A Peptide Derived from Sorting Nexin 1 Inhibits HPV16 Entry, Retrograde Trafficking, and L2 Membrane Spanning

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Abstract

High risk human papillomavirus (HPV) infection is responsible for 99% of cervical
cancers and 5% of all human cancers worldwide. HPV infection requires the viral
genome (vDNA) to gain access to nuclei of basal keratinocytes of epithelium. After
virion endocytosis, the minor capsid protein L2 dictates the subcellular retrograde
trafficking and nuclear localization of the vDNA during mitosis. Prior work identified a
cell-permeable peptide termed SNX1.3, derived from the BAR domain of sorting nexin 1
(SNX1), that potently blocks the retrograde and nuclear trafficking of EGFR in triple
negative breast cancer cells. Given the importance of EGFR and retrograde trafficking
pathways in HPV16 infection, we set forth to study the effects of SNX1.3 within this
context. SNX1.3 inhibited HPV16 infection by both delaying virion endocytosis, as well
as potently blocking virion retrograde trafficking and Golgi localization. SNX1.3 had no
effect on cell proliferation, nor did it affect post-Golgi trafficking of HPV16. Looking more
directly at L2 function, SNX1.3 was found to impair membrane spanning of the minor
capsid protein. Future work will focus on mechanistic studies of SNX1.3 inhibition, and
the role of EGFR signaling and SNX1- mediated endosomal tubulation, cargo sorting,
and retrograde trafficking in HPV infection.

Introduction

Human papillomaviruses (HPV) are among the most common sexually transmitted
pathogens in the United States [1]. More than 220 HPV types have been identified and
annotated, with reference genomes available in the PaVE database [2]. Within the
genus *Alphapapillomavirus* there are 14 high-risk HPV types, of which HPV16 and
HPV18 are the most prevalent [3]. High-risk HPV is responsible for 99% of cervical
cancer and just under 5% of all human cancers worldwide [4,5]. HPV16 is alone
responsible for roughly 50% of all cervical cancers in women and ~90% of the HPV-
associated oropharyngeal cancers, mostly in men [4,6]. The nonavalent Gardasil-9
vaccine targets high-risk HPV16, HPV18, HPV31, HPV33, HPV45, HPV52, HPV58, and
low risk HPV6 and HPV11, but it does not cover all the high-risk HPV types and the high
cost prevents people in the low-income region to get access to the vaccine [4,7,8].

HPVs are small non-enveloped DNA viruses, with 72 disulfide-linked pentamers of major capsid protein L1 forming the icosahedral capsid [9]. Variable copies but less than 72 molecules (typically 20-40 molecules) of minor capsid protein L2 are incorporated within the viral particle, complexed with the ~8kb circular double-stranded viral DNA genome (vDNA) [10,11]. Although only a minor component of the virion, L2 plays an essential role in transporting the vDNA to the host cell nucleus during infection [12].

Successful infection requires HPV16 to gain access to the extracellular matrix (ECM)-rich basement membrane and basal keratinocytes of the differentiated epithelium [13]. At the cellular level, the initial attachment of the HPV16 to keratinocytes is via cell surface and ECM-localized heparin sulfate proteoglycans (HSPGs) [14,15]. Laminin-332 within the ECM has also been identified as an attachment molecule [16,17]. HSPG binding and extracellular furin- and kallikrein- dependent cleavage of the capsid proteins triggers conformational changes within the virion, allow it to engage a secondary entry complex [18–20]. Despite extensive study, the precise nature and composition of this entry complex remains obscure, but it likely contains growth factor receptor tyrosine kinases, integrins, tetraspanins, and annexin A2 [21–23]. Due in part to the time required for entry receptor complex assembly and capsid priming, HPV16 is asynchronously endocytosed by the host cell via macropinocytosis-like mechanisms, which are actin dependent but clathrin- and lipid raft-independent [18,24]. These uptake mechanisms are dependent upon signaling cascades initiated by receptor kinases such as EGFR and Abl2; bursts of EGFR signaling lead to activation of ERK and induction of pit formation while Abl2 kinase regulates maturation of endocytic pits during viral uptake [25]. Efficient trafficking of HPV16 also requires the inhibition of autophagy achieved via another EGFR signaling cascade that the virus uses to prime the cell for viral uptake [26,27]. Downstream of EGFR in this signaling cascade is the phosphoinositol 3-kinase/Akt/mTOR pathway, which can halt autophagy in the cell from activation by HPV16 [27]. EGFR has been known as one of the most important growth factor receptors in HPV entry and has had its role expanded and understood further in recent years [28].

Internalized virions traffic to the endosomal compartment, where the acidic environment in the endosome triggers the further disassembly of the viral capsid allowing for exposure of the L2/vDNA complex [29]. Meanwhile, the γ-secretase protease complex promotes membrane insertion of L2, to allow for spanning and protrusion of L2 through the vesicular membrane [30,31] via an N-terminal transmembrane domain [32]. Stable membrane spanning of L2 results in the cytosolic exposure of the C-terminal ~400 residues containing binding regions for cellular cargo sorting factors including SNX17, SNX27, and the heterotrimeric retromer complex [33–37]. Binding of these cytosolic factors to the cytosolic portion of transmembrane L2 facilitates efficient retrograde transport of the vesicle-bound vDNA to the *trans*-Golgi network [38], an obligate step of infection. Post-Golgi trafficking requires the onset of mitosis [39,40]. During this process, L2's chromosome-binding domain tethers the vDNA to host chromosomes to achieve nuclear delivery of L2/vDNA upon onset of the next G1 phase [41]. After mitosis, L2/vDNA recruits PML body components for efficient viral gene expression within the basal keratinocytes [42–44]. Once initial infection is established, episomal HPV16 vDNA will remain within these at a low copy number [13,45]. As the infected basal cells differentiate, expression of early viral genes, vDNA amplification, expression of late viral genes L1 and L2, and virion packaging and assembly will be coordinately achieved [46].

Retrograde trafficking of internalized L2/vDNA is a required step for HPV infection. The SNX-BAR subfamily of sorting nexins are key players in endocytosis, endosomal sorting, and vesicle trafficking. This family includes SNX1, SNX2, SNX4, SNX5, SNX6, SNX7, SNX8, SNX9, SNX18, SNX30, SNX32 and SNX33 [47]. A subgroup of the SNX-BAR family members, comprising SNX1, SNX2, SNX5, and SNX6 support sorting and retrograde transport of cargo from endosomes to the the Golgi [47,48]. SNX-BAR family proteins contain two major domains; the N-terminal PX domain that bind to specific phosphatidylinositol lipids in cellular membranes and a curved BAR domain that promotes protein-protein interactions and membrane remodeling [47,49]. Structurally, the curved BAR domains can form homo- and heterodimers with other SNX-BAR proteins to augment PX domain-dependent binding of the SNX-BAR protein to curved membranes, thereby supporting the tubulation of vesicles and the sorting of cargo into

these tubules for transport. Overexpression of SNX1 can result in BAR domain-dependent bending and extensive tubulation of endosomal membranes. In certain contexts, overexpression of SNX1 also promotes the interaction between the SNX1 BAR domain and EGFR, causing lysosomal degradation of the EGFR, a receptor that has been shown important for HPV infection [50,51]. SNX2, which has a different vesicular distribution pattern than SNX1, and less association with retromer compared with SNX1, has also been shown to promote tubulation and regulate EGFR lysosomal sorting [48,51,52]. Recent studies with cells genetically devoid of retromer components Vps35 and Vps29 have revealed direct binding and sorting of specific cargo receptors by SNX1/5 and SNX2/6 heterodimers, independently of the retromer complex [53–55]. These complexes, which facilitate tubular-based endosomal sorting of specific transmembrane cargo proteins, have been termed "ESCPE-1" and are comprised of SNX1/5 and SNX2/6 heterodimers [53,56].

Recently our colleagues [57] described a peptide therapeutic that kills epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)-dependent triple negative breast cancer cells (TNBC) *in vitro* and in mouse models. The peptide is named SNX1.3 and works by potently inhibiting the retrograde nuclear trafficking of EGFR, a pathway crucial for TNBC survival [57]. The peptide is derived from residues 490-515 of the BAR domain of SNX1 (Fig 1A) and is fused to a TAT-derived cell penetrating peptide called PTD4 [58] for efficient cellular uptake. This alpha helical region of SNX1 lies at the interface of SNX1 BAR domain homo- and heterodimers (Fig 1A) and is known to directly bind to the EGFR kinase domain to alter signaling, trafficking and degradation [51,57]. Given that SNX1 is involved in retrograde trafficking of EGFR and other receptor cargos, and that the SNX1.3 peptide alters EGFR retrograde trafficking in TNBC cells [57], and the role of EGFR in HPV16 infection, we sought to determine the effects of SNX1.3 on HPV infection and trafficking.

Here, we observed strong and specific inhibition of HPV infection in multiple cell types treated with SNX1.3 peptide. Unlike nuclear EGFR-dependent TNBC, SNX1.3 does not affect keratinocyte viability or proliferation. Analysis of subcellular HPV trafficking suggests SNX1.3 treatment delayed viral entry and caused a strong defect in viral

retrograde trafficking, attributable to the inhibition of L2 membrane spanning. These

data suggest a multi-step inhibition of the HPV infection by SNX1.3 peptide and

underscore the need for further mechanistic studies on interactions of the SNX1.3

peptide with cellular targets and studies of SNX-BAR proteins in both viral endocytosis

and retrograde sorting/trafficking.

Materials and Methods.

Tissue culture.

Immortalized human HaCaT keratinocytes [46] and murine K38 keratinocytes [59] were

cultured in high glucose DMEM media (GIBCO 11965-092) supplied with penicillin and

streptomycin (GIBCO 15140-122) and 10% fetal bovine serum (GIBCO A3160602).

HaCaT GFP-BAP cells, which stably express cytosolic GFP-BAP [40], were cultured in

the the parental HaCaT media supplemented with 0.2ug/ml of puromycin (Corning 61-

385-RA) to maintain GFP-BAP expression. 293TT cells were used for generating

HPV16 pseudoviruss were cultured in high-glucose DMEM media supplied with 10%

bovine growth serum (BGS, HyClone SH30541.03) and 165ug/ml hygromycin B

(Invitrogen 10687010) for selection. All cell lines were cultured in 5% CO_2 tissue culture

incubator at 37°C. Cells were passaged when their confluence was around 80-90%.

0.05% trypsin-EDTA (GIBCO® 25300-054) was used for trypsinizing the cells. For cell

counting 10μl 1:1 mixed suspended cells and trypan blue solution, 0.4% (w/v) in PBS

(Corning 25-900-CI) were applied to a hemocytometer for manual cell counting.

Peptides.

All peptides used in this project were generated by GenScript. Peptide stocks were

dissolved in ultrapure water at 1mM final concentration. The sequences are as follows;

PTD4: YARAAARQARA-acid, SNX1.3:

YARAAARQARAKNHVIKYLETLLYSQQQLAKYWEAFL-acid, SNX2.1:

YARAAARQARAKTVIIKYLESLVQTQQQLIKYWEAFL-acid.

HPV16 PsVs production

293TT cells were cultured in 10cm dishes. At the confluence around 50%, cells were
co-transfected with 15ug/plate of pGL3, a luciferase-expressing plasmid with SV40
origin of replication, and 15ug/plate of pXuLL-based plasmids (which express HPV16 L1
and L2) using $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ transfection methods. The L2 packaged within these preps are
L2-3xFTHA, an HA-tagged form of L2 (L2-HA) previously shown to be infectious [60].
Plasmids were diluted into ultrapure water and 2M $CaCl_2$ solution, then mixed with
2xHBS (HEPES, buffered saline, 50mM HEPES, 280mM NaCl, 1.5mM Na_2PO_4)) to
generate DNA- $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ crystal solution. Then it was incubated at room temperature
for 30m and added to the cells with gentle mixing. Fresh DMEM media containing 10%
BGS was changed the morning after transfection. 293TT cells were harvested at 48h
post-transfection. Cells were resuspended in PBS supplied with 9.5mM $MgCl_2$. and
lysed by 0.35% detergent Brij58. $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, pH=9.0 was added to 25mM to provide a
basic environment to promote L1 disulfide formation and viral capsid maturation [61].
Benzonase nuclease (Sigma E1014) was added to 0.3% final concentration and
Plasmid-Safe ATP-dependent DNase (Epicentre E3105K) was added to 20 U/ml final
concentration to digest any free unpackaged DNA. Lysates were incubated at 37°C, 5%
CO_2 in the tissue culture incubators for 20h, then ice chilled samples were
supplemented with 0.17 volume of 5M NaCl. Lysates were frozen and thawed at -80°C
and 37°C to further lyse the cell nuclei and release the viral particles. The samples were
centrifuged at 4°C at 10,000 x g for 10m. Pellets from this spin were resuspended in
viral storage buffer (VSB, 25mM HEPES with 500mM NaCl and 1mM MgCl2, pH=7.5),
and spun again. The two supernatants were pooled and loaded onto the top of the CsCl
gradient made by 4ml heavy (1.4g/ml, in VSB) CsCl and 4ml light (1.25g/ml, in VSB)
CsCl. Samples were centrifuged at 49,400 x g at 16°C for 18h by using Beckman SW41
Ti rotor/buckets. A visible, blueish-colored viral band appeared near the interface
between light and heavy CsCl after centrifugation. 18-gauge needles and 3ml syringes
were used for puncturing the side of the centrifuge tube to collect viral bands. 100 kDa
MWCO vivaspin concentrator units (Sartorius VS04T42) equilibrated with VSB were

used for washing and purifying the collected virus band. After the final wash, the virus
was concentrated to 100-200ul and transferred into siliconized tubes for storage at -
80°C. OD_{260} of DNA concentration of purified virus were measured by
spectrophotometer to calculate the concentration of physical viral particles. As HPV16
does not have a specific vDNA packaging signal, the content of the pGL3 in the purified
viruses was measured by SYBR green qPCR (Thermo Fisher K0252). The serial
dilution of the standard curve was used to determine the amount of pGL3 in virus
samples, the primers qLuc2-A (ACGATTTTGTGCCAGAGTCC), and qLuc2-B
(TATGAGGCAGAGCGACACC) were used for amplifying a portion of the firefly
luciferase gene on pGL3. Once the pGL3 concentration was measured, the
capsid/pGL3 ratios were determined. Physical titers (viral particles, or ng L1/unit
volume) were used for all experiments looking at intracellular levels of virus while pGL3
titers (pGL3 molecules/unit volume) were used for all infection experiments.

Cell proliferation and cytotoxicity assays.

For growth curve assay, 25,000 HaCaTs were seeded in 6 well plates along with 10μM
of peptide (PTD4 or SNX1.3) or water control, then after 24h, 48h, and 72h, cells from
each group were trypsinized and manually counted using a hemacytometer. For WST-1
assay, HaCaTs were plated at 6,000 cells/well in 96 well plates, in 100μl DMEM
supplied with 10% FBS. Once the cells were attached to the bottom, 10μM, 5μM,2.5μM
peptides were added to the cell cultures. Cells were incubated at 37°C and 5% CO_2 in
the presence of 2.5μM, 5μM, and 10μM peptides for 48h. Then, 10μl /well cell
proliferation reagent WST-1 (Roche 05015944001) was added, and cells were
incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2 for another 4h. Plates were thoroughly shaken for 1m, and
the absorbance of formazan product was measured using a DTX800 Multimode plate
reader (Beckman Coulter) at 450nm. The cell-free media only group served as the
negative control for background subtraction.

HPV16 PsV infection assay

50,000 cells/well HaCaTs, HaCaT-GFP-BAP, mouse keratinocyte K38 or 80,000

cells/well 293TT cells were seeded in 24 well plates the day before infection. Cells were

infected with HPV16 at $2x10^8$ viral genome equivalents (pGL3 copies) per well under

the presence of 2.5μM, 5μM, and 10μM peptide. At 24h post-infection, cells were lysed

in 100μl reporter lysis buffer (RLB, Promega E397A). 100μl luciferase assay reagent

(Promega E1483) was added into 20μl cell lysate and luciferase activity was measured

using a DTX800 Multimode plate reader (Beckman Coulter). Western blots and GAPDH

immunostaining were performed by using the remaining lysate. GAPDH bands were

quantified by densitometry using ImageJ software [62] and used to normalize the

luciferase data.

SDS-PAGE and western blotting

For denaturing/reducing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE), samples were

lysed in RIPA lysis buffer (50mM Tris-HCl pH = 8.0, 150mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100,

0.5% Na-deoxycholate, 0.5% SDS, supplemented with 1% PMSF (Sigma 78830) and

1% protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma P8340), combined with 20% total volume of

denaturing/reducing SDS-PAGE buffer. Samples were then heated to 95°C for 5

minutes before separation on 10% or 12.5% polyacrylamide gels and run at 110V in

TGS running buffer (25mM Tris, 192mM glycine, 0.1% SDS, pH=8.6). Samples were

transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes under 300mA for 75m by using western

transfer buffer (25mM Tris, 192mM glycine) supplemented with 10% methanol.

Nitrocellulose membranes were then blocked with 5% non-fat milk in TBST (20mM Tris,

150mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween-20, pH = 7.5) at 4°C overnight. For the

denaturing/nonreducing PAGE, samples lysed by RIPA lysis buffer supplemented with

1% PMSF, 1% proteinase inhibitor, and 2mM N-ethylmaleimide (NEM, Sigma E1271)

were mixed with 20% total volume of denaturing /non-reducing SDS-PAGE buffer and

then incubated at room temperature for 10m before PAGE gel separation. RLB lysed

samples were added with 20% total volume of denaturing/reducing SDS-PAGE buffer

and incubated at 95°C for 5 mins before SDS-PAGE separation. For translocation

experiments, after the transfer step, Nitrocellulose membranes were blocked in

Odyssey Blocking Buffer PBS (LI-COR) at 4°C overnight. Antibodies used in western

blot are listed in table 2. Blots were imaged on the Licor Odyssey Infrared Imaging

System.

Immunofluorescence staining and confocal microscopy.

100,000 cells/well HaCaTs cells were plated on glass coverslips in 6 well plates. Cells

were infected with $1\mu g$ L1/ml of wt HPV16 PsVs with either $10\mu M$ PTD4 or SNX1.3

peptide. For some experiments, NH_4Cl was added to the infected cells to final

concentration of 20mM. For Golgi trafficking experiments, aphidicolin (Santa Cruz

38966-21-1) was added to a final concentration of $6\mu M$. At 2h, 4h, 18h, or 24h post-

infection, cells were washed with high pH PBS (pH=10.6-10.8) for 2.5m to remove all

the surface-bound viruses, then fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde (pH = 7.2-7.4, Fisher

Scientific 30525-89-4) for 15m, permeabilized by 0.25% Triton X-100 (Fisher Scientific

9002-93-1) for 10m and blocked overnight by using blocking solution (PBS plus 4%

bovine serum albumin, fraction V, Fisher Scientific 9002-46-8, supplemented with 1%

goat serum). Cells were incubated with primary antibody at room temperature for 1h,

followed by 1h room temperature incubation of secondary antibody. All antibodies were

prepared in PBS containing 20% blocking solution. Prolong diamond anti-fade mounting

medium with DAPI (Life Technologies P36971) were used for mounting coverslips to the

glass slide. Confocal microscopy was performed by the Zeiss LSM880 system with

405nm, 488nm, and 543nm lasers. Samples were examined using a 63x objective, and

Z-stacks with a 0.35µm depth per plane were taken of each image. Images were

processed with Zen Blue software and ImageJ software. The Manders' overlap

coefficients were determined using the JACoP plugin on ImageJ under the thresholds

that were manually set below saturation [62]. The data were plotted with GraphPad

Prism v10 software. Antibodies used in immunofluorescence are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Antibodies used in this work.

Antibody target and company	Species	Applications	Dilution	Working solution
GAPDH (Cell Signaling 2118S)	rabbit	WB	1:5,000	5% milk in TBST
HPV16 L1 Camvir-1 (Sc-47699)	mouse	WB	1:500	1% milk in TBST
GFP (Clontech 632377)	rabbit	WB	1:5,000	1% milk in TBST
NeutrAvidin Dylight 800-conjugate (Thermo 22853)	n/a	WB	1:10,000	LiCor blocking buffer
Vps35 (Abcam ab157220)	rabbit	WB	1:1000	1% milk in TBST
BAP31 (ThermoFisher MA3-002)	rat	WB	1:800	1% milk in TBST
HA (Roche 11867431001)	rat	IF/WB	1:1000	20% IF blocking buffer in PBS1% milk in TBST
P230 (BD Transduction Laboratories, #611280)	mouse	IF	1:400	20% IF blocking buffer in PBS
CD63 (Sigma SAB4700215)	mouse	IF	1:400	20% IF blocking buffer in PBS
HPV16 L1/L2 capsid (Gift from Dr. Michelle Ozbun)	rabbit	IF	1:1000	20% IF blocking buffer in PBS
TGN46 (Sigma-Aldrich T7576)	rabbit	IF	1:400	20% IF blocking buffer in PBS
LAMP1 (Cell Signaling 9091S)	rabbit	IF	1:400	20% IF blocking buffer in PBS

All IR680- and IR800-conjugated secondary antibodies (Fisher Scientific PI35518,

PISA535521, PI35568, PISA535571) were diluted 1:10,000 in 5% milk in 1X TBST.

All IF secondary antibodies including goat anti-mouse AlexaFluor-555 (Invitrogen

A21424), goat anti-rabbit AlexaFluor-488 (Invitrogen A11034), goat anti-rabbit

AlexaFluor-555 (Invitrogen A21429), goat anti-rat AlexaFluor-555 (Invitrogen A21434)

were prepared in 20% IF blocking buffer in PBS with 1:1,000 dilution.

WB: Western blot

IF: Immunofluorescence staining

Image analysis for entry experiments.

A protocol for measurement of total cell intensity using ImageJ [63] was used to quantify the viral entry micrographs. Micrograph data were imported in ImageJ and the selection tool was used to segment the border of single cells of the maximum intensity composites for measurements. After the cells are segmented, the area, mean gray value, and integrated density values were measured. A background region devoid of cells was selected and analyzed from each field of view as well. Once all the measurements were collected, the corrected total capsid channel fluorescence for each segmented region was calculated as integrated density – (area of selected cell – mean fluorescence of background readings). This process was manually done for all cells in each field of view. The majority of the segmented regions contained a single cell, but several contained doublets of cells that were difficult to individually segment. The corrected total intensity of the capsid signal was then calculated and plotted between PTD4 treated and SNX1.3 treated cells using GraphPad Prism v10.

Viral binding and entry assays.

Cells were chilled on ice for 20m before infecting with 1µg L1/ml of HPV16 under the presence of 10µM of peptide in cold DMEM media supplemented with 10% FBS. Plates were then stayed on the ice for 1h to allow surface binding of the viral particle. For the binding sample, cells were first washed with cold PBS (pH = 7.4) to remove all unbound viruses. Then the control groups were washed with cold high-pH PBS (pH = 10.75) to remove the surface-bound virus. Samples were then collected for non-reducing SDS-PAGE. For the entry sample, after 1h ice incubation viral pre-binding step, cells were washed with cold PBS (pH = 7.4) to remove unbound viral particles, replaced with fresh media, and incubated at 37°C, 5% CO_2. After 2h, cells were washed with high-pH PBS to remove the surface-bound virus, replaced with fresh media, and returned to 37°C, 5% CO_2. Samples were then collected at the indicated times and processed for non-

reducing SDS-PAGE. For some binding entry experiments, 20mM final concentration of

NH$_4$Cl were added to prevent viral degradation.

L2-BirA membrane penetration assay.

60,000 cells/well of HaCaT-GFP-BAP cells were plated in a 24-well plate. Cells were

infected with 150ng L1/well of HPV16 L2-BirA virus with 5μM or 10μM peptides. At 24h

post-infection, samples were processed for reducing SDS-PAGE followed by western

blot to detect total and biotinylated GFP.

Aphidicolin release experiment.

50,000 cells/well of HaCaTs were seeded in 24 well plates. Cells were then infected

with HPV16 at 2x10^8 viral genome equivalents (pGL3 copies) per well under the

presence of 6μM aphidicolin. At 18h post-infection, cells were washed with high pH PBS

(pH=10.6-10.8) for 2.5 mins followed with two washes in regular PBS (pH=7.2-7.4) to

remove all the surface-bound virus and neutralize the pH. Then, fresh culture media

supplied with 6μM aphidicolin was added. After 8h incubation, the aphidicolin was

released by replacing with fresh media.

Subcellular fractionation and alkaline membrane extraction.

2 million HeLa-S3 cells were seeded in a 6cm dish. The following day cells are infected

with 1.25x10^5 virions/cell at 37°C, 5% CO$_2$ for 24h in the presence of 10μM PTD4 or

SNX1.3 and 6μM aphidicolin to prevent viral trafficking beyond the Golgi. At the end of

the infection cells are rinsed with PBS and overlaid with 680μl swelling lysis buffer

(10mM HEPES pH=7.5, 1.5mM MgCl$_2$ hexahydrate, 10mM KCl, 0.5mM DTT, 1x

protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma P8340), 1x PhosStop cocktail (Sigma) on ice for 30m.

Cells were collected by scraping and transferred to a 2ml Dounce homogenizer on ice.

Samples were homogenized with 30 full strokes of pestle B and transferred to microfuge

tubes. At this time, an 80μl aliquot of the sample corresponding to the "T total" fraction

was taken and combined with 20μl SDS-PAGE loading buffer and incubated at 90°C for

7m. The remaining sample was centrifuged at 10,000xg for 10 min at 4°C. Nuclear

pellets were discarded and 550μl the supernatant was transferred to 5x41mm ultra clear

centrifuge tubes (Beckman Coulter 344090). Samples were balanced and centrifuged at

42,000 rpm for 35m at 4°C in a SW55Ti rotor and buckets with tube adaptors (Beckman

REF: 356860). The supernatant was then concentrated to 80μl by spinning through

Amicon 3kDa MWCO concentrator units at 14,000xg for 15-30m at 4°C. These "S1

cytosol" fractions were then combined with 20μl SDS-PAGE loading buffer and heated

to 90°C for 7m. The pellets were gently rinsed (not resuspended) with 600μl HN buffer

(50mM HEPES pH=7.5, 150mM NaCl) and centrifuged again at 42,000 rpm for 35m at

4°C. The supernatant is discarded and the pellet from this step is rinsed and

resuspended in 50μl alkali buffer #1 (10mM Tris-HCl pH=7.5, 150mM NaCl, 2mM

MgCl2 hexahydrate, 5mM DTT) for 15m on ice, at which time 500μl alkali buffer #2 (100

mM Na_2CO_3 pH=11.7, freshly prepared) and samples are incubated for 30m on ice.

Samples were then spun at 42,000 rpm for 35m at 4°C to pellet the membranes.

Supernatants were collected and concentrated to 80μl by spinning through Amicon

3kDa MWCO concentrator units at 14,000xg for 15-30m at 4°C. These "S2 luminal and

peripheral proteins" were then mixed with 20μl SDS-PAGE loading buffer and heated to

90°C for 7m. Membrane pellets were rinsed with 600μl HN buffer and spun again at

42,000 rpm for 35m at 4°C. Supernatant was carefully removed and discarded, and

these final "P membrane" fractions were dissolved in 50μl SDS-PAGE loading buffer

and heated to 90°C for 7m. All fractions (T, S1, S2, P) were analyzed by SDS-PAGE

and western blotting for HA (L2), Vps35 (cytosolic retromer), and BAP31 (ER

membrane), as described above.

Structural modeling, sequence alignment, and STRING analysis.

The SNX1/SNX5 heterodimer (PDB 8AFZ) was rendered with PyMol [64], highlighting

the portion of SNX1 corresponding to the SNX1.3 peptide in red. The full structure is the

ESCPE-1 membrane coat [56], which contains a portion of the cation-independent

mannose phosphate receptor (CI-M6PR) in complex with the SNX1/SNX5 heterodimer.

The CI-M6PR density was removed for clarity. MacVector software was used for

sequence alignment of SNX1.3 and SNX2.1 peptides, using the ClustalW algorithm

[65]. STRING interaction network analysis was performed using STRING version 12.0

[66] webserver: [67]. "SNX1", "SNX2", and "EGFR" were used as the input queries.

Results.

SNX1.3 blocks HPV16 infection in multiple cell lines.

Infection experiments were performed using HPV16 pseudovirus encapsidating a firefly

luciferase reporter plasmid as described in *Materials and Methods*. SNX1.3 or control

PTD4 peptides were added at the time of infection and luciferase was assayed 24h post

infection. SNX1.3 treatment resulted in a dose-dependent inhibition of HPV16 infection

of HaCaT, 293TT, and murine K38 keratinocytes, whereas PTD4 control peptide had no

significant effects (Fig 1A, B). Calculated IC_{50} values were 3.8μM for 293TT, 2.6μM for

HaCaT, and 2.9μM for K38 keratinocytes (Fig 1C). Nearly two logs of inhibition were

observed at the 10μM dose in all three cell lines (Fig 1B, C). Mitosis is a requirement for

HPV16 infection [68], and 10μM SNX1.3 peptide was cytotoxic to triple negative breast

cancer cells [57], so it is important to determine if the peptide affects cell proliferation or

viability over these timeframes. 10μM PTD4 and SNX1.3 had only minor effects on cell

proliferation, extending the calculated doubling time of HaCaT cells from 24.7h hours to

25.8h and 28.2h respectively, as determined from exponential growth curve fitting of

total cell counts after 72h of continuous culture in the presence of peptides (Fig 1D).

The differences in cell proliferation were particularly minimal in the first 24h of growth,

the timeframe used for most experiments in this work. No significant differences in total

cell count were observed between the groups at any timepoint as determined by 2-way

ANOVA. SNX1.3 had no evidence of cytotoxicity compared to PTD4, as measured by

WST-1 assay (Fig 1E). Taken together, the data show that SNX1.3 effectively blocks

HPV16 pseudovirus infection in multiple cell types, and that this inhibition is not simply

due to general cytotoxicity or a block of mitosis.

SNX1.3 peptide delays HPV16 entry.

To understand SNX1.3 inhibition of HPV16 we began with binding and entry assays.

For binding assays HaCaT cells were chilled to 4°C and incubated with virus for 1h in

the presence of PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptides. Unbound virus was washed away with PBS

and some samples were treated with a high pH PBS buffer (pH = 10.75) to remove

bound virions [24]. Cells underwent additional PBS rinses and proteins were extracted

for non-reducing SDS-PAGE. Bound virions were detected by western blot for the

disulfide-bonded dimeric and trimeric forms of the major capsid protein L1. Figure 2A is

a representative blot, with quantified data including additional biological replicates

shown in Figure 2B. The data clearly shows that SNX1.3 has no significant impact on

virion binding and that high pH washing removes nearly all the surface bound virus,

which is important for the entry assays described below.

Next, we investigated the effects of SNX1.3 on viral endocytosis. In our initial

experiments, virions were prebound to HaCaT cells followed by a shift to 37°C for 3h, to

allow viral entry. After the 3h incubation, extracellular virus was cleared by high pH PBS

wash, and samples were either processed for non-reducing SDS-PAGE or given fresh

media and returned to 37°C for another 3h before processing for SDS-PAGE. Upon

return to 37°C, this "3h wave" of incoming virus will continue trafficking through the

endolysosomal pathway. As the virus traffics, L1 is cleaved by acid-dependent

endosomal proteases, resulting in the appearance of smaller degradation products

[19,69,70]. The data show lower levels of both intact L1 and degraded L1 upon

treatment with SNX1.3 compared to PTD4 (Supplemental Fig 1). Steady state levels of

intracellular L1 depend on both the rates of virion uptake and the rates of virion

degradation. Therefore, the observed differences in steady state L1 levels caused by

SNX1.3 could either be a result of slower uptake or accelerated degradation.

To differentiate between these two possibilities, and provide a means of obtaining more

quantitative data, we chose to eliminate the endo/lysosomal degradation of virions by

addition of NH_4Cl to the culture, which acts to buffer against endosomal acidification to

prevent activation of endosomal proteases [19,71]. To address the kinetics of viral

uptake, infections were done over a 6h time course in the presence of NH_4Cl. A high pH

wash was done at the end of each infection to measure only the intracellular virions at

the indicated times. The data show potent inhibition of HPV16 entry at 2h by SNX1.3

compared to PTD4 (Fig 3A, B). The lack of degraded L1 indicate show that the NH_4Cl

treatment was effective (Fig 3A) allowing us to measure cumulative entry. Over time,

the internalized virus increased steadily for both the PTD4 and SNX1.3 groups (Fig 3B).

Plotting the best fit linear regression of the data revealed nearly identical slopes (Fig

3C), indicating that SNX1.3 treatment substantially blunted early entry, but over time

virions enter at the same rate as the PTD4 group. The net result appears to be a delay

in viral uptake.

To confirm this phenotype, we performed immunofluorescence experiments, directly

visualizing intracellular virions by confocal microscopy. Cells were infected in the

presence of NH_4Cl and either PTD4 or SNX1.3 for 2h, 4h, or 18h prior to removal of

surface virus with high pH PBS, additional washing, fixation, and immunofluorescent

staining for the capsid and the endolysosomal markers CD63 or LAMP1. The

representative micrographs again show relatively poor uptake of virions in the presence

of SNX1.3 at early time points, but eventually the intracellular levels of capsid within

SNX1.3 treated cells become equivalent to those of the PTD4 treated group

(Supplemental Fig 2A). The micrographs also show that intracellular viruses are

colocalizing with endolysosomal markers in both groups, although the colocalization

with LAMP1 at 18h appears to be altered upon SNX1.3 treatment, perhaps suggestive

of altered trafficking. Quantification and normalization of the intracellular capsid signal to

cell number confirm the initial delay of viral uptake in the SNX1.3 treated groups

(Supplemental Fig 2B,C,D). Over time, the average intracellular levels of HPV16 virion

in the SNX1.3 treated group reach and even slightly surpass those of the PTD4 treated

group (Supplemental Fig 2D). The fact that SNX1.3 causes such a profound inhibition of

HPV16 infection suggests that SNX1.3 must be causing a secondary block to

subcellular viral trafficking, downstream of entry. Moving forward, we decided to focus

on this aspect of SNX1.3 activity.

Late mitotic trafficking and limiting membrane penetration is blocked by SNX1.3.

Successful HPV16 infection requires the delivery of the viral genome to the host cell

nucleus, a process dependent on mitosis [40,68,72]. During late mitotic trafficking,

vesicles containing the L2/vDNA complex traffic along microtubules, tethering on host

mitotic chromosomes via the central chromatin binding domain (residues 188-334)

within L2 [41]. The chromosome-bound vesicular L2/vDNA ends up in daughter cell

nuclei and the limiting vesicular membrane is quickly lost during this M/G1 transition

[39]. Loss of this vesicular membrane is important for the vDNA to access the cellular

transcriptional and replicative machinery necessary for successful infection. In prior

work we developed an assay for this late limiting membrane penetration, which we

termed "membrane translocation" at the time [40]. The assay is based on the

compartmentalization of the biotin-protein ligase BirA [73] away from its ectopically

expressed cytosolic substrate, GFP fused to a short biotin acceptor peptide [74](GFP-

BAP). Infection of GFP-BAP expressing HaCaT cells with HPV16 virions packaging an

L2-BirA fusion results in biotinylation of GFP-BAP only if L2-BirA can fully breach the

limiting membrane barrier during late mitotic trafficking. We first confirmed that SNX1.3

was inhibitory to L2-BirA virion infection of HaCaT-GFP-BAP cells (Fig 4A). Next, we

assayed the penetration of limiting membranes by detection of biotinylated GFP-BAP

using SDS-PAGE and western blot with IR800-conjugated fluorescent neutravidin. The

data show a strong GFP-biotin signal in PTD4 treated cells, but a strong reduction of

GFP-biotin in the presence of 5 μM and 10 μM SNX1.3 (Fig. 4B, C). Densitometry

shows a 75% and 95% decrease of L2-BirA membrane penetration with 5 μM and 10

μM SNX1.3 (Fig. 4C), suggesting that the very late stages of nuclear trafficking and

penetration of limiting membranes are blocked by SNX1.3.

SNX1.3 blocks retrograde transport of HPV16 but does not affect post-Golgi trafficking.

As late trafficking and limiting membrane penetration are contingent on successful retrograde transport of virions from endosomes to the Golgi [37,75], we next investigated the effects of SNX1.3 on retrograde trafficking. For these experiments we used virions packaged with HA-tagged L2 (L2-HA) to detect the presence of L2 in the Golgi by immunofluorescence and confocal microscopy. We performed infections in the presence of aphidicolin, a Polα/Polδ/Polε inhibitor that reversibly blocks cells in early S phase [76]. Under these conditions HPV16 virions will retrograde traffic and accumulate in the Golgi as the cells never reach G2/M, when Golgi egress and late nuclear trafficking occur [77]. Cells were infected in the presence of aphidicolin and either PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide for 24 hours prior to removal of surface virions with high pH PBS, washing, fixation, and immunostaining for L2-HA, p230 Golgi marker, and DAPI. The long 24h infection ensures that the SNX1.3-treated group has time to overcome the early delay in endocytic uptake, as can be observed from the levels of L2-HA staining (Fig 5A). The data clearly show strong accumulation of L2-HA in the p230-positive trans-Golgi network in the presence of PTD4. In contrast, SNX1.3 treatment abolished the overlap between L2-HA and p230, showing a clear defect in retrograde trafficking (Fig 5A). Combined quantitative data of the Manders' colocalization coefficients from three independent experiments show a statistically significant impairment of L2-HA/p230 colocalization by the SNX1.3 peptide (Fig 5B).

We further tested whether SNX1.3 is still inhibitory after the virus has already reached the *trans*-Golgi network. Aphidicolin is a reversible cell cycle inhibitor, once it is removed by washout, viruses that are trapped in the *trans*-Golgi compartments will resume their post-Golgi nuclear trafficking pathway once infected cells cycle into G2M [40,78]. The experimental setup is shown in the Fig 6A. HaCaT cells were infected with HPV16 in the presence of 6μM aphidicolin for 18h prior to high pH PBS removal of surface bound virus. Since viral uptake is not synchronized, cells were further incubated in media with 6μM aphidicolin for another 8h to allow the intracellular virions additional time to reach *trans*-Golgi network. At 26h post infecton, cells were released from aphidicolin by

washing and replacing with media containing either PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide for an

additional 24h prior to luciferase assay. We did not observe any significant inhibition of

infection by SNX1.3 in this assay (Fig. 6B). These data show that HPV16 fails to

undergo efficient retrograde trafficking in the presence of SNX1.3, but once the virus

has reached the Golgi, SNX1.3 treatment is no longer inhibitory.

SNX1.3 inhibits L2 membrane spanning.

The minor capsid protein L2 is required for the retrograde transport of the vDNA. After

endocytic uptake, L2 is inserted into the local endosomal membrane to adopt a type-I

transmembrane protein topology [33], spanning via its single N-terminal transmembrane

domain [32]. Precise mechanisms of L2 spanning remain obscure, but the process is

dependent on numerous cellular factors including furin, p120 catenin, γ-secretase, and

endosomal acidification, in addition to a positively charged cell penetrating peptide near

the C-terminus of L2 [30,31,79]. Membrane spanning in this manner allows ~400 C-

terminal residues downstream of the transmembrane domain to protrude into the

cytosol to recruit retromer and other sorting factors necessary for efficient retrograde

trafficking to the Golgi [34,35,37]. We therefore wanted to determine if the block in

retrograde trafficking by SNX1.3 was due to a defect in membrane spanning.

To measure spanning we adopted an alkali membrane extraction protocol recently

described by the Tsai Lab [31]. This stringent subcellular fractionation protocol relies on

sequential high-speed centrifugations and a harsh alkali wash step to isolate only *bona*

fide integral transmembrane proteins in the final membrane pellet. HeLa-S3 cells were

infected in the presence of either PTD4 or SNX1.3 for 24h. Aphidicolin was included in

the media to prevent virion traffic beyond the Golgi in this long infection. Cells were

gently lysed and fractionated as described in *materials and methods*. We collected four

fractions: T; total cell fraction, S1; cytosolic protein, S2; luminal organelle and peripheral

membrane proteins, and P; integral membrane proteins. Samples were analyzed by

SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting for L2-HA, the cytosolic marker Vps35, and the ER

transmembrane protein BAP31. Results show a clear reduction in L2 membrane

spanning in the presence of SNX1.3 (Fig 7A). Results from three independent

experiments were quantified by densitometry, normalizing the membrane-spanning L2

signal in the P fractions to both the BAP31 membrane marker and the total L2 signal in

the T fraction, revealing a strong and statistically significant defect in membrane

spanning upon addition of SNX1.3 peptide (Fig 7B). These data suggest that SNX1.3

blocks retrograde trafficking of virus by somehow preventing the membrane spanning

ability of L2.

Discussion.

Previously, the SNX1.3 peptide was found to inhibit EGFR retrograde nuclear trafficking

in TNBC cells, causing cell death [57]. Here, we investigate the inhibition of HPV16

pseudovirus infection by the SNX1.3 peptide in human HaCaT keratinocytes, 293TT

cells, and mouse K38 keratinocytes. We found the peptide did not impair cell viability or

proliferation of these cells, in contrast to the nuclear EGFR-dependent TNBC. SNX1.3

impaired HPV16 infection with low micromolar IC_{50} values, causing a delayed uptake

phenotype in HaCaT cells. Given time, HPV16 virions eventually overcome this entry

delay but SNX1.3 peptide treatment imposed a strong block to late nuclear trafficking

and retrograde Golgi trafficking of L2/vDNA. Once virus reached the Golgi, infection was

resistant to SNX1.3 treatment, demonstrating that the block in trafficking was pre-Golgi.

Alkaline membrane fractionation experiments revealed that the block in retrograde

trafficking by SNX1.3 was due to a defect in L2 membrane spanning, a necessary step

for viral retrograde trafficking. We have not yet tested whether the SNX1.3 peptide is

inhibitory to diverse HPV types, nor have we tested if the SNX1.3 peptide directly binds

to L1 or L2 proteins of the HPV capsid.

Clearly more work is needed to determine if the delayed entry phenotype is due to

EGFR-dependent mechanisms but SNX1 overexpression can alter EGFR signaling,

endocytosis, retrograde trafficking, recycling, and degradation [51,80–82]. The effects of

the SNX1.3 peptide on endogenous SNX1 and SNX-BAR function remain to be

determined but it could be envisioned that the peptide may act as a dominant negative

form of SNX1 in some contexts and/or excess peptide could mimic SNX1

overexpression in other contexts. These details remain to be determined experimentally

but it is worth noting that the peptide is derived from a region of the SNX1 BAR homo-
/heterodimerization interface and may outcompete these natural interactions (Fig 1A),
and many networks and interactions with cellular partners could be perturbed by the
introduction of such a peptide into the system (Supplemental Fig 3). The patterns of
endolysosomal markers CD63 and LAMP1 appeared to be slightly altered by SNX1.3
treatment (supplemental Fig 2), suggesting that SNX1.3 treatment may result in a global
(but subtle) perturbation of vesicular trafficking and/or altered localization of cellular
proteins which may affect HPV16 trafficking.

It is also notable that this region of SNX1 has a high degree of amino acid identity with
the corresponding region of SNX2 (Fig 8A) and it is reasonable to posit that SNX1.3
may interfere with SNX2-partner interactions via this conserved region. Indeed, we
found the analogous SNX2-derived peptide SNX2.1 displayed strong inhibition of
HPV16 infection (Fig 8B) although further work is needed to validate the same delayed
entry phenotype and retrograde trafficking blocks. SNX2 was recently described to
contribute to HPV16 endocytosis via a macropinocytosis-like EGFR/Abl2/WASH/actin-
dependent mechanism [83]. In that work SNX2 was found to be present at HPV16 entry
sites and depletion of SNX2 by siRNA was shown to inhibit viral uptake [83].

The observed entry defect upon SNX1.3 treatment was merely a delay, with virions
eventually overcoming this block. The strong block imposed by SNX1.3 was instead due
to inhibition of retrograde trafficking. After entry, L2 adopts a membrane spanning
conformation to gain access to cytosolic retromer and other sorting factors needed for
efficient transport to the Golgi [28]. As SNX1/2/5/6 heterodimers can partner with
retromer for retrograde transport of transmembrane cargo [47,52,84,85] we expected to
observe normal L2 membrane spanning with a defect in transport upon SNX1.3
treatment. Rather, we observed a strong defect in L2 membrane spanning, suggesting
involvement of SNX-BAR proteins or cellular partners in this process. The retromer
complex was recently shown to play a role in stable membrane insertion of L2—early
membrane spanning was stabilized by the binding of cytosolic retromer to its binding
sites near the C-terminus of L2 [86]. Further work is needed to determine if SNX1 and

related SNX-BAR proteins augment this retromer-dependent function to support L2
membrane insertion.

Alternatively, it may be that membrane tubulation and curvature are involved. HPV16
and diverse HPV types induces endosomal tubulation during entry, in an EGFR and
VAP-dependent manner [87,88]. SNX2 is a known partner of VAPB and SNX2 partners
with SNX1 to promote endosomal tubulation and sorting of cargo into autophagosomes
upon nutrient starvation [89]. Tubulation of endosomes may generate positive
membrane curvature on the lumenal face of endosomes, to aid in the membrane
penetration of the C-terminal L2 cell penetrating peptide [79] and/or transmembrane
domain [32]. Membrane curvature has been demonstrated to augment the activity of
octaarginine cell penetrating peptide [90] and local membrane environment may greatly
affect the ability of proteins like L2 to insert and span across membranes [91]. Further
work is necessary to delineate the exact mechanisms behind the SNX1.3-imposed
blocks we observe in this study, but this work lays the groundwork for some interesting
testable hypotheses regarding potential roles of SNX-BAR proteins and their cellular
partners in HPV16 infection.

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Author Contributions

SKC and SL designed and conceived the experiments. SL, ZLW, MAC, AJ, and SKC

performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and prepared figures. SKC and SL wrote

the paper.

Figure Legends

Fig 1. Inhibition of HPV16 infection by SNX1.3 peptide. (A) Sequences of the control PTD4 cell penetrating peptide and the SNX1.3 peptide. SNX1.3 is derived from residues 490-515 of the SNX1 BAR domain. This portion is highlighted (red) within the context of the SNX1/SNX5 heterodimer (PDB 8AFZ), at the interface of the BAR domains. **(B)** Infectivity of firefly luciferase expressing HPV16 in multiple cell types in the presence of 10 μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide, compared to H_2O vehicle control. **(C)** Titration of peptides showing dose-dependent inhibition of HPV16 infection in multiple cell types. For **(B, C)**, the graphs show mean infectivity ± SEM. For **(C)** all groups were statistically significant $p < 0.05$ except for PTD4 vs SNX1.3 in 293TT. **(D)** Growth curves of HaCaT cells ± 10 μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide, compared to H_2O vehicle control. No statistical significance was observed by between groups at any particular timepoint. **(E)** WST-1 assay for HaCaT cell viability ± PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide. Assay performed 48h post seeding with peptides. Graph shows mean percent 450nm absorbance ± SEM. All statistics were determined by 2-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison. *$p < 0.05$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

Fig 2. HPV16 binding assay. (A) HPV16 was bound to HaCaT cells ± 10uM PTD4 or SNX1.3 for 1h at 4°C. Cells were then washed with regular PBS to remove unbound virus in the media or washed with high pH PBS to remove the surface-bound virus as well. Cell surface-bound L1 dimers and trimers were detected by non-reducing SDS-PAGE and western blot, as described in *Materials and Methods*. A representative L1 blot is shown, along with GAPDH loading control. **(B)** Densitometric quantification of intact HMW L1 band intensities was performed by ImageJ. Graphs show mean relative L1 band intensities at given times, n = 3 independent biological replicates, relative to the PTD4 treated groups. Statistics were determined using 2-way ANOVA with Šídák's multiple comparison test. ****$p < 0.0001$.

Supplemental Fig1. HPV16 entry assay, 3h wave. HPV16 was bound to HaCaT cells

± 10μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 for 1h at 4°C. Cells were then incubated for at 37°C for 3h to

allow viral entry. At this time cell surface virus was removed by high pH PBS wash in all

the groups. Media containing ± 10μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptides was replaced, and cells

were incubated at 37°C for another 3hrs (6h time group) to allow the existing

intracellular virus to traffic through the endocytic pathway. Samples were processed as

described above and collected at 3h or 6h post-entry. Cell lysates were processed for

non-reducing SDS-PAGE and western blot to detect intact and degraded forms of L1.

Non-specific bands (n.s.) is a cellular protein that cross-reacts with the L1 antibody, and

serves as an internal loading control.

Fig 3. SNX1.3 delays HPV16 entry. (A) HPV16 was bound to HaCaT cells ± 10μM

PTD4 or SNX1.3 and 20 mM NH_4Cl for 1h at 4°C. Cells were then incubated at 37°C for

2h, 4h, or 6h at which time cell surface virus was removed by high pH PBS wash at the

time of sample collection. Cell lysates were processed for non-reducing SDS-PAGE and

western blot to detect intact and degraded forms of L1. Non-specific bands (n.s). is a

cellular protein that cross-reacts with the L1 antibody and serves as an internal loading

control. In this manner cumulative viral uptake can be visualized as more and more

virions enter the cells over the timecourse and degradation is blocked by NH_4Cl.

Representative blot is shown. **(B)** Densitometric quantification of intact HMW L1 band

intensities was performed by ImageJ. Graphs show mean relative L1 band intensities at

given times (±SEM, n = 3 independent biological repeats) relative to the PTD4 treated

group at 6h time point. Simple linear regression was used to plot the lines. Statistics

were determined using multiple unpaired t-tests. *$p<0.05$.

Supplemental Fig2. Immunofluorescence entry assay. (A) HaCaT cells plated on

glass coverslips were infected with HPV16 bearing L2-3xFTHA ± 10μM PTD4 or

SNX1.3 and 20 mM NH_4Cl for 2h, 4h, or 18h followed by high pH PBS wash to remove

the surface-bound virus. Cells were then processed for IF and capsid, endolysosomal

markers, and nuclei were stained and mean fluorescence intensity of intracellular capsid signal was quantified as described in *Materials and Methods*. **(B, C, D)** Mean and all individual data points are plotted from n=3 biological replicates. Statistics were determined using multiple unpaired t-tests. ***p<0.005, ****p<0.0001. Scale bars, 20 μm.

Fig 4. Late membrane penetration is blocked by SNX1.3. (A) Infectivity of luciferase-expressing HPV16 packaged with L2-BirA with 10μM PTD4, SNX1.3, or H2O (solvent vehicle control) in the HaCaT-GFP-BAP cell line. **(B)** L2-BirA membrane translocation assay. HaCaT-GFP-BAP cells were infected with HPV16 bearing L2-BirA with 10μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptides. Cells were processed for SDS-PAGE and western blotting at 24h post-infection, blotting for biotin-GFP and total GFP. Biotinylation of GFP can only occur if L2-BirA penetrates the limiting vesicular membrane during late mitotic trafficking of virions **(C)** Quantification of the membrane translocation assay. Band intensities were measured by densitometry using ImageJ. The 10μM PTD4 treated cells were set to 100%, The graph represents the mean percent biotin-GFP normalized with total GFP ±SEM, n = 4 independent biological replicates. Statistics were determined using 1-way ANOVA with Šídák's multiple comparison test. ****p<0.0001.

Fig 5. SNX1.3 blocks HPV16 retrograde trafficking to the Golgi. (A) HaCaT cells were infected at 37°C with HPV16 bearing L2-HA tag for 24h together with 6 μM aphidicolin and either 10μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide at 37°C for 24hrs followed by a high pH wash to remove the surface-bound virus before fixation and processing for IF staining as described in *Materials and Methods*. Cells were stained with mouse anti-p230 with AlexaFluor-488 conjugated anti-mouse secondary (green), and rat anti-HA with AlexaFluor-555 conjugated anti-rat secondary (red). The cell nucleus was stained with DAPI (blue). Scale bars, 20 μm **(B)** Colocalization analysis using the JACoP plugin of ImageJ. Manders' overlap coefficients were measured between L2-HA:p230 for multiple Z-stacks, each containing multiple cells/field, from 3 independent experiments.

The mean Manders' coefficient of each biological replicate ±SEM are shown in black

bars, dots are the mean Manders' coefficient for each biological replicate, each

determined from numerous technical replicate measurements. Statistics were

determined using unpaired t-tests. **$p<0.01$.

Fig 6. SNX1.3 has no effect on post-Golgi trafficking. (A) Schematic of aphidicolin

release infection experiment. HaCaTs were infected with HPV16 at 37°C in the

presence of 6μM aphidicolin for 18h followed with high pH PBS (pH=10.6-10.8) wash to

remove all the surface-bound virus. Fresh culture media supplemented with 6μM

aphidicolin was then added for another 8h incubation at 37°C. This allows for

intracellular viruses to retrograde traffic to the Golgi. Aphidicolin was then released by

replacing media with containing either 10 μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide for another 24h

at 37°C to allow nuclear trafficking of virus and the expression of luciferase. **(B)**

Infectivity of luciferase-expressing HPV16 in the aphidicolin release experiment,

normalized to PTD4 treatment. Mean infectivity ±SEM are plotted from n=3 biological

replicates. Statistics were determined with a two-sample unpaired t-test.

Fig 7. SNX1.3 blocks L2 membrane spanning. (A) Subcellular fractionation and alkali

membrane extraction blot of membrane spanning L2. HeLa-S3 cells were infected with

HPV16 bearing L2-HA in the presence of 10μM PTD4 or SNX1.3 peptide and 6μM

aphidicolin as described in *Materials and Methods*. After 24h cells were processed for

fractionation and alkaline membrane extraction. Total (T), S1 (supernatant 1; cytosolic

proteins), S2 (supernatant 2; organelle lumenal and peripheral membrane proteins), and

P (final pellet; integral membrane proteins) were collected as described and analyzed

by SDS-PAGE and western blotting for BAP31 (integral ER membrane protein), Vps35

(soluble cytosolic protein), and L2-HA. Representative blot is shown. **(B)** Densitometric

quantification of L2 membrane spanning. L2 densities within the membrane and total

fractions were first normalized to their corresponding BAP31 densities to account for

sample loss during fractionation and potential differences in gel loading. Then the

membrane L2 density was divided by the total L2 density, with the PTD4 membrane L2

values being adjusted to 100. Mean relative L2 spanning values ±SEM are plotted from

n=3 biological replicates. Statistics were determined with a two-tailed unpaired t-test.

***$p<.005$.

Fig 8. Inhibition of HPV16 infection by SNX2.1 peptide. (A) Sequence alignment of

the SNX1.3 and SNX2.1 peptides. **(B)** Infectivity of HPV16 in HaCaT cells in the

presence of 10 μM PTD4, SNX1.3, or SNX2.1 peptides. Graphs show mean infectivity ±

SEM. N=3 biological replicates. Statistics were determined by 1-way ANOVA with

Dunnett's multiple comparison, ****$p<0.0001$.

Supplemental Fig 3. STRING network analysis of SNX1/SNX2/EGFR. (A) STRING

version 12.0 was used to analyze the interaction network of SNX1, SNX2, and EGFR.

Nodes include other SNX-BAR family members, other SNX proteins, retromer

components, WASH components, and the Rab GTPase activating protein TBC1D5,

many of which are cellular proteins known to be important for HPV16 trafficking and

infection. **(B)** Screenshot of the network analysis legend, explaining the nodes, edges,

input, and predicted partners.

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1070   **Figure 1**

1086   **Figure 2**

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1109   **Figure 3**

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1144 **Figure 5**

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1162   **Figure 6**

A

remove surface virus,
aphidicolin remains

virions continue
post-Golgi traffic
after washout

18h

0h
virus +
aphidicolin

L2/vDNA
accumulates
in Golgi

26h
aphidicolin
washout, add
PTD4/SNX1.3

50h
luciferase
assay

B

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1175   **Figure 7**

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1212 **Supplemental Figure 1**

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1224 **Supplemental Figure 2**

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1232 **Supplemental Figure 3**

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