Citrus psorosis and Mirafiori lettuce big-vein ophiovirus coat proteins localize to the cytoplasm and self interact in vivo

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ABSTRACT

Citrus psorosis (CPsV) and Mirafiori lettuce big-vein virus (MiLBVV) belong to the family Ophioviridae, plant viruses with filamentous nucleocapsids and segmented genomes of negative polarity, causing the worldwide distributed citrus psorosis and lettuce big-vein diseases, respectively. To gain insight into the replication cycle of these viruses, the subcellular localization of the viral coat proteins (CP) was studied. Immunoblot analysis of fractionated extracts derived from natural and experimental infected hosts indicated that the CP of CPsV occurs in the soluble cytoplasmic fraction. The cytoplasmic localization of this protein was confirmed by confocal microscopy of fluorescent protein (FP)-tagged CP following its expression in either CPsV-infected and healthy Citrus sinensis plants or in Nicotiana benthamiana plants. The same localization was observed for FP-tagged CP of MiLBVV. The CPs of CPsV and MiLBVV can undergo homologous and heterologous interactions as revealed by fluorescent lifetime imaging microscopy and co-immunoprecipitation analysis. A putative leucine zipper motif that is conserved among ophiovirus CP sequences may account for these interactions.

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1. Introduction

Ophioviruses are causal agents of severe diseases in citrus, lettuce and ornamental plants. Citrus psorosis virus (CPsV), the causal agent of psorosis disease, affects most citrus varieties in many countries of America, Africa and the Mediterranean Basin (Roistacher, 1991, 1993). In Argentina and Uruguay, the disease is naturally spread by an unknown vector and produces important economical losses (Anderson, 2000; Campiglia et al., 1976; Danós, 1990). Big-vein disease caused by Mirafiori lettuce big-vein virus (MiLBVV) is one of the most important diseases in lettuce affecting production in cool and wet soil areas (Falk, 1997). Information about ophiovirus genes and putative proteins is derived from genome sequences available for CPsV (Naum-Ongania et al., 2003; Sanchez de la Torre et al., 1998, 2002), MiLBVV (van der Wilk et al., 2002), and Lettuce ring necrosis virus (LRNV) (Torok and Vetten, 2004). The ophiovirus genome consists of three or four ssRNA segments with negative or ambisense polarity (Garcia et al., 1994; Milne et al., 2003; van der Wilk et al., 2002). The genomic complementary strand of the CPsV RNA 1 encodes a 24 kDa polypeptide of unknown function and, separated by an intergenic region, the putative 280 kDa RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRP) (Naum-Ongania et al., 2003). RNA 2 contains one ORF encoding a polypeptide of 54 kDa of unknown function (Sanchez de la Torre et al., 2002), and RNA 3 encodes the coat protein (CP) of 48.6 kDa (named here CP CPsV) (Sanchez de la Torre et al., 1998), both in the complementary strand. MiLBVV has a similar genome organization, encoding a putative CP of 48.5 kDa (named here CP MiLBVV) in RNA 3, but possesses a fourth genomic RNA segment (RNA 4) (van der Wilk et al., 2002). In addition to the full genome sequences of CPsV, MiLBVV, and LRNV, databases contain the CP sequences of several CPsV and MiLBVV isolates and of other ophiovirus species, such as Tulip mild mottle mosaic virus (TMMMV), Freisa sneak virus (FreSV) and Ranunculus white mottle virus (RWMV). MiLBVV, TMMMV, FreSV and LRNV are transmitted by Ophidiump braassicae (Bo and Huijberts, 1996; Lot et al., 2002; Morikawa et al., 1995; van Dorst, 1975), whereas the vectors of CPsV and RWMV are still unknown.

Abbreviations: CPsV, Citrus psorosis virus; MiLBVV, Mirafiori lettuce big-vein virus; CP, coat protein; CP CPsV, CP of CPsV; CP MiLBVV, CP of MiLBVV; CLSM, confocal laser scanning microscopy; FRET, fluorescence resonance energy transfer; FLIM, fluorescent lifetime imaging microscopy.

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The cell biology of ophiovirus infection is still in its infancy. There is only scant information about the functions of ophiovirus proteins, their subcellular localization and their interaction with plant proteins. Ophiovirus replication may occur in the cytoplasm as would be inferred from the finding that RWMV particles were observed in the cytoplasm of infected Nicotiana clevelandii parenchyma cells (Vaiera et al., 1997), but there are no further data from other members of this family. Here we used subcellular fractionation coupled to immunoblot analysis as well as confocal laser scanning microscopy (CLSM) of GFP-tagged proteins to determine the subcellular localization of CPCPsV and CPMLBVv. Our results indicate that the CPs of these viruses indeed accumulate in the cytoplasm. Moreover, the CPs can undergo homologous and heterologous interactions as is shown by the measurement of fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) and by the results of co-immunoprecipitation assays. Bioinformatic analysis of ophiovirus CP sequences indicates the presence of leucine zipper motifs that could be implicated in CP–CP interactions and critical viral functions such as in cell-to-cell movement, encapsidation, and nucleic acid binding. The subcellular localization of ophiovirus coat proteins and their homologous and heterologous interactions are discussed in the context of ophiovirus encapsidation and virus–vector interaction.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Virus isolates and hosts inoculation

Young leaves of sweet orange plants (Citrus sinensis (L.) Osb) systemically infected with CPsV CPV-4 isolate from Florida (USA) (Garnsey and Timmer, 1980) were used for subcellular fractionation analysis and as source of virus for mechanical inoculation of the local and systemic herbaceous hosts, Chenopodium quinoa and Gomphrena globosa respectively. Leaves of lettuce plants (Lactuca sativa) infected with the MiLBVv-LP2 isolate from La Plata, Argentina (Barcala Tabarrozzi et al., 2010) were used for total RNA extraction and cloning of the CPMLBVv.

2.2. Plasmid constructs and bacterial strains

For use as immunogens, CPCPsV and 54K proteins were expressed in bacteria. Expression plasmids pET19b-CP and pET30a-54K were produced by PCR cloning the full-length ORFs for CPCPsV and 54K protein into plasmids pET19b and pET30a (Novagen), respectively. Plasmid pET30a-54K encodes the 54K protein in fusion to a 6xHis-tail at its N-terminus. The recombinant plasmids were transferred to Escherichia coli BL21(DE3)-CodonPlus-RIL by electroporation. For stable expression in Nicotiana benthamiana plants, plasmids p35SUGSINT/CP and p35SUGSINT/54K, bearing the CPCPsV and 54K ORF, respectively (Zanek et al., 2008), were used. Both plasmids were transferred to A. tumefaciens LBA4404 by electroporation. For transient expression in plant tissues, the complete ORF for unused CPCPsV was cloned into the binary vector pGD (Goodin et al., 2002) resulting in plasmid pGD–CPCPsV (Fig. 2B). To express C-terminally tagged fluorescent protein (FP) fusions of CPCPs and CPMLBVv, the respective ORFs without the stop codons were cloned into pCR8/GW/TOPO (Invitrogen). For N-terminal fusions a reverse PCR primer containing a stop codon was used. The resulting entry plasmids were digested with Xhol and recombined with destination vectors pGWB11 for FLAG tag fusions (Nakagawa et al., 2007) (Fig. 1C and D) and pB7WG2, pB7WG2 and pB7FW2 (Karimi et al., 2002) for N-terminal fusions to eGFP or for C-terminal fusions to mRFP and eGFP respectively (Fig. 1E–J), using LR clonase mix (Invitrogen) according to the instructions of the manufacturer. For all constructs the correct cloning and insert orientations were confirmed by sequencing. Verified constructs were transferred to A. tumefaciens strain GV3101 by electroporation. Primer sequences are available upon request.

Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the T-DNA region in the used binary plasmids. (A) p35SUSINT-ORF-CpV for constitutive expression of CPCPsV or 54K proteins in transgenic N. benthamiana plants. (B) pGD–CPCPsV for transient expression of CPCPsV in N. benthamiana. (C) pGWB11-54K:FLAG and (D) pGWB11-55K:FLAG for expression of FLAG-tagged 54K and 55K. (E–J) Constructs for transient expression of CPCPsV or CPMLBVv C- or N-terminal fused to fluorescent proteins. Abbreviations: nosP, nopaline synthase promoter; nosT, nopaline synthase terminator; 3SSP, 3SS cauliflower mosaic virus promoter; p3SSX2, duplicated enhancer region in the 3SSP; ABMV RNA4 leader; Alfalfa mosaic virus RNA4 leader; uidA, β-glucuronidase; LB, left border; RB, right border; T3SS, 3SS terminator; Bar, phosphinothricin acetyl transferase gene; attb1, recombination site 1; attb2, recombination site 2; HPT, hygromycin phosphotransferase gene.
2.3. Protein synthesis and production of anti-CP and anti-54K sera

Antibodies against the CP and 54K proteins of CPsV were produced by immunization of rabbits with proteins expressed in E. coli BL21 (DE3)-CodonPlus–RIL. A 1/10 dilution from an overnight bacterial culture transformed with respective plasmids (pET19b-CP, pET30a-54K) was used to induce expression of the polypeptide with 1.0 mM IPTG at 37 °C for 3 h. CP inclusion bodies were extracted from lysed cells by sonication and lysozyme incubation. After washing, the inclusion bodies containing a high CP concentration were resuspended and used as immunogen. The His-tagged 54K protein was purified by affinity column chromatography using a Ni-NTA His Bind® Resin (Novagen) under denaturing conditions after extraction with 6 M guanidinium chloride. Protein samples were dialyzed against PBS buffer to eliminate remaining urea. For each protein, three rabbits were inoculated by intraperitoneal and intramuscular injections with emulsions prepared in complete Freund adjuvant (SIGMA). In addition, intradermal booster injections were made with the immunogens in incomplete Freund adjuvant emulsion (1:1, vol/vol). The rabbits were bled 10 days after each injection to test the antiserum by immunoblot analysis using the proteins purified from E. coli.

2.4. Protein analysis

Protein amounts were determined by Bradford assays or by SDS–PAGE using 10% polyacrylamide gels followed by Coomassie blue staining. For immunoblot assays to detect specific proteins, the electrophoretically separated proteins were transferred to PVDF membrane (Hybond–P, Amersham Pharmacia, Biotech) and probed with specific antibodies. The CpCpV and 54K proteins were detected with anti-CP and anti CpCpV antisera at 1:250 and 1:50 dilution respectively, followed by anti-rabbit-IgG conjugated to alkaline phosphatase (GibcoBRL, Life Technologies). Expression levels of CpCpV protein were also determined by TAS-ELISA as previously described (Zanek et al., 2006). EGFP fusion proteins were analyzed using anti-GFP (BD Living Colors A.v. Monoclonal Antibody (JL-8)) and horseradish peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse antibody (BioRad, CA, USA) followed by chemiluminescent detection (GE, ECL Plus Western Blotting Detection Reagents).

2.5. Production of transgenic N. benthamiana plants and transient expression

Transgenic N. benthamiana plants were generated by infection of leaf disks with A. tumefaciens LBA4404 carrying p3SSGUSINT/CP or p35SGUSINT/54 according to Horsch and colleagues (Horsch et al., 1985). For transient protein expression in N. benthamiana, A. tumefaciens cells were harvested by centrifugation, resuspended in water to a final OD600nm of 0.2 and injected into the abaxial side of the leaf, using a syringe without needle. For transient eGFP:CP-CpV expression in infected and healthy sweet orange leaves, the agrobacteria were injected with a higher concentration (OD600nm = 1.0) into the abaxial side of detached, fully expanded young leaves of medium size (about 7 cm long). The treated leaves were kept for 3–7 days post agroinfiltration (dpi) at 22–24 °C in a moist chamber with 16 h light/8 h dark illumination.

2.6. Subcellular fractionation

Infected sweet orange leaves with symptoms of CPsV infection (spot and flecking) and C. quinoa and G. globosa tissue bearing local and systemic chlorotic lesions were used for subcellular fractionation according to Rouleau and colleagues (Rouleau et al., 1993), with modifications. 1.0 g of fresh material was homogenized in 10 ml homogenization buffer (HB) (0.4 M sucrose, 10 mM KCl, 5.0 mM MgCl2, 50 mM Tris–HCl pH 8.2, 20% glycerol, 10 mM β-mercaptoethanol and 1.0 mM PMSE) and filtered through miracloth to retain the cell wall fraction (CW). The filtrate was centrifuged (1000 × g) to recover the pellet fraction P1 (nucleus/chloroplast). The supernatant solution (S1) was re-centrifuged (30,000 × g) to generate a new supernatant fraction, S30 (cytoplasmic) and a pellet fraction P30 (microsomal). P1 and P30 fractions were washed in HB and resuspended in 1 ml ESB buffer (4.5% SDS, 9.0 M urea, 75.0 mM Tris–HCl, pH 6.8, 7.5% β-mercaptoethanol) per g of starting material. The CW fraction was resuspended in 1.0 ml HB containing 1% Triton X-100 and stirred for 1 h at 4 °C to extract any membranous fraction loosely bound to the fibrous material. The cell wall fiber was recovered by filtration and resuspended in 1 ml ESB per g of starting material. Each fraction was subjected to immunoblot analysis with CP antibody. As a consequence of the fractionation procedure, the S30 fraction is 10-fold diluted as compared to P1, P30 and CW fractions. To allow comparison between infected and non-infected samples, equivalent amounts of starting material were loaded into each lane.

2.7. Fluorescence microscopy

CLSM was performed using a Zeiss LSM510 microscope with a C-Apo-chromat (63/1.2 W Korr) water objective lens in multimode, excitation/emission wavelengths of 488 nm/505–550 nm for eGFP and 561/575–615 nm for mRFP, and LSM510 version 2.8 software. Alternatively, a Leica TCS SP5 II microscope was used. This microscope was equipped with a HCL PL APO CS 63x0.140 oil objective, excitation/emission wavelengths of 488/524–550 nm for eGFP and of 543/566–634 nm for mRFP, and LAS AF version 2.2.1.4842 software. Images were processed with ImageJ software. GFP fluorescence lifetime was measured using a Lambert Instruments Fluorescence lifetime Attachment (LIFA), mounted on a Nikon TE2000 inverted microscope with a 63 × 1.4 oil objective and using excitation/emission wavelengths of 460–500/510–560 nm for GFP and of 550–600/615–665 nm for RFP. FLIM images were acquired and processed with LI-FLIM software version 1.2.9.117 (Lambert Instruments). ANOVA statistical analysis was performed using the Turkey test (α = 0.01). FRET efficiency was calculated as: 

\[ E = 1 - \frac{\tau_{DA}}{\tau_{DP}} \times 100 \]

where \( \tau_{DA} \) is the lifetime of the donor in the presence of the acceptor and \( \tau_{DP} \) is the lifetime of the donor in the absence of the acceptor.

2.8. Co-immunoprecipitation assay

Co-immunoprecipitation assays were performed with RFP-Trap_A as described by the manufacturer (Chromotek, Germany). Total plant protein was extracted with modified lysis buffer (10 mM Tris–HCl pH 7.5, 0.5 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% Tween 20) containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (0.5 mM PMSE, 2 μg/ml Pepstatin, 10 μg/ml Leupeptin–hemin–sulfate, 10 μg/ml Trypsin inhibitor from egg white, 10 μg/ml Trypsin inhibitor from soybean). Protein extracts (Input, I) were diluted with lysis buffer without Tween 20 (dilution buffer) to reduce the detergent concentration down to 0.15%. Extracts were incubated with 20 μl of RFP-Trap_A slurry for 30 min at room temperature. After centrifugation at 2700 × g for 2 min, the supernatant was discarded, and the remaining agarose beads were washed twice with ice-cold dilution buffer. Then, 20 μl of glycine 0.2 M pH 2.5, were added to the agarose beads, neutralized with 2 μl of Tris–HCl 1 M, pH 10 at room temperature, boiled for 10 min in 2 × sample buffer, and centrifuged at 2700 × g for 2 min (Bound, B). Precipitated protein samples were separated by SDS–PAGE, transferred to PVDF membrane and probed with anti-GFP JL–8 monoclonal antibody. After stripping the membranes according to manufacturer instructions.
2.9. Bioinformatic analysis

ClustalW sequence alignment of ophiovirus CP amino acid sequences from different isolates was performed with MEGA version 4.0 (Tamura et al., 2007). Accession numbers for CPsV were AAC41022, YP_089664, AAT72910, CAJ43825; for FreSV ACR56715, ACY40696, ABI33222; for LRNV AAT9112, YP_053239; for RWMMV AAT08132; for TMV AAT08133; and for MiLBV ABG67683, ADC55528, AAW82345, AAW82346, AAW82347, AAW82348, ABG67683, ABG67684 ABO4496, AAU12SA6, AAU12SA7, AAU12SA8, AAU12SA9, AAU12SA0, AAU12SA1, ADR31473, ADR31474, ADR31475, ADR31476, ADR31477, ADR31478, ADR31479, ADR31480, ADR31481, ADR31482, ADR31483, ADR31484, ABG67682, NP_S48533, AA049152, AAQ77389, AAQ77399, AAQ77400, AAQ77401, AFS529364, ACX37416 and ACX37417. Sequence alignments were used to construct phylogenetic trees using the neighbor-joining method (PhyML, Guindon et al., 2005).

Motifs were analysed by MotifScan software, MHyHits database (Hulo et al., 2008; Pagni et al., 2007). Subcellular localization was predicted using Psort (Nakai and Horton, 1999).

3. Results

3.1. Test of antisera and selection of transgenic plants expressing the CP and 54K proteins of CPsV

Newly generated anti-CP and anti-54K sera were tested in different dilutions against the specific E. coli- or plant-expressed proteins using immunoblot assays. Specific protein detection was achieved with a 1:50 dilution of the antisera reacting specifically to CPsV (Fig. S1A) and with a 1:250 dilution of the antisera against 54K (Fig. S1B). Transgenic N. benthamiana lines expressing the respective proteins were analyzed by TAS-ELISA and immunoblot assays. Lines CP:02 and 54:06 showing the highest expression levels for either CPsV or 54K (Fig. S1C and D) were selected for subsequent experiments. The accumulation level of the CP produced in line CP:02 does not exceed the level produced during infection in C. quinoa, and the immunoreactive band for CPsV showed the same molecular weight irrespective whether isolated from plant or bacteria, indicating that the protein is not subject to major post-translational modifications in plants.

3.2. CPsV localizes in the cytoplasm of infected natural and herbaceous hosts

The accumulation of CPsV during infection was analyzed by TAS-ELISA in time course experiments using inoculated C. quinoa and G. globosa plants. In leaves the protein was detected at 2 and 4 days post inoculation (dpi) reaching highest expression levels at 3–5 dpi and 7 dpi, respectively (Fig. 2A and B). After 15 dpi, CPsV was also detected in upper leaves of G. globosa (see Fig. 2B). Since the leaves are still asymptomatic at this stage of infection, the presence of the CP does not correlate with the formation of CPsV symptoms in this systemic host.

Next, we addressed the subcellular localization of the CPsV by subcellular fractionation followed by immunoblot analysis of the fractions. Taking the measured accumulation pattern in account, we chose the time of highest protein accumulation for this analysis (4 dpi for C. quinoa; 7 dpi for G. globosa). At this time, the CPsV was restricted to the enriched soluble cytoplasmic fraction (S30) since no signal was found in the enriched nucleus (P1), microsomal (P30), or cell wall (CW) fractions (Fig. 3A). The CPsVs of viruses that move cell-to-cell in a CP-dependent manner are often observed at or near the CW (e.g. potex and potyviruses; Rouleau et al., 1995; Rodriguez-Cerezo et al., 1997). Thus, the absence of CPsV in the CW fraction could indicate that the CP of CPsV is dispensable for cell-to-cell movement. However, it is also possible that our assay was not sufficiently sensitive to detect the protein in this fraction.

Fig. 2. Time course of CPsV accumulation and disease symptom formation during CPsV infection in herbaceous hosts. (A) Top: CPsV accumulation in C. quinoa during 5 dpi (diamonds). Bottom: representative images showing disease symptoms caused by CPsV in inoculated leaves at indicated times. (B) Top: CPsV accumulation in G. globosa during 20 dpi in inoculated leaves (triangles) and in symptomless upper leaves (rectangles). Bottom: representative images showing CPsV symptoms in inoculated leaves at indicated times.
Immunoblot analysis of subcellular fractions obtained from systemically infected leaves of the natural host *C. sinensis* confirmed the accumulation of CP in the S30 fraction, with no detectable CP present in other fractions. Due to the low total protein recovered after resuspension, the cell wall fraction of citrus leaves was not analyzed (Fig. 3A). Bioinformatic analysis using Psort (Nakai and Horton, 1999) predicted a cytoplasmic localization for the ophiovirus CPs (data not shown), which is consistent with these findings. Together, these results indicate that CP<sup>CpV</sup> accumulates in the cytoplasm irrespective of infection in *C. sinensis* or *G. globosa* (systemic hosts), or in *C. quinoa* (local host).

3.3. *CP<sup>CpV</sup>* and *CP<sup>MLBVV</sup>* accumulate in the cytoplasm upon ectopic expression

3.3.1. Transient and constitutive expression of CP<sup>CpV</sup> in *N. benthamiana*

To further characterize the CP<sup>CpV</sup>, the protein was expressed in the absence of other viral proteins or RNAs. Upon transient expression in *N. benthamiana*, where expression levels were higher as compared to all the other assayed infected hosts (not shown), the protein was again detected exclusively in the S30 fraction (Fig. 3B). A CP double band has been occasionally detected in PGD-CP<sup>CpV</sup> samples. We cannot rule out that this is due to partial proteolysis; however, the double band was not seen in other extracts derived from the same host but expressing CP fused to FPs (see Section 3.3.2). The CP also localizes in the S30 fraction of transgenic *N. benthamiana* line CP:02, which expresses the CP<sup>CpV</sup> constitutively (data not shown). These results indicate that CP<sup>CpV</sup> localizes to the cytoplasm also upon transient overexpression, thus in the absence of other viral proteins.

3.3.2. Localization of CP<sup>CpV</sup> and CP<sup>MLBVV</sup> tagged with fluorescent markers

To confirm the above results and to increase the resolution of our subcellular analysis, the CP<sup>CpV</sup> was transiently expressed as fluorescent protein (FP) fusion and visualized by CLSM in *N. benthamiana* epidermal cells. The CP of *MLBVV* (CP<sup>MLBVV</sup>) was included in this analysis. Both FP-tagged proteins showed a diffuse cytoplasmic pattern. Co-expression of eGFP-tagged CP<sup>CpV</sup> or eGFP-tagged CP<sup>MLBVV</sup> together with free mRFP (distributed in the cytoplasm and nucleus) resulted in the co-localization of red and green fluorescence signal in the cytoplasm but not in the nucleus, and in transvacuolar cytoplasmic strands both in central (Fig. 4A and C, arrows), and cortical views (Fig. 4B and D). Expression of the CPs in fusion to mRFP (CP<sup>CpV</sup>:mRFP and CP<sup>MLBVV</sup>:mRFP) in *N. benthamiana* line 16c transgenic for the ER marker HDEL-GFP (Ruiz et al., 1998) led to visualization of the proteins in the cytoplasm near the cortical ER but did not reveal any co-localization with the tubular membrane network (Fig. S2). The same results were obtained irrespective whether the CPs were fused to eGFP or mRFP or whether fused at the N- or C-terminus (data not shown), indicating that the position and identity of the fluorophores did not influence the localization.

The subcellular localization of CP observed upon transient expression may be deceptive since during the infection the protein may interact with other viral and host proteins that modify its localization. Indeed, viral proteins may relocate when co-expressed with other viral proteins, which can reveal specific interactions (Boutant et al., 2010; Ribeiro et al., 2009). Although our subcellular fractionation of infected tissue showed that the CP<sup>CpV</sup> is also cytoplasmic in the context of infection, we tested the localization of eGFP:CP<sup>CpV</sup> or CP<sup>CpV</sup>eGFP proteins in the *N. benthamiana* line 54:06 (expressing 54K protein, encoded in RNA2). We also tested the localization of N- or C-eGFP fusions of CP<sup>CpV</sup> and CP<sup>MLBVV</sup> upon coexpression with FLAG-tagged 54K<sup>CpV</sup> and 55K<sup>MLBVV</sup>, respectively. However, in all these cases the CP proteins remained diffusely distributed in the cytoplasm (data not shown). These results confirm the cytoplasmic localization of CP.

3.3.3. Expression of eGFP-CP<sup>CpV</sup> in infected *C. sinensis*

*C. quinoa* and *G. globosa* are experimental hosts for the analysis of CPsV infections but are recalcitrant to the analysis of CPsV proteins by *A. tumefaciens*-mediated transient expression.
N. benthamiana plants are better suited for transient expression analysis but show only local and asymptomatic infection upon inoculation with CP. To investigate the localization of the CP in the natural host, eGFP:CP was transiently expressed by agroinfiltration in healthy and infected C. sinensis plants. eGFP:CP was observed in the cytoplasm of healthy citrus, similar to the pattern found in one of the few reports for cytosolic GFP (Cy-GFP) 

(Xu et al., 2011) (Fig. 5). In symptomatic regions of infected citrus leaves, where the virus has accumulated, the same localization was observed (Fig. 5B), indicating that the CP maintains its cytoplasmic localization during the course of infection.

3.4. The CP and CP show homologous and heterologous interactions

In CP and MiLBV virus particles the CP subunits may interact among themselves and with the viral RNAs to encapsidate the viral genome. To test for interactions between the CP molecules we expressed the proteins in the absence of viral RNA and measured FRET between CP: eGFP and CP:mRFP by FRET. When expressed alone, the fluorescence lifetime for CP:eGFP was 2.36 ns (SD = 0.07; N = 25) (Fig. 6A and E) and did not change significantly (p < 0.01) upon co-expression with free mRFP (2.37 ns; SD = 0.07; N = 21) (Fig. 6B and E). However, when CP:eGFP was co-expressed with CP:mRFP, the fluorescence lifetime was significantly reduced to 2.1 ns (SD = 0.1; N = 24, p < 0.01) indicating a FRET efficiency of 11% (Fig. 6C and E). This demonstrates that CP molecules occur in close molecular proximity, which is indicative of their interaction in the cytoplasm. Using eGFP:CP instead of CP:eGFP prevented FRET interactions with CP:mRFP thus showing that an eGFP fusion to the N-terminus of CP interferes with CP interactions (data not shown). The same assay was conducted for CPmiLBV, providing evidence that also the CP of MiLBV undergoes homologous interactions in the cytoplasm (10% of FRET efficiency; Fig. S3). To test whether the CPs of the two different viruses are able to interact and form heteromeric complexes, we expressed CP:eGFP together with CPmiLBV:mRFP. In the presence of CPmiLBV:mRFP the fluorescence lifetime of CP:eGFP was 2.25 ns (SD = 0.06; N = 18) and significantly different (p < 0.01) to the fluorescence lifetime of the protein when expressed alone, revealing a 5% of FRET efficiency (Fig. 6D and E). Further evidence supporting CP interactions were obtained by co-immunoprecipitation assays employing the RFP-Trap (Chromotek, Germany). As is shown in Fig. 7, the coexpression of CP:eGFP or CPmiLBV:eGFP with mRFP allowed the detection of 76 kDa fusion-proteins with anti-GFP antibody (lanes 1, panels A and B). However, no eGFP signal was obtained in the bound extract (lanes B, panels A and B). When blotted with anti-RFP antibody the expected band of 26 kDa for mRFP was detected (lanes 1 and B, panels A and B) indicating that there is no unspecific binding of the CPs to mRFP.
Homologous interaction between CP\textsuperscript{CPsv} molecules was observed by co-expression of CP\textsuperscript{CPsv}:eGFP and CP\textsuperscript{CPsv}:mRFP and their detection in the bound extracts with anti-GFP and anti-RFP, respectively (see lanes B and I, panel A). When the same assay was carried out with CP\textsuperscript{MLBVv}, a homologous CP–CP interaction was again observed (see lanes B and I, panel B). Heterologous interactions between CP\textsuperscript{CPsv} and CP\textsuperscript{MLBVv} were observed by co-expression of CP\textsuperscript{CPsv}:mRFP together with CP\textsuperscript{MLBVv}:eGFP, and of CP\textsuperscript{MLBVv}:mRFP together with CP\textsuperscript{CPsv}:eGFP. These fusion–protein combinations were detected with anti-GFP and anti-RFP in the bound extracts (lanes B, panel C) indicating specific interactions.

The results of the co-precipitation experiments are consistent with the results obtained by FLIM and indicate that the CPs of CPsv and MLBVV occur in close proximity and can undergo both homo- and heterologous interactions in vivo. The formation of hetero-oligomers suggests that these proteins may share specific conserved domains for oligomerization.

3.5. Conserved motifs are present in all ophiovirus coat proteins

Bioinformatic analysis of the CP\textsuperscript{MLBVv} amino acid sequence revealed the presence of a leucine zipper motif with four heptad repeats at position 252–273. Alignment of this sequence to other ophiovirus CP sequences (Fig. 8A) indicates that this motif is conserved, whereby the first and the third leucine residues (“L” in d position of the helical wheel representation) are conserved among all ophioviruses CPs and the second and fourth Ls are less conserved, with changes of L for F, K, or V. According to Krylov and Vinson (Krylov and Vinson, 2001), the L → K change, only found in CP\textsuperscript{CPsv}, could affect the structure of the leucine zipper. However, the leucine zipper structure could be stabilized by two extra heptads present at the N-terminal end of this motif. As is shown in Fig. 8B, the helical wheel diagrams of the leucine zipper motif in different ophiovirus CPs exhibit charged and polar groups at e and g positions, which could stabilize dimer formation through e–g′ and g–e′ interactions (O’Shea et al., 1989). In the case of CP\textsuperscript{CPsv} and CP\textsuperscript{MLBVv}, it could be speculated that these two α-helices are able to interact, consistent with the FLIM-FRET and immunoprecipitation results.

Positively charged amino acids are frequently involved in nucleic acid binding properties of proteins (Chen and Varani, 2005; Weiss and Narayana, 1998). Towards the C-terminal end of all ophiovirus CPs there is a conserved SRCK tetrapeptide motif containing two basic amino acids (Fig. 8A). This motif could be involved in the interaction with RNA, as reported for the coat proteins of other plant and animal viruses (Citovsky et al., 1990; Venter et al., 2009).

4. Discussion

Characterization of the ophiovirus CPs contributes to our basic knowledge about this family of multipartite negative viruses. Determining the subcellular localization of plant virus-encoded proteins provides information about the roles and functions of the proteins during virus infection. So far, immunolocalization experiments to detect the CP\textsuperscript{CPsv} in thin sections of infected tissue have not been successful (Robert G. Milne, IVV, Torino, Italy and Elliot W. Kitajima, Piracicaba, Brazil, personal communications), probably because the virion accumulation is much lower compared to RWVV, which has been detected in the cytoplasm of infected tissues (Vaira et al., 1997). Given this difficulty, we studied the
subcellular localization of CPsV and MiLBVV coat proteins by different methods (cell fractionation, transient expression) using specific hosts. Our results indicate that in natural and experimental hosts, in the context of the infection or upon transient or stable expression in N. benthamiana, the CPsV was always found as soluble protein in the cytoplasm. The same localization was also found for CPsLBBV, suggesting that virion assembly of these two ophioviruses and RWMV occurs in the cytoplasm.

Previous studies addressing the nucleocapsid protein (N protein) of the tenuivirus *Rice stripe virus* (Liang et al., 2005) or the tospovirus *Tomato spotted wilt virus* (TSWV), two other members of plant negative RNA viruses, have demonstrated that the N protein forms aggregates in the cytoplasm, and homodimerization of N protein and N oligomerization in large aggregates was confirmed by FRET measurements (Ribeiro et al., 2009). Applying the same methodology and including co-immunoprecipitation, we found here homologous and heterologous in vivo interactions for the CPs of CPsV and MiLBVV. These interactions involve soluble proteins in the cytoplasm, without prior formation of coat protein aggregates. Homologous interaction correlates with the images of electron micrographs of ophiovirus particles showing small CP subunits embracing the RNA like a ring (Robert G. Milne, 2007, personal communication).

Although our observations indicate that the CPs of CPsV and MiLBVV can interact in vivo upon co-expression, this does not seem to play a role in nature since the two viruses do not occur in the same host. However, if other ophioviruses do share the same host, synergistic interactions between different CPs could play a role. In this respect, it could be important to search for interaction between the CPs of MiLBVV and *Lettuce big-vein associated virus* (LBVAv), a varicosavirus always present in lettuce plants infected with MiLBVV (Natsuaki et al., 2002; Roggero et al., 2003). On the other hand, although the virus species in the family Ophioviridae are grouped into only one genus, *Ophiovirus*, it appears likely that this genus is rather heterogenous and that different genera may be separated as soon as more information about genome expression, protein function, and vector-transmission were available. Comparison of CPs, based on the analysis of serological relationship, is one criterion to look for relationships among different species. These have placed CPsV far from the other members of the *Ophioviridae* family (Roggero et al., 2000). Our observation of interaction between the CPsV and MiLBVV may suggest that the analysis of in vivo interactions could be used as a new approach to investigate relationships among members of this family.

Bioinformatic analysis of ophiovirus CP sequences revealed the presence of conserved leucine repeats. Such repeats play a role in protein–protein interactions and are implicated in critical protein functions. Leucine repeat domains have been described in eukaryotic transcription factors and later also in viral proteins. For example, the p7 movement protein of *Pelargonium flower break virus* (PFBV) contains a leucine zipper-like motif that is essential for virus infectivity in plants (Martinez-Turino and Hernandez, 2011). Another example is the *Herpes simplex virus* (HSV–1) UL6 protein. The integrity of the leucine zipper region of this protein is required for protein oligomerisation, portal ring formation, and genome encapsidation (Nellissey et al., 2007; Newcomb et al., 2001). As reported in several cases, the leucine residues are critical for protein dimerization and DNA binding (O’Shea et al., 1989). For example, the homodimerization of the non-structural protein NS4B of *Hepatitis C virus* is facilitated by the amino-terminal part containing a basic ZIP motif (Welker et al., 2010). Another example is the basic ZIP-like domain of the *Human cytomegalovirus* (HCMV) pUL71 protein which is required for protein oligomerization, virion egress and secondary envelopment leading to infectious viral particles (Meissner et al., 2012).
Viral coat proteins can have non-structural functions such as in cell-to-cell/long distance movement or virus–vector interaction. In this respect, MiLBVV, LRNV and FreSV are borne-transmitted, and some conserved epitopes of their capsid proteins could be involved in the interaction with the zoospores of Olpidium brasicace. It has been reported that Cucumber necrosis virus, transmitted by Olpidium borneovarum, has specific sites on the capsid that bind to the zoospores (Rochon et al., 2004).

This work describes the subcellular localization of ophiovirus CPs and CP–CP interactions probably mediated by a leucine zipper domain and could open further studies of coat protein functions as a structural protein. Site-Directed mutagenesis applied to the conserved leucine repeats and to the SRCK tetrapeptide could reveal the biological significance of these amino acid sequences with respect to ophiovirus particle structure and assembly.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.virusres.2012.08.005.

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