**Noncanonical P gene mRNA editing in Cedar virus generates a V-like protein that**

**is required for efficient virion production**

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26                                                  **Abstract**

Highly pathogenic Hendra and Nipah viruses encode accessory P gene products (C, V

and W) that antagonize innate immunity and contribute to pathogenicity. Cedar virus

(CedV), an apathogenic bat-borne henipavirus, is presumed to lack P gene mRNA

editing and therefore is unable to express V and W proteins. Here, we identify CedV

peptides originating from a frameshifted P gene open reading frame and demonstrate

a previously unrecognized, noncanonical editing event at a homopolymeric adenine

tract that introduces single-nucleotide A or G insertion. This mRNA editing produces

a V-like protein whose C-terminal domain shares sequence and predicted structural

features with those of the henipavirus V protein and displays cytoplasmic and nuclear

localization. Recombinant CedV mutants defective in mRNA editing or with a

truncated C-terminus were only recoverable by trans-complementation and showed

markedly reduced release of infectious virus in cell culture and attenuated

replication in mice lacking type I interferon receptor. Our data revise the CedV gene

expression models and reveal a noncanonical editing mechanism that supports the

production of a V-like protein critical for efficient infectious virus release. These

results expand the fundamental concepts of paramyxovirus gene expression and

reveal an unexpected, pivotal role for mRNA editing in virus egress, with direct

implications for the evaluation of potentially high-consequence paramyxoviruses.

**Introduction**

Henipaviruses (genus *Henipavirus*, family *Paramyxoviridae*) include the biosafety

level 4 (BSL-4) pathogens Nipah virus (NiV) and Hendra virus (HeV). They are

enveloped, single-stranded, negative-sense RNA viruses whose genomes encode nine

proteins. Three accessory P-gene products (C, V and W) are major pathogenicity

factors. The C protein is translated from an alternative downstream open reading

frame by leaky scanning, whereas the V and W proteins arise from cotranscriptional

mRNA editing that inserts one (in the case of V) or two (in the case of W) guanine

nucleotides in the nascent mRNA. This causes a frameshift and generates these

distinct C-terminal variants of P (reviewed in (Hantabal et al., 2026)).

Cotranscriptional P gene editing is broadly conserved among paramyxoviruses and

was first inferred from C-terminally distinct V proteins in simian virus 5 (Thomas et

al., 1988). V proteins typically contain a conserved cysteine-rich zinc-finger domain,

although truncations without this protein domain have been proposed in some

paramyxoviruses, such as Jeilongvirus. Exceptions to V protein expression have

indeed been reported in human parainfluenza virus type 1 and Cedar virus (CedV)

(Douglas et al., 2021), where the canonical editing motif is absent (Marsh et al.,

2012; Matsuoka et al., 1991).

In NiV and HeV, the proteins C, V and W antagonize innate immune signaling by

interfering with pattern recognition receptor pathways and inhibiting

STAT1/2-mediated interferon responses (Ciancanelli et al., 2009; Rodriguez et al.,

2003; Rodriguez and Horvath, 2013; Sanchez-Aparicio et al., 2018; Shaw et al.,

2004). Additionally, protein W can impair NF-κB signaling through 14-3-3 binding and

nuclear sequestration of p65 (Enchery et al., 2021), and it has been linked to the

modulation of metabolism and apoptosis (Edwards et al., 2020). These immune

evasion strategies are thought to promote sustained replication in

immune-competent respiratory epithelia (Muller et al., 2023).

CedV is a Pteropus bat-associated henipavirus that is considered apathogenic. CedV

was reported to lack the conserved P-gene editing motif (UUUUCCC, genome

template orientation) present in NiV and HeV and to harbor a premature stop codon

in the putative V open reading frame, suggesting an inability to express functional

V. The presumed absence of V and W expression has been proposed to underlie the

non-pathogenic phenotype of CedV (Marsh et al., 2012). Furthermore, the lower

STAT1 binding capacity of CedV P than that of NiV and HeV (Lieu et al., 2015) and

the difference in Ephrin receptor usage between CedV and pathogenic henipaviruses

(Haas et al., 2025; Laing et al., 2019) are considered important for the different

pathogenic potential of CedV.

Despite this, CedV can replicate and disseminate to limited levels in vivo (Chen et

al., 2020; Marsh et al., 2012; Schountz et al., 2019) in the presence of an intact type

I interferon response. Furthermore, CedV circulates in Pteropus bat colonies,

indicating sufficient replication for maintenance in reservoir populations.

Here, we use proteomics, targeted sequencing and reverse genetics to identify a

previously unrecognized CedV P gene product generated by non-canonical mRNA

editing. We show that editing yields a V-like protein that combines the features of

the henipavirus V and W proteins and that disruption of this editing event severely

impairs the production of infectious viruses both in vitro and in vivo. These findings

revise CedV gene annotation and reveal atypical editing mechanisms in henipaviruses

that support CedV replication.

 **Results**

**Identification of V-like peptides in the CedV infection proteome.** Proteomic

analysis of cell lysates from recombinant CedV (rCedV)-infected SK-N-SH cells at 48

hours post-infection (hpi) revealed the expression of all the canonical viral proteins

(N, P, M, F, G, L and C) (Fig. 1A). To detect previously unknown proteins, we

additionally included an in silico translation of all possible ORFs with at least 20

amino acids from the CedV genome during peptide identification. Notably, we found

three additional peptides that mapped to the same alternative reading frame within

the P gene (genomic nt 3308–3517), corresponding to a stretch of 70 amino acids

translated from frame 3 of the P gene (Fig. 1B-E). Two of these peptides showed 44–

48% sequence identity to a consensus sequence derived from the C-terminal domains

of V proteins from NiV and HeV, suggesting the possibility of a V-like protein with

conserved sequence features in CedV (Fig. 1F).

**A noncanonical mRNA editing site generates CedV V-like transcripts.** To test

whether these peptides arise from mRNA editing, we subjected RT-PCR amplicons

from infected human SK-N-SH and HeLa cell lines and bat PATGV cells to

next-generation sequencing (NGS). Bioinformatic analysis revealed a hotspot of

single-nucleotide insertions at genome position 3312 (P-mRNA position 1299). Unlike

canonical paramyxovirus editing, insertions comprising either adenosine or guanosine

nucleotides were detected using both oligo(dT) and negative-sense RT primers across

different cell types at frequencies of 13 to 20% (Fig. 2A, Table S2). The insertion site

comprises a heptameric adenine stretch (TTAAAAAAAGAAA, mRNA orientation) and

is located upstream of the canonical editing sites in NiV and HeV. Cloning and Sanger

sequencing of independent cDNA clones confirmed the insertions and supported

genuine editing rather than sequencing artifacts.

**Editing-dependent expression and localization of a CedV V-like protein.** cDNAs from the P gene with single adenosine or guanosine nucleotide insertions at the identified editing site were transfected into BSR T7/5 cells, leading to the synthesis of lower-molecular-weight V-like proteins (Fig. 2B). The A or G nucleotide insertions at the noncanonical site introduce a frameshift and permit translation of a 69-amino-acid alternative C-terminus that encompasses the proteomics-identified peptides (Fig. 2C). Compared with NiV P and V, the CedV P protein remained predominantly cytoplasmic in transfected cells, whereas the V-like protein localized to both the cytoplasm and the nucleus (Fig. 2D), suggesting that the alternative C-terminus provides additional trafficking determinants and may combine the properties of the NiV V and W proteins.

**Structural and motif predictions reveal hybrid V- and W-like features.** AlphaFold predictions indicated that the CedV V-like protein had a largely disordered architecture with short structured elements and a characteristic two-ß-sheet protrusion in the C-terminal domain (CTD), resembling the NiV V protein CTD (Fig. 3A, Fig. S1). While the ß-sheet structure was highly similar between CedV and NiV, CedV mRNA editing led to the formation of a positively charged stretch of five amino acids that is not present in the NiV V protein (Fig. 3B).

Linear-motif searches using ELM (Kumar et al., 2024) predicted candidate interaction motifs (including a putative 14-3-3 binding motif) and a bipartite nuclear localization signal created by mRNA editing (Fig. 3CD). These features are consistent with nuclear localization and potential interactions with host factors. Notably, a potential binding site for the kinesin light chain (Lig_KLC1_WD_1) was found in the ß-sheets connecting the loops of the CedV V-like and NiV V proteins. However, neither a bipartite NLS nor a 14-3-3 binding motif was found in the NiV V protein. Instead, these features

are part of the NiV W protein, which contains a bipartite NLS at the editing site and

two 14-3-3 binding motifs in its CTD (Fig. 3E).

These data indicated that the CTD of the CedV V-like protein combines the typical

features of both the NiV V protein and the W protein.

**Distinct localization of P- and V-like proteins in CedV-infected cells.** Upon

transfection, the CedV P protein accumulated in viral cytoplasmic inclusion bodies

(IB) in CedV-infected cells, whereas the V-like protein was only marginally enriched

in IBs (Fig. 4AB). Instead, the V-like protein remained largely diffuse in the cytoplasm

and nucleus, indicating different subcellular distributions of P and V-like protein

during infection and supporting a role for the CTD of P in recruitment to IBs. Notably,

V-like protein displayed prominent nuclear localization in both infected (Fig. 4AB)

and noninfected cells (Fig. 4CD).

**CedV V-like protein suppresses type I interferon induction but not interferon**

**signaling.** Given that antagonism of innate immune pathways is a hallmark of

henipavirus V and W proteins, we compared the ability of the CedV V-like protein to

inhibit type I interferon induction and downstream interferon responses with that of

known regulators such as the CedV P and the NiV P, V and W proteins. Upon

stimulation of RIG-I- or TBK1-dependent signaling, expression of the V-like protein

reduced IFN-ß promoter–driven reporter activity. While the antagonistic activity of

the CedV-like protein was significantly lower than that of the NiV V protein after

RIG-I-mediated stimulation, no significant differences were observed after TBK-1-

mediated induction (Fig. 5AB). In contrast, whereas all three tested NiV proteins

potently inhibited IFN-induced signaling from 13-fold to 7-fold, CedV P only modestly

reduced luciferase reporter activity by 3-fold, and the CedV V-like protein did not

significantly suppress the interferon response (Fig. 5C).

**Generation of recombinant, editing-defective CedV.** To validate the newly

identified editing site, we disrupted the adenine heptamer immediately upstream of

the guanine at position 3312 by substituting two of the adenine residues with

guanines. In addition, we introduced synonymous marker mutations in the P open

reading frame, enabling the detection of potential rapid accumulation of mutations

and restoration of a functional editing site following virus rescue (Fig. 6A).

Despite multiple rescue attempts, rCedV ΔEdit-I could not be recovered from the

cDNA plasmid, although all changes were synonymous for protein P. This rescue

failure demonstrates an essential function provided by the V-like protein product

that can be expressed only with a functional editing site. We presumed that this

failure could be overcome by trans-complementation with ectopically expressed V-

like protein.

To complement the editing-defective genome, we generated BSR-T7-StrepV cells

stably expressing an N-terminally Strep-tagged CedV V-like protein. Expression was

confirmed by Western blotting (Fig. 6B). Rescue by trans-complementation on BSR-

T7-StrepV cells was successful, as demonstrated by the transfer of infectious virus

via culture supernatants to noncomplementing BSR-T7/5 cells.

Notably, infection of noncomplementing cells with complemented virus resulted in

N and G protein expression and syncytia formation comparable to those of wild-type

rCedV, indicating that V-like protein expression is not required for viral gene

expression or cell–cell fusion (Fig. 6C). Deep sequencing of the supernatants from

two independent rescue experiments confirmed the presence of the engineered

rCedV ΔEdit-I sequence.

Similarly, rCedV ΔEdit-II (disruption of the A-heptamer only) and rCedV-Stop (a stop

codon in the ORF of the V-like C-terminal domain; Fig. 6A) were also only recovered

in trans-complementing BSR-T7-StrepV cells, and their sequences were also

unchanged, as verified by NGS.

Amplicon sequencing of the P gene mRNA from rCedV ΔEdit-I and rCedV ΔEdit-II

revealed a complete loss of editing in both mutants (Fig. 7A). In contrast, an editing

frequency of 27% in rCedV-Stop confirmed that P gene mRNA editing was maintained

in this virus mutant. These results functionally validate the requirement of the

homopolymeric seven adenosine tract for CedV P gene mRNA editing. Importantly,

the availability of editing-negative mutants without any amino acid changes in the P

protein enabled us to specifically assess how P gene editing and expression of the

corresponding V-like protein contribute to CedV replication.

**The expression of V-like proteins is required for the efficient release of infectious**

**virus particles.** Whereas wild-type rCedV infection spread markedly from day 1 to

day 2 and produced multiple small secondary syncytia, two independently rescued

editing-defective clones (rCedV ΔEdit-Ia and rCedV ΔEdit-Ib) formed almost

exclusively large syncytia (Fig. 7B). This pattern is consistent with reduced

dissemination via cell-free viruses and a shift toward spread by cell–cell fusion.

Despite comparable infections at 22 hpi, as assessed by immunofluorescence (Fig.

7B) and by western blot detection of CedV nucleoprotein N (Fig. 7C), the titers of

infectious virus released into the supernatant were reduced by 505-fold (ΔEdit-Ia)

and 181-fold (ΔEdit-Ib) relative to those of rCedV at 22 hpi (Figure 7D). Although the

titers of both mutants increased by 44 hpi, they remained 39-fold (ΔEdit-Ia) and 57-

fold (ΔEdit-Ib) lower than the wild-type levels, providing evidence that the loss of P

gene editing, and consequently V-like protein expression, impaired the formation

and/or release of infectious virions.

The negative impact of the editing site mutations in rCedV ΔEdit-I was perfectly

confirmed by the rCedV ΔEdit-II mutant lacking synonymous downstream mutations.

The infectious virus titers of rCedV ΔEdit-II decreased by 1793- and 177-fold at 20

and 44 hpi, respectively, at a lower MOI of 0.01 (Fig. 7E). Limitations in rCedV ΔEdit-

II spread and larger syncytia sizes were shown by immunofluorescence imaging (Fig.

S2). Notably, imaging analysis of rCedV Stop revealed smaller syncytia at 22 hpi,

whereas more efficient spread was indicated by multiple infected cell syncytia at 44

hpi. This correlated with infectious virus titers in the cell culture supernatants,

which reached wt rCedV levels at 44 hours post-infection (Fig. 7E). As the high

infectious virus titers could be a result of either full functionality of the remaining

12 V-like amino acids in rCedV stopping or rapid acquisition of mutations that restore

full V-like protein expression, the amplicon NGS sequences used for editing

frequency calculation (Fig. 7A) were further screened for mutations in the V-like

protein coding sequence. Indeed, the TAA stop codon present in rCedV Stop was

mutated to CAA or GAA in 11.6% and 1.7% of the reads, respectively, leading to both

the loss of the premature stop codon and the translation of a complete V-like protein.

Given that wt rCedV comprises an AAA codon at that position, any contamination by

authentic CedV virus or sequences could be excluded. Rapid escape mutation of

rCedV Stop further demonstrating the major impact of V-like protein expression on

CedV replication.

**Attenuated replication of V-like protein-deficient CedV in IFNAR-KO mice.** To assess the in vivo replication of the P gene editing–defective virus (rCedV ΔEdit-I), we used an interferon-α/ß receptor knockout (IFNAR KO) mouse model, which is permissive for CedV infection (Huaman et al., 2024). Mice were infected intraperitoneally with $3 \times 10^5$ TCID$_{50}$ per animal, and viral loads were quantified by measuring CedV N gene RNA levels in selected tissues. At 3 days post-infection (dpi), N-gene RNA levels were reduced by 18- to 68-fold in rCedV ΔEdit-I-infected mice compared with those in rCedV-infected mice when all tested organs were considered. This demonstrated impaired replication of the editing-deficient virus in vivo. Differences between the viruses remained evident at 6 dpi, with 3- to 6-fold lower levels in the lung, kidney and spleen and 40- and 75-fold lower levels in the liver and lymph nodes than in the rCedV (Fig. 8). These results show that CedV P gene editing is necessary for efficient replication in vivo and that less efficient replication is detectable even in the absence of type I interferon signaling.

**Discussion**

Here, we provide on the example of CedV evidence for noncanonical P gene mRNA editing in henipaviruses and identify a noncanonical alternative P gene product that combines features typically attributed to the V and W proteins of highly pathogenic NiV and HeV and other paramyxoviruses. Because this editing product is generated from an alternative P gene editing site and lacks the cysteine-rich region characteristic of canonical paramyxovirus V proteins, we refer to it as a V-like protein. Strikingly, in contrast to most paramyxovirus V proteins, the CedV V-like protein is required for efficient virus rescue and infectious virus production. P gene editing-defective mutants yielded markedly reduced infectious titers, up to ~1800-fold. Together, these data point to a previously unrecognized contribution of a

henipavirus P gene mRNA editing product to late stages of the CedV replication cycle

and establish a mechanistic framework for noncanonical paramyxoviral mRNA

editing.

Canonical paramyxovirus P gene editing is associated with the exclusive insertion of

nontemplated guanosine residues at defined editing sequence motifs (e.g., AAAAGGG

in NiV/HeV, mRNA orientation). In contrast, CedV editing occurs at a different

upstream site (AAAAAAAG; mRNA orientation) and results in site-specific insertion of

a single adenosine or guanosine residue. To our knowledge, this combination of

editing site sequences and adenosine insertion has not yet been described for

paramyxoviruses, expanding the concept of P gene editing beyond the previously

established canonical motifs. Consequently, prevailing models of CedV gene

expression, particularly the widely held notion that CedV lacks P gene mRNA editing,

require revision. Importantly, we demonstrate the existence and functional

relevance of this editing event in both infected cell cultures and a susceptible mouse

model.

The apathogenic phenotype of CedV has been attributed primarily to altered

receptor usage and a reduced capacity to antagonize innate immunity. CedV uses

ephrin B1 and B2 for entry, whereas NiV and HeV preferentially use ephrin B2 and

B3, which are thought to shape tissue tropism and host range (Laing et al., 2019).

CedV has been reported to lack canonical P gene editing and therefore to not express

the classical V and W proteins implicated in host response antagonism (Marsh et al.,

2012). Our findings challenge this concept by demonstrating the expression of an

editing-derived V-like protein. However, this V-like protein lacks a cysteine-rich zinc-

finger domain (ZnFD) broadly conserved in paramyxoviruses (Ramachandran and

Horvath, 2010). Loss of ZnFD could contribute to attenuation, whereas other

conserved V and W protein-associated activities may be retained to support

replication. In this context, V-like protein expression may be particularly important

for time-limited spread in animal models, as previously observed (Schountz et al.,

2019), and for maintenance in its natural Pteropus bat reservoir. CedV mutants

defective in P mRNA editing replicated less efficiently in vivo, supporting the need

for the V-like protein in the infected host.

Previous work has shown that ablation of NiV V protein expression converts highly

pathogenic NiV into a nonlethal virus in vivo (Satterfield et al., 2015). However,

whether the absence of a ZnFD in CedV is functionally equivalent to complete loss

of the V protein in NiV and whether this difference accounts for the interferon

sensitivity and nonlethal phenotype of CedV. It also remains to be determined

whether the contribution of the CedV V-like protein to virus release, described in

this study, reflects a broader, conserved function of V proteins in henipaviruses.

Mechanistically, the CedV editing site differs from conserved paramyxovirus motifs,

which contain U- and C-rich nucleotide stretches on the template and promote

exclusive G insertion via polymerase back-slipping (Kolakofsky, 2016). In CedV, A or

G insertions at the template sequence ($U_7C$) imply a different mode of stuttering.

Multiple A insertions are hallmarks of poly(A) tail formation by negative-strand RNA

virus (NNSV) polymerases through slippage at U-rich transcription stop signals (Ogino

and Green, 2019). One possibility is that adenosine insertion at the CedV U-heptamer

is driven by polymerase slippage at the CedV $U_7C$ signal, similar to Ebola virus

glycoprotein mRNA editing, where adenosine insertion occurs at a $U_7G$ template

sequence (Volchkov et al., 1995). G insertions in the CedV P gene mRNA could be

facilitated by the downstream template C ($U_7C$) and the formation of a G:U wobble

pair after a one-nucleotide backslip. A template AA dinucleotide upstream of the U-

heptamer ($AAU_7C$) could disfavor extended backsliding by creating A:A mismatches,

which are not tolerated at canonical editing sites (Kolakofsky, 2016). This model is

also supported by structural constraints of NNSV polymerases, which form relatively

short RNA:RNA hybrids with templates 7 to 9 bp in length in paramxoviruses

(Hausmann et al., 1999; Peng et al., 2024). The noncanonical $U_7C$ CedV editing site

described here fits well in such a hybrid, which may be a structural prerequisite of

polymerase slippage at this editing site.

Paramyxovirus P proteins are modular, comprising alternating disordered and

ordered regions. Structural work on NiV indicates that the P protein multimerization

domain forms a tetrameric coiled-coil and engages the polymerase in a distinctive

tetrameric arrangement (Yang et al., 2024). In CedV, we found the noncanonical

editing site in a region analogous to the canonical NiV and HeV editing position, just

upstream of the L-interacting domain. The differences in the intracellular

localization in CedV-infected cells and the robust recruitment of P protein to

cytoplasmic inclusion bodies versus the cytoplasmic and nuclear patterns of the V-

like protein are consistent with different viral or host interaction partners.

AlphaFold predictions for CedV V-like and NiV V proteins indicate a conserved C-

terminal domain architecture consisting of antiparallel ß-sheets embedded within

flexible regions and short helices. Such a ß-sheet-containing CTD is broadly

conserved among paramyxovirus V proteins and has been linked to the antagonism

of MDA5-mediated signaling and interaction with DDB1 (Li et al., 2006;

Ramachandran and Horvath, 2010).

Although we did not elucidate the effects of CedV V-like protein on individual innate

immune pathways in detail, our data indicate that CedV V-like protein activity is

antagonistic to type I interferon induction via RIG-I and TBK1-linked signaling. Whether the different C-termini of CedV V-like and P proteins contribute to antagonistic activities remains to be investigated. Global suppression of the interferon response was not pronounced under our experimental conditions, potentially reflecting the lack of the canonical cysteine-rich zinc-finger domain and suggesting that the CedV V-like protein may have diverged toward functions beyond classical interferon escape.

In addition to having protein sequence similarities to those of the NiV and HeV V proteins, the CedV V-like protein presents features reminiscent of those of the NiV W protein. Whereas NiV P and V proteins are predominantly cytoplasmic, W protein is located in the nucleus and modulates host signaling through interactions with 14-3-3 proteins (Edwards et al., 2020; Enchery et al., 2021). In CedV, the V-like protein is localized to both the cytoplasm and the nucleus. Motif analysis predicts a bipartite nuclear localization signal generated within the edited region and candidate linear motifs compatible with 14-3-3 binding in the elongated C-terminus. Together, these observations support a model in which CedV V-like combines a conserved V-type CTD with W-like properties, such as enhanced nuclear targeting and potential 14-3-3 binding. Experimental dissection will be required to test these interactions.

Genetic analysis further revealed the functional relevance of the V-like protein. Editing-defective viruses (rCedV ΔEdit-I and rCedV ΔEdit-II) and a mutant expressing a CTD-truncated V-like protein (rCedV Stop) demonstrate that V-like expression is critical for efficient infectious virus production. This requirement appears to differ from that of NiV, where the V protein can be ablated and the virus remains recoverable without trans-complementation (Satterfield et al., 2015). Whether the V-like protein encodes a genuinely distinct function or whether related functions

have been underappreciated in other henipaviruses remains to be determined. Nevertheless, our data suggest an unanticipated role of the CedV V-like protein in virus assembly and/or release, challenging the prevailing view that P protein variants act solely as immune modulators.

Only a few precedents exist for paramyxovirus P gene products that directly promote assembly or budding. With respect to NiV and Sendai virus, their C proteins facilitate virus release via ESCRT interactions, and the V protein of human parainfluenza virus type 2 counteracts tethering to promote virion release (Park et al., 2016; Sakaguchi et al., 2005; Sugahara et al., 2004). In this context, CedV V-like protein may likewise support efficient assembly or budding. Candidate tryptophan-dependent motifs predicted to interact with kinesin light chain 1 (KLC1) and the δ subunit of the COPI coatomer could contribute to transport or trafficking steps relevant to assembly and direct or indirect potential tethering inhibition.

Together, our findings reveal that the CedV V-like protein cannot be viewed as a canonical nonstructural interferon antagonist. Instead, the data support a model in which an editing-dependent V-like protein contributes directly to productive virion formation while immune-modulatory properties might have been lost. These results have two implications. First, they suggest that P gene products in henipaviruses may be more functionally integrated into assembly and release than previously appreciated, motivating a renewed analysis of V-family proteins across henipaviruses and related paramyxoviruses. Second, the discovery of noncanonical P gene editing in CedV highlights that genome annotation and risk assessment of emerging paramyxoviruses should explicitly consider alternative editing sites capable of generating protein variants in alternative frames, which may influence viral fitness in reservoir hosts and zoonotic potential.

                                             **Materials and Methods**

**Cells.** BSR-T7/5 cells were cultivated as described previously (Buchholz et al., 1999).

HeLa cells were obtained from the Collection of Cell Lines in Veterinary Medicine

(CCLV; FLI Riems) and maintained in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 10% fetal calf

serum (FCS). Human neuroblastoma SK-N-SH cells (ATCC HTB-11, (Biedler et al.,

1973)) were obtained from LGC (UK) and cultured in ZB28 medium (Ham's F12/IMDM,

1:1) supplemented with 10% FCS. The Pteropus giganteus cell line PATGV was

described previously (Gaudino et al., 2020).

**Viruses and full-length cDNA clones.** Recombinant Cedar virus (rCedV) based on the

CedV isolate CG1a genome sequence (GenBank: NC_025351.1) and a red fluorescent

reporter–expressing rCedV have been described previously (Lenhard et al., 2025;

Schrell et al., 2025). The recombinant viruses rCedV ΔEdit-I, rCedV ΔEdit-II and

rCedV-Stop (cDNA clone mutagenesis described below) were rescued in BSR-T7-

dStrepV cells by cotransfection of the full-length CedV cDNA plasmid and support

plasmids, together with pCAGGS-T7Pol encoding a codon-optimized bacteriophage

T7 RNA polymerase (Potratz et al., 2020). Plasmids were transfected at the following

amounts per 3.5 cm well: pCAGGS-CedV-N (1.25 µg), pCAGGS-CedV-P (0.8 µg),

pCAGGS-CedV-L (0.4 µg), full-length CedV cDNA plasmid (3.0 µg) and pCAGGS-T7Pol

(0.5 µg) using Lipofectamine 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Viral genomes of all recombinant viruses were

confirmed by next-generation sequencing (NGS) of virion RNA extracted from culture

supernatants.

Working virus stocks of rCedV were generated by infecting ~80% confluent SK-N-SH

cells in T75 flasks with 1 ml of BSR-T7/5 rescue supernatant or preexisting virus

stocks. Stocks of rCedV ΔEdit-I, rCedV ΔEdit-II and rCedV-Stop were obtained from

infected complementing BSR-T7-dStrepV cell cultures. Viral titers (TCID50) were determined by endpoint dilution titration on BSR-T7/5 and SK-N-SH cells.

**Construction of mutant full-length CedV cDNA clones.** To generate pCedV-ΔEdit-I, 16.6-kb and 3.9-kb fragments were amplified from the CedV full-length cDNA clone using primer pairs 1/2 and 3/4, respectively (Table S1), and assembled by hot fusion cloning (Fu et al., 2014). The adenine heptamer at the noncanonical editing site was disrupted by A-to-G substitutions at CedV genome nucleotide (nt) positions 3307 and 3310. In addition, editing-irrelevant marker substitutions (A-to-G and G-to-A) were introduced at nt 3322 and 3342 to facilitate unambiguous identification of the mutant virus, including in the event of reversion at the editing site during amplification on noncomplementing cells.

pCedV-ΔEdit-II. pCedV-ΔEdit-II, containing A-to-G substitutions at nt 3307 and 3310, was generated from two PCR fragments (1.6 kb and 3.0 kb) amplified with primer pairs 5/6 and 7/8, respectively (Table S1). The two fragments were joined by fusion PCR using the primers 6/8. The resulting 4.6-kb fragment was assembled together with a 16.6-kb XmaI fragment from the CedV cDNA clone to yield pCedV-ΔEdit-II by hot fusion cloning.

pCedV-Stop was generated using a comparable strategy with the 9/10 primer pair.

**Sequence verification and data availability.** All plasmid constructs were verified by whole-plasmid sequencing (Eurofins Genomics, Germany). All the mutant virus stocks were sequence-confirmed by next-generation sequencing (NGS) (Eurofins Genomics, Germany). Viral genome sequences are available at Zenodo (DOI 10.5281/zenodo.18642052).

BSR-T7/5 cells stably expressing CedV Strep-V (BSR-T7-dStrepV) were generated by transfection with pCAGGS-dStrepV-Puro, encoding an N-terminally Strep-tagged CedV V protein and a puromycin resistance cassette. Following puromycin selection, single-cell clones were isolated by limiting dilution in 96-well plates and screened for Strep-V expression by fluorescence microscopy and western blotting using Strep-tag detection.

**MS analysis.** Quadruplicate cultures of SK-N-SH cells were grown to 80–90% confluence and infected with rCedV at an MOI of 1. Mock-treated cells served as controls. Infection was carried out for 60 min at 37°C with 5% $CO_2$. Following incubation, the inoculum was removed, and the cells were maintained in ZB28 medium (FLI biobank) until harvest. At 48 hpi, the cells were detached, transferred into 2 ml tubes and precipitated by centrifugation at 300 × g for 5 min (Fresco 21 [Thermo Scientific]). The cell pellets were resuspended in 200 µl of RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris/HCl (pH 7.5), 1% v/v IGEPAL CA-630, 0.5% v/v sodium deoxycholate, 150 mM NaCl in UP H2O) supplemented with protease inhibitors (1 mM pepstatin A [SERVA Electrophoresis GmbH], 1 mg/ml leupeptin [SERVA Electrophoresis GmbH], 100 mM PMSF [SERVA Electrophoresis GmbH]) and 0.5 M EDTA. The lysates were incubated on ice for 30 min, followed by vortexing and centrifugation at 10.000 × g (Fresco 21 [Thermo Scientific]) for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatants were transferred into new tubes, and glycerol (Carl Roth) was added to a final concentration of 10% (v/v). The protein concentration was determined by a BCA protein assay (Fisher Scientific) and measured on a GloMax Discover Microplate Reader (Promega). For proteomic analysis, 20 µg of total protein per sample was resuspended in 1× elution buffer (1× LDS [Thermo Fisher Scientific] supplemented with 100 mM DTT [Sigma–Aldrich]) and incubated at 70 °C for 10 min at 1400 rpm in a Thermomixer (Eppendorf). The

samples were subsequently processed for mass spectrometry using a previously

described in-gel digestion protocol (Scherer et al., 2020). A total of 400 ng of peptide

per sample was separated on an Aurora Ultimate™ 25×75 C18 UHPLC column

(ionopticks) using a nanoElute HPLC system (Bruker). Separation was conducted with

a 100-min gradient at a constant flow rate of 300 nl*min$^{-1}$ with increasing ACN

concentration from 2% MS-grade ACN/0.1% formic acid (0–2 min) to 17% (2–67 min),

27% (67–88 min), 95% (88–97 min) and 4% (97–100 min). The column was mounted on

a timsTOF HT mass spectrometer (Bruker) operated in standard PASEF data-

dependent acquisition mode with a cycle time of 1.1 sec. Raw data were processed

with MaxQuant (version 2.4.2.0) and searched against the SwissProt (42,338 entries)

and Trembl (54,436 entries) (UP000005640, v20200117) *Homo sapiens* databases and

all CedV proteins (JQ001776.1). To identify potential unknown viral open reading

frames, the nucleotide sequences of all viral proteins were translated into all

possible reading frames using the six-frame translation tool in MaxQuant (version

2.4.2.0), with a minimal AA length of 20. Downstream data analysis was performed

using R-studio (version [2023.06.1]).

**Antibodies, sera and imaging.** Polyclonal serum against CedV N was generated at

the FLI by immunization of rabbits with a purified CedV N antigen from *Spodoptera*

*frugiperda* (Sf9) insect cells infected with a recombinant baculovirus encoding the

CedV N carrying an N-terminal histidine tag. CedV G-specific mouse monoclonal

antibodies were generated at the FLI by immunization of mice with purified CedV G

antigen produced in *Leishmania tarentolae*, as previously described by HeV G

(Fischer et al., 2016). A Strep-tag-specific polyclonal rabbit antibody (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, PA5-119772) diluted in PBS was used at 1:1,000 for immunofluorescence

and 1:2,500 for western blotting. For immunofluorescence microscopy, Alexa Fluor

488– and Alexa Fluor 568–conjugated secondary antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

were used at dilutions of 1:1,000 in PBS. For Western blotting, IRDye 680RD anti-

mouse and IRDye 800CW anti-rabbit secondary antibodies were used (Li-COR

Biosciences, Germany). Nuclear DNA was counterstained with Hoechst 33342 (1 μg

ml−1 in PBS). Fluorescence microscopy images were acquired with a Leica THUNDER

imager DMi8 with 20×/0.40 dry HC PL FLUOTAR L objectives and LAS X software and

with a Leica Stellaris 8 confocal laser scanning microscope with a 63 x/1.40 oil

immersion HCX PL APO objective and LAS AF software (Leica Microsystems,

Germany). Fluorescent Western blots were imaged with an Odyssey CLx infrared

imaging system (Li-COR Biosciences). The images were processed with the Fiji

(ImageJ 1.53t) software package (Schindelin et al., 2012).

**RNA preparation, reverse transcription, PCR and amplicon sequencing.** Total RNA

was isolated from HeLa and SK-N-SH cells at 48 h post infection (hpi) using an RNeasy

Mini Kit (Qiagen, 74104) according to the manufacturer's instructions. First-strand

cDNA synthesis was performed with a RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, K1622) using either oligo(dT) primers or the P gene–

specific negative-sense primer 11 (Table S1).

A 1,278-bp fragment spanning the CedV P gene was amplified from cDNA using

primers 11 and 12 (Table S1) and Phusion Hot Start Flex DNA Polymerase (New

England Biolabs, M0535L). The PCR conditions were as follows: 94°C for 2 min; 29

cycles of 94°C for 15 s, 58°C for 15 s and 72°C for 1 min; 72°C for 10 min; and a hold

at 4°C. Amplicons were purified using the QIAquick Nucleotide Removal Kit (Qiagen,

28306) and subjected to Illumina-based amplicon sequencing (Eurofins Genomics).

For PATGV cells, total RNA was extracted using the NucleoSpin RNA Mini kit

(Macherey-Nagel). The P gene amplicon was generated as described above with P-

specific primers and the SuperScript IV One-Step RT–PCR System (Thermo Fisher
Scientific).

Sequencing data were processed in Geneious Prime using paired-end read assembly,
trimming with BBDuk, read normalization (target coverage 40; minimum depth 6)
and mapping to the CedV P coding sequence. Nucleotide insertions were called by
SNP/variant analysis using a 3% frequency threshold and a minimum coverage of 10
reads.

**Cloning of P gene sequences into expression plasmids.** A 2.2-kb fragment
encompassing the CedV P gene coding region was amplified from the total RNA of
rCedV-infected SK-N-SH cells by reverse transcription and PCR amplification using
negative-sense primer 13, followed by PCR with primer 13/14 (Table S1). The
amplicon was inserted into a pCAGGS-based mammalian expression vector (Niwa et
al., 1991) carrying an N-terminal double Strep-tag (dStrep) by assembly with the 4.8-
kb NotI/XhoI backbone fragment. Plasmids encoding the unedited P open reading
frame were designated pCAGGS-dStrepCedV-P. Plasmids containing a single-
nucleotide insertion at the P gene editing site were designated pCAGGS-dStrepCedV-
V. To generate pCAGGS-dStrepV-Puro, a pCAGGS derivative containing an EMCV
internal ribosome entry site (IRES) and a puromycin resistance cassette downstream
of the EcoRI site was linearized with EcoRI. A 1.6-kb insert was amplified from
pCAGGS-dStrepCedV-V using the primers 15/16 and assembled into the linearized
backbone by hot fusion cloning.

**Protein structure analysis.** Protein structure predictions were generated with
ColabFold version 1.5.5 (Jumper et al., 2021; Mirdita et al., 2022) using its default
parameters and the integrated Amber module for relaxation and energy minimization
(Eastman et al., 2017). A total of five models per protein were predicted and ranked

according to their mean pLDDT. Structural evaluation and visualization were

performed with ChimeraX (Pettersen et al., 2021).

**IFNβ promoter and interferon-stimulated response element (ISRE) luciferase**

**reporter assays.** For human IFNβ promoter induction assays, HEK293T cells were

transfected with an IFN-β promoter firefly luciferase reporter plasmid (Promega,

USA) together with other plasmids as indicated in the corresponding experiments

using PEI 25 kDa transfection reagent (Polyplus, France). At 24 h post transfection,

the cell lysates were mixed with the substrate D-luciferin. For the ISRE luciferase

assay, HEK293T cells were transfected with the ISRE reporter plasmid (#90402;

Addgene, USA) as indicated. At 24 h post transfection, the cells were treated with

universal IFN-I (800 U/ml) overnight, and the cell lysates were mixed with the

substrate D-luciferin. Luminescence was measured with a TECAN Spark® 3

microplate reader (Tecan Group Ltd., Switzerland).

**Infection of mice.** All work involving live CedV infections was performed under BSL-

2 conditions at PBES, Lyon, France. IFNAR-/- mice were inoculated intraperitoneally

(IP) with $3.10^5$ TCID50 of rCedV or rCedV-DelEdit (volume inoculated of 200 µl) under

inhalational anesthesia with isoflurane (isoflurane: ISOFLUTEK 1000 mg/g;

Laboratorios Karizoo S.A.; anesthesia station: MiniHUB-V3; TEM SEGA, France). After

CedV IP infection, the mice were monitored daily, and selected organs (lungs,

kidneys, spleen, livers and mesenteric lymph nodes) were collected at the

designated time points (3 and 6 days post-infection). The animal groups were as

follows: rCedV-wt_d3: 4 animals; rCedV-wt_d6: 4 animals; rCedV-DelEdit_d3: 4

animals; and rCedV-DelEdit_d6: 5 animals.

**Sample collection and** RT-qPCR. The mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation

under isoflurane. The lungs, spleen, liver, kidneys and mesenteric lymph nodes were

harvested. The tissues were snap-frozen at −80°C for molecular analyses. For RNA

extraction, ≤30 mg of tissue was homogenized in RA1 buffer (NucleoSpin RNA,

Macherey-Nagel) containing β-mercaptoethanol using a MagNA Lyser and

centrifuged, and the supernatant was mixed with 70% ethanol before column-based

purification according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was used directly for

viral detection or DNase treatment. RT-qPCR was performed using the Luna Universal

One-Step RT-qPCR Kit on a StepOnePlus™ system. Viral loads are expressed as

copies/mg of tissue. CedV-N was detected using the specific primers 17 and 18.

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## Author contributions

Stefan Finke, Falk Butter, Branka Horvat and Olivier Reynard designed the research.

Research was performed by Henriette Schwotzer, Patricia Schupp, Ilona Ronco, and

Gang Pei. Dmitry Ushakov, Henriette Schwotzer, Patricia Schupp, and Falk Butter

performed the data analysis. Sandra Diederich generated CedV-specific antibodies.

Stefan Finke, Henriette Schwotzer and Patricia Schupp wrote the manuscript. All the

authors were involved in proofreading and finalizing the manuscript.

## Competing Interests

754   The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## Data and Materials availability

756   The authors declare that the data are available in the publication, supplementary

757   materials or at the public depository Zenodo (DOI 10.5281/zenodo.18642052).

                                    **Figure Legends**

**Figure 1: Identification of alternative P gene reading frame peptides in CedV-**

**infected cells and their similarity to those of the henipavirus V protein. (A)**

Volcano plot showing upregulated proteins in CedV-infected SK-N-SH cells, as

determined by label-free quantitative proteomics (n = 4). Enriched proteins (p value

< 0.05 (Welch's t test) and fold change (FC) > 2) are marked in blue. Canonical CedV

proteins are highlighted in orange, and the CedV P gene alternative frame is

highlighted in red. **(B-D)** Representative MS/MS spectra of the three detected

peptides with b and y ions. **(E)**. Schematic drawing of the CedV genome with

annotated ORFs and the nucleotide sequence around amino acid position 408 of the

P gene with the editing site of NiV and HeV. The localization of the three identified

peptides within the 69-amino acid stretch of ORF frame 3 is illustrated. **(F)** Consensus

sequence generated of the C-terminal domains of the HeV and NiV V proteins on the

basis of 57 gene bank sequences (list of sequences at DOI 10.5281/zenodo.18642052).

Peptides p1 and p3 mapped to the consensus sequence, whereas p2 did not show

similarity to the consensus sequence. Positions with amino acid identity between the

consensus sequence and CedV peptide are marked by bold letters.

**Figure 2: Positions of CedV mRNA editing, expression and localization of V-like**

**proteins. (A)** Proportion of editing events detected in P gene mRNA amplified by

either negative (-) sense or oligo-dT reverse transcription (RT) primers from isolated

total RNA from CedV-infected SK-N-SH, HeLa, and PATGV cells. Frequencies of A and

G insertions [1 =100%] are indicated by green and blue, respectively. **(B)** Western

blot of Strep-tagged P variants in BSR-T7/5 cells expressed from the cloned and

mutated P gene cDNA sequences at 20 h post transfection. **(C)** Position 3312

insertions (red letters) result in a frameshift and expression of a 69-aa alternative V-

like CTD (C-terminal domain, blue letters) comprising the identified peptides 1, 2

and 3. **(D)** Intracellular localization of expressed Strep-tagged CedV and NiV P protein

variants expressed from their cDNA sequences in BSR-T7/5 cells at 20 h post

transfection. Ctrl: BSR-T7/5 cells transfected with the empty vector. The nuclei are

marked by a white star.

**Figure 3: Structural predictions of the CedV V-like and NiV V proteins. (A)**

Alphafold prediction of the CedV V-like and NiV-V structures with CTDs labeled in

orange and magenta, respectively. **(B)** Ribbon diagrams of CedV V-like and NiV V CTD

overlays. RMSD: Root mean square deviation. Right: space filling representation of

the CTDs with an applied electrostatic potential surface. Blue: positive charge, red:

negative charge. The ß-sheets connecting loops are indicated. **(C)** Localization of the

linear interaction motif obtained from ELM predictions for the CedV V-like and NiV V

proteins. **(D)** Predicted bipartite nuclear localization signal (NLS) in the CedV V-like

protein, which consists of positively charged amino acids upstream of the editing site

and its CTD. **(E)** A positively charged bipartite NLS in the NiV W protein is generated

by editing. Two predicted interaction motifs for binding of 14-3-3 proteins are noted

for the NiV W protein CTD.

**Figure 4: Immunofluorescence detection of Strep-tagged CedV P and V-like**

**proteins in rCedV-infected and noninfected cells. (A, B)** Two hours after infection

(MOI = 0.1), BSR-T7/5 cells were transfected with plasmids encoding N-terminally

Strep-tagged CedV P or V-like proteins. Immunofluorescence staining was performed

16 h posttransfection with antibodies specific for the Streptag (green) and CedV N

proteins (magenta). **(C, D)** Plasmid-derived CedV P and V-like protein localization in

noninfected cells. Blue: Hoechst 33324 stain.

**Figure 5: CedV V-like protein inhibits IFN induction but fails to inhibit the**

**interferon response.** Inhibition of IFN-ß promoter induction in HEK293T cells

expressing the indicated NiV and CedV P gene products together with human RIG-I

**(A)** and TBK1 **(B)** at 24 h post transfection. **(C)** Interferon-stimulated response

element (ISRE) activation was measured in HEK293T cells expressing the indicated

NiV and CedV P gene products upon universal IFN-I stimulation for 16–24 h. Data are

presented as the mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way

ANOVA, followed by the Dunnett multiple comparison test. P values are indicated as

ns ($p > 0.05$), * ($p \leq 0.05$), and ** ($p \leq 0.01$). *** ($p \leq 0.001$) and **** ($p \leq 0.0001$). Each

dot represents one independent experiment.

**Figure 6: Rescue of mRNA editing-defective rCedV ΔEdit in cells complementing**

**V-like protein. (A)** Disruption of the heptameric adenine stretch of the CedV editing

site, as indicated by blue lowercase letters. With respect to rCedV-ΔEdit-I,

downstream guanine and adenine stretches were altered by synonymous mutations

in the P protein. For rCedV ΔEdit-II, only the homopolymeric adenine tract of the

editing site was modified. For rCedV-Stop, generation of a stop codon in the V-like

ORF at the marked position in blue resulted in a truncated V-like protein with only

12 amino acids C-terminally of the editing site. **(B)** Western blot detection of the

Strep-tagged CedV V-like protein in expression plasmid-transfected BSR-T7/5 cells

and in the cell line stably expressing the V-like protein BSR-T7-StrepV. *: presumably

truncated V-like protein. **(C)** Infection of noncomplementing BSR-T7/5 cells with

rCedV ΔEdit-I after virus rescue in V-like complementing BSR-T7-StrepV cells and

rCedV at 22 hpi (magenta: N protein, green: G protein, blue: Hoechst 33324 stain).

**Figure 7: CedV P mRNA editing is required for efficient release of infectious**

**viruses. (A)** Frequencies of adenosine and guanosine at editing nucleotide position

3312 for rCedV, rCedV ∆Edit-I, rCedV ∆Edit-II, and rCedV Stop. Frequencies of A and

G insertions [1 =100%] are indicated by green and blue, respectively **(B)** Detection of

rCedV ∆Edit-I and rCedV in BSR-T7/5 cells at 22 and 44 hpi by immunofluorescence

with two independently rescued rCedV ∆Edit-I (Ia and Ib) viruses (green: G, blue:

Hoechst 33324 stain). **(C)** Western blot detection of the CedV N protein (magenta)

to confirm comparable infection and virus protein expression after infection at an

MOI of 0.1. **(D)** Infectious virus titers in the supernatants of infected cells at 22 and

44 hpi. The titers of rCedV were set to 100% for each experimental replicate (n=3).

**(E)** Infectious virus titers in the supernatants of rCedV , rCedV ∆Edit-II- and rCedV

Stop (MOI 0.01)-infected cells at 20 and 44 hpi. The titers of rCedV were set to 100%

for each experimental replicate (n=3) **(F)** Frequencies of the mutations in the

inserted stop codon of the rCedV Stop at 20 h post transfection. The data (in D–F)

are presented as the mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using one-way

ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's multiple comparisons test. Statistical significance is

indicated as **** ($p < 0.0001$). Each dot indicates one independent experiment.

**Figure 8. Attenuated replication of V-like-deficient CedV in IFNAR-KO mice.** CedV

N gene RNA levels in different organs after intraperitoneal infection at $3 \times 10^5$ TCID$_{50}$

per mouse. The data are presented as the mean ± SD. Statistical analyses were

performed using GraphPad Prism. Differences between groups were analyzed using

the Mann–Whitney U test. Statistical significance is indicated as * ($p < 0.05$); ns = not

significant ($p \geq 0.05$). Each group consisted of 4–5 animals.

**Fig.1**

861     **Fig.4**

**Fig.6**

**A**

| N | P | M | F | G | L |

```
...AAAAAAAGAAAGGAAGGGCTAAAGGCCGCAATGCAAAAGACAAAAGA...
```
frame1 (P) .. K   K   R   K   E   G   L   K   A   A   M   Q   K   T   K   E ..
frame3 (V-like)  .. K   K   G   R   A   K   G   R   N   A   K   D   I   V ..

**ΔEdit-I**
```
...AAgAAgAGAAAGGAAGGaCTAAAGGCCGCAATGCAAAAGACAAAgGA...
```
frame1 (P) .. K   K   R   K   E   G   L   K   A   A   M   Q   K   T   K   E ..
~~frame3 (V-like)~~

**ΔEdit-II**
```
...AAgAAgAGAAAGGAAGGACTAAAGGCCGCAATGCAAAAGACAAAAGA...
```
frame1 (P) .. K   K   R   K   E   G   L   K   A   A   M   Q   K   T   K   E ..
~~frame3 (V-like)~~

**Stop**
```
...AAAAAAAGAAAGGAAGGGCTAAAGGCCGCAATGCAAAAGACtAAAGA...
```
frame1 (P) ... K   K   R   K   E   G   L   K   A   A   M   Q   K   T   K   E ..
frame3 (V-like)  .. K   K   G   R   A   K   G   R   N   A   K   D   * 

**B**

cell control
transfected cell line
stable cell line

125 —
90 —
70 —                    ← V-like
50 —                    ← *
                        ← ß-actin
38 —
30 —
25 —

kDa

**C**

rCedV ΔEdit-I

rCedV

N protein
G protein
100 µm

**Fig.7**

868    **Fig.8**

869