Functionality of potato virus Y coat protein in cell-to-cell movement is defined by flexibility of its N terminal region

Anže Vozelj[1,2]*, Tjaša Mahkovec Povalej[1], Katja Stare[1], Magda Tušek Žnidarič[1], Katarina Bačnik[1],

Valentina Levak[1,2], Ion Gutiérrez-Aguirre[1], Marjetka Podobnik[3], Kristina Gruden[1], Anna Coll[1]†,

Tjaša Lukan[1]†*

[1]Department of Biotechnology and Systems Biology, National Institute of Biology, Večna pot 121, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia

[2]Jožef Stefan International Postgraduate School, Jamova cesta 39, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia

[3]Department of Molecular Biology and Nanobiotechnology, National Institute of Chemistry, Hajdrihova 19, 1001 Ljubljana, Slovenia

* Corresponding authors.

Email: anze.vozelj@nib.si, tjasa.lukan@nib.si

† shared last authorship

Abstract

Potato virus Y (PVY) is one of the top ten economically most important plant viruses and responsible for major yield losses. We previously suggested the involvement of the N terminal region of potato virus Y coat protein (CP) in PVY spread. By constructing different PVY N terminal deletion mutants, we here show that deletions of 40 or more amino acid residues from the N terminal region of the CP resulted in the PVY multiplication limited to primary infected cells. Deletion of 26 residues profoundly impaired PVY cell-to-cell movement and prevented systemic PVY spread, while deletions of 19-23 residues allowed delayed systemic PVY spread. Introduced point mutations in the identified region hinder the filaments formation (S21G) and prevent (S21G) or delay (G20P) PVY movement. In addition, the mutants with deletion of more than 23 residues were not able to form full length viral particles in bombarded leaves, which confirms the overall significance of this region also in capsid assembly.

Author summary

Potato virus Y is one of the most economically important plant viruses worldwide, since it causes major yield losses in *Solanaceae*, especially in potato, where it is the causal agent of potato tuber necrosis ringspot disease, negatively impacting tubers quality and significantly reduces potato yield. By constructing different PVY N terminal deletion mutants, we identified the regions of the coat protein that are important for efficient PVY cell-to-cell movement and putative mechanisms supporting it. Furthermore, our findings indicate that potato virus Y N terminal region plays an important role in efficiency of assembly into full length viral particles. Understanding these regions, responsible for cell-to-cell as well as long distance movement, is crucial for economically important plant viruses such as PVY, since dissolving such complex processes will enhance our understanding of the PVY infective cycle and contribute to the development of effective tackling strategies against PVY infections in potato and prevent yield losses.

Introduction

Plants undergo constant exposure to various pathogens and pests, with viruses being the most severe amongst them. Potato virus Y (PVY) is classified amongst the top ten economically most important plant viruses infecting solanaceous crops including potato, tomato, tobacco and pepper (1). PVY is the causal agent of potato tuber necrosis ringspot disease (2), a devastating disease that negatively impacts potato tuber quality and yield (3).

PVY belongs to *Potyvirus* genus. Its genome consists of 9,7-kb positive sense single stranded RNA (+ ssRNA) encoding for single open reading frame (ORF) that is translated into 350 kDa long polyprotein which is cleaved into 10 mature proteins (3). Furthermore, PVY genome contains an additional ORF *pipo*, embedded within the P3 cistron of the polyprotein, that via transcriptional slippage results in production of the so called "Pretty interesting potyviridae ORF" (P3N-PIPO) protein (4).

The majority of potyviral proteins are multifunctional and they altogether contribute to the establishment of successful viral infection, that encompasses multiple steps including transmission by aphids, penetration of viral particles into the cell, virion disassembly, translation, replication, suppression of host defense mechanisms, virion assembly and virus movement from the primary infected cells to neighboring cells and systemic spread (5).

Viral movement is facilitated through plasmodesmata, plant specific structures connecting two adjacent cells that serve as gateways for cell-to-cell movement and contribute to the establishment of systemic infection (6, 7, 8, 9). At least four potyviral proteins, coat protein (CP), cylindrical inclusion protein (CI), P3N-PIPO and the second 6 kDa protein (6K2) protein are essential for cell-to-cell movement of potyviruses (10). P3N-PIPO is localized in the plasmodesmata and directs CI to form conical structures that are crucial for assistance of potyviral intercellular movement through plasmodesmata, which was shown for turnip mosaic virus (TuMV) in *Nicotiana benthamiana* (11). Accumulation of CP in plasmodesmata during infection is also crucial since together with the potyviral Helper-Component Proteinase (HCPro) increases the size exclusion limit (SEL) of

plasmodesmata, which was determined by microinjection studies for bean common mosaic

necrosis potyvirus (BCMNV) in *N. benthamiana* (12). Systemic infection encompasses viral

movement through phloem and less often through xylem to reach and infect plant distant tissues

(13, 14). However, before reaching vasculature, plant viruses need to cross various cellular barriers

including bundle sheath, vascular parenchyma and companion cells, to reach sieve elements,

through which they are transported to distant tissues (13). The invasion of distant tissues requires

unloading from sieve elements into companion cells and cell-to-cell movement into bundle sheath

and mesophyll cells (13). Despite PVY being one of the most extensively studied potyviruses on

molecular scale, information about crucial factors governing cell-to-cell as well as systemic spread

are scarce (5, 10).

The cryo-EM structures of some potyviruses including PVY, watermelon mosaic virus (WMV) and

TuMV virions have been determined and offered a detailed insight into the conserved helical

arrangement of CPs assembled around viral ssRNA as well as the conserved three dimensional

structure of CP among them (15, 16, 17). CP is the only potyviral structural protein and more than

2000 copies of CP encapsidate the viral ssRNA molecule to form potyviral virions (5, 9). Individual

CP is built of three distinct regions. The N terminal region with residues up to Val44 in PVY, which

are exposed at the outer surface of the virus, are flexible and thus its 3D structure was not

determined. The rest of N terminal region, from Val44 to Gln76, is structured. It has an extended

structure with one short alpha helix in the middle (15). The central core has a globular shape. The

C terminal region is in the lumen of the virus and its extended structure is supported by the viral

ssRNA scaffold (15). Beyond its primary role in viral encapsidation, the CP is indispensable for

aphid transmission, potyviral RNA amplification and cell-to-cell movement (9, 12, 18). Functional

studies of the CP protein indicate crucial roles of its N and C terminal regions and the core region

in potyvirus infectivity. In the case of PVY, the absence of the flexible CP N terminal region hinders

the formation of filaments and cell-to-cell viral movement (15). For soybean mosaic virus (SMV),

the CP C terminal region is involved in CP intersubunit interactions, viral cell-to-cell and long

distance movement and virion assembly (19). In potato virus A (PVA), phosphorylation of Thr243

residue on CP C terminal region is crucial for PVA replication *in planta* (20). These results and

results of several other studies suggest that different CP regions are important for cell-to-cell

movement of potyviruses (21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26). It is not known yet in what structural shape are

the viruses propagated through the plant, as assembled virions or viral ribonucleoprotein (RNP)

complexes associated with CP (13, 14).

The so far generated evidence-based knowledge differs from one potyvirus to another, and thus,

more research is needed to comprehensively elucidate these complex processes, particularly for

those economically relevant potyviruses such as PVY. By constructing different PVY N terminal

deletion mutants, we identified the regions of the CP that are important for efficient PVY cell-to-cell

movement and putative mechanisms supporting it. Moreover, by observing constructed deletion

mutants under TEM we explored the efficiency of deletion mutants to assemble into full virions.

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115 **Results**
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Deletion of 40 or more amino acid residues from the PVY CP N terminal region affects cell-

to-cell movement, but does not prevent replication

Previously we showed that PVY with deleted 50 N terminal amino acid residues was still able to

replicate but based on the low and spatially limited levels of RNA accumulation, we suggested that

N terminal region is required for cell-to-cell movement (15). To confirm this hypothesis, we here

constructed two GFP-tagged PVY (PVY N605-GFP) mutants lacking either 40 or 50 amino acid

residues at the CP N terminal region (hereafter ΔN50-CP and ΔN40-CP). In all constructed mutants

GFP was inserted between NIb and CP coding sequence, flanked by protease recognition sites,

allowing GFP excision from the polyprotein after translation (27). We followed the spread of ΔN50-

CP and ΔN40-CP with confocal microscopy upon bombardment of *Nicotiana clevelandii* leaves

(Fig. 1B). Neither mutant was able to move cell-to-cell, remaining limited to bombarded cells (Fig.

1B). We detected viral RNA multiplication of both mutants in the bombarded leaves, albeit at

significantly lower levels in comparison to the non-mutated clone (hereafter WT-CP) (Fig. S1, data

S1 and S2). These findings corroborate our previous results showing that N terminal region CP

truncations still allow viral replication (15) and further show that the absence of either 50 or 40 N-

terminal residues abolish cell-to-cell viral movement.

Figure 1. Amino acid deletions at PVY CP N terminal region influence viral cell-to-cell movement. **(A)**

Schematic representation of constructed mutants with deletions on PVY CP N terminal region (N-terminal

region, orange; core region, grey; C-terminal region, dark grey) with labeled amino acids. **(B)** Confocal

microscopy images showing viral replication is limited to single cells when 50 (ΔN50-CP) or 40 (ΔN40-CP)

amino acid residues were deleted at CP N terminal region, while non-mutated clone (WT-CP) shows cell-to-

cell spread 10-12 days post bombardment (dpb). Scale bar: 100 μm. **(C)** 5 dpb viral replication is limited to

single cells in ΔN26-CP mutant, while cell-to-cell virus spread was observed for CP deletion mutants ΔN23-

CP, ΔN20-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP. Scale bar: 100 μm. **(D)** ΔN26-CP cell-to cell-spread was observed at later

time points (10 and 14 dpb). Scale bar: 100 μm.

The deletions of 19-26 amino acid residues of the PVY CP N terminal region are influencing

dynamics of viral cell-to-cell spread

To further assess which region of CP N terminal is crucial for cell-to-cell virus spread, we

constructed GFP-tagged mutants lacking 26, 23, 20, 19 and 14 amino acid residues at the CP N

terminal region (Fig. 1A) and followed their localization under confocal microscope at different time

points after virus inoculation (Fig. 1, C and D, data S2 and table S1). Mutants lacking 26 (ΔN26 -

CP) and 23 (ΔN23 -CP) residues on CP N terminal region had the first non deleted amino acid

replaced with glycine (G) during the mutagenesis.

At 5 dpb, ΔN14-CP and ΔN19-CP mutants did not show any differences in cell-to-cell spread

compared to WT-CP, while a lower spread level was noticed for ΔN20-CP and ΔN23-CP (Fig. 1C).

The most pronounced difference in comparison to other mutants and to WT-CP was observed in

the case of ΔN26-CP mutant, which remained confined to single cells at 5 dpb (Fig. 1, C and D).

However, at later time points (10 and 14 dpb), in approximately half of the infected plants, we also

observed cell-to-cell viral movement, although substantially delayed compared to WT-CP (Fig. 1D

and table S1). Also, the measured viral RNA load for ΔN26-CP mutant was significantly lower than

that of WT-CP at all 5 dpb, 10 and 14 dpb (fig. S2 and data S1).

Whole plant imaging was conducted to more precisely examine the dynamics of cell-to-cell virus

spread of WT-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN19-CP and ΔN14-CP through time on inoculated *N. clevelandii*

leaves (Fig. 2A). As expected, the results revealed statistically significant differences in the viral

multiplication area between N23-CP and WT-CP, and ΔN19-CP compared to WT-CP (Fig. 2, B and

C and data S3 and S4). A similar though less evident trend was observed in the case of ΔN14-CP

compared to WT-CP, which was not statistically significant (Fig.2 C and data S4).

Figure 2. Precise analysis of the viral multiplication areas revealed a hampered cell-to-cell virus spread in ΔN19-CP and ΔN23-CP mutants. (A) The scheme of the viral multiplication area at different time points for all mutants compared with WT-CP. The area was followed by more precise analysis using whole plant imaging system for examining cell-to-cell virus spread of ΔN23-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP and WT-CP in four timepoints including 3 days post inoculation (dpi) in the morning (a.m), 3 dpi in the afternoon (p.m), 4 dpi a.m. and 4 dpi p.m. Note that the viral multiplication area was the largest after infection with WT-CP and decreased in the latter order ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP and ΔN23-CP. **(B and C)** Normalized viral multiplication area. After inoculating leaves with WT-CP or mutants, plants were imaged with whole plant imaging system. Images of three selected viral multiplication areas per leaf per plant were taken at four time points. Differences were statistically evaluated using Welch's t test. Results are presented as boxplots with dots representing normalized viral multiplication areas (data S3 and S4) for ΔN23-CP-CP, WT-CP **(B)** and ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP, WT-CP **(C)**. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are denoted with an asterisk (*). Vertical lines present all points except outliers. Raw and normalized data, number of plants and statistics are specified in Data S3

and S4. The same trend was observed in a replicate experiment (fig. S3 and data S5). For comparison

between two independent experiments, data measured for mutant viruses were normalized to median of

values obtained for WT virus (data S6).

These results show that the dynamics of viral cell-to-cell spread is dependent on the length of the

CP N terminal region (Fig. 1 and data S2). More precisely, as the number of CP N terminal region

deleted amino acid residues increases, cell-to-cell movement speed is decreased (Fig. 2, B and C

and data S3, S4 and S6). We conclude that amino acids in the region 19-26 on CP N terminal

region are essential for an optimal PVY cell-to-cell movement.

Systemic viral spread dynamics is affected by the cell-to-cell movement

Since viral cell-to-cell spread is prerequisite for systemic viral spread, we further tested if the

observed delay in cell-to-cell viral spread of mutants (Figs. 1, C and 2, B and C) affects the systemic

viral spread. In contrast to the systemic spread of WT-CP, which is detectable already at 7 dpb, the

spread of ΔN23-CP, ΔN19-CP and ΔN14-CP mutants to systemic leaves occurs with a delay (Fig.

3A). If compared to WT-CP, ΔN14-CP was observed in systemic tissue with 1 day delay (8 dpb),

ΔN19-CP with 2 days delay (9 dpb) and ΔN23-CP with approximately 3 weeks delay (25 dpb) (Fig.

3A). The mutant ΔN26-CP did not reach systemic leaves even at the highest tested dpb.

Figure 3. Systemic viral spread of mutants is delayed similarly as cell-to-cell movement. (A) Spatio-

temporal PVY distribution in *N. clevelandii* systemic tissue. Viral multiplication area was followed 7-12 and

25 days post bombardment (dpb), by using whole plant imaging system. Scale bar: 5 cm. **(B)** Quantification

of viral multiplication area in ROI in the *N. clevelandii* systemic tissue in total count per mutant in five

selected timepoints including 8-12 dpb. Since ΔN19-CP did not spread systemically at 8 dpi, normalized

viral multiplication area is not shown. Mean (represented with filled dot) and standard error are shown.

Individual measurements are shown as empty dots, representing normalized viral multiplication area.

Differences were statistically evaluated using Welch`s t test. Statistically significant differences ($p < 0.05$) are

marked with asterisk. Raw and normalized data, number of plants and statistics are specified in data S7.

Since ΔN26-CP is not capable of spreading systemically, it was not included in the analysis. Also ΔN23-CP

had such a delayed spread that it was not possible to do a quantification of viral multiplication area at 8 to 12

dpb (Fig. 3A).

Quantitative analysis of viral multiplication signal in systemic tissue confirmed that WT-CP achieved

the largest multiplication area, followed by ΔN14-CP and lastly ΔN19-CP in all observed time points

(Fig. 3 and data S7). When comparing ΔN14-CP and WT-CP, we observed a trend of slower spread

in case of ΔN14-CP, albeit not statistically significant (Fig. 3B and data S7). ΔN23-CP was not

included in the comparison, due to the considerable delay in the systemic spread exhibited by this

mutant (Fig. 3A), which made it difficult to measure the viral multiplication area. In conclusion,

systemic viral spread is abolished for ΔN26-CP, and decreasingly hampered in case of ΔN23-CP,

ΔN19-CP, while ΔN14-CP mutant is able to move similarly as WT-CP, albeit with a short delay.

Efficiency of assembly into full length viral particles is dependent on N terminal region of

CP

In order to check the efficiency of virion assembly, we observed WT-CP and constructed deletion

mutants ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN26-CP and ΔN50-CP under TEM and analyzed the

viral particle lengths with ImageJ software (NIH). Note that we were not able to measure viral

particles lengths of ΔN40-CP deletion mutant due to particles aggregation (Fig. 4A).

Figure 4. Assembly of viral particles. (A) Abolished formation of full length viral particles in deletion

mutants in bombarded leaves. Scale is 100 nm. **(B)** Distribution of viral particles lengths in bombarded

leaves. Observed statistically significant differences between deletion mutants and WT-CP using Kruskal-

Wallis test, are marked with an asterisks (*). Mean (represented with filled dot) and standard deviation are

shown. Individual measurements are shown as empty dots, representing normalized viral multiplication area.

See data S8 for more statistical testing. We were not able to measure viral particles lengths in case of

ΔN40-CP due to particle aggregation. **(C)** Formation of full length viral particles in systemic leaves. Note

that we were not able to observe ΔN50-CP, ΔN40-CP nor ΔN26-CP viral particles in systemic leaves, since

they are not capable of spreading systemically. Scale is 100 nm. Representative micrographs of viral

particles for deletion mutants were obtained with negative staining TEM in bombarded and systemic leaves.

See Materials and methods section and data S2 for more details.

Analyzed deletion mutants ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN26-CP and ΔN50-CP formed

shorter viral particles if compared to WT-CP, since statistically significant results were observed

between WT-CP and all tested deletion mutants (Fig. 4B and data S8). The shortest viral particle

lengths were measured in case of ΔN50-CP deletion mutant and were statistically significantly

shorter in comparison to ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP (data S8). On the other hand, by the mutants with

shorter deletions (ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN26-CP) the trend of longer viral particles in

comparison to ΔN50-CP, albeit shorter than WT-CP was observed (Fig. 4, A and B and data S8).

To sum up, CP N terminal region deletions are influencing the efficiency of viral particles

assembly (Fig. 4, A and B). As expected, full length viral particles were detected in systemic

leaves in case of ΔN19-CP and ΔN14-CP at 22 dpb, while we could not find them in case of

ΔN26-CP, which is not capable of spreading systemically (Fig. 4C).

Change of flexibility in N-terminal region affects cell-to-cell viral movement

To pinpoint amino acids important for cell-to-cell virus movement, we generated point mutations in

the CP N terminal region, for charged residues Asp14, Glu18, for potential phosphorylation site at

Ser21 and for 3D structure breakers Gly20 and Pro24. Selected residues were changed to Ala

(D14A, E18A, P24A), except for Ser21 where the sequence coding for Ala and Thr substitution was

unstable in *E. coli*, thus we mutate is to Gly (S21G) and for Gly20, where we intentionally introduced

Pro (G20P) to affect the fold of N terminal region (Fig. 5A).

A)

ΔN14   ΔN19 ΔN20 ΔN23   ΔN26

N- G N D T I D A G G S T K K D A K Q E Q G S I Q P N L N K E
     1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29

                   D14A   E18A   G20P S21G   P24A

K E K D V N V G T S G T H T V P R I K A I T S K // K N M * **-C**
30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53
                    ΔN40   ΔN50

B)

| G20P | S21G | P24A | WT-CP |

C)

| G20P | S21G | P24A | WT-CP |

D)

normalized viral multiplication area

8 dpb 9 dpb 10 dpb 11 dpb 12 dpb 13 dpb   8 dpb 9 dpb 10 dpb 11 dpb 12 dpb 13 dpb   8 dpb 9 dpb 10 dpb 11 dpb 12 dpb 13 dpb

G20P   P24A   WT-CP

E)

| b | sy | b |
| G20P | G20P | S21G |

| b | sy | sy |
| P24A | P24A | WT-CP |

Figure 5. Substitution of serine to glycine on position 21 of CP N terminal region abolished cell-to-cell viral movement and virion assembly. (A) Amino acid sequence of GFP tagged infectious clone PVY-N605(123) CP protein with labeled constructed deletion and point mutants. The scheme presents mutants with deletions of 14 (ΔN14-CP), 19 (ΔN19-CP), 20 (ΔN20-CP), 23 (ΔN23-CP), 26 (ΔN26-CP), 40 (ΔN40-CP) or 50 (ΔN50-CP) amino acids on CP N terminal region and mutants with point mutations including substitutions of negatively charged aspartic acid to alanine on position 14 (D14A), negatively charged glutamic acid to alanine on position 18 (E18A), glycine to proline on position 20 (G20P), serine to glycine on position 21 (S21G) and proline to alanine on position 24 (P24A). **(B)** Confocal microscopy images showing viral cell-to-cell spread of mutants G20P, S21G, P24A and WT-CP 5 dpb. Scale is 100 μm. **(C)** Spatio-temporal PVY distribution for constructed point mutants G20P, S21G, P24A and WT-CP in *N. clevelandii* systemic tissue as observed by whole plant imaging system 12 dpb. Scale is 5 cm. **(D)** Quantification of viral multiplication area in the upper systemic leaves of bombarded *N. clevelandii* in 6 selected timepoints (8-13 dpb). Mean (represented with filled dot) and standard error are shown. Individual measurements are shown as empty dots, representing normalized viral multiplication area. Differences between analyzed point mutants were evaluated with Welch`s t test. Statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$) between G20P mutant and WT-CP are represented with asterisks (*), while there were no statistically observed differences between P24A and WT-CP (see data S9 for all results of statistical testing). Vertical lines present all points except outliers. The results were confirmed in additional experiments (Fig. S4 and data S10). **(E)** Representative TEM micrographs of point mutants in bombarded (b) and systemic (sy) leaves 13 dpb. Results were obtained with negative staining. Scale bars are 200 nm, except in case of S21G (50 nm).

Viral cell-to-cell spread of mutants D14A, E18A and P24A was comparable to WT-CP (Fig. 5B and S5). On the other hand, G20P mutant showed delayed cell-to-cell spread, while S21G mutant remained limited to just single cells at all observed timepoints (Figs. 5B and S5).

Next, we performed whole plant imaging to study systemic viral spread of mutants (Figs. 5C and S7). In accordance with the results of cell-to-cell movement, there were no statistically significant differences in viral multiplication area in systemic tissue when comparing D14A, E18A or P24A with WT-CP (Figs. 5D, S6, S4 and data S9, S10, S11, S12) at all observed timepoints. On the other hand, the viral multiplication area of G20P in systemic tissue was statistically significantly lower compared to WT-CP at all observed time points (Fig. 5D and data S9). As expected, S21G did not

spread systemically (Fig. 5C). Furthermore, electron microscopy showed the ability of E18A, G20P

and P24A to form viral particles as WT-CP in both, bombarded and systemic leaves, while we were

not able to find any viral particles in case of S21G, however, we observed oligomeric rings which

could be connected into very short fragments (Fig. 5E). We conclude that fold altering mutations in

the 19-26 region of interest, hinder the formation of filaments (S21G) and prevent (S21G) or delay

(G20P) the movement of PVY.

Discussion
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The biological function of C and N terminal regions of PVY CP has already been initiated in our

previous study, where we hypothesized that N terminal amino acid residues are necessary for an

efficient cell-to-cell movement (15). Here we provide additional insights into the mechanism of PVY

spread by identifying the regions of PVY CP N terminal region that are important for efficient viral

cell-to-cell movement and systemic infection.

Despite the conserved flexible structure of potyviruses N terminal region of CP, there are notable

differences observed regarding its involvement in potyviral cell-to-cell and systemic movement. In

the case of zucchini yellow mosaic virus (ZYMV), deletion of the entire CP N terminal region did

not affect systemic infection (22). Similarly, a deletion of 6-50 amino acids in the CP N terminal

domain did not compromise TuMV cell to cell and systemic movement (18). On the other hand, in

tobacco etch potyvirus (TEV), CP N terminal region deletions of 5-29 amino acid residues delayed

cell-to-cell movement and prevented systemic spread (21). We observed inability to move cell-to-

cell for PVY when 40 or more amino acid residues were deleted from CP N terminal region (Fig.

1). However, shorter deletions in the range of 19 to 23 did not prevent systemic spread but resulted

in delayed systemic and cell-to-cell PVY movement (Figs. 2, B and C, 3B and data S4, S3 and S7).

The reason behind these observed differences among different potyviral species may be in

phylogeny, since ZYMV belongs to bean common mosaic virus (BCMV) supergroup of potyviruses

while TEV, PVY and interestingly TuMV as well, to the PVY supergroup (28, 29).

The analysis of viral multiplication area revealed important insights into the cell-to-cell movement

dynamics of deletion mutants, as increasing number of deleted amino acid residues at CP N

terminal region resulted in slower cell-to-cell viral spread (Fig. 2, B and C). Furthermore, slower

cell-to-cell virus spread also impacted infection of systemic tissue (Fig. 3A). The connection

between cell-to-cell movement and systemic spread was expected, as the virus reaches the veins,

enters the veins and is transported in systemic tissue with a delay due to decelerated cell-to-cell

movement (30).

Results of several studies suggested the role of charged amino acids in the CP core and C terminal

region of different potyviruses in cell-to-cell and systemic virus spread (18, 19, 25). In contrast,

results of our study show that the role of charged amino acids in the CP N terminal region of PVY

is not significant, as cell-to-cell spread of D14A and E18A mutants was comparable to WT-CP (Fig.

5B).

On the other hand, we observed that replication of S21G mutant was limited to single cells (Fig.

5B), which might be due to loss of potential phosphorylation site or disruption of N-terminus

structure, due to introduction of glycine. Note that to confirm the hypothesis about the important

potential role of phosphorylation of Ser21, we aimed to replace Ser21 also with alanine and

threonine, but the design of such point mutants was not achievable, due to their instability in *E. coli*.

It has been previously suggested that PVY cDNA is unstable in *E. coli*. Stability of full length PVY

plasmids was achieved by inserting introns into putatively toxic genes but still for some mutants

recombinations can occur (31).

Furthermore, we also showed the important role of the glycine on position 20 of CP N terminal

region in PVY cell-to-cell as well as systemic spread, since G20P mutant spreads slower than WT-

CP (Fig. 5 B, C and D). We hypothesize that exchanging Gly with Pro in G20P mutant increased

rigidity to the N terminal region. This alteration was apparently not enough as to prevent virus

assembly (Fig. 5E). However, the mutation may have impacted the interaction of the CP with other

host and viral proteins in the cell resulting in the observed delay.

Our study suggests that CP N terminal region is also important for efficiency of assembly into full

length viral particles, since viral lengths of observed deletion mutants ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN23-

CP, ΔN26-CP and ΔN50-CP were statistically significantly shorter if compared to WT-CP (Fig. 4B).

Furthermore, electron microscopy (EM) observations indicate that deletion of 50 or 40 amino acids

on PVY CP N terminal region are not only preventing cell-to-cell movement, but impact virion

formation as well (Fig. 4A), since with ΔN50-CP mutant we saw only shorter fragments, while in

case of ΔN40-CP virions were formed to similar lengths as WT-CP virions, with apparently higher

tendency to aggregate (Fig. 4A). This is partially in accordance with (18), who observed aberrant

TuMV virions in case 6-50 amino acids deletion of TuMV CP N terminal region. Interestingly, in

contrast with our results, this deletion did not significantly compromise TuMV cell-to-cell and

systemic movement (18).

Intact PVY CP N terminal region is important for correct virion formation and for an optimal PVY

movement, unlike in some other potyviruses. Since we observed properly formed virions also in

case there was a delay in movement (G20P) (Fig. 5E), we speculate that interaction of N terminal

region, which is disordered with some other proteins is required for efficient PVY spread. We also

show the importance of CP N terminal region for efficiency of assembly into full length viral particles.

The results identifying crucial domains and amino acids of CP N terminal region in viral cell-to-cell

movement provided in our study are important basis to elucidate these complex processes,

particularly in most economically important viruses such as PVY.

Materials and Methods

Plant material

N. clevelandii plants were used to follow virus spread. Plants were grown from seeds and kept in growth chambers under controlled conditions as described previously (32).

Construction of PVY-N605(123)-GFP CP N-terminal deletion and point mutants

As a template to construct mutants with deletions on the CP N terminal region, we used a GFP-tagged infectious clone PVY-N605(123) constructed by (27). The GFP coding sequence was inserted between NIb and CP coding sequences, flanked by protease target sequences, so that GFP would not bother viral movement, since it is excised from the polyprotein as other viral proteins (27). Megaprimers were designed in accordance with instructions prepared by (33). Detailed information about mutagenic PCR reactions conditions and mixtures can be found in Text S1. After adding 4 μL of *DpnI* enzyme, the mutagenesis mixtures were transformed into *E. coli* XL 10 Ultracompetent Cells in accordance with manufacturer`s instructions (Agilent Technologies). Transformation mixtures were plated on LB agar with ampicillin selection and incubated overnight at 37ºC. Transformants were screened with colony PCR using PVY GFP_F and PVY uni_R primers (data S13) and KAPA2G Robust HotStart Kit (Agilent Technologies). Prior bombardment, polyprotein and its promoter in PVY-N605(123) lacking 50 and 14 amino acids on CP N-terminus were Sanger sequenced (data S13) Additionally, restriction analysis was performed to confirm the correctness of the PVY coding region.

Biolistic bombardment

Constructed PVY mutants and wild type plasmids were amplified in *E. coli*. Plasmids were then isolated and coated onto gold microcarriers that were used for *Nicotiana clevelandii* bombardment using a Helios® gene gun (Bio-Rad), as described by (33).

Plant material sampling and RNA isolation

Plant leaf samples were collected from bombarded *N. clevelandii* plants by excising 0,3 g plant tissue near the bombardment site. Sampled plant material from bombarded *N. clevelandii* leaves was homogenized in 700 µl of RNeasy kit RLT lysis buffer with FastPrep (MP Biomedicals) 1 min 6,5 m/s. Total RNA was isolated using RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen). Residual DNA was digested with deoxyribonuclease I (DNase I, Qiagen) in solution, using 1.36U DNase/µg RNA. Quality control of isolated RNA was performed as described in (32).

RT-qPCR

Relative PVY RNA concentration was determined by single-step quantitative RT-PCR (RT-qPCR; AgPath-ID One-Step RT-PCR, Thermo FisherScientific) for the ΔN50-CP mutant, while two step RT-qPCR was performed for other mutants. RNA was reverse transcribed with High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and analyzed by qPCR using FastStart Universal Probe Master (Roche).

A qPCR assay targeting the PVY CP encoding region was used as a target gene, while the gene encoding for cytochrome oxidase (COX) was used as reference gene. To avoid false positive results plants bombarded with plasmid encoding for blue fluorescent protein, were sampled and analyzed with our qPCR assay targeting PVY CP encoding region. RT-qPCR amplification program and reaction composition mixtures were the same as in (27). Primers and Probes details are listed in data S13.

After conducting RT-qPCR reactions, the QuantGenius software (34) was used for relative quantification of PVY RNA using the standard curve approach. Data containing information about the relative RNA quantity, was averaged for each group and then normalized to the lowest group average number (data S1).

RT-PCR

One-step reverse transcription PCR (QIAGEN OneStep RT-PCR Kit) was performed to confirm that the introduced mutations were maintained in the viral progeny of all constructed mutants. DNAse-treated RNA, isolated from leaves according to the above protocol, was used as a template. Mutated region was amplified with PVY-GFP_F and uniPVY_R primers (data S13). The purified PCR products were sequenced (Sanger sequencing). For samples with a small amount of mutated virus (ΔN50-CP, ΔN40-CP, S21G), an additional PCR (repliQa HiFi ToughMix; Quantabio) on purified products was performed to amplify the mutated region in sufficient quantity.

Confocal microscopy

Cell-to-cell viral spread on upper side of bombarded *N. clevelandii* leaf discs, sampled with cork borer, was observed under Leica TCS LSI confocal macroscope with Plan APO x5 and x20 objectives (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) at different time points (5-14 dpb), and Stellaris 5 confocal microscope with HC PL FLUOTAR x10 objective (Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) for studying point mutations at 5 dpb. The GFP emission was recorded after excitation with 488 nm laser in the window between 505 and 530 nm and used as a direct measure of the presence of metabolically active viruses in the observed tissue. Sampled discs were scanned unidirectionally with scan speed of 400 Hz and frame average 1 or 2. For following the spread of ΔN50-CP at 12 dpb, ΔN40-CP and WT-CP at 10 dpb, 5x objective was used (Fig. 1B), while for following the spread of ΔN26-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN20-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP mutants and WT-CP at 5 dpb, 20x objective was used (Fig. 1, C and D,). Images were processed using LEICA LAS X software (Leica microsystems) to obtain maximum projections from z-stacks.

EM sample preparation

The presence of viral particles, compactness of structure and particle length were assessed with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using negative staining method. Tissue extracts were prepared from leaf discs, in which viral presence was previously confirmed with confocal microscope, and then macerated in phosphate buffer (0.1 M, pH 6.8). 20 µL of extracts were applied

to a grid for 5 minutes, blotted, washed, and stained with 1% (w/v) water solution of uranyl acetate.

Grids were observed by TEM TALOS L120 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) operating at 100 kV or 120

kV. Micrographs were recorded using Ceta 16 M camera and software Velox (Thermo Fisher

Scientific).Viral particle lengths of WT-CP and ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN26-CP and ΔN50-

CP deletion mutants were measured with ImageJ software (NIH).

Virus inoculation

To more precisely examine cell-to-cell viral movement by whole plant imaging, we inoculated 3-4

weeks old *N. clevelandii* plants with inoculum prepared from systemic leaves of ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-

CP, ΔN23-CP and WT-CP-inoculated plants in which GFP signal was confirmed using whole plant

imaging system. Systemic leaves were ground in phosphate buffer (supplemented with PVP 10000)

in a plant material : buffer ratio of 1:4. Three bottom leaves of *N. clevelandii* plants were dusted

with carborundum powder and rubbed with the inoculum (1-3 drops of inoculum per leaf) which was

removed after 10 min by rinsing with tap water.

Whole plant imaging

Cell-to-cell and systemic viral spread throughout the plant was monitored using the Whole plant

imaging system Newton 7.0 BIO (Vilber) in bombarded and inoculated *N. clevelandii* plants. GFP

emission of GFP-tagged PVY clone was followed in 480 nm excitation channel and emission filter

F-550. Images were taken by EvolutionCapt edge software. For viral multiplication area analysis in

inoculated leaves, all three ΔN14-CP-, ΔN19-CP-, ΔN23-CP- and WT-CP-inoculated leaves of *N.*

clevelandii were imaged using exposure time 1 min 46 sec 700 msec, 10x10 field of view (FOV)

and 1331-1337 focus in 4 time points: 3 dpi a.m. and p.m. and 4 dpi a.m. and p.m. For studying

systemic viral spread, ΔN14-CP-, ΔN19-CP-, ΔN23-CP and WT-CP-bombarded *N. clevelandii*

plants were imaged, using 50 s exposure time, 20x20 FOV and focus in the range between 1871

and 1905 in different time points (4-32 dpb). For studying systemic viral spread of point mutations,

plants were imaged at different time points (6-13 dpb) with exposure time 5 s and 50 s and other

settings as for studying systemic viral spread of deletion mutants (see above). In case of

experiment with D14A and WT-CP at 13 dpb, exposure time was only 5 s to avoid saturation due

to a high signal.

Image analysis and signal quantification following whole plant imaging

Viral multiplication area analysis on inoculated leaves and on upper systemic leaves were

performed using Kuant software (Vilber, France). In case of viral multiplication area, surfaces of

three viral multiplication areas per leaf were measured, while in case of viral multiplication area in

systemic leaves, total count of the virus affected area was measured. Total count is determined as

a sum of gray values within region of interest (systemic leaves, ROI) and is proportional to the

intensity and spread of the signal. All measured data from Kuant software were exported to Excel,

where total count in ROIs were averaged for each timepoint and subsequently normalized on the

lowest group average number. Normalized viral multiplication areas were statistically evaluated

using Welch`s t-test and were used for graphic representation.

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Supporting information captions

Supplementary Text S1. Construction of PVY-N605(123)- GFP CP N-terminal mutants

Fig. S1. ΔN50-CP ΔN40-CP viral replication.

Fig. S2. Viral replication ΔN26-CP.

Fig. S3. N19-CP_ΔN14-CP_WT-CP cell-to-cell spread dynamics.

Fig. S4. Independent experiment for point mutants G20P, P24A and WT-CP to check viral abundance.

Fig. S5. Cell-to-cell viral spread of D14A, E18A, G20P, S21G and P24A point mutants.

Fig. S6. Virus abundance D14A, E18A, WT-CP.

Fig. S7. Point mutants systemic spread.

Table S1. ΔN26-CP viral limitation on single cells or cell-to-cell spread.

Data S1 (Microsoft Excel format). Normalized qPCR data for constructed PVY mutants.

Data S2 (Microsoft Excel format). General sample information including sample name, plant and leaf number, date of putting plants into the soil, date of bombardment.

Data S3 (Microsoft Excel format). Viral cell-to-cell spread evaluation after *N. clevelandii* inoculation with constructed mutant ΔN23/G-CP and WT-CP.

Data S4 (Microsoft Excel format). Viral cell-to-cell spread evaluation after *N. clevelandii* inoculation with constructed mutants ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP and WT-CP.

Data S5 (Microsoft Excel format). Viral cell-to-cell spread evaluation after *N. clevelandii* inoculation with constructed mutants ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP and WT-CP in replicate experiment.

Data S6 (Microsoft Excel format). Foci analysis comparisons between experiments.

Data S7 (Microsoft Excel format). Systemic spread dynamic analysis.

Data S8 (Microsoft Excel format). Viral particles lengths.

Data S9 (Microsoft Excel format). Systemic viral spread of G20P and P24A point mutants.

Data S10 (Microsoft Excel format). Systemic viral spread of G20P and P24A point mutants in replicate experiment.

Data S11 (Microsoft Excel format). Systemic viral spread of D14A point mutant.

Data S12 (Microsoft Excel format). Systemic viral spread of E18A point mutant.

Data S13 (Microsoft Excel format). Primers and megaprimers sequences.