Title

Structure and inhibition mechanism of the helicase-primase complex from human

herpesvirus 1

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Abstract

Human herpesviruses (HHVs) are widespread pathogens that can cause severe disease,

particularly in immunocompromised individuals, and have been increasingly associated

with chronic conditions such as Alzheimer's disease and multiple sclerosis. Most antiviral

therapies target the α-subfamily of HHVs, while treatment options for the β- and γ-

subfamilies remain limited. A key antiviral target in α-subfamily is the helicase-primase

complex (HPC), which is essential for viral DNA replication; however, its structure and

inhibition mechanism have remained unclear. Here, we report the cryo-EM structures of the

HPC from human herpesvirus 1 (HHV1) bound to single-stranded DNA(ssDNA) and either

of two clinical inhibitors, amenamevir or pritelivir. The HPC comprises flexible helicase

and primase modules, and both inhibitors engage a shared allosteric pocket near the ATPase

site. Structural, biochemical, and molecular dynamics analyses reveal that these inhibitors

lock the helicase in an open, inactive conformation, thereby preventing ATP binding and

DNA unwinding. Furthermore, quantitative interaction energy analysis by fragment

molecular orbital (FMO) calculation elucidates why these inhibitors are α-subfamily

selective and how subtle chemical differences between amenamevir and pritelivir lead to

distinct antiviral spectra. Our findings clarify the inhibition mechanism of clinically

relevant HPC inhibitors and provide a structural basis for their subfamily selectivity. This

framework may guide the rational design of next-generation inhibitors with altered

herpesvirus specificity and provide broader insights into the development of helicase-

targeted therapeutics.

Introduction

Human Herpesviruses (HHVs) are significant human pathogens[1]. To date, eight
herpesviruses (HHV1–8) have been identified and classified into three subfamilies: α, β,
and γ. All these herpesviruses can cause human diseases, including herpes simplex, herpes
zoster, encephalitis, and various tumors. They can also lead to severe conditions,
particularly in immunocompromised individuals. Moreover, recent studies have suggested
potential links between herpesvirus infections and chronic diseases such as Alzheimer's
disease[2], dementia[3], multiple sclerosis[4], and chronic fatigue syndrome[5]. Currently, multiple
anti-herpes drugs, such as nucleoside analogs and helicase-primase inhibitors (HPIs), are
available for the α-subfamily (HHV1/HSV1, HHV2/HSV2, and HHV3/VZV). In contrast,
therapeutic options for the β-subfamily (HHV4/Epstein-Barr virus and HHV8/Kaposi's
sarcoma-associated virus) and γ-subfamily (HHV5/cytomegalovirus, HHV6, and HHV7)
remain limited, underscoring the need to develop new antiviral drugs targeting these
subfamilies.

Herpesviruses employ a set of unique enzymes for the replication of their genomes, which
can be therapeutically targeted by specific inhibitors. One such target is the helicase-
primase complex (HPC)[6], composed of three subunits: the helicase subunit (UL5 in
HHV1), the primase subunit (UL52 in HHV1), and a non-catalytic accessory subunit (UL8
in HHV1). The HPC associates with the replication fork and unwinds the DNA duplex
through the action of the helicase subunit, generating ssDNA as the templates for DNA
synthesis by the viral DNA polymerase. While most replicative helicases in eukaryotes and

prokaryotes form hexameric ring structures surrounding the DNA[7], herpesvirus helicases

belong to superfamily Ib, which is thought to function as monomers[8]. Previous studies on

related superfamily Ib helicases have shown that they alternate between "open" and

"closed" conformations in an ATP hydrolysis-dependent manner, translocating along

ssDNA in an inchworm-like motion to separate the base pairs they encounter[9]. The HPC

also synthesizes an RNA primer on the lagging strand through the action of the primase

subunit. This subunit contains sequence motifs conserved among archaeo-eukaryotic

primases[10], along with a putative zinc-binding domain (ZBD), which is commonly found in

other primases, including the human PrimPol protein. Notably, all three subunits of the

HPC are required for the optimal activities of both the helicase and primase, suggesting

complex regulatory interactions between them. As no experimental structure of the HPC

has been determined, it remains elusive how these subunits interact with each other, how

the two catalytic domains are spatially arranged, and how the two activities are coordinated

within this unique complex.

HPIs specifically inhibit the HPC of α-subfamily, thereby suppressing their replication. One

such molecule, amenamevir (AMNV)[11,12] has demonstrated efficacy against all three α-

herpesviruses, HHV1 and 2 (also known as herpes simplex viruses 1 and 2, respectively),

and HHV3 (varicella zoster virus). AMNV has been approved in Japan for the treatment of

herpes simplex and herpes zoster; however, its poor brain penetration[13] limits its clinical

utility for treating herpesvirus-induced encephalitis. Pritelivir (PTV)[14,15], another clinical

HPI in phase 3, is effective against HHV1 and HHV2, but shows only limited activity

against HHV3 and HHV5[14]. To date, no HPIs effective against β- and γ-subfamily

herpesviruses have been reported.

Main

Overall structure

To elucidate the overall architecture of the HPC and the inhibition mechanism by HPIs, we

set out to determine its cryo-EM structures. We reconstituted the HPC of HHV1 by co-

expressing the three subunits in insect cells and purified the complex by affinity

chromatography. We mixed the purified HPC with a 43-mer ssDNA, AMP-PNP (a

nonhydrolyzable analog of ATP) and either AMNV or PTV, and collected cryo-EM images.

During the EM volume reconstruction, we noticed that the HPC can be divided into two

modules, hereafter referred to as the helicase module (HM) and the primase module (PM),

whose relative positions are flexible. Thus, following the global density reconstruction,

focused refinement of the two modules were independently performed, yielding two locally

refined maps with improved resolution (about 2.9-3.3 Å), on which we built atomic models

(Extended Data Figures 1-5). We also performed a 3DFlex refinement[16] of the overall

complex which gave a better overall resolution (about 3.1-3.3 Å) and built the full atomic

models into these 3DFlex maps with the help of the two atomic models built on locally

refined maps (Supplementary Movie 1). Unless otherwise stated, we use locally built

models to describe local interactions and the 3DFlex-derived models for discussion on

global structures.

Figure 1: Overall structure of the AMNV-bound HPC from HHV1. a, Domain architectures of the three subunits and their interactions with each other and with ssDNA. The color scheme used in this panel is applied consistently throughout the paper to distinguish different domains. **b**, A cartoon illustration of the HPC. **c**, 3DFlex map (calculated using 3DFlex) and the ribbon model of the AMNV-bound HPC.

Figure 1 and Extended Data Figure 6 show the overall structures of the AMNV- and PTV-

bound complexes, respectively. The HM consists of the entire UL5 protein and two

domains of UL52, namely the scaffold domain (SD, residues 1-408 and 891-910) and the

ZBD (residues 911-1043). The two domains of UL52 intimately interact with UL5 with

large interface areas. UL5 consists of the domains 1A (residues 34-344 and 864-892), 2A

(residues 345-417 and 805-863), 2B (residues 418-514 and 693-804), and 2C (residues

515-692), which are shared by superfamily Ib helicases. Structure similarity analysis using

the DALI server[17] revealed that the helicase subunit is most similar to Pif1 helicases (e.g.,

PDB ID: 7OTJ; Z score = 19.2)[18–21]. Of the 43-mer ssDNA used for structural

determination, only seven nucleotides were clearly visible, bound to domains 1A, 2A, and

2B of UL5, with the 5′ and 3′ ends bound to domains 2A and 1A, respectively, in agreement

with other superfamily I and II helicases[8]. We tentatively modeled them as oligo-dT.

Notably, no density of AMP-PNP was observed at the ATPase active site of UL5 (discussed

later). The PM consists of the primase domain of UL52 (PD, residues 409-890) and the

entire UL8 protein, which interact with each other. The intimate interaction between UL5-

UL52 and UL52-UL8 explains why a lack of one subunit seriously affects the helicase and

primase activities of the remaining subunits.

AMNV and PTV bind to a shared pocket located near, but not at, the ATP-binding site. The

pocket is formed by the SD of UL52 and the linker region connecting domains 1A and 2A

of UL5 (designated as motif IIIa in superfamily I, although sometimes referred to as motif

IV)[8]. In the structures of superfamily Ia and Ib helicases[9,20,22], a conserved arginine residue

of motif IIIa (corresponding to R345 of UL5) directly interacts with the γ-phosphate group

of the bound ATP analogs. This suggests that motif IIIa plays a role in coupling ATP

binding/hydrolysis to domain movement—a process potentially influenced by binding of

HPIs. The two inhibitor-bound structures are nearly identical (the RMSD value of 0.50 Å

for 1,098 Cα atoms of the HM; Extended Data Figure 6), suggesting that the two inhibitors

likely function in essentially the same manner.

PD and ZBD of UL52

The DALI server search revealed that the PD is structurally similar to other archaeo-

eukaryotic primases, including human and bacterial PrimPol (e.g., PDB ID: 5L2X; Z-score

= 14.8) as well as viral helicase-primase fusion proteins (e.g., PDB ID: 8XJ6; Z-score =

12.7) whose helicase domains assemble into a hexameric ring. When a template DNA-

bound structure of PrimPol[23] is superposed, the superposed DNA is positioned with its 3'

end directed towards the HM, while the HM-bound ssDNA in the current HPC structure is

oriented with its 5' end toward the PM (Extended Data Figure 7a-c). This configuration is

consistent with a model in which a single HPC molecule engages the continuous template

strand via its HM and PM simultaneously. However, to accommodate a single ssDNA

spanning the two modules in a smooth conformation, substantial reorientation between

these two modules would be necessary. Given the apparent flexibility between the two

modules and the lack of a large interaction surface between them, it is possible such

reorientation occurs during the productive primer synthesis by the PD coupled with

replication fork progression driven by the HM. The HPC may engage the template DNA

through an alternative mechanism (e.g., two HPC molecules binding to a single replication

fork), as suggested earlier[24].

The ZBD coordinates a zinc ion via C988, H993, C1023, and C1028. The UL52 ZBD is

widely conserved among eukaryotic PrimPol proteins. Structural prediction using

AlphaFold2[25] revealed a strong similarity between the ZBD of UL52 and that of human

PrimPol (Extended Data Figure 7d, e). The human PrimPol ZBD possesses ssDNA-binding

activity and is required for primase activity. It has been proposed to bind template ssDNA

to regulate the primase and polymerase activities of PrimPol[26]. The reorientation of the HM

and PM domains may bring the PD and ZBD closer together, enabling such a cooperative

binding mode.

UL8-PD interactions

As predicted by a previous bioinformatic analysis[27], UL8 adopts a fold that is structurally

related to B-family DNA polymerases. However, UL8 lacks both the catalytic residues

required for coordinating divalent ions and the basic surface necessary for template DNA

binding (Extended Data Figure 8), consistent with its lack of detectable enzymatic activity.

At the UL52–UL8 interface, a network of salt bridges and hydrogen bonds is formed,

involving the R640 side chain and L748main chain of UL8, and the side chains of E511 and

R437 of UL52 (Extended Data Figure 8c). Notably, R640 is one of five residues that are

completely conserved among the eight human herpesviruses and was previously predicted

to be involved in UL52 binding based on a mutagenesis study[28].

Helicase module and ssDNA binding

The bound ssDNA interacts with the domains 1A, 2A, and 2B of UL5. Domains 1A and 2A

engage the DNA backbone mainly through hydrophilic interactions with the phosphate

groups, while domain 2B mostly forms van der Waals contacts with it (Figure 2a-e).

Nucleotides dT3-dT5 are wrapped around by the three domains and completely buried

within a channel that is too small to accommodate the double-stranded DNA (Figure 2a),

suggesting that like other superfamily I helicases, UL5 unwinds the DNA duplex via a

steric exclusion mechanism coupled with the translocation along the tracking strand.

Domain 2A binds the phosphate groups of dT2-dT4 via the conserved helicase motifs IV

and V, whereas domain 1A binds those of dT5-dT7 via motifs Ia and Ic. This binding mode

resembles those observed in other superfamily Ib helicases such as RecD2 and Pif1[9,18–20].

Substitution of T809 (motif V) with isoleucine was shown to impair viral DNA replication

and reduce both ATPase and helicase activities of the UL5-UL52 subcomplex[29,30].

The bound DNA is slightly curved, and base-stacking interactions are interrupted between

dT2 and dT3 and between dT5 and dT6 (Figure 2b-e). Two structural elements, the motif Ic

helix (residues 153-156) in domain 1A and a β-hairpin (residues 298-313, unique to UL5)

of domain 2A, are inserted between the neighboring bases at these positions, respectively,

likely stabilizing the curved conformation. Interrupted base stacking is commonly seen in

superfamily I and II helicases and may have an important role in DNA unwinding[8].

The platform domain of UL52 is L-shaped and mostly α-helical. The DALI[17] search found

no hit with comparable side and Z-score > 6.5, indicating that the PD is likely a novel fold.

Figure 2: UL5-DNA interaction. a, The bound ssDNA is wrapped by domains 1A, 2A, and 2B (two views). UL5 and ssDNA are shown as a transparent surface model and a sphere model, respectively. **b**, Schematic representation of ssDNA-UL5 interaction. **c**, Two structural motifs interfering with base-stacking interactions. **d** and **e**, Interactions between ssDNA and domain 1A (**d**) or domain 2A (**e**).

188 The PD interacts with the UL5, with a large interaction area, and with inhibitors (Figure

189 1c).

Domains 1A and 2A adopt an open form in the HPI-bound HPC

During their catalytic cycle, superfamily I helicases undergo conformational changes

between an ATP-bound closed form and an ATP-free open form [8,22]. The ATPase site

comprises motifs I (also known as P-loop or Walker A motif), Ia, II (also known as DEXX

motif or Walker B motif), III, IIIa, V, and VI, which are distributed along the cleft between

domains 1A and 2A. ATP binding induces closure of this cleft, resulting in the formation of

a functional ATPase site contributed by both domains.

To gain insights into the mode of action of HPIs, we compared the current AMNV-bound

HPC structure with that of the structurally most related helicase, Pif1[20]. In both the AMNV-

bound HPC and the open form of Pif1, motifs Ia (domain 1A) and IV (domain 1B) contact

the bound ssDNA phosphates that are separated by three nucleotides (Figure 3a, b). In

contrast, in the closed form of Pif1, the distance between these motifs corresponds to two

nucleotides (Figure 3c). This structural comparison clearly shows that the current HPC

structures represent an open form. Since the structure of ATP-free HPC in the absence of

HPIs has not yet been determined, it remains unclear how closely the current HPI-bound

structures resemble the functional ATP-free form in the catalytic cycle.

We also compared the conformations of the ATPase site among the three structures (Figure

3d-f). In the closed form of Pif1, the bound ATP analog (ADP-AlF$_4^-$) is surrounded by

residues from both domains 1A and 2A, including residues from motifs I (K97, contacting

Figure 3: HPIs lock UL5 in an open conformation. .**a-c**, Structures of domains 1A and 2A in the ssDNA-bound states of the AMNV-bound HPC (**a**), ADP-bound Pif1 (**b**), and ATP analog-bound Pif1 (**c**). DNA nucleotides contacted by conserved residues in motifs Ia and IV (T122 and S397 of UL5 and their equivalents) are labeled. **d-f**, Close-up views of the ATPase site in the AMNV-bound HPC (**d**), ADP-bound Pif1 (**e**), and ATP analog-bound Pif1 (**f**). **g**, **h**, Relationship between ATP concentration and apparent inhibition constant (K_i^{app}), along with their standard error of the mean (SEM), in ATPase inhibition assays of AMNV (**g**) and PTV (**h**). The corresponding Ki and α values with SEM are also shown. **i**, Distribution of the distance between the centers of mass of K103, D249, and E250 in domain 1A and R841 in domain 2A during MD simulations. **j**, Proposed model for the inhibition mechanism of HPIs.

phosphates), II (D171 and E172, chelating Mg^{2+}), and VI (R462, contacting the γ-phosphate

analog). In contrast, in the open form of Pif1, the two domains are separated, and the side

chain of R462 is too distant to contact the phosphate groups of the ADP bound to domain

1A. Similarly, in the AMNV-bound HPC structures, the corresponding catalytic residues

from motifs I (K103), II (D249 and E250), and VI (R841) are also too far apart to

coordinate ATP binding. Notably, although 1 mM AMP-PNP was added to the cryo-EM

samples, no density was observed at the ATPase site, suggesting that the current open form

of HPC has reduced affinity for ATP.

HPIs allosterically and competitively inhibit ATP binding

The open conformation observed in the HPI-bound HPC structures, along with the absence

of AMP-PNP density at the ATPase site, suggests that HPI binding alters the conformation

of the HPC, thereby allosterically reducing its affinity for ATP. To test this hypothesis, we

performed ATPase inhibition assays (Extended Data Figure 9) using varying concentrations

of ATP and HPIs, and measured the effect of ATP concentration on the apparent inhibition

constant (K_i^{app}). As shown in Figure 3g and h, increasing ATP concentrations led to a

corresponding increase in K_i^{app}, suggesting that ATP and HPI binding are reciprocally

inhibiting with each other with respect to HPC affinity. We analyzed the inhibition data

assuming a mixed inhibition model, in which HPIs can bind both to the free HPC and to the

HPC–ATP complex[31]. From this analysis, we calculated the α factor, which represents how

differently inhibitors bind to the free HPC versus the HPC–ATP complex. Curve fitting

yielded large α factor values for both inhibitors (about 19 for AMNV and 70 for PTV),

indicating that both inhibitors bind to the free enzyme much more strongly, acting in a

nearly ATP-competitive manner, despite binding at the allosteric site.

HPIs lock the HPC in the open form

Our structural and biochemical analyses suggest that HPIs affect the conformational

dynamics of the HPC by locking it in the open conformation observed in our cryo-EM

structures. To further substantiate our findings, we performed molecular dynamics (MD)

simulations on the following four systems (Extended Data Figure 10a). The first two

systems consist of the UL5-UL52 subcomplex bound to ssDNA, with either AMNV or PTV

(based on the AMNV- or PTV-bound HPC structures, respectively). The remaining two

systems are identical to the first two, but lack the inhibitors, serving as cotrols.

For each system, we conducted eight replica MD simulations, each lasting 3 μs, and

analyzed the distance between key catalytic residues in domains 1A and 2A: K103, D249,

and E250 from motifs I and II in domain 1A, and R841 from motif VI in domain 1B

(Figure 3d). As shown in Figure 3i, the HPI-bound systems exhibited a unimodal

distribution of inter-residue distances, peaking around 20 Å. In contrast, the HPI-free

systems showed a bimodal distribution with peaks centered at approximately 18 Å and 19.5

Å. These results suggest that, in the absence of HPIs, domains 1A and 2A undergo

spontaneous conformational fluctuations that may potentially facilitate productive ATP

binding and hydrolysis. In contrast, HPI binding appears to restrict this flexibility,

stabilizing the HPC in an open, catalytically inactive conformation.

Based on these findings, we propose the following inhibition model (Figure 3j). In the

catalytic cycle of the inchworm model, the helicase alternates between open and closed

conformations, driven by ATP binding and hydrolysis. However, upon HPI binding, the

HPC is locked in the open conformation, thereby preventing ATP binding and stalling the

catalytic cycle. Consequently, the helicase remains inactive and unable to unwind DNA.

Binding and specificity of HPIs

Figure 4a-c shows the interactions between AMNV and PTV with the HPC, respectively. In

both complexes, two connected aromatic rings of each HPI are surrounded by residues

N98, N343, G352, M355, and K356 of UL5, as well as Y356 of UL52. AMNV and PTV

contain two and one carbonyl group(s), respectively, in their central regions, which are

within hydrogen-bonding distance of the UL5 K356 side chain. A sulfonyl group, which is

shared by both HPIs, forms a hydrogen bond with the side chain of UL52 N902. The

dimethylphenyl group, unique to AMNV, engages in hydrophobic interactions with the side

chains of UL5 Y882 and UL52 F360. Most of the known single-point resistance mutations

of AMNV (G352C, M355T, and K356N in UL5, as well as F360V/C and N902T in

UL52)[32] and PTV (N342K, G352V, M355T, and K356Q in UL5 as well as A899T in

UL52)[14,33,34] are located at or near the binding site, directly accounting for their resistance

mechanisms. Although the HPI-contacting residues in UL5 are well conserved among all

human herpesviruses, those in UL52, such as F360, A899, N902, H906, and F907, are less

conserved (Figure 4d). This observation explains why the current HPIs are ineffective

Figure 4: Binding and specificity of HPIs. a, Overall structure of the HPC, with the HPI binding site highlighted by a box. **b, c**, Stereo views of the binding site for AMNV (**b**) and PTV (**c**). Residues associated with resistance mutations are underlined. **d**, Sequence alignment of residues involved in HPI binding. "A" and "P" denote mutations that confer resistance to AMNV and PTV, respectively. **e**, Fragmentation scheme used for FMO calculations. **f–i**, PIEDA results showing interactions between AMNV and UL5 (**f**), AMNV and UL52 (**g**), PTV and UL5 (**h**), and PTV and UL52 (**i**). ES, EX, CT, and DI refer to the electrostatic, exchange-repulsion, charge transfer with higher-order mixing, and dispersion terms, respectively. Asterisks indicate residues contributing more than 5 kcal/mol to binding in one complex compared to the other. **j, k**, Schematic representations of the interactions between the HPC and AMNV (**j**) or PTV (**k**).

against β- and γ-herpesviruses and provides a structural basis for the rational design of

novel HPIs targeting these subfamilies.

We next analyzed the MD trajectories to assess the potential contribution of water

molecules to the HPI binding. As shown in Extended Data Figure 10b and c, a region of

high water density was observed in both complexes, where two water molecules bridge the

side chain of UL5 K356 and the sulfonyl group of the HPIs. Notably, these bridging water

molecules connect UL5 K356 and the sulfonyl group for 39.1% and 45.0% of the

simulation time in the AMNV and PTV complexes, respectively, suggesting the formation

of a stable hydrogen-bonding network. This water-mediated interaction may explain why

the sulfonyl group is essential for the tight binding of these inhibitors.

To quantitatively evaluate the differences between the AMNV and PTV-bound structures

and to gain mechanistic insights into their distinct anti-herpesvirus spectra, we performed

fragment molecular orbital (FMO) calculation analysis[35–38] on the representative structures

of MD trajectories. The FMO method divides biological macromolecules into residue-

based fragments (Figure 4e), thereby accelerating quantum chemical calculations and

enabling the extraction of inter-fragment interaction energy (IFIE) and its decomposition

data. To account for structural fluctuations in the HPI-HPC interactions, we clustered the

MD trajectories into four groups based on the coordinates of the HPI binding site (Extended

Data Figure 10d), performed FMO calculations on the representative structures, and

calculated the weighted average energies, taking into account the existence probabilities of

each cluster.

Figure4f-i summarizes the FMO analysis results, showing the frequency-weighted average

values of IFIE and pair interaction energy decomposition analysis (PIEDA)[39] between

either AMNV or PTV and the UL5 and UL52 subunits. In agreement with our manual

inspection, residues involved in recognizing the common structural features of the two

HPIs are consistently identified in both complexes. These include residues surrounding the

two connected aromatic rings (UL5 N98, N343, and M355), UL5 K356 forming hydrogen

bonds with the HPIs' carbonyl oxygen, and UL52 N902 forming a hydrogen bond with the

sulfonyl oxygen.

In addition, comparison of the IFIE and PIEDA data reveals distinct binding features of

AMNV and PTV (Figure 4j, k). The stronger attractive interaction energies for UL5 Y882

and UL52 F360 in the AMNV complex (by approximately 8.1 and 7.9 kcal/mol,

respectively), consisting of considerable dispersion interaction energy (Figure 4f-i),

indicate that the recognition of AMNV's unique dimethylphenyl group by these residues

via π-π and CH/π interactions, respectively (Figure 4b), substantially contributes to the

binding affinity. Notably, these residues are conserved across the α-subfamily, consistent

with the AMNV's broad efficacy against all α-subfamily members (Figure 4d). In contrast,

UL52 S900 exhibits a stronger IFIE value in the PTV complex, mainly due to electrostatic

and charge transfer interactions, suggesting the presence of the hydrogen bond[38]. In the

FMO method, proteins are fragmented between the α-carbon and carbonyl carbon,

assigning the carbonyl group to the next residue (+1) (Figure 4e). Structural analysis of the

PTV complex revealed a hydrogen bond between the A899 carbonyl group (assigned as

S900 in the FMO scheme) and the PTV-specific NH_2 group of the sulfonamide moiety

(Extended Data Figure 11a). Structural modeling suggests that the substitution of A899

with threonine (which confers PTV resistance) or with valine (the corresponding residue in

HHV3, Figure 4d) introduces steric hinderance that disrupts this interaction (Extended Data

Figure 11b, c). Moreover, the A899T substitution does not confer resistance to BILS 22 BS,

another HPI that retains a sulfonyl group but lacks the NH_2 group[34]. Collectively, these

findings indicate that the unique hydrogen bond between the NH_2 group of PTV and the

A899 carbonyl oxygen is critical for its inhibitory activity, and explain PTV's limited

activity against HHV3.

Discussion

Our structural, biochemical, and computational analyses collectively elucidate the

mechanism of action of AMNV and PTV and shed light on why these HPIs are less

effective against the β- and γ-herpesvirus subfamilies. Moreover, our MD and FMO

analyses clarify how a small difference in the chemical structures of AMNV and PTV

results in distinct anti-herpesvirus spectra within the α-subfamily. Together, these findings

establish a structural framework for the rational design of novel HPIs with tailored anti-

herpesvirus spectrum and/or improved pharmacokinetic properties.

Structures solved by cryo-EM often lack information on conformational dynamics, and may

suffer from limited resolution, leading to uncertainty in positioning of ligands and

surrounding water molecules. To overcome these limitations, we performed molecular

dynamics (MD) simulations to capture structural fluctuations and water behavior, followed

by FMO analysis to quantitatively evaluate molecular interactions. This integrated

approach provided in-depth insights into HPI–HPC interactions that aligned well with previous mutational studies, supporting the reliability of our methodology. The combined use of MD and FMO thus represents a powerful framework for investigating systems where structural data alone is insufficient to fully characterize essential molecular interactions[40,41].

Helicases, which play essential roles in nearly all aspects of nucleic acid metabolism, have long been recognized as promising drug targets. However, developing effective helicase inhibitors has proven challenging, likely due to the chemical nature of the ATP- and nucleic acid-binding sites, which are difficult to target with small molecules[42,43]. Recent studies have reported the development of specific helicase inhibitors that act allosterically[44–46]. In this study, we demonstrate that AMNV and PTV, two clinical inhibitors, bind to a shared allosteric pocket at the interface between the helicase subunit (UL5) and the non-helicase subunit (UL52). Our detailed characterization of these clinical HPIs, which act allosterically yet competitively, provides valuable insights for the development of diverse inhibitors targeting helicases from a wide range of sources, including both cellular and pathogenic origins.

The current HPC structures shed light on the coupling mechanism between DNA unwinding and primer synthesis; however, several questions remain unresolved. Do UL5 and UL52 engage with a single continuous ssDNA strand? How do the HM and PM reposition themselves during the catalytic cycle? Does the ZBD participate in binding the ssDNA template to facilitate efficient primer synthesis by the PD? To address these questions and elucidate the coupling mechanism, it will be necessary to determine the

structures of HPC actively engaged in both DNA unwinding and primer synthesis in both

ATP-bound and ATP-free states. Such structural insights will also be valuable for deepening

our understanding of DNA replication mechanisms across diverse organisms.

Methods

Protein expression and purification

Full-length coding sequences of HHV-1 UL5, UL52, and UL8 were synthesized by Twist

Bioscience and individually cloned into the pACEBac1 vector. An N-terminal twin-strep–

His tag was fused to UL5, while N-terminal His–SUMOstar tags were fused to UL52 and

UL8. Baculoviruses were generated in Sf9 cells using the Bac-to-Bac system (Thermo

Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The HPC was reconstituted by

co-infecting Sf9 cells with the three respective recombinant baculoviruses at a multiplicity

of infection of 3:3:3. Cells were harvested 48 hours post-infection.

Cell pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl,

1 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.5 mM TCEP, 0.5% Tween 20, 10% glycerol, 0.1 mM PMSF, and cOmplete

ULTRA protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche)) and lysed by sonication. The clarified lysate

was loaded onto a Strep-Tactin XT 4Flow column (IBA Lifesciences), and the bound

protein complex was eluted with buffer containing 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 500 mM

NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM TCEP, and 50 mM D-biotin. The eluate was subsequently

applied to a HisTrap HP column (Cytiva) and eluted with buffer containing 20 mM Tris-

HCl (pH 8.0), 500 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.5 mM TCEP, and 500 mM imidazole. The

eluted sample was dialyzed against buffer A (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 150 mM NaCl,

0.5 mM TCEP) and concentrated for cryo-EM sample preparation.

For tag removal, the HisTrap eluate was mixed with SUMOstar protease and HRV 3C

protease and dialyzed against buffer A. The sample was subsequently passed through a

HisTrap column to remove cleaved tags and proteases. The flow-through containing tag-

free HPC was further dialyzed against buffer A, concentrated, flash-frozen in liquid

nitrogen, and stored at −80 °C for ATPase assays.

Cryo-EM sample preparation

For grid preparation of the AMNV-bound complex, 0.4 μM tagged HPC was mixed with 4

μM 43-mer ssDNA (5'-TTTTTTTTTCCTGTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT-

3'; Fasmac), 1 mM AMP-PNP, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, and 100 μM AMNV (AstaTech), and then

concentrated 10-fold. For the PTV-bound complex, 0.48 μM tagged HPC was mixed with

4.8 μM 43-mer ssDNA, 1 mM AMP-PNP, 10 mM $MgCl_2$, and 100 μM PTV (Selleck), and

then concentrated 7.6-fold. Concentration was performed using a Vivaspin 500 device

(MWCO 50 kDa; Sartorius).

Due to orientation bias observed on Au 300-mesh R1.2/1.3 grids, the samples were applied

to freshly glow-discharged Au 300-mesh R0.6/1 holey carbon grids (Quantifoil), pre-treated

with 3 μL of amylamine to mitigate bias[47]. The grids were blotted for 4 s at 4 °C under

100% humidity and plunge-frozen in liquid ethane using a Vitrobot Mark IV (Thermo

Fisher Scientific).

Cryo-EM data acquisition and processing

Cryo-EM data were collected using a Titan Krios G4 transmission electron microscope

(Thermo Fisher Scientific) operated at 300 kV, equipped with a K3 direct electron detector

(Gatan), installed at the University of Tokyo. Data acquisition was performed using EPU

v3.4.0.5704, with a defocus range of −0.6 to −1.6 μm. Data acquisition statistics are

summarized in Supplementary Table 1.

The cryo-EM data were processed using CryoSPARC v4.4.1[48] (Extended Data Figures 1

and 2). For the AMNV complex, an initial dataset of 803 micrographs was used for blob

picking, 2D classification, and template generation. These templates were then applied to

the main dataset of 12,466 micrographs for template-based particle picking, followed by

neural network-based picking using Topaz[49]. Subsequent reconstruction and refinement

yielded a global map with poorly resolved density in the HM. Following 3D classification

without a focus mask, seven out of ten classes were selected, which showed slightly

improved HM density. Particles corresponding to the HM and PM were then subtracted and

used for local refinement. The global map was further refined using 3DFlex[16].

For the PTV complex, data were processed similarly to the AMNV dataset. However, the

AMNV-derived templates were reused for template-based particle picking, and no particle

subtraction was performed.

Model building and refinement

The initial model of the HPC was generated using LocalColabFold[50], which employs

AlphaFold2[51] for structure prediction, and was fitted into the cryo-EM map. The predicted

model showed good overall agreement with the map, although notable differences were

observed in local loop regions (including the HPIs binding pocket) and in the relative

orientation between the HM and PM. The model was manually adjusted using Coot

v0.9.8.93[52] and further refined with the *phenix.real_space_refine* module in Phenix

v1.21.1-5286[53]. No map sharpening was applied. To build the atomic models of the HPIs,

multiple conformations of their functional groups (the oxadiazole ring of AMNV, and the

pyridine ring and NH_2 group of PTV) were generated and evaluated using FMO

calculations. The conformation with the lowest energy was then selected. Structural figures

were prepared using PyMOL v2.5.0 (Schrödinger, LLC) and ChimeraX v1.9[54]. Data

processing and refinement statistics are summarized in Supplementary Table 2.

ATPase assay

ATPase activity was assessed using an NADH-coupled microplate assay as previously

described[55], performed over a 30-minute time course at 30 °C, with absorbance

measurements taken every 30 seconds. Each 54 µL reaction was prepared in ATPase buffer

containing 20 mM HEPES-NaOH (pH 7.5), 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 5 mM TCEP,

100 µg/mL bovine serum albumin, 2 µM 43-mer ssDNA, 3 mM phosphoenolpyruvate

(Nacalai Tesque), 1 mM NADH (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% DMSO, 0.02 U/µL L-lactate

dehydrogenase (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.02 U/µL pyruvate kinase (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 nM tag-

free HPC, and ATP (Nacalai Tesque) at final concentrations of 0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.7, 1.5, or

3 mM. Either AMNV or PTV was added separately at concentrations of 0, 2.5, 5, 10, 15,

20, or 25 nM. Reactions were dispensed into a 96-well half-area microplate (Greiner Bio-

One), and NADH oxidation was monitored by measuring absorbance at 340 nm using a

Tecan Spark Cyto 400 multimode microplate reader. Reaction velocities (v, OD/sec) were

determined from the linear portion of the absorbance decrease at 340 nm between 1000 and

1500 seconds. Background signals measured in the absence of ATP were subtracted to

correct the data. The Michaelis constant (K_M) was determined by non-linear fitting to the

Michaelis–Menten equation using GraphPad Prism v10.2.3 (GraphPad Software).

Both AMNV and PTV exhibited EC$_{50}$ values of less than 100 nM against the virus [12,14],

indicating their behavior as tight-binding inhibitors [31,56]. The apparent inhibition constant

(K_i^{app}) was determined by non-linear fitting to the Morrison equation (Eq. 1), where v_i is the

initial rate of the inhibited reaction, v_0 is the initial rate of the uninhibited reaction, [E] is

the enzyme concentration, [I] is the inhibitor concentration, and K_i^{app} is the apparent

inhibition constant [31,56].

$$v_i = v_0 \left(1 - \frac{([E]+[I]+K_i^{app}) - \sqrt{([E]+[I]+K_i^{app})^2 - 4[E][I]}}{2[E]} \right) \qquad \text{(Eq. 1)}$$

The K_i^{app} values were plotted against ATP concentrations and fitted by non-linear regression

to a mixed inhibition model (Eq. 2), in which [S] represents the ATP concentration, K_M is

the Michaelis constant, α reflects the difference in inhibitor affinity for the free enzyme

versus the enzyme-substrate complex, and K_i is the inhibition constant [31,56]. This analysis

yielded values for α and K_i.

$$K_i^{app} = \frac{[S] + K_M}{\frac{K_M}{K_i} + \frac{[S]}{\alpha K_i}} \qquad \text{(Eq. 2)}$$

Modeling of the UL5–UL52 subcomplex for MD simulations

For UL5, the N-terminal region (M1–A33) and a large C-terminal loop (A582–E657) were excluded from the model. A shorter missing loop (A563–E568) was modeled using MODELLER[57], and the termini adjacent to the large loop (T581, T658) were capped with N-methylamide (NME) and acetyl (ACE) groups, respectively. For UL52, the N- and C-terminal regions (M1–T16, P1044–P1058), as well as a large internal loop (P682–P752), were also excluded. The termini flanking this large loop (R681, V753) were capped in the same manner. Three smaller loops (S170–D183, P481–C498, R995–A996) were modeled with MODELLER by generating 100 loop conformations with the remaining structure held fixed; the lowest-energy models were selected for each. The resulting structure was used for subsequent molecular dynamics simulations.

MD simulations of the UL5–UL52 subcomplexes

We prepared four systems of the UL5–UL52 complex: two containing ligands (AMNV or PTV) and two ligand-free systems generated by removing the respective ligands. MD simulations were performed using the pmemd module in AMBER20[58,59], with force fields ff99SB for protein[60], bsc1 for DNA[61], and ff99ions08 for ions[62]. The force field parameters for ligands were prepared using the Antechamber package[63] in AmberTools and the general Amber force field (GAFF)[64] for organic molecules. A quantum chemical calculation to geometrically optimize the ligands were carried out with HF/6-31G* basis set using Gaussian 03 software[65]. The net charge for each ligand was set at 0. Discrete partial atomic charges were assigned with HF/6-31G* basis set using the Restrained Electrostatic

Potential (RESP) fitting method[66]. The zinc AMBER force field (ZAFF) for the 4-

coordinated zinc metal centers[67] was used for the zinc ion in the ZBD. The UL5 – UL52

complex was solvated in a cubic periodic box of ~ 190 Å × 190 Å × 190 Å , containing ~

220,000 TIP3P water molecules[68] and 0.15 M NaCl to mimic physiological ionic strength.

The complex was positioned such that all atoms were separated at least 20 Å from the edge

of the box. The resulting system contained ~ 690,000 atoms in total.

For each of the four systems, the MD simulations were carried out using eight replicas of

identical structures, each initiated with different random seeds for velocity assignment.

Each replica was run for 3.16 μs, totaling 25.28 μs per system, under constant pressure of

one bar and temperature of 300 K. The dielectric constant was set to 1.0 and the van der

Waals interactions were calculated with a 9 Å cutoff. Electrostatic interactions were treated

using the particle mesh Ewald (PME) method[69], with a charge grid spacing close to 1 Å.

The charge grid was interpolated using a fourth-order cubic B-spline with the direct sum

tolerance of 10^{-5} at a 9 Å direct space cutoff. Temperature and pressure were regulated by

Langevin dynamics with a collision frequency of 2 ps^{-1}; coupling times were set to 1 ps^{-1}

for both. Bond lengths involving hydrogen atoms were constrained with the SHAKE

algorithm[70,71]. The leap-frog algorithm was used to integrate the equations of motion with a

2 fs time step. The system was gradually heated from 0 K to 300 K over 10 ns, during

which the solute atoms were restrained with decreasing force constants while water

molecules and ions were allowed to move freely. Conformational snapshots were saved

every 100 ps. Trajectories from the final 3 μs of each of the eight replicas (totaling 24 μs)

were used for analysis. Water density maps were generated using the volmap tool in

VMD[72].

K-mean clustering of the MD trajectories

K-means clustering was performed on all atoms in residues located within 3.5 Å of the

ligands in the energy-minimized structure. Specifically, these residues were Asn98, Ile341,

Asn343, Met355, Lys356, Glu359, Tyr836, and Tyr882 of UL5, and Tyr356, Phe360,

Ala899, and Asn902 of UL52. K-means clustering with K = 4 grouped the trajectories for

the UL5-UL52 complex with AMNV into four distinct clusters: 10.5%, 40.2%, 42.7%, and

6.6% of the total trajectory. For the PTV-bound complex, the corresponding cluster

populations were 70.0%, 4.9%, 0.1%, and 25.0%. Representative structures were selected

as those closest to the centroids of each cluster. The RMSD values relative to the centroids

were 0.659, 0.515, 0.588, and 0.703 Å for the AMNV-bound UL5–UL52 complex, and

0.568, 0.555, 0.779, and 0.520 Å for the PTV-bound complex.

FMO calculation and interaction energy analysis

FMO calculations were performed on the representative structures obtained by clustering of

MD trajectories. As a preprocessing step, MD representative structures were subjected to

energy minimization by applying a positional constraint of 1.0 kcal/mol-$Å^2$ to heavy atoms,

and water within 10 Å around the HPC protein, HPI, ssDNA, and ligand was extracted for

calculation. Fragmentation was performed by using amino acid residue units for proteins,

base and sugar-phosphate fragments for DNA, and single fragments for ligand and water

molecules[73]. The FMO calculations were performed at the MP2/6-31G*[74,75] theoretical

level using the ABINIT-MP program[76]. The supercomputer Fugaku was used.

Defining the inter-fragment interaction energy (IFIE) between fragments i and j as E_{ij}, pair

interaction energy decomposition analysis (PIEDA)[39] divides IFIE into four energy

components as follows.

$E_{ij} = E_{ij}^{ES} + E_{ij}^{EX} + E_{ij}^{CT+mix} + E_{ij}^{DI}$ (Eq 3)

In this study, i is HPI (AMNV or PTV), and j is each residue of HPC. Weighted average

IFIE/PIEDA, E_{ij}^{weight}, is the sum of the interaction energies between HPI and each residue

in the cluster representative structure, weighted by the occurrence frequency of each cluster.

$E_{ij}^{weight} = \sum_\alpha w_\alpha E_{ij}^\alpha$ (Eq.4)

Here, w_α is the weight of cluster α, which is 0.105, 0.402, 0.427, and 0.066 for AMNV, and

0.700, 0.049, 0.001, and 0.250 for PTV. Figure 4f-i shows the weighted average interaction

energy calculated using Eq. 4.

Cryo-EM structures were also evaluated using MP2/6-31G* level FMO calculations. For

preprocessing of the structures, hydrogen atoms were added and energy minimization was

performed using Amber10:EHT force field.

Data availability

Coordinates and density maps have been deposited in Protein Data Bank (accession codes

9UT1, 9UT3, 9UT4, 9UT5, 9UT6, and 9UT7) and Electron Microscopy Data Bank

(accession codes EMD-64478, EMD-64479, EMD-64480, EMD-64481, EMD-64482, and

EMD-64483), respectively. FMO data will be deposited in FMODB[77] (accession codes

and ####).

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Author contributions

K.S. purified proteins, collected the cryo-EM data, solved the structures, performed

biochemical experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the paper. H.I. and H.K. performed MD

simulations and wrote the paper. T.M. and K.F. performed FMO analysis and wrote the

paper. S.K. purified proteins and performed biochemical experiments. Y.K., K.H., and O.N.

assisted with cryo-EM data collection. C.O. and A.O. purified proteins. T.S. designed the

project, solved the structures, analyzed data, and wrote the paper.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Legends for Supplementary Videos

Supplementary Video 1 Overall structure of the AMNV-bound complex.

Supplementary Video 2 AMNV binding site.

782   **Supplementary Table 1** Cryo-EM data collection statistics
783

	AMNV complex	PTV complex
Magnification	105,000	105,000
Voltage (kV)	300	300
Electron exposure ($e^-/Å^2$)	49.8	50.2
Defocus range (μm)	−0.6 to −1.6	−0.6 to −1.6
Pixel size (Å)	0.83	0.83
No. of micrographs	12,466	8,102

786 **Supplementary Table 2**. Data processing and refinement statistics

	AMNV 3DFlex	AMNV HM	AMNV PM	PTV 3DFlex	PTV HM	PTV PM
Data processing						
EMDB ID	EMD-64478	EMD-64479	EMD-64480	EMD-64481	EMD-64482	EMD-64483
Symmetry imposed	C_1	C_1	C_1	C_1	C_1	C_1
Particle number	467,000	467,989	467,989	99,000	99,345	99,345
Map resolution*	3.14	2.88	2.91	3.32	3.12	3.08
Refinement						
PDB ID	9UT1	9UT3	9UT4	9UT5	9UT6	9UT7
Non-hydrogen atoms	18,986	10379	8607	18677	9514	8607
Protein residues	2436	1298	1138	2399	1195	1138
DNA residues	7	7	0	6	6	0
Zinc ion	1	1	0	1	1	0
Ligand	1	1	0	1	1	0
Model vs data CC (mask)	0.81	0.86	0.87	0.79	0.82	0.83
Mean B factor ($Å^2$)						
Protein	174.30	142.89	116.16	155.90	130.94	117.81
DNA	118.93	84.91		109.13	98.6	
RMS deviations						
Bond length (Å)	0.003	0.003	0.003	0.002	0.003	0.002
Bond angles (°)	0.762	0.533	0.616	0.657	0.554	0.574
Validation						
MolProbity score	1.69	1.59	1.25	1.66	1.88	1.62
Clash score	6.96	7.79	4.76	5.78	9.51	8.53
Ramachandran plot						
Favored (%)	97.89	98.52	98.85	98.06	98.56	98.41
Allowed (%)	2.11	1.48	1.15	1.94	1.44	1.59
Disallowed (%)	0	0	0	0	0	0

787 *FSC threshold of 0.143 was used.

Extended Data Figure 1: Cryo-EM data processing of the AMNV complex.

Main data (8,102 micrographs)

2D averages of
AMNV complex

Templates

Template picking (4x4 binning)
2D classification

Hetero Refinement
Re-extraction (no binning)
Local motion correction
Hetero refinement
NU refinement

2.89 Å

3D classification with HM mask
10 classes

NU refinement

3.17 Å

HM
Local refinement

PM
Local refinement

3DFlex

3.12 Å

3.08 Å

3.32 Å

Extended Data Figure 2: Cryo-EM data processing of the PTV complex.

Extended Data Figure 3: Cryo-EM maps and resolutions of the AMNV and PTV complexes.

Extended Data Figure 4: Locally refined maps of individual domains of the AMNV complex. a, 1A. **b**, 2A. **c**, 2B. **d**, 2C. **e**, SD. **f**, PD. **g**, ZBD. **h**, UL8. **i**, ssDNA. **j**, ANMV.

Extended Data Figure 5: Locally refined maps of individual domains of the PTV complex. No model was built for the domain 2C on the locally refined map of the helicase module of the PTV complex because of poor resolution. **a**, 1A. **b**, 2A. **c**, 2B. **d**, SD. **e**, PD. **f**, ZBD. **g**, UL8. **h**, ssDNA. **i**, PTV.

AMNV-bound HPC and ssDNA
PTV-bound HPC and ssDNA

Extended Data Figure 6: Structure of the PTV-bound HPC. a, 3DFlex map (calculated using 3DFlex) and the ribbon model. **b**, Structural superposition of the AMNV- and PTV-bound complexes.

Extended Data Figure 7: Structures of the PD and ZBD. a, Structure of the PD. Key catalytic residues conserved among archaeo-eukaryotic primases are shown. **b**, Structure of the primer initiation complex of Prim-Pol domain of CRISPR-associated Prim-Pol (PDB 7P9J). The bound template DNA and two nucleotides (GTP and dAMP-PNP at the initiating and elongating sites, respectively) are also shown. **c**, Superposition of the structures of the AMNV-bound HPC and the template-bound Prime-Pol (only template DNA is shown). **d**, Structure of the ZBD of UL52 in the AMNV-bound HPC. Four zinc-coordinating residues as well as K1027, whose substitution abolishes the activities of HPC, are shown. **e**, A predicted structure of the ZBD (residues 366-468) of human PrimPol (UniProt Q96LW4), downloaded from AlphaFold Protein Structure Database. Possible zinc-coordinating residues are shown.

Extended Data Figure 8: Structure of UL8. a and **b**, Electrostatic surface potentials of UL8 (**a**) and RB69 (**b**), an α family DNA polymerase, bound with a DNA duplex. **c**, The UL52-UL8 interface. Left, the overall structure of HPC with the UL52-UL8 interface highlighted by a box. Right, A close-up view of the boxed region.

Extended Data Figure 9: ATPase assays. ***a***, Michaelis-Menten plot used to determine the K_M value for ATP from six independent experiments. Standard error of the mean (SEM) is also shown. ***b*** and ***c***, Relationship between reaction velocity and the concentrations of AMNV (***b***) or PTV (***c***) at varying ATP concentrations. ***d*** and ***e***, K_i^{app} values of AMNV (***d***) and PTV €
determined under different ATP concentrations. SEM is also shown.

Extended Data Figure 10: MD analysis. a, The modeled structure of the UL5-UL52 subcomplex for MD simulations. b and c, The water density (shown as white mesh, contour level 0.3) within 4.5 Å from the oxygen atoms of the sulfonyl oxygen of AMNV (b) or the sulfonamide NH2 group of PTV (c) are shown. d. The existence percentiles and time distributions of the four clusters for the AMNV and PTV complexes during the MD trajectories are shown on the left and right, respectively. Existence percentiles are represented by bars, while temporal distributions are plotted over time. Vertical dashed lines indicate the one-microsecond MD simulation boundary for each replica (8 replicas per system).

Extended Data Figure 11: A potential effect of UL52 A899 substitutions on PTV binding, but not AMNV. a, A hydrogen bond between the sulfonyl group of AMNV and the side chain of N902. **b**, Two hydrogen bonds between the sulfonamide group of PTV and both the side chain of N902 and the carbonyl group of A899. **c**, A structural model of the A899T substitution, which confers resistance to PTV. The Cγ atom of A899T is positioned too close to the amino group of PTV.

782 **Supplementary Table 1** Cryo-EM data collection statistics
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