A structural roadmap for the formation of the coronavirus nsp3/nsp4 double membrane

vesicle pore and its implications for polyprotein processing and replication/transcription

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Abstract

Coronavirus replication is understood to occur within double membrane vesicles (DMVs) that

arise during viral infection. Prior work has determined that these DMVs have characteristic

pores formed from the non-structural viral proteins nsp3 and nsp4, which facilitate export of

newly synthesized viral RNA. Yet how the replication machinery, which is minimally comprised

of the non-structural proteins nsp7 to nsp16, is recruited to the DMV remains a mystery.

Working from AlphaFold and previously determined structures, we constructed a series of

models that link formation of the DMV pore to nsp5 protease processing of the polyprotein and

trapping of the cleaved products within the DMV itself. We argue that the initial pore is formed

from twelve subunits of nsp3 and six subunits each of the intermediate uncleaved polyproteins

pp1a' (nsp4-nsp10) and pp1ab' (nsp4-nsp16). Formation of this initial structure activates the

protease function of alternating nsp5 subunits within a close-packed ring, facilitating the initial

trans-cleavage of the nsp4-nsp5 linkage. Maturation of the pore follows, as does formation of

canonical nsp5 dimers, which can process the remainder of the polyproteins. When protease

activation occurs subsequent to closure of the DMV, the cleavage products, whose

stoichiometry is consistent with the previously proposed nsp15-centered hexameric replication

complex, will be trapped inside.

Importance

Coronaviruses, like many other positive-sense single-stranded RNA viruses, rely on intracellular membrane remodeling to create a protected environment for efficient replication to occur. The resulting double membrane vesicles (DMVs) have characteristic pores formed from the non-structural viral proteins nsp3 and nsp4, while enzymes responsible for RNA replication, including the polymerase nsp12, are contained inside. Recent structural work has elucidated the nature of the pores, but how the pores form and how the polymerase and other viral proteins are recruited to the DMV has not yet been addressed. Here we present a step-by-step structural model of how the pores initially form from the uncleaved polyprotein, how protease activity is initiated, and how the viral replication machinery is trapped within the DMV.

Introduction

A unifying feature of the cytosolic replication of single-stranded (+) RNA viruses is a remodeling

of host intracellular membranes to create local protective environments which facilitate the

generation and storage of nascent viral RNA.(1) Chief among these modifications is the creation

of replication organelles (ROs) which can be categorized as either invaginated spherules, as in

the case of flaviviruses, or double membrane vesicles (DMVs), as in the case of enteroviruses.

Coronaviruses are an example of the latter, where remodeling of the endoplasmic reticulum

(ER) membrane produces a network of DMVs. Accumulating evidence points to these vesicles

as housing both viral RNA and the proteins necessary for replication,(2-6) thus serving the dual

purposes of shielding the RNA from triggering an immune response and protecting the RNA and

viral proteins from degradation. Research has focused on the viral transmembrane non-

structural proteins nsp3, nsp4 and nsp6 as the primary drivers of membrane remodeling and

DMV formation.(7) Initial images of these DMVs suggested a closed organelle,(8) however more

detailed cryo-electron tomography (cryo-ET) images have captured multiple distinct pores

embedded in the membranes of each DMV, providing a necessary mode of egress for newly

synthesized RNA. Low resolution cryo-ET reconstructions for both murine hepatitis virus

(MHV)(9) and SARS-CoV-2(10) clearly revealed pore structures with distinct six-fold symmetric

cytosolic crowns terminating in prominent prong-like features. This cryo-ET work also

demonstrated that DMV formation and pore formation go hand in hand, and that nsp3 and

nsp4 are the minimal viral components required. A recent 4.2 Å resolution cryo-ET structure

further revealed the pore in even greater detail, specifically showing the crown to be composed

of twelve subunits of nsp3, anchored to a dodecameric arrangement of nsp4 spanning both

inner and outer membranes.(11)

Nsp3 and nsp4 can be found on the first open reading frame (ORF1) of the coronavirus genome.

Encompassing over 70% of the genome, ORF1 encodes two viral polyproteins, pp1a (nsp1-

nsp10) and pp1ab (nsp1-nsp16). They are distinguished by a ribosomal frameshift located

between nsp10 and nsp12.(12) Both polyproteins are cleaved by embedded viral proteases in

nsp3 and nsp5. The first three non-structural proteins (nsp1-nsp3) are efficiently cleaved by the

papain-like proteases of nsp3 (PLpro in SARS-CoV-2),(13, 14) while the remainder of the

polyprotein (nsp4-nsp10, referred to here as pp1a', and nsp4-nsp16, referred to as pp1ab') are

cleaved in a more regulated manner by the main protease (Mpro) of nsp5.(15, 16) With respect

to DMV and pore formation, it has been clearly demonstrated that cleavage between nsp3 and

nsp4 is required,(10, 17) but no comparable study has established if cleavage between nsp4

and nsp5 is also required. Notably, nsp5, sandwiched between the membrane binding proteins

nsp4 and nsp6, is significantly more active when in a dimeric form,(18) but the factors that

initiate nsp5 maturation and polyprotein processing remain poorly understood.

Once the pp1a' and pp1ab' polyproteins are fully cleaved, the resulting individual proteins,

nsp7-nsp16, constitute the viral replication machinery. At a minimum, RNA polymerization is

carried out by a complex of $(nsp12)(nsp7)(nsp8)_2$.(19) Additional enzymatic domains of

nsp12,(20) nsp13,(21, 22) nsp14(23, 24) and nsp16,(25) aided by the cofactors nsp9 and nsp10,

are responsible for other critical viral RNA replication functions including proofreading and

mRNA capping. Previously, we proposed these viral proteins assemble around the

endonuclease nsp15 to form a hexameric complex of over 60 subunits.(26) Our modeling

suggested this complex efficiently coordinates the various functions just described. Implicitly,

some or all of these proteins must be recruited to the DMV for replication to occur, although

how that might be achieved has been a major unaddressed question.(27)

In this work, we address the question of pore formation and cleavage of the polyprotein from a

structural modeling approach. Significantly, we link formation of the pore to formation and

trapping of the previously proposed hexameric replication complex within the DMV. Much of

the work presented here was performed prior to publication of the high-resolution cryo-ET

structures by Huang, et al.,(11) but our initial models were largely consistent with these new

structures, and we found it relatively straightforward to incorporate those structures into our

models. The implications of the proposed model are far ranging, with direct relevance to

membrane remodeling, regulation of nsp5 protease activity, and formation of the replication

and transcription complex within the closed vesicles.

Results

SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 monomer

At 1945 residues, nsp3 is the largest protein produced by the SARS-CoV-2 virus. While most of

the individual domains have been solved by X-ray crystallography, AlphaFold was used to

predict the full-length structure (Figure 1a). The majority of the protein, with some notable

exceptions, was predicted with high confidence (Figure S1), as measured by the predicted Local

Distance Difference Test (pLDDT),(28) with most domains scoring in the 70-90 range. X-ray

structures for Ubl1 (ubiquitin-like domain 1)(29), Mac1 (macrodomain 1)(30), Mac3(31), DPUP

(domain preceding Ubl2 and PLpro)(32), Ubl2/PLpro(33), NAB (nucleic acid binding domain)(34)

and βSM (betacoronavirus specific marker)(35) were clearly reproduced in the AlphaFold

model. Underscoring the success of the method, following completion of this work, a structure

became available for the SARS-CoV-2 C-terminal CoV-Y domain(36) that matched very well the

AlphaFold prediction. Additional domains with no available structures for any coronavirus were

predicted for TM1, 3Ecto, TM2 (a bundle more accurately described as transmembrane domain

2 or TMD2) and Y1. The pLDDT score for the region between βSM and Y1, which includes TM1-

3Ecto-TMD2, was comparatively lower, at 64.5, but the linker between βSM and TM1 was

clearly seen to form two amphipathic helices. The most notable failure in the AlphaFold

prediction was for the Mac2 domain, which deviated significantly from X-ray structures for the

highly homologous SARS Mac2 domain (71% identity, 85% similarity)(37). This appeared to be

unique to the prediction of full-length nsp3 though. Predictions of the isolated domain or the

Mac2 and flanking domains, were consistent with the SARS structures, as was prediction of the

heterodimer of Mac2 with human Paip1(38). In addition, the highly variable region (HVR)

following Ubl1 was completely disordered, as were several loops connecting various domains.

In general, variations in the predicted structure conformations, coupled with the pLDDT

analysis, reflected significant flexibility between the domains.

SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 dodecamer

Early analysis of the pore structure determined from cryo-ET suggested that the cystosolic

crown is composed of a hexamer of nsp3, with the N-terminus residing in the prongs(9, 10).

Due to practical limitations in the size of structures that could be predicted with AlphaFold

(about 5000 residues), it wasn't possible to generate a model for an entire nsp3 hexamer

(11,670 residues) and exploration of truncated constructs had only limited success. The

publication of the 4.2 Å cryo-ET structure however provided surprising clarity.(11) The six-fold

symmetric crown is instead a dodecamer of nsp3, although much of the protein structure was

not resolved. Specifically, the C-terminal Y1/CoV-Y domains form the dodecameric base of the

crown and the cytosolic portion of the pore. It is constructed from an inner hexameric ring of Y1

(forming the pore), which is surrounded by another hexameric outer Y1 ring to create the base

of the crown. The twelve CoV-Y domains interlace above the base, forming the bulk of the

crown. The crown is embedded in the outer membrane through TMD2, interacting with nsp4

through the 3Ecto domain and TM1. Here we note that the clearest success among the

AlphaFold predictions of multimeric nsp3 constructs was that of the inner Y1 hexameric ring,

shown in Figure S2 in comparison to the cryo-ET structure.

The N-terminal domains preceding TM1 are only partially resolved for six subunits and not

resolved at all for the other six, implying a degree of disorder, which may reflect real dynamics

of the pore or the lack of other key stabilizing elements such as RNA or additional host or viral

proteins. Alternatively, it may simply be an artifact of how the structure was obtained and

refined. What is definitively resolved is that a hexameric ring of Ubl2/PLpro rests atop the CoV-

Y dodecamer to build up the crown. Huang, et al. also fit each of the six prongs with the Mac2,

Mac3 and DPUP domains from one subunit and the NAB domain from a neighboring subunit.

However, the resolution of these prongs is considerably weaker (>9 Å) and the fit more

speculative by their own metrics. We chose to remodel this part of the structure, taking into

account functional constraints, similarities and differences between MHV and SARS-CoV-2, and

all available cryo-ET maps, including the prior maps for both MHV and SARS-CoV-2.(9, 10) Our

final model adds previously unfit Ubl1 and Mac1 domains in the prongs, positions the NAB

domain between PLpro domains in the rim of the crown, and connects the N-terminal domains

to TM1 via the βSM domain and two amphipathic helices on the outer membrane cytosolic

surface. It is shown in Figure 1b and described in greater detail in the Supplementary

Information and Figure S3.

SARS-CoV-2 nsp4 monomer

Our model of nsp4 (Figure 2a) is consistent with previous AlphaFold models with four distinct

domains.(39) The N-terminal TM1 is a single α-helix which spans residues 1-27. This is followed

by the lumenal domain, a soluble region composed of two distinct lobes connected by a 9-

residue linker. The previously designated TM2/TM3/TM4 helices(40) were instead predicted by

AlphaFold to be a 5-helix bundle, spanning residues 277-398. For simplicity, we'll refer to this

region as transmembrane domain 2 (TMD2), with specific helices α1-α5. Finally, the AlphaFold

predicted C-terminal domain (CTD) is another soluble region which reproduces existing X-ray

structures(41). The average pLDDT score for the full protein was 83.0 (Figure S4).

In none of the predicted structures does TM1 interact with TMD2. The conformation is instead

consistent with nsp4 association with the DMV zippered double membrane, where the nsp4 N-

terminus is cytosolic, TM1 sits in the outer membrane, the lumenal domain is positioned in the

membrane gap, TMD2 sits in the inner membrane, and the nsp4 C-terminal domain (CTD) is

exposed to the DMV interior. Thus, the overall topology of the AlphaFold predicted nsp4

structure is consistent with that seen in the detailed pore structure.(11)

SARS-CoV-2 nsp4-nsp5-nsp6-nsp7 monomer

To investigate constraints on the nsp5 protease imposed by its position within the polyprotein,

we generated AlphaFold models for the uncleaved nsp4-nsp5-nsp6-nsp7 construct (Figure 2b).

The pLDDT declined slightly to an average of 77.0 (Figure S5), but X-ray structures of nsp5(42)

and nsp7(43) were well reproduced, and nsp6 was predicted to form an 8-helix bundle. The

overall organization of the polyprotein showed some flexibility between the individual domains.

However, in all predicted structures, the nsp4 TMD2 was aligned with nsp6 as if bound to a

common membrane. Unlike the prediction for cleaved nsp4, the nsp4 lumenal domain adopted

a conformation between its N- and C-lobes which oriented TM1 such that it associated with the

nsp6 helix bundle. This would be more consistent with association with the ER membrane

rather than the zippered double membrane, making nsp5, nsp7, the nsp4 N-terminus and the

nsp4 CTD cytosolic.(44) The observation that this conformational change is driven by the nsp4

lumenal domain is consistent with previous characterizations of this domain by Klatte, et al.(45)

A major conclusion from this work is that despite a relatively long flexible loop connecting nsp4

and nsp5 (residues 488-510), *cis*-cleavage of these proteins does not appear to be feasible. The

cleavage site on the connecting loop (residues 500-501) can only reach the protease active site

if the nsp5 helix at residues 510-515 is unwound, compromising the integrity of the protease

structure (Figure S6). Similarly, *cis*-cleavage of the nsp5 and nsp6 proteins at residues 807-808

does not appear to be possible under any circumstances. Thus, in both cases, cleavage must

proceed via interaction with the protease of a second polyprotein or an already cleaved nsp5.

SARS-CoV-2 nsp4 dodecamer

As with nsp3, our initial assumption was that the nsp4 component of the pore was hexameric.

Based on our predicted structures for the nsp4 monomer and previous work suggesting nsp3

interacts with the nsp4 lumenal domain,(45, 46) we reasoned TM1 must sit in the outer

membrane, positioning the lumenal domain in the membrane gap. This suggested the portion

of the pore embedded in the inner membrane would be formed from a hexamer of the nsp4

TMD2 domains, with the nsp4 CTD exposed to the DMV interior. Thus, we worked with a

truncated construct which spanned residues 256-500 of nsp4 (TMD2 and CTD). AlphaFold

indeed predicted several plausible hexameric structures with pore-like properties, but none

was entirely consistent with the available cryo-ET maps. However, upon close examination of

the MHV map, we identified density within the membrane gap which was similar in size to the

nsp4 lumen domain, but which indicated nsp4 was in fact dodecameric, not hexameric.

Unfortunately, AlphaFold predictions of dodecameric nsp4 (residues 256-500) did not produce

structures with the expected C6 symmetry. The detailed pore structure from Huang, et al.(11)

confirmed that the nsp4 component is indeed a dodecamer, characterized by a central

hexameric ring surrounded by an outer hexameric ring. While we didn't initially recognize it to

be the case, AlphaFold in fact accurately predicted the central component of the hexameric

inner pore, as shown in Figure S7 in comparison to the cryo-ET structure.

SARS-CoV-2 nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 dodecamer

Considering the possibility of pore formation prior to nsp5 cleavage, our preliminary

exploration with AlphaFold also considered hexamers of uncleaved nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 (truncated

to residues 256-1042). AlphaFold generated a particularly compelling model shown in Figure 3a,

which consisted of an inner ring of nsp4 TMD2 surrounded by an outer ring of nsp6. The two

transmembrane domains are linked via an inner, solvent exposed ring formed from the nsp4

CTD, which is surrounded by a larger ring formed from nsp5. Consistent with the emerging

topology of the nsp3/nsp4 pore, both nsp5 and the nsp4 CTD would be exposed to the interior

of the DMV in this model.

We found it was straightforward to envision similar rings of varying sizes, but a dodecameric

arrangement of nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 was beyond the practical limits of AlphaFold. To generate such

a model, we instead resorted to a simple geometric expansion of the nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 hexamer.

This was executed by defining the center of mass of each subunit within the hexamer,

measuring the distance between adjacent subunits, and translating and rotating duplicate sets

of these subunits to form a dodecameric ring in which this distance was maintained. Structural

refinement from this starting point led to the fully optimized construct shown in Figure 3b.

In comparison to the earlier MHV and SARS-CoV-2 cryo-ET maps, this dodecameric

arrangement appeared to be consistent with the overall diameter of the inner membrane pore

and provided the first hint as to how these pores may form. Once the detailed pore structure of

Huang, et al(11) became available, the arrangement of the final fully cleaved pore was clear,

and our attention turned to whether the uncleaved model was topologically consistent with

this structure. A clear requirement was that the inner nsp4 hexamer in the final pore structure

requires cleavage from nsp5; however, the outer nsp4 hexamer does not. Interestingly, in the

nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 hexamers, we saw a domain swapping occur in which TMD2 adopts an open

conformation with α1 jutting out at a significant angle (~60°) to interact with a neighboring

TMD2 bundle of α2-α5. This is also seen in both the inner and outer hexamers of the structure

solved by Huang, et al. We recognized however that there was some ambiguity as to how this

may manifest itself in the nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 dodecamer. We concluded that if all subunits

undergo the domain swap, then the final pore could only form following cleavage of all twelve

nsp4-nsp5 linkages. However, in an arrangement in which only alternating subunits adopt the

open conformation, upon cleavage of the nsp4-nsp5 linkages from those same six subunits, the

structure would have a simple pathway to adopt the mature pore conformation (Figure 3b).

This model was merged with the nsp4 lumenal domains of the Huang, et al. structure and our

rebuilt model of the nsp3 dodecamer. The nsp4 TM1 helices, missing from the cryo-ET

structure, were also added in parallel to the nsp3 TM1 helices, consistent with discernible, but

previously unmodelled, density in the maps.

SARS-CoV-2 uncleaved pp1a'/pp1ab' model

Having created a model of dodecameric nsp4-nsp6, we considered modeling the remainder of

the uncleaved polyprotein. This extended model could be derived from either pp1a' (nsp4-

nsp10) or pp1ab' (nsp4-nsp16) or a combination of both. We considered that certain known

protein-protein interactions may be preserved in this situation, creating a degree of

preorganization that would facilitate efficient formation of the replication complex upon

polyprotein cleavage. From cryo-EM and X-ray structures, interactions between nsp7 and nsp8,

nsp7 and nsp12, nsp8 and nsp12, nsp8 and nsp13, nsp9 and nsp12, nsp10 and nsp14, and

nsp10 and nsp16 are well characterized(47-50), as is nsp15 hexamerization(51).

Working from a dimer of nsp4-nsp5-nsp6 extracted from the optimized dodecameric ring, it

appeared that extending both subunits to the full pp1ab' polyprotein would be too bulky. In

contrast, extending both to the smaller pp1a' polyprotein would be well tolerated, but offer

little in additional protein-protein interactions. However, a heterodimer formed from pp1a' and

pp1ab' offered the maximum opportunity to incorporate the known protein-protein

interactions. Following exploration with AlphaFold and Piper, we identified an arrangement

(Figure 3c) in which multiple protein-protein interactions are preserved: pp1a'-nsp8/pp1ab'-

nsp7; pp1a'-nsp8/pp1ab'-nsp13; pp1a'-nsp10/pp1ab'-nsp14; pp1ab'-nsp8/pp1ab'-nsp12; and

pp1ab'-nsp10/pp1ab'-nsp16. In addition, nsp14 adopts a conformation and position relative to

nsp12 consistent with our previous model for the full hexameric replication complex(26).

Significantly, cleavage sites were all accessible on the surface of the polyprotein heterodimer.

This dimer was then refined and incorporated into the dodecameric model where it went

through a final refinement (Figure 3d).

We note that constraints imposed by the heterodimer provide a second topological argument

for the alternating conformations of the TMD2 domains in the dodecameric ring. In considering

that the ring may be derived from preformed heterodimers which originate on a single ER

membrane, the dimer would need to introduce a twist at the nsp4 TMD2-lumen domain linkage

when adopting the double membrane binding conformation found in the ring. This twist forces

one of the α1 helices to open up and cross over the other nsp4 subunit (see Figure S8). Overall,

the model provides a consistent evolution from heterodimer formation on the ER membrane,

to adopting a double membrane spanning conformation upon association with nsp3, to

formation of the mature pore upon nsp4 cleavage.

SARS-CoV-2 polyprotein cleavage

The close-packed arrangement of nsp5 in the polyprotein dodecameric ring establishes a

favorable environment for the protease to make the initial nsp4-nsp5 cleavage. A key

observation we made was that the nsp4-nsp5 linker (residues 488-510) was long enough that it

could conceivably connect nsp4 to either of two nsp5 subunits in the ring (at a distance of 35 Å

or 52 Å). As originally constructed from the AlphaFold hexamer, the connection was to the

nearer nsp5-nsp6 subunit, comparable to how the proteins are arranged in the monomeric

polyprotein. However, connecting nsp4 instead to the neighboring nsp5-nsp6 subunit allowed

the nsp4-nsp5 cleavage site to pass over the proximal nsp5 protease active site. A positional

shift of the nsp5 proteins would still be required for cleavage to occur, and this was

investigated for both subunits. We found that simply by flipping alternating nsp5 subunits while

retaining the positions of everything else, we could identify a conformation that was capable of

nsp4-nsp5 cleavage, consistent with available crystal structures of bound substrate.(52) As

depicted in Figures 4a and 4b, the flipped nsp5 subunit functions as the substrate, while the

nsp5 subunit which retained its original position functions as the protease. Given the

constraints imposed by the full $(pp1a'/pp1ab')_6$ model, a repositioning of nsp5 associated with

pp1ab' appears more likely than that of pp1a' suggesting the larger polyprotein is the initial

substrate for cleavage.

The protease activity of nsp5 is known to be significantly enhanced when the protein is in its

dimer form(53). Formation of such a dimer does not appear to be possible prior to nsp5's

cleavage from either nsp4 or nsp6. However, a striking observation from these AlphaFold

derived models is that the C-terminal domain of nsp4 forms an interaction with nsp5 which

appears to mimic important aspects of nsp5 dimerization (Figure 4c). Specifically, a conserved

nsp4 basic residue (K452) forms a salt bridge with a conserved nsp5 glutamic acid (E666),

replicating the interaction seen in the dimer between the same glutamic acid and the N-

terminus of the paired subunit. This interaction has previously been implicated in the enhanced

dimer activity, with the conclusion that it stabilizes the P1 pocket(54). The similar interaction

seen here suggests formation of the pore prior to polyprotein cleavage both activates the nsp5

protease and positions the nsp4-nsp5 substrate to carry out the first cleavage event.

This proposed arrangement of alternating positions of nsp5 in the dodecameric ring would lead

to the cleavage of half of the nsp4-nsp5 linkages. Once this occurs, the reduced constraints

allow the nsp3/nsp4 pore to adopt a conformation consistent with that of the cryo-ET

structure. That is, the six cleaved nsp4 proteins rotate inward to form the lumenal hexameric

pore. With this reconfiguration, the six remaining uncleaved nsp4 subunits can also adopt the

conformations seen in the cryo-ET structure. At the same time, the six partially cleaved nsp5

subunits can now form canonical nsp5 dimers with the six uncleaved nsp5 subunits, as shown in

Figures 4d and 4e. From this configuration, cleavage of additional linkages could take several

pathways, with nsp5-nsp6, nsp6-nsp7, and nsp8-nsp9 linkages all within range (Figure S9).

Discussion

It has been established that cleavage between nsp3 and nsp4 is a prerequisite for pore

formation and membrane remodeling(10, 17). However, no such requirement has been shown

with respect to cleavage of nsp4 from the remaining intermediate polyproteins pp1a' and

pp1ab'. Cleavage of nsp1, nsp2 and nsp3 from the polyprotein occurs very quickly, facilitated by

the nsp3 PL proteases(14). Cleavage of the remainder of the polyprotein by nsp5 remains more

enigmatic, but appears to be a slower process, possibly requiring dimer formation or some

other regulatory event to initiate(55). Our own analysis of the nsp4-nsp5-nsp6-nsp7 monomer

made clear that *cis*-cleavage of the nsp4-nsp5 and nsp5-nsp6 linkages is highly unlikely,

implying cleavage follows some interaction between polyproteins. In the work presented here,

we generated a series of structural models outlining a plausible path for DMV and pore

formation stemming from the interaction of twelve nsp3 subunits with six pp1a' and six pp1ab'

uncleaved polyproteins. We argue that it is the formation of an immature pore from these

components that initiates the protease activity of nsp5.

We made several key observations from this model. First, nsp4 can adopt conformations

consistent with binding either to a single membrane or to a double membrane. This is

facilitated by a conformational change in the lumen domain and is consistent with prior

conclusions made by Klatte, et al.(45) Empirically, it is the interaction between nsp3 and nsp4

that drives this conformational change, as nsp4 by itself does not induce membrane

remodeling.(46)

Second, the uncleaved polyproteins pp1a' and pp1ab' can form a favorable heterodimer in

which known protein-protein interactions are established. While pp1a' and pp1ab' homodimers

could also be imagined, neither would have the advantages of the complementarity seen in the

heterodimer. This dimer is also capable of binding to either a single membrane or a double

membrane. When bound to the single membrane of the ER, the nsp4 N-terminus and CTD,

nsp5, nsp7-nsp10 of pp1a' and nsp7-nsp16 of pp1ab' are cytosolic, while only the nsp4 lumen

domain is in the ER interior. When bound to the double membrane of a DMV, the nsp4 N-

terminus is the only element remaining exposed to the cytosol. With the nsp4 lumen domain

sitting in the membrane gap, the bulk of the polyprotein dimer then resides in the DMV

interior. As with isolated nsp4, this conformation change would necessarily be driven by

association with nsp3.

These heterodimers, when in the double membrane spanning conformation, are then capable

of forming a ring comprised of twelve alternating pp1a' and ppa1b' polyproteins. This ring has a

diameter comparable to that seen for the nsp4 dodecamer in the recent nsp3/nsp4 pore

structure reported by Huang, et al.(11) and can associate with the nsp3 dodecamer in the same

manner. Thus, we propose that this $(nsp3)_{12}(pp1a')_6(pp1ab')_6$ complex represents an immature

form of the pore. The polyprotein dodecameric ring leads to close packing of nsp5 and the nsp4

CTD, providing the necessary scaffolding to facilitate *trans*-cleavage. We identified a

conformation within this framework in which the 23-residue nsp4-nsp5 linker of alternating

subunits engages the proximal nsp5 protease active site. Critically, we also noticed that a basic

residue from the nsp4 C-terminal domain (K452) forms a salt bridge with the conserved nsp5

glutamate residue (E666) located in the protease active site P1 pocket. This interaction mimics

the situation in the nsp5 dimer, in which the same glutamate residue interacts with the N-

terminal amine of the other subunit. It is thought to be critical to stabilization of the protease

active site, explaining the significant enhancement of protease activity associated with

dimerization(54). Following this initial nsp4-nsp5 cleavage event, the six cleaved nsp4 proteins

are free to adopt the conformation seen in the mature pore structure. The reduced structural

constraints also allow formation of canonical nsp5 dimers, having proximity to additional

cleavage sites within the polyprotein.

With this model, we found that pore formation prior to nsp5 polyprotein processing is a

reasonable possibility and may in fact be the regulatory step needed to ensure proper

localization of the cleaved proteins that make up the replication machinery. A notable

observation of the full model presented here is that the stoichiometry is consistent with our

previous model for the hexameric replication complex(26). That model included 60+ subunits

centered around nsp15. Specifically, the model includes six subunits of nsp7, nsp12, nsp13,

nsp14, nsp15, and nsp16, and twelve subunits of nsp8 and nsp10, with up to six transiently

associated nsp9 subunits. This complex is most efficiently derived from six pp1a and six pp1ab

polyproteins, meaning one pore structure generates one full replication complex. When viewed

together, the two models imply a mechanism not only for DMV and pore formation, but for

recruitment of the replicase to the DMV.

As depicted in Figure 5, the following picture emerges from these models. Upon cleavage by the

PL proteases, the nsp3, pp1a' and pp1ab' products are associated with the ER membrane

(Figure 5a). The nsp3 3Ecto and nsp4 lumenal domains are in the ER lumen, with the bulk of the

proteins exposed to the cytosol. We suggest here that nsp3 likely associates with pp1a' and

pp1ab' first, before forming the tetrameric unit $(nsp3)_2(pp1a')(pp1ab')$ and inducing membrane

zippering (Figure 5b). The exact sequence of events is unclear, but this pathway seems likely

given the immediate proximity between nsp3 and either pp1a' or pp1ab' following PLpro

cleavage. Once membrane zippering occurs, the nsp3 3Ecto and the nsp4 lumen domains are

positioned in the gap between the two membranes, and the remainder of nsp3 is on one side

of the double membrane and nsp5, nsp7 and the rest of the polyprotein are on the other side.

Aggregation of these tetrameric building blocks leads to the immature pore and may facilitate

the observed increased curvature of the zippered membrane (Figure 5c). Formation of

additional pores ultimately will yield a sealed, spherical DMV.

The picture of membrane remodeling presented here raises the question of the relative timing

of nsp5 polyprotein processing and DMV formation. We see no justification for a strict

requirement that a DMV be fully formed for cleavage to begin. Should cleavage occur prior to

DMV formation, the nsp products would be released into the cytosol. However, should cleavage

follow closure of the DMV, the resulting products would be trapped inside (Figure 5d). This is a

scenario that would likely follow formation of the final pore of the DMV, suggesting each DMV

contains at minimum one hexameric replication complex. Interestingly, this process may

ultimately become self-limiting, as free nsp5 dimers build up in the cytosol, cleavage of new

polyproteins at late stages may occur without the requirement of new pore formation.

The implications of this model require careful consideration. Within the protected environment

of the DMV, the proposed stoichiometry, pre-organization and high protein concentration (we

estimate at least 1-2 µM based on a DMV diameter of 250-350 nm(8, 9, 56)) would be ideal for

formation of a long-lived full hexameric replicase complex. As previously described, this

complex should ensure that replication, proofreading, capping and dsRNA unwinding are

coordinated and efficient processes.(26) Confirmation of the exact contents of DMVs has been

notoriously difficult, however. Multiple studies have shown that the DMVs contain RNA,

specifically identifying both dsRNA and newly synthesized RNA.(3, 8, 56-58) Identification of

viral protein components of the replicase within DMVs has been less conclusive, although

increasing evidence supports their association with DMVs.(57, 58)

In contrast, the less controlled environment outside of DMVs may mean the full complex does

not form or that complexes are transient. The minimally known replication competent complex

is formed from nsp12, nsp7 and two subunits of nsp8.(59, 60) Association with nsp9(48, 61) and

two subunits of nsp13(21, 47) have been documented as well, but characterization of other

viral protein interactions has proven more elusive. Indeed, the proposed dual role of nsp15

suggests a full hexameric complex forms within the DMV, but likely does not in the cytosol. As

the center of the hexameric replication complex, it is proposed to function primarily as

scaffolding, with its endonuclease activity highly curtailed.(26) Thus, with nsp15 present within

a DMV, formation of the complex would be a necessary regulatory mechanism to prevent

degradation of RNA. However, as a free nsp15 hexamer outside of the DMVs, its endonuclease

activity serves as an effective defense against the immune response by degrading cytosolic viral

RNA.(51, 62)

In the absence of full complex formation, some functions, such as proofreading and mRNA

capping, might be compromised or lost entirely. Yet plenty of evidence remains that some

replication is occurring outside of the DMVs. At minimum, there is a temporal argument for

this, in that replication necessarily precedes DMV formation.(63) However, other lines of

evidence are consistent with a two-compartment model persisting throughout infection.

Notably, the groundbreaking work of Sawicki and Sawicki(64) established that coronavirus RNA

replication is dependent on continuous ORF1 translation and proteolytic processing. Further

work on several temperature sensitive (TS) mutations showed that synthesis of negative-sense

RNA was halted at higher temperatures but positive-sense RNA was not.(65) Donaldson, et

al.(65) showed that this was a result of inhibited nsp5 protease activity at the higher

temperatures. More recently, Schmidt, et al.(66) demonstrated that negative strand synthesis,

was dependent on UMPylated-nsp9 priming, facilitated by the host factor SND1. This did not

appear to be the case for positive strand synthesis. With no proposed mechanism for

recruitment of additional proteins to an already formed DMV, the dependence of negative-

sense RNA synthesis on host factors and the continuous generation of viral replicase proteins

(specifically nsp9) suggest transcription of the minus strand occurs in the cytosol. In contrast,

this model would be consistent with positive strand synthesis occurring in the cytosol at early

stages but predominantly occurring within the protected environment of DMVs at later stages.

In summary, in asking the question whether the nsp3/nsp4 DMV pore forms prior to nsp5

cleavage of the polyprotein, we have developed a framework for understanding the formation

of DMVs and the replication complex in coronavirus infected cells. From a close examination of

structural constraints within monomeric and multimeric forms of the polyprotein, aided in large

part by AlphaFold predictions, we conclude that formation of an immature pore from twelve

nsp3 subunits, and six subunits each of the intermediate polyproteins pp1a' and pp1ab'

initiates the protease activity of nsp5. Following cleavage of half of the nsp4-nsp5 linkages, the

mature nsp3/nsp4 pore can form and protease cleavage of the remainder of the polyproteins

will release the components necessary to form the replication complex into the DMV. While the

detailed mechanism is specific to coronaviruses, we expect similar processes are taking place

with other single-stranded (+) RNA viral families.

Materials and Methods

AlphaFold2.1(67) (with a template cutoff date of 12/01/22) was used to predict the structures

of individual monomers of nsp3, nsp4, and uncleaved nsp4-nsp5-nsp6-nsp7 from SARS-CoV-2,

as well as hexameric complexes of the C-terminal Y1/CoV-Y domain of nsp3, hexameric

complexes of nsp4, and hexameric complexes of uncleaved nsp4-nsp5-nsp6. In all cases,

AMBER relaxation was turned off and structures were instead refined with software from the

Schrödinger Suite, including Prime, Macromodel and Desmond(68). A typical workflow involved

construction of an initial model either from AlphaFold directly or via manual manipulation of

individual subunits, followed by sidechain prediction in Prime. This was followed by a stepwise

minimization with Prime and/or Macromodel, in which residues at the protein-protein interface

were optimized first, building up to a minimization of the full structure. In cases where large

movements from the starting point occurred, a second round of optimization would be carried

out starting from a structure in which the original protein subunits were re-aligned to their new

positions. Stability was tested at several stages of model development with molecular dynamics

(MD) using Desmond, typically run for 100ns with suitable constraints. Macromodel and

Desmond were also used to predict conformations of some long loops. Construction of the

pp1a'/pp1ab' dimer involved preservation of known interactions as much as possible, using

AlphaFold and Piper(69) protein-protein docking to explore possible arrangements of various

subunits.

The SARS-CoV-2 sequences used are from the original Wuhan strain (NCBI accession number

QHD43415.1(70)). Nsp3 spans residues 819-2763 of the polyprotein, nsp4 spans 2764-3263,

pp1a' (nsp4-nsp10) spans 2764-4392, and pp1ab' (nsp4-nsp16) spans 2764-7096.

Models were guided by the cryo-ET maps deposited in the Electron Microscopy Data Bank with

accession codes EMD-11514 (MHV(9)), EMD-15963 (SARS-CoV-2(10)), and EMD-39107 and

EMD-39109 (SARS-CoV-2(11)). Ultimately, the models were merged with the structures of

Huang, et al. (PDB 8YAX and 8YB5)(11) and further refined using the approaches described

above. While the final pore models have approximate C6 rotational symmetry, strict symmetry

constraints were not imposed.

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Figures

Figure 1. a) AlphaFold predicted structure of SARS-CoV-2 nsp3. The domain organization of

nsp3 is indicated below, colored blue to red across its 1945 residues. The nsp3 structure was

largely well predicted, with a few exceptions, including a long, disordered loop corresponding

to the highly variable region (HVR) following Ubl1. b) Remodeled nsp3 dodecameric component

of the DMV pore, based on the cryo-ET structure and maps of Huang, et al.(11) Portions of the

structure rendered with surface representation are preserved from the published structure.

Portions shown in cartoon representation have been added or remodeled.

Figure 2. a) Alphafold predicted structure of nsp4, colored blue to red across its 500 residues.

The model reflects a conformation consistent with association to a double membrane

(indicated by the gray bars), where the lumenal domain resides in the membrane gap. b)

Predicted structure of the uncleaved nsp4-nsp7 polyprotein, with nsp4 in green, nsp5 in red,

nsp6 in blue and nsp7 in white. The model adopts a conformation consistent with binding to

the ER membrane, where the nsp4 N-terminus and CTD, nsp5 and nsp7 are cytosolic and the

nsp4 lumenal domain is in the ER lumen.

Figure 3. a) AlphaFold prediction of the hexameric SARS-CoV-2 nsp4-nsp6 polyprotein (a

truncated construct covering residues 256-1042). Nsp4 (lime green) forms a pore-like interior,

flanked by nsp6 (marine blue). Nsp5 (red) forms a close packed ring-like arrangement on the

underside. b) The nsp4-nsp6 hexamer transformed into a dodecamer. The nsp4 TMD2

alternates between open and closed conformations, facilitating pore maturation upon nsp4-

nsp5 cleavage. c) The pp1a'/pp1ab' heterodimer. The dimer incorporates known interactions

704   between the nsp proteins to the maximum extent. The nsp4 conformation is consistent with

705   coordination to a double membrane and formation of the dodecameric ring. d) Model of the

706   complete DMV immature pore, prior to nsp4-nsp5 cleavage. The precursor to the pore is

707   formed from twelve subunits of nsp3 (blue) and six subunits each of uncleaved pp1a' and

708   pp1ab'.

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Figure 4. Proposed mechanism for nsp5 protease activation and pore maturation. a) View from

above and b) view from below the immature pore in its pre-cleavage state. Six alternating nsp5

subunits within the dodecamer formed from pp1a' and pp1ab' assume a conformation which

allows *trans*-cleavage of the nsp4-nsp5 linker by the remaining nsp5 subunits. c) Detail of the

nsp5 protease active site shows cleavage occurs between Q500 on nsp4 and S501 on nsp5

(numbering consistent with the uncleaved polyprotein pp1ab'). The interaction between nsp4

K452 and nsp5 E666 mimics the interaction between the nsp5 N-terminus and the same

glutamic acid residue in the canonical nsp5 dimer. d) View from above and e) view from below

the post-cleavage mature pore. The reduced structural constraints from the nsp4-nsp5 cleavage

of ppa1b' allows the nsp4 subunits to adopt the conformation seen in the structure by Huang,

et al.(11) Despite pp1a' remaining uncleaved at this point, canonical nsp5 dimers can form in

which one of the two protease active sites should be considered active and well positioned to

cleave additional linkages.

Figure 5. Schematic of pore formation, membrane remodeling and polyprotein cleavage. a)

Following protease cleavage by PLpro, nsp3 and the polyprotein intermediates pp1a' (nsp4-

nsp10) and ppa1b' (nsp4-nsp16) are expressed on the ER membrane. Given their initial

proximity, nsp3/pp1a' and nsp3/pp1ab' dimers may form first. b) Interaction between nsp3 and

nsp4 leads to a conformational change in the nsp4 lumen domain which drives membrane

zippering, while association between pp1a' and pp1ab' creates the basic $(nsp3)_2(pp1a')(pp1ab')$

building block for construction of the pore. c) Aggregation leads to formation of the

dodecameric pore precursor and membrane curvature. The close packing of nsp5 in this

complex activates its protease. d) Cleavage of the polyprotein prior to DMV formation releases

viral proteins into the cytosol (left). Cleavage following DMV formation traps the viral proteins

within the DMV, creating ideal conditions for the previously predicted hexameric replicase to

form.