1	The Development of a Novel Nanobody Therapeutic for SARS-CoV-2
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40	both <i>in vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i> and act both preventively and therapeutically.
41	

42 Abstract

43	Combating the COVID-19 pandemic requires potent and low-cost therapeutics.
44	We identified a novel series of single-domain antibodies (i.e., nanobody), Nanosota-1,
45	from a camelid nanobody phage display library. Structural data showed that Nanosota-1
46	bound to the oft-hidden receptor-binding domain (RBD) of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein,
47	blocking out viral receptor ACE2. The lead drug possessing an Fc tag (Nanosota-1C-Fc)
48	bound to SARS-CoV-2 RBD with a K_d of 15.7picomolar (~3000 times more tightly than
49	ACE2 did) and inhibited SARS-CoV-2 infection with an ND_{50} of
50	0.16microgram/milliliter (~6000 times more potently than ACE2 did). Administered at a
51	single dose, Nanosota-1C-Fc demonstrated preventive and therapeutic efficacy in
52	hamsters subjected to SARS-CoV-2 infection. Unlike conventional antibody drugs,
53	Nanosota-1C-Fc was produced at high yields in bacteria and had exceptional
54	thermostability. Pharmacokinetic analysis of Nanosota-1C-Fc documented a greater than
55	10-day in vivo half-life efficacy and high tissue bioavailability. Nanosota-1C-Fc is a
56	potentially effective and realistic solution to the COVID-19 pandemic.
57	

58 Introduction

59 The novel coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 has led to the COVID-19 pandemic, 60 devastating human health and the global economy (1, 2). Anti-SARS-CoV-2 drugs are 61 urgently needed to treat patients, save lives, and revive economies. Yet daunting 62 challenges confront the development of such drugs. Though small molecule drugs could 63 theoretically target SARS-CoV-2, they can take years to develop and their use is often 64 limited by poor specificity and off-target effects. Repurposed drugs, developed against 65 other viruses, also have low specificity against SARS-CoV-2. Therapeutic antibodies can 66 be identified and generally have high specificity; however, their expression in 67 mammalian cells often leads to low yields and high production costs (3, 4). A realistic 68 therapeutic solution to COVID-19 must be potent and specific, yet easy to produce. 69 Nanobodies are unique antibodies derived from heavy chain-only antibodies 70 found in members of the camelidae family (llamas, alpacas, camels, etc.) (Fig. S1) (5, 6). 71 Because of their small size (2.5 nm by 4 nm; 12-15 kDa) and unique binding domains, 72 nanobodies offer many advantages over conventional antibodies including the ability to 73 bind cryptic epitopes on their antigen, high tissue permeability, ease of production and 74 thermostability (7, 8). Although small, nanobodies bind their targets with high affinity 75 and specificity due to an extended antigen-binding region (7, 8). Furthermore, it has been 76 documented that they have low toxicity and immunogenicity in humans, if any (7, 8). 77 One drawback of nanobodies is their quick clearance by kidneys due to their small size; 78 this can be overcome by adding tags to increase the molecular weight to a desired level. 79 Underscoring the potency and safety of nanobodies as human therapeutics, a nanobody 80 drug was recently approved for clinical use in treating a blood clotting disorder (9).

Additionally, due to their superior stability, nanobodies can be inhaled to treat lung
diseases (10) or ingested to treat intestine diseases (11) . Nanobodies are currently being
developed against SARS-CoV-2 to combat COVID-19 (12, 13). However, to date, none
of the reported nanobodies have been evaluated for therapeutic efficacy in vivo.
The receptor-binding domain (RBD) of the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein is a prime
target for the rapeutic development (14) . The spike protein guides coronavirus entry into
host cells by first binding to a receptor on the host cell surface and then fusing the viral
and host membranes (15, 16). The RBDs of SARS-CoV-2 and a closely related SARS-
CoV-1 both recognize human angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) as their receptor
(14, 17-19). Previously, we showed that SARS-CoV-1 and SARS-CoV-2 RBDs both
contain a core structure and a receptor-binding motif (RBM), and that SARS-CoV-2
RBD has significantly higher ACE2-binding affinity than SARS-CoV-1 RBD due to
several structural changes in the RBM (20, 21). We further showed that SARS-CoV-2
RBD is more hidden than SARS-CoV-1 RBD in the entire spike protein as a possible
viral strategy for immune evasion (22). Hence, to block SARS-CoV-2 binding to ACE2,
a nanobody drug would need to bind to SARS-CoV-2 RBD more tightly than ACE2.
Here, we report the development of a novel series of anti-SARS-CoV-2 nanobody
therapeutics, Nanosota-1. Identified by screening a camelid nanobody phage display
library against the SARS-CoV-2 RBD, the Nanosota-1 series bound potently to the
SARS-CoV-2 RBD and were effective at inhibiting SARS-CoV-2 infection in vitro. The
best performing drug, Nanosota-1C-Fc, demonstrated preventative and therapeutic
efficacy in a hamster model of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Nanosota-1C-Fc was produced at
high yields easily scalable for mass production and was also found to have a

104 pharmacologically relevant *in vivo* half-life and excellent bioavailability. Our data

105 suggest that *Nanosota-1c-Fc* may provide an effective solution to the COVID-19

- 106 pandemic.
- 107
- 108 **Results**

109 Nanosota-1 was identified by phage display

110 For the rapid identification of virus-targeting nanobodies, we constructed a naïve 111 nanobody phage display library using B cells isolated from the spleen, bone marrow, and 112 blood of nearly a dozen non-immunized llamas and alpacas (Fig. 1). Recombinant SARS-113 CoV-2 RBD, expressed and purified from mammalian cells, was screened against the 114 library to identify RBD-targeting nanobodies. Select nanobody clones were tested in a 115 preliminary screen for their ability to neutralize SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry into 116 target cells (see below for more details about the assay). The nanobody that demonstrated 117 the highest preliminary neutralization potency was named Nanosota-1A and then 118 subjected to two rounds of affinity maturation. For each round of affinity maturation, 119 random mutations were introduced to the whole gene of Nanosota-1A through error-120 prone PCR, and mutant phages were selected for enhanced binding to SARS-CoV-2 121 RBD. Nanobodies contain four framework regions (FRs) as structural scaffolds and three 122 complementarity-determining regions (CDRs) for antigen binding. The nanobody after 123 the first round of affinity maturation, named *Nanosota-1B*, possessed one mutation in 124 CDR3 and two other mutations in FR3 (near CDR3). Affinity maturation of Nanosota-1B 125 resulted in *Nanosota-1C*, which possessed one mutation in CDR2 and another mutation

126 in FR2. We next made an Fc-tagged version of *Nanosota-1C*, termed *Nanosota-1C-Fc*, to

127 create a bivalent construct with increased molecular weight.

128 Nanosota-1 tightly bound to the SARS-CoV-2 RBD and completely blocked out

129 ACE2

130 To understand the structural basis for the binding of *Nanosota-1* drugs to SARS-

131 CoV-2 RBD, we determined the crystal structure of SARS-CoV-2 RBD complexed with

132 *Nanosota-1C*. The structure showed that *Nanosota-1C* binds close to the center of the

133 SARS-CoV-2 RBM (Fig. 2A). When the structures of the RBD/Nanosota-1C complex

and the RBD/ACE2 complex were superimposed together, significant clashes occurred

between ACE2 and *Nanosota-1C* (Fig. 2B), suggesting that *Nanosota-1C* binding to the

136 RBD blocks ACE2 binding to the RBD. Moreover, trimeric SARS-CoV-2 spike protein

137 is present in two different conformations: the RBD stands up in the open conformation

138 but lies down in the closed conformation (22-24). When the structures of the

139 RBD/Nanosota-1C complex and the closed spike were superimposed together, no clash

140 was found between RBD-bound *Nanosota-1C* and the rest of the spike protein (Fig.

141 S2A). In contrast, severe clashes were identified between RBD-bound ACE2 and the rest

142 of the spike protein in the closed conformation (Fig. S2B). Additionally, neither RBD-

143 bound Nanosota-1C nor RBD-bound ACE2 had clashes with the rest of the spike protein

144 in the open conformation (Fig. S2C, S2D). Thus, *Nanosota-1C* can access the spike

145 protein in both its open and closed conformations, whereas ACE2 can only access the

146 spike protein in its closed conformation. Overall, our structural data reveal that Nanosota-

147 *IC* is an ideal RBD-targeting drug that not only blocks virus binding to its receptor, but

also accesses its target in the spike protein in different conformations.

149	To corroborate our structural data on the Nanosota-1/ACE2 interactions, we
150	performed binding experiments between Nanosota-1 drugs and SARS-CoV-2 RBD using
151	recombinant ACE2 for comparison. The binding affinity between the nanobodies and the
152	RBD were measured by surface plasmon resonance (Table 1; Fig. S3). Nanosota-1A, -1B,
153	and -1C bound to the RBD with increasing affinity (K _d - from 228 nM to 14 nM),
154	confirming success of the stepwise affinity maturation. Nanosota-1C-Fc had the highest
155	RBD-binding affinity (K _d - 15.7 pM), which was \sim 3,000 times tighter than the RBD-
156	binding affinity of ACE2. Moreover, compared with ACE2, Nanosota-1C-Fc bound to
157	the RBD with a higher k_{on} and a lower k_{off} , demonstrating significantly faster binding and
158	slower dissociation. Next, we investigated the competitive binding among Nanosota-1C,
159	ACE2, and RBD using protein pull-down assay (Fig. S4A). ACE2 and Nanosota-1C
160	were mixed together in different ratios in solution, with the concentration of ACE2 kept
161	constant; RBD-Fc was added to pull down ACE2 and Nanosota-1C from solution. The
162	result showed that as the concentration of Nanosota-1C increased, less ACE2 was pulled
163	down by the RBD. Thus, ACE2 and Nanosota-1C bound competitively to the RBD. We
164	then analyzed the competitive binding using gel filtration chromatography (Fig. S4B).
165	ACE2, Nanosota-1C, and RBD were mixed, with both ACE2 and Nanosota-1C in molar
166	excess over the RBD. Analysis by gel filtration chromatography documented that no
167	ternary complex of ACE2, Nanosota-1C, and RBD formed; instead, only binary
168	complexes of RBD/ACE2 and RBD/Nanosota-1C were detected. Hence, the bindings of
169	ACE2 and <i>Nanosota-1C</i> to the RBD are mutually exclusive.
170	Nanosota-1C-Fc potently neutralized SARS-CoV-2 infection in vitro and in vivo

171	The ability of the Nanosota-1 drugs to neutralize SARS-CoV-2 infection in vitro
172	was investigated nex. Both a SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry assay and authentic SARS-
173	CoV-2 infection assay were performed (Fig. 3). For the pseudovirus entry assay,
174	retroviruses pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein (i.e., SARS-CoV-2
175	pseudoviruses) were used to enter human ACE2-expressing HEK293T cells in the
176	presence of an inhibitor. The efficacy of the inhibitor was expressed as the concentration
177	capable of neutralizing 50% of the entry efficiency (i.e., 50% Neutralizing Dose or
178	ND ₅₀). Nanosota-1C-Fc had an ND ₅₀ for the SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus of 0.27 μ g/ml,
179	which was ~10 times more potent than monovalent Nanosota-1C (2.52 μ g/ml) and over
180	100 times more potent than ACE2 (44.8 µg/ml) (Fig. 3A). Additionally, Nanosota-1
181	drugs potently neutralized SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus bearing the D614G mutation in the
182	SARS-CoV-2 spike protein (Fig. S5), which has become prevalent in many strains (25).
183	For the authentic virus infection assay, live SARS-CoV-2 was used to infect Vero cells in
184	the presence of an inhibitor. Efficacy of the inhibitor was described as the concentration
185	capable of reducing the number of virus plaques by 50% (i.e., ND ₅₀). Nanosota-1C-Fc
186	had an ND ₅₀ of 0.16 μ g/ml, which was ~20 times more potent than monovalent
187	<i>Nanosota-1C</i> (3.23 μ g/ml) and ~6000 times more potent than ACE2 (980 μ g/ml) (Fig.
188	3B; Fig. S6). Overall, both Nanosota-1C-Fc and Nanosota-1C are potent inhibitors of
189	SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry and authentic SARS-CoV-2 infection.
190	After the <i>in vitro</i> studies, we next evaluated the therapeutic efficacy of the lead drug
191	Nanosota-1C-Fc in a hamster model challenged with SARS-CoV-2 via intranasal
192	inoculation. In addition to an untreated control group, three groups of animals were
193	injected with a single dose of Nanosota-1C-Fc: (i) 24 hours pre-challenge at 20 mg/kg

194	body weight, (ii) 4 hours post-challenge at 20 mg/kg, and (iii) 4 hours post-challenge at
195	10 mg/kg. As previously validated in this model (26), body weight, tissue pathology and
196	virus titers in nasal swabs were used as metrics of therapeutic efficacy. In the untreated
197	control group, weight loss was precipitously starting on day 1 post-challenge with the
198	lowest weight recorded on day 6 (Fig. 4A). Nasal virus titers were high on day 1 and
199	remained high on day 5 before a decline (Fig. S7). Pathology analysis on tissues collected
200	on day 10 revealed moderate hyperplasia in the bronchial tubes (i.e., bronchioloalveolar
201	hyperplasia) (Fig. 4B), with little hyperplasia in the lungs. These data are consistent with
202	previous reports showing that SARS-CoV-2 mainly infects the nasal mucosa and
203	bronchial epithelial cells of this hamster model (26) . In contrast, hamsters that received
204	Nanosota-1C-Fc 24-hours pre-challenge were protected from SARS-CoV-2, as
205	evidenced by the metrics of no weight loss, no bronchioloalveolar hyperplasia, and
206	significantly reduced nasal virus titers (Fig. 4, Fig. S7). When administered 4 hours post-
207	challenge, Nanosota-1C-Fc also effectively protected hamsters from SARS-CoV-2
208	infections at either dosage (20 or 10 mg/kg), as evidenced by the favorable therapeutic
209	metrics (Fig. 4, Fig. S7). Overall, Nanosota-1C-Fc was effective at combating SARS-
210	CoV-2 infections both preventively and therapeutically.
211	Nanosota-1C-Fc is stable in vitro and in vivo with excellent bioavailability
212	With the lead drug Nanosota-1C-Fc demonstrating therapeutic efficacy in vivo,
213	we characterized other parameters important to its clinical translation. First, we expressed

- 214 *Nanosota-1C-Fc* in bacteria for all the experiments carried out in the current study (Fig.
- 5A). After purification on protein A column and gel filtration, the purity of Nanosota-1C-
- 216 Fc was nearly 100%. With no optimization, the expression yield reached 40 mg/L of

217	bacterial culture. Second, we investigated the in vitro stability of Nanosota-1C-Fc
218	incubated at four temperatures (-80°C, 4°C, 25°C or 37°C) for one week and then
219	measured the remaining SARS-CoV-2 RBD-binding capacity by ELISA (Fig. 5B). With
220	-80°C as a baseline, Nanosota-1C-Fc retained nearly all of its RBD-binding capacity at
221	the temperatures surveyed. Third, we measured the in vivo stability of Nanosota-1C-Fc
222	(Fig. 5C). Nanosota-1C-Fc was injected into mice via tail vein. Sera were obtained at
223	different time points and measured for their SARS-CoV-2 RBD-binding capacity by
224	ELISA. Nanosota-1C-Fc retained most of its RBD-binding capability after 10 days in
225	vivo. Antithetically, Nanosota-1C was stable for only several hours in vivo. (Fig. S8A).
226	Last, we examined the biodistribution of Nanosota-1C-Fc in mice (Fig. 5D). Nanosota-
227	1C-Fc was radiolabeled with zirocinium-89 and injected systemically into mice. Tissues
228	were collected at various time points and biodistribution of Nanosota-1C-Fc was
229	quantified by scintillation counter. After three days, Nanosota-1C-Fc remained at high
230	levels in the blood, lung, heart, kidney, liver and spleen, all of which are targets for
231	SARS-CoV-2 (27); moreover, it remained at low levels in the intestine, muscle and
232	bones. In contrast, Nanosota-1C had poor biodistribution documenting high renal
233	clearance (Fig. S8B). Overall, our findings suggest that Nanosota-1C-Fc is potent SARS-
234	CoV-2 therapeutic with translational values applicable to the world's vast population.
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236 Discussion

237 Nanobody therapeutics derived from camelid antibodies potentially offer a

238 realistic solution to the COVID-19 pandemic compared to conventional antibodies.

239 Currently, there have only been a few reports of nanobody drugs that specifically target

240 SARS-CoV-2 (12, 13). Those reported were developed against SARS-CoV-2 RBD,

241	either blocking out ACE2 or locking the RBD in the closed inactive state on the spike
242	protein (12, 13). None of the nanobodies have been evaluated in animal models for their
243	anti-SARS-CoV-2 therapeutic efficacy. From our novel library, we developed a series of
244	nanobody drugs, named Nanosota-1, that specifically target the SARS-CoV-2 RBD. Two
245	rounds of affinity maturation yielded Nanosota-1C which bound to the RBD with high
246	affinity. Addition of an Fc tag to make a bivalent construct with increased molecular
247	weight and picomolar RBD-binding affinity resulted in the best performing drug
248	Nanosota-1C-Fc. Our structural and biochemical data showed that binding of Nanosota-
249	<i>IC</i> to the RBD blocked virus binding to viral receptor ACE2. A unique feature of the
250	SARS-CoV-2 spike protein is that it is present in two different conformations, an RBD-
251	up open conformation for receptor binding and an RBD-down closed conformation for
252	immune evasion (20, 22, 23). Due to its small size as well as its ideal binding site on the
253	RBD, Nanosota-1 can bind to the spike protein in both conformations. In contrast, ACE2
254	can only bind to the spike protein in its open conformation. Thus, Nanosota-1 drugs are
255	ideal RBD-targeting therapeutics - they can chase down and inhibit SARS-CoV-2 viral
256	particles whether they are infecting cells or hiding from immune surveillance. As a result
257	of this unique property, both Nanosota-1C and Nanosota-1C-Fc exhibited a profound
258	therapeutic effect in vitro against SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus and authentic SARS-CoV-2.
259	Nanosota-1C-Fc was also found to be the first anti-SARS-CoV-2 camelid nanobody-
260	based therapeutic reported in the literature to demonstrate efficacy in an animal model.
261	Additionally, Nanosota-1C-Fc was the first anti-SARS-CoV-2 nanobody to have been
262	

biodistribution. These features are critical for the implementation of *Nanosota-1C-F*c as a
COVID-19 therapeutic.

265	When evaluating the anti-SARS-CoV-2 potency of the nanobody therapeutics, we
266	used recombinant ACE2 as a comparison. Recombinant ACE2 was selected because
267	Nanosota-1 series directly compete with cell-surface ACE2 for the same binding site on
268	the RBD. Our study showed that compared with ACE2, the best performing drug
269	Nanosota-1C-Fc bound to the RBD ~3000 fold more strongly, blocking out ACE2
270	binding to the RBD. Furthermore, compared with ACE2, Nanosota-1C-Fc inhibited
271	SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry \sim 100 fold more effectively and inhibited authentic
272	SARS-CoV-2 infections ~6000 fold more effectively. Note that recombinant ACE2 has
273	been shown to be a potent anti-SARS-CoV-2 inhibitor (28) and is currently undergoing
274	clinical trials in Europe as an anti-COVID-19 drug. Compared with ACE2, the much
275	higher anti-SARS-CoV-2 potency of Nanosota-1C-Fc was due to both its much higher
276	RBD-binding affinity and its better access to the oft-hidden RBD in the spike protein. As
277	a result, Nanosota-1C-Fc was a potent therapeutic in vivo. Remarkably, a single dose of
278	Nanosota-1C-Fc effectively prevented SARS-CoV-2 infection in hamsters and also
279	effectively treated SARS-CoV-2 infection in the same model. The hamster model is one
280	of the best non-primate models available for studying anti-SARS-CoV-2 therapeutic
281	efficacy, but it is limited by a short virus infection window; hence, repeated dosing was
282	not evaluated. As a result, we were only able to dose the mice once via intraperitoneal
283	injection. Because SARS-CoV-2 is fast acting in hamsters, the time points and dosages
284	for drug administration in hamsters are difficult to directly translate to humans. Our
285	supporting data document that Nanosota-1c-Fc is easy to produce in bacteria and has

286 excellent bioavailability and pharmacokinetics when administered intravenously in mice. 287 This suggests that Nanosota-1C-Fc may have therapeutic potential when administered 288 intraperitoneal, intravenous or even intramuscular. These parameters will need to be 289 determined in future studies in anticipation of clinical trials. Overall, Nanosota-1C-Fc 290 has proven to be an effective therapeutic in the model that we currently have available. 291 How can the novel nanobody therapeutics help to end the COVID-19 pandemic? 292 First, as evidence by our animal study, Nanosota-1C-Fc can be used to prevent SARS-293 CoV-2 infection. Because of its long in vivo half-life (>10 days), a single injected dose of 294 *Nanosota-1C-Fc* can theoretically protect a person from SARS-CoV-2 infection for days 295 or weeks in the outpatient setting, reducing the spread of SARS-CoV-2 in human 296 populations. Second, we also learned from our *in vivo* study that *Nanosota-1C-Fc* can 297 potentially be used to treat SARS-CoV-2 infections, thus, saving lives and alleviating 298 symptoms in infected patients in the clinical setting. Third, though ephemeral in nature 299 given its short half-life and rapid clearance from the blood, Nanosota-1C could be used 300 as an inhaler to treat infections in the respiratory tracts (10) or as an oral drug to treat 301 infections in the intestines (11). Overall, the novel series of Nanosota-1 therapeutics can 302 help minimize the mortality and morbidity of SARS-CoV-2 infections and help restore 303 the economy and daily human activities. Given the wide distribution of SARS-CoV-2 in 304 the world, large quantities of anti-SARS-CoV-2 therapeutics would need to be 305 manufactured to provide for the world's populations. This is only feasible with easy to 306 produce and scalable molecules, such as *Nanosota-1* drugs, that are produced at high 307 yields and have long *in vitro* and *in vivo* half-life. Therefore, if further validated in 308 clinical trials, Nanosota-1 therapeutics can provide a realistic and effective solution to

309 help end the COVID-19 global pandemic.

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316	pathology data on SARS-CoV-2-challenged hamsters. Crystallization screening was
317	performed at Hauptman-Woodward Medical Research Institute and supported by NSF
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319	beamline 24-ID-E and we thank Surajit Bannerjee for help in X-ray data collection. The
320	University of Minnesota has filed a patent on Nanosota-1 drugs with F.L, G.Y., A.M.L.,
321	J.P.G., J.S., and Y.W. as inventors. We thank Professor Yuhong Jiang for consultation on
322	the design of animal testing and statistical analysis and for editing the manuscript.
323	Coordinates and structure factors have been deposited to the Protein Data Bank with
324	accession number XXXX.

325 Methods

326 *Ethics statement*

327	This study was performed in strict accordance with the recommendations in the
328	Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of the National Institutes of Health.
329	All of the animals were handled according to approved institutional animal care and use
330	committee (IACUC) protocols of the University of Texas Medical Branch (protocol
331	number 2007072) and of the University of Minnesota (protocol number 2009-38426A).
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333	Cell lines, plasmids and virus
334	HEK293T cells (American Type Culture Collection) were cultured in Dulbecco's
335	modified Eagle medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 2 mM L-
336	glutamine, 100 units/mL penicillin, and 100 μ g/mL streptomycin (Life Technologies).
337	ss320 E. coli (Lucigen), TG1 E. coli (Lucigen), SHuffle T7 E. coli (New England
338	Biolabs) were grown in TB medium or 2YT medium with 100 mg/L ampicillin. Vero E6
339	cells (American Type Culture Collection) were grown in Eagle's minimal essential
340	medium (EMEM) supplemented with penicillin (100 units/ml), streptomycin (100
341	μ g/ml), and 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). SARS-CoV-2 spike (GenBank accession
342	number QHD43416.1) and ACE2 (GenBank accession number NM_021804) were
343	described previously (20). SARS-CoV-2 RBD (residues 319-529) was subcloned into
344	Lenti-CMV vector (Vigene Biosciences) with an N-terminal tissue plasminogen activator
345	(tPA) signal peptide and a C-terminal human IgG4 Fc tag or His tag. The ACE2
346	ectodomain (residues 1–615) was constructed in the same way except that its own signal
347	peptide was used. Nanosota-1A, -1B and -1C were each cloned into PADL22c vector

(Lucigen) with a N-terminal PelB leader sequence and C-terminal His tag and HA tag.

348

349 Nanosota-1C-Fc was cloned into pET42b vector (Novagen) with a C-terminal human 350 IgG₁ Fc tag. SARS-CoV-2 (US WA-1 isolate) from CDC (Atlanta) was used throughout 351 the study. All experiments involving infectious SARS-CoV-2 were conducted at the 352 University of Texas Medical Branch and University of Iowa in approved biosafety level 3 353 laboratories. 354 355 *Construction of camelid nanobody phage display library* 356 The camelid nanobody phage display library was constructed as previously 357 described (29, 30). Briefly, total mRNA was isolated from B cells from the spleen, bone 358 marrow and blood of over a dozen non-immunized llamas and alpacas. cDNA was prepared from the mRNA. The cDNA was then used in nested PCR reactions to construct 359 360 the DNA for the library. The first PCR reaction was to amplify the gene fragments 361 encoding the variable domain of the nanobody. The second PCR reaction (PCR2) was 362 used to add restriction sites (SFI-I), a PelB leader sequence, a His₆ tag, and a HA tag. The 363 PCR2 product was digested with SFI-I (New England Biolabs) and then was ligated with 364 SFI-I-digested PADL22c vector. The ligated product was transformed via electroporation 365 into TG1 E. coli (Lucigen). Aliquots of cells were spread onto 2YT agar plates 366 supplemented with ampicillin and glucose, incubated at 30°C overnight, and then scraped 367 into 2YT media. After centrifugation, the cell pellet was suspended into 50% glycerol and stored at -80°C. The library size was 7. 5×10^{10} . To display nanobodies on phages, 368 369 aliquots of the TG1 E. coli bank were inoculated into 2YT media, grown to early 370 logarithmic phase, and infected with M13K07 helper phage.

371

372 *Camelid nanobody library screening*

373	The above camelid nanobody phage display library was used in the bio-panning
374	as previously described (31). Briefly, four rounds of panning were performed to obtain
375	the SARS-CoV-2 RBD-targeting nanobodies with high RBD-binding affinity. The
376	amounts of the RBD antigen used in coating the immune tubes in each round were 75 $\mu g,$
377	50 $\mu g,$ 25 $\mu g,$ and 10 $\mu g,$ respectively. The retained phages were eluted using 1 ml 100
378	mM triethylamine and neutralized with 500 μ l 1 M Tris-HCl pH 7.5. The eluted phages
379	were amplified in TG1 E. coli and rescued with M13K07 helper phage. The eluted
380	phages from round 4 were used to infect ss320 E. coli. Single colonies were picked into
381	2YT media and nanobody expressions were induced with 1 mM IPTG. The supernatants
382	were subjected to ELISA for selection of strong binders (described below). The strong
383	binders were then expressed and purified (described below) and subjected to SARS-CoV-
384	2 pseudovirus entry assay for selection of anti-SARS-CoV-2 efficacy (described below).
385	The lead nanobody after initial screening was named Nanosota-1A.
386	
297	Affinity maturation

387 Affinity maturation

Affinity maturation of *Nanosota-1A* was performed as previously described (*32*). Briefly, mutations were introduced into the whole gene of *Nanosota-1A* using error-prone PCR. Two rounds of error-prone PCR were performed using the GeneMorph II Random Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies). The PCR product was cloned into the PADL22c vector and transformed via electroporation into the TG1 *E. coli*. The library size was 6 x 10⁸. Three rounds of bio-panning were performed using 25 ng, 10 ng and 2 ng RBD-Fc,

394	respectively. The strongest binder after affinity maturation was named Nanosota-1B. A
395	second round of affinity maturation was performed in the same way as the first round,
396	except that three rounds of bio-panning were performed using 10 ng, 2 ng and 0.5 ng
397	RBD-Fc, respectively. The strongest binder after the second round of affinity maturation
398	was named Nanosota-1C.

399

400 Production of Nanosota-1 drugs

401 Nanosota-1A, 1B and 1C were each purified from the periplasm of ss320 E. coli 402 after the cells were induced by 1 mM IPTG. The cells were collected and re-suspended in 403 15 ml TES buffer (0.2 M Tris pH 8, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 M sucrose), shaken on ice for 1 404 hour and then incubated with 40 ml TES buffer followed by shaking on ice for another 405 hour. The protein in the supernatant was sequentially purified using a Ni-NTA column 406 and a Superdex200 gel filtration column (GE Healthcare) as previously described (20). 407 Nanosota-1C-Fc was purified from the cytoplasm of Shuffle T7 E. coli. The induction of 408 protein expression was the same as above. After induction, the cells were collected, re-409 suspected in PBS and disrupted using Branson Digital Sonifier (Thermofisher). The 410 protein in the supernatant was sequentially purified on protein A column and 411 Superdex200 gel filtration column as previously described (20). 412 413 Production of SARS-CoV-2 RBD and ACE2.

HEK293T cells stably expressing SARS-CoV-2 RBD (containing a C-terminal
His tag or Fc tag) or human ACE2 ectodomain (containing a C-terminal His tag) were
made according to the E and F sections of the pLKO.1 Protocol from Addgene

(http://www.addgene.org/protocols/plko/). The proteins were secreted to cell culture
media, harvested, and purified on either Ni-NTA column (for His-tagged proteins) or
protein A column (for Fc-tagged protein) and then on Superdex200 gel filtration column
as previously described (*20*). *ELISA*

423 ELISA was performed to detect the binding between SARS-CoV-2 RBD and

424 *Nanosota-1* drugs (either purified recombinant drugs or drugs in the mouse serum) as

425 previously described (33). Briefly, ELISA plates were coated with recombinant SARS-

426 CoV-2 RBD-His or RBD-Fc, and were then incubated sequentially with nanobody drugs,

427 HRP-conjugated anti-llama antibody (1:5,000) (Sigma) or HRP-conjugated anti-human-

428 Fc antibody (1:5,000) (Jackson ImmunoResearch). ELISA substrate (Invitrogen) was

429 added to the plates, and the reactions were stopped with 1N H₂SO4. The absorbance at

430 450 nm (A₄₅₀) was measured using a Synergy LX Multi-Mode Reader (BioTek).

431

432 Determination of the structure of SARS-CoV-2 RBD complexed with Nanosota-1C

433 To prepare the RBD/*Nanosota-1C* complex for crystallization, the two proteins

434 were mixed together in solution and purified using a Superdex200 gel filtration column

435 (GE Healthcare). The complex was concentrated to 10 mg/ml in buffer 20 mM Tris pH

436 7.2 and 200 mM NaCl. Crystals were screened at High-Throughput Crystallization

437 Screening Center (Hauptman-Woodward Medical Research Institute) as previously

438 described (34), and were grown in sitting drops at room temperature over wells

439 containing 50 mM MnCl₂, 50 mM MES pH 6.0, 20% (W/V) PEG 4000. Crystals were

440	soaked briefly in 50 mM MnCl_2, 50 mM MES pH 6.0, 25% (W/V) PEG 4000 and 30%
441	ethylene glycol before being flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen. X-ray diffraction data were
442	collected at the Advanced Photon Source beamline 24-ID-E. The structure was
443	determined by molecular replacement using the structures of SARS-CoV-2 RBD (PDB
444	6M0J) and another nanobody (PDB 6QX4) as the search templates. Structure data and
445	refinement statistics are shown in Table S1.
446	
447	Surface plasmon resonance assay
448	Surface plasmon resonance assay using a Biacore S200 system (GE Healthcare)
449	was carried out as previously described (20). Briefly, SARS2-CoV-2 RBD-His was
450	immobilized to a CM5 sensor chip (GE Healthcare). Serial dilutions of purified
451	recombinant Nanosota-1 drugs were injected at different concentrations: $320 \text{ nM} - 10$
452	nM for Nanosota-1A; 80 nM - 2.5 nM for Nanosota-1B and Nanosota-1C; 20 nM - 1.25
453	nM for Nanosota-1C-Fc. The resulting data were fit to a 1:1 binding model using Biacore
454	Evaluation Software (GE Healthcare).
455	
456	Protein pull-down assay
457	Protein pull-down assay was performed using Immunoprecipitation kit
458	(Invitrogen) as previously described (20). Briefly, 10 μ l protein A beads were incubated
459	with 1 μ g SARS-CoV-2 RBD-Fc at room temperature for 1 hour. Then different amounts
460	(7.04, 3.52. 1.76, 0.88, 0.44, 0.22, or 0 µg) of <i>Nanosota-1C</i> (with a C-terminal His tag)
461	and 4 μg human ACE2 (with a C-terminal His tag) were added to the RBD-bound beads.
462	After one-hour incubation at room temperature, the bound proteins were eluted using

	53	elution buffer	(0.1 M glvcine	pH 2.7). The same	oles were then sub	jected to SDS-PAC
--	----	----------------	----------------	-------------------	--------------------	-------------------

- and analyzed through Western blot using an anti-His antibody.
- 465
- 466 *Gel filtration chromatography assay*
- 467 Gel filtration chromatography assay was performed on a Superdex200 column.
- 468 500 μg human ACE2, 109 μg *Nanosota-1C* and 121 μg SARS-CoV-2 RBD were
- 469 incubated together at room temperature for 30 min. The mixture was subjected to gel
- 470 filtration chromatography. Samples from each peak off the column were then subjected to
- 471 SDS-PAGE and analyzed through Coomassie blue staining.
- 472
- 473 SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry assay

474 The potency of *Nanosota-1* drugs in neutralizing SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry

475 was evaluated as previously described (20, 22). Briefly, HEK293T cells were co-

476 transfected with a plasmid carrying an Env-defective, luciferase-expressing HIV-1

477 genome (pNL4-3.luc.R-E-) and pcDNA3.1(+) plasmid encoding SARS-CoV-2 spike

478 protein. Pseudoviruses were collected 72 hours after transfection, incubated with

479 individual drugs at different concentrations at 37°C for one hour, and then were used to

480 enter HEK293T cells expressing human ACE2. After pseudoviruses and target cells were

481 incubated together at 37°C for 6 hours, the medium was changed to fresh medium,

482 followed by incubation of another 60 hours. Cells were then washed with PBS buffer and

- 483 lysed. Aliquots of cell lysates were transferred to plates, followed by the addition of
- 484 luciferase substrate. Relative light units (RLUs) were measured using an EnSpire plate

reader (PerkinElmer). The efficacy of the drug was expressed as the concentration
capable of neutralizing 50% of the entry efficiency (Neutralizing Dose 50 or ND₅₀).

487

488 SARS-CoV-2 plaque reduction neutralization test

489 The potency of Nanosota-1 drugs in neutralizing authentic SARS-CoV-2 490 infections was evaluated using a SARS-CoV-2 plaque reduction neutralization test 491 (PRNT) assay. Specifically, individual drugs were serially diluted in DMEM and mixed 492 1:1 with 80 pfu SARS-CoV-2 at 37°C for 1 hour. The mixtures were then added into 493 Vero E6 cells at 37°C for an additional 45 minutes. After removing the culture medium, 494 cells were overlaid with 0.6% agarose and cultured for 3 days. Plaques were visualized 495 by 0.1% crystal violet staining. The efficacy of each drug was calculated and expressed 496 as the concentration capable of reducing the number of virus plaques by 50% compared 497 to control serum-exposed virus (i.e., ND₅₀). 498

499 SARS-CoV-2 challenge of hamsters

500 Equal sex Syrian hamsters (n=24) were obtained from Envigo (IN) and challenged via intranasal inoculation with SARS-CoV-2 (at a titer of 1 x 10⁶ Median 501 502 Tissue Culture Infectious Dose or TCID₅₀) in 100 µL DMEM (50 µL per nare). Sample 503 size was comparable to previous animal challenge studies (33) and constrained by the 504 availability of resources. At a sample size of 6 animals per group, G*Power analysis 505 indicates that we can detect an effect size of 1.6 with a power of .80 (alpha = .05 one-506 tailed). Four groups of hamsters (n=6 each randomly assigned) were treated with 507 *Nanosota-1C-Fc* via intraperitoneal injection at one of the following time points and

508	dosages: (1) 24 hours pre-challenge at 20 mg/kg body weight of hamsters; (2) 4 hours
509	post-challenge at 20 mg/kg body weight of hamsters; (3) 4 hours post-challenge at 10
510	mg/kg body weight of hamsters. Hamsters in the control (negative) group were
511	administered PBS buffer 24 hours pre-challenge. An additional group was tested for a
512	different hypothesis and the data were not included in the current study. Body weights
513	were collected daily beginning prior to challenge. Nasal swabs were collected prior to
514	challenge and additionally 1 day, 2 days, 3 days, 5 days and 10 days post-challenge for
515	quantitative real-time RT-PCR (nasal swabs collected on day 2 and day 3 were lost due to
516	Hurricane Laura). Hamsters were humanely euthanized 10 days post-challenge via
517	overexposure to CO ₂ . The lungs and bronchial tubes were collected and fixed in formalin
518	for histopathological analysis. This experiment was performed in accordance with the
519	guidelines set by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of
520	Texas Medical Branch (UTMB).
521	
522	Half-life of Nanosota-1 drugs in mice
523	Male C57BL/6 mice (3 to 4 weeks old) (Envigo) were intravenously injected (tail-

- vein) with *Nanosota-1C* or *Nanosota-1C-Fc* (100 µg in 100 µl PBS buffer). At varying
- 525 time points, mice were euthanized and whole blood was collected. Then sera were
- 526 prepared through centrifugation of the whole blood at 1500xg for 10 min. The sera were
- 527 then subjected to ELISA for evaluation of their SARS-CoV-2 RBD-binding capability.

528

529 Biodistribution of Nanosota-1 drugs in mice

530	To evaluate the <i>in vivo</i> biodistribution of <i>Nanosota-1C-Fc</i> and <i>Nanosota-1C</i> , the
531	nanobodies were labeled with Zirconium-89 [89Zr] and injected into male C57BL/6 mice
532	(5 to 6 weeks old) (Envigo). Briefly, the nanobodies were first conjugated to the
533	bifunctional chelator p-SCN-Bn-Deferoxamine (DFO, Macrocyclic) as previously
534	described (35), and [⁸⁹ Zr] (University of Wisconsin Medical Physics Department) was
535	then conjugated as previously described (36). [89 Zr]-labeled nanobodies (1.05 MBq, 1-2
536	μ g nanobody, 100 μ l PBS) were intravenously injected (tail-vein). Mice were euthanized
537	at different time points. Organs were collected and counted on an automatic gamma-
538	counter (Hidex). The total number of counts per minute (cpm) for each organ or tissue
539	was compared with a standard sample of known activity and mass. Count data were
540	corrected to both background and decay. The percent injected dose per gram (%ID/g) was
541	calculated by normalization to the total amount of activity injected into each mouse.
542	

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629 Table 1. Binding affinities between *Nanosota-1* drugs and SARS-CoV-2 RBD as

- 630 **measured using surface plasmon resonance.** The previously determined binding
- 631 affinity between human ACE2 and RBD is shown as a comparison (20).
- 632

	K _d with SARS- CoV-2 RBD (M)	$k_{off}(s^{-1})$	$k_{on} \left(\mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{s}^{-1} \right)$
<i>Nanosota-1A</i> (before affinity maturation)	2.28 x 10 ⁻⁷	9.35 x 10 ⁻³	4.10 x 10 ⁴
<i>Nanosota-1B</i> (after 1 st round of affinity maturation)	6.08 x 10 ⁻⁸	7.19 x 10 ⁻³	1.18 x 10 ⁵
<i>Nanosota-1C</i> (after 2 nd round of affinity maturation)	1.42 x 10 ⁻⁸	2.96 x 10 ⁻³	2.09 x 10 ⁵
<i>Nanosota-1C-Fc</i> (after 2 nd round of affinity maturation; containing a C-terminal human Fc tag)	1.57 x 10 ⁻¹¹	9.68 x 10 ⁻⁵	6.15 x 10 ⁶
ACE2	4.42 x 10 ⁻⁸	7.75 x 10 ⁻³	1.75 x 10 ⁵

635 Figure legends:

- 636 Figure 1: Construction of a camelid nanobody phage display library and use of this
- 637 library for screening of anti-SARS-CoV-2 nanobodies. A large-sized (diversity 7.5 x
- 10^{10}), naïve nanobody phage display library was constructed using B cells of over a
- 639 dozen llamas and alpacas. Phages were screened for their high binding affinity for SARS-
- 640 CoV-2 RBD. Nanobodies expressed from the selected phages were further screened for
- 641 their potency in neutralizing SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry. The best performing
- 642 nanobody was subjected to two rounds of affinity maturation.
- 643

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644 Figure 2: Crystal structure of SARS-CoV-2 RBD complexed with Nanosota-1C. (A)
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- 645 Structure of SARS-CoV-2 RBD complexed with *Nanosota-1C*, viewed at two different
- 646 angles. *Nanosota-1C* is in red, the core structure of RBD is in cyan, and the receptor-
- 647 binding motif (RBM) of RBD is in magenta. (B) Overlay of the structures of the
- 648 RBD/Nanosota-1C complex and RBD/ACE2 complex (PDB 6M0J). ACE2 is in green.
- 649 The structures of the two complexes were superimposed based on their common RBD
- 650 structure. The *Nanosota-1C* loops that have clashes with ACE2 are in blue.
- 651

652 Figure 3. Efficacy of Nanosota-1 drugs in neutralizing SARS-CoV-2 infections in

- 653 *vitro*. (A) Neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry into target cells by one of
- 654 three inhibitors: *Nanosota-1C-Fc, Nanosota-1C*, and recombinant human ACE2.
- 655 Retroviruses pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 spike protein (i.e., SARS-CoV-2
- 656 pseudoviruses) were used to enter HEK293T cells expressing human ACE2 in the
- 657 presence of the inhibitor at various concentrations. Entry efficiency was characterized via

658	a luciferase signal indicating successful cell entry. Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 4).
659	Nonlinear regression was performed using a log (inhibitor) versus normalized response
660	curve and a variable slope model ($R^2 > 0.95$ for all curves). The efficacy of each inhibitor
661	was expressed as the 50% Neutralizing Dose or ND_{50} . The assay was repeated three times
662	(biological replication: new aliquots of pseudoviruses and cells were used for each
663	repeat). (B) Neutralization of authentic SARS-CoV-2 infection of target cells by one of
664	two inhibitors: Nanosota-1C-Fc and Nanosota-1C. The potency of Nanosota-1 drugs in
665	neutralizing authentic SARS-CoV-2 infections was evaluated using a SARS-CoV-2
666	plaque reduction neutralization test (PRNT) assay. 80 pfu infectious SARS-CoV-2
667	particles were used to infect Vero E6 cells in the presence of the inhibitor at various
668	concentrations. Infection was characterized as the number of virus plaques formed in
669	overlaid cells. Images of virus plaques for each inhibitor at the indicated concentrations
670	are shown. Each image represents data from triplications. The efficacy of each inhibitor
671	was calculated and expressed as the concentration capable of reducing the number of
672	virus plaques by 50% (i.e., ND ₅₀). The assay was repeated twice (biological replication:
673	new aliquots of virus particles and cells were used for each repeat).
674	

674

675 Figure 4. Efficacy of *Nanosota-1* drugs in protecting hamsters from SARS-CoV-2

676 infections. Hamsters (6 per group) were injected with a single dose of *Nanosota-1C-Fc* at

the indicated time point and the indicated dosage. At day 0 all groups (experimental and

678 control) were challenged with SARS-CoV-2 (at a titer of 10^6 Median Tissue Culture

679 Infectious Dose or TCID₅₀). (A) Body weights of hamsters were monitored on each day

and percent change in body weight relative to day 0 was calculated for each hamster.

681 Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 6). ANOVA on group as a between-group factor and day 682 (1-10) as a within-group factor revealed significant differences between the control group 683 and each of the following groups: 24 hour pre-challenge (20 mg/kg) group (F(1, 10) = 684 17.80, p = .002; effect size $\eta_{r}^{2} = .64$), 4 hour post-challenge (20 mg/kg) group (F(1, 10) =685 5.02, p = .035; $\eta_{\nu}^2 = .37$), and 4 hour post-challenge (10 mg/kg) group (F(1, 10) = 7.04, p 686 = .024, $n_{\rm e}^2$ = .41). All *p*-values are two-tailed. (B) Tissues of bronchial tubes from each of 687 the hamsters were collected on day 10 and scored for the severity of bronchioloalveolar 688 hyperplasia: 3 - moderate; 2 - mild; 1 - minimum; 0 - none. Data are the mean ± SEM (n 689 = 6). A comparison between the control group and each of other groups was performed 690 using one-tailed Student's t-test for directional tests. ***p < 0.001; *p < 0.05.

691

692 Figure 5. Analysis of expression, purification and pharmacokinetics of Nanosota-1C-

693 *Fc.* (A) Purification of *Nanosota-1C-Fc* from bacteria. The protein was nearly 100% pure 694 after gel filtration chromatography, as demonstrated by its elution profile and SDS-PAGE

695 (stained by Coomassie blue). The yield of the protein was 40 mg/L of bacterial culture,

696 without any optimization of the expression. (B) *In vitro* stability of *Nanosota-1C-Fc*. The

697 protein was stored at indicated temperatures for a week, and then a dilution ELISA was

698 performed to evaluate its SARS-CoV-2 RBD-binding capability. Data are the mean ±

699 SEM (n = 4). (C) In vivo stability of Nanosota-1C-Fc. Nanosota-1C-Fc was injected into

700 mice, mouse sera were collected at different time points, and *Nanosota-1C-Fc* remaining

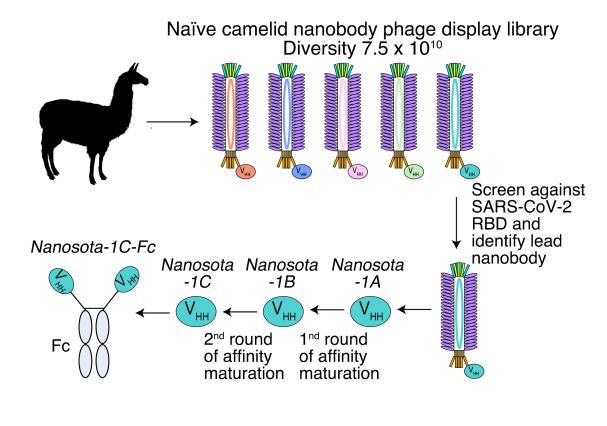
in the sera was detected for its SARS-CoV-2 RBD-binding capability as displayed in a

702 dilution ELISA. Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 3). (D) Biodistribution of [⁸⁹Zr]Zr-

703 Nanosota-1C-Fc. Nanosota-1C-Fc was radioactively labeled with ⁸⁹Zr and injected into

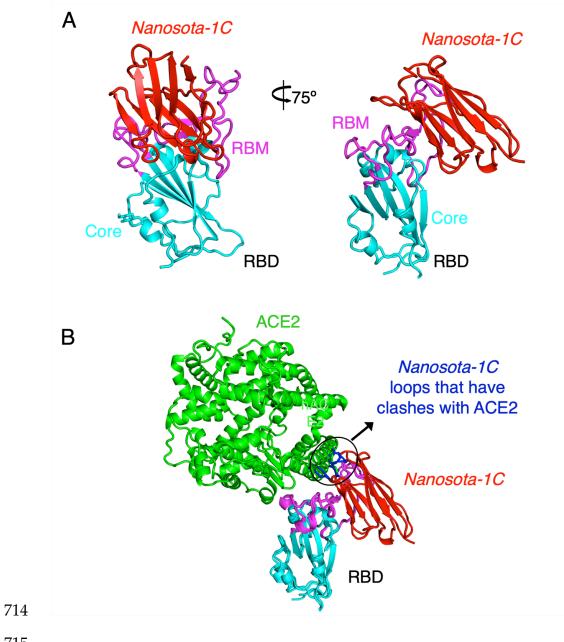
- 704 mice via tail vein injection. Different tissues or organs were collected at various time
- points (n=3 mice per time point). The amount of *Nanosota-1C-Fc* present in each tissue
- or organ was measured through examining the radioactive count of each tissue or organ.
- 707 Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 3).
- 708

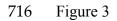
Figure 1



712

713 Figure 2





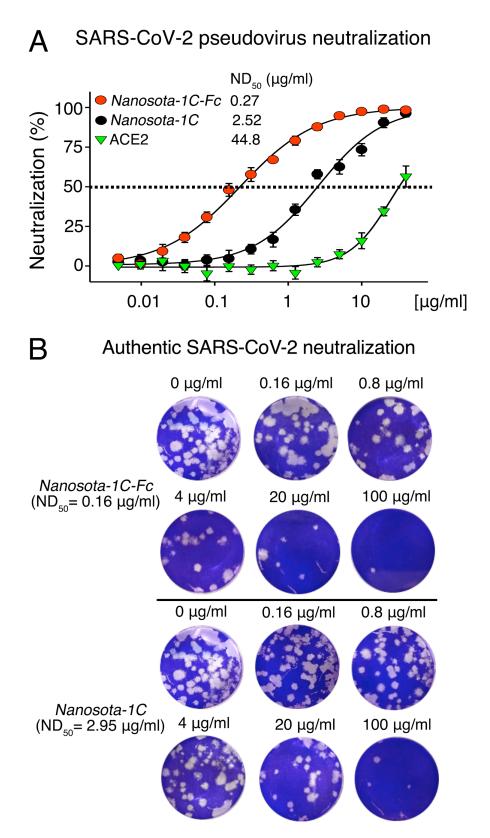
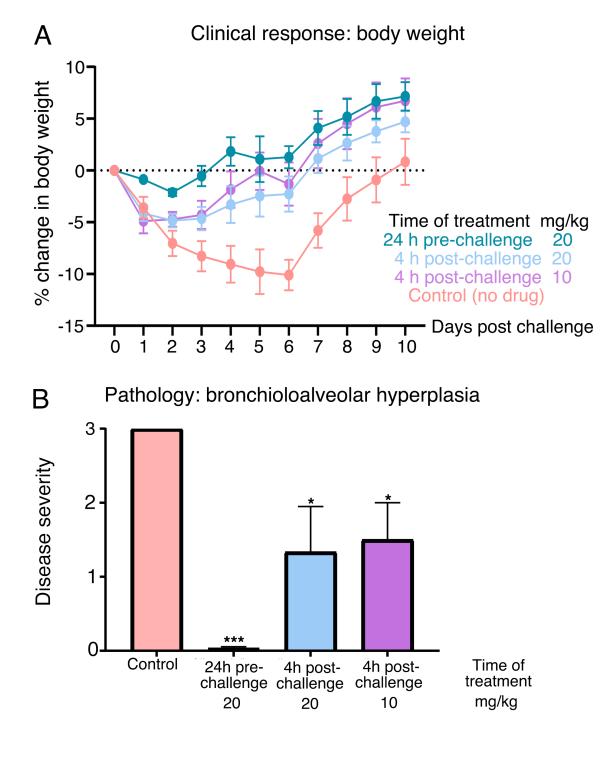
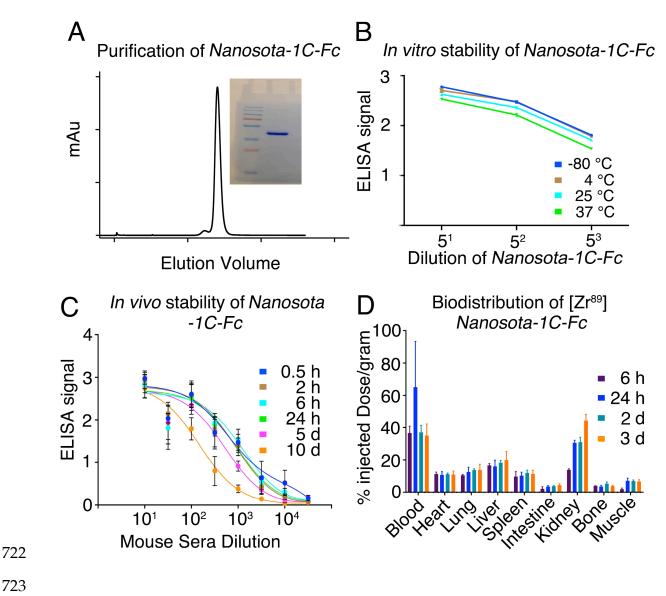


Figure 4



720

Figure 5 721





724 Supplementary materials for

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726 "The Development of a Novel Nanobody Therapeutic for SARS-CoV-2"

727	
728	Gang Ye ^{1,*} , Joseph P. Gallant ^{2,*} , Christopher Massey ³ , Ke Shi ⁴ , Wanbo Tai ⁵ , Jian Zheng ⁶ , Abby E. Odle ⁶ , Molly A. Vickers ⁶ , Jian Shang ¹ , Yushun Wan ¹ ,
729	Jian Zheng ⁶ , Abby E. Odle ⁶ , Molly A. Vickers ⁶ , Jian Shang ¹ , Yushun Wan ¹ ,
730	Aleksandra Drelich ⁷ , Kempaiah R. Kempaiah ⁷ , Vivian Tat ⁸ , Stanley Perlman ⁶ ,
731	Lanying Du ⁵ , Chien-Te Tseng ^{7,9} , Hideki Aihara ⁴ , Aaron M. LeBeau ^{2,#} , Fang Li ^{1,#}
732	

733 Table S1. X-ray data collection and structure refinement statistics

734 (SARS-CoV-2 RBD/Nanosota-1C complex)

Data collection	
Wavelength	0.979
Resolution range	45.48 - 3.19 (3.30 - 3.19)
Space group	P 43 21 2
Unit cell	60.849 60.849 410.701 90 90 90
Total reflections	64167 (5703)
Unique reflections	13607 (1308)
Multiplicity	4.7 (4.4)
Completeness (%)	96.82 (97.60)
Mean I/sigma(I)	8.41 (1.80)
Wilson B-factor	83.24
R-merge	0.145 (0.928)
R-meas	0.1638 (1.053)
R-pim	0.07385 (0.4858)
CC1/2	0.995 (0.861)
CC*	0.999 (0.962)
Refinement	
Reflections used in refinement	13567 (1301)
Reflections used for R-free	674 (62)
R-work	0.2483 (0.3521)
R-free	0.2959 (0.4153)
CC(work)	0.963 (0.819)
CC(free)	0.909 (0.615)
Number of non-hydrogen atoms macromolecules	4890 4833
ligands	57
Protein residues	621
RMS(bonds)	0.002
RMS(angles)	0.45
Ramachandran favored (%)	93.11
Ramachandran allowed (%)	6.89
Ramachandran outliers (%)	0.00
Rotamer outliers (%)	3.23
Clashscore	5.25
Average B-factor	90.29
macromolecules	89.84
ligands	127.91
Statistics for the highest-resolution shell are shown in parenth	

737

738

739 Figure S1. Schematic drawings of nanobodies and conventional antibodies. VH:

variable domain of heavy chain. CH: constant domain of heavy chain. VL: variable

domain of light chain. CL: constant domain of light chain. VHH: variable domain of

heavy-chain only antibody. scFv: single-chain variable fragment.

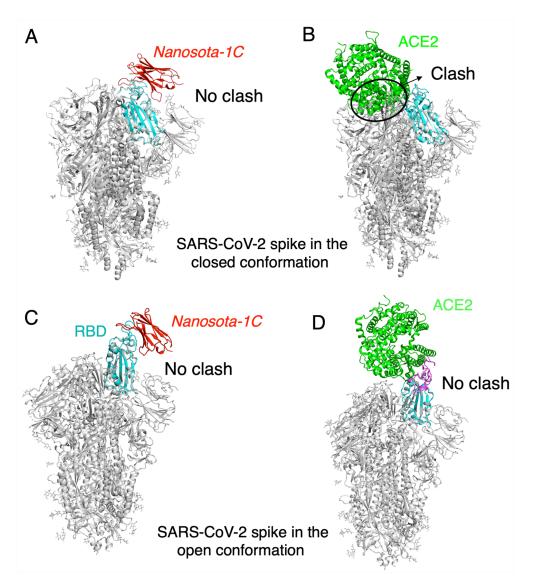
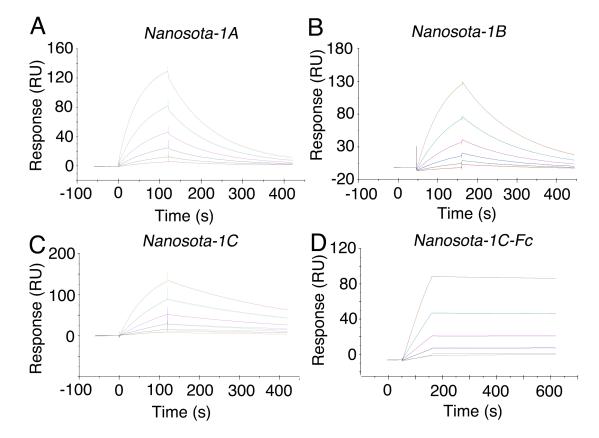




Figure S2. The binding of Nanosota-1C to SARS-CoV-2 spike protein in different 746 747 conformations. (A) The binding of *Nanosota-1C* to the spike protein in the closed 748 conformation. The structures of the RBD/Nanosota-1C complex and SARS-CoV-2 spike 749 protein in the closed conformation (PDB: 6ZWV) were superimposed based on their 750 common RBD structure (in cyan). Nanosoto-1C is in red. The rest of the spike protein is 751 in gray. (B) The binding of ACE2 to the spike protein in the closed conformation. The 752 structures of the RBD/ACE2 complex (PDB 6M0J) and SARS-CoV-2 spike protein in 753 the closed conformation (PDB: 6ZWV) were superimposed based on their common RBD 754 structure. ACE2 is in green. Clashes between ACE2 and the rest of the spike protein were 755 circled. (C) The binding of *Nanosota-1C* to the spike protein in the open conformation 756 (PDB: 6VSB). (D) The binding of ACE2 to the spike protein in the open conformation 757 (PDB: 6VSB).



760 Figure S3. Measurement of the binding affinities between *Nanosota-1* drugs and

761 SARS-CoV-2 RBD by surface plasmon resonance assay using Biacore. Purified

recombinant SARS-CoV-2 RBD was covalently immobilized on a sensor chip through its

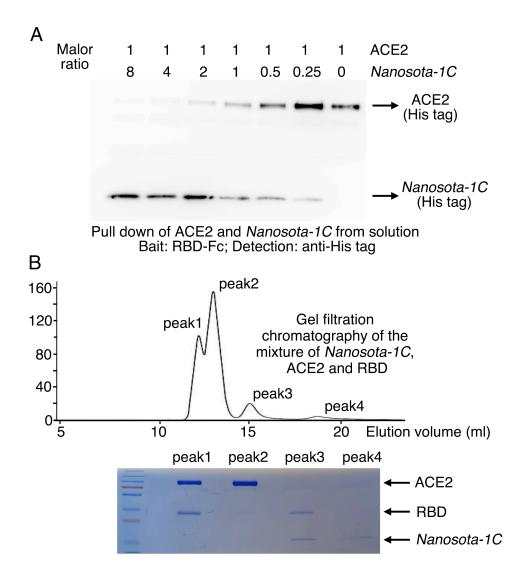
amine groups. Purified recombinant nanobodies flowed over the RBD individually at one

of five different concentrations. The resulting data were fit to a 1:1 binding model and the

value of K_d was calculated for each nanobody. The assay was repeated three times

(biological replication: new aliquots of proteins and new sensor chips were used for eachrepeat).

768



769

770 Figure S4. Binding interactions between *Nanosota-1* drugs and SARS-CoV-2 RBD.

771 (A) Binding interactions between SARS-CoV-2 RBD, *Nanosota-1C*, and ACE2 as 772 evaluated using a protein pull-down assay. Various concentrations of *Nanosota-1C* and a 773 constant concentration of ACE2 (all His tagged) were combined in different molar ratios. 774 SARS-CoV-2 RBD (Fc tagged) was used to pull down *Nanosota-1C* and ACE2. A 775 western blot was used to detect the presence of Nanosota-1C and ACE2 following pull 776 down by SARS-CoV-2 RBD. The assay was repeated three times (biological replication: 777 new aliquots of proteins were used for each repeat). (B) Binding interactions between 778 SARS-CoV-2 RBD, Nanosota-1C, and ACE2 as examined using gel filtration 779 chromatography. Nanosota-1C, ACE2 and SARS-CoV-2 RBD (all His tagged) were 780 mixed together in solution (both Nanosota-1C and ACE2 in molar excess of SARS-CoV-781 2 RBD) and purified using gel filtration chromatography. Protein components in each of the gel filtration chromatography peaks were analyzed with SDS-PAGE and stained by 782 783 Coomassie blue. The assay was repeated three times (biological replication: new aliquots 784 of proteins were used for each repeat).

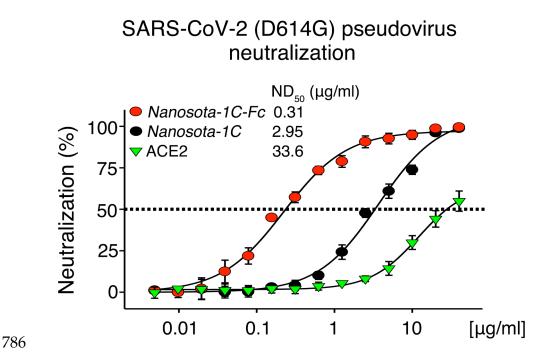


Figure S5. Neutralization of SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus, which contains the D614G
mutation in the spike protein, by *Nanosota-1* drugs. The procedure was the same as
described in Fig. 3A, except that the mutant spike protein replaced the wild type spike
protein. The assay was repeated three times (biological replication: new aliquots of
pseudoviruses and cells were used for each repeat).

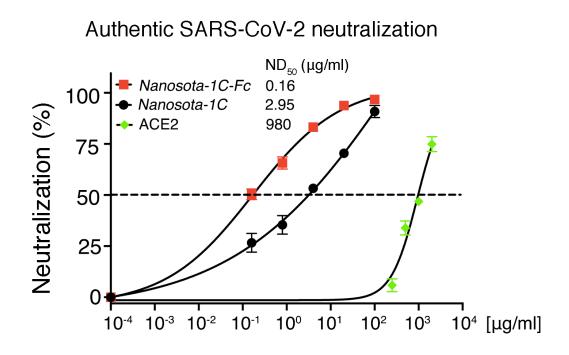
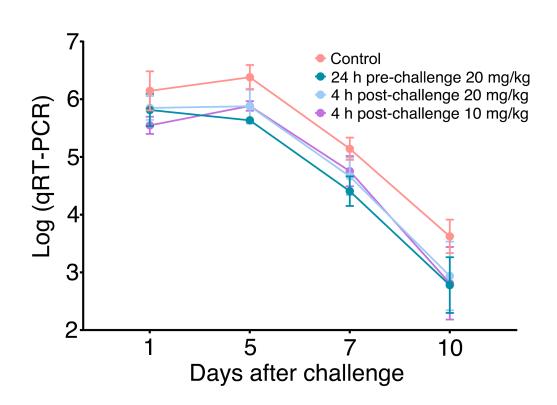


Figure S6. Detailed data on the neutralization of authentic SARS-CoV-2 infection of target cells by *Nanosota-1* drugs. Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 3). Nonlinear regression was performed using a log (inhibitor) versus normalized response curve and a variable slope model (R² > 0.95 for all curves). The assay was repeated twice (biological replication: new aliquots of virus particles and cells were used for each repeat).

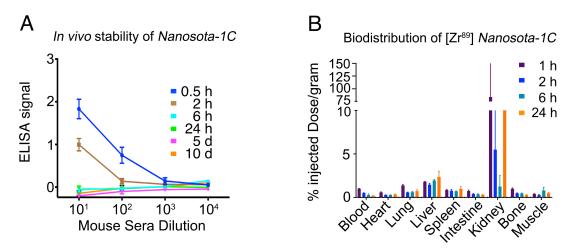
Viral load



800

801 Figure S7. Additional data on the efficacy of Nanosota-1 drugs in protecting

802 hamsters from SARS-CoV-2 infections. Nasal swabs were collected from each hamster 803 on days 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, and 10. Nasal swab samples from day 2 and day 3 were lost due to 804 Hurricane Laura, gRT-PCR was performed to determine the virus loads in each of the 805 samples. The qRT-PCR results are displayed on a log scale (since qRT-PCR amplifies signals on a log scale). Data are the mean \pm SEM (n = 6). Missing data from one animal 806 807 in the 4-hour post-challenge (10mg/kg) group on Day 7 were replaced by the average of 808 that animal's days 5 and 10 data. ANOVA analysis using group as a between-group 809 factor and day (1, 5, 7, and 10) as a within-group factor revealed significant differences between the control group and each of the following groups: 24 hour pre-challenge (20 mg/kg) group (F(1, 10) = 6.02, p = .017, effect size $\eta_p^2 = .38$), 4 hour post-challenge (20 mg/kg) group (F(1, 10) = 5.38, p = .037, $\eta_p^2 = .31$), and 4 hour post-challenge (10 mg/kg) group (F(1, 10) = 3.40, p = .048, $\eta_p^2 = .25$). All *p*-values are one-tailed for directional 810 811 812 813 814 tests. 815



816 817

Figure S8. Pharmacokinetics of Nanosota-1C. In vivo stability and biodistribution of

818 *Nanosota-1C* were measured in the same way as described in Fig. 5C and Fig. 5D,

819 respectively, except that time points for *Nanosota-1C* differed from those for *Nanosota-*

- 820 *IC-Fc* due to pharmacokinetic differences of the small molecular weight nanobody
- 821 versus the larger Fc tagged nanobody.