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Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Modulates Hepatitis E Virus Entry in Human Hepatocytes

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Complete List of Authors:	Schrader, Jil Alexandra; Ruhr University of Bochum Faculty of Medicine, Department of Molecular and Medical Virology Burkard, Thomas; Ruhr University of Bochum Faculty of Medicine, Department of Molecular and Medical Virology Gömer, André; Ruhr University of Bochum Faculty of Medicine, Department of Molecular and Medical Virology Gömer, André; Ruhr University of Bochum Faculty of Medicine, Department of Molecular and Medical Virology Meister, Toni; Ruhr-Universitä Bochum, Department for Molecular and Medical Virology Fu, Rebecca; University Hospital Heidelberg, Schaller Research Group at the Department of Infectious Diseases and Virology; Heidelberg University Heidelberg Biosciences International Graduate School Mehnert, Ann-Kathrin; University Hospital Heidelberg, Schaller Research Group at the Department of Infectious Diseases and Virology; Heidelberg University Heidelberg Biosciences International Graduate School, Infectious Disease/Virology Dao Thi, Viet Loan; University Hospital Heidelberg, Schaller Research Group at the Department of Infectious Disease/Virology; German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), External Partner Site Behrendt, Patrick; TWINCORE Centre for Experimental and Clinical Infection Research (DZIF), External Partner Site Behrendt, Patrick; TWINCORE Centre for Infection Research (HZI), Institute for Experimental Virology; Hannover Medical School, Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Endocrinology; German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), Partner Site Hannover - Braunschweig Durantel, David; Inserm, CNRS, Inserm Unit 1052, CNRS UMR5286 Broering, Ruth; University Duisburg-Essen, University Hospital, Dept. of Gastroenterology and Hepatology Vondran, Florian; Hannover Medical School, General, Visceral and Transplant Surgery Todt, Daniel; Ruhr University of Bochum Faculty of Medicine, Department of Molecular and Medical Virology; Carl von Ossietzky University of Oldenburg, Department of Medical Microbiology and Virology Steinmann, Eike; Ruhr University of Bochum Faculty of Medic

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4	Jil Alexandra Schrader ¹ , Thomas Leon Burkard ¹ , Yannick Brüggemann ¹ , André Gömer ¹ , Toni Luise
5	Meister ¹ , Rebecca Menhua Fu ^{2,3} , Ann-Kathrin Mehnert ^{2,3} , Viet Loan Dao Thi ^{2,4} , Patrick Behrendt ^{5,6,7} ,
6	David Durantel ⁸ , Ruth Broering ⁹ , Florian W. R. Vondran ^{10,9} , Daniel Todt ^{1,11} , Volker Kinast ^{1,12#} , Eike
7	Steinmann ^{1,13#}
8	
9	¹ Ruhr University Bochum, Institute for Hygiene and Microbiology, Department for Molecular and
10	Medical Virology, Bochum, Germany
11	² Schaller Research Group at the Department of Infectious Diseases and Virology, Heidelberg
12	University Hospital, Cluster of Excellence CellNetworks, Heidelberg, Germany
13	³ Heidelberg Biosciences International Graduate School, Heidelberg University, Heidelberg, Germany
14	⁴ German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), Partner Site Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany
15	⁵ TWINCORE Centre for Experimental and Clinical Infection Research, a Joint Venture between the
16	Medical School Hannover (MHH) and the Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research (HZI), Institute
17	for Experimental Virology, Hannover, Germany
18	⁶ Hannover Medical School, Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Endocrinology,
19	Hannover, Germany
20	⁷ German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), Partner Site Hannover - Braunschweig, Hannover,
21	Germany
22	⁸ CIRI - Centre International de Recherche en Infectiologie, Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard
23	Lyon 1, Inserm, U1111, CNRS, UMR5308, ENS Lyon, Lyon, 69007, France.
24	⁹ University Hospital Essen, University Duisburg-Essen, Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology
25	and Transplant Medicine, Essen, Germany
26	¹⁰ Hannover Medical School, Department of General, Visceral and Transplant Surgery, Hannover,
27	Germany;
28	¹¹ European Virus Bioinformatics Centre (EVBC), Jena, Germany

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3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	29	¹² Carl von Ossietzky University Oldenburg, Department of Medical Microbiology and Virology,
	30	Oldenburg, Germany
	31	¹³ German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), External Partner Site, Bochum, Germany
	32	
11 12	33	
13 14	34	#Corresponding authors:
15 16	35	Prof. Dr. Eike Steinmann
17 18	36	Department of Molecular and Medical Virology
19 20 21	37	Ruhr-University Bochum, Universitätsstr. 150, 44801 Bochum, Germany
21 22 22	38	Phone: +49 234 32 23189, Fax: +49 234 32 14352
23 24 25	39	Email: eike.steinmann@rub.de
26 27	40	
28 29 30 31	41	Dr. Volker Kinast
	42	Department of Medical Microbiology and Virology
32 33	43	Carl von Ossietzky University Oldenburg, Philosophenweg 36, 26121 Oldenburg, Germany
34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42	44	Phone: +49 4417985040
	45	Email: volker.kinast@uol.de
	46	
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HAV

HBV

63	List of Abbre	viations
64	Cetu	Cetuximab
65	EGF	Epidermal Growth Factor
66	EGFR	Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor
67	Erlo	Erlotinib
68	FFU	Focus Forming Units
69	fl	Full length

HCV	Hepatitis C virus
HEV	Hepatitis E virus
HEVcc	Cell culture derived HEV
Gluc	Gaussia luciferase
РНН	Primary Human Hepatocytes
Rbv	Ribavirin
RLU	Relative light units
SGR	Subgenomic Replicon System
UTC	Untreated control
WT	Wildtype

Hepatitis A virus

Hepatitis B virus

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84 Abstract:

Background and Aims: Being the most common cause for acute viral hepatitis with more than
20 million cases per year and 70 000 deaths annually, hepatitis E virus (HEV) presents a long neglected
and under-investigated health burden. Although the entry process of viral particles is an attractive target
for pharmacological intervention, druggable host factors to restrict HEV entry have not been identified
so far.

90 Approach and Results: Here we identify the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) as a novel host 91 factor for HEV and reveal the significance of EGFR for the HEV entry process. By utilizing RNAi, 92 chemical modulation with FDA-approved drugs and ectopic expression of EGFR, we revealed that 93 EGFR is critical for HEV infection, without affecting HEV RNA replication or assembly of progeny 94 virus. We further unveiled that EGFR itself and its ligand binding domain rather than its signaling 95 function is responsible for the proviral effect. Modulation of EGF expression in HepaRG cells as well 96 as primary human hepatocytes affected HEV infection.

97 Conclusions: Taken together, our study provides novel insights into the life cycle of HEV and identified
98 EGFR as a possible target for future anti-viral strategies against HEV.

Lien

100 Introduction:

Hepatitis E virus (HEV) is the main cause of acute viral hepatitis creating endemic, waterborne outbreaks in developing countries and increasing zoonotic danger in the developed world with estimated 20 million infections leading to 3.3 million symptomatic cases and 44 000–70 000 deaths per year¹. Clinical manifestations of HEV infections range from mild symptoms of acute hepatitis to fulminant hepatitis and chronic infections in immunocompromised patients along with a fatality rate of up to 30% in pregnant women ^{2,3}. In Europe, known cases of HEV infections have increased 10-fold from 2005 until 2015, with some countries even reporting exceeding cases of HEV than hepatitis A virus (HAV), indicating that further studies into HEV's pathophysiology is urgently needed ⁴. HEV is a quasienveloped, positive sense, single-stranded (ss+) RNA virus of the genus Paslahepevirus within the family of *Hepeviridae* ⁵⁻⁷. HEV's icosahedral, 27–34 nm virion encapsulates a 7.2 kb RNA, which consists of three open reading frames (ORFs 1-3) encoding the viral replicase, viral capsid and a protein for which multiple functions have been described, respectively ^{6,8,9}. Since a robust cell culture system has been developed only recently¹⁰, little is known about molecular determinants involved in HEV's entry and life cycle progression ^{11–13}. First evidence suggest that as its first attachment, the HEV ORF2 capsid protein interacts with heparan sulfate proteoglycans on the cell surface ¹⁴. After binding to a yet unknown receptor, the virion is endocytosed in a clathrin-dependent manner ^{14,15}. Integrin- α 3 has recently been discovered as a putative host factor for the entry of non-enveloped HEV particles ¹⁶. However, the role of Integrin- α 3 for the HEV entry is still poorly understood and additional host factors may be required for HEV entry into the host cell.

The epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) has been demonstrated to be critical for the entry of a number of hepatotropic viruses, including hepatitis B virus (HBV) and hepatitis C virus (HCV)^{17,18}. EGFR is a receptor tyrosine kinase of the ErbB family, which controls cell proliferation, migration, and differentiation ¹⁹. Upon ligand binding to the receptor's extracellular ligand-binding domain, EGFR forms asymmetric homo- and heterodimers with other ErbB family members in which one kinase domain brings the other kinase domain into an active state catalyzing autophosphorylation of multiple tyrosine residues in the C-terminal domain 20-22. Consequently, binding sites for adaptor proteins are

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created initiating the downstream signaling cascade that contains a network of around 200 proteins relaying on the extracellular signal inside the cell²³. After ligand binding, EGFR is internalized by either clathrin-dependent or -independent endocytosis to endosomes and either routed for degradation or recycling ^{24–26}. Several mechanisms by which EGFR can facilitate numerous different viral infections have been described so far, including enabling viral entry into host cells^{27,26}. In the context of HCV infections, EGFR acts as co-factor regulating interactions between the entry receptors CD81 and claudin-1 and the subsequent fusion with host cell membranes in a clathrin-dependent manner ²⁸. In this study, we examined the role of EGFR and its signaling during HEV infection. Through siRNA-

mediated knockdown of EGFR, chemical inhibition and modulation of EGFR by FDA-approved drugs, as well as ectopic expression of the receptor, we identified EGFR as a novel HEV host factor required during viral entry. Additionally, the ability of EGFR modulators to effectively suppress HEV infection in the authentic cell culture models such as HepaRG cells and notably primary human hepatocytes suggested that EGFR also plays a key role during HEV infection. Taken together, our study provides novel insights into the life cycle of HEV and identified a possible target for future anti-viral strategies reyieu against HEV.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture

The human hepatoma cell line HepG2 (ATCC-Nr.: HB-8065) and 293T cells (ATCC-Nr.: CRL-3216) were cultured in Dulbeco's Modified Eagle's Medium (DMEM-high-glucose, Gibco, Cat.Nr. 11965) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (FCS, Capricorn, Lot.Nr. CPC21-4114), 1% (v/v) non-essential amino acids (NEAAs, Gibco, Cat.Nr. 11140050), 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 15140) and 2 mM L-glutamine (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 25030). For virus titration, a HepG2-subclone (HepG2/C3A) was used due to its greater infection efficiencies cultured in Eagle's minimum essential medium (MEM, Gibco, Cat.Nr.11095) supplemented with 10% (v/v) ultra-low IgG-FCS (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 16250-078, Lot 1939770), 100 µg/mL gentamicin (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 15710), 2 mM L-glutamine, 1 mM sodium pyruvate (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 11360) and 1% (v/v) NEAAs. HepG2 and HepG2/C3A cells were grown on rat collagen-coated (SERVA Electrophoresis, Cat.Nr. 47256.01) cell culture dishes. As previously described²⁹, undifferentiated HepaRG cells were cultured in HepaRG growth medium consisting of William's Medium E (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 22551), supplemented with 10% (v/v) FCS, 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, 100 µg/mL gentamicin, 2 mM L-alanyl-L-glutamine dipeptide (GlutaMax, Gibco, Cat.Nr. 35050), 5 µg/mL insulin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat.Nr. 19278) and 50 mM hydrocortisone hemisuccinate (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat.Nr. 1319002). For differentiation, 5×10⁴ HepaRG cells were seeded on 24-well plates and incubated for 14 days, followed by 14 days incubation in HepaRG growth medium supplemented with 1.8% (v/v) dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO Hybri-Max, Sigma-Aldrich, Cat.Nr. D2650). Medium was changed twice a week. Primary human hepatocytes (PHH) were prepared from non-tumorous tissue obtained from freshly resected livers as previously described ^{30,31}. Written informed consent was obtained from all patients, and the study was approved by the institutional review board (Ethics Committee) of the medical faculty at the University Duisburg-Essen. Human biological samples were provided by the Westdeutsche Biobank Essen (WBE, University Hospital Essen, University of Duisburg-Essen, Essen, Germany; approval 18-WBE-048). PHHs were seeded into collagen I-coated culture plates and cultured in William's Medium E supplemented with 5% (v/v) FCS, 1% (v/v) NEAAs, 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL

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2 3	170	streptomycin, 2 mM GlutaMAX, 2% (v/v) DMSO, 10 mM HEPES (Gibco, Cat.Nr. 15630), 5.4 µM
4 5	171	hydrocortisone hemisuccinate, 5.5 ng/mL EGF (human, Med Chem Express, HY-P7109), and 5 µg/mL
6 7	172	insulin. All cells were kept at 37 °C in a 5% (v/v) CO_2 incubator.
8 9 10	173	
11 12	174	
13 14	174	All materials and methods describing virus production and all assays utilized in this study are specified
15 16	175	in the supplementary information.
17 17 18 19 21 22 23 25 26 27 28 20 31 23 34 35 37 38 90 41 23 44 50 51 52 54 55 57 59 60	176	

177 Results

178 EGFR is abundantly expressed in human hepatocytes

Numerous hepatotropic viruses, such as the hepatitis B virus (HBV) and the hepatitis C virus (HCV),
have been shown to exploit the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) during the virus entry
process ^{17,18}. Since very little is known about host factors for hepatitis E virus (HEV), we aimed to
investigate the role of EGFR and its signaling during HEV infections.

To determine the expression of EGFR in hepatocytes, we analyzed single-cell RNA-sequencing data of the human liver cell atlas from nine healthy human donors ³². T-distributed-stochastic-neighborembedding (t-SNE) plots highlighted the mRNA expression of the hepatocyte marker Albumin (Fig. 1A). Similar to reported HEV host factors TSG101 and Rab5, EGFR was highly abundant in clusters of hepatocytes and cholangiocytes (Fig. 1B).

188 Endogenous EGFR is critical for HEV infection

Given that hepatocytes are the main target of HEV during infection, we aimed to address the role of endogenous EGFR upon HEV infection. Therefore, we performed siRNA-mediated knockdown followed by HEV infection in HepG2 cells. The reduction of EGFR protein expression was confirmed via western blot and immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 2A). Next, we infected EGFR knockdown and control HepG2 cells with HEVcc (p6) followed by immunofluorescence and FFU determination. We observed that silencing of EGFR reduced the number of HEV infection events by approximately 50%, demonstrating the significance of endogenous EGFR during HEV infection (Fig. 2B). In order to confirm this data in a more authentic cell culture system, we used induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived hepatocyte like cells (HLCs) and transduced these with short hairpin RNA targeting EGFR (shEGFR), followed by infection with HEVcc (p6). The silencing of EGFR via shEGFR in HLCs was confirmed via western blot (supplementary Fig. S1A). The ratio of ORF2 protein positive (ORF2+) and transduced cells was lowered in shEGFR transduced cells compared to shCtrl cells (supplementary Fig. S1B–C) confirming the crucial role of endogenous EGFR during HEV infection.

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EGFR can be inhibited and modulated by multiple FDA-approved drugs, including Erlotinib (Erlo), an EGFR-specific tyrosine kinase inhibitor, as well as Cetuximab (Cetu), an antibody that competitively binds to the extracellular receptor domain and hinders receptor dimerization, thus impeding signal transduction. We aimed to explore the potential of these molecules as antivirals to combat HEV infection. First, we confirmed the ability of Erlotinib and Cetuximab to inhibit EGFR phosphorylation at the concentrations used in the following assays by immunofluorescence analysis of pEGFR(-1068) in serum starved, EGFR modulator treated HepG2 cells (supplementary Fig. S2). EGF, the cognate ligand of EGFR served as positive control to induce EGFR phosphorylation (supplementary Fig. S2). Subsequently, we infected hepatoblastoma cells with non-enveloped HEVcc of different strains (p6 and 83-2) as well as enveloped HEVcc (p6) in the presence or absence of different EGFR-specific modulators for the whole time of infection (5 days) (Fig. 2C-D and supplementary Fig. S3. Treatment with the FDA-approved, EGFR-specific tyrosine kinase inhibitor Erlotinib resulted in a reduction of HEV p6,83-2 and enveloped p6 infection events by approximately 76%, 99% and 97% respectively. Also, EGF, as well as Cetuximab reduced HEV infection by 43% and 35% (p6), 59% and 69% (83-2) and 70% and 81% (enveloped p6), respectively. Of note, cell viability determined via MTT-assay was not affected by the applied concentration of the different EGFR modulators. In addition, Erlotinib was capable of inhibiting HEVcc p6 infections in a dose-dependent manner (supplementary Fig. S4). These data suggest that perturbation of endogenous EGFR can prevent HEV infection.

Endogenous EGFR is required during HEV entry

To dissect which step of the HEV life cycle is affected upon inhibition of endogenous EGFR, we performed different virological assays evaluating HEV attachment, entry, post-attachment, replication and assembly of progeny viruses in the presence or absence of EGFR modulators.

To evaluate whether endogenous EGFR is critical for the entry process of HEV, HepG2 cells were pretreated with the different modulators followed by infection with HEVcc (p6). The applied drugs and virus inoculum were replaced with fresh medium after 8 h of incubation. Ribavirin (Rbv) was reapplied

to serve as positive control for efficient inhibition of HEV replication. By subsequent FFU counting,
we identified that Erlotinib treatment significantly reduced HEV infection when applied during HEV
inoculation (Fig. 3A), implying that EGFR is critical for the entry process of HEV.

In order to dissect whether the restriction of HEV entry by EGFR modulators was based on restriction of the HEV attachment to the target cells, we incubated modulator-treated HepG2/C3A cells with HEV on ice for 2 h, allowing virus attachment but not cell entry. Here, anti-HEV serum neutralized HEV particles, thus inhibiting the attachment of HEV. Unbound HEV was removed by repeated washing with PBS and cells were either directly lysed for RT-qPCR analysis or incubated for 3 days at 37 °C followed by FFU counting. Thereby, we observed that EGFR modulator treatment did not significantly alter HEV RNA copy numbers (supplementary Fig. S5A) nor the number of FFU per well (Fig. 3B), suggesting that modulation of endogenous EGFR does not influence the attachment of HEV particles.

To address the role of EGFR on post-binding steps of HEV, we conducted a post-attachment assay by inoculating pre-cooled HepG2/C3A cells with HEV on ice for 2 h. Inoculum was removed and cells were treated with EGFR modulators for either 8 h post infection (p.i.) or 3 d p.i.at 37 °C. HEV infection was quantified at 3 d p.i., showing a significant reduction in HEV FFU per well in Erlotinib treated cells during HEV post-attachment for both 8 h as well as 3 d, while Ribavirin treatment reduced HEV infections only when treated for longer than 8 h (Fig. 3C). These data imply that endogenous EGFR modulation affects post-binding steps of HEV.

To circumvent the HEV entry process and address possible effects of EGFR modulators on intracellular life cycle steps, we transfected in vitro transcribed (IVT) HEV-Gluc RNA. Hereby, we utilized the HEV RNA subgenomic replicon (SGR) system, carrying a luciferase reporter, to monitor HEV RNA replication. We detected that EGFR modulator treatment did not affect HEV RNA replication (Fig. 3D). To investigate potential effects of EGFR inhibitors on HEV progeny virus production, IVT full length HEV RNA was electroporated into hepatoblastoma cells. By quantification of progeny virus, we detected similar viral titers in the presence or absence of EGFR modulators (Fig. 3E), implying that EGFR modulators do not affect HEV RNA replication and virus assembly.

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Overall, our data show that endogenous EGFR affects the HEV entry process and has no effect on viralattachment, replication and assembly of progeny virus.

256 Ectopic EGFR expression facilitates HEV infection

To further evaluate the role of EGFR during HEV entry, we generated HepG2 cells ectopically expressing EGFR. After confirming the ectopic expression of EGFR via western blot and immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 4A), we challenged the cells with HEVcc (p6). Thereby, we observed an increase of HEV infection in the presence of EGFR compared to HepG2 empty vector cells (Fig. 4B). By utilizing the HEV RNA SGR and by producing HEVcc in these cells, we further confirmed that ectopically expressed EGFR rather facilitates initiation of HEV infection without affecting HEV RNA replication and progeny virus production (Fig. 4C middle and right panel).

Given that modulation of endogenous EGFR restricted HEV entry, we next asked whether the proviral effect of ectopically expressed EGFR is sensitive to EGFR modulator treatment. Importantly, we identified that the proviral effect of EGFR overexpression could be reversed by applying the EGFR-specific modulators during HEV inoculation (Fig. 4C left panel and D). Similar to the inhibition of endogenous EGFR, we observed that especially Erlotinib restricted HEV infection in these assays. Furthermore, we performed an attachment assay, similar to Fig. 3B, with cells ectopically expressing EGFR and control cells to quantify HEV RNA copy numbers after viral inoculation at 4 °C for 2 h. We detected similar HEV RNA copy numbers in EGFR expressing cells and control cells indicating that EGFR does not affect HEV attachment (supplementary Fig. S5B). Taken together, our obtained data suggest that access to EGFR is a limiting parameter for initiation of HEV infection.

3 274 EGFR facilitates HEV infection independent of its kinase activity

To gain additional insight whether EGFR kinase activity and signaling are relevant for HEV infection and entry, we stably expressed the EGFR mutants EGFR-L858R and EGFR-K745A in HepG2 cells. While a mutation of leucine at the position 858 to arginine leads to a constitutive activation of EGFR kinase, the mutation of lysine 745 to alanine impairs its kinase function (see Fig. 5A)^{33,34}. After confirmation of the ectopic expression of EGFR and its mutants via western blot and

immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 5B–C upper panels), the activity levels of the EGFR kinase domains were evaluated (Fig. 5C middle panel). Therefore, the respective cells were serum starved overnight followed by addition of EGF (16.5 nM or 100 ng/mL) for 15 min. An immunofluorescence staining was performed to determine the phosphorylation status at Tyr1068. While only few pEGFR(1068) signals were observed in the cytoplasm of empty vector cells and cells ectopically expressing the EGFR-K745A mutant, a high abundance of pEGFR(1068) signals was observed in EGFR and EGFR-L858R expressing cells (Fig. 5C middle panel). To demonstrate the ability of the EGFR-L858R mutant to signal even in the absence of ligand binding, we performed immunofluorescence analysis of EGFR's phosphorylation status at Tyr1068 after overnight serum starvation. High abundance of pEGFR(-1068) signals were visible even without ligand induction in EGFR-L858R HepG2 cells, while only very low levels of pEGFR(-1068) signals were visible in EGFR-WT cells (supplementary Fig. S6). Hereby, we validated the constitutively active kinase function of EGFR in EGFR-L858R HepG2 cells, and its inactivation in EGFR-K745A HepG2 cells.

We next tested whether the different EGFR mutants were capable to facilitate HEV infection compared to EGFR wildtype (EGFR-WT). To this end, the respective cell lines were infected with HEV and the HEV infection quantified via immunofluorescence staining. Similar to the EGFR-WT, we detected significantly increased HEV infection in the presence of both EGFR-L858R and EGFR-K745A, compared to empty vector control (Fig. 5B and C lower panels), implying that EGFR facilitates HEV infection independent of its kinase activity. Furthermore, we observed no effect on HEV RNA replication nor on HEV progeny virus production after electroporation of HEV IVT RNA in the presence of the different EGFR mutants (supplementary Fig. S7A-B). In summary, our obtained results suggest that access to EGFR is critical for HEV and facilitates infection independent of its kinase activity.

In order to analyze whether extracellular EGFR interaction plays a role in HEV infection, we utilized
an EGFR mutant lacking its ligand binding domain (EGFRvIII), while obtaining constitutively low
levels of active signaling ³⁵. We first validated the ectopic expression of EGFR-WT and EGFRvIII
mutant in HepG2 cells via western blot and immunofluorescence (Fig. 5D and E upper panels).

Subsequently, we tested whether the EGFRvIII mutant was capable to facilitate HEV infection by infecting the respective cells with HEVcc (p6) and quantification of HEV infection via immunofluorescence. Of note, we observed a significant increase of HEV infection in the presence of EGFR-WT but not in the presence of EGFRvIII compared with empty vector cells suggesting that the lack of the EGF binding domain abolishes the EGFR-mediated proviral effect. Further, we detected no effect on HEV RNA replication nor on HEV progeny virus production after electroporation of HEV IVT RNA in the presence of the different EGFR mutants (supplementary Fig. S7C–D). Taken together, the obtained data imply that the EGFR ligand binding domain plays a crucial role in facilitating HEV infection.

EGFR is critical for HEV entry in HepaRG cells and PHHs

To further validate our findings in a cell culture model exhibiting more characteristics of hepatocytes in vivo, differentiated HepaRG cells were used. HepaRG cells exhibit many key metabolic enzymes and receptors that make them an attractive alternative model for *in vitro* studies and as such have already been extensively used in the study of other hepatotropic viruses ^{36,37}. Therefore, HepaRG cells were differentiated into cholangiocyte- and hepatocyte-like cells ²⁹. Successful differentiation was confirmed via immunofluorescence staining for the hepatocyte marker albumin (Fig. 6A). To address the importance of EGFR in this cell culture system, we infected differentiated HepaRG cells with HEVcc (p6) in the presence of EGFR modulators and subsequently determined ORF2+ cells (Fig. 6B left and C upper panel). We detected that Erlotinib efficiently reduced HEV infection. In contrast to our previous findings in hepatoblastoma cells, EGF increased HEV infection.

To evaluate whether EGFR modulators are capable to restrict HEV entry in primary cells, we pretreated PHHs with EGFR modulators followed by HEVcc (p6) infection. Both, Erlotinib and Cetuximab, reduced HEV infection by approximately 61% and 55%, respectively, when compared to untreated cells (Fig. 6B right and C lower panel), highlighting the potential restriction capacity of EGFR modulators during HEV infection ex vivo. Taken together, these data suggest that EGFR is critical for HEV entry in primary cells and that HEV infection can be restricted by application of EGFR modulators during HEV inoculation.

334 Discussion

Although HEV is an increasing health-burden, knowledge of HEV's pathogenesis and life cycle has been scarce so far. Despite the fact that HEV entry is an appealing target for pharmacological intervention, druggable host factors to prevent HEV entry have yet to be identified^{12,13}. EGFR is a receptor tyrosine kinase and as such involved in cell migration, proliferation and differentiation ^{20,21}. Importantly, EGFR has been found to be a host factor for numerous viruses affecting different life cycle steps. Viruses like severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) ³⁸ and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) ³⁹ among others regulate EGFR expression and recycling, thereby isolating host cells from host-specific signals forcing them to respond solely to viral signals and thus optimizing cellular environments for productive infections. Other viruses, including Influenza A virus (IAV)⁴⁰, rhinoviruses and respiratory syncytial virus (RSV)⁴¹, manipulate EGFR signaling to antagonize viral inflammation and host anti-viral systems. Furthermore, EGFR signaling is utilized for viral entry and replication by remodeling the actin network enabling entry (i.e. human cytomegalovirus [HCM]⁴², Herpes Simplex virus 1 [HSV-1]⁴³), or inducing favorable environments for replication, (i.e. EBV ⁴⁴). Additionally, EGFR's trafficking is exploited by HCV¹⁸ and hepatitis B virus HBV⁴⁵, thereby facilitating cell entry by linking the virus-host cell complex to the endocytic machinery. Finally, EGFR can act as a co-receptor stabilizing virus-host cell complexes or enriching initial or sequential receptors. In this study, we present EGFR as a new host factor for HEV in human hepatocytes.

First of all, we found that endogenous EGFR is abundantly expressed in hepatocytes and cholangiocytes in human liver in vivo (Fig. 1) and plays a role in HEV infections using EGFR-specific siRNA and the EGFR kinase inhibitor Erlotinib (Fig. 2). We were able to confirm EGFR's role in iPSC-derived HLCs via shRNA knockdown. Furthermore, different strains of HEV (p6 and 83-2), as well as non-enveloped and enveloped HEV were significantly affected by EGFR inhibition, albeit to slightly different degrees. Our findings, that ectopic expression of EGFR (Fig. 4) increases HEV infections further implies that EGFR is critical for HEV. To dissect the effect of EGFR in the HEV life cycle, we performed assays specific for each step (Fig. 3). Here, we were able to show that the effect is specific for the entry process, while leaving the attachment, replication and assembly unaltered. We further analyzed the impact of

EGFR kinase activity on HEV infectivity, using a constitutively active kinase mutant and a kinase-dead mutant. Despite Tthe expression of both-the two EGFR mutants, the -constitutively active and the kinase-dead mutant, both facilitateing HEV infections, which implies that an effect of the different kinase function does not affect the HEV life cycle.is not indicated here. However, by deprivation of EGFR's ligand binding domain (EGFRvIII mutant) the proviral effect of EGFR is lost, underlining the crucial role of its ligand binding domain to HEV infection. We therefore suggest that the receptor itself or non-canonical pathways modulate HEV entry. At this stage of understanding, two possible mechanism are likely for EGFR's effect on HEV entry: (1) via utilizing EGFR's trafficking or (2) via EGFR as a co-receptor. For example, EGFR endocytosis and trafficking are hijacked by HBV⁴⁵. There, the EGFR endocytic machinery drives the translocation of HBV-receptor (NTCP)-bound HBV from the cell surface through the endosomal network to late endosomes and lysosomes thus providing an entry mechanism. However, this mechanism is rather unlikely to be the reason for EGFR's effect on HEV entry, since the EGFR modulators and EGFR mutants modulate EGFR trafficking in a different manner but show similar effects ^{46–49} and HEV has been found to be internalized depending on clathrin-mediated endocytosis ¹⁵. For example, while Erlotinib and Cetuximab have been found to induce caveolin-mediated internalization of EGFR, low concentrations (<2 ng/mL) EGF activate EGFR endocytosis in a clathrin-dependent manner. Even in the presence of higher concentrations (100 ng/mL, 16.5 nM) of EGF roughly 60% of the receptor have been reported to be endocytosed clathrin-mediated^{46–49}. Given the differences in the internalization routes of different EGFR variants and the crucial role of EGFR's extracellular ligand-binding domain, as well as the proposed distinct entry mechanisms for enveloped and non-enveloped HEV⁵⁰, we speculate a mechanism that involves EGFR as an entry co-factor. EGFR could either increase the binding avidity to an initial yet unknown receptor or sequential proteins important for the entry of enveloped and non-enveloped HEV's entry. Alternatively, EGFR could associate to or stabilize an initial receptor or sequential proteins. Furthermore, enrichment of an initial receptors important for HEV's entry could be a possible mechanism of EGFR as a co-factor as well. EGFR modulators might lower the surface expression of EGFR or disrupt associations of EGFR with entry receptor(s) of HEV thus decreasing HEV infection ⁴⁶. For instance, the EGFR kinase inhibitor Erlotinib impacts EGFR's localization and other non-signaling

pathways in addition to inhibiting its classical signaling, which causes EGFR to be arrested inside the cell and degraded⁴⁶. Further, EGF can induce EGFR activation and internalization, reducing the surface level of EGFR temporarily ^{24,25}. However, proving the proposed mechanisms is not possible yet, as the main receptor needed for HEV entry has not been identified so far and knowledge on its entry process is scarce^{12,13}, thus limiting available assays.

In conclusion, our study revealed EGFR as a novel host factor for HEV's entry process in hepatoblastoma-cell culture systems and also ex vivo in PHHs, underlining the relevance of this particular factor. EGFR's kinase function and canonical signaling has been found to be of no influence, while EGFR's ligand-binding domain was found to be crucial for the facilitation of HEV infection. Therefore, EGFR is likely an entry co-factor either increasing the binding avidity, stabilizing or associating with initial HEV receptors (or sequential proteins) thus bringing the initial receptor (or sequential proteins) in close proximity. Alternatively, EGFR could augment necessary receptors and thus facilitating viral entry. However, future studies have to address the identification of the initial receptor(s) in order to implement novel assays studying the receptor's specific role. Importantly, EGFR has been identified to play a diverse range of roles in viral infection, its participation in HEV infections therefore broadens its scope and gives not only great advances in the understanding of EGFR's role in viral infections but also substantially expands the scarce knowledge of HEV host factors.

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T.L.B., Y.B., A.G., T.L.M., P.B., D.D., D.T., V.K. and E.S reviewed and edited the original draft.

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581 Figure Legends

Fig.1: EGFR is expressed endogenously in primary human liver cells. (A) T-distributed stochastic neighbor-embedding (t-SNE) plots highlighting mRNA expression of ALB and EGFR across all cells of healthy human liver tissue³². The color of each cell represents the gene expression according to the corresponding legend as log2 value of the expression. Cell type annotation was transferred from Aizarani et al.³² (B) Violin plot showing the normalized expression of proposed HEV host factors EGFR, TSG101 and Rab5. The color code depicts the different cell types present in the dataset.

Fig. 2: Endogenous EGFR is critical for HEV infection. (A) EGFR protein expression in HepG2 cells 48 h post transfection with EGFR-specific siRNAs or non-targeting control siRNA (siCtrl) analyzed via western blot (left) and immunofluorescence (right). (B) HEVcc (p6) infection in HepG2 cells transfected with EGFR-specific siRNAs and control siRNA. Cells were infected with HEVcc (p6) two days post transfection and FFU/well determined after fixation 5 d p.i. Left: Quantification of focus forming units (FFU) of the full well normalized to cells transfected with control siRNA. Right: representative immunofluorescence images stained for ORF2 protein. (C, D) HEVcc p6 non-enveloped and enveloped, as well as 83-2 non-enveloped infection in HepG2 cells under treatment of EGFR modulators Erlotinib (33 µM, Erlo), EGF (16.5 nM) and Cetuximab (34 nM, Cetu) compared to untreated control cells (UTC), while the HEV inhibitor Ribavirin (50 µM, Rbv) served as control. (C) Representative immunofluorescence images stained for ORF2 protein in HEVcc (p6) infected HepG2 cells under EGFR modulator treatment. (D) FFUs/well were counted in HEVcc p6 non-enveloped (left), p6 enveloped (middle) or 83-2 (right) infected HepG2 cells under EGFR modulator treatment and normalized to UTC. To test significance of mean differences, student t-test (B) and one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test (D) were used, p values < 0.05 (*), < 0.01(**), <0.001 (***) and <0.0001 (****), p values >0.05 were considered to be non-significant (ns). All infection experiments were performed in triplicates. Mean and SEM are depicted from at least three independent experiments. Scalebars = $100 \mu m$.

Fig. 3: EGFR has no effect on attachment, replication or assembly but affects the entry process of HEV. (A) Quantification of HEVcc (p6) entry in HepG2 cells under EGFR modulator treatment (Erlotinib (33 µM, Erlo), EGF (16.5 nM) and Cetuximab (34 nM, Cetu) compared to untreated control cells (UTC). Cells were pre-treated for 30 min with EGFR modulators prior to infection with HEVcc (p6) for 8 h under modulator treatment, following a medium change and 5 d infection in medium without virus or treatment. 50 µM of Rby was renewed after the medium change 8 h p.i., hereby serving as control of efficient inhibition. (B) Quantification of HEVcc (p6) attachment under EGFR modulator treatment in FFU/well in HepG2/C3A cells. Cells were pretreated with EGFR modulators for 30 min at 37 °C before addition of virus for 2 h on ice, allowing attachment but not entry. HEV inhibitor Rby served as negative control here and anti-HEV serum (1:200) as positive control neutralizing HEVcc (p6). Cells were washed thrice before incubation without additives for 5 d p.i., (C) Quantification of effects of EGFR modulators on HEVcc post-attachment steps in ORF2 protein positive cells per well in HepG2/C3A cells. Cells were incubated on ice for 30 min before infection with HEVcc (p6) on ice for 2 h. Inoculum was removed and modulator added to the cells for the indicated time (8 h or 3 d) allowing modulation only during post-attachment processes. (D) HEV p6 replication levels in RNA subgenomic replicon (SGR) system at 72 h p.e. in HepG2 cells under modulator treatment. (E) Viral titers of HEVcc (p6) produced after electroporation of HEV Kernow-p6 RNA into HepG2 cells following virus production of HEVcc (p6) under modulator treatment, thereby excluding the HEV HepG2/C3A entry. Titration of progeny virus on cells. To test significance of mean differences, one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test was used, p values < 0.05 (*), < 0.01 (**), < 0.001 (***) and < 0.0001 (***), p values > 0.05 were considered to be non-significant (ns). All assays were performed in triplicates. Mean and SEM are depicted from three independent experiments.

 Fig. 4: Ectopic EGFR expression facilitates HEV infection and is sensitive to EGFR modulators
affecting the HEV entry process. (A) EGFR protein expression in HepG2 cells stably expressing
EGFR (HepG2-EGFR) analyzed via western blot (left) and immunofluorescence (right). Cells

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transduced with an empty vector served as control. (B) HEVcc (p6) infection in HepG2-EGFR cells. Left: Quantification of focus forming units (FFU) of the full well normalized to empty vector expressing cells- Right: Representative immunofluorescence images stained for ORF2 protein. (C) Right: Entry assay of HEVcc (p6) infection in HepG2-EGFR under EGFR modulator treatment (Erlotinib (33 µM, Erlo), EGF (16.5 nM) and Cetuximab (34 nM, Cetu) compared to untreated control cells (UTC), while the HEV inhibitor Ribavirin (50 µM, Rbv) served as control for efficient inhibition. Cells were pre-treatment for 30 min with EGFR modulators prior to infection with HEVcc (p6) for 8 h under modulator treatment, following a medium change and 5 days infection in medium without virus or treatment. Rbv (50 µM) was replenished as it served as control for efficient inhibition. Dashed line indicates level of normalized FFUs/well of untreated empty vector cells. Middle: HEV (p6) replication level in RNA subgenomic replicon (SGR) system 72 h p.e in HepG2-EGFR cells normalized to relative light unit (RLU) levels at 4 h p.e., Right: HepG2-EGFR cells transfected with HEV Kernow-p6 RNA for virus production. Virus titers determined from non-enveloped virus produced in HepG2-EGFR cells. (D) Representative immunofluorescence images stained for ORF2 protein in HEVcc (p6) infected HepG2-EGFR cells under EGFR modulator treatment during entry, corresponding to the left panel of (C). To test significance of mean differences, student t-test (B and C middle and right) and one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test (C left panel) were used, p values < 0.05 (*), <0.01 (**), <0.001 (***) and <0.0001 (****), p values >0.05 were considered to be non-significant (ns). All infection experiments were performed in triplicates. Mean and SEM are depicted from at least three independent experiments. Scalebars = $100 \mu m$.

Fig. 5: Ectopic expression of EGFR mutants indicates no effect of EGFR signaling in HEV infection. (A) Schematic diagram of EGFR (-mutant) domains. JM= Juxtamembrane domain; TM= Transmembrane domain; KD= Kinase domain; RD= Regulatory domain. (B) EGFR protein expression in HepG2 cells ectopically expressing EGFR (-mutants) analyzed via western blot (upper). HEVcc (p6) infection in EGFR (-mutant) ectopically expressing HepG2 cells (lower). Quantification of FFUs/well normalized to cells stably expressing only the empty vector (C) Immunofluorescence analysis of EGFR

protein expression (upper) and EGFR phosphorylation at Tyr1068 after overnight FCS starvation of EGFR (-mutant) ectopically expressing HepG2 cells and challenge with EGF (16.5 nM) for 15 min (middle). Representative fluorescence images of HEVcc (p6) infection in EGFR (-mutant) expressing cells after staining against ORF2 protein (lower). (D) EGFR protein expression HepG2 cells ectopically expressing the EGFR WT or EGFR vIII mutant analyzed via western blot (upper). HEVcc (p6) infection in EGFR (-mutant) ectopically expressing HepG2 cells (lower). Quantification of FFUs/well normalized to cells stably expressing only the empty vector. (E) Immunofluorescence analysis of EGFR protein expression (upper) and representative fluorescence images of HEVcc (p6) infection in EGFR (-mutant) expressing cells after staining against ORF2 protein (lower). Infection experiments were performed in triplicates. To test significance of mean differences, one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test was used, p values < 0.05 (*), < 0.01 (**), < 0.001 (***) and < 0.0001(****), p values >0.05 were considered to be non-significant (ns). Mean and SEM are depicted from three independent experiments. Scalebars = $100 \mu m$.

Fig. 6: The critical entry effect of EGFR was verified in HepaRG cells and primary human hepatocytes (PHHs). (A) Phase contrast and immunofluorescence images of HepaRG cells during differentiation. Yellow arrow indicates hepatocyte-like cells, red arrow cholangiocyte-like cells. (B, C) HEVcc (p6) infection in differentiated HepaRG cells under EGFR modulator treatment during the full infection time of 5 days (Erlotinib (33 µM, Erlo), EGF (16.5 nM) and Cetuximab (34 nM, Cetu) compared to untreated control cells (UTC), while 25 µM of the HEV inhibitor Ribavirin (Rbv) served as control). (B) Quantification of ORF2-positive cells via CellProfiler analysis in percent of all counted DAPI nuclei per image and (C) representative fluorescence images stained against ORF2 protein. (D, E) HEVcc (p6) infection in PHHs under EGFR modulator treatment during the entry of HEV, meaning a 30 min pre-treatment with EGFR modulators prior to infection with HEVcc (p6) for 16 h under modulator treatment, following 3 days incubation time without inoculum or modulators. (D) Quantification of ORF2-positive cells via CellProfiler analysis in percent of all counted DAPI nuclei per image and (E) representative fluorescence images stained against ORF2 protein. Infection

experiments were performed in duplicates with at least ten images taken for analysis per experiment. To test significance of mean differences, one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test (D) was used, p values < 0.05 (*), <0.01 (**), <0.001 (***) and <0.0001 (****), p values >0.05 .s = 100 μm. were considered to be non-significant (ns). Mean and SEM are depicted from two (HepaRG) or four (PHH) independent experiments. Scalebars = $100 \mu m$.







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EGFR-K745A



1	Supplementary Information – HEP-22-1113
2	Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Modulates Hepatitis E Virus Entry in Human Hepatocytes
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4	Jil Alexandra Schrader ¹ , Thomas Leon Burkard ¹ , Yannick Brüggemann ¹ , André Gömer ¹ , Toni Luise
5	Meister ¹ , Rebecca Menhua Fu ^{2,3} , Ann-Kathrin Mehnert ^{2,3} , Viet Loan Dao Thi ^{2,4} , Patrick Behrendt ^{5,6,7} ,
6	David Durantel ⁸ , Ruth Broering ⁹ , Florian W. R. Vondran ¹⁰ , Daniel Todt ^{1,11} , Volker Kinast ^{1,12#} , Eike
7	Steinmann ^{1,113#}
8	
9	¹ Ruhr University Bochum, Institute for Hygiene and Microbiology, Department for Molecular and
10	Medical Virology, Bochum, Germany
11	² Schaller Research Group at Department of Infectious Diseases and Virology, Heidelberg University
12	Hospital, Cluster of Excellence CellNetworks, Heidelberg, Germany
13	³ Heidelberg Biosciences International Graduate School, Heidelberg University, Heidelberg, Germany
14	⁴ German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), Partner Site Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany
15	⁵ TWINCORE Centre for Experimental and Clinical Infection Research, a Joint Venture between the
16	Medical School Hannover (MHH) and the Helmholtz Centre for Infection Research (HZI), Institute
17	for Experimental Virology, Hannover, Germany
18	⁶ Hannover Medical School, Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology and Endocrinology,
19	Hannover, Germany
20	⁷ German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), Partner Site Hannover - Braunschweig, Hannover,
21	Germany
22	⁸ CIRI - Centre International de Recherche en Infectiologie, Univ Lyon, Université Claude Bernard
23	Lyon 1, Inserm, U1111, CNRS, UMR5308, ENS Lyon, Lyon, 69007, France.
24	⁹ University Hospital Essen, University Duisburg-Essen, Department of Gastroenterology, Hepatology
25	and Transplant Medicine, Essen, Germany
26	¹⁰ Hannover Medical School, Department of General, Visceral and Transplant Surgery, Hannover,
27	Germany;

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1 2		
- 3 4	28	¹¹ European Virus Bioinformatics Centre (EVBC), Jena, Germany
5 6	29	¹² Carl von Ossietzky University Oldenburg, Department of Medical Microbiology and Virology,
7 8	30	Oldenburg, Germany
9 10	31	¹³ German Centre for Infection Research (DZIF), External Partner Site, Bochum, Germany
$\begin{array}{c} 11\\ 12\\ 13\\ 14\\ 15\\ 16\\ 17\\ 18\\ 19\\ 20\\ 21\\ 22\\ 23\\ 24\\ 25\\ 26\\ 27\\ 28\\ 29\\ 30\\ 31\\ 32\\ 33\\ 34\\ 35\\ 36\\ 37\\ 38\\ 39\\ 40\\ 41\\ 42\\ 43\\ 44\\ 546\\ 47\\ 48\\ 49\\ 50\\ 51\\ 52\\ 53\\ 54\\ 55\\ 56\\ 57\\ 58\\ 59\\ 60\\ \end{array}$		

32 Material and Methods

33 Hepatocyte-Like Cells (HLCs)

Hepatocyte-like cells were made from induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) as described previously¹
and plated for differentiation on a 48-well plate.

37 Production of Ectopically Expressing Cell Lines via Lentiviral Transduction

For the production of lentiviral particles, 8×10^5 293T cells were seeded on collagen-coated 6-well plates. The following day, the 293T cells were transfected with the plasmids pcz-VSV-G, pCMV-dR8.74 and pWPI-BLR with the respective gene of interest using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Cat. Nr. 11668019) following the manufacturer's instructions. Six hours post transfection, a medium change was done and the lentiviral particles were harvested 48 h and 72 h post transfection by collecting the supernatant and filtering it through a 0.45 µm mesh (Filtropur 0.45, Sarstedt, Cat. Nr. 83.1826) to remove any cell debris. 1×10^5 target cells (HepG2) per well were seeded on a 6-well plate prior to treatment with 4 µg/mL polybrene (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. Nr. TR-1003) and infection with 1 mL of lentiviral particles for 6–8 h. Selection of the transduced cells was started 48 h post transduction using 5 µg/mL blasticidin-S-hydrochlorid (Fisher Bioreagents, Cat. Nr. BP2647) and further maintained in DMEM complete containing blasticidin-S-hydrochlorid. Validation of the ectopic expression was done via western blot and immunofluorescence staining.

51 siRNA-Mediated Knock Down

Knock down of endogenously expressed EGFR was performed using two validated short interfering
RNAs (siRNA, Ambion, ID s564 and s565, Cat. Nr. 4427038) and a control siRNA (Ambion, Silencer
Select, Cat. Nr. 4390843). 0.5 μM each of the siRNA were transfected using Lipofectamine RNAiMax
(Invitrogen, Cat. Nr. 13778) following the manufacturer's instructions. Two days post transfection, the
cells were either subjected to infection assays or lysed for western blot analysis.

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59 shRNA-Induced Knock Down via Adeno-Associated Viral (AAV) Transduction

The sequence of the shRNA targeting EGFR was obtained from Rothenberg et al.²(sequence of shEGFR: GCTGGATGATAGACGCAGATA, sequence of shCtrl: GGTCGTGAACTAATCAGAGGA). The forward strand oligonucleotides were designed by starting with a 5 CACC overhang for cloning using BsmbI, followed by the sense sequence, a connecting 7 nt loop (TCAAGAG) sequence and finally the antisense sequence (targeting sequence). The reverse strand was designed using a 5'AAAA overhang. The shRNA genes were cloned into a self-complementary AAV6 vector under the U6 promoter. Iodixanol purified and recombinant AAVs were produced as described previously³. HLCs were transduced with AAVs three days prior to HEV infection. The inoculum was removed 24 h post transduction. The cells washed once with PBS and fresh HLC culture medium renewed.

In Vitro Transcription and Electroporation

Before in vitro transcription, HEV Kernow-C1-p6-full length and -Gluc plasmid were linearized using MluI (New England Biolabs, Cat. Nr. R3198), while HEV 83-2-containing plasmids were linearized with HindIII (New England Biolabs, Cat. Nr. R3104). In vitro transcribed RNA (IVTs) were produced as described in Todt et al.⁴. IVTs were subsequently transfected into the respective cells using the electroporation technique described in ⁴. Shortly, 5 µg of *in vitro* transcribed RNA were mixed with 5×10^6 cells in 400 µL cytomix containing 2 mM ATP (Cayman Chemical, Cat. Nr. 14498) and 5 mM glutathione (Sigma Aldrich, Cat. Nr. # G4251). After electroporation using the Gene Pulser system (Bio-Rad), cells were immediately transferred to 12.1 mL of DMEM complete and the cell suspension was seeded in respective plates depending on the experiment $(2 \times 10^4 \text{ cells/well seeded in a 96-well plate})$ for luciferase assays, 12.5 mL seeded in a 10 cm dish for virus production).

Production of Cell Culture-Derived HEV Particles (HEV_{CC})

HEVcc (p6 and 83-2) was produced as previously described ⁴. In brief, HEV IVTs were electroporated
into HepG2 cells. Seven days post electroporation, the supernatant containing enveloped HEVcc was
filtered through a 0.45 µm mesh (Filtropur 0.45, Sarstedt, Cat. Nr. 83.1826) and stored at 4 °C for up

to 7 days. To harvest non-enveloped HEVcc, the cells were trypsinized, resuspended in fresh DMEM
complete and lysed via three freeze-thaw cycles in liquid nitrogen. The lysate was cleared from cell
debris by a 10 000×g centrifugation for 10 min and titrated on HepG2/C3A cells to determine viral
titers. Non-enveloped HEVcc was frozen at -80 °C until further usage. Cells were fixed with 3%
paraformaldehyde (PFA, Roth, Cat. Nr. 93351) seven days post infection for immunofluorescence
staining against ORF2 protein and determination of the number of focus forming units (FFU) according
to Todt et al. ⁴.

95 HEV Infection Assays with Non-Enveloped HEVcc

For infection assays, either 3.5×10^3 HepG2(-derived) cells were seeded on collagen-coated 96-well plates, or differentiated HepaRG cells (24-well plate) or PHHs seeded at 5×10^5 cells/well were used (see section *cell culture*). The following day, cells were infected with a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.5–2 or 1×10⁵ FFU per well (HLC). Erlotinib (33 µM, MedChemExpress, Cat. Nr. HY-50896), EGF (16.5 nM, 100 ng/mL, MedChemExpress, Cat. Nr. HY-P7109), Cetuximab (34 nM, MedChemExpress, Cat. Nr. HY-P9905) and Ribavirin (50 µM, Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. Nr. R9644) were applied simultaneously to virus inoculum. A medium change of infected PHHs was performed 16 h post infection (p.i.) to fresh William's medium E with supplements for PHHs, Rbv was reapplied. The medium was changed of infected HLCs at 24 h p.i.. PHHs were fixed 3 d p.i.with 3% PFA and HLCs 7 d p.i.while other assays were fixed 5 d p.i. for immunofluorescence staining of ORF2 protein and determination of FFUs/well or % ORF2 protein positive cells/image section.

108 HEV Infection Assays with Enveloped HEVcc

For infection assays using enveloped HEVcc, either 1×10^4 HepG2/C3A cells were seeded on collagencoated 96-well plates one day prior to infection with 200 µL/well of enveloped HEVcc (MOI 0.02– 0.05). The inoculum was removed 24 h p.i. and fresh MEM complete supplied. The indicated modulators were applied in the inoculum at the time of infection as well as renewed and applied into the fresh MEM complete after the medium change. Cells were fixed 5 d p.i. or immunofluorescence staining of ORF2 protein and determination of FFUs/well.

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115 HEV Attachment Assay

For attachment assays, 1×10^4 HepG2/C3A cells were seeded on collagen-coated 96-well plates. The following day, the cells were pretreated with EGFR modulators for 30 min at 37 °C and the plate then put on ice for 30 min before addition of ice-cold non-enveloped HEVcc(p6) (MOI 1–2) and the tested modulator and incubation for another 2 h on ice. Afterwards, the medium was removed and the cells washed thrice with ice-cold PBS before either the RNA was isolated for qPCR analysis using the RNasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat. Nr. 74104) following manufacturer's instructions or the cells were supplied with fresh MEM complete and incubated for 5 days at 37 °C in a 5% (v/v) CO₂ incubator. The cells were then fixed with 3% PFA and subjected to an immunofluorescence staining of ORF2 protein and determination of FFUs/well as described below.

⁴ 125

126 HEV Postbinding Assay

For postbinding assays, 1×10^4 HepG2/C3A cells were seeded on collagen-coated 96-well plates. The following day, the plate was incubated on ice for 30 min prior to infection with non-enveloped HEVcc p6 (MOI 0.5–2) on ice. The inoculum was left on the cells on ice for 2 h before removal. The cells were washed thrice with ice-cold PBS and fresh medium supplied with the respective modulator was added and the cells incubated at 37 °C in a 5% (v/v) CO₂ incubator for either 8 h or 3 days. The medium was changed at the indicated time and the cells washed with PBS thrice and fresh medium without modulators was added. The cells were then incubated at 37 °C in a 5% (v/v) CO₂ incubator until fixation 3 d p.i. with 3% PFA and subjected to an immunofluorescence staining of ORF2 protein and determination of FFUs/well as described below.

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137 HEV Entry Assay

For entry assays, 3.5×10³ HepG2(-derived) cells were seeded on collagen-coated 96-well plates. The
following day, cells were pretreated for 30 min with the respective modulator before infection with nonenveloped HEVcc (MOI 0.5–2) for 6–8 h. Medium was removed and fresh DMEM complete with
neither virus nor modulator was added except for ribavirin (Rbv), which was added into the fresh

medium again. Cells were incubated for 5 d p.i. before fixation with 3% PFA, immunofluorescencestaining of ORF2 protein and determination of FFUs/well as described below.

145 HEV Luciferase Replication Assays

HEV replication was monitored using a *Gaussia* luciferase (Gluc) construct replacing the ORF2 in the HEV Kernow-C1-p6 genome ⁵. In order to measure the luciferase activity, the respective cells were electroporated with HEV Kernow-p6-Gluc IVTs. 20 μ L of the supernatant were collected at the indicated hours post electroporation (h p.e.) and transferred to a white, flat-bottom microplate (Greiner Bio-One, Cat. Nr. 655074). The supernatant was subsequently incubated with luciferase substrate (1 μ mol/L of coelenterazin in PBS, Carl Roth, Cat. Nr. 4094.3) and luciferase activity was measured in a luminometer (CentroXS3 LB960, Berthold technologies).

154 RT-qPCR

HEV RNA was quantified using a TaqMan® probe (5'-6FAM-TGATTCTCAGCCCTTCGC-BBQ-3')
one step RT-qPCR based on the GoTaq® Probe 1-Step RT-qPCR System (Promega). 50 ng of isolated
RNA were used as template and 5'-GGTGGTTTCTGGGGGTGAC-3' (sense) and 5'AGGGGTTGGTTGGATGAA-3' (antisense) as HEV primers were utilized⁶. An RNA transcript served
as a standard to quantify RNA copy numbers by serial dilution⁴. All RT-qPCR were run on a
LightCycler 480 system (Roche).

³ 161

162 Immunofluorescence Staining and Microscopy

Cells were fixed by applying 3% PFA for at least 10 min followed by permeabilization in 0.1% Triton X-100 (Carl Roth, Cat. Nr. 3051.3) in 1× PBS for 5 min. Subsequently, the cells were blocked in 5% horse serum (Gibco, Cat. Nr. 26050-088) in $1 \times PBS$ for a minimum of 1 h. EGFR expression was stained with a polyclonal goat antibody (R and D Systems, Cat. Nr. AF231. 1:500 in 5% horse-serum), EGFR phosphorylation at Tyr1068 was visualized with monoclonal rabbit antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, Cat. Nr. 3777S, 1:200 in 5 % horse-serum), for staining of albumin polyclonal anti-rabbit antibody (Agilent, Cat. Nr. A0001, 1:500 in 5% horse-serum) was used, and for the capsid protein

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(ORF2 protein) a polyclonal HEV genotype 3 capsid protein-specific rabbit hyperimmune serum (diluted 1:5 000 in 5% horse serum, kindly gifted by Prof. Rainer G. Ulrich, Friedrich Loeffler Institute, Germany ⁷) was used and cells with the respective antibody incubated at 4 $^{\circ}$ C on a rocking shaker overnight. Unbound primary antibody was removed by washing twice with $1 \times PBS$ and the secondary antibody (goat anti-rabbit AlexaFluor 488 or rabbit-anti-goat AlexaFluor 488, 1:1 000 in 5% horse serum, Invitrogen, Cat Nr. A-11008 and A-11078, respectively) was added. After 2 h in the dark on a rocking shaker, the cells were washed twice with $1 \times PBS$ and the DNA labelled with either 4',6'diamidino-2-phenylindole (Invitrogen, Cat. Nr. D1306, DAPI, 1:10,000 in H₂O) for 5 min or Hoechst 33342 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 1:1000 in H₂O). Afterwards, the cells were washed twice with water and stored in water at 4 °C until imaging. All staining steps were performed at room temperature unless otherwise stated. Images of fluorescently stained cells were taken with a Keyence BZX800 microscope with $4\times$, $10\times$ or $20\times$ objectives or with the Zeiss Cell discoverer 7 (CD7) microscope.

Western Blots

For western blot analysis, cells were lysed in either M-Per buffer (Thermo Scientific, Cat. Nr. 78501) supplemented with Pierce Protease Inhibitor Mix (Thermo Scientific, Cat. Nr. A32953) or RIPA buffer containing the cOmplete Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche). Cells were centrifuged at 10 000×g for 15 min, the supernatant then heated at 95°C for 5 min with $1 \times$ Laemmli-Buffer and resolved by SDS-PAGE before being transferred to either nitrocellulose or polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes by wet tank electroblotting. Membranes were blocked with 5% milk in PBS containing 0.05% Tween (PBS-T) for min. 1 h at room temperature and subsequently incubated with primary rabbit monoclonal anti-EGFR antibody (Cell Signaling Technologies, Cat. Nr. 4267S, 1:1000 in 0.5% milk), overnight at 4 °C, followed by incubation with secondary horseradish peroxidase (HRP) conjugated polyclonal goat anti-rabbit antibody (Abcam, Cat. Nr. #ab97051, 1:10 000 or Jackson Immuno Reseach, 1:4 000, in 0.5% milk) for 2 h at room temperature. The primary antibody targeting β -actin (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. Nr. A3854, 1:10 000 in 0.5% milk,) was already conjugated with HRP and was thus incubated for 2 h after blocking. Subsequently, membranes were developed using the Pierce ECL

Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Scientific, 32109) and analyzed using a chemiluminescence
imaging machine (Celvin S 420, Biostep Sarstedt, or INTASELL Chemostar imager).

Cell Viability Assay

To determine the cell viability upon treatment with the different drugs, an MTT (3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) assays was performed. For this, 2.5×10^4 HepG2 cells were seeded on collagen-coated 96-well plates. The following day, cells were treated with the indicated amounts of modulator. Three days post treatment, MTT substrate (Biomol, Cat. Nr. 15655) supplied in DMEM complete medium was added to the cells and incubated at 37 °C in a 5% (v/v) CO₂ incubator for 2 hours or until cells have metabolized the substrate to MTT formazan. The medium was removed, 50 µL DMSO added to each well and the absorbance photometrically measured at 570 nm using the Tecan Sunrise Remote plate reader. Cells treated with 70% ethanol served as background control.

211 scRNA Seq

Single-cell RNA Sequencing data was mined from Aizarani et al.⁸. RNA expression was visualized by T-distributed stochastic neighbor-embedding (t-SNE) plots via the human liver cell atlas webservice (http://human-liver-cell-atlas.ie-freiburg.mpg.de/). Violin plots were computed with in-house R script packages: SingleCellExperiment, Tidyverse, using the following Scater, Scran.

217 Statistical Analysis and Software

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism v9.12 for Windows (La Jolla, CA, USA,
www.graphpad.com). Dose-dependent treatment was plotted and adjusted to a non-linear regression
mode using GraphPad Prism. To test significance of mean differences, either student t-test or one-way
ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test were used, p values < 0.05 (*), <0.01 (**),
<0.001 (***) and <0.0001 (****) were considered statistically significant. p values >0.05 were
considered to be non-significant (ns). For image analysis Fiji-ImageJ (v1.53q) ⁹ and CellProfiler (v.
4.0.7) (www.cellprofiler.org) were used. Graphics were prepared using GraphPad Prism v9.12 for

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2 3 4	225	Windows (La Jolla, CA, USA, www.graphpad.com), Adobe Illustrator v26.0.3 (www.adobe.com) and
5 6	226	BioRender (<u>www.biorender.com</u>).
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228 Supplementary Tables and Figures



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Supplementary Figure S3: Endogenous EGFR is critical for HEV infection. (A) HEVcc p6
enveloped and (B) 83-2 non-enveloped infection in HepG2 cells under treatment of EGFR modulators
Erlotinib (33 µM, Erlo), EGF (16.5 nM) and Cetuximab (34 nM, Cetu) compared to untreated control
cells (UTC), while the HEV inhibitor Ribavirin (50 µM, Rbv) served as control. HEVcc infected cells
were stained against ORF2 protein (indicated in black) and images taken using the 4x magnification of
the Keyence microscope. Images were stitched and processed using Fiji. Full well images are depicted.



Supplementary Figure S4: EGFR kinase inhibitor Erlotinib inhibits HEVcc p6 infection in a dose-dependent manner. Infection with HEvcc p6 under simultaneous treatment of (A) Erlotinib (Erlo) (B) Ribavirin (Rbv) (C) EGF and (D) Cetuximab (Cetu) with the indicated concentrations fixed at 3 d p.i.. FFU/wells (black) normalized to untreated cells. Cell viability (grey) measured using an MTT Assays at 3 days post treatment and normalized to untreated cells. Indicated in red is the concentration used in subsequent infection assays with the specific modulator. All experiments were performed in triplicates. Mean and SEM are depicted from three independent experiments. Dose-dependent treatment was plotted and adjusted to a non-linear regression model.



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2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13	282	EGFR-WT EGFR-L858R
14 15 16	283	Supplementary Figure S6: EGFR-L858R Mutant is constitutively active. Immunofluorescence
17 18	284	analysis of EGFR phosphorylation at Tyr1068 after overnight FCS starvation of EGFR-WT and
19 20 21	285	EGFR.L858R ectopically expressing HepG2 cells. Scalebars = 100μ m.
22 23 24 25 26 27 28 9 30 32 33 4 56 37 89 40 41 42 43 445 46 78 90 51 23 54 55 57 89 60	286	



Supplementary Figure S7: Mutant EGFR expression does not affect HEV RNA replication nor production of progeny virus. (A, C) HEV (p6) replication level in RNA subgenomic replicon (SGR) system 72 h.p.e in mutant EGFR ectopically expressing HepG2 cells normalized to relative light unit (RLU) levels at 4 h.p.e.. (**B**, **D**) Mutant EGFR ectopically expressing HepG2 cells transfected with HEV Kernow-p6 RNA for virus production. Virus titers determined from non-enveloped virus produced in mutant EGFR ectopically expressing HepG2 cells. To test significance of mean differences, student ttest (C and D) and one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's multiple comparison test (A and B) were used, p values < 0.05 (*), <0.01 (**), <0.001 (***) and <0.0001 (****), p values >0.05 were considered to be non-significant (ns). Replication experiments were performed in triplicates (A and C), determination of viral titers was performed in duplicates (B and D). Mean and SEM are depicted from three independent experiments.

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