Defining the Impact of Cell-Type and Species on the Molecular RNA

Replication Kinetics of Seoul Virus

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Abstract

Hantaviruses are zoonotic, tri-segmented, negative-sense RNA viruses and a

significant public health threat. Viral pathogenesis varies between host species, with

rodent reservoir infection being asymptomatic and human infection resulting in severe,

immune-mediated disease. Viral pathogenesis is highly dependent on virus replication

efficiency since it affects the virus's ability to evade detection and determines the

magnitude of the host immune response. However, the molecular replication kinetics for

hantaviruses remain poorly defined. Therefore, we developed a sense- and segment-

specific quantitative real-time PCR (ssqRT-PCR) assay and a SYBR-based qRT-PCR

(Sb-qRT-PCR) assay, allowing us to quantify both negative-sense genome levels and

total viral RNA synthesis of the small (S), medium (M), and large (L) segments of Seoul

virus (SEOV). We then measured total viral RNA and genome accumulation in reservoir

rat endothelial cells (RLMVEC), non-reservoir human endothelial cells (HUVEC-C), and

Vero E6 epithelial cells. We also measured the ratio of each segment released into the

culture supernatant, approximating the relative packaging efficiency. We found that,

while the magnitude of viral RNA differed, RNA replication kinetics were largely similar

between reservoir and non-reservoir endothelial cells. However, replication and release

kinetics differed between infection of endothelial and Vero cells. We also found that the

S, M, and L segments were not equally abundant during viral infection or release, but

instead followed a trend of M>L>S. Overall, this study validates two qRT-PCR assays to

measure SEOV RNA, details the accumulation and release of each viral segment, and

demonstrates the impact of host cell type on hantavirus replication.

Impact Statement

Hantavirus infections in humans lead to significant immune-mediated morbidity and

mortality around the world and pose a threat to public health. Zoonotic transmission

occurs from persistently infected rodents which show no overt signs of disease.

Understanding the molecular interactions that drive divergent infection outcomes is

incomplete in the field of hantavirus research due to limited tools and reagents. This

novel strand- and segment-specific quantitative RT-PCR assay uncovers the unique

kinetics of hantavirus genome replication in reservoir and non-reservoir cells. Further,

this assay will serve as a valuable tool to investigate antiviral therapies and virus-host

interactions critical for polymerase activity.

Introduction

Hantaviruses are negative-sense, segmented RNA viruses which are maintained worldwide in rodent and insectivore reservoirs [1, 2]. While infection of the rodent reservoir is typically asymptomatic and persistent, hantavirus infection of humans can result in severe disease [3]. In the case of Old World hantaviruses, disease manifests as hemorrhagic fever with renal syndrome (HFRS) with a mortality rate of up to 12% [4, 5]. Meanwhile, infection with New World hantaviruses results in hantavirus cardiopulmonary syndrome (HCPS) with a mortality rate of up to 60% [6, 7].

Hantavirus infection in both the rodent reservoir and human host primarily targets endothelial cells [8, 9]. Infection of human endothelial cells leads to immune activation in cell culture, which may contribute to overall immune-mediated disease [7, 10, 11]. For Old World hantaviruses, the RNA recognition receptors retinoic acid-inducible gene I (RIG-I) and melanoma differentiation-associated protein 5 (MDA5) are required for type I interferon (IFN) signaling [7, 11, 12]. The RNA pathogen-associated molecular pattern (PAMP) that is detected by RIG-I during hantavirus infection remains unknown. Hantavirus infection of the rodent reservoir is asymptomatic *in vivo* and fails to drive significant type I IFN signaling after viral entry *in vitro* [1, 2, 13-15]. This lack of immune response is not due to direct antagonism of RIG-I by viral proteins [7]. It is therefore possible that the differences seen in immune response to SEOV infection between human and rat endothelial cells may be due to differential production of viral RNA PAMPs that could be detected by RIG-I. Alternatively, infection by incomplete viral particles that contain only one or two segments instead of three could also lead to immune sensing of improperly hidden PAMPs resulting in an inflammatory immune

response. However, current knowledge of the RNA replication kinetics and genome

release of SEOV in endothelial cells remains limited.

The SEOV genome is composed of three negative-sense RNA segments termed

small (S), medium (M), and large (L) based on their respective sizes. During viral

infection, two positive-sense RNA species are produced for each segment: the

antigenome, which serves as template for genome replication, and the viral mRNA [16-

18]. Since the genomic RNA is packaged into viral particles, it represents the product of

viral replication. As such, genome abundance represents the sum of viral replication

and particle release. However, since we currently do not know which viral RNA species

(i.e. positive-sense or negative-sense) leads to the activation of the immune response,

understanding viral RNA synthesis as a whole is also important.

In order to measure the RNA replication kinetics of SEOV, we developed a

TaqMan strand-specific, quantitative, reverse-transcription, real-time PCR assay

(ssqRT-PCR) to quantify viral genome abundance specifically as well as a SYBR-based

quantitative, real-time PCR (Sb-qRT-PCR) assay to measure total viral RNA synthesis

for each segment. Using these assays, we measured SEOV RNA accumulation and

release over time in cell cultures. Rat and human endothelial cells represent the target

cells for SEOV infection the reservoir and non-reservoir host, respectively. Additionally,

we quantified SEOV RNA kinetics in Vero E6 cells, as they are an ubiquitous epithelial

cell line used for hantavirus propagation and allowed us to measure SEOV replication in

the absence of type I IFN. We hypothesized that there would be significant differences

in RNA replication kinetics between the human and reservoir rat endothelial cells, but

that RNA replication would be similar between the rat endothelial cells and Vero E6

cells, as neither mount a significant type I IFN response to SEOV infection. However,

we instead observed viral replication in both human and rat endothelial cells to have

similar kinetics to each other, yet unique compared to infected Vero E6 epithelial cells.

Similar to previous reports, overall RNA abundance in reservoir endothelial cells was

higher than in human endothelial cells, suggesting a general infection advantage. We

also noted differential abundance of the S, M, and L segments, following a consistent

pattern of M > L > S across all three cell species. Collectively, this study presents a

strand-specific qRT-PCR assay used to quantify SEOV RNA replication in reservoir and

non-reservoir host species and suggests that cell type may impact viral replication

kinetics.

Results

<u>**qRT-PCR assay design**</u>

To target the negative-sense genome for cDNA synthesis, we designed cDNA

primers complementary to the genome for each segment. These primers included a

unique tag sequence on the 5' end to prevent self-priming (Fig 1A) [19, 20]. Real-time

PCR primers targeting the unique tag sequence (3') and viral genome (5') were used to

amplify the cDNA and TaqMan probes specific for each segment were used for

detection.

As a corollary to the ssqRT-PCR, we also designed segment-specific primers for

a SYBR green assay (Sb-qRT-PCR) to measure total viral RNA (genome, antigenome,

and viral mRNA) for each segment. Random primers were used for cDNA synthesis so

that both the negative and positive sense RNAs are intentionally primed. Segment-

specific primers were then used for the subsequent qRT-PCR step (Fig. 1A).

qRT-PCR assay validations

To validate our assays, we *in vitro* transcribed (IVT) negative-sense RNAs for

each SEOV segment from PCR templates. While we were able to transcribe the full-

length S genome, we were unable to obtain full length M and L genomes, so 500nt

segments spanning the primer and probe binding regions were used for the M and L

genomes instead. These IVT RNAs were used as template for first-strand cDNA

synthesis. Utilizing first-strand reverse transcription minimizes any bias in efficiency due

to differences in template length, as these efficiency differences are not repeatedly

perpetuated in a single cycle reaction as they would be in a typical, multi-cycle PCR

reaction. The cDNA was then serially diluted to make a standard curve from 10^6-10^0

copies of input RNA for qRT-PCR. To confirm that the ssqRT-PCR assay detected only

specifically primed RNA and not self-primed RNA, we included a negative control cDNA

synthesis reaction without cDNA primers. For the S, M, and L negative-sense IVT

RNAs, the ssqRT-PCR assay reliably detected down to 10^3 molecules of input RNA,

and when a line of best fit was applied, all three segments had R^2 values of 0.99

indicating linear changes across the standard curve (Fig. 1B).

To test the segment specificity, IVT negative-sense RNAs of either S, M, or L

were used as template for each segment's assay (cDNA primer, qRT primers, and

probe). For example, the S segment IVT RNA was used as template for the M assay

primer/probe set as well as for the L assay primer/probe set (Fig 1C). For all three

segments in the ssqRT-PCR assay, amplification was only detected when template

RNA and primer/probe sequences were matched, demonstrating that the assays are

segment specific (Fig 1C).

To validate the sense specificity of the ssqRT-PCR assay, either genomic or

antigenomic IVT RNA for each segment was used as template for cDNA synthesis. For

the S and L genomic primers and probes, antigenomic RNA was only detected when

10^6 copies were added to the reaction, giving C_t values of 38 and 34 respectively (Fig.

1D). This correlates with an 11 C_t value difference in detection between the genomic

and antigenomic RNAs for the S segment and a 7 C_t value difference in detection for

the L segment. To address the potential contribution of antigenomic RNA to detection,

C_t cutoffs were set at C_t 38 for S and C_t 34 for L, so that values falling at or below these

limits would be considered background detection for future experiments. Unlike S and L,

M antigenomic RNA could be detected down to 10^4 copies with the primers intended to

detect only genomic RNA and only illustrated a 4.5 C_t value difference in detection

between the genomic and antigenomic RNAs (Fig 1D). Detection of the antigenomic M

RNA remained consistent despite testing multiple different cDNA and qRT primers and

PCR conditions (data not shown). Limiting detection for the M segment based on

antigenome detection severely reduced the range of detection for the genome.

Therefore, the primers and probe used for the M segment are not considered to be

sense-specific. This validation test was only conducted for the ssqRT-PCR, where

specificity for the negative sense RNA was critical to the assay's function, and not for

the Sb-qRT-PCR assay, where both positive and negative sense RNA will be amplified

and detected simultaneously.

For the Sb-qRT-PCR assay, the S segment was sensitive to 10^1 molecules of

input RNA, while the M and L segments were sensitive to 10^3 molecules RNA (Fig. 1E).

When a line of best fit was applied to the standard curves, all segments had R^2 values

of 0.99. Sb-qRT-PCR segment specificity was tested the same as the ssqRT-PCR

assay, where IVT negative-sense RNAs of either S, M, or L were used as template for

each segment's assay (cDNA primer and qRT primers). For the Sb-qRT-PCR assay for

S and L, non-target segments (M and L for S assay, S and M for the L assay) were

detected at C_t values of 39 or greater, at or near the limit of detection of the assay (C_t

40) (Fig 1F). In addition to this, the gap in detection between the intended segment and

the non-target segments was approximately 9-10C_t (equivalent to ~3 log). Given that

the non-target segments were measured close to the limit of detection of the assay and

the large difference in C_t between the target and non-target segments, it was

determined that detection of non-target segments was unlikely to significantly contribute

to the measurement of the intended segment for S and L. The Sb-qRT-PCR assay for M

detected non-target S and L segments at C_t values of ~36 when 10^6 copies were

added. To address the potential contribution of S and L RNA to detection of M, a limit of

detection was set at C_t 36 for M, so that values falling at or below this limit would be

considered background detection.

In order to compare SEOV replication kinetics during infection of reservoir and

non-reservoir species, it was important to validate that the primers and probes designed

for the ssqRT-PCR and Sb-qRT-PCR assays did not detect cellular RNAs from either

the rodent reservoir or human cells. To test this, 500ng cellular RNA isolated from

uninfected human umbilical vascular endothelial cells (HUVEC-C) or primary rat lung

microvascular endothelial cells (RLMVEC) was used as template for cDNA synthesis

followed by either ssqRT-PCR or Sb-qRT-PCR (Supp. Fig. 1A and 1B). None of the

ssqRT-PCR assays detected host RNAs from either HUVEC or RLMVEC (Supp. Fig.

1A) For the M segment SB-qRT-PCR, host RNAs were detected at 39 C_t, but these

were greater than the previously set C_t cutoff and would be treated as background in

future experiments (Supp. Fig. 1B).

We further demonstrate that the addition of non-target RNAs did not interfere

with the detection of the intended viral RNAs. To do this, 150ng of either HUVEC or

RLMVEC RNA was mixed with 10^6 copies of each of the genomic and antigenomic S,

M, and L IVT RNAs. This mixture was then used as template for either the ssqRT-PCR

or Sb-qRT-PCR assay and was compared to a standard curve for the target genome or

segment. For both the ssqRT-PCR assay (Fig. 2A and 2B) and Sb-qRT-PCR (Fig. 2C

and 2D), the dilution series made by the host/virus RNA mixture closely mirrored the

standard curves made using a single genomic IVT RNA for all three segments,

indicating that the non-target cellular or viral RNAs do not interfere with target RNA

detection for either assay.

Quantification of viral RNA in SEOV infection

To measure SEOV RNA replication kinetics, HUVEC, RLMVEC, and Vero E6

cells were infected with a cell-specific multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.1 focus-forming

units (FFU)/cell. Cell-specific MOI was determined as previously described to ensure

that each cell type received the infectious units required for 10% infection of the culture

[7]. This was done to account for differences in cell susceptibility to infection, allowing

us to study RNA accumulation from a more equivalent baseline of infection. Cells were

harvested every 24hrs over three days to capture viral RNA accumulation. Because the

ssqRT-PCR assay to detect M genome was not sense-specific, only the S and L

genomes were quantified in SEOV-infected cells. Viral replication in HUVEC displayed a

~3.7 fold increase in S genomic RNA from 0dpi to 1dpi and a ~6.7 fold increase in S

genomic RNA, while the L genomic RNA increased ~1.7 fold from 0dpi to 1dpi and

increased ~2.8 fold from 1dpi to 2dpi (Fig. 3A, Supp. Table 1). After 2dpi, both S and L

genomic abundance in HUVEC plateaued. S and L genomic RNA levels in infected

RLMVEC increased ~101 fold for S and ~65 fold for L from 0dpi to 1dpi, but then

remained largely the same for the remainder of the infection. Conversely, infection of

Vero cells resulted in increases in S and L genomic RNA across all three days. The S

genome levels in infected Vero cells increased ~9 fold from 0dpi to 1dpi, ~5 fold from

1dpi to 2dpi, and ~3.5 fold from 2dpi to 3dpi. Meanwhile L genome levels increased ~5

fold from 0dpi to 1dpi, ~6 fold from 1dpi to 2dpi, and ~3.5 fold from 2dpi to 3dpi.

Cumulatively, from 1dpi to 3dpi, the S genome levels increased ~16.4 fold and L

genome increased ~22.4 fold in infected Vero cells.

The ratio of L genome to S genome produced was also calculated for each cell

type over the course of infection. For all three cell cultures, the L genome was found to

be more abundant than the S genome at all timepoints. In general, the significantly

higher ratio of L : S produced during infection of RLMVEC means a greater abundance

of L genome was produced relative to S genome compared to the HUVEC or Vero cells

(Fig. 3B, Supp. Table 2). Additionally, the ratio of L : S in RLMVEC increased over the

course of infection, while the ratio of L : S remained more equivalent across the three

days for infected HUVEC and Vero cells.

We also used the Sb-qRT-PCR assay to measure the combined accumulation of

the genome, antigenome, and mRNA for each segment. This allowed us to quantify viral

RNA synthesis as a whole as opposed to viral replication of the genome alone. Again,

we observed that, after an initial increase in abundance between 0dpi and 1dpi, the

abundance for all three segments remained steady in HUVEC and RLMVEC (Fig. 3C,

Supp. Table 3). S, M, and L RNA levels increased ~12 fold, ~6.3 fold, and ~3.4 fold form

respectively in infected HUVEC, but then only increased ~2.4 fold, ~1.7 fold, and ~4.6

fold respectively between 1dpi and 3dpi in infected HUVEC. Meanwhile in infected

RLMVEC, S, M, and L RNA levels increased ~117 fold, ~61.6 fold, and ~58.6 fold

respectively from 0dpi to 1dpi, but then increased only ~2.1 fold, ~3 fold, and ~3.1 fold

respectively from 1dpi to 3dpi. Consistent increases in abundance for all three

segments were observed during Vero cell infection. S, M and L RNA levels increased

~19.6, ~11.7, and ~8.8 fold respectively from 0dpi to 1dpi. All three segments increased

~5 fold from 1dpi to 2dpi and both M and L RNA levels increased ~10 fold from 2dpi to

3dpi, while S RNA levels increased ~7.5 fold from 2dpi to 3dpi. Cumulatively, from 1dpi

to 3dpi RNA levels increased ~40 fold, ~50 fold, and ~56 fold for S, M, and L

respectively in the infected Veros. The M segment was the most abundant in all three

host species, followed by L segment and then the S segment. Calculating the ratio of M

: S for each cell culture found largely similar relative abundances (Fig. 3D, Supp. Table

4). Likewise, the ratio of L : S and M : L were also remarkably similar between cell

cultures and over the course of infection. Although some of these ratios were found to

be statistically significantly different between cell types, the magnitude of the difference

is modest. Overall, while the RNA accumulation for each segment suggests that SEOV

RNA replication may differ between these cells, the ratios between segments remain

largely unchanged over the course of infection and between cell types.

To determine whether the trends observed in genomic and total SEOV RNA

synthesis were also observed in particle production, supernatants from the above

infected cells were collected. A focus-forming unit (FFU) assay was used to determine

viral titer while the ssqRT-PCR assay was used to measure genome release. Trends in

viral titer largely follow what was observed for viral RNA replication, with titers from the

human and rat endothelial cells increasing 2.5 and 4.5 fold respectively from 1dpi to

2dpi and then plateauing (Fig. 4A). Titer from Vero cells increased ~10.6 fold from 1dpi

to 2dpi and then ~2.3 fold from 2dpi to 3dpi. To measure genome copies released from

infected cells, viral particles were purified by ultracentrifugation through a 30% sucrose

cushion to remove cell debris and naked RNA that might influence the ssqRT-PCR

assay. Although the ssqRT-PCR was not used for measuring intracellular M genome in

Figure 3, this assay was used to measure the amount of M genome being released, as

the negative-sense genome is the dominant RNA species in bunyavirus particles [21].

Importantly, this assay does not determine which segments are packaged together in a

single virion, but simply the rate at which each segment is released in particles from the

cell. The quantified abundance of each segment released largely reflected our

intracellular observations, with M being the most abundant, followed by L, then S (Fig.

4B). S segment abundance increased during infection of HUVEC between days 1 and

2 post infection ~25 fold and then plateaued, while M segment release remained

equivalent between 1dpi and 2dpi and then increased ~6.5 fold form 2dpi to 3dpi (Supp.

Table 5). L segment abundance remained steady across all three days. For infected

RLMVEC, S segment abundance increased ~10 fold from 1dpi to 2dpi, then decreased

~2.5 fold from 2dpi to 3dpi. Meanwhile the M segment remained steady over all three

days and the L segment only increased ~2.8 fold between 1dpi to 2dpi. S genome

release from infected Vero cells increased consistently across all three days, ~4 fold

from 1dpi to 2dpi and ~6.3 fold from 2dpi to 3dpi. M genome release increased ~2.6 fold

from 2dpi to 3dpi and L genome increased ~2.8 fold from 1dpi to 2dpi then remained

steady. Calculating the ratio of each segment released, the ratio of M : L segment

released from HUVEC was significantly smaller compared to the ratio of M : L released

from RLMVEC and Vero cells on days 1 and 2 post infection (Fig. 4C, Supp. Table 6).

Infected HUVEC also released a significantly larger ratio of L : S. Meanwhile, the ratios

of M : S, L : S, and M : L released from infected RLMVEC and Vero cells are similar

between the two cell types, with the exception of M : L at 3dpi where the ratio was

significantly smaller for RLMVEC infection compared to Vero.

Discussion

The strand-specific qRT-PCR assay can specifically measure the negative sense

genome segments of SEOV, and represents the first system to do so for a hantavirus.

To complement this assay and obtain a holistic view of SEOV replication, we also

designed a SYBR based qRT-PCR assay that measures the total viral RNA produced

for each segment. The ssqRT-PCR and Sb-qRT-PCR assays allowed us to conduct an

analysis of SEOV RNA replication and release in multiple cell types. This work builds on

previous studies in the hantavirus field which used qRT-PCR to characterize the

production of viral mRNA in Sin Nombre virus (SNV) and total viral RNA synthesis and

release in Puumala virus (PUUV) [18, 22]. While our study of SEOV total RNA

replication indicated that M segment was the most abundant in cells, followed by L and

then S, SNV and PUUV were reported to produce the S segment most abundantly,

followed by M and then L. The MOI used in these studies could be a technical

explanation for this discrepancy. The previous studies used an MOI of 6 or 10 infectious

units per cell in order to quantify viral RNA replication within the first hours of infection.

Conversely, we conducted infections at an MOI of 0.1 FFU/cell to limit the potential

impact of defective interfering particles. Using a higher MOI, while potentially necessary

to measure RNA replication at early timepoints, could lead to multiple simultaneous

entry events and replication of defective genomes [23-25]. This could result in increased

abundance of a particular segment that would not occur if only one infectious unit

entered a cell. An additional biological explanation for the differences we see in

segment abundances is that SNV and PUUV genomes encode an additional

nonstructural protein on their S segment, termed NSs, not found in SEOV [26, 27].

While NSs expression or putative sequences have been observed for hantaviruses with

rodent reservoirs in the Cricetidae family (e.g. SNV, Andes virus, and PUUV),

hantaviruses that infect rodents from the Muridae family (e.g. SEOV and Hantaan virus)

lack an NSs [28, 29]. Since both SNV and PUUV encode both the NSs and N on the S

segment, it is possible that hantaviruses with an NSs might produce more S segment

than those which only encode one protein on the S segment. A more extensive study

measuring the RNA replication of multiple hantaviruses at different MOIs and times post

infection is necessary to clarify the relative differences seen in segment abundance

between these studies. Interestingly, a recent study involving distantly related

phleboviruses, found the M genome untranslated regions (UTR) of Heartland virus to be

the most efficient for transcription and replication, followed by the L UTR and then the S

UTR [30]. Future work applying the SEOV minigenome system could determine whether

this is also true for hantaviruses and might explain our findings here [31]. Furthermore,

while the current study focused on utilizing the ssqRT-PCR and Sb-qRT-PCR assays to

measure SEOV, they have not been validated as specific for SEOV compared to other

hantaviruses and therefore should not be used in a diagnostic setting. Determining the

viral specificity of these assays remains an avenue for future work.

Notably, using the SYBR assay, the ratio of total RNA species quantified

between segments remained fairly similar over the course of infection, especially the

ratio of L : S. This suggests that total RNA of each segment is produced at similar rates.

The fact that the ratios of the total RNA produced for each segment are largely

consistent during infection means that the differences seen in RNA copy abundance

between segments are not due to the rates at which each segment is produced, but

instead are likely due to early infection events. One potential explanation could be

unequal packaging of S, M, and L genomes into particles in the viral stocks, which could

lead to differences in RNA abundance after viral entry. However, for this to be the sole

cause for the differences in abundance between each segment, there would need to be

an almost two log difference between incoming genome segments. Therefore, unequal

packaging of genomic segments in the viral stock particles is unlikely to be the sole

contributing factor. Alternatively, it is also possible that replication of the S, M, and L

segments is initiated at different times, leading to the difference seen in RNA

abundance. This idea that replication of each segment may start at different times is

supported by Hutchinson et al, who observed that amplification of the S mRNA was the

first to be detected at 4hpi, followed by M mRNA at 8hpi, and then L mRNA at 48hpi in

SNV infection [18]. Minor differences in segment ratios for total viral RNA synthesis over

the course of infection of all three cell types suggests a conserved mechanism for

regulating viral RNA production. Therefore, targeting these conserved mechanisms

used for RNA replication or the pathways that dictate when replication of each segment

is initiated may be useful strategies for antiviral development.

Similar to what has been observed for PUUV, general trends in genome release

reflect total intracellular viral RNA [22]. We observed that in both genome release and

intracellular RNA synthesis M is the most abundant followed by L and S. We also

observed similar kinetic trends, with infected HUVEC and RLMVEC showing slight

increases in genome release, but consistently larger increases in genome release as

Vero infection progressed. However, one interesting difference observed was that the

abundance of M and L genomes that were released from infected HUVEC are very

similar compared to infection of the other two cell types, where M and L genome

abundance differ by a log or more. Future studies will be needed to determine if these

differences in SEOV genome release are solely immune-mediated or result from

differences in host : virus interactions.

While it was unexpected to find that the segments were released in different

ratios, it is important to note that the qRT-PCR assays used do not determine co-

packaging or whether the RNA is replication competent, but only the abundance of each

segment in the purified supernatant. It is possible that the abundance of replication

competent / infectious RNA for each segment are similar, and that the increased

abundance of M and L RNA in the supernatant are representative of increased defective

RNA production for those segments. It is also possible that additional copies of M and L

are needed to efficiently initiate viral replication in a newly infected cell. In a previous

study by Bermudez-Mendez et al using the orthobunyavirus, Schmallenberg Virus

(SBV), the authors found relative segment abundance to be dependent on the cell line

infected [32]. Specifically, Vero cells infected with SBV were found to release different

abundances of the S, M, and L genomes, but infection of C6/36 mosquito cells resulted

in the release of more equivalent amounts of all three segments. Therefore, it is

possible that relative segment abundance may be context- and virus-dependent, and

warrants future study.

A further consideration is the possibility that purified supernatants contain viral

particles along with extracellular vesicles. Endothelial cells have been reported to

generate extracellular vesicles for communication with other cells and viral RNA has

been found within extracellular vesicles in other viral systems. Thus, the composition of

particles in the cellular supernatant may influence the measured abundance of each

segment and may be found to play a role in infection dynamics and pathogenesis for

hantaviruses in the future.

Contrary to our hypothesis, although SEOV RNA was more abundant in the rat

endothelial cells compared to human endothelial cells, a finding consistent with previous

literature, the temporal kinetics of RNA accumulation and release remained similar

between the two species [33]. The human and rat endothelial cells reach maximum

RNA accumulation and viral titer by 2dpi. In contrast, the Vero cells show consistent

increases throughout infection. These data suggest that SEOV may replicate differently

in endothelial cells versus epithelial cells. However, it is important to note that infection

of Vero cells, while epithelial, are not representative of what infection of reservoir or

non-reservoir epithelial cells, as Vero cells lack a type I IFN response. Therefore,

analysis in additional relevant epithelial cell types and additional strains of SEOV would

be of interest. The lack of a strong type I IFN response during SEOV infection of

RLMVEC and Vero cells suggests that these temporal differences are not driven solely

by innate immune responses, but rather may be cell type specific [7]. Additionally,

SEOV has been proposed to use the same receptors, $\alpha V\beta 3$ integrins, on both Vero and

endothelial cells, indicating that receptor usage may not explain this difference [34].

Therefore, it is possible that the variance seen in replication kinetics between the

endothelial cells and the epithelial cells are due to the unique virus : host interactions

that occur within each cell type. As such, future work will focus on defining virus : host

interactions unique to reservoir and non-reservoir infections and their consequences for

SEOV replication.

Materials and Methods

***In Vitro* Transcription of SEOV RNAs**

Full length SEOV S genomic RNA was *in vitro* transcribed from PCR templates using

the T7 MEGAscript kit (Ambion AM1334) according to manufacturer's instructions. Full

length M and L genomes were unable to be obtained with this method, so 500nt

segments spanning the primer and probe binding regions were PCR amplified using the

primers in table 1 (underlined portions indicate T7 promoter). These PCR templates

were then *in vitro* transcribed using the T7 MEGAshortscript kit (Ambion AM1354). For

full length antigenomic SEOV RNA, plasmids containing each of the positive sense RNA

segments with an upstream T7 promoter sequence were linearized with NheI and then

used as templates for *in vitro* transcription using the T7 MEGAscript kit according to

manufacturer's instructions.

To assess RNA integrity, RNA ladder (Thermo Scientific High Range RiboRuler

FERSM1821) or IVT RNA was mixed with RNA loading dye containing ethidium

bromide, heated to 80°C for 10 minutes, placed immediately on ice, and then run at 30V

on a 2% formaldehyde-agarose gel. RNA bands were visualized using a BioRad

ChemiDoc imaging system. Concentrations of the RNA transcripts were measured

using spectrophotometry and the molecules RNA/uL for each transcript was calculated

using the total molecular weight of each RNA segment.

Table 1. PCR Primers for Genomic IVT templates.

S For	gcccgggtagtagtagctcccta
S T7 Rev	<u>taatacgactcactataggg</u>ctagctagtagtatctcccta
M 500nt For	ccacagctgcacttttgattac
M 500nt T7 Rev	<u>taatacgactcactataggg</u>atttctgctgcacttgctg
L 500nt For	ggttcttatttgtatcccagc
L 500nt T7 Rev	<u>taatacgactcactataggg</u>cctataccggctgttgaaag

*Underlined sequences indicate the T7 promoter

<u>cDNA Synthesis</u>

IVT RNA was mixed with 50uM dNTPs and either 1uM (S and M) or 0.1uM (L) cDNA

primer (Table 2, uppercase indicates tag sequence), heated at 95C for 5min, and then

immediately moved to ice. RT buffer (Maxima H-minus reverse transcription kit, Thermo

Scientific K1652) and RNAse inhibitor (Abmgood G138) were then added to the

reaction. The reaction was then moved to either 60C (M and L) or 65C (S) and Maxima

H-minus reverse transcriptase was added. Reactions were then moved to 65C for

30min, followed by 85C for 5min, then cooled to 4C. RNase H (NEB M0297L) was

added to each reaction and incubated at 37C for 20min. To measure cDNA synthesis

resulting from self-priming RNAs, cDNA synthesis was carried out in the absence of the

cDNA primer. For both the validation assays using host RNAs and to experimentally

measure intracellular viral RNA, 500ng cellular RNA were used as input. To measure

genomic RNA release, 25% of RNA extracted from pelleted supernatants was used as

input.

cDNA synthesis for total viral RNA SYBR qRT-PCR was done using a high capacity

cDNA reverse transcription kit (Applied Biosystems 4368814) following manufacturer's

instructions. For both the validation assays using host RNAs and to measure

intracellular viral RNA, 500ng cellular RNA were used as input. Validation assays using

mixed host and IVT RNAs used 150ng cellular RNA as input.

Table 2. cDNA Primers

S Genome	GCATGCTCGTGGACAGACTAaatcgtgactatatcagacaga
M Genome	CTGCGTGAGTATCCTACCGCagaaccgattcaaagccattctacg
L Genome	GCGCTACTGTGAGAGACGTAcaatctgcatgagcacatcc

*Capitalized sequences correspond to PCR tag

qRT-PCR

The ssqRT-PCR assay was performed using 300nM segment-specific qPCR primer,

300nM segment specific tag primer, 200nM Taqman probe, and PrimeTime Gene

Expression Master Mix (IDT 1055771; Table 3). Standard curves were generated using

cDNA made from IVT RNAs such that a range of 1x10^6 copies to 1 copy cDNA were

added to the ssqRT-PCR reaction. Thermocycling conditions for S: 95C for 3min, 40

cycles of 95C for 15sec and 70C for 1min. Thermocycling conditions for M and L: 95C

for 3min, 40 cycles of 95C for 15sec and 60C for 1min. For infections, copy number/ng

and copy number/mL was calculated using a standard curve from IVT genomic RNA.

SYBR qRT-PCR was performed using Applied Biosystems SYBR Green Universal

master mix (4309155) following manufacturer's guidelines. cDNA was diluted to within

range of the standard curve then mixed with 12.5nM segment specific forward and

reverse primers and 1x SYBR mix. Thermocycling conditions: 95C for 10min, 40 cycles

of 95C for 15sec and 60C for 1min. For infections, copy number/ng and copy

number/mL was calculated using a standard curve from IVT genomic RNA.

Table 3. qRT-PCR Primers and Probe

S Genome Tag	GCATGCTCGTGGACAGACTA
S Genome qPCR	cacctaattcagccatccctccg
S Genome Probe (Cy5)	tggctccatccctgcaagtgcacc
M Genome Tag	CTGCGTGAGTATCCTACCGC
M Genome qPCR	cttctctgaatcggtgggtggc
M Genome Probe (Tamra)	acccactgtgaaccgacagaaactgc
L Genome Tag	GCGCTACTGTGAGAGACGTA

L Genome qPCR	tcgctttgacgcatctcgt
L Genome Probe (Fam)	agggaattgatacagcacagccctca
S SYBR qPCR Forward	gcaaattcatggcggagtct
S SYBR qPCR Reverse	gttgcctgagggcttgaaat
M SYBR qPCR Forward	tgttcaaggagagtgcccat
M SYBR qPCR Reverse	gtgggtggcttgacaaactt
L SYBR qPCR Forward	ttgagggctgtgctgtatca
L SYBR qPCR Reverse	aaatccatcgctttgacgca

Cell Culture and Virus Propagation

Vero E6 cells (ATCC, CRL-1586) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium

(DMEM) supplemented with 1% pen/strep, 1% nonessential amino acids, 10% heat

inactivated FBS, and 2.5% HEPES. Primary rat lung microvascular endothelial cells

(RLMVEC, VEC Technologies) were cultured in MCDB-131 base medium (Corning)

supplemented with VascuLife VEGF LifeFactors (Lifeline Cell Technology LS-1020) and

10% heat inactivated FBS. Human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVEC-C; ATCC,

CRL-1730) were cultured in VascuLife EnGS Endothelial medium (Lifeline Cell

Technology LM-0002) with VascuLife EnGS LifeFactors (Lifeline Cell Technology LS-

1019) and 10% heat inactivated FBS. All cells were cultured at 37C and 5% CO_2.

Endothelial cells were cultured on tissue culture treated plates coated with rat tail

collagen (VWR, 47747-218).

To propagate virus, Vero E6 cells were infected with Seoul virus (SEOV) strain SR11 for

12 days (MOI 0.01). Supernatant was then collected and clarified by centrifugation at

1000xg for 10min.

Virus Infections

RLMVEC, HUVEC, and Vero E6 cells were infected with SEOV at a cell-specific

multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.1 focus forming units / cell. Cell specific MOI was

determined previously [7]. After a 1hr adsorption period at 37C, the inoculum was

removed, and the cells were washed twice with 1x phosphate buffered saline (PBS) to

remove unbound virus. Each cell line was given its respective media and incubated at

37C and 5% CO_2. At the indicated times post infection, supernatant was collected and

clarified at 1000xg for 10min. An aliquot (25%, 500uL) of supernatant was kept for

measuring viral titer while the rest (75%, 1.5mL) was inactivated by applying UV

radiation at 104,000 uJ/cm^2 (FisherBrand UV crosslinker, 13-245-221). Virus from UV

inactivated supernatant was pelleted though a 30% w/v sucrose cushion in TNE buffer

(10mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 100mM NaCl, 1mM EDTA) for 2hrs at 30,000rpm. TRIzol

reagent was added to the pellets and total RNA was extracted via isolation following

manufacturer instructions. Cell monolayers were washed with 1x PBS and harvested in

TRIzol reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific, 15596026). Total RNA was extracted via

isolation following manufacturer's instructions.

Focus Forming Unit Assay

Standard virological focus forming unit (FFU) assays were used to determine the

infectious titer of all viral samples as previously described [11]. Briefly, Vero E6 cells

were inoculated with 5-fold or 10-fold serial dilutions of virus containing samples. After a

1hr adsorption period, cells were overlaid with 2% methylcellulose supplemented with

2x DMEM, 2% FBS, 1% pen/strep, and 1% HEPES. At 7dpi, cells were fixed with 95%

EtOH : 5% acetic acid and probed with primary anti-SEOV N (custom, Genscript) and

HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse antibodies (JacksonImmunoresearch, 115-035-003).

Foci were visualized using Vector VIP peroxidase substrate kit (Vector Laboratories,

SK-4600).

Figures

Figure 1. Validation of the ssqRT-PCR and Sb-qRT-PCR using *in vitro* transcribed

RNAs. (A) Schematic of the cDNA synthesis and qRT-PCR strategies for the ssqRT-

PCR and Sb-qRT-PCR assays. Standard curves using serial 10-fold dilutions of either

S, M, or L negative-sense IVT RNAs (red circles = S, blue squares = M, green triangles

= L) in the ssqRT-PCR assays (B-D) or Sb-qRT-PCR assays (E,F). (B, E) Assay

sensitivity was determined by using serial dilutions of S, M, or L IVT RNA with the

paired primers/probe for each assay, and dotted lines represent C_t cutoff for reliable

template quantification using the respective assay. (C, F) Segment specificity was

determined by using S, M, or L IVT RNA individually against the each segment's

primers/probe (primer/probe used is indicated in the graph titles). Data shown

represent the mean of ≥3 independent experiments ±SD.

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Figure 2. ssqRT-PCR and Sb-qPCR assays do not detect RNAs from uninfected

host cells. To validate that neither the ssqRT-PCR assay (A, B) nor the Sb-qRT-PCR

assay (C,D) detected host cellular RNAs, standard curves were made using serial

dilutions of S, M, or L negative-sense IVT RNA (circles) or a mixture of 10^6 copies per

strand of S, M, and L genomic and antigenomic IVT RNAs plus 150ng of either

uninfected HUVEC (A,C) or uninfected RLMVEC (B, D) RNA (triangles). The IVT RNA

532   alone or mixture of IVT RNAs and uninfected cellular RNA was then used as input for

533   either the ssqRT-PCR assay (A,B) or SB-qRT-PCR (C,D) assay using the

534   primers/probe indicated in the graph title. Data shown represent the mean of ≥3

535   independent experiments ±SD.

Figure 3. Quantification of viral RNA in SEOV-infected reservoir and non-reservoir

cells. HUVEC, RLMVEC, and Vero cells were infected with SEOV at an MOI of 0.1

FFU/cell. Cells were harvested and RNA extracted at the indicated days post infection.

(A) S and L genomic RNA accumulation was measured using ssqRT-PCR for each cell

type. (B) The ratio of L RNA copies to S RNA copies was then calculated for each time

point. (C) Combined positive and negative sense viral RNA accumulation was

measured using Sb-qRT-PCR for all three segments. (D) The ratios of M RNA copies to

S RNA copies, L RNA copies to S RNA copies, and M RNA copies to L RNA copies

were then calculated for each time point. Data shown represent the mean of ≥3

independent experiments ±SD. Statistical significance determined by Student's t test. *,

$p<0.05$; **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$, ****, $p<0.0001$.

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Figure 4. Quantification of infectious virus and RNA genome release from SEOV-infected cells. HUVEC, RLMVEC, and Vero cells were infected with SEOV at an MOI of 0.1 FFU/cell. (A, B) Supernatants were collected at the indicated times post infection and used for either measuring viral titer via FFU assay (A) or RNA extracted to measure genomic RNA via the ssqRT-PCR assay (B). (C) Ratios of M RNA copies to S RNA copies, L RNA copies to S RNA copies, and M RNA copies to L RNA copies were calculated for each time point. Data shown represent the mean of ≥3 independent experiments ±SD. Statistical significance determined by Student's t test. *, p<0.05; **, p<0.01; ***, p<0.001, ****, p<0.0001.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: A.T.L and A.M.K; investigation: A.T.L., S.D.K., and A.M.K.; writing

original draft: A.T.L. and A.M.K.; review and editing: A.T.L., S.D.K., and A.M.K.;

supervision: A.M.K.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

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