Minor variants of swine H1N1 influenza viruses with enhanced polymerase

activity and HA stability promote airborne transmission in ferrets

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ABSTRACT

Understanding how animal influenza A viruses (IAVs) acquire airborne transmissibility in humans and ferrets is needed to prepare for and respond to pandemics. Previously, we showed that hemagglutinin (HA) protein stabilization promotes replication and airborne transmission in ferrets using swine H1N1 gamma strains P4 and G15 (Hu et al. 2020). Here, we show that a combination of enhanced polymerase activity and HA stability is necessary for efficient airborne transmission in ferrets and that minor variants containing both properties are quickly selected. P4 and G15 were found to have decreased polymerase activity and relatively poor HA stability, respectively. Polymerase-enhancing variant PA-S321 was selected in half of P4 isolates that airborne-transmitted in ferrets. HA-stabilizing variant HA1-S210 was selected in all G15-inoculated ferrets and was transmitted. With an efficient polymerase and a stable HA, purified G15-HA1-S210 had earlier and higher peak titers in inoculated ferrets and was recovered at a higher frequency after airborne transmission than P4 and G15. Pandemic risk-assessment studies may benefit from deep sequencing capable of identifying minor variants with human-adapted traits.

Introduction

IAVs circulate in numerous species, and it remains challenging to identify animal-origin IAVs at greatest risk to cause a pandemic in humans. In addition to bats (Tong et al. 2012, Tong et al. 2013, Kandeil et al. 2018), IAVs originate from a reservoir of wild aquatic birds (Webster et al. 1992). From wild birds, avian IAVs can infect and either directly or indirectly become endemic in wild and domestic birds, swine, humans, and other domestic or aquatic mammals (Long et al. 2019, Russell et al. 2018). IAVs have eight RNA gene segments that encode for over a dozen proteins including an RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp) complex (PB1, PB2, and PA) and the surface glycoproteins hemagglutinin (HA) and neuraminidase (NA) (Shi et al. 2014, Schrauwen et al. 2014). Antigenically diverse HA and NA subtypes have been identified and currently number from H1-H18 and N1-N11. H1N1 caused the 1918 Spanish influenza pandemic, circulated in humans until 1957, became endemic in swine, reemerged in humans in 1977, and caused the 2009 pandemic (pH1N1) (Webster et al. 2014, Schrauwen et al. 2014). In 1957, H1N1 was supplanted in humans by the H2N2 Asian influenza pandemic. H2N2 was supplanted by the H3N2 Hong Kong influenza pandemic in 1968. H3N2 viruses, along with pH1N1 and influenza B viruses, cause seasonal influenza in humans. H1N1, H1N2, and H3N2 viruses are currently endemic in swine (Webby et al. 2004, Gao et al. 2017, Walia et al. 2019). H1 swine viruses have been divided into six clades: alpha (1A.1), beta (1A.2), gamma (1A.3.3.3), H1pandemic (1A.3.3.2), delta1 (1B.2.2), and delta 2 (1B.2.1) (Anderson et al. 2013, Anderson et al. 2016). Swine gamma and pandemic clades diverged approximately twenty years ago and have caused numerous human infections (Pulit-Penaloza et al. 2019). Currently, H1 gamma clade is endemic in swine and frequently reassorts with human pandemic H1N1 isolates (Ducatez et al. 2011). Preparing for and responding to future human pandemics requires an understanding of viral traits and host markers

associated with human adaptation so that high-risk emerging viruses can be identified, and

countermeasures taken.

IAV adaptations that have been associated with human-to-human transmission include HA

receptor-binding specificity, HA stability, polymerase complex efficiency, HA-NA balance, NA

stalk length, interferon antagonism, and filamentous virus morphology (Lipsitch et al. 2016, Long

et al. 2019). During viral entry, the HA protein binds sialic acid-containing receptors. This triggers

virion endocytosis and acidification, which induces irreversible HA structural changes that cause

membrane fusion. Human-adapted IAVs contain HA proteins that preferentially bind α-2,6-linked

sialic acid (SA) receptors over α-2,3-linked ones, which are preferred by avian IAVs (Russell et

al. 2006, Schrauwen et al. 2014, Rajao et al. 2018, Van Hoeven et al. 2009, Peacock et al. 2020,

Herfst et al. 2020). In human- and ferret-adapted IAVs, the avidity of the HA protein for cell-

surface glycan receptors is balanced with the substrate selectivity and catalytic rate of the NA

protein (Lipsitch et al. 2016, Zanin et al. 2015, Baum et al. 1991, Yen et al. 2011, Handel et al.

2014). Decreased HA activation pH in the context of H5N1 viruses reduces replication and

transmission in avian species but increases nasal replication and is required for airborne

transmission in ferrets (Imai et al. 2012, Herfst et al. 2012, Shelton et al. 2013, Zaraket et al. 2013a,

Reed et al. 2010, Richard et al. 2017, Russell 2014, 2021). Similarly, HA stabilization occurred

during the adaptation of pH1N1 to humans (Maurer-Stroh et al. 2010, Klein et al. 2018). HA

stabilization has been shown to be necessary for airborne transmission of pH1N1 and swine H1N1

gamma viruses in ferrets, in part by increasing longevity of expelled virions (Russier et al. 2016,

Singanayagam et al. 2020, Hu et al. 2020).

The polymerases from avian IAVs are relatively inefficient at genome replication in

mammalian cells (Manz et al. 2012, Cauldwell et al. 2014) Therefore, they require adaptative

mutations in their polymerase complexes to replicate and transmit in mammals (Mehle et al. 2009,

Gabriel et al. 2011, Gabriel et al. 2014). Mammalian-adaptive PB2 mutations include T271A, G590S, Q591R, E627K, and D701N (Long et al. 2019). PB2-E627K, the best-characterized mutation, was present in the 1918 H1N1, 1957 H2N2, and 1968 H3N2 pandemic viruses and has been associated with avian H7N9 and H5N1 influenza virus adaptation in humans and other mammalian hosts (Liu et al. 2020, Hatta et al. 2001). The 2009 pH1N1 virus lacked the PB2-E627K mutation but had phenotypically similar mutations PB2-G590S/Q591R, which were located near residue 627. The swine H1N1 gamma viruses in the present study have mammalian-preferred PB2-G590S/Q591R mutations and avian-like PB2-E627 and PB2-D701.

Influenza pandemic risk assessment algorithms by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) and World Health Organization (WHO) explicitly consider HA receptor-binding specificity and indirectly account for other human-adaptive viral traits through airborne transmission studies (CDC. 2019, WHO. 2016). Ferrets are currently considered the gold-standard animal model to study transmission of influenza viruses (Van Hoeven et al. 2009, Belser et al. 2020). In a recent study, HA stabilization was shown to promote the replication and transmission of swine H1N1 IAVs in ferrets (Hu et al. 2020). Related isolates A/swine/Illinois/2A-1213-G15/2013 (H1N1) and A/swine/Illinois/2B-0314-P4/2014 (H1N1) had a single HA variation at residue 210 (H3 numbering) located between the receptor-binding domain heads, which resulted in HA activation pH values of 5.8 and 5.5, respectively. The G15 group had 3/3 airborne-transmission events in ferrets after selection of a stabilized variant (HA1-S210, HA activation pH 5.5). Despite also having an HA activation pH of 5.5, the P4 group had only 1/3 airborne transmission. The G15 and P4 viruses also contained polymerase gene variations at PB2-648 and PA-271, and P4 had minor variants at PA-321 and PA-386. Therefore, it was hypothesized that P4 and G15 differ in polymerase activity in addition to HA stability. Differences in both of these properties were suspected to modulate airborne transmissibility in ferrets. The objective of the

present study was to use these viruses to understand the relative contributions of HA stability and

polymerase activity in the replication and transmission of swine H1N1 gamma viruses in ferrets.

Results

  Impact of HA and polymerase variations on gamma virus replication in MDCK cells.
Whole-genome sequencing analyses showed that five amino acid variations existed between swine

H1N1 gamma viruses G15 and P4 (Figure 1A). In the present work, we designated the G15 virus

as G15-HA1-mixed, because this virus isolate contained 85% HA1-N210 and 15% HA1-S210

(Figure 1A). P4 contained 92% PA-N321, 8% PA-S321, 86% PA-D386, and 14% PA-N386, and

we designated this virus isolate as P4-PA-mixed. Aside from the minor variants, G15-HA1-mixed

and P4-PA-mixed differed from each other at HA1-210, PA-271, and PB2-648 (Figure 1A). From

G15-HA1-mixed, we isolated the majority population (G15-HA1-N210) and the minor variant

(G15-HA1-S210). Residue HA1-210 interacts with residues across the trimer interface in the head

domain. Therefore, the HA1-S210 variant most likely stabilizes the HA protein by resisting

dissociation of the heads relative to HA1-N210 (Hu et al. 2020).

  After infection in Vero cells, the highest pH at which G15-HA1-mixed and G15-HA1-
N210 were triggered to cause syncytium formation (cell-to-cell fusion) was 5.8 (Figure 1B). P4-

PA-mixed and G15-HA1-S210 had more stable HA proteins that were activated at pH 5.5 and 5.6,

respectively. The pH of virus inactivation was measured by exposing virus aliquots to media of

varying pH, neutralizing, and measuring residual infectivity. The pH at the midpoint of

inactivation of G15-HA1-mixed and G15-HA1-N210 were 5.75 and 5.8, respectively, while those

of P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-S210 were 5.6 (Figure 1C). Overall, HA activation pH values were

similar to virus inactivation values, G15-HA1-mixed and G15-HA1-N210 had relatively unstable

HA proteins, and P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-S210 had stabilized HA proteins.

Previous reports showed polymerase activity and/or HA stability may affect virus one-step

growth (Hu et al. 2016, Hu et al. 2017c, Russier et al. 2020). To explore this, we inoculated viruses

into MDCK cells at an MOI of 2 PFU/cell and measured the virus titers of the supernatants after

6- and 8-hours post-infection (hpi). Compared to P4-PA-mixed, the three other viruses had higher

titers at 6 hpi (Figure 1D). As P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-S210 have identical HA proteins,

enhanced replication at 6 hpi was mapped to the PA-P271 and PB2-L648 variations. At 8 hpi,

G15-HA-N210 had higher titers than the other three viruses. G15-HA1-N210 and G15-HA1-S210

were identical except for HA1 residue 210. Therefore, the HA1-N210 variation (HA activation pH

5.8) enhanced replication at 8 hpi in MDCK cells compared to HA1-S210 (pH 5.6). Similarly,

A/TN/1-560/09 (H1N1) Y17H (pH 6.0) yielded higher titers in MDCK after high-MOI inoculation

compared to A/TN/1-560/09 wild-type (pH 5.5) (Russier et al. 2020). Overall, both the HA

variation and the polymerase variations were found to modulate the production of infectious virus

in MDCK cells at relatively early time points.

G15 viruses had higher polymerase activity when compared to P4-PA-mixed. Virus

polymerase activity can be assessed by the accumulation of viral mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA, which

are produced in virus transcription and replication (Te Velthuis et al. 2018). To study the impact

of the PB2 and PA variations on polymerase activity, we compared G15-HA1-S210 and P4-PA-

mixed, which had identical HA genes. The viruses were inoculated into MDCK cells at an MOI

of 2 PFU/cell and resulting cell lyses and supernatants were harvested at 4 and 6 hpi. Compared

to P4-PA-mixed, G15-HA1-S210 had higher mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA levels at 4 and 6 hpi

(Figure 2A-B). G15-HA1-S210 also had higher viral loads in cell supernatants at 6 hpi (Figure

2C). Overall, the presence of PA-P271 and PB2-L648 in G15-HA1-S210 was associated with

higher polymerase activity, and these two variations were also present in G15-HA1-mixed and G15-HA1-N210.

Infection of donor ferrets inoculated with G15-HA1-S210, P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-mixed. While G15-HA1-S210 had relatively efficient polymerase activity and a stabilized HA protein, P4-PA-mixed had decreased polymerase activity and G15-HA1-mixed had a relatively unstable HA protein (Figure 3A). Two groups of three ferrets were directly inoculated with 10^6 PFU of each of these viruses, and naïve contact and airborne ferrets were introduced one day later (Figure 3B). Each group was evaluated in an isolated cubicle and personal protective equipment was changed before moving between cubicles to avoid cross contamination of viruses. For P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-mixed, data for the second cubicle was obtained previously (Hu et al. 2020) and combined with the present, repeated experiment (which was designated as cubicle one). This was done to reduce the number of animals used and maximize the use of data, complying with the USDA's policy on appropriate use of ferrets. Each cubicle was set to a temperature of approximately 22 °C and relative humidity 40-60 (Figure 3-figure supplement 1). All ferrets were monitored for body weight and temperature daily, and ferret nasal washes were collected every other day until day 14. Ferret sera were collected on day 21.

On day 1, G15-HA1-S210 donor ferrets had an average nasal wash titer of 2.18×10^7 TCID$_{50}$/ml, a value more than 10-fold higher than that of P4-PA-mixed (6.88×10^5 TCID$_{50}$/ml, $P = 0.0065$) and 100-fold higher than G15-HA1-mixed (1.08×10^5 TCID$_{50}$/ml, $P = 0.0001$) (Figure 3C and Table 1). G15-HA1-S210 had peak titers on day 1, while G15-HA1-mixed and P4-PA-mixed had mean peak titers on days 3 and 2.7, respectively (Figure 3D). Additionally, the average peak titer of G15-HA1-S210 in donor ferrets (2.18×10^7 TCID$_{50}$/ml) was significantly higher than that of G15-HA1-mixed (1.48×10^6 TCID$_{50}$/ml) (Figure 3E). Overall, G15-HA1-S210, which had

a stabilized HA and enhanced polymerase activity, had earlier and higher growth in the nasal cavities of inoculated ferrets.

Three of six ferrets inoculated with G15-HA1-S210 had >10% body weight loss for at least two days compared to only one of six ferrets inoculated with P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-mixed ($P = 0.04$ and 0.0055, respectively, Figure 3F). No significant differences in body temperature were observed between the donor ferret groups (Figure 3-figure supplement 2).

Contact and airborne transmission in ferrets. For all three groups, contact transmission occurred at 100% efficiency (6/6) (Figure 4A and 4C). All three viruses grew to similar average peak titers in contact ferrets (G15-HA1-S210, 6.6 $\log_{10}TCID_{50}$/ml, day 4.67; P4-PA-mixed, 6.8 $\log_{10}TCID_{50}$/ml, day 4.67; G15-HA1-mixed, 6.5 $\log_{10}TCID_{50}$/ml day 6. ANOVA summary $P > 0.05$). We re-cultured nasal washes individually in MDCK cells and harvested isolates growing to detectable titers. For contact groups, we obtained 18 isolates from the nasal washes for each virus (Figure 4D). There were no significant differences in body weight and temperature among the contact (and airborne) groups (Figure 4-figure supplements 1 and 2).

The frequency of airborne transmission was similar for all three groups with P4-PA-mixed, G15-HA1-mixed, and G15-HA1-S210 having overall seroconversion rates of 4/6, 5/6, and 4/6, respectively (Table 1). For P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-S210, airborne transmission occurred in cubicle 1 in 3/3 ferrets and in cubicle 2 in 1/3 ferrets (Figure 4C). For G15-HA1-mixed, airborne transmission occurred in cubicles 1 and 2 at frequencies of 2/3 and 3/3, respectively. Recovery of virus from the nasal cavities of airborne ferrets occurred for P4-PA-mixed, G15-HA1-mixed, and G15-HA1-S210 at overall frequencies of 4/6, 2/6, and 4/6 (Figure 4B). Thus, G15-HA1-mixed had a slightly higher seroconversion rate (5/6) that the other groups but a lower airborne virus isolation rate (2/6). One ferret in the G15-HA1-S210 had early nasal virus growth on days 2-6, while all of the other airborne ferrets shed nasal virus between days 8 and 14 (Figure 4B). Again, we re-

cultured ferret nasal washes in MDCK cells, and found more isolates growing successfully from the G15-HA1-S210 airborne group than from the airborne ferrets in the other two groups (Figure 4D and Table 1).

Minor variants selected during transmission enhanced the HA stability and polymerase activity of the mixed-population viruses. We obtained the whole genomes of viruses from ferret nasal washes by next-generation sequencing. For G15-HA1-mixed, the stabilized HA1-S210 became the dominant species within 1-3 days in donors and was transmitted to contact and airborne ferrets (Figure 5C). The transmitted variant was equivalent to the G15-HA1-S210 virus, which maintained the stabilizing HA1-S210 variation in all donor, contact, and airborne samples (Figure 5A). G15-HA1-S210 also contained a variety of minor variants in the donor, contact, and airborne ferrets (Figure 5A). PB1-E751STOP was the most-abundant variant in this group. However, PB1-E751STOP did not emerge on the initial day in airborne ferret A1, and it emerged with a much lower percentage in ferret A3 in cubicle 1 (Figure 5A). Additionally, we didn't detect this variant in the donor and contact ferrets. Therefore, this variant may not be associated with transmission.

P4-PA-mixed resulted in 3/3 airborne transmission events in cubicle 1 and 1/3 in cubicle 2. Minor variant PA-S321 represented approximately 8% of the inoculum, and this variant became the dominant species in 2/3 airborne-transmission events in cubicle 1 (Figure 5B, 6A). In cubicle 2, PA-N321S was recovered in 1/3 contact ferrets but was not recovered from the single airborne ferret. As PA-N321S has been identified as an important human-adaptive mutation for avian H5 influenza A viruses (Miotto et al. 2010, El-Shesheny et al. 2014), increased transmission in cubicle 1 versus 2 was most likely due to propagation of the PA-S321 variant. We plaque purified P4-PA-S321 and compared this virus *in vitro* to P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-S210. P4-PA-S321 had higher levels of mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA at 4 and 6 hpi in MDCK cells than P4-PA-mixed,

elevating polymerase activity to a level similar to G15-HA1-S210 (Figure 6B-C). Compared to P4-PA-mixed, P4-PA-S321 also yielded higher virions released from MDCK cells at 6 hpi (Figure 6E). P4-PA-S321 yielded RNA levels and virus titers similar to G15-HA1-S210 (Figure 6B-E). Therefore, PA-S321 increased the polymerase activity to a level similar to that of the G15 isolates, which had the alternative polymerase-enhancing variations PA-P271/PB2-L648.

The most prevalent variation in G15-HA1-mixed was HA1-S210, which became the dominant species in every ferret. The G15-HA1-mixed inoculum contained approximately 15% HA1-S210 (Figure 7A). HA1-S210 was present at a level greater than 90% in all donor ferrets within three days and was transmitted to all of the contact and airborne animals (Figure 7A). Therefore, all of the contact and airborne ferrets in all three groups contained the stabilizing HA1-S210 variation, resulting in almost all the recovered samples having HA activation pH values of approximately 5.6 (Figure 7B-D). All airborne-transmitted viruses contained a relatively stable HA protein.

In summary, P4-PA-mixed had decreased polymerase activity and its transmission could be enhanced by over representation of the PA-S321 variant, and G14-HA1-mixed had a relatively unstable HA protein and its transmission was enhanced by selection of the HA1-S210 variant. Out of thirteen airborne transmission events in ferrets across all three groups, two airborne-transmitted viruses maintained a phenotype of suboptimal polymerase activity and a stabilized HA while eleven had enhanced polymerase activity and a stabilized HA (Figure 8).

Discussion

Three viral traits thought to be necessary for human-to-human and ferret-to-ferret transmissibility by influenza A viruses are HA receptor-binding specificity for α-2,6-linked sialic-acid receptors, an HA protein relatively resistant to acid-induced activation/inactivation, and a polymerase complex capable of efficient replication in mammalian cells (Lipsitch et al. 2016, Long et al. 2019). The swine H1N1 gamma viruses studied here have been shown to bind α-2,6-linked receptors with high affinity in addition to having lower-level binding to α-2,3-linked receptors (Hu et al. 2020). P4-PA-mixed had a stabilized HA protein but lacked an efficient polymerase, and G15-HA1-mixed had an efficient polymerase but a relatively unstable HA protein. Both virus isolates contained minority variants at a level of 8-15% abundance that overcame the respective deficiency. These variants were selected in ferrets and accounted for 2/4 of P4-PA-mixed and 5/5 of G15-HA1-mixed airborne transmission events. Compared to P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-mixed, variant G15-HA1-S210, which contained both a stabilized HA protein and an efficient polymerase, had increased early growth in the nasal cavities of inoculated ferrets and was recovered in greater abundance from the nasal cavities of airborne-exposed ferrets. Overall, the data demonstrated that the combination of HA stability and polymerase efficiency is necessary for efficient airborne transmissibility of swine H1N1 gamma viruses in ferrets and that minor variants containing both traits can be rapidly selected and airborne transmitted when the majority of a virus sample lacks a stabilized HA or an efficient polymerase.

Multiple traits are required for IAV airborne transmissibility in ferrets, and it is important to understand if these traits must be acquired in a particular order or if they may evolve in any order. For IAVs already possessing α-2,6 receptor-binding specificity, the present study revealed two evolutionary pathways for the enhancement of ferret airborne transmissibility: (A) from a virus quasispecies that has an efficient polymerase, a minor variant with a stabilized HA protein

may be selected, or (B) from a virus quasispecies with a stabilized HA protein, a minor variant

with an enhanced polymerase may be selected.

With respect to pathway A, several other studies showed that an IAV containing α-2,6

receptor-binding specificity and an efficient polymerase but having a relatively unstable HA

protein can acquire airborne transmissibility in ferrets by acquiring an HA-stabilizing mutation.

Wild-type 2009 pH1N1 has an HA activation pH of 5.5, and a destabilizing HA1-Y17H mutation

increased this value to 6.0 (Russier et al. 2016, Russier et al. 2017, Russier et al. 2020). The HA1-

Y17H mutant was attenuated in ferrets and did not airborne transmit until acquiring stabilizing

HA2-R106K and HA1-H17Y mutations, which decreased the HA activation pH to 5.3 (Russier et

al. 2016). Mechanistically, HA stabilization was shown to increase replication in human airway

cells (Singanayagam et al. 2019), dampen Type I interferon responses in dendritic cells (Russier

et al. 2020), and increase the survivability of infectious virions after respiratory expulsion in ferrets

(Singanayagam et al. 2020). In another study, a recombinant virus was generated that contained

the HA from A/Vietnam/1203/2004 (H5N1) with two HA mutations that conferred α2,6 receptor-

binding specificity, and the other seven genes from A/California/04/2009 (H1N1) with a PB2-

E627K mutation that enhanced polymerase activity (Imai et al. 2012). This virus and an adaptive

mutant containing an HA1-N158D mutation that deleted a glycosylation on the HA head were

incapable of airborne transmissibility in ferrets. Instead, a final mutation needed for the acquisition

of airborne transmissibility was HA1-T318I in the stalk, which decreased the HA activation pH to

5.3. When HA-stabilizing mutations were introduced into other H5N1 viruses lacking α2,6

receptor-binding specificity, virus growth in the nasal cavities of ferrets was enhanced but airborne

transmission did not occur (Zaraket et al. 2013b, Zaraket et al. 2013a, Shelton et al. 2013).

With respect to pathway B, P4-PA-mixed had a stabilized HA protein and its airborne

transmission in several instances was associated with selection of the PA-S321 mutation that

enhanced polymerase activity. A/Indonesia/5/2005 (H5N1) acquired airborne transmissibility in ferrets by a combination of mutagenesis and adaptation that enhanced receptor-binding activity (HA-T156A and HA-Q222L or HA-G224S), polymerase activity (PB2-E627K and PB1-H99Y), and HA stability (HA-H103Y) (Herfst et al. 2012, Linster et al. 2014). These mutations arose in similar steps during adaptation, and viruses lacking any of the single mutations HA-T156A, PB2-E627K, PB1-H99Y, or HA-H103Y, or both the HA-Q222L or HA-G224S mutations, were loss-of-function for airborne transmission in ferrets. In the case of reassortant IAVs containing genes from the human 1918 virus and avian H1N1 viruses, the human HA gene enabled efficient contact transmission but did not allow airborne transmission in ferrets (Van Hoeven et al. 2009). Instead, the human 1918 PB2 protein was found to be both necessary and sufficient to enable ferret airborne transmission in the context of a virus that contained the human 1918 HA and NA genes.

Quasispecies have been associated with IAV fitness and virulence in various hosts (Lauring et al. 2010, Honce et al. 2020). In this study, minor variants of swine H1N1 viruses with enhanced polymerase activity or HA stability were selected in ferrets and associated with airborne transmissibility. The transmission of minor variants has been previously observed for IAVs in humans (Poon et al. 2016), equines (Hughes et al. 2012), and guinea pigs (Varble et al. 2014). This suggests minor variants, in addition to the majority population of a virus, need to be considered when assessing the risk of IAVs for human pandemic potential. Next-generation sequencing has been used to track the outgrowth of HA-stabilizing variants in ferrets in this study and others (Hu et al. 2020, Singanayagam et al. 2020, Russier et al. 2016, Russier et al. 2017). Deep sequencing of samples from H7N9-infected patients and their surrounding poultry/environment showed acquisition of the polymerase-enhancing PB2-E627K variation in humans (Liu et al. 2020). H3N2 and H1N1 growth in mice has been shown to not necessarily proceed through linear accumulation of adaptative mutations (Wasik et al. 2019). Overall, as next-generation sequencing becomes

cheaper, faster, and more efficient, real-time monitoring of human-adaptive variations may enable

better preparedness for future outbreaks.

Numerous studies have been performed to identify and characterize human- and ferret-adaptive mutations in IAVs. Examples include those focusing on the polymerase complex (Soh et al. 2019, Jones et al. 2020, Hu et al. 2017b, Hu et al. 2017c, Lee et al. 2021, Goldhill et al. 2021, Mehle et al. 2009, Cheung et al. 2014, Imai et al. 2020) and the HA protein (Lee et al. 2018, Lakdawala et al. 2015, Murakami et al. 2012, DuBois et al. 2011, Stevens et al. 2006, Byrd-Leotis et al. 2015, Zhong et al. 2014, Russier et al. 2017, Singanayagam et al. 2020, Linster et al. 2019, Zaraket et al. 2013b, Reed et al. 2009) In the present study, we found G15 isolates containing PB2-L648/PA-P271 had higher polymerase activities than P4-PA-mixed, which contained PB2-M648/PA-T271. PB2-L648 was previously shown to increase polymerase activity of an H10N8 virus (Xiao et al. 2016). The present study also showed that PA-S321 increased polymerase activity. PA-S321 has previously been identified as an adaptative marker for H5N1 influenza A viruses in humans (Miotto et al. 2010, El-Shesheny et al. 2014, Arai et al. 2020). The HA1-S210 mutation was shown to decrease the pH of HA activation and the pH of virus inactivation here and in our previous work (Hu et al. 2020).

In summary, a combination of efficient polymerase activity and a stabilized HA were found to enhance airborne transmission of swine H1N1 gamma viruses in ferrets, and these two properties may be acquired in either order. Human infections of seasonal influenza viruses have been far less frequent since the start of the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic, mask mandates, and social distancing. Widespread reemergence of seasonal influenza is expected to occur in the post-SARS-CoV-2-pandemic era. Ultimately, exotic IAVs in other species, especially swine, and the potential for cross-species transmission make it essential to monitor potential pandemic IAV strains and to assess their pandemic risk. Swine H1N1 gamma viruses are one of the most prevalent lineages in

swine (Diaz et al. 2017), have caused sporadic human infections in recent years (WHO. 2018,

Pulit-Penaloza et al. 2019), and have been shown here to acquire increased transmissibility in

ferrets by adaptive HA and polymerase mutations. A recent study has identified a swine Eurasian

avian-like influenza virus with pandemic traits (Sun et al. 2020). Surveillance and risk assessment

studies are needed for IAV pandemic preparedness in addition to studies investigating the

evolutionary pathways by which pandemic potential may arise and genetic and phenotypic traits

associated therewith.

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
animal (*Mustela putorius furo*)	Fitch ferret	Triple F Farms		male, 5-6 months old
cell line (*Canis lupus familiaris*)	MDCK, Madin-Darby Canine Kidney epithelial	ATCC	ATCC Cat# CCL-34, RRID:CVCL_0422	
cell line (*Chlorocebus sabaeus*)	Vero, African green monkey kidney epithelial	ATCC	ATCC Cat# CCL-81, RRID:CVCL_0059	
software	CLC Genomics Workbench 11.0.1	Qiagen		
software	Prism 7	GraphPad		
Strain, strain background (*Influenza A virus*)	A/swine/Illinois/2A-1213-G15/2013 (H1N1)	Genbank	Segments 1-8: MT649710.1, MT649713.1; MT649708.1; MT649712.1; MT649707.1; MT649714.1; MT649709.1; MT649711.1	A_sw_IL_2A1213G15_13
Strain, strain background (*Influenza A virus*)	A/swine/Illinois/2B-0314-P4/2014 (H1N1)	Genbank	Segments 1-8: MT649744.1; MT649743.1; MT649740.1; MT649745.1; MT649742.1; MT649741.1; MT649739.1; MT649746.1	A_sw_IL_2B0314P4_14

Cells and viruses

Madin–Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells were maintained in minimum essential

medium (MEM, Thermo Fisher Scientific). African green monkey kidney (Vero) cells were

maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Life Technologies™). Both culture

media were supplemented with 10% HyClone® standard fetal bovine serum (FBS, Life

Technologies) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (P/S, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The cells were

grown at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 (Hu et al. 2016, Hu et al. 2017c).

A/swine/Illinois/2A-1213-G15/2013 (H1N1) (G15-HA1-mixed) and A/swine/Illinois/2B-

0314-P4/2014 (H1N1) (P4-PA-mixed) were originally isolated from nasal swabs from pigs in

commercial swine herds in the United States that showed symptoms of influenza-like illness, as

described previously (Zanin et al. 2017, Hu et al. 2020). G15-HA1-S210 and G15-HA1-N210 were

plaque purified twice from MDCK cells using G15-HA1-mixed. The whole-genome sequences of

G15-HA1-S210 and G15-HA1-N210 were verified by next-generation sequencing. All viruses

were propagated in MDCK cells with 1 μg/ml tosylsulfonyl phenylalanyl chloromethyl ketone

(TPCK)–treated trypsin, as described previously (Hu et al. 2016, Hu et al. 2020).

Syncytium assay

Viruses were inoculated into Vero cells in 24–well plates at a multiplicity (MOI) of 3

PFU/cell. After maintaining at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 16 hours (h), the infected cells were treated

with DMEM supplemented with 5 μg/ml TPCK–treated trypsin for 15 minutes (m) and then pH–

adjusted PBS buffers for 15 m. Subsequently, the infected cells were maintained in DMEM

supplemented with 5% FBS for 3 h at 37 °C. After that, the infected cells were fixed and stained

using a Hema 3™ Fixative and Solutions (Fisher Scientific). Syncytia were recorded using a light

microscope. The cutoff values for virus HA activation pH were determined at the treated pH that

the stained cells in 24-well plates containing more than two syncytia with at least five nuclei, as

described previously (Zaraket et al. 2015, Hu et al. 2020, Russier et al. 2020).

HA inactivation pH assay

Tested viruses were treated with a series of pH-adjusted PBS buffers in a ratio of 1:100 for

1 h at 37 °C. The resulting infectious viruses were titrated by $TCID_{50}$ on MDCK cells (Russier et

al. 2016, Zaraket et al. 2013a). After obtaining virus titers for treatments, HA inactivation pH

values were calculated by using GraphPad Prism version 7 software (Graph-Pad Software, San

Diego, CA). The parameter LogEC50 was generated using the model Nonlinear Regression

[Equation: log (agonist) vs. response-Variable slope (four parameters)] followed by the least

squares fitting method.

Virus growth assay

Tested viruses were inoculated into MDCK cells in 24–well plates at an MOI of 2 PFU/cell.

After incubation for 1 h at 37 ºC, the infected cells were washed by PBS twice, and continued to

be maintained at 37 ºC with MEM culture media (1 ml/well) supplemented with 1 μg/ml TPCK-

treated trypsin. At 6- and 8-hours post-infection (hpi), cell culture supernatant was collected and

titrated by TCID$_{50}$ on MDCK cells (Hu et al. 2017a, Russier et al. 2016).

Virus mRNA, cRNA and vRNA quantification

Production of virus RNAs (mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA) during influenza A virus

transcription and replication processes were quantified using a two-step real time RT-qPCR,

modified from the method described previously (Kawakami et al. 2011, Hu et al. 2017b, Hu et al.

2017c). Briefly, viruses were inoculated into confluent MDCK cells in 24–well plates at an MOI

of 2. The infected cells were incubated at 37 °C for 1 h, washed by PBS twice, and cultured with

MEM supplemented with 1 ug/ml TPCK-treated trypsin (1 ml/well). At 4 and 6 hpi, culture

supernatants and infected cells were harvested separately.

To quantify virus mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA, total RNAs were extracted from the infected

cells using RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). The corresponding cDNAs of mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA

were generated by reverse-transcription PCR (RT-PCR) using Transcriptor First Strand cDNA

Synthesis Kit (Roche). Primers with specific tags for differentiations of virus mRNA, cRNA, and

RNA　　　　were　　　　used　　　　(mRNA-RT-PCR　　　　primer:

CCAGATCGTTCGAGTCGTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTCTCATGTTTCT; cRNA-RT-PCR primer:

GCTAGCTTCAGCTAGGCATCAGTAGAAACAAGGGTGTTTTTCTC; vRNA-RT-PCR

primer: GGCCGTCATGGTGGCGAATTGGCCACAGGATTAAGGAATATC)

Real-time quantitation PCR were performed to quantify these three RNA levels with specific

primers targeting virus HA gene (mRNA-real time-forward primer (FP):

CCAGTTCATTGGTACTGGTAGTC, mRNA-real time-reverse primer (RP):

CCAGATCGTTCGAGTCGT; cRNA-real time-FP: CCAGTTCATTGGTACTGGTAGTC,

cRNA-real time-RP: GCTAGCTTCAGCTAGGCATC; vRNA-real time-FP:

GGCCGTCATGGTGGCGAAT, vRNA-real time-RP: ACCGTACCACCCATCTATCA;).

Internal control GAPDH mRNA was also reverse-transcribed and quantified using oligo $(dT)_{20}$ as

RT-PCR primer and the following as real-time PCR primers (FP:

ATTCCACCCATGGCAAATTC, RP: CGCTCCTGGAAGATGGTGAT).

To quantify viral copy number released in cell-free supernatant, total RNAs were extracted

using QIAamp Viral RNA kits (Qiagen). A two-step quantitative real-time reverse-transcription

(RT) PCR was applied to quantify viral copy number. The primers used were listed as the

following, RT-PCR-primer: AGCAAAAGCAGG; Real-time-FP (targeting NP gene):

CTGCTTGTGTGTATGGGCTT; Real-time-RP (targeting NP gene):

TGAGCTGGATTTTCATTTGGT. Plasmid PHW2000-NP (G15-HA1-mixed) was used as a

standard for quantitative real-time PCR.

Ferret transmission experiments

Thirty-six male Fitch ferrets (five- to six-month-old, purchased from Triple F Farms, Sayre,

PA) were verified to be serologically negative for currently circulating influenza A and B viruses

and the tested swine H1N1 gamma influenza viruses by HAI assay. At the same time, these ferrets

were identified to be serologically negative for currently circulating SARS-CoV-2 by ELISA. The

nasal swabs of these ferrets were verified to be negative before the experiments by performing

real-time PCR reactions.

The transmission study was performed as described in previous work (Hu et al. 2020).

Ferret body weight and temperature were monitored daily until day 14. Ferret nasal washes were

collected every other day until day 14. Additionally, all ferrets were euthanized on day 21 to collect

whole blood. Ferret sera were examined for seroconversion using HAI assay (Zaraket et al. 2015,

Russier et al. 2016, Hu et al. 2020). Animal studies were performed in compliance with St. Jude

Children's Research Hospital Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines under protocol 459.

Virus whole-genome sequencing and analyses

Virus whole genomes were obtained by next-generation sequencing (Russier et al. 2017,

Zaraket et al. 2015, Hu et al. 2020). Viral RNAs were extracted from ferret nasal wash samples or

cell-free supernatants using QIAamp Viral RNA kits (Qiagen). The corresponding cDNAs were

achieved by reverse–transcription PCR using SuperScript III First-strand Synthesis System

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). DNA library was prepared by PCR amplification using Phusion High-

Fidelity PCR Master Mix with HF Buffer (New England BioLabs). The resulting PCR products

were purified by QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (Qiagen) and submitted to St Jude Harwell Center

for virus whole-genome sequencing.

Sequencing data were analyzed using CLC Genomics Workbench version 11.0.1. SNVs

resulting amino-acid variations were reported when the predefined quality scores were met and

present in forward and reverse reads at an equal ratio. All variants presented in this study were

supported by at least 10 reads with a minimum frequency of 5% (unless otherwise stated). Heat

maps and parts of whole were generated by using GraphPad Prism version 7 software (GraphPad

Software, San Diego, CA).

Statistical analysis

451   All data analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 7. One-way ANOVA

452 followed by a Tukey's multiple comparisons test or Welch's t test were used to determine

453 statistical significances. P value < 0.05 was considered significant.

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Figures and Figure Legends

Figure 1. Virus characterization *in vitro*. (A) Sequence variations. Whole genomes of gamma

viruses G15-HA1-S210, G15-HA1-N210, G15-HA1-mixed, and P4-PA-mixed were obtained by

next-generation sequencing. Amino-acid variations with frequencies $\geq 5\%$ and reads ≥ 10 are

shown in colored pie charts. H3 numbering was used for the HA protein. (B) HA activation pH

values measured by syncytium assay. Viruses were inoculated into Vero cells at an MOI of 3

PFU/cell. Representative images are shown with the HA activation pH in bold. (C) Virus

inactivation pH values. Viruses were treated with pH-adjusted PBS, re-neutralized, and subjected

to measurement of residual virus infectivity by $TCID_{50}$. (D) Virus growth in MDCK cells. Viruses

were inoculated into MDCK cells at an MOI of 2 PFU/cell. Cell-free culture supernatants were

harvested at 6- and 8-hours post-infection (hpi) and titrated by $TCID_{50}$. All experiments were

independently performed at least twice. *P* values were determined according to one-way ANOVA

followed by a Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 2. *In vitro* transcription and replication of G15-HA1-S210 and P4-PA-mixed. (A)

Virus mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA accumulation after 4 hpi. (B) Virus mRNA, cRNA, and vRNA

accumulation after 6 hpi. (C) Virus copies released into culture media. G15-HA1-S210 and P4-

PA-mixed viruses were inoculated into MDCK cells at an MOI of 2 PFU/cell. At 4 and 6 hpi, the

infected MDCK cells were lysed and harvested for total viral RNA. Virus specific mRNA, cRNA,

and vRNA were quantified by two-step real-time reverse-transcription PCR using specific primers

and normalized to GAPDH mRNA levels. Meanwhile, culture supernatants were harvested for

quantification of virions released. Virions released from the cells were quantified by real-time

quantitative PCR using plasmid PHW2000-NP (G15-HA1-mixed) as a standard. Virus copies were

quantified. *P* values were determined according to Welch's *t* test.

Figure 3. Infection of G15-HA1-S210, P4-PA-mixed, and G15-HA1-mixed in inoculated

donor ferrets. (A) Viral properties. Relative polymerase activity and HA stability for viruses are

shown. (B) Ferret experimental caging. Viruses were intranasally inoculated into 3 donor ferrets

per group on day 0. After one day, 3 naïve ferrets were introduced into the same cages and 3 into

the adjacent cages. These ferrets were designated contact and airborne ferrets, respectively. Overall,

there were 9 ferrets for each cubicle. Each virus had 2 cubicles for a total of 6 donors, 6 contacts,

and 6 airborne. (C) $TCID_{50}$ titers of virus in nasal washes from donor ferrets. Ferret nasal washes

were collected every other day until day 14. Each bar represents the virus titer of an individual

sample, and the dashed lines represent the limit of detection. (D) Day of virus peak titer in donor

ferrets. Each symbol represents the day that virus peak titer was observed in an individual donor

ferret. (E) Virus peak titers in donor ferrets. Each symbol represents the virus peak titer in an

individual donor ferret. (F) Percent body weight of donor ferrets. Ferret body weight was

monitored daily until day 14. *P* values were calculated using One-way ANOVA with Turkey's

multiple comparisons test.

The following figure supplements are available for figure 3:

Figure 3-figure supplement 1. Cubicle temperature and relative humidity during ferret

transmission study. The ferret experiment was carried out as described in Figure 3A. In each

cubicle, temperature (A) and relative humidity (B) were monitored daily until day 14.

Figure 3-figure supplement 2. Body temperature changes of donor ferrets. The ferret

experiment was carried out as illustrated in Figure 3A. Body temperatures of donor ferret

inoculated with G15-HA1-S210 (A), P4-PA-mixed (B), and G15-HA1-mixed (C) were monitored

daily until day 14.

Figure 4. Transmission, seroconversion, and the number of viruses isolated in ferrets. The

ferret experiment was carried out as described in Figure 3A. (A) Virus $TCID_{50}$ titers of nasal

washes from contact ferrets. (B) Virus $TCID_{50}$ titers of nasal washes from airborne ferrets. (C)

HAI titers of day-21 sera of donor, contact, and airborne ferrets. (D) The number of virus isolates

from ferret nasal washes of donor, contact, and airborne ferrets.

The following figure supplements are available for figure 4:

Figure 4-figure supplement 1. Body weight changes of contact and airborne ferrets exposed

with G15-HA1-S210, P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-mixed. The ferret experiment was carried

out as described in Figure 3A. Body weight changes of contact (A) and airborne (B) ferrets were

monitored daily until day 14.

Figure 4-figure supplement 2. Body temperatures of contact and airborne ferrets exposed

with G15-HA1-S210, P4-PA-mixed and G15-HA1-mixed. The ferret experiment was carried

out as described in Figure 3A. Body temperatures of contact (A) and airborne (B) ferrets were

monitored daily until day 14.

Figure 5. Frequencies of single-nucleotide variants (SNVs) for nasal washes collected from

donor, contact, and airborne ferrets. The ferret experiment was carried out as described in

Figure 3A. The whole-genomes of nasal washes collected from donor, contact, and airborne ferrets

infected or exposed with G15-HA1-S210 (A), P4-PA-mixed (B), and G15-HA1-mixed (C) were

obtained by next-generation sequencing. SNVs with frequencies $\geq$ 5% and reads $\geq$ 10 were read

out. Variant PA-S321 in cubicle 2 included reads $\geq$2 because of poor coverage at PA-321 for these

samples. The listed SNVs met the following criteria: (1) resulted in protein sequence changes, and

(2) appeared in nasal washes in each cubicle $\geq$ 2 times and/or frequencies greater than 30%. The

frequencies of SNVs are represented by the colored boxes. Each column represents the SNVs for

one ferret nasal wash.

Figure 6. The proportions of minor variant PA-S321 and correlation with polymerase

activity. (A) The proportions of PA-S321 in P4-PA-mixed from the original inoculum and

infected/exposed ferrets. (B) Evaluation of polymerase activity of P4-PA-S321. The experiment

was performed as described in Figure 2. The transcription and replication of virus containing 100%

variant PA-S321 were compared to those of G15-HA1-S210 and P4-PA-mixed. The experiments

were independently performed twice. *P* values were determined according to one-way ANOVA

followed by a Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Figure 7. The proportions of minor variant HA1-S210 and correlation with HA stability. (A)

The proportions of HA1- S210 in G15-HA1-mixed from the original inoculum and

infected/exposed ferrets. (B-D) Virus HA activation pH values of isolates from G15-HA1-mixed,

G15-HA1-S210, and P4-PA-mixed infected/exposed ferrets. Virus isolates from nasal washes

were propagated in MDCK cells once. Syncytium assay were performed to measure the HA

activation pH values of these isolates.

Figure 8. Relative polymerase activities and HA stabilities in ferrets. Relative polymerase

activity and HA activation pH were compared for inoculated virus (left) and after airborne

transmission in ferrets (right). Each symbol represents an individual ferret.

Table 1. Virus characteristics before and after infection and transmission in ferrets.

Virus characterization		G15-HA1-S210	P4-PA-mixed	G15-mixed	G15-HA1-N210
Genotype variations	HA1-210	S	S	85% N, 15% S	N
	PB2-648	L	M	L	L
	PA-271	P	T	P	P
	PA-321	N	92% N, 8%S	N	N
	PA-386	D	86% D, 14% N	D	D
Phenotype variations *in vitro*	HA activation pH [a]	5.6	5.5	5.8	5.8
	HA inactivation pH [b]	5.6	5.6	5.75	5.8
	Polymerase activity	higher	lower	higher	higher
	One-step growth	higher	lower	higher	highest
Donor ferrets	Virus growth ($\log_{10}$ TCID$_{50}$)	7.3 (± 0.67)	5.8 (± 1)	5.0 (± 0.28)	- [f]
	Number of isolates from ferrets [c]	9; 9	9; 9	9; 9	-
	Seroconversion [d]	3/3; 3/3	3/3; 3/3	3/3; 3/3	-
	Day of peak titers	1	2.7 (± 1.5)	3	-
	Peak titers ($\log_{10}$ TCID$_{50}$)	7.3 (± 0.67)	6.7 (± 0.43)	6.2 (± 0.54)	-
	Major variants	none	PA-S321	HA1-S210	-
	HA activation pH range	5.5-5.6	5.5-5.6	5.5-5.9	-
Contact ferrets	Number of isolates from ferrets	9; 10	9; 10	9; 10	-
	Seroconversion	3/3; 3/3	3/3; 3/3	3/3; 3/3	-
	HA activation pH range	5.5-5.6	5.5-5.6	5.6-5.9	-
	Major variants	none	PA-S321	HA1-S210	-
Airborne ferrets	Number of isolates from ferrets	7; 3	4; 2	3; 0	-
	Days for virus shedding	8-14; 2-6	8-14; 10-14	-; 8-12	-
	Seroconversion	3/3; 1/3	3/3; 1/3	2/3; 3/3	-
	Major variants	sporadic	PA-S321	HA1-S210	-
	Polymerase activity	higher	higher & lower	higher	-
	HA activation pH [e]	5.5-5.6	5.5-5.6	~5.6	-

[a] HA activation pH measured by syncytia assay.

[b] HA inactivation pH measured by treating viruses with indicated pH and titrating resulting virions by TCID$_{50}$.

[c] The Number of isolates is listed for those grown successfully in MDCK cells after recovery from ferrets in cubicle

1 and cubicle 2.

[d] Data for each virus is listed for each cubicle with the first X/Y number representing cubicle 1 and the second X/Y

representing cubicle 2.

[e] HA activation pH of airborne-transmitted virus on first day of isolation.

[f] -, Not measured.

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

	Relative polymerase activity	HA activation pH
G15-HA1-S210	Higher	5.6
P4-PA-mixed	Lower	5.5
G15-HA1-mixed	Higher	5.8

B

Day 0

Donor

Day 1

Donor Contact   Airborne

C

Donor

p = 0.0001
p = 0.0065

Virus titer (log₁₀ TCID₅₀/ml)

Time (day after experiments)

G15-HA1-S210 — Cubicle 1 / Cubicle 2
P4-PA-mixed — Cubicle 1 / Cubicle 2
G15-HA1-mixed — Cubicle 1 / Cubicle 2

D

G15-HA1-S210
P4-PA-mixed
G15-HA1-mixed

p = 0.0122
p = 0.0032

Donor

Day of peak titers

E

p = 0.0063

Virus titer (log₁₀ TCID₅₀/ml)

Donor

G15-HA1-S210   P4-PA-mixed   G15-HA1-mixed

F

G15-HA1-S210   P4-PA-mixed   G15-HA1-mixed

Donor

G15-HA1-S210
P4-PA-mixed
G15-HA1-mixed

p = 0.0055
p = 0.04

Ferret Body Weight (%)

Cubicle 1 / Cubicle 2

Time (day after experiments)

Figure 3

Figure 3-figure supplement 1

A G15-HA1-S210

B P4-PA-mixed

C G15-HA1-mixed

Time (day after experiments)

Figure 3-figure supplement 2

Figure 4

Figure 4-figure supplement 1

Figure 4-figure supplement 2

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8