ΔKapABC), SAMN19671877 (KSHV BAC16

ΔKapBC), SAMN19671902 (KSHV BAC16 ΔKapB), SAMN19672118 (KSHV BAC16

ΔKapC) and SAMN19672119 (KSHV BAC16 1X DRs).

## Results:

### Construction of a panel of kaposin recombinant BAC16 KSHV viruses

Work on the *kaposin* locus has been limited by the lack of recombinant viruses that target

this region. To address this limitation, we created a panel of recombinant viruses that delete

KapA, KapB and KapC individually or in combination. These recombinant viruses were created

using the KSHV bacterial artificial chromosome clone BAC16, which contains the pBelo45

plasmid inserted between the vIRF-1 and ORF57 genes of the JSC-1 KSHV isolate (58, 64). This

insertion encodes a red fluorescent protein (RFP) and a hygromycin resistance gene under the

control of a constitutive cellular promoter, to enable visual and chemical selection of BAC16-

containing cells, respectively. The wildtype (WT) kaposin mRNA encodes three open reading

frames (ORFs), KapA, KapB and KapC (Figure 1A). As a first step to create viruses that no

longer made one or more of these protein products, we removed the DR regions that encompass

the entire KapB ORF and most of the KapC ORF; in so doing, we created BAC16ΔKapBC. We

then mutated the KapA start codon in the context of BAC16ΔKapBC to create

BAC16ΔKapABC. However, creating single deletions of KapB and KapC by simple start codon

mutagenesis proved to be extremely difficult due to the GC-rich and repetitive nature of this

region. We decided to use an amino acid recoding strategy to construct BAC16 genomes that

failed to code for either KapB or KapC, but not both. While both ORFs are comprised largely of

23-nucleotide DRs that translate into 23-amino acid DRs, the ORFs are in different reading

frames. Using the BAC16 genome (accession #GQ994935), we designed two different gene

blocks with the nucleotide sequence of the DRs recoded. The first DNA construct was composed

of alternative codons that disrupted the protein coding capacity of the KapB ORF, due to several

nonsynonymous or nonsense mutations in the DRs but contained only synonymous nucleotide

changes in the KapC ORF that did not disrupt its amino acid sequence (ΔKapB; Figure 1B). The

second gene block coded for the inverse mutant; DRs were re-coded such that the KapC ORF

contained nonsynonymous or nonsense mutations, while the KapB ORF contained synonymous

mutations that did not disrupt its amino acid sequence (ΔKapC; Figure 1B). This strategy also

drastically decreased the GC-content of DR region from 78% to 59.6% or 63.3% for ΔKapB and

ΔKapC, respectively, facilitating the Lambda Red-based recombination events that followed and

enabling us to use colony PCR screening during mutagenesis.

We then tried to build a revertant in which the wild-type DRs were added back to

ΔKapBC to verify that off-target mutations did not occur during recombination. Our attempts to

re-insert full-length KapB/C ORF-containing DRs were unsuccessful, which we suspect is due to

recombination with the GC-rich, repetitive nucleotide constructs that led to partial or incomplete

recombination products, but also due to the difficulty in screening the successful recombination

of a GC-rich and repetitive region by colony PCR. However, we were able to successfully

reinsert a "mini" kaposin region comprised of 1 copy (23 amino acids) of each DR into the

ΔKapBC virus. The annotated wild-type (WT) BAC16 *kaposin* locus (accession #GQ994935)

contains 9 and 7 copies of DR1 and DR2 respectively; therefore, we called this "mini-revertant"

BAC16-1X DRs (Fig 1D). Previous work showed that ectopic expression of "mini" KapB,

containing 1X DRs, retained some functionality (46), justifying its utility herein.

A two-step lambda Red-based recombination method in *E.coli* was used to facilitate

BAC16 mutagenesis (Fig 1C) (65). In the first round, we introduced our desired mutation

adjacent to a KanSacB cassette for easy selection of successful recombinant BACmids. Colonies

that grew in the presence of kanamycin were verified by colony PCR to confirm recombination.

Using primer sets that bound the *kaposin* locus internally and externally, we were able to verify

both the orientation and size of each insert. In the second round of recombination, the KanSacB

cassette was removed, leaving only the desired mutation behind. Colonies that were screened

after this step were no longer sensitive to growth on 5% sucrose, as they had lost SacB, but were

rendered kanamycin sensitive. Colonies which grew accordingly were then screened using the

externally binding primer set, to confirm the correct size of each insert following KanSacB

removal and PCR products were sequenced by Sanger sequencing to confirm the desired

mutation had occurred within the *kaposin* locus.

We next isolated each recombinant BACmid from *E.coli* and performed whole genome

sequencing (WGS). Mapping of reads to the BAC16 reference genome (NCBI accession

#GQ994935) using Geneious Prime (60) revealed an average coverage per nucleotide of between

670 and 1430x.  Subsequent analysis of variants revealed that no off-target mutations had

occurred during recombination (Figure 2A). Few variants were observed and these occurred

within repetitive regions of the KSHV genome that also displayed low coverage, as previously

shown (66–68). Outside of these, the only other variants detected were located in the region

between the genes for vIRF-1 and ORF57 (Figure 2A). This is to be expected, as this is where

the pBelo45 plasmid was inserted to facilitate the creation of BAC16, thereby altering the wild-

type nucleotide sequence in this genomic location (58). We focused our attention to the kaposin

DRs in WT BAC16. The repetitive nature of this sequence makes it difficult to resolve by WGS

(69) and we observed low coverage.  There was no coverage in the DR region for both

ΔKapABC and ΔKapBC constructs, consistent with the complete removal of the DRs (Figure

2A). In contrast, we observed high read coverage of the recoded kaposin regions in ΔKapB and

ΔKapC viruses as recoding decreased the repetitive and GC-rich nature of the DRs (Figure 2B,

only WT and ΔKapB shown for simplicity). The consensus sequences produced for these regions

matched our recoded gene blocks, reaffirming successful recombination. Given the difficulty in

resolving DR regions through Illumina sequencing (69), we also checked the BAC16 genomes

using restriction fragment length polymorphism. BAC16 DNA isolated from *E.coli* was digested

using the restriction enzyme NheI, followed by pulse field gel electrophoresis (PFGE) to resolve

fragments. We observed fragment sizes consistent with predictions from *in silico* analysis using

NCBI accession #GQ994935 with the exception of the fragment comprised largely of terminal

repeats (TRs). We predicted that the TR-containing fragment should migrate at 33 kbp; however,

we did not observe a fragment of this size and instead observed an unexpected fragment

migrating at approximately 18 kbp. This suggested a deletion of approximately 15 kbp, or 19

copies of the 801bp sequence, within this region. This deletion has previously been observed in

BAC16 (70) because the highly repetitive nature of the TRs, as well as their high GC-content,

renders them sensitive to recombination events (71, 72). The altered size of the TR fragment was

found in WT BAC16 and in all five recombinant viruses, suggesting the event occurred prior to

our mutagenesis. PFGE analysis also revealed a second size discrepancy within the predicted

kaposin-containing fragment which WGS was unable to resolve due to the repetitive nature of

the region.  Based on *in silico* analysis, we expected a 1200 bp fragment, yet the digestion of our

WT BAC16 genome produced a 1000 bp fragment. This suggests that over time the WT BAC16

construct lost 200bp, or approximately three 23-amino acid repeats, within the DR region,

making our recoded kaposin locus in ΔKapB and ΔKapC viruses longer than the kaposin locus in

WT BAC16. Because different KSHV isolates possess variable numbers of repeats (45), it is not

surprising to observe that this repetitive genomic area experienced DR contraction during

BAC16 DNA copying, like has been observed for the *kaposin* locus in KSHV. In future studies,

we hope to decipher whether there is any functional significance to the number of each kaposin

DR1 and DR2 for KSHV replication.

**Generation of stable BAC16-iSLK.RTA cell lines**

After sequencing, the BAC16 mutant genomes were used to generate stable iSLK cell

lines. A workhorse cell line for KSHV research, iSLK cells have been engineered to express the

viral lytic switch protein, RTA, in a Doxycycline (Dox)-inducible manner (59). These cells are

especially useful for KSHV research as they maintain tight control of latency and produce large

quantities of virus following the addition of Dox (59). However, iSLK cells were refractory to

transfection in our hands; thus, we first transfected BAC16 DNA into 293T cells to create stable

BAC16-293Ts for each BACmid (Figure 3A), as in (70). The efficiency of 293T transfection

was between 20-30%, as estimated by RFP expression. We gradually selected the transfected

cells with hygromycin until a confluent monolayer of RFP+ 293T cells was achieved (Figure

3B). Via quantitative PCR (qPCR) for viral DNA (ORF 26), we analyzed intracellular genome

copy number for each kaposin-deficient recombinant and found that intracellular genome copy

number was similar to WT in each case (Figure 3C).

BAC16-containing 293T cells were then co-cultured with naïve iSLKs and reactivated

using a histone deacetylase inhibitor (NaB) and a protein kinase C agonist (TPA) to produce

progeny virions (73–76). All kaposin-deficient viruses were able to infect naïve iSLKs judging

by RFP expression. The population of kaposin-deficient latent iSLK cells for each recombinant

was then expanded via gradual selection in the presence of hygromycin to eliminate uninfected

cells and puromycin to eliminate BAC16-293T cells, until a confluent layer of RFP-positive cells

was achieved (Figure 3D). Immediately after selection, we analyzed the features of our iSLK

latent cell lines. RFP-positive iSLKs cells were then stained by immunofluorescence to visualize

the viral latent protein LANA, which forms nuclear puncta called LANA nuclear bodies (NBs)

during KSHV infection (9–12) that were visible in all our kaposin-deficient latent iSLK cell lines

(Figure 3E), suggesting latency was successfully established. Using qPCR to quantify

intracellular genome copy number of our panel of latent iSLKs, we revealed that kaposin-

deficient iSLKs contained 10-40% of the genome copies observed in latent WT iSLKs (Figure

3F). These observations suggest the possibility that KSHV recombinant viruses that lack the

*kaposin* locus display defects in their ability to establish latency and/or undergo genome

amplification immediately following *de novo* infection, a step that serves to increase latent

episome copy number (6, 7).

Considering the possibility that *kaposin*-deficient KSHV recombinant viruses could be

less efficient at maintaining KSHV latency once already established, we decided to test how well

each latent cell population would maintain the viral genome compared to WT BAC16 latent

iSLKs in the absence of selective pressure. We passaged each latent cell line fifteen times in the

absence of hygromycin and determined intracellular genome copy number at each passage.

While WT BAC16 iSLKs displayed minimal episome loss over 15 passages (14, 77), we

observed that three of our kaposin-deficient recombinant viruses displayed accelerated genome

loss: ΔABC, ΔBC, and 1XDRs revertant whereas ΔKapB and ΔKapC genome copy number

remained steady over time (Figure 4A-B).  Taken together with Figure 3, these data suggest that

the *kaposin* locus is important for the establishment of KSHV latency and may also contribute to

its maintenance.

**Cells latently infected with kaposin-deficient viruses produce progeny virions when**

**reactivated**

Having created latently infected iSLK cell lines for each of our recombinant viruses, we

first confirmed the absence of KapB and/or KapC protein products after 24 hours of reactivation

of our ΔABC, ΔBC, and ΔB/ΔC latent iSLK cell lines by immunoblotting with a DR1-specific

antibody (45) (Figure 5A). WT-infected cells exhibited a range of DR-specific banding as has

been previously observed, suggesting additional isoforms of KapB or KapC can be translated

(45, 46). Predominant bands at approximately 41kDa and 35kDa corresponded to the predicted

molecular weights of full-length KapC and KapB, respectively. As expected, due to the absence

of DR1 epitopes in these mutants, no KapB or KapC protein was detected in lysate from

reactivated ΔKapABC or ΔKapBC iSLKs. We observed a faint band was detected at ~46kDa in

lysate derived from ΔKapB-infected iSLKs which corresponds to the predicted molecular weight

of re-coded KapC (Figure 4A). This version of KapC is larger than that encoded by our WT

BAC16 because of the loss of DRs in our version of WT BAC16 (Figure 2). A prominent band

was consistently observed at ~42kDa in lysate from ΔKapC-infected iSLKs which corresponds

to the predicted molecular weight of re-coded KapB (Figure 5A), also larger than WT-derived

KapB for the same reason (Figure 2). No bands were observed in lysate from 1X DRs-infected

iSLK cells; we predict this is because there is only one DR1 epitope in this small protein. We

attempted to produce an IgY specific antibody (78) to recognize KapA; however, the antibody

failed to detect KapA in WT infection, making it not useful for our studies.

To determine if each of our kaposin-deficient iSLK cell lines was capable of reactivation,

completion of a full lytic replication cycle, and the production of progeny virions, we reactivated

the cell lines with Dox, to activate RTA expression, and NaB and measured intracellular genome

copy number by qPCR at 24, 48, 72, and 96 hours post reactivation. Genome copy number at

each time point was normalized to its matched starting genome copy number in latency since

each of the latent cell lines had a different episome copy number (Figure 3F) prior to

reactivation. For all recombinants, viral genome copy number significantly increased between 48

and 72 hours after reactivation (Figure 5B). WT and ΔKapB viruses exhibited ~15-fold increase

in intracellular genome copy number over latent copy number, ΔKapABC, ΔKapC and 1X DRs

viruses demonstrated a ~40-fold increase, and ΔKapBC virus genome copy number increased

~200-fold by 96 hours post reactivation. We then determined how the reactivation process

altered viral genome copy number for each kaposin-deficient recombinant relative to WT and

observed that all kaposin-deficient viruses except for ΔKapB reached the same relative genome

copy number as WT by 96 hours post reactivation despite starting with less genomes than WT

(Figure 5C). These data show that all kaposin-deficient viruses are capable of genome replication

to increase viral DNA copy number after reactivation. Because the starting point of the

reactivation process was unequal in latency (Figure 3G), we were hesitant to draw quantitative

conclusions about the efficiency of genome replication after reactivation between our panel of

kaposin-deficient viruses.

We next determined if kaposin-deficient reactivated iSLK cells released progeny virus

particles into the media. To do so, we harvested the virus-containing supernatant at 96 hours post

reactivation and subjected it to DNase digestion to eliminate unencapsidated viral DNA, then

lysed the remaining encapsidated viruses, extracted the capsid-protected DNA and conducted

qPCR for viral DNA (Figure 5D). We found that kaposin-deficient viruses released similar

numbers of DNase-protected viral genomes to WT apart from the 1X DRs revertant which was

decreased 10-fold compared to WT (Figure 5D). Although this observation suggests that the

ability to package genomic material, assemble and release progeny virus does not require the

*kaposin* locus, we and others have observed that extracellular genome copy number does not

always correlate with infectious virus (21). To determine whether released virus from each

kaposin-deficient latent iSLK cell line were competent to infect naïve cells, we incubated a naïve

monolayer of 293T cells with supernatant from reactivated iSLK cells and 24 hours later, stained

cells for the latent protein LANA. We identified LANA-expressing cells in all 293T cell

monolayers infected by the panel of kaposin-deficient recombinant viruses, (Figure 5E) showing

that each kaposin-deficient virus can produce infectious progeny virions. This is consistent with

our earlier observations using the 293T-iSLK co-culture system, as this method of latent cell line

creation relies on successful lytic replication and virion production.

**Latent iSLK cells that lack Kaposin B display altered latency phenotypes**

Previous work from our lab used ectopic overexpression of KapB to characterize its

function independent of viral infection. Consequently, we were most interested in analyzing the

behaviour of the ΔKapB recombinant virus. We reactivated WT and ΔKapB-BAC16 iSLKs to

produce progeny virus, equalized extracellular genomic copy number, and infected naïve cells for

24 hours; however, we saw very few LANA-positive cells post infection (Figure 6A). Given the

inconsistencies between stable BAC16 cell lines reported by others (79, 80), we decided to re-

derive another ΔKapB-latent iSLK cell line. Using the same population of ΔKapB-BAC16-

transfected 293Ts cells and an identical protocol for co-culture, selection and expansion, we

produced a new ΔKapB iSLK cell line that we will refer to as ΔKapB-2 iSLKs, while our

original ΔKapB iSLK cell line will be referred to as ΔKapB-1. Following ΔKapB-2 iSLK

reactivation, we noticed a greater cytopathic effect in reactivated ΔKapB-2 iSLKs than

previously observed in reactivated ΔKapB-1 iSLKs. We then equalized extracellular particle

number as above, infected naïve cells with ΔKapB-2 BAC16 and observed a 2-fold reduction in

LANA-positive cells compared to WT virus (Figure 6B), a great improvement compared to

ΔKapB-1. The large difference between infectious progeny production from ΔKapB-1 versus

ΔKapB-2 latent iSLKs prompted us to derive two additional ΔKapB iSLK cell lines as described

above, termed ΔKapB-3 and ΔKapB-4. We compared several features between these four

ΔKapB iSLK cell lines. We noted that although all four latent cell lines were RFP-positive,

ΔKapB-1 latent iSLK cells did not fluoresce as brightly as WT or the other ΔKapB latent cell

lines (Figure 6C). We stained these latent cells for LANA nuclear bodies (NBs) and observed

several differences between LANA NBs present in latent WT iSLKs compared to the four

ΔKapB latent iSLK cell lines (Figure 6D). Although WT latent cells had fewer LANA NBs per

cell than all four ΔKapB latent cell lines (Figure 6E), WT LANA NBs averaged a much larger

area than in ΔKapB latent cell lines (Figure 6F). Of the four ΔKapB latent cell lines, ΔKapB-4

displayed LANA NB character that most closely resembled WT; namely, fewer LANA NBs that

were brighter and larger (Figure 6D-F). However, all four ΔKapB latent cell lines showed

episome copy number ~10-25% that of WT latent iSLKs (Figure 6G). Of these, ΔKapB-2 and

ΔKapB-4 had the higher genome copy number, consistent with ΔKapB-2 iSLK improved

reactivation (ΔKapB-2, Figure 6B) and ΔKapB-4 iSLK LANA NB character (ΔKapB-4, Figure

6D-F). In addition, all four ΔKapB latent cell lines displayed reduced steady-state levels of

LANA protein compared to WT (Figure 6H). Taken together, these distinct differences clustered

the four ΔKapB iSLK latent cell lines as defective compared to WT in terms of key latency

phenotypes such as LANA NB area, steady-state levels of LANA protein, and KSHV genome

copy number.

**KapB is required for processing body disassembly after *de novo* infection of HUVECs**

We have previously shown that ectopic expression of KapB in human umbilical vein

endothelial cells (HUVECs) is sufficient to recapitulate key phenotypes associated with KSHV

latency, including the disassembly of processing bodies (PBs), cytoplasmic RNA and protein

granules whose loss correlates with enhanced inflammatory cytokine RNAs (51, 53–57). To

determine if KapB was necessary for KSHV-induced PB loss, we reactivated ΔKapB-2 latent

iSLK cells and used this virus to infect HUVECs. After 96 hours post infection, we fixed the

infected cells and stained the monolayer for both LANA and for a PB-resident protein called

Hedls/EDC4 (81, 82). We observed that ~80-90% of the cell monolayer was infected with either

ΔKapB BAC16 or WT BAC16 virus. In LANA-positive cells that were infected with WT virus,

we observed a two-fold decrease in PBs per infected cell compared to the mock-infected control

(Figure 7A-B), as shown previously (51). In LANA-positive cells infected with ΔKapB-2 virus,

PB numbers were not significantly altered relative to the mock-infected control (Figure 7A-B).

We also confirmed that WT-infected HUVECs expressed KapB, but that KapB was absent in

ΔKapB-infected HUVECs (Figure 7C). These data reveal for the first time that the KapB protein

is required for KSHV-induced PB disassembly following *de novo* infection.

We previously showed that ectopic expression of KapB is sufficient to induce primary

ECs to elongate and spindle, thereby recapitulating the morphology of infected cells within KS

lesions (51, 83). However, others have observed that ectopic expression of v-FLIP likewise

elicits EC spindling (84) and that the deletion of v-FLIP from the viral genome eliminates EC

spindling, although this effect is overcome at high multiplicity of infection (85). To test if KapB

is necessary for EC spindling, we used WT of ΔKapB BAC16, derived as above, to infect

HUVECs, fixed cells at 96hpi and visualized spindling at low magnification by brightfield

microscopy or at high magnification by staining fixed cells with phalloidin to label actin

filaments. Robust cell spindling was observed in LANA-positive, WT-infected cells (Figure 7D).

We also observed spindled cells in LANA-positive, ΔKapB-infected HUVECs (Figure 7D). We

conclude that although ectopic expression of KapB is sufficient to elicit EC spindling (51), it is

not necessary for EC spindling during KSHV latency.

**Discussion:**

The kaposin locus comprises a significant portion of the coding capacity of the KSHV latency locus, yet its role in KSHV latent and lytic replication is not fully appreciated. Prior to this report, the KSHV field lacked recombinant viruses to enable functional analysis of individual kaposin proteins in the context of KSHV infection. Here we described the construction and validation of a suite of kaposin-deficient recombinant viruses using the BAC16 bacterial artificial chromosome and a panel of corresponding stable iSLK cell lines. We deleted or recoded kaposin ORFs individually or in combination, generating several mutants: ΔKapABC, ΔKapBC, ΔKapB, ΔKapC and a partial revertant, 1xDRs. We showed that all kaposin-deficient viruses are capable of establishing latency in iSLKs, replicating the viral genome upon reactivation, and producing progeny virions that can be used for *de novo* infection of naïve cells. Despite this, all kaposin-deficient latent iSLK cells lines displayed reduced viral genome copy number during latency compared to WT. In addition, we characterized four derivations of ΔKapB-iSLKs and showed that these cells not only have markedly reduced genome copy number, but also reduced LANA NB area and LANA protein level. Together, these data suggest that the kaposin locus plays a role in latency establishment. Finally, we used ΔKapB BAC16 to show that KapB is not only sufficient but also necessary for KSHV-mediated PB disassembly following *de novo* infection of primary ECs, verifying the contribution of an individual kaposin protein to KSHV biology. This toolkit will allow us to interrogate the role of the kaposin locus in KSHV replication with unprecedented precision, making it a significant advance for the field.

Previous knowledge about the role of the kaposin locus was derived from studies using the ectopic expression of individual kaposin ORFs (47, 51, 52, 86–88). To date, no comprehensive kaposin-deficient BAC16 studies have been published. Toth *et al*., created a

kaposin knockout BAC16 virus by deleting a 1319-nucleotide region that included the coding

region of KapA and the majority of the coding regions of KapB and KapC (89). This

recombinant virus was used to test for the recruitment of proteins from polycomb repressive

complexes 1 and 2 to two lytic viral promoters after primary infection of SLK cells (89). For this

phenotype, the kaposin knockout virus displayed no difference from WT, but aside from this, no

additional analyses related to this mutant were reported. Gallo *et al.* created a K12 mutant in

which a kanamycin cassette disrupts the K12 ORF, but reported limited phenotypic analysis

related to this virus (90). Finally, Campbell *et al*. investigated the role of the RTA-responsive

element (RRE) promoter in the kaposin locus, and in so doing created a K12 RRE-mutant;

however, this study focused solely on RTA-recruitment and genomic architecture (91). In the

current study, our recombinant viruses were created by removing all DR1 and DR2 sequences

(ΔKapBC) with or without mutagenesis of the KapA ORF start codon (ΔKapABC), or by

replacing the DR region with alternatively coded nucleotide sequences (ΔKapB and ΔKapC).

Our recoding strategy had several advantages. First, the translation potential of the *kaposin* locus

was reduced by insertion of multiple termination codons, eliminating expression of some protein

products while maintaining other ORFs by alternative codon usage. Second, recoding destroyed

the repetitive nature of the locus and decreased the GC-content, making the region much more

amenable to error-free homologous recombination. Third, in all of the recombinant kaposin-

mutant BACs, regulatory sequences for transcription and miRNA processing were left intact. We

also created corresponding latent iSLK cell lines for the kaposin-deficient BAC16 constructs. All

four of these kaposin-deficient latent iSLK cell lines showed drastic reductions in viral genome

copy number compared to WT. The cell lines were created by co-culturing BAC16-transfected

HEK 293Ts with naïve iSLKs, a widely used method reported to be more efficient than direct

transfection of recombinant BAC16 DNA, that leverages cell-to-cell spread of virions from

reactivated 293T cells to iSLKs (5, 59, 70, 92). Despite using this strategy, we failed to produce

latent cell lines that contained high genome copy numbers for any of the kaposin-deficient

BAC16 DNA. We repeated the co-culture procedure for the most impaired of these four times,

and each attempt yielded similar results; all four ΔKapB iSLK cell lines displayed reduced viral

episome number and altered LANA NBs compared to WT BAC16 cells. Although these data are

consistent with the idea that kaposin-deficient viruses are impaired in one or more key steps

required for the establishment of latency, further study is required to characterize the nature of

this defect.

LANA expression and function is central to the establishment of KSHV latency. LANA

forms homo-oligomers and binds the terminal repeat (TR) regions of the KSHV genome while

simultaneously binding histones H2A and H2B of host chromatin, thereby tethering the viral

DNA to host chromosomes (8, 10, 11, 93). This binding leads to the formation of structures

called LANA NBs that colocalize with viral genomes (10, 94, 95). The number of LANA-

positive puncta in an infected cell correlates with the number of viral episomes (13). KSHV *de*

*novo* infection of a cell monolayer is heterogenous and results in variable levels of intracellular

viral genomes between individual latent cells, and this heterogeneity is also represented by

diverse LANA NB number per cell (13). Therefore, robust LANA NB staining is a marker for

successful latency establishment. We and others have observed heterogenous LANA NB size

within and between latent infected cells; however, the significance of this size variability is less

clear. Because LANA can bind to nucleosomes in cellular chromosomes as well as those bound

to viral episomes (15),  LANA NBs are classified as supramolecular structures that cluster

multiple viral episomes together (12, 95). Genome clustering was proposed to be an effective

evolutionary strategy that allows KSHV to rapidly increase viral genome copy number per cell at

the expense of total number of cells infected (15).  It is not yet clear if a minimum number of

viral episomes are required to create a supramolecular LANA NB after *de novo* infection;

however, WT KSHV does preferentially form clustered LANA NBs (15). We have observed that

latent ΔKapB iSLK cells possess LANA NBs that are less diverse in terms of size, and overall

much smaller than LANA NBs in WT iSLK cells. Therefore, we report an additional correlative

phenotype between low genome copy number and smaller LANA NBs observed in multiple

derivations of ΔKapB latent iSLK cell lines and speculate that ΔKapB iSLK cells do not contain

enough viral episomes to form large LANA NBs with clustered genomes.

The kaposin locus overlaps with one of two possible viral origins of lytic genome

replication, called OriLytR.  Though very few studies have interrogated the contribution of

OriLytR/kaposin to viral genome replication, detailed analyses on the function of OriLytL have

revealed that it facilitates genome copying after viral reactivation and upon *de novo* infection

(96–99). More recent work has shown an essential role for OriLytL transcription in viral genome

replication after *de novo* infection (99). We speculate that loss of the GC-rich kaposin repeat

region in our mutants impairs the contribution of OriLytR to viral genome copying that occurs

after *de novo* infection, as was observed for a recombinant virus lacking OriLytL (99). A

reduction in viral genome copy number after *de novo* infection would be predicted to impair

latency establishment and diminish the clustering of viral episomes into larger LANA NBs,

which may explain the different LANA NB phenotype we observed in all four ΔKapB iSLK

latent cell lines.  At odds with our model is that the loss of the kaposin region does not appear to

negatively impact viral genome replication after reactivation. We speculate that this step is not as

sensitive to the loss of one of two functional origins of lytic replication, as also observed for loss

of OriLytL. Further experimentation will be needed to reveal the precise mechanism by which

kaposin DR repeats may modulate viral abortive lytic replication and how this may impact

LANA NB formation, function and latency establishment.

KSHV latency predominates in most cells in culture and in KS tumours, suggesting viral

proteins expressed at this time are important in promoting tumourigenesis. We have previously

shown that ectopic expression of KapB in primary ECs recapitulates two features of the KS

lesion: cell spindling and elevated inflammatory cytokine expression via PB disassembly. Using

the ΔKapB BAC16 recombinant virus, we analyzed if KapB was not only sufficient but

necessary for these KSHV-associated tumor phenotypes. We show that after *de novo* infection of

HUVECs, ΔKapB BAC16 cells can induce cell spindling to a similar extent as WT BAC16

virus. These data are consistent with reports that the viral latent gene vFLIP is also capable of

causing endothelial cell spindling; therefore, the loss of KapB does not eliminate the spindling

phenotype (84). We propose that KapB and v-FLIP may act synergistically to promote EC

spindling during KSHV latency, and that in absence of one, the other is able to compensate. We

also used the ΔKapB BAC16 recombinant virus to determine if KapB was necessary for KSHV-

induced PB disassembly. PBs are cytoplasmic sites for the constitutive turnover or translational

suppression of ARE-containing inflammatory cytokine mRNAs (51, 53–57). We previously

showed that latent KSHV infection of primary ECs caused PB disassembly (51). Here, we also

observed that 96 hours after d*e novo* infection of HUVECs with WT BAC16, PBs were

disassembled. However, d*e novo* infection of HUVECs with ΔKapB BAC16 did not cause PB

disassembly. This reveals that KapB is both necessary and sufficient for PB disassembly during

KSHV latency and represents the first time that a phenotypic function can be specifically

attributed to a single kaposin protein in the context of KSHV infection.

Our group and others showed that PBs also decrease during lytic replication and that

more than one viral protein is sufficient for this effect (53, 100). Here, we observed PB

disassembly 96 hours after *de novo* infection of HUVECs, and we have previously shown PB

disassembly in latent HUVECs (51). In contrast, Sharma *et al.* reported that PBs were not lost in

a KSHV-infected latent primary effusion lymphoma cell line. This discrepancy could be

attributed to the use of B-lymphocytes in their studies or their visualization of PBs by staining

largely for the PB-resident protein GW182, an antigen that has been shown to adopt a punctate

pattern distinct from other PB marker proteins (100, 101). Taken together, the observation that

KSHV encodes multiple proteins in both phases of its replication to elicit PB disassembly

suggests the functional relevance of this phenotype for viral infection. Because PBs

constitutively repress many pro-inflammatory, angiogenic, or pro-tumourigenic cellular

transcripts, we propose that the absence of microscopically visible PBs may contribute to the

inflammatory and angiogenic KS microenvironment and that KapB is necessary for this effect in

KS lesions.

In summary, this work describes the construction and preliminary analysis of four

different kaposin-deficient BAC16 viruses and corresponding iSLK latent cell lines. We used

these mutants to specifically attribute the phenotype of PB disassembly following *de novo*

infection of primary to the viral protein KapB. This work also provides preliminary data to

suggest that the *kaposin* locus aids in the establishment of KSHV latency after primary infection,

a role that may suggest that the region derives function from its GC-rich direct repeats in

addition to its protein products. We hope these mutants will enable future studies to better

evaluate the roles of individual kaposin protein products during infection. Moreover, we believe

our strategy to recode protein products in multiple reading frames can serve as a mutagenesis

roadmap for understanding other complex, polycistronic viral loci.

**Acknowledgements**

We sincerely thank the members of the Corcoran lab for helpful discussions about this work including Ms. Julie Ryu for designing recoded ΔKapB sequence. We would like to thank Dr. Craig McCormick (Dalhousie University) for valuable feedback on this manuscript and the McCormick lab for plasmids, expertise and advice. We would like to thank Dr. Anne Vaahtokari of the Charbonneau Microscopy Facility, UCalgary for microscopy support. We would like to thank Dr. John Archibald (Dalhousie University) and the Archibald lab for help performing pulse-field gel electrophoresis and Dr. Jae Jung (Cleveland Clinic) for sharing the BAC16-RFP bacterial artificial chromosome. MK was supported by a CSM graduate training award and a CIHR CGS-M scholarship. GM was supported by a CRTP graduate training award. Operating funds to support this work derive from a CIHR Project Grant PJT-153210 to JAC.

**Author Contributions**

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**Conflict of Interest**

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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1095 **Table 1: BAC16 Mutagenesis Primers**

| Primer | Sequence |
| --- | --- |
| *Fwd. is forward primer*<br>*Rev. is reverse primer* | *Restriction enzyme recognition sites are bolded*<br>*BAC16 homology regions are underlined*<br>*Complementary target sequences are italicized.* |
| KanSacB Homology – Fwd. | 5' ATACAT**GGATCC***AGGATGACGACGATAA GTAGGGATAACAGGGTAAT* 3' |
| KanSacB Homology – Rev. | 5' ATTAGT**GCGGCCGC**<u>GGACATGAACTGCC ACAAACACCGTTAAGCCTCTATCCAT</u>*CAACCAAT TAACCAATTCTGAT* 3' |
| altKapC Homology – Fwd. | 5' ATACAT**GCTAGC**<u>CGGAGGACGGATCTCT TGGATTTACACGTATCGAGGAGCG</u>*GTAGCACCC CAGGAACCCGTCCTAGCACACCCCA* 3' |
| altKapC Homology – Rev. | 5' TGATTA**GGATCC**<u>GGACATGAACTGCCAC AAACACCGTTAAGCCTCTATCCATA</u>*CACTGAGAT TGAAGAG* 3' |
| altKapB Homology – Fwd. | 5' ATACAT**GCTAGC**<u>CGGAGGACGGATCTCT TGGATTTACACGTATCGAGGAGCG</u>*GTGGCACCC CAGGAACCCGT* 3' |
| altKapB Homology – Rev. | 5' TGATTA**GGATCC**<u>GGACATGAACTGCCAC AAACACCGTTAAGCCTCTATCCAT</u>*GCATAGGTAT AGGTGGTAGA* 3' |
| Kaposin Screening – Fwd. | 5' *<u>CAGGAAACGCTATAAAGAAGAGG</u>* 3' |

| | |
|---|---|
| Kaposin Screening – Rev. | 5' *ACAGACAAACGAGTGGTGGTATC* 3' |
| altKapC Screening – Rev. | 5' *ATTACCTGGAAGCAATGCACC* 3' |
| altKapB Screening – Rev. | 5' *TGATGAAGGAACTAGATTGCCAG* 3' |
| KanSacB Screening – Fwd. | 5' *GCGACAACCATACGCTGAGAG* 3' |
| Revertant Screening – Rev. (Homology primer) | 5' *ACACCGTTAAGCCTCTATCCAT* 3' |
| Revertant Screening – Rev. (Revert primer) | 5' *TGCATTGGGATTGGAGTGAGGA* 3' |

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1109 **Table 2: Antibodies**

| Antibody | Species | Vendor/Catalogue # | Application | Dilution |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hedls | Mouse | Santa-Cruz sc-8418 | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| KapB | Rabbit | A generous gift from Don Ganem | Immunoblot | 1:1000 |
| LANA | Rabbit | A generous gift from Don Ganem | Immunofluorescence Immunoblot | 1:1000 1:1000 |
| Alexa Fluor™ 647 Phalloidin | N/A | Thermo Fisher A22287 | Immunofluorescence | 1:100 |
| Alexa Fluor™ 488 | Chicken anti-Rabbit | Thermo Fisher A-21441 | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| Alexa Fluor™ 647 | Chicken anti-Mouse | Thermo Fisher A-21463 | Immunofluorescence | 1:1000 |
| Hoechst 33342 | N/A | Thermo Fisher H3570 | Immunofluorescence | 1:10000 |
| Beta-Actin HRP Conjugate | Rabbit | Cell Signaling Technologies 5125 | Immunoblot | 1:8000 |
| Anti-rabbit IgG HRP-linked | N/A | Cell Signaling Technologies 7074 | Immunoblot | 1:3000 |

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1116 **Table 3: qPCR primers**

| Primer | Sequence |
|---|---|
| qPCR ORF26 – Forward | 5' CAGTTGAGCGTCCCAGATGA 3' |
| qPCR ORF26 – Reverse | 5' GGAATACCAACAGGAGGCCG 3' |
| qPCR β-actin – Forward | 5' CTTCCAGCAGATGTGGATCA 3' |
| qPCR β-actin – Reverse | 5' AAAGCCATGCCAATCTCATC 3' |
| qPCR Luc – Forward | 5' TGCGCAAGAATAGCTCCTCC 3' |
| qPCR Luc – Reverse | 5' TTCGGCAACCAGATCATCCC 3' |

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 **Figure Legends**

 **Figure 1. Lambda Red recombination facilitates the creation of five kaposin-deficient**

 **BAC16 DNA constructs. (A)** A simplified version of the kaposin transcript is depicted in the 5'

 to 3' orientation. Open reading frames for kaposin A (KapA), kaposin B (KapB), and kaposin C

 (KapC) are indicated with corresponding AUG, GUG and CUG start codons for each. DR1 =

 direct repeat 1, DR2 = direct repeat 2, K12 = the KapA ORF. **(B)** An example of the re-coding

 strategy used to create the BAC16ΔKapB virus construct is shown. Wildtype nucleotide and

 corresponding amino acid repeats are show above with recoded nucleotides (red) and

 corresponding amino acid changes depicted below. **(C)** The Lambda Red recombination method

 used to create all kaposin-deficient BAC16 viruses is shown; the strategy for BAC16ΔKapB is

 depicted as an example. **(D)** Each kaposin-deficient BAC16 construct is shown relative to that of

 the wildtype *kaposin* locus in its genomic position (only reverse strand is shown for simplicity).

 **Figure 2. Confirmation of the panel BAC16 kaposin-deficient viruses. (A)** BAC16 DNA was

 isolated from GS1783 *E.coli* harbouring recombinant or WT BAC16 DNA and then subjected to

 whole genome sequencing (WGS). Raw reads were paired, trimmed, and mapped to the BAC16

 genome (NCBI accession #GQ994935) in Geneious Prime. Coverage for each recombinant is

 indicated in blue with an average coverage per nucleotide of between 670-1430x. BAC16 ORFs

 are depicted in turquoise, repeat regions in orange and the *kaposin* locus is outlined in red.

 Variants were detected based on a minimum coverage of 5 and minimum frequency variation of

 0.25 and are depicted in magenta. **(B)** Representative zoom panels of read alignment to the

 *kaposin* locus of WT and ΔKapB are shown. **(C)** BAC16 DNA was isolated from GS1783 *E.coli*

 and digested using NheI and fragments were subjected to pulsed-field gel electrophoresis

1154 (PFGE). Based on *in silco* predictions, *kaposin* locus containing fragments are indicated with a

1155 red asterisk.

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**1157 Figure 3. Generation of stable latent kaposin-deficient BAC16 iSLK cell lines by co-culture**

**1158 method. (A-D)** 293T cells were transfected with recombinant or WT BAC16 DNA. 48 hours

post transfection, cells were selected with hygromycin (increasing concentration from 50 μg/mL

to 100 μg/mL) until a confluent layer of BAC16-containing 293T cells was achieved. **(B)** Images

of BAC16-293Ts were captured using an EVOS-FL microscope with the 10X objective. **(C)**

Latent BAC16-293T cells were trypsinzed, pelleted and lysed to extract DNA. qPCR was

preformed using ORF26 and β-actin specific primers. Values are represented as fold change

relative WT. *n*=3; mean ± SD. **(D-F)** BAC16-293Ts were seeded in a 2:1 ratio with naïve iSLK

cells. Cells were treated with 1 mM NaB and 20 ng/mL TPA for 96 hours, virus-containing

supernatant was removed and replaced with media containing puromycin (10 μg/mL) and

hygromycin (increasing concentration from 200 μg/mL to 1200 μg/mL) until a confluent layer of

BAC16-containing iSLK cells was achieved **(E).** Latent iSLKs were fixed, permeabilized and

immunostained using antisera for viral LANA (green) to visualize infected nuclei and Hoescht to

visualize total cell nuclei (blue)**.** Images were captured using Zeiss AxioObserver Z1 microscope

with the 40X objective. Scale bar = 20 μm. **(F)** BAC16-containing iSLKs were trypsinized,

pelleted and lysed to extract DNA. qPCR was performed using ORF26 and β-actin specific

primers. Values are represented as fold change relative to WT. *n*=3; mean ± SD, (*, $P < 0.05$; **,

$P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ns, nonsignificant).

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**Figure 4. Removal of kaposin direct repeats accelerates KSHV episome loss from latent**

**iSLK cells.** Latent iSLK cells were serially passaged in the absence of hygromycin for a total of

14 passages. At each passage, a sample of cells was taken, pelleted and used for DNA extraction.

To quantify levels of viral DNA, qPCR was performed using viral ORF26 and host β-actin

specific primers. **(A)** Values are represented as fold change relative to genome copy number in

wild-type (WT) BAC16 iSLK cells at passages 1 (P1) $n = 3$; means ± SD, **(*, P < 0.05; **, P <**

0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, nonsignificant). **(B)** Values are represented as fold change relative to

the corresponding starting passage (P1), for each recombinant virus over the course of the

experiment. $n = 3$; mean ± SD. The red line was obtained using linear regression analysis and the

slope of the line is depicted in the top right corner for each graph.

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**Figure 5. Kaposin-deficient BAC16 iSLK cells produce progeny virions when reactivated.**

**(A)** BAC16-iSLK cells were reactivated using 1 μg/mL Dox for 24 hours prior to lysis and

immunoblotting using antisera that recognizes DR1 in both KapB and KapC. Specific antibody

to β-actin served as a loading control. One representative experiment of three is shown. **(B-C)**

BAC16-iSLK cells were reactivated with 1 μg/mL Dox and 1 mM NaB for 0, 24, 48, 72, or 96

hours. At each time point cells were trypsinized, pelleted and lysed to extract DNA. qPCR was

performed using ORF26 and host β-actin specific primers. Values represent either fold-change

relative to time 0 (latency) for each recombinant virus (B) $n=3$, mean ± SD, or fold-change

relative to WT at 0, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours post reactivation, (C) $n=3$; mean ± SD, **(*, P < 0.05;**

**, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, nonsignificant). **(D).** BAC16-iSLK cells were reactivated as

above for 96 hours, virus-containing supernatant was collected, clarified and DNase-treated prior

to extraction of virion-protected DNA. qPCR was performed using ORF26 and luciferase

(control) specific primers. Values represented fold-change relative to WT. *n*=3; mean ± SD, (*, P

< 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, nonsignificant). **(E)** BAC16-iSLK cells were reactivated

for 96 hours. Virus-containing supernatant for each recombinant cell line was then collected,

clarified, and diluted 1:4 with fresh DMEM and used to infect naïve 293T cells. After 24h, cells

were fixed, permeabilized and stained using antisera specific for viral LANA (green) and

Hoescht (nucleus, blue)**.** Images were captured using Zeiss AxioObserver Z1 microscope with

the 40X objective. Scale bar = 20 μm. One representative experiment is shown.

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**Figure 6. Primary infection of endothelial cells with BAC16ΔKapB virus is impaired.**

**(A-B)** Equal numbers of virus particles (based on DNase-protected extracellular genome copy

number) of WT and either ΔKapB-1 and ΔKapB-2 were used to infect HUVECs. 24h later, cells

were fixed, permeabilized and immunstained for viral LANA, then stained with Hoescht. The

number of LANA-expressing cells was quantified and is represented as a percent of the total

number of cells counted. *n*=2; mean ± SD. **(C)** Images of four different ΔKapB BAC16-iSLK

latent cell lines and WT BAC16-iSLKs were captured using an EVOS-FL microscope with the

10X objective. One representative experiment of two is shown. **(D-F)** Latent ΔKapB and WT

BAC16-iSLKs were fixed, permeabilized and immunostained for viral LANA, then stained with

Hoescht. LANA-NBs were visualized (D), and the number of LANA-NBs per cell was counted

using CellProfiler (E) *n*=2; mean ± SD. LANA-NB area was calcuated for at approximently 4000

individual LANA-NBs per cell line and the distribution of area shown in (F). **(G)** Latent ΔKapB

and WT BAC16-iSLKs were trypsinized, pelleted and lysed to extract DNA. qPCR was

preformed using ORF26 and β-actin specific primers. Values are represented as fold change

relative WT. *n*=3, mean ± SD**,** (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001; ns, nonsignificant). **(H)**

Latent BAC16-iSLKs were lysed and harvested for immunoblotting using LANA and β-actin

specific antibodies. One representative experiment of two is shown.

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**Figure 7. KapB is required for PB disassembly following *de novo* HUVEC infection. (A)**

WT and ΔKapB BAC16 viruses were titrated using 293T cells and RFP expression was used to

estimate an equal number of infectious virions for subsequent *de novo* infection of HUVECs. At

96hpi, HUVECs were fixed, permeabilized and immunostained for either viral LANA (green),

the PB-resident protein Hedls/EDC4 (white) then stained with Hoescht (nucleus, blue). Images

were captured using Zeiss AxioObserver Z1 microscope with the 40X objective. Scale bar = 20

μm. **(B)** Hedls puncta per cell were quantified using CellProfiler. For mock infections, all cells

were counted; for WT and ΔKapB-infected cells, only LANA-positive cells were counted. Data

is represented as fold change in PBs per cell relative to mock infection. A repeated measures

one-way ANOVA was performed. *n*=4; mean ± SD, (*, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01; ***, P < 0.001;

ns, nonsignificant). **(C)** Cells infected as in (A) were lysed at 96 hpi and harvested for

immunoblotting using LANA, DR1 (KapB and C) and β-actin specific antibodies. One

representative experiment of three is shown. **(D)** WT and ΔKapB BAC16 viruses were titrated as

in (A) prior to infecting HUVECs. At 96 hpi, brightfield images were acquired at 10X, cells were

fixed, permeabilized and immunostained for viral LANA (green). Phalloidin and Hoescht

staining was used to visualize actin (white) and nuclei (blue), respectively. Images were captured

using Zeiss AxioObserver Z1 microscope with the 40X objective. Scale bar = 20 μm. One

representative image of three experiments is shown.

# Figure 1

## A

## B

### WT BAC16 *kaposin* DRs

### ΔKapB BAC16 *kaposin* DRs

## C

## D

# Figure 2

Figure 3

RFP/LANA/Hoechst

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

|  | Hedls | Merge | Zoom |
|---|---|---|---|
| Mock | | | |
| WT | | | |
| ΔKapB | | | |

**Hedls/RFP/LANA/Hoechst**

B

PBs/cell
Fold Change Relative to Mock

Mock    WT    ΔKapB-2

*

C

250
150

LANA

KapC
KapB

β-actin

Mock  WT  ΔKapB

D

|  | Actin | LANA | Merge | Brightfield |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mock | | | | |
| WT | | | | |
| ΔKapB | | | | |

**Actin/LANA/Hoechst**