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Spatial and functional arrangement of Ebola virus polymerase inside phase-separated viral factories

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Abstract
Ebola virus (EBOV) infection induces the formation of membrane-less, cytoplasmic compartments termed viral factories, in which multiple viral proteins gather and coordinate viral transcription, replication and assembly. Key to viral factory function is the recruitment of EBOV polymerase, a multifunctional machine that mediates transcription and replication of the viral RNA genome. We show that intracellularly reconstituted EBOV viral factories are biomolecular condensates, with composition-dependent internal exchange dynamics that likely facilitates viral replication. Within the viral factory, we found the EBOV polymerase clusters into foci. The distance between these foci increases when viral replication is enabled. In addition to the typical droplet-like viral factories, we report the formation of network-like viral factories during EBOV infection. Unlike droplet-like viral factories, network-like factories are inactive for EBOV nucleocapsid assembly. This unique view of EBOV propagation suggests a form-to-function relationship that describes how physical properties and internal structures of biomolecular condensates influence viral biogenesis.

Introduction
Viruses are architects of cellular remodeling needed to fulfill life-cycle events inside host cells. Some viruses remodel host cells by inducing formation of membrane-less compartments, also termed viral factories (VFs), that separate essential viral replication and assembly events from other cellular processes[1-11]. As exemplified by many known cellular membrane-less organelles, such as the multiphasic nucleolus[12], different cellular processes can be spatially separated into distinct co-existing phases inside the membrane-less compartment. In contrast, how multiple interdependent viral biogenesis steps are coordinated inside viral factories remains unclear.

For viruses that induce VF formation, many are non-segmented, negative-strand RNA viruses (nNSVs) [2,3,5-8,10,11]. This group of viruses include important human pathogens such as rabies virus, measles virus, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), and Ebola virus. Inside the virion, the RNA genome of nNSVs is coated by viral nucleoprotein to form a helical RNP structure. When the virus enters a host cell, the viral genome is released into the cytoplasm and the helical RNP relaxes, which allows the viral polymerase to access and transcribe the negative-strand RNA genome into multiple mRNAs encoding individual viral genes. Viral mRNAs are translated by host cell ribosomes into viral proteins. The same viral polymerase also coordinates synthesis of a complementary strand, known as the anti-genome, which templates the replication of progeny genomes. Genome and anti-genome are immediately wrapped with nucleoprotein oligomers to form RNP-helices. However, only the genome-containing RNP (vRNP), which is linked to viral polymerase, is assembled into progeny virions[13]. The synthesis of distinct viral RNA species and sorting the corresponding viral RNA species for translation vs. assembly all happen inside the cytoplasmic space, thus likely require some spatial regulation.

Recent studies indicated that several nNSV VFs are biomolecular condensates[11,14-17] with
druggable material properties that correlate with virus inhibition[18]. Biomolecular condensate
formation adheres to phase separation principles where molecules divide from a mixed system
into phases with distinct constituents at varying concentrations in each phase[19,20]. This process is
propelled by multivalent intermolecular interactions and impacted by the physiochemical and
sequence-specific characteristics of proteins (including structured and disordered regions) and
RNA components[21-24]. Under physiological conditions, the concentration of key constituents
essentially controls the state of intracellular phase separation, which can be approximated in a
phase diagram[19]. Deciphering phase behaviors of intracellular VF condensates and the spatial
localization of distinct steps of virus biogenesis within them will outline the form-to-function
relationship of VFs and enhance our understanding of nNSV replication.
Among nNSVs, Ebola virus is a zoonotic, human pathogen that causes near-annual outbreaks
of disease with up to 90% mortality [25,26]. The only FDA-approved vaccine for Ebola virus protects
against only Ebola virus Zaire (EBOV), and not the other pathogenic species. Further, therapeutic
antibodies approved thus far are also specific for EBOV and may poorly penetrate immune-
privileged sites where EBOV can lurk. Additional therapeutic strategies are needed, and will be
accelerated by a better understanding of essential mechanisms in EBOV replication.
A hallmark of EBOV infection is the formation of eosinophilic, cytoplasmic inclusion bodies[27],
which we now refer to as viral factories (VFs). EBOV nucleoprotein (NP) is considered the building
block of VFs: in infected cells, VFs always contain NP, and in transfected cells, entropically
expressed NP can induce VF-like, cytoplasmic granules. VFs recruit EBOV large polymerase
protein L, polymerase cofactor VP35, and transcription factor VP30[28] through NP-VP35[29,30], L-
VP35[31] and NP-VP30[32] interactions. Recruitment of L, VP35 and VP30 to EBOV VFs transform
VFs into sites for active replication and transcription of viral RNA genome[6]. Further recruitment of
EBOV minor matrix protein VP24 to VFs through NP-VP24 interaction[33] triggers the assembly of
viral nucleocapsid. Given the biosafety level-4 requirement to work with live EBOV,
reconstitution[29] and reverse genetic systems[33-35] have become routine practices to study
molecular mechanisms underlining EBOV replication, transcription, and assembly or EBOV VFs
formation. It is unclear whether the morphology, dynamics and internal forces of the VF
condensates correlate with the coordination of EBOV biogenesis events.
Here, we define the spatial regulation of viral RNA synthesis and the EBOV polymerase within
intracellular viral factories. We determine that reconstituted EBOV VFs exist as biomolecular
condensates and dissect the contribution of key viral proteins to intracellular VF phase behaviors.
Using multi-scale imaging approaches, we provide an unprecedented view of the spatial
organization by which Ebola virus orchestrates multiple biogenesis steps and deploys viral
replication machinery inside viral factories.
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Results
1. An mNeonGreen-tagged EBOV VP35 can be used for live cell imaging of reconstituted
viral factories (VFs)
Intracellular EBOV VFs are found to undergo fusion during infection[6]. This observation served
as the first hint that EBOV VFs could be biomolecular condensates. Thus, we undertook a
quantitative approach to determine whether EBOV VFs are indeed fluid condensates and define
the internal molecular dynamics within EBOV VFs. Since microscopy of live, EBOV-infected cells
under biosafety level-4 containment is neither feasible nor amenable to controlling VF composition,
we first established a transfection-based, live-cell system to perform fluorescence recovery after
photobleaching (FRAP) analysis with intracellularly reconstituted EBOV VFs.
To monitor EBOV VF with live-cell imaging, we adapted an approach used to image VFs in
live cells infected with Rabies[15]. We fused an EBOV VF constituent, the polymerase cofactor
VP35, to an N-terminal hemagglutinin (HA) epitope tag and a fluorescent protein, mNeonGreen
(mNG) to generate HA-mNG-VP35. We chose to tag EBOV VP35 instead of another VF

constituent, EBOV NP, because fluorescence-tagging of NP can ablate the biological function of
NP in supporting viral RNA synthesis [36]. We confirmed that HA-mNG-VP35 expresses at a similar
level as the wild-type (VP35-WT), and retains sufficient ability to act as the polymerase cofactor
that supports EBOV viral RNA synthesis (**Supplementary Figure 1a**).
VP35 interacts with EBOV nucleoprotein (NP) and chaperones the NP monomer (NP^0) prior
to NP oligomerization[30]. As the polymerase cofactor, VP35 bridges the EBOV large polymerase
protein (L) to NP-coated viral genome[28]. Since these multivalent intermolecular interactions VP35
involved in might provide the foundation for phase separation, we first performed co-
immunoprecipitations and confirmed that the mNG tag on VP35 did not affect these interactions
(**Figure 1a**). Immunofluorescence microscopy showed that the intracellular localization of HA-
mNG-VP35 resembles VP35-WT, when co-expressed with NP and L (**Supplementary Figure
1b**). Together, our results indicate that HA-mNG-VP35 preserves sufficient polymerase-cofactor
function and fully retains interactions with NP and L for use in live-cell imaging.

2. Reconstituted EBOV VFs display composition-dependent, phase separation
behaviors in live cells
To measure the internal exchange of EBOV VF components in a cellular context, we
performed FRAP in HEK 293T cells co-transfected with EBOV NP and HA-mNG-VP35. Both NP
and VP35 proteins contain intrinsically disordered and low complexity regions (**Figure 1b**), bind
RNA[37,38], and self-oligomerize[39-42], all common features associated with known cellular proteins
to be involved in phase separation[19]. Here we used NP and VP35 as the minimal components to
reconstitute EBOV VFs. Reconstituted EBOV VFs had diameters ranging from sub-micrometer to
10 µm (**Supplementary Figure 1c**). Because the high mobility of sub-µm VF prevents accurate
measurement and quantification of fluorescence recovery, we focused on medium-sized VFs (4-
5 µm diameter) and photobleached a center spot within these sizable VFs (**Methods**).
As a control, HA-mNG-VP35 expressed alone phase separated in the cytoplasm (**Figure 1c**).
Most cells have large quantities of small (sub-µm) VP35-containing dense phases (condensates)
with high apparent mobility relative to the dilute phase, but a small number of condensates had a
larger size suitable for FRAP. These large condensates have multiple internal regions lacking
fluorescence, which coincides with a "sponge-like" phenotype of VP35-condensates in a previous
electron microscopy study[43]. Within these VP35-condensates, we observed slow internal
molecular exchange (**Figure 1f,** green curve), which could be mediated by VP35 self-
oligomerization[41,42] or heterotypic interactions between VP35 and endogenous dsRNA[44,45], since
diffusion of a similar-sized protein across a cytoplasmic spot (a circle with 2 µm diameter) occurs
within milliseconds[46].
We next evaluated reconstituted EBOV VFs via co-expression of HA-mNG-VP35 and NP. The
combination of HA-mNG-VP35 and NP yielded binary condensates (**Figure 1d**) that appeared to
be fluid-like based on frequently observed fusions between condensates or fission of one
condensate into two parts (**Supplementary Figure 2a**), and on non-fluorescence objects
trafficking through VFs (**Supplementary Figure 2b**). Over half the transfected cells had easily
identifiable >5 µm condensates. Fluorescence recovery of VP35-NP condensates is more
complete (mobile fraction ~85%) than that measured in VP35-alone condensate (mobile fraction
< 50%) (**Figure 1f,** red vs. green curves). This result indicates that the VP35-NP interaction can
mobilize molecules inside VF condensates. We also noticed the kinetics of internal molecular
exchange measured with Ebola VP35-NP condensates ($t_{1/2FAST}$ ~5.5 s) is similar with that reported
for VFs in rabies virus infected cells[15] ($t_{1/2FAST}$ ~5.2 s) (**Figure 1f**).
Co-expression of mNG-HA-VP35 with NP and EBOV large polymerase protein (L) resulted in
dense phases in the cytoplasm that contained all three proteins (**Figure 1e, Supplementary
Figure 1b**). In VP35-NP-L condensates, the mobile fraction of mNG-HA-VP35 (**Figure 1f**, blue
curve) is on average 7% lower than VP35+NP binary condensates and the percentage of
molecules participating in fast association event (%fast) is on average 16% lower than binary

condensates. This result suggested that VP35-L interactions could immobilize a small population
of VP35. In both binary and ternary condensates, bleach pulses induced loss of fluorescence
signal to around 12% of the prebleach signal at equilibrium (**Supplementary Figure 2c**)**.** Further,
the similar kinetics ($t_{1/2}$) for binary and ternary condensates likely indicates similar modes of
molecular interactions are driving the VP35 mobility (**Figure 1f**).

With the same composition of binary EBOV VFs, we next evaluated the contribution of an
intrinsically disordered region (IDR) in EBOV NP to the internal exchange dynamics within VFs.
Although EBOV VP35 also contains an IDR, which spans the first 80 residues on the N terminus
(**Figure 1b**), this region mediates the binding of VP35 to NP[0], and is thus too important to be
removed for a deletion mutant[30]. In contrast, deletion of NP IDR (a.a. 500-739) partially preserves
NP-VP35 interaction and recruitment of VP35 to NP-induced VFs[29]. We made a corresponding
deletion mutant of NP, termed NPΔ (500-739), and co-expressed it with mNG-HA-VP35
(**Supplementary Figure 3a**). However, the internal exchange dynamics of NPΔ (500-739)-VP35
binary condensates were similar to NP-VP35 condensates (**Supplementary Figure 3b, c**), which
means the IDR in EBOV NP is dispensable for controlling the internal exchange of binary VFs.

Our FRAP results quantitatively showed that EBOV VFs reconstituted with NP and VP35
display composition-dependent, internal exchange dynamics in live cells. The addition of L
immobilizes a small, but detectable, fraction of VP35 inside the reconstituted VFs.

3. FLAG-tagged EBOV large polymerase protein L forms foci inside EBOV VFs
We next assessed whether EBOV L is immobilized in a specific location within VFs using
immunofluorescence microscopy. To facilitate detection of L, we engineered recombinant L with
an N-terminal 2xFLAG tag (FLAG-L) as previously described[31] since the only currently available
L polyclonal antibody can non-specifically bind to proteins other than EBOV L (**Supplementary
Figure 1d**).

First, we co-expressed NP, VP35 and FLAG-L in HEK 293T cells and labeled EBOV VFs
using a monoclonal antibody targeting NP. Although NP was present throughout EBOV VFs, NP
molecules at the VF periphery were immunolabeled more efficiently than the NP inside VF,
leading to an "empty" droplet-like morphology of EBOV VFs, which was previously described[47,48].
We reasoned that this preferential immunolabeling of periphery NP could be due to the more
expanded conformation of NP molecules and fewer intermolecular interactions located at the VF
periphery than the interior[49]. Unexpectedly, FLAG-L was not homogenously distributed within
reconstituted VFs and had a different staining pattern than NP (**Figure 2a**). Instead, FLAG-L
clustered into networks comprising interconnected foci within the ternary condensate, suggesting
that an intrinsic property of L drives a different phase behavior than VP35 or NP.

To link this phase behavior of EBOV L to its biological function, we further analyzed L
localization in the presence of an active RNA substrate for L, the EBOV minigenome (MG), which
allows recapitulation of L-mediated replication and transcription. The EBOV MG we used here is
bicistronic (2cis-MG), which contains two reporter genes encoding GFP (for imaging) and *Renilla*
luciferase (for quantification) in a tandem cassette carrying authentic EBOV gene start- and end
signals. EBOV regulatory sequences, the 3' leader and 5' trailer, required for replication,
transcription and encapsidation of viral RNAs[50], flank the bicistronic cassette. Using the
replication-competent version of the 2cis-MG (**Figure 2b**, Rep-comp. MG), we confirmed that the
L construct, FLAG-L, we engineered is competent to fulfill its biological function as it retained 74%
of the wildtype L (L-WT) activity (**Figure 2c**).

In GFP-positive cells having successful reconstitution of EBOV MG replication and
transcription, FLAG-L still clustered into networks of interconnected foci inside VFs (**Figure 2d**).
For comparison purposes, we chose not to consider the FLAG-L localization in GFP-negative
cells, as expression of any EBOV protein or MG RNA might be lacking in these cells. Further, we
noticed that due to chemical fixation, GFP reporter signals were preferentially trapped in both VFs
and nucleoli in fixed cells.

We next asked whether modulating viral RNA synthesis affects the organization of EBOV L
polymerase inside VFs. Since adding or removing MG system elements could affect the overall
valency of protein-protein/RNA interactions or the molecular composition inside EBOV VFs, we
incorporated a previously characterized mutation into the 5' trailer of the EBOV 2cis-MG that
allows transcription, but disables genome replication[51]. Reporter activity measured in this
replication-deficient MG (Rep-def. MG) system reflects only viral transcription (**Figure 2b**, Rep-
def. MG). With Rep-def. MG, FLAG-L retained 33% of the L-WT activity, indicating that the
2xFLAG tag may have affected L-mediated transcription (**Figure 2c**). Nevertheless, with FLAG-
L, when replication was disabled, the L foci inside EBOV VFs were more closely spaced compared
to that seen for replication-competent VFs (**Figure 2e, f**). This different spacing is unlikely to be
associated with the expression levels since FLAG-L was expressed at equivalent levels in the
Rep-comp. and Rep-def. MG systems (**Figure 2c**). Together, our results revealed a unique
localization pattern of EBOV polymerase L inside VF and established a potential link between the
spatial distribution of L within the VF and viral RNA synthesis events mediated by L.

4. Network-like VFs exist in EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected cells
Among the EBOV VFs reconstituted with the transcription and replication of EBOV MG in
transfected HEK 293T cells, some display a granular, network-like morphology instead of the
typical droplet-like morphology (**Figure 3a**). We thus examined whether network-like VFs also
occur during virus infection.
To characterize VF morphology in EBOV-infected cells, we used the biologically contained
EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 virus, which is morphologically indistinguishable from wild-type EBOV but
approved for use in biosafety level 2+ containment[52]. In this system, a GFP gene replaces the
gene encoding the viral transcription factor, VP30, so that EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 virus can grow only
in cell lines stably expressing VP30. Here, we infected Vero cells stably expressing EBOV VP30
(Vero-VP30) with EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 in a synchronized manner, and we fixed and inactivated
these cells at 18 hours post-infection. We chose this time point because levels of viral proteins
and GFP reporters are above the detection threshold, and the VF size is comparable to that in
HEK 293T cells transfected with the EBOV MG system[53]. We then used immunofluorescence-
labeled NP as a marker to detect VFs in GFP-positive (i.e., EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected) Vero-
VP30 cells.
EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected cells had either droplet-like or network-like VFs (**Figure 3b**), with
the majority (77%) having droplet-like VFs and a stronger immunofluorescence staining of NP at
the VF periphery, as previously reported[53]. The remaining 23% of infected cells harbored network-
like VFs, which, in contrast to droplet-like VFs located at discrete sites in the cytoplasm, occupied
a more extended region that included a group of small, granular VFs either interconnected or
separated by only a tiny distance. This network-like phenotype could reflect a later stage of EBOV
life cycle when helical viral RNPs are assembled into filamentous nucleocapsids about 1 μm in
length[54,55] and depart from VFs (**Supplementary Figure 4**). The departure of assembled viral
nucleocapsids can disintegrate VFs. However, we did not identify any assembled nucleocapsids
nearby these network-like VFs (**Figure 3c, d, e**), suggesting that these network-like VFs are not
the immediate source of EBOV nucleocapsid assembly.
To understand why network-like VFs cannot support EBOV nucleocapsid assembly, we
analyzed whether building blocks of viral nucleocapsids[56], which include EBOV NP, VP35, VP30,
and VP24, are present in network-like VFs. We found network-like VFs contain EBOV NP and
VP35 (**Figure 3c**), a low level of VP30 (**Figure 3d**), but not VP24 (**Figure 3e**), which is necessary
for nucleocapsid assembly[57]. Our results indicated that both the droplet-like and network-like
morphology of EBOV VFs exist during EBOV infection. Given the expression of the GFP reporter,
which is encoded in the viral genome, both types of VFs support EBOV gene expression, but only
the droplet-like VFs support viral nucleocapsid assembly.

5. Engineering a split-APEX2 tag for electron microscopy analyses of EBOV polymerase L-VP35 complexes

To dissect the spatial organization of EBOV polymerase inside VFs at nanometer resolution, we used APEX2, a peroxidase tag engineered to indicate the location of tagged proteins in electron microscopy (EM) imaging. Specifically, we used the split-APEX2 (sAPEX) tag[58], consisting of two inactive fragments, sAP and sEX. We genetically fused the small fragment sEX to L (L-sEX) and the large fragment sAP, along with a V5 epitope tag, to VP35 (VP35-V5-sAP) (**Figure 4a**). Interaction of L with VP35 during the formation of an active EBOV polymerase complex joins the sAP and sEX fragments to reconstitute APEX2 peroxidase activity.

We confirmed that sAPEX-tagged EBOV polymerase is functionally active, using a Pol1-based, monocistronic EBOV minigenome (Pol1-MG) system[35] that works similarly to the T7-based, bicistronic EBOV MG, but contains a single, firefly luciferase reporter gene (**Figure 4b, c**). VP35-V5-sAP expression levels were significantly higher than the V5-tagged VP35 control (VP35-V5). L-sEX was also expressed to higher levels than wild type L (**Figure 4d**), suggesting the additional interaction provided by sAPEX could stabilize both L and VP35 proteins. In cells transfected with sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase and the Pol1-MG system, we confirmed a site-specific reconstitution of sAPEX2 activity, as evidenced by APEX2-mediated conversion of a fluorogenic substrate at sites marked with VP35-V5-sAP immunofluorescence.

We noted that VP35-V5-sAP formed a network-like dense phase, whereas VP35-V5 formed droplet-like dense phases (**Figure 4e,** L-WT + VP35-V5). These two morphologies of VP35-dense phase in transfected HEK293T cells are similar to those we observed with EBOV VF in infected cells, although network-like VFs in transfected cells showed higher connectivity than in virus-infected cells. We reasoned that network-like morphology of VP35-V5-sAP could be related to increased valence of the inter-molecular interaction in the sAPEX2-tagged L-VP35 complex, since trans-complementation of the sAPEX-tag creates an additional intermolecular interaction between L and VP35 (**Figure 4e,** L-VP35-sAPEX2). To test this possibility independently of sAPEX2-tagging, we increased the valence of inter-molecular interactions that involve VP35 by adding VP24, an EBOV protein which also interacts with VP35[33]. Upon co-expression of VP24 with VP35-V5 and the Pol1-MG system, VP35-V5 droplets were replaced by the highly-connective, network-like VP35-V5 dense phase that colocalized with VP24 (**Figure 4f**, L-WT + VP35-V5). This result indicates that increased valence of intermolecular interactions indeed alters VP35 phase behavior. Even in the presence of VP24, the sAPEX2-tagged EBOV L-VP35 complex remained in the network-like dense phase (**Figure 4f**, L-VP35-sAPEX2).

In summary, we successfully engineered an intracellularly active EBOV polymerase carrying a split-APEX2 tag that will allow localization of EBOV polymerase in electron microscopy (EM) analyses. Although the split-APEX2 tag did change the intracellular localization pattern of VP35 from droplets to networks, we have observed similar network-like VFs in EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected cells. Therefore, we next carried out EM analysis on the localization of sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase in cells reconstituted with the EBOV MG system.

6. Nanoscale localization of split-APEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase complex with thin-section transmission electron microscopy (thin-section TEM)

We used the sAPEX2 tag engineered into the L-VP35 complex to locate the EBOV polymerase within the compact cellular contents revealed by EM. Upon staining with 3,3′-diaminobenzidine (DAB), trans-complementation of sAPEX2 catalyzes DAB polymerization with minimal diffusion. The resulting DAB polymers alone at the site of active APEX2 are chromogenic, which can be detected by light microscopy. Further, DAB polymers are osmiophilic, and thus capture osmium upon OsO_4 staining to increase electron density associated with DAB deposits (**Figure 5a**). OsO_4 also stains unsaturated lipids[59] and reacts with nucleic acids[60,61] to outline cellular architecture in a specimen.

After optimization of transfection and staining conditions, we could detect sAPEX2-specific DAB deposits in bright field light microscopy images of HEK 293T cells transfected with sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase together with other Pol1-MG components. DAB darkening was intensified after osmification and DAB-positive (DAB+) cells were readily recognizable in resin-embedded samples under light microscopy, which facilitates production of 70 nm thin-sections containing a DAB+ cell and its detection with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (**Figure 5b**). We observed within the same DAB+ cell network-like, electron-dense regions in cytoplasmic areas that likely correspond to EBOV VFs (**Figure 5c, Supplementary Figure 5a**). These electron-dense regions were present in cells transfected with the Pol1-MG system but not in untransfected control cells (**Supplementary Figure 5b, c**). In the DAB+ cell, EBOV-specific electron-dense regions were decorated with darker dots arranged in a pattern that correlated with the shape of DAB darkening in light microscopy (**Figure 5c,** arrows), suggesting that the locations of these darker dots in the electron micrograph corresponded to sites where sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerases localize.

In the same thin-section, we also identified cells that had no DAB staining under light microscopy (DAB-) (**Figure 5b**). These DAB- cells had the same transfection conditions as DAB+ cells, but sAPEX2 activity was not reconstituted. DAB- cells exhibited network-like, electron-dense VFs in the cytoplasm, similar to DAB+ cells (**Figure 5d**). By comparing the morphology of EBOV VF in DAB+ and DAB- cells, the darker dots that associate with electron-dense VF in the DAB+ cell in fact indicate locations of sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase (**Figure 5e**).

Our thin-section TEM observation revealed that sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase non-uniformly localizes to the periphery of network-like VFs. In several sites in the cytoplasm, sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase preferentially clusters at the junction of interconnected VFs. Surrounding the electron-dense VFs were wire-like fragments that frequently associated with neighboring VFs (**Figure 5c, d**).

7. sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase complex locate at the periphery or interconnected spots of network-like VFs

To visualize the three-dimensional (3D) ultrastructure of EBOV VFs and elucidate the spatial distribution of the sAPEX2-tagged polymerase complex, we applied electron tomography (ET) and reconstructed tomograms of subcellular volumes containing EBOV VFs and sAPEX2-tagged polymerase. Thin-section TEM allowed visualization of averaged 2D projection of all cellular content across the thin-section specimen, but multi-tilt electron tomography allowed us to resolve individual tomographic slices of the reconstructed volume with finer details of cellular matter (**Figure 6a, Supplementary Movie 1**). Similar to previous EM analysis of virus-infected cells[3,62], reconstituted EBOV VFs appeared as electron-dense clusters that lack membrane boundaries themselves, but are in close proximity to membrane-bound cellular organelles including mitochondria, the endoplasmic reticulum, the nuclear envelope and vesicles.

Across the tomographic slices, darker-stained patches near the edge of several electron-dense VFs were apparent. By mapping these darker patches in the tomogram, we reconstructed the 3D footprints of sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase on a group of network-like VFs that were in close proximity or even interconnected (**Figure 6b, Supplementary Movie 1**). We then selected a region of interest from the whole tomogram, and performed a finer manual segmentation focusing on smaller objects surrounding the VFs (**Figure 6c**). sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase appeared to dock at certain spots on the VF periphery. Ribosomes were located outside, but adjacent to EBOV VFs. We observed several loosely coiled structures either emerging from or passing through neighboring VFs, which likely gave rise to the rough surface of the VFs and are the major component of VFs (**Figure 6d**). We propose that these loosely coiled structures are the viral RNP (vRNP), which has at its core helical viral genomic RNA bound to NP[55,63]. The helical structure is sufficiently relaxed to allow the viral polymerase to slide along the

genome during RNA synthesis. We saw no condensed vRNP in our sample, likely because VP24,
which is essential for condensing vRNP, was not included in the current MG system[64,65].
In a selected region from the whole tomogram, two loose-coil structures can, in fact, be traced
back from their different branching sites to one parental loose coil (**Figure 6e**). One possible
explanation for these interconnected coils is that viral genomic RNA associates with active
transcription products. For several better-resolved loose coils in our tomogram, the coil terminus
often had a small loop linked to a solid globular structure. The identity of this terminal loop and
globular structure remains to be determined. In another selected region, several sAPEX2-tagged
EBOV spots were identified by manually tracing the darker stained patches on an invaginated
edge of electron-dense VFs. These darker-stained patches localized to the apical sides of
neighboring VFs where they formed a zipper-like structure (**Figure 6f**). In reconstructed
tomograms, the only obvious cellular structures that have direct contact with EBOV VFs are the
single-membrane vesicles (**Figure 6b, f**).

Discussion
Ebola virus (EBOV) induces formation of viral factories (VFs) in host cells that allow physical
separation of viral biogenesis from other cellular processes. In this study we sought to understand
the mechanisms by which EBOV VFs spatially accommodate and control viral RNA synthesis,
with a focus on the localization of the EBOV polymerase complexes within VFs.
The contribution of individual VF components to the internal molecular exchange within VFs
was poorly characterized in previous studies, even for other well-characterized viruses. Here, we
used a transfection-based system to supply individual EBOV components for stepwise
reconstitution of intracellular VF. The internal dynamics we measured using FRAP for EBOV VFs
produced in transfected cells are strikingly comparable to those reported for VFs in rabies virus-
infected cells[15]. Even though the stoichiometry of transfected viral proteins cannot fully
recapitulate that of virus infection, our results demonstrate the validity of using transfection-based,
intracellularly reconstituted VF to study phase separation behaviors of VF in living cells. Our key
finding is a notable reduction in the molecular exchange rate within EBOV VFs upon recruitment
of L to the NP-VP35 binary condensate, which is likely due to interaction of L with a fraction of
mobile VP35. Reducing the internal molecular exchange rate within EBOV VF could functionally
impact viral RNA synthesis. Longer dwell times of EBOV polymerase and its cofactors inside VFs
may facilitate the initiation step of EBOV polymerase-mediated viral RNA synthesis. A slower
internal molecular exchange rate within EBOV VFs may also facilitate concurrent NP-coating of
nascent RNA genome.
We observed that VP35 expressed in the absence of NP tends to form immobile aggregates,
which indirectly supports a crucial role for NP as a modulator for the internal exchange of VF
condensates. A previous study has shown that in the presence of VP35, a small part of the
intrinsically disordered region (IDR) in NP (481-500) is critical but the rest of NP C-terminal region
(500-739) is dispensable for VF formation. NP (481-500) also serves as a second binding site for
NP-VP35 interaction and interacts with the well-folded VP35 C-terminal domain[29], in addition to
the NP-VP35 interaction mediated by VP35 N-terminal IDR (20-48) binding to the well-folded NP
N-terminal region (1-457) (**Supplementary Figure 3a)**. Here we extended this finding by asking
whether the IDR in NP contributes to VFs internal exchange. We chose a NP mutant, NPΔ (500-
739), of which the majority of IDR is removed but NP-VP35 interaction is retained, so that this
mutant can still form condensates with VP35. Our results indicate that, in the presence of VP35,
the majority of IDR in NP is also dispensable for regulating VFs internal exchange. It is tempting
to conclude that the role of IDR in EBOV NP and VP35 in regulating VF phase behavior is coupled
with high-affinity heterotypic interactions with modular protein domains, as revealed in previous
structural studies[30,66]. This mode of interaction should be distinguished from weak interactions
between IDRs that have been described in many other kinds of biomolecular condensates[20].
Future studies can determine the role that the oligomerization domains of EBOV NP and VP35

play in condensate formation and behavior. Our work lays out the experimental foundation to
further understand the role of individual protein components and their domains in modulating VF
material properties and corresponding functions.
Little was previously known about the functional localization of nNSV polymerases inside cells.
The lack of specific antibodies suitable for immunofluorescence labeling and the low protein
abundance of viral polymerase in infected cells has made imaging of nNSV polymerases
particularly challenging. An early study first identified that mCherry-tagged EBOV L polymerase
homogenously locates inside VFs during infection[6]. Despite the value of mCherry for live-cell
imaging, the activity of L-mCherry was only 10% that of unmodified L and the integrity of the L-
mCherry was unclear due to the lack of a detection antibody against L itself at the time of the
study. In contrast to insertion of a larger fluorescence protein[67], L protein can tolerate a small
epitope tag without substantial loss of RNA synthesis activity[36]. A recent study using super-
resolution light microscopy examined the intracellular localization of FLAG-tagged RSV L in RSV-
infected cells[68]. In that study, RSV L concentrated non-uniformly at several sites inside RSV VFs.
This result aligns well with our confocal microscopy findings that FLAG-tagged EBOV L formed
foci inside VFs in cells reconstituted with the replication and expression of EBOV minigenome. A
recombinant EBOV expressing FLAG-tagged L should be generated to further validate our
findings with L localization in cells infected with authentic virus under biosafety level-4
containment.
Beyond elucidating the functional localization of EBOV polymerase L, our work links the
localization pattern of EBOV L to particular types of L-mediated viral RNA synthesis. We
hypothesized that VFs have distinct sub-compartments that are dedicated to viral replication or
transcription. To understand EBOV L localization for replication or transcription, we separated the
two processes by generating a replication-deficient EBOV minigenome (MG)[51]. We observed
different EBOV L localizations in cells reconstituted with replication-competent vs. replication-
deficient MG systems. When viral replication was active, the foci containing L were more widely
spaced than when replication was disabled. A wider spacing of L-foci could allow more NP to
permeate and become available for genome encapsidation[69]. Conversely, a narrower spacing of
L-foci may reflect a switch from replication to transcription, which produces flexible viral mRNAs
that are less bulky. Our result implies that rather than having distinct sub-compartments
specialized for viral replication and transcription, the spatial organization of EBOV L expands and
contracts according to the type or activity of ongoing viral RNA synthesis.
In addition to the spatial-functional dynamics with EBOV polymerase, we revealed an atypical,
network-like morphology of EBOV VFs. In previous studies with virus-infected cells, nNSV VFs,
including those induced by EBOV, appear mostly as droplet-like structures[6-8,70]. The droplet-like
morphology of biomolecular condensates can be modeled by classical nucleation theory[71,72]. We
did observe droplet-like VFs in EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected cells, but a quarter of the cells
contained network-like VFs, and sometimes both droplet-like and network-like VFs coexist in the
same cell. Network-like VFs have not been reported for other viruses, except for Marburg virus[3],
which is closely related to EBOV and also belongs to the *Filoviridae* family. Our research has
shown that these network-like VFs are not involved in viral nucleocapsid assembly and that they
lack the viral assembly factor, VP24. The absence of VP24 cannot be attributed to impaired viral
gene expression since cells with network-like VFs can still express the GFP reporter encoded in
the viral genome, nor to the composition of network-like VFs, because the presence of both EBOV
NP and VP35 in these VFs should be sufficient to recruit VP24[33]. We believe that the presence
of network-like virus factories (VFs) could indicate either 1) a stage in which the virus is
transitioning from making viral mRNA and genomes to assembling the viral nucleocapsid or 2) a
stage in which viral replication is not functioning properly due to dynamic arrest or asymmetry in
phase separation[73,74]. To interrogate both hypotheses, one can follow the changes in the
appearance of network-like VFs in live cells infected with fluorescence-tagged Ebola virus using
light microscopy in a high-containment laboratory.

Finally, we visualized the precise 3D localization of EBOV polymerase with nanometer
resolution in a subcellular volume using electron-tomography. Here EBOV polymerase with the
split-APEX2 tag allowed localization of the polymerase among the heterogenous intracellular
content seen under electron microscopy[58]. Incorporating the split-APEX2 into L and VP35
preserved substantial levels of EBOV polymerase activity, although the valence of intermolecular
interaction was increased. This increased valence of intermolecular interactions in VF
components appeared to shift the EBOV VF morphology from the typical droplet-like to network-
like structures, which echoes the network-like VF we observed in EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected
cells. Under such circumstances, we resolved multiple footprints of the EBOV polymerase
gathering at discrete sites in network-like EBOV VFs, where the VF phase boundary was
invaginated or interconnected. These sites may correlate to the EBOV L-foci under confocal light
microscopy.
Based on our confocal light and electron microscopy findings, we propose a model in which
EBOV polymerase molecules act in concert in a spatially restricted manner. Having a group of
EBOV polymerase molecules acting together on the same viral genome would compensate for
the low efficiency of viral RNA synthesis, as a productive viral RNA synthesis event can only
initiate at a single site at the 3' end of the viral genome[75]. Even so, during transcription, the EBOV
polymerase makes frequent stops at each intergenic region, and at each stop the polymerase
may detach from the genome template. How the same polymerase returns to the 3' end of the
viral genome and initiates a new round of RNA synthesis events is currently unclear. If a group of
EBOV polymerases acts on the same viral genome, some polymerases will fall off the template
at the gene stop signals, while other copies of the polymerase eventually reach the distal end of
the genome where the L gene is located. By organizing the viral genome in tandem or in another
coordinated way, the same group of polymerases could process more copies of the viral genome
and maximize viral RNA production.
This study has limitations. First, our results with various kinds of cell-based reconstitution
systems are only indicative, since these reconstitution systems cannot recapitulate the full EBOV
life cycle and do not supply all viral proteins. Since we are using cell-based systems, cellular
factors of the 293 and Vero cells used could inevitably influence VFs phase behavior and affect
interpretation of our results. Second, we are aware of potential artifacts with chemical fixation,
antibody-based immunofluorescence labeling, and split-APEX2 tagging of the viral polymerase
for characterization of intracellular condensates. Live-cell imaging with fluorescence protein
tagging may validate some of our findings. However, due to the bulkiness of fluorescence protein,
incorporation of a fluorescence tag does come with a price (i.e., disruption of protein function) and
may require high containment access for EBOV. The usage of tetracysteine tag in live cell
imaging[76] should be explored for EBOV proteins in the future. Nevertheless, the results of our
current study increase our understanding of the mechanisms associated with EBOV VFs and the
spatial regulation of viral RNA synthesis within. Given the similar replication strategy shared
among nNSVs, our findings may be applicable to other critically important nNSV pathogens, such
as rabies, RSV and measles virus.
490
491   **Figures and figure legends**

Figure 1

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Figure 1. Reconstituted EBOV viral factories with minimal viral protein components display viscoelastic behavior in live cells. a Bioinformatic prediction of intrinsically disordered regions and low complexity regions in the primary sequence of EBOV NP and V35 protein, using the

IUPred and PlaToLoCo webserver, respectively. Single letter code denotes amino acid sequence.
b Coimmunoprecipitation (co-IP) of EBOV NP and L with HA-mNG-VP35. HA-VP35 and HA-mNG
served as positive and negative control, respectively. Anti-HA antibody was used to detect HA-
mNG-VP35, HA-VP35, and HA-mNG in the input cell lysate and in HA-IP fraction. 1 mg of total
proteins were used in each IP reaction. Representative results from 3 biological replicates are
shown. Confocal microscopy of **c** VP35 **d** VP35+NP **e** VP35+NP+L condensates inside live HEK
293T cells 1 d post-transfection. Representative cells (N>6 cells) for each condition from 4
biological replicates are shown. The cell body and nucleus (Nuc.) are marked by a dashed line.
White arrow: individual condensate chosen for photobleaching. Image montage is composed of
selected frames (including t = 0 s) with an interval of 2.88 s from each time-lapse of photobleached
condensate displayed. The diameter of photobleached regions is 1 μm. Photobleaching occurred
at t = 4.8 s. Scale bars: 5 μm. Schematic of EBOV VP35-involved molecular associations
corresponding to each type of condensate. **f** Fluorescence recovery of mNG-HA-VP35 within the
photobleached region inside intracellular condensates containing VP35. Normalized intensity
corresponding to each time point before and after photobleaching of VP35 condensate is shown
in green, VP35+NP condensate is shown in red, VP35+NP+L condensate is shown in blue. Each
data point represents the mean with standard deviation (error bars) of N=6/9/9
(VP35/VP35+NP/VP35+NP+L condensates). Data points with t > 5s in red and in blue were used
to fit a corresponding two-phase association curve, with the normalized intensity value in
expressed as a percentage and the curve plateau marked on the side. Goodness of fit of each
curve is indicated by an R^2 value. An extra sum-of-squares F test was performed to determine
whether the best-fit value for unshared parameters differ between the blue and red curves. For
each fitted curve, the best-fit value for each kinetic parameter is shown with a 95% confidence
interval.
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Figure 2

Figure 2. FLAG-tagged EBOV L cluster into foci within reconstituted viral factories. a
Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy of fixed HEK 293T cells co-expressing EBOV NP,
VP35 and FLAG-L at 1 d post-transfection. Represented Z-stacks in orthogonal view of 2
biological replicates each include > 4 fields of view. Scale bars: 5 μm. **b** Schematics of the T7
polymerase (T7 pol), bicistronic EBOV minigenome (2cis-MG) system with a replication
competent (Rep-comp.) or replication deficient (Rep-def.) MG. 3' le: 3' leader; 5' tr: 5' trailer; black
triangle: gene start; black bar: gene end. **c** Activity of FLAG-L relative to the L-WT control
measured in supporting the expression of *Renilla* luciferase (Rluc) in EBOV Rep-comp. vs. Rep-
def. MG. Background expression of MG assessed by excluding L in the MG system (no L). Results
from 3 biological replicates with technical triplicates are shown as individual data points with mean
± SD (error bars). **, $p=0.0024$, ****, $p<0.0001$ (N=9, two-tailed, unpaired t tests with Welch's
correction). Expression of FLAG-L compared to L-WT and detection of the FLAG tag analyzed by
western blot using a mouse monoclonal ani-FLAG and a rabbit polyclonal anti-EBOV L antibody,
respectively. Loading control: β-actin. Confocal microscopy of fixed HEK 293T cells transfected

with **d** Rep-comp. or **e** Rep-def. EBOV MG system at 2 d post-transfection. A representative
confocal image overview is shown, in which selected EBOV VFs are marked with a white box
(scale bars: 5 µm) and magnified in confocal z-stacks (scale bars: 2 µm). Fluorescence of the
GFP reporter in both Rep-comp. and Rep-def. EBOV MG is pseudo-colored in yellow for display
purposes. Nuclei are counterstained with Hoechst. Representative results from 4 biological
replicates with > 5 fields of view are shown. **f** A histogram showing the distribution of nearest
distances between EBOV L-foci within the same VF in the presence of Rep-comp. vs. Rep-def
MG, corresponding to z-stacks shown in (**d**) and (**e**). A total of 908 (Rep-comp.) or 683 (Rep-def.)
L-foci used in quantification.
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Figure 3

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Figure 3. Morphologically distinct EBOV viral factories in EBOV minigenome transfected cells and EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 infected Vero-VP30 cells. a Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy of HEK 293T cells transfected with T7-pol based, Rep-comp. EBOV MG system, at 2 d post transfection. L-WT was used. A representative result from 2 biological replicates with 3 fields of view is shown. **b** Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy of representative Vero-VP30 cells infected with EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 at MOI (multiplicity of infection) = 3, 18 h post infection. A total of N=39 cells from 2 biological replicates were analyzed. EBOV NP was labeled with a human monoclonal anti-NP antibody paired with Alexa-568 anti-human antibody. A cell containing droplet-like viral factories is magnified in single channel view with solid red outline. A cell containing network-like viral factories in dashed red outline. **c, d, e** Presence of EBOV nucleocapsid components in network-like viral factories was determined by double-immunofluorescence analysis in virus-infected Vero-VP30 cells with similar conditions as (**b**). In parallel samples, immunolabeled (**c**) EBOV VP35, (**d**) VP30, (**e**) VP24 were paired with Alexa-647 secondary antibody and analyzed in conjunction with NP immunofluorescence staining.

Nucleus counterstained with Hoechst. Scale bars in white: 5 µm. Scale bars in red: 2 µm. Red
arrows: viral nucleocapsid. Orthogonal projection of confocal z-stacks shown in (**c**), (**d**), and (**e**).
Subcellular regions containing droplet-like viral factories are magnified in a single channel view
with solid red outline; regions containing network-like viral factories are shown with a dashed red
outline. For display purposes, fluorescence signals of the GFP reporter in Rep-comp. MG and in
EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30 is pseudo-colored yellow; the brightness of insects in VP30 channel (d) and
VP24 channel (e) are equivalently enhanced.

Figure 4

Figure 4. Engineering and characterization of a split-APEX2 tagged EBOV polymerase complex. a Protein constructs of the split-APEX2 (sAPEX2)-tagged EBOV L and VP35. sAPEX contains two fragments: sAP and sEX. **b** Schematic of the RNA polymerase 1(Pol1)-based, monocistronic EBOV minigenome system (Pol1-EBOV MG). 3' le: 3' leader; 5' tr: 5' trailer; black triangle: gene start; black bar: gene end. **c** Activity of L-sEX and VP35-V5-sEX (L-VP35-sAPEX2) relative to wild-type EBOV L (L-WT) and V5-tagged VP35 (VP35-V5) control measured in supporting expression of firefly luciferase (FLUC) in the EBOV MG. Background expression of MG assessed by excluding L in the MG system (no L). Results from 2 biological replicates with technical triplicates are shown as individual data points with mean $\pm$ SD (error bars). ****, $p<0.0001$ (N=6, two-tailed, unpaired t tests with Welch's correction). **d** Expression of L-sEX compared to L-WT and VP35-V5-sAP compared to VP35-V5, each analyzed by western blot using a rabbit polyclonal anti-EBOV L antibody and a mouse monoclonal anti-V5 antibody, respectively. Loading control: β-actin. **e** Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy of HEK 293T cells transfected with the Pol1-EBOV MG system containing either L-WT +VP35-V5 or L-VP35-sAPEX2, at 2 d post transfection. **f** Confocal immunofluorescence microscopy of HEK 293T cells transfected with the Pol1-EBOV MG system containing either L-WT +VP35-V5 or L-VP35-

sAPEX2, and in the presence of VP24, at 2 d post transfection. In (**e**) and (**f**), both VP35-V5-sAP
and VP35-V5 were labeled with a rabbit monoclonal anti-V5 antibody paired with Alexa-488 anti-
rabbit antibody. Functional reconstitution of APEX2 was indicated by fluorescence signals from
resorufin, the product of the Amplex UltraRed, a fluorogenic peroxidase substrate for APEX2. In
(**f**), EBOV VP24 was labeled with a mouse monoclonal anti-VP24 antibody paired with Alexa-488
anti-mouse antibody. Nuclei were counterstained with Hoechst. Fluorescence signals of VP35
and VP24 are pseudo-colored green and red for display purposes. Scale bars: 5 µm.
Representative results from 2 biological replicates with >5 fields of view are shown. The valence
of inter-molecular interaction is depicted as double-ended arrows.
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Figure 5

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Figure 5 Nanoscale localization of split-APEX2 tagged EBOV polymerase complex revealed by thin-section electron microscopy (EM) a Schematic of the functional reconstitution of APEX2 upon formation of EBOV polymerase (L-VP35) complex and the resulting EM contrast upon DAB-OsO$_4$ staining. **b** HEK 293T cells were transfected with the Pol1-EBOV-MG system containing sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase (L-VP35) complex and were chemically fixed with 2.5% glutaraldehyde and stained with DAB at 2 d post-transfection. DAB+ and DAB- cells were examined by transmitted light microscopy (left) and then embedded in resin and stained with OsO$_4$ (middle). The samples were serially sliced into 70 nm-thick sections and imaged with transmission electron microscopy (TEM) at low magnification (right). Scale bars: 20 μm. **c**

Electron micrographs of either the overview or a cytoplasmic region of the DAB+ cell indicated in
(**b**) at different magnifications. Arrows: sAPEX2 mediated deposition of electron-dense Osmium.
d Electron micrographs of either the overview or a cytoplasmic region of the DAB- cell indicated
in (**b**) at different magnifications. Scale bars: 5 µm/500 nm/200 nm in micrographs with a
low/medium/high magnification. **e** Cartoons annotating the whole cell overview, the electron-
dense viral factories (VF) and the sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerases (sAPEX2-pol) in both the
magnified DAB+ and DAB- cell, shown in (**c**) and (**d**), respectively. Representative results from 3
biological replicates with multiple fields of view are shown. Cyto.: cytoplasm. Nuc.: nucleus.
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Figure 6

Figure 6. 3D visualization of EBOV viral factories (VFs) and sAPEX2-tagged polymerase by electron tomography. a HEK 293 cell transfected with the Pol1-EBOV-MG system containing sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase (L-VP35) complex before fixation with 2.5% glutaraldehyde

at 2 d post-transfection. The samples were stained with DAB-OsO$_4$, embedded in resin and
sectioned into 250 nm-thick specimens. A reconstructed 3D electron tomogram of the specimen
originating from a DAB+ cell is shown in an orthogonal view with tomographic slices. Scale bar:
500 nm. **B** Segmented volume of the electron-dense EBOV VFs and surface representation of
numerous cellular organelles and sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase, corresponding to the 3D
electron tomogram in (**a**). **c** Orthogonal view (with X-Y/Y-Z/X-Z plane) showing a magnified
volume of interest in the 3D electron tomogram in (a). Scale bar: 100 nm. **d** Segmented surface
representations of EBOV VFs (orange), sAPEX2-tagged EBOV polymerase (pink), viral RNP coils
(yellow), host ribosomes (purple), and single-membrane vesicle (blue), resulting from the
tomographic volume in (**c**). **e** Series of magnified tomographic slices on the X-Y plane from a
region containing multiple helical structures that correspond to viral RNPs. Yellow arrows pointing
toward one helical structure; white arrows pointing toward the branch site where multiple helical
structures meet. A cartoon annotation of the same region is shown on the side. **f** A series of
magnified tomographic slices on the X-Y plane from a region containing DAB-osmium deposits
that correspond to sAPEX-tagged EBOV polymerases (indicated by pink arrows) and a single-
membrane vesicle approaching the electron-dense VF. A cartoon annotation of the same region
is shown on the side. For (**e**) an (**f**), the scale bar in the tomographic overview slice and magnified
series represents 500 nm and 100 nm, respectively. Tomographic slice number is marked in the
lower left.
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Methods:

Plasmids: If not specified, NEB HiFi assembly was used for incorporation of DNA fragments into plasmid vector. To generate pCAGGS-mNG-HA-VP35, coding sequence of mNeonGreen (mNG) was PCR amplified from pmNeonGreenHO-3xFLAG-G (addgene#127914), while an N-terminal HA epitope tag was added to the mNG coding sequence. The resulting fragment was inserted upstream of the VP35 coding sequence in pCAGGS-VP35. To generate pCAGGS-HA-VP35 control plasmid, a DNA fragment containing a HA epitope tag followed by a flexible linker was synthesized and added to the N-terminus of VP35 coding frame. To generate pCMV-mNG-HA control plasmid, a HA epitope tag was added to the C-terminus of mNG coding sequence. To generate pCAGGS-VP35-V5-sAP, the fragment of sAP was PCR amplified from FKBP_V5_AP_NEX_pLX304 (addgene#120912) and cloned into the intermediate vector pcDNA5-VP35. The fragment of VP35-V5-sAP was subcloned to pCAGGS plasmid using restriction sites Xho1 and Nhe1 and standard ligation method. To generate pCAGGS-VP35-V5 control plasmid, the fragment of VP35-V5 was PCR amplified with an addition of a stop codon and Bgl2 restriction site, and was then incorporated into pCAGGS backbone using Kpn1 and Bgl2 restriction sites.

To generate pCAGGS-FLAG-L, a DNA fragment containing a 2xFLAG epitope tag followed by a flexible linker was synthesized and added to the N-terminus of L coding frame. To generate pCEZ-L-sEX, a fragment of L coding sequence was first subcloned into a pFastbacDual intermediate plasmid using the natural restriction sites Pac1 and Hpa1. From there, coding sequence of sEX was PCR amplified from HA-Halotag-FRB-EX-NES-pLX304 (addgene #120913), flanked by two flexible linkers and was internally inserted to L fragment at the position 1705/1706 (TTIP/Q). The L-sEX fragment was shuffled back to the pCEZ-L backbone using the same restriction sites Pac1 and Hpa1.

To generate pT7-2cis-MG-Replication competent (Rep-Comp.), the coding sequence of VP40, GP and VP24, including non-coding sequences VP40/GP and VP30/VP24 in between were removed from pT7-4cis-EBOV-vRNA-eGFP plasmid[34], while the coding sequence of *Renilla* luciferase was inserted downstream of the non-coding sequence NP/VP35 and reassembled. To generate pT7-2cis-MG-Replication deficient (Rep-def.), the last 55 nucleotide of the 5' trailer sequence in pT7-2cis-MG-Rep-comp. plasmid was removed by PCR and re-assembled. Other supporting plasmids used in T7-based EBOV minigenome system were obtained from Dr. Thomas Hoenen (Friedrich-Loeffler-Institute). Plasmids used in Pol1-based EBOV minigenome system were obtained from Dr. Yoshihiro Kawaoka (University of Wisconsin Madison).

Cell lines and virus: Human embryonic kidney cells HEK 293T (ATCC reference: CRL-3216) were originally purchased from the ATCC organization. Vero cells stabling expressing Ebola virus VP30 protein (Vero-VP30) were obtained from Dr. Yoshihiro Kawaoka (University of Wisconsin Madison). Both cell lines were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM-GlutaMAX) supplemented with 4.5 g/L D-Glucose, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin (100 U/mL), streptomycin (100 µg/mL). In addition, puromycin (5 µg/mL) was included in the culture media while maintaining Vero-VP30 cells but excluded for infection experiment. The biologically contained Ebola virus, EBOV-ΔVP30-GFP was generated in HEK 293T cells and grown in Vero-VP30 cells as previously described[52].

Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP): IBIDI µ-slides (8 wells high-precision glass bottom) were treated with human fibronectin (50 mg/mL) for 20 minutes at 37°C incubator, prior to HEK 293T cells seeding (4×10^4 cells/well). Twenty-four hours later, the monolayer was transfected with plasmids in three different combinations: 1) 125 ng of pCAGGS-mNG-HA-VP35 and 1 µg of pCAGGS-vector control; 2) 125 ng of pCAGGS-mNG-HA-VP35, 125 ng of pCAGGS-NP, and 875 ng of pCAGGS-vector control; 3) 125 ng of pCAGGS-mNG-HA-VP35, 125 ng of

pCAGGS-NP, and 875 ng of pCAGGS-L (wild-type). Transfected cells were incubated with
complete FluoroBrite DMEM (+1x Glutamax, 10% FBS) for imaging. Time series were acquired
using ZEISS laser scanning microscope (LSM880) with an Airyscan detector while live cells
sample were kept in caged incubator maintaining 37˚C and 5% CO_2. mNG fluorescence was
excited with a 488 nm argon laser and detected with a 63x 1.4NA oil immersion objective (Plan-
Apochromat), with a combination of bandpass filters (420-480) and (495-550). Using a frame rate
of 240 millisecond per frame and 0.4% of 488 nm laser, 20 frames were recorded pre-bleach, and
then 330 frames were recorded post-bleach under the Airyscan fast mode. This duration of post-
bleach image acquisition was experimentally determined by the time when fluorescence recovery
reached a plateau. For photobleaching, 488 nm laser at 80% was used to pulse-bleach a spot
size of 1 micron in diameter in the center of large condensates, until the fluorescence intensity of
the bleach spot reduced to 30% of the prebleached value.
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FRAP quantification and interpretation: Time series in which the bleached object moved during
post-bleach phase were manually identified and removed from data analysis because the
fluorescence intensity of the bleached spot could not be accurately measured in ImageJ/FIJI[77].
For each bleach event, double normalization of the FRAP curve was performed using ImageJ/FIJI
as described[15]. To correct unintentional photobleaching due to time-series acquisition, in every
frame, fluorescence intensity of the bleached spot (1 µm in diameter) was first normalized to the
mean intensity of an unbleached spot (1 µm in diameter) of another condensate in the same field
of view. The resulting values after correction for all frames were further normalized to the average
intensity of the last 10 pre-bleach frames. The background intensity in each field of view was
negligible as it was lower than 0.5% of the average intensity of viral factory condensates.
Due to biological mobility of the intracellular condensate and the cellular specimens during
imaging, we could not accurately measure the bleach pulses-induced fluorescence loss in the
whole condensate. Instead, we assessed this parameter in the averaged fluorescence decay of
internal reference-regions inside the same condensate that was photobleached but are away from
the bleached spot. Double normalized data from 6-9 cells in a total of three independent
experiments were pooled. Means with standard deviation of double normalized intensity were
plotted as a function of time, of which post-bleach data-points were fitted to a two-phase
association model in GraphPad prism, according to previously described methods[78]. Best-fit
values with 95% confidence interval and goodness of fit indicated by R^2 for each data set were
reported.

$$A_{fast} = (Plateau - Y_0) \times \%Fast$$
$$A_{slow} = (Plateau - Y_0) \times (1 - \%Fast)$$
$$Y(t) = Y_0 + A_{fast}\left(1 - e^{-k_{fast}t}\right) + A_{slow}\left(1 - e^{-k_{slow}t}\right)$$

Fluorescence recovery of a sub-area within the VF condensate describes a combined rate of
molecular exchange that occur within the VF condensate and occur between the VF and the
cytoplasm. However, because the fluorescence intensity of molecules in the VF condensate is
~200-folds higher than that of the diffused molecules in the cytoplasm and the total VF condensate
is significantly larger than the photo-bleached spot. The combined rate measured in the current
work could approximate the internal exchange rate within the VF condensate.

Immunofluorescence staining and confocal light microscopy: Fixation and staining was
performed as described[79].
For samples shown in supplementary Figure S1b, human monoclonal anti-Ebola virus NP
(1:2000), mouse monoclonal anti-Ebola virus VP35 (1:500), and rabbit polyclonal anti-Ebola virus
L antibody (1:200) were used as the primary antibodies, goat anti-human Alexa-568 (1:1000),

goat anti-mouse Alexa-647 (1:500), and goat anti-rabbit Alexa-568 (1:500) were used as the
secondary antibodies.
For samples shown in Figure 2, human monoclonal anti-Ebola virus NP (1:2000) and mouse
monoclonal anti-FLAG (1:100) antibody were used as the primary antibodies, goat anti-human
Alexa-568 (1:1000) and goat anti-mouse Alexa-647 (1:500) were used as the secondary
antibodies.
For samples shown in Figure 3, human monoclonal anti-NP (1:2000) and goat anti-human
Alexa-568 (1:1000) were used.
For samples shown in Figure 4, rabbit monoclonal anti-V5 (1:500) and mouse monoclonal
anti-Ebola VP24 (1:1000, a kind gift from Dr. Yoshihiro Kawaoka) were used as the primary
antibodies, goat anti-human Alexa-568 (1:1000) and goat anti-mouse Alexa-647 (1:500) were
used as the secondary antibodies. In addition, trans-complemented APEX2 was stained with
Amplex UltraRed at 100 nM (with 0.02% H_2O_2 in DPBS) on ice for 20 minutes prior to fixation.
Unreacted Amplex UltraRed was washed off with DPBS.
Single-plane confocal images or confocal Z-stacks (interval= 0.224 μm) were acquired with
the ZEISS laser scanning microscope (LSM880)-Airyscan system under the superresolution
mode, using a plan-apochromat 20x/0.8 numerical aperture M27 objective or an alpha plan-
apochromat 63×/1.46 numerical aperture oil Korr M27 objective. All images or stacks that are
shown or quantified were Airyscan processed using the Zen black (ZEISS) build-in function.
For supplementary Figure 1C, quantification and counting of reconstituted Ebola viral factories
(VFs) in single-plane confocal images using ImageJ/Fiji. HEK 293T cells were prepared using
identical transfection conditions described in FRAP experiment. VFs were identified on the basis
of mNG-fluorescence and analyzed for the count and size distribution using the analyze particle
function.
For Figure 2f, 3D segmentation of Ebola viral factories in confocal Z-stacks was performed in
Imaris 9.9.1 using the surface function and automatically thresholding the GFP intensity;
segmentation of FLAG-tagged Ebola virus L-foci inside each viral factory was performed using
the spot function and automatically thresholding the fluorescence intensity of FLAG-L with an
estimated diameter for each spot as 0.5 μm, which generates specific values of distance to
nearest neighbor for every random pair of segmented spot.

Virus infection with EBOV-GFP-ΔVP30: Vero-VP30 cells ($4X10^4$ cells/well) were seeded in
IBIDI μ-slides (8 wells high-precision glass bottom). Twenty-four hours later, the monolayer was
incubated with EBOV-ΔVP30-GFP (MOI=3 foci-forming unit/cell) on ice. After 1 hour, the
monolayer was washed three times with cold DPBS to remove unbound virions and was moved
to the 37°C incubator. Infection was terminated after 16 hours. Infected cells were inactivated with
4% PFA for 15 minutes.

Thin-section TEM with DAB staining: Sample preparation was adapted from[80]. Mattek 35 mm
dish with NO#1.5 gridded glass bottom (P35G-1.5-14-C-GRD) was treated with human fibronectin
(50 mg/mL) for 1 hour at 37°C incubator, prior to HEK 293T cells seeding ($1X10^5$ cells/well).
Twenty-four hours later, the monolayer was either untreated or transfected with plasmids in two
different combinations: 1) EBOV Pol1-MG system containing VP35-V5 and L-WT; 2) EBOV Pol1-
MG system containing sAPEX2 tagged L-VP35.
For the first combination, 250 ng of pCEZ-NP, 187.5 ng of pCEZ-VP30, 250 ng of pCEZ-
VP35-V5, 156.25 ng of pHH21-3E5E-fluc, and 1875 ng of pCEZ-L were used in the co-
transfection mix for each 35 mm dish. For the second combination, 250 ng of pCEZ-NP, 187.5 ng
of pCEZ-VP30, 250 ng of pCEZ-VP35-V5-sAP, 156.25 ng of pHH21-3E5E-fluc, and 1875 ng of
pCEZ-L-sEX were used in the co-transfection mix for each 35 mm dish.
Forty-eight hours post-transfection, cells were fixed first in 2.5% glutaraldehyde-0.1 M
cacodylate buffer pH 7.4 + 2 mM $CaCl_2$ at room temperature for 1 minute, then fixed in pre-chilled

2.5% glutaraldehyde-0.1 M cacodylate buffer pH 7.4 + 2 mM CaCl$_2$ on ice for 1 hour, and were
washed three times with cold 0.1 M cacodylate buffer pH 7.4 (cacodylate buffer). Unreacted
fixative in samples was quenched with cold 20 mM Glycine solution for 5 min on ice, followed by
three washes with cold cacodylate buffer. Samples were stained with 2.5 mM DAB (Sigma
#D8001)-0.1 M cacodylate solution in the presence of 1/1000V of 30% H$_2$O$_2$ for 45 minutes on
ice and washed three times with cold cacodylate buffer.
Brown DAB stain in samples was confirmed under light microscopy. Samples were then
stained in 1% osmium+1.5% potassium Ferrocyanide in 0.1 M cacodylate buffer on ice for 1 hour
and washed three times with cacodylate buffer. Samples were dehydrated with increasing
concentrations of ethanol (20%, 50%, 70%, 90%, 100%, 100%, 3 minutes each) and washed
once in room temperature anhydrous ethanol. Samples were then infiltrated with Durcupan ACM
resin (Electron Microscopy Sciences) using a mixture of anhydrous ethanol: resin (1V:1V) for 30
minutes, then with 100% resin overnight, followed by 48 hours polymerization step at 60 °C.
Ultrathin sections with a 70 mm thickness of embedded specimen were mounted on 200 mesh
hexagonal copper grids with no post-staining step. Electron micrographs were collected using a
FEI Tecnai Spirit transmission electron microscope operating at 120 kV.

Electron tomography and data processing: Electron tomography was performed using a
300kV Titan Halo equipped with an 8k x 8k direct detector (DE64, Direct Electron). During the
procedure, semi-thick (~250 nm) sections of the resin-embedded specimen were imaged at
different orientations using a 4-tilt acquisition scheme as described[81], for which the specimen was
tilted from -60 to +60 degrees every 0.25 degree at four different azimuthal orientation. For
aligning the micrographs, 5 nm colloidal gold particles were deposited on each side of the sections
to serve as fiducial markers. The TEM magnification was set at 11,000x, corresponding to a raw
pixel size of 0.36 nm. Tomograms were generated with an iterative reconstruction procedure[81],
and was binned by a factor of 4 for display and for volume segmentation using Amira 2020 3.1.
software. Membrane organelles were segmented manually combined with automatic thresholding.
Ribosomes were segmented manually. EBOV viral factories and sAPEX2-tagged EBOV
polymerase were segmented with a combination of automatic thresholding and the TopHat tool.

EBOV minigenome assays: Transfection and activity quantification with Pol1-based
monocistronic EBOV minigenome system was adapted from[35] and described previously[79].
Transfection with the T7 pol-based EBOV bicistronic minigenome system was adapted from[34].
Activity of bicistronic minigenome system was measured in *Renilla* luciferase assay. For each
transfection condition, the same cell lysates used in luciferase assay, were pooled from triplicated
assay wells and analyzed in western blot.

Coimmunoprecipitation (coIP): Co-IP reactions were performed as previously described[79]. HEK
293T cells (1X10^6 cells/well) were seeded in 6-wells plates. Twenty-four hours later, cells in each
well were transfected with 500 ng of pCMV-mNG-HA or pCAGGS-HA-VP35 or pCAGGS-mNG-
HA-VP35 plasmid combined with 500 ng of pCAGGS-NP, with and without 1 µg of pCAGGS-L,
using TransIT-LT1 transfection reagent. HA-affinity matrix was used to pull-down protein
complexes containing HA-tagged proteins. Equal amount of total protein (1 mg) was used in each
co-IP reaction.

Statistical analysis: Data shown in Figure 2c, 4a and supplementary Figure 1a were calculated
and plotted in mean with SD. Statistical analysis were analyzed by two-tailed unpaired t-test with
Welch's correction. P values were indicated in figure legends. Data shown in Figure 1f were
analyzed using an extra sum-of-squares F test to compare whether the best-fit values of *%Fast*,
k_{fast} and k_{slow} differ between two datasets. The resulting *p* value indicating the statistical
significance of the difference was reported in the figure.

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E.O.S.; J.F., G.C. and S.M. designed the experiments, J.F., G.C., S.P., S.M., C.H., and A.A.
performed the experiments; J.F., G.C., analyzed the data, M.H.E. supervised the data acquisition
and interpretation for electron microscopy analysis, A.A.D. contributed to data interpretation of
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