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3	Bacteria-mediated stabilization of a panel of Picornaviruses
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5	Elizabeth R. Aguilera ¹ , Y Nguyen ¹ , Jun Sasaki ² , Julie K. Pfeiffer ¹ *
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8	¹ Department of Microbiology, University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas,
9	Texas, USA
10	² Department of Virology and Parasitology, Fujita Health University School of
11	Medicine, Toyoake, Aichi 470-1192, Japan
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19	*Corresponding Author: Julie K. Pfeiffer
20	Julie.Pfeiffer@UTSouthwestern.edu
21	Phone: (214) 648-8775
22	
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24 ABSTRACT

25 Several viruses encounter various bacterial species within the host and in the environment. Despite these close encounters, the effects of bacteria on picornaviruses 26 27 specifically is not completely understood. Previous work determined that poliovirus (PV), 28 an enteric virus, has enhanced virion stability when exposed to bacteria or bacterial 29 surface polysaccharides such as lipopolysaccharide. Virion stabilization by bacteria may 30 be important for inter-host transmission since a mutant PV with reduced bacterial 31 binding had a fecal-oral transmission defect in mice. Therefore, we investigated whether 32 bacteria broadly enhance stability of picornaviruses from three different genera: Enterovirus (PV and coxsackievirus B3 (CVB3)), Kobuvirus (Aichi virus) and Cardiovirus 33 (Mengo virus). Furthermore, to delineate strain-specific effects, we examined two 34 35 strains of CVB3 and a PV mutant with enhanced thermal stability. We determined that specific bacterial strains enhance thermal stability of PV and CVB3, while Mengo virus 36 37 and Aichi virus are stable at high temperatures in the absence of bacteria. Additionally, 38 we determined that bacteria or lipopolysaccharide can stabilize PV, CVB3, Aichi virus, 39 and Mengo virus during exposure to bleach. These effects are likely mediated through 40 direct interactions with bacteria since viruses bound to bacteria in a pull-down assay. Overall, this work reveals shared and distinct effects of bacteria on a panel of 41 42 picornaviruses.

43

44 **IMPORTANCE**

45 Recent studies have shown that bacteria promote infection and stabilization of 46 poliovirus particles, but the breadth of these effects on other members of the

Picornaviridae family is unknown. Here, we compared the effect of bacteria on four distinct members of the *Picornaviridae* family. We found that bacteria reduced inactivation of all of the viruses during bleach treatment, but not all viral strains were stabilized by bacteria during heat treatment. Overall, our data provide insight into how bacteria play differential roles on picornavirus stability.

52

53 INTRODUCTION

The *Picornaviridae* family includes important human pathogens that can cause a range of diseases such as the common cold, meningitis, hepatitis, and paralysis. The *Picornaviridae* family is diverse and currently includes 80 species in 35 genera. Members of this family are nonenveloped and contain a single-stranded, positive-sense viral genome approximately 7,500 nucleotides in length (1).

59 Recent studies have shown that bacteria, in particular the gut microbiota, play 60 several important roles during viral infection. Enteric viruses encounter a milieu of 61 microorganisms, including bacteria, both within and outside of the host. It is estimated that these viruses encounter approximately 10¹¹ bacteria in the host and are expected 62 63 to encounter even more in the environment (2). Indeed, bacteria enhance infection of several unrelated viruses, including poliovirus, reovirus, rotavirus, mouse mammary 64 tumor virus, and norovirus (3-9). These "pro-viral" effects are mediated by two known 65 66 mechanisms: 1) Direct interactions between bacteria and viruses that increased virion stability and attachment to host cells, and 2) indirect interactions between bacteria and 67 68 the host immune system that modulated immune responses for productive viral infection 69 (3-8,10).

Intriguingly, bacteria and bacterial molecules can inhibit infection with certain viruses. For example, Ichinohe *et al.* demonstrated that certain bacteria promote host immune responses during influenza infection of mice (11). More recently, Bandoro *et al.* determined that exposure to the bacterial surface molecule lipopolysaccharide (LPS) reduced stability of several strains of influenza virus by altering the morphology of the virion envelope (12).

76 Based on the importance of bacterial-viral interactions on viral infection, we sought to determine whether bacteria differentially affect different members of the same 77 78 viral family, the *Picornaviridae*. We used a panel of four picornaviruses that are spread 79 by the fecal-oral route and represent three separate genera: Enterovirus (coxsackievirus 80 B3 (CVB3) and PV), Kobuvirus (Aichi virus) and Cardiovirus (Mengo virus). We found 81 that a subset of the viral panel were stabilized by bacteria during heat treatment but that 82 all of the picornaviruses tested were stabilized by bacteria during bleach treatment. We 83 also determined that viruses bound to bacteria, indicating that direct interactions may be 84 facilitating viral stabilization of these viruses. This work expands on bacteria-mediated enhancement effects previously observed with PV to other members of the 85 86 Picornaviridae family. Ultimately, this work defines the unique interactions between 87 specific viruses and bacteria which may provide insight into virion environmental 88 stability and transmission.

89

90 **RESULTS**

Panel of viruses from the *Picornaviridae* family and bacterial strains. Previous
 studies have indicated that bacteria can reduce the inactivation of poliovirus particles

93 after heat or bleach treatment (3,7). In order to investigate whether bacteria stabilize 94 other members of the Picornaviridae family from these inactivating conditions, we 95 selected viruses from separate genera and viruses with differences in capsid sequence 96 similarity (Fig. 1 A, B and Table 1). These viruses differ in their capsid structure 97 sequence and topology, which may confer different interactions with bacteria (Fig. 1A). 98 The panel is composed of one virus from the *Kobuvirus* genus (Aichi virus), one virus 99 from the Cardiovirus genus (Mengo virus) and three viruses from the Enterovirus genus 100 (PV, CVB3-H3 and CVB3-Nancy). CVB3-Nancy and CVB3-H3 have 98.4% capsid 101 sequence similarity at the amino acid level and were compared to determine whether 102 there are strain-specific differences in bacteria-mediated stabilization (Fig. 1B and 103 **Table 1).** Additionally, our panel included a PV mutant with a single amino acid change 104 in the VP1 capsid coding region (PV-M132V), that confers enhanced thermal stability in 105 the absence of bacteria (13).

106 We also selected a representative panel of enteric bacteria, and bacterial and 107 non-bacterial molecules (Table 2). We included LPS, which is glycan found on the 108 surface of Gram negative bacteria. Additionally, we examined two representative Gram 109 negative bacterial strains (Escherichia coli 1470 and Prevotella ruminicola), and two 110 representative Gram positive bacterial strains (Bacillus badius and Lactobacillus 111 johnsonii). We previously showed that E. coli 1470, P. ruminicola, B. badius and L. 112 johnsonii bind to PV (14), but whether these strains stabilize PV and other picornaviruses was unknown. We also previously showed that non-bacterial 113 114 compounds, such as bovine albumin serum (BSA) and cellulose, had minimal effects on 115 PV stability and were included in this study as controls (**Table 2**) (3,7).

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117 Specific bacteria enhance stability of a subset of picornaviruses during heat 118 treatment. To determine whether bacteria enhance stability of picornaviruses, we first 119 examined viral inactivation at elevated temperatures. Picornavirus particles can be 120 inactivated by undergoing premature genome release at a range of temperatures, with 121 faster inactivation at higher temperatures (7,15,16). To increase tractability of our 122 assays, we used relatively high temperatures for our thermal inactivation experiments 123 because inactivation occurs relatively quickly. We first tested viral stability at 44°C for 124 4.5 h, a condition that we determined inactivates approximately 99% of PV infectivity 125 during incubation in PBS (Fig. 2A). Viruses were mixed with PBS, compounds (BSA, 126 Cellulose or LPS), or bacteria, incubated at 44°C for 4.5 h, and plaque assays were 127 performed to quantify the amount of viable virus remaining. When we incubated PV with 128 any of the bacterial strains or LPS, we observed >50-fold increase in viral stability 129 compared to PBS (Fig. 2A). A similar stabilization was observed for CVB3-H3 and 130 CVB3-Nancy when compared to PBS. Non-bacterial compounds (BSA and Cellulose) 131 did not stabilize PV or either CVB3 strain. Interestingly, Aichi virus and Mengo virus 132 were very stable in PBS under these conditions. We also tested a recently identified 133 heat-resistant PV mutant, PV-M132V (13). Like Aichi virus and Mengo virus, PV-M132V was resistant to heat treatment, and thus incubation with any of the compounds or 134 135 bacterial strains did not increase stability (Fig. 2A).

We next wanted to determine whether bacteria could increase stability of the heat-stable viruses at temperatures where they become heat labile. First, we increased the temperature in the thermal stability assay to 46°C, and found that similar to the 44°C

139 assay, PV, CVB3-H3, and CVB3-Nancy were stabilized by bacteria (Fig. 2B). Aichi 140 virus, Mengo virus, and PV-M132V were still stable in the 46°C assay and incubation 141 with any of the bacteria compounds or strains did not increase stability. To determine 142 the temperature necessary to inactivate Aichi virus and Mengo virus, we tested viability 143 at temperatures from 46-58°C for 4.5 h. These additional experiments at different 144 temperatures revealed that Aichi virus and Mengo virus were ~99% inactivated when 145 incubated at 50°C or 57°C for 4.5 h, respectively (Fig. 2C-2F). Despite viral inactivation 146 during these conditions, none of the bacterial strains or bacterial polysaccharides could 147 stabilize either of these viruses (Fig. 2D and 2F). Intriguingly, BSA stabilized Aichi virus 148 during incubation at 50°C, indicating this virus may have different requirements for 149 stabilization during heat treatment (Fig. 2D). Overall, these data indicate that bacteria 150 do not stabilize Aichi and Mengo virus during incubation at high temperatures, but that 151 bacterial stabilization of these viruses may be less important given their inherent high 152 stability.

153

The effect of feces on picornaviruses. We next wanted to determine whether the 154 155 viruses in our panel are stabilized in feces. As enteric viruses are transmitted by the 156 fecal-oral route, the potential effects of fecal components on their stability and infection 157 is highly relevant. We previously showed that PV is stabilized in feces from conventional 158 mice (7). Here, we compared viral stability when viruses were incubated in PBS or feces 159 from conventional mice over the course of several days at 37°C followed by 160 guantification of remaining viable virus by plague assay. We found that Aichi virus was 161 not stabilized by feces compared to PBS at 37°C after Day 1 (Fig. 3A). Feces only

162 moderately stabilized CVB3-H3 at early timepoints (Fig. 3B). However, CVB3-Nancy 163 and PV were stabilized by feces at later timepoints (see Day 8) (Fig. 3C and 3E). We 164 also demonstrated that PV-M132V was stable during 8 days of incubation at 37°C in 165 both PBS and feces (13). Interestingly, Mengo virus exhibited significant inactivation 166 after 4 days at 37°C, but incubation in feces limited this inactivation (Fig. 3D). This 167 result was surprising given the stability of Mengo virus at 46°C for 4.5 h and the lack of bacterial stabilization of Mengo virus at 57°C (Fig. 2B and 2F). However, Mengo virus 168 may have enhanced thermal sensitivity over longer time courses and bacterial effects 169 170 may be apparent only under these conditions and/or non-bacterial components of feces 171 could affect Mengo virus. When we incubated Mengo virus with mixtures of E. coli, P. 172 ruminicola, and L. johnsonii at 37°C for several days, Mengo virus was stabilized 173 compared to PBS at 37°C (see dashed line compared to dotted line) (Fig. 3F). These 174 findings indicate that bacteria stabilize Mengo virus during longer exposures to body 175 temperature (37°C) (Fig. 3F). Overall, these data indicate that several picornaviruses, 176 but not all, are stabilized in feces, which could facilitate transmission.

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Bacteria enhance stability of picornaviruses during bleach exposure. In addition to heat, virions can be inactivated by chlorine bleach via capsid penetration and damage and/or genome release (17-21). To determine whether bacteria affect bleach inactivation of viruses, we pre-incubated viruses in PBS, compounds, or bacterial strains for 1 h followed by exposure to dilute bleach (0.0001%) for 1 min, neutralization, and plaque assay to determine the amount of viable virus present. We determined that when pre-incubated in PBS, all viruses lost ~90% of their infectivity (**Fig. 4**). However,

185 when pre-incubated with LPS or bacterial strains, all viruses were stabilized by at least 186 some of the treatments (Fig. 4). Importantly, pre-incubation of the viruses with BSA or 187 cellulose did not prevent viral inactivation by bleach treatment, indicating that the effects 188 were specific to bacteria and LPS and not just due the presence of additional molecules 189 (Fig. 4). Interestingly, the heat stable PV-M132V mutant virus was inactivated by bleach 190 to the same extent at PV-WT, and bacteria limited bleach inactivation of PV-M132V. 191 These results suggest that thermal inactivation and bleach inactivation occur through 192 separable mechanisms, and that bacteria stabilize virions for both. Overall, these results 193 indicate that bacteria enhance viral stability of fecal-orally transmitted picornaviruses 194 during bleach treatment.

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196 Bacteria bind to a select panel of picornaviruses. Since bacteria enhanced stability 197 of specific picornaviruses during heat or bleach inactivation, we wanted to determine 198 whether viruses directly interact with bacteria. In particular, we were curious whether 199 bacterial binding efficiencies vary among closely related viruses, such as CVB3-Nancy 200 and CVB3-H3, or between the PV-M132V heat stable mutant and PV-WT. Previously, we showed that PV can bind directly to the surface of bacteria (3,7,14). ³⁵S-labeled 201 202 CVB3-Nancy, CVB3-H3, PV-WT, or PV-M132V were incubated with beads, *B. badius*, 203 or E. coli for 1 h followed by centrifugation, washing, and scintillation counting the 204 bacterial pellets to quantify viral binding. We determined that PV-WT and PV-M132V 205 bound to both bacterial strains to approximately the same extent (Fig. 5A). This 206 indicates that while the PV-M132V mutant does not require the presence of bacteria for 207 stability during heat treatment, it still binds to bacteria, which could explain why bacteria

208 limit bleach inactivation of PV-M132V (Fig. 4). Additionally, we determined that both 209 CVB3 strains bind to the two bacterial strains tested (Fig. 5B). Interestingly, binding of 210 CVB3-Nancy to *E. coli* was nearly 3-fold higher than CVB3-H3 (Fig. 5B). Overall, these 211 results indicate that multiple picornaviruses bind to bacteria, but with different 212 efficiencies.

213

214 **DISCUSSION**

The *Picornaviridae* family is diverse and includes a large number of medically relevant human pathogens. While it has been shown that bacteria promote infection, coinfection, and transmission of poliovirus, the impact of bacteria on other picornaviruses is unclear (3,7,14). Here, we show that bacteria increase stability of several viruses from the *Picornaviridae* family, likely through direct interactions.

220 Our data show that bacteria-mediated thermal stability can vary among a family 221 of viruses. We determined that certain picornaviruses (*Enterovirus* genus members: 222 CVB3-H3, CVB3-Nancy and PV) are sensitive to heat treatment and that bacteria 223 increase stability of these viruses (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3). We also determined that another 224 picornavirus (*Cardiovirus* genus: Mengo virus) has mixed phenotypes depending on the 225 condition tested. While Mengo virus was very stable at high temperatures during 226 relatively short incubation times (4.5 h) and was not impacted by bacteria under these 227 conditions, it was inactivated after 4 days at 37°C and exposure to feces reduced this 228 inactivation (Fig. 3D). This suggests that Mengo virus may be stabilized by bacteria at 229 physiological temperatures in the host. Finally, we determined that a distantly related 230 picornavirus (Kobuvirus genus: Aichi virus) is relatively resistant to high temperature,

231 but is not stabilized by bacteria or bacterial products (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3A). In fact, 232 exposure to feces slightly reduced Aichi virus infectivity (Fig. 3A). Although Aichi virus is 233 transmitted by the fecal-oral route, there are large sequence and structural differences 234 between Aichi and other picornaviruses that may contribute to the different phenotype 235 (Fig. 1 A and B) (22,23). Although a member of the *Caliciviridae*, human norovirus can 236 bind to and is stabilized by bacteria that express certain histo-blood group antigens 237 (24,25). Similarly, reovirus (Reoviridae family) can be stabilized by exposure to certain 238 bacteria or bacterial surface molecules, but stabilization efficiency and specificity varies 239 among different reovirus strains (8). Taken together, these results indicate that viruses 240 from separate viral families can be stabilized by bacteria, but that not all viruses within a 241 given family share phenotypes.

While picornaviruses vary in bacteria-mediated thermal stabilization, we found that bacteria enhanced viability of all picornaviruses tested during bleach treatment (**Fig. 4**). Although the PV-M132V mutant was not inactivated at high temperatures, it was inactivated by bleach treatment and bacteria limited this inactivation. Indeed, the PV-M132V virus was determined to bind to bacteria, which could explain stabilization during bleach treatment (**Fig. 4**). Thus, heat inactivation and bleach inactivation are independent and could have separate requirements for stabilization.

Overall, this study provides insight into the effects of bacteria on a panel of viruses from the same family, the *Picornaviridae*. Understanding the role of bacteria during stabilization and infection of viruses could provide insight into efficient infection within specific hosts (i.e. harboring specific microbiota) as well as between hosts (i.e. environmental bacteria).

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255 MATERIALS AND METHODS

256 Cells and viruses. HeLa cells were propagated in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium 257 (DMEM) supplemented with 10 % calf serum and 1 % penicillin/streptomycin. HeLa 258 cells were used for CVB3, Mengo virus, and PV propagation and guantification of viral 259 titer by plaque assay (26-28). Vero cells were propagated in DMEM supplemented with 260 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1 % penicillin/streptomycin. Vero cells were used for 261 Aichi virus propagation and quantification of viral titer by plaque assay. All infections 262 were performed using viruses derived from infectious cDNA clones (the Mengo virus 263 clone was a kind gift from Marco Vignuzzi) (29,30). All viruses were confirmed by 264 Sanger sequencing.

265 To quantify virus, plaque assay was performed as previously described 266 (26,27,30) Briefly, virus was diluted in phosphate-buffered saline supplemented with 267 100 µg/mL CaCl₂ and 100 µg/mL MgCl₂ (PBS+) and added to cells for 30 min at 37°C in 268 presence of 5 % CO₂ to allow for attachment. Agar overlay containing DMEM, 269 supplemented with 20 % calf serum, and 2 % agar was used for CVB3 and PV samples 270 and removed after 48 h. Agar overlay containing DMEM, supplemented with 20 % FBS, 271 and 2 % agar was used for Aichi virus samples and removed after 48 h. Agar overlay 272 containing P5 buffer and 2 % agar was used for Mengo virus samples and removed 273 after 48 h (27).

274 Radiolabeling of picornaviruses was performed as previously described (3,7,28) . 275 Briefly, viruses were propagated in the presence of ³⁵S-Cysteine/Methionine and were 276 purified using cesium chloride gradients. Purity of viruses were confirmed by

phosphorimaging of radiolabeled capsid proteins on SDS-PAGE, and scintillation count
to determine CPM and viable fractions (3).

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280 Bacterial strains. Strains of bacteria were from ATCC or from the cecum of mice, as 281 previously described (14). Cultures were inoculated from glycerol stocks in strainspecific nutrient media as previously described (14). Briefly, cultures were grown 282 283 overnight, bacterial cell pellets were collected and washed in PBS+. After resuspension 284 in 1 mL PBS+, OD₆₀₀ values were obtained by spectrophotometer (Eppendorf 285 BioPhotometer D30) to determine colony forming units (CFUs) needed specific for each 286 assay. Bacteria were UV inactivated prior to use in assays. The amount of bacteria was confirmed by plating on nutrient-specific agar and conditions prior to UV inactivation 287 288 (14).

289

Quantifying picornavirus binding to bacterial cells. Bacterial binding assay was performed as previously described for poliovirus (14). Briefly, approximately 3,000 CPM (approximately 1 x 10^6 PFU) of ³⁵S-radiolabeled virus was mixed with PBS+ or 1 x 10^8 CFU of bacteria and incubated at 37°C in presence of CO₂ for 1 h. After incubation, bacteria was pelleted and washed with PBS+ to remove unbound virus. The amount of CPM (virus bound to bacterial cells) was determined by scintillation counting.

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Quantifying effects of bacteria on virion stability. To determine the effect of bacteria on thermal stability of picornaviruses, 1×10^5 PFU of each virus was mixed with PBS+, 1 mg/mL of bacterial surface polysaccharides, or 1×10^{10} CFU of bacteria and

incubated at 44°C for 4.5 h. The same procedure was followed for elevated temperature
 assays. After incubation, plaque assays were performed using virus-specific conditions
 to determine the amount of viable virus before and after heat treatment.

Bleach inactivation assay was performed as previously described for PV, except that a lower concentration of bleach was used here (7). Briefly, 1×10^5 PFU of each virus was mixed with PBS+, 1 mg/mL of bacterial surface polysaccharides, or 1×10^8 CFU of bacteria. Samples were incubated at 37°C for 1 h and then added to 0.0001 % fresh bleach for 1 min. Bleach neutralization was done by adding 0.01 % sodium thiosulfate (Sigma). Plaque assays using virus-specific conditions were performed to determine amount of viable virus before and after bleach treatment.

310 To examine effects of feces on viral stability, feces from four- to ten-week-old 311 male C57BL/6 PVR-IFNAR -/- mice were collected and resuspended in PBS+ to a final concentration of 0.0642 mg/ μ L. Briefly, 1 x 10⁵ PFU of virus was mixed with 300 μ L of 312 313 PBS+ or resuspended fecal samples and incubated at 37°C in the presence of 5 % 314 CO₂. Additional samples in PBS+ were placed at 4°C as a control. Samples were taken 315 at designated time points and processed by chloroform extraction as previously 316 described (3,7). Plaque assay was performed to determine amount of viable virus before and at designated time points, as described earlier. In Figure 3F, 1 x 10⁵ PFU of 317 Mengo virus was mixed with approximately 1 x 10⁵ CFU each of *E. coli*, *P. ruminicola*, 318 319 and L. johnsonii in a total volume of 300 µL and samples were incubated at 37°C. 320 Samples were collected and titers were determined as described above.

321

Mouse Experiments. Animals were handled according to the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. C57BL/6 *PVR-IFNAR -/-* mice were obtained from S. Koike (Tokyo, Japan) (31). Feces collection was performed at UT Southwestern Medical Center.

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327 Data Analysis. Figures of viral structures were generated using the UCSF Chimera 328 software (http://www.rbvi.ucsf.edu/chimera). The Electron Microscopy Data Bank 329 (EMDB) IDs used for each virus are as follows: Aichi virus (EM-9517), CVB3 (EM-6637) 330 and Saffold virus (EM-3097) to represent their respective genera. The phylogenetic tree 331 was generated using the MEGA7 software and following the Neighbor-Joining Method 332 (32). The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 2.65090397 is shown. The tree is 333 drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary 334 distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were 335 computed using the Poisson correction method and are in the units of the number of 336 amino acid substitutions per site. (32). The analysis involved 5 amino acid sequences. 337 All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. There were a total of 338 766 positions in the final phylogeny tree dataset.

All statistical analyses were performed using the GraphPad Prism Software. Outliers were identified and removed by the ROUT method, Q = 1%. All one way ANOVA tests were performed with Dunnett's multiple comparisons post hoc test. All two-way ANOVA tests were performed with Tukey's post hoc test.

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352

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359

360 FIGURE LEGENDS

361 **Figure 1. Panel of picornaviruses used in this study.**

A) Structural models of picornaviruses. Structural comparisons were performed using EMDB ascension numbers for each viral genus and topological distances from the center of the virion calculated from 135 Å (blue) to 155 Å (red), as indicated by the scale bar (22). Representative viruses for each genus are Aichi virus (*Kobuvirus*), CVB3 (*Enterovirus*), and Saffold virus (*Cardiovirus*). The Aichi virus structure is at 3.7 Å resolution, CVB3 structure is at 3.9 Å resolution and Saffold virus is at 10.6 Å resolution.

Models and distances were generated with UCSF Chimera software. **B**) Phylogenetic tree of picornaviruses based on the amino acid sequence of the capsid-coding region. The tree was generated using MEGA7 software. The evolutionary history was inferred using the Neighbor-Joining method. The scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site.

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374 Figure 2. Effects of bacteria and compounds on picornavirus stability at elevated temperatures. Thermal stability assays were performed by incubating 1 x 10⁵ PFU 375 viruses in PBS, 1 mg/mL BSA, cellulose, LPS, or 1 x 10¹⁰ CFU of bacterial strains at 376 377 various temperatures for 4.5 h. The amount of viable virus following each assay was 378 determined by plaque assay and compared to PBS viral titer at 0 h to determine percent of input PFU. A) 44°C assay. Data are representative of ten to eighteen independent 379 380 experiments, n= 4-47. B) 46°C assay. Data are representative of nine to fourteen 381 independent experiments, n= 4-25. C) Incubation of Aichi virus in PBS at various 382 temperatures. Data are representative of two to three independent experiments, n=3-5. 383 D) Incubation of Mengo virus in PBS at various temperatures. Data are representative 384 of one to three independent experiments, n=2-6. E) Aichi virus 50°C assay. Data are 385 representative of two independent experiments, n=4. F) Mengo virus 57°C assay. Data 386 are representative of two experiments, n=4. Bars are shown in SEM. Statistical 387 significance was determined by one-way ANOVA, * = P < 0.05. n.s., not significant.

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Figure 3. Picornavirus stability in feces. 1 x 10⁵ PFU of A) Aichi virus, B) CVB3-H3,
C) CVB3-Nancy, D) Mengo virus, or E) PV was incubated with PBS or a slurry of feces

391 from mice and incubated at 37°C (PBS, dashed lines; Feces, dotted lines) or 4°C (PBS, solid lines). Data are representative of two to three experiments, n = 4-5. In F) 1 x 10⁵ 392 393 PFU of Mengo virus was incubated with PBS or a mixture of E. coli, P. ruminicola, and 394 L. johnsonii and incubated at 37°C (PBS, dashed lines; Bacteria, dotted lines) or 4°C 395 (PBS, solid lines). Data are representative of two independent experiments, n = 4. 396 Samples were taken at designated time points and processed prior to plague assay for 397 quantification of viable virus. Bars are shown in SEM. Statistical significance between 398 PBS and feces or bacteria at 37°C was determined by two-way ANOVA, * = P < 0.05.

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Figure 4. Effects of bacteria on picornavirus stability during bleach treatment. 1 x 400 401 10⁵ PFU viruses were incubated individually in PBS, 1 mg/mL BSA, cellulose, LPS, or 1 402 x 10⁸ CFU of bacterial strains at 37°C for 1 h. After incubation, samples were treated 403 with 0.0001% bleach for 1 minute and neutralized with sodium thiolsulfate. Amount of 404 viable virus was determined by plaque assay and compared to PBS viral titer at 0 h to 405 determine % of input PFU. Data are representative of seven to twenty independent 406 experiments, n = 4-40. Bars are shown in SEM. Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA, * = P < 0.05. n.s., not significant. 407

bind to ³⁵S-labeled 408 Figure 5. Picornaviruses bacteria. viruses (3.000 CPM/approximately 1 x 10⁶ PFU) were incubated with 1 x 10⁸ CFU of bacteria for 1 h at 409 410 37°C. After incubation, samples were spun down and washed to remove unbound virus. 411 Bound virus was quantified by scintillation counting. Data are representative of two 412 independent experiments, n=3-4. Bars are shown in SEM. * = P < 0.05, based on 413 student's T test.

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422 Table 1. Percent sequence identity between panel of picornaviruses

Capsid Amino Acid Sequence Similarity (%)

Family and genus	Virus	Aichi virus	Mengo virus	CVB3 H3	CVB3 Nancy	Poliovirus
Picornaviridae						
Kobuvirus	Aichi virus	100.0	28.6	23.3	23.3	24.3
Cardiovirus	Mengo virus		100.0	30.0	29.8	29.0
Enterovirus	CVB3 H3			100.0	98.6	54.4
	CVB3 Nancy				100.0	54.2
	Poliovirus					100.0

423

424 Table 2. List of reagents and bacterial strains used in this study.

Name	Gram Status	Phylum	Source
Bovine Albumin Serum (BSA)			Fischer Scientific
Cellulose			Sigma
Lipopolysaccharide			Sigma (0127:B8)
Escherichia coli 1470	Gram negative	Proteobacteria	Mouse cecum
Prevotella runimicola	Gram negative	Bacteroidetes	ATCC 19189
Bacillus badius	Gram positive	Firmicutes	Mouse cecum
Lactobacillus johnsonii	Gram positive	Firmicutes	Mouse cecum

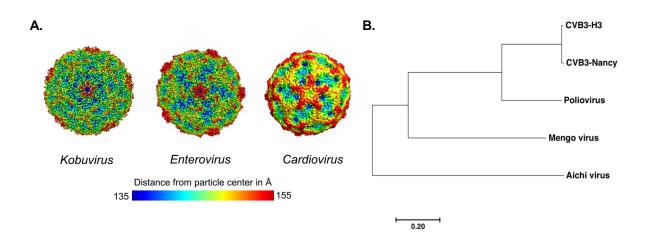
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Figure 1

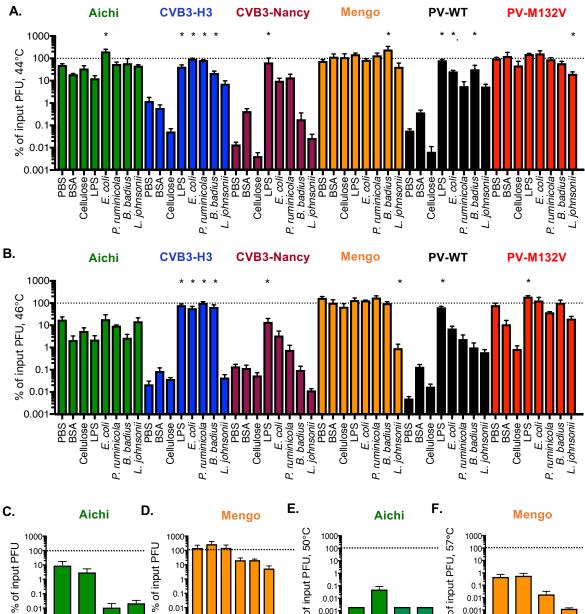


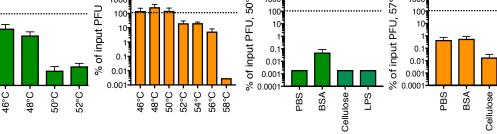


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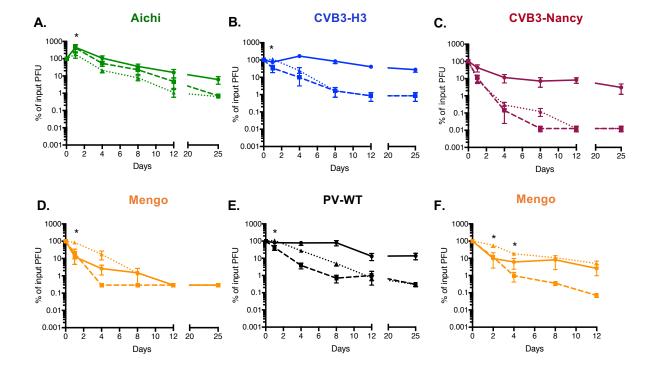
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Figure 3





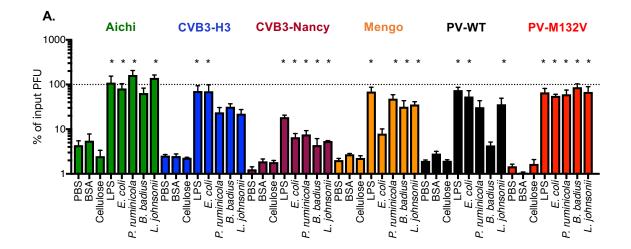


Figure 5

