Title:

Tracking infectious entry routes of SARS-CoV-2

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37 **One sentence summary:**

38 Detailed molecular snapshots of the productive infectious entry pathway of SARS-CoV-2 into cells

ABSTRACT:

SARS-CoV-2 cell entry starts with membrane attachment and ends with spike-protein (S) catalyzed membrane fusion depending on two cleavage steps, one usually by furin in producing cells and the second by TMPRSS2 on target cells. Endosomal cathepsins can carry out both. Using real-time 3D single virion tracking, we show fusion and genome penetration requires virion exposure to an acidic milieu of pH 6.2-6.8, even when furin and TMPRSS2 cleavages have occurred. We detect the sequential steps of S1-fragment dissociation, fusion, and content release from the cell surface in TMPRRS2 overexpressing cells only when exposed to acidic pH. We define a key role of an acidic environment for successful infection, found in endosomal compartments and at the surface of TMPRSS2 expressing cells in the acidic milieu of the nasal cavity.

Significance Statement:

Infection by SARS-CoV-2 depends upon the S large spike protein decorating the virions and is responsible for receptor engagement and subsequent fusion of viral and cellular membranes allowing release of virion contents into the cell. Using new single particle imaging tools, to visualize and track the successive steps from virion attachment to fusion, combined with chemical and genetic perturbations of the cells, we provide the first direct evidence for the cellular uptake routes of productive infection in multiple cell types and their dependence on proteolysis of S by cell surface or endosomal proteases. We show that fusion and content release always require the acidic environment from endosomes, preceded by liberation of the S1 fragment which depends on ACE2 receptor engagement.

Main Text:

SARS-CoV-2 cell entry begins with engagement at the cell-surface and ends with deposition of the viral contents into the cytosol by membrane fusion. The first step is binding of the viral spike protein (S) with its cellular receptor, angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE2) (*1–4*). The last step delivers the viral genomic RNA in association with the nucleocapsid protein (N), which is removed for translation of the input genome (*5*, *6*). Proteolytic activation of S by additional host-cell factors is necessary for it to function as a fusogen. Cleavage of S by furin in producer cells (*7*) generates the S1 receptor binding subunit non-covalently associated with the S2 fusion subunit. The S protein is cleaved by cell surface or endosomal proteases during virion entry into host cells, that activate the viral fusion machinery (*1*, *8–10*). This entry associated proteolysis of S has led to the current model of two routes of infectious cell entry: fusion of viral and cellular membranes at the host-cell surface or fusion following endosomal uptake (*6*).

The cellular proteases that are involved in processing S during entry include the transmembrane serine proteases TMPRSS2 or TMPRSS4 found at the cell surface (*1*, *8*), and the endosomal cathepsins that require the acidic milieu of the compartments in which they are enriched (*1*, *10*). Processing of S by TMPRSS proteases or by cathepsins, at a site designated S2', depends on prior cleavage at the furin site in the producer cells (*7*, *11*, *12*). TMPRSS cleavage has been thought to result in infection from the plasma membrane and cathepsin cleavage, in cells lacking TMPRSS activity, with infection from endosomes (*5*, *6*). Chemical inhibitors of TMPRSS or cathepsin proteases in cells in culture indeed show that infection of some cell types is more sensitive to inhibition of endosomal cathepsins whereas others are more sensitive to inhibition of TMPRSS proteases (*1*, *9*). TMPRSS inhibitors such as camostat and nafamostat are in clinical development as SARS-CoV-2 therapeutics, further highlighting the need to understand how entry pathways depend upon specific proteases.

To analyze the routes of cellular uptake that lead to successful fusion and release of virion contents into the cytoplasm, we developed a set of new tools that allow direct visual tracking of the uptake of single virions and release of their contents. Using a chimeric vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) in which SARS-CoV-2 S has replaced the endogenous glycoprotein gene (G), we modified the virus to permit the separate tracking of the S protein and the viral contents. We engineered a structural component of the replicative core of VSV, the phosphoprotein (P), to append to its amino terminus enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP), for tracking the virion content. This eGFP-P chimeric virus is structurally fluorescent and depends upon S for entry. We

also sparsely labelled the S protein by direct conjugation with a fluorescent dye, allowing us to

visualize the steps of entry, from S1 fragment release to membrane fusion, including virion content

release into cells during productive infection. We have found that content release requires acidic

pH and that it occurs principally from endosomes irrespective of the cell type and irrespective of

the dependence of the virus on TMPRSS2 or cathepsin-mediated processing of S. Only mild

acidification of the medium allows efficient entry at the plasma membrane. We correlate our

findings with studies of infection by several human isolates of SARS-CoV-2.

RESULTS

Cell entry of individual virions mediated by SARS-CoV-2 S

We used live-cell fluorescence microscopy to monitor uptake of single VSV-SARS-CoV-2 virions

that depend upon SARS-CoV-2 S for infection (Wuhan Hu-1 isolate and Delta and Omicron

variants, chimeras generated as described: see Methods and (*13*)) and for the Wuhan variant

also containing a fluorescent internal structural protein, P, fused at its amino terminus to eGFP

(eGFP-P) (Fig. S1). We counted the number of tagged particles internalized 1 hr post inoculation

at MOI 0.5 and found 50-70 particles in Caco-2, Calu-3, and Vero cells, but about three times that

number in Vero-TMPRSS2 cells, which overexpress TMPRSS2 (Fig. S1D, E), presumably

because of more efficient TMPRSS2 cleavage in the high expression cell line. Examination of the

labeled virions by spinning-disc confocal microscopy showed distinct, diffraction-limited puncta

with a single, Gaussian distribution of fluorescent intensities (Fig. S2A), consistent with the

presence of single virus particles and absence of virion aggregates. We also labeled the S protein

sparsely with the fluorescent dye Atto565 NHS ester (25-35 dyes per virion), with minimal effect

on particle infectivity (Fig. S2A-D). The double labeling allowed us to track the viral S protein

separately from the virion contents.

SARS-CoV-2 S-mediated entry requires endocytic uptake

We used live-cell volumetric, lattice-light-sheet fluorescence microscopy (LLSM) (*14*) to obtain 3D

views of virion cell-entry over time during their uptake into cells (Figs. 1A-E, Fig S3). We incubated

cells for 8 min, transferred them to the LLSM, and recorded sequential 3-D stacks from a single

cell, acquiring a full stack every 2 sec, for 10 min (300 stacks total). We then moved quickly to

an adjacent cell and recorded a similar 10 min series of 300 stacks, after which we moved finally

to a third neighboring cell, for 10 min. The sequence of representative 10-plane projections in

Fig. 1B shows that particles attached to the cell surface during the initial 8 min incubation, followed

by efficient internalization at later time points. The figure shows images from Vero-TMPRSS2

cells; we obtained similar results for Vero, Caco-2 and Calu-3 cells, as shown in Fig S3. The views

from 20- and 30-minutes post-inoculation also showed many examples of intracellular spots

labeled with eGFP-P only, representing delivery of the VSV ribonucleoprotein core (RNP) into

cells visualized as the separation of fluorescent eGFP-P from the membrane-bound, Atto565

labelled S glycoprotein.

We confirmed that the views in Fig 1B reflected the outcome of sequential internalization and

RNP delivery events by tracking individual particles in the volumetric time series acquired using

LLSM (Fig. 1C). Single virions attached to cells during the 8 min period following addition of virus,

and ~ 90% (1508/1692) of the attached particles had internalized during the 30 min time course,

as recorded in 60 time-lapse 3D videos from 20 cells. The representative 10-plane projection in

Fig. 1C obtained during the initial 10-minute interval shows several single-particle examples of

virion internalization and three events of RNP core release (for similar results with Vero, Caco-2

and Calu-3 cells, see Fig S3). The highlighted example in Fig. 1C and the complete ortho

projection in Fig. 1D show a fluorescent spot corresponding to a virus particle, first captured at

the cell surface, then undergoing rapid directed movement towards the cell interior, due to

endocytosis and intracellular traffic of virus-containing vesicles. Dissociation of the eGFP-P from

the Atto565 signals marks delivery of the genome into the cytosol (see also Figs. S3-S7). In a

total of 60 Caco-2, Calu-3, Vero and Vero-TMPRSS2 cells, we detected separation of signals at

an intracellular location for 138/1692 trajectories during the 30-min interval starting two minutes

after an initial 8-minute inoculation (Fig. 1E), and only one dissociation event at the cell surface

(for a Vero-TMPRSS2 cell). The fluorescent signals from eGFP-P released in these times frames

remained stable and punctate in the cytosol during the duration of the 10 min acquisition, and any

released eGFP-P in the cytosol at the outset of the second or third 10 min time series remained

stable for the entire 10 min recording. Moreover, we never observed uncoated (delivered)

particles (i.e., released eGFP-P) in the early frames of the time lapse from the first cell. These

observations rule out the possibility of rapid, early entry events from the cell surface or from

endosomes during the "blind" 8 minutes during inoculation, and we conclude that an endocytic

route accounted for all but one of the detected VSV-SARS-CoV-2 fusion events in these

experiments.

Analysis of mean square displacement (MSD) curves from three-dimensional, single-particle

trajectories allowed us to determine the dynamic regime of the particle at any time point after

attachment. The alpha coefficient (α) in the anomalous diffusion equation ($<r^2> = 6Dt^{\alpha}$)

corresponds to confined motion (α < 0.8) for the virus attached to the cell surface, directed motion

(α >1.2) for intracellular particles with co-localized Atto565-labelled S and eGFP-P labelled RNP,

presumably associated with endosomes, and Brownian motion (0.8< α <1.2) for eGFP-P spots

diffusing in the cytosol. The results shown in Fig. 1F (which corresponds to the viral particle traced

in Figs. 1 C and D) and the summary for all tracked particles in Fig. 1G (see also Fig. S3-S7)

illustrate the moment at which an RNP escapes into the cytosol (α = 1.07), while the tagged S

remains associated with an endosome (α = 1.93, see below).

The chimeric VSV particles are roughly 80 by 200 nm (*15*, *16*) and appear in the microscope as

diffraction-limited spots. Endosomes typically range in diameter from 300-1000 nm (*17*). Thus, a

subset of fluorescent endosomes are larger than the diffraction limit, facilitating use of an

increased apparent size of an Atto565 fluorescent spot as a proxy for viral membrane fusion with

the surrounding (larger) endosomal membrane (Fig. S8). Using this approach, we detected fusion

in 17 $\pm$ 4 % (n = 20 virions), 28 $\pm$ 2% (n = 61 virions), 23 $\pm$ 2% (n = 27 virions), and 27 $\pm$ 6% (n =

30 virions) of the traces in Vero, Vero-TMPRSS2, Caco-2 or Calu-3 cells, respectively. All the

events coincided with release into the cytosol of the eGFP-P labeled RNP core of VSV (Figs. 1E,

S3, S7). We did not observe release of the virion contents at the plasma membrane (Figs. 1E,

S3-S7), indicating that S-mediated infection of cells only occurred through an endocytic pathway.

SARS-CoV-2 S-mediated infection requires endocytosis

Dynamin, a large GTPase required for cargo uptake in clathrin-mediated or fast endophilin-

mediated endocytosis (*18*), is susceptible to interference by a dominant negative mutant, K44A

(*19*). To test whether dynamin-dependent endocytosis is necessary for SARS-CoV-2 S mediated

infection, we transiently over expressed the dominant-negative mutant in Caco-2, Calu-3, Vero

and Vero-TMPRSS2 cells. We monitored the effect on infection of these cells by VSV-SARS-

CoV-2 that expresses eGFP as a marker of infection (VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2) according to the

scheme summarized in Fig S9A, and we quantified infection by single-cell imaging at 8 hours post

inoculation. In control cells, to achieve comparable infectivity we used 10 times more VSV-SARS-

CoV-2 for Caco-2 and Calu-3 cells than for Vero or Vero-TMPRSS2 over-expressing TPMRSS2

(Figs. S9B, C). Irrespective of the cell type, infection was inhibited by the dominant negative

dynamin mutant (Fig 1H) or by addition of dynasore-OH, a small molecule dynamin inhibitor (*20*)

(Fig. 1I). Dynasore-OH addition at 1h post-inoculation had no effect on viral infectivity, consistent

with inhibition of an early, entry-related event, but not with later inhibition of viral gene expression

(Fig. S9C). We previously reported that S mediated infection of cells by VSV-SARS-CoV-2

correlates well with infection by SARS-CoV-2 (*9*, *13*, *21*, *22*). In accord with that correlation,

dynasore-OH also inhibited infection of Calu-3 and Vero-TMPRSS2 cells by a SARS-CoV-2

Wuhan (B.1) clinical isolate (Fig 1J). These results show a critical role for endocytosis in SARS-

CoV-2 infection of multiple cell types in culture including cells that express TMPRSS2.

Viral entry from endosomes

Our data show that internalized virus particles reached internal membrane compartment(s) from

which fusion and genome entry into the cytosol occurred. To establish the identity of the(se)

endosomal compartments, we used live-cell LLSM to track particles entering SVG-A cells

ectopically expressing ACE2, or both ACE2 and TMPRSS2, and gene-edited for fluorescent

labeling of specific endosomal compartments. (Fig. 2A, S10). Single particle tracking of 6815

viruses over a 50 min period starting from 30 minutes post inoculation of cells revealed VSV-

SARS-CoV-2 particles trafficked from the cell surface to early endosomes marked with early

endosomal antigen 1 fused to the fluorescent protein Scarlett (EEA1-mScarlett) and subsequently

to late endosomes/lysosomes marked with a Halo-tagged version of the cholesterol transporter

Niemann Pick C1 NPC1-Halo-JFX646 (examples for single virions shown in Fig 2 B, C, S11-S12).

We only detected particles located in the interior localizing with the endosomal markers in early

frames of the time lapse from the first cell taken at the end of the 30 min inoculation period. Like

with the other cells, these observations also rule out for SVG-A cells the possibility of entry events

from the cell surface or from endosomes during the 30-min inoculation period.

To establish the location of the compartments from which the virion contents were released, we

identified the point at which the trajectory of the eGFP-P signal changed from directed (α >1.2) to

Brownian (0.8< α <1.2) concomitant with a loss of co-localization with endosomal markers

(examples for single virions shown in Fig 2 D, E, S13-S14). All entry events occurred from

compartments marked with either EEA1 or NPC1 in cells expressing TMPRSS2, and only from

NPC1-compartments in cells lacking TMPRSS2 (Fig. 2 F, S15).

Release of S1 at the surface of cells expressing TMPRSS2

Membrane fusion mediated by S depends on its proteolytic cleavage and dissociation of the S1

fragment (*6*). Cleavage alone does not release S; the required trigger is ACE2 binding. Addition

of soluble ACE2 ectodomain to VSV-SARS-CoV-2 particles activated by trypsin, to bypass

TMPRSS2, released about 70% of the Atto 565 label, a reasonable estimate of the fraction of S1

rather than S2. In live-cell imaging experiments with TMPRSS2 expressing cells, we noted a

partial loss of Atto 565 intensity from labeled VSV-SARS-CoV-2 particles after they attached to
the cell surface (Fig. S19). In these experiments, we used a microfluidics device to introduce virus
to cells while in the LLSM, enabling us to detect attachment directly. We interpreted the loss of
Atto 565 signal as S1 dissociation, and we took it as a proxy for cleavage by TMPRSS2 at the S2'
site on an ACE2-attached spike protein. Dissociated S1 will remain attached to ACE2 for some
time, and in about ~2 % of the events, we could indeed detect lateral spreading (interpreted as
diffusion in the plasma membrane) associated with the abrupt partial reduction of the punctate
Atto 565 signal. We found ~25% loss of the Atto 565 signal per particle in ~ 78% of particles at
the surface of Vero-TMPRSS2 cells expressing TMPRSS2 (Fig. 3 A-D) within the first 10 min of
LLSM single-particle tracking (Fig. 1E). In all cases the loss was in a single step with a half time
of 2 sec or less (Fig. 3B and Fig. S16). The signal reduction, which preceded endocytosis, was
never associated with RNP delivery (e.g., eGFP-P) from the cell surface (Fig. 1E, cell #1), except
under the special circumstances of slightly acidic medium during inoculation as described in the
following section (Fig. 3 E-J and Fig. 4). The signal loss at the cell surface depended strictly on
TMPRSS2 activity, as it was inhibited by 10 µM Camostat and was absent in Vero cells lacking
TMPRSS2 (Fig 3D). The decrease in punctate intensity, which we interpret as release of S1,
occurred in less than 5% of particles attached to Caco-2 or Calu-3 cells, which naturally express
TMPRSS2 (Fig. 3D). This result suggests that in these cells, cleavage at S2' by TMPRSS2 occurs
primarily after uptake into endosomes.
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Viral membrane fusion requires acidic pH
Endosomes undergo rapid acidification, and acidic pH is a trigger that induces fusogenic
conformational changes in many viral envelope proteins. We therefore examined the effect of pH
on productive viral entry by adjusting the pH of the medium at 10 minutes post inoculation. From
187 traces from VERO-TMPRSS2 cells incubated at pH 6.8, we observed 84 fusion events at the
cell surface, as defined by loss of Atto 565 signal and by accompanying eGFP-P delivery into the
cytosol (Fig. 3 E-H, S17). The abrupt partial loss of punctate signal, interpreted as S1-fragment
release, always preceded fusion (signaled by diffusion in the plasma membrane of the remaining
Atto 565 signal with a half-life of about 20 sec) and by eGFP-P delivery into the cytosol, typically
within 10 sec (Fig. 3 E, F). We defined eGFP-P delivery into the cytosol by a change in its motion
from confined (α <0.8) when on the cell surface to Brownian (0.8< α <1.2) when in the cytosol
(Fig. 3G). In the absence of S1-release, we did not detect S1 diffusion or eGFP-P delivery into
the cytosol. We conclude that release of S1 and subsequent or concomitant exposure to acidic
pH result in release of virion contents into the cell.

Incubation of Vero-TMPRSS2 cells at pH 6.2 rather than 6.8 during inoculation prevented release

of the S1-fragment and hence prevented viral fusion at the cell surface (Fig. 3 E, G, and H). This

pH dependence is consistent with an expected loss of TMPRSS2 proteolytic activity as the pH

falls below 7. When cells were incubated at pH 7.4 throughout infection, we did not observe any

particle fusion and content release at the cell surface, even though TMPRSS2 cleavage, as

detected by S1-fragment release, still occurred (Fig. 3 E, G and H).

The efficiency of entry by VSV-SARS-CoV-2 tracked by visualizing content release or by extent

of infection increased in Vero-TMPRSS2 cells at pH 6.8 (Fig. 3H). To investigate further the

requirement of acidic pH for efficient SARS-CoV-2 S-mediated membrane fusion, we carried out

bypass experiments to initiate infection directly at the cell surface. We blocked endocytic uptake

into cells with dynasore-OH and exposed bound particles to different pH ranging from 6.2-7.4.

Infection of Vero, Caco-2 or Calu-3 cells was blocked regardless of the pH, whereas Vero cells

overexpressing TMPRSS2 were readily infected by acid triggering of the S protein at the cell

surface (Fig. 3J, S18).

These results were consistent with the observed lack of release of the S1-fragment from viruses

at the surface of Vero, Caco-2, or Calu-3 cells (Fig. 3D). To eliminate a requirement for TMPRSS2

cleavage of S, we pre-activated particles by incubation with trypsin before inoculating the cells.

These pre-activated particles were as infectious in Vero-E6 TM cells treated with dynasore-OH

and inoculated at pH < 7 as non-trypsinized particles in the same cells and conditions. Thus,

trypsin and TMPRSS2 cleavages were equally effective in activating the particles. With

progressive acidification of the medium, infection increased, reaching a maximum at pH 6.6 and

remaining constant to pH 6.2 (Fig. 3H). These results show that S-mediated fusion requires pH <

7. We obtained similar results concerning the effect of pH on infectivity of authentic SARS-CoV-

2 with cells in which endocytosis was blocked and genome penetration depended solely on cell-

surface fusion events (Fig 3I-J).

Influence of S protein variation on infectious entry pathways

We found that response to infection inhibitors and the requirement for endocytosis and proteolytic

cleavage of S for the VSV chimera with the Delta variant S protein were essentially the same for

the chimera with the S protein from the original Wuhan-Hu1 isolate (Fig. 4A-D and S20, S21).

Conserved events included release of the S1-fragment from receptor-bound virions attached to

Vero-TMPRSS2 cells (Fig. 4 B), and S1 release followed by fusion and genome penetration when

inoculation was at pH 6.5-6.8 (Fig. 4C). Both Wuhan-Hu1 and Delta also showed enhanced

infectivity of Vero-TMPRSS2 cells inoculated at pH 6.8 (Fig. E-G).

Examination of the entry pathway mediated by the S protein of Omicron varied with the cell type

used to produce the virus. VSV-Omicron produced in Vero-TMPRSS2 cells depended on

TMPRSS2 activation for infection of Vero-TMPRSS2, although somewhat fewer virions released

the S1 fragment at the cell surface (Fig 4B-D). VSV-SARS-CoV-2 chimeras with Omicron S

produced in MA104 cells could not be activated by TMPRSS2 and failed to infect or fuse from the

surface of Vero-TMPRSS2 cells at pH 6.8 (Fig. 4A-D, S20, S21). Infection required activation by

cathepsins for fusion and infection from endosomes (Fig 4 A-D, S20, S21). Trypsin treatment of

VSV-SARS-CoV-2-Omicron, which cleaves at both the furin and TMPRSS protease sites (23),

allowed infection to proceed from the cell surface at acidic pH, independent of the producer cell

line, even in the presence of an endocytosis inhibitor (Fig.4A-D, S20, S21).

Sequence analysis of the genomic RNA from the VSV-SARS-CoV-2 chimeric viruses confirmed

the presence of the TMPRSS2 and furin cleavage sites in Omicron S. As furin cleavage in

producing cells is essential for subsequent proteolysis by TMPRSS2 in the infecting cell, we

tested whether incomplete furin cleavage explained the differential susceptibility to TMPRSS2

activation. We found much less cleavage of Omicron S for virus produced in MA104 cells (Fig 4D)

than for virus produced in Vero-TMPRSS2 cells (Fig. 4D). Particles with furin cleaved S were

susceptible to TMPRSS2 activation (Fig 4A-D), released the S1-fragment (Fig 4A), and fused at

pH 6.8 (Fig. 4 B,D).

Intranasal pH

Our results suggest that an acidic environment is required for successful infection, found in

endosomal compartments and at the surface of TMPRSS2 expressing cells purposely exposed

to mildly acidic extracellular pH conditions. Since expression of TMPRSS2 appears to be highly

expressed in a subset of cells located in the nasopharyngeal cavity (24, 25), we asked whether

this milieu would be acidic. Using a pH catheter placed in the left and right nasal cavities of 17

healthy male and female volunteers, we found a mildly acidic pH of around 6.6 (Fig. 4 E), in

agreement with earlier measurements (26, 27).

DISCUSSION

We examined how SARS-CoV-2 Wuhan and its variants Delta and Omicron enter host cells using a combination of high-resolution live cell 3D imaging and quantitative assays for viral infectivity. Real-time tracking of single VSV-SARS-CoV-2 chimeric particles by lattice light sheet microscopy allowed us to visualize directly, with a sensitivity and time resolution substantially greater than any previous work, the key early steps of viral infection: virion binding, release of the S1-fragment upon cleavage by TMPRSS2, viral membrane fusion, and genome penetration into the cytosol. These observations revealed a previously unsuspected requirement to fuse by exposure to pH between 6.5 to 6.8, even after priming by TMPRSS2 and the attendant release of S1 and the S2' fragment (Figure 5).

Current understanding, derived in part from earlier work on SARS-CoV, has assumed that the only requirement for low pH was for cathepsin L activity when TMPRSS2 was absent or furin cleavage, a prerequisite for TMPRSS2 digestion, had failed during exit from the producing cell (*1*, *11*, *12*, *28–30*). Our results instead distinguish three complementary routes of productive entry, all of which involve exposure of the entering particle to pH < 6.8. The two principal routes are by uptake and traffic to early endosomes, for TMPRSS2-primed virions, or to late endosomal compartments, for cathepsin cleavage in cells regardless of the presence or absence of TMPRSS2. A third, minor route does not require virion uptake, but instead proceeds entirely at the cell surface, but only if cell attachment is at a pH range between 6.5 and 6.8. These observations define the alternative, multi-step pathways of SARS-CoV-2 entry and restrict the conditions for cell-surface penetration.

The released Atto 565-labeled fragment diffused laterally in the membrane, away from the labeled virion, consistent with our identification of the fragment as S1, which we expect to remain attached to ACE2. The release, which always preceded membrane fusion, was independent of exposure to acidic pH. Its dissociation was necessary but not sufficient for S2 to undergo its full, fusion-promoting conformational change. Release required S2' site cleavage, as evidenced by its absence in the presence of the TMPRSS2 inhibitor, Camostat, and by its absence, even in TMPRSS2 expressing cells, at pH lower than about 6.5, where TMPRSS2 is inactive. Trypsin cleavage in our experiments circumvented TMPRSS2 activity, and we indeed observed fusion at pH as low as 6.2.

The structure of the spike protein and the distribution of lysine residues suggest that most of the
Atto 565 label will be on S1 and hence, from the fraction of total label released, that about 25%
of the S-protein trimers will have shed S1 upon interaction with membrane bound ACE2,
assuming that dissociation of the 3 S1 fragments is cooperative. We estimate from the ratios of
stained band intensities on SDS-PAGE that the VSV chimeras have 15-20 S trimers on their
surface, and we infer from these numbers that on average, 3-4 spike will have lost S1, liberating
their S2 fragments to extend and interact with the host-cell membrane. This estimate is consistent
with the likely fraction of the virion surface that makes contact with the cell membrane and with
the dependence of S1 shedding from a trimer on its binding to ACE2. It is also consistent with the
number of active fusion proteins on other viruses, including VSV itself, required for fusion to
proceed (*31–34*).

Syncytium formation between cells expressing SARS-CoV-2 spike and cells expressing ACE2,
often used as a spike-mediated fusion assay, does not appear to depend upon acidic pH. But
the interface between the two cells will have vastly more spike protein than the interface between
a virus and a target cell. Thus, even low probability S1 dissociation events should be sufficient to
create a fusion pore, which can widen and spread across the entire cell-cell junction.

Release of S1 from a spike also detaches that spike from ACE2. Because cleavage at the S2'
site was complete in our experiments, any spike bound by ACE2 would probably have released
S1.   Continued association with the host cell would thus have depended on formation of
alternative contacts as S1 dissociates. We propose that formation of an extended intermediate
and insertion of the S2 fusion peptides into the host-cell membrane creates the interactions that
retain the virion at the cell surface. This proposal further implies that protonation of one or more
S2 residues at acidic pH then enables S2 to collapse toward the folded-back, post fusion trimer
of hairpins and pull together the viral and host-cell lipid bilayers.

The Omicron variant is more refractory to furin cleavage than previously isolated strains. Its entry
pathway will thus depend on the level of furin activity in the producing cells. We indeed found
that when grown in Vero-TMPRSS2 cells, Omicron VSV chimeras were susceptible to S2'
cleavage by TMPRSS2 and entered from early endosomes or at the cell surface at mildly acidic
pH, but when grown in MA104 cells, they required cathepsin cleavage in late endosomes for
entry. With authentic SARS-CoV-2 virus, TMPRSS2 susceptibility similarly depended on the cells

in which the virus was propagated. These observations resolve some ambiguities in the literature

concerning the role of TMPRSS2 in Omicron infection (*35–37*).

Together with differential protease activities, the pH of respiratory mucosa could also influence

viral tropism. The pH of the airway-facing surface of the nasal cavity is between 6.2 and 6.8 (our

observations and (*26*). Thus, in principle, rapid entry could occur at the surface of TMPRSS2-

expressing cells in the nose. In other parts of the nasopharyngeal cavity and in the lung, the pH

is neutral (*38*), and we would not expect virus to fuse in those tissues until its endocytic uptake.

Our suggestion that at neutral pH, a relatively long-lived, extended S2 intermediate may be

present at the virus-cell interface bears both on potential therapeutic interventions and on the

availability of otherwise occluded epitopes to mucosal antibodies. Persistence of an extended

intermediate after gp120 release during HIV entry is thought to account for inhibition of viral

infectivity by the peptide fusion inhibitor entfuvirtide and for neutralization by antibodies that

recognize epitopes unavailable on a prefusion Env trimer. Our results are consistent with

observations that comparable interventions can impede SARS-CoV-2 infection in animal models

(*39*).

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Materials and Cells

All materials and cells used in this study are described in detail in Supplementary Appendix S1.

Generation of VSV-SARS-CoV-2 chimeras

The generation of a replication competent recombinant VSV chimera expressing eGFP where the glycoprotein G was replaced with spike (S) protein Wuhan-Hu-1 strain (VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2) has been described (*13*). Additional details for the generation of the VSV recombinants expressing eGFP and SARS-CoV-2 spike variants for Delta (B.1.617.2) and Omicron (B.1.1.529) are described in Supplementary Appendix S1.

Generation of SVG-A cells expressing ACE2 and TMPRSS2

SVG-A cells ectopically expressing ACE2 and TMPRSS2 were generated by lentivirus transduction. Briefly, lentivirus encoding human ACE2 or TMPRSS2 were generated as follows: HEK293T packaging cells were seeded at 3.8×10^6 cells in a 10 cm tissue culture plate and grown in complete DMEM supplemented with 10% v/v FBS at 37 °C and 5% CO_2.

Transfection mixtures containing 90 µL lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Scientific L3000001), psPAX2 (1.3 pmol; Addgene #12260), pMD2.G (0.72 pmol; Addgene #12259) and TMPRSS2/pLX304 or ACE2/pLJM1 (1.64 pmol; gifts from Sean Whelan) 90 µL lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Scientific L3000001), 1ul psPAX2 (1.3 pmol; Addgene #12260), 0.6 ul pMD2.G (0.72 pmol; Addgene #12259) and 1.2 ul TMPRSS2/pLX304 or ACE2/pLJM1 (1.64 pmol) in 5 ml OptiMEM medium (Thermo Scientific 31985062) mixed by pipetting and incubated for 20 minutes at room temperature. 0.7 million cells were plated in a 10 cm plate 18 hr prior to transfection; the medium was then replaced with the entire transfection mixture and cells incubated for 6 hours at 37°C, after which the medium was replaced with 15 ml complete DMEM medium. After 12 hours, this medium was replaced with 15 ml of complete DMEM medium, which was then harvested 24 hr later after further growth. After addition of another 15 ml of medium, cells and virus were allowed to growth, ending with a second harvest of medium. The medium was cleared of debris by centrifugation at 5000 x g for 5 mins at room temperature and supernatants containing lentivirus stored at -80°C.

Ectopic stably expression of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 was achieved by transduction of SVG-A cells (gift from Walter J. Atwood, Brown University) gene-edited to simultaneously express

fluorescently tagged early and late endosomal markers EEA1 and NPC1 fused to mScarlett or

Halo, respectively (*21*). Briefly, SVG-A $1x10^6$ cells were seeded in a well from a 6-well plate and

grown overnight in MEM media with 10% FBS. Cleared medium containing ACE2 or TMPRSS2

lentivirus (1 mL) was added to the cells and incubated for 16 h, following replacement with fresh

medium cells were incubated for additional 24 hrs. Cells were allowed to grow for another 4 days

in the presence of 7 µg/mL puromycin to select for ACE2 expressing cells or 5 µg/mL blasticidin

for TMPRSS2 expressing cells. Surviving cells were grown in the absence of puromycin of

blasticidin for 4 days and cell stocks frozen and kept in liquid nitrogen. SVG-A cells

simultaneously stably expressing ACE2 and TMPRSS2 were obtained by transduction with

lentivirus encoding TMPRSS2 and selection with Blasticidin of cells stably expressing ACE2.

Preparation of VSV chimeras for imaging and infection experiments

All VSV-SARS-CoV-2 variants were grown in MA104 cells in 15 to 20 150-mm dishes and infected

at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.01 as previously described (*9*, *13*) in addition to the Omicron

variant also grown in Vero TMPRSS2 cells. Briefly, media containing the viruses were collected

72 hours post infection and clarified by centrifugation at 1,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C. A pellet with

virus and extracellular particles was obtained by centrifugation in a Ti45 fixed-angle rotor at

72,000 x g (25,000 rpm) for 2 hours at 4°C, then resuspended overnight in 0.5 mL PBS at 4°C.

This solution was layered on top of a 15% sucrose-PBS solution and a pellet with virions obtained

by centrifugation in a SW55 swinging-bucket rotor at 148,000 x g (35,000 rpm) for 2 hours at 4°C.

The resulting pellet was resuspended overnight in 0.4 mL PBS at 4°C, layered on top of a 15 to

45% sucrose-PBS linear gradient and subjected to centrifugation in a SW55 swinging-bucket rotor

at 194,000 x g (40,000 rpm) for 1.5 hours at 4°C. The predominant light scattering band located

in the lower one-third of the gradient and containing the virions was removed by side puncture of

the gradient tube. Approximately 0.3 ml of this solution was mixed with 25 ml of PBS and

subjected to centrifugation in a Ti60 fixed-angle rotor at 161,000 x g (40,000 rpm) for 2 hours at

4°C. The final pellet was resuspended overnight in 0.2 - 0.5 mL PBS aliquoted and stored frozen

at -80°C for use in subsequent imaging and infection experiments, without detectable change in

infectivity.

Isolation and propagation of SARS-CoV-2

A human isolate of SARS-CoV-2, Wuhan (B.1) was obtained in accordance with the protocol

approved by the Helsinki University Hospital laboratory research permit 30 HUS/32/2018§16.

Briefly, a nasopharyngeal swabs from a patient infected with COVID19 was suspended in 0.5 ml

of universal transport medium (UTM®, Copan Diagnostics) and used to inoculate Vero TMPRSS2*

cells for 1 h at 37°C, after which the inoculum was replaced with minimum essential medium

(MEM) supplemented with 2% heat inactivated FBS, L-glutamine, penicillin, and streptomycin and

virus allowed to grow for 48 hr. Virions in the supernatant (P0) were subjected to a similar second

round of propagation (P1), analyzed by DNA sequencing, and aliquots stored at 80°C in a solution

containing MEM, 2% heat inactivated FCS, 2 mM L-glutamine, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin.

Extent of virus replication was determined by real-time PCR (RT-PCR) using primers for SARS-

CoV-2 RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (RdRP) (*40*).

VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 infection assays

Infection assays for the Wuhan, Delta or Omicron VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 chimeras were done

at a final ~ 80% confluency of cells plated one day before the infection assay as previously

described (*9*) and further explained in Supplementary Appendix S1.

SARS-CoV-2 infection assays

All experiments with SARS-CoV-2 were performed in biosafety level 3 (BSL3) facilities at the

University of Helsinki with appropriate institutional permits. Virus samples were obtained under

Helsinki University Hospital laboratory research permit 30 HUS/32/2018§16. Infections were

carried for 16 hours at 37°C with 5% CO_2. Cells were then fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in

PBS for 30 min at room temperature before being processed for immunodetection of viral N

protein, automated fluorescence imaging, and image analysis. The detailed protocol is outlined in

the Supplementary Appendix S1.

VSV-SARS-CoV-2 Atto 565 labeling and single molecule Atto 565 dye calibration

Stock solutions of VSV-SARS-CoV-2 and its variants at a concentration of ~150 µg/ml viral RNA

were conjugated with Atto 565-NHS ester (Sigma-Aldrich, cat. 72464) as previously described

(*41*). The number of Atto 565 molecules attached to a single virion was determined by comparing

the total fluorescence intensities associated with a given virion and the fluorescence intensity

associated with the last bleaching step of the same virion, as previously described (*42, 43*). A

brief description of these steps are outlined in the Supplementary Appendix S1.

Trypsin cleavage of VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2

VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 and variants (as indicated in text) at a concentration 30 µg/mL virus

RNA in a total volume of 100 µL in DMEM with 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 were incubated for 30 min

at 37°C with 1 µg/mL trypsin (Pierce trypsin, TPCK treated from Thermo scientific cat. PI20233).

Trypsin activity was terminated with 10 µM Aprotinin (bovine lung, Sigma-Aldrich cat. A1153). The

required concentration of trypsin was determined by trypsin serial dilution, aiming for the largest

infectivity Vero cells whose endogenous cathepsin proteases activity had been inhibited with 20

µM E-64 (Figure S19). Infections were done with VSV or its variants at a concentration of 0.5

µg/mL (for Vero and Vero TMPRSS2) or 5 µg/mL virus RNA (for Caco-2 or Calu-3). When

required, the trypsin cleaved VSV's were used together with infection inhibitors or for pH bypass

experiments as described above.

***In vitro* release of S1 from trypsin activated VSV-SARS-CoV-2**

VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2-Atto 565 was incubated with trypsin at various concentrations for 30

min and the reaction stopped by addition of aprotinin to a final concentration of 10 µM. Virus was

then used to infect Vero cells with endogenous cathepsin proteases inhibited with 20 µM E-64 to

determine maximum concentration of trypsin required to proteolytically activate the virus.   Virus

either without or with trypsin cleavage, or with ACE2 bound before and after trypsin cleavage

were plated onto a poly-D-lysine coated glass to determine the number of Atto 565 fluorescence

dyes associated with each one of the single particles using spinning disc confocal microscopy. At

least 8,000 particles were imaged per experimental condition to guarantee the ability to distinguish

intensity losses of at least 20%. Every experimental condition was repeated in triplicate and the

intensity of the mean intensities of the peak Gaussian fit was used to determine the after and

deviation of Atto565 dyes per condition, Figure S19.

A computation simulation was performed to validate the ability to detect with statistical

significance a 20% fluorescence intensity loss approximate equivalent to the 20-30% loss

observed *in vivo* with virions when attached to the cell surface of Vero TMPRSS2. Experimental

data corresponding to 8,845 undigested control virions were used to generate a probability density

function from which 9 fit parameters (3 mean intensities with corresponding sigmas and the

relative contribution to the distribution) were obtained by fitting the sum of 3 Gaussian

distributions. These parameters were then used to generate 8845 random numbers of the same

distribution and compared to the experimental data set to illustrate the accuracy of the simulation.

A second set of 8845 random numbers were generated with mean intensities reduced by 20%, to

generate a probability density distribution representing the fluorescence intensities after ACE2

mediated release of S cleavage by TMPRSS2.

Nasal pH and temperature measurements

Nasal pH and temperature measurements

The pH and temperature of the nasal cavity, close to the under lower turbinate, from each nostril

from 17 healthy volunteers, age 26-55, males and females, were determined using a Digitrapper

pH 400 recorder (Medtronic) connected to a single-use Versaflex disposal dual sensor pH

catheter (Medtronic) and a Beurer FT 15/1digital thermometer (Beurer), respectively. The

temperature dependent pH response of the Digtrapper was corrected to consider the temperature

in the nostrils determined for each volunteer.

These measurements were obtained under the ethical permit n. HUS/2502/2020 granted by the

ethical committee of Helsinki and Uusimaa hospital district to Ahmed Geneid and Markku Patjas

at the Helsinki University Hospital.

Preparation of glass coverslips

Infection and uptake assays of VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 and VSV-P-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 done

by spinning disc confocal microscopy visualization, were performed using 25 mm #1.5 coverslips

bound with polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS) of about 1 mm in thickness and of 3 mm (infection) or

5 mm (uptake) in diameter wells punched as previously described (*9*) (see also in Supplementary

Appendix S1).

Live cell spinning disc-confocal microscopy

Visualization experiments were done with an inverted spinning disc confocal microscope (*42*)

following the details described in Supplementary Appendix S1.

Live cell lattice light sheet microscopy

Cells were plated in a 35 mm culture dish containing 5 mm in diameter glass coverslips to achieve

60% final confluency the day of each experiment. Immediately before lattice light sheet

visualization, the cover slip was placed on top of parafilm placed in a 10 cm in diameter petri dish

including wet chem wipes to maintain humidity. Approximately 10 μL of a solution containing VSV-

SARS-CoV-2 in DMEM with 25 mM HEPES at pH 7.4 for the times indicated in the text, after

which the coverslips were transferred to the imaging stage of the LLSM. Visualization was done

using phenol red free media, (FluoroBrite™) supplemented with 5% FBS and 25 mM HEPES at

the indicated pH. Imaging was done at 37°C in the presence of 5% CO_2 and 100 nM fluorescent

Alexa 647 or Alexa 549 dyes added to the medium to determine the cell boundary. The LLSM

was operated in sample scan mode with 0.5 μm spacing between each plane along the z-imaging

axis and samples imaged as a time series of stacks acquired 1 to 5 sec using dithered multi-
Bessel lattice light sheet illumination (*40*, *43*). When using gene edited SVG-A cells expressing
EEA1-Scarlett and NPC1-Halo, Halo was first labeled by incubation of the cells with 200 nM
JFX646 for 30 minutes at 37°C and 5% CO_2 followed by three 2-minute washes with DMEM
containing 10% FBS, 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 within 2 hours prior to virus addition to the cover
slip. Time series containing 120-300 z-stacks, sequentially obtained every 1-5 sec were acquired
with ~ 10 ms exposures per channel.

The following protocol was used to determine the dwell time between binding of trypsin activated
VSV-SARS-CoV-2-Atto 565 Wuhan and release of the S-fragment. Briefly, trypsin activated
virions at 5 µg/mL viral RNA were flowed on top of Vero cells plated in a homemade microfluidic
flow cell one day prior to the experiment to achieve a 90% confluency. Soluble 100 nM Alexa 549
added to the medium was used to determine the cell outline. Samples were imaged with an AO-
LLSM microscope configured for sample scan imaging to acquire every 4 sec a stack with planes
separated by 0.6 um (0.3 um along the z-optical axis) using an exposure of 3 ms/plane.

Single virus tracking and image analysis
The 3D stacks obtained using LLSM were deskewed and the diffraction limited spots were
detected and tracked in three dimensions using the automated detection algorithms that uses
least-squares minimization numerical fitting with a model of the microscope PSF approximated
by a 3D Gaussian function and implemented using the MATLAB developed previously (*40*)
available for download (https://github.com/VolkerKirchheim/TrackBrowser_Matlab.git).
Estimated fluorescent intensities associated with each spot were calculated from the
corresponding amplitudes of the fitted 3D Gaussian and compared to those from single virions
bound to poly-D-lysine coated glass imaged under the same acquisition conditions and whose
dye content was determined by single bleaching steps (*43*).

Tracks with intensities corresponding to single virus were exported into a custom-made program
written in LabView for visualizing trajectories available for download
(https://github.com/VolkerKirchheim/TrackBrowser_LabView.git). Each virus trajectory was
visually examined for co-localization within a specific compartment (cell surface, EEA1 early
endosomes or NPC-1 late endosomes/lysosomes, cytosol) and the mean squared displacements
(MSDs) were calculated from all 3D coordinates for all possible time frames within that

compartment. A non-linear relationship between MSD and time for anomalous diffusion was fitted

to the MSD data according to the power law in equation:

$$MSD(t) = 6\,K\,t^{\alpha}$$

where K is the generalized diffusion coefficient and α is the anomalous exponent.

Statistical analysis

An unpaired t-test was used to determine the statistical significance in the difference between

control and experimental values.

 FIGURE LEGENDS:

Figure 1. **SARS-CoV-2 infection requires endocytosis**

(A) Schematic of live-cell volumetric lattice-light-sheet fluorescence microscopy (LLSM) imaging

experiments **(B-G)** used to obtain 3D time series of VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2-S-Atto 565 entry

into VERO TMPRSS2 cells during early stages of infection using an MOI of 2. For each

experiment, three cells were consecutively imaged volumetrically every 4.7 seconds for 10 min.

(B) Maximum intensity projections showing fluorescently tagged VSV-SARS-CoV-2 within 1 um

in thickness optical sections from the first frame of the time series acquired for representative

cells 1, 2 and 3.

(C) Representative single virion trajectories of VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2-S-Atto 565 within a 1

um optical slice of a time series acquired during the first 10-minutes of cell 1. Traces highlight

particles at the cell surface (black) and within the cell volume after endocytosis (blue), in both

cases containing colocalized eGFP-P and S-Atto 565; it also shows traces in the cytosol (green)

containing eGFP-P upon its separation from the Atto565 signal (light blue). Single images

highlighting these events are shown in the panels below.

(D) Orthogonal projection of the traced event highlighted in **(C)**.

(E) Representative summary of 266 virion traces analyzed during cell entry. Data from single

coverslips (out of five) obtained per each cell type are shown. Vertical traces highlight the transfer

of virions from the cell surface to the cell interior (assumed to be in endosomes because the

colocalization of the eGFP-P with S-Atto 565 signals) or from endosomes to the cytosol (upon

loss of localization of the eGFP-P and S-Atto 565 signals). Events corresponding to step wise

loss of the S-Atto 565 signal at the cell surface are indicated (yellow).

(F) Representative plot illustrating the mean squared displacements (MSD) for the trajectory

depicted in **(D)** when the particle is at the cell surface (black), in endosomes (blue), or in the

cytosol upon separation of eGFP-P (which remains in endosomes, light blue) and S-Atto565 in

the cytosol (green).

(G) Summary dot plot showing the diffusion mode (α) for 1692 virion trajectories and

corresponding 139 penetration events; all penetration events occurred from endosomes except

for one event at the cell surface in a single Vero TMRSS2 cell. The plot highlights the confined

motion ($\alpha < 0.80$) of virions at the cell surface, trajected motion ($\alpha > 1.2$) in endosomes, and

Brownian motion ($0.80 < \alpha < 1.2$) in the cytosol.

(H-J) Effect of inhibition of endocytosis in the infection by VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 **(H,I)** or a

human isolate of SARS-CoV-2 **(J)**. Top panel shows examples of infection observed in

representative fields of Vero TMPRSS2 over expressing or not the dominant negative dynamin

K44A mutant or treated or not with 40 μM dynasore-OH. Images in the top panels were obtained

using spinning disc confocal microscopy and show maximum intensity projections. Results from

similar infections obtained with different cell types are shown in the bottom panel. The difference

of results between control conditions and inhibition of endocytosis by K44A dynamin

overexpression or incubation with dynasore-OH incubation was statistically significant with p

value of <0.001 using an unpaired t-test.

Figure 2. Endocytic entry routes of VSV-SARS-CoV-2. VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2 was used

to infect SVG-A gene-edited to express early endosomal antigen 1 fused to the fluorescent protein

Scarlet (EEA1-Scarlett) as an early endosomal marker and for late endosomal/lysosomal

compartments a Halo-tagged version of the cholesterol transporter Niemann Pick C1 (NPC1-

Halo) together with ectopic expression of ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and volumetrically imaged using

LLSM according to Fig. 1.

(A) Representative 2 μm projection from the first frame of the time series acquired 8-min after

inoculation.

(B-E) Representative examples of single trajectories of VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2 highlighting

the extent of colocalization between eGFP-P and EEA1 or between eGFP-P and NPC-1 Halo

labeled with JFX646 (top panel), the orthogonal projection of the trajectory (middle panel) and

corresponding plots for number of VSV particles on the spot, extent of colocalizations and MSD

(bottom panels). Additional examples found in related Fig S11-16.

(F) Representative summary of results for 257 and 373 virion traces analyzed during cell entry

from single coverslips (out of a total of five) plated with SVG-A ACE2 or SVG-A ACE2 TMPRSS2.

Vertical and diagonal traces highlight the transfer of virions from the cell surface to its interior and

associated with early or late endosomes/lysosomes as defined by colocalization of eGFP-P with

EEA1-Scarlett or eGFP-P with NPC1-Halo, respectively.

Figure 3. Surface entry route of SARS-CoV-2

(A-G) VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2-S-Atto 565 was used to infect Vero TMPRSS2 cells and used

to study the effect by acidic pH in the medium on the TMPRSS2 mediated surface release of the

S-fragment, on cellular location of fusion and genome delivery and on infectivity.

(A, B) Single virion trajectories of VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2-Atto565 in a Vero TMPRSS2 cell

incubated at pH 6.8 showing in **(A)** an example of S-release at the surface without subsequent

fusion and **(B)** an example of S-release followed by penetration of eGFP-P to the cytosol.

Orthogonal views of the tracings and corresponding time-dependent fluorescent intensities for S-
Atto 565 and eGFP-P are shown.

(C) Representative summary from 237 virion traces analyzed during cell entry. Data from single
coverslips (out of five) obtained per each pH condition in the medium are shown. Vertical traces
of cells incubated at 6.8 highlight the efficient transfer of virions from the cell surface to the cell
interior (based on loss of signal colocalization between eGFP-P and S-Atto 565 and
corresponding change of diffusion from constrained to directed). Events of stepwise partial loss
of S-Atto 565 are indicated (yellow). Similar data with cells incubated at pH 6.2 shows
accumulation of virions in endosomes, complete absence of fusion events from the cell surface
and limited number of fusion events from endosomes.

(D) Data showing fraction of virions that released the S-fragment from virions at the cell surface
of Vero TMPRSS2 cells incubated at pH 6.8 in the absence or presence of 10 uM Camostat, or
of Vero E6, Caco-2 or Calu-3 cells also at pH 6.8 and in the absence of Camostat. The difference
of results between control and all other conditions was statistically significant with p value of
<0.0001 using an unpaired t-test.

(E) Cumulative plot corresponding to the dwell time between the stepwise partial drop of the S-
Atto 565 signal of a virion at the cell surface and fusion defined by surface spreading of the
remaining Atto 565 signal and transfer into the cytosol of eGFP-P. Data from 86 traces and from
five experiments.

(F) Effect of extracellular pH on the transfer of eGFP-P of virions from the cell surface (red) or
from endosomes (black) to the cytosol.   Each dot represents average +/- std from 5 coverslips
with 3 cells imaged per coverslip and at least 600 virus tracked per condition. Line across box
represents the median of distribution and the top and bottom represent the quartiles.

(G) Effect of extracellular pH of the cell medium on the mode of diffusion of the eGFP-P signal
associated with a virion before and after delivery from the surface (red) or from endosomes (black)
to the cytosol.

(H) pH bypass infection experiments to test the effect of extracellular acidic pH on the extent of
infection of Vero or Vero TMPRSS2 cells by VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 alone or treated for 30 min
with 1 µg/mL trypsin; experiments carried in the absence (top panel) or presence (middle and
bottom panels) of 40 uM dynasore-OH. Each data point represents an experiment. In each case,
the values determined at pH 6.8 and 7.4 are significantly different with a p value of at least <0.0003
using an unpaired t-test.

(I) pH bypass infection experiment using authentic SARS-CoV-2 and Vero TMPRSS2* cells in the
absence or presence of 40 uM dynasore-OH. Each data point represents an experiment. No

statistical difference was observed in the absence of dynasore-OH between pH 6.8 and pH 7.4

(p = 0.13); the difference was statistically significant in the presence of dynasore-OH (p < 0.0001)

using an unpaired t-test.

Figure 4. Entry routes of VSV-SARS-CoV-2 variants are conserved.

(A-C) Effect of extracellular pH and type of cells infected with the indicated variants of VSV-eGFP-

P-SARS-CoV-2 on **(A)** the extent of S-fragment release from the cell surface and of **(B)** fusion

from the cell surface or **(C)** from endosomes.

(D) Experiments to determine the effect of extracellular pH on the extent of infection by the Delta

and Omicron variants of VSV-SARS-CoV-2 in the presence of 40 uM dynasore-OH. The pH

bypass experiments in the right panel were done with trypsin-cleaved virions. The bottom two

rows compare results obtained with the Omicron variant grown in MA104 or Vero TMPRSS2 cells.

Western Blot showing cleavage states of spike protein of VSV-SARS-CoV-2-Omicron grown in

different cell types. The bypass pH experiments in the left panels show statistical differences

between pH 6.8 and pH 7.4 (p < 0.0001) for Delta and Omicron grown in Vero TMPRRSS2 and

of minimal significance for Omicron grown MA 104 using an unpaired t-test. Similar analysis for

the experiments in the right panels show statistical differences between pH 6.8 and pH 7.4 for

Delta (p < 0.0001) and Omicron grown in Vero TMPRRSS2 (p < 0.0001) and also for Omicron (P

= 0.0015) grown in MA 104.

(E) Nasal pH values determined from 17 healthy individuals. Each dot represents a single pH

determination by the pH catheter at the lower turbinate of the right and left nostrils.

Figure 5. Schematic representation of the principal entry routes SARS-CoV-2 uses for

infection. Entry starts with membrane attachment and ends with spike-protein (S) catalyzed

membrane fusion releasing the viral contents into the cytosol. Fusion activity depends on two

proteolytic cleavage steps, one typically carried out by furin in the producing cell and the second

by TMPRSS2 on the cell surface on in endosomes of the target cell. Alternatively, endosomal

cathepsins can carry out both cleavages. Exposure of the virus to an acidic milieu is essential for

membrane fusion, genome penetration, and productive infection. Fusion and penetration occur

only in acidic early and late endosomal/lysosomal compartments but not at the cell surface, even

when the furin and TMPRSS2 cleavages have both occurred. Fusion and penetration can occur

at the cell surface of cells expressing TMPRSS2 if the extracellular pH is ~6.8.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS:

We thank Stephen C Harrison for comments, suggestions, and extensive editorial assistance and

members of our laboratories for help and encouragement; the staff at HUSLAB Virology and

Immunology for providing human nasal swabs for virus isolation, to Suvi Kuivanen and Teemu

Smura for virus propagation, sequencing and discussions, and Sanna Mäki for excellent technical

work; Elliott Somerville (Kirchhausen laboratory) for excellent laboratory management; Tegy John

Vadakkan for maintaining the spinning disc confocal microscope; Lena Tveriakhina (Blacklow

laboratory, Harvard Medical School) for western blot analysis.

Funding:

NIH Maximizing Investigators' Research Award (MIRA) GM130386 (TK)

NIH Grant AI163019 (SPJW, TK)

Danish Technical University (TK)

SANA (TK)

Harvard Virology Program, NIH training Grant T32 AI07245 postdoctoral fellowship (AJBK)

Academy of Finland research grant 318434 (GB, RO)

Academy of Finland research grants 335527 and 336490 (OV)

Helsinki University Hospital Funds TYH2018322 (OV)

University of Helsinki Graduate Program in Microbiology and Biotechnology (RO)

Author contributions:

Alex J.B. Kreutzberger carried all the experiments except those with human SARS-CoV-2

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recombinant virus VSV-eGFP-P-SARS-CoV-2 Whuhan. Zhuoming Liu generated, characterized,

and sequenced the recombinant viruses VSV-eGFP-SARS-CoV-2 Delta and Omicron. Anwesha

Sanyal generated SVGA-A ACE2 and SVGA-A ACE2 TMPRSS2, maintained the cells lines and

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VSV-SARS-CoV-2 infection assays. Elliott Somerville helped with virus sample preparation for

DNA sequence. Gustavo Scanavachi and Anand Saminathan helped collect LLSM imaging data.

Giuseppe Di Caprio set up the single particle data analysis pipeline. Volker Kiessling developed

the LabVIEW-based viewer, simulated data and produced the single-particle MSD fitting

algorithm. Sean P. J. Whelan oversaw the work to generate and characterize the VSV-chimeras,

participated in early discussions, and helped edit portions of the manuscript. Giuseppe Balistreri

guided the work on SARS-CoV-2 and performed infection assays, imaging, and image analysis.

Ravi Ojha performed SARS-CoV-2 infection assays, imaging, and image analysis. Olli Vapalahti

coordinated the BSL3 work, provided SARS-CoV-2 and performed virus sequencing.

Tom Kirchhausen and Alex J.B. Kreutzberger were responsible for the overall design of the study;

Tom Kirchhausen drafted the manuscript with direct input from Alex J.B. Kreutzberger; all authors

commented on the manuscript.

Competing interests

T.K. is a member of the Medical Advisory Board of AI Therapeutics, Inc. The other authors declare

no competing interests.

Data and material availability

All materials and data generated in this study are available upon request. Further information and

requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact,

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chimeras and their materials transfer agreements (MTA) should be directed to and will be fulfilled

by Dr. Sean Whelan, spjwhelan@wustl.edu. This study did not generate any unique large-scale

datasets. The LabView code for visualizing trajectories is available for download (GITHUB).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

-TMPRSS2
pH = 7.4

+TMPRSS2
pH = 7.4   pH = 6.8   pH < 6.8

Early
Endosome

Late
Endosome/
Lysosome

Spike   ACE2   TMPRSS2
                Cathepsin
] S1
] S2

Figure 5