Cryo-electron tomography of the herpesvirus procapsid reveals

interactions of the portal with the scaffold and a shift on maturation

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<u>Abstract</u>

Herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1) packages its genome via the portal protein, pUL6, a

dodecameric ring at one of the capsid's twelve vertices. While the portal has been visualized in

mature capsids, we aimed to describe it in procapsids to elucidate its role in assembly and

maturation. Using cryo-electron tomography, we compared procapsids and empty mature

capsids (A-capsids) by subtomogram averaging. The portal is located on the interior surface with

its narrower end facing outwards in contact with the capsid shell. The portal is embedded in the

underlying scaffold, consistent with assembly initiating on a portal-scaffold complex. Maturation

involves angularization of the capsid shell, with an accompanying outward movement of the

vertices. In A-capsids, the portal translocates further than the surrounding capsomers, enhancing

and presumably strengthening its contacts with the capsid shell. We also found a density

overlying and offset from the portal vertex corresponding to the expected location of the

terminase, the DNA packaging motor.

Introduction

Members of the *Herpesviridae* family cause persistent infections in humans, ranging from cold sores at the lips and genitals to shingles and tumors. While individual members of this family exhibit differences in pathogenicity and structural details, reflected in their classification into three subfamilies, the overall architecture of these viruses is largely conserved. The large genome of HSV-1, the prototypical representative of *Herpesviridae*, is accommodated in a correspondingly massive and complex capsid. During their elaborate life cycle (Mettenleiter, Klupp, & Granzow, 2009), nascent capsids assemble in the nucleus as spherical precursor particles called procapsids (Newcomb et al., 1996; Newcomb et al., 1999; Newcomb et al., 2000), which conform to T=16 quasi-icosahedral symmetry and contain an internal, non-symmetric, spherical scaffold. The scaffold shell consists of the viral proteins pUL26.5 and pUL26, of which the latter is N-terminally fused to a viral protease (Newcomb et al., 2000). Upon completion of the procapsid, the protease is activated and proceeds to cleave the scaffold, initiating maturation of the capsid. Concomitantly, newly completed particles are packaged with viral DNA, a task carried out by a terminase complex (Adelman, Salmon, & Baines, 2001; al-Kobaisi, Rixon, McDougall, & Preston, 1991; Baines, Poon, Rovnak, & Roizman, 1994; Sheaffer et al., 2001; White, Stow, Patel, Hughes, & Preston, 2003; Yu & Weller, 1998). The insertion of DNA and expulsion of scaffold proteins is accompanied by (I) angularization of the capsid; (II) reorganization of the interactions that engage the triplex proteins as well as rearrangement of capsomers (Aksyuk et al., 2015; Heymann et al., 2003; Trus et al., 1996) from skew to more symmetric orientations; (III) conformational changes (Aksyuk et al., 2015; Heymann et al., 2003; Huet et al., 2016; Newcomb et al., 1996; Trus et al., 1996) that establish interactions between capsomer subunits; and (IV) decoration of the mature capsid with additional proteins (Booy et al., 1994; Trus et al., 1995). Maturation increases the capsid's stability dramatically, countering the internal pressure exerted by the tightly packed genome (Bauer, Huffman, Homa, & Evilevitch, 2013). This process yields three capsid species, two of which remain in the nucleus. The A-capsid has a mature shell that does not contain any DNA and is essentially empty, while B-capsids retain a shrunken and somewhat disordered scaffold despite having matured into an angular shape. Only mature, DNA-filled capsids, called C-capsids, leave the nucleus and do so via the perinuclear

space (reviewed in (Johnson & Baines, 2011; Mettenleiter, Muller, Granzow, & Klupp, 2013)), to

undergo the subsequent steps in the viral life cycle.

Terminase association with the procapsid and DNA insertion occur at a single fivefold vertex of

the particle, which is occupied by a portal complex formed by the protein pUL6 (Newcomb et al.,

2001) and replaces a penton of the major capsid protein, pUL19. Early structural investigations

(Trus et al., 2004) revealed the portal to be a dodecameric ring strikingly similar to structures

found in bacteriophages. In the following years, placement and orientation of this complex in the

context of the capsid have remained elusive. Investigations by cryo electron microscopy (cryo-

EM) were hampered by the fact that the portal accounts for only about 1% of the capsid protein

mass. In addition, unlike in bacteriophages, the vertex housing the portal does not feature a tail

structure and thus is difficult to distinguish in electron micrographs from non-portal-bearing

vertices. A variety of imaging methods were employed, but uncertainty persisted regarding

placement of the portal (Cardone et al., 2007; Rochat et al., 2011; Schmid et al., 2012). This

changed recently, when technological advances in cryo-EM enabled high-resolution

reconstructions of portal-bearing vertices in mature capsids for several herpesviruses (Gong et

al., 2019; Liu, Jih, Dai, Bi, & Zhou, 2019; McElwee, Vijayakrishnan, Rixon, & Bhella, 2018; Wang et

al., 2020). The structures of these end-point assemblies, however, provide limited insight into

the assembly and maturation of capsids in the absence of information on immature particles.

In this study, we have pursued an alternative approach to identifying the portal-related density

in an otherwise symmetric particle – cryo-electron tomography (cryo-ET), coupled with sensitive

particle processing. As a control, we imaged A-capsids, and located the portal on the inside of the

particle with its wider portion facing inwards. We then examined procapsids and found that the

portal engages in abundant contacts with the scaffolding layer. Our reconstructions also show

faint density above the portal-bearing vertex that is consistent with the expected location of the

terminase.

Results

Identification of the portal vertex in cryo-electron tomograms. Our aim was to locate the portal

using cryo-ET to clarify its position during maturation. Tomography has the advantage over single

particle analysis (SPA) of allowing the extraction of 3D particles rather than 2D projections, which

renders the identification of unique features straightforward. Expanding on an earlier

tomographic protocol (Cardone et al., 2007), we added a new program called bico to the existing

Bsoft package (Heymann, Cardone, Winkler, & Steven, 2008). An overview of our workflow is

given in Fig. S1. From reconstructed tomograms, randomly oriented 3D particles are extracted

and aligned to an icosahedral reference, in our case a reconstruction of a HSV-1 C-capsid

(accession number EMDB-7472 (Dai & Zhou, 2018)). Next, the fivefold vertices of each capsid are

extracted, and an average of all extracted and correctly oriented vertices is calculated. For each

set of 12 vertices, bico then compares a masked region in each vertex with this average and,

based on masked cross-correlation, classifies each vertex set into two subsets: the first subset

contains the eleven best-fitting vertices. These vertices will have a high score, because they house

pentons and are therefore closely similar to the average of all vertices. The second subset

contains the vertex with the worst fit, taken to be the portal vertex. The coordinates of the

identified portal vertices are then transferred back into the extracted and aligned capsids, and a

reconstruction of the capsid featuring the portal vertex is calculated. To reduce noise, this

reconstruction is symmetrized fivefold in the final step.

Production of capsid samples using a pUL25-deficient mutant. As a first step, we decided to

analyze mature A-capsids to avoid interference from internal density features such as scaffolding

(cf. B-capsids) or packaged DNA (cf. C-capsids). The established protocol for purifying HSV-1

nucleocapsids from a wild-type infection yields a minor fraction of A-capsids. To increase their

yield, we used a mutant lacking the vertex protein, pUL25, that is defective in DNA packaging

(McNab et al., 1998). This virus replicates in a complementary African Green Monkey cell line

transfected with the UL25 gene, but in wild-type cells cannot produce progeny. In our protocol,

analytical ultracentrifugation on small-scale gradients yielded bands for A-capsids and B-capsids

but no band for the DNA-filled C-capsids (Fig. 1A). We isolated the A-capsid band (hereafter called

UL25-Null A-capsids) and collected tilt series for cryo-ET. Individual capsids were well spread out

in the sample, and almost all capsids could be confirmed as A-capsids from their empty

appearance (Fig. 1B). From these data, we were able to extract a total of 176 UL25-Null A-capsids.

Fig. 1. Preparation of UL25-Null A-capsids. **A.** Analytical small-scale sucrose gradient of capsid

mix obtained during initial purification. Bands of A- and B-capsids are labeled. **B.** Central slice of

a typical tomographic reconstruction for UL25-Null A-capsids. The individual particles are well

defined and separated (turquoise arrowheads). Occasionally, a capsid with some internal

content – probably some scaffold – were found in the field of view (yellow arrowhead). These

particles were not included in further processing. Scale bar, 500 Å.

The portal-bearing vertex of UL25-Null A-capsids. We identified the portal-bearing vertex on

each of these UL25-Null A-capsids and calculated a reconstruction in the context of the capsid

(Fig. 2). In line with recent publications (Liu et al., 2019; McElwee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020),

we located the portal on the inside of the capsid, with its wider end facing towards the center of

the particle (Fig. 2A). A superposed atomic model of the HSV-1 portal (PBD ID 6OD7 (Liu et al.,

2019)) fits into the portal density (Fig. 2B). The portal has a narrow end called the "clip domain"

that engages the triplexes (green arrow in Fig. 2B) and lines the DNA translocation channel. The

widest part of the portal, the "wing domain" extends towards floor of the neighboring capsomers

(blue arrow in Fig. 2B). The overall appearance and placement of this connection is consistent

with a set of β-barrels and spine helices originating from the pUL19 hexons that were identified

earlier in a high-resolution reconstruction (Liu et al., 2019). Knowing what it looks like, we could

identify the portal vertex in individual particles in our tomograms (white arrows in Fig. 2C).

Moreover, we have observed an additional density offset from the outside of the capsid, which

we judge to be too strong to be symmetrized noise (orange arrow in Fig. 2B). This location is

consistent with expectations for the terminase complex, although this density is smaller than in

a recently reported reconstruction (100 Å x 100 Å vs. 225 Å x 100 Å (Y. Yang et al., 2020)). We

expect only residual terminase to be present on UL25-Null A-capsids, because A-capsids have

been reported to retain little of this protein (Sheaffer et al., 2001), and the absence of pUL25 in

our capsids may exacerbate this deficiency. In addition, it has been reported that the terminase

makes contact with capsids (Sheaffer et al., 2001; Yu & Weller, 1998), particularly through pUL6

(White et al., 2003).

Fig. 2. The portal vertex in UL25-Null A-capsids. A. Central slice of the C5-symmetrized capsid

with the portal vertex located at the top. Scale bar, 200 Å. **B.** Magnified view of the vertex. The

portal is located beneath the capsid floor with its wider end facing the inside of the particle. A

high-resolution model (pink, PDB ID 6OD7 (Liu et al., 2019)) is superimposed on the left half of

the portal density. The portal forms connections to the triplex (green arrow) and the capsid

floor (blue arrow). We also observe a faint but definitely present density overlying the vertex

measuring 100 Å at its widest point and 100 Å in height (orange arrow). Scale bar, 100 Å. **C.**

Slices from tomograms of UL25-Null A-capsids that traverse the portal in each (white

arrowheads). Scale bar, 500 Å.

The portal in procapsids interacts with the scaffold. Procapsids were produced using the M100

mutant that lacks the viral protease VP24 required for rapid maturation (Gao et al., 1994). We

followed a gentle purification protocol (Aksyuk et al., 2015) to avoid damage to the particles. For

a successful identification of the portal vertex in procapsids, several precautions were taken:

since procapsids are fragile and malleable, we used an antibody binding to the major capsid

protein (Newcomb et al., 1996) that stabilized the particles. For processing, we selected well-

separated spherical particles (Fig. S2), and we acquired a larger number of particles: 368. The

analysis relies on a mask to isolate the portal density from the rest – we were careful to adjust

the mask so that it excluded the scaffold, which might otherwise outweigh the portal density

during vertex sorting. This procedure allowed us to identify the portal vertex in procapsids

(Fig. 3). As with UL25-Null A-capsids, the portal is oriented towards the inside of the particle (Fig.

3A), again consistent with an atomic portal model (Fig. 3B). The portal penetrates deeply into the

scaffold layer (yellow arrow in Fig. 3B), almost to the widest part of its wing, a position that allows

the formation of extensive interactions. Interestingly, the nominally spherical scaffold shows a

degree of perturbation caused by the portal, giving the scaffold an overall teardrop shape

(Fig. 3A). We also note that – apart from in the portal region - the scaffold shell shows up in slices

as three concentric rings (arrows in Fig. 3A) and conclude that the scaffold protein pUL26.5 is an

elongated molecule consisting of three domains plus a thin linker not visualized here that

connects it to the capsid shell. Only tenuous contacts (blue arrow in Fig. 3B) are formed between

the portal and the surrounding hexons, but the wing domain appears to interact with the

triplexes (green arrow in Fig. 3B). The vertex overall has a funnel-like shape that likely

accommodates DNA insertion by the terminase complex. As with the A-capsid, we detect a

density overlying the vertex (orange arrow in Fig. 3B), albeit much fainter in this case, despite an

earlier report that isolated procapsids contain more of the terminase than A-capsids (Sheaffer et

al., 2001). Indeed, it makes sense that this complex should mostly occupy procapsids in order to

fill them with viral DNA. Finally, the procapsid hexons also display faint residual density on their

exterior parts (Fig. 4B; see also faint density decorating capsomers in Fig. 3A) that we attribute

to the 6F10 antibody used to stabilize the procapsids during isolation (see Methodology)).

➡ **Capsid**   ➡ **Triplex**   ➡ **Scaffold**   ➡ **Terminase**

Fig. 3. The portal vertex in procapsids. A. Central slice of the C5-symmetrized procapsid with

the portal vertex at the top and showing distinct rings of scaffold density (yellow arrows). Scale

bar, 200 Å. **B.** Magnified view of the portal vertex with a superimposed atomic model (pink,

PDB ID 6OD7 (Liu et al., 2019)). The portal is mainly connected to the capsid through the triplex

(green arrow) with a thin connection to the capsid floor (blue arrow). The bottom of the portal

is embedded in the scaffold (yellow arrow). As in UL25-Null A-capsids (Figure 2), we observe a

faint density over the portal vertex (orange arrow). Scale bar, 100 Å.

Conformational changes and movement of the portal during maturation. While the portal

orientation is similar in procapsids and UL25-Null A-capsids, contrasts in vertex configuration

come to light in a side-by-side comparison (Fig. 4A). Upon maturation, the capsid becomes

angular, causing the vertex itself to jut out. This movement involves an outward shift of about 32

Å for the hexons, as well as the angles between the capsid line and the fivefold vertex becoming

more acute. We also notice a strongly defined, linear density on the bottom of the UL25-Null A-

capsid shell, which is most likely the established capsid floor that conveys capsid stability (Huet

et al., 2016) (see also Fig. 2B). Strikingly, while the capsomers move by about 32 Å, the portal

itself shifts axially by about 61 Å (Fig. 4A). This increment of about 30 Å is accompanied by an

establishment of contacts with the capsid floor, as described above.

We also observe a shift in the triplex network surrounding the portal vertex, which narrows the

vertex channel. These changes become even more apparent when the vertices are viewed from

the top (Fig. 4B). While triplexes are somewhat weakly defined in the procapsid portal vertex,

they become much more visible in the UL25-Null A-capsid and even extend towards the fivefold

symmetry axis. It is possible that some of this extending density could be ascribed to components

of the tegument, particularly pUL17. We recall that, upon maturation, the hexons rearrange from

a skewed orientation to true hexameric symmetry (Aksyuk et al., 2015).

We also compared the triplexes of the portal vertex with those of the opposing penton vertex in

both maps. The triplexes in the procapsid portal vertex are poorly defined (Fig. 5A) making it hard

to ascertain whether they are in the same orientation as those at the opposing penton vertex

(Fig. 5B). In contrast, the orientation of the triplexes is clearly the same for both vertices in the

UL25-Null A-capsid (Fig. 5C,D).

Fig. 4. Comparison of portal vertices in procapsid and UL25-Null A-capsid. A. Segmented

isosurface renderings of the two vertices, reconstructed at the same distance from their capsid

centers. Angularization during maturation translocates the hexons surrounding the vertex by

~32 Å, while the portal shifts ~61 Å, tightening its interactions with the surrounding capsomers.

B. Top view comparisons of the isosurface renderings (offset portal densities omitted for

clarity). The portals themselves (orange) face away from the viewer. Upon maturation, the

triplex networks surrounding the vertex shift and constrict the vertex channel, and the hexons

transform from skewed ovals towards hexagonal symmetry. The faint extraneous density

associated with the hexons can be attributed to the 6F10 antibody used in the preparation of

the particles (green arrow). Scale bars, 100 Å.

Fig. 5. The arrangement of triplexes at the vertices. The triplexes (yellow stars) at the procapsid portal vertex (**A**) are recessed relative to those at the opposite penton vertex (**B**) (slices at a radius of 307 Å). In contrast, the triplexes at the UL25 Null A-capsid portal vertex (**C**) are closer to conformation of those at the opposite penton vertex (**D**) (slices at a radius of 325 Å). Note that the vertices in the procapsid move outwards by ~20 Å on maturation, accounting for the differences in slices shown here. Scale bars, 100 Å.

Discussion

Localization and interactions of the portal in A-capsids and procapsids. In a critical step of the HSV-1 life cycle, newly synthesized DNA is fed into the capsid which undergoes extensive conformational changes as it matures (Aksyuk et al., 2015; Heymann et al., 2003) although this process can occur without DNA packaging (Heymann et al., 2003) and may precede DNA packaging *in vivo* (Church & Wilson, 1997). In both herpesviruses and tailed bacteriophages, DNA is inserted through a single fivefold vertex via the dodecameric portal protein. While the overall structure of the HSV-1 portal, pUL6, has been known for some time (Trus et al., 2004), its orientation and placement in the context of the capsid shell have been subject to debate. The portal's overall shape makes it difficult to distinguish visually from capsomer pentons in

micrographs, making consistent alignment of 2D projections a challenge. In an earlier study, we

used cryo-ET, aiming to characterize the portal vertex of HSV-1 (Cardone et al., 2007). Here, we

have refined this approach by developing a new program designed to identify the portal vertex

on individual capsids, thereby allowing coherent averaging. Applying it to HSV-1 A-capsids, we

located the portal on the inside of the particle, consistent with several recent SPA-based studies

(Gong et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; McElwee et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020). In confirmation, an

atomic model of pUL6 (Liu et al., 2019) fits well into our portal density (Fig. 6). This density

extends beyond the clip domain of the model, presumably representing some of residues 308-

515 not modeled (corresponding residues are also unmodeled in a reconstruction of the Epstein-

Barr-virus portal (Machon et al., 2019)). Interestingly, a corresponding turret-shaped density was

discovered in the portal vertex of Kaposi's Sarcoma Herpesvirus (KSHV) (Gong et al., 2019); it was

theorized that this helical turret is an extension of the portal's clip domain and could be a docking

site for the terminase complex. We do not observe any funnel-like arrangement of α-helices that

was described in HSV-1 virion capsids (Liu et al., 2019; McElwee et al., 2018). If such a component

is indeed an additional protein, it may only be added to mature particles upon the successful

retention of DNA.

Fig 6. **The model of the portal within the context of the procapsid portal vertex. A.** The portal

model (PDB ID 6OD7 (Liu et al., 2019)) fitted into the portal density (orange) within a lower

threshold envelope (grey) to show the connections to the triplexes (green) and the scaffold

(yellow). The connections to the capsid shell (blue) are not resolved in this map. Scale bar, 100

Å. **B.** Close-up view of the portal with key tryptophan residues (yellow) at the wing (orange

arrow: W163, W241, W262, W532) and at the bottom (blue arrow: W90, W127) that were

shown to interact with the scaffold (K. Yang & Baines, 2009b).

Applying our workflow to procapsids revealed several novel observations. The procapsid portal

is located inside the vertex forming contacts with the scaffolding shell and disrupts the scaffold

proteins' spherical arrangement at the interaction site. Conserved tryptophan residues have

been identified in HSV-1 pUL6 ((K. Yang & Baines, 2009b), see also Fig. 2 in (Dedeo, Cingolani, &

Teschke, 2019)) that play crucial roles in interaction between portal and, most likely, conserved

pUL26.5 residues 143-151, particularly YYPGE (Singer, Newcomb, Thomsen, Homa, & Brown,

2005; K. Yang & Baines, 2009a). Figure 6B shows these critical tryptophan residues locate in the

wing domain as well as towards the bottom. We know the scaffold C-terminus is bound to the

capsid which puts it in the proximity of the portal wing domain. Conserved tryptophan residues

are a feature not only of HSV-1 but also of some bacteriophages ((Guasch et al., 2002), reviewed

in (Dedeo et al., 2019)). The extensive and presumably strong interactions observed here support

the hypothesis that a complex of portal plus scaffolding protein serves as the nucleation point

for procapsid assembly, to be followed by the addition of protomers, each consisting of a triplex

surrounded by three copies of the major capsid protein with three scaffolding protein dimers

(Aksyuk et al., 2015). The scaffold presumably shares the symmetry of the surface shell with

which it co-assembles but is not highly ordered and its sphericity is enhanced by averaging. In it,

we see three concentric shells (Fig. 3), consistent with a previously observed structure and model

of a scaffold dimer (see Fig. 6B in (Aksyuk et al., 2015)).

The portal shifts axially upon particle maturation. One noteworthy finding from comparing the

portal vertices of UL25-Null A-capsids and procapsids is the axial shift of the portal upon

maturation. Angularization of the maturing capsid causes the entire vertex to shift by ~32 Å and

the portal by ~61 Å. This movement is accompanied by the establishment of a support network

with the newly established capsid floor (termed suspension network in an earlier study (Liu et al.,

2019)). While we did not analyze C-capsids, we suspect that DNA packaging, a process that

generates substantial internal pressure in the capsid may push the portal outwards enabling the

establishment of the portal suspension network and making it "click" into a more stable

configuration, which, in turn, may also play a role in releasing viral DNA into the nucleus as the

virus infects a new cell. Of note, an axial shift of the portal has also been observed in HSV-2,

where B-capsids were compared to virion capsids (Wang et al., 2020). Although equating HSV-1

and HSV-2 warrants caution, this movement is consistent with our observations.

Morphological changes of the particle upon maturation. The overall shape of the portal vertex

differs significantly between procapsids and mature capsids (Fig. 4). In procapsids, we note that

the center of the vertex is essentially open, which would, in a biological context, be advantageous

for the insertion of DNA. Triplex density is present around the portal vertex, but it is somewhat

fainter than around a penton vertex, which could result from a lack of interaction between the

portal and the procapsid itself. In the mature capsid, the vertex is narrower, and it appears that

density originating at the triplexes extends towards the vertex axis. This extended density may

indeed be contributed by components of the tegument, particularly pUL17. While our A-capsids

lack pUL25, it has been shown that procapsids contain practically no pUL25 (Sheaffer et al., 2001),

and given that the procapsid undergoes substantial conformational changes during maturation,

it is likely that no tegument component protein is present on these immature particles. The

extended, star-shaped density we see on the UL25-Null A-capsid portal vertex (Fig. 4B) may

therefore act as a docking platform for copies of pUL25 that would be added in the course of a

wild type infection and α-helices contributed by pUL36 at a later stage. This platform, however,

is evidently insufficient to retain DNA in the capsid, as the absence of pUL25 alone is enough to

completely prevent the emergence of propagation-competent, DNA-filled C-capsids (McNab et

al., 1998), underscoring pUL25's functional versatility as a DNA retention protein and a key player

in nuclear egress as well (Draganova, Zhang, Zhou, & Heldwein, 2020).

Presence of putative terminase density at the portal vertices. Our reconstructions revealed faint

density offset from the portal vertex. We originally observed this density associated with UL25-

Null A-capsids, prompting us to suspect that it may be ascribed to the terminase complex. This

complex has been found to still be associated with A-capsids in relatively low amounts (Sheaffer

et al., 2001), but the dimensions we could measure at our resolution are at odds with a recently

reported reconstruction of the complex (Y. Yang et al., 2020). This could be due to A-capsids

carrying only residual terminase density and that part of the complex was sheared off in the

preparation process of our UL25-Null A-capsids. The absence of pUL25 may have further

contributed to reduced terminase presence. This putative terminase density was only very faintly

present in procapsids, even though they should display a stronger occupancy than any other

capsid type (Sheaffer et al., 2001). Our preparation protocol (Aksyuk et al., 2015) involves

numerous filtration steps that may have detached the terminase from many procapsids.

Additional experiments such as antibody labeling are needed to confirm the identity of this

density, but its location is consistent with where we would expect terminase to dock onto the

procapsid. At this location, the complex would have easy access to the outermost parts of the

portal's clip domain to form interactions (White et al., 2003), and the funnel-like overall shape of

the procapsid's portal vertex shown here could easily accommodate the insertion of DNA, while

the narrower topography of the mature capsid's vertex could facilitate rapid genome ejection.

In conclusion, our routine for processing cryo electron tomograms enabled us to visualize the

portal in mature HSV-1 capsids and in procapsids, revealing not only interactions of scaffold with

the portal but also rearrangement of the portal vertex upon maturation. We also gained insights

into the intricate maturation-induced changes in the portal vertex.

Material and Methods

Cell handling and propagation of virus stocks. Stocks of the UL25 deletion mutant (UL25-null)

(McNab et al., 1998) were generated by using a complementary African Green Monkey cell line

(both gifts from Prof. Fred L. Homa, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA). At roughly 75%

confluency, monolayers in 175 cm^2 flasks were infected with virus stock at a MOI of 0.1 in 1 mL

of PBS without calcium or magnesium per flask for 40 min at room temperature, followed by 5

min at 37˚C. The cells were then overlaid with 15 mL virus growth medium (1x MEM Alpha,

Corning, 1.5% (*v/v*) penicillin/streptomycin) and incubated at 37˚C. At 48 h post infection, virus-

containing medium was clarified by centrifugation at 1,500 rpm for 5 min, and crude cell debris

was removed from the supernatant by pelleting at 6,000 rpm for 15 min in a Beckman SW28

rotor. Virus was pelleted for 45 min at 19,000 rpm in a Beckman SW28 rotor. The virus pellets

were resuspended in small volumes of PBS without calcium or magnesium, and aliquots of 500

µL were frozen at -80˚C. The virus titer was assessed in complementary cells 48 hr. after infection.

Stocks of the procapsid-producing M100 line (Gao et al., 1994) were generated similarly using

the complementary F-3 cell line. Stock titers were assessed as described earlier (Aksyuk et al.,

2015).

Production of capsids. Roller bottles of African Green Monkey cells were grown to about 75%

confluency and infected with UL25-null virus stocks at a MOI of 10. 14 hr post infection, cells had

started to round up, but not detach from the surface. Cells were harvested by centrifugation at

1,500 rpm for 5 min, and any virus still attached to the cell surface was removed by incubation

with TNE (20 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) on ice for 15 min. Cells were again

pelleted for 5 min at 2,000 rpm, resuspended in TNE, and broken up by sonication. 1.5% (*v/v*)

TX-100 was added to solubilize nuclear membranes, followed by pelleting of crude cell debris for

30 min at 6,000 rpm in a Beckman SW28 rotor. The resulting supernatant was supplemented with

a cushion of 30% (*w/v*) sucrose in TNE, and a mix of A- and B-capsids was pelleted for 1 h at

20,000 rpm in a Beckman SW28 rotor. The pellets were resuspended in TNE, supplemented with

complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche), and applied to a preparative gradient containing a

range of 20-50% (*w/v*) sucrose in TNE. The gradient was run for 1 h at 22,000 rpm in a Beckman

SW55Ti rotor. Distinct bands containing the different capsid species were isolated, pelleted for

50 min at 22,000 rpm in a Beckman SW55Ti rotor, and resuspended in small amounts of TNE to

reach an appropriate concentration for cryo-ET.

Procapsids were produced as described earlier (Aksyuk et al., 2015). They were precipitated with

an antibody reacting to pUL19 for purification and capsid stability purposes (Newcomb et al.,

2000).

Grid preparation and cryo-electron tomography. Procapsids stabilized by the pUL19 antibody

and UL25-null A-capsids were mixed with Aurion Anionic 10 nm BSA gold tracers (EMS) at a 1:1

ratio, and 3 μL were applied to Quantifoil copper grids covered with 300-mesh holey carbon

(EMS), which were previously plasma-cleaned for 12 s with an argon-oxygen mixture (25%

oxygen) in a Model 1020 plasma cleaner (Fischione, Export, PA). Using a Leica EM GP

plunger (Leica Microsystems Inc., Buffalo Grove, IL), excess liquid was blotted off for 2.5 s, and

grids were flash-frozen in liquid ethane. For the UL25-null A-capsids, 21 tilt series ranging from -

57˚ to +57˚ at 3˚ increments were collected at 20,000 x magnification and a defocus target of -

2.5 μm on a JEOL JEM-2200FS cryo-electron microscope operating at 200 kV and equipped with

an in-column energy filter and a K2 Summit detector (Gatan, Warrendale, PA). For procapsids, 80

tilt series ranging from -57˚ to +57˚ at 3˚ increments at 81,000x magnification and a -2 μm defocus

target were acquired on a 300 kV Titan Krios (Thermo Scientific, FEI, Hillsboro, OR) equipped with

a post-column Model 967 GIF Quantum-LS with a K2 Summit detector (Gatan, Warrendale, PA).

In both cases, data were acquired using SerialEM (Mastronarde, 2005).

Tomogram reconstruction and identification of the portal-bearing vertex. Image processing and

tomogram reconstruction were carried out using Bsoft (Heymann et al., 2008). Tomograms were

binned 2-fold, resulting in a final pixel size of 3.66 Å for UL25-null A-capsids and 3.61 Å for

procapsids. For both capsids, promising particles were extracted in 450 x 450 x 450 pixel boxes

and aligned to a reference of a HSV-1 C-capsid (Dai & Zhou, 2018). 12 vertices per capsid were

extracted in 150 x 150 x 150 pixel boxes centered 140 pixels outward from the center of the

particle on the fivefold symmetry axes. Using the new Bsoft program, bico, for each set of 12

vertices, the masked cross-correlation against an average calculated from all vertices was

calculated, and the vertex with the lowest correlation was deemed the portal-bearing vertex. To

address the symmetry mismatch between the fivefold vertex and the twelvefold portal, the best

orientation of the portal-bearing vertices was found and refined using bico, followed by

transferring the coordinates of the portal-bearing vertices back into the extracted capsids. From

this, reconstructions of the whole capsids containing the portal-bearing vertex were calculated.

Graphics were prepared using PyMOL (Schrodinger, 2015) and UCSF Chimera (Pettersen et al.,

2004).

Data Availability:

Maps for the UL25-Null A-capsid and the procapsid, both showing the portal vertex, were deposited in the Electron Microscopy Database under accession numbers EMDB-22378 and EMDB-22379, respectively.

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Competing Interests:

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Supplementary material

Fig. S1. General workflow used to identify and average the portal vertices. Individual particles in
random orientations are extracted from tomograms and aligned with an icosahedral reference
[30]. The twelve vertices of each particle were extracted, aligned, and each vertex was then
compared to the average of all extracted vertices, calculating the correlation within a mask
centered around the expected portal location (cyan dashed line). The vertex with the lowest
correlation was taken to be the portal vertex. Its positional coordinates were then used to
transform that whole capsid into an orientation that placed the portal vertex on the same five-
fold axis to allow C5 symmetrization.

Fig. S2. Central slice of a tomographic reconstruction of procapsids. Some particles contained

visibly degraded scaffold or showed imperfections (red arrowheads) and were excluded from

further processing. We took care to include only particles that were separated, spherical, and

had a visibly intact scaffold (turquoise arrowheads). The procapsid at the bottom of this field is

located at a different height making it appear smaller than the other particles. Scale bar, 500 Å.