1   # A bioactive phlebovirus-like envelope protein in a hookworm
2   # endogenous virus

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Keywords

Transposable element; retrotransposon; endogenous retrovirus (ERV); envelope protein;
membrane fusion; horizontal gene transfer (HGT); virus evolution; gene exaptation; nematode

Short title (50 characters)

A bioactive phlebovirus-like Env in a hookworm EVE

Abstract

Endogenous viral elements (EVEs), accounting for 15% of our genome, serve as a genetic

reservoir from which new genes can emerge. Nematode EVEs are particularly diverse and

informative of virus evolution. We identify Atlas virus – an intact retrovirus-like EVE in the

human hookworm Ancylostoma ceylanicum, with an envelope protein genetically related to GN-

GC glycoproteins from phleboviruses. A cryo-EM structure of Atlas GC reveals a class II viral

membrane fusion protein fold not previously seen in retroviruses. Atlas GC has the structural

hallmarks of an active fusogen. Atlas GC trimers insert into membranes with endosomal lipid

compositions and low pH. When expressed on the plasma membrane, Atlas GC has cell-cell

fusion activity. RNA-Seq data analysis detected transcripts mapping to Atlas virus at different

stages of hookworm development. With its preserved biological activities, Atlas GC has the

potential to acquire a cellular function. Our work reveals structural plasticity in reverse-

transcribing RNA viruses.

Introduction

Retroviruses and other reverse-transcribing RNA viruses can frequently integrate their genome,

reverse-transcribed from RNA into DNA, into the host-cell genome. Viral genomes integrated

into germline cells are inherited by future generations as endogenous viral elements (EVEs).

Most EVEs are endogenous retroviruses (ERVs) and account for approximately 15% of the

human genome, seven times more than protein-coding genes (*1, 2*). EVEs and other

transposons were initially viewed as parasitic DNA. It is now evident that they serve as a genetic

reservoir, from which new genes and regulatory elements can emerge. Sequences of retroviral

origin help control gene expression by serving as promoters, enhancers and other regulatory

elements (*3, 4*). Genes coopted from EVEs have evolved to fulfill vital cellular functions (*1*). For

example, syncytins, which drive cell-cell fusion of trophoblasts during placental development,

are encoded by ERV envelope glycoprotein (*env*) genes (*3, 5*). Another recent example is the

Gag capsid protein encoded by the *Caenorhabditis elegans* Cer1 retrotransposon, which

encapsidates small non-coding RNAs into nucleocapsids that can transfer RNAs conferring

learned pathogen avoidance behavior from infected parents to naïve progeny (*6*).

The reduced mutation rate of host versus retrovirus genomes (10^{-9} vs. 10^{-3} mutations

per site per year (*7*)) means that EVEs are windows to ancestral retroviral sequences –

evolutionary fossils preserved from the time of integration (*2*). Some EVE genes are expressed

in human tissues and retain their biological activities, such as membrane fusion activity in the

case of Env proteins (Envs) (*3, 5, 8*). Aberrant expression of Envs is associated with disease (*9,

10*). With the biology of EVEs still largely uncharted, it is likely that many cellular functions of

EVEs in health and disease remain undiscovered. Studying EVE genes with novel properties

could therefore provide insights on the evolutionary history of reverse-transcribing RNA viruses

and identify fundamental principles in host-virus coevolution.

Nematode EVEs are particularly diverse and informative of virus evolution. EVEs from

the *Belpaoviridae* (BEL/Pao) family (*11*), related to retroviruses and widespread across

metazoa, have revealing genetic features in nematodes (*12*). The presence in *C. elegans* EVEs

of overlapping ORFs, otherwise unique to complex vertebrate retroviruses, suggests

retroviruses originated in early metazoa with a common ancestor resembling belpaoviruses

(*13*). Furthermore, nematode endogenous belpaoviruses encode Envs that are genetically

unrelated to retrovirus Envs (*14*). Instead of a class I viral membrane fusion protein with a core

fold of three bundled α-helices (*15-18*) – a defining feature of modern retroviruses (*19*) –

belpaovirus Envs have sequence similarity to G_C (G2) envelope glycoproteins from

phleboviruses (family *Phenuiviridae*) (*14*). G_C proteins are class II membrane fusion proteins,

with a three-domain β-strand architecture (*20, 21*) also found in alphaviruses (*22*), flaviviruses

(*23, 24*) and Rubella virus (*25*) but structurally unrelated to class I fusion proteins. A series of

conformational changes in class II fusion proteins, triggered by endosomal acidification,

catalyses fusion of the viral and endosomal membranes to deliver the viral genome into the

cytosol (*26-28*). A hydrophobic fusion loop first inserts into the endosomal membrane. The

proteins then form trimers and fold back on themselves, pulling the cell membrane (held by the

fusion loop) and the viral membrane (held by a transmembrane anchor) together so they fuse

(*19, 21*).

Class II fusion proteins are not limited to viruses: they also drive cell-cell fusion events of

fundamental importance, including syncytial epithelia formation in *C. elegans* and other

nematodes (*29-32*), and gamete fusion in protozoa, plants, algae and invertebrates (*33-38*). The

identical topology and overall arrangement of the three domains of viral and eukaryotic class II

fusion proteins, along with similarities in their membrane fusion mechanisms, makes it all but

certain they evolved from a common ancestor (*33*). Although the evolutionary origin of the

ancestral class II fusion protein remains unknown, the presence of class II fusion proteins in

EVEs raises the provocative prospect that a gene transfer from a virus to a cell led to the advent

of sexual reproduction (*33, 39*).

Here, we identify a novel, intact endogenous belpaovirus in the human hookworm

Ancylostoma ceylanicum (a parasitic nematode) with an Env more similar than any other

eukaryotic sequence to phlebovirus G_C protein sequences. We expressed and purified the G_C-

homologous fragment from this EVE, henceforth Atlas virus. A cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-

EM) structure of Atlas G_C reveals a class II viral fusion protein fold remarkably similar to

phlebovirus G_C proteins and not seen in retroviruses, as predicted 20 years ago (*12, 14*). We

show that Atlas G_C has all the hallmarks of an active class II membrane fusion protein. It

undergoes a monomer-to-trimer transition and inserts into lipid membranes with a specific lipid

composition in response to a low pH trigger. Our work provides biochemical validation for the

hypothesis that acquisition of a fusion protein from an infectious virus, as exemplified by Atlas

virus, represents a general paradigm for how retrotransposons can become retroviruses (*14*),

and indeed how ancestral reverse-transcribing viruses may have originated (*11*). The preserved

biological activities of Atlas G_C, including membrane fusion activity, raise the question of

whether these activities, and those of EVE gene products more broadly, have cellular functions

or cause disease.

Results

An intact EVE with a phlebovirus-like Env in the hookworm *A. ceylanicum*

The bioinformatic discovery of nematode EVEs with phlebovirus G_C-like Env sequences not

seen in retroviruses (*12, 14*), requires biochemical validation. To identify phlebovirus-like EVE

Envs suitable for biochemical analysis, we performed PSI-BLAST searches (*40*) for protein

sequences similar to biochemically characterized phlebovirus G_C proteins. A search with Rift

Valley Fever virus (RVFV) G_C as the query identified the gene *Acey_s0020.g108* (UniProt

A0A016UZK2) in the human hookworm *A. ceylanicum* as containing the most similar sequence

outside infectious virus taxa (Expected value 10^{-20}). The homologous sequence lies within a

9,204-nucleotide element possessing all the features of an intact EVE, including 100% identical

271-nt LTRs and a coding sequence encoding a single 2,828-residue Gag-Pol-Env polyprotein

without any stop codons or introns (**Fig. 1A and fig. S1A**). We refer to this element as *A.*

ceylanicum Atlas virus. It is one of nine *A. ceylanicum* EVEs that encode complete Gag-Pol-Env

polyproteins (**Fig. 1, B and C**). These EVEs have the distinguishing genomic features of

belpaoviruses from other nematode species, including an atypical Env and an aspartate to

asparagine substitution (Y[X]D$\underline{D}$ → YVD$\underline{N}$) in the most conserved reverse transcriptase motif,

the polymerase site (*13, 41, 42*) (**fig. S1B**). Phylogenetic classification of Atlas virus based on

reverse-transcriptase (RT) sequences confirms the *Belpaoviridae* phylogeny of Atlas virus, with

Cer13 from *C. elegans* (*12*) as the closest neighbor in the RT tree (**Fig. 1D**). With a Gag

sequence less than 20% identical to its closest homolog (*Acey_s0020.g1106*), the Atlas EVE is

a candidate for classification as a member of the *Belpaoviridae* family (which contains a single

genus, *Semotivirus*) (**fig. S1C**) (*43*).

The phlebovirus G_C-like sequence spans the last 498 residues of the Atlas virus

polyprotein (residues 2330-2828). It contains a single predicted C-terminal transmembrane

helix, like phlebovirus G_C proteins. Phleboviruses and other *Phenuiviridae* family members

express a glycoprotein precursor that is cleaved by cellular proteases into two envelope

glycoproteins, G_N and G_C (or G1 and G2). G_N is the receptor-binding protein required for cellular

attachment and G_C is the membrane fusion protein required for cell entry. G_N is highly antigenic

and more variable in sequence than G_C. Our analysis of the Atlas virus Env sequence detected

a slight but statistically significant similarity in the 421 residues preceding the G_C-like sequence

(residues 1909-2329) to G_N glycoproteins from *Phenuiviridae* family viruses (*E*-value $\geq 10^{-7}$).

Moreover, the distribution of predicted transmembrane helices and proteolytic cleavage sites in

and adjacent to the Atlas G_N- and G_C-like sequences is the same as in phlebovirus

glycoproteins (**Fig. 1A**). Together, these sequence features suggest the Atlas virus Env

contains tandem phlebovirus-like G_N and G_C glycoproteins instead of a retrovirus-like

glycoprotein. With all the features of a recently active EVE and an apparently intact set of

phlebovirus-like glycoproteins, Atlas virus is an excellent candidate for biochemical analysis.

Fig. 1. Atlas is an endogenous belpaovirus with a phlebovirus-like Env. (**A**) Gene

architecture of the Atlas endogenous viral element (EVE), gene *Acey_s0020.g108* from the

Ancylostoma ceylanicum human hookworm parasite. Inset: annotated closeup of the Atlas Env

region encoding phlebovirus G_N- and G_C-like glycoproteins. Red residue number refer to the G_C

sequence alone. (**B**) List of *A. ceylanicum* EVEs encoding complete Gag-Pol-Env polyproteins

with phlebovirus-like Envs. LTR sequence identities for two of the EVEs could not be calculated:

Acey_s0206.g1994 had degenerate LTRs, and one LTR of *Acey_s0025.g1106* was truncated in

the genome assembly. (**C**) Phylogenetic tree of G_C proteins from *Phenuiviridae* and G_C-like (G2-

like) sequences from EVEs. Ace, *A.* ceylanicum; Cel, *C. elegans*; Nam, *Necator Americanus*,

RVFV, Rift Valley Fever virus; DabieV, Dabie bandavirus (SFTSV); HRTV, Heartland virus. (**D**)

Phylogenetic classification of Atlas based on reverse-transcriptase (RT) sequences. Alu TasV,

Ascaris lumbricoides Tas virus; Dsi NinV, *Drosophila simulans* Ninja virus; Bmo PaoV, *Bombyx*

mori Pao virus; Tru SuzV, *Takifugu rubripes* Suzu virus; Dme BelV, *D. melanogaster* Bel virus;

Aga MooV, *Anopheles gambiae* Moose virus; RooV, Roo virus. Trees drawn with iTOL v6 (*44*).

Atlas G$_C$ has a class II membrane fusion protein fold not seen in retroviruses

As the molecular structure of phlebovirus G$_C$ proteins, and how they drive fusion of the viral and

cellular membranes, are well established from previous studies (*20, 28*), we focused our

biochemical analyses on the G$_C$-like sequence from Atlas virus. A recombinant ectodomain

fragment of Atlas G$_C$ (polyprotein residues 2330-2772) was expressed in *Drosophila*

melanogaster D.mel-2 cells as a secreted protein. The purified protein was a soluble, folded

homotrimer (**fig. S2**). The structure of the G$_C$ trimer was determined by single-particle cryo-EM

image reconstruction at an overall resolution of 3.76 Å (**Fig. 2, A and B; table S1; fig. S3**). The

map was sufficiently detailed for an atomic model to be built and refined for Atlas G$_C$ residues

2330-2769 using the crystal structure of RVFV G$_C$ (*28*) as a starting model (see Methods; **fig.**

S4). The structure reveals a three-domain class II membrane fusion protein fold (**Fig. 2C**). All

previously described retroviral Env structures have a helical coiled-coil class I fusion protein fold

(*15-18*), exemplified by the hemagglutinin of influenza virus (*19*). The structure of the Atlas G$_C$

ectodomain fragment is remarkably similar to phlebovirus G$_C$ structures, specifically the trimeric

postfusion G$_C$ structures from RVFV (*28*), Dabie bandavirus (DABV, formerly SFTS phlebovirus)

(*45*) and Heartland virus (HRTV) (*46*) (**Fig. 2, D and E**). Domain I, a 10-stranded β-barrel

augmented by a 3-stranded sheet, organizes the structure. Two insertions in domain I form the

elongated, mostly β-stranded domain II. Domain III has the 7-stranded β-sandwich topology of

fibronectin type III (FN3) domains also found in macroglobulin domains (*35, 47*), but the

hydrophobic core and disulfide bonding pattern of domain III differ from these and other

annotated domains from non-viral species. A 16-amino acid portion of the stem region, which

links domain III to the C-terminal transmembrane anchor in class II fusion proteins, could be

modeled, spanning 5 nm from the end of domain III to within approximately 1 nm of the tip of

domain II. The stem forms trimer contacts, adding a β-strand to domain II of a different subunit,

as seen in RVFV $G_{C(28)}$. The overall configuration bears strong similarity to other viral and

cellular class II fusion proteins including, in order of decreasing similarity: alphavirus E1 proteins

(*22*); EFF-1/AFF-1 cell-cell fusion proteins from *C. elegans* and other animals *(29, 30)*; HAP2

gamete fusion proteins from protozoa (*33-35, 48*) and plants (*34, 36*); and flavivirus E proteins

(*49*) (**Fig. 2E**). Despite these structural similarities, the only proteins or domains of known

structure with detectable amino acid sequence similarity to Atlas G_C (*E*-value <1 in PSI-BLAST

(*40*)) are the phlebovirus G_C proteins (22-24% sequence identity; **fig. S5**).

Atlas G_C has the same structural features that distinguish phlebovirus glycoproteins from

other class II fusion proteins: a larger number of disulfide bonds, ten of which are conserved in

phlebovirus G_C sequences but not in other class II proteins; N-linked glycosylation in domain III;

and a more extensive and rigid interface between domains I and II (**Fig. 2, D and E, and fig.

S5**). The most notable differences between Atlas virus and phlebovirus G_C structures are

differences in the disulfide bonding pattern and in the composition of side chains lining the

glycerophospholipid (GPL) headgroup binding pocket conserved in arboviral class II fusion

proteins (*28*). We discuss these differences and their potential functional implications below.

Atlas G_C also has a different glycosylation pattern, with a single predicted N-linked glycosylation

site at Asn414 in domain III with a weak corresponding feature in the density map (**fig. S6**). In

contrast, phlebovirus G_C proteins contain two N-linked glycans in domain III, at two different

sites. One of these, Asn1035 in RVFV, covers the fusion loop in the prefusion conformation of

RVFV G_C and stabilizes the prefusion dimer by forming contacts across the dimer interface (*20*),

as also seen in flavivirus E proteins (*23, 24*). This glycosylation site is conserved in DABV and

HRTV G_C but absent in Atlas G_C. Despite these minor differences, the striking overall structural

similarity of Atlas G_C to phlebovirus G_C proteins in the postfusion conformation experimentally

validates the evolutionary link between nematode EVEs from the *Belpaoviridae* family and the

fusion proteins of phleboviruses postulated based on previous genomic analyses (*12, 14*).

RVFV G$_C$ DABV G$_C$ HRTV G$_C$ SFV E1   *C. elegans* EFF-1   *C. reinhardtii* HAP2   DENV E

Fig. 2. Cryo-EM structure of a phlebovirus G$_C$-like Env fragment from Atlas virus. (**A**)

Domain organization of Atlas G$_C$. (**B**) Cryo-EM image reconstruction of a soluble ectodomain

fragment of Atlas G$_C$ at 3.76 Å overall resolution. The purified protein was a homotrimer (**fig. S2**)

and threefold (C3) symmetry was imposed. The map is colored by domain as in (**A**). A

representative cryo-EM micrograph is shown in **fig. S4A**. (**C**) Overview of the refined atomic

model of the Atlas G_C trimer. Disulfide bonds (green) and an N-linked glycan (blue) are shown

as sticks. (**D**) Protein fold of an Atlas G_C protomer. (**E**) The structures most similar to Atlas G_C

based on structure comparison with DALI (*50*), G_C glycoproteins from Rift Valley Fever virus

(RVFV, Rmsd 2.6 Å, Z-score 29, PDB:6EGU (*28*)), Dabie bandavirus (DABV, formerly SFTS

phlebovirus; Rmsd 2.6 Å, Z-score 28, PDB:5G47 (*45*)) and Heartland virus (HRTV, Rmsd 2.6 Å,

Z-score 28, PDB:5YOW (*46*)). Other representative class II fusion proteins are shown for

comparison: Semliki Forest virus (SFV) E1 (Z-score 19, PDB:1RER (*27*)), *C. elegans* EFF-1 (Z-

score 19, PDB:4OJD (*29*)), *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii* HAP2 (Z-score 16; PDB:5MF1 (*33*)) and

dengue virus (DENV) E (Z-score 15, PDB:4GSX (*51*)).

Structure of the putative lipid membrane anchor of Atlas G_C

Viral fusion proteins insert a membrane anchor – the fusion loop, in class II proteins – into the

host cell membrane to initiate virus-cell membrane fusion. The putative fusion loop of Atlas G_C

can be identified by analogy to phlebovirus G_C proteins as spanning residues 127-140. The local

resolution of the cryo-EM density for this region is lower than for the rest of the map but the

large number of structural constraints imposed by the positions of disulfide-bonded cysteines

and other residues conserved in phleboviruses G_C proteins allowed an atomic model to be built

unambiguously (**Fig. 3A and fig. S6, B and C**). Specifically, the fusion loop is constrained by

four disulfide bonds conserved in phleboviruses, a fifth disulfide specific to Atlas G_C (Cys129-

Cys138), a phenylalanine (Phe136) required in phleboviruses at the apex of the fusion loop for

membrane binding and fusion (*28, 45, 52*), and two conserved glycines (Gly128 and Gly134)

that provide the torsional flexibility necessary for the fusion loop's tightly folded conformation

(**Fig. 3, A to C**).

The structure and chemical properties of the Atlas G_C fusion loop resemble phlebovirus

fusion loops. Ile130, Phe136, Phe137 and the Atlas-specific disulfide (Cys129-Cys138) form a

hydrophobic surface similar to phlebovirus and flavivirus fusion proteins (*26, 28*) (**Fig. 3C**). The

area of this surface is greater than in most viral class II fusion proteins. By analogy with other

viral class II fusion proteins, the location and extent of the hydrophobic surface formed by the

Atlas G_C fusion loop suggest it could function as a membrane anchor.

In addition to inserting nonpolar side chains into the hydrophobic region of the

membrane, viral class II fusion proteins form polar contacts with lipid headgroups via the fusion

loop and an adjacent glycerophospholipid (GPL) binding pocket (*28*). By selecting for

headgroups with complementary electrostatic potential, polar contacts confer a degree of

specificity to lipid binding. In phleboviruses, a set of conserved polar residues in the GPL

binding pocket bind selectively to zwitterionic GPLs (*28*). The Atlas G_C structure reveals a

putative GPL binding pocket with both conserved and novel features (**Fig. 3**). The arginine that

forms bidentate hydrogen bonds with the GPL phosphate moiety in phleboviruses (*28*) is

conserved in Atlas virus (Arg86). The disulfide bond and short-chain hydrophobic residue that

bind the GPL glycerol moiety are also conserved (Cys87-Cys135, Ala90). However, an

aspartate-arginine pair that binds choline and ethanolamine GPL moieties in phleboviruses is

replaced in Atlas G_C by two histidines (His271 and His85). Moreover, Atlas virus has an extra

residue in the fusion loop, Asp133, compared to phlebovirus G_C proteins. The Asp133 side

chain points into the putative GPL binding pocket and is located near the position of the choline

GPL moiety in the superimposed structure of RVFV G_C bound to a phosphatidylcholine ligand

(*28*), suggesting that Asp133 could compensate for the lack of a conserved aspartate at position

271 (**Fig. 3, A to C**). Hence the putative GPL binding pocket of Atlas G_C appears to have the

necessary physicochemical attributes to support GPL binding, with Arg86 binding the phosphate

moiety, Cys87/Cys135/Ala90 binding the glycerol moiety, and His85/Asp133/His271

coordinating the end of the headgroup. We note the presence in the cryo-EM reconstruction of a

bulge in the density around the GPL binding pocket that is unaccounted for by the atomic model

(**fig. S6C**). Additionally, the absorbance at 260 nm of purified Atlas G_C was higher than

expected despite treatment with nucleases during purification (**fig. S2A**). These two

observations would be consistent with lipid molecules with unsaturated acyl chains copurifying

with Atlas G_C, but the local resolution of the map is insufficient to ascertain whether the GPL

binding pocket contains a ligand.

Fig. 3. Structure of the putative fusion loop and lipid binding pocket of Atlas G_C. (**A**) Local

sequence alignment of the fusion loops (orange boxes) of Atlas G_C, RVFV G_C, and DENV E.

Green dumbbells indicate disulfides. Disulfides shown below the RVFV sequence are

conserved in Atlas and RVFV. (**B**) Residues contributing to binding of the phosphate (Phos),

glycerol and choline (Chol) moieties of glycerophospholipid (GPL) molecules by RVFV G_C (*28*).

Colors indicate side chain properties: blue, positive charge; pink, negative charge; magenta,

hydrophobic; green, sulfhydryl; light blue, positive charge at endosomal pH. (**C**) Closeup of the

fusion loop and GPL binding pockets of Atlas G_C, RVFV G_C and dengue E. A single protomer

from the postfusion trimer is shown, with key residues shown in stick representation. Label

colors indicate side chain properties: blue, positive charge; red, negative charge; orange,

hydrophobic. (**D**) Closeup of the fusion loop and GPL binding pocket of the Atlas G_C trimer

showing histidine residues in or near the pocket. Prime symbols following residue numbers

denote the protomer to which the residue belongs. (**E**) Surface representation of the same view

as in (**D**), colored by side chain hydrophobicity, except for histidine residues shown in light blue.

Atlas G_C binds membranes with endosome-like lipid composition at low pH

A key step in viral membrane fusion is binding of the fusion protein to the host cell membrane.

We assessed binding of Atlas G_C ectodomain to liposomes in density gradient centrifugation

and dynamic light scattering (DLS) experiments. Viruses containing class II fusion proteins, like

many retroviruses, undergo membrane insertion and fusion in endosomal compartments where

the pH is acidic (*53-56*). We therefore assayed liposome binding at a range of pH values. In

contrast to RVFV G_C ectodomain, Atlas G_C ectodomain did not bind liposomes containing

phosphatidylcholine (PC), phosphatidylethanolamine (PE), cholesterol and sphingomyelin (SM)

at neutral or acidic pH (pH 4-8; **Fig. 4, A and B**). At neutral pH (pH 7.8), Atlas G_C ectodomain

also failed to bind liposomes containing anionic lipids enriched in early or late endosomes:

phosphatidylserine (PS) or bis(monoacylglycerol)phosphate (BMP, also known as

lysobisphosphatidic acid or LBPA), respectively. At pH 4, however, Atlas G_C ectodomain bound

tightly to liposomes containing PS or BMP, with weaker binding observed at pH 4.6 (**Fig. 4, A**

and B, and fig. S7). Remarkably, Atlas G_C ectodomain bound only weakly to liposomes

containing phosphatidylglycerol (PG) instead of BMP even though PG and BMP are

regioisomers with identical chemical composition and electrostatic charge (of -1). PG and BMP

differ only in the position of the second acylglycerol linkage, resulting in a linear configuration for

BMP instead of the usual branched configuration for PG. Our liposome binding data show that

Atlas G_C binds to membranes containing specific GPLs that are enriched in the endosomal

pathway in a pH-dependent manner. No other class II fusion protein has been reported to

require low pH, PS or BMP for membrane insertion. However, phleboviruses, which require only

PE or PC and cholesterol for membrane insertion (*28*), subsequently require BMP and low pH

for fusion (*57*). Similarly, flaviviruses require BMP, PS or other anionic lipids and low pH for

efficient fusion (*53, 55, 58*).

The optimal pH for membrane binding of Atlas G_C (pH 4-4.5) is similar to the optimal pH

of hemifusion of Uukuniemi virus (*57*), a model phlebovirus, and would be consistent with

membrane insertion in late endosomes, as is the case for phleboviruses (*54*). The side chains of

His85 and His271, in the GPL binding pocket of Atlas G_C, would be fully protonated at pH 4-4.5.

The resulting net positive charge of the His85/Asp133/His271 triad (+1/-1/+1), analogous to the

Arg/Asp pair that coordinates the end of GPL headgroups in phleboviruses, mirrors the charge

of the phosphoserine headgroup of PS (-1/+1/-1). Moreover, Atlas G_C contains four additional

solvent-exposed histidines (residues 88, 94, 99 and 100) in the vicinity of the GPL binding

pocket (**Fig. 3, D and E**). Protonation of these histidines at low pH may promote further

interactions with anionic lipid headgroups. The presence of six histidines in and around the GPL

binding pocket provides a possible explanation for the observed pH-dependent insertion of Atlas

G_C into membranes containing PS and BMP. Consistent with a conserved role for the GPL

binding pocket in determining lipid specificity of class II fusion proteins, mutations in

alphaviruses at a position equivalent to His271, in the *ij* loop, determine the extent to which

alphaviruses depend on cholesterol for membrane binding (*59*).

Fig. 4. Atlas G$_C$ binds liposomes in a lipid- and pH-dependent manner. (**A**) Liposome co-flotation lipid binding assay. A liposome-G$_C$ ectodomain mixture in 40% OptiPrep density gradient medium was overlaid with a 30% OptiPrep cushion and centrifuged at 100,000 g. Flotation was defined as the amount of G$_C$ ectodomain co-floating with liposomes in the top-half fraction (T) divided by the total amount of G$_C$ ectodomain in the top- and bottom-half (B)

fractions. G_C ectodomain was quantified by Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE. Error bars show

the standard deviation of three replicates except WT+PC:PE:SM:CH:PS (two replicates) and

WT+PC:PE:SM:BMP (four replicates). See **fig. S8** for uncropped gels for all replicates. (**B**)

Binding of G_C ectodomain (WT, F136A/F137A or R86A) to liposomes measured by dynamic

light scattering (DLS) as differences in liposome diameter in the presence and absence of Atlas

G_C ectodomain. Error bars show the standard deviation of three to seven replicates.

Significance was determined by 2-way ANOVA of the mean change in liposome diameter, using

Sidak's multiple comparisons test with a 95% confidence interval in GraphPad Prism 8 (see **fig.**

S7). **, $0.001 < p < 0.01$; *, $p < 0.05$; ns, not significant. See **dataset S1** for source data.

Atlas G_C membrane binding does not strictly require cholesterol and occurs via the

fusion loop

In addition to GPLs, phleboviruses and alphaviruses (but not flaviviruses) require cholesterol for

efficient membrane binding and subsequent fusion (*28, 57, 59*). Alphaviruses additionally

require sphingolipids (such as SM) for efficient fusion (*60, 61*). We found that neither cholesterol

nor SM were required for Atlas G_C to bind liposomes (**Fig. 4, A and B**). Removal of cholesterol

reduced the fraction of G_C bound by 50% in the liposome flotation assay (**Fig. 4A**) though

binding was still detected in the DLS assay (**Fig. 4B**). Hence, although cholesterol and SM are

not strictly required for binding, they enhance binding, possibly by increasing membrane fluidity.

Notably, the concentration of cholesterol in nematode cell membranes is approximately 20 times

lower than in vertebrates (*62, 63*). This is insufficient for cholesterol to regulate the structure or

fluidity of nematode membranes, in which cholesterol is thought to be instead a precursor for

low-abundance metabolites (*62-64*). Likewise, *Drosophila* can grow indefinitely with only trace

amounts of exogenous sterols (*62*), suggesting that arthropods, which are obligate vectors of

the vast majority of viruses containing class II fusion proteins, rely on lipids other than

cholesterol to regulate membrane fluidity.

To determine whether Atlas G_C binds membranes in a manner analogous to other viral

class II fusion proteins – via the fusion loop and GPL binding pocket – we purified Atlas G_C

ectodomain variants with mutations in the two phenylalanine residues in the fusion loop

(F136A/F137A), or in the arginine predicted to bind the GPL phosphate moiety (R86A). The

F136A/F137A mutant failed to bind liposomes containing PS and co-flotation with liposomes

containing BMP at pH 4 and pH 4.6 was reduced to approximately one third of wild-type (**Fig.**

4C). The R86A mutation reduced binding to liposomes containing PS or BMP at pH 4, to one

third and 75% of wild-type, respectively (**Fig. 4D**). For both variants, preparations contained

trimers as the major species but a small monomeric fraction was also present (**fig. S2**),

suggesting that the mutated lipid binding residues are required for efficient trimer assembly. We

conclude that Atlas G_C binds to lipid membranes through insertion of hydrophobic fusion-loop

residues and coordination of lipid headgroups in the GPL binding pocket, as in other viral class

II fusion proteins.

Evidence for monomeric and trimeric states of Atlas G_C

Class II fusion protein ectodomains can be monomeric, dimeric or form icosahedral shells in

their prefusion conformation, but the fusogenic conformational change is always accompanied

by reorganization into trimers (*26, 57, 65, 66*). Fusion proteins from classes I and III, including

retrovirus fusogens, remain trimeric throughout the fusion reaction, but no class II fusion

proteins are known to be trimeric in their prefusion conformation. Having established that Atlas

G_C can insert into membranes as a trimer with a postfusion-like conformation, we set out to

determine whether it could undergo a conformational change as seen in the fusion reaction of

class II proteins from infectious viruses. The Atlas G_C construct described above was expressed

as a trimer with no trace of monomers or dimers (**Fig. 5A and fig. S2A**). However, we found

that a construct with the stem region truncated, G_C(DI-III), spanning residues 2330-2751, was

expressed as a mixture of monomers, trimers, and higher order oligomers (**Fig. 5B and fig.**

S2B). In contrast to G_C trimers, which were stable at different protein concentrations and pH

values, G_C(DI-III) monomers were unstable over time. As noted above, monomeric fractions

were also present in preparations of the fusion loop mutant (F136A/F137A) and GPL binding

pocket mutant (R86A) (**fig. S2, C and D**). Whether these monomeric species are in a prefusion

conformation remains to be determined, but the presence of metastable monomers and stable

trimers recapitulates a key property of class II fusogens from infectious viruses.

pH-dependent stabilization of the Atlas G_C trimer by protonated histidine residues

The increase in positive charge resulting from histidine protonation is an important part of the

pH sensing mechanism of viral class II fusion proteins. Protonation of conserved histidines at

the domain I-domain III interface of alphavirus, flavivirus and phlebovirus glycoproteins

promotes the fusogenic conformational change by destabilizing the prefusion conformation and

stabilizing the postfusion conformation (*20, 28, 67-70*). For example, histidines in domain III of

phlebovirus G_C proteins form interprotomer salt bridges with negatively charged side chains in

the postfusion trimer and mutation of one such histidine in RVFV, His1087, renders the virus

uninfectious (*71*). Similarly, in Atlas G_C His258, His333 and His336 form interprotomer or

interdomain polar contacts (**Fig. 5C**). These histidine-dependent contacts would stabilize the

trimeric postfusion-like conformation of Atlas G_C specifically in acidic endosomal compartments.

The parallels in how Atlas G_C and class II fusogens from infectious viruses respond at the

ultrastructural level to environmental cues support the hypothesis that Atlas G_C would have

membrane fusion activity in late endosomes, like phleboviruses and many retroviruses.

Fifteen disulfide bonds stabilize Atlas G_C in its postfusion-like conformation

With 30 cysteine residues forming 15 disulfide bonds, Atlas G_C contains twice the average

abundance of cysteines, more than has been found in any other class II protein. 20 of these

cysteines form disulfides that are structurally conserved in phleboviruses (including RVFV,

DABV and HRTV) but not in other class II proteins (**fig. S5**). An eleventh disulfide, in domain III,

is conserved in Atlas virus, DABV and HRTV but not RVFV. However, Atlas G_C contains four

additional disulfides not conserved in phleboviruses: one in the fusion loop, two in domain II in

the β-hairpin containing the *ij* loop (one of the cysteines forming these disulfides is conserved in

phleboviruses but forms a disulfide with a cysteine in a different β-strand in domain II), and one

in domain III (**Figs. 2C and 3A, and fig. S5**). As discussed above, the Atlas-specific disulfide in

the fusion loop (Cys129-Cys138) extends the hydrophobic surface formed by conserved

residues in the fusion loop that are required for membrane insertion (**Fig. 5D**). We note that due

to the location of Cys129 and Cys138 close to the threefold symmetry axis of the trimer, the side

chains of the two residues can be rearranged by torsional rotation, to form intermolecular

disulfides across the trimer interface, thereby crosslinking all three protomers in the trimer.

Fig. 5. Oligomeric states and disulfide bonding pattern of Atlas G_C. (**A**) SEC-MALS of Atlas

G_C ectodomain (residues 2330-2772). The protein formed trimers. (**B**) SEC of Atlas G_C(DI-III)

(residues 2330-2751) expressed in a mixture of oligomeric states, including monomers, trimers,

and larger aggregates (void peak). G_C(DI-III) monomers were unstable. (**C**) His258, His333 and

His336 form interprotomer or interdomain polar contacts predicted to stabilize the G_C trimer

specifically at pH <6, when the histidine side chains are charged. Residues from different

protomers are denoted with a prime symbol. (**D**) View along the threefold axis of the G_C trimer

with intramolecular disulfides between the cysteines most proximal to the axis, Cys129 and

Cys138.

Atlas G_C retains membrane fusion activity

Having identified the hallmarks of a fusion protein in Atlas G_C, we measured its membrane

fusion activity in a cell-cell fusion assay. CHO cells were transfected with plasmids encoding

Atlas G_C or Atlas G_N-G_C. To promote plasma membrane localization and minimize ER retention,

we replaced the predicted transmembrane domain and cytosolic tail of G_C with the C-terminal

transmembrane anchor and cytosolic tail from HLA-A2, known to localize to the plasma

membrane (*72*). Plasmids encoding vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) G, or no protein, were used

as positive and negative controls, respectively. Since Atlas G_C trimers require low pH and BMP

or PS to efficiently bind membranes, we treated transfected cells with exogenous BMP and then

transferred them to pH 4.5 buffered medium to trigger fusion. Similar treatments have been

used previously to measure cell-cell fusion activity of flavi- and alphaviruses (*53*). Confocal light

microscopy with nuclear and plasma membrane stains showed that cells with three or more

nuclei were common in cells expressing Atlas G_C following treatment with BMP and pH 4.5,

though less abundant than in cells expressing VSV G, with or without treatment (**Fig. 6, A and**

B, and movie S1). Cells with more than three nuclei were rare in cells expressing Atlas G_N-G_C.

To quantify cell-cell fusion we counted nuclei and multinuclear cells in micrographs. We found

that in cells expressing Atlas G_C, the fraction of multinuclear cells, defined as cells containing

two or more nuclei, was 25 ± 3 % following treatment with BMP and pH 4.5, versus 10 ± 0.2 %

without treatment (**Fig. 6C**; 95% confidence intervals). Transfection of the G_C fusion loop mutant

F136A/F137A resulted in essentially identical multinucleation fractions as with empty vector,

with or without treatment with BMP and pH 4.5 (**Fig. 6C**), underpinning the importance of the

fusion loop in fusion activity. By comparison, in cells expressing VSV G, 73 ± 8 % of treated

cells were multinuclear. 8 ± 1 % of cells transfected with empty vector were binuclear with or

without treatment, but none contained more than two nuclei (**fig. S9**). Incubation of transfected

cells with CDK4, which arrests the cell cycle at G1 phase, had no measurable effect on the

fraction of multinuclear cells (**fig. S9D**), indicating that cytokinesis effects do not significantly

contribute to this cell-cell fusion assay readout. We conclude that Atlas G_C has approximately

one third of the membrane fusion activity of VSV G under the treatment conditions tested, which

is significant given that VSV G is considered highly fusogenic and widely used as a model

fusogen.

The Atlas G_N-G_C construct tested had little fusion activity (**Fig. 6C**). To investigate this,

we measured G_C expression on the surface of cells transfected with the G_N-G_C plasmid. Cell-

surface proteins were biotinylated, affinity-purified and analyzed by immunoblot and liquid

chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). When expressed as part of a

G_N-G_C construct, only trace levels of cell-surface G_C were detected by Western blot (**Fig. 6D**).

Moreover, no G_N peptides were observed by LC-MS/MS, and the LC-MS/MS signal for G_C was

significantly weaker than in cells transfected with G_C alone (**Fig. 6E**), consistent with the lack of

fusion activity in cells transfected with G_N-G_C. We conclude that the G_N was degraded or failed

to be secreted in CHO cells, which in turn prevented efficient secretion of G_C.

Fig. 6. Cell-cell fusion assay. (**A**) Confocal micrographs of CHO cells expressing Atlas G_C

fused to the transmembrane anchor from HLA-A2, or VSV G. Cells were treated with pH 4.5

buffer containing BMP, or pH 7.4 buffer without lipid. Blue, Hoechst 33342 nuclear stain;

Magenta, CellBrite Red plasma membrane dye. Micrographs were selected to show fusion

events – see **fig. S9** for representative raw micrographs. Scale bars, 10 µm. (**B**) Confocal

micrograph of a multinucleated CHO cell expressing Atlas G_C following treatment with pH 4.5

and BMP. Blue, Hoechst 33342; magenta, CellBrite Red; green, a-HA antibody for Atlas G_C

detection. Scale bar, 10 µm. A composite Z-stack of this cell is shown in **movie S1**. (**C**) The

fraction of multinuclear cells transfected with plasmids encoding Atlas G_C, Atlas G_N-G_C, VSV G

or pHLsec empty vector was calculated by counting mono- and multi-nucleated cells using the

Hoechst and CellBrite stains. Error bars represent SD between measurements from three

distinct experiments, with 135-407 nuclei counted per replicate. *P*-values were calculated by 2-

way ANOVA (Tukey's multiple comparisons test, GraphPad Prism 9). (**D** and **E**) G_C cell-surface

expression analysis. Cells were biotinylated, cell-surface proteins were affinity-purified with

NeutrAvidin agarose, and the cell-surface G_C fraction was quantified by Western blot, (**D**), and

LC-MS/MS mass spectrometry, (**E**). See **dataset S2** for source data.

Transcriptional activity of Atlas virus based on RNA-Seq data

Transcription of endogenous viruses is tightly regulated to prevent harmful gene expression and

genome damage from transposition events. However, some EVEs escape repression and are

highly transcribed, including a subset of belpaoviruses from the parasitic trematode

Schistosoma mansoni (blood fluke) (*73*). We analyzed transcript levels of Atlas and other

complete belpaoviruses in previously published RNA-Seq data for *A. ceylanicum* (*74*).

Transcript abundance of the belpaovirus EVEs encoding complete polyproteins varied, ranging

from undetectable to above the median value for all annotated genes (**Fig. 7 and fig. S10**). For

Atlas virus, transcript levels varied across developmental stages: expression was above the

median for annotated genes at the larval L3 stage, below the first quartile at stage L4, and near

the median in adult hookworms (**Fig. 7A**). Notably, Atlas virus transcript expression increased

15-fold from the L4 to adult (mixed sex) stages (adjusted *p*-value = 0.0021, see **dataset S3** for

differential expression calculations).

Fig. 7. RNA-Seq signal from Atlas virus and other *A. ceylanicum* genes. (**A**) Box plots of

RNA-Seq Reads Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads (RPKM) for all annotated

A. ceylanicum genes, at different developmental stages (L3 and L4 larva, adult male and adult

mixed sex). RNA-Seq data are from Bernot *et al. (74).* Bars in each box represent the median.

Box boundaries represent the first and third quartiles. RPKM values are shown for Atlas virus

and the complete belpaovirus EVEs with the highest and lowest RNA-Seq signals, s0025.g1106

and s0203.g1846, respectively. (**B**) Distribution of RNA-Seq reads over the Atlas virus coding

sequence for the adult (mixed sex) and L4 developmental stages. Read coverage was greater

in adults. See **fig. S10** for a snapshot of this region from Integrative Genomics Viewer with

unmerged BAM files.

Discussion

Here, we identify Atlas virus as an endogenous belpaovirus containing intact *gag, pol* and *env*

genes with novel features in the human hookworm *A. ceylanicum*. The cryo-EM structure of the

Atlas Env reveals a class II viral fusion protein fold remarkably similar to that of the G_C

glycoprotein from Rift Valley Fever virus. Atlas G_C has the hallmarks of an active class II

membrane fusion protein: a stable trimeric assembly, a putative fusion loop, membrane

insertion triggered by low pH with specificity for late endosomal lipid composition, and

membrane fusion activity. Moreover, Atlas virus mRNA is expressed at specific stages of

hookworm development.

Our work supports the model first proposed based on phylogenetic studies that the

nematode belpaoviruses acquired their Env by horizontal gene transfer from a virus from the

Phenuiviridae family or a phlebovirus-like ancestor (*14*). It remains unclear whether RNA

encoding the phlebovirus-like glycoprotein integrated into the belpaovirus ancestor as mRNA in

a splicing event, or by first becoming a substrate for the reverse transcriptase with subsequent

genomic integration as dsDNA. The envelope proteins from retroviruses, including ERVs, that

have been biochemically characterized were all found to be class I fusion proteins with an α-

helical coiled-coil as the core fold. Viral class II fusion proteins have so far been found only in

non-integrating RNA viruses. Our discovery of an endogenous belpaovirus with a potentially

functional, phlebovirus-like class II fusion protein that is structurally unrelated to retrovirus Envs

reveals an unexpected degree of structural and genetic plasticity in reverse-transcribing RNA

viruses. More generally, the presence of the class II fusion protein fold in EVEs and across

many phyla suggests this fold is derived from a common ancestor that could have been viral or

cellular in origin (*33-36, 75*).

While rare, horizontal gene transfer of atypical fusogens into retroelements is not unique

to the belpaoviruses. The Tas element from the nematode *Ascaris lumbricoides*, a common

parasitic worm in humans, has an *env* gene with weak genetic similarity to herpesvirus gB

proteins (*14*), which have a class III fusion protein fold (also found in *Rhabdoviridae* and

Baculoviridae). Taken together, these findings lead us to hypothesize that acquisition of a fusion

protein from an infectious virus represents a general paradigm for how retrotransposons can

become retroviruses, and indeed how ancestral reverse-transcribing viruses may have

originated.

The *env* gene is often the first element to be lost in EVEs, as it is not required for

intracellular proliferation, so it is notable that the G_N-G_C *env* module is intact in Atlas virus. With

its identical LTRs, and no stop codons or frameshift mutations, Atlas virus shows all the signs of

being intact and recently active. This supports the notion that the envelope may be functional

(*12*). The preserved biological activities of Atlas G_C suggest these activities could have cellular

functions in health and disease, as reported for a small but increasing number of ERV *env* and

gag gene products (*1, 3, 5, 76*). Further studies are required to determine the full extent to

which protein expression from transposable elements – and its dysregulation – contribute to

basic cellular functions, embryonic development, and disease outcomes. This work provides a

blueprint for such efforts.

Materials and Methods

Genomic analyses of *A. ceylanicum* Atlas virus. A PSI-BLAST search (*40*) for protein

sequences similar to biochemically characterized phlebovirus fusion proteins identified the gene

Acey_s0020.g108 (UniProt A0A016UZK2; Genbank JARK01001356.1, genomic translation

EYC20859.1) in the human hookworm *Ancylostoma ceylanicum* as the most similar sequence

outside infectious virus taxa, with an Expected value (E-value) of 10^{-20} against the Rift Valley

Fever virus (RVFV) G_C sequence (UniProt P03518). A second iteration performed using

position-specific scoring matrix based on an alignment of sequences identified in the first

iteration gave an E-value of 10^{-144}. The *Acey_s0020.g108* gene is referred to here as Atlas

virus.

Phylogenetic analysis of the phlebovirus G_C-like protein from Atlas virus and other G_C or

G_C-like proteins with similar protein sequences was performed as follows. A reference multiple

sequence alignment was initially generated by aligning the Atlas G_C protein sequence with the

sequences of reference protein RVFV G_C and other viral G_C proteins identified as having

structural similarity in structure comparisons with DALI (*50*), namely the G_C proteins from Dabie

bandavirus (DABV, formerly SFTSV phlebovirus, GenBank:AGM33042.1) and Heartland virus

(HRTV, GenBank:AFP33394.1). For each G_C protein, the sequence range present in the

corresponding Protein Data Bank (PDB) entry (7A4A, 6EGU, 5G47, or 5YOW, respectively) was

defined as the G_C ectodomain sequence and used to generate the reference alignment with

MAFFT in SnapGene v5.1.7. The sequences of the following EVEs with detectable Env protein

sequence similarity were then added to the alignment: *Necator americanus* NECAM_13468

(GenBank:XM_013440329.1)*, C. elegans* Cer13 virus (GenBank: Z81510.2; WormBase

WBTransposon00000728, gene Y75D11A.5), and seven *A. ceylanicum* EVEs encoding

complete Gag-Pol-Env polyproteins with predicted phlebovirus-like Envs (**Fig. 1B**; GenBank

EYC27361.1, EYC19962.1, EYC20099.1, EYC18998.1, EYC07469.1, EYB91703.1,

EYB80846.1). The tree was calculated with IQ-TREE v1.6.12 and drawn with iTOL v6 (*44*).

The reverse transcriptase (RT) phylogenetic tree was calculated based on the protein

sequences of Atlas virus, Cer13 virus, the seven *A. ceylanicum* EVEs listed above, and seven

other belpaoviruses (GenBank AF060859.1, Z29712.1, L09635.1, U23420.1, AY180917.1,

D83207.1, AF537216.1). RT domains (Pfam:PF00078, RVT_1) were identified with PfamScan

in five of the sequences (GenBank Z81510.2, EYC27361.1, EYC19962.1, EYC07469.1,

EYB80846.1). The protein sequences of these five RTs were extracted and aligned with MAFFT

and Clustal Omega v1.2.4. The tree was generated with IQ-TREE v1.6.12 and iTOL v6 (*44*).

The Atlas virus LTRs were identified with REPuter (*77*). Sequence identity matrices (**fig.**

S1) were calculated with SDT (*78*).

Protein expression and purification. Synthetic genes encoding soluble ectodomain fragments

of the Env of endogenous retrovirus Y032_0020g108 from *A. ceylanicum* were subcloned into

the pMT/BiP/V5-His vector (ThermoFisher) in frame with the BiP signal sequence and the C-

terminal V5 and six-histidine tags. The constructs referred to here as Atlas G_C and Atlas G_C(DI-

III) span amino acids 2330-2772 and 2330-2751 from UniProt A0A016UZK2, respectively. Atlas

G_C mutants were generated by Dpn I-based site-directed mutagenesis. D.mel-2 insect cells

(ThermoFisher) were co-transfected with the expression construct and blasticidin resistance

marker pCoBlast (ThermoFisher) at a 20:1 molar ration and cultured for 6 weeks in 0.5 µg ml^{-1}

blasticidin to obtain a population of expressor cells. Expression was induced in a shaking cell

suspension at 27˚C with 0.5 mM $CuSO_4$ at a cell density of 5 x 10^6 cells ml^{-1}. The cell culture

medium was harvested 4 to 5 days after induction, centrifuged to remove cells (2,000 g) and cell

debris (17,000 g), filtered with a 0.2 µm filter, concentrated by tangential-flow filtration, and

buffer exchanged into 20 mM Tris pH 7.8, 0.3 M NaCl, 5% glycerol, 20 mM imidazole, 0.5 mM

TCEP (tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine). Atlas G_C was purified by nickel-affinity chromatography

with a HisTrap Excel column (Cytiva), followed by anion-exchange chromatography with a

MonoQ or Resource Q column (Cytiva) using 20 mM Tris pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 5% glycerol, 0.5

mM TCEP as the binding buffer and binding buffer plus 1 M NaCl as the elution buffer. Peak

fractions were concentrated and further purified by size-exclusion chromatography (SEC) with a

Superdex 200 Increase (10/300) column (Cytiva) in 20 mM Tris pH 7.8-8.0, 0.15 M NaCl, 5%

glycerol and 0.5 mM TCEP. The C-terminal V5 and histidine tags were optionally cleaved by

incubation with carboxypeptidase A (CPA) for 3 h at 4˚C (1:500 CPA:G_C molar ratio).

Liposome binding assay. 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phosphocholine (PC), 1-palmitoyl-

2-oleoyl-snglycero-3-phosphoethanolamine (PE), egg sphingomyelin (SM), 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-

sn-glycero-3-phospho-L-serine (PS), 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycero-3-phospho-(1'-rac-glycerol)

(PG), (*S,R*) Bis(Monoacylglycero)Phosphate (BMP) (Avanti Polar Lipids), and 1-cholesterol

(Sigma-Aldrich) were dissolved in chloroform. 25 mM lipid solutions were mixed at various molar

ratios and dried under nitrogen gas for over 4 h. The lipid film was resuspended in Liposome

Buffer (20 mM Tris pH 7.8, 0.15 M NaCl, 5% glycerol, 0.5 mM TCEP, 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 2 mM CaCl$_2$,

2 mM KCl) and subjected to five cycles of freeze-thawing in liquid nitrogen, followed by 25

cycles of extrusion through two 0.2 µm polycarbonate filter membranes (Whatman). Purified

Atlas G$_C$ ectodomain was added in a 1:771 protein:lipid molar ratio and incubated at 37˚C for 5

min. The pH was reduced by adding a 2 M stock solution of sodium acetate pH 4.6 or 4.0 to a

final concentration of 0.2 M. Following a 2 h incubation at 37˚C the pH of the suspension was

neutralized with 1 M Tris pH 8. OptiPrep density gradient medium (Sigma-Aldrich) was added to

a concentration of 40%, maintaining 0.15 M NaCl throughout. Approximately 0.5 ml of the

liposome suspension was placed in a centrifuge tube, overlayed with a 2.5 ml cushion of 30%

OptiPrep solution and centrifuged at 100,000 g for 1 h at 4˚C in a TLA100.3 rotor (Beckman

Coulter). Top (T) and bottom (B) fractions (approximately 1.5 ml each) were collected from the

top meniscus with a micropipette. Atlas G$_C$ was quantified by densitometry of the absorbance at

700 nm of bands in Coomassie-stained SDS-PAGE gels with an Odyssey scanner (LI-COR).

Flotation was defined as the amount of Atlas G$_C$ ectodomain in the top fraction divided by the

total amount of Atlas G$_C$ ectodomain in both fractions.

For measurement of liposome diameter by dynamic light scattering (DLS), the liposome

suspensions were diluted ten-fold in Liposome Buffer prior to the addition of 40% OptiPrep

solution. Following centrifugation liposome diameters were measured in 384-well clear-

bottomed optical imaging plates (Corning) with a DynaPro Plate Reader III (Wyatt

Technologies). The mean diameter was calculated as the average of three independent

measurements, each consisting of fifteen two-second acquisitions. Protein-free acidified

liposome controls were treated and measured in parallel, with Liposome Buffer instead of Atlas

G$_C$ solution.

Size-exclusion chromatography and multi-angle scattering (SEC-MALS) analysis. 100 µl

samples containing 1.6 – 2.5 mg ml^{-1} Atlas G$_C$ ectodomain were analysed by size-exclusion

chromatography (SEC) at 293 K on a Superdex 200 (10/300) column (Cytiva) in 20 mM Tris pH

7.8, 0.15 M NaCl, 5% glycerol and 0.5 mM TCEP with a flow rate of 0.5 ml min^{-1}. The SEC

system was coupled to both multi-angle light scattering (MALS) and quasi-elastic light scattering

(QELS) modules (DAWN-8+, Wyatt Technology). The protein was also detected as it eluted

from the column with a differential refractometer (Optilab T-rEX, Wyatt Technology) and a UV

detector at 280 nm (Agilent 1260 UV, Agilent Technology). Molar masses of peaks in the elution

profile were calculated from the light scattering and protein concentration, quantified using the

differential refractive index of the peak assuming a dn/dc of 0.1860, with ASTRA6 (Wyatt

Technology).

Cryo-EM sample preparation and data collection. Purified Atlas G_C ectodomain trimer (3 µl

at a concentration of 0.025 mg ml^{-1}) in 20 mM Tris pH 7.8, 0.15 M NaCl, 5% glycerol and 0.5

mM TCEP, was applied onto glow-discharged R1.2/1.3 400 mesh copper grids (Quantifoil Micro

Tools, Germany). The grids were blotted for 4 s and plunge-frozen in liquid ethane with a

Vitrobot Mark IV (ThermoFisher) at 4°C and 100% humidity. Preliminary sample screening and

initial datasets were acquired on a FEI Tecnai F20 microscope operated at 200 kV equipped

with Falcon II direct electron detector (ThermoFisher) at -4 µm defocus. High-resolution cryo-EM

dataset collection was performed on a Titan Krios microscope (ThermoFisher) operated at

300 kV equipped with a 20 eV slit-width GIF quantum energy-filtered Gatan K2-Summit direct

electron detector in counting mode. A total of 3,027 movies were recorded at a calibrated

magnification of 130,000x leading to a magnified pixel size of 1.047 Å on the specimen. Each

movie comprised 36 frames with an exposure rate of 1.28 e$^-$ Å^{-2} per frame, with a total exposure

time of 8 s and an accumulated exposure of 46.18 e$^-$ Å^{-2}. Data acquisition was performed with

EPU Automated Data Acquisition Software for Single Particle Analysis (ThermoFisher) with

three shots per hole at -1.3 µm to -3.5 µm defocus.

Image processing. Micrographs from initial datasets allowed us to obtain a consistent model at

~19 Å resolution from 3,790 particles selected after 2D and 3D classification, and consequent

auto-refinement. All movies from high-resolution datasets were motion-corrected and dose-

weighted with MOTIONCOR2 (*79*). Aligned, non-dose-weighted micrographs were then used to

estimate the contrast transfer function (CTF) with GCTF (*80*). All subsequent image processing

steps were performed using RELION 3.0 (*81, 82*). 2D references from initial datasets were used

to auto-pick the micrographs. One round of reference-free 2D classification was performed to

produce templates for better reference-dependent auto-picking, resulting in a total of 987,570

particles. After a first round of 2D classification, 595,011 particles were selected to perform a

second 2D classification, resulting in a final number of 320,041 selected particles. Then, a 3D

classification imposing C3 symmetry was performed using the model from the initial datasets

filtered at 40 Å resolution as initial model. The best class, containing 197,145 particles, was

selected, and subjected to 3D auto-refinement imposing C3 symmetry, yielding a map with an

overall resolution at 4.11 Å based on the gold-standard (FSC = 0.143) criterion. After

refinement, the CTF refinement (per-particle defocus fitting and beam tilt estimation) and

Bayesian polishing (*83*) routines implemented in RELION 3.0 were performed, yielding a final

map with an overall resolution at 3.76 Å. Local resolution was estimated with RELION.

Model building and refinement. The most similar sequence to Atlas G_C with a structure

available was glycoprotein G_C from Rift Valley Fever virus (RVFV). The crystal structure of

RVFV G_C in the postfusion conformation (PDB:6EGU (*28*)) was used as template to build a

homology model with the sequence of Atlas G_C using the Swiss-Model server

(https://swissmodel.expasy.org). The output model was docked as a rigid body into the density

with UCSF Chimera (*84*). Initial docking was performed manually and was followed by real

space fitting with the Fit in Map routine. A preliminary step of real space refinement was

performed on the three-subunit model, with Phenix 1.13 (*85*), with global minimization, atomic

displacement parameter (ADP), simulated annealing and morphing options selected. The model

was then rebuilt in Coot (*86*) to optimize the fit to the density. Due to low resolution information

in the fusion loop region, the density was converted to .mtz file using CCP-EM software

package tools and blurring of the density allowed us to localize bulky residues and disulphide

bonds, and thus use them as a guide to build the entire fusion loop. A final step of real space

refinement was performed with Phenix 1.15, with global minimization and ADP options selected.

The following restraints were used in the real space refinement steps: secondary structure

restraints, non-crystallographic symmetry (NCS) restraints between the protein subunits, side

chain rotamer restraints, and Ramachandran restraints. Key refinement statistics are listed in

table S1.

Model validation and analysis. The FSC curve between the final model and full map after

post-processing in RELION, Model vs Map, is shown in **fig. S3**. Cross-validation against

overfitting was performed as described (*87*). The atoms in the final atomic model were displaced

by 0.5 Å in random directions with Phenix. The shifted coordinates were then refined against

one of the half-maps generated in RELION, the "work set". This test refinement was performed

in Phenix using the same procedure as for the refinement of the final model (see above). The

other half-map, the "test set" was not used in refinement for cross-validation. FSC curves of the

refined shifted model against the work set, FSCwork, and against the test set, FSCtest, are

shown in **fig. S3**. The FSCwork and FSCtest curves are not significantly different, consistent

with the absence of overfitting in our final models.

The quality of the atomic models, including basic protein geometry, Ramachandran

plots, clash analysis, was assessed and validated with Coot, MolProbity (*88*) as implemented in

Phenix 1.15, and with the Worldwide PDB (wwPDB) OneDep System (https://deposit-

pdbe.wwpdb.org/deposition).

Cell-cell fusion assay. Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) Lec3.2.8.1 cells were transfected with

pHL-Sec plasmids encoding ectodomain fragments of Atlas G_N-G_C (polyprotein residues 1909-

2795) or Atlas G_C (residues 2330-2795) fused to the C-terminal transmembrane domain from

HLA-A2 (residues 288-345) and cloned in frame with the vector's secretion signal and a C-

terminal HA tag. Empty pHL-Sec plasmid, and pcDNA encoding vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV)

G, were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. 16-20 h post-transfection, cells

were transferred to PBS supplemented with 2.5 mM BMP (18:1(*S,S*)

Bis(Monoacylglycero)Phosphate (BMP); Avanti Polar Lipids). To obtain a homogeneous BMP

suspension, the mixture was freeze-thawed five times using liquid nitrogen and a water bath,

followed by a 3 min incubation in a sonicating water bath. Cells were incubated in the BMP

suspension (or PBS for the untreated control) at 37˚C for 5 min, shown previously to be

sufficient for anionic lipid incorporation into the plasma membrane (*53*). Cell were transferred to

pH 4.5 complete medium (DMEM adjusted to pH 4.5 with HCl supplemented with 10% foetal

bovine serum), or pH 7.4 complete medium for the untreated control, and centrifuged at 2,500 g

at 37˚C for 2 min. Cells were immediately resuspended in complete media and plated out.

Following reattachment (4-6 h after treatment), cells were stained with Hoechst 33342 (Bio-Rad)

and CellBrite Red cytoplasmic membrane dye (Biotium, cat. no. 30023) and imaged on a Nikon

iSIM Swept Field inverted confocal microscope with a 60x/1.2NA water objective. Cluster

analysis of the Hoechst channel with Fiji (*89*) was used to count single nuclei and identify

polynuclear clusters. Nuclei within polynuclear clusters were counted by visual inspection. The

plasma membrane stain was used to confirm polynuclear clusters and count the number of

multinuclear cells, defined as cells with two or more nuclei, by visual inspection. The fraction of

multinucleated cells (*F*) was calculated using the formula:

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$$F \ = \ 1 \ - \ (n.\,mononucleated\ cells) \ / \ (total\ n.\,nuclei)$$

For testing the effect of inhibiting the cell cycle on the fraction of multinucleated cells,

cells were transfected with plasmid pEGFP-N1, and treated on the following day with 10 µM

CDK4 (Cayman Chemical, Cat. No. 17648), or PBS in the negative control, for 6 h at pH 7.4.

Cell surface biotinylation and mass spectrometry. Proteins on the cell surface were

biotinylated and isolated with the Pierce™ Cell Surface Protein Biotinylation and Isolation Kit

(ThermoFisher, A44390). HEK293T cells were transfected with 3 µg pHLsec-G_NG_C, or pHLsec-

G_C. One day later, cells were washed with PBS and incubated with 0.25 g/l Sulfo-NHS-SS-Biotin

on ice for 10 min. Then cells were washed with PBS and suspended in 0.5 ml of ThermoFisher

Lysis Buffer supplemented with cOmplete EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Merck). Cells

were lysed on ice for 30 min (with 5s vortexing before and after lysis) and centrifuged at 15,000

x g for 5 min at 4°C. The lysate supernatant was incubated with 0.25 ml NeutrAvidin Agarose

resin for 30 min at 20°C on an end-over-end rotator. The resin was washed with Wash Buffer,

and bound proteins eluted Elution Buffer from the kit

Samples were prepared for mass spectrometry with the EasyPep Mini MS Sample Prep

Kit (ThermoFisher, A40006) following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, proteins were

extracted, reduced, alkylated, and digested with trypsin/Lys-C protease. Hydrophilic and

hydrophobic contaminants were removed with a peptide clean-up step. LC-MS/MS analysis of

peptide samples was performed on an Ultimate 3000 rapid separation liquid chromatography

(RSLC) system connected to a Q-Exactive plus mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher). The

acquired raw files were processed with MaxQuant v1.6.6.0.

Western blotting. The cell surface biotinylated protein samples purified from HEK293T cells as

described above were heated to 95°C in SDS sample buffer for 10 min. 15 µl of each sample

was run on a polyacrylamide gel. Gels were blotted onto PVDF membranes (Merck). Blots were

blocked in 5% milk in PBS, 0.2% Tween-20 and incubated overnight with anti-HA rabbit

monoclonal antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, 3724, RRID:AB_1549585) diluted 1:1,000 in

blocking solution. Blots were imaged with the 800 nm channel of a LI-COR Odyssey fluorescent

scanner after incubation with anti-rabbit DyLight 800-conjugated secondary antibody (Cell

Signaling Technology, 5151, RRID:AB_10697505) at 1:5,000 dilution for 30 min at room

temperature.

RNA-Seq analysis. We analysed data published by Hawdon and colleagues (*74*).

ArrayExpress run accession numbers and corresponding life cycle stages were: SRR6359160,

L3; SRR6359161 and SRR6359163, L4; SRR6359164 and SRR6359165, Adult mixed pooled

worms; SRR6359162 and SRR6359166, Adult male pooled worms. Our mapping and counting

strategy was modified as recommended for repetitive genomic features (*90*). Reads were

mapped against the reference *A. ceylanicum* genome (*91*) with STAR v2.7.5a (*92*) with

parameters: "--outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate --runMode alignReads --

outFilterMultimapNmax 1000 --outSAMmultNmax 1 --outFilterMismatchNmax 3 --

outMultimapperOrder Random --winAnchorMultimapNmax 1000 --alignEndsType EndToEnd --

alignIntronMax 1 --alignMatesGapMax 350". FeatureCounts v2.0.1 (*93*) with parameters "-M -F

GFF -s 0 -p -t exon -g gene_id" was used to count reads over a modified annotation file based

on the original annotation (*91*) and downloaded from Wormbase Parasite (*94*). The original

annotation file in GFF format was slightly modified to contain a "gene_id" feature in the ninth

column and hence facilitate the calculation of aggregate reads by gene (for more details see

header of the GFF file, **dataset S4**). The resulting table of counts was imported into R (*95*) and

processed for differential expression analysis using DESeq2 v1.26.0 (*96*). Plots were generated

using ggplot2 (*97*) and karyoploteR (*98*). RNA-Seq analysis scripts and instructions for how to

use them are provided in the Supplementary Materials (**dataset S5**) and are additionally

available on Github [https://github.com/annaprotasio/Merchant_et_al_2020].

Statistics. Error bars represent the standard deviation or standard error –as indicated in the

respective figure legend– of 2-7 replicates conducted across at least two independent

experiments. SDS-PAGE gels and DLS data shown are representative of at least two

independent experiments. Significance and *P*-values were determined by 2-way ANOVA. For

DLS data, Sidak's multiple comparisons test was used with a 95% confidence interval, in Prism

8 (GraphPad). For cell-cell fusion data, Tukey's multiple comparisons test was used in Prism 9

(GraphPad). Source data are provided in **datasets S1 and S2.** No statistical methods were

used to predetermine sample size, experiments were not randomized, and the investigators

were not blinded to experimental outcomes.

Data availability

All data needed to evaluate the conclusions in the paper are present in the paper and/or the

Supplementary Materials. The atomic coordinates were deposited in the Protein Data Bank with

accession code 7A4A [https://doi.org/10.2210/pdb7A4A/pdb]. The cryo-EM density was

deposited in the EM Data Bank with code EMD-11630

[https://www.ebi.ac.uk/pdbe/entry/emdb/EMD-11630]. The raw electron micrographs were

deposited in EMPIAR with code EMPIAR-10266 [https://doi.org/10.6019/EMPIAR-10266]. RNA-

Seq analysis scripts and instructions for how to use them are provided in the Supplementary

Materials (**dataset S5**) and are additionally available on Github

[https://github.com/annaprotasio/Merchant_et_al_2020].

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Acknowledgements

We thank Sew-Yeu Peak-Chew at the MRC Laboratory of Molecular Biology (LMB) Mass

Spectrometry Facility for assistance with mass spectrometry data collection and analysis. We

acknowledge the MRC-LMB Electron Microscopy (EM) Facility and UK national electron Bio-

Imaging Centre (eBIC) at Diamond Light Source (DLS) for access and support of EM sample

preparation and data collection. We acknowledge DLS for access and support of eBIC under

proposals EM17434 and EM20121 funded by the Wellcome Trust, MRC and BBSRC. We are

grateful to Kyle Dent for aiding in using the microscopes at eBIC. We are grateful for access to

the MRC-LMB Scientific Computing facilities. This work was supported by Senior Research

Fellowships 101908/Z/13/Z and 217191/Z/19/Z from the Wellcome Trust and NIH grant R01

GM102869-01 to Y.M.

Author contributions

MM and YM conceived the experiments. MM purified the proteins and performed the

biochemical assays. CPM collected and processed the cryo-EM data and performed the image

reconstruction. CPM and YM built and refined the atomic model. YL and HZ carried out the cell-

cell fusion assay. AVP performed the RNA-Seq analysis. All authors contributed to the figures.

YM wrote the manuscript. Project supervision, administration, and funding acquisition, YM.

Competing interests

YM is a consultant for Related Sciences LLC and has profits interests in Danger Bio LLC. The

authors declare no other competing interests.

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A bioactive phlebovirus-like envelope protein in a hookworm

endogenous virus

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1036 **Supplementary Materials**

1037 **Figures S1 to S10**

1038 **Table S1**

1039 **Movie S1**

1040 **Datasets S1 to S5**

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Fig. S1. Atlas is an endogenous belpaovirus with a phlebovirus-like Env. (**A**) Nucleotide
sequence of the Atlas LTRs, predicted by REPuter (*76*). The LTRs are 100% identical. (**B**) Aligned
protein sequences of reverse transcriptase (RT) polymerase site from Atlas and other representative
belpao- and retroviruses. *A. ceylanicum* belpaoviruses have an Asp to Asn substitution (Y[X]DD to
YVDN) in the polymerase site, the most conserved RT motif (Motif V, or Motif C). GenBank
accession numbers are listed after virus names. MoMLV, Moloney murine leukemia virus; HERVK,
human ERV-K; *Dme*, *Drosophila melanogaster*; *Sce, Saccharomyces cerevisiae*; *Bmo, Bombyx
mori*; *Cel, C. elegans*; *Ace, A. ceylanicum*; *Alu, Ascaris lumbricoides*; *Ncr, Neurospora crassa*; *Cre,
C. reinhardtii*; *Tbr, Trypanosoma brucei*. (**C**) Sequence identity matrix for Gag protein sequences
from representative belpaoviruses and *A. ceylanicum* belpaoviruses with intact protein coding
regions. *Amy, Antheraea mylitta; Dsi, Drosophila simulans; Aga, Anopheles gambiae; Tru, Takifugu
rubripes.* (**D**) Sequence identity matrix for phlebovirus-like Env protein sequences from nematode
belpaoviruses. Identity matrices were calculated with SDT (*77*).

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Fig. S2. Size-exclusion chromatography of Atlas G_C following ion-exchange chromatography. Samples were analysed on a Superdex 200 Increase (10/300) column (Cytiva). The A_{260}:A_{280} ratios for selected peaks are shown in bold. (**A**) The Atlas G_C fragment used for cryo-EM image reconstruction (residues 2330-2772). The protein had higher absorbance at 260 nm (A_{260}) than expected for pure protein. The elution volume was consistent with a homotrimer. (**B**) Atlas G_C(DI-III), maintained at pH > 7 throughout expression and purification. Multiple oligomeric states were present including peaks with elution volumes consistent with monomers, trimers, and higher order oligomers. (**C**) Atlas G_C fusion loop mutant F136A/F137A. (**D**) Atlas G_C GPL binding pocket mutant R86A.

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Fig. S3. Image reconstruction quality assessment and workflow. (A) Fourier Shell
Correlations (FSC) of the reconstruction of Atlas G_C from two independently refined half-maps (map2map,
in blue); and of the reconstruction from the whole dataset versus a map calculated from the refined
atomic model (model2map, in red). The gold-standard cutoff (FSC = 0.143) and the FSC = 0.5 level are
marked with dashed lines. The resolution values of each curve at these levels are indicated. (**B**) FSC
plots for cross-validation as described by Amunts *et al.* (*86*). FSCwork (magenta), FSC of refined test
model versus work set (half-map used in test refinement). FSCfree (green), FSC of refined test model
versus test set (half-map not used in test refinement). The FSC = 0.5 level is indicated by a dashed line.
(**C**) Flow chart showing the workflow pipeline for cryo-EM image processing, classification, and model
refinement, as described in the Materials and Methods.

Fig. S4. Representative Cryo-EM micrograph and density with local resolution estimation
(**A**) Representative cryo-EM micrograph of Atlas G_C trimers. (**B**) Local resolution estimation for the cryo-EM volume, calculated in RELION 3.0 (*82*). (**C**) Representative samples of local cryo-EM density from the structure with fitted and refined atomic models. The deposited density map was contoured at 3 σ in Pymol (Schrodinger, LLC).

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Fig. S5. Protein sequence alignment of Atlas G$_C$ and its closest orthologs
Amino acid sequence alignment of Atlas G$_C$ and the most similar sequences from infectious
viruses: Rift Valley Fever virus (RVFV), Dabie bandavirus (DABV, formerly SFTSV phlebovirus)
and Heartland virus (HRTV). Domains and structural features are marked with lines above the
alignment. GPL, residues in or near the glycerophospholipid headgroup binding pocket. N-glyc.,
N-glycosylation site. Cyt. tail, cytoplasmic tail. Conserved disulfide bonds are numbered in
green. Disulfide bonds specific to Atlas virus are denoted with an "A". An RVFV-specific
disulfide is denoted with an "R". A phlebovirus-specific disulfide is denoted with a "P". The
disulfide marked 11' is conserved in Atlas, DABV and HRTV but not RVFV.

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Fig. S6. Cryo-EM density for N-linked glycan and GPL pocket of Atlas G$_C$. (**A**) Cryo-EM density and atomic model of the N-linked glycan at Asn414. The deposited density map was contoured at 2.2 σ in Pymol (Schrodinger, LLC). (**B**) Cryo-EM density and atomic model for the fusion loop region of the Atlas G$_C$ trimer. A B-factor blurring correction of +150 Å^2 was applied to the deposited density map. The resulting map was contoured at 1 σ in Pymol. (**C**) Cryo-EM density in the glycerophospholipid (GPL) headgroup binding pocket unaccounted for by the atomic model. Shown in grey stick representation is the phosphatidylcholine (PC) headgroup bound to RVFV G$_C$ structure (*28*) superimposed on the Atlas G$_C$ structure. A B-factor blurring correction of +163 Å^2 was applied to the deposited density map. The resulting map was contoured at 1.2 σ in Pymol.

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Fig. S7. Dynamic light scattering of Atlas G$_C$-liposome complexes. Liposome diameter dynamic light scattering (DLS) data from **Fig. 4B** are shown as the mean change in liposome diameter upon binding Atlas G$_C$ ectodomain (WT, F136A/F137A or R86A). Error bars show the standard error of the mean (s.e.m.) of three to seven replicates (see **dataset S1** for source data). Significance was determined by 2-way ANOVA analysis using Sidak's multiple comparisons test with a 95% confidence interval, in Prism 8 (GraphPad). **, $0.001 < p < 0.01$; *, $p < 0.05$; ns, not significant.

Fig. S8. Uncropped gels. Gels shown for all liposome flotation replicates (**Fig. 4A**), along with immunoblot from **Fig. 6D**.

Fig. S9. Cell-cell fusion assay with CHO cells. (**A**) Representative confocal micrographs of CHO cells transfected with plasmid encoding Atlas G_C, Atlas G_N-G_C, VSV G, or no protein (pHLsec empty vector). Cells were treated with pH 4.5 buffer containing BMP, or pH 7.4 buffer without exogenous lipid. Blue, Hoechst 33342 nuclear stain; Magenta, CellBrite Red plasma membrane dye. (**B**) Permeabilized and fixed cells transfected with plasmid encoding G_C stained with anti-HA antibody, to detect the C-terminal HA tag on G_C. Blue, Hoechst 33342; green, anti-HA antibody. The boxed region is also shown in **Fig. 6B** and **Movie S1**. (**C**) Left, confocal micrograph of cells transfected with pHLsec plasmid stained with Hoechst 33342. Right, masks from cluster analysis of the Hoechst channel with Fiji (*88*). All scale bars are 10 μm. (**D**) Effect of cell cycle inhibitor CDK4 on the fraction of di- or multinucleated cells. Cell were transfected with a plasmid encoding eGFP (pEGFP-N1) and incubated with 10 μM CDK4 (right) or with PBS (left) for 6 h at pH 7.4. *n*, number of nuclei counted. See **dataset S2** for source data.

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Fig. S10. RNA-Seq analysis of intact *A. ceylanicum* belpaovirus EVEs. (A) Box plots of
RNA-Seq expression in Reads Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads (RPKM) for
all annotated genes, and for nine intact *A. ceylanicum* belpaovirus EVEs including Atlas virus, at
the L3, L4 and adult (male and mixed sex) developmental stages. RNA-Seq data are from
Bernot *et al.* (*71*). (**B**) Integrative Genomics Viewer snapshot showing the distribution of raw
RNA-Seq reads over the Atlas virus (*Acey_s0020.g108*) coding sequence in mixed sex adult
worms and L4 larvae with individual unmerged BAM files.
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 Table S1. Cryo-EM data collection, structure determination, model building and
 refinement parameters and statistics.

	Atlas G$_C$
Data Collection and Processing	
Microscope	FEI Titan Krios
Voltage (kV)	300
Electron exposure (electrons Å^{-2})	46.12
Exposure per frame (electrons Å^{-2})	1.28
Defocus range (µm)	-1.3 to -3.5
Pixel size (Å)	1.047
N. initial particles	987,570
N. final particles	197,145
Map resolution (Å)	3.76
Map resolution range (Å)	3.50 - 5.20
FSC threshold for resolution limit	0.143
Model refinement	
Map sharpening B factor (Å^2)	-180
Symmetry imposed	C3
Mask correlation coefficient	0.78
Model composition	
N. non-hydrogen atoms	10,159
Protein residues (chains A, B, C)	1,320
R.m.s. deviations	
Bond lengths (Å)	0.005
Bond angles (˚)	0.694
Planarity (Å)	0.004
B*-factors/ADPs	
Minimum	35
Maximum	176
Mean	82
Validation (Phenix 1.15)	
MolProbity overall score	2.23
MolProbity all-atom clashscore	5.86
Rotamer outliers (%)	2.28
Ramachandran plot	
% favored	86.2
% allowed	13.8
% outliers	0.0
PDB code	7A4A
EMDB code	EMD-11630
EMPIAR code	10266

 ADPs, atomic displacement parameters.

1145   **Movie S1. Confocal Z-stack of the multinucleated cell shown in Fig. 6B (separate file).**

1146   CHO cell expressing Atlas G_C following treatment with pH 4.5 and BMP. Blue, Hoechst 33342;

1147   magenta, CellBrite Red; green, a-HA antibody for Atlas G_C detection. Scale bar, 10 µm.

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1149   **Dataset S1. (Separate file)**

1150   Source data file for Fig. 4 – liposome binding assays.

1151

1152   **Dataset S2. (Separate file)**

1153   Source data file for Fig. 6 and Fig. S9 – cell-cell fusion assays.

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1155   **Dataset S3. (Separate file)**

1156   Source data file for Fig. 7 – differential RNA-Seq expression calculations.

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1158   **Dataset S4. (Separate file)**

1159   Source data file for Fig. 7 – original RNA-Seq annotation (GFF) file.

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1161   **Dataset S5. (Separate file)**

1162   RNA-Seq analysis scripts and instructions (also available on Github

1163   [https://github.com/annaprotasio/Merchant_et_al_2020]).