A Cell-Type-Specific Defect in Assembly of Influenza A Virus Particles in Primary Human Macrophages

Sukhmani Bedi and Akira Ono*

Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan Medical School,

Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

* Corresponding Author:

Akira Ono, Ph.D.

Department of Microbiology and Immunology

University of Michigan Medical School

5736 Medical Science Building II, 1150 W. Medical Center Drive

Ann Arbor, MI 48109-0620

Email: akiraono@umich.edu

Abstract:

The primary target of Influenza A virus (IAV) is epithelial cells in the respiratory tract. In

contrast to epithelial cells, productive virus infection of most IAV strains is either

completely blocked or highly inefficient in macrophages. The exact nature of the defect

in IAV replication that leads to inefficient production of progeny virus particles in human

macrophages remains to be determined. In this study, we showed that primary human

monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM) are inefficient in IAV release even when

compared to a macrophage-like cell line, despite comparable levels of viral protein

translation and expression of viral glycoproteins at the plasma membrane. Correlative

fluorescence scanning electron microscopy revealed that formation of budding structures

at the cell surface is inefficient in MDM even though clustering of a viral glycoprotein,

hemagglutinin (HA), is observed, suggesting that a step in the assembly process is

blocked in this cell type. Using an *in situ* proximity ligation assay, we further determined

that association between HA and the viral ion channel protein M2 is defective in MDM. In

contrast, HA and another glycoprotein neuraminidase (NA) associate with each other on

the MDM surface efficiently. Altogether, our study shows that association between HA

with M2 on the plasma membrane is a discrete step in the IAV assembly process, which

is separable from the association between HA with NA. Overall, our study lends key

insights into cell-type-specific molecular events important for completion of IAV

assembly in host cells.

Importance: Viruses rely on host cell factors for efficient replication. Therefore,

modulating the interaction between viruses and such host factors is potentially an

important therapeutic strategy for blocking virus replication. Identification of host cell

determinants important for replication of several viruses has been aided by the discovery

of target host cells that possess inherent blocks in viral replication. In this study, we

show that primary human MDM are not permissive to IAV replication due to a defect at

the virus particle formation step. This defect is specific to primary human macrophages,

since a human monocyte-derived cell line differentiated into macrophage-like

morphology supports IAV particle formation. Further, comparison of these cell types

suggests that the defect in virus particle assembly in MDM is at least partly due to

inefficient association between two viral glycoproteins, HA and M2, on the surface of

these cells. Overall, by identifying the viral protein interaction susceptible to cell-type-

specific differences, our study suggests the possibility that the interactions between viral

components can be targeted to block IAV assembly in infected cells.

Introduction:

Influenza A virus (IAV) is a negative strand RNA virus that mainly infects and replicates in epithelial cells in the respiratory tract. However, the virus has also been shown to infect other cell types such as macrophages, dendritic cells, and mast cells *ex vivo*[1-3]. Cell-type-specific differences have been observed for various properties of IAV such as morphology and virulence[4,5]. These differences could be due to differences in expression levels or functions of host cellular proteins between cell types. Previous studies have identified multiple host factors involved in IAV life cycle using genome-wide approaches[6-13]. A complementary approach towards identification of host factors is via comparison between permissive and non-permissive cell types. This approach in which the specific function of the host factor of interest is often determined prior to the identity of the factor has led to identification of virus receptors as well as host factors that restrict replication of viruses[14-17].

Ex vivo infection studies have shown that in comparison to epithelial cells, murine and human macrophages are less permissive or non-permissive to replication of seasonal virus strains[18-24]. Murine macrophages are non-permissive to seasonal IAV strains[18,20,24,25]. In contrast, primary human blood-derived or alveolar macrophages support seasonal IAV replication at detectable levels although they are still much less permissive to virus growth than human epithelial cells[19,21,22,25]. As for the defective stages of the IAV life cycle, a defect at the entry stage of infection has been identified in murine macrophages for most H1N1 strains[18,20,24]. In addition, other studies have identified a defect(s) at a post-entry stage, either prior to protein translation or at assembly/budding in murine macrophages[20,24]; however, the mechanism in either case has yet to be determined. In contrast to murine macrophages, human macrophages support early stages of replication of all tested IAV strains yet are unable to complete the virus life cycle[24]. While the defect appears to be post-translational, the exact nature of

this defect in human macrophages and the molecular mechanism behind it are not

known.

Determining the exact nature of the human macrophage-specific defect in IAV

replication is likely to facilitate identification of human host factors that regulate the IAV

life cycle. In the current study, we used primary human MDM in order to identify the

defective step in IAV replication in human macrophages. We show that MDM support

early stages of the IAV assembly process, i.e. trafficking of the viral glycoproteins

hemagglutinin (HA), neuraminidase (NA), and the ion channel protein M2 to the plasma

membrane, but are inefficient at virus particle formation and subsequent virus release.

This defect in virus particle formation and release is specific to primary MDM, since a

monocytic cell line differentiated into macrophage-like cells supports efficient virus

particle production. Notably, we observed that the association of HA with M2 on the

plasma membrane is highly inefficient in MDM relative to the macrophage-like cells. In

contrast, HA and NA associate efficiently on the surface of MDM. Overall, we have

identified that virus particle formation, more specifically association between HA and M2,

is the defective step in IAV life cycle in primary human macrophages. Our study further

showed that association between plasma membrane-localized HA and M2 is a discrete

step in IAV assembly, which is regulated by a cell-type-specific factor(s).

Materials and methods:

Cells and antibodies: Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells were provided by Dr.

Arnold S. Monto (University of Michigan) and were cultured in DMEM (Gibco)

supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Hyclone) and 25 mM HEPES. Human

lung carcinoma cell line A549 was provided by Dr. Mike Bachman (University of

Michigan) and was cultured in DMEM (Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS and 25 mM

HEPES. Human embryonic kidney-derived 293T cell line (ATCC) was cultured and

maintained in DMEM (Lonza) supplemented with 10% FBS. Monocytes were isolated by

plate adhesion from peripheral blood mononuclear cells, which were obtained from buffy

coats derived from unidentified healthy donors (New York Blood Center, NY). Cells were

cultured in RPMI 1640(Gibco) supplemented with 10% FBS for 7 days before they were

used for experiments. THP1 (ATCC® TIB202™) cells were cultured in RPMI 1640

supplemented with 10% FBS, 1 mM Sodium Pyruvate (Gibco) and 0.05

mM 2-mercaptoethanol. To generate differentiated THP1 cells (dTHP1), THP1 cells

were cultured in the medium containing 0.1 µM phorbol 12-myristate 12-acetate (PMA;

Sigma) and 0.1 µM Vitamin D3 (Sigma) for 2-3 days.

The following antibodies were used for immunofluorescence: mouse anti-HA monoclonal

antibody (clone C179[26]; Takara), mouse anti-M2 monoclonal antibody (clone 14C2[27];

Thermofisher), mouse anti-vRNP monoclonal antibody (clone 61A5[28]; kind gift from Dr.

Momose, Kitasato University), goat anti-HA serum (BEI NR-3148), mouse anti-

transferrin receptor (TfR) monoclonal antibody (clone M-A712; BD Biosciences).

Rabbit anti-NA serum was a kind gift from Dr. Christopher Brooke (University of Illinois).

All secondary antibodies used for immunofluorescence were purchased from

Thermofisher.

Plasmids and virus stocks: A/WSN/1933 (H1N1) virus was generated by reverse

genetics[29]. WSN virus was rescued following transfection of 293T cells with the 8 pPolI

plasmids and the 4 pCAGGS plasmids (encoding the PA, PB1, PB2, and NP proteins)

using TransIT-293 transfection reagent (Mirus). Forty-eight hours post transfection, virus

supernatant from 293T cells was collected and propagated in MDCK cells for 48-72

hours. Virus titers of propagated WSN virus were determined using the plaque assay

with MDCK cells, and the virus stock was stored at -80°C. A/Wyoming/03/2003 (H3N2)

(Wyoming H3N2), A/Panama/2007/1999 (H3N2) (Panama H3N2), and

A/California/07/2009 (H1N1) (California H1N1) viruses were a kind gift from Dr. Arnold

S. Monto (University of Michigan). All viruses were received as low passage stocks (less

than 5 passages in MDCK cells) of virus purified from clinical specimen.

Virus infections: For virus infection, cells were first washed twice with MEM-BSA

medium (1X MEM supplemented with 0.3% BSA (Sigma), 0.23% sodium bicarbonate

(Gibco), 1X MEM amino acids (Gibco), and 1X MEM vitamins (Gibco)). The cells were

then incubated with 200 µl diluted virus for 1 hour at 37°C, washed twice with MEM-

BSA, and cultured in MEM-BSA containing 0.2 µg/ml tosylsulfonyl phenylalanyl

chloromethyl ketone (TPCK)-treated trypsin (Worthington).

Infectious virus measurement by plaque assay: Confluent monolayers of MDCK cells

were washed twice with MEM-BSA and incubated with 100 µl of serial dilutions of virus

supernatants for 1 hour at 37°C. Cells were washed once with MEM-BSA and layered

with MEM-BSA containing 0.76 ug/ml TPCK-treated trypsin and 1% Seakem GTG

agarose /Seaplaque (Lonza) and incubated at 37°C for 48-72 hours. The agarose was

removed, and the cells were stained with crystal violet (0.1% crystal violet in 20%

methanol) for 10 minutes before counting plaques.

Immunostaining and flow cytometry: For viral protein expression analysis by flow

cytometry, virus- or mock-infected cells were detached using 0.06% trypsin-EDTA and

fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Electron Microscopy Sciences) in phosphate-

buffered saline (PBS) for 20 minutes at room temperature. After fixation, cells were

washed twice with 2% FBS in PBS (FACS buffer). For detecting viral protein expression

on the cell surface, cells were subsequently incubated with primary antibodies for 45-60

minutes directly. For staining of intracellular proteins, cells were first permeabilized with

0.1% TritonX-100 in PBS for 5 minutes and then probed with primary antibodies. After

washing once with the FACS buffer, cells were incubated with fluorescently labeled

secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) for 20-30 minutes. Cells were washed twice with the

FACS buffer and analyzed using the FACSCanto flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). Data

were analyzed in FlowJo (Treestar) and the positive gates were set using the mock-

infected controls.

Measurement of vRNA levels: Virus-containing cell culture supernatants were

centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 minutes, filtered through a 0.45-μm filter, and subjected to

ultracentrifugation at 30,800 rpm (AH650 swinging bucket rotor) for 90 minutes to

prepare virus pellets. Virus and cell-associated vRNA was measured using a previously

described protocol[30]. Briefly, total RNA was extracted from virus pellets and cell lysates

using TRIzol reagent (Ambion) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Complementary DNA was generated using random hexamer priming and the

SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis System (Invitrogen). Quantitative PCR was

performed on a CFX96 Real Time PCR system (Biorad) using Platinum SYBR Green

pPCR SuperMiX-UDG (Thermo Scientific Fisher) with primers described below. Serial

ten-fold dilutions of plasmids containing specific viral gene of WSN were used to

generate a standard curve for quantification of cDNA copy number based on cycle

threshold (Ct) values. The following primers were used: PB1 forward: 5'-

TCAGAGAAAGAGACGAGTGAG-3', PB1 reverse: 5'- AAACCCCCTTATTTGCATCC-3',

PB2 forward: 5'- GTTGGGAGAAGAGCAACAGC-3', PB2 reverse: 5'-

GATTCGCCCTATTGACGAAA-3', PA forward: 5'- TGTGCAGCAATGGATGATTT-3', PA

reverse: 5'- TCTCCCATTTGTGTGGTTCA-3', NP forward: 5'-

GCGCCAAGCTAATAATGGTG-3', NP reverse: 5'-GGAGTGCCAGATCATCATGT-3', M

forward: 5'-GACCRATCCTGTCACCTCTGAC-3', M reverse: 5'-

AGGGCATTYTGGACAAAKCGTCTA-3', NS forward: 5'-

CAGAATGGACCAGGCGATCA-3', NS reverse: 5'-TAGAGTCTCCAGCCGGTCAA-3',

HA forward: 5'-TAACCTGCTCGAAGACAGAC-3', HA reverse: 5'-

AGAGCCATCCGGTGATGTTA-3', NA forward: 5'- TTGGTCAGCAAGTGCATGTC-3',

NA reverse: 5'- ACAGCCACTGCTCCATCATC-3'.

Correlative fluorescence and scanning electron microscopy (CFSEM): CFSEM

experiments were performed as described before[31]. Briefly, cells cultured on gridded

coverslips (Bellco Biotechnology) were infected with WSN at MOI 0.1. Cells were fixed

with 4% PFA in PBS at 20-24 hpi. Cells were then rinsed in PBS, and the remaining PFA

was quenched by incubating the cells in PBS containing 0.1 M glycine (Sigma) in PBS

for 10 min. Cells were blocked by incubation in PBS containing 3% bovine serum

albumin (BSA, Sigma) in PBS for 20 minutes. After blocking, cells were stained with

mouse anti-HA primary antibody for 45-60 minutes, followed by incubation with

fluorescently labeled secondary antibody. Cells were then washed in PBS and imaged

using a Leica Inverted SP5X Confocal Microscope with a 40× PL APO objective and 10-

20× scanning zoom. After fluorescence imaging, cells were fixed with PBS containing

2.5% glutaraldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences) at 4°C overnight. Cells were then

rinsed with Sorenson's buffer (0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer, pH 7.4), stained with 1%

OsO_4 in Sorenson's buffer for 30 min, rinsed again in Sorenson's buffer, and then

dehydrated in a series of 10-min ethanol washes at 30%, 50%, 70%, 90%, 100%, and

100% (vol/vol in water). Cells were then rinsed twice for 15 min each in

hexamethyldisilazane (Electron Microscopy Sciences) and allowed to dry overnight.

After dehydration, coverslips were affixed to specimen mounts and sputter coated with

gold for 90 s (Polaron). Cells were identified by their location on the gridded coverslip

and imaged on an Amray 1910FEG scanning electron microscope at 5-10 kV. Digital

SEM images were collected with an X-Stream Digital Image Capture System (SEMTech

Solutions). Fluorescence and SEM images were roughly brought into registration by

scaling and rotating images in Adobe Illustrator, similarly to other correlative

fluorescence/SEM studies. Landmarks used for registration included cell edges. Cell

surface structures visible in SEM were manually classified as virus-like buds if they

appeared spherical and near 100 nm in diameter. Number of HA-positive puncta was

measured in the fluorescence images using the *Analyze particle* function in ImageJ.

Since MDM have microfolds on the cell surface, especially towards the center of the cell,

but have a flatter topology towards the edge of the cells, we focused on areas towards

the edge of the cells for quantification of efficiency of virus bud formation.

Surface protein colocalization analysis: Virus-infected dTHP1 cells and MDM were

washed with PBS and fixed with 4% PFA for 20 minutes. Cells were then blocked with

PBS containing 3% BSA for 20 minutes at room temperature. Cells were incubated with

anti-HA and anti-M2 primary antibodies for 45-60 minutes at room temperature, washed

twice with PBS, and stained with fluorescently labeled secondary antibodies. Cells were

subsequently washed with PBS, and slides were mounted with coverslips using

Fluoromount G (SouthernBiotech) as mounting medium. Cells were examined using a

Leica Inverted SP5X Confocal Microscope System with a 63x or 100X objective.

Pearson's correlation coefficients between HA and M2 were calculated using the Coloc2

plugin in the ImageJ software program. Eight-ten cells were analyzed per experiment for

each condition.

***In situ* Proximity Ligation Assay (PLA):** PLA was performed according to

Duolink® PLA fluorescence protocol (Sigma). Briefly, WSN-infected dTHP1 cells or MDM

were fixed with 4% PFA and blocked with Duolink® PLA Blocking Buffer. Cells were

incubated with the following primary antibody combinations: goat anti-HA and mouse

anti-M2 for PLA and rabbit anti-NA for identification of infected cells; mouse anti-HA and

rabbit anti-NA for PLA and goat anti-HA for identification of infected cells; or goat anti-HA

and mouse anti-TfR for PLA and rabbit anti-NA for identification of infected cells. After

washing twice with PLA Wash Buffer A, cells were incubated with PLA probes that bind

goat and mouse primary antibodies (for HA-M2 and HA-TfR PLA) or mouse and rabbit

primary antibodies (for HA-NA PLA). In addition to the PLA probes, the cells were co-

stained with a fluorescently labeled secondary antibody recognizing anti-NA (for HA-M2

and HA-TfR PLA) or anti-HA (for HA-NA PLA). Probe ligation and amplification steps

were carried out according to manufacturer's instructions. After washes, slides were

mounted with a cover slip using Duolink® In Situ Mounting Medium. Cells were observed

using a Leica Inverted SP5X Confocal Microscope System with a 63X objective. Z-

stacks were acquired for each cell, and the maximum intensity projection for each cell

was constructed using ImageJ. The projection image was thresholded, and the number

of PLA-positive spots was counted using the *Analyze particle* function in ImageJ. Eight-

ten cells were analyzed per experiment for each condition.

Results:

MDM are inefficient in supporting productive IAV infection relative to differentiated

THP1 cells

To determine the extent to which human epithelial cells and macrophages differ

in their ability to support productive IAV infection, we compared infectious IAV release

from three different human cell types: the lung-derived epithelial cell line A549, the

monocytic cell line THP1, which has been differentiated to adopt macrophage-like

morphology (dTHP1), and primary monocyte-derived macrophages (MDM). The dTHP1

cells were obtained via treatment of THP1 cells with phorbol 12-myristate 12-acetate

(PMA) and Vitamin D3 for 2-3 days. Upon infection with the laboratory strain

A/WSN/1933 (H1N1) (WSN) at MOI 0.01, we observed that virus titers in MDM culture

supernatants were up to 100-fold reduced in comparison to that in A549 culture

supernatants at 11 hours post infection (hpi). Unexpectedly, virus titers in culture

supernatants were similar between A549 and dTHP1 cells (Figure 1A). Since dTHP1

cells differ from MDM in its ability to support influenza virus replication and yet belong to

the same cellular lineage, to facilitate the analyses of MDM-specific defect(s), we chose

to compare IAV replication in MDM with that in dTHP1 cells in subsequent experiments.

While MDM isolated from the vast majority of the tested human donors (Group 1)

showed a defect in productive IAV infection relative to dTHP1 at 24 hpi, MDM from some

donors (Group 2; ~20%) showed no significant difference (Figure 1B). Therefore, to

identify the MDM-specific defect and its mechanism, the subsequent experiments were

performed using MDM from the donors in Group 1.

To assess whether other IAV strains also replicate inefficiently in MDM relative to

dTHP1 cells, we compared productive infection in dTHP1 cells and MDM of three

previously or currently circulating IAV strains, in addition to WSN: A/Wyoming/03/2003

(H3N2) [Wyoming (H3N2)], A/Panama/2007/1999 (H3N2) [Panama (H3N2)], and

A/California/07/2009 (H1N1) [California (H1N1)]. Infectious virus titers of all tested IAV

strains, as measured by the plaque assay, were reduced by 10-50-fold in MDM in

comparison to dTHP1 cells (Figure 1C).

To determine whether the same number of cells are infected in both dTHP1 and

MDM cultures, we compared the percentage of infected cells as well as release of

infectious virus particles from dTHP1 cells and MDM at different time points post

infection. Upon infection with WSN, Wyoming (H3N2), and Panama (H3N2), we

observed a significant reduction in infectious virus production from MDM at 24 hpi or

later relative to dTHP1 cells (Figure 2, top panels). The percentage of virus-infected

cells, measured using an antibody (61A5) that specifically recognizes nucleoprotein (NP)

in complex with viral RNA (vRNP)[28], showed no difference between dTHP1 cells and

MDM at different time points with any of the tested viral strains (Figure 2, lower panels).

These results suggest that even though the number of IAV-infected cells are similar

between dTHP1 cells and MDM, MDM are highly inefficient at producing infectious virus

in comparison to dTHP1 cells.

Both efficiency of virus release and infectivity of released particles are reduced in

MDM relative to dTHP1

Our data thus far suggest that infectious virus release is reduced in MDM relative

to dTHP1 cells even though similar number of cells are infected. We sought to address

whether the reduction in viral titers in MDM culture supernatants is due to a reduction in

infectivity of released particles or whether it is due to a reduction in release of physical

particles. To this end, we used viral RNA (vRNA) release as a surrogate to measure

release of physical particles from dTHP1 cells and MDM. Number of vRNA copies

released from MDM were 7-8-fold reduced in comparison to that from dTHP1 cells for all

eight vRNA segments. However, there were no significant differences in vRNA levels in

cells. vRNA release efficiency was calculated as the ratio of number of vRNA copies in

cell culture supernatants to the total number of vRNA copies (cells + supernatant). For

all eight vRNA segments, we observed a 5-10-fold reduction in vRNA release efficiency

in MDM relative to dTHP1 cells (Figure 3A). This suggests that efficiency of physical viral

particle release from MDM is reduced in comparison to that from dTHP1 cells.

Importantly, the reduction in vRNA release (7-8-fold) from MDM does not entirely

account for reduction in infectious virus release (up to 50-fold) (Figure 3B). The ratio of

released vRNA (representing total number of particles) to released PFU (representing

infectious virions) was calculated as the infectivity per particle. Infectivity per particle for

virus particles released from MDM was 5-6-fold reduced versus that released from

dTHP1 cells (Figure 3B). Overall, our data suggest that the total number of virus

particles released as well as the infectivity of released virus particles is reduced in MDM

relative to dTHP1 cells.

Viral protein translation is not defective in MDM relative to dTHP1 cells

Our data in Figure 1B (% vRNP+ cells) show that vRNP can be detected in both dTHP1

cells and MDM similarly, suggesting that virus entry is unlikely to be defective in MDM

relative to dTHP1 cells. To determine whether MDM are able to express viral proteins as

efficiently as dTHP1 cells, we compared the cellular levels of three viral components,

vRNP complex, matrix (M1) protein, and hemagglutinin (HA) protein between dTHP1

cells and MDM. The sizes of cell populations that express these components were not

different between MDM and dTHP1 cells (Figures 4A and 4B). The mean fluorescence

intensity (MFI) of staining for the three viral components in infected cell populations was

similar between MDM and dTHP1 cells (Figure 4C). These results suggest that the

reduction in virus release from MDM is due to a defect in post-translation step(s).

Formation of budding structures is inefficient in MDM relative to dTHP1 cells

despite similar levels of viral glycoprotein expression at the plasma membrane

Virus assembly is initiated by targeting of the glycoproteins HA and NA to the

plasma membrane[32-34]. The third transmembrane protein M2 is also recruited to the

assembly sites at the plasma membrane and allows for completion of the virus budding

process[33,35]. To determine whether trafficking of the three glycoproteins occurs similarly

in dTHP1 cells and MDM, we next compared levels of HA, NA and M2 proteins on the

surface of WSN-infected cells. We did not observe a major difference in sizes of cell

populations with surface expression of any of the three proteins between MDM and

dTHP1 cells (Figures 5A and 5B). The MFI of staining for all three viral proteins in

infected cell populations was similar between MDM and dTHP1 cells (Figure 5C),

indicating that trafficking of viral glycoproteins to the plasma membrane is not defective

in MDM.

We next asked whether dTHP1 cells and MDM expressing HA on the cell surface

support virus particle formation. To this end, we performed correlative fluorescence and

scanning electron microscopy (CFSEM) to first identify cells with surface HA expression

using fluorescence microscopy and then examine formation of virus particle-like buds on

the surface of the same cells using scanning electron microscopy (SEM). HA-positive

clusters or puncta, which likely represent sites of virus assembly, were detected on the

surface of infected cells after the images were thresholded to remove background signal.

Budding structures with a diameter of approximately 100 nm, corresponding to HA-

enriched sites, were observed on the surface of WSN-infected dTHP1 cells. No such

budding structures were observed on the surface of mock-infected cells. MDM also form

virus particle-like buds on the surface in HA-positive cells, albeit the number of buds

observed in MDM were lower than in dTHP1 cells (Figure 6A). The number of HA-

positive puncta as well as the number of virus particle-like buds were counted within the

same area of each cell. Even though MDM showed higher number of HA-positive puncta

on the cell surface than dTHP1 cells, the number of virus buds were drastically reduced

in MDM relative to dTHP1 cells (Figure 6B). Overall, these results indicate that MDM are

inefficient at virus particle assembly/budding despite efficient trafficking of HA, NA and

M2 to the plasma membrane.

Association between HA and M2 is defective in MDM but not in dTHP1 cells

To compare formation of putative assembly sites (sites co-enriched in HA, NA

and M2) between dTHP1 cells and MDM, we first measured the extent of colocalization

between HA and M2 on the surface of the two cell types. Both proteins localized on the

cell surface, corroborating the flow cytometry data (Figure 5A), and showed a high

degree of colocalization in both dTHP1 cells and MDM (Figure 7A). Moreover, Pearson

correlation coefficient analysis showed a slightly higher level of cell surface

colocalization between HA and M2 in MDM than in dTHP1 cells (Figure 7B). However,

due to the limited resolution offered by confocal microscopy (500-700 nm), it is difficult to

distinguish between HA- and M2-co-enriched assembly sites (spanning 300-600 nm[33])

and free HA and M2 proteins that are present on the plasma membrane but are not

associated with assembly sites. To selectively detect HA- and M2- co-enriched assembly

sites on the cell surface, we used *in situ* proximity ligation assay (PLA). PLA allows for

detection of two proteins localized within 40-nm distance of each other and has been

previously used to visualize IAV assembly sites on the plasma membrane[36]. In addition

to measuring PLA signal between the given proteins, we also co-stained cells for cell

surface NA to identify infected cells. As a negative control, we performed PLA between

HA and transferrin receptor (TfR). TfR does not associate with lipid rafts[37], the plasma

membrane microdomains associated with IAV assembly sites[33,38]. Infected dTHP1 cells

showed high PLA signal for HA-M2 association. In contrast, infected MDM showed very

few PLA spots between HA and M2 (Figures 7C and 7D). As expected, no PLA signal

was observed between HA and M2 in mock-infected cells or between HA and TfR in

infected cells (Figure 7C). In addition, the majority (80-90%) of both surface NA-positive

MDM and dTHP1 cells express HA and M2 on their surface (Figure 7E). Therefore, the

significant reduction in HA-M2 PLA signal in MDM relative to dTHP1 cells is not due to

the lack of expression of HA and/or M2 in NA-positive cells.

To determine whether the defect in association between transmembrane proteins

in MDM is specific to HA and M2 or whether association between other pairs of viral

transmembrane proteins is defective as well, we next measured PLA signal between HA

and NA. In this case, to identify infected cells, we co-stained cells for cell surface HA

using an antibody different from the one used for PLA. PLA signal between HA and NA

was similar for dTHP1 cells and MDM, suggesting that HA and NA associate with each

other as efficiently on the surface of MDM as on dTHP1 cells (Figure 8). Overall, our

data suggest that association between HA and M2 is specifically impaired in MDM and

may lead to incomplete virus assembly in these cells.

Discussion:

402
In a previous study, a post-translational defect in productive IAV infection was

observed in human MDM[24]. A similar defect was also reported for murine macrophages

in one study[20] but not the other[24]. The exact nature of these defects that lead to

inefficient IAV release has not been determined. Here, we have shown that despite

efficient trafficking of the viral glycoproteins to the cell surface (Figure 5), infectious virus

particle formation at the plasma membrane is inefficient in this cell type (Figures 3 and

6). The current study further identified HA-M2 association as a defective step in IAV

assembly in MDM (Figure 7). This negative regulation is specific to primary

macrophages as macrophage-like cells derived from the THP1 monocytic cell line

(dTHP1 cells) support HA-M2 association and efficient IAV production.

Previous studies observed strain-specific differences for IAV replication in human

macrophages. Some strains such as highly pathogenic H5N1 and pandemic 1918

strains can replicate in macrophages albeit at a lower efficiency than in epithelial

cells[18,19,22,25]. Marvin *et al.* recently reported that the laboratory strain WSN is able to

overcome blocks in IAV replication in human macrophages, while replication of

A/California/04/2009 strain is completely blocked[24]. In our study, infectious virus release

of any of the tested IAV strains is not completely blocked in MDM although all tested

strains released significantly lower titers in MDM than in dTHP1 cells (Figure 1C). At this

point, it remains unclear whether the difference observed with non-WSN strains between

these studies arose from the use of different strains or different detection or culture

methods. Since productive infection of WSN is reduced in MDM in comparison to dTHP1

cells as observed for other tested viral strains in our study, we chose to elucidate the

mechanism behind the reduction in IAV release using WSN for which antibody reagents

are available to us. In our future studies, we plan to determine whether the molecular

mechanism behind defective IAV release from MDM is shared among different IAV

strains.

In addition to identifying the defective step for IAV replication in primary human

macrophages, our study also lends key insights into the assembly and budding process

of IAV in host cells. IAV is thought to assemble in cholesterol-enriched microdomains, or

membrane rafts, of the plasma membrane in host cells[39-41]. HA and NA accumulate at

these assembly sites, also known as the budozones, while the third transmembrane

protein M2 is suggested to localize at the edge of the budozone[32,35,38,42]. However, the

sequence of events leading to recruitment of M2 to the budozone and the mechanism

regulating these events remain to be determined. Our PLA data suggest that association

between HA and NA likely precedes association between HA and M2. A recent study

showed that NA but not M2 accelerates HA trafficking to the apical surface of epithelial

cells, presumably through co-trafficking[42]. Therefore, recruitment of M2 to assembly sites

enriched in both HA and NA is a discrete step in the IAV assembly process. While PLA

revealed the cell-type-specific difference in association between HA and M2 proteins, it

does not inform sizes of clusters containing HA (and NA) only, M2 only, or both and

ratios of budozone-associated versus free viral protein populations, both of which are

indispensable information for further delineating the assembly process in different cell

types. Analyses using super-resolution microscopy is underway to address these points.

The cytoplasmic domain of M2 comprises of an amphipathic helix, which plays a

role in scission of the IAV particle after budding[35,43]. Previous studies have described the

role of M2 in assembly and scission of virus buds[35,43], vRNP incorporation[44-46], and M1

binding[44,47-49] using virus strains that either lack M2 expression or express cytoplasmic

tail mutant versions of the protein. Interestingly, in epithelial cells, virus lacking M2 or

expressing mutant M2 proteins is still able to initiate particle assembly and budding,

presumably mediated by HA and NA. However, these buds adopt an abnormal

morphology and/or fail to undergo scission or release[35,46,50], latter of which results in

accumulation of particles at the cell surface. In contrast, MDM show very few buds on

their surface (Figure 6), suggesting that in MDM, a role for M2 early in virus particle

assembly is more prominent than in epithelial cells. Consistent with this early role of M2

in IAV assembly, M2 functions in recruitment of M1 and vRNP to assembly sites, which

is important for initiation and/or completion of IAV particle assembly[51-53]. In this case, a

cell-type-specific defect in incorporation of M1 and/or vRNP into budding virus particles

in MDM may explain the reduction in infectivity per particle observed for MDM-derived

virus relative to dTHP1-derived virus (Figure 3B).

Alternatively, it is possible that virus particle assembly mediated by HA and NA

occurs in macrophages in the absence of M2 association with assembly sites. However,

assembling or assembled IAV particles may be sequestered into intracellular

compartments as previously observed for HIV-1[54-56]. While HIV-1 assembles at the

plasma membrane in T cells and other tested cell lines[57,58], assembling or assembled

HIV-1 particles accumulate in intracellular virus containing compartments (VCCs) in

macrophages[56,59-63]. We previously observed that multimerization of the HIV-1 structural

protein at the plasma membrane promotes its localization to VCC[64]. It is possible that in

an analogous manner, assembling IAV particles are quickly sequestered in intracellular

compartments in MDM. Such intracellular accumulation is not detectable with CFSEM,

which allows for detection of budding structures only on the cell surface. Our future

studies will assess using transmission electron microscopy whether assembled or

assembling IAV particles accumulates in intracellular compartments in macrophages.

Overall, in this study, we have compared IAV replication in MDM with that in

dTHP1 cells and found that MDM replicate vRNA, express viral proteins, and traffic HA,

NA and M2 to the plasma membrane at levels similar to those in dTHP1. However, MDM

are defective in assembling virus particles, likely due impaired association between the

viral transmembrane proteins HA and M2. In future studies, identification of all the viral

factors involved in inefficient IAV budding and release in MDM will potentially aid in

understanding of the host cell mechanisms restricting IAV replication in this cell type. In

addition, comparing MDM and dTHP1 cells, which are of the same lineage, will facilitate

identification of additional host cellular factors involved in the assembly stage of the IAV

life cycle.

485
486   References:
487
488

489   1   Rodgers, B. C. & Mims, C. A. Influenza virus replication in human alveolar
490   macrophages. *J Med Virol* **9**, 177-184 (1982).
491   2   Hartmann, B. M. *et al.* Mouse dendritic cell (DC) influenza virus infectivity is
492   much lower than that for human DCs and is hemagglutinin subtype dependent. *J*
493   *Virol* **87**, 1916-1918, doi:10.1128/JVI.02980-12 (2013).
494   3   Graham, A. C., Hilmer, K. M., Zickovich, J. M. & Obar, J. J. Inflammatory
495   response of mast cells during influenza A virus infection is mediated by active
496   infection and RIG-I signaling. *J Immunol* **190**, 4676-4684,
497   doi:10.4049/jimmunol.1202096 (2013).
498   4   Roberts, P. C. & Compans, R. W. Host cell dependence of viral morphology.
499   *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **95**, 5746-5751 (1998).
500   5   Moncorgé, O., Mura, M. & Barclay, W. S. Evidence for avian and human host cell
501   factors that affect the activity of influenza virus polymerase. *J Virol* **84**, 9978-
502   9986, doi:10.1128/JVI.01134-10 (2010).
503   6   Hao, L. *et al.* Drosophila RNAi screen identifies host genes important for
504   influenza virus replication. *Nature* **454**, 890-893, doi:10.1038/nature07151
505   (2008).
506   7   Shapira, S. D. *et al.* A physical and regulatory map of host-influenza interactions
507   reveals pathways in H1N1 infection. *Cell* **139**, 1255-1267,
508   doi:10.1016/j.cell.2009.12.018 (2009).
509   8   Karlas, A. *et al.* Genome-wide RNAi screen identifies human host factors crucial
510   for influenza virus replication. *Nature* **463**, 818-822, doi:10.1038/nature08760
511   (2010).
512   9   König, R. *et al.* Human host factors required for influenza virus replication. *Nature*
513   **463**, 813-817, doi:10.1038/nature08699 (2010).
514   10   Su, W. C. *et al.* Pooled RNAi screen identifies ubiquitin ligase Itch as crucial for
515   influenza A virus release from the endosome during virus entry. *Proc Natl Acad*
516   *Sci U S A* **110**, 17516-17521, doi:10.1073/pnas.1312374110 (2013).
517   11   Watanabe, T. *et al.* Influenza virus-host interactome screen as a platform for
518   antiviral drug development. *Cell Host Microbe* **16**, 795-805,
519   doi:10.1016/j.chom.2014.11.002 (2014).
520   12   Tripathi, S. *et al.* Meta- and Orthogonal Integration of Influenza "OMICs" Data
521   Defines a Role for UBR4 in Virus Budding. *Cell Host Microbe* **18**, 723-735,
522   doi:10.1016/j.chom.2015.11.002 (2015).

13   Meliopoulos, V. A. *et al.* Host gene targets for novel influenza therapies
elucidated by high-throughput RNA interference screens. *FASEB J* **26**, 1372-
1386, doi:10.1096/fj.11-193466 (2012).
14   Laguette, N. *et al.* SAMHD1 is the dendritic- and myeloid-cell-specific HIV-1
restriction factor counteracted by Vpx. *Nature* **474**, 654-657,
doi:10.1038/nature10117 (2011).
15   Perez-Caballero, D. *et al.* Tetherin inhibits HIV-1 release by directly tethering
virions to cells. *Cell* **139**, 499-511, doi:10.1016/j.cell.2009.08.039 (2009).
16   Sheehy, A. M., Gaddis, N. C., Choi, J. D. & Malim, M. H. Isolation of a human
gene that inhibits HIV-1 infection and is suppressed by the viral Vif protein.
Nature **418**, 646-650, doi:10.1038/nature00939 (2002).
17   Neil, S. J., Zang, T. & Bieniasz, P. D. Tetherin inhibits retrovirus release and is
antagonized by HIV-1 Vpu. *Nature* **451**, 425-430, doi:10.1038/nature06553
(2008).
18   Cline, T. D., Karlsson, E. A., Seufzer, B. J. & Schultz-Cherry, S. The
hemagglutinin protein of highly pathogenic H5N1 influenza viruses overcomes an
early block in the replication cycle to promote productive replication in
macrophages. *J Virol* **87**, 1411-1419, doi:10.1128/JVI.02682-12 (2013).
19   Yu, W. C. *et al.* Viral replication and innate host responses in primary human
alveolar epithelial cells and alveolar macrophages infected with influenza H5N1
and H1N1 viruses. *J Virol* **85**, 6844-6855, doi:10.1128/JVI.02200-10 (2011).
20   Londrigan, S. L. *et al.* Infection of Mouse Macrophages by Seasonal Influenza
Viruses Can Be Restricted at the Level of Virus Entry and at a Late Stage in the
Virus Life Cycle. *J Virol* **89**, 12319-12329, doi:10.1128/JVI.01455-15 (2015).
21   Mok, C. K., Lee, D. C., Cheung, C. Y., Peiris, M. & Lau, A. S. Differential onset of
apoptosis in influenza A virus H5N1- and H1N1-infected human blood
macrophages. *J Gen Virol* **88**, 1275-1280, doi:10.1099/vir.0.82423-0 (2007).
22   Sakabe, S. *et al.* Cytokine production by primary human macrophages infected
with highly pathogenic H5N1 or pandemic H1N1 2009 influenza viruses. *J Gen
Virol* **92**, 1428-1434, doi:10.1099/vir.0.030346-0 (2011).
23   van Riel, D. *et al.* Highly pathogenic avian influenza virus H5N1 infects alveolar
macrophages without virus production or excessive TNF-alpha induction. *PLoS
Pathog* **7**, e1002099, doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1002099 (2011).
24   Marvin, S. A., Russier, M., Huerta, C. T., Russell, C. J. & Schultz-Cherry, S.
Influenza overcomes cellular blocks to productively replicate impacting
macrophage function. *J Virol*, doi:10.1128/JVI.01417-16 (2016).
25   Perrone, L. A., Plowden, J. K., García-Sastre, A., Katz, J. M. & Tumpey, T. M.
H5N1 and 1918 pandemic influenza virus infection results in early and excessive
infiltration of macrophages and neutrophils in the lungs of mice. *PLoS Pathog* **4**,
e1000115, doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1000115 (2008).
26   Okuno, Y., Isegawa, Y., Sasao, F. & Ueda, S. A common neutralizing epitope
conserved between the hemagglutinins of influenza A virus H1 and H2 strains. *J
Virol* **67**, 2552-2558 (1993).
27   Zebedee, S. L. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza A virus M2 protein: monoclonal antibody
restriction of virus growth and detection of M2 in virions. *J Virol* **62**, 2762-2772
(1988).
28   Momose, F., Kikuchi, Y., Komase, K. & Morikawa, Y. Visualization of
microtubule-mediated transport of influenza viral progeny ribonucleoprotein.
Microbes Infect **9**, 1422-1433, doi:10.1016/j.micinf.2007.07.007 (2007).
29   Neumann, G. *et al.* Generation of influenza A viruses entirely from cloned
cDNAs. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **96**, 9345-9350 (1999).

30 Pauly, M. D. & Lauring, A. S. Effective lethal mutagenesis of influenza virus by
three nucleoside analogs. *J Virol* **89**, 3584-3597, doi:10.1128/JVI.03483-14
(2015).
31 Hogue, I. B., Grover, J. R., Soheilian, F., Nagashima, K. & Ono, A. Gag induces
the coalescence of clustered lipid rafts and tetraspanin-enriched microdomains at
HIV-1 assembly sites on the plasma membrane. *J Virol* **85**, 9749-9766,
doi:10.1128/JVI.00743-11 (2011).
32 Chen, B. J., Leser, G. P., Morita, E. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus hemagglutinin
and neuraminidase, but not the matrix protein, are required for assembly and
budding of plasmid-derived virus-like particles. *J Virol* **81**, 7111-7123,
doi:10.1128/JVI.00361-07 (2007).
33 Leser, G. P. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus assembly and budding in raft-derived
microdomains: a quantitative analysis of the surface distribution of HA, NA and
M2 proteins. *Virology* **342**, 215-227, doi:10.1016/j.virol.2005.09.049 (2005).
34 Takeda, M., Leser, G. P., Russell, C. J. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus
hemagglutinin concentrates in lipid raft microdomains for efficient viral fusion.
Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **100**, 14610-14617, doi:10.1073/pnas.2235620100
(2003).
35 Rossman, J. S., Jing, X., Leser, G. P. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus M2 protein
mediates ESCRT-independent membrane scission. *Cell* **142**, 902-913,
doi:10.1016/j.cell.2010.08.029 (2010).
36 Kawaguchi, A., Hirohama, M., Harada, Y., Osari, S. & Nagata, K. Influenza Virus
Induces Cholesterol-Enriched Endocytic Recycling Compartments for Budozone
Formation via Cell Cycle-Independent Centrosome Maturation. *PLoS Pathog* **11**,
e1005284, doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1005284 (2015).
37 Harder, T., Scheiffele, P., Verkade, P. & Simons, K. Lipid domain structure of the
plasma membrane revealed by patching of membrane components. *J Cell Biol*
141, 929-942 (1998).
38 Zhang, J., Pekosz, A. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus assembly and lipid raft
microdomains: a role for the cytoplasmic tails of the spike glycoproteins. *J Virol*
74, 4634-4644 (2000).
39 Schmitt, A. P. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus assembly and budding at the viral
budozone. *Adv Virus Res* **64**, 383-416, doi:10.1016/S0065-3527(05)64012-2
(2005).
40 Veit, M. & Thaa, B. Association of influenza virus proteins with membrane rafts.
Adv Virol **2011**, 370606, doi:10.1155/2011/370606 (2011).
41 Rossman, J. S. & Lamb, R. A. Influenza virus assembly and budding. *Virology*
411, 229-236, doi:10.1016/j.virol.2010.12.003 (2011).
42 Ohkura, T., Momose, F., Ichikawa, R., Takeuchi, K. & Morikawa, Y. Influenza A
virus hemagglutinin and neuraminidase mutually accelerate their apical targeting
through clustering of lipid rafts. *J Virol* **88**, 10039-10055, doi:10.1128/JVI.00586-
14 (2014).
43 Roberts, K. L., Leser, G. P., Ma, C. & Lamb, R. A. The amphipathic helix of
influenza A virus M2 protein is required for filamentous bud formation and
scission of filamentous and spherical particles. *J Virol* **87**, 9973-9982,
doi:10.1128/JVI.01363-13 (2013).
44 Grantham, M. L., Stewart, S. M., Lalime, E. N. & Pekosz, A. Tyrosines in the
influenza A virus M2 protein cytoplasmic tail are critical for production of
infectious virus particles. *J Virol* **84**, 8765-8776, doi:10.1128/JVI.00853-10
(2010).

45 McCown, M. F. & Pekosz, A. The influenza A virus M2 cytoplasmic tail is
required for infectious virus production and efficient genome packaging. *J Virol*
79, 3595-3605, doi:10.1128/JVI.79.6.3595-3605.2005 (2005).
46 Iwatsuki-Horimoto, K. *et al.* The cytoplasmic tail of the influenza A virus M2
protein plays a role in viral assembly. *J Virol* **80**, 5233-5240,
doi:10.1128/JVI.00049-06 (2006).
47 McCown, M. F. & Pekosz, A. Distinct domains of the influenza a virus M2 protein
cytoplasmic tail mediate binding to the M1 protein and facilitate infectious virus
production. *J Virol* **80**, 8178-8189, doi:10.1128/JVI.00627-06 (2006).
48 Chen, B. J., Leser, G. P., Jackson, D. & Lamb, R. A. The influenza virus M2
protein cytoplasmic tail interacts with the M1 protein and influences virus
assembly at the site of virus budding. *J Virol* **82**, 10059-10070,
doi:10.1128/JVI.01184-08 (2008).
49 Wang, D. *et al.* The lack of an inherent membrane targeting signal is responsible
for the failure of the matrix (M1) protein of influenza A virus to bud into virus-like
particles. *J Virol* **84**, 4673-4681, doi:10.1128/JVI.02306-09 (2010).
50 Rossman, J. S. *et al.* Influenza virus m2 ion channel protein is necessary for
filamentous virion formation. *J Virol* **84**, 5078-5088, doi:10.1128/JVI.00119-10
(2010).
51 Burleigh, L. M., Calder, L. J., Skehel, J. J. & Steinhauer, D. A. Influenza a viruses
with mutations in the m1 helix six domain display a wide variety of morphological
phenotypes. *J Virol* **79**, 1262-1270, doi:10.1128/JVI.79.2.1262-1270.2005 (2005).
52 Elleman, C. J. & Barclay, W. S. The M1 matrix protein controls the filamentous
phenotype of influenza A virus. *Virology* **321**, 144-153,
doi:10.1016/j.virol.2003.12.009 (2004).
53 Bruce, E. A., Digard, P. & Stuart, A. D. The Rab11 pathway is required for
influenza A virus budding and filament formation. *J Virol* **84**, 5848-5859,
doi:10.1128/JVI.00307-10 (2010).
54 Orenstein, J. M., Meltzer, M. S., Phipps, T. & Gendelman, H. E. Cytoplasmic
assembly and accumulation of human immunodeficiency virus types 1 and 2 in
recombinant human colony-stimulating factor-1-treated human monocytes: an
ultrastructural study. *J Virol* **62**, 2578-2586 (1988).
55 Raposo, G. *et al.* Human macrophages accumulate HIV-1 particles in MHC II
compartments. *Traffic* **3**, 718-729 (2002).
56 Pelchen-Matthews, A., Kramer, B. & Marsh, M. Infectious HIV-1 assembles in
late endosomes in primary macrophages. *J Cell Biol* **162**, 443-455,
doi:10.1083/jcb.200304008 (2003).
57 Jouvenet, N. *et al.* Plasma membrane is the site of productive HIV-1 particle
assembly. *PLoS Biol* **4**, e435, doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.0040435 (2006).
58 Finzi, A., Orthwein, A., Mercier, J. & Cohen, E. A. Productive human
immunodeficiency virus type 1 assembly takes place at the plasma membrane. *J
Virol* **81**, 7476-7490, doi:10.1128/JVI.00308-07 (2007).
59 Deneka, M., Pelchen-Matthews, A., Byland, R., Ruiz-Mateos, E. & Marsh, M. In
macrophages, HIV-1 assembles into an intracellular plasma membrane domain
containing the tetraspanins CD81, CD9, and CD53. *J Cell Biol* **177**, 329-341,
doi:10.1083/jcb.200609050 (2007).
60 Chu, H. *et al.* Tetherin/BST-2 is essential for the formation of the intracellular
virus-containing compartment in HIV-infected macrophages. *Cell Host Microbe*
12, 360-372, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2012.07.011 (2012).

61   Welsch, S., Groot, F., Kräusslich, H. G., Keppler, O. T. & Sattentau, Q. J.
Architecture and regulation of the HIV-1 assembly and holding compartment in
macrophages. *J Virol* **85**, 7922-7927, doi:10.1128/JVI.00834-11 (2011).
62   Jouve, M., Sol-Foulon, N., Watson, S., Schwartz, O. & Benaroch, P. HIV-1 buds
and accumulates in "nonacidic" endosomes of macrophages. *Cell Host Microbe*
2, 85-95, doi:10.1016/j.chom.2007.06.011 (2007).
63   Hammonds, J. E. *et al.* Siglec-1 initiates formation of the virus-containing
compartment and enhances macrophage-to-T cell transmission of HIV-1. *PLoS*
Pathog **13**, e1006181, doi:10.1371/journal.ppat.1006181 (2017).
64   Inlora, J., Chukkapalli, V., Bedi, S. & Ono, A. Molecular Determinants Directing
HIV-1 Gag Assembly to Virus-Containing Compartments in Primary
Macrophages. *J Virol* **90**, 8509-8519, doi:10.1128/JVI.01004-16 (2016).
685

Figure 1: MDM are defective in productive IAV infection. (A) A549, dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with WSN at MOI 0.01. Infectious virus titers in culture supernatants were measured at 11 hpi. (B) Infectious virus titers in culture supernatants were measured for WSN-infected dTHP1 cells and MDM at 24 hpi. The relative virus titers in MDM cultures were calculated in comparison to the titer in dTHP1 cell cultures tested in each experiment for all tested donors (groups 1 and 2). (C) dTHP1 and MDM (group 1) were infected with the given IAV strains at MOI 0.01, and infectious virus titers in culture supernatants were measured 24 hpi. Each square represents an independently prepared culture. For panel A, data are shown as mean +/- SD. *, P<0.05; **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001; ****, P<0.0001; ns, non-significant.

Figure 2: Infectious virus release is reduced in MDM cultures relative to dTHP1 cells despite similar number of infected cells in both cultures. dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with given IAV strains at MOI 0.01. At the indicated time points post infection, culture supernatants and cells were collected and assessed for virus titer (top panels) and % vRNP+ cells (lower panels), respectively. Data from at least three independent experiments are shown as mean +/- SD. *, P<0.05; **, P<0.01.

Figure 3: Both efficiency of virus release and infectivity of released particles are reduced in MDM than in dTHP1 cells. dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with WSN at MOI 0.1. (A) vRNA copy numbers were measured in cell culture supernatants and cell lysates at 20 hpi. vRNA release efficiency was calculated as the ratio of number of vRNA copies in culture supernatants versus total number of vRNA copies (cells+supernatant) for each vRNA segment. (B) PB2 vRNA copy number and virus titer were measured in dTHP1 and MDM culture supernatants at 16 hpi. Infectivity per particle was calculated as the ratio of virus titer to PB2 vRNA copy number in culture supernants. Data are from at least three independent experiments and shown as mean +/- S.D. **, P<0.01; ***, P<0.001, ****, P<0.0001.

Figure 4: MDM express viral proteins as efficiently as dTHP1 cells. dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with WSN at MOI 0.01 for 24 hours. Infected cells were fixed, permeabilized and analyzed for cellular levels of vRNP, HA and M1 by flow cytometry. (A) Representative flow plots for mock- and WSN-infected cells are shown. Gates for positive cell populations were set in comparison to mock-infected cells. Due to differences in the side scatter (SSC) profile between dTHP1 cells and MDM, the Y-axis (SSC) range is different between the two cell types. (B) Relative % cells positive (normalized to dTHP1 cells) for vRNP, HA, and M1 are shown. (C) MFIs (normalized to dTHP1 cells) for all three viral components are shown for positive cell populations (gated in panel A) . Data are from at least three independent experiments and are shown as mean +/- SD. ns, non-significant.

Figure 5: MDM are efficient at trafficking of viral glycoproteins to the cell surface. dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with WSN at MOI 0.1. (A) Infected cells were analyzed for cell surface expression of HA, NA, and M2 by flow cytometry at 16 hpi. Representative flow plots for mock-infected (top panels) and virus-infected (bottom panels) cells are shown. Due to differences in the side scatter (SSC) profile between dTHP1 cells and MDM, the Y-axis (SSC) range is different between the two cell types.(B) MFI for surface staining of all three proteins is shown as mean +/- SD for positive cell populations. Data are from at least three independent experiments. ns, non-significant

Figure 6: MDM are defective in virus bud formation despite trafficking of HA to the cell surface. dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with WSN at MOI 0.1. Cells were fixed and immunostained with anti-HA. After identification of HA-positive cells, cells were prepared for SEM. Cells identified to be expressing HA on the cell surface by confocal microscopy were analyzed by SEM. (A) Representative SEM images for mock-infected and WSN-infected HA-positive dTHP1 cells and MDM are shown in the top and bottom rows, respectively. Fluorescence images corresponding to the SEM images of WSN-infected cells are shown in the middle row. Boxed areas are magnified and shown in the right panels. (B) The number of HA-positive puncta (left panel) and virus buds (right panel) were counted within the same area in each cell. Data are shown for 10-20 cells from two independent experiments. Error bars respresent SEM. *, P<0.05; ****, P<0.0001.

Figure 7: Association between HA and M2 is defective in MDM relative to dTHP1 cells. dTHP1 cells and MDM were infected with WSN. (A) Cells were fixed and stained for surface expressed HA and M2 at 16 or 24 hpi. (B) Pearson correlation coefficient (PCC) for HA and M2 was measured for each cell. (C) Cells were probed with PLA probes and co-stained for surface NA at 16 hpi. Nuclei were stained with DAPI (blue). (D) Number of PLA spots were counted for each cell. For PCC and PLA, 8-10 cells were analyzed per experiment. Error bars represent SEM. (E) % surface NA-positve cells expressing HA and M2 were determined. Representative scatter plots are shown in left panel, and quantified data are shown in the right panel. Data are from at least three experiments and shown as mean +/- SD. *, p<0.05; ****, p <0.0001; ns, non-significant.