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ER reorganization and intracellular retention of CD58 are functionally

independent properties of the human cytomegalovirus ER resident glycoprotein

UL148

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ABSTRACT

The human cytomegalovirus (HCMV) endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-resident glycoprotein UL148 is posited to play roles in immune evasion and regulation of viral cell tropism. UL148 prevents cell surface presentation of the immune cell costimulatory ligand CD58 while promoting maturation and virion incorporation of glycoprotein O, a receptor binding subunit for an envelope glycoprotein complex involved in entry. Meanwhile, UL148 activates the unfolded protein response (UPR) and causes large-scale reorganization of the ER. In an effort to determine whether the seemingly disparate effects of UL148 are related or discrete, we generated charged-cluster-to-alanine (CCTA) mutants of six charged clusters within the UL148 ectodomain, and compared them against wildtype UL148, in the context of recombinant viruses and in ectopic expression, assaying for effects on ER remodeling and CD58 surface presentation. Two mutants, targeting charged clusters spanning residues 79-83 (CC3) and 133-136 (CC4), respectively, retained the potential to impede CD58 presentation, and did so to an extent comparable to wildtype. Of the six mutants, only CC3 retained the capacity to reorganize the ER, showing a partial phenotype. Wildtype UL148 accumulates in a detergent-insoluble form during infection. However, all six CCTA mutants were fully soluble, which may imply a relationship between insolubility and organelle remodeling. Additionally, we found that the chimpanzee cytomegalovirus UL148 homolog suppresses CD58 presentation but fails to reorganize the ER, while the homolog from rhesus cytomegalovirus shows neither activity. Collectively, our findings illustrate varying degrees of functional divergence between homologous primate cytomegalovirus immunevasins and suggest that ER reorganization is unique to HCMV UL148.

IMPORTANCE

In myriad examples, viral gene products cause striking effects on cells, such as

activation of stress responses.   It can be challenging to decipher how such effects

contribute to the biological roles of the proteins. The HCMV glycoprotein UL148 retains

CD58 within the ER, thereby preventing it from reaching the cell surface where it functions

to stimulate cell-mediated antiviral responses. Intriguingly, UL148 also triggers the

formation of large, ER-derived membranous structures, and activates the UPR, a set of

signaling pathways involved in adaptation to ER stress.   We demonstrate that the

potential of UL148 to reorganize the ER and to retain CD58 are separable by mutagenesis

and possibly, by evolution, since chimpanzee cytomegalovirus UL148 retains CD58 but

does not remodel the ER. Our findings imply that ER reorganization contributes to other

roles of UL148, such as modulation of alternative viral glycoprotein complexes that govern

the virus' ability to infect different cell types.

INTRODUCTION

Cytomegaloviruses (CMVs), like other herpesviruses, encode a large and multifarious array of gene products and regulatory RNAs that alter host cell functions to support viral replication, spread, and lifelong persistence [reviewed in (1, 2)]. CMVs have evolved a number of functions that dampen antiviral responses that otherwise produce sterilizing immunity. Rodent and primate cytomegalovirus (CMV) species, such as mouse cytomegalovirus (MCMV) and human cytomegalovirus (HCMV), express a large number of proteins and microRNAs that interfere with antigen presentation and prevent activation of cytotoxic T cells and NK cells [reviewed in (3-6)], (7). In HCMV, several viral gene products involved in immune evasion, such as UL141 (8, 9), UL142 (10-12), and UL148 (13), are encoded within a region of the genome termed the 'UL*b'*,' which undergoes extensive rearrangements and deletions during extensive serial passage in cultured cells (14-16).

The HCMV glycoprotein UL148 impedes the activation of cytotoxic T-cell and NK cell mediated responses by binding the co-stimulatory ligand CD58 and retaining it within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (13). Intriguingly, UL148 also shows a strong capacity to influence HCMV cell tropism, with *UL148*-null mutant viruses showing ~100-fold improved replication in epithelial cells (17, 18). The evidence suggests that UL148 stabilizes immature forms of glycoprotein O (gO) within the ER, thereby promoting the maturation and incorporation into virions of the heterotrimeric glycoprotein H (gH)/ glycoprotein L (gL)/ gO complex. gH/gL/gO (Trimer) and gH/gL/UL128-131 (Pentamer) are the two alternative HCMV gH/gL complexes that endow the virus with the ability to utilize different proteinaceous host cell surface factors as entry receptors [reviewed in (19)]. In particular,

gO, in the context of Trimer, is required for viral entry via the platelet-derived growth factor

receptor alpha (PDGFRα), which is well expressed in fibroblasts but poorly if at all in

epithelial cells (20-23). Infection of epithelial and endothelial cells, on the other hand,

appears to require direct interactions between the Pentamer and neuropilin-2 (Nrp2) (24),

together with roles for OR14I1 (25) and CD147 (26), addition to roles for the Trimer (27,

28). The striking replication advantage of *UL148*-null viruses in epithelial cells   is

presumably explained by decreased expression of Trimer, which in turn is thought to favor

Pentamer-dependent interactions that are important for infection of epithelial cells.

Furthermore, UL148 is necessary and sufficient to activate the unfolded protein

response (UPR) (29), a canonical ER-stress adaptation pathway conserved among

eukaryotes. Although the mechanism for UPR activation remains unknown, UL148

appears to interact with the core ER-associated degradation (ERAD) factor SEL1L (18).

Hence, UL148 might be hypothesized to cause ER stress by impairing the ability of the

SEL1L/Hrd1 complex to dispose of misfolded proteins. Furthermore, UL148 drastically

reorganizes the ER, causing the accumulation of unusual electron-dense membranous

structures that appear to derive from distended rough-ER cisternae (30). These ER

structures are replete with factors involved in glycoprotein quality control such as SEL1L,

Hrd1, and EDEM1. We wondered whether the dramatic effects of UL148 on the ER might

be related to its potential to retain CD58. We therefore sought to develop experimental

approaches to interrogate whether these two UL148-dependent activities were separable

or interdependent.

In the absence of a three-dimensional structure, charged-cluster-to-alanine

(CCTA) mutagenesis provides a useful approach to identify functionally important

residues within a protein sequence. The underlying rationale is based on the assumption

that charged clusters of amino acids are more likely to be found on solvent exposed

surfaces in the context of the tertiary structure of a given polypeptide, and therefore

mutations affecting such residues are less likely to strongly influence overall protein

folding or stability (31-34). Additionally, charged clusters are often involved in biologically

relevant protein-protein interactions, as evidenced by the historical utility of CCTA

mutagenesis for identifying residues involved in ligand-receptor interactions (31, 35-38).

To define which UL148-associated activities may arise from shared versus distinct

molecular mechanisms, we combined CCTA mutagenesis with marker-less bacterial

artificial chromosome (BAC) recombination ("recombineering") methods (39, 40) to

generate HCMV genomes mutated for individual charged clusters within *UL148*. We also

constructed vectors for transient ectopic expression of UL148 CCTA mutants in non-

infected cells. Finally, we cloned UL148 homologs from other primate cytomegaloviruses,

including chimpanzee CMV (53% amino acid identity with UL148) and rhesus macaque

CMV (25% amino acid identity), so as to gain insight into potential evolutionary

relationships between the various activities of HCMV UL148.

RESULTS

UL148 charged-cluster-to-alanine mutagenesis

In order to identify charged residues within UL148 in an unbiased manner, we

utilized a simple scanning algorithm (window = 6 residues) to analyze the predicted

ectodomain of UL148. We designated any window containing at least 40% charged

amino acids (K, R, D, E) to be a charged cluster (**FIG 1A**). For practical purposes, we

opted to treat as a single cluster three clusters that were found in very close proximity to

each other (residues 220-231). In this manner, we were able to focus our mutagenesis

strategy on six charged clusters within the UL148 ectodomain (**FIG 1B**). We constructed

a series of expression plasmids encoding HA-tagged UL148 harboring CCTA mutations

at each of the clusters. For comparative purposes, we also cloned UL148 homologs from

two other primate CMVs—notably UL148 homologs are found only in primate CMVs. In

particular, we constructed plasmids encoding chimpanzee CMV UL148 (Ch148; 53%

identity) and rhesus CMV Rh159 (25% identity), each appended at its C-terminus to an

influenza virus hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag.

Expression of UL148 CCTA mutants and UL148 homologs.

As a first step to confirm the expression of the UL148 CCTA mutants, and the

primate CMV homologs of UL148, we transfected HEK-293T (293T) cells with the

different expression plasmids. Robust levels of protein expression were observed for

both Rh159 and Ch148 (**FIG 2**). HCMV UL148 expressed to visibly lower levels than

Rh159 or Ch148 during transient overexpression in transfected cells. We interpret the

somewhat lower peak expression level of HCMV UL148 as likely being due to its

activation of the unfolded protein response (29). Nonetheless, each of the CCTA mutants

expressed at levels comparable to that of wildtype UL148, except perhaps CCTA mutant

#6, which affected the largest cluster (residues 220-231). Overall, each of the CCTA

constructs was readily detected following transient transfection of 293T cells (**FIG 2**).

Disruption of four out of six charged clusters abolishes UL148-dependent suppression of cell surface CD58

Wang *et al*. (13) reported that HCMV UL148 is necessary and sufficient to suppress surface presentation of CD58, a ligand for CD2 that co-stimulates T and NK cell activation, such as in response to HCMV infection. Since CCTA mutagenesis has been extensively used to define "interface" residues involved in protein-protein interactions, we asked whether UL148 mutants ablated for specific charged clusters would show differences in their ability to suppress CD58 surface presentation. Turning to a transient expression system to ask this question, we electroporated UL148-CCTA constructs into A549 lung adenocarcinoma cells, which basally express surface CD58 (see below). In order to limit our analyses to cells that took up plasmid, we co-transfected a GFP expression vector along with each UL148 construct. Gating for GFP positive cells, we observed a ~40% decrease in CD58 median fluorescence intensity (MFI) in cells transfected with wildtype UL148 (**FIG 3A**). A comparable decrease in surface CD58 was detected in cells transfected with Ch148 expression vector but not with the vector expressing the rhesus CMV UL148 homolog, Rh159. Importantly, four of our six CCTA mutants failed to downregulate surface CD58. The remaining two CCTA constructs, however, mutated at charged clusters #3 or #4, (**FIG 1B**), suppressed CD58 surface presentation comparably to wildtype UL148.

We next sought to analyze the importance of the charged clusters in the context of infection. We employed *en passant* mutagenesis (39, 40) to construct HCMV recombinants harboring these CCTA mutations. Upon infection of fibroblasts with the CCTA mutant viruses, we obtained results that largely recapitulate our findings from

electroporation of A549 cells with plasmid expression vectors (**FIG 3B**). The four different

charged clusters identified to be required for CD58 suppression in transient transfection

were likewise required to suppress CD58 surface presentation during HCMV infection.

Moreover, the two CCTA mutants competent for CD58 suppression in transfected A549

cells, CC3 and CC4, likewise appeared to suppress CD58 and did so indistinguishably

from parental wildtype virus. These results suggest that the two charged clusters at 79-

83 (CC3) and 133-136 (CC4) are dispensable for intracellular retention of CD58.

Additionally, our results indicate that the other four charged clusters are either directly

required to prevent surface presentation of CD58, or otherwise necessary for UL148 to

properly fold or function, since these mutant viruses phenocopy *UL148*-null virus

(148_{STOP}) in failing to downregulate CD58 surface levels.

The propensity of UL148 to accumulate in a detergent-insoluble form is

dispensable for suppression of CD58 surface presentation.

We recently observed that UL148 accumulates in a detergent-insoluble form

during infection (30). We therefore wished to examine whether any of the CCTA

mutations affected the solubility of UL148 during infection, since this could provide a clue

as to whether the UL148 insolubility is required for retention of CD58. We carried out

these experiments using fibroblasts infected with our series of recombinant HCMVs

expressing the six different CCTA mutants, so as to minimize the potential for artifacts

concerning solubility that might confound results obtained from transient overexpression

of plasmids. Each of the CCTA mutants failed to accumulate in the detergent-insoluble

fraction, while wildtype UL148, as expected appeared in both the soluble and insoluble

fractions (**FIG 4**). Nonetheless, cells infected with CCTA mutants affecting the clusters #3

(residues 79-83) and #4 (residues 133-136) showed defects in CD58 maturation matching

those seen with wildtype virus (**FIG 4**), which suggests that the potential for UL148 to

accumulate in a detergent-insoluble form is separable from its capacity to prevent CD58

maturation.

Five out of six charged clusters are necessary for UL148-mediated ER remodeling

UL148 activates the unfolded protein response (UPR), both during infection and

ectopic expression (29), and is also necessary and sufficient to drastically remodel the

ER (30). Hoping to identify charged clusters necessary for these striking effects, we again

turned to our panel of CCTA mutants. Results from confocal immunofluorescence

microscopy of infected cells stained for Hrd1 and UL148 (HA tag) at 72 h post-infection

(hpi) indicated that five of the six CCTA mutants matched the phenotype seen for *UL148-*

null virus (148_{STOP}) in failing to cause ER remodeling, as indicated by Hrd1 staining (**FIG**

5). The remaining mutant (CC3) exhibited a partial phenotype wherein UL148 puncta

formation could be detected in a minority of cells. Interestingly, the CC4 mutant

completely lost the ability to remodel the ER but nonetheless blocks maturation and

surface presentation of CD58 similarly if not equivalently to wildtype (**FIG 3-4**). Because

both CC3 and CC4 mutants block CD58 surface presentation while exhibiting,

respectively, either a significant decrease or a complete loss of ER remodeling, our

results suggest that these two activities involve distinct molecular mechanisms.

The chimpanzee CMV UL148 homolog does not remodel the ER

Lastly, we sought to determine whether the effects of UL148 on the ER and on

CD58 surface expression might be conserved by assaying HCMV UL148 against its

homologs from other primate CMVs. Rh159, the rhesus CMV homolog, shares 25%

amino acid identity with HCMV UL148 and has been shown to retain NKG2D receptor

activating ligands of the MIC- and ULBP families (7). Furthermore, Rh159 fails to activate

the UPR and does not appear to remodel ER membranes (29, 30). However, the

chimpanzee CMV homolog of UL148, Ch148, shares 53% amino acid identity with UL148,

and to the best of our knowledge has not been examined for its effects on CD58 or on

the ER. We cloned Ch148 fused at its predicted C-terminal tail to enhanced GFP (GFP)

in the context of an inducible expression vector to facilitate observation of Ch148

localization patterns within the cell. We previously constructed similar vectors encoding

Rh159 and UL148 fused to GFP (30). Upon induction of protein expression using 100

ng/mL doxycycline, we observed the formation of punctate structures for UL148-GFP but

diffuse, reticulate signal for Rh159-GFP, as expected (30). Interestingly, Ch148-GFP

exhibited a diffuse localization pattern more similar to that of Rh159 than UL148 (**FIG 6**).

Taken together with the results from our series of CCTA mutants, this result suggests that

ER remodeling and CD58 retention arise from distinct mechanisms.

DISCUSSION

Evidence of distinct mechanisms for CD58 suppression and ER remodeling

Upon discovering that UL148 reorganizes the ER (30), we wondered whether this phenotype might play a role in ER-retention of CD58. We considered the possibility that perhaps CD58 is so efficiently chaperoned to the cell surface that it somehow resists being sequestered via simple high affinity interactions with an ER-resident protein. So perhaps UL148 forms bizarre membranous structures to more potently obstruct its presentation at the cell surface?   Two findings from this study argue against this possibility, and instead indicate that ER reorganization is dispensable for UL148-mediated interference with CD58 surface presentation. Firstly, the CCTA mutant affecting charged cluster #4 fails to remodel the ER but impedes CD58 surface presentation comparably, if not indistinguishably, from wildtype UL148 (**FIG 3-5**). Secondly, the UL148 homolog from chimpanzee CMV (Ch148) is sufficient to suppress surface CD58 presentation but fails to induce the formation of punctate structures that we consistently observe during expression of HCMV UL148, which indicate ER reorganization (30) (**FIG 3A, 6**). Although we cannot exclude the possibility that Ch148 suppresses CD58 surface presentation by a mechanism distinct from that of HCMV UL148, we consider this to be unlikely, considering the extensive sequence homology between Ch148 and HCMV UL148 (>50% amino acid identity). A summary view of the observed activities for Ch148 and UL148 constructs is shown in **FIG 7**. Collectively, the data suggest that the properties of UL148 that give rise to ER re-organization are distinct from those involved in intracellular retention of CD58.

Why does UL148 accumulate in a detergent-insoluble form, and what is the relationship to ER reorganization?

Fundamental to the biology of the ER is its system of mechanisms, such as N-glycosylation and ER-resident chaperones, that function to prevent proteins from aggregating or accumulating in an insoluble state (41, 42). Therefore, it seems unusual that the wildtype form of an ER resident glycoprotein like UL148 would accumulate in a detergent-insoluble form in the first place. Moreover, this feature of UL148 stands in stark contrast with every other glycoprotein we have analyzed in infected cells, including gB and CD58 (**FIG 4**), the RhCMV UL148 homolog Rh159 (30), as well as gH and gO (C.C.N. and J.P.K., unpublished results). Surprisingly, all six of the CCTA mutants examined in this study failed to accumulate in a detergent-insoluble form. Thus, a property readily disrupted by CCTA mutagenesis is required for the protein to accumulate in an insoluble form.

Notably, insoluble forms of many different proteins characteristically accumulate during treatments that diminish proteasomal or lysosomal protein degradation pathways (43-45). Conversely, protein aggregates are themselves thought to inhibit the ubiquitin proteasome system (46). Intriguingly, UL148, exhibits a marked tendency toward insolubility even in the absence of inhibitors affecting rates of protein degradation. We hypothesize that the native conformer adopted by wildtype UL148 may resist ER associated degradation (ERAD), and perhaps even generally inhibit ERAD. On the other hand, other examples of proteins that form ER structures, such as the Z-allele of alpha-1-antitrypsin (*SERPINA*) (47, 48), or the A103E mutant of the calcium channel subunit

ORAI1 (*CRAMC1*), exhibit a propensity to aggregate or polymerize within the ER, which

may make them resistant to ERAD. Given their improved solubility, each of the UL148

CCTA mutants, in contrast, might be predicted to show improved susceptibility to ERAD,

and may also indicate that these mutants no longer aggregate or polymerize.

Strikingly, five of the six CCTA mutants fully lost the ability to reorganize the ER,

while the one mutant that still showed ER organization exhibited a partial phenotype. It

is notable that in all cases, the loss of ER reorganization correlated with markedly

improved solubility. These observations collectively suggest that the propensity of UL148

to accumulate in an insoluble form may be mechanistically important for ER remodeling.

Roles of ER remodeling cell tropism versus roles in immune evasion?

Collectively, our results suggest that ER remodeling is indicative of, if not directly

involved, in a function unrelated to CD58 retention, since ER remodeling appears to be

dispensable for this function (**FIG 3-6**). Accordingly, one might hypothesize ER

reorganization to play roles in the cell tropism effects of UL148. The effects of UL148 on

HCMV cell tropism correlate with its potential to promote the expression of gH/gL/gO, a

heterotrimeric complex that endows virions with the ability to utilize PDGFRα as an entry

receptor (20, 21, 49, 50). We previously found that gO behaves as a constitutive ERAD

substrate and that UL148 stabilizes its expression (18). Given that the ER structures

induced by UL148 contain huge amounts of glycoprotein quality control proteins that

participate in ERAD (30), it seems plausible that UL148 may limit degradation of immature

gO by sequestering the ERAD machinery. Despite that a role for ER remodeling in

suppression of CD58 surface presentation seems unlikely, given our findings here, a role

in regulation of glycoprotein complexes involved in cell tropism remains to be disproven.

Proper folding of UL148 harboring CCTA mutations

In the absence of characterized monoclonal antibodies against UL148, we are

limited in our ability to conclusively demonstrate that the UL148 species carrying mutated

charged clusters fold properly in the ER. That said, our results offer some insight into the

overall stability of the proteins expressed from our plasmid constructs and recombinant

viruses. It is notable that all of six of the CCTA mutants we examined in this study show

improved solubility relative to wildtype UL148.   Insolubility is often associated with

misfolding and aggregation. Therefore, the observation that wildtype UL148 is less

soluble that its CCTA mutants may suggest that insolubility is important for one or more

of its biological functions, but not for CD58 retention, as our results have identified two

CCTA mutants that retain CD58 without accumulating in an insoluble form. Even so,

caution compels us to avoid making strong conclusions from the other four CCTA mutants

that have so far only recapitulated *UL148*-null phenotypes with regard to ER remodeling

and CD58 retention. We are therefore focusing on mutants of charged clusters #3 (CC3)

and #4 (CC4) in our ongoing studies concerning UL148-mediated ER remodeling, since

CCTA mutants of these clusters can be presumed to fold properly, given that they remain

able to suppress CD58 maturation.

Inferences into the UL148-CD58 interaction face

Alanine scanning and CCTA mutagenesis approaches have proven useful to

define the specific amino acid residues underlying biologically relevant protein-protein

interactions. Despite that detailed empirical data on the tertiary structure of UL148 as-of-

yet remain unavailable, the results from our studies of UL148 CCTA mutants support a

number of inferences concerning the physical basis for its interaction with CD58. The two

charged clusters that do not appear to be important for CD58 retention, #3 and #4, are

found in a contiguous stretch of amino acids (residues 79-136) that lacks other charged

clusters. Assuming our other four CCTA mutants do not grossly compromise UL148

folding, residues from the N-terminal half (residues 47-62) and C-terminal half (residues

172-230) of the UL148 ectodomain may participate in an interaction face with CD58.

Likewise, our data suggest that the contiguous sequence containing clusters #3 and #4

represents a region within the 3D structure that does not participate in CD58 binding.

Chimpanzee CMV provides a valuable model for comparative studies of HCMV

gene products in cell-based assays.

Taken together, our findings highlight the various functionally divergent roles

among three different UL148 homologs in CMVs endemic to humans, rhesus

macaques, and chimpanzees. While all three proteins act as ER-resident

immunevasins, the rhesus CMV homolog lacks the potential to trigger the UPR (29, 30),

and apparently functions to evade NK cells by preventing MIC- and ULBP family

NKG2D ligands from reaching the cell surface (7). Chimpanzee and human CMV

UL148 target CD58 instead of NKG2D ligands [(13), **FIG 3**)], but only HCMV UL148 is

capable of remodeling the ER (**FIG 6**), a property that appears to depend on the

capacity of UL148 to activate the integrated stress response downstream of UPR

activation (30). Although chimpanzee CMV is more closely related to HCMV than

rhesus CMV (51), the use of chimpanzees as an animal model for human diseases is

prohibited, which likely has limited the interest of researchers in studying the virus. Our

study, however, highlights the utility of studying chimpanzee CMV gene products, even

in the context of cultured cells, to gain comparative insights into the functions of HCMV

genes. Chimpanzee CMV homologs may be of particular importance for helping us to

understand the functions of genes in regions of the virus such as the UL*b'*, which are

not well conserved, if at all, in rodent CMVs. Moreover, at least in the example of

UL148, the chimpanzee homolog appears to be more functionally aligned with HCMV

UL148 than the rhesus CMV homolog. Because genes within the UL*b'* play crucial

roles in latency, persistence, cell tropism, and immune evasion, elucidating their

functions will be of critical importance. A clear picture of which gene specific functions

are shared and divergent between the different primate CMVs may provide profound

insights into the unique biology of HCMV.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells. Human telomerase (hTERT)-immortalized human foreskin fibroblasts (HFFT) were described previously (18), and were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Corning Cat #10-013-CV) supplemented with 25 µg/mL gentamicin sulfate (Invitrogen), 10 µg/mL ciprofloxacin HCl (Genhunter, Inc.) and 5% newborn calf serum (NCS) (Sigma #N4637). Human embryonic kidney 293T (HEK-293T) cells were obtained from Genhunter, Inc. (Nashville, TN), and cultured in DMEM supplemented as above except with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (MilliporeSigma Cat #F2442) instead of NCS. A549 adenocarcinoma cells were obtained from ATCC (Cat # CCL-185) and grown in Ham's F-12K medium (ThermoFisher, Cat # 21127022) supplemented with 10% FBS and antibiotics, as above.

Virus. Virus was reconstituted by electroporation of purified bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) DNA into HFFT and amplified until 100% cytopathic effect (CPE) was observed, as previously described (17, 18, 52). Cell-free virus in the medium was combined with cell-associated virus, which was released by Dounce-homogenization of the cells. Virus preparation was clarified of cellular debris by centrifugation (4000 × g, 10 min), followed by pelleting of virus by ultracentrifugation (85,000 × g, 1 h, 4°C) through a 20% sorbitol cushion. The supernatant was removed, and the viral pellet was resuspended in DMEM supplemented with 20% NCS and stored at -80°C.

Virus titration. Infectivity of virus stocks was determined according to the tissue culture infectious dose 50% ($TCID_{50}$) method. In brief, stocks were serially diluted, and diluted

virus was used to infect eight wells per dilution in a 96-well plate seeded one day prior

with 3×10^4 HFFT per well. Infection was allowed to proceed for 9 days before IE1

staining as follows. Cells were washed (3×200 µL PBS per well) and fixed in ice-cold

methanol (200 µL/well, 15 min at -20°C). Cells were washed (3×200 µL PBS per well)

and stained with 1:200 mouse anti-IE1 primary antibody (supernatant from IE1 mAb 1B12

hybridoma cells, a generous gift of Thomas Shenk, Princeton University) for 1 h at 37°C.

Cells were washed (3×200 µL PBS per well) and stained with 1:1000 goat anti-mouse

Alexa Fluor 488 secondary antibody (ThermoFisher, Cat # A-11001) for 1 h at 37°C. The

cells were washed (1×200 µL PBS per well) and incubated for 1 min with 1 µg/mL

Hoechst 33342 (ThermoFisher, Cat# H3570) to counterstain nuclei. Virus plaques were

visualized under LED epifluorescence using a Nikon Eclipse Ts2R microscope (Nikon

Instruments, Inc, Melville, NY), and each well was scored positive or negative if at least

one virus plaque was visible. Infectivity in $TCID_{50}$ units was calculated according to the

Spearman-Kärber method, as described previously (18).

Plotting of charged clusters within the UL148 ectodomain. The percentage (charged

residues/total residues) in each 6-residue window was plotted using a Python script and

visualized using Prism 8 software (GraphPad, Inc., San Diego, CA). Eight local maxima

were identified at amino acid positions 47-52, 59-62, 79-83, 133-136, 172-177, 222-225,

223-227, 225-230. Because of their close proximity to each other, the final three clusters

were regarded as a single charged cluster for the purposes of constructing mutants.

Expression vectors encoding HA-tagged UL148 harboring charged-cluster-to-

alanine mutations. pcDNA3.1+ UL148HA was generated as follows. A PCR product

encoding the HA-tagged *UL148* open reading frame was amplified from template plasmid

pEF1α UL148HA (18) using primers UL148_reclone_FWD and UL148_reclone_REV.

PCR product was digested with BamHI/EcoRI and ligated into BamHI/EcoRI-digested

pcDNA3.1+ (Invitrogen) to yield pcDNA3.1+ UL148HA, which was sequence-confirmed

using primers CMV_FWD and BGH_REV.

HA-tagged UL148 was subcloned from pcDNA3.1+ into pSP72 as follows.

pcDNA3.1+ UL148HA was digested with BamHI/EcoRI. The ~1kb fragment was agarose-

purified and ligated into BamHI/EcoRI-digested pSP72. Overlapping primers (Table 1)

were used to amplify the pSP72 UL148HA template and introduce charged-cluster-to-

alanine (CCTA) mutations into the *UL148* open reading frame (ORF). PCR products were

digested with DpnI for 1 h at 37°C to remove template plasmid before transformation and

isolation of carbenicillin-resistant clones, which were confirmed by enzyme digestion and

sequencing using primers SP6_FWD and T7_seq_FWD. These mutated *UL148*

sequences were then transferred back to pcDNA3.1+ by BamHI/EcoRI digestion and

ligation as above.

Expression vectors encoding HA-tagged chimpanzee CMV UL148 and rhesus CMV

Rh159. pcDNA3.1+ Rh159HA was described previously (29). pcDNA3.1+ encoding HA-

tagged chimpanzee CMV UL148 was constructed by Gibson assembly of gBlock

ChCMV_UL148_FRAG with BamHI/EcoRI-digested pcDNA3.1+ (Invitrogen) and

sequence-confirmed using primers CMV_FWD and BGH_REV. The coding sequence

for chimpanzee CMV UL148 (Panine herpesvirus 2 strain Heberling, Genbank/ NCBI

Reference Sequence: NC_003521.1) was codon-optimized by Integrated DNA

Technologies (Coralville, IA), based on *Homo sapiens* codon usage, to facilitate synthesis

as a synthetic dsDNA gBlock.

Inducible expression vectors encoding EGFP fused to UL148 homologs of human,

chimpanzee, and rhesus CMV. Inducible lentiviral vectors pOUPc-UL148-eGFP and

pOUPc-Rh159-eGFP were described previously (30). pOUPc encoding chimpanzee

CMV UL148 fused to eGFP was constructed as follows. Fragment (i) was amplified using

primers Fwd_Ch148_OUPgibs and Rev_Ch148_GFPgibs with pcDNA3.1+ ChCMV

UL148HA as a template. Fragment (ii) was amplified using primers Fwd_GFP_Ch148gibs

and Rev_GFP_allUL148 using pOUPc-UL148-eGFP as a template. Fragments (i) and (ii)

were combined with AgeI/MluI-digested pOUPc in Gibson assembly to yield pOUPc-

Ch148-eGFP, which was sequence-confirmed using primers CMVcrsnull_Fw, Ubc_Rv,

and Ch148_3pr_Fw.

Construction of recombinant viruses. Synthetic double-stranded DNA (gBlocks) and

oligonucleotides were purchased from Integrated DNA Technologies; sequences are

provided in **Table 1**. All mutagenesis procedures was performed in the context of the

infectious BAC clone of HCMV strain TB40/E, TB40-BAC4 (53), as previously described

(17, 18, 29, 52, 54). Briefly, two-step Red "*en passant*" recombination (39, 40) was used

in conjunction with GS1783 *E. coli* (a gift of Greg Smith, Northwestern University)

harboring derivatives of TB40-BAC4. Recombinant BACs were confirmed by Sanger-

sequencing (Genewiz, Inc., South Plainfield, NJ) of modified loci (not shown), and by

BamHI and EcoRI restriction enzyme digestion analysis to exclude spurious

rearrangements (not shown).

Recombinant HCMVs encoding HA-tagged UL148 and S-tagged glycoprotein O.

Recombinant HCMV, strain TB40/E, encoding S-tagged glycoprotein O and HA-tagged

UL148 (TB_148^{HA}_gO^S) was constructed by insertion of a S-tag at the C-terminus of the

UL74 open reading frame, essentially as in (18), but in the context of recombinant

TB_148^{HA} (17). Briefly, plasmid pSP72-*UL74-S-ISceKan* (18) was digested with EcoRV,

and the 1.4 kb band was agarose-purified and recombined into TB_148^{HA}. Kan-resistant

integrate colonies were isolated and resolved of the Kan cassette by L(+)-arabinose

induction of the homing endonuclease ISce-I and the bacteriophage lambda Red

recombinase system. Kan-sensitive clones were sequence-confirmed using primers

TB_UL74_Cterm_seq_FWD and TB_UL74_Cterm_seq_REV.

Recombinant HCMVs encoding CCTA mutations within *UL148*.   CCTA mutations

were introduced into TB_148^{HA}_gO^S as follows. A PCR product containing an I-SceI

restriction site upstream of a kanamycin (Kan) resistance cassette and 40-bp flanks

homologous to the sequence surrounding each *UL148* charged cluster was amplified

using primers indicated in Table 1 and TB_148_ISceKan BAC DNA (17) as the template.

The gel-purified PCR product was electroporated into GS1783 *E. coli* carrying an

infectious BAC clone of TB_148^{HA}_gO^S. After isolating Kan-resistant colonies, the Kan

expression cassette was "scarlessly" resolved by inducing expression of the I-SceI

homing endonuclease and Red recombinase. The final Kan-sensitive

TB_148^{HA}_CCTA_gO^S recombinants were sequence-confirmed using primers

TB_Rh159HA_seq_FWD and TB_Rh159HA_seq_REV.

Antibodies. Antibody dilutions for Western blot included 1:1000 rabbit anti-HA (Bethyl),

1:250 mouse anti-CD58 (Invitrogen #MA5800). For flow cytometry, APC-conjugated

mouse anti-CD58 antibody (Invitrogen #17-0578) and isotype control (Invitrogen #17-

4714) were used at 1:40 dilution. For confocal microscopy, chicken anti-HA (Bethyl) and

rabbit anti-Hrd1 (Cell Signaling Technology) were used at a dilution of 1:200. Goat anti-

chicken Alexa Fluor 647 (Invitrogen) and goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 (Invitrogen)

secondary antibodies were used at 1:1000.

Surface CD58 quantification by flow cytometry. For experiments in transfected cells,

1.2×10^6 A549 cells were electroporated using a Lonza Nucleofector^{TM} 2B device

(program X-001) with 1.5 µg pcDNA3.1+ encoding the indicated protein plus 1 µg

pmaxGFP^{TM} (Amaxa) in Ingenio nucleofection buffer (Mirus, Inc., cat # MIR 50114) .

Electroporated cells were then seeded to a 6-well cluster dish and incubated at 37°C

until 72 h post-transfection. For experiments in infected fibroblasts, 1.0×10^5 cells were

seeded into 6-well cluster dishes and infected at an MOI of 2 TCID$_{50}$/cell with

TB_148$_{HA}$_gO^S or the derived CCTA mutant viruses. The following day, the viral inocula

were removed, and media were replenished with fresh 5% newborn calf serum

(NCS)/DMEM. The cells were incubated at 37°C until 72 h post-infection. Infected cells

were formalin-fixed before the CD58-staining step below.

At time of analysis, cells were detached using a 1:10 dilution of TrypLE™

Express (Gibco #12605) solution. Cells were pelleted (5 min, 300 × g) and resuspended

in FACS buffer [5% NCS in PBS]. Cells were incubated with APC-conjugated anti-CD58

antibody or isotype control for 1 h at 4°C with rotation, then washed three times with

FACS buffer and analyzed by flow cytometry. In transfection experiments, cells were

first gated on GFP to remove any non-transfected cells from the analysis. Median APC

fluorescence values were determined for each condition, and all values were

normalized to the median APC signal of GFP+ cells transfected with empty pcDNA3.1+.

Graphs were generated in Prism 8 for Mac Os (GraphPad Software, Inc. San Diego,

CA).

Analysis of protein solubility. 2×10^5 fibroblasts (HFFT) were infected at an MOI of 1

$TCID_{50}$ per cell with $TB\_148^{HA}\_gO^S$ or the derived CCTA mutants. The following day,

cells were washed once with PBS and replenished with fresh 5% NCS/DMEM. At 72 h

post-infection, cells were prepared for Western blot analysis of detergent-soluble and -

insoluble material as previously described (30). Briefly, cells were washed with PBS and

lysed by direct addition of RIPA buffer [25 mM 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-

piperazineethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) pH 7.5, 400 mM NaCl, 0.1% sodium dodecyl

sulfate (SDS), 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1% NP-40], supplemented with 1× protease

inhibitor cocktail (ApexBio, Inc., Houston, TX, Cat #K1007) and rotated for 1 h at 4°C.

Lysates were centrifuged (21,000 × g, 35 min) to separate soluble and insoluble

material. The supernatant containing soluble material was transferred to a new tube,

and Laemmli buffer was added to 1× final [50 mM Tris (pH 6.8), 2% SDS, 10% glycerol,

0.02% bromophenol blue]. Pellet containing insoluble material was lysed in 1× Laemmli

buffer. Samples were reduced by addition of beta-mercaptoethanol (5% final, v/v) and

boiled at 90˚C for 10 min. Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE (12% polyacrylamide

gel) and transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. Membranes were blotted with indicated

antibodies and visualized by Odysey CLx scanner (Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE).

Plasmid transfection. For Western blot studies, 1×10^6 HEK-293T (293T) cells were

reverse-transfected with 2.5 µg pcDNA3.1+ encoding the indicated proteins, as follows.

TransIT-293 transfection reagent (Mirus Inc., Madison, WI, Cat #2700) was mixed with

plasmid DNA in Opti-MEM (ThermoFisher) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

After 25 min incubation at room temperature, the transfection reagent-DNA complexes

were added to 2 mL 5% FBS/DMEM containing 1×10^6 HEK-293T cells in suspension.

Cells and transfection reagent-DNA complexes were gently mixed and seeded to a 6-

well plate.

For immunofluorescence imaging, 7×10^4 293T cells were reverse-transfected

with 1 µg doxycycline-inducible pOUPc plasmid (29, 30) encoding the indicated protein

as follows. Plasmid DNA was combined with 7.5 µL of 1 mg/mL branched

polyethylenimine (PEI; Sigma #408727) in 160 µL of Opti-MEM and gently mixed. DNA-

PEI complexes were allowed to form at room temperature for 20 min. 1 mL of 5%

FBS/DMEM containing 7×10^4 293T cells was then added to the DNA-PEI solution and

mixed gently before seeding to a 96-well plate. After cells had attached to the well (1 h

post-transfection), doxycycline hyclate stock was added directly to each well to a final

concentration of 100 ng/mL. Cells were incubated at 37°C for 48 h before imaging for

GFP signal on a Nikon Eclipse Ts2R microscope (Nikon Instruments, Inc, Melville, NY).

Confocal microscopy. 7×10^5 fibroblasts (HFFT) were seeded on 12 mm round

coverslips (Azer Scientific, #200121) in a 24-well plate. The following day, cells were

infected at an MOI of 1 $TCID_{50}$ per cell with TB_148^{HA}_gO^S or the indicated

recombinants. At 72 h post-infection, cells were processed for confocal microscopy

essentially as in (30). Briefly, cells were washed once with 1 mL PBS, fixed in 4% (w/v)

paraformaldehyde/PBS for 20 min at room temperature, and permeabilized for 3 min by

0.1% TritonX-100. Coverslips were incubated in 5% (v/v) normal goat serum for 30 min

at room temperature. After washing three times with 1 mL PBS, coverslips were

incubated with 1% Human Fc Block (BD Biosciences, Cat # 564219) for 30 min at room

temperature. Coverslips were incubated with primary antibody for 1 h in a humid 37°C

incubator, washed three times in 1 mL PBS and then incubated in the presence of

secondary antibody (1 h, 37°C humid incubator), followed by three washes in PBS, as

above. Finally, coverslips were mounted onto glass slides in mounting medium [0.01 M

Tris (pH 8.8), 90% glycerol, 0.5% N-propyl gallate] and sealed with nail polish. Cells

were imaged on a Leica TCS SP5 confocal microscope using a Leica 63× oil immersion

objective lens.

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recombinant HCMVs and plasmid constructs, carried out most experiments, and

contributed to writing the manuscript. A.J.D. performed and contributed to the design of

the flow cytometry experiments with infected cells. J.P.K. designed research,

interpreted data, obtained funding, and contributed to writing the manuscript. H.Z.

assisted with confocal microscopy and constructed the recombinant virus

TB_148^{HA}_gO^S.

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B
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MLRLLFTLVLLALHGPSV
NASRDYVHVRLLSYRGDP                 pos        ID
LVFKHTFSGVRRPFTELG              47-52        1
WAACRDWDSMHCTPFWST              59-62        2
DPEQMTDSVRRYSTVSPG              79-83        3
KEVTLQLHGNQTVQPSFL
SFTCRLQLEPVVENVGLY
VAYVVNDGERPQQFFTPQ             133-136       4
VDVVRFALYLETLSRIVE
PLESGRLAVEFDTPDLAL             172-177       5
APDLVSSLFVAGHGETDF
YMNWTLRRSQTHYLEEMA
LQVEILKPRGVRHRAIIH             222-230       6
HPKLQPGVGLWIDFCVYR
YNARLTRGYVRYTLSPKA
RLPAKAEGWLVSLDRFIV
QYLNTLLITMMAAIWARV
LITYLVSRRR
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FIGURE 1. Charged amino acid clusters within the predicted UL148 ectodomain.
(A) Percentage of charged residues (K, R, D, E) within the predicted UL148 ectodomain
identified using an iterative scanning window six amino acid residues in size. Black arrows
designate charged clusters (>40% charged residues). The last three local maxima in
close proximity were treated as a single cluster. (B) UL148 protein sequence. Amino acid
positions (pos) of the identified charged clusters are underlined. Residues in red were
mutated to alanine in the six constructs indicated above using sequential numbering (ID),
starting from the amino-terminus.

FIGURE 2. Expression of HA-tagged UL148 CCTA mutants and UL148 homologs.
Human embryonic kidney 293T cells were transfected with expression plasmids
encoding the indicated HA-tagged proteins. At 48 h post-transfection, cell lysates were
analyzed by Western blot.

FIGURE 3. Analysis of cell surface CD58 levels during expression of UL148 CCTA
mutants and homologs from other primate CMVs. (A) A549 cells were transfected
with plasmids expressing the indicated protein or empty vector (EV). At 72 h post-
transfection, cell surface CD58 levels were analyzed by flow cytometry. Median
fluorescence intensity (MFI) values were normalized to the EV control. (B) Fibroblasts
(HFFT) were infected at an MOI of 2 $TCID_{50}$ per cell with HCMV strain TB40/E
derivatives wildtype for *UL148* (WT), carrying the indicated UL148 CCTA mutations, or
UL148-null (148$_{STOP}$). At 72 h post-infection, cell surface CD58 was quantified by flow
cytometry. (A-B) Data points indicate biological replicates from three independent
experiments. P-values comparing the mean of each condition to wildtype UL148
(UL148, panel A) or wildtype virus (WT, panel B) were obtained by one-way analysis of
variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's correction for multiple comparisons: ns, not significant;
*, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ****, $p < 0.0001$.

FIGURE 4. The propensity of UL148 to accumulate in a detergent-insoluble form
is not required to block CD58 maturation. Fibroblasts (HFFT) were infected at an
MOI of 1 TCID$_{50}$ per cell with wildtype HCMV (WT) or the indicated *UL148* mutant
(CCTA mutants 1-6). At 72 h post-infection, cell lysates were separated by
centrifugation into supernatant (S) containing soluble proteins and pellet (P) containing
insoluble proteins. Supernatant and pellet fractions were analyzed by Western blot for
UL148, CD58, and gB levels.

FIGURE 5. Mutation of five UL148 charged clusters abolishes punctate co-localization of UL148 and ER marker Hrd1. Fibroblasts (HFFT) were infected at an MOI of 1 $TCID_{50}$ per cell with HCMV strain TB40/E wildtype for *UL148*, harboring the indicated *UL148* CCTA mutant, or entirely null for *UL148* (148_{STOP}). At 72 h post-infection, cells were fixed and imaged by confocal microscopy after staining with antibodies specific for HA (UL148[HA], magenta) or ER marker Hrd1 (green). Nuclei were counterstained using Hoechst dye (blue).

Rh159

Ch148

UL148

FIGURE 6. Localization of UL148, Rh159, and Ch148. Human embryonic kidney 293T cells were transfected with doxycycline-inducible vectors encoding the indicated protein fused to a GFP tag. 100 ng/mL doxycycline was added to cells 1 h post-transfection. At 48 h post-transfection, GFP signal was visualized by immunofluorescence microscopy.

823 **FIGURE 7. Summary of activities of CCTA mutants of UL148 and UL148 homologs.**
824 Green squares indicate activity indistinguishable from wild-type HCMV UL148. Red
825 squares indicate total absence of the activity. Yellow squares indicate a partial phenotype.
826 Gray square, not tested.