Large Extracellular Vesicles Induce Stronger Prion Infection in Cell Culture than Small Extracellular

Vesicles.

Running Title: Extracellular Vesicles Transmit Prions.

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Abstract:

Prions are responsible for a number of lethal neurodegenerative and transmissible diseases in humans

and animals. Extracellular vesicles, especially small exosomes, have been extensively studied in

connection with various diseases. In contrast, larger microvesicles are often overlooked. In this work, we

compared the ability of large extracellular vesicles (lEVs) and small extracellular vesicles (sEVs) to spread

prions in cell culture. We utilized two cell culture models of prion infection and isolated lEVs by 20,000 ×

g force and sEVs by 110,000 × g force. The lEV fraction was enriched in β-1 integrin with a vesicle size

starting at 150 nm. The fraction of sEVs was depleted of β-1 integrin with a mean size of 79 nm. Both

fractions were enriched in prion protein, but the lEVs contained a higher prion-converting activity. In

addition, lEV infection led to stronger prion signals in both cell cultures, as detected by cell and western

blotting. Our data suggest the importance of lEVs in the trafficking and spread of prions over extensively

studied small EVs.

Keywords: Cell Culture, Extracellular Vesicles, Infection, Prion

Introduction:

Prion diseases, such as CJD in humans or scrapie and bovine spongiform encephalopathy in animals, are

connected with the accumulation of pathologically misfolded prion protein (PrP^{TSE}) in the brains of

affected individuals (1). Normal cellular prion protein (PrP^C) has various posttranslational modifications,

including two potential N-glycosylation sites, which can be recognized by western blotting as three

distinct bands (2, 3). PrP^C is localized on membranes by a C-terminal GPI anchor (4). Its structure contains

three alpha helixes and a short beta-sheet (5, 6). The misfolding of PrP^C into PrP^{TSE} can occur sporadically

with or without genetic predisposition (1), induced to PrP^C by contact with PrP^{TSE} (1). The beta-sheet

structure of PrP^{TSE} is resistant (PrPres) to digestion with proteinase K (PK) (7), which could be used to

track infection in organs or cell cultures. Prions are most likely transmitted horizontally between

individuals by the oral pathway (8). However, how exactly prions spread from the gut to the brain

remains unknown. One possible theory described by McBride et al. (9) is that prions could transmit via

splanchnic and vagus nerves. Other possible routes are through lymphoid tissue (10) and follicular

dendritic cells (11). Intercellular transmission occurs in three possible ways: 1) cell-to-cell contact (12), 2)

tunneling nanotubes (13), and 3) EVs (14). Other mechanisms have been proposed, such as trogocytosis

or GPI-painting (15, 16).

Extracellular vesicles (EVs) are small cell-derived lipid vesicles with significant physiological and

pathological functions (17). EVs can be divided into three primary groups depending on their size and

biogenesis. Exosomes are generated by endosomal sorting complex required for transport (ESCRT)-

dependent (18, 19) and ESCRT-independent pathways (20). The ESCRT-dependent pathway involves the

ESCRT mechanism, formed by four distinct heterotrimers (ESCRT-0, ESCRT-I, ESCRT-II, and ESCRT-III) of

inward budding in early endosomes generating intraluminal vesicles (ILVs) and maturing early

endosomes in multivesicular bodies (MVBs) (18, 19). MVBs can be recycled back to the cell membrane,

releasing ILVs as exosomes with sizes of 30–100 nm (18, 21). Another pathway leads MVBs to fuse with

lysosomes, degrading ILVs (22, 23). Additionally, MVBs can fuse with autophagosomes, creating

amphisomes from which ILVs are released (24, 25). As a result, exosomes contain ESCRT-associated

proteins such as TSG-101, tetraspanins (CD9, CD63, CD81), or Alix (through the Syntenin-Alix pathway

(26, 27)). An ESCRT-independent pathway utilizes neutral sphingomyelinase (NSMase), which hydrolyzes

sphingomyelin to ceramide and induces the aggregation of microdomains to form ILVs (20).

Microvesicles (MVs) are vesicles 100–1000 nm in size (18) generated by direct budding from the cell

membrane. The budding of MVs is regulated by Cdc42 (a Rho family protein) and its downstream

effector Ras GTPase activating-like protein 1 (28). The actin cytoskeleton regulator RhoA is also involved

in the dynamics of MV budding (29, 30). ESCRT-I and III mechanisms play roles also in MV biogenesis.

Furthermore, ceramide has been reported to be involved in the biogenesis (31, 32). Cone shape-

structured tetraspanins are also involved in forming MVs (33). Based on their biogenesis, MVs contain

adhesion molecules such as β-1 integrin (34, 35) or Annexin A1 (36). The last primary type of

extracellular vesicles is apoptotic bodies, which have variable sizes between 50 and 5000 nm and are

generated during apoptosis (35). Apoptotic bodies are enriched with phosphatidylserine on their surface,

targeting it for fast phagocytosis by leukocytes (35), which should eliminate them from effective cellular

communication (37). Recently, more subpopulations of EVs have been distinguished using various

isolation techniques (27, 36, 38, 39).

In the cell, PrP[C] is translocated to the plasma membrane in both nonraft (40) and raft domains (41-43),

where it is recycled back by clathrin- or caveolin-1-coated pits to endosomes, from which it can mature

into MVBs (40, 44-46). Cytosolic PrP[C] is prevalent in MVBs (47, 48), with endolysosomal complexes

serving as one of the conversion sites for PrP[TSE] (49, 50). Vilette et al. (51) found that exosomal prion

infectivity is associated with both ESCRT-dependent and ESCRT-independent release pathways. The

intercellular infectivity of PrP^{TSE} is decreased by blocking NSMase-2, while the PrP^{TSE} content in the cell

increases (48, 52). PrP^{TSE} present in exosomes (14) is able to infect neuronal cells both in vitro and in vivo

(53). One of the possible physiological roles of PrP^{C} is the mediation of EV transport along neuronal cells,

for which PrP^{C} located in EVs hydrophilically interacts with neuronal PrP^{C} located on the plasma

membrane (54), which is proposed to be the primary conversion site for PrP^{TSE} (49, 55). From the plasma

membrane, PrP^{TSE} is also transported via the endolysosomal pathway (56) to lysosomes (57) and possibly

MVBs. As exosomes, PrP^{TSE} on membrane-derived microvesicles is also released from cells (58).

PrP^{TSE} is present in plasma EVs of symptomatic and asymptomatic mice infected with prions (59, 60).

Thus, via blood transfusion, EVs can contribute to recorded horizontal infection with variant CJD (61).

The involvement of EVs in the oral pathway of infection is also possible since EVs can survive the

stomach environment (62, 63).

In our work, we utilized two cell culture models of prion infection to compare PrP^{TSE} content and prion

infectivity in the sEV fraction predominant with exosomes and the lEV fraction predominant with

microsvesicles. Here, we report that both fractions of EVs are enriched in PrP, but lEVs are able to infect

native cells with more efficiency than sEVs.

Methods:

Materials:

Antibodies: From Abcam, we obtained rabbit anti-β-actin (EPR21241), fin. con. 0.25 µg/ml; and mouse

anti-Alix (3A9), fin. con. 2 µg/ml. From Azure Biosystems, we obtained goat anti-mouse AzureSpectra 700

or 800 conjugate, fin. con. 0.4 µg/ml; and goat anti-rabbit AzureSpectra IR700 or IR800 conjugate, fin.

con. 0.4 µg/ml. From Enzo Life Sciences, we obtained rabbit anti-HSP70/HSC70 (ADI-SPA-797), fin. con. 1

µg/ml; and rabbit anti-calnexin (ADI-SPA-865), fin. con. 1 µg/ml. From Santa Cruz Biotechnology, we

obtained rabbit anti-β1 integrin (M-106), fin. con. 2 µg/ml; goat anti-TSG-101 (M-19), fin. con. 2 µg/ml;

and rabbit anti-CD63 (H-193), fin. con. 2 µg/ml. Mouse anti-PrP (6D11), fin. con. 0.5 µg/ml was obtained

from Biolegend, mouse anti-CD9 (MM2/57), fin. con. 0.5 µg/ml was obtained from Merck; mouse anti-

PrP (AH6), fin. con. 0.5 µg/ml was obtained from The Roslin Institute, and donkey anti-mouse Alkaline

Phosphatase conjugate, fin. con. 0.3 µg/ml was obtained from Jackson ImmunoResearch.

Cells:

Prion infection models were used in the CAD5 cell line (originated from: RRID:CVCL_0199)(64), the N2a-

PK1 cell line (RRID:CVCL_WI10)(65), and cells chronically infected with the RML5 prion strain (CAD5-RML,

N2a-PK1-RML). The cells were maintained in Opti-MEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with

10% bovine growth serum (BGS, HyClone Bovine Growth Serum, GE Healthcare Life Sciences) and 100 U

of penicillin/streptomycin/ml (Lonza). CAD5 cells were passaged by washing with 0.5 mM EDTA in PBS

followed by resuspension in fresh medium. The N2a-PK1 cell line was passaged by washing with 0.5 mM

EDTA in PBS and trypsinized (Trypsin-EDTA 0.25%, Thermo Fisher Scientific).

All relevant data on EV production, isolation, and characterization were submitted to the EV-TRACK

knowledgebase (EV-TRACK ID: EV220318)(66). For EV production, the cells were passaged a day before

production (~ 30% confluence). Cells were washed with PBS (Lonza), and Exo-free Opti-MEM was added

for conditioning with EVs. The exo-free Opti-MEM medium was produced as published (67). Opti-MEM

supplemented with 20% BGS and penicillin/streptomycin was centrifuged at 110,000 × g (SW28 rotor,

Beckman) for 20 hours at 4 °C in an ultracentrifuge (LE-80K, Beckman). The centrifuged medium was

diluted with serum-free Opti-MEM supplemented with penicillin/streptomycin to a final concentration of

10% BGS and filtered using the Stericup-VP Sterile Vacuum Filtration System with a 0.1 µM PES filter

(Merck). The cells were incubated with the medium for 48 hours. When the conditioned medium was

harvested, the cells had 100% confluence with a minimum of dead/floating cells.

Isolation of EVs:

EVs were isolated from the conditioned medium by a series of differential centrifugations. All steps were performed on ice, and samples were centrifuged at 4 °C. The conditioned medium was centrifuged at 300 × g for 15 min. The supernatant was collected and centrifuged at 2,000 × g for 20 min to sediment large cell debris. The supernatant was centrifuged at 10,500 rpm (~20,000 × g) for 70 min (SW28 rotor, Beckman). Pelleted lEVs were resuspended in 13.5 ml of PBS (Lonza) and sedimented again at 10,500 rpm (~20,000 × g) for 70 min (SW40 rotor, Beckman). The supernatant containing sEVs was centrifuged at 25,000 rpm (~ 110,000 × g) for 70 min (SW28 rotor). The pellet was resuspended in ~ 12 ml of PBS and underlaid with 2 ml of 40% sucrose in 0.2 M Tris-HCl pH 7.4 and centrifuged under the same conditions. The sucrose cushion containing sEVs was collected with an 18 G needle, diluted with PBS to a final volume of 13.5 ml, and centrifuged again. Both lEVs and sEVs were resuspended in PBS and frozen on dry ice. Pure EVs were used for western blot characterization and infection using fractions standardized to the same amount of protein determined by the BCA assay (Pierce BCA assay kit, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The graphical scheme of isolation is shown in Fig. Extended View 1.

Infection of cells:

Native cells were passaged 24 h before infection. The cells were washed with 5 ml of PBS, and an Exo-free medium containing isolated EVs was added for ~ 72 h. Two schemes of cell infection were used. In the first scheme, lEVs and sEVs were standardized according to the original volume of the collected sample. We abbreviated this scheme as OVS (Original Volume Standardization). The pelleted lEVs after the first 20,000 × g spin and sEVs after the first 110,000 × g spin were resuspended in a volume of Exo-free medium that was identical to the starting volume of the collected conditioned medium (8 ml). Aliquots of 4, 2, and 1 ml were used to infect native cells in a 25 cm^2 flask or 100 μl in a 96-well plate. The second infection scheme was standardized to contain the same amount of total protein used to infect cells. We use TPS (Total Protein Standardization) as an abbreviation. Cells in a 25 cm^2 flask were infected

with 10, 5, or 2.5 µg of total protein in EV fractions. On a 96-well plate, the cells were infected with 0.2,

0.1, or 0.05 µg of EV fractions. The cells were passaged every 3-4 days to reach the 10th or 12th passage.

Two independent experiments, including EV production and isolation, were carried out. As a positive

control, the cell homogenates of RML-infected cells were used, and negative controls were homogenates

of the noninfected cells. The graphical scheme of infection is shown in Fig. Extended View 1.

Extended View Figure 1: Scheme of lEV and sEV isolation and infection of native cells by the OVS and TPS.

Harvesting of the cells after the infection for analysis:

CAD5 or CAD5-RML cells were resuspended in 0.5 mM EDTA in PBS by pipetting. N2a-PK1 or N2a-PK1-

RML cells were washed in 0.5 mM EDTA in PBS. The cells were centrifuged at 300 × g and 4 °C for 10 min,

the supernatant was discarded, and the pellets were frozen at -80 °C. The pellets were thawed on ice,

and freeze–thaw cycles were performed 3 times in total. The cells were homogenized using a 30 G

needle. To determine the protein concentration, part of the homogenate was lysed in lysis buffer (150

mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 0.5% (V/V) Triton X-100, 0.5% (w/V) sodium deoxycholate) along with

part of the collected EVs. The samples were incubated on ice for 30 min with occasional vortexing and

then centrifuged at 14,000 × g and 4 °C for 10 min. The supernatant was used to determine the protein

concentration by BCA assay according to the manufacturer's instructions (Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit,

Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Cell blot:

All steps were performed at room temperature unless stated otherwise. Infected cells were seeded in

duplicate on a plastic coverslip in a 24-well plate and grown to confluency, as we published previously

(68). The coverslips were blotted on a 0.45 µm nitrocellulose membrane (Bio-Rad) wetted in lysis buffer.

The membranes were dried and incubated in lysis buffer containing 7 µg/ml proteinase K (PK, Sigma–

Aldrich) at 37 °C for 90 min. The membranes were washed 2× in Milli-Q H_2O (MQH_2O). The PK was

stopped with 2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) in PBS for 10 min and washed 3× in MQH_2O.

The membranes were denatured with 3 M guanidium thiocyanate in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 for 10 min

and washed with MQH$_2$O 5×. After denaturation, membranes were blocked in 5% nonfat milk in 0.5%

Tween in Tris buffer pH 7.4 (TBS-T) for 30 min. The primary antibodies anti-PrP 6D11 and AH6 were

diluted in a blocking solution, and the membranes were incubated for 2 h at RT or overnight at 4 °C with

antibodies. Membranes were washed with TBS-T 3× 5 min and incubated in secondary antibody

conjugated to alkaline phosphatase diluted in blocking solution for 1 h. The membranes were washed

with TBS 5× 5 min and developed using BCIP/NTP (Merck). The reaction was stopped using MQH$_2$O.

Densitometry was evaluated in AzureSpot software (v.2.0, Azure Biosystems) on background-corrected

images. Data are presented as the mean with standard error of the mean (SEM).

SDS–PAGE and western blot:

The frozen cell pellets were thawed on ice, resuspended in lysis buffer, and incubated on ice for 30 min

with occasional vortexing. Lysed cells were centrifuged at 14,000 × g at 4 °C for 10 min. The collected

supernatant was used to measure protein concentration using the BCA assay (Pierce BCA Protein Assay

Kit, Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The EVs were thawed on ice,

and part was diluted in lysis buffer to measure protein concentration as in cell lysates. Nonlysed EVs

were diluted with MQH$_2$O to unify the protein concentration, and sample buffer was added (final

concentration: 0.5 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 4% SDS, 0.125% bromophenol blue, 12.5% glycerol). Cell lysates

were diluted with MQH$_2$O to standardize the protein concentration before adding the sample buffer. To

detect PrPres, lysates and EVs were incubated with PK (50 µg/ml) at 37 °C for 45 min prior to adding the

sample buffer. The samples were boiled at 95 °C for 10 min. Boiled samples were loaded on 10%

acrylamide/bisacrylamide gel (Bio-Rad) or TGX Stain-Free™ FastCast™ 12% acrylamide gel (Bio-Rad).

Proteins on gels were imaged in an Azure c600 imaging system according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Separated proteins on the gels were blotted on Amersham™ Hybond® low-fluorescence 0.2

µm PVDF membranes (Merck). The membranes were blocked using fluorescence blocking buffer (Azure

Biosystems) at RT for 30 min. Primary antibodies were diluted in blocking buffer and incubated at RT for

2 h or at 4 °C overnight on a rocker. The membranes were washed with IR washing buffer (Azure

Biosystems) 3× 5 min. Washed membranes were incubated with secondary antibody diluted in blocking

buffer at RT for 1 h. Secondary antibodies were washed 3× 5 min in IR washing buffer and 2× 5 min in

PBS. After drying, the membranes were imaged using the Azure c600 imaging system. Densitometry was

evaluated in AzureSpot 2.0 software using predefined 200-radius rolling ball background subtraction.

Data are presented as the mean with SEM.

Real-Time Quacking Induced Conversion (RT-QuIC):

The collected EV pellets were thawed on ice and homogenized with a 30 G needle, and the protein

content was measured by BCA assay. Homogenized cells and EVs were diluted to 3.2 µg/µl using PBS,

corresponding to 10% cell homogenate protein content. By decimal and quintuple dilutions, EVs and cell

homogenate were diluted to $10^{-6} - 10^{-9}$ and $10^{-5} - 3\times10^{-11}$, respectively, in PBS buffer containing 1× N-2

supplement (Gibco, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 0.1% SDS and then analyzed by second-generation RT-

QuIC assay. All samples were run in quadruplicate in a Nunc™ MicroWell™ 96-Well Optical-Bottom Plate

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Each well contained reaction mix (10 mM phosphate buffer, pH 7.4; 300 mM

NaCl; 10 µM thioflavin T (ThT); 1 mM EDTA; 0.002% SDS; and 0.1 mg/ml rSHa PrP (90–231)) and 2 µL of

sample in a volume of 100 µL. The reaction was carried out using the FLUOstar Omega plate reader

(BMG LABTECH GmbH), undergoing repeating shaking cycles of 60 s (700 rpm, double orbital) and 60 s of

rest for 60 h at 55 °C. Fluorescence was measured every 15 min. Each test was analyzed using Mars

software (BMG LABTECH GmbH) (69, 70).

Cell Scrapie Assay:

All steps were performed at room temperature unless stated otherwise, as previously published (71).

Infected CAD5 cells were seeded in ELISPOT plates (multiscreen 96-well filter plates with high protein-

binding Immobilon-P membrane, 0.45 µm, Millipore) activated with 70% ethanol. Ethanol was removed

by vacuum (Supelco), and the wells were washed 2× with PBS. Cells (1,000, 5,000, or 10,000 per well)

were transferred to the plates, immobilized on the membrane using a vacuum, and dried at 50 °C. The

dried plates were incubated with 60 µl of PK (2 µg/µl) in lysis buffer at 37 °C for 30 min. PMSF (2 mM)

was added in PBS to inhibit PK for 10 min. Cells were washed with PBS, and proteins were denatured

with 3 M guanidium thiocyanate in 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5 for 10 min and washed 4× with PBS. The

membranes were blocked using Superblock™ solution (Thermo Fisher Scientific) for 1 h. After blocking,

the membranes were incubated with 6D11 primary antibody diluted in Superblock™ solution at 4 °C

overnight. The primary antibody was washed away 4× with TBS-T, and the membranes were incubated

with a secondary antibody conjugated with alkaline phosphatase diluted in Superblock™ solution for 1 h.

The secondary antibody was washed away 5× with TBS-T and developed with an AP Conjugate Substrate

Kit (Bio-Rad). Spots were quantified using a Nikon ELISPOT system and NIS-Elements AR software (v.

4.20). GraphPad Prism 5 (v. 5.03, GraphPad Software) was used for statistical analysis. Infections with

lEVs were compared to corresponding sEV infections using a two-tailed unpaired t test (data passed the

D'Agostino and Pearson omnibus normality test and the Shapiro–Wilk normality test). Data are

presented as the mean with SEM.

Electron Microscopy:

For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), EM grids (FCF200-Cu, Electron Microscopy Sciences) were

prepared as published (67, 72). Isolated EVs were diluted 10× in PBS. Grids were incubated for 20 min on

a 15 µl drop of EV suspension and transferred to a 50 µl drop of 4% formaldehyde in PBS for another 20

min. The fixed samples were washed on a 100 µl drop of PBS and fixed again on a 50 µl drop of 1%

glutaraldehyde in PBS (electron microscopy grade, Sigma–Aldrich) for 5 min. The grids were washed 8×

on a 100 µl drop of MQH$_2$O. Washed grids were contrasted on 25 µl drops of uranyl oxalate pH 7 for 5

min. Contrasted grids were transferred on 25 µl drops on ice of a mix of 4% uranyl acetate and 2%

methylcellulose (1:9) for 10 min. The mix was slowly removed with filter paper, and the grid was air-

dried. Cryo-TEM samples were prepared by plunge freezing (72, 73). The EV sample (3 µl) was applied to

Lacey carbon grids (LC-200 Cu, Electron Microscopy Sciences) covered with a perforated carbon film and

discharged for 40 s with a 5 mA current. Most of the sample was removed by blotting (~ 1 s), and the

sample was immediately plunged into liquid ethane kept at -183 °C. The grids were transferred without

reheating to a Gatan 626 cryo-specimen holder and imaged in a Tecnai G2 Sphera 20 transmission

electron microscope equipped with a LaB6 gun and a Gatan UltraScan 1000 slow-scan CCD camera. The

images were recorded at an accelerating voltage of 120 kV. All pictures were CTF-corrected and

bandpass filtered to suppress ice thickness and noise below 1 nm detail size.

Results:

Characterization of lEV and sEV fractions

The isolated fractions of lEVs and sEVs from CAD5-RML and N2a-PK1-RML cells differed in protein

composition (Figs. 1A and B). Common markers for EVs, Alix, HSP70, TSG-101, CD63, and CD9, were

present in both fractions of EVs. In contrast, we did not detect calnexin, a marker of contamination by

the endoplasmic reticulum, in our EV fractions. In the CAD5-RML lEV fraction, very weak bands were

detected by calnexin antibody (Fig. 1C). To distinguish lEVs from sEVs, we used β-1 integrin as a marker

(Fig. 1C). Large EVs, which should consist mainly of MVs generated by budding from the plasma

membrane, should be enriched in this marker compared to sEVs. In CAD5-RML cell line, we isolated sEVs

depleted of β-1 integrin (Fig. 1C), but sEVs from N2a-PK1-RML cell line were not completely depleted of

β-1 integrin (Fig. 1D). The sEV fractions were enriched in the tetraspanin markers CD9 and CD63, TSG-

101, and Alix compared to the lEVs in both cell lines. The presence of EVs in isolated fractions was

verified by electron microscopy. As shown in Figs. 1E and F, CAD5 lEVs and sEVs differed in size. The size

difference was also visible in the N2a-PK1 cell line (Figs. 1G and H), although in sEVs, the vesicles were

larger compared to CAD5 cell sEVs. In addition, we used cryo-electron microscopy to visualize the

ultrastructure of CAD5 lEVs and sEVs where lipid bilayers were visible (Fig. 1I-L). We found that the mean

size (n = 200) of sEVs was 79 nm (SEM ±3 nm). The largest vesicles in the sEV fraction were

approximately 150 nm in diameter. The sizes of the visible vesicles in the lEV fraction ranged from ~100

nm – ~500 nm. Larger vesicles were present but deformed due to the thickness of the ice or holes in the

perforated carbon film (Fig. 1I).

Figure 1: Characterization of lEV and sEV fractions.
A, B. An example images of the TGX Stain-Free™ SDS–PAGE protein profile of CAD5-RML (A) or N2a-PK1 (B) cell lysate, lEVs, and
sEVs with the loading of 3 µg or 10 µg of proteins in line. Arrows point to examples of protein profile differences between cell
lysate, lEVs, and sEVs.
C, D. An example of images of the detection of markers in the EV fraction from the CAD5-RML (C) or N2a-PK1-RML (D) cell line.
β-1 integrin: marker of lEVs; calnexin: endoplasmic reticulum marker – contamination of EV fractions; Alix, HSP-70, TSG-101,
CD63 and CD9: common markers for sEVs and lEVs.
E-G. An example images of EVs present in the lEV (E, G) and sEV (F, H) fractions isolated from CAD5 (E, F) or N2a-PK1 (G, H) cells
contrasted with uranyl oxalate. Bars: 200 nm.
I-L. Cryo-electron microscopy images of vesicles in lEV (I, J) and sEV (K, L) fractions from CAD5 cells. Bars: 200 nm.
For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.

Large and small EVs are enriched in PrP^C and PrP^{res} content compared to intact cells.

We found that PrP in both EV fractions was greatly enriched compared to the whole-cell lysates of

corresponding cell lines (Figs. 2A-D). When PrPres was normalized to whole-cell lysate PrP PK- (PrP^C +

PrP^{Sc}), we found that in lEVs, there was approximately five times more PrP^{res} in CAD5-RML cells and

approximately 18 times more PrPres in N2a-PK1-RML cells. In sEVs, there were approximately 8 and 11

times more PrPres than in the cell lysates of CAD5-RML cells and N2a-PK1-RML cells, respectively. There

was approximately 5× less PrPres in whole-cell lysate compared to PrP PK- in CAD5-RML cells and

approximately 20× less in N2a-PK1 cells. While the amount of PrPres was slightly higher (1.5×) in lEVs

than in sEVs from N2a-PK1-RML cells, the amount of PrP^{res} in lEVs from CAD5-RML cells was slightly

lower than that in sEVs (Fig. 2E). Similar patterns were also recorded for the amounts of PrP PK- in the EV

fractions in the CAD5-RML and N2a-PK1-RML cell lines (Fig. 2F).

Figure 2: western blot analysis of PrP levels in EV fractions.
A-D. CAD5-RML (A, B) or N2a-PK1-RML (C, D) lEVs, sEVs, and whole-cell lysate were treated with proteinase K (PK+, A, C), and
PrPres was detected using a mix of prion antibodies 6D11 and AH6. Untreated (PK-) samples (B, D) demonstrated the presence
of total PrP (PrP^C + PrP^{Sc}). For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.

E, F. Comparison of the relative densities of PrPres bands in lEVs, sEVs, and whole-cell lysate normalized to PrP PK- signal in
whole-cell lysate from CAD5-RML (E) or N2a-PK1-RML (F) cells. Bars represent the mean with SEM of biological triplicates, each
with technical triplicates (3 different protein loadings on gel – 6, 3, or 1.5 µg per line).
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Large EVs have higher prion-converting activity than small EVs.

We used an endpoint dilution RT-QuIC assay to determine the prion-converting activity in the EV

fractions standardized to contain the same amount of total protein. The seeding dose 50 (SD_{50}) of CAD5-

RML lEVs was twenty times higher than that of sEVs (2×10^{-8} vs. 4×10^{-7}, Fig. 3E). Additionally, the

maximum relative fluorescence at a 10^{-5} dilution was higher and the lag phase shorter in lEVs (163,000

and 390 min, Fig. 3A) than in sEVs (151,000 and 480 min, Fig. 3B). In N2a-PK1-RML cells, the difference

was less convincing. In the first experiment, there was approximately 26× higher prion-converting

activity in lEVs (SD_{50}: 3×10^{-9} vs. 8×10^{-8}) and the maximum relative fluorescence and lag phase of the 10^{-5}

dilution were 184,000 and 570 min for lEVs and 119,000 and 855 min for sEVs, respectively (Fig. 3C and

D). In the second experiment, no difference was recorded (SD_{50}: 3×10^{-9} vs. 3×10^{-9}) and the respective

values were 152,000 and 735 in lEVs and 146,000 and 690 in sEVs of the 10^{-5} dilution. The numbers of

positive wells in quadruplicate for each sample and dilution are summarized in Appendix Table 1.

Figure 3: Comparison of EV fractions' prion converting activity using endpoint dilution RT-QuIC assay.
A-D. Quintuple dilution series of CAD5-RML lEVs (A), CAD5-RML sEVs (B), N2a-PK1-RML lEVs (C), and N2a-PK1-RML sEVs (D).
Each line in the graphs represents the mean value of the technical quadruplicate. Redline – threshold (mean plus 5× standard
deviation from negative control). NC (purple line) – negative control (uninfected CAD5 or N2a-PK1 whole cell lysate at 10^{-5}
dilution, corresponding to 0.001% cell homogenate).
E. Table with seeding dose 50 from two independent experiments. The value represents the highest dilution, where at least 2
out of 4 technical replicates gave positive results.
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A fraction of lEVs is more effective in the infection of cultured cells than a fraction of sEVs.

After fraction characterization, we infected native CAD5 or N2a-PK1 cells with EVs isolated from the

corresponding chronically infected cells. First, we infected native CAD5 cells with supernatants collected

during EV isolation (Fig. Extended View 2) to monitor the loss of infectivity produced by individual

centrifugation steps. Most of the infectivity was lost after pelleting floating cells (300 × g). The next

visible loss of infectivity occurred after pelleting of the lEVs. Some infectivity remained in the

conditioned medium even after pelleting sEVs (110,000 × g supernatant) as demonstrated by visible

infection of the cells after 10 passages (Fig. Extended View 2F). The results from supernatant infection

were in agreement with the infection with collected pellets during the isolation procedure (Fig. Extended

View 3). We compared cell blots of infected cells with lEVs and sEVs in passages 3, 5, 8, and 10 (Fig. 4A-

D). We found that lEVs infected native cells more effectively than sEVs in both cell lines. We used two

schemes of infection: an OVS (original volume standardization) reflects the total amount of prion

infectivity associated with the isolated EV fractions, and a TPS (total protein standardization) reflects the

concentration of prion infectivity present in the isolated EV fractions. The differences in cell blot by OVS

infections were uniform during the passages after infection of CAD5 cells. Infection by lEVs was 1.5× -

2.3× stronger (1.7×, 1.5×, 1.5× and 2.3× in passages 3, 5, 8, and 10, respectively, Figs. 4E - H). Similarly,

infection by lEVs was stronger in TPS infection. In earlier passages, the difference was smaller. In passage

3, lEV infection was 1.4× stronger, and in passage 5, it was 1.6× stronger. In later passages 8 and 10, the

infection was 4.1× stronger (Figs. 4E – H). In the N2a-PK1 cell model, stronger infection by lEVs was

confirmed. The OVS led to 1.4× - 1.7× stronger infection by lEVs (1.7×, 1.4×, 1.5× and 1.4× in passages 3,

5, 8, and 10). In the TPS scheme of infection, lEVs infected N2a-PK1 cells 1.2× more strongly in all

passages, except for passage 5, where the infection by lEVs was weaker than that by sEVs (Figs. 4E – H).

The absolute values of the measured densities are shown in Appendix Fig. S1.

Extended view Figure 2: Representative cell blots from infection of CAD5 cells with supernatants collected during isolation
steps of EVs.
A. Infection with whole conditioned medium.
B. Infection with supernatant after pelleting of dead cells (300 × g).
C. Infection with supernatant after pelleting cell debris and apoptotic bodies (1,500 × g).
D. Infection with supernatant after pelleting lEVs (20,000 × g).
E. Infection with supernatant after pelleting sEVs (110,000 × g).
F. Positive control made from CAD5-RML cell homogenate.
G. Negative control made from native CAD5 cell homogenate.
For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.
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Extended view Figure 3: Representative cell blots from the infection of CAD5 cells with pellets obtained during EV isolation
steps. The infection was performed according to the OVS scheme, and 4, 2, or 1 ml of suspension was used for infection. D, E,
and F are part of Fig. 4 and are shown here for comparison with other fractions.
A. Cells harvested after collection of conditioned medium, homogenized, and resuspended in fresh medium.
B. Pellet representing dead cells in conditioning medium (300 × g).
C. Pellet representing large debris and apoptotic bodies (1,500 × g).
D. Pelleted lEVs (20,000 × g).
E. Pelleted sEVs (110,000 × g).

F. Negative control. Harvested and homogenized native CAD5 cells.
For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.
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Figure 4: Example images of cell blots from passages after infection with lEVs and sEVs with densitometry analysis.
A-D. Example images of cell blots from infection of native CAD5 or N2a-PK1 cells infected with lEVs and sEVs in different
passages after infection. Cells were infected with 4 ml, 2 ml, and 1 ml of resuspended EVs in OVS infection or with 10 µg, 5 µg,
and 2.5 µg of EVs in TPS infection. NC – negative control, PC – positive control. Passages 3 (A), 5 (B), 8 (C), and 10 (D) after
infection. For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.
E-H. Densitometry analysis of cell blots from different passages. Infection with lEVs was compared to the corresponding
infection with sEVs. Bars represent the fold change in the density of lEVs compared to sEVs. Passages 3 (E), 5 (F), 8 (G), and 10
(H) after infection.

After cell blot analysis, we confirmed the results with western blotting from each passage and infection

(Fig. 5 and Appendix Figs. S2 – S4). From the same samples, western blot analysis showed that infection

of CAD5 cells by lEVs was even stronger compared to cell blot analysis. With the OVS scheme, the PrPres

signal from lEV-infected CAD5 cells was 1.5× - 3.6× stronger then from sEV-infected CAD5 cells (1.5×,

3.6×, 3.2×, and 1.9× in passages 3, 5, 8, and 10, Fig. 5E and Appendix Figs. S2-4). TPS infection by lEVs in

CAD5 cells led to a much higher PrPres signal in the CAD5 cell model than infection with sEVs. The PrPres

signal reached its maximum (where the dilutions had minimal differences) in passage 8, but infection by

sEVs just started to appear (Fig. 5C). Within these limitations, we measured a 24.6× stronger PrPres

signal in passage 8. Since lEV infection reached its maximum and infection by sEVs continued to increase,

the difference dropped to 7.0× and 10.6× in passages 10 and 12, respectively (Appendix Fig. S4E). In the

N2a-PK1 cell line, the trend of stronger infection by lEVs was similar. Unlike CAD5 cells, differences in TPS

infection were smaller than in OVS infection in N2a-PK1 cells. TPS infection led to 1.4× - 1.8× stronger

PrPres signals in lEV-infected cells than in sEV-infected cells (Fig. 5E and Appendix Figs. S2-4). In earlier

passages of the OVS scheme of infection, the PrPres signal was 2.0× and 1.9× stronger in infections by

lEVs in passages 3 and 5, respectively (Appendix Figs. S2 - S4). Later passages after infection by lEVs

revealed a 4.8× stronger PrPres signal in passage 8 and a 3.0× stronger signal in passage 10 (Fig. 5E and

Appendix Fig. S4). The absolute density values for each sample are summarized in Appendix Figures S5

and S6. As controls, we compared the total PrP signal of non-digested PrP PK- samples in the same

manner as PrPres (Fig. 5F). Despite the different strengths of infection by lEVs and sEVs, cells infected by

both types of EVs retained similar levels of PrP PK-. The lowest PrP PK- the ratio of lEVs/sEVs (0.96×) was

in passage 5 with OVS of CAD5 cells (Appendix Fig. 3F). The highest ratio of 1.84× was in the 10th passage

with OVS of N2a-PK1 cells (Appendix Fig. 4F). As a loading control for PrP PK-, β-actin was used (Fig. 5G).

Relative densities of β-actin bands were similar or higher in samples infected with sEVs than with lEVs,

confirming that the higher PrPres signal was not caused by elevated protein load.

Figure 5: western blot analysis of PrPres and PrPSc/PrPc signals in cells infected by lEV and sEV fractions at passage 8.
A-D. An example images of western blots from infection of CAD5 (A, C) or N2a-PK1 (B, D) cells with lEVs and sEVs at passage 8
after infection. Cells were infected with 4 ml, 2 ml, and 1 ml of resuspended EVs in OVS infection (A, B) or with 10 μg, 5 μg, and
2.5 μg of washed EVs in TPS infection (C, D). PK+ - proteinase K digested samples. β-Actin was used as a loading control for PrP
PK- samples, which were also compared. Both PrP PK- and PrP PK+ samples are shown for a loading of 40 μg per line. NC –
negative control (mock infected cells), PC – positive control. For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with
brightness and contrast.
E. Relative comparison of PrP signal in PrP PK+ samples by densitometry. Bars represent fold change in the density of lEVs
compared to the corresponding density in infection of sEVs. Bars show the mean with SEM value of relative differences between
lEV and sEV infections from a biological duplicate of EV isolation, a triplicate of infection, and a technical triplicate of sample
loading. * PrPres signal reached its maximum in lEV infection and in sEV, infection just started to appear. The quantification
precision is limited.
F. Relative comparison of PrP PK- densitometry.
G. Relative comparison of β-actin densitometry.
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As another validation method, we used the standard scrapie cell assay (SSCA) to quantify infection for

CAD5 cells precisely. The infections were carried out in hexaplicates for two independent EV isolations

(Figs. 6 A, B, E, F, I, and J). In SSCA, dilutions in the TPS scheme reached their maximum level of infection

in passage 8. We found a significant difference in passage 5. The mean spot counts (± SEM) in the 0.2 μg

infection were 250 ± 20 spots for lEVs and 188 ± 18 spots for sEVs (p = 0.0309). At 0.1 μg, there were 206

± 23 spots for lEVs and 113 ± 12 spots for sEVs (p = 0.0016) (Fig. 6G). The differences were insignificant in

passages 3 (Fig. 6C) and 8 (Fig. 6K). The mean spot counts (± SEM) for lEVs in passage 8 were 553 ± 18,

520 ± 16, and 353 ±34 for 0.2, 0.1, and 0.05 μg of total protein, respectively. In sEVs, infection yielded

452 ± 48 spots in 0.2 μg, 433 ± 37 in 0.1 μg, and 322 ± 52 in 0.05 μg infection. In the OVS infection, we

found significant differences in passage 3 (Fig. 6D) and passage 8 (Fig. 6L) but not in passage 5 (Fig. 6H).

The mean spot counts were 511 ± 56 for lEVs and 267 ± 69 for sEVs (p = 0.0054, Fig. 6L) for passage 8. In

passage 3, the mean spot counts were 163 ± 17 for lEVs and 76 ± 12 for sEVs (p = 0.0004, Fig. 6D).

Figure 6: Scrapie cell assay of CAD5 cells infected with EVs.

A, E, I. Example images of wells in the scrapie cell assay infected with the TPS scheme in passages 3 (A), 5 (E), and 8 (I). PC –
positive control (infection by CAD5-RML cell homogenate), NC – negative control (infection by CAD5 cell homogenate). A total of
1000 cells were transferred to each well.
B, F, J. Representative images of wells in the scrapie cell assay infected with the OVS scheme in passages 3 (B), 5 (F), and 8 (J). A
total of 10,000 cells were transferred to each well.
C, G, K. Spot count in each well of the scrapie cell assay (hexaplicates of infection from a duplicate of isolation) – TPS infection in
passage 3 (C), 5 (G), and 8 (K). Each circle represents the count in one well. The thick line represents the mean value with SEM,
statistical significance was determined using an unpaired t-test ***P < 0.001 **P < 0.01 *P < 0.05.
D, H, L. Spot count in each well of the scrapie cell assay in OVS infection at passage 3 (D), 5 (H), and 8 (L).
For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.

428 Discussion:

The presence of infectious prion protein in exosomes was demonstrated by Février et al. (14), which is

consistent with cellular prion conversion sites in the endolysosomal compartment, including MVBs (49,

50). However, one of the conversion sites of prion protein is the plasma membrane (55), and Mattei et

al. (58) found PrP^{TSE} in microvesicles. PrP^{TSE} can be transmitted via EVs in cell culture (52). According to

Godsave et al. (74), approximately 50% of PrP^{TSE} is on the cell surface, 30% in invaginations, and only

approximately 20% in cellular vesicles in the infected hippocampus. Although the predominant location

of PrP^{TSE} is on the cellular surface, no one has compared microvesicles and exosomes in the spread of

infection. To address this issue, we used a CAD5 cell model of prion infection infected with the RML prion

strain. As a second cell line, we chose N2a-PK1 cells. Although both cell lines were selected for high prion

production, CAD5 was produced by targeted oncogenesis of mouse catecholaminergic cells (75), and

N2a-PK1 was derived from mouse neuroblastoma cells (65). We tested the isolation protocol for

microvesicles and exosomes to collect enriched fractions of these vesicles. According to the International

Society of Extracellular Vesicles (ISEV) nomenclature and its position paper (76), we describe our

collected fractions as large EVs, pelleted at 20,000 × g and enriched in β-1 integrin, possibly

predominated by microvesicles. The sEVs were pelleted at 110,000 × g and enriched in CD9, CD63, TSG-

101, and Alix. This fraction should be predominated by exosomes. Although we optimized the isolation

procedure, we could not isolate the pure sEV fraction without β-1 integrin, which is one of the markers

for microvesicles (35), but it was recently also found in exosomes as another possible microvesicle

marker (36). This would explain the presence of β-1 integrin in our sEV fraction. Recently, Annexin A1

was found to be a specific marker for microvesicles (36). We found enrichment of CD9 tetraspanin in

sEVs compared to lEVs, as published previously (77). Based on the detection of β-1 integrin in the lEV

fraction, enrichment of CD9 in the sEV fraction compared to the lEV fraction, and no calnexin

contamination, we believe that our lEV fraction is predominated by microvesicles and the sEV fraction by

exosomes.

When we compared the EV fraction to the whole-cell lysate, we found great enrichment of both PrP^{TSE}

and PrP^C. The fraction of lEVs from CAD5 cells could not be isolated without contamination by calnexin

under the various centrifugations we tried during isolation optimization. Typically, the presence of

calnexin signals contamination from other cellular compartments (76). In our lEV and sEV fractions, there

was not a 100 kDa band of calnexin but three somewhat smaller bands that appeared in cells during

apoptosis (78), visible only after immense overexposure of the membrane (three times longer exposure

of the membrane or stretching of the histogram from 16 bit to 12 bit). Therefore, we assume that

apoptotic bodies could cause this contamination since they overlap in size.

Isolated fractions of EVs could be normalized in two possible ways. By total lipid concentration (79) or

total protein concentrations. Since we looked at prion protein transmission, we normalized EVs to

protein concentration using the BCA assay. Measurement of particle number in two fractions distinct in

size, which are heterogeneous, is problematic. Counting particles of different sizes by resistive pulse

sensing (RPS) did not yield reliable results. A fixed pore size is needed for reproducible measurement, yet

lEVs require a large pore size (80), with which sEVs are not detected (81). For NTA, this method has a

high relative concentration error for beads of 400 nm (82). The minimum sizes for measuring vesicles are

70-90 nm by NTA and 70-100 nm by RPS (82). In our sEV fraction, we detected the smallest particles with

a size of 30 nm by cryo-TEM. Furthermore, processing software may induce artifacts since the two

fractions need different settings (82).

We isolated both fractions from the same source, a conditioned medium, allowing us to compare these

fractions in PrP levels directly. The PrP PK- levels in lEVs and sEVs were relatively the same in the CAD5-

RML model, but in the N2a-PK1-RML model, the PrP PK- levels were slightly higher in lEVs. When we

looked at PrPres levels in CAD5 EVs, they were higher in sEVs. The difference in N2a-PK1 EVs was in the

opposite direction; the levels of PrPres were higher in lEVs. Our RT-QuIC experiments revealed higher

conversion activity in lEVs than in sEVs from both cell lines.

Next, we examined the infectivity of EVs by infecting native cells. First, we collected supernatants and

pellets from all steps of the isolation protocol to map the distribution of prion infectivity in the CAD5

model. As expected, all the fractions contained the infectivity, including the fractions of isolated EVs. In

accord with their higher RT-QuIC conversion activity, the lEVs caused approximately four times higher

CAD5 cell infection than sEVs in our initial cell blot experiments. We specifically looked at the difference

between EVs by two distinct approaches. The OVS scheme aimed to evaluate the differences in the

production of EVs by cells. Large EVs and sEVs were isolated from the same number of cells, and we

omitted the washing steps to eliminate the loss of EVs as much as possible. The TPS scheme aimed to

explore differences in the concentration of prion infectivity in washed vesicles and possibly also in their

uptake by the cells. With both infection schemes, we obtained concurrent results demonstrating higher

infectivity of lEVs in the CAD5 model. To overcome the limitations of cell blotting developed with alkaline

phosphatase, which is prone to signal saturation, we utilized fluorescent western blotting with greater

linear range of signal detection. The differences were even higher than in the cell blot. To further

demonstrate stronger infection by lEVs, we utilized SSCA to count number of infected cells directly.

Interestingly, in SSCA, we reached the infection plateau earlier (between the 5th and 8th passages)

compared to the cell blot and western blot (8th – 10th passages). In the fifth passage, we had

significantly more spots in TPS infection by lEVs. In OVS infection, we had significantly more spots in the

3rd and 8th passages in infection by lEVs. The differences measured by SSCA were less dramatic, but

consistent with the results of the cell and western blot analysis.

To confirm stronger infection by lEVs in the CAD5 model, we similarly tested the infection by EVs in the

N2a-PK1 cell line. Infection by lEVs was also stronger than that by sEVs with both infection schemes. In

CAD5 models, it is interesting to note that the TPS scheme infection led to a greater difference between

lEVs and sEVs suggesting higher concentration of the infectivity in lEVs. However, in the N2a-PK1 model,

the TPS infection scheme led only to small difference suggesting similar concentration of infectivity in

large and small EVs. In comparison, OVS infection scheme resulted in larger differences indicating

enhanced production of lEVs by N2a-PK1 cells. To purify sEVs from aggregated PrP (also pelleted at

110,000 × g), we introduced a sucrose cushion in the isolation of sEVs (83). Without the sucrose cushion

step, the measurement would be biased by pelleted PrP aggregates. The effectiveness of the cells

infection by lEVs and sEVs could be affected also by differences in their uptake. Since it is problematic to

separate microvesicles and exosomes, there is limited knowledge of the uptake of different fractions of

EVs. EVs can function as ligands for the surface receptor or be internalized by phagocytosis,

macropinocytosis, caveolin-mediated endocytosis, clathrin-mediated endocytosis, lipid raft-mediated

endocytosis, or fusion with the plasma membrane (32).

The CAD5 cells infected with the OVS scheme had a greater difference between infection levels in lEVs

and sEVs compared to the TPS scheme. Conversely, in N2a-PK1 cells, the TPS scheme resulted in a higher

discrepancy between infection levels in lEVs and sEVs compared to the OVS scheme. One possible

explanation could be in the cell origin. CAD5 is derived from Cath.a cells and has lost the immortalizing

oncogene (75). Cath.a cells secrete dopamine and norepinephrine (84), and cells secreting hormones and

neurotransmitters are specialized for secreting EVs (32). Conversely, the N2a-PK1 cell line is derived from

neuroblastoma Neuro 2A cells that produce low levels of tyrosine hydroxylase and dopamine unless they

are differentiated (85). It could be possible that the release of EVs is also specific to the cell type. The

RK13 lines, which express PrP^C from sheep, mice, or voles infected by different prion strains, release

PrP^{TSE} in exosomes differently (86).

Conclusion:

Prion protein is enriched in both large and small EVs. CAD5-RML lEVs contain higher prion converting

activity and infect native CAD5 cells more strongly than sEVs. We confirmed these results using three

different methods and two approaches to infection, one assessing the concentration of infectivity in

isolated EVs, and the second reflecting the total amount of infectivity associated with the EV fractions.

For validation, we used the N2a-PK1-RML cell line, in which we also achieved stronger infection by lEVs.

If the higher prion converting activity of lEVs was the sole reason why the infection with lEVs was

stronger remains to be elucidated since there is limited knowledge of the differences upon uptake of

different fractions of EVs. Small EVs or exosomes have been extensively studied compared to

microvesicles, yet microvesicles could play significant roles in other diseases, such as cancer or cellular

communication and immunity. Our data suggest the importance of lEVs in the trafficking of prions, which

should be considered in future prion transmission studies.

Declarations:

Ethics approval and consent to participate: Do not apply.

Consent of Publication: All authors agreed to publish the study.

Availability of data and material: We have submitted all relevant data of our experiments to the EV-

TRACK knowledgebase (EV-TRACK ID: EV220318). The data are available at the BioImage Archive

repository (URL: https://www.ebi.ac.uk/biostudies/studies/S-BSST1019).

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

The study was funded by Charles University projects GA UK 360216 and Cooperatio 207032-3 and The

project National Institute for Neurological Research (Program EXCELES, ID Project No. LX22NPO5107) -

Funded by the European Union – Next Generation EU.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization: Jakub Soukup, Methodology: Jakub Soukup, Cryo-electron

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writing – review and editing: Karel Holada, Sami Kereïche, Jakub Soukup, Funding: Jakub Soukup, Karel

Holada.

Acknowledgment: The authors thank Charles Weissmann from The Scripps Research Institute (FL, USA)

for providing the CAD5, Peter Klöhn from MRC Prion Unit (London, UK) for providing the N2a-PK1 cells,

the TSE Resource Centre (Roslin Institute, UK) for providing the AH6 antibody, and Adriano Aguzzi

(Institute of Neuropathology, University of Zurich, Switzerland) for kindly providing the RML5 scrapie

strain. The TEM was performed in the Vinicna Microscopy Core Facility co-financed by the Czech-

BioImaging large RI project LM2023050. Computational resources were supplied by the project "e-

Infrastruktura CZ" (e-INFRA LM2018140) provided within the program Projects of Large Research,

Development and Innovations Infrastructure.

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Appendix Figure S1: Absolute densities of cell blots after different passages after infection using EV fractions.
A-D. Densities measured in passages 3 (A), 5 (B), 8 (C), and 10 (D). In OVS scheme, the cells were infected with 4 ml, 2 ml, and 1
ml of EVs resuspended in the original volume of medium and in TPS scheme with 10 μg, 5 μg, and 2.5 μg of washed EVs.
Duplicates 1 and 2 represent two independent experiments. Bars represent the mean value of two technical replicates.
775
Appendix Figure S2: western blot analysis of PrPres and PrPSc/PrPc signals in cells infected by lEV and sEV fractions at
passage 3.
A-D. An example images of western blots from infection of CAD5 (A, C) or N2a-PK1 (B, D) cells with lEVs and sEVs at passage 3
after infection. Cells were infected with 4 ml, 2 ml, and 1 ml of resuspended EVs in OVS infection (A, B) or with 10 μg, 5 μg, and
2.5 μg of washed EVs in TPS infection (C, D). PK+ - proteinase K digested samples. β-Actin was used as a loading control for PrP
PK- samples, which were also compared. Both PrP PK- and PrP PK+ samples are shown for a loading of 40 μg per line. NC –
negative control (mock infected cells), PC – positive control. For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with
brightness and contrast.
E. Relative comparison of PrP signal in PrP PK+ samples by densitometry. Bars represent fold change in the density of lEVs
compared to the corresponding density in infection of sEVs. Bars show the mean with SEM value of relative differences between
lEV and sEV infections from a biological duplicate of EV isolation, a triplicate of infection, and a technical triplicate of sample
loading.
F. Relative comparison of PrP PK- densitometry.
G. Relative comparison of β-actin densitometry.
790
Appendix Figure S3: western blot analysis of PrPres and PrPSc/PrPc signals in cells infected by lEV and sEV fractions at
passage 5.
A-D. An example images of western blots from infection of CAD5 (A, C) or N2a-PK1 (B, D) cells with lEVs and sEVs at passage 5
after infection. Cells were infected with 4 ml, 2 ml, and 1 ml of resuspended EVs in OVS infection (A, B) or with 10 μg, 5 μg, and
2.5 μg of washed EVs in TPS infection (C, D). PK+ - proteinase K digested samples. β-Actin was used as a loading control for PrP
PK- samples, which were also compared. Both PrP PK- and PrP PK+ samples are shown for a loading of 40 μg per line. NC –
negative control (mock infected cells), PC – positive control. For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with
brightness and contrast.
E. Relative comparison of PrP signal in PrP PK+ samples by densitometry. Bars represent fold change in the density of lEVs
compared to the corresponding density in infection of sEVs. Bars show the mean with SEM value of relative differences between
lEV and sEV infections from a biological duplicate of EV isolation, a triplicate of infection, and a technical triplicate of sample
loading.
F. Relative comparison of PrP PK- densitometry.
G. Relative comparison of β-actin densitometry.
805

Appendix Figure S4: western blot analysis of PrPres and PrPSc/PrPc signals in cells infected by lEV and sEV fractions at
passage 10.
A-D. An example images of western blots from infection of CAD5 (A, C) or N2a-PK1 (B, D) cells with lEVs and sEVs at passage 10
after infection (TPS infected CAD5 cells are shown in passage 12 after infection as the final passage). Cells were infected with 4
ml, 2 ml, and 1 ml of resuspended EVs in OVS infection (A, B) or with 10 µg, 5 µg, and 2.5 µg of washed EVs in TPS infection (C,
D). PK+ - proteinase K digested samples. β-Actin was used as a loading control for PrP PK- samples, which were also compared.
Both PrP PK- and PrP PK+ samples are shown for a loading of 40 µg per line. NC – negative control (mock infected cells), PC –
positive control. For visualization purposes, all images were enhanced with brightness and contrast.
E. Relative comparison of PrP signal in PrP PK+ samples by densitometry. Bars represent fold change in the density of lEVs
compared to the corresponding density in infection of sEVs. Bars show the mean with SEM value of relative differences between
lEV and sEV infections from a biological duplicate of EV isolation, a triplicate of infection, and a technical triplicate of sample
loading.
F. Relative comparison of PrP PK- densitometry.
G. Relative comparison of β-actin densitometry.
820
Appendix Figure S5: Absolute PrPres densities of western blots of OVS-infected cells.
A, B. Densities measured in passage 3, 5, 8, and 10 after infection of CAD5 (A) or N2a-PK1 (B) cells with EV fractions. The cells
were infected with 4 ml, 2 ml, and 1 ml of EVs resuspended in the original volume of the medium. Duplicates 1 and 2 represent
two independent experiments.
Appendix Figure S6: Absolute PrPres densities of western blots of TPS-infected cells.
A, B. Densities measured in passage 3, 5, 8, and 10 after infection of CAD5 (A) or N2a-PK1 (B) cells with EV fractions. The cells
were infected with 10 µg, 5 µg, and 2.5 µg of washed. Duplicates 1 and 2 represent two independent experiments.
828
829 **Appendix Table 1:** Summary of detection of prion converting activity in cell lysates from CAD5-RML or N2a-PK1-RML cells
830 (positive control) and isolated lEVs and sEVs from these cells. The negative control was cell lysate from CAD5 or N2a-PK1 cells.
831 Each sample was serially diluted in quadruplicate. The lowest dilution where at least two wells from quadruplicates (dark green)
832 marks the SD_{50}.

E	Seeding Dose 50			
Sapmle	lEVs	sEVs	Whole cell lysate
CAD5-RML 1st experiment	10^{-8}	10^{-6}	10^{-8}
CAD5-RML 2nd experiment	2×10^{-8}	4×10^{-7}	
PK1-N2a-RML 1st experiment	3×10^{-9}	3×10^{-9}	
PK1-N2a-RML 2nd experiment	3×10^{-9}	8×10^{-8}	