A short intrinsically disordered domain of MCPyV ALTO regulates host TBK1

signaling and MCPyV latency

Taylor E. Senay, Xiaomei Li, Sneha G. Shirhattikar, Tiana T. Luo, and Jianxin You[#]

Department of Microbiology, Perelman School of Medicine,

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA 19104-6076

Running Title: ALTO disordered domain mediates viral latency via TBK1

[#]Correspondence to Jianxin You, jianyou@pennmedicine.upenn.edu

Word count for the abstract: 249

Word count for the text: 5278

Abstract:

Merkel Cell Polyomavirus (MCPyV) is an oncogenic human polyomavirus that latently infects most adults. Although the causative link between MCPyV and Merkel Cell Carcinoma (MCC) is well established, the molecular mechanisms that govern viral latency and prevent oncogenic progression remain poorly understood. We previously reported that the MCPyV early region protein ALTO is a key modulator of the STING-TBK1 signaling axis, enabling the virus to co-opt host innate immune pathways to suppress excessive viral replication and promote latency over transformation. In this study, we expand on this model by identifying a short, essential domain within ALTO that is required for TBK1 activation. This domain, which we term LIT (Lost in Tau), is necessary for ALTO-TBK1 interaction but dispensable for ALTO trafficking and its interactions with STING or Src. When expressed alone, the LIT domain functions as a dominant negative inhibitor of wild-type ALTO, competitively blocking TBK1 activation through a novel TBK1 interaction domain. Deletion of the LIT domain from ALTO not only abolishes TBK1 interaction and downstream phosphorylation but also eliminates TBK1-mediated suppression of MCPyV replication during early infection of human dermal fibroblasts (HDFs). These findings provide mechanistic insight into how ALTO promotes viral persistence and immune evasion. More broadly, they highlight the functional importance of intrinsically disordered regions in modulating host–virus interactions and suggest that MCPyV latency is actively maintained through a finely tuned balance of pro- and anti-viral signaling. Targeting domains such as LIT may offer new strategies for regulating TBK1 activity or disrupting viral persistence.

Importance:

Merkel cell polyomavirus causes lifelong, latent infections in the skin of most people. When this latency is perturbed, the virus can give rise to Merkel Cell Carcinoma, an aggressive and

difficult-to-treat skin cancer. Efforts to prevent this cancer depend on understanding what

controls viral latency and persistence. We previously reported that MCPyV stimulates the host's

STING-TBK1 signaling axis to limit its own replication. In this work, we identify and characterize

a short amino acid motif within the ALTO protein's intrinsically disordered region that is required

for this immune-stimulating activity. This region appears to be critical for helping the virus

maintain latency by fine-tuning the host's response. Our findings provide new insight into

MCPyV's latency mechanism and may help guide future approaches to prevent or treat Merkel

cell carcinoma by targeting viral or cellular factors involved in long-term infection.

Introduction

The viral family *Polyomaviridae* includes approximately 117 species of non-enveloped viruses

carrying small (~5 kb) circular double-stranded DNA genomes(1). Of these, around 16 are

thought to be human-specific(2), and only one, Merkel cell polyomavirus (MCPyV or MCV), has

been conclusively demonstrated to be carcinogenic(3). MCPyV is ubiquitous in the human

population and, for most individuals, exists as a silent member of the skin virome, establishing

lifelong episomal latency in cutaneous cells(4-8). However, in a subset of cases, MCPyV

integrates into the host genome, where it drives oncogenesis of the rare but aggressive

neuroendocrine skin cancer Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC) through constitutive high-level

expression of its Small Tumor (sT) antigen and a truncated form of its Large Tumor (LT)

antigen(3, 9, 10).

Nearly two decades after its discovery as the major causative agent in approximately 80% of

MCCs(3, 11, 12), most mechanistic studies of MCPyV have focused on LT and sT. These viral

effectors have homologs in other well-characterized polyomaviruses, such as SV40, and their

roles in MCPyV replication and transformation are well established(13-15). However, the

upstream events that initiate viral genome truncation and integration, as well as the cellular

conditions that distinguish persistent infection from oncogenic progression, remain poorly

understood. These represent critical gaps in our knowledge of MCPyV biology. Elucidating the

regulatory mechanisms that govern this transition is essential for improving early detection and

prevention of MCC, which currently has limited and often non-durable treatment options.

There is currently no consensus on how MCPyV establishes, maintains, or exits latency. Clinical

observations reveal that immunosuppressed individuals carry higher MCPyV viral burdens and

are at substantially increased risk of developing MCC, suggesting that innate immune control is

a key determinant of viral latency(16-18). The cyclic GMP-AMP synthase–stimulator of

interferon genes (cGAS–STING) pathway, a cytosolic DNA-sensing system that activates type I

interferon and proinflammatory signaling, has emerged as particularly important in this

context(19-25). We have previously reported that STING expression is dramatically reduced in

virus-positive MCC tumors, and that reactivation of STING signaling promotes MCC cell death

and T-cell infiltration(26). Conversely, during early infection, MCPyV strongly activates the

STING pathway and its downstream proinflammatory effectors, which in turn restricts viral

replication and supports the establishment of a balanced, persistent infection(27-29). Together,

these findings suggest that MCPyV latency is not a passive process, but rather one that is

tightly regulated through interactions between viral effectors and host innate immune pathways.

Disruption of this equilibrium, whether through viral mutation or host immune suppression, may

be a critical inflection point that drives malignant progression.

While LT and sT have been the primary focus of MCPyV research, less attention has been paid

to another early region protein, the Alternative Large Tumor antigen open reading frame (ALTO).

First identified in 2014, ALTO was initially thought to be dispensable for replication in

transfection-based assays(30). However, recent studies, including our own, have revealed its

active role in immune signaling. ALTO has been shown to modulate Src-family kinases, PLCγ1

signaling(31), and the NFκB pathway(31, 32). In our recent work, we demonstrated that ALTO

acts as a modulator of the STING–TBK1 axis, forming a signaling complex with STING, TBK1,

and Src to induce TBK1 autophosphorylation, leading to its degradation and resulting in viral

replication suppression and latency promotion(29). This function places ALTO in the unique

position of acting as an "anti-viral viral protein" that dampens its own replication evade immune

detection and persist in the host.

These findings reshape our understanding of ALTO as a multifunctional effector in MCPyV

biology, one that fine-tunes host responses through structurally flexible, context-dependent

interactions. In this study, we build upon our prior work to dissect the structure-function

relationship of ALTO in greater detail. Using a systematic truncation approach, we identify a

short, previously uncharacterized region within ALTO's intrinsically disordered domain that is

required for its interaction with TBK1 and its immunomodulatory function. Through this analysis,

we aim to illuminate how ALTO contributes to latency maintenance, how disruption of its function

may promote oncogenesis, and how ALTO-targeted mechanisms could be leveraged to better

understand or intervene in MCPyV-associated disease.

Results

Identification of the TBK1-activating domain within ALTO's N-terminal intrinsically

disordered region

As shown in our previous study published in 2024, one of ALTO's key features is its ability to

stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation(29). To identify the region(s) of ALTO responsible for

stimulating TBK1 autophosphorylation, we began by evaluating the current understanding of

ALTO's structural features. The ALTO protein remains poorly characterized at the structural

level, and even its precise length is debated: while early studies described a 250-amino acid

(aa) product encoded across two exons, more recent annotations favor a 248-aa version

encoded within a single exon(30-32). As no conclusive functional differences between these

isoforms have been reported, we included both in our *in vitro* studies and observed no

phenotypic distinctions between them.

Multiple reports of *in silico* analyses agree that ALTO's most stable structural feature is a C-

terminal alpha helix (approximately aa 200-250) that contains a 22-aa transmembrane or

hydrophobic domain (aa 225-246). In contrast, the N-terminal region, representing roughly 80%

of the protein, is intrinsically disordered (Fig. 1A)(33-35). Although intrinsically disordered

regions (IDRs) are known to be highly plastic and capable of a wide range of functions(36-39)

their lack of fixed globular shape makes structure-based functional prediction based on

modeling difficult. We therefore took a methodical but exploratory approach using progressive

N-terminal focused truncation. Each truncation shortened the protein by 30-aa compared to the

one before, allowing us to examine region-specific phenotypic variation with fine resolution (Fig.

1B). In addition to the progressive N-terminal truncation mutants, we constructed a C-terminal

ALTO truncation variant lacking the hydrophobic or transmembrane domain (ALTOΔTM). These

variant sequences were generated using the NanoBiT platform, a structural complementation-

based split enzyme system which quantifies tagged protein-protein interactions in live cells via

relative luminescence. We have previously found that ALTO favors N-terminal functional

tags(29), so all constructs were generated with N-terminal LgBiT and SmBiT tags—the large

and small subunits, respectively, of a reconstitutable NanoLuc luciferase enzyme—enabling

protein detection and downstream protein-protein interaction analysis (Fig. 1B).

To test which region or regions of ALTO govern its TBK1-stimulatory activity, we transfected

HEK 293T cells with constructs encoding LgBiT-tagged ALTO progressive truncation mutants or

an empty vector control. Expression of most variants was roughly equivalent, and all migrated to

positions consistent with their predicted molecular weights (Fig. 1C). Although structural

prediction of ALTO remains largely inconclusive, AlphaFold modeling suggested that all variants

preserved the characteristic N-terminal disordered region and C-terminal alpha helix (Fig. S1).

Since ALTO is also known to form homo-oligomers(29, 31), we used ALTO-ALTO interactions as

a functional readout to assess the structural integrity of the truncation mutants. Self-interaction

assays confirmed that variants retained appropriate homo- and hetero-oligomerization capability

(Fig. S2), further supporting the functional integrity of these constructs.

We then tested whether the ALTO truncation mutants retained the ability to stimulate TBK1

autophosphorylation. As observed with wildtype (WT) ALTO, the first four truncation mutants

(ALTOΨ, ALTOχ, ALTOΦ, and ALTOυ) retained the ability to stimulate TBK1

autophosphorylation (Fig. 1C, lanes 1-5). In contrast, the ALTOτ truncation (aa 151–250) and all

shorter N-terminal truncated variants completely lost this activity despite comparable protein

expression levels (Fig. 1C, lane 6-8). ALTOΔTM also failed to stimulate TBK1

autophosphorylation and was expressed at a relatively lower level (Fig. 1C, lane 9). This, taken

with its overall lowered homo- and hetero-oligomerization capability (Fig. S2) supports previous

reporting that the putative transmembrane or hydrophobic domain is required for robust

expression of ALTO(32).

The LIT domain is specifically required for ALTO-TBK1 interaction but not for binding

STING or Src

The loss of TBK1 autophosphorylation in ALTOτ and shorter variants may indicate a disruption

in the formation of the ALTO-STING-TBK1-Src "signal complex" we previously described(29). To

determine whether the loss of TBK1-stimulatory activity in certain truncation mutants was due to

disrupted complex formation—and to identify which specific protein-protein interactions might

underlie the observed loss of function—we co-transfected HEK 293T cells with SmBiT-tagged

ALTO truncation mutants and LgBiT-tagged STING, TBK1, or Src (Fig. 2A-C). Kinetic monitoring

of these interactions showed that after a short equilibration period, all readings remained

relatively stable over the observation window; therefore, single representative timepoints are

presented throughout this study (Fig. S3). For all three interactors, interaction strength was

substantially reduced or eliminated at different truncation points, suggesting that STING, Src,

and TBK1 each rely on distinct ALTO regions for binding.

Despite its inability to stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation as we observed in Fig. 1C, ALTOτ

showed the strongest interaction with STING (Fig. 2A) and retained approximately half-maximal

interaction with Src (Fig. 2B), indicating it remains structurally and functionally competent in

other respects. ALTO-TBK1 interaction peaked with the ALTOΦ variant, declined substantially

with ALTOυ, and was reduced to near-background levels at ALTOτ (Fig. 2C). These data

suggest that ALTOτ is properly folded and localized but lacks a domain specifically required for

ALTO-TBK1 engagement. Taken together, the TBK1 activation and protein-protein interaction

assays identify the 30aa region absent in ALTOτ (aa 121-150) as a critical functional segment.

We therefore refer to this region as the Lost in Tau (LIT) domain.

The LIT domain functions as a dominant negative inhibitor of ALTO-induced TBK1

autophosphorylation

To further investigate whether the LIT region is sufficient to confer TBK1-related activity, we

tested whether the domain alone could recapitulate or inhibit full-length ALTO function. We first

cloned the LIT sequence into the NanoBiT vectors for use in sensitive live cell interaction

assays, then subcloned the same reading frame with the addition of the N-terminal LgBiT tag

into the pcDNA4c vector, adding an Xpress tag and placing the construct under the control of a

highly active CMV promoter for applications requiring more robust expression (Fig. 3A).

NanoBiT protein-protein interaction studies of LIT's interactions with wild-type (WT) ALTO,

STING, Src, and TBK1 were initiated using the standard LgBiT-LIT construct; however, we

observed substantial differences in expression levels between WT ALTO and LIT, as well as

high variability and background luminescence readings in both experimental and negative

control conditions (Fig. S4). Because higher LIT expression would also produce proportionally

higher background signal, we concluded that the NanoBiT platform was not suitable for reliably

examining LIT interactions.

Since the LIT domain appeared to be critical for ALTO-TBK1 interactions (Figs. 1C, 2C), we

hypothesized that it might act as a dominant negative inhibitor by competitively interfering with

TBK1 activation by WT protein. To test this, we co-transfected our Xpress-LgBiT-LIT construct

with WT ALTO and assessed TBK1 autophosphorylation as well as total TBK1 protein levels. As

expected, modest expression of WT ALTO alone strongly stimulated TBK1 autophosphorylation,

whereas even much higher expression of Xpress-LgBiT-LIT failed to do so (Fig. 3B). Co-

transfection of the two constructs showed a marked decrease in TBK1 autophosphorylation,

confirming a dominant negative phenotype.

An alternate ALTO mutant containing the N-terminal 150 aa of ALTO—terminating with the LIT

region—was tested as a more stable truncation construct than LIT alone, without requiring a

bulky N-terminal tag (Fig. S5). This variant, termed ALTO150, was stably and detectably

expressed; however, it had only a modest inhibitory effect on TBK1 autophosphorylation when

co-transfected with WT ALTO. Co-transfection also resulted in a modest increase in WT ALTO

abundance, suggesting that the N-terminal domain of ALTO mediates its dimerization, which in

turn contributes to protein stabilization. While ALTO150 exhibited some dominant negative

activity, its stabilization of WT ALTO may offset this effect, creating a self-limiting interaction that

blunts its ability to fully suppress WT ALTO function.

Deletion of the LIT domain abolishes TBK1 activation without disrupting ALTO structure,

oligomerization, or other partner binding

While truncation mutants helped define the boundaries of the LIT domain, we next asked

whether targeted deletion of this region would phenocopy the loss of function seen in ALTOт. To

determine whether the observed loss of interaction and TBK1 stimulation was due to a

sequence-specific function of the LIT region or simply a consequence of reduced length or

flexibility, we generated an ALTO variant lacking the LIT coding sequence, termed ALTO deletion

of LIT (ALTOdelLIT) (Fig. 4A). The removal of a random 30aa segment was not expected to

produce a phenotype, as a deletion of this length in the ALTOΨ truncation did not impair TBK1

autophosphorylation or interaction (Figs. 1C, 2C).

Consistent with previous results, LgBiT-tagged WT ALTO robustly stimulated TBK1

autophosphorylation and degradation in transfected HEK 293T cells. In contrast, ALTOdelLIT

failed to induce either autophosphorylation or degradation of TBK1, despite comparable protein

expression levels (Fig. 4B). NanoBiT interaction assays confirmed that this loss of function was

not due to impaired ALTO oligomerization, as ALTOdelLIT retained equal or even enhanced

capability to oligomerize with itself and with WT ALTO (Fig. 4C). Similarly, interactions between

ALTOdelLIT and STING (Fig. 4D), as well as ALTOdelLIT and Src (Fig.4E), were not

significantly different from those of WT ALTO. Interaction between ALTOdelLIT and TBK1,

however, was reduced by more than 30-fold compared to WT ALTO (Fig. 4F), indicating a

specific requirement for the LIT region in TBK1 engagement. Protein expression across all

interaction assays was largely equal, further supporting the reliability of these findings (Fig. S6).

The preserved interactions between ALTOdelLIT and ALTO, STING, and Src suggest that

ALTOdelLIT is structurally and functionally intact, and that its loss of TBK1 engagement reflects

a specific requirement for the LIT region.

The LIT region lies within ALTO's N-terminal intrinsically disordered region (IDR), and as such,

no confident structure-based predictions can be made about its function or (Fig. 1A). To further

investigate whether specific functional domain(s) of ALTO within the LIT region might drive the

ALTO-TBK1 interaction, we analyzed its amino acid sequence for short linear motifs (SLiMs),

also known as eukaryotic linear motifs (ELMs), using the ELM Resource prediction tool

(http://elm.eu.org/search.html). The analysis was performed without specifying a subcellular

compartment, as ALTO's subcellular localization remains poorly defined. The resulting

predictions were then filtered to include only those located within or adjacent to the LIT region

(Fig. S7). Although SLiMs are inherently degenerate and therefore not considered high-

confidence predictions when found, no motifs corresponding to known TBK1-binding sites or

interaction domains with other signal complex components were identified.

The LIT domain does not influence ALTO subcellular localization or trafficking

Given that ALTOdelLIT retains structural integrity and continues to interact with Src, STING, and

itself, we next hypothesized that differences in intracellular trafficking might account for the

phenotypic divergence between WT ALTO and ALTOdelLIT. To test this, we generated human

dermal fibroblasts (HDFs) expressing either WT ALTO or ALTOdelLIT under a doxycycline (Dox)

inducible promoter (inALTOWT and inALTOdelLIT HDFs, respectively). After several hours of

Dox induction, cells were fixed and immunostained for ALTO and various intracellular membrane

markers. Substantial colocalization was observed only with the cis-Golgi marker GM130, where

both WT ALTO and ALTOdelLIT appeared to accumulate during early expression (Fig. 5A). At

later time points, both proteins were observed to traffic outward from the Golgi, potentially via

the secretory pathway (Fig. S8). Further immunofluorescence analysis revealed partial

colocalization of distal ALTO and ALTOdelLIT foci with the early endosome marker Rab5 (Fig.

5B), suggesting ALTO may transiently localize to the plasma membrane and re-enter the cell via

the endocytic pathway, a finding consistent with prior reports of ALTO co-fractionating with lipid

raft markers(31).

Although we did not identify a specific motif or altered trafficking pattern that could explain the

loss of ALTO-TBK1 interaction in the absence of the LIT domain, these findings suggest that

ALTO's trafficking may involve dynamic cycling through the secretory and endocytic pathways.

Further investigation into ALTO's trafficking and intracellular lifecycle may provide important

insights. Despite the absence of clear structural or localization changes, our data demonstrate

that the LIT domain is specifically required for ALTO-induced TBK1 autophosphorylation.

The LIT domain is essential for ALTO-mediated suppression of MCPyV replication in

infected cells

Finally, to place our protein-level observations into their full viral context, we evaluated whether

WT ALTO and ALTOdelLIT could suppress MCPyV replication by using our HDF model of early

MCPyV infection(40). Donor-matched inALTOWT and inALTOdelLIT HDFs (Fig. 6A) were

infected with equal titers of ALTO$_{null}$ MCPyV, a genetically intact virus containing a point

mutation in the ALTO start codon that eliminates ALTO expression(29). Following infection, cells

were either mock-induced or induced to express their respective ALTO variant, and viral

replication was assessed five days post-infection.

As we previously reported, ALTO$_{null}$ virus replicates significantly more efficiently in uninduced

HDFs compared to HDFs induced to express WT ALTO. In contrast, induction of ALTOdelLIT

failed to significantly reduce viral replication (Fig. 6B). Because the suppression of viral

replication by ALTO is known to occur through a TBK1-driven negative feedback

mechanism(29), this loss of function demonstrates that the LIT domain is required for TBK1

stimulation by ALTO during viral infection.

Discussion

MCPyV remains the only conclusively identified oncogenic human polyomavirus. Despite its

widespread presence in the general population and its clear role in the pathogenesis of MCC,

major gaps persist in our understanding of key aspects of MCPyV biology. Among the most

critical of these are the mechanisms by which MCPyV establishes persistent infection, maintains

latency, and ultimately exits latency to drive oncogenesis.

This study builds on our previous work proposing an MCPyV latency mechanism involving

ALTO-mediated modulation of the STING–TBK1 axis. To further define this mechanism, we

used a progressive N-terminal truncation approach spanning ALTO's intrinsically disordered

region (IDR) and alpha-helical domain to identify regions critical for TBK1 activation (Figs. 1A,

1B). Through this strategy, we discovered a short, previously uncharacterized region of ALTO

that is specifically required for TBK1 stimulation. The ALTOᴛ mutant, which retains only the C-

terminal 100 amino acids of ALTO (aa 151–250), was the first truncation to completely lose the

ability to stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation in cellulo (Fig. 1C) and showed almost no

detectable interaction with TBK1 in protein–protein interaction assays (Fig. 2C). In contrast, its

immediate upstream predecessor, ALTOᴜ, retained both activity and binding, indicating that the

30 amino acids present in ALTOᴜ but absent in ALTOᴛ (aa 121–150) are essential for this

function. We therefore designated this region the LIT (Lost in Tau) domain. Located within

ALTO's IDR, the LIT domain is predicted to localize at the interface of ALTO, STING, TBK1, and

Src within the multi-protein signal complex (Fig. 6C).

When expressed in isolation, the LIT domain acted as a dominant negative inhibitor of WT

ALTO, competitively blocking TBK1 activation (Fig. 3B). To confirm that the LIT domain is

necessary for ALTO's immune modulatory activity, we engineered a deletion construct

(ALTOdelLIT) and found that it failed to stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation (Fig. 4B). This loss

of function appears to be sequence-specific: ALTOdelLIT maintained expression, proper folding,

and interactions with other signal complex proteins such as STING and Src, but showed a

dramatic reduction in TBK1 binding (Fig. 4F). This loss was not attributable to the absence of a

canonical TBK1-interaction motif (Fig. S7) or to altered protein trafficking, as ALTO and

ALTOdelLIT both localized to the cis-Golgi at early time points and trafficked through both the

secretory and endocytic pathways (Figs. 5A, 5B).

Finally, we demonstrated that the LIT domain is functionally required for TBK1-mediated

suppression of MCPyV replication during early infection (Fig. 6A). Notably, ALTOdelLIT

induction failed to reduce viral replication to the extent observed with direct pharmacological

inhibition of TBK1(29) in our prior study. These results support the conclusion that ALTO,

through the LIT domain, plays a central role in modulating host–virus interactions during both

early and persistent infection.

The identification of a novel immune interaction domain within ALTO's IDR builds on prior

reports implicating other regions of ALTO in Src-family kinase binding(29, 31), PLCγ1 signaling,

and NFκB modulation(31, 32). Collectively, these studies revise the earlier view of ALTO as a

dispensable accessory protein and instead establish it as a key viral effector that actively

shapes innate immune responses through structurally dynamic interactions. As ALTO-encoding

polyomaviruses continue to emerge as a phylogenetic subset of mammalian

polyomaviruses(32), it will be important to assess whether the LIT domain is conserved across

species or represents a specialized adaptation of MCPyV to its human host. Given that many

polyomaviruses establish persistent infections, conservation of LIT-like motifs would support the

idea that latency is a regulated process driven by active host–virus interactions, rather than a

passive consequence of viral quiescence.

MCPyV ALTO is not unique among viral or oncogenic proteins in its use of intrinsic disorder to

regulate complex signaling networks. Other viral effectors, including HPV E7(41) and KSHV

ORF57(42), also use disordered regions to engage host pathways with high flexibility and

specificity. As the functional importance of intrinsically disordered viral proteins becomes more

widely appreciated, new opportunities are emerging to map these regions and understand their

mechanistic roles in immune evasion, persistence, and oncogenesis(43-45).

Several key questions remain regarding the lifecycle and regulation of ALTO during MCPyV

infection. Although we observed initial accumulation of ALTO at the cis-Golgi, followed by

trafficking through secretory and endocytic pathways (Figs. 5, S8), and prior studies have

reported association with lipid rafts(31), the complete subcellular dynamics of ALTO, particularly

during long-term infection, are not yet well defined. Given the known importance of spatial

regulation for many signaling proteins, a deeper understanding of ALTO's localization and

trafficking may reveal new insights into its diverse functions and regulatory partners.

A particularly intriguing and unresolved observation is the frequent loss of ALTO expression in

virus-positive MCC, even in cases where the ORF is retained(32). While some loss may result

from stochastic truncation events during viral integration, ALTO protein is undetectable in

several virus-positive MCC lines that retain its intact coding sequence. From an evolutionary

perspective, this may be a form of immune evasion. ALTO is highly immunostimulatory, and its

continued expression after integration could trigger immune clearance of the host cell. Thus, the

absence of ALTO in MCC tumors may reflect a form of survivorship bias. Only those cells that

have lost ALTO expression may escape immune detection and progress to cancer. Since ALTO

can be robustly expressed even in the absence of all other viral proteins, this suggests that

host-mediated regulatory mechanisms, rather than viral factors, may suppress ALTO post-

integration. Identifying such factors could reveal novel therapeutic targets or biomarkers for

MCC progression.

Finally, the discovery of a compact domain within ALTO that selectively activates TBK1 opens

the door to potential translational applications. ALTO itself or a small molecule mimic of its TBK1

activating domain could serve as a noncanonical TBK1 agonist for boosting antiviral immunity in

immunocompromised individuals, potentially suppressing MCPyV replication and reducing

cancer risk. Beyond direct antiviral applications, TBK1 is a known druggable target for a variety

of conditions associated with its dysregulation, as well as a target of interest in the development

of novel cancer immunotherapies(46-48). Identification and characterization of the noncanonical

mechanism by which ALTO is able to stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation could also enable the

development of novel agonists and antagonists. Conversely, the LIT domain itself, or derivatives

thereof, could act as dominant negative inhibitor of WT ALTO by blocking its ability to activate

TBK1. This raises the possibility of repurposing LIT-mimicking compounds to modulate ALTO-

TBK1 signaling in MCPyV-associated conditions, such as latency control or early-stage

infection.

Materials and methods

Cell culture

All cells were maintained at 37°C with 5% CO_2 in a humidified incubator. HEK 293T cells were

cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Gibco) supplemented with 10% fetal

bovine serum (FBS, Cytiva). HDFs were isolated from neonatal foreskin as previously

described(49) and maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% tetracycline-screened FBS

(Cytiva).

Chemicals and reagents

Doxycycline (Dox) and puromycin were dissolved in sterile water to stock concentrations of 0.5

mg/mL and 10 mg/mL, respectively, and stored at −20°C. Unless otherwise noted in the text or

figure legends, Dox was used at a final concentration of 0.5 µg/mL. Puromycin was used during

selection for stable cell lines as described below. Hexadimethrine bromide (Polybrene, Aldrich)

was dissolved in water to a 12 mg/mL stock, sterilized by 0.2 µm syringe filtration, and used

fresh for each experiment.

Recombinant plasmid construction

NanoBiT constructs expressing WT ALTO, TBK1 and STING were generated in our previous

study(29). The human c-Src coding sequence (hereafter "Src") was amplified from the

pDEST40-ZXHA-WtSrc plasmid and cloned using XhoI and NheI sites. LgBiT- and SmBiT-

tagged truncated ALTO mutants (Ψ, χ, Φ, υ, τ, σ, ρ, ΔTM, and LIT) were PCR-amplified from the

pBiT1.1-N_ALTO (L-ALTO) backbone and subcloned into pBiT1.1-N[TK/LgBiT] or pBiT2.1-

N[TK/SmBiT] vectors using XhoI and NheI.

Deletion constructs pBiT1.1-N_ALTOdelLIT (L-ALTOdelLIT) and pBiT2.1-N_ALTOdelLIT (S-

ALTOdelLIT) were constructed by linear PCR omitting the LIT region, followed by Bpu10I

digestion and self-ligation.

Constructs for pcDNA4c-ALTO150 and pcDNA4c-LgBiT-LIT were prepared by amplifying their

respective coding sequences from their respective NanoBiT plasmids and subcloning into the

pcDNA4c vector (Invitrogen) using BamHI and XhoI or EcoRI, respectively.

The pTRIPz-RFP vector (Open Biosystems) and pTRIPz-ALTO construct were generated as

previously described(29). pTRIPz-ALTOdelLIT was derived from pBiT1.1-N_ALTOdelLIT and

cloned into the pTRIPz backbone using the AgeI and MluI sites to replace the RFP cassette. All

primer sequences are provided in Supplemental Table 1.

Structural prediction

Structural modeling of WT ALTO (Fig. 1A) was performed as previously described(29, 35).

Progressive ALTO truncation mutants and the STING-TBK1-ALTO-Src complex were modeled

using the AlphaFold3 server (builds 2025.5.23 and 2025.06.10) with default settings(34). Models

were visualized and recolored using NIH iCn3D(50, 51).

Generation of inducible stable HDFs

Inducible HDF lines were generated as previously described(27, 49). Briefly, lentiviral particles

were produced in HEK 293T cells by co-transfecting pTRIPz transfer plasmids (encoding WT

ALTO or ALTOdelLIT), psPAX, and pMD2.G using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen).

Supernatants were collected 48 h post-transfection, centrifuged, 0.2 µm filtered, and

supplemented with 6 µg/mL Polybrene prior to transduction of early-passage HDFs (≤2

passages post-isolation). After 48 h, media was replaced, and cells were selected with 4 µg/mL

puromycin for 5 days, followed by maintenance in 1 µg/mL puromycin.

NanoBiT protein–protein interaction assays

HEK 293T cells were seeded into opaque white 96-well plates (3×10^4 cells/well) in 100 μL

DMEM + 10% FBS. Warm PBS was added to outer wells and between wells to reduce edge

effects. The following day, cells were transfected with 100 ng total plasmid DNA per well (50 ng

each of LgBiT and SmBiT constructs or SmBiT control) using FuGENE HD (Promega) in Opti-

MEM I (Gibco). After 20–24 h incubation (20 h for TBK1 assays), media was replaced with fresh

Opti-MEM I ~30 min before reading. NanoGlo Live Cell Substrate (Promega) was diluted to 5X

in Live Cell Buffer and added under low-light conditions. Luminescence was measured using a

Luminoskan Ascent (Thermo) every 15 minutes for 90 minutes. Representative timepoints were

selected based on signal strength and stability.

Western blotting

Cells were lysed in ice-cold buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 500 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM

DTT, 0.5% Triton X-100) supplemented with PhosSTOP (Roche) and cOmplete protease

inhibitors (Roche). Lysis proceeded on ice for 30–60 min with intermittent vortexing. Lysates

were cleared by centrifugation at 12,000 × g for 10 min at 4°C. Protein concentration was

determined by Bradford assay. Samples were mixed with Laemmli buffer, boiled for ≥2 min,

flash frozen, and stored at −80°C. Proteins were resolved by SDS-PAGE and transferred to 0.45

μm PVDF membranes. Blots were blocked and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary

antibodies diluted in 5% milk in PBST (0.1% Tween-20), followed by secondary antibodies for 1

h at room temperature. Signal was developed using SuperSignal West Pico PLUS (Thermo)

and imaged on an Amersham Imager 600 or 680 (GE Healthcare). Primary antibodies: anti-

GAPDH (1:5,000, CST 2118S), anti-TBK1 (1:1,000, CST 3504S), anti-phospho-TBK1 S172

(1:1,000, CST 5483S), anti-ALTO (1:10,000, courtesy of the Galloway Lab), anti-STING

(1:1,000, CST 13647S), anti-LgBiT (1:500, Promega N710A), anti-Xpress (1:1,000, Invitrogen

44-0528), anti-Src (1:1,000, CST 2109S). Secondary antibodies: HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit

IgG (1:2,500, CST 7074S), anti-mouse IgG (1:2,500, CST 7076S).

Immunofluorescent staining

HDF-inALTO and -inALTOdelLIT cells were seeded on coverslips and treated with Dox (0.5

µg/mL) for durations indicated in the figures. Cells were fixed in 3% paraformaldehyde (PBS, 20

min), permeabilized in 0.5% Triton X-100 / 3% BSA (1 h, RT), and incubated with primary

antibodies in the same buffer for 1 h in humidified chambers. Following PBS washes, secondary

antibodies with DAPI were applied under low-light conditions. Cells were imaged using an

Olympus IX81 inverted microscope. Primary antibodies: anti-ALTO (1:1,000, courtesy of the

Galloway Lab), anti-Rab5 (1:200, CST 3547T), anti-GM130 (1:200, BD 610822). Secondary

antibodies: AlexaFluor 594-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:500, Invitrogen A11012),

AlexaFluor 488-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (1:500, Invitrogen A11029).

MCPyV infection

Infections using $ALTO_{null}$ MCPyV were performed in HDF-inALTO and -inALTOdelLIT lines as

previously described(29). Viral replication was assessed by qPCR following published

methods(29).

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism. For single comparisons,

unpaired two-tailed t-tests with Welch's correction were used. For multiple group comparisons,

Brown–Forsythe and Welch's ANOVA tests were applied where indicated. Significance

thresholds were: $P < 0.05$ (*), $P < 0.01$ (**), $P < 0.001$ (***). Confidence intervals were set at

95%.

Supplemental Table 1:

Primer	Sequence
Src NheI F	5'- GATCGCTAGC ATG GGTAGCAACAAGAGCAAG-3'
Src XhoI R	5'-GATCCTCGAGCC GAGGTTCTCCCCGGGC-3'
ALTO NheI R	5'-CAGTGCTAGCTCAGATCTGTTGCTTGATACGATG-3'
Ψ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTCAGGACCCCGAGTCATTG-3'
χ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTATGGGCCCAAGC-3'
Φ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTCTCGACCCAGTGGCC-3'
υ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTAGAATGGCACCAGGACG-3'
τ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTCCACAAGAGGCCAGGC-3'
σ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTCCAAGCCCACCAAGGC-3'
ρ XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTTTGCTGTTTCTGCTCATCTTC-3'
ALTO XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTGGCCCCTGAACAGCAAG-3'
ALTOΔTM NheI R	5'-CAGTGCTAGCTCACTTTTCGGTGCGCTTCTG-3'
LIT XhoI F	5'-CAGTCTCGAGCGGTAGAAGGCACCAGGAC-3'
LIT NheI R	5'-CAGTGCTAGCTCACGGTGGGCTGCG-3'
delLIT Bpu10I F	5'-CAGTCCTGAGCCACAAGAGGCCAGG-3'
delLIT Bpu10I R	5'-CAGTGCTCAGGCAAGATTCCAGATAGAC-3'
ALTO BamHI F	5'-CAGGGATCCGGCCCACTGAACAGCAAG-3'
ALTO150/LIT XhoI R	5'-CAGTCTCGAGTCACGGTGGGCTGCG-3'
ALTOdelLIT AgeI F	5'-ACTGACCGGTACCATGGGCCCACTGAACAGC-3'
ALTOdelLIT MluI R	5'-TGTCACGCGTTCATTGCTTGATAACGATGTAGAGC-3'
LgBiT-LIT BamHI F	5'-CAGTGGATCCATGGTCTTCACACTCGAAG-3'
LgBiT-LIT EcoRI R	5'-CAGTGAATTCTCACGGTGGGCTGC-3'

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Denise Galloway for generously providing the anti-ALTO antibody. We are also

grateful to the members of our laboratories for their insightful discussions and ongoing support.

This work was supported by the National Institutes of Health through Grants R01CA187718,

R21CA267803, and R01CA284690 awarded to J.Y., as well as by the National Cancer Institute

through P01CA281867 Project 3 to J.Y.. The funders had no role in study design, data

collection, interpretation, or submission for publication.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Progressive N-terminal truncation reveals ALTO functional regions. (A)

Predicted tertiary structure model of ALTO (AlphaFold2 Colab) with truncation mutant lengths

highlighted. Chain colors correspond to the maximum N-terminal length of their respective

mutant, with each mutant consisting of its own color portion and all subsequent C-terminal

portions. (B) Schematic diagram of LgBiT- and SmBiT- (L/S) tagged progressive N-terminal

ALTO truncation mutants. The hydrophobic or transmembrane (TM) domain is indicated as

"HD". (C) Western blots of HEK 293T lysates collected 24 hours post-transfection with 2ug of

the indicated LgBiT-tagged progressive ALTO truncation mutant (or an empty vector control, V).

Primary antibodies are listed on the right.

Figure 2: ALTOт is markedly deficient in TBK1 interaction. (A-C) Luminescence readings of

HEK 293T cells transfected with pairs of plasmids carrying NanoBiT-tagged ALTO progressive

truncation mutants and either (A) STING, (B) Src, and (C) TBK1, or the Small BiT negative

control construct (NC). Readings were taken at 20 hours (ALTO-TBK1) or 24 hours (ALTO-

STING and ALTO-Src) post-transfection. Points indicate biological replicate wells, bars indicate

means, and error bars indicate standard deviations. L-protein and protein-S (and similar)

indicate the named protein tagged with the LgBiT at its N-terminus or SmBiT at its C-terminus,

respectively.

Figure 3: LIT alone is not sufficient to stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation, but

competes with WT ALTO to reduce TBK1 activation. A) Schematic diagram of WT ALTO

compared to Xpress-LgBiT-Lost In Tau (LIT) expressed from the pcDNA4c vector. B) Western

blots of HEK 293T cells transfected with WT ALTO and LIT or matching vector controls. Primary

antibodies are listed on the right; left side labels differentiate multiple bands on the same blot.

Figure 4: Loss of TBK1 autophosphorylation stimulatory capacity is sequence-specific.

(A) Schematic diagram of tagged WT ALTO (top) and ALTO deletion of LIT (ALTOdelLIT,

bottom). The location of the LIT region is highlighted by a yellow box. (B) HEK 293T cells were

transfected with plasmids carrying either wildtype L-ALTO or L-ALTOdelLIT. Lysates were

harvested 24hrs post-transfection and immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies (C-F) HEK

293T were transfected with pairs of plasmids carrying tagged WT ALTO or ALTOdelLIT, as well

as tagged STING (D), Src (E), and TBK1 (F). At 20 hours (ALTO-TBK1) or 24 hours (ALTO-

STING and ALTO-Src) post-transfection, luminescence was measured. Points indicate biological

replicate wells, bars indicate means, and error bars indicate standard deviations. L-protein and

protein-S (and similar) indicate the named protein tagged with the LgBiT at its N-terminus or

SmBiT at its C-terminus, respectively. All analyses shown are Brown-Forsyth and Welch's one-

way ANOVA, ****$p<0.0001$; ***$p<0.001$; **$p<0.01$; *$p<0.05$

Figure 5: WT ALTO and ALTOdelLIT traffic through the Golgi. (A) inALTO and inALTOdelLIT

HDFs induced for 4 hours prior to fixation and immunofluorescent stained for ALTO and the cis-

Golgi marker GM130. (B) Representative immunofluorescence images of inALTO and

inALTOdelLIT HDFs fixed at 16 hours post-induction and stained for ALTO and the early

endosome marker Rab5.

Figure 6: The LIT domain is essential for ALTO-mediated suppression of MCPyV

replication in infected cells. (A) Western blots of HDFs inducibly expressing ALTOdelLIT or

WT ALTO. Lysates were collected 16 h post-induction. (B) qPCR analysis of viral DNA extracted

5 days post-infection from HDFs inducibly expressing WT ALTO or ALTOdelLIT, following

infection with equal titers of $ALTO_{null}$ MCPyV. Analysis is normalized to cellular GAPDH for each

cell type. Points represent biological replicate wells averaged from three technical replicates

each. Analyses are multiple unpaired t-tests with Welch's correction, *$p<0.05$. (C) Predicted

tertiary structure modeling of the ALTO/STING/TBK1/Src complex, with the LIT domain

highlighted at center. Full-length canonical amino acid sequences for each protein were used

with AlphaFold3 server (update 2025.06.10) with no post-translational modifications, default

parameters, random seeding.

Figure S1: Predictive tertiary structures of progressive ALTO truncation mutants. Amino

acid sequences of progressive ALTO truncation mutants were used with the 2025.5.23 Update

of the AlphaFold3 server platform (default settings, random seeding). All structures have a low-

confidence intrinsically disordered N-terminal region, and a relatively higher-confidence C-

terminal alpha helical structure, which is maintained through all truncations. All progressive

ALTO truncations are shown in (A) monomeric, (B) homodimeric, and (C) WT ALTO-paired

heterodimeric forms. Colors indicate AlphaFold calculated predicted local distance difference

test (plDDT) confidence scores according to the supplied key in (A).

Figure S2: Progressive ALTO truncation mutants retain homo-and hetero-oligomerization

potential. Representative NanoBiT luminescence readings of HEK 293T cells transfected with

pairs of plasmids carrying NanoBiT-tagged WT ALTO or a truncation mutant, or the Small BiT

negative control construct. Luminescence was measured at 24hrs post-transfection and

reported in Relative Luminescence Units (RLU). Points indicate biological replicate wells, bars

indicate means, and error bars indicate standard deviations. L-protein and protein-S (and

similar) indicate the named protein tagged with the LgBiT at its N-terminus or SmBiT at its C-

terminus, respectively.

Figure S3: Kinetic curves of progressive ALTO truncation mutant interactions show

relative interaction stability over time. Kinetic luminescence readings of HEK 293T cells

20hrs (ALTO-TBK1) or 24hrs (ALTO-STING and ALTO-Src) post-transfection with the indicated

NanoBiT interaction pairs. Cells were monitored for 90 minutes after the addition of substrate,

with readings recorded every 15min to determine the intensity and stability of protein-protein

interactions. Individual points reflect average values of biological replicate wells; error bars

indicate standard deviation across replicates at each time point; and trendlines indicate change

between averages across timepoints. Single representative timepoints are highlighted in

corresponding figures in Fig. 2.

Figure S4: Protein expression in LgBiT-LIT NanoBiT experiments is not sufficiently equal

to WT to draw reliable interaction conclusions. Western blots and representative NanoBiT

readings of HEK 293T cells co-transfected with tagged LIT and (A) WT ALTO, (B) STING, (C)

Src, and (D) TBK1 at 20 hours (TBK1) or 24 hours (all others) post-transfection. Overexposed

L-WT bands in (B) were covered to image the L-LIT bands (inset). Primary antibodies are

indicated on the right; left-side labels differentiate bands visualized on the same blot.

Figure S5: ALTO150 is not sufficient to stimulate TBK1 autophosphorylation but is a

partial dominant-negative. (A) Schematic diagram of LgBiT-tagged WT ALTO and 6* His-

Xpress-tagged ALTO150 as expressed from the pcDNA4c vector (B) Western blots of lysates

from HEK 293T cells 24 hours post-transfection with WT ALTO, ALTO150, or both. Right side

labels indicate primary antibodies; left side labels distinguish multiple bands on the same blot.

Figure S6: Relatively equal protein expression across variants in ALTOdelLIT NanoBiT

experiments supports functional conclusions. Western blots of lysates from HEK 293T cells

transfected with indicated NanoBiT pairs, corresponding to Fig. 4. Lysates were harvested at

20hrs (ALTO-TBK1) or 24hrs (all others) post-transfection to assess relative protein expression

at the time of luminescence readings. Primary antibodies are listed on the right; labels on the

left differentiate multiple bands on the same blot.

Figure S7: SLiMs do not explain the loss of function in ALTOdelLIT. Full-length amino acid

sequence of ALTO was submitted to the ELM database (elm.eu.org) functional search prediction

(cell compartment not specified, default parameters, Homo sapiens species context). Results

have been filtered to display only motifs which are present within or immediately adjacent to the

LIT domain. Probabilities provided by the ELM database reflect the likelihood of the motif to

appear by random in any given protein sequence.

Figure S8: Longitudinal trafficking of WT ALTO and ALTOdelLIT. Representative

immunofluorescence images of inALTO and inALTOdelLIT HDFs fixed at the indicated

timepoints post-induction. All images taken with the 60x objective unless otherwise indicated.

The WT cell shown at 100x at T=10 (white arrow) was particularly noteworthy for the apparent

visualization of ALTO punctae leaving the Golgi.

References:

1. Moens U C-SS, Lauber C, Ramqvist T, Feltkamp MCW, Daugherty MD, Verschoor EJ,

Ehlers B, and ICTV Report Consortium. 2017. ICTV Virus Taxonomy Profile:

Polyomaviridae. J Gen Virol.

2. Fazeli MM, Heydari Sirat S, Shatizadeh Malekshahi S. 2025. Novel Human

Polyomaviruses Discovered From 2007 to the Present: An Update of Current

Knowledge. Rev Med Virol 35.

3. Feng H, Shuda M, Chang Y, Moore PS. 2008. Clonal integration of a polyomavirus in

human Merkel cell carcinoma. Science 319:1096-100.

4. Tolstov Y. 2011. Asymptomatic Primary Merkel Cell Polyomavirus Infection among

Adults. Emerg Infect Dis doi:10.3201/eid1708.110079:1371-1380.

5. Schowalter RM, Pastrana DV, Pumphrey KA, Moyer AL, Buck CB. 2010. Merkel cell

polyomavirus and two previously unknown polyomaviruses are chronically shed from

human skin. Cell Host Microbe 7:509-15.

6. Tolstov YL, Pastrana DV, Feng H, Becker JC, Jenkins FJ, Moschos S, Chang Y, Buck

CB, Moore PS. 2009. Human Merkel cell polyomavirus infection II. MCV is a common

human infection that can be detected by conformational capsid epitope immunoassays.

Int J Cancer 125:1250-6.

7. Foulongne V, Kluger N, Dereure O, Mercier G, Molès J-P, Guillot B, Segondy M. 2010.

Merkel Cell Polyomavirus in Cutaneous Swabs. Emerg Infect Dis 16:685-687.

8. Bopp L, Wieland U, Hellmich M, Kreuter A, Pfister H, Silling S. 2021. Natural History of

Cutaneous Human Polyomavirus Infection in Healthy Individuals. Front Microbiol 12.

9. Chang Y, Moore PS. 2012. Merkel Cell Carcinoma: A Virus-Induced Human Cancer.

Annu Rev Pathol 7:123-144.

10. Busam KJ, Jungbluth AA, Rekthman N, Coit D, Pulitzer M, Bini J, Arora R, Hanson NC,

Tassello JA, Frosina D, Moore P, Chang Y. 2009. Merkel cell polyomavirus expression in

merkel cell carcinomas and its absence in combined tumors and pulmonary

neuroendocrine carcinomas. Am J Surg Pathol 33:1378-85.

11.   Kassem A, Schopflin A, Diaz C, Weyers W, Stickeler E, Werner M, Zur Hausen A. 2008.

Frequent detection of Merkel cell polyomavirus in human Merkel cell carcinomas and

identification of a unique deletion in the VP1 gene. Cancer Res 68:5009-13.

12.   Rodig SJ, Cheng J, Wardzala J, DoRosario A, Scanlon JJ, Laga AC, Martinez-

Fernandez A, Barletta JA, Bellizzi AM, Sadasivam S, Holloway DT, Cooper DJ, Kupper

TS, Wang LC, DeCaprio JA. 2012. Improved detection suggests all Merkel cell

carcinomas harbor Merkel polyomavirus. J Clin Invest 122:4645-53.

13.   Rapchak K, Yagobian SD, Moore J, Khattri M, Shuda M. 2022. Merkel cell polyomavirus

small T antigen is a viral transcription activator that is essential for viral genome

maintenance. PLoS Pathog 18:e1011039.

14.   Shuda M, Feng H, Kwun HJ, Rosen ST, Gjoerup O, Moore PS, Chang Y. 2008. T antigen

mutations are a human tumor-specific signature for Merkel cell polyomavirus. Proc Natl

Acad Sci U S A 105:16272-16277.

15.   Googins MR, An P, Gauthier CH, Pipas JM. 2025. Polyomavirus large T antigens:

Unraveling a complex interactome. Tumour Virus Res 19:200306.

16.   Engels EA, Frisch M, Goedert JJ, Biggar RJ, Miller RW. 2002. Merkel cell carcinoma and

HIV infection. Lancet 359:497-498.

17.   Wieland U, Kreuter A. 2011. Merkel cell polyomavirus infection and Merkel cell

carcinoma in HIV-positive individuals. Curr Opin Oncol 23:488-493.

18.   Ma J, Brewer J. 2014. Merkel Cell Carcinoma in Immunosuppressed Patients. Cancers

6:1328-1350.

19.   Burdette DL, Monroe KM, Sotelo-Troha K, Iwig JS, Eckert B, Hyodo M, Hayakawa Y,

Vance RE. 2011. STING is a direct innate immune sensor of cyclic di-GMP. Nature

478:515-518.

645 20. Yum S, Li M, Fang Y, Chen ZJ. 2021. TBK1 recruitment to STING activates both IRF3

646   and NF-κB that mediate immune defense against tumors and viral infections. Proc Natl

647   Acad Sci U S A 118:e2100225118.

648 21. Shang G, Zhang C, Chen ZJ, Bai X-C, Zhang X. 2019. Cryo-EM structures of STING

649   reveal its mechanism of activation by cyclic GMP–AMP. Nature 567:389-393.

650 22. Jiang M, Chen P, Wang L, Li W, Chen B, Liu Y, Wang H, Zhao S, Ye L, He Y, Zhou C.

651   2020. cGAS-STING, an important pathway in cancer immunotherapy. J Hematol Oncol

652   13.

653 23. Hopfner K-P, Hornung V. 2020. Molecular mechanisms and cellular functions of cGAS–

654   STING signalling. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 21:501-521.

655 24. Abe T, Harashima A, Xia T, Konno H, Konno K, Morales A, Ahn J, Gutman D, Glen.

656   2013. STING Recognition of Cytoplasmic DNA Instigates Cellular Defense. Mol Cell

657   50:5-15.

658 25. Ahn J, Konno H, Barber GN. 2015. Diverse roles of STING-dependent signaling on the

659   development of cancer. Oncogene 34:5302-5308.

660 26. Liu W, Kim GB, Krump NA, Zhou Y, Riley JL, You J. 2020. Selective reactivation of

661   STING signaling to target Merkel cell carcinoma. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 117:13730-

662   13739.

663 27. Krump NA, Wang R, Liu W, Yang JF, Ma T, You J. 2021. Merkel Cell Polyomavirus

664   Infection Induces an Antiviral Innate Immune Response in Human Dermal Fibroblasts. J

665   Virol 95:e0221120.

666 28. Wang R, Yang JF, Senay TE, Liu W, You J. 2023. Characterization of the Impact of

667   Merkel Cell Polyomavirus-Induced Interferon Signaling on Viral Infection. J Virol

668   97:e01907-22.

669   29.   Wang R, Senay TE, Luo TT, Liu W, Regan JM, Salisbury NJH, Galloway DA, You J.

670   2024. Merkel cell polyomavirus protein ALTO modulates TBK1 activity to support

671   persistent infection. PLoS Pathog 20:e1012170.

672   30.   Carter JJ, Daugherty MD, Qi X, Bheda-Malge A, Wipf GC, Robinson K, Roman A, Malik

673   HS, Galloway DA. 2013. Identification of an overprinting gene in Merkel cell

674   polyomavirus provides evolutionary insight into the birth of viral genes. Proceedings of

675   the National Academy of Sciences U S A 110:12744-12749.

676   31.   Peng WY, Abere B, Shi H, Toland S, Smithgall TE, Moore PS, Chang Y. 2023.

677   Membrane-bound Merkel cell polyomavirus middle T protein constitutively activates

678   PLCgamma1 signaling through Src-family kinases. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A

679   120:e2316467120.

680   32.   Salisbury NJH, Amonkar S, Landazuri Vinueza J, Carter JJ, Roman A, Galloway DA.

681   2024. Polyomavirus ALTOs, but not MTs, downregulate viral early gene expression by

682   activating the NF-kappaB pathway. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 121:e2403133121.

683   33.   Lanclos N, Radulovic P, Bland J, Oganisyan V, Radefeld K, Uversky VN. 2024.

684   Implications of intrinsic disorder and functional proteomics in the merkel cell

685   polyomavirus life cycle. J Cell Biochem 125.

686   34.   Jumper J, Evans R, Pritzel A, Green T, Figurnov M, Ronneberger O, Tunyasuvunakool

687   K, Bates R, Žídek A, Potapenko A, Bridgland A, Meyer C, Kohl SAA, Ballard AJ, Cowie

688   A, Romera-Paredes B, Nikolov S, Jain R, Adler J, Back T, Petersen S, Reiman D, Clancy

689   E, Zielinski M, Steinegger M, Pacholska M, Berghammer T, Bodenstein S, Silver D,

690   Vinyals O, Senior AW, Kavukcuoglu K, Kohli P, Hassabis D. 2021. Highly accurate

691   protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. Nature 596:583-589.

692   35.   Mirdita M, Schütze K, Moriwaki Y, Heo L, Ovchinnikov S, Steinegger M. 2022.

693   ColabFold: making protein folding accessible to all. Nat Methods 19:679-682.

694   36.   Dyson HJ, Wright PE. 2005. Intrinsically unstructured proteins and their functions. Nat

695   Rev Mol Cell Biol 6:197-208.

696   37.   Wright PE, Dyson HJ. 1999. Intrinsically unstructured proteins: re-assessing the protein

697   structure-function paradigm. J Mol Biol 293:321-331.

698   38.   Cortese MS, Uversky VN, Dunker AK. 2008. Intrinsic disorder in scaffold proteins:

699   getting more from less. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 98:85-106.

700   39.   Holehouse AS, Kragelund BB. 2024. The molecular basis for cellular function of

701   intrinsically disordered protein regions. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol 25:187-211.

702   40.   Liu W, Yang R, Payne AS, Schowalter RM, Spurgeon ME, Lambert PF, Xu X, Buck CB,

703   You J. 2016. Identifying the Target Cells and Mechanisms of Merkel Cell Polyomavirus

704   Infection. Cell Host Microbe 19:775-87.

705   41.   Lee J-O, Russo AA, Pavletich NP. 1998. Structure of the retinoblastoma tumour-

706   suppressor pocket domain bound to a peptide from HPV E7. Nature 391:859-865.

707   42.   Majerciak V, Pripuzova N, Chan C, Temkin N, Specht SI, Zheng Z-M. 2015. Stability of

708   Structured Kaposi's Sarcoma-Associated Herpesvirus ORF57 Protein Is Regulated by

709   Protein Phosphorylation and Homodimerization. J Virol 89:3256-3274.

710   43.   Dyson HJ. 2023. Vital for Viruses: Intrinsically Disordered Proteins. J Mol Biol

711   435:167860.

712   44.   Mishra PM, Verma NC, Rao C, Uversky VN, Nandi CK. 2020. Intrinsically disordered

713   proteins of viruses: Involvement in the mechanism of cell regulation and pathogenesis.

714   Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci 174:1-78.

715   45.   Kast-Woelbern H, Martinho SK, Julio KT, Vazzana AM, Mandagie AE, Jansma AL. 2025.

716   The Use of Intrinsic Disorder and Phosphorylation by Oncogenic Viral Proteins to

717   Dysregulate the Host Cell Cycle Through Interaction with pRb. Viruses 17:835.

46.   Xiang S, Song S, Tang H, Smaill JB, Wang A, Xie H, Lu X. 2021. TANK-binding kinase 1

(TBK1): An emerging therapeutic target for drug discovery. Drug Discov Today 26:2445-

2455.

47.   Sun Y, Revach O-Y, Anderson S, Kessler EA, Wolfe CH, Jenney A, Mills CE, Robitschek

EJ, Davis TGR, Kim S, Fu A, Ma X, Gwee J, Tiwari P, Du PP, Sindurakar P, Tian J,

Mehta A, Schneider AM, Yizhak K, Sade-Feldman M, Lasalle T, Sharova T, Xie H, Liu S,

Michaud WA, Saad-Beretta R, Yates KB, Iracheta-Vellve A, Spetz JKE, Qin X, Sarosiek

KA, Zhang G, Kim JW, Su MY, Cicerchia AM, Rasmussen MQ, Klempner SJ, Juric D, Pai

SI, Miller DM, Giobbie-Hurder A, Chen JH, Pelka K, Frederick DT, Stinson S, Ivanova E,

Aref AR, Paweletz CP, Barbie DA, et al. 2023. Targeting TBK1 to overcome resistance to

cancer immunotherapy. Nature 615:158-167.

48.   Sun Y, Maggs L, Panda A, Wright SJ, Cicerchia AM, Jenney A, Perricone MD, Mills CE,

Cattaneo G, Ventin M, Chen F, Rasmussen MQ, Miranda A, Revach O-Y, Fang J, Fu A,

Bowling PJ, Sharova T, Lawless A, Sorger PK, Bardeesy N, Wang X, Flaherty KT,

Boland GM, Mehta A, Sade-Feldman M, Ferrone CR, Jenkins RW. 2025. TBK1 Targeting

Is Identified as a Therapeutic Strategy to Enhance CAR T-Cell Efficacy Using Patient-

Derived Organotypic Tumor Spheroids. Cancer Immunol Res 13:210-228.

49.   Liu W, Krump NA, Buck CB, You J. 2019. Merkel Cell Polyomavirus Infection and

Detection. J Vis Exp doi:10.3791/58950.

50.   Wang J, Youkharibache P, Zhang D, Lanczycki CJ, Geer RC, Madej T, Phan L, Ward M,

Lu S, Marchler GH, Wang Y, Bryant SH, Geer LY, Marchler-Bauer A. 2020. iCn3D, a

web-based 3D viewer for sharing 1D/2D/3D representations of biomolecular structures.

Bioinformatics 36:131-135.

51.   Wang J, Youkharibache P, Marchler-Bauer A, Lanczycki C, Zhang D, Lu S, Madej T,

Marchler GH, Cheng T, Chong LC, Zhao S, Yang K, Lin J, Cheng Z, Dunn R, Malkaram

SA, Tai C-H, Enoma D, Busby B, Johnson NL, Tabaro F, Song G, Ge Y. 2022. iCn3D:

From Web-Based 3D Viewer to Structural Analysis Tool in Batch Mode. Front Mol Biosci

9.

Figure 1

A

Key:
- WT
- Ψ
- χ
- Φ
- υ
- τ
- σ
- ρ

B

C

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

WT ALTO

LgBiT-LIT
(pcDNA4c)

B

	4c WT	LIT WT	LIT V	
				TBK1 pS172
				TBK1
				ALTO
WT				LgBiT
LIT				
				Xpress (LIT)
				GAPDH

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

inALTO WT   inALTO delLIT

35 —   ALTO

35 —   GAPDH

B

Viral DNA Replication

● - Dox
● + Dox

1.5

1.0

0.5

0.0

inALTO WT   inALTOdelLIT

*   ns

+ Dox / - Dox (%)   54%   95%

C

TBK1

LIT

ALTO

c-Src

STING

Figure S1

A WT Ψ X Φ

Key:
plDDT > 90
90 > plDDT > 70
70 > plDDT > 50
plDDT < 50

υ τ σ ρ ΔTM

B WT Ψ X Φ υ

τ σ ρ ΔTM

C Ψ X Φ υ τ

σ ρ ΔTM

Figure S2

Figure S3

Figure S4

Figure S5

A

B

Figure S6

Figure S7

ELM Name & Description	Matched Sequence	Amino Acid Positions	Motif Type	Probability
DOC_PP2A_B56_1 Docking site for PP2A regulatory subunit B56	LEILPER	115-121	Docking	0.001458
DOC_USP7_MATH_1 USP7 MATH domain binding motif	PLRSL	142-146	Docking	0.01239
LIG_14-3-3_CanoR_1 Canonical Arg-containing phospho-motif mediating interaction with 14-3-3 proteins	RISSAMNHFP	126-135	Ligand binding	0.004477
	RPLRSLR	141-147	Ligand binding	
LIG_LIR_Gen_1 Canonical LIR motif binding to LC3 family proteins to mediate autophagy	EPVYLEILPERM	111-122	Ligand binding	0.003631
MOD_GlcNHglycn Glycosaminoglycan attachment site	SSAM	128-131	Post-translational modification	0.01792
MOD_PKA_2 Secondary preference for PKA-type AGC kinase phosphorylation	GRISSAM	125-131	Post-translational modification	0.009458
MOD_ProDKin_1 Proline-Directed Kinase phosphorylation site	SLRSPPP	145-151	Post-translational modification	0.01543

Figure S8