Immunological landscape of human lymph nodes during *ex vivo* measles virus infection

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ABSTRACT:

Lymph nodes are the primary site of replication for measles virus (MeV). Here, we modeled MeV infection in human tonsil explants, utilizing a clinical strain of MeV that expresses GFP. We show that MeV replicates efficiently in this tissue as measured by increasing infectious virus production and GFP$^+$ cells (>10% of tonsillar cells by day 8). Using scRNA-Seq, we identified 29 cell populations, all of which were susceptible to MeV. While T cells were the most abundant cell type in the lymphoid explants, B cells were the dominant infected population. Flow cytometry analysis revealed that the preferential infection of B cells was associated with higher CD150 expression. We found that while germinal center B cells were the largest population of infected B cells, there were no differences in susceptibility to MeV among individual B cell subsets. Among CD3$^+$ T cells, infection in both the CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ compartments displayed bias towards antigen experienced subsets and away from naive cells, consistent with relative CD150 expression. Differential gene expression analysis revealed that the host response to MeV was dominated by the potent induction of interferon stimulated genes within both T and B cells. These data provide new insights into how MeV infection progresses in lymph nodes, a critical launching point for pathogenesis.

Author Summary

Measles virus (MeV) is a re-emerging pathogen that has dramatic disease outcomes in children.

Immunological amnesia is a dangerous disease outcome that is caused by MeV infection of

lymphocytes. Here, we infect human tonsil explants with a GFP-expressing clinical isolate of MeV

to assess the immunological events that occur during infection of this critical site. Using single-

cell RNA sequencing, we identified 29 distinct populations of tonsillar cells that are susceptible to

MeV infection. Further immunophenotyping revealed a preferential infection of B cell lineages

compared to T cell lineages, and that among T cells, memory cells are preferential targets of

infection compared to naïve counterparts. Taken together, our data thoroughly characterize the

infectious and immunological events that shape disease progression in lymph nodes and identify

cellular susceptibilities to MeV infection which may be critical in the development of antivirals for

MeV.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

INTRODUCTION:

Measles virus (MeV) is the most infectious virus known to infect humans, with a reported R_0 value of 12-18[1-7]. MeV outbreaks have largely been controlled with the advent of the two-dose measles, mumps, and rubella (MMR) vaccine, yet MeV still causes ~200,000 deaths annually, primarily among unvaccinated children in developing countries[8-10]. However, recent surges in vaccine-hesitancy have allowed for MeV to re-emerge in countries like the United States and the United Kingdom, where the MMR vaccine coverage has historically been high[11-14]. Global vaccination campaigns for MeV have been stalled due to the COVID-19 pandemic, increasing the risk of MeV outbreaks globally [15]. There are currently no licensed directed antivirals for MeV[16, 17].

MeV is a morbillivirus of the family *Paramyxoviridae* that is transmitted through the respiratory tract, where alveolar macrophages and dendritic cells are the initial cellular targets of infection[18, 19]. These infected immune cells then traffic to the draining lymph nodes where the virus replicates rapidly in lymphocytes that express the entry factor CD150/SLAMF1[20-24]. MeV is also known for causing immune amnesia through the depletion of CD150^{+} B and T cells in both primary and secondary lymphoid organs, increasing the morbidity and mortality rates from secondary infections with unrelated childhood pathogens[25-32]. Immunological amnesia following MeV infection has been shown to significantly reduce the antibody repertoire towards common childhood pathogens, rendering these children essentially naïve against viruses such as the human parainfluenza viruses, respiratory syncytial virus, coronaviruses, and cytomegalovirus[33]. Given that immune responses are primarily generated in the draining lymph node, and that this site is a critical launching pad for MeV infections, understanding virus:host interactions at this site is paramount for the identification of factors that shape disease progression.

Early work on the tropism of MeV in lymphoid cells focused on the role of T cells, as the original reports of immunological amnesia were based on the lack of memory T cell

responsiveness to cognate antigen following a MeV infection(34, 35). *In vitro* characterization of

MeV infection in primary lymphocytes revealed that B cells are the most extensively infected

population of lymphocytes, while CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells are less likely to become infected,

consistent with their relative CD150 expression(36). Characterization of MeV infection in PBMCs

from both humans and macaques further demonstrated the proclivity of MeV for lymphocytes and

clearly demonstrated that MeV infection is biased towards memory lymphocytes as compared to

their naïve counterparts, which was subsequently validated in PBMCs derived from MeV-infected

children(18, 31, 37, 38).

While these studies provide insights into the susceptibility of circulating lymphocytes to

MeV, these works are limited in that they do not examine infection within the 3-dimensional

architecture of secondary lymphoid tissue. The draining lymph node is a complex structure

containing high density B cell follicles surrounded by T cell zones(39).The density and distribution

of CD150$^+$ cells within the structure of the lymph node may be important in determining *in vivo*

cellular susceptibility as well as the kinetics of lymph node infection. Studies in macaques have

examined the geographic distribution of infected cells within secondary lymphoid tissues and have

identified that the majority of infection is established within B cell follicles(38). Further, these

studies recapitulated the heightened susceptibility to infection among memory, but not naïve

lymphocyte subsets within secondary lymphoid organs(38). To approach this question in human

lymph nodes, studies using human tonsil explants have been conducted, where lymphoid tissue

structures and native cell ratios are intact. These studies similarly found that B cells are a

preferential target of MeV infection(40, 41). Additionally, these works also concluded that memory

T cells were more extensively infected compared to naive T cell subsets; however no further

phenotyping of these cells was conducted(40). To fill these gaps, we revisit the tonsil model with

a GFP expressing clinical isolate of MeV to immunophenotype infected cells over time, with

greater granularity than ever before. While single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) of MeV

infected airway epithelium has been conducted(42), we here define the immunological landscape

of MeV infected human lymph nodes with single cell resolution for the first time. Our findings both

deepen our understanding of the different cell types that are susceptible to MeV, as well as reveal

transcriptional signatures of MeV infected cells with single cell resolution in human lymph nodes.

RESULTS

MeV robustly infects human lymphoid tissues *ex vivo*:

Given that tonsils serve as a draining lymph node, we sought to utilize these tissues to examine

MeV infection within the native architecture of human lymph nodes. Tissue samples from routine,

non-inflamed tonsillectomies were cut into 2mm cubes and then placed on collagen beds as

previously described(43). After 24hrs, individual tissue blocks were infected with a clinical isolate

of MeV, IC323, which was engineered to express GFP at the 3' end of the viral genome(44). To

assess the extent to which MeV could replicate in human lymphoid tissues across multiple donors

(n=11), we collected culture supernatants at days 3, 6 and 8 post infection and measured

infectious virus production by fluorescent plaque assay. As shown in Fig 1A, viral titers increased

for all donors, with ~ 2.5 log increase over the 8-day culture.

To assess the extent of infection within the tissues, and to further confirm productive

infection, we measured the frequency of GFP$^+$ cells over time by flow cytometry. As shown in **Fig**

1B, the percentage of GFP$^+$ cells increased over time, while no GFP$^+$ cells were detected in the

uninfected condition. The percentage of GFP$^+$ cells was quantified across a total of 3 donors,

revealing a high frequency of MeV-infected cells by day 8 post infection (**Fig 1C**). We also

histologically evaluated infection utilizing *in situ* hybridization to examine the presence of GFP

RNA. As shown with one representative donor, RNA transcripts for GFP were readily detected

within the tissue samples (**Fig 1D**). Together our data establish that human tonsils infected *ex*

vivo are highly susceptible to MeV in the absence of any stimulation or infection enhancers,

providing us with a robust model system to further characterize MeV-infected cells.

ScRNA-Seq of MeV-infected tissues reveals broad cellular susceptibility:

Given that MeV productively infected the human tonsil explants, we next sought to directly compare MeV-infected cells to uninfected cells using scRNA-Seq. Briefly, we generated single cell suspensions from infected and donor-matched uninfected conditions on day 8 post infection, the time point at which the maximum number of infected cells was observed. We sorted GFP$^+$ (infected) and GFP$^-$ (bystander) cells from the MeV-infected condition, as well as the GFP$^-$ cells (uninfected) from the uninfected condition for scRNA-Seq using a workflow shown in **Fig 2A**. We validated the quality of sequencing across the three groups by quantifying unique molecular identifier (UMI) counts, unique genes captured, and the representation of mitochondrial transcripts (**Fig S1 A-C**). As expected, only cells from the infected group had detectable MeV transcripts (**Fig 2B**). Among the infected cells, we examined the expression levels of viral transcripts as a final confirmation of infection status. Infected cells showed a transcriptional gradient of viral genes from 3' to 5', consistent with the phenomenon of run-off transcription that occurs for paramyxoviruses (**Fig 2C**). To our knowledge, this is the first time that MeV transcriptional gradients have been reported at single cell resolution.

Following data integration, we annotated constituent cell types across conditions based on immune cell reference data and supervised differential marker gene analysis (see *Methods*). Using this strategy, we identified 29 distinct populations of cells (**Fig 2D**), with the vast majority belonging to either T cell or B cell subsets (annotation strategy shown in **Fig S1D**). Surprisingly, GFP$^+$ cells were found in all 29 populations. Indeed, we were able to subsets of regulatory T cells and B cell subpopulations susceptible to infection and capturing cell types not previously described as targets of MeV infection (**Fig 2E**). Quantification of the frequency of each of these populations within uninfected, bystander and infected cell sorted sample groups revealed that, despite T cells comprising the largest population of cells in human tonsils (as shown in uninfected and bystander groups), they were a minority among the MeV-infected cells. Instead, IgD$^+$ B cells were overrepresented within the pool of GFP$^+$ cells (**Fig 2F**). In fact, we observed a reduction in

the frequency of all T cell subsets among all infected cells. These data suggest that either T cells

have a broadly lower susceptibility to MeV infection compared to B cells, or that MeV kills T cell

targets prior to day 8. Finally, we quantified the percentage of UMI counts that mapped to MeV

UMIs for each identified cell population to assess the extent to which the transcriptome is coopted

for viral gene expression. As shown in **Fig 2G**, MeV transcripts constituted ~2% of all transcripts

for each cluster on average. These data collectively reveal that MeV has a wide cellular tropism

within the architecture of the lymph node and suggest that B cells may have heightened

susceptibility to infection, relative to other cells present.

B cells are preferential targets of MeV infection in lymph nodes infected *ex vivo*:

The data from the scRNA-Seq analysis suggested that differences in susceptibility to MeV may

exist within the *ex vivo* infected tonsil tissues. However, these data were limited in that they only

assessed late-stage (day 8) infected cells. Therefore, to examine the possible changes that may

occur over time, as well as susceptibility to infection, we designed immunophenotyping panels to

phenotype cell subsets identified in the scRNA-Seq dataset using flow cytometry (n=3 donors).

Other groups have assessed the percentage of MeV-infected cells among individual cell

subsets(18, 31, 36, 38, 40, 41, 45). While this approach has revealed general differences in

susceptibility, it does not account for the relative contribution of each population to the total

infection pool. Here, we evaluated MeV infection in tonsils in two ways: 1) we quantified the

absolute frequency of each identified cell subset within both the uninfected and GFP+ (infected)

populations found within the tonsils (**Table 1**). This analysis allows us to see the contribution of

each cell subset to the total infection pool. 2) We also quantified the relative frequency of each

identified cell subset within both the uninfected and GFP+ (infected) populations within the T and

B cell subsets (**Figs 3-7**). This analysis allows us to distinguish between general lineage

susceptibility and cell-type specific susceptibility.

Table 1: Frequency of immune cell subsets among uninfected and MeV-infected cells

% Of CD45+ Cells	Day 3				Day 6				Day 8			
	Uninfected		GFP+		Uninfected		GFP+		Uninfected		GFP+	
	Mean	STDEV	Mean	STDEV	Mean	STDEV	Mean	STDEV	Mean	STDEV	Mean	STDEV
CD19	35.9	5.7	58.4	5.6	32.2	9.8	69.2	9.8	38.7	6.7	67.0	7.3
GCBs	16.9	6.7	24.5	5.2	14.8	7.8	31.9	12.3	18.7	9.4	36.1	13.1
MBCs	10.8	2.0	18.0	5.0	8.9	3.0	22.2	4.5	9.4	3.5	16.0	6.2
AMBCs	6.1	2.5	10.9	6.8	5.5	0.9	9.0	4.5	6.7	3.1	7.5	3.5
Naïve	2.1	0.3	5.0	2.6	3.0	0.9	6.2	0.6	3.9	1.3	7.3	3.2
CD3	59.9	8.0	20.2	9.5	64.9	10.0	23.7	10.4	58.0	7.3	26.8	5.8
CD4	41.6	12.0	13.4	6.9	52.8	9.9	14.6	3.6	46.9	6.8	13.1	3.0
CXCR5+	17.2	5.9	7.5	0.5	21.9	11.4	7.1	1.8	17.0	7.0	4.6	1.3
CXCR5-	23.8	6.3	5.8	6.6	30.3	2.8	7.5	2.7	29.7	8.2	7.5	4.3
Naïve	5.4	1.3	0.1	0.1	6.1	2.2	0.5	0.4	5.2	2.1	0.3	0.2
T_{CM}	5.2	3.3	1.5	2.4	5.8	3.3	1.2	0.7	6.2	3.0	0.9	0.5
T_{EMRA}	1.0	0.3	0.1	0.1	1.5	1.0	0.3	0.4	1.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
T_{EM}	11.9	2.6	3.6	3.3	17.2	3.8	5.5	1.6	17.0	8.4	6.1	4.1
T_H1	8.5	0.8	2.4	2.5	8.9	5.0	2.9	1.4	7.2	2.1	2.8	0.8
T_H1*	2.0	1.0	0.7	0.3	2.7	1.5	0.6	0.3	2.8	1.9	0.6	0.5
T_H2	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.4	3.4	1.7	1.4	1.0	3.9	3.1	2.1	1.9
T_H17	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.1	2.0	1.2	0.6	0.6	2.8	2.8	0.6	0.7
CD8	9.7	1.8	1.0	0.7	9.5	1.6	2.1	0.4	7.7	1.0	2.2	0.3
Naïve	3.2	1.1	0.1	0.1	3.1	1.1	0.2	0.1	2.6	1.2	0.2	0.2
T_{CM}	1.3	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.9	0.6	0.3	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.2	0.1
T_{EMRA}	4.1	0.7	0.5	0.3	4.5	0.8	1.5	0.1	3.7	0.7	1.4	0.5
T_{EM}	1.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.9	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.1
DN	7.4	3.1	1.7	2.2	2.2	1.4	0.7	0.5	2.9	1.6	1.2	0.7
DP	0.3	0.1	3.4	0.9	0.4	0.3	4.4	5.0	0.4	0.2	5.2	3.1
CD19-/CD3-	2.9	2.0	1.9	0.6	2.2	0.5	2.3	0.4	2.9	0.6	3.0	0.0

The first broad stratification was to quantify the frequency of B cells and T cells (gating schemata shown in **Fig 3A**). As shown in **Fig 3B** and **Table 1**, there was a significantly higher frequency of CD19^{+} cells among the GFP^{+} cells (~58% at day 3) compared to their frequency in the total uninfected population (~36% at day 3; $p<0.0001$). This difference was established early in infection and maintained at all three time points. Conversely, we observed a decrease in the frequency of CD3^{+} cells (**Fig 3C** and **Table 1;** ~60% among uninfected cells and ~20% among GFP^{+} cells; $p<0.0001$).

We wondered whether this increase in B cell susceptibility was associated with the

expression of CD150, the lymphocyte entry factor for MeV. To measure this, we assessed the

mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of CD150 on the CD19$^+$ B cells and CD3$^+$ T cells from the

uninfected condition at day 6, to control for any alteration in CD150 expression that may occur

upon MeV infection as well as any change that may occur as a result of *ex vivo* culture conditions

as previously shown(46, 47). We found that CD19$^+$ B cells express significantly higher levels of

CD150 compared to CD3$^+$ T cells (**Fig 3D**). Consistent with previous reports, these data suggest

that the increased susceptibility to MeV infection among B cells may be due to the expression of

CD150(36, 38, 40). These data extend our findings in **Fig 2**, as they reveal that susceptibility to

infection is positively associated with CD150 expression, reducing the likelihood that the

difference in T cell frequency between the uninfected condition and GFP+ cells is due solely to

cell killing.

B cell subsets found within lymph nodes are not differentially susceptible to MeV:

Given that lymphoid tissues are composed of various B cell subpopulations, we next asked

whether MeV susceptibility differed among these B cell subsets. To test this, we further

immunophenotyped CD19$^+$ B cells based on the expression of CD38 and CD27 (gating schemata

shown in **Fig 4A**), which allows for the differentiation of germinal center B cells (GCBs;

CD38$^+$CD27$^-$), activated memory B cells (AMBCs, CD38$^+$CD27$^+$), memory B cells (MBCs; CD38$^-$

CD27$^+$)) and naive B cells (CD38$^-$CD27$^-$). Quantification of the frequency of these subpopulations

among all CD19$^+$ cells in both the uninfected tonsil and GFP$^+$ condition revealed no skewing of

MeV-infection within any B cell subsets, except for MBCs at the day 8 time point (**Fig 4B-E**),

where MBCs were found less frequently among GFP$^+$ B cells than among uninfected B cells.

Quantification of CD150 expression across these B cell subsets showed that only MBCs had a

significantly lower expression, which may account for the lower frequency of MeV-infection in this

population at day 8 (**Fig 4F**).

The scRNA-Seq analysis, as shown in **Fig 2G,** identified IgD$^+$ B cells as the largest

population of MeV-infected cells, but we were unable to further subset this cluster. Guided by this

knowledge, we next asked how each identified B cell population contributed to the total infection

pool. We found that the largest population of infected B cells in the explants are GCBs, comprising

~24.5% of the GFP$^+$ cells on day 3, and increasing to 36.1% by day 8 (**Table 1**). The majority of

these cells were IgD$^+$, consistent with our scRNA-Seq findings (data not shown).

T cell subsets show differential susceptibility to MeV:

While T cells are the predominant cell type found in the human tonsil explants, we found that the

frequency of T cells among the GFP$^+$ cells was significantly reduced compared to the frequency

among uninfected cells (**Fig 3C** and **Table 1**). To determine whether this effect was driven by

specific T cell subsets, or if it was a generalized lower frequency among the T cell lineage, we

first evaluated the CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells compartments (gating schemata shown in **Fig 5A**). We

found that while CD4$^+$ T cells were the largest population of T cell in the explants (~41.6% of all

events at day 3; **Table 1**), the proportion of CD4$^+$ T cells among the CD3$^+$ population was

unchanged between the uninfected and infected conditions (**Fig 5B**), apart from a potent

decrease in frequency at day 8. Analysis of CD8$^+$ cells revealed a similar reduction in frequency

among infected T cells compared to uninfected T cells, which was significant at day 3 post

infection (**Fig 5C**). While no differences in susceptibility were noted among the CD4$^-$CD8$^-$ double

negative (DN) T cells (**Fig 5D**), we did identify a significantly higher frequency of CD4$^+$CD8$^+$

double positive (DP) T cells at day 3 post infection, consistent with previous reports from thymus

(**Fig 5E**)(45). Though rarely reported on, these DP T cells have been shown to arise in both

PBMCs and lymph nodes from CD8 re-activation among CD4$^+$ T cells, in both pathogenic and

non-pathogenic states(48). While the function of these cells is not well understood, our data

suggest that they are prevalent within the MeV infected condition, perhaps resulting from viral

modulation of CD4/CD8 expression. In addition to being more frequent in the total tonsil explant,

CD4$^+$ T cells were found to express more CD150 than CD8$^+$ T cells (**Fig 5F**). DN T cells expressed

similar levels of CD150 to CD4$^+$ cells, however DP T cells trended towards highest expression,

perhaps accounting for heightened susceptibility at day 3.

Next, we sought to examine if there were any differences in susceptibility to infection

among the CD4$^+$ T cells (gating schemata shown in **Fig 6A**). Consistent with previous reports on

the cellularity of human tonsils isolated from young adults, CXCR5$^+$ T cells (consisting of both

pre-T$_{FH}$ and T$_{FH}$ cells) are the most frequent subset of CD4$^+$ cells in our explants (**Table 1**)(49).

After accounting for their representation among CD4$^+$ T cells, we found no differences in

susceptibility to infection based on CXCR5 status (**Fig S2A-B**), despite CXCR5$^+$ cells expressing

significantly more CD150 than CXCR5$^-$ cells (**Fig S2C**). Gating next on the CXCR5$^-$ cells, we

tested if there were any differences in susceptibility among CXCR5$^-$ T cell subsets. We identified

naive CD4$^+$ cells at a significantly lower frequency among infected CXCR5$^-$ cells than among

uninfected at all time points (**Fig 6B**). In contrast, T$_{EM}$ cells trended towards a higher frequency

among infected CXCR5$^-$ cells than among uninfected at all time points, although this trend did not

reach statistical significance (**Fig 6C**). T$_{CM}$ and T$_{EMRA}$ cells were found to be infected at the rate

they were present among uninfected CXCR5$^-$ T cells (**Fig 6D-E**). CD150 expression was

significantly higher in T$_{EM}$ cells than among naive CD4$^+$ cells (**Fig 6F**), and while expression on

T$_{CM}$ and T$_{EMRA}$ cells trended towards higher expression than naïve CD4$^+$ cells, this trend did not

reach statistical significance. Further phenotyping of these T$_{EM}$ cells into T$_h$ cell subsets revealed

no differences in susceptibility (gating schemata shown in **Fig S3A**, susceptibility in **Fig S3B-E**),

despite varying degrees of CD150 expression (**Fig S3F**). Taken together, these data show that

naive CD4$^+$ cells are less susceptible to MeV infection relative to their mature counterparts, with

no differences in susceptibility among T$_{EM}$ subsets.

Finally, to determine susceptibility among CD8$^+$ T cells, we further immunophenotyped

CD8$^+$ cells based on CD45RA and CCR7 expression into: T central memory (T$_{CM}$; CD45RA$^-$

CCR7$^+$), T Effector memory (T$_{EM}$; CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$), T effector memory RA$^+$ (T$_{EMRA}$;

CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^-$) and naive CD8$^+$ cells (CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^+$; gating strategy shown in **Fig 7A**).

Similar to what was observed among CD4$^+$ cells, naive CD8$^+$ cells were found less frequently

among infected CD8$^+$ cells than among uninfected at all time points (**Fig 7B**). Reciprocally, there

was a higher frequency of CD8$^+$ T$_{EM}$ cells at days 6 and 8 post infection, indicating preferential

infection (**Fig 7C**). CD8$^+$ T$_{EM}$ and T$_{EMRA}$ cells showed no differences in susceptibility (**Fig 7D-E**).

Quantification of CD150 expression revealed no significant differences in expression among the

CD8 subsets, although TCM cells trended towards higher expression (**Fig 7F**).

MeV induces a canonical interferon driven response in both B and T cells:

While we identified several cell types that demonstrated altered susceptibility to MeV infection,

the most striking differences were between B and T cells (**Figs 2 and 3**). We were able to assess

the expression of CD150 via flow cytometry as one explanation of differential susceptibility to

infection, however we also wondered whether there were any differences in the host response to

infection among these cell types that may account for differences in susceptibility. To ask this, we

probed the scRNA-Seq data, where we randomly sampled an equal number of B cells or T cells

from the uninfected, bystander and infected groups, and conducted differential gene expression

analysis. As a proof of principle, the most significantly induced genes among the infected cells

were MeV genes and GFP transcripts (**Fig 8A-B**). Excluding viral genes, the most significantly

upregulated transcripts among GFP$^+$ cells were associated with a canonical IFN signature.

Interestingly, this pattern of interferon induction was also observed among bystander cells, which

were isolated from the infected tissue condition but do not contain viral transcripts. This was true

for both B and T cells. We detected MeV interferon antagonist transcripts, V and C, but were

unable to make meaningful comparisons in the expression of these transcripts among infected

cell types due to the low read coverage at the p-editing site (**Fig S4**). To validate this interferon

response, we conducted qRT-PCR comparing the RNA isolated from the infected and uninfected

tissues of two additional tonsil donors over time. We evaluated the expression of IFIT1, IFIT3 and

MX1, three of the highly expressed type-I interferon stimulated genes (ISGs) from the scRNA-Seq analysis. As shown in **Fig 8C-E**, we found potent induction of all three genes by day 8 post infection, the time point of scRNA-Seq. These findings are contrary to previously reported microarray findings in PBMCs isolated from infected people, where no interferon response was observed(50-55). Taken together, our data suggest that MeV induces a potent interferon response at the transcriptional level in both infected and bystander B and T cells, with no notable differences that account for the increased susceptibility of B cells.

DISCUSSION

Measles virus pathogenesis is dependent upon early replication within the draining lymph node, yet our understanding of how infection proceeds in this organ and its link to immunologic amnesia is incomplete(50). In this study, we sought to model MeV infection within the 3-dimensional architecture of human lymph nodes, comprehensively identifying the immunological events that occur during MeV infection. *Ex vivo* infection of human tonsil explants with a GFP-expressing clinical strain of MeV resulted in a high frequency of GFP$^+$ cells, thus allowing for sorting of infected cells and downstream scRNA-Seq analysis. To our knowledge, this is the first report of scRNA-Seq on MeV infected lymphocytes. This unbiased approach revealed that all cell types identified within the lymph nodes were susceptible to MeV infection, albeit to different degrees. Despite being a minority of cells within the tonsil explants, B cells were the most frequently infected cell type, suggesting a heightened susceptibility to infection compared to other cell types present. In contrast, T cells were less likely to become infected with MeV. Using flow cytometry, we confirmed these findings across multiple donors and extended these results to show that this difference in susceptibility to infection was established early in infection and remained constant over time. Ultimately, our findings in this model advance and deepen our understanding of how infection progresses within this critical site of viral replication.

Previous studies on MeV pathogenesis have largely focused on the infection of T cells

within secondary lymphoid tissue(31, 36, 37, 40, 45, 56). Indeed, immunological amnesia was

originally described as a T cell phenotype, whereby children that had previously tested positive

for a hypersensitivity test to tuberculin antigen began to test negative following measles

infection(34). Subsequent work in thymus and macaques revealed that MeV preferentially infects

and depletes memory T cells over naive T cell subsets(38, 45). While we do recapitulate that

antigen experienced/memory subsets of T cells were more frequently infected with MeV than

naïve subsets, we also identified that the vast majority of infection in secondary lymphoid tissue

is within B cells. We therefore postulate that these cells may be the most important targets for

infection at this site. Consistent with this notion, recent reports demonstrate that MeV-infected

children lose a large proportion of their antibody repertoire to common childhood pathogens

following MeV infection(33). We found that memory B cells were large targets of infection in these

explants, supporting the idea that MeV infection can impact the antibody repertoire(36, 57).

However, we also found that germinal center B cells (GCBs) were by far the largest population of

infected cells in the lymph node explants. These are the cells that are capable of mounting new

germinal center responses upon interaction with T follicular helper cells (T_{FH})(39). Therefore,

these findings raise the possibility that future germinal center responses may also be impacted

by the infection and/or depletion of this compartment.

To this point, we also uncovered that $CD4^+CXCR5^+$ (Pre-T_{FH} and T_{FH}) cells were major

targets of infection, being the largest infected T cell subset in the explants. Previous reports

utilizing dissociated tonsils found that these cells were not major targets of infection relative to

other T cell subsets(36), consistent with our finding that CD4+ cells do not have altered

susceptibility to MeV based on CXCR5 status. It remains, however, that while these are not

preferential infection targets, our data demonstrate that they are the largest targets among T cells.

As CXCR5 is involved in T cell trafficking into germinal centers, we wonder if this discrepancy is

a result of the fact that our system maintains the architecture of the lymph node. One hypothesis

is that the proximity of CXCR5$^+$ cells to infected GCBs could be responsible for the extent of

infection within the CXCR5$^+$ cells. If this were true, it would raise new questions about the role of

these cells in MeV pathogenesis, as infection and/or depletion of CXCR5$^+$ T helper cells could

diminish the ability to form *de novo* germinal center responses.

Many groups have implicated CD150 expression as the primary driver of lymphocyte

susceptibility to MeV infection(18, 20, 21, 36, 37, 45, 50, 56). Our data are generally consistent

with this notion, as we found that B cells generally express higher levels of CD150 than T cells,

and that among infected T cell subsets, susceptibility to infection trends with CD150 expression.

However, we also identified that among B cell subsets, CD150 expression was not associated

with susceptibility. This finding suggests that there may be a threshold of CD150 expression

beyond which higher expression does not induce higher susceptibility. Given the distinct

localization patterns of B cell subsets within lymphoid tissue, we postulate that this threshold could

be a result of the geographical distribution and/or density of CD150 expressing cells within the

lymph node. Future work should be conducted utilizing spatial transcriptomic or proteomic

technologies to assess the impact of the architectural context of MeV infection in determining how

disease progresses.

A confounding factor in evaluating cellular susceptibility to infection is distinguishing

whether observed differences are a result of factors specific to that cell type, or a broader lineage

susceptibility. An excellent example of this would be among the T cells, which we found to be

generally less frequent among the MeV-infected cells than the uninfected cells. Because of this,

CXCR5$^+$ T cells are found significantly less frequently among the MeV-infected cells than

uninfected cells. However, by first subsetting on CD4$^+$ T cells, we were able to see that this was

not specific to CXCR5$^+$ T cells, and instead was driven by a generalized low infection rate among

all T cell subsets. On the other hand, this approach also revealed interesting subpopulations of

cells which have heightened susceptibility to infection, such as CD8$^+$ T$_{EM}$ cells. Ultimately, these

data revealed different cell subsets that may be of interest for the development of targeted antiviral

therapies.

As a successful human pathogen, MeV must either evade the induction of a host

response, shut down the induced response, or utilize that response for its own benefit. Previous

groups have shown that MeV does not induce a potent interferon (IFN) response, as the viral V

and C proteins are capable of inhibiting the induction of IFN(51, 53, 55, 58-64). However, some

groups have observed the opposite, whereby MeV induces potent IFN expression(42, 54). In

general, this discrepancy has been attributed to the presence or absence of defective interfering

(DI) RNAs, produced as a byproduct of *in vitro* replication(51, 65, 66). Here, we found that MeV

induces a very potent interferon response at day 8 post infection in the presence of MeV V and C

transcripts. This suggests that DI RNAs generated by MeV replication in the culture may be

responsible for the IFN induction observed, and that this cannot be overcome by V and C at this

time point. One hypothesis would be that by the time DI RNAs accumulate, the IFN response is

too late to overcome the viral infection. Alternatively, MeV may subvert the induced IFN response

by utilizing the IFN-induced genes to promote pathogenesis. This idea has recently been

demonstrated for influenza virus, whereby the virus utilizes the host ISG IFIT2 to enhance the

translational efficiency of viral RNAs(67).

While we thoroughly characterized MeV infection and susceptibility within B and T cell

subsets, our study is limited in that we do not know the functional implications that MeV infection

in these cells has on immunologic amnesia and disease. Future work should assess the extent to

which MeV infection of GCBs impacts the capacity to form new germinal center responses, an

outcome that would compound the impact that MeV is known to have on memory B cells during

immunological amnesia. A second limitation of our study is that we only assessed the host

response to infection at the transcriptional level. Curiously, the induction of ISGs was potent in

both the infected and bystander cells. If MeV proteins are involved in antagonizing the host

response at the protein level, MeV-infected cells may differ from bystander cells at a point

downstream of transcription and understanding this difference may clue towards novel therapeutic

targets. A third limitation in our analysis is that we are unable to discern whether the differences

we observed in MeV infection within specific cell types could be due to cell killing by MeV rather

than heightened cellular susceptibility to infection. While our data suggest that susceptibility of

cells is positively associated with the expression of the entry receptor CD150, this does not

exclude the possibility that some cell types have a greater capacity to survive while infected with

MeV. Indeed, it has previously been established that MeV is capable of depleting CD150+ cells

in tonsil explants (40). Understanding this may be critical in further defining the immunological

correlates of pathogenesis.

In sum, we present a thorough elucidation of the process of MeV infection in human lymph

nodes, advancing our understanding of cellular susceptibility to infection. Our findings in this

model establish tonsil explants as a unique platform for the identification of host factors important

for MeV replication, and for the screening of targeted antivirals. Future work in this model should

focus on understanding how MeV replicates in the face of this potently induced interferon

response, with the goal of identifying points at which viral replication can be inhibited.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

Cells and plasmids:

Vero-hCD150 cells were provided by Dr. Yanagi(23) at Kyushu University and maintained in

DMEM with 10% FBS. The genome coding plasmid for MeV (p(+) MV323-AcGFP) was kindly

gifted from Dr. Makoto Takeda(68). The MeV genome sequence was transferred into a pEMC

vector, adding an optimal T7 promotor, a hammerhead ribozyme, and an eGFP transcriptional

unit at the 3' end of the genome (pEMC-IC323-eGFP) as previously described(44).

MeV rescue and amplification:

MeV (IC323-eGFP) rescue was performed in BSR-T7 cells, seeded in 6-well format. Upon confluency, pEMC-IC323eGFP (5µg), T7-MeV-N (1.2 µg), T7-MeV-P (1.2 µg), T7-MeV-L (0.4 µg), a plasmid encoding a codon-optimized T7 polymerase (3 µg), PLUS reagent (5.8 µL), and Lipofectamine LTX (9.3 µL) were combined in Opti-MEM (200µl; Invitrogen). After a 30min incubation at RT, transfection mixture was added dropwise onto cells and incubated for 24hr at 37°C. Following, rescued virus was amplified once on Vero-hCD150 cells for 72hr to generate a P1 virus, in infection media (made in DMEM+2% FBS). This virus was then titered (see plaque assay method below) and used at an MOI = 0.01 on Vero-hCD150 cells to generate a P2 virus (amplified as above). Supernatants were collected, clarified of cell debris, ultracentrifuged through a 20% sucrose gradient at 24,000 RPM for 3hrs, reconstituted in fresh infection media, and frozen at -80°C.

MeV quantification by plaque assay:

Vero-hCD150 were plated in 12 well format until ~90-95% confluence. 10-fold serial dilutions of samples (made in DMEM+2% FBS) were applied to these monolayers in a total volume of 250µL, and infections were allowed to incubate for 2hrs at 37°C. Viral inoculum was removed and replaced with 500µL/well of methylcellulose (in DMEM+ 2% FBS + 7.5% $NaHCO_3$). Infections proceeded for 72hrs, at which point wells were imaged for GFP[+] plaques on the Celigo S platform.

Processing and infection of human lymphoid tissue:

Human tonsils from routine tonsillectomies performed at the Mount Sinai Hospital and the New York Eye and Ear Infirmary of Mount Sinai were collected under IRB-approved protocols within a few hours after surgery. Tonsils were dissected into 2mm blocks, and 9 tissue blocks per well

were placed on top of collagen sponge gels floating in six-well plates as previously described, in

triplicate wells per condition(43). All 27 tissue blocks from each donor were then individually

inoculated with 5µl containing 1,666 PFU MeV-GFP (for a final concentration of 5,000 PFU/ml) or

left uninfected. Media was collected and replaced at days 3, 6 and 8 post infection for culture

maintenance. Tonsil donors consisted of three male and eight female donors. The median age of

donors was 23 years old, with a range of 4 to 54 years old. The reasons for tonsillectomy included

sleep apnea, breathing disorders and chronic tonsillitis.

Visualization of MeV-infected cells in tonsillar explants by *in situ* hybridization:

Tonsil blocks were collected at each time point, fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for 24 hrs,

and then replaced with PBS until paraffin embedding. *In situ* hybridization using RNAscope® was

performed on 5µm paraffin-embedded sections for the detection of GFP RNA. Deparaffinization

was performed by baking slides at 55°C for 20min. Following this step, slides were washed twice

with xylene for 5min each, twice in 100% ethanol for 2min each, and lastly slides were dried for

5min at 60°C. Slides were then incubated with hydrogen peroxide for 10min at RT and were

subsequently washed in diH2O. Target retrieval was performed by incubating slides in Target

Retrieval solution at 100°C for 15min. Slides were washed with water and transferred into 100%

ethanol for 3min, then were allowed to dry. Sections were treated with RNAscope® Protease Plus

and incubated at 40°C for 3min. Slides were then washed with diH2O. Fluorescence *in situ*

hybridization was subsequently performed according to the manufacturer's protocol (ACD#

323110) with RNAscope® Probe EGFP (ACD #400281; binds eGFP RNA) as previously

described (Cao et al., 2017). Following *in situ* hybridization, slides were washed twice for 5min in

Tris-buffered Solution containing 0.01% Tween-20 (TBST) and subsequently blocked in a solution

of 2.5% goat serum and 2.5% BSA in TBST for 30min at RT. Slides were then mounted with

Vectashield hard-set mounting medium with DAPI (Vector Laboratories) and analyzed using an

AxioImager Z2 microscope (Zeiss) and Zen 2012 software (Zeiss).

Generating single cell suspensions from tonsil histocultures:

Tonsil blocks were collected and placed in Collagenase IV, as previously described(43). Samples were then placed on a thermomixer for 30min at 37°C, shaking at 500RPM. Following, samples were manually homogenized with mortar and pestle prior to filtration over a 100µm cell filter. Red blood cell lysis was then conducted, and cells were washed once with cold PBS. Single cell suspensions were then utilized for downstream analysis.

Single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-Seq):

Samples for scRNA-Seq were pooled for multiplex processing and analysis with a cell hashing antibody strategy(69). Hash antibodies utilized were generated in house as follows: First, oligos were synthesized by IDT utilizing barcode sequences from the 10x Genomics Chromium index SI-GA-F11 (HBC21-29 for hash #1-8 respectively); second, oligos were coupled to antibodies utilizing Thunder-Link® PLUS oligo Antibody Conjugation Kit according to manufacturer's instructions. Single cell suspensions were generated from one tonsil donor at day 8 post infection as described above from both infected and uninfected cultures. Dead cells were depleted from samples using the EasySep™ Dead Cell Removal (Annexin V) Kit. Cells were then blocked with Human TruStain FcX™ (Biolegend, 5µL/sample) as per manufacturer's protocol. Next, cells from the uninfected tonsil were split into 4 hashing groups (hash #1-4), and cells from the infected tonsil were split into two infected hashing groups (hash #5, 6) and two bystander hashing groups (hash #7, 8). Samples were stained with corresponding hashing antibodies for 30min on ice, after which unbound antibodies were removed by washing 3x in FACS buffer (PBS + 1mM EDTA + 2% BSA). Cells were reconstituted in 1ml of cold FACS buffer each. Cell suspensions were filtered over a 70µm filter and stained with propidium iodide (PI) for viability. Subsequently, live/GFP⁻ cells were sorted from the uninfected condition, live/GFP⁺ cells were sorted from the infected condition, and live/GFP⁻ cells were sorted from the bystander condition. Cells were counted and 10,000 cells

from the uninfected condition, 5,000 cells from the infected condition, and 5,000 cells from the

bystander condition were pooled and processed for scRNA-Seq on the 10x Genomics Chromium

platform, utilizing the 10x 3' v3 kit. A scRNA-Seq library was generated as per the manufacturer's

protocol and sequenced on an Illumina NextSeq500 instrument. A corresponding library of

barcoded hash antibody oligonucleotides was indexed with a standard Ilumina D701 index and

sequenced as above.

Processing of scRNA-Seq data:

Raw sequencing data output (BCL files) was converted to fastq files with CellRanger mkfastq

v3.0.2 (10X Genomics). Per cell gene count and hashtag antibody count matrices were generated

with CellRanger count v3.0.2 (10X Genomics), using a human genome reference (GRCh38,

Ensembl v96 transcript annotations) appended with the MeV-eGFP reference and corresponding

transcript annotations (MeV-IC323-eGFP, Genbank: MW401770). Data were read into the R

statistical framework (v4.0.3) for additional analysis with Seurat(70, 71) (v4.0.1). Hashtag

antibody data were center log ratio normalized by feature, and individual samples were

demultiplexed with the Seurat HTODemux function with the positive.quantile parameter set to

0.99.

Quality control and filtering of scRNA-Seq:

Data exploration and HTODemux classifications were used to set QC thresholds on per cell

transcript unique molecular identifiers (UMI) counts, detected gene counts, and the percentage

of detected transcripts derived from mitochondrial genes. Cell barcodes with fewer than 2,500

transcript UMIs, fewer than 800 detected genes, and greater than 15% mitochondrial transcripts

were excluded from downstream analyses. Cell barcodes classified as negative or inter-sample

multiplets by HTODemux were also excluded. After filtering, these data included 5,737 cells in

the uninfected group, 2,736 cells in the infected group, and 2,944 in the bystander group.

scRNA-Seq data analysis:

Datasets were normalized with SCTransform(72), with the per cell mitochondrial transcript percentage included as a regression variable. Data from all groups were integrated(70) in Seurat using 3,000 anchor features; MeV genes were excluded from all integration and clustering steps to avoid group-specific artifacts. Dimensionality reduction was performed by principal component analysis on integrated data, and the first 20 components were selected for graph-based clustering by smart local moving algorithm(73) at a resolution of 1.4 (determined by Clustering Tree assessment(74)).

General cell types were annotated by SingleR(75) from human immune cell reference data(76). Guided by SingleR annotations, prior knowledge of the cellular composition of tonsil explants, flow cytometry, and exploratory gene expression analyses, clusters were assigned to one of each major cell groups: T/NK, B, plasma, myeloid, stromal, and epithelial. Those major cell groups with multiple component clusters were subset and re-analyzed (normalization, principal components analysis dimensionality reduction, and clustering at ClusterTree determined optimal resolution) for further assessment and high-resolution annotation. For each major cell group subset analysis, "marker genes" distinguishing component clusters were identified by differential expression analysis with the FindAllMarkers (on uninfected group for cell types that were depleted/eliminated by MeV infection) and/or FindConservedMarkers (on all groups) functions. Cluster annotations were assigned based on significant differential expression of canonical marker genes accompanied by literature review. Intergroup differential gene expression analysis was performed with edgeR(77, 78) (v3.32.1), including modifications of single cell scRNA-Seq data(79). The edgeR linear model incorporated factors for cellular gene detection rate (to account for scRNA-Seq "dropout") and experimental group and included only those genes detected in at least 20% of cells in any contrast condition. Statistical thresholds for significant differential gene expression were set at Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value less than 0.0001 and absolute $\log_2$ fold-change greater than 1.58.

Immunophenotyping by flow cytometry:

3×10^6 cells from each tonsil donor (n=3) at each time point were stained with the Zombie Red fixable viability kit (Biolegend) for 10 min at RT, as per the manufacturer's protocol. Following, the viability stain was washed off with cold FACS buffer, and Fc receptors were blocked with Human TruStain FcX™. Samples were then split in two and stained with a B or T cell panel for 30min on ice with a cocktail of antibodies against: **(B)** CD150 (Clone: A127d4; PE), CD38 (Clone: HB7; PE-Cy7), CD27 (Clone: O323; APC), CD45 (Clone: HI30; BV605), CD19 (Clone: HIB19; BV750) and CD3 (Clone: OKT3; BV785); **(T)** CD4 (Clone: OKT4; PerCP-Cy5.5), CD150 (Clone: A127d4; PE), CXCR3 (Clone: G025H7; APC), CD45RA (Clone: HI100; AlexaFluor-700), CCR6 (Clone: G034E3; APC-Cy7), CXCR5 (Clone: J252D4; BV421), CCR7 (Clone: G043H7; BV510), CD8 (Clone: RPA-T8; BV570), CD45 (Clone: HI30; BV605), CD19 (Clone: HIB19; BV750) and CD3 (Clone: OKT3; BV785). The antibody cocktail was supplemented with 1µL/reaction of Brilliant Stain buffer (BD Horizon™), as per manufacturer's recommendation for bright violet fluorophores. All antibodies were used at a concentration of 1µg/ml, except for CD27 (4µg/ml). Finally, cells were washed 3 more times with FACS buffer, prior to fixation with BD Cytofix™ (BD Biosciences). Single color controls were generated on UltraComp eBeads™ (Invitrogen™), except for GFP and Live/Dead controls, which were made on cells from the infected and uninfected conditions, respectively. All samples were analyzed on an Aurora Cytek®, and unmixed, compensated samples were analyzed in FlowJo v10.8.1. Among CD45$^+$ cells, B and T cell subsets were defined. B cell subsets identified are as follows: Naive, Germinal Center, Memory, and Activated Memory. Among all T cells (CD3$^+$), CD4$^+$ helper cells, CXCR5$^+$ (pre-T$_{FH}$ and T$_{FH}$), Naive CD4$^+$, T$_{EMRA}$, T$_{EM}$, T$_{CM}$, T$_H$1, T$_H$2, T$_H$1* and T$_H$17 cells were identified. In addition, CD8$^+$ cytotoxic cells, Naive CD8$^+$, T$_{EMRA}$, T$_{EM}$, T$_{CM}$ cells were identified. Full marker definitions for each B and T cell subset were based upon previously published panels and are included below(36, 80):

B cells (CD19$^+$): naive (CD27$^-$CD38$^-$), germinal center (GCB; CD27$^-$CD38$^+$), memory (MBC;

CD27$^+$CD38$^-$), activated memory (AMBC; CD27$^+$CD38$^+$).

Helper T cells (CD3$^+$CD4$^+$): CXCR5$^+$ (pre-T$_{FH}$ and T$_{FH}$), CXCR5$^-$, naive (CXCR5$^-$

CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^+$), effector memory RA$^+$ (T$_{EMRA}$; CXCR5$^-$CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^-$), effector memory (T$_{EM}$;

CXCR5$^-$CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$), central memory (T$_{CM}$; CXCR5$^-$CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^+$), T$_H$1 (CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$

CCR6$^-$CXCR3$^+$), T$_H$1* (CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$CCR6$^+$CXCR3$^+$), T$_H$17 (CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$CCR6$^+$CXCR3$^-$),

and T$_H$2 (CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$CCR6$^-$CXCR3$^-$).

Cytotoxic T cells (CD3$^+$CD8$^+$): naive (CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^+$), effector memory RA$^+$ (T$_{EMRA}$;

CD45RA$^+$CCR7$^-$), effector memory (T$_{EM}$; CD45RA$^-$CCR7$^-$), central memory (T$_{CM}$; CD45RA$^-$

CCR7$^+$).

qRT-PCR:

Total RNA was collected for two tonsil donors by resuspending single cell suspensions in 1ml of

TriZol. RNA was extracted and purified with the Direct-zol RNA MiniPrep Plus kit (Zymo), and 1µg

of RNA was reverse transcribed with random hexamer primers (Applied Biosystems). 1µl of cDNA

was utilized per reaction, and primer/probes for IFIT1 (HS03027069_S1), IFIT3

(HS01922752_S1), and MX1 (Hs00895608_m) were utilized to amplify ISG transcripts. Fold

induction was calculated using the $\Delta\Delta$CT method by normalizing expression to GAPDH

expression (NC_000012.11).

Statistics:

Panel specific statistical testing details and sample sizes are reflected in the Fig legends. For

scRNA-Seq analysis, statistical analysis methodology is detailed in the above methods section.

For all comparison of infection susceptibility over time, significance was determined by two-way

ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison test. For all comparisons of CD150 expression among

multiple (>2) groups, significance was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple

comparison test. For pair-wise comparisons, a 2-tailed paired T-test was utilized. For all statistical

analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates $p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates

$p<0.0001$

Study Approval:

All tonsil tissues were obtained with informed consent under IRB# 16-01425-CR002 at New

York Eye and Ear Infirmary of Mount Sinai, or the Mount Sinai Hospital under IRB HS#12-0045.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS: JAA, BRR, BL and JKL conceptualized the project. JA, ARP, SH,

APK, PT, SI, JC, HU, BT, JRJ, BRR, BL and JKL contributed to the work intellectually. JAA, ARP,

SH, ASM, PT and NI conducted the experiments. SI generated the virus used in this study. BT

conducted tonsillectomies included in this work. JAA, ARP, SH, EJD, and BRR conducted data

analysis. JAA, ARP and JKL prepared the manuscript. All authors edited the manuscript.

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FIGS

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Fig 1: MeV productively infects human lymphoid tissue explants. Tonsil tissues from 11 donors were infected with MeV. Infectious virus was quantified from supernatants collected on days 3, 6, and 8 post infection by plaque assay (A). Data are shown as cumulative plaque forming units (PFU)/ml. Tissue explants were homogenized into single cell suspensions, and GFP+ cells were quantified by flow cytometry. Representative dot plots are shown for MeV-infected and donor-matched uninfected tissue for a single donor across time (B) and quantified for a total of four donors in (C). Infection was visualized by *in situ* hybridization for GFP RNA (green) on paraffin-embedded tissues collected on day 8 post infection (D). Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (blue). Scale bars represent 50μm.

Fig 2: scRNA-Seq identifies 29 populations of tonsillar cells susceptible to MeV. Tonsil tissue from MeV-infected and uninfected explants on day 8 from one donor were prepared for scRNA-Seq. Schemata of scRNA-Seq workflow is shown in (A). MeV RNA UMIs (B) were quantified for quality control and filtering. Normalized expression of each MeV transcript in infected cells was quantified and shown as violin plots ordered from 3' to 5' in the MeV genome (C). Canonical correlation analysis (CCA) was conducted on all groups (combined) and individual clusters were functionally annotated (see also Fig S1). Clusters were visualized by UMAP (D) and then split into conditions for analysis (H). The frequencies of each cell cluster identified in (E) were calculated for each group, and quantification is shown in (F). The percentage of the transcriptome that is MeV RNA is shown in (G), with a +1 pseudocount artificially added to the values for display on a $\log_{10}$ axis.

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Fig 3: MeV preferentially infects CD19$^+$ B cells. Single cell suspensions from MeV-infected and
donor-matched uninfected tissues for 3 donors were stained with CD19 and CD3 antibodies to
identify, with gating schemata is shown in (A). The frequency of CD19$^+$ cells (B) and CD3$^+$ cells
(C) among both uninfected and GFP+ cells are quantified and compared over time. Significance
was determined by two-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison test. The mean fluorescent
intensity (MFI) of surface CD150 expression among CD19$^+$ and CD3$^+$ cells is shown (D), with
significance determined by paired t-test. For all statistical analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates
$p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates $p<0.0001$

869
Fig 4: MeV infects B cell subsets proportionally. Single cell suspensions from MeV-infected
and donor-matched uninfected tissues from 3 donors were immunophenotyped to identify B cell
subsets using CD38 and CD27 within the CD19+ cells, with the gating strategy utilized is shown
in (A). Naive (CD27⁻CD38⁻; B), germinal center (CD27⁻CD38⁻; C), memory (CD27⁺CD38⁻; D), and
activated memory (CD27⁺CD38⁺; E) B cells were quantified by comparing the frequency of the
population among both uninfected and GFP+ cells over time. Significance was determined by
two-way ANOVA, with Sidak's multiple comparison test. CD150 expression was calculated for
each population among uninfected cells at 6 days post infection and mean fluorescent intensity
(MFI) of CD150 expression is shown (F). Significance was determined by one-way ANOVA with
Dunnet's multiple comparison test. For all statistical analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates
$p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates $p<0.0001$

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Fig 5: CD4⁺ helper T cells are more frequently infected than CD8⁺ cytotoxic T cells. Single
cell suspensions from MeV-infected and donor-matched uninfected tissues from 3 donors were
immunophenotyped to identify T cell subsets using CD4 and CD8 within the CD3+ cells, with the
gating strategy utilized is shown in (A). The frequency of CD4⁺ cells (B), CD8⁺ cells (C) CD4/CD8
double negative cells (DN; D), and CD4/CD8 double positive (DP; E) among both uninfected and
GFP+ cells are quantified and compared over time. Significance was determined by two-way
ANOVA, with Sidak's multiple comparison test. The mean fluorescent intensity (MFI) of CD150
was calculated for each population among uninfected cells on day 6 and is shown (F). Significance
was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple comparison test. For all statistical
analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates $p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates
$p<0.0001$

Fig 6: Naïve CD4+ Cells are less susceptible to MeV than other CD4+ subsets. Single cell
suspensions from MeV-infected and donor-matched uninfected tissues from 3 donors were
immunophenotyped to identify T cell subsets within the CD4+ cells. CD4+ cells were subset first
based on CXCR5 expression, and then based expression of CD45RA and CCR7, with the gating
strategy shown in (A). The frequencies of naive (B), T_{EM} (C), T_{CM} (D) and T_{EMRA} (E) cells among
both uninfected and GFP+ cells are quantified and compared over time. The MFI of CD150
expression on naive and T_{EM} cells was compared (F), with significance determined by paired-t
test. Significance for (B-C) was determined by two-way ANOVA, with Sidak's multiple comparison
test. For all statistical analyses, * indicates $p < 0.05$, ** indicates $p < 0.01$, *** indicates $p < 0.001$ and
**** indicates $p < 0.0001$.

Fig 7: MeV infection among CD8+ T cell subsets is biased towards memory cells. Single cell suspensions from MeV-infected and donor-matched uninfected tissues from 3 donors were immunophenotyped to identify T cell subsets within the CD8+ cells. CD8$^+$ cells were subset based expression of CD45RA and CCR7, with the gating strategy shown in (A). The frequencies of naive (B) and T_{EM} (C), T_{EMRA} (D), and T_{CM} (E) cells among both uninfected and GFP+ cells are quantified and compared over time. The expression of CD150 was compared between each cell subset, as shown by MFI in (F). Significance for (B-E) was determined by two-way ANOVA, with Sidak's multiple comparison test. Significance for F was determined by one-way ANOVA with Dunnet's multiple comparison test. For all statistical analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates $p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates $p<0.0001$.

Fig 8: Host response to MeV in tonsil explants is dominated by interferon signaling. All B cell clusters from the scRNA-Seq shown in Fig 2 were combined (with stochastic downsampling), as were all T cell clusters. Differential gene expression analysis was conducted with EdgeR, and expression of the most significant genes is shown by heat map (A for B cells, B for T cells). Statistical thresholds for significant differential gene expression were set at Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p value less than 0.0001 and absolute $\log_2$ fold-change greater than 1.58. Total RNA from two additional donors was collected and examined for the expression of IFIT1 (C), IFIT3 (D) and MX1 (E) by qRT-PCR at days 3, 6 and 8 post infection. The fold change in expression levels is shown, with the expression of each ISG normalized to the expression of GAPDH ($\Delta\Delta$CT method).

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Fig S1: Cluster annotation strategy for scRNA-Seq. Total counts of unique molecular identifiers (UMI; A), individual genes (B), and mitochondrial transcripts (C) were quantified for quality control and filtering. (D) Dot plot showing the expression of cluster defining features across each identified cell cluster. Average expression (Z scaled) is shown for each feature by color, while the percentage of cells in each cluster expressing that feature is shown by the size of the dot.

984
Fig S2: There are no differences in susceptibility to MeV infection based on CXCR5
expression. The frequencies of CD4+ T cells that do not express (A) or express (B) CXCR5
among uninfected (GFP⁻ from uninfected tonsil) or infected cells (GFP⁺ in MeV-infected tonsil)
were quantified and compared over time. Significance was determined by two-way ANOVA, with
Sidak's multiple comparison test. In addition, these groups were compared based on their relative
expression of CD150, shown by MFI (C), with significance determined by one-way ANOVA with
Dunnet's multiple comparison test. For all statistical analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates
$p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates $p<0.0001$.
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Fig S3: There are no differenes in susceptibility to MeV infection among CD4$^+$ T$_{EM}$ subsets.
CD4$^+$ T$_{EM}$ cells were further phenotyped into T$_H$1 (B), T$_H$2 (C), T$_H$1* (D), and T$_H$17 (E) cells to
compare their frequencies among uninfected and MeV-infected CD4$^+$ T$_{EM}$ cells. MFI of surface
CD150 expression shown for each subset (F), with significance determined by one-way ANOVA
with Dunnet's multiple comparison test. For all statistical analyses, * indicates $p<0.05$, ** indicates
$p<0.01$, *** indicates $p<0.001$ and **** indicates $p<0.0001$.
1001

A.

B.

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Fig S4: Detection of P-editing by scRNA-Seq. (A) Read coverage for all libraries along the
entire length of the MeV P transcript. The red box denotes the region of the MeV linear genome
that is shown in the histogram box, and the boxes under the histogram are a selection of reads
that map to these positions. Grey bars indicate that the read matches to the reference sequence,
with colored letters representing mismatches to the reference. (B) Zoomed-in coverage of the p-
edited region, showing representative reads that map to this region of the gene in grey. "I"
represents indel mappings, which may indicate P-edited transcripts. There were 235 total reads
covering the putative edit site. Also of note, slightly upstream at MeV_IC323_eGFP:3347, the final
reference A has a significant portion of reads (~9%) containing a "G" - likely also indicating editing.

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