Research article

The Hsf1-sHsp cascade has pan-antiviral activity in mosquitoes

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Abstract

Aedes mosquitoes transmit pathogenic arthropod-borne (arbo) viruses, putting nearly half the world's population at risk. Blocking virus replication in mosquitoes is a promising approach to prevent arbovirus transmission, the development of which requires in-depth knowledge of virus-host interactions and mosquito immunity. By integrating multi-omics data, we find that heat shock factor 1 (Hsf1) regulates eight small heat shock protein (sHsp) genes within one topologically associated domain in the mosquito genome. This Hsf1-sHsp cascade acts as an early response against chikungunya virus (CHIKV) infection and shows pan-antiviral activity in three vector species, *Aedes aegypti*, *Aedes albopictus*, and *Anopheles gambiae* in cell experiments. Importantly, activation of Hsf1 leads to a reduced CHIKV infection rate in adult *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes, establishing Hsf1 as a promising target for the development of novel intervention strategies to limit arbovirus transmission by mosquitoes.

Introduction

Aedes mosquitoes are the primary vectors of arthropod-borne (arbo) viruses [1] that pose significant health and economic burden to humans [2-4]. Dengue virus (DENV) alone causes approximately 400 million infections and 20,000 deaths annually [5]. Recent outbreaks of chikungunya virus (CHIKV) in Europe and the Americas have also garnered significant attention [6-11]. With the continued resurgence of arboviruses and their unprecedented geographical spread over the past years, there is a pressing need for novel strategies to prevent and mitigate future outbreaks.

Arbovirus transmission occurs primarily through a horizontal cycle between blood-feeding arthropod vectors, such as mosquitoes, and vertebrate hosts. Female mosquitoes ingest viruses during a blood meal from an infected host and then transfer viruses into a naïve host through biting [12, 13]. Blocking virus transmission at the mosquito stage, rather than solely targeting the virus in human hosts, constitutes a promising, alternative approach to prevent arbovirus spread [14]. The development of such approaches requires in-depth knowledge of mosquito antiviral immunity.

Our current understanding of the insect immune system is largely informed by studies in *Drosophila melanogaster* [15-18], where the RNA interference (RNAi) pathway serves as a major response that degrades viral RNA and inhibits replication [19-21]. Innate immune signaling pathways, specifically the NF-κB (Toll and IMD) and JAK-STAT pathways, have also been implicated in antiviral defense [16, 22]. However, *Drosophila* does not recapitulate mosquito specific processes such as virus acquisition and transmission via blood-feeding [12, 13, 15, 22]. It is therefore crucial to study immunity against arboviruses in relevant species, such as *Ae. aegypti*, the primary vector of the urban virus transmission cycle [23, 24].

RNAi has been identified as a major antiviral response in *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes, with evidence from CHIKV [25], Zika virus (ZIKV) [26, 27], DENV [28, 29], and Sindbis virus (SINV) [30]. In contrast, the role of classical innate immune pathways is less well-defined and seems to be virus dependent [31-35]. For instance, ZIKV infection activates the Toll pathway, while DENV infection activates both the Toll and JAK-STAT pathways [31-33]. Activation of the Toll and JAK-STAT pathways by depleting pathway-specific negative regulators Cactus and PIAS, respectively, suppresses ZIKV infection [31]. On the other hand, activation of the IMD pathway by silencing of Caspar did not affect ZIKV infection [31], but impaired SINV replication [34]. Additionally, stimulation with either heat inactivated *E. coli* to activate

JAK-STAT and IMD pathways or *B. subtilis* to activate Toll pathway had no effect on CHIKV replication

[25], suggesting unknown antiviral mechanisms yet to be discovered.

To investigate the transcriptional responses of *Ae. aegypti* to viral infection, we conducted a time-

course RNA-seq experiment upon CHIKV infection. Our combined analyses of RNA-seq and chromatin

profiling data revealed an early-responsive cascade, consisting of heat shock factor 1 (Hsf1) driving the

expression of eight small heat shock proteins (sHsps). This Hsf1-sHsp cascade displayed conserved pan-

antiviral activities in *in vitro* experiments on three vector mosquitoes. Furthermore, activation of Hsf1

led to a reduced CHIKV infection rate *in vivo* in adult *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes. As such, Hsf1 serves as

a promising target for the development of new intervention strategies to control arbovirus

transmission by mosquitoes.

Results

The Hsf1-sHsp cascade acts as an early response to CHIKV infection

To uncover novel components involved in antiviral defense in *Aedes* mosquitoes, we performed a

time-course RNA-seq experiment to determine differentially expressed genes (DEgenes) upon CHIKV

infection of *Ae. aegypti* Aag2 cells at 4, 8 and 48 hours post-infection (hpi) (Figure 1A and Table S1).

The CHIKV strain that emerged during the 2005–2006 outbreaks had acquired a mutation (A226V) in

the E1 envelope glycoprotein and was used in this study [36]. A multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 5 was

used to ensure that the vast majority of cells are synchronously infected and that DEgenes from

different time points represent transcriptional responses at different stages of infection. At 4 hpi, only

a single DEgene was detected (*AAEL000080*, encoding a putative phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase),

which was downregulated at 8 hpi. We observed major transcriptional changes at 8 hpi and 48 hpi,

which we termed the early and late responses to CHIKV infection, respectively. The late response was

more pronounced, with eight upregulated and 51 downregulated genes (Figure 1A), and KEGG

pathway analysis suggested that downregulated DEgenes were mainly involved in glycolysis, which we

have reported before [37]. In contrast, the early response was modest, with two downregulated and

19 upregulated genes, which were enriched for genes encoding HSP20-like chaperones (Figure 1A).

Protein domain analysis revealed four heat shock protein 70 (Hsp70) and eight small heat shock

proteins (sHsps) (Figure 1B), which function to prevent protein aggregation and to help cells to survive

stressful conditions [38].

While Hsp70 is involved in distinct steps of the viral cycle, including entry, RNA replication, and virion

assembly [39, 40], the role of sHsps during virus infection is largely unknown [41]. Inspecting the

genomic distribution of these sHsp genes, we found that all eight sHsps are encoded within one

Topologically Associated Domain (TAD) deduced from Hi-C seq data [42] (Figure 1C), suggesting that

these sHsp genes are likely to be coordinately regulated by the same cis-regulatory network [43, 44].

To further study the regulation of sHsp gene expression within this TAD, we mapped our chromatin

profiling data from Aag2 cells [45], and performed motif scan within open chromatin regions defined

by the Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin with sequencing (ATAC-seq). We found the DNA

binding motif of the transcription factor heat shock factor 1 (Hsf1) to be highly enriched at promoter

regions of these eight sHsp genes, but not at other genes within the same TAD (Figure 1D). These

regions were also marked by active histone marks H3K4me3 and H3K27ac, as well as RNA polymerase

II occupancy, indicating active transcription [46, 47]. These findings together suggest that Hsf1 is the

transcription factor that regulates sHsp gene expression. To experimentally test this hypothesis, we

RNAi silenced *Hsf1*, and indeed, the induction of all eight *sHsps* upon CHIKV infection was significantly

diminished (Figure 1E). Hence, the Hsf1-sHsp cascade functions as an early transcriptional response to

CHIKV infection in Aag2 cells.

The Hsf1-sHsp cascade displays a broad antiviral activity

To explore the antiviral potential of the identified Hsf1-sHsp axis, we silenced *Hsf1* using RNAi and

observed elevated CHIKV RNA levels (Figure 2A). sHsp genes share high similarity at the nucleotide

level, we therefore used two sets of dsRNA targeting the conserved Hsp20 domain to knock down all

8 sHsp genes and observed significantly increased CHIKV RNA copies (Figure 2B). In parallel, we

knocked down *Hsp70*, which did not affect CHIKV replication (Figure 2C). These results together

suggested that the Hsf1-sHsp axis has antiviral activity against CHIKV infection.

We then modulated the activity of Hsf1 with either the small molecule inhibitor KRIBB11 [48], or the

activator hsfa1 [49]. KRIBB11 inhibits Hsf1-dependent recruitment of positive Transcription Elongation

Factor b to the promoters of target genes, thus blocking gene activation [48]. Indeed, KRIBB11

treatment did not affect *Hsf1* expression, but led to more than 5-fold increase of viral RNA levels in

Aag2 cells at 12 hpi of CHIKV infection (Figure 2D). The effect of KRIBB11 on virus replication remained

concordant at 24 hpi. While the expression of most *sHsps* was significantly reduced with KRIBB11

treatment, counterintuitively, we observed de-repression or even activation of some *sHsps*, such as

AAEL013346, *AAEL013349*, and *AAEL013351* at 12 hpi, which is likely a secondary effect resulting from the increased CHIKV replication (Figure 2D). The precise mechanism by which hsfa1 activates Hsf1 is not yet understood [49]. We observed a significant increase in the *Hsf1* expression upon hsfa1 treatment, and accordingly a strong activation of all eight *sHsp* genes. Importantly, hsfa1 treatment led to about 25-fold reduction in CHIKV copies at 12 hpi and about 10-fold reduction at 24 hpi (Figure 2D), which is in agreement with our RNAi experiments and thus substantiates the antiviral role of sHsps.

Next, we tested the effect of these compounds on replication of other alphaviruses, including SINV (AR339 strain, Figure 2E), the insect-specific Agua Salud alphavirus (ASALV, Figure 2F), and the flavivirus DENV (serotype 2, Figure 2G). Consistently, KRIBB11 treatment led to increased virus replication, whereas hsfa1 treatment significantly reduced virus replication (Figures 2E-G). We then extended our findings to *in vitro* experiments of other mosquito species and confirmed the antiviral property of the Hsf1-sHsp cascade in several natural virus-vector combinations [50, 51], such as CHIKV in *Aedes albopictus* U4.4 cells (Figure 2H) and C6/36 cells (Figure 2I), and O'nyong-nyong (ONNV) in *Anopheles gambiae* Mos55 cells (Figure 2J). The fact that the heat shock response was antiviral in both U4.4 cells and the RNAi-deficient C6/36 cells indicates that the Hsf1-sHsps cascade functions independently of RNAi. Together, these results suggest that the newly defined Hsf1-sHsp pathway displays a pan-antiviral role in cells from all three tested mosquito species.

To identify which stage of the virus life cycle is affected by the Hsf1-sHsp cascade, we performed time-of-addition assays in Aag2 cells treated with either hsfa1 or KRIBB11 at different time points relative to inoculation with CHIKV (Figure 3A and Figure S1A). When hsf1a was added at time points before inoculation up to 4 hpi, CHIKV replication was strongly inhibited (Figure 3B), indicating that hsfa1 does not affect the virus attachment or entry step. After 4 hpi, both positive and negative sense viral RNA copies reached a detectable level and the inhibitory effect of hsf1a on CHIKV replication started to diminish gradually (Figure 3B), suggesting that the Hsf1-sHsp cascade interacts with the early stage of virus RNA replication. In agreement, time-of-addition assay with KRIBB11 treatment showed the same pattern (Figure S1).

To sum up, we demonstrated that the Hsf1-sHsp cascade displays a broad antiviral activity in mosquito cells, likely via reducing early virus replication. As such, the upstream transcription factor, Hsf1, serves as a potential target for developing antiviral interventions in mosquitoes.

In vivo antiviral activity of the Hsf1-sHsp cascade

We next sought to determine the antiviral activity of the identified Hsf1-sHsp cascade in mosquitoes.

Using RNA-seq, we first evaluated the baseline expression of *sHsp* genes, which varied dramatically

across different tissues of female *Ae. aegypti* (Figure 4A). Interestingly, *sHsp* genes were expressed at

low levels in two main barrier tissues, the midgut and salivary glands, compared to other tissues such

as the crop (Figure 4A).

To assess whether the Hsf1-sHsp cascade is activated as a natural antiviral response against CHIKV

infection, we first established the *in vivo* CHIKV infection kinetics in *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes (Figure

S2A) and subsequently examined different tissues at 3 d and 5 d post blood feeding (dpf) when the

virus had disseminated to most body parts (Figures S2B and S2C). Midguts and salivary glands showed

comparable CHIKV RNA levels at 3 dpf, while salivary glands showed the highest CHIKV RNA levels at

5 dpf (Figure S2B). Despite relatively uniform CHIKV RNA levels, *sHsp* expression fluctuated within each

tissue. Interestingly, a minor induction of some *sHsp* genes (*e.g.*, *AAEL013344*) was observed in ovaries,

but not in other tissues (Figure S2C), suggesting that specific sHsps may play a protective role in ovaries

against CHIKV infection.

We then explored the possibility of activating Hsf1 in mosquitoes with small molecule compounds.

Due to the poor solubility of hsfa1 and KRIBB11 in blood, we could not continue with these two

compounds in *in vivo* experiments. Instead, we tested another compound, Direct Targeted Hsf1

InhiBitor (DTHIB), which has been reported as a direct human Hsf1 inhibitor by stimulating the

degradation of nuclear Hsf1 [52]. Unexpectedly, DTHIB treatment did not affect *Hsf1* expression but

resulted in a dose-dependent activation of *sHsp* expression in Aag2 cells (Figures 4B-C). Thus, rather

than an inhibitor, DTHIB acts as an Hsf1 activator in mosquito cells. Indeed, in line with our

observations with hsf1a, treatment with DTHIB strongly reduced CHIKV replication in Aag2 cells (Figure

4B).

Next, we administered DTHIB to 3–5-day-old female *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes via blood meal in the

absence of CHIKV, with DMSO serving as a control. At 3 dpf, midguts and carcasses were dissected to

check the stimulation of sHsps when the blood meal has been completely digested. We observed a

significantly increased expression of AAEL013350 in carcasses but not in midgut (Figure S3). It is

possible that the induction of sHsps in midguts are earlier than 3 dpf, however, it is technically difficult

to evaluate the expression level of sHsps at earlier time points due to the large amount of blood meal

retained in the midgut. In parallel, we administered DTHIB to 3–5-day-old female *Ae. aegypti*

mosquitoes via blood meal in the presence of CHIKV. We assessed the infectious titers at 3 dpf and did

not observe a significant difference (Mann-Whitney test, Figure 4D), however, there was a significant

reduction in the infection rate, from 62% to 33%, with DTHIB treatment (Figure 4D), indicating that

activation of Hsf1 presents a bottleneck to CHIKV infection in *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes.

Discussion

Our combined analyses of RNA-seq and epigenetic profiling data revealed an early-responsive Hsf1-

sHsp cascade activated upon CHIKV infection, which we found to have broad *in vitro* antiviral activity

against alphaviruses and a flavivirus in three vector mosquito species: *Ae. aegypti*, *Ae. albopictus*, and

An. gambiae. *In vivo* activation of Hsf1 resulted in a significant decrease in the CHIKV infection rate in

Ae. aegypti mosquitoes. Overall, our work uncovers a novel antiviral cascade Hsf1-sHsp and identifies

Hsf1 as a potential target for developing transmission-blocking strategies against arboviruses (Figure

4E).

While RNAi is a well-established antiviral mechanism in mosquito vectors, it is becoming evident that

inducible signaling pathways are of vital importance as well. In addition to the classical Toll, IMD, and

JAK-STAT pathways, Wnt, mTOR, Ras/ERK, c-jun pathways, and the Hsf1-sHsp cascade identified in this

study, have been implicated in antiviral host defense [31, 33, 34, 53-55]. The temporal activation of

signaling pathways and associated genes is precisely regulated, as revealed by our time-course RNA-

seq data. The activation of *sHsp* genes is mainly restricted to the early stage and is not detectable in

the late stage of CHIKV infection. In line with our findings, published RNA-seq data from an *in vivo*

study of *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes showed a similar pattern, with a higher induction of *sHsp* expression

at the early stage (3 dpi) than at the late stage (7 dpi) of CHIKV infection [41]. To gain deeper insights

into the regulation of *sHsp* genes, we performed integrative analyses of 3D chromatin conformation

(Hi-C seq) and chromatin profiling data (ATAC-seq and ChIP-seq), and identified Hsf1 as the upstream

transcription factor that regulates expression of eight *sHsp* genes within one TAD. Targeting the

transcription factor Hsf1, rather than individual downstream genes, is expected to be more effective

for antiviral control. Indeed, when we activated Hsf1 in adult mosquitoes, we observed a significant

decrease in the CHIKV infection rate. Together, our multi-omics analysis strategy demonstrates its

power in discovering novel antiviral signaling pathways, which can be applied to further investigate

virus-vector interactions in different tissues, in other mosquito species, and in other arbovirus

infections.

While Hsp70 is required at various stages of the viral cycle including entry, RNA replication, and virion
assembly [39, 40, 56, 57], few studies analyzed the role of sHsps in viral infection [41]. This may be due
to their transient activation pattern during the early stages of virus infection; this dependency on virus
infection dynamics may make sHsp activation difficult to be captured. As arboviruses need to
overcome tissue barriers to establish a persistent infection of the mosquito, the infection state of
different tissues or body parts are highly variable. This could potentially explain why we failed to
observe robust *sHsp* induction upon CHIKV blood feeding in different tissues. Yet, *AAEL013344*, one of
the *sHsp* genes, was found to be upregulated upon ZIKV infection [57]. Further investigation is needed
to assess whether *sHsp* genes are coordinately upregulated by specific arboviruses, and single-cell
RNA-seq may be a useful tool to address the heterogeneity of sHsp activation.

The mechanism underlying the antiviral activity of the Hsf1-sHsp cascade remains largely elusive. Our
time-of-addition assays suggest that the response inhibits an early post-entry stage of the viral
replication cycle. As Hsf1 activation led to a broad antiviral effect in three vector mosquitoes, it is likely
that the Hsf1-sHsp cascade interacts, either directly or indirectly, with a common viral protein feature
or a conserved host protein complex. It has been suggested that sHsps maintain protein homeostasis
by binding proteins in non-native conformations, thereby preventing substrate aggregation [58]. The
fact that a wide range of proteins is protected from precipitation suggests that sHsps may act rather
promiscuously, similarly to the molecular chaperone Hsp70 [58-62]. It will be of great interest to profile
sHsp associated proteins using proteomic approaches to identify sHsp client proteins and shed light
on its antiviral mechanism.

To sum up, we identified the Hsf1-sHsp cascade as a novel antiviral mechanism in mosquitoes and
propose Hsf1 as a potential target for developing arbovirus-blocking interventions. Considering the
pan-antiviral activity of the Hsf1-sHsp cascade, our findings may open the way for the development of
a broad-spectrum drug to prevent arbovirus transmission.

Materials and Methods

Cell lines

Ae. aegypti Aag2 cells were kindly provided by Raul Andino (University of California San Francisco), *Ae. albopictus* U4.4 cells were kindly provided by Gorben Pijlman (Wageningen University), and C6/36 cells were obtained from ECACC General Cell Collection (#89051705). All these three cell lines were grown in Leibovitz's L-15 medium (Gibco 21083-027) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma F7524-500ML), 50 U/ml Penicillin, 50 µg/mL Streptomycin (Gibco 15070-063), 1x non-essential Amino Acids (Gibco 11140-035) and 2% Tryptose phosphate broth solution (Sigma T8159-100ML). *An. gambiae* Mos55 cells were kindly provided by Jason L. Rasgon (The Pennsylvania State University) and were grown in Schneider's insect medium (Gibco 21720024) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 50 U/ml Penicillin, and 50 µg/mL Streptomycin. These cell lines were cultured at 28°C without CO_2. BHK-15 and BHK-21 cells were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (Gibco 41965039), supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 50 U/mL penicillin, and 50 µg/mL streptomycin. These mammalian cells were cultured at 37°C, with 5% CO_2.

Viruses

The CHIKV expression plasmid encoding the Leiden synthetic (LS3, GenBank: JX911334.1) wildtype strain was kindly provided by Dr. M.J. van Hemert (Leiden University Medical Center) and viral RNA was obtained by *in vitro* transcription on linearized plasmids using T7 mMessage mMachine (Invitrogen AM1344) [36]. RNA was then transfected into BHK-21 to grow the infectious virus. SINV AR339 strain (pTE3' 2J) was obtained by transfecting *in vitro* transcribed RNA from pTE3' 2J in BHK-21 cells [63]. ASALV (GenBank: MK959114), kindly provided by Sandra Junglen (Charité, Berlin), was originally isolated from the homogenate of mosquito pool MP416 and grown in C6/36 cells [64]. ONNV plasmid was kindly provided by Prof. Dr. Andres Merits (University of Tartu), *in vitro* transcribed and grown in C6/36 cells [65]. DENV serotype 2 (DENV2, strain 16681) was provided by Beate Kümmerer (University of Bonn) and stocks were prepared on C6/36 cells. For the quantification of viral stocks, CHIKV, SINV, and ONNV were titrated by end-point dilution on BHK-21 cells, DENV2 was titrated on BHK-15 cells, and ASALV was titrated on C6/36 cells. A day before the titration, $1x10^4$ mammalian or $5x10^4$ C6/36 cells were seeded per well in a 96-well flat bottom plate. A 10-fold serial dilution of virus samples was added to the cells in quadruplicate for the titration. After an incubation time of 5 days, cells were

inspected for cytopathic effect. The virus titer was calculated according to the Reed and Muench
method [66].

Mosquito experiment

Ae. aegypti mosquitoes (Black Eye Liverpool strain) were obtained from BEI Resources and were reared
at 28 °C, with 70% humidity and automated room lighting set at a 12:12 hours light/dark cycle. Larvae
were fed with Tetramin Baby fish food (Tetra). Adult mosquitoes were fed with a 10% sucrose solution.
Three-to-five-day-old female mosquitoes were used for experiments unless stated otherwise.

For blood feeding experiments, mosquitoes were starved for 24 h prior to the experiment. CHIKV virus
stock (5×10^8 TCID$_{50}$/mL) and full human blood (Sanquin) was 1:2 mixed to make the infectious blood
meal with a final virus titer of 1.7×10^8 TCID$_{50}$/ml. DMEM medium was mixed in the same ratio with
human blood to prepare the mock inoculum. Blood feeding was performed with the Hemotek system
for half an hour. Afterwards, mosquitoes were anesthetized on a CO_2 pad. Only blood fed mosquitoes
were selected and kept in culture until the indicated time points. Mosquitoes were tissue dissected as
previously described [67]. Whole mosquitoes, dissected body parts or tissues were homogenized in
either 200 μl DMEM medium for end-point titration on BHK-21 cells or in 1 mL RNA-Solv reagent
(Omega Bio-Tek) for RNA isolation, using a Precellys 24 homogenizer program 5 (Bertin technologies).

RNAi in mosquito cells

PCR products flanked by T7 promoter sequences at both ends were *in vitro* transcribed by T7
polymerase to produce dsRNA. These PCR products were *in vitro* transcribed using a homemade T7
RNA polymerase. For the formation of double-stranded RNA, the reactions were heated to 90 °C for
10 minutes and then allowed to gradually cool to room temperature and RNA was purified using the
GenElute Mammalian Total RNA kit (Sigma RTN350) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Two
sets of dsRNA targeting the Hsp20 domain were used to knock down *sHsp* expression (Figure 2B) and
two sets of dsRNA targeting the Hsp70 domain were used to knock down *Hsp70* (Figure 2C). For
detailed oligonucleotide information, see Table S2.

Aag2 cells were seeded at a density of 1.5×10^5 cells/well in a 24-well plate, 24 h before the dsRNA
transfection. For each target gene, a transfection mix containing 300 μl non-supplemented L-15
medium, 500 ng dsRNA, and 1.3 μl X-treme GENE HP DNA transfection reagent (Roche 6366546001)

was prepared according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Per well, 100 µl of the transfection

mix was added in a dropwise manner. Cell culture medium was refreshed at 4 h post-transfection.

Three days post-transfection, cells were either harvested for evaluation of target gene knockdown or

infected with CHIKV at a MOI of 5.

RNA isolation and RT-qPCR

Aag2 cells were homogenized in RNA-Solv reagent (Omega Bio-Tek) and RNA extraction was

performed according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 200 µl of chloroform was added to 1

mL RNA-Solv reagent, and thoroughly mixed. After centrifugation, the aqueous phase was collected,

and RNA was precipitated using isopropanol. This mix was incubated for 1 hour at 4 °C followed by

centrifugation to pellet the RNA. Pellets were washed twice in 80% ethanol, and dissolved in nuclease

free water. RNA integrity was evaluated on ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels, and RNA

concentration was determined using the Nanodrop ND-1000.

For RT-qPCR analyses, DNaseI (Ambion)-treated RNA was reverse transcribed with random hexamers

using the TaqMan Reverse Transcription Reagents (Invitrogen N8080234) and PCR amplified using the

GoTaq qPCR system (Promega A6002) on a LightCycler 480 (Roche). In RNAi experiments, expression

levels of target genes were normalized to the expression of the housekeeping gene *lysosomal aspartic*

protease (*LAP*, *AAEL006169*), and fold changes were calculated using the 2-ΔΔCT method [68]. All

primers are listed in Table S2.

RNA-seq library preparation and analysis

For RNA sequencing in Aag2 cells, control dsRNA (dsLuc) treated cells were infected with CHIKV at a

MOI of 5. The double stranded RNA treatment was included in the procedure to allow a better

comparison of the 4 hpi and 8 hpi samples to the 48 hpi datasets that was generated in parallel for a

previously published study (PRJNA885496) [37].

Three-to-five-day-old female mosquitoes were anesthetized on a CO_2 pad, washed once in 70%

ethanol and three times with 1× PBS for outer de-contamination. Afterwards, crop, fat body, leg,

Malpighian tubules, midgut, ovary, salivary glands, and wings were dissected. Tissues from about 20

mosquitoes were pooled to achieve enough RNA (1 µg) for RNA-seq library preparation. Three batches

of mosquitoes were dissected and the corresponding RNA samples serve as biological triplicates for

RNA-seq. TruSeq Stranded mRNA kit (Illumina 20020594) was used for library preparation from total

RNA according to the manufacturer's protocol. The prepared libraries were quantified and controlled

for sample quality using High Sensitivity DNA Chip on a DNA1000 Bioanalyzer (Agilent 5067-4626), and

the libraries were analyzed on an Illumina HiSeq 4000 sequencer (GenomEast Platform). RNA-seq is

deposited in GEO database (GSE225070).

After initial quality control by FastQC [69], raw sequence reads were aligned to the reference genome,

Ae. aegypti LVP (Vectorbase, release 56), using STAR [70] with default settings. Quantification of gene

expression (FPKM) was performed with Cuffdiff [71]. R package DESeq2 was used for differential gene

expression analysis (with adjusted p value < 0.05) [72]. Genes were considered expressed if the mean

of the DESeq2-normalized counts (basement) was higher than 20. The R package pheatmap was used

to generate the heatmap for DEgenes upon CHIKV infection, which was based on z-scores of

normalized gene expressions ($\log_{10}$ FPKM) [73]. DEgenes are listed in Table S1.

Bioinformatic analyses

STRING was used for KEGG pathway and InterPro protein domain enrichment analysis [74]. Detailed

protein domain analysis was performed using InterPro [75].

For 3D chromatin conformation analysis, TADs were defined by analyzing Hi-C data (GSE95797) [42]

with HiCExplorer [76]. A cut off of p < 0.05 was used, after correcting for multiple tests.

pyGenomeTracks from the deepTools package [77] was used to visualize gene expression pattern,

TADs, and previously published chromatin profiling data from Aag2 cells, including ATAC-seq, histone

mark ChIP-seq and RNA pol II ChIP-seq (GSE210270) [45]. All genome browser tracks were normalized

to FPKM (y-axis). Open chromatin regions were defined as ATAC-seq peaks called by MACS2 with

standard settings and a q value of 0.05 [78]. Homer was used for DNA motif scan on ATAC-seq peaks

[79].

Compound experiment

KRIBB11 (2538), Hsf1a (1890), and DTHIB (3412) were purchased from Axon Medchem. All compounds

were dissolved in DMSO to final concentrations of 10 mM (KRIBB11) or 100 mM (Hsf1a and DTHIB)

and stored at 4°C for use within one month. Mosquito cells were seeded at a density of 1.5×10^5

cells/well in a 24-well plate. When cells reach 50% confluency, cells were treated with the indicated

concentrations of compound or an equivalent volume of DMSO and immediately afterwards

inoculated with virus at the indicated MOI. Cell lysates were collected at indicated time points post-

infection for RT-qPCR. For the time-of-addition assay, the same procedures were followed, except that

the medium was replaced at 1 hpi. For mosquito experiments, compound was directly added to

infectious blood meal and mixed well before blood feeding, with DMSO serving as a control.

Quantification and statistical analysis

RT-qPCR experiments in Figures 1E, 2, and S3 were performed in biological triplicate, quintuplicate,

sextuplicate, or octuplicate, with individual data shown as dot and the bars indicating mean ± SD.

Statistical differences were examined by unpaired t-test. For RT-qPCR in Figure 4B, one-way ANOVA

was performed. For virus titer comparison in Figure 4D, nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was

performed. For the infection rate comparison in Figure 4D, Chi-squared test was performed. All

statistical significance in this study were produced by GraphPad Prism 9.

Resource availability

Lead contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled

by the lead contact, Ronald P. van Rij (Ronald.vanRij@radboudumc.nl).

Materials availability

Sequences of DNA oligo are available in Table S2. This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data availability

Newly generated sequencing data have been deposited at GEO (GSE225070) and will be publicly

available at the date of publication. This paper analyzes existing, publicly available data. The accession

numbers for the datasets are listed in the Key Resources Table. This paper does not report original

code. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available

from the lead contact upon request.

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Author Contributions

J.Q., P.M., and R.P.v.R designed the experiments and analyzed the data. J.Q. performed computational analyses. J.Q., M.S., L.C., S.R.M., and G.O., performed the experiments. J.Q. and R.P.v.R. wrote the paper. All authors read and contributed to the manuscript.

Competing Interest Statement

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figures

Figure 1. Hsf1 activates sHsps during the early stage of CHIKV infection.

(A) Hierarchical clustering of differentially expressed (DE) genes at 4, 8, and 48 hpi of CHIKV infection (MOI = 5), as quantified from RNA-seq data. DEgenes ($p < 0.05$) at each time point are color labeled on the left; KEGG pathway and InterPro enrichment is shown on the right. Z scores were calculated based on log-transformed Fragments per Kilobase per Million mapped reads (FPKM).

(B) Gene structure and protein domain analysis of heat shock proteins upregulated at 8 hpi of CHIKV infection. A neighbor-joining tree was constructed based on amino acid sequences (left). The $\log_2$ fold change in gene expression was quantified by RNA-seq (middle). The gene structure and InterPro protein domains are shown along the gene body (right).

(C) Hi-C interaction track with topologically associated domains (TADs) shown as horizontal blue bars ($p < 0.05$).

(D) Genome browser tracks showing RNA-seq data of mock and CHIKV infected Aag2 cells and
chromatin profiling data from uninfected Aag2 cells (ATAC-seq, histone marks and RNA pol II ChIP-seq)
within the indicated TAD. Eight upregulated *sHsp* genes at 8 hpi are highlighted in orange, other genes
in gray. Predicted Hsf1 motifs are shown as green arrowheads at the bottom.
(E) Expression of the indicated genes in CHIKV (MOI = 5) (+) or mock (-) infected Aag2 cells upon RNAi-
mediated silencing of *Hsf1* at 8 hpi. Luciferase dsRNA served as a non-targeting control (ctr). RT-qPCR
was performed in biological quintuplicates and shown as dots, with horizontal lines and the bars
indicating mean ± SD. Symbols denote statistical significance in unpaired t-tests (ns, not significant, * p
< 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001).

Figure 2. Pan-antiviral activity of the Hsf1-sHsp axis

(A-C) RNAi silencing of *Hsf1* (A), *sHsps* (B), *Hsp70* (*AAEL017975*) (C), and quantification of CHIKV RNA copies. RT-qPCR was used to assess target gene knockdown in uninfected Aag2 cells (left) and to quantify CHIKV mRNA copies at 8 hpi (MOI = 5) after target gene knockdown (right) in biological triplicate or quadruplicate, with luciferase dsRNA (dsLuc) serving as a non-targeting control. Original data are shown as dots, with bars indicating mean ± SD. Symbols denote statistical significance in unpaired t-tests (ns, not significant, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$).

(D) Treatment with either Hsf1 inhibitor KRIBB11 (10 μM) or Hsf1 activator hsfa1 (100 μM). RT-qPCR was performed to analyze the expression of *Hsf1* (left), *sHsps* (middle), and changes in CHIKV RNA copies (right) at 12 and 24 hpi of CHIKV (MOI = 5), with DMSO serving as a control.

(E-G) Viral RNA levels in Aag2 cells treated with KRIBB11 (10 μM) or hsfa1 (100 μM) at 12 hpi of Sindbis virus (SINV, MOI = 5) (E), at 12 hpi of Agua Salud alphavirus (ASALV, MOI = 5) (F), and at 72 hpi of dengue virus (DENV, MOI = 0.01) (G).

(H-J) Viral RNA levels upon treatment with KRIBB11 (5 μM) and hsfa1 (100 μM) at 12 hpi of CHIKV (MOI = 5) in U4.4 cells (H), at 12 hpi of CHIKV (MOI = 5) in C6/36 cells (I), at 48 hpi of o'nyong'nyong virus

419 (ONNV, MOI = 0.5) in Mos55 cells (J). RT-qPCR was performed in biological quadruplicate or
420 sextuplicate, shown as dots, with the bars indicating mean ± SD. Symbols denote statistical significance
421 in unpaired t-tests (ns, not significant, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$).

Figure 3. hsfa1 inhibits the early stage of CHIKV replication.

(A) Schematic illustration of the time-of-addition assay, with hsfa1 added at different time points during CHIKV infection (MOI = 5). Cell culture medium was refreshed to wash away unbound virus particles at 1 hpi. Cells treated with either hsfa1 (orange) or DMSO (gray) were harvested at each indicated time point.

(B) The effect of hsfa1 (100 μM) on virus replication was determined with RT-qPCR on both positive sense RNA (+, left) and negative sense RNA (-, right). Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent experiments, with DMSO serving as control.

Figure 4. Antiviral activity of the Hsf1-sHsp axis *in vivo*.

(A) Genome browser tracks of RNA-seq showing the expression of *sHsp* genes in the indicated tissues.

(B) Relative *Hsf1* expression and CHIKV RNA copies by RT-qPCR in Aag2 cells upon DTHIB treatment at 12 hpi of CHIKV (MOI = 5) in biological triplicates, shown as dots. A series of DTHIB concentrations were tested and is shown in different colors. Symbols denote statistical significance in one-way ANOVA (** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$).

(C) Relative *sHsp* expression to the house-keeping gene *LAP* by RT-qPCR in Aag2 cells upon DTHIB treatment at 12 hpi of CHIKV (MOI = 5) in biological triplicates, shown as dots. A series of DTHIB concentrations were tested and is shown in different colors. Trend lines of the mean of three independent experiments were plotted.

(D) Mosquito CHIKV infection status at 3 dpf with DTHIB treatment. 3–5-day-old *Ae. aegypti* female mosquitoes were fed with blood containing CHIKV and DTHIB (0.4 mM, orange) or DMSO as a control (white). For virus titer comparison, Mann-Whitney test was performed (ns, not significant). The infection rate of whole mosquitoes from each group was plotted as pie charts and compared using Chi-squared test, with the p value labeled.

(E) A working model for the antiviral activity of the Hsf1-sHsp cascade in mosquitoes.

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Figure S1. The time-of-addition assay of KRIBB11, related to Figure 3

(A) Schematic illustration of the time-of-addition assay, with KRIBB11 added at different time points during CHIKV infection (MOI=5). Cell culture medium was refreshed to wash away unbound virus particles at 1 hpi. Cells treated with either KRIBB11 (dark gray) or DMSO (gray) were harvested at each indicated time point.

(B) The effect of KRIBB11 (10 µM) on virus replication was determined with RT-qPCR on both positive sense RNA (+, left) and negative sense RNA (-, right). Data are presented as means ± SD of three independent experiments, with DMSO serving as control.

Figure S2. Inspection of *sHsp* gene expression in different tissues, related to Figure 4

(A) In vivo CHIKV replication kinetics. 3–5-day-old female *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes were fed with CHIKV infectious blood. At the indicated time points, head, thorax, abdomen, and legs from individual mosquitoes were dissected and used for titration. Number of mosquitoes per time point are indicated on top.

(B-C) CHIKV levels in midguts, Malpighian tubules, ovaries and salivary glands at 3 d and 5 d after infectious blood meal. RT-qPCR was performed to quantify CHIKV RNA copies (B) and expression of sHsp genes (C). Dissected organs from 15 mosquitoes were pooled as one sample and shown as one dot. Data are presented as mean values ± SD of three biological replicates. Mock infections are shown as white symbols and bars, CHIKV infections as orange symbols and grey bars.

Figure S3. *sHsp* gene expression in different tissues after DTHIB treatment, related to Figure 4

3–5-day-old female *Ae. aegypti* mosquitoes were fed with blood containing either DMSO (control, white) or DTHIB (treatment, orange). At 3 dpi, midgut and carcass from 40 mosquitoes (5 mosquitoes per group, plotted as one data point) were dissected and used for qPCR analysis of *sHsp* gene expression. Bars represent means ± SD; * p < 0.05, unpaired t-test.

 Table S1. Differentially expressed genes (DEgenes) upon CHIKV infection at different time points.

time point	gene regulation upon CHIKV infection	DEgenes	log2FoldChange	padj
4 hpi CHIKV	downregulated genes	AAEL000080	1.82	1.10E-02
8 hpi CHIKV	upregulated genes	AAEL022059	-5.40	7.94E-06
		AAEL007830	-1.02	5.37E-03
		AAEL027610	-5.73	3.01E-25
		AAEL022253	-5.62	2.94E-23
		AAEL017975	-4.94	3.29E-23
		AAEL017976	-5.06	3.45E-22
		AAEL020330	-6.31	1.16E-10
		AAEL006883	-1.07	3.80E-02
		AAEL013351	-3.53	3.29E-15
		AAEL013345	-2.60	7.25E-12
		AAEL013346	-1.53	8.79E-04
		AAEL013339	-2.34	1.09E-10
		AAEL013349	-2.82	7.54E-13
		AAEL013350	-2.74	5.09E-13
		AAEL013344	-2.27	1.55E-10
		AAEL013348	-2.13	1.55E-10
		AAEL001800	-1.30	3.07E-06
		AAEL000566	-2.08	1.25E-03
		AAEL015631	-1.69	6.73E-09
	downregulated genes	AAEL000080	1.42	2.21E-06
		AAEL000006	1.78	1.00E-02
48 hpi CHIKV	upregulated genes	AAEL005641	-2.38	2.94E-02
		AAEL006685	-1.70	1.34E-04
		AAEL010557	-1.50	1.20E-02
		AAEL004979	-1.35	3.16E-02
		AAEL011957	-1.25	2.94E-02
		AAEL010924	-1.23	6.44E-03
		AAEL010253	-1.10	7.40E-03
	downregulated genes	AAEL003950	-1.05	3.50E-02
		AAEL007298	1.01	3.90E-02
		AAEL007920	1.01	7.31E-03
		AAEL023822	1.02	1.29E-02
		AAEL005739	1.02	3.10E-02
		AAEL003524	1.04	1.95E-03
		AAEL007129	1.07	3.02E-02
		AAEL010411	1.08	3.10E-02
		AAEL002102	1.10	3.81E-02
		AAEL002531	1.11	4.01E-04
		AAEL002861	1.15	1.98E-02
		AAEL007109	1.15	3.81E-04
		AAEL024100	1.15	4.21E-02
		AAEL010529	1.16	7.40E-03
		AAEL013065	1.17	1.44E-02
		AAEL007476	1.18	7.53E-04
		AAEL000663	1.21	1.27E-04
		AAEL011703	1.21	1.63E-03
		AAEL018301	1.21	7.38E-04
		AAEL005766	1.22	1.00E-03
		AAEL026751	1.23	2.28E-04

AAEL019957	1.24	1.29E-02
AAEL001315	1.25	1.29E-02
AAEL012125	1.26	5.37E-03
AAEL005213	1.27	2.13E-03
AAEL006904	1.28	4.21E-02
AAEL006815	1.28	7.17E-03
AAEL000248	1.31	3.89E-03
AAEL011371	1.31	5.12E-03
AAEL008664	1.31	1.34E-04
AAEL003965	1.33	3.89E-03
AAEL009339	1.33	2.54E-02
AAEL009387	1.33	1.27E-04
AAEL007342	1.34	7.85E-03
AAEL017458	1.38	7.31E-03
AAEL007830	1.38	7.94E-04
AAEL006449	1.39	1.63E-03
AAEL019499	1.48	7.58E-04
AAEL009126	1.49	8.93E-03
AAEL024007	1.50	8.66E-03
AAEL006180	1.55	3.16E-02
AAEL006895	1.61	2.23E-04
AAEL000834	1.65	1.60E-07
AAEL012014	1.74	8.83E-05
AAEL005850	1.85	1.26E-02
AAEL013350	1.95	1.27E-04
AAEL002796	1.99	1.74E-03
AAEL020524	2.05	7.95E-04
AAEL001548	2.09	6.20E-04
AAEL021456	2.22	1.34E-04
AAEL013349	2.31	8.83E-05
AAEL012522	3.11	1.01E-12

Table S2. oligonucleotide information.

species	Oligo Name	sequence
Ae. aegypti	AAEL019713 (Hsf1)_T7-1F	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATCAATCAGATGGGTTCCACA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL019713 (Hsf1)_T7-1R	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATCCACAAGGCTTCATTTTCC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013339 (sHsps)_T7-1F	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATTGGACGACGAACTTCAGGA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013339 (sHsps)_T7-1R	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATGGAATGGGTCGCTCTTTCT
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013344 (sHsps)_T7-1F	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATGGGATGACTGCTGGGATAC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013344 (sHsps)_T7-1R	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATGGTTGCAATCATGTCCAGC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL017975 (Hsp70)_T7-1F	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGATGTTCAACGATGCTGGCAAA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL017975 (Hsp70)_T7-1R	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGAATCCGAGCACAGTTCCTCAA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL017975 (Hsp70)_T7-2F	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGAAATGGACAAGCGCTCAATCC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL017975 (Hsp70)_T7-2R	TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGAGAGGTACTTTTCTGCGTCGGAC
Ae. aegypti	LAP_AAEL006169_qPCR_F	GTGCTCATTCACCAACATCG
Ae. aegypti	LAP_AAEL006169_qPCR_R	AACTTGGCCGCAACAAATAC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL019713_qPCR_F	AGCTCTGGAGACTGGTGGAA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL019713_qPCR_R	TGATGAAGCTTCTCCCATCC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013339_qPCR_F	GCTCTTGTGCCTGTTTTGCT
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013339_qPCR_R	CGGGGTAGGTCATCATCCAA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013345_qPCR_F	GCTCGACTTCTGAACAAACGA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013345_qPCR_R	TATCTTCCGGGTAGAGGCCA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013350_qPCR_F	GTGATTTGTGGGATGGCTGC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013350_qPCR_R	GTTGTCTGTCGAGGTGTTGG
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013344_qPCR_F	GAAGGACCCAAAGCGATTCC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013344_qPCR_R	AATCCTGCAGTTGTTTCGCT
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013346_qPCR_F	ATCGGATGGCATTTTGACGG
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013346_qPCR_R	GGAATCGCCTTTGGTCCTTC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013348_qPCR_F	ACGGTCACTGCTCTGAAGAA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013348_qPCR_R	CCATCTTTTCACCGCCTTCC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013349_qPCR_F	GCAACCGGTGAAAAGACTGA
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013349_qPCR_R	TGCATTACCGTTCACTTGTCC
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013351_qPCR_F	ACAAAAGGAAAGGATCGCGG
Ae. aegypti	AAEL013351_qPCR_R	GGCTTATCCGCTTCAGGTTT
Ae. aegypti	AAEL017975_qPCR_F	CCAGTTGAAGCAATCCCTCG
Ae. aegypti	AAEL017975_qPCR_R	GCATTTGTCCTTCACGGTGT
Ae. albopictus	RpL5_AALF020547_qPCR_F	TCGCTTACGCCCGCATTGAGGGTGAT
Ae. albopictus	RpL5_AALF020547_qPCR_R	TCGCCGGTCACATCGGTACAGCCA
An. gambiae	RpL5_AGAP009031_qPCR_F	TCGGCCTGCACGTCGCCAACTACA
An. gambiae	RpL5_AGAP009031_qPCR_R	GGGATCCTGATGGAGGCGTGGGCG
virus	CHIKV_positive_F	TCTCCGTACGTGAAGTGCTG
virus	CHIKV_positive_R	ACATGTGCTTCGCTCAACTG
virus	CHIKV_Tag_ns3_RT	CCTCCGCGGCCGTCATGGTGGCGAGCGCGTAAGTCCAAGGGAAT
virus	CHIKV_negative_F	CCTCCGCGGCCGTCATGGTGGCGA
virus	CHIKV_negative_R	AGCATCCAGGTCTGACGGG
virus	SINV_F	AACTCTGCCACAGATCAGCC
virus	SINV_R	GGGGCAGAAGGTTGCAGTAT
virus	ASALV_F	CTCGAAGAGAGGCTCACCAC
virus	ASALV_R	CGCAGAAGTAAGGCGGTTTG
virus	DENV_F	TATGACAGGAGACATCAAAGGA
virus	DENV_R	CCGCTGACATGAGTTTTGAGTC
virus	ONNV_F	CGCAGCTTACGGGTTTCATA
virus	ONNV_R	GCAACGCCTTCAGAAACGC