Recombination between co-infecting herpesviruses occurs where replication compartments coalesce

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Running title:

HSV-1 Recombination at colaescing replication compartments

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Abstract

Recombination between co-infecting herpesvirus DNA genomes is an important process affecting viral population diversity and evolution. Each herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1) replication compartment (RC) derives from a single incoming genome and maintains a specific territory within the nucleus. This raises intriguing questions about where and when co-infecting viral genomes interact. To study the spatiotemporal requirements for inter-genomic recombination, we developed an assay with dual-color fluorescence *in situ* hybridization enabling detection of homologous recombination (HR) between different co-infecting HSV-1 pairs. Our results revealed that when viral RCs enlarge towards each other, there is detectable overlap of genomes from each virus. Infection with paired viruses that allow visualization of HR correlates with increased overlap of RCs. Taken together, these findings suggest that HR events take place during replication of HSV-1 DNA and are mainly confined to the periphery of RCs when they coalesce.

Importance

Homologous recombination is considered a major driving force of evolution since it generates and spreads genetic diversity. In the case of HSV-1, a ubiquitous human pathogen that causes significant morbidity and mortality, evidence of homologous recombination can be found frequently, both *in vitro* and in clinical isolates. Here we designed an experimental system to detect where and when recombination takes place between viral genomes during infection. We found that recombination events occur after viral DNA replication during the late stages of infection, and is prevalent at the interface of expanding viral replication compartments. Overall, our results provide spatial and temporal information regarding the process of HSV-1 replication and recombination, and these observations have implications for understanding the recombination restrictions of other DNA viruses and cellular DNA.

Introduction

Herpes simplex virus type 1 (HSV-1) is a large double strand DNA virus. Like all other herpesviruses, viral gene expression, replication and capsid assembly all occur in the host nucleus of infected cells. Viral genomes enter the nucleus through the nuclear pore complex as naked DNA molecules (1), and these rapidly recruit several host and viral proteins to the viral genomes (2-10). Expression of the immediate early and early viral genes allows initiation of viral DNA replication (11). HSV-1 DNA replication proceeds at distinct foci within the nucleus known as replication compartments (RCs) (12, 13). The formation of the viral RCs was suggested to initiate from small pre-RCs (14, 15). Live cell imaging of viral DNA binding proteins suggested that the pre-RCs migrate toward nuclear speckles, sites of RNA processing, and come into contact with other pre-RCs, where they seem to coalesce into large mature RCs (16). On the other hand, direct visualization of the viral DNA suggested that each RC usually emerges from a single incoming genome (17, 18). Our previous study with Pseudorabies virus (PRV - a swine alphaherpesvirus) suggested that although viral replication compartments are found in close proximity, they retain distinct territories for each individual genome (18). Earlier experiments with HSV replicons also supported this notion (17). A recent study showed that viral genomes entering the nucleus are observed as condensed foci, and suggested that viral expression and DNA replication allow decondensation of these genomes and formation of RCs (19). Interestingly, some genomes remain highly condensed at the edge of newly developing RCs (19). Here, we visualised co-infecting HSV-1 genomes and confirmed that alphaherpesviruses RCs initiate from single genomes.

Recombination is considered to be a major driving force in evolution of most organisms, since it accelerates adaptation (20, 21). Viruses with double strand DNA genomes

need to adapt to the changing environment. Since the rate of mutation accumulation

is lower for DNA viruses than that of viruses with RNA genomes (22, 23), it has been

hypothesised that high rates of recombination can facilitate genetic adaptation (24).

Indeed, homologous recombination (HR) among co-infecting HSV genomes is very

frequently observed in both *in vitro* genetic assays (25-31) and in sequence analysis

of clinical isolates (32-34).

Viral DNA recombination can be impacted by both viral and cellular proteins. Two viral

proteins have been suggested to work as a complex to facilitate viral recombination

and have been shown to catalyze strand exchange *in vitro*: the single strand binding

protein ICP8 and an exonuclease UL12 (35). Single strand annealing was found to be

a recombination mechanism upregulated during viral infection and thus is considered

as the mechanism by which the viral recombinase induces recombination (36). While

ICP8 is required for viral DNA replication, UL12 is not essential for DNA replication *per*

se, although it is required for formation of infectious viral genomes that can be

packaged into capsids (37). Recombination of HSV-1 genomes can be enhanced by

DNA double stand breaks (DSB) (31, 38) and components of cellular DSB repair

pathways are recruited to sites of viral DNA replication (4, 6, 8, 39, 40). Host proteins

that are known to be involved in host HR, were found to support either viral DNA

replication or production of infective viral progeny (4, 39, 41-43). These findings

suggest that viral recombination and replication are processes that are closely related

(44). While knowledge regarding the molecular aspects of HR has been accumulating

over the last few years, little is known regarding spatiotemporal constraints on inter-

genomic recombination.

The compartmentalization of co-infecting genomes at different RCs raises the question

of where and when recombination takes place during the course of infection. To tackle

this question, we utilized a fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) based assay to differentiate between *de-novo* synthesized variants of viral genomes. Our results suggest that multiple recombination events occur at later stages of infection following DNA replication and that recombination takes place at the interface between mature RCs. We also found strong evidence of correlation between the number of RCs and nuclear size, suggesting a possible spatial restriction on the number of viral genomes that initiate replication.

Results

A FISH based assay designed to detect recombination events between co-infecting viruses. Recombination among co-infecting HSV-1 strains is a frequent event that can be detected by the progeny viruses released from infected cells (27-29, 31). To study the spatiotemporal constraints of these recombination events we developed a FISH based experimental assay that enables visualization of two different viral genomes within a co-infected nucleus. For this assay, we constructed a series of viral isolates, isogenic to each other except for two unique tag sequences (YPET or mCherry, yellow and red fluorescent proteins encoding genes, respectively) inserted into various loci throughout the viral genome (Figure 1A and Table 1). We designed two sets of fluorescent probes, one set for each tag sequence (Figure 1B). Each probe set was conjugated to a distinct fluorophore (Cy3 or Cy5) to enable visual identification of the genomes containing each tag sequence. We hypothesize that using different mixtures of the viruses should lead to distinct patterns within the infected nucleus (Figure 1C). As was shown previously for PRV (18), we expect that co-infection with two HSV-1 viruses containing tag sequences at the same genomic locus cannot result in a new recombinant genome containing both tags. Thus, each RC will react to a single fluorophore, including at the contacting edges of proximate RCs (Figure 1C

example I). Infection with a viral recombinant containing two tag sequences within one genome is expected to result in RCs stained with both fluorophores (dually-labelled RCs) (Figure 1C example IV). Infection with two viral recombinants containing tag sequences at different genomic loci could result in progeny genomes that either contain both tag sequences on a single genome or contain neither tag sequence. One of two types of spatial patterns could be expected to dominate under these conditions. Dually-labelled RCs (fully covered by both probe sets) imply that recombination takes place early during infection before the viral DNA replicates and RCs mature. In this situation, the reciprocal recombinant genome would contain no tag sequences and will generate RCs that are not detected since they are not covered by any of the probes (Figure 1C example II). Alternatively, partially overlapping RCs that fuse to each other at their periphery, suggest that recombination occurs later during the infection cycle following viral DNA replication (Figure 1C example III). Therefore, this FISH assay is designed to detect viral recombination events, with visual readouts for when and where it takes place.

Patterns of RC interactions dependent on HR. To identify recombination events, we co-infected Vero cells with different pairs of viruses listed in Table 1, as detailed below. All infections were carried out at MOI 20, to increase the likelihood of interactions between incoming viral genomes (27). Cells were either infected with one virus that contained both mCherry and YPET tag sequences (OK31) or were co-infected with two viruses, each carrying a different tag sequence (OK35 together with either OK25, OK32 or OK26). First, we collected the progeny viruses released from the infected cells at 24 hours post infection (HPI) and plated for single plaques. When the fluorescent protein genes are at different sites in the viral genomes, we found that co-infections can result in dual color (yellow) plaques under our infection conditions

(Figure 1D), suggesting that progeny viruses can be the outcome of HR events (27).

To visualize HR events at the single cell level, cells were co-infected and fixed at 6HPI

for hybridization with the appropriate fluorescent probes. Using confocal fluorescent

microscopy, we imaged the viral RCs and identified four distinct patterns of

interactions between the RCs (Figure 2A-D). The first interaction type is of two RCs

that come into close contact but without evidence of mixing between the two RCs i.e.

no visible co-localized pixels and no intersection between RCs margins (Figure 2A).

These interactions were mostly observed when the tag sequences were at the same

genomic locus (OK25 and OK35, Figure 2E). The second interaction type is of two

RCs that come into close contact and clearly mix, as defined by the presence of dual

color pixels at the site of contact or blurring of the contacting edges (Figure 2B). This

was the most common interaction observed in all co-infections, particularly when the

two tag sequences were located further from each other on the viral genome (OK26

and OK35, Figure 2E). In the third interaction type, one RC seems to be fully

overlapped with part of a second RC that is usually much larger (Figure 2C). This

interaction was most prevalent with co-infection of the OK32 and OK35 viruses (Figure

2E). The last interaction is a dual color RC, in which the entire area of the RC contains

both fluorophores (Figure 2D). The relative frequencies of these events can be

quantitated during single or dual infections (Figure 2E). As expected, the overlapping

pattern accounted for almost 90% of RCs in cells with single infection of virus carrying

both tag sequences (OK31), and was rarely detected during co-infections. We deduce

that our assay can be used to readout recombination, since detectable HR events

change the overall distribution of the interactions among the RCs. In all co-infection

assays, partial overlap at the point of contact are more frequent, compared to entirely

overlapping RCs. The rare occurrence of entirely overlapping RCs compared to the

expected high frequency of HR during HSV-1 co-infection (31) suggest that these RCs

are unlikely to reflect most of the HR events. We therefore suggest that inter-genomic

HR occur at points of physical interaction between co-infecting genomes, after viral

DNA replication has initiated.

We have previously shown that in U2OS cells, on average more HSV-1 genomes

initiate expression per cell compared to infections of Vero cells (45). To test if the

number of initiating genomes has an effect on the interactions between RCs, we

repeated the FISH based experiments with infections of U2OS cells. We observed all

four patterns of RCs interactions that we defined for infections of Vero cells (Figure 3).

However, in U2OS cells, identifying more than one pattern in a single cell was more

common than in Vero cells (Figure 3A and 3B), probably due to the higher number of

RCs observed per cell in this cell type (see below, Figure 5A). The distribution of

patterns observed for the different infections in U2OS cells (Figure 3D) was similar to

the distribution detected in Vero cells (Figure 2E).

Overlap between RCs is enhanced by HR. Identifying patterns does not estimate

the relative proportion of overlapping areas between RCs. Therefore, we developed a

quantitative evaluation of the RC overlapping areas in each cell. We found that

common pixel based co-localization methods do not provide an accurate estimate of

the degree of overlap between HSV-1 RCs, probably due to the relaxed form of the

replicating viral DNA (19). Similar to our results with infection of virus carrying the two

tag sequences (OK31), two probes corresponding to adjacent loci on HSV-1 genomes

showed limited co-localization at the pixel level (46). We applied a semi-automated

object based method to quantify the degree of overlap for RCs in cells infected with

viruses that have two distinct genomes (see Methods). For each cell nucleus, we

independently segmented the RCs in each channel. The relative overlapping area was

calculated as the ratio between the overall area of the overlap and the total overall

area occupied by viral DNA (total area of all RCs minus the total overlap area). The

images analysed were collected from three infections carried out on different days

from separate viral stocks. Over 200 cells from each cell type were analysed for each

co-infection. The dual-tagged virus (OK31) had such a distinct and reproducible

pattern, that only 120 Vero and 99 U2OS cells were analysed. We calculated the

percentage of cells in which no overlap was identified (Figure 4A-B). Some of these

cells resulted from RCs that were spatially distant, while others had interactions that

did not result in any mixing between coalescing RCs. For both cell types, when the

sequences are at the same site on the viral genome and therefore do not allow

visualization of HR between RCs (OK25 and OK35, Blue columns), only about 25% of

the cells had no measured colocalization. In U2OS cells, the possibility of HR reduced

the number of cells without colocalization to ~8.5% (OK35 and either OK32 or OK26,

yellow and orange columns respectively). In Vero cells, the possible visualization of

HR had much lower effect, probably due to higher probability for no interactions

between the RCs. These results suggest that when HR is possible to detect between

co-infecting viruses, interactions between RCs are observed more frequently.

We analysed all the cells in which co-localization was observed. For both cell types

we found a significant increase in the relative overlapping area for each nucleus for

cells infected by viruses with tags in different loci (Figure 4C-D). The resolution of our

FISH assay was not sufficient to detect significant differences between the two co-

infections with viruses that have tags in different loci. To test that cellular parameters

did not bias our measurements, we compared the relative overlapping area to the

nuclear area (Figure 4E-F) or to the number of RCs per nucleus (not shown). We found

no evidence of correlation between these two parameters to the relative overlapping

area in all infection conditions (Pearson correlation bellow 0.3 for each of the infections). We conclude that the observed significant increase in overlapping area indicates the readout of HR events. We speculate that the relative high background levels of overlapping areas (~20%) are due in part to noise of the assay and to non-HR events during viral replication.

The number of RCs correlates with nuclear size. The ability to distinguish between coalescing RCs in our assay provides an opportunity to quantitate the number of mature RCs within individual cells. We note that the OK31 infection was omitted from the calculation in this section due to our inability to distinguish between coalescing RCs in this infection. We therefore tested the association of the number of RCs to other parameters of infection. First, we observed that in U2OS cells more RCs were detected per individual nucleus. We detected an average of ~5.1 RCs per nucleus in U2OS cells compared to ~3.7 RCs per nucleus in Vero cells (1.375 fold increase, Figure 5A). Interestingly, a similar fold increase of ~1.38 was identified in nuclear area (Figure 5B). This led us to speculate the existence of a correlation between nuclear area and the number of RCs per nucleus. Indeed, the number of RCs correlates to the nuclear area for individual cells of both cell types (Pearson correlation: $R > 0.538$ for all infections, $p < 0.0001$ for all infections, Figure 5C-D). We hypothesize that the increase in the number of RCs per nucleus will result in a total of more viral DNA (RCs area) in larger nuclei. As expected, the nuclear area correlates to the total area of the RCs per nucleus (Pearson correlation: $R = 0.530$ for OK32 and OK35 co-infection on Vero and $R > 0.625$ for all other infections, $p < 0.0001$ for all infections, Figure 5E-F). We speculated that the increase in total RCs area could also result from the possibility that RCs may expand faster to a larger size in larger nuclei. We therefore compared the mean RC area (per cell) to the nuclear area (Figure 5G-H). We found much weaker

correlation between these parameters (Pearson correlation: < 0.5 for U20S cells and

< 0.3 for Vero cells in each of the infections). These results suggest that the increase

in RC area in larger nuclei results from higher numbers of RCs rather than increased

RC size. Taken together, our results suggest that nuclear size is a limiting factor for

the number of incoming genomes that are able to initiate replication.

Triple-color FISH indicates that inter-genomic recombination occurs at edge of

coalescing RCs. We speculated that if there are RCs that originate from a single

recombinant genome and contain both tag sequences, there must be reciprocal

recombinant RCs that contain none of the tags and are undetectable in our FISH assay

(Figure 1C II). To determine whether these RCs exist, we designed an additional

probe conjugated to a third fluorophore corresponding to the genomic HSV a'

sequence, a repetitive sequence found in four copies within the HSV-1 genome (47),

This probe stains all HSV-1 viral DNA regardless of the tag sequence inserted. Both

Vero and U2OS cells were co-infected with two isolates containing tags at different

genomic loci, fixed and hybridized to all three probes as previously described. We

inspected over 600 RCs from each cell type and found that 99.6% stained by the HSV

non-specific probes reacted to either of the two specific probe sets (example in Figure

6). The existence of at least one tag sequence for all RCs suggests that RCs are not

generated from recombinant genomes. This result further supports the hypothesis that

recombination occurs at the edge of mature coalescing RCs at the later stages of

infection and is coupled with replication. Similarly, all areas at the interaction between

the mature RCs respond to both the specific probe sets in contrast to our prediction in

Figure 1C III. This suggests that areas containing recombinant DNA do not arise from

a single recombination event but rather from multiple events along the contact front of

replicating RCs. In other words, the overlapping areas contain a mixture of genomes

with one tag, both or none of them.

Discussion

Recombination among co-infecting herpesviruses is fundamentally important for

understanding viral evolution and pathogenesis (24). It is also important to consider

recombination when developing vectors for vaccination and oncolytic viral therapy,

since evidence for recombination between a vaccine strain and a wild type strain has

already been found in herpesviruses (48). Here, we developed a unique experimental

system to identify the spatiotemporal constraints of inter-genomic recombination. Our

results corroborate the hypothesis that each RC initiates from a single incoming

genome. We showed that the possibility to visualize HR increases the overlapping

areas between RCs, although the experimental system also detects overlapping

signals unrelated to HR. We found that most viral recombination events occur at the

edges of developing RCs where they coalesce with others. Finally, we suggest that

areas in which overlapping RCs are detected, result from multiple independent

recombination events.

We have infected cells with different combination of viral isolates: OK35 & OK25 where

tags are inserted into the same genomic locus, OK35 & OK32 containing tags on

separate genomic loci spaced approximately 72 Kbp apart, OK35 & OK26 spaced

approximately 105 Kbp apart and OK31 containing two tag sequences on a single viral

genome. In our analysis, we have not detected any significant differences between the

two combinations of the separate genomic loci (i.e. OK35 & OK32 and OK35 & OK26),

in agreement with the hypothesis that recombination events occur between replicating

genomes in either concatemeric or circular state (26).

We observed four recognizable patterns of interactions between adjacent RCs: i. no

mixing, ii. partial mixing, iii. one within another and iv. complete overlap (Figure 2 and

3). From our previous results with PRV (18), we expected that the no mixing of RCs

would be the dominant interaction following co-infection with two viruses carrying the

tag sequences at the same location in the viral genomes (OK25 and OK35). We found

that this readout is most commonly observed in this co-infection, although to our

surprise the majority of RCs (~66%) showed some degree of mixing. Comparison with

the images obtained in the Kobiler *et al.* paper suggested that there is no major

difference between the images from the two alphaherpesviruses co-infection, although

robust quantitative analysis of PRV images was not carried out.

The partial mixing of RCs was the most common interaction observed among the

different co-infection conditions tested (Figure 2E). This is in part due to the

categorization of all partial mixing interactions into one single pattern, regardless of

the proportion of mixing. To overcome this problem, we developed an image analysis

code that calculates the relative area of mixing. We found a significant increase in the

relative area of mixing when co-infections were carried out with viruses in which HR

can result in the mixing of the colors. These measurements were significant both at

the single cell level (Figure 4C and D) and at the single RC level, indicating that a

significant proportion of the mixing we observe is due to HR. On the other hand, even

when HR cannot result in signal mixing (i.e. OK25 and OK35 co-infection), we

observed RCs and cells in which high proportion of mixing occurred (Figure 4E and

F). Similar findings were found in the PRV co-infection assays (18). These results

suggest that some color mixing can occur without recombining both tag sequences

into the same genome, or that there are high levels of non-HR that take place during

viral replication. We note that non-HR events were observed previously both in HSV-

1 replication (49) and in other herpesviruses (50). These explanations are not mutually

exclusive, and probably both contribute to the mixing of colors observed without HR.

The interaction in which one RC is fully mixed into a larger RC (Figure 2C) can be

explained by different mechanisms. First, it could originate from a small RC that

coalesces with a larger one. Second, the smaller RC could interact with two larger

RCs from both sides of the small RC that eventually unite to a single larger RC. A third

mechanism could involve the recently observed condensed viral genomes at the edge

of RCs (19). Sekine *et al.* showed that at 3HPI several incoming genomes remain

condensed at the periphery of an enlarging RC. These condensed genomes might be

silent throughout the lytic infection or may serve as templates for recombination at

later time points (which will result in our observed third interaction). Further

experiments are required to distinguish between these different possibilities.

Our experimental system provides the opportunity to calculate accurately the number

of functional RCs within a nucleus, since the separation by color increases our ability

to differentiate between coalesced RCs. We were able to detect an increase in the

average number of RCs detected in U2OS nuclei compared to Vero nuclei. This

corroborates our previous finding that in U2OS cells on average a higher number of

incoming viral genomes per cell initiate expression and replication compared to Vero

cells (45). These observations also further support the emerging view that individual

RCs initiate from single incoming genomes (18).

We previously demonstrated that the number of HSV-1 genomes replicating per cell

can influence the outcome of infection (51) and that host conditions prior to infection

can also affect the outcome of infection at the single cell level (51, 52). Here, we define

correlations between the nuclear area and the number of detectible RCs, similar to the

correlation between cell size (as measured by flow cytometry) and the number of

replicating genomes (51). Since our images represent snapshot during the infection

process, we cannot distinguish between the possibilities that larger nuclei allow a

larger number of incoming viral genomes to initiate replication or that the nuclei in

which more genomes initiated replication, expand faster. The use of new methods to

visualise incoming genomes using click chemistry (19, 53) should be able to resolve

these two hypotheses. We note, that U2OS cells are known to have larger nuclei and

indeed have more RCs per cell than Vero cells, suggesting that the larger nuclei

support more incoming viral genomes. On the other hand, U2OS are known to be

missing parts of the intrinsic immunity (54-56) and therefore that could explain the

difference in number of genomes.

In conclusion, our results support a model in which incoming viral genomes establish

RCs at distinct sites in the nucleus. The vast majority of RCs initiate from a single

genome and only at later stages coalesce but maintain a detectable separation

between RCs. These areas of interactions between the expanding RCs are predicted

to be the site in which HR occurs in tight association with viral DNA replication. Our

results suggest that in these sites, recombination is a frequent event, although not all

areas of interactions between the RCs are supportive of close contact that can lead to

recombination. Further research will shed light on the differences between these types

of RC interactions.

Materials and methods

Cell culture

African green monkey kidney cells (Vero, ATCC CCL-81) and human female osteosarcoma cells (U2OS cells ATCC HTB-96) were grown in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM X1; Gibco), supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS; Gibco) and 1% Penicillin (10,000 units/ml) and Streptomycin (10 mg/ml; Biological Industries, Israel).

Viruses

All viral recombinants are derivatives of herpes simplex type 1 strain 17. Each viral recombinant contains one or two tag sequences for specific staining by FISH. To facilitate isolation, both tag sequences are expression constructs for fluorescent proteins. The red fluorescent protein mCherry driven by the human cytomegalovirus promoter (CMVp) and the yellow fluorescent protein YPET driven by the simian virus 40 promotor (SV40p). Tag sequences were inserted into the viral genome by homologous recombination. Viral DNA was co-transfected along with a plasmid containing the tag sequences flanked by sequence homologies to the viral site of insertion (synthetically generated by GenScript, Piscataway, NJ, USA). Recombinant viruses were isolated from the progeny by plating lysate from transfected Vero cells and picking fluorescent plaques using an epi-fluorescent microscope. Viral stocks were prepared by growing purified plaques for each recombinant virus on Vero cells. The viral recombinants were validated by PCR. Viral titters were measured by plaque assay. An additional viral recombinant containing both tag sequences was isolated by crossing the recombinant OK26 to the previously described OK11 (57) and selecting

395   for plaques containing two fluorescent proteins by plaque assay. All viral recombinants

396   constructed for this paper are described in Table 1

Fluorescent probes

A set of 20 fluorescent probes was designed to correspond to each one of the two tag

sequences. The probes for the CMVp:mCherry and sequences SV40p:YPET were

conjugated on their 5' end to the fluorescent dyes cy3 and cy5 respectively. An

additional probe was designed to stain HSV1 viral DNA non-specifically. This probe

corresponds to the viral a' sequence and conjugated to the fluorescent dye Alexa Fluor

488 on its 5' end. Fluorescent probes were synthesized by Integrated DNA

Technologies (Coralville, IA, USA). The probes were dissolved in TE buffer to a stock

concentration of 10 μM. Probes from each set were pooled together in equal ratios

and kept in -20^0C before hybridization. Probes sequences are detailed in Table 2.

Fluorescent in situ hybridization

Cells where seeded and grown to confluence inside 12 well plates underlined with a

glass coverslip. Cells were infected at MOI 20 with 200 µl inoculums. The cells where

incubated on ice for 1 hour following the addition of the inoculums. The inoculums

were then removed and replaced with DMEM+10*FBS. The infected cells were

incubated on 37^0C for 6 hours. Cells where then fixed, permeabilized and hybridized

as in (58) with minor adjustments as follows: Denaturing of DNA was carried out in

95^0C instead of 75^0C for 2 minutes because of the relative high GC content of HSV1

DNA. Washing in SSCX0.1 was carried out in 63^0C instead of 60^0C. The fluorescent

probes were diluted into the hybridization mix to final concentration of 75 nM for each

probe set. Since the probes were directly labeled, all stages regarding antibody

staining and post-fixation were omitted from the protocol. Coverslips where then

mounted to glass slides using Fluoroshield mounting medium containing DAPI (Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA), sealed with nail polish and inspected under a confocal microscope.

Microscopy

Viral plaques were visualized under a Nikon Eclipse Ti-E epifluorescence inverted microscope. Single cell analysis by FISH assay was performed using a Nikon Eclipse Ti microscope equipped with Yokogawa CSU X-1 spinning disc confocal system.

Image analysis

Nuclei segmentation: Nuclei were automatically segmented from the DAPI channel as follows. Gaussian smoothing (σ = 2) was applied to the image followed by Otsu thresholding (59) to partition the image to nuclei / background regions. The nuclei segmentation was refined by morphological operators: opening (width = 3 pixels) to exclude small excesses; closing and an additional opening (width = 20 pixels) to unify regions that belong to the same nucleus; Filling holes; considering only connected regions of area exceeding 900 pixels - the minimal nucleus size. The output of this stage is a set of masks, each corresponds to a single nucleus.

RC segmentation: RCs were segmented from each fluorescent channel independently. Three groups of intensities were observed within each nucleus: background - at intensities close to those outside the nucleus; intermediate - above the background levels; and bright - which are the replication centers. First, Gaussian smoothing was applied (σ = 2) to the image. Second, background statistics were calculated (mean intensity, standard deviation) from the pixels outside the nuclei masks. A threshold of 2.5 standard deviations above the background mean intensity level was calculated. To exclude pixels with background intensities from further analysis, the threshold was

applied for each nucleus mask. Otsu thresholding was then applied to the remaining

pixels, pixels below the threshold were pooled and a new threshold of two standard

deviations above the mean was calculated. The pixels above these thresholds were

defined as the RCs. The segmentation refined by applying morphological operators:

opening - excluding small excess, closing - filling gaps, and opening again -

disconnecting independent replication centers; all with a square kernel of 3 pixels

width. Last, were holes filled to define the RCs. Parameters were optimized by visual

assessment of RC segmentation accuracy.

Manual selection of nuclei: Region for statistical analysis were manually selected

based on the accurate segmentation of RCs. Regions of accurate RC segmentation

were selected independently for each channel, the intersection (implying accurate

segmentation on both channels) was used for quantifications.

The program outputs required measurements such as nuclei area, number and area

of RCs in each channel of each nucleus and the size of overlapping area for each RC.

The data were then transferred into Microsoft excel for subsequent processing and

statistical analysis.

Code availability: The Matlab source code used for analysis is publically available at

https://github.com/assafzar/RecombinationHSV1.

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Figure 1. Schematic representation of dual colour FISH assay. (**A**) A series of viral recombinants with two unique tag sequences (designated red and green) inserted into various loci of the parental genome. Illustration of the insertion sequences (colour boxes) and viral genomes (black line with repeats marked in gray boxes). Illustrations are not to scale. (**B**) Two sets of probes conjugated to distinct fluorophores, each set corresponds to one tag sequence. (**C**) Illustration of expected results, in which the gray nucleus contains viral RCs originating from genomes with one tag sequences (either red or green), two tag sequences (yellow) or no tag sequence (black). The expected results in case of infection with tag sequences on the same locus of two co-infecting genomes (**I**), with tag sequences on separate loci in two co-infected genomes where recombination takes place before DNA replication (**II**) or following DNA replication (**III**) and with two tag sequences in the same genome (**IV**). (**D**) Representative images of viral plaques initiating from progeny viruses collected from Vero cells co-infected with different viral recombinants as marked above each image. Scale bar is 100 μm.

Figure 2. Observed patterns of RC interactions. (A-D) Representative images of Vero cells infected with viral isolates containing two genomic tags, each corresponding to a set of fluorescent probes. The probe sets are imaged separately in red and green (I and II) and merged (III). Four observed patterns of interaction between RCs are represented: (**A**) RCs containing different tag sequences come into contact without overlap (orange arrowhead), imaged from cells infected by two viral recombinants containing tag sequences on the same genomic locus (OK25 and OK35). (**B**) RCs containing different tag sequences overlap at their periphery (white arrowhead), imaged from cells infected with two viral recombinants containing tag sequences on separate genomic loci (OK32 and OK35). (**C**) RC containing one tag sequence overlap completely within a larger RC with the second tag (black arrowhead) imaged from cells infected with two viral recombinants containing tag sequences on separate genomic loci (OK26 and OK35). (**D**) Entirely overlapping RCs, imaged from cells infected by a viral recombinant containing two tag sequences on the same genome in separate loci (OK31). DAPI nuclear stain is presented in gray. Scale bar is 5μm. (**E**) Percent of each of the observed RCs interactions (A to D) out of total RCs interactions. Manually counted at the different co-infection conditions. >60 cells and >100 RCs interactions per infection type were counted.

Figure 3. Patterns of RC interactions on U2OS cells. (A-C) Representative images of U2OS cells infected with either (**A**) OK25 and OK35, (**B**) OK32 and OK35 or (**C**) OK31 viral recombinants. The probe sets are imaged separately in red and green (I and II) and merged (III). Arrowheads are colour coded as in figure 2. DAPI is presented in gray. Scale bar is 5μm. (**D**) Percent of each of the observed RCs interactions out of total RCs interactions. Manually counted at the different co-infection conditions. >50 cells and >100 RCs interactions per infection type were counted.

Figure 4. HR enhances overlap between viral genomes. Vero cells **(A, C, E)** and U2OS
cells **(B, D, F)** were infected with the viral isolates OK35 & OK25 where tags are inserted into
the same genomic locus (blue), the viral isolates OK35 & OK32 (yellow) or OK35 & OK26
(orange) containing tags on separate genomic loci and the viral isolate OK31 containing two
tag sequences on a single viral genome (gray). **(A and B)** Each column represents the
percentage of cells showing no overlap out of the total number of cell analysed for each
infection condition. *P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001; by Z.score proportion test. **(C and D)** Each column
represents the average relative overlapping area calculated from all cells (with detectable
overlap) infected under the same condition. Error bars represent standard error of the means.
*P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01; ***P < 0.001; by t test. **(E and F)** Individual cells were plotted to compare
the relative overlapping area to the nuclear area. All analyses were conducted on images
generated from three independent experimental repeats done on different days with viral
stocks prepared and tittered separately.

Figure 5. Nuclear size correlates with the number of RCs per cell. Cells where co-infected
with the viral recombinants OK35 & OK25 (blue), OK35 & OK32 (yellow) and OK35 & OK26
(orange). Comparing the mean number of RCs per cell **(A)** and the mean nuclear area **(B)**
between Vero (bright coloured columns) and U2OS (dark coloured columns). Error bars
represent standard error of the means. **(C-H)** Individual Vero **(C, E, G)** and U2OS **(D, F, H)**
cells were plotted to compare the number of RCs per cells **(C, D)**, the total area of RCs per
cell **(E, F)** and the average area of each RCs **(G, H)** to the nuclear area. A trend line (colour
coded as above) was calculated using the ordinary least squares (OLS) method is presented
for each infection condition. All analyses were conducted on images generated from three
independent experimental repeats done on different days with viral stocks prepared and
tittered separately.

Figure 6. Replication compartments contain at least one tag sequence. Representative
images of U2OS cells infected with two viral isolates containing tag sequences at different
genomic loci (OK35 and OK32). The cells were hybridized with two probes conjugated to three
distinct fluorophores. I. Detection of the OK35 tag sequence is shown in red. II. Detection of
the OK32 tag sequence is shown in green. III. Detection of the viral 'a' sequence (detect HSV
DNA non-specifically) is shown in blue. Overlays of two and three colours are shown in panels
IV and V, respectively. DAPI is presented in gray. Scale bar is 5 µm.

Viral recombinant	Tag sequence	Locus of insertion	Insertion start point
OK25	SV40p:YPET	Between the ORFs UL3 and UL4	11736
OK26	SV40p:YPET	Between the ORFs UL55 and UL56	116153
OK32	SV40p:YPET	Between the ORFs UL37 and UL38	84252
OK31	SV40p:YPET	Between the ORFs UL55 and UL56	116153
	CMVp:mCherry	Between the ORFs UL37 and UL38	84252
OK35	CMVp:mCherry	Between the ORFs UL37 and UL38	11736

695 **Table 1. List of viral recombinants used in this work**

SV40p:YPET	CMVp:mCherry	HSV-1 a' sequence
CTTGCATCTCAATTAGTCAGCAACC	CTTAAGCCCATATATGGAGTTCCGC	CCCCCCGCTCCTCCCCCCGCT
GCTACGGCGTGCAGTGCTTCGCCAG	TAACTTACGGTAAATGGCCCGCCTG	
TCCGCCCATTCTCCGCCCCATCGCT	AACGACCCCGCCCATTGACGTCAA	
ATTTATGCAGAGGCCGAGGCCGCCT	GACGTATGTTCCCATAGTAACGCCA	
CCTCTGAGCTATTCCAGAAGTAGTGAGG	GACTTTCCATTGACGTCAATGGGTG	
GGAGGCCTAGGCTTTTGCAAAAAGC	CGGTAAACTGCCCACTTGGCAGTAC	
GACACAACAGTCTCGAATTTAAGGCTAG	ATGGGCGTGGATAGCGGTTTGACTC	
CTGTTCACCGGAGTGGTGCCTATCC	CCAAAATGTCGTAACAACTCCGCCC	
CGACGCTACCTACGGAAAGCTGACC	ATGGGCGGTAGGCGTGTACGGTGGG	
GTGCCTTGGCCCACCCTTGTGACCA	GCAGAGCTGGTTTAGTGAACCGTCA	
ACCACATGAAGCAGCACGACTTCTT	GATAACATGGCCATCATCAAGGAGT	
AACATCCTGGGCCACAAGCTGGAGT	GTGGATAGCGGTTTGACTCACGGG	
CATCACCGCCGACAAGCAGAAGAAC	GTCCCCTCAGTTCATGTACGGCTCC	
CCCATCGGCGACGGTCCCGTGCTGC	GTGGTGACCGTGACCCAGGACTCCT	
CCTGACAACCACTACCTGAGCTACCAG	GGACGGCGAGTTCATCTACAAGGTG	
TTCAAGGACCCCAACGAGAAGCGGG	CCCGTAATGCAGAAGAAGACCATGG	
CACGACTGTGCCTTCTAGTTGCCAG	CTCCGAGCGGATGTACCCCGAGGAC	
GACCCTGGAAGGTGCCACTCCCACT	CGGCGCCTACAACGTCAACATCAAG	
GGAAATTGCATCGCATTGTCTGAGT	GTCTCCACCCCATTGACGTCAATGG	
GGAAGACAATAGCAGGCATGCTGGG	CATCGCTATTACCATGGTGATGCGG	

698 **Table 2. List of fluorescently labelled probes for FISH.**

Figure 1

Figure 2

	A – minimal overlap	B - periphery overlap	C- Full overlap within larger RC	D – Full overlap
OK25*OK35	36.0	59.6	4.4	0
OK32*OK35	16.5	73.3	9.7	0.6
OK26*OK35	23.5	69.9	4.6	2.0
OK31	0.6	8.0	4.0	87.4

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6