Mitoquinone mesylate targets SARS-CoV-2 infection in preclinical models

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Summary:

To date, there is no effective oral antiviral against SARS-CoV-2 that is also anti-inflammatory. Herein,

we show that the mitochondrial antioxidant mitoquinone/mitoquinol mesylate (Mito-MES), a dietary

supplement, has potent antiviral activity against SARS-CoV-2 and its variants of concern *in vitro* and *in*

vivo. Mito-MES had nanomolar *in vitro* antiviral potency against the Beta and Delta SARS-CoV-2

variants as well as the murine hepatitis virus (MHV-A59). Mito-MES given in SARS-CoV-2 infected

K18-hACE2 mice through oral gavage reduced viral titer by nearly 4 log units relative to the vehicle

group. We found *in vitro* that the antiviral effect of Mito-MES is attributable to its hydrophobic dTPP+

moiety and its combined effects scavenging reactive oxygen species (ROS), activating Nrf2 and

increasing the host defense proteins TOM70 and MX1. Mito-MES was efficacious reducing increase in

cleaved caspase-3 and inflammation induced by SARS-CoV2 infection both in lung epithelial cells and a

transgenic mouse model of COVID-19. Mito-MES reduced production of IL-6 by SARS-CoV-2 infected

epithelial cells through its antioxidant properties (Nrf2 agonist, coenzyme Q_{10} moiety) and the dTPP

moiety. Given established safety of Mito-MES in humans, our results suggest that Mito-MES may

represent a rapidly applicable therapeutic strategy that can be added in the therapeutic arsenal against

COVID-19. Its potential *long-term* use by humans as diet supplement could help control the SARS-CoV-

2 pandemic, especially in the setting of rapidly emerging SARS-CoV-2 variants that may compromise

vaccine efficacy.

One-Sentence Summary: Mitoquinone/mitoquinol mesylate has potent antiviral and anti-inflammatory

activity in preclinical models of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Keywords: Mitochondrial antioxidants, antiviral, SARS-CoV-2, inflammation, lung damage, COVID-19

Main Text

The SARS-CoV-2 pandemic emphasizes the urgent need to determine cellular pathways that can be

targeted by novel oral antivirals that ideally would target rapidly evolving SARS-CoV-2 variants *and*

associated inflammation that drives morbidity in COVID-19(*1*). Current oral antivirals against SARS-

CoV-2 such as nirmatrelvir/ritonavir (paxlovid) and molnupiravir do not have anti-inflammatory effects.

Molnupiravir may be mutagenic in cells(*2*). COVID-19 rebound has been described after use of paxlovid

which may cause life-threatening interactions with widely used medications. Thus, there is a continued

need for the development of oral safe antivirals for COVID-19.

Increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) contribute to pathogenesis of respiratory syncytial virus

(RSV)(*3*) and coronavirus infection(*4*). Mitochondria are a major source of ROS (mito-ROS).

Mitoquinone and/or mitoquinol mesylate (Mito-MES) is the only mitochondrial antioxidant approved for

human use which has safely been used in clinical trials for ROS-related diseases (*5, 6*). Mito-MES is

coenzyme Q_{10} (CoQ_{10}) conjugated to a lipophilic cation (TPP)(*5*). CoQ_{10} is the endogenous mitochondrial

coenzyme involved in electron transfer and protection from lipid peroxidation(*5*). Given that Mito-MES is

antiviral against RSV(*3*), we investigated whether Mito-MES is antiviral against SARS-CoV-2.

We first determined the effects of Mito-MES on SARS-CoV-2 replication in human lung epithelial

Calu-3 (Calu3) cells. In non-cytotoxic concentrations (based on XTT assay), the half maximal inhibitory

concentration (IC50) of Mito-MES against SARS-CoV-2 measured by TCID50 was 30-fold lower than

remdesivir (Fig. 1A and B). qPCR (Fig. S1A), immunofluorescence (IF) (Fig. 1C) and flow cytometry

(FC) (Fig. S1B) also showed that Mito-MES had antiviral activity in Calu3 and in human airway

epithelial (HAE) cells in air-liquid interface (ALI) cultures (Fig. 1D). The anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity of

Mito-MES was higher in human than Vero-E6 cells as shown by qPCR (Fig. S1C), IF (Fig. S1D), FC

(Fig. S1E) and TCID50 assay (Fig. S1F). Notably, TCID50 assays showed that unlike remdesivir (Fig.

S1G) the IC50 of Mito-MES was ~100-fold lower in Calu3 than Vero-E6 cells (Fig. 1A and Fig. S1F).

Similarly, TCID50 assays showed that the anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity of Mito-MES was higher in human

cells than in mouse lung cells from K18-hACE2 mice (Fig. S1H) and higher than remdesivir (Fig. S1I).

We found that the antiviral activity of Mito-MES was non-linear between different doses (Fig. S1A and C

and D) and was more potent in lower rather than higher concentrations in Calu3 cells (Fig. S1A). Overall,

our data suggest that unlike other antivirals that target the viral replication machinery and have dose-

dependent antiviral effects, Mito-MES acts through non-linear host antiviral mechanisms that are species-

dependent.

We hypothesized that Mito-MES has host antiviral activity against SARS-CoV-2 variants of concerns

(VOCs) and other coronaviruses. TCID50 assays showed that Mito-MES inhibited *in vitro* SARS-CoV-2

B.1.351 (Beta) (Fig. 1E) and B.1.617.2 (Delta) variants (Fig. 1F) in Calu3 cells. Finally, Mito-MES also

inhibited murine hepatitis virus (MHV-A59) in mouse 17Cl-1 fibroblasts (Fig. S1J).

To elucidate the mechanism of antiviral action of Mito-MES, we compared the antiviral effects of

Mito-MES administered before or concurrently with SARS-CoV-2. We found that 1000 nM

(concentration that was consistently antiviral among all different experimental systems) Mito-MES

inhibited SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein (NP) expression in Calu3 cells when added before infection

(effect on viral entry) but also when added 4 hours post infection (hpi), which allows time for viral entry,

in both Calu3 (Fig. 2A) and hACE2-HEK293T cells (Fig. 2B) infected with Beta variant. Thus, Mito-

MES inhibits both viral entry and cytoplasmic replication.

The lipophilic TPP moiety of Mito-MES facilitates entry of CoQ_{10} through phospholipid bilayers so

that it can scavenge ROS more efficiently(*7*). Given that membrane lipid layers and mito-ROS are

important for SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis, we hypothesized that the lipophilic TPP and CoQ_{10} moieties of

Mito-MES have anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity. We confirmed by TCID50 assays in hACE2-HEK293T cells

and HAE cultures that non-cytotoxic 1000 nM TPP and CoQ_{10} had potent antiviral activity against the

Beta and Delta variants (Fig. 2C to E). These data showed that the antiviral activity of Mito-MES in

epithelial cells is partially mediated through its lipophilic components.

SARS-CoV2 infection increases mito-ROS[4] and the antiviral activity of Mito-MES against RSV is

mainly achieved by decreasing mito-ROS [3]. We hypothesized that the antioxidant activity of Mito-MES

contributes to its anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity. Mito-MES reduced SARS-CoV-2-induced increase in

fluorescence of the mitochondrial superoxide reporter MitoSOX Red assessed by FC (Fig. S2A to D).

Both Mito-TEMPO, an independent mitochondrial antioxidant that also has TPP[7], and Mito-MES had

potent and similar anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity in Calu3 cells (Fig. 2F and G) and Vero-E6 cells (Fig. S2E).

Notably, consistent with prior evidence that high concentrations of Mito-MES can have *in vitro*

prooxidant effect that does not appear *in vivo*[5], treatment with 1000 nM Mito-MES increased ROS

levels in Calu3 cells, while preserving potent antiviral activity (Fig. 2G). Given that mito-ROS regulate

mitochondrial function, we interrogated the impact of SARS-CoV-2 on cellular bioenergetics and found

that SARS-CoV-2 reduced oxygen consumption rate (OCR) and increased extracellular acidification rate

(ECAR) in Calu3 cells (Fig. S2F and G). Consistent with prior data that excessive ROS scavenging

decreases mitochondrial function[8], antiviral doses of Mito-MES 50-1000 nM reduced OCR (Fig. 2H)

and ECAR (Fig. S2H) *in vitro* regardless of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Consequently, our data supported

that the anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity of Mito-MES may be mediated through *non-mitochondrial* host

pathways.

Mito-MES induces the antiviral antioxidant Nrf2 pathway in epithelial cells[9]. We determined

whether Mito-MES has Nrf2-mediated antiviral activity. Pretreatment of Calu3 with the Nrf2 agonist

Dimethyl fumarate (DMF) for 24 hours increased in a dose dependent manner the anti–SARS-CoV-2

activity of Mito-MES by TCID50 (Fig. 2I and J). Pretreatment of Calu3 for 24 hours with the Nrf2

inhibitor brusatol (0.25 μM)(*10*) significantly increased SARS-CoV2 replication as assessed by FC and

TCID50 and inhibited the antiviral effect of Mito-MES (Fig. 2K and L). 100 μM DMF, but not 0.25 μM

brusatol and 10 μM DMF, were cytotoxic in uninfected cultures (Fig. S3A). Flow cytometry showed that

Mito-MES did not impact levels of Nrf2 (Fig. S3B) but reduced levels of the endogenous Nrf2 inhibitor,

Keap1 (Fig. S3C) and increased levels of heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1) (Fig. S3D), a key antiviral protein of

the Nrf2 pathway(*11*), in (un)infected Calu3 cells. Overall, our data suggested that Mito-MES has Nrf2-

mediated anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity and are in agreement with Olagnier et al who showed that a

cytotoxic (*10*) concentration of DMF (200 μM) had anti-SARS-CoV2 activity (*12*).

Given that Mito-MES was less antiviral in interferon deficient Vero-E6 cells compared to human

cells (Fig. 1), we hypothesized that interferon pathways that interact with mitochondrial proteins such as

MAVS and TOM70(*13, 14*), mediate its antiviral activity. Using FC and IF in (un)infected Calu3 cells,

we found that Mito-MES had no impact on MAVS (Fig. S3E) but increased TOM70 (Fig. S3F and G)

and MX1 (Fig. S3H), a key antiviral effector in COVID-19 patients(*15*) that interacts with

mitochondria(*16*). ELISA showed that at 48 hpi, Mito-MES did not impact secretion of IFN-β and IFN- λ

by SARS-CoV-2 infected Calu3 cells (Fig. S3I). Overall, our data demonstrate that Mito-MES selectively

induces mitochondrial mediators of IFN-I which can explain better antiviral activity in interferon

competent cells.

Mito-MES has also anti-inflammatory effects (*5*). Thus, we also assessed the impact of Mito-MES on

SARS-CoV-2-associated inflammatory responses that contribute to development of severe COVID-19

such as increased IL-1β and IL-6(*1*). Using ELISA and Luminex immunoassays, we found that Mito-

MES attenuated SARS-CoV-2-induced increase in secretion of IL-6 by Calu3 (Fig. 3A) cells and of IL-6

and IL-1β in upper (Fig. 3B) and lower (Fig. 3C) airway ALI cultures. Mito-MES has established

pharmacokinetics in mice and in humans and good bioavailability at the respiratory mucosa(*5*). Doses of

Mito-MES in mice of 4 mg/kg/day intraperitoneally (i.p) and 20 mg/kg/day through gavage (typically

higher dose than i.p due to absorption) achieve good lung tissue penetration and have been translated to

oral doses in humans(*5*). Therefore, we tested the *in vivo* anti-inflammatory efficacy of 4 mg/kg

intraperitoneal daily dosage of Mito-MES in K18-hACE2 mice infected with the SARS-CoV-2 (Fig. 3D

to N). Using Luminex immunoassays we showed that there was a reduction of at least 2 orders of

magnitude in IL-1β (Fig. 3E) and IL-6 (Fig. 3F) in the lungs of the SARS-CoV-2 infected Mito-MES-

treated relative to the vehicle treated mice as early as 3 days post infection (dpi) that was also confirmed

after at least 5 dpi in mice infected with the SARS-CoV-2 Beta variant, when lung inflammation is the

highest (*17*)(Fig. 3, H and I). Mito-MES also reduced levels of TNF-α (Fig. 3J). Histopathology analysis

also showed a reduction of lung inflammation and tissue damage in Mito-MES treated over vehicle-

treated mice at 5-7 dpi (Fig. 3K to M).

Nrf2 has a major role in regulation of inflammation and reduces production of IL-1β and IL-6(*11*).

We hypothesized that not only the antiviral but also the anti-inflammatory activity of Mito-MES in

SARS-CoV-2 infection is Nrf2-mediated. Pretreatment of Calu3 cultures with DMF for 24 hours reduced

in an additive and dose dependent manner subsequent release of IL-6 to the cell supernatant from infected

cells at 48 hpi as measured by immunoassays (Fig. 3N). Pretreatment of Calu3 with the Nrf2 inhibitor

brusatol (*10*) significantly increased subsequent release of IL-6 by infected cells and inhibited the anti-

inflammatory effect of Mito-MES (Fig. 3O). Notably, the lipophilic moieties of Mito-MES, dTPP and

CoQ$_{10}$ also reduced IL-6 from SARS-CoV-2 infected ALI cultures (Fig. 3P).

Nrf2 pathway and mito-ROS also regulate apoptosis of lung cells(*11*) which is associated with viral

replication, lung injury and severe COVID-19(*1*). Thus, we assessed the impact of Mito-MES on SARS-

CoV-2 associated cellular apoptosis. Immunostaining showed that Mito-MES reduced SARS-CoV-2-

induced increase in cleaved caspase 3 (CC3), a key regulator of apoptosis and cell/tissue damage, in both

Vero-E6 (Fig. S4A to E) and Calu3 cells (Fig. S4F to I). Immunofluorescence showed that Mito-MES

also inhibited SARS-CoV-2-associated increase in CC3, in K18-hACE2 mice infected with Beta variant (Fig. 3Q). Overall, these data suggest that Mito-MES reduces SARS-CoV-2-induced cell/tissue inflammation and apoptosis through its antioxidant properties (Nrf2 agonist, CoQ_{10} moiety, antioxidant against mito-ROS) and the dTPP.

We then explored the antiviral efficacy of Mito-MES against SARS-CoV-2 in K18-hACE2 mice (*17*). There was a reduction of *at least* 2 log units in SARS-CoV-2 viral titers (Fig. 4A) and SARS-CoV-2 NP protein levels (Fig. 4B) in the lungs of the Mito-MES groups (treated as shown in Fig 3D before and *after* infection) relative to the vehicle control group. The anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity of Mito-MES in K18-hACE2 lung cells was higher than remdesivir (Fig S1H and I) and higher than the previously reported anti-SARS-CoV-2 effect of remdesivir in K18-hACE2 mice (*17*). We then assessed whether oral Mito-MES derived from the formulation given to humans as dietary supplement is antiviral against SARS-CoV-2 *in vivo*. Mito-MES 20 mg/kg/day treatment in SARS-CoV-2 infected (Delta variant) K18-hACE2 mice through oral gavage (treated as shown in Fig.4C) reduced viral titer by nearly 4 log units relative to the vehicle group (Fig. 4D).

In summary, we demonstrate that Mito-MES has *in vitro* and *in vivo* antiviral, antiapoptotic and anti-inflammatory effects in SARS-CoV-2 infection. Mito-MES may have multiple favorable therapeutic effects in COVID-19 (Fig. S5). We show that the antiviral effect of Mito-MES against SARS-CoV-2 is mediated partially through the Nrf2 pathway, the hydrophobic dTPP cation and interferon responses. Mito-MES had nanomolar antiviral potency against the Beta, Delta SARS-CoV-2 variants as well as MHV. Thus, Mito-MES is expected to have antiviral activity against rapidly emerging SARS-CoV-2 variants. Importantly, Mito-MES at nanomolar concentrations had additive antiviral and anti-inflammatory activity with DMF, an anti-inflammatory drug in multiple sclerosis (*11*). Finally, we showed that Mito-MES treatment can drastically reduce the replication of SARS-CoV-2 *in vivo* in a mouse model of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

To date, there is no safe, efficacious oral antiviral that is effective against SARS-CoV-2 variants, has

anti-inflammatory activity and can *also* be given *long term* in humans. The favorable antiviral,

antioxidant and anti-inflammatory properties of Mito-MES and its excellent safety profile in humans(*5,*

6), can establish Mito-MES as a novel therapeutic strategy for outpatient treatment of mild to moderate

acute COVID-19, for post-exposure prophylaxis against SARS-CoV-2 in high-risk exposures, for post-

acute COVID-19 syndrome (PACS)(*1*) and as preexposure prophylaxis in high risk (un)vaccinated or

immunocompromised patients where the SARS-CoV-2 vaccines may have low efficacy. Mito-MES is

available as a dietary supplement and its safety for up to one year has been validated in clinical trials for

oxidative damage-related diseases (*5, 6*). Mito-MES may represent a rapidly applicable therapeutic

strategy that can be added in the therapeutic arsenal against COVID-19.

Author contributions:

Conceptualization: TK

Methodology: AP, MS, MD, SS, HV, CH, ER, BJD, EF, GG, STR, CS, AP, BNG, GAF, VA, ML, OSH,

TK

Investigation: AP, MS, MD, SS, HV, CH, ER, BJD, EF, GG, STR, CS, AP, BNG, GAF, VA, ML, OSH,

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Visualization: AP, SS, TK

Funding acquisition: TK

Project administration: TK

Supervision: TK, OSH

Writing – original draft: AP, MS, TK

Writing – review & editing: AP, MS, SS, ML, OSH, TK

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Declaration of interest

Competing interests: This manuscript is related to patents PCT/US2021/040869,

US. Application No 63/166,207. Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig.1. Mitoquinone mesylate (Mito-MES) has strong anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity in multiple human

airway cells and has additive antiviral effects with paxlovid. Calu3 cells, human airway epithelial cells

cultured in air-liquid interface and high ACE2 (hACE2) A549 cells were infected with wild type (WT)

SARS-CoV-2 or B.1.351 (Beta), B.1.617.2 (Delta), B.1.1.529 (Omicron) variants at an MOI of 0.1 (48

hrs) and were treated with drugs for at least 1 hour before infection and throughout the experiment. Viral

replication at 48 hours post infection (hpi) by TCID50-assay or flow cytometry. Cell cytotoxicity was

assessed in uninfected cells by the XTT (48 h). IC50, 50% cytotoxic concentration (CC50) values for

drugs [Mito-MES, remdesivir (RDV)] are indicated. **(C)** Immunofluorescent analysis (48 hpi) of infected

Calu3 cells. Scale bar=50µm. In all panels, data are means ± SEM of at least three independent

experiments with at least 3 replicates in each experiment.

Fig.2. Mitoquinone mesylate (Mito-MES) has anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity through its lipophilic and

antioxidant components. (**A** to **C**) Time-of-addition experiment of remdesivir (RDV), Mito-MES, dTPP

and coenzyme Q10 (CoQ$_{10}$) in Calu3 and hACE2 HEK293T cells [at entry, post-viral entry and

throughout 24 hpi (full time)]. Levels of intracellular SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid protein (NP) were

determined by ELISA. (**D** to **L**) Human airway epithelial and Calu3 cells were infected and treated as

shown. Viral replication by TCID50-assay and flow cytometry (**K**) and XTT assay at 48 hpi. IC50 and

CC50 values are indicated. (**G**) Oxidative stress by dihydroethidum (DHE) fluorescence and replication

of fluorescent icSARS-CoV-2-mNG (MOI 0.3) at 48 hpi by immunofluorescence. (**H**) Seahorse Analyzer

determined oxygen consumption rate (OCR) in (un)infected Calu3 cells. For all experiments except (**G**)

cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 and treated as in Fig. 1. In all panels, data are representative or

mean ± SEM of at least two experiments in 3 replicates. Statistical comparison was done between the Ctrl

and each group (n=5-10/group) by two-tailed Mann–Whitney (*p $<$ 0.05, **p $<$ 0.01,

***$p < 0.001$). For "Entry" treatment, the drugs were added to the cells for 2 h before and after

infection and the supernatant was then replaced with culture medium.

Fig.3. Mitoquinone mesylate (Mito-MES) has anti-inflammatory and anti-apoptotic activity in

SARS-CoV-2 infection. (A to **R**) Calu3 and airway epithelial cells cultured in air-liquid interface and

hACE2 K18 mice were infected (MOI 0.1/cell or 10,000 PFU/mouse) for 72 hours [cells or mice in (**D**)]

or at least 5 days [mice in (**G**)(**K**)] with wild type (WT) SARS-CoV-2 or variants (Beta or Delta) and

treated as shown. Supernatants from cells or homogenates from harvested lungs were used for

measurement of cytokines using Luminex immunoassay or ELISA (**A**). (**L** to **N**) Murine lungs from (**G**)

were paraffin-embedded and 5-µm sections were stained for hematoxylin and eosin. Representative

images of lung areas where inflammation was assessed are highlighted by red (abnormal area) or yellow

(normal area) boxes and arrows. Histopathology score was determined according to Methods (**N**). (**R**)

Independent sections were stained with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid (NP) protein (green, white

arrow), anti-cleaved caspase 3 (red, white arrow) antibodies and DAPI (blue). Scale bars, 100 µm.

Representative or summary (mean ± SEM) data from experiments in triplicates. Each data-point

represents one biological sample. Unless otherwise shown statistical comparison was done between the

DMSO (10% with saline in mice) vehicle (Ctrl) and each group (n=5-10/group) by using two-tailed

Mann–Whitney ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05.

Fig 4. Mitoquinone mesylate (Mito-MES) has anti-SARS-CoV-2 activity in mouse model of SARS-

CoV-2 infection. (A to **D**) hACE2 K18 mice were infected intranasally with wild type (WT) SARS-CoV-

2 (Cohort A; Fig. 3) or Delta variant (**C**) (10,000 PFU/mouse) and treated as shown in Fig. 3D or through

gavage as in (**C**). Lung was harvested 72 hours post infection (hpi). ELISA that measures SARS-CoV-2

nucleocapsid protein (NP) was used to determine viral replication in lung protein homogenates (**B**) or in

Vero-E6 cells that were used for viral titer in supernatants from murine lung homogenates (**A**). Each data-

point represents one biological sample. Unless otherwise shown statistical comparison was done between

the DMSO (10% with saline in mice) vehicle (Ctrl) and each group (n=5) by using two-tailed Mann–

Whitney, $**p<0.01$, $*p<0.05$.

STAR METHODS

RESOURCE AVAILABILITY

Lead Contact

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by

the Lead Contact, Theodoros Kelesidis (tkelesidis@mednet.ucla.edu).

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability:

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

<u>MATERIALS</u>

<u>Cells</u>

Human adenocarcinoma lung epithelial Calu3 cells (Cat# HTB-55) and African green monkey kidney

epithelial Vero-E6 cells (Cat# CRL-1586) were purchased from American Type Culture Collection

(ATCC) (Manassas, VA). Human embryonic kidney 293T cells (HEK293T) cells stably expressing

human angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (h-ACE2 HEK293T cells) (Cat# SL221) were purchased from

Genecopoeia (Rockville, MD). Murine fibroblast 17Cl-1 cells (Cat# NR-53719) and human lung

carcinoma cells (A549) expressing human angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (hACE2-A549) cells (NR-

53821) were obtained through BEI Resources (Manassas, VA). Normal human bronchial epithelial cells

(NHBE) (Cat# CC-2540) and Human primary small airway epithelial cells (HSAECs) (Cat# CC-2547)

were obtained from Lonza (Basel, Switzerland), and all samples were de-identified. Lonza lung samples

were obtained from donors ranging between 30-50 years and represented both males and females.

Viruses

The following reagents were obtained through Biodefense and Emerging Infectious (BEI) Resources of

National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), National Institutes of Health (NIH)

(Manassas, VA): SARS-CoV-2, isolates 1) 2019-nCoV/USA-WA1/2020 strain, (GenBank accession no.

MN985325.1) (labelled as wild type WT in experiments), 2) Isolate hCoV-19/USA/MD-HP01542/2021

(Lineage B.1.351, Beta Variant), NR-55282, contributed by Andrew S. Pekosz, 3) hCoV-

19/USA/PHC658/2021 (Lineage B.1.617.2; Delta Variant), NR-55611, contributed by Dr. Richard

Webby and Dr. Anami Patel, 4) Isolate hCoV-19/USA/MD-HP05285/2021 (Lineage B.1.617.2; Delta

Variant), NR-55671, contributed by Andrew S. Pekosz, 5) Isolate hCoV-19/USA/GA-EHC-2811C/2021

(Lineage B.1.1.529; Omicron Variant), NR-56481, contributed by Mehul Suthar. 6)Recombinant Murine

Coronavirus, icA59, NR-43000, contributed by Susan R. Weiss. The fluorescent reporter a stable

mNeonGreen SARS-CoV-2 virus (icSARS-CoV-2-mNG) was gifted by Pei-Yong Shi's lab at the

University of Texas Medical Branch (UTMB). The Murine Hepatitis Virus A49 Green Fluorescent

Protein (MHV-A49-GFP) was gifted by Volker Thiel's lab at the University of Bern and Elke

Mühlberger's lab at Boston University.

Antibodies

Rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein (NP) (clone ARC2372, Cat# PIMA536086) was

purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA). Rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 NP (polyclonal,

Cat# 200401A50) was purchased from Rockland Immunochemicals (Pottstown, PA). Rabbit anti-SARS-

CoV-2 (2019-nCoV) Spike S1 (clone 007, Cat# 40150-R007) was purchased from Sino Biologicals

(Beijing, China). Mouse anti-SARS-CoV/SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19) Spike (clone 1A9, Cat#

GTX632604) was purchased from Genetex (Irvine, CA). Mouse anti-murine hepatitis virus (MHV) NP

(clone 1.16.1, Cat# NR-45106) was obtained from BEI resources. Rabbit anti-human mitochondrial

antiviral-signaling protein (MAVS) (clone D5A9E, Cat# 24930), rabbit anti-human/mouse Alexa Fluor

647 cleaved Caspase-3 (Asp175) (clone D3E9, Cat# 9602S), and rabbit anti-cleaved Caspase-3

(polyclonal, Cat# 9661) were purchased from Cell Signaling Technologies (Danvers, MA). Rabbit anti-

human translocase of the mitochondrial outer membrane 70 (TOM70) (polyclonal, Cat# 14528-1-AP),

anti-human/mouse myxovirus resistance protein 1 (MX1) (polyclonal, Cat# 13750-1-AP), and rabbit anti-

human/mouse nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (NRF2/NFE2L2) (polyclonal, Cat#16396-1-AP)

were purchased from ProteinTech (Rosemont, IL). Mouse anti☐human/rat heme oxygenase-1

(HMOX1/HO☐1) (clone HO☐1☐2, Cat# LS☐C343604) was purchased from LSBio (Seattle, WA).

The following secondary antibodies were purchased: goat anti-mouse Horseradish Peroxidase (HRP)

(Cat# A16066), goat anti-rabbit HRP (Cat# PI31460), goat anti-mouse DyLight 488 (Cat# PI35503, goat

anti-mouse DyLight 650 (Cat# PISA510174), goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 (Cat# PI35553), goat anti-

rabbit DyLight 650 (Cat# PISA510034) were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific.

<u>Immunoassays:</u>

The following enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) were purchased: Legend Max Human IL-

29 [interferon (IFN)-λ1)] ELISA Kit (Cat# 446307) was purchased from BioLegend (San Diego, CA).

Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid Protein Sandwich ELISA Kit (Cat# GTX535824) was purchased from

Genetex (Irvine, CA). Human IFN-beta Quantikine ELISA kit (Cat# DIFNB0), Human interleukin (IL)-6

Quantikine ELISA kit (Cat# D6050) were purchased from Bio-Techne (Minneapolis, MN). The following

multiplex Luminex immunoassays were purchased: Mouse ProcartaPlex kit [4-plex: interleukin-1β (IL-

1β), IL-18, IL-6, and Tumor Necrosis Factor alpha (TNF-α)] was purchased from Thermo Fisher

Scientific (Waltham, MA). Human High Sensitivity Cytokine A Premixed Luminex Performance Assay

kit [6-plex: IL-1β, IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, TNF-α, and Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor (VEGF)] (Cat#

FCSTM09-06) was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA).

Other reagents

The following materials were purchased from MilliporeSigma (Burlington, MA): Antimycin A (Cat#

A8674-100MG), Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) (Cat# A9576-50ML), Dimethyl fumarate (DMF) (Cat#

242926-25G), Dimethyl Sulfoxide (DMSO) (Cat# 472301-100ML), Donkey Serum (Cat# 566460-5ML),

Goat Serum (Cat# NS02L-1ML), Ketamine hydrochloride/xylazine hydrochloride solution (Cat# K113-

10ML), Mito-TEMPO (Cat# SML0737-5MG), Mix-n-Stain CF488 (Cat#MX488AS100), and Mix-n-

Stain CF647 (Cat#MX647S100), Oligomycin (Cat# 495455-10MG), Rotenone (Cat# R8875-5G), Triton

X-100 (Cat# T8787-50ML).

The following materials were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Waltham, MA): Corning™

Costar™ 96-Well, Cell Culture-Treated, Flat-Bottom Microplate (Cat#07-200-91), 6-diamidino-2-

phenylindole (DAPI) (Cat# EN62248), Dihydroethidum (DHE)(Cat# D11347), Dulbecco's modified

eagle medium (DMEM) (Cat# 10-569-044), Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM) low glucose

(Cat# 11054-020), Epredia Gill™ Hematoxylin 3 (Cat# 22-050-203), Epredia™ Richard-Allan

Scientific™ Eosin-Y with Phloxine (Cat#22-050-197), Epredia Richard-Allan Scientific Masson

Trichrome Kit (Cat# 22-110-648), Halt Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Cat# PI87785), Hanks buffered salt

solution (HBSS) (Cat# 14-025-092), Hoechst 33342 (Cat# H3570), Hygromycin (Cat# 10-687-010), L-

Glutamine 200 mM (Cat# 25-030-081), Methanol (Cat# AC423950040), MitoSOX Red (Cat# M36008),

Eagle's minimum essential medium (MEM) (Cat# MT10009CV), non-essential amino acids 100X (Cat#

SH3023801), Pierce™ Bicinchoninic Acid Assay (BCA) protein assay kit (Cat#

PI23227),Penicillin/Streptomycin 100X (Cat# 15-140-122), PowerUp® SYBR Green RT-qPCR Master

Mix (Cat# A25742), RevertAid first strand cDNA synthesis kit (Cat# FERK1622), Sodium Pyruvate 100

mM (Cat#11-360-070), sterile nylon 40 μm Filter (Cat# 07-201-430), 3,3′,5,5′-tetramethylbenzidine

(TMB) peroxidase substrate (Cat# N301), Tissue-Plus™ optimal cutting temperature (O.C.T.) Compound

(Cat# 23-730-571), T-PER™ tissue protein extraction reagent (Cat# PI78510), and trypsin-

ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA) (0.25% w/v).

The following reagents were purchased from Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, MI): Mitoquinone mesylate

(Mito-MES) (Cat# 29317), Mitoquinol mesylate (Cat# 89950), Precellys 7 ml empty tubes (Cat#13917),

Precellys 5.0 mm Zirconium Oxide beads (Cat# 13765), Precellys 2.8 mm Zirconium Oxide beads (Cat#

10401), Precellys 2 ml Soft Tissue Homogenizing Ceramic Beads Kit (CK14) (Cat# 10011152), and

Remdesivir (Cat# 30354)

(1-Decyl) triphenylphoshonium bromide (DTPP) (Cat# sc-264801) was purchased from Santa Cruz

Biotechnology (Dallas, TX). Brusatol (Cat# HY-19543) was purchased from MedChemExpress

(Monmouth Junction, NJ). Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (Cat# 100-500) was purchased from GeminiBio

(West Sacramento, CA). Costar 6.5 mm Transwell® 0.4μm pore polyester membrane inserts (Cat#

38024), PneumaCult Ex-Plus media (Cat# 05040) and PneumaCult Air-Liquid Interface (ALI)-S media

(Cat# 05050) were purchased from Stem Cell Technologies (Vancouver, Canada). XTT Cell Proliferation

Assay Kit (Cat# 30-1011K) was purchased from ATCC. Ghost Dye Red 780 (Cat# 13-0865-T100) and

Ghost Dye Violet 450 (Cat# 13-0863-T100) were purchased from Tonbo Biosciences (San Diego, CA).

Direct-zol Ribonucleic acid (RNA) Miniprep Plus kit (Cat# R2072) was purchased from Zymo Research

(Irvine, CA). Seahorse XF base media (Cat# 102353-100) and Seahorse XFp cell culture miniplate (Cat#

103025-100) were purchased from Agilent (Santa Clara, CA). Carbonylcyanide-4-(trifluoromethoxy)-

phenylhydrazone (FCCP) (Cat# CM120-0010) was purchased from Enzo Life Sciences (Farmingdale,

NY). Stop Solution 2N Sulfuric Acid (Cat# DY994) was purchased from Bio-Techne (Minneapolis, MN).

Intracellular Staining Permeabilization Wash Buffer (10x) (Cat# 421002), Human TruStain FcX (Cat#

422302) and TruStain Fcx (anti-mouse CD16/32) (Cat#101320) were purchased from BioLegend (San

Diego, CA). 32% w/v Paraformaldehyde (PFA) aqueous solution (Cat# 15714-1L) was purchased from

Electron Microscopy Sciences (Hatfield, PA). Black 96 well µCLEAR® cell culture microplate (Cat#

655090) was purchased from Greiner Bio-One (Kremsmünster, Austria). Teklad Global 14% w/w protein

rodent maintenance diet (Cat# 2914) was purchased from Envigo (Indianapolis, IN). RNeasy Mini Kit

(Cat# 74104) was purchased from Qiagen (Hilden, Germany).

To study the antiviral and anti-inflammatory activity of the actual compound contained in the diet

supplement given in humans (mitoquinol mesylate), the commercially available mitoquinol mesylate

capsules were purchased for research purposes by MitoQ Ltd (New Zealand).

Mice

Tg(K18-ACE2)2Prlmn (Strain B6.Cg-Tg(K18-ACE2)2Prlmn/J (K18-hACE2) mice were purchased from

the Jackson Laboratory (strain 034860).

METHODS

Cell cultures

Calu3, Vero-E6, HEK293-ACE2, Murine 17Cl-1 cells were maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 in DMEM

or MEM supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, penicillin (100 units/ml), and streptomycin (100 µg/ml) (1X

P/S). HEK293-ACE2 cells were maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 in MEM supplemented with 10% (v/v)

FBS and hygromycin. h-ACE2 A549 cells were maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 in DMEM

supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS and blastidicin. Primary mouse lung cells that express human ACE2

were isolated from uninfected K18-hACE2 mice and were maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO_2 in DMEM

supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS and 1X P/S.

<u>Human Tissue Procurement</u>

Large airways and bronchial tissues were acquired from de-identified normal human donors after lung

transplantations at the Ronald Reagan University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA) Medical Center.

Tissues were procured under Institutional Review Board-approved protocols at the David Geffen School

of Medicine at UCLA. Human airway basal stem cells (ABSCs) from one biological replicate were used

for two experiments. The biological replicates were from ABSCs isolated from lung transplant donors.

No demographic data was available for the normal lung donor samples.

<u>ABSC Isolation</u>

Human airway basal stem cells (ABSCs) were isolated following a previously published method by our

group(*18*). Briefly, airways were dissected, cleaned, and incubated in 16 units/ml dispase for 30 minutes

(min) at room temperature. Tissues were then incubated in 0.5 mg/ml DNase for another 30 min at room

temperature. Epithelium was stripped and incubated in 0.1% (v/v) Trypsin- EDTA for 30 min shaking at

37 °C to generate a single cell suspension. Isolated cells were passed through a 40 μm strainer and plated

for Air-Liquid Interface cultures.

<u>ABSC Air-Liquid Interface Cultures (Upper airway ALI cultures)</u>

24-well 6.5 mm transwells with 0.4 μm pore polyester membrane inserts were coated with collagen type I

dissolved in cell culture grade water at a ratio of 1:10. 100 μl was added to each transwell and allowed to

air dry. ABSCs were seeded at 100,000 cells per well directly onto collagen-coated transwells and

allowed to grow in the submerged phase of culture for 4-5 days with 500 μl media in the basal chamber

and 200 µl media in the apical chamber. ALI cultures were then established and cultured with only 500 µl

media in the basal chamber, and cultures were infected with SARS-COV-2 as indicated. Media was

changed every other day and cultures were maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO_2.

Human Primary Small Airway Epithelial Cells (HSAECs) Lower Respiratory Epithelium Airway ALI

cultures

HSAECs were seeded onto collagen coated transwells and grown in the submerged phase of culture for

4–5 days in PneumaCult Ex Plus media with 500 µl media in the basal chamber and 200 µl media in

the apical chamber. ALI cultures were then maintained for 21 days with only 500 µl PneumaCult ALI

media in the basal chamber, and media changed every 2 days. Cultures were maintained at 37 °C and

5% CO_2.

SARS-CoV-2 infection

All studies involving live virus were conducted at the UCLA Biosafety Level 3 (BSL3) high-containment

facility with appropriate institutional biosafety approvals. SARS-CoV-2 was passaged once in Vero-E6

cells and viral stocks were aliquoted and stored at –80 °C. Virus titer was measured in Vero-E6 cells by

median tissue culture infectious dose ($TCID_{50}$) assay. Cell cultures in 96 well plates and ALI cultures

were infected with SARS-CoV-2 viral inoculum [Multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.1 or at least 1 for

ALI; 100 µl/well] prepared in media. For infection of Calu3 cells in 96 well plates with the fluorescent

reporter a stable mNeonGreen SARS-CoV-2 virus (icSARS-CoV-2-mNG), an MOI of 0.3 and 100

µl/well was used. For infection of hACE2-A549 cells in 96 well plates an MOI of 0.5 or 1 and 50 µl/well

was used. For mock infection, conditioned media (50 or 100 µl/well) alone was added.

Assessment of SARS-CoV-2 infection among different cell culture systems

SARS-CoV-2 infection was assessed by independent experiments that determined either the single cell

content of SARS-CoV-2 or the total amount of secreted, intracellular or total (secreted and intracellular)

SARS-CoV-2. The intracellular content of the SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein (NP) or the Spike (S)

protein was assessed using ELISA, flow cytometry and immunofluorescence as described in Methods.

Protein extract concentration was quantified using the Pierce BCA Protein Assay, according to

manufacturer instructions (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). SARS-CoV-2 NP or S protein

content was expressed as either the percentage of cells that were positive for the SARS-CoV-2 viral

protein (immunofluorescence or flow cytometry) or the median fluorescence intensity (MFI) of the

SARS-CoV-2 viral protein per cell (immunofluorescence or flow cytometry). In ELISA experiments the

intracellular SARS-CoV-2 NP or S protein content (pg) was normalized by the total cellular amount of

protein within each experimental well (pg of viral protein per µg of total protein). The intracellular

genomic expression of SARS-CoV-2 was assessed using primers specific for SARS-CoV-2 and real time

PCR as described in Methods. The secreted amount of live SARS-CoV-2 in cell culture supernatant of

infected cell cultures was assessed using viral titer as described in Methods. Percent infection was

quantified as ((Infected cells/Total cells) - Background) *100 and the vehicle control was then set to

100% infection for analysis. The half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC_{50}) for each experiment were

determined using the Prism (GraphPad Holdings, San Diego, CA) software.

<u>Viral titers</u>

Infectious titers were quantified by limiting dilution titration using Vero-E6 cells. Briefly, Vero-E6 cells

were seeded in 96-well plates at 5,000 or 10,000 cells/well. The next day, SARS-CoV-2-containing

supernatant was applied at serial 10-fold dilutions ranging from 10^{-1} to 10^{-8} and, after 3-5 days, viral

cytopathic effect (CPE) was assessed by microscopy or by determination of the intracellular SARS-CoV-

2 NP using ELISA. $TCID_{50}$/ml was calculated using the Reed-Muench method. For MHV-A59 Infectious

titers were quantified by limiting dilution titration using Murine 17Cl-1 cells.

In-cell SARS-CoV-2 ELISA

To independently establish detection of SARS-CoV-2 infection using a more quantitative method to

assess viral titer (not based on microscopy), we utilized in-cell SARS-CoV-2 ELISA based on

intracellular detection of the SARS-CoV-2 S or NP protein. 5,000 or 10,000 Vero-E6 cells were seeded in

96 well plates in 100 µl. The next day, the cells were inoculated with 10 µl of a 10-fold titration series of

SARS-CoV-2. Two to three days later, SARS-CoV-2 S or NP protein staining was assessed using an anti-

SARS-CoV-2 S or NP protein antibody. Cells were fixed by adding 100 µl 8% (v/v) PFA to 100 µl of

medium (final 4% solution) and 30 min of room temperature incubation. Medium was then discarded and

the cells permeabilized for 5 min at room temperature by adding 100 µl of Intracellular Staining

Permeabilization Wash Buffer (BioLegend). Cells were then washed with PBS and stained with 1:5,000

(anti-Spike S antibody clone 1A9) or 1:10,000 (anti-NP antibody clone ARC2372) in permeabilization

buffer at 37 °C. After 1 hour, the cells were washed three times with washing buffer before a secondary

anti-mouse or anti-rabbit antibody conjugated with HRP was added (1:20,000) and incubated for 1 hour at

37 °C. Following three times of washing, the 3,3′,5,5′-tetramethylbenzidine (TMB) peroxidase substrate

was added. After 5 min light-protected incubation at room temperature, reaction was stopped using 0.5 M

H_2SO_4. The optical density (OD) was recorded at 450 nm and baseline corrected for 620 nm using the

Biotek microplate reader (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA).

Drug treatments

A concentration of Mito-MES between 10-1000 nM has been shown to be physiologically relevant,

efficacious and non-cytotoxic in human mammalian cells. The antiviral activity of Mito-MES was

evaluated in Calu3, Vero-E6, HEK293T, h-ACE2 A549 and HSAECs ALI cell cultures. All SARS-CoV-

2 studies were performed in biological triplicate. Cultured cells were incubated separately with Mito-MES

or decyl triphenyl phosphonium cation (DTPP)— a non-antioxidant mitochondria-targeted control

compound which allowed for the effects of the TPP component of Mito-MES to be examined. All drug

concentrations were between 10 nM- 100 µM as shown in the figures. The concentration of DMSO

vehicle control was maintained constant at 0.1% v/v for all treatments. Drug effects were measured

relative to vehicle controls *in vitro*. Unless stated, Calu3, Vero-E6, HEK293-ACE2, and ALI cultures

were pretreated for at least 1 hour and up to 24 hours (Brusatol, DMF) with the indicated treatments

(Mito-MES, DMF, Brusatol, Mito-TEMPO) or vehicle control. The cells were then washed, infected with

SARS-CoV-2 for 2 hrs, the virus was removed, and the treatments (Mito-MES, mito-TEMPO,

remdesivir) were added back. Remdesivir, well characterized direct acting antiviral agent, was used as

antiviral control.

<u>Assessment of cell cytotoxicity</u>

To measure cell viability to determine if there was any treatment-induced cytotoxicity, uninfected cells

were plated and treated with the same compound dilutions used for the *in vitro* efficacy studies. As above,

0.01% DMSO-treated cells served as the 0% cytotoxicity control. After 24-48 hrs, cell viability was

measured on a Synergy 2 Biotek microplate reader (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) via the XTT

Cell Proliferation Assay Kit according to the manufacturer's protocol (ATCC, Manassas, VA). Similar

data were obtained in three independent experiments. LDH cytotoxicity assay was also used to assess

cytotoxicity in cell culture supernatant according to the manufacturer's protocol (Sigma-Aldrich). Flow

cytometry was used to independently assess cell viability and levels of target proteins in single viable

cells.

<u>Imaging and immunofluorescence</u>

After 24-48 hrs of SARS-CoV-2 infection (or mock), live cell images were obtained by wide field

fluorescence microscopy using a 10x air objective (Leica DM IRB, Wetzlar, Germany). For

immunofluorescence, separate wells of cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS) for 20 min. The fixed samples were then permeabilized and blocked for 1 hour in a

"blocking solution" containing PBS with 2% bovine serum albumin, 5% donkey serum, 5% goat serum,

and 0.3% Triton X-100. Primary antibodies were diluted in the blocking solution and added to samples

overnight at 4 °C. The following antibodies and dilutions were used: polyclonal rabbit anti-Tom70

(1:100), rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 Spike S1 (clone #007) (1:100), polyclonal rabbit anti-cleaved caspase-3

(1:200), polyclonal rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 NP (1:1000). Samples were then rinsed 5 times for 2 min

each with PBS containing 0.3% (v/v) Triton X-100, followed by incubation with fluorescent-conjugated

secondary antibodies diluted 1:1,000 in blocking buffer for 2 hrs at room temperature. Secondary

antibodies were goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 IgG, goat anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 546, goat anti-rabbit

DyLight 650. Samples were then rinsed 5 times for 2 min each with PBS containing 0.3% Triton X-100,

followed by DAPI diluted in PBS at 1:5000 for 10 min. Immunofluorescence (IF) images were obtained

using an LSM880 Zeiss confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss GmbH, Jena, Germany) with Airyscan using a

20X air objective or a 63X Apochromat oil-immersion objective. Immunofluorescence images were

quantified using CellProfiler 2.0(*19*) (Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA). DAPI was used to count total

cell numbers in order to obtain a percentage of cells positive for spike protein, cleaved caspase-3, or

TOM70. Alternatively, 96-well plates were imaged using the Operetta (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA)

system.

High-throughput imaging

Cells plated in Greiner µClear 96-well plates were stained with antibodies for immunofluorescence as

above and were imaged on Operetta high-content wide-field fluorescence imaging system using a 10X air

objective. Fifteen fields were imaged per well with a similar field distribution across all wells.

CellProfiler 2.0 was used to quantify cell counts and infection ratios(*19*).

Cellular reactive oxygen species analysis

Vero-E6 or Calu3 cells were treated and infected with icSARS-CoV-2-mNG reporter virus as indicated

for 24-48 hrs. Subsequently, cells were washed once with hanks buffered salt solution (HBSS) with

calcium and magnesium, without phenol-red and stained for 10 min with 1 µg/ml Hoechst 33342 and 5

µM dihydroethidum (DHE) in HBSS. Following two washes with HBSS, cells were returned to an

imaging medium without phenol red (low glucose DMEM, supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, 2 mM

glutamine and 1 mM sodium pyruvate and 1X P/S and imaged with a Leica DM IRB wide field

fluorescence microscope as described above using DAPI, GFP, and RFP filters. CellProfiler 2.0 was used

to quantify cell counts, infection ratios per well, and DHE fluorescence intensity per cell(*19*).

<u>Flow cytometry</u>

Within the UCLA BSL3 high-containment facility, SARS-CoV-2 infected and uninfected cells were

resuspended in PBS and single cell suspensions were incubated with viability dye at 1:500 (Fixable Ghost

Dye Red 780 or Ghost Dye Violet 450) for 20 min in the dark at room temperature. Cells were washed

and appropriate antibodies were added to each tube and incubated in the dark for 20 min on ice. Cells

were then washed and fixed with 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde or methanol for 30 min at 4 °C. Cells were

then washed and were transferred in polypropylene Eppendorf tubes (E-tubes) to BSL2 containment

facility for further processing. Appropriate antibodies were added to each tube and incubated in the dark

for 20 min on ice.

The following antibodies were used for staining in flow cytometry: rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 NP (clone

ARC2372. 1:50), rabbit anti-SARS-CoV-2 Spike (clone 007, 1:50), mouse anti-SARS-CoV-2 Spike

(clone 1A9, 1:50), rabbit anti-human MAVS (clone D5A9E, 1:10), rabbit anti-human TOM70

(polyclonal,1:5), rabbit anti-human/mouse Alexa Fluor 647 cleaved caspase-3 (clone D3E9, 1:25), mouse

anti☐human, HO☐1 (clone HO☐1☐2, 1:20), anti-MX1 (polyclonal, 1:10), rabbit anti-NRF2 (polyclonal,

1:50). Non-fluorescent unconjugated primary antibodies were conjugated with Mix-n-Stain CF488 or

CF647 Antibody Labeling Kits from MilliporeSigma (Burlington, MA).

The cells were washed twice with PBS and were transferred to tubes for fluorescence activated cell

sorting (FACS) analysis. Samples were acquired using an LSRFortessa™ flow cytometer and

FACSDiva™ software (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Data were analyzed using FlowJo™

software (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ). At least 10,000 cells were acquired for each analysis

and only live and singlet cells were chosen for analysis and gating (i.e., dead cells and aggregates were

excluded). Each representative flow plot was repeated at least 3 times. Single stain and also fluorescence

minus one (FMO) controls were used in the presence of a given concentration of the antibody staining

cocktail.

Mitochondrial Reactive oxygen species analysis

After 24 hrs post infection, cells were collected and stained with 5 μM MitoSOX Red Mitochondrial

reactive oxygen species (mito-ROS) indicator for 30 min at 37 °C. Cells were washed with PBS, fixed

with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min at 4 °C and transferred to polypropylene FACS tubes. Cells were

then analyzed using an LSR Fortessa flow cytometer and FACSDiva software), and data were analyzed

using FlowJo software (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ).

Biomarkers of inflammation

Protein levels of secreted IL-6 were determined in cell culture supernatants using ELISA kits according to

the manufacturer (Bio-Techne, Minneapolis, MN). Luminex immunoassay was used to measure human

cytokines [interleukin-1β (IL-1β), IL-8, IL-10, TNF-α, Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)]

secreted by Calu3 cells and airway lung epithelial cells in cell culture supernatants according to the

manufacturer (Bio-Techne, Minneapolis, MN). A 4-Plex ProcartaPlex assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA) was used to measure murine cytokines (IL-1β, IL-6, IL-18, TNF-α) in mouse lung protein

lysates.

RNA extraction and Real-Time Quantitative Reverse Transcription Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-

qPCR)

Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Mini Kit or Direct-zol RNA Miniprep kit (Zymo Research)

and complementary deoxyribonucleic acid (cDNA) was synthesized using oligo deoxythymine (dT)

primers and RevertAid first strand cDNA synthesis kit. Quantitative real-time reverse transcription PCR

was performed using SYBR Green Master Mix and primers specific for SARS-CoV-2 as well as

glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) transcripts. The following primers were used:

2019-nCoV_N1-F: GACCCCAAAATCAGCGAAAT, 2019-nCoV_N1-R:

TCTGGTTACTGCCAGTTGAATCTG; h-GAPDH-F: CCACCTTTGACGCTGGG; h-GAPDH-R:

CATACCAGGAAATGAGCTTGACA. All qRT-PCR reactions were performed using BIO-RAD CFX96

Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) on 96-well plates. PCR

reactions included SYBR Green RT-PCR Master Mix, 10 μM primers and 5 μl of cDNA. Reactions were

incubated at 45 °C for 10 min for reverse transcription, 95 °C for 2 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95 °C

for 15 seconds (sec) and 60 °C for 60 sec. Gene expression fold change was calculated with the Delta-

delta-cycle threshold (DDCt) method. Viral RNA levels were depicted as fold change over mock infected

samples.

Mitochondrial respirometry analysis

Calu3 cells were seeded at a density of 16,000 cells per well into 8-well Seahorse mini plates and allowed

to attach for 24 hrs. Treatments were started 24 hrs before infection with SARS-CoV-2 (WA1 strain, MOI

0.1-0.5). Cells were infected for 48 hrs and subsequently analyzed by Seahorse respirometry. Briefly,

growth media was replaced with Seahorse XF base media (supplemented with 2 mM glutamine and 1

mM sodium pyruvate, pH adjusted to 7.4) twice and respirometry assessed using a Seahorse XF HS Mini

Analyzer (Agilent Santa Clara, CA) and the using the Mito Stress Test protocol. After basal respiration,

mitochondrial proton leak was assessed after oligomycin injection, maximal respiration was assessed after

Carbonylcyanide-4-(trifluoromethoxy)-phenylhydrazone (FCCP) injection, and non-mitochondrial

respiration after rotenone, and antimycin A injection. Following the assay, cells were fixed in 4% (v/v)

paraformaldehyde as described above and SARS-CoV-2 positive cells stained against SARS-CoV-2

nucleocapsid protein, and nuclei stained with DAPI. Wells were imaged using an LSM880 Zeiss confocal

microscope (Carl Zeiss GmbH, Jena, Germany) with a 10X air objective and cell counts and infection

ratios determined using CellProfiler 2.0. Agilent Wave 2.6 software (Agilent Santa Clara, CA) was used

to normalize oxygen consumption rates to cell counts.

<u>Mouse studies of SARS-CoV-2 infection</u>

All the antiviral studies were performed in animal biosafety level 3 (BSL3) facility at University of

California, Los Angeles. All work was conducted under protocols approved by the Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committee (IACUC). We used a model of mice hemizygous for the expression of hACE2

gene (K18-ACE2) and we performed three studies in these mice to evaluate the *in vivo* efficacy of Mito-

MES as antiviral and anti-inflammatory therapeutic agent in SARS-CoV-2 infection. In total, we utilized

60 male and female 4 to12-week-old specific pathogen–free hemizygous for Tg(K18-ACE2)2Prlmn

(Strain B6.Cg-Tg(K18-ACE2)2Prlmn/J, the Jackson laboratory strain 034860) mice. Animals were

housed in individually ventilated cages, 5 mice per cage, on a 12-h light–dark cycle at 21–23 °C and 40–

60% humidity. Mice were allowed free access to irradiated standard rodent diet (Tecklad 2914C) and

sterilized water.

Cohort A included 15 male K18-hACE2 mice between 4 to 8 weeks of age (16-25 g). Mice were treated

intraperitoneally with either vehicle control (normal saline 10% DMSO; Ctrl) (n=10) or Mito-MES 4

mg/kg/day (n=5) overnight before the infection (dose 1). Ten mice were then given a second dose of

vehicle or Mito-MES and after 2 hrs were infected intranasally with wild type (WT) SARS-CoV-2

[10,000 plaque-forming unit (PFU)/mouse in <50 µl of PBS, day 0]. Mice were anesthetized with a

mixture of ketamine/xylazine before each intranasal infection. Five mice were given intraperitoneally

Mito-MES (first dose) 8 hrs post infection (hpi)(n=5). Additional doses of Mito-MES (n=10) or vehicle

(n=5) were given on day 1 (24 hpi), day 2 (48 hpi) and day 3 (72 hpi). The body weight of mice was

measured each day. Three days post infection (dpi) animals were humanely euthanized. Whole left lungs

were harvested and were processed to create homogenates for viral titration via TCID50, single cell

suspension for flow cytometry, or protein lysates for immunoassays. The total (secreted and intracellular)

amount of SARS-CoV-2 NP in lung tissue homogenates (protein lysates) from mice infected with SARS-

CoV-2 was assessed by SARS-CoV-2 NP ELISA. The total (secreted and intracellular) amount of live

SARS-CoV-2 in lung tissue homogenates from mice infected with SARS-CoV-2 was assessed by viral

titer.

Cohort B included 20 female K18-hACE2 mice between 4 to 8 weeks of age (16-21 g). Mice were treated

intraperitoneally with either vehicle control (normal saline 10% DMSO; Ctrl) (n=10) or Mito-MES 4

mg/kg/day (n=10) overnight before the infection (dose 1). Next day (Day 0), mice were then given a

second dose of vehicle or Mito-MES and after 2 hrs were infected intranasally with Beta Variant of

SARS-CoV-2 (10,000 PFU/mouse in <50 μl of PBS). Mice were anesthetized with a mixture of

ketamine/xylazine before each intranasal infection. Additional doses of Mito-MES (n=10) or vehicle

(n=10) were given on each day for up to 5-7 dpi. The body weight of mice was measured each day. 5-7

dpi animals were humanely euthanized. Whole left lungs were harvested and were processed for

histopathology studies, single cell suspension for flow cytometry or protein lysates for immunoassays.

Cohort C included 20 male K18-hACE2 mice between 4 to 8 weeks of age (16-25 g). Mice were treated

via gavage with either vehicle control (normal saline 10% DMSO; Ctrl) (n=10) or Mito-MES 20

mg/kg/day (n=10) overnight before the infection (dose 1). As source of Mito-MES the actual diet

supplement capsule (5 mg Mito-MES per capsule) that is given in humans was utilized. Each capsule was

opened and was dissolved in saline 10% DMSO solution before given via gavage to mice. Next day (Day

0), mice were then given a second dose of vehicle or Mito-MES and after 2 hrs were infected intranasally

with Delta Variant of SARS-CoV-2 (10,000 PFU/mouse in <50 μl of PBS). Mice were anesthetized with

a mixture of ketamine/xylazine before each intranasal infection. Additional doses of Mito-MES (n=10) or

vehicle (n=10) were given on day 1, day 2 and day 3 post infection. The body weight of mice was

measured each day. On 3 dpi animals were humanely euthanized. Whole left lungs were harvested and

were processed for single cell suspension for flow cytometry or viral titration via TCID$_{50}$.

<u>Mouse tissue processing</u>

Tissue samples were collected at necropsy. Less than 20 mg of lung tissue was either embedded in

paraffin for hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining or was cryoembedded in Tissue-Plus O.C.T

Compound for immunofluorescence staining. The right middle lobe was used for cell isolation and flow

cytometry analysis. Tissues were weighted and <0.25 gram tissue samples were rinsed with DBPS, cut in

0.5 cm size pieces that were placed in 7 ml screwcap dissociation tubes with ceramic beads (Precellys)

filled with 2.5 ml prewarmed (37 °C) digestion medium (2 mg/ml Collagenase, DNAse 0.1 mg/ml, 1%

FCS). Tissues were mechanically dissociated at power 3,000 rpm for one 10-second cycle using a

Precellys 24 homogenizer (Bertin Technologies, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France), followed by a 30-

minute incubation at 37 °C and another 10-second dissociation cycle (3,000 rpm). The homogenate

was filtered through a sterile 40 μm nylon filter and cells were then processed for flow cytometry. The

entire left lung was processed immediately for viral titer. Lung tissues were placed in 2 ml

screwcap dissociation tubes with 60 X 1.4 mm ceramic beads at power 5,000 rpm using a Precellys 24

homogenizer and were mechanically dissociated in 0.5 ml DPBS for 90 sec. Homogenates were

centrifuged at 16,000 g for 10 min and supernatants were then cryopreserved at –80 °C for viral titer in

Vero-E6 cells. For tissue lysates that were used for protein measurements, 50-100 mg of lung tissue

samples were placed in 2 ml screwcap dissociation tubes with ceramic beads (Precellys) and

were mechanically dissociated in T-PER tissue protein extraction Reagent at power 5,000 rpm leaving

samples to cool on ice between 1–2 repeated 20-second cycles as previously described(*20*).

<u>Isolation of primary mouse lung cells</u>

Following euthanasia, uninfected K18-hACE2 mice of identical age and gender like the mice in cohort C,

were perfused with normal saline before removal of the left lung. Lung tissues were then rinsed with

DBPS and processed similarly to SARS-CoV-2 infected mice to create cell suspension. Cells were then

seeded in T75 flasks with complete medium [DMEM supplemented with 10% (v/v) FBS, 1X P/S] and

were allowed to adhere overnight. The next day the medium was exchanged, and cells were maintained in

complete medium before seeding in 96 well plates for SARS-CoV-2 infection and treatment with Mito-

MES.

<u>Mouse lung histological analysis</u>

Paraffin-embedded murine lung tissue blocks were cut into 5 μm sections that were stained with

hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) or Trichrome Masson. Light microscopic scans of whole lung were

examined by an experienced pathologist using an Olympus BX53 microscope. Perivascular inflammation,

airway inflammation, and alveolar inflammation were individually assessed semiquantitatively using a 5-

point grading scheme considering the focality and intensity of the inflammatory infiltrate: 0 – absent, 1 –

focal mild or patchy minimal, 2 – multifocal mild or focal moderate, 3 – diffuse moderate or focal severe,

4 – diffuse severe or with epithelial injury/necrosis. The overall grade of inflammation was determined

using the sum of these three scores (max 12). Interstitial and airway fibrosis were absent in all cases,

confirmed by Masson trichrome stain.

<u>Statistics</u>

Unless noted, error bars in all figures represent mean and standard error of means (SEM). In the figures,

p-values are presented for comparisons between treatment groups and controls and are denoted by

asterisks. To pool cells from different experiments, each measurement was first normalized to the vehicle

controls of each experiment. Each experiment contains at least 3 biological replicates (number of wells)

and each analysis contains at least 2 independent experiments. For flow analysis of cells, at least 10,000

events were acquired for the population of interest. For analysis of data that contains more than 2 groups,

the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed to compare samples; if these comparisons had a p value less than

0.05 then Mann-Whitney U tests were used to compare statistical difference between 2 groups. P-values

less than 0.05 by Kruskal-Wallis or Mann-Whitney were considered significant. Consultation on

statistical analysis was performed with the UCLA Biostatistics Department. All analyses were performed

with GraphPad, version 8.0 (GraphPad Holdings, San Diego, CA).

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A Calu3 cells (WT SARS-CoV-2)

B Upper airway epithelial cells (SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant)

C Lower airway epithelial cells (SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant)

E WT SARS-CoV-2

F WT SARS-CoV-2

H SARS-CoV-2 Beta variant

I SARS-CoV-2 Beta variant

J SARS-CoV-2 Beta variant

K Vehicle / Mito-MES

L 20X magnification: normal alveoli (Mito-MES mouse) / 20X magnification: normal airway (Mito-MES mouse) / 10X magnification: purulent mucus plug (Ctrl mouse) / 40X magnification: fibrin clot (Ctrl mouse)

M SARS-CoV-2 Beta variant

N Calu3 cells (WT SARS-CoV-2)

O Calu3 cells (WT SARS-CoV-2)

P Lower airway epithelial cells (SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant)

Q DAPI / SARS-COV-2 NP / Caspase 3 / Merged

Figure 4

A
WT SARS-CoV-2

B
WT SARS-CoV-2

C

SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant for 3 days

Day: -1 0 1 2 3

Mito-MES 20 mg/kg/d gavage or vehicle

Pill (diet supplement)

D
SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant