1 COVID-19 coronavirus vaccine design using reverse vaccinology and machine

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14 Abstract

15 To ultimately combat the emerging COVID-19 pandemic, it is desired to develop an 16 effective and safe vaccine against this highly contagious disease caused by the SARS-CoV-2 17 coronavirus. Our literature and clinical trial survey showed that the whole virus, as well as the 18 spike (S) protein, nucleocapsid (N) protein, and membrane protein, have been tested for vaccine 19 development against SARS and MERS. We further used the Vaxign reverse vaccinology tool 20 and the newly developed Vaxign-ML machine learning tool to predict COVID-19 vaccine 21 candidates. The N protein was found to be conserved in the more pathogenic strains 22 (SARS/MERS/COVID-19), but not in the other human coronaviruses that mostly cause mild 23 symptoms. By investigating the entire proteome of SARS-CoV-2, six proteins, including the S 24 protein and five non-structural proteins (nsp3, 3CL-pro, and nsp8-10) were predicted to be 25 adhesins, which are crucial to the viral adhering and host invasion. The S, nsp3, and nsp8 26 proteins were also predicted by Vaxign-ML to induce high protective antigenicity. Besides the 27 commonly used S protein, the nsp3 protein has not been tested in any coronavirus vaccine 28 studies and was selected for further investigation. The nsp3 was found to be more conserved 29 among SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV than among 15 coronaviruses infecting 30 human and other animals. The protein was also predicted to contain promiscuous MHC-I and 31 MHC-II T-cell epitopes, and linear B-cell epitopes localized in specific locations and functional 32 domains of the protein. Our predicted vaccine targets provide new strategies for effective and 33 safe COVID-19 vaccine development.

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36 Introduction

37 The emerging Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic poses a massive crisis to 38 global public health. As of March 11, 2020, there were 118,326 confirmed cases and 4,292 39 deaths, according to the World Health Organization (WHO), and WHO declared the COVID-19 40 as a pandemic on the same day. The causative agent of the COVID-19 disease is the severe acute 41 respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). Coronaviruses can cause animal diseases 42 such as avian infectious bronchitis caused by the infectious bronchitis virus (IBV), and pig transmissible gastroenteritis caused by a porcine coronavirus¹. Bats are commonly regarded as 43 44 the natural reservoir of coronaviruses, which can be transmitted to humans and other animals

45 after genetic mutations. There are seven known human coronaviruses, including the novel SARS-CoV-2. Four of them (HCoV-HKU1, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-229E, and HCoV-NL63) have 46 47 been circulating in the human population worldwide and cause mild symptoms². Coronavirus 48 became prominence after Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and Middle East 49 Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) outbreaks. In 2003, the SARS disease caused by the SARS-50 associated coronavirus (SARS-CoV) infected over 8,000 people worldwide and was contained in 51 the summer of 2003³. SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV share high sequence identity⁴. The MERS 52 disease infected more than 2,000 people, which is caused by the MERS-associated coronavirus 53 (MERS-CoV) and was first reported in Saudi Arabia and spread to several other countries since 54 2012^5 .

55 There is no human vaccine on the market to prevent COVID-19, and there is an urgent need to develop a safe and effective vaccine to prevent this highly infectious disease. 56 57 Coronaviruses are positively-stranded RNA viruses with its genome packed inside the 58 nucleocapsid (N) protein and enveloped by the membrane (M) protein, envelope (E) protein, and 59 the spike (S) protein⁶. While many coronavirus vaccine studies targeting different structural 60 proteins were conducted, most of these efforts eventually ceased soon after the outbreak of 61 SARS and MERS. With the recent COVID-19 pandemic outbreak, it is urgent to resume the 62 coronavirus vaccine research. As the immediate response to the ongoing pandemic, the first 63 testing in humans of the mRNA-based vaccine targeting the S protein of SARS-CoV-2 64 (ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT04283461, Table 1) started on March 16, 2020. As the most 65 superficial and protrusive protein of the coronaviruses, S protein plays a crucial role in mediating 66 virus entry. In the SARS vaccine development, the full-length S protein and its S1 subunit (which contains receptor binding domain) have been frequently used as the vaccine antigens due 67 68 to their ability to induce neutralizing antibodies that prevent host cell entry and infection. 69 However, studies showed that S protein-based vaccination did not provide full protection and sometimes raise safety concerns^{7,8}. In the meantime, many other research groups and companies 70 71 are also putting great efforts into developing and manufacture COVID-19 vaccines. 72 In recent years, the development of vaccine design has been revolutionized by the reverse 73 vaccinology (RV), which aims to first identify promising vaccine candidate through

bioinformatics analysis of the pathogen genome. RV has been successfully applied to vaccine

75 discovery for pathogens such as Group B meningococcus and led to the license Bexsero

vaccine⁹. Among current RV prediction tools^{10,11}, Vaxign is the first web-based RV program¹²
and has been used to successfully predict vaccine candidates against different bacterial and viral
pathogens^{13–15}. Recently we have also developed a machine learning approach called Vaxign-ML
to enhance prediction accuracy¹⁶.

80 In this study, we first surveyed the existing coronavirus vaccine development status, and 81 then applied the Vaxign RV and Vaxign-ML approaches to predict COVID-19 protein 82 candidates for vaccine development. We identified six possible adhesins, including the structural 83 S protein and five other non-structural proteins, and three of them (S, nsp3, and nsp8 proteins) 84 were predicted to induce high protective immunity. The S protein was predicted to have the highest protective antigenicity score and it has been extensively studied as the target of 85 86 coronavirus vaccines by other researchers. Here we selected nsp3 protein as an alternative 87 vaccine candidate, which was predicted to have the second-highest protective antigenicity score 88 yet, has not been considered in any vaccine studies. We investigated the sequence conservation 89 and immunogenicity of the multi-domain nsp3 protein as a vaccine candidate.

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91 **Results**

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93 Published research and clinical trial coronavirus vaccine studies

To better understand the current status of coronavirus vaccine development, we systematically surveyed the development of vaccines for coronavirus from the ClinicalTrials.gov database and PubMed literature (as of March 17, 2020). Extensive effort has been made to develop a safe and effective vaccine against SARS or MERS, and the most advance clinical trial study is currently at phase II (Table 1). It is a challenging task to quickly develop a safe and effective vaccine for the on-going COVID-19 pandemic.

100 There are two primary design strategies for coronavirus vaccine development: the usage 101 of the whole virus or genetically engineered vaccine antigens that can be delivered through 102 different formats. The whole virus vaccines include inactivated¹⁷ or live attenuated vaccines^{18,19} 103 (Table 2). The two live attenuated SARS vaccines mutated the exoribonuclease and envelop 104 protein to reduce the virulence and/or replication capability of the SARS-CoV. Overall, the 105 whole virus vaccines can induce a strong immune response and protect against coronavirus 106 infections. Genetically engineered vaccines that target specific coronavirus protein are often used

107 to improve vaccine safety and efficacy. The coronavirus antigens such as S protein, N protein,

- and M protein can be delivered as recombinant DNA vaccine and viral vector vaccine (Table 2).
- 110 N protein is conserved among SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV, but missing from

111 the other four human coronaviruses causing mild symptoms

- We first used the Vaxign analysis framework^{12,16} to compare the full proteomes of seven 112 113 human coronavirus strains (SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-229E, HCoV-114 OC43, HCoV-NL63, and HCoV-HKU1). The proteins of SARS-CoV-2 were used as the seed for 115 the pan-genomic comparative analysis. The Vaxign pan-genomic analysis reported only the N 116 protein in SARS-CoV-2 having high sequence similarity among the more severe form of 117 coronavirus (SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV), while having low sequence similarity among the 118 more typically mild HCoV-229E, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-NL63, and HCoV-HKU1. The sequence 119 conservation suggested the potential of N protein as a candidate for the cross-protective vaccine 120 against SARS and MERS. The N protein was also evaluated and used for vaccine development 121 (Table 2). The N protein packs the coronavirus RNA to form the helical nucleocapsid in virion
- assembly. This protein is more conserved than the S protein and was reported to induce an

123 immune response and neutralize coronavirus infections²⁰. However, a study also showed the

- 124 linkage between N protein and severe pneumonia or other serious liver failures related to the
- 125 pathogenesis of SARS²¹.
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127 Six adhesive proteins in SARS-CoV-2 identified as potential vaccine targets

128 The Vaxign RV analysis predicted six SARS-CoV-2 proteins (S protein, nsp3, 3CL-PRO, 129 and nsp8-10) as adhesive proteins (Table 3). Adhesin plays a critical role in the virus adhering to the host cell and facilitating the virus entry to the host cell²², which has a significant association 130 with the vaccine-induced protection²³. In SARS-CoV-2, S protein was predicted to be adhesin, 131 132 matching its primary role in virus entry. The structure of SARS-CoV-2 S protein was determined²⁴ 133 and reported to contribute to the host cell entry by interacting with the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2)²⁵. Besides S protein, the other five predicted adhesive proteins were all non-134 135 structural proteins. In particular, nsp3 is the largest non-structural protein of SARS-CoV-2 136 comprises various functional domains²⁶.

138 Three adhesin proteins were predicted to induce strong protective immunity

139 The Vaxign-ML pipeline computed the protegenicity (protective antigenicity) score and predicted the induction of protective immunity by a vaccine candidate¹⁶. The training data 140 141 consisted of viral protective antigens, which were tested to be protective in at least one animal 142 challenge model²⁷. The performance of the Vaxign-ML models was evaluated (Table S1 and 143 Figure S1), and the best performing model had a weighted F1-score of 0.94. Using the optimized 144 Vaxign-ML model, we predicted three proteins (S protein, nsp3, and nsp8) as vaccine candidates 145 with significant protegenicity scores (Table 3). The S protein was predicted to have the highest 146 protegenicity score, which is consistent with the experimental observations reported in the 147 literature. The nsp3 protein is the second most promising vaccine candidate besides S protein. 148 There was currently no study of nsp3 as a vaccine target. The structure and functions of this protein 149 have various roles in coronavirus infection, including replication and pathogenesis (immune evasion and virus survival)²⁶. Therefore, we selected nsp3 for further investigation, as described 150 151 below.

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153 Nsp3 as a vaccine candidate

154 The multiple sequence alignment and the resulting phylogeny of nsp3 protein showed that 155 this protein in SARS-CoV-2 was more closely related to the human coronaviruses SARS-CoV and 156 MERS-CoV, and bat coronaviruses BtCoV/HKU3, BtCoV/HKU4, and BtCoV/HKU9. We studied 157 the genetic conservation of nsp3 protein (Figure 1A) in seven human coronaviruses and eight 158 coronaviruses infecting other animals (Table S2). The five human coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2, 159 SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-HKU1, and HCoV-OC43, belong to the beta-coronavirus while 160 HCoV-229E and HCoV-NL63 belong to the alpha-coronavirus. The HCoV-HKU1 and HCoV-161 OC43, as the human coronavirus with mild symptoms clustered together with murine MHV-A59. 162 The more severe form of human coronavirus SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV grouped 163 with three bat coronaviruses BtCoV/HKU3, BtCoV/HKU4, and BtCoV/HKU9.

When evaluating the amino acid conservations relative to the functional domains in nsp3,
all protein domains, except the hypervariable region (HVR), macro-domain 1 (MAC1) and betacoronavirus-specific marker βSM, showed higher conservation in SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and
MERS-CoV (Figure 1B). The amino acid conservation between the major human coronavirus
(SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV) was plotted and compared to all 15 coronaviruses

used to generate the phylogenetic of nsp3 protein (Figure 1B). The SARS-CoV domains were also
plotted (Figure 1B), with the relative position in the multiple sequence alignment (MSA) of all 15
coronaviruses (Table S3 and Figure S2).

172 The immunogenicity of nsp3 protein in terms of T cell MHC-I & MHC-II and linear B cell 173 epitopes was also investigated. There were 28 and 42 promiscuous epitopes predicted to bind the 174 reference MHC-I & MHC-II alleles, which covered the majority of the world population, 175 respectively (Table S4-5). In terms of linear B cell epitopes, there were 14 epitopes with BepiPred 176 scores over 0.55 and had at least ten amino acids in length (Table S6). The 3D structure of SARS-177 CoV-2 protein was plotted and highlighted with the T cell MHC-I & MHC-II, and linear B cell 178 epitopes (Figure 2). The predicted B cell epitopes were more likely located in the distal region of 179 the nsp3 protein structure. Most of the predicted MHC-I & MHC-II epitopes were embedded inside 180 the protein. The sliding averages of T cell MHC-I & MHC-II and linear B cell epitopes were 181 plotted with respect to the tentative SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 protein domains using SARS-CoV nsp3 protein as a reference (Figure 3). The ubiquitin-like domain 1 and 2 (Ubl1 and Ubl2) only predicted 182 183 to have MHC-I epitopes. The Domain Preceding Ubl2 and PL2-PRO (DPUP) domain had only 184 predicted MHC-II epitopes. The PL2-PRO contained both predicted MHC-I and MHC-II epitopes, 185 but not B cell epitopes. In particular, the TM1, TM2, and AH1 were predicted helical regions with high T cell MHC-I and MHC-II epitopes²⁸. The TM1 and TM2 are transmembrane regions passing 186 the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane. The HVR, MAC2, MAC3, nucleic-acid binding 187 188 domain (NAB), βSM, Nsp3 ectodomain; (3Ecto), Y1, and CoV-Y domain contained predicted B 189 cell epitopes. Finally, the Vaxign RV framework also predicted 2 regions (position 251-260 and 190 329-337) in the MAC1 domain of nsp3 domain having high sequence similarity to the human 191 mono-ADP-ribosyltransferase PARP14 (NP 060024.2).

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193 **Discussion**

Our prediction of the potential SARS-CoV-2 antigens, which could induce protective immunity, provides a timely analysis for the vaccine development against COVID-19. Currently, most coronavirus vaccine studies use the whole inactivated or attenuated virus, or target the structural proteins such as the spike (S) protein, nucleocapsid (N) protein, and membrane (M) protein (Table 2). But the inactivated or attenuated whole virus vaccine might induce strong adverse events. On the other hand, vaccines targeting the structural proteins induce a strong

immune response^{20,29,30}. In some studies, these structural proteins, including the S and N proteins, 200 were reported to associate with the pathogenesis of coronavirus^{21,31} and might raise safety concern. 201 A study has shown increased liver pathology in the vaccinated ferrets immunized with modified 202 vaccinia Ankara-S recombinant vaccine³². Although there were no other adverse events reported 203 204 in other animal studies, the safety and efficacy of these vaccination strategies has not been tested 205 in human clinical trials. Our study applied the state-of-the-art Vaxign reserve vaccinology (RV) 206 and Vaxign-ML machine learning strategies to the entire SARS-CoV-2 proteomes including both 207 structural and non-structural proteins for vaccine candidate prediction. Our results indicate for the 208 first time that many non-structural proteins could be used as potential vaccine candidates.

209 The SARS-CoV-2 S protein was identified by our Vaxign and Vaxign-ML analysis as the 210 most favorable vaccine candidate. First, the Vaxign RV framework predicted the S protein as a 211 likely adhesin, which is consistent with the role of S protein for the invasion of host cells. Second, 212 our Vaxign-ML predicted that the S protein had a high protective antigenicity score. These results 213 confirmed the role of S protein as the important target of COVID-19 vaccines. However, the S 214 protein exists in many coronaviruses, and many non-pathogenic human coronaviruses also use S 215 protein to cell invasion. For example, despite markedly weak pathogenicity, HCoV-NL63 also uses S protein and employs the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) for cellular entry³³. This 216 217 suggests that the S protein is not the only factor determining the infection level of a human 218 coronavirus. In addition, targeting only the S protein may induce high serum-neutralizing antibody titers but cannot induce sufficient protective efficacy³⁴. Thus, alternative vaccine antigens may be 219 220 considered.

221 The SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 protein was predicted to be a potential vaccine candidate, as shown 222 by its predicted second-highest protective antigenicity score, adhesin property, promiscuous 223 MHC-I & MHC-II T cell epitopes, and B cell epitopes. The nsp3 is the largest non-structural protein that includes multiple functional domains to support viral pathogenesis²⁶. The multiple 224 225 sequence alignment of nsp3 also showed higher sequence conservation in most of the functional 226 domains in SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV, than in all 15 coronavirus strains (Fig. 227 1B). The induction of nsp3-specific immunity would likely help the host to fight against the 228 infection. Besides the S and nsp3 proteins, our study also suggested four additional vaccine 229 candidates, including 3CL-pro, nsp8, nsp9, and nsp10. All these proteins were predicted as 230 adhesins, and the nsp8 protein was also predicted to have a significant protective antigenicity score.

231 Our predicted non-structural proteins (nasp3, 3CL-pro, nsp8, nsp9, and nsp10) are not part 232 of the viral structural particle, and none of the non-structural proteins have been evaluated as 233 vaccine candidates. The SARS/MERS/COVID-19 vaccine studies so far target the structural 234 (S/M/N) proteins. Still, the non-structural proteins have been used effective vaccine antigens to 235 stimulate protective immunity against many viruses. For example, the non-structural protein NS1 236 was found to induce protective immunity against the infections by flaviviruses³⁵. The non-237 structural proteins of the hepatitis C virus were reported to induce HCV-specific vigorous and broad-spectrum T-cell responses³⁶. The non-structural HIV-1 gene products were also shown to 238 be valuable targets for prophylactic or therapeutic vaccines³⁷. Therefore, it is reasonable to 239 240 consider the SARS-CoV-2 non-structural proteins as possible vaccine targets, as suggested by the 241 present study.

242 Instead of using a single protein as the vaccine antigen, we would like to propose the 243 development of a "cocktail vaccine" as an effective strategy for COVID-19 vaccine development. 244 A typical cocktail vaccine includes more than one antigen to cover different aspects of 245 protection^{39,40}. The licensed Group B meningococcus Bexsero vaccine, which was developed via reverse vaccinology, contains three protein antigens⁹. To develop an efficient and safe COVID-19 246 247 cocktail vaccine, it is possible to mix the structural (e.g., S protein) and non-structural (e.g., nsp3) 248 viral proteins. The other proteins identified in our study may also be considered as possible vaccine 249 targets. The benefit of a cocktail vaccine strategy could induce immunity that can protect the host 250 against not only the S-ACE2 interaction and viral entry to the host cells, but also protect against 251 the accessary non-structural adhesin proteins (e.g., nsp3), which might also be vital to the viral 252 entry and replication. The usage of more than one antigen allows us to reduce the volume of each 253 antigen and thus reducing the induction of adverse events. Nonetheless, the potentials of these 254 predicted non-structural protein targets in vaccine development need to be experimentally 255 validated.

For rational COVID-19 vaccine development, it is critical to understand the fundamental host-coronavirus interaction and protective immune mechanism⁷. Such understanding may not only provide us guidance in terms of antigen selection but also facilitate our design of vaccine formulations. For example, an important foundation of our prediction in this study is based on our understanding of the critical role of adhesin as a virulence factor as well as protective antigen. The choice of DNA vaccine, recombinant vaccine vector, and another method of vaccine formulation

262 is also deeply rooted in our understanding of pathogen-specific immune response induction.

263 Different experimental conditions may also affect results^{41,42}. Therefore, it is crucial to understand

- the underlying molecular and cellular mechanisms for rational vaccine development.
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266 Methods

Annotation of literature and database records. We annotated peer-reviewed journal articles stored in the PubMed database and the ClinicalTrials.gov database. From the peer-reviewed articles, we identified and annotated those coronavirus vaccine candidates that were experimentally studied and found to induce protective neutralizing antibody or provided immunity against virulent pathogen challenge.

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Vaxign prediction. The SARS-CoV-2 sequence was obtained from NCBI. All the proteins of six
known human coronavirus strains, including SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-229E, HCoVOC43, HCoV-NL63, and HCoV-HKU1 were extracted from Uniprot proteomes⁴³. The full
proteomes of these seven coronaviruses were then analyzed using the Vaxign reverse vaccinology
pipeline^{12,16}. The Vaxign program predicted serval biological features, including adhesin
probability⁴⁴, transmembrane helix⁴⁵, orthologous proteins⁴⁶, and protein functionss^{12,16}.

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280 Vaxign-ML prediction. The ML-based RV prediction model was build following a similar methodology described in the Vaxign- ML^{16} . Specifically, the positive samples in the training data 281 included 397 bacterial and 178 viral protective antigens (PAgs) recorded in the Protegen database²⁷ 282 283 after removing homologous proteins with over 30% sequence identity. There were 4,979 negative 284 samples extracted from the corresponding pathogens' Uniprot proteomes⁴³ with sequence dissimilarity to the PAgs, as described in previous studies 47-49. Homologous proteins in the negative 285 286 samples were also removed. The proteins in the resulting dataset were annotated with biological 287 and physicochemical features. The biological features included adhesin probability⁴⁴, transmembrane helix⁴⁵, and immunogenicity⁵⁰. The physicochemical features included the 288 compositions, transitions and distributions⁵¹, quasi-sequence-order⁵², Moreau-Broto auto-289 correlation^{53,54} and Geary auto-correlation⁵⁵ of various physicochemical properties such as charge, 290 hydrophobicity, polarity, and solvent accessibility⁵⁶. Five supervised ML classification algorithms, 291 292 including logistic regression, support vector machine, k-nearest neighbor, random forest ⁵⁷, and

extreme gradient boosting (XGB) 58 were trained on the annotated proteins dataset. The performance of these models was evaluated using a nested five-fold cross-validation (N5CV) based on the area under receiver operating characteristic curve, precision, recall, weighted F1score, and Matthew's correlation coefficient. The best performing XGB model was selected to predict the protegenicity score of all SARS-CoV-2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1 (GenBank ID: MN908947.3) proteins, downloaded from NCBI. A protein with protegenicity score over 0.9 is considered as strong vaccine immunity induction (weighted F1-score > 0.94 in N5CV).

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301 Phylogenetic analysis. The protein nsp3 was selected for further investigation. The nsp3 proteins 302 of 14 coronaviruses besides SARS-CoV-2 were downloaded from the Uniprot (Table S2). Multiple 303 sequence alignment of these nsp3 proteins was performed using MUSCLE⁵⁹ and visualized via 304 SEAVIEW⁶⁰. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using PhyML⁶¹, and the amino acid 305 conservation was estimated by the Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD)⁶². The JSD score was also 306 used to generate a sequence conservation line using the nsp3 protein sequences from 4 or 13 307 coronaviruses.

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309 Immunogenicity analysis. The immunogenicity of the nsp3 protein was evaluated by the 310 prediction of T cell MHC-I and MHC-II, and linear B cell epitopes. For T cell MHC-I epitopes, 311 the IEDB consensus method was used to predicting promiscuous epitopes binding to 4 out of 27 MHC-I reference alleles with consensus percentile ranking less than 1.0 score⁵⁰. For T cell MHC-312 313 II epitopes, the IEDB consensus method was used to predicting promiscuous epitopes binding to 314 more than half of the 27 MHC-II reference alleles with consensus percentile ranking less than 10.0. 315 The MHC-I and MHC-II reference alleles covered a wide range of human genetic variation representing the majority of the world population^{63,64}. The linear B cell epitopes were predicted 316 using the BepiPred 2.0 with a cutoff of 0.55 score⁶⁵. Linear B cell epitopes with at least ten amino 317 318 acids were mapped to the predicted 3D structure of SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 protein visualized via PvMol⁶⁶. The predicted count of T cell MHC-I and MHC-II epitopes, and the predicted score of 319 320 linear B cell epitopes were computed as the sliding averages with a window size of ten amino acids. The nsp3 protein 3D structure was predicted using C-I-Tasser⁶⁷ available in the Zhang Lab 321 webserver (https://zhanglab.ccmb.med.umich.edu/C-I-TASSER/2019-nCov/). 322

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Figure Legends 506

| 508 | Figure 1. The phylogeny and sequence conservation of coronavirus nsp3. (A) Phylogeny of 15 |
|-----|--|
| 509 | strains based on the nsp3 protein sequence alignment and phylogeny analysis. (B) The |
| 510 | conservation of nsp3 among different coronavirus strains. The red line represents the |
| 511 | conservation among the four strains (SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, MERS, and BtCoV-HKU3). |
| 512 | The blue line was generated using all the 15 strains. The bottom part represents the nsp3 peptides |
| 513 | and their sizes. The phylogenetically close four strains have more conserved nsp3 sequences than |
| 514 | all the strains being considered. |
| 515 | |
| 516 | Figure 2. Predicted 3D structure of nsp3 protein highlighted with (A) MHC-I T cell epitopes |
| 517 | (red), (B) MHC-II (blue) T cell epitopes, (C) linear B cell epitopes (green), and the merged |
| 518 | epitopes. MHC-I epitopes are more internalized, MHC-II epitopes are more mixed, and B cells |
| 519 | are more shown on the surface. |
| 520 | |
| 521 | Figure 3. Immunogenic region of nsp3 between SARS-CoV-2 and the four conservation strains. |
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| 523 | (green). |
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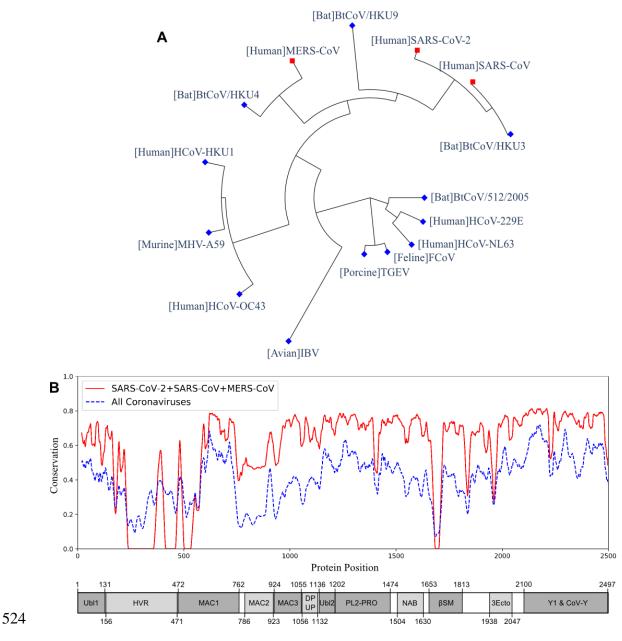
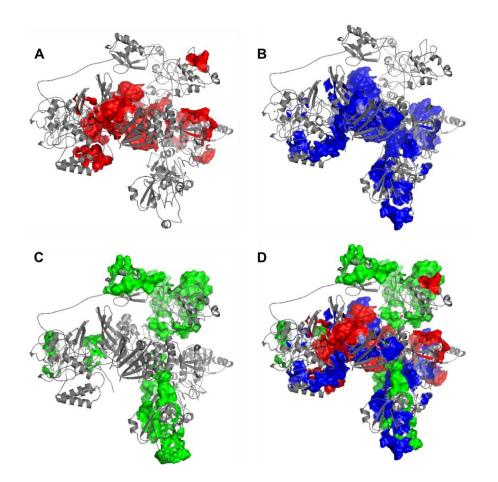


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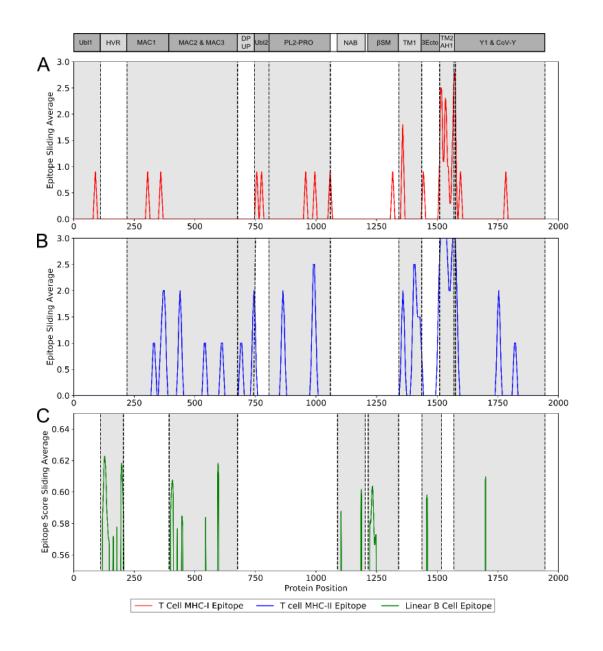
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533

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540 **Figure 3.** Immunogenic region of nsp3 between SARS-CoV-2 and the four conservation strains.

- 541 (A) MHC-I (red) T cell epitope (B) MHC-II (blue) T cell epitope (C) linear B cell epitope
- 542 (green).

| Virus | Location | Phase | Year | Identifier | Vaccine Type |
|---------------|--------------------------|-------|------|-------------|---|
| SARS-CoV | United States | Ι | 2004 | NCT00099463 | recombinant DNA vaccine (S protein) |
| SARS-CoV | United States | Ι | 2007 | NCT00533741 | whole virus vaccine |
| SARS-CoV | United States United | Ι | 2011 | NCT01376765 | recombinant protein vaccine (S protein) |
| MERS | Kingdom | Ι | 2018 | NCT03399578 | vector vaccine (S protein) |
| MERS | Germany | Ι | 2018 | NCT03615911 | vector vaccine (S protein) |
| MERS | Saudi Arabia Germany, | Ι | 2019 | NCT04170829 | vector vaccine (S protein) |
| MERS | Netherland | Ι | 2019 | NCT04119440 | vector vaccine (S protein) |
| MERS | Russia | I,II | 2019 | NCT04128059 | vector vaccine (protein not specified) |
| MERS SARS- | Russia | I,II | 2019 | NCT04130594 | vector vaccine (protein not specified) |
| CoV2 | United States | Ι | 2020 | NCT04283461 | mRNA-based vaccine (S protein) |

543 **Table 1.** Reported SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2 vaccine clinical trials.

| Vaccine name | Vaccine type | Antigen | PMID |
|---|-------------------|-------------|---------|
| SARS vaccines | | | |
| CTLA4-S DNA vaccine | DNA | S | 1599398 |
| Salmonella-CTLA4-S DNA vaccine | DNA | S | 1599398 |
| Salmonella-tPA-S DNA vaccine | DNA | S | 1599398 |
| Recombinant spike polypeptide vaccine | Recombinant | S | 1599398 |
| N protein DNA vaccine | DNA | Ν | 1558265 |
| M protein DNA vaccine | DNA | Μ | 1642339 |
| N protein DNA vaccine | DNA | Ν | 1642339 |
| N+M protein DNA vaccine | DNA | N, M | 1642339 |
| tPA-S DNA vaccine | DNA | S | 1599398 |
| β-propiolactone-inactivated SARS-CoV vaccine | Inactivated virus | whole virus | 1647698 |
| MA-ExoN vaccine | Live attenuated | MA-ExoN | 2314282 |
| rMA15-∆E vaccine | Live attenuated | MA15 | 2357651 |
| Ad S/N vaccine | Viral vector | S,N | 1647698 |
| ADS-MVA vaccine | Viral vector | S | 1570898 |
| MVA/S vaccine | Viral vector | S | 1509661 |
| MERS vaccines | | | |
| England1 S DNA Vaccine | DNA | S | 2621850 |
| MERS-CoV pcDNA3.1-S1 DNA vaccine | DNA | S | 2831456 |
| Inactivated whole MERS-CoV (IV) vaccine | Inactivated virus | whole virus | 2961872 |
| England1 S DNA +England1 S protein subunit Vaccine | Mixed | S 1 | 2621850 |
| England1 S1 protein subunit Vaccine | Subunit | S 1 | 2621850 |
| MERS-CoV S vaccine | Subunit | S | 2961872 |
| rNTD vaccine | Subunit | NTD of S | 2853642 |
| rRBD vaccine | Subunit | RBD of S | 2853642 |
| Ad5.MERS-S vaccine | Viral vector | S | 2519297 |
| Ad5.MERS-S1 vaccine | Viral vector | S1 subunit | 2519297 |
| VSV∆G-MERS vaccine | Viral vector | S | 2924650 |

545 **Table 2.** Vaccines tested for SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV.

546 Abbreviation: S, surface glycoprotein; N, nucleocapsid phosphoprotein; M, membrane glycoprotein; Exon,

547 exoribonuclease; NTD, N-terminal domain; RBD, receptor binding domain.

| | | Protein | Vaxign-ML Score | Adhesin Probability |
|--------|---------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| | nsp1 | Host translation inhibitor | 79.312 | 0.297 |
| | nsp2 | Non-structural protein 2 | 89.647 | 0.319 |
| | nsp3 | Non-structural protein 3 | 95.283* | 0.524# |
| | nsp4 | Non-structural protein 4 | 89.647 | 0.289 |
| | 3CL-PRO | Proteinase 3CL-PRO | 89.647 | 0.653# |
| | nsp6 | Non-structural protein 6 | 89.017 | 0.320 |
| | nsp7 | Non-structural protein 7 | 89.647 | 0.269 |
| orf1ab | nsp8 | Non-structural protein 8 | 90.349* | 0.764# |
| | nsp9 | Non-structural protein 9 | 89.647 | 0.796 [#] |
| | nsp10 | Non-structural protein 10 | 89.647 | 0.769# |
| | RdRp | RNA-directed RNA polymerase | 89.647 | 0.229 |
| | Hel | Helicase | 89.647 | 0.398 |
| | ExoN | Guanine-N7 methyltransferase | 89.629 | 0.183 |
| | NendoU | Uridylate-specific endoribonuclease | 89.647 | 0.254 |
| | 2'-O-MT | 2'-O-methyltransferase | 89.647 | 0.421 |
| | S | Surface glycoprotein | 97.623* | 0.635# |
| 0 | DRF3a | ORF3a | 66.925 | 0.383 |
| | Е | envelope protein | 23.839 | 0.234 |
| | М | membrane glycoprotein | 84.102 | 0.282 |
| ORF6 | | ORF6 | 33.165 | 0.095 |
| (| ORF7 | ORF7a | 11.199 | 0.451 |
| (| ORF8 | ORF8 | 31.023 | 0.311 |
| | Ν | nucleocapsid phosphoprotein | 89.647 | 0.373 |
| 0 | RF10 | ORF10 | 6.266 | 0.0 |

548 **Table 3.** Vaxign-ML Prediction and adhesin probability of all SARS-CoV-2 proteins.

549 * denotes Vaxign-ML predicted vaccine candidate.

550 [#] denotes predicted adhesin.