Copyright

by

Michael Patterson

2014

Additional Copyrights shared by

© American Society for Microbiology: Patterson M, Seregin A, Huang C, Kolokoltsova O, Smith J, Miller M, Smith J, Yun N, Poussard A, Grant A, Tigabu B, Walker A, Paessler S. 2013. Rescue of a Recombinant Machupo Virus from Cloned cDNAs and In Vivo Characterization in Interferon (αβ/γ) Receptor Double Knockout Mice. Journal of Virology

And

© Current Opinions in Virology: Patterson, M., Grant, A., Paessler, S.

The Dissertation Committee for Michael Patterson Certifies that this is the approved version of the following dissertation:

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A REVERSE GENETICS SYSTEM FOR MACHUPO VIRUS

	Committee:
	Slobodan Paessler, PhD, DVM, Mentor Chair
	Scott Weaver, PhD, Co-Mentor
	Judith Aronson, MD
	Roberto Garofalo, MD
	Barry Rockx, PhD
	Martin Pfeffer, PhD
Dean, Graduate School	

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A REVERSE GENETICS SYSTEM FOR MACHUPO VIRUS

by

Michael Patterson, MPH BA

Dissertation

Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of

The University of Texas Medical Branch
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Texas Medical Branch March, 2014

Acknowledgements

There are a large number of people I would like to acknowledge but I also want to keep this short so I will consolidate. First, I would like to thank my fiancée, Julie, for putting up with me throughout the years and understanding my drive and love for science. This last year apart has been annoying in that we have been apart, but now we have decades to look forward to my craziness together. To my parents and siblings (including Tamara here, ha you are related now) for always being there and never wondering too obviously why I switched from math/computer science to biology (it's cooler of course). To friends who are family; the Hasletts and Greenes, you have always been family to me and I appreciate all of your support. No matter where life takes me I know we will always be there for each other. Additionally, special thanks to Jim for taking so much time reading both this dissertation and my capstone and providing valuable insight.

To my mentor, Dr. Paessler, I have grown and matured as a scientist under your tutelage. You have been critical when I needed it and always ensured I have learned from my mistakes. You gave me the freedom to handle and advance my projects independently but you were also available to help me handle the hurdles the projects threw my way. To all other members of the laboratory, there is no way all of my projects could have been planned, implemented, or analyzed without your assistance. I have learned from all of you and greatly appreciate your time and knowledge. To my graduate committee, during the last few years you have been making sure to ask the right questions, pushing me

always to think past the 'correct' answer; to try and get me to understand why the question is being asked and where the answer can lead me in the future projects.

To Heidi Lutz, thank you for volunteering to edit my dissertation. I am sure it never got more interesting after the first read but you kept at it and I appreciate it greatly. Hope trivia continues to go well for everyone once I am gone.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A REVERSE GENETICS SYSTEM FOR MACHUPO VIRUS

Publication No.	,

Michael Patterson, PhD

The University of Texas Medical Branch, 2014

Supervisor: Slobodan Paessler

The etiologic agent of Bolivian hemorrhagic fever (BHF), Machupo virus (MACV), is a highly lethal viral pathogen with no approved vaccine or therapeutic to limit infection or outbreaks. Following implementation of rodent population controls after the initial outbreak, no cases of BHF were reported from 1976 to 1993. Reports in the last five years from the endemic region have identified a surge in reported cases and deaths from the disease. Since then, very little characterization or research of MACV has been accomplished. In this research, I describe the development of two major tools for studying MACV: The development of a mini-genome for both the small and large

segments, and the establishment of a reverse genetics system and rescue of a recombinant MACV. Using these tools, I present the first modern *in vitro* characterization of MACV, the development of a novel and lethal murine animal model, and the generation of a rationally attenuated MACV.

Table of Contents

Significance	26
Methods:	27
Cells, viruses, and biosafety	27
Sequencing of Full Length S and L Genomic RNAs from MACV	
Determination of 5' and 3' Termini of Both S and L Segments	29
MACV Minigenome Systems	29
Rescue of rMACV	30
Plaque Titrations	30
Animal Experiments	31
Histopathological and Immunohistochemical Analysis	32
Statistical Analysis	33
Results:	33
5' and 3' Terminal Sequences for Machupo Virus:	33
Construction of Plasmids for MACV Reverse Genetic System	35
Development of the Machupo Virus Minigenome	37
Rescue of Recombinant Machupo Virus and In Vitro Characteriz	ation39
In vivo Characterization of Machupo Virus in IFN-α β / γ R -/- Mic	e41
Discussion:	44
Chapter Summary:	49
CHAPTER 3: CHARACTERIZATION OF THE INNATE IMMUNE RESPONSE TO N INFECTION IN VITRO	
Introduction:	51
Background	51
Gaps in knowledge	53
Hypothesis	54
Significance	54
Methods:	55
Cells, Viruses, and Biosafety	55
iv	

	Knockdown of RIG-I in A549 Cells	56
	Plaque Titrations	56
	Western Blots and Antibodies:	56
	Statistics:	58
	Results:	58
	Effect of RIG-I Knockdown on MACV Growth	58
	Effect of Infection on IFN Competent Cells	59
	Effect of MACV Infection on Cellular Protein Biosynthesis	61
	Discussion:	61
	Chapter Summary:	66
Снаг	PTER 4: RATIONAL ATTENUATION OF MACV*	67
	Introduction:	67
	Background	67
	Gaps in knowledge	69
	Hypothesis	70
	Significance	70
	Methods:	71
	Cells, viruses, and biosafety	71
	Construction of the F437I Mutant S Plasmid	71
	Rescue of rMACV-F437I	73
	Sequencing of Full Length S and L Genomic RNAs from rMAC	
	Plaque Titrations	74
	Animal Experiments	75
	Statistical Analysis	76
	Results:	76
	In Vitro Characterization of rMACV-F437I	76
	In Vivo Characterization of rMACV-F437I	77

Isolation of Viral RNA from Two rMACV-F4371 Infected Mic	e80
Discussion:	81
Chapter Summary:	86
CHAPTER 5: DISSERTATION SUMMARY	87
Appendix:	93
I: Table of MACV Animal Experiments	93
II: Brain and Spleen Histology from Infected Mice	94
III: Immunohistochemistry from Infected Mice	95
IV: Viral Load of Different Organs from Infected Mice	96
PERMISSION TO PUBLISH	97
From the Journal of Virology:	97
From the Journal Current Opinions in Virology:	99
From the Journal of Molecular Biology	101
REFERENCES	106

List of Tables

Table 1: Table of published animal models from the 1960s to present......93

List of Figures

Figure 1: The Genome and Replication Strategy of MACV2
Figure 2: Reported Cases of BHF Since 1959
Figure 3: Map of Bolivia4
Figure 4: Clinical Disease Progression of Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever in Humans.
7
Figure 5: Proposed Mechanisms of Arenavirus Control of the Innate Immune
Response16
Figure 6: Graphical representation of Six MACV Plasmids
Figure 7: Sequence of the MACV 19 Nucleotide 5' and 3' Genomic Termini34
Figure 8: Silent Mutation in rMACV
Figure 9: Bioluminescent Signal From Reporter Plasmids
Figure 10: Image of Fluorescent Cells
Figure 11: Plaque Morphology of MACV and rMACV38
Figure 12: Infection of A549 Cells With MACV and rMACV39

Figure 13: Infection of Vero Cells.	40
Figure 14: Change in Percent Bodyweight of Infected IFN-αβ/γ R -/- mice	41
Figure 15: Kaplan Meier Curve of MACV and rMACV Infected Animals	42
Figure 16: Titration of Organ Samples	45
Figure 17: MACV Segment Termini Alignment	46
Figure 18: Effect of RIG-I Knockdown on MACV Growth in A549 Cells5	58
Figure 19: Activation of the JAK/STAT Pathway in IFN Competent A549 Cells Infected With MACV	59
Figure 20: Recognition of MACV Infection by PKR in A549 Cells	50
Figure 21: Passage History of Candid#16	58
Figure 22: Transmembrane Region of MACV and JUNV6	59
Figure 23: Sequence Analysis of rMACV-F437I7	72
Figure 24: Infection of IFN Competent A549 Cells with MACV, rMACV, and rMACV-F437I.	
Figure 25: Infection of IFN Incompetent Vero-CLL81 Cells with MACV, rMACV,	
and rMACV-F437I.	77

Figure 26: Kaplan Meier Curve of rMACV and rMACV-F437I Infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -
/- Mice78
Figure 27: Weight Change of IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- Mice infected with rMACV and rMACV-F437I80
Figure 28: Change in Temperature in rMACV and rMACV-F437I Infected Mice81
Figure 29: Histopathology Staining of Brain and Spleen Tissues94
Figure 30: Immunohistochemistry of Brain and Spleen Tissue Slides from IFN αβ/γ R -/- Mice95
Figure 31: Titrations From Organ Homogenates of Infected IFN αβ/γ R -/- Mice96

List of Abbreviations

AHF Argentine hemorrhagic fever

ANOVA Analysis of Variance

BHF Bolivian hemorrhagic fever BHK-21 Baby hamster kidney cells Bp base pair (nucleotide)

BSL Biosafety level

CDC Centers for Disease Control/Prevention
DMEM Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

DNA Deoxyribonucleic acid
DPI Days post infection
dsRNA Double stranded RNA

eIF2α Eukaryotic initiation factor 2

ELISA Enzyme linked immunosorbent assays

ER Endoplasmic reticulum FBS Fetal Bovine Serum

FDA Food and Drug Administration

FRhL Fetal rhesus lung

GNL Galveston National Laboratory

GP-1 Glycoprotein 1 GP-2 Glycoprotein 2

GPC Glycoprotein Precursor
HPI Hours post infection
HRP Horseradish peroxidase

IC Intracranial IFN Interferon

IGR Intergenic region

Serine/threonine kinases IκB kinase ε/TANK-binding

IKKe/TBK-1 kinase-1
IN Intranasal
IP Intraperitoneal

IPS-1 IFN-β promoter stimulator-1
 IRF3 IFN regulatory factor 3
 ISGs IFN stimulated genes
 JAKs Janus protein kinases

JUNV Junin virus

L Large segment of the arenavirus
L protein RNA dependent RNA polymerase

LASF Lassa hemorrhagic fever

LASV Lassa virus

LCMV Lymphocytic Choriomeningitis virus

LNS Late neurological syndrome

MACV Machupo virus

MEM Modified eagles medium MOI Multiplicity of infection

MOPV Mopeia virus

MTD Mean time to death
NF-κB Nuclear factor kappa B
NHP Non-human primates

NP Nucleoprotein

NSAID National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases

NWAs New World arenaviruses
ORFs Open Reading Frames
OWAs Old World arenaviruses

P/S Penicillin-Streptomycin Antibiotics

PACT PKR activating protein

PAMPs Pathogen associated molecular patterns

PCR Polyermase chain reaction

p-eIF2α Phosphorylated eukaryotic initiation factor 2

PFU Plaque forming units PKR Protein kinase R

Poly I:C Polyinosinic:polycytidylic acid
PPE Personal protection equipment
p-PKR Phosphorylated Protein kinase R
PRNT Plaque reducing neutralization test
PRR Pattern Recognition Receptor
RIG-I Retinoic acid-inducible gene-I
rMACV recombinant Machupo virus

RNA Ribonucleic acid

RT-PCR Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction

S Small segment of the arenavirus

SC Sub-cutaneous

STAT Signal transducer and activator of transcription

SSP Stable Signal Peptide ssRNA Single Strand RNA

TCS Tissue culture supernatant

TRAF-3 Tumor necrosis factor-receptor-associated factor-3

UTMB University of Texas Medical Branch

UTR Untranslated region Z RING finger protein

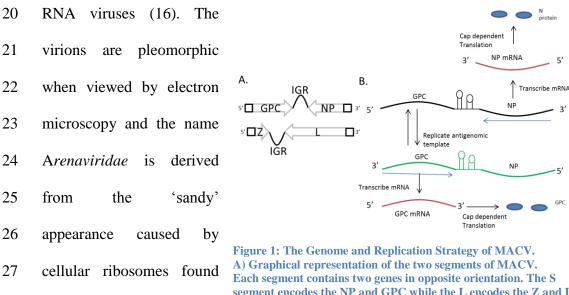
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

2	Machupo virus (MACV) is the etiological agent of Bolivian hemorrhagic fever
3	(BHF) (1, 2) and a member of the family Arenaviridae (3-9). Bolivian hemorrhagic fever
4	was first described in human patients in the Beni district of northeast Bolivia near the city
5	of San Joaquin during an outbreak that lasted from 1959 to 1963. A team of doctors from
6	the Middle American Research Unit (MARU), led by Dr. Karl Johnson, were the first
7	investigators to identify and characterize BHF in humans (10-12).

The prototypical strain of MACV, Carvallo, was isolated from the spleen of a 2 year old lethal human case. The spleen homogenate was used to infect newborn hamsters and sick animals were euthanized and brain homogenate used for a second passage. The strain Carvallo has two passages in hamsters (1, 13, 14). Current research with MACV is limited; the virus is classified as a Center for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) Select Agent and National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID) category A pathogen requiring a biosafety level (BSL)-4 laboratory for research within the United States (15). With the reemergence of BHF in the Beni district and the construction of the interoceanic highway along northern Bolivia, the public health threat to the region must be addressed prior to another major outbreak.

VIRUS GENOME

19 Members of the *Arenaviridae* family are enveloped, bi-segmented, negative-sense



within the virion (17). The

large (L) segment (~7.2kb)

encodes two viral proteins:

Figure 1: The Genome and Replication Strategy of MACV.

A) Graphical representation of the two segments of MACV.

Each segment contains two genes in opposite orientation. The S segment encodes the NP and GPC while the L encodes the Z and L proteins. Each segment has a 5' and 3' untranslated region and each gene is separated by an IGR. B) Replication strategy for the S segment of MACV. The NP gene can be directly transcribed into mRNA by the L protein. NP mRNA is translated into protein. To generate GPC an antigenomic template is replicated by the L protein. This template is transcribed into GPC mRNA, translated into GPC, and post-translationally cleaved into GP1, GP2, and SSP

the RNA dependent RNA polymerase (L protein) (18, 19) and a RING finger protein (Z), the arenavirus equivalent to a matrix protein (20-24). The small (S) segment (~3.3kb) encodes two viral proteins: the viral glycoprotein precursor (GPC) and the nucleoprotein (NP) (Fig. 1A). The GPC is post-translationally cleave d in two steps; 1) the cellular signal peptidase cleaves GPC to generate the stable signal peptide (SSP) and 2) the SKI-1/S1P subtilase cleaves the remainder into two glycoproteins, GP-1 and GP-2 (25-30). The SSP is myristoylated following cleavage, and is necessary for the transport of the GP-1/2 polypeptide from the endoplasmic reticulum to the golgi and for the targeted trafficking of the GP-1 and 2 proteins to the cellular membrane prior to virion budding

(29, 31). The viral spike comprises a globular head formed by the GP-1 while GP-2 is bound in the lipid bilayer of the cellular membrane anchoring GP-1 to the viral particle (16, 32). NP is the most common viral protein produced during MACV infection and is the primary structural protein in the viral nucleocapsid (16). The L protein of arenaviruses has been shown to have a conserved N-terminal domain which is proposed to have endonuclease activity allowing for 'cap-snatching' and ensuring cellular driven cap-dependent translation of viral mRNAs (33).

Both the S and L segments utilize an ambisense encoding strategy with two open reading frames (ORFs), one for each gene, in opposite directions (Fig. 1B). The ORFs of both segments are separated by an intergenic region (IGR). The IGRs are predicted to

form secondary RNA structures, which are necessary for terminating transcription (34, 35). At each end of the L and S segments are untranslated regions (UTRs) of which the terminal 17-19 nucleotides are highly conserved within the *Arenaviridae* family (16, 36, 37).

These conserved termini regions are

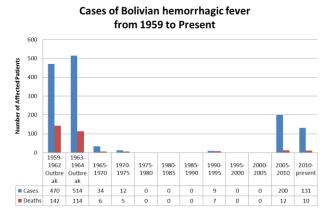


Figure 2: Reported Cases of BHF Since 1959.

A summary of the reported cases and deaths of BHF which have occurred since the original outbreak to present time (July, 2013). The reemergence of the disease is evident in the last few years with a drastic increase in reported cases since 2007. Copyright Current Opinions in Virology

reported to be vital in segment pan-handle formation for viral template replication and transcription (16, 38, 39).

GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION AND EPIDEMIOLOGY OF MACHUPO VIRUS

The first outbreak of MACV was reported in Bolivia between 1959 and 1964.

Between 1976 and 1993 there were no reported cases of BHF, probably due to both the



61

78

Figure 3: Map of Bolivia.

A map identifying different important locations within Bolivia. 1) The city of Magdalena which was a site of a limited number of cases in 1994. 2) City of San Joaquin and surrounding areas, the site of the original 1959-1964 outbreak. 3) The city of San Roman where 3 cases of BHF were identified in 93 and 08. 4) The capital of Bolivia and highest population city of the country, La Paz. The yellow oval identifies the predicted range of the rodent reservoir of MACV while the green line identifies the location of the pan-oceanic highway. Copyright Current Opinions in Virology

implementation of rodent control measures in the populated urban areas and the underreporting of disease within the region. A limited number of cases and deaths were reported in the mid-1990s including a familial outbreak resulting in 6 infections. Since 2006, there has been an increase in the cases reported compared to the previous decades, with a peak of reported cases in 2008 (1, 40-44) (Fig. 2).

During the 1959 outbreak, researchers identified *Calomys callosus* (2), the large vesper mouse, as the most likely natural

77 vector and reservoir for MACV. C. callosus has a wide natural geographical range

including portions of Bolivia, Brazil, Paraguay, and Argentina (45). While C. callosus are

found throughout many countries of South America, MACV is endemic within only a small geographic region of Bolivia (Fig. 3). This region of endemic MACV corresponds with the same geographic region in which a specific monophyletic linage of *C. callosus* is found (46). The same phenomenon of a single rodent reservoir is reported with other arenaviruses (47-50).

The infection rate of captured and necropsied *C. callosus* animals has ranged from 11% to 80% (2, 44, 51). Laboratory testing showed that nearly 100% of neonatal (≤3 days) *C. callosus* challenged IP with MACV become persistently infected with detectable viremia and continued to shed from the urine and saliva. The infected animals had no detectable clinical disease and never developed neutralizing antibodies against MACV (52). Contrary to the young animals, older (>2 weeks) animals challenged IP with MACV developed two distinct responses to infection. One group was very similar to the young animals except that they had a higher likelihood of anemia and reduced fertility when compared to the infected neonate animals (14, 52, 53). The second group developed neutralizing antibodies 4 weeks post infection. At the same time, the virus was cleared from the blood it was no longer detectable in the urine and saliva.

The route of infection in humans is believed to be similar to other South American hemorrhagic arenaviruses; through breathing in aerosolized excreta or secreta from the rodent reservoir, consumption of contaminated food, or through direct mucus membrane contact with infectious particles (12, 16). Nosocomial transmission has been

reported in BHF cases when family members visiting ill patients developed BHF (54, 55). Further evidence of human to human transmission occurred in 1971 when four secondary cases of BHF were identified in hospital workers following close contact with a patient suffering from BHF (56). Clinical evidence supports the nosocomial spread of MACV, however, the epidemiologic evidence does not support this form of transmission as a method for maintaining an epidemic (10).

In the first two to three years of the 1959 outbreak, most of the cases were in male adults in the rural areas around San Joaquin. The high male case-rate is suspected to be due to the high male-to-female ratio of individuals working in the fields. In 1962, an increase in the number of urban cases was correlated to a decrease in the domestic feline population (10), and to an increase in the rodent populations within the town. The drop in feline population is suspected to have been caused by an over exposure to DDT and not due to infection from MACV. Control of the outbreak was accomplished by 1965 following identification of the rodent reservoir and initiation of a systematic trapping of rodents including the importation of a natural predator (12, 14). The cases reported in 1994 were also initially identified within a single family unit in which the primary case was a rural worker (41); the most recent cases have been linked to rural/agricultural activities as well (40). All of the recent reported cases of BHF have originated in the Beni district of Bolivia (Fig. 3).

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF BOLIVIAN HEMORRHAGIC FEVER

119

120 Following aerosol exposure, arenavirus particles are likely engulfed by alveolar 121 macrophages leading to the Hypothermia Hypotension first cellular infection (57). 122 Hemorrhage of Fever mucosal Nausea membranes Hypersensitivity 123 The incubation period for Petechiae Leukopenia **Epistaxis** Thrombo-124 BHF is 3 to 16 days Hematemesis cytopenia Melena Proteinuria 125 Metrorrhagia following exposure (58).Headache Encephalopathy Malaise Hair loss **Tremors** Myalgia 126 Previously, exposure was General weakness Dehydration Muscle spasms Rapid pulse Cough Delirium Beau's Lines 127 believed to consistently lead Coma Hemorrhagic/ Convalescence Neurologic 128 clinical disease (10).Weeks to months 2 to 10 days 129 However, recent studies have Figure 4: Clinical Disease Progression of Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever in Humans. 130 A figure formed from a conglomeration of clinical reports identifying detected a number of people the most commonly reported clinical symptoms in humans infected with Bolivian hemorrhagic fever. Patients commonly present to local health detectable 131 with IgG authorities following development of severe symptoms which can develop in the late prodromal to early hemorrhagic/neurologic phases. **Copyright Current Opinions in Virology** 132 antibodies against MACV with no history of BHF (16). These unpublished samplings could imply a number of 133 134 possibilities: MACV might be less lethal than identified in the initial outbreak; MACV 135 might be more widespread than previously thought within the Beni district; or MACV 136 virulence has reduced since the original outbreak in the 1960s (16). 137 The prodromal phase of BHF is similar to that of Argentine hemorrhagic fever (AHF) caused by Junin virus (JUNV), with the onset of fever, malaise, myalgia, 138

headache, and anorexia. This develops into severe symptoms including vomiting, hypersensitivity to physical contact, and early signs of vascular damage. Laboratory findings of clinical samples include leukopenia, thrombocytopenia, and proteinuria during the prodromal phase (12, 16, 55, 58) (Fig. 4).

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

151

152

153

154

155

156

157

158

Approximately one third of patients progress into a neurologic or hemorrhagic disease phase within a week of the prodromal phase. Symptoms include flushing of the head and torso, petechiae, hypotension, epistaxis, hematemesis, melena, delirium, convulsions, tremors, coma, and death (59). The cause of these neurological issues is currently unknown. The case fatality rate varies between outbreaks of BHF but was estimated to be around 25% during the initial 1959 to 1964 outbreak (16). While a late neurological syndrome comparable to that reported with JUNV infected patients treated with immune plasma, the neurological disease does appear to be more pronounced in BHF patients (55, 60). If immune plasma treatment is initiated within the region, it is possible cases of LNS will be observed at a comparable rate, 10%, to AHF (61). The convalescent phase can last up to eight weeks and can include fatigue, dizziness and hair loss. The effectiveness of immune serum treatment of non-human primates following exposure to MACV implies clearance is mediated through a humoral immune response (62). This is different from what has been identified in cases of Lassa Fever (LASF), a representative of the Old World arenaviruses (OWAs), where a cellular response is crucial for protection (63, 64).

DIAGNOSIS, TREATMENT, AND CARE FOR BOLIVIAN HEMORRHAGIC FEVER

Identification of MACV infection can be accomplished in the late stages of the prodromal phase utilizing an enzyme linked immunosorbent assays (ELISAs) to identify the presence of IgM and IgG antibodies to NP from collected serum or tissue (16). Diagnostic reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) tests are also available for quick and accurate identification of the presence of MACV RNA but the kit and equipment is only available at larger hospitals and laboratories in Bolivia. Virus isolated from the blood and tissue samples can be utilized to identify virus infection however, there are several drawback including the length of time and required personal protection equipment (PPE).

Currently, there are no Food and Drug Administration (FDA) approved vaccines or therapeutics for BHF. During the 1959 outbreak, supportive care and proper administration of fluids were the best known treatment options for patients in Bolivia (55). Convalescent immune plasma from survivors was utilized in the case of four infected researchers, all of whom recovered (65). Researchers have identified a dose-dependent protection against MACV when rhesus monkeys were treated 4 HPI with human immunoglobulin (62). However, no clinical trials have been completed in human patients. In the same study 75% of infected primates treated with moderate to high (.5 to 1.5mL/kg of immunoglobulin) doses of immunoglobulin developed a chronic, late neurological disease (62). All three treated primates that developed signs of neurological

impairment died weeks after clinical signs of acute BHF had abated (62). An additional study in non-human primates (NHPs) identified a lethal chronic neurological disease in rhesus monkeys in which six animals receiving convalescent serum succumbed to neurological disease (66).

The efficacy of ribavirin, an antiviral therapeutic shown to be effective against Lassa virus (LASV), has been used to treat two patients, both of whom recovered from the disease (67, 68). While both patients recovered, it is impossible to determine if ribavirin played a direct role in their recovery, expansion of clinical trials into the region would be necessary. However, due to the limited number of reported cases in region, the lack of infrastructure, and high costs, no clinical trials have been initiated (41, 67). Preliminary reports also identified vaccination with Candid#1 (a vaccine against AHF) to be protective in NHPs against MACV, but no further testing has been completed to confirm these findings in humans (69). Recent studies in immunocompromised mice have demonstrated a significant efficacy of ribavirin against MACV (70). The lack of clinical infrastructure to support a national convalescent serum stock in Bolivia combined with no proven effective therapeutics or vaccines against MACV will make controlling future outbreaks of MACV difficult.

ANIMAL MODELS FOR MACHUPO VIRUS

Animal models have provided most of the information currently available on MACV pathogenesis (Appendix I). Unlike other arenaviruses, rodent reduction programs successfully controlled MACV from the 1970s to the early 1990s. The number of human cases identified with LASV and JUNV has been important in developing a clearer picture of disease progression and pathogenesis as well as providing key clinical isolates for study within the laboratory. This has not been possible with MACV, making the early NHP and other animal studies important in understanding BHF pathogenesis.

Non-Human Primates:

Four NHP species have been utilized in studying BHF disease pathogenesis. Adult marmosets (*Saquinus geoffroyi*) have been shown to develop a lethal infection following subcutaneous (SC) infection, scarified skin exposure, and corneal instillation, but not through intranasal (IN) or oral administration of MACV (71). The time to death in marmosets ranged from 11 to 21 days following SC infection and was dependent upon infection dose. Virus was successfully isolated from the brains, spleens, kidneys, heart, liver, saliva, and urine (1 sample) of animals that succumbed to disease (53). Clinical signs, such as lethargy, weakness, and hypothermia appeared one to three days prior to death.

Rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta) have been shown to develop a lethal infection following SC infection with MACV. Disease progression was described as biphasic, similar to human disease. Two studies, both utilizing adult and young rhesus macaques, identified clinical illness developing five to six days post infection (DPI). Early symptoms included depression, fever, anorexia, diarrhea, facial rash, and conjunctivitis. Disease progression continued in all macaques with severely ill animals becoming moribund a day or two prior to death. In the first study, animals were infected with either 10⁵ or 10³ plaque forming units (pfu) of MACV, and the mean time to death (MTD) was 14.3 and 19.5 DPI respectively with a 100% case fatality rate (72). A second report utilizing young (2.5-4kg) and adult (5-8kg) rhesus macaques resulted in mortality rates of 85% and 50% following infection with 10³ pfu (73). The MTD was similar as with the first study. Survivors developed late neurological disease 26 to 41 days after infection in which 66% of the surviving young macaques and all of the adult macaques succumbed to disease (73). Histopathological examination of infected macaques identified moderate to severe encephalitis with vasculitis and internal hemorrhage. Following SC infection, 100% of cynomolgus monkeys (Macaca fascicularis) became viremic at five DPI. Minimal clinical signs were identified in diseased animals when compared to rhesus macaques. Infected cynomolgus animals had a reported 70% mortality rate during the acute phase of the disease(73). The MTD was similar to that of the rhesus monkey along with comparable LNS development in survivors of the initial phase of the disease. Animals which developed LNS had a 50% mortality rate (73).

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

MACV disease progression has also been studied in the African green monkey (*Cercopithecus aethiops*). Following SC infection, 100% of animal subjects succumbed to MACV infection, 83% to the acute infection and 17% to late neurological development (74). Histopathological samples taken at the time of death identified necrosis and systemic hemorrhage in the kidneys, liver, and spleen of infected animals. Pneumonia was also identified during necropsies in all of the infected African green monkeys. The clinical development of disease was biphasic, similar to that of the rhesus monkeys, but not cynomologus monkeys or adult marmosets (66, 72-74).

Small Mammals:

Adult small mammals have shown a strong resistance to MACV infection. Inbred adult mice (BALB/C, C3H/HCN, AKR, DBA/2, C57BL/6) challenged by the intracranial (IC) or intraperitoneal (IP) routes had no detectable viremia or illness but developed a strong neutralizing antibody response shown by plaque reducing neutralization test (PRNT) (53). Young and suckling inbred mice, less than two days old, develop a lethal infection following challenge IP or IC but do not develop any hemorrhagic symptoms comparable to BHF described in humans or NHPs (53, 71).

A report utilizing signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) -1 knockout mice described the development of lethal disease following IP (MTD = 7.3 days, 100% mortality), SC (MTD=10 days, 66% mortality), and IN (MTD=20, 25% mortality). Virus was detected in the spleen, kidneys, serum, lung, and liver. Clinical

development of disease including ruffled fur, hunched back, awkward gait, and lethargy were apparent at 5 DPI (70). (53).

An additional mouse model utilizing interferon $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ receptor knockout (IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/-) mice has been reported to develop a lethal disease following challenge with MACV through an IP route of injection (75). Animals were challenged with either wild type MACV or a recombinant MACV virus and were reported to develop two clinical phases of disease. From around 10 to 14 DPI animals were reported to lose a significant percent of body weight when compared to uninfected animals. Peak weight loss observed during the acute phase occurs between 14 to 16 DPI. From this period until severe neurological disease develops, animal bodyweight appears to stabilize, but rarely returns to baseline levels. Starting at 22 DPI, animals developed neurological symptoms including ataxia, rear limb-paralysis, and an awkward gait. One to three days prior to death, infected animals had severe weight and body temperature loss with a MTD around 28 DPI.

Adult hamsters, when challenged IN or orally with MACV, did not develop detectable illness. When infected through an IP or IC route at 1,000 pfu with MACV, adult hamsters developed detectable viremia but no observable signs of illness. Neutralizing and complement fixing antibodies are detected 30 days after IC and IP challenge in hamsters (53, 71). Suckling hamsters (less than 6 days old) have been reported to develop a lethal infection following challenge IP, IC, or IN but there are no published reports of disease development or characterization in these animals (53, 71).

Both outbred (Hartley) and inbred (C-13) species of adult guinea pigs have been reported to develop a lethal infection following challenge with MACV. The characterization of disease development in either species has not been well reported (53, 56, 76). There are no reports utilizing young guinea pigs as an animal model. Other adult animals that have been shown to develop a detectable neutralizing antibody response but no disease are horses, cats, rats, and other outbred wild mice species (71).

THE INNATE IMMUNE RESPONSE TO ARENAVIRUS INFECTION

The Interferon Response to Viral Infection

The recognition of viral targets and activation of the innate immune response is essential to control viral infection. Initiation of an innate immune response in cells is through pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), which can bind to a large number of pathogen associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) (77). Upon recognition of viral infection, production of type-I interferons (IFN) α and β can be up-regulated leading to the secretion of the IFNs (78-81). Three classes of PRRs associated with induction of type I IFN response to viral infection are retinoic acid-inducible gene-I-like receptors (RLRs), toll-like receptors (TLRs), and nucleotide oligomerization domain (NOD)-like receptors (82-84). The RLRs are further subdivided into retinoic acid-inducible gene-I (RIG-I), melanoma differentiation-associated gene 5 (MDA-5), and laboratory of genetics and physiology 2 (LGP2) cytosolic helicases, all of which are capable of recognizing unique facets of RNA associated with viral infection (77, 85-89).

Recognition by any of these three PRRs leads to activation and translocation into the nucleus of interferon regulatory factors (IRFs) and nuclear factor κB (NF- κB) which stimulate the production of IFN- α/β (84, 90-92). The PRR RIG-I can recognize single

stranded RNA (ssRNA) generated during viral replication processes with 5'-triphosphates or short double strand RNA (dsRNA) leading to activation of IFN-β promoter stimulator-1 (IPS-1) found on the mitochondrial membrane (88, 93). IPS-1 acts as a binding protein leading to the recruitment of tumor necrosis factor-receptorassociated factor-3 (TRAF-3) which can further activate the serine/threonine kinases IkB kinase ε/TANK-binding kinase (IKKε/TBK)complex. Once activated, IKKe/TBK-1phosphorylates IFN regulatory factor (IRF) -3 and -7 which translocates into the nucleus to

initiate IFN expression (82, 92, 94-97).

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

317

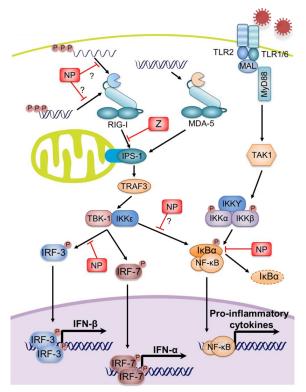


Figure 5: Proposed Mechanisms of Arenavirus Control of the Innate Immune Response. Graphical representation of the reported mechanisms which arenaviruses utilize to control the innate immune response and induction of IFN. These mechanisms were primarily identified through plasmid expression of genes of utilizing of infectious arenaviruses other than JUNV and MACV. NP is proposed to have 3'to5' exonuclease activity able to degrade viral ds or ssRNA. Z of NW arenaviruses has been shown to interact with RIG-I inhibiting downstream signaling. NP is also shown to interact with IKK ϵ inhibiting the phosphorylation of IRF-3 and -7. NP also inhibits activation of NF- κ B. Image Copyright Journal of Molecular Biology

Upon IFN synthesis, the cytokine is secreted from the cell and binds the cell surface IFN receptors(98). Activation of the IFN receptor leads to downstream activation of the Janus protein kinases (JAKs) Tyk and Jak1 that induce the phosphorylation and activation STAT-1/2, which leads to upregulation of many different IFN stimulated genes (IGSs) and the establishment of an antiviral state in the stimulated cell (87, 99, 100).

Modulation of the Innate Immune Response by Arenaviruses

Reports of LASF describe very low levels of type I IFN, proinflammatory cytokine production, T cell activation, and human dendritic cell activation from a number of *in vitro*, *in vivo*, and clinical data (16, 101-107). In contrast to LASF suppression/lack of activation of the innate immune response, JUNV has been reported to induce strong levels of IFN (2000-64,000 IU/mL) and cytokine production in the serum of patients suffering from AHF (108, 109). High levels of IFN have been linked to disease severity and poor outcome (108, 109). The induction of IFN has also been reported in NHPs infected with MACV or JUNV and from hamsters infected with Pichinde virus (PICV) (110-112). *In vitro* studies have reported that macrophages and monocytes productively infected with JUNV do not induce a cytokine response while infection of A549 cells (human carcinoma epithelial cells) has been shown to induce IFN production through RIG-I recognition resulting in upregulation of ISGs (113, 114).

In addition to IFN production and ISG synthesis, cells have the capability to reduce biosynthesis in the cell as one step in developing an antiviral state in the cell with

the goal resisting viral infection. The protein kinase R (PKR), an ISG, is capable of recognizing double-stranded RNA (dsRNA), which often is formed during viral replication. Once bound to dsRNA, PKR autophosphorylates to become active (p-PKR). Once activated, p-PKR can phosphorylate eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 (eIF2 α), an essential element for gene translation. Once eIF2 α is phosphorylated, cap dependent translation of genes is severely inhibited as the complex is no longer able recycle bound guanosine diphosphate (100, 115).

In recent reports, plasmid driven expression of NP from lymphocytic choriomengitis virus (LCMV), JUNV, PICV, MACV, and LASV inhibited the nuclear translocation of IRF-3 in Vero cells infected with Sendai virus (116). NP has also been shown to prevent the phosphorylation of IRF-3 by binding and blocking IKK ϵ activity (117). As a third proposed mechanism of preventing the establishment of an antiviral state by NP, it has been shown that NP expression can inhibit the activation and therefore, the translocation and transcription activity of nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) (118). Both the GPC and NP of JUNV, expressed transiently in IFN incompetent Vero cells, have been shown to inhibit the phosphorylation of eIF2 α , inhibiting the establishment of an antiviral state in the infected cell (119). Additionally, the plasmid-expressed Z protein from New World arenaviruses (NWAs) but not OWAs has been shown to bind RIG-I in A549 cells, inhibiting the induction of IFN production (120). This evidence suggests that both OWAs and NWAs have multiple mechanisms of controlling

the innate immune response but the clinical evidence from AHF and LASF cases suggests a marked difference on the impact of JUNV on IFN production then what is reported in these *in vitro* studies (Fig. 5).

PROPOSAL AIMS:

This dissertation spans three aims regarding the generation and characterization of a rMACV. Each aim and corresponding hypothesis is stated below:

Specific Aim 1: Establish a reverse genetics system for the rescue of rMACV and characterize the virus. My hypothesis is that the rescue of a recombinant MACV can be accomplished utilizing a Pol-I/II plasmid system. The rationale for this aim is based upon previous research in the Paessler laboratory, which successfully rescued a recombinant JUNV utilizing the Pol I/II promoter plasmid driven system.

Specific Aim 2: Characterization of the innate immune response to MACV infection *in vitro*. My hypothesis is that infection by MACV will induce an innate immune response comparable to that of JUNV. Previous reports in NHP models identified the strong induction of IFN following challenge with MACV comparable to that reported in JUNV clinical patients (111). There are no reported clinical findings of IFN induction in human cases of BHF.

Specific Aim 3: Rationally attenuate rMACV and characterize it *in vivo*. The hypothesis for this aim is that a mutation in the F437 amino acid of the transmembrane

region of GP2 will attenuate MACV neurovirulence in a mouse model. Previous work has identified a mutation, F427I, in the transmembrane region of GP2 in Candid#1 as a major determinant for attenuation for neurovirulence in mice (121, 122). This transmembrane region is highly conserved in MACV.

SIGNIFICANCE:

The number of cases of Bolivian hemorrhagic fever has increased in recent years (40, 42-44, 123). The increase in the number of at risk individuals living in endemic regions, expansion of farming land, and mechanization of farming equipment are all potential players in the reemergence of MACV. With the newly completed Transoceanic highway there will be increased trade and travel via the southern portion of Bolivia which increases the risk of disease spread and rodent host expansion to other regions of South America. In addition, the continued threat of MACV as a biological terror threat due to easy aerosol generation and high mortality rates makes MACV a viable threat not just to the endemic Bolivian region but to surrounding countries and the United States.

While reverse genetic systems for other arenaviruses has been described, there has been no development of a reverse genetics system for the study of MACV (38, 124-127). Once established, it will provide a mechanism to generate genetically identical and stable stocks of MACV that can be shared with other laboratories and increase the quality and comparability of data coming from different sources. Additionally it will provide us the tools to rationally modify the genome of the virus. This eliminates the need for extensive passaging as was used to generate the attenuated strain of JUNV. Using this tool and the knowledge gained from the attenuation of other arenaviruses we can generate

the first attenuated strain of MACV. Knowledge gained from this development can be utilized for generating other attenuated arenaviruses, and may assist in the long term goal of developing a pan-NWA vaccine.

With the completion of these aims this dissertation will describe the first development of a minigenome system for MACV that can be used for replication studies as well as the reverse genetics system to generate infectious MACV from cDNA. The first reports will be generated on the in vitro immune response of human cells to MACV infection, and a novel murine model to study MACV pathogenesis. Finally, to demonstrate the use of the reverse genetics systems I will rationally modify MACV in an attempt to attenuate the virus. The attenuation of the virus can be analyzed utilizing the murine model characterized in the first aim of my dissertation.

CHAPTER 2: RESCUE OF RECOMBINANT MACHUPO VIRUS

INTRODUCTION:

Background

Reverse genetics systems have been developed for a number of different viruses in the past decades. The development of such systems allows the rational manipulation and modification of the viral genome without the inherent randomness of passaging virus in different cells or tissues to generate mutations. The first reported reverse genetic system was for the dsDNA simian virus 40 (128). Similarly, systems for rescuing positive ssRNA viruses such the bacteriophage Qβ, Sindbis virus, and Semliki forest virus. Reverse genetics systems were developed for these virus by generating viral cDNA, inserting the complete cDNA into a plasmid, and replicating it into infectious mRNA, either through *ex vitro* polymerase or transfection *in vitro* (129-131).

The development of such systems for segmented negative- or ambi- sense ssRNA viruses, such as arenaviruses, is more difficult. The first segmented negative sense ssRNA virus to be rescued completely from cDNA was Bunyamwera virus (132). The systems for negative sense ssRNA segmented viruses can be more complicated than systems for DNA or positive sense RNA viruses. These systems require expression

plasmids, transfected in trans, containing the genes for the viral proteins necessary for virus transcription, replication, and sometimes packaging. Additionally, plasmids for each segment must be generated and transfected for each segment of the viral genome.

To test the functionality and replication of these reverse genetic systems, minigenome assays have been developed concurrent with many reverse genetics systems. These assays replace the viral genes with genes encoding reporter proteins, such as GFP and firefly luciferase, allowing researchers to study the replication processes of a virus without generating virus. In the case of high containment pathogens, such as MACV, minigenome assays allow researchers to study the life cycle of the virus in a lower containment environment which can expand the number of researchers capable of studying aspects of the virus while reducing the costs associated with high containment pathogens. Additionally, these systems have provided insights and screening strategies for identifying antivirals which can affect the replication of the target virus (16, 127, 133-135).

The development of a reverse genetics system is a multistep process. A complete sequence of the L and S segments of MACV is necessary to ensure the accurate translation of viable viral proteins and RNA. As previously reported with JUNV, the sequence of the 19 termini nucleotides at the 5' and 3' UTRs might be inaccurate at the 6 and 8 base pair position (38). With these inaccuracies, the rescue of a recombinant JUNV was not possible (38). An essential step in the rescue of a rMACV is to confirm that the

viral sequence is identical to the published online sequence. The insertion of an L segment into an expression plasmid has been notoriously difficult when establishing reverse genetic systems for other arenaviruses. When inserted, the transfected competent bacterial cells do not grow as efficiently nor is the insertion stable (Personal communication Dr. Paessler, Alexey Seregin). In addition to full segment insertion, the functionality of the RNA dependent RNA polymerase expressed by the expression plasmid has been reported to be problematic (Personal communication Dr. Paessler, Alexey Seregin).

The availability of a good animal model for MACV is limited. Adult inbred mice are generally resistant to infection with MACV. Early reports identified suckling hamsters and inbred mice as susceptible following IC challenge (1). Recently, immunoincompetent STAT-1 knockout mice have been reported to develop an acute and lethal infection following intraperitoneal (IP) challenge with MACV, highlighting the importance of an intact IFN pathway in restricting MACV infection but this model did not follow the disease progression which has been reported in BHF cases (70).

Guinea pigs have also been reported to succumb to MACV infection following IP challenge but the disease development has not been well characterized (1, 56). Studies utilizing 'chaired' NHPs, a method of restraining the NHPs for extended periods which can induce high levels of stress on the animal, reported lethal disease development following intradermal (ID), intramuscular (IM), and IN routes of infection (66, 72, 74,

136). As many of the NHPs utilized for these studies were wild caught, the extended periods of constant restraint could lead to extreme stress in the animals. Interestingly, African green monkeys, rhesus macaques, and cynomolgus monkeys developed a lethal late neurological syndrome (LNS), a disease also reported in guinea pig models infected with JUNV (137). In addition to the neurological involvement identified in serious cases of BHF, both LASV and JUNV have been reported to cause different clinical forms of neurological disease in humans and animal models (65, 138, 139). These clinical signs range from muscle tremors and spasms to delirium, coma, and, in the case of LASF, permanent deafness (55, 140,

477 141).

468

469

470

471

472

473

474

475

476

478

485

487

Gaps in knowledge

479 A reverse genetics

480 system for MACV has not

481 been established, nor has a

482 minigenome assay for

483 studying replication kinetics.

484 The lack of a small rodent

model, which mimics human

486 disease, also makes it very

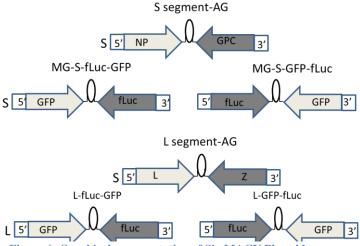


Figure 6: Graphical representation of Six MACV Plasmids. The MACV S and L antigenomic cDNA inserts are shown (S segment AG and L segment AG, respectively) in the orientation of the full segment insertion into the plasmids. Additionally, four MACV MG reporter plasmids (S-fLuc-GFP, S-GFP-fLuc, L-fLuc-GFP and L-GFP-fLuc) were generated with fLuc and GFP genes replacing viral genes in the S and L segments while leaving the UTR and IGR in place. Copyright Journal of Virology

difficult to study MACV in vivo without the increased risk and cost of NHPs. These tools

are essential for moving forward in studying MACV virulence and the development of antiviral countermeasures.

Hypothesis

Based upon previous research completed within my laboratory developing a JUNV reverse genetics system, I hypothesize that the rescue of a recombinant MACV can be accomplished utilizing a Pol-I/II plasmid system. With the completion of this hypothesis, I expect three novel tools to be established which will further the field of MACV research; a minigenome assay, a reverse genetics system, and a lethal animal model.

Significance

First, the establishment of a reverse genetics system for MACV and subsequent rescue of a rMACV will provide a powerful tool for future studies of the virus. Traditional methods of attenuation would require extensive passaging in different animal and cell types without any control over the mutations, which evolve. The reverse genetics system will provide us the capability to study the genetic determinants of virulence. We will be able to rationally modify entire genes down to specific amino acids. It will also provide us with the ability to generate a genetically stable stock of virus from plasmids, eliminating the need for additional passaging or long term storage of a Select Agent.

Second, a minigenome assay will provide us the ability to test the functionality of the MACV NP and L, the proteins essential for viral genome replication, in expressing reporter genes inserted in place of MACV genes in the full segment plasmids (Fig. 6). In addition, the development of a minigenome system would provide a useful tool for studying MACV replication mechanisms outside of the BSL-4 laboratory as has been shown with other arenaviruses (38, 142-148).

Third, the modern *in vitro* characterization of MACV and the establishment of a novel murine model would provide the field the knowledge and tools to further study MACV biology. Much of the *in vitro* research characterizing MACV growth kinetics was completed in the 1970s on cell lines, which may no longer be applicable or available. Additionally, the development of a murine model which more closely follows the human disease would be more cost effective, safer, and quicker than utilization of NHPs.

METHODS:

Cells, viruses, and biosafety

Baby hamster kidney (BHK-21) and Vero-CCL81 cells (American Tissue Culture Collection) were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum and L-glutamine. The wild-type Carvallo strain of MACV (Genbank accession no. JN794583.1 and JN794584.1) was obtained from Dr. Thomas G.

Ksiazek (University of Texas Medical Branch [UTMB]). Viral working stocks of the wild type and recombinant viruses were generated by infecting Vero cells (multiplicity of infection [MOI] =0.01 pfu/cell) and collecting virus containing tissue culture supernatant (TCS) at 96 hours post infection (HPI). Cellular debris was eliminated from the TCS through centrifugation and the viruses were concentrated and purified through Ultra 100K Filter Devices (Ultracell 100K centrifugation filter, Amicon) to remove cellular factors, which may affect the immune response. The concentrate containing the virus was diluted with Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Life Technologies 11966-025) containing 2% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Life Technologies 11966-025) to generate a series of working stock aliquots of the virus. All work with infectious MACV and rMACV was performed in the UTMB BSL-4 facility in accordance with institutional and safety guidelines.

Sequencing of Full Length S and L Genomic RNAs from MACV Carvallo

RNA (0.5 to 1.0 mg) was isolated by a RNA purification kit (Zymo Research, DNA-Free RNA kit, R1014) at 96 HPI from MACV-infected Vero cells. Viral cDNA was synthesized by reverse transcription (RT) using either viral specific primers or random primers. Viral specific primers complementary to S and L genome RNAs were used to generate cDNA fragments of each segment. The entire S and L segments were amplified in three and five DNA fragments, respectively, by PCR. PCR products were gel purified (Zymo Research, Zymoclean Gel DNA recovery kit, D4001) and directly

sequenced to obtain the corresponding master sequences for the MACV S and L genome RNAs. Sequencing data was analyzed using the program Clone Manager V9.

Determination of 5' and 3' Termini of Both S and L Segments

To determine the sequences of the 5' and 3' 19 terminal regions of the S and L segments, the total RNA was isolated from Vero cells infected with MACV. RNA was treated with RNA 5' Tobacco acid pyrophosphatase (Epicentre) and ligated using T4 RNA ligase as I previously described (38). The ligated RNA was reverse transcribed utilizing the primers MACV_SsegR312 (5'-AGGGTGACTGACTGGAACTC-3'), MACV_SsegF3129 (5'- GACATGAGCCTATCCACTTC-3') MACV_LsegR349 (5'-TGTGATGGATGTCGGTAGTG-3'), and MACV_LsegF6917 (5'-AGGCGTGTGCTTCACAGGAC-3') for the S and L segments, respectively. The cDNA was used for amplification through PCR utilizing the same primers. Fragments were gel purified and sequenced.

MACV Minigenome Systems

The plasmids expressing MACV L and S segment minigenome were generated similarly as previously described (38). Briefly, viral genes on the pPol-I-MACVSag and pPol-I-MACVLag template plasmids were replaced by the GFP and firefly Luciferase (fLuc) reporter genes (Fig. 6). BHK-21 cells (6x10⁴/well in a 12-well plate) were transfected with 0.5µg of pPol-II-NP, 0.5µg of pPol-II-L, and 0.5µg of plasmid

expressing MACV L or S minigenome segments as indicated. At three days post transfection, cellular lysate was collected and the bioluminescent signal was assayed utilizing a luciferase reporter assay kit (Promega, E1500 or E1910) for luciferase expression.

Rescue of rMACV

The rescue of rMACV was completed in a similar manner as described previously by my laboratory (38). Briefly, equimolar amounts of the two full segment MACV plasmids and the two expression plasmids were transfected into BHK21 cells. Supernatant from these cells was collected at 4 days post transfection. A single passage in Vero cells was performed to generate a higher titer stock of rMACV. The rMACV sequence, including the introduced G1447A gene tag within the NP gene, was confirmed by whole genomic sequence analysis.

Plaque Titrations

All plaque titrations were completed on Vero-CCL81 cell lines, seeded on 6- or 12-well plates roughly 16 hours prior to infection. Samples were serially diluted in DMEM with 2% FBS and .5% P/S. Cells were infected with either 200µL or 100µl respectively and incubated for ~1 hour with shaking every 15 minutes. Wells were then overlayed with a 50:50 warmed mixture of 2% agarose in H2O and 2X modified eagles medium (MEM) with 10% FBS and .5% Penicillin-Streptomycin Antibiotics (P/S, Life

Technologies, 10378016). The plates were incubated for 8 days post infection (DPI) and fixed with 10% formalin solution. Cells were stained with crystal violet and plaques counted to determine viral load. When calculating the viral load of tissue samples, tissues were weighed prior to homogenization and media was added to the samples consistent to the measured weight, a minimum of $300\mu L$ to a maximum of $1000\mu L$. The volume and organ weight were used to calculate viral loads per gram of tissue for each sample.

Animal Experiments

Six to eight week old interferon (IFN)- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ receptor double knockout (IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/-) mice on a C57BL/6 background and wild type C57BL/6 mice were utilized for all studies. All animals were housed in a pathogen free environment. All virus infections were performed in the BSL-4 in the Galveston National Laboratory (GNL), UTMB. All animal studies were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at UTMB and were conducted according to the National Institutes of Health guidelines. Animals were anesthetized using an isoflurane precision variable-bypass vaporizer prior to virus inoculation by the IP route with 10^4 PFU. Telemetric monitoring of body temperature was accomplished throughout the studies. A BMDS IPTT-300 transponder (Bio Medic Data Systems, Inc.) was implanted subcutaneously using a trocar needle assembly. Transponders were read with a DAS-6007 reader (Bio Medic Data Systems, Inc.) and downloaded in accordance with manufacturer's protocol. Body weight measurements were performed throughout the studies by anesthetizing the animals and

weighing them, weights were compared to baseline collected at 0 DPI (38, 149). Scheduled euthanizations occurred at 14 and 14 DPI during the first study. The experimental endpoints of the two studies were both approximately 40 DPI, where surviving animals were humanely euthanized and necropsied.

Histopathological and Immunohistochemical Analysis

Tissue samples were fixed in 10% buffered formalin for a minimum of 4 days and then transferred to 70% ethanol. Samples were embedded in paraffin and cut into 5μm sections to be mounted on slides. Slides were subjected to standard hematoxylin and eosin staining as described previously (38). Immunohistochemistry targeting MACV antigen was accomplished as described previously by my laboratory (38). In brief, cut sections were deparaffinized and rehydrated through xylene and graded ethanol solutions. Endogenous peroxidase activity was blocked with a solution of Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween 20, 3% hydrogen peroxide, and 0.03% sodium azide for 15 min, followed by heat antigen retrieval in a water bath at 95°C for 40 min in Dako Target Retrieval Solution, pH 6.1 (Dako Corporation). Endogenous biotin reactivity was blocked through incubation with avidin D and biotin solutions (Vector Laboratories).

To detect MACV viral antigen, rabbit anti-peptide primary antibody targeting a 14 amino acid residue starting at amino acid residue 220 (KYPRLKKPTIWHKR, ProSci) was utilized at a dilution of 1:500 and incubated on slides for 60 minutes. Tissue samples from uninfected mice were utilized as a negative control. To prevent nonspecific protein

binding, sections were incubated in blocking solution according to the manufacturer's instructions (Histomouse-SP kit; Zymed).

Statistical Analysis

GraphPad Prism v5 was utilized for all data analysis. To determine significance in weight change, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was performed comparing a pooled group of infected wild type mice with both MACV and rMACV infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/-mice. Viral growth curve analysis was completed utilizing a two-way ANOVA test comparing all virus and cell culture types over each day. A Kaplan Meier survival curve was generated and statistical Mantel Cox test was completed to determine significant differences in survival between MACV and rMACV infected animals.

RESULTS:

5' and 3' Terminal Sequences for Machupo Virus:

I designed primers for the purpose of sequencing via PCR the MACV genome. These primers were based on two full segment S and L sequences submitted to Genbank (accession numbers JN794584, JN794583 and AY619643, AY619642). The terminal 19 nucleotides of the 5'- and 3'-ends of arenavirus genomic RNAs are highly conserved and have been shown to be important for successful rescue of recombinant virus using reverse genetics systems and the functionality of the arenavirus RNA polymerase (38, 39,

124). I isolated viral RNA from infected Vero cells at 96 HPI and subjected it to sequence analysis by the UTMB Genomics Sequencing Facility. The MACV RNA sequence was found identical to the published JN794583 and JN794584 sequences except at the 5' and 3' ends of the UTRs.

Virus RNA- L Segment	Strain	Accession Number	5' End	3'End
Junin	Romero	Experimental	CGCACCGGGGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCCTCGGTGCG
Machupo	Carvallo	Experimental	CGCACCGGGGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCCTCGGTGCG
	Carvallo	JN794583.1	CGCACCGGGGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCC <mark>N</mark> C <mark>T</mark> GTGCG
	Carvallo	AY619642	CGCAC <mark>N</mark> G <mark>T</mark> GGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCC <mark>A</mark> C <mark>T</mark> GTGCG
Virus RNA- S Segment	Strain	Accession Number	5' End	3'Enc
Junin	Romero	Experimental	CGCACCGGGGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCCACTGTGCG
Machupo	Carvallo	Experimental	CGCACCGGGGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCCACTGTGCG
	Carvallo	JN794584.1	CGCAC <mark>N</mark> G <mark>T</mark> GGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCCACTGTGC
	Carvallo	AY619643	CGCAC <mark>A</mark> G <mark>T</mark> GGATCCTAGGC	GCCTAGGATCCACTGTGCG

Figure 7: Sequence of the MACV 19 Nucleotide 5' and 3' Genomic Termini. The terminal 19 nucleotide sequences at the 5' and 3' ends of MACV genomic RNAs were determined in this study (experimental), which are identical to the terminal regions of JUNV. Highlighted are the nucleotide differences in two MACV isolates available from GenBank (accession numbers JN794584, JN794583 and AY619643, AY619642, respectively) Copyright Journal of Virology

Through RNA ligation and amplification through the region, I found the 19 nucleotide sequences at the 5' and 3' termini of the S and L segments identified in this study were identical to that of JUNV (Fig. 7) (38). When compared to the published sequences of MACV S segment (JN794584) and L segment (JN794583), I identified two nucleotide differences at positions 6 and 8 at the 5'-end of the S segment and two nucleotide differences at positions 6 and 8 from the 3'-end of the L segment (Fig. 7). I further identified that there was one extra G present at the 5'-end of L segment for JN794583 and one missing G at the 3'-end of the S segment for JN794584.

654 Comparisons of my sequencing results to other reported MACV sequences 655 (AY619643 and AY619642) demonstrated the exact same four nucleotide differences (Fig. 7), which were also reported in the sequences of JUNV (GenBank accession 656 657 numbers AY619641 and AY619640) by other groups. These alternative nucleotides at the 658 6 and 8 positions were determined not Plasmid gatgggtgggtattccaactagatgaaggaacaat 659 to be viable for the rescue of other Wild Type gatgggtgggtattccgactagatgaaggaacaat 660 hemorrhagic arenaviruses (38, 124). PassageO qatqqqtqqqtattccaactagatgaaggaacaat Passage1 661 There were two additional nucleotide gatgggtgggtattcc<mark>a</mark>actagatgaaggaacaat 662 differences at positions 6 and 8 at the Figure 8: Silent Mutation in rMACV. Sequencing of the S segment plasmid and rMACV confirmed the single genetic marker introduced into the 663 5'-end of L segment between GP2 region at nucleotide 1407 (genomic sense) into the original plasmid. This marker allows me to distinguish MACV from rMACV. Copyright Journal of Virology 664 AY619642 and the sequence 665 determined herein (Fig. 7).

Construction of Plasmids for MACV Reverse Genetic System

666

667

668

669

670

671

672

673

To generate the pBSII-S vector plasmid containing the full-length antigenomic sense MACV S segment, two fragments derived from the S segment with overlapping restriction sites were amplified by PCR. The cDNA fragments were then digested and ligated into the vector pBlueScript (pBSII). The vector pBSII-L plasmid containing L segment was generated in a similar manner using three cDNA fragments. The last two overlapping fragments of cDNA, from ~2400bp to 7200bp, were generated through PCR amplification of the viral RNA. For the first portion of the L segment, I was unable to

generate a complete insertion of all 3 fragments into a vector plasmid. I ordered the

Homologous Control

Romero L protein Candid L protein

Negative Controls

1000000

100000

1000

Bioluminescent Signal

675 missing 2600 basepair fragment

676 to be synthesized and inserted

677 into a vector plasmid (Gene

678 Synthesis). Upon receiving the

> synthesized fragment and

plasmid, I digested and ligated

the two other fragments to

generate a complete L segment

683

674

679

680

681

682

684

686

687

688

689

690

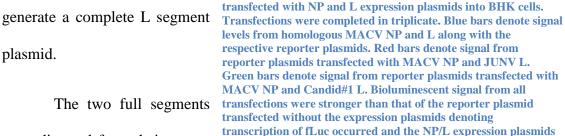
691

692

693

685

were digested from their vector are functional. Copyright Journal of Virology



LFLucGFP

Figure 9: Bioluminescent Signal From Reporter Plasmids. Bioluminescent signal strength from four reporter plasmids

Template Plasmid

L'GFP FLUE

plasmids and inserted in antigenomic orientation into the murine Pol-I driven pRF42 mPol-I expressing plasmid, generating pPol-I-MACVSag and pPol-I-MACVLag plasmids, which expressed the full length viral S segment genomic RNA and L segment genomic RNA, respectively (Fig. 5). A silent G to A mutation at nucleotide 1407 within the GPC gene was introduced into the S segment as a genetic marker for the recombinant MACV (Fig. 8).

To express the MACV NP and L proteins in trans, MACV NP and L genes were cloned into the Pol-II driven mammalian gene expression plasmid pTriEx-1 to generate plasmids pPol-II-NP and pPol-II-L respectively. An RsrII restriction site was added to the 5' end of primers corresponding to the ATG codon of each gene, and was utilized for digestion and ligation of the gene segments into the plasmids. The L polymerase gene was inserted into pTriEx-1 by three DNA fragment ligation (pPol-II-L) while the NP was directly inserted as a single fragment (pPol-II-NP). Sequences of all plasmids were confirmed by sequence analysis by the UTMB Molecular Sequencing Core.

Development of the Machupo Virus Minigenome

To confirm whether the 5' and 3' UTRs of MACV identified in this study were functional for virus RNA replication and transcription, I developed a MACV minigenome

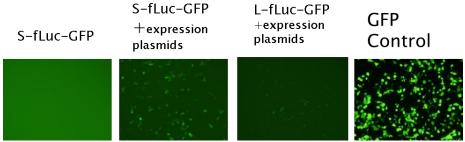


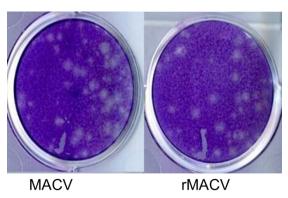
Figure 10: Image of Fluorescent Cells.

Photographs of BHK cells following transfection. Negative control cells were transfected with only the reporter plasmid. The second two slides present BHK cells transfected with the respective reporter plasmid, MACV NP expression plasmid, and MACV L expression plasmid. GFP control represents cells transfected with a GFP expressing plasmid.

system. Minigenome reporter plasmids were generated containing the full UTRs and IGRs of MACV S and L segments with viral genes replaced by either fLuc or GFP reporter genes (Fig. 6). Plasmids expressing MACV L and NP in *trans* were generated by inserting viral NP and L protein genes into a Pol-II-based expression vector (pTriEx-1, pPol-II-NP and pPol-II-L). Results from my minigenome experiment (n=3 for each

reporter plasmid) confirmed the homologous MACV L and NP provided in *trans* were sufficient to support MACV minigenome RNA replication and transcription (Fig. 9). Cell monolayers visualized under a fluorescent microscope also confirmed the synthesis of GFP in the cells (Fig. 10). These results also confirmed the functionality of the UTR regions I had identified previously. Minigenome-driven fLuc reporter gene expression was substantially stronger for all minigenome constructs in the presence of NP and L protein when compared with samples transfected with the minigenome reporter plasmids only.

To further test the compatibility of MACV minigenome template with heterologous L proteins derived from other NWAs, I tested the relative efficiencies of the L protein of JUNV Romero and JUNV Candid #1 vaccine strain in supporting MACV minigenome



strain in supporting MACV minigenome

strain in supporting MACV minigenome

strain in supporting MACV minigenome

rMACV.

Infected Vero-CCL81 cells were fixed 8 DPI and stained with crystal violet. Size and shape of plaques for MACV and rMACV are similar providing evidence that no phenotypic change has occurred in the rMACV. Copyright Journal of Virology

JUNV, Romero and Candid#1, as they are genotypically similar to MACV. Sequencing comparison of published JUNV virus sequences (accession numbers AY619640, AY619641, AY746353, and AY746354) to MACV (accession numbers JN794583 and JN794584) identified a 69% and 72% nucleotide similarity for the L and S segments

respectively. Amino acid similarity between the virus segments were 73% and 87% for the L and S segments.

730

731

732

733

734

735

736

Analysis of the MACV minigenome-driven fLuc expression confirmed that the L protein of both JUNV and Candid#1 were compatible with MACV NP in supporting MACV minigenome RNA replication and transcription (Fig. 9). These data clearly showed that the L protein of JUNV could replace its MACV counterpart in the minigenome systems, suggesting the feasibility of rational design of a modified rMACV by introducing heterogeneous L gene from the attenuated JUNV into MACV genome.

Rescue of Recombinant Machupo Virus and In Vitro Characterization

737 To generate rMACV Growth of MACV and rMACV in IFN Competent A549 Cells Limit of Detection 738 from cloned cDNA plasmids, I 10⁷ (bfu/mL) A549 MACV MOI=0.01 10⁶ A549 rMACV MOI=0.01 10⁵ A549 MACV MOI=1.0 739 transfected BHK cells with Viral Titer A549 rMACV MOI=1.0 10³ 10² 740 equimolar concentrations of 101 100-2 741 pPol-I-MACVSag, pPol-I-Figure 12: Infection of A549 Cells With MACV and rMACV. 742 MACVLag, pPol-II-NP, and A549 Cells were infected with MACV or rMACV at an MOI =0.01 or 1.0 and cellular supernatant was collected every day for four days. 743 pPol-II-L plasmids. I collected Growth and peak virus titers for both viruses at MOI =0.01 was nearly identical. A significant difference at 1 DPI (***P<.001, twoway ANOVA) and 2 DPI (* P<.05 two-way ANOVA) was observed in 744 **TCS** at 96 hours cells infected at an MOI=1.0. By 3 and 4 DPI no significant difference was observed. Copyright Journal of Virology transfection and plaque titrations identified p0 of rMACV had a titer of 8x10⁴ pfu/mL. 745 746 To generate a working stock with higher virus titer, I infected Vero cells at an MOI < 0.01. The low MOI was to avoid potential formation of defective interfering particles. 747

TCS were harvested at 96 HPI and purified according to manufacturer's protocol (Millipore Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters 100K, UFC910096). Whole genomic RNA sequence analysis of rMACV confirmed no additional mutations other than the genetic marker introduced to the rMACV genome RNA (Fig. 8).

Plaques formed by both viruses on Vero cells at 8 DPI were similar in their morphology and size (Fig. 11). TCS collected from rMACV and MACV infected IFN

754 competent A549 cells

748

749

750

751

752

753

755

756

759

760

762

763

764

765

766

767

demonstrated similar very

growth curve in at MOI=0.01.

757 cells infected at A549

758 MOI=1.0 with rMACV and

MACV had similar growth

pattern and final peak titer but

761 experienced

MACV in cultured cells.

---- Limit of Detection Vero MACV MOI=0.01 10⁷ Vero rMACV MOI=0.01 10⁶ Vero MACV MOI=1.0

Growth of MACV and rMACV in IFN Incompetent Vero Cells

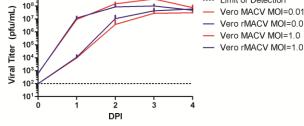


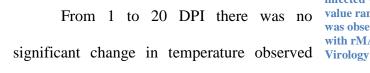
Figure 13: Infection of Vero Cells. IFN incompetent Vero cells were infected with MACV or rMACV at MOI =0.01 or 1.0 and TCS was collected from 0 to 4 DPI. Cells infected at MOI =.01 had similar growth titers and peak throughout the days observed. TCS from cells infected at MOI=1.0 had a significant difference in viral load at 3 DPI (P<.05, two-way significant ANOVA) but comparable titers on other days collected. Copyright Journal of Virology

difference in titer at 1 and 2 DPI (two-way ANOVA) (Fig. 12). TCS from IFN incompetent Vero-CCL81 cells infected at MOI=0.01 had similar growth and titers for all four days observed while cells infected at MOI=1.0 had a significant difference (p<.05, two-way ANOVA) at 3 DPI but had comparable growth titers at other days observed. (Fig. 13), indicating the rescued rMACV replicated similarly as its parental wild type

In vivo Characterization of Machupo Virus in IFN-αβ/γ R -/- Mice

To examine and compare the disease development and pathogenesis caused by the parental and recombinant MACV *in vivo*, I completed two experiments in which C57BL/6 IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- (n=25) and wild type C57BL/6 mice (n=10) were challenged IP with $1x10^4$ pfu of MACV or rMACV. Two IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice were mock challenged with PBS as a negative control. Changes in temperature and bodyweight were observed throughout the study. From 10-15 DPI, significant weight loss (P value from <0.05, two-way ANOVA) was identified in the MACV and rMACV infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice

when compared to the infected wild type mice and the uninfected control mice (Fig. 14). At 20 DPI, neurological impairment, including partial paralysis, hunched posture, labored breathing, and awkward gait, were observed in IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R-/- mice infected with MACV and rMACV. In contrast, the wild type mice infected by either wild type or rMACV did not exhibit any observable symptoms.



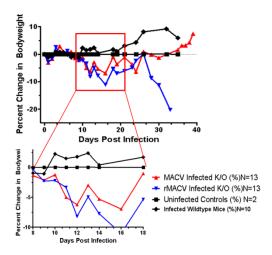


Figure 14: Change in Percent Bodyweight of Infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice. Mice were weighed throughout the study to track disease development. A significant difference was observed between 10-15 DPI in infected -/- when compared to uninfected controls and infected wild type mice (two-way ANOVA, P value ranging from <.05 to <.001. No difference was observed between the two -/- groups infected with rMACV and MACV. Copyright Journal of Virology

among any of the mice groups. Starting at 22 DPI the infected IFN-αβγ R-/- mice began

succumbing to disease (Fig. 15). Significant weight loss (Fig. 14) and temperature decline (data not shown) were observed 1 to 3 days in all animals prior to death. The mortality rate for both viruses was 93% with an average time to death of ~31 DPI when pooling the data from both studies. There was no significant difference in the MTD between the two viruses (p=0.16,

793 Log Rank test).

788

789

790

791

792

800

801

802

803

804

805

806

807

 $(\sim 10^8)$

794 Titrations of organ 795 homogenates confirmed similar 796 viral load between rMACV and 797 MACV in infected animals (P<.05, 798 Paired T-Test). A high viral load in 799 the CNS was observed by 24 DPI

pfu/gram)

which

was

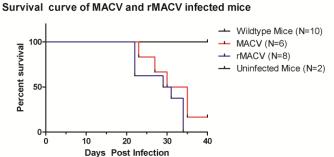


Figure 15: Kaplan Meier Curve of MACV and rMACV Infected Animals. Graphical representation of survival data from two pooled studies utilizing IFN $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice. Animals were challenged IP with 1x10^4 pfu of MACV or rMACV in 100µL of DPBS and observed for disease development. Animals were euthanized when they reached greater than 20% body weight or became moribund/paralyzed. No significant difference was observed in the time to death (P=.16, Mantel Cox test). One IFN $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice survived challenge with MACV. Copyright Journal of Virology

maintained until death (Fig. 16, Appendix IV). The single surviving mouse infected with MACV was euthanized at 40 DPI, and had no detectable viral load in the brain (data not shown). Titrations of kidney homogenates identified a slight increase from 14 DPI to clinical endpoint (Fig. 16, Appendix IV). Liver homogenates had a peak titer at 14 DPI with a generalized downward trend until clinical endpoint (Fig. 16, Appendix IV). Lung homogenates had a peak titer at 24 DPI (Fig. 16, Appendix IV). Spleen samples had a peak titer at 14 DPI with a generalized decrease until clinical endpoint (Fig. 16, Appendix

IV). These samples were also most likely to have no viral titer when compared to other organ homogenates. The animals were not perfused prior to necropsy which means blood was collected along with all organs. As virus was identified at 14 and 24 DPI from serum samples, some of these viral loads may be due to viremia and not organ infection as mice were not perfused prior to necropsy (Fig. 16, Appendix IV). Titrations from the organ homogenates of the wild type mice showed no except in a single brain sample from an animal euthanized at 14 DPI confirming previous reports of the resistant nature of the inbred adult mice to MACV (Data not shown). Organ viral loads from mice infected with MACV or rMACV had similar titers (Appendix IV).

Histopathology analysis of tissues from infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice demonstrated increasing neuronal damage starting at 14 DPI up to death along with minor vascular and perivascular mononuclear infiltrates in the cortex of the brain (Appendix II). The spleens of IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice infected with MACV or rMACV showed prominent alterations in microarchitecture with an increase in white pulp volume and expansion of the periarteriolar lymphoid sheath (Appendix 1). The spleen of the uninfected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice showed normal white pulp architectures (Appendix II). Immunohistochemical (IHC) staining of the same brain slides confirmed an increasing amount of viral antigen from 14 DPI until death (Appendix III).

DISCUSSION:

The sequencing of MACV has clearly shown that the terminal 19 nucleotide sequences at the 5' and 3' UTRs are different from sequences of MACV previously reported in the GenBank. Compared to my new data, the MACV sequences available from GenBank (JN794584 and AY619643) have the C6A and G8U substitutions at the 5'-end of the S segment, which predict a perfect base pairing between the 5' and 3' ends of the S segment. My new data suggested two mismatches at positions 6 and 8 in the same region (Fig. 6), which is consistent with the sequences of other arenaviruses such a JUNV, LASV, and Lujo virus (38, 124, 150, 151).

The terminal 19 nucleotides at the 5' and 3' ends of L and S genomic RNAs are highly conserved among arenaviruses and play critical roles in viral RNA replication and transcription. Although mutations in positions 6 and 8 are relatively better tolerated than changes in other positions, a previous study using a LASV minireplicon system has demonstrated the same C6A and G8U mutations at the 5'-end of S genomic RNA greatly inhibit LASV viral gene expression by 60% and 90%, respectively (Fig. 17) (150). For JUNV, RNA sequences with the same C6A and G8U substitutions at the 5' terminus of S segment were reported in GenBank (AY619641) and were determined to be nonfunctional for the rescue of a recombinant JUNV virus (38).

My attempts to rescue MACV with UTRs different from our identified sequence were unsuccessful, highlighting the critical role of these highly conserved sequences at the 5' and 3' termini of viral genomic RNA in viral replication (Data not shown). Additionally, a previous study showed the important role of the 3' terminal sequence of the MACV S segment in MACV RNA polymerase recruitment (39). The difficulty in generating the entire L segment plasmid has been reported in our laboratory for MACV, JUNV, and LASV. The reason for this difficulty is not yet understood. It is possible the complete insertion plasmid is

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

852

853

854

855

856

857

858

859

860

861

862

863

864

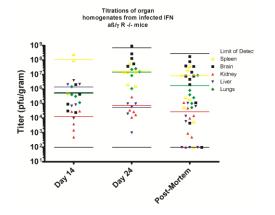


Figure 16: Titration of Organ Samples. Brain homogenate samples (red) show an increase in viral titer from 14 DPI. Kidney homogenate (blue) has a gradual decrease in titer from 14 DPI to death. Liver homogenate (green) had a peak titer at 14 and 24 DPI with a decrease at time of death. Lung homogenate (yellow) had a high viral load in a single animal at time of death. Spleen homogenate (purple) had a peak titer at 14 DPI with a decrease until time of death. Modified from an image copyrighted Journal of Virology

unstable or has a cytotoxic effect on the competent cell. Once I had the first fragment generated and ligated the entire segment together into the plasmid, I did not identify a loss of the segment within the plasmid. The extended incubation time to grow the plasmid in competent cells when compared to the S segment leads me to believe the insertion has a deleterious effect on the growth of the cell, and that this effect is localized to first 2600 basepairs of the L segment. It is not known if this deleterious effect has an influence in normal host infections.

The minigenome was utilized to confirm that the MACV L protein and NP were sufficient to support efficient viral RNA transcription and replication of the MACV minigenome genome. The establishment of a MACV derived minigenome will provide an additional tool to study the molecular biology of new-world arenaviruses. Minigenome assays of other arenaviruses have been proven as useful tools in dissecting the role of

870

	870
B. L Segment, RNA	S Segment, RNA
Experimental MACV	Experimental MACV
5' C G C A C C G G G G A U C C U A G G C : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	5' C G C A C C G G G G A U C C U A G G C : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :
JN794583.1	JN794584.1
5' g C G C A C C G G G G A U C C U A G G C	5' C G C A C A G U G G A U C C U A G G C
3' G C G U G U C A C C U A G G A U C C G	3' CGUGUCACCUAGGAUCCG
AY619642	AY619643
5' C G C A C A G U G G A U C C U A G G C	5' C G C A C A G U G G A U C C U A G G C
3' G C G U G U C A C C U A G G A U C C G	3' G C G U G U C A C C U A G G A U C C G
	X/4

865

866

867

868

869

878

879

880

881

882

883

884

Figure 17: MACV Segment Termini Alignment. The alignment of the 19 bp alignment at the 5' and 3' termini ends of the S and L segment are vital for virus transcription. Sequencing of MACV confirmed a nearly 100% alignment in the L segment while the S segment had two distinct mismatch bps at the 6 and 8 position. When compared to published sequences online of the S segment of MACV, these mismatches are not found. Copyright Journal of Virology

viral proteins in arenavirus RNA replication and transcription, identifying function of the IGR the transcription terminating signal, studying the role of Z as a matrix protein, and mapping the cap snatching domain of L protein (143-148). The development of a minigenome for

MACV could assist in studying the replication of this virus in the BSL-2 environment or as a tool for testing antivirals as it has been shown for the Lassa minigenome assay (152).

My studies with the minigenome also provided preliminary evidence for the compatibility of Romero and Candid#1 L protein with MACV NP for replication of the MACV template. This evidence, in combination with availability of the reverse genetics system, might allow for the generation of chimeric viruses containing genetic sequence from both MACV and Candid#1. The generation of a Lassa/Mopeia reassortment virus as

a method of attenuation has been proven effective with OWAs, but never with NWAs (153). The introduction of an attenuating sequence or the insertion of entire genes from Candid#1 into the MACV backbone may allow for the rational generation of a live-attenuated vaccine candidate for MACV.

My *in vitro* studies have proved similar growth patterns between wild type MACV and rMACV. The similar growth and peak curves helps to confirm the two viruses are phenotypically similar. Furthermore, *in vivo* studies provide additional evidence that rMACV is similar to MACV. Challenge with rMACV and MACV led to similar disease development, weight loss, neurological symptoms, and death in IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice. Viral invasion of the brain appears to have occurred in a similar manner in both groups of mice with comparable peak viral loads. The findings in this study, utilizing the IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice, identified the development of a biphasic disease with an acute weight loss occurring 10 to 15 DPI and LNS between 20 to 34 DPI. Previously, a lethal model of MACV infection was reported using STAT-1 -/- adult mice, which succumbed rapidly to disease without developing LNS (70).

However, the biphasic disease described in my study is similar to some of the reports of BHF in humans as well as in multiple species of NHPs experimentally infected with MACV (53, 72-74). The neurological disease in the late stages of BHF in humans can be correlated to the development of awkward gait, labored breathing, and partial paralysis observed in my murine model (55, 154). Approximately 10% of AHF patients

treated with immune plasma develop a late neurological disease which has been lethal in one reported case (61). In NHPs, the development of LNS has been reported in multiple species with mortality near 100%, which is highly comparable to the IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/-model reported here.

One of the most common complications in humans after infection with various hemorrhagic arenaviruses, including Machupo and Junin virus, is the presence of neurological disease, which can be lethal or result in transient or permanent neurological sequelae (61, 140, 155). In addition, a portion of patients who have recovered from LASF develop long term hearing loss showing a potential neurological impact of OWAs. Further investigation into the pathogenesis of arenavirus neurologic disease may provide key insights for multiple diseases. As the animal model I described here also progresses into a lethal neurological disease, it may be an ideal tool for studying this aspect of arenavirus disease compared to other rodent models.

The lack of disease development in the wild type C57BL/7 mice corresponds to previously reported data. The gain in weight and the 100% survival rate when compared to the IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice suggests a potential and important role that the innate immune response plays in BHF progression, which will need to be further elucidated. When compared to the short but fatal disease that has been reported in STAT-1 -/- mice, with a MTD of ~8 days, it may provide a better model for studying the neurological disease which develops in human cases (70). Additionally, the impact of removing either the IFN

receptors or STAT-1, confirms the importance of the early innate immune response to viral infection.

The experimental development of neurological disease for MACV has only been described in NHPs so far, which are costly and not easy to handle in the BSL-4 laboratory. Utilizing mice instead of NHPs for neurological disease modeling has multiple benefits. For example, many immunological and imaging tools are available for further elucidation of neurological disease development, and working with mice in the BSL-4 environment is considered to be safer, faster, and more cost effective than research with NHPs.

CHAPTER SUMMARY:

My research has identified functional 19-nucleotide sequences at the 5'- and 3'ends of the MACV S and L genomic RNAs. I have generated a minigenome assay for
analyzing the replication and transcription of the S and L segments of the MACV
template. This new system was used to demonstrate the compatibility of L and NP
between MACV and two different Junin viruses. The establishment of a minigenome for
MACV provides a powerful tool for studying the replication kinetics and necessary
proteins for MACV replication within a BSL2 environment. It may also allow for future
studies investigating antivirals which can impact virus replication. I have successfully

rescued rMACV and have reported *in vitro* characterization of its growth in Vero and A549 cells. I also report that MACV and rMACV cause similar disease development *in vivo*. Following challenge in IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/-mice I have identified the first murine model for MACV-induced neurological disease, which is similar to the severe disease reported in human cases and NHPs studies. This model will be useful for future studies on the virulence of MACV *in vivo*.

CHAPTER 3: CHARACTERIZATION OF THE INNATE IMMUNE

RESPONSE TO MACV INFECTION IN VITRO.

INTRODUCTION:

Background

The innate immune response plays a vital role in early recognition and cellular response to viral infection. Recognition of PAMPs by PRRs initiates downstream pathways leading to the establishment of an antiviral state in infected cells (78, 84, 86, 98, 100). Many viruses have evolved mechanisms for evading this response; prevention of PRR detection, control of downstream pathways, and inhibition of immune modulator synthesis are just a few mechanisms that ensure the virus has the time and environment to replicate (78, 84, 156). The outcome of the back and forth interactions between a virus and the innate immune response can be a helpful predictor in how a disease develops and its severity.

Arenaviruses can cause severe disease through mechanisms not well elucidated. Both NWAs and OWAs have been reported to cause lethal hemorrhagic disease but the clinical presentation can vary drastically between the two complexes (5, 6, 8, 55, 71, 139-

141, 155, 157). OWAs, such as LASV and LCMV, are associated with low levels of IFN while the NWA JUNV has been associated with extremely high levels of IFN in human cases of AHF (108, 109, 139-141). In addition, a number of arenaviruses cause minimal to no clinical disease in humans but are genotypically similar to those viruses that cause hemorrhagic disease (158-160).

A comparison of these distinct viruses can be difficult, especially considering that the research involving hemorrhagic viruses requires a high containment facility. Much of what is known about arenaviruses, MACV in particular, was learned using less virulent arenaviruses, such as LCMV, or through plasmid expressed viral proteins. Without live virus infection modeling or analyzing the effect of a disease can be very difficult. Utilization of these tools has provided a better understanding of the basic interactions with a host system, and important insight into the human innate immune response. However, utilization of these model systems could have provided results that do not represent the entire arenavirus population, especially that of the hemorrhagic NWAs. The expansion of national high security biosafety facilities provides us better opportunities to study the virulent viruses and their pathological effect directly without requiring the utilization of attenuated or non-virulent models.

Infection of dendritic cells and macrophages by LASV have been reported to have low levels of type I IFNs and other proinflammatory cytokines corresponding to the clinical description of LASF (105, 106). Arenaviruses have been reported to impact the

innate immune response in a number of different ways at different targets along the IFN induction pathway. It has also been reported that LASV infected dendritic cells are unable to activate CD4+ and CD8+ T cells efficiently (107). The NP of LCMV has been shown to bind IRF3 interfering with IFN induction following coinfection with Sendai virus (161). The NP from LCMV, LASV, JUNV, and MACV has been reported to interfere with NF-κB translocation and initiation of gene transcription (118). The 3' to 5' exonuclease activity of LASV and Tacaribe virus of plasmid expressed NP has also been reported as a method of evading viral recognition by the cell (162, 163). The LCMV NP and plasmid expressed NP from JUNV, MACV, LASV, Whitewater Arroyo virus, and Latino virus have all been reported to inhibit IRF-3 phosphorylation and translocation (116, 117, 164). The plasmid expressed Z protein from JUNV, MACV, and other NWAs has been shown to bind with RIG-I, inhibiting signaling with downstream IPS-1 and preventing IFN induction (120).

Gaps in knowledge

The utilization of plasmid expression systems and arenaviruses other than hemorrhagic NWAs as prototypical models, has led to the formation of two dogmas within the field. The first dogma is that pathogenic arenaviruses evade the cellular immune response and do not induce IFN production. The second dogma is that infection with pathogenic arenaviruses does not lead to the phosphorylation of PKR or eIF2 α . The data, which led to these dogmas, was acquired primarily through models and not through

research with infectious hemorrhagic NWAs such as JUNV and MACV. These dogmas do not correspond with known clinical data from patients with AHF or animals infected with JUNV and MACV (111, 165). Further illumination of the impact of MACV infection on host protein biosynthesis and the corresponding innate immune response can be an important step in developing therapies and therapeutics that can decrease mortality rates during an outbreak. In addition, correctly categorizing JUNV and MACV as distinct modulators of the innate immune response from other arenaviruses is necessary to further progress within the research field.

Hypothesis

Based upon the reports of AHF, the data from animals infected with MACV or JUNV, and the data recently published from our laboratory on JUNV infection inducing IFN, I hypothesize that infection by MACV will induce an innate immune response comparable to that of JUNV. I expect my results to identify an uninhibited IFN induction and downstream signaling pathway in cells infected with MACV.

Significance

Characterization of the impact of MACV infection on the innate immune response will benefit the field of arenavirus research, as it will provide further evidence for the separation of pathogenic NWAs from other arenaviruses. It will provide further evidence that utilizing plasmids expression systems or nonpathogenic arenaviruses as prototypical

models does not always provide accurate data. Finally, identification of how MACV impacts the innate immune response may provide key insights into developing antivirals which can prevent disease development.

METHODS:

Cells, Viruses, and Biosafety

Baby hamster kidney (BHK-21) and Vero cells (American Tissue Culture Collection) were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum and L-glutamine. The wild-type Carvallo strain of MACV (Genbank accession no. JN794583.1 and JN794584.1) was obtained from Dr. Thomas G. Ksiazek (University of Texas Medical Branch [UTMB]). Viral working stocks of the wild type and recombinant virus was generated by infecting Vero cells (multiplicity of infection [MOI] = 0.01 plaque forming unit (PFU)/cell) and collecting virus containing tissue culture supernatant (TCS) at 96 hours post infection (HPI). Cellular debris was eliminated from the TCS through centrifugation and the viruses were concentrated and purified through Ultra 100K Filter Devices (Ultracell 100K centrifugation filter, Amicon) to remove cellular factors, which may affect the immune response. All work with infectious MACV and rMACV was performed in the UTMB BSL-4 facility in accordance with institutional and safety guidelines.

Knockdown of RIG-I in A549 Cells

A549 cells with a knockdown of RIG-I gene expression were provided by Dr. Tseng (UTMB) and the description on how they were generated can be found in a recent publication from our laboratory (114). In brief, ON-TARGET plus SMART pool siRNA targeting RIG-I or a Non-targeting Pool (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.), were transfected into A549 cells by electroporation Amaxa Cell Line Nucleofector Kit T (Lonza Walkersville, Inc.) according to manufacturer's protocols.

Plaque Titrations

All plaque titrations were completed on Vero-CCL81 cell lines, seeded on 12-well plates ~16 hours prior to infection. Samples were serially diluted in DMEM with 2% FBS and .5% P/S. Cells were infected with 100µl of diluent and incubated for ~1 hour with agitation every 15 minutes. Wells were then overlayed with a 50:50 warmed mixture of 2% agarose in H2O and 2X MEM with 10% FBS and .5% P/S. The plates were incubated for 8 days post infection (DPI) and fixed with 10% formalin solution. Cells were stained with crystal violet and plaques were counted to determine viral load.

Western Blots and Antibodies:

Cellular lysate samples were collected by removing supernatant, washing the cells with PBS, and incubating the cells for ~3 minutes with sample lysate buffer (BioRad, 2x Laemmli Sample Buffer). Samples were frozen at -80°C until they were removed from

the BSL-4 following GNL sample removal guidelines. Samples were heated to 95°C for 5 minutes prior to being loading onto the gel. Samples were resolved on 4-20% SDS-PAGE gels (Bio-Rad Precast gels, Catalog #4561093 and 4561096) using a Mini Trans-Blot Electrophoretic Transfer Cell apparatus (Bio-Rad, Catalog #170-3930). Samples were then transferred to PVDF membranes using a Trans-Blot SD Semi-Dry Transfer Cell apparatus (Bio-Rad, Catalog #170-3940) according to manufacturer's recommended protocol. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with the primary antibody. Membranes were washed and the appropriate secondary antibody was incubated for 1 hour at room temperature.

Proteins were visualized using ECL Western blotting Detection Reagents (GE, NJ) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Primary antibodies used for Western blotting analysis were rabbit anti-phosphorylated STAT1 antibody (#9171, Cell Signaling), mouse anti-STAT-1 antibody (WH0006772M1, Sigma), rabbit anti-IRF 3 antibody (ab76409, Abcam), rabbit anti-PKR (#3079, Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-phosphorylated PKR (#2283-1, Epitomics), rabbit anti-eIF2α (#9722, Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-phosphorylated eIF2α (#9721, Cell Signaling), monoclonal anti-Junin immunoglobulin G targeting NP of MACV (BEI Resources, NA05-AG12), and goat anti-human b actin antibody (sc-1616, Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Secondary antibodies used were HRP conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (#7074, Cell Signaling), HRP conjugated Goat anti-mouse IgG (115-035-146, Jackson Immunology) and HRP-conjugated donkey anti-

goat IgG (sc-2020, Santa Cruz). These methods are described in previous publications from our laboratory (114).

Statistics:

GraphPad Prism V5.0 was used for all statistical calculations. Viral growth curve analysis was completed utilizing a two-way ANOVA test comparing all virus and cell culture TCS over each day.

RESULTS:

Effect of RIG-I Knockdown on MACV Growth

1091	The cytoplasmic PRR	Growth of MACV on RIG-I K/D and Control A549 Cells
1092	RIG-I plays a pivotal role in	108 Limit of Detection — A549 MACV MOI=0.01 — A549 RIG-I KD MOI=0.01
1093	recognizing JUNV infection and	— A549 MACV MOI=0.01 — A549 RIG-I KD MOI=0.01 — I0 ⁵ 10 ⁵
1094	initiating induction of IFN	· · · •
1095	production (114). To identify if	101 7 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
1096	RIG-I also has an effect on	Figure 18: Effect of RIG-I Knockdown on MACV Growth in A549 Cells.
1097	MACV infection, I seeded	The TCS from A549 cells, either K/D or control transfected, infected at an MOI=0.01 with MACV was collected for 4 DPI. While virus growth followed a similar pattern a significant difference was
1098	twelve well plates ~16 hours	observed at 1, 2 and 4 DPI (P<.001, <.01, <.01 respectively, two-way ANOVA). Cell monolayer by 4 DPI was badly damaged in wells infected with both viruses.
1099	prior to infection with either A	549 Control cells, cells containing an inserted Non-
1100	Targeting siRNA, or A549 RIG-I	-K/D cells with siRNA targeting RIG-I. I infected cells
1101	with MACV (MOI=0.01) and co	llected TCS at 0, 24, 48, 72, and 96 HPI. Titration of

1102 samples confirmed significant impact on virus growth at 1(P<.001), 2(P<.01), and 1103 4(P<.01) DPI (two-way ANOVA) (Fig. 18).

Effect of Infection on IFN Competent Cells

1105 To elucidate the impact of MACV infection on IFN competent A549 cells, I 1106 infected A549 cells with MACV (MOI=0.01) and collected cellular lysate at 24, 48, and 1107 72 HPI. Uninfected control A549 samples were collected concurrently with infected 1108 1109 lysates for the Western blot analysis. 1110 Phosphorylation of STAT-1 (pSTAT-1) 1111 occurs following induction of interferon 1112 production, which activates JAK leading to 1113 phosphorylation of STAT-1. In the case of 1114 type I IFNs, pSTAT-1 complexes with 1115 pSTAT-2 and IRF-9. The complex translocates into the nucleus, binding to 1116 1117 interferon stimulated response element and 1118 inducing transcription of ISGs, such as 1119 ISG15 and STAT-1. Cellular lysate samples 1120 were collected from IFN competent A549

1104

1121

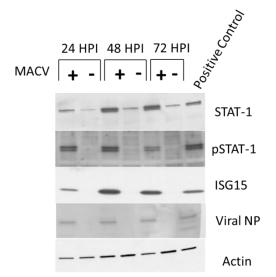


Figure 19: Activation of the JAK/STAT Pathway in IFN Competent A549 Cells Infected With MACV. A549 cells were mock-infected or infected with MACV at MOI=1.0. Cellular lysates were prepared and resolved by Western blot. Analysis identified increasing levels of the ISG STAT-1 for all time points resolved when compared to uninfected controls. The presence of pSTAT-1 was confirmed in all infected cellular lysates with a peak at 48 HPI. ISG15 production was also confirmed with a peak at 48 HPI. A positive control of cells infected with Candid#1 was utilized as it has been previously shown to induce IFN production in A549 cells within my laboratory.

cells at 24, 48, and 72 HPI and a notable difference was detected in protein concentration

of pSTAT-1 when compared to uninfected A549 cells. The increase in pSTAT-1 provides direct evidence of type I IFN signaling (Fig. 19) with high levels of pSTAT-1 when compared to uninfected controls through 72 HPI.

1125 To provide further evidence of type I IFN synthesis, I analyzed downstream 1126 protein production linked to IFN signaling, specifically interferon stimulated genes 1127 (ISGs). I detected an increase in STAT-1 concentration when compared to the controls in 1128 all time points collected with a peak 1129 concentration 48 HPI (Fig. 19). 1130 Additionally, total ISG15 concentration was increased when compared to control samples 1131 1132 with a peak at 48 HPI (Fig. 19). To confirm 1133 that MACV had generated a viable infection 1134 in the A549 cells, I utilized an anti-NP 1135 MACV/JUNV monoclonal antibody to detect 1136 production of this viral protein. As a loading 1137 control, I analyzed concentration levels of MACV at MOI=1.0. Cellular lysates were 1138 actin in all samples. My positive control was 1139 a cellular lysate sample of A549 cells 1140 infected with Candid#1 collected at 48 HPI of peIF2a but not pPKR.

1122

1123

1124

1141

(Fig. 19).

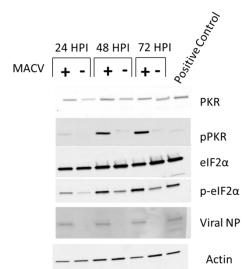


Figure 20: Recognition of MACV Infection by PKR in A549 Cells. A549 cells were mock-infected or infected with prepared and resolved by Western blot. Analysis identified increasing and higher levels of the ISG PKR when compared to mock-infected cells. Resolution also identified high levels of peIF2a when compared to mock infected cells. Interestingly A549 cells infected with Candid#1 as a positive control experienced increased levels

Effect of MACV Infection on Cellular Protein Biosynthesis

To investigate the impact of MACV infection on cellular protein biosynthesis, I looked at phosphorylation of PKR and eIF2 α . Samples collected from IFN competent A549 cells at 24, 48, and 72 hours were resolved by Western blot. I detected an increase in PKR and phosphorylated PKR (p-PKR) concentrations starting at 24 HPI and peaking at 72 HPI (Fig. 20). I identified no discernable change in eIF2 α levels at any time point between infected or uninfected cells (Fig. 20). Levels of phosphorylated eIF2 α (p-eIF2 α) in infected cells were detected at all time points collected. Uninfected cells also showed an increasing level of p-eIF2 α but with markedly lower concentrations than infected cells (Fig. 20).

DISCUSSION:

The paucity of clinical data from patients infected with MACV has made it very difficult to describe the host innate immune response. Unlike JUNV, where high levels of IFN in clinical cases has been well described, the only published data relevant to MACV and IFN production is a NHP model which investigated the potential of Polyinosinic: polycytidylic acid (poly I:C), a synthetic dsRNA analog and toll-like receptor 3 agonist, treatment (108, 111). This study reported detectable IFN by 3 to 5 DPI with a peak level of around 700 units of IFN in infected untreated animals. Stephen *et al.* also showed that treatment with poly I:C lead to earlier detection of viremia and higher titers in treated NHPs (111). There was no significant difference in late stage disease, or a decrease in

mortality rate when compared to untreated animals. These published results correspond to my *in vitro* data presented in Chapter 2 in which peak titer of MACV in IFN competent cells was not significantly affected, as seen with MACV growth in IFN incompetent Vero cells. While a significant difference in the virus growth curve was identified at 1 DPI, no significance was identified at any other time point collected (Fig. 18).

While no clinical data exists from MACV infected patients, recent studies utilizing plasmid over expression of MACV or JUNV NP *in vitro* identified an inhibition of IRF-3 translocation (116). In contrast, recent work by Cheng *et al.* reported strong IFN production in cells infected with JUNV (114). My data further supports the distinction between NWA vs OWA and infectious virus vs plasmid protein expression.

My results support that MACV infection in IFN competent cells induces upregulation of interferon production leading to expression of ISGs (Fig. 19). Previous publications that reported an inhibition of IFN induction in Vero cells could be correct as Vero cells are IFN deficient (166-168). Additionally, overexpression of NP by plasmid instead of through viral replication, as was used in these studies, could result in higher concentrations of NP than what is seen during an infection. The higher levels of NP may exaggerate the proteins capability to control the innate immune response. While clinical data and *in vitro* data supports the rational that low levels of IFN are induced during LASV infection, reports human cases of AHF identify high levels of endogenous IFN- α (109). Due to the variances reported in human cases of AHF and LASF, a case can be

made that a distinction between NWAs and OWAs should be made, especially as it relates to induction of innate immune response in human cells. However, considering the extended incubation period of both MACV and JUNV, some mechanism of controlling the innate immune response is reasonable and must be addressed.

A correlation between high levels of IFN with severe outcome in patients with AHF has been reported (109). My data also clearly demonstrates that the infection with MACV can affect cellular protein biosynthesis, which is in contrast with the model of LCMV cell infection. When compared to the extended incubations and persistent infections, which are reported in JUNV, MACV, and LCMV, this data is intriguing. Many viruses that cause persistent infection have evolved mechanisms to avoid impacting cellular protein biosynthesis (156). Infection by LCMV does not induce eIF2α phosphorylation in Huh 7 cells, but does lead to disassociation of BiP from ATF6, an essential mediator of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress (169). This disassociation commonly occurs in the presence of high concentrations of misfolded proteins (16, 169, 170). The paper by Pasqual *et al.* also reported that the disassociation of ATF6 played an important role in viral titers during acute but not persistent infection of LCMV.

Further investigations on the effect of MACV on the innate immune response can follow a number of paths. First, the cytoplasmic PRR responsible for recognizing MACV infection must be confirmed. While MACV is very similar to JUNV and it is reasonable

to assume that the RIG-I is the primary PRR for recognizing MACV, it must be confirmed.

1201

1202

1203

1204

1205

1206

1207

1208

1209

1210

1211

1212

1213

1214

1215

1216

1217

1218

1219

1220

The next step to further elucidate the impact of MACV and mechanism of immune modulation on cell protein biosynthesis is to identify activation of PKR. There are multiple mechanisms for PKR activation; recognition of dsRNA, interaction with the protein PACT (PKR activating protein), or overexpression of ISG15, all of which can lead to phosphorylation of PKR (171, 172). The primary method of activation of PKR is recognition of viral dsRNA, which is believed to be generated during the viral replication cycle. Interestingly, arenaviruses have been reported to induce discrete cytosolic structures where replication can take place potentially sequestering any dsRNA intermediates from PKR recognition (173). While PACT has been shown to activate PKR, it also has been shown that this activation does not play a role in an antiviral response (174). As my results confirm upregulation of ISG15 following infection, I would propose investigating if it plays a role in PKR activation. This can be accomplished utilizing the siRNA-transfected cell line targeting the PRRs described previously or utilizing siRNA targeting ISG15 specifically. If PKR activation continues without expressed ISG15, it would be reasonable to assume dsRNA is the primary instigator of activation.

In addition to reports of LCMV induction of ER stress through ATF6, and in contrast to previous reports of negligible eIF2 α phosphorylation, my data supports that

MACV infection leads to strong phosphorylation of eIF2 α in IFN competent cells. My data suggests the phosphorylation of eIF2 α does not affect virus growth. While inhibition of PKR activation by viral proteins is well described, descriptions of how viruses overcome phosphorylation of eIF2 α appears to be less common. Poliovirus has been shown to cleave eIF5B to rescue biosynthesis through an eIF2 α independent mechanism (175). Alternatively, human T-cell leukemia virus type 1 has been shown to upregulate and stabilize the suppressor of cytokine signaling (SOCS) 1 that acts as a negative regulator of JAK/STAT signaling (176). MACV infection of A549 cells causes the phosphorylation of eIF2 α , yet the cell continues to produce infectious virus. The mechanism of virus replication must be identified as it appears MACV can still grow in cells with by phosphorylated eIF2 α .

Interestingly, the Western blot data (Fig. 19 and 20) also confirmed there was no significant change in concentration of actin in the cellular lysate, even though eIF2 α had been phosphorylated for more than 48 HPI. Further investigation is necessary to determine if MACV is capable of restoring cell protein biosynthesis completely. This could be accomplished utilizing radiolabeled S³⁵ or P³² in a Pulse-Chase experiment model in future experiments. A variant of pulse-chase experimentation, utilizing mass spectrometry with radio labeled amino acids, could also be utilized to identify a change in whole cell protein synthesis (177). This methodology would allow us to determine at

different time points when synthesis is being impacted and if there is a specific period at which MACV is able to overcome eIF2 α phosphorylation.

CHAPTER SUMMARY:

1240

1241

1242

1243

1244

1245

1246

1247

1248

1249

1250

1251

1252

1253

1254

1255

1256

1257

In this chapter I present data demonstrating that the MACV infection can induce an innate immune response in IFN competent cells. I showed that STAT-1 phosphorylation and ISG upregulation occurs within 1 DPI in A549 cells. Finally, I showed that both PKR and eIF2α are phosphorylated, which commonly occurs in cells entering an antiviral state leading to downregulation of cellular protein biosynthesis. This data contradicts commonly held dogma of arenavirus innate immune evasion and their impact on cellular biosynthesis. These dogmas have been established utilizing plasmid expression systems or nonpathogenic NWAs. My data is similar to IFN induction in A549 cells following JUNV infection and corresponds with clinical samples of IFN induction in patients with AHF. This data is significant as it provides evidence that nonpathogenic models and expression systems may not be accurate representations of hemorrhagic NWAs and this must be considered for all future research within the arenavirus field. Additionally, further elucidation of how cells detect MACV and the mechanisms of evading biosynthesis shutdown MACV utilizes are necessary to form a more complete description of BHF, and to potentially develop novel therapeutics.

CHAPTER 4: RATIONAL ATTENUATION OF MACV*

Introduction:

Background

With the reemergence of MACV in Bolivia and the lack of proven countermeasures, additional research must investigate methods of controlling future outbreaks. Transfusion of immune plasma has proven effective in preventing lethal AHF, if administered within eight days of disease development (65). Successful treatment through transfusion of immune plasma has been reported in a limited number of BHF cases, but there have been no clinical trials to confirm efficacy (55). Utilization of plasma requires rapid recognition of disease, available health professionals in the region, consistent collection and storage of the plasma, and the infrastructure to support these endeavors. This would be potentially difficult to achieve in the remote Beni district of Bolivia (178, 179). Preliminary studies utilizing ribavirin have had positive results in cases of both BHF and AHF, but there has been no clinical efficacy testing (67, 180, 181). With the limitations of infrastructure and cost of therapeutics, a protective vaccine may prove the most effective method of preventing further outbreaks of BHF, as has been reported with Candid#1 in Argentina.

The generation of a novel arenavirus vaccine candidate through reassortment has been reported for LASV (182, 183). The novel virus, ML29, contains the L segment of Mopeia virus (MOPV) and the S segment of LASV. It was generated through coinfection of Vero cells with both LASV and MOPV and was selected following identification of plaque phenotype change in cell culture. ML29 protects against lethal LASV challenge in both guinea pig and NHP animal models providing strong evidence for its potential as a vaccine candidate (153). However, the mechanism of reassortment and selection brings up questions of stock purity and safety. One risk factor is that through the Passaged 2x in Passaged Passaged GP, 13x in MB 31x in MB 19x in FRhL cells reassortment → XJ13 — → XJ44 -→ Candid#1 process, it Figure 21: Passage History of Candid#1. Candid#1 has had 65 passages in different cells. The F437I mutation occurred in the last 19 passages in FRhL cells. GP-Guinea Pig, MB-Mouse Brain, FRhL- Fetal rhesus lung possible a small portion of the virus population maintains the L segment of LASV. With the L segment still present, it is possible to generate virulent LASV from a vaccine seed stock. These

1275

1276

1277

1278

1279

1280

1281

1282

1283

1284

1285

1286

1287

1288

1289

1290

1291

1292

1293

1294

1295

The generation of the attenuated vaccine strain for JUNV, Candid#1, was accomplished through passaging the virulent XJ strain in guinea pigs, mouse brains, and a fetal rhesus monkey lung cell line (FRhL-2) for a total of 65 different passages (Fig. 21) (155, 184). Comparison of the amino acid sequence of Candid#1 NP, GPC, and Z proteins to the XJ13 strain proteins has identified a number of genetic changes which have occurred following these passages (185). Recent analysis of these mutations has

small virus populations would need to be completely eliminated prior to clinical trials.

identified the F427I mutation in the GP2 transmembrane region as having an attenuating role in murine neurovirulence following challenge with the single mutant JUNV (121, 122). This region is highly conserved between MACV and JUNV (Fig. 22). Additional research is required to better elucidate the genetic mechanisms of attenuation and stability of these mutations prior to licensing within the U.S. or Bolivia.

Gaps in knowledge

utilizing

Bolivia

availability

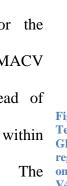
While unsubstantiated reports have identified Candid#1 as protecting NHPs against MACV challenge, there is no published evidence of protection. Additionally, the reports of an increase in liver enzymes in challenged guinea pigs vaccinated with MOPV, when compared to those vaccinated with ML29, indicated that the presence of homologous antigens against the target virus may be necessary for complete protection

improved protection through heterologous vaccination provides evidence for the importance of a MACV derived vaccine instead of

Candid#1

(153).

of



MACV

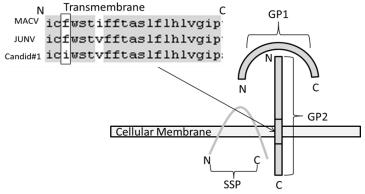


Figure 22: Transmembrane Region of MACV and JUNV. Textual and graphical representation of the transmembrane region of GPC. The alignment of amino acids making up the transmembrane region for MACV, JUNV, and Candid#1 show significant similarity with only one amino acid difference a the MACV I441 and JUNV/Candid#1 V43I residues. The highlighted residue identifies the single mutation found in Candid#1.

isolates is extremely limited and there have been no reports of an attenuated strain of MACV from which to identify the genetic determinants of attenuation.

Hypothesis

The reverse genetics system developed in Aim 1 of this dissertation is an ideal tool to investigate the impact of a single mutation in MACV at the F437 amino acid residue. I hypothesize that utilizing my reverse genetics system I can introduce a mutation at the F437 amino acid position of the transmembrane region of GP2 to attenuate MACV neurovirulence in a mouse model. The lethal murine model I characterized in Aim 1 can be used to study changes in MACV virulence to determine if the mutation attenuates the virus. I expect from my results that rMACV-F437I will be attenuating *in vivo*.

Significance

The proposed modification of rMACV would be the first report of an attenuated MACV. It would provide useful insight into how NWAs other than JUNV can be rationally attenuated. It would also be the first step towards the development of a design vaccine for MACV.

METHODS:

Cells, viruses, and biosafety

Baby hamster kidney (BHK-21) and Vero cells (American Tissue Culture Collection) were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum and L-glutamine. Viral working stocks of rMACV-F437I were generated by infecting Vero cells (MOI =0.01 PFU/cell) and collecting virus containing TCS at 96 HPI. Cellular debris was eliminated from the TCS through centrifugation and the viruses were concentrated and purified through Ultra 100K Filter Devices to remove cellular factors, which may affect the immune response. All work with infectious virus was performed in the UTMB BSL-4 facility in accordance with institutional and safety guidelines.

Construction of the F437I Mutant S Plasmid

To generate an S segment plasmid containing the identical amino acid change found in Candid#1, I modified the wild-type MACV S segment plasmid generated in Chapter 2 through PCR mutagenesis. To accomplish this, I designed two overlapping and reverse direction primers which contained the nucleotide change. This base pair change would cause a change from phenylalanine at residue 437 to an isoleucine (GP2-F437I-R1v2, CACATTAGTTGATATTTGTATCTGGAGCACAATTTTCTTC and GP2-F437I-F2v2, GAAGAAAATTGTGCTCCAGATACAAATATCAACTAATGTG).

1353 Additionally I generated two primers located downstream and upstream of the transmembrane region (GP2-F437I-F1v2 and GP2-F437I-R2v2) that would be used to

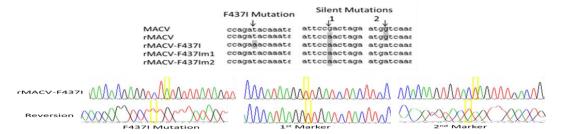


Figure 23: Sequence Analysis of rMACV-F437I. Graphical sequence analysis and comparison of cDNA generated from MACV, rMACV, and rMACV-F437I isolates. rMACV and MACV maintain the wild type genotype at the nucleotide coding for F437. The nucleotide change coding for I437 is present in the stock of rMACV-F437I while a reversion has occurred in the viral RNA isolated from mouse 1 and 2. The presence of the second silent marker confirms that both animals were challenged with rMACV-F437I. Chromatography analysis of sequenced viral cDNA confirming the reversion of the mutation in the consensus sequence and the presence of both silent markers.

amplify the two fragments.

1354

1355

1356

1357

1358

1359

1360

1361

1362

1363

1364

Utilizing these four primers, I synthesized two cDNA fragments, 1.2kb and .9kb each, utilizing a high fidelity polymerase (NEB, Q5 Hot Start # M0493S). I then generated a single cDNA fragment from both smaller fragments by amplifying through the overlapping region utilizing the external forward and reverse primers. I digested the whole cDNA fragment and the original S segment plasmid inclusive of the F437I mutation and second gene marker to distinguish rMACV-F437I from rMACV, ligated the insert into the plasmid, and transfected the new plasmid into competent cells to generate a working stock of plasmid. In order to differentiate rMACV from rMACV-F437I, I introduced an additional silent mutation at the 808 nucleotide, G to A (Fig. 23). The new

plasmid was sequenced by the UTMB Molecular Genetics Core to ensure the single mutation and two gene markers were present within the plasmid with no additional mutations.

Rescue of rMACV-F437I

The rescue of rMACV-F437I was completed in a similar manner as described previously by my laboratory and in Chapter 2 of this dissertation (38). Equimolar amounts of the wild type L full segment MACV plasmid and the S segment single mutant plasmid and the two expression plasmids were transfected into BHK21 cells. Supernatant from these cells was collected at 4 days post transfection. A single passage in Vero cells was performed to generate a high titer stock of rMACV-F437I. The rMACV-F437I sequence, including the introduced G808A and G1447A gene tags within the GP gene which were inserted to distinguish rMACV-F437I from rMACV and MACV, were confirmed by whole genomic sequence analysis.

Sequencing of Full Length S and L Genomic RNAs from rMACV-F437I

RNA (0.5 to 1.0 mg) was isolated by a RNA purification kit (Zymo Research, DNA-Free RNA kit, R1014) at 96 HPI from rMACV-F437I infected Vero cells. Viral cDNA was synthesized by reverse transcription (RT) using random primers. Viral specific primers complementary to S and L genome RNAs were used to generate cDNA fragments of each segment. The entire S and L segments were amplified in three and five

DNA fragments, respectively. PCR products were gel purified (Zymo Research, Zymoclean Gel DNA recovery kit, D4001) and directly sequenced to obtain the corresponding master sequences for the MACV S and L genome RNAs. Sequencing data was analyzed using the program Clone Manager V9. The sequencing of RNA isolated from tissue samples follows this same procedure except Trizol sample (Zymo Research, DNA-Free RNA kit, R1014) is utilized to homogenize samples.

Plaque Titrations

All plaque titrations were completed on Vero-CCL81 cell lines, seeded on 12-well plates ~16 hours prior to infection. Samples were serially diluted in DMEM with 2% FBS and .5% P/S. Cells were infected with 100µl of diluted virus and incubated for ~1 hour with shaking every 15 minutes. Wells were then overlayed with a 50:50 warmed mixture of 2% agarose in sterile H2O and 2X MEM with 10% FBS and .5% P/S. The plates were incubated for 8 DPI and fixed with 10% formalin solution. Cells were stained with crystal violet and plaques counted to determine viral load. When calculating the viral load of tissue samples, tissues were weighed prior to homogenization and media was added to the samples consistent to the measured weight. Utilizing these values, viral loads per gram of tissue was calculated for each sample.

Animal Experiments

Six-to-eight-week old IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice on a C57BL/6 background were utilized for all studies. All animals were housed in a pathogen-free environment. All virus infections were performed in the BSL-4 in the GNL, UTMB. All animal studies were reviewed and approved by the UTMB Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee, and were completed according to the National Institutes of Health guidelines. Animals were anesthetized using an isoflurane precision variable-bypass vaporizer prior to virus inoculation by the IP route with 10⁴ PFU. Telemetric monitoring of body temperature was accomplished throughout the studies. A BMDS IPTT-300 transponder (Bio Medic Data Systems, Inc.) was implanted subcutaneously using a trocar needle assembly. Transponders were read with a DAS-6007 reader (Bio Medic Data Systems, Inc.) and downloaded in accordance with manufacturer's protocol. Body weight measurements were performed throughout the studies by anesthetizing the animals and weighing them, weights were compared to baseline collected at 0 DPI (38, 149). The experimental endpoints of the studies were ~40 DPI, where surviving animals were humanely euthanized and necropsied.

1419

1403

1404

1405

1406

1407

1408

1409

1410

1411

1412

1413

1414

1415

1416

1417

1418

1420

1421

Statistical Analysis

1422

1423

1424

1425

1426

1434

1435

1436

1437

1438

1439

1440

GraphPad Prism v5 was utilized for all data analysis. To determine significance in weight and temperature change, two-way ANOVA tests were performed comparing pooled data from the infected rMACV or rMACV-F437I IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/-mice. Viral growth curve analysis was completed utilizing a two-way $\frac{10^8}{10^6}$ Limit of Detection

1427 1428 ANOVA test comparing all virus 1429 and cell culture types over each 1430 day. A Kaplan Meier survival 1431 generated curve was 1432 statistical Mantel Cox test was 1433 completed determine to

significance between

and rMACV-F437I.

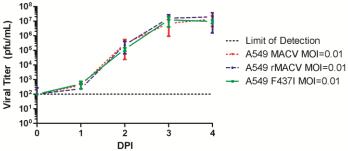


Figure 24: Infection of IFN Competent A549 Cells with MACV, rMACV, and rMACV-F437I.

A549 cells were infected at an MOI=0.01 with MACV, rMACV, and rMACV-F437I. TCS was collected from 0 to 4 DPI in triplicate from infected cells and plaque titered. No significant difference (P>.05, two-way ANOVA) was observed on any day between the three viruses. All three viruses had similar growth kinetics and peak titers.

RESULTS:

In Vitro Characterization of rMACV-F437I

rMACV

The rescue of rMACV-F437I was accomplished in a manner similar to rMACV presented in Chapter 2 and as described in the methods of this chapter. A working stock of rMACV-F437I with a titer of 4e7pfu/mL was generated following a single passage of

Vero cells. Sequencing confirmed no additional mutations were generated during the passage. To characterize the *in vitro* growth kinetics of rMACV-F437I, I infected IFN competent A549 cells at an MOI = 0.01. I collected TCS at 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 DPI in triplicate and completed plaque titrations on all samples (Fig. 24). Additionally, I infected IFN incompetent Vero cells at an MOI=0.01 and collected TCS at 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4 DPI (Fig. 25). Both growth curves corresponded closely with MACV and rMACV in the same cell lines.

In Vivo Characterization of rMACV-F437I

I

To investigate the impact of the single mutation on rMACV virulence, I utilized the IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- murine model I characterized previously in Chapter 2. I hypothesized

1451 that the introduction of

1441

1442

1443

1444

1445

1446

1447

1448

1449

1450

1457

the single mutation would

1453 alter the virulence and

1454 disease development in

1455 infected animals.

1456 completed two

experiments from which

1458 the pooled data is

presented. C57BL/6 IFN-

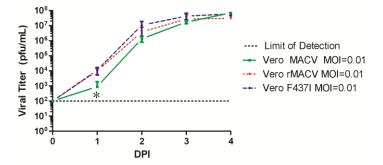


Figure 25: Infection of IFN Incompetent Vero-CLL81 Cells with MACV, rMACV, and rMACV-F437I.

Vero cells were infected at an MOI=0.01 and TCS was collected from 0 to 4 DPI. A significant difference was observed at 1 DPI between the titers of MACV and rMACV/rMACV-F437I (P<.01, two-way ANOVA). No significant difference was observed from 2 to 4 DPI (P>.05, two-way ANOVA). All three viruses grew similarly with comparable titers after 2 DPI.

αβ/γ R -/- mice were challenged IP with 1x10⁴ pfu of rMACV (N=9) or rMACV-F437I 1460 1461 (N=7).

Mice infected with rMACV became hunched-but-active as early as 9 DPI and I observed progressive weight loss from 10-15 DPI. Between 15 to 20 DPI all animals had no discernable disease. Starting at 20 DPI, rMACV infected mice began to develop neurological impairments. These impairments included partial to full paralysis, hunched posture, labored breathing, and ataxia. All rMACV infected animals developed lethal disease or were humanely euthanized after reaching disease endpoints defined within the study protocols (Fig. 26).

1469 In contrast, 1470 rMACV-F437I infected 1471 1472 1473

1462

1463

1464

1465

1466

1467

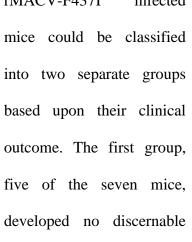
1468

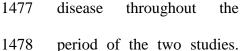
1474

1475

1476

1479





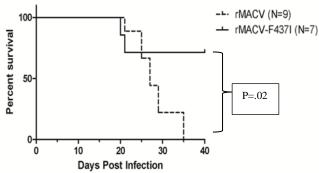


Figure 26: Kaplan Meier Curve of rMACV and rMACV-F437I Infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- Mice. Data is representative of two pooled studies. Mice were challenged with rMACV and rMACV-F437I through the IP route with 1x10⁴ pfu/mL and observed for clinical disease. All animals challenged with rMACV reached endpoints defined by the study or were found dead with a MTD of ~27 DPI. Two of the seven animals challenged with rMACV-F437I develop endpoints defined by the study protocol, the other five developed no observable disease symptoms and were euthanized at the end of the study. A significant difference (P=.02, Mantel Cox test) was observed between the two groups of animals survival rates. The two mice infected with rMACV-F437I which reached disease endpoints had a MTD of 20.5 DPI.

No significant changes in temperature or weight were reported in these animals. The

second group was comparable to the first group for the first 18 DPI. Starting at 18 DPI the second group became hunched-but-active and/or ataxic. By 20 DPI both animals in the second group were losing body weight and were paralyzed or moribund. One animal was euthanized at 20 DPI, and the other at 21 DPI (Fig. 26).

Temperature and bodyweight data was collected throughout the two studies. At 10, 14, and 15 DPI I identified significant weight loss (p <0 .05, Two-way ANOVA) in the rMACV infected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice when compared to the infected rMACV-F437I mice (Fig. 27). Additionally, a significant difference in weight change was identified at 22, 24, and 27 DPI, corresponding to 1-3 days prior to individual animals succumbing to disease. There was minimal change in body temperature throughout most of the study between the rMACV and rMACV-F437I infected mice. These days correspond to the death of two animals in the rMACV pool, both of which developed hypothermia at the final temperature collection prior to death/euthanizations (Fig. 28).

Organ samples were collected and homogenized for titration from infected animals. Animals challenged with rMACV-F437I which survived until the end of the study had no detectable virus in their brains, kidneys, lungs, livers, or spleen (Data not shown). Interestingly, only the brain homogenates from the two mice which develop lethal infection showed titerable plaques with viral loads at $2x10^6$ and $2x10^5$ pfu/mL respectively, there was no sign of infectious virus within the peripheral organs.

Isolation of Viral RNA from Two rMACV-F437I Infected Mice

To investigate if the two distinct outcomes in IFN-αβ/γ R -/-mice infected by rMACV-F437I was driven by a change in the virus, I isolated and sequenced viral RNA collected from organ homogenate from the two animals. Brains, livers, lungs, spleens, and kidneys were collected in thirds during necropsy with one part, around 0.1 grams added to 1mL of Trizol (Life Technologies,

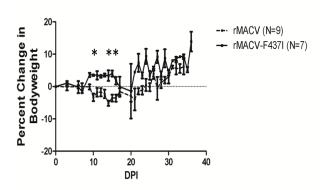


Figure 27: Weight Change of IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- Mice infected with rMACV and rMACV-F437I. Observations of weight change of rMACV and rMACV-F437I infect mice were collected throughout the study. A significant difference (P<.05, two-way ANOVA) was observed during the acute phase of disease between the two groups, at 10, 14, and 15 DPI. Weight loss was observed at 20 DPI and later 1 to 2 days prior to death or the animal reaching the defined study end point.

#15596-026). Samples were homogenized and centrifuged with the aqueous layer transferred to a clean vial. Fresh Trizol was added to the aqueous layer and the samples were removed from the BSL-4 following approved GNL protocols.

RNA was isolated from the Trizol lysate according to the manufacturer's protocol as described in the methods section. I completed RT-PCR utilizing random primers on the samples and amplified the entire MACV genome utilizing the primers I had previously designed to sequence MACV. Amplified fragments from the brains, lungs,

and kidneys were sequenced by the UTMB Sequencing Core. Analysis of the sequence identified the two silent mutations, confirming the virus as rMACV-F437I. However, at the single mutation F437I, there was a reversion to the original phenylalanine 437 amino acid (Fig. 23). This residue reversion was confirmed in viral RNA isolated from the organs collected from both mice.

DISCUSSION:

1520

1521

1522

1523

1524

1525

1526

1527

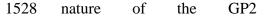
1535

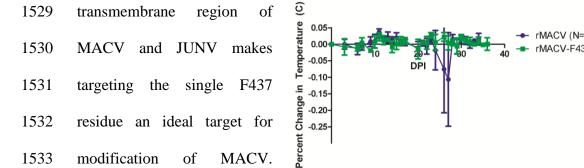
1536

1537

1538

The data presented in this chapter confirms the reverse genetics system described in Chapter 2 as a powerful tool for studying rMACV biology. The highly conserved





1534 Introduction and subsequent

rescue of the virus with the single mutation confirms the

Figure 28: Change in Temperature in rMACV and rMACV-F437I Infected Mice.

Collection of body temperature from rMACV and rMACV-F437I infected animals was completed throughout the study through the subcutaneous implantation of a BMDS transponder chip. No development of febrile disease was observed throughout the studies. Drastic loss in temperature was observed in animals 1 to 3 days prior to death or reaching defined study end point.

viability of the virus with this single mutation, as reported with LASV and JUNV (122).

This is the first report of the attenuation of MACV in vivo.

Initial rescue and concentration of rMACV-F437I resulted in a similar peak titer as seen with rMACV. Characterization of viral growth kinetics in IFN incompetent Vero cells confirmed similar growth curves and peaks as the wild type virus. Similar growth analysis in IFN competent A549 cells confirmed that the single mutant virus grew and peaked at similar titers as MACV and rMACV. This data is comparable to results reported from the single mutant rXJ13-F427I, a passaged strain of JUNV with the single mutation (121). rXJ13-F427I also exhibited similar growth characteristics when compared to wild type XJ13 (121). In comparison, the addition of the single mutation in rLASV greatly reduced viral growth when compared to the wild-type virus (121). Following two passages in Vero cells, additional spontaneous mutations developed in the rLASV single mutant virus that allowed for robust growth of the single mutant virus comparable to that of the wild-type virus. The characteristics identified from *in vitro* analysis of rMACV provide further evidence of the distinct natures of NWAs when compared to OWAs.

Challenge of IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice with rMACV-F437I resulted in a significant difference (p=.02) in mortality rate when compared to mice infected with rMACV. Disease presentation also was drastically distinct between the majority of the rMACV-F437I infected and rMACV infected animals. The periods of weight loss and neurological disease present in rMACV infected animals in these two studies were identical to what I previously reported in Chapter 2. The period of acute disease and

weight loss was not present in mice infected with rMACV-F437I, even when looking at the two mice that did succumb following viral challenge.

Interestingly, both mice which developed lethal disease following challenge with rMACV-F437I had a gain in weight at 10 to14 DPI comparative to the rMACV infected animals. Both animals developed neurological disease, albeit 2-3 days earlier than previously reported in rMACV-and MACV-infected animals. The mortality rate I identified in the murine model challenged with rMACV-F437I is comparable to the reported mortality rate of mice challenged with XJ13-F427I but it is not known if a reversion occurred in the animals challenged with XJ13-F427I (121). The MTD for the two mice which developed lethal disease following rMACV-F437I infection was 20.5 DPI. When compared to the ~28 DPI MTD reported in animals challenged with rMACV, this initial data suggests the reversion may result in more rapid disease progression than infection with the wild type virus. Without further study it is not possible to confirm this phenomenon statistically.

In an attempt to determine why infection with rMACV-F437I resulted in such variable outcomes for a significant portion of the experimental animals, I investigated if any genetic mutations had occurred in rMACV-F437I following challenge. The sequencing I completed from viral RNA isolated from different organs of the two mice confirmed that the mice had been infected with the single mutant virus, but that the single mutation was no longer present. All RNA isolates from organ homogenates presented

with an identical reversion of the single nucleotide at the I437F residue resulting in a wild-type genotype.

The F427I mutation appeared in the final series of passaging during the generation of Candid#1; it was not present in XJ44 or any previous passage strain (121). It has been proposed that this mutation alters the pH requirements for fusion allowing for more relaxed environmental requirements for fusogenic transformation and entry into cells (122). This alteration of fusion phenotype could have a number of different effects on the virus. It has been shown that Candid#1 has a greater dependence upon human transferrin receptor (hTfR) 1 than wild-type JUNV but this is linked to mutations in GP1 and not GP2 or F437I (121).

A change in MACV ability to fuse to the early or late endosome following invagination caused by the F437I mutation may lead to a change in cell tropism. With the fusion to the endosome occurring earlier, it may be possible the virus is injecting into a different location within the cytoplasm compared to where it normally occurs, impacting the replication of the virus. This could greatly alter disease progression and severity. As my murine model has shown, late-stage disease and death occurs when the titer of MACV in the brain is at its peak. It is possible the reversion of rMACV-F437I and subsequent rapid decline of the animals is due to a more rapid dissemination leading to faster invasion of the central nervous system by the single mutant followed by the reversion to a more virulent genotype. The *in vitro* characterization of the single mutant

virus showed no significant change in growth kinetics compared to rMACV, but this is in cell culture with only a single cell type. Further characterization in different cell lines and *in vivo* studies are warranted to determine if the presence of the single mutation changes the rate of infection or type of cell normally targeted by MACV. It would also be interesting to identify if the virus enters the cytoplasm earlier, fusing through the early endosome instead of the late endosome, forcing the virus to replicate in a different manner or location within the cell.

An alternative method of attenuation could be that F437I mutation causes a decrease in virus infectivity due to a change in virion stability. The mutation might not change the cellular tropism but could change the rate or efficiency of cellular entry by MACV. This was not seen in the *in vitro* characterization but may be cell type dependent. As reported previously, this mutation could lead to a conformational change at neutral pH prior to the low pH reported to be necessary for virus fusion (186, 187). It has been shown that the GP of LASV undergoes irreversible conformational changes at pH 6.0, potentially shedding GP1 following binding to the cell receptor and endocytosis. A conformational change at neutral pH might lead to the shedding of GP1, preventing rMACV-F437I from binding the cellular receptor correctly and entering the cell. The mutation might also lead to early shedding or a conformational change within the endosome prior to reaching the low pH required for normal fusion; this could expose the viral proteins and RNA to a low pH environment earlier than normal. To determine if this

is occurring I recommend investigating if conformational changes occur in the GP-1/2 spike in different pH environments, potentially utilizing the expression plasmids generated in Chapter 2. If changes occur, I would investigate at what pH to determine if it is occurring prior to binding the receptor, within the early endosome, or at the late endosome. Finally, further characterization of cellular tropism is necessary to understand the route and method of infection, not just for MACV but for many arenaviruses as knowledge of primary cell targets is extremely limited for hemorrhagic NWAs.

CHAPTER SUMMARY:

The research presented in this chapter describes the rational modification and attenuation of rMACV. The modification and generation of an attenuated rMACV proves the usefulness of the tools developed in Chapter 2, and demonstrates areas of interest for further studies to elucidate the genetic mechanisms of attenuation. I have presented the *in vitro* characterization of rMACV-F437I on two different cell lines, IFN competent and incompetent, showing that the mutation in the transmembrane region does not greatly affect virus growth kinetics in cell culture. I have also shown *in vivo* that rMACV-F437I is attenuated in the IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mouse model when compared to rMACV. Finally, I have shown that the single F437I mutation, on its own, appears to be unstable with a reversion rate of 28% in the two studies completed. Further studies are necessary to determine how this single mutation is causing attenuation and what pressures are leading to the reversion to wild-type genotype.

CHAPTER 5: DISSERTATION SUMMARY

In Chapter 1, I provide a comprehensive review of MACV based upon published articles and conference presentations dating back to the original outbreak in 1959. I also provide the three aims from my original dissertation proposal, my hypotheses, and a brief rationale for my hypotheses. I provide a summary of all the published information on MACV, including details on all reported outbreaks, the genomic makeup of arenaviruses, a clinical description of BHF, and a list of all published animal models utilized for studying BHF. I also detail the recent discoveries made from models utilizing plasmid expression of MACV protein or other arenaviruses which have been ascribed to what can occur with infectious MACV.

In Chapter 2, I discuss the development of the reverse genetics system I utilized for rescuing rMACV. To ensure the viability of the virus I completed a full sequence of the viral genome, including the UTRs, and identified the correct 5' and 3' terminal regions of the S and L segments. During this process I generated a minigenome assay that allowed me to identify the functional NP and L proteins in the BSL-2. Additionally, I showed that the L protein from Candid#1 and Romero were able to replicate the MACV genome. Following rescue of rMACV, I completed growth curve analysis at different MOIs in different cell lines. This analysis allowed me to compare the wild-type virus to

the recombinant virus, ensuring they were similar. I characterized a novel murine model, IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice, which developed a biphasic disease following IP challenge with MACV or rMACV.

1657

1658

1659

1660

1661

1662

1663

1664

1665

1666

1667

1668

1669

1670

1671

1672

1673

1674

1675

1676

The identification of the 5' and 3' termini regions of MACV is an important step in the development of the reverse genetics system and it also confirms the conservation of this region across multiple arenaviruses. This is the fourth report of a hemorrhagic arenavirus with identical termini sequence, the other three being Lujo virus, JUNV, and LASV (38, 124, 150). Confirmation of this sequence may assist in future attempts at rescuing hemorrhagic arenaviruses. The development of the novel minigenome assay was essential for confirming the functionality of the plasmid-expressed viral proteins and the termini regions of MACV. Other groups have utilized similar assays to elucidate viral replication kinetics and to test antivirals (122, 143-148, 152). I utilized this assay to show that two different JUNV L proteins could replicate the reporter genes, providing evidence that a chimeric virus with JUNV and MACV genes could be generated. The development of the reverse genetics system is the tool necessary for such a project. Unlike ML29, which was generated through in vitro co-infection and reassortment of the two viruses, my reverse genetics system could be used to rationally generate chimeric viruses (153, 182). Additionally, my system can be utilized to modify specific regions of the MACV genome to better elucidate the genetic determinants of attenuation as comparable systems have been utilized for other arenaviruses (38, 124-126, 151, 188, 189).

In Chapter 3, I provide evidence that RIG-I knockdown in A549 cells had minimal impact on viral growth or peak titer at 3 and 4 DPI when compared to control cells. The reduced growth at 1 and 2 DPI may imply that MACV is inhibited by IFN induction early in infection but is able to overcome the inhibiting factor at later stages of infection. I show that MACV infection of A549 cells leads to activation of STAT-1, induction of STAT-1, and induction of ISG15. All three of these steps are correlated with PRR recognition of the virus infection leading to synthesis of IFN and IFN signaling. The evidence I provide identifies activation of PKR and phosphorylation of eIF2 α , which is also contradictory to the commonly held dogma within the arenavirus field, that these viruses do not impact cellular biosynthesis.

The indication that MACV is affected by but may overcome the activity of IFN is very intriguing especially as early tests utilizing therapeutic poly I:C in MACV challenged NHPs reported no clinical benefit. However, it did identify a more rapid detection of viremia in treated compared to untreated animals (111). While poly I:C failed to elicit a beneficial response, Ribavirin has been reported to reduce the NWA virulence in infected animals and, in a very limited number of cases, humans (67, 70, 112, 179-181). The identification that MACV infection of A549 induces an IFN signaling response is contradictory to the accepted arenavirus dogma, which is primarily based upon plasmid-expressed proteins and non-pathogenic arenaviruses (117, 118, 120, 164). Previous research identified no phosphorylation of eIF2α following infection of cells Huh

7 cells with the prototypical arenavirus LCMV (169). The existence of these dogmas can be a detriment to the field as it may encourage scientific pursuits based upon incorrect evidence. Clinical data from JUNV-infected patients have clearly identified IFN induction, as have reports from MACV infected NHPs and JUNV infected guinea pigs (108, 111, 165). The clinical data from LASV infected patients clearly identify a suppression of IFN induction (139, 140, 190). The distinctions between pathogenic NWAs and OWAs must be clarified to allow further unconstrained progress within the field. Based upon this data, I propose MACV and JUNV both induce IFN early in infection and the production of IFN is maintained throughout the infection within the host. The ability of MACV to propagate within an IFN inducing cell and the role of IFN in MACV infection must be further elucidated, especially if, at late stages of severe disease, IFN is pathogenic instead of protective as seen with Severe acute respiratory syndrome and Influenza A (191-193).

In Chapter 4 I utilized the reverse genetics system and mouse model I characterized in Chapter 2 to study the impact of a single mutation in the glycoprotein membrane of MACV at residue F437. This mutation has been identified in Candid#1 and shown to play a significant role in attenuating JUNV in a murine neurovirulence model. After generating the rMACV-F437I, I confirmed that the single mutant virus had similar growth curves and peaks compared to the wild type virus. After challenging IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- mice with rMACV and rMACV-F437I, I identified a significant reduction in

morbidity and mortality between the two viruses. Reversion to wild type sequence was identified in the two of seven rMACV-F437I-infected animals, both of which succumbed to disease with a MTD of 20.5 DPI.

The role of the F437I substitution, while significant in its attenuation, is not well characterized. The mutation has been shown to play a role in cell-to-cell fusion at more neutral pH, reducing infectivity in cell culture (122). The mutation also plays a critical role in attenuating the neurovirulence of JUNV in a murine model (121). My data further exemplify the attenuating role, but does not characterize the molecular mechanism of attenuation. The identical reversion of the single mutation confirms the importance of the residue, but does not identify the role of the residue.

Looking towards the future of this project, further investigation needs to be completed to determine the role of IFN induction on hemorrhagic NWAs to determine if the IFN response plays an antiviral or pathogenic role in the outcome of the patient. As a correlation of high IFN levels to more severe outcomes has already been published relating to JUNV, early identification of high levels of endogenous IFN may provide an ideal marker to identify critical cases of BHF prior to severe disease development (109). I also propose investigating the role of phosphorylated PKR to identify if there is an impact on cellular and viral protein biosynthesis or if MACV has a method of evading cap-dependent translation shutdown. If MACV is able to overcome cap-dependent translation shutdown within an infected cell, it avoids an essential antiviral cell response. If the

mechanistic target can be identified, there are two distinct opportunities for antiviral development. The first would be to identify which MACV protein plays a critical role in the process and possibly target the protein-protein interaction restoring the shutdown of translation. The second would be to identify which part of the translation pathway is being affected and develop therapeutics, which could possibly restore the antiviral state. Both of these targets would aim to restore the shutdown of translation within infected cells, inhibiting MACV replication and slowing infection.

Another direction is to investigate the single mutation F437I, to determine if it can be stabilized similar to Candid#1 and the role it plays in attenuating the MACV. Elucidation of this mutation may play a key role in the development of a future vaccine, especially if attenuation of other hemorrhagic NWAs can be achieved in a similar manner. The reverse genetics system I developed and the lethal animal model I characterized in this dissertation will play a vital role in further elucidation of MACV virulence and the future development of an attenuated rMACV.

Appendix:

I: TABLE OF MACV ANIMAL EXPERIMENTS

					Other Animals							Murine				Non-Human Primates			Animal Models
Rabbit	Equine	Swine	Chickens	Cats	Young Hamsters (<5	AdultHamsters	Young Guinea Pigs	C-13 Guinea Pigs	AdultGuineaPigs	IFN αβ/γR-/-	STAT-1-/-	Young (<2 days old) Inbred white mice	Adult Inbred white mice	African green monkey (Cercopithecus aethiops)	Cynomolgus monkeys (Macacafascicularis)	Young Rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta)	Adult Rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta)	Adult Marmosets (Saquinus geoffroyi)	
N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	IC, IP, IV, Or	IÇIP	IC, IP, IN, Or	IP.IC	Fē	ΠP	IP (10^3 pfu)	<u>JP (</u> 10^3 pfu), <u>SC (</u> 10^3 pfu)	बाजा	IC, IP, IN, Or	<u>§C</u> (10^3 pfu)	<u>§C</u> (10^3pfu)	s <u>SC</u> (10^3 pfu)	<u>SC</u> (10^5 pfu, 10^3 pfu)	<u> </u>	Route of Challenge (Dose)
No Disease	No Di sease	No Di sease	No Di sease	No Di sease	Neurological	No Disease	N/A	N/A	N/A	Biphasic disease- acute weight loss; Neurological- ataxia, awkward gait, loss of balance, paralysis, death) Ruffled, hunched, and letthargic	Growth retardation, tremors, convulsions	No Disease	Fever, Anorexia, Shock, Hemorrhage, Pnuemonia	Sudden death with disease reported 1-3 days priorto death	Biphasic disease identified *7 DPI. Skin petechiae, facial rash, nasal discharge fever, and anorexia. Moribund *2 before death.	Biphasic disease i dentified * 7 DPI. Skin petechiae, facial rash, nasal discharge fever, and anorexia. Moribund * 2 before death.	1-3 dayspriorto death refuse food, huddled, inactive, weakness, hypothermia	Disease Symptoms
N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A (87%)	N/A	N/A	30 DPI	7.3 DPI, 10.5 DPI	9-16 DPI		15 DPI (83%)	17 DPI (71%)	19 DPI (86%)	13-17,17-25 (50%)	11-21 DPI	Mean time to death
N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes (100%)	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes (100%)	Yes (50%)	Yes (50%)	Yes (100%)	N/A	Late Neurological Syndrome (Mortality %)
Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	N/A	Yes	N/A	N/A	Yes	N/A	N/A	N/A	Yes	N/A	Yes	Yes	Yes	N/A	Neutralizing Antibodies

Table 1: Table of published animal models from the 1960s to present.

When available, data of clinical development, routes of exposure, and doses are reported. Routes of exposure which are underlined represent lethal challenges. Acronyms: Sub-cutaneous (SC), Scarified skin (SS), Corneal instillation (Cr), Intra-nasal (IN), Oral (Or), Plaque forming unit (pfu), Intracranial (IC), Intravenous (IV), and intraperitoneal (IP). Copyright Current Opinions in Virology

II: BRAIN AND SPLEEN HISTOLOGY FROM INFECTED MICE

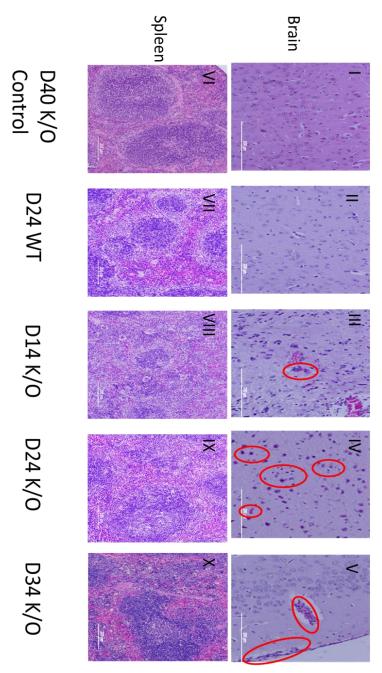


Figure 29: Histopathology Staining of Brain and Spleen Tissues. Sections I and VI are from an uninfected IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R /mouse showing no neuronal death and good spleen structure. Sections II and VII are from a C57BL/6 mouse infected with MACV with no visible neuron death or inflammation and good spleen structure. Sections III and VIII are from an IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R /mouse euthanized at 14 dpi, the red circle identifying vascular infiltrates. Sections IV and IX are from IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R /mice euthanized at 24 dpi; red circles identify microglial cells and cellular debris from dead neuronal cells. Sections V and X are from an IFN- $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R /mouse that died at 34 dpi; red circles identify increased vascular and perivascular cellular infiltrates.

III: IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY FROM INFECTED MICE

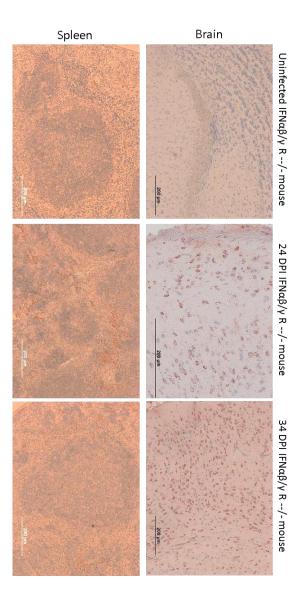


Figure 30: Immunohistochemistry of Brain and Spleen Tissue Slides from IFN $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- Mice. Tissue slides made from Brain and Spleen organs collected at 24 and 34 DPI with accompanying control. By 34 DPI a large percentage of neuronal cells are infected while spleens have minimal signs of viral antigen and have started to regain normal architecture.

IV: VIRAL LOAD OF DIFFERENT ORGANS FROM INFECTED MICE

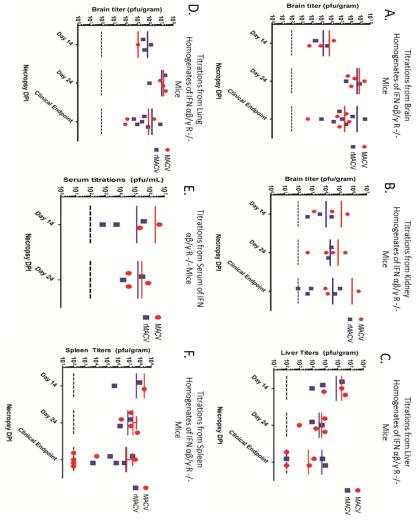


Figure 31: Titrations From Organ Homogenates of Infected IFN $\alpha\beta/\gamma$ R -/- Mice. Organs from infected animals were weighed and homogenized in 2% FBS DMEM. Plaque titrations on Vero-CCL81 cells were completed and corresponding titrations are shown above. No significant difference (P>.05, two-way ANOVA) was identified between the two viruses in any homogenate sample. A high viral load in the CNS was observed by 24 DPI (-10^8 pfu/gram) and was maintained until death. The single surviving mouse infected with MACV was euthanized at 40 DPI, and had no detectable viral load in the brain (data not shown). Titrations of kidney homogenates identified a slight increase from 14 DPI to clinical endpoint. Liver homogenates had a peak titer at 14 DPI with a generalized downward trend until clinical endpoint. Lung homogenates had a peak titer at 24 DPI. Serum samples confirmed the presence of viremia at 14 and 24 DPI. Spleen samples had a peak titer at 14 DPI with a generalized decrease until clinical endpoint.

PERMISSION TO PUBLISH

FROM THE JOURNAL OF VIROLOGY:

"Authors may republish/adapt portions of their articles

ASM also grants the authors the right to republish discrete portions of his/her article in any other publication (including print, CD-ROM, and other electronic formats) of which he or she is author or editor, provided that proper credit is given to the original ASM publication. "Proper credit" means either the copyright lines shown on the top of the first page of the PDF version, or "Copyright © American Society for Microbiology, [insert journal name, volume number, year, page numbers and DOI]" of the HTML version. For technical questions about using Rightslink, please contact Customer Support via phone at (877) 622-5543 (toll free) or (978) 777-9929, or e-mail Rightslink customer care at customercare@copyright.com.

From the Elsevier website

How authors can use their own journal articles

Authors can use their articles for a wide range of scholarly, non-commercial purposes as outlined below. These rights apply for all Elsevier authors who publish their article as either a subscription article or an open access article.

We require that all Elsevier authors always include a full acknowledgement and, if appropriate, a link to the final published version hosted on Science Direct.

Authors can use either their accepted author manuscript or final published article for:

Use at a conference, meeting or for teaching purposes

Internal training by their company

Sharing individual articles with colleagues for their research use* (also known as 'scholarly sharing')

Use in a subsequent compilation of the author's works

Inclusion in a thesis or dissertation

Reuse of portions or extracts from the article in other works

Preparation of derivative works (other than for commercial purposes)"

The permission to utilize my publication in the Journal of Virology,

Patterson M, Seregin A, Huang C, Kolokoltsova O, Smith J, Miller M, Smith J, Yun N, Poussard A, Grant A, Tigabu B, Walker A, Paessler S. 2013. Rescue of a Recombinant Machupo Virus from Cloned cDNAs and In Vivo Characterization in Interferon $(\alpha\beta/\gamma)$ Receptor Double Knockout Mice. Journal of Virology,

applies to all sections of Chapter 2, a portion of the Chapter 4 methods, Appendix I and II, and Figures 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 16.

FROM THE JOURNAL CURRENT OPINIONS IN VIROLOGY:

http://www.elsevier.com/journal-authors/author-rights-and-responsibilities

How authors can use their own journal articles

Authors can use their articles for a wide range of scholarly, non-commercial purposes as outlined below. These rights apply for all Elsevier authors who publish their article as either a subscription article or an open access article.

We require that all Elsevier authors always include a full acknowledgement and, if appropriate, a link to the final published version hosted on Science Direct.

For open access articles these rights are separate from how readers can reuse your article as defined by the author's choice of Creative Commons user license options.

Authors can use either their accepted author manuscript or final published article for:

Use at a conference, meeting or for teaching purposes

Internal training by their company

Sharing individual articles with colleagues for their research use* (also known as 'scholarly sharing')

Use in a subsequent compilation of the author's works

Inclusion in a thesis or dissertation

Reuse of portions or extracts from the article in other works

Preparation of derivative works (other than for commercial purposes

This copyright applies to the entirety of Chapter 1 except the Innate Immune subsection, Figures 1, 2, 3, and Table 1.

FROM THE JOURNAL OF MOLECULAR BIOLOGY

This is a License Agreement between Michael Patterson ("You") and Elsevier ("Elsevier") provided by Copyright Clearance Center ("CCC"). The license consists of your order details, the terms and conditions provided by Elsevier, and the payment terms and conditions.

All payments must be made in full to CCC. For payment instructions, please see information listed at the bottom of this form.

Supplier

Elsevier Limited

The Boulevard, Langford Lane

Kidlington,Oxford,OX5 1GB,UK

Registered Company Number

1982084

Customer name

Michael Patterson

Customer address

301 University Blvd

Galveston, TX 77555

License number

3327790452926

License date

Feb 14, 2014

Licensed content publisher

Elsevier

Licensed content publication

Journal of Molecular Biology

Licensed content title

Innate Immune Response to Arenaviral Infection: A Focus on the Highly Pathogenic New World Hemorrhagic Arenaviruses

Licensed content author

Takaaki Koma, Cheng Huang, Olga A. Kolokoltsova, Allan R. Brasier, Slobodan Paessler

Licensed content date

13 December 2013

425
Licensed content issue number 24
Number of pages 11
Start Page 4893
End Page 4903
Type of Use reuse in a thesis/dissertation
Portion figures/tables/illustrations
Number of figures/tables/illustrations

Licensed content volume number

Format

electronic

Are you the author of this Elsevier article?

No

Will you be translating?

No

Title of your thesis/dissertation

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A REVERSE GENETICS SYSTEM FOR MACHUPO VIRUS

Expected completion date

Mar 2014

Estimated size (number of pages)

120

Elsevier VAT number

GB 494 6272 12

Permissions price

 $0.00~\mathrm{USD}$

VAT/Local Sales Tax

0.00 USD / 0.00 GBP

Total

0.00 USD

This applies to Figure 4 of my dissertation

REFERENCES

- 1. **Webb PA.** 1965. Properties of Machupo Virus. Am J Trop Med Hyg **14:**799-802.
- 2. **Johnson KM, Kuns ML, Mackenzie RB, Webb PA, Yunker CE.** 1966. Isolation of Machupo Virus from Wild Rodent Calomys callosus. Am J Trop Med Hyg **15:**103-106.
- 3. Parodi AS, Rugiero HR, Greenway DJ, Mettler N, Martinez A, Boxaca M, De La Barrera JM. 1959. [Isolation of the Junin virus (epidemic hemorrhagic fever) from the mites of the epidemic area (Echinolaelaps echidninus, Barlese).]. Prensa Med Argent 46:2242-2244.
- 4. Terezinha Lisieux M Coimbra, Elza S Nassar, Marcelo N Burattini, Luiza Terezinha Madia de Souza, Ivani B Ferreira, Iray M Rocco, Amelia PA Travassos da Rosa, Pedro FC Vasconcelos, Francisco P Pinheiro, James W LeDuc, Rebeca Rico-Hesse, Jean-Paul Gonzalez, Peter B Jahrling, Tesh RB. 1994. New arenavirus isolated in Brazil. Lancet. 343:391-392.
- 5. Salas R, de Manzione N, Tesh RB, Rico-Hesse R, Shope RE, Betancourt A, Godoy O, Bruzual R, Pacheco ME, Ramos B, et al. 1991. Venezuelan haemorrhagic fever. Lancet 338:1033-1036.
- 6. Delgado S, Erickson BR, Agudo R, Blair PJ, Vallejo E, Albariño CG, Vargas J, Comer JA, Rollin PE, Ksiazek TG, Olson JG, Nichol ST. 2008. Chapare Virus, a Newly Discovered Arenavirus Isolated from a Fatal Hemorrhagic Fever Case in Bolivia. PLoS Pathog 4:e1000047.
- 7. **Buckley SM, Casals J.** 1970. Lassa Fever, a New Virus Disease of Man from West Africa. Am J Trop Med Hyg **19:**680-691.
- 8. Briese T, Paweska JT, McMullan LK, Hutchison SK, Street C, Palacios G, Khristova ML, Weyer J, Swanepoel R, Egholm M, Nichol ST, Lipkin WI. 2009. Genetic Detection and Characterization of Lujo Virus, a New Hemorrhagic Fever–Associated Arenavirus from Southern Africa. PLoS Pathog 5:e1000455.
- 9. **Fulhorst CF, Bowen MD, Ksiazek TG, Rollin PE, Nichol ST, Kosoy MY, Peters CJ.** 1996. Isolation and Characterization of Whitewater Arroyo Virus, a Novel North American Arenavirus. Virology **224:**114-120.
- 10. **Mackenzie RB, Beye HK, Valverde Ch L, Garron H.** 1964. Epidemic Hemorrhagic Fever in Bolivia: I. A Preliminary Report of the Epidemiologic and Clinical Findings in a New Epidemic Area in South America. Am J Trop Med Hyg **13:**620-625.

- 11. **Kuns ML.** 1965. Epidemiology of Machupo Virus Infection. Am J Trop Med Hyg **14:**813-816.
- 12. **Johnson KM.** 1965. Epidemiology of Machupo Virus Infection. Am J Trop Med Hyg **14:**816-818.
- 13. **Johnson KM, Wiebenga NH, Mackenzie RB, Kuns ML, Tauraso NM, Shelokov A, Webb PA, Justines G, Beye HK.** 1965. Virus Isolations from Human Cases of Hemorrhagic Fever in Bolivia. Proc Soc Exp Biol Med. Society for Experimental Biology and Medicine (New York, N.Y.) **118:**113-118.
- 14. **Johnson KM, Mackenzie RB, Webb PA, Kuns ML.** 1965. Chronic infection of rodents by Machupo virus. Science **150**:1618-1619.
- 15. **Centers for Disease Control and Prevention**. 2013, posting date. <u>Select Agents and Toxins List</u>. [Online.]
- 16. **Buchmeier M, de la Torre J, Peters C.** 2007. Arenaviridae: The Viruses and Their Replication, p. 1791-1827. *In* Knipe HP (ed.), Field's Virology, vol. 5. Wolter Kluwer Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia, PA, USA.
- 17. Murphy FA, Webb PA, Johnson KM, Whitfield SG, Chappell WA. 1970. Arenoviruses in Vero Cells: Ultrastructural Studies. J Virol 6:507-518.
- 18. **O Poch, I Sauvaget, M Delarue, Tordo N.** 1989. Identification of four conserved motifs among the RNA-dependent polymerase encoding elements. EMBO **8**:3867-3874.
- 19. **Salvato M, Shimomaye E, Oldstone MBA.** 1989. The primary structure of the lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus L gene encodes a putative RNA polymerase. Virology **169**:377-384.
- 20. **Perez M, Craven RC, de la Torre JC.** 2003. The small RING finger protein Z drives arenavirus budding: Implications for antiviral strategies. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **100:**12978-12983.
- 21. Strecker T, Eichler R, Meulen Jt, Weissenhorn W, Dieter Klenk H, Garten W, Lenz O. 2003. Lassa Virus Z Protein Is a Matrix Protein Sufficient for the Release of Virus-Like Particles. J Virol 77:10700-10705.
- 22. **Djavani M, Lukashevich IS, Sanchez A, Nichol ST, Salvato MS.** 1997. Completion of the Lassa Fever Virus Sequence and Identification of a RING Finger Open Reading Frame at the L RNA 5' End. Virology **235**:414-418.
- 23. **Salvato MS, Shimomaye EM.** 1989. The completed sequence of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus reveals a unique RNA structure and a gene for a zinc finger protein. Virology **173:**1-10.
- 24. **Salvato MS, Schweighofer KJ, Burns J, Shimomaye EM.** 1992. Biochemical and immunological evidence that the 11 kDa zinc-binding protein of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus is a structural component of the virus. Virus Research **22:**185-198.

- 25. **Buchmeier MJ, Oldstone MBA.** 1979. Protein structure of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus: Evidence for a cell-associated precursor of the virion glycopeptides. Virology **99:**111-120.
- 26. **Beyer WR, Pöpplau D, Garten W, von Laer D, Lenz O.** 2003. Endoproteolytic Processing of the Lymphocytic Choriomeningitis Virus Glycoprotein by the Subtilase SKI-1/S1P. J Virol **77:**2866-2872.
- 27. **Lenz O, ter Meulen J, Klenk H-D, Seidah NG, Garten W.** 2001. The Lassa virus glycoprotein precursor GP-C is proteolytically processed by subtilase SKI-1/S1P. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA **98:**12701-12705.
- 28. **York J, Nunberg JH.** 2006. Role of the stable signal peptide of Junin arenavirus envelope glycoprotein in pH-dependent membrane fusion. J Virol **80:**7775-7780.
- 29. **York J, Romanowski V, Lu M, Nunberg JH.** 2004. The signal peptide of the Junin arenavirus envelope glycoprotein is myristoylated and forms an essential subunit of the mature G1-G2 complex. J Virol **78:**10783-10792.
- 30. **York J, Nunberg JH.** 2007. Distinct requirements for signal peptidase processing and function in the stable signal peptide subunit of the Junin virus envelope glycoprotein. Virology **359:**72-81.
- 31. **Eichler R, Lenz O, Strecker T, Eickmann M, Klenk H-D, Garten W.** 2003. Identification of Lassa virus glycoprotein signal peptide as a trans-acting maturation factor. EMBO Rep **4:**1084-1088.
- 32. **Riviere Y, Ahmed R, Southern PJ, Buchmeier MJ, Dutko FJ, Oldstone MB.** 1985. The S RNA segment of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus codes for the nucleoprotein and glycoproteins 1 and 2. J Virol **53:**966-968.
- 33. Morin B, Coutard B, Lelke M, Ferron F, Kerber R, Jamal S, Frangeul A, Baronti C, Charrel R, de Lamballerie X, Vonrhein C, Lescar J, Bricogne G, Gunther S, Canard B. 2010. The N-terminal domain of the arenavirus L protein is an RNA endonuclease essential in mRNA transcription. PLoS Pathog 6:e1001038.
- 34. Tortorici MA, Albarino CG, Posik DM, Ghiringhelli PD, Lozano ME, Rivera Pomar R, Romanowski V. 2001. Arenavirus nucleocapsid protein displays a transcriptional antitermination activity in vivo. Virus Res 73:41-55.
- 35. **Meyer BJ, Southern PJ.** 1994. Sequence heterogeneity in the termini of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus genomic and antigenomic RNAs. J Virol **68:**7659-7664.
- 36. **Auperin DD, Compans RW, Bishop DHL.** 1982. Nucleotide sequence conservation at the 3' termini of the virion RNA species of new World and Old World arenaviruses. Virology **121**:200-203.
- 37. **Auperin DD, McCormick JB.** 1989. Nucleotide sequence of the Lassa virus (Josiah strain) S genome RNA and amino acid sequence comparison of the N and GPC proteins to other arenaviruses. Virology **168:**421-425.

- 38. Emonet SF, Seregin AV, Yun NE, Poussard AL, Walker AG, de la Torre JC, Paessler S. 2011. Rescue from cloned cDNAs and in vivo characterization of recombinant pathogenic Romero and live-attenuated Candid #1 strains of Junin virus, the causative agent of Argentine hemorrhagic fever disease. J Virol 85:1473-1483.
- 39. Kranzusch PJ, Schenk AD, Rahmeh AA, Radoshitzky SR, Bavari S, Walz T, Whelan SP. 2010. Assembly of a functional Machupo virus polymerase complex. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107:20069-20074.
- 40. **Aguilar PV CW, Vargas J, Guevara C, Roca Y, Felices V, et al.** 2009, posting date. Reemergence of Bolivian hemorrhagic fever, 2007–2008. [Online.]
- 41. **Kilgore PE, Peters CJ, Mills JN, Rollin PE, Armstrong L, Khan AS, Ksiazek TG.** 1995. Prospects for the control of Bolivian hemorrhagic fever. Emerg Infect Dis **1:**97-100.
- 42. **ProMED-email.** 2013. Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever Bolivia: (Beni). ProMED-email **20130317.1590121**.
- 43. **ProMED-email.** 2013. Bolivian hemorrhagic fever Bolivia (02): (BE). ProMED-email **20130420.1660132**.
- 44. **ProMED-email.** 2012. Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever Bolivia (05): (Beni). ProMED-email **20120730.1220842**.
- 45. **Olds N.** 1988. Dissertation: A revision of the genus Calomys (Rodentia: Muridae). City University of New York, New York.
- 46. **J.W. Dragoo, J. Salazar-Bravo, L.J. Layne, Yates TL.** 2002. Relationships within the Calomys callosus species group based on amplified fragment length polymorphisms. Biochem Syst Ecol **31:**703–713.
- 47. **Sabattini MS, Gonzalez LE, de RIos DIaz G, Vega VR.** 1977. Infection natural y experimental de roedores con virus Junin. Medicina **37:**149-161.
- 48. **Sabattini MS, Contigiani MS.** 1982. Ecological and biological factors influencing the maintenance of are naviruses in nature, with special reference to the agent of Argentine hemorrhagic fever. Acad. Brasil. Cienc.: 261-262.
- 49. **Kravetz F, Percich R, Zuleta GA, Caleb MA, Weissenbacher MC.** 1986. Distribution of Junin virus and its reservoirs: A tool for Argentine hemorrhagic fever risk evaluation in non-endemic areas. . Interciencia **11:**185-188.
- 50. **Salazar-Bravo J, Ruedas LA, Yates TL.** 2002. Mammalian reservoirs of arenaviruses. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol **262:**25-63.
- 51. **Pan American Health Organization.** 2003. Machupo Hemorrhagic Fever, vol. II. [Online]
- 52. **Justines G, Johnson KM.** 1969. Immune Tolerance in Calomys callosus infected with Machupo Virus. Nature **222:**1090-1091.
- 53. **Webb PA, Justines G, Johnson KM.** 1975. Infection of wild and laboratory animals with Machupo and Latino viruses. Bull World Health Organ **52:**493–499.

- 54. **Douglas R, Wiebenga N, Couch R.** 1965. Bolivian hemorrhagic fever probably transmitted by personal contact. Am J Epidemiol **82:**8591.
- 55. Stinebaugh BJ, Schloeder FX, Johnson KM, Mackenzie RB, Entwisle G, De Alba E. 1966. Bolivian hemorrhagic fever: A report of four cases. The American journal of medicine 40:217-230.
- 56. **Peters CJ, Kuehne RW, Mercado RR, Le Bow RH, Spertzel RO, Webb PA.** 1974. Hemorrhagic Fever in Cochabamba, Bolivia, 1971. Am J Epidemiol **99:**425-433.
- 57. McKee KT, Jr., Mahlandt BG, Maiztegui JI, Green DE, Peters CJ. 1987. Virus-specific factors in experimental Argentine hemorrhagic fever in rhesus macaques. J Med Virol 22:99-111.
- 58. **American Society of Pediatrics**. 2009. Viral Hemorrhagic Fevers Caused by Arenaviruses. Red Book **2009**:325-334.
- 59. Cajimat MNB, Milazzo ML, Rollin PE, Nichol ST, Bowen MD, Ksiazek TG, Fulhorst CF. 2009. Genetic diversity among Bolivian arenaviruses. Virus Research 140:24-31.
- 60. **Weissenbacher MC, Laguens RP, Coto CE.** 1987. Argentine hemorrhagic fever. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol **134:**79-116.
- 61. Enria DA, de Damilano AJ, Briggiler AM, Ambrosio AM, Fernandez NJ, Feuillade MR, Maiztegui JI. 1985. [Late neurologic syndrome in patients with Argentinian hemorrhagic fever treated with immune plasma]. Medicina (B Aires) 45:615-620.
- 62. **Eddy G, Wagner F, Scott S, Mahlandt B.** 1975. Protection of monkeys against Machupo virus by the passive administration of Bolivian haemorrhagic feverimmunoglobulin (human origin). Bull World Health Organ **52**.
- 63. Enria DA, Briggiler AM, Fernandez NJ, Levis SC, Maiztegui JI. 1984. Importance of dose of neutralising antibodies in treatment of Argentine haemorrhagic fever with immune plasma. Lancet 2:255-256.
- 64. **Mahanty S, Bausch DG, Thomas RL, Goba A, Bah A, Peters CJ, Rollin PE.** 2001. Low Levels of Interleukin-8 and Interferon-Inducible Protein–10 in Serum Are Associated with Fatal Infections in Acute Lassa Fever. J Infect Dis **183:**1713-1721.
- 65. **Maiztegui JI, Fernandez NJ, de Damilano AJ.** 1979. Efficacy of immune plasma in treatment of Argentine haemorrhagic fever and association between treatment and a late neurological syndrome. Lancet **2:**1216-1217.
- 66. **C. G. Mcleod, J. L. Stookey, G. A. Eddy, Scott K.** 1976. Pathology of chronic Bolivian hemorrhagic fever in the rhesus monkey. Am J Pathol **84:**211-224.
- 67. Kilgore PE, Ksiazek TG, Rollin PE, Mills JN, Villagra MR, Montenegro MJ, Costales MA, Paredes LC, Peters CJ. 1997. Clin Infect Dis. Clinical Infectious Diseases 24:718-722.

- 68. McCormick JB, King IJ, Webb PA, Scribner CL, Craven RB, Johnson KM, Elliott LH, Belmont-Williams R. 1986. Lassa fever. Effective therapy with ribavirin. N Engl J Med 314:20-26.
- 69. **Jahrling P, Trotter R, Barrero O.** 1988. Proceedings of the second international conference on the impact of viral diseases on the development of Latin American countries and the Caribbean Region Mar del Plata, Argentina.
- 70. **Bradfute S, Stuthman K, Shurtleff A, Bavari S.** 2011. A STAT-1 knockout mouse model for Machupo virus pathogenesis. Virology Journal **8:**300.
- 71. **Webb PA, Johnson KM, Mackenzie RB, Kuns ML.** 1967. Some Characteristics of Machupo Virus, Causative Agent of Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever. Am J Trop Med Hyg **16:**531-538.
- 72. **Kastello MD, Eddy GA, Kuehne RW.** 1976. A Rhesus Monkey Model for the Study of Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever. Journal of Infectious Diseases **133:**57-62.
- 73. **Eddy G, Scott S, Wagner F, Brand O.** 1975. Pathogenesis of Machupo virus infection in primates. Bull World Health Organ **52**.
- 74. **McLeod CG, Stookey JL, White JD, Eddy GA, Fry GA.** 1978. Pathology of Bolivian Hemorrhagic Fever in the African Green Monkey. Am J Trop Med Hyg **27:**822-826.
- 75. Patterson M, Seregin A, Huang C, Kolokoltsova O, Smith J, Miller M, Yun N, Poussard A, Grant A, Tigabu B, Walker A, Paessler S. 2014. Rescue of a Recombinant Machupo Virus from Cloned cDNAs and In Vivo Characterization in Interferon (alphabeta/gamma) Receptor Double Knockout Mice. J Virol 88:1914-1923.
- 76. Syromiatnikova SI, Khmelev AL, Pantiukhov VB, Shatokhina IV, Pirozhkov AP, Khamitov RA, Markov VI, Birisevich IB, Bondarev VP. 2009. [Chemotherapy for Bolivian hemorrhagic fever in experimentally infected guinea pigs]. Vopr Virusol **54:**37-40.
- 77. **Medzhitov R.** 2007. Recognition of microorganisms and activation of the immune response. Nature **449**:819-826.
- 78. **Versteeg GA, Garcia-Sastre A.** 2010. Viral tricks to grid-lock the type I interferon system, p. 508-516, Curr Opin Microbiol, vol. 13. 2010 Elsevier Ltd, England.
- 79. **Diamond MS, Gale M, Jr.** 2012. Cell-intrinsic innate immune control of West Nile virus infection. Trends Immunol **33:**522-530.
- 80. **Borden EC, Sen GC, Uze G, Silverman RH, Ransohoff RM, Foster GR, Stark GR.** 2007. Interferons at age 50: past, current and future impact on biomedicine, p. 975-990, Nat Rev Drug Discov, vol. 6, England.
- 81. **Bowie AG, Unterholzner L.** 2008. Viral evasion and subversion of pattern-recognition receptor signalling, p. 911-922, Nat Rev Immunol, vol. 8, England.

- 82. Honda K, Yanai H, Negishi H, Asagiri M, Sato M, Mizutani T, Shimada N, Ohba Y, Takaoka A, Yoshida N, Taniguchi T. 2005. IRF-7 is the master regulator of type-I interferon-dependent immune responses. Nature 434:772-777.
- 83. Loo YM, Fornek J, Crochet N, Bajwa G, Perwitasari O, Martinez-Sobrido L, Akira S, Gill MA, Garcia-Sastre A, Katze MG, Gale M, Jr. 2008. Distinct RIG-I and MDA5 signaling by RNA viruses in innate immunity. J Virol 82:335-345
- 84. **Takeuchi O, Akira S.** 2009. Innate immunity to virus infection. Immunol Rev **227:**75-86.
- 85. Beutler B, Eidenschenk C, Crozat K, Imler JL, Takeuchi O, Hoffmann JA, Akira S. 2007. Genetic analysis of resistance to viral infection. Nat Rev Immunol 7:753-766.
- 86. Kato H, Takeuchi O, Sato S, Yoneyama M, Yamamoto M, Matsui K, Uematsu S, Jung A, Kawai T, Ishii KJ, Yamaguchi O, Otsu K, Tsujimura T, Koh CS, Reis e Sousa C, Matsuura Y, Fujita T, Akira S. 2006. Differential roles of MDA5 and RIG-I helicases in the recognition of RNA viruses, p. 101-105, Nature, vol. 441, England.
- 87. **Fujita T, Onoguchi K, Onomoto K, Hirai R, Yoneyama M.** 2007. Triggering antiviral response by RIG-I-related RNA helicases. Biochimie **89:**754-760.
- 88. **Kato H, Takahasi K, Fujita T.** 2011. RIG-I-like receptors: cytoplasmic sensors for non-self RNA. Immunol Rev **243:**91-98.
- 89. Satoh T, Kato H, Kumagai Y, Yoneyama M, Sato S, Matsushita K, Tsujimura T, Fujita T, Akira S, Takeuchi O. 2010. LGP2 is a positive regulator of RIG-I- and MDA5-mediated antiviral responses. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 107:1512-1517.
- 90. **Akira S, Takeda K.** 2004. Toll-like receptor signalling, p. 499-511, Nat Rev Immunol, vol. 4, England.
- 91. **Finberg RW, Wang JP, Kurt-Jones EA.** 2007. Toll like receptors and viruses. Rev Med Virol **17:**35-43.
- 92. **Fitzgerald KA, McWhirter SM, Faia KL, Rowe DC, Latz E, Golenbock DT, Coyle AJ, Liao SM, Maniatis T.** 2003. IKKepsilon and TBK1 are essential components of the IRF3 signaling pathway. Nat Immunol **4:**491-496.
- 93. Kato H, Sato S, Yoneyama M, Yamamoto M, Uematsu S, Matsui K, Tsujimura T, Takeda K, Fujita T, Takeuchi O, Akira S. 2005. Cell type-specific involvement of RIG-I in antiviral response. Immunity 23:19-28.
- 94. **Kawai T, Takahashi K, Sato S, Coban C, Kumar H, Kato H, Ishii KJ, Takeuchi O, Akira S.** 2005. IPS-1, an adaptor triggering RIG-I- and Mda5-mediated type I interferon induction. Nat Immunol **6:**981-988.
- 95. **Tang ED, Wang CY.** 2009. MAVS self-association mediates antiviral innate immune signaling. J Virol **83:**3420-3428.

- 96. **Baril M, Racine ME, Penin F, Lamarre D.** 2009. MAVS dimer is a crucial signaling component of innate immunity and the target of hepatitis C virus NS3/4A protease. J Virol **83:**1299-1311.
- 97. **Honda K, Taniguchi T.** 2006. IRFs: master regulators of signalling by Toll-like receptors and cytosolic pattern-recognition receptors. Nat Rev Immunol **6:**644-658.
- 98. **de Weerd NA, Samarajiwa SA, Hertzog PJ.** 2007. Type I interferon receptors: biochemistry and biological functions. J Biol Chem **282**:20053-20057.
- 99. **Samuel CE.** 2001. Antiviral Actions of Interferons. Clin Microbiol Rev **14:**778-809.
- 100. Onomoto K, Jogi M, Yoo JS, Narita R, Morimoto S, Takemura A, Sambhara S, Kawaguchi A, Osari S, Nagata K, Matsumiya T, Namiki H, Yoneyama M, Fujita T. 2012. Critical role of an antiviral stress granule containing RIG-I and PKR in viral detection and innate immunity. PLoS One 7:e43031.
- 101. **Geisbert TW, Jahrling PB.** 2004. Exotic emerging viral diseases: progress and challenges. Nat Med **10:**S110-121.
- 102. Yun NE, Poussard AL, Seregin AV, Walker AG, Smith JK, Aronson JF, Smith JN, Soong L, Paessler S. 2012. Functional interferon system is required for clearance of lassa virus. J Virol 86:3389-3392.
- 103. **Peters CJ, Liu CT, Anderson GW, Jr., Morrill JC, Jahrling PB.** 1989. Pathogenesis of viral hemorrhagic fevers: Rift Valley fever and Lassa fever contrasted. Rev Infect Dis **11 Suppl 4:**S743-749.
- 104. **Baize S, Kaplon J, Faure C, Pannetier D, Georges-Courbot MC, Deubel V.** 2004. Lassa virus infection of human dendritic cells and macrophages is productive but fails to activate cells. J Immunol **172:**2861-2869.
- 105. Baize S, Pannetier D, Faure C, Marianneau P, Marendat I, Georges-Courbot MC, Deubel V. 2006. Role of interferons in the control of Lassa virus replication in human dendritic cells and macrophages. Microbes Infect 8:1194-1202.
- 106. **Mahanty S, Hutchinson K, Agarwal S, McRae M, Rollin PE, Pulendran B.** 2003. Cutting edge: impairment of dendritic cells and adaptive immunity by Ebola and Lassa viruses. J Immunol **170:**2797-2801.
- 107. **Pannetier D, Reynard S, Russier M, Journeaux A, Tordo N, Deubel V, Baize S.** 2011. Human dendritic cells infected with the nonpathogenic Mopeia virus induce stronger T-cell responses than those infected with Lassa virus. J Virol **85**:8293-8306.
- 108. Levis SC, Saavedra MC, Ceccoli C, Falcoff E, Feuillade MR, Enria DAM, Maiztegui JI, Falcoff R. 1984. Endogenous Interferon in Argentine Hemorrhagic Fever. J Infect Dis 149:428-433.
- 109. Levis SC, Saavedra MC, Ceccoli C, Feuillade MR, Enria DA, Maiztegui JI, Falcoff R. 1985. Correlation between endogenous interferon and the clinical

- evolution of patients with Argentine hemorrhagic fever. J Interferon Res **5:**383-389.
- 110. Kenyon RH, McKee KT, Jr., Zack PM, Rippy MK, Vogel AP, York C, Meegan J, Crabbs C, Peters CJ. 1992. Aerosol infection of rhesus macaques with Junin virus. Intervirology 33:23-31.
- 111. **Stephen EL, Scott SK, Eddy GA, Levy HB.** 1977. Effect of interferon on togavirus and arenavirus infections of animals. Tex Rep Biol Med **35:**449-454.
- 112. Gowen BB, Smee DF, Wong MH, Hall JO, Jung KH, Bailey KW, Stevens JR, Furuta Y, Morrey JD. 2008. Treatment of late stage disease in a model of arenaviral hemorrhagic fever: T-705 efficacy and reduced toxicity suggests an alternative to ribavirin. PLoS One 3:e3725.
- 113. **Groseth A, Hoenen T, Weber M, Wolff S, Herwig A, Kaufmann A, Becker S.** 2011. Tacaribe virus but not junin virus infection induces cytokine release from primary human monocytes and macrophages, p. e1137, PLoS Negl Trop Dis, vol. 5, United States.
- Huang C, Kolokoltsova OA, Yun NE, Seregin AV, Poussard AL, Walker AG, Brasier AR, Zhao Y, Tian B, de la Torre JC, Paessler S. 2012. Junín Virus Infection Activates the Type I Interferon Pathway in a RIG-I-Dependent Manner. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 6:e1659.
- 115. **Pindel A, Sadler A.** 2011. The role of protein kinase R in the interferon response. J Interferon Cytokine Res **31:**59-70.
- 116. Martínez-Sobrido L, Giannakas P, Cubitt B, García-Sastre A, de la Torre JC. 2007. Differential Inhibition of Type I Interferon Induction by Arenavirus Nucleoproteins. J Virol 81:12696-12703.
- 117. **Pythoud C, Rodrigo WW, Pasqual G, Rothenberger S, Martinez-Sobrido L, de la Torre JC, Kunz S.** 2012. Arenavirus nucleoprotein targets interferon regulatory factor-activating kinase IKKepsilon. J Virol **86:**7728-7738.
- 118. Rodrigo WW, Ortiz-Riano E, Pythoud C, Kunz S, de la Torre JC, Martinez-Sobrido L. 2012. Arenavirus nucleoproteins prevent activation of nuclear factor kappa B. J Virol 86:8185-8197.
- 119. **Linero FN, Thomas MG, Boccaccio GL, Scolaro LA.** 2011. Junin virus infection impairs stress-granule formation in Vero cells treated with arsenite via inhibition of eIF2alpha phosphorylation. J Gen Virol **92:**2889-2899.
- 120. **Fan L, Briese T, Lipkin WI.** 2010. Z Proteins of New World Arenaviruses Bind RIG-I and Interfere with Type I Interferon Induction. J. Virol. **84:**1785-1791.
- 121. **Albariño CG, Bird BH, Chakrabarti AK, Dodd KA, Flint M, Bergeron É, White DM, Nichol ST.** 2011. The Major Determinant of Attenuation in Mice of the Candid1 Vaccine for Argentine Hemorrhagic Fever Is Located in the G2 Glycoprotein Transmembrane Domain. J virol **85:**10404-10408.
- 122. **Droniou-Bonzom ME, Reignier T, Oldenburg JE, Cox AU, Exline CM, Rathbun JY, Cannon PM.** 2011. Substitutions in the glycoprotein (GP) of the

- Candid#1 vaccine strain of Junin virus increase dependence on human transferrin receptor 1 for entry and destabilize the metastable conformation of GP. J virol.
- 123. **ProMED-email.** 2011. Bolivian hemorrhagic fever Bolivia: (BE) ProMED-email **20111202.3514**.
- 124. Bergeron É, Chakrabarti AK, Bird BH, Dodd KA, McMullan LK, Spiropoulou CF, Nichol ST, Albariño CG. 2012. Reverse Genetics Recovery of Lujo Virus and Role of Virus RNA Secondary Structures in Efficient Virus Growth. J Virol 86:10759-10765.
- 125. **Flatz L, Bergthaler A, de la Torre JC, Pinschewer DD.** 2006. Recovery of an arenavirus entirely from RNA polymerase I/II-driven cDNA. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **103**:4663-4668.
- 126. **Sánchez AB, de la Torre JC.** 2006. Rescue of the prototypic Arenavirus LCMV entirely from plasmid. Virology **350:**370-380.
- 127. **de la Torre JC.** 2008. Reverse genetics approaches to combat pathogenic arenaviruses, p. 239-250, Antiviral Res, vol. 80, Netherlands.
- 128. **Goff SP, Berg P.** 1976. Construction of hybrid viruses containing SV40 and lambda phage DNA segments and their propagation in cultured monkey cells. Cell **9:**695-705.
- 129. **Liljestrom P, Garoff H.** 1991. A new generation of animal cell expression vectors based on the Semliki Forest virus replicon. Biotechnology (N Y) **9:**1356-1361
- 130. **Rice CM, Levis R, Strauss JH, Huang HV.** 1987. Production of infectious RNA transcripts from Sindbis virus cDNA clones: mapping of lethal mutations, rescue of a temperature-sensitive marker, and in vitro mutagenesis to generate defined mutants. J Virol **61:**3809-3819.
- 131. **Taniguchi T, Palmieri M, Weissmann C.** 1978. QB DNA-containing hybrid plasmids giving rise to QB phage formation in the bacterial host. Nature **274:**223-228.
- 132. **Bridgen A, Elliott RM.** 1996. Rescue of a segmented negative-strand RNA virus entirely from cloned complementary DNAs. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **93:**15400-15404.
- 133. **Dittmann J, Stertz S, Grimm D, Steel J, Garcia-Sastre A, Haller O, Kochs G.** 2008. Influenza A virus strains differ in sensitivity to the antiviral action of Mx-GTPase. J Virol **82:**3624-3631.
- 134. **Janzen C, Kochs G, Haller O.** 2000. A Monomeric GTPase-Negative MxA Mutant with Antiviral Activity. J Virol **74:**8202-8206.
- 135. **Habjan M, Penski N, Wagner V, Spiegel M, Overby AK, Kochs G, Huiskonen JT, Weber F.** 2009. Efficient production of Rift Valley fever viruslike particles: The antiviral protein MxA can inhibit primary transcription of bunyaviruses. Virology **385**:400-408.

- 136. **Klein HJ.** 1995. Part C. Restraint, p. 292. *In Benneter TB*, *Abee CR*, *Henrickson R* (ed.), Nonhuman Primates in Biomedical Research. Elsevier
- 137. **Kenyon RH, Green DE, Eddy GA, Peters CJ.** 1986. Treatment of Junin virus-infected guinea pigs with immune serum: development of late neurological disease. J Med Virol **20:**207-218.
- 138. Johnson KM, J. B. McCormick, P. A. Webb, E. S. Smith, L. H. Elliott, and I. J. King. 1987. Clinical virology of Lassa fever in hospitalized patients. J Infect Dis 155:456-464.
- 139. **McCormick JB, Fisher-Hoch SP.** 2002. Lassa fever. Curr Top Microbiol Immunol **262:**75-109.
- 140. Yun NE, Walker DH. 2012. Pathogenesis of Lassa fever. Viruses 4:2031-2048.
- 141. **Charrel RN, Lamballerie Xd.** 2003. Arenaviruses other than Lassa virus. Antiviral Research **57:**89-100.
- 142. Wang J, Danzy S, Kumar N, Ly H, Liang Y. 2012. Biological Roles and Functional Mechanisms of Arenavirus Z Protein in Viral Replication. J Virol 86:9794-9801.
- 143. **Cornu TI, de la Torre JC.** 2001. RING finger Z protein of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) inhibits transcription and RNA replication of an LCMV S-segment minigenome. J Virol **75:**9415-9426.
- 144. **Hass M, Golnitz U, Muller S, Becker-Ziaja B, Gunther S.** 2004. Replicon system for Lassa virus. J Virol **78:**13793-13803.
- 145. **Lee KJ, Novella IS, Teng MN, Oldstone MB, de La Torre JC.** 2000. NP and L proteins of lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus (LCMV) are sufficient for efficient transcription and replication of LCMV genomic RNA analogs. J Virol **74:**3470-3477.
- 146. **Lopez N, Jacamo R, Franze-Fernandez MT.** 2001. Transcription and RNA replication of tacaribe virus genome and antigenome analogs require N and L proteins: Z protein is an inhibitor of these processes. J Virol **75**:12241-12251.
- 147. **Pinschewer DD, Perez M, de la Torre JC.** 2005. Dual role of the lymphocytic choriomeningitis virus intergenic region in transcription termination and virus propagation. J Virol **79:**4519-4526.
- 148. **Lelke M, Brunotte L, Busch C, Gunther S.** 2010. An N-terminal region of Lassa virus L protein plays a critical role in transcription but not replication of the virus genome. J Virol **84:**1934-1944.
- 149. Kolokoltsova OA, Yun NE, Poussard AL, Smith JK, Smith JN, Salazar M, Walker A, Tseng C-TK, Aronson JF, Paessler S. 2010. Mice Lacking Alpha/Beta and Gamma Interferon Receptors Are Susceptible to Junin Virus Infection. J Virol 84:13063-13067.
- 150. Hass M, Westerkofsky M, Müller S, Becker-Ziaja B, Busch C, Günther S. 2006. Mutational Analysis of the Lassa Virus Promoter. J Virol 80:12414-12419.

- 151. **Albariño CG, Bergeron É, Erickson BR, Khristova ML, Rollin PE, Nichol ST.** 2009. Efficient Reverse Genetics Generation of Infectious Junin Viruses Differing in Glycoprotein Processing. J Virol **83:**5606-5614.
- 152. **Muller S, Gunther S.** 2007. Broad-spectrum antiviral activity of small interfering RNA targeting the conserved RNA termini of Lassa virus. Antimicrob Agents Chemother **51:**2215-2218.
- 153. Lukashevich IS, Patterson J, Carrion R, Moshkoff D, Ticer A, Zapata J, Brasky K, Geiger R, Hubbard GB, Bryant J, Salvato MS. 2005. A Live Attenuated Vaccine for Lassa Fever Made by Reassortment of Lassa and Mopeia Viruses. J Virol 79:13934-13942.
- 154. **Child PL, MacKenzie RB, Valverde LR, Johnson KM.** 1967. Bolivian hemorrhagic fever. A pathologic description. Arch Pathol **83:**434-445.
- 155. Grant A, Seregin A, Huang C, Kolokoltsova O, Brasier A, Peters C, Paessler S. 2012. Junín Virus Pathogenesis and Virus Replication. Viruses 4:2317-2339.
- 156. **Taylor KE, Mossman KL.** 2013. Recent advances in understanding viral evasion of type I interferon. Immunology **138:**190-197.
- 157. **Parodi AS, Coto CE, Boxaca M, Lajmanovich S, Gonzalez S.** 1966. Characteristics of Junin virus. Etiological agent of Argentine hemorrhagic fever. Arch Gesamte Virusforsch **19:**393-402.
- 158. MC Weissenbacher CC, MA Calello, SN Rondinone, EB Damonte, MJ Frigerio. 1982. Cross-protection between Tacaribe complex viruses. Presence of neutralizing antibodies against Junin virus (Argentine hemorrhagic fever) in guinea pigs infected with Tacaribe virus. Infect Immun 35:425-430.
- 159. **Aronson JF, Herzog NK, Jerrells TR.** 1994. Pathological and virological features of arenavirus disease in guinea pigs. Comparison of two Pichinde virus strains. Am J Pathol **145**:228-235.
- 160. **Waggoner JJ, Soda EA, Deresinski S.** 2013. Rare and emerging viral infections in transplant recipients. Clin Infect Dis **57:**1182-1188.
- 161. **Zhou S, Cerny AM, Zacharia A, Fitzgerald KA, Kurt-Jones EA, Finberg RW.** 2010. Induction and Inhibition of Type I Interferon Responses by Distinct Components of Lymphocytic Choriomeningitis Virus. J. Virol. **84:**9452-9462.
- 162. **Jiang X, Huang Q, Wang W, Dong H, Ly H, Liang Y, Dong C.** 2013. Structures of arenaviral nucleoproteins with triphosphate dsRNA reveal a unique mechanism of immune suppression. J Biol Chem **288**:16949-16959.
- 163. Qi X, Lan S, Wang W, Schelde LM, Dong H, Wallat GD, Ly H, Liang Y, Dong C. 2010. Cap binding and immune evasion revealed by Lassa nucleoprotein structure. Nature 468:779-783.
- Martínez-Sobrido L, Zúñiga EI, Rosario D, García-Sastre A, de la Torre JC. 2006. Inhibition of the Type I Interferon Response by the Nucleoprotein of the Prototypic Arenavirus Lymphocytic Choriomeningitis Virus. J Virol 80:9192-9199.

- 165. **Dejean CB, Ayerra BL, Teyssie AR.** 1987. Interferon response in the guinea pig infected with Junin virus. J Med Virol **23:**83-91.
- 166. **Emeny JM, Morgan MJ.** 1979. Regulation of the interferon system: evidence that Vero cells have a genetic defect in interferon production. J Gen Virol **43:**247-252.
- 167. **Desmyter J, Melnick JL, Rawls WE.** 1968. Defectiveness of interferon production and of rubella virus interference in a line of African green monkey kidney cells (Vero). J Virol **2:**955-961.
- 168. Chew T, Noyce R, Collins SE, Hancock MH, Mossman KL. 2009. Characterization of the interferon regulatory factor 3-mediated antiviral response in a cell line deficient for IFN production. Mol Immunol **46:**393-399.
- 169. **Pasqual G, Burri DJ, Pasquato A, de la Torre JC, Kunz S.** 2011. Role of the host cell's unfolded protein response in arenavirus infection. J Virol **85:**1662-1670.
- 170. **Shen J, Snapp EL, Lippincott-Schwartz J, Prywes R.** 2005. Stable binding of ATF6 to BiP in the endoplasmic reticulum stress response. Mol Cell Biol **25:**921-932.
- 171. **Patel RC, Sen GC.** 1998. PACT, a protein activator of the interferon-induced protein kinase, PKR. Embo j **17:**4379-4390.
- 172. **Okumura F, Okumura AJ, Uematsu K, Hatakeyama S, Zhang D-E, Kamura T.** 2013. Activation of Double-stranded RNA-activated Protein Kinase (PKR) by Interferon-stimulated Gene 15 (ISG15) Modification Down-regulates Protein Translation. J Biol Chem **288**:2839-2847.
- 173. **Baird NL, York J, Nunberg JH.** 2012. Arenavirus Infection Induces Discrete Cytosolic Structures for RNA Replication. J Virol **86:**11301-11310.
- 174. **Marques JT, White CL, Peters GA, Williams BR, Sen GC.** 2008. The role of PACT in mediating gene induction, PKR activation, and apoptosis in response to diverse stimuli. J Interferon Cytokine Res **28:**469-476.
- 175. **White JP, Reineke LC, Lloyd RE.** 2011. Poliovirus switches to an eIF2-independent mode of translation during infection. J Virol **85**:8884-8893.
- 176. **Strebovsky J, Walker P, Dalpke AH.** 2012. Suppressor of cytokine signaling proteins as regulators of innate immune signaling. Front Biosci (Landmark Ed) **17**:1627-1639.
- 177. **Fierro-Monti I, Racle J, Hernandez C, Waridel P, Hatzimanikatis V, Quadroni M.** 2013. A novel pulse-chase SILAC strategy measures changes in protein decay and synthesis rates induced by perturbation of proteostasis with an Hsp90 inhibitor. PLoS One **8:**e80423.
- 178. **Enria DA, Maiztegui JI.** 1994. Antiviral treatment of Argentine hemorrhagic fever. Antiviral Res **23:**23-31.
- 179. **Enria DA, Briggiler AM, Sanchez Z.** 2007. Treatment of Argentine hemorrhagic fever. Antiviral Research **78:**132-139.

- 180. Salazar M, Yun NE, Poussard AL, Smith JN, Smith JK, Kolokoltsova OA, Patterson MJ, Linde J, Paessler S. 2012. Effect of Ribavirin on Junin Virus Infection in Guinea Pigs. Zoonoses and Public Health 59:278-285.
- 181. Enria DA, Briggiler AM, Levis S, Vallejos D, Maiztegui JI, Canonico PG. 1987. Tolerance and antiviral effect of ribavirin in patients with Argentine hemorrhagic fever. Antiviral Res 7:353-359.
- 182. **Lukashevich IS.** 1992. Generation of reassortants between African arenaviruses. Virology **188**:600-605.
- 183. Lukashevich IS, Vasiuchkov AD, Stel'makh TA, Scheslenok EP, Shabanov AG. 1991. [The isolation and characteristics of reassortants between the Lassa and Mopeia arenaviruses]. Vopr Virusol 36:146-150.
- 184. **Contigiani M, Medeot S, Diaz G.** 1993. Heterogeneity and stability characteristics of Candid 1 attenuated strain of Junin virus. Acta Virol **37:**41-46.
- 185. Goni SE, Iserte JA, Ambrosio AM, Romanowski V, Ghiringhelli PD, Lozano ME. 2006. Genomic features of attenuated Junin virus vaccine strain candidate. Virus Genes 32:37-41.
- 186. **Cuevas CD, Lavanya M, Wang E, Ross SR.** 2011. Junín Virus Infects Mouse Cells and Induces Innate Immune Responses. J Virol **85:**11058-11068.
- 187. Cosset FL, Marianneau P, Verney G, Gallais F, Tordo N, Pecheur EI, ter Meulen J, Deubel V, Bartosch B. 2009. Characterization of Lassa virus cell entry and neutralization with Lassa virus pseudoparticles. J Virol 83:3228-3237.
- 188. **Albariño CG, Bird BH, Chakrabarti AK, Dodd KA, Erickson BR, Nichol ST.** 2011. Efficient Rescue of Recombinant Lassa Virus Reveals the Influence of S Segment Noncoding Regions on Virus Replication and Virulence. J Virol **85**:4020-4024.
- 189. Albariño CG, Bird BH, Chakrabarti AK, Dodd KA, White DM, Bergeron É, Shrivastava-Ranjan P, Nichol ST. 2011. Reverse Genetics Generation of Chimeric Infectious Junin/Lassa Virus Is Dependent on Interaction of Homologous Glycoprotein Stable Signal Peptide and G2 Cytoplasmic Domains. J Virol 85:112-122.
- 190. McCormick JB, King IJ, Webb PA, Scribner CL, Craven RB, Johnson KM, Elliott LH, Belmont-Williams R. 1986. Lassa Fever. N Engl J Med 314:20-26.
- 191. **Huang KJ, Su IJ, Theron M, Wu YC, Lai SK, Liu CC, Lei HY.** 2005. An interferon-gamma-related cytokine storm in SARS patients. J Med Virol **75:**185-194.
- 192. **Baharoon SA.** 2010. H1N1 infection-induced thyroid storm. Ann Thorac Med 5:110-112.
- 193. Gao R, Bhatnagar J, Blau DM, Greer P, Rollin DC, Denison AM, Deleon-Carnes M, Shieh WJ, Sambhara S, Tumpey TM, Patel M, Liu L, Paddock C, Drew C, Shu Y, Katz JM, Zaki SR. 2013. Cytokine and chemokine profiles in

lung tissues from fatal cases of 2009 pandemic influenza A (H1N1): role of the host immune response in pathogenesis. Am J Pathol **183:**1258-1268.

Name: Michael Patterson, PhD MPH

Present Position and Contact Information

Graduate Research Assistant (03/2014)
University of Texas Medical Branch (UTMB)
301 University Ave, Galveston National Laboratory
Galveston, TX 77555-0609
Michaelpattersonphd@gmail.com
(916) 899-9164

Biographical:

Home Address: 1401 Merrill Creek Pkwy Apt 5032, Everett WA 98203

Citizenship: USA

Education:

2014	Doctor of Philosophy: Experimental Pathology, University of Texas
	Medical Branch, Galveston, TX, USA
2013	Master of Public Health: Infectious Disease Epidemiology,
	University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston, TX, USA
2008	B.A.: Biochemistry, Biophysics and Molecular Biology. Whitman
	College, Walla Walla, WA, USA
2007	National University of Galway, Galway, Ireland

Professional Experience:

2008-Present	Graduate Assistant at UTMB, Galveston, TX
2008	Organic Chemistry laboratory assistant, Whitman College, Walla
	Walla, WA: Assisted in preparing experiments and teaching
	classes of 30+ students bi-weekly
2007	Summer Undergraduate Research Program (SURP), UTMB,
	Galveston, TX: Studied the effects of drug and exercise treatment
	on protein expression in recovering burn patients.
2006	Summer Intern at PASCO Electronics, Roseville CA: Worked with
	the experiment design team developing high school and
	undergraduate level protocols and documentation. Additional
	work included troubleshooting newly designed equipment and
	software

Peer Reviewed Publications:

- 1. **Patterson M,** Grant A, Paessler S. 2014. Epidemiology and pathogenesis of Bolivian hemorrhagic fever. Curr Opin Virol **5c:**82-90.
- 2. **Patterson M,** Seregin A, Huang C, Kolokoltsova O, Smith J, Miller M, Yun N, Poussard A, Grant A, Tigabu B, Walker A, Paessler S. 2014. Rescue of a Recombinant Machupo Virus from Cloned cDNAs and In Vivo Characterization in Interferon (alphabeta/gamma) Receptor Double Knockout Mice. J Virol **88:**1914-1923
- 3. Poussard, A.*, **Patterson, M**.*, et al., In vivo imaging systems (IVIS) detection of a neuro-invasive encephalitic virus. J Vis Exp, 2012(70): p. e4429.*co-first authors
- 4. **Patterson, M.**, Poussard, A., Taylor, K., et al. Rapid, non-invasive imaging of alphaviral brain infection: Reducing animal numbers and morbidity to identify efficacy of potential vaccines and antivirals. Vaccine 2011;29:9345-51.
- 5. Salazar, M., Yun, N., Poussard, A., et al. Effect of Ribavirin on Junin Virus Infection in Guinea Pigs. Zoonoses and Public Health 2012;59:278-85.
- 6. Taylor, K., Kolokoltsova, O., **Patterson, M.**, et al. Natural killer cell mediated pathogenesis determines outcome of central nervous system infection with Venezuelan equine encephalitis virus in C3H/HeN mice. Vaccine 2012;30:4095-105.

Other:

- 1. **Patterson, M.** Dissertation for Doctor in Philosophy: The Development of a Reverse Genetics System for Machupo virus. March 2014. University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston Texas 77555
- 2. **Patterson, M.** Masters of Public Health Capstone: A Review of the Government Sponsored Offensive Biological Programs, Weaponized Biological Pathogens and their Countermeasures. August 2013. University of Texas Medical Branch, Galveston Texas 77555

Research:

Research Fields/Key Words:

Molecular biology, biochemistry, immunology, viral pathogenesis, disease modeling, vaccine development, recombinant genetics, *in vivo* imaging, infectious disease epidemiology, biodefense, biosecurity, bioweapons

Clearance:

CDC and USDA security risk assessment approved for work with Tier 1 Select Agents

Fellowships:

2013-2014 Emerging Leaders in Bios

Emerging Leaders in Biosecurity Fellowship awarded by the

Center for

Biosecurity at the University of Pittsburgh Medical Center:

Competitive fellowship with the aim of bringing together a diverse

group of individuals interested in a career in biosecurity.

2011 UTMB-Fogarty Fellowship: Worked through the Naval Medical

Research Unit -6 in Lima, Peru and the Peruvian Health

Department in Puerto Maldonado. Research consisted of house-to-house visits, collection of samples from febrile patients, and administration of a questionnaire with the goal of tracking

Influenza in the region. Additionally, assisted with the local health

department with childhood and young-adult vaccination

programs.

Grant Support:

2010-2011 1UL1RR029876-01 NIH/Institute of Translational Sciences UTMB,

 ${\it Imaging of CNS invasion by Venezuelan Equine Encephalitis Virus.}$

Competitive Awards and Scholarships:

2013	Edwards S. Reynolds award- Annual Pathology Trainee Day
2013	ASV 2013 Annual Conference Travel award
2013	ICAAC 2013 Annual Conference Travel award
2013	Robert Shope PhD Endowed Scholarship award
2013	Christina Fleischmann GSBS Travel award
2012	Betty Williams, PhD General Scholarship
2012	Sealy Center for Tropical Diseases Scholarship
2011	Field Epidemiology Course Fellowship-Naval Medical Research
	Unit-6 and UTMB
2011	Zhou Sisters Great Expectations Scholarship

2011	ASV 2011 Annual Conference Travel award
2010	James E. Beall II Memorial Best Poster Presentation in
	Neuroscience-NSRF
2010	Sealy Center for Vaccine Development travel award
2007	UTMB SURP Best Poster Presentation award

Committee Responsibilities:

2009-Present	Student and Post-Doctoral Organization for Committee for Career
	Development
2010-2012	Graduate Student Government Webmaster
2011-2012	Graduate Student Government Treasurer- Organized the annual
	UTMB schoolwide event
2011-2013	Public Health Organization Treasurer
2012-2013	Public Health Organization Outreach Coordinator-Organized
	multiple

presentations with the community including elementary students focusing on the importance of vaccination and herd immunity.

Extra-Curricular

2009-Present Founder and Organizer of UTMB Volleyball: Scheduling, organizing,

and communicating tri-weekly an organization consisting of more than

30 students, professors and members of the surrounding community.

Society Memberships:

2012	American Public Health Association
2010	American Society for Virology
2009	American Association for the Advancement of Science
2007	Sigma Xi

Certified Training Experience:

UTMB Biosafety Level 4, 3, and 2 access

UTMB Animal Biosafety Level 3 and 2 (Murine, Guinea Pig, Ferret, Non-Human Primate)

Naval Medical Research Unit 6 Field Epidemiology training, Lima and Tumbes, Peru

Equipment and Technical Skills:

<u>Laboratory Techniques</u>: PCR, real-time PCR, quantitative PCR, Western blots, Southern

blots, tissue culture, virus propagation, recombinant genetics, *in vivo* imaging

systems (IVIS), histology, immunohistochemistry, ELISA, high containment research, cloning

<u>Technical Skills</u>: GraphPad Prism, Clone Manager, Word, Powerpoint, Excel, GIS, Dreamweaver, Movie Maker

Published Abstracts, Posters, and Presentations:

Patterson, M., et al. *The Development Of A Reverse Genetics System For The Rescue Of A Recombinant Machupo Virus*. Oral presentation at: 32nd Annual American Society for Virology; 2013 July 20-24. State College, PA.

Patterson, M., et al. *The Development Of A Reverse Genetics System For The Rescue Of A Recombinant Machupo Virus.* Poster presented at: McLaughlin Colloquium; 2013 April 12. Galveston, TX.

Patterson, M., et al. *The Development Of A Reverse Genetics System For The Rescue Of A Recombinant Machupo Virus*. Poster presented at: UTMB Pathology Department Trainee Research Day; 2013 April 1. Galveston, TX.

Patterson, M., Poussard, A.*, et al. *Utilizing in vivo imaging systems in neuroinvasive alphavirus infection: rapidly identifying potential vaccines and therapeutics.* Oral presentation at: American Society for Virology annual meeting; 2011 July 15. Minneapolis, MI 2011. *Submitted by Patterson, Presented by Poussard

Patterson, M., et al. *In VIVO Imaging of Alphavirus Infection: Visualizing the Early CNS Infection Using Non-Invasive Technique*. Poster presented at: 2010 Texas-UK Symposium 'Controlling Emerging Infectious Diseases in the 21st Century'; 2010, Feb. 26-28. Galveston TX

Patterson, M., et al. *In VIVO Imaging of Alphavirus Infection: Visualizing the Early CNS Infection Using Non-Invasive Technique.* Poster presented at: National Foundation of Infectious Diseases: Vaccine; 2011 May 16-18. Boston, MA.

Patterson, M., et al. *In VIVO Imaging of Alphavirus Infection: Visualizing the Early CNS Infection Using Non-Invasive Technique.* Poster presented at: National Student Research Forum; 2010 April 22-23. Galveston, TX.

Patterson, M., et al. Effects of Exercise and Oxandrolone Treatment on the Proteomic Biomarkers in Skeletal Muscle (PRISM) after Severe Burn Injury in Children. Poster presented at: Whitman College Undergraduate Conference; 2008 April 14. Walla Walla, WA

Patterson, M., et al. Effects of Exercise and Oxandrolone Treatment on the Proteomic Biomarkers in Skeletal Muscle (PRISM) after Severe Burn Injury in Children. Poster presented at: UTMB SURP Poster Presentation; 2007 August. Galveston, TX.