

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

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16 **Abstract**

17 To ultimately combat the emerging COVID-19 pandemic, it is desired to develop an
18 effective and safe vaccine against this highly contagious disease caused by the SARS-CoV-2
19 coronavirus. Our literature and clinical trial survey showed that the whole virus, as well as the
20 spike (S) protein, nucleocapsid (N) protein, and membrane (M) protein, have been tested for
21 vaccine development against SARS and MERS. However, these vaccine candidates might lack
22 the induction of complete protection and have safety concerns. We then applied the Vaxign
23 reverse vaccinology tool and the newly developed Vaxign-ML machine learning tool to predict
24 COVID-19 vaccine candidates. By investigating the entire proteome of SARS-CoV-2, six
25 proteins, including the S protein and five non-structural proteins (nsp3, 3CL-pro, and nsp8-10),
26 were predicted to be adhesins, which are crucial to the viral adhering and host invasion. The S,
27 nsp3, and nsp8 proteins were also predicted by Vaxign-ML to induce high protective
28 antigenicity. Besides the commonly used S protein, the nsp3 protein has not been tested in any
29 coronavirus vaccine studies and was selected for further investigation. The nsp3 was found to be
30 more conserved among SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV than among 15
31 coronaviruses infecting human and other animals. The protein was also predicted to contain
32 promiscuous MHC-I and MHC-II T-cell epitopes, and linear B-cell epitopes localized in specific
33 locations and functional domains of the protein. By applying reverse vaccinology and machine
34 learning, we predicted potential vaccine targets for effective and safe COVID-19 vaccine
35 development. We then propose that an “Sp/Nsp cocktail vaccine” containing a structural
36 protein(s) (Sp) and a non-structural protein(s) (Nsp) would stimulate effective complementary
37 immune responses.

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39

40 **Introduction**

41 The emerging Coronavirus Disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic poses a massive crisis to
42 global public health. As of March 11, 2020, there were 118,326 confirmed cases and 4,292
43 deaths, according to the World Health Organization (WHO), and WHO declared the COVID-19
44 as a pandemic on the same day. As of March 22, there were >300,000 confirmed cases and
45 >10,000 deaths globally in at least 167 countries, and the USA reported >27,000 confirmed cases

46 and >300 deaths. It is critical to develop an effective and safe vaccine(s) to control this fast-
47 spreading disease and stop the pandemic.

48 The causative agent of the COVID-19 disease is the severe acute respiratory syndrome
49 coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). Coronaviruses can cause animal diseases such as avian infectious
50 bronchitis caused by the infectious bronchitis virus (IBV), and pig transmissible gastroenteritis
51 caused by a porcine coronavirus¹. Bats are commonly regarded as the natural reservoir of
52 coronaviruses, which can be transmitted to humans and other animals after genetic mutations.
53 There are seven known human coronaviruses, including the novel SARS-CoV-2. Four of them
54 (HCoV-HKU1, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-229E, and HCoV-NL63) have been circulating in the
55 human population worldwide and cause mild symptoms². Coronavirus became prominence after
56 Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS)
57 outbreaks. In 2003, the SARS disease caused by the SARS-associated coronavirus (SARS-CoV)
58 infected over 8,000 people worldwide and was contained in the summer of 2003³. SARS-CoV-2
59 and SARS-CoV share high sequence identity⁴. The MERS disease infected more than 2,000
60 people, which is caused by the MERS-associated coronavirus (MERS-CoV) and was first
61 reported in Saudi Arabia and spread to several other countries since 2012⁵.

62 Although great efforts have been made to develop and manufacture COVID-19 vaccines,
63 there is no human vaccine on the market to prevent this highly infectious disease. Coronaviruses
64 are positively-stranded RNA viruses with its genome packed inside the nucleocapsid (N) protein
65 and enveloped by the membrane (M) protein, envelope (E) protein, and the spike (S) protein⁶.
66 While many coronavirus vaccine studies targeting different structural proteins were conducted,
67 most of these efforts eventually ceased soon after the outbreak of SARS and MERS. With the
68 recent COVID-19 pandemic outbreak, it is urgent to resume the coronavirus vaccine research. As
69 the immediate response to the on-going pandemic, the first testing in humans of the mRNA-
70 based vaccine targeting the S protein of SARS-CoV-2 (ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier:
71 NCT04283461, Table 1) started on March 16, 2020. As the most superficial and protrusive
72 protein of the coronaviruses, S protein plays a crucial role in mediating virus entry. In the SARS
73 vaccine development, the full-length S protein and its S1 subunit (which contains receptor
74 binding domain) have been frequently used as the vaccine antigens due to their ability to induce
75 neutralizing antibodies that prevent host cell entry and infection.

76 However, the current coronavirus vaccines, including S protein-based vaccines, might
77 have issues in the lack of inducing complete protection and possible safety concerns^{7,8}. All
78 existing SARS/MERS vaccines were reported to induce neutralizing antibodies and partial
79 protection against the viral challenges in animal models (Table 2), but it is desired to induce
80 complete protection or sterile immunity. Moreover, it has become increasingly clear that multiple
81 immune responses, including those induced by humoral or cell-mediated immunity, are
82 responsible for correlates of protection than antibody titers alone⁹. Both killed SARS-CoV whole
83 virus vaccine and adenovirus-based recombinant vector vaccines expressing S or N proteins
84 induced neutralizing antibody responses but did not provide complete protection in animal
85 model¹⁰. A study has shown increased liver pathology in the vaccinated ferrets immunized with
86 modified vaccinia Ankara-S recombinant vaccine¹¹. The safety and efficacy of these vaccination
87 strategies have not been fully tested in human clinical trials, but the safety can be a major
88 concern. Therefore, novel strategies are needed to enhance the efficacy and safety of COVID-19
89 vaccine development.

90 In recent years, the development of vaccine design has been revolutionized by the reverse
91 vaccinology (RV), which aims to first identify promising vaccine candidate through
92 bioinformatics analysis of the pathogen genome. RV has been successfully applied to vaccine
93 discovery for pathogens such as Group B meningococcus and led to the license Bexsero
94 vaccine¹². Among current RV prediction tools^{13,14}, Vaxign is the first web-based RV program¹⁵
95 and has been used to successfully predict vaccine candidates against different bacterial and viral
96 pathogens¹⁶⁻¹⁸. Recently we have also developed a machine learning approach called Vaxign-ML
97 to enhance prediction accuracy¹⁹.

98 In this study, we first surveyed the existing coronavirus vaccine development status, and
99 then applied the Vaxign RV and Vaxign-ML approaches to predict COVID-19 protein
100 candidates for vaccine development. We identified six possible adhesins, including the structural
101 S protein and five other non-structural proteins, and three of them (S, nsp3, and nsp8 proteins)
102 were predicted to induce high protective immunity. The S protein was predicted to have the
103 highest protective antigenicity score, and it has been extensively studied as the target of
104 coronavirus vaccines by other researchers. The sequence conservation and immunogenicity of
105 the multi-domain nsp3 protein, which was predicted to have the second-highest protective
106 antigenicity score yet, was further analyzed in this study. Based on the predicted structural S

107 protein and non-structural proteins (including nsp3) using reverse vaccinology and machine
108 learning, we proposed and discussed a cocktail vaccine strategy, for rational COVID-19 vaccine
109 development.

110

111 **Results**

112

113 **Published research and clinical trial coronavirus vaccine studies**

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

120 There are two primary design strategies for coronavirus vaccine development: the usage
121 of the whole virus or genetically engineered vaccine antigens that can be delivered through
122 different formats. The whole virus vaccines include inactivated²⁰ or live attenuated vaccines^{21,22}
123 (Table 2). The two live attenuated SARS vaccines mutated the exoribonuclease and envelop
124 protein to reduce the virulence and/or replication capability of the SARS-CoV. Overall, the
125 whole virus vaccines can induce a strong immune response and protect against coronavirus
126 infections. Genetically engineered vaccines that target specific coronavirus protein are often used
127 to improve vaccine safety and efficacy. The coronavirus antigens such as S protein, N protein,
128 and M protein can be delivered as recombinant DNA vaccine and viral vector vaccine (Table 2).

129

130 **N protein is conserved among SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV, but missing from** 131 **the other four human coronaviruses causing mild symptoms**

132 We first used the Vaxign analysis framework^{15,19} to compare the full proteomes of seven
133 human coronavirus strains (SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-229E, HCoV-
134 OC43, HCoV-NL63, and HCoV-HKU1). The proteins of SARS-CoV-2 were used as the seed for
135 the pan-genomic comparative analysis. The Vaxign pan-genomic analysis reported only the N
136 protein in SARS-CoV-2 having high sequence similarity among the more severe form of
137 coronavirus (SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV), while having low sequence similarity among the

138 more typically mild HCoV-229E, HCoV-OC43, HCoV-NL63, and HCoV-HKU1. The sequence
139 conservation suggested the potential of N protein as a candidate for the cross-protective vaccine
140 against SARS and MERS. The N protein was also evaluated and used for vaccine development
141 (Table 2). The N protein packs the coronavirus RNA to form the helical nucleocapsid in virion
142 assembly. This protein is more conserved than the S protein and was reported to induce an
143 immune response and neutralize coronavirus infections²³. However, a study also showed the
144 linkage between N protein and severe pneumonia or other serious liver failures related to the
145 pathogenesis of SARS²⁴.

146

147 **Six adhesive proteins in SARS-CoV-2 identified as potential vaccine targets**

148 The Vaxign RV analysis predicted six SARS-CoV-2 proteins (S protein, nsp3, 3CL-PRO,
149 and nsp8-10) as adhesive proteins (Table 3). Adhesin plays a critical role in the virus adhering to
150 the host cell and facilitating the virus entry to the host cell²⁵, which has a significant association
151 with the vaccine-induced protection²⁶. In SARS-CoV-2, S protein was predicted to be adhesin,
152 matching its primary role in virus entry. The structure of SARS-CoV-2 S protein was determined²⁷
153 and reported to contribute to the host cell entry by interacting with the angiotensin-converting
154 enzyme 2 (ACE2)²⁸. Besides S protein, the other five predicted adhesive proteins were all non-
155 structural proteins. In particular, nsp3 is the largest non-structural protein of SARS-CoV-2
156 comprises various functional domains²⁹.

157

158 **Three adhesin proteins were predicted to induce strong protective immunity**

159 The Vaxign-ML pipeline computed the protegenicity (protective antigenicity) score and
160 predicted the induction of protective immunity by a vaccine candidate¹⁹. The training data
161 consisted of viral protective antigens, which were tested to be protective in at least one animal
162 challenge model³⁰. The performance of the Vaxign-ML models was evaluated (Table S1 and
163 Figure S1), and the best performing model had a weighted F1-score of 0.94. Using the optimized
164 Vaxign-ML model, we predicted three proteins (S protein, nsp3, and nsp8) as vaccine candidates
165 with significant protegenicity scores (Table 3). The S protein was predicted to have the highest
166 protegenicity score, which is consistent with the experimental observations reported in the
167 literature. The nsp3 protein is the second most promising vaccine candidate besides S protein.
168 There was currently no study of nsp3 as a vaccine target. The structure and functions of this protein

169 have various roles in coronavirus infection, including replication and pathogenesis (immune
170 evasion and virus survival)²⁹. Therefore, we selected nsp3 for further investigation, as described
171 below.

172

173 **Nsp3 as a vaccine candidate**

174 The multiple sequence alignment and the resulting phylogeny of nsp3 protein showed that
175 this protein in SARS-CoV-2 was more closely related to the human coronaviruses SARS-CoV and
176 MERS-CoV, and bat coronaviruses BtCoV/HKU3, BtCoV/HKU4, and BtCoV/HKU9. We studied
177 the genetic conservation of nsp3 protein (Figure 1A) in seven human coronaviruses and eight
178 coronaviruses infecting other animals (Table S2). The five human coronaviruses, SARS-CoV-2,
179 SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-HKU1, and HCoV-OC43, belong to the beta-coronavirus while
180 HCoV-229E and HCoV-NL63 belong to the alpha-coronavirus. The HCoV-HKU1 and HCoV-
181 OC43, as the human coronavirus with mild symptoms clustered together with murine MHV-A59.
182 The more severe form of human coronavirus SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV grouped
183 with three bat coronaviruses BtCoV/HKU3, BtCoV/HKU4, and BtCoV/HKU9.

184 When evaluating the amino acid conservations relative to the functional domains in nsp3,
185 all protein domains, except the hypervariable region (HVR), macro-domain 1 (MAC1) and beta-
186 coronavirus-specific marker β SM, showed higher conservation in SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and
187 MERS-CoV (Figure 1B). The amino acid conservation between the major human coronavirus
188 (SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV) was plotted and compared to all 15 coronaviruses
189 used to generate the phylogenetic of nsp3 protein (Figure 1B). The SARS-CoV domains were also
190 plotted (Figure 1B), with the relative position in the multiple sequence alignment (MSA) of all 15
191 coronaviruses (Table S3 and Figure S2).

192 The immunogenicity of nsp3 protein in terms of T cell MHC-I & MHC-II and linear B cell
193 epitopes was also investigated. There were 28 and 42 promiscuous epitopes predicted to bind the
194 reference MHC-I & MHC-II alleles, which covered the majority of the world population,
195 respectively (Table S4-5). In terms of linear B cell epitopes, there were 14 epitopes with BepiPred
196 scores over 0.55 and had at least ten amino acids in length (Table S6). The 3D structure of SARS-
197 CoV-2 protein was plotted and highlighted with the T cell MHC-I & MHC-II, and linear B cell
198 epitopes (Figure 2). The predicted B cell epitopes were more likely located in the distal region of
199 the nsp3 protein structure. Most of the predicted MHC-I & MHC-II epitopes were embedded inside

200 the protein. The sliding averages of T cell MHC-I & MHC-II and linear B cell epitopes were
201 plotted with respect to the tentative SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 protein domains using SARS-CoV nsp3
202 protein as a reference (Figure 3). The ubiquitin-like domain 1 and 2 (Ubl1 and Ubl2) only predicted
203 to have MHC-I epitopes. The Domain Preceding Ubl2 and PL2-PRO (DPUP) domain had only
204 predicted MHC-II epitopes. The PL2-PRO contained both predicted MHC-I and MHC-II epitopes,
205 but not B cell epitopes. In particular, the TM1, TM2, and AH1 were predicted helical regions with
206 high T cell MHC-I and MHC-II epitopes³¹. The TM1 and TM2 are transmembrane regions passing
207 the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane. The HVR, MAC2, MAC3, nucleic-acid binding
208 domain (NAB), β SM, Nsp3 ectodomain; (3Ecto), Y1, and CoV-Y domain contained predicted B
209 cell epitopes. Finally, the Vaxign RV framework also predicted 2 regions (position 251-260 and
210 329-337) in the MAC1 domain of nsp3 domain having high sequence similarity to the human
211 mono-ADP-ribosyltransferase PARP14 (NP_060024.2).

212

213 Discussion

214 Our prediction of the potential SARS-CoV-2 antigens, which could induce protective
215 immunity, provides a timely analysis for the vaccine development against COVID-19. Currently,
216 most coronavirus vaccine studies use the whole inactivated or attenuated virus, or target the
217 structural proteins such as the spike (S) protein, nucleocapsid (N) protein, and membrane (M)
218 protein (Table 2). But the inactivated or attenuated whole virus vaccine might induce strong
219 adverse events. On the other hand, vaccines targeting the structural proteins induce a strong
220 immune response^{23,32,33}. In some studies, these structural proteins, including the S and N proteins,
221 were reported to associate with the pathogenesis of coronavirus^{24,34} and might raise safety
222 concern¹¹. Our study applied state-of-the-art Vaxign reserve vaccinology (RV) and Vaxign-ML
223 machine learning strategies to the entire SARS-CoV-2 proteomes, including both structural and
224 non-structural proteins for vaccine candidate prediction. Our results indicate, for the first time, that
225 many non-structural proteins could be used as potential vaccine candidates.

226 The SARS-CoV-2 S protein was identified by our Vaxign and Vaxign-ML analysis as the
227 most favorable vaccine candidate. First, the Vaxign RV framework predicted the S protein as a
228 likely adhesin, which is consistent with the role of S protein for the invasion of host cells. Second,
229 our Vaxign-ML predicted that the S protein had a high protective antigenicity score. These results
230 confirmed the role of S protein as the important target of COVID-19 vaccines. However, targeting

231 only the S protein may induce high serum-neutralizing antibody titers but cannot induce complete
232 protection¹⁰. In addition, HCoV-NL63 also uses S protein and employs the angiotensin-converting
233 enzyme 2 (ACE2) for cellular entry, despite markedly weak pathogenicity³⁵. This suggests that the
234 S protein is not the only factor determining the infection level of a human coronavirus. Thus,
235 alternative vaccine antigens may be considered as potential targets for COVID-19 vaccines.

236 Among the five non-structural proteins being predicted as potential vaccine candidates, the
237 nsp3 protein was predicted to have second-highest protective antigenicity score, adhesin property,
238 promiscuous MHC-I & MHC-II T cell epitopes, and B cell epitopes. The nsp3 is the largest non-
239 structural protein that includes multiple functional domains related to viral pathogenesis²⁹. The
240 multiple sequence alignment of nsp3 also showed higher sequence conservation in most of the
241 functional domains in SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV, than in all 15 coronavirus
242 strains (Fig. 1B). Besides the nsp3 protein, our study also predicted four additional non-structural
243 proteins (3CL-pro, nsp8, nsp9, and nsp10) as possible vaccine candidates based on their adhesin
244 probabilities, and the nsp8 protein was also predicted to have a significant protective antigenicity
245 score.

246 However, these predicted non-structural proteins (nsp3, 3CL-pro, nsp8, nsp9, and nsp10)
247 are not part of the viral structural particle, and all the current SARS/MERS/COVID-19 vaccine
248 studies target the structural (S/M/N) proteins. Although structural proteins are commonly used as
249 viral vaccine candidates, non-structural proteins correlates to vaccine protection. The non-
250 structural protein NS1 was found to induce protective immunity against the infections by
251 flaviviruses³⁶. Since NS1 is not part of the virion, antibodies against NS1 have no neutralizing
252 activity but some exhibit complement-fixing activity³⁷. However, passive transfer of anti-NS1
253 antibody or immunization with NS1 conferred protection³⁸. Anti-NS1 antibody could also reduce
254 viral replication by complement-dependent cytotoxicity of infected cells, block NS1-induced
255 pathogenic effects, and attenuate NS1-induced disease development during the critical phase³⁹.
256 Finally, NS1 is not a structural protein and anti-NS1 antibody will not induce antibody-dependent
257 enhancement (ADE), which is a virulence factor and a risk factor causing many adverse events³⁹.
258 The non-structural proteins of the hepatitis C virus were reported to induce HCV-specific vigorous
259 and broad-spectrum T-cell responses⁴⁰. The non-structural HIV-1 gene products were also shown
260 to be valuable targets for prophylactic or therapeutic vaccines⁴¹. Therefore, it is reasonable to
261 consider the SARS-CoV-2 non-structural proteins (e.g., nsp3) as possible vaccine targets, which

262 might induce cell-mediated or humoral immunity necessary to prevent viral invasion and/or
263 replication. None of the non-structural proteins have been evaluated as vaccine candidates, and the
264 feasibility of these proteins as vaccine targets are subject to further experimental verification.

265 In addition to vaccines expressing a single or a combination of structural proteins, here we
266 propose an “Sp/Nsp cocktail vaccine” as an effective strategy for COVID-19 vaccine development.
267 A typical cocktail vaccine includes more than one antigen to cover different aspects of
268 protection^{42,43}. The licensed Group B meningococcus Bexsero vaccine, which was developed via
269 reverse vaccinology, contains three protein antigens¹². To develop an efficient and safe COVID-
270 19 cocktail vaccine, an “Sp/Nsp cocktail vaccine”, which mixes a structural protein(s) (Sp, such
271 as S protein) and a non-structural protein(s) (Nsp, such as nsp3) could induce more favorable
272 protective immune responses than vaccines expressing a structural protein(s). The benefit of a
273 cocktail vaccine strategy could induce immunity that can protect the host against not only the S-
274 ACE2 interaction and viral entry to the host cells, but also protect against the accessory non-
275 structural adhesin proteins (e.g., nsp3), which might also be vital to the viral entry and replication.
276 The usage of more than one antigen allows us to reduce the volume of each antigen and thus to
277 reduce the induction of adverse events. Nonetheless, the potentials of the proposed “Sp/Nsp
278 cocktail vaccine” strategy need to be experimentally validated.

279 For rational COVID-19 vaccine development, it is critical to understand the fundamental
280 host-coronavirus interaction and protective immune mechanism⁷. Such understanding may not
281 only provide us guidance in terms of antigen selection but also facilitate our design of vaccine
282 formulations. For example, an important foundation of our prediction in this study is based on our
283 understanding of the critical role of adhesin as a virulence factor as well as protective antigen. The
284 choice of DNA vaccine, recombinant vaccine vector, and another method of vaccine formulation
285 is also deeply rooted in our understanding of pathogen-specific immune response induction.
286 Different experimental conditions may also affect results^{44,45}. Therefore, it is crucial to understand
287 the underlying molecular and cellular mechanisms for rational vaccine development.

288

289 **Methods**

290 **Annotation of literature and database records.** We annotated peer-reviewed journal articles
291 stored in the PubMed database and the ClinicalTrials.gov database. From the peer-reviewed
292 articles, we identified and annotated those coronavirus vaccine candidates that were

293 experimentally studied and found to induce protective neutralizing antibody or provided immunity
294 against virulent pathogen challenge.

295

296 **Vaxign prediction.** The SARS-CoV-2 sequence was obtained from NCBI. All the proteins of six
297 known human coronavirus strains, including SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-229E, HCoV-
298 OC43, HCoV-NL63, and HCoV-HKU1 were extracted from Uniprot proteomes⁴⁶. The full
299 proteomes of these seven coronaviruses were then analyzed using the Vaxign reverse vaccinology
300 pipeline^{15,19}. The Vaxign program predicted several biological features, including adhesin
301 probability⁴⁷, transmembrane helix⁴⁸, orthologous proteins⁴⁹, and protein functions^{15,19}.

302

303 **Vaxign-ML prediction.** The ML-based RV prediction model was built following a similar
304 methodology described in the Vaxign-ML¹⁹. Specifically, the positive samples in the training data
305 included 397 bacterial and 178 viral protective antigens (PAGs) recorded in the Protegen database³⁰
306 after removing homologous proteins with over 30% sequence identity. There were 4,979 negative
307 samples extracted from the corresponding pathogens' Uniprot proteomes⁴⁶ with sequence dis-
308 similarity to the PAGs, as described in previous studies⁵⁰⁻⁵². Homologous proteins in the negative
309 samples were also removed. The proteins in the resulting dataset were annotated with biological
310 and physicochemical features. The biological features included adhesin probability⁴⁷,
311 transmembrane helix⁴⁸, and immunogenicity⁵³. The physicochemical features included the
312 compositions, transitions and distributions⁵⁴, quasi-sequence-order⁵⁵, Moreau-Broto auto-
313 correlation^{56,57}, and Geary auto-correlation⁵⁸ of various physicochemical properties such as charge,
314 hydrophobicity, polarity, and solvent accessibility⁵⁹. Five supervised ML classification algorithms,
315 including logistic regression, support vector machine, k-nearest neighbor, random forest⁶⁰, and
316 extreme gradient boosting (XGB)⁶¹ were trained on the annotated proteins dataset. The
317 performance of these models was evaluated using a nested five-fold cross-validation (N5CV)
318 based on the area under receiver operating characteristic curve, precision, recall, weighted F1-
319 score, and Matthew's correlation coefficient. The best performing XGB model was selected to
320 predict the protegenicity score of all SARS-CoV-2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1 (GenBank ID:
321 MN908947.3) proteins, downloaded from NCBI. A protein with protegenicity score over 0.9 is
322 considered as strong vaccine candidate (weighted F1-score > 0.94 in N5CV).

323

324 **Phylogenetic analysis.** The protein nsp3 was selected for further investigation. The nsp3 proteins
325 of 14 coronaviruses besides SARS-CoV-2 were downloaded from the Uniprot (Table S2). Multiple
326 sequence alignment of these nsp3 proteins was performed using MUSCLE⁶² and visualized via
327 SEAVIEW⁶³. The phylogenetic tree was constructed using PhyML⁶⁴, and the amino acid
328 conservation was estimated by the Jensen-Shannon Divergence (JSD)⁶⁵. The JSD score was also
329 used to generate a sequence conservation line using the nsp3 protein sequences from 4 or 13
330 coronaviruses.

331
332 **Immunogenicity analysis.** The immunogenicity of the nsp3 protein was evaluated by the
333 prediction of T cell MHC-I and MHC-II, and linear B cell epitopes. For T cell MHC-I epitopes,
334 the IEDB consensus method was used to predicting promiscuous epitopes binding to 4 out of 27
335 MHC-I reference alleles with consensus percentile ranking less than 1.0 score⁵³. For T cell MHC-
336 II epitopes, the IEDB consensus method was used to predicting promiscuous epitopes binding to
337 more than half of the 27 MHC-II reference alleles with consensus percentile ranking less than 10.0.
338 The MHC-I and MHC-II reference alleles covered a wide range of human genetic variation
339 representing the majority of the world population^{66,67}. The linear B cell epitopes were predicted
340 using the BepiPred 2.0 with a cutoff of 0.55 score⁶⁸. Linear B cell epitopes with at least ten amino
341 acids were mapped to the predicted 3D structure of SARS-CoV-2 nsp3 protein visualized via
342 PyMol⁶⁹. The predicted count of T cell MHC-I and MHC-II epitopes, and the predicted score of
343 linear B cell epitopes were computed as the sliding averages with a window size of ten amino acids.
344 The nsp3 protein 3D structure was predicted using C-I-Tasser⁷⁰ available in the Zhang Lab
345 webserver (<https://zhanglab.ccmb.med.umich.edu/C-I-TASSER/2019-nCov/>).

346

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529

530 **Author contributions**

531 EO and YH contributed to the study design. EO, MW, AH collected the data. EO performed
532 bioinformatics analysis. EO, MW, and YH wrote the manuscript. All authors performed result
533 interpretation, and discussed and reviewed the manuscript.

534

535 **Competing financial interests:** The authors declare no competing financial interests.

536 **Figure Legends**

537

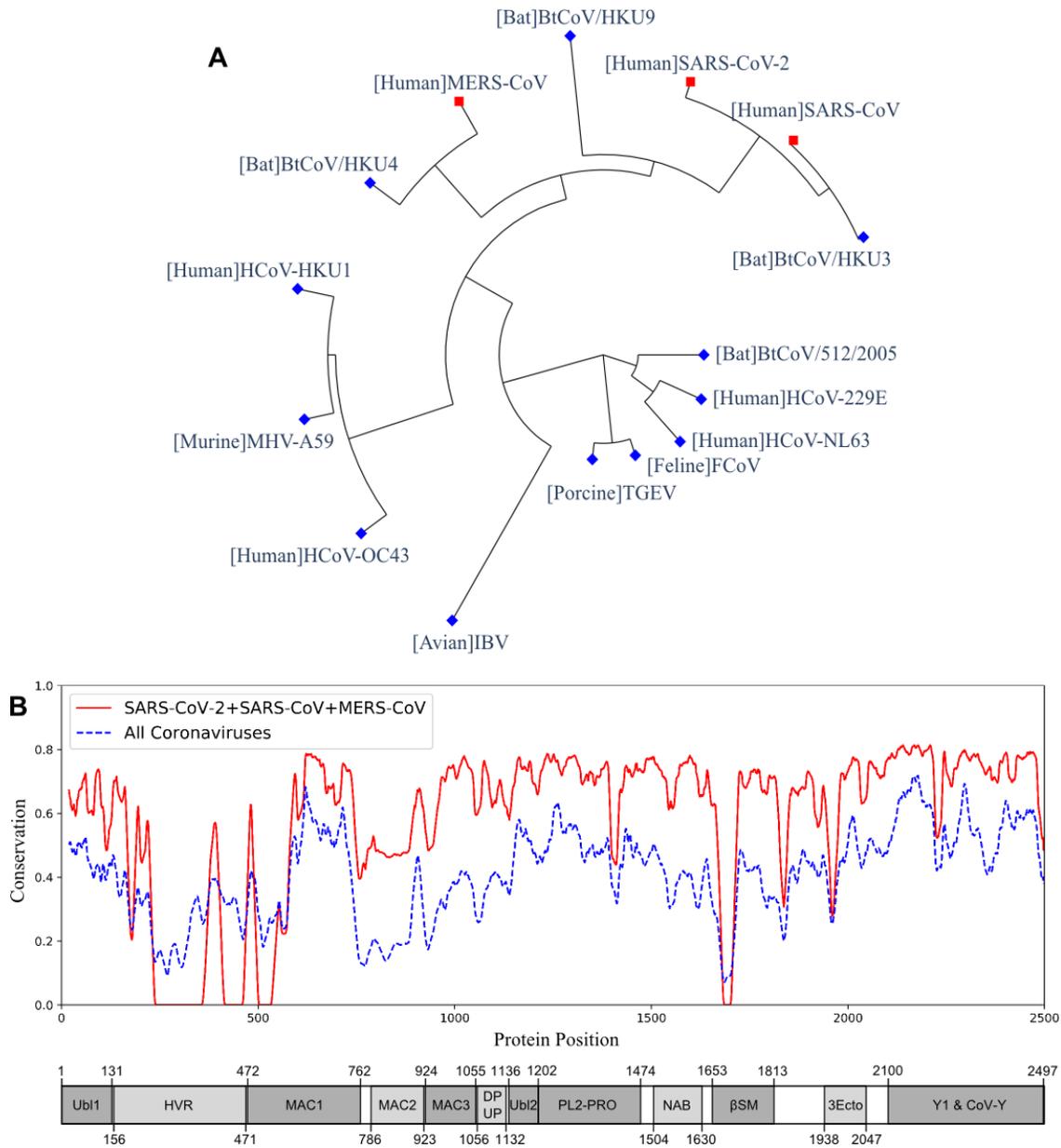
538 **Figure 1.** The phylogeny and sequence conservation of coronavirus nsp3. (A) Phylogeny of 15
539 strains based on the nsp3 protein sequence alignment and phylogeny analysis. (B) The
540 conservation of nsp3 among different coronavirus strains. The red line represents the
541 conservation among the four strains (SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, MERS, and BtCoV-HKU3).
542 The blue line was generated using all the 15 strains. The bottom part represents the nsp3 peptides
543 and their sizes. The phylogenetically close four strains have more conserved nsp3 sequences than
544 all the strains being considered.

545

546 **Figure 2.** Predicted 3D structure of nsp3 protein highlighted with (A) MHC-I T cell epitopes
547 (red), (B) MHC-II (blue) T cell epitopes, (C) linear B cell epitopes (green), and the merged
548 epitopes. MHC-I epitopes are more internalized, MHC-II epitopes are more mixed, and B cells
549 are more shown on the surface.

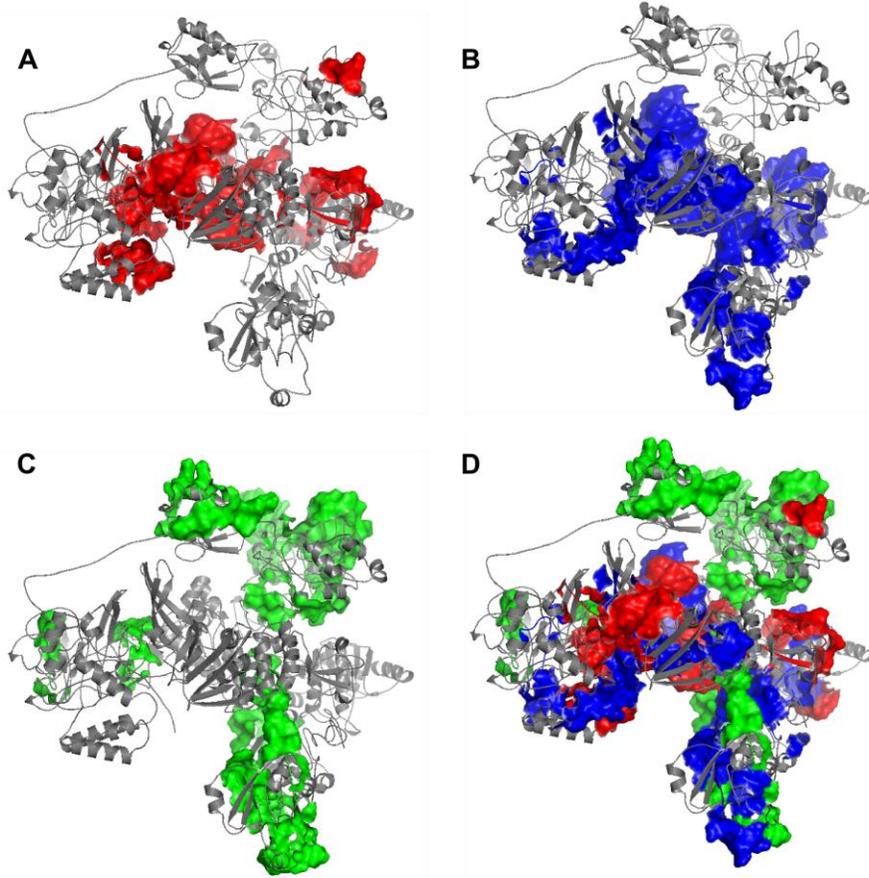
550

551 **Figure 3.** Immunogenic region of nsp3 between SARS-CoV-2 and the four conservation strains.
552 (A) MHC-I (red) T cell epitope (B) MHC-II (blue) T cell epitope (C) linear B cell epitope
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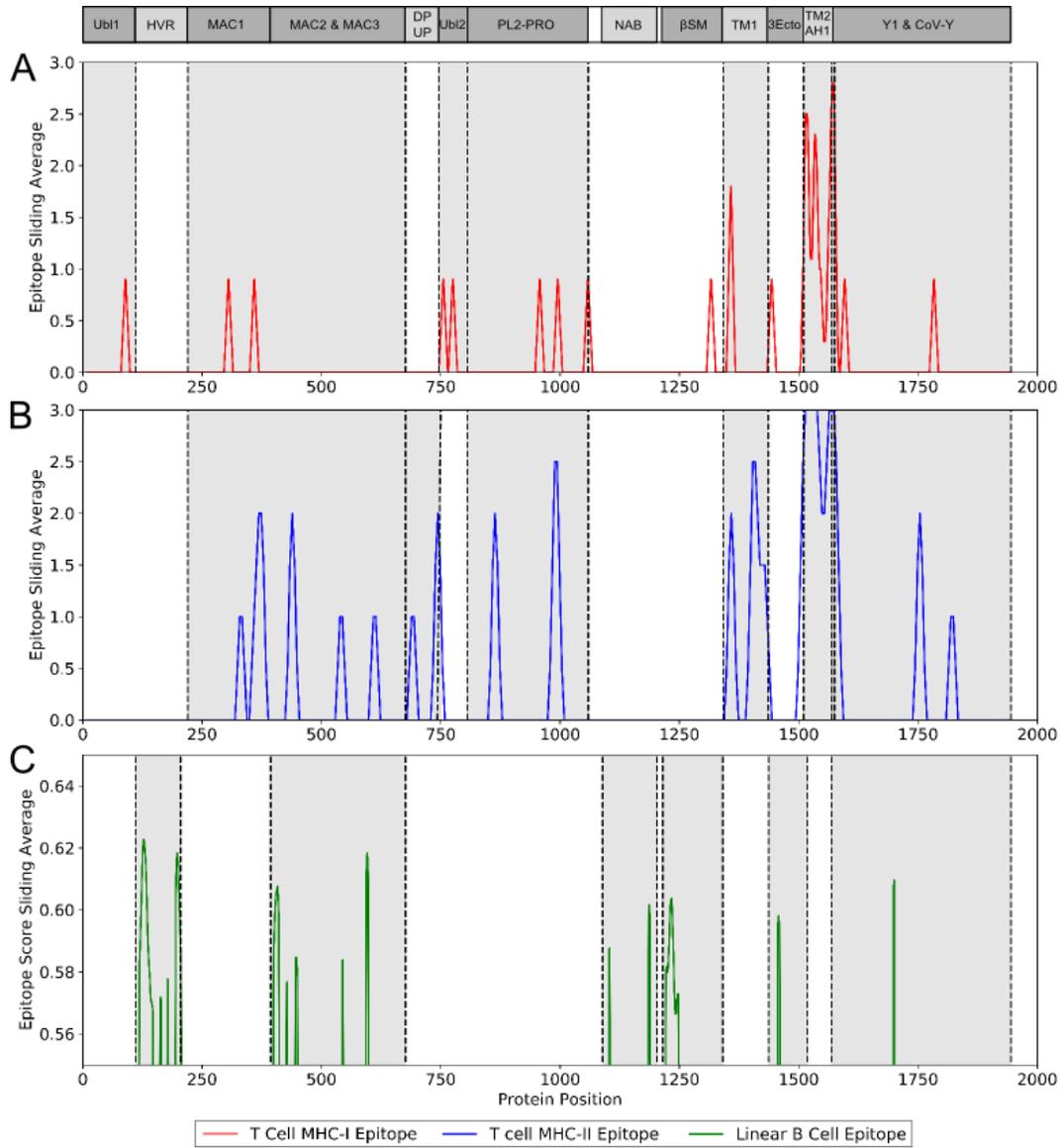
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572 (green).

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

Virus	Location	Phase	Year	Identifier	Vaccine Type
SARS-CoV	United States	I	2004	NCT00099463	recombinant DNA vaccine (S protein)
SARS-CoV	United States	I	2007	NCT00533741	whole virus vaccine
SARS-CoV	United States	I	2011	NCT01376765	recombinant protein vaccine (S protein)
MERS	United Kingdom	I	2018	NCT03399578	vector vaccine (S protein)
MERS	Germany	I	2018	NCT03615911	vector vaccine (S protein)
MERS	Saudi Arabia	I	2019	NCT04170829	vector vaccine (S protein)
MERS	Germany, Netherland	I	2019	NCT04119440	vector vaccine (S protein)
MERS	Russia	I,II	2019	NCT04128059	vector vaccine (protein not specified)
MERS	Russia	I,II	2019	NCT04130594	vector vaccine (protein not specified)
SARS-CoV2	United States	I	2020	NCT04283461	mRNA-based vaccine (S protein)
SARS-CoV2	China	I	2020	NCT04313127	vector vaccine (S protein)

574

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

Vaccine name	Vaccine type	Antigen	PMID
SARS vaccines			
CTLA4-S DNA vaccine	DNA	S	15993989
<i>Salmonella</i> -CTLA4-S DNA vaccine	DNA	S	15993989
<i>Salmonella</i> -tPA-S DNA vaccine	DNA	S	15993989
Recombinant spike polypeptide vaccine	Recombinant	S	15993989
N protein DNA vaccine	DNA	N	15582659
M protein DNA vaccine	DNA	M	16423399
N protein DNA vaccine	DNA	N	16423399
N+M protein DNA vaccine	DNA	N, M	16423399
tPA-S DNA vaccine	DNA	S	15993989
β -propiolactone-inactivated SARS-CoV vaccine	Inactivated virus	whole virus	16476986
MA-ExoN vaccine	Live attenuated	MA-ExoN	23142821
rMA15- Δ E vaccine	Live attenuated	MA15	23576515
Ad S/N vaccine	Viral vector	S,N	16476986
ADS-MVA vaccine	Viral vector	S	15708987
MVA/S vaccine	Viral vector	S	15096611
MERS vaccines			
England1 S DNA Vaccine	DNA	S	26218507
MERS-CoV pcDNA3.1-S1 DNA vaccine	DNA	S	28314561
Inactivated whole MERS-CoV (IV) vaccine	Inactivated virus	whole virus	29618723
England1 S DNA +England1 S protein subunit Vaccine	Mixed	S1	26218507
England1 S1 protein subunit Vaccine	Subunit	S1	26218507
MERS-CoV S vaccine	Subunit	S	29618723
rNTD vaccine	Subunit	NTD of S	28536429
rRBD vaccine	Subunit	RBD of S	28536429
Ad5.MERS-S vaccine	Viral vector	S	25192975
Ad5.MERS-S1 vaccine	Viral vector	S1 subunit	25192975
VSV Δ G-MERS vaccine	Viral vector	S	29246504

576 Abbreviation: S, surface glycoprotein; N, nucleocapsid phosphoprotein; M, membrane glycoprotein; Exon,
577 exoribonuclease; NTD, N-terminal domain; RBD, receptor binding domain.

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

	Protein	Vaxign-ML Score	Adhesin Probability
orf1ab	nsp1	Host translation inhibitor	79.312
	nsp2	Non-structural protein 2	89.647
	nsp3	Non-structural protein 3	95.283*
	nsp4	Non-structural protein 4	89.647
	3CL-PRO	Proteinase 3CL-PRO	89.647
	nsp6	Non-structural protein 6	89.017
	nsp7	Non-structural protein 7	89.647
	nsp8	Non-structural protein 8	90.349*
	nsp9	Non-structural protein 9	89.647
	nsp10	Non-structural protein 10	89.647
	RdRp	RNA-directed RNA polymerase	89.647
	Hel	Helicase	89.647
	ExoN	Guanine-N7 methyltransferase	89.629
	NendoU	Uridylate-specific endoribonuclease	89.647
	2'-O-MT	2'-O-methyltransferase	89.647
	S	Surface glycoprotein	97.623*
	ORF3a	ORF3a	66.925
	E	envelope protein	23.839
	M	membrane glycoprotein	84.102
	ORF6	ORF6	33.165
ORF7	ORF7a	11.199	
ORF8	ORF8	31.023	
N	nucleocapsid phosphoprotein	89.647	
ORF10	ORF10	6.266	

579 * denotes Vaxign-ML predicted vaccine candidate.

580 # denotes predicted adhesin.

581

582