Cell-to-cell variation in defective virus expression and effects on host responses during

influenza virus infection

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ABSTRACT

Virus and host factors contribute to cell-to-cell variation in viral infections and determine the

outcome of the overall infection. However, the extent of the variability at the single cell level and

how it impacts virus-host interactions at a systems level are not well understood. To

characterize the dynamics of viral transcription and host responses, we used single-cell RNA

sequencing to quantify at multiple time points the host and viral transcriptomes of human A549

cells and primary bronchial epithelial cells infected with influenza A virus. We observed

substantial variability of viral transcription between cells, including the accumulation of defective

viral genomes (DVGs) that impact viral replication. We show a correlation between DVGs and

viral-induced variation of the host transcriptional program and an association between

differential induction of innate immune response genes and attenuated viral transcription in

subpopulations of cells. These observations at the single cell level improve our understanding of

the complex virus-host interplay during influenza infection.

AUTHOR SUMMARY

Defective influenza virus particles, which are products of error-prone viral replication, carry

incomplete versions of the genome and can interfere with the replication of competent viruses.

These defective genomes are thought to modulate disease severity and pathogenicity of the

influenza infection. Different defective viral genomes can have different interfering abilities, and

introduce another source of variation across a heterogeneous cell population. Evaluating the

impact of defective virus genomes on host cell responses cannot be fully resolved at the

population level, requiring single cell transcriptional profiling. Here we characterized virus and

host transcriptomes in influenza-infected cells, including that of defective viruses that arise

during influenza A virus infection. We profiled single cell transcriptional landscapes over the

course of the infection and established an association between defective virus transcription and

host responses. We identified dominant defective viral genome species and validated their

interfering and immunostimulatory functions *in vitro*. This study demonstrates the intricate

effects of defective viral genomes on host transcriptional responses and highlights the

importance of capturing host-virus interactions at the single-cell level.

INTRODUCTION

The productivity of viral replication at the cell population level is determined by cell-to-cell variation in viral infection [1]. The genetically diverse nature of RNA viruses and the heterogeneity of host cell states contribute to this inter-cell variability, which can impact therapeutic applications [2, 3]. Although previous studies of cell-to-cell variation during viral infection have mainly centered on non-segmented viruses such as poliovirus [2, 4], vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) [5, 6], or dengue (DENV) and zika (ZIKV) viruses [7], heterogeneity across cells may be further complicated for viruses with a segmented genome, such as influenza A virus (IAV). IAV-infected cells display substantial cell-to-cell variation as it pertains to relative abundance of different viral genome segments [1, 8], transcripts [9], and their encoded proteins [10], which can result in non-productive infection in a large fraction of cells.

Defective interfering (DI) particles readily generated during successive high multiplicity of infection (MOI) in cell culture passages [11-14] and observed in natural infections [15, 16] are likely by-products of an inefficient IAV replication process and have a significant effect on productive infection. DI viruses have incomplete viral genomes with large internal deletions and they possess the ability to interfere with the replication of infectious viruses. Because DIs diminish the productivity of infectious progenies and could impact disease outcome, they are of great interest for therapeutic and prophylactic purposes (reviewed in [17]). A specific influenza DI (i.e., DI244) was shown to effectively provide prophylactic and therapeutic protection against IAV infection in mice [18]. One of the ways influenza DIs are thought to modulate viral infections is through interaction with a cytosolic pathogen-recognition receptor (PRR), RIG-I, essential for interferon (IFN) induction [19]. Besides enhanced IFN induction during infection with DI-rich influenza virus populations observed *in vitro* and *in vivo*, it has been assumed that DI virus could also compete with standard virus for cellular resources (reviewed in [17, 20]).

While diverse DI viruses can arise during IAV infection [21], the emergence and accumulation of

distinct DIs, as well as other defective virus genomes (DVGs), has not been characterized at a

single cell resolution, although the diversity of DIs present could be contributing to the observed

cell-to-cell variation in host transcription.

We probed viral and host transcriptomes simultaneously in the same cells using single-cell

RNA-seq to monitor host-virus interactions in cultured cells over the course of the infection. This

data established a temporal association between the level of viral transcription and the

alteration of the host transcriptome, and characterized the diversity and accumulation of DVG

transcripts.

RESULTS

Cell-to-cell variation in virus gene expression.

To determine how both the viral and host cell transcriptional programs relate to each other over the course of an influenza infection, we infected two cell types—the adenocarcinomic human alveolar basal epithelial A549 cell line and human primary bronchial epithelial cells HBEpC—at high multiplicity of Infection (MOI) with A/Puerto Rico/8/34(H1N1) (PR8) and performed single cell and bulk RNA-seq expression analyses. A high MOI infection ensures that virtually all the cells can be rapidly infected, promotes the accumulation of DVGs, and consequently enables the characterization of both host response and DVG diversity. We first determined the percentage of reads that uniquely aligned to viral genes from the total number of mapped reads to obtain the relative abundance of virus transcripts within cells at each time point. Similar to what has been observed at early stages of infection during a low MOI infection of IAV [9], the relative abundance of viral transcripts was heterogeneous across cells from both cell types, with 0 to 70% of the total reads in each cell being derived from viral transcripts, with the relative abundance of these transcripts increasing over time (**Supplementary Fig. 1a**). The same trend was also seen when analyzing segment-specific viral transcripts within individual cells over the course of the infection (**Supplementary Fig. 1b**).

Heterogeneity of defective virus segment expression across the cell population.

Since DVGs are known to accumulate in cell culture and can serve as templates for transcription, we characterized their abundance and diversity by examining gap-spanning reads in the sequencing data. As the large majority of DVGs in IAV originate from the polymerase segments (i.e., PB2, PB1, and PA) [15], we focused on the detection of DVG transcripts derived from those segments. We collected the reads with large internal deletions spanning ≥1000 nucleotides (nt) (**Fig. 1a**) and identified the junction coordinates of these gap-spanning reads. We observed a diverse pool of DVG transcripts, including some shared with the viral segments

(vRNA) from the PR8 stock (**Supplementary Fig. 2-4**). The sizes of the majority of these DVG

transcripts are estimated to be between 300nt and 1000nt.

To quantify the relative abundance of DVGs identified, we calculated the frequency of each

unique DVG transcript type (determined by 5' / 3' gap coordinates) across single cells and the

ratio of these to non-gap-spanning transcripts derived from the corresponding viral segments

(i.e., DVG/FL ratio). The DVG/FL ratio, which represents the ratio of DVG transcripts to that of

the full-length (FL) transcripts, derived from a given polymerase segment increased significantly

between the early (6hpi) and late (24hpi) stages of the infection ($p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) and displayed a

high level of heterogeneity across single cells from both cell types (**Supplementary Fig. 5**).

Interestingly, the junction sites aggregated in specific genomic regions, as they systematically

occurred in a high percentage of cells. We identified two predominant types of DVG transcripts

corresponding to PB2 and PB1 defective segments (**Fig. 1b-c** and **Supplementary Fig. 6-7**).

These same DVG transcripts were present in the stock, increased in prevalence over the course

of the infection, and were conserved in different cell types and at different MOIs,

(**Supplementary Fig. 8-9**) indicating likely carryover from the stock virus rather than *de novo*

formation in each new cell type. For PA, one particular DVG type that was present in the stock

was found in A549 and MDCK cells at different MOIs, but not in HBEpC cells. Its prevalence

was also much lower than for PB2 and PB1 DVGs (**Supplementary Fig. 10-11**). The dominant

DVG PB2 and PB1 transcripts derived from corresponding defective segments in both the stock

and the infected cells showed stable relative abundance across individual cells over the course

of the infection, suggesting the persistence of the defective viral segments.

To determine if any of the inferred defective polymerase segments could lead to the generation

of defective interfering particles (DIs), we tested their interfering potential experimentally. We

generated clonal PB8-DI162 and PR8-DI222 viruses carrying the deletion sites in the PB2

segment identified as those in two dominant PB2-DVG species and then co-infected each of the

DI viruses with PR8 wild-type (WT) virus in A549 cells. Both PR8-DI162 and PR8-DI222 viruses

can inhibit the productivity of WT virus, comparable to the interfering ability of PR8-DI244 that is

known to be an effective DI [18] (**Fig. 1d**). This confirmed the interfering ability of the two types

of defective PB2 segments identified in the single cell data.

Differential expression of host genes linked to defective viral genomes

Viral infection can trigger massive changes in the host transcriptional program, including the

activation of the interferon (IFN) response. Since the induction of IFNs is also subject to cell-to-

cell variation [22], we first evaluated the expression frequency of type I (i.e., IFN beta) and III

(i.e., IFN lambda) IFNs to determine the extent of the variation during infection. While these

were significantly differentially expressed over the course of the infection at the population level,

as measured by bulk RNA-seq (**Fig. 2a**), the expression of IFNs was only detected in less than

3% of cells until the late stage of infection, although this proportion increased over time (**Fig. 2b**

and **Fig. 2c**). The same expression profile was observed for a number of IFN-stimulated genes

(ISGs), such as *RSAD2*, *CXCL10*, *GBP4*, *GBP5*, *IDO1*, and *CH25H* in A549 cells, and *IFI44L*,

CMPK2, *IFIT1*, *BST2*, *OASL*, and *XAF1* in HBEpC (**Fig. 2**). In silico pooling of the single cell

data to mimic the population level measurement resembles the bulk RNA-seq data, thus

excluding the possibility of substantial technical limitation of single-cell RNA-seq

(**Supplementary Fig. 12**).

To evaluate cell-to-cell variation in the host response manifested by the alteration in the host

transcriptome following IAV infection, we performed un-supervised cell clustering using the host

transcriptional profile. We then annotated single cells in each subpopulation with information

about the relative abundance of viral transcripts and the DVG/FL ratio. We detected significant

effects of viral transcription on the host transcriptome, as cells with a high level of viral

transcription formed a separate cluster by 12hpi in both cell types (**Fig. 3a** and **Fig. 3b**), while

the other cells clustered primarily according to their cell cycle stage (**Supplementary Fig. 13a**

and **Supplementary Fig. 13b**). Consistent with previous reports on G0/G1 cell-cycle arrest [23,

24], the most drastic alteration in cell-cycle distribution was observed in A549 cells at 24hpi,

when the host gene expression pattern varied along a gradient based on the relative abundance

of viral transcripts (**Fig. 3a**).

To characterize the host genes driving the changes associated with viral transcription, we

assessed the over-representation of Gene Ontology (GO) terms associated with differentially

expressed genes in each subpopulation of A549 and HBEpC cells compared to the rest of the

cells at 24hpi. In two subpopulations of A549 cells with a high relative abundance of viral

transcripts (clusters 0 and 1 in **Fig. 4a**), there is enrichment of genes involved in transcription,

RNA processing, translation, SRP-dependent co-translational protein targeting to the membrane,

mitochondrial electron transport and ATP synthesis (**Fig. 4a**). These GO terms are also

associated with genes highly expressed in HBEpC cells with the highest level of viral

transcription at 24hpi (cluster 3 in **Fig. 4b**; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ compared to the other clusters). In

contrast, genes involved in antiviral responses, such as the type I IFN signaling pathway and

the negative regulation of viral genome replication, are over-expressed in the other two

subpopulations of A549 cells with a similar or severely reduced relative abundance of viral

transcripts (clusters 3 and 2, respectively in **Fig. 4a**). However, some antiviral genes are

differentially induced in cells with different levels of viral transcription. For example, type I and III

IFNs, as well as a subset of ISGs, are over-expressed in cluster 3, and another subset of ISGs

are over-expressed in cluster 2. In HBEpC cells, the antiviral responses, such as the type I IFN

signaling pathway, are primarily observed in a cluster (cluster 2 in **Fig. 4b**) that has a low level

of viral transcription (**Fig 3b** at 24hpi**)** and mostly comprised of cells in the G0/G1 phase

(**Supplementary Fig. 13b** at 24hpi).

Since DVGs are known to play an important role in IFN induction and inhibition of viral

replication (reviewed in [20]), we determined whether the accumulation of DVGs was associated

with attenuated viral transcription and induction of innate immune antiviral response genes. We

observed an inverse trend between the relative abundance of viral transcripts and the

accumulation of defective PB2 and PB1 segments at the mid (12hpi) and late (24hpi) stages of

infection (**Fig. 5a-f**). The cluster of cells with the highest level of viral transcription (cluster 1 of

A549 cells at 12hpi in **Fig. 5a** and cluster 3 of HBEpC cells at 24hpi in **Fig. 5b**) has the lowest

level of PB2 and PB1 DVG/FL ratios (**Fig. 5c-d**; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ comparing PB2 and PB1

DVG/FL ratios in cluster 1 of A549 cells or cluster 3 of HBEpC cells against the other clusters).

Similarly, in A549 cells at 24 hpi, we see the lowest level of viral transcription in cells (cluster 2

in **Fig. 5e**) that have a higher level of PB2 DVG/FL ratios (cluster 2 in **Fig. 5f**; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$

compared to clusters 0 and 1) and the highest level of PB1 DVG/FL ratios ($p = 1.943 \times 10^{-9}$

comparing cluster 2 against the other clusters). Moreover, given the fact that the innate immune

response genes are highly expressed in cells with an elevated relative abundance of both DVG

PB2 and PB1 transcripts (cluster 2 of A549 cells at 24 hpi in **Fig. 5f**), or just DVG PB2

transcripts (cluster 3 in **Fig. 5f**; $p = 4.036 \times 10^{-11}$ compared to clusters 0 and 1), it suggests an

association between the accumulation of DVGs and the strong stimulation of the innate immune

response compared to the rest of the cells in the same population, where secreted IFNs are

accessible to all the cells. Notably, the DVG PB2 transcripts carrying the same deletion sites as

for PR8-DI222 were highly abundant in the cluster of cells with the lowest level of viral

transcription (cluster 2 of A549 cells at 24 hpi in **Fig. 5g**; $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ compared to the other

clusters), while the other DVG PB2 transcripts corresponding to PR8-DI162 were highly

abundant in both cluster 2 and cluster 3 (**Fig. 5g**; $p = 2.067 \times 10^{-10}$ and $p = 0.001241$,

respectively, compared to clusters 0 and 1), suggesting a potential difference in the induction of

innate immune response genes by different DVG species. We did not detect a difference in the

relative abundance of defective PA segments among cells with different levels of viral

transcription (**Supplementary Fig. 14**).

To further understand how transcriptional activity is coordinated in clusters of cells that confront

different levels of viral stimuli, including DVGs, we performed gene co-expression network

analyses using multiscale embedded gene co-expression network analysis (MEGENA) [25].

This was done independently within each cluster of A549 and HBEpC cells collected at 24 hpi to

identify modules of co-expressed genes representing coherent functional pathways. The

relevance of a module to viral infection in terms of the host response and viral replication was

evaluated by the enrichment of differentially expressed disease gene (DEDG) signatures

compared to the mock-infected cells and by correlating with the relative abundance of viral

transcripts and DVG/FL ratios. Consistent with the processes identified in the GO over-

representation test (**Fig. 4**), those related to the host cell cycle and viral life cycle, especially at

the late stage of viral replication, including protein synthesis and transport, are enriched in the

top-ranked modules identified in the clusters of A549 cells with a high level of viral transcription

(**Fig. 6a, Supplementary Fig. 15a and 15b**). Conversely, the host innate immune response

(e.g., type I IFN signaling pathway) was primarily associated with several top-ranked modules in

cells with the lowest level of viral transcription (cluster 2 of A549 cells at 24hpi in **Fig. 6b**) and in

high IFN-producing cells with a high level of viral transcription (cluster 3 of A549 cells at 24hpi in

Fig. 6a). For example, module M100 in cluster 2 of A549 cells had key regulators involved in the

innate antiviral response that were significantly up-regulated, compared to the mock-infected

cells, including *ISG20, RNF213, IFI35, STAT1*, and *RBCK1* (**Fig. 6b**) and showed a strong

negative correlation with the level of viral transcription (ρ = -0.26, p = 2.9 x 10^{-5}); and Module M3

in cluster 3 of A549 cells had key regulators including *IFNL1* and some ISGs (e.g., *OASL* and

ISG15) (**Fig. 6a**). A top-ranked module associated with the type I IFN signaling pathway was

also observed in cluster 1 of A549 cells with a high level of viral transcription (M13 in

Supplementary Fig. 15b) and it shared a common key regulator, *ISG15*, with the other IFN

signaling modules detected in clusters 2 and 3 (**Supplementary Fig. 15c and Fig. 6a)**.

However, a top-ranked module (M234 in **Supplementary Fig. 15c**) enriched for the chemokine-

mediated signaling pathway, particularly the regulation of granulocytes (e.g., neutrophils)

chemotaxis, was observed in another cluster of A549 cells with a high level of viral transcription

(i.e., cluster 0). Nonetheless, in HBEpC cells, top-ranked modules enriched for type I IFN

signaling genes were detected in all four clusters of cells with different levels of viral

transcription (**Fig. 6c** and **Supplementary Fig. 16**). These modules in three clusters of HBEpC

cells with a low level of viral transcription (i.e., clusters 0, 1, and 2 in **Fig. 6c** and

Supplementary Fig. 16), including Module M227 in cluster 2 of HBEpC cells with a significant

positive correlation with the level of viral transcription ($\rho = 0.10$, $p = 0.021$) (**Fig. 6c**), also shared

the same key regulator, *ISG15*, as observed in A549 cells.

Given the presence of PB2 DVGs in cluster 2 of A549 cells, and the association in that cluster

between module M100 and the over-expression of ISGs compared to the rest of the cells in the

same population as well as to mock-infected cells, we experimentally validated the

immunostimulatory impact of PB2 DVGs on the host cells. We infected A549 cells with each of

our 3 PR8-DIs (PR8-DI162, -DI222, or -DI244) or with WT virus, and quantified the expression

level of ISGs that were shown to be significantly up-regulated in cluster 2 of A549 cells,

including *IFI35, IFI27*, and *MX1*, as well as type I and III IFNs that were shown to be significantly

up-regulated in cluster 3 of A549 cells (**Supplementary Fig. 17a and 17b**). At 24hpi, we

observed a higher induction of the ISGs in DI-infected cells compared to cells infected with WT

virus, while a generally higher induction of IFN beta (IFNB) and IFN lambda (IFNL) was

observed in the WT-infected cells (**Supplementary Fig. 17c**). Together, these data

demonstrated that PB2 DVGs have a strong immunostimulatory effect on the host cells,

manifested by a significant induction of ISGs at the late stage of the infection.

DISCUSSION

The goal of this study was to quantitatively and qualitatively characterize viral and host factors that contribute to cell-to-cell transcriptional variation observed during IAV infection. We identified DVGs as potentially important factors in the temporal variation of the host cell transcriptome. The substantial cell-to-cell variation in viral replication and host response that we detected highlight the potential of single-cell virology to provide novel insight into complex virus-host interactions.

The inherent stochasticity of molecular processes, especially during the initial stages of infection, can contribute to the cell-to-cell variation in viral replication [1]. Evidence from studies examining low MOI infections with different virus strains and cell lines suggests that this intrinsic stochasticity can impact viral replication and result in the loss of viral genome segments, transcripts, or proteins [1, 8-10]. Similarly, at different time points of the high MOI infection, we observed cell-to-cell variation in viral transcription, including that in segment-specific transcription. Although the mechanisms leading to this observation are unclear based on our data, it may be explained by the following possibilities as discussed in [10], including (i) the absence of one or more viral genome segments in infecting virions, (ii) a deficiency in intracellular trafficking of incoming viral ribonucleoprotein complexes (vRNPs), (iii) the random degradation of vRNAs prior to transcription, or (iv) mutations resulting in decreased stability of viral mRNAs.

Another source of variability in viral replication stems from the emergence and accumulation of various vRNA species synthesized by the error-prone viral polymerase. Indeed, viral genetic diversity, including amino acid mutations in the NS1 and PB1 proteins, the absence of the NS gene, and an internal deletion in the PB1 gene, contributes to the cell-to-cell variation in the innate immune response as shown in a recent report of low MOI infection [26]. Although the 3'

sequencing strategy employed in our study hinders the identification of mutations in the full-

length segments, our experimental setup provides a unique opportunity to evaluate the diversity

of DVGs by characterizing the DVG transcripts, since a high MOI infection promotes the

accumulation of DVGs. Late stages of infection also emphasize the impact of accumulated

DVGs on the host response. We identified a diverse pool of DVG transcripts derived from the 3

polymerase segments, including several dominant species. Notably, the fact that all the

dominant DVG PB2 and PB1 transcripts identified in the infected cells were also present in the

virus stock, and that the dominant DVG PB1 transcripts were detected in an increasing

proportion of cells over the course of infection, suggests potential transmission of DI viruses

carrying these DVGs, although the possibility that the regions where the hot spots were located

are most prone to polymerase skipping cannot be ruled out.

The accumulation of DVGs can have consequences on viral replication by directly competing

with the full-length genomes and modulating host innate immune responses. The immune-

modulatory effect of DVGs has been attributed to efficient activation of the IFN induction

cascade and antiviral immunity, a mechanism well-known for the non-segmented negative-

sense RNA viruses, such as the murine parainfluenza virus Sendai (SeV) (reviewed in [20]).

Consistent with previous reports, we detected enrichment of highly expressed genes involved in

the IFN response in one subpopulation of cells with significantly attenuated viral transcription; In

this cluster of cells we also observed that DVG transcripts accumulated to significantly higher

levels. The co-expression network analysis provides us an opportunity to identify modules of co-

expressed host genes and directly correlate them with viral factors, such as the level of viral

transcription and DVG accumulation, and enables us to identify groups of innate response

genes that are potentially differentially expressed under the effect of viral factors. The

observation was further validated in our DI- or WT- infection assay, in which we detected a

significantly higher expression of some ISGs in DI-infected cells and that of IFNs in WT-infected

cells at the late stage of the infection. Given the fact that some ISGs could be highly expressed

in cells with a high level of viral transcription or a high level of DVGs suggests that other viral

factors, besides the accumulation of DVGs, may also play an important role in triggering the

innate immune response. Nevertheless, unlike SeV DVGs that form "copy-back" structures due

to complementary termini generated by "copying back" the authentic 5' terminus at the 3'

terminus [27, 28], IAV DVGs share identical termini with the full-length genomes. In the copy-

back SeV DVGs, a stretch of dsRNA adjacent to a 5'-triphosphate serves as an effective RIG-I

ligand [20]; however, the mechanism of IAV DVGs underlying a more effective

immunostimulation compared to the full-length genomes remains elusive [20]. A proposed

hypothesis is that the unencapsidated replication products of small DVGs can potentially

activate RIG-I if they can reach the cytoplasm [20], given the observations *in vitro* and *in vivo* of

short influenza RNA template replication in the absence of nucleoprotein (NP) [29]. In addition,

the interfering and immune-modulatory abilities of DVGs could also be attributed to DVG-

encoded proteins that directly interact with mitochondrial antiviral-signaling (MAVS) and act

independently of RIG-I in IFN induction, as previously reported [30].

Our approach enables us to distinguish DVG species accumulated in individual cells and

associate the enrichment of certain DVG species with attenuated viral transcription and the

induction of innate immune responses with single cell resolution. The accumulation of one type

of dominant PB2-DVG (PR8-DI222) in one subpopulation of cells was associated with a strong

host innate immune response manifested by over-expression of some ISGs, although the

accumulation of other non-dominant defective PB2-DVGs, DVGs derived from other polymerase

segments, and certain mutations in stimulating host responses could also have occurred.

Considering the significantly attenuated viral transcription in the subpopulation of cells where

PR8-DI222 was enriched, the different ability to induce innate immune responses is likely to

provide an explanation for the distinct effects of the DVG species. However, further investigation

346 is necessary to pinpoint causal relationships and identify the specific mechanism by which this

347 happens. Our characterization of DVGs and corresponding host responses reveals complex

348 virus-host interactions and an underappreciated single-cell level of immune-modulation by

349 DVGs. The complex gene expression pattern underlying the host innate immune response

350 demonstrates the intricate effects of various viral factors, including—but probably not limited

351 to—the accumulation of DVGs, on shaping infection outcome at the single-cell level.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells and virus

Human lung adenocarcinoma epithelial A549 cells (ATCC, Virginia, USA) were maintained in Kaighn's modified Ham's F-12 medium (F-12K) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Primary human bronchial epithelial cells (HBEpC) (PromoCell, Heidelberg, Germany) were maintained in PromoCell airway epithelial cell growth media with SupplementMix (PromoCell). Madin-Darby canine kidney (MDCK) cells were maintained in minimum essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 5% FBS. Human embryonic kidney epithelial 293T cells (ATCC, Virginia, USA) were maintained in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% FBS. PB2 protein-expressing modified MDCK (AX4/PB2) [31] cells were maintained in MEM supplemented with 5% Newborn Calf Serum (NBCS), 2 µg/ml puromycin and 1 µg/ml blasticidin. 293T and AX4/PB2 cells were co-cultured with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS. Viral strain A/Puerto Rico/8/34 (H1N1) was plaque purified and propagated in MDCK cells. Viral titers were determined by plaque assay in MDCK cells and sequences confirmed by Illumina MiSeq sequencing.

Infection assays

Subconfluent monolayers of A549 cells in T-25 flasks were washed with A549 infection media (F-12K supplemented with 0.15% bovine serum albumin (BSA) fraction V and 1% antibiotic-antimycotic) and infected with influenza virus at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 5 in 0.5 mL pre-cooled A549 infection media. The flasks were incubated at 4°C for 30 minutes with agitation every 5-10 minutes followed by addition of 4.5 mL pre-warmed A549 infection media and transferred to a 37°C, 5% CO_2 incubator for further incubation. HBEpC cells were infected similarly except the HBEpC infection media was PromoCell airway epithelial cell growth media. The inoculum was back-titrated to confirm the desired MOI was used. The virus-infected cells

were collected at 6, 12, and 24 hours post infection (hpi) and the mock-infected cells were

collected at 12 hpi. Cells were extensively washed before re-suspension in PBS containing 0.04%

BSA. A proportion of cells from one of the two duplicate flasks per time point were subject to

10X Genomics Chromium single-cell library preparation. The remaining cells in the two flasks

were used for conventional bulk RNA-seq library preparation. Notably, due to a failure in the

single-cell library preparation for the PR8-infected HBEpC cells collected at 12hpi, we replaced

this sample by repeating the same infection assay with HBEpC cells.

Sample preparation, library construction, and sequencing

10X Genomics single cell library preparation with Chromium 3' v2 chemistry was performed

following the manufacturer's protocol. A range of 3,900-7,500 cells were used as input into each

single cell preparation, with a median of ~3,353 cells (range 2,075-5,254) obtained following

sequencing, as described below. Sequencing was performed on the HiSeq 2500 in HighOutput

mode (v2) with one library per lane following the manufacturer's recommended sequencing

configuration (i.e., paired-end read 1: 27 bp, read 2: 99 bp, and i7 index: 8 bp). An average of

59,200 reads per cell were obtained. For bulk mRNA sequencing, total RNA from two replicate

flasks per time point was extracted using RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with on-

column DNA digestion using RNase-free DNase (Qiagen). The conventional bulk RNA-seq

library preparation was performed using NEBNext Ultra II RNA library prep kit for Illumina

following poly(A) mRNA enrichment. Libraries were multiplexed and sequenced on an Illumina

NextSeq 500 in HighOutput 2x75 bp mode (v3). Viral genomic RNA (vRNA) of the virus stocks

used in the infection assay was amplified using multi-segment reverse-transcription PCR (M-

RTPCR) [32]. The M-RTPCR product was subject to Illumina library preparation with Nextera

DNA library prep kit and sequenced on the HiSeq 2500 in Rapid 2x150 bp mode (v2).

Upstream computational analyses of single-cell RNA-seq data

The Cell Ranger (v2.1.0) single cell software suite (10X Genomics) was applied to the single-

cell RNA-seq data to perform the alignment to the concatenated human (hg19) and influenza A

virus (A/Puerto Rico/8/34) reference with STAR (v2.5.3a) [33] and gene counting with the

processed UMIs for each cell. The UMI counts for the viral reads with the CIGAR string

containing a gap (i.e., "MNM") and different UMI sequences comparing to the ungapped reads

were added into the expression matrix later, since they were not considered during gene

counting. Given the fact that we performed 3'-end sequencing, transcripts derived from

alternative splicing of M and NS segments, encoding M1/M2 and NS1/NEP respectively, could

not be distinguished in our analyses, as those transcribed from the same genes share the

identical 3'-end.

To identify and exclude low quality cells in the single cell data from the downstream analyses,

the following metrics were calculated for each sample and were employed to filter out cells that

failed to meet these criteria: 1) remove cells with fewer than 2,000 detected genes; 2) remove

cells with an alignment rate less than the mean minus 3 standard deviations; 3) remove cells

with a number of reads after log10 transformation not within 3 standard deviations below or

above the mean; 4) remove cells with the number of UMI after log10 transformation not within 3

standard deviations below or above the mean; 5) remove cells with the percentage of reads

aligned to mitochondrial genes not within 3 standard deviations below or above the mean; 6)

remove mock-infected cells with 1 viral read detected. Although we filtered cells based on the

size of the total mRNA pool (i.e., total reads) as one of the criteria described above, we also

checked the distribution of the size of the host mRNA pool (i.e., host reads) for individual cells.

As reported in recent virus-infected single cell studies [9, 34], while virus-induced host shutoff of

gene expression [35] is likely to be mainly mediated by host mRNA degradation, it remains

unclear what effect viral transcription has on the size of the total mRNA pools. In our study, we

observed that virtually all the cells with substantially smaller or larger host mRNA pools–where

the number of host reads after log10 transformation was not within 3 standard deviations below

or above the mean–were already being excluded when applying the 6 criteria described above,

thus we decided to filter cells based on these. Approximately 120-250 cells were eliminated

from each sample, with a median of 164 cells per sample. We further removed genes that were

detected in fewer than three cells. After initial cell and gene quality control, the majority of

samples had approximately 3,000-3,500 cells left for downstream analysis. The expression

levels of host genes were normalized based on the size of the host mRNA pool.

Cell clustering with Seurat

An unsupervised cell clustering to identify subtle changes in the population structure after

infection was performed on each time point data separately following the procedures of the

Seurat package (v2.1.0) [36] using the normalized, scaled, and centered host gene expression

matrix. Briefly, the highly variable genes with average expression < 4 and dispersion > 1 were

used as input for the PCA. The statistically significant and biological meaningful PCs determined

by the built-in jackstraw and elbow analyses and manually exploration were retained for

visualization by t-distributed stochastic neighbor (t-SNE) and subsequent clustering by a shared

nearest neighbor (SNN) graph-based approach. The legitimacy of the initially identified clusters

was validated using the "ValidateClusters" function in Seurat, which built a support vector

machine (SVM) classifier with significant PCs and then applied the accuracy cutoffs of 0.9 and

the minimal connectivity threshold of 0.001. To identify markers that are differentially expressed

among clusters, the "FindMarkers" function in Seurat was used with the different test options,

including "bimod" [37], "poisson", "negbinom", and "MAST" (v1.4.1) [38]. Only the genes that

showed at least 0.25-fold difference on the log-scale between two groups and were expressed

in at least 25% of the cells in either group were tested for differential expression. Significantly

differentially expressed genes for each cluster (i.e., the markers) were identified by applying the

adjusted p-value cut-off of 0.05. Markers identified by all four methods were retained. GO term

over-representation analysis of the up-regulated markers was performed with the online service

DAVID [39, 40] by applying the Benjamini p-value cut-off of 0.05. To determine the cell cycle

stage associated with individual cells, cell-cycle scoring and assignment were performed with

Seurat using the "CellCycleScoring" function based on the expression of canonical markers [41].

Computational analyses of bulk RNA-seq and virus stock sequencing data

The raw bulk RNA-seq and virus stock sequencing data was first trimmed with trimmomatic

(v0.36) [42] to remove the adaptors and trim off low quality bases. Reads with a minimal length

of 36 bases in the trimmed bulk RNA-seq dataset were aligned to the concatenated human

(hg19) and influenza A/Puerto Rico/8/34 (H1N1) reference with STAR (v2.5.3a) [33] with the

default parameters, and counted with featureCounts [43] in the Subread package (v1.5.1) [44],

while reads in the virus stock sequencing dataset were aligned to the influenza A/Puerto

Rico/8/34 (H1N1) reference with STAR (v2.5.3a) [33]. Differential expression analysis was

performed with DESeq2 (v1.18.1) [45] and edgeR (v3.20.5) [46, 47] using the bulk RNA-seq and

the merged single-cell RNA-seq data. Host genes with the adjusted p-value < 0.05 were

identified as significantly differentially expressed at each time point.

Deletion junction identification, filtering, and quantification

Reads that aligned to both ends of the polymerase segments, and that contained large internal

deletions (i.e. ≥ 1000 nucleotides, with each aligned portion of at least 10 nucleotides in length)

were collected. Following UMI de-duplication, reads with junction coordinates within a 10-

nucleotide window were grouped together. We excluded from downstream analyses reads with

junction coordinates that occurred fewer than 10 times in each sample. To compare

quantitatively gap-spanning reads for each segment across cells and samples, the number of

gap-spanning reads was normalized to the total number of non-gap-spanning reads aligned to a

100nt region centering the coverage peak at the 3' end. As cells with low infection (especially

those harvested at the early stage of infection or inoculated at a low MOI) typically have poor

coverage for the viral segments of interest, the DVG/FL ratio in those cells calculated as

described above is typically inflated and may even fail to be calculated because all the viral

reads corresponding to a given segment are gap-spanning or there are no viral reads. To

mitigate this effect, we overwrote those values to 0 in the datasets, including the dataset

collected from HBEpC cells at 6hpi.

Generation of PR8-derived DI162 and DI222 virus

To generate the PR8 PB2-DI162, -DI222, and -DI244 reverse genetics plasmids, gBlocks Gene

Fragments (Integrated DNA Technologies, California, USA) were ordered using the

corresponding defective PB2 genomic sequences identified in this study (PR8-DI162 and PR8-

DI222) or previously reported (DI244) [18] and cloned into the pBZ61A18 reverse genetics

vector as previously described [48]. To rescue the PR8 DI viruses, each of the sequence

confirmed PB2-DI plasmids was co-transfected into 293T-AX4/PB2 co-cultured cells with the 7

reverse genetics plasmids for PR8 PB1, PA, HA, NP, NA, M, and NS and a PB2 protein-

expression plasmid using Lipofectamine™ 3000 Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen, California,

USA). The supernatant was collected on day 2 post-infection and passaged twice in the

AX4/PB2 cell line, which expresses the PB2 protein in *trans* [31]. Viral titers were determined by

TCID50 assay in AX4/PB2 cells.

Interference test for PR8-DI162 and PR8-DI222 viruses and validation of their

immunostimulatory effects

To test the interfering ability of PR8-DI162 and PR8-DI222 viruses that carry the deletions

identified in two dominant PB2-DVG species from the single cell dataset, their inhibitory effects

on wild type PR8 virus replication was quantified in cultured cells. Subconfluent monolayers of

A549 cells in 12-well plates were washed with infection media (MEM supplemented with 0.15%

BSA fraction V, 1% antibiotic-antimycotic and 1 µg/mL TPCK-treated trypsin) and each well was

co-infected with one type of DI virus at a MOI of 5 and the PR8 virus at a MOI of 0.005 in 1 mL

infection media. Plates were transferred to a 37°C, 5% CO_2 incubator. At 2 hours post infection,

and 1, 2, and 3 days post infection, supernatants were collected and wild type PR8 yield was

determined by TCID50 assay using MDCK cells, which do not support replication of DI viruses

due to the lack of functional PB2 proteins.

To determine if the DI viruses could stimulate a higher expression of some ISGs identified in the

network analysis, subconfluent monolayers of A549 cells in 12-well plates were infected with

each DI virus (PR8-DI162, -DI222, or -DI244) or WT virus at a MOI of 10 in triplicate. Total RNA

from cells collected at 24hpi was extracted using RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany).

100ng RNA was subsequently used as template for reverse transcription using SuperScript IV

system (Invitrogen, California, USA) with Oligo d(T)$_{20}$ primer. qPCR was performed using

PowerUp SYBR Green (Applied Biosystems, Massachusetts, USA) in triplicate with the

following primers: IFI35: Hs.PT.58.38490206 (IDT, Iowa, USA); IFI27: IFI27fw (5'-

GCCTCTGGCTCTGCCGTAGTT-3') and IFI27rev (5'-ATGGAGGACGAGGCGATTCC-3') [49];

MX1:   MX1fw   (5'-CTTTCCAGTCCAGCTCGGCA-3')   and   MX1rev   (5'-

AGCTGCTGGCCGTACGTCTG-3') [49]; IFNB: IFNBfw (5'-TCTGGCACAACAGGTAGTAGGC-

3')   and   IFNBrev   (5'-GAGAAGCACAACAGGAGAGCAA-3')   [50];   IFNL: IFNLfw   (5'-

GCCCCCAAAAAGGAGTCCG-3') and IFNLrev (5'-AGGTTCCCATCGGCCACATA-3') [50]; β-

actin   (ACTB):   ACTBfw   (5'-GAACGGTGAAGGTGACAG-3')   and   ACTBrev   (5'-

TTTAGGATGGCAAGGGACT-3') [51]. For all the targets, qPCR parameters according to

manufacturer's recommendation were: 95°C for 10 min and then 45 cycles of 95°C for 15 s,

57°C for 15 s, and 60°C for 60 s. Fold change of target gene expression was calculated using

the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_T}$ method normalized to ACTB.

Gene co-expression network analysis

Multiscale Embedded Gene Co-Expression Network Analysis (MEGENA) [25] was performed to identify host modules of highly co-expressed genes in influenza infection. The MEGENA workflow comprises 4 major steps: 1) Fast Planar Filtered Network construction (FPFNC), 2) Multiscale Clustering Analysis (MCA), 3) Multiscale Hub Analysis (MHA), 4) and Cluster-Trait Association Analysis (CTA). A cutoff of 0.05 after perturbation-based FDR calculation was used. The total relevance of each module to influenza infection was calculated by summarizing the combined enrichment of the differentially expressed disease gene (DEDG) signatures: $G_j = \prod_i g_{ji}$, where, g_{ji} is the relevance of a module **j** to a signature **i;** and g_{ji} is defined as $(max_j(r_{ji}) + 1 - r_{ji})/\sum_j r_{ji}$, where r_{ji} is the ranking order of the significance level of the overlap between the module **j** and the signature **i**. Here, DEDGs are differently expressed genes between virus-infected cells of a particular cluster and the bulk of mock-infected cells determined by t-test. Only the genes that showed at least 0.25-fold difference on the log-scale between two groups and were expressed in at least 25% of the cells in either group were tested for differential expression. Significantly differentially expressed genes were identified by applying the adjusted p-value cut-off of 0.05.

Identification of enriched pathways, key regulators in the host module, relative abundance of virus transcripts as well as DVGs associated with host modules

To functionally annotate gene signatures and gene modules identified in this study, enrichment analysis was performed of the established pathways and signatures—including the gene ontology (GO) categories and MSigDB—and the subject area-specific gene sets—including influenza host factors, Inflammasome, Interferome, and InnateDB. The hub genes in each subnetwork were identified using the adopted Fisher's inverse Chi-square approach in

MEGENA; Bonferroni-corrected p-values smaller than 0.05 were set as the threshold to identify

significant hubs.

The relative abundance of virus transcripts and the DVGs associated with the host modules

were identified using Spearman correlation between the first principal component of the gene

expression in the corresponding module and the traits, including the relative abundance of each

or total viral transcripts and the DVG/FL ratio. Significantly associated traits were identified

using the Benjamini-Hochberg FDR-corrected p-value 0.05 as the cutoff.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical significance of the changes in the relative abundance of viral and DVG transcripts

between 3 or more groups of cells was first determined by the one- or two- tailed Kruskal-Wallis

rank sum test, followed by the one-tailed Wilcoxon rank sum test to calculate the pairwise

comparisons. The statistical significance of expression fold changes in the qPCR validation

assay was determined using the two-tailed Student's *t*-test. A p-value of ≤ 0.05 was considered

statistically significant.

CODE AVAILABILITY

The code used to generate all the results is available on Github

(https://github.com/GhedinLab/Single-Cell-IAV-infection-in-monolayer).

DATA AVAILABILITY

Sequencing data that support the findings of this study have been deposited in the Gene

Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository with the accession codes GSE118773 (currently private

record).

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

All authors read and approved the manuscript. E.G. conceived and designed the experiments,

supervised research, and wrote the manuscript. B. Zhou conceived and designed the

experiments, supervised research, performed the infection assays, and wrote the manuscript.

C.W. performed the infection assays and bulk RNA-seq library preparation, analyzed the data,

and wrote the manuscript. C.V.F. performed the network analysis and wrote the manuscript. T.C.

performed the DI virus generation, interfering, and validation assay and wrote the manuscript.

A.G. performed the library preparation for the virus stock. M.W. and B. Zhang contributed to

data analyses. W.H., M.S., and R.S. performed the single-cell library preparation.

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727
728

729 **FIGURES**

Fig 1.

Figure 1. Characterization of DVG transcripts and validation of interfering capacity. (a)

Selection criteria for reads considered to be representatives of DVGs. Given the length of the

reads, we required that each portion of the gap-spanning reads were at least 10 bp in length.

Considering that DVGs typically lose approximately 80% of their original sequences, we also

required that the size of the gap should be at least 1 kb. **(b-c)** Schematic diagram showing two

types of defective viral transcripts derived from **(b)** PB2 and **(c)** PB1 segments, respectively.

The caret "^" denotes a deletion event and the numbers before and following it indicate the

coordinates of the junction sites. **(d)** Interfering capacity of generated defective interfering

particles (DIs) carrying identified deletion sites in the PB2 segment during co-infection with the

WT-PR8 virus. A549 cells were co-infected with WT virus and one type of DI virus at a ratio of

1:1000. Viral titers at 2 hours post-infection (denoted as day 0 post-infection) and 1 to 3 days

post-infection (dpi) were measured by the TCID50 assay on MDCK cells. Three types of DI

viruses were tested, including two DI viruses identified in this study and a previously reported

DI244 virus [18] that has been considered as a potential candidate for antiviral therapy [17]. For

each type of DI virus, the information about the junction sites was denoted in parentheses. The

error bar representing the standard deviation of the mean was obtained from three biological

replicates.

Fig 2.

Figure 2. Comparison of the induction of interferons (IFNs) and interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs) at bulk and single-cell levels. (a) Log2 fold changes of the top 10 differentially expressed genes with the greatest fold change by 24hpi, including type I and III IFNs and some

ISGs, compared to mock-infected cells detected in A549 and HBEpC cells over the course of

the infection at the bulk level. The results from edgeR are shown. **(b)** The expression of these

genes at the single-cell level over the course of the infection in two cell types. Expression was

calculated as log-transformed UMI counts normalized by the host library size. The violins below

the dots are colored by samples. **(c)** Proportion of cells in which these genes are detected over

the course of the infection in two cell types. The colors are consistent with those in panel (b).

Fig 3.

Figure 3. Comparison of cell clustering patterns and the distribution of viral transcript relative abundance. PR8-infected **(a)**

A549 and **(b)** HBEpC cells harvested at each time point were subjected to un-supervised clustering based on the host transcriptome

762 and visualized on a t-SNE plot. Each dot on a t-SNE plot represents a cell. Cell clustering patterns, in which cells were colored by

763 their cluster identity, are shown in the left panels, and the distribution of the relative abundance of viral transcripts at different time

764 points in individual cells is shown in the right panels.

Fig 4.

Figure 4. Enriched biological process gene ontology (GO) terms in A549 cells at 24hpi. (a-b) Biological process GO terms associated with over-expressed genes in each cluster of (**a**) A549 and (**b**) HBEpC cells. The top 10 over-represented GO terms in each cluster are shown in the upper panel and another over-represented GO term related to type I IFN signaling pathway in clusters 2 of HBEpC cells are shown in the lower panel. Redundant GO terms in HBEpC cells were collapsed. Each GO term is denoted by a dot. The color intensity of each dot indicates the fold enrichment of the corresponding GO term and the size corresponds to the ratio of queried genes in the gene set associated with a given GO term. The GO terms enriched in each cluster are color-coded by

772   clusters. The asterisks in the upper panel denote the GO terms enriched in two clusters and their colors indicate the identity of the

773   other cluster besides the one denoted by the color of the GO term. The bar chart above the bubble chart of the GO terms shows the

774   median relative abundance of the viral transcripts across cells in each cluster. The colors of the bar are consistent with that of the GO

775   terms.

Fig 5.

Figure 5. Distribution of the relative abundance of viral transcripts and DVG/FL ratio for

DVG PB2 and PB1 transcripts in each cluster of cells. (a, b, and e) Box-plot of the relative

abundance of viral transcripts in each cluster of **(a)** A549 cells at 12hpi, **(e)** 24hpi, and **(b)**

HBEpC cells at 24hpi. **(c, d, and f)** The DVG/FL ratio for DVG PB2 and PB1 transcripts

calculated as the ratio of gap-spanning reads to non-gap-spanning reads aligned to a 3'

coverage peak region derived from the corresponding viral segments in each cluster. **(g)** The

DVG/FL ratio for DVG PB2 transcripts carrying deletion sites similar to those in PR8-DI222 and

PR8-DI162 viruses in each cluster of A549 cells at 24hpi. All box plots show the first and third

quantiles as the lower and upper hinges, the median in the center, and 1.5 * inter-quartile range

(IQR) from the first and third quantiles as the whiskers.

Fig 6.

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 6. Functional MEGENA modules in clusters of A549 and HBEpC cells at 24hpi. Left

panels show heatmaps of enriched biological process GO terms in the top 10 best ranked

modules in clusters **(a)** 3 and **(b)** 2 of A549 cells as well as **(c)** cluster 2 of HBEpC cells at 24hpi

and the correlation between modules and the level of viral transcription. Colors in the heatmaps

of GO terms indicate FET p-values after GO enrichment. Red and blue colors in the correlation

heatmaps denote positive or negative correlation with corresponding modules, respectively.

Right panels show the MEGENA network of modules enriched with innate immune response,

including **(a)** module M3 in cluster 3 of A549 cells, **(b)** module M100 in cluster 2 of A549 cells, **(c)**

module M227 in cluster 2 of HBEpC cells. Red and blue nodes represent significantly up- or

down-regulated genes compared to all mock-infected cells, while light-green nodes denote

genes that are not significantly differentially expressed. Diamond nodes indicate key regulators.

The size of the nodes indicates node strength after Multiscale Hub Analysis within the MEGENA

pipeline.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Supplementary Fig 1.

(a)

(b)

Supplementary Figure 1. Distribution of the relative abundance of viral transcripts within

individual cells over the course of the infection. **(a)** The overall relative abundance of viral

transcripts was calculated as the percentage of viral reads in the pool of all the reads for each

cell. The dots are colored by the time points. All pairwise comparisons were performed with one-

tailed Wilcoxon rank sum test, for which the null hypothesis was that cells harvested at an

earlier time point have a lower median relative abundance of viral transcripts than those

harvested at a later time point. The significance levels were denoted by the asterisks: * p ≤ 0.05,

** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001, **** p ≤ 0.0001, and "ns" as not significant. The data for HBEpC cells

at 12hpi was collected from a repeated infection assay, due to the initial failure of single-cell

library preparation for the corresponding sample. **(b)** Distribution of the relative abundance of

viral transcripts derived from each segment within individual cells over the course of the

infection. All box plots show the first and third quantiles as the lower and upper hinges, the

median in the center, and 1.5 * inter-quartile range (IQR) from the first and third quantiles as the

whiskers.

Supplementary Figure 2. Distribution of junction sites in the PB2 segment and the medians of their DVG/FL ratio in cells where a

given defective viral transcript was detected. **(a)** The defective PB2 segments detected in the PR8 virus stock used for infection. **(b-c)**

822   The DVG PB2 transcripts detected in **(b)** A549 and **(c)** HBEpC cells over the course of the infection. Transcripts carrying the same

823   junction sites as seen in the virus stock were denoted by asterisks.

Supplementary Fig 3.

Supplementary Figure 3. Distribution of junction sites in the PB1 segment and the medians of their DVG/FL ratio in cells where a given defective viral transcript was detected.

Supplementary Fig 4.

Supplementary Figure 4. Distribution of junction sites in the PA segment and the medians of their DVG/FL ratio in cells where a given defective viral transcript was detected.

Supplementary Fig 5.

(a)

(b)

Supplementary Figure 5. Distribution of the DVG/FL ratio in A549 and HBEPC cells over the

course of the infection. All pairwise comparisons were performed with two-tailed Wilcoxon rank

sum test, for which the null hypothesis was that cells harvested at two different time points have

different median relative abundance of viral transcripts. The significance levels were denoted by

the asterisks: * p ≤ 0.05, ** p ≤ 0.01, *** p ≤ 0.001, **** p ≤ 0.0001, and "ns" as not significant.

All box plots show the first and third quantiles as the lower and upper hinges, the median in the

center, and 1.5 * inter-quartile range (IQR) from the first and third quantiles as the whiskers.

Supplementary Fig 6.

Supplementary Figure 6. Percentage of A549 and HBEpC cells in which a given DVG PB2 transcript was detected versus the

median of the DVG/FL ratio for that transcript in those cells over the course of the infection. Each type of DVG PB2 transcript was

842 represented by a dot or triangle. A dot denoted the DVG transcripts also seen in the virus stock and a filled triangle denoted the *de*

843 *novo* generated transcripts. Two dominant DVG PB2 species were highlighted in slate blue and orange.

Supplementary Fig 7.

Supplementary Figure 7. Percentage of A549 and HBEpC cells in which a given DVG PB1 transcript was detected versus the median of the DVG/FL ratio for that transcript in those cells over the course of the infection. Two dominant DVG PB1 species were highlighted in yellow and pink.

Supplementary Fig 8.

Supplementary Figure 8. Percentage of MDCK and A549 cells in which a given DVG PB2 transcript was detected versus the

median of the DVG/FL ratio for that transcript in those cells. MDCK and A549 cells were infected with the same PR8 virus stock at

852   high (5) or low (0.2) MOI and harvested at 6hpi followed by 10X Genomics 3' single-cell library preparation and sequencing. Two

853   dominant DVG PB2 species were highlighted in slate blue and orange.

Supplementary Fig 9.

Supplementary Figure 9. Percentage of MDCK and A549 cells in which a given DVG PB1 transcript was detected versus the

median of the DVG/FL ratio for that transcript in those cells. MDCK and A549 cells were infected with the same PR8 virus stock at

858   high (5) or low (0.2) MOI and harvested at 6hpi followed by 10X Genomics 3' single-cell library preparation and sequencing. Two

859   dominant DVG PB1 species were highlighted in yellow and pink.

Supplementary Fig 10.

862　**Supplementary Figure 10.** Percentage of A549 and HBEpC cells in which a given DVG PA transcript was detected versus the

863　median of the DVG/FL ratio for that transcript in those cells over the course of the infection. The dominant DVG PA species in each

864　cell type were highlighted.

Supplementary Figure 11. Percentage of MDCK and A549 cells in which a given DVG PA transcript was detected versus the

median of the DVG/FL ratio for that transcript in those cells. MDCK and A549 cells were infected with the same PR8 virus stock at

high (5) or low (0.2) MOI and harvested at 6hpi followed by 10X Genomics 3' single-cell library preparation and sequencing. The

869   DVG PA transcripts were not detected in MDCK cells infected at low MOI. The dominant DVG PA species was highlighted in

870   chartreuse.

Supplementary Fig 12.

872 **Supplementary Figure 12.** The log2 fold change of the top 10 differentially expressed genes

873 identified at the bulk level in merged single-cell data that mimics the bulk level measurements.

874 The results from edgeR are shown.

Supplementary Fig 13.

Supplementary Figure 13. Visualization of un-supervised cell clustering on a t-SNE plot for

mock-infected **(a)** A549 and **(b)** HBEpC cells and the distribution of cell-cycle within the

population at each time point in two cell types. Each dot represents a cell on the t-SNE plot.

Dots were colored by either the cluster identities for the mock-infected cells, or the cell-cycle

stages for mock- and PR8-infected cells. The cell-cycle stage was assigned to each cell based

on the expression level of a list of cell-cycle markers.

Supplementary Fig 14.

885 **Supplementary Figure 14.** Distribution of the DVG/FL ratio for the DVG PA transcripts in each

886 cluster of A549 cells at 12hpi and 24hpi and HBEpC cells at 24hpi. All box plots show the first

887 and third quantiles as the lower and upper hinges, the median in the center, and 1.5 * inter-

888 quartile range (IQR) from the first and third quantiles as the whiskers.

Supplementary Fig 15.

Supplementary Figure 15. Functional MEGENA modules in clusters 0 and 1 of A549 at 24hpi
and networks revealing key regulators in modules enriched with innate immune response terms.

(a-b) Heatmaps of enriched biological process GO terms in the top 10 best ranked modules in

clusters **(a)** 0 and **(b)** 1 of A549 cells and the correlation between modules and the level of viral

transcription and DVG accumulation. Colors in the heatmaps of GO terms indicate FET p-values

after GO enrichment. Red and blue colors in the correlation heatmaps denote positive or

negative correlation with corresponding modules, respectively. **(c)** MEGENA network of

modules that are enriched for the innate immune response, including module M13 in cluster 1,

module M215 in cluster 2, and module M234 in cluster 0 of A549 cells. Red and blue nodes

represent significantly up- or down-regulated genes compared to all mock-infected cells, while

light-green nodes denote genes that are not significantly differentially expressed. Diamond

nodes indicate key regulators. The size of nodes indicates node strength after Multiscale Hub

Analysis within the MEGENA pipeline.

Supplementary Figure 16. Functional MEGENA modules in clusters 0, 1, and 3 of HBEpC at

24hpi and co-expression networks revealing modules enriched for type I IFN response. The left

panel shows the heatmaps of enriched biological process GO terms in the top 10 best ranked

modules and the correlation between modules and the level of viral transcription and DVG

accumulation. Colors in the heatmaps of GO terms indicate FET p-values after GO enrichment.

Red and blue colors in the correlation heatmaps denote positive or negative correlation with

corresponding modules, respectively. The right panel shows modules, including module M3 in

cluster 0, module M14 in cluster 1, and module M104 in cluster 3, enriched for type I IFN

response.

Supplementary Fig 17.

Supplementary Figure 17. Expression of ISGs and IFNs in DI-enriched A549 cells at 24hpi. **(a-**

b) The expression level of **(a)** significantly over-expressed genes in cluster 2, which are

associated with GO terms related to the type I IFN signaling pathway and have the fold change

on the log-scale >= 1, and **(b)** type I and III IFNs, in each cluster of A549 cells at 24hpi. The dot

represents the normalized expression level of a gene in each cell. The violin shade is colored by

the cluster identity. **(c)** Validation of over-expression of selected ISGs and IFNs by qPCR.

Subconfluent A549 cells were either mock-infected or infected with one type of PR8-DI virus

(PR8-DI162, -DI222, or -DI244) or PR8-WT virus at a MOI of 10. Total RNA was extracted from

cells collected at 24hpi. The levels of ISGs and IFNs mRNA were determined by qPCR and

normalized to the level of β-actin (ACTB). The error bar representing the standard deviation of

the mean was obtained from three biological replicates. Statistical tests were done using two-

tailed Student's *t*-test in R to compare the differences in fold change between PR8-WT and

PR8-DI infection. The significance levels were denoted by the asterisks: * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$,

*** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0001$, and "ns" as not significant.