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

deletion mutants of PVY N605 strain, 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 in *Nicotiana clevelandii* plants. 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 prevent (S21G)

or delay (G20P) PVY movement. In summary, this work shows the significance of the CP N-

terminus for movement of the PVY.

Keywords: potato virus Y, potato (*Solanum tuberosum*), coat protein (CP), viral movement, point

mutations

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 the *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* ("pretty interesting *potyviridae* ORF"), embedded within the P3 cistron of the polyprotein. Expression of *pipo* occurs through transcriptional slippage by the viral RNA polymerase and results in production of the P3N-PIPO fusion protein, which is involved in cell to cell movement (4, 5).

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 (6).

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 (7, 8, 9, 10). 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 (11). 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* (12). 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* (13). Systemic infection encompasses viral

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

(14, 15). 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 (14). The invasion of distant tissues requires

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

and mesophyll cells (14). 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 (6, 11).

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 (17, 16, 18). CP is the only potyviral structural protein and more than

2000 copies of CP encapsidate the viral ssRNA molecule to form potyviral virions (6, 10). 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 (17). 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 (17). Beyond its primary role in viral encapsidation, the CP is indispensable for

aphid transmission, potyviral RNA amplification and cell-to-cell movement (10, 13, 19). 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 (17). 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 (20). In potato virus A (PVA), phosphorylation of Thr243

residue on CP C terminal region is crucial for PVA replication *in planta* (21). These results and

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

movement of potyviruses (22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27). 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 (14, 15).

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.

Results

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 (17). 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 (28). 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 replication 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). Despite the lower RNA levels observed in leaves bombarded with constructed mutants, confocal microscopy image analysis showed that the accumulation of GFP in individual infected cells was the same in WT and ΔN40-CP mutant, confirming unhindered replication (Table S2). These findings corroborate our previous results showing that N terminal region CP truncations still allow viral replication (17) 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 timepoints (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. Furthermore, with electron

microscopy we observed that viral assembly at all tested deletion mutants is feasible (Supp. Fig.

10).

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 (Fig. S4).

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.

Substitution of serine with glycine on position 21 of CP N terminal region abolished PVY

cell-to-cell viral movement and virion assembly

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

the part of CP N terminal region that was observed as being important for viral movement (Figs. 1,

2 and 3). We point mutated charged residues Asp14, Glu18, potential phosphorylation site at Ser21

and 3D structure breakers Gly20 and Pro24. All, except Pro24, are highly conserved across

sequenced PVY strains. At position 24, 50% of PVY strains carries Pro and the others Ser (Fig S9).

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 mutated it to Gly (S21G) and

for Gly20, where we intentionally introduced Pro (G20P) to affect the fold of N terminal region (Fig.

4A).

Figure 4. Substitution of serine to glycine on position 21 of CP N terminal region abolished cell-to-cell viral movement. (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 S8 for all results of statistical testing). Vertical lines present all points except outliers. The results were confirmed in additional experiments (Fig. S5 and data S9).

Viral cell-to-cell spread of mutants D14A, E18A and P24A was comparable to WT-CP (Fig. 4B and S6). 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. 4B and S6).

Next, we performed whole plant imaging to study systemic viral spread of mutants (Figs. 4C and S8). 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. 4D, S7, S5 and data S8, S9, S10, S11) 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. 4D and data S8). As expected, S21G did not spread

248 systemically (Fig. 4C). Furthermore, viral assembly was confirmed with electron microscopy in all

249 constructed point mutants, with S21G as an exception, where only oligomeric rings were observed

250 (Supp. Fig. S10).

251 **Discussion**
252
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 (17). 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 (23). Similarly, a deletion of 6-50 amino acids in the CP N terminal

domain did not compromise TuMV cell to cell and systemic movement (19). 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 (22). 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 observed differences among potyviral species may stem from the high phylogenetic

divergence inherent to the genus, which at the CP level is, among other variations, observed as

different lengths and nucleotide variations in the N terminal region across different potyvirus species

(29, 23, 30, 31, 32). It is also well known that the potyvirus movement is facilitated by various

protein components, both from the virus and the host plant (33, 34, 35, 10, 11). In addition

potyviruses exhibit a divergent host range , majority of them being naturally limited to narrow host

range, such as TEV and ZYMV (36, 37), while TuMV stands out with its remarkably broad natural

host range (38). These features could also be contributing to the differences in the influence that

CP N terminal domain deletions have on the movement of different potyvirus species, because

different components involved in potyviral movement, viral and host, could be differently

compensating the effect of CP N terminal deletions.

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 (39).

Results of several studies showed the role of charged amino acids in the CP core, C and N terminal

region of different potyviruses in cell-to-cell and systemic virus spread (20, 26, 40, 41). In contrast,

substitutions of charged amino acids in the CP N terminal region of PVY in our study (D14A and

E18A mutants) did not affect cell-to-cell spread (Fig. 4B). It was also reported (42) that aromatic

residues, located on the core CP region contribute to the formation of π-stackings that are

importantly involved in TVBMV and other potyvirus movement, since they maintain CP

accumulation by stabilizing α-helixes and β-sheets (43, 44). Our region of interest does not possess

aromatic amino acid residues, therefore we did not test this hypothesis.

However, we observed that replication of S21G mutant was limited to single cells (Fig. 4B). We

further checked and the intensity of replication of this mutant within this single cell was not affected

(Table S2). Interestingly, electron microscopy imaging showed impaired viral assembly, since only

oligomeric rings were observed (Supp Fig. S10). Correct viral particle assembly is however not

prerequisite for cell to cell movement as ΔN40 and ΔN50 mutants did assemble but still could not

move between cells (Figs. 1 and S10). We hypothesize that this might be due to loss of potential

phosphorylation site or disruption of N-terminus structure, due to introduction of glycine. Previous

studies suggested that posttranslational modifications such as phosphorylations have an important

role in viral cell-to-cell movement and virion assembly (45, 46). In potato virus A (PVA),

phosphorylation of Thr243 residue on CP C terminal region is crucial for PVA replication in planta

(21). Note that to confirm the hypothesis about 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 (47).

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. 4 B, C and D). We hypothesize that exchanging Gly with Pro in G20P mutant increased

rigidity in the N terminal region. Consequently, the interaction of the CP with other host and viral

proteins in the cell may be impaired, resulting in the observed delay. Moreover, alignment of first

50 amino acid residues from PVY CP N terminal region across all PVY isolates, revealed a high

degree of conservation (at least 92,9%) at the mutated residues 20 (G20P) and 21 (S21G) across

all PVY isolates (Fig. S9), further supporting biological significance of these amino acids in PVY.

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 (48).

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) (28). 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 (28). Megaprimers were designed in accordance with instructions prepared by (49). 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 S12) 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 S12). 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 *N. clevelandii* bombardment using a Helios® gene gun (Bio-Rad), as described by (49).

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 (48).

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 previously described (28). Primers and

Probes details are listed in data S12.

After conducting RT-qPCR reactions, the QuantGenius software (50) 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 S12). 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, 5x and 20x objective were used (Fig. 1B), for ΔN40-CP and WT-CP at 5 and 10 dpb, 5x objective was used (Fig. 1B), while for following the spread of ΔN26-CP at 5-14 dpb and ΔN23-CP, ΔN20-CP, ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP mutants and WT-CP at 5 dpb, 20x objective was used (Fig. 1C and D). For each mutant we observed at least 3 plants.Images were processed using LEICA LAS X software (Leica microsystems) to obtain maximum projections from z-stacks. Raw confocal microscopy images were deposited on Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.17177382).

Transmission electron microscopy sample preparation

Viral assembly was 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). Raw electron microscopy images were deposited at Zenodo (doi:

10.5281/zenodo.17177382).

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. Measurements

for a.m. timepoint were carried out 9 a.m, while for p.m timepoint at 1 p.m. Four plants inoculated

with each mutant or WT-CP were imaged. For studying systemic viral spread, at least 3 *N.*

clevelandii plants bombarded with ΔN26-CP, ΔN23-CP, ΔN14-CP, ΔN19-CP- and WT-CP were

imaged, using 50 s exposure time, 20x20 FOV and focus in the range between 1871 and 1905 in

different time points (7-12 dpb). Note that *N. clevelandii* plants bombarded with ΔN26-CP and

ΔN23-CP were not taken into analysis, due to their inability or big delay in systemic movement. For

studying systemic viral spread of point mutations, at least three plants bombarded with constructed

point mutants were imaged at different time points (6-13 dpb) with exposure time 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. Raw images were deposited at Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.17177382).

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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Author contributions

AC, KG and TL designed research; TMP, KS, AC, AV, MTŽ, KB, VL performed the research; AV, TL, TMP, KS, MTŽ, VL, KG, AC, analyzed the data; AV, TL, AC, KG, TMP, KS, MTŽ, IGA, MP, KB, VL contributed to the writing or revision of the article.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data availability

Raw confocal microscopy and whole plant imaging system pictures were deposited at Zenodo and are openly available at doi: 10.5281/zenodo.17177382).

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Supporting Information for

Functionality of potato virus Y coat protein in cell-to-cell movement
dynamics is defined by 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]†*

* Corresponding authors. Email: anze.vozelj@nib.si, tjasa.lukan@nib.si

This PDF file includes:

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. ΔN19-CP_ΔN14-CP_WT-CP cell-to-cell spread dynamics.
Fig. S4. ΔN26-CP inability of systemic spread
Fig. S5. Independent experiment for point mutants G20P, P24A and WT-CP to check
viral abundance.
Fig. S6. Cell-to-cell viral spread of D14A, E18A, G20P, S21G and P24A point mutants.
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Fig. S9. Alignment of first 50 amino acid residues from the PVY N terminal region across
all PVY isolates.
Fig. S10. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) micrographs of deletion and point
mutants.
Table S1. ΔN26-CP viral limitation on single cells or cell-to-cell spread.
Table S2. Replication efficiency of ΔN40-CP and S21G mutant is the same as the one of
WT-CP PVY

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

Mutants were prepared with mutagenic PCR using QuikChange II XL Site-Directed Mutagenesis

Kit (Agilent Technologies). As a template previously constructed GFP infectious clone PVY-

N605(123) was used (28). The megaprimers were synthesized using the N-terminal region

sequence of GFP tagged PVY-N605(123) plasmid, according to defined guidelines (49). All

megaprimers used in the study are listed in data S12. Mutagenic touchdown PCR reaction

program with the following reaction mixture in the final volume of 25 μL were the same for all

generated mutants according to previously published protocol for generation of PVY deletion

mutants (49), with minor modifications listed below.

Component	Final concentration	Volume [μL]
10x reaction buffer	1x	2,5
dNTP mix	200 μM	0,5
forward megaprimer	0,5 μM	1,25
reverse megaprimer	0,5 μM	1,25
QuikSolution	/	1,5
PVY-N605(123)	200 ng	1,2
PfuUltra HF DNA polymerase	/	1

Temperature	Time	Step
92ºC	2 min	hold
92ºC	50 s	
65ºC to 55ºC	50 s	10cycles
68ºC	30 min*	

92°C	50 s	
55°C	50 s	8 cycles
68°C	30 min*	
68°C	60 min	hold

After amplification, 4 µL of DpnI enzyme (Agilent Technologies) was added to the mutagenesis

reaction mixture, following 2h on 37°C incubation. Following DpnI digestion, 2 µL of mutagenesis

mixture was used for transformation into *E. coli* XL-10 Gold Ultracompetent Cells (Agilent

Technologies). We used 45 µL cell aliquot supplemented with 2 µL of β-mercaptoethanol for the

standard heat-shock transformation protocol in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions

(Agilent Technologies). Transformation mixtures were plated on LB agar containing ampicillin and

incubated overnight at 37°C. Transformants were analyzed with colony PCR using primers PVY

GFP_F and PVY uni_R with KAPA2G Robust HotStart Kit (Agilent Technologies) with the

following 10 µL reaction mixture and cycling conditions stated below.

Component	Final concentration	Volume [µL]
5x Buffer B	1x	2
10 mM dNTP	200 µM	0,2
10 µM PVY GFP_F	300 nM	0,3
10 µM PVY uni_R	300 nM	0,3
5 U/µL KAPA2G polymerase	0,3 U	0,06
Colony suspension	/	1
H20		6,14

Temperature	Time	Step
95 °C	10min	Hold
95 °C	30 s	
55 °C	15 s	30 cycles
72 °C	1 min	
72 °C	5 min	Hold

Sanger sequencing, using the same primers as for the colony PCR, of positive colonies was

performed to confirm correct sequence of the PVY coding part.

Designed mutants PVY-N605(123)-GFP with desired mutations were amplified in One Shot®

TOP10 *E. coli* and 50 µg of constructed plasmid mutants were isolated from overnight cultures

using GenElute Plasmid MiniPrep Kit (Sigma-Aldrich). Isolated plasmids were subsequently used

to coat 6.25 mg of gold microcarriers (0,6 µm) to prepare gene gun bullets according to the

manufacturers protocol and were used for *Nicotiana clevelandii* bombardment using a

Helios®gene gun (Bio-Rad) at 200 psi (49).

Supporting figures and tables

Fig. S1. ΔN50-CP ΔN40-CP viral replication. Normalized relative PVY RNA abundance in

bombarded *N. clevelandii* leaves for constructed PVY mutants lacking 50 (ΔN50-CP) (A) and 40

(ΔN40-CP) (B) amino acids at CP N-terminus. Results were obtained 14 days post bombardment

(dpb). Non-mutated infectious clone (WT-CP) was used as a control. Data normalization was

performed as described in data S1. Results are presented as boxplots with normalized relative

PVY RNA abundance for each sample shown as dots. Differences between ΔN50-CP and WT-CP

and between ΔN50-CP and WT-CP were statistically evaluated using Welch's t test. Statistically

significant differences (p<0,05) are marked with an asterisk (*). Vertical lines present all points

except outliers.

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Fig. S2. Viral replication ΔN26-CP. Normalized relative PVY RNA abundance in bombarded *N.*

clevelandii leaves for constructed PVY mutant lacking 26 amino acids residues, in three

timepoints including 5, 10 and 14 dpb (from left to right). Non-mutated infectious clone (WT-CP)

was used as a control. Data normalization was performed as described in data S1. Results are

presented as mean (represented with filled dot) and standard error. Individual measurements are

shown as empty dots, representing normalized relative PVY RNA abundance. Differences

between constructed deletion mutants and WT-CP were statistically evaluated using Welch's t

test. Statistically significant differences (p<0,05) are marked with an asterisk (*). Note that the

scales are different between time points.

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

dynamics was quantified with normalized viral multiplication analysis as described in Materials

and methods. Results are presented as boxplots for tested mutants ΔN19-CP, ΔN14-CP and WT-

CP in 4 tested timepoints including 3 dpi a.m., 3 dpi p.m., 4 dpi a.m. and 4 dpi p.m., where dots

are representing normalized viral multiplication area as described in data S5. Differences were

statistically evaluated using Welch`s t test. Vertical lines present all points except outliers. The

differences were not statistically significant, due to autofluorescence of trichomes which resulted

in saturated pixels.

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Fig. S4. ΔN26-CP inability of systemic spread. Viral systemic spread was abolished in ΔN26-

CP mutant (left) in comparison to non mutated WT-CP, where systemic spread occurred (right).

Pictures taken 12 dpb.

Fig. S5. Independent experiment for point mutants G20P, P24A and WT-CP to check viral

abundance. Quantification of virus abundance in the upper leaves of bombarded *N. clevelandii*

expressed as total count per mutant 7, 8, 9, 12 and 13 dpb with exposure time 50 s (A). Other

measurements settings are the same as stated in Materials and methods. Mean (represented

with filled dot) and standard error are shown. Individual measurements are shown as empty dots,

representing normalized viral multiplication area. Statistically significant difference in normalized

viral multiplication area between mutants was evaluated by Welch`s t test. Statistically significant

differences (p<0,05) are demarked with an asterisk (*). Raw and normalized data, number of

plants and results of statistical analysis are specified in data S9. Note that there was no

statistically significant difference between G20P and WT-CP at 12 and 13 dpb due to signal

oversaturation due to high exposure time (50 s).

Fig. S6. Cell-to-cell viral spread of D14A, E18A, G20P, S21G and P24A point mutants.

Confocal microscopy images showing viral cell-to-cell spread of D14A, E18A, G20P, S21G, P24A

point mutants and WT-CP 5 dpb. Note that there we have comparisons of D14A and E18A point

mutants with the others (G20P, S21G, P24A) already included in the article main text (Fig. 4B).

Other confocal microscopy settings are specified in Materials and methods.

Fig. S7. Virus abundance D14A, E18A, WT-CP. Quantification of virus abundance in the upper

leaves of bombarded *N. clevelandii* expressed as total count per mutant for D14A mutant 7 dpb

with exposure time 50s (A) and (B) for E18A mutant 7 dpb with exposure time 50 (s). Other

measurements settings are the same as stated in Materials and methods. Mean (represented

with filled dot) and standard error are shown. Individual measurements are shown as empty dots,

representing normalized viral multiplication area. There was no statistically significant difference

in normalized viral multiplication area between mutants evaluated by Welch`s t test. Raw and

normalized data, number of plants and results of statistical analysis are specified in data S10 and

S11).

Fig. S8. Point mutants systemic spread. Spatio-temporal PVY distribution in *N. clevelandii*

systemic tissue using whole plant imaging system. Systemic spread of constructed point mutants

was followed 6 dpb, 7 dpb and 13 dpb in case of D14A (A) and E18A (B), while systemic spread

of P24A, G20P and S21G. (C) was followed 6 dpb, 7 dpb and 12 dpb. Note that pictures for

P24A, S21G and WT-CP 12 dpb are the same as in the main text (Fig. 4C). Imaging settings are

specified in Materials and methods. Plants were imaged with exposure time 50 s. In case of D14A

and WT-CP at 13 dpb, exposure time was 5 s to avoid oversaturation due to a higher signal.

Fig. S9 Alignment of first 50 amino acid residues from the PVY N terminal region across all

PVY isolates. To assess the conservation of mutated amino acid residues D14A, E18A, G20P,

S21G and P24A, we performed multiple sequence alignment of the first 50 amino acid residues of

the PVY coat protein, using CLC Genomics Workbench 25 (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany) and

pairwise sequence alignment. Note that for the multiple alignment analysis, only complete

sequences containing the first 50 amino acid residues of the PVY coat protein N terminal region

were included, as this region corresponds to our engineered deletion and point mutants.

Altogether 2112 sequences were obtained from NCBI Virus database. Sequence logo represents

the amino acid sequence conservation in the mutated region with arrows showing the

conservation percentage of each point mutated amino acid (D14A, E18A, G20P, S21G, P24A)

across all obtained sequences.

831 **Fig. S10 Transmission electorn microscopy (TEM) micrographs of deletion and point**

832 **mutants.** Representative TEM micrographs of deletion mutants and point mutants. Results were

833 obtained with negative staining. Scale bars for deletion mutants and WT-CP are 100 nm and for

834 point mutations 200 nm except in case of S21G (50 nm). Additional images of the mutant viruses

835 were deposited at Zenodo (doi: 10.5281/zenodo.17177382).

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

with viral cell-to-cell spread or viral limitation to single cells 10 and 14 dpb. Note that 5 dpb virus

was limited to single cells in all observed plants.

10 dpb		ΔN26-CP	WT-CP
	single cells	3/8	0/2
	cell-to-cell	5/8	2/2

14 dpb		ΔN26-CP	WT-CP
	single cells	2/3	0/2
	cell-to-cell	1/3	2/2

Table S2. Replication efficiency of ΔN40-CP and S21G mutant is the same as the one of

WT-CP PVY. To confirm that detected fluorescent signal in ΔN40-CP and S21G PVY mutants,

was the consequence of viral replication and not the continuous expression of viral genes from

the original plasmid of PVY driven by the constitutive 35S promoter, ROI (regions of interests)

mean intensities of individual cells in confocal microscopy images were assessed. Mean

intensities in selected ROIs 5 dpb for ΔN40-CP (A) and S21G (B) compared to WT-CP PVY are

shown. Statistical significance of differences was evaluated using Welch`s t test. Note that all

images were taken using the same settings (objective, zoom, gain).

A)

ΔN40-CP	WT-CP	Welch`s t test
24.4	13.8	
14.0	17.1	
9.7	15.5	
13.3	9.4	
8.4	15.2	0.6
4.8	21.6	
11.5	13.7	
8.6	15.6	
13.1	8.7	
25.7	15.9	
13.3	**14.6**	average

B)

S21G	WT-CP	Welch`s t test
6.8	7.1	
6.8	9.4	0.2
6.8	12.8	
6.8	**9.8**	average