Implications of Spike-glycoprotein processing at S1/S2 by Furin, at S2' by Furin

and/or TMPRSS2 and shedding of ACE2: cell-to-cell fusion, cell entry and

infectivity of SARS-CoV-2

Rachid Essalmani[1], Jaspreet Jain[2,7], Delia Susan-Resiga[1,7], Ursula Andréo[1,2,7], Alexandra Evagelidis[1],

Rabeb Mouna Derbali[1], David N. Huynh[1], Frédéric Dallaire[2], Mélanie Laporte[2], Adrien Delpal[3],

Priscila Sutto-Ortiz[3], Bruno Coutard[4], Claudine Mapa[5], Keith Wilcoxen[5], Etienne Decroly[3], Tram NQ

Pham[2], Éric A. Cohen[2,6] & Nabil G. Seidah[1*]

[1] **Laboratory of Biochemical Neuroendocrinology Montreal Clinical Research Institute** (IRCM,

affiliated to the University of Montreal) 110 Pine Ave west, Montreal, QC, H2W1R7, Canada

[2] **Laboratory of Human Retrovirology Montreal Clinical Research Institute** (IRCM, affiliated to

the University of Montreal) 110 Pine Ave west, Montreal, QC, H2W1R7, Canada

[3] **AFMB, CNRS**, Université Aix-Marseille, CNRS, UMR 7257, Case 925, 163 Avenue de Luminy,

13288 Marseille Cedex 09, France, Marseille, France

[4] **Unité des Virus Émergents** (UVE: Aix-Marseille Univ - IRD 190 - **Inserm** 1207 - IHU Méditerranée

Infection), Marseille, France

[5] **Boston Pharmaceuticals,** Translational Research, 55 Cambridge Parkway, Suite 400, Cambridge,

MA 02142, USA

[6] **Department of Microbiology, Infectiology and Immunology**, Université de Montréal, Montréal,

Québec, Canada

[7] Each of these authors contributed equally: Jaspreet Jain, Delia Susan-Resiga and Ursula Andreo

[*]Corresponding author: seidahn@ircm.qc.ca

Short title: **Furin and TMPRSS2 are the major processing enzymes of spike protein regulating**

SARS-CoV-2 infection

Abstract

The Spike (S)-protein of SARS-CoV-2 binds host-cell receptor ACE2 and requires proteolytic "priming" at P$\underline{R}$RA$\underline{R}_{685}\downarrow$ into S1 and S2 (cleavage at S1/S2), and "fusion-activation" at KPS$\underline{KR}_{815}\downarrow$ (cleavage at S2') for viral entry. Both cleavages occur at Furin-like motifs suggesting that proprotein convertases might promote virus entry. *In vitro* Furin cleaved peptides mimicking the S1/S2 cleavage site more efficiently than S2', whereas TMPRSS2 cleaved at both sites. In HeLa cells endogenous Furin-like enzymes cleave mainly at S1/S2 during intracellular protein trafficking, as confirmed by mutagenesis. We also mapped the S2' cleavage site by proteomics and further showed that S2'-processing by Furin, while limited, was strongly enhanced in the presence of ACE2. In contrast, the S2' K$\underline{RR}$KR$_{815}\downarrow$ mutant (µS2') was considerably better cleaved by Furin, whereas individual/double KR815AA mutants are retained in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Pharmacological inhibitors of convertases (Boston Pharmaceuticals - BOS-inhibitors) effectively blocked endogenous S-protein processing in HeLa cells. However, under co-expression the S-protein was prematurely cleaved by TMPRSS2 into ER-retained, non-O-glycosylated S2 and S2' products. Quantitative analysis of cell-to-cell fusion and Spike processing using Hela cells revealed the key importance of the Furin sites for syncytia formation and unveiled the enhanced fusogenic potential of the α- and δ-variants of the S-protein of SARS-CoV-2. Our fusion assay indicated that TMPRSS2 enhances S2' formation, especially in the absence of Furin cleavage, as well as ACE2 shedding. Furthermore, we provide evidence using pseudoparticles that while entry by a "pH-dependent" endocytosis pathway in HEK293 cells did not require Furin processing at S1/S2, a "pH-independent" viral entry in lung-derived Calu-3 cells was sensitive to inhibitors of Furin and TMPRSS2. Consistently, in Calu-3 cells BOS-inhibitors or Camostat potently reduce infectious viral titer and cytopathic effects and this outcome was enhanced when both compounds were combined. Overall, our results show that Furin and TMPRSS2 play synergistic roles in generating fusion-competent S-protein, and promote viral entry, supporting the combination of Furin and TMPRSS2 inhibitors as potent antivirals against SARS-CoV-2.

Author Summary

SARS-CoV-2 is the etiological agent of the COVID-19 pandemic that spread around the world in 2020 resulting in ~4 million deaths. The surface spike protein (S) of the virus directs infection of the lungs and other tissues by binding the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) receptor. For effective infection, the S-protein needs to be cleaved at two sites: S1/S2 and S2'. Cleavage at S1/S2 induces a conformational change in the spike protein favouring the recognition of the ACE2 receptor. The S2' cleavage is critical for the exposure of the fusion domain of the S-protein needed for virus entry into host cells. Several new S-variants contain mutations in the S1/S2 cleavage site possibly enhancing the S-protein processing, especially for the δ-variant, which may explain the higher transmissibility of this virus worldwide. Our study contributes to a better understanding of the dynamics of interaction between Furin and TMPRSS2 in SARS-CoV-2 entry and suggest that the combination of a non-toxic Furin inhibitor with that of TMPRSS2 could significantly reduce viral entry in lung cells, as evidenced by our results showing an average synergistic ~95% reduction of viral infection. This represents a powerful novel antiviral approach to reduce viral spread in individuals infected by SARS-CoV-2 or future related coronaviruses.

Introduction

Epidemics date from prehistoric times but are exacerbated by overcrowding and human impact on the ecosystem [1]. The RNA coronaviruses (CoV) are zoonotic pathogens that spread in the human population, causing respiratory, enteric, renal and neurological diseases [2]. Electron microscopy of CoV revealed that the lipid envelope of each virion is surrounded by a "crown"-like structure [3], composed of multiple copies of a viral surface glycoprotein known as "spike" (S), which is essential for receptor binding and virus entry. Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV-1) and Middle East Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) are infectious pathogenic viruses that appeared in humans at the beginning of

the 21st century [2, 4]. At the end of 2019, a third CoV, namely SARS-CoV-2, emerged causing widespread

pandemic respiratory and vascular illnesses [5], coined COVID-19 [6].

Like envelope glycoproteins of many infectious viruses [7-9] the secretory type-I membrane-bound S of

SARS-CoV-2 is synthesized as a precursor (proS) that undergoes cleavages by host cell proteases at specific

sites to enhance viral entry. During infection, the trimetric proS (monomer, 1,272 residues) is first processed

at an S1/S2 cleavage site by host cell proteases (Fig. 1A). Unlike SARS-CoV-1, the S-protein of SARS-

CoV-2 exhibits an insertion of four critical amino acids (PRRA) at the S1/S2 junction [10-12], forming a

P**R**RA**R**$_{685}$↓ Furin-like cleavage site (FCS). Such "priming" step divides the protein into two subunits S1

and S2 held together by non-covalent interactions. Following S-protein priming, the N-terminal S1-

ectodomain undergoes a conformational change that exposes its receptor-binding-domain (RBD) [13],

which recognizes the ACE2 entry receptor [11]. The trimeric C-terminal membrane-anchored S2-subunit

is involved in host-cell fusion and viral entry [11]. The S2-subunit contains an additional "fusion-

activation" proteolytic site (S2') whose precise location remains poorly defined, followed by an α-helical

fusion peptide (FP) and two heptad-repeat domains preceding the transmembrane domain (TM) and

cytosolic tail (CT) (Fig. 1A). It is thought that cleavage at S2' triggers large-scale rearrangements, including

a refolding step that is associated with the separation of S1- and S2-subunits and exposure of a

hydrophobic α-helix C-terminal to S2', favoring fusion of viral and host cell membranes leading to virus

entry [14]. Fusion with host cells can occur either at the cell surface (pH-independent) or following

endocytosis of the virus (pH-dependent) [15]. However, the cognate host-cell proteases responsible for

the S1/S2 and S2' cleavages vary between each coronavirus and cell-type infected [11, 12, 16-19].

The proprotein convertases (PCs; genes *PCSKs*) constitute a family of nine secretory serine proteases

that regulate various processes in both health and disease states [20]. Through proteolysis, PCs are

responsible for the activation and/or inactivation of many secretory precursor proteins, including

virus/pathogen surface glycoproteins [9, 20]. Seven PCs, including the widely expressed Furin, PC5A,

PACE4 and PC7 cleave secretory substrates at specific single/paired basic amino acids (aa) within the

motif $(K/R)-X_n-(K/R)\downarrow$, where X_n= 0, 2, 4 or 6 spacer X residues [20]. Because of their critical

functions, PCs, especially the ubiquitously expressed Furin [21], are implicated in many viral

infections *via* specific cleavages of envelope glycoproteins, a condition that allows not only the fusion

of the viral lipid envelope with host cell membranes [9, 20], but also cell-to-cell fusion (syncytia) for

certain viral infections leading to important cytopathogenic effects [22, 23].

As the S1/S2 cleavage is thought to play a critical role for cellular receptor recognition and virus

entry, the efficacy and extent of this activation step by host proteases might be a key determinant

regulating cellular tropism, viral pathogenesis, and human-to-human transmission. In contrast to

SARS-CoV-1, the proS of SARS-CoV-2 contains a structurally exposed P**R**RA**R**$_{685}\downarrow$S**V** motif [10, 11]

(Fig. 1A), which corresponds to a canonical FCS [9, 10, 20]. This Furin-like motif is presumably

cleaved during *de novo* virus egress [23] for S-protein priming and may provide a key role for the

efficient spread of SARS-CoV-2 to various human tissues compared to the more limited tropism of

other lineage B β-coronaviruses [10, 24]. Furthermore, based on the predicted S2' sequence of SARS-

CoV-2, we proposed [10] that Furin-like enzymes could also cleave the latter site at KPS**KR**$_{815}\downarrow$S**F**

(Fig. 1A). Indeed, various reports have since supported the implication of Furin in the S1/S2 priming

of the S-protein in human cell culture models [12, 25, 26] and *in vivo* in mice, hamsters and ferrets [27,

28]. In addition, it was also suggested that the cell surface type-II transmembrane serine protease 2

(TMPRSS2) enhances fusion by cleavage at S2', but that S1/S2 cleavage is mostly Furin-dependent

[18]. The ability of the Arg/Lys-specific TMPRSS2 [29, 30] to directly cleave at S2' was suggested

based on the viral entry blockade by the TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat [31-33], and through silencing

of TMPRSS2 expression using a morpholino oligomer [18]. Thus, it is likely that one or more proteases

can regulate SARS-CoV-2 entry into human airway epithelial cells [18, 24]. Furthermore, since the

tissue-expression of TMPRSS2 is restricted to a limited set of cell types compared to that of the

ubiquitously expressed Furin, the activity of the latter may widen viral tropism [34].

The major goals of the present study were to precisely define the respective roles of Furin and TMPRSS2

in the fusion activation and infectivity of SARS-CoV-2, and to test the consequences of their inhibition.

The convertases Furin and PC5A were shown to induce effective priming of proS at S1/S2 generating

membrane anchored S2 and a soluble S1 subunit, and a less efficient cleavage at S2', even in the presence

of ACE2. Unexpectedly, when TMPRSS2 was co-expressed with the S-protein, cleavage occurred early in

the ER, generating non-O-glycosylated products S2a and S2b and a secreted S1' by a non-conventional

pathway [35]. In contrast, co-cultures of HeLa cells expressing S or its Furin-resistant S1/S2 mutant

ARAA$_{685}$ (µS1/S2) with cells expressing ACE2 and TRMPSS2, revealed that TMPRSS2 on the cell surface

of acceptor cells can generate an S2' product, especially in absence of Furin cleavage. TMPRSS2 also

cleaved ACE2 into a soluble form (sACE2) [36], which possibly binds the secreted S1 subunit.

We present for the first time the effectiveness of three non-toxic, cell-permeable small molecule Furin-

like inhibitors (Boston Pharmaceuticals, BOS-inhibitors) that resulted in sustained intracellular inhibition

of proS processing at S1/S2 and S2' by endogenous cellular Furin-like proteases. Cell-to-cell fusion assays

using modified HeLa cells emphasized the functional importance of the S1/S2 and S2' sites in the fusion

process. This fusion assay also enabled the assessment of the potentiating effects of some worldwide-

spreading S-protein variants of SARS-CoV-2 [37]. While BOS-inhibitors did not affect HEK293/ACE2

cell entry of S-pseudovirions that occurs by "pH-dependent" endocytosis, they blocked cell-to-cell fusion

in HeLa cells and impaired the infection of the lung-derived epithelial cell line Calu-3 by S-pseudovirions

or by replication-competent SARS-CoV-2, an antiviral effect potentiated by Camostat. The data support

Furin-inhibitors in combination with TMRPSS2-blocking agents as potent antivirals against acute SARS-

CoV-2 infection.

145
146

Results

***In vitro* cleavage of peptides mimicking S1/S2 and S2' sites.** The susceptibility of S-glycoprotein of

SARS-CoV-2 to Furin-cleavage was first assessed *in vitro*. Incubation of quenched fluorogenic peptides

encompassing S1/S2 and S2' sites (Supporting Information SI-Table 1), demonstrated that the S1/S2 site

of SARS-CoV-2 was efficiently cleaved by 2 nM Furin at pH 7.5 (Fig. 1B) and less so at pH 6 (*not shown*),

whereas the S1/S2 site of SARS-CoV-1, which lacks an FCS, was barely cleaved (Fig. 1B). Furin less

efficiently cleaved the SARS-CoV-2-mimic peptide at S2', requiring 50-fold higher enzyme concentrations

(100 nM) to detect cleavage (inset Fig. 1B). The high specificity of the SARS-CoV-2 for processing at

Furin-like motifs was next confirmed by demonstrating that substitutions of basic residues at the S1/S2

cleavage site (RRA$\underline{A}_{685}\downarrow$S, $\underline{A}$RA$\underline{A}_{685}\downarrow$S, $\underline{A}$RAR$_{685}\downarrow$S) dramatically impaired S1/S2 cleavage (Fig. 1B). In

addition, the δ-variant P681R ($\underline{R}$RRAR$_{685}$), which was similarly cleaved by Furin at 2 nM, showed a modest

increased cleavage at 0.2 nM of Furin (~130%), whereas the α-variant P681H ($\underline{H}$RRAR$_{685}$) was ~50% less

cleaved *in vitro* by Furin than the wild type (WT) S1/S2. We also showed that an S2' mutant enriched in

basic amino acids ($\underline{R}$RKR$_{815}$) was ~56-fold better cleaved by 2 nM Furin (Fig. 1B). Altogether these data

demonstrated that Furin best cleaves at S1/S2 and less efficiently at S2'. TMPRSS2 was also proposed to

participate in SARS-CoV-2 entry in some cells [18, 24]. Accordingly, we tested whether TMPRSS2 can

cleave peptides encompassing S1/S2 or S2' cleavage sites *in vitro*. The data showed that while TMPRSS2

did not efficiently cleave a peptide mimicking SARS-CoV-1 at S1/S2, at 50 nM it was able to process

SARS-CoV-2 at S1/S2 and ~2-fold less at S2' (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, the S1/S2 Ala-mutants RRA$\underline{A}$,

$\underline{A}$RA$\underline{A}$ and $\underline{A}$RAR were all cleaved by TMPRSS2 (Fig. 1C). These data emphasize the critical importance

of the P1 and P4 Arg for Furin-mediated cleavage and suggest that the likely motif recognized by

TMPRSS2 is either Arg$\downarrow$Ala or Arg$\downarrow$Ser with a preference for Ala at P2 over Arg (Fig. 1C). As expected,

the S2' mutant <u>RR</u>KR$_{815}$↓S is strikingly better cleaved by Furin (Fig. 1B) but similarly processed by

TMPRSS2 as the WT peptide (Fig. 1C).

ProS processing by Furin-like convertases and TMPRSS2. To further decipher the cellular implication

of Furin-like enzymes, we expressed the S-protein in several cell lines and selected human HeLa cells as a

model since they showed efficient endogenous processing of the S-protein. Using qPCR we demonstrated

that our HeLa cells endogenously express Furin but not TMPRSS2 or ACE2 mRNAs (*not shown*), as also

reported earlier [38]. Thus, we co-transfected HeLa cells with a plasmid containing a codon-optimized

cDNA coding for V5-tagged proS (Fig. 1A) and cDNAs encoding the four plausible secretory proprotein

convertases PC5A, Furin, PC7 and PACE4 that cleave precursors at the *trans* Golgi network (TGN), cell

surface and/or recycling endosomes [20, 39]. Cell lysates were analyzed by Western blot (WB) after SDS-

PAGE separation and probed with a V5-mAb [40]. We observed that an endogenous protease(s) expressed

in HeLa cells can process proS, likely at S1/S2, into a ~100 kDa S2-like product (Fig. 2A). Furthermore,

only overexpression of Furin and PC5A enhanced the production of the less abundant ~75 kDa S2'-like

fragment (Fig. 2A). The remaining ~200 kDa proS$_{im}$ corresponds to an immature precursor form that has

not exited the ER, as attested by its sensitivity to endoglycosidase-F and endoglycosidase-H (SI-Fig. 1A),

and insensitivity to Furin-like convertases, which are only active in the TGN and/or cell surface/endosomes

[20, 39].

The double Ala-mutant [R682A + R685A] (denoted μS1/S2) of the S1/S2 site <u>**R**</u>RA<u>**R**</u>$_{685}$↓S eliminated

the P4 and P1 Arg critical for recognition by Furin-like enzymes [20], and completely abrogated processing

of proS at S1/S2 and putative S2' by endogenous enzymes or by overexpressed Furin (Fig. 2B; SI-Fig. 1A).

These data support a role for Furin in the S1/S2 cleavage. The loss of Furin-like cleavage at S1/S2 resulted

in the accumulation of a higher molecular sized proS$_m$ (~230 kDa), which represents a mature form of this

precursor that exited the ER and became endoglycosidase-H-resistant but remained endoglycosidase-F-

sensitive (SI-Fig. 1A) [20, 40]. The cell-permeable PC-inhibitor decanoyl-RVKR-cmk (RVKR) [41]

effectively prevented the endogenous formation of S2, but not the D6R inhibitor [42] that mostly inhibits Furin at the cell surface but does not significantly affect Furin processing in the TGN [40] (Iris Lindberg, *personal communication*) (SI-Fig. 1B). This suggests that in HeLa cells proS cleavage by endogenous Furin into S1 and S2 primarily occurs during intracellular trafficking and not at the cell surface.

In HeLa cells expressing S-protein we performed a knockdown of Furin mRNA (SI-Fig. 1C) using an optimized mixture of 4-siRNAs (siFur) compared to a scrambled control (siCTL). Under these conditions, reduction of Furin protein levels was associated with >60% lower S2 levels (SI-Fig. 1C), clearly emphasizing the key role of endogenous Furin in the S1/S2 processing.

To better define the Arg-residues critical for processing at S1/S2, we expressed in HeLa cells proS constructs carrying single residue mutations: R682A, R685A and S686A in the absence or presence of overexpressed Furin (SI-Fig. 1D). The results confirmed the critical importance of P1-Arg_{685} or P4-Arg_{682} for the generation of S2 by endogenous Furin. In contrast to μS1/S2 (Fig. 2B), these single mutants were partially cleaved by overexpressed Furin (SI-Fig. 1D). This reflects the multi-basic nature of the S1/S2 recognition sequence $\underline{\mathbf{R}}$RA$\underline{\mathbf{R}}_{685}$↓S, whereby $\underline{\mathbf{RR}}$AA$_{685}$ and A$\underline{\mathbf{R}}$A$\underline{\mathbf{R}}_{685}$ are cleavable, but not ARAA$_{685}$ (μS1/S2), suggesting the importance of the P3 Arg_{683} [43]. The S686A mutant was based on the prediction that Ser_{686} could be O-glycosylated [44], which may hamper processing at S1/S2 [45]. However, like the WT, the S686A mutant was efficiently processed by Furin into S2 and S2' (SI-Fig. 1D).

We next proceeded to identify the exact S2' site cleaved by Furin using site-directed mutagenesis. Compared to a control R995A mutant, all the K814A, R815A and KR815AA and S816E mutants of the P1, P2 and P1' residues [20] of the predicted S2' site (KPS$\underline{K}$$\underline{R}_{815}$↓SF) resulted in an ER-retained proS$_{im}$ protein (SI-Figs. 2A, B). Therefore, we resorted to mass spectrometry analysis of proteins migrating at the S2' position to identify this site. The peptides generated by a Lys-specific protease (K$_{814}$↓) allowed the discrimination between SFIEDLLFN$\underline{K}_{825}$ that would be generated if cleavage by Furin at S2' occurred at Arg_{815}, and $\underline{R}_{815}$SFIEDLLFN$\underline{K}_{825}$ that would be derived from N-terminally extended proteins, e.g., S2. The proteomic data revealed a >50-fold higher ratio of $\underline{S}$FIEDLLFN$\underline{K}_{825}$

to RSFIEDLLFN$\underline{K}_{825}$ for the S2' product (and not S2) (Fig. 2C). This demonstrates that the N-terminus

of S2' starts at Ser_{816} and that Furin cleavage at S2' occurs after $Arg_{815}\downarrow$ in the sequence

KPSK$\underline{R}_{815}\downarrow$SFIEDLLFNKVT (Fig. 1A). To further demonstrate the role of Furin in S2' cleavage we

generated a Furin-optimized S2' site (called μS2'; *see* Fig. 1B) with a polybasic sequence

K$\underline{R}$RKR$_{815}\downarrow$SF and evaluated its cleavage by endogenous enzymes in HeLa cells and by overexpressed

Furin. This optimized S2' mutant folds well and can be extensively processed endogenously and

especially by overexpressed Furin, generating much higher levels of S2' migrating on SDS/PAGE at

the expected molecular size compared to WT (Fig. 2D). Altogether these data demonstrate the S2'

cleavage occurs at $Arg_{815}\downarrow$ and can be efficiently processed by Furin.

We then examined the processing of proS when co-expressed with TMPRSS2 in HeLa cells (Fig. 2B).

Unexpectedly, under these conditions, TMPRSS2 did not yield the *bona fide* proS products S2 or S2'

generated by Furin, but rather, two minor seemingly smaller-sized C-terminal V5-tagged products, herein

called S2a (~85 kDa) and S2b (~70 kDa). These fragments were observed with both wild-type (WT)-S and

its μS1/S2 mutant (Fig. 2B). Note that the ~100 kDa S2 product generated by endogenous Furin-like

enzymes was absent when TMPRSS2 was co-expressed with WT proS (Fig. 2B), suggesting that

TMPRSS2 generates S2a and S2b before proS encounters endogenous Furin, which is autoactivated in the

TGN [39]. Indeed, like $proS_{im}$ (SI-Fig. 1A), both S2a and S2b were endoglycosidase-H-sensitive (SI-Fig.

3A), indicating that they were generated in the ER and no longer exited this compartment. Thus, exogenous

TMPRSS2 co-expressed with proS would effectively process/inactivate S2 in the ER, preventing its exit to

reach the cell surface. Altogether, our data show that overexpression of TMPRSS2 in the same cells as S-

protein would result in its premature processing and inactivation.

Processing at S2' is enhanced in the presence of ACE2. The implication of ACE2 in the processing of

proS in HeLa cells was next assessed by co-expression of proS with Furin or TMPRSS2 in the absence or

presence of ACE2 (Fig. 3A). While not significantly affecting the relative S1/S2 cleavage, the expression

of ACE2 strongly enhanced the generation of S2' by endogenous and overexpressed Furin (without a

significant change in S2 levels), and S2b by TMPRSS2 (Fig. 3A), likely reflecting a change in the proS

conformation upon ACE2-binding [13, 46], which could start as early as the ER in the secretory pathway.

Endogenous Furin processing of proS to generate S2 was accompanied by the secretion of the N-terminal

~130 kDa S1 subunit (aa 14-685; Fig. 1A; SI-Fig. 3B). Amazingly, in the presence of ACE2, the mutant

µS1/S2 that is resistant to endogenous Furin cleavage at S1/S2 (Fig. 2B), can be partially cleaved directly

into S2' by overexpressed Furin (Fig. 3B). We conclude that binding of S-protein to ACE2 enhances Furin

processing at S2', likely facilitating exposure of the S2' site [47], and increases the secretion of S1.

Interestingly, single (SI-Fig. 1D) or double (µS1/S2; SI-Fig. 2A) Arg mutations in the S1/S2 site did not

affect the ability of TMPRSS2 to generate S2a and S2b, suggesting that these cleavages (**i**) occur at other

sites in proS, or (**ii**) that the remaining single Arg in all the studied S1/S2-mutants while preventing Furin-

cleavage could still allow TMPRSS2 to cleave proS, as suggested from *in vitro* data on the ARAA-peptide

(Fig. 1C). To discriminate between these two possibilities, we generated a poly-A mutant µAS1/S2

(AAAA$_{685}$) where all the Arg in S1/S2 were mutated to Ala. The data showed that in presence of ACE2,

neither endogenous Furin or overexpressed TMPRSS2 could cleave the co-expressed µAS1/S2 into S2 or

S2a, respectively, but that TMPRSS2 still cleaved µAS1/S2 into S2b (SI-Fig. 3B).

To prove that the protease activity of TMPRSS2 is critical, we co-expressed an active site Ser* mutant of

TMPRSS2 (S441A; µTMPR; *see later*) with ACE2 and S-protein, which eliminated the generation of S2a

and S2b and the shedding of ACE2 into the medium (SI-Fig. 3B). In addition, this inactive µTMPRSS2

seemingly stabilized the S2 generated from WT-S and enhanced the processing of proS into S2', likely by

endogenous Furin, especially for the µS1/S2 and µAS1/S2 mutants (SI-Fig. 3B). These data emphasized

the implication of Furin in the generation of S2' when TMPRSS2 protease activity was absent. Befittingly,

S1 generated by Furin cleavage at S1/S2 was secreted from WT-S, whereas TMPRSS2 co-expression with

WT-S or µS1/S2 resulted in the secretion of S1' (SI-Fig. 3B).

To better gauge the effect of TMPRSS2 on the production of the N-terminal segment of proS following

formation of S2a and/or S2b we generated a doubly tagged construct consisting of [signal peptide of

PCSK9]-HA-[Q_{14}CVNLT….]-V5 [48], where Gln_{14} is the N-terminus of proS after its own signal peptide

cleavage. In the partial (µS1/S2) or complete absence (µAS1/S2) of S1/S2 cleavage the generation of S2'

likely results in the formation of a long $S1_L$ (aa 14-815; Fig. 1A). Indeed, $S1_L$ (~175 kDa) was detected in

the media of µS1/S2 and more so of µAS1/S2 in the presence of active TMPRSS2, but not of its inactive

Ser* mutant (µTMPRSS2; SI-Fig. 3B).

Expression of the above doubly tagged WT-S-protein construct in stable HeLa-ACE2 cells revealed the

secretion of an N-glycosylated (endoH-resistant but endoF-sensitive) HA-tagged N-terminal subunit S1

(~130 kDa) (Fig. 4A). In contrast, when TMPRSS2 was also expressed we observed the secretion of an

endoH and endo F sensitive S1' (~110 kDa) and a ~52 kDa product S1'' (Fig. 4A). In conclusion,

overexpression of TMPRSS2 with the WT-S-protein generates the ER-retained S2a and S2b and a secreted

S1', all of which are endoH sensitive.

S2a and S2b are ER-retained non-O-glycosylated forms of S2 and S2', respectively. Because

processing of proS by co-expressed TMPRSS2 likely occurs in the ER, we hypothesized that the S2a and

S2b products may be blocked in this compartment and hence may lack O-glycosylation, as this post-

translational modification occurs in the *cis/medial* Golgi [49]. Accordingly, we compared the processing

of proS by Furin and TMPRSS2 in CHO-ldlD cells, which are defective in UDP-Gal/UDP-GalNAc 4-

epimerase [50] and therefore cannot O-glycosylate proteins, to that in their parental CHO-K1 cells (Figs.

4B, C). The data showed that like in HeLa-ACE2 cells, proS was cleaved by endogenous Furin-like

enzymes in CHO-K1-ACE2 cells into S2-V5, S2'-V5 and secreted HA-S1. Also, TMPRSSS2 generated

S2a and S2b, resulting in the secretion of S1' (~100 kDa) and a smaller S1'' (~58 kDa) (Fig. 4B). In

contrast, in CHO-ldlD cells the similar apparent molecular weights of the products generated by

endogenous enzymes and TMPRSS2 suggest that Furin and TMPRSS2 cleave the S-protein at the same

sites.

The above data suggested that S2a and S2b lack O-glycosylation, and hence are likely ER-retained S2-

like and S2'-like products, respectively. Their identity was finally confirmed by proteomic analysis of the

S2a and S2b products (SI-Fig. 4). Analysis of S2a was performed using chymotrypsin digestion of various

proteins on the silver-stained SDS-PAGE gel (slices 1-9; SI-Fig. 4; left panel), which could generate the

proS derived peptides QTQTNSPRRA**R**SVASQSIIAY$_{695}$ (un-cleaved proS) or SVASQSIIAY$_{695}$ (cleaved

at Arg$_{685}\downarrow$). The data showed that only the peptide SVASQSIIAY$_{695}$ was detected in proteins migrating at

the position of S2a (slices 5-7; SI-Fig. 4; left panel), confirming that S2a was generated by TMPRSS2

following cleavage at Arg$_{685}\downarrow$, which is identical to that generated by Furin *via* cleavage at S2. For S2b, the

same Lys-C protease digestion used for the identification of the S2' site generated by Furin (Fig. 2C),

revealed that in slices 13-15 (corresponding to the migration position of S2b) the peptide SFIEDLLFNK$_{824}$

was at least 25-fold more abundant than its Arg-extended form RSFIEDLLFNK$_{824}$ (SI-Fig. 4; right panel).

This also confirms that overexpressed TMPRSS2 cleaves the S-protein at the sequence

KPSK**R**$_{815}\downarrow$SFIEDLLFNK to generate S2b, as did Furin for S2'. In summary, our data support the

identification of S2a and S2b as ER-retained non-O-glycosylated S2 and S2', respectively.

To verify that S2a and S2b are products of TMPRSS2 activity, we incubated stable HeLa-ACE2 cells

with 120 μM Camostat, known to inhibit TMPRSS2 [31]. The data showed that Camostat prevented the

formation of both S2a and S2b with increasing concentrations of TMPRSS2, and gradually allowed the

resumption of the Furin-like cleavage at S1/S2 generating a higher molecular sized O-glycosylated S2 (SI-

Fig. 5A). As evidenced by the loss of the mature TMPRSS2$_m$ ~25 kDa form in the media (SI-Fig. 5A), we

also surmise that this cell-permeable inhibitor can reach the ER and block the autocatalytic activation of

TMPRSS2 at RQS**R**$_{255}\downarrow$ [29]. In agreement, in the presence of ACE2, the mutant S441A of the active site

Ser* of TMPRSS2 (μTMPR) was no longer able to process proS into S2a and S2b (SI-Fig. 3B). Altogether

these data indicate that overexpressed TMPRSS2 is autoactivated early in the ER where it cleaves proS at

S1/S2 and S2', generating non-O-glycosylated products that differ in molecular weight from the ones

produced by Furin in the TGN/cell surface. Caution should therefore be exercised when defining processing

fragment of S under conditions of TMPRSS2 overexpression.

We next sought to explore other functions that TMPRSS2 may exert to explain its reported enhancement

of viral entry [17, 18, 24]. Hence, we expressed increasing amounts of TMPRSS2 in HeLa-ACE2 cells and

followed processing and/or levels of the S1-subunit in the media by WB-analysis using an anti-S1 antibody.

We showed that in a dose-dependent manner TMPRSS2 cleaved proS in the ER at S1/S2 generating a non-

O-glycosylated endoH sensitive (Fig. 4A) S1-like product (S1'; ~115 kDa) that was secreted into the

medium (SI-Fig. 5A).

The coat protein complex II (COP-II) catalyzes transport vesicle formation from the ER and segregates

export secretory cargo from ER-resident proteins *via* the formation of membrane vesicles translocating

cargo proteins towards the *cis* Golgi [51]. Accordingly, we assessed the level of secreted S1' upon

expression of a dominant negative Sar1p (H79G) mutant that would disrupt the COP-II complex [52, 53].

This resulted in a significant decrease in the secretion of the TMPRSS2-generated S1' (SI-Fig. 5B),

suggesting that in HeLa cells secretion of S1' from the ER (as it remains endoH sensitive) primarily occurs

via a COP-II-dependent unconventional pathway that bypasses the Golgi stacks [54], an unusual trafficking

pathway used by some coronaviruses [55].

TMPRSS2 can shed ACE2.

It was previously reported that TMPRSS2 sheds ACE2 into a soluble form (sACE2) [36], and the latter

activity was associated with enhanced kinetics of cell-to-cell fusion (syncytia) and SARS-CoV-1 uptake

[33]. In agreement, overexpression of TMPRSS2 in HeLa-ACE2 cells enhanced the shedding of ACE2,

and the generation of sACE2 and in large part S1' was inhibited by 120 μM Camostat (SI-Fig. 5A). Note

that the small background shedding of ACE2 was not sensitive to Camostat, suggesting that another

endogenous protease, possibly ADAM17 [36], might be implicated in ACE2 shedding, as also observed in

CHO-K1 cells (Fig. 4B). While in agreement with other reports on ACE2 shedding by TMPRSS2 [36], our

data further showed that such cleavage/shedding can occur as early as in the ER.

Furin-inhibitors block S1/S2 and S2' cleavages without affecting TMPRSS2 processing. We next

evaluated three novel non-toxic, cell-permeable Furin-inhibitors developed by Boston Pharmaceuticals

available as oral (BOS-981, BOS-318) or inhalable (BOS-857) formulations (chemical motif and a

representative structure of BOS-318 are shown in Figs. 5A, B). Accordingly, we first tested *in vitro*

the efficacy and selectivity of these inhibitors on purified soluble forms of Furin, PC5A, PACE4 and

PC7. The enzymatic activity was determined using a quenched fluorogenic substrate FAM-

Q**R**V**RR**AVGIDK-TAMRA, and compared to those obtained with the known PC-inhibitor RVKR-

cmk [40]. The data showed that all three inhibitors effectively blocked the processing of the above

dibasic substrate by all convertases with an IC_{50} of ~7-9 nM compared to ~9-10 nM for RVKR-cmk

(Fig. 5C). The Furin S1/S2 cleavage was also validated *in vitro* using a 12-residue quenched

fluorogenic substrate DABSYL/Glu-TNSP**RRAR**↓SVAS-EDANS. The inhibition deduced after hill-

plot curve fitting (Fig. 5D) gave an estimated IC_{50} of 4 ± 0.7 nM (BOS-981), 32 ± 4 nM (BOS-857)

and 35 ± 5 nM (BOS-318).

The inhibition of PC-activities by BOS-compounds was next assessed intracellularly using a cell-

based Golgi imaging assay of U2OS cells (*see methods*). The data demonstrated that BOS-compounds

inhibited endogenous Furin-like processing of a dibasic BMP10-mimic [40] with an IC_{50} of ~8 nM

versus 5 nM for RVKR-cmk (Fig. 5C). The above enzymatic assays showed that all 3 inhibitors can

inhibit Furin, but may also inhibit other members of the PC-family such as PC5A, PACE4 and PC7

[20].

The effect of BOS-inhibitors was then evaluated on the processing of proS in HeLa cells stably

expressing ACE2 (HeLa-ACE2; Fig. 5E). In agreement with the *in vitro* data (Fig. 5D), BOS-inhibitors

blocked the S1/S2 and S2' processing by endogenous Furin-like enzymes, with all three compounds

showing almost complete inhibition at 300 nM (Fig. 5E), comparable to that obtained with a control 50 µM decanoyl-RVKR-cmk. In contrast, in HeLa cells none of the BOS-inhibitors affected the generation of S2a and S2b by TMPRSS2 (SI-Fig. 6), attesting to their specificity for Furin-like enzymes.

Effect of BOS-981 on S-protein trafficking and syncytia formation. We next performed immunocytochemical analyses of HeLa cells co-expressing the WT-S-protein or its µS1/S2 mutant with ACE2 in the absence or presence of 1 µM BOS-981 under non-permeabilized (NP; S2 and ACE2 antibodies) and permeabilized (P; V5 and ACE2 antibodies) conditions (SI-Fig. 7). In the absence of BOS-981, the S-protein and ACE2 co-localized abundantly at the cell surface (SI-Fig. 7A-a). HeLa cells expressing both S-protein and ACE2 formed many syncytia, associated with reduced cell surface expression of the S-protein, and an even greater reduction of ACE2 (SI-Fig. 7A-b). Cells expressing both µS1/S2 and ACE2 showed an accumulation of both proS and ACE2 inside the cells and at the cell surface (SI-Fig. 7A-c). However, they barely induced the formation of syncytia, and when they did, the cell surface expression of S-protein and to a lesser extent ACE2 was decreased (SI-Fig. 7A-d). In the presence of 1 µM BOS-981, S-expressing HeLa cells (SI-Figs. 7B-a,b) phenocopied those expressing µS1/S2 (SI Figs. 7B-c,d).

  Having established that S-protein and ACE2 co-localize at the cell surface and can induce syncytia formation if the S-protein was processed at S1/S2 by Furin, we next analyzed further the impact of Furin-cleavage at S1/S2 on the ability of S-protein to induce cell-to-cell fusion. Thus, we developed a luminescence-based assay using HeLa TZM-bl reporter cells stably transfected with an HIV-1-based vector expressing luciferase under the control of the HIV-1 long terminal repeat (LTR), which can be activated by HIV Tat protein. These cells endogenously express the HIV receptor CD4 and its co-receptors CCR5 and CXCR4 [56]. We postulated that cell-to-cell fusion of donor WT HeLa cells (expressing Tat and the fusogenic S-protein) with acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing ACE2 would result in the transactivation of

the luciferase expression mediated by Tat and hence in accrued luciferase activity (Fig. 6A). Indeed, as a

proof-of-principle, when donor cells expressing HIV gp160 and Tat fused with acceptor cells, luciferase

activity increased compared to that observed in TZM-bl control cells co-cultured with donor Hela cells

expressing only Tat (SI-Fig. 8C). The expression of S-protein in HeLa cells did not induce fusion with

TZM-bl control cells (SI-Figs. 8A, C). However, ACE2 expression in TZM-bl allowed fusion with HeLa-

expressing S-protein in a dose-dependent manner (SI-Fig. 8B). The linearity of our assay (correlation

coefficient of 0.87) validated the use of luminescence as an indicator of cell-to-cell fusion (SI-Fig. 8B).

Conversely, expression of μS1/S2 in donor cells did not enhance fusion with TZM-bl expressing ACE2

and >60% fusion-inhibition was observed upon incubation of cells with 300 nM of BOS-inhibitors or 10

μM of the PC-inhibitor dec-RVKR-cmk (RVKR; Fig. 6B), indicating that Furin-cleavage promotes ACE2-

dependent cell-to-cell fusion.

Respective roles of Furin, TMPRSS2 and ACE2 in cell-to-cell fusion. To assess the role of

overexpressed TMPRSS2 in cell-to-cell fusion, we first co-expressed TMPRSS2 with S-protein or with

μS1/S2 in HeLa-donor cells co-cultured with acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing ACE2. In agreement with

our cell biology data (Fig. 2), TMPRSS2 expression in donor cells (expressing the S-protein) abolished the

fusogenic activity of S, providing evidence that TMPRSS2-mediated retention of S-protein in the ER by

the generation of S2a and S2b impaired the cell-to-cell fusion activity of S-protein at the plasma membrane

(Fig. 6C).

We next analyzed the fusion of donor cells expressing WT-S, μS1/S2 or the Furin-optimized μS2' with

acceptor cells expressing ACE2 or ACE2 + TMPRSS2 (Fig. 6D). The data showed that TMPRSS2

expression reduced by ~2.2-fold the fusion of donor cells expressing WT-S but increased by ~3-fold that

of cells expressing μS1/S2 (Fig. 6D). While TMPRSS2 did not affect fusion of donor cells expressing μS2',

the latter displayed a nearly 2-fold less fusion than WT-S, suggesting that a more efficient Furin cleavage

(Fig. 2D) would not necessarily lead to enhanced fusion.

To determine the contribution of cell surface TMPRSS2 in the processing of S-protein and ACE2 and

their potential effects on cell-to-cell fusion we co-cultured donor cells expressing a double tagged S-protein

(HA at the N-terminus and V5 at the C-terminus) or its mutants, with acceptor cells expressing ACE2 or

ACE2+TMPRSS2. The fusion trends using double tagged WT-S (HA-S) or μS1/S2 (HA-μS1/S2) (Fig.

7A) were like those observed with the single V5-tagged S-proteins (Fig. 6D). As previously demonstrated

(Fig. 3A), ACE2 alone enhanced the production of S2' from WT-S by endogenous Furin (Fig. 7B).

However, the reduction of S-induced fusion of WT-S by TMPRSS2 (Fig. 7A) was associated with a

substantial ~4-fold decrease in S2 levels normalized to β-actin and ~1.5-fold increase in S2' levels (Fig.

7B). Unlike WT-S, μS1/S2-induced fusion was optimal when ACE2 and TMPRSS2 were co-expressed on

acceptor cells, albeit at ~2.5-fold lower levels than fusion of WT-S in the absence of TMPRSS2 (Fig. 7A)

and was associated with ~5-fold higher levels of S2' normalized to β-actin (Fig. 7B). In this assay, we

confirmed that co-expression of TMPRSS2 with ACE2: (**i**) modestly enhanced S2'; but (**ii**) did not affect

the secretion of S1 from WT-S or μS1/S2 (Fig. 7B; Media). In this co-culture system, TMPRSS2 expression

in acceptor cells did not generate S2a, S2b or S1', unlike what we observed previously (Figs. 2D,4A, SI-

Fig. 5) when TMPRSS2 and S-protein were co-expressed.

Since the mutant μS1/S2 (A<u>R</u>AA$_{685}$) can still be processed by TMPRSS2 at Arg$_{683}\downarrow$ *in vitro* (Fig. 1C)

and in co-expression experiments (S2a in Fig. 2B), we next used the μAS1/S2 mutant (AAAA$_{685}$), which

was not cleaved at S1/S2 by either Furin or TMPRSS2 (SI-Fig. 3B). WT-S and μAS1/S2 mutant were

compared for their ability to induce cell-to-cell fusion with acceptor cells co-expressing ACE2 and

TMPRSS2 in the presence or absence of Camostat. As already observed, TMPRSS2 reduced the fusion of

WT-S (Figs. 6D; 7A), and 120 μM Camostat restored it (Fig. 8A). In contrast, TMPRSS2 enhanced the

fusion of μAS1/S2 by ~4-fold (Fig. 8A), a higher value than the ~2.5 to 3-fold observed with μS1/S2 (Figs.

6D; 7A). Befittingly, Camostat significantly reduced TMPRSS2-induced fusion of μAS1/S2 (Fig. 8A). WB

analyses of cells expressing WT-S (Fig. 8B) or μAS1/S2 (Fig. 8C) revealed that: (**i**) Camostat reduced the

shedding of ACE2; **(ii)** Camostat did not decrease the levels of S2' (Figs. 8B, C); **(iii)** with µAS1/S2,

TMPRSS2 did not enhance the levels of S2', but rather generated a smaller ~67 kDa product and released

a larger ~175 kDa fragment S1$_L$ into the media, both of which disappeared in the presence of Camostat

(Fig. 8C). These results suggest that cell surface TMPRSS2 might require a prior "priming" cleavage at

S1/S2 for the generation of *bona fide* S2'. This agrees with the notion that under our co-culture conditions

Furin-like enzymes are primarily involved in the priming of the WT-S-protein at the S1/S2 junction, and

TMPRSS2 and/or Furin can cleave S2 into S2'. However, the absolute levels of S2' detected by WB do

not seem to strictly correlate with fusion efficiency of WT-S, µS1/S2 and µAS1/S2 in absence or presence

of Camostat (Figs. 7, 8).

Based on the above observations, we explored the possibility that shedding of ACE2 [36] by TMPRSS2

into sACE2 (SI-Fig. 3B) may also be critical for fusion. To tease out the contribution of ACE2 cleavage by

TMPRSS2 and its seemingly opposite effects on fusion activity with WT-S or µAS1/S2 (and µS1/S2), we

tested the effect of a multiple Arg/Lys to Ala mutants in segments close to the transmembrane domain of

ACE2, namely ACE2 (C0), ACE2 (C4) *versus* ACE2 (C0+C4) (Fig. 9A), which have been described to

modify ACE2 cleavage by TMPRSS2 [36]. Accordingly, WB analyses (Fig. 9B) revealed that TMPRSS2,

but not its Ser* active site S441A mutant (µTMPR), can shed the membrane-bound ~120 kDa WT ACE2,

releasing major ~95 kDa and minor ~80 kDa forms. In contrast, TMPRSS2 primarily generated the ~80

kDa fragment from ACE2 (C0+C4) and ACE2 (C4), whereas ACE2 (C0) behaved as the WT.

In the presence of TMPRSS2 the extent of fusion would depend on a combination of reduced levels of

full-length cell surface ACE2 and increased levels of sACE2 that could act as a decoy to inhibit fusion [57].

Cell-to-cell fusion tested in co-culture revealed that ACE2 (C0+ C4) was no longer sensitive to TMPRSS2

impairment of WT-S-induced fusion. Thus, in the latter case the ~80 kDa form of sACE2 primarily

produced by TMPRSS2 cleavage of ACE2 (C0+C4) may no longer be able to inhibit WT-S-fusion

compared to the ~95 kDa form produced by TMPRSS2 cleavage of WT ACE2, effectively abrogating the

inhibitory effect of sACE2. This suggests that the C-terminal collectrin-like domain [58] that includes aa

697 and 716 of ACE2 (Fig. 9A), which is lost in the ~80 kDa form, may be critical for the ability sACE2

to inhibit cell-to-cell fusion of WT-S. Since Arg_{710} and Arg_{716} within the collectrin-like domain (Fig. 9A)

have been reported to be implicated in ACE2 dimerization [59], their Ala mutation in the ACE2 (C0+C4)

mutant likely would significantly reduce ACE2 dimerization. Whether dimerization of ACE2 and the ~95

kDa sACE2 are needed for efficient inhibition of WT-S-induced fusion [57] is yet to be confirmed. In that

context, a human recombinant sACE2 that includes the collectrin domain (hrsACE2, aa 1-740) effectively

blocked SARS-CoV-2 infection of Vero E6 cells [60].

To understand the distinct impact of the two TMPRSS2-induced shed forms of sACE2 on µAS1/S2-

induced fusion, we analyzed fusion of donor µAS1/S2 expressing cells with acceptor cells expressing

ACE2 (C0+C4). We observed that in this case fusion was lower than that measured with WT ACE2 (Fig.

9C), indicating a less favorable interaction of µAS1/S2-protein with ACE2 (C0+C4) than with WT ACE2.

Interestingly, in this case TMPRSS2 no longer enhanced fusion significantly (Fig. 9C), supporting the

notion the ~80 kDa form of sACE2 cannot enhance fusion of the µAS1/S2-protein. In the absence of S1/S2

processing (µAS1/S2), TMPRSS2 cleavage at S2' resulted in the formation of $S1_L$ (~175 kDa in Fig. 8C),

which was no longer detected in the media when ACE2 (C0+C4) was expressed on acceptor cells (Fig.

9D).

Altogether, these results suggest that the ~95 kDa sACE2 generated by TMPRSS2 (Figs. 6D; 7A; 8A),

might allow for a more efficient displacement of the inhibitory $S1_L$ cap, thereby facilitating cleavage at S2',

compared to membrane-bound ACE2 and the ~80 kDa form of sACE2 [57]. Altogether, our data indicate

that under overexpression conditions, the TMPRSS2-generated shedding of ACE2 has an opposite impact

on the S-induced fusion at the plasma membrane of WT-S *versus* µS1/S2 and µAS1/S2, highlighting the

functional importance of the acquisition of the Furin cleavage site at S1/S2 [10] for SAR-CoV-2 infection.

Furin processing of SARS-CoV-2 variants. Over the last 18 months a number of SARS-CoV-2 variants have emerged (UK B.1.1.7, α-variant; South African B.1.351, β-variant; Brazil/Japan P.1, γ-variant; and Indian B.1.617.2, δ-variant), exhibiting specific amino acid modifications of the S-protein [9]. A subset of these variants seems to affect viral traits such as transmissibility, pathogenicity, host range, and antigenicity of the virus [61]. The first D614G variant of the S-protein identified is now prevalent in most SARS-CoV-2 strains [62]. It has been reported to affect virus stability [63], and infectivity especially in the presence of ACE2 [64], and to possibly influence processing at S1/S2 [65], though this is controversial as it may be cell-type dependent [66]. In HeLa cells we tested in the presence of ACE2 the effect of various S-variants single (D614G; P681H; P681R) or combined mutants (D614G + P681H; N501Y + D614G + P681H; E484K + N501Y + D614G). Our data showed that none of these variants significantly enhanced the endogenous S1/S2 processing (except being slightly higher for P681H and P681R) and S2' processing in HeLa-ACE2 cells or affected S1 secretion (SI-Fig. 9A). We surmise that the reported increased infectivity and spread of SARS-CoV-2 carrying most of these variants may be more related to enhanced stability of the S-protein, increased ACE2 receptor binding affinity or other factors for these combined variants, rather than grossly affecting the S-protein cleavages by Furin, except maybe for P681R and P681H as observed in HeLa-ACE2 cells.

Accordingly, we evaluated the cell-to-cell fusion activity of some of these variants (SI-Fig. 9B). The data showed that compared to WT-S, the presence of the single D164G did not significantly affect fusion, but that a ~2.4-fold higher fusogenic activity was observed for the double D164-N501Y variant. The only two single variants that significantly enhanced by ~2-fold the cell-to-cell fusion were those affecting the P5 position at the S1/S2 site, slightly favoring its Furin processing (Fig. 9A), namely P681H (in the α-variant) and P681R (in the δ-variant) (SI-Fig. 9B). However, the combination of the D164G and P681H mutations with those of N501Y or E484K occurring within the RBD of S, did not have a significant influence on fusion above that of the single N501Y mutant (SI-Fig. 9B). Interestingly the μS2' mutant with an optimized Furin-like site exhibited partially reduced fusion, as previously observed (Fig. 6D), possibly reflecting that

for cell-to-cell fusion an efficient S2' processing by Furin that occurs early along the secretory pathway

may be a disadvantage.

Effects of Furin inhibitors on entry of pseudoviruses. To assess the relative importance of spike

processing at the S1/S2 and S2' sites in SARS-CoV-2 entry, we pseudotyped luciferase reporter gp160-

defective HIV particles with WT, µS1/S2 or µS2' S-protein and tested their ability to transduce human

lung-derived Calu-3 and kidney-derived HEK293T-ACE2 cells. Herein, we found that for cell-entry of

pseudoviruses (pp) expressing µS1/S2 the S-protein was defective in Calu-3 but enhanced by at least 10-

fold in HEK293T-ACE2 (Fig. 10A), suggesting that S processing at the S1/S2 site is required for optimal

viral entry in Calu-3 cells, but dispensable, or perhaps even less desirable in HEK293T-ACE2 cells. Since

these findings were similar to those in Vero E6 cells [67], we asked whether viral entry in KEK293T-ACE2

was through the same pH-dependent, endocytic route as reported for Vero cells [68]. Indeed, we observed

that chloroquine [69], which prevents endosomal acidification, efficiently blocked entry of ppSARS-CoV-

2 (SI-Fig. 10), indicating that in HEK293T-ACE2 the S-protein that mediates viral entry is activated by

endosomal pH-dependent proteases. This agrees with the fact that HEK293 cells allow endocytosis of

SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirions *via* clathrin-coated vesicles [70].

In the case of µS2'-S-expressing viral particles, entry was more efficient in both cell types (compare the

same-colored dots between WT-S and µS2'-S, Fig. 10A), implying that S cleavage at the optimized Furin-

like site could enhance viral entry. To further assess the role of Furin-like enzymes in this process, we used

the PC-inhibitor BOS-318 to block S-processing during biosynthesis of ppSARS-CoV-2 (Fig. 10B) and

asked whether this would affect viral entry in HEK293T-ACE2 and Calu-3 (Fig. 10C). To this end, we

found that treating viral particle-producing cells with BOS-318 blocked processing of WT-S and µS2'-S

while not affecting the overall expression profile of µS1/S2-S (Fig. 10B). However, not only did the

treatment not impact viral entry in HEK293T-ACE2, but it also enhanced pseudovirions-cell fusion by ~10-

fold for WT-S and ~2-fold for µS2'-S (Fig. 10C). In contrast, in Calu-3 cells inhibiting S-protein processing

by BOS-inhibitors during viral packaging resulted in a mean decrease of ~3.6- to ~12.5-fold in nano-

luciferase signal for WT-S or μS2'-S, respectively (Fig. 10C). Overall, BOS-318 treatment phenocopied

the effect of the μS1/S2 in both cell types

Having observed the effect of BOS-inhibitors on S processing during biosynthesis, we asked whether

pre-treating target cells with BOS-318 would affect ppSARS-CoV-2 entry. Using Calu-3, a model epithelial

cell line where viral entry occurs primarily through fusion at the plasma membrane [71], we observed

reduced viral entry by ~3.8-fold for WT-S and ~14-fold for μS2'-S (Fig. 10D), emphasizing a significant

contribution of Furin to the processing and priming of S at the plasma membrane. The fact that BOS-318

had a more pronounced effect on entry by μS2'-S-containing viral particles was not surprising because of

the presence of an optimized Furin-like S2' site. Furthermore, when comparing the effect of BOS-318 to

that of the TMPRSS2 inhibitor Camostat, we noticed a reverse trend, i.e., entry by WT-S ppSARS-CoV-2

was more affected by Camostat than that by μS2'-S viral particles. Here, the average reduction of ppSARS-

CoV-2 entry was by ~8.6-fold for WT-S and ~3.2-fold for μS2'-S (Fig. 10D), suggesting that Furin plays

a more prominent role in the entry of μS2'-S *versus* WT-S viral particles. Lastly, the combined pre-

treatment of both BOS-318 and Camostat led to a complete block of viral entry, highlighting the importance

of both Furin and TMPRSS2 in this process. Collectively, our data clearly demonstrate the importance of

S-processing by Furin and TMPRSS2 for efficient viral entry in target cells where the virus enters through

a fusion process at the plasma membrane.

Furin-like inhibitors reduce virus production in SARS-CoV-2-infected cells. The possible antiviral

effects of Furin-like inhibitors on SARS-CoV-2 replication were initially evaluated in Calu-3 cells

pretreated with 1 μM BOS-inhibitors for 24h before infection. A plaque assay showed that BOS-

inhibitors significantly decreased viral titers at 12, 24 and 48h post-infection (Fig. 11A). We further

evaluated whether the inhibitory effect was dose-dependent and found that the titer of progeny viruses

was reduced by >30-fold with 1 μM BOS-318, although the inhibition could be observed starting at

0.25 μM (Fig. 11B; left panel). As well, the IC_{50} and selectivity index [72] of BOS-318 were found to

be 0.2 μM and 475, respectively, underlining the inhibitor's *bona fide* efficacy (Fig. 11B; right panel).

A similar analysis with BOS-857 and BOS-981 revealed comparable antiviral effects and selectivity

index (SI-Figs. 12A, B). Importantly, the levels of viral spike (full length and cleaved S) and

nucleocapsid proteins in Calu-3 cells treated with different doses of BOS-318 and the corresponding

progeny virus levels were similarly decreased (Fig. 11C), underscoring the crucial role played by

Furin-like convertases in the production of infectious SARS-CoV-2 during infection of lung epithelial

cells. In addition, the antiviral effect of these inhibitors on SARS-CoV-2 infection was also evaluated

in Vero E6, a cell target that is reported to be primarily infected *via* the endocytic pathway [11, 24]. In

this system, the best inhibitory effect with 1 μM BOS-318 demonstrated a modest ~5.7-fold decrease

in virus production sustained over a 12-48h infection period (SI-Fig. 13), possibly reflecting some

Furin-activity in endosomes [39].

Based on the selectivity index of BOS-inhibitors in Vero E6 and Calu-3 cells, BOS-318 and BOS-

981 were further used in combination with Camostat to explore a potential synergistic effect of these

inhibitors on viral replication in Calu-3 cells. To this end, we observed that the two inhibitors could

individually and meaningfully reduce viral replication, but their co-treatment (1 μM BOS-inhibitor +

100 μM Camostat) inhibited ~95 ± 2.5% of progeny viruses (Fig. 11D and SI-Fig. 13). This highlights

a synergistic effect of these drugs and the importance of endogenous Furin-like proteases and

TMPRSS2 in promoting efficient infection of Calu-3 cells by SARS-CoV-2. Accordingly, we

schematized these results in a model of infectious SARS-CoV-2 and the effect of Furin ± Camostat on

viral entry in Calu-3 *versus* HEK293 or Vero E6 cells (Fig. 12).

Discussion

Herein, we analyzed the implication of Furin [10, 12, 18, 24] and TMPRSS2 [18, 24] in proS-processing, S-induced cell-to-cell fusion, SARS-CoV-2 entry and infectivity of various cell lines. Our study teased out the independent and complementary roles of Furin and TMPRSS2 in promoting SARS-CoV-2 entry. *In vitro* Furin cleaved mainly at S1/S2, but S2'was also cleaved at 50-fold higher Furin concentrations (Fig. 1B). The Furin-mediated S1/S2-cleavage activity was blocked by BOS-inhibitors (Fig. 5D). Conversely, TMPRSS2 cleaves synthetic peptides encompassing both S1/S2 and S2' cleavage sites (Fig. 1B). In cells, the endogenously expressed Furin-like enzymes induce efficient intracellular priming of the S-protein at or beyond the TGN. Conversely overexpression of active TRMPSS2 in cells producing the S-protein induces an early S-processing in the ER. Furin and less so PC5A can also induce an additional cleavage at S2', which is essential to expose the fusion peptide (Fig. 1A). The S2'-processing was strongly enhanced in the presence of ACE2 (Fig. 3A). It is thus likely that *via* the RBD the interaction of the S1-subunit with the ACE2 receptor induces a conformational change favoring S2'-processing by cognate convertases [46]. We propose that Furin-like enzymes first process proS at S1/S2, generating the cleaved S1- and S2-subunits that remain non-covalently bound [12, 73]. This priming process is known to induce an initial conformational change that exposes the RBD domain [74]. The subsequent interaction of S1-protein with the ACE2 receptor would then induce a second conformational change leading to the exposure of the S2' cleavage site, which can be cleaved by Furin or cell surface TMPRSS2. Interestingly, while Furin is mostly found in the TGN, in polarized cells such as those of the lung, small intestine and kidney, it also localized in endosomes and over apical and basolateral plasma membranes [75]. In contrast, TMPRSS2 seems to be localized mostly at the apical membrane of secretory epithelia [76]. Therefore, the relative levels of active Furin and TMPRSS2 may vary between the apical and basolateral sides of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells, with TMPRSS2 levels being highest on the apical side. Given that lung epithelial cells are physiologically-polarized, the relative abundance of these enzymes at the apical membrane facing the lumen of the respiratory airways may be an important factor governing which of the two enzymes might

cleave S at the S2' cleavage site. In that context, SARS-CoV-2 exhibits a polarity of infection in human

airway epithelium only from the apical membrane as it infects ciliated and goblet cells, but not basal

and club cells [77]. Thus, on the apical side both TMPRSS2 and Furin would be poised to process the

S-protein.

The S2' cleavage liberates the N-terminal domain of the fusion peptide that promotes virus entry and/or

cell-to-cell fusion. Separation of these subunits in the presence of ACE2 would then favor Furin-cleavage

at S2' and cellular fusion. BOS-inhibitors effectively blocked the generation of S2 and S2' by endogenous

Furin-like enzymes in HeLa-ACE2 cells (Fig. 5E), and in turn limited the pH-independent virus entry and

cellular fusion. Immunocytochemical data confirmed that ACE2 co-localized at the cell surface of HeLa

cells with WT-S and its μS1/S2 mutant, suggesting that endogenous cleavage at S1/S2 does not affect the

trafficking of S-protein (SI-Fig. 7). Notably, expression of μS1/S2 or treatment with BOS-inhibitors

prevented cell-to-cell fusion (Fig. 7), which is known to induce cytopathic effects. These results indicated

that Furin-cleavage may favor fusion and therefore allow the pH-independent entry of the virus. Thus, S-

processing by Furin was also shown to be essential for optimal pseudoviral entry in Calu-3 cells, since

abrogating this process with BOS-inhibitors effectively rendered the pseudovirions largely defective.

Conversely, in Vero or HEK293 cells, where the virus is known to enter *via* a pH-dependent entry pathway,

viral entry was improved with BOS inhibitor or μS1/S2. This suggests that in these cells Furin processing

of WT-S is dispensable or even less favourable for fusion, likely because endosomal proteases (e.g.,

cathepsins) can substitute for Furin and induce S-protein processing [78, 79]. Thus, in human lung cells our

data support a critical role of Furin in the pH-independent fusion process, where BOS-inhibitors

meaningfully reduce viral infection and production of infectious progeny virus (Fig. 10). The inhibition of

such infection pathway could strongly impair SARS-CoV-2 pathogenicity. In that context, viruses lacking

the FCS (ΔPRRA), are poorly infectious in small animal models [27, 28].

The key role played by Furin-mediated S1/S2 cleavage was confirmed by mutagenesis analysis. Alanine

mutagenesis first revealed the importance of basic amino acid for *in vitro* S1/S2 cleavage by Furin.

Analyzing the S-protein processing by WB confirmed the effect of mutations on Furin-mediated cleavage

and resulted in a reduced infection of Calu-3 cells and decreased cell-to-cell fusion. We also determined

the impact of mutation observed in the FCS of emerging SARS-CoV-2 variants (UK B.1.1.7, α-variant

P681H; and Indian B.1.617.2, δ-variant P681R) were the P5 residue is substituted by His or Arg,

respectively. Here we showed that the δ-variant was more sensitive to Furin cleavage, whereas the cleavage

of the α-variant was not increased *in vitro.* In contrast, in the context of the full-length protein both mutants

(α and δ variant) are slightly better processed at the S1/S2 cleavage site and we demonstrated that these

mutations significantly enhanced by ~2-fold cell-to-cell fusion. Conversely, mutations in the FCS barely

impact, or slightly increase virus entry in Vero E6 cells that are infected by the pH-dependent entry pathway

[80, 81]. Nevertheless, our results, together with the dramatic effect of mutation of the FCS (ΔPRRA) in

infection of small animal models [27, 28], suggest that mutation in the FCS impacting the Furin cleavage

regulates the infectivity of certain variants, which may associate with viral pathogenicity.

TMPRSS2 has been shown to enhance the infectivity of SARS-CoV-1 and MERS-CoV *via* cleavages of

the S-protein (extensively reviewed in [4, 15, 23]). In the case of SARS-CoV-1 the S1/S2 site

VSLL$\underline{\textbf{R}}_{667}$↓ST contains an Arg↓Ser cleavage motif that is propitious to cleavage by TMPRSS2 [82] but

not by Furin. Furthermore, the activation of the S-protein of SARS-CoV-1 and cell-to-cell fusion were only

seen when donor cells expressing the S-protein were co-cultured with acceptor cells expressing both ACE2

and TMPRSS2 [82]. This is like our observations with SARS-CoV-2. Accordingly, herein we evaluated in

detail the direct role of TMPRSS2 in the processing of S-protein of SARS-CoV-2. Unexpectedly, we

showed that in HeLa and HeLa-ACE2 cells overexpressed TMPRSS2 induces the cleavage of proS at

S1/S2 and S2' in cells expressing the WT-S-protein. Such proteolytic cleavage was shown to occur in the

ER and lead to the formation of non-O-glycosylated S2a and S2b products retained in the ER (Figs. 1C;

2D; 4). Accordingly, high levels of TMPRSS2 in cells expressing S-protein limit the cell surface expression

of the latter and abolish cell-to-cell fusion (Fig. 6C). In addition, overexpression of cell-surface localized

TMPRSS2 with ACE2 in acceptor cells decreases S-induced fusion of donor cells. This effect was

abolished when ACE2 was modified in the collectrin domain of ACE2 (C0+C4) so that TMPRSS2 no

longer sheds it into a long ~95 kDa form of sACE2 but rather generates a shorter C-terminally truncated

~80 kDa form that lacks the Collectrin-like domain needed for dimerization (Fig. 9A). We believe that the

TMPRSS2 induced ACE2 shedding (Figs. 4, 8), and that sACE2 acted as a decoy to inhibit membrane

fusion. In contrast, fusion of donor cells synthesizing μS1/S2 (resistant to Furin cleavage) was enhanced

when acceptor cells express both TMPRSS2 and ACE2 (Fig. 4D). In this case, the secreted sACE2 may

help the exposure of S2' by removal of the longer N-terminal $S1_L$ produced by TMPRSS2. Indeed,

TMPRSS2 no longer significantly enhances fusion with ACE2 (C0+C4), likely because the short ~80 kDa

form of sACE2 can no longer facilitate cleavage at S2' and/or removal of $S1_L$.

Our data also show that virions emanating from Calu-3 cells that endogenously express both Furin and

TMPRSS2 are infectious. In this case, it is possible that the limiting endogenous levels of TMPRSS2 in

acceptor Calu-3 cells are insufficient to inactivate proS in the ER, and that at physiological levels this

enzyme exerts its effects primarily at the cell surface. In addition, the membrane (M)-protein and/or

envelope (E)-protein of SARS-CoV-2 may shield the proS-protein from early TMPRSS2-induced

inactivation in the ER [83]. We also hypothesize that in the context of endogenous expression of ACE2 and

TMPRSS2 (e.g., in human lung epithelium-derived Calu-3 cells) [84], the proper balance between the two

forms of sACE2 (~95 kDa and ~80 kDa) might facilitate fusion. In this context, low levels of TMPRSS2

might be insufficient to generate enough soluble ACE2 to act as a decoy and TMPRSS2 might then directly

facilitate the generation of S2'. Our study highlights a complex dynamic between Spike, ACE2, Furin and

TMPRSS2 and points to a potential role of TMPRSS2 in facilitating S1 detachment from S2 to enhance S2

cleavage and ultimately, viral entry.

The human airway epithelium is an important site of early SARS-CoV-2 infection [18, 24, 85]. The virus

can then disseminate to other tissues/cells such as gut, liver, endothelial cells and macrophages where

ACE2, Furin and TMPRSS2 are co-expressed [86] and cause multi-organ dysfunction in COVID-19

patients [87]. The complementarity and interchangeability of these different proteases, together with

proteases expressed in endosomes, e.g., cathepsin L [88], allow SARS-CoV-2 entry into various cells,

which might explain the wider tropism of this virus compared to SARS-CoV-1 [89], favoring systemic

infections. Our data support the notion that Furin cleavage is mainly involved in the S1/S2 processing of

SARS-CoV-2, which is absolutely required for the pH-independent entry pathways [68], and for syncytium

formation. The FCS is conserved in viruses infecting human population, suggesting that this entry pathway

favoured the inter-human transmission and the viral pathogenesis. Interestingly, the FCS is unstable

(negatively selected) in Vero cells and viruses lacking the PRRA residues were detected after few passages

in such cells [90]. This instability of the FCS may be related to the fact that viral entry into Vero cells

occurs by the pH-dependent pathway, which is inhibited by chloroquine and hydroxy-chloroquine [69, 91].

Thus, depending on the cell-type our data support the presence of two entry pathways of SARS-CoV-2 [68,

81]. The fact that hydroxy-chloroquine therapy failed to show significant improvement in COVID-19

patients [92, 93] or in two animal models [94], suggests that even if the pH-dependent entry participates in

virus propagation, this entry pathway is not sufficient to fully explain the systemic infection and

pathogenesis of SARS-CoV-2. This is also supported by the facts that the Furin-cleavage at S1/S2 is

conserved in SARS-CoV-2 isolated from human COVID-19 patients, and that ΔPRRA viruses, are poorly

infectious in hamster [92]. Thus, these observations suggest that the pH-independent pathway is an

important antiviral target and inhibiting the S1/S2 cleavage should impair virus dissemination.

Accordingly, we demonstrated that BOS-inhibitors inhibited the Furin-mediated cleavage at the

nanomolar range *in vitro*. In addition, BOS-inhibitors strongly impaired the S1/S2 processing, limited

cell-to-cell fusion and pH-independent virus entry and dramatically reduced virus propagation in Calu-

3 (Figs. 5, 6, 10, 11). BOS-inhibitors represent non-toxic, small molecule inhibitors, which can be

delivered orally or by inhalation, and thus deserve to be rapidly tested to assess their antiviral effect

against acute SARS-CoV-2 infection. As observed in adult animal models, short-term inhibition of

Furin would not cause severe side effects, despite the many physiological functions of Furin [20]. Our

data strongly support the notion that a combination of BOS- and selective TMPRSS2-inhibitors would

provide an effective blockade against SARS-CoV-2 entry/infection, and in this context, further studies

are required to validate this approach in small animal models. It would be interesting to validate *in vivo*

whether a combination of BOS-inhibitor, Camostat and hydroxy-chloroquine would maximize the

antiviral effect of these entry inhibitors.

The availability for worldwide distribution of various SARS-CoV-2 vaccines that inhibit the

accessibility of the RBD of S-protein to ACE2 (https://www.raps.org/news-and-articles/news-

articles/2020/3/covid-19-vaccine-tracker) represent a major therapy to block SARS-CoV-2 infections.

However, it is unknown whether they will be effective in patients with impaired immune systems, and

whether they will confer a persistent protection. While the protective effect of the vaccination on the

whole world population remains incomplete, additional effective antiviral drugs that block viral entry

in multiple organs are still needed and could help in early diagnosis of the disease. Ultimately, in case

of new emerging coronavirus pandemics [95], the availability of such treatments would constitute a

powerful anti-viral arsenal.

Materials and Methods

Enzymatic PC-inhibition by BOS-inhibitors

Biochemical assay: The proprotein convertases Furin (108-574-Tev-Flag-6His), PC5A (PCSK5; 115-

63-Tev-Flag-6His), PACE4 (PCSK6; 150-693-Tev-Flag-6His), and PC7 (PCSK7; 142-634-Tev-Flag-

6His) enzymes were purified from BacMam transduced CHO cells. Reactions were performed in black

384-well polystyrene low volume plates (Greiner) at a final volume of 10 µL. BOS-inhibitors (BOS-

318, BOS-857 and BOS-981) were dissolved in DMSO (1 mM) and serially diluted 1 to 3 with DMSO

through eleven dilutions to provide a final compound concentration range from 0.00017 to 10 µM.

0.05 µl of each concentration was transferred to the corresponding well of an assay plate, and then 5

µl of enzyme (Furin, PCSK5, PCSK6, and PCSK7) in assay buffer (100 mM HEPES pH7.5, 1 mM

CaCl$_2$ and 0.005% Triton X-100) was added using a Multidrop Combi (Thermo) to the compound

plates to give a final protein concentration of 0.02, 0.5, 2.5, and 1.0 nM respectively. The plates were

mixed by inversion and following a 30 min preincubation of enzyme with compound at room

temperature (~22°C), the substrate FAM-QRVRRAVGIDK-TAMRA (AnaSpec # 808143, 5 μl of a 1,

0.25, 0.20, and 0.5 μM solution in assay buffer for Furin, PCSK5, PCSK6, and PCSK7 respectively)

was added using a Multidrop Combi to the entire assay plate. The plates were centrifuged at 500Xg

for 1 minute and incubated at room temperature for two hours. Enzyme inhibition was then quantified

using an Envision instrument (PerkinElmer). Data were normalized to maximal inhibition determined

by 1 μM Decanoyl-Arg-Val-Lys-Arg-Chloromethylketone (Calbiochem #344930). Golgi imaging

assay: This assay uses an image-based platform to evaluate the intracellular activity of Furin inhibitors.

Reactions were performed in black 384-well, tissue culture-treated, clear bottom plates (Greiner).

Compounds under analysis were dissolved in DMSO (1.0 mM) and serially diluted 1 to 3 with DMSO

through eleven dilutions. This creates a final compound concentration range from 0.00017 to 10 μM,

and 0.1 μL of each concentration was transferred to the corresponding well of the assay plate.

<u>Cellular assay</u>: Analyses were initiated by the addition of U2OS cells simultaneously transduced with

a BacMam-delivered construct containing a Golgi-targeting sequence followed by a 12-amino acid

Furin/PCSK cleavage site from Bone Morphogenic Protein 10 (BMP10) and then GFP at the C

terminus. The dibasic Furin cleavage site sequence was flanked by glycine rich linkers (GalNAc-T2-

GGGGS-DSTARIRRNAKG-GGGGS-GFP). Briefly, frozen cells are thawed in assay media

(Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium Nutritional Mixture F-12 (Ham) without phenol red containing

5% FBS) and diluted to deliver 6000 cells/well (50 μl) to the plate using a Multidrop Combi (Thermo).

After a 24-hour incubation period at 37°C, the cells are stained with Cell Mask Deep Red, fixed in

paraformaldehyde and the nuclei stained using Ho33342. The Golgi-targeted GFP forms bright

punctate clusters within the cell. In the absence of a Furin/PCSK inhibitor, the endogenous protease

cleaves GFP from its N-acetylgalactosaminyltransferase-2 Golgi tether, releasing GFP into the Golgi

lumen where fluorescence was diluted below the threshold of assay sensitivity. In the presence of a

cell permeable Furin/PCSK inhibitor, GFP fluorescence increases as intra-Golgi protease activity was

reduced. Cellular GFP intensity was determined by image-based acquisition (Incell 2200, Perkin

Elmer) at 40x magnification with 4 fields measured per well. Multi-scale top hat segmentation was

used to identify the GFP-tagged puncta and to quantitate the average fluorescence of all puncta on a

per cell basis. Cellular toxicity was determined in parallel.

Furin and TMPRSS2 fluorogenic assays: Recombinant Furin was purchased from BioLegend

(#719406), human recombinant TRMPSS2 from Cliniscience (ref LS-G57269-100), and the

DABCYLGlu-EDANS labelled peptides encompassing the different cleavage sites (SI Table 1) were

purchased from Genscript. Reactions were performed at room temperature in black 384-well

polystyrene low volume plates (CELLSTAR-Greiner Bio-One # 784476) at a final volume of 15 μL.

The fluorescent peptides were used at 5 μM and the reactions were performed in 50 mM Tris buffer (pH

6.5 or 7.5), 0.2% Triton X-100, 1mM $CaCl_2$ and Furin was added at a final concentration of 0.2 to 100

nM. BOS-inhibitors (BOS-318, BOS-857 and BOS-981) were dissolved in DMSO (1 mM) and serially

diluted 1 to 2 with DMSO to provide a final compound concentration range from 50 μM to 0.01 nM

with 5% DMSO in the enzymatic assay. For TMPRSS2, the fluorescent peptides were used at 5 μM

and the reactions were performed in 50 mM Tris buffer (pH 8), 150 mM NaCl and TMPRSS2 was

added at final concentrations of 50 nM. Cleavage of the synthetic peptides was quantitated by

determining the increase of EDANS (493 nM) fluorescence following release of the DABCYL

quencher, which was excited at 335 nM using a Safire 2 Tecan fluorimeter. The fluorescence was

followed during 90 min, and the enzymatic activity was deduced by measurement of the increase of

fluorescence during the linear phase of the reaction. Each reaction was performed in triplicate and the

standard deviation was calculated using Excel-ecart type function ($\sqrt{\frac{\sum(x-\bar{x})^2}{(n-1)}}$).

Plasmids

Single tagged (C-terminal V5 tag) or double tagged (N-terminal HA tag and C-terminal V5 tag) Spike glycoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 (optimized sequence) and its mutants were cloned into the pIRES2-EGFP vector. Site-directed mutagenesis was achieved using a Quick-Change kit (Stratagene, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The plasmids pCI-NEO-hACE2 received from DW Lambert (University of Leeds) and pIRES-NEO3-hTMPRSS2 from P Jolicoeur (IRCM). The ΔEnv Vpr Luciferase Reporter Vector (pNL4-3.Luc.R-E-) was obtained from Dr. Nathaniel Landau through the NIH AIDS Reagent Program whereas the pHIV-1NL4-3 ΔEnv-NanoLuc construct was a kind gift from Dr. P Bieniasz. Plasmids encoding VSV-G, as HIV-1 Env and tat were previously described [96, 97].

Cell culture and transfection

Monolayers of HeLa, HEK293T, HEK293T17, Vero E6 and Calu-3 cells were cultured in 5% CO_2 at 37°C in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Wisent) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS; Wisent). HEK293T-ACE2[98], a generous gift from Dr. Paul Bieniasz, were maintained in DMEM containing 10% FBS, 1% nonessential amino acids (NEAA) and 50 μg/ml blasticidin (Invivogen). CHO-ldlD cells, which are defective in UDP-Gal/UDP-GalNAc 4-epimerase [50] and therefore cannot O-glycosylate proteins, and their parental CHO-K1 cells were cultured in DMEM/F12 medium (50/50) (Wisent) supplemented with 3% FBS and F12K medium (Wisent) containing 10% FBS, respectively. The cells were transfected with JetPrime transfection reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions (Polyplus transfection, New York, USA). At 24h post transfection the culture media were changed to serum-free medium and incubated for an additional 24h. To establish the stable HeLa cells over-expressing human ACE2, transfected cells were selected using media containing 500 μg/ml of neomycin (G418, Wisent).

For knockdown of Furin in HeLa cells, an optimized set of 4 small interfering RNAs (siRNAs; SMARTPool) targeted against human Furin were purchased from Horizon Discoveries (Perkin Elmer,

Lafayette, LA, USA) and transfections of HeLa cells were carried out using INTERFERin (PolyPlus)

as recommended by the manufacturer.

To generate HIV particles pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 S, 293T17 cells (600,000 cells plated in

a 6-well vessel) were transfected with 1 µg pNL4-3.Luc.R-E- (or pHIV-1NLΔEnv-NanoLuc) in the

presence or absence of 0.3 µg pIR-2019-nCoV-S V5 plasmids using Lipofectamine-3000 (Life

Technologies). In certain experiments, 293T17 cells were treated with BOS inhibitors at 6 h post

transfection. Pseudovirions expressing the nano- or firefly-luciferase were collected at 24 h or 48 h

post transfection, respectively. Viral supernatants were clarified by centrifugation at 300 x *g,* passed

through a 0.45-µm pore-size polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF; Millipore) syringe filter (Millipore;

SLGVR33RS), and aliquots frozen at −80°C. For WB analysis of purified pseudovirions, viral

supernatants were concentrated by ultracentrifugation on a 20% sucrose cushion for 3h at 35,000 RPM;

Beckman Coulter OPTIMA XE; Ti70.1 rotor). HIV particles lacking the SARS-CoV-2 S glycoprotein

served as a negative control in all experiments.

Cell viability assay using MTT

Cells, seeded in a 96-well plate, the day before, at 10,000 (HEK-293T and Vero E6) or 50,000 (Calu-

3) cells, were treated with serial 10-fold dilutions of BOS inhibitors for up to 48h. Cells treated with

vehicle alone were used as negative control. MTT was subsequently added to the medium (final

concentration: 2.5 mg/ml) and cells were further incubated for 4h at 37 ^{0}C. After removal of the culture

media, DMSO was added and absorbance read at 595 nm using a microplate spectrophotometer. The

data from two independent experiments done in triplicates was used to calculate the CC50 by nonlinear

regression using GraphPad Prism V5.0 software.

Western blots

The cells were washed with PBS and then lysed using RIPA buffer (1% Triton X-100, 150 mM NaCl,

5 mM EDTA, and 50 mM Tris, pH 7.5) for 30 min at 4°C. The cell lysates were collected after

centrifugation at 14,000 × g for 10 min. The proteins were separated on 7% tris-glycine or 8% tricine

gels by SDS-PAGE and transferred to a PVDF membrane (Perkin Elmer). When specified, media from

cultured and transfected cells were collected and concentrated 10x using Amicon Ultra 2 ml devices

with a 10 kDa cut-off (Millipore; UFC 201024), as specified by the manufacturer, and analyzed by

SDS-PAGE followed by Western blotting. The proteins were revealed using a V5-monoclonal

antibody (V5-mAb V2660; 1:5000; Invitrogen), ACE2 antibody (rabbit monoclonal ab108252;

1:3,000; Abcam), TMPRSS2 antibody (rabbit polyclonal; 14427-1-AP; 1:1,000; Proteintech), Actin

antibody (rabbit polyclonal A2066; 1:5,000; Sigma), HA-HRP antibody (12-013-819; 1:3,500; Roche),

or SARS-CoV-2 spike antibody (rabbit polyclonal GenTex GTX135356; 1:2,000; GenTex). The

antigen-antibody complexes were visualized using appropriate HRP conjugated secondary antibodies

and enhanced chemiluminescence kit (ECL; Amersham or Bio-Rad) and normalization was reported

to β-actin. The quantification of the bands was performed using Image Lab software (Bio-Rad).

For analysis of SARS-CoV-2 S virions or pseudovirions, protein extracts of purified viral particles

and corresponding producing cells (Calu-3 or 293T17, respectively) were resolved on 10% tris-glycine

gels and immunoblotted for spike, nucleocapsid, HIV-1 Gag p24 or actin using anti-V5 (for

pseudovirion detection; V2660)/anti-S2 (for virion detection; Sino Biologicals; 40590-T62), anti-N

(Sino Biologicals; 40143-MM05), anti-p24 (MBS Hybridoma line 31-90-25) or anti-actin (MP

Biomedicals, SKU 08691001), respectively.

Glycosidase treatment

30 to 50 μg proteins were digested for 90 min at 37°C with endoglycosidase-H (Endo-H; P0702L) or

endoglycosidase-F (Endo-F; P0705S) as recommended by the manufacturer (New England Biolabs).

Inhibitor treatment

At 24h post transfection, cells were incubated for 6h with two pan-PC inhibitors: the cell permeable

decanoyl-RVKR-chloromethylketone (cmk; 50 mM; 4026850.001; Bachem) , or with the cell surface

PC-inhibitor hexa-D-arginine (D6R; 20 μM; 344931; EMD). Culture media were then replaced with

fresh ones containing the inhibitors for an additional 24h. For the selective cell-permeable Furin-like

inhibitors (BOS; Boston Pharmaceuticals), the cells were treated with the inhibitors at the specified

concentration starting at 5h pre-transfection and throughout the duration of the experiment.

Cell-to-cell fusion assay

HeLa or HeLa TZM-bl cells were plated at 200,000 cells in 12-well plates. HeLa cells were transiently

transfected with different constructs of SARS-CoV-2 Spike or NL4.3-HIV Env, or an empty vector

and 0.2 μg of CMV-Tat plasmid. HeLa TZM-bl cells were transfected with human ACE2, TMPRSS2

or a combination of both. At 6h post-transfection, media were replaced with fresh ones containing

Furin-inhibitors, and 24h later the cells were detached with PBS-EDTA (1 μM). Different

combinations of HeLa and HeLa-TZM-bl cells were placed in co-culture plate at a ratio of 1:1 for a

total of 60,000 cells/well of a 96 well place. After 18-24h the media were removed and 50 μl of cell

lysis reagent was added in each well. 20 μl of the cell lysate was used for luciferase reading using 50

μl of Renilla luciferase reagent (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). The relative light units (RLU) were

measured using a Promega GLOMAX plate reader (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and values were

reported as fold increase over the RLU measured in co-culture of HeLa cells transfected EV with

respective TZM-bl cells.

Protein immunoprecipitation from co-culture media

When indicated, the secreted form of double tagged Spike glycoprotein of Sars-CoV-2 (N-terminal

HA tag and C-terminal V5 tag) and the TMPRSS2-shed forms of ACE2 receptor from the FBS

containing media of co-cultured HeLA and HeLa-TZM-bl cells were immunoprecipitated for WB

analyses. Namely, 0.3 ml of media were immunoprecipitated with either 25 µl EZ view Red anti-HA

affinity gel (E 6779; Sigma-Aldrich) or 1.2 µg ACE2 antibody (goat ployclonal AF 933; R&D) and 30

µl TrueBlot anti-Goat Ig IP beads (00-8844-25; Rockland Inc.), respectively, according to the

manufacturers' protocol. Upon SDS-PAGE separation and PVDF transfer, the immunoprecipitated

proteins were detected using an HA-HRP antibody (12-013-819; 1:3,500; Roche) or ACE2 antibody

(rabbit monoclonal ab108252; 1:3,000; Abcam) and TrueBlot anti-Goat IgG HRP (18-8814-31;

Rockland Inc.), respectively.

Microscopy

891 To establish the luciferase assay, cell co-cultures were plated on glass coverslips. After 18-24h, the

892 cells were incubated with 488 CellMask™ to stain the membrane and then fixed with 4% PFA for 15

893 min at 4ºC. The glass coverslips were mounted on glass slides using ProLong™ Gold Antifade

894 containing DAPI (Invitrogen). The number of syncytia were counted over 10 fields.

Immunofluorescence

Cell culture and transfection were performed on glass coverslips. Cells were washed twice with PBS

and fixed with fresh 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 min at room temperature. Following washes, cells

were either non-permeabilized or permeabilized with 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS containing 2% BSA

for 5 min, washed, and then blocking was performed with PBS containing 2% BSA for 1h. Cells were

incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4ºC using an antibody against V5 (mouse monoclonal

R960-25; 1:1000; Invitrogen), Spike (mouse monoclonal GTX632604; 1:500; GeneTex) and ACE2

(goat polyclonal AF933; 1:500; RnDsystems). Following wash, corresponding species-specific Alexa-

Fluor (488 or 555)-tagged antibodies (Molecular Probes) were incubated for 1h at room temperature.

Coverslips were mounted on a glass slide using ProLong Gold Reagent with DAPI (P36935, Life

Technologies). Samples were visualized using a confocal laser-scanning microscope (LSM710, Carl

Zeiss) with Plan-Apochromat 63x/1.40 Oil DIC M27 objective on ZEN software.

Pseudovirus entry

HEK293T-ACE2 or Calu-3 (10,000 cells/well plated in a 96-well dish 24 or 48h before, respectively)

were incubated with up to 200 µl filtered pseudovirions for overnight. In certain experiments, target

cells were pretreated with BOS-318 (1 µM) for 6h and/or Camostat (40 µM) for 2h before transduction.

The overnight incubation with pseudovirions was performed in the presence of the inhibitors. Viral

inoculum was removed, then fresh media were added, and the cells cultured for up to 72h. Upon

removal of spent media, 293T-ACE2 and Calu-3 cells were gently washed twice with PBS and

analyzed for firefly- or nano- luciferase activity, respectively using Promega luciferase assay (Cat #

E1501) or Nano-Glo luciferase system (Cat # N1110), respectively.

Replication competent SARS-CoV-2 Viruses

SARS-CoV-2, which served as the viral source, was originally isolated from a COVID-19 patient in

Quebec, Canada and was designated as LSPQ1. The clinical isolate was amplified, tittered in Vero E6

using a plaque assay as detailed below, and the integrity of the S-protein multi-basic protein convertase

site validated by sequencing. All experiments involving infectious SARS-CoV-2 virus were performed

in the designated areas of the Biosafety level 3 laboratory (IRCM) previously approved for SARS-

CoV-2 work.

Plaque assay in Vero E6

Vero E6 cells (1.2×10^5 cells/well) were seeded in quadruplicate in 24-well tissue culture plates in

DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS two days before infection. Cells were infected with up to six ten-

fold serial dilutions (10^{-2}-10^{-6}) of viral supernatant containing SARS-CoV-2 for 1h at 37ºC (200 µl

infection volume). The plates were manually rocked every 15 min during the 1-hour period.

Subsequently, virus was removed, cells were washed and overlaying media (containing 0.6% low melt

agarose in DMEM with 10% FBS) was added and incubated undisturbed for 60-65h at 37ºC. Post

incubation, cells were fixed with 4% formaldehyde and stained with 0.25% crystal violet (prepared in

30% methanol). High quality plaque pictures were taken using a high resolution DLSR camera (Nikon

model: D80, objective: "AF Micro-Nikkor 60mm f/2.8D"). Plaques were counted manually and in

parallel, imaged plaque plates were processed and plaques enumerated using an automated algorithm

based Matlab software. Virus titer is expressed as plaque-forming units per ml (PFU/ml): (number of

plaques x dilution factor of the virus) x 1000 / volume of virus dilution used for infection (in µl).

Multiplicity of infection (MOI) expressed as: MOI = PFU of virus used for infection / number of cells.

Cell infections with fully replicative SARS-CoV-2

Vero E.6 and Calu-3 cells were seeded in duplicates in 12-well plates (2.3×10^5 cells/well) the day

before. Cells were pre-treated with various concentrations (0.1-1µM) of BOS inhibitors and vehicle

alone (DMSO) for up to 24h. In certain experiments, Calu-3 were also pre-treated with Camostat for

1h. Thereafter, the cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 virus at MOI of 0.001 for 1h (Vero E6) or

0.01 for 3h (Calu-3 cells) in 350 µl of serum-free DMEM at 37ºC with occasional manual rocking of

plates. Cells plus media only were used as a control. After incubation, virus was removed, and the cell

monolayer was washed twice successively with PBS and serum-free DMEM. New media (total 1ml)

containing the concentrations of BOS-inhibitors was subsequently added to cells. Cell-free supernatant

(250 µl) was removed at 12, 24 and 48h post infection. The drugs were replenished for 1 ml media at

24h post-infection. The virus supernatants were stored at -80°C until further use. Viral production in

the supernatant was quantified using a plaque assay on Vero E6.1 cells as described above. In certain

experiments, viral supernatants were harvested at the end of infection and purified on a 20% sucrose

cushion using ultracentrifugation as described above. The resulting concentrated virus and

corresponding infected cells were analyzed by Western blotting as appropriate.

Quantification and statistical analysis: Virus titers quantified by plaque assay in triplicate were shown

as mean ± standard deviation. The results from experiments done with two biological replicates and

two technical replicates in triplicates were used to calculate the IC_{50} by nonlinear regression using

GraphPad Prism V5.0 software. The difference between the control cells (virus with 0.001% DMSO)

and the cells treated with BOS-inhibitors were evaluated by Student's t test. The P values of 0.05 or

lower were considered statistically significant (*, $p < 0.05$; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.001$).

Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by CIHR Foundation grants (NGS: # 148363) and (ÉAC: # 154324), a Canada Research Chairs in Precursor Proteolysis (NGS: # 950-231335), a CIHR CHAMPS Team Grant # HAL 157986 (NGS and ÉAC), Réseau SIDA maladies infectieuses COVID-19 initiative (ÉAC and NGS), the European score project and ANR Reacting COVID-19 (ED and BC). The authors thank the Quebec public health laboratory for providing the infectious isolate LSPQ1 SARS-CoV-2. We thank Paul Bieniasz for the 293T-ACE2 cell line and the pHIV-1NL4-3ΔEnv-NanoLuc construct. The following reagents were obtained from the NIH AIDS Reagent Program, Division of AIDS, NIAID, NIH: TZM-bl cells, from John C. Kappes, Xiaoyun Wu, and Tranzyme, Inc. and HIV-1 pNL4-3 ΔEnv Vpr Luciferase Reporter Vector (pNL4-3.Luc.R-E-) obtained from Nathaniel Landau. We are thankful to Dominic Filion for developing the algorithm for image-assisted plaque quantification. JJ is supported by the CIHR Postdoctoral Fellowship (HIV-435243-73284). We also thank Dr Annik Prat (IRCM) for the design of the summary model shown in Fig. 7. Finally, we would like to thank Mrs. Brigitte Mary for her excellent editorial help and organization of the manuscript.

Data availability

Source data are provided with this paper. The data that support the findings of this study are preserved at repositories of the Montreal Clinical Research Institute (IRCM), Montreal, QC, Canada and available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

Author contributions

RE made all the original critical experiments revealing the role of the PCs in Spike processing and the effect of their inhibitors. JJ performed all the cell assays with infectious SARS-CoV-2. DSR participated in the biochemical characterizations of TMPRSS2 processing of ACE2 and S1. UA performed all cell-to-cell fusion assays. AE made all the mutants used in the work. RMD generated

the HeLa-ACE2 cells and prepared all the cells for *ex vivo* analyses. DNH performed all the

immunocytochemical experiments. FD and ML performed experiments related to SARS-CoV-2

pseudovirions. AD and PSO performed all the Furin and TMPRSS2 *in vitro* kinetic cleavage analyses

of peptides mimicking the S1/S2 and S2' sites. CM and KW provided the BOS-inhibitors and their

characterization. ED made seminal contributions to the possible role of Furin-like enzymes in the

processing of the spike glycoprotein and actively contributed to the conceptualization and writing of

the manuscript. TNQP designed, performed, and analyzed experiments related to viral entry and

contributed to the writing of the manuscript. EAC (virology) and NGS (biochemistry and cell biology)

conceptualized the research program and provided the intellectual contributions and funding for the

whole project. All authors actively contributed to the final version of the manuscript.

References

References

1.   Dobson AP, Carper ER. Infectious Diseases and Human Population History: Throughout

history the establishment of disease has been a side effect of the growth of civilization.

Bioscience. 1996;**46**:115-26.

2.   Cui J, Li F, Shi ZL. Origin and evolution of pathogenic coronaviruses. *Nat Rev Microbiol*.

2019;**17**:181-92.

3.   Almeida JD, Tyrrell DA. The morphology of three previously uncharacterized human

respiratory viruses that grow in organ culture. *J Gen Virol*. 1967;**1**:175-8.

4.   Belouzard S, Millet JK, Licitra BN, Whittaker GR. Mechanisms of coronavirus cell entry

mediated by the viral spike protein. *Viruses*. 2012;**4**:1011-33.

5.   Liu PP, Blet A, Smyth D, Li H. The Science Underlying COVID-19: Implications for the

Cardiovascular System. *Circulation*. 2020;**142**:68-78.

6.   Usul Afsar C. 2019-nCoV-SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) infection: Cruciality of Furin and

relevance with cancer. *Med Hypotheses*. 2020;**140**:109770.

7.   Braun E, Sauter D. Furin-mediated protein processing in infectious diseases and cancer. *Clin*

Transl Immunology. 2019;**8**:e1073.

8.   Izaguirre G. The Proteolytic Regulation of Virus Cell Entry by Furin and Other Proprotein

Convertases. *Viruses*. 2019;**11**.

9.   Seidah NG, Pasquato A, Andreo U. How Do Enveloped Viruses Exploit the Secretory

Proprotein Convertases to Regulate Infectivity and Spread? *Viruses*. 2021;**13**:1229.

10.   Coutard B, Valle C, de Lamballerie X, Canard B, Seidah NG, Decroly E. The spike

glycoprotein of the new coronavirus 2019-nCoV contains a furin-like cleavage site absent in

CoV of the same clade. *Antiviral Res*. 2020;**176**:104742.

11.   Tang T, Bidon M, Jaimes JA, Whittaker GR, Daniel S. Coronavirus membrane fusion

1019   mechanism offers as a potential target for antiviral development. *Antiviral Res*. 2020:104792.

1020   12.   Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Pöhlmann S. A Multibasic Cleavage Site in the Spike Protein

1021   of SARS-CoV-2 Is Essential for Infection of Human Lung Cells. *Mol Cell*. 2020;**78**:779-84.e5.

1022   13.   Lan J, Ge J, Yu J, Shan S, Zhou H, Fan S, et al. Structure of the SARS-CoV-2 spike receptor-

1023   binding domain bound to the ACE2 receptor. *Nature*. 2020;**581**:215-20.

1024   14.   Lu G, Wang Q, Gao GF. Bat-to-human: spike features determining 'host jump' of coronaviruses

1025   SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and beyond. *Trends Microbiol*. 2015;**23**:468-78.

1026   15.   Millet JK, Whittaker GR. Physiological and molecular triggers for SARS-CoV membrane

1027   fusion and entry into host cells. *Virology*. 2018;**517**:3-8.

1028   16.   Ou X, Liu Y, Lei X, Li P, Mi D, Ren L, et al. Characterization of spike glycoprotein of SARS-

1029   CoV-2 on virus entry and its immune cross-reactivity with SARS-CoV. *Nat Commun*.

1030   2020;**11**:1620.

1031   17.   Shang J, Wan Y, Luo C, Ye G, Geng Q, Auerbach A, et al. Cell entry mechanisms of SARS-

1032   CoV-2. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2020;**117**:11727-34.

1033   18.   Bestle D, Heindl MR, Limburg H, Van Lam van T, Pilgram O, Moulton H, et al. TMPRSS2

1034   and furin are both essential for proteolytic activation of SARS-CoV-2 in human airway cells.

1035   *Life Sci Alliance*. 2020;**3**.

1036   19.   Mykytyn AZ, Breugem TI, Riesebosch S, Schipper D, van den Doel PB, Rottier RJ, et al.

1037   SARS-CoV-2 entry into human airway organoids is serine protease-mediated and facilitated

1038   by the multibasic cleavage site. *Elife*. 2021;**10**.

1039   20.   Seidah NG, Prat A. The biology and therapeutic targeting of the proprotein convertases. *Nat

1040   Rev Drug Discov* 2012;**11**:367-83.

1041   21.   Van de Ven WJ, Creemers JW, Roebroek AJ. Furin: the prototype mammalian subtilisin-like

1042   proprotein-processing enzyme. Endoproteolytic cleavage at paired basic residues of

1043   proproteins of the eukaryotic secretory pathway. *Enzyme*. 1991;**45**:257-70.

1044   22.   Moulard M, Decroly E. Maturation of HIV envelope glycoprotein precursors by cellular

1045   endoproteases. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2000;**1469**:121-32.

1046   23.   Millet JK, Whittaker GR. Host cell proteases: Critical determinants of coronavirus tropism and

1047   pathogenesis. *Virus Res*. 2015;**202**:120-34.

1048   24.   Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Schroeder S, Kruger N, Herrler T, Erichsen S, et al. SARS-

1049   CoV-2 Cell Entry Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is Blocked by a Clinically Proven

1050   Protease Inhibitor. *Cell*. 2020;**181**:271-80.e8.

1051   25.   Xia S, Lan Q, Su S, Wang X, Xu W, Liu Z, et al. The role of furin cleavage site in SARS-CoV-

1052   2 spike protein-mediated membrane fusion in the presence or absence of trypsin. *Signal

1053   Transduct Target Ther*. 2020;**5**:92.

1054   26.   Johnson BA, Xie X, Bailey AL, Kalveram B, Lokugamage KG, Muruato A, et al. Loss of furin

1055   cleavage site attenuates SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis. *Nature*. 2021.

1056   27.   Peacock TP, Goldhill DH, Zhou J, Baillon L, Frise R, Swann OC, et al. The furin cleavage site

1057   in the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein is required for transmission in ferrets. *Nat Microbiol*. 2021.

1058   28.   Johnson BA, Xie X, Bailey AL, Kalveram B, Lokugamage KG, Muruato A, et al. Loss of furin

1059   cleavage site attenuates SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis. *Nature*. 2021;**591**:293-99.

1060   29.   Afar DE, Vivanco I, Hubert RS, Kuo J, Chen E, Saffran DC, et al. Catalytic cleavage of the

1061   androgen-regulated TMPRSS2 protease results in its secretion by prostate and prostate cancer

1062   epithelia. *Cancer Res*. 2001;**61**:1686-92.

1063   30.   Shrimp JH, Kales SC, Sanderson PE, Simeonov A, Shen M, Hall MD. An Enzymatic

1064   TMPRSS2 Assay for Assessment of Clinical Candidates and Discovery of Inhibitors as

1065   Potential Treatment of COVID-19. *bioRxiv*. 2020.

31. Kawase M, Shirato K, van der Hoek L, Taguchi F, Matsuyama S. Simultaneous treatment of

human bronchial epithelial cells with serine and cysteine protease inhibitors prevents severe

acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus entry. *J Virol*. 2012;**86**:6537-45.

32. Nimishakavi S, Raymond WW, Gruenert DC, Caughey GH. Divergent Inhibitor Susceptibility

among Airway Lumen-Accessible Tryptic Proteases. *PLoS One*. 2015;**10**:e0141169.

33. Hörnich BF, Großkopf AK, Schlagowski S, Tenbusch M, Kleine-Weber H, Neipel F, et al.

SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV spike-mediated cell-cell fusion differ in the requirements for

receptor expression and proteolytic activation. *J Virol*. 2021.

34. Cyranoski D. Profile of a killer: the complex biology powering the coronavirus pandemic.

Nature. 2020;**581**:22-26.

35. Nickel W, Seedorf M. Unconventional mechanisms of protein transport to the cell surface of

eukaryotic cells. *Annu Rev Cell Dev Biol*. 2008;**24**:287-308.

36. Heurich A, Hofmann-Winkler H, Gierer S, Liepold T, Jahn O, Pöhlmann S. TMPRSS2 and

ADAM17 cleave ACE2 differentially and only proteolysis by TMPRSS2 augments entry

driven by the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus spike protein. *J Virol*.

2014;**88**:1293-307.

37. Plante JA, Mitchell BM, Plante KS, Debbink K, Weaver SC, Menachery VD. The variant

gambit: COVID-19's next move. *Cell Host Microbe*. 2021;**29**:508-15.

38. Matoba Y, Aoki Y, Tanaka S, Yahagi K, Katsushima Y, Katsushima F, et al. HeLa-ACE2-

TMPRSS2 Cells Are Useful for the Isolation of Human Coronavirus 229E. *Jpn J Infect Dis*.

2016;**69**:452-4.

39. Thomas G. Furin at the cutting edge: from protein traffic to embryogenesis and disease. *Nature*

Reviews Molecular Cell Biology. 2002;**3**:753-66.

40.   Susan-Resiga D, Essalmani R, Hamelin J, Asselin MC, Benjannet S, Chamberland A, et al.

1090   Furin Is the Major Processing Enzyme of the Cardiac-specific Growth Factor Bone

1091   Morphogenetic Protein 10. *J Biol Chem* 2011;**286**:22785-94.

1092   41.   Hallenberger S, Bosch V, Angliker H, Shaw E, Klenk HD, Garten W. Inhibition of furin-

1093   mediated cleavage activation of HIV-1 glycoprotein gp160. *Nature*. 1992;**360**:358-61.

1094   42.   Peinado JR, Kacprzak MM, Leppla SH, Lindberg I. Cross-inhibition between furin and lethal

1095   factor inhibitors. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2004;**321**:601-05.

1096   43.   Örd M, Faustova I, Loog M. Biochemical evidence of furin specificity and potential for

1097   phospho-regulation at Spike protein S1/S2 cleavage site in SARS-CoV2 but not in SARS-

1098   CoV1 or MERS-CoV. *bioRxiv*. 2020:2020.06.23.166900.

1099   44.   Andersen KG, Rambaut A, Lipkin WI, Holmes EC, Garry RF. The proximal origin of SARS-

1100   CoV-2. *Nat Med*. 2020;**26**:450-52.

1101   45.   Schjoldager KT, Clausen H. Site-specific protein O-glycosylation modulates proprotein

1102   processing - deciphering specific functions of the large polypeptide GalNAc-transferase gene

1103   family. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2012;**1820**:2079-94.

1104   46.   Benton DJ, Wrobel AG, Xu P, Roustan C, Martin SR, Rosenthal PB, et al. Receptor binding

1105   and priming of the spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 for membrane fusion. *Nature*. 2020;**588**:327-

1106   30.

1107   47.   Belouzard S, Chu VC, Whittaker GR. Activation of the SARS coronavirus spike protein via

1108   sequential proteolytic cleavage at two distinct sites. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2009;**106**:5871-

1109   6.

1110   48.   Seidah NG, Benjannet S, Wickham L, Marcinkiewicz J, Jasmin SB, Stifani S, et al. The

1111   secretory proprotein convertase neural apoptosis-regulated convertase 1 (NARC-1): liver

1112   regeneration and neuronal differentiation. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2003;**100**:928-33.

1113   49.   Schjoldager KT, Narimatsu Y, Joshi HJ, Clausen H. Global view of human protein
1114   glycosylation pathways and functions. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol*. 2020;**21**:729-49.

1115   50.   Kingsley DM, Kozarsky KF, Segal M, Krieger M. Three types of low density lipoprotein
1116   receptor-deficient mutant have pleiotropic defects in the synthesis of N-linked, O-linked, and
1117   lipid-linked carbohydrate chains. *J Cell Biol*. 1986;**102**:1576-85.

1118   51.   Shomron O, Nevo-Yassaf I, Aviad T, Yaffe Y, Zahavi EE, Dukhovny A, et al. COPII collar
1119   defines the boundary between ER and ER exit site and does not coat cargo containers. *J Cell*
1120   *Biol*. 2021;**220**.

1121   52.   Rousselet E, Benjannet S, Hamelin J, Canuel M, Seidah NG. The Proprotein Convertase PC7:
1122   unique zymogen activation and trafficking pathways. *J Biol Chem*. 2011;**286**:2728-38.

1123   53.   Aridor M, Bannykh SI, Rowe T, Balch WE. Sequential coupling between COPII and COPI
1124   vesicle coats in endoplasmic reticulum to Golgi transport. *J Cell Biol* 1995;**131**:875-93.

1125   54.   Nickel W, Rabouille C. Mechanisms of regulated unconventional protein secretion. *Nature*
1126   *Reviews Molecular Cell Biology*. 2009;**10**:148-55.

1127   55.   Saraste J, Prydz K. Assembly and Cellular Exit of Coronaviruses: Hijacking an
1128   Unconventional Secretory Pathway from the Pre-Golgi Intermediate Compartment via the
1129   Golgi Ribbon to the Extracellular Space. *Cells*. 2021;**10**.

1130   56.   Platt EJ, Wehrly K, Kuhmann SE, Chesebro B, Kabat D. Effects of CCR5 and CD4 cell surface
1131   concentrations on infections by macrophagetropic isolates of human immunodeficiency virus
1132   type 1. *J Virol*. 1998;**72**:2855-64.

1133   57.   Raghuvamsi PV, Tulsian NK, Samsudin F, Qian X, Purushotorman K, Yue G, et al. SARS-
1134   CoV-2 S protein:ACE2 interaction reveals novel allosteric targets. *Elife*. 2021;**10**.

1135   58.   Zhang H, Wada J, Hida K, Tsuchiyama Y, Hiragushi K, Shikata K, et al. Collectrin, a collecting
1136   duct-specific transmembrane glycoprotein, is a novel homolog of ACE2 and is
1137   developmentally regulated in embryonic kidneys. *J Biol Chem*. 2001;**276**:17132-9.

59.   Yan R, Zhang Y, Li Y, Xia L, Guo Y, Zhou Q. Structural basis for the recognition of SARS-

CoV-2 by full-length human ACE2. *Science*. 2020;**367**:1444-48.

60.   Monteil V, Kwon H, Prado P, Hagelkrüys A, Wimmer RA, Stahl M, et al. Inhibition of SARS-

CoV-2 Infections in Engineered Human Tissues Using Clinical-Grade Soluble Human ACE2.

Cell. 2020;**181**:905-13.e7.

61.   Peacock TP, Penrice-Randal R, Hiscox JA, Barclay WS. SARS-CoV-2 one year on: evidence

for ongoing viral adaptation. *J Gen Virol*. 2021;**102**.

62.   Isabel S, Graña-Miraglia L, Gutierrez JM, Bundalovic-Torma C, Groves HE, Isabel MR, et al.

Evolutionary and structural analyses of SARS-CoV-2 D614G spike protein mutation now

documented worldwide. *Sci Rep*. 2020;**10**:14031.

63.   Plante JA, Liu Y, Liu J, Xia H, Johnson BA, Lokugamage KG, et al. Spike mutation D614G

alters SARS-CoV-2 fitness and neutralization susceptibility. *bioRxiv*. 2020.

64.   Ogawa J, Zhu W, Tonnu N, Singer O, Hunter T, Ryan AL, et al. The D614G mutation in the

SARS-CoV2 Spike protein increases infectivity in an ACE2 receptor dependent manner.

bioRxiv. 2020.

65.   Gobeil SM, Janowska K, McDowell S, Mansouri K, Parks R, Manne K, et al. D614G Mutation

Alters SARS-CoV-2 Spike Conformation and Enhances Protease Cleavage at the S1/S2

Junction. *Cell Rep*. 2020:108630.

66.   Daniloski Z, Jordan TX, Ilmain JK, Guo X, Bhabha G, tenOever BR, et al. The Spike D614G

mutation increases SARS-CoV-2 infection of multiple human cell types. *Elife*. 2021;**10**.

67.   Walls AC, Park YJ, Tortorici MA, Wall A, McGuire AT, Veesler D. Structure, Function, and

Antigenicity of the SARS-CoV-2 Spike Glycoprotein. *Cell*. 2020;**181**:281-92.e6.

68.   Hoffmann M, Mösbauer K, Hofmann-Winkler H, Kaul A, Kleine-Weber H, Krüger N, et al.

Chloroquine does not inhibit infection of human lung cells with SARS-CoV-2. *Nature*.

2020;**585**:588-90.

69.   Vincent MJ, Bergeron E, Benjannet S, Erickson BR, Rollin PE, Ksiazek TG, et al. Chloroquine

is a potent inhibitor of SARS coronavirus infection and spread. *Virol J*. 2005;**2**:69.

70.   Bayati A, Kumar R, Francis V, McPherson PS. SARS-CoV-2 infects cells following viral entry

via clathrin-mediated endocytosis. *J Biol Chem*. 2021;**296**:100306.

71.   Hoffmann M, Mösbauer K, Hofmann-Winkler H, Kaul A, Kleine-Weber H, Krüger N, et al.

Chloroquine does not inhibit infection of human lung cells with SARS-CoV-2. *Nature*. 2020.

72.   Cheng YW, Chao TL, Li CL, Chiu MF, Kao HC, Wang SH, et al. Furin Inhibitors Block SARS-

CoV-2 Spike Protein Cleavage to Suppress Virus Production and Cytopathic Effects. *Cell Rep*.

2020;**33**:108254.

73.   Cai Y, Zhang J, Xiao T, Peng H, Sterling SM, Walsh RM, Jr., et al. Distinct conformational

states of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein. *Science*. 2020;**369**:1586-92.

74.   Wrobel AG, Benton DJ, Xu P, Roustan C, Martin SR, Rosenthal PB, et al. SARS-CoV-2 and

bat RaTG13 spike glycoprotein structures inform on virus evolution and furin-cleavage effects.

Nat Struct Mol Biol. 2020;**27**:763-67.

75.   Mayer G, Boileau G, Bendayan M. Sorting of furin in polarized epithelial and endothelial cells:

expression beyond the Golgi apparatus. *J Histochem Cytochem*. 2004;**52**:567-80.

76.   Antalis TM, Bugge TH, Wu Q. Membrane-anchored serine proteases in health and disease.

Prog Mol Biol Transl Sci. 2011;**99**:1-50.

77.   Hao S, Ning K, Kuz CA, Vorhies K, Yan Z, Qiu J. Long-Term Modeling of SARS-CoV-2

Infection of In Vitro Cultured Polarized Human Airway Epithelium. *mBio*. 2020;**11**.

78.   Padmanabhan P, Desikan R, Dixit NM. Targeting TMPRSS2 and Cathepsin B/L together may

be synergistic against SARS-CoV-2 infection. *PLoS Comput Biol*. 2020;**16**:e1008461.

79.   Papa G, Mallery DL, Albecka A, Welch LG, Cattin-Ortolá J, Luptak J, et al. Furin cleavage of

SARS-CoV-2 Spike promotes but is not essential for infection and cell-cell fusion. *PLoS*

Pathog. 2021;**17**:e1009246.

80. Burkard C, Verheije MH, Wicht O, van Kasteren SI, van Kuppeveld FJ, Haagmans BL, et al.

Coronavirus cell entry occurs through the endo-/lysosomal pathway in a proteolysis-dependent

manner. *PLoS Pathog*. 2014;**10**:e1004502.

81. Ou T, Mou H, Zhang L, Ojha A, Choe H, Farzan M. Hydroxychloroquine-mediated inhibition

of SARS-CoV-2 entry is attenuated by TMPRSS2. *PLoS Pathog*. 2021;**17**:e1009212.

82. Matsuyama S, Nagata N, Shirato K, Kawase M, Takeda M, Taguchi F. Efficient activation of

the severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus spike protein by the transmembrane

protease TMPRSS2. *J Virol*. 2010;**84**:12658-64.

83. Malik YA. Properties of Coronavirus and SARS-CoV-2. *Malays J Pathol*. 2020;**42**:3-11.

84. Yamamoto M, Kiso M, Sakai-Tagawa Y, Iwatsuki-Horimoto K, Imai M, Takeda M, et al. The

Anticoagulant Nafamostat Potently Inhibits SARS-CoV-2 S Protein-Mediated Fusion in a Cell

Fusion Assay System and Viral Infection In Vitro in a Cell-Type-Dependent Manner. *Viruses*.

2020;**12**.

85. Wölfel R, Corman VM, Guggemos W, Seilmaier M, Zange S, Müller MA, et al. Virological

assessment of hospitalized patients with COVID-2019. *Nature*. 2020;**581**:465-69.

86. Zhou L, Niu Z, Jiang X, Zhang Z, Zheng Y, Wang Z, et al. The SARS-CoV-2 targets by the

pscRNA profiling of ACE2, TMPRSS2 and Furin proteases. *iScience*. 2020:101744.

87. Mokhtari T, Hassani F, Ghaffari N, Ebrahimi B, Yarahmadi A, Hassanzadeh G. COVID-19

and multiorgan failure: A narrative review on potential mechanisms. *J Mol Histol*.

2020;**51**:613-28.

88. Wei J, Alfajaro MM, DeWeirdt PC, Hanna RE, Lu-Culligan WJ, Cai WL, et al. Genome-wide

CRISPR Screens Reveal Host Factors Critical for SARS-CoV-2 Infection. *Cell*. 2020.

89. Chu H, Chan JF, Yuen TT, Shuai H, Yuan S, Wang Y, et al. Comparative tropism, replication

kinetics, and cell damage profiling of SARS-CoV-2 and SARS-CoV with implications for

clinical manifestations, transmissibility, and laboratory studies of COVID-19: an observational

study. *Lancet Microbe*. 2020;**1**:e14-e23.

90.   Peacock TP, Goldhill DH, Zhou J, Baillon L, Frise R, Swann OC, et al. The furin cleavage site

of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein is a key determinant for transmission due to enhanced

replication in airway cells. *bioRxiv*. 2020:2020.09.30.318311.

91.   Ozden S, Lucas-Hourani M, Ceccaldi PE, Basak A, Valentine M, Benjannet S, et al. Inhibition

of Chikungunya Virus Infection in Cultured Human Muscle Cells by Furin Inhibitors:

Impairment of the maturation of the E2 surface glycoprotein. *J Biol Chem*. 2008;**283**:21899-

908.

92.   Altulea D, Maassen S, Baranov MV, van den Bogaart G. What makes (hydroxy)chloroquine

ineffective against COVID-19: insights from cell biology. *J Mol Cell Biol*. 2021.

93.   Self WH, Semler MW, Leither LM, Casey JD, Angus DC, Brower RG, et al. Effect of

Hydroxychloroquine on Clinical Status at 14 Days in Hospitalized Patients With COVID-19:

A Randomized Clinical Trial. *JAMA*. 2020;**324**:2165-76.

94.   Rosenke K, Jarvis MA, Feldmann F, Schwarz B, Okumura A, Lovaglio J, et al.

Hydroxychloroquine prophylaxis and treatment is ineffective in macaque and hamster SARS-

CoV-2 disease models. *JCI Insight*. 2020;**5**.

95.   Morens DM, Fauci AS. Emerging Pandemic Diseases: How We Got to COVID-19. *Cell*.

2020;**183**:837.

96.   Lodge R, Lalonde JP, Lemay G, Cohen EA. The membrane-proximal intracytoplasmic tyrosine

residue of HIV-1 envelope glycoprotein is critical for basolateral targeting of viral budding in

MDCK cells. *EMBO J*. 1997;**16**:695-705.

97.   Forget J, Yao XJ, Mercier J, Cohen EA. Human immunodeficiency virus type 1 vpr protein

transactivation function: mechanism and identification of domains involved. *J Mol Biol*.

1998;**284**:915-23.

98.   Schmidt F, Weisblum Y, Muecksch F, Hoffmann HH, Michailidis E, Lorenzi JCC, et al.

1238   Measuring SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibody activity using pseudotyped and chimeric

1239   viruses. *J Exp Med*. 2020;**217**.

1240

1241

 Figure legends

Figure 1: **Processing of S-peptides by Furin and TMPRSS2.** **(A)** Schematic representation of the

primary structure of preproS and its domains and the predicted Furin-like S1/S2 site generating the S1-

and S2-subunits, as well as the S2' site preceding the fusion peptide (FP). The signal peptide (SP), N-

terminal domain (NTD), receptor binding domain (RBD) to ACE2, the two heptad repeats HR1 and

HR2, the transmembrane domain (TM), the cytosolic tail (CT) and the C-terminal V5-tag are indicated.

(B) *In vitro* Furin activity against the peptides mimicking the S1/S2 and S2' cleavage site sequence of

the spike protein from SARS-CoV-2 (and its mutants) and SARS-CoV-1, described in SI-Table 1.

Each substrate was tested at a final protease concentration of 2 and 100 nM (left inset) and 0.2 nM

(right inset) for the α- and δ-variants at the S1/S2 site. **(C)** *In vitro* TMPRSS2 activity against the

peptides mimicking the S1/S2 and S2' cleavage site sequence of the spike protein from SARS-CoV-2

(and its mutants) described in SI-Table 1.

Figure 2: **Processing of Spike-glycoprotein in HeLa cells.** (**A**) Western blot analyses of the

processing of WT proS into V5-tagged S2 and S2' by the proprotein convertases Furin, PC5A, PACE4

and PC7 following co-transfection of their cDNAs in HeLa cells. The migration positions of immature

proS$_{im}$, S2 and S2', as wells the actin loading control are emphasized. V = empty pIRES-EGFP-V5

vector. (**B**) Western blot analyses of HeLa cells following co-transfection with cDNAs coding for either

WT-S-protein or its double Ala-mutant [R685A + R682A] (μS1/S2) in the absence or presence of cDNAs

coding for Furin or TMPRSS2 at a ratio S:protease = 1:2. *Inconsistently observed oligomeric forms of

proS. (**C**) Identification of S2' cleavage site by MS/MS. WT-Spike glycoprotein was

immunoprecipitated from HeLa cells using V5 agarose beads then resolved by SDS electrophoresis

SDS/PAGE and subjected to silver staining (left panel); the positions of the slices are indicated (1 to

10). The MS/MS analysis of peptides generated by a Lys-specific protease ($K_{814}\downarrow$) are indicated; the

data represent the ratio of SFIEDLLFNK825 to $\underline{R}_{815}$SFIEDLLFN$\underline{K}_{825}$ (right panel). (**D**) Western blot

analyses of HeLa cells co-transfected with V5-tagged spike protein, WT (S) or its Furin-optimized S2'

(KRRKR$_{815}$↓SF) mutant (μS2'), and empty vector (V) or Furin. (**A, B**) The estimated % cleavages into

S1/S2, S2', S2a and S2b are shown and were calculated as the ratio of the V5-immunoreactivity of the

cleaved form to the sum of all forms. The data are representative of at least three independent

experiments.

Figure 3: **Processing of spike glycoprotein at S2' is enhanced in presence of ACE2.** Western blot

showing the impact of ACE2 on the processing of WT and μS1/S2 spike glycoprotein by Furin and

TMPRSS2. HeLa cells expressing empty vector (V), WT proS (**A**) or its μS1/S2 mutant (**B**) with or

without ACE2, Furin or TMPRSS2 were analysed by Western blotting using anti-V5 antibody. The ratio

of cDNAs used was S:ACE2:Furin/TMPRSS2 = 1:1:2. The data are representative of at least three

independent experiments.

Figure 4: **TMPRSS2-generated S2a and S2b are ER-retained non-O-glycosylated forms of S2 and**

S2'. (**A**) Hela+ACE2 stable cells were transiently co-transfected for 48h with cDNAs coding for HA-

tagged WT-Spike glycoprotein and empty vector (V) or TMPRSS2, at a ratio S:TMPRSS2 = 1:0.4..

The conditioned serum-free media collected were treated with Endo-H and Endo-F or mock treated

(NT) and analyzed by Western blotting using HA-HRP antibody. (**B**) CHO-K1 and CHO-ldld cells were

transiently co-transfected with cDNAs coding for double tagged WT-Spike glycoprotein (N-terminal

HA-tag; C-terminal V5-tag) and ACE2 together with empty vector (V) or TMPRSS2, at a ratio

S:ACE2:TMPRSS2 = 1:0.6:0.4.. Cell extracts were analyzed by Western blot for spike glycoprotein

(mAb-V5) and ACE2 receptor. Media were concentrated and blotted for secreted forms of spike

glycoprotein (HA-HRP) (S1, S1', S1'') before (**B**) or after treatment with Endo-H and Endo-F (**C**) and

for TMPRSS2-shed forms of ACE2 (sACE2) (**B**). All data are representative of two independent

experiments.

Figure 5: **Inhibition of PCs by BOS compounds.** (**A**) Chemical motif of BOS-inhibitors. (**B**) Representative structure of BOS-318. (**C**) *In vitro* BOS-inhibition of the cleavage of the fluorogenic dibasic substrate FAM-QRVRRAVGIDK-TAMRA by each of the proprotein convertases Furin, PC5A (PCSK5), PACE4 (PCSK6) and PC7 (PCSK7). All experiments were performed in 10 different wells and the average pIC_{50} (in nM) was calculated. Shown for comparison is the inhibitory pIC_{50} of the Furin-like inhibitor RVKR-cmk performed >100 times. Golgi assay: Last column represents the effects of BOS-inhibitors on U2OS cells expressing each of Furin, PC5A, PACE4 and PC7 simultaneously transduced with a BacMam-delivered construct containing a Golgi-targeting sequence followed by a 12-amino acid Furin/PCSK cleavage site from Bone Morphogenic Protein 10 (BMP10) and then GFP at the C terminus (GalNAc-T2-GGGGS-DSTARIRR↓NAKG-GGGGS-GFP). Dibasic cleavage releases NAKG-GGGGS-GFP thereby reducing the Golgi-associated fluorescence estimated by imaging. (**D**) *In vitro* inhibition of Furin by the BOS compounds. Furin (2 nM) was incubated with increasing concentration of BOS-inhibitors, and its enzymatic activity against the synthetic peptides DABSYL/Glu-TNSP**RRAR**↓SVAS-EDANS (5 μM) was measured at pH 7.5 (n=3). (**E**) Furin-inhibitors (BOS) abrogate endogenous processing of the spike glycoprotein. Hela cells were transiently transfected with a cDNA encoding an empty vector (V) or with one expressing the V5-tagged spike (S) glycoprotein (Spike-V5). At 5h pre-transfection, cells were treated with vehicle DMSO (NT, duplicate) or with the Furin-inhibitors at indicated concentrations, or RVKR-cmk at 50 μM. At 24h post-transfection media were replaced with fresh ones lacking (NT) or containing the inhibitors for an additional 24h. Cell extracts were analyzed by Western blotting using a mAb-V5. All data are representative of at least three independent experiments.

Figure 6: **Spike-induced cell-to-cell fusion relies on Furin cleavage at S1/S2.** (**A**) Cell-to-cell fusion between donor cells (HeLa) expressing the fusogenic SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein along with the HIV

trans-activator Tat, and acceptor cells (TZM-bl) that express ACE2. Upon fusion, Tat is transferred

from donor to acceptor cells, thereby inducing luciferase expression. (**B**) Donor cells were transfected

with vectors expressing either no protein (empty vector, V), μS1/S2, or WT-Spike (S) in the absence

(S) or presence of vehicle (S-DMSO) or with the Furin-inhibitors BOS-318, BOS-981, BOS-857 (300

nM) or RVKR (10 μM). Acceptor cells were transfected with a vector expressing ACE2. After 48h,

donor and acceptor cells were co-cultured for 18h. Relative luminescence units (RLU) were normalized

to the V value arbitrarily set to 1. Data are presented as mean values ± SD (n=3), One-Way ANOVA,

Dunn-Sidàk multiple comparison test. (**C**) Donor HeLa cells were co-transfected with vectors (1:1

ratio) expressing WT-Spike, μS1/S2 with (empty vector, V) or TMPRSS2. Acceptor TZM-bl cells

were transfected with ACE2. After 48h, HeLa and TZM-bl were co-cultured for 18h and luciferase

activity measured. The fusion is represented as ratio between the RLU measured for each condition

and the RLU measured in the co-culture between donor cells transfected with V and ACE2 acceptor

cells. Data are presented as mean values ± SD (n=3), One-Way ANOVA, Bonferroni multiple

comparison test. (**D**) Donor HeLa cells expressing WT-S or μS1/S2 or μS2' were co-cultured with

acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing (ratio of Spike WT or mut 1:ACE2 0.5: TMPRSS2 0.4): (empty

vector, V), ACE2 + V, ACE2 + TMPRSS2 or TMPRSS2 + V. The extent of fusion is represented as a

ratio between the RLU measured for each condition and that of donor cells expressing V. The bar graph

represents the average of 3 experiments performed in triplicates. Data are presented as mean values ±

SD (n=3), One-way Anova Bonferroni multiple comparison test. Two-Way ANOVA, Dunn-Sidàk

multiple comparison test.

Figure 7: **Spike glycoprotein processing by Furin, TMPRSS2 in co-culture system and their role**

in cell-to-cell fusion. Donor HeLa cells expressing WT-S-HA or μS1/S2-HA were co-cultured with

acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing (empty vector, V), ACE2 + V, ACE2 + TMPRSS2 or TMPRSS2 +

V. From the same experiment, cell-to-cell fusion (**A**) was assessed in parallel with Spike processing in

cells and media by Western blotting (**B**). (**B**) Spike glycoproteins in the cell extracts were analyzed by

Western blotting using an anti-V5 mAb. Secreted forms of spike protein (S1) in the media were detected with anti HA-HRP upon immunoprecipitation with anti-HA agarose. The bar graph shows one representative fusion assay done un duplicate. The corresponding Western-blot is representative of three independent experiments.

Figure 8: **Exogenous TMPRSS2-generated shedding of ACE2 differentially regulates S-induced fusion at the plasma membrane of WT-S *versus* µAS1/S2.** Donor HeLa cells expressing double tagged (N-terminal HA-tag; C-terminal V5-tag) spike glycoprotein WT (S) or its S1/S2 mutant (µAS1/S2) were co-cultured with acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing (empty vector, V), ACE2 + V, ACE2 + TMPRSS2 or TMPRSS2 + V and treated with DMSO (vehicle control) or Camostat (120µM). Within the same experiment, cell-to-cell fusion (**A**) was assessed in parallel with Spike processing in cells and media by Western-blot (**B, C**). (**A**) The extent of fusion is represented as a ratio between the RLU measured for each condition and that of donor cells expressing V. The bar graph represents the average of 2 experiments performed in triplicates. (**B, C**). Western blot analyses of media and cell extracts of the co-cultured cells with donor cells overexpressing double tagged (N-terminal HA-tag; C-terminal V5-tag) spike glycoprotein, WT (S) (**B**) or µAS1/S2 (**C**). Media were subjected to immunoprecipitation with either anti-HA agarose for the secreted forms of spike protein (S1, S1L), or with anti-ACE2 for the exogenous TMPRSS2-generated shed ACE2 forms (sACE2) followed by Western blotting with anti HA-HRP or anti-ACE2, respectively. Spike glycoproteins in the cell extracts were immunoblotted with anti-V5 mAb. The data are representative of three independent experiments.

Figure 9: **The C-terminal collectrin-like domain of ACE2 may be critical for the regulation of cell-to-cell fusion of spike-glycoprotein when exogenous TMPRSS2 is present.** (**A**) Schematic representation of the primary structure of human ACE2 with emphasis on the C-terminal collectrin-like domain (aa 612-716), TMPRSS2/TMPRSS11D cleavage region (aa 697-716) and the polybasic amino-acid segments in which K/R were mutated to A (C0 and C4). (**B**) HeLa cells were co-transfected

with ACE2, WT (ACE2) or its mutants ACE2 (C0), ACE2 (C4), ACE2 (C0+C4) and TMPRSS2, WT (TMPRSS2) or its S441A active-site mutant (µTMPRSS2), or empty vector (V). Media and cell extracts were analyzed by western blotting for shed ACE2 (sACE2) and ACE2, respectively. (**C**) Donor HeLa cells expressing WT-S-HA or µAS1/S2-HA were co-cultured with acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing ACE2, WT (ACE2) or its mutant ACE2 (C0+C4) in presence or absence of TMPRSS2. From the same experiment, cell-to-cell fusion (**C**) was assessed in parallel with WB analyses of cells and media (**D**). The extent of fusion is represented as a ratio between the RLU measured for each condition and that of donor cells expressing an empty vector. The bar graph represents the average of 3 experiments performed in triplicates. Data are presented as mean values ± SD (n=3), One-way Anova Turkey's multiple comparison test. (**D**) Co-culture media were subjected to immunoprecipitation with anti-HA agarose for the secreted forms of spike protein (S1) followed by western blot with anti HA-HRP. Spike glycoproteins in the cell extracts were immunoblotted with anti-V5 mAb. The Western blot data are representative of three independent experiments.

Figure 10: **Processing of SARS-CoV-2 S by Furin-like convertases and TMPRSS2 is critical for viral entry in human lung epithelial cells but not in model HEK 293 cells stably expressing ACE2**. (**A**) Furin cleavage of proS at the S1/S2 site is required for SARS-CoV-2 pseudoviral entry in Calu-3 cells but not HEK293T-ACE2 cells. Cells were inoculated with nanoluciferase-expressing HIV particles pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2: wild-type Spike (WT), double Ala-mutant spike (µS1/S2) or Furin-optimized Spike (µS2'). (**B**) Western blot analyses show inhibition by BOS-318 of proS processing at S1/S2 site. Purified pseudovirions and cellular extracts of producing HEK293-T17 cells treated or not with BOS-318 inhibitor were separated on SDS-PAGE gel and analyzed for HIV-1 p24 and V5-tagged S-protein (proSm or cleaved, S2) as indicated. (**C**) Inhibition of proS processing at S1/S2 by a novel Furin-like inhibitor (BOS-318) during pseudovirion packaging prevents viral entry in Calu-3 cells but not in HEK293T-ACE2 cells. (**D**) Pre-treatment of Calu-3 cells with BOS-318 (B), Camostat (C) or both (B+C) markedly reduces viral entry. Calu-3 cells were transduced with

nanoluciferase-expressing HIV particles pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 S WT, μS1/S2 or μS2' for

72h and subjected to nano-luciferase activity assay. Viral entry was expressed as fold increase over

that given by ball particles (pseudovirions made in the absence of S). Each dot represents a different

experiment with median luciferase activity calculated from three biological replicates. Two to four

experiments were performed for each cell type. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD) from the

mean.

Figure 11: **Furin-like inhibitors and Camostat treatment decrease SARS-CoV-2 infection in Calu-**

3 Cells. (**A**) Replication kinetics was studied at 12, 24 and 48h post-infection by plaque assay to

determine PFUs of SARS-CoV-2 virus in the supernatant of infected Calu-3 cells treated or not with

1μM BOS-318, BOS-857 and BOS-981. A line graph represents results of the triplicate plaque assay

results (mean ± SD). (**B**) The virus titers (PFU per milliliter) released in the supernatant (24h post-

infection) of infected Calu-3 cells treated with indicated concentrations of BOS-318 were determined

by plaque assay (mean ± SD of triplicates, *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001) (left panel). The

selectivity index (SI) of BOS-318 in Calu-3 cells as shown in top right panel was determined by

CC_{50}/IC_{50}. The left y axis indicates the inhibition of virus titer (percent) relative to that of the untreated

control group (red). The right y axis indicates the cell viability (percent) relative to that of the untreated

control group (green). The CC_{50} (50% cytotoxic concentration), IC_{50} (half maximal inhibitory

concentration), and SI (selectivity index) values for each inhibitor are as shown. Representative plaque

images of infected Calu-3 cells treated with indicated doses of BOS-inhibitors are shown in the bottom

right panel. (**C**) Immunoblots for the infected Calu-3 cells (right panel) and viral particles secreted in

the supernatant (left panel) with and without treatment with BOS-inhibitors indicate reduced viral

protein levels. Immunoblots were probed for the full-length (proSm) and cleaved (S2) fragments of

viral S protein and nucleocapsid (N) protein as indicated; β-Actin was included as the loading control

for the cells. (**D**) The virus titers (PFU per milliliter) released in the supernatant (24h post-infection)

of infected Calu-3 cells treated with BOS-981 and/or Camostat (Camo) were determined by plaque

assay (mean ± SD of duplicates, *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001) (top panel). Representative

plaque images of infected Calu-3 cells are shown in the bottom panel.

Figure 12: **Proposed model for the processing of S-protein and its blockade by Furin and**

TMPRSS2 inhibitors. <u>Boxed left panel</u>: schematic representation of the S-glycoprotein domains of

SARS-CoV-2, including the N-terminal (NTD) and C-terminal (CTD) domains of S1, the Furin-S1/S2

and S2' and the TMPRSS2 S1' processing sites and the fusogenic α-helix that follows S2'. Binding of

the RBD domain of S1 to the membrane associated ACE2 in target cells, and the cell surface expression

of TMPRSS2 and Furin are also schematized.   <u>Right panels</u>: (**1**) Viral infection is favored by the

presence of a Furin-like sites at S1/S2 and S2'. Physiological limiting amounts of TMPRSS2 in

acceptor cells enhance infection by cleavage at S2' and shedding of small amounts of ACE2 into

soluble sACE2 that may help the separation of sACE2-S1 complex from S2 and expose the S2' site

for cleavage and fusion. However, high concentrations of TMPRSS2 may result in increased levels of

sACE2 that could now act as a decoy inhibitor resulting in decreased fusion. Optimal blockade of viral

infection is achieved by a combination of Furin (BOS) and TMPRSS2 (Camostat) inhibitors. (**2**) In

absence of a Furin-like site at S1/S2 (μS1/S2), the uncleaved S-protein can fuse with acceptor cells

expressing ACE2 and enter certain cells (e.g., HEK293 or Vero E6) by an endosomal pH-dependent

pathway, inhibitable by alkalinizing agents such as Chloroquine.

1429

1430

1431

1432

1433

          Supporting Information (SI): Table 1; SI Figures 1-13

1435

1436   Table 1: Sequences of the different peptides mimicking the Cov spike cleavage sites that have been

1437   tested in the enzymatic assay. The arrow indicates the expected cleavage site.

1438

SI-Figure 1: **Endo-F and Endo-H sensitivity of V5-tagged proS and its cleavage products by Furin**

and TMPRSS2 in HeLa cells. Western blotting (V5-mAb) of protein extracts from HeLa cells

transiently expressing: (**A**) empty vector (V), V5-tagged wild type Spike protein (WT) or its S1/S2 site

mutant (μS1/S2) were treated with Endo-F and Endo-H or mock treated (NT); (**B**) Spike-protein WT

alone or in combination with Furin or TMPRSS2 in the absence (NT) or presence of the PC inhibitors

RVKR (50 μM) or D6R (20 μM); (**C**) HeLa cells transfected with control non-targeting siRNA (siCTL)

or siRNA Furin (siFur) at final concentrations of 20 nM, 24h later, the cells were transfected with

empty vector (V) or with that coding for a V5-tagged Spike glycoprotein. At 48h post-transfection, the

proteins were resolved on SDS-PAGE followed by Western with anti-V5 and anti-Furin antibodies.;

(**D**) Spike protein, WT or S1/S2 single mutants alone or in combination with TMPRSS2. All blots are

representative of at least three different experiments.

1450

1451   SI-Figure 2: **S2' sites mutations block the proS in the endoplasmic reticulum.** HeLa cells were

1452   transiently transfected with cDNAs encoding either empty vector (V), V5-tagged S-protein or its

1453   double (**A**) and simple (**B**) S2' site mutants alone or in combination with Furin or human TMPRSS2.

1454   The protein extract were analyzed by Western blotting using a V5-mAb. The R995A (*) mutant was

1455   used as a control.

1456

SI-Figure 3: **When co-expressed with spike protein, active TMPRSS2 cleaves proS into ER-retained fragments which results in secretion of S1'.** (**A**) Protein extracts from HeLa cells transiently co-expressing V5-tagged spike protein and TMPRSS2 were treated with Endo-F and Endo-H or mock treated (NT) and analyzed by Western blotting using a V5-mAb. (**B**) HeLa cells were transiently co-expressed with double-tagged spike protein (N-terminal HA-tag; C-terminal V5-tag), WT (S) or its mutants, μS1/S2 or μAS1/S2, and ACE2 alone or in combination with TMPRSS2, WT (TMPRSS2) or its S441A active-mutant (μTMPRSS2), at a ratio S:ACE2:TMPRSS2 = 1:0.5:0.5. Immunoblot of the 24h conditioned media was first probed for secreted S1, S1' and S1L (HA-HRP antibody), stripped and next probed for shed ACE2 (sACE2). Cell lysates were immunoblotted for spike protein (V5-mAb), ACE2, and β-Actin.

SI-Figure 4: **Identification of S2a and S2b cleavage sites by MS/MS.** WT-Spike glycoprotein was transiently co-expressed with human TMPRSS2 in HeLa cells. The proS and its cleavage products were immunoprecipitated using V5 agarose beads and resolved by SDS/PAGE. The silver staining (middle panel) shows the positions of the slices in the S2a (1 to 9) and S2b (10 to 17) regions that were analyzed. The MS/MS analyses of peptides generated by the chymotrypsin protease (R685↓, left panel) or Lys-specific protease (K814↓, right panel) are indicated. The data represent the intensity of SVAQSIIAY peptide (left panel) and the ratio of SFIEDLLFNK825 to R815SFIEDLLFNK825 peptides (right panel) generated by the chymotrypsin and Lys-specific proteases digestion respectively.

SI-Figure 5: **In HeLa cells, TMPRSS2-dependent secretion of S1' from the ER   primarily occurs *via* a COP-II-dependent unconventional pathway that bypasses the Golgi stacks. The S1' secretion and ACE2 shedding by TMPRSS2 are inhibited by Camostat.** (**A**) HeLa-ACE2 cells were transiently transfected with CDNAs encoding empty vector (V) or with increasing cDNA ratios of V5-tagged WT-Spike protein to TMPRSS2 (spike-V5:TMPRSS2) as indicated and 24h later incubated for an

additional 24h in serum-free media containing 120 µM Camostat (+) or control DMSO (-). Immunoblot

of the 24h conditioned media (concentrated 10-fold) was first probed for S1 and S1' using an antibody

against S1-subunit (GTX135356), stripped and next probed for sACE2 (ab108252) and mature

TMPRSS2$_m$ (14437-1-AP) (upper panel). Cell lysates were immunoblotted for spike protein (V5-

mAb), ACE2 (ab108252) and β-Actin (lower panel). Note that 120 µM Camostat was not sufficient to

fully inhibit the higher levels of TMPRSS2. (**B**) HeLa cells were transiently transfected for 48h with

cDNAs encoding empty vector (**V**) or ACE2 alone or co-transfected with cDNAs encoding double-

tagged spike protein (HA-S-V5) and TMPRSS2 or Sar1p-H79G (a dominant negative mutant that would

disrupt the COP-II complex) alone or a combination of the two (TMPRSS2+Sar1p-H79G). The cDNA

ratio was S:ACE2:TMPRSS2:Sar1p-H79G = 1:0.5:0.75:0.75. Immunoblot of the 24h conditioned

serum-free media was first probed for secreted S1 and S1' (HA-HRP antibody), stripped and next

probed for shed ACE2 (sACE2). Cell lysates were immunoblotted for spike protein (V5-mAb), ACE2,

and β-Actin. Data are representative of three independent experiments.

1495

SI-Figure 6: **BOS-inhibitors do not affect the generation of S2a and S2b by TMPRSS2.** HeLa cells

were transiently transfected with cDNAs encoding either empty vector, V5-tagged S-protein alone or in

combination with human TMPRSS2. At 5h pre-transfection, during transfection and for 48h post-

transfection, cells were treated with vehicle DMSO (NT) or with the Furin inhibitors (BOS) at indicated

concentrations. At 48h post-transfection the cells were collected, and their protein extracts were analyzed

by Western blotting using a mAb-V5.

1502

SI-Figure 7: **Immunocytochemistry of the co-localization of ACE2 and S-protein or µS1/S2 in**

HeLa cells. (**A**) Immunofluorescence of S-protein (green), WT (S) (a,b) and µS1/S2 (c,d) were

revealed using the spike S2-antibody GTX632604 in non-permeabilized (NP) conditions or with anti-

V5 in permeabilized (P) conditions. (**B**) Immunofluorescence of S-protein (green), WT (S) (a,b) and

μS1/S2 in HeLa cells pre-incubated for 5h before transfection and then for 24h with 1 μM BOS-981.

The confocal localizations were revealed as in (**A**). Scale bar = 10 μm.

1509

SI-Figure 8: **Cell-to-cell fusion assay: correlation between syncytia formation and luciferase**

activity. (**A**) Cell-to-cell fusion between donor cells (HeLa) and acceptor cells (TZM-bl) was evaluated

using confocal microscopy. Hela cells transfected with an empty vector (EV), or expressing HIV-

gp160, SARS-CoV-2 Spike, or μS1/S2 were co-cultured with TZM-bl cells for 18h and the number of

syncytia was examined using CellMask™ to probe for the plasma membrane and Dapi to stain the

nuclei. (**B**) Donor cells were transfected with increasing amount of plasmid expressing WT-Spike and

acceptor cells were transfected with a vector expressing ACE2. After 48h, cells were co-cultured for

18h, and prepared for luminescence or microscopy. Correlation between the number of syncytia

counted by microscopy (n=10 per condition) and the luciferase activity was determined, and the

correlation coefficient was calculated as shown. R^2=0.87. (**C**) Donor cells were transfected with vectors

expressing either no protein (EV), Tat, WT-Spike (S), Tat and WT-Spike (Tat + S) or Tat and HIV-

gp160 (Tat + gp160). Acceptor cells were transfected with a vector expressing no protein (EV), with

ACE2 or directly with Tat as appositive control. After 48h, cells were co-cultured for 18h.

Luminescence was normalized to the EV value arbitrarily set to 1. Data are presented as mean values

± SD (n=3) and a representative experiment is shown.

1525

SI-Figure 9: **Furin processing of SARS-CoV-2 variants and their cell-to-cell fusion activity.** (**A**)

Western blot analyses of HeLa cells following co-transfection with cDNAs encoding ACE2 and V5-

tagged spike protein, WT (S) or its indicated relevant single or combined mutants found in circulating

variants, or empty vector (V). The cDNA ratio was S:ACE2 = 1:0.5.The estimated % cleavages into

S2 and S2'are shown and were calculated based on the ratio of the V5-immunoreactivity of each form

to the sum of the two. Immunoblot of the secreted S1 form (using an antibody against S1-subunit,

GTX135356) in the media is also shown. The data are representative of two independent experiments.

(**B**, **C**) Donor HeLa cells expressing WT-S or its indicated relevant single mutants (**B**) or combined

mutants found in circulating variants (**C**) were co-cultured with acceptor TZM-bl cells expressing

ACE2. The extent of fusion is represented as a ratio between the RLU measured for each condition

and that of donor cells expressing empty vector. The bar graph represents the average of 3 experiments

performed in triplicates. Data are presented as mean values ± SEM (n=3), One way Anova Dunnett's

multiple comparison test.

1539

SI-Figure 10: **SARS-CoV-2 viral entry in HEK293 cells is primarily mediated via a pH-dependent**

pathway. HEK293T-ACE2 cells were pre-treated with chloroquine (CLQ; 100 µM) for 2h and

subsequently inoculated with luciferase-expressing HIV particles pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2

spike protein (S), wild-type (WT-S) or its mutant (µS1/S2 S). HIV particles made in the absence of S

(no S) served as a negative control. Efficiency of viral entry was determined by luciferase activity.

Each dot represents an independent experiment (median luciferase of biological triplicates). Error bars

show SD.

1547

SI-Figure 11: **Furin-like inhibitors strongly reduce SARS-CoV-2 infection in Calu-3 cells.** Calu-3

cells were treated with indicated concentrations of (**A**) BOS-857 and (**B**) BOS-981 and infected with

SARS-CoV-2 for 24h. Virus titers in the supernatant were determined by plaque assay on VeroE6 cells

(mean plaque forming units [PFU] per ml) ± SD of triplicates, *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001). The

selectivity index (SI) of (**A**) BOS-857, and (**B**) BOS-981 in Calu-3 cells as shown in top right panel

was determined by CC_{50}/IC_{50}. The left y axis indicates the inhibition of virus titer (percent) relative to

that of the untreated control group (red). The right y axis indicates the cell viability (percent) relative

to that of the untreated control group (green). Representative plaque images of infected Calu-3 cells

treated with indicated doses of BOS inhibitors are shown in the bottom right panel.

1557

1558 SI-Figure 12: **Combination of BOS-318 and Camostat reduces SARS-CoV-2 replication.** Calu-3

1559 cells were treated with BOS-318 and/or Camostat (Camo) and infected with SARS-CoV-2 for 24h.

1560 Virus titers in the supernatant were determined by plaque assay on VeroE6 (mean PFU/ml ± SD of

1561 duplicates, $*p < 0.05$. Representative plaque images of infected Calu-3 cells are shown in the bottom

1562 panel.

1563

SI-Figure 13: **Furin-like inhibitors modestly reduce virus production in SARS-CoV-2-infected**

Vero E6 cells in a concentration-dependent manner. (A) Vero E6 cells treated or not with 1μM

BOS-318, BOS-857 or BOS-981 were infected with SARS-CoV-2 for up to 45h. Virus titers in the

supernatant obtained at 12, 24 and 48 h post infection were determined by plaque assay on Vero E6.

A line graph represents results of the triplicate plaque assay (mean PFU/ml ± SD). **(B, C, and D)** Virus

released in the supernatant (48 hr post infection) of infected Vero E6 cells treated with indicated

concentrations of (B) BOS-318, (C) BOS-857, or (D) BOS-981 were determined by plaque assay

(mean ± SD of triplicates, $*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$; $***p < 0.001$).

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

B

Figure 4

A

Structure of Furin inhibitors

B

BOS-318

C

	Furin pIC50	PCSK5 pIC50	PCSK6 pIC50	PCSK7 pIC50	Golgi pIC50 (U2OS)
BOS-318	8.8 ± 0.4 (n = 10)	7.6 ± 0.09 (n = 8)	6.7 ± 0.15 (n = 6)	7.4 ± 0.22 (n = 8)	7.7 ± 0.24 (n = 22)
BOS-981	9.3 ± 0.5 (n = 10)	7.5 ± 0.22 (n = 10)	6.9 ± 0.1 (n = 4)	6.9 ± 0.2 (n = 8)	8.3 ± 0.25 (n = 12)
BOS-857	9.4 ± 0.3 (n = 10)	7.6 ± 0.1 (n = 10)	6.7 ± 0.24 (n = 5)	6.9 ± 0.3 (n = 8)	7.6 ± 0.2 (n = 12)
Decanoyl-RVKR-CMK "Furin Inhibitor I"	9.1 ± 0.43 (n = 447)	9.9 ± 0.38 (n = 162)	9.2 ± 0.24 (n = 214)	9.6 ± 0.63 (n = 198)	5.1 ± 0.33 (n = 8)

D

S1/S2:
TNSPRRAR↓SVAS

IC$_{50}$

BOS-981: 4 nM ± 0.7
BOS-857: 32 nM ± 3.9
BOS-318: 35 nM ± 4.9

E

Figure 5

Cell-to cell fusion assay

A

Donor

Hela

Tat Tat

S

ACE2

Acceptor

Luc

TZM-bl

Syncytium

S

ACE2

Tat

Tat

Luc

B   ACE2 in acceptor cell

Fold RLU

p<0.0001

p=0.0001

p=0.0005

p<0.0001

Donor cells

V   μS1/S2   S   S-DMSO   S-RVKR   S- BOS 318   S- BOS 981   S- BOS 857

C

Fold RLU

p=0.0010

ns

S   μS1/S2   S   μS1/S2

V   TMP

Donor cells

D

Fold RLU

p=0.0015

p=0.018

ns

ACE2   ACE2+TMP   ACE2   ACE2+TMP   ACE2   ACE2+TMP

Acceptor cells

Donor cells

☐ S
◻ μS1/S2
◼ μS2'

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

Figure 9

Figure 10

Figure 11

Role of Furin & TMPRSS2 in SARS-CoV-2 infections and tropism

Figure 12