Mechanisms of AAV2 neutralization by human alpha-defensins

Short Title: AAV neutralization by human alpha-defensins

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Abstract

Antiviral immunity compromises the efficacy of adeno-associated virus (AAV) vectors used for gene therapy. This is well understood for the adaptive immune response. However, innate immune effectors like alpha-defensin antimicrobial peptides also block AAV infection, although their mechanisms of action are unknown. To address this gap in knowledge, we investigated AAV2 neutralization by human neutrophil peptide 1 (HNP1), a myeloid alpha-defensin, and human defensin 5 (HD5), an enteric alpha-defensin. We found that both defensins bind to AAV2 and inhibit infection at low micromolar concentrations. While HD5 prevents AAV2 from binding to cells, HNP1 does not. However, AAV2 exposed to HD5 after binding to cells is still neutralized, indicating an additional block to infection. Accordingly, both HD5 and HNP1 inhibit externalization of the VP1 unique domain, which contains a phospholipase A_2 enzyme required for endosome escape and nuclear localization signals required for nuclear entry. Consequently, both defensins prevent AAV2 from reaching the nucleus. Disruption of intracellular trafficking of the viral genome to the nucleus is reminiscent of how alpha-defensins neutralize other non-enveloped viruses, suggesting a common mechanism of inhibition. These results will inform the development of vectors capable of overcoming these hurdles to improve the efficiency of gene therapy.

Author Summary

AAVs are commonly used as gene therapy vectors due to their broad tropism and lack of

disease association; however, host innate immune factors, such as human alpha-defensin

antimicrobial peptides, can hinder gene delivery. Although it is becoming increasingly evident that

human alpha-defensins can block infection by a wide range of nonenveloped viruses, including

AAVs, their mechanism of action remains poorly understood. In this study, we describe for the

first time how two types of abundant human alpha-defensins neutralize a specific AAV serotype,

AAV2. We found that one defensin prevents AAV2 from binding to cells, the first step in infection,

while both defensins block a critical later step in AAV2 entry. Our findings support the emerging

idea that defensins use a common strategy to block infection by DNA viruses that replicate in the

nucleus. Through understanding how innate immune effectors interact with and impede AAV

infection, vectors can be developed to bypass these interventions and allow more efficient gene

delivery.

Introduction

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) is a non-enveloped single-stranded DNA virus that belongs to the genus *Dependoparvovirus* of the *Parvoviridae* family. Their small icosahedral T=1 capsid is comprised of three viral capsid proteins, VP1, VP2, and VP3, which assemble stochastically in an approximately 1:1:10 ratio [1, 2]. There are currently 13 known AAV serotypes which were isolated from both human and non-human primate species [3-5]. Due to their diverse tropism and inability to replicate independently, recombinant AAVs (rAAVs) are used as gene therapy vectors [6-8]. There are currently seven approved rAAV-based gene therapies, with more being tested in clinical trials [8]. However, poor transduction efficiency and interactions with the host immune system present hurdles that must be overcome to produce more efficient vectors [6, 7, 9, 10]. While the interactions of AAVs with components of the adaptive immune response such as anti-capsid neutralizing antibodies [11-13] and T cells [14, 15] have been previously investigated, the interactions of AAVs with innate immune effectors including antimicrobial peptides such as human α-defensins are vastly understudied.

Defensins are short, amphipathic, and cationic innate immune peptides that have been studied for their antimicrobial properties [16, 17]. They are broadly antimicrobial against bacteria and fungi as well as enveloped and non-enveloped viruses. Their structures consist primarily of β-sheets stabilized by three disulfide bonds [16, 18, 19]. Some defensins also form dimers, which are essential for their antiviral activity [20-23]. There are two types of defensins produced by humans, α- and β-defensins. Human α-defensins can be further categorized into two subtypes: enteric and myeloid. Enteric α-defensins, human defensin 5 and 6 (HD5 and HD6), are constitutively secreted by Paneth cells in the crypts of the small intestine but are also present in the genitourinary tract [24, 25]. Myeloid α-defensins, human neutrophil peptides 1 to 4 (HNP1 to HNP4), are primarily expressed in neutrophils, where they are stored in cytoplasmic azurophilic granules that fuse with phagolysosomes following uptake of bacteria and viruses [16, 17, 19]. In

addition, neutrophils release HNPs into the extracellular space during the formation of neutrophil

extracellular traps [26].

While both α- and β-defensins have been shown to have activity against bacteria and

enveloped viruses, only α-defensins inhibit non-enveloped viral infection [18, 19]. Human

adenovirus (HAdV), human papilloma virus (HPV), polyoma virus, and rotavirus (RV) have all

been shown to be sensitive to neutralization by either HD5, HNP1, or both [27-34]. Previously,

Virella-Lowell and colleagues found that AAV2 can be inhibited by HNPs present in

bronchoalveolar fluid and by a mixture of purified HNP1 and HNP2 [35]. We recently showed that

AAV1 and AAV6 are also neutralized by HNP1 as well as HD5 [22]. In our previous studies with

HAdV and HPV, we found that α-defensins perturb viral uncoating, therefore preventing

productive infection [27, 29, 30, 36, 37]. A similar mechanism was determined for John

Cunningham (JC) polyomavirus neutralization by HD5 [33]. These findings suggest the possibility

of a common mechanism utilized by defensins to block non-enveloped viral infection. However,

alternative mechanisms of neutralization have also been described for polyomaviruses [32], and

the molecular basis for defensin-mediated inhibition of parvoviruses and rotaviruses has not been

elucidated.

To begin to determine how α-defensins inhibit AAV, we focused on AAV2. We found that

like the previously described effects of myeloid α-defensins HNP1 and HNP2 [35], the human

enteric α-defensin HD5 also neutralizes AAV2. We then sought to determine the stage of the

AAV2 cell entry pathway that is perturbed by each defensin. Although HD5 but not HNP1 could

inhibit AAV2 from binding to cells, both defensins were able to neutralize AAV2 when added post-

attachment, suggesting a common block at a downstream step. Consistent with this notion, we

found that both defensins inhibit the externalization of the unique domain of VP1 (VP1u), a crucial

step in AAV entry. This in turn prevents endosome escape and nuclear localization. Our findings

support the concept of a common mechanism by which human α-defensins neutralize non-

enveloped viruses by perturbing intracellular trafficking but also reveal a novel AAV-specific

mechanism.

Results

Both HD5 and HNP1 bind to AAV2 and neutralize infection

Prior studies have shown that human enteric and myeloid α-defensins may differentially

impact infection of non-enveloped viruses, including AAV1 [22, 27, 31, 33, 38]. Accordingly, we

first sought to determine the effects of HD5 and HNP1 on AAV2 infection using the same

physiologic defensin concentrations from our prior study [22]. When incubated with AAV2 on ice

before the mixture is added to cells (pre-attachment), both HD5 [inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}),

7.5 μM; 95% confidence interval (CI), 6.8 to 8.3 μM; Hill slope, -4.0] and HNP1 (IC_{50}, 9.7 μM; 95%

CI, <10.7 μM; Hill slope, -19.8) inhibit AAV2 infection with similar potency, and complete

neutralization is achieved by 40 μM HD5 and 20 μM HNP1 (Fig 1A and 1B). We then quantified

binding of each defensin to the AAV2 capsid by monitoring real-time kinetics of their interaction

using surface plasmon resonance (SPR). Consistent with our studies of AAV1 and AAV6 [22],

both defensins bind to the AAV2 capsid (Fig 1C and 1D). HNP1 [equilibrium dissociation constant

(K_D) = 0.32 ± 0.03 μM] bound with approximately 1.8-fold greater avidity than HD5 (K_D = 0.57 μM

± 0.06 μM), while the stoichiometry of HD5 (385 ± 5 molecules per capsid) was approximately

1.7-fold greater than HNP1 (227 ± 10 molecules per capsid). Thus, in contrast to our prior findings

with AAV1 and AAV6 where both defensins bind to each serotype with similar avidity, HNP1 binds

more tightly than HD5 to AAV2. However, as was true for AAV1 and AAV6, more HD5 than HNP1

binds to AAV2.

HD5, but not HNP1, inhibits AAV2 binding to cells

To elucidate the mechanisms by which HD5 and HNP1 inhibit AAV2 infection, we first

determined if either defensin could block AAV2 from binding to cells. We used qPCR to enumerate

viral particles bound to the cell in the cold in the presence or absence of increasing concentrations

of defensin. HD5 (IC_{50}, 9.2 μM; 95% CI, 6.7 to 14.1 μM; Hill slope, -3.7), but not HNP1, inhibited

AAV2 cell binding (Fig 2A and B). Moreover, the IC_{50} of HD5 for binding (Fig 2A) and infection

(Fig 1A) are equivalent (P = 0.94), suggesting that disrupted binding is the primary mechanism

HD5 employs to block infection. We therefore reasoned that binding the virus to the cell prior to

defensin exposure might bypass inhibition of infection by HD5. However, contrary to our

expectations, HD5 still neutralized infection when added post-attachment (IC_{50}, 4.4 μM; 95% CI,

3.9 to 4.9 μM; Hill slope, -3.0) (Fig 2C). HNP1 also potently inhibited AAV2 under these conditions

(IC_{50}, 6.0 μM; 95% CI, 5.4 to 6.6 μM; Hill slope, -3.8), as expected (Fig 2D). Furthermore, as was

true for AAV6, both HD5 and HNP1 were more potent inhibitors of infection when added post-

attachment rather than pre-attachment (HD5, P < 0.0001; HNP1, P = 0.0008). Thus, while

inhibition of cell binding likely contributes to AAV2 neutralization by HD5, both defensins mediate

a block of infection downstream of binding.

HD5 and HNP1 inhibit exposure of VP1u

A critical post-binding step in AAV entry is endosome escape mediated by the

phospholipase A_2 (PLA2) domain of VP1u. Before AAV enters the cell, VP1u is held within the

capsid. However, conformational changes to the capsid occur within the endosome, resulting in

externalization of VP1u [39-43]. To determine if this conformational change is disrupted by

defensin interactions, we utilized antibodies [44] that bind either the externalized VP1u subunit

(A1) or an epitope on the external aspect of the VP3 domain (A20) in immunoprecipitation assays.

HeLa cells infected with AAV2 in the presence or absence of an inhibitory concentration of HD5

or HNP1 were harvested 6 h post-infection (p.i.), and virus was precipitated from cleared lysate

first by the A1 antibody then by the A20 antibody. Precipitated virus was visualized by immunoblot

using the B1 antibody against VP1, VP2, and VP3 [44, 45]. Because VP3 is more abundant

(approximately 10 VP3 to 1 VP1) and A1 binding to VP1u precipitates the entire capsid with which

it is associated, we quantified the ratio of VP3 in the A1 blots to VP3 in the A20 blots across

replicates. In the absence of defensin, both A1 and A20 bound AAV2 (Fig 3A-F). However, either

25 µM HD5 (Fig 3A and 3B) or 30 µM HNP1 (Fig 3C and 3D) was sufficient to block A1 binding,

suggesting the absence of accessible VP1u. These defensin concentrations also completely

inhibited infection under the conditions of this assay (Fig 3G-I). To exclude the possibility that the

lack of A1 binding or accessibility was due to defensins competing with A1 for its epitope in VP1u,

we infected cells in the absence of defensin, harvested at 6 h p.i., and then added HNP1 to the

cleared lysate prior to immunoprecipitation with A1 and A20. Under these conditions, both

antibodies reacted with AAV2 (Fig 3E and 3F), indicating that the defensins are unable to compete

with antibody binding. As an additional control, we utilized an HD5 analog (HD5abu) that is

incapable of forming disulfide bonds due to the substitution of α-aminobutyric acid for the six

cysteine residues in the linear sequence of HD5, rendering it non-functional as an antiviral (Fig

3G and 3I) [22]. HD5abu had no effect on A1 binding (Fig 3A and 3B), supporting the conclusion

that the lack of A1 reactivity in the presence of HD5 or HNP1 is due to a specific effect of the

defensins. From these experiments, we conclude that once the virus is internalized, both HD5

and HNP1 can prevent externalization of the VP1u subunit.

Thermostability of the AAV2 capsid is not altered by either defensin

During these experiments, we noticed the appearance of a weak, virus-specific band in

the A20-precipitated samples that was only present in the absence of defensin (arrows, Fig 4A

and 4B). Although it was not always observable in controls, likely due to the limit of detection of

the assay, it was always absent or noticeably reduced in defensin-treated samples. The mobility

of this band was faster than VP3, suggesting that it may be a proteolytic degradation product of

one or more capsid proteins that retains the B1 epitope. We have previously described such

degradation products of AAV2 capsids [46, 47]. The absence of this band in samples treated with

either HD5 or HNP1 suggested that the defensins may be stabilizing the capsid and preventing

proteolysis. To measure capsid stability more broadly, we utilized differential scanning fluorimetry

(DSF) in the presence or absence of either 25 µM HD5 or 30 µM HNP1 over a pH range from 4.0

to 7.4. This method uses the fluorescence of SYPRO Orange dye as a function of temperature to

determine the melting temperature (T_m) of the capsid. Although we observed a stabilizing effect

of pH, with a maximal T_m of 78.2°C at pH 5.5 compared to 66.4°C at pH 7.4 and 74.2°C at pH 4.0,

as observed previously [48], there was no effect of either defensin on thermostability (Fig 4C).

These results suggest that defensin binding to the capsid might block specific conformational

changes required for VP1u externalization or access of proteases to cleavage sites rather than

creating an overall more stable capsid.

AAV2 fails to enter the nucleus and accumulates perinuclearly in the presence of defensins

VP1u externalization serves at least two functions in AAV entry. The VP1u PLA2 domain

disrupts the endosomal membrane, and VP1u contains nuclear localization signals that facilitate

entry of the cytoplasmic capsid into the nucleus [40, 42, 49]. Therefore, we hypothesized that an

inability of AAV2 to externalize VP1u in the presence of defensins would manifest as a reduction

in nuclear localization of the capsid. We used confocal microscopy to visualize the trafficking of

AAV2 in the presence and absence of a neutralizing concentration of either HD5 or HNP1. In the

absence of defensin at 0 h p.i., DyLight 488 (DL488) AAV2 signal is diffuse with only coincidental

colocalization with the nuclear marker (DAPI) in z-projected images (Fig 5A-C), consistent with

the virus being bound to the outside of the cell. In contrast, at 24 h p.i., the viral signal is more

punctate, and pronounced nuclear localization was observed. In the presence of either HD5 or

HNP1 at inhibitory concentrations, AAV2 is punctate but exhibits markedly reduced nuclear

localization. Rather, the virus accumulates perinuclearly, which we quantified by measuring the

fraction of viral signal in each cell in a region spanning 5 pixels into and 50 pixels outside of the

nucleus (Fig 5D). In untreated samples, the perinuclear fraction is smaller than the nuclear

fraction; however, the ratio is reversed in HD5- or HNP1-treated samples (Fig 5E). Moreover, the

absolute intensity of AAV2 at 24 h p.i. in defensin-treated samples is higher than in untreated

samples (Fig 5F), which is consistent with reduced proteolytic degradation (Fig 4A and 4B). These

data, in combination with the lack of A1 reactivity described above, support a model whereby both

HD5 and HNP1 block VP1u externalization during entry, thereby impeding AAV2 from reaching

the nucleus and neutralizing infection.

Discussion:

In this study, we have demonstrated that AAV2 infection is neutralized by both enteric and

myeloid α-defensins with similar potency. In a normal infection, AAV2 binds to cells through

interactions with heparan sulfate proteoglycan attachment factors [50] and is endocytosed (Fig 6,

left). In the endosome, the VP1u subunit, which was kept within the capsid prior to entry, is

externalized [8, 39-42, 51]. This step is crucial for AAV2 entry, as the VP1u PLA2 domain

mediates breakdown of the endosomal membrane, allowing virions to escape into the cytosol

[43]. Host factors required for these steps are incompletely understood, but changes in pH and

interactions with recently identified proteinaceous host factors including KIAA0319L (AAVR) and

GPR108 play important roles [8, 51-55]. Once released from the endosome, the virus traffics

along microtubules, and nuclear localization signals in VP1 and VP2 mediate entry of the AAV2

virion into the nucleus [42, 49, 56-58]. The virion then uncoats in the nucleolus, releasing its

genome to begin transcription and replication [59, 60]. In the presence of defensins, two crucial

steps in this entry pathway are perturbed: cell binding and VP1u exposure (Fig 6, right). HD5 but

not HNP1 perturbs cell binding, if encountered by AAV2 prior to cell attachment. However, if AAV2

succeeds in binding to the cell and becomes internalized, HD5 and HNP1 both prevent the

externalization of the VP1u subunit, thereby trapping the virus in the endosome and blocking

cellular trafficking and nuclear entry.

How defensins interact with the capsid to block VP1u externalization remains unknown.

One model is that VP1u is externalized through channels at the 5-fold axes that are too small to

accommodate folded VP1u prior to conformational changes induced by the endosomal

environment [61, 62]. In addition to localized changes at the 5-fold vertices, more extensive

rearrangements involving other areas of the capsid including the 2-fold axis have been postulated

[61, 63]. Our data suggest that defensins do not increase the overall thermostability of the AAV2

capsid, arguing against a model where the entire capsid is stabilized against host-induced

conformational changes upon defensin binding. However, steric hinderance at the 5-fold axis pore

may prevent either the necessary local conformational changes from occurring or block VP1u

from threading through the pore. A similar model has been postulated for the anti-AAV8

and -AAV9 antibody HL2372 and the POROS CaptureSelect affinity ligand CSAL9, both of which

bind to the 5-fold axis and neutralize infection [64-66]. In our prior studies of differences in

defensin sensitivity of AAV1 and AAV6, the crucial residue was located at position 531 located on

the arm of the 3-fold protrusion extending along the wall of the 2-fold axis [22]. A positively

charged residue at this location (lysine) was associated with more uniform sensitivity to defensin

neutralization. In contrast, viruses bearing a negatively charged residue (glutamic acid) had

variable phenotypes dependent upon when defensin was added relative to cell binding. Therefore,

we hypothesized that amino acid 531 is not directly involved in binding to cationic defensins.

Rather, the nature of this residue may dictate surface charge at other parts of the capsid to

modulate defensin interactions. A hint to the location of defensin interactions with AAV2 may be

obtained by mapping the proteolytic cleavage site that appears to be blocked by both HD5 and

HNP1 binding. We have previously described such degradation products of AAV2 capsids at

endolysosomal pH [46, 47]. Although acidification of the capsid in the endolysosome has been

shown to be important for VP1u externalization and viral trafficking [39, 67, 68], the significance

of proteolysis of the AAV capsid at endolysosomal pH has not been elucidated, especially since

the capsid appears to be more stable at this pH. The residues predicted to be involved in AAV2

pH-induced proteolysis are located across the 2-fold axis along the wall of the 3-fold protrusion

near amino acid 531 [46]. However, even if we assume that AAV1 and AAV6 are neutralized by

the same mechanisms as AAV2, direct binding of defensin to these sites does not fully explain

the effect of defensin binding on VP1u externalization, unless there are structural conformations

at the 2-fold axis and 3-fold protrusion that indirectly affect the structure of the 5-fold axis and

ultimately prevent the externalization/accessibility of VP1u [63]. Definitive mechanistic insight

awaits structural information on the defensin-AAV2 complex.

Although both HD5 and HNP1 block VP1u externalization, their interactions with the

capsid differ. First, only HD5 disrupts AAV2 from binding to the cell. This mode of neutralization

by α-defensins is uncommon, having only been described previously for BK polyomavirus, where

HD5 aggregates the virus and reduces cell binding [32]. In contrast, cell binding of many viruses

like HAdVs, mouse AdV, and HIV-1 and is promoted by α-defensins [28, 36, 69-71]. Second,

HNP1 binds AAV2 more tightly than HD5 does, but there is less HNP1 than HD5 bound to the

capsid at equilibrium. These differences are not surprising given that the two defensins, although

structurally similar, vary in primary sequence, net charge, and charge distribution. Unlike

antibodies, defensins do not bind to a specific epitope. Rather, selective binding to favorable

capsid regions may initially occur over a range of affinities. Primary binding may then promote

additional defensin-defensin and defensin-capsid interactions. HD5, with weaker but more

abundant binding, may sterically occlude heparan sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) binding sites,

inhibiting cell binding. HNP1 instead may bind preferentially to less abundant, higher affinity sites

away from the HSPG binding site, allowing cell binding to occur. Thus, it is reasonable to postulate

that the binding sites utilized by each defensin may not entirely overlap. These findings are

reminiscent of HPV interactions with defensins, where genital types differ in their sensitivities to

HD5 and HNP1 and where HD5 inhibits multiple steps of HPV16 entry [29-31].

By blocking the externalization of VP1u, the PLA$_2$ domain is unable to access the limiting

membrane, likely trapping the virus within the endosome. This interpretation is based on the

failure of defensin-treated virus to reach the nucleus; however, we did not measure endosomal

escape directly. It is plausible that defensins bound to the capsid could mediate endosome escape

through their ability to form pores in lipid bilayers [72]. In this case the absence of externalized

nuclear localization signals found in VP1u and the VP1/2 common region would still prevent the

virus from reaching and entering the nucleus [42, 49]. Thus, the increased amount of detectable

virus in defensin-treated samples at 24 h p.i. could be explained by defensin-induced viral

aggregation in either the endosome or cytoplasm, protection of virus trapped in the

endolysosomal system from lysosomal degradation, or protection of virus in the cytoplasm from

ubiquitination and proteosomal degradation. These mechanisms are not mutually exclusive,

although we note that all samples are treated with the proteosome inhibitor doxorubicin, which

has been shown to increase AAV transduction efficiency [73].

Without additional experimentation, it is difficult to anticipate the generalizability of our

findings to other AAV serotypes. Both AAV2 and AAV6 are neutralized by both HD5 and HNP1

when added to the virus either pre- or post-attachment to the cell [22]. However, the sensitivity of

AAV1 to each defensin depends on the order-of-addition, where HD5 is only neutralizing when

added pre-attachment and HNP1 is only neutralizing when added post-attachment. As described

above, the identity of residue 531 in VP3 solely dictates the defensin sensitivities of AAV1 and

AAV6. Although the defensin-dependent phenotypes of AAV2 and AAV6 are more similar, AAV2

and AAV1 (not AAV6) have the same residue (glutamic acid) at this position. Thus, the identity of

the residue at position 531 is not predictive. AAV2 and AAV6 share the ability to utilize HSPG as

an attachment factor [74], while AAV1 uses sialic acid [75]. Therefore, the nature of the

attachment factor might correlate with defensin sensitivity, particularly regarding blocking cell

binding. Until more serotypes are studied and a completely defensin-resistant serotype is

identified, it is hard to determine which characteristics might foretell defensin sensitivity; however,

our findings provide a blueprint for key assays that will inform neutralization mechanisms.

Finally, our findings may inform the development of AAV vectors. HNP levels are

increased in patients with highly inflammatory disease states, such as cystic fibrosis, which would

impair the delivery of gene therapy by defensin-sensitive serotypes such as AAV2 [35]. By

identifying where in the entry pathway innate immune peptides such as defensins inhibit, mutant

vectors can be better designed with the goal of escaping neutralization. Alternatively, existing

vectors that have been customized for tropism or antibody escape can be further tested for

defensin sensitivity [8]. Importantly, our findings provide two points of likely inhibition, cell binding

and endosome escape, that can be targeted in the development of escape variants.

Materials and Methods

Cells. HeLa (ATCC) and HEK293 cells (ATCC or University of Florida Powell Gene Therapy Center Vector Core) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's media (DMEM) supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS), 0.1 mM non-essential amino acids, 4 mM L-glutamine, 100 units/mL penicillin, and 100 μg/mL streptomycin.

Vector production and purification.

The AAV2 vector expressing GFP was produced by triple transfection in mammalian HEK293 cells. HEK293 cells were cultured to approximately 80% confluency in 150 mm cell culture and triple transfected with an equimolar ratio of pXRAAV2 [76], pTR-UF11-GFP [77], and pXX6 (pHelper) [78] plasmids (totaling 40 μg/plate), which were diluted with 1 mL Optimem (Gibco) and 125 μL of 1 mg/ml polyethyleneimine (PEI) per plate. The solution was incubated for 15 min at RT and added dropwise to each plate. Cells were harvested 7 h post-transfection and separated from the supernatant by centrifugation at 1100 × g in a JA-20 rotor at 4°C for 15 min. The cell pellet was resuspended in TD buffer (1X PBS, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 2.5 mM KCl, pH 7.4) and lysed by three freeze/thaw cycles, followed by Benzonase (Promega) treatment at 37°C for 1 h. The cellular debris was removed by centrifugation at 3000 × g, and the cell lysate was stored at -80°C. The supernatant was PEG precipitated overnight with 10% (w/v) PEG 8000 (Fisher) and then centrifuged at 14,300 × g in a JA-10 rotor at 4°C for 90 min. The resulting pellet was resuspended in TD buffer and combined with the cell lysate, and AAV2 capsids were purified by AVB affinity chromatography on a 1 mL AVB Sepharose affinity chromatography column (Cytvia, Marlborough, MA), as previously described [74, 79]. Virus was eluted with 10 mL of elution buffer (0.1 M glycine-HCl, pH 2.7) and neutralized with 1 mL of neutralization buffer (1 M Tris-HCl, pH 10.0). The final sample was concentrated and buffer exchanged using an Apollo concentrator (Orbital Bioscience), and the purity was verified by SDS-PAGE.

Purified AAV2 at approximately 0.5 mg/mL was extensively dialyzed into PBS and labeled with

the DyLight Antibody Labeling Kit (Thermo Fischer) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The

completed reaction was dialyzed three times into PBS. Labeled virus was visualized by SDS-

PAGE using UV light to detect the fluorophore and quantified by Coomassie Blue staining against

BSA standards.

α-defensin peptides. HD5 (ATCYCRTHECATRESLSGVCEISGRLYRLCCR) and HNP1

(ACYCRIPACIAGERRYGTCIYQGRLWAFCC) were synthesized by CPC Scientific (Sunnyvale,

CA) and processed as previously described [34]. In brief, peptides were folded and stabilized by

thiol-disulfide reshuffling and purified by reverse-phase high-pressure liquid chromatography (RP-

HPLC) to homogeneity. Purity was analyzed by analytical RP-HPLC, verified by mass

spectrometry, and quantified by UV absorbance at 280 nm. HD5abu synthesis, purification, and

validation have been described previously [20, 21].

Primary antibodies. A1 (American Research Products, 03-61056) binds an epitope in VP1u [44,

45]. A20 (American Research Products, 03-61055) binds an epitope in the VP1/VP2/VP3

common domain of intact AAV2 [45]. B1 (University of Florida Hybridoma Core) binds an epitope

in the VP1/VP2/VP3 common domain of uncoated AAV2 [44, 45].

Infection assays. Infection assays were performed as previously described [22]. All viruses and

defensins were diluted in serum-free DMEM (SFM) supplemented with 1 µM doxorubicin (Dox).

AAV2 was diluted to 5.4E+10 viral genomes (vg)/mL for pre-attachment and 1.4E+11 vg/mL for

post-attachment. In brief, for pre-attachment exposure of AAV2 to defensins, 28 µL of AAV2 and

28 µL of SFM with or without HD5 or HNP1 were mixed and incubated on ice for 45 min before

50 µL of the mixture was added to cells. Samples were then incubated at 37°C. For post-

attachment exposure of AAV2 to defensins, 50 µL AAV2 was added to chilled cells and allowed

to bind for 1 h at 4°C. Samples were washed twice with ice-cold SFM before 50 µL SFM with or

without HD5 or HNP1 was added. Defensins were bound at 4°C for 45 min before cells were

moved to 37°C. For both conditions, 10 µL 60% FBS in SFM + 1 µM Dox was added to the wells

6 h p.i. At 48 h p.i., cells were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and total monolayer

fluorescence was quantified with an Azure Sapphire. Background-subtracted total monolayer

fluorescence was further analyzed with Fiji (version 2.14.0/1.54f). Data are shown as the

percentage of control infection in the absence of defensin.

SPR: SPR experiments were performed on a BIAcore X100 instrument at 25°C, with PBS as the

running buffer, as previously described [22]. AAV2 was coupled to the CM5 sensor chip using

amine coupling, and 9451 response units (RUs) were immobilized. HD5 or HNP1 was the analyte,

and the same sensor chip was used for 2 replicate analyses on different days. Data were analyzed

as described previously to determine K_D, using the 1:1 binding model in BIAcore X100 evaluation

software (version 2.0.0), and stoichiometry, using GraphPad Prism (version 10.3.0).

Cell binding assays: HeLa cells were detached using 0.5 M EDTA, washed twice with cold SFM,

and resuspended in SFM + 0.2% sodium azide (SA). 8.4E+9 particles of AAV2 were incubated

with SFM + 0.2% SA with or without twice the final concentration of HD5 or HNP1 in a volume of

56 µL. Following incubation for 45 min on ice, 50 µL of the virus/defensin mixture was added to

5.0E+5 HeLa cells in a final volume of 100 µL. Samples were incubated for 90 min on ice with

intermittent agitation to allow binding. One sample without defensin was reserved as an input

control for quantitation. Remaining samples were washed three times with ice cold DMEM. All

samples were lysed and processed to extract genomic DNA using the Genejet Genomic DNA

Purification kit (Thermofisher) per the manufacturer's instructions. DNA was eluted from the

column in 100 µL elution buffer. qPCR was performed using SsoAdvanced SYBR Green master

mix (Bio-Rad) with primers for GFP (F: 5'-CCCAGACCATATGAAGCAGC-3'; R: 5'-

GCCCTTAGCTCGATTCTCT-3'). MOI bound was determined from a standard curve produced

by a dilution series of the input control. Note that diluting experimental samples 10-fold prior to

analysis was required for accurate quantitation. Data for each replicate were normalized to the

amount of virus bound in the absence of defensin.

Immunoprecipitation and western blot: HeLa cells were seeded at 6.0E+5 cells/mL in 6-well

plates and cultured overnight. Cells were infected with AAV2 at an MOI of 65,000 vg/cell in 1 mL

cold SFM. After incubation for 1 h at 4°C while rocking, the inoculum was removed and replaced

with 1 mL SFM with or without 25 µM HD5, 25 µM HD5abu, or 30 µM HNP1. After an additional

incubation for 45 min at 4°C while rocking, plates were shifted to 37°C for 6 h. Cells were washed

two times with ice cold PBS, scaped to detach them from the plate, and concentrated in chilled

1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes by centrifugation at 400 × g for 5 min at 4°C. The pellet was lysed in 100

µL immunoprecipitation (IP) buffer (20 mM Tris, 137 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 2 mM EDTA, 1X

HALT protease inhibitor, pH 8), freeze-thawed three times, and centrifuged at 25,000 × g for 10

min at 4°C. Anti-AAV VP1 (A1, 200 ng) was added to the clarified lysate, and samples were

incubated overnight at 4°C with constant agitation. A1-bound AAV2 was precipitated with Protein

G-PLUS agarose beads (Santa Cruz Biotech). Anti-AAV2 VP1/2/3 (A20) antibody (200 ng) was

then added to the supernatant. Samples were incubated for ≥ 3 h at 4°C with constant agitation

and precipitated with Protein G-PLUS agarose beads. For both precipitations, beads were

washed three times with IP buffer, and samples were eluted with SDS-loading buffer (3.2% SDS,

100 mM Tris, 0.04% bromophenol blue, 16% glycerol (w/v), 40 mM dithiothreitol, pH 6.8). Heat-

denatured (95°C for 5 min) samples were analyzed via SDS-PAGE on 10% polyacrylamide gels,

transferred to 0.45 µm nitrocellulose membranes, blocked for 1 h at RT in blocking buffer [3%

bovine serum albumin (BSA) and 1% Tween-20 in Tris-buffered saline (TBS): 20 mM Tris, 150

mM NaCl, pH 8.0]. Membranes were incubated with anti-AAV B1 antibody (333 ng/mL) in blocking

buffer at 4°C overnight, washed three times in TBS + 1% Tween-20, probed with goat anti-mouse

Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated secondary antibody (ThermoFisher, A-11001, 1:1000) in blocking

buffer, washed twice with TBS + 1% Tween-20 and once with TBS, and imaged on an Azure

Sapphire imager. Bands were quantified using AzureSpot Pro (v2.1.097). Data is the ratio of the

background subtracted volume of the A1 VP3 band divided by the A20 VP3 band for each sample.

Differential Scanning Fluorimetry: The stability of AAV2 was determined by differential

scanning fluorimetry (DSF) analysis using a Bio-Rad MyiQ2 Thermocycler to monitor the

fluorescence produced by the binding of SYPRO Orange dye (Invitrogen) to hydrophobic regions

of the AAV2 capsid upon heat denaturation. The temperature of the assay ranged from 30°C to

99°C, ramping at 0.5°C per step. Purified AAV2 (1 µg) was diluted in 22.5 µL of either 25 µM

HD5 or 30 µM HNP1 in citrate-phosphate (0.1 M citric acid, 0.2 M Na_2HPO_4) buffers at pH 7.4,

pH 6, pH 5.5, or pH 4. Samples were incubated for 30 min at RT before 2.5 µl/sample of 1%

SYPRO Orange dye was added. Samples containing buffer alone were used as negative

controls. Data is the inverse of the negative rate of change of relative fluorescence units vs

temperature ($-dRFU/dT$). The peak value on the resulting thermogram is the T_m. All experiments

were conducted in triplicate.

Quantification of subcellular localization: HeLa cells were cultured on glass coverslips

overnight. DyLight 488-labelled AAV2 in cold SFM containing 1 µM Dox at an MOI of 20,000

vg/cell was added, and cells were incubated for 1 h in the dark at 4°C. The inoculum was removed

and replaced with 50 µL SFM containing 1 µM Dox with or without 25 µM HD5 or 30 µM HNP1.

After incubation for 45 min at 4°C, one set of control coverslips was washed with PBS before

being fixed in 2% PFA (Electron Microscopy Science, 15710) for 15 min at RT. The remaining

cells were shifted to 37°C. At 6 h p.i., coverslips were moved to normal growth media, cultured

for an additional 18 h, washed with PBS, and fixed. Fixed cells were washed once with PBS and

incubated for 20 min at RT in permeabilization buffer (20 mM glycine, 0.5% Triton X-100, PBS).

Cells were sequentially stained with AF647-conjugated phalloidin (Abcam, ab176759, 1:1000) in

1% BSA, 0.05% Tween-80 in PBS for 45 min at RT then with 500 ng/mL DAPI for 5 min.

Coverslips were mounted with Prolong Gold (Life Technologies, P36930).

Z-series of images spanning entire cells were obtained using a confocal laser-scanning

microscope (Zeiss LSM 800) using a 63× objective. A maximum intensity z-projection of each

color channel for each field of view was generated using Fiji (v2.14.0/1.54h). Background

thresholds for AAV2 signal were determined manually for each replicate in Fiji using uninfected

negative controls. A human-in-the-loop model was trained in CellPose 2.0 [80] to identify cell

borders and generate cell masks. CellPose masks and z-projection images were imported into

CellProfiler (v4.2.5) [81], and background-subtracted single-cell images were identified and

exported. A second CellProfiler pipeline was then used to analyze the single-cell images. Nuclei

were identified using DAPI by thresholding using the Otsu method. A tertiary object extending 5

pixels into and 50 pixels beyond the nucleus was then defined as the perinuclear space, and the

integrated intensities of DyLight 488 within the whole cell, in the perinuclear space, and in the

nucleus were measured for each cell. Whole cells with DyLight 488 intensity < 100 relative

fluorescence units (RFU) were excluded from analysis.

Statistical analysis: All statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism 10.3.0. Fig 1A,

1B, 2A, 2C, and 2D were analyzed by nonlinear regression using the "log (inhibitor) versus

response – variable slope (four parameters)" model with the bottom constrained to "0". Hill slopes

and IC_{50} values are the best-fit values. Log IC_{50} values were compared between protocol

conditions and assays (e.g., cell binding and inhibition of infection) using the extra-sum-of-

squares F test, and the P values are given. Fig 2B was analyzed by nonlinear regression using

the "log (agonist) versus response – variable slope (four parameters)" model with the bottom

constrained to "0". In Fig 3B and 3I for HD5 and HD5abu, repeated measures one-way ANOVA

using Dunnett's multiple comparisons test with a single pooled variance was used to compare the

mean of each column with that of the "no defensin" control. In Fig 3D, 3F, and 3I a two-tailed,

paired t test was used to compare HNP1 samples with "no defensin" controls. In Fig 3I, HD5 and

HD5abu were analyzed in parallel, while HNP1 was analyzed in separate experiments with

distinct "no defensin" controls. HD5, HD5abu, and HNP1 samples are graphed together for clarity.

Fig 4C was analyzed by repeated measures two-way ANOVA using Dunnett's multiple

comparisons test with a single pooled variance to compare the mean of each column with that of

the "no defensin" control for each pH value. Fig 5A, 5B, 5E and 5F were analyzed by ordinary

one-way ANOVA using Dunnett's multiple comparisons test with a single pooled variance to

compare the mean of each column with that of the "no defensin" control. In Fig 5A, each replicate

was analyzed individually. In Fig 5B, 5E, and 5F, the data for each condition for all replicates was

pooled prior to analysis. In Fig 5E and 5F, data was log-transformed prior to analysis. For all

analyses by ANOVA, P values are adjusted to account for multiple comparisons.

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Both HD5 and HNP1 bind to AAV2 and neutralize infection. Infection of AAV2 in the

presence of (A) HD5 or (B) HNP1. AAV2 was incubated with each defensin on ice prior to addition

to HeLa cells. Data are normalized to control infection in the absence of defensin and are the

mean ± SD of a minimum of 3 independent experiments. Mean IC_{50} values are indicated. Both

(C) HD5 and (D) HNP1 bind to AAV2. Background-corrected SPR sensorgrams are shown from

a concentration series of defensin interacting with immobilized AAV2. Colors correspond to

analyte (defensin) concentration, as indicated. Sensorgrams are representative of 2 independent

replicates for each defensin. Mean K_D values ± SD are indicated.

Figure 2. HD5, but not HNP1, inhibits AAV2 binding to cells, while both defensins impose

a post-attachment block to infection. Effects of (A) HD5 and (B) HNP1 on AAV2 binding to

HeLa cells. AAV2 was exposed to each defensin on ice prior to and during HeLa cell binding,

which was then quantified by qPCR. Data are normalized to the amount of virus bound in the

absence of defensin and are the mean ± SD of at least 3 independent experiments. The mean

HD5 IC_{50} value is indicated. Both (C) HD5 and (D) HNP1 inhibit AAV2 infection when added after

attachment of AAV2 to cells. Data are normalized to control infection in the absence of defensin

and are the mean ± SD of a minimum of 3 independent experiments. Mean IC_{50} values are

indicated.

Figure 3. Both HD5 and HNP1 block VP1u exposure. (A) Representative western blots of

AAV2 that was sequentially immunoprecipitated at 6 h p.i. first with the A1 (VP1u-specific)

antibody (top) then the A20 (intact capsid) antibody (bottom). Cells were infected in the presence

of 25 μM HD5, 25 μM HD5abu (ABU), or no defensin (ND). Uninfected cells (no virus, NV) were

included as a control. Blots were probed with the B1 antibody, and (B) the ratio of VP3 in the two

blots was quantified. (C) Representative western blots and (D) quantification of similar

experiments using 30 μM HNP1. (E) Representative western blots and (F) quantification of control

experiments where no defensin was present at the time of infection, but 30 µM HNP1 or no

defensin (ND) was added to the cell lysate prior to immunoprecipitation. (G and H) Representative

images and (I) quantification of HeLa cells in 96-well plates infected with AAV2 in the presence

or absence of the same concentrations of defensins that were used for immunoprecipitation.

Images were obtained 48 h p.i. at a resolution of 50 µm, and grayscale intensity correlates with

eGFP expression. Note that the infections were performed in parallel with the immunoprecipitation

experiments but that the HNP1 infection experiments were done separately from those with HD5

and HD5abu. For B, D, F, and I, each point is a biological replicate (n = 3), and bars are the mean

± SD.

Figure 4. HD5 and HNP1 block proteolytic cleavage of the capsid but do not alter capsid

thermostability. Representative blots from additional replicates of the A20 immunoprecipitation

experiments from Fig 3A and 3C probed with the B1 antibody. Arrows mark a B1-reactive

proteolytic fragment of the capsid proteins that is detectable in (A) the presence of 25 µM HD5abu

(ABU) but not 25 µM HD5 and (B) the absence (ND) but not presence of 30 µM HNP1. (C) The

melting temperature (T_m) of AAV2 in the presence or absence of 25 µM HD5, 30 µM HNP1, or no

defensin at the indicated pHs. Each point is a biological replicate (n = 3), and bars are the mean

± SD.

Figure 5. Both HD5 and HNP1 inhibit AAV2 nuclear localization. (A-C) The fraction of DyLight

488 (DL488)-labelled AAV2 in the nucleus of HeLa cells infected in the presence of 25 µM HD5

or 30 µM HNP1 was assessed 24 h p.i. by confocal microscopy and automated image analysis.

Control cells infected in the absence of defensin (ND) were analyzed immediately after cold

synchronization (0 h p.i.) or at 24 h p.i. (A) Scatter plots with a minimum of 35 cells per condition

are shown. Each replicate is shown separately and indicated by both symbol (Replicate 1 =

circles, 2 = squares, 3 = triangles, 4 = upside-down triangles) and color shade. n.d. = not done.

(B) Replicates from A were pooled and re-analyzed in aggregate for each condition. C)

Representative images of single cells from the experiments in A. Merged images include DAPI

(blue) and AAV2-DL488 (green). The fraction of DL488 signal in the nucleus is indicated for each

merged image. (D) Representative images of single cells from the experiments in A are shown to

depict the perinuclear region, located between the concentric yellow rings, which was used for

the analysis in E. The fraction of DL488 signal in the nucleus (n) and perinuclear region (p) is

indicated for each image. (E) The integrated intensity of the DL488 signal in the nucleus was

divided by that of the perinuclear region, and the log of this ratio is graphed. (F) The total cellular

integrated intensity of the DL488 signal was quantified. In all graphs, horizontal bars indicate

means. In B, E, and F, the shape and color of each data point corresponds to the replicates and

conditions in A. In C and D, scale bars indicate 10 µm, the DL488 signal was individually adjusted

for display purposes, and cells are from different replicates across conditions.

Figure 6. Model of AAV neutralization by defensins. Model of AAV2 infection in the absence

(left) and presence (right) of neutralizing concentrations of HD5 or HNP1. Host factors including

heparan sulfate proteoglycans (HSPG), the AAV receptor (AAVR), and GPR108 are depicted.

The red "x" indicates the block to cell binding upon pre-attachment exposure of AAV2 to HD5.

HNP1 is used to illustrate the effects of the intracellular defensin block, which is common to HD5

and HNP1. Figure created with BioRender.com.

Figure 1. Both HD5 and HNP1 bind to AAV2 and neutralize infection.
Infection of AAV2 in the presence of (A) HD5 or (B) HNP1. AAV2 was incubated with each defensin on ice prior to addition to HeLa cells. Data are normalized to control infection in the absence of defensin and are the mean $\pm$ SD of a minimum of 3 independent experiments. Mean IC_{50} values are indicated. Both (C) HD5 and (D) HNP1 bind to AAV2. Background-corrected SPR sensorgrams are shown from a concentration series of defensin interacting with immobilized AAV2. Colors correspond to analyte (defensin) concentration, as indicated. Sensorgrams are representative of 2 independent replicates for each defensin. Mean K_D values $\pm$ SD are indicated.

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