Running Title: 4.4 Å structure of *Marseilleviridae*

The 4.4 Å structure of the giant Melbournevirus virion belonging to the

***Marseilleviridae* family**

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Summary

Members of *Marseilleviridae*, one family of icosahedral giant viruses classified in 2012 have

been identified worldwide in all types of environments. The virion shows a characteristic internal

membrane extrusion at the five-fold vertices of the capsid, but its structural details need to be

elucidated. We now report the 4.4 Å cryo-electron microscopy structure of the Melbournevirus

capsid. An atomic model of the major capsid protein (MCP) shows a unique cup structure on the

trimer that accommodates additional proteins. A polyalanine model of the penton base protein

shows internally extended N- and C-terminals, which indirectly connect to the internal

membrane extrusion. The Marseilleviruses share the same orientational organisation of the

MCPs as PBCV-1 and CroV, but do not appear to possess a protein akin to the "tape measure" of

these viruses. Minor capsid proteins named PC-β, zipper, and scaffold are proposed to control

the dimensions of the capsid during assembly.

Keywords: cryo-electron microscopy; giant virus; NCLDV; single particle analysis; major

capsid protein

Introduction

Members of the *Marseilleviridae* family belonging to the nucleo-cytoplasmic large DNA viruses (NCLDVs) (Brandes and Linial, 2019) infect Acanthamoeba (Colson et al., 2013), and present a highly complex ~360 kbp genome and icosahedral capsid with a diameter of ~250 nm. The superfamily of NCLDVs was initially proposed by Iyer et al. (Iyer et al., 2001) and currently consist of nine families and several subfamilies of viruses (Subramaniam et al., 2020). According to ICTY classification, the members of the *Nucleocytoviricota* realm (PMID: 31187277) are restricted to seven families of giant viruses possessing double-stranded DNA and targeting a wide range of eukaryotic hosts. Since the first discovery of Marseillevirus in 2009 (Boyer et al., 2009), the *Marseilleviridae* has expanded to more than 10 members and classified into five lineages, A to E (Aoki et al., 2019; Fabre et al., 2017). Members of *Marseilleviridae* have been found in some human patients, but their link with a particular disease is yet to be identified (Aherfi et al., 2016; Kutikhin et al., 2014).

Melbournevirus is a member of the *Marseilleviridae* isolated from a freshwater pond in Melbourne, Australia in 2014 (Doutre et al., 2014). It shares common genomic and structural features with the other members of the family and classifies into lineage A. The first cryo-EM structure was reported at 26 Å resolution by using a 200 kV microscope (Okamoto et al., 2018), revealing the major capsid protein (MCP) array and a triangulation number of the icosahedral capsid as T=309. In addition, characteristic morphological features of Melbournevirus capsids were elucidated such as an extrusion of the internal membrane at the five-fold vertices of the

capsid and a nucleoid containing a large density body, the nature of which has not yet been

elucidated.

The sub-nanometer resolution structure of tokyovirus, one member of the *Marseilleviridae*, has

been reported using high voltage cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-HVEM) (Chihara et al., 2021).

The map did not reach a high enough resolution to be able to build *de novo* the structures of the

various minor capsid proteins (mCPs) and only allowed a semi-fitted model for the MCP and a

hypothetical fit of the PBCV-1 penton protein (Chihara et al., 2021). However, manual data

collection with the HVEM microscope restricted the number of images collected, and the current

resolution is limited to ~8 Å after using a capsid-focussed mask. The tokyovirus cryo-EM map

elucidated the novel capsid protein network of the giant virus including the scaffold proteins

which could assist in the formation of the characteristic internal membrane extrusion at the five-

fold vertices of the capsid and function in a similar manner to a tape measure protein (Xian et al.,

2020). Furthermore, it suggested a glycosylated cap protein was sitting on the MCP trimer

(Chihara et al., 2021).

High resolution cryo-EM maps of the giant viruses have been reported in three structures

exceeding 5 Å resolution: 3.5 Å for PBCV-1 (Fang et al., 2019), 4.6 Å and 4.8 Å for African

swine fever virus (ASFV) (Liu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). These structures utilised 300 kV

microscopes and were reconstructed with a technique termed "block based" reconstruction (Zhu

et al., 2018) to improve obtained resolutions. Leveraging the high symmetry of icosahedral

viruses, this technique can decrease the size of boxes necessary for 3D reconstruction and allow

localized defocus refinement across the particle. For all objects >150 nm, this defocus gradient is

considerable and has a negative impact on the attainable resolution. Consequently, they

successfully constructed the atomic structures of the MCP and several mCPs in PBCV-1 and

ASFV. In PBCV-1, the structures of 13 different types of mCP were identified in addition to the

MCP (Fang et al. 2019), while in ASFV, the structures of four mCPs were determined in

addition to the MCP (Liu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019).

Here, we report the structure of Melbournevirus to 4.9 Å for the whole particle, with only 3,124

particle images, and a maximum resolution of 4.42 Å obtained on the acquired dataset for the

five-fold, three-fold and two-fold "blocks", using symmetry expansion, recentring and defocus

refinement. This is functionally the same as block-based reconstruction (Zhu et al., 2018) which

has been applied to the study of other giant viruses but operates entirely within the RELION

(Fernandez-Leiro and Scheres, 2017; Scheres, 2012; Zivanov et al., 2018; Zivanov et al., 2020)

processing suite. The capsid, particularly in the block-based reconstructions, permits clearer

views of the complex lattice of capsid proteins. While the hard limit of resolution in this data

makes residue identification difficult, poly-alanine chain models could be created in some cases.

An atomic model of the MCP, and a polyalanine model of the penton base protein which has no

identified polypeptide sequence were built and compared with other giant viruses reported

previously. The Marseilleviruses share the same orientational organisation of the major capsid

proteins as PBCV-1 and CroV, but do not appear to possess a protein akin to the "tape measure"

of these viruses, and the internal scaffold array does not extend to the pentasymmetron. This

means some other mechanism to control the dimensions of the capsid during assembly, possibly

utilising the PC-β, zippers, and scaffold proteins in concert, is required. These differences

demonstrate the variety and biological flexibility of the giant viruses, while simultaneously

utilising similar strategies for some critical features. The cryo-EM map of Melbournevirion

provides clearer views of the complex lattice of the capsid, and the molecular interactions

between capsid proteins, revealing the functional viral capsid network.

Results

The structure of Melbournevirus

The image processing flowchart and the dataset collection details of the whole-virion 3D

reconstruction is shown in Fig. S1 and Table 1. Briefly, 3,367 micrograph movies of ice

embedded Melbournevirions, in two independently collected datasets, consisting of 20 and 40

frames per micrograph respectively, were collected with a 300 kV Titan Krios (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) microscope using automated image acquisition software. The image data were

processed in the RELION 3.1 suite (Zivanov et al., 2018; Zivanov et al., 2020) throughout, as

described in Methods. Using Ewald sphere correction, a 4.9Å global resolution map of

Melbournevirus was reconstructed by assuming icosahedral symmetry (Fig. 1, Fig. S1F).

Externally, Melbournevirus shares a high structural similarity to that of tokyovirus (Chihara et

al., 2021), another member of the *Marseilleviridae*, sharing the same triangulation number

(T=309), and the same MCP pattern on the capsid surface. Like tokyovirus, it shows a uniform

MCP array each with a lower resolution "cap" density (Chihara et al., 2021). Internally, the inner

membrane shows the characteristic extrusion at the five-fold axis, and the scaffold network

between the capsid layer and inner membrane is comparable to that of tokyovirus (red circles in

Fig. 1B). A low resolution "plug" of density fills a space between the pentasymmetron and the

internal membrane extrusion (arrow in Fig. 1B), although it does not directly contact the internal

membrane. These components may be flexible in the structure because they are not well resolved

even in the non-symmetrized map of the block-based reconstruction (Fig. 2).

With this Melbournevirus dataset, we approached the resolutions at which *de novo* model

building can be attempted. Using the "block based" reconstruction strategy (Zhu et al., 2018)

permitted further improvements in resolution (Fig. S2). Blocks were reconstructed with no

symmetry applied (C1), with a soft mask focussed on the capsid. Carrying out the block

reconstructions without defocus refinement barely improved resolution above that of the Ewald-

sphere corrected whole virus reconstruction (the global FSC for the fivefold block estimated

4.8Å) but a single pass of defocus refinement resulted in the reconstructions reaching the

maximum resolution of 4.42 Å (Fig. S2-S5, Table 2).

Figure 2 shows the capsid viewed from the inside, filtered by local resolution, and focussed on

the asymmetric unit encompassing a two, three and fivefold symmetry axes, describing the

details of the protein network formed with mCPs. Each component is labelled according to the

nomenclature proposed in the segmentation of tokyovirus by Chihara *et al.* (Chihara et al., 2021)

and closely follows the motifs previously described. These are individually detailed as follows.

The molecular structure of the individual proteins

While the genome of Melbournevirus has been sequenced, most of the capsid proteins are

unannotated with a few hypothetical assignments (Okamoto et al., 2018). As a result, we built a

model of the MCP, and carried out chain tracing and fitting of poly-alanine chains for some other

regions of density which could be segmented and followed without significant ambiguity.

The major capsid protein

The amino acid sequence of the Melbournevirus MCP was aligned against those of tokyovirus,

PBCV-1 and other NCLDVs, where it scores highly against tokyovirus, and within acceptable

parameters against Iridovirus and PBCV-1 (Fig. S6). The MCP was predicted to possess the

same "double jelly roll" motif as other NCLDV MCPs (Fig. S7). This is confirmed by the

striated density on the MCP trimer extracted from the centre of the threefold axis (Fig. 3A),

which show a β-sheet structure. A homology model of the Melbournevirus MCP was built by

using the PBCV-1 MCP (PDB ID: 5TIQ) as a structural template, and flexible-fitted to the

density, clearly showing the molecular model of the MCP trimer (Fig. 3B). As previously

reported for PBCV-1 (Fang et al. 2019) and ASFV (Wang et al. 2019), the MCP trimer is formed

with interactions between the FG1 loops which extends inside the trimer with the two short α-

helices (dotted red circle in Fig. 3D), and stabilized with the N-terminal domain (NTD) extended

from the adjacent monomer which functions like an anchor (arrow in Fig. 3D). Furthermore, in

the Melbournevirus MCP trimer, the elongated HI1 loop interacts with the adjacent MCP

monomer (arrow heads in Fig. 3D-E, Fig. S7A), and forms a unique cup structure with the

relatively long loops of DE1 and FG1 on the top of the MCP trimer (Fig. 3E). The cup structure

serves to accommodate a similarly uniform and symmetric "cap" region to tokyovirus (Chihara

et al., 2021) which cannot be attributed to the MCP polypeptide (Fig. 3B, C). Previously,

Okamoto et al. reported that an uncharacterised protein, MEL_236, appeared to have the same

abundance as the MCP protein (Okamoto et al., 2018). At 16kDa, MEL_236 is approximately

the correct size (given a margin of error for SDS-PAGE size determination) to correspond with

the PAS stain-sensitive 14 kDa protein of tokyovirus previously reported (Chihara et al., 2021).

Genomic studies of Noumeavirus reported the orthologue of this, NMV_189, as the most

abundant protein (Fabre et al., 2017). Unfortunately, in these maps the cap region is not clear

enough to build a model from this sequence (arrowheads in Fig. S3D and S4D).

The penton base protein

As reported in other giant virus capsids (Chihara et al. 2021, Fang et al. 2019, Wang et al. 2019,

Born et al., 2018), the five-fold axis of the Melbournevirus capsid is filled with a penton base

protein pentamer. We performed a rigid body fit of the penton base protein from PBCV-1 (Fang

et al., 2019) to this density, but the quality of the fit was marginal. Therefore, the penton base

pentamer was extracted from the fivefold block reconstruction (Fig. S3) using UCSF Chimera

(Pettersen et al., 2004) and SEGGER (Pintilie and Chiu, 2012), and DeepTracer (Pfab et al.,

2021) used with this extracted density together with a short polyalanine sequence to trace the

backbone (Fig. 4). The penton protein exhibited a single jelly roll (SJR) motif similar to those of

other giant viruses (Fig. S8). The pentamer is formed by two interactions, external and internal;

the external is the loop extended inward of the pentamer in the outer capsid region (Fig. 4C), and

the internal is the interactions between the N-terminals (black asterisks in Fig. 4D) and between

the N-terminal and C-terminal (red asterisks in Fig. 4D). The entire structure of the penton base

protein is similar to that of PBCV-1, which does not have the large insertion domain found in

CroV-dependent mavirus (Fig. S8). In the cryo-EM map, some inner capsid densities also exist

under the penton base protein models (arrow in Fig. 4). Another component may exist in this

region and connect the penton to the inner membrane extrusion.

The five-fold axis of Melbournevirus capsid with the characteristic extrusion of the inner

membrane shows a low resolution "plug" of density which fills the area underneath the penton,

completely enveloping the pentasymmetron component proteins (Fig. 1B), but this plug does not

directly contact the inner membrane extrusion.

The pentasymmetron components

As the minor capsid proteins underneath the pentasymmetron, three pentasymmetron

components (PC-α, PC-β, PC-γ) have been identified in tokyovirus (Chihara et al. 2021). Similar

components were also identified in Melbournevirus (Fig. 2). With the improved resolution of the

Melbournevirus block-based reconstruction, we can clearly see one of the pentasymmetron

component proteins (named as PC-α (Chihara et al., 2021)) revealing two quadruple bundles

(each reminiscent of a ferritin monomer (Kayama et al., 2021)) of α-helices, stacked one on top

of the other (Fig. 2, Fig. S9). A polyalanine model was built *de novo* and fitted into the density.

However, it is less clear whether this is a single protein or two independent ones, as the

extremity of this region is relatively unsupported and as a result is ~6Å (Fig. S3). Our current

hypothesis is that they are two independent bundles, where the polypeptide chain continues into

the capsid framework and are located surrounding the inner membrane extrusion (Fig. S8, Fig.

1B).

Other minor capsid proteins

Like tokyovirus, the mCPs of Melbournevirus form an intricate lattice network (Fig. 2). The two

viruses, extremely close in genetic terms, should demonstrate high structural similarity. Thus,

Melbournevirus shows the same lattice array with the trapezoidal lattice consisting of the lattice

protein (salmon in Fig. 2), which are linked by cement proteins (pale blue in Fig. 2) and with a

glue/zipper protein arrangement (pink and orange, respectively, in Fig. 2) along the trisymmetron

interface. These are internally supported by other proteins; one is the scaffold protein, and the

other is the support protein (Fig. 2). The scaffold proteins (yellow in Fig. 2) extend from the

"horseshoe" shaped terminus (bracket in Fig. 2) of one scaffold array near the pentasymmetron

to the scaffold array along the trisymmetron interface. The support proteins (dark blue in Fig. 2)

showed a large density and three additional smaller densities, running parallel to the

trisymmetron interface and the cement protein array. The three additional small densities were

not observed in tokyovirus capsid at 7.7 Å resolution (Chihara et al. 2021). As the scaffold and

support proteins (yellow and dark blue, respectively, in Fig. 2) are underneath the lattice layer of

the capsid, they are more flexible and as such resolution suffers when the map is filtered by local

resolution, however without local filtering they are exceedingly difficult to see (Fig. 2). The glue

proteins are located on the edge of the trisymmetron and serve to connect the adjacent

trisymmetron. The bisymmetric structure looks like a dimer of the protein, but it is unclear at this

resolution. The zipper protein consists of ten components (orange in Fig. 2), eight of which are

located along the trisymmetron interface and bind to each of the two-fold symmetric glue

proteins (pink in Fig. 2). The remaining terminal two zipper proteins are located between the

glue proteins and the pentasymmetron components (arrowhead in Fig. 2), and their orientation is

significantly different from the other zipper proteins (arrow in Fig. 2).

Orientation of MCP trimers on the capsid surface

The pentasymmetron assembly of Melbournevirus shares the MCP orientation ("golf club")

motif displayed in CroV (Xiao et al. 2017) and PBCV-1 (Xian et al. 2020), in addition to the

trisymmetron (Fig. 5). In the motif, the corner, P_{nd} (n=1,2,3,4,5), of the MCP trimer in the

asymmetric unit shows a 60° rotation to match that of the adjacent asymmetric unit. This is

curious as Xian *et al.* hypothesise this orientational variance in the pentasymmetron asymmetric

unit to be caused by the tape measure protein (Xian et al. 2020), which Melbournevirus does not

exhibit, but instead appears to use the scaffold array (Fig. 2) and some other mCPs which were

originally reported by Chihara *et al.* (2021). Examining underneath this "golf club" motif

positions PC-α and PC-β at the interfaces of the individual motifs, with PC-γ at the interface of

the motif and the neighbouring trisymmetron (white circles in Fig. 5). Looking at the minor

capsid protein network in the Melbournevirus capsid, the function of the tape measure proteins is

possibly replaced by the coordinated use of the PC-β, zippers, and scaffold proteins (dotted curve

in Fig. 2).

Discussion

Achieving close to the Nyquist limit of this dataset when reconstructing the complete viral

particle with Ewald sphere correction demonstrates how vital proper analysis and correction of

the various physical (electro-optical) effects can be for the study of giant viruses. The Ewald

sphere reconstruction and solvent-corrected FSC curve does not fall to zero (black FSC curve,

Fig. S1J). Therefore, we also show the unmasked (non-solvent corrected) Ewald sphere-

corrected curve (grey curve, Fig. S1J), and the respective FSC curves without Ewald sphere

correction (maroon and orange, respectively, Fig. S1J) all of which reach zero, indicating that the

Ewald sphere-corrected FSC curve not reaching zero is a result of how close it is to maximum

resolution. In our study, a processing method analogous to block-based reconstruction (Zhu et

al., 2018) (Fig. S2-5) was used to improve the clarity of the map further. When we used 1MV

cryo-HVEM for single particle analysis (SPA) of tokyovirus (Chihara et al., 2021), Ewald sphere

correction did not improve the resolution. This suggests that the electron accelerated 300 kV

microscope has a significant defocus gradient limitation for giant viruses above 200 nm,

although symmetry expansion and block-based reconstruction helps to counter this. Further,

block-based reconstruction permits subtle variation in particle orientation, which is not possible

with symmetry imposition. This may also play a role in improving resolution in the block

reconstructions.

This Melbournevirus cryo-EM 3D reconstruction has a comparatively low particle count of

3,124 particles when compared to the previously reported structures of PBCV-1 (~13,000 for a

4.4 Å reconstruction (Fang et al., 2019)) and ASFV (16,266 for a 14.1 Å reconstruction (Liu et

al., 2019), 63,348 for an 8.8 Å reconstruction (Wang et al., 2019)). We attribute this to both

biological and computational reasons. ASFV possesses an outer membrane which will negatively

impact the resolutions reported for a whole virus reconstruction due to its disordered nature,

which neither PBCV-1 nor Melbournevirus possess. PBCV-1, on the other hand, achieves a

higher whole virus resolution, which can be considered consistent with the increased particle

count. It is also ~25% smaller than Melbournevirus, at 190 nm, so the intra-particle defocus

gradient should not be as large. Computationally, improvements in image processing software,

specifically, magnification anisotropy estimation and Ewald sphere correction played a

significant role in improving our Melbournevirus reconstruction (see Methods). As these

computational methods advance further, we look forward to seeing further improvements for the

study of giant viruses.

The Melbournevirus MCP is structurally analogous to the PBCV-1 (Fang et al., 2019),

Faustovirus (Klose et al., 2016) and ASFV (Liu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019) MCPs, with the

sequence similarity including a double jelly roll motif each composed of eight β-strands (Benson

et al., 2004). The greatest level of similarity is with tokyovirus (Fig. S6), where only a few

residues differ, which would suggest the MCP structure is highly preserved in *Marseilleviridae*.

With the improved resolution of the Melbournevirus block reconstructions, we could better

visualise the HI1 loop of Melbournevirus MCP, contacting the HI2 loop of the adjacent

monomer and forming a tight trimeric complex of MCP (Fig. 3D-E, Fig. S7A). This differs from

ASFV, where it is the FG1 loop which is extended (Liu et al., 2019), and from PBCV-1, where a

short FG1 loop is in close proximity to the HI2 loop of the neighbouring MCP (De Castro et al.,

2018). Furthermore, the HI1 loop and the other external loops of DE1 and HI2 extend externally

(Fig. 3B, Fig. S7) and form a cup structure on the top of the MCP trimer to accommodate

additional cap densities (orange in Fig. 3C). PBCV-1 MCP has a highly glycosylated "cap"

region, while ASFV and faustovirus have a large additional β-sheet rich domain (Fig. S7B-D).

Melbournevirus, however, has an ordered region, which is still lower resolution than the main

body of the MCP trimer (Figs. S3D and S4D), which does not correspond to any part of the MCP

model (Fig. 3B,C). This ordered structural motif would imply the presence of protein, rather than

sugars, which tend to be highly mobile. However, the reduced clarity of the density compared to

that of the MCP may be caused by several factors. Firstly, the cap may be in multiple

conformations across the capsid surface, resulting in loss of clarity due to icosahedral averaging.

Secondly, the cap may present partial occupancy of each MCP trimer across the capsid surface,

also resulting in loss of clarity due to icosahedral averaging. To conclude this, further

investigation is necessary to identify the cap protein and determine the stoichiometry with the

MCP. As Fabre *at al.* (Fabre et al., 2017) and Okamoto *et al.* (Okamoto et al., 2018) report

MEL_236 at equal or greater stoichiometry to the MCP protein, we can strongly assume that

MEL_236 corresponds to the 14kDa glycosylated cap protein we previously reported (Chihara et

al., 2021). Aoki et al. reported that in hokutovirus and kashiwazakivirus, which belong to lineage

B of *Marseilleviridae*, the newly replicated viruses are aligned on the surface of the host cells,

exhibiting a "bunch" formation consisting of normal and infected cells, similar to tupanvirus

(Aoki et al. 2019). The flexible characteristics of this glycosylated cap protein on the MCP

trimer may be different within the members of *Marseilleviridae*, playing a different functional

role in the interface with the viral host.

With the improvement in resolution of this Melbournevirus reconstruction, we have been able to

build a polyalanine model of the penton base protein. The DeepTracer (Pfab et al., 2021) chain

tracing predicted a SJR fold. When comparing the DeepTracer predicted structure to that of the

PBCV-1 penton base protein (Fang et al., 2019), the SJR fold aligns, but the less structured loops

are of varying length. The polyalanine model fits the density well, however the loops show some

dislocation from that of PBCV-1 (Fig. S8), which may explain why we have been unable to

identify candidate penton protein primary sequence *via* BLAST (Altschul et al., 1990; Johnson et

al., 2008) sequence homology. The CroV-dependent mavirus penton (Born et al., 2018), which

we previously tested against tokyovirus, again aligns at the SJR fold but is otherwise a poor fit,

even when the external insertion domain (curly bracket in Fig. S10) which is absent in PBCV-1

and Marseilleviruses, is ignored. The penton shows more density underneath the fitted

polyalanine model (arrow in Fig. 4B). Weng et al. reports that the penton base pentamer hung

lantern-like densities underneath the protein, connecting the penton and inner membrane (Wang

et al. 2019). In the Melbournevirus penton, we do not find the lantern-like density under the

penton. The low-resolution "plug" of density following the penton may have a similar function to

connect the penton with the internal membrane extrusion.

There are two orientation combinations between MCP trimers, a non-rotating combination and a

60°-rotating combination (Wang et al. 2019). In the non-rotating combination, a jelly roll motif 1

(JR1) in the MCP trimer interacts with a jelly roll motif 2 (JR2) in the adjacent MCP trimer,

which creates a relatively flat MCP array, like the trisymmetron surface. In contrast, in the 60°-

rotating combination, a JR1 in the MCP trimer interacts with a JR1 in the adjacent MCP trimer,

while a JR2 in the MCP trimer interacts with a JR2 in the adjacent MCP trimer. These

combinations create a relatively angled edge, like the trisymmetron interface. In the

pentasymmetron, the orientation of the MCP trimers is more complicated. Five asymmetric units

of the pentasymmetron, ideally each consisting of six non-rotating combination MCP trimers,

surround the central penton protein, and the interface of each asymmetric unit interacts with the

60°-rotating MCP trimer of the neighboring asymmetric unit. Finally, these MCP trimers creates

a penton vertex (Fig. S11). However, Xiao et al. reported in PBCV-1 and CroV that one of six

MCP trimers of the asymmetric unit, which located at the corner of the pentasymmetron, was

exceptionally rotated 60° (Xiao et al. 2017, Xian et al. 2020). They called this MCP trimer array

of the asymmetric unit the "golf club motif". Furthermore, the "golf club motif" was

hypothesized to be caused by specific localization of the tape measure proteins (Xian et al.

2020). In our observations, Melbournevirus showed a "golf club motif" of the MCP trimer array

in the same orientation as PBCV-1 and CroV (Fig. 5), but Melbournevirus lacks a tape measure

protein. However, the rotation of the single MCP trimer by 60° (P_{1d}, P_{2d}, P_{3d} in Fig. 5) orients it

to match that of the adjacent trisymmetron and penton asymmetric unit. If we picture all the

MCP trimers in a pentasymmetron asymmetric unit in the same orientation (Fig. S11), we can

better visualise why the rotation of a single MCP trimer may occur. The single MCP trimer

would cause a mismatch in the MCP orientational alignment of the trisymmetron interface

(arrows in Fig. S11). The trisymmetron interface demonstrates a greater angle across it than the

trisymmetron, which is of a gentler curvature. As such, it is likely that this orientational

arrangement is a result of improving the flexibility of the capsid across the trisymmetron

interface.

Without a tape measure protein, we propose that PC-β, which is present underneath the interface

between the 60°-rotated P_d MCP trimer and the P_b and P_e MCP trimers, may play a role in

determining trimer orientation. In a similar manner, PC-α may support the interface between the

penton and two asymmetric units, while PC-γ supports the interface between the

pentasymmetron and the adjacent trisymmetron. However, these components do not directly

contact with the 60°-rotated P_d MCP trimer. While we have previously proposed that the scaffold

protein array acts as an equivalent to the tape measure protein, the horseshoe terminus of the

scaffold does not appear to be able to directly interact with any of the PC proteins, as the

glue/zipper protein array is present in between the horseshoe terminus and either PC-β or PC-γ

(Fig. 2). PC-β may interact with the terminal two zipper proteins, which have a rotated

orientation when compared to the remaining eight zipper proteins running down the edges of the

glue proteins along the trisymmetron interface, while PC-γ interacts with the glue proteins

themselves along two trisymmetron interfaces. As the scaffold proteins run parallel to the

glue/zipper array, some interaction may also occur there, with the three acting in concert in a

similar manner to the tape measure protein in controlling capsid construction. Therefore, the

combination of PC-β, zipper proteins, and scaffold proteins (dotted curve in Fig. 2) is most likely

to function as the tape measure protein in Melbournevirus.

The lattice proteins show strong similarity to the motifs displayed in the lower resolution

tokyovirus reconstruction. By using local resolution filtering in RELION 3.1 (Zivanov et al.,

2020), we were able to avoid losing clarity in the more rigid lattice proteins, while

simultaneously visualising the more flexible scaffold array (Fig. 2). Interestingly, this permitted

visualisation of three additional weak densities extending from the previously reported support

protein (dark blue in Fig. 2), which run parallel to the zipper/glue proteins and cement proteins

on the trapezoidal lattice, but which themselves were not previously observed in tokyovirus.

Missing them in tokyovirus was likely due to resolution limitations and caused by decreased

signal to noise from fewer particles and lack of dose weighting for HVEM data (Chihara et al.,

2021). These may act to further support the lattice array as the array extends from the

pentasymmetron construct along the trisymmetron interface, in addition to supporting the

characteristic internal membrane structure.

Unfortunately, while at 4.42 Å resolution we can see some secondary structure, most if not all

residue sidechains are unclear. Furthermore, at many points it is extremely difficult to determine

which direction of two apparently divergent paths the density should follow. As the primary

sequence is unknown, and large or interacting sidechains can create a density bridge which is

difficult to discriminate from backbone density, we erred on the side of caution for the time

being. One of the mCPs, a repeating segment of the lattice protein (salmon in Fig. 2), has a

section exposed on the internal face of the capsid (following the chain into the mCP layer created

too much ambiguity in direction of the polypeptide) which fits a short section consisting of three

linked α-helices (Fig. S10).

Here we have increased the resolution of a cryo-EM 3D reconstruction of a Marseillevirus to a

resolution approaching that necessary to build *de novo* structural models. This has permitted us

to improve our previous Marseillevirus MCP model and begin the process of building a whole-

capsid model. This is currently limited by both a lack of comprehensive annotation of capsid-

related proteins and reaching the maximum resolution possible with this dataset. To fully clarify

the structure of Melbournevirus, and build a complete model of the *Marseilleviridae* capsid, we

must fully utilize our understanding of the genetics of the *Marseilleviridae*, using copy numbers

to help to identify the structural components and selected knockout genes to retrieve a

phenotype, whilst simultaneously achieving resolutions that allow *ab initio* structure

determination.

Methods

Viral propagation and purification

Melbournevirus particles were propagated and purified as described previously (Doutre et al.,

2014; Okamoto et al., 2018). It is described briefly as follows. Seed Melbournevirus particles

were propagated in *Acanthamoeba castellanii* cells that were cultured in PPYG medium and

confluent in ten 75 cm^3 culture flasks. The infected culture fluid was collected three days post

infection and centrifuged for 10 min at 500 *g*, 4°C. The supernatant was centrifuged for 35 min at

6,500 *g*, 4°C, and the pellet was suspended in 1 mL of PBS (-). The sample was ultracentrifuged

in 10-60% (w/v) continuous sucrose gradient for 90 min at 6,500 *g*, 4°C. The virus particles'

band was collected from the sucrose gradient, and centrifuged for 35 min at 6,500 *g*, 4°C. The

pellet was rinsed five times in 50 mL of PBS (-) by centrifugation to remove excess sucrose.

Finally, the virus particles were suspended in 100 μL PBS (-) for further cryo-EM analysis.

Cryo-EM sample preparation and acquisition

Three μL of purified virus particles were loaded on a glow-charged lacey carbon copper grid and

flash frozen in liquid ethane after 2 s blotting in 100% humidity at 4°C using a Vitrobot Mark IV

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). The particles images were collected using a 300 kV Titan Krios G2

microscope (Thermo Fisher Scientific) equipped with a K2 Summit direct electron detector using

counting mode and a GIF energy filter of 20 eV slit width (Gatan Inc). Two datasets were

collected, dataset 1 with 20 frames per micrograph movie, and dataset 2 with 40 frames per

micrograph movie. These datasets were taken at a nominal magnification of 64,000× (pixel size

on specimen is 2.21 Å/pixel), at 0.8 – 3.0 μm under focus, and at 26.4 e$^-$/Å^2 total dose.

Image processing

The image processing workflow of the whole virus particle in summarised graphically in Fig. S1.

3,367 micrograph movies were imported into RELION 3.1 (Zivanov et al., 2018; Zivanov et al.,

2020) and motion correction performed using MotionCor2 (1.4.0) (Zheng et al., 2017) using

whole frame motion correction. Contrast transfer function (CTF) parameters were calculated on

the resulting micrographs using CTFFIND 4.1.14 (Rohou and Grigorieff, 2015), using the

RELION 3.1 default parameters except for defocus step size, which was set to 100 Å. A total of

229 particles were manually picked, extracted using 4× downsampling (to 8.84 Å/pixel in 360-

pixel boxes), and 2D classified into 10 classes with 0.5° angular sampling and "ignore CTFs

until first peak" enabled. Three classes were used to generate three initial models using I3

symmetry with a mask diameter of 2550 Å and an initial angular sampling of 3.7°, of which the

best was chosen. These three clear classes, comprising 182 particles, were used as references for

RELION template autopicking of the full dataset, resulting in 7,000 particles picked. These were

extracted using 4× downsampling and 2D classified into 40 classes with a mask diameter of 2650

Å, angular sampling of 1° and "ignore CTFs until first peak" enabled. 19 classes, totalling 5,047

particles were selected in clear classes and subjected to a further round of 2D classification, this

time with 0.5° angular sampling and full CTF correction. This resulted in 3 clear classes,

containing 3,852 particles. 3D classification into five classes was carried out with an angular

sampling of 1.8° and "ignore CTFs until first peak" enabled. Three classes, totalling 3,569

particles, were selected from the 3D classification and a 3D refinement carried out. The

maximum resolution possible with the downsampled particles was achieved (17.68 Å). Particles

were re-extracted using 2× downsampling (4.42 Å/pixel in 720-pixel boxes) and a further 3D

refinement and single round of per-particle defocus refinement again achieved the maximum

resolution possible with downsampled particles (8.84 Å). Particles were re-extracted without

downsampling (2.21 Å/pixel) which permitted a reconstruction to achieve 7 Å. Unfortunately,

CTF refinement with 1,440-pixel boxes would fail. Particles were re-extracted with 1.5×

downsampling (3.315 Å/pixel in 960-pixel boxes) and anisotropic magnification distortion

estimated, followed by further defocus refinement. This resulted in a 6.65 Å reconstruction. 3D

classification with alignment disabled was carried out into five classes, with the two best classes,

comprising 3,124 particles, selected, resulting in a 6.45 Å reconstruction. Ewald sphere

correction was used with *relion_reconstruct* to generate independent half-maps using the

parameters from this final refinement, which results in a final gold standard FSC (Chen et al.,

2013) global estimated resolution of 4.9 Å with a soft capsid only mask.

At this point, we moved toward a strategy akin to that of block-based reconstruction (Zhu et al.,

2018), but only using the functions contained within RELION 3.1 (Zivanov et al., 2020). The

image processing workflow of the block-based reconstruction is summarised in Fig. S2. First,

symmetry expansion was carried out. Then three masks, individually focussed on a five-, three-

and two-fold axis were generated in UCSF Chimera (Pettersen et al., 2004), before particle

subtraction was used to calculate the shifts to centre the focussed region in the box. Particle

subtraction was cancelled after shifts were calculated. Using these RELION-calculated shifts, the

five-, three- and two-fold axes were extracted in 440-, 500- and 700-pixel boxes respectively,

each containing a total of 187,440 boxes. All block reconstructions were carried out with C1 (no)

symmetry imposed. The *relion_reconstruct* module was used for each extracted particle set to

generate a reference for refinement and check positioning was correct. 3D refinements were

carried out for each segment, achieving 4.8-5 Å with post-processing. Defocus refinement was

carried out once for each, and *relion_reconstruct* used to reconstruct half-maps using the

defocus-refined particle parameters. The five-fold and three-fold reconstructions achieved 4.42

Å, the maximum resolution possible with these data. The two-fold reconstruction achieved 4.43

Å, likely caused by the larger box size used. Further CTF parameter optimisation and Bayesian

polishing were not carried out.

Model building

The amino acid sequence of the MCP of Melbournevirus is annotated, along with four other

candidates which may be mCPs previously reported by Okamoto *et al.* (Okamoto et al., 2018). A

homology model of the MCP was generated using SWISS-MODEL (Waterhouse et al., 2018)

using a structural template of that of PBCV-1 (PDBID: 5TIQ). This model was rigid body fit into

a SEGGER-extracted (Pintilie and Chiu, 2012) MCP from the centre of the threefold axis and

fitted into the map using ISOLDE (Croll, 2018) with restraints on predicted secondary structure.

Real-space refinement was carried out in PHENIX (Adams et al., 2010) with intermediate rounds

of geometry minimisation.

The PDB model of the PBCV-1 penton protein was rigid-body fit to the Melbournevirus penton

density. It was deemed a poor fit, so the map blocks were segmented using SEGGER (Pintilie

and Chiu, 2012) and extracted segments were processed with DeepTracer (Pfab et al., 2021)

using a poly-alanine sequence for chain tracing. The best of these poly-alanine chain models was

rigid-body fit to fill the penton with five identical chains. ISOLDE (Croll, 2018) was used to

better fit some sections of the chain. Real-space refinement and validation were carried out in

PHENIX (Adams et al., 2010). Other parts of the mCPs (PC-α and Lattice protein) were also

process with the same way and the polyalanine models were built.

Data availability

523 The density maps have been deposited in the EMDB with the accession codes WXYZ (whole

524 virus), WXYZ (five-fold block), WXYZ (three-fold block) and WXYZ (two-fold block).

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Author contributions

538 K.O. and K.M. conceived the project. C.A. and M.S. provided Melbournevirus sample. H.K.N.R.

539 and K.O. prepared cryo-EM sample. H.K.N.R. and K.O. collected cryo-EM data. R.N.B.S.

540 processed cryo-EM data. R.N.B.S., and K.M. prepared figures and wrote the main manuscript

541 text. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Competing interests

544 The authors declare there to be no competing financial interests.

546 **Tables**

547 **Table 1.** Dataset collection details

Melbournevirus data collection	Dataset 1	Dataset 2
Microscope	FEI Titan Krios G2	
Accelerating voltage (kV)	300	
Spherical aberration (mm)	2.7	
Detector	Gatan K2 Summit	
Total dose (e-/A^2)	26.4	
Micrographs	1,240	2,127
Frames per micrograph	20	40
Nominal magnification	64,000×	
Pixel spacing on the specimen (Å/pixel)	2.21	
Target defocus range (μm)	-0.8 – -3.0	
Initial particles picked	7,000	
Final particles used	3,124	

550   **Table 2.** Reconstruction details

Reconstruction	Whole virus	Five-fold block	Three-fold block	Two-fold block
Particles used	3,124	187,440	187,440	187,440
Symmetry imposed	I3	C1	C1	C1
Resolution	4.9	4.42	4.42	4.43
EMDB accession code				

Figure 1. SPA 3D reconstruction of Melbournevirus at 4.9 Å. A) External view of

Melbournevirus, coloured by radius with the following parameters: blue, 1,050 Å, turquoise,

1,100 Å; green, 1,150 Å; yellow, 1,200 Å; red, 1250 Å, and symmetry axes are marked by a

pentagon (five-fold), triangle (three-fold) and double teardrop (two-fold). Index of h and k for

triangulation number is indicated. B) Central slice of Melbournevirus. Red circles indicate the

scaffold proteins between the capsid layer and inner membrane. A white arrow indicates a low

resolution "plug" of density which fills a space between the pentasymmetron and the inner

membrane extrusion but does not directly contact the inner membrane. Scale bar equals 50 nm.

Figure 2. Segmentation of Melbournevirus, focussed on the asymmetric unit encompassing the

five, three and twofold axes, and viewed from the inside of the capsid. The map was filtered by

local resolution to permit visualisation of the flexible scaffold and support proteins, which are

otherwise weak due to uniform b-factor sharpening of the map. Support, Scaffold, Zipper, Glue,

Cement, Lattice, PC-α, PC-β, PC-γ, and Penton indicate the names of each mCPs mentioned in

those of tokyovirus (Chihara et al., 2021). Fivefold, threefold, and twofold axes indicated by a

black pentagon, triangle and double teardrop respectively. White arrow and arrowheads indicate

the different orientations of the zipper protein. Bracket shows the "horseshoe" shaped head of the

scaffold proteins.

Figure 3. Melbournevirus MCP, with the homology model fitted. A) An MCP trimer extracted

from the centre of the three-fold axis. B) Transparent density with the homology model fitted. C)

The MCP with the "cap" region, which the annotated MCP sequence used for building the MCP

does not fill highlighted. Top and bottom panels show the side and top view of the MCP. D) The

FG1 loops (dotted red circle), N-terminal domain (arrow), and HI1 loop (arrowhead) stabilize the

MCP trimer. The trimer models are viewed from the inner capsid side. E) The HI1 loop interacts

with the adjacent HI2 loop and forms a cup structure with the extended DE1 and FG1 loops to

accommodate the cap density (red in panel C). Scale bar equals 2 nm.

Figure 4. A pentamer of penton base proteins of Melbournevirus. A) The extracted penton

density. B) With a *de novo* poly-alanine chain model built into the individual symmetrical

densities. Top and bottom panels are viewed from the top and the side of the pentamer,

respectively. Arrow indicates the density does not fill the polyalanine model. C) The loops from

the individual penton base proteins externally stabilize the pentamer. The slice position is

indicated in panel B. The interaction points are labeled with asterisks. D) The interactions

between N- and C-terminals internally stabilize the pentamer. The slice position is indicated in

panel B. The interaction points between N-terminals and between N-terminal and C-terminal are

labeled with black and red asterisks, respectively. Scale bar equals 1 nm.

Figure 5. One of the pentasymmetron blocks, with MCPs coloured by orientation. The MCPs of

Melbournevirus show the same orientation pattern as CroV and PVCB-1 (Xiao et al, 2017; Xian

et al. 2020). The while dotted lines show the interfaces of trisymmetron and pentasymmetron.

The yellow dotted triangle shows an asymmetric unit of the pentasymmetron. The white circles

indicate the locations internal of the MCP layer where the pentasymmetron components are

located (PC-α, PC-β and PC-γ respectively) and the "horseshoe" head of the scaffold protein

(ScP). Three asymmetric units of the pentasymmetron are labelled P_{1a-f}, P_{2a-f} and P_{3a-f}, showing

that one of the MCPs in the asymmetric unit (P_{1-3d}) is rotated 60° to match that of the adjacent

asymmetric unit.

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