

MOLECULAR DISSECTION OF REOVIRUS OUTER CAPSID DIGESTION DURING ENTRY

by

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A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of

The University of Manitoba

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of Medical Microbiology and Infectious Diseases

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This Master's thesis would not be possible without the immeasurable support and guidance of my supervisor, Dr. Kevin M. Coombs. I will never forget the kindly way that he received me to work in his laboratory, the patience he had during my learning experience and his affection for virology that motivates each and every member in his group. He is an inspiration as a scientist, an outstanding teacher, and a mentor that you can only wish for. I deeply thank and express my eternal gratitude to Dr. Coombs.

In recognition to all help and support I would like to thank all the present and former members of Dr. Coombs' laboratory: Kolawole Opanubi, Wanhong Xu, Lou Wang, Alicia Berard, Anh Tran, Mark Lebar, Niaz Rahim and Abdullah Awadh. Their friendship was fundamental to make this work possible and will be always remembered. I am thankful to Ita Hadžisejdić and appreciate all the contributions she provided to my research. Also, I would like to express my humble gratitude to the guidance of Dr. John Wilkins and all members of the MCPSB, especially Patricia Sauder and Namita Kanwar for making themselves available at anytime in the lab and mainly during the antibody production and fluorescence techniques.

I give a warm thanks to my committee members, Dr. Keith Fowke and Dr. Jude Uzonna who spent their time, shared their expertise and assisted me for the conclusion of this thesis. I strongly appreciate the vast and friendly help received from Dr. Fowke and his group. I deeply thank Jennifer Juno, Catherine Card and Steve Wayne for the uninterrupted support with the flow cytometry instrument and data acquisition.

Last but not least I would like to express my deep gratitude to my parents José Gervásio Bernardes and Sirlei Pontin for always encouraging and providing me the best education they could, for raising me with good principles and for showing me that determination is the best tool we have in life. I am grateful to all positive energy sent from my siblings, family and from my adorable "aunt Mê" who always believed and prayed for me. To finish I would like to give a warm thanks to the patience and lovely support received from my husband Fernando Luciano during my graduation. He is a blessing to my life. "Holdings hands we arrived, holding hands we leave".

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

14SO ₄	sodium tetradecyl sulphate
AF405	Alexa Fluor 405
AF408	Alexa Fluor 488
BSA	bovine serum albumin
CHT	α -chymotrypsin
CNS	central nervous system
CPE	cytopathic effect
cryoEM	cryo-microscopy
D-buffer	dialysis buffer
DAPI	4'6-diamidino-2-phenylindole
DOC	sodium desoxycholate
dsRNA	double-stranded RNA
E-64	cysteine-protease inhibitor
ECL	enhanced chemiluminescence system
EM	electron microscopy
ESB	electrophoresis sample buffer
FCM	flow cytometry
FCS	fetal calf serum
FITC	fluorescein isothiocyanate
FSC	forward scatter
HO buffer	homogenization buffer
HSR	hypersensitive region
ISVP	infectious (or intermediate) subviral particles
JAM	junction adhesion molecule
mAb	monoclonal antibody
MALDI-TOF	matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time of light
MEM	minimal essential medium
MOI	multiplicity of infection

mRNA	messenger RNA
MRV	mammalian reovirus
M β CD	methyl- β -cyclodextrin
NH ₄ Cl	ammonium chloride
NTPase	nucleoside triphosphatase
NTR	non-translated region
ORF	open reading frame
PBS	phosphate buffered saline
pen-strep	penicillin-streptomycin
PFU	plaque forming units
PKR	protein kinases
PMSF	phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride
PVDF	polyvinylidene fluoride
RdRp	RNA-dependent RNA polymerase
RNA	ribonucleic acid
SDS-PAGE	sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
SSC	side scatter
T1L	reovirus serotype 1 Lang
T2J	reovirus serotype 2 Jones
T3D	reovirus serotype 3 Dearing

ABSTRACT

Reovirus is the prototypic member of the family *Reoviridae* and well known as a respiratory and enteric virus that consists of 10 segments of double stranded RNA. Eight structural proteins are organized into two concentric capsids that surround the viral genome, where three of them ($\mu 1$, $\sigma 1$ and $\sigma 3$) are found in the outermost capsid layer and are responsible for events leading to cell entry. After interaction of $\sigma 1$ with the host cell, virus is internalized by clathrin-mediated endocytosis. The acidic environment found within the endosome causes conformational changes in the viral proteins which eventually lead to generation of an infectious (or intermediate) subviral particle named “ISVP”. The ISVP may also be formed extracellularly by proteases; consequently, susceptible host cells can be infected not only with intact viruses, but also with ISVPs. The ISVP differ from intact virus in that $\sigma 3$ is completely removed and $\mu 1$ is cleaved into 2 smaller peptides (δ and ϕ). In addition, infectious entry of viruses, but not of ISVPs, is blocked by various inhibitors, including cysteine protease inhibitor E-64, acidification inhibitors such as ammonium chloride and chloroquine, and clathrin- or caveolae-mediated endocytosis inhibitors like chlorpromazine and methyl- β -cyclodextrin. Cleavage of reovirus outer capsid protein $\sigma 3$ has been shown to be essential for virus internalization, whereas cleavage of its associated $\mu 1$ protein is needless when generating ISVP-like particles. The hypothesis presented here that there is a threshold of $\sigma 3$ digestion required to allow the particle to bypass entry blockers has motivated this study, and the correlation of the reovirus population with the virus infectiousness was essential for this thesis conclusion. Results demonstrated that cleavage of $\sigma 3$ is a multistep process

which is differently processed within the same population. By combining protease and detergent to the digestion of virions, data from this work showed distinct particles generated along the transition pathway. Particles digested for less than 7 minutes contained significant amounts of non-cleaved $\sigma 3$ and, therefore, were not able to bypass entry blockers. Particles digested for more than 7 minutes contained approximately 25% of remaining $\sigma 3$; however, infectivity was not inhibited by any chosen inhibitor. Until now, studies involving flow cytometry and specific antibodies to discriminate the reovirus population have not been applied to the family *Reoviridae*. When these tools were applied to this study they (1) provided a novel information about the reovirus population, (2) suggested that between virus and ISVP there is a gradual yet heterogeneous proteolysis of particles, and (3) demonstrated that infectiousness of reovirus particles may rely on ISVP only, and not on a group of particles as first thought. These findings mean that an *in vitro* infection of reoviruses may be accompanied by the presence of different particles, which are proteolytically processed during the transition pathway to turn into a more infectious unit, called ISVP and proposed here as the determinant particle for reovirus penetration into cell. The approaches taken for this thesis work can be extended for studies of reovirus replication and pathogenesis. Moreover, it may help to shed some light on the development of safe and effective oncolytic agents.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Mammalian reovirus

The mammalian reoviruses (also called reovirus or MRV) are the prototypic members of the *Orthoreovirus* genus from the family *Reoviridae* (Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). The family currently consists of 12 genera, two of which infect vertebrates only and others that infect vertebrates, invertebrates and plants (Kobayashi et al, 2006; Schiff et al, 2007; Lal et al, 2009). The family includes the highly contagious and relatively resistant rotavirus, an important agent that causes 20 – 40% of child hospitalizations due to gastroenteritis worldwide (Rivest et al, 2004). Unlike the medically significant rotavirus, reovirus is relatively non-pathogenic in humans (Norman & Lee, 2000). It infects virtually every child in the first few years of life but the symptoms of its infection are usually very mild (Parashar et al, 1998; Stoeckel & Hay, 2006). Indeed, the acronym reovirus was coined by Sabin in 1959 to describe a virus that can be isolated from the respiratory and enteric tracts, but due to its lack in pathogenicity it was considered, hence, an orphan virus (Sabin, 1959; Fields, 1985; Norman & Lee, 2000; Stoeckel & Hay, 2006). Although reovirus may be harmful to young children and neonates, more than half of healthy adults aged 20-30 years who have been exposed to this virus are seropositive (Selb & Weber, 1994; Norman & Lee, 2000). Currently, studies on reovirus are getting even more attention, not only for “basic” academic, but also on the medical area, where reovirus has been used as a potential agent for the treatment of cancer. Despite the fact that “normal” and “healthy” cells are more resistant to reovirus, the virus has been shown to successfully replicate in numerous transformed cells (Strong et al,

1998; Alain et al, 2002), exploiting the *ras* pathway and thus; leading to the cancer cell death (Hashiro et al, 1977; Tyler et al, 2001; Norman et al, 2004; Lal et al, 2009). During the past few years, several authors have described MRV as a broad infectious agent and a valuable tool to illustrate the cellular susceptibility to viruses (Morin et al, 1996; Tyler et al, 2001; Norman et al, 2004; Coombs, 2006; Kobayashi et al, 2006; Schiff et al, 2007). For instance, much of what is currently known about reovirus came from detailed studies involving viral reassortants, temperature-sensitive mutants, recoating of subviral particles, electron cryo-microscopy (cryoEM) and X-ray crystallography (Yin et al, 1996; Baker et al, 1999; Hazelton & Coombs, 1999; Jané-Valbuena et al, 1999; Liemann et al, 2002; Mendez et al, 2003; Coombs, 2006; Dryden et al, 2008). Considering structural details of individual proteins is fundamental when studying viral particles. Hence, delineating the precise requirements for events that positively or negatively affect the particle infectivity and its morphogenesis might be a future key in the development of new antiviral drugs and more specific oncolytic agents (Hermann & Coombs, 2004; Aghi & Martuza, 2005; Coombs, 2006; Lal et al, 2009).

1.2. Reovirus structure

The *Reoviridae* family is comprised of non-enveloped particles (60 to 85 nm in diameter) consisting of segmented double-stranded (ds) RNA arranged inside a multi-layer icosahedral shell (Van Regenmortel & Fauquet, 2000; Tyler et al, 2001; Schiff et al, 2007). Reovirus genome is composed of 10 gene segments which are enclosed by two protein shells; termed inner capsid (or core) and outer capsid (Figure 1) (Joklik, 1981; Jiang & Coombs, 2005; Kobayashi et al, 2007). Five structural proteins

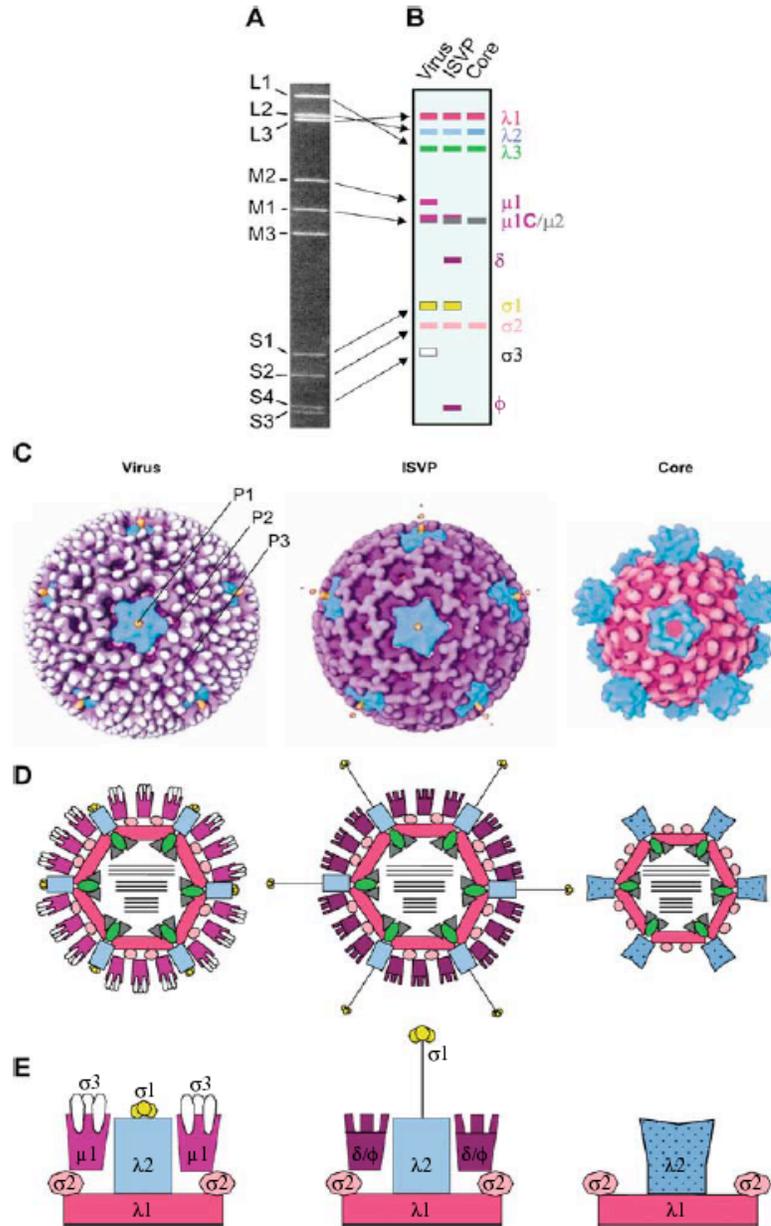


Figure 1. Mammalian reovirus type 1 Lang genome, protein locations and structure.
A. Genome representation of MRV T1L in 10% SDS-PAGE containing all ten gene segments (L, large; M, medium; S, small genes) which encode the proteins highlighted in B (arrows). **B.** Protein profiles of virus, ISVP and core in a typical SDS-PAGE; note the presence of all eight structural proteins in virus, the absence of $\sigma 3$ and cleavage of $\mu 1$ (into δ and ϕ) in ISVP, and the further absence of $\sigma 1$ in core particle. **C.** CryoEM illustration of virus, ISVP and core. Images were colour coded to facilitate comparison of colors in B, D and E and examples of solvent channels P1, P2 and P3 are indicated. **D-E.** Detailed exemplification of each reoviral particle showed in C; note the conversion and/or the removal of proteins from one particle to the other. *Thick solid lines* in D indicate each gene segment described in A. Modified from (Coombs, 2006). Permission kindly granted from © Springer Science + Business Media on January 7, 2011.

(λ_1 , λ_2 , λ_3 , μ_2 , and σ_2) organize the inner capsid, which is an active multienzyme complex that includes the viral genome and all the components required for transcription, methylation, and capping of its progeny messenger RNA (Coombs, 1998; Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). In addition to the core, the outer capsid is composed of three extra proteins (μ_1 , σ_1 , and σ_3), which in turn complete the eight structural proteins necessary to form a full reovirus particle (Figure 1) (Dryden et al, 1993). Results from electron microscopy and SDS-PAGE have indicated that each structural protein is encoded by its own gene segment. These are divided according to their size as large (L1, L2, L3), medium (M1, M2, M3) and small (S1, S2, S3, S4) segments (Schiff et al, 2007). The three large segments correspond to about 3.8 – 3.9 kilobase pairs (kbp), the three medium to about 2.2 – 2.3 kbp, and the four small segments to about 1.2 – 1.5 kbp, all gather in a total genome of 23.6 kbp (Shatkin et al, 1968; Mustoe et al, 1978; Coombs, 2006). The number-based scheme applied to describe the segments within each gene class (i.e. L1-L3) has been related to their migration in the Tris/acetate-buffered gel system, which differ depending on the virus strain (Schiff et al, 2007). Since first isolation in the 1950s, three serotypes of reovirus have been classified based on neutralization and hemagglutination-inhibition tests (Ramos-Alvarez & Sabin, 1958; Sabin, 1959; Rosen, 1962; Lerner et al, 1963; Nibert et al, 1990; Norman & Lee, 2000). An isolate from a healthy child is the prototype strain for reovirus type 1, commonly described as reovirus type 1 Lang (T1L). Isolates from children with diarrhea are the prototype strains for reovirus types 2 and 3, respectively known as type 2 Jones (T2J) and type 3 Dearing (T3D) (Sabin, 1959; Stanley, 1967; Schiff et al, 2007). The major difference among the three reovirus strains has been genetically related to the S1 gene, which encodes the viral

attachment protein $\sigma 1$ (Barton et al, 2001a; Clark et al, 2006). Each reovirus genome segment consists of a small 5' non-translated region (NTR), an open reading frame (ORF), a 3' NTR; and all of which are of different lengths (Coombs, 2006). Conserved nucleotide regions have been described at the extreme 5' end (GCUA) and at the extreme 3' end (UCAUC) of all plus sense strands of reovirus genome. Additionally, regions located near the segment ends and which extend to the protein-coding regions, are usually more conserved than those located in the internal sequence region (Schiff et al, 2007).

1.3. Inner shell

The core (i.e. the inner shell or inner capsid) is the inner-most complex of proteins found in a reovirus particle. It features icosahedral symmetry and has a diameter of about 52 nm, not counting the extra 5.5 nm extension of $\lambda 2$ proteins (i.e. core spike “turrets”) (Dryden et al, 1993; Coombs, 2006). As briefly described, the reovirus core contains five of the total eight structural proteins present in a virion (Figure 1) (Reinisch et al, 2000). Internally, core is composed of transcriptase complexes enclosed by 60 dimers of a 142 kDa protein, $\lambda 1$ (Harrison et al, 1999; Schiff et al, 2007). Externally, it is connected by turrets of 12 pentamers of $\lambda 2$, a 144 kDa protein; and decorated with nodules of 150 monomers of $\sigma 2$, a 47 kDa protein (Wiener et al, 1989; Reinisch et al, 2000; Coombs, 2006; Schiff et al, 2007). The remaining two structural proteins - $\lambda 3$ and $\mu 2$ - are respectively, an internal 142 kDa protein (12 copies) that is considered the virion RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRp); and an enigmatic 83 kDa protein (~24 copies), which has an influence on nucleoside triphosphatase (NTPase) and on viral transcription, perhaps, through interactions with $\lambda 1$ and $\lambda 3$ RdRp (Yin et al, 1996; Dryden et al, 1998;

Zhang et al, 2003). Several studies have proposed that $\lambda 1$ protein is a zinc metalloprotein that not only has ATPase activity, but also exhibits a non-specific affinity for single-stranded or double-stranded RNAs (Bisaillon & Lemay, 1997; Bisaillon et al, 1997; Lemay & Danis, 1994). Despite that, the specific role of both $\lambda 1$ and $\mu 2$ proteins in the viral mRNA synthesis is not as thoroughly defined as the role of $\lambda 2$ protein. The turrets are believed to serve as conduits through which nascent transcripts of mRNAs are extruded from the cores (Mendez et al, 2008). Moreover, $\lambda 2$ manifests methyltransferase and guanylyltransferase activities; thus, is required for capping of mRNAs (Dryden et al, 1993; Coombs, 2006). Both $\sigma 2$ and $\lambda 2$ reside at radial positions, atop the $\lambda 1$ shell, and between the inner and outer capsid of virions (Schiff et al, 2007). The $\sigma 2$ protein is not directly related to any enzymatic activity, but is thought to act as a stabilizing clamp required to support the core shell (Xu et al, 1993; Dryden et al, 1998; Reinisch et al, 2000). Like $\sigma 2$, the strategic position of $\lambda 2$ may be particularly important for holding shells together. Featuring an extended conformation, $\lambda 2$ span from the core into the outer capsid, and hence; it may act as an important sustainability device for a full reovirus particle (Schiff et al, 2007).

1.4. Outer shell

The outermost complex of proteins found in reovirus particle is essentially composed of 600 copies of each of the two major proteins, $\mu 1$ and $\sigma 3$; and 36 copies of the cell attachment protein, $\sigma 1$ (Lee et al, 1981; Cashdollar et al, 1985; Nibert et al, 1991a; Dryden et al, 1993; Chandran et al, 2002). Multiple copies of these three reovirus structural proteins appear to be arranged in a T=13/ icosahedral lattice (Nibert et al,

1991a; Dryden et al, 1993; Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). The role of this outer layer is to mediate cell tracking, penetration or disruption, and finally, deposit of the transcriptionally active core into the cell cytoplasm (Chandran et al, 2002; Odegard et al, 2004; Zhang et al, 2005; Zhang et al, 2006). Considering that $\mu 1$ protein (76 kDa, 200 trimers per particle) is usually present in its autolytic fragments $\mu 1N$ (4 kDa, myristoylated) and $\mu 1C$ (72 kDa), it has been proposed that cleavage of $\mu 1$ is a key step during viral penetration into cells (Chandran et al, 2002; Odegard et al, 2004). Moreover, trimers of $\mu 1$ are intimately connected to monomers of $\sigma 3$ protein (41 kDa, 600 copies). Their association form heterohexamer complexes ($\mu 1_3\sigma 3_3$) that provide stability to the shell while protecting $\mu 1$ from proteolytic agents (Zhang et al, 2006; Schiff et al, 2007). Besides protecting the outer proteins from the extracellular environment, $\sigma 3$ decorates the primary lattice of proteins and regulates some viral activities (Chandran & Nibert, 1998; Chandran et al, 2002). For instance, $\sigma 3$ has dsRNA-binding capacity and acts as an antagonist of cell protein kinases (PKR). By inhibiting the interferon pathway and counteracting the host antiviral responses, $\sigma 3$ allows the virus translation and its consequent spread (Olland et al, 2001). The last protein to complete the viral outer shell is a minor component which is manifested at the fivefold icosahedral vertex as oligomeric complex of $\sigma 1$ subunits (Nibert et al, 1991a; Dryden et al, 1993). $\sigma 1$ protein has been shown to assume both folded and extended conformation in viral particles. In the latter, $\sigma 1$ expand as much as 40 nm out from viral particle, an advantage that confer virus a receptor-recognition (junction adhesion molecule, JAM) and tropism towards its target cells (Weiner et al, 1977; Lee et al, 1981; Barton et al, 2001a; Clarke & Tyler, 2003). There are three distinct types of channels present in a full reovirus particle. They

are located across the inner and outer capsid layers and are known as P1, P2 and P3 (Figure 1). P1 is present in a total of twelve channels and is formed by turrets of $\lambda 2$ at the fivefold vertices. P2 and P3 are each present in a number of 60 channels, which are respectively surrounded by four or six subunits of $\sigma 3$ protein (Dryden et al, 1998; Coombs, 2006). The function of these channels is not well understood; however, there has been speculation that channels may be required for conformational changes involving proteins like $\mu 1$ during viral penetration and infection of cells, or to allow nucleotides to enter particles for transcription (Schiff et al, 2007).

1.4.1. Mu 1 – reovirus penetration protein

Protein $\mu 1$ is the primary translation product of the reovirus M2 gene segment (Chandran et al, 2002; Coombs, 2006). Trimers of $\mu 1$ are assembled in dimensions of $10 \times 8 \times 7$ nm with each of its subunits fully embracing each other as they coil counter clockwise from base to tip (Liemann et al, 2002). A complete subunit of $\mu 1$ has been described to have a Z shape composed of four domains (Figure 2). Three; domains I, II, III are primarily α -helical, while the fourth, and most distal domain, is a canonical jelly-roll β -barrel, as similarly seen in capsids of other animal viruses (e.g. picorna-, noda-, and tetra-viruses) (Guglielmi et al, 2006). These domains are essential for $\mu 1$ protein-to-protein interaction (Liemann et al, 2002; Guglielmi et al, 2006). For instance, domain I is the base of the trimer that interacts with core surface proteins. Moreover, it is the domain that contains the conserved autocatalytic cleavage site of the protein (Liemann et al, 2002). Domain II is basically the structure of $\mu 1$, with a long and horizontal α -helix that is oriented almost parallel to the trimer base. Moreover, the myristoyl group is found

located in one of the domain II segment (Liemann et al, 2002). Domain III is composed of five α -helices and a small β strand. Two of the five α -helices are believed to form a complex to which σ_3 assembles (Liemann et al, 2002). Domain IV has two β sheets and forms the head of the μ_1 trimer. An extended surface of domain IV participates in the heterohexamer interactions of μ_1 - μ_1 or μ_1 - σ_3 proteins (Liemann et al, 2002). Interactions with its protector protein σ_3 are usually presented in a 1:1 combination (Schiff et al, 2007). The complex involves a central μ_1 trimer with three monomers of σ_3 connected to its upper half (Figure 2). This heterohexamer formation accounts for a great proportion of the reovirus outer capsid. Besides the interaction with σ_3 , μ_1 also interacts with viral proteins present on core shell (Dryden et al, 1993; Reinisch et al, 2000). Two hundred trimers of μ_1 are situated atop the 150 monomers of σ_2 . Additionally, at some position these trimers are connected side-to-side with two adjacent λ_2 subunits (μ_1 .Q trimer) (Zhang et al, 2005). These contacts are believed to anchor μ_1 layer in the core capsid, stabilizing the outer capsid structure, and limiting conformational changes triggered during entry (Smith et al, 1969; Zhang et al, 2005). In virions, full-length μ_1 is 708-amino-acids-long. μ_1 undergoes several cleavages during replicative cycle yielding a myristoylated amino-terminal fragment, μ_1 N; and a carboxy-terminal fragment, μ_1 C (Nibert et al, 1991b; Coombs, 2006.). The μ_1 C cleavage is supported by electrophoresis of purified virions, which demonstrates that 95% of μ_1 appears in its cleaved form at 72 kDa. Also, detection of an additional μ_1 fragment, μ_1 N (4 kDa), was achieved via high resolution SDS-PAGE. Cleavage of the latter has been proposed to occur between amino acids Asn₄₂ and Pro₄₃, and is believed to be an in gel artifact due to sample manipulation (Dryden et al, 2008). Nevertheless, the asparagine residue is also found in close

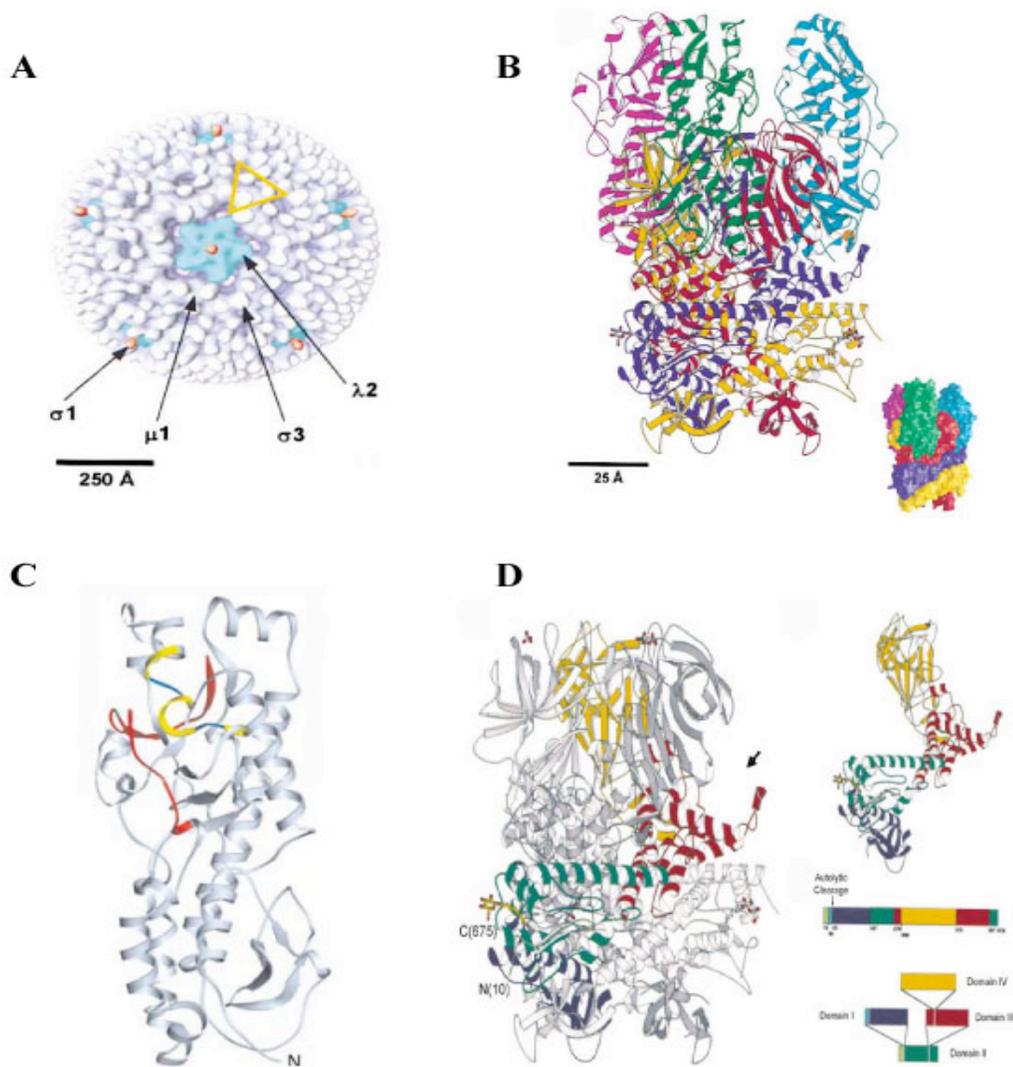


Figure 2. Structure of the $\mu 1/\sigma 3$ heterohexameric complex and its subunits. **A.** Demonstration of reovirus particle and the four surface-exposed proteins, of which only $\mu 1$ and $\sigma 3$ are further described. **B.** Side view of the $\mu 1_3\sigma 3_3$ heterohexameric complex. The bottom of the complex interacts with $\sigma 2$ proteins present in core layer. Three $\sigma 3$'s (colored in green, cyan and magenta) sit on top of $\mu 1$ trimer (colored in red, violet and yellow). The three $\mu 1$ subunits wrap around each other as they twist 360° . Two subunits of $\mu 1$ are the contacts for each monomer of $\sigma 3$. **C.** Side view of $\sigma 3$ structure. **D.** On the left, $\mu 1$ trimer shown without bound $\sigma 3$. On the upper right, a diagram illustrates one $\mu 1$ subunit. On the bottom right, the domain segmentation of the amino acid sequence. Domains are color coded according to one $\mu 1$ subunit in the 3D-structure (domain I, light and dark blue [$\mu 1N$, $\mu 1C$]; domain II, light and dark green [$\mu 1N$, $\mu 1C$]; domain III, red; domain IV, yellow). All domains are shown within the central domain II. Domain II holds domains I and III, and domain III equally contains domain IV. The other 2 subunits of $\mu 1$ are shown in gray. The arrow indicates the $\sigma 3$ binding site. Adapted from (Liemann et al, 2002) and (Guglielmi et al, 2006). Permission kindly granted from both © Elsevier and © Springer Science + Business Media on January 7, 2011.

proximity to the N-terminal side of other animal viruses (e.g. avian reo-, polio-, rhino-, picornaviruses, etc.). This suggests that N-myristoylation and the autocatalytic cleavage of structural proteins may play an important role during viral replication (Nibert et al, 1991b; Odegard et al, 2004; Nibert et al, 2005; Zhang et al, 2005; Noad et al, 2006). One of the initial steps in reovirus penetration is marked by removal of $\sigma 3$ protein, which in consequence, exposes $\mu 1$ to the cellular environment (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Bodkin et al, 1989; Nibert & Fields, 1992; Ebert et al, 2002). Briefly, the disassembly process is a key step in conformational rearrangements in $\mu 1$ protein (Nibert et al, 1991b; Chandran & Nibert, 1998; Chandran et al, 2002; Odegard et al, 2004). Cleavage of $\mu 1N/\mu 1C$ allows the release of its myristoylated N-terminal peptide ($\mu 1N$), which probably interacts with the cell membrane (Zhang et al, 2006). The fact that $\mu 1N$ has an addition of C14 fatty acid groups that may increase its hydrophobicity strongly supports this interaction proposal (Nibert et al, 1991b; Hruby & Franke, 1993; Chandran et al, 2002; Chandran et al, 2003; Odegard et al, 2004). Moreover, recent studies have found $\mu 1N$ in association with red blood cell membranes and have suggested that this portion itself is sufficient for pore formation in cells (Nibert et al, 2005; Ivanovic et al, 2008). Related to that, Mendez and colleagues (2003) have published that proteolysis of the C-terminus of $\mu 1$ precedes $\sigma 3$ digestion when virus is treated with trypsin and analysed by mass spectrometry. Also, earlier studies have found that specific monoclonal antibodies react against $\mu 1$ when in contact with full reovirus particles (Hayes et al, 1981; Virgin IV et al, 1994). Significance of these cleavages ($\mu 1N/\mu 1C$) is not fully understood yet; nevertheless, it suggests that $\mu 1$ is probably exposed on the surface of the reovirus particle and even more, supports that cleavage of $\mu 1$ is a prerequisite for reovirus penetration. The subsequent steps that allow

virus translocation into cytoplasm are still to be described.

1.4.2. Sigma 3 – reovirus protector protein

The full-length $\sigma 3$ is a 365-amino acid long, N-terminally acetylated protein encoded by the S4 genome segment (Giantini et al, 1984; Kedl et al, 1995; Mendez et al, 2003). It is a major outer capsid protein that protects virus from environment proteolysis and forms a sheltering cap for $\mu 1$ protein (Nibert et al, 1991a; Guglielmi et al, 2006). The $\sigma 3$ protein folds into a two-lobed cylindrical structure with a length of 7.6 nm and a diameter of 4.7 nm (Olland et al, 2001). The large C-terminal lobe is made of ~225 residues organized around several α -helices, short β -sheets, and large loops that are exposed on the virion surface. The small N-terminal lobe stabilizes the $\sigma 3$ dimer via a conserved α -helical region that is the contact to other major outer capsid protein, $\mu 1$ (Figure 1 and 2) (Nason et al, 2001; Olland et al, 2001; Liemann et al, 2002). A non-conserved side is positioned close to P2 and P3 solvent channels and features large loops. The protein contains a zinc finger motif and binds zinc in its small lobe. This has been suggested as a requirement for proper particle folding and stability while maintaining the separation of motifs that further bind to dsRNA (Giantini et al, 1984; Schiff et al, 1988; Danis et al, 1992; Mabrouk & Lemay, 1994; Olland et al, 2001). The $\sigma 3$ protein is the first one removed during entry of the infectious particle (Guglielmi et al, 2006). Its cleavage and subsequent disassembly has been chiefly accepted as one of the most important steps in reovirus early infection (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Baer & Dermody, 1997; Mendez et al, 2003; Golden et al, 2004). Coombs' group have extensively studied the digestion of $\sigma 3$ by SDS-PAGE and mass spectrometry (Mendez et al, 2003;

Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). Together with others, they have proposed the cleavage in a central specific hypersensitive region (HSR) that continues bidirectionally towards the protein's termini until all protein has been digested (Ebert et al, 2002; Jané-Valbuena et al, 2002; Mendez et al, 2003). Depending on the reovirus strain (e.g. T1L and T3D), the HSR can be located in different regions (amino acid residues 238–244 in T1L and 208–213 in T3D), modifying the protein cleavage pattern and its susceptibility to proteases (Jané-Valbuena et al, 1999; Jané-Valbuena et al, 2002). Moreover, Hadžisejdić and collaborators (2006) have shown that cleavage rate and digested products may also differ depending on the protease used and whether detergent is applied to the *in vitro* proteolysis. Previous reports have shed light on the mechanisms of $\sigma 3$ cleavage and viral disassembly by using mutant reoviruses achieved by persistent infections of murine cells. The resultant viruses had a tyrosine-to-histidine single mutation at amino acid 354, near the carboxy-terminus of $\sigma 3$. The mutation increased the viral proteolysis, led to $\sigma 3$ structural rearrangements comparable to *in vivo* reactions (due to low pH environment in the digestive system), and in contrast to wild-type reoviruses, yielded a particle resistant to viral entry blockers (e.g. acidification inhibitors [ammonium chloride] and proteolysis inhibitors [E-64]) (McCrae & Joklik, 1978; Mustoe et al, 1978; Dermody et al, 1993; Baer & Dermody, 1997; Wetzel et al, 1997; Baer et al, 1999; Ebert et al, 2001; Wilson et al, 2002). Moreover, passage of wild-type reovirus in the presence of E-64 selects resistant viruses that have mutations in S4 gene, which encodes the $\sigma 3$ protein (Ebert et al, 2001). The provided results demonstrated that mutations in $\sigma 3$ protein allow variant reoviruses to bypass pharmacologic inhibitors, and indicate that indeed, $\sigma 3$ cleavage at C-terminus has a major function during viral disassembly. However, the detailed pathway

from disassembly to virus internalization has yet to be unveiled; hence, the reason for this study. Non-structural functions were also attributed to the outer capsid protein $\sigma 3$. For instance, the protein shuts down host protein synthesis and counteracts host defenses (i.e. interferon activation) by binding to cytoplasmic dsRNA at C-terminus residues 234 and 297 (Huismans & Joklik, 1976; Sharpe & Fields, 1982; Imani & Jacobs, 1988; Schiff et al, 1988; Miller & Samuel, 1992; Denzler & Jacobs, 1994; Beattie et al, 1995; Schiff, 1998; Olland et al, 2001). Moreover, the interaction of $\sigma 3$ with dsRNA is independent of RNA sequence but dependent on duplex length (Huismans & Joklik, 1976). Mutational analysis has demonstrated that absence of zinc-binding sites decreases the intracellular stability and also interrupts the $\sigma 3$ interaction with protein $\mu 1$ (Mabrouk & Lemay, 1994; Olland et al, 2001). Nevertheless, the loss of zinc does not seem to affect the way $\sigma 3$ binds to dsRNA (Olland et al, 2001). Regarding the $\sigma 3$ N-terminal, reports have shown that it contains an acetyl group and it may also serve to stabilize the structure or to promote protein complex assembly (Cumberlidge & Isono, 1979; Berger et al, 1981; Tercero & Wickner, 1992; Nguyen et al, 2000). Another speculation is that N-terminal acetylation may be involved in the differentiation of the roles $\sigma 3$ plays during the virus life cycle (Polevoda & Sherman, 2000). However, the precise activity of this acetylated molecule is still not completely understood.

1.5. Reovirus proteolysis and morphological forms

The virion is the main virus progeny released from dead, dying, or disrupted cells in tissue culture or animal models (Schiff et al, 2007). The partial uncoating of virion leads to two well-known reovirus-derived particles: infectious (or intermediate) subviral

particles and cores (Shatkin & Sipe, 1968; Smith et al, 1969; Joklik, 1972; Shatkin & LaFiandra, 1972; Borsa et al, 1973). As described in detail in Table 1, the prime difference between virions and ISVPs is the lack of outer capsid protein σ_3 and the cleavage of μ_1 into 2 fragments; the 59 kDa N-terminal fragment δ and 13 kDa C-terminal fragment ϕ (Joklik, 1972; Shatkin & LaFiandra, 1972; Nibert & Fields, 1992; Dryden et al, 1993; Coombs, 1998; Reinisch et al, 2000; Chandran et al, 2003). The further lack of outer capsid proteins σ_1 and μ_1 fragments is what subsequently differentiates core from ISVP particles (Figure 1) (Joklik, 1972; Nibert et al, 1991a; Nibert & Fields, 1992; Dryden et al, 1993; Schiff et al, 2007). Protease digestions of virions can generate both ISVPs and cores under *in vitro* conditions that mimic the forms that participate in the *in vivo* infection and replication (Schiff et al, 2007). ISVP* is a recently identified uncoating of ISVP that has been referred to also play a role in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* infections (Joklik, 1972; Chandran et al, 2002; Chandran et al, 2003; Zhang et al, 2006). This distinct form of ISVP includes conformational changes in μ_1 that further exposes δ fragments to proteolysis. The structural changes also promote shedding of σ_1 by rearrangements in λ_2 that release σ_1 . Consequently, Nibert's group have described that ISVP*, and not ISVP, must be the particle which penetrates the cytoplasm and precedes the core form (Chandran et al, 2002; Chandran et al, 2003; Zhang et al, 2006). Nonetheless, the morphologies of the three common reovirus forms were described via negative-stain electron microscopy (EM). Virions are generally spherical but contain flattened areas around the five-fold axes. ISVPs are shown even more spherical than virions; however, they are clearly identified by the conformation of proteins μ_1 and σ_1 , which appear respectively jagged and extended by long fibers, on the

surface of ISVP particles (Figure 1) (Furlong et al, 1988). Cores are identified by the prominent turrets ($\lambda 2$ protein), which after removal of virus outer capsid proteins are seen to project out from the particle's surface (Figure 1) (Jiang & Coombs, 2005). To obtain reovirus-derived particles, virions are grown in murine cells and after several extraction procedures; they are finally purified by centrifugation with CsCl density gradient (Mendez et al, 2000; Berard & Coombs, 2009). The resultant virion particles have a density of about 1.36 g/ml (Table 1). When tested for infectivity by plaque assay, a virion particle:plaque forming units (PFU) ratio around 50:1 to 500:1 is usually seen. The high ratio has been suggested to be caused by defective particles that are measured via OD₂₆₀ but are incapable of a productive infection (Schiff et al, 2007). To understand more about these reovirus particles and therefore, the virus structure; proteases (e.g. trypsin and chymotrypsin), temperature, and time, are often combined to create the best *in vitro* condition to convert virions into ISVPs or cores (Smith et al, 1969; Joklik, 1972; Shatkin & LaFiandra, 1972; Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Furlong et al, 1988, Nibert & Fields, 1992; Mendez et al, 2003; Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). ISVP and cores seem to play important roles during viral disassembly and infection (Middleton et al, 2002). For instance, cores are active at the *in vitro* transcription and are thought to represent the primary particles that access the host cytosol to deliver the plus-strand RNAs for translation and packaging (Joklik, 1972; Borsa et al, 1973; Borsa et al, 1981; Jiang & Coombs, 2005). Additionally, cores are poorly infectious particles. Since they lack the outer-capsid proteins $\sigma 1$ (attachment protein) and $\mu 1$ (penetration protein) that mediate the viral entry, the hypothesis that cores are less capable of infection and therefore, are delivered to cell's cytoplasm via proteolysis of other reovirus particles (e.g. ISVPs)

Table 1. Differences and Similarities of the Common Reovirus Particles.

Features	Virion	ISVP	Core
Outer capsid proteins			
$\sigma 3$	Present	Absent	Absent
$\sigma 1$	Present	Present (extended)	Absent
$\mu 1/\mu 1C$	Present	Present (fragments $\delta + \phi$)	Absent
$\lambda 2$	Present	Present	Present
Inner capsid proteins	Present	Present	Present
Infectivity in culture	+	++	–
Infectivity in presence of entry blockers (e.g. acidification or protease inhibitors)	–	+	–
Interaction with membrane bilayers	No	Yes	No
Diameter (nm)	85	80	60
Density in CsCl (g/ml)	1.36	1.38	1.43
Molecular weight (MDa)	127	103	49

seems to be relevant (Silverstein et al, 1970; Silverstein et al, 1972; Borsa et al, 1979; Borsa et al, 1981; Jiang & Coombs, 2005). On the other hand, ISVPs contain all the necessary proteins for a successful infection. In fact, ISVPs appear to be specifically required for *in vitro* infections in mouse models and are more infectious than other reovirus forms; presumably due to the extended conformation of its $\sigma 1$ attachment protein. An exception is found in some isolates such as T3D, which have a $\sigma 1$ sensitive to protease cleavage, thus, demonstrates loss in infectivity (Joklik, 1981; Amerongen et al, 1994; Schiff et al, 2007). While the identification of these reovirus-derived intermediate particles has provided a good model of reovirus entry, a better understanding of the molecular requirements and the structural transitions that allow these particles to enter cells is still needed.

1.6. Reovirus infection and dissemination

For a virus to produce systemic infection, it needs first to spread from its primary site of infection and replication, and then travel to distant target tissues (Tyler et al, 1986). The reovirus natural portal of entry is the host's respiratory and enteric tracts (Sabin, 1959). To deeply understand the essential steps in reovirus infection, newborn mice have been extensively used as a model to investigate the reovirus pathogenesis. Due to their exquisite sensitivity, mice are usually infected with strains T1L and T3D via enteric tracts (Wolf et al, 1981; Rubin et al, 1985; Bodkin et al, 1989; Organ & Rubin, 1998). Following peroral inoculation, the reovirus outer capsid proteins pass through the low pH in the stomach and finally reach the intestine, where they encounter pancreatic proteases such as trypsin or chymotrypsin (Golden et al, 2002). Within this rough

environment, the viral outer capsid proteins begin to be processed. Then, removal of $\sigma 3$ protein and structural modifications in viral proteins ($\mu 1 \rightarrow \delta/\phi$) turn virions into ISVPs (Bodkin et al, 1989; Liemann et al, 2002). Both virions and ISVPs are thought to adhere and penetrate into intestinal tissue via microfold (M) cells overlying Peyer's patches (Amerongen et al, 1994; Wolf et al, 1981). Virus is subsequently transported across the cell membrane via receptor-mediated endocytosis and delivered to the basolateral surface (Wolf et al, 1987). In detail, the first step in the virus infectious cycle is the attachment to receptors (e.g. JAMs) present on the surface of the host cells (Figure 3, step 1). The reovirus protein that mediates this process, $\sigma 1$, has a globular head at the C-terminus that allows binding to junctional adhesion molecule-A, and residues in its tail that link to a carbohydrate that has not been fully determined (Lee et al, 1981; Barton et al, 2001c; Chappell et al, 2002; Antar et al, 2009). In contradiction to reovirus T1L, T3D also binds sialic acid at a midpoint region of the $\sigma 1$ tail (Chappell et al, 1997; Barton et al, 2001b). After engaging receptors, the virion is internalized via clathrin-mediated endocytosis and disassembled within minutes due to acidic pH and proteases (e.g. cathepsin B and L) found within the endosome (Figure 3, step 2) (Borsa et al, 1979; Borsa et al, 1981; Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Ebert et al, 2002; Ehrlich et al, 2004). Studies using pharmaceutical agents that block this endosomal acidification (e.g. chloroquine and ammonium chloride), or inhibit lysosome proteases (e.g. E-64), have been shown to restrict the infectivity of intact virions. Thus, low pH and viral proteolysis is a requirement for reovirus infection (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Ebert et al, 2001). The disassembly process promotes virion to ISVP conversion by removal of $\sigma 3$ protein, extension of $\sigma 1$ fibers, and cleavage of $\mu 1$ into two particle-associated peptides, δ and ϕ

(Figure 3, step 2 and 3) (Silverstein et al, 1972; Borsa et al, 1981; Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Dryden et al, 1993; Liemann et al, 2002). Alternatively, ISVPs formed extracellularly may also enter cells by direct penetration through the plasma membrane (Figure 3, 3a) (Borsa et al, 1979; Golden et al, 2002). Evidence for this is the infection of intact virions and ISVPs in the presence of acidification or protease inhibitors. While virions are inhibited by these antiviral agents, ISVPs produce a successful infection being able to bypass viral entry blockers (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Baer & Dermody, 1997; Odegard et al, 2004; Nibert et al, 2005). Lately, a novel intermediate particle named ISVP* has been described, which follow ISVP digestion by the loss of $\sigma 1$ protein, as well as the conformational changes in $\mu 1$. By becoming ISVP*, virus is released from endosome to deliver the transcriptionally active core into the cell's cytosol (Figure 3, step 4) (Chandran et al, 2002; Chandran et al, 2003; Odegard et al, 2004; Nibert et al, 2005). The resulting core particle marks the final stage of the uncoating process in cell cytoplasm, where the remainder of the replicative cycle occurs (Coombs, 2006; Kobayashi et al, 2007). The RdRp produces 5' capped, non-polyadenylated mRNA from each gene segment during primary transcription (Faust et al, 1975). Only four (L1, M3, S3 and S4) genes are initially transcribed in mRNA and respectively translated by host ribosomes in proteins $\lambda 3$, μNS , σNS and $\sigma 3$ (Figure 3, step 5 and 6). Thereafter, the four newly produced proteins promote the transcription of all the remaining six genes through a mechanism that has not been clearly defined (Figure 3, step 7). Early mRNAs are subsequently translated into full complement of virus proteins (Figure 3, step 8). Proteins are sent with the 10 different mRNA molecules into a non-membrane viral-inclusion region in the cytoplasm, where the minus-strand is synthesized and the progeny's dsRNA

is produced (Figure 3, step 9 and 10). Packaged particles that contain the dsRNA play a role in secondary transcription and the majority of mRNAs are then produced. Finally, virions are assembled to contain one copy of each of the ten progeny genes and are released from cytosol by cell lysis (Figure 3, final steps) (Coombs, 2006). Both reovirus strains T1L and T3D disseminate systemically to reach the central nervous system (CNS). The difference among their pathogenesis is that reovirus T1L spreads from the intestine to the mesenteric lymph and spleen via hematogenous routes, leading to nonlethal hydrocephalus, whereas reovirus T3D spreads from the intestine to the myenteric plexus to the vagus nerve via neural routes, infecting neurons and causing lethal encephalitis (Weiner et al, 1980; Kauffman et al, 1983; Tyler et al, 1986; Morrison et al, 1991; Barton et al, 2001c; Antar et al, 2009). The gene that mediates the neurovirulence differences between these two serotypes is the S1 genome segment, which encodes for the attachment protein $\sigma 1$ (Weiner et al, 1977; Weiner et al, 1980; Tyler et al, 1986).

1.7. Significance of the research

Little is known about the molecular requirements and structural transitions that allow a non-enveloped virus, such as mammalian reovirus, to enter cells. Therefore, this early step in reovirus infection has been extensively studied by many groups in North America (Wolf et al, 1981; Dryden et al, 1993; Morin et al, 1994; Coombs, 1998; Jané-Valbuena et al, 1999; Agosto et al, 2006; Hadžisejdić et al, 2006; Danthi et al, 2008). One of the main reasons for studying this virus in special is the fact that reovirus is a safe virus to work with and a good model to understand the pathogenesis of more virulent

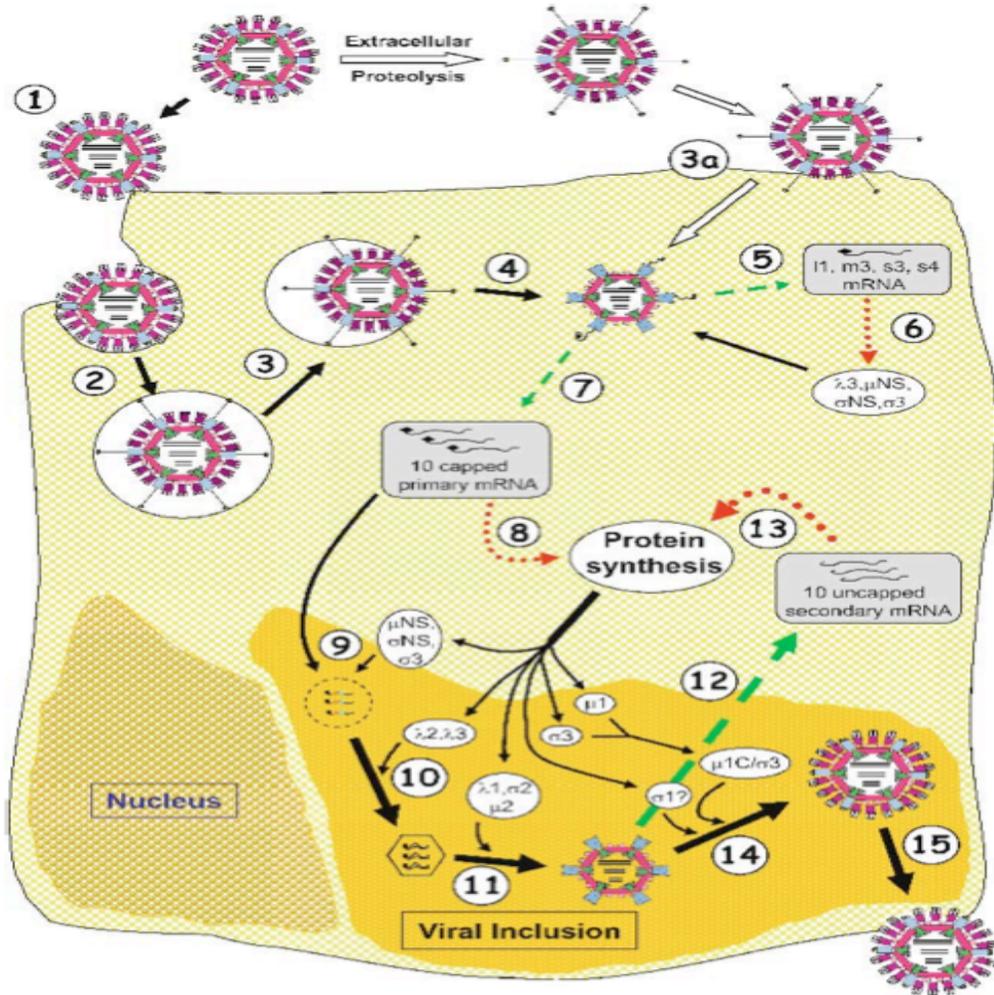


Figure 3. Mammalian reovirus replicative cycle. Diagrammatic representation of the various steps known to be involved in a successful reovirus infection: (1) binding of virions or ISVPs (when proteolysis occurs extracellularly), (2) entry/internalization via receptor-mediated endocytosis, (3) membrane interaction to allow ISVP release from endosome or directly by penetration in cell membrane (3a), (4) uncoating of ISVP under conditions (low pH or enzymatic reaction) that remove viral outer capsid proteins and release the transcriptionally active core particle into cytoplasm, (5) initial pre-early transcription and capping of mRNA, (6) initial pre-early translation by host ribosomes to produce viral proteins, (7) primary capped transcription, (8) primary translation of four proteins only - $\lambda 3$, μNS , σNS , $\sigma 3$ - out of the ten dsRNA genes that will be transcribed by unknown mechanisms, (9) assortment of mRNA segments into genome sets, (10 – 14) synthesis of negative RNA strands that generate progeny dsRNA, secondary transcription and translation, assortment and assembly of progeny proteins, (15) newly formed virions are release through cell lysis by a mechanism not well understood. An alternate penetration particle named ISVP* has been recently described (Chandran & Nibert, 1998; Chandran et al, 2002; Odegard et al, 2004) to play a role at probably step (4) of this figure. Figure taken from (Coombs, 2006). Permission kindly granted from © Springer Science + Business Media on January 7, 2011.

non-enveloped viruses such as rotavirus, a highly contagious pathogen that causes numerous cases of gastroenteritis hospitalizations (Rivest et al, 2004). Additionally, reovirus has been getting even more attention due to its ability to infect and kill transformed cells; thus, it may be valuable as a novel anti-cancer therapy (Coffey et al, 1998; Norman et al, 2004; Thirukkumaran et al, 2010). The principle of every successful infection is based on viral entry and subsequently, the replication and release of the viral progeny. A precise understanding of how reovirus proteins first interact with the host cell membrane still remains unclear in reovirus research. Studies have documented the importance of reovirus protein $\sigma 3$ in the early steps of the infection and also as a marker to differentiate two important infectious forms of reovirus; virion and ISVP. The protein is a crucial factor when testing the infectivity of these two particles in the presence of acidification and protease inhibitors. As described in the literature review, virions are blocked by the presence of these pharmacological agents, whereas ISVPs are not. Moreover, cleavage of reovirus outer capsid protein $\sigma 3$ has been appointed as essential for virus internalization, whereas cleavage of its associated $\mu 1$ protein is needless when generating ISVP-like particles. Therefore, the hypothesis presented in this thesis is that there is a threshold of $\sigma 3$ digestion required to allow the particle to bypass entry blockers. Understanding the molecular requirements that allow the reovirus particle to bypass viral entry inhibitors may be a key in unveiling the first steps taken in the reovirus infection.

1.8. Rationale and objectives of this study

The success of a reovirus infection is completely dependent on its three morphological forms (i.e. virion, ISVP and core), which relate to the amount of various

proteins present on the virus structure (Table 1). While there is mounting evidence that a conformational change in reovirus structural proteins is a key step during entry, some details about these specific rearrangements leading to virus internalization are still controversial. Nibert's group have described an improved protocol to access the molecular alterations on virus outer capsid protein $\sigma 3$. By inclusion of the alkyl detergent 14SO₄, they were able to separate the cleavage of protein $\sigma 3$ from the cleavage of protein $\mu 1$, which appear to be fundamental on studying virus infection but occur simultaneously in previous tested conditions (Chandran & Nibert, 1998). The same protocol was tested by Coombs' group and indeed, it has been useful to clarify the important steps taken during the virion to ISVP transition pathway (Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). Previous studies have shown that intact virions digested for a brief time had an initial cleavage situated in the $\sigma 3$ hypersensitive region (Ebert et al, 2002; Jané-Valbuena et al, 2002; Mendez et al, 2003). When tested in the presence of the acidic protease inhibitor, E-64, these particles were described as sensitive to the blocker most likely because the presence of $\sigma 3$ fragments inhibit the $\mu 1$ function in membrane penetration. However, when ISVP was tested under the same conditions, it has shown strong resistance to the lysosomal protease inhibitor (Jané-Valbuena et al, 2002). These findings imply that there is a need of $\sigma 3$ digestion to allow the functional virion → ISVP switch. However, the precise amount of $\sigma 3$ processing required to allow the particle to bypass the entry blocker (i.e. enhanced ISVP infectivity) is still unknown. As indicated, it is believed that molecular changes at the virion-to-ISVP pathway are facilitated by acidic pH and acidic-dependent proteases. Therefore, combining different techniques by treating the virus with detergent and protease, then consequently infecting cells in the presence of acidification or proteolysis

inhibitors may help filling the gap about the reovirus molecular content in the early infection. The objective of this study, hence, was to mimic the virus infection by developing a gradual protein cleavage on the virus' external proteins. Moreover, it aimed to demonstrate the relationship between reovirus population according to the amount of $\sigma 3$ remaining on the virus surface and the resultant effect of this protein content on the reovirus-derived particle/population infectivity. Identifying the structural and functional changes during the virus-to-ISVP transition pathway may have dramatic ramifications regarding proteolytically-mediated infections in general; besides contributing to the improvement and design of viral vectors used in oncolytic delivery purposes.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Cells

Murine L929 cells were grown in either suspension or monolayer cultures at a concentration of $4 \times 10^5 - 5 \times 10^5$ cells per ml. Cells were maintained in Joklik's modified minimal essential medium (MEM; Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA) supplemented with 5% fetal calf serum (FCS; HyClone Laboratories Inc., Logan, UT, USA), and 2 mM *L*-glutamine. Suspension cultures were counted on a daily basis to maintain the optimum level of cell concentration. Fresh supplemented MEM was used to adjust the final volume and replace the necessary nutrients to cells. Similarly to the suspension cells, monolayers were grown in a temperature of 37°C with a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in air.

2.2. Viral particles

Reovirus strain type 1 Lang (T1L) is a laboratory stock. T1L was grown in mouse L929 cells either in suspension at 33°C or in a cell culture monolayer at 37°C with 5% CO₂ atmosphere. Infection media were supplemented with 100 U/ml of penicillin, 100 µg/ml of streptomycin sulphate and 100 µg/ml of amphotericin-B.

2.2.1. Passaging

The wild type stocks of reovirus strain T1L were amplified in a series of passages. These typical passages were performed in flasks containing a monolayer of mouse fibroblast cells and medium. The monolayer was primarily grown in T25 Corning flasks

(Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) in a total volume of 5 ml. To achieve that, L929 cells were plated at approximately 4×10^5 cells/ml and incubated overnight to reach 90% cell confluency. Medium was removed from the T25 flask on the next day, and a volume of 0.5 ml of P₀ virus stock was inoculated into the flask allowing the virus-to-cell adsorption. The infection was held at room temperature for one hour, with periodic rocking every 10 – 15 minutes. After adsorption, 4.5 ml of fresh completed MEM (supplemented with penicillin:streptomycin [pen-strep] and Amphotericin-B) was pipetted into the flask. The infected monolayer was placed in 37°C incubator with 5% CO₂ in air, and examined daily for cytopathic effect (CPE). Flasks were transferred to the -80°C freezer when about 85% of detectable changes in the host cells (i.e. cell rounding, swelling or shrinking, death, detachment, etc.) were noticed. Then, they were frozen and thawed three times to collect the P₁ cell lysate. A second infection was carried out in a T75 Corning flask to continue the process of virus passaging. Fresh L929 cells were plated as described above but in a total volume of 15 ml. An aliquot of 0.5 ml from the P₁ cell lysate was used to infect the T75 cells on the following day. The virus adsorption and infection, the flask incubation, and the inspection for the CPE effect were all done in the same manner to generate the P₂ cell lysate. If necessary during growth time, 2/3rds of media was removed from the T75 flask and replaced with fresh supplemented MEM. After CPE effect was detected, cells were harvested and the P₂ cell lysate was held at 4°C for virus titration.

2.2.2. Titration

Plaque forming units assays, also known as plaque assays, were used to quantify infectious virus particles. L929 cells were plated onto 6-well cell culture plates (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) at a concentration of 4×10^5 cells/ml and plates were incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ atmosphere for one overnight to reach the 90% cell confluency. The day of cell culture was called day zero. On day 1, serial 1:10 dilutions of viral stocks were made in gel saline (137 mM NaCl, 0.2 mM CaCl₂, 0.8 mM MgCl₂, 19 mM HBO₃, 0.1 mM Na₂B₄O₇, 0.3% [wt/vol] gelatin). Growth media was removed from the sub-confluent L929 monolayer and 100 µl of every dilution were inoculated onto two wells; therefore, cells were twice infected to have an average of both wells. The virus-to-cell adsorption was taken for one hour in room temperature and plates were rocked every 10 – 15 minutes to maintain the cells moist. After adsorption, cells were overlaid with 3 ml of a 50:50 ratio of 2% Bacto-Agar (Becton Dickinson & Co., Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and 2 × Medium 199 (supplemented with 6% FCS, 2 mM *l*-glutamine, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin sulfate, and 1 µg/ml amphotericin-B). Then, the 6-well culture plates were incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere. On day 3, the infected monolayers were fed with 1.5ml of fresh completed Medium 199/Agar overlay, and returned to the incubator. Plates were daily inspected for viral plaques, but stained usually around day 5 with a 0.03% neutral red solution (made in a 1:1 ratio of 2% Bacto-Agar and 2 × phosphate buffered saline [PBS: 274mM NaCl, 0.6mM KCl, 1.6mM Na₂HPO₄, 0.2mM KH₂PO₄]). After 18 hours of staining, plates were taken from the incubator and plaques were counted on a white lamp box. Viral titer was finally calculated according to the average of plaques taken from each virus dilution and only plaques between 20 and 200 were statistically considered as results. The virus' infectivity

was then expressed by the formula $\frac{\# \text{ plaques}}{\text{dil}^n \times V} = \text{PFU/ml}$, where dil^n ; described the dilution factor, and V ; the volume of diluted virus inoculated to the well.

2.2.3. Amplification

Large amounts of purified reovirus T1L were obtained through a massive infection of L929 cells. These were grown in suspension at 37°C until they reached the desired volume and the concentration needed; generally 6.5×10^8 cells. The cell suspension was poured into 250 ml conical tubes (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) and centrifuged at $350 \times g$ for 7 minutes at 4°C (IEC Centra GP8R refrigerated centrifuge; Thermo Electron Co., Milford, MA, USA). The supernatant media was then transferred to a glass roller bottle and the cell pellet was re-suspended in few millilitres of pre-adapted media. The desired concentration of cells was adjusted to 2×10^7 cells/ml after the addition of P₂ virus stock. The infectious particles were added at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 5 PFU/cell. Then, cells and viruses were kept in the 33°C water bath for 1 hour with constant swirling of the tube. During this adsorption time, the glass roller bottle containing 250 ml of pre-adapted media was filled up to 1 L with fresh completed MEM supplemented with pen-strep and amphotericin-B. The bottle was then placed into the 33°C spinning water bath to equilibrate the media temperature. After adsorption time, cells and viruses were transferred to the roller bottles where the final concentration of cells was not greater than 6.5×10^5 cells/ml. The infection device was maintained in constant spinning at 33°C for 65 hours. After this time, cells were centrifuged at $500 \times g$ for 20 minutes (IEC Centra GP8R refrigerated centrifuge; Thermo Electron Co., Milford, MA, USA) and infected cells re-suspended in 12 ml of homogenization buffer (HO

buffer; 10 mM Tris [pH 7.4], 250 mM NaCl, 10 mM b-mercaptoethanol). The homogenate was then transferred to a 30 ml COREX tube and the final volume was recorded. At this point, samples could be frozen and stored at -80°C or used immediately for viral purification.

2.2.4. Purification

When stored at -80°C , the suspension was immediately thawed and sat in ice throughout the process of virus purification. Cell clumps and membranes were disrupted by a small probe on a Vibra-Cell sonicator (Sonics & Materials Inc., Danbury, CT, USA). At this step, sonication was set to 10 seconds at mid-range (35 - 40%) duty cycle. The protein dissociation and cell lysis was further processed by the addition of $1/50^{\text{th}}$ of sample volume of 10% sodium desoxycholate (DOC; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) detergent. Samples were then vortexed and placed in ice for 30 minutes. After reaction time, the solvent 1,1,1,2,3,4,4,5,5,5-decafluoropentane (Vertrel-XF; DuPont, Wilmington, DE, USA) was pipetted in a volume equal to $2/5^{\text{th}}$ of the sample volume. The suspension was then re-emulsified for 40 seconds and the addition of solvent Vertrel-XF was repeated once more, as well as the sonication process for 40 seconds. Thereafter, samples were centrifuged at $9,616 \times g$ for 10 minutes in a fixed-angle rotor (JA-25.50; Avanti J-30I Centrifuge; Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). The top aqueous phase was taken with a plastic pipette and the noted volume was transferred to a fresh COREX tube. The remaining organic phase was consequently discarded. The extraction was repeated as highlighted above, however, adding $9/10^{\text{th}}$ of Vertrel-XF of the sample volume per tube. Solutions were re-emulsified and phases were once again

separated under the same centrifuge conditions. The resultant top phase was layered onto a 1.2 – 1.4 g/ml cesium chloride gradient which was pre-established in a SW-28 tube (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). Finally, the completed gradient was installed in the JS-24.38 swinging-bucket rotor (Avanti J-30I Centrifuge; Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) and ultracentrifuged overnight (≥ 6 hours) at $87,275 \times g$ units. On the next day, the SW-28 tube was taken from the rotor and a typical blue band formed by virus particles within the gradient was collected through a puncture made in the bottom of the tube. Before loading the virus in the dialysis tube, its density was determined as approximately 1.36 g/ml by refractometer (Baush & Lomb, Rochester, NY, USA). Then, virus was extensively dialysed against 3 or more sets of dialysis buffer (D-buffer; 150 mM NaCl, 15 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM Tris [pH 7.4]) to completely remove the cesium chloride solution from the tube. After dialysis, the purified virus particles were quantified using a Spectronic Genesys 5 spectrophotometer (Milton Roy Co., Rochester, NY, USA) where $1 \text{ OD}_{260} = 2.1 \times 10^{12}$ particles or 185 μg of protein per ml. Viral particles were adjusted to $1 \times 10^{13}/\text{ml}$ and stored in appropriate vials at -80°C . Finally, virus' titer was taken by plaque assay to determine if particles were biologically infectious.

2.2.5. Proteolysis

The digestion of reovirus outer-capsid proteins, $\sigma 3$ and $\mu 1$, was accomplished by two slightly different procedures. The first was made from aliquots of digested particles collected at various time intervals and called here, virion-to-ISVP transition particles. The second, known as ISVP, was made by a longer digestion of the intact particles. The PTC-100 programmable thermal controller (MJ Research, Waltham, MA, USA) was set

according to the protocol described in the next section to promote the generation of these different particles.

2.2.5.1. Virion-to-ISVP particles

Virion-to-ISVP transition particles were generated by an *in vitro* digestion of purified virus. Solutions of TLCK-treated α -chymotrypsin (CHT) (Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA) were prepared in D-buffer (pH 7.4) to a final concentration stock of 500 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ and stored at -80°C . The detergent, tetradecyl sulfate sodium salt (14SO_4 ; Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA), was dissolved in distilled water to a final concentration stock of 10 mM. Aliquots of 1×10^{13} virus particles/ml were digested in the presence of 1 mM of detergent 14SO_4 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of protease α -chymotrypsin. After protease addition, tubes were immediately vortexed and transferred to the PTC-100 programmable thermal controller (MJ Research, Waltham, MA, USA) which was set to a constant temperature of 32°C . When the desired time point lapsed, tubes were immediately chilled in an ice water bath. Further digestion of viral proteins was inhibited by the addition of phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride (PMSF; Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA) to a final concentration of 5 mM. Subsequently, these particles were separated into two different tubes; one for structural analysis and the other for functional analysis. The first was boiled for 5 minutes at 95°C in a one-quarter volume of $5 \times$ electrophoresis sample buffer (ESB; 250 mM Tris [pH 6.8], 10% SDS, 0.5% bromophenol blue, 50% glycerol, 500 mM β -mercaptoethanol) and briefly centrifuged for 3 minutes at $21,000 \times g$ (IEC Micromax RF refrigerated centrifuge; Thermo Electron Co., Milford, MA, USA). The supernatant was then resolved by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide

gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) to confirm the particle formation (i.e. outer proteins digested). For the second tube, virus particles were used to infect cells at MOI of 2 PFU/cell, thus, testing the particle's infectivity (also described as functional analysis).

2.2.5.2. ISVPs and Cores

To obtain T1L ISVPs, the same protocol described in 2.2.5.1. was followed except that digestions were made in the absence of detergent and virions were treated for 1 hour at 37°C with 200 µg/ml of CHT. To obtain cores, virions were adjusted to 6.5×10^{13} particles/ml and treated with 200 µg/ml of CHT for 3 hours at 37°C. Immediately after time lapsed, samples were chilled on ice and reactions were stopped by the addition of 5mM final concentration of PMSF. The production of ISVPs and cores were confirmed via SDS-PAGE. The viability of ISVPs was verified by functional analysis and/or plaque assay.

2.3. Structural Analysis

Every sample submitted to CHT digestion was subsequently resolved in SDS-PAGE to visualize the $\sigma 3$ - and $\mu 1$ -derived proteolytic fragments. After electrophoresis and staining of the polyacrylamide gel, proteins were photographed and subjected to densitometric analysis.

2.3.1. SDS-PAGE

Samples to be analysed by SDS-PAGE were diluted 4:1 with 5 × ESB and heated for 5 minutes at 95°C. Twelve percent linear or 5 – 15% gradient polyacrylamide gels

(8.6W × 6.8L × 0.15T cm) were used for protein separation. Equal amounts of virus particles were loaded per well and resolved for 1½ hour at 30 mA of constant current (Power Pac 200 unit, Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., Hercules, CA, USA). Virus-derived proteins were stained by a Coomassie-like stain solution (GelCode Blue Stain Reagent; Thermo Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) and imaged with a Fluor Chem Q Multi Image III (Alpha Innotech Co., San Leandro, CA, USA) for densitometric analysis of the fragments.

2.3.1.1. Densitometric analysis of reovirus outer-capsid proteins

Stained gels containing reovirus digested proteins were exposed to an imaging surface and photographed. The integrated measure of the intensity and size of each band (i.e. absolute intensity) was carried out from Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe Systems Inc., San Jose, CA, USA). Core protein λ was used as a standard control to compare the amount of $\sigma 3$ left during protease treatment. For each lane, mean densities were determined for bands corresponding to the reovirus λ and $\sigma 3$ proteins. The ratio was calculated by dividing the absolute intensities of bands corresponding to $\sigma 3$ by those corresponding to λ . Statistics were calculated using GraphPad InStat 3.05 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) and means were plotted by SigmaPlot 10.0 (Systat Software Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

2.4. Functional Analysis

Purified reovirus virions at a concentration of 1×10^{13} particles/ml in D-buffer were treated by CHT either at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (for transitional particles) or 200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (for ISVPs) at

32°C (for various times) or at 37°C (for one hour), respectively. Samples were then chilled on ice and the reactions were further stopped by the addition of 5mM PMSF. Samples were kept on ice until they were used for infection. Monolayers of L cells (5×10^5) in 24-well plates (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) were preincubated for 1 hour at 37°C in medium supplemented with selected antiviral drugs. The medium was removed, and cells were adsorbed with different reoviral particles (e.g. intact virion, virus-to-ISVP transitional particles, and ISVPs) at a MOI of 2 PFU/cell in $1 \times$ PBS. After one hour incubation at room temperature, the inoculum was aspirated and 0.5 ml of fresh medium containing an appropriate concentration of acidification inhibitors, or cysteine protease inhibitor, or clathrin-, or caveolae-mediated endocytosis inhibitors, was added to the wells. After incubation at 37°C for 24 hours, cells were frozen and thawed twice, then subjected to sonication at mid-range for 10 seconds (Vibra-Cell sonicator; Sonics & Materials Inc., Danbury, CT, USA). Viral titers in cell lysates were consequently determined via plaque assay. Each infected monolayer (from the 24-well plate) was twice titrated. Statistics of at least three independent experiments were calculated using GraphPad InStat 3.05 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). The significance of group bars was verified by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test. Means and error bars were plotted by SigmaPlot 10.0 (Systat Software Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

2.4.1. Pharmacological Inhibitors

To test whether the particles produced by the *in vitro* proteolysis were as infectious as intact virions, a series of entry blocker drugs were selected depending upon their targets and effects inside the cells. Ammonium chloride (NH_4Cl) and chloroquine

(Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA) are weak bases which inhibit the activity of acid-dependant proteases and the virus release from endosome. E-64 (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA, USA) is an irreversible and highly selective cysteine protease blocker. It stops the proteolysis reaction and virus is consequently paralyzed within lysosome. The administration of chlorpromazine and methyl- β -cyclodextrin (M β CD; Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA) causes an inhibitory effect over the cell membrane. The first inhibits clathrin-mediated-endocytosis and the second blocks caveolae-mediated-endocytosis. As a treatment result, the virus uptake into L929 cells is compromised. All stocks were initially prepared by dissolving the proper amount of drug in distilled water. The greatest concentration of inhibitor was chosen regarding its effect on both virus entry and cell viability. To test that, NH₄Cl (10 mM, 20 mM, and 40 mM), chloroquine (50 μ M, 100 μ M, 150 μ M and 200 μ M), E-64 (200 μ M), chlorpromazine (5 μ g/ml, 7.5 μ g/ml, 10 μ g/ml, 12.5 μ g/ml, 15 μ g/ml, 20 μ g/ml), and M β CD (2.5 mM, 3.5 mM, 5 mM, 6 mM, 7 mM, 8 mM) were freshly prepared from stocks and the final dosages were administrated to cells according to section 2.4. As a control, cells were also mock treated with only MEM for 1 hour at 37°C. All drug solutions were maintained at room temperature, except for E-64 and M β CD, which were stored at -20°C.

2.5. Cell Viability

Monolayers treated with pharmacological inhibitors were microscopically inspected to determine the overall status of the cells post-treatment. L cells (5×10^5) in 24-well plates (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA) were incubated for 1 hour at 37°C with MEM only or supplemented to contain 20 mM NH₄Cl, or 100 μ M chloroquine, or 200 μ M E-

64, or 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ chlorpromazine, or 5 mM M β CD. Following incubation time, the medium was removed and a fresh dose of each treatment was administered to the cells. After leaving the plates at 37°C in 5% CO₂ atmosphere for 24 hours, the medium was collected from the wells to remove cells undergoing CPE and cells that were still on the monolayer were harvested by low concentration of trypsin - EDTA treatment. The apparently viable cells were microscopically counted using a haemocytometer and the final result was taken by comparing the percentage of cells counted on the control well with those counted on the drug-treated wells. Statistics were calculated using GraphPad InStat 3.05 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) and the standard error of means were plotted by SigmaPlot 10.0 (Systat Software Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

2.6. Fluorescence Analysis

Fluorescence analysis of intact and digested particles was performed by labelling amino groups (i.e. arginine and lysine) of virions with Alexa Fluor 488 carboxylic acid, succinimidyl ester (Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, OR, USA). The staining compound was first dissolved in N,N-dimethylformamide (Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA) to a final stock concentration of 15.54 mM and stored at -20°C until use. Purified virions (1×10^{13} particles/ml) were diluted into 0.05 M sodium bicarbonate (Sigma-Aldrich Co., Saint Louis, MO, USA), pH 8.5, and incubated with 100 μM Alexa Fluor 488. Incubation was held in the dark and with continuous stirring for 90 minutes at room temperature. After staining, particles were dialyzed against 1000 ml of PBS for 4×30 minutes and later transferred to appropriate vessels. Labelled virions at $1 \times 10^{13}/\text{ml}$ were then placed on ice and subjected to a digestion assay according to the protocol described

in section 2.2.5.1. Titration assay was performed as described in section 2.2.2. to test the infectivity of the labelled virus.

2.6.1. Anti-reovirus monoclonal antibody

The 4F2 reovirus-specific monoclonal antibody (mAb) was selected based on previous findings related to recognition of the virus $\sigma 3$ protein by Western-blot. Nonetheless, the same study has reported that 4F2 mAb bound T3D extensively better than T1L, which imply that 4F2 is a $\sigma 3$ -T3D-specific mAb (Virgin et al, 1991). Despite that, this antibody was applied to this research due to the lack of options to test T1L $\sigma 3$ recognition by Western-Blot. However, in this study 4F2 behaved as T1L- $\mu 1$ -specific. Spleen cells from mice immunized against T1L were previously harvested and the fused 4F2 hybridoma cells were cryopreserved at -130°C as laboratory's stocks. After thawing the cells at 37°C , hybridomas were transferred to a conical tube containing 10 ml of warm Gibco RPMI 1640 medium (Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, OR, USA) plus 10% FCS. The tube was centrifuged at $340 \times g$ for 5 minutes (IEC Centra GP8 Centrifuge; Thermo Electron Co., Milford, MA, USA) to remove any remaining dimethyl sulfoxide used in cryopreservation. Cells were resuspended in 10 ml of fresh completed medium and the total volume was divided into two T25 flasks (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA). These were then transferred to a 37°C incubator with 5% CO_2 in air. On the recovering days, cells were inspected, fed, and split (if necessary) to maintain the best growth at $2 \times 10^5 - 7 \times 10^5$ viable cells/ml. After a week of incubation the cultures growing in serum supplemented medium were transferred to a pre-warmed (37°C) serum-free medium (Gibco Hybridoma-SFM; Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, OR, USA), placed into $4 \times$

T225 flasks (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA), and incubated at 37°C with 5% CO₂ atmosphere. Conditions to encourage the release of 4F2 antibodies from the hybridoma cells were established for two weeks, when no media was replaced and the cell death therefore promoted. To collect antibodies, dead cells were separated from the supernatant by centrifugation at 830 × g for 2 minutes (IEC Centra GP8 Centrifuge; Thermo Electron Co., Milford, MA, USA). The supernatant was collected, filtered through a 0.22 µm stericup filter unit (Millipore Co., Billerica, MA, USA), and purified slowly through a protein G sepharose 4 fast flow column (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Co., Piscataway, NJ, USA). After adsorbing antibodies overnight at 4°C, the column was rinsed five times with PBS to eliminate nonspecific proteins. The antibodies were finally eluted by 0.1 M Glycine-HCl, pH 2.8, in twelve tubes containing 100 µl of 1M Tris, pH 8.8. The fractions which provided the highest absorbance were pooled and subjected to dialysis for 2 × 24 hours against 4 liters of PBS. After dialysis, antibodies were transferred to a conical tube and filter-sterilized by a 0.22 µm filter connected to a syringe. Antibodies were collected in appropriate vessels and stored at 4°C or frozen with 50% glycerol at -80°C. To remove the remaining glycine, beads were submitted to a final wash with PBS and stored with 0.02% sodium azide in PBS at 4°C. The concentration of 4F2 monoclonal antibodies was finally determined by protein assay via BSA standard curve.

2.6.2. SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting

Samples which were previously labelled with Alexa Fluor 488 were subjected to proteolysis with either 10 µg/ml or 200 µg/ml of CHT to promote the formation of virion-to-ISVP transition particles or ISVPs, respectively. Every product of digestion as well as

intact virions were processed in 5 – 15% gradient gels to confirm particle formation. Proteins were diluted as described in section 2.3.1. but resolved by SDS-PAGE in the dark. Gel was disconnected from the power supply (PowerPac 200, Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) after resolving for approximately 1½ hour at a current of 30 mA. Alexa-labelled proteins were immediately excited (475 nm peak wavelength) and photographed by a fluorescence imager (Fluor Chem Q Multi Image III; Alpha Innotech Co., San Leandro, CA, USA). Gels were subsequently stained with GelCode Blue Stain Reagent (Thermo Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) and photographed under trans white light to observe all proteins in gel. For immunoblots, protein samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE and transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membrane at 100 V for 1 hour (Bio-Rad transblot cell; Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) at 4°C in the presence of transfer buffer (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine, 20% methanol [pH 8.3]). The membrane was incubated overnight with the reovirus T1L- μ 1-specific monoclonal antibody (4F2; at final concentration of 10 μ g/ml) after blocking it for 2 hours at room temperature. The antibody detection was achieved by using 1:200 goat anti-mouse IgG conjugated to horseradish peroxidase. Finally, the immune complexes were revealed by the enhanced chemiluminescence system (ECL; GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Co., Piscataway, NJ, USA) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.

2.6.3. Flow Cytometry and Fluorescence Focus Assay

All samples which were previously submitted to CHT treatment were analysed by flow cytometry not only to assess the digestion of single particles but also to unveil the distribution of proteins and particles along the *in vitro* proteolysis pathway. Virions,

virion-to-ISVP transition, and ISVP particles were incubated with a monoclonal antibody to the type 1 μ 1 protein, 4F2, in PBS containing 1.5% BSA and 0.05% Tween-20 (Acros Organics, Geel, Belgium). The reactions were carried out in the dark with continuous rocking overnight at 4°C. On the following day, the polycarbonate tubes were centrifuged in a pre-chilled TLA 100.3 rotor at 30,000 rpm ($48,600 \times g$) for 30 minutes at 4°C (Optima-Max ultracentrifuge; Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA). Supernatants were carefully aspirated and the pellets were resuspended in fresh PBS. To remove the unbound antibodies, samples were subsequently washed by centrifugation using the same conditions as before. After removing the supernatant, pellets were resuspended in a 1:100 dilution of Alexa Fluor 405 goat anti-mouse IgG antibody (Molecular Probes Inc., Eugene, OR, USA) in PBS. The secondary antibody was incubated with a constant and gentle spinning in the dark for 1 hour at room temperature. After incubation time, samples were pelleted and subsequently washed with PBS to remove any unbound antibody. The remaining complexes formed by Alexa Fluor 488 labelled virus, 4F2 monoclonal antibody, and Alexa Fluor 405 goat anti-mouse IgG antibody, were finally detected via flow cytometry. At least 10,000 events were acquired per sample on a LSRII flow cytometer (Becton Dickinson & Co., Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and analysed with the FACSDiva software (version 6.1.2; Becton Dickinson & Co., Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA). Green fluorescent polystyrene microspheres (0.088 μ m in diameter; Thermo Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA) were acquired separately as a reference to the samples. For fluorescence focus assay, the same protocol described above was adopted. The difference was that following the incubation with secondary anti-mouse antibody, samples were centrifuged and slightly resuspended in PBS to maintain pellets still

detectable for fluorescence microscopy. Samples were transferred to an 18-well slide, imaged by a laser inverted microscope (Axio Observer Z1; Carl Zeiss MicroImaging GmbH, Jena, Germany) and processed with the AxioVision software (version 4.8.1).

3. RESULTS

3.1. Virion proteolysis generates ISVPs in the presence of α -chymotrypsin.

Under normal conditions, ISVPs differ from virions in numerous biochemical characteristics, including the removal of $\sigma 3$, the cleavage of $\mu 1/\mu 1C$ into fragments δ and ϕ , and the apparent modification in $\sigma 1$ conformation (Dryden et al, 1993). To detect any difference in the infectivity of virions or ISVPs, the *in vitro* production of both is essential. Thus, virus stock T1L was amplified and purified as described in sections 2.2.3 and 2.2.4 in Materials and Methods (M&M) to generate intact full virions. α -chymotrypsin was diluted in D-buffer to 500 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ as stock, and purified virions to 1×10^{13} particles per ml in PBS. Intact virus particles were then submitted to proteolysis for 1 hour at 37°C with 200 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of enzyme to generate ISVPs as per standard procedures (Vigin et al, 1991; Jané-Valbuena et al, 1999; section 2.2.5.2 in M&M). After 1 hour, reactions were quenched by submersion of tubes in an ice water bath followed by the addition of 5 mM final concentration of PMSF. About 2.5×10^{11} particles were then taken from each digested tube and loaded in the stacking gel for SDS-PAGE analysis. This demonstrated a clear and expected difference in protein composition between the virion and the ISVP band (Figure 4). As noted, outer capsid $\sigma 3$ has been completely cleaved after one hour of digestion and $\mu 1/\mu 1C$ protein was cleaved in a more limited fashion to yield the stable fragments $\mu 1\delta/\delta$ (63/59 kDa; N-terminal portion of $\mu 1/\mu 1C$) and ϕ (13 kDa; C-terminal portion of $\mu 1/\mu 1C$, not resolved by the dye) (Figure 4). As expected, the T1L $\sigma 1$ protein and other proteins associated with the core were not cleaved by the treatment with CHT. These initial results confirm numerous prior observations

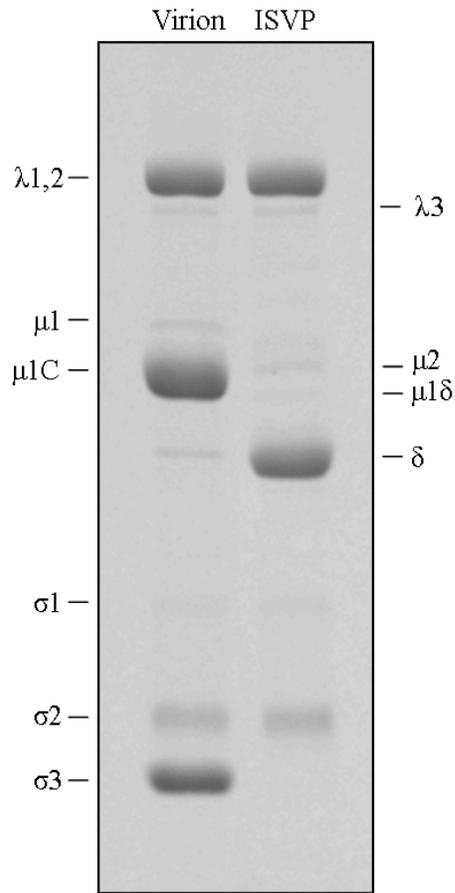


Figure 4. Virion proteolysis generates ISVP in the presence of α -chymotrypsin. Purified T1L virions (1×10^{13} particles/ml) were treated with 200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ of CHT enzyme for 1 hour at 37°C. Digestion was quenched by cooling the samples in an ice water bath followed by the addition of PMSF. Approximately 2.5×10^{11} generated particles were resolved in a 5 – 15% gradient polyacrylamide gel for 1½ hour at 30 mA of constant current. Gel was stained by a coomassie-like stain solution and the viral proteins were then imaged. A reference lane was loaded with untreated virions (virion).

regarding ISVP production in the presence of α -chymotrypsin (Joklik, 1972; Borsa et al, 1973; Chandran & Nibert, 1998; Hadžisejdić et al, 2006; Schiff et al, 2007).

3.2. ISVPs retain infectivity in the presence of viral entry blockers.

Another property in which virions differ from ISVPs is that ISVPs are able to bypass the activity of entry blockers such as NH_4Cl and E-64, and generate progeny while virions can not (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Chandran & Nibert, 1998; Ebert et al, 2001). The evidence indicates that these agents block the infectivity of virions by inhibiting cleavage of outer capsid proteins. Conversely, these agents have no effect against the infectivity of ISVPs since cleavage of outer capsid proteins have already occurred extracellularly. The fact that $\sigma 3$ protein needs to be cleaved as a first step to produce infection and that viral entry inhibitors may stop this reaction, correlates with the sensitivity of virions to these compounds (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Nibert et al, 1991a). To determine whether ISVPs produced in this study would be useful for testing the mechanism of viral entry, the infectivity of virions and ISVPs in the presence or absence of different concentrations of blockers were assessed. The concentration that produced the largest difference between virion and ISVP plaque titers was then considered optimal to test subsequent samples in this study. The final concentrations selected as standards for each drug were therefore: 20 mM NH_4Cl , 100 μM chloroquine, 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ chlorpromazine, 5 mM M β CD, and 200 μM E-64 (Figure 5A-E). As expected, the results confirmed the effects of all drugs tested on infections by virions or ISVPs, and also demonstrated that in opposition to the first, the latter retain full infectivity in presence of these pharmacological compounds. For instance, a $\geq 2 \log_{10}$ difference in titer was

demonstrated between the virion and ISVP after treatment with the acidification inhibitors NH_4Cl (20 mM) or chloroquine (100 μM) (Figure 5A-B). In the presence of endocytosis inhibitors, a $\geq 1.5 \log_{10}$ difference in titer was described between virion and ISVP treated with chlorpromazine (10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) or M β CD (5 mM). However, the highest difference between virion and ISVP titers after treatment was verified with the protease inhibitor E-64 (200 μM), which showed a minimum of 3 \log_{10} difference in titer from the intact to the digested particle (Figure 5E). The considerable difference in titer presented by virion and ISVP was expected and demonstrated that virions are blocked by inhibitory drugs whereas ISVP remains fully infectious, presumably by selecting another pathway for entry. Since the endocytosis pathway is not needed, ISVP could bypass the cell membrane and release the transcriptionally activated core particle within cell cytoplasm for genome transcription, translation and the consequent generation of progeny.

3.3. Certain biochemical inhibitors of reovirus entry are toxic to murine cells.

Since several viruses are dependent on the cell machinery to produce a successful infection, a non-toxic environment with good cell condition is therefore essential to these microorganisms. Like hormones, proteins, lipoproteins and toxins, many non-enveloped viruses such as reovirus first access the cell and traffic to its interior via a process known as endocytosis (Maratos-Flier et al, 1986; Nagafuku et al, 2003). For that reason the endocytosis pathway has been chosen as favourite targets for antiviral agents (Patick & Potts, 1998; Nagafuku et al, 2003). In this study, the cytopathic effects of each antiviral drug were first assessed to determine whether the cell condition would affect the infectivity of reovirus. The chosen compounds, 20 mM NH_4Cl , or 100 μM chloroquine,

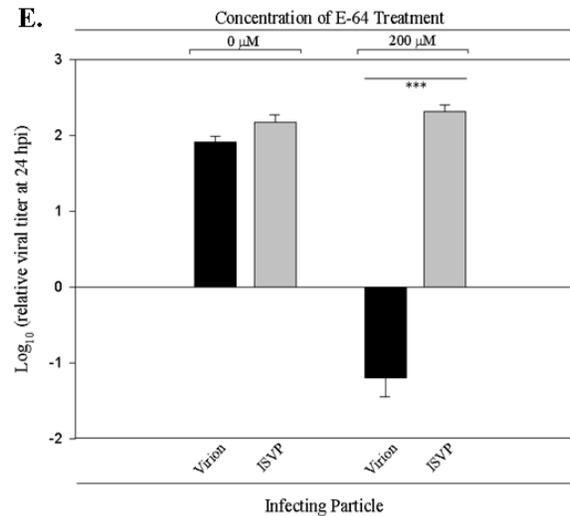
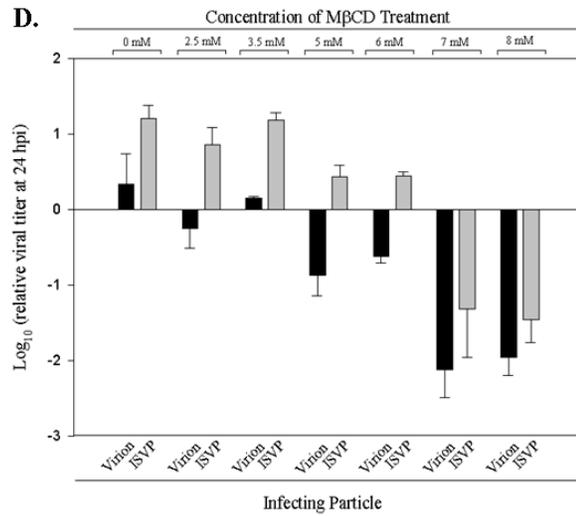
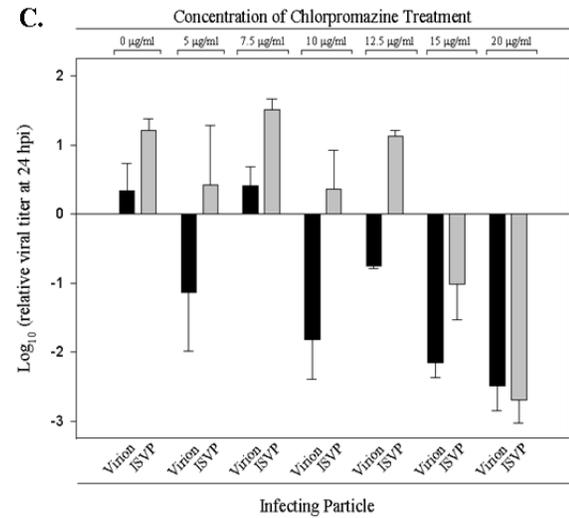
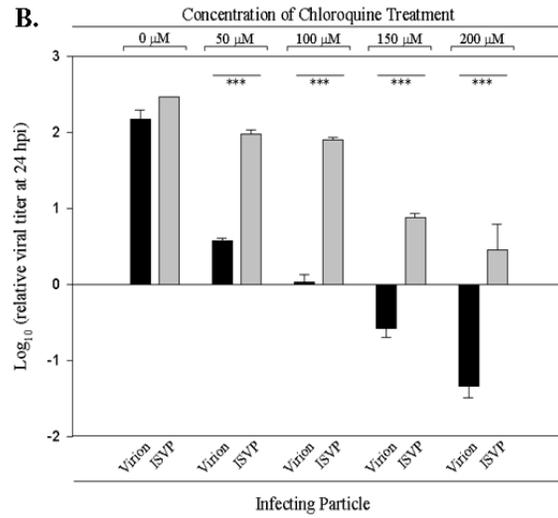
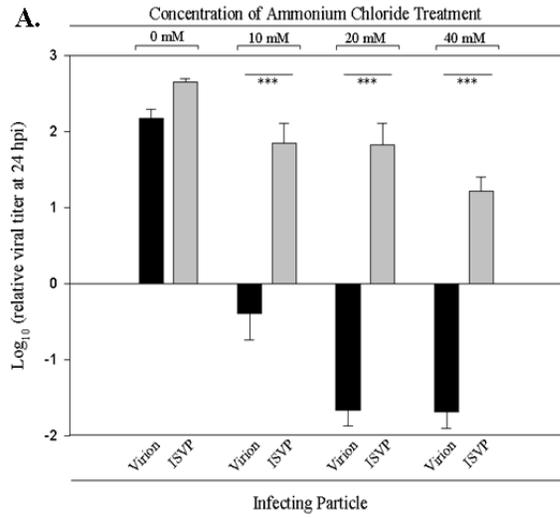


Figure 5. Infectivity of T1L virions and ISVPs in the absence and presence of viral entry blockers. A – E. Purified T1L virions and ISVPs were used to infect L929 cells at a MOI of 2 PFU/cell in the absence or presence of different concentrations of virus inhibitors such as the acidification inhibitors, ammonium chloride (A) and chloroquine (B); the clathrin-mediated endocytosis inhibitor, chlorpromazine (C); the caveolae-mediated endocytosis inhibitor, M β CD (D); and the cysteine protease inhibitor, E-64 (E). E-64 was tested at 200 μ M in accordance to the concentration applied in comparable studies. Samples were harvested at 24 hours postinfection (hpi), and titers were determined via plaque assay. Each bar represents the mean log₁₀ PFU/ml derived from at least three independent experiments. Data expressed was relative to starting infectious material. Error bars indicate the standard error of the means (SEM). *** = P < 0.001 was considered an extremely significant difference, as determined by Tukey's test.

or 10 µg/ml chlorpromazine, or 5 mM MβCD, or 200 µM E-64, were incubated with L cells at 37°C as for infection procedures, however, without the presence of virus particles in the growth medium. After 24 hours of incubation, cell's morphologies were visualized in microscope and only the apparently viable cells were counted. The results showed that NH₄Cl and E-64 were the least cytopathic agents used in this study. These drugs caused no change in the appearance or rate of growth of the subconfluent cultures and cells remained about 100% viable. In contrast, the chosen concentrations of chlorpromazine, chloroquine and MβCD caused different levels of cytotoxicity; viable cells were reduced to less than 50% by chloroquine and chlorpromazine; and even less (20%) by MβCD treatment (Figure 6). Although we used the latter compound at a concentration lower than what was used in previous studies (Rodal et al, 1999; Sieczkarski et al, 2002; Hadžisejdić, 2005), MβCD caused a profound change in the morphology of the cells. Thus, this toxic effect might be related to the amount of virus titer recovered by plaque assay after infecting cells in the presence of the last three cytotoxic drugs (Figure 5).

3.4. Sodium tetradecyl sulphate combined with α-chymotrypsin segregates cleavage of reovirus outer proteins σ3 and μ1.

Previous studies have shown the importance of outer protein cleavage σ3 and μ1 during reovirus infection. Virions treated with trypsin or α-chymotrypsin have been shown to undergo proteolysis that rapidly generates ISVPs; a more infectious particle (Joklik, 1972; Coombs, 1998). ISVPs are characterized by the absence of σ3 and cleavage of μ1 into smaller fragments (δ/φ). For that reason, it was first thought that infectivity of ISVPs was probably related to the cleavage of μ1. However, Chandran and

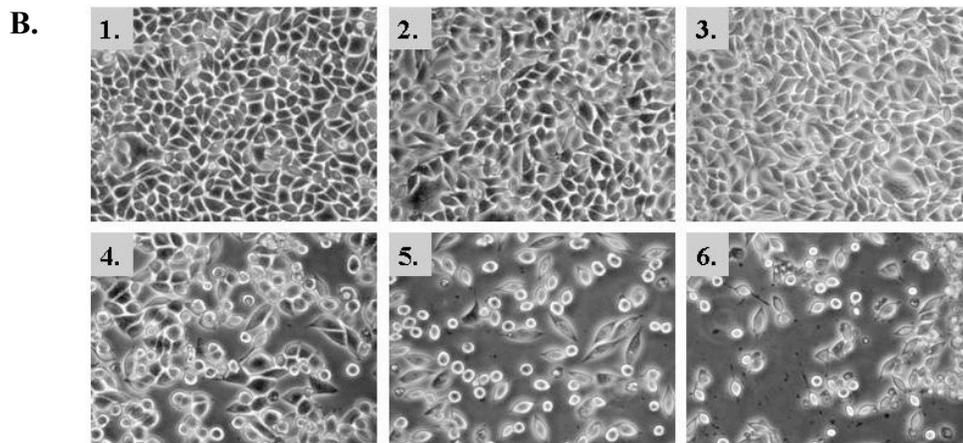
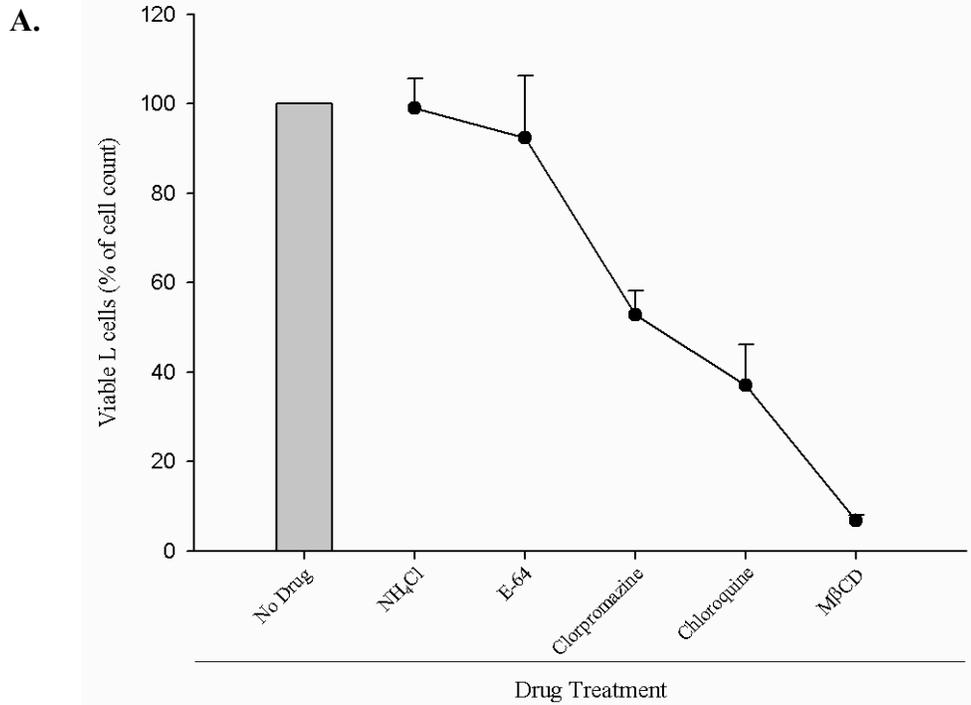


Figure 6. Cytotoxic effect of antiviral drugs on L929 cells after 24 h incubation. A. Monolayers of L929 cells were treated for 1 hour with the selected antiviral drugs: NH₄Cl (20 mM), E-64 (200 μM), chlorpromazine (10 μg/ml), chloroquine (100 μM), and MβCD (5mM). After 1 h, fresh medium supplemented with drugs was replaced and incubated at 37°C for additional 24 h. Cell's morphologies were microscopically counted to identify the percentage of viable cells after treatments. Effect of each drug concentration is shown as average of cell viability collected from three independent experiments. Error bars indicate the standard error of the means. **B.** Cytopathic effect of viral entry blockers on established L929 cells at 24 h post incubation. Cell monolayers were treated as described in A with: NH₄Cl (2), E-64 (3), chlorpromazine (4), chloroquine (5), MβCD (6), or left untreated (1). Photomicrographs (100× magnification) were taken at 24 h post incubation in the presence of these drugs.

Nibert (1998) have shown that cleavage of $\mu 1/\mu 1C$ is dispensable for reovirus entry after testing the protein digestion in the presence of sodium tetradecyl sulphate ($14SO_4$), which protects the penetration protein from cleavage (Chandran & Nibert, 1998). Thereafter, Hadžisejdić (2006) confirmed this protection effect and described that in the presence of $14SO_4$, once $\sigma 3$ has been removed, $\mu 1$ digestion was more rapid and complete. Due to the significance of proteolysis in reovirus infection, this study was designed to understand the cleavage consequence of both $\sigma 3$ and $\mu 1$ prior to ISVP formation (i.e. the transition pathway). In order to investigate this, it was important to separate $\sigma 3$ digestion from δ generation and $\mu 1/\mu 1C$ proteolysis. Consequently, this would make it possible to demonstrate if $\sigma 3$ is a determinant in reovirus infection. To test this, purified virions were digested from between seconds to minutes to establish *in vitro* what here is called the “transition pathway”. Samples resolved by SDS-PAGE showed that while $\sigma 3$ was progressively removed, there was no detectable $\mu 1/\mu 1C$ cleavage until 3 – 5 minutes of treatment with 1mM of $14SO_4$ plus 10 $\mu g/ml$ of CHT (Figure 7A). However, digestion of $\mu 1$ happened much faster after most of its “protective” $\sigma 3$ has been cleaved (note; there is still some $\sigma 3$ left after 7 – 10 minutes but no δ formation in the time point digestion). This result is consistent with and confirms previous results described in Coomb’s group. Also, it has demonstrated that digestion of $\sigma 3$ can be segregated from $\mu 1$ digestion (Figure 7A) (Mendez et al, 2003; Hadžisejdić et al, 2006).

3.5. Stoichiometry reveals the percentage of $\sigma 3$ still present at moment of $\mu 1$ cleavage.

Densities of $\sigma 3$ and λ protein bands were quantified after electrophoretic analysis of reoviral particles generated in the presence of CHT and $14SO_4$. Core protein λ was used

as a standard to compare the amount of $\sigma 3$ left during protease treatment. The ratio $\sigma 3/\lambda$ was determined for each lane by measuring the mean densities of both proteins individually. Analysis of the ratio demonstrated that about 25% of $\sigma 3$ is still present at 5 – 7 minutes of digestion (Figure 7B). Compared with the previous section, 7 minutes was exactly when $\mu 1$ protein started to be progressively removed (compare with $\mu 1$ band at 10 minutes). The fact that about 75% of $\sigma 3$ has been cleaved before CHT exerted a substantial effect on the $\mu 1$ protein might have some consequence on virus' infectivity. Since outer capsid proteins are believed to play a role in the early steps of virus infection, treating the particles generated by this method with antiviral agents may provide more information about the functionality of $\sigma 3$ in particle's infectivity.

3.6. Detergent plus protease treatment generated a particle that has incomplete $\sigma 3$ digestion but bypasses entry blockers like ISVPs.

Entry of reovirus into cells has been related to alterations in the virus outer capsid layer, which generates a more infectious particle called ISVP (Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). A protocol that generates particles with $\sigma 3$ and $\mu 1$ still present in the virus structure (verified under SDS-PAGE conditions) was tested in the present study. Infectivity of these particles was determined in the presence or absence of entry inhibitors to determine whether or not the presence of intact $\sigma 3$ is necessary for viral entry. To test this, purified virions were digested with a low concentration of CHT in the presence of $14SO_4$ from seconds to minutes at $32^\circ C$. ISVPs were also generated, but using a higher concentration of CHT, in the absence of $14SO_4$, and for 1 h at $37^\circ C$. An aliquot of each digested tube was taken for SDS-PAGE structural analysis and the remainder was used for infectivity

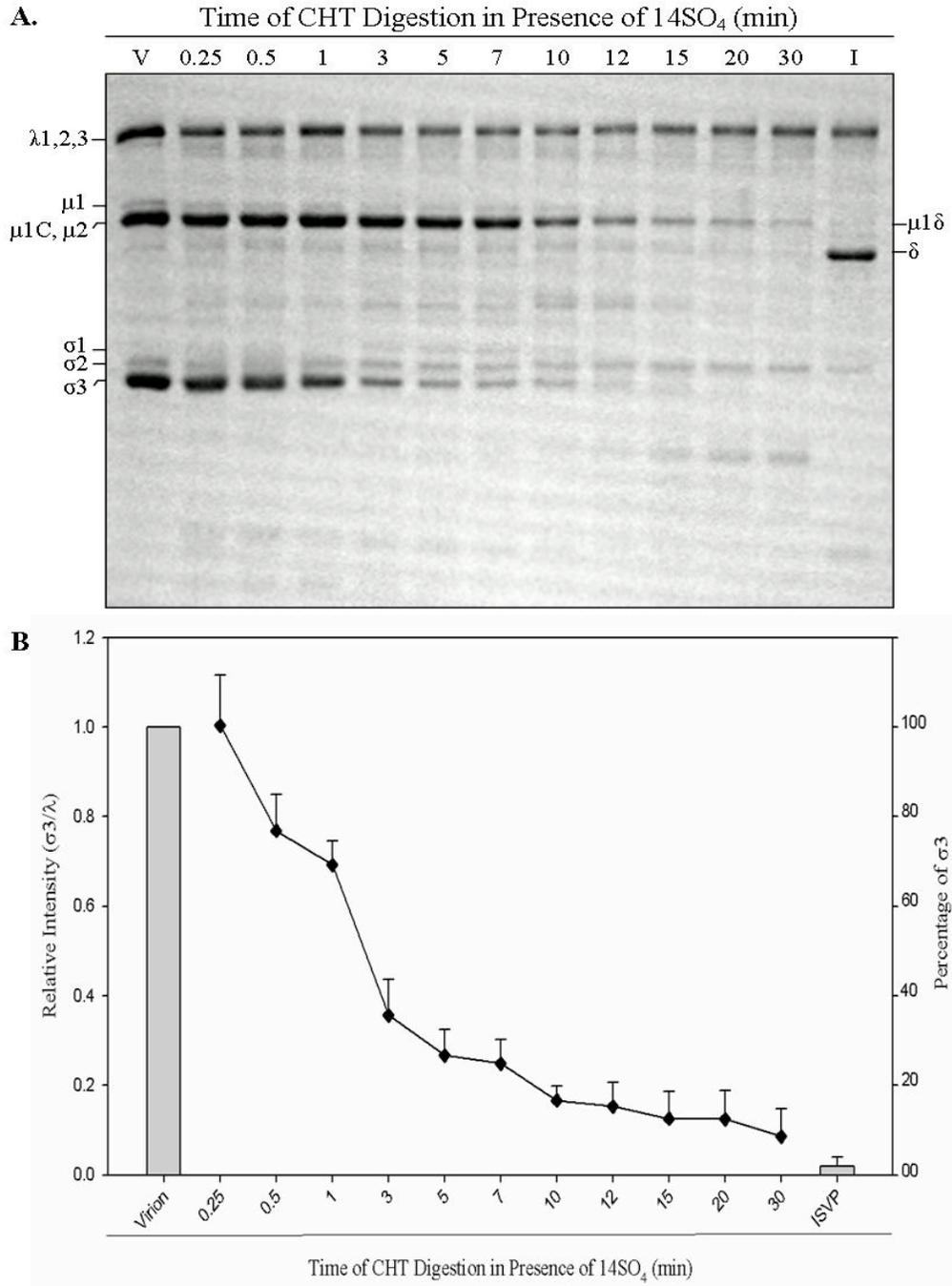


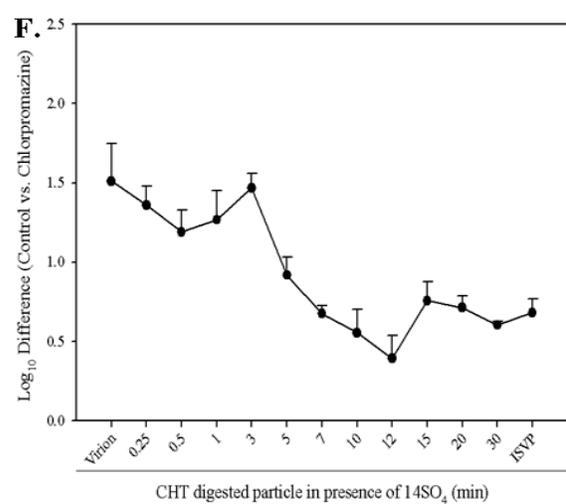
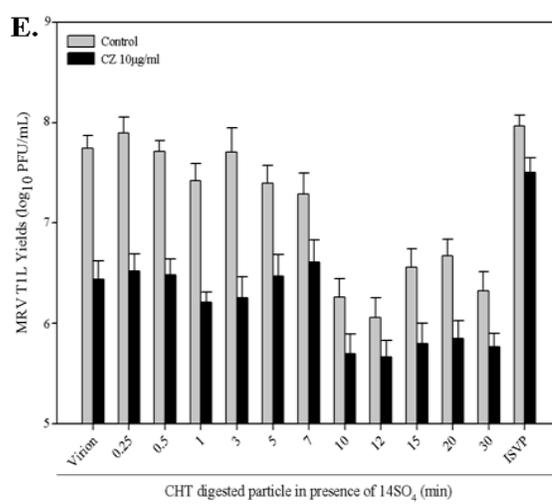
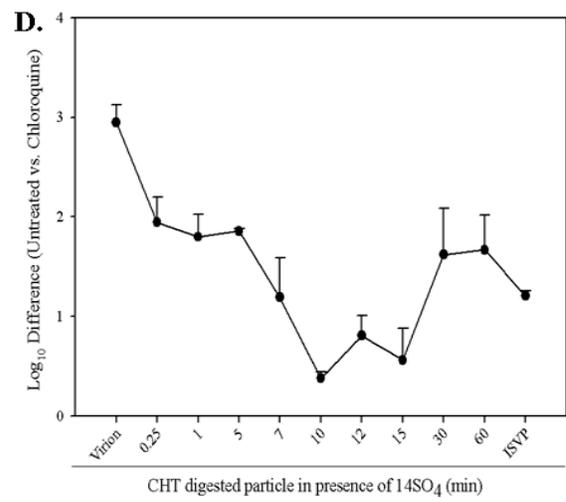
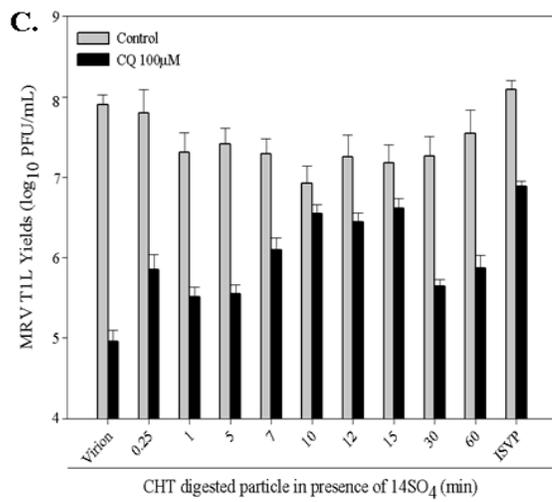
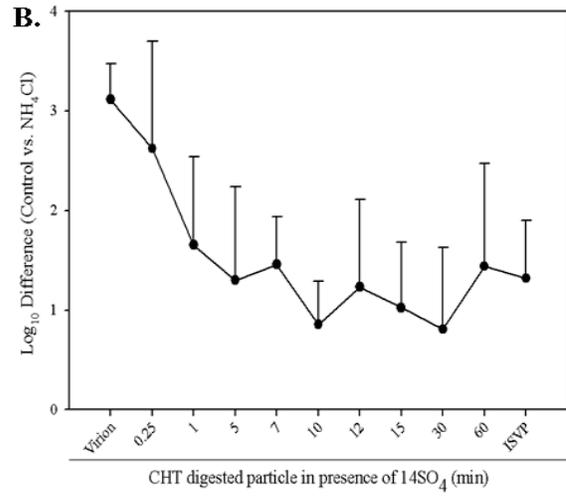
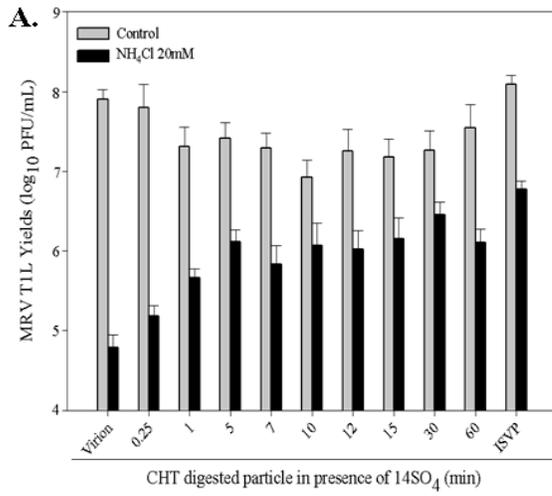
Figure 7. Cleavage of outer proteins $\sigma 3$ and $\mu 1$ is demonstrated by stoichiometry. A. Detergent 14SO_4 was combined with CHT to generate particles along the transition pathway and segregate cleavage of proteins $\sigma 3$ and $\mu 1$, concomitantly. **B.** Stoichiometry reveals that approximately 75% of $\sigma 3$ needs to be removed from the outer capsid of virions to allow $\mu 1$ exposure and proteolysis with CHT. Each time point represented in B illustrates means from three independent experiments. Error bars indicate the standard error of the means.

analyses. L929 cells were pre-treated for 1 hour in the presence or absence of 20 mM NH_4Cl (acidification inhibitor), 100 μM chloroquine (acidification inhibitor), 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ chlorpromazine (clathrin-mediated endocytosis inhibitor), 5 mM M β CD (caveolae-mediated endocytosis inhibitor), and 200 μM E-64 (cysteine protease inhibitor). Subsequently, cells were infected with purified undigested virions, various 14SO_4^- digested particles, and ISVPs at a MOI of 2 PFU/cell. After 1 hour of adsorption medium supplemented with appropriate drugs was replaced and plates were incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. The amount of progeny virion production was afterwards determined by plaque assay. SDS-PAGE analysis showed that particles digested for less than five minutes contained considerable amounts of $\sigma 3$ protein (Figure 7); however, when placed in the presence of entry blockers (NH_4Cl , chloroquine, chlorpromazine, M β CD, or E-64), particles behaved essentially like virions: progeny was inhibited (Figure 8). Particles digested for five-to-seven minutes still contained small amounts of $\sigma 3$ (Figure 7); however, their infectivity resembled authentic ISVPs: progeny production was not inhibited by any chosen inhibitor (Figure 8). For instance, in the presence of acidification inhibitors (NH_4Cl and chloroquine), ISVP has an infectivity that was 100-fold higher than virions treated under the same conditions. Also, particles in the transition pathway achieved by digestion of intact virions had an infectivity that was at least 10-fold higher than virions, suggesting that these particles contain some structural modification that converts them into a more infectious particle, like ISVPs. Similarly, when treated with a cysteine protease inhibitor (E-64), ISVPs and particles digested for about 5 to 7 minutes had an increase of 1.5 \log_{10} in titer in comparison to intact virions. Even in harsh cell condition due to drug toxicity, endocytosis-mediated inhibitors (chlorpromazine and

M β CD) have demonstrated that, with a 10-fold increase in titer, ISVP is in fact more infectious than intact virions. At same drug treatment, particles in the transition pathway had about a half log₁₀ change in titer when compared to intact virions. The infectivity of both ISVP and particles in the presence of endocytosis blocker agents was lower than the infectivity of samples treated with other antiviral agents. The fact that chlorpromazine and M β CD are highly toxic to L cells in comparison to other chosen inhibitors (e.g. NH₄Cl and E-64) may explain the difference in titer results, which is most likely caused by the lack of cell viability. In general, when the titers of treated vs. untreated particles were compared within all drug trials, particles displayed an infectivity that was comparable to ISVPs mostly after 7 minutes of digestion (Figure 8H). These results indicate that it is not the cleavage of μ 1, but rather the proteolytic digestion σ 3, that is a crucial factor in particle internalization (see gel band for 7 minutes in Figure 7A and compare its infectivity in Figure 8). Also, these results support that not all σ 3 needs to be proteolytically digested for the particle to behave as ISVPs. The fact that the intermediate particles are more infectious than virions may describe some structural similarity with ISVP forms. Nevertheless, the detailed composition of these populations in the transition pathway remains to be explained. Therefore, a better understanding of both transitional particles and ISVPs would clarify doubts regarding the real identity of particles present during cell entry.

3.7. Fluorescence techniques confirmed CHT proteolysis on the reovirus labelled particles.

One of the questions raised about the digestion effect of CHT on the reovirus outer



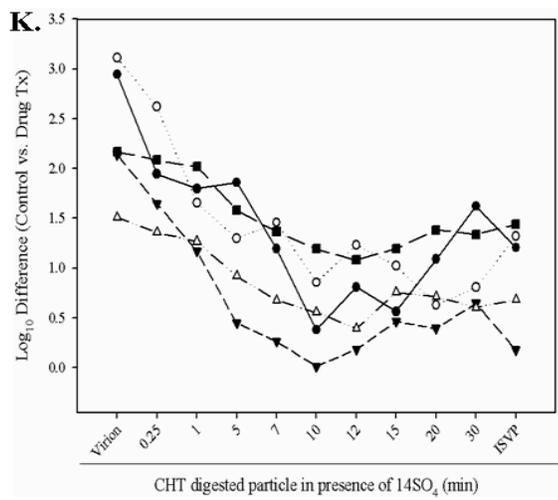
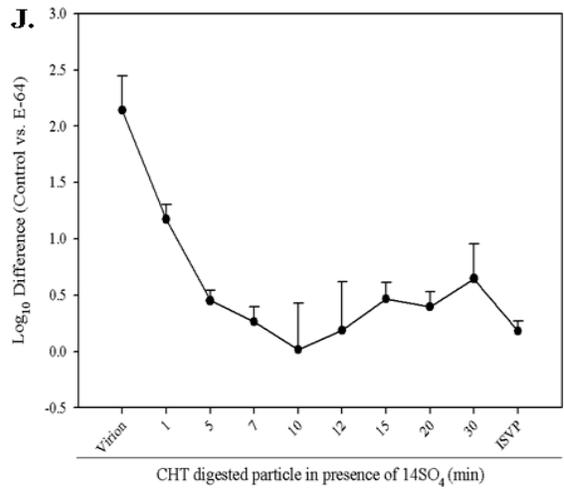
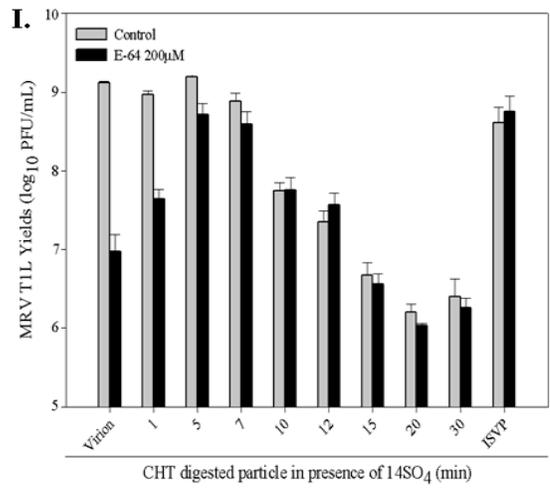
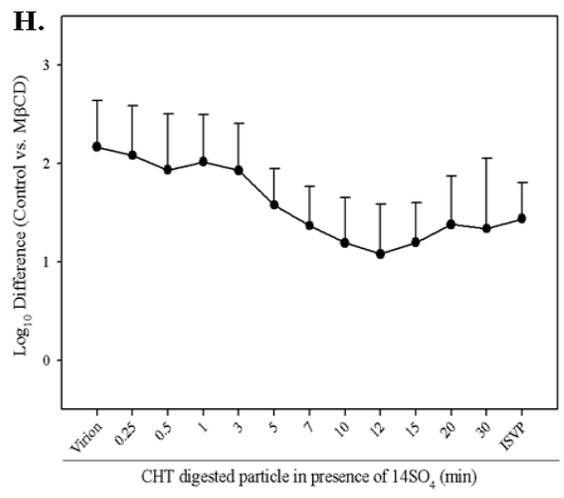
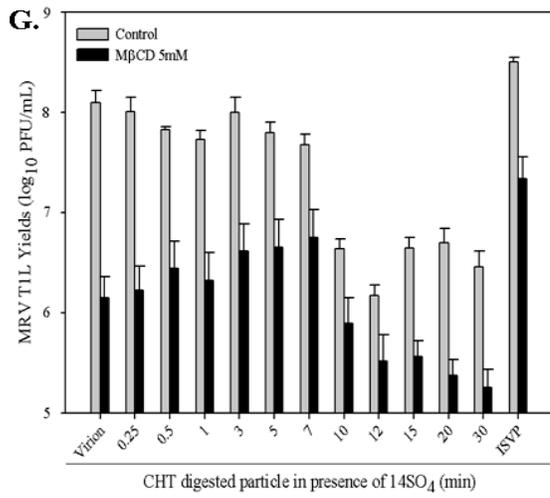


Figure 8. Infectivity of digested particles in the presence of viral entry blockers. Purified T1L virions were digested for specified periods of time with 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ CHT in the presence of 1 mM H_2SO_4 . Undigested virions, digested particles and ISVPs were tested in the presence and absence (control) of viral inhibitors. After 24 h of viral growth, titers were determined as PFU/ml. The \log_{10} difference in titer described by each treated vs. untreated particle was subsequently plotted. **A-B.** Infectivity and \log_{10} difference in titer of particle growth in the presence of 20 mM NH_4Cl . **C-D.** Infectivity and \log_{10} difference in titer of particle growth in the presence of 100 μM chloroquine (CQ). **E-F.** Infectivity and \log_{10} difference in titer of particle growth in the presence of 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ chlorpromazine (CZ). **G-H.** Infectivity and \log_{10} difference in titer of particle growth in the presence of 5 mM M β CD. **I-J.** Infectivity and \log_{10} difference in titer of particle growth in the presence of 200 μM E-64. **K.** Combined \log_{10} difference in titer of all pharmacological agents to describe the particle-to-ISVP similarity in growth for panels B (\circ), D (\bullet), F (\triangle), H (\blacksquare), and J (\blacktriangledown). Error bars in A-J indicate the standard error of the means collected from at least three independent experiments.

proteins is related to the types of particles formed by digestion. There is also a possibility that some ISVPs have been formed during the brief viral proteolysis in presence of $^{14}\text{SO}_4$, which could explain the increased titer of particles digested for about 7 minutes. An ISVP subpopulation might not be detected when tested by SDS-PAGE. Therefore, a novel protocol was developed to determine if the population of particles produced by digestion in presence of $^{14}\text{SO}_4$ was homogenous or heterogeneous. Fluorescent dyes such as fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC), Alexa Fluor, SYBR Green, SYBR Gold, 4'6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) and many others have been described in the literature as an invaluable tool for both qualitative and quantitative analyses of viruses. Viruses from several families (Baculoviridae, Herpesviridae, Myoviridae, Phycodnaviridae, Picornaviridae, Podoviridae, Retroviridae, Siphoviridae, Orthomyxoviridae, Reoviridae, etc.) have been detected after staining with these fluorescent agents (Georgi et al, 1990; Brussaard et al, 2000; Huang et al, 2004; Fecek et al, 2006; Xie, 2009). Detection of individual fluorescently labelled reovirions in living cells was described by Field's group in 1990 with a study about virus-host interactions using rhodamine B and FITC (Georgi et al, 1990). More recently a new generation of fluorescent dye, Alexa Fluor 488 (AF488), was effectively used to test the ability of reovirus labelled particles to infect host cells and cause pathogenesis (Fecek et al, 2006). The same study applied matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization time of light (MALDI-TOF) and the results show that AF488 labelled the external proteins whereas inner capsid proteins appeared to remain non-labelled or labelled at levels below the detection limits (Fecek et al, 2006). Therefore, three major approaches were used in this research to discriminate and characterize the CHT digested particles. First, virions were labelled with Alexa Fluor 488

and resolved by SDS-PAGE as a confirmatory test. Second, labelled virions were digested and major time points were used for infectivity analysis. Third, the product of digestion was also analysed by flow cytometry (FCM), a sensitive detection device for discrimination of labelled particles. To perform the first approach, T1L fluorescently labelled particles were produced and digested under same conditions as unlabelled viruses. Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE to determine whether or not reovirus outer proteins could be labelled. Alexa succinimidyl esters are specific for amino groups, thus, the potential targets in a protein are primarily arginine and lysine (Huang et al, 2004). As expected, the only proteins labelled by AF488 were located on the outer most part of the capsid, that is; $\sigma 3$, $\mu 1$, and λ (Figure 9A). The results indicated that fluorescently labelled virions were digested by CHT in a similar manner to unlabelled particles (Figure 7 A-B and 9 A-C). Additionally, digestion of $\mu 1$ also initiated only after most of $\sigma 3$ was removed from the outer capsid (note an initial δ band formation at approximately 5 minutes of digestion in Figure 9B). Since $\mu 1$ was labelled by AF488, the product of its cleavage (δ) was also detected in the gel (note a light band at δ region in Figure 9A). When comparing the level of staining of the standard Gel Code Blue solution versus AF488, densitometric analysis data described that AF488 did not enhance the intensity of bands expressed by the excitation and emission of the dye (Figure 9C, curves A [\blacklozenge] and B [\blacklozenge]). In fact, the levels of proteins presented in all gels were quite similar after three minutes of digestion (Figure 9C). Data indicated that virions stained with Alexa Fluor 488 can represent a good model not only for detection of viral proteins but also to describe the enzymatic effect of CHT on these proteins. Whether the staining has any effect on reovirus infectivity was checked in the following section.

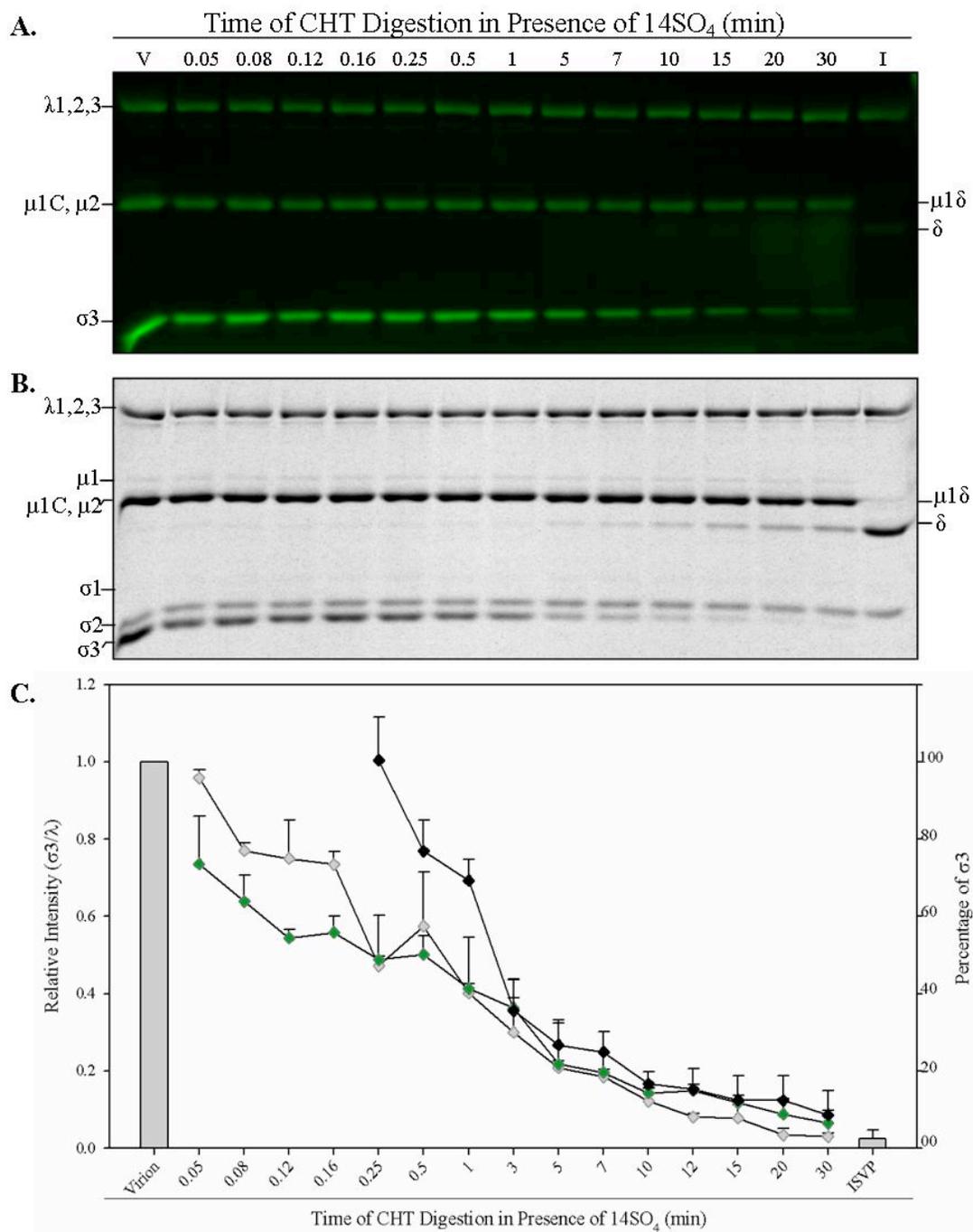


Figure 9. Fluorescence techniques confirmed CHT proteolysis on the reovirus labelled particles. **A.** T1L virions were labelled by AF488 and digested in line with selected time points. Each sample was resolved by SDS-PAGE and bands were photographed by excitation of dye (475 nm) on a fluorescent imager. **B.** Gel in A was subsequently stained with a coomassie-like solution and photographed under trans white light. **C.** Integrated measure of intensity and size of $\sigma 3$ and λ bands on A (\blacklozenge), B (\blacklozenge), and Figure 7A (\blacklozenge) were determined for densitometry purposes. Error bars indicate the standard error of the means for at least two independent experiments.

3.8. Labelled reoviruses retain infectivity.

As previously demonstrated Alexa Fluor 488 labelled the outer capsid proteins of reovirus and the labelled proteins were digested by CHT under same manner as unlabelled virions. Therefore I next tested if the infectivity of these particles would change due to the binding dye. When heavily labelled virus was used to infect L929 cells in a normal plaque assay, results indicated that particles were capable of infection and plaque formation. AF488 labelling increased the particle to PFU ratio of virions from 35 (unlabelled) to 106 (labelled); however, this result was not considered significant as the difference in titer was less than $\frac{1}{2} \log_{10}$. To determine if labelled particles would behave similarly in the presence of antiviral drugs as unlabelled particles, infectivity analysis was also tested after labelling and digestion of reovirions. NH_4Cl and E-64 were the only drugs evaluated because they showed less toxicity to the cells and have been more represented in the reovirus literature. There was no relevant difference between progeny production from stained intact virions and stained particles digested for 5 or 7 minutes (Figure 10). Even though infectivity in the presence of drugs of labelled ISVPs was lower than unlabelled ISVPs, these particles still remained slightly (but insignificantly) more infectious than the others (compare Figures 8A and 8I with Figure 10). In agreement with Fecek and colleagues (2006), these results indicate that Alexa Fluor 488 did not alter the ability of virions to bind and produce infection under normal conditions (ratio particle/PFU data described above). However, in the presence of entry blocker agents, the infectivity effect was altered a minimum of 10-fold (compare NH_4Cl virion bars in Figure 8A to Figure 10) to a maximum of 1000-fold (see ISVP bars in Figure 8I and Figure 10).

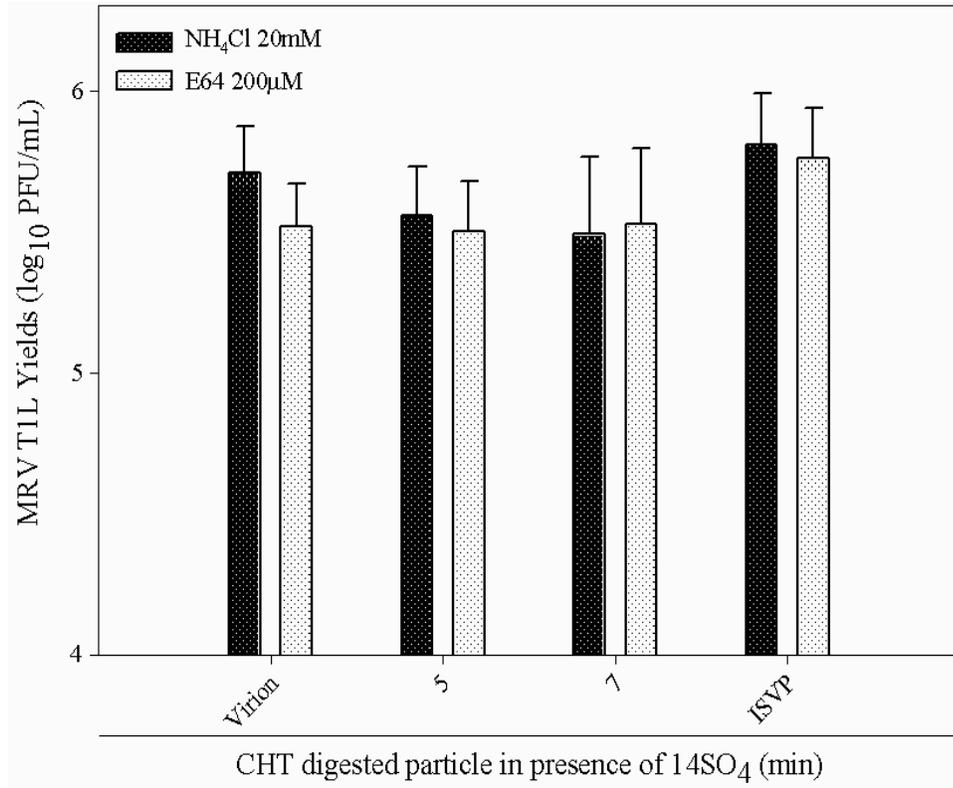


Figure 10. Digested particles lost the ability to bypass antiviral effect when linked to a fluorescent dye. T1L virions were stained with Alexa Fluor 488, digested with CHT in the presence or absence (ISVP) of 14SO₄ and tested for infectivity in the presence of antivirals NH₄Cl, an acidification inhibitor, and E-64, a protease inhibitor. Bars indicate a minor change in titers of virions, transition particles and even ISVPs. A chemical reaction of virus outer proteins and dye was believed to be the cause of low titers for transition particles and ISVPs. Each bar represents the means from three independent experiments. Error bars indicate the standard error of the means.

Also the \log_{10} difference in titers of treated virions versus treated ISVPs shifted from about 3.11 to 0.06 for NH_4Cl , and from 2.0 to 0.17 for E-64. These may explain the importance of $\sigma 3$ cleavage and $\mu 1$ accessibility during virus-to-cell interactions. Since about 80% of $\sigma 3$ was removed, $\mu 1$ became almost completely exposed on the viral surface. Once again, this indicates that $\sigma 3$ release is probably involved in the binding and internalization of virus via receptor-mediated endocytosis, while $\mu 1$ is involved in the penetration as described by Nibert's group (Zhang et al, 2006). Presumably, some $\mu 1\text{C}$ was cleaved at its N-terminal when ISVPs were produced *in vitro* but not within the cell endosome. Fecek et al. (2006) has described that labelling could affect the capacity of $\sigma 1$ to interact with the host cell membrane. However, the fact that Alexa Fluor targets amino groups and presumably antagonizes the cleavage of $\mu 1$ (to release $\mu 1\text{N}$ necessary for penetration) within the endosome may explain the lower progeny production for the labelled digested particles, which have not been affected in the absence of drugs or in section 3.6 (Figure 8 and 10). Virgin et al. (1994) have described a similar inhibitory effect when monoclonal antibodies against reovirus outer proteins blocked the virus proteolysis and infectivity in the presence of NH_4Cl . Why are unlabelled viruses digested for 5 or 7 minutes and ISVPs able to bypass the antiviral effects whereas labelled viruses do not? Developing a method to analyse single particles in a total population was therefore crucial to understand the nature of every generated reovirus particle.

3.9. Alexa Fluor 488 along with monoclonal antibody specific to outer capsid proteins permits detection of reovirus via fluorescent techniques.

Monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) have been used in reovirus research to investigate proteins that are exposed on the surface of the virion particle and also to describe the relationship among them (Hayes et al, 1981; Virgin et al, 1991; Virgin et al, 1994) In order to address the possibility of having a subpopulation of ISVPs in the T1L virion digestions with CHT in the presence of $^{14}\text{SO}_4$, a monoclonal antibody specific to reovirus was analysed by fluorescence focus assay and further via flow cytometry. 4F2 was the monoclonal antibody chosen to describe the similarities and differences of the particles tested in this study. Since this antibody has been described to bind specifically to σ_3 protein in reovirus T3D, the expectation was that in the presence of T1L the recognition would be quite similar (Virgin et al, 1994), because the σ_3 proteins of T3D and T1L have 97% identity, differing only in 11 amino acids (Giantini et al, 1984; Atwater et al, 1986). However, when 4F2 mAb was applied to membranes of western blots containing proteins of both reovirus strains, the luminescence of σ_3 band was noticeably brighter in T3D than in T1L (see white arrows in Figure 11B). Surprisingly, the brighter T1L band was located at the same position as μ_1 . Additionally, when T1L ISVPs were tested for 4F2 mAb binding, the luminescence was detected at the δ position (cleavage of μ_1) (Figure 11B). To discard any possibility of contamination three different antibody amplifications were tested. Two are represented in Figure 11B where 4F2 bound to T1L μ_1 and T3D σ_3 . Because no other reovirus σ_3 -specific antibody has become available for analysis via western blot and also because the goal was the detection of σ_3 or μ_1 present on the viral structure, further fluorescence techniques were performed using the 4F2 mAb. To assess the binding of the untagged primary monoclonal antibody (4F2), a secondary goat anti-mouse IgG (Alexa Fluor 405 [AF405]) was needed. Therefore,

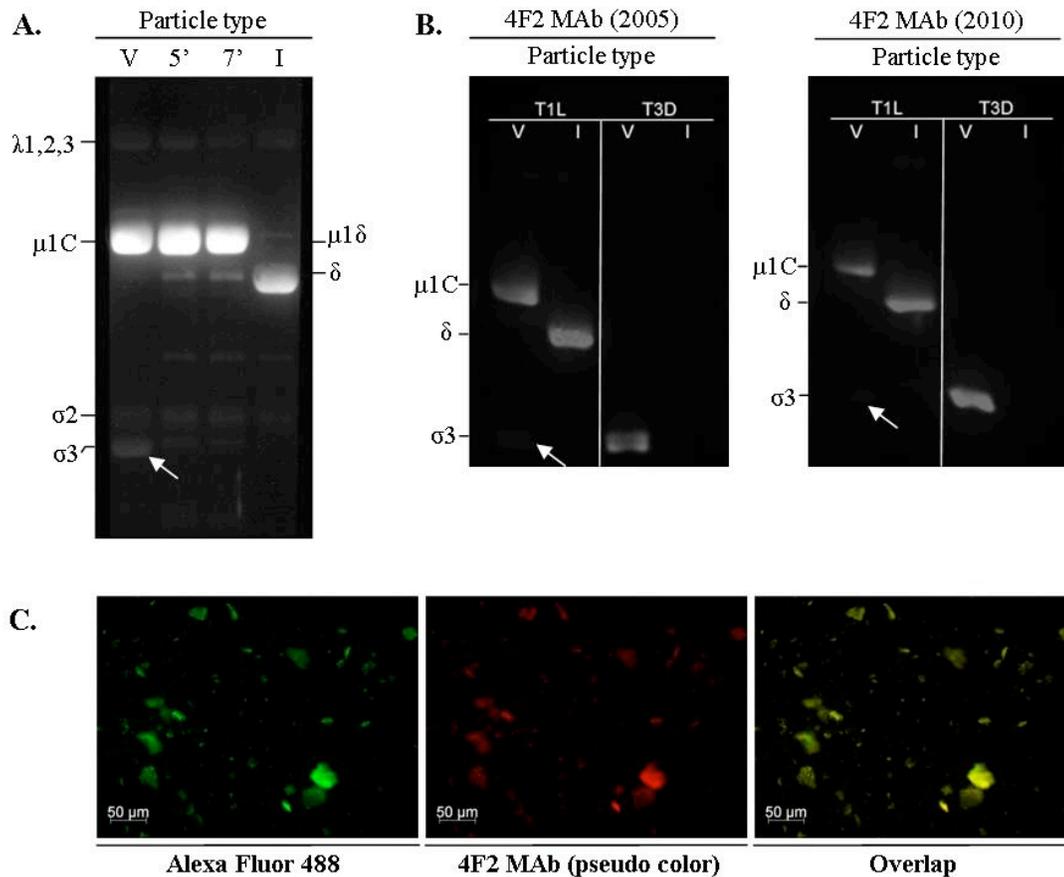


Figure 11. Assessment of mAb 4F2 binding to reovirus via western blot and fluorescence microscopy.

A. A membrane containing reovirus proteins transferred from a common SDS-PAGE was placed in the presence of 4F2 antibody. Binding of antibody to $\mu 1$ protein of reovirus T1L was detected via ECL luminescence. **B.** The same procedure described in A was performed in B but using both reovirus strains; T1L and T3D. Western blot showed that 4F2 antibody bound more efficiently to $\mu 1$ than $\sigma 3$ protein on reovirus T1L (faint band at white arrow). Conversely, 4F2 bound uniquely to $\sigma 3$ protein when tested with proteins resolved from T3D strain. Virus (V), 5 or 7 minutes of digestion in presence of detergent and CHT (5') or (7'), ISVP (I). **C.** Fluorescence image taken from reovirus T1L stained with AF488 and target by 4F2 mAb plus AF405 secondary antibody. A pseudo color was used for better visualization of co-expression of fluorescence at channel overlap.

intact virions were primarily labelled with AF488 then incubated with 4F2 mAb and subsequently with AF405-labelled secondary antibody. The complex was centrifuged to create big pellets for analysis via fluorescence microscopy; otherwise the visualization of virus-sized particles would be expected to be extremely difficult, or impossible. Pellets were slightly resuspended and the excited fluorescent proteins were photographed soon after detection (Figure 11B). Particles were first inspected for AF488; representative of the total virus outer proteins stained (described by green colour). Then, AF405 emission was detected (described in red as pseudo colour for blue at AF405 channel). The overlap of both channels indicated the detection of both, virus and antibody linked to μ 1 protein, via a fluorescence focus technique. Consequently, this complex should also be detected in the subsequent flow cytometry analysis.

3.10. Alexa labelled particles combined with μ 1-specific antibody allowed the discrimination of single T1L viruses within CHT digested population via flow cytometry.

Flow cytometry was primarily established as an automated method to determine the optical and fluorescence features of cells (Wedemeyer & Pötter, 2001). These cell sorters have become more rapid and more sensitive allowing broader applicability in medical diagnostics (McSharry et al, 1990; Wedemeyer & Pötter, 2001; Janossy & Shapiro, 2008; She et al, 2009). For instance, this tool has been used for virus detection (e.g. vaccinia, dengue, rabies, adenovirus, herpes, HIV, rotavirus, reovirus, etc), titration (e.g. dengue, adenovirus), and infection monitoring (e.g. binding/internalization of influenza virus) (McSharry et al, 1990; Nichols et al, 1993; Domínguez et al, 1998; Barardi et al, 1999; Brussaard et al, 2000; Hitt et al, 2000; Kao et al, 2001; Bordignon et al, 2002a;

Bordignon et al, 2002b; Lambeth et al, 2005; Bottley et al, 2007). In 1979, flow cytometry was successfully used to describe the detection of reovirus particles (Hercher et al, 1979). Years later, Fecek and colleagues (2006) detected fluorescently labelled reovirus particles in a more sensitive flow cytometry approach. However, discrimination of different populations of reovirus particles by mAbs and fluorescent techniques like flow cytometry has not yet been reported. As demonstrated in Figure 12A-C, both unlabelled and labelled (green stained AF488 particle or mAb labelled AF405) intact reovirions could be detected via flow cytometry. In agreement with Hercher et al (1979), the plot indicating unlabelled reovirus count versus side scatter (SSC) was well represented by a half curve located at the very left side of this plot (Figure 12A). Additionally, viruses that were labelled with the green fluorescent dye were detected under the “dim” area created specifically to identify the presence or detection of green fluorescently labelled viruses. Moreover, viruses that were incubated only with the murine mAb 4F2 and AF405-labelled goat anti-mouse secondary were also detected by flow cytometry. Note the difference in detection between unlabelled or labelled AF488 and AF405, indicating that antibody has bound to the reovirus μ 1 capsid protein (as described by the count versus AF405 curve in Figure 12C, bottom right plot). Consequently, all three tested samples (i.e. unlabelled virion, AF488 labelled virion, and mAb 4F2-AF405 labelled virion) were used as controls to test all other particles by the same technique. For the normal forward scatter (FSC) vs. SSC plot, the resolution of BD LSR II cytometer is about 0.5 – 1.0 μ m. Since it was possible to detect reoviruses via a fluorescent dye and/or a labelled antibody, the idea of characterizing and discriminating these particles using a two colour approach appeared quite tempting. The dye would be

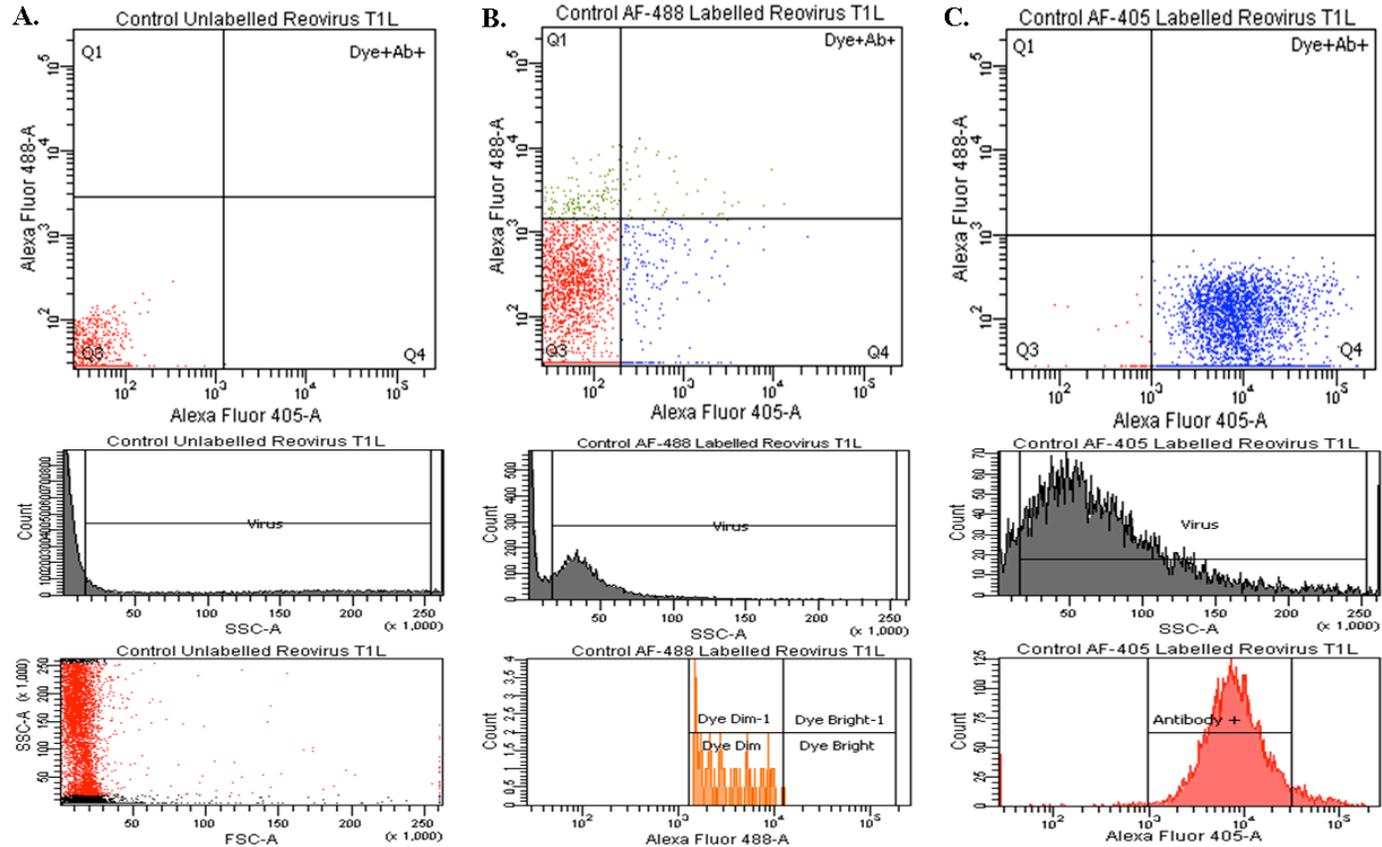


Figure 12. Analysis of unlabelled or labelled reovirion particles via flow cytometry. Laser excitation and fluorescence emission of Alexa Fluor 488- vs. Alexa Fluor 405-labelled particles were measured. Fluorescence signals related to single events are described in the top panels (A-C). Count vs. side scatter (SSC) middle panels illustrate the selected events (A-C). **A.** Unlabelled reovirions. SSC vs. forward scatter (FSC) bottom panel represents the identified events. **B.** AF488 labelled reovirions. Count vs. Alexa Fluor 488 bottom panel describes the dye intensity in “bright” or “dim” fields. A dim colour of the dye could be detected. **C.** Unlabelled reovirus reacted with mAbs tagged to AF405 and were identified as antibody positive. The effect demonstrated that antibody bound reovirions as clearly illustrated by the curve in the bottom panel count vs. Alexa Fluor 405.

used to characterize the presence of virus particles, with all the outer capsid proteins labelled (λ , $\mu 1$, $\sigma 3$). Whereas the labelled mAb would be used to discriminate these particles, with the differences on the presence or absence of $\mu 1$ protein specifically positioning the particle form along the antibody axis on the dot plot. However, as the addition of the primary antibody followed by secondary antibody involved washing plus centrifugation of the samples, the possibility of having virus aggregates in the final analyte should be considered. Therefore, aliquots of samples were analysed in a low flow velocity, meaning that the flow stream would be narrowed to decrease the number of event rates (i.e. viruses) passing through the laser beam. The standard low flow rate of the BD LSR II is 240 events per second. The average flow rate taken from a total of at least 10,000 events was determined as 241 events per second for the three main particles tested in this study (i.e. virus, 7 minute-digested, and ISVP). Although there was similarity in results with the cytometer standard, one other aspect that should be considered is the size of the virus. Even though the cytometer stream was narrowed, several ≤ 85 nm particles could conceivably pass through the laser as either singlet or doublets. Since events with high width could correspond to aggregates (Figure 13A), by measuring the width parameter vs. the area of each sample it was possible to confirm that particles analysed in this study were not part of a doublet discrimination (Figure 13B-D). Based on this, samples of virion, 7 minute-digested and ISVP were inspected in the flow cytometer to determine the content of each population; whether homogenous or heterogeneous. Results demonstrated plots that were nicely distinguishable from each other. As every experiment began with the intact virion particles, it was expected that these particles would have the highest intensity of antibody and a linear intensity of dye detected in the

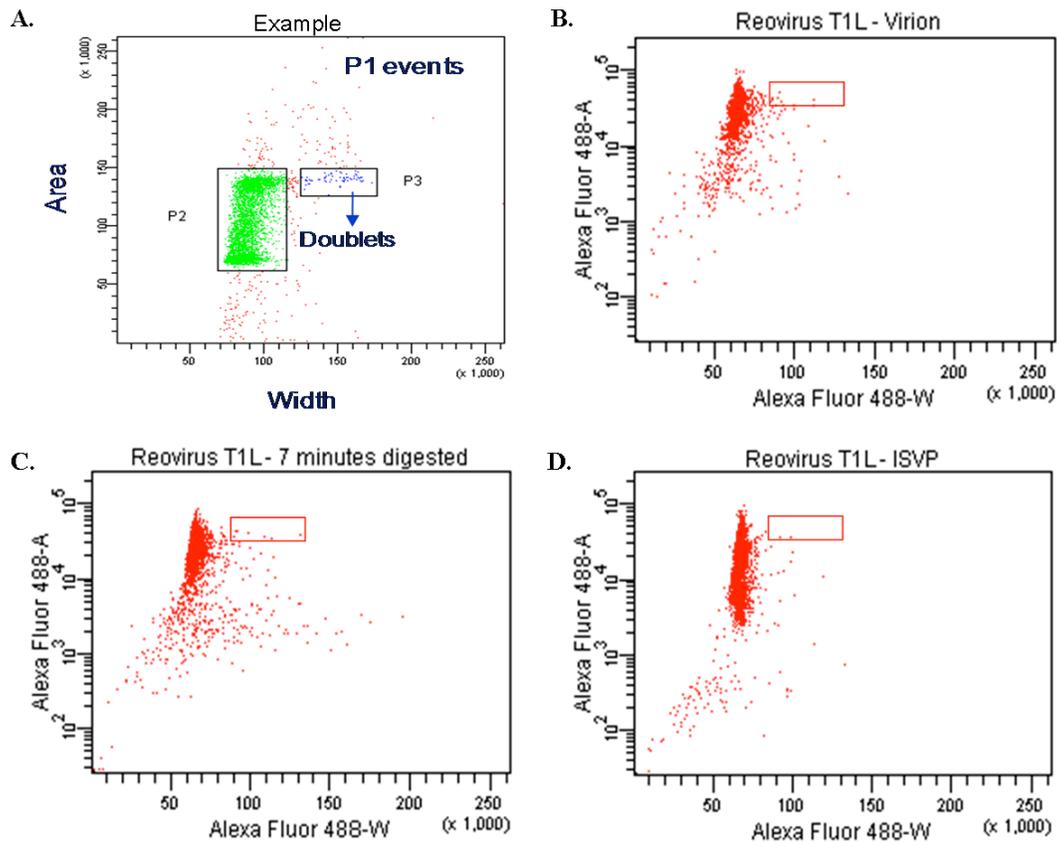
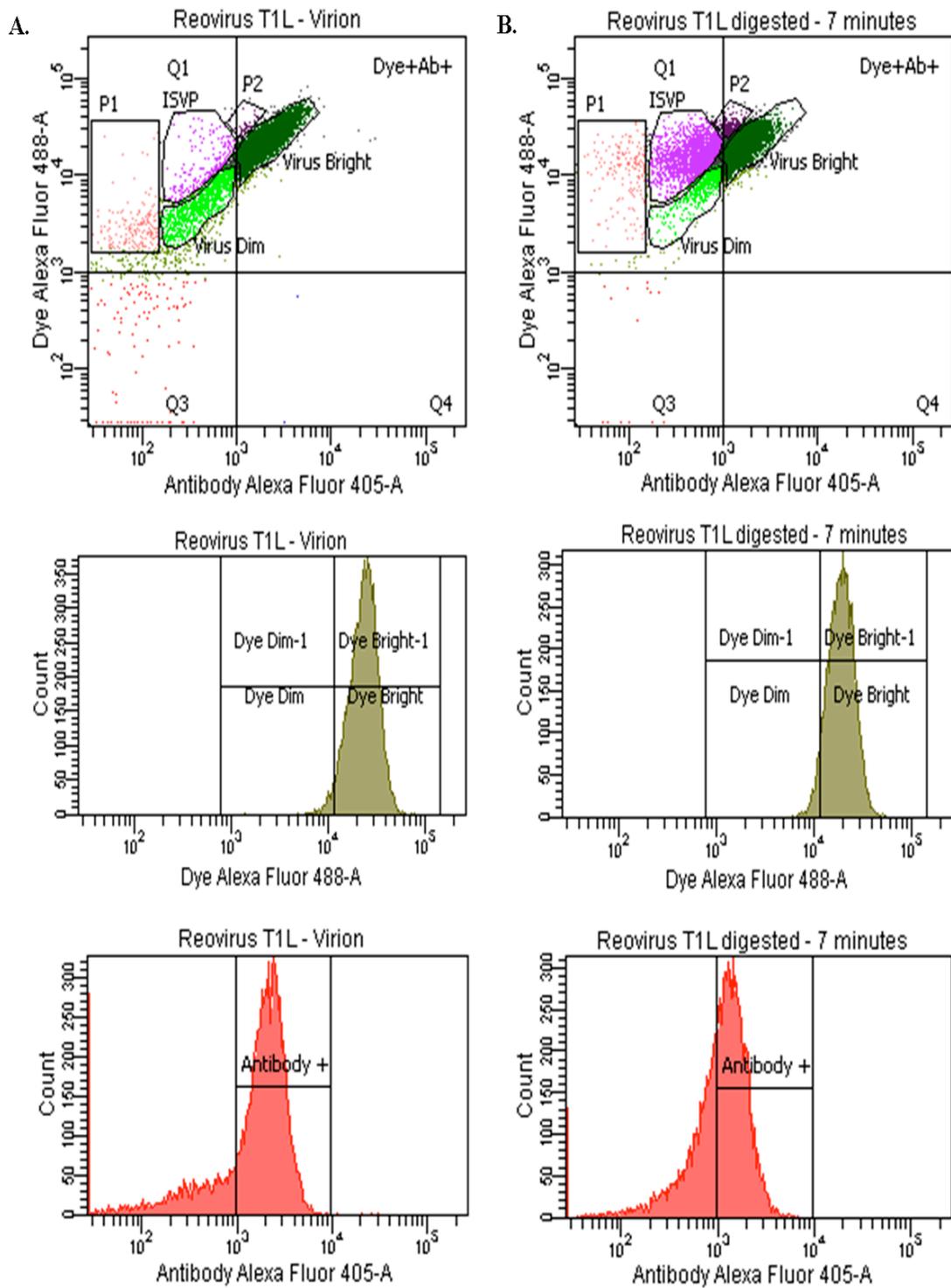


Figure 13. Area versus width distinguished reovirus analytes as non aggregates.

A. Example that may distinguish singlet from doublet particles passing through the laser beam of a flow cytometer. The higher is the width the bigger is the particle, which in here determines presence of aggregates. **B.** Analysis of area vs. width for an intact labelled virion particle. **C.** Analysis of area vs. width for a labelled particle digested for 7 minutes in the presence of 14SO₄ and CHT. **D.** Analysis of area vs. width for a labelled particle digested by CHT to form ISVP particles. Red boxes were drawn to establish the position of possible doublets. The vast majority of the particles were present within singlet regions and very few were found in the doublet discrimination box. Example adapted from (http://www.bd.com/videos/bdb/dna_canto2_course/M3/index.htm)

laser beam (see plots in Figure 14 and statistics in Table 2). Plots have demonstrated that virions were more positive to antibody bound (note count vs. antibody AF405 chart in Figure 14A) than other particles. Regarding the dye emission, data demonstrated that particles could be stained “bright” and “dim” presumably describing the level of proteolysis of the particle-associated dye (note Figure 14A, and count vs. dye AF488 chart). By the time that virions were digested for 7 minutes with CHT in the presence of 14SO_4 , a small population was shifted from the “virion bright” and “virion dim” gates to the “P2” and “ISVP” gates (Figure 14B). This shift indicates that particles were not losing a large amount of fluorescence (Figure 14B - count vs. dye AF488), consequently, this shift was determined by the presence of antibody (Figure 14B – count vs. antibody AF405). Statistics confirmed that antibody was discriminating the digestion along the virus-to-ISVP transition pathway (Table 2). For instance, the plot related to ISVP described the digestion of $\mu 1$ protein as expected (Figure 14C). Because ISVP are characterized by the absence of $\sigma 3$ and cleavage of $\mu 1$ into its fragments δ and ϕ , I expected a particle not as bright as virions and 7 minutes-digested, which could be distinguishable by the lack of antibody. Although $\mu 1$ was cleaved, both the antibody and the dye could detect δ protein present on the ISVP structure (Figure 9A, see faint band related to ISVP δ coming from the cleavage of stained $\mu 1$ protein; Figure 11A-B, note the δ detection by the 4F2 antibody on western blot analysis). Therefore, flow cytometry confirmed SDS-PAGE and Western Blot results about the digestion to ISVP. The dots presented in “virus bright” and “virus dim” gates were shifted to “ISVP” and “P1” gates when ISVPs were passing through the laser (Figure 14A-C). This effect described particles that were still positive for antibody and dye in the “ISVP” gate but negative for



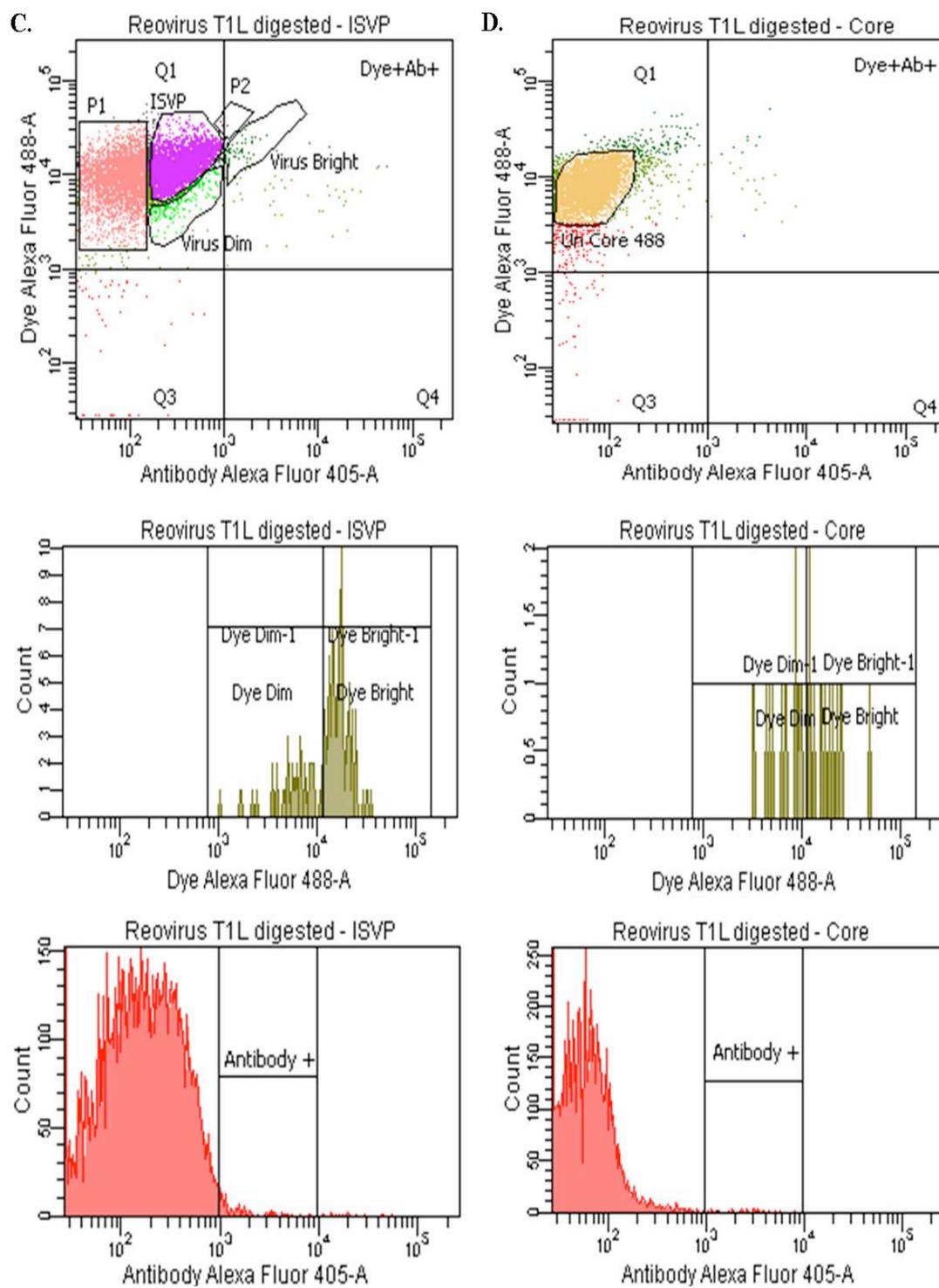


Figure 14. Flow cytometry discriminated reovirus population. Reovirions were fluorescently green labelled with Alexa Fluor 488, digested with CHT in the presence of 14SO₄ for 7 minutes or in the absence of 14SO₄ for 1 hour to generate ISVPs. Thereafter, each particle was incubated with 4F2 murine antibody and labelled with a secondary anti-mouse antibody tagged to Alexa Fluor 405 (blue). Particles were then inspected by the BD LSR II cytometer. **A.** Intact reovirion particles non-digested by CHT. **B.** Particles digested for 7 minutes at 32°C with CHT in the presence of 14SO₄ detergent. **C.** Particles digested with CHT for 1 hour at 37°C to form ISVPs. **D.** Core particles. Cores were generated by digestion of unlabelled virions with CHT for 3 hours at 37°C, and further labelled with Alexa Fluor 488 (Un Core 488), 4F2 murine antibody and Alexa Fluor 405. Panels describe populations according to the presence of dye (in detail at second panel) and antibody (in detail at third panel). Experiment was performed in at least three independent analyses that yielded similar results.

Table 2. Statistical differences of reovirus particles detected via flow cytometry.

Population	# Events	Percentage	Dye MFI*	Antibody MFI*
Virion				
Dye +ve	10,434	44.0	19,877	1,868
└ Dye Bright	8,002	76.7	24,461	2,305
└ Dye Dim	2,185	20.9	5,365	475
Antibody +ve	7,987	76.5	24,274	2,311
Gate Virus Bright	7,728	74.1	24,455	2,329
Gate Virus Dim	1,214	11.6	5,869	507
Gate P2	40	0.4	32,176	1,292
Gate ISVP	197	1.9	14,001	511
Gate P1	186	1.8	3,394	93
7 minutes digested				
Dye +ve	10,379	45.5	17,464	1,232
└ Dye Bright	8,546	82.3	19,376	1,357
└ Dye Dim	1,792	17.3	8,756	663
Antibody +ve	6,381	61.5	19,730	1,633
Gate Virus Bright	5,801	55.9	19,589	1,653
Gate Virus Dim	857	8.3	8,502	696
Gate P2	219	2.1	30,149	1,179
Gate ISVP	2,178	21.0	16,489	565
Gate P1	175	1.7	12,033	101
ISVP				
Dye +ve	10,263	43.9	10,662	254
└ Dye Bright	3,966	38.6	15,927	347
└ Dye Dim	6,188	60.3	7,473	199
Antibody +ve	115	1.1	15,247	1,849
Gate Virus Bright	80	0.8	17,327	1,333
Gate Virus Dim	230	2.2	5,625	392
Gate P2	3	0.0	33,087	1,004
Gate ISVP	4,099	39.9	12,898	355
Gate P1	3,883	37.8	9,826	87

***MFI:** Mean Fluorescence Intensity.

the antibody in the “P1” gate. As Alexa Fluor 488 labelled particles by staining $\sigma 3$, $\mu 1$, and λ proteins, the digestion effect of CHT would finish with only λ proteins positively labelled for the dye on the surface of the particle. Conversely, as antibodies were specific to $\mu 1$ protein but were also able to recognize δ , particles that lack both of these proteins would be negative for the antibody. Therefore, gates indicated that virions were mostly contained at “virion bright” and “virion dim” areas, consequently, positive for both the dye and the antibody. Particles digested for 7 minutes were mostly located at “virus” gates, “P2” gate (positive for the dye and less positive to $\mu 1$ bound antibody), “ISVP” gate (positive for the dye and antibody to δ), and some presence at “P1” gate. Particles digested to ISVP were mostly present in “ISVP” and “P1” gates, with some small presence in “virus” gates. The “P1” gate was understood to relate to particles that were presumably positive for the dye (λ) but negative for the antibody. The analysis of the reovirus inner capsids (that contain only λ protein on the virus surface) confirmed the identity of this P1 population as core particles (Figure 14D). To conclude this study, an average of all titers achieved by virions, 7 minute-digested, and ISVP in the presence of the five tested entry blockers (i.e. NH_4Cl , chloroquine, chlorpromazine, M β CD, and E-64) were taken into consideration to compare with the flow cytometry results. The idea was to describe if infectiousness of the virus was related to the particles detected within the “ISVP” gate. Surprisingly, the resultant chart demonstrated that presence of ISVP was a determinant in virus resistance to drugs. The more ISVP is formed the more resistant is the “mixture of virus particles”. Consequently, the presence of a subpopulation of ISVPs was the reason for the increased titers for the 7 minute-digested particle. The ability of

digested particles to bypass entry blockers is therefore determined by the formation of ISVPs in the virus population (Figure 15).

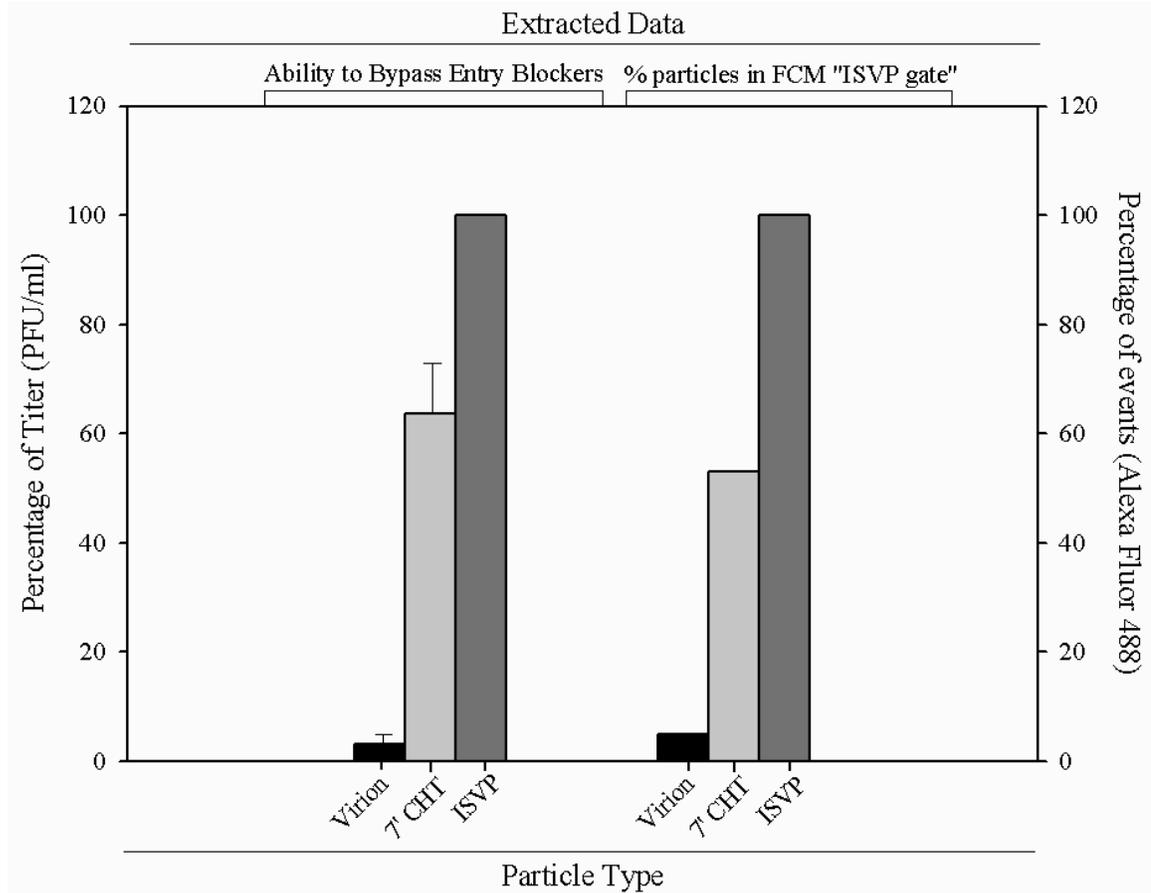


Figure 15. Presence or absence of ISVPs determined virus resistance to entry inhibitors. Particles were digested with CHT for 7 minutes in the presence of 14SO_4 (7' CHT), or for 1 hour to form ISVPs. Their infectivity was tested in the presence of pharmaceutical agents such as acidification inhibitors, endocytosis inhibitors, and protease inhibitor that would block the virus entry into cell. As ISVPs demonstrated the highest titer and were considered the more infectious particle, its titer was accepted as indicative of virus 100% capacity to bypass entry blockers. Therefore, titers achieved with intact virions and 7 minutes digested particles were proportionally converted to percentages according to ISVP's titer. In flow cytometry (FCM), the number of events within the "ISVP" gate was recorded for each inspected particle. As ISVP particle demonstrated the highest number of events in this gate, it was considered 100%. The other two particles were proportionally converted in percentage according to the events registered for ISVP.

4. DISCUSSION

The existence of three main particles (virion, ISVP and core) has been known for a long time in the reovirus field. The big question is related to the proteomic changes in the transitional course, mainly along the virus to ISVP pathway. The main proteins affected during this transition are the outer capsid proteins; $\sigma 3$, $\mu 1$ and $\sigma 1$. In fact, intact reovirions need to be proteolytically digested in order to infect cells, replicate and release progeny. During this process $\sigma 3$ is removed from virions, $\mu 1$ is cleaved and $\sigma 1$ becomes extended to characterize the ISVP particle. The same process can be achieved *in vitro* by using low concentrations of enzyme such as α -chymotrypsin. Data in this study have demonstrated that in fact, digestion of virions to ISVP can be performed *in vitro*, and even more, tracking of the intermediary steps can also be achieved by using time point digestions during the virion to ISVP pathway (Figure 4 and Figure 7). Because ISVP is an obligate intermediary particle in reovirus disassembly, the capture of intermediate particles that lie within virus-to-ISVP pathway was possible by proteolysis of T1L with an enzyme. A former student from Dr. Coombs group has shown that cleavage of the outer proteins could be controlled by using low concentrations of CHT combined with 14SO₄ detergent in the digestions (Hadžisejdić et al, 2006). The effect was indeed achieved in the time point digested samples of this study, and the demonstration that cleavage of $\sigma 3$ could be segregated from $\mu 1$ was also confirmed. According to SDS-PAGE data, approximately 75% of $\sigma 3$ need to be removed for an initial demonstration of $\mu 1$ cleavage (Figure 7A). This is in agreement with previous publications which indicate that $\sigma 3$ acts as a protector of $\mu 1$ protein (Liemann et al, 2002; Schiff et al, 2007).

Therefore, any μ 1-dependent virus effect (i.e. membrane penetration) is presumably also dependent on σ 3 proteolysis. Further analyses of these time point digested samples have described particles that interestingly behaved like ISVPs. This fact occurred when virions, particles digested for brief periods of time (i.e. minute-digested particles), and ISVPs were used to infect cells in the presence of entry blocker agents (Figure 8). Acidification inhibitors such as chloroquine and ammonium chloride were used to block the particles within the vesicle. The expectation was that infecting virions would not be converted into ISVPs and therefore, progeny release would be significantly less in comparison to the *in vitro* pre-formed ISVPs, which could directly penetrate membrane and produce progeny. In fact, data showed lower levels of virion progeny production in the presence of acidification inhibitors (Figure 5A-B and Figure 8A-D). However, the 7 minute-digested particles started to ignore the blocking effect and progeny titers were increased (Figure 8A-D). Thus, important changes occurred during the first 7 minutes of digestion and allowed the particle to behave like the more infectious ISVP (Figure 8B, 8D and 8K). The same effect was achieved when particles were treated with the cysteine protease inhibitor, E-64; with the clathrin-mediated endocytosis inhibitor, chlorpromazine; and with the caveolae mediated endocytosis inhibitor, M β CD. It is believed that reovirions enter susceptible cells via endocytosis (presumably via clathrin mediated-endocytosis), and ISVPs are able to enter cells either by endocytosis or directly via membrane penetration (Sturzenbecker et al, 1987; Schiff et al, 2007). Besides NH₄Cl and chloroquine; E-64, chlorpromazine and M β CD were also tested in this study to evaluate virus' infectivity. Data collected from these trials were in agreement with the data collected with acidification inhibitors. Particles digested for less than 7 minutes

contained significant amounts of non-cleaved $\sigma 3$ (as seen in SDS-PAGE) and therefore, were not able to bypass entry blockers. Particles digested for more than 7 minutes contained approximately 25% of $\sigma 3$ left; however, infectivity was not inhibited by any chosen inhibitor (Figure 7 and Figure 8). Surprisingly, after 7 minutes of digestion and in the presence of E-64, chlorpromazine and M β CD, particles had a great decrease in titer, which suggests the formation of cores within the digested population (Figure 7 and Figure 8). According to these data, 75% of $\sigma 3$ needs to be removed from the virus surface to allow particle penetration. Consequently, it is reasonable to suggest that not all $\sigma 3$ needs to be digested in order for virus to gain entry into the cells and produce progeny. Although particles used in this infectivity experiment were proteolytically digested in the presence of 14SO₄, which prevents $\mu 1$ cleavage and ISVP formation, there is still a possibility that detergent did not efficiently block the proteolysis of all particles. Moreover, the analysis of particles in SDS-PAGE determines the content of an entire population but does not differentiate between particles. Therefore, the infectivity effect of 7 minute-digested particles could be either related to an ISVP subpopulation or a result from a real intermediate particle. To distinguish between those two possible outcomes, virions were labelled by a fluorescent agent and analysed via fluorescence techniques. The gel analysis result achieved from these particles was comparable to data from unlabelled particles; 20% of $\sigma 3$ was still present on the labelled particles after 7 minutes of digestion (Figure 7A-B and Figure 9A-C). However, the infectivity analyses of these particles have demonstrated that they were not able to bypass entry blockers like unlabelled particles (Figure 10). An explanation could be that Alexa Fluor labels and antagonizes the proteins' amino groups which are necessary during virus penetration.

Therefore, progeny release was not as high as demonstrated by unlabelled particles because $\mu 1$ was not freely available on the surface of the particle to promote the necessary structural modifications that precede virus internalization. The same labelled particles were subsequently analysed via flow cytometry in order to describe the real content of the 7 minute-digested material. Particles inspected in flow cytometry were distinguished by the amount of AF488 (dye) and AF405 (antibody) detected through the laser beam. The fact that 7 minute-digested particles have $\mu 1$ still present and $\sigma 3$ not completely removed from the virus surface was not in total agreement with the data represented by the cytometer (Figure 9 and Figure 14). As demonstrated in section 3.10, antibody was able to bind and select these particles to the “virus bright” gates, which were set to indicate full particles. Also, a “P2” population was described presumably to demonstrate the transition particle that has $\sigma 3$ present (dye positive) and $\mu 1$ minimally cleaved (antibody shifted), which is consistent with previous peptides findings using MALDI-TOF (Mendez et al, 2003). Moreover, “ISVP” gates were filled in the analysis of this particle, demonstrating particles that lack both $\mu 1$ and $\sigma 3$ but were positive for δ . Consequently, the band demonstrated for 7 minute-digested particle in SDS-PAGE comes from a mixture of reovirus forms. This means that some virions are still present in the aliquot and represent the 20-25% of $\sigma 3$ protein described in gel analysis (Figure 7B and 9C). The presence of a faint δ band in gel analysis (Figure 9A-B and Figure 11A) can be related to ISVP been formed during the digestion within the 7 minutes, and this is consistent with the “ISVP” gate plotted on the cytometer analysis. ISVP particles have $\mu 1$ protein converted into δ , which has shown to fluoresce in SDS-PAGE (Figure 9A), bound to antibody in western-blot (Figure 11A-B) and be consisted in the ISVP gate of

cytometer analysis (Figure 14C). Overall, these results demonstrated a consistency among the three techniques used in this study to evaluate the reovirus particles. The SDS-PAGE was lacking in the demonstration of single particles but was effective in highlighting the CHT effect over the reovirus outer proteins. The western-blot was also effective in demonstrating the digestion effect and the recognition of $\mu 1$ and δ proteins by the 4F2 antibody. The real advance in this study was to demonstrate both SDS-PAGE and western-blot in one single experiment that was able to discriminate the particles produced along the transition pathway. As seen by the flow cytometer data, some events were present within the same gate areas in all samples analysed. Some more in “virus” gate and less in “ISVP” gate when virions “only” were detected; or the opposite when ISVPs were analysed. The fact that particles were co-expressed in different samples suggests that every population of reovirus tested in this study (i.e. virion, 7 minute-digested, ISVP and core) was composed of a mixture of forms, and therefore, resided within a heterogeneous population (made of virions, ISVPs, cores; and also by some transitional particles, which have a certain amount of $\sigma 3$ present and a minimum cleavage on $\mu 1$ protein) and not in a homogenous population as previously considered. Consequently, the fact that particles digested for 7 minutes were more “resistant” to entry blockers is completely related to a subpopulation of ISVPs present in the samples. As described by the very last result of this study, ISVP is the particle determinant of reovirus infectiousness; any change in the presence of ISVPs would probably change the infectivity of the virus (Figure 15).

4.1. Future directions

As every study accomplished in research, this one was no different, and many more things can be done to take this study a step further. For instance, the use of fluorescently labelled particles could be microscopically analysed in a real time video as Georgi et al. (1990) have first demonstrated using rhodamine B or FITC (Georgi et al, 1990). The fact that labelled particles were not able to bypass entry blockers may be useful to unveil determinants in reovirus infection, such as; what happens to the viral proteins within vesicle? The same test could be done in the presence or absence of drugs. As predicted, drugs would block the particles and the fluorescence would be paralyzed within the vesicle, whereas, in the absence of drug the intensity would decrease by the time those proteins undergo processing (if the staining does not interfere in this pathway as speculated here in the infectivity analysis results). These could be used as determinants to understand the dynamics between cell compounds and virus particles. It was a pleasure to see that flow cytometer could discriminate reovirus particles within a population. Knowing that some cell sorters can separate particles into different tubes, applying it to this research could be very helpful for the analysis of these particles identity. One could sort these particles and test their identity on electron microscope, or test their infectivity to confirm if the very last plot of this study is consistent with the percentage of ISVPs present in the digested population. Also, because the antibody used in this study was recognizing both $\mu 1$ and δ , the differentiation of a third proposed particle, ISVP* (which differ from ISVP in the conformation of $\mu 1$ [$\mu 1^*$] and by the absence of $\sigma 1$), was risky. A better discrimination of reovirus particles may be achieved if novel or multiple antibodies are elaborated to tag different reovirus capsid proteins. To conclude, as this research was

based on reovirus type 1 Lang, the use of reovirus T3D would be beneficial to fulfill the study of the *Reoviridae* family. Because T3D has shown some sensitivities to α -chymotrypsin that are reflected in the infectivity of the virus (due to the loss of σ 1 attachment protein), the use of this strain can be slightly complicated. Therefore, a solution would be to use reassortants of T1L and T3D with most of the genes coming from T3D and the gene encoding for σ 1 coming from T1L, for example. In this case, the 4F2 antibody would then bind to σ 3 protein and therefore, particles would be discriminated by the presence or absence of this protein on their structure. Finally, experiments used in this study could be further applied as a model for studying other non-enveloped viruses, and consequently, understand the virus-to-host cell interactions that may be the hope for many lives (i.e. virus treatment - oncolytics).

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