KSHV uses viral IL6 to expand infected immunosuppressive macrophages

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Running Title

KSHV dysregulates monocytes via vIL6

35 **Summary**

36 KSHV causes multiple inflammatory diseases, however, the mechanism is not clear. Shimoda et

37 al. demonstrate that KSHV preferentially infects monocytes and utilizes virally encoded IL6 to

38 expand and deregulate infected monocytes. This helps the virus escape from host immune

39 surveillance.

Abstract

Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) is an oncogenic double-stranded DNA virus and

the etiologic agent of Kaposi's sarcoma and hyperinflammatory lymphoproliferative disorders.

Understanding the mechanism by which KSHV increases the infected cell population is crucial for

curing KSHV-associated diseases. Here we demonstrate that KSHV preferentially infects $CD14^+$

monocytes and sustains viral replication through the viral (v)IL6-mediated activation of STAT1

and 3. Using vIL6-sufficient and vIL6-deficient recombinant KSHV, we demonstrated that vIL6 plays a

critical role in promoting the proliferation and differentiation of KSHV-infected monocytes into

macrophages. Those macrophages from vIL6-sufficient (wild type) KSHV infection showed a distinct

transcriptional profile of elevated IFN-pathway activation with immune suppression and were

compromised in T-cell stimulation function compared to those from vIL6-deficient KSHV infection or

uninfected control. These results highlight a clever strategy, in which KSHV utilizes vIL6 to secure its

initial viral pool by expanding infected dysfunctional macrophages. This mechanism also facilitates

KSHV to escape from host immune surveillance to establish a lifelong infection.

Introduction

A virus is an infectious agent that can only replicate within a living host organism. Because of

this dependence, viruses have evolved various mechanisms to exploit normal cell functions to

escape from host immune surveillance for their survival advantage. This exploitation sometimes

associates with prolonged damage to the host leading to pathology and diseases caused by the

viral infection (Hoenen and Groseth, 2022).

Kaposi's sarcoma (KS)-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), or human gamma herpesvirus 8

(HHV-8), is an oncogenic double-stranded DNA virus that establishes a lifelong latent infection

(Cesarman et al., 2019). KSHV is the etiologic agent of Kaposi's sarcoma and is associated with

two lymphoproliferative disorders: multicentric Castleman's disease (MCD) and AIDS-

associated primary effusion lymphoma (PEL). KSHV-inflammatory cytokine syndrome (KICS)

may also represent a prodromic form of KSHV-MCD, which exhibits elevated KSHV viral loads and

circulating inflammatory cytokines including IL-6, IL-10, and a KSHV-encoded IL-6 homolog (vIL-6)

(Alomari and Totonchy, 2020; Caro-Vegas et al., 2020; Dumic et al., 2020; Goncalves et al., 2017;

Polizzotto et al., 2012; Polizzotto et al., 2016). These highly inflammatory diseases are devastating, and

a leading cause of cancer deaths in AIDS patients. Therefore, understanding the mechanism of KSHV

infection is crucial for finding a cure for these diseases.

Natural transmission of KSHV most likely occurs through salivary and sexual

transmission or during transplantation of KSHV-positive organs into a naïve recipient although

initial KSHV infection is normally asymptomatic (Cesarman et al., 2019; Dittmer and Damania,

2019). In experimental settings, KSHV has been shown to infect various types of cell lines and

primary cells such as epithelial cells and immune cells that include B cells, monocytes, and

dendritic cells through binding to specific cell surface receptors such as Siglec DC-SIGN

(Decker et al., 1996; Gregory et al., 2012; Rappocciolo et al., 2006; Staskus et al., 1997; van der

Meulen et al., 2021). However, it remains unclear whether KSHV may preferentially infect a certain

cell type among PBMC. The mechanisms by which KSHV facilitates a lifelong infection by

increasing viral reservoirs and impacts on the host immune system are also not entirely clear.

KSHV-encoded viral interleukin-6 (vIL6) is a homolog of human interleukin-6, which is

encoded by KSHV ORF-K2 and is highly expressed during the lytic replication cycle (Sakakibara and

Tosato, 2011). Viral IL6 is also expressed at physiologically functional levels in latently infected cells

(Chandriani and Ganem, 2010) and is detectable in the sera and/or tumor tissues of patients with KS,

PEL, and MCD (Aoki et al., 2001). Viral IL6 enhances cell proliferation, endothelial cell migration,

and angiogenesis, leading to tumorigenesis, and has been suggested to be a driver of KICS (Giffin et

al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2014). In addition, vIL6 transgenic mice develop IL6-dependent MCD-like disease

(Suthaus et al., 2012) and supported tumor metastasis in a murine xenograft model (Fullwood et al.,

2018). Mechanistically, vIL6 directly binds to the gp130 subunit of the IL6 receptor without the need

of the IL6 receptor, and active the JAK/STAT pathway to induce STAT3 phosphorylation and

acetylation (Alomari and Totonchy, 2020; Cojohari et al., 2020; Molden et al., 1997). In addition, vIL6

activates the AKT pathway to promote numerous oncogenic phenotypes (Giffin et al., 2015; Morris et

al., 2008; Morris et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2014). STAT3 activation by vIL6 also increases the VEGF

expression through the downregulating caveolin 1 (Alomari and Totonchy, 2020) and promotes

angiogenesis, suggesting that vIL6 through STAT activation plays an important role in tumorigenesis.

Given that the prototype human IL6 plays a critical role in immune regulation and inflammation, vIL6

is thought to play a pivotal role in inflammatory KSHV diseases. Here we reveal the role of vIL6 in the

regulation of monocytes with recombinant KSHV and de novo infection to the peripheral blood

mononuclear cells.

                                    Results and Discussion

KSHV preferentially infects CD14+ monocytes among PBMC and triggers an inflammatory

response and macrophage differentiation.

To study cell type-specific KSHV infection, we employed a single cell (sc)RNA-seq analysis approach.

Recombinant KSHV was purified after two serial ultracentrifugations from the culture supernatant of

iSLK.291 cell line, an inducible recombinant KSHV producer. PBMCs were infected with rKSHV.291

at MOI=1, fixed at various time points (day 0, 1, 2, and 4) after infection, and subjected to scRNA-seq

analysis. KSHV infection and lytic replication in single cells were then monitored by the expression of

K2 that encodes vIL6.

As shown in Fig. 1A, unsupervised, Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP)

for dimension reduction analysis identified 9 clusters among peripheral blood mononuclear cells

(PBMCs), each of which can be associated with known immune cell subsets based on corresponding

lineage-specific gene expression. Thus, *KLRD1(CD94), CD14, APOBEC3A, VMO1, CD79A*, and *CD3E*

genes were used as a marker for NK cells, monocytes, intermediate monocytes, non-classical monocytes,

B cells, and T cells, respectively, based on the immune cell data available from the Human protein atlas

(Uhlen et al., 2019). As shown in Fig. 1B, *de novo* KSHV infection of PBMCs in conjunction with

scRNA-seq analysis at 1-day post-infection (dpi) revealed that K2 (vIL6) expression was almost

completely overlapped with CD14 expression. It should be noted that although scarcely K2 expression

was also found in *CD79A*^{+} B cell, *KLRD1*^{+} NK and *CD3E*^{+} T cell clusters. KSHV has been shown to

establish latent infection in B cells, causing B-cell lymphoma (Cesarman et al., 2019). However, the

correlation expression of CD14 and K2 was highly significant (p=8e-191) compared to that of CD19 and

K2 (p=0.065) at 1 dpi. The following kinetic scRNA-seq analysis also showed that K2 and CD14 gene

expression were colocalized during 1 to 4 dpi (Fig. 1C). In this experiment, the culture medium was not

replenished during the period. Infectious KSHV virions that remained in the culture or were newly

released from infected cells could have infected other cell subsets of PBMC besides CD14^{+} monocytes.

Thus, KSHV may re-infect CD14^{+} monocytes and monocytes can support KSHV lytic replication

along with vIL6 gene expression. The kinetic scRNA-seq analysis also revealed that KSHV infection

in CD14^{+} monocytes triggered the activation and inflammatory response immediately after KSHV

infection at 1dpi as evidenced by the upregulation of *IL3RA* (CD123), *CCL2*, and *TNFα* (Fig. 1C). The

latter was followed by the expression of genes associated with differentiation of M2-like macrophages

with the suppressive phenotype (*CD274/PD-L1*, *C1QA*, *RNASE1*, *IL-10*, and *CD163*) during 2-4 dpi

(Fig. 1D). Collectively, scRNA-seq analysis demonstrates that KSHV preferentially infects CD14$^+$

monocytes among PBMCs and triggers monocyte inflammatory response followed by macrophage

differentiation program.

KSHV infection of PBMC triggers STAT activation in dendritic cells and myeloid cell lineages.

As a counterpart of pleiotropic cytokine human IL6, viral IL6 has been shown to exhibit multifunctional

pathologic roles in KS diseases (Sakakibara and Tosato, 2011). Therefore, we next studied the role of

vIL6 in monocyte activation and differentiation using the *de novo* PBMC infection model. To this end,

we generated recombinant KSHV lacking vIL6 expression by inserting stop codons in vIL6 with BAC16

(vIL6STOP). We also generated a revertant KSHV with intact vIL6 expression (vIL6REV) by changing

the sequence back to the original wild-type sequence with BAC recombination. The lack of vIL6

expression in vIL6STOP was confirmed by Western blotting using a monoclonal antibody against vIL6

(a kind gift from Dr. Robert Yarchoan, NIH) (SFig. 1A).

First, to evaluate the signaling events triggered by KSHV infection in immune cells, PBMC from

healthy donors (n=6, 3 males and 3 females) were infected with vIL6REV (with vIL6 expression) or

vIL6STOP (without vIL6 expression) (MOI=1), or mock-infected (PBS). At 1 dpi, cells were fixed and

subjected to CyTOF analysis using a 27-color signaling panel that can differentiate 25 immune cell

subsets (SFig. 2). The expression levels of 10 signaling molecules were then determined to evaluate the

early signaling events in PBMCs upon KSHV infection.

Unsupervised t-distributed stochastic neighbor embedding (tSNE) for dimension reduction

analysis was applied for each infection group after 1000 events from 6 samples in each group were

concatenated. As shown in Fig. 2A, immune cell subsets were clustered based on each marker

expression, and the phenotypic changes induced by infection were visualized and identified by

comparison between vIL6STOP, vIL6REV, and mock-infected (PBS) control group (Fig.2 B). The

landscape of immune cell phenotype visualized by the tSNE cell clustering was remarkably similar

between vIL6STOP and vIL6REV infection group, indicating that anti-viral response was equally

triggered in monocytes in vIL6STOP and vIL6-REV infection. Nonetheless, the tSNE visualization

revealed that the phenotype of three immune cell populations corresponding to $CD4^+CD3^+$,

$CD19^+CD20^-$, and $CD123^+CD14^+$ clusters as indicated in Fig. 2B was different between infected groups

and mock-infected control group. The $CD123^+CD14^+$ cluster contains a heterogenous cellular population

that also expresses CD11c, CD16, and HLA-DR (Fig. 2A). Given that scRNA-seq results showed

preferential KSHV infection in $CD14^+$ cell population in association with *CD123* (IL3R) upregulation

(Fig. 1C), we considered that the changes observed in $CD123^+CD14^+$ cluster represent host cell anti-

virus response in monocytes after KSHV infection. Changes in $CD4^+CD3^+$, $CD19^+CD20^-$ clusters could

be the result of infection and/or indirect activation such as through cytokine production from PBMC in

response to KSHV infection.

To evaluate signaling events in detail, we next used a knowledge-based analysis and identified

25 immune cell subsets based on the gating described in SFig.2. The activation status of each signaling

molecule was evaluated among plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDC) and monocytic cell subsets including

$CD123^+CD11c^+$ cells, myeloid (m)DC, $CD14^{lo}CD16^+$ non-classical monocytes, $CD14^+CD16^+$

intermediate monocytes, and $CD14^-CD16^+$ classical monocytes (SFig.2), based on the fold change in the

CyTOF signal intensity for infected groups compared to mock-infected (PBS) control group (Fig. 2C

and D). As expected, many of the 10 signaling molecules including STAT1, IKB, and phosphor-PLCγ

were strongly upregulated in pDC (Fig. 2C), an immune cell subset responsible for the anti-viral

response. Among $CD11c^+$ DC subsets, STAT1 and phospho-STAT3 were the two most significantly

activated pathways in $CD123^+CD11c^+$ cells, and less so in myeloid (m)DC (Fig. 2C and D). Among

monocyte subsets, STAT1, phospho-STAT3, and pS6 were upregulated after infection (Fig. 2C and D).

Consistent with the tSNE, the activation profiles of 10 signaling molecules in pDC, DC, and monocytes

were identical between vIL6STOP and vIL6REV infection (Fig. 2C and D). Thus, at 1dpi both

vIL6STOP and vIL6REV viruses triggered indistinguishable host responses in pDC, DCs, and

monocytes.

We also confirmed by flow cytometry approach that the frequency of $CD123^+CD11c^+$ cell

population among PBMC at 1dpi increased by infection regardless of the vIL6 expression (Fig. 2E and

F) in association with upregulation of STAT 1, pSTAT3, and pS6 (Fig. 2C and D). Notably, the

frequency of the $CD14^+CD16^+$ population also increased by infection in a manner dependent on the

KSHV vIL6 expression (Fig. 2E and F). The vIL6-dependent response suggests a biological role of vIL6

in the activation of infected $CD14^+CD16^+$ monocytes.

KSHV infection promotes activation and proliferation of CD14+ monocytes in a manner dependent on vIL-6.

To further study the biological significance of vIL6 expression and STAT 1 and 3 activation, monocytes were isolated from PBMCs (n=6) using a negative magnetic beads enrichment method and infected with vIL6STOP or vIL6REV KSHV (MOI=1). The viability and frequency of immune cell subsets were then analyzed by flow cytometry at 2 dpi. We found that total cell viability (Fig. 3A) and the frequency of activated CD274 (PDL-1) $^+$ cells (Fig. 3C) were significantly increased by KSHV infection regardless of the expression of vIL6. These results are expected from the CyTOF signaling analysis that demonstrates that the initial host response against vIL6REV and vIL6STOP infection was indistinguishable. As shown in Fig. 1, KSHV infection promptly induced inflammatory cytokine expression in monocytes. Inflammatory cytokines such as TNFα produced by activated monocytes can support their survival in an autocrine manner during an inflammatory response (Wolf et al., 2017). Therefore, it is possible that the effect of vIL6 on cell survival, if any, could be overridden by the effect of other inflammatory cytokines during the early host anti-viral response against KSHV.

On the other hand, the frequency of Ki67$^+$ proliferating cells and that of CD16$^+$CD14$^+$ cells were significantly increased in a manner dependent on the presence of vIL6 (Fig. 3B and C). In monocyte cultures, larger and more frequent proliferating cell blasts were observed in vIL6REV infection compared to vIL6STOP infection (Fig. 3D). Intracellular staining of monocytes also confirmed that the frequency of pSTAT1 and pSTAT3 in monocytes was higher in vIL6REV-infection compared to that in vIL6STOP or mock-infection (Fig. 3E). These results collectively suggest that vIL6 expression during the early KSHV infection increases the proliferation of infected monocytes via STAT 1 and 3 activation. The cellular environment in monocytes may have a unique role in sustaining STAT activation with KSHV infection.

KSHV infection changes the transcriptional landscape of macrophages in a manner dependent on vIL6 expression.

To reveal the biological effect of vIL6 expression in infected monocytes, we next conducted a transcriptomic analysis of *de novo* infected monocytes. To this end, total RNA was isolated from monocytes harvested 7 days post KSHV infection and RNA-seq was performed (Fig. 4A in the

Left panel). By 7 days post-infection, the recovery of vIL6REV-infected monocytes was higher
than vIL6STOP-infected monocytes as shown later in Fig. 5A because of the increased Ki67$^+$
proliferative responses (Fig. 3B and C). Principal component analysis (PCA) demonstrated
remarkably distinct transcriptional profiles between vIL6REV-infected and vIL6STOP-infected
monocytes (Fig. 4A, the Right panel). Volcano plots show higher numbers of differentially
regulated genes in vIL6REV-infected monocytes (Fig. 4B). To our surprise, vIL6STOP infection
had little impact on the transcriptional landscape of monocytes by 7dpi, suggesting that vIL6
expression is needed for either sustaining cell signaling activation or maintaining KSHV lytic
replication. Those two functions of vIL6 are likely to be mutually exclusive.

Among those differentially expressed genes between vIL6REV vs vIL6STOP infection,
interferon-induced genes such as IFITM2, and IFITM3, are substantially upregulated in vIL6REV
infection (Fig.4B, Top panel). Consistently, Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) also revealed
that genes associated with host anti-viral innate responses were enriched in vIL6REV infection
(Fig. 4C, SFig. 3), while the pathways involving in antigen processing and presentation were
downregulated in vIL6REV (Fig. 4D, SFig. 3). While we expected to see upregulation of IFN-
related genes in KSHV infected cells, down-regulation of MHC class II was unexpected.
Represented upregulated IFN-inducible genes and down-regulation of MHC-II were visualized in
the heatmap (Fig. 4E). To identify the putative transcription factors that are responsible for vIL6-
driven gene regulation, we examined transcription factors that are enriched on promoter regions
of differentially transcribed genes. As shown in Fig. 4F, interferon regulatory factors, STAT1 and
STAT2 were found as putative transcription factors that are responsible for driving vIL6-
associated phenotypes.

KSHV infection generates macrophages with an immunosuppressive phenotype in a manner
dependent on vIL6 expression.

Following the transcriptomic study that demonstrated transcriptional landscape changes in KSHV-
infected macrophages, we next confirmed functional changes induced in monocytes after KSHV *de*
novo infection on 7 dpi.
As shown above, in Fig. 1D, an M2-like macrophage differentiation program had been
triggered by 4 dpi. Consistent with this, monocytes in cultures were predominantly of large cellularity

with higher FSC and SSC as shown in Fig. 5A, indicative of macrophages. Also, the recovery of cells

at 7 dpi was significantly increased in vIL6-REV infection compared to vIL6-STOP infection.

Consistent with transcriptomic analysis in Fig. 4D, those macrophages derived from vIL6-REV

infection (vIL6-REV Mac) expressed lower levels of HLA-DR compared to control groups (Fig. 5B).

To test the direct effect of vIL6 in such phenotypic changes, we generated functional recombinant vIL6

capable of activating STAT1 (SFig. 1B and C). Monocytes were cultured in the presence of vIL6 (200

ng/ml in serum-free medium) for 7 days, and the phenotype was analyzed by flow cytometry. As

shown in Fig. 5C, the overall monocyte viability was increased from 20% to 59% in the presence of

vIL6. In addition, monocytes recovered from the 7 days culture showed reduced HLA-DR expression

(Fig. 5D) compared to monocytes cultured without vIL6. The results suggested that vIL6 treatment

alone could induce phenotypic changes similar to vIL6REV infection.

Finally, to evaluate T cell co-stimulatory capacity, CSFE-labeled allogeneic T cells were

cultured with macrophages derived from monocytes mock-infected or infected with vIL6REV or

vIL6STOP. T cell proliferation was then evaluated as CSFE-dilution by flow cytometry (Fig. 5E, Top

panel) in the presence or absence of anti-CD3 stimulation, and with the T cell culture with anti-

CD3/CD28 tetramer stimulation as a positive control. As shown in Fig. 5E and summarized in Fig. 5F,

the frequency of CFSE-negative proliferated T cells was significantly reduced in co-culture with

macrophages from vIL6REV infection (18.5%) compared with uninfected (50.8%) or vIL6STOP-

infection groups (78.6%) in the presence of anti-CD3 stimulation. Similar results were found in the

cultures without anti-CD3 stimulation except for the extent of T cell proliferation was smaller. These

observations are consistent with the transcriptional analysis in Fig. 4, which collectively demonstrates

that sustained vIL6-driven KSHV-lytic infection and continuous host anti-viral response in infected

monocytes induces immune suppressive phenotype in differentiating macrophages.

Monocytes play a key role in early infections by producing inflammatory cytokines and

differentiating into subtypes that play distinct roles in the induction or resolution of inflammation

(Watanabe et al., 2019) (Kapellos et al., 2019). Upon activation, some monocytes upregulate CD16

(FcgRIII), giving rise to $CD14^+CD16^+$ intermediate monocytes and $CD14^-CD16^+$ non-classical

monocytes, with a prolonged circulating lifespan. These $CD16^+$ monocytes normally exhibit high HLA-

DR expression for the capability of antigen presentation, transendothelial migration, and FcR-mediated

phagocytosis for anti-viral response (Yeap et al., 2016). $CD16^+$ monocytes also express the highest levels

of TNFR2 (CD120b) (Hijdra et al., 2012), which can upregulate anti-inflammatory IL-10 cytokine (Gane

et al., 2016) and supports either cell survival or death (Webster and Vucic, 2020). In this context, we

observed a sharp increase in CD14$^+$CD16$^+$ cells during early *de novo* KSHV infection (Fig.2E). We

speculate that KSHV infects CD14$^+$CD16$^+$ monocytes by exploiting their FcR- and complement-

mediated phagocytosis mechanism. The vIL6-driven sustained STAT1/3 activation may provide

infected monocytes with a proliferative advantage over uninfected cells to increase their population size.

Furthermore, vIL6-driven lytic infection constitutively triggers host anti-viral responses such as IFN-

pathway activation, which in turn, induces regulatory mechanisms (McNab et al., 2015). In the case of

Mycobacterium-infected macrophages, Type-I IFN signaling decreases energy metabolism (i.e.

glycolysis and mitochondrial functions) (Olson et al., 2021) and causes cell death (Zhang et al., 2021).

In *Listeria*-infected macrophages, stress-induced p38 mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK)

signaling synergistically enhances IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs). In macrophages, IL-10 production as a

part of the IFN-induced regulatory mechanism has been shown to dampen the capability of T cell

activation and antigen presentation (McNab et al., 2014; Redpath et al., 1999; Zdrenghea et al., 2015).

We show that the induction of a suppressive M2-like macrophage gene program was induced as early as

4 dpi in our scRNA analysis (Fig. 1). Consistent with this, earlier studies by other researchers also showed

that KSHV infection and STAT3 activation induce suppressive phenotype in dendritic cells and THP-1

cell line (Bhaskaran et al., 2017; Campbell et al., 2014; Gilardini Montani et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2010).

Accumulation of such immunosuppressive macrophages may increase the risk of secondary infection or

cause chronic infection and inflammation in the host by dysregulating immune responses; this

mechanism may increase the risk of KSHV-associated disease development.

In summary, this study demonstrates the preferential KSHV infection in monocytes and

highlights the critical role of vIL6 in expanding infected monocytes that facilitate a long-term virus

reservoir. Similar hijacking strategies to exploit monocyte development and functions have been also

reported in Cytomegalovirus (Baasch et al., 2021; Baasch et al., 2020; Cojohari et al., 2020; Shnayder et

al., 2020). The current study was unique in that vIL6STOP and vIL6REV rKSHV infection system was

introduced to delineate the role of vIL6 from that of the other KSHV-encoded multifunctional factors;

however, this study does not clarify whether vIL6 is directly involved as a driver in the expression of

ISGs under the host defense program in infected monocytes. Nonetheless, vIL6 was required for

sustaining KSHV lytic infection in monocytes, which activates IFN pathways. In lack of vIL6, KSHV

infection in monocytes generated macrophages indistinguishable from those from uninfected monocytes.

In this context, our study suggests that vIL6 and monocytes/macrophages are important therapeutic

targets in KSHV-associated diseases. Understanding the mechanism in which vIL6 overcomes the IFN-induced regulatory mechanism and promotes cell proliferation would help develop therapies for KSHV infection. It is also important to determine whether KSHV establishes latent infection in macrophages to facilitate a life-long viral reservoir in patient samples. Of note, KSHV is found in circulating monocytes and macrophages (Decker et al., 1996; Rappocciolo et al., 2006), and blood-derived KS-like spindle cells were found to express macrophage markers (Uccini et al., 1997). Future studies are needed to investigate the possible role of monocytes/macrophages as a long-term viral reservoir in patients with KSHV-associated diseases.

Materials and Methods

Cells. LRC from healthy donor was purchased from Vitalant. PBMCs were prepared by a standard Ficoll gradient method. PBMCs with a 10-30% range of CD14$^+$ monocytes content measured by flow cytometry were stored in liquid N2 and used for experiments. PBMC were thawed in warm media, washed twice, counted by Countess automated cell counter (ThermoFisher), and resuspended at 2-5x10^6 viable cells/ml. Monocytes were isolated with EasySep^{TM} Human monocyte isolation kit (STEMCELL) according to the manufacturer's protocol. PBMCs and CD14$^+$ monocytes were cultured in RPMI1640 medium containing 10% FBS plus antibiotics (2-5 x 10^6 cells/ml, 200uL/well in a 96 well plate, 400uL/well in a 48 well plate, or 1ml/well in a 24 well plate) supplemented with or without stimuli for various time as described in each figure legend.

Virus preparation. Doxycycline-inducible rKSHV.291 producer iSLK.291 cell lines were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin-L-glutamine solution, 10 μg/mL puromycin, 400 μg/mL hygromycin B, and 250 μg/mL G418. For virus preparation, iSLK.291 cell lines were stimulated with 0.3 mM Sodium Butylate and 1 μg/ml Doxycycline for 5 days. Recombinant KSHV particles were then purified after two serial ultracentrifugations from the culture supernatant of activated iSLK.291 cell lines. Briefly, the culture supernatant was centrifuged at 300 × g for 10 min, and then passed through a 0.8-μm filter to remove cellular debris, and then viral particles were concentrated by ultracentrifugation at 25,000 rpm for 2 hrs at 4°C with a Beckman SW28 rotor. The viral precipitates were resuspended in 500 μL of DMEM along with the residual ~500 μL media in the centrifuge tube and stored at −80°C until use.

Quantification of viral copy number. Two hundred microliters of cell culture supernatant were treated with DNase I (12 μg/mL) for 15 min at room temperature to degrade unencapsidated DNA. This reaction was stopped by the addition of EDTA to 5 mM followed by heating at 70°C for 15 min. Viral genomic DNA was purified using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol and eluted in 100 μL of buffer AE. Four microliters of the eluate were used for real-time qPCR to determine viral copy number, as described previously (Izumiya et al., 2009).

Recombinant KSHV. To test the role of vIL6, rKSHV.291 lacking vIL6 protein expression (vIL6STOP) was generated by adding stop codons in vIL6 with BAC16 (vIL6STOP). We also generated a revertant rKSHV.291 with vIL6 protein expression (vIL6REV) by changing the sequence of vIL6STOP back to the original wildtype sequence with BAC-recombination.

KSHV *de novo* infection. KSHV infection was conducted at MOI=1. Briefly, PBMC or monocytes (1-5 x 10^6 cells) were suspended in RPMI 1640 medium containing 10% FBS supplemented with 8 ug/ml polybrene, and the appropriate amount of rKSHV.291 in PBS (less than 10% of total volume) or PBS alone as the mock infection was added to the culture. Cells were kept in the same culture medium until analysis.

Single-cell RNA-seq. 2 x 10^6 PBMC were infected with rKSHV.291 at MOI=1, washed and fixed with paraformaldehyde according to the 10X genomics cell preparation guide (CG000053) at various time points (day 0, 1, 2, and 4) after infection. Single-cell suspensions (10^4 cells) were loaded to the chips and subjected to the Chromium Controller (10x Genomics) to generate single-cell gel beads in emulsion according to the manufacturer's protocols, and the library was constructed using Chromium Single Cell 3' Reagent Kits v2 (10x Genomics). Libraries were multiplex sequenced (2×150bp, paired-end, ~50 million mapped reads/mate pairs per sample) on an Illumina Hiseq 4000 sequencing system. Single-cell data were analyzed with the Cell Ranger v2.1 pipeline (10x Genomics). The pipeline included alignment to the hg38 human reference genome and human herpesvirus 8 strain (GQ994935.1) reference genome, Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP), and K-means clustering. Read count matrices obtained from the pipeline were normalized using the log normalization method with the "Seurat" R package (Stuart et al., 2019). We investigated the association between genes using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. To compute the correlation coefficient and p-value, we utilized the cor.test() function from the stats package in R (R. Core Team, 2021).

Total RNA-seq. RNA was prepared from infected monocytes using a QIAGEN miniprep kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. Indexed, stranded mRNA-seq libraries were prepared from total RNA (100 ng) using the KAPA Stranded mRNA-Seq kit (Roche) according to the manufacturer's standard protocol. Libraries were pooled and multiplex sequenced on an Illumina

NovaSeq 6000 System (150-bp, paired-end, $>30 \times 10^6$ reads per sample). RNA-Seq data was

analyzed using a Salmon-tximport-DESeq2 pipeline. Raw sequence reads (FASTQ format) were

mapped to the reference human genome assembly (GRCh38/hg38, GENCODE release 36) and

quantified with Salmon (Patro et al., 2017). Gene-level counts were imported with *tximport*

(Soneson et al., 2015). The resulting data were first filtered by average normalized count data >1

and differential expression analysis was performed with the software Subio Platform ver.1.24

(Subio Inc., Amami, Japan). For transcription factor analysis, differential expressed genes were

submitted to Chip-Atlas to analyze common regulators and to predict transcription factor binding

(Oki et al., 2018).

Phosphoflow PBMC CyTOF: This assay was performed by the Human Immune Monitoring

Center at Stanford University. PBMC were infected with rKSHV.291, washed twice with PBS and

then fixed with paraformaldehyde. Cells were washed twice with CyFACS buffer (PBS

supplemented with 2% BSA, 2 mM EDTA, and 0.1% sodium azide) and stained for 30 min at

room temperature with 20 mL of surface antibody cocktail. Cells were washed twice with

CyFACS, permeabilized with 100% methanol, and kept at -80C overnight. The next day, cells

were washed with CyFACS buffer and resuspended in a 20 mL intracellular antibody cocktail in

CyFACS for 30 min at room temperature before washing twice in CyFACS. Cells were

resuspended in a 100 mL iridium-containing DNA intercalator (1:2000 dilution in 2% PFA in

PBS) and incubated at room temperature for 20 min. Cells were washed once with CyFACS buffer

and twice with MilliQ water. Cells were diluted to 750×10^5 cells/mL in MilliQ water and acquired

on CyTOF. Data analysis was performed using FlowJo v10.8.1 by gating on intact cells based on

the iridium isotopes from the intercalator, then on singlets by Ir191 vs cell length followed by cell

subset-specific gating as described in SFig. 2.

Flow cytometry. Cells in culture were washed twice with PBS and resuspended in FACS buffer

(PBS supplemented with 1% FBS) at 1×10^7 cells/ml. 50 uL cells per well were stained with Aqua

LIVE/DEAD cell viability dye (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's

instructions, washed with FACS Buffer, and then stained for 45 min at room temperature with the

antibodies shown in the table. For intracellular staining of pSTAT1 and pSTAT3, cells were fixed

with paraformaldehyde, permeabilized with methanol, and kept at -80C overnight. The cells were

washed with FACS buffer and stained with pSTAT-1 AlexaFluor647 and pSTAT-3

AlexaFluor647. Cells were washed three times with FACS buffer and resuspended in 200 uL

FACS buffer. For typical experiments, 1-2 x10^5 PBMC per sample were collected using DIVA 6.0

software on a Fortessa flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) at Flow Cytometry Shared Resource, UC

Davis Comprehensive Cancer Center Shared Resources. Data analysis was performed using

FlowJo v10.8.1 by gating on live cells based on forward versus side scatter profiles, then on

singlets using forward scatter area versus height, followed by dead cell exclusion using Aqua

LIVE/DEAD viability dye, and then cell subset-specific gating.

T cell proliferation assay. Monocytes were infected with vIL6REV or vIL6STOP, or mock-infected

(PBS). Macrophages derived from KSHV-infected monocyte cultures were recovered at 7 dpi after being

washed with PBS twice followed by gentle pipetting and suspended in RPMI1640 medium containing

10% FBS. T cells were isolated from PBMC using EasySep^{TM} Human CD3 positive selection kit II

(STEMCELL) according to the manufacturer's protocol. T cells were stained in PBS with CellTrace^{TM}

CFSE Cell Proliferation Kit (ThermoFisher) according to the manufacturer's protocol and suspended in

RPMI1640 medium containing 10% FBS. 10^5 CSFE-labeled CD3+ T cells were incubated with 10^4

macrophages from KSHV-infected monocyte cultures in 200 uL/well in a 96-well U-bottom plate,

without or with 100 ng/ml anti-CD3 antibody (BD Bioscience) for 5 days. For positive and negative

controls, T cells were stimulated with ImmunoCult Human CD3/28 T cell activator or left unstimulated.

Cells were recovered from cultures and analyzed by BD Accuri^{TM} flow cytometer. 10^4 events were

acquired for each sample. Data analysis was performed using FlowJo v10.8.1 by gating

lymphocytes based on forward versus side scatter profiles. The average frequencies of the CFSE-

negative population were determined based on the negative control.

Statistical analysis. Whenever applicable, experimental replicates of at least 3 for each sample

including negative controls were prepared. Results are shown as mean ± SD from at least three

independent experiments. Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9.4.1 software.

Statistical significance was determined by appropriate testing, Student's t-test, one-way ANOVA with

Tukey's multiple comparison test, and correction for false discovery rate (FDR). A value of $p < 0.05$

was considered statistically significant.

Online supplemental material

The supplemental material includes characterization and validation of recombinant vIL6STOP and vIL6REV KSHV and recombinant vIL6 used in this study (SFig.1), a gating strategy of immune cells for CyTOF analysis (SFig. 2), and GSEA analysis of RNAseq data comparing vIL6REV-infected and uninfected macrophages (SFig. 3).

Data availability

The data underlying Figs. 1, 2, and 4 are openly available in [XXX] at [XXX]. The data underlying Figs. 2, 3, and 5 are available in the published article and its online supplemental material.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization: M. Shimoda, and Y. Izumiya. Experimental design: M. Shimoda and Y. Izumiya. Experiment and Data acquisition and analysis: M. Shimoda, R. Davis, A. Merleev, T. Inagaki, and Y. Izumiya. Funding acquisition: M. Shimoda and Y. Izumiya. Manuscript

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Figure 1. KSHV preferentially infects monocytes and triggers the monocyte inflammatory

transcription program. PBMCs were infected with rKSHV.291 at MOI=1, fixed at various time points

(pre-infection, day 1, 2, and 4) after infection, and subjected to 10X scRNA-seq analysis. (A) UMAP

visualizes 9 PBMC clusters in a preinfectional sample based on lineage-specific gene expression of

KLRD1, CD14, APOBEC3A, VMO1, CD79A, and *CD3E* genes for NK cells, monocytes, intermediate

monocytes, non-classical monocytes, B cells, and T cells, respectively. (B) KSHV-encoded K2 (vIL6)

expression overlapped with CD14 expression at 1 dpi. (C) The kinetic scRNA-seq analysis on pre-

infection, 1 dpi, 2 dpi, and 4 dpi revealed that KSHV infection in CD14$^+$ monocytes triggered the

activation and inflammatory response with the upregulation of *IL3RA* (CD123), *CCL2*, and *TNFα*. (D)

Expression of genes in CD14$^+$ monocytes associated with differentiation of M2-like macrophages with

suppressive phenotype (*CD274/PD-L1*, *C1QA*, *RNASE1*, *IL-10*, and *CD163*). Gene expression levels

are indicated by heatmap bars. A representative result of three experiments is shown.

Figure 2. KSHV infection preferentially triggers STAT activation in monocytes and dendritic

cells. PBMC from healthy donors (n=6, 3 males and 3 females) were infected with vIL6REV (with

vIL6 expression) or vIL6STOP (without vIL6 expression) (MOI=1), or mock-infected (PBS). At 1

dpi, cells were fixed and subjected to CyTOF analysis. The expression levels of 10 signaling molecules

were evaluated. (A) tSNE for dimension reduction analysis was applied for each infection group after

1000 events from 6 samples in each group were concatenated. Immune cell subsets were clustered

based on each marker expression (Right panel). (B) The phenotypic changes induced in three immune

cell populations corresponding to CD4$^+$CD3$^+$, CD19$^+$CD20$^-$, and CD123$^+$CD14$^+$ clusters by infection

were identified by comparison between vIL6STOP, vIL-6REV, and mock-infected (PBS) control

group. (C) The activation status of 10 signaling molecules among plasmacytoid dendritic cells (pDC)

and monocytic cell subsets including CD123$^+$CD11c$^+$ cells, myeloid (m)DC, CD14^{lo}CD16$^+$ non-

classical monocytes, CD14$^+$CD16$^+$ intermediate monocytes, and CD14$^-$CD16$^+$ classical monocytes are

shown in heat maps. Each subset was identified based on the lineage cell surface marker expression

with gating strategies shown in SFig.2. (D) The fold change in the CyTOF signal intensity of STAT1

and pSTAT3 for CD123$^+$CD11c$^+$ cells (TOP panel) and CD14$^+$CD16$^+$ cells (Bottom panel) in infected

groups compared to mock-infected (PBS) control group are shown. (E) Representative FACS profiles

of infected PBMC were analyzed by flow cytometry at 1 dpi. The frequency of CD123$^+$CD11c$^+$ (Top)

and CD14$^+$CD16$^+$ (Bottom) cell population in a live CD3-CD56-CD19- HLA-DR+ cell gate is shown

with the percentages. (F) Individual percentages of CD123$^+$CD11c$^+$ and CD14$^+$CD16$^+$ cells in (E) for

each PBMC sample (n=6) are compared between vIL6REV- and vIL6STOP- infected groups, and

uninfected group (PBS). p values shown are by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison

test. p<0.05: statistically significant.

Figure 3. KSHV preferentially infects and expands CD14+ monocytes with an inflammatory response

in a manner dependent on vIL6. Monocytes were isolated negatively from PBMCs (n=6) using

magnetic beads and infected with vIL6STOP or vIL6REV rKSHV (MOI=1). (A) The frequencies of

live cells on 2 dpi by live/dead staining are shown (B) Representative FACS profiles of infected

monocytes analyzed by flow cytometry for Ki67, CD16, and PD-L1 expressing cells. (C) The

frequencies for Ki67+, CD16+, and PDL-1+ cells are shown. (D) Representative images of cell blasts

in indicated treatment (x100). (E) Representative FACS profiles of each sample for pSTAT1 and

pSTAT3 intracellular staining with the percentage of gated pSTAT1- and pSTAT3- expressing cells

are shown. *p* values shown are by ANOVA with a paired comparison with Tukey's multiple

comparison test. *p* < 0.05: statistically significant.

Figure 4. Differential expression genes analysis between wild-type KSHV and vIL6 deficient

KSHV infected monocytes. (A) A schematic illustration of the KSHV infection experiment

(Left). Monocytes were infected with vIL6REV, vIL6STOP, or mock-infected (PBS). At 7 dpi,

cells were harvested for RNA-seq analysis (n=2/group). Principal component analysis (PCA) of

RNA-seq data from independent biological replicates is shown (Right). The number in

parenthesis indicates the percentage of total variance explained by each PC. Colored dots

represent individual samples infected with mock (PBS-treated), vIL6REV, and vIL6STOP. (B)

Volcano plots for differentially expressed genes (log2 FC threshold = 1, *p*-value threshold =

0.05) between vIL6REV and vIL6STOP (Top), vIL6 REV and mock (Middle) and vIL6STOP

and mock (Bottom). The log2 FC indicates the mean expression for each. The functional

enrichment analysis of upregulated genes (C) and downregulated genes (D) in vIL6REV-

compared to vIL6STOP-infected monocytes. DAVID functional enrichment analysis was

performed, and the analysis results of the top 5 enriched pathways are shown (Right). The

representative results of Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) are shown (Left). (E) Heatmap

of representative genes enriched for upregulated (C) or downregulated (D) in vIL6REV-

compared to vIL6STOP-infected monocytes. (F) Putative transcription factors that are

responsible for differentially expressed genes between vIL-6 REV and vIL-6 STOP KSHV

infection. The bar charts indicate p values for enrichment. The following parameters were used;

Organism: Homo sapiens (hg38), Experiment type: ChiP (TFs and others), Cell type Class:

Blood, and Threshold for significance: 50.

Figure 5. KSHV infection promotes macrophage differentiation with an immunosuppressive phenotype

in a manner dependent on vIL6 expression. Monocytes were infected with vIL6REV or vIL6STOP

(MOI=1), uninfected (PBS), or treated with vIL6 (200 ng/ml in serum-free medium) and cultured for 7

days. Each sample was analyzed by flow cytometry with each FMO staining as a control. (A) The

average frequency of macrophages in each culture (n=3) is based on representative FSC-A and SSC-A

profiles. (B) The average geometric mean fluorescent intensity (gMFI) of HLA-DR for each macrophage

sample in (A) with representative histogram overlays are shown. (C) Representative FACS plots of live

monocytes one week after vIL6 treatment and the average frequencies (n=3) are shown. (D) The average

gMFI of HLA-DR for each macrophage sample in (C) with representative histogram overlays are shown.

(E) An experimental design of T cell proliferation assay with macrophages (Top) and representative

histograms of T cells (gated based on FSC-A and SSC-A) for CSFE are shown. T cells without or with

anti-CD3/CD28 tetramer stimulation are used as controls. (F) The average frequencies of the CFSE-

negative population determined as in (E) for each sample are shown (n=3). p values shown are by

ANOVA with a paired comparison with Tukey's multiple comparison test. $p < 0.05$: statistically

significant.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5