CpG enrichment as a live attenuated vaccine development strategy for influenza A virus

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ABSTRACT

Synonymous recoding of RNA virus genomes is a promising approach for generating attenuated viruses to

use as vaccines. However, such recoding typically hinders virus growth. A potential solution to this is CpG

dinucleotide enrichment. CpGs are recognised by cellular zinc-finger antiviral protein (ZAP), leading to viral

RNA degradation and/or type I interferon stimulation and consequently reduced viral yields. Therefore, in

principle, removing the ZAP CpG sensor from a virus propagation system will reverse attenuation of a CpG-

enriched virus. Using influenza A viruses (IAVs) engineered for increased CpG content in different genome

regions, we show that ZAP mediated virus attenuation is dependent on the viral segment to which CpGs are

added. In ZAP-expressing human cells, CpG introduction invariably impaired transcript and protein production,

but ZAP-sensitivity did not convey type I interferon activation. Importantly for vaccine development, CpG-

enriched viruses were genetically stable during serial passage. Furthermore, the ZAP-sensitive virus was fully

replication competent in MDCK cells and in embryonated hens' eggs, both of which are used to propagate live

attenuated influenza vaccines. Thus, ZAP-sensitive CpG enriched viruses that are defective in human systems

can yield high titre in vaccine propagation systems, providing a realistic, economically viable platform for live

attenuated vaccine development.

INTRODUCTION

Single stranded RNA (ssRNA) viruses typically under-represent CpG dinucleotides in their genomes (1-3).

Over the past decade, many groups have investigated the impact of synonymously increasing the CpG content

in the genomes of RNA viruses. Without exception, these studies have determined that genomic CpG

enrichment causes viral replication deficiencies (reviewed in (4)). To explain this, it was hypothesised that a cellular antiviral sensor may detect CpG motifs in viral RNAs (5), and in 2017 this idea was confirmed through identification of the cellular protein ZAP (zinc-finger antiviral protein) as a selective binder of CpG motifs in viral RNA transcripts (6). ZAP bound CpG motifs in transcripts made by defective HIV-1 viruses enriched for CpG and knockdown of ZAP restored virus fitness (6).

Two major isoforms of ZAP – ZAPS (short) and ZAPL (long) are produced by alternative splicing (7), with a common N-terminal region that contains four zinc-finger motifs with RNA-binding function (8-10). While CpG-binding activity was originally found to be specific to the short isoform (6), CpG-specific antiviral activity has since also been demonstrated for ZAPL (11). Therefore, a consensus mechanism for CpG sensing by ZAP remains unresolved. ZAPS is an interferon-stimulated gene (ISG) (10,12,13), whereas ZAPL is constitutively expressed (7). For antiviral function, a critical interaction between ZAPS and its binding partner, the RNA-binding E3 ubiquitin ligase-like tripartite motif containing protein 25 (TRIM25) must take place (14,15). The current understanding is that ZAPS binds CpG motifs on viral RNA, and upon subsequent binding by TRIM25 and catalytic activation, a downstream cascade leads to the induction of type I interferon (IFN) (12). ZAPS may also directly bind RNA leading to exonuclease-mediated degradation (16), and so the antiviral activity of ZAPS appears multi-faceted (reviewed in (4)). A newly discovered ZAPS binding partner, KHNYN, has so far only been found to be required for ZAP-mediated antiviral activity during lentivirus infections (17,18). While ZAPS has so far been more extensively studied, interactions of ZAPL with TRIM25 and KHNYN have been shown to be more efficient than those of ZAPS (11). CpG-specific binding by ZAP is likely an evolutionarily conserved trait across tetrapod species that is not retained in avian species (19); nevertheless, chickens express ZAPL but not the shorter isoform (20).

Due to the replication defects so reliably imparted by CpG introduction into viral genomes, CpG enrichment has widely been proposed as a potential strategy for the development of live attenuated vaccines. However, if viral growth is impaired, then the large-scale virus propagation required for vaccine manufacturing (21) is not viable. The identification of ZAPS as a CpG sensor (6) delivered the possibility that CpG-enriched viruses could be grown in ZAPS knockout (KO) systems, thus restoring viral titre in an artificial system, with the replication defect maintained in a vaccine recipient (4).

Live attenuated vaccines for IAV are used in children in the USA and Europe (22,23), with up to 14 million doses delivered annually (24). Influenza A virus (IAV) represents an ideal virus to target using vaccines engineered to incorporate additional CpGs, as this approach has the potential to overcome some of the

significant challenges arising during live attenuated IAV vaccine manufacture. IAV live vaccines are propagated in either embryonated hens' eggs or MDCK cells. For egg based vaccines, unpredictable supply and ethical challenges mean that there is a consensus about the need to move towards cell culture generated vaccines such as those propagated in MDCK cells (25,26). However, MDCK based vaccines are more expensive and large scale manufacture will require set up of new production pipelines (27,28); therefore, this transition is not straightforward and egg-based vaccines will be propagated for the foreseeable future.

The IAV genome is (relatively) straightforward to recode (i.e., synonymously alter the genetic sequence of) due to the facile reverse genetics system (29,30), in which the 8 segments of negative sense RNA genome are encoded on plasmids that upon co-transfection into permissive cells yield infectious virus. The IAV genome itself is thoroughly characterised, with well-defined packaging signals (31-33) and gene annotation (including accessory proteins, reviewed in (34)), providing comparative clarity about which genome regions may be suitable for recoding and those that must remain unaltered. Furthermore, prior to the discovery of ZAPS as a CpG sensor (6), we found that synonymous addition of CpGs to IAV genome segment 5 (encoding nucleoprotein (NP)) significantly attenuated the virus but that antibody and T cell responses to infection were equivalent in mice, thereby demonstrating that attenuation mediated by CpG enrichment need not impair development of adaptive immunity (35). Additionally, both IAV vaccine propagation systems - eggs or MDCK cells - can be subjected to genome editing (36,37) to improve virus yield.

To further develop the strategy of CpG enrichment as a route to a live attenuated vaccine for IAV, we tested the effects of adding CpG to another viral segment, and assessed the impact of this on various aspects of virus replication. Surprisingly, while both segment 1 (encoding the polymerase protein PB2) and segment 5 CpG-high viruses were attenuated in human cell systems, only the segment 1 CpG-high virus could have wildtype fitness restored by ZAP KO. The ZAP-sensitive virus was genetically stable in ZAP-positive cells, and unexpectedly showed no growth defect in the embryonated hens' egg or MDCK cell systems used for vaccine virus propagation. Therefore, we have provided a pathway for the development of CpG-enriched live attenuated IAV viruses that can be propagated to high yield using standard approaches.

RESULTS

Adding CpG dinucleotides to the IAV genome can cause a ZAPS-dependent or independent defect in replication.

We have previously shown that synonymous addition of CpGs to segment 5 of the IAV genome inhibited virus

replication (35). This work was undertaken prior to the discovery that ZAP is a cellular restriction factor that

recognises CpG-enriched transcripts (6). We therefore investigated whether adding CpGs to a different IAV

segment led to a replication deficiency and if CpG-enriched IAVs in general could be restored to wildtype (WT)

virus fitness in ZAP -/- cells. To do this, CpGs were synonymously added into segment 1 of the PR8 strain of

IAV genome (+126 CpGs) to provide a comparator to our existing segment 5 CpG-high (+86 CpGs) virus (35).

As before, compensatory mutations to maintain individual base frequencies across the recoded regions of

segment 1 were also incorporated, while a control ('CDLR') virus that was synonymously recoded in the same

region by rearrangement of codons was also engineered, so that any attenuation imparted by disruption of e.g.

RNA structures or alternative open reading frames would be detected. The panel of viral mutants is

summarised (**Table 1**).

When CpG motifs were added into segment 1 of the virus (encoding the polymerase component PB2), the

generated mutant ('seg1-CpGH') displayed a significant ~1.5-$\log_{10}$ defect in production of infectious virus

progeny in A549 cells, whereas no defect was apparent in the control-recoded seg1-CDLR virus (**Fig. 1A**). In

ZAP -/- cells that were confirmed negative for ZAP expression by western blotting (**Fig. S1A**) (38), the

replication defect of seg1-CpGH was lost (**Fig. 1A**), suggesting that the additional CpGs rendered this virus

susceptible to ZAP activity in WT cells. When the same infection experiments were performed using the seg5-

CpGH virus (35), a similar replication defect of ~1.5 $\log_{10}$ was observed (**Fig. 1B**) (as reported previously (35)).

However, the defect imparted by CpG enrichment was not altered in ZAP -/- cells, indicating that the seg5-

CpGH virus had a replication defect not mediated by ZAP. Notably, the seg5-CpGH virus generated

considerably smaller plaques in MDCK cells, whereas the plaque size reduction phenotype was minimal for

seg1-CpGH (**Fig. S2**).

ZAP binding partner TRIM25 is required for ZAP antiviral activity (14,15) and so a further comparison of the

replication of WT and seg1- and seg5-CpGH mutants was undertaken in TRIM25-/- cells (validated in **Fig.**

S1B) (39). In WT HEK293 cells, both the seg1-CpGH and seg5-CpGH viruses were again significantly

impaired in their replication (**Fig. 1C, D**). As with ZAP KO, TRIM25 KO also resulted in rescued replication of

seg1-CpGH (**Fig. 1C**) but not seg5-CpGH viruses (**Fig. 1D**).

Figure 1. *Influenza A viruses with CpG enrichment in segment 1 or segment 5 have replication defects mediated by ZAP-dependent and ZAP-independent mechanisms.* WT PR8, synonymously permuted control virus (CDLR) and CpG enriched (CpGH) viruses were used to infect various cell types at low MOI for 48 hours. Synonymous recoding was performed either in segment 1 (seg1 virus panel) or segment 5 (seg5 virus panel). **A.** Seg1 virus panel was grown in A549 and paired ZAP -/- cells. **B.** Seg5 virus panel was grown in A549 and paired ZAP -/- cells. **C.** Seg1 virus panel was grown in 293 and paired TRIM25 -/- cells. **D.** Seg 5 virus panel was grown in 293 and paired TRIM25 -/- cells. **E.** siRNA knockdown of ZAP or TRIM25 in NHDF primary cells was confirmed by western blot. **F.** Impact of ZAP or TRIM25 knockdown on replication of the seg1 virus panel in NHDFs. **G.** Seg1 virus panel was grown in A549 and paired KHNYN -/- cells. **H.** Seg5 virus panel was grown in A549 and paired KHNYN -/- cells. **I.** ZAPL/ ZAPS expression was reconstituted in A549 cells using lentivirus expression constructs, and isoform-specific expression was confirmed by western blotting. **J.** A549 ZAP-/- cells were reconstituted for isoform-specific ZAPL or ZAPS expression, and titres of seg1 virus panel were determined. For validation of KO phenotypes, please refer to **Fig. S1**. Plaque phenotypes of the seg1 and seg5 virus panels are presented in **Fig. S2**. Confocal visualisation of ZAP reconstitution is presented in **Fig. S3**.

All experiments so far had been performed in immortalised cells and so whether the observed phenotypes

could be recapitulated in primary cells was investigated. siRNA knockdown of ZAP and TRIM25 was applied

in NHDF cells (primary human foreskin fibroblasts) (as previously described (40)) and successful knockdown

was confirmed by western blotting (**Fig. 1E**). While ZAP knockdown recapitulated rescue of seg1-CpGH

fitness, TRIM25 knockdown did not (**Fig. 1F**). As TRIM25 knockdown was incomplete (Fig. 1E), this may

indicate that sub-physiological levels of TRIM25 are needed for its role during CpG recognition. Replication of

the seg5-CpGH virus was too defective in NHDF cells to perform the same set of experiments for the seg5

virus panel (data not shown).

Next, we tested the impact of KO of KHNYN, another ZAP-binding partner (17), on replication of the seg1 and

seg5 virus panels; KHNYN KO in A549 cells was confirmed by western blot (**Fig. S1C**). In WT A549 cells, a

significant defect in the replication of seg1-CpGH and seg5-CpGH was seen again (**Fig. 1G**). In KHNYN-/-

cells, seg1-CpGH virus titres remained significantly lower than those of WT PR8. However, the fold difference

in titre between WT PR8 and seg1-CpGH was significantly less in the absence of KHNYN, indicating a partial

rescue of seg1-CpGH replication in the absence of KHNYN. Consistent with other gene KOs, that of KHNYN

did not affect the replication defect of the seg5-CpGH virus (p = ns for change in fold difference) (**Fig. 1H**).

To determine whether ZAP sensitivity of the seg1-CpGH virus was mediated by a specific ZAP isoform,

expression of ZAPL or ZAPS was reconstituted in A549 ZAP -/- cells using lentivirus vectors expressing

individual ZAP isoforms. Isoform-specific expression was confirmed by western blotting (**Fig. 1I**). Even levels

of cellular expression for ZAPS were confirmed by confocal microscopy, while ZAPL expression was more

variable (**Fig. S3**). This panel of cells was then infected with the seg1 virus panel, and the replication defect

reported above (Fig. 1A) was recapitulated (**Fig. 1J**). In ZAP-/- cells expressing an empty pSCRPSY lentivirus

vector there was no difference in replication between WT, seg1-CDLR and seg1-CpGH viruses in the absence

of ZAP, indicating that the lentivirus vector did not impair seg1-CpGH virus replication. When ZAPL expression

was reconstituted, a modest increase in the replication of all viruses in the panel was observed, and the titres

of seg1-CpGH remained similar to those of WT PR8. However, when ZAPS was overexpressed, all viruses in

the panel replicated less well than in WT cells, but the titres of seg1-CpGH relative to WT PR8 virus were

significantly lower, indicating that ZAPS is the CpG sensor for the seg1-CpGH virus.

CpG introduction attenuates IAV replication, but not necessarily though ZAP. When CpG introduction confers

ZAP sensitivity, repression requires TRIM25 and ZAPS in particular but is less dependent on KHNYN.

CpG enrichment in segment 1 causes viral attenuation in mice.

Previously, we showed that adding CpGs into segment 5 of PR8 caused a fitness loss in mice (35). However,

since this attenuation is independent of ZAP (Fig. 1B), it was possible that a ZAP-sensitive CpG-enriched virus

might show a different phenotype in mice. Therefore, mice were infected with the seg1 virus panel under the

same conditions as previously reported (200 PFU virus were inoculated into 6-week old female BALB/c mice).

All virus-infected animals lost weight after day 2 post infection but mice infected with seg1-CpGH lost

significantly less weight than mice infected with WT PR8 (**Fig. 2A**). In addition, seg1-CpGH viral loads in the

lung were significantly lower (**Fig. 2B**). Therefore, ZAP-dependent CpG-driven attenuation *in vitro* also leads

to attenuation in an *in vivo* system.

Figure 2. Seg1-CpGH virus is attenuated in mice. Groups of six, 6 week-old female BALB/c mice were infected with 200PFU of either

WT PR8 virus, seg1-CDLR permuted control, seg1-CpGH virus or mock infected (*n* = 2) for 5 days; weight change measured daily (**A**).

On day 5, lower left lung lobes were harvested and the presence of infectious virus was quantified (**B**).

CpG enrichment may affect transcriptional or translational efficiency for IAV.

Defective viral replication was imparted by addition of CpGs into either segment 1 or segment 5 of IAV, but

only the segment 1 mutant had fitness restored by ZAP depletion. We hypothesised that adding CpGs may

impact different stages of the virus replication cycle in different ways, depending on where in the viral genome

the CpGs were added. The key stages of virus replication we considered most likely to be affected by genomic

CpG enrichment were transcription and translation, post-transcriptional modifications, type I IFN induction and

virus assembly. We first examined transcription and translation.

We first assessed whether viral transcript and/or protein production were affected by CpG enrichment during

virus replication. Time-course experiments were performed at high MOI with samples collected at 1, 2, 4, 6, 8

and 12hpi for quantification of total viral RNAs and proteins. Lower gene and protein expression levels (for

both PB2 and NP) were seen for the seg1-CpGH virus compared with WT PR8 and paired CDLR control virus (**Fig. 3 A-C**). For the seg5-CpGH virus (**Fig. 3 D-F**), CpGH transcript levels were also lower than WT or CDLR counterparts, but these data were borderline statistically significant. However, by western blotting, protein levels were obviously affected.

Figure 3. CpG enrichment in the IAV genome results in reduced transcriptional levels during virus replication. Transcription and translation were investigated in the context of infection using high MOI timecourses. Seg1 virus panel infections were analysed for segment 1 (**A**) or segment 5 (**B**) RNA production, and for protein production from the genes corresponding to these segments (PB2 and NP respectively) (**C**). Seg5 virus panel infections were analysed for segment 1 (**D**) or segment 5 (**E**) RNA production, and for protein production from the genes corresponding to these segments (PB2 and NP respectively) (**F**). Throughout, n = 3; for blots, representative data are shown.

The reduced transcript levels for both CpGH mutants might be explained by inefficiencies of the viral polymerase. Therefore, polymerase functionality was assessed using vRNP reconstitution assays using luciferase under an IAV promoter, thereby coupling IAV transcription and translation in a cell-based assay in the absence of infection (41). Four plasmids corresponding to the viral RNP proteins (PB2, PB1, PA and NP, encoded on genome segments 1, 2, 3 and 5 respectively) that complex with vRNA to make vRNPs were transfected into HEK293T cells. As PB2 is encoded on segment 1, and NP on segment 5, the impact of CpG enrichment on segment 1 and segment 5 was directly compared by titration of the corresponding plasmid in this assay. For the seg1-CpGH construct, luciferase activity was significantly lower than for WT PR8 and CDLR controls at non-saturating plasmid concentrations (**Fig. 4A**). This reduced luciferase production was confirmed

by western blotting (**Fig. 4B**). Although only segment 1 was recoded, production of both PB2 and NP were also reduced, most likely indicating that vRNPs were formed at a lower efficiency as a consequence of reduced transcription/translation of the seg1-CpGH construct. For seg5-CpGH, luciferase signal was slightly but not significantly lower than the WT PR8 and CDLR controls (**Fig. 4C**); correspondingly, luciferase protein levels titrated similarly (**Fig. 4D**). NP protein levels were lower for the seg5-CpGH construct, but PB2 levels were not. Thus, luciferase reporter signals indicated that seg1-CpGH vRNPs had reduced polymerase activity, whereas the seg5-CpGH polymerase activity was equivalent to WT; however, there was an apparent defect in protein production for this construct.

Possibly, the impaired polymerase and translational defects so far identified for seg1-CpGH and seg5-CpGH resulted from factors independent of cellular processes (e.g., ZAP sensing or proteasome activity). To test this, transcription and translational efficiencies of the seg1 and seg5 constructs were assayed in cell-free conditions (i.e. free of cellular proteins such as ZAP and its cofactors). Equimolar amounts of WT PR8, seg1-CDLR, seg1-CpGH, seg5-CDLR and seg5-CpGH amplicons were used as input for *in vitro* transcription assays, and the amount of RNA produced was measured up to 90 minutes later. In the absence of cellular factors (and using a bacteriophage RNA polymerase rather than the IAV one), no differences in transcript production were seen across either the seg1 panel or the seg5 panels (**Fig. 4E, F**). Next, translational efficiencies were tested by titrating equimolar amounts of RNA in *in vitro* translation assays. No notable differences in protein production were apparent for either panel of viral mRNAs (**Fig. 4G, H**). Thus, synonymous recoding imparted no inherent defect on transcription or translation in the absence of nucleic acid sensing pathways.

Overall, CpG enrichment caused no intrinsic defect to transcription or translation as evidenced in cell-free systems. However, evidence for diminished transcript or protein levels were apparent when viral transcripts were expressed in cell based systems. CpG enrichment caused reduced transcript (seg1-CpGH) and protein (seg5-CpGH) levels, correlating with ZAP-dependent and independent attenuation respectively.

Figure 4. CpG modification may impact viral transcript production in cells but it does not impact the efficiency of transcription and translation in cell-free systems. Minireplicon assays that reconstitute the viral polymerase were performed using a luciferase reporter for the seg1 panel (**A**, luciferase reporter signal; **B**, protein signal by western blot) and the seg5 panel (**C**, luciferase reporter signal; **D**, protein signal by western blot). **E and F.** Equal amounts of segment 1 (**E**) or segment 5 (**F**) WT (PR8), permuted control (CDLR) or CpG-enriched (CpGH) amplicons under T7 promoters were used in *in vitro* transcription assays to assess whether synonymous recoding impacted transcriptional efficiency in a cell free system. The efficiency of translation of RNAs was then assessed by titrating the synthesised RNAs in *in vitro* translation assays for the segment 1 panel (**G**) and the segment 5 panel (**H**).

CpG enrichment does not impact methylation status of IAV vRNAs.

Methylation of cytosines in CpG dinucleotides of DNA regulates transcription (42), and host factors imparting cytosine methylation in RNA have been described (43,44). We therefore hypothesised that cytosines of CpG motifs in RNA may be preferentially methylated. DNA-encoded cytosines in CpG conformations are prone to spontaneously deaminate, creating a cytosine to thymine nucleotide substitution (45), and if the same were true for CpGs in RNA, CpG enrichment of viral RNA genomes could result in hypermutation. The seg1-CpGH virus was chosen for this analysis as it had the highest number of CpG motifs introduced. Bisulphite conversion reactions, in which cytosines in purified RNA are converted to uracil unless protected from conversion by a methyl group, were performed on viral genomic RNA purified from virions. Converted RNAs were then sequenced and compared to non-converted sequences to identify potential methylation sites. RNA extracted from virus stocks grown in eggs was used, and a strongly methylated site at position 3256 on chicken 28S ribosomal RNA (GenBank accession # XR_003078040.1), analogous to position 4447 on human 28S ribosomal RNA served as a positive control. Methylation frequencies of 97.0 - 98.8% were detected at this site across all samples, indicating that the procedure worked efficiently (**Fig. 5A**).

Deep sequencing reads of bisulphite converted RNA mapped to the *in silico* converted reference sequences for the seg1 virus panel yielded no individual sites with methylation signals of greater than 15% (**Fig. 5B-D**). However, three obvious peaks in methylation signal in WT PR8 were identified, each occurring over regions of ~50 bases, that were evident in up to approximately 10% of sequences (**Fig. 4B**). The first of these clusters was identified in a region which was not mutated in seg1-CDLR or seg1-CpGH and the clustered signal was maintained across all three runs, indicating a biologically reproducible phenomenon. The second two clusters were detected in regions that were modified in seg1-CDLR and seg1-CpGH, and these were not retained in the mutant viruses (**Fig. 5C&D**), indicating that mutation at these sites removed the methylation signals. Unlike the single base methylation seen in the chicken rRNA, the sites of apparent viral RNA methylation were broader, centred around ~50 nucleotide regions with diminishing signal in cytosines around the peak. We considered the possibility that these clustered methylation signals were false positives (generated for example by RNA secondary structures which did not allow RNA unfolding, thus protecting cytosines from base conversion). To determine whether this was the case, *in vitro* transcribed RNAs corresponding to seg1-WT PR8, seg1-CDLR and seg1-CpGH were generated to establish whether the methylation signal was retained in RNAs synthesised in a cell-free system where post-transcriptional modifications cannot occur. These RNAs, along with paired vRNAs, were then subject to bisulphite conversion, PCR amplification and sequencing across the selected region. Methylation signals were retained in amplicons generated from the *in vitro* transcribed

RNAs (**Fig. 5E**), suggesting that the methylation clusters were artefactual. Notably, the conversion rate was

higher from the targeted sequencing, most likely because PCR amplification had biased representation of the

non-converted signal. Through whole genome sequencing of bisulphite converted RNA, we found no evidence

of high efficiency methylation at any site in the PR8 genome (**Fig. S4**), and CpG enrichment did not introduce

methylation sites.

Figure 5. CpG enrichment of viral RNA does not alter the methylation profile. Segment 1 modified viruses were processed through

bisulphite conversion reactions and then deep sequenced to determine the frequency of methylation in unmodified versus CpG-enriched

transcripts. **A.** As virus reconstitution was performed in embryonated hens' eggs, chicken ribosomal RNA was sequenced from viral stocks

as a positive control due to a known methylation site in this RNA. **B.** 5-methylcytosine signal intensity across PR8 segment 1 vRNA. **C.** 5-

methylcytosine signal intensity across CDLR segment 1 vRNA. **D.** 5-methylcytosine signal intensity across CDLR segment 1 vRNA. **E.** 5-

methylcytosine signal intensity across PCR amplicons of either vRNA (PR8 egg/ CDLR egg/ CpGH egg) or *in vitro* transcribed (IVT) RNA,

across segment 1 positions 106-304. This region was selected due to the spike in signal observed across segment 1 vRNAs for the

segment 1 virus panel (B-D, red boxes). For PR8 whole genome methylation plots please refer to **Fig. S4**.

ZAP-mediated inhibition of CpG enriched viruses is independent of the type I IFN response.

In the data presented in Fig. 3, a defect in transcript abundance for seg1-CpGH was identified, attributable to ZAPS activity (Fig. 1). As well as recruiting exosome machinery for transcript degradation, ZAP is a known ISG, and so the potential for CpG-enriched IAVs to induce IFN (46,47) was assayed. Supernatants from infected A549 cells were used in a HEK-Blue assay, which gives a colorimetric signal proportional to the levels of IFN-α/β present.

As expected in the presence of an intact NS1 (48), WT PR8 did not induce a detectable IFN response (**Fig. 6A**), whereas a control virus mutated in segment 8 to impair the ability of NS1 to control the IFN response (R38K41A; (49)) strongly induced type I IFN signalling. The seg1-CDLR control and seg1-CpGH viruses also did not induce substantial amounts of type I IFN. This suggests that the regulation of seg1-CpGH by ZAP is independent of any IFN-stimulating activity by ZAPS (12).

In contrast, a significant induction of IFN was observed for the seg5-CpGH but not the seg5-CDLR virus, providing a further insight into a cause of the inherent defectiveness of the seg5-CpGH virus. While the defective seg5-CpGH virus was not rescued by ZAP KO (Fig. 1B), it is possible that this virus could have both ZAP-independent and underlying ZAP-dependent defects that are masked by another layer of attenuation introduced by recoding. To determine whether ZAP was required for triggering the seg5-CpGH-induced IFN signalling, the same panel of viruses were grown in ZAP -/- cells, and the assay was repeated (**Fig. 6B**). The NS1 mutant virus still induced high levels of type I IFN, but the difference between the levels of IFN induced by WT and seg5-CpGH viruses was no longer significant ($p = 0.145$), although seg5-CpGH associated IFN levels were still slightly higher than those of the WT or CDLR viruses. Therefore, the induction of IFN by seg5-CpGH may be partially mediated by ZAP.

It was possible that IAV NS1 suppressed ZAPS activity sufficiently to block ZAP-mediated IFN induction by seg1-CpGH. To test this, we introduced mutations into NS1 that have been described to specifically inhibit its anti-ZAP or anti-TRIM25 activity ((50,51); **Table 2**). Introduction of these NS1 mutations into the seg1-CpGH virus should alleviate NS1-dependent suppression of the ZAP/TRIM25 pathway, and if NS1 was inhibiting ZAP's ability to sense CpGs, the defect in replication of the seg1-CpGH virus would be exacerbated by these mutations. However, this was not the case; in low MOI infections in A549 cells (**Fig. 6C**), the seg1 viruses with mutations in NS1 at positions 95/99 (reportedly blocking anti-TRIM25 activity (50)) all had similar titres to those for viruses without any NS1 mutations. For viruses with mutations in NS1 at positions 96/97 (reportedly impairing anti-ZAP activity), titres were down by 2-3 $\log_{10}$, indicating a general replication defect consistent

with other reports indicating these mutations have a deleterious effect on NS1 stability (50,52). For viruses

with mutations in NS1 at positions 107-110 (targeting anti-ZAP functionality), titres were similar to those for

viruses without mutations in NS1. The replication defect of seg1-CpGH virus relative to WT PR8 was consistent

regardless of the NS1 mutations introduced, indicating a lack of specificity of these NS1 sites for ZAP/ TRIM25

regulation. For seg1-CpGH with no modifications to NS1, there was an increase in ZAPS protein expression

compared with cells infected with WT virus, suggesting some induction of innate immune signalling (**Fig. 6D**).

Seg1-CpGH viral protein accumulation was also lower than for WT virus, reflecting the defective replication of

this virus. In cells infected with the NS1 mutant viruses, ZAPS expression was also higher and viral protein

expression (especially NP) was lower. However, ZAPS expression levels were consistent whether segment 1

was WT PR8, CDLR control or CpG-high, indicating that the NS1 mutations were generally failing to control

ISG expression rather than providing evidence for specific CpG-mediated ZAPS upregulation. Additionally,

TRIM25 levels were consistent throughout, supporting the conclusion that the mutations in NS1 do not

specifically target this pathway.

IFN induction by the seg1/seg8 mutant virus panel was then examined (**Fig. 6E**). For viruses with mutations

introduced into NS1 amino acid residues 95 and 99, no significant type I IFN activity was detected in any of

the seg1 virus panel. Conversely, when residues 96 and 97 were mutated, all seg1 viruses induced IFN to

similar levels. NS1 mutations at positions 107-110 delivered detectable IFN signal for the seg1-CpGH virus,

but also for the seg1-CDLR virus (though, curiously, not for the seg1-PR8). The same virus panel was also

grown in ZAP -/- cells, giving similar results (**Fig. 6F**). Therefore, while seg1-CpGH is ZAP sensitive (Fig. 1),

we could not link ZAP anti-CpG activity with the type I IFN pathway in this system.

CpG enrichment causes little or no impairment to virus assembly.

While mutations introduced into the PR8 genome were designed to avoid classically described packaging

signals present at the termini of viral genome segments (31,53), recent work has highlighted the potential

requirement for inter-segment RNA-RNA interactions occurring in the middle of segments during virion

assembly (33). Therefore, the possibility that the mutations made in segment 1 or segment 5 may have

disrupted viral genome packaging was investigated.

Figure 6. Interaction of CpG-enriched viruses with the IFN pathway. A. Seg1 and seg5 virus panels were used to infect A549 cells at

high MOI for 24 hours, and then IFN induction was quantified by HEK-Blue assay after 10 hours. IFN was used as a standard, and an IAV

mutated in segment 8 to inhibit IFN induction (R38K41A) was used as a positive control. **B.** As in A, except that infections were performed

in ZAP -/- A549 cells. **C.** IAV WT PR8 virus, or segment 1 modified control CDLR or CpGH viruses were further mutated in segment 8 to

abrogate the ZAP/TRIM25 targeting activity of NS1 encoded on this segment. Mutations introduced into segment 8 were L95S99A,

reportedly defective in TRIM25 targeting (50), E96/97A, reportedly defective in ZAP targeting (51), and PKQK107-110A, reportedly

defective in ZAP targeting (51). Seg1/8 mutant viruses were used to infect A549 cells at MOI 0.01, for 48h, and viral titres were quantified.

D. Western blots examining ZAP and TRIM25 expression in the same infections. **E.** The seg1/8 mutant virus panel was used to infect

A549 cells at high MOI for 10 hours, and then IFN induction was quantified by HEK-Blue assay (A640 read-out). **F.** As in D, except that

infections were performed in ZAP -/- A549 cells.

Firstly, genome copy:PFU ratios for virus stocks were determined for the seg1 and seg5 virus panels. For both panels, RNA copy numbers for both segment 1 and segment 5 were analysed. A previously characterised packaging mutant, '4c6c' (31,54) was included as a control. Relative to WT PR8, no significant impact on RNA:PFU ratios was observed for either the seg1-CDLR or seg1-CpGH viruses (**Fig. 7A**), or the seg5-CDLR and seg5-CpGH viruses (**Fig. 7B**).

Secondly, electrophoretic separation of RNA extracted from purified virus particles was performed, allowing visual determination of whether the amount of RNA successfully packaged for each segment was altered by synonymous recoding. For each virus, equal titres of virus (in PFU) were pelleted through sucrose, then RNA was extracted from viral pellets and separated by urea-PAGE. As expected, the PR8 WT virus yielded 7 bands corresponding with 8 segments of RNA (segments 1 and 2 co-migrate as they are the same size; **Fig. 7C**). The CDLR control band densities were visually similar to those of the WT virus. For seg1-CpGH, while it did not appear that there were any differences in band densities (in keeping with the genome copy:PFU ratios), an apparent retardation in the electrophoretic mobility of seg1-CpGH was observed. No differences in band density were immediately apparent for seg5-CDLR or seg5-CpGH compared with seg5-WT PR8, but upon close inspection, there was an observable retardation in electrophoretic mobility of seg5-CpGH compared with seg5-WT, but to a much lesser degree than observed for the seg1-CpGH RNA.

The altered electrophoretic mobility of segments with added CpGs was unexpected as these constructs have been compositionally corrected so that all bases are equally represented, and therefore the masses should be identical. RNAs were run on denaturing gels, and so RNA structure should also not influence mobility. Presence of the most likely post-transcriptional modification (cytosine methylation) had also been ruled out (Fig. 5) (m6a methylation was considered an unlikely explanation as the frequency of the consensus DRACH motif required for this modification (55) across the recoded region was 32 for PR8 WT, 31 for seg1-CDLR and 33 for seg1-CpGH). To determine whether an alternative post-transcriptional modification might explain the shift in electrophoretic mobility of CpG-enriched RNAs, the seg1- and seg5-PR8, -CDLR and -CpGH transcripts were synthesised by *in vitro* transcription, so that no cellular-derived post-transcriptional modifications could occur. These RNAs were also subjected to electrophoretic separation, with equimolar CDLR and CpGH constructs mixed together to confirm whether their migration was different or not (**Fig. 7D**). In the mix of seg1-CDLR and seg1-CpGH, two discrete species were clearly visible, indicating that these sequences migrated differently for reasons that cannot be explained by base composition or RNA modification. In the seg5-CDLR and seg5-CpGH mix, two products could not be resolved but a slight difference in migration was apparent (as a 'fatter' band), implying that altered electrophoretic mobility due to CpG enrichment is a reproducible trait.

375 Most likely, CpG introduction has altered secondary structures in the CpG-enriched RNA transcripts that

376 survived denaturation and retarded electrophoretic migration. Overall, however, we saw no evidence that

377 altering CpG frequencies deleteriously affected vRNA packaging.

Figure 7. CpG enrichment does not affect packaging but may alter electrophoretic density. Virus stocks of both seg1 and seg5

panel of viruses were titred by plaque assay, and then the relative copy numbers of segment 1 and segment 5 were determined by qPCR.

RNA:PFU ratios were then calculated for the seg1 virus panel **(A)** and the seg5 virus panel **(B)**. A '4c6c' mutant virus (54) was used as a

packaging mutant control. To visualise packaged viral RNAs, Viral stocks were purified by ultracentrifugation and subjected to urea-PAGE,

thereby separating the 8 segments of the viral genome **(C)**. A shift in the electrophoretic mobility of segment 1 of the seg1-CpGH virus

was observed (larger black arrow), and in order to determine whether this was due to RNA modification, RNAs generated through *in vitro*

transcription (i.e. a cell-free system, free from RNA modifying enzymes) were run under the same conditions **(D)**. For 'mix' samples,

equimolar combinations of CDLR and CpGH constructs were combined and run to unambiguously demonstrate whether a mobility shift

was apparent in CpGH constructs.

Large scale recoding offers a genetically stable method of virus attenuation.

Synonymous recoding of viral genomes as a method of attenuation for vaccine development is reliant on the

modifications being genetically stable. To investigate the stability of CpG enrichment in the IAV genome, the

seg1 and seg5 virus panels were serially passaged ten times in A549 cells. Passages were performed four

times, with input virus for two experiments being derived from egg-grown stocks and two from MDCK-grown

stocks. For the seg1 virus panel, the ~1 $\log_{10}$ reduction in titre for seg1-CpGH compared with WT or seg1-

CDLR virus was maintained over the course of the passage experiments, for both egg-derived (**Fig. 8A**) and

MDCK-derived (**Fig. 8B**) virus stocks. Seg5-CpGH similarly maintained its replication defect for both egg-

derived (**Fig. 8C**) and MDCK-derived (**Fig. 8D**) virus stocks.

After the tenth passage, the resulting viruses were subjected to full-genome deep amplicon sequencing to

analyse nucleotide changes occurring in their genomes. Sequencing coverage across the twenty viruses (4

replicates each of WT PR8, seg1-CDLR, seg1-CpGH, seg5-CDLR and seg5-CpGH) ranged from 127X-

139,000X (**Fig. S5**).

To establish background signal from PCR and sequencing error, amplifications and sequencing were

performed on the PR8 plasmids used for virus rescue. In this control sample (**Fig. S6U**), the highest mismatch

versus database reference was a single position at 2.3% (data not shown), and so this was used as the

threshold above which mutations were considered real. The sum totals of mutations over this threshold arising

in all egg-derived (**Fig. 8E**) and MDCK-derived (**Fig. 8F**) virus stocks after ten passages were calculated to

include proportional representation for substitutions that had not reached fixation (for example, if a mutation

was present in 10% of sequences, this was counted as 0.1 mutations). Consistent numbers of mutations were

observed across both seg1 and seg5 virus panels despite the lower viral titres for the two CpGH viruses, and

so more mutations were detected per infectious virion for CpG enriched viruses. However, the overall number

of nucleotide changes identified in recoded viruses did not exceed those for WT PR8, indicating a genetic

stability equivalent to WT virus. The numbers of mutations arising were broken down by segment (**Fig. 8G**);

the highest density of mutations occurred in segments 4 and 6 (encoding the viral surface proteins) and

segment 8 (encoding NS1 and NEP), as expected (56).

Nucleotide changes occurring at recoded sites after ten passages were analysed for seg1-CpGH (**Fig. 8H**)

and the seg5-CpGH (**Fig. 8I**). In the recoded segment 1, no nucleotide changes at altered sites became fixed

in any of the four replicates. For the seg5-CpGH, one change in both replicates of the egg-derived virus went

to fixation (A312T, represented in 98.8 and 99.0% of sequences) by passage ten; another was identified in

64.3% of the reads from one egg-derived replicate (A1146G). One mutation from an MDCK-derived virus was

present in 36.6% of the sequence reads of one replicate (A315G). All of these mutations were synonymous,

and none occurred at CpG sites; the third described mutation actually introduced a CpG site. Full genome

maps of sequencing changes for all viruses are presented in Supplementary **Fig. S6**. Overall, the data

indicated that CpG enrichment is a genetically stable recoding strategy for IAV.

Figure 8. Serial passage of CpG modified viruses does not enable deselection of CpG motifs. Segment 1 (**A**) and segment 5 (**B**) egg derived virus stocks were passaged at an MOI of 0.01 ten times in

A549 cells, and titred after each passage (*n* = 2). Segment 1 (**C**) and segment 5 (**D**) MDCK derived virus stocks were passaged at an MOI of 0.01 ten times in A549 cells, and titred after each passage (*n* = 2).

After ten passages, viruses were whole genome sequenced to test for reversion or epistatic compensatory mutations. No mutations became fixed in the recoded region of segment 1 after 10 passages in any

experiment. (**E**). Total cumulative genome mutations after ten passages were calculated, with proportional representation of mutations that had not become fixed (e.g. if 10% of sequences contained a mutation

at a given position, this scored as 0.1 mutations) calculated for egg virus stock passages (**F**) and MDCK virus stock passages. (**G**). Cumulative mutations were calculated for each segment for each of the five

viruses in the panel across four replicates at passage 10. (**H**). Mutation frequency at recoded positions across segment 1. The sequences of the four serially passaged replicates are overlaid. (**I**). As in (**H**) for

segment 5. Three nucleotide changes that were at or heading towards fixation are indicated, but each were present in only one of four replicates. No mutations at CpG sites were observed. For sequence

coverage, please refer to **Fig. S5** and for full genome mutational profiles to **Fig. S6**.

ZAP-dependent CpG sensitivity is overcome in vaccine propagation systems

Live attenuated IAV vaccines are traditionally propagated in eggs, but there is an increasing impetus to move towards cell culture based propagation systems for ethical and reliability reasons (28,57). The impact of CpG enrichment on viral titres was therefore examined in both systems. MDCKs are the preferred cell line for IAV vaccine virus propagation (28), and so viral growth was examined in these cells. Although seg1-CpGH yielded slightly smaller plaques in these cells compared with PR8 WT (Fig. S2), titres from low MOI infections were equivalent across the seg1 virus panel; conversely, the seg5-CpGH virus was attenuated (**Fig. 9A**).

Viral rescues were performed in embryonated hens' eggs, and it was noted that the titres obtained for seg1-CpGH virus (48 hours post infection) were reproducibly equivalent to those for WT PR8, whereas those of the seg5-CpGH virus were lower (**Fig. 9B**). Possibly, the replication defect in seg1-CpGH was not detected in this system as titres had become saturated. To test this, eggs were inoculated at embryonic day 6 (ED6) and day 10 (ED10) with 100 PFU virus and harvested at 24 hours. While virus replicated to higher levels in eggs at ED10, no differences in titres between WT PR8 and seg1-CpGH viruses were seen at either developmental time point (**Fig. 9C**). Next, embryonic survival was observed over four days between ED10-14 when eggs were inoculated with ten-fold serially diluted virus doses, but again no differences were apparent between the WT PR8, seg1-CDLR and seg1-CpGH viruses, with all embryos dying at similar rates (**Fig. S7**). Nonlinear regression curves were fit for lethality across the dose range used (**Fig. 9D**); r2 values of 0.92-0.99 were obtained. LD50 values were within a five-fold range (PR8 = 0.29PFU, CDLR = 1.27PFU and CpGH = 0.55PFU), occupying a range within the limits of a single dilution factor for this experiment and therefore confirming a lack of difference.

To determine whether the lack of fitness penalty for the seg1-CpGH virus was recapitulated in other chicken cells, chicken lung epithelial cells (CLEC213s) (58) were infected with the seg1 and seg5 virus panels, and the same phenotype was observed (**Fig. 9E**). As IAV is tropic for the gastrointestinal tract in birds (59), replication of the seg1 virus panel was also tested in chicken enteroids (60). Again, seg1-CpGH replicated to similar titres to the WT virus (**Fig. 9F**) and although viral protein production was variable, there was no evidence of a defect for the CpGH virus (**Fig. 9G**). In this system, there was also no evidence of differential infection levels either by confocal imaging (**Fig. S8**) or by qPCR array to analyse expression of 88 innate immune genes in chickens (**Fig. S9**).

Thus, while seg1-CpGH virus had a ZAP-mediated defect in human derived cell lines, no defect in replication was evident in MDCK cells or in embryonated hens' eggs used for vaccine virus propagation.

Figure 9. A virus enriched for CpG with ZAP-mediated attenuation in mammalian systems replicates equivalently to WT in chicken systems. A. Seg1 and seg5 viruses rescued in embryonated hens' eggs were titred. **B.** Embryonated hens' eggs were inoculated with 100PFU virus at developmental day 5 or day 9, and viral titre in allantoic fluid was assessed 24 hours later (day 6 or day 10). **C.** Lethality of the seg1 virus panel in eggs was fit to nonlinear regression curves for LD50 calculations. **D.** The seg1 and seg5 virus panels were grown in chicken epithelial cell line CLEC213 and viral titres were quantified by plaque assay. **E.** The seg1 virus panel was used to infect chicken enteroids at an MOI of 10 for 24 hours, and the production of infectious virus, and viral protein production **(F)** was assayed. For confocal imaging of infected enteroids, please refer to **Fig. S8**. For innate gene expression analyses from infected enteroids, please refer to **Fig. S9**.

DISCUSSION

Synonymous recoding of viral genomes has been proposed as a potential strategy for live attenuated vaccine development. However, such recoding inevitably impairs virus replication and so reduces yield. Here, we have demonstrated that CpG enrichment is a viable vaccine development strategy for IAV as we have made a replication-defective CpG-enriched virus whose propagation is unimpaired in systems used for vaccine virus synthesis (MDCK cells and embryonated hens' eggs). Furthermore (to our knowledge for the first time), we have demonstrated that a ZAP-sensitive CpG-enriched virus is attenuated in an animal model.

We tested CpG enrichment in two discrete regions of the IAV genome – segment 1 and segment 5. The mechanisms of attenuation were different for the two constructs, as seg1-CpGH conferred ZAP sensitivity, whereas this was not the case for seg5-CpGH. CpG enrichment impaired transcription and translation for both constructs, likely via both ZAP-dependent and ZAP-independent mechanisms. Nevertheless, for the ZAP-sensitive CpG-enriched virus, we found no evidence that CpG enrichment alters other stages of virus replication, including methylation, packaging, or triggering of the IFN response. Furthermore, CpG-enrichment is a genetically stable recoding strategy in IAV. Altogether, the data presented herein support this approach for live attenuated vaccine development.

The lack of ZAP sensitivity demonstrated by the seg5-CpGH virus is currently unexplained. In plaque assays, seg5-CpGH gave considerably smaller plaques (35), whereas this was not the case for seg1-CpGH. Seg5-CpGH had an apparent translational defect in cell-based systems under the IAV promoter that was not seen in an *in vitro* system under a bacterial promoter, and was also capable of inducing an IFN response, not seen with seg1-CpGH (Fig. 6). We favour two, non-exclusive hypotheses to explain these phenotypes. Firstly, we may have introduced an unfavourable sequence that acts as a pathogen-associated molecular pattern for another cellular sensor; alternatively, we may have disrupted an unknown functional element in the virus. It is possible that the offending sequence elements may not have been introduced/ disrupted in the seg5-CDLR control; while recoding has been performed over the same ~1kb region, individual mutations are by necessity not matched at individual base positions. Serial passage of the seg5-CpGH virus identified three mutations at recoded sites that were either at fixation or trending towards selection. These mutations did not result in any increase in virus replication but require characterisation in future studies. This scenario illustrates the importance of understanding the mechanism of attenuation when considering the development of synthetically recoded live attenuated vaccines; if we do not know the attenuation mechanism, it is possible that a heavily

recoded virus is actually only a few mutations away from reversion to WT virulence. For this reason, multiple methods of viral attenuation integrated into a single platform should be considered.

During these investigations, we found no evidence of m5C-methylation in the IAV genome. Cytosine methylation has been reported in the transcriptomes of RNA viruses including HIV-1 (61,62), and is observed in a range of cellular RNA species (44). We only examined negative sense vRNA for evidence of methylation; possibly, positive sense RNAs may undergo cytosine methylation more readily than their negative sense counterpart.

It has previously been reported that the IAV NS1 protein can specifically inhibit ZAPS or its binding partner TRIM25 (50,51) and that this can be ablated by mutation. However, we were unable to exacerbate CpG-mediated attenuation by mutations in NS1 proposed to disrupt ZAP/TRIM25 targeting. Possibly, our assays were not sensitive enough to detect accentuation of a defect. If ZAP/TRIM25 act through triggering of type I IFN signalling, other aspects of NS1 function not affected by the mutations we added may still inhibit this pathway. Nonetheless, the NS1 96/97 pair of mutations have previously been reported to lack specificity, likely due to NS1 misfolding (50,52).

Here, we show a fundamental difference between human and chicken systems with respect to viral CpG sensing. While a homolog of ZAPL has been identified in chickens (20), no ZAPS homolog has been identified. That chicken ZAP may not have the same CpG binding specificity as human ZAP has previously been reported using RNA-protein binding assays (19). However, this is the first demonstration that a ZAP-sensitive CpG-enriched virus can be propagated equivalently to a WT virus in chicken systems. Possibly, chicken ZAP has lost CpG-specificity (19). Species-specific type I IFN signalling cascades may also contribute; for example, chickens do not have RIG-I (63) and if CpG-specific responses signal via this pathway, chickens may have lost the ability to sense aberrant CpGs. Biochemical studies investigating RNA protein interactions of ZAP and its cofactors in different species are needed in order to understand this further.

CpG enrichment is increasingly being proposed as a strategy for live attenuated vaccine development. In IAV, CpG enrichment does not significantly impair viral growth in embryonated hens' eggs or cultured MDCK cells – the main vectors used for propagation of live attenuated IAV vaccines. This means that, if genomic CpG frequency is increased in order to attenuate a virus in a ZAP-sensitive manner, vaccine virus titres can be produced that are equivalent to WT virus, whilst still being attenuated in humans. More widely, any live attenuated vaccines generated using a reverse genetics system and propagated in mammalian cells can be

CpG-enriched and grown in ZAP-/- cells; therefore, large scale recoding is extrapolatable to other virus

systems.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells. Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK), human adenocarcinoma A549, human embryonic kidney

(HEK)293T (all Sigma, Glasgow, UK), Normal Human Dermal Fibroblasts (NHDF; Thermo Fisher) and

HEK293 cells and were grown in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) (Sigma) supplemented with

10% v/v foetal calf serum (FCS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and 1% v/v penicillin/ streptomycin

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). CLEC213 cells were grown in 1:1 Ham's F21 nutrient broth/ DMEM supplemented

with 5% v/v FCS and 1% v/v penicillin/ streptomycin. Cells were maintained by twice-weekly passage. A549

ZAP -/- cells were a kind gift from the laboratory of Professor Sam Wilson (38), HEK293 TRIM25 -/- cells were

a kind gift from the laboratory of Professor Gracjan Michlewski (39), and A549 KHNYN -/- cells were a kind gift

from the laboratory of Dr Chad Swanson (17). CLEC213 cells were a kind gift from Dr Sascha Trapp and

generated by the laboratory of Dr Pascale Quéré (58). Cells were checked for mycoplasma contamination

regularly using a MycoAlert mycoplasma detection kit (Lonza, UK).

Plasmids and plasmid mutagenesis. IAV reverse genetic plasmids corresponding with each of the 8

segments of IAV genome were a derivative of the UK National Institute of Biological Standards & Control

A/Puerto Rico/8/1934 (PR8) vaccine strain (64). For synonymous introduction of additional CpGs into segment

1 of the viral genome with compensatory mutations to maintain base frequencies ('seg1-CpGH') or to generate

a permuted control construct synonymously recoded over the same genome region but with nucleotide,

dinucleotide and codon frequencies maintained ('seg1-CDLR'), constructs were designed using SSE software

Simmonics v1.2 'mutate sequences' function (65). The region of segment 1 targeted for mutation was selected

to avoid previously characterised genome packaging signals and splice donor and acceptor sites for PB2-S1

(66). Full segment sequences (**Table S1**) are summarised in comparison with our previously described

segment 5 virus panel (**Table 1**) (35). For recoding of 1.42 and 1.25kb regions of segment 1 and segment 5

respectively, synthetic plasmid constructs were ordered from GeneArt (Thermo Fisher) flanked by BsmBI sites

for cloning into pDUAL plasmids used for virus rescue, as previously described (64).

Mutagenesis of segment 8 was also performed to disrupt interactions of NS1 with CpG sensing pathways or

various components of innate immune signalling; these are summarised (**Table 2**). Mutations were made on

pDUAL plasmids encoding the PR8 gene (64) using a QuikChange II site directed mutagenesis kit (Agilent)

according to manufacturer's instructions. Primers used are tabulated (**Table S2A**).

Table 1. Summary of the genetic properties of CpG modified influenza A viruses that were recoded in segment 1

or segment 5. CAI, codon adaptation index. CAI scores have been calculated relative to the human genome (A/Puerto

Rico/8/1934) in https://www.biologicscorp.com/tools/CAICalculator. For full construct sequences, plese refer to Table S1.

Virus backbone	Mutation	No. CpGs	Δ CpG	No. UpAs	Δ UpA	CAI
A/Puerto Rico/8/1934	Wildtype (seg1)	51	-	108	-	0.72
A/Puerto Rico/8/1934	Seg1-CDLR	52	+1	108	-	0.72
A/Puerto Rico/8/1934	Seg1-CpGH	177	+126 (347%)	103	-5	0.64
A/Puerto Rico/8/1934	Wildtype (seg5)	43	-	52	-	0.74
A/Puerto Rico/8/1934	Seg5-CDLR	43	-	52	-	0.75
A/Puerto Rico/8/1934	Seg5-CpGH	129	+86 (300%)	54	+2	0.62

564   **Table 2. Previously characterised mutations in NS1 that reverse ZAP/TRIM25-mediated IAV attenuation**

NS1 target	Abrogating mutation	Mechanism disrupted	Reference
TRIM25	L95/S99A	RIG-I ubiquitination/ vRNP binding	(50)
ZAP	E96/E97A	Can no longer prevent TRIM25-mediated ubiquitination of ZAP	(51)
ZAP	PKQK107-110A	Can no longer prevent TRIM25-mediated ubiquitination of ZAP	(51)
Interferon	R38K41A	NS1 can no longer bind RNA	(49)

Virus rescues. Viruses were rescued as previously described (67,68). HEK293T cells in 6 well plates were

transfected in Opti-MEM reduced serum medium (Thermo Fisher) with 250ng each of the 8 plasmids

corresponding with each segment of viral genome (or 7 plasmids for mock) and 4 µl Lipofectamine 2000

transfection reagent (Thermo Fisher) per well. pDUAL plasmids were used for all segments, which are bi-

directional; vRNA is under a polI promoter, and in the opposite orientation, positive sense RNA is under a polII

promoter. After 24 hours, medium was replaced with serum free medium containing 1 µg/ml tosyl phenylalanyl

chloromethyl ketone (TPCK)-treated trypsin (Sigma) and 0.14% BSA (w/v) (Sigma) (viral growth medium). At

48-72 hours post-transfection, supernatants were collected and passaged, either (1) onto MDCK cells in viral

growth medium, with supernatants collected 48 hours later; or (2) 100 µl was inoculated into the allantoic fluid

of an embryonated hen's egg at days 11-12 development. A packaging mutant, '4c6c' (multiple nucleotide changes in segment 4 and segment 6, encoding the haemagglutinin and neuraminidase viral surface proteins respectively) for use as a control for RNA:PFU ratio assays was propagated in MDCK cells rather than eggs to avoid reversion (31,54), as was an NS1 (segment 8) R38K41A mutant (defective in regulating interferon) (49).

Egg infections. Dekalb White fertilised eggs were purchased from Henry Stewart (Norfolk, UK) and incubated at 37.5ºC, 50% relative humidity until infection at day 11-12 (unless stated). Eggs were candled to confirm viability. Under sterile conditions, an egg punch was used to create two small holes in the shell – one in the air cavity and one in the locality of the allantoic fluid. 100 μl virus was injected into the allantoic fluid and both holes were sealed with sticky tape. For preparation of virus stocks, infected eggs were left for 48 hours prior to allantoic fluid harvest, which was spun down for 5 minutes at 800g to pellet cellular debris, aliquoted and used as neat virus stock; presence of virus was confirmed by HA assay (69). For comparison of viral titres between days 6 and 10, eggs were inoculated with 100 PFU of virus and were left for 24 hours prior to harvesting of allantoic fluid for virus titration. For kill curves, eggs were inoculated at day 10 with 0.001 – 1000 PFU virus and incubated until day 14 unless embryonic death was observed before that time. At experimental endpoints, eggs were chilled overnight and embryonic death was confirmed by membrane disruption.

Virus titrations. Viral titres were quantified by plaque assays; 800 μl of ten-fold serial dilutions of viral stocks/ experiment supernatants/ allantoic fluid were incubated on sub-confluent MDCKs in 6-well plates for an hour, and then 2 ml overlay comprising 1:1 viral growth medium:2.4% cellulose (Sigma) was added. Plates were incubated without disturbance for 48 hours, after which time 1 ml 10% formalin was added to each well and cells were fixed for at least 20 minutes. Overlays were removed and cells were stained with 0.1% toluidine blue (Sigma).

Virus infections. Cells were infected at either a high multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 3 (single cycle infections) or low MOI of 0.01-0.1 (cell line dependent, multi-cycle infections) for 24 or 48 hours respectively unless otherwise stated. Viruses were added to cells and incubated for 1 hour at 37°C, and then inoculum was removed, cells were washed with serum free medium, and then either serum free medium (single cycle infection) or viral growth medium (multi-cycle infection) was added. Infected cells were incubated at 37°C for the duration of the experiment.

Generation of lentivirus vectors expressing ZAPL and ZAPS. In order to reconstitute isoform-specific ZAP expression in ZAP -/- A549 cells, lentiviruses expressing ZAPL or ZAPS isoforms under a polII promoter were

produced using a pSCRPSY (accession number KT368137.1) vector-based system (a kind gift from the

laboratory of Prof Sam Wilson). Both the A549 Cas9+ ZAP -/- cells and pSCRPSY carry puromycin resistance,

and so a blasticidin S-resistance gene was cloned into the NheI site of pSCRPSY. pSCRPSY ZAPL and

pSCRPSY ZAPS constructs were produced by cloning a cDNA of the open reading frame of ZAPL (accession

number NM_020119.4) or ZAPS (accession number NM_024625.4) into the dual SfiI sites of pSCRPSY. For

lentivirus production, the growth media on HEK293Ts at 80% confluency in a T175 flask was replaced with

25ml of Opti-MEM Reduced Serum Medium (Thermo Fisher). 6 µg PMD2.G (Addgene, 12259), 18µg PsPAX2

(Addgene, 12260) and 12 µg of pSCRPSY (pSCRPSY, pSCRPSY-ZAPL or pSCRPSY-ZAPS) were added to

450µl of Opti-MEM. 72µl of Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher, 11668019) was added to 450µl of Opti-MEM.

Diluted plasmids and Lipofectamine were mixed and incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature. The

transfection mixture was added to the flask and cells were then incubated at 37°C 5% CO_2 for 18h. Opti-MEM

was then replaced with 25ml of 10% FBS D-MEM. After a further 48h, supernatant containing P0 lentivirus

was collected and centrifuged to remove cell debris. Due to low titre of ZAPL-expressing lentivirus, 75 ml of

cell culture supernatant containing lentivirus was concentrated by ultracentrifugation (50,000 g, 2 hours). The

viral pellet was then resuspended in 1 ml of 10% FCS D-MEM. Lentivirus was aliquoted and stored at -80°C.

Generation of A549 cells expressing specific ZAP isoforms. A549 ZAP-/- cells at 70% confluency in a 6

well plate were transduced with ZAPL- or ZAPS-expressing pSCRPSY lentiviruses. 1ml of lentivirus

(pSCRPSY empty vector control, concentrated ZAPL, or ZAPS) or 10% FBS D-MEM as control, supplemented

with polybrene (Merck, TR-1003-G) at 8 µg/ml, was added to each well of a 6 well plate. Spinfection was

performed (500 g, 1 hour). 48 hours after transduction, the inoculum was removed and cells were passaged

in 10% FBS D-MEM supplemented with 50 µg/ml blasticidin to select for transduced cells. Expression of the

appropriate ZAP isoforms was confirmed by western blotting and confocal imaging.

Western blotting. Samples for western blotting were collected in 2X homemade Laemmli buffer (70), boiled

for 10 minutes, cooled and loaded onto 10% pre-cast gels (Bio-Rad) for separation by SDS-PAGE. Proteins

were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes using wet transfer (100V for 90 minutes on ice) and

membranes were blocked using 5% milk (Morrisons, Edinburgh, UK) for at least 30 minutes. Membranes were

washed three times with TBS-T (Tris-buffered-saline/0.1% Tween 20 (Sigma)) and incubated overnight at 4°C

with primary antibodies in 2% BSA/TBS-T (0.1%). Commercial antibodies were used for β-tubulin (clone YL1/2,

Bio-Rad, Watford, UK; 1:5000), β-actin (Abcam ab8227; 1:2000), ZAP (Invitrogen PA5-31650; 1:1000),

TRIM25 (Abcam ab167154; 1:1000) and KHNYN (Insight Bio sc-514168; 1:1000). In-house rabbit polyclonal

antibodies raised against NP and PB2 are previously described (71) and were both diluted 1:1000. Membranes

were then washed 3 times and incubated with species-specific secondary antibodies conjugated to Alexafluor-

680 or -800 (Thermo Fisher) diluted 1:5000 in 2% BSA/TBS-T (0.1%) for 90 minutes. Membranes were washed

3 times and visualised using a LICOR Odyssey Fc imaging system.

Confocal imaging. Immunofluorescence was used to confirm ZAP expression in lentivirus-transduced A549

cells, and presence of viral NP in chicken enteroids. For imaging of A549 cells, A549 pSCRPSY-transduced

cells at 95% confluency on coverslips in 24 well plates were fixed using 500 µl of 3.7% neutral buffered formalin

for 15 minutes and then washed with PBS. Cells were permeabilised using 500 µl of 0.02% Triton X100 for 5

minutes and blocked for 30 minutes in 2% FCS. Anti-ZC3HAV1 Antibody (16820-1-AP) used 1:500 was diluted

in 2% FCS/ PBS and incubated on cells overnight at 4°C. 200 µl of 1:1000 AlexaFluor-488 anti-rabbit

secondary antibody (Thermo Fisher, A32731) was added for 1 hour. Cell nuclei were stained using 1:5000

Hoechst in PBS for 10 minutes. Between addition of each reagent, cells were washed 3 times using 500 µl of

PBS. All images were acquired with Zeiss LSM 710 confocal microscope fitted with 40X/1.4 oil-immersion

objective lens. Controls for background signal were mock infected cells and infected cells stained using

secondary antibodies only.

For organoid imaging, 50 organoids in a 24 well plate were fixed in 4% neutral buffered formalin for 45 minutes

and washed with PBS. Organoids were then permeabilised and blocked with 5% v/v goat serum (Sigma) in

permeabilisation solution (0.5% v/v bovine serum albumin and 0.1% v/v Saponin (Merck, Glasgow, UK) in

PBS) for 30 minutes. Antibodies were diluted in permeabilisation solution and incubated with organoids (mouse

monoclonal NP antibody AA5H clone (Abcam, Cambridge, UK ab20343) used 1:500 overnight at 4°C,

phalloidin-647 (Thermo Fisher A22287) used 1:50 and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature). 200ul of

1:1000 AlexaFluor-488 anti-mouse secondary antibody (Thermo Fisher A32723) was added for 1 hour. Cell

nuclei were stained using 1:5000 Hoechst in PBS for 10 minutes. Between addition of each reagent, cells

were washed 3x using 500 µl of PBS. All images were acquired with Zeiss LSM 880 confocal microscope fitted

with 40X/1.4 oil-immersion objective lens. Secondary-only and isotype (mouse IgG2b) controls were used.

Mouse infections. Mouse experiments were approved by the Roslin Institute Animal Welfare and Ethical

Review Board under Home Office project license PF795AF60. Five-week-old female BALB/c mice, maintained

in groups of six, were purchased from Harlan (Oxon, UK) and housed for one week prior to infections. Mice

were inoculated intranasally with 200 PFU virus (either PR8, seg1-CDLR, seg1-CpGH or mock) under brief

isofluorane anaesthesia. Mice were weighed daily until day 5, when mice were euthanised by CO_2

asphyxiation. Lower left lung lobes were harvested in 2 ml Eppendorf (Stevenage, UK) Safe-Lock micro test

tubes containing 500 μl DMEM and a stainless-steel carbide bead (Qiagen), and snap frozen on dry ice until virus titration. For titration, lungs were thawed on wet ice and fragmented using a Qiagen TissueLyser II at 200 oscillations/minute for 2 minutes or until tissue was visibly homogenised. Suspended tissue was then serially diluted and titrated by plaque assay.

Minigenome assays. Minigenome assays were performed as previously described (41). Culture medium on 70-90% confluent HEK293T cells in 24 well plates was replaced with Opti-MEM reduced serum medium. Cells were then transfected with 50 ng/well (unless stated) of plasmids encoding IAV segments 1, 2, 3, and 5 (sufficient for viral ribonucleoprotein (vRNP) formation) with positive orientation under a PolII promoter (the same pDUAL plasmid constructs used for virus rescue were used here), along with 20 ng/ well of a reporter construct expressing an IAV-like vRNA with a luciferase coding sequence in place of an IAV open reading frame. At 48 hours post-transfection, cells were harvested in 100 μl 5X reporter lysis buffer (Promega, Chilworth, UK) and refrigerated to allow cell debris to settle to the bottom of the tube. 60 μl supernatant was added to 25 μl 600 μM beetle luciferin in a white walled 96 well plate, and luminescence was measured on a GloMax luminometer (Promega). Each data point was represented by four technical repeats, and each assay was undertaken for at least four biological repeats.

In vitro **transcription assays.** PCR amplicons were generated for the production of positive or negative sense, full-length segment 1 or segment 5 RNA by the addition of a T7 promoter sequence to the forward or reverse primer, respectively (**Table S2B**). PCRs were performed using Q5 DNA polymerase kit (NEB) with the appropriate primer pair and 25 ng of plasmid as template (Seg1-PR8, Seg1-CDLR, Seg1-CpGH, Seg5-PR8, Seg5-CDLR or Seg5-CpGH). Cycling conditions were 95°C for 5 minutes, then 30 cycles of 95°C for 30 seconds, 50°C for 30 seconds then 72°C for 2 minutes, with a final extension of 72°C for 5 minutes. Amplicons were purified by agarose gel extraction using the MinElute Gel Extraction kit (Qiagen) and quantified using the Qubit dsDNA BR Assay kit (Thermo Fisher). RNA transcripts were generated with 40 ng of these amplicons as template using the MEGAscript T7 Transcription kit (Thermo Fisher) in half reaction volumes according to manufacturer's instructions for the indicated times. Following incubation, transcript concentrations were determined using the Qubit RNA HS Assay kit (Thermo Fisher).

In vitro **translation assays.** *In vitro* generated RNA transcripts above were used templates for *in vitro* translation assays using a Rabbit Reticulocyte Lysate kit (Promega) at the indicated concentrations. Reactions were performed at 1/5th volume with the inclusion of Transcend Biotin-Lysyl-tRNA (Promega) to allow antibody independent detection of all translated products. Samples were assayed by western blot (as above) with the

exception that membranes were blocked with 5% BSA/TBS for 1 hour, incubated with IRDye 800CW

Streptavidin (LICOR) for 1 hour, washed 3 times and visualised using LICOR Odyssey Fc imaging system.

Reverse transcription (RT)-quantitative (q)PCR. RT-qPCR was performed as previously described (35).

RNA was extracted from cells using Qiagen QiAmp Viral RNA mini kits. Nucleic acid extracts were treated

using RQ1 RNAse-free DNAse (Promega) according to manufacturer's instructions. qPCR was performed in

technical triplicates using BioLine (London, UK) SensiFAST One Step RT-qPCR Lo-Rox kit (BIO-82020), with

primers targeting a conserved region of segment 1 or segment 5 of IAV PR8 strain (**Table S2C**). Cycling

conditions were 45°C for 10 minutes, then 40 cycles of 95°C for 10 seconds then 60°C for 30 seconds. Melt

curves were performed between 50°C-99°C with one degree increments at second intervals.

Bisulphite conversion. RNA was extracted from ~5×10^8 IAV virions (egg virus stock) using a Qiagen RNEasy

mini extraction kit, followed by Promega RQ1 DNAse treatment. Bisulphite conversion reactions were

performed on extracted egg stock RNAs or *in vitro* generated genomic RNA (gRNA; negative sense) transcripts

using the Zymo (Freiburg, Germany) RNA bisulphite conversion kit (EZ RNA Methylation Kit, RS001). In the

reaction, cytosines are converted to uracils unless protected by 5-methylcytosine (5-mc) methylation. Following

conversion, RNA libraries for sequencing were prepared using the Takara (Saint-Germain-en-Laye, France)

low input RNAseq kit and sequenced on a MiSeq Micro v2 150PE flowcell at Edinburgh Genomics (Edinburgh

UK). Sequencing data handling and analyses were performed using the Galaxy platform (72). Adapter

sequences   (AGATCGGAAGAGCACACGTCTGAACTCCAGTCA   and

AGATCGGAAGAGCGTCGTGTAGGGAAAGAGTGT) were trimmed from reads using cutadapt and output

sequences were joined using fastq-join. Sequences were aligned to an *in silico* converted PR8 segment 1

(where all cytosines in the negative sense were replaced with thymines) using Bowtie2 (73) and resultant BAM

datasets were converted to tabular pileup format to allow for calculation of the proportion of retained cytosines

(indicating presence of 5-mc).

Specific regions selected for further analysis were amplified by RT-PCR from the converted RNA. RNAs were

reverse transcribed using SuperScript III (Invitrogen) with random hexamer primers according to

manufacturer's instructions. PCRs were performed using specific primers (**Table S2D**) and Q5 High-Fidelity

Polymerase (NEB, Hitchin, UK) according to manufacturer's instructions. Cycling conditions were 98°C for 30

seconds, then 45 cycles of 98°C for 10 seconds, 58°C for 21 seconds then 72°C for 30 seconds with a final

extension of 72°C for 2 minutes. Amplicons were sent for sequencing using the Amplicon-EZ service (Genewiz,

Leipzig, Germany). Sequences were analysed as above except that adapter trimming was performed using

the primer sequences.

Urea-PAGE RNA gels. IAV virions equivalent to 10^{10} PFU from egg stocks were semi-purified by centrifugation

through a buffered 25% sucrose cushion (w/v) (100 mM NaCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7], 1mM EDTA) using a

SW32Ti rotor in a Beckman Coulter Optima Max-E ultracentrifuge at 280,000 g for 90 minutes at 4°C. RNAs

were extracted from virions using an RNEasy mini extraction kit (Qiagen) following resuspension of the pellets

directly into 350 µl of buffer RLT. Extracted RNA was separated by PAGE using homemade 5% urea

polyacrylamide gels in 1X Tris-borate-EDTA (TBE) buffer (89mM Tris-borate, 2mM EDTA [pH 8.3]) run for 6

hours at 120 V. Viral gene segments were visualised by silver staining using the Silver Stain Plus Kit (Bio-Rad)

according to manufacturer's instructions and imaged using a Samsung Xpress C480FW scanner.

HEK Blue assay. To assay type I IFN production, A549 cells in 24 well plates were infected at an MOI of 10

as described above but in the absence of trypsin. At 10 hours post infection, supernatants were harvested

and viruses were inactivated by exposure to 120 mJ/cm^2 of UV for 10 minutes in a UVP CL-1000 UV

crosslinker. 20 µl of inactivated sample or type I IFN standard (Abcam, 500, 50 or 5 pg/ µl) was added to HEK-

Blue^{TM} IFNα/β cells (InvivoGen hkb-ifnab) at 4×10^4 cells/ well in 96 well format. HEK-Blue cells have a gene

for secreted alkaline phosphatase incorporated under an ISG54 promoter (that is robustly induced in the

presence of type I IFN). Cells were incubated with supernatant from A549 infections for 24 hours. HEK-Blue

cell supernatants were then collected and added to QuantiBlue reagent (InvivoGen) according to

manufacturer's instructions. After 15-30 minutes, when a colour change was visible in the positive control

(titrated IFN), absorbance was read at 620 nm, as a correlate of IFN concentration.

Serial passage. Viruses were serially passaged ten times at an MOI of 0.01 in A549 cells. Viruses were titred

by plaque assay after each passage. Biological duplicates were performed with viruses rescued from both

eggs and from MDCK cells. At the end of ten passages, viruses were sequenced. RNA was extracted from

culture supernatants using Viral RNA mini kits (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions. Extracted

RNAs were reverse transcribed using SuperScript III (Invitrogen) with the IAV vRNA specific Uni12 primer

(AGCAAAAGCAGG) (74) according to manufacturer's instructions. PCR primers were designed to amplify

approximately 400 base fragments with approximately 60 base overlaps across the genome (**Table S2E**).

Additional primers were designed specific to the segment 1 and segment 5 recoded regions as appropriate.

Four sets of primer pools each containing 10 non-overlapping sets of primer pairs were generated (1A-3E odd,

1B-3F even, 3G-8B odd and 4A-8C even) with each primer at a final concentration of 5 µM. PCRs were

performed using specific primers and Q5 High-Fidelity Polymerase (NEB) according to manufacturer's instructions with primers at a concentration of 500 nM each in the final reactions. Cycling conditions were 98°C for 30 seconds, then 45 cycles of 98°C for 20 seconds, 55°C for 20 seconds then 72°C for 30 seconds with a final extension of 72°C for 2 minutes. The 4 multiplexed amplicon sets for each sample were purified using a PureLink PCR Purification kit (Invitrogen), quantified using a Qubit dsDNA BR assay kit (Invitrogen) and pooled at equimolar ratios. Amplicon pools were sent for sequencing using the Amplicon-EZ service (Genewiz). Sequencing data handling and analyses were performed using the Galaxy platform (72). Primer sequences were trimmed from reads using cutadapt and output sequences were joined using fastq-join. Sequences were aligned to the PR8 reference genome or genome sequences with recoded segments 1 or 5, as appropriate, using Bowtie2 (73). Variants and coverage levels in the resultant BAM datasets were analysed using iVar (75) variants with tabular outputs.

Chicken enteroid infections. Chicken enteroids were prepared as described previously (60). Briefly, small intestinal tissue was removed from Hy-Line Brown embryos supplied by the National Avian Research Facility, Edinburgh, UK (Home Office Project Licenses PE263A4FA) and cut into 5 mm sections. Tissue was digested and villi were isolated and cultured. At day 2 of culture, approximately 200 enteroids were infected with 10^5 virus particles/ enteroid for 1 hour, washed 3 times in PBS and then incubated for 48 hours in the presence of 2 µg/mL TPCK trypsin for virus quantification by plaque assay, confocal imaging, or arrayed gene expression analyses.

Fluidigm analysis of innate immune response gene expression in infected chicken enteroids. At 48 hpi, enteroids were suspended in RNALater and RNA was isolated using Tru-Seq total RNA Sample Preparation v2 kit (Illumina, Great Abingdon, UK) according to manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was synthesized from 100 ng of RNA using High Capacity Reverse Transcription kit (Life Technologies, UK) according to manufacturer's instructions with a random hexamer primer and oligo(dT). cDNA was preamplified as previously described (76) and analysed through quantitative PCR (qPCR) with the microfluidic 96.96 Dynamic array (Fluidigm, San Francisco, CA) performed on the BioMark HD instrument (BioMark, Boise, ID). Raw Cq values were processed with GenEx6 and GenEx Enterprise (MultiD Analyses AB), with correction for primer efficiency and reference gene normalisation. Reference genes used were TATA box binding protein (TBP), Tubulin alpha chain (TUBA8B), beta-actin (ACTB), beta-glucuronidase (GUSB), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) and ribosomal 28S (r28S).

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COMPETING INTERESTS

None declared.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES AND FIGURES

Table S1. Construct sequences.

>A/human/PuertoRico/8_seg1_wildtype

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GAGTAAAATGAATGATGCCGGATCAGACCGAGTGATGGTATCACCACTGGCTGTGACATGGTGGAATAGGAATGGACCAATAACAA

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AAGAATTGCATATGAGAGGATGTGCAACATCCTCAAAGGAAAATTTCAAACTGCTGCTCAAAAAGCTATGATGGATCAAGTGCGAGA

AAGCAGGAATCCAGGGAACGCTGAATTCGAAGATCTCACCTTCCTAGCACGGTCTGCACTCATATTGAGAGGGTCTGTTGCACACA

AGTCCTGTCTCCCTGCGTGTGTCTATGGTCCGGCGGTTGCCAGTGGGTATGATTTTGAGAGAGAGGGGTACTCACTAGTCGGGATA

GACCCTTTCAGACTGCTTCAGAACAGCCAAGTGTACAGCCTAATCAGACCTAATGAAAATCCTGCTCACAAAAGCCAACTAGTGTGG

ATGGCTTGCCATTCTGCAGCTTTTGAGGATCTAAGGGTATTAAGTTTCATAAAAGGGACGAAAGTACTGCCTAGAGGAAAGCTCTCA

ACAAGAGGAGTCCAAATTGCTTCCAATGAAAACATGGAGACCATGGAGTCAAGTACACTTGAACTGAGGAGCAGATACTGGGCAAT

AAGGACCCGAAGTGGAGGGAATACCAACCAACAGAGGGCTTCTGCCGGACAAATCAGCATCCAACCCACATTTTCAGTGCAGCGA

AATCTACCTTTTGACAGAACAACAATCATGGCAGCATTCAATGGCAACACGGAGGGAAGAACATCCGACATGAGGACAGAAATCAT

CAGGATGATGGAAAGTGCAAGACCCGAAGATGTGTCTTTCCAGGGGCGGGGAGTCTTCGAGCTCTCGGACGAAAAGGCAGCGAG

CCCGATCGTGCCTTCCTTTGACATGAGTAATGAAGGATCTTATTTCTTCGGAGACAATGCAGAGGAGTACGACAATTAAAGAAAAAT

ACCCTTGTTTCTACT

>A/human/PuertoRico/8_seg5_CpG-high

AGCAAAAGCAGGGTAGATAATCACTCACTGAGTGACATCAAAATCATGGCGTCCCAAGGCACCAAACGATCTTACGAACAGATGGA

GACTGATGGAGAACGCCAGAATGCCACTGAAATCAGAGCATCCGTCGGAAAAATGATTGGTGGAATTGGACGATTTTACATACAAAT

GTGCACGGAACTAAAACTCAGTGATTACGAAGGACGTTTGATTCAAAACAGTTTAACGATTGAGCGAATGGTTCTTTCGGCATTTGA

CGAACGAAGAAACAAATATCTTGAAGAACATCCGAGCGCGGGTAAAGATCCAAAAAAAACTGGAGGACCCATTTATCGACGAGTTA

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AATGGATCCTCGAATGTGCTCGCTGATGCAAGGATCGACGCTTCCAAGACGATCGGGTGCTGCGGGAGCCGCGGTTAAAGGAGTA

GGAACAATGGTAATGGAATTGGTCCGAATGATAAAACGCGGGATAAATGATCGGAACTTTTGGCGAGGTGAAAACGGACGAAAAC

ACGAATTGCGTATGAAAGAATGTGCAACATTCTAAAAGGAAAATTTCAAACCGCGGCGCAAAAAGCAATGATGGATCAAGTTAGAGA

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AATCATGTCTGCCGGCATGCGTGTATGGACCAGCGGTAGCGAGCGGTTATGATTTCGAAAGAGAAGGATATTCACTCGTAGGAATA

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CAGAACGCGAAGTGGCGGAAATACGAATCAACAAAGAGCGTCGGCCGGACAAATTAGTATTCAACCAACGTTTTCGGTGCAGCGAA

ATCTCCCGTTCGACAGAACGACAATCATGGCGGCATTCAACGGAAACACTGAAGGACGAACATCGGACATGCGAACAGAAATTATC

CGAATGATGGAAAGTGCGCGACCAGAAGACGTTTCTTTCCAGGGGCGGGGAGTCTTCGAGCTCTCGGACGAAAAGGCAGCGAGC

CCGATCGTGCCTTCCTTTGACATGAGTAATGAAGGATCTTATTTCTTCGGAGACAATGCAGAGGAGTACGACAATTAAAGAAAAATA

CCCTTGTTTCTACT

Table S2. Primers used for mutagenesis and sequencing.

Table S2A. Primers used for site directed mutagenesis of IAV PR8 segment 8.

Target	F primer	R primer
Seg8 L95S99A	TGACATGACTGCTGAGGAAATGGCAAGG	CCTTGCCATTTCCTCAGCAGTCATGTCA
Seg8 E9697A	ATGACTCTTGCGGCAATGTCAAGGG	CCCTTGACATTGCCGCAAGAGTCAT
Seg8 P107A	CATGCTCATAGCCAAGCAGAAAG	CTTTCTGCTTGGCTATGAGCATG
Seg8 P107K108A	GCTCATAGCCGCGCAGAAAGTGG	CCACTTTCTGCGCGGCTATGAGC
Seg8 P107K108Q109A	CATAGCCGCGGCGAAAGTGGCAG	CTGCCACTTTCGCCGCGGCTATG
Seg8 P107K108Q109K110A	AGCCGCGGCGGCAGTGGCAGGC	GCCTGCCACTGCCGCCGCGGCT

963 **Table S2B.** Primers for generation of *in vitro* transcription amplicon templates

Target	Forward primer	Reverse primer
T7 Seg1 +sense	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGCGAAAGCAGGTCAATTATATTC	AGTAGAAACAAGGTCGTTTTTAAACTA
T7 Seg1 -sense	AGCGAAAGCAGGTCAATTATATTC	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGTAGAAACAAGGTCGTTTTTAAACTA
T7 Seg5 +sense	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGCAAAAGCAGGGTAGATAATCA	AGTAGAAACAAGGGTATTTTTCTTTAATTGT
T7 Seg5 -sense	AGCAAAAGCAGGGTAGATAATCA	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGTAGAAACAAGGGTATTTTTCTTTAATTGT

965 **Table S2C.** Primers for amplification of influenza A virus A/Puerto Rico/8/1934 (PR8) viral transcripts by qPCR.

Target	Forward primer	Reverse primer
PR8 segment 1	GGCTAATGTGCTAATTGGGCAAG	GGCTGTCAGTAAGTATGCTAGAG
PR8 segment 5	ATCATGGCGTCTCAAGGCACCAA	GCTCTGATTTCAGTGGCATTCTGG

967 **Table S2D.** Primers for amplification of specific bisulphite converted RNA regions.

Target	Forward primer	Reverse primer
PR8 106-304	CATATAACCATAATCAAAAAATACACATC	GTGATATTATTATTTGGTTTGATTTGG
Chicken rRNA 3163-3307	GTGATTTTTGTTTAGTGTTTTGAATG	AAATCTCATTCATCCATTCATACAC

969 **Table S2E.** Primers for overlapping full genome sequencing.

Target	Forward primer	Reverse primer
Seg1 amplicon A	AGCGAAAGCAGGTCAATTAT	CCATGCTTTAGCCTTTCGAC
Seg1 amplicon B	ACATGGTGGAATAGGAATGG	TGCAACACTTCAATGTACAC
Seg1 amplicon C	CAAAACGAGATTCCTCCCAG	TGAAGATTGCCCGTAAGCAC
Seg1 amplicon D	AAGGCTGCAATGGGACTGAG	AGCACTTTCGCATCCTTCTG
Seg1 amplicon E	GCGATTGAATCCTATGCATC	TTGTAGGGTTCTGGGACCAC
Seg1 amplicon F	ATGGATCATCAGAAACTGGG	GGACTCCACTCCAGCTGTGC
Seg1 amplicon G	GCCGCTCCACCAAAGCAAAG	TTCGACACTAATTGATGGCC
Seg2 amplicon A	GAAAGCAGGCAAACCATTTG	TCATAGGTCTGTCGGCCTTG
Seg2 amplicon B	AACGATGGAGGTTGTTCAGC	CCCTGGGGTTGCAATTGCTC
Seg2 amplicon C	CAATGACCAAAGATGCTGAG	CTTGCTCTCAAACATATACCC
Seg2 amplicon D	AATCAGCCCGAATGGTTCAG	GTCGACTCCGGCTTGAATCC
Seg2 amplicon E	TGGTCTTCAATCCTCTGACG	GGGTTTGCTCCCACAGTTTC
Seg2 amplicon F	ATGCCATAGAGGTGACACAC	AATTGCAGCACCTTTGGTAC
Seg2 amplicon G	CCCATTTGTCAGCCATAAAG	GAAGGACAAGCTAAATTCAC
Seg3 amplicon A	AGCGAAAGCAGGTACTGATC	ACTTCTCTCCTTGTTACTCC
Seg3 amplicon B	GGCTGAGAAACCAAAGTTTC	GAATCCATCCACATAGGCTC
Seg3 amplicon C	TTGCCGACCAAAGTCTCCCG	TCATTCTCAATGTCCTGCAG
Seg3 amplicon D	GTTAAACCACACGAAAAGGG	ATGTATTCTGTGGCTCTGCAG
Seg3 amplicon E	ACATTGCAAGCATGAGAAGG	GAGGTTCCATTTGTTCTCAC
Seg3 amplicon F	AAGAAGTGCCATAGGCCAGG	CTCAATTGCTTCATATAGCC
Seg3 amplicon G	ATGATTGAAGCTGAGTCCTC	TTTTGGACAGTATGGATAGC
Seg4 amplicon A	CAACCAAAATGAAGGCAAAC	GGCCATGAGCTTTCTTTGGG
Seg4 amplicon B	GAGCTCAGTGTCATCATTCG	AATATTATTGTGTCTCCGGG
Seg4 amplicon C	TAAGAGATCAAGCTGGGAGG	AGCCTGATCCCTGTTCATTC
Seg4 amplicon D	ACTGGAATGATAGATGGATG	CATTTCTTACACTTTCCATGC
Seg4 amplicon E	GGATTTCTGGACATTTGGAC	ATTCTGCACTGCAAAGATCC
Seg5 amplicon A	CAAAAGCAGGGTAGATAATC	TCACCATTATTAGCTTGGCG

Seg5 amplicon B	GAGAGAACTCATCCTTTATG	TTCCGGCTCTCTCTCACTTG
Seg5 amplicon C	GAAATTTCAAACTGCTGCAC	TTGGAAGCAATTTGAACTCC
Seg5 amplicon D	CCAAGAGGGAAGCTTTCCAC	GTACTCCTCTGCATTGTCTC
Seg6 amplicon A	TGGATCAATCTGTCTGGTAG	ACAGGGCAGCTCATTAAGGCC
Seg6 amplicon B	TTCAAGTGGGACTGTTAAGG	GGTATCAGGGTAACAGGAAC
Seg6 amplicon C	GAGTTGAATGCACCTAATTC	CCGCTATACCCTGACCAATC
Seg6 amplicon D	GTGTATGTTGATGGAGCAAAC	GAACAGACTACTTGTCAATG
Seg7 amplicon A	GATGAGTCTTCTAACCGAGG	TGCCACTTCAGTGGTCACAG
Seg7 amplicon B	CCAAATAACATGGACAAAGC	GCTAGGATGAGTTCCAATGG
Seg7 amplicon C	GCTATGGAGCAAATGGCTGG	TTTTTACTCCAGCTCTATGC
Seg8 amplicon A	CATAATGGATCCAAACACTG	TCTCCAGCCGGTCAAAAATC
Seg8 amplicon B	AGAAGAATCCGATGAGGCAC	TTACTGCTTCTCCAAGCGAATC
Seg8 amplicon C	GACTCTAATATTGCTAAGGG	AAGCTGAAACGAGAAAGTTC
Seg1 CDLR amplicon B	ACATGGTGGAATAGGAATGG	TGCAACACTTCTATGTATAC
Seg1 CDLR amplicon C	AAAGACGAGATTCCTACCCG	TGGAGATTCCCCGTTAGCAC
Seg1 CDLR amplicon D	AAGGCTGCCATGGGGCTGAG	AGCACTTTTGCATCCTTTTG
Seg1 CDLR amplicon E	ACGATTGAACCCTATGCATC	TAGTGGGATTCTGAGACCAC
Seg1 CDLR amplicon F	ATGGATCATCAGAAACTGGG	GGACTCCACTCCAGCTGTGC
Seg1 CpGH amplicon B	ACATGGTGGAATAGGAATGG	TAATACTTCTATGTACACGC
Seg1 CpGH amplicon C	AAAAACGCGATTTCTTCCGG	TGAAGATTTCCCGTCAGAAC
Seg1 CpGH amplicon D	AAGGCCGCGATGGGACTGCG	AGCACTTTCGCGTCTTTCTG
Seg1 CpGH amplicon E	ACGATTGAATCCGATGCATC	TCGTCGGATTTTGCGACCAC
Seg1 CpGH amplicon F	ATGGATCATCCGAAATTGGG	GGACTCCACTCCAGCTGTGC
Seg5 CDLR amplicon A	CAAAAGCAGGGTAGATAATC	TCGTCACCATTATTGGCTTG
Seg5 CDLR amplicon B	GAGAGAACTCATTCTGTATG	TTCCTGCTTTCTCGCACTTG
Seg5 CDLR amplicon C	AAAATTTCAAACTGCTGCTC	TTGGAAGCAATTTGGACTCC
Seg5 CDLR amplicon D	CCTAGAGGAAAGCTCTCAAC	GTACTCCTCTGCATTGTCTC
Seg5 CpGH amplicon A	CAAAAGCAGGGTAGATAATC	TCGTCACCATTGTTCGCTTG
Seg5 CpGH amplicon B	GCGCGAACTAATACTTTACG	TTACGGCTCTCTCTAACTTG
Seg5 CpGH amplicon C	AAAATTTCAAACCGCGGCGC	TTTGAAGCTATTTGAACGCC

| Seg5 CpGH amplicon D | CATAAAAGGAACGAAAGTCC | GTACTCCTCTGCATTGTCTC |

Fig. S1. Validation of ZAP pathway inhibition assays. A. ZAP -/- A549 cells were validated by western blotting. **B.** Western blot to

confirm the absence of ZAP in CRISPR-cas9 modified ZAP -/- 293T cells. **C.** KHNYN -/- A549 cells were validated by western blotting.

Fig. S2. Plaque phenotype of synonymously recoded viruses. Viruses were rescued in embryonated hens' eggs and titred by plaque

assay in MDCK cells. Representative images taken from plaque assays performed at the same time (NB dilutions shown vary due to the

variation in titres across the virus panel).

Fig. S3. Validation of ZAP expression reconstitution in ZAP-/- A549 cells delivered by lentivirus vector.

Fig. S4. Bisulphite conversion does not identify any conserved m5c methylation sites in the IAV genome, and CpG enrichment does not introduce any such methylation events. Methylation signal identified across the genome of wildtype PR8 **(A)**, seg1-CDLR **(B)** and seg1-CpGH **(C)**. While the segment 1 sequence was different in A-C, the genome sequence across segments 2-8 was identical, and so for these segments, the data are representative of 3 biological repeats.

Fig. S5. Sequence coverage depth for deep sequenced serially passaged viruses. A-D, PR8 wildtype virus; **E-H**, seg1-CDLR; **I-L**,
seg1-CpGH; **M-P**, seg5-CDLR; **Q-T**, seg5-CpGH, **U,** input plasmid.

Fig. S6. Full genome mutation traces for all serially passaged viruses. A-D, PR8 wildtype virus; **E-H**, seg1-CDLR; **I-L**, seg1-CpGH;

M-P, seg5-CDLR; **Q-T**, seg5-CpGH, **U,** input plasmid.

Fig S7. Survival of chicken embryos infected at day 10 post fertilisation. Embryonated hens' eggs at developmental day 10 were inoculated with ten-fold serial dilutions of virus stock (A, PR8; B, seg1-CDLR; C, seg1-CpGH) and survival was monitored by candling for 96 hours. The number of eggs inoculated at each dose is indicated in brackets.

Fig. S8. The seg1 virus panel was used to infect chicken enteroids at 10^5 PFU/enteroid for 48 hours**,** and viral protein production was assessed visually using confocal microscopy. Representative z-axis projections of chicken enteroid whole-mount stained to detect cell nuclei (DAPI, blue), F-actin-expressing brush border (red) and virus nucleoprotein (green); Scale bar: 20 µm.

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1001 **Fig. S9. Innate immune gene expression levels of seg1 virus panel in chicken organoids.**

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