Chapter 8

Propagation of Chikungunya Virus Using Mosquito Cells

Swee Kim Ang, Shirley Lam, and Justin Jang Hann Chu

Abstract

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) is a mosquito-borne alphavirus that transmits in between a mosquito host vector to a primate host and then back to the mosquito host vector to complete its life cycle. Hence, CHIKV must be able to replicate in both host cellular systems that are genetically and biochemically distinct. The ability to grow and propagate the virus in high titers in the laboratory is fundamentally crucial in order to understand virus replication in different host cellular systems and many other CHIKV research areas. Here, we describe a method on CHIKV propagation using C6/36, a mosquito cell line derived from *Aedes albopictus* in both serum-containing and serum-free media.

Key words CHIKV, Virus propagation, Mosquito cells, C6/36, Serum-free

1 Introduction

Chikungunya virus (CHIKV) is an alphavirus of the *Togaviridae* family. Its genome comprises a single positive-stranded RNA of around 11.8 kb containing a 5′-methylguanylate cap, two open reading frames, and a $3'$ -polyadenylate tail $[1, 2]$. It encodes for four nonstructural proteins (nsP1–4), three structural proteins (C, E1, and E2), and two small peptides (E3 and 6K). CHIKV is maintained in two distinct transmission cycles: a sylvatic cycle that is mainly confined within African countries involving forest-dwelling *Aedes* mosquitoes and nonhuman primates on a smaller epidemic scale [3]; and a human–mosquito–human cycle involving urban mosquitoes *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus* being the transmission vectors during large epidemics $[4]$.

Chikungunya has re-emerged as a disease of global significance following major outbreaks with millions of infections reported since 2005 [5]. Despite causing public health threat globally, there is currently no vaccine or effective therapeutics toward CHIKV infections. Therefore, extensive research to understand CHIKV pathogenesis as well as CHIKV diagnosis and drug development is needed to better control CHIV epidemics. Generation of virus

Justin Jang Hann Chu and Swee Kim Ang (eds.), *Chikungunya Virus: Methods and Protocols*, Methods in Molecular Biology, vol. 1426,DOI 10.1007/978-1-4939-3618-2_8, © Springer Science+Business Media New York 2016

infectious particles in the laboratory is fundamentally essential in many areas of CHIKV research. Since CHIKV is able to replicate both in vertebrate and invertebrate cellular systems that are biochemically and genetically divergent in nature, CHIKV infectivity in different established cell lines derived from mammalian and mosquito origins have been tested $[2, 6]$ $[2, 6]$ $[2, 6]$. Cells in general possess innate defense mechanisms, e.g. type-I interferon response in mammalian cells [7] and RNA interference (RNAi) response in insect cells $[8, 9]$ $[8, 9]$ to suppress virus replication. However, Vero cells (African green monkey kidney epithelia) lacks type-I interferon, making them highly permissive for CHIKV infection and therefore commonly used for CHIKV propagation $[10]$. Similarly, $C6/36$ (a genetically homogenous isolate of Singh's *Aedes albopictus* cells) lacks functional RNAi response [11] where Dcr2 fails to cleave double-stranded viral RNA molecules into small RNA effector molecules which in turn silence complimentary RNA molecules [12]. CHIKV infection in C6/36 only causes mild cytopathic effect (CPE) and apoptosis compared to that of Vero cells $[13]$, making it a better cell line of choice for persistent CHIKV infection to produce higher titer of virus progeny.

In this chapter, we will describe protocols for culturing C6/36 cells, followed by CHIKV infection on the cells for virus propagation in a detailed step-by-step manner. To ensure high virus titer production, tips will be given on the steps that require special attention on the methods described.

2 Materials

3 Methods

- 3. Infect the cells with 1 ml of virus/flask at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of at least 0.1 (*see* **Note 8**). Swirl gently to ensure equal distribution of virus to the cells.
- 4. Incubate the cells at 37 °C for 1.5 h, with gentle swirling at 15 min interval (*see* **Note 9**).
- 5. After 1.5 h, add 9 ml of L15 media supplemented with 2 % heat-inactivated FCS to the flask (see Note 10). Incubate CHIKV-infected cells at 28 °C for 3–5 days until the cells are observed to be unhealthy (*see* **Note 11**).
- 6. Alternatively, to have the virus cultured serum-free, incubate CHIKV-infected cells at 28 °C for 1 day in L15 media supplemented with 2 % heat-inactivated FCS. Then, remove media, wash twice with $1 \times PBS$ and then top up with 10 ml L15 media supplemented with 0.2 % BSA. Incubate for 3–4 days until the cells are observed to be unhealthy.
- 7. Collect viral supernatant from the flasks into a sterile centrifuge tube and centrifuge at $1000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4 °C (*see* Note 12).
- 8. Clarified supernatant containing virus can now be used directly for quantification by viral plaque assays. Alternatively, virus supernatant should be stored as 1 ml aliquots in cryo-preservation tubes at −80 °C (*see* **Note 13**).

4 Notes

- 1. C6/36 cells must be thawed rapidly and completely in a water bath set at the cell's normal growth temperature, i.e. 28 °C. This is to ensure maximal recovery of cell viability upon thawing in the presence of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), which is a cryo-preservant $[14]$. During thawing, ensure cryovials are half-submerged in the water bath to prevent water from leaking in or contaminating screw caps of any loosen vials.
- 2. For adherent cell line like C6/36, it is optimal to have at least 3×10^{4} cells/cm² per flask [14]. The routine sub-culturing ratio of C6/36 cells is 1:5. However for thawing purpose, this ratio can be increased to 1:10 where more media can dilute the toxic effect of DMSO. A higher dilution ratio can also initiate rapid cell growth as some cells might be lost due to damage from thawing.
- 3. This additional centrifuge step removes DMSO in the thawed media which helps in cell recovery.
- 4. Trypsin enables cells to detach from one another and from the substratum by digesting extracellular matrix protein and cell junction proteins, while EDTA disaggregates cells by chelating calcium ions. Excessive trypsinization is detrimental to cell

recovery and may undesirably lead to cell death. Therefore, it is important to use the smallest possible volume of trypsin solution at 0.025–0.05 w/v and the shortest exposure trypsinization time to detach the cells from the flask. Once the cells round up and begin to dislodge from the monolayer, trypsin activity must be inhibited immediately by adding fresh media containing 5–10 % FCS to the cell-trypsin solution [\[15\]](#page-5-0).

- 5. After detachment from a monolayer culture, C6/36 cells have the tendency to form clusters if they are not well-dissociated by pipetting forces. Therefore, it is important to dissociate the clusters into single cells in order for the cells to have better growth and adaptation to the fresh culture environment $[16]$.
- 6. Sufficient cells of at least 80 % confluency is optimal to achieve a high-titer CHIKV progeny since C6/36 cells are able to support persistent CHIKV infection [13, 17].
- 7. Thawing of frozen virus should be performed in water bath set at 37 °C so that the viral supernatant is equilibrated for optimal cell absorption upon adding to the cell monolayer.
- 8. With a MOI of 0.1, the volume of virus (volume from virus stock: L15 media dilution) to add per flask can be calculated by taking the expected cell density of C6/36 cells at the time of confluency divided by the virus titer. If possible, use a higher MOI to allow multiple rounds of CHIKV infection and achieve a culture of higher virus titer.
- 9. Regular swirling of the culture flask allows CHIKV to be welldistributed which helps in virus adsorption to the cell surface.
- 10. Heat-inactivated 2 % FCS is sufficient to maintain cell growth and metabolism so that CHIKV propagation can occur for the next few days.
- 11. Due to the presence of certain host factors in C6/36 cells, these mosquito cells do not exhibit apparent CPE and apoptosis after CHIKV infection [11, [13](#page-5-0)].
- 12. Low-speed centrifugation causes dead cells to pellet down and thus helps to purify the viral supernatant.
- 13. Repeated freeze–thawing should be minimized as this may decrease virus titer.

References

- 1. Khan AH, Morita K, Parquet Md Mdel C, Hasebe F, Mathenge EG, Igarashi A (2002) Complete nucleotide sequence of chikungunya virus and evidence for an internal polyadenylation site. J Gen Virol 83:3075–3084
- 2. Solignat M, Gay B, Higgs S, Briant L, Devaux C (2009) Replication cycle of chikungunya: a

re- emerging arbovirus. Virology 393: 183–197

 3. McIntosh BM, Jupp PG, dos Santos I (1977) Rural epidemic of chikungunya in South Africa with involvement of Aedes (Diceromyia) furcifer (Edwards) and baboons. S Afr J Sci 73:267–269

- 4. Pulmanausahakul R, Roytrakul S, Auewarakul P, Smith DR (2011) Chikungu-nya in Southeast Asia: understanding the emergence and finding solutions. Int J Infect Dis 15:671–676
- 5. Weaver SC, Forrester NL (2015) Chikungunya: evolutionary history and recent epidemic spread. Antiviral Res 120:32–39
- 6. Wikan N, Sakoonwatanyoo P, Ubol S, Yoksan S, Smith DR (2012) Chikungunya virus infection of cell lines: analysis of the East, Central and South African Lineage. PLos One 7(1): e31102
- 7. Her Z, Malleret B, Chan M, Ong EK, Wong SC, Kwek DJ, Tolou H, Lin RT, Tambyah PA, Renia L, Ng LF (2010) Active infection of human blood monocytes by chikungunya virus triggers an innate immune response. J Immunol 184:5903–5913
- 8. Myles KM, Wiley MR, Morazzani EM, Adelman ZN (2008) Alphavirus-derived small RNAs modulate pathogenesis in disease vector mosquitoes. Proc Nat Acad Sci 105:19938–19943
- 9. Myles KM, Morazzani EM, Adelman ZN (2009) Origins of alphavirus-derived small RNAs in mosquitoes. RNA Biol 6:387–391
- 10. Desmyter J, Melnick JL, Rawls WE (1968) Defectiveness of interferon production and of rubella virus interference in a line of African Green Monkey kidney cells (Vero). J Virol 2:955–961
- 11. Brackney DE, Scott JC, Sagawa F, Woodward JE, Miller NA, Schilkey FD, Mudge J, Wilusz J, Olson KE, Blair CD, Ebel GD (2010) C6/36 Aedes albopictus cells have a dysfunctional

antiviral RNA interference response. PLoS Neglect Trop Dis 4(10):e856

- 12. Scott JC, Brackney DE, Campbell CL, Bondu-Hawkins V, Hjelle B, Ebel GD, Olson KE, Blair CD (2010) Comparison of dengue virus type-2-specific smalls from RNA interferencecompetent and –incompetent mosquito cells. PLoS Negl Trop Dis 4(10):e848
- 13. Li YG, Siripanyaphinyo U, Tumkosit U, Noranate N, A-nuegoonpipat A, Tao R, Kurosu T, Ikuta K, Takeda N, Anantapreecha S (2013) Chikungunya virus induces a more moderate cytopathic effect in mosquito cells than in mammalian cells. Intervirology $56(1)$: 6–12
- 14. Morris CB (2007) Cryopreservation of animal and human cell lines. In: Day JG, Stacey GN (eds) Cryopreservation and freeze-drying protocols, methods in molecular biology, vol 368. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, pp 227–236
- 15. Richardson A, Fedoroff S (2009) Tissue culture procedures and tips. In: Doering LC (ed) Protocols for neural cell culture, Springer protocols handbooks. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, pp 375–390
- 16. Morita K, Igarashi A (1989) Suspension culture of *Aedes albopictus* cells for Flavivirus mass production. J Tissue Cult Meth 12(3):35–36
- 17. Tripathi NK, Shrivastava A, Dash PK, Jana AM (2011) Detection of dengue virus. In: Stephenson JR, Warnes A (eds) Diagnostic virology protocols, methods in molecular biology, vol 665. Humana Press, Totowa, NJ, pp 51–64