Reovirus infection is regulated by NPC1 and endosomal cholesterol homeostasis

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Running title: Reovirus infection is regulated by NPC1 and endosomal cholesterol

homeostasis

ABSTRACT Cholesterol homeostasis is required for the replication of many viruses,

including Ebola virus, hepatitis C virus, and human immunodeficiency virus-1. Niemann-

Pick C1 (NPC1) is an endosomal-lysosomal membrane protein involved in cholesterol

trafficking from late endosomes and lysosomes to the endoplasmic reticulum. We

identified NPC1 in CRISPR and RNA interference screens as a putative host factor for

infection by mammalian orthoreovirus (reovirus). Following internalization via clathrin-

mediated endocytosis, the reovirus outer capsid is proteolytically removed, the

endosomal membrane is disrupted, and the viral core is released into the cytoplasm

where viral transcription, genome replication, and assembly take place. We found that

reovirus infection is significantly impaired in cells lacking NPC1, but infection is restored

by treatment of cells with hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin, which binds and solubilizes

cholesterol. Absence of NPC1 did not dampen infection by infectious subvirion

particles, which are reovirus disassembly intermediates that bypass the endocytic

pathway for infection of target cells. NPC1 is not required for reovirus attachment to the

plasma membrane, internalization into cells, or uncoating within endosomes. Instead,

NPC1 is required for delivery of transcriptionally active reovirus core particles into the

cytoplasm. These findings suggest that cholesterol homeostasis, ensured by NPC1

transport activity, is required for reovirus penetration into the cytoplasm, pointing to a

new function for NPC1 and cholesterol homeostasis in viral infection.

IMPORTANCE Genetic screens are useful strategies to identify host factors required for viral infection. NPC1 was identified in independent CRISPR and RNA interference screens as a putative host factor required for reovirus replication. We discovered that NPC1-mediated cholesterol transport is dispensable for reovirus attachment, internalization, or disassembly but required for penetration of the viral disassembly intermediate from late endosomes into the cytoplasm. These findings pinpoint an essential function for cholesterol in the entry of reovirus and raise the possibility that cholesterol homeostasis regulates the entry of other viruses that penetrate late endosomes to initiate replication.

INTRODUCTION

Viral replication is dependent on cellular proteins and pathways for entry, transport, and release of the viral genome to sites of replication in the cell. Viral attachment to host cells occurs by interactions with cell-surface proteins, lipids, and carbohydrate moieties at the plasma membrane and often triggers virus uptake by receptor-mediated endocytosis (1-7). Viruses that traverse through endosomes must escape the endosomal compartment and release their genomes at sites of replication to initiate productive infection. Enveloped viruses generally accomplish endosomal escape using mechanisms involving receptor- or pH-mediated fusion of the viral envelope and endosomal membrane (6, 8-10). In contrast, nonenveloped viruses penetrate endosomal membranes by establishing small membrane pores or large membrane disruptions (9, 11-13). While both enveloped and nonenveloped viruses depend on conformational changes of viral structural proteins to escape endosomes, mechanisms underlying nonenveloped virus membrane penetration are not well understood (6).

Mammalian orthoreoviruses (reoviruses) are nonenveloped icosahedral viruses that infect a broad range of mammalian hosts. Reovirus infections are usually asymptomatic in humans, but these viruses have been implicated in development of celiac disease (14). Reovirus virions include two protein shells, the outer capsid, composed primarily of μ1-σ3 heterohexamers, and core (15-17). Within the core, 10 segments of double-stranded (ds) RNA are packaged, distributed by size into three large (L), three medium (M), and four small (S) segments (17). Following receptor-mediated endocytosis, the reovirus outer capsid undergoes a series of conformational changes and disassembly events required for release of transcriptionally active cores into the cytoplasm (18, 19).

Within late endosomes, acid-dependent cathepsin proteases catalyze proteolysis

of the viral outer-capsid protein σ3 and cleavage of the membrane-penetration protein

µ1 to δ and φ, resulting in formation of metastable intermediates termed infectious

subvirion particles (ISVPs) (20-24). Endosomal lipid composition induces ISVPs to

undergo additional conformational changes resulting in exposure of hydrophobic

domains of δ, release of pore-forming fragment µ1N, and formation of ISVP*s (25, 26).

Release of µ1N during ISVP-to-ISVP* conversion leads to endosomal penetration and

release of the viral core into the cytoplasm where infection progresses (27-31).

Although some essential viral and host factors required for reovirus penetration of the

endosome are known, the process is still not well understood.

In this study, we used RNA interference and CRISPR screens to discover that

Niemann Pick C1 (NPC1), an endolysosomal transmembrane protein that mediates

cholesterol egress from late endosomes for redistribution to cellular membranes (32-

34), is required for reovirus infection. We found that genetic ablation of NPC1 in human

brain microvascular endothelial cells (HBMECs) diminishes reovirus infection by virions

but not by ISVPs, suggesting that NPC1 is required for steps that differ between virions

and ISVPs. Treatment of NPC1-null HBMECs with hydroxypropyl-beta-cyclodextrin

(HβCD), a macrocycle that binds and solubilizes cholesterol, restored infectivity by

reovirus virions, suggesting that endosomal cholesterol homeostasis contributes to

efficient reovirus entry. While NPC1 is not required for viral attachment to the plasma

membrane, internalization, or uncoating within endosomes, we found that NPC1 is

required for efficient release of reovirus cores from endosomes into the cytoplasm.

Together, these findings suggest that cholesterol homeostasis, ensured by NPC1

cholesterol transport activity, is essential for reovirus cell entry and penetration into the

cytoplasm.

RESULTS

CRISPR/Cas-9 and siRNA screens for host factors required for reovirus infection identify NPC1. To discover host factors required for reovirus infection, we conducted genome-wide CRISPR/Cas-9 and siRNA-based cell-survival screens. The CRISPR/Cas-9 screen was conducted using BV2 mouse microglial cells with the murine Asiago sgRNA library targeting over 20,000 genes. BV2 CRISPR cell libraries were infected with reovirus strains type 1 Lang (T1L) and type 3 Dearing (T3D) and cultured for nine days prior to isolation of genomic DNA (gDNA) from surviving cells and deep sequencing. STARS analysis was conducted to identify enriched CRISPR gRNAs within the surviving cell population (Fig. 1A and Table S1). The siRNA screen was conducted using HeLa S3 cells transfected with the ON-TARGET plus siRNA whole genome library targeting over 18,000 genes (35). Transfected cells were infected with reovirus strain T3SA+ and scored for viability using an ATP-dependent luminescence assay. T3SA+ contains nine genes from T1L and the S1 gene from strain T3C44-MA (36). T3SA+ binds all known reovirus receptors. Robust Z scores (median absolute deviation) were calculated for each sample (Fig. 1B and Table S2).

Key genes and pathways essential for reovirus replication were defined by comparing the CRISPR/Cas-9 and siRNA screen lists using STRING-db (Fig. 1C). In the CRISPR/Cas-9 screen, four functional pathways defined by Gene Ontology (GO) terms were common to both T1L and T3D, including sialic acid biosynthesis and metabolism (Fig. 1D). Sialic acid is a reovirus attachment factor, and genes involved in sialic acid biosynthesis and metabolism, including *Slc35a1*, are required for T3SA+ replication in BV2 cells (37). These data provide confidence that the target genes identified in the CRISPR/Cas-9 screen represent biologically significant candidates. We also compared KEGG pathways identified in the CRISPR/Cas-9 and siRNA screens to

increase the likelihood of significant gene targets. Ribosome and lysosome pathways

were the only pathways common to both screens (Fig. 1E). Lysosomal genes include

Ctsl, *Neu1*, and *Npc1*. *Ctsl* encodes cathepsin L, which is required for cleavage of the

reovirus outer capsid to form ISVPs (22). *Neu1* encodes neuraminidase, a lysosomal

sialidase that cleaves sialic acid linkages required for reovirus infectivity (38). *Npc1*

encodes NPC1, a cholesterol transporter that resides in the limiting membrane of

endosomes and lysosomes (33, 34).

Engineering and characterization of HBMECs with CRISPR-targeted Npc1.

Based on the function of NPC1 in cell entry and replication of other viruses (39) and its

identification in both our CRISPR and siRNA screens, we evaluated a potential role for

NPC1 in reovirus replication. Human brain microvascular endothelial cells (HBMECs)

are susceptible to reovirus infection (40) and amenable to CRISPR/Cas-9 gene editing

(41). To facilitate these studies, we used CRISPR/Cas-9 gene editing to engineer a

clonal HBMEC cell line lacking the *NPC1* gene (KO cells). The NPC1 KO cells were

complemented by stable transfection of a functional NPC1 allele (KO+ cells).

The newly engineered NPC1 KO and KO+ cell lines were characterized for

NPC1 expression and cholesterol distribution relative to wild-type (WT) HBMECs.

Expression of NPC1 in WT, KO, and KO+ cells was determined by immunoblotting. As

anticipated, NPC1 expression in KO cells was abrogated relative to WT and KO+ cells

(Fig. S1A). There was an observable increase in NPC1 expression in KO+ cells

compared with WT cells (Fig. S1B), but the difference was not statistically significant. In

the absence of functional NPC1, cholesterol reorganizes from a homogeneous

distribution to accumulate in endosomal compartments (32, 33). To define the

distribution of cholesterol in NPC1-null HBMECs, we used fluorescent filipin III to label

cholesterol in fixed cells and imaged cholesterol distribution using fluorescence

microscopy (Fig. S1C). As anticipated, cholesterol distribution was homogeneous in WT

(Fig. S1C, left) and KO+ cells (Fig. S1C, right). However, cholesterol accumulated

around the nucleus in KO cells (Fig. S1C, center) in a pattern consistent with the

distribution of endosomes (Fig. S1D), confirming the absence of functional NPC1. Thus,

KO cells display the expected phenotype of altered cholesterol distribution when NPC1-

dependent cholesterol transport is disrupted. Furthermore, complementing NPC1

expression in KO cells restores the normal distribution of cholesterol, demonstrating

that the observed phenotype is specific for NPC1 expression.

Reovirus infection by virions but not by ISVPs is impaired in NPC1 KO

cells. ISVPs prepared by treatment of virions *in vitro* with intestinal or endosomal

proteases bind to reovirus receptors and enter target cells by direct penetration of the

plasma membrane and bypass requirements for internalization into the endocytic

compartment and acid-dependent proteolysis (21, 22, 42). To determine whether NPC1

is required for reovirus replication, and further whether NPC1 mediates a step in the

infectious cycle that differs between virions and ISVPs, we adsorbed WT, KO, and KO+

cells with reovirus strain T1L M1 P208S virions or ISVPs. Reovirus T1L M1-P208S

contains a point mutation in the M1 gene that causes viral factories to have a globular

morphology similar to the morphology of factories formed by reovirus T3D (43), which

renders infected cells easier to detect. Infected cells were visualized by

immunofluorescence (IF) staining for reovirus antigen at 18 h post-adsorption (Fig. 2).

Following adsorption with reovirus virions, the number of infected KO cells was reduced

by approximately 50% relative to infected WT and KO+ cells (Fig. 2A). A similar

reduction in the number of infected KO cells relative to WT and KO+ cells was observed

when WT, KO, and KO+ cells were adsorbed with T1L, T3D, and T3SA+ virions, the

reovirus strains used in the CRISPR/Cas9 and siRNA screens (Fig. S2). In contrast, no

significant differences in numbers of infected cells were observed following adsorption

of WT, KO, and KO+ cells with ISVPs (Fig. 2B). Viral progeny production and release

was determined by quantifying viral titers in cell lysates and supernatants at 0, 24, and

48 h following adsorption of WT, KO, and KO+ cells with virions or ISVPs. Following

infection by virions, viral titers in lysates and supernatants of KO cells were 10- to 100-

fold less than those in WT and KO+ cells (Fig. 2C and E). In contrast, following infection

by ISVPs, viral titers in lysates and supernatants of all three cell types were comparable

(Fig. 2D and F). Together, these results suggest that NPC1 is required for reovirus

infection and functions at a step in the infectious cycle that differs between virions and

ISVPs.

NPC1 is not required for reovirus attachment, internalization, or uncoating.

Reovirus entry can be divided into four main stages: viral binding to cell-surface

receptors, viral internalization by endocytosis, proteolytic removal of the viral outer

capsid, and penetration of the core from late endosomes into the cytosol (19). We

characterized NPC1 KO cells for the capacity to support each step of the reovirus entry

pathway to define the function of NPC1 in reovirus infection. To determine whether

NPC1 is required for reovirus attachment to target cells we quantified viral binding using

flow cytometry. The quantity of virus bound to the surface of all three cell types was

comparable, and no statistically significant differences were observed (Fig. 3A). These

data suggest that reovirus attachment to cells is not dependent on expression of NPC1.

To determine whether NPC1 is required for reovirus to access the endocytic

pathway of target cells, WT, KO, and KO+ cells were adsorbed with fluorescently-

labeled reovirus particles and monitored for reovirus uptake using live-cell imaging. We

found that kinetics of reovirus internalization into WT, KO, and KO+ cells were

comparable. High-magnification videos (Videos 1, 2, and 3) along with static images

obtained at different intervals (Fig. 3B) demonstrate that attached reovirus particles

internalize slowly in the first ~ 0 - 10 min post-adsorption. During this time, reovirus

particles remain in the periphery, with a few particles coalescing to form large

fluorescent puncta. Convergence of immunofluorescent signals suggests co-transport

of multiple viral particles in the same endocytic compartment, similar to that observed

during reovirus entry into neurons (44). After ~ 15 min post-adsorption, there was rapid

recruitment of almost every fluorescent puncta to the perinuclear region.

To more precisely define the movement of reovirus virions during entry, we

analyzed the trajectories of individual fluorescent virions in Videos 1, 2, and 3 over 36

min using the Spot detector plugin function from Icy software. Trajectory colors change

over time in which each color corresponds to an interval of ~ 7.5 min in the time-lapse

videos (Videos 4, 5, and 6). Analysis of the time-dependent trajectories confirms

observations made in the live-imaging videos. Video-microscopic analysis

demonstrates that reovirus virions are internalized rapidly into HBMECs and that virion

uptake into the endocytic pathway is not impaired in the absence of NPC1.

Following internalization of reovirus virions, acid-dependent cathepsin proteases

in late endosomes catalyze disassembly. During disassembly, proteolytic cleavage of

the outermost capsid protein, σ3, exposes the membrane-penetration protein, μ1, which

is subsequently cleaved to form a variety of intermediates that lead to penetration of the

core particle into the cytoplasm (20-24, 27-30). Cells lacking NPC1 have increased

endosomal pH and decreased cathepsin activity (45), which could impair reovirus

uncoating. To determine whether NPC1 is required for reovirus disassembly, we

defined the kinetics of reovirus outer-capsid proteolysis by following the formation of the

δ cleavage fragment of the μ1 protein in WT, KO, and KO+ cells. Cells were adsorbed

with reovirus virions, and viral proteins in cell lysates were visualized by immunoblotting

at 0, 1, 2, and 3 h post-adsorption using a reovirus-specific antiserum. No significant

differences in the kinetics of μ1 proteolysis were observed, with an initial δ cleavage

product detected 2 h after adsorption in WT, KO, and KO+ cells (Fig. 3C). These data

suggest that the cathepsins that catalyze reovirus disassembly are not impaired in

NPC1 KO HBMECs. Collectively, these results demonstrate that NPC1 is not required

for reovirus receptor binding, internalization, or disassembly.

Escape of reovirus cores from endosomes is impaired in cells lacking

NPC1. To determine whether NPC1 is required for escape of reovirus cores into the

cytoplasm following disassembly in the endocytic compartment, we imaged cores in

fixed cells by IF. Cells were adsorbed with fluorescently labeled reovirus virions and

incubated in the presence of cycloheximide for 8 h post-adsorption to inhibit synthesis

of new viral proteins and thus ensure detection of proteins from infecting viral particles.

Cells were stained with a CD-63-specific antibody to label endosomes and an

antiserum specific for reovirus cores and imaged using confocal microscopy. Small

puncta consistent with reovirus cores were observed in WT and KO+ cells, while in KO

cells, cores appeared to accumulate in larger puncta corresponding to endosomes (Fig.

4A). The distribution of virions, cores, and endosomes was determined to quantify the

extent of colocalization. The results demonstrate a strong colocalization of cores and

endosomes in KO cells (Manders coefficient [Mc]: ~ 0.7), while there was much less

colocalization of cores and endosomes in WT and KO+ cells (Mc: ~ 0.3) (Fig. 4B).

Colocalization of virions and cores also was more frequent in KO cells (Mc: ~ 0.45) cells

than in WT (Mc: ~0.15) or KO+ (Mc: ~0.2) cells, whereas colocalization of virions and

endosomes was comparable in all cell types (Mc: ~ 0.6). These data suggest that

escape of cores from endosomes is less efficient in the absence of NPC1.

To complement the imagining experiments, we quantified newly synthesized viral

s4 mRNA using RT-qPCR. WT, KO, and KO+ cells were adsorbed with reovirus, RNA

was isolated, and s4 transcripts were quantified at 0, 6, 12, and 24 h post-adsorption.

We observed a statistically significant increase in total s4 RNA in WT and KO+ cells at

12 and 24 h post-adsorption relative to KO cells (Fig. 5). Together, these results

suggest that NPC1 is required for release of transcriptionally active reovirus cores from

endosomes into the cytoplasm.

Cholesterol homeostasis is required for reovirus entry. We thought it

possible that NPC1 could serve as an endosomal receptor for reovirus and interact with

one or more viral capsid proteins to enable core delivery into the cytoplasm, analogous

to the function of NPC1 in Ebola virus infection (46, 47). Alternatively, NPC1 might be

required to maintain an endosomal environment with appropriate cholesterol levels to

allow cores to penetrate endosomes. To distinguish between these possibilities, we

tested whether hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin (HβCD), a cyclic oligosaccharide that

triggers cholesterol release from the endo-lysosomal compartment (48, 49) and has

shown efficacy in the treatment of the Niemann Pick type C disease (50, 51), for the

capacity to overcome the effects of NPC1 deficiency on reovirus infection. To determine

whether HβCD treatment redistributes cholesterol from endosomal membranes to a

homogeneous distribution in the absence of NPC1, NPC1 KO HBMECs were treated

with 1 mM HβCD, a non-toxic concentration (Fig. S3A), or PBS for 48 h prior to staining

for the filipin III complex. Cells displaying cholesterol accumulation were distinguished

from those with widely distributed cholesterol by quantifying the mean fluorescence

intensity (MFI) of filipin III complex staining. Using this approach, an increase in MFI

correlates with an increase in cholesterol accumulation. After HβCD treatment, KO cells

displayed a significant redistribution of cholesterol, reducing its accumulation in

endosomes and enhancing its distribution broadly throughout the cell, correlating with a

statistically significant decrease in MFI (Fig. S3B,C). These data demonstrate that

HβCD treatment promotes cholesterol efflux in KO cells, resulting in a cholesterol-

distribution phenotype comparable to WT and KO+ cells (Fig. S3C).

Once we observed that HβCD treatment effectively redistributes cholesterol in

KO cells and, thus, functionally complements NPC1 deficiency, we tested whether the

reovirus entry defect in KO cells is due to the absence of NPC1 or impaired cholesterol

homeostasis. WT, KO, and KO+ cells were pre-treated with 1 mM HβCD or PBS for 24

h, adsorbed with reovirus virions or ISVPs, and scored for reovirus infection by

immunostaining. Remarkably, HβCD treatment rescued infection of KO cells by reovirus

virions (Fig. 6) but did not appreciably affect infection of WT or KO+ cells. HβCD

treatment also did not affect infection of WT, KO, or KO+ cells by ISVPs. These data

demonstrate that endosomal cholesterol homeostasis regulates reovirus entry by

enhancing penetration of the reovirus core particle into the cytoplasm.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we identified NPC1 as a putative host factor required for reovirus infection using genome-wide CRISPR/Cas9 and siRNA-based cell-survival screens. NPC1 is an endolysosomal cholesterol transporter that mediates cholesterol homeostasis (32-34). Disruption of NPC1 results in cholesterol accumulation in late endosomes (Sup. Fig. 2C) and leads to Niemann-Pick type C disease (NPCD), an autosomal-recessive neurodegenerative disorder (32). Early steps in reovirus infection, including receptor binding, acid-dependent proteolytic disassembly, and ISVP-to-ISVP* conversion have been well characterized (19). However, penetration of endosomal membranes and release of viral cores into the cytoplasm are poorly understood processes. We used CRISPR/Cas9 gene-targeted HBMECs lacking NPC1 expression to study the function of NPC1 in reovirus infection. We discovered that NPC1 is dispensable for viral binding to cell-surface receptors (Fig. 3A), internalization of viral particles (Fig. 3B), and disassembly of the viral outer capsid (Fig. 3C). However, NPC1 is required for efficient penetration of reovirus cores into the cytoplasm (Fig. 4). Treatment with HβCD reduces cholesterol accumulation in endosomes (Sup. Fig. 3B and 3C) and restores reovirus infectivity in NPC1 KO cells (Fig. 6). These findings suggest that regulation of cholesterol in endosomal compartments is essential for reovirus entry into host cells.

NPC1 is required for the replication of several enveloped viruses. The filoviruses Ebola virus and Marburg virus use NPC1 as an intracellular receptor (46, 47). NPC1 also functions in enveloped virus replication by maintaining cholesterol homeostasis. Disruption of cholesterol homeostasis by inhibiting NPC1 prevents entry and replication of dengue virus (52) and African swine fever virus (53) and impairs exosome-dependent release of hepatitis C virus (54). Additionally, NPC1 has been implicated in entry of quasi-enveloped forms of hepatitis A virus and hepatitis E virus (55, 56). However,

NPC1 had not been previously appreciated to function in the replication of a

nonenveloped virus.

We found that reovirus binding, internalization, and uncoating do not require

NPC1, suggesting that NPC1 does not function as an intracellular receptor for reovirus.

Instead, we found that cholesterol accumulation in the endocytic pathway diminishes

the efficiency of reovirus core release into the cytoplasm. Using confocal microscopy,

we visualized and quantified the distribution of fluoresceinated reovirus virions, reovirus

cores, and late endosomes in infected cells (Fig. 4). Reovirus cores accumulate in the

lumen of late endosomes in KO cells (Fig. 4A), while virions distribute to endosomes

comparably in KO, WT, and KO+ (Fig. 4B). These findings suggest that cores do not

escape from endosomes efficiently in the absence of NPC1. RNA synthesis, which

occurs in the cytoplasm following release of cores from late endosomes, also was

reduced in KO cells relative to WT and KO+ cells (Fig. 5), providing evidence that core

escape from endosomes is required for initiation of transcription. It is not apparent how

cholesterol accumulation in KO cells blocks core release from late endosomes.

In NPCD, disruption of cholesterol homeostasis causes changes in lipid

composition of endosomal membranes (57, 58), inverting the ratio of phosphatidyl

choline (PC) and phosphatidyl ethanolamine (PE). The change in PC:PE ratio may alter

mechanical properties of endosomal membranes by inhibiting intra-endosomal

membrane dynamics to favor negative curvature (57, 59). Membrane composition and

dynamics can influence viral entry. Negative membrane curvature induced by addition

of PE or the action of interferon induced transmembrane protein 3 (IFITM3) impairs

adenovirus protein VI-mediated membrane disruption (60) and enveloped virus fusion

(61), respectively. Although clearly nonenveloped, reovirus entry also is inhibited by

IFITM3 (62). Many nonenveloped viruses use membrane-modifying proteins with the

capacity to interact, destabilize, and disrupt membranes to mediate genome release

into the cytoplasm (12, 63). However, the role of specific lipids in these processes is not

well defined.

During reovirus entry, ISVP-to-ISVP* conversion leads to release of

myristoylated μ1N, which interacts with late endosomal membranes to facilitate release

of cores into the cytoplasm (20-24). PE and PC concentrations in liposomes influence

the efficiency of ISVP-to-ISVP* conversion (25). Therefore, it is possible that changes in

membrane fluidity, width, or curvature caused by inversion of endosomal membrane

PC:PE ratio in NPC1 KO cells impedes membrane insertion of μ1N or formation and

expansion of the penetration pore. Additionally, accumulation of cholesterol within the

endosomal compartment of NPC1 KO cells could limit recruitment of ISVP*s to

membrane-inserted μ1N and the subsequent penetration of reovirus cores. Within the

Reoviridae family, bluetongue virus (BTV) outer-capsid protein VP5 penetrates late

endosomal membranes enriched in phospholipid lysobisphosphatidic acid (LBPA),

which is dependent on the anionic charge and membrane fluidic properties of LBPA

(64). LBPA enriched late endosomes are also required for efficient rotavirus entry (65).

Our data demonstrating the importance of cholesterol homeostasis in reovirus entry

along with the role of LBPA in BTV and rotavirus entry suggest that lipid composition of

late endosomes influences nonenveloped virus entry and illuminate a potential new

target for antiviral therapy.

Our findings parallel those of a companion study indicating a function for WD

repeat-containing protein 81 (WDR81) in reovirus entry (66). WDR81 was identified in a

CRISPR/Cas9 cell-survival screen using mouse embryo fibroblasts and found to be

required for a step in reovirus entry that follows ISVP formation. WDR81 is required for

the maturation of late endosomes by modulating levels of phosphatidylinositol 3-

phosphate (67). These findings, coupled with our studies of NPC1, suggest that ISVPs

formed in an altered endocytic compartment of cells lacking either WDR81 or NPC1

cannot launch replication, whereas ISVPs adsorbed to the surface of such cells can.

We think that alterations in cholesterol distribution might govern this difference in ISVP

behavior.

Cholesterol accumulation due to NPC1 dysfunction also can lead to alterations in

the distribution of host proteins, such as annexin A2 (ANXA2), which was identified in

our siRNA screen, and annexin A6 (ANXA6) (68). ANXA2 and ANXA6 are

multifunctional proteins involved in endosomal trafficking, segregation of membrane

lipids, and membrane curvature regulation through membrane-cytoskeleton

rearrangements (69). Disruption of NPC1 leads to increased concentrations of ANXA2

and ANXA6 in late endosomes in response to cholesterol accumulation (70, 71). It is

possible that cholesterol accumulation in cells lacking NPC1 similarly alters the

distribution or function of WDR81. Thus, dysfunction of endosomal proteins in NPC1-

null cells might alter potential interactions of μ1N or the reovirus core with specific lipid

microdomains or proteins and inhibit core release.

Genetic screens are useful approaches to identify host factors required for viral

replication and provide valuable information about virus-cell interactions (72, 73).

However, genetic screens frequently yield long lists of potential candidates, many of

which are false-positives. To increase the likelihood of identifying host factors required

for reovirus replication, we compared gene lists obtained from independent genome-

wide CRISPR/Cas9 and siRNA-based cell-survival screens. Only 28 genes in the

CRISPR/Cas9 screens using strains T1L and T3D were identified in the siRNA screen

using strain T3SA+, 19 of which are ribosomal genes (Fig. 1B, C). Of the nine non-

ribosomal genes, several encode proteins required for reovirus entry, including those

involved in sialic acid biosynthesis and metabolism (*Nans* and *Neu*) (37, 38) and viral

disassembly (*Ctsl*) (22).

Our findings indicate that NPC1, which was identified in both CRISPR/Cas9 and

siRNA screens, is required for efficient release of reovirus cores into the cytoplasm by

regulating cholesterol homeostasis. High-resolution studies showing the precise

distribution of reovirus virions and cores within endosomes will be required to

understand how NPC1 and cholesterol homeostasis regulate core release. These

studies will allow us to answer the following new questions: Do cores interact with

endosomal membranes in KO cells? Does cholesterol impede interactions of cores with

membranes? Are other lipids or proteins required for core release? Our ongoing work to

answer these questions will clarify the functional elements of the reovirus entry pathway

and lead to new approaches to block the entry of viruses that depend on tightly

regulated cholesterol distribution in the endocytic pathway.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells and viruses

HBMECs were cultured in growth medium (RPMI 1640 (Gibco) supplemented to

contain 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; VWR 97068-085), 10% Nu Serum (Corning), 1%

MEM-vitamins (Corning), 1% sodium pyruvate (Gibco), 1% MEM non-essential amino

acids (Gibco), 1% L-glutamine (Gibco), 1% penicillin/streptomycin (Gibco), and 0.1%

amphotericin B (Sigma)) or infection medium (growth medium containing 2% FBS). BV2

mouse microglial cells were cultured in BV2 maintenance medium (DMEM

supplemented to contain 10% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, 1% sodium pyruvate,

and 1% sodium bicarbonate) or selection medium (maintenance media supplemented

with 4 μg/ml blasticidin (Thermo Fisher) and 2.5 μg/ml puromycin (Sigma-Aldrich)).

HeLa cells were cultured in Dulbecco modified Eagle medium (Gibco) supplemented to

contain 10% FBS, minimal essential medium nonessential amino acid solution (Gibco),

0.11 mg/mL of sodium pyruvate (Gibco), and 1% penicillin/ streptomycin, and 0.1%

amphotericin B (Sigma). Spinner-adapted L929 cells (originally obtained from the

Bernard Fields laboratory; ATCC CCL-1) were grown in either suspension or

monolayers in Joklik's modified Eagle's minimal essential medium (US Biological;

M3867) supplemented to contain 5% FBS, 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 units/ml penicillin,

100 μg/ml streptomycin, and 0.1% amphotericin B.

Reovirus strains T1L, T3D, T3SA+, and T1L M1-P208S, were prepared from

laboratory stocks by plaque purification followed by 3 to 4 passages in L929 cells.

T3SA+ contains nine genes from T1L and the S1 gene from T3C44-MA (36). T1L M1-

P208S contains a point mutation in the M1 gene that causes viral factories to have a

globular morphology similar to the morphology of factories formed by reovirus T3D (43)

and can be readily scored for infection. Virions were purified from infected L929 cell

lysates using cesium chloride gradient centrifugation as described (74). Viral titers were

determined by plaque assay using L929 cells (75) and expressed as plaque forming

units per ml (PFU/ml). Reovirus particle concentration was estimated by spectral

absorbance of purified virions at 260 nm (optical density at 260 nm [OD_{260}] of 1 =

2.1×10^{12} particles/ml) (76).

Fluorescent reovirus particles were prepared by diluting 6×10^{12} reovirus

particles/ml in 50 mM sodium bicarbonate buffer and incubating with 20 μM Alexa

Fluor™ 647 NHS Ester (Succinimidyl Ester) (Invitrogen, A37573) at room temperature

(RT) for 90 min, protected from light (77). Labeled virions were dialyzed at 4°C

overnight with 2-3 buffer exchanges to remove unreacted dye.

ISVPs were prepared by incubating 2×10^{12} purified reovirus particles with 200

µg/mL chymotrypsin (Sigma, C3142) at 37°C for 60 min (23). Digestion was terminated

by the addition of PMSF to a final concentration of 2 mM. Virion-to-ISVP conversion

was confirmed by SDS-PAGE and colloidal blue staining to assess the loss of σ3 and

cleavage of µ1C to δ.

Antibodies and dyes

Primary antibodies used for indirect immunofluorescence include anti-CD63 (1:250)

(Thermofisher, #10628D), reovirus-specific polyclonal rabbit antiserum (1:1000) (78),

and T1L core-specific rabbit antiserum (1:250) provided by Max Nibert (79). Alexa Fluor

conjugated secondary antibodies (Thermo Fisher, #A11034, #A11030) were used to

visualize antigen. Nuclei were stained with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI,

Invitrogen, D3571). Primary antibodies used for immunoblotting include reovirus-

specific polyclonal rabbit antiserum, NPC1-specific polyclonal rabbit antiserum (Abcam,

134113), and mouse GAPDH monoclonal antibody for protein loading controls (Sigma,

G8795). Anti-mouse IRDye680RD and anti-rabbit IRDye800CW (Licor) secondary

antibodies were used.

CRISPR Screen

The screen was conducted and transduction validated as described (80). BV2 cells

were transduced with pXPR_101 lentivirus encoding Cas9 (Addgene; 52962) and

propagated for 11 days with BV2 Maintenance Medium supplemented to contain

blasticidin. These parental BV2 or BV2-Cas9 cells were transduced for 2 days with

pXPR_011 expressing eGFP (Addgene; 59702) and a short guide RNA (sgRNA)

targeting eGFP at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of less than 1 PFU/cell. Cells were

selected for 5 days with BV2 selection medium. The frequency of eGFP-expressing

cells was quantified by flow cytometry.

The murine Asiago sgRNA CRISPR library contains six independent genome-

wide pools, in which each pool contains unique sgRNAs targeting 20,077 mouse genes.

Four pools of the Asiago library were transduced into 5×10^7 BV2 cells at an MOI of 0.2

PFU/cell to establish four BV2 libraries. Two days post-transduction, cells were

transferred to BV2 Selection Medium and propagated for 5 additional days. For each

experimental condition, 10^7 BV2 library cells expressing Cas9 and sgRNAs were

seeded in duplicate into T175 tissue culture flasks (Greiner Bio-One). Cells were

inoculated with Opti-MEM supplemented to contain PBS (mock) or reovirus strains T1L

or T3D at an MOI of 100 PFU/cell. Cells were incubated at RT for 1 h, followed by the

addition of 20 mL of DMEM supplemented to contain 10% FBS, 1%

penicillin/streptomycin, 1% sodium pyruvate, and 1% sodium bicarbonate. After 2 days

post-inoculation (dpi) (mock) or 9 dpi (T1L or T3D conditions), cells were harvested and

genomic DNA (gDNA) was isolated from surviving cells using a QIAmp DNA Mini Kit

(QIAGEN) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

CRISPR screen sequencing and analysis

Illumina sequencing and STARS analyses were conducted as described (81). The

gDNA was aliquoted into a 96-well plate (Greiner Bio-One) with up to 10 μg gDNA in 50

μL of total volume per well. A polymerase chain reaction (PCR) master mix containing

ExTaq DNA polymerase (Clontech), ExTaq buffer (Clontech), dNTPs, P5 stagger

primer, and water was prepared. PCR master mix (40 μL) and 10 μL of a barcoded

primer were added to each well containing gDNA. Samples were amplified using the

following protocol: 95°C for 1 min, followed by 28 cycles of 94°C for 50 s, 52.5°C for 30

s, and 72°C for 30 s, and ending with a final 72°C extension for 10 min. PCR product

was purified using Agencourt AMPure XP SPRI beads (Beckman Coulter) according to

the manufacturer's instructions. Samples were sequenced using a HiSeq 2000

(Illumina). Following deconvolution of the barcodes in the P7 primer, sgRNA sequences

were mapped to a reference file of sgRNAs from the Asiago library. To account for the

varying number of reads per condition, read counts per sgRNA were normalized to 10^7

total reads per sample. Normalized values were then log-2 transformed. sgRNAs that

were not detected were arbitrarily assigned a read count of 1. sgRNA frequencies were

analyzed using STARS software to produce a rank ordered score for each gene. This

score correlated with the sgRNA candidates that were above 10% of the total

sequenced sgRNAs. Genes scoring above this threshold in either of the two

independent subpools and in at least two of the four independent genome-wide pools

were assigned a STAR score. In addition to the STAR score, screen results were

compared using false discovery rate (FDR) analyses to monitor gene-specific signal

versus background noise. Statistical values of independent replicates were averaged.

Whole genome siRNA screen and analysis

The whole genome siRNA screen was conducted as described (35) using HeLa S3

cells and the Dharmacon ON-TARGETplus® SMARTpool® human siRNA library

(Thermo Scientific) and strain T3SA+.

Production of NPC1 KO and KO+ cell lines

HBMEC single-cell clones with ablation of the *NPC1* gene were engineered using

CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene editing as described (82) using an NPC1-specific gRNA

(5′ GGCCTTGTCATTACTTGAGGGGG 3′, targeting nucleotides 768-790 of the human

NPC1 mRNA). Single-cell clones were screened for the loss of NPC1 function by filipin

III staining (82). Genotype of the selected NPC1 KO clones was confirmed by Sanger

sequencing followed by amplification of the genomic DNA sequences flanking the

gRNA target site using forward (5′ TCATAAACACACCAAACTTGGAATC 3′) and

reverse (5′ TCCTGCGGCAGAGGTTTTC 3′) primers. Sequences of the NPC1 alleles

were deconvoluted using CRISP-ID (83). To confirm the specificity of *Npc1* knockout,

cells of a single clone were transduced with a retrovirus vector (pBabe-Puro)

expressing human NPC1 as described (47).

Indirect immunofluorescence staining

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Electron Microscopy Sciences,

15712-s) in PBS$^{-/-}$ at RT for 20 min, washed three times with PBS$^{-/-}$, and permeabilized

and blocked with 0.1% Triton X-100 and 2% FBS in PBS$^{-/-}$ at RT for 20 min. Cells were

incubated sequentially with primary antibody, Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary

antibody, and DAPI diluted in PBS$^{-/-}$ containing 0.1% Triton X-100 and 2% FBS at RT

for 30 to 60 min. For cholesterol labeling, fixed and permeabilized cells were incubated

with 50 µg/ml filipin III (Sigma, SAE0088) diluted in PBS$^{-/-}$ for 30 min. Coverslips were

mounted using Prolong-gold (Molecular Probes). Confocal images were captured using

a Leica-SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope equipped with an HCX PL APO

63X/1.4 N.A oil objective and processed using Fiji/ImageJ software.

SDS-PAGE and Immunoblotting

Cells harvested for protein extraction were lysed in Radioimmunoprecipitation Assay

buffer (*RIPA buffer*; Thermo Fisher) supplemented with 1X protease inhibitors (Thermo

Fisher). Protein concentration was quantified by Bradford assay (Bio-Rad) following the

manufacturer's protocol. Samples for SDS-PAGE were diluted in 5X Laemmli sample

buffer (Bio-Rad) containing 10% β-mercaptoethanol and incubated at 95°C for 10 min.

Samples for detection of NPC1 were incubated at 70°C for 10 min to prevent

aggregation. Equal amounts of protein were electrophoresed in 10% or 4-20% Mini-

Protean TGX gels (Bio-Rad). Following electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to

nitrocellulose membranes (Bio-Rad) for immunoblotting. Nitrocellulose membranes

were incubated with 5% nonfat milk in TBS (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6; 150 mM NaCl)

with 0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-T) and sequentially incubated with primary and secondary

antibodies diluted in TBS-T at RT for 1 h. Immunoblot images were captured using an

Odyssey CLx imaging system (Li-Cor) and protein bands were quantified using the

Image Studio Lite software. Protein expression levels were normalized to GAPDH

loading controls.

Quantification of reovirus infectivity

In experiments comparing infectivity of reovirus in KO, KO+, and WT HBMECs, cells

were adsorbed with 10,000 reovirus virions or 100 ISVPs diluted in Opti-MEM

(Invitrogen) at 37°C for 1 h. Following adsorption, the inoculum was removed, and cells

were incubated in infection medium for 18 h before fixing in ice-cold methanol. In

experiments comparing reovirus infectivity in the presence or absence of HβCD, cells

were treated with 1 mM HβCD or PBS for 24 h prior to adsorption with reovirus.

Following adsorption, fresh 1 mM HβCD was added to the medium for 18 h before fixing

in ice-cold methanol. Fixed cells were washed with PBS$^{-/-}$, blocked with 1% bovine

serum albumin (BSA), and incubated sequentially with reovirus-specific polyclonal

rabbit antiserum, Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated anti-rabbit antibody, and DAPI in PBS$^{-/-}$

containing 0.5% Triton X-100. Cells were imaged using a Lionheart FX automated

imager (BioTek) equipped with a 20X air objective, taking four fields-of-view from

duplicate samples. Images were processed and signals quantified using Gen5+

software (BioTek).

Viral binding

KO, KO+, and WT HBMECs were detached from tissue-culture plates using

CellStripper dissociation reagent (Corning), quenched with HBMEC medium, and

washed with PBS$^{-/-}$. Cells were resuspended in PBS$^{-/-}$ at 10^6 cells/ml and adsorbed with

10,000 Alexa Fluor 647-labeled reovirus virions/cell at 4°C for 1 h with agitation. After

binding, cells were washed twice with PBS$^{-/-}$ and fixed with 1% paraformaldehyde (PFA)

supplemented with propidium iodide to determine cell viability. Cells were analyzed

using an LSRII flow cytometer (BD Bioscience). Results were quantified using FlowJo

V10 software.

Live microscopy of reovirus internalization

KO, KO+, and WT HBMECs were plated on glass-bottom p35 plates and adsorbed with

10,000 Alexa 647-labeled reovirus virions/cell at 4°C for 45 min to synchronize

infection. The inoculum was removed and replaced with fresh Opti-MEM without

phenol-red medium supplemented with 2% FBS. Reovirus transport was imaged using

a Leica DMI6000B fluorescence microscope with an HCX PL APO 63X/1.30 Gly

objective. Fluorescence and brightfield images were collected from 0 to 40 min post

adsorption every ~ 25 sec.

Tracking of reovirus transport

Automated tracking of fluorescent reovirus particles in time-lapse images was

conducted using Icy bioimage analysis software. Regions of interest (ROI)

corresponding to the cell periphery were selected for tracking analysis using the Spot

Detector plugin (84). The scale of the object (reovirus cores) to be analyzed was set at

a size of ~7 pixels per spot, and the threshold sensitivity was set at 100. Parameters

describing transport dynamics were considered as both diffusive and directed for

running tracking analysis. Results are presented in colored time-dependent tracks.

Quantification of reovirus cores

KO, KO+, and WT HBMECs were adsorbed with 10,000 Alexa Fluor 647-labeled

reovirus virions at 37°C for 45 min. The inoculum was removed, and the cells were

incubated in infection medium containing 100 µg/ml of cycloheximide for 8 h. After

fixation, cells were permeabilized and stained with T1L core-specific rabbit polyclonal

serum and anti-CD63 antibody. Confocal images were captured using a Leica-SP8

laser scanning confocal microscope equipped with an HCX PL APO 63X/1.4 N.A oil

objective and processed using Fiji/ImageJ software. Colocalization of fluorescent

reovirus virions (cyan puncta), reovirus cores (green puncta), and late endosomes (red

puncta) was analyzed to differentiate infecting virions from cores released into the

cytoplasm.

RNA extraction and purification

Cells were lysed using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen). RNA was extracted with chloroform

and purified using a PureLink RNA minikit (Invitrogen) with DNase treatment according

to the manufacturer's instructions.

S4 quantitative RT-PCR

Total S4 RNA was quantified using qScript XLT one-step RT-qPCR ToughMix, Low

ROX (Quanta Bioscience) and T3D_S4_qPCR primers (Forward:

GAAGCATTTGCCTCACCATAG, Reverse: GATCTGTCCAACTTGAGTGTATTG)

according to the manufacturer's instructions. The following RT-qPCR cycling protocol

was used: cDNA synthesis (50°C for 10 min), initial denaturation (95°C for 1 min), and

40 PCR cycles (95°C for 10 s followed by a data collection step at 60°C for 1 min). S4

cDNA was detected using a fluorogenic probe (5′-FAM [fluorescent fluorescein]-

AGCGCGCAAGAGGGATGGGA-BHQ [black hole quencher]-1-3′; Biosearch

Technologies).

Statistical analysis

All data were analyzed using Graphpad Prism 8. Figure legends specify the number of

experimental repeats and the statistical test applied for each analysis. Differences were

considered statistically significant when P values were less than 0.05.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank members of the Dermody and Risco laboratories for many useful discussions. We are grateful to the UPMC Children's Hospital of Pittsburgh Rangos Research Center Cell Imaging Core Laboratory for assistance with microscopy. Special thanks to Dr. Martin Sachse for expert advice and for critical review of the manuscript and to Drs. Sylvia Gutiérrez-Erlandsson and Ana Oña for assistance with confocal microscopy.

This work was supported in part by Public Health Service award R01 AI032539 (C.R. and T.S.D.) and the Heinz Endowments (T.S.D.) and grants BIO2015-68758-R and RTI2018-094445-B-100 from the Ministry of Science and Innovation of Spain (C.R.).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceived and designed experiments: POG, GT CR TSD. **Performed experiments**: POG GT RKJ BAM RCO CBW. **Analyzed data**: POG GT. **Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools**: RKJ RCO CBW KC HWV. **Wrote original draft**: POG, GT TSD. **Reviewed and edited paper**: POG GT RKJ RT IF BAM RCO CBW PAB JS KC HWV CR TSD.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG 1 CRISPR and siRNA screens identify NPC1 as a cellular factor required for

reovirus infection. (A) The top 20 candidates from the CRISPR screen using reovirus

strains T1L and T3D are ranked by their STAR scores. Heat map indicates STAR

values. (B) Genes from the siRNA screen using reovirus strain T3SA+ common to the

CRISPR screen using T1L and T3D, excluding ribosomal genes. Heat map indicates z-

score values. (C) Venn diagram of genes from the CRISPR screens using T1L and T3D

and the siRNA screen using T3SA+. (D) Molecular function pathways using Gene

Ontology to analyze genes from the CRISPR screen common to T1L and T3D. (E)

KEGG pathways identified for the CRISPR screen using T1L (red) and T3D (blue) and

siRNA screen using T3SA+ (light blue).

FIG 2 Viral infectivity and titers following adsorption by reovirus virions and ISVPs. (A,

B) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were adsorbed with reovirus (A) virions or (B) ISVPs at

MOIs of 10,000 or 100 particles/cell, respectively, and fixed at 18 h post-adsorption.

The percentage of infected cells was determined by enumerating reovirus-infected cells

following immunostaining with a reovirus-specific antiserum. (C-F) WT, KO, and KO+

cells were adsorbed with reovirus (C, E) virions at an MOI of 1 PFU/cell or (D, F) ISVPs

at an MOI of 5 particles/cell. Viral titers in cell-culture supernatants and lysates were

determined by plaque assay at 0, 24, and 48 h post-adsorption. The results are

presented as the mean of three independent experiments. Error bars indicated standard

deviation. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$, as determined by t-

test.

FIG 3 Binding, internalization, and uncoating are not disrupted by cholesterol

accumulation in NPC1 KO HBMECs. (A) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were adsorbed

with Alexa 647 labeled-reovirus virions at an MOI of 10,000 particles/cell at 4°C for 1 h,

fixed with 1% PFA, and analyzed for virus binding using flow cytometry. The results are

presented as mean virus binding as determined by mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of

three independent experiments. Error bars indicated standard deviation. (B) WT, KO,

and KO+ HBMECs were adsorbed with Alexa 647 labeled-reovirus virions at an MOI of

10,000 particles/cell at 4°C for 45 min and imaged using high magnification live-cell

imaging, with images captured every ~ 25 seconds. Representative micrographs from

videos at the indicated intervals are shown. Scale bars, 10 μm. (C) WT, KO, and KO+

HBMECs were adsorbed with reovirus virions at an MOI of 10,000 particles/cell at 4°C

for 1 h and lysed at the intervals post-adsorption shown. Cell lysates were subjected to

electrophoresis and immunoblotting using a reovirus-specific polyclonal rabbit

antiserum. The results are presented as the mean ratio of the δ and μ1C bands from

three independent experiments. Error bars indicate standard deviation. Differences are

not significant, as determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test.

FIG 4 Cytosolic entry of reovirus cores. (A) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were adsorbed

with Alexa 647 labeled-reovirus virions at an MOI of 10,000 particles/cell at 37°C for 45

min and fixed with 4% PFA at 8 h post-adsorption. Cells were stained with DAPI, a CD-

63-specific antibody to label endosomes, and an antiserum specific for reovirus cores,

and imaged using confocal microscopy. Representative confocal micrographs are

shown. (B) Colocalization of reovirus, cores, and endosomes was analyzed using the

JaCoP plugin function from ImageJ. The results are presented as the mean

colocalization (quantified by Manders coefficient) of ~ 50 cells from three independent

experiments. Error bars indicate standard deviation. **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$, as

determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test.

FIG 5 Synthesis of nascent RNA is reduced in NPC1 KO HBMECs. WT, KO, and KO+

HBMECs were adsorbed with reovirus virions at an MOI of 1 PFU/cell at 37°C for 1 h,

lysed at the intervals post-adsorption shown, and assayed for positive-sense reovirus

s4 RNA by RT-qPCR. The results are presented as the mean number of copies of

reovirus s4 RNA by qPCR from two independent experiments. Error bars indicate

standard errors of the mean. **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$, as determined by t-test.

FIG 6 HβCD treatment restores reovirus infection of NPC1 KO HBMECs. WT, KO, and

KO+ HBMECs were pretreated with 1 mM HβCD or PBS for 24 h, adsorbed with

reovirus virions or ISVPs at MOIs of 10,000 or 100 particles/cell, respectively, and fixed

at 18 h post-adsorption. The percentage of infected cells was determined by

enumerating reovirus-infected cells following immunostaining with a reovirus-specific

antiserum. The results are presented as the mean of three independent experiments.

Error bars indicated standard deviation. ***, $P < 0.001$ as determined by two-tailed

unpaired t-test.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS

FIGURES AND MOVIES

FIG S1 Effect on cholesterol distribution by disruption of NPC1 expression. (A, B)

Lysates of WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were subjected to electrophoresis and

immunoblotting using an NPC1 antiserum. GAPDH was used as loading control. A

representative immunoblot is shown. The results are presented as the mean of two independent experiments. Error bars indicate standard deviation. Statistical analysis was done by two-tailed unpaired t-test. (C) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were stained with filipin III to detect cholesterol distribution. Representative images are shown. Scale bars, 10 μm. (D) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were stained with filipin III and an anti-CD63 antibody to detect the subcellular localization of cholesterol. Representative images are shown. Scale bars, 10 μm.

FIG S2 Viral infectivity following adsorption by T1L, T3D, and T3SA+ virions. (A, B) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were adsorbed with reovirus virions at MOIs of 10,000 particles/cell, and fixed at 18 h post-adsorption. The percentage of infected cells was determined by enumerating reovirus-infected cells following immunostaining with a reovirus-specific antiserum. Error bars indicated standard deviation. **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$, as determine by 2 way ANOVA, Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

FIG S3 HβCD treatment restores cholesterol efflux in KO cells. (A) WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs were treated with HβCD at the concentrations shown for 48 h and assessed for viability using the Presto blue cell viability reagent. The results are presented as the mean cell viability of three independent experiments. Error bars indicated standard deviation. **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$, as determined by two-way ANOVA. (B, C) Cells were treated with 1 mM HβCD or PBS (mock) for 48 h, fixed with 4% PFA, stained with filipin III, and imaged using confocal microscopy. (B) The results are presented as the mean filipin III staining (quantified by MFI) of ~ 50 cells from three independent experiments. Error bars indicate the minimum and the maximum values. *, $P < 0.05$; ****, $P < 0.0001$, as determined by two-tailed unpaired t-test. (C) Representative images of cholesterol distribution in HβCD-treated and mock-treated cells are shown. Scale bars, 10 μm.

VIDEO 1, 2, and 3 High-magnification, live-cell microscopy of fluorescent reovirus virion

transport in WT, KO, and KO+ HBMECs. (1) WT, (2) KO, and (3) KO+ cells were

adsorbed with Alexa 647-labeled reovirus virions at an MOI of 10,000 particles/cell at

4°C for 45 min. Fluorescence and brightfield images were captured every ~ 25 seconds

for 36 min.

VIDEO 4, 5, and 6 Tracking of fluorescent reovirus virions recruited to a perinuclear

region following entry. Trajectories of reovirus virions during internalization into WT, KO,

and KO+ HBMECs from videos 1, 2, and 3 were tracked with the spot-tracking plugin

function of Icy-Bioimage analysis software (84). Cell contour was defined as a region of

interest (ROI), and ~ 7 pixels/spot were monitored. The colored bar represents the

trajectory depending on time, in which each color (from yellow to red) corresponds to an

interval of ~ 7.5 min in the time-lapse videos. Scale bars, 10 μm.

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