Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus ORF68 is a DNA binding protein required for viral

genome cleavage and packaging

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Abstract

Herpesviral DNA packaging into nascent capsids requires multiple conserved viral

proteins that coordinate genome encapsidation. Here, we investigated the role of the ORF68

protein of Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), a protein required for viral DNA

encapsidation whose function remains largely unresolved across the herpesviridae. We found

that KSHV ORF68 is expressed with early kinetics and localizes predominantly to viral replication

compartments, although it is dispensable for viral DNA replication and gene expression.

However, in agreement with its proposed role in viral DNA packaging, KSHV-infected cells

lacking ORF68 failed to cleave viral DNA concatemers, accumulated exclusively immature B-

capsids, and released no infectious progeny virions. ORF68 has no predicted domains aside

from a series of putative zinc finger motifs. However, *in vitro* biochemical analyses of purified

ORF68 protein revealed that it robustly binds DNA and is associated with nuclease activity.

These activities provide new insights into the role of KSHV ORF68 in viral genome

encapsidation.

Importance

Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) is the etiologic agent of Kaposi's

sarcoma and several B-cell cancers, causing significant morbidity and mortality in

immunocompromised individuals. A critical step in the production of infectious viral progeny is

the packaging of the newly replicated viral DNA genome into the capsid, which involves

coordination between at least seven herpesviral proteins. While the majority of these

packaging factors have been well studied in related herpesviruses, the role of the KSHV ORF68

protein and its homologs remains unresolved. Here, using a KSHV mutant lacking ORF68, we

confirm its requirement for viral DNA processing and packaging in infected cells. Furthermore,

we show that the purified ORF68 protein directly binds DNA and is associated with a metal-

dependent cleavage activity on double stranded DNA *in vitro*. These activities suggest a novel

role for ORF68 in herpesviral genome processing and encapsidation.

Introduction

Herpesviruses are large, double-stranded DNA viruses with complex virion assembly and

maturation strategies. Following the expression of structural genes, capsids are assembled in

the nucleus, first through the production of fragile procapsids (1). Procapsids are formed by the

binding and orientation of capsid proteins onto a protein scaffold, which is subsequently

digested by the viral protease, forming the more stable B-capsids. B-capsids further mature

upon packaging of the viral genome, which displaces the digested scaffold proteins, resulting in

the mature C-capsid (2). In cases where DNA packaging fails, empty A-capsids lacking both

scaffolding proteins and the viral genome are produced (3).

The process of viral DNA replication generates head-to-tail concatemers, which are

cleaved into unit-length genomes as they are packaged into immature capsids. In alpha and

betaherpesviruses, DNA packaging is coordinated by seven viral proteins, each of which is

essential for both cleavage and packaging of the newly replicated genomes (2). The proteins

required for DNA packaging have been most extensively studied in the alphaherpesvirus Herpes

Simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1), where the essential proteins are UL6, UL15, UL17, UL25, UL28,

UL32, and UL33. UL6 forms a ring-shaped oligomer, which occupies one vertex of the

icosahedral capsid, forming the portal through which the DNA is threaded during both

packaging and unpackaging (4). UL28, UL15, and UL33 form the terminase motor, an ATP-

dependent motor that physically threads the viral genome through the portal complex into the

nascent capsid (5). Of the terminase motor, only UL28 has been shown to directly bind DNA (6).

However, UL15 and its homolog UL89 in betaherpesviruses have been shown to nick DNA

substrates *in vitro* (2, 7). UL17 and UL25 are part of the vertex-specific complex, which binds to

the vertices of the assembled capsid, as well as to the portal complex, thereby aiding docking of

the terminase motor (8, 9). UL32 is the only protein that is required for DNA cleavage and

packaging that lacks a well-defined function (2). However, UL32 contains a number of putative

C-X-X-C type zinc finger domains and mutation of these conserved motifs results in altered di-

sulfide patterns on the viral protease, which is involved in capsid assembly, supporting a role

for UL32 in viral genome encapsidation (10).

Significantly less is known about the DNA packaging process in gammaherpesviruses

such as Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), although each of the packaging

proteins described above are conserved. These include KSHV ORF7 (UL28; terminase subunit),

ORF19 (UL25; vertex-specific complex), ORF29 (UL15; terminase subunit), ORF32 (UL17; vertex-

specific complex), ORF43 (UL6; portal protein), ORF67.5 (UL33; terminase subunit), and ORF68

(UL32; unknown). Cryo-electron microscopy of KSHV capsids indicated that KSHV ORF43 forms

the portal complex and that ORF32 is associated with vertices, consistent with studies in HSV-1

(11, 12).

Given that role ORF68 and its homologs play during viral DNA packaging are largely

unresolved across the herpesviridae, we sought to explore its function in more detail in KSHV-

infected cells and *in vitro*. During lytic KSHV infection, many features of ORF68 were conserved

with its alpha and betaherpesvirus homologs, such as localization to viral replication

compartments, and its requirement for viral genome cleavage, packaging, and infectious virion

production. Interestingly, biochemical analyses of recombinant ORF68 protein purified from

mammalian cells revealed it to be a robust DNA-binding protein that is associated with dsDNA

cleavage activity. These novel findings suggest that ORF68 plays a previously unappreciated role

in KSHV genome processing and encapsidation.

Results

KSHV ORF68 is an early viral protein that localizes to viral replication compartments

Although KSHV ORF68 has not been characterized, its homologs in alpha and

betaherpesviruses are expessed with late kinetics and are involved in viral DNA packaging (10,

13). ORF68 shares 24.8% sequence identity with UL32, its best characterized homolog from

HSV-1, including the five C-X-X-C motifs conserved across all the subfamily homologs (10). To

characterize the expression kinetics and potential functions of KSHV ORF68, we generated a

rabbit polyclonal antibody using recombinant ORF68 protein. We monitored the expression of

ORF68 in KSHV-infected iSLK.BAC16 cells, a commonly used Caki-1 cell line containing a

doxycycline (dox)-inducible version of the major viral lytic transactivator, ORF50 (RTA) (14, 15).

Lytic reactivation of these cells upon dox treatment revealed that ORF68 expression begins as

early as 6 hours post-reactivation and it is robustly expressed by 18 hours (Figure 1a). Its

expression kinetics mimicked those of the KSHV delayed early protein ORF59, and it was not

impacted by treatment with the viral DNA replication inhibitor phosphonoacetic acid (PAA),

which blocks expression of viral late genes such as K8.1 (Figure 1a). Thus, KSHV ORF68 is a

delayed early gene.

ORF68 has been alternatively annotated as a 467 amino acid (aa) protein and as a

longer, 545 aa protein containing a 78 aa N-terminal extension (ORF68-Extended) (Figure 1c).

However, on a western blot of iSLK.BAC16 lysate, ORF68 migrated as a single band at the

predicted molecular weight (MW) of the 467 aa form (52kDa). To confirm that the 467 aa

version was the expressed form in KSHV-infected cells, we cloned both versions into a

mammalian expression vector and compared their migration pattern in transfected HEK293T

cells to endogenous ORF68 in lytically-reactivated iSLK.BAC16 cells and the KSHV-infected B cell

line TREx-BCBL1. Indeed, in both cell lines, only the 467 aa form of ORF68 was detected (Figure

1b).

We next evaluated the subcellular localization of ORF68 in reactivated iSLK.BAC16 and

TREx-BCBL1 cells using immunofluorescence assays with the ORF68 antibody. To identify

infected cells, cells were co-stained with an antibody against the viral polymerase processivity

factor ORF59, which accumulates in viral replication compartments in the nucleus (16). We

observed no ORF68 staining in unreactivated or ORF59-negative cells, but in reactivated cells

ORF68 was present in both the cytoplasm and, more prominently, in the nucleus. In the

cytoplasm, it was primarily diffuse, but also localized to some randomly distributed puncta and

larger aggregates close to the nucleus. In the nucleus, ORF68 was localized predominantly in

viral replication compartments (Figure 2).

KSHV lacking ORF68 maintains viral DNA replication and late gene expression, but does not

produce infectious virions

To evaluate the role of ORF68 in the viral replication cycle, we generated an ORF68-

deficient virus (ORF68^{PTC}) using the BAC16 Red Recombinase system (14) by inserting two

premature termination codons 15 nt downstream of the translation start site. This virus was

used to establish a latently-infected cell line in iSLK cells. To ensure that any observed

phenotypes were not due to secondary mutations, we also engineered the corresponding

mutant rescue virus (ORF68^{PTC}-MR) (Figure 3a). Despite lacking ORF68 protein, the ORF68^{PTC}

virus expressed both the delayed early protein ORF59 and the late protein K8.1 at levels similar

to both the unmodified WT BAC16 KHSV and the ORF68^{PTC}-MR virus (Figure 3b). Furthermore,

qPCR analyses of viral DNA revealed no significant difference in DNA replication between any of

the viruses (Figure 3c). We then monitored production of infectious progeny virions using a

supernatant transfer assay, in which the supernatant from reactivated infected iSLK cells is

filtered and transferred to target cells. Because the BAC16-derived KSHV contains a virally-

encoded, constitutively-expressed GFP reporter gene, infected recipient cells can be quantified

by GFP expression using flow cytometry. Here, ORF68^{PTC} showed a marked defect, as no virus

production was detectable, while both WT and ORF68^{PTC}-MR infected cells produced sufficient

virus to infect nearly 100% of target cells (Figure 3d). Collectively, these data indicate that KSHV

ORF68 is essential for a late stage event in the viral replication cycle.

In the absence of ORF68, KSHV DNA is not cleaved after replication

The above results, together with studies of alpha and betaherpesvirus ORF68 homologs

(10, 13), suggested a role for KSHV ORF68 in viral DNA encapsidation. We therefore established

an assay similar to what has been used in other herpesviruses to measure packaging-associated

KSHV DNA cleavage, which occurs within the 801 bp GC-rich terminal repeat (TR) sequences

present in 20 – 40 tandem copies in the KSHV genome (17) (Figure 4a). Briefly, DNA was

isolated from infected iSLK cells and the TR sequences were released by digesting the DNA with

PstI-HF, which cleaves frequently within viral (and host) DNA, but not within the KSHV TRs. This

should generate a ladder of TR sequences, representing the collection of individual cleavage

events in the TRs that occur during packaging, which can be visualized by Southern blotting

with a DIG-labeled TR probe. As expected, we observed a robust increase in the high MW

uncleaved TRs following lytic reactivation of each sample, indicative of viral genome replication

(Figure 4b). However, DNA from ORF68[PTC] infected cells showed no evidence of TR cleavage,

unlike DNA from WT and ORF68[PTC]-MR infected cells, which displayed the expected laddering

phenotype (Figure 4b).

KSHV ORF68[PTC] cannot progress past the B-capsid stage of virion assembly

During herpesvirus assembly, immature B-capsids are initially formed that contain

internal scaffolding proteins, which are subsequently proteolytically cleaved and extruded

during the process of DNA packaging (18, 19). This yields either mature, DNA-containing C-

capsids, or, in the case of unsuccessful DNA packaging, empty A-capsids (20). To visualize the

contribution of ORF68 towards capsid maturation, we performed transmission electron

microscopy on fixed samples of lytically-reactivated iSLK cells containing either WT or ORF68[PTC]

KSHV. In the nuclei of WT KSHV infected cells, we observed A, B, and C capsids (Figure 5a, b). In

contrast, ORF68[PTC] infected cells contained exclusively B capsids (Figure 5a, b), indicating that

KSHV DNA packaging is not initiated in the absence of ORF68.

ORF68 binds DNA with high affinity *in vitro* and is associated with metal-dependent nuclease

activity

In order to study the biochemical activity of ORF68 as it relates to DNA packaging, we

sought to generate pure ORF68 protein. Our attempts to isolate recombinant ORF68 from *E.*

coli bacteria, *Pichia pastoris* yeast, and *SF9* insect cells did not yield properly folded protein

(data not shown). Thus, we instead purified TwinStrep-tagged ORF68 from transiently

transfected HEK293T cells by binding to Strep-TactinXT resin, followed by separation of ORF68

from the TwinStrep tag by PreScission protease cleavage and subsequent size exclusion

chromatography (Figure 6a). Mass spectrometry of the purified sample detected ORF68 but no

other contaminating proteins (data not shown). Notably, ORF68 eluted from gel filtration

columns as a ~275 kDa oligomer (based on injected standards) rather than as a monomer

(Figure 6b).

Given the failed DNA cleavage and packaging phenotypes associated with the ORF68[PTC]

virus, we hypothesized that ORF68 might directly bind the viral genome to help direct DNA

packaging. We therefore used electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) to monitor binding

of purified ORF68 to a DNA probe containing the sequence of the KSHV TR *in vitro*. Indeed,

ORF68 efficiently bound DNA with an apparent K_d of (53.34 ± 2.11) nM (Figure 7a, b). The

binding was cooperative, with a Hill coefficient of 1.88 ± 0.12 (Figure 7b). This is comparable to

the 72 nM K_d of KSHV LANA binding to the terminal repeat (21). Multiple higher-order binding

events occurred at increased protein concentrations, resulting in several discrete bands of

protein-bound DNA (Figure 7a). Although this *in vitro* DNA-binding is robust, it does not appear

to be specific, as similar length probes of varying GC content from disparate sources were

bound with similar affinity (data not shown).

ORF68 has no identifiable domains aside from several predicted zinc finger motifs that

appear to be important for the structural integrity of the protein (22). However, we noted that

in the presence of Mg^{2+}, the TR probe or other plasmid DNA was degraded upon incubation

with ORF68, suggesting that it may possess nuclease activity (Figure 7c, data not shown).

Nuclease activity required metal ions for catalysis, with a preference for Mg^{2+} or Mn^{2+},

drastically reduced activity with Co^{2+} or Ni^{2+}, and no activity with Ca^{2+} or Zn^{2+} (Figure 7d).

Reactions were sensitive to EDTA or similar metal-chelating agents, consistent with our

observations that EDTA-containing buffers caused the precipitation of ORF68. Although our

mass spectrometry analysis of purified ORF68 did not detect contaminating peptides, at

present we cannot formally rule out the possibility that trace levels of a cellular nuclease co-

purified with ORF68, rather than nuclease activity being an intrinsic feature of ORF68. However,

given that ORF68 contains putative zinc finger motifs, we reasoned that in addition to inhibition

by EDTA, the associated nuclease activity should be sensitive to the zinc-specific chelator

N,N,N',N'-tetrakis(2-pyridinylmethyl)-1,2-ethanediamine (TPEN), which has high affinity for Zn^{2+}

(K_d= 2.6 x 10^{-16} M), but very low affinity for Mg^{2+} (K_d= 2.6 x 10^{-2} M) and other divalent cations

(23-25). Indeed, the addition of TPEN prevented degradation of DNA in the presence of ORF68,

but not DNase I, a nuclease that requires Mg^{2+} for catalysis but does not contain any structural

zinc (Figure 7e). Collectively, these data demonstrate that KSHV ORF68 is a zinc finger-

containing protein that can bind DNA and is associated with a zinc-dependent DNase activity.

Discussion

Our data firmly establish that KSHV ORF68 is essential for genome encapsidation in

infected cells, and further suggest novel roles for purified ORF68 protein in DNA binding and

cleavage. This is the first demonstration of direct DNA binding by a DNA packaging-associated

protein in gammaherpesviruses, and the ORF68-associated nuclease activity suggests a

previously unappreciated function for this protein, which may relate to viral genome processing

and encapsidation. Such a role would be consistent with the defects in viral TR cleavage, DNA

packaging, and infectious virion formation we observed in cells infected with the ORF68[PTC]

virus. It is further supported by our TEM analysis of infected cells, which showed that in the

absence of ORF68, DNA encapsidation was not initiated, as evidenced by the absence of A- and

C-capsids. Finally, our data are in line with phenotypes observed upon deletion of the ORF68

homologs in HSV-1 (10), HCMV (13) and Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) (26). Indeed, in EBV, deletion

of this BFLF1 gene was used to generate defective viral particles for use in vaccine development

(26).

The ORF68 homolog in HSV-1 (UL32) was recently shown to be involved in modulation of

disulfide bond formation during procapsid formation, which requires the presence of the

conserved C-X-X-C motifs (10). Deletion of individual cysteines within four of the five motifs

prevented complementation of a UL32 deletion mutant virus, and in the absence of UL32 the

disulfide bond profiles of other viral proteins were altered. In ORF68, however, the C-X-X-C

motifs appear to be important for its structural integrity, as chelation of Zn^{2+} causes ORF68 to

precipitate during purification in a manner that suggests unfolding (unpublished observations).

Thus, an important future challenge will be to resolve if these two functions are related, or if

specific roles for UL32 and ORF68 have diverged between the alpha- and gammaherpesviruses.

In the KSHV episome, the terminal repeats are present as 20 to 40 copies of a highly

repetitive ~800bp, 85% GC sequence (27). Unlike related herpesviruses, the packaging and

cleavage signals in the KSHV terminal repeats are unknown. However, by using a probe

generated from the entire repeat we could capture terminal repeats of any length. In a WT

KSHV infection, this yields a ladder-like cleavage pattern reflective of the fact that the genome

is replicated as head-to-tail concatemers, separated by an arbitrary number of terminal repeats.

While each genome should be cut only once at each end during packaging, the specific number

of repeats left at each genome terminus is variable (28, 29). This is in contrast to viruses lacking

ORF68, which displayed WT levels of DNA replication by both qPCR and Southern blotting, but

no apparent resolution of the amplified concatemers into unit-length genomes. These data

reinforce the hypothesis that KSHV ORF68 is not required for genome replication but is integral

to the process of DNA encapsidation.

Given the stage at which ORF68^{PTC} virus fails during virion maturation, we hypothesized

that ORF68 may interact with the viral genome to promote DNA packaging. Indeed, purified

ORF68 robustly bound the prototypical terminal repeat subunit, with an observed K_d of ~50nM.

This is comparable to the strength of the TR interaction for the KSHV latency-associated

episome tethering protein LANA, strongly suggesting that viral DNA binding is a biologically

relevant feature of ORF68 (21). However, it is important to note that *in vitro*, the DNA binding

activity of ORF68 does not have apparent sequence specificity. In cells, it is possible that

sequence specificity is conferred by other viral (or cellular) factors. Alternatively, given that

host DNA is largely excluded from replication compartments, sequence specific DNA binding

may not be required. It is also possible that the DNA binding activity participates in a distinct

facet of the viral lifecycle, although we did not detect any defects in the ORF68^{PTC} virus prior to

encapsidation. The ~800bp terminal repeat subunits are somewhat long for traditional EMSA

probes and as such, multiple binding events could be observed. Furthermore, binding of ORF68

to DNA was cooperative, as is frequently observed for DNA binding proteins (30). This

cooperativity may indicate that ORF68 binds the DNA probe at multiple sites, that the binding

of the first ORF68 molecule alters the DNA conformation in a way that promotes additional

ORF68 binding, or simply reflect our observation that ORF68 exists as an oligomer in solution.

In addition to DNA binding, we made the unexpected observation that in the presence

of the divalent cations Mg^{2+} or Mn^{2+}, incubation with ORF68 caused degradation of DNA. These

cations are commonly used by nucleases (31), and future studies are aimed at exploring

residues in ORF68 that could serve to coordinate divalent cations. Our robust purification

scheme, coupled with the absence of any detectable co-purifying peptides by mass

spectrometry and the fact that addition of the zinc-chelator TPEN specifically blocked ORF68-

associated nuclease activity suggest that the activity is intrinsic to ORF68. However, aside from

the zinc finger motifs, no predicted domains or structural information is currently available for

ORF68. Thus, a key challenge will be to establish if and how ORF68 promotes DNA cleavage in

cells. Formal proof of nuclease activity will ultimately require structural data to identify putative

catalytic domain(s), which should enable isolation of point mutants to be tested for DNA

cleavage. Similar to the DNA binding activity, our *in vitro* cleavage reactions do not capture TR-

specific targeting, as we found that other non-viral DNA was similarly susceptible to ORF68-

associated degradation (unpublished observations). This might suggest that other components

of the packaging machinery are required to confer specificity or, alternatively, that the putative

nuclease activity is involved in an ORF68 function independent of DNA encapsidation.

While seven herpesviral proteins are required for proper DNA encapsidation, only two

have been shown to directly act on DNA. A crystal structure of a fragment of the HSV-1 UL15

terminase motor protein, which is homologous to KSHV ORF29, revealed that it adopts an

RNase H-like fold and possess non-specific DNA nicking *in vitro* (7, 32). Purified HSV-1 UL28,

another terminase motor protein and the homolog of KSHV ORF7, has also been shown to bind

terminal repeat DNA *in vitro* (6). It has high specificity for certain terminal repeat DNA probes,

but only after heat treatment of the DNA, which causes them to adopt non-duplex structures

(6). This suggests that the UL28-DNA interaction is structure dependent, in contrast to KSHV

ORF68, which bound duplex DNA with no apparent sequence specificity or requirement for

higher order structures. Whether the UL15 and UL28 functions are conserved in their KSHV

homologs ORF29 and ORF7, and how KSHV ORF68 mechanistically contributes to DNA

encapsidation remain to be established.

Finally, although the majority of ORF68 is concentrated in replication compartments, the

protein also localizes within discrete puncta in the cytoplasm, as well as in larger aggregates

adjacent to the nucleus. While we hypothesize that the larger structures represent unfolded

protein in aggresomes, the smaller punctate structures are suggestive of a distinct function for

ORF68 in the cytoplasm, possibly unrelated to its role in packaging. Notably, HSV-1 UL32 was

also shown to localize to the cytoplasm, particularly late in infection, where it forms perinuclear

foci (10). Given the frequently multifunctional roles of viral proteins, it will be of interest to

explore possible additional cytoplasmic activities of ORF68.

Methods

Plasmids

TwinStrep-PreScission-ORF68 was cloned into the pHEK293 UltraExpression I vector

(Clontech) digested with XhoI and SalI. ORF68 was amplified with the primers 5'-

TGGAATTCTGCAGATATGTTTGTTCCCTGGCAACTCG-3'   and   5'-

GCCACTGTGCTGGATTCAAGCGTACAAGTGTGACGTCT-3'   while   TwinStrep-PreScission   was

amplified   using   the   primers   5'-

CCTCCCCGGGCTCGAATGAGTGCGTGGAGTCATCCTCAATTCGAGAAAGGTG-3'   and   5'-

GGGCCCCTGGAACAGAACTTCCAGTCCGGATTTTTCGAACTGCGGG-3'. The two fragments were

first assembled by PCR and then inserted into the vector by InFusion cloning (Clontech).

ORF68 and ORF68-Extended were cloned into pCDNA4 (ThermoFisher) digested with

EcoRV   using   5'-TGGAATTCTGCAGATATGTTTGTTCCCTGGCAACTCG-3'   for   ORF68,   5'-

TGGAATTCTGCAGATATGTCACGAGGCAGAAGCTGG-3'   for   ORF68-Extended,   and   5'-

GCCACTGTGCTGGATTCAAGCGTACAAGTGTGACGTCT-3' as the reverse primer for both. PCR

products were inserted into the vector using InFusion cloning.

Cell Lines

HEK293T (ATCC CRL-3216) cells were maintained in DMEM +10% FBS. HEK293T-ORF68

cells were maintained in DMEM + 10% FBS, 325 µg/ml zeocin. iSLK.BAC16 (14) cells were

maintained in DMEM + 10% FBS, 1 mg/ml hygromycin B, and 1 µg/ml puromycin. TREx-BCBL1

(33) cells were maintained in RPMI 1640 + 20% FBS.

Viral mutagenesis and infection studies

The KSHV ORF68 Premature Termination Codon (ORF68[PTC]) mutant and corresponding

mutant rescue (MR) were engineered using the scarless Red recombination system in BAC16

GS1783 *E. coli* as previously described (14), except using two gBlocks (IDT) to introduce the

mutation. Each gBlock contained half of the kanamycin resistance cassette, as well as the

desired mutation, and were joined by short overlap extension PCR before being used as the

linear insert in the established protocol.

The BAC16 ORF68 mutant and MR were purified using the NucleoBond BAC 100 kit

(Clontech). iSLK cell lines latently infected with the KSHV ORF68[PTC] virus were then established

by co-culture of the relevant BAC16-containing HEK293T cells with uninfected target iSLK-Puro

cells. HEK293T cells constitutively expressing ORF68 (HEK293T-ORF68) were transfected with 12

µg of BAC16 containing ORF68[PTC] or MR using linear polyethylenimine (PEI, MW ~25,000) at a

1:3 DNA:PEI ratio. The following day, the cells were trypsinized and mixed 1:1 with iSLK-puro

cells, then treated with 30 nM 12-O-Tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate (TPA) and 300 nM

sodium butyrate for 4 days to induce lytic replication. Cells were then incubated with selection

media containing 300 µg/ml hygromycin B, 1 µg/ml puromycin, and 250 µg/ml G418. Media

was replaced every other day for ~2 weeks, gradually increasing the hygromycin B

concentration to 1 mg/ml until there were no HEK293T cells remaining and the iSLK cells were

green and replicating.

For induction studies, BAC16-containing iSLK cells were treated with 1 µg/ml doxycycline

and 1 mM sodium butyrate, and TREx-BCBL1 cells were induced with doxycycline (1 ug/ml) and

TPA (25 ng/ml) for the indicated amount of time. Virion production from reactivated iSLK cells

was measured using supernatant transfer assays at 72 hours post induction. The supernatant

was filtered through a 0.45 µM PES filter, then 2 ml were mixed with 1×10^6 freshly trypsinized

HEK293T cells. The cell mixture was placed into a 6 well plate and centrifuged at 1,200 x g for 2

hours at 32˚C. The following day, cells were trypsinized, fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, then

analyzed for GFP expression by flow cytometry (BD Csampler, BD Biosciences). Data was

analyzed using FlowJo v10.

Generation of HEK293T cells stably expressing ORF68

HEK293T-ORF68 cells were generated by cloning ORF68 into pLJM1 (a gift from David

Sabatini (Addgene plasmid #19319) (34)) in which the puromycin resistance had been

exchanged for zeocin. The vector was digested with AgeI and EcoRI (New England Biolabs) and

ORF68   was   amplified   by   PCR   using   primers   5'-

CGCTAGCGCTACCGGATGTTTGTTCCCTGGCAACTCGG-3'   and   5'-

TCGAGGTCGAGAATTTCAAGCGTACAAGTGTGACGTCTG-3' and inserted using T4 DNA Ligase

(NEB). 1.6 µg of this plasmid was co-transfected into HEK293T cells along with the lentiviral

packaging plasmids pMD2.G (0.5 µg) and psPAX2 (1.3 µg) (gifts from Didier Trono (Addgene

plasmid #12259 and #12260)) using PEI. 48 hours after transfection, the supernatants were

collected, filtered through a 0.45 µm PES filter, diluted 1:4 (supernatant:media) in serum-free

DMEM containing 8 µg/ml of polybrene, and added to the wells of a 6 well plate containing

1×10^6 HEK293T cells per well. The plates were centrifuged for 2 hours at 1,200 x g (32˚C),

incubated overnight, and the media replaced with fresh DMEM (10% FBS) containing 325 µg/ml

zeocin until no further cell death was observed, roughly two weeks.

Western blots and antibody production

Cells were lysed in protein lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 3 mM

$MgCl_2$, 10% glycerol, 0.5% NP-40, cOmplete EDTA-free Protease Inhibitors [Roche]) and clarified

by centrifugation at 20,000 x *g* for 10 min at 4°C. Lysates were resolved by SDS-PAGE and

western blotted with rabbit anti-ORF68 (1:5000), rabbit anti-ORF59 (1:10,000), rabbit anti-K8.1

(1:10,000), rabbit anti-histone H3 (1:3000, Cell Signaling 4499S), or mouse anti-GAPDH (1:5000,

Abcam ab8245). Rabbit anti-ORF68, -ORF59, and -K8.1 was produced by Pocono Rabbit Farm &

Laboratory by immunizing rabbits against MBP-ORF68, -ORF59, or -K8.1 (gifts of Denise Whitby,

(35)). Sera was harvested and used directly for ORF59 and K8.1, while ORF68-specific antibodies

were isolated by first collecting antibodies that bound an MBP-ORF68 column, followed by

removal of non-specific antibodies on an MBP column. Both selection columns were generated

using the AminoLink Plus Immobilization Kit (ThermoFisher).

Immunofluorescence assays

Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, permeabilized with ice-cold methanol at -

20°C for 20 min, then blocked with BSA blocking buffer (PBS, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% Tween20,

3% BSA) for 30 minutes at room temperature. They were then incubated with rabbit anti-ORF68

and mouse anti-ORF59 (Advanced Biotechnologies) antibodies (diluted 1:100 in blocking buffer)

overnight at 4°C, washed with PBS, and incubated with secondary antibody (AlexaFluor594 or

DyLight650, 1:1000 in BSA blocking buffer) for 1 h at 37°C, and mounted using VectaShield

HardSet with DAPI (ThermoFisher). Images were acquired on an EVOS FL inverted fluorescent

microscope (ThermoFisher).

DNA isolation and qPCR

iSLK-BAC16 cells were incubated with 5x proteinase K digestion buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl

pH 7.4, 500 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 2.5% SDS) and digested with proteinase K (80 µg/ml)

overnight at 55˚C. The gDNA was isolated using Zymo Quick gDNA Miniprep Kit according to the

manufacturer's instructions.

Quantitative PCR was performed on the isolated DNA using iTaq Universal SYBR Green

Supermix on a QuantStudio3 Real-Time PCR machine. DNA levels were quantified using relative

standard curves with primers specific for KSHV ORF57 (5'-GGTGTGTCTGACGCCGTAAAG-3' and

5'-CCTGTCCGTAAACACCTCCG-3') or a region in the GAPDH promoter (5'-

TACTAGCGGTTTTACGGGCG-3' and 5'-TCGAACAGGAGGAGCAGAGAGCGA-3'). The relative

genome numbers were normalized to GAPDH to account for loading differences and to

uninduced samples to account for starting genome copy number.

Protein purification

TwinStrep-PreScission-ORF68 was transfected using PEI into 50 90% confluent 15 cm

plates of HEK293T cells for 48h. Cells were lysed in 5 ml of lysis buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0,

300 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol, 0.1% CHAPS, 1 µg/ml avidin, cOmplete EDTA-free

protease inhibitors [Sigma-Aldrich]) per 1 g of cell pellet and rotated at 4˚C for an additional 30

minutes. The viscosity was reduced by sonication, whereupon debris was removed by

centrifugation at 20,000 x g (4˚C) for 30 min followed by filtration through a 0.45 µm PES filter

with a glass pre-filter (Millipore). Lysate was passed three times over a gravity column

containing Strep-Tactin XT Superflow slurry (IBA) then washed with 5 column volumes of strep

running buffer (100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, 5% glycerol, 0.1% CHAPS).

ORF68 was eluted by rotating the column overnight in HRV 3C Protease (Millipore) at a 1:100

Protease:ORF68 ratio in buffer containing 2 mM DTT, then concentrated to ~500 μL using a 30

kDa cut-off Centriprep spin concentrator (Millipore). The concentrated eluate was centrifuged

at 20,000 x g for 10 min to remove precipitates and injected onto a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex

200 pg gel filtration column (GE Healthcare), previously equilibrated with Gel Filtration buffer

(50 mM HEPES pH 7.6, 100 mM NaCl, 100 mM KCl, 5% glycerol, 0.1% CHAPS). Gel filtration was

performed using an AKTA Pure FPLC (GE Healthcare). Fractions resulting from the gel filtration

were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and staining with colloidal Coomassie (36). Fractions containing

ORF68 were pooled and concentrated as before, until the total concentration was ~2 mg/mL as

evaluated by absorbance at 280 nm. The concentrated protein was injected into a 20 kDa cut-

off Slide-A-Lyzer dialysis cassette (ThermoFisher) and dialyzed against storage buffer (Gel

Filtration buffer lacking CHAPS). Dialyzed protein was diluted to 1 mg/ml, aliquoted, and snap-

frozen in liquid nitrogen before being stored at -80°C.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

Single-subunit terminal repeat DNA probes were generated by digesting pK8TR (a gift of

the Kaye lab (17)) with AscI overnight. The resulting cleavage products were separated on an

agarose gel and the 800bp band was excised, isolated from agarose, and purified further by

phenol:chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation.

EMSA assays were assembled on ice in gel shift buffer (25 mM HEPES pH 7.6, 50 mM

NaCl, 50 mM KCl, 0.1 mg/ml BSA, 0.05% CHAPS, 10% glycerol) with 5 nM probe and 2-fold

dilutions of ORF68 ranging from 1.95 nM to 1000 nM. Once assembled, the reactions were

incubated at 30˚C for 30 minutes. Samples were directly loaded onto a 3.5% 29:1

polyacrylamide:bisacrylamide native gel containing 45 mM Tris-borate pH 8.3, 10% glycerol,

which was degassed thoroughly before polymerization. Samples were separated by

electrophoresis at 250V for 1 hour at 4˚C in pre-chilled 0.5X TB (45 mM Tris-borate pH 8.3). Tris-

borate buffer was used in lieu of TBE because ORF68 precipitates in the presence of EDTA. The

native polyacrylamide gel was cast to a final concentration of 0.5X Tris-borate, 10% glycerol,

and was degassed thoroughly before polymerization. Following the electrophoresis, the gel was

removed from the running cassette and stained with SYBRgold (ThermoFisher) in 0.5X TB for 30

minutes, rocking at room temperature and protected from light. Staining solution was removed

by briefly washing with fresh 0.5X TB and the gel was imaged on a ChemiDoc Touch (Bio-rad).

All bands were quantified using ImageLab v6.0 (Bio-rad) and percent bound probe was

determined by dividing shifted band intensity by the total intensity of all bands in that lane.

Binding curves were generated using Prism v7 (GraphPad) by non-linear regression fit using

least-squares. Shown data represents three technical replicates performed on different days.

Nuclease assays

The EMSA probe was also used for nuclease assays and was produced as described

above. Reactions were assembled in nuclease buffer (25 mM HEPES pH 7.6, 50 mM NaCl, 50

mM KCl, 0.1 mg/ml BSA, 2.5 mM MgCl$_2$) with 1 nM DNA probe and 2-fold dilutions of ORF68

ranging from 9.77 to 5000 nM. The reactions were incubated at 37˚C overnight. The following

day, reactions were quenched using stop buffer (4 M urea, 50 mM EDTA, 1 mM CaCl$_2$, 0.8 U

proteinase K [New England Biolabs], 1x Purple Loading dye [New England Biolabs]; final

concentrations) and incubating at room temperature for 30 minutes. The samples were then

loaded onto a denaturing polyacrylamide gel (8 M Urea, 4.5% 29:1 acrylamide:bisacrylamide,

90 mM Tris-borate pH 8.3, 2 mM EDTA, degassed before polymerization), which had been pre-

run at 200V for 30 minutes in 1X TBE to evenly heat the gel. The samples were separated at

200V for 45 minutes before being removed from the running cassette and stained with

SYBRgold in 1X TBE for 30 minutes at room temperature, protected from light. Gels were

visualized using a ChemiDoc Touch (Bio-Rad). Metal-dependence tests were performed as

described but changing the 2.5 mM $MgCl_2$ to the chloride salts of the indicated divalent cations.

TPEN-treatment was performed as described but protein was treated with either TPEN in 100%

ethanol (1 mM), mock treated with 100% ethanol, or EDTA (50 mM) for 10 minutes on ice prior

to adding the DNA substrate. DNaseI (New England Biolabs) was diluted to 0.02U in ORF68

storage buffer before addition to reactions.

Southern blotting

BAC16.iSLK cells were harvested in proteinase K digestion buffer and incubated

overnight with proteinase K (80 µg/ml). DNA was isolated by phenol:chloroform extraction and

ethanol precipitation, then resuspended in TE buffer. DNA (10 µg) was digested with PstI-HF

(New England Biolabs) overnight then separated by electrophoresis in a 0.7% agarose 1x TBE

gel stained with SYBRsafe. The DNA was transferred to a NYTRAN-N membrane (GE Healthcare)

by capillary action in 20x SSC overnight and crosslinked to the membrane in a StrataLinker 2400

(Stratagene) using the AutoUV setting.

The membrane was treated according to the DIG High Prime DNA Labeling and

Detection Starter Kit II (Roche) following the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, the

membrane was hybridized at 42˚C in EasyHyb Buffer with a DIG-labeled linear terminal repeat

subunit derived from AscI (New England Biolabs) digested pK8TR, which was labeled according

to kit instructions. Following overnight hybridization, the membrane was washed twice with 2X

SSC (+0.1% SDS) at room temperature and then twice with 0.5X SSC (+0.1% SDS) at 68˚C. Using

supplied reagents, the blot was then blocked, incubated with anti-DIG-AP antibody, and

visualized on a ChemiDoc Touch (Bio-Rad).

Electron microscopy

iSLK.BAC16 WT or ORF68[PTC]-infected cells were induced for 48 hours as described

above. Cells were washed once with PBS and fixed with 2% glutaraldehyde, 4%

paraformaldehyde in 100 mM sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2 for 10 minutes at room

temperature. Fixative was removed and cells were scraped into 2% glutaraldehyde in 100 mM

sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2 and evenly resuspended by pipetting. Cells were then washed

with 1% osmium tetroxide, 0.8% ferricyanide in 100 mM sodium cacodylate buffer, pH 7.2,

before being treated with 1% uranyl acetate and dehydrated with increasing concentrations of

acetone. Samples were then infiltrated and embedded in resin, from which 70 nm sections

were cut on a Reichert-Jung microtome. Sections were picked up on copper mesh grids coated

with 0.5% formvar, post-stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate, and examined using an FEI

Tecnai 12 transmission electron microscope.

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Figure 1

Characterization of the expression of KSHV ORF68. (A) Western blot showing the expression

kinetics of ORF68 relative to the early protein ORF59 and the late protein K8.1 in iSLK.BAC16

cells post reactivation with doxycycline (dox). GAPDH serves as a loading control. (B) Anti-

ORF68 western blot of lysates of HEK293T cells transfected with plasmids expressing either the

extended (ORF68-Extended) or shorter form of ORF68, next to lysates of lytically reactivated

iSLK.BAC16 and TREx-BCBL1 cells. Different amounts of lysate were loaded in each lane to

account for differing ORF68-expression levels. (C) Diagram showing the genomic locus of

ORF68, showing the two annotated forms, which differ by a 78 amino acid (aa) N-terminal

extension.

Figure 2

ORF68 localizes within replication compartments and in cytoplasmic puncta of KSHV infected

cells. Reactivated and unreactivated BAC16.iSLK and TREx-BCBL1 cells were stained with

antibodies to ORF68 (red), the viral replication compartment marker ORF59 (green), and DAPI

(blue). The far-right panel shows the merged image.

Figure 3

Characterization of the ORF68-deficient (ORF68^{PTC}) mutant virus. (A) Diagram depicting the

genetic locus of ORF68 and the mutations inserted into the ORF68^{PTC} virus. (B) Western blots

showing expression of the early ORF59 protein and the late K8.1 protein in WT, ORF68^{PTC}, and

ORF68^{PTC}-MR viruses. Histone H3 served as a loading control. (C) DNA replication was measured

by qPCR of the viral genome before and after induction of the lytic cycle. (D) Progeny virion

production was assayed by supernatant transfer and flow cytometry of target cells.

Figure 4

ORF68^{PTC} virus displays a genome cleavage defect. (A) Diagram depicting the DNA cleavage

assay protocol and the expected TR DNA laddering phenotype (or lack thereof) upon infection

with WT or ORF68^{PTC} virus. (B) Southern blot of the PstI-HF digested DNA with a TR probe from

cells infected with WT, ORF68^{PTC}, or ORF68^{PTC}-MR virus.

Figure 5

Transmission electron microscopy of WT and ORF68^{PTC} KSHV-infected cells. (A) Representative

images of the nuclei of iSLK cells infected with WT or ORF68^{PTC} KSHV. Boxed regions are shown

to the right at higher magnification to better visualize virion morphology. (B) Representative

images of individual capsids observed in iSLK cells infected with WT or ORF68^{PTC} KSHV, grouped

by their maturation stage. Only B-capsids were observed in cells infected with ORF68^{PTC} KSHV.

Figure 6

Purification of recombinant ORF68 from transiently transfected HEK293T cells. (A) Collodial

coomassie-stained gel demonstrating the purity and molecular weight (~52 kDa) of ORF68

eluted from the s200 gel filtration column. Fractions containing ORF68 were pooled,

concentrated, and dialyzed into storage buffer; a sample of which was loaded in the final lane.

(B) Absorbance trace of the s200 gel filtration column, measured at 280 nm. The first peak

represents the void elution at 45.52 ml and the second peak represents ORF68 at 60.35 ml.

Figure 7

Purified recombinant ORF68 shows robust DNA binding and is associated with nuclease activity.

(A) Representative EMSA showing increasing amounts of ORF68 binding to the subunit-length

TR DNA probe. (B) Binding curve of ORF68 to DNA derived from quantification of three

technical replicates of the EMSA, yielding an observed K_d of (53.34 ± 2.11) nM with a Hill

coefficient of 1.88 ± 0.12. (C) Nuclease assay with increasing amounts of ORF68, incubated with

an ~800bp TR probe in the presence or absence of EDTA. (D) Analysis of TR probe degradation

in the presence of purified ORF68 upon addition of the indicated metal. (E) Gel comparing

degradation of the TR probe in the presence of purified ORF68 or DNaseI +/- 1mM TPEN or 50

mM EDTA.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

72 Hour Induction

KSHV Episome

20-40x TR

Replication

DNA Isolation

DNA Cleaved by Virus

DNA Not Cleaved by Virus

PstI-HF Digestion

PstI-HF Sites

PstI-HF Sites PstI-HF Sites

Southern Blotting

Uncleaved TR

Cleaved TR

B

WT   ORF68^PTC   ORF68^PTC-MR

Induction: ○ ●   ○ ●   ○ ●

kb

10.0—
8.0—

6.0—
5.0—
4.0—

3.0—

2.0—

1.5—

1.2—

Uncleaved TR

Cleaved TR

αDIG-AP

Figure 5

A

WT KSHV

ORF68^PTC KSHV

B

A-Capsid:

B-Capsid:

C-Capsid:

WT KSHV

B-Capsid:

ORF68^PTC KSHV

Figure 6

Figure 7

A

ORF68: ○ ⟶ (increasing)

5 nM DNA: ● ● ● ● ● ● ● ● ● ● ● ● ○

Bound DNA

Unbound DNA

SYBR Gold-Stained

B

EMSA Quantification

K_d = 53.34 ± 2.11 nM

n_H = 1.88 ± 0.12

% Probe Bound vs ORF68 (nM)

C

ORF68: ⟶ (increasing)

50 mM EDTA: ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ●

SYBR Gold-Stained

D

2.5mM Metal: Mg²⁺ None Mg²⁺ Mn²⁺ Co²⁺ Ca²⁺ Ni²⁺ Zn²⁺

5µM ORF68: ○ ● ● ● ● ● ● ●

SYBR Gold-Stained

E

No Enzyme | DNase I | ORF68

1mM TPEN: ○ ○ ● ○ ○ ● ○

50mM EDTA: ○ ○ ○ ● ○ ○ ●

SYBR Gold-Stained