How endosomal PIKfyve inhibition prevents viral membrane fusion and entry

Nicholas Chow[1,$], Gustavo Scanavachi[1,2,3,$], Anand Saminathan[1,2,$] and Tom Kirchhausen[1,2,3,*]

[1]Program in Cellular and Molecular Medicine, Boston Children's Hospital, 200 Longwood Ave, Boston, MA 02115, USA
[2]Department of Cell Biology, Harvard Medical School, 200 Longwood Ave, Boston, MA 02115, USA
[3]Department of Pediatrics, Harvard Medical School, 200 Longwood Ave, Boston, MA 02115, USA

[$]Equal contribution

[*] Corresponding author:
Tom Kirchhausen. Ph.D.
Harvard Medical School
200 Longwood Ave
Boston, MA 02115
kirchhausen@crystal.harvard.edu
phone: +1 617 713 8888 / fax: +1 617 713 8898

Running title: *Swollen Endosomes Block Productive Viral Fusion and Entry*

Key words: *Viral Entry, PIKfyve Inhibition, Endosomal Fusion, Membrane Tension, Lattice Light-Sheet Microscopy*

ABSTRACT

Enveloped viruses enter cells by membrane fusion. The viral membrane fuses with a host membrane, either at the cell surface or within endocytic compartments. For endocytic entry, fusion is typically triggered by low pH and often requires proteolytic priming by compartment-specific host proteases, which together define the site and mechanism of fusion and shape viral tropism.

Inhibition of the lipid kinase PIKfyve, which generates PI(5)P and PI(3,5)P_2 in late endosomes and lysosomes, swells those compartments and blocks infection by a subset of enveloped viruses, including Ebola virus, Marburg virus, coronaviruses (SARS-CoV-2), and VSV chimeras bearing Ebola, SARS-CoV-2, or Lassa glycoproteins, while showing minor effects on H1N1 influenza and no effect on VSV or VSV–rabies chimeras. In the work reported here, we have determined the basis for this selectivity.

We show that swelling of late endosomes/lysosomes, independent of changes in lipid composition or altered virion trafficking, is sufficient to block virus–endosome fusion and genome release, even when endosomal acidity is preserved. Acute PIKfyve inhibition with apilimod or brief hypotonic treatment produced endosomal swelling and impaired infection by interrupting a late endosomal entry step. Imaging by live-cell 3D lattice light-sheet fluorescence microscopy tracked fluorescent virions accumulating and arresting in late endosomes prior to fusion, and single-cell, single-round assays confirmed loss of infectivity.

These data support a simple biophysical mechanism: endo-lysosomal swelling, likely increasing endosomal membrane tension, creates an energy barrier to fusion and genome release. Inducing such swelling may offer a general strategy to inhibit viruses that depend on late endosomal entry.

INTRODUCTION

Enveloped viruses initiate infection by fusing their membrane with a host-cell membrane, delivering their genetic material into the cytosol (see review [1]). This fusion can occur at the plasma membrane or within endocytic compartments. For many viruses, including filoviruses and coronaviruses that rely on endocytosis, fusion is typically triggered by low endosomal pH and often requires proteolytic priming of viral glycoproteins by endosomal resident host proteases; for some, an additional host factor in the endolysosomal compartment is required (see reviews [2–5]). These spatial and pH dependencies define the site and mechanism of fusion during the early steps of infection, and, ultimately, determine viral tropism and infectivity.

PIKfyve, a lipid kinase on late endosomal and lysosomal membranes, generates phosphatidylinositol 3,5-bisphosphate [$PI(3,5)P_2$]. Its depletion or pharmacological inhibition produces enlarged late endosomes and lysosomes [6–9] and blocks early steps of infection by a subset of enveloped viruses. PIKfyve inhibition blocks infection by a various enveloped viruses at early stages of entry. For example, apilimod inhibits GP-mediated entry of filoviruses and SARS-CoV-2, both for authentic viruses and for VSV- or lentivirus-based pseudotypes, without affecting virion uptake or bulk endosomal acidification [10,11]. Vacuolin-1, which also targets PIKfyve, similarly suppresses single-cycle infection by VSV chimeras bearing Ebola or SARS-CoV-2 glycoproteins by preventing fusion and genome delivery from endolysosomal compartments [11]. Other PIKfyve-directed compounds, including YM201636, the selective probe SGC-PIKFYVE-1, and a dual PIKfyve/PIP5K1C inhibitor, inhibit early infection by parental African swine fever virus, enteroviruses, and β-coronaviruses, as well as by SARS-CoV-2 spike–pseudotyped virions [12–15]. Together, these observations support the view that PIKfyve-activity at late endosomes and lysosomes is a common requirement for successful viral entry. In contrast, PIKfyve inhibition has only modest effects on H1N1 influenza virus infection[16] and little or no effect on viruses whose entry occurs in early endosomes, such as VSV and VSV particles bearing rabies virus G (VSV–RABV) [11].

A recent study identified LYVAC (PDZD8) as the ER-anchored lipid transfer protein that mediates ER-to-lysosome lipid transfer at ER–endolysosome contact sites, enabling osmotic membrane expansion [17]. In the absence of LYVAC, apilimod fails to induce lysosomal swelling, supporting a model in which vacuolation depends on lipid transfer and the consequent increase in membrane tension, rather than on loss of PI3P or $PI(3,5)P_2$. We therefore tested the hypothesis that the antiviral effect of PIKfyve inhibition by apilimod arises primarily from a mechanical constraint on

fusion, rather than from a block in endosomal trafficking or a change in endosomal
phosphoinositide composition. We combined quantitative infectivity assays with high-precision,
live-cell three-dimensional fluorescence microscopy to track single virions, allowing direct
comparison of the effects of apilimod on VSV, VSV–ZEBOV, and VSV–SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Because these viruses share an identical VSV backbone, differences in apilimod sensitivity must
arise from how their entry steps respond to perturbation of PIKfyve activity rather than from
downstream replication events. Entry of VSV is mediated by its G protein and requires no further
proteolysis for activation. Following clathrin-mediated endocytosis, acidification in early and
early–late endosomes triggers a conformational change in G that drives membrane fusion. In
contrast, VSV–ZEBOV requires two sequential processing steps of its GP: cleavage during
biosynthesis, followed by cathepsin-mediated trimming in late endosomes or lysosomes to
expose the NPC1-binding site. VSV–SARS-CoV-2 likewise depends on sequential proteolysis of
its spike protein, furin cleavage at S1/S2 during maturation, followed by TMPRSS2- or cathepsin-
mediated cleavage at S2′ and on endosomal acidification.

We show here that endosomal swelling, induced either by apilimod or by hypoosmotic
challenge, correlates with inhibition of viral fusion, but only for VSV–ZEBOV or VSV–SARS-
CoV-2 virions that reach and attempt fusion within swollen compartments. VSV, which enters
from early endosomes that do not swell, escapes this inhibition, as does a subpopulation of
VSV–SARS-CoV-2 virions that fuse in early endosomes. We suggest that under these swelling
conditions, endolysosomes accumulate solute and water and increase their volume without a
fully compensatory increase in membrane area. The resulting rise in membrane tension will
oppose the local membrane remodeling required for fusion [1]. Increased membrane tension in
swollen compartments thus imposes a physical barrier to fusion and thereby accounts for the
selective sensitivity of certain viruses to PIKfyve inhibition.

RESULTS

Apilimod inhibits infection by VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV but not by VSV-eGFP

We first confirmed that infection by VSV-SARS-CoV-2 or VSV-ZEBOV requires PIKfyve activity, whereas infection by VSV-G does not. We inoculated Vero cells not expressing TMPRSS2 with three recombinant VSVs: (i) VSV-eGFP-G, which expresses soluble eGFP and the parental VSV G protein; (ii) VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2, which expresses soluble eGFP and in which the SARS-CoV-2 spike replaces G; and (iii) VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV, which expresses eGFP fused to the viral matrix protein (M) and carries the Zaire ebolavirus GP instead of G. All three viruses deliver their genomes into the cytosol by low pH–triggered fusion from endosomal compartments following endocytosis [11].

We measured infectivity in Vero cells using a single-cell imaging assay that reports expression of virally encoded cytosolic eGFP or MeGFP [11], following the incubation protocol shown in Fig. 1A. To assess the role of endosomal PIKfyve on infection, we treated the Vero cells with apilimod, a selective inhibitor of PIKfyve lipid kinase activity. As shown in Figs. 1B-D, apilimod fully inhibited infection by VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV but had no effect on VSV-eGFP-G.

Compartment-specific endosomal swelling

Apilimod treatment of SVG-A cells co-expressing fluorescent chimeras of mScarlet-EEA1 (a marker of early endosomes) and NPC-1-Halo (a marker of late endosomes and lysosomes) causes swelling of the latter compartment(s), but not of the former [11]. We confirmed here that we can detect this compartment-specific swelling in SVG-A cells by lattice light-sheet microscopy (LLSM) (Fig. S1). After apilimod treatment, endosomes labeled with mScarlet alone remained as small, diffraction limited puncta, while those labeled with NPC-1-Halo, as well as those containing both labels, became substantially enlarged.

We examined dose dependence of enlargement as follows. We loaded cells with Alexa Fluor 568-labeled dextran (Dextran-AF568), which accumulates in late endosomes and lysosomes, and measured the radii of individual endolysosomes across a range of apilimod concentrations (Fig.2). In untreated cells, late endosomes and lysosomes had a narrow distribution of radii centered at ~0.5μm (range 0.3-1.0μm: Fig. 2 B,C). Apilimod induced a concentration-dependent increase in radius, yielding a bimodal distribution with peaks centered at ~0.75μm

and at ~1.25µm. Applying a 90th percentile cutoff (0.725µm) to score a position as "swollen"

yielded the dose-dependent frequency of enlargement shown in Fig. 2 C,D).

Apilimod-induced late-endosomal swelling inhibits entry of VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV and

VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 but not of VSV itself

We verified that incoming VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV particles reach NPC-1 compartments under our

experimental conditions by using LLSM with genome-edited SVG-A cells expressing NPC1-Halo

[11] labelled with Janelia Fluor 646 HaloTag. Cells were exposed to virions for 10 min, washed, and

imaged 40 min or 4 hrs. later at 37 °C, according to the protocol in Fig. 3A. At a multiplicity of

infection (MOI) of ~0.5, each cell imaged at 40 min post inoculation contained 25–30 fluorescent

virions in NPC1-positive compartments (Fig. 3B, D). Productive genome entry, monitored by the

appearance of MeGFP fluorescence at the nuclear margin [11], was apparent 4 h post-inoculation

(Fig. 3E) but not 50 min post-inoculation (Fig. 3B). These observations are consistent with the

expectation that ZEBOV GP fuses from late endosomes [18,19].

In the presence of 5 uM apilimod, virions trafficked efficiently to NPC1-positive compartments

within 50 minutes (Fig. 3C, D), despite pronounced late endosome and lysosome enlargement,

showing that PIKfyve inhibition had not disrupted traffic from the cell surface. At 4 hr post-

inoculation, however, the apilimod-treated cells showed no MeGFP signal at the nuclear periphery

(Fig. 3F) and failed to support infection (Fig. 3G). That is, PIKfyve inhibition blocked viral genome

release from a (swollen) late endosomal compartment, in agreement with our published

observations [11]. Infection efficiency decreased with increasing apilimod concentration and

endosomal swelling (Fig. 2E, G), further supporting the conclusion that late endosomal

enlargement impairs fusion and genome release.

VSV–SARS-CoV-2 entry can proceed through either a full low-pH and cathepsin-dependent

stage, in cells lacking TMPRSS2, or a pathway requiring activation by TMPRSS2 on the cell

surface [20–22]. SARS-CoV-2 entry is apilimod sensitive in cells that lack TMPRSS2 (Fig. 1C), but

only partially so in cells that express the protease [23] (Fig. 4, 0% hypo). Thus, when TMPRSS2 is

present, the virus appears to follow both entry pathways, and fusion can occur either at the plasma

membrane or in early endosomes, after TMPRSS2 cleavage, or alternatively in acidic late

endosomes, following cathepsin activation.

We confirmed that apilimod does not inhibit infection by VSV–eGFP–G (Fig.1B) and correlated
its resistance with entry from early endosomes. We monitored fusion and cytosolic release, using
VSV–eGFP–P–G. Expression of eGFP fused to the viral phosphoprotein (P) allowed us to
discriminate between fluorescent virions within NPC1-tagged endosomes and those whose
genome was released into the cytosol. SVG-A NPC1-Halo–expressing cells were pulse-
inoculated and imaged by LLSM at 30- and 40-minutes post-inoculation, with or without 5 uM
apilimod (Fig. 5A–C). After 30 min and in both conditions, 8–96 virions per cell had trafficked to
NPC1-positive compartments, and ~20% of P-spots associated with the viral genome had been
released into the cytosol (Fig. 5D–F). These results indicate that genome release occurs in early
endosomes, with a subset of virions becoming trapped in late endosomes. The similar fraction of
cytosolic particles in apilimod-treated and untreated cells is consistent with the resistance of VSV
G–mediated infection to PIKfyve inhibition and agrees with similar results obtained in prior
infectivity studies [11].

Endosomal swelling by ammonium accumulation, not PI(3,5)P$_2$ loss, accounts for
blockage of VSV–MeGFP-ZEBOV infection by PIKfyve inhibitors
Under normal conditions, cytosolic glutamine is converted in mitochondria to NH_3, which enters
endosomes and lysosomes, where acidification by the endo-lysosomal V-ATPase traps it as NH_4^+
[24]. PIKfyve inhibition induces endo-lysosomal swelling through ammonium accumulation and
water influx, an effect prevented by glutamine withdrawal from the medium [24] or by inhibition of
the V-ATPase [25]. We took advantage of this relationship to distinguish between a biochemical
consequence of PI(3,5)P$_2$ depletion by acute apilimod treatment from a broader physical block to
infection caused by endosomal swelling, by testing whether the blockade of infection could be
reversed by limiting ammonium accumulation.

To validate our experimental system, we imaged SVG-A cells in FluoroBrite medium containing
apilimod, with or without supplementation with 4 mM glutamine and FBS. Late endosomes and
lysosomes were labeled with internalized Dextran-568 (Fig. 6A). As expected, apilimod-induced
endosomal swelling, visually monitored for up to 30 min, was markedly reduced in glutamine-free
medium (Fig. 6B). Based on this observation, we inoculated cells for 30 min with VSV-MeGFP-
ZEBOV in standard buffer (e.g. containing glutamine), followed by a 30 min incubation with
apilimod in the presence or absence of glutamine. Glutamine and 50 nM apilimod were then
added for the remainder of the assay to restrict the test of viral entry to the 30 min post-inoculation
window, comparing the effect with and without glutamine (Fig. 6C). This step was necessary

because prolonged incubation in glutamine-free medium during early infection blocked synthesis
of MeGFP encoded by VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV. VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV infection was reduced by
~60% in the presence of both glutamine and apilimod but was minimally affected in glutamine-
free medium with apilimod (Fig. 6C–E). These results suggest that inhibition of infection arises
from endosomal swelling itself, rather than from loss of PI(3,5)P$_2$-dependent signaling.
231
Hypotonic-induced endolysosomal swelling reduces VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV and VSV-eGFP–
SARS-CoV-2 infection
To test directly whether endolysosomal osmotic swelling impairs viral entry, we used a non-
pharmacological method to enlarge endosomes and lysosomes during the early phase of
infection. Brief incubation of cells in hypotonic medium induces transient swelling of the cytoplasm
and intracellular membrane-bound compartments, most prominently late endosomes and
lysosomes [26–28]. We exploited this osmotic effect to perturb the entry process of VSV-eGFP-G,
VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV and VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2. A single 30-minute hypotonic pulse,
initiated 30 minutes post-inoculation, was reversible, did not lead to cell death and targeted the
entry window while minimizing artifacts from subsequent volume regulation.
242
To quantify endosomal swelling, we incubated Vero cells in medium diluted with increasing
amounts of water and measured endolysosomal size by spinning-disk confocal imaging of cells
preloaded with Alexa Fluor 568–labeled dextran (Dextran-AF568; Fig. 7A). Using the same 90th
percentile radius cutoff (0.73 μm) as in the apilimod experiments, we observed a modest increase
in enlarged compartments with 30% dilution and a robust increase with 60% dilution, whereas
10% dilution had no detectable effect (Fig. 7B–D).
249
We next tested the impact of this hypotonic swelling on infection. SVG-A or Vero cells were
inoculated with VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV, VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2, or VSV-eGFP-G, then
subjected to 30-minute hypotonic treatments at the indicated dilutions (Figs. 7E-G and 8). To
restrict continued viral fusion after the swelling phase, we added Bafilomycin A1 alone (VSV-G),
apilimod alone (VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV) or in combination with apilimod (VAV-SARS-CoV-2)
immediately following the hypotonic pulse. Bafilomycin A1 blocks endosomal acidification [29] and
thereby prevents low pH-dependent viral membrane fusion. The combination of Bafilomycin A1
and apilimod inhibited fusion of VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV and VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2. Infection of
SVG-A cells by VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV dropped to ~40% of control levels following 60% dilution,
with no inhibition at lower dilutions (Fig. 7F and G). The same treatment in Vero cells suppressed

infection by ~ 50% for both VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV but had no effect

on VSV-eGFP (Figs. 8B-D). The similarity between these results and those obtained with apilimod

supports the conclusion that late endosomal swelling mediated by transient hypotonicity rather

than inhibition of a specific biochemical pathway selectively blocks infection by viruses that require

trafficking to late endosomes, preventing membrane fusion and cytosolic genome delivery.

To test whether hypotonic treatment inhibits infection primarily through late endosomal swelling,

we took advantage of the differential activation of SARS-CoV-2 spike (S): TMPRSS2 activates S

at the cell surface/early endosomes, whereas cathepsins do so in late endosomes [20–22]. In Vero

cells ectopically expressing TMPRSS2, concurrent treatment with camostat (a TMPRSS2 inhibitor

that prevents early entry) and apilimod (which blocks late entry) completely inhibited VSV-SARS-

CoV-2 infection (Fig. 4A–C) [23]. Either compound alone caused the expected partial inhibition

(~60% for apilimod, ~25% for camostat) consistent with additive effects on distinct entry routes

(Fig. 4C) [23].

If hypotonic swelling acts primarily in late endosomes, infection should be strongly inhibited when

TMPRSS2 is absent or blocked by camostat, and only weakly inhibited when TMPRSS2 is active.

Our results matched these predictions: 60% hypotonic treatment inhibited infection by 50-60%

either without TMPRSS2 (Fig. 7D) or with TMPRSS2 plus camostat (Fig. 4C), but only by ~20%

when TMPRSS2 was present without camostat (Fig. 4C). Consistent with late-endosomal fusion,

combining hypotonic treatment with apilimod did not further reduce infection (~60%, Fig. 4C).

Conversely, by preventing early entry, camostat sensitized infection to hypotonic swelling (~20%

without vs ~ 60% with camostat, Fig. 4C). Together, these results support our inference that

hypotonic swelling blocks infection by interfering with the late endosomal entry pathway.

Free and membrane-bound VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV virions in swollen endosomes

Finally, we assessed whether VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV virions remain membrane-bound under

swelling conditions that block infection using 3D live-cell LLSM imaging of virions within apilimod-

induced, enlarged NPC-1-Halo containing late endosomes and lysosomes in SVG-A cells (Figs.

3C, F and 9). We did not use hypotonic swelling because both transience and heterogeneity limit

resolution and stability during live-cell imaging. In non-swollen endosomes (~300-500 nm

diameter), the point-spread function of the microscope precludes distinguishing virions at the

limiting membrane from those in the lumen (Figs. 3B, E). In contrast, apilimod-induced swelling

yields larger endosomes of ~1 µm diameter (Figs. 3C, F), enabling spatial separation of

membrane-bound and luminal particles (Figs. 3C, F and 9). Because these compartments remain

acidic [10], we expected most virions to remain receptor-bound and fusion-competent.

We used 3D live-cell LLSM to quantify the movement of fluorescent virions inside swollen

compartments labeled with endogenously tagged NPC1-Halo (Fig. 9). Treatment with 5 µM

apilimod produced largely immobile enlarged endosomes, in contrast to the dynamic trafficking

observed in untreated cells. Visual inspection of z-projected 3D time series revealed that ~75%

of 859 fluorescent VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV virions localized to the lumen while the 25% remainder

colocalized with the limiting membrane (Fig. 9B, C, F). A similar distribution of virions in the lumen

was also observed for VSV-P-eGFP-G, which is not sensitive to apilimod treatment (Fig. 9F). In

that case, ~75% of 590 virions remained membrane bound while the rest were in the lumen.

These observations were unexpected.

To distinguish luminal from membrane-associated behavior, we tracked the 3D positions of

individual VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV particles over time in SVG-A cells. Using time-resolved LLSM at

4-second intervals, we followed fluorescent virions within swollen compartments and computed

their mean squared displacement (MSD) (representative examples depicted in the insets in Fig.

9). Particles localized to the lumen had nearly constant MSD values (Fig. 9B), consistent with the

confinement within a spherical volume, as expected from a plateau value of $3/5\,R^2$ (Fig. 9D). In

contrast, particles stably associated with the limiting membrane showed constrained motion and

MSD profiles consistent with movement of the surface of a rotating sphere (Fig. 9C, E). Variation

in particle and compartment dynamics resulted in diverse trajectory patterns. We restricted this

analysis to representative examples, as current computational limitations precluded automated

processing of larger datasets.

We interpret these single-virion imaging results as follows. In normal acidic endosomes, VSV-

eGFP-P-G and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV remain stably associated with their respective receptors.

VSV-G–mediated fusion occurs primarily in early endosomes, which are not subject to osmotic

swelling. Because NPC1 is absent from this compartment, VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV fusion does not

occur there. As VSV-eGFP-P-G and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV virions traffic further, arrival in swollen

late endosomes correlates with a loss of stable membrane association. We attribute this shift to

increased membrane tension, which could impede viral fusion by raising the energetic barrier to

the membrane deformations required for hemifusion and full fusion. Alternatively, in the acidic

environment of swollen endosomes, unbound viral glycoproteins that have not yet engaged the

limiting membrane may undergo a premature low pH–induced conformational change, thus
making them unable to rebind and no longer capable of driving fusion. This mechanism would
explain both the retention of virions at the membrane and the release of others into the lumen,
where they become fusion-incompetent and unable to rebind. For VSV-G, this has little
consequence, as fusion typically occurs in the early endosome, e.g. upstream of this
compartment. In contrast, for VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV, the combination of altered membrane
mechanics and disrupted NPC1 engagement in late endosomes likely underlies the observed
failure to fuse and the consequent block in infection.

DISCUSSION

We examined why inhibition of the endosomal lipid kinase PIKfyve selectively blocks infection by certain membrane-enveloped viruses, represented here by VSV chimeras bearing the SARS-CoV-2 spike or Ebola virus GP, while leaving parental VSV-G–mediated infection unaffected. Using a combination of quantitative infectivity assays and high-precision, live-cell 3D imaging, we identified a previously unrecognized and mechanistically simple explanation: endosomal membrane swelling acts as a biophysical barrier to viral fusion and genome delivery into the cytosol.

Previous models have attributed the antiviral effects of PIKfyve inhibition primarily to disruptions in endosomal maturation or impaired trafficking of virions to protease-rich, fusion-competent compartments. While consistent with the dependence of SARS-CoV-2 and Ebola virus on late endosomal cathepsin activity and NPC1 function, these models do not account for our earlier observations by live-cell single virion fluorescence microscopy, confirmed here, that these virions trafficked normally to the swollen NPC1-positive compartments under PIKfyve inhibition but failed to initiate productive infection.

Our findings uncouple $PI(3,5)P_2$ depletion from the block in viral infection. Although apilimod inhibits PIKfyve and reduces $PI(3,5)P_2$ levels, the antiviral effect against VSV-SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-ZEBOV requires endosomal swelling, a process driven by glutamine-dependent accumulation of NH_4^+ and consequent osmotic influx. Apilimod treatment in glutamine-depleted media failed to block infection, indicating that $PI(3,5)P_2$ loss alone is insufficient to impair viral entry. Furthermore, apilimod treatment slightly decreases endolysosomal pH [30,31]. These observations implicate a mechanical disruption of the fusion-permissive environment, rather than defects in endosomal acidification. Thus, the antiviral activity of apilimod depends on a biophysical alteration of endosomal membranes rather than solely on phosphoinositide depletion.

We further demonstrated that transient hypotonic late endosome swelling, in the absence of PIKfyve inhibition, phenocopies the antiviral effect, reinforcing our conclusion that osmotic expansion of endosomal volume rather than disruption of lipid signaling impairs viral entry. These observations together with our observation that apilimod did not hinder the traffic of VSV-G, VSV-ZEBOV or VSV-SARS-CoV2 to the endolysosomal compartment (this study and see also [11]) strengthen the conclusion that the key barrier is not trafficking or maturation failure, but instead a tension-induced mechanical resistance of the endosomal membrane to the

370   deformation required for fusion and pore formation. Fusion requires precise spatial coordination
371   between viral and host membranes, and a membrane environment permissive for local
372   deformation. Swollen endosomes may resist the bending and curvature of the limiting
373   membrane necessary for pore formation, particularly for glycoproteins with stringent
374   conformational checkpoints, such as VSV G, EBOV GP, or SARS-CoV-2 spike.
375
Why is infection by VSV-G unaffected by apilimod treatment or osmotic swelling? The simplest
explanation is that VSV-G–mediated fusion and genome release occur in early endosomes,
which are not subject to PIKfyve-dependent swelling. Indeed, previous studies using dominant-
negative Rab GTPase mutants showed that VSV infection is inhibited by Rab5(S34N), but not
by Rab7(T22N), indicating that fusion occurs before endosomal maturation into Rab7-positive
compartments [32–34]. Inhibition of PIKfyve kinase also has a minimal effect on influenza-virus
infection [16], and evidence from use of dominant-negative Rab 5 and 7 GTPase mutants
indicates that influenza-virus fusion occurs in in both early and late endosomes [34]. Our
proposed mechanism for apilimod resistance is further supported by our finding that apilimod-
mediated inhibition of VSV-SARS-CoV-2 infection is only partial in cells expressing TMPRSS2
and only becomes complete in its absence (this study, see also [23]). TMPRSS2-mediated
activation of the SARS-CoV-2 spike promotes fusion at the plasma membrane or within early
endosomes, bypassing the late endosomal route [20–22]. Accordingly, in TMPRSS2-negative cells
where both VSV-SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-ZEBOV rely on late endosomal fusion, the extent of
inhibition by osmotic challenge is similar. Thus, viral fusion is governed not solely by pH or
receptor engagement but also by the trafficking itinerary of the virion and the mechanical state
of the endosomal membrane at the site of fusion.
393
Many enveloped viruses, including filoviruses, coronaviruses, and arenaviruses rely on late
endosomal or lysosomal compartments for entry (see review [35]), making them potentially
sensitive to perturbations in membrane mechanics. Targeting host pathways that regulate
endosomal membrane tension, such as PIKfyve or its lipid effectors, offers a mechanistically
distinct antiviral strategy, one that does not interfere with receptor binding or protease activation,
but instead acts at the level of fusion competence. By identifying membrane tension as a key
regulator of viral entry, our study highlights the utility of integrating biophysical parameters into
models of intracellular viral trafficking and fusion.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Reagents

The following reagents were used: apilimod (HY-14644, MedChemExpress), Bafilomycin A1 (B1793-2UG, Sigma-Aldrich), Milli-Q water (Z00QSV0US, MilliporeSigma), Minimum Essential Medium (MEM; 10-010-CV, Corning), Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM; 10-013-CV, Corning), penicillin-streptomycin (45000-652, VWR), fetal bovine serum (S11150H, Atlanta Biologicals), Alexa Fluor 568 dextran-10K (D-22912, Invitrogen), Janelia Hoechst 646 and Janelia Fluor 646 HaloTag ligand (gifts from Luke Lavis, Janelia Research Campus, HHMI), FluoroBrite DMEM (A1896701, Gibco), HEPES buffer (SH30237.01, Cytiva), and paraformaldehyde (P6148, Sigma-Aldrich).

Cell Culture

VeroE6-TMPRSS2 cells (a gift from Siyan Ding [36]) and Vero C1008 cells (Vero 76, clone E6; ATCC CRL-1586) were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (P/S) at 37°C in 5% CO_2. SVG-A cells (ATCC CRL-8621) and a homozygous gene-edited derivative expressing EEA1–mScarlet and NPC1–HaloTag from both alleles [11] were cultured in MEM with 10% FBS and 1% P/S under the same conditions. All experiments used cells passaged fewer than 10 times. Cultures were routinely tested and confirmed negative for mycoplasma.

Production and Propagation of Chimeric Vesicular Stomatitis Viruses

Recombinant vesicular stomatitis viruses (VSVs) encoding fluorescent reporters and distinct glycoproteins were used. VSV-eGFP-G expresses enhanced GFP (eGFP) and retains the native VSV glycoprotein G [37]. VSV-eGFP-P-G expresses eGFP fused to the viral phosphoprotein (P) [11], a cofactor that associates with the large (L) polymerase protein within the virion and is required for efficient RNA-dependent RNA synthesis from the ribonucleoprotein (RNP) template. Each virion contains approximately 165 copies of P [38]. In VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2, glycoprotein G is replaced by the SARS-CoV-2 spike (S) protein (Wuhan-Hu-1) [39]. VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV encodes the Zaire ebolavirus (ZEBOV) glycoprotein in place of G and expresses eGFP fused to the matrix (M) protein [40]. We estimate that each virion contains ~1200 MeGFP molecules, assuming the number of MeGFP copies approximates that of the M protein in VSV [41].

Chimeric viruses were propagated in confluent Vero E6 monolayers plated in 15 cm dishes. Growth medium (DMEM with 10% FBS) was removed, and cells were rinsed once with DMEM

containing 1% P/S to remove residual serum. Cells were infected at a multiplicity of infection (MOI)

of ~0.01 in 10 mL DMEM supplemented with 0.4% FBS and 1% P/S and incubated for 48 h at

37°C, 5% CO_2. Supernatants were collected, clarified by centrifugation at 3580 rpm for 10 min at

4°C (Beckman Coulter GS-6KR), and divided into two portions: one was stored at 4°C for up to

one week for titration and infection assays; the other was aliquoted (0.5 mL), flash-frozen in liquid

nitrogen, and stored at −80°C for imaging-based experiments.

Virus infection

Viral supernatant (100 μL) was diluted in serum-free DMEM containing 1% P/S and applied to

cells plated in 48-well plates (82051-004, VWR) for 30 min at 37°C. Unbound virus was removed

by three washes with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S. Cells were then incubated

in fresh complete medium for 8 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2. Fixation was performed with 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS for 15 min at room temperature. The multiplicity of infection (MOI)

was estimated by quantifying eGFP-positive cells relative to the total population (see Infection

Analysis). The 16% (w/v) stock PFA solution was prepared by dissolving 16 g of PFA powder

(P6148, Sigma-Aldrich) in 80 mL of preheated 1× PBS (60°C) with stirring for 10 min. We added

drops of 10 N NaOH (221465, Sigma-Aldrich) every 5 min until the suspension cleared. After

cooling to room temperature, we filtered the solution through a grade 1 Whatman™ filter (09-805-

1G, Cytiva), adjusted the pH to 7.2 using a calibrated pH meter (Hi 2211, Hanna Instruments),

and aliquoted it into 10 mL portions for storage at −20°C.

Apilimod Treatment and Infection

Vero E6 cells were seeded at 35–40% confluency in sterile 48-well plates (82051-004, VWR) and

used the following day. Cells were pretreated for 1 h at 37°C with 0.1% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO;

vehicle control) or with 0.01, 0.05, or 5 μM apilimod in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and

1% P/S. After pretreatment, cells were inoculated with the indicated chimeric virus for 30 min in

serum-free DMEM containing 1% P/S and the corresponding concentration of DMSO or apilimod.

Unbound virus was removed by three washes with DMEM containing 10% FBS and 1% P/S,

followed by incubation for 7 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2. Cells were then washed three times with PBS

(0.5 mL) and fixed with 4% PFA in PBS for 15 min at room temperature. Nuclei were labeled by

incubation with 100 nM Janelia Hoechst 646 in PBS for 1 h at room temperature. Imaging was

performed without washing out the dye.

Hypotonic treatment and Infection

Hypotonic media were prepared by diluting complete MEM or DMEM with sterile Milli-Q water:

10% (1 mL water + 9 mL medium), 30% (3 mL water + 7 mL medium), and 60% (6 mL water + 4

mL medium).

SVG-A or Vero E6 cells were seeded at 35–40% confluency in 48-well plates and used the

following day. Cells were infected VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 or VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV at an MOI

of ~0.5 for 30 min in 200 µL of serum-free MEM for SVG-A or DMEM for Vero E6, each

supplemented with 1% P/S, at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Unbound virus was removed by three washes

with complete medium (MEM or DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S, 0.5 mL per

wash). Infection was then either blocked by adding 100 nM bafilomycin A1 (VSV-eGFP) or 5 µM

apilimod (VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV), and allowed to proceed in

corresponding serum-free or hypotonic media for 30 min at 37°C. Cells were then returned to

complete medium (10% FBS, 1% P/S) and incubated for 7 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2.

Vero cells stably expressing TMPRSS2 were seeded at 35–40% confluency in sterile 48-well

plates (82051-004, VWR) and used the next day. Cells were pretreated for 1 h at 37°C in 5%

CO_2 with 0.1% DMSO (vehicle) alone or with 5 µM apilimod, 5 µM camostat, or both in DMEM

supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S. Following pretreatment, cells were infected with

VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 (MOI ~0.5) in 200 µL serum-free DMEM (1% P/S) containing the

same inhibitor conditions. After 30 min at 37°C, unbound virus was removed by three washes

with complete DMEM (10% FBS, 1% P/S; 0.5 mL/wash). Infection was then allowed to proceed

for 30 min in 60% hypotonic medium containing 0.1% DMSO alone or with 5 µM apilimod, 5 µM

camostat, or both. Cells were subsequently returned to complete DMEM containing the same

inhibitor conditions to prevent further infection and incubated for 7 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2.

The experiment ended by washing the cells three times with PBS (0.5 mL), fixing with 4% PFA

in PBS for 15 min at room temperature, and staining with 500 nM Janelia Hoechst 646 in PBS

for 1 h before imaging.

Glutamine Deficiency and Infection

SVG-A cells were seeded at 35–40% confluency in sterile 48-well plates (82051-004, VWR) and

used the next day. Cells were infected with the VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV chimeric virus (MOI ~0.5)

for 30 min in serum-free DMEM (including 4 mM glutamine) supplemented with 1% P/S. Unbound

virus was removed by three washes with FluoroBrite DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 1%

P/S (glutamine-free) or DMEM (including 4 mM glutamine) supplemented with 10% FBS and 1%

P/S . The cells were incubated in FluoroBrite DMEM (glutamine-free, 10% FBS, 1% P/S) or DMEM

(4 mM glutamine,10% FBS, 1% P/S) containing either 0.1% DMSO or 50 nM apilimod for 30 min

at 37°C. After three washes with DMEM (including 4 mM glutamine) supplemented with 10% FBS

and 1% P/S, cells were incubated for 7 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2, then washed three times with PBS

(0.5 mL) and fixed with 4% PFA in PBS for 15 min at room temperature. Nuclei were then labeled

by incubating cells with 100 nM Hoechst Janelia 646 in PBS for 1 h at room temperature. Imaging

was performed without washing out Hoechst Janelia 646 dye.

Apilimod, Glutamine, and Hypotonic Treatments and Endolysosomal Size

Vero E6 cells were seeded at 35–40% confluency in 8-well glass-bottom chambers (C8-1.5H-N,

Cellvis) and imaged the following day. Endolysosomes were labeled by incubating cells with 10

µM Alexa Fluor 568–dextran in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S for 2 h at 37°C

in 5% CO_2. Apilimod (final concentration of 0.01, 0.05 or 5 µM in 0.1 % DMSO) was added for 1

h before and then during the Dextran uptake period, after which cells were washed three times

with complete DMEM media (supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S) to remove extracellular

dye, followed by live cell imaging in FluoroBrite DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS, 1% P/S, and

25 mM HEPES (pH 7.2) including apilimod at the indicated concentrations. Experimental

conditions were initiated in 15-minute intervals across the 8-well chamber. Each well was imaged

for 10 minutes before applying the same washing and medium exchange protocol to the next well.

To study the effect of glutamine removal on apilimod induced endolysosome expansion, SVG-A

cells were seeded at 35-40% confluency in 8-well glass bottom chambers (C8-1.5H-N, Cellvis)

for the following day. Endolysosomes were pre-labeled with 10 µM Alexa Fluor 568–dextran in

DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S for 2 h at 37°C in 5% CO_2. Prior imaging, media

was replaced with 50 nM of apilimod in FluoroBrite DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, 1% P/S

(glutamine-free) or DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S, (including 4 mM glutamine).

and timelapse images were acquired in lattice light sheet microscopy to record apilimod induced

expansion of dextran labeled compartments.

For osmotic expansion assays, we replaced the imaging medium with hypotonic solutions (10%,

30%, or 60%) and immediately initiated live-cell imaging on a spinning disk confocal microscope

at 2-minute intervals for 30 minutes.

Virus Tracking

Gene-edited SVG-A cells expressing EEA1–mScarlet and NPC1–HaloTag chimeras instead of the native proteins were seeded at 35–40% confluency in 8-well glass-bottom chambers and imaged the following day. NPC1 compartments were labeled by incubating cells with 500 nM Janelia Fluor 646 HaloTag ligand (JFX 646) in MEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 1% P/S for 15 min at 37°C, followed by three washes with the same medium.

Cells were then pretreated for 1 h with 0.1% DMSO (vehicle) or 5 µM apilimod in complete MEM. After pretreatment, cells were incubated with the indicated virus in the same medium for 10 min at 37°C, washed three times, and returned to fresh medium containing the same drug conditions for an additional 50 min. Live 3D imaging was performed using a lattice light-sheet microscope in FluoroBrite DMEM supplemented with 5% FBS, 1% P/S, 25 mM HEPES (pH 7.2), 0.1% DMSO, and 5 µM apilimod.

Fluorescence Microscopy

Imaging of Fixed Samples to Assess Primary Infection

Fixed-cell imaging was performed using a Zeiss Axiovert 200M inverted microscope (Carl Zeiss) equipped with a CSU-22 spinning disk confocal unit (Yokogawa) and controlled by the Marianas imaging platform (3i, Intelligent Imaging Innovations). A 10× objective with a 2× magnifier was used. Samples were excited with 491 nm and 660 nm solid-state lasers (50 mW each), and fluorescence was detected using 525/50 and 680LP emission filters (Semrock), respectively.

Z-stacks (12 optical sections at 3 µm intervals) were acquired with a piezoelectric Z-stage (PZ-2000) and encoded XY stage (MS-2000, Applied Scientific Instruments). Images were captured at 50% laser power (0.68 mW at the back aperture) with 200 ms exposure per plane using a QuantEM 512SC air-cooled CCD camera (Photometrics).

Live-Cell 3D Imaging of Endosomes and Lysosomes

Live imaging was performed using a Zeiss Axio Observer Z1 inverted microscope equipped with environmental control (37°C, 5% CO_2) and a CSU-X1 spinning disk confocal unit (Yokogawa), operated via the Marianas (3i) platform. The system included a spherical aberration correction module and a 3i LaserStack with diode lasers at 488, 560 (150 mW), and 640 nm (100 mW). Emission was filtered using 525/40, 609/54, and 692/40 filters (Semrock).

Z-stacks comprising 75 optical planes at 0.270 µm spacing were acquired with 20 ms exposure

per plane using a dual-camera sCMOS system (Prime 95B, Teledyne Photometrics). A custom

bandpass dichroic (Semrock; transmit 350–560 nm and 641–800 nm, reflect 561–640 nm)

enabled simultaneous multichannel imaging. Final XY resolution was 0.145 × 0.145 µm/pixel.

Live-Cell 3D Lattice Light Sheet Microscopy for Virus Tracking

Lattice light sheet imaging was performed using a Zeiss Lattice Lightsheet 7 system with a

dithered lattice beam (30 µm × 0.7 µm). Cells were maintained at 37°C in a humidified chamber

with 5% CO_2. Illumination was provided by 488 nm (10 mW, 2 mW at pupil), 561 nm (10 mW, 2

mW), or 640 nm (5 mW, 1 mW) lasers, typically operated at 1–1.5% power.

A 13.3×, NA 0.4 objective (Zeiss) was used for illumination, and a 44.83×, NA 1.0 objective (Zeiss)

for detection. Z-stacks were acquired using sample scanning with 0.25 µm optical sectioning and

0.5 µm axial spacing. Each plane was captured with a 5 ms exposure using dual ORCA-Fusion

sCMOS cameras (Hamamatsu), yielding a final XY resolution of 0.145 × 0.145 µm/pixel.

Time-lapse imaging was performed at 3 s intervals for virus tracking and at 3 min intervals for

apilimod-induced endosome and lysosome expansion, over durations of 5–45 min. Raw image

stacks were deskewed using ZEISS ZEN 3.11 software prior to analysis.

Image Analysis

Infectivity assay

Z-stacks (12 optical sections) were acquired at 20× magnification to capture cytosolic eGFP signal

from infected cells and nuclear staining with Hoechst 646, imaged 8 h post-inoculation (see

Fluorescence Microscopy). This protocol ensured that the signal reflected a single round of

infection [11]. Maximum intensity projections were generated using FIJI. Nuclear segmentation was

performed using the LabKit plugin in FIJI [42] to determine the number of cells per field and to

generate nuclear masks for infection scoring.

A cell was classified as infected if the eGFP signal within the nuclear mask (z-maximum

projection) exceeded a threshold defined by the signal in the eGFP channel from uninfected

control samples. The percentage of infected cells was calculated as the number of eGFP-positive

nuclei relative to the total number of segmented nuclei, using a custom FIJI script. Results were

validated by visual inspection of a representative subset. A minimum of 16,000 cells per condition
were analyzed, derived from three independent experiments, each performed in triplicate.

Colocalization Between NPC1–Halo–Labeled Compartments and Fluorescently Tagged
Virions

Z-stacks from single-timepoint live-cell 3D lattice light sheet images of cells inoculated with M–
eGFP–tagged virions were used to assess colocalization with NPC1–Halo–labeled
endolysosomal compartments. Virus particles, detected as diffraction-limited spots, were
identified using the MATLAB-based 3D CME Analysis software [43]. For each virion, mean
fluorescence intensity in the NPC1–Halo channel was measured in a 3 × 3 × 3 voxel cube
centered on the particle. A virion was classified as colocalized if the NPC1–Halo signal within this
volume exceeded the background signal measured in a cytosolic region devoid of NPC1–Halo
signal. Analysis was automated using a custom MATLAB script and manually validated in FIJI.

Measurement of Endosome and Lysosome Radii

Endosomes and lysosomes labeled with Alexa Fluor 568–dextran internalized for [xx] h were
imaged volumetrically using 3D live-cell spinning disk confocal microscopy. Centroid positions of
labeled compartments were identified using the 3D CME Analysis software [43]. At the z-plane
corresponding to each centroid, radial intensity profiles were calculated in the XY plane by
measuring the distance from the centroid to the point at which fluorescence intensity declined to
30% of the peak value. Measurements were taken in 2° increments over 360° (180 measurements
per compartment), and the mean radial distance was reported as the organelle radius.

3D Tracking of Virions Within NPC1–Halo–Labeled Endolysosomes

Live-cell 3D time-lapse datasets acquired using lattice light sheet microscopy were used to track
the motion of M–eGFP–tagged virions within apilimod-induced swollen endolysosomes labeled
with NPC1–Halo. The centroid and fluorescence intensity of each diffraction-limited virion were
determined at each time point using the 3D CME Analysis software [43]. Virion trajectories were
assembled by linking detections across frames based on two criteria:

(i) The virion remained within a 3D spatial window centered on an NPC1–Halo–positive
endolysosome, defined in XY as a 25 × 25-pixel region (~2.5 × 2.5 µm), centered on the centroid
position of the compartment identified using the Multi-Template Matching plugin in FIJI [44] . The Z-

position of the endolysosome centroid was assigned as the plane of maximal NPC1–Halo signal

within ±4 z-planes.

(ii) The virion's fluorescence intensity varied by no more than ± 30% between consecutive time

points.

Confinement of a trajectory within a given endolysosome was validated by visual inspection in

FIJI, using maximum intensity projections overlaid with bounding boxes centered on the XY

coordinates of the NPC1–Halo signal.

Mean square displacement (MSD) analysis of the time-dependent 3D centroid positions was used

to distinguish between confined and bound motility behaviors.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical comparisons between control and experimental groups were performed using one-way

ANOVA (parametric). Significance levels are indicated by asterisks: $*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$; $***p <$

0.001; $****p < 0.0001$. Comparisons without annotated p-values were not statistically significant.

Materials, Data, and Code Availability

All materials, datasets, and custom analysis code are available upon request. For further

information or to request resources and reagents, please contact the lead author at

kirchhausen@crystal.harvard.edu.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank S.C. Harrison for editorial help, S. Whelan for support, M. Cornejo Pontelli for generously providing stocks of VSV chimeras used in this study, E. Sitarksa for imaging the samples used for the endolysosome enlargement assay, B. Zuniga for assistance with determination of virus concentration, and members of the Kirchhausen laboratory for support and encouragement. We also acknowledge the L. Lavis lab and the Open the Chemistry team (Janelia Research Campus, HHMI) for the generous gift of Hoechst Janelia 646 and Janelia Fluor 646 (JF646) dyes. The research was supported by a National Institute of General Medical Sciences Maximizing Investigators' Research Award GM130386 to T. Kirchhausen and AI163019-05 NIH/NIAID Grant Award to S. Whelan and T. Kirchhausen.

The Zeiss Lattice Lightsheet 7 microscope, located in the IID-HSPH BSL-3 Imaging Core established in 2024 at the Harvard Chan School, was acquired with generous funding from the Massachusetts Life Sciences Center to S. Fortune and T. Kirchhausen. Acquisition of the computing hardware including the DGX's GPU-based computers, CPU clusters, fast access memory, archival servers, and workstations that made possible this study was supported by generous grants from the Massachusetts Life Sciences Center to T. Kirchhausen and by an equipment supplement to the National Institute of General Medical Sciences Maximizing Investigators' Research Award GM130386 to T. Kirchhausen. Construction of the server room housing the computing hardware was made possible with generous support from the PCMM Program at Boston Children's Hospital.

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Author contributions: N. Chow, G. Scanavachi, A. Saminathan and T. Kirchhausen conceptualized and designed the experiments; N. Chow and A. Saminathan carried the cell biological experiments; G. Scanavachi carried the optical image analysis. T. Kirchhausen drafted the manuscript and revised it in close consultation with all co-authors.

 FIGURES

Figure 1. Apilimod inhibits infection by VSV chimeras bearing SARS-CoV-2 or ZEBOV
glycoproteins, but not by VSV-G.

(A) Schematic of the infection assay. Vero cells lacking TMPRSS2 were pretreated with 5 µM
Apilimod for 1 h, followed by a 30-min incubation with VSV-eGFP-G, VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2,
or VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV at an approximate MOI of 0.5. in the continued presence of 5 µM
apilimod. Unbound virus was removed by three consecutive washes (each containing 5 µM
apilimod), and cells were maintained in 5 µM apilimod throughout the experiment. At 7.5 h
postinfection, cells were fixed, and infection was quantified as the percentage of eGFP-positive
cells relative to total nuclei (Hoechst Janelia 646 stain), using automated image analysis encoded
by a script in FIJI.

(B–D) Representative maximum intensity z-projections (top) show cytosolic eGFP (green) and
nuclear Hoechst Janelia 646 (magenta) in cells infected with the indicated chimeras, in the
presence or absence of apilimod. Quantification (bottom) shows the percentage of infected cells
normalized to the untreated control for each biological replicate (n = 3; shown in distinct colors).
Technical triplicates appear as dots of the same color. Approximately 16,000 cells were analyzed
per condition. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was assessed by unpaired t test;
****P < 0.0001. Comparisons with P > 0.05 are not shown.

Figure 2. Apilimod induces dose-dependent endolysosome enlargement and inhibits VSV-
MeGFP–ZEBOV infection.

(A) Schematic of the endolysosome enlargement assay. Vero cells not expressing TMPRRS2
were incubated with 10 µM Alexa Fluor 568–labeled dextran (Dextran-AF568) for 2 h, followed by
washes to remove unbound dextran. Cells were then treated with apilimod at the indicated
concentrations for 1 h and imaged live during a 30 min period, also in the presence of apilimod,
using 3D spinning disk confocal microscopy. Dextran-AF568 was used as a fluid-phase marker
of endolysosomes.

(B) Representative maximum intensity z-projection images showing Dextran-AF568 signal
(yellow) in cells treated with 0, 0.01, 0.05, or 5 µM apilimod. Enlarged endolysosomes are evident
at higher concentrations. Scale bar, 10 µm.

(C) Distribution of endolysosome radii in cells treated with increasing concentrations of apilimod.
Solid lines represent the mean across all cells per condition; shaded regions denote SD. Cell
counts: N = 24 (0 µM), 22 (0.01 µM), 29 (0.05 µM), and 24 (5 µM). The gray shaded rectangular

region marks the 90th percentile of endolysosome radii with a radius >0.725 µm in the control

group (0 µM apilimod).

(D) Percentage of endolysosomes with a radius > 0.725 µm, plotted against apilimod

concentration. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was determined by one-way

ANOVA compared to control; ****$P < 0.0001$.

(E) Schematic of the infection assay. Vero cells not expressing TMPRRS2 were pretreated with

0, 0.005, 0.01, 0.05, or 5 µM apilimod for 1 h, followed by a 30-min infection with VSV-MeGFP–

ZEBOV (MOI ~ 0.5) in the continued presence of apilimod. Unbound virus was removed by three

washes (each containing apilimod), and cells were maintained in drug for the remainder of the

experiment. At 7.5 h postinfection, cells were fixed, and fraction of infected cell was determined

by establishing the of cells expressing MeGFP cytosolic fluorescence with respect to the total

number of cells identified by nuclear staining (Hoechst Janelia 646). Automated analysis was

performed using FIJI.

(F) Representative maximum intensity z-projections of images obtained 3D spinning disc confocal

fluorescence microscopy showing infected cells (MeGFP, green) and nuclei stained by Hoechst

Janelia 646 (magenta) for each apilimod concentration. Scale bar, 100 µm.

(G) Quantification of infection, plotted as the percentage of infected cells normalized to the

untreated control. Each biological replicate (n = 3) is shown in a different color; technical triplicates

are represented as dots of the same color. Approximately 16,000 cells were analyzed per

condition. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was determined by one-way

ANOVA; ****$P < 0.0001$.

Figure 3. Apilimod does not impair VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV trafficking to NPC1 compartments

but blocks cytosolic escape and infection.

(A) Schematic of the infection assay. Gene-edited SVG-A cells expressing NPC1-Halo were

pretreated with 5 µM apilimod for 1 h, followed by a 10-min incubation with VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV

(MOI ~0.5) in the continued presence of 5 µM apilimod. Unbound virus was removed by three

washes (each containing 5 µM apilimod), and cells were maintained in drug for the remainder of

the experiment. Live-cell imaging using lattice light-sheet microscopy was performed at 50 min

and 4 h postinfection. Volumetric time-lapse series were acquired every 4 s for 10 min.

(B, C) Representative maximum intensity z-projections from the first frame of volumetric time

series acquired at 50 min postinfection in **(B)** absence (control) or presence **(C)** of 5 µM apilimod.

NPC1-Halo labeled with JFX 646 is shown in magenta, and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV in green. Scale

bar, 10 µm.

(D) Quantification of NPC1-positive compartments colocalizing with VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV at 50 min postinfection. Each point represents a single cell (n = 22 control; n = 46 apilimod-treated). Statistical significance was assessed using an unpaired t test; P > 0.05 was considered not significant and is not shown.

(E, F) Representative maximum intensity z-projections from 4 h postinfection in **(E)** absence **(**control**)** or presence **(F)** of 5 µM apilimod. NPC1-Halo labeled with JF 646 is shown in magenta, and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV in green. Scale bar, 10 µm.

(G) Quantification of number of cells showing viral entry based on MeGFP signal at the nuclear margin as in panel **(E).** Statistical significance was assessed by unpaired t test; ****P < 0.0001.

Figure 4. Hypotonic stress partially inhibits VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 infection via the late endosomal pathway but not early endosome–dependent entry.

(A) Schematic of the infection assay. Vero cells stably expressing TMPRSS2 were pretreated for 1 h with 5 µM apilimod, 5 µM camostat, both, or DMSO vehicle. Cells were then incubated with VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 for 30 min (MOI ~ 0.5) in the continued presence of the same treatment solution. Unbound virus was removed by three washes, each containing the same treatment. Cells were subsequently exposed to 0% or 60% hypotonic medium for 30 min. After treatment, 5 µM apilimod and 5 µM camostat were maintained in the culture medium for the remainder of the experiment (Post apilimod +/- camostat). At 7.5 h postinfection, cells were fixed, and infection was assessed by quantifying eGFP-positive cells relative to total nuclei (Hoechst Janelia 646 stain). Automated analysis was performed using FIJI.

(B) Representative maximum intensity z-projections show cytosolic eGFP (green) and nuclear Hoechst Janelia 646 (magenta) under the indicated treatment conditions with apilimod or camostat during virion incubation and hypotonic treatment.

(C) Quantification of infection levels. Data are shown as the percentage of infected cells normalized to untreated control for each biological replicate (n = 3; shown in distinct colors). Technical triplicates are represented as same-colored dots. Approximately 16,000 cells were analyzed per condition. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA; *P < 0.05, ****P < 0.0001. Comparisons with P > 0.05 are not shown.

Figure 5. Cytosolic escape and infection by VSV-eGFP–G are not inhibited by apilimod.

(A) Schematic of the infection assay. Gene-edited SVG-A cells expressing NPC1-Halo were pretreated with 5 µM apilimod for 1 h, then incubated with VSV-eGFP–G (MOI ~1) for 10 min in the continued presence of drug. Unbound virus was removed by three washes (each containing

5 μM apilimod), and cells were maintained in apilimod for the remainder of the experiment. Live-
cell imaging was performed at 30 min postinfection using lattice light-sheet microscopy.
Volumetric time-lapse series were acquired every 4 s for 10 min.
(B, C) Representative maximum intensity projections from the first (30 min) and last (40 min)
frames of the time series in the absence **(B)** (control) or presence **(C)** of 5 μM apilimod. NPC1-
Halo labeled with JFX 646 is shown in magenta, and VSV-eGFP–G in green. White arrowheads
mark virions localized in the cytosol. Scale bar, 10 μm.
(D, E) Quantification of cytosolic VSV-eGFP–G particles per cell at 30 and 40 min postinfection
in **(D)** control and **(E)** apilimod-treated cells. Lines connect values from the same cell at both time
points.
(F) Quantification of the percentage of VSV-eGFP–G particles in the cytosol, with or without
apilimod. Statistical significance was assessed by unpaired t test; $P > 0.05$ was considered not
significant and is not shown.
802
Figure 6. Glutamine depletion moderates apilimod-induced endolysosome enlargement
and reduces its antiviral efficacy.
(A) Schematic of the live-cell assay. Vero cells not expressing TMPRSS2 were incubated with 10
μM Alexa Fluor 568–labeled dextran (Dextran-AF568) for 2 h to label endolysosomes, followed
by washes to remove unbound dextran. Cells were then imaged live by lattice light-sheet
microscopy during treatment with 50 nM apilimod in either glutamine-containing or glutamine-free
medium. Imaging was initiated simultaneously with apilimod addition.
(B) Representative maximum intensity z-projections from volumetric time series at t = 0, 9, 21,
and 30 min post-apilimod addition, with or without glutamine. Dextran-AF568–labeled
endolysosomes are shown in yellow. Scale bar, 10 μm and 1 μm in insets.
(C) Schematic of the infection assay. Vero cells were incubated with VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV for 30
min, unbound virus was removed by three washes, and cells were treated for 30 min with 50 nM
apilimod or DMSO vehicle in either glutamine-containing or glutamine-free medium. Cells were
then transferred to glutamine-containing medium with 5 μM apilimod for the remainder of the
experiment. At 7.5 h postinfection, cells were fixed, and infection was quantified as the percentage
of MeGFP-positive cells relative to total number of cells identified by nuclear staining (Hoechst
Janelia 646). Automated analysis was performed using FIJI.
(D) Representative maximum intensity z-projections showing infected cells (MeGFP, green) and
nuclei stained with Hoechst Janelia 646 (magenta) under each condition.

(E) Quantification of infection. Data are shown as the percentage of infected cells normalized to untreated control. Each biological replicate (n = 3) is shown in a different color; technical triplicates are represented as same-colored dots. Approximately 16,000 cells were analyzed per condition. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was assessed by unpaired t test; *P < 0.05, ****P < 0.0001.

Figure 7. Hypotonic-induced endolysosome enlargement is dose-dependent and correlates with inhibition of VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV infection.

(A) Schematic of the endolysosome enlargement assay. Vero cells not expressing TMPRSS2 were incubated with 10 µM Alexa Fluor 568–labeled dextran (Dextran-AF568) for 2 h to label endolysosomes, followed by washes to remove unbound dextran. Cells were then exposed to hypotonic media (0%, 10%, 30%, or 60%) for 10 min prior to imaging, which was performed using live cell spinning disk confocal microscopy. Hypotonic conditions were maintained throughout image acquisition.

(B) Representative maximum intensity z-projections showing Dextran-AF568 signal (yellow) in cells exposed to increasing hypotonic medium. Enlarged endolysosomes are observed in 30% and 60% conditions. Scale bar, 10 µm.

(C) Distribution of endolysosome radii for cells treated with 0% (black), 10% (blue), 30% (green), or 60% (red) hypotonic media. Solid lines represent the mean endolysosome radius across all cells per condition; shaded areas denote SD. Cell counts: N = 24 (0%), 32 (10%), 25 (30%), and 27 (60%). The gray shaded region marks the 90th percentile of endolysosome with a radius > 0.725 µm in control cells (0%).

(D) Percentage of endolysosomes with radius >0.725 µm, plotted against hypotonic media concentration. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was assessed by one-way ANOVA compared to control; **P < 0.01, ****P < 0.0001. Comparisons with P > 0.05 are not shown.

(E) Schematic of the infectivity assay. Vero cells were infected with VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV (MOI ~ 0.1) for 30 min. Unbound virus was removed by three washes, and cells were then treated with 0%, 10%, 30%, or 60% hypotonic media or 5 µM apilimod for 30 min. Following treatment, all conditions were maintained in 5 µM apilimod for the duration of the experiment. At 7.5 h postinfection, cells were fixed, and infection was quantified by establishing the ratio of cells expressing MeGFP cytosolic fluorescence with respect to the total number of cells identified by nuclear staining using automated image analysis in FIJI.

(F) Representative maximum intensity z-projections showing infected cells (MeGFP, green) and nuclei stained with Hoechst Janelia 646 (magenta) for each treatment condition. Scale bar, 100 μm.

(G) Quantification of infection levels. Data are shown as the percentage of infected cells normalized to the untreated control for each biological replicate (n = 3; distinct colors). Technical triplicates appear as dots of the same color. Approximately 16,000 cells were analyzed per condition. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was assessed by one-way ANOVA; ****$P < 0.0001$. Comparisons with $P > 0.05$ are not shown.

Figure 8. Hypotonic stress partially inhibits infection by VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV, but not by VSV-eGFP–G.

(A) Schematic of the infection assay. SVG-A or Vero cells not expressing TMPRRS2 were incubated with VSV-eGFP–G, VSV-eGFP–SARS-CoV-2, or VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV (MOI ~ 0.5) for 30 min, followed by three washes to remove unbound virus. Cells were then treated with 0% or 60% hypotonic medium for 30 min. Following treatment, cells were maintained in either 100 nM Bafilomycin A1 (used only for VSV-eGFP–G samples) or 5 μM apilimod (used for the other virions) for the remainder of the experiment. At 7.5 h postinfection, cells were fixed, and infection was quantified by counting GFP-positive cells relative to total nuclei (Hoechst Janelia 646) using spinning disc confocal fluorescence microscopy. Automated analysis was performed in FIJI.

(B-D) Representative maximum intensity z-projection images (top) showing infected cells (eGFP, green) and nuclei (magenta) under 0% and 60% hypotonic conditions for each type of virion. Quantification of infection levels. Data (bottom) are shown as the percentage of infected cells normalized to the untreated control for each biological replicate (n = 3; distinct colors). Technical triplicates are represented as same-colored dots. Approximately 16,000 cells were analyzed per condition. Bars represent mean ± SD. Statistical significance was assessed using an unpaired t test; ****$P < 0.0001$. Comparisons with $P > 0.05$ are not shown.

Figure 9. 3D tracking of VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV reveals confined and membrane-bound virion populations within apilimod-induced swollen NPC1-positive endolysosomes. Associated with Movies 1-3.

(A) Schematic of the infection assay. Gene-edited SVG-A cells expressing NPC1-Halo were pretreated with 5 μM apilimod for 1 h, then incubated with VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV (10 min, MOI ~ 1) in the continued presence of apilimod. Unbound virus was removed by three washes (each containing 5 μM apilimod), and cells were maintained in apilimod for the duration of the

experiment. Live-cell imaging was performed at 50 min postinfection using lattice light-sheet

microscopy. 3D time-lapse series were acquired every 4 s over 10 min.

(B, C) Representative 3D trajectories of individual virions moving within the lumen **(B)** or along

the limiting membrane **(C)** of NPC1-positive endolysosomes. NPC1-Halo–positive

endolysosomes are shown as gray spheres. Virion positions are color-coded over time (dark blue

to dark red). Associated maximum intensity z-projections show NPC1-Halo labeled with JF 646

(magenta) and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV (green). Mean square displacement (MSD) plots are

shown; in **(B)**, the radius of confinement is derived from the MSD plateau using the relationship

3/5 R² (inset).

(D, E) Simulated 3D trajectories recapitulating observed motion types. **(D)** A particle undergoing

confined motion within a spherical volume, with step length comparable to the radius. **(E)** Two

particles exhibiting membrane-bound movement on the surface of a rotating sphere at different

rotation speeds (blue and brown). MSD curves corresponding to the simulated trajectories are

shown.

(F) Quantification of the percentage of VSV-eGFP–G and VSV-MeGFP–ZEBOV virions exhibiting

membrane-bound trajectories compared to the total number of virions entrapped in NPC1-positive

endolysosomes. Analysis was based on movement patterns from 3D time-lapse maximum

intensity projections.

Figure S1. Apilimod fails to induce swelling of early endosomes EEA1-positive/NPC1-

negative compartments (Related to Fig. 3).

(A) Schematic of live cell imaging experiment. Gene-edited SVG-A cells expressing NPC1-Halo

labeled with JFX 646 and EEA1-mScarlet were pretreated with 5 µM apilimod for 1 h and imaged

live during a 10 min period, also in the presence of apilimod, using lattice light-sheet microscopy.

(B, C) Representative maximum intensity z-projections absence (control **(B)**) or presence **(C)** of

5 µM apilimod. NPC1-Halo labeled with JFX 646 is shown in magenta, and EEA1-mScarlet in

cyan. White arrowheads indicate early endosomes (EEA1-positive/NPC1-negative). Scale bar,

10 µm.

(C) Top panel presents EEA1 images with higher contrast to visualize dimmer early endosomes;

bottom panel presents the image in the same contrast as control **(B)**.

Movies 1–3. Associated to Fig. 9 B and C. Live-cell 3D time-lapse imaging of VSV-MeGFP–

ZEBOV virions (green) associated with endolysosomes enlarged by PIKfyve inhibition with

apilimod. SVG-A cells expressing gene-edited NPC1–Halo labeled with JF 646 (magenta). Cells

were pretreated with 5 µM apilimod for 1 h and then incubated with fluorescent VSV-MeGFP–

ZEBOV (10 min, MOI ~1) in the continued presence of apilimod. Live-cell imaging by LLSM was

performed 50 min postinfection. The 3D time-lapse series, acquired every 4 s for 10 min, are

displayed as maximum-intensity projections. Scale bar, 2 µm.

REFERENCES

1. Harrison, S. C. Viral membrane fusion. *Virology* **479**, 498–507 (2015).

2. Belouzard, S., Millet, J. K., Licitra, B. N. & Whittaker, G. R. Mechanisms of Coronavirus Cell Entry Mediated by the Viral Spike Protein. *Viruses* **4**, 1011–1033 (2012).

3. Hofmann-Winkler, H., Kaup, F. & Pöhlmann, S. Host Cell Factors in Filovirus Entry: Novel Players, New Insights. *Viruses* **4**, 3336–3362 (2012).

4. White, J. M. & Schornberg, K. L. A new player in the puzzle of filovirus entry. *Nat. Rev. Microbiol.* **10**, 317–322 (2012).

5. Jackson, C. B., Farzan, M., Chen, B. & Choe, H. Mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 entry into cells. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Bio* **23**, 3–20 (2022).

6. Cai, X., Xu, Y., Kim, Y.-M., Loureiro, J. & Huang, Q. PIKfyve, a class III lipid kinase, is required for TLR-induced type I IFN production via modulation of ATF3. *Journal of immunology (Baltimore, Md : 1950)* **192**, 3383–3389 (2014).

7. Lartigue, J. de *et al.* PIKfyve Regulation of Endosome-Linked Pathways. *Traffic* **10**, 883–893 (2009).

8. Cerny, J. *et al.* The small chemical vacuolin-1 inhibits Ca(2+)-dependent lysosomal exocytosis but not cell resealing. *EMBO reports* **5**, 883–888 (2004).

9. Sano, O. *et al.* Vacuolin-1 inhibits autophagy by impairing lysosomal maturation via PIKfyve inhibition. *FEBS Lett.* **590**, 1576–1585 (2016).

10. Nelson, E. A. *et al.* The phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate 5-kinase inhibitor apilimod blocks filoviral entry and infection. *PLoS Neglected Trop. Dis.* **11**, e0005540 (2017).

11. Kang, Y.-L. *et al.* Inhibition of PIKfyve kinase prevents infection by Zaire ebolavirus and SARS-CoV-2. *Proc National Acad Sci* **117**, 20803–20813 (2020).

12. Seo, Y. *et al.* A dual inhibitor of PIP5K1C and PIKfyve prevents SARS-CoV-2 entry into cells. *Exp. Mol. Med.* **56**, 1736–1749 (2024).

13. Cuesta-Geijo, M. A. *et al.* Endosomal Maturation, Rab7 GTPase and Phosphoinositides in African Swine Fever Virus Entry. *PLoS ONE* **7**, e48853 (2012).

14. Luo, Z. *et al.* Inhibition of PIKFYVE kinase interferes ESCRT pathway to suppress RNA virus replication. *J. Méd. Virol.* **95**, e28527 (2023).

15. Drewry, D. H., Potjewyd, F. M., Smith, J. L., Howell, S. & Axtman, A. D. Identification of a chemical probe for lipid kinase phosphatidylinositol-5-phosphate 4-kinase gamma (PI5P4Kγ). *Curr. Res. Chem. Biol.* **3**, 100036 (2023).

16. Baker, J. *et al.* Pan-antiviral effects of a PIKfyve inhibitor on respiratory virus infection in
human nasal epithelium and mice. *Antimicrob. Agents Chemother.* **68**, e01050-23 (2023).

17. Yang, H. *et al.* LYVAC/PDZD8 is a lysosomal vacuolator. *Science* **389**, eadz0972 (2025).

18. Simmons, J. A. *et al.* Ebolavirus Glycoprotein Directs Fusion through NPC1+
Endolysosomes. *J. Virol.* **90**, 605–610 (2015).

19. Winter, S. L. *et al.* The Ebola virus VP40 matrix layer undergoes endosomal disassembly
essential for membrane fusion. *EMBO J.* **42**, EMBJ2023113578 (2023).

20. Koch, J. *et al.* TMPRSS2 expression dictates the entry route used by SARS-CoV-2 to infect
host cells. *Embo J* **40**, e107821 (2021).

21. Ou, T. *et al.* Hydroxychloroquine-mediated inhibition of SARS-CoV-2 entry is attenuated by
TMPRSS2. *Plos Pathog* **17**, e1009212 (2021).

22. Hoffmann, M. *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 Cell Entry Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is
Blocked by a Clinically Proven Protease Inhibitor. *Cell* **181**, 271-280.e8 (2020).

23. Kreutzberger, A. J. B. *et al.* Synergistic Block of SARS-CoV-2 Infection by Combined Drug
Inhibition of the Host Entry Factors PIKfyve Kinase and TMPRSS2 Protease. *J. Virol.* **95**,
10.1128/jvi.00975-21 (2021).

24. Uwada, J. *et al.* PIKFYVE inhibition induces endosome- and lysosome-derived vacuole
enlargement via ammonium accumulation. *J. Cell Sci.* **138**, (2025).

25. Compton, L. M., Ikonomov, O. C., Sbrissa, D., Garg, P. & Shisheva, A. Active vacuolar H+
ATPase and functional cycle of Rab5 are required for the vacuolation defect triggered by
PtdIns(3,5)P2 loss under PIKfyve or Vps34 deficiency. *American journal of physiology Cell*
physiology **311**, C366-77 (2016).

26. Zook, E. *et al.* Delayed vacuolation in mammalian cells caused by hypotonicity and ion loss.
Sci. Rep. **14**, 29354 (2024).

27. King, C., Sengupta, P., Seo, A. Y. & Lippincott-Schwartz, J. ER membranes exhibit phase
behavior at sites of organelle contact. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **117**, 7225–7235 (2020).

28. Li, P. *et al.* LRRC8 family proteins within lysosomes regulate cellular osmoregulation and
enhance cell survival to multiple physiological stresses. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **117**, 29155–
29165 (2020).

29. Bowman, E. J., Siebers, A. & Altendorf, K. Bafilomycins: a class of inhibitors of membrane
ATPases from microorganisms, animal cells, and plant cells. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **85**, 7972–
7976 (1988).

30. Leray, X. *et al.* Tonic inhibition of the chloride/proton antiporter ClC-7 by PI(3,5)P2 is crucial
for lysosomal pH maintenance. *eLife* **11**, e74136 (2022).

31. Sharma, G. *et al.* A family of PIKFYVE inhibitors with therapeutic potential against
autophagy-dependent cancer cells disrupt multiple events in lysosome homeostasis. *Autophagy*
15, 1694–1718 (2019).

32. Johannsdottir, H. K., Mancini, R., Kartenbeck, J., Amato, L. & Helenius, A. Host cell factors
and functions involved in vesicular stomatitis virus entry. *J Virol* **83**, 440–453 (2009).

33. Mire, C. E., White, J. M. & Whitt, M. A. A Spatio-Temporal Analysis of Matrix Protein and
Nucleocapsid Trafficking during Vesicular Stomatitis Virus Uncoating. *PLoS Pathog.* **6**,
e1000994 (2010).

34. Sieczkarski, S. B. & Whittaker, G. R. Differential Requirements of Rab5 and Rab7 for
Endocytosis of Influenza and Other Enveloped Viruses. *Traffic* **4**, 333–343 (2003).

35. White, J. M. & Whittaker, G. R. Fusion of Enveloped Viruses in Endosomes. *Traffic* **17**, 593–
614 (2016).

36. Zang, R. *et al.* TMPRSS2 and TMPRSS4 promote SARS-CoV-2 infection of human small
intestinal enterocytes. *Sci. Immunol.* **5**, eabc3582 (2020).

37. Whelan, S. P., Ball, L. A., Barr, J. N. & Wertz, G. T. Efficient recovery of infectious vesicular
stomatitis virus entirely from cDNA clones. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **92**, 8388–8392 (1995).

38. Si, Z., Zhou, K., Tsao, J., Luo, M. & Zhou, Z. H. Locations and in situ structure of the
polymerase complex inside the virion of vesicular stomatitis virus. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **119**,
e2111948119 (2022).

39. Case, J. B. *et al.* Neutralizing Antibody and Soluble ACE2 Inhibition of a Replication-
Competent VSV-SARS-CoV-2 and a Clinical Isolate of SARS-CoV-2. *Cell host & microbe* **28**,
475-485.e5 (2020).

40. Wong, A. C., Sandesara, R. G., Mulherkar, N., Whelan, S. P. & Chandran, K. A forward
genetic strategy reveals destabilizing mutations in the Ebolavirus glycoprotein that alter its
protease dependence during cell entry. *Journal of virology* **84**, 163–175 (2010).

41. Zhou, K. *et al.* Atomic model of vesicular stomatitis virus and mechanism of assembly. *Nat.*
Commun. **13**, 5980 (2022).

42. Arzt, M. *et al.* LABKIT: Labeling and Segmentation Toolkit for Big Image Data. *Front.*
Comput. Sci. **4**, (2022).

43. Aguet, F. *et al.* Membrane dynamics of dividing cells imaged by lattice light-sheet
microscopy. *Molecular biology of the cell* (2016) doi:10.1091/mbc.e16-03-0164.

44. Thomas, L. S. V. & Gehrig, J. Multi-template matching: a versatile tool for object-localization
in microscopy images. *BMC Bioinform.* **21**, 44 (2020).

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV ▬▬▬   ▬ Live Cell Imaging

Apilimod

-60min   0min   10min   50min   4h

50 min

B Control — NPC1 | MeGFP | Merge

C 5 µM Apilimod — 10 µm

D # NPC1 endolysosomes colocalized with VSV-MeGFP-ZEBOV per cell — Control, 5 µM Apilimod

4 h

E Control — NPC1 | MeGFP | Merge — nuclear envelope

F 5 µM Apilimod — 10 µm

G Cells showing viral entry (%) — Control 26/86, 5 µM Apilimod 0/88 — ****

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

A

Live Cell Imaging

-60min　　0min　　10min　　Apilimod

B Control

NPC1　　EEA1　　Merge

10 μm

C 5 μM Apilimod

NPC1　　EEA1　　Merge

10 μm

10 μm　　lower brightness

Fig S1