Yellow Fever Virus Interactomes Reveal Common and Divergent Strategies of Replication and Evolution for Mosquito-borne Flaviviruses

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Abstract

Pathogenic mosquito-borne flaviviruses infect mosquito and human hosts, relying on host protein interactions to replicate, evade immunity, and mediate pathogenesis. Prior proteomic studies mapped such interactions for some flaviviruses, but yellow fever virus (YFV)—a pathogen of resurgent concern—remains understudied. Here, we map YFV interactomes in human and mosquito cells to identify interactions common among divergent flaviviruses or unique to YFV. Functional assays reveal a previously unrecognized YFV restriction factor: RBBP6 inhibits YFV genome replication by interacting with the viral polymerase NS5. We enhance the identification of dual-host interactions using structural modeling and holistic network integration. Extending our holistic approach to other flavivirus interactomes, we distinguish conserved mechanisms of host targeting from those unique to YFV. Contrary to expectations that conserved viral proteins lead to conserved protein interactions, we find that Capsid, a divergent structural protein, shares more host interactions than NS5, a conserved enzyme. Integrating proteomics with complementary analyses defines new principles of host-targeting strategies across flavivirus and host evolution, offering a versatile resource for navigating the complex landscape of flavivirus biology.

Keywords: yellow fever virus, flaviviruses, virus-host interaction, integrative proteomics, systems biology, virus-host evolution

Introduction

Mosquito-borne orthoflaviviruses (commonly known as flaviviruses) pose a serious and increasing threat to public health worldwide with their continued re-emergence in the past decade. These positive-sense RNA viruses, which includes dengue virus (DENV), Zika virus (ZIKV), West Nile virus (WNV), and yellow fever virus (YFV), contributes to hundreds of millions of human infections worldwide every year[1]. Due to ongoing climate change, the geographical range of common vectors, such as the *Aedes aegypti* mosquito, is rapidly expanding[2,3]. Human urbanization and encroachment have further exacerbated this trend[4,5]. And yet, there are only limited vaccine strategies and no approved antivirals for flaviviruses[6]. Thus, it is critical to unravel the molecular mechanisms governing flavivirus replication.

Identifying virus-host protein-protein interactions (PPIs) is crucial for developing both virus- and host-targeted therapies[7]. Flaviviruses have small RNA genomes that encode a single polyprotein, which is subsequently proteolytically processed into 10 viral proteins. Three of these proteins—Capsid, prM (membrane precursor), and Envelope—are structural components of the virion, while the remaining non-structural (NS) proteins facilitate replication, translation, assembly, and viral egress. These viral proteins use physical interactions with host proteins to hijack cellular machinery essential for viral replication, immune evasion, and pathogenesis[8]. Previous studies have applied proteomics-based approaches to identify virus-host PPIs across vertebrate and invertebrate host cells[9,10], offering new strategies for vector control and therapeutic targets.

Due to their severe disease burdens or alarming pathogenesis, flaviviruses like DENV and ZIKV have been the focus of many previous studies[11]. In contrast, YFV has yet to be studied using contemporary proteomic techniques. This is partly because a robust live attenuated vaccine[12] can provide long-term immunity[13], reducing the perceived threat of YFV. However, limited vaccine availability and efficacy combined with unexpected increases in mosquito vector competency have led to repeated YFV outbreaks in the last decade[14–16]. YFV was estimated to cause 109,000

severe infections and 51,000 deaths in 2018 alone[17]. More recently, a Pan-American Health

Organization alert in February 2025 reported an alarming increase in YFV cases in the Americas,

prompting urgent recommendations for enhanced protection[18]. Considering this resurgence,

understanding the molecular mechanisms of YFV replication and pathogenesis has regained

urgency and relevance.

YFV is an important virus to consider from an evolutionary perspective. YFV is

phylogenetically distinct from DENV, ZIKV, and WNV[19,20], flaviviruses whose host interactions

have been studied in depth[21–23]. DENV, ZIKV, and WNV are more closely related to each other

than to YFV. However, DENV, ZIKV, and YFV can all use *A. aegypti* as a vector and use primates

as vertebrate reservoirs, whereas WNV employs *Culex* mosquitoes as vectors and birds as

amplifying vertebrate reservoirs[1]. Analyzing YFV-host PPIs thus represents a powerful

opportunity to understand the biology of an understudied and biomedically relevant flavivirus while

also revealing unique and broadly conserved features of flavivirus biology across different

flavivirus-host PPI datasets.

Here, we conduct comprehensive proteomics analyses to construct YFV-host PPI

networks in both human and mosquito (*A. aegypti*) cells. Using a targeted CRISPRi knockdown

screen of YFV-interacting human proteins, we identify the E3 ubiquitin ligase RBBP6

(retinoblastoma binding protein 6) as a novel YFV restriction factor. We integrate computational

approaches, including evolutionary conservation metrics, AI-based structural modeling, and high-

dimensional network-based analyses, to systematically evaluate the breadth of flavivirus-host

PPIs across hosts and viruses. Our studies improve the identification of shared interactions

across divergent hosts and reveal general flaviviral strategies as well as YFV-specific interactions

that reflect YFV's divergence from other flaviviruses. Finally, by integrating PPI studies across

four flaviviruses, we discover a counterintuitive trend regarding the conservation of virus-host

PPIs. The conservation of flavivirus proteins is inversely correlated with the conservation of their

host interactomes, raising interesting questions regarding the speed at which some highly

conserved flavivirus proteins can evolve new protein interactions. By integrating multiple

proteomic datasets with orthogonal experimental and computational approaches, we create a

multidimensional resource for understanding host interactions, replication strategies, and

evolution of mosquito-borne flaviviruses.

Results

A YFV-Human Interactome

To map the YFV-human PPI network, we employed a proteomics-based approach using

affinity purification-mass spectrometry (AP-MS). We first cloned protein-coding sequences from

the Asibi strain of YFV (YFV-Asibi) with C-terminal 2xStrep affinity tags. Following transient

expression in HEK293T cells, we performed affinity purification and confirmed the expression and

purification of both viral baits and co-purified host proteins (Figures 1A and S1A). We used LC-

MS/MS to analyze eluted proteins. Replicate samples associated with specific viral baits showed

strong correlations with each other but not with samples from other viral baits, indicating

reproducibility and specificity (Figure S1B). To score these interactions, we applied a tiered

computational approach, integrating Mass Spectrometry Interaction STatistics (MiST) and

Significance Analysis of INTeractome (SAINT) (Table S1). We identified 309 high-confidence

PPIs (HC-PPIs) spanning 10 YFV baits (Figure 1B). We only failed to identify HC-PPIs for prM

protein, which also had few interactions in past studies of other flaviviruses using a similar

approach[21,22].

To broadly assess the functional relevance of YFV-human PPIs, we performed enrichment

analyses on the HC-PPIs associated with each viral protein using Gene Ontology: Biological

Process (GO:BP) and Reactome pathway analyses (Figure 1C and Table S1). These analyses

revealed the broad targeting of host processes previously shown to be critical for flavivirus

replication and pathogenesis[9], including RNA metabolism[24–26], chromatin modification and

108 remodeling[21,27], ER stress response[28], and cell trafficking and organization[29,30]. NS5 and Capsid

109 exhibited strong enrichment for nuclear processes, such as RNA splicing, antiviral defense, and

110 ribosome biogenesis, consistent with their previously characterized nuclear functions[27,31–34].

111 NS4A and NS2A primarily targeted pathways related to membrane dynamics, including protein

112 insertion into membranes and ER organization[35,36]. NS3 and NS2B3 showed distinct yet

113 complementary enrichment patterns, with NS2B3 favoring endosomal pathways and NS3

114 interacting with ubiquitination and protein folding machinery. We found that prME, the protein

115 complex of the Envelope (E) with its chaperone prM, is uniquely associated with pathways

116 involved in virion assembly, potentially reflecting its role in flavivirus particle maturation. The

117 subcellular localization of host proteins involved in HC-PPIs also correlated well with our observed

118 subcellular localizations of the respective flavivirus proteins (Figures 1D and S2). To contextualize

119 our investigation and provide visualization, we constructed a network of YFV-human HC-PPIs

120 annotated with GO:BP and CORUM protein complexes[37] (Figure 2). This network provides a

121 comprehensive resource for understanding YFV-human interactions.

122 *RBBP6 is a Novel Inhibitor of YFV Genome Replication*

123  Genome-wide screening approaches for host dependency factors have revealed many

124 important details of flavivirus replication[36,38–41]. We compared our YFV-human HC-PPIs with a

125 recent YFV-focused genome-wide CRISPR screen that identified host dependency factors in

126 human cells[34]. We identified a significant overlap ($p = 2.8 \times 10^{-14}$) of 19 host factors among our

127 277 unique prey and the top 1% of YFV host dependency factors (Figure 2). This suggests our

128 HC-PPIs are enriched for host proteins involved in YFV replication. However, this is likely an

129 underestimate, since many flavivirus host factors cannot be studied using pooled genome-wide

130 approaches due to their inherent limitations, such as the selection criteria and the targeting of

131 essential genes. Proteomics-based interactomes offer a powerful complementary approach to

genome-wide screens, providing a targeted set of host genes to assess the impacts on viral

replication.

To further dissect the functional consequences of promising YFV-host interactions, we

performed a targeted CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) screen of 18 host proteins from our YFV-

human HC-PPI network. We modified our experimental setup in two ways compared to our

proteomics assays. First, we used the 17D strain of YFV (YFV-17D), a biosafety level 2 strain that

is more amenable to infection-based screening. Despite serial passaging, only 32 amino acids

differentiate the entire polyproteins of YFV-17D and YFV-Asibi[42]. Thus, YFV-17D retains a high

degree of sequence similarity to YFV-Asibi, which was used to generate our proteomic data.

Second, since the liver is a major site of YFV replication[43–45], we carried out our screen in

hepatocyte-derived Huh7 cells instead of the HEK293T cells used for proteomics.

Using transient CRISPRi knockdown in Huh7-dCas9 cells, we assessed the effect of host

protein depletion on YFV-17D titers. We individually targeted each host gene with two unique

guide RNAs (gRNAs); most gRNAs achieved efficient knockdown (>70%). We proceeded with

any gRNAs that reached at least 50% knockdown relative to the non-targeting negative control

(ncgRNA) (Figure 3A). Knockdown cells were then infected with YFV-17D at a multiplicity of

infection (MOI) of 0.1, and infectious viral titers were quantified by plaque assay at 48 hours post-

infection (hpi). We observed strong reproducibility across three biological replicates, with a

Pearson's correlation coefficient (R) ranging from 0.62 to 0.80. Overall, 10 of 30 tested gRNAs

(33%), targeting 7 unique genes, significantly influenced YFV titers (Figure 3B and Table S2,

|robust Z-score| > 2). Our findings are consistent with previous studies examining host factors

involved in flavivirus replication[22]. Viral replication decreased in two knockdowns targeting two

unique host genes (robust Z-score < -2), suggesting these host genes encode dependency

proteins that perform proviral functions. In contrast, 8 knockdowns targeting 5 unique host genes

resulted in increased viral replication (robust Z-score > 2); these host genes likely represent

antiviral factors that restrict viral replication.

Most striking among the putative restriction factors was RBBP6. A >75% reduction in

RBBP6 expression (Figure 3A) resulted in up to 60-fold increase in YFV titers for two different

gRNAs across multiple MOIs (Figure 3C). This suggests that RBBP6 potently restricts YFV

replication. RBBP6 is an E3 ubiquitin ligase that regulates RNA 3' end processing, the cell cycle,

and embryonic development[46–48]. Our PPI analyses revealed that RBBP6 interacts with YFV NS5

(Figure 2), which encodes the RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRP) and methyltransferase

(MTase). Both YFV NS5 and RBBP6 can localize to the nucleus (Figure 3D). To validate this

interaction during infection, we performed endogenous RBBP6 immunoprecipitation (IP) in YFV-

17D-infected Huh7 cells. Western blotting revealed that NS5 co-precipitated with RBBP6 (Figure

3E). Additionally, treating IP samples with RNaseA substantially decreased the amount of NS5

that could be co-immunoprecipitated with RBBP6, indicating the interaction is stabilized by RNA

(Figure 3E).

Next, we used domain deletions to map the domains of RBBP6 responsible for this

interaction (Figure 3F). Although full-length RBBP6 was poorly expressed, smaller RBBP6

domains were expressed well (Figure 3G). Co-IP analyses revealed that both the Proline-Rich

(Pro-RS) and p53-binding domains were independently sufficient for interaction with NS5 (Figure

3G). Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy revealed clear nuclear localization for the Pro-

RS domain; however, the p53-binding domain had a cytoplasmic localization (Figure S3A-C). We

propose that YFV NS5 interaction with the p53 domain of RBBP6 may be facilitated by NS5

nucleocytoplasmic shuttling (Figures S2A and S3D-F).

We also mapped the NS5 domains required for interaction with RBBP6 by co-IP assays.

While full-length NS5 interacts with RBBP6, neither the MTase (residues 1 to 261) nor RdRP

(residues 262 to 909) domain was sufficient to pull down RBBP6 (Figure 3H, Figure S3D). No

YFV NS5 truncations were excluded from the nucleus, suggesting that their lack of interaction

with RBBP6 was unrelated to subcellular mislocalization (Figure S3D-F). Our findings suggest

that YFV NS5 requires an intact conformation or the presence of multiple domains to bind RBBP6.

NS5 encodes for the viral RdRP and MTase, and is therefore essential for viral RNA

synthesis. We tested whether RBBP6 depletion enhanced YFV genome replication using a

replicon encoding a luciferase reporter[49]. The flavivirus life cycle is characterized by an initial

phase of translation, in which little to no increase in reporter activity is observed, followed by a

switch to replication, during which reporter activity increases dramatically. Depletion of RBBP6

resulted in minor but significant increases in reporter activity during the early translation phase

and a more pronounced and sustained ~10- to 70-fold increase in reporter activity during the

replication phase (Figure 3I). Together, our data support a model in which RBBP6 acts as a YFV

restriction factor by inhibiting YFV genome replication through a complex RNA-mediated

interaction with NS5.

Positive selection is often observed in other antiviral restriction factors at their interface

with viral targets due to an arms race for binding affinity or evasion from binding[50–53]. However,

analysis of 28 primate *RBBP6* sequences revealed no significant evidence of positive selection

(Table S3). This lack of positive selection might reflect a lack of significant coevolution between

flaviviruses and primate *RBBP6* or constraints on *RBBP6* to maintain its essential host functions.

A Structure-based and Holistic Approach to Identify Interacting Homologs

Mosquito-borne flaviviruses must replicate in both vertebrate and invertebrate hosts for

their transmission. They do so by hijacking host processes across evolutionarily distinct cellular

environments[36,39]. To identify how YFV proteins commandeer mosquito cells, we constructed a

YFV-mosquito interactome following the same steps as our YFV-human network, except that we

expressed YFV proteins in *A. aegypti* Aag2-AF5 cells[54] (Figure S1C). We identified YFV-mosquito

HC-PPIs using the same AP-MS and computational scoring pipeline previously employed for

human cells, ensuring comparability across datasets (Figures 1A and S1D, and Table S4).

Despite lower detection sensitivity in mosquito cells, we identified robust interactions for most

YFV proteins (Figure 4A). The only exceptions were prM and prME, which failed to express in

Aag2-AF5 cells (Figure S1C). Furthermore, although NS1 and NS2B were expressed well, none

of their interactions met our scoring threshold. In total, we identified 150 YFV-mosquito HC-PPIs

across 7 viral baits (Figure 4A).

In addition to host-specific targeting, our previous study with DENV showed that

flaviviruses can also target homologous proteins and processes across human and mosquito

cells[21]. Our YFV-host proteomics in human and mosquito cells can similarly reveal such

interacting homologs (interologs) or interologous processes, utilizing evolutionary relationships

between hosts. Comparing YFV-human and YFV-mosquito interactomes revealed 14 interologs

at the protein level and an additional 12 complex and pathway-level interologs (Figure S4A).

Given our limited ability to identify direct interologs using evolutionary relationships, we

hypothesized that conserved host protein structures might provide a complementary way to

measure flavivirus PPI conservation across hosts. To test this, we leveraged recent AI-driven

structure prediction and alignment tools to expand interolog identification (Figure S4B). Our

workflow used Foldseek[56,57] and FATCAT[58] to perform protein structure alignments on the

AlphaFold2-predicted structures of the human and *A. aegypti* proteomes. Foldseek and FATCAT

output familiar structure similarity scores (*e.g.,* TM-score or RMSD) using complementary

approaches. Foldseek uses a 3D alphabet to simplify structural complexity. This enables fast,

scalable alignments with large numbers of structures. In contrast, FATCAT flexes proteins into an

optimal overlaid structure (superimposition) that maximizes alignment length one residue pair at

a time. Combining these analyses enables the simplification of large-scale comparisons into

direct, representative alignments without compromising on sensitivity or computational cost.

We first performed proteome-wide rigid structural alignments using Foldseek. To account

for potential biases in AlphaFold2 predictions, we supplemented these structural homologs with

evolutionary homologs from inParanoid8[59]. Each selected pair then underwent flexible alignment

with FATCAT. After overlaying these with the HC-PPIs from YFV and DENV, our structure-based

approach increased the number of YFV interologs from 14 to 21 and the number of DENV

interologs from 10 to 14 (Figure 4C, Table S5).

However, we were surprised to find no overlap between YFV and DENV interologs. This

lack of overlap could be due to fundamentally different dual-host strategies between YFV and

DENV. Alternatively, the lack of overlap could stem from technical differences in protein

identification and scoring. Indeed, many functionally relevant host interactions may fall below

conventional scoring thresholds as "near misses" in one HC-PPI network or another, leading to

an underestimation of conserved interactions, processes, and pathways[9,60–63]. To overcome these

limitations, we adopted a computational pipeline developed by Gordon and colleagues to evaluate

virus-host interactomes holistically beyond strict scoring cutoffs[63]. Across the YFV-human, YFV-

mosquito, DENV-human, and DENV-mosquito datasets, we performed hierarchical clustering on

MiST scores. We focused our analysis on viral baits studied across all four datasets (Capsid,

NS3, NS2B3, NS4A, NS5) and only included data if the bait-prey pair was a HC-PPI in at least

one of the four datasets analyzed. With this approach, we found 8 interaction clusters, one of

which represents interactions shared across both viruses and both hosts (Figure 4C). This

suggests that YFV and DENV indeed share at least some conserved dual-host strategies.

Extracting this pan-flavivirus and interologous cluster for enrichment analysis (Figure 4D), we

found that individual flavivirus proteins targeted distinct host processes. The Capsid protein

targeted translation, ribosome biology, and RNA splicing. NS5 targeted the response to virus and

protein localization to the cytoplasmic stress granule, both of which are implicated in flavivirus

replication[31,64–68]. NS2B3 interactions were enriched for protein phosphorylation and mitophagy[69].

Finally, NS4A expectedly targeted organelle organization, transport, and glycosylation-related

pathways. Thus, holistic analysis improves the identification of hijacked pathways fundamental to

the dual-host nature of mosquito-borne flaviviruses.

Viruses often exploit these highly conserved host functions to ensure replication, thereby

avoiding evolutionary barriers, as hosts also rely on these critical pathways for cellular function.

We speculated that targeting these highly conserved systems is especially important for dual-host

viruses, such as mosquito-borne flaviviruses, and thus they are targeted as interologs. We

compared HC-PPIs and interologs against the entire set of human-mosquito homologous pairs to

assess sequence conservation. HC-PPIs showed significantly higher sequence identity compared

to homologs in general (Figure 4E, Table S5). This suggests that YFV and DENV evolved to target

conserved host proteins, as expected[70]. Our complete set of interologs also showed significantly

higher sequence identity compared to homologs in general, yet interologs did not have higher

sequence identity than HC-PPIs (Figure 4E, Table S5).

While viruses often target conserved host proteins, as we observed with our HC-PPIs and

interologs, these protein interaction surfaces can also contain rapidly evolving sites that serve to

break and re-establish virus-host interactions[50–53,55]. So, we explored whether any of the YFV

interologs exhibit evidence of participation in this evolutionary arms race. Since there are too few

Aedes genome assemblies available for analysis, we used simian primate genomes to search for

signatures of positive selection (Table S3). *MRPS9* showed strong evidence for positive selection.

DDX21, *NOP53,* and *MRPS31* showed weaker and less consistent signatures of rapid evolution.

Our findings suggest that, although they are enriched for conservation, interologs are not uniquely

defined by it, and some may still participate in evolutionary arms races. This highlights the balance

between functional constraint and adaptive flexibility that shapes flavivirus-host interactions

across host species.

High-Dimensional Analysis Refines Pan-flavivirus and Divergent Interactions

Previous phylogenetic analysis has shown that YFV is evolutionarily distant from other

mosquito-borne flaviviruses, such as DENV, WNV, and ZIKV[19,20] (Figure 5A). Thus, our YFV

dataset provides a powerful foundation for identifying both virus-host interactions specific to YFV

and those that are broadly conserved among mosquito-borne flaviviruses. To contextualize these

interactions, we compared our YFV-human network to previous studies that used a comparable

methodology to identify flavivirus-human PPIs for DENV (serotype 2, strain 16681), ZIKV (strains

H/PF/2013 [ZIKVfp] and MR766 [ZIKVug]), and WNV (strain NY 2000-crow 3356)[21,22]. The direct

overlap between these datasets only represented ~5-10% of YFV HC-PPIs (Figure S5A).

However, since a holistic analysis that captured "near-misses" was useful for our integration of

datasets across multiple hosts (Figure 4C-D), we applied the same technique here. Across the

five flavivirus-human PPI datasets, we performed hierarchical clustering on MiST scores for viral

baits studied across all four datasets (Capsid, NS3, NS2B3, NS4A, NS5). Again, we performed

analysis on bait-prey pairs that were a HC-PPI in at least one of the five datasets analyzed. Our

holistic analysis identified 17 interaction clusters (Figure 5B), including conserved interactions

across all flaviviruses (cluster 3), YFV-specific interactions (cluster 1), or interactions conserved

across all viruses except YFV (YFV-excluded, cluster 8).

To better understand the cellular processes involved in pan-flavivirus PPIs, we performed

enrichment analyses on cluster 3 (Figure 5C). Capsid interactions with host proteins dominated

this cluster, revealing conserved enrichment of translational processes, mRNA modification, and

ribosome biogenesis. Host protein interactions with non-structural proteins were also represented

in the conserved interactions. NS3 interactors enriched for protein folding, ubiquitination, and

stress response. NS4A interactors enriched for proteins involved in membrane organization and

protein transport, reflecting its known role in rearranging ER membranes to form replication

complexes[71,72]. NS5 interactors enriched for processes related to RNA splicing, reflecting its

known role in perturbing host gene expression[32]. Only NS2B3 interactions did not show

enrichment for any biological processes. As with Gordon et al[63], our analyses confirm that a high-

dimensional approach surpasses the limitations of scoring thresholds or single-virus datasets,

revealing host targets conserved across these mosquito-borne flaviviruses and related to

fundamental aspects of flavivirus biology.

The YFV-specific interactions (cluster 1) and YFV-excluded interactions (cluster 8)

suggest an evolution of distinct host hijacking strategies across the flavivirus phylogeny. We

therefore evaluated whether these opposing sets of PPIs could be used to understand the

evolutionary divergence of YFV relative to other mosquito-borne flaviviruses. To that end, we

calculated differences between YFV MiST scores and those of every other flavivirus in the dataset

(DENV, ZIKV [we chose to focus on ZIKVfp for simplicity], and WNV). This generated a distribution

of differential interaction scores (DIS) relative to YFV for each viral bait. In this YFV-centric

approach, a positive DIS indicates the PPI scored highly for YFV relative to the other flavivirus, a

negative DIS indicates the PPI scored poorly for YFV, while a near-zero DIS indicates the PPI

scored equally in both datasets (Figure 5D).

When visualizing DIS distributions, several trends related to specific viral proteins became

apparent (Figure 5E). Capsid interactions were predominantly associated with neutral or negative

DIS, suggesting YFV Capsid has many interactions that are shared with other flaviviruses, few

YFV-specific interactions, and lacks many of the host interactions observed for other flaviviruses.

In contrast, NS2B3 and NS3 exhibited predominantly positive DIS, indicating these proteins have

mostly YFV-specific interactions with few shared interactions with other flaviviruses. NS4A and

NS5 showed greater variability in their DIS distributions with shared, YFV-specific, and YFV-

excluded interactions. We computed Pearson's correlation coefficients between each pairwise

distribution of DIS values and observed consistently high correlations (>0.7, Figure S5B). This

suggests YFV's differential interactions represent *bona fide* divergence in host targeting patterns

rather than stochastic deviations in MS detection of proteins in one dataset or another.

To better understand the processes involved in PPIs reflecting YFV's evolutionary

divergence, we extracted statistically significant gene enrichments ($p < 0.05$) either for the YFV-

specific cluster (cluster 1) or the YFV-excluded cluster (cluster 8) (Figure 5E). We excluded any

processes that were significantly enriched for other clusters to ensure these processes were truly

unique to YFV-specific or YFV-excluded PPIs. These analyses revealed that multiple YFV

proteins target host processes in evolutionarily distinct ways. For example, RNA processing and

histone modification were significantly enriched for YFV-excluded Capsid and NS5 interactions.

This suggests that although other flaviviruses target these epigenetic processes through Capsid

and NS5, YFV does not. Conversely, YFV NS2B3 uniquely targeted host proteins in organelle

assembly and microtubule organizing center (MTOC) organization, YFV NS3 uniquely targeted

mRNA stability, and YFV NS4A uniquely targeted metal ion transport and protein

dephosphorylation.

We extended this analysis to calculate DIS relative to other flaviviruses. This revealed

more variable correlations and weaker enrichments for DENV-, ZIKV-, and WNV-specific

interactions (Figure S5C-F). This weaker signal is consistent with them being more closely related

to each other than YFV and thus having fewer virus-specific or virus-excluded interactions to drive

strong DIS scores or enrichment. Together, these results underscore that the pan-flavivirus, YFV-

specific, and YFV-excluded clusters represent molecular strategies of host targeting that coincide

with the evolution of flaviviruses. To visualize pan-flavivirus and YFV-specific HC-PPIs, we

incorporated annotations into our YFV-human HC-PPI visualization using annotations from

clusters 3 and 1, respectively (Figure S6).

Flavivirus Protein Sequence Conservation Does Not Equate to Conservation of

PPIs

Protein sequence conservation is often viewed as a predictor of functional

conservation[63,73,74]. Structural proteins, such as Capsid, typically exhibit lower sequence

conservation than enzymes, like NS5, leading to predictions that structural proteins will retain

fewer interactions across viruses. Yet, our preceding analysis using holistic integration and DIS

showed a surprisingly high level of conservation for Capsid interactions compared to non-

structural proteins (Figures 5C, 5E, and S6). We therefore tested whether the conservation of

viral protein sequence can reliably predict flavivirus-host PPI conservation using the four flavivirus

datasets (Figure 6A).

We calculated pairwise sequence identities and pairwise correlations of MiST scores for

each viral bait. Within a single viral bait, we observed a strong positive correlation between these

two quantities (Figure 6B). The only exception was NS3. This suggests that the conservation of

viral protein sequences predicts conserved virus-host PPIs for individual viral proteins. However,

when comparing across viral baits, we observed a slight but unexpected negative correlation

between MiST correlation and sequence identity (R = -0.19). This negative correlation across viral

baits was more pronounced when our analysis focused on HC-PPIs (R = -0.89, Figure 6C). Thus,

surprisingly, we find that more rapidly evolving proteins exhibit higher PPI conservation relative

to viral proteins that evolve more slowly.

We investigated whether specific elements of protein structure and function could explain

the inverse correlation between viral protein conservation and their host PPI conservation. We

focused on NS5 and Capsid because they represent the extremes of PPI and sequence

conservation (Figure 6B-C). We first mapped conservation and enzyme activity onto their

structures (Figure 6D-E). NS5 is a large protein with a highly conserved core and enzyme active

sites. Conserved amino acids are significantly more likely to be buried in regions of low solvent-

accessible surface area (SASA), while variable amino acids have significantly higher SASA and

opportunity to engage in PPIs (Figure 6F). In contrast, Capsid is a smaller structural protein with

lower overall conservation, and its amino acid variation is evenly distributed across low and high

SASA regions (Figure 6F). We hypothesized that the enzymatic core of NS5, with high

conservation, low SASA, and limited opportunity to interact with host proteins, could be skewing

our comparison of NS5 to Capsid. To provide a fairer comparison, we considered only the 233

residues with the highest SASA from NS5 that provide a median of ~108.7 Å^2, almost identical to

Capsid's median SASA of 108.8 Å^2 (Figure 6G). This group of NS5 residues, representing the

most solvent-accessible regions of the protein, closely resembles Capsid in both the distribution

of residue identities and mean residue identities: 61% and 58% for NS5 and Capsid, respectively.

Despite these similar mean identities near the proteins' surfaces, NS5 still maintains a lower PPI

conservation compared to Capsid. Thus, NS5-host PPIs are highly sensitive to small changes in

amino acid identity. Our analysis highlights the power of integrating multiple related virus-host PPI

networks using a sequence and structure-informed approach, especially when amending a long-

standing hypothesis regarding the drivers of conserved virus-host PPIs.

Discussion

In this study, we systematically mapped YFV-host interactomes in both human and

mosquito cells using AP-MS, thereby expanding on previous work on flavivirus-host interactions.

We use our YFV-human interactome analysis (Figures 1-2) and a functional screen (Figure 3) to

identify RBBP6 as a novel YFV restriction factor. Seeking to move beyond siloed virus-host

networks, we applied orthogonal approaches to analyze the data more holistically and from a

structural perspective. We integrated evolutionary sequence-structure relationships (Figure 4)

and holistic network integration (Figures 5-6) to identify novel YFV biology, and to relate virus and

host evolution to the evolution of virus-host PPIs, thereby providing a comprehensive resource on

mosquito-borne flavivirus-host interactions.

RBBP6's antiviral activity was also recently documented for Ebola virus (EBOV)[75]. Our

identification of RBBP6 as a YFV restriction factor suggests that this is a restriction factor with

panviral potential. Mechanistically, RBBP6 inhibits EBOV by interacting with viral protein 30

(VP30) to displace nucleoprotein (NP) and suppress viral transcription. Similarly, RBBP6 interacts

with YFV NS5 and reduces viral genome replication (Figure 3). The RNA-stabilized interaction

mechanism is reminiscent of other virus-host molecular interfaces that are also RNA-mediated,

such as the interaction between human APOBEC3G and the Vif protein of HIV-1, where RNA

might help serve as a 'molecular glue'[76,77]. The interaction mechanism between NS5 and RBBP6

is distinct from its interaction with EBOV VP30, which binds RBBP6 via a short PxY motif in the

Pro-RS domain of RBBP6[75]. However, RBBP6 may still serve as a competitive binder to NS5 to

displace NS3, as it does with NP binding to VP30.

Our YFV interactome also provides a starting point for dissecting molecular mechanisms

of viral pathogenesis. For example, RBBP6 pathogenic variants increase the risk of myo-

proliferative neoplasms, which can involve hemorrhaging, thrombocytosis, and coagulopathy[78,79],

similar to severe YF. This link between RBBP6 and hereditary and viral disease is reminiscent of

previous findings connecting hereditary and ZIKV-induced microcephaly[21,80]. Extending this

beyond a single interaction, an integrative framework enables broader comparisons not only

across related viruses but also across shared pathologies. YFV and EBOV share viscerotropic

and hemorrhagic pathologies[81] that may be derived from shared interactions with host proteins,

such as RBBP6. Indeed, when comparing HC-PPIs from YFV and EBOV datasets, we identified

21 shared interactions—a statistically significant overlap (p = 8.5e-17, Fisher's exact test, Figure

S7). These findings highlight how viruses with overlapping tropism and pathogenesis may be

driven by co-opting similar host factors, even when the viruses are highly evolutionarily divergent

from each other.

On the host side, a network-based holistic clustering of YFV and DENV datasets identified

interologs conserved across both viruses (Figure 4). This overlap was not revealed through

traditional analysis of HC-PPIs, and reinforces the advantages of a holistic analysis that is not

subject to strict scoring thresholds. The positive selection signature of interologs, especially

mitochondrial ribosomal proteins, is also intriguing given their interaction with flavivirus Capsid in

multiple datasets, enrichment in our interolog analysis (Figure S4D), and established roles in

promoting the replication of other viruses. Thus, the positively selected genes *MRPS9* and

MRPS31 may be involved in dual-host hijacking, resulting in an unanticipated evolutionary conflict

between flaviviruses and their hosts.

We extended our holistic network integration to identify pan-flavivirus and YFV-specific

interactions through high-dimensional network integration and differential scoring. We quantified

how viral proteins exhibit distinct evolutionary trajectories, retaining some interactions across

viruses while diverging in others. This approach was first developed and applied to coronaviruses

and different strains of influenza A virus (IAV), revealing the convergence and divergence of viral

pathogenic mechanisms[61,63,74]. Our application of this method highlights how binary interaction

mapping can benefit from multidimensional data analysis and viewing virus-host protein

interactions through the lens of virus evolution.

Finally, by integrating viral protein and PPI conservation with viral protein structure, we

revealed distinct insights into flavivirus-host interactions and their potential for evolution. A long-

standing assumption in molecular virology is that conserved viral proteins inherently maintain

conserved host interactions. Indeed, recent work on other virus families reinforced the expected

positive correlation between the conservation of protein sequence and interaction across distinct

viral proteins[61,63,70,74]. Our findings challenge this long-standing assumption, exemplified by the

contrast between NS5 and Capsid evolutionary and PPI conservation (Figure 6). Such a

divergence suggests that although NS5 is slowly evolving, it can nevertheless rapidly acquire new

interactions since small changes in surface-exposed amino acids of NS5 lead to large changes

in its protein interactions. Conversely, despite its rapid changes, Capsid is still able to retain

conserved PPIs. Whether flaviviruses are unique in this regard remains an open question that

can only be answered by continued comprehensive studies of virus-host PPIs.

In summary, we elucidated specific mechanisms of YFV replication as well as the impact

of both flavivirus and host evolution on flavivirus-host protein interactions, all stemming from two

core proteomics datasets. Yet, this was only possible through the integration of multiple

comprehensive flavivirus-host PPI studies and the application of complementary analyses to

combine functional assays, virus and host evolution, protein structure prediction, and holistic

network integration. Our work adds to an existing body of literature where proteomics provides a

powerful foundation to rapidly unravel how viruses engage with host systems through PPIs[21,63,83–

86]. Its future potential increasingly lies in its integration with orthogonal approaches[9]. Mosquito-

borne flaviviruses exemplify the value of this approach because they must navigate interactions

across humans and mosquitoes. In the future, complementary methodologies will therefore be

paramount to fully describe such adaptation strategies.

Limitations of this study

Although our study provides a comprehensive YFV-host interactome with several

orthogonal approaches, the following limitations should be considered. First, despite integrating

structural modeling to address annotation gaps, interolog prediction remains constrained by

biases in available host protein structures and their prediction. This may lead to an under- or over-

representation of certain interologs. Second, our functional validation was limited to a subset of

high-confidence interactions focusing on YFV replication phenotypes, meaning that biologically

relevant PPIs may have been overlooked. This could be extended by holistically analyzing our

dataset against other viruses that share broad mechanisms of replication or pathogenesis,

including other mosquito-borne flaviviruses or EBOV. Third, our proteomic analysis captures

steady-state interactions through the expression of individual viral proteins but does not account

for the temporal dynamics of virus-host engagement, including activation of innate immune

pathways, which may shift over the course of infection. Future studies incorporating both spatial

and time-resolved interactomics during infection could better resolve transient or stage-specific

interactions. Additionally, since most experimental work is currently limited to YFV, validating our

integrative approach in other flaviviruses and vector-host systems will be essential for the

generalizability of our findings.

Materials and Methods

Resource Availability

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange

Consortium (http://proteomecentral.proteomexchange.org) via the PRIDE partner repository[87]

with the dataset identifiers of PXD062491 for the YFV-Human AP-MS study and PXD062539 for

the YFV-*Aedes aegypti* AP-MS study. The Foldseek protein structure and NEEDLE protein

sequence alignment output data are available on GitHub (https://github.com/shahlab247/YFV-

human-aedes) for both the forward (Human to *Aedes aegypti*) and reverse (*Aedes aegypti* to

Human) searches. Due to file size constraints, FATCAT structural alignment data are available

upon request. Numerical data associated with the alignments for all three methods are available

in Table S5. Plasmid maps for the codon-optimized constructs are available upon request.

Experimental models and tools

Cells:

HEK293T (from Sam Diaz-Munoz), HeLa (from Luc Snyers), stably expressing Huh7-dCas9 and

Vero (ATCC) cells were cultured at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium

(DMEM) (Gibco) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (HI-FBS; Standard,

Gibco). Aag2-AF5 cells[54] (from Kevin Maringer) were cultured at 28°C with no CO_2 in Liebowitz's

L-15 media (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS (Performance Plus, Gibco), 10% tryptose

phosphate broth (Sigma Aldrich), 1X Non-essential amino acids, 1% penicillin-streptomycin

(Thomas Scientific), and 1% Amphotericin B (Gibco). All cell lines were tested monthly for

mycoplasma contamination using a MycoStrip test kit (Invivogen).

Plasmid Constructs:

Yellow fever virus isolate Asibi (GenBank accession: KF769016.1) protein-coding sequences

were codon-optimized (http://atgme.org) based on codon usage tables for *Homo sapiens* and

Aedes aegypti (Kazusa DNA Research Institute). Gene fragments were synthesized with Kozak

sequences (Twist Bioscience) for Gibson Assembly into pcDNA4_TO with a C-terminal 2xStrep

II affinity tag for expression in human cells and pAc with a C-terminal 2xStrep II affinity tag for

expression in Aag2-AF5 mosquito cells. HA-tagged RBBP6 domain deletions were previously

described (from Chris Basler)[75]. YFV NS5 truncations were designed based on known structural

elements and codons optimized for expression in human cells. Gene fragments were synthesized

(Twist Bioscience) and ligated into pcDNA4_TO cut with EcoRI and XhoI with C-terminal 2xStrep

II affinity tags by Gibson Assembly. Protein coding sequences are provided in Table S6.

Viruses:

YFV-17D (from Dr. Lark Coffey) stocks were propagated in Vero cells and monitored for CPE.

The supernatant was then harvested, and cell debris was removed by centrifugation (Eppendorf

centrifuge 5810 R, Rotor S-4-104, 211 g, 5 minutes, 4°C). Cleared supernatant was then

distributed into 1 mL aliquots and frozen at -80°C. Each aliquot was used only once to prevent

repetitive freeze-thaw cycles. Aliquots were titered by plaque assay (method below).

Immunofluorescence microscopy:

HeLa cells cultured on #1.5 coverslips were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (Fisher) for 15

minutes at room temperature. Cells were permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 (Integra) for 10

minutes and blocked with 5% goat serum (Sigma) in PBS-Tween (0.1% Tween-20, Fisher).

Coverslips were incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. Coverslips were then washed

in PBS-Tween and incubated in secondary antibody at room temperature for 1 hour. Nuclei were

visualized with Hoechst (1:10000, Invitrogen). Confocal images were acquired using a Zeiss

Airyscan LSM980 with Axiocam using a 63x/NA1.40 oil immersion lens. Laser lines at 405, 488,

and 543nm were employed sequentially for each image using optics and detector stock settings

in the "Dye List" portion of the FluoView microscope-controlling software. All antibodies and

dilutions are listed in Table S7. Microscopy images were analyzed using ImageJ (Fiji) software[88].

Signal colocalization was quantified using Pearson's correlation coefficient (R-value) determined

with the "JACoP" analysis tool imported into Fiji after setting regions of interest around entire

individual cells across at least 5 images.

Western blotting:

For whole cell lysates, cells were lysed in RIPA buffer (150 mM NaCl, 50 mM Tris Base, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate) supplemented with protease inhibitors for 5 minutes at room temperature. Otherwise, cells were lysed in IP buffer supplemented with Complete-EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma Aldrich, USA). Cell lysate was incubated on ice for 30 minutes prior to centrifugation (Eppendorf centrifuge 5424 R, Rotor FA-45-24-11, 13,500 g, 4ºC, 20 min). When possible, the total protein concentration of each sample was normalized by BCA assay. Protein samples (lysates or IP eluates) were resuspended in NuPAGE LDS sample buffer supplemented with TCEP and boiled at 95ºC for 10 minutes. Samples were run on 7.5-12% polyacrylamide gels for ~1 hour at 150 V and transferred to PVDF membranes (VWR) for 1 hour at 330 mA on ice. Membranes were then blocked in 5% milk solution for 1 hour prior to overnight incubation in primary antibodies (Table S7) at 4ºC. Membranes were washed 3x in Tris-buffered saline with Tween-20 (TBS-T) (150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris Base, 0.1% Tween-20, Fisher) and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies in 5% milk for 1 hour at room temperature. Membranes were again washed 3x in TBS-T and 1x in TBS (without Tween-20) prior to Pierce™ ECL activation (Fisher). Membranes were imaged using Amersham Imager 600 (GE).

Plaque assay:

Vero cells were seeded at 0.8×10^6 cells/well and grown in 6-well dishes overnight. Virus aliquots were thawed on ice and subjected to 6-fold serial dilution. Media was removed from Vero cells, and the monolayer was washed with 1xD-PBS. For YFV-17D, 900 µL of each virus dilution was then added to the cells and incubated for 4 h at 37ºC. Virus was then removed, and cells were overlayed with 2 mL of DMEM with 0.8% methylcellulose (Sigma), 1% FBS, 1% penicillin/streptomycin, and incubated at 37ºC for 7 days. Cells were then fixed with 4% formaldehyde and stained with 0.23% crystal violet solution (Fisher) for 30 minutes at room temperature. The solution was then removed, and plaques were counted.

Generation of YFV proteomic networks

Expression of viral proteins:

For each affinity purification (AP) [YFV-Asibi protein constructs, empty vector, green fluorescent protein (GFP)], $1x10^7$ human HEK293T or $3x10^7$ Aag2-AF5 mosquito cells were plated in 15 cm cell culture dishes 24 hours prior to transfection. A total of 20 µg of plasmid DNA was transfected in a 1 µg : 3 uL Polyjet (SignaGen) ratio for expression in HEK293T cells. Similarly, the same mass of plasmid DNA was transfected in a 1 µg: 2 µL TransIT-Insect (Mirus Bio) ratio for expression in Aag2-AF5 cells. Forty hours post-transfection, cells were gently washed in D-PBS and dissociated with 10 mM EDTA in D-PBS. Cells were pelleted ($250×g$) at 4°C for 5 min, washed in D-PBS, re-pelleted and lysed for 30 minutes on a rotator at 4°C in AP Buffer [50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, Pierce EDTA-free protease tablets (Thermo Scientific)] supplemented with 0.5% Nonidet P 40 Substitute (NP40; Fluka Analytical). Subsequently, cell debris was pelleted ($4500×g$) at 4°C for 20 minutes. A fraction of lysate was resolved on a hand-cast 4→20% gradient SDS-PAGE gel to evaluate 2xStrep-tagged protein expression by Western blotting. The remaining lysate was used for subsequent affinity purification.

Strep-tag affinity purification and digest:

Each cell lysate was combined with 100 µL of a 50% Strep-Tactin Sepharose bead (IBA Lifesciences) slurry and incubated on a tube rotator for 2 hours at 4°C. After binding, beads were washed in three times AP Buffer supplemented with 0.05% NP-40. For each wash, 1 mL of AP buffer was added, tubes were inverted, and beads were pelleted (~$500×g$) at 4°C before removing the supernatant. After a final wash in AP buffer without NP-40, 1/3 of the beads were transferred to a fresh tube and eluted in 25 µL of 2.5 mM D-Desthiobiotin (IBA Lifesciences) by agitation (1300 rpm) at room temperature. Like cell lysates, this eluate was resolved by SDS-PAGE and protein expression was evaluated using both Western blotting and a Pierce Silver Stain (Thermo Scientific). The remaining 2/3 of the beads were equilibrated in diminishing volumes (200 µL, 100

µL, 50 µL, 25 µL) of 50 mM Triethylammonium bicarbonate (TEAB) buffer (Thermo Scientific) at

4°C for 15 minutes on a tube rotator. At the final wash, 500 ng of Sequencing Grade Modified

Trypsin (Promega) was added to each sample. Beads were then incubated under agitation (1300

rpm) overnight at 37°C. The following morning, the digest supernatant was transferred to a new

protein LoBind tube (Eppendorf). Another 200 ng of trypsin was added to the beads, along with

40 µL of TEAB, and incubated for an additional 2 hours; this digest was then combined with the

previous extract.

Mass spectrometry:

Digested peptides were directly loaded onto an Evosep C18 tip and separated using the Evosep

One and the standard (human samples) or 100 spd High Organic method (mosquito samples)

(Evosep). Peptides were eluted and ionized using a Bruker Captive Spray emitter. A Bruker

TimsTof Pro 2 mass spectrometer running in diaPASEF mode was used for acquisition. The

acquisition scheme used for diaPASEF consisted of 6x3 50 m/z windows per PASEF scan. DIA

data was searched using Spectronaut 17 (Biognosys) against the human (UP000005640,

downloaded 6/15/2022) or *Aedes aegypti* (UP000008820, downloaded 2/10/2023) UniProt

proteomes, YFV protein sequences, and the standardized common contaminants database. The

Direct DIA workflow was used under default settings. Briefly, trypsin/P Specific was set for the

enzyme, allowing two missed cleavages. Fixed Modifications were set for Carbamidomethyl, and

variable modifications were set to Acetyl (Protein N-term) and Oxidation. For DIA search

identification, PSM and Protein Group FDR were set to 1%. A minimum of 2 peptides per protein

group were required for quantification. Raw intensity values were normalized to all mapped

peptides. Background detections were eliminated by excluding intensity values below the median

intensity value for each protein, and common contaminants were removed.

PPI scoring and network visualization:

We scored protein interactions with both Mass spectrometry interaction STatistics (MiST)[89] and

Significance Analysis of INTeractome Express (SAINTexpress)[90] platforms. For MiST scoring,

MS1 intensity values were treated as the quantifying feature, and weights were set to R= 0.35, S

= 0.57, and A = 0.08, in line with our previous flavivirus work[21]. Samples or baits were removed

from further analysis if they exhibited poor clustering or minimal/no detection of the bait itself in

the quality control step. Specificity exclusions were applied to baits with shared sequences (prM-

prME, NS2B-NS2B3, NS3-NS2B3) or those that exhibited high PPI overlap across previous

flavivirus-host proteomic studies (NS4A-NS4B and NS4A-NS2A). Each bait was compared to at

least 8 other baits for specificity scoring regardless of these exclusions. Concurrently, protein

interactions were also scored with SAINTexpress using the Galaxy APOSTL server

(http://apostl.moffitt.org/) under default parameters, with the GFP bait serving as the source of

control counts.

We mirrored a two-step filtering strategy for identifying high-confidence interactions

previously[63,91]. First, we selected all protein interactions with a MiST score > 0.67—as this

threshold was rigorous in past flavivirus-host proteomic studies[21]—and a SAINTexpress score >

0.95 and Bayesian false-discovery rate (BFDR) ≤ 0.05. We then identified if these proteins were

part of a curated human CORUM (4.0 release) protein complex[37], recovering any additional

complex members with a MiST score ≥ 0.6, a SAINTexpress score > 0.95 & BFDR ≤ 0.05, and

interacting with the same viral bait. All PPI networks were built in Cytoscape (v3.9.0) and

formatted with Affinity Designer. Prey proteins were annotated for GO: Biological Processes

(GO:BP), protein complexes were extracted from CORUM, and additional or overlapping

annotations were manually curated and grouped as needed.

Phenotypic screening and RBBP6 assays

CRISPRi knockdown:

Custom synthetic guide RNAs (gRNA) were acquired from Sigma and resuspended to 3 µM in TE buffer (10 mM Tris Base, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0). For the knockdown experiment, 375 µL of Opti-MEM (Life Technologies, USA), 5 µL of TransIT-CRISPR transfection reagent (Sigma, USA), and 20 µL of gene-specific sgRNAs were combined and incubated at room temperature for 20 min, then added to the appropriate well of the 12-well plate. Approximately 0.5×10^5 cells were plated to corresponding 12 well plates. After 72h, cells were washed with 1xPBS, lysed in RNA lysis buffer (Thomas Scientific, USA), and the efficiency of gene knockdown was estimated by qRT-PCR. Single-stranded cDNA was synthesized from total RNA using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (BioRad, USA) according to the manufacturer's recommendations. qPCR was performed using SYBR Master mix (Invitrogen, USA). All qRT-PCR data were normalized to the expression of the *GAPDH* gene. Expression fold changes were calculated by using the ΔΔCt method. Genes with knockdown greater than 50% were prioritized for virus replication assays. gRNA and qPCR primer sequences are available in Table S8.

CRISPRi infection assay:

Cells were infected with YFV-17D at the indicated MOI 72h after CRISPRi knockdown. Supernatant aliquots were harvested at 0, 24, 48, and 72 hpi and frozen at –80ºC. The titration of viral load in the infectious culture supernatants collected at different time points was conducted by plaque assay in Vero cells in triplicates. For the CRISPRi screen, robust *z*-scores were calculated for log-transformed titers measured at 48 hpi. The complete screening results can be found in Table S2.

Endogenous RBBP6 immunoprecipitation:

At 48 hours post-infection, mock or YFV-17D-infected Huh7 cells (MOI of 1) were collected, washed twice with ice-cold PBS and lysed with immunoprecipitation buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH

7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5% NP-40) supplemented with Complete-EDTA-free

Protease Inhibitor Cocktail. Cell lysates were incubated for 30 min on ice. After clearing lysates

by centrifugation at 1000 x g for 10 min at 4°C, they were treated or not with RNaseA (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, USA) for another 30 min. Following this, 25 µL of lysates (treated and not treated

with RNaseA) were preserved as protein Input while another aliquot (25 µL) was used to perform

IP. A total of 25 µl of Protein A Mag Sepharose beads (Cytiva, USA) had been equilibrated with

cold washing buffer (50 mM tris, 150 mM NaCl pH 7.5) and incubated overnight with agitation at

4°C with anti-RBBP6 (Origene, USA) and negative control rabbit IgG (Santa Cruz Biotechnology,

USA) antibodies. Following this, the cell lysates were added to the beads and incubated for 1 h

on ice. The supernatants were removed, and beads were washed 3 times with 500 µl washing

buffer (50 mM tris, 150 mM NaCl pH 7.5). After the last washing step, beads were resuspended

in 50 µl of western blot loading buffer and boiled at 95°C for 10 min. Obtained samples (IPs and

Inputs) were analyzed by Western blotting.

YFV replicon assay:

YF-Rluc-2A-WT expressing plasmid (gift of Richard Kuhn[49]) (10 µg) was linearized using XhoI

enzyme (NEB, United States) prior to *in vitro* transcription. The linearized DNA was purified using

Gel and PCR Clean-up, NucleoSpin (Macherey-Nagel, USA). The capped RNA transcripts were

synthesized using an SP6 mMessage mMachine kit (Invitrogen, USA), and the obtained RNA was

precipitated with Lithium Chloride following the manufacturer's instructions. Huh7-dCas cells were

first transfected with ncgRNA, RBBP6 gRNA1, and RBBP6 gRNA2 and 48h later transfected with

the obtained RNA transcripts (5 µg/per reaction) using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, USA).

Briefly, transfection mixtures were incubated at room temperature for 15 min, added to the cells,

and then incubated for 4–6 h at 37°C. After incubation, 1mL of complete growth medium was

added to each well. The cells were lysed at 0, 3, 6, 12, 24, and 48 h post-transfection and stored

at −20°C. All the measurements of luciferase activity were performed by *Renilla* luciferase assay

kit according to manufacturer instructions (Promega Corporation, USA) and using a Spectramax

m2 plate reader (Molecular Devices, USA).

Identification and conservation analysis of interologs

Interolog mapping of mosquito proteins:

To appropriately compare human and mosquito PPI networks, we mapped *Aedes aegypti*

mosquito proteins to human orthologs. We leveraged a multi-stepped approach to maximize

ortholog identification. In brief, we extracted all possible ortholog mappings from the InParanoid

8 database[59] between *Homo sapiens* and *Aedes aegypti*, mapping a majority of mosquito

proteins. Some annotations were additionally mapped using OrthoDB[92]. Each of these

annotations is provided in the supplemental network file (Table S4B).

Identification of interologs by AlphaFold2 and Foldseek:

To enhance interolog identification, we extracted both *A. aegypti* and human proteomes from the

AlphaFold EMBL-EBI database (https://alphafold.ebi.ac.uk/). The human proteome is readily

available for download, while the *A. aegypti* proteome must be downloaded from a separate

repository available through the same website. In total, there were 23,391 and 30,561 structures

for each organism, respectively. These numbers exceed the actual quantity of annotated and

predicted proteins for each organism because larger proteins are split into sections to make

predictions via AlphaFold tractable. We first performed an all-versus-all comparison of the two

proteomes using Foldseek to identify potential structural homologs for every protein: human to *A.*

aegypti (forward search) and *A. aegypti* to human (reverse search). Foldseek performs a rigid

structural alignment with a 3D alphabet approach that allows for rapid searches against entire

proteomes on local computer systems. Foldseek can identify hundreds of similar structures for a

single query with varying levels of confidence structure (represented as an e-value), so we limited

results to any structure with an e-value below 1e-10. We then took the intersection of the two

datasets for an aggregate of structural homolog pairs between the forward and reverse search of

the human and *A. aegypti* proteomes. From this list, the 3 pairs with the smallest e-values were

retained for further analysis. We added homologs identified by inParanoid8 to alleviate bias

toward highly structured proteins that could be predicted confidently by AlphaFold. We performed

flexible structural alignments using FATCAT for all filtered structural homolog pairs. Duplicate

pairs generated from proteins with multiple sectioned structures were removed using the p-value

output by FATCAT, resulting in a final 32,749 structural homolog pairs. These pairs were

compared to both the YFV and DENV HC-PPI datasets. If either a human or *A. aegypti* protein

appeared as a HC-PPI with a viral bait, we classified the pair as a HC-PPI. If both the human and

A. aegypti proteins in a structural homolog pair appeared as a HC-PPI for the same viral bait, we

classified them as structural interologs.

Sequence similarity analysis of interologs:

For the 32,749 structural homolog pairs, we performed sequence alignments using the EMBOSS

Needle algorithm. We maintained the same categorizations for each pair plotted.

Positive selection analysis:

To examine the evolutionary selective pressures acting on *RBBP6* and 17 unique high-confidence

interologs in primates, we first selected the human splice isoform with the longest ORF for each

gene. We used each ORF as query in a blastn[93] search of NCBI's nt database, restricting hits to

simian primates. For each non-human primate species, we collected the hit with the highest bit

score and obtained its ORF sequence. We generated an in-frame alignment using the MACSE[94]

algorithm and made manual adjustments to fix likely gene prediction errors and alignment

ambiguities. We then estimated a phylogeny from each alignment using phyml[95], with the GTR

nucleotide substitution model, four rate categories, and estimating the proportion of invariable

sites.

We used the resulting alignments and trees as inputs to the PAML[96] algorithm (codon model 2,

starting omega 0.4), comparing the likelihoods of evolutionary models that allow positive selection

at a subset of sites (models 8 and 2) with nested models that allow only sites with purifying or

neutral selection (models 7, 8a and 1). Results are shown in Table S3. Four genes had a p-value

≤ 0.05 in our preferred test (model 8 versus 8a); however, after correction for multiple testing

using the Benjamini and Hochberg (BH) method[97], only one (*MRPS9*) remained significant.

We also ran the GARD algorithm[98] to examine alignments for recombination and gene conversion,

which can cause false positives in evolutionary analysis. One of the genes that showed evidence

of positive selection (*NOP53*) also showed evidence of recombination. We reran PAML on each

GARD-identified segment separately, finding that the signal of positive selection remained for

segment 1. However, close inspection of the *NOP53* results revealed only a single amino acid

position (codon 6) with a high likelihood of positive selection (> 90% BEB posterior probability) -

this codon overlaps a CpG dinucleotide in a very CpG-rich region at the 5' end of the gene.

Methylated CpG sites are known to mutate at much higher rates than other sequences[99], a

phenomenon that PAML (like other algorithms to detect selective pressure) does not account for.

While it is possible that positive selection drove changes at this residue, it seems more likely that

the number of changes observed at this site reflects its hypermutability. As a conservative

approach to mitigate the impact of CpG hypermutation, we masked alignments to remove any

codon that overlapped a CpG dinucleotide in any species in the alignment and re-ran PAML.

Statistical support for positive selection disappeared for *NOP53* but remained for *MRPS9*, *DDX21*,

and *MRPS31*. We also checked whether the signature of positive selection in these four genes

was robust to the use of alternative starting parameters (codon models 2 or 3, starting omega 0.4

or 3, model 8 versus 8a p ≤ 0.05). For *MRPS9*, *DDX21*, and *MRPS31*, all four starting parameter

combinations yielded evidence of positive selection; *NOP53* gave more equivocal results, where

two of the four-parameter combinations had p ≤ 0.022, and the other two had p = 0.059. Full

positive selection results are available in Table S3.

Integrative analysis of protein interactions

Network similarity metrics:

When comparing the overlapping bait-prey data between various datasets, the relevant data were reformatted into a contingency table. A Fisher's exact test was performed to assess the statistical significance of the overlap using the GeneOverlap R package (v1.32.0). Venn diagrams showing the degree of overlap were created with the BioVenn R package (v1.1.3).

Enrichment analyses:

All gene enrichment analyses were conducted with the R package gprofiler2 (0.2.1). Typically, we separated genes into lists by viral bait and/or hierarchal cluster prior to enrichment. Using the "gost" function, we tested for functional enrichment across Gene Ontology (GO), Reactome Pathways, and CORUM databases. Statistical significance was calculated with a hypergeometric test, correcting for false discovery rate (FDR) using the Bonferroni method. Enrichment analyses for both human and mosquito data were performed using *Homo sapiens* databases against all annotated genes, meaning mosquito proteins without an annotated ortholog were excluded from these analyses.

Hierarchal clustering of protein interactions:

We performed hierarchal clustering on interactions for viral bait proteins shared across all five viral bait datasets and that met their respective MiST cutoffs in at least one of the datasets. Clustering was performed on MiST scores for each virus-host interaction using the "hclust" function and "ward.D2" method of the base R package stats. We optimized the number of clusters by applying k-means clustering and selecting a hierarchal cutoff that produced the equivalent number of clusters. Enrichment analyses were conducted by both cluster and viral protein, as described previously. Thus, we could extract unique or shared enrichment categories ($p < 0.05$) for a particular bait and cluster. Clustering was visualized with the R package pheatmap (v1.0.12).

DIS analysis and scoring:

Differential interaction scores (DIS) were calculated for the same subset of data used for

hierarchal clustering by finding the difference in MiST scores between two viruses for a particular

bait-prey interaction. We excluded cases where both MiST scores were 0. To ascertain the level

of correlation across DIS, Pearson's correlations were calculated based on the distribution of DIS

between two particular comparisons. Distributions were visualized with the R package ggplot2

(v3.4.1).

Enrichment network visualization:

To simplify enrichment data for visualization, we isolated enriched terms between 1 and 2000

genes and eliminated redundancy by collapsing terms with greater than 50% similarity, retaining

the term with the lowest adjusted p-value. Cytoscape (v3.9.0)[100] was used to plot these as

networks, and the "geom_tile" function of ggplot2 created heatmaps of relevant baits/clusters.

Conservation analysis of PPIs by viral bait using protein sequence and structure

HC-PPI conservation analysis and MiST profile correlations:

MiST scores for YFV, DENV, WNV, and ZIKV were compiled by viral bait, excluding any entries

that were not detected by MS in all four datasets. Pairwise Pearson's correlation coefficients were

calculated in R. The union of HC-PPIs for YFV, DENV, WNV, and ZIKV was compiled by viral

bait. For each PPI, a relative conservation was calculated based on the fraction of datasets that

PPI was conserved. This was summed over the entire union for each viral bait. Since each viral

bait had a different number of HC-PPIs, ranging from 20 to 74, this was normalized to the total

number of HC-PPIs for that bait.

Viral protein sequence identity calculations and visualization:

Amino acid sequences for flavivirus proteins from YFV, WNV, DENV, and ZIKV were collected

from sequences used in published proteomics studies[21,22] or this study. Sequence identity was

determined using the T-Coffee alignment algorithm within SnapGene (v4.3.11)

(www.snapgene.com). Protein structures were predicted using AlphaFold2 and visualized using

UCSF ChimeraX (v1.9)[101]. YFV Capsid and NS5 structures were colored based on the four

viruses, ranging from 25% (1 out of 4) to 100% (4 out of 4) amino acid identity. Solvent-accessible

surface area (SASA) calculations were performed using UCSF ChimeraX (v1.9).

Statistical analysis:

Simple linear regression was applied to data when indicated to calculate Pearson's correlation

coefficients. P-values of correlation coefficients were calculated by bootstrapping the linear

regression. The indicated data was shuffled, and the correlation coefficient was calculated. This

was repeated 100,000 times to create a distribution of correlation coefficients. The percentage of

randomly generated correlation coefficients greater (for positive correlation coefficients) or less

(for negative correlation coefficients) than the true correlation coefficient was taken as the P-

value.

Supplementary Files

Table S7: Antibodies

Antibody	Host Species	Dilution Used	Supplier (Catalog #)	RRID
GAPDH	Mouse	1:1000 (WB)	Fisher (PIMA515738)	AB_2537652
FLAG-M2	Mouse	1:200 (IF), 1:1000 (WB)	MilliporeSigma (F1804)	AB_262044
Strep	Mouse	1:1000 (WB), 1:500 (IF)	Qiagen (34850)	AB_2810987
HA	Mouse	1:1000 (WB), 1:200 (IF)	MilliporeSigma (H3663)	AB_262051
TOMM20	Rabbit	1:250 (IF)	ThomasScientific (11802-1-AP)	AB_2207530
Calnexin	Rabbit	1:250 (IF)	Proteintech (10427-2-AP)	AB_2069033
RBBP6	Rabbit	1:1000 (WB)	ThermoFisher (PA5-23054)	AB_11152136
YFV NS5	Rabbit	1:1000 (WB)	GeneTex (GTX134141)	AB_2887231
GRASP65	Rabbit	1:250 (IF)	From Dr. Nevan Krogan	N/A
Anti-Mouse IgG-HRP	Rabbit	1:5000 (WB)	SouthernBiotech (6170-05)	AB_2796243
Anti-Rabbit IgG-HRP	Goat	1:5000 (WB)	SouthernBiotech (4030-05)	AB_2687483
Anti-Mouse AlexaFlour-488	Goat	1:1000 (IF)	Invitrogen (A28175)	AB_2536161

Anti-Mouse AlexaFlour-555	Goat	1:1000 (IF)	Invitrogen (A21422)	AB_2535844
Anti-Rabbit AlexaFlour-488	Goat	1:1000 (IF)	Invitrogen (A11008)	AB_143165
Anti-Rabbit AlexaFlour-555	Goat	1:1000 (IF)	Invitrogen (A27039)	AB_2536100

Table S8: Oligonucleotides

Oligo Name	Sequence (5' > 3')
pcDNA / pAc5 Upstream	CGAGCTCGGATCCACTAGTC
pcDNA / pAc5 Downstream	GTTTAAACGGGCCCCTTCTC
Negative CRISPRi gRNA #1	CGCGAUAGCGCGAAUAUAUU
Negative CRISPRi gRNA #2	GCGCGAUAGCGCGAAUAUAC
ATRX CRISPRi gRNA #1	AAUUCCGAGUUUCGAGCGA
ATRX CRISPRi gRNA #2	GGUGUAGUCUUUACACGUG
DAXX CRISPRi gRNA #1	CUGGGAUGCCAUUCCACUA
DAXX CRISPRi gRNA #2	GAUCUGGAACAGAUGCAGG
DDX10 CRISPRi gRNA #1	UUCCACUUCGUCAUUGGUG
DDX10 CRISPRi gRNA #2	AGCCUUAUAUCGUCUGCAA
XRCC6 CRISPRi gRNA #1	UCCUCUGGGUACACGAACA
XRCC6 CRISPRi gRNA #2	GAGACCUCUUGGUAUCGCU
ILF2 CRISPRi gRNA #1	CUCGAACCAGCGGGCAUGU
ILF2 CRISPRi gRNA #2	CAAAUUGAAGAAGUUCGAC
RBBP6 CRISPRi gRNA #1	GGAGGGACACUAUACCCAG
RBBP6 CRISPRi gRNA #2	GUGAUCUGCAGGUCGCAGU
TMPO CRISPRi gRNA #1	CCGCCGGCACCAACAGCAA
TMPO CRISPRi gRNA #2	CUUUGCGCUGCUCCCCGGC
ZRANB2 CRISPRi gRNA #1	CCUAGACCUUGAACUUGAG
ZRANB2 CRISPRi gRNA #2	AUUAGCACUAAAUAGGCCU
STUB1 CRISPRi gRNA #1	AAUCGCGAAGAAGAAGCGC
STUB1 CRISPRi gRNA #2	GAGUGCCAGCGAAACCACG
KRR1 CRISPRi gRNA #1	AGUCAUGCUGCCUUCGAUC
KRR1 CRISPRi gRNA #2	CUGGUUCCUUCCAACCAUC
ZC3H4 CRISPRi gRNA #1	GGUGUGGUACAGCUUACAC
ZC3H4 CRISPRi gRNA #2	CCCUCCUUGUUUGAGAUCG
GNL3 CRISPRi gRNA #1	ACCUCUAGGACAACAUCGG
GNL3 CRISPRi gRNA #2	GCGCAGAGGAGGAAUUAAG
PRPF19 CRISPRi gRNA #1	CUCAUCGAGAAGUACAUUG
PRPF19 CRISPRi gRNA #2	AAUCCUGAUAGUGGCAUCG
TFB1M CRISPRi gRNA #1	GUGGAGUUGAAACACUAAA
TFB1M CRISPRi gRNA #2	CUCGAAUCGUGGGCAACGG
ZFR CRISPRi gRNA #1	AAUAGGCUACACCCGAAGC
ZFR CRISPRi gRNA #2	AUCGCCGCCGAAUGCCAGA

SARAF CRISPRi gRNA #1	GACUACAAACGCGAUCCCA
SARAF CRISPRi gRNA #2	GAUACUCAGAGUACGGUGG
EIF4ENIF1 CRISPRi gRNA #1	GAAAGAGUUGGAUACAGAC
EIF4ENIF1 CRISPRi gRNA #2	AACCACCUACUGAACCGAC
DDX54 CRISPRi gRNA #1	CGAGGAGAAGCGCGCACGG
DDX54 CRISPRi gRNA #2	UCAGAGCGGGAGCCGAAGU
CACTIN CRISPRi gRNA #1	CUGGGCGUUAUCAGCAACG
CACTIN CRISPRi gRNA #2	UUUGGCGAGAUUGAUCUUG
GAPDH qPCR Forward	ACATCGCTCAGACACCATG
GAPDH qPCR Reverse	TGTAGTTGAGGTCAATGAAGGG
RBBP6 qPCR Forward	AGATTCAAAAGGAGCGTAGGC
RBBP6 qPCR Reverse	TCGAGAATAAGAGCGTGAACG
ZRANB2 qPCR Forward	TCTTCATCACGCTCATCCTC
ZRANB2 qPCR Reverse	AGATCTCGAACGTTCTCTGG
CACTIN qPCR Forward	TACACCAACACCGACAACCC
CACTIN qPCR Reverse	TTCAGCTCCTTCTCCTCCAG
ZC3H4 qPCR Forward	CGCAAGTACAGAGAGTACAG
ZC3H4 qPCR Reverse	CCATAACTCTTGCTGTCCAT
SARAF qPCR Forward	GTTTTGGCAGTGCTTTTACA
SARAF qPCR Reverse	ACGAGTCTGAGAAGGGTGTT
TFB1M qPCR Forward	CGTAGTCGCCTCTCTGTTATGG
TFB1M qPCR Reverse	GCTGCTCTATCTTGGGCTGTATC
ZFR qPCR Forward	AGACAGAGCTTTGAAAGGAG
ZFR qPCR Reverse	CAGCAAAACAAGGTTGACAT
DAXX qPCR Forward	GTTCTGAGAATTGCGGCGAG
DAXX qPCR Reverse	GGTGGCCATAGGGGATCAAA
ATRX qPCR Forward	AGAAACAAGTTCTCCTCCAC
ATRX qPCR Reverse	CTTCCTTGCTGTTTTCCATC
GNL3 qPCR Forward	AAGGTGCTGCCAAACTGC
GNL3 qPCR Reverse	CTCCTGCTTCCTTTCTTTCC
DDX10 qPCR Forward	TTGAGGTTCTCCGAAAAGTAGG
DDX10 qPCR Reverse	ACATTTGGAGGTCGGTAGCAT
PRPF19 qPCR Forward	ATGGTTACTACCTGGCTACAGCGG
PRPF19 qPCR Reverse	TGCCTGTTGAAGCGATGAACTTGG
TMPO qPCR Forward	TGCTCGCCTCCTGCCTGTAG
TMPO qPCR Reverse	GACACAAAGCCAAGCCAGACC
EIF4ENIF1 qPCR Forward	GGTTTCACACCAGGACCACA
EIF4ENIF1 qPCR Reverse	CATCTGGGCTGTGATGGGG
XRCC6 qPCR Forward	AGTCATATTACAAAACCGAGGGC
XRCC6 qPCR Reverse	CCTTGGAGGCATCAACCAAAA
DDX54 qPCR Forward	AGGAAGAAGAAAGGGCTCCG
DDX54 qPCR Reverse	GTCTTCCAGGTCCCAGCTTC

STUB1 qPCR Forward	AGC AGG GCA ATC GTC TGT TC
STUB1 qPCR Reverse	CAA GGC CCG GTT GGT GTA ATA
ILF2 qPCR Forward	TCTGGTTTAGTGTGAAATGGCCT
ILF2 qPCR Reverse	AGCCAGGTCCTGATTCCTCT
YFV NS5 qPCR Forward	TCCGAAGTCATGCAGCCATT
YFV NS5 qPCR Reverse	GGAAAAGAGAGAAGAAGCTGTC

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Author Contributions

P.S.S. and M.W.K. conceived the project and designed experiments, with input from L.C., C. L. S. S., H.S.M., J.M.Y., and T.B.. M.W.K. performed affinity purification and designed computational pipeline for scoring YFV proteomics and subsequent comparative analyses with contributions from C.L.S.S. and P.S.S.. L.C. and C.J.F. performed CRISPRi knockdowns and associated virus assays. L.C. performed assays related to RBBP6. M.W.K., L.C., A.T.F., V.P., and C.J.F. performed Western blotting analyses. A.T.F. and M.W.K. conducted molecular cloning, performed immunostaining and microscopy. C.L.S.S., T.B., J.M.Y., and P.S.S. performed computational structure and evolution studies. M.W.K., C.L.S.S, and P.S.S. performed data visualization. P.S.S. and H.S.M. supervised the research. P.S.S. and H.S.M. acquired funding. M.W.K., H.S.M, and P.S.S. wrote The Manuscript. L.C., C.L.S.S., A.T.F., T.B., and J.M.Y. edited The Manuscript.

Declaration of Interests

All authors report no competing interests.

Figures

Figure 1. YFV-human proteomics identifies virus-host PPI related to flavivirus biology.

(A) Schematic representation of experimental AP-MS pipeline and proteomic scoring.

(B) Virus-host interactions were scored with both MiST and SAINT to produce the plotted number

of HC-PPIs per bait.

(C-D) Enrichment analysis was performed on the set of HC-PPIs for each viral bait. The

heatmaps summarize the degree of enrichment (adjusted p-value < 0.05) for (C) GO: Biological

Processes and Reactome pathways relevant to flavivirus replication, and (D) GO:cellular

compartment. The full enrichment results are available in Table S1. Viral baits are ordered

according to their position in the viral polyprotein.

Figure 2. YFV-human PPI network.

YFV-Human HC-PPIs were identified after a tiered scoring approach using both MiST (M > 0.67 | M > 0.60 & protein complex member) and SAINT (score > 0.95 & BFDR ≤ 0.05). Viral baits (grey rectangles) are mapped to human proteins (light yellow ovals). Human proteins are annotated as host-dependency factors from a contemporary YFV CRISPR screen (gold with bolded borders). Additionally, human proteins were grouped by GO:BP (grey underlay) and CORUM protein complex (black outline). Full scoring results are available in Table S1. Ribosomal proteins (42) were not included for visual clarity.

Figure 3. RBBP6 inhibits YFV genome replication through an RNA-dependent interaction

with full-length NS5.

(A) Violin plot showing the percent knockdown efficiency of all tested gRNAs in the CRISPRi

screen. gRNAs achieving achieved >50% knockdown are shown in yellow. RBBP6-targeting

gRNAs are shown in bronze.

(B) Robust Z-score distribution of viral titers from the CRISPRi screen for gRNAs achieving >50%

knockdown (panel A, yellow), identifying RBBP6 as a top restriction factor (bronze). Full results

are available in Table S2.

(C) YFV-17D replication in Huh7 cells with RBBP6 knockdown. Plaque assay quantification of

viral titers at 48 hours post-infection (hpi) across a range of multiplicities of infection (MOI = 0.01,

0.10, 1.00). Data represent mean ± SD of three biological replicates, with $p < 0.005$ (***), $p < 0.01$

(**), and $p < 0.05$ (*) by one-sided t-test.

(D) Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy of RBBP6 and YFV NS5 in transfected HeLa cells.

2xStrep-tag for NS5 and HA-tag for RBBP6 (yellow). Hoechst staining for nucleus (cyan). Scale

bars: 20 µm (main panels), 10 µm (zoom).

(E) Western blot for co-IP of NS5 with endogenous RBBP6 or IgG in YFV-infected cells

with/without RNaseA treatment. GAPDH is a loading control.

(F) Schematic of RBBP6 domain architecture and truncation constructs.

(G) Western blot for whole cell lysate and Strep-AP of YFV 2xStrep-tagged NS5 co-transfected

with HA-tagged RBBP6 constructs. EV represents an empty vector for negative control.

(H) Western blot for whole cell lysate and Strep-AP of YFV 2xStrep-tagged NS5 domain

truncations. NS3 and EV are negative controls.

(I) *Renilla* luciferase activity of YFV replicon in RBBP6 and control CRISPRi knockdown Huh7

cells. Data represent mean ± SD of three biological replicates, with $p < 0.005$ (***), $p < 0.01$ (**),

and $p < 0.05$ (*) by one-sided t-test.

Figure 4. Predicted structures and holistic analysis facilitate interolog identification.

(A) Number of HC-PPIs identified per viral bait from mosquito proteomics.

(B) Network of structure- and evolutionary-based interologs for both YFV and DENV. The node

label is the human gene symbol. The mosquito UniProt ID is listed under the node. Enriched

GO:BP categories and CORUM complexes are based on human annotations. Bolded gene IDs

indicate proteins found to have positive selection.

(C) Hierarchical clustering of flavivirus-mosquito and flavivirus-human PPIs based on MiST

scores. Interactions were only considered for viral baits consistently studied across all datasets.

An interaction only included if it was a HC-PPI in at least one study and was evaluated for number

of studies in which it was considered HC-PPI (cutoffs met shown in blue scale bar). K-means

clustering optimized the number of clusters to select a hierarchal cutoff to define clusters (red

dashed line).

(D) Enrichment network for GO:BP and CORUM complexes from YFV and DENV pan-host

cluster, representing interactions conserved across all interactomes analyzed. The color indicates

the viral bait associated with the enrichment term and pie sector represents the fractional

magnitude of the $\log_{10}$p-value of that enrichment. A monochromatic point indicates it was only

significant ($p < 0.05$) for a single viral bait.

(E) Box and whisker plots showing the sequence identity values of human-*A. aegypti* homolog

pairs of indicated groups of proteins. Solid horizontal lines indicate the median. Dashed horizontal

lines indicate the mean. Adjusted p-values were calculated using a Wilcoxon rank-sum test with

Bonferroni correction: adjusted $p < 0.0001$ (****), adjusted $p < 0.001$ (***), adjusted $p < 0.01$ (**),

adjusted $p < 0.05$ (*), adjusted $p > 0.05$ (n.s.).

Figure 5. Holistic integration of flavivirus-host interactomes reveals pan-flavivirus and divergent mechanisms of host targeting.

(A) Approximate evolutionary relationship between DENV, ZIKV, WNV, and YFV. TBEV was included to represent a true outgroup compared to mosquito-borne flaviviruses.

(B) Hierarchical clustering of flavivirus-human PPIs based on MiST scores. Interactions were only considered for viral baits consistently studied across all viruses. An interaction was only included if it was a HC-PPI in at least one study and was evaluated for the number of studies in which it was considered HC-PPI (cutoffs met shown in yellow scale bar). K-means clustering optimized the number of clusters to select a hierarchal cutoff to define clusters (red dashed line).

(C) Enrichment network for GO:BP and CORUM complexes from cluster 3, representing pan-flavivirus interactions conserved across all interactomes analyzed. The color indicates the viral bait associated with the enrichment term, and the pie sector represents the fractional magnitude of the log_{10}p-value of that enrichment. A monochromatic point indicates it was only significant ($p < 0.05$) for a single viral bait.

(D) Schematic of differential interaction score (DIS) calculation.

(E) Plot of YFV DIS distributions, separated by the viral bait. Dot colors indicate the virus used for DIS comparison.

(F) Heatmap showing the degree of enrichment (log_{10}p-value, yellow scale bar) for unique terms in clusters associated with YFV specifically (cluster 1) or excluding YFV (cluster 8), grouped by viral bait. Enrichment terms were excluded if they showed significant enrichment for other clusters. Other clusters are included in the heatmap to demonstrate the enrichment is unique to clusters 1 or 8. In each tile, the number of interactions associated with that enrichment term is bolded if it was significant ($p < 0.05$).

Figure 6. Integration of virus sequence and structure reveals a complex relationship with PPI conservation

(A) Schematic of PPI, sequence, and structural analysis. PPIs were analyzed according to viral

baits across all four flavivirus-host PPI datasets.

(B) Pearson's correlation between MiST score profiles and viral protein sequence conservation.

For each viral bait, six pairwise correlations were calculated for MiST profiles for each possible

pairwise combination between four viruses. The same was done for pairwise sequence identity.

Pearson's correlations between MiST correlations and sequence identity were then calculated for

each viral bait and the entire dataset.

(C) Pearson's correlation between relative HC-PPI conservation and viral protein sequence

conservation. For each viral bait, mean values of relative HC-PPI conservation and pairwise

sequence identity were plotted.

(D-E) Visualization of YFV NS5 and Capsid protein structures with protein sequence

conservation. Residues with known enzymatic activity are colored with a yellow overlay.

Structures were generated using the YFV-Asibi protein sequence and AlphaFold2.

(F) Violin plot of solvent accessible surface area (SASA) binned by amino acid conservation for

NS5 and Capsid. Yellow dots indicate residues with known enzyme activity. Solid horizontal lines

indicate the median. Dashed horizontal lines indicate the mean. Adjusted p-values were

calculated using a Wilcoxon rank-sum test with Bonferroni correction: adjusted $p < 0.0001$ (****),

adjusted $p < 0.001$ (***), adjusted $p < 0.01$ (**), adjusted $p < 0.05$ (*), adjusted $p > 0.05$ (n.s).

(G) Stacked bar plot of the distribution of amino acid identity. Only NS5 amino acids with similar

SASA as Capsid were considered. P-value was calculated using a Wilcoxon rank-sum (Mann-

Whitney U) test: $p > 0.05$ (n.s).

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