Promising Inhibitor of Flavivirus: Evaluating the Antiviral Activity of Nordihydroguaiaretic Acid against West Nile Virus Replication

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Running Head: NDGA demonstrates intracellular antiviral activity against WNV in the initial two hours following viral internalization

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Abstract

Mosquito-borne Arboviruses, including Alphaviruses and Flaviviruses, are responsible for millions of human infections worldwide. The absence of specific antivirals for arbovirus infections underscores the urgent need for novel research to develop effective treatments. Natural products have emerged as promising candidates. Nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA), a natural lignan predominantly found in *Larrea* spp., has shown antiviral activity against several viruses, including Dengue. This study aimed to investigate the antiviral potential of NDGA against West Nile virus (WNV), assessing its mechanism of action and cellular interactions. Using plaque-forming unit reduction and immunofluorescence assays in LLC-MK2 cells, we determine the reduction in viability of WNV viral particles at different times post-infection. The potential involvement of the sterol regulatory element-binding proteins (SREBP) and 5-lipoxygenase pathways in WNV infection was evaluated. Additionally, we analyzed the cytoskeleton integrity in treated cells. NDGA, had the greatest inhibitory effect on WNV replication when added 1 and 2 h post-viral internalization (PI), losing activity when added after 3 h PI, thus suggesting it targets early viral infection events. The SREBP pathway seems to be involved in the inhibition of WNV by NDGA, likely due to its lipogenic activity. Furthermore, the antiviral activity of NDGA could be related to its ability to modify the cytoskeleton of LLC-MK2 cells. These findings highlight NDGA potential as a therapeutic candidate against WNV and other flaviviruses. Plant metabolites are among the leading therapeutic resources globally. Further research is necessary to comprehensively assess the therapeutic promise of NDGA.

Keywords: Arboviruses, natural product, lignan, antiviral activity, cytoskeleton

Abbreviations

5-LOX: 5-lipoxygenase
+C: positive control
AD: adsorption
BSA: bovine serum albumin
CC_{50}: cytotoxic concentration for 50% of the cells
DENV: Dengue virus
DMSO: dimethyl sulfoxide
EC_{50}: effective concentration 50
EMEM: Eagle's minimal essential medium
FBS: fetal bovine serum
IF: immunofluorescence
IN: internalization
MNCC: maximum non-cytotoxic concentration
MOI: multiplicity of infection
MTT: 3-(4,5-dimetiltiazol-2-il)-2,5-difeniltetrazolio
NDGA: nordihydroguaiaretic acid
PBS: phosphate-bufferd saline
PFU: plaque-forming units
PI: post-internalization
PT: pre-treatment
RIB: ribavirin
RT: room temperature
SI: selectivity index
SREBP: sterols regulatory elements binding proteins
SubTC: Subtoxic concentration
TC: toxicity control
VC: viral control
WNV: West Nile virus

Introduction

Arboviruses, arthropod-borne viruses, represent a substantial threat to global health, manifesting in a range of diseases from mild febrile conditions to severe neurological complications. Since its emergence, West Nile virus (WNV) has proliferated throughout the Americas, leading to numerous outbreaks with significant economic repercussions (1). Such outbreaks have the potential to overwhelm healthcare systems, as evidenced by the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic (2). WNV, classified within the Flavivirus genus, is responsible for a seasonal arbovirus infection that can result in severe neurological disease. Its transmission cycle involves avian species as reservoirs, incidental hosts such as horses and humans, and the *Culex* spp. mosquitoes as the vector of infection (3). This ecological cycle facilitates the global dissemination of the virus. In addition to WNV, the Flavivirus genus encompasses other notable pathogens, including Dengue (DENV) and Zika virus, which share a similar structural architecture, indicating potential cross-reactivity with antiviral agents targeting these viruses.

In light of the pressing demand for effective antiviral therapies, there is currently no approved vaccine or specific pharmacological treatment available for WNV infections in humans (4). Medicinal plants and its metabolites have been highly valued for millennia as a rich source of therapeutic agents for managing viral disorders. Nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA), a natural phenolic compound, sourced from *Larrea* spp., has been suggested for the treatment of various ailments, including cancer and chronic conditions such as diabetes, cardiovascular disease, and inflammatory disorders (5). Moreover, prior research has demonstrated the antiviral efficacy of NDGA against several arboviruses, indicating its potential as a broad-spectrum antiviral agent against arbovirus infections (6-9). Our findings reveal that NDGA exhibits both virucidal and antiviral effects against DENV1 *in vitro*, particularly within the initial 2 h following viral internalization. Through the application of qPCR and immunofluorescence techniques, it was confirmed that the reduction in infected cells would be associated with a decrease in viral replication, suggesting an intracellular mechanism of action. It is demonstrated that NDGA inhibits the endosome acidification, as its lysosomotropic effect impairs the viral uncoating process (8).

Elucidation of the molecular mechanisms underlying the antiviral activity of NDGA would provide new insights into virus-host interactions. Our hypothesis is that the NDGA ability to modulate critical proviral cellular pathways makes it a candidate for the development of more effective therapies against flavivirus. In this work, we aim to continue further studying the effects of NDGA, specifically on WNV infection.

Results

WNV replication cycle

To characterize the different phases of the viral growth curve, the amount of infectious virus produced over time was evaluated by means of plaque assay in LLC-MK2 cells infected with WNV (MOI 1). Figure 1-A shows the duration of the different phases of the WNV growth curve. No increase in the infectious titer of the virus was detected in the extracellular medium during the initial 12 h PI (eclipse phase). Maximal viral yields were observed in the exponential or logarithmic phase, which lasted from 12 to 30 h PI. Finally, infected cell monolayers entered their stationary phase, displaying signs of lysis and cell death. The presence of viral proteins was first visualized by IF at 12 h PI in the perinuclear region, and after 24 h PI in a large area of the cytoplasm (Fig. 1-B).

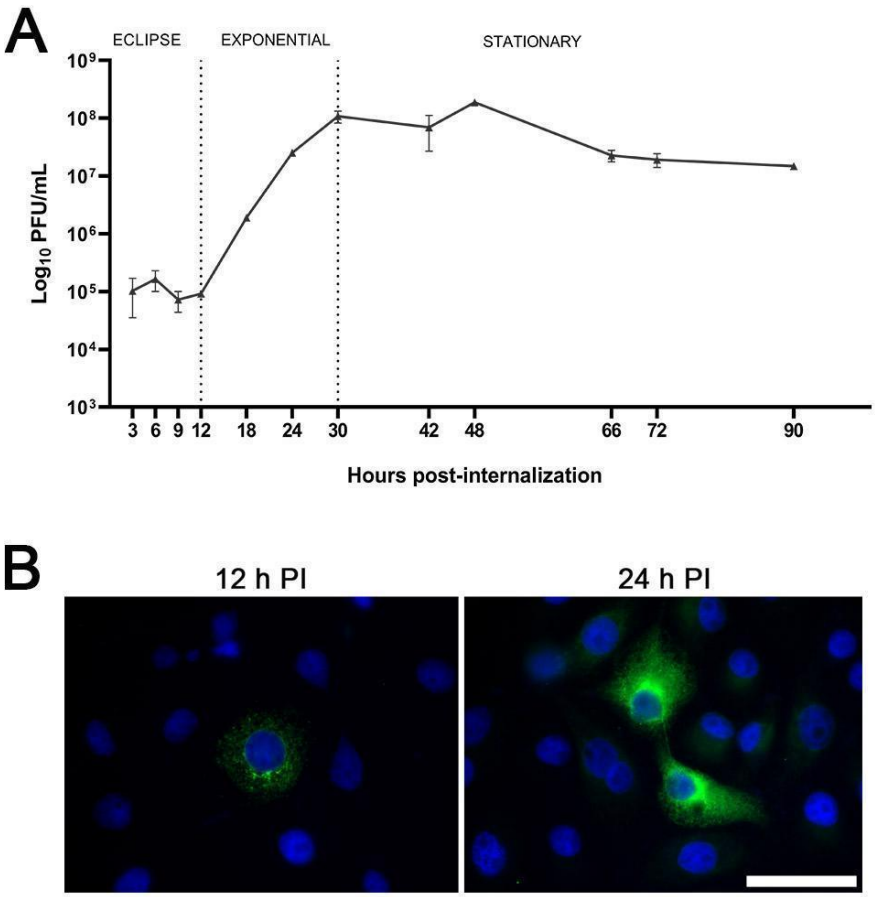

Figure 1. WNV replication cycle in LLC-MK2 cells. **A** WNV growth curve in LLC-MK2 cells. Monolayers were infected with MOI 1, and culture media were collected at different PI times (3, 6, 9, 12, 18, 24, 30, 42, 66, 72, and 90 h), and then analyzed for infectious viral particles using a standard plaque assay (log_{10} PFU/mL). Values shown viral titers ($\bar{x} \pm SD$) obtained by PFU assay in duplicate. **B** Representative images of WNV protein production in cultures at 12 and 24 h PI, evaluated by immunofluorescence assay. LLC-MK2 cells

were fixed at 12 and 24 h PI and processed for IF microscopy using an anti-WNV primary antibody from serum and an anti-human FITC- IgG secondary antibody (green). Scale bar=20 μm.

NDGA inhibits WNV during the first two hours postinternalization

To evaluate the antiviral activity of NDGA, the MNCC of 90.4 ± 5.9 μM for LLC-MK2 cells was established (9). NDGA was then tested at concentrations ranging from 2.5 to 90 μM. A dose-dependent inhibition of WNV replication was observed, with a maximum of 91.1% inhibition at 90 μM. The EC_{50} value, calculated from the dose-response curve (Fig. 2-A), was 29.8 ± 1.6 μM. The selectivity index (SI) was 3.9, indicating selective inhibition of WNV replication over LLC-MK2 cells cytotoxicity.

NDGA at CC_{50} concentration (115 μM) showed no significantly virucidal activity against WNV particles (2.3 x 10^9 PFU/mL viruses treated with NDGA *vs*. 1.2 x 10^9 PFU/mL in VC, p= 0.424), suggesting that the antiviral activity of this lignan is primarily due to its cellular effects.

To investigate the stage of the WNV life cycle targeted by NDGA, time-of-addition experiments were performed. NDGA treatment during pre-treatment, adsorption, and internalization did not significantly reduce WNV infection compared to the untreated control (Fig. 2-B). However, treatment initiated after viral internalization (1 h PI) resulted in inhibition of WNV replication (Fig. 2-B), suggesting that NDGA likely targets a post-viral internalization stage. To further define the window of NDGA antiviral activity, an additional experiment was conducted, NDGA was added at different PI times (1-8 h). NDGA treatment maintained a reduction in PFU compared to the untreated control up to 2 h PI,. This antiviral effect was no longer evident when NDGA was added at 3 h PI (Fig. 2-C).

The antiviral activity of NDGA against WNV was corroborated by immunofluorescence assays. Treatment with NDGA (90 μM) resulted in a significant reduction in the number of infected cells, as evidenced by a decrease in the expression of WNV proteins (Fig. 2-D). Quantification of infected cells revealed a statistically significant difference between the NDGA-treated group and the untreated group (p= 0.0005, Fig. 2-E), supporting the antiviral efficacy of NDGA.

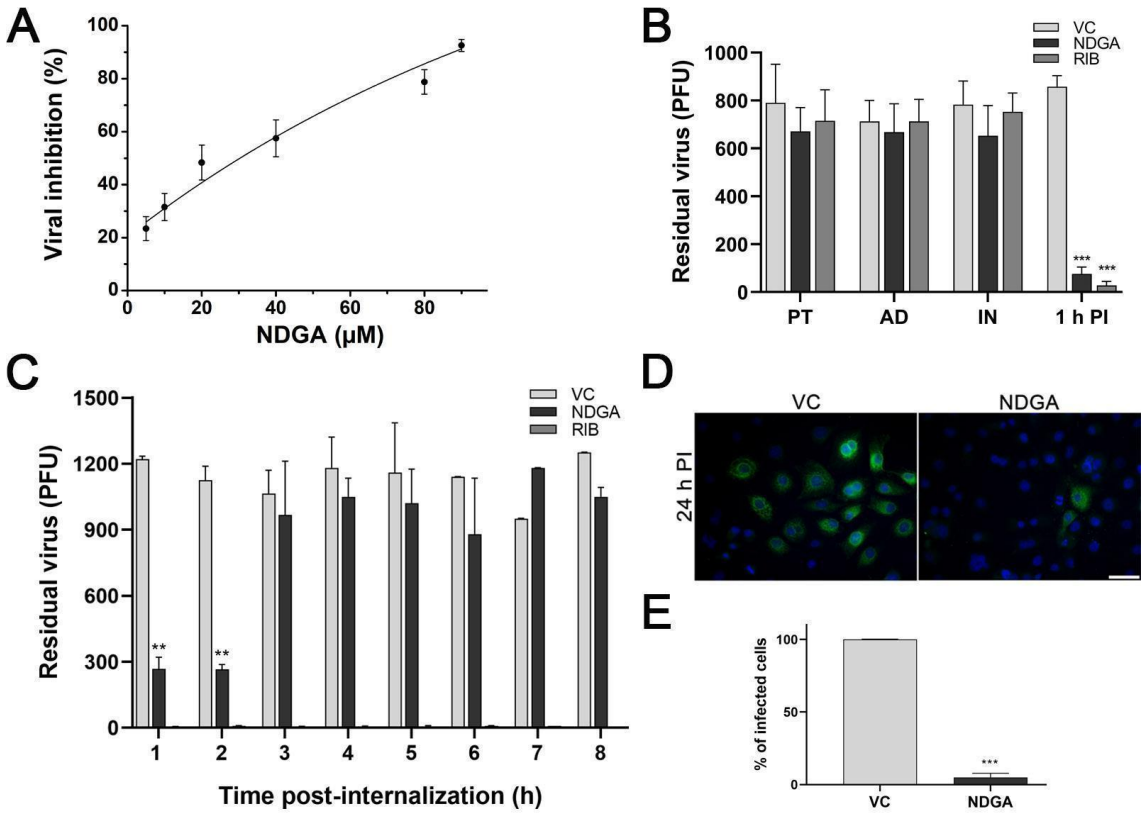

Figure 2. ***In vitro*** **antiviral activity of NDGA against WNV. A** Dose-response curve of NDGA antiviral activity against WNV. Results were fitted to a sigmoidal curve, $R^2 > 0.9$. **B** Antiviral activity of NDGA and RIB at different infection times: pre-treatment (PT), adsorption (AD), internalization (IN), and 1 h PI. **C** Antiviral activity of NDGA and RIB at different PI times. **D** Representative images of cultures treated with NDGA or untreated and infected with a WNV (green) and at 1 h PI. Cell nuclei (blue). Scale bar: 20 μm. **E** Percentage of infected cells with WNV and treated with NDGA at 1 h PI against control (VC, 100%). Bars represent $\bar{x} \pm$ SD from three independent experiments performed in triplicate. Significance was calculated by one-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey post-hoc analysis to allow comparison of specific group, with a p value ≤ 0.05 considered as statistically significant. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

NDGA's antiviral activity: modulation of cellular factors as a potential mechanism

Antiviral drugs act through three main mechanisms: (a) directly targeting a viral protein, (b) inhibiting a cellular process essential for viral replication, or (c) modulating the host's immune response (10). Given the broad-spectrum antiviral activity of NDGA against diverse viruses (6-9, 11-15) and its reported effects on cellular processes, such as antioxidant activity, inhibition of lipoxygenases (LOXs) and activation of signaling pathways (5), we hypothesized that this compound may act by modulating cellular factors (proviral factors), thus inhibiting WNV replication.

The antiviral effect of NDGA has been linked to the inhibition of lipogenesis (6, 7, 13). This compound is thought to exert its effect by downregulating the sterol regulatory element-binding protein (SREBP) pathway, which controls the expression of enzymes involved in sterol biosynthesis (13). Additionally, NDGA has been shown to inhibit the enzyme 5-LOX (5, 16), which is involved in the conversion of arachidonic acid to leukotrienes. Specific inhibitors of these pathways were employed to determine if they could replicate the antiviral effect of NDGA. Resveratrol, an inhibitor of SREBP1, the initial enzyme in the SREBP pathway (17), and caffeic acid, a selective inhibitor of 5-LOX (18), were chosen for this purpose. To ensure minimal cytotoxicity, concentrations of resveratrol and caffeic acid previously established as non-cytotoxic to LLC-MK2 cells were employed (9). Evaluation of their antiviral activity revealed that caffeic acid (200 μM) did not significantly affect WNV replication (Fig. 3-A). In contrast, resveratrol at 20 μM exhibited antiviral activity against WNV compared to untreated control, although this effect was weaker than that observed with NDGA at 90 μM (Fig. 3-A). These findings suggest that the antiviral activity of NDGA may be mediated, in part, by its inhibitory effects on the SREBP pathway.

In the viral infection cycle, the first hours of infection are crucial for viral uncoating (19). After internalization by clathrin-dependent endocytosis, trafficking of viral particles from early to late endosomes is dependent on cellular microtubules (MT)(20). We investigated whether NDGA treatment could alter the host cell cytoskeleton during the first 2 h post-treatment. This exploration aimed to elucidate a potential mechanism by which NDGA exerts its antiviral activity during this early stage of infection, focusing on its impact on the cellular cytoskeleton. For this, cell cultures were treated for 2 h with NDGA at 90 μM and processed for immunofluorescence. The consequence of NDGA treatment for 24 h was also evaluated to know the progress of the effect. We did not observe any changes in the actin cytoskeleton and, consequently, no alterations in cell morphology. However, NDGA treatment induced notable changes in MT organization. As shown in Figure 3-B, at 2 h post-treatment, the MT exhibited a loss of radial assembly from the microtubule-organizing center, redistributing into an irregular pattern towards the center of the cell. By 24 h treatment, we noted the appearance of circular rearrangements in the MT (narrow), a more pronounced effect.

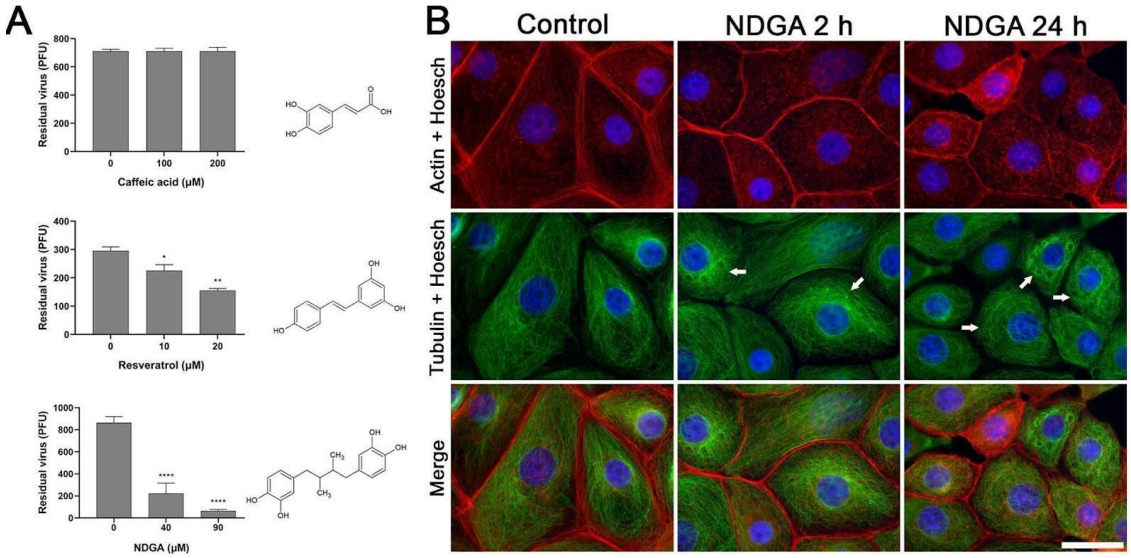

Figure 3. Characterization of the mechanism of action. A Chemical structure of inhibitors for the different cellular lipid metabolism pathways and antiviral activity of caffeic acid, resveratrol, and NDGA against WNV compared to the viral control (VC). Bars represent $\bar{x} \pm$ SD from three independent experiments performed in triplicate. Significance was calculated by one-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey post-hoc analysis to allow comparison of specific group, with a p value ≤ 0.05 considered as statistically significant. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$. **B** Time course changes in actin and tubulin cytoskeleton of LLC-MK2 cells. Cultures were treated with 90 μM of NDGA for 2 and 24 h and processed for IF. Actin and tubulin were visualized using phalloidin-rhodamine (red) and anti-α-tubulin antibody (green), respectively. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). Note the progressive disorganization of the MT cytoskeleton in NDGA-treated cells (narrow). Scale bar: 20 μm.

Discussion

Our research group has extensively explored the broad-spectrum antiviral potential of NDGA against different arboviruses, and identified it as a promising candidate for treating viral infections that currently lack approved antiviral therapies (8, 9, 14). This study confirmed the antiviral activity of NDGA against WNV and provided novel insights into its mechanism of action. We demonstrated that NDGA specifically targets cellular processes critical for viral replication (proviral factors), corroborating previous findings (7) and significantly expanding our understanding of this promising therapeutic candidate.

The growth kinetics of WNV in LLC-MK2 cells, assessed by plaque assay and immunofluorescence (IF) microscopy, revealed an eclipse phase of approximately 12 h, followed by a 30 h exponential growth phase. This growth curve, characterized by a distinctive eclipse phase and subsequent exponential viral release, is consistent with previously reported WNV growth kinetics in Vero B4 and C6/36 cells (21). The IF assay revealed the emergence of perinuclear viral protein localization at 12 h PI, which correlates with the onset of viral replication.

Consistent with our findings, previous studies have reported low *in vitro* cytotoxicity of NDGA in mammalian cells, with maximum non-cytotoxic concentrations ranging from 35 to 100 µM (6, 7, 22, 23). The maximum non-cytotoxic concentration of NDGA in LLC-MK2 cells was determined to be 90.4 ± 5.9 µM (9). Antiviral activity against WNV was evaluated using a concentration range below this threshold to minimize host cell damage, resulting in a selectivity index (SI) of 3.9. The observed antiviral activity, combined with the absence of virucidal effects, is consistent with previous findings (7).

Time-of-addition experiments demonstrated that NDGA exerts its antiviral effect when added within the first 2 h PI. Considering that NDGA uptake into cells has already been demonstrated (9), these findings strongly suggest that NDGA demonstrates its antiviral activity intracellularly. Notably, this time-dependent antiviral effect was consistent with that observed against DENV1 (8), suggesting a shared mechanism of action against these related flaviviruses.

Flaviviruses, including WNV, are highly dependent on cellular lipid metabolism for replication. NDGA affects lipid metabolism primarily by inhibiting 5-LOX and SREBP pathways. The antiviral activity of NDGA has been previously linked to these inhibitory effects (6, 13). Merino-Ramos *et al*. (7) demonstrated that 35 µM of resveratrol, an inhibitor of SREBP1, exhibits antiviral activity against WNV, further supporting the role of SREBP inhibition in the antiviral mechanism of NDGA. Our findings suggest that inhibition of the 5-LOX pathway does not significantly affect WNV replication. In contrast, resveratrol (20 µM) modestly decreased residual WNV particles, although its antiviral effect was less pronounced compared to NDGA.

It is known that during the flavivirus replication cycle, specifically during the first hours of infection, the uncoating process of the viral particle occurs, which involves the release of the viral genome from the endosomes into the cytoplasm (24, 25). During this phase, viral

particles are trafficked to late endosomes/lysosomes, where acidic pH triggers conformational changes in the viral envelope protein. This leads to membrane fusion and the release of the viral genome into the cytoplasm (25, 26). The trafficking process is critically dependent on the integrity of the cellular microtubule (MT) network and is tightly regulated by endosomal pH. MTs and their associated motor proteins play pivotal roles in the intracellular trafficking of viral particles within infected cells (27). Previous studies have investigated the role of MTs and the motor protein dynein in the early stages of DENV2 replication in BHK-21 cells (28). These studies demonstrated that the envelope (E) protein of DENV2 interacts with α-tubulin, suggesting that newly synthesized viral proteins are transported along MT tracks. Besides, dynein was found to be associated with the E protein of DENV2, facilitating its transport into the perinuclear region. Disruption of the dynein complex through dynamitin overexpression significantly impaired the trafficking of DENV E and core proteins (28). Furthermore, investigations on the trafficking of WNV E and C (capsid) proteins revealed their coordinated transport along MTs from the perinuclear region towards the plasma membrane. This process involves the motor protein kinesin and can be effectively inhibited by vinblastine sulfate, a well-known MT-disrupting agent (Chu and Ng, 2002). These results collectively underscore the critical role of the MT cellular network in supporting various stages of flavivirus replication, suggesting that disrupting MT function could represent a promising antiviral strategy. Cultures treated with NDGA for 2 and 24 h exhibited significant disruptions and alterations in the distribution of cellular MTs. This observation is novel, as no previous reports have documented that NDGA induces such alterations in the MT fibers.

These observations align with existing research indicating that NDGA disrupts MT polymerization, leading to a reduction in MT density and significant alterations in MT organization (29). These disruptions could impair cell motility and affect essential processes such as division and intracellular transport. Moreover, the influence of NDGA on tubulin dynamics may activate signaling pathways involved in apoptosis, underscoring its potential as a therapeutic agent in targeting cancer cell behavior. Overall, our results emphasize the significance of NDGA action on the tubulin cytoskeleton in modulating cellular functions and responses.

As already demonstrated by our group, NDGA possesses lysosomotropic effects, probably by disrupting the acidic environment necessary for viral envelope fusion within endosomes (8). The observed alterations in MTs could further influence viral replication by interfering with the transport of viral components, particularly during the crucial uncoating process. Collectively, these findings suggest that the antiviral activity of NDGA may result from a combination of effects on cellular machinery, including disruption of both endosome pH and the MT network, ultimately inhibiting viral replication.

In conclusion, our results reveal novel insights into the mechanism of NDGA antiviral activity, demonstrating its ability to disrupt critical cellular processes required for WNV replication. By targeting both the pH of the endosome and the MT network, NDGA offers a multifaceted approach to inhibit viral infection. These findings not only corroborate

previous research but also significantly expand our understanding of the complex interactions between viruses and host cells. Taken together, these data provide a solid foundation for further research on the therapeutic potential of NDGA against Flavivirus infections.

Material and methods

Cell Culture and Virus

LLC-MK2 (*Macaca mulatta* monkey kidney cells ATCC® CCL-7) were maintained in Eagle's minimal essential medium (EMEM, Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Natocor, Carlos Paz, Argentina), 30 μg/mL of L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich) and 50 μg/mL gentamicin (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Cells were grown at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO_2. The viral stock of WNV was the strain E/7229/062, which was titrated by the plaque-forming units (PFU) reduction method (30).

Compounds and Standard Solutions

NDGA, with 95% purity, was extracted and isolated from *Larrea divaricata* Cav. (*Zigophyllaceae*) as we previously reported (8). Ribavirin (RIB, Filaxis, Buenos Aires, Argentina) was used as a positive antiviral control. Stock solutions of NDGA, resveratrol (Sigma-Aldrich), caffeic acid (Sigma-Aldrich), and RIB were prepared in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Tetrahedron, Mendoza, Argentina). Working solutions were subsequently prepared by diluting the stock solutions in EMEM supplemented with 2% of FBS, 30 μg/mL of L-glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich), and 50 μg/mL of gentamicin. The final DMSO concentration in all experiments was kept below 1%.

Cell Viability Assay

The cytotoxic effects of NDGA on LLC-MK2 cells were assessed using the neutral red uptake and MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazole-2-il)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium) reduction assays as previously described (9). This allowed the calculation of the following parameters: CC_{50} (concentration causing 50% cell death), subtoxic concentration (SubTC, concentration affecting 20% of cells), and MNCC (maximum non-cytotoxic concentration).

Synchronized Infection

A synchronized infection protocol was employed as previously described (8). Briefly, LLC-MK2 monolayers were infected with WNV at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1. The virus adsorption was conducted by incubating at 4 °C for 1 h. Unbound virus was subsequently removed by washing with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at 4 °C. Cells were then incubated in EMEM with 2% FBS at 37 °C, 5% CO_2, and 98% humidity. Cytopathic effect was examined through phase-contrast microscopy at low magnification with an Olympus IX81 microscope.

Viral Replication Kinetic Curve

The cell monolayer was exposed to WNV at a MOI of 1. Then, synchronization of infection was performed to assess the length of the WNV replication cycle in LLC-MK2 cells.

Subsequently, supernatants were collected at different times post-internalization (PI = 0 to 90 h), and viral particle titters were measured using the PFU assay (9).

In Vitro Assessment of Virucidal Activity

To assess the direct virucidal activity of NDGA, the viral stock was incubated with NDGA in a 1:1 ratio (at a CC_{50} concentration of 115.7 µM) for 1 h at 37 °C. Control groups included the infected-cells (viral control, VC) and NDGA (compound control). Ten-fold serial dilutions of each group were seeded on a confluent LLC-MK2 cell monolayer for 1 h at 37 °C to allow virus adsorption. A semisolid overlay was added, and the plates were incubated until plaque formation (5 days). Plaques were observed by staining with crystal violet (Anedra, Buenos Aires, Argentina) following fixation with 10% formalin (Anedra). Infectivity after treatment was determined by titration of residual virus using the PFU assay (31).

In Vitro Antiviral Assay

A synchronized infection was performed in LLC-MK2 cells with a WNV suspension (100 PFU). Afterward, the infected cells were overlaid with EMEM and incubated at 37 °C for 1 h. After removing the inoculum, cells were treated with NDGA (2.5 to 90 µM) or with the positive control (+C), RIB (at non-cytotoxic concentration: 90 µM), all prepared in a semisolid medium and incubated for five days. Uninfected cells treated with NDGA were used as the cytotoxicity control (TC), whereas infected cells without treatment served as VC. Residual PFU in each condition was determined by plaque assay, and the inhibition percentage was calculated from the virus control (100% viable virus). The EC_{50} value, representing the concentration of NDGA required to inhibit 50% of viral replication, was determined from a dose-response curve. RIB was selected as +C for its application in treating other RNA virus infections (32).

Time of Addition Assays

LLC-MK2 cells were pre-incubated with NDGA (90 µM) for 1 h at 37 °C (Pre-teatment, a). Subsequently, cells were washed twice with PBS and infected with WNV (100 PFU). The effect of NDGA at different stages of the viral replication cycle, including adsorption (AD, b), internalization (IN, c), and 1 h PI (d), was investigated following the methodology detailed by Martinez *et al*., (9). For conditions b and c, NDGA was added for 1 h and subsequently removed by washing with PBS. Semisolid medium was added in the three first conditions (a, b, and c), for final incubation at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 until PFU formation. In condition d), NDGA was added at 1 h PI with the semisolid medium, followed by a final incubation until PFU formation. To further investigate the effect of the compound on the WNV replication cycle, NDGA (90 µM) was added simultaneously with the semisolid medium at different times PI (every hour for 8 h). The cells were then incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 5 days. Each experimental condition included VC, TC,

and +C. Residual virus in all conditions were quantified by PFU, and treatments at different times were compared to VC.

Effect of cellular lipid metabolism in WNV infection

To assess the antiviral efficacy of lipogenic pathway inhibitors against WNV, we employed the previously described methodology using non-toxic concentrations (9). The selected inhibitors were resveratrol targets sterol regulatory element binding protein 1 (SREBP1) (7) and caffeic acid inhibits 5-lipoxygenase (5-LOX) (18).

Immunofluorescence assay

Initially, the immunofluorescence (IF) assay was set up using different concentrations of primary antibody from the serum of a patient in whom WNV had been confirmed. For this, cell monolayers were grown at 70% confluence on glass coverslips, infected with WNV at MOI 1 and treated with NDGA (90 μM) 1 h PI and the corresponding untreated control. After 12 and 24 h PI, monolayers were washed three times with PBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde/1% sucrose (Riedel-de Haën, Sigma-Aldrich Laborchemikalien GmbH, Seelze, Germany) for 20 min at room temperature (RT). In parallel, to determine the effects of NDGA on the host cell cytoskeleton, cell monolayers were incubated for 2 and 24 h with NDGA (90 μM) and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde/1% sucrose. Subsequently, the fixed cells were permeabilized with 0.2% TritonTM X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS for 5 min at RT and incubated with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 h at RT. To visualize WNV, the primary antibody was added at a 1/500 dilution in 1% bovine serum albumin overnight at 4 °C. The visualization procedure was performed using a mouse anti-α-tubulin primary antibodies (DM1A, Sigma-Aldrich) diluted 1/1000 in 1% BSA/PBS solution overnight at 4 °C. Subsequently, monolayers were washed three times with PBS and incubated with secondary antibodies (FITC-anti-human IgG or goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488- # A-11017, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) for 1 h at RT. Fixed and permeabilized cell monolayers were stained with Phalloidin-Tetramethyl rhodamine B (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 h at RT to visualize the actin filaments (33).

Cells were observed using a conventional inverted epifluorescence microscope (Olympus IX81, Olympus Corporation, Shinjuku, Tokyo). Images were processed using Adobe Photoshop CS6 (Version: 13.0). The percentage of infected cells was calculated as the number of cells positive for the viral antigen from 10 microscope fields, selected at random, with comparable numbers of cells (more than 300 cells) per condition in each independent experiment. The percentage of infected cells in each treatment was determined by normalizing data compared to controls (100% value).

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses and graphical representations were performed using GraphPad Prism 5. Data were expressed as mean ± standard deviation ($\bar{x} \pm SD$), derived from three

independent experiments, each with three inter-trial replicates. Statistical analyses were carried out using an unpaired Student T-test and one-way ANOVA test, followed by a Tukey post-hoc analysis to enable specific group comparisons (Type I error set at 0.05), as appropriate.

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Authors' contributions

Florencia Martinez: Writing original draft, Visualization, Validation, Data curation, Conceptualization, Investigation. **Lucia María Ghietto:** Writing original draft, Visualization, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Juliana Lingua**: Writing original draft, Visualization. **Juan Javier Aguilar:** Writing original draft, Conceptualization. **Pedro Ignacio Gil:** Writing original draft, Data curation, Formal analysis. **Tomas Isaac Gomez:** Writing original draft, Visualization. **Juliana Marioni:** Writing original draft, Visualization. **Susana C. Núñez-Montoya:** Writing original draft, Conceptualization, Visualization, Funding acquisition. **Brenda S. Konigheim:** Writing original draft, Conceptualization, Visualization, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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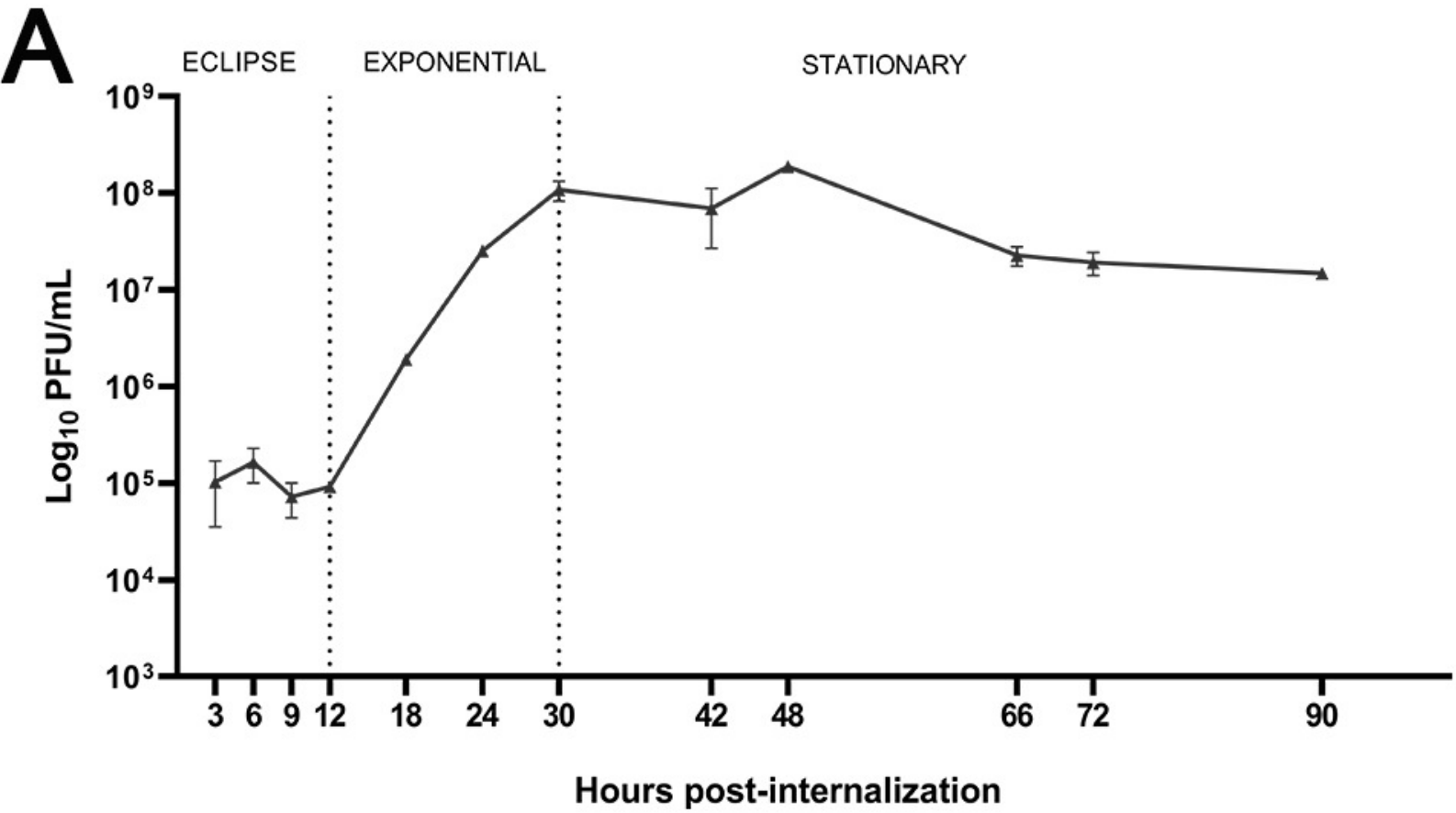
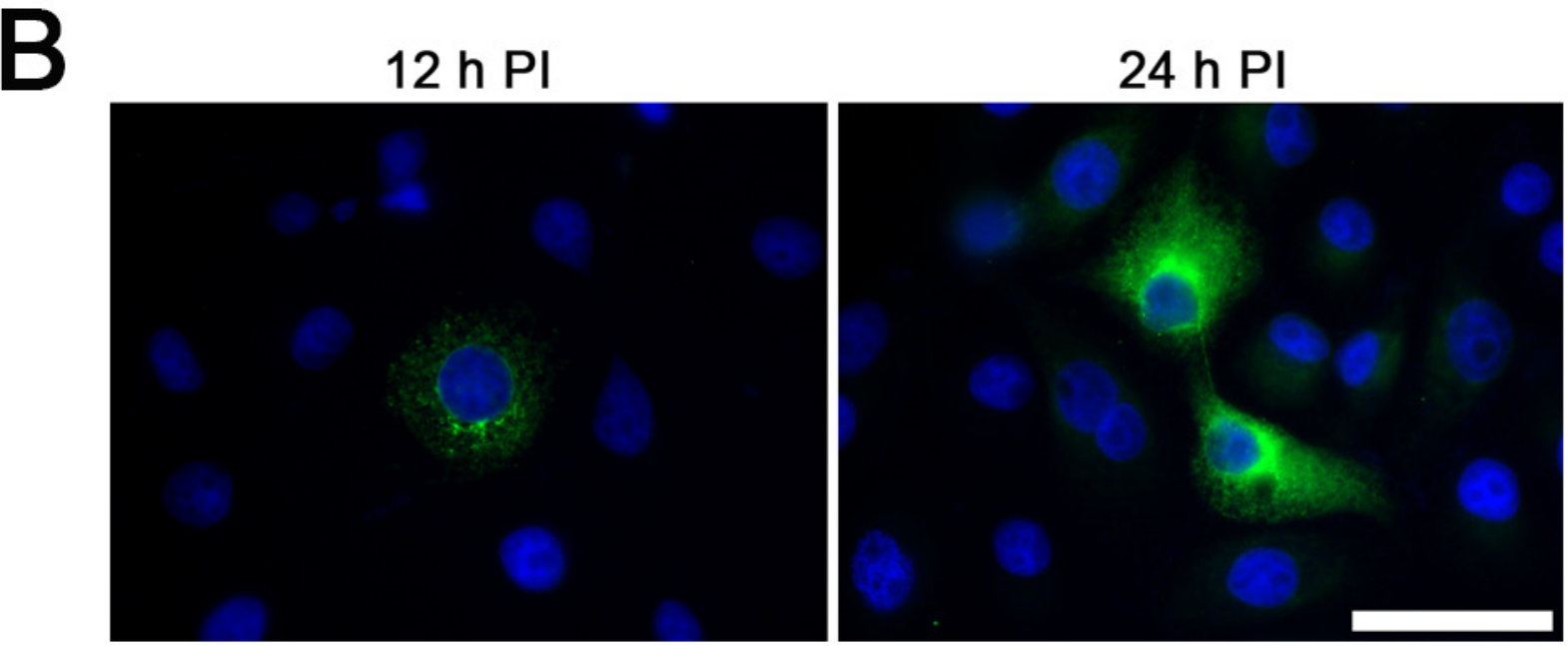
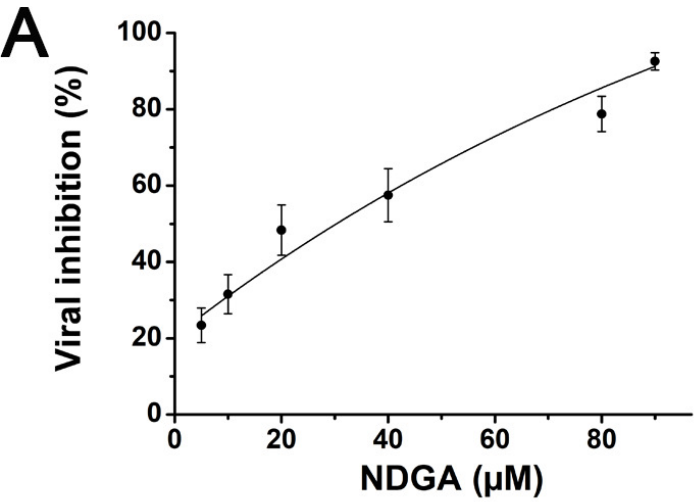
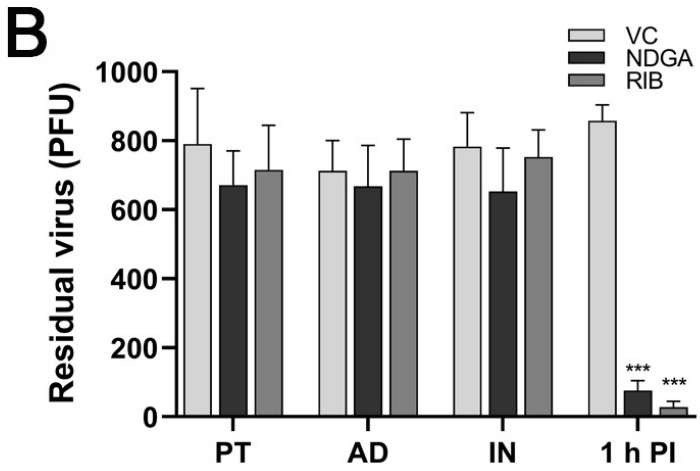
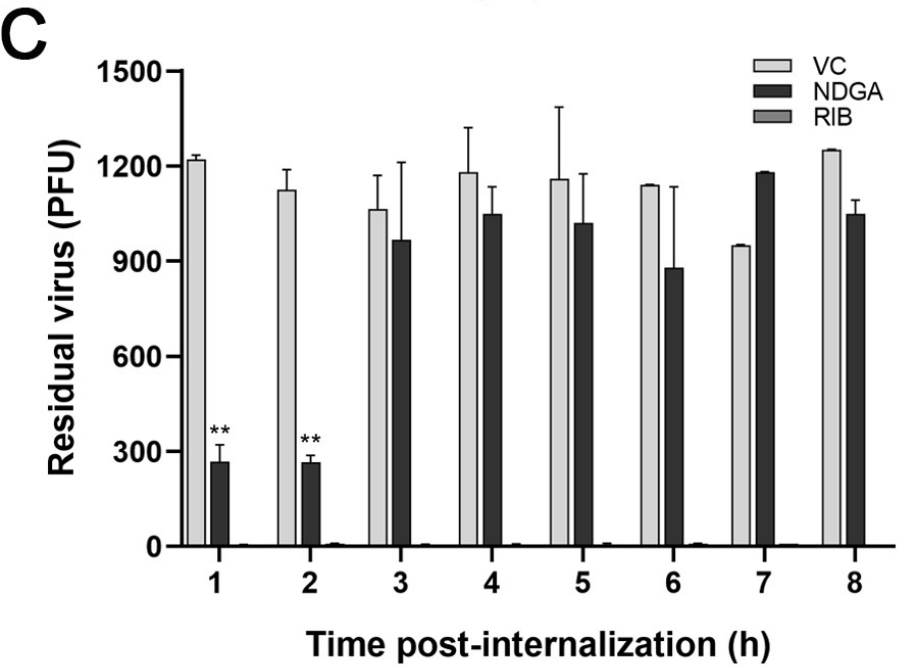
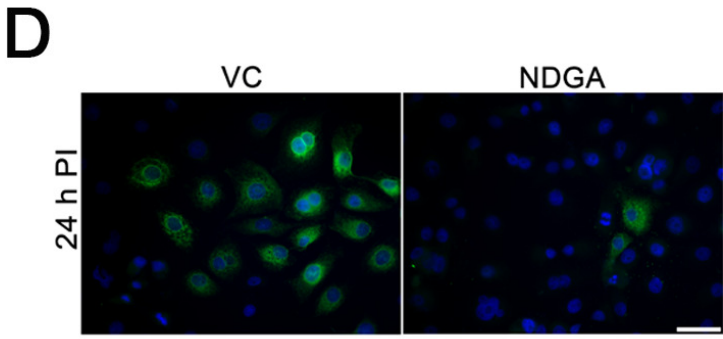

A
ECLIPSE
EXPONENTIAL
STATIONARY
10^9
10^8
10^7
10^6
10^5
10^4
10^3
Log_{10} PFU/mL
3
6
9
12
18
24
30
42
48
66
72
90
Hours post-internalization

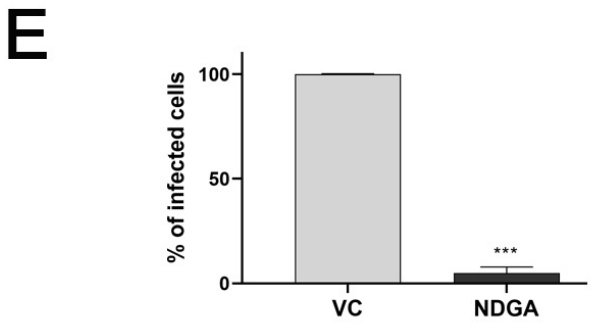

B
12 h PI
24 h PI

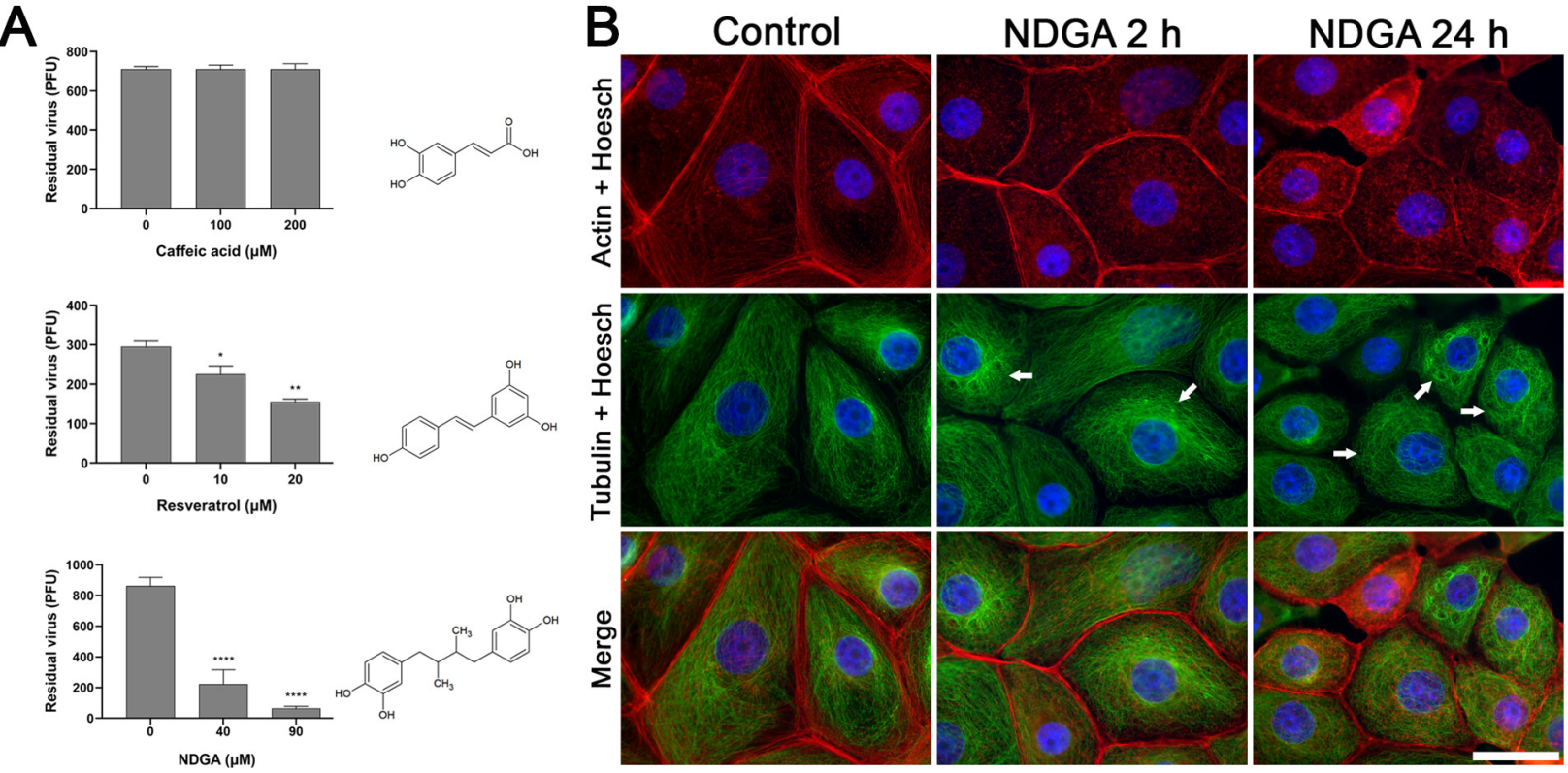

A
Viral inhibition (%)
NDGA (μM)
0
20
40
60
80
100


B
VC
NDGA
RIB
Residual virus (PFU)
PT
AD
IN
1 h PI
***
***


C
VC
NDGA
RIB
Residual virus (PFU)
Time post-internalization (h)
**
**


D
VC
NDGA
24 h PI


E
% of infected cells
VC
NDGA
***


A
Residual virus (PFU)
800
600
400
200
0
0
100
200
Caffeic acid (μM)
HO
HO
O
OH
Residual virus (PFU)
400
300
200
100
0
*
**
0
10
20
Resveratrol (μM)
OH
OH
HO
Residual virus (PFU)
1000
800
600
400
200
0
****
****
0
40
90
NDGA (μM)
OH
OH
CH3
CH3
HO
OH
B
Control
NDGA 2 h
NDGA 24 h
Actin + Hoesch
Tubulin + Hoesch
Merge