Immunodominant structural proteins Gc and N drive T cell-mediated protection against La Crosse virus

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SUMMARY

La Crosse virus (LACV) is a major cause of pediatric encephalitis in the U.S., primarily affecting children under 16 years. Despite severe morbidity and potential mortality risks, no vaccines or antivirals exist. Murine models recapitulate human susceptibility patterns, with weanling mice (3 weeks old) succumbing to disease while adults (≥8 weeks old) exhibit resistance. We characterized the T cell responses underlying this difference. Adult mice mounted robust CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cell responses by 6 days post-infection (dpi), with sustained IFN-γ, granzyme B, IL-2, and TNF-α production. These T cells expanded significantly and exhibited in vivo cytotoxicity against cells pulsed with LACV glycoprotein (Gc) and nucleocapsid (N) antigens. In contrast, weanlings showed weak T cell responses and 100% mortality by 7 dpi. Immunization with LFn-LACV-Gc and -N improved T cell cytotoxicity and survival in weanlings, highlighting their potential as vaccines. These findings inform strategies to mitigate LACV-induced encephalitis in children.

INTRODUCTION

La Crosse virus (LACV) is a single-stranded, negative-sense RNA virus belonging to the *Bunyavirales* order [1]. Its genome is segmented into three strands referred to as small (S), medium (M), and large (L), distinguished by their relative sizes. The S segment encodes the nucleocapsid protein (N) and nonstructural protein s (NSs), the latter of which has been shown to modulate the host cell antiviral response through innate immune pathways [2]. The M segment encodes a glycosylated polyprotein precursor (GPC) that is cleaved by host cell proteases to generate the envelope glycoproteins Gn and Gc [3]. Cleavage of GPC also produces the nonstructural protein m (NSm), which has been implicated in viral assembly [2]. The L segment encodes an RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp), responsible for both transcription and replication of the viral genome [4].

Human infection with LACV occurs predominantly through the bite of infected Eastern tree hole mosquitoes (*Aedes triseriatus*), which are endemic throughout North America. Other mosquito species can also harbor LACV, potentially facilitating viral spread into new regions and hosts [5]. Following entry into the human host, LACV replicates in skin muscle cells, enabling subsequent viral dissemination to multiple tissues and organs [6,7]. Although most LACV-infected individuals experience only mild, febrile symptoms, the virus can invade the central nervous system (CNS) causing a subset to experience severe neurological manifestations, including altered behavior, seizures, coma, or even death [8]. Pediatric populations, particularly children under the age of 16 years, exhibit the highest susceptibility to LACV encephalitis, implicating age-associated factors in disease severity [9].

Currently, there are no approved antiviral therapies or vaccines against LACV, necessitating reliance on supportive care alone to mitigate disease symptoms. The absence of licensed vaccines partly reflects a limited understanding of how the host immune response mediates protection, particularly against neurological sequelae. This gap in knowledge has been difficult to address in humans, where clinical samples, especially those collected during the acute phase of infection, are challenging to obtain. However, murine models accurately recapitulate the age-dependent susceptibility seen in humans, with

weaning mice (3 weeks old) succumbing to LACV-induced neuropathology, whereas adults (≥8 weeks
old) resist peripheral LACV infection [6,10,11].

Previous studies in adult mice indicate a critical role of the peripheral immune system in preventing LACV
neuroinvasion, given that inoculation of C57BL/6 wild type mice via intraperitoneal (IP) or intradermal (ID)
routes does not induce overt neurological disease, whereas intracranial inoculation does [7,12-14]. Additional
research reveals that type I interferon responses are indispensable for protecting mice from lethal
peripheral LACV challenge at all ages, highlighting the importance of innate immunity in early antiviral
control [13,15]. Furthermore, in peripheral tissues, activation of antiviral recognition pathways induces type I
interferon responses, such as IFN-β, which suppress viral replication, control LACV infection, and limit its
spread to the CNS [15,17,18]. However, within the CNS, similar signaling can also lead to neuronal damage
and cell death [19]. This dual role of innate immune responses in LACV infection underscores their context-
dependent effects, providing both protection and potential pathogenicity [16].

While innate immune responses to LACV have been well studied, much less is known about adaptive
immunity. Research has shown that myeloid dendritic cells, which bridge innate and adaptive immunity,
are critical for early protective responses in adult mice infected with LACV [13]. Their role is further
enhanced in young mice upon treatment with type I interferon [13]. Notably, both innate and adaptive
immune responses appear to cooperate in controlling LACV infection in adult mice. The depletion of CD4+
and CD8+ T cells in adult mice reverse their resistance phenotype, emphasizing that T cell-mediated
responses are critical for protection and prevention of neurological complications [12]. This study also
highlighted that while lymphocytes, including NK cells and CD4+ and CD8+ T cells infiltrate the CNS of
susceptible weanling mice, their depletion does not impact neurological disease, suggesting they are not
contributors to pathogenesis in young mice [20]. Conversely, in adult mice, the depletion of both T cells and
B cells results in increased viral loads in the brain and heightened neurological disease [20]. Despite this
work, the precise immunological correlates of protective immunity remain insufficiently characterized,
particularly with respect to identifying virus-specific T cell responses and their antigenic targets.

We recently demonstrated that LACV-infected weanling mice produce a Th2-skewed cytokine profile and
exhibit few IFN-γ producing T cells as compared to adults [21]. However, the passive transfer of splenic
leukocytes from immune adult mice to naïve weanlings prior to LACV challenge significantly improved
survival [21]. We also recently showed that adult mice have delayed spread of LACV into the CNS as
compared to weanlings, further supporting adaptive immunity in peripheral control of the virus [22]. We
hypothesize that T cell-mediated immunity is essential for protection against LACV neuropathogenesis.
Thus, a better understanding of age-dependent T cell responses is pivotal for designing effective
vaccines and immunotherapies that target pediatric populations.

In this study, we provide a detailed analysis of T cell responses in adult and weanling mice across the
LACV proteome. We demonstrate robust, polyfunctional CD4+ and CD8+ T cell responses directed
against both structural and non-structural proteins in LACV-infected adult mice, whereas these responses
are significantly blunted in weanlings. We additionally show that upon immunization structural proteins Gc
and N elicit high in vivo cytotoxic activity in weanling mice that significantly improve survival. These
findings underscore the need for vaccine development targeting these immunodominant antigens and
highlight key immune determinants that could be leveraged to protect children from LACV-induced
encephalitis.

RESULTS

Adult mice mount robust LACV-specific cellular responses, while weanlings lack these responses.

Previous studies have documented high immunogenicity of structural antigens in bunyavirus infections,
but the immunogenicity of non-structural proteins has been less thoroughly investigated [1]. To identify
LACV T cell targets, we performed in silico peptide analysis of the entire LACV proteome, evaluating
potential epitopes restricted by both human and mouse MHC Class I and Class II molecules. Our analysis
highlighted multiple immunogenic peptides in structural and non-structural proteins. Out of 176 total
peptides identified as binders to MHC Class I molecules, an average of 12, 18, and 7 peptides were

associated with Gn, Gc, and N, respectively (Fig. S1). For the non-structural proteins, we identified 5, 6,
and 59 peptides binding to NSs, NSm, and RdRp, respectively, suggesting that these proteins may also
serve as dominant targets for T cell-mediated immunity (Fig. S1). Among the peptides identified, Gc and
RdRp contained the highest number of highly immunogenic sequences. Notably, 12 peptides were
predicted to bind to both human and mouse MHC Class I molecules, underscoring their potential as
cross-species immunogenic epitopes (Table 1). Based on these predictions, we proceeded with ex vivo
analyses using a panel of immunogens, consisting of a modified *Bacillus anthracis* lethal factor (LFn)
fused to each of the LACV structural or non-structural proteins. LFn has been shown to transport full-
length antigens into the cytosol to induce virus-specific T cell responses via the MHC Class I and Class II
pathways [23-26].

To quantify the LACV-specific cellular responses, we measured IFN-γ production by splenic leukocytes
from LACV-infected and uninfected C57BL/6 wild type mice in enzyme-linked immunospot (ELISPOT)
assays at 6 and 14 days post-infection. Adult mice mounted a robust cellular response to multiple LACV
proteins by 6 dpi, which persisted by 14 dpi (Fig.1A, S2A-B). Structural proteins Gc and N induced the
strongest responses, followed by NSm as compared to the negligible responses observed in uninfected
adult controls (Fig. 1B, S2A-B). In contrast, weanling mice at 6 dpi showed minimal IFN-γ responses to
any LACV proteins, which were similar to the uninfected controls (Fig. 1A, S3A). Because all weanling
mice succumbed to infection by 7 dpi, data at 14 dpi could not be obtained. These data indicate that the
age-dependent immunological disparity in LACV infection extends to both the magnitude and breadth of T
cell responses.

Figure 1. LACV-specific ex vivo cellular response in wildtype mice. (A) Top: Quantified spot forming
cells (SFC) detected by ELISPOT assay using splenic leukocytes from adult and weanling mice infected
with LACV at 6 days post-infection (dpi). Bottom: Splenic leukocytes were treated with LFn-LACV proteins
and IFN-γ responses were detected by ELISPOT assay. (-) negative control: cells stimulated with LFn
alone, (+) positive control: cells stimulated with PMA (phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate). Statistical
significance was determined using ANOVA test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Data
is presented as individual points with minimum and maximum values, (n=5 in each group). (B) Percent of
total responses generated against each LFn-LACV protein in adult mice at 14 dpi. See also Figure S2,
S3.

Adult mice exhibit significantly higher percentage of both CD4+ and CD8+ splenic T cells following
LACV infection compared to weanlings

We next evaluated whether the limited LACV-specific cellular responses in weanlings reflect a smaller
pool of available T cells. Splenocytes from adult and weanling mice were analyzed by flow cytometry at 6
and 14 dpi for the frequency of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. In adult mice, LACV infection triggered a
significant increase in CD4+ T cell numbers at 6 dpi compared to age-matched uninfected controls at the
same timepoint (Fig. 2A). This population expansion persisted through 14 dpi. Similarly, CD8+ T cells in
adults exhibited a more pronounced expansion, reaching statistical significance at both time points (Fig.
2B). By contrast, the percentage of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in weanlings at 6 dpi remained unchanged
from uninfected age-matched controls and significantly lower percentages observed in infected adult mice
at 6 dpi, corresponding with their poor ex vivo IFN-γ response. These findings suggest that both CD4+
and CD8+ T cell numbers expand in adults but not weanlings post LACV infection.

Figure 2. LACV-induced CD4+ and CD8+ T cell Expansion in LACV infected mice. Total percentage
of CD4+ T cells in (A) and CD8+ T cell populations (B) among total splenocytes of adult and weanling
mice at 6 and 14 days post-infection (dpi) with LACV analyzed by flow cytometry. Statistical significance
was determined using ANOVA test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Data is presented
as individual points with mean ± standard deviation (n=6 in each group).

Adult mice mount functional LACV-specific CD4+ and CD8+ T cell responses, whereas weanlings
do not

To determine the functional capacity of virus-specific T cells in adult and weanling mice following LACV
challenge, we performed intracellular cytokine staining of splenic leukocytes pulsed with LFn-LACV
immunogens. We simultaneously measured the production of IFN-γ, granzyme B, IL-2, and TNF-α in
CD4+ and CD8+ T cells (Fig. 3, S4-8). Adult mice displayed robust IFN-γ responses across structural and
most non-structural proteins by 6 dpi. In adult mice, CD4+ and CD8+ T cells displayed a robust IFN-γ
response to all structural and most non-structural LACV proteins as early as 6 dpi, with levels significantly
higher than in age-matched uninfected controls (Fig. 3A-B). CD4+ T cell responses began to decline by
14 dpi, while CD8+ T cell responses increased at 14 dpi against most LACV proteins, indicating sustained
effector activity of CD8+ T cells (Fig. 3A-B). Importantly, weanling mice exhibited negligible cytokine
responses by CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, mirroring their poor splenic T cell expansion and heightened
mortality (Fig. 3C-D, S7).

A similar trend was observed for other cytokines. Granzyme B expression was significantly elevated in
adult mice but was minimal in weanlings (Fig. S4, S7). IL-2 and TNF-α responses were generally weak
across both age groups, though adult mice consistently showed higher levels than weanlings (Fig. S5-7).

TNF-α expression was detectable in adults and weanlings but remained low overall compared to other
analyzed cytokines (Fig. S6). These results indicate that virus-specific T cells in adult mice mount
functional effector responses during a LACV infection, whereas such responses are notably weak or
absent in weanling mice.

We further examined polyfunctionality by assessing the capacity of T cells to concurrently produce
multiple cytokines. In adult mice, CD4+ T cells exhibited multi-cytokine functionality, although IFN-γ was
the dominant effector molecule (Fig. 4A-B). These CD4+ T cell effector functions were sustained at 14 dpi
(Fig. S9A-B), underscoring their role in orchestrating immune responses during LACV infection.
Furthermore,~20–34% of CD8+ T cells co-produced IFN-γ and granzyme B at 6 dpi, rising to 54-69% by
14 dpi. (Fig. 4C-D). A smaller proportion of CD8+ T cells demonstrated dual functionality involving
granzyme B with IL-2 or IFN-γ with IL-2 (Fig. 4C-D). These polyfunctional responses were most
pronounced following pulsing cells with the LFn-LACV Gc, Gn, or RdRp immunogens, underscoring the
immunogenicity of these proteins (Fig. 4A-B, S9). Thus, in contrast to weanlings, adult mice generated a
robust, polyfunctional T cell response that likely contributes to effective viral clearance and survival.

**Figure 3. LACV-specific ex vivo splenic CD4+ and CD8+ T cell Functional response in LACV
infected mice.** Functional LACV-specific CD4+ and CD8+ T cell responses shown as the percent of CD4+
or CD8+ cells positive for IFN-γ in CD3+ gate in flow cytometry/intracellular cytokine staining in adult (A, B)
and weanling mice (C, D) at 6, 14 dpi compared to age-matched uninfected controls. Statistical
significance was determined using ANOVA test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001. Data
is presented as individual points with minimum and maximum values, (n=9 adults, 5 weanlings). See also
Figure S4-8.

Figure 4. Polyfunctional profiles of LACV-specific CD4+ and CD8+ T cells at 6 dpi. Pie charts
depicting the distribution of LACV-specific CD4+ T cell (A) and CD8+ T cell (C) populations with single or
dual functional profiles, defined by cytokine production (n=9). (B, D) Bar graph showing the total
percentage of LACV-specific CD4+ T or CD8+ T cells producing one or two cytokines in response to
infection. Data is represented as mean with minimum and maximum values (n=9). See also Figure S9.

***T cell responses against LACV Gc and N exhibit potent in vivo cytotoxicity and confer protection
in weanlings upon vaccination***

We next assessed T cell cytotoxic activity using an in vivo cytotoxicity assay based on carboxyfluorescein
succinimidyl ester (CFSE). Briefly, CFSE-labeled splenocytes pulsed with individual LFn-LACV proteins
(LFn-LACV-Gc or -N), were transferred into LACV-infected adult mice at 14 dpi, and LACV-infected
weanlings at 6 dpi, and the percentage of target cell killing was calculated (Fig. 5A). In adult mice, target
cells pulsed with LFn-LACV-Gc or -N were eliminated at rates of ~53% and ~40%, respectively (Fig. 5A,
5D). In contrast, weanling mice exhibited minimal killing of target cells pulsed with LFn-LACV-Gc (~5%) or
LFn-LACV-N (~7%) at 6 dpi, the latest timepoint that could be assessed (Fig. 5A, D). These results show
that LACV-specific T cells mediate cytotoxicity in LACV-infected adult mice but not in weanlings.

To further translate these findings into a vaccination strategy for susceptible weanling mice, we
immunized neonatal mice (1 week old) with either LFn-LACV-Gc or -N, with a boosting dose at 2 weeks
old, then subsequently challenged them with LACV at weanling age (Fig. 5B-C). The two-dose
immunization regimen significantly improved survival compared to control groups, increasing survival
rates to ~70–80% (Fig. 5C). To assess whether immunization impacted T cell cytotoxicity in weanlings,
we repeated the CFSE-based in vivo cytotoxicity assay post-immunization. CFSE-labeled splenocytes

pulsed with individual LFn-LACV proteins were transferred into their respective LFn-LACV-Gc or -N
immunized recipient mice, and cytotoxicity was measured. Strikingly, LFn-LACV-Gc immunization
enhanced target cell killing to ~21% in weanling mice, a significant increase compared to the negligible
cytotoxic response observed post-infection. Similarly, LFn-LACV-N immunization improved target cell
elimination to ~19%, demonstrating a clear enhancement in cytotoxic capacity relative to unvaccinated
weanling mice (Fig. 5D). These results confirm that vaccine-elicited T cell responses contribute to
protection against LACV-induced disease in weanling mice by enhancing T cell cytotoxic activity.

Figure 5. In vivo cytotoxicity and protection mediated by LACV-specific T cells. (A) Schematic
representation of the in vivo cytotoxicity assay. Equal numbers of naïve splenocytes pulsed with LFn-
LACV-Gc or LFn-LACV-N (CFSE^{High} target cells) and splenocytes pulsed with an irrelevant protein, LFn-
ZIKV-NS3 (CFSE^{Low} marker cells), were transferred into either naïve or LACV-immune recipient mice.
Percent killing was quantified by flow cytometry in recipient spleens 4 hours post-transfer. (B) Schematic
of the LFn-LACV immunization strategy. One-week-old mice were immunized with 50 µg of either LFn-
LACV-Gc or LFn-LACV-N. A booster dose was administered 7 days later, followed by LACV challenge at
weanling age. (C) Survival curves of weanling mice immunized with LFn-LACV-Gc or LFn-LACV-N
compared with LFn-ZIKV-NS3 and subsequently challenged with LACV (n = 5 per group). Statistical
significance was determined using log-rank test. (D) Bar chart quantifying in vivo cytotoxicity in previously
LACV-infected adult and weanling mice, as well as in LFn-LACV-Gc- or LFn-LACV-N-immunized
weanling mice. Percent killing was determined by flow cytometry. Statistical significance was determined
using ANOVA test, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.000. Data is presented as individual
points with mean ± standard deviation (n=5 per group).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we characterized virus-specific T cells in adult and weanling mice providing a critical step
toward developing a pediatric vaccine for this clinically significant arbovirus. Our findings demonstrate
significant differences in T cell responses between adult and weanling mice. Adult mice mounted robust
LACV-specific T cell responses, characterized by strong IFN-γ production against both structural and
nonstructural antigens, with the highest responses targeting the structural proteins Gc and N. In contrast,
weanling mice displayed significantly weaker T cell responses at 6 dpi, underscoring the inability of their

immature immune systems to mount effective adaptive cellular immunity. This disparity likely contributes
to the heightened susceptibility of weanlings to severe LACV infection.

Further analysis revealed significant expansion of CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cell populations in adult mice
following LACV infection, accompanied by robust cytokine production, including IFN-γ, granzyme B, IL-2,
and TNF-α. Polyfunctional CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells, which co-produced cytokines especially IFN-γ and
granzyme B, were prominent in adults, supporting effective viral control and clearance. By contrast,
weanlings exhibited limited T cell expansion and functional responses, suggesting an immature adaptive
immune system unable to mount sufficient antiviral defenses.

Consistent with prior studies, our findings reaffirm the essential role of CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells in
mediating protection in adult mice [20]. Depletion or knockout of these subsets led to disease progression
and neurological complications at later stages of LACV infection in adult mice, emphasizing the necessity
of adaptive immunity in sustaining the protective effects initially provided by innate responses [20]. On the
other hand, the poor immune outcomes in weanlings may stem from deficiencies in both innate and
adaptive immunity in younger mice. Evidence suggests that dendritic cells in young mice exhibit impaired
functionality, potentially due to reduced maturity or lower expression of co-stimulatory molecules [27].
Additionally, a limited T cell receptor (TCR) repertoire, immature germinal center reactions, and
suboptimal T follicular helper (Tfh) cell activity further compromise the adaptive immune response in
weanlings [27]. Understanding these mechanisms is critical for informing vaccine strategies aimed at
enhancing immunity in vulnerable populations.

In our efforts to inform vaccine design, we explored the immunogenicity against the entire LACV
proteome. Our ex vivo analysis, which included T cell analysis against both structural and nonstructural
proteins, represents a significant advancement over previous ex vivo studies on members of *Bunyavirales*
which focused mostly on structural antigens [1]. Immunogenic epitopes were identified across the
proteome, providing a broad array of potential T cell targets. The strong immunogenicity of the structural
proteins Gc and N was validated through their ability to elicit robust T cell responses with significant in
vivo cytotoxicity. Moreover, immunization with these proteins conferred protection in weanling mice upon
LACV challenge, demonstrating their potential as vaccine candidates. These findings align with studies
on genetically related viruses within the *Peribunyaviridae* family, such as Jamestown Canyon Virus (JCV),
Oropouche Virus (OROV), and Bunyamwera Virus (BUNV), where glycoproteins (Gn/Gc) and
nucleocapsid (N) proteins were identified as key targets for T cell responses based solely on
immunoinformatic analysis [28-30]. Similarly, comprehensive in silico analyses of Rift Valley Fever Virus
(RVFV) and Severe Fever with Thrombocytopenia Syndrome Virus (SFTSV) have highlighted the
immunogenicity of structural and nonstructural proteins [31,32]. Notably, cross-reactive N-specific CD8^{+} T
cells have been observed across hantaviruses, and T cell responses targeting Gn and Gc have been
identified in patients infected with Hantaan virus (HTNV) and Andes Virus (ANDV) [33-35].

While the current study did not fully determine the specific mechanisms of vaccine-induced protection, we
have established a foundation for future research to identify correlates of immunity for LFn-LACV-Gc or -
N vaccines. These findings served as a validation of the high immunogenicity of identified viral proteins in
this study and their protective potential in weanling mice. Notably, this work represents one of the few
attempts to develop a vaccine against LACV, building on early studies that demonstrated protection using
DNA vaccines encoding Gc/Gn and N proteins in adult *IFNAR1*^{-/-} mice [36]. Mice vaccinated with DNA
encoding the glycoproteins Gn and Gc produced neutralizing antibodies and exhibited a high degree of
protection against challenge with high doses of LACV [36]. Depletion of CD4^{+} T cells in mice vaccinated
with DNA encoding Gn/Gc reduced their capacity to control the infection [36].

While most prior studies have utilized mouse models to investigate LACV pathogenesis, our
understanding of T cell responses in LACV-infected humans remains limited. Surveillance data from
LACV-endemic regions reveal that a majority of individuals with detectable neutralizing antibodies do not
report a history of clinically significant infection [8]. Among those who do develop encephalitis, clinical
manifestations range from mild aseptic meningitis to transient or permanent neurological complications [37].
This variability in susceptibility to infection and disease severity suggests a potential role for MHC-
restricted T cell responses. Supporting this hypothesis, an earlier study examining MHC antigen
frequencies in patients with LACV encephalitis identified HLA-specific risk factors associated with
disease, such as the prevalence of HLA-B49 and/or the absence of HLA-DR5 [38]. These findings

underscore the importance of T cell-mediated immunity in determining disease susceptibility and severity in human LACV infections. Although there is a convenient mouse model available for studying LACV, there is a critical need to understand human HLA restriction and disease susceptibility and to characterize HLA-specific T cell responses in both young and adult populations.

By emphasizing the age-dependent nature of T cell responses and identifying immunogenic viral targets, this work provides a foundation for the development of LACV vaccines and therapeutics. Future research should focus on addressing the mechanistic basis of weak T cell responses in juvenile models, including deficits in antigen presentation and T cell priming. Bridging these gaps will further inform vaccine strategies to mitigate the burden of LACV disease, particularly in children, the population most at risk.

Limitations of the study

One limitation of this study is that the immunogenic peptides predicted through in silico analysis were not experimentally validated ex vivo or in vivo. While we identified the immunogenicity of full-length LACV proteins, which informed vaccine development, further validation of individual peptide immunogenicity could provide a more precise understanding of T cell responses, particularly in the context of human immunity. Future studies should focus on experimentally confirming these predicted epitopes to better assess their relevance for vaccine design and immune response profiling.

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead contact
Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Bobby Brooke Herrera (BBH, bherrera@globalhealth.rutgers.edu).

Materials availability
This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability
Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceptualization, R.A. and B.B.H.; formal analysis, R.A. and B.B.H.; investigation, R.A., S.I, V.V, J.D, B.B.H; resources, B.B.H.; data curation, R.A., S.I, V.V, J.D; writing—original draft preparation, R.A. and B.B.H.; writing—review and editing, R.A. and B.B.H.; visualization, R.A. and B.B.H.; supervision, B.B.H.; funding acquisition, B.B.H. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

BBH is a co-founder of the company Mir Biosciences, Inc.. BBH and RA are inventors on U.S. provisional patent application 63/761,248, relevant to vaccine design for LACV.

DECLARATION OF GENERATIVE AI AND AI-ASSISTED TECHNOLOGIES

334   N/A

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     TABLES AND TEXT BOXES

     Table 1. Predicted immunogenic LACV derived epitopes with human and/or MHC restriction.

		RESTRICTION				
EPITOPE	Sequence	HLA A*01:01	HLA A*02:01	HLA A*11:01	HLA B*07:02	H2Kb
GC$_{1-9}$	YTNIATQLK	+		+		
GC$_{69-78}$	YSQTTWRVY	+	+			+
GC$_{156-164}$	KSNDDLIAY	+		+		
GC-$_{180-189}$	AIIDYIAYM	+	+	+		+
GC$_{249-258}$	LSPRSGAIY	+			+	
GC$_{633-642}$	YSLPRIVAV		+		+	+
N$_{335-344}$	FLQKFGIRL		+			+
NSS$_{49-58}$	VSQRGRLTL		+		+	+
NSS$_{71-80}$	FLETGTTQL	+	+			
NSM$_{13-24}$	SIITAVLVL		+			+
NSM$_{73-82}$	VIIGLLIGL		+			+
RDRP$_{711-720}$	LSDYDITQK	+		+		
RDRP$_{910-919}$	KVFDRLYEL	+	+	+	+	+
RDRP$_{1065-1074}$	SAQDVFYKY	+		+		
RDRP$_{1084-1093}$	YPQEKERILY	+			+	
RDRP$_{1166-1175}$	ILKEAITLL	+	+			+
RDRP$_{1456-1465}$	GMVELFTYL	+	+			+
RDRP$_{1860-1869}$	SINLTITGY	+		+		
RDRP$_{1960-1969}$	RIYNEITPV	+	+			+
RDRP$_{2092-3001}$	STPIFNIYY	+		+	+	+

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531 **STAR★METHODS**

532 **KEY RESOURCES TABLE**

REAGENT OR RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Rat anti-mouse Granzyme B Monoclonal Antibody (NGZB), PE-Cyanine5.5	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 35-8898-80, RRID:AB_2848328
Rat anti-mouse IFN gamma Monoclonal Antibody (XMG1.2), eFluor™ 660	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 50-7311-80, RRID:AB_11218909
Rat anti-mouse CD3 Monoclonal Antibody (OKT3), Alexa Fluor™ 700, eBioscience	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 56-0037-42, RRID:AB_10714978
Rat anti-mouse TNF alpha Monoclonal Antibody (MP6-XT22), Brilliant Violet™ 421	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 404-7321-80, RRID:AB_2925545
Rat anti-mouse CD19 Monoclonal Antibody (eBio1D3 (1D3)), Brilliant Violet™ 650	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 416-0193-80, RRID:AB_2925673
Rat anti-mouse IL-2 Monoclonal Antibody (JES6-5H4), PE	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 12-7021-81, RRID:AB_466149
Rat anti-mouse CD4 Monoclonal Antibody (GK1.5), APC-eFluor™ 780	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 47-0041-80, RRID:AB_11219883
Rat anti-mouse CD8 Monoclonal Antibody (53-6.7) Alexa Fluor 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 53-008180
Anti-mouse CD16/CD32 Fcγ III/II (Thermo fisher sciences)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat # 14-0161-82
Anti-mouse IFN gamma ELISPOT capture antibody	BD Biosciences	Cat# 551881, RRID:AB_2868948
Anti-mouse IFN gamma ELISPOT detection antibody	BD Biosciences	Cat# 551881, RRID:AB_2868948
Bacterial and virus strains		
NIH: La Crosse Virus, NR-540	Human isolate, BEI Resources	Catalog No. NR-540 (Derived from ATCC® VR-744™)
Biological samples		
N/A		
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
LFn-LACV immunogens	Mir Biosciences, Inc	N/A
LFn-ZIKV immunogens	Mir Biosciences, Inc	N/A
Brefeldin A Solution	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 00-4506-51
RBC Lysis Buffer	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# J62150.AP
Cell Stimulation Cocktail	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 00-4970-93
Streptavidin-HRP	BD Biosciences	Cat# 557630, RRID:AB_10065937
Intracellular Fixation & Permeabilization Buffer Set	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 88-8824-00

Cell Stimulation Cocktail (plus protein transport inhibitors)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 00-4975-93
AEC substrate	BD Biosciences	Cat# 551951, RRID:AB_2868954
Critical commercial assays		
CellTrace™ CFSE Cell Proliferation Kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# C34570
Live/Dead viability dye Aqua	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# L34965
Deposited data		
N/A		
Experimental models: Cell lines		
Vero cells	ATCC	Cat# CCL-81.4, RRID:CVCL_0059
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		
Mice C57BL/6	The Jackson Laboratory	RRID:MGI:2159769
Oligonucleotides		
N/A		
Recombinant DNA		
N/A		
Software and algorithms		
ImmunoSpot Software for Analyzing ELISPOT Assays	Cellular Technology Limited	RRID:SCR_011082
Cytek Aurora Spectral Analyzer	Cytek	RRID:SCR_019826
Cytek SpectroFlo	Cytek	RRID:SCR_025494
FLOWJo version 10.2	TreeStar, Inc	RRID:SCR_008520
GraphPad Prism	GraphPad software	RRID:SCR_002798
Immune Epitope Database and Analysis Resource (IEDB)	National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases	RRID:SCR_006604
BioRender	BioRender	RRID:SCR_018361
Other		
N/A		

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND STUDY PARTICIPANT DETAILS

Infection of mice with LACV and neurological disease progression criteria

All animal studies were approved by the Rutgers IACUC (protocol number 202300007). Wild-type (C57Bl/6) mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories and maintained in a breeding colony at the Child Health Institute of New Jersey. LACV (La Crosse Virus, NR-540), a human isolate was purchased and obtained from BEI Resources. Mice at 3 (weanling) or 8 (adult) weeks of age were inoculated with 103 PFU of LACV in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) intraperitoneally in a volume of 200 μL/mouse. Mice were observed daily for signs of neurological disease that included hunched posture, seizures, reluctance, or inability to move normally, or paralysis. Animals with clear clinical signs of neurological disease were scored as clinical and euthanized immediately.

METHOD DETAILS

Bioinformatic analyses

All 9mer peptides encoded in the LACV proteome were predicted for their binding affinity to MHC class I
alleles A*0201, A*0101, A*1101, and B*0702. C57BL/6 MHC I was also included for analyses (H2Kb).
Binding predictions are performed using NetMHCpan 4.1 EL MHC class I prediction tool available on the
Immune Epitope Database (IEDB) (http://www.iedb.org) Web site [39]. Peptides are selected if they were in
the top 1% of binders for each MHC molecule analyzed for further analysis for MHC I immunogenicity
available on the IEDB website. Immunogenic peptides were predicted as previously described [40].
Immunogenic peptides were assigned a positive immunogenic score. A total of 176 9-mer peptides were
identified by MHC class I predictions, as described above. MHC II immunogenicity score of peptides
predicted to bind using 7-allele method.

LFn-LACV immunogens

LFn-LACV immunogens were purchased from Mir Biosciences, Inc., (New Jersey, USA). In brief, gene
fragments encoding the LACV Gc, Gn, N, NSm, NSs and RdRp were cloned into the LFn expression
vector. The constructs were transformed into Escherichia coli BLR (DE3) (Millipore, Medford, MA).
Selected transformants were sequenced to verify in-frame cloning. The LFn-LACV immunogens were
expressed upon induction with isopropyl-β-d-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO,
USA) in 5 liters of Luria broth containing Kanamycin for 4 h. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation and
resuspended in imidazole (1 mM) binding buffer (Novagen, Madison, WI) in the presence of a protease
inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). Cell pellets were sonicated and centrifuged at
4°C, and the supernatants were loaded in an equilibrated nickel-charged column for affinity purification.
The bound proteins were eluted in 100 to 200 mM imidazole, desalted with a Sephadex G-25M column
(Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), and eluted in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (Sigma-Aldrich, St.
Louis, MO, USA). The PBS-eluted proteins were passed through Detoxi-Gel (Thermo Fisher Scientific,
Rockford, IL). Protein concentrations were determined, and samples were stored at –80°C.

Splenic leukocytes harvest

572 Spleens from LACV-infected and uninfected mice were harvested at 6 and 14 dpi, as described
573 previously [21]. Spleens were processed into single-cell suspensions by passing them through a 70 μM
574 mesh filter, followed by red blood cell lysis using RBC Lysis Buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Isolated
575 cells were then seeded for subsequent ELISPOT and flow cytometry/ICS assays.

ELISPOT test

Ex vivo ELISPOT tests ELISPOT assays were performed as previously described [24]. Briefly, 96-well
plates (Millipore) are coated with anti-mouse IFN-γ antibodies (BD Biosciences) and incubated overnight
at 4°C. Plates are blocked with RPMI 10% FBS and washed 2 times. Splenic leukocytes harvested from
LACV infected mice, as well as uninfected controls are seeded in triplicate at 2×10^5 cells/well. LFn-
LACV immunogens are added to each well (5 μg/ml) and plates are incubated at 37°C with 5% CO2 for
18-24 hours. Cells stimulated with PMA (Phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate) will serve as a positive control
and cells stimulated with LFn alone as a negative control. After incubation and removal of cells, the
detection antibody (BD Biosciences) is added and incubated at room temperature. Plates are washed
then incubated with streptavidin HRP (BD Biosciences). After washing, AEC substrate (BD Biosciences)
is added before rinsing with water and air-drying. Digitized images are analyzed using CTL ImmunoSpot
reader (Cellular Technology Limited). LFn-LACV immunogen specific spots is calculated by subtracting
the mean of the negative control values from the mean values of the specific stimulation. Positive
responses are greater than four times the mean background, three standard deviations above the
background, and >55 spot-forming cells (SFC)/ 2×10^5 total splenic leukocytes.

Flow cytometry and ICS assay

Briefly, isolated cells are seeded at a density of $2 \times 10^\square$ cells per well in a 96-well U-bottom plate, with
LFn-LACV immunogens added to each well at a concentration of 10 μg/ml, followed by incubation at 37°C
with 5% CO_2 for 18 hours. Cells stimulated with PMA will serve as a positive control and cells stimulated
with LFn alone as a negative control. Brefeldin A inhibitor is added during the last 4 hours of incubation.
Post-incubation, cells are stained for viability using a viability dye (LIVE/DEAD Fixable Aqua Dead Cell

Stain Kit, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and Fc receptors are blocked using anti-mouse CD16/CD32 Fcγ III/II
(Thermo fisher sciences) and normal mouse serum. Cells are then stained for extracellular markers using
a panel of antibodies (CD8a- Alexa Fluor 488, CD19- Brilliant Violet 650, CD4- APC-eFluor 780, CD3-
Alexa Fluor 700 ; all from Thermo Fisher Scientific), washed, and fixed and permeabilized using the FIX &
PERM Cell Fixation and Permeabilization Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Following permeabilization, cells
are stained for intracellular cytokines (Granzyme B- PE-Cyanine 5.5, IL-2-PE, TNF-alpha- Brilliant Violet
421, IFN-γ-eFluor 660; all from Thermo Fisher Scientific), washed, and resuspended in FACS buffer. Flow
cytometry data are acquired using the Aurora system (Cytek® Biosciences) and analyzed using FlowJo
software (version 10.2; TreeStar, Inc), retaining live cells and excluding doublets using SSC-A and FSC-A
gating.

In vivo cytotoxicity assay

Wild-type (C57Bl/6) mice (recipients) were either infected with 10^3 LACV, or immunized with LACV-Gc or
N. Splenocytes (targets) were harvested from donor naïve wild-type mice. RBC were lysed, and the target
cells were pulsed with 10 µg/ml of the irrelevant LFn-immunogen (ZIKV), LFn-Gc, LFn-N for 18 h at 37°C.
The cells were then washed and labeled with Carboxyfluorescein succinimidyl ester (CFSE) (Invitrogen)
in PBS for 10 min at 37°C. LFn-LACV-pulsed cells were labeled with 5 µM CFSE (CFSE^{High}) and the
irrelevant protein-pulsed cells with 0.5 µM CFSE (CFSE^{Low}). After washing, the two cell populations were
mixed at a 1:1 ratio and 5 × 106 cells were injected i.v. into naive ,infected recipient mice at 14 dpi or
immunized weanling mice. After 4 h, the mice were sacrificed and splenocytes were analyzed by flow
cytometry, gating on lymphocyte cells using SSC-A and FSC-A gating. The percentage killing was
calculated as follows: 100 – ((percentage LACV peptide-pulsed in infected mice/percentage irrelevant
peptide-pulsed in infected mice)/(percentage LACV peptide-pulsed in naive mice/percentage irrelevant
peptide-pulsed in naive mice)) × 100.

LFn-LACV immunizations

1 week old mice were immunized s.c. with 50 µg of each LFn-Gc or LFn-N protein. Mock-immunized mice
received LFn-ZIKV-NS3 protein. Mice were boosted with the same dose after 7 days following the first
immunization. Mice were then challenged 7 days after second dose immunization with 1000 PFU of
LACV. Mice were monitored for neurological signs development.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

All statistical analyses were performed using Prism software Version 7.01 (GraphPad) and are
described in the figure legends.

ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

N/A