Distinguishing Pseudotransduction and True Transduction Enables Characterization and

Bioengineering of Extracellular Vesicle-Adeno-Associated Virus Vectors

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ABSTRACT

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) gene therapies have achieved some clinical success, with multiple products reaching regulatory approval. Encapsulation of AAV vectors within engineered extracellular vesicles (EVs) is an emerging strategy which could help overcome challenges including pre-existing anti-capsid immunity and the need for controlling targeting and tropism. To guide the development of EV-AAV technologies, we developed an assay for quantifying and controlling for the contribution of pseudotransduction to evaluations of EV-AAV-mediated transduction. We developed an AAV vector that switches its transgene output from one reporter to another when acted upon by Cre recombinase expressed in a recipient cell. Using this platform, we investigated EV-AAV transduction as a function of various engineered EV surface modifications. For actively endocytic cells (HEK293FTs), modifications that enhance EV uptake and membrane fusion influence pseudotransduction but not true transduction. Conversely, in less endocytic Jurkat T cells, modifications enhancing EV uptake enhanced both pseudotransduction and true transduction. These conclusions held across two AAV serotypes. Our results provide new insight into prior reports and suggest that effects of enhancing uptake and membrane fusion of EV-AAV vectors are recipient cell type-specific. The methods developed here unambiguously dissect EV-AAV transduction mechanisms and can guide future bioengineering of EV-AAV vectors.

INTRODUCTION

Adeno-associated virus (AAV) gene therapies have substantial promise for the treatment of genetic diseases. Over the last decade, at least seven AAV-based gene therapies have been approved by the US Food and Drug Administration, with hundreds of clinical trials ongoing.[1] Current efforts focus on challenges such as evading preexisting humoral immunity[2], and reducing off-target tissue transduction[3], which both necessitate higher vector doses that are associated with adverse effects[4,5]. One potential strategy for addressing these needs is encapsulation of AAV within engineered extracellular vesicles (EVs).

EVs are nanoscale, membrane-bound particles secreted by all cells and include exosomes, microvesicles, and particles such as apoptotic bodies.[6] Exosomes are formed through the invagination of endosomal compartments, resulting in multivesicular bodies that fuse with the plasma membrane to release exosomes into the extracellular space. These vesicles protect their cargo—cytoplasmic RNA, proteins, and

other biomolecules—from degradation by nucleases and proteases.[7] Microvesicles bud from the cell

surface and encapsulate a distinct set of biomolecules.[6] When recipient cells take up EVs, some cargo

molecules can be released into the cytoplasm to impact cell state.[8,9] Because EVs mediate intercellular

communication, exhibit lower toxicity and immunogenicity than synthetic delivery vehicles, and have longer

circulation times *in vivo*, they are attractive candidates for therapeutic cargo delivery.[10-12]

An interesting observation is that when AAV particles are assembled in producer cells, secreted

EVs can incorporate AAV particles capable of conferring gene expression in recipient cells, and such EV-

AAV vehicles have distinct properties that are useful for gene delivery.[13] EV-AAVs can mediate transduction

of the mouse brain, even when using serotypes not generally able to cross the blood-brain barrier.[14] EV-

AAV1 and EV-AAV9 outperformed their free AAV (standard, non-enveloped AAV particle) counterparts in

transduction of cochlear hair cells in explant cultures.[15] EV-AAV1 encoding *Lhfpl5,* a protein required for

mechanotransduction in outer and inner hair cells and for which loss leads to profound deafness, improved

hearing and movement abnormalities in *Lhfpl5$^{-/-}$* mice.[15] Upon intravitreal injection, EV-AAV2 outperformed

free AAV2 in retinal transduction via delivery of GFP, increasing transduction of cell types that are

transduced by free AAV2 as well as increasing the extent of transduction across different regions of the

retina.[16] EV-AAV8 encoding hF.IX enhanced correction of hemophilia B phenotypes compared to standard

AAV8 vectors in C57BL/6 *F9−/−* mice, demonstrating enhanced liver targeting after intravenous injection.[17]

Both standard AAV8 and EV-AAV8 can transduce a variety of immune cell populations, including CD4$^+$ T

cells, CD8$^+$ T cells, B cells, macrophages, and dendritic cells after systemic delivery in mice.[18] EV-AAV8

can mediate the expression of human interleukin-2 receptor alpha chain (IL-2Rα) in multiple lymphocyte

populations, suggesting that EV-AAVs could be utilized for *in vivo* cell engineering.[18] In a lung cancer

xenograft mouse model, local injection of EV-AAV6 was much more potent in transducing tumor cells

compared to free AAV6.[19] Upon intratracheal injection in C57BL/6 mice, EV-AAV6 enhanced transduction

of the lung compared to either free AAV6 or a mixture of free AAV6 and EVs, demonstrating that the

enhanced lung transduction by EV-AAV6 was attributable to the direct association of EVs and AAV6.[20] EV-

AAV9 delivering *SERCA2a* significantly improved cardiac function in a mouse model of myocardial

infarction compared to free AAV9.[21] In addition to improving transduction, EV-AAVs resist neutralization by

AAV specific antibodies, suggesting that encapsulation can help address needs for AAV vector

delivery.[14,17,19-25] Moreover, since EVs have been engineered to target specific cell types[26-29], it is possible

that such methods could target EV-AAVs as well.

81   Although EV-AAV vectors are promising, they are still in the early stages of development as a

therapeutic platform. EV-AAVs have been analyzed in pre-clinical models but have yet to be evaluated in

human clinical trials. Several key mechanistic questions about EV-AAVs are incompletely understood. First,

the functional consequences of surface-functionalizing EV-AAV vectors on recipient cell binding and particle

uptake are unclear. Second, reports conflict as to how increasing EV-endosomal fusion modulates

transduction by EV-AAV. An early study suggested that functionalizing EV-AAVs by incorporating the low

pH-activated fusogen vesicular stomatitis virus glycoprotein (VSV-G) on the EV surface can diminish

transduction of HEK293T and U87 glioma cells by AAV2, compared to EV-AAV2 lacking VSV-G.[13] This is

surprising as increasing uptake (via VSV-G binding to its receptor, low density lipoprotein receptor, LDL-

R[30]) and fusion-mediated entry of the AAV capsid into the cytosol may be expected to increase transduction.

While a possible explanation is that AAV2 requires processing in the endosome—capsid cleavage by the

endosomal cysteine proteases cathepsins B and L[31], autoproteolytic processing of the capsid at low

pH[32], and exposure of the VP1/2 N-terminal region exposing a phospholipase A2 domain that helps the

virion escape the endosome and traffic to the nucleus[33,34]—that mechanism is untested in EV-AAV delivery.

VSV-G display on EV-AAV2 showed no effect on transduction of several other glioma cell lines compared

to non-targeted EV-AAV2[13], suggesting the role of VSV-G may vary by recipient cell type. A related line of

evidence is that display of rabies virus glycoprotein (RVG) on the surface of EV-AAV9 increased

transduction of SH-SY5Y cells and transduction of the brain of mice compared to non-targeted EV-AAV9.[22]

RVG binds to the nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR), neural cell adhesion molecule (NCAM), p75

neurotrophin receptor, integrin β1, and transferrin receptor 1 (TfR1), promoting clathrin-mediated

endocytosis of the particle.[35] Much like VSV-G, upon encountering the low pH of the endosome, RVG

undergoes conformational changes that promote endosomal membrane fusion and escape.[36,37] Given the

similarity in mechanisms used by VSV-G and RVG, the differences in transduction when displayed on EV-

AAVs is surprising and may indicate recipient cell type and/or AAV serotype-specific effects. A further

consideration is that AAV particles are found on both the surface and interior of EV-AAV particles, adding

nuance to the interpretation of these delivery phenomena.[15,17,23] By some estimates, in EV-AAV

preparations, approximately 1-2% of EVs may incorporate AAVs.[38] Taken together, EV-AAV preparations

are a heterogenous mixture of EVs and EV-AAVs. Although EV-AAV vectors are promising, successful

bioengineering of such vectors would benefit from mechanistic understanding of delivery mechanisms.

A key technical challenge when evaluating engineered EV-AAV-mediated delivery is distinguishing

delivery of protein and/or mRNA originating from transgene expression in producer cells (i.e.,

"pseudotransduction"), from gene delivery to and resulting transgene expression in recipient cells.

Pseudotransduction is also observed with lentiviral and retroviral vectors, which are also enveloped and

can incorporate cytosolic proteins from producer cells.[39-42] In certain applications, pseudotransduction may

be useful, as demonstrated in dendritic cell–targeted lentiviral vectors for vaccination, in which incorporated

protein antigens are employed to train induced immune reactions.[43] However, in applications where

quantification of gene delivery or transduction is desired, pseudotransduction can inflate the rates of

transduction reported. Informed in part by prior observations that protein delivery can complicate evaluation

of EV-mediated mRNA delivery[44,45], we hypothesized that controlling for pseudotransduction may be

particularly crucial for measuring EV-AAV transduction because achieving comparable rates of transduction

typically requires higher numbers of particles for EV-AAV compared to lentiviral vectors. Thus,

distinguishing transduction from pseudotransduction is critical for the engineering and evaluation of EV-

AAV vectors.

In this study, we developed and validated a quantitative assay for disambiguating

pseudotransduction from transduction by EV-AAVs and applied this method to investigate several biological

hypotheses that inform bioengineering. Our assay comprises a modified stoplight system, in which Cre

recombinase is expressed in recipient cells where it can modify an incoming engineered AAV vector to shift

its transgene expression from one fluorescent protein to another. Using this approach, true transduction

(hereafter, simply "transduction") can be distinguished from pseudotransduction. With this system, we

compared various EV surface functionalization strategies that drive uptake and/or membrane fusion with

recipient cells and determined how these engineering choices impact pseudotransduction and transduction.

Such analysis revealed new insights about EV-AAV transduction that would otherwise be obscured by

pseudotransduction. Our assay enables generation and testing of new mechanistic hypotheses for studying

EV-AAV biology and bioengineering these vectors.

METHODS

General DNA assembly

Plasmids were constructed using standard molecular biology techniques. Plasmid assembly was performed

via restriction enzyme cloning. Plasmids were transformed into TOP10 competent Escherichia coli (Thermo

Fisher) and grown at 37 °C. AAV vector (transfer) plasmids were transformed into NEB Stable competent

Escherichia coli (New England Biolabs C3040) and grown at 37 °C. Plasmid cloning was performed

primarily using standard restriction enzyme cloning with restriction enzymes (NEB), T4 DNA Ligase (NEB

M0202L), and Antarctic Phosphatase (NEB M0289L). Plasmids with pcDNA-based backbones were

transformed into chemically competent TOP10 *Escherichia coli* (Thermo Fisher C404010), and cells were

grown at 37°C. Plasmids with AAV transgene vector backbones were transformed into chemically

competent NEB Stable *Escherichia coli* (NEB C3040H), and cells were grown at 30°C.

Source vectors for DNA assembly

The AAV transfer vector (pAAV-GFP SN), and helper plasmid (pHelper) were gifts from David Schaffer

(University of California, Berkeley). The LumiScarlet gene was PCR amplified from pcDNA3-LumiScarlet,

which was a gift from Huiwang Ai (Addgene plasmid # 126623 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:126623 ;

RRID:Addgene_126623)[46], and cloned into the pAAVGFP SN plasmid using AgeI and NotI. pOTTC1032 -

pAAV EF1a Nuc-flox(mCherry)-EGFP (pJB037) was a gift from Brandon Harvey (Addgene plasmid #

112677 ; http://n2t.net/addgene:112677 ; RRID:Addgene_112677).[47] Gene strings for the other Cre-

responsive vectors (pJB038 - No NLS and eGFP, pJB040 - NLS and mNeonGreen, and pJB041 No NLS

and mNeonGreen) were codon optimized and synthesized by ThermoFisher (GeneArt), then cloned into

the pOCTTC1032 plasmid using KpnI and EcoRI restriction enzymes. RepCap plasmids for AAV2

(pRep2Cap2) and AAV6 (pRep2Cap6) were gifts from the Vector Core at the University of Pennsylvania

(Penn Vector Core (RRID: SCR_022432)). pcDNA is plasmid pPD005 (Addgene plasmid # 138749 ;

http://n2t.net/addgene:138749 ; RRID:Addgene_138749).[48] psPAX2 and pMD2.G plasmids were gifted by

William Miller from Northwestern University. pHIE822 was created by introducing point mutations (K47Q,

R354A) in the VSV-G-encoding gene of pMD2.G using site-directed mutagenesis by PCR. pCMV-VSV-

G(P127D)-Myc (pJB042) was a gift from Wesley Sundquist (Addgene plasmid # 80055 ;

http://n2t.net/addgene:80055 ; RRID:Addgene_80055).[49] pHIE963 was created using standard restriction

enzyme cloning to insert a Cre recombinase gene into a third-generation lentiviral transfer vector provided

by Twist Bioscience (pTwist Lenti SFFV PuroR). The Cre recombinase gene was amplified by PCR from

pBS185 CMV-Cre, which was a gift from Brian Sauer (Addgene plasmid # 11916

; http://n2t.net/addgene:11916 ; RRID:Addgene_11916).[50] The Ultra-HEK plasmid is a commercial product

made by Syenex. The plasmids used to produce Ultra-HEK lentiviral vectors are Syenex plasmids: SNX-

mNG-TV3, SNX-Gagpol, SNX-Rev, and SNX-VSV-G. A list of plasmids utilized in this study can be found

in **Supplementary Data 1**. Plasmid sequences can be found in **Supplementary Data 2**.

Plasmid preparation

TOP10 or NEB Stable *E. coli* were grown overnight, shaking at 37°C or 30°C, respectively, in 50-100 mL of

LB media with the appropriate selective antibiotic. The next day, DNA was prepped using a ZymoPURE II

Plasmid Midiprep Kit (Zymo D4201) following the manufacturer's instructions. DNA purity and

concentrations for relevant experiments were measured with a NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

All plasmid sequences were confirmed by whole plasmid sequencing, including AAV transfer plasmids to

ensure ITR integrity.

Cell culture

FreeStyle 293-F cells (Gibco R79007) cells were cultured in FreeStyle 293 Expression Medium (Gibco

12338018) supplemented with 1% penicillin–streptomycin (Gibco 15140-122). HEK293FT cells (Thermo

Fisher R70007) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM, Gibco 31600-091)

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco 16140-071), 1% penicillin–streptomycin (Gibco

15140-122) and 4 mM additional L-glutamine (Gibco 25030-081). HEK293T Lenti-X cells (Takara 632180)

were cultured in HEK293FT media formulation supplemented with 1 mm sodium pyruvate from Gibco

(11360070). Jurkat T cells (ATCC TIB-152) were cultured in Roswell Park Memorial Institute medium (RPMI

1640, Gibco 31800-105) supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% penicillin–streptomycin, and 4 mM L-glutamine.

Sublines generated from these cell lines were cultured in the same way. Cells were subcultured at a 1:5 or

1:10 ratio every 2–3 days, using trypsin–EDTA (Gibco 25300-054) to remove adherent cells from the plate.

Freestyle 293-F cells were maintained at 37 °C with 8% CO_2 rotating at 135 rpm on a shaking platform

(Infors HT Multitron – I8000A) with orbital diameter 25 mm. HEK293FT, HEK293T Lenti-X, and Jurkat cells

were maintained at 37 °C with 5% CO_2. Freestyle 293F, HEK293FT, HEK293T Lenti-X and Jurkat cells

tested negative for mycoplasma with the MycoAlert Mycoplasma Detection Kit (Lonza LT07-318).

Cell line generation

To generate lentivirus, HEK293T Lenti-X cells were plated in 10 cm dishes at a density of 5×10^6 cells per

dish (6.25×10^5 cells per ml). About 24 h later for Lenti-X, cells were transfected with 10 µg of lentiviral

transfer vector plasmid, 8 µg of psPAX2 second generation lentiviral packaging plasmid, and 3 µg pMD2.G

VSV-G-encoding plasmid via calcium phosphate transfection. Briefly, DNA was diluted with sterile H_2O and

added to $CaCl_2$ (2 M) to achieve a final concentration of 0.3 M $CaCl_2$. DNA-containing samples were then

added dropwise to an equal-volume of 2X HEPES-buffered saline (280 mM NaCl, 0.5 M HEPES, 1.5 mM

Na_2HPO_4) and pipetted four times to mix. After 3–4 min, the solution was vigorously pipetted eight times

and 2 mL of transfection reagent per 10 cm dish was added dropwise to cells. The plates were gently swirled

and incubated overnight at 37°C with 5% CO_2. The medium was replaced the morning after transfection

and cells were incubated for an additional 28–30 h. At 28 h post-medium change, lentivirus was collected

from the conditioned medium. The medium was centrifuged at 500 x g for 2 min to clear cells, and the

supernatant was filtered through a 0.45 µm PES pore filter (VWR). Lentivirus was concentrated from the

filtered supernatant by ultracentrifugation in Ultra Clear tubes (Beckman Coulter 344059) at 100,420 x g at

4 °C in a Beckman Coulter Optima L-80 XP ultracentrifuge using an SW41Ti rotor. The supernatant was

aspirated, leaving virus in ~100 µl final volume (~100X concentration), and concentrated lentivirus was left

on ice for at least 30 min before resuspension, then used to transduce ~1×10^5 cells, plated either at the

time of transduction or on the day before. When appropriate, drug selection began 2 d post transduction,

using antibiotic concentrations of 1 µg ml^{-1} puromycin (Invitrogen ant-pr) on HEK293FT cells or 0.2 µg ml^{-1}

puromycin on Jurkat cells. Cells were kept in antibiotics for at least 2 weeks with subculturing every 1–2 d.

Transfection

For transfection of Freestyle 293-F cells, a transfection protocol previously used to make AAV from

suspension HEK cells was utilized.[51] Briefly, 3 d before transfection cells were plated in fresh FreeStyle 293

Expression Medium at a concentration of 1×10^6 cells per mL. On the day of transfection, Freestyle 293-F

cells were spun at 150g x 5 min and resuspended in fresh FreeStyle 293 Expression Medium. The cells

were counted and plated at a density of 1×10^6 cells per mL. Cells were transfected with 1.5 µg of DNA per

million cells by PEI transfection. Plasmid DNA was added to a volume of room temperature (~20°C)

FreeStyle 293 Expression Medium, corresponding to 5% of the total volume in the flask to be transfected.

The tube was mixed to evenly distribute plasmid DNA. 3 µg of PEI (Polysciences, Inc – 24765) per million

cells was added to the tube and vortexed. The tube was then incubated for 10 min at room temperature to

allow for precomplex formation and then added directly to the flask.

EV-AAV production, isolation, and concentration

Freestyle 293-F producer cell lines were transfected as described in Transfection. For EV-AAVs, the AAV

vector plasmid (transfer), packaging plasmid (rep/cap), and adenoviral helper plasmid (pHelper) were

transfected in equal DNA mass ratios up to the maximum DNA amount for the mixture. In transfections used

to make EV-AAV vectors including two types of EV surface protein, the mass ratio of transfected plasmids

was 1:1:1:1.59:1.41 for the AAV vector plasmid (transfer), packaging plasmid (rep/cap), adenoviral helper

plasmid (pHelper), pMD2.G VSV-G plasmid, and Ultra-HEK plasmid respectively. For control vectors in

which one such EV surface protein was omitted, pcDNA was included instead (at the equivalent DNA mass)

to ensure the same total mass of DNA was transfected into each flask. In experiments comparing various

single EV surface functionalizations, an equivalent mass of plasmid encoding each surface protein was

used, with the remaining mass made up by the AAV vector plasmid (transfer), packaging plasmid (rep/cap),

adenoviral helper plasmid (pHelper) at equivalent mass ratios. For exact DNA doses, see **Supplementary**

Data 3. 3 d after transfection, EV-AAVs were collected from the conditioned medium by differential

centrifugation. Briefly, conditioned medium was cleared of debris by centrifugation at 300 x g for 10 min to

remove cells followed by centrifugation at 2,000 x g for 20 min to remove dead cells and apoptotic bodies

in a Sorvall Legend X1R Centrifuge (ThermoFisher Scientific 75004261) with a TX-400 4 x 400 mL Swinging

Bucket Rotor. All centrifugation steps were performed at 4 °C. The supernatant underwent tangential flow

filtration using a KrossFlo KR2i TFF System with a MICROKROS 20CM 500KD filter (Repligen C02-S500-

05-S). Supernatant was flowed through the system at 24.99 mL/min at a constant transmembrane pressure

of 6.0 psi. The supernatant was concentrated to approximately 5 mL by TFF. In between samples, the TFF

was cleaned with at least 50 mL of 0.2 M NaOH that was sterile filtered by a 0.22 μm bottle top filter (Corning

431118). The system was then washed with at least 100 mL of PBS filtered by a 0.1 μm bottle top filter

(Corning 431475). The TFF system was kept in 0.05% sodium azide (EMD SX0299-1) in H_2O to prevent

contamination. After TFF, the EV-AAVs were further concentrated to approximately 0.5 mL (~800X

concentration) in Amicon Ultra-4 100K Centrifugal Filters (Millipore UFC810024) that were pre-washed with

0.1 μm bottle top filtered PBS. 0.5 mL of concentrated EV-AAVs were treated with Benzonase (25 U/mL,

EMD Millipore 70664) supplemented with $MgCl_2$ at a concentration of 2 mM for 1 h at 37 °C. Samples were

then purified to remove free AAV and other non-EV proteins using one of the methods below.

EV iodixanol purification

Iodixanol gradient purification of EVs was modified from a previous report.[21] Briefly, 1x PBS-MK buffer was

prepared by dissolving 26.3 mg of MgCl2 and 14.91 mg of KCl in 100 mL of 1x PBS. The solution was

sterilized by passing it through a 0.22 μm filter (Corning 431118). 1 M NaCl/PBS-MK buffer was prepared

by dissolving 5.84 g of NaCl, 26.3 mg of MgCl2 and 14.91 mg of KCl in 1X PBS in a final volume of 100

mL. The solution was sterilized by passing it through a 0.22 μm filter (Corning 431118). Three iodixanol

(Sigma Alrich D1556) gradients were prepared from these solutions: 25% iodixanol (5 mL of 60% iodixanol,

7 mL of 1x PBS-MK buffer), 40% iodixanol (6.7 mL of 60% iodixanol and 3.3 mL of 1x PBS-MK buffer) and

60% iodixanol (10 mL of 60% iodixanol). These solutions were layered into UltraClear tubes (Beckman

Coulter 344059) in the following order: 1 mL 60% iodixanol, 3 mL 40% iodixanol, and 5 mL 25% iodixanol.

EVs were layered on top of the 25% iodixanol layer. The tubes were spun in a Beckman Coulter Optima L-

80 XP ultracentrifuge with an SW41 Ti rotor at 190,000 x g for 3 h at 18°C. After the spin, EVs were visible

as a white band in the 25% layer and were removed with a syringe with 18G needle. To remove the iodixanol

from the EVs, EVs were placed in a new UltraClear tube and diluted in PBS. The tubes were spun at

120,000 x g for 90 min at 4 °C to pellet the EVs. After the spin, the supernatant was aspirated, and EV

pellets were left in ~100–200 µl of PBS. EVs were incubated on ice for at least 30 min after supernatant

removal before resuspension in a total of 500 µL of PBS.

EV size exclusion chromatography purification

Size exclusion chromatography was performed using qEVoriginal (35 nm) Gen2 columns (Izon ICO-35)

attached to an Automatic Fraction Collector V1 (Izon). We followed the manufacturer's instructions by

equilibrating the SEC column in PBS sterilized with 0.1 µM bottle top filters (Corning 431475). 0.5 mL of

EVs were placed on the column and EV fractions 1-4 were collected based on the manufacturer's

instructions and a previous report of EV-AAV purification with these SEC columns[25]. Fractions 1-4 were

combined and concentrated to approximately 250 µL in Amicon Ultra-4 100K Centrifugal Filters (Millipore

UFC810024) that were pre-washed with 0.1 µm bottle top filtered PBS.

EV concentration determination by Nanoparticle Tracking Analysis (NTA)

EV concentration was determined by NanoSight analysis. Samples were diluted in PBS sterilized with 0.1

µM bottle top filters (Corning 431475) to concentrations on the order of 10^8 particles per ml for analysis.

NanoSight analysis was performed on an NS300 (Malvern), software version 3.4. Three 30 s videos were

acquired per sample using a 642 nm laser on a camera level of 14, an infusion rate of 30 and a detection

threshold of 7. Default settings were used for the blur, minimum track length and minimum expected particle

size. EV concentrations were defined as the mean of the concentrations calculated from each video. Size

distributions were generated by the software.

AAV crude cell lysate production

AAV was harvested from the Freestyle 293-F cell lysates of cells transfected to make non-targeted EV-

AAVs (no EV surface modifications). Briefly, 72 h post-transfection the EV-AAV containing supernatant was

removed and the cells were resuspended and washed with PBS sterilized with 0.1 µM bottle top filters

(Corning 431475). The cells were spun at 1000 x g for 7 min in a Sorvall Legend X1R Centrifuge

(ThermoFisher Scientific 75004261) with a TX-400 4 x 400 mL Swinging Bucket Rotor. The supernatant

was removed, and the cells were mixed with AAV lysis buffer corresponding to 2% of the initial culture

volume. AAV lysis buffer was made by combining 2 mL of 5 M NaCl, 0.158 g Tris-HCl and H_2O up to 100

mL. The solution was pH-adjusted to 8.5 and sterile filtered by a 0.22 µm bottle top filter (Corning 431118).

The cell pellet resuspended in AAV lysis buffer was then frozen in a bath of dry ice and ethanol, followed

by thawing in a 37°C bead bath. After each thawing the solution was vortexed vigorously for 30 s. The cell

pellet underwent three rounds of freeze/thaws. Benzonase (50 U/mL, EMD Millipore 70664) was added to

the mixture and incubated for 30 min at 37°C. The solution was transferred to 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tubes

and spun at 7000 rpm for 15 min in a microcentrifuge (Eppendorf Centrifuge 5424). The supernatant,

clarified AAV crude lysate, was transferred to a clean microcentrifuge tube and stored at 4°C until further

processing.

AAV purification by iodixanol gradient centrifugation

1x PBS-MK buffer was prepared by dissolving 26.3 mg of MgCl2 and14.91 mg of KCl in 100 mL of 1x PBS.

The solution was sterilized by passing it through a 0.22 µm filter (Corning 431118). 1 M NaCl/PBS-MK buffer

was prepared by dissolving 5.84 g of NaCl, 26.3 mg of MgCl2 and 14.91 mg of KCl in 1X PBS in a final

volume of 100 mL. The solution was sterilized by passing it through a 0.22 µm filter (Corning 431118). Four

iodixanol (Sigma Alrich D1556) gradients were prepared from these solutions: 15% iodixanol (4.5 mL of

60% iodixanol and 13.5 mL of 1 M NaCl/PBS-MK buffer), 25% iodixanol (5 mL of 60% iodixanol, 7 mL of 1x

PBS-MK buffer and 30 µL of phenol red), 40% iodixanol (6.7 mL of 60% iodixanol and 3.3 mL of 1x PBS-

MK buffer) and 60% iodixanol (10 mL of 60% iodixanol and 45 µL of phenol red). These solutions were

layered into UltraClear ultracentrifuge tubes (Beckman Coulter 344059) in the following order: 1.35 mL 60%

iodixanol, 1.35 mL 40% iodixanol, 1.6 mL 25% iodixanol, 2.7 mL 15% iodixanol, and up to 4 mL of AAV

Crude Lysate. The tubes were spun in a Beckman Coulter Optima L-80 XP ultracentrifuge with an SW41 Ti

rotor at 190,000 x g for 3 h at 18°C. AAV was removed by inserting a syringe with 18G needle at the border

between the 60% and the 40% iodixanol fractions, with the needle facing upward to the lower portion of the

40% iodixanol fraction where the viral particles accumulate. The entire 40% iodixanol layer (transparent)

was removed without disturbing the layer of protein contaminants that accumulate at the interphase

between the 40% and 25% iodixanol layers. To remove the iodixanol this layer was mixed 1:1 by volume

with PBS and added to an Amicon Ultra-15 100K spin filter. The spin filter was spun at 3000 x g until the

volume remaining in the column was less than 1 mL. PBS was added to the column to the full volume and

spun at 3000 x g until 1 mL remained in the column. This was PBS washing was repeated 4 more times to

remove iodixanol and concentrate the AAV to its final volume.

AAV purification by magnetic beads

Free AAV was purified using Dynabeads Capture Select AAVX Magnetic Beads (Thermofisher Scientific

2853522001) by the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 40 µL of bead slurry was added to a low protein binding

microcentrifuge tube with 460 µL of PBS. The tubes were placed on a magnetic stand and once the beads

were collected on the side of the tube the supernatant was removed. The beads were then mixed with 500

µL of PBS, the tubes were placed on a magnetic stand, and the supernatant was removed. 1 mL of AAV

crude lysate was added to the beads and the tubes were put on a rotating platform to continuously mix the

beads and lysate for 30 min. After 30 min the beads were collected with the magnetic stand and the

supernatant was removed. 500 µL of PBS was mixed with the beads, the beads were collected on the

magnetic stand, and the supernatant was removed. This PBS wash was repeated again. 20–50 µL of elution

buffer was added to the beads and mixed well. The elution buffer (50 mM citric acid, pH 2.5–3.0) and beads

were incubated at room temperature for 10 min with occasional pipetting. The beads were collected on the

magnetic stand and the supernatant containing purified AAV was collected. The eluted AAV mixture was

neutralized by adding 1 µL of Neutralization Buffer (1 M Tris-HCl, pH 8.7) for each 10 µL of eluate.

Physical titer determination by qPCR

First, 5 µL of the EV-AAV, purified AAV, or clarified crude lysate samples were mixed with 39 µL nuclease-

free H_2O, 5 µL of 10x DNaseI buffer (ThermoFisher B43) and 1 µL of DNaseI (ThermoFisher EN0521) to

eliminate plasmid DNA, incubating at 37°C for 1 h followed by a 15 min inactivation step at 75°C. Samples

were placed on ice. Then, viral genomic DNA (vgDNA) was extracted using the High Pure Viral Nucleic Acid

Kit (Roche 11858874001), following manufacturer instructions. qPCR analysis was performed by amplifying

a sequence within the LumiScarlet reporter using primers CAGGGAGGTTTGACCAGTTT (forward), and

GGATATCGATCTTCAGCCCATT   (reverse)   or   the   mCherry   reporter   using   the   primers

AGGACGGCGAGTTCATCTA (forward), and CCCATGGTCTTCTTCTGCATTA (reverse). Primers were

designed using IDT's PrimerQuest Tool. A plasmid containing the LumiScarlet transgene (pJB035) or

mCherry transgene (pJB040) were used as a standard; serial dilutions were prepared using EASY dilution

(Takara Bio 9160), plating each dilution in duplicate. The vgDNA samples were diluted in nuclease free

H_2O, plating 4 serial dilutions per sample (in duplicate). For each qPCR reaction (each in a 96-well), 5 µL

of vgDNA sample were mixed with 10 µL Universal SYBR Master Mix 2x (ThermoFisher K0221), 0.15 µL

of 100 µM forward primer, 0.15 µL of 100 µM reverse primer, and 4.7 µL of nuclease free H_2O. qPCR plates

were sealed and spun at 500 x g for 2 min before placing in Bio-Rad C1000 Thermal Cycler with CFX96

Real-Time System. Samples run to detect LumiScarlet were heated to 98°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles

of: 98°C for 15 s, 62°C for 30 s. Then, a final step of 0.5°C increments every 5 s from 65°C to 95°C was

performed. Samples run to detect mCherry were heated to 98°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of: 98°C

for 15 s, 55°C for 30 s. Then, a final step of 0.5°C increments every 5 s from 65°C to 95°C was performed.

Transduction assays

For most experiments, EV-AAV or free AAV vectors were diluted in 0.1 µm bottle top filtered PBS so that

100 µL of the dilution contained 10^9 vector genomes. 100 µL of the diluted vector was added to each well

of a 24-well plate. Recipient cells were diluted to 10^4 cells per 900 µL of media and added to the wells with

vector, for a final dosage of 10^5 vector genomes per cell. For the experiments depicted in **Figure 4E-F** and

Figure S17E-F, 2 x 10^9 vector genomes were added per well (2 x 10^5 vector genomes per cell). To provide

some rationale, our initial transduction assays (**Figure 4C-D, Figure S17B-C)** yielded fairly low transduction

efficiencies, so the dose was increased in subsequent experiments (**Figure 4E-F, Figure S17E-F**). Negative

control wells received 100uL of 0.1 µm bottle top filtered PBS. After the addition of all vectors and recipient

cells, the plate was vigorously mixed and placed in an incubator. 5 d post transduction, cells were harvested

for flow cytometry using 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA with phenol red for HEK293FT recipient cells for 5 min

followed by quenching with medium. The resulting cell solution was added to at least 2 volumes of FACS

buffer (PBS pH 7.4, 2–5 mM EDTA, 0.1% BSA) supplemented with DAPI (to identify live cells) at a final

concentration of 3 µM. Jurkat cells were pipetted from the plate directly into FACS tubes containing FACS

buffer supplemented with DAPI. A single FACs tube of PBS treated cells was added to a tube containing

FACS buffer without DAPI to identify live cells (DAPI negative). Cells were centrifuged (150 × g for 5 min),

supernatant was decanted, fresh FACS buffer, with or without DAPI, was added, and cells were

resuspended by briefly vortexing.

For experiments involving lentiviral transduction of HEK293T and HEK293FT by lentiviral vectors including

Ultra-HEK, similar methods were used. Cell lines were harvested, counted, and plated in 96-well, TC

treated, PBS-moated, flat-bottom plates at a density of 10^5 cells/mL in a volume of 100 µL per well (10^4

cells/well). Crude LV supernatant was diluted 5-fold seven times in complete DMEM to generate a seven-

point dilution curve starting from the first dilution. Cells were transduced by adding 100 µL/well of LV (each

dilution) and were incubated for 3 d at 37°C. Before analysis of transduction by flow cytometry, cells were

harvested by aspirating the media, trypsinizing cells for 5 min at room temperature, quenching with

complete DMEM, transferring lifted cells to a non-treated, round-bottom 96-well plate, spinning cells at 150

x g for 5 min, and resuspending in 30 µL of FACS buffer (PBS pH 7.4 with 0.05% BSA and 2 mM EDTA) +

DRAQ7 viability dye (Thermo Fisher D15106, diluted 1000x). DRAQ7 was used to identify live cells (DRAQ7

negative) for analysis.

Microscopy imaging

Microscopy was conducted on a Keyence BZ-X800E fluorescence microscope and a Nikon CFI S Plan

Fluor ELWD 20XC objective (MRH08230). LumiScarlet fluorescence was imaged with a Keyence BZ-X

Filter TexasRed (Keyence, OP-87765). Images were taken using the Keyence BZ Series Viewer Software

(Version 01.03.00.01) in high resolution mode. Scale bars were added to images with the BZ-X800 Analyzer

Software (Version 1.1.2.4).

Transfected producer cell analysis

Freestyle 293-F producer cell lines were transfected as described in Transfection. For each condition, 3

flasks of 20 x 10^6 cells in 20 mL of Freestyle media were plated. Cells were transfected with 30 µg total of

DNA. For each condition and exact DNA doses, see **Supplementary Data 3**. 3 d after transfection, 1 mL

of cells and media were removed from each flask, placed in a FACS tube and spun at 150 x g for 5 min.

The media was removed, and the cells were washed with PBS. The cells were spun at 150 x g for 5 min

and the supernatant was removed. 1 mL of 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS (Thermo Scientific, J61899.AK)

was added to each tube, gently vortexed and fixed for 20 min at room temperature. Cells were then washed

3 times with 1 mL of PBS. After the final wash, cells were resuspended in FACS buffer and analyzed by

flow cytometry.

Cycloheximide (CHX) treatment of recipient cells

1.0×10^5 HEK293FT recipient cells per well in 1 mL of DMEM were plated in 24-well plates the night before

treatment. Treatments (EV-AAV2, No Rep/Cap EVs, free AAV2) were diluted in 0.1 μm bottle top filtered

PBS so that 100 μL of the dilution contained 10^9 vector genomes. No Rep/Cap EVs were dose-matched to

EV-AAV2 by particle count as determined by nanoparticle tracking analysis. 100 μL of the diluted vector

was mixed with 900 μL of DMEM. As a negative control, 100 μL of PBS was mixed with 900 μL of DMEM.

Three groups of plates were made. Group 1 plates were treated with EV-AAV2, No Rep/Cap EVs, free

AAV2 or PBS for 4 h and analyzed by flow cytometry. Group 1 plates were used to measure fluorescence

associated with uptake of EVs at the time of cycloheximide or DMSO treatment. Plates in Group 2 and 3

were treated with EV-AAV2, No Rep/Cap EVs, free AAV2 or PBS for 4 h. After 4 h the media was removed

and replaced with fresh DMEM containing either 20 μg/mL cycloheximide dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide

(DMSO) for Group 2 or DMSO at an equivalent volume for Group 3. 4 h post CHX or DMSO treatment,

Group 2 and Group 3 cells were analyzed by flow cytometry. In each group, the mean PE-Texas Red

fluorescence (AU) was determined across 3 treated wells and normalized to the mean fluorescence of PBS

treated cells within that group to facilitate comparisons across treatment groups.

Lentiviral vector production for Ultra-HEK analysis

Lentivirus (LV) samples were produced in adherent Lenti-X cells seeded at a density of 3.2×10^5 cells/mL

in a volume of 0.5 mL DMEM in 24-well TC-treated plates 24 h prior to transfection. Cells were transfected

with 0.4 μg total DNA comprising 50% transfer vector, 29% gag/pol, 16% rev, and 5% VSV-G for the VSV-

G only composition and 46% transfer vector, 29% gag/pol, 16% rev, 5% VSV-G, and 4% Ultra-HEK for the

VSV-G and Ultra-HEK composition. The transfer vector used encodes constitutive expression of

mNeonGreen. Plasmids used for lentivirus production are Syenex's commercial plasmids: SNX-mNG-TV3,

SNX-Gagpol, SNX-Rev, SNX-VSV-G, and Ultra-HEK. Ultra-HEK is a plasmid designed to increase lentiviral

transduction of HEK293-derived cells. Plasmids and PEI MAX transfection reagent (Polysciences 24765)

were diluted in Opti-MEM and mixed in equal volumes at a 4:1 mass ratio of PEI to DNA and complexed

for 24 min prior to transfection. Medium was changed 12–16 h later. At least 28 h post media change, LV

was harvested from the conditioned medium and centrifuged at 1000 x g for 10 min at 4°C, then aliquoted

and stored at -80°C until use.

Analytical flow cytometry and analysis

Most flow cytometry was performed on a BD LSR Fortessa Special Order Research Product using the

552 nm laser for mCherry or LumiScarlet (610/20 filter) and the 488 nm laser for eGFP or mNeonGreen

(530/30 filter). At least 10,000 live cells were collected per sample for analysis. Data were analyzed using

FlowJo v10 (FlowJo, LLC). Briefly, cells were identified using a forward scatter area (FSC-A) versus side

scatter area (SSC-A) plot and gated for single cells using an FSC-A versus forward scatter height (FSC-H)

plot (**Supplementary Information (Figures S1,S2,S3)**). Freestyle 293 cells were analyzed in the single

cells gate (**Figure S3**). HEK293FT (**Figure S1**) and Jurkat (**Figure S2**) live single cells were identified using

a DAPI-A versus SSC-A plot. Transduction was determined by the percentage of live single cells that were

brighter than approximately the 0.1% of the brightest cells in the untransduced (PBS treated) cell samples

(**Figure S1**). Mixed delivery was quantified by the mean of PE-Texas Red fluorescence of live single cells.

This mean fluorescence intensity was converted to MEPTRs by using UltraRainbow Calibration Particles

(Spherotech). Briefly, to determine the conversion from the arbitrary unit (au) of fluorescence recorded by

the flow cytometer to a standardized fluorescence unit (Molecules of Equivalent PE-TexasRed (MEPTR)),

UltraRainbow Calibration Particles were run as part of each flow cytometry experiment, except the AAV-

LumiScarlet experiment (**Figure 1**). This reagent contains nine subpopulations of beads, each of a specific

size and with a known intensity of various fluorophores, which are provided with calibration data for each

lot. The total bead population was identified by SSC-A vs. FSC-A gating, and subpopulations were identified

through two fluorescent channels (**Figure S4**). A calibration curve was generated for the experimentally

determined au vs. manufacturer supplied MEPTR, and a linear regression was performed with the

constraint that 0 au equals 0 MEPTR (**Figure S4B,** left). The slope from the regression was used as the

conversion factor. For experiments involving the quantification of mNeonGreen fluorescence intensity, the

mean FIT-C fluorescence of live single cells was converted to MEFLs by using UltraRainbow Calibration

Particles (Spherotech). Briefly, to determine the conversion from the arbitrary unit (au) of fluorescence

recorded by the flow cytometer to a standardized fluorescence unit (Molecules of Equivalent Fluorescein

(MEFLs)), UltraRainbow Calibration Particles were run as part of each flow cytometry experiment. A

calibration curve was generated for the experimentally determined au vs. manufacturer supplied MEFL,

and a linear regression was performed with the constraint that 0 au equals 0 MEFL (**Figure S4B,** right).

The slope from the regression was used as the conversion factor.

For experiments involving lentiviral transduction of HEK293T and HEK293FT by Ultra-HEK, similar methods

were used. Flow cytometry was performed on a Novocyte Penteon using the 488 nm laser for mNeonGreen

(525/45 filter) and the 637 nm laser for DRAQ7 (725/40 filter). Approximately 3,000 live cells were collected

per sample for analysis. Data were analyzed using FlowJo v10 (FlowJo, LLC). Briefly, cells were identified

using an FSC-A vs SSC-A plot and gated for singlets using an FSC-A vs FSC-H plot. Live cells were

identified using a DRAQ7 negative gate drawn on a non-DRAQ7-stained sample, and transduced cells

were identified by drawing an mNeonGreen positive gate on a non-transduced sample.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), samples were diluted in PBS sterilized with 0.1 µm bottle top

filters (Corning 431475) to concentrations on the order of 10^8 particles per µL as determined by Nanoparticle

Tracking Analysis. Grids were plasma treated, and 3 µL of diluted sample were placed on the carbon side

of the grid for 30 s. The grids were then briefly washed on 3 droplets of distilled water and placed on a

droplet of stain solution (2% ammonium molybdate) for a few seconds. The staining solution was blotted

off and the grid was placed on a second droplet of staining solution for 30 s. Finally, the excess staining

solution was removed, and the grid was air-dried. Samples were observed with a JEOL 3200FS TEM at an

acceleration voltage of 300 kV. A K2 camera was used for recording images.

Western blots

For western blots comparing protein in cell lysates and protein in vesicles, a fixed number of vesicles and

a fixed mass of cell lysate were loaded into each well: 4.5×10^8 EVs/lane and 2 µg protein/lane,

respectively. An established western blot protocol[48] was followed with the following modifications. In most

cases, the following reducing Laemmli composition was used to boil samples (60 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 10%

glycerol, 2% sodium dodecylsulphate, 100 mM dithiothreitol (DTT) and 0.01% bromophenol blue); in some

cases, a nonreducing Laemmli composition (without DTT) was used, as previously reported[52]. After transfer,

membranes were blocked whilst rocking for 1 h at room temperature in 5% milk in Tris-buffered saline with

Tween (TBST) (pH: 7.6, 50 mm Tris, 150 mm NaCl, HCl to pH 7.6, 0.1% Tween 20). Primary antibody was

added in 5% milk in TBST, rocking, for 1 h at room temperature and then washed three times with TBST

for 5 min each. Secondary antibody in 5% milk in TBST was added at room temperature for 1 h or overnight

at 4°C. Membranes were then washed three times with TBST for 5 min each. The membrane was incubated

with Clarity Western ECL substrate (Bio-Rad, #1705061) and imaged on an Azure c280 running Azure

cSeries Acquisition software v1.9.5.0606. Specific antibodies, antibody dilution, heating temperature,

heating time and Laemmli composition for each antibody was used as previously reported[52].

Statistical analysis

Statistical tests employed are described in relevant figure legends. Unless otherwise stated, three

independent technical replicates were analyzed per condition, and the mean fluorescence intensity of at

least 10,000 live single cells were analyzed per sample. Each figure represents a single experiment that

was repeated (biological replicate) at least twice. Unless otherwise indicated, error bars represent the

standard error of the mean. GraphPad Prism 10 was used to analyze the data. Multicomparison statistical

analysis was performed using a one-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison (i.e.,

honestly significant difference, HSD) test to evaluate specific comparisons. Significance threshold:

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

RESULTS

Distinguishing pseudotransduction from transduction by EV-AAV is challenging

We first sought to quantify the magnitude and dynamics of pseudotransduction for EV-AAV delivery

to HEK293FTs. It is commonly expected that the fluorescence conferred to recipient cells by EV-mediated

delivery of producer cell-derived protein and/or mRNA (i.e., pseudotransduction) will decrease over time

due to protein degradation and/or cell division, while fluorescence originating from transduction (gene

delivery and resulting transgene expression in recipient cells) will persist and increase to steady state.

However, the dynamics of such contributions are poorly explored and are likely to be system specific. To

characterize these phenomena in our model system, we utilized an AAV vector that constitutively expresses

a bright fluorescent protein, LumiScarlet, and we generated both EV-AAV (i.e., heterogeneous preps

expected to contain a mixture of EVs lacking any AAV particle and EVs associated with AAV particles) and

free AAV preparations (**Figure S5**). As a control for pseudotransduction, we included conditions lacking

Rep and Cap genes ("No Rep/Cap"). We sought to investigate both large and small EVs within our EV and

EV-AAV preparations, as both subsets have been shown to incorporate and deliver producer cell-derived

protein to recipient cells[28]. Therefore, a given EV-AAV or No Rep/Cap EV preparation contains both large

and small EVs. We also investigated several EV purification methods, including iodixanol gradient

purification[21,23,24] and size exclusion chromatography[25], reasoning that some fluorescent protein made by

producer cells may be excreted into the media along with free AAVs and EVs, and different EV purification

methods may remove these free proteins to different extents. Both purification methods yielded EVs with

expected protein markers (**Figures S6A,B**), appropriate size distributions (**Figure S6C**), and morphology

by TEM (**Figure S6D**). Purified vectors were dose-normalized (by genome count for EV-AAV and AAV with

No Rep/Cap EVs matched to EV-AAV by particle count) and delivered to HEK293FT cells (which actively

endocytose EVs). Fluorescence was monitored over 7 days by flow cytometry (**Figure 1, Figure S8**) and

microscopy (**Figure S7, Figure S9**). In general, fluorescence attributable to EV-AAV transduction was not

readily distinguished from fluorescence attributable to pseudotransduction (e.g., No Rep/Cap control). Free

AAV2 conferred distinguishable transgene expression in one experiment, which was distinguished by

quantifying the magnitude of fluorescence per cell (**Figure 1A, right**). Representative histograms of

LumiScarlet fluorescence from each sample also demonstrate that fluorescence attributable to EV-AAV

transduction was not readily distinguished from fluorescence attributable to protein delivery (**Figure 1B,**

Figure S8B). We noted that LumiScarlet fluorescence shifts leftward in these histograms over the time

course. Since this trend is observed across conditions, we hypothesize that cell division by these

proliferative HEK293FT cells dilutes both AAV genomes and LumiScarlet protein. Our analyses were

visually confirmed by microscopy (**Figure S7A-C, Figure S9A-C**), in which free AAV2 conferred the

expected whole cell fluorescence associated with de novo transgene expression, while EV conditions

exhibited puncta (which likely indicate the accumulation of multiple EVs in compartments such as

endosomes) that are readily apparent at 3 days post-treatment and remain detectable at 7 days post-

treatment. Transduction is apparent in images of EV-AAV and free AAV treated cells (but not No Rep/Cap

EV treated cells) by day 7, which is identifiable by diffuse and bright fluorescence throughout the cells. Our

analyses indicate that delivered protein is detectable (i.e., as puncta) in recipient cells for up to a week,

such that the time scale for delivered protein depletion and degradation is not readably separated from the

timescale of AAV episomal vector dilution (which may be particularly pronounced in these rapidly dividing

recipient cells). Overall, protein delivery by EV-AAVs may lead to significant pseudotransduction and is

challenging to distinguish from transduction regardless of EV purification method.

A Cre recombinase-based dual reporter system enables discrimination between

pseudotransduction and transduction

To address the challenge of pseudotransduction, we developed a novel Cre recombinase (Cre)-

based system to enable quantitative and unambiguous evaluation of gene and protein delivery by EV-AAVs.

We utilized a Cre-responsive AAV genome encoding a constitutive mCherry fluorescent protein that, upon

recombination, is excised to instead drive expression of a green fluorescent protein.[47] This dual-

fluorescence system enables visualization of producer cell-derived protein and/or mRNA delivery (mCherry)

and transduction (green) in Cre-expressing recipient cells. We initially investigated vector design in this

system using AAV and No Rep/Cap crude lysates; only the former should include transduction-competent

AAV particles (**Figure 2A**). Given a preceding Cre-responsive construct developed for a distinct purpose[47],

we generated several vectors to identify design choices that are useful for this application (**Figure 2B**). We

explored changing the transduction reporter from eGFP to mNeonGreen, hypothesizing that a brighter

fluorophore would help identify transduction. We also hypothesized that removing the nuclear localization

sequences (NLS) from the transduction reporter protein may increase accumulation in the recipient cell,

again facilitating detection. To evaluate these designs, we made Cre-expressing recipient HEK293FT cells

by lentiviral transduction.

We next evaluated the potential of each reporter system to ultimately detect pseudotransduction

and transduction. Each variant was packaged as either AAV2 crude lysate—which should include a mix of

free AAV2 and cell-derived fluorescent protein/mRNA—or a No Rep/Cap crude lysate control which should

include only cell-derived fluorescent protein/mRNA (and no transduction-competent AAV particles). Each

was delivered to Cre-expressing recipient cells or parental cell controls. Removal of the 3 x NLS generally

increased mCherry protein delivery, as expected, since the NLS sequesters some protein in the nucleus of

the producer cells (**Figure 2C, Figure S10A**). Greater mCherry fluorescence was observed in Cre-negative

than Cre-positive recipient cells, in samples treated with AAV2 crude lysate (i.e., which are expected to

include transduction competent AAV2 particles). A plausible explanation is that in recipient cells lacking Cre,

more mCherry gene expression occurs than when Cre is present, because in the former case a larger

fraction of the transgenes delivered by AAV transduction remain unrecombined. This suggests that the

decrease in mCherry expression in Cre+ cells (vs. Cre- cells) is consistent with recombination of the

transgene, switching from mCherry to green fluorescent protein production. The absence of this Cre-

expression-dependence in samples lacking AAV2 particles (i.e., No Rep/Cap conditions) supports this

interpretation. Most importantly, green fluorescent protein was detected only with AAV2 preps (i.e., crude

lysates containing transduction-competent vectors) delivered to Cre-expressing recipient cells (**Figure 2D,**

Figure S10B), validating this reporter system for unambiguously indicating transduction and de novo

transgene expression in recipient cells. Overall, the mNeonGreen vectors conferred higher percentages of

green positive live cells than did eGFP vectors, with the mNeonGreen vector without an NLS performing

the best. On balance, going forward we selected the vector with mNeonGreen and the 3 x NLS, since it

conferred more green-positivity in Cre-expressing recipient cells compared to eGFP vectors (i.e., greater

signal), and it conferred less mCherry fluorescence compared to vectors without an NLS (i.e., lower

background).

We next interrogated several aspects of our reporter system. First, we probed whether any leaky

mNeonGreen expression occurred in producer cells, as spontaneous recombination has been reported in

other Cre responsive plasmids[53,54]. If spontaneous recombination occurs, mNeonGreen protein may be

expressed and loaded into EVs, as could mNeonGreen mRNA, resulting in mNeonGreen detection in

recipient cells. To test this possibility we examined EV-AAV producer cells 3 d after transfection (**Figure**

S11). We observed very low (but detectable) mNeonGreen expression in ~11% of cells transfected with our

AAV plasmids, and a similar frequency was observed in the Stoplight only (No Rep/Cap) condition, such

that this leakiness was not impacted by AAV genome replication and packaging. In contrast, controls

including Cre recombinase in EV-AAV producer cells yielded approximately 60% mNeonGreen positive

cells and much higher magnitudes of mNeonGreen expression. Thus, despite some evidence of

spontaneous recombination of our stoplight plasmid in EV producer cells, not much mNeonGreen protein

is produced during the timescale of our transfections, which helps to explain why no mNeonGreen was

detected in recipient cells except when both AAV and Cre were present (**Figure 2D, Figure S10B**). To

further test this interpretation, we repeated our initial delivery experiment based upon crude lysate (**Figure**

2D, Figure S10B) using SEC purified EVs and purified free AAV (**Figure S12**) and again found that

mNeonGreen transfer (protein and/or mRNA) by EV-AAV preps (and by No Rep/Cap control EVs) is

minimal.

Finally, we explored the source of the mCherry signal observed in recipient cells. mCherry

expression in recipient cells could result from delivery of producer cell derived protein by EVs, producer cell

derived mRNA and subsequent translation in recipient cells, or de novo mCherry produced by the

unrecombined transgene delivered by EV-AAVs. To investigate the possibility that producer cell derived

mRNA contributes to mCherry signal, we utilized a protocol previously used to investigate mRNA delivery

by engineered EVs[44] (**Figure S13A**). Cells were treated with EV-AAVs, No Rep/Cap EVs, or Free AAV and

fluorescence was assessed after 4 hours. As second group of cells were similarly treated with vectors for 4

h, but then 20 μg/mL of the translation inhibitor cycloheximide (CHX) was added and fluorescence was

assessed after another 4 h had elapsed. Overall, there was minimal decrease in fluorescence in cells

treated with cycloheximide and either EV-AAVs or No Rep/Cap EVs compared to DMSO-treated controls

(**Figure S13B,C**). These results suggest that at least at early timepoints, most mCherry fluorescence

observed in recipient cells treated with EVs or EV-AAVs originates from producer cell-derived mCherry

protein. Nonetheless, to encompass the possibility that mCherry signal in recipient cells could derive from

protein delivery, mRNA delivery, and/or AAV delivery (for conditions contain transduction-competent AAV

particles), we henceforth conservatively describe these phenomena collectively as "mixed delivery". We

carried this validated reporter system forward to probe EV-AAV bioengineering questions.

EV-AAV2 surface functionalization substantially increases mixed delivery but not transduction of

HEK293FTs

644   We next investigated how EV functionalization strategies that have been reported to increase

delivery of lentiviruses or EVs impact mixed delivery and transduction by EV-AAV. VSV-G is often used in

pseudotyping lentiviruses[55,56] and EVs[57,58], and it increases the protein delivered by EVs.[58] VSV-G binds to

the LDL receptor (LDL-R) on the surface of recipient cells[30], increasing particle uptake as a result. Within

the low pH of the endosome, VSV-G undergoes conformational changes that enable it to promote fusion

between the viral (or EV) membrane and the endosomal membrane to release the vector's luminal contents

into the cytosol of the recipient cell.[59] To separate the impacts of enhancing uptake and mediating fusion,

we also utilized Ultra-HEK, a commercial product (Syenex) that increases lentiviral transduction of HEK293-

based cells when combined with a fusogen such as VSV-G. Ultra-HEK is described as interacting with

proteins on the surface of recipient HEK293 cells to cause increased uptake of the particle (but not fusion).

In our hands, packing lentiviral vectors with Ultra-HEK led to increased transduction (i.e., functional titer)

for delivery to both HEK293T cells and HEK293FT cells (**Figure 3A–C**).

656   Using our reporter system and this menu of surface functionalization strategies (**Figure 3D, Figure**

S14A), we revisited the question of how driving EV-AAV uptake (and/or fusion) impacts transduction

efficiency. All functionalization strategies increased mixed delivery, as measured by either the magnitude

mCherry fluorescence (**Figure 3E,** left and **Figure S14B,** left) or frequency of mCherry positive cells (**Figure**

3E, right and **Figure S14B,** right), likely due to increased particle uptake by recipient cells. Ultra-HEK

combined with VSV-G functionalization increased mixed delivery to the greatest extent compared to non-

targeted EV-AAV2. Since doses of EV-AAVs were normalized by genome copy, it is possible that equivalent

genome doses comprise distinct numbers of EVs. To exclude the possibility that this could explain the mixed

delivery trend, we plotted mixed delivery by EV dose (in particle count), and we found that this does not

well explain our observations (**Figure S15**). Thus, differences in mixed delivery are best explained by the

biological effects of our functionalization strategies. Interestingly, surface functionalization did not increase

transduction to the same degree as it did protein delivery, with transduction measured by either magnitude

of mNeonGreen fluorescence (**Figure 3F,** left and **Figure S14C,** left) or frequency of mNeonGreen positive

cells (**Figure 3F,** right and **Figure S14C,** right). Only the dual functionalization strategy modestly increased

the amount of transduction of HEKs over non-targeted vectors, and there was no evidence that fusion

mediated by VSV-G enhanced or blocked EV-AAV transduction. Given this comparison, going forward, we

chose metrics that are most aligned with the phenomenon being evaluated. We reasoned that degree of

fluorescence conferred by mixed delivery is a continuous variable, and therefore mean fluorescence

captures variation in that signal. Conversely, transduction is digital (transduced vs. not transduced), even if

transduced cells vary in their degree of mNeonGreen expression; therefore, frequency of mNeonGreen+

cells is the metric most aligned with that measurement. Finally, we noted that the vast majority of cells that

were truly transduced (mNeonGreen+) also were mCherry+ (i.e., mNeonGreen+/mCherry- cells were

vanishingly rare), and this pattern was true across functionalization strategies (**Figure S16**). These findings

led us to investigate whether these trends extend to other serotypes and recipient cells.

EV-AAV6 surface functionalization increases mixed delivery and transduction of Jurkat T cells

We next explored EV-AAV delivery to a cell type with low spontaneous EV uptake. We chose to

use human Jurkat T cells, which are somewhat recalcitrant to EV-based delivery due (at least in part) to

low endocytosis.[28] We transduced Jurkats with the Cre recombinase gene to make a recipient line

compatible with our dual reporter system. We used AAV6 as it infects both primary T cells[60] and Jurkats[61].

We focused on VSV-G functionalization which mediates lentiviral transduction of T cells via LDL-R binding

and uptake (**Figure 4A, Figure S17A**).[62] Similar to HEK293FT delivery (**Figure 3, Figure S14**), VSV-G

functionalization increased mixed delivery to Jurkats compared to non-targeted EV-AAV6 (**Figure 4B,**

Figure S17B). Surprisingly, and unlike in HEK293FT recipient cells, VSV-G functionalization also increased

transduction of Jurkats (**Figure 4C, Figure S17C**).

This led us to investigate what mechanism conferred by VSV-G (uptake vs. fusion) contributed to

increased transduction. We employed two VSV-G mutants to dissect these mechanisms (**Figure 4D, Figure**

S17D). P127D retains the ability to bind to LDL-R but is deficient in membrane fusion.[49,63,64] Conversely,

mutations K47Q-R354A block LDL-R binding but still enable VSV-G to confer membrane fusion.[65-67] Wild-

type (WT) and P127D VSV-G functionalization resulted in more mixed delivery than did K47Q-R354A or

non-targeted vectors (**Figure 4E, Figure S17E**). Interestingly, the K47Q-R354A VSV-G conferred less

transduction than did the WT or P127D VSV-G vectors, indicating that binding to LDL-R on recipient cells

is the dominant mechanism by which VSV-G increases transduction of Jurkat T cells (**Figure 4F, Figure**

S17F). Notably, P127D VSV-G, which is fusion incompetent, conferred more transduction than did VSV-G

WT vectors. Altogether, these results may indicate that for EV-AAV6 delivery to Jurkats, increased LDL-R

binding increases particle uptake and transduction, while membrane fusion limits transduction.

702   We next investigated whether the trend of double positive cells we observed in our HEK delivery

experiments (**Figure S16)** held for Jurkat delivery experiments (**Figure S18**). We utilized the mutant VSV-

G data sets to explore this question. Surprisingly, and contrasting with our HEK delivery experiments, most

truly transduced Jurkat cells (mNeonGreen+) were mCherry- (**Figure S18B,C).** This difference may be

explained by the relatively low uptake (endocytosis) rate of EVs by Jurkats compared to HEKs, as

evidenced by the low frequency of mixed delivery signal overall compared to HEKs. Additionally, the vectors

with functionalization that improves uptake (VSV-Gwt and P127D) demonstrated more cells that were

double positive than the uptake incompetent vectors (VSV-G K47Q 354A and non-targeted). Overall, this

analysis illustrates how the stoplight vector enables one to probe multiple aspects of delivery and compare

across cell types.

Recipient cell type but not capsid serotype drives the impact of functionalization on EV-AAV delivery

714   To reconcile the distinct patterns observed in our HEK293FT and Jurkat delivery experiments, we

investigated whether differences are driven primarily by recipient cell type or AAV serotype. We chose to

investigate transducing HEK293FT cells with AAV6 since AAV6 is much less efficient at infecting

HEK293FTs compared to AAV2.[61] This difference may be due to differences in receptor density on the

surface of HEKs. AAV2 primarily uses heparan sulfate proteoglycan to mediate binding and uptake by

recipient cells.[68] In contrast, AAV6 primarily uses sialic acid as its receptor[68], which may be less abundant

or accessible on HEK293 cells compared to heparan sulfate proteoglycan. Therefore, we hypothesized that

increasing uptake of EV-AAV6 (e.g., via VSV-G functionalization) would increase transduction compared to

both non-targeted EV-AAV6 or free AAV6 (**Figure 5A, Figure S19A**). VSV-G functionalization increased

mixed delivery compared to non-targeted EV-AAV6, as expected (**Figure 5B, Figure S19B**). However,

VSV-G mediated uptake (and fusion) did not increase transduction by EV-AAV6 (**Figure 5C, Figure S19C**),

as was seen for EV-AAV2 (**Figure 3F, Figure S14D**). Thus, increasing uptake and membrane fusion in a

cell type that is permissible to EV delivery, such as HEK293FTs, did not increase transduction, regardless

of AAV capsid choice. With the set of conditions evaluated, EV surface functionalization strategies conferred

cell type-dependent but not capsid-dependent effects on transduction by EV-AAVs.

DISCUSSION

Engineered EVs are promising delivery vehicles for AAV vectors, enabling tissue-specific targeting and

neutralizing antibody evasion. However, analyzing and bioengineering such vectors is made challenging by

the difficulty associated with distinguishing pseudotransduction from transduction. To address this need, in

this study we developed and validated a new assay that unambiguously distinguishes transduction from

mixed delivery (including pseudotransduction), while enabling quantification of both phenomena. This

assay helped to generate new insights that inform both interpretation of past studies and identify

opportunities for future investigation.

Our observations provide new insights that help to interpret apparent contradictions in the EV-AAV

literature. A prior report indicated that pseudotyping EV-AAV2 with VSV-G decreased the transduction of

HEK293 cells compared to non-targeted EV-AAV2.[69] Notably, this analysis employed a luminescence-

based plate reader assay, and it may have been confounded by pseudotransduction artifacts. Our results

suggest that VSV-G neither improves, nor hinders EV-AAV2 transduction of HEKs (**Figure 3**, **Figure S14**).

Interestingly, our results suggest that VSV-G does improve transduction of EV-AAV6 in Jurkats by

increasing particle uptake (**Figure 4, Figure S17**). Overall, our work suggests that the effects of surface

functionalization on EV-AAV transduction is cell type dependent.

Some previous studies report that EV-AAVs are more potent than AAV vectors for *in vivo* delivery (on

a per genome basis)[14-16,22], but other work focused on delivery to neuronal and primary astrocyte cell

cultures seemingly contradicts this finding[70]. It is possible that improved *in vivo* efficacy of EV-AAV particles

is primarily attributable not to the enhanced interaction between the AAV and the target cells, but rather to

shielding of AAVs from neutralizing antibodies and/or biodistribution effects such as increased circulation

time or improved delivery through tissue barriers. Our observations add another layer of possible

explanation, given our finding that target cell type and capsid choice may impact the efficacy of EV-AAV

compared to free AAV. Free AAV2 was significantly more potent for transduction in HEK293FTs compared

to non-targeted EV-AAV2 (**Figure 3, Figure S14**). However, non-targeted EV-AAV6 outperformed (**Figure**

5) or was equivalent to (**Figure S19**) free AAV6 in transduction in HEK293FTs. This suggests that capsid

choice may impact the relative transduction efficacy of EV-AAV and free AAV. EV-AAV6 was not statistically

significantly different from free AAV6 in transduction of Jurkat T cells (**Figure 4, Figure S17**), further

suggesting that the capsid choice may impact efficacy comparisons between EV-AAV and free AAV. Overall,

our findings indicate that the impact of EV-encapsulation of AAV confers case-specific effects that should

be evaluated for each application, and which may drive application-specific bioengineering.

This study focused on identifying high level determinants of functional delivery, yet it also identified

opportunities for further subsequent mechanistic investigations. Pseudotransduction was more evident in

HEK293FT recipient cells, which actively endocytose EVs, compared to Jurkat recipient cells, which exhibit

less endocytosis. Increasing EV uptake via surface functionalization also increased pseudotransduction in

both cell types. Increasing the uptake of EV-AAV to HEK293FT recipient cells, both with or without

promoting membrane fusion, increased mixed delivery, but this did not substantially increase transduction

for either EV-AAV2 or EV-AAV6. However, VSV-G functionalization of EV-AAV6 increased both mixed

delivery and transduction of Jurkat T cells, and this effect was driven primarily by increased uptake rather

than fusion; indeed, blocking VSV-G-mediated fusion via the P127D mutant enhanced transduction. The

basis for these differences is not known, but a possible explanation is that AAV requires processing in the

endosome—including capsid cleavage by endosomal cathepsins[31] and acidification-mediated

autoproteolytic processing[32]—to expose a phospholipase domain promoting virion escape and subsequent

nuclear trafficking[33,34]. In prior work, microinjection of AAV2 particles directly into the cytosol resulted in no

nuclear trafficking and subsequent transduction[71], suggesting that endosomal processing of the AAV capsid

is required for successful transduction. This requirement is well-characterized for free AAV2 and may extend

to other serotypes.

Combining these observations enables one to propose potential explanatory mechanisms as to how

different EV surface functionalizations impact transduction. First, it is possible that VSV-G confers improved

EV-AAV6 uptake by Jurkats, overcoming one barrier to delivery, but VSVG-mediated membrane fusion

circumvents the endosomal processing of the AAV6 capsid that is required to complete transduction. Thus,

the VSV-G P127D mutant balances these effects to benefit delivery to T cells. It would be informative to

probe how each step in capsid processing is impacted by encapsulation in EVs, and how such processing

steps may differentially impact AAV particles on the EV surface versus the EV interior. In addition, directly

tracking internalization of both receptors and particles could help to test the mechanisms offered as

speculative explanations here. A second, non-exclusive hypothesis for explaining improved transduction of

Jurkats by EVs functionalized with the VSV-G P127D mutant is that this vector confers enhanced EV uptake

compared to WT VSV-G, as evidenced by increased mixed delivery signal (**Fig 4E** and **Fig S17E**). No such

mechanism is yet known, but it is possible that the P127D mutant is expressed at higher levels on EVs, is

internalized more rapidly, or drives different trafficking after uptake. A final non-exclusive hypothesis

involves innate immune activation. It is possible that WT VSV-G induces membrane fusion to prompt or

enhance innate immune responses such as interferon production, which dampen transgene expression in

cells transduced by AAV[72]. Elucidating such contributors to successful delivery (e.g., transgene expression

magnitude as a function of vgDNA dose) could build upon these observations to improve EV-AAV

engineering.

It will be interesting to extend these studies to the many AAV capsid variants that exist, including natural

serotypes as well as novel forms developed through directed evolution and protein engineering[73], and to a

variety of recipient cell types including those which endocytose EVs more readily than do HEK293FTs[74].

This work could also enable new AAV bioengineering campaigns specific to enhancing EV-AAV delivery,

such as exploring mutations that destabilize the capsid structure to enhance transduction after EV fusion

and delivery of the AAV core to the cytosol, bypassing endosomal processing.

There exist a number of opportunities for extending the approaches and methods reported here to study

aspects of EV biology beyond those probed in this investigation. First and foremost, there exist many

different methods for producing and purifying EV-AAV particles, and choice of method is likely to affect the

biology, composition, and function of the resulting particles. Our EV harvesting method utilized differential

centrifugation to remove cells (300 g x 10 min) and cell debris/apoptotic bodies (2000 g x 20 min), followed

by tangential flow filtration to concentrate the supernatant. This choice intentionally includes a mixture of

EVs in our samples (our EV characterizations by nanoparticle tracking analysis, western blots, and TEM

(**Figure S6**) demonstrate the purity of our preparations). Although the MISEV2023 guidelines for EV

research indicate that EV preparations pelleted at different centrifugation speeds (i.e., "small" and "large"

EVs) contain EVs with overlapping size profiles[75], and EVs are heterogenous in size and associated

contents regardless of purification method[76,77], it would nonetheless be interesting to employ our stoplight

assay to evaluate whether EV-AAV fractions that pellet at different speeds, or which are isolated with

different purification methods, confer different levels of pseudotransduction and transduction. Our EV-AAV

preparations certainly contain both EVs that lack AAV and EVs that are associated with AAV.[17] If methods

to isolate EVs containing AAVs were available, and to segregate by EV-surface versus EV-interior loading

of AAV, it would be particularly interesting to analyze how these subsets contribute to transduction and

pseudotransduction. It would also be interesting to study how EV-AAV delivery phenomena change over a

broader dose range. In our studies, the MOI as defined by transducing units per cell is rather low, such that

we were far from the saturating regime of EV-AAV transduction. Accessing that higher MOI regime could

be made feasible through improvements such as recently reported methods for enhancing AAV loading into

EVs.[38] Each of these represents an opportunity for leveraging our stoplight method to improve

understanding of EV-AAV mediated delivery.

Our analysis provides an opportunity to speculate as to how pseudotransduction may, or may not,

influence other investigations of EV-AAV. Many *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies of EV-AAVs have been

performed, delivering transgenes including luciferases, fluorescent proteins, and therapeutic genes. A

potential factor in detecting pseudotransduction by EV-AAVs is the half-life of the transgenic protein in

recipient cells. EV-AAV preparations encoding firefly luciferase but lacking the capsid protein (equivalent to

our No Rep/Cap EV samples) have previously been compared to EV-AAV-FLuc (with the capsid protein) in

transduction of HELA cells[23]. Capsid-less EV-AAV-FLuc conferred low FLuc activity (2-fold above

background levels) whereas EV-AAV conferred 9-fold higher FLuc activity compared with the capsid-less

EV-AAV genomes. Since this suggests a lower degree of pseudotransduction, it is possible that compared

to FLuc, fluorescent proteins may resist degradation in the endosomal lysosomal compartment (which is

distinct from half-life measured in the cytosol). Thus, choice of reporter transgene may mitigate, but not

necessarily avoid, pseudotransduction artifacts, at least on the relatively short time scales of *in vitro* delivery

835 experiments using rapidly dividing cells (where dilution of AAV genomes constrains the time one can wait

836 post-delivery to analyze transduction). Our stoplight system may be particularly enabling for such

837 experiments.

838  An exciting prospect is extending this assay for *in vivo* EV-AAV delivery analyses. The stoplight vector

839 inspiring our approach was originally employed to detect Cre expression *in vivo*[47]. Given that transgenic

840 animals can be engineered to express Cre in a tissue-restricted or general fashion[78], our assay could be

841 employed to unambiguously identify EV-AAV transduction *in vivo*. Such a capability could be particularly

842 useful for directly comparing AAV and EV-AAV-mediated delivery, and for enabling comparative evaluation

843 of bioengineering approaches, *in vivo* multiplexed screening, and other efforts for which pseudotransduction

844 is misleading or reduces signal-to-noise to preclude feasibility. Because most *in vivo* studies of EV-AAV

845 wait days to weeks after EV-AAV treatment to analyze transduction, pseudotransduction artifacts may have

846 diminished by the time of analysis, but that is unproven and merits examination, especially for slow-dividing

847 recipient cells. This stoplight tool could probe whether pseudotransduction is indeed negligible, and even if

848 it is, this tool could enable faster, unambiguous evaluation of *in vivo* transduction. We expect that the

849 methods and findings presented here can help advance the understanding and use of EV-AAV vectors for

850 diverse gene delivery applications.

852 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

853 J.D.B., D.M.S., N.P.K., D.T.E., and J.N.L. conceived the initial project. J.D.B. performed the experiments.

854 D.M.S. and H.I.E. performed the Ultra-HEK lentiviral vector experiment. J.D.B. and J.N.L. planned and

855 analyzed experiments. J.D.B and J.N.L. wrote the manuscript. J.N.L. supervised the work.

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DECLARATION OF INTERESTS STATEMENT

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1092   **FIGURES**

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Figure 5

FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1: EV-AAV pseudotransduction complicates distinguishing true transduction. (A) EV-AAV-mediated protein delivery, mRNA and/or expression in HEK293FT recipient cells. Vector compositions and EV-AAV purification methods employed to separate EVs and free AAV are summarized in cartoons at left. Free AAV (which should confer minimal pseudotransduction) conferred significantly greater fluorescence than did EV-AAV controls. EV-AAV vectors were generally similar to the No Rep/Cap (protein delivery only) control at all time points post-delivery. **(B)** Representative histograms of LumiScarlet fluorescence from samples reported in (A). No subpopulations are apparent that can rigorously distinguish protein delivery from transduction. Experiments were performed in biological triplicate. Data shown are from one of two independent experiments (second experiment: **Figures S8**,**9**). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Multicomparison statistical analysis was performed using a two-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test to evaluate specific comparisons (****$p < 0.0001$). ns; not significant; PBS: phosphate-buffered saline; SEC: size exclusion chromatography.

Figure 2: A Cre recombinase-based dual reporter system distinguishes mixed delivery and transduction. (A) Schematic depicting the expected function of the stoplight dual-reporter system in which Cre expressed in recipient cells acts upon incoming AAV genomes to switch them from expression of a red reporter to a green reporter. Free AAV mediates transduction only (green); EV-AAV mediates both mixed delivery (red) and transduction (green) and sometimes both (yellow); No Rep/Cap EVs can only mediate mixed delivery (red). **(B)** Cre-responsive plasmids evaluated in this experiment. **(C,D)** Mixed delivery (C) and transduction (D) conferred by various vector compositions. Note: some mCherry gene expression could occur in recipient cells prior to Cre-mediated recombination (or in the possible absence of recombination), such that (C) includes both mixed delivery and this ambiguous de novo gene expression. Samples were normalized to include 1e9 vector genomes per well (for AAV crude lysate conditions) or a volume-equivalent of the AAV2 crude lysate condition for No Rep/Cap crude lysate conditions (10^4 recipient cells). Experiments were performed in biological triplicate. One of two independent experiments is shown (second experiment: **Figure S10**). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Multicomparison statistical analysis was performed using a two-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test to evaluate specific

1137 comparisons (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). NLS: nuclear localization sequence; ns:

1138 not significant; PBS: phosphate-buffered saline.

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Figure 3: EV-AAV2 functionalization increases mixed delivery but not transduction of HEK293FTs.

(A-C) Validation of Ultra-HEK (Syenex) for enhancing lentiviral delivery to HEK293T and HEK293FT cells.

Relative fold-improvements in functional titer compared to a standard VSV-G-pseudotyped lentiviral vector

are indicated. (**D**) Schematic depicting vectors used in (E,F) (Cre-HEK293FT recipient cells). (**E,F**) Mixed

delivery quantified by mean fluorescence in MEPTRs (left) and frequency of mCherry positive cells (right)

(E) and transduction quantified by mean fluorescence in MEFLs (left) and frequency of mNeonGreen

positive cells (right) (F) to HEK293FT cells (5 days post-delivery). Samples were normalized to include 1e9

vector genomes per well for each condition (10^4 recipient cells). VSV-G and Ultra-HEK-functionalized EV-

AAV increase mixed delivery but only modestly increase transduction and only when combined.

Experiments were performed in biological triplicate. One of two independent experiments is shown (second

experiment: **Figure S15**). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Multicomparison statistical

analysis was performed using a one-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test to

evaluate specific comparisons (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). PBS: phosphate-

buffered saline.

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Figure 4: VSV-G functionalization of EV-AAV6 increases transduction and mixed delivery to Jurkat

T cells by increasing uptake. (A) Schematic depicting vectors used in (B,C) (Cre-Jurkat T cell recipient

cells). (**B,C**) Mixed delivery (B) and transduction (C) in Jurkat T cells (5 days post-delivery). Samples were

normalized to include 1e9 vector genomes per well for each condition (10^4 recipient cells). VSV-G

functionalization significantly increases mixed delivery to and transduction of Jurkats. **(D)** Schematic

depicting vectors used in (E,F) (Cre-Jurkat T cell recipient cells). (**E,F**) Mixed delivery (E) and transduction

(F) in Jurkat T cells (5 days post-delivery). Samples were normalized to include 2e9 vector genomes per

condition (10^4 recipient cells). VSV-G functionalization significantly increases mixed delivery and

transduction of Jurkats. Mixed delivery and transduction are increased only by enhanced binding of

recipient cells (VSV-G WT and VSV-G P127D vectors). Experiments were performed in biological triplicate.

Data shown are from one of two independent experiments (second experiments in **Figure S18**). Error bars

indicate standard error of the mean. Multicomparison statistical analysis was performed using a one-way

ANOVA test, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test to evaluate specific comparisons (*$p < 0.05$,

**$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). PBS: phosphate-buffered saline.

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Figure 5: Determinants of EV-AAV delivery to HEK293FT cells apply across two AAV serotypes. (A)

Schematic depicting vectors used in (B,C) (Cre-HEK293FT recipient cells). (**B,C**) Mixed delivery (B) and

transduction (C) to HEK29FT cells (5 days post-delivery). Samples were normalized to include 1e9 vector

genomes per well for each condition (10^4 recipient cells). VSV-G functionalization enhances mixed delivery

but not transduction by EV-AAV6, concordant with observations made using EV-AAV2. Experiments were

performed in biological triplicate. One of two independent experiments is shown (second experiment:

Figure S20). Error bars indicate standard error of the mean. Multicomparison statistical analysis was

performed using a one-way ANOVA test, followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test to evaluate specific

comparisons (*$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$, ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$). PBS: phosphate-buffered saline.

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