SHORT COMMUNICATION

Endogenous ZAP is associated with altered global cellular gene expression during Zika

virus infection

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Abstract

The zinc finger antiviral protein 1 (ZAP) has broad antiviral activity. Previous RNA-seq analyses

were conducted in uninfected wild-type and ZAP-KO cells; however, the impact of ZAP on

global gene expression during virus infection remains unknown. Here, we characterized global

cellular gene expression in uninfected and Zika virus-infected wild-type and ZAP knockout

VERO cells. ZAP is an interferon (IFN)-stimulated gene, which itself may enhance type I IFN

antiviral response. We found that ZAP was associated with the inhibition of Zika virus in the

absence of a robust type I IFN system (VERO cells are deficient for IFN-alpha and -beta). Also,

during Zika infection in VERO cells endogenous ZAP was associated with amplification of

global transcriptional antiviral responses in the absence of a robust type I IFN system. Further

studies are warranted to elucidate this type I IFN-independent antiviral activity directly or

indirectly mediated by ZAP.

43 **Keywords**: **Flavivirus, Zika virus, Zinc finger antiviral protein, ZAP, interferon, RNA-seq**

INTRODUCTION

The zinc finger CCCH-type antiviral protein 1 (ZAP) is a cellular protein with broad antiviral activity [1-5]. ZAP binds viral RNA mediating degradation and translational inhibition [3]. While ZAP lacks intrinsic RNase activity, it recruits the 5′ and 3′ RNA degradation machinery [6,7]. Using a murine leukemia reporter virus, DDX17 and DHX30 cellular RNA helicases were identified as ZAP co-factors [8,9]. The E3 ubiquitin ligase TRIM25 enhances ZAP activity against alphaviruses [10,11]. ZAP also interacts with the cytoplasmic protein KHNYN to inhibit CpG-enriched human immunodeficiency virus 1 (HIV-1) [12]. Recently, Riplet, a protein known for activating the retinoic acid-inducible gene I, was identified as a ZAP co-factor [13]. Initially characterized to inhibit murine leukemia virus [14], ZAP has shown efficacy against many viruses, including alphaviruses, filoviruses, influenza virus, porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome virus , hepatitis B virus, human cytomegalovirus, human T-cell lymphotropic virus type 1, and HIV-1 [1,15-24]. However, ZAP's antiviral efficiency is limited against certain RNA viruses, including vesicular stomatitis virus, poliovirus, enterovirus A71, herpes simplex virus type 1, and some flaviviruses [7,15,25]. Emerging flaviviruses constantly threaten public health. A previous study showed the sensitivity of Japanese encephalitis virus (JEV) to overexpressed ectopic and endogenous ZAP [7]. In contrast, yellow fever virus (YFV), dengue virus (DENV), and Zika virus were categorized as ZAP-resistant [7,15]. Zika virus sensitivity was tested by ectopically overexpressing ZAP against the background of endogenous ZAP. Overexpression screening is a powerful approach, but overexpressing individual genes may also miss antiviral effectors that work in multiprotein complexes [26]. Here, we compared Zika virus RNA loads and characterized global cellular gene expression in uninfected and Zika-infected wild-type and ZAP knockout VERO cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells

We maintained wild-type VERO E6 cells (ATCC; VERO-ZAP-WT) and ZAP knockout (ZAP-

KO) derivatives (VERO-ZAP-KO) in DMEM supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal

bovine serum (FBS), 1x Penicillin-Streptomycin, and 2.67 mM sodium bicarbonate at +37°C in a

5% CO_2 humidified incubator. To generate ZAP-KO cell line, we used the guide RNA (gRNA)

GTCTCTGGCAGTACTTGCGA which targets the first exon of *Chlorocebus sabaeus* (Gene ID:

103226990) ZC3HAV1 gene, which is required for the expression of all ZAP isoforms. We also

used a non-targeting control gRNA ACGGAGGCTAAGCGTCGCAA. These gRNAs were

transiently transfected into cells using GenCrispr NLS-Cas9-NLS Nuclease (GenScript).

Subsequently, transfected cells were seeded in 96-well plates through limiting dilution to

generate isogenic single clones. Following expansion, the clones were genotyped via Sanger

sequencing, employing primers (ATCGCTGGGCTGGACTAACG,

GCAGAGAAGGGAGTGGCTGAA) to identify indels. The knockout subclone verified by

genotyping was further confirmed by western blot for ZAP expression (**Fig 1A**) as described

below. We confirmed the absence of mycoplasma contamination in cells using the LookOut

Mycoplasma PCR Detection Kit (Millipore Sigma).

Western blot

Cells cultured in T-175 flasks were washed, pelletized, and lysed in 300 µL of RIPA buffer

(Fisher) supplemented with $1\times$ Halt protease inhibitor cocktail (Fisher) and $1\times$ EDTA (Fisher).

The lysates were then incubated on wet ice for 10 minutes, gently vortexed, and centrifuged

(12,000g, 10 min, +4 °C). Supernatants were aliquoted into prechilled low protein binding tubes

(Sarstedt) and stored at -80°C. After quantifying protein concentration with the Pierce BCA

Protein Assay Kit (Fisher), 50 µg of protein extract was diluted in 4× reducing Laemmli SDS

sample buffer (Fisher), heated at 95ºC for 10 min, and resolved on 10% Mini-PROTEAN TGX

precast protein gels (Bio-Rad) in 1× Tris/Glycine/SDS running buffer (Bio-Rad) at a voltage of

125V for 70 min. Proteins were transferred on methanol-activated 0.45 µm Immun-Blot Low

Fluorescence polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes using the Trans-Blot Turbo RTA Mini

0.45 µm LF PVDF Transfer Kit (Bio-Rad, Cat. 1704274). The PVDF membranes were blocked

with 1× VWR Life Science Rapidblock Blocking Solution (VWR) for 1 h at room temperature.

Subsequently, the membranes were incubated overnight at +4°C with primary antibody diluted in

blocking solution. The membranes were washed four times with TBST (1× Bio-Rad Tris

Buffered Saline containing 0.1% Tween-20) and then incubated with secondary antibody, along

with hFAB Rhodamine Anti-Actin Primary Antibody (Recombinant human β-actin), diluted in

Blocking Solution for 1 h at room temperature, and washed four times with TBST. Fluorescent

blots were imaged on the ChemiDoc MP Imaging system using an appropriate detection channel

with Image Lab Touch Software (Bio-Rad).

We used antibodies (Abs): Rabbit anti-ZAP IgG Abs (1:1,000 dilution; ANTI-ZC3HAV1

HPA059096-100UL, Sigma-Aldrich), hFAB Rhodamine Anti-Actin Primary Abs (1:2,500;

#12004164, BIO-RAD), and IRDye 680RD Goat anti-Rabbit IgG secondary Abs (1:10,000; 926-

68071, LI-COR).

Viruses

We utilized the Asian lineage Zika virus H/PF/2013 strain [GenBank: KJ776791.2]. Zika virus

was synthetically rescued using reverse genetics following previously described methods [27].

Subsequently, the virus was propagated in VERO cells cultured in DMEM supplemented with

2% FBS and 1% penicillin/streptomycin (P/S). Supernatants were harvested, centrifuged (12,000

g, 20 min, +4°C), aliquoted, and frozen (-80°C). Infectious virus titers were quantified using

VERO cells via the endpoint dilution assay. The fifty percent tissue culture infective dose

($TCID_{50}$) endpoint titers were calculated as previously described [27-30]. Media from virus-

negative VERO cells was processed in the same manner as the virus stocks and used as control.

The absence of mycoplasma contamination in the virus stocks was confirmed using the LookOut

Mycoplasma PCR Detection Kit (Millipore Sigma).

Comparative RNA-seq analysis in wild-type and ZAP-KO cells

VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells were seeded at 6×10^5 cells per well in 6-well plates,

with 4 plates per cell line, in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS for 24 h. Wells in two plates

from each cell line were either mock-inoculated with media from virus-negative cells (4-6 well

replicates for VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO) or inoculated with a multiplicity of

injection (MOI) of 1 of Zika virus (6 well replicates for VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO).

After 2 h at 37ºC, the inoculum was removed, cells were washed, and covered with DMEM

supplemented with 2% FBS, then maintained at 37ºC. At 24 and 72 h post-inoculation, media

was removed, cells were washed with commercial 1× PBS, homogenized in 1 mL of TRI

Reagent Solution (Fisher), and RNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's protocol

using the PureLink RNA Mini Kit (Fisher). A total of 4-6 replicate samples were obtained for

mock-inoculated VERO-ZAP-WT, mock-inoculated VERO-ZAP-KO, Zika-infected VERO-

ZAP-WT, and Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells, at both 24 and 72 h.

RNA quantification was performed using the Qubit high sensitivity assay kit (Invitrogen) and

Qubit 2.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen). RNA quality was assessed using a bioanalyzer (Agilent

Technologies 2100) to ensure all samples had RNA Integrity Number (RIN) values above 9.0.

DNA contamination was removed using the TURBO DNA-free Kit (Fisher). mRNA with intact

poly(A) tails was enriched using the NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module

(NEB) and utilized for library constructions with the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library

Prep Kit for Illumina along with NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina (96 Unique Dual Index

Primer Pairs; NEB). The libraries were sequenced on the NovaSeq platform as paired-end reads

using the S1 v1.5 kit with 300 cycles (Illumina). FASTQ files were trimmed for adaptor

sequences and filtered for low-quality reads using *Trimmomatic*. RNA-seq analysis was

conducted as previously described [30-33] with modifications. Briefly, paired-end reads were

processed using the *Kallisto* pseudo-alignment method [34] and quantified by mapping to a

transcripts database generated from the African Green Monkey (vervet) reference genome

assembly (ENSEMBL *Chlorocebus sabaeus* 1.1) [35]. The count table for RNA-seq data was

assembled using the *tximport::tximport* function in R. After importing data to the R environment

we removed data for genes with low expression using the *edgeR::filterByExpr* function [36].

Normalization was then performed using the *edgeR::calcNormFactors* function, and the

limma::voom function was used to convert the data into a normal distribution. We calculated

differential expression using the *limma::lmFit* function with empirical Bayes moderation via the

limma::eBayes function (**Table S1**). Finally, we performed a gene set enrichment analysis using

the *limma::camera* function. Gene set enrichment analysis was conducted using Gene Ontology

(GO) annotation for *Chlorocebus sabaeus* obtained from g:Profiler [37]. Raw data were

deposited to NCBI BioProject (PRJNA1101086).

The following analytical strategy was chosen to normalize for intrinsic transcriptional

differences (**Tables S2A-D**) and compare RNA-seq data between Zika virus-infected ZAP-WT

cells and Zika virus-infected ZAP-KO cells. Initially, we compared transcriptional responses

between non-infected and infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells. Subsequently, we compared

transcriptional responses between non-infected and infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Finally,

affected genes and GO processes were summarized in **Table S2** and figures, and pairwise

comparison of genes and comparative GO analysis between VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-

KO cells were conducted (**Figs 2-4**; **Fig S1; Table S2**).

Reverse transcriptase quantitative polymerase chain reaction assays (RT-qPCR)

The portion of RNA from all RNA-seq samples described above was used to quantify

intracellular Zika virus RNA with a virus-specific RT-qPCR assay. All RT-qPCR reactions were

performed on the QuantStudio 3 real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems) and analyzed using

QuantStudio Design & Analysis Software v1.5.2.

For Zika virus RNA quantification, a previously validated SYBR one-step RT-qPCR assay was

used [42]. The reaction mixture (20 µL) of the Luna Universal One-Step RT-qPCR Kit (NEB)

comprised 10 µL Luna Universal One-Step Reaction Mix, 1 µL Luna WarmStart RT Enzyme

Mix, 0.8 µL (10 µM) each of forward (ZIKV-F-SYBR: 5′-

AGGATCATAGGTGATGAAGAAAAGT-3′) and reverse (ZIKV-R-SYBR: 5′-

CCTGACAACACTAAGATTGGTGC-3′) primers, 3.4 µL nuclease-free water, and 4 µL of

RNA template. The reverse transcription and enzyme activation steps of 10 min at 55°C and 1

min at 95°C were followed by 40 amplification cycles (10 s at 95°C and 60 s at 60°C). For a

standard curve, we generated complementary DNA fragment using viral RNA as a template and

primers (T7-F3- TAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCACCACCTGGGCTG; R3-

ACAGGCTGCACAGCTTTCCC) containing the T7 promoter. Afterward, the DNA template

was transcribed with the MAXIscript™ T7 Transcription Kit (Invitrogen) to generate Zika virus

RNA. DNA was removed with the TURBO DNase (Fisher) and was purified with RNA Clean &

Concentrator-5 kit (ZYMO) following Qubit RNA High Sensitivity Kit (Invitrogen)

quantification. The purified RNA was used to generate the standard curve and quantify Zika

RNA loads as we previously described [27,29]. Zika virus RNA copies were expressed per 100

ng of total RNA. Strict precautions were taken to prevent PCR contamination. All master mix

preparations were done in the dedicated PCR cabinet. Aerosol-resistant filter pipette tips and

disposable gloves were used. Kit reagent controls were included in every RNA extraction and

PCR run.

Cytopathic effect kinetics in wild-type and ZAP knockout cells

VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells were seeded in 6-well plates in DMEM

supplemented with 10% FBS. After 24 h, the cell culture medium was removed, and monolayers

were gently washed twice with 1× PBS. Cell monolayers were then mock-infected or infected (3

replicates) with wild-type Zika virus H/2013/PF at an MOI of 1 in 1 mL of DMEM and plates

were incubated at 37 °C for 2 h in a CO_2 incubator. Following the incubation period, the

inoculum was removed, and monolayers were washed twice with 1× PBS. Subsequently, 3 mL

of DMEM supplemented with 2% FBS was added to each well, and plates were further incubated

at 37°C in a CO_2 incubator. Cells were observed under a light microscope for any visible

cytopathic effect.

Statistics

Zika RNA loads in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells were compared using an

unpaired t-test. A *P*-value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

ZAP affects intracellular loads of Zika virus RNA

We infected VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO (**Fig 1A**) with an MOI 1 of Zika virus, and

sampled control (4-6 well replicates) and infected (6 well replicates) cells at 24 h and 72 h. We

compared viral RNA loads between WT and ZAP-KO cells with the Zika-specific RT-qPCR. At

24 h post-inoculation, there was no significant difference in Zika virus intracellular RNA loads;

however, VERO-ZAP-KO cells showed a trend towards higher RNA loads (**Fig 1B**). At 72 h

post-inoculation, Zika virus intracellular RNA loads were significantly higher in VERO-ZAP-

KO cells (**Fig 1B**).

ZAP affects global cellular gene expression during Zika virus infection

How ZAP affects global gene expression in response to virus infection was unknown. Initially,

we conducted simple pairwise comparisons of differentially expressed genes (DEGs). First, we

compared global gene expression between mock-infected VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO

cells: 758 and 992 genes were differently expressed between two cell lines at 24 and 72 h (**Fig**

2A; **Tables S2A, B**). Among the top ten affected genes at 24 h and 72 h (**Table S2A, B**) was

only one upregulated gene with known innate immunity or apoptosis function—CXCL12 (**Fig**

2A). This contrasts with affected top genes in infected cells described below.

Second, we compared global gene expression between mock-infected and Zika-infected VERO-

ZAP-WT cells: 40 and 117 genes were affected by infection at 24 h and 72 h (**Fig 2B**; **Tables**

S2E, F). Among the top ten affected genes (**Tables S2E, F**) were four genes with known innate

immunity or apoptosis functions—CXCL10, EGR1, G0S2, and CCL2 at 24 h, and seven

genes—CCL2, G0S2, CXCL10, IFNL1, OASL, CXCL8, and IL1A at 72 h. All these genes were

upregulated in Zika virus-infected ZAP-WT cells (**Fig 2B**).

Third, we compared global gene expression between mock-infected and Zika-infected VERO-

ZAP-KO cells: 14 and 342 genes were affected by infection at 24 h and 72 h (**Fig 2C**; **Tables**

S2I, J). Among the top ten affected genes (**Table S2I, J**) were four genes with known innate

immunity or apoptosis functions— EGR1, IL1A, FOS, and EGR2 at 24 h, and five genes—

G0S2, CCL2, CXCL10, IFNL1, and OASL at 72 h. All these genes were upregulated in Zika

virus-infected ZAP-KO cells (**Fig 2C**).

To further extend analysis beyond pairwise comparisons of DEGs, we conducted GO analysis.

This method offers high sensitivity due to its robust annotation framework, standardized

terminology, hierarchical structure, integration with biological knowledge, continuous updates,

and statistical rigor where each gene in the entire input set (**Table S1**) is statistically processed

and used for annotation [44,45].

Along with profound gene expression changes, mock-infected VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-

ZAP-KO cells had 92 (24 h) and 178 (72 h) significantly affected GO biological processes

(**Tables S2C, D**). However, when we searched among affected GO biological processes

keywords—"viral/virus", "apoptotic/apoptosis", "immun*", and "interferon," we did not find

affected processes containing these keywords. This sharply contrasts with affected GO biological

processes in infected cells described below. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells had 303 (24 h)

and 864 (72 h) affected GO biological processes (**Tables S2G, H**). Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-

KO cells had 287 (24 h) and 384 (72 h) affected GO biological processes (**Tables S2K, L**).

We narrowed down analysis and compared GO biological processes related to virus infection in

VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells at 24 and 72 h. As expected, no affected "viral" GO

processes were detected in mock-infected control cells (**Fig 3A**). Infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells

showed 5 affected processes at 24 h, and the number increased at 72 h reaching 16 affected

processes (**Fig 3B**). In contrast, infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells showed no affected processes at

24 h, and the number increased at 72 h reaching only 5 affected processes (**Fig 3C**).

We also compared GO biological processes related to immune responses in VERO-ZAP-WT and

VERO-ZAP-KO cells at 24 and 72 h. As expected, no affected "immune*" GO processes were

detected in mock-infected control cells (**Fig 4A**). Infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells showed one

affected process at 24 h, and the number increased at 72 h reaching 16 affected processes (**Fig

4B**). Infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells showed one affected process at 24 h, and the number

increased at 72 h reaching only 4 affected processes (**Fig 4C**).

Affected GO biological processes related to apoptosis in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO

cells (**Fig S1**) had the same patterns as "viral" and "immune" processes (**Figs 3, 4**). No affected

"apoptosis" GO processes were detected in mock-infected control cells (**Fig S1A**). Infected

VERO-ZAP-WT cells showed 5 affected processes at 24 h, and the number increased at 72 h

reaching 24 affected processes (**Fig S1B**). In contrast, infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells showed

only 2 affected processes at 24 h, and the number increased at 72 h reaching only 9 affected

processes (**Fig S1C**).

More aggressive "viral" responses to infection in VERO-ZAP-WT cells than in VERO-ZAP-KO

cells at 24 h identified by GO analysis (**Fig 3B**, **C**) may determine the higher number of affected

"apoptosis" GO processes in VERO-ZAP-WT cells (**Fig S1B**, **C**) because antiviral

transcriptional responses and cell death are interconnected and are critical components of the

host response to virus infection [46,47]. Many innate immune signaling pathways can promote

cell death [46,47]. In contrast to the signaling pathways that promote antiviral transcription,

those that initiate cell death following virus infection remain less understood [46]. To probe

whether ZAP affects cell death during Zika infection in VERO cells, we compared cytopathic

effects (CPE) in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells. We infected VERO-ZAP-WT and

VERO-ZAP-KO in the same way as in the RNA-seq experiment with an MOI 1 of Zika virus. At

24 h, VERO-ZAP-KO cells did not show visible CPE (**Fig S2**). In contrast, VERO-ZAP-WT

cells showed prominent CPE at 24 h—diffuse focies of detached cells (**Fig S2**). At 30 h, the

difference was prominent, CPE in VERO-ZAP-WT aggravated to diffuse cell detachment, but

VERO-ZAP-KO cells did not display visible CPE until 48 h post-infection (**Fig S2**). At 48 h and

72 h, both cell lines had similar diffused cell detachment; however, continuous cell monolayers

were mostly preserved. This CPE pattern aggravated at 96 h, where VERO-ZAP-WT had a lot of

dead cells but still maintained preserved monolayer, and VERO-ZAP-KO had many dead cells

with many spots of disrupted monolayer. At 120 h, the monolayers were mostly disrupted in both

cell lines. This difference in CPE progression in wild-type and ZAP-KO cells suggests a role for

ZAP in modulating cell death during Zika virus infection.

Taken together, the viral RNA loads, RNA-seq data, and cell death patterns support our

hypothesis that a more robust, potentially ZAP-mediated, antiviral response in VERO-ZAP-WT

cells compared to VERO-ZAP-KO cells (**Figs 3, 4; Fig S1**) more effectively controls Zika virus

infection (**Fig 1B**) but leads to heightened cell death during early infection (24-48 hours; **Fig S2**).

As infection progresses (**72-96 hours**), immune responses in ZAP-WT cells continue controlling

Zika virus infection (**Fig 1B**), while the less controlled infection in ZAP-KO cells (**Fig 1B**)

contributes to more extensive cell lysis (**Fig S2**). Further studies are needed to validate this

hypothesis and gain a better understanding of the molecular interplay between ZAP-mediated

antiviral responses and cell death.

DISCUSSION

The zinc finger CCCH-type antiviral protein 1 is an interferon (IFN)-stimulated gene (ISG) [1-

5]. Also, there are conflicting studies regarding the capacity of ZAP to enhance the type I IFN

antiviral response [5,48-50]. Here, we found that during Zika infection, endogenous ZAP was

associated with amplification of global transcriptional antiviral and immune responses in VERO

cells which are deficient in IFN-α/β [4,51]. We do not know yet how these type I IFN-

independent antiviral cellular responses associated with endogenous ZAP work. ZAP knockout

also considerably impacted global gene expression in uninfected cells; however, GO processes

related to antiviral, immune, and apoptosis events were not identified suggesting the specificity

of findings in Zika-infected cells.

Our study is confined to a single VERO-ZAP-KO clone, and conducting additional tests using

multiple clones could yield further insights. Such an endeavor falls beyond the scope of this

study; however, our RNA-seq results find indirect support from previous research conducted on

different uninfected wild-type and ZAP-KO cell lines. Specifically, global gene expression

analysis with Agilent microarrays revealed 1,065 upregulated and 776 downregulated transcripts

in uninfected wild-type and ZAP-KO HeLa cells [43]. Another study using RNA-seq identified a

number of DEGs between uninfected ZAP-WT and ZAP-KO A549 cells [52]. In the most recent

study, the authors demonstrated that ZAP influences hundreds of transcripts in ZAP-WT and

ZAP-KO HEK cells [53]. Directly comparing the DEGs between our study and the above studies

poses challenges due to variations in cell types, origins, and the employed comparative

bioinformatics strategies. Nonetheless, the overarching trend in all previous studies strongly

corroborates significant transcriptional differences between non-infected ZAP-WT and ZAP-KO

VERO cells (**Fig 2A; Tables S2A-D**).

The above studies did not use virus infection for RNA-seq comparison between ZAP-WT and

ZAP-KO cells. Thus, our study provides the first high-throughput dataset highlighting the impact

of ZAP on global gene expression during virus infection. During submission of this manuscript,

a study indirectly supporting our findings was published [53]. The authors used RNA-seq in

ZAP-WT and ZAP-KO HEK cells transfected with viral mimetic RNA oligos and mock

transfection to normalize DEGs. From this study, we used the top 16 innate immune response

genes (**Table S2M**) overexpressed in ZAP-WT HEK cells as compared to ZAP-KO for

comparative purposes. At 24 h, two genes in this HEK list (**Table S2M**)—IFIT1 and ISG15—

were upregulated in Zika virus-infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells as compared to mock control

VRO-ZAP-WT cells (**Table S2E;** highlighted). In contrast, no genes from the HEK list were

affected in Zika virus-infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells (**Table S2I**). At 72 h, eight-nine innate

immune response genes in the list (**Table S2M**) were upregulated in both Zika virus-infected

VEO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells (**Table S2F, J**); but comparison at 72 h is not

sufficiently informative because previous HEK study was only conducted at 24 h after

transfection. Nonetheless, this pattern of ZAP-dependent affected genes, where ZAP-WT cells

show innate immune responses earlier than ZAP-KO cells, is in accordance with our GO analysis

(**Figs 3, 4**).

We do not see a complete match between the previous HEK (**Table S2M**) and our VERO

dataset; not all genes identified as upregulated in transfected ZAP-WT HEK cells were

significantly upregulated in infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells (**Table S2E, I, F, J**). This

discrepancy may be explained by the type I IFN competency of HEK cells and the deficiency of

VERO cells. Nonetheless, two important innate immune genes—IFIT1 and ISG15—were

upregulated in transfected or infected ZAP-WT cells in both studies, suggesting their ZAP-

mediated augmentation in the absence of the type I IFN system. Potential type I IFN-independent

and -dependent interactions between ZAP and IFIT1 are of particular interest because ZAP and

IFIT1 together have recently been identified to constitute the majority of IFN-mediated

restriction of alphavirus, specifically Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus [26].

The previous ZAP study showed JEV sensitivity to ectopic ZAP, and insensitivity of Zika virus

[7]. The discrepancy between previous and present studies may be explained by different

experimental approaches. The previous study involved the overexpression of ectopic ZAP in

ZAP-positive cells [7], whereas our study compared Zika RNA loads between ZAP-WT and

ZAP-KO cells. Additionally, different cell lines were used: A549 cells from human cancer lung

tissue in the previous study [7], and VERO cells from a healthy monkey in our study. Antiviral

signaling can vary significantly between different cell types [2,56]. Another potential factor is

that human cells were used previously, and here we used the cell line derived from a healthy

adult African green monkey—a possible natural reservoir host of Zika virus [57]. Moreover,

while the previous study used 10-hour and 24-hour sampling times, we conducted RT-qPCR and

RNA-seq at 24 h and 72 h after Zika infection, revealing delayed effects, indicative of indirect

ZAP-mediated antiviral activity.

CONCLUSIONS

Altogether, our preliminary study underscores the importance of ZAP in augmenting cellular

responses against Zika virus even in the absence of the robust type I IFN system. Further

investigations are warranted to elucidate the mechanisms underlying these type I IFN-

independent antiviral cellular responses mediated by ZAP. The considerable augmentation of

antiviral responses by endogenous ZAP against Zika virus highlights its potential as a therapeutic

target. However, comprehensive studies are required to fully understand the intricacies of ZAP-

mediated antiviral activity and its implications for combating Zika virus infection.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Raw RNA-seq files are deposited to NCBI BioProject (PRJNA1101086).

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig 1. Infection phenotypes of Zika virus in wild-type (VERO-ZAP-WT) and ZAP knockout (VERO-ZAP-KO) cells. (**A**) ZAP western blot. KO status was also confirmed by Sanger sequencing. (**B**) Reduced intracellular Zika virus RNA in VERO-ZAP-WT cells at 24 h and 72 h, MOI 1. Determined by the Zika-specific RT-qPCR assay. All mock-infected samples were negative in Zika-specific RT-qPCR. Statistics—an unpaired t-test.

Fig 2. Cellular transcriptional gene responses during Zika virus infection. (**A**) Mock-infected
ZAP-WT versus VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: WT/KO. (**B**) Mock-infected versus
Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. (**C**)
Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-
infected/Mock-infected. Plots of the upregulated (red) and downregulated (blue) genes. **FDR**: The
false discovery rate. Genes with FDR < 0.05 and log2 fold change (FC) > 1 were significantly
affected. The top 10 affected genes associated with innate immune response or apoptosis are
shown. Raw data are in **Tables S2A, B, E, F, I, J**.

Fig 3. Biological "viral" processes affected in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells at 24 h and 72 h after Zika virus infection. (**A**) Mock-infected ZAP-WT versus VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: WT/KO. (**B**) Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. (**C**) Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. Red bars–upregulated processes. Blue bars–downregulated processes. **FDR**: The false discovery rate. Raw data are in **Tables S2C, D, G, H, K, L**.

Fig 4. Biological "immune*" processes affected in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells at 24 h and 72 h after Zika virus infection. (**A**) Mock-infected ZAP-WT versus VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: WT/KO. (**B**) Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. (**C**) Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. Red bars–upregulated processes. Blue bars– downregulated processes. **FDR**: The false discovery rate. Raw data are in **Tables S2C, D, G, H, K, L**.

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

A

B

C

Fig S1. Biological "apoptosis" processes affected in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells at 24 h and 72 h after Zika virus infection. (**A**) Mock-infected ZAP-WT versus VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: WT/KO. (**B**) Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. (**C**) Mock-infected versus Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO cells. Direction of analysis: Zika-infected/Mock-infected. Red bars–upregulated processes. Blue bars- downregulated processes. **FDR**: The false discovery rate. Raw data are in **Tables S2C, D, G, H, K, L**.

Fig S2. Cytopathic effect patterns during Zika virus infection in VERO-ZAP-WT and VERO-ZAP-KO cells, MOI 1. Arrows show diffuse small focies of detached cells. The experiment was done in three replicates for each cell line. Images represent the typical pattern in all replicates.

Table S1 Raw RNAseq data (DEGs).

Table S2 Significantly affected DEGs and GO processes.

A

Mock-infected VERO-ZAP-WT vs. VERO-ZAP-KO, 24h

Mock-infected VERO-ZAP-WT vs. VERO-ZAP-KO, 72h

B

Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT, 24h

Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT, 72h

C

Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO, 24h

Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO, 72h

A

Immune
Mock-infected VERO-ZAP-WT vs. VERO-ZAP-KO, 24h

Immune
Mock-infected VERO-ZAP-WT vs. VERO-ZAP-KO, 72h

B

Immune
Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT, 24h

Immune
Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-WT, 72h

C

Immune
Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO, 24h

Immune
Mock-infected vs. Zika-infected VERO-ZAP-KO, 72h