ARF6 is an important host factor for SARS-CoV-2 infection *in vitro*.

Mirabelli C.[1#], Sherman E.J.[2#], Wotring J.W.[3], El Saghir J.[4], Bragazzi Cunha J.[2], Harder J.[4],*
Sexton J.Z.[3], Emmer B.T.[2] and Wobus C.E.[1]

[1]*Department of Microbiology and Immunology, University of Michigan medical school, Ann*
Arbor (MI, USA
[2]*Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Hospital Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann*
Arbor (MI), USA
[3]*Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, University of*
Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA
[4]*Department of Internal Medicine, Division of Nephrology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor,*
Michigan, USA

[#]*Current affiliation:*

Mirabelli C., *Institut für Virologie und ZellBiologie, University of Lübeck, Germany*
Sherman E.J., *Territory Manager at Takara Bio USA, Inc. - MI, MN, IN, KY*

[*]*Corresponding author:* camirabe@med.umich.edu

Abstract

SARS-CoV-2 is a newly emerged beta-coronavirus that enter cells via two routes, direct fusion

at the plasma membrane or endocytosis followed by fusion with the late endosome/lysosome.

While the viral receptor, ACE2, multiple entry factors, and the mechanism of fusion of the virus

at the plasma membrane have been extensively investigated, viral entry via the endocytic

pathway is less understood. By using a human hepatocarcinoma cell line, Huh-7, which is

resistant to the antiviral action of the TMPRSS2 inhibitor camostat, we discovered that SARS-

CoV-2 entry is not dependent on dynasore but dependent on cholesterol. ADP-ribosylation factor

6 (ARF6) has been described as a host factor for SARS-CoV2 replication and it is involved in

the entry and infection of several pathogenic viruses. By CRISPR-Cas9 genetic deletion, we

found that ARF6 is important for SARS-CoV-2 uptake and infection in Huh-7. In addition, the

ARF6 inhibitor NAV-2729, and the ARF6 agonist AA147, showed a dose-responsive inhibition

or enhancement of viral infection, respectively. Importantly, ARF6 inhibition reduced SARS-

CoV-2 viral loads also in more physiologic models of infection: Calu-3 and kidney organoids,

suggesting a role also in post-entry steps. Together, these experiments points to a ARF6 as a

putative target to develop antiviral strategies against SARS-CoV-2.

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2, entry, ARF6, endocytic pathway, therapeutic targets

Introduction

SARS-CoV-2 is a newly emerged beta-coronavirus and causative agent of the COVID-19 pandemic. While several vaccines and antivirals have been approved to limit severe COVID-19, the spread of the virus is not yet under control. This highlights the importance of developing additional therapeutic strategies that can complement vaccine rollout, especially at the epidemic centers. Given the propensity of RNA viruses for development of drug resistance, there is an unmet need for further antiviral compounds that can curb the infection and transmission by targeting additional steps in the virus life cycle. Viral entry is a step in the viral cycle that is promising for antiviral development and has been characterized very early after the isolation of SARS-CoV-2, with the discovery of the uncoating receptor, ACE2[1] and the two entry pathways [2]: via plasma membrane fusion or endocytosis. Membrane fusion at the plasma membrane occurs after SARS-CoV-2 surface (S) protein activation by proteinase cleavage, including TMPRRS2, whereas fusion in the endocytic compartment requires the intracellular protease cathepsin L. The pathway and molecular players that govern endocytosis-mediated entry are however poorly characterized. Endocytosis of viruses can occur via different pathways, including clathrin-mediated endocytosis (CME), caveolar or lipid raft-mediated endocytosis, macropinocytosis and variations of these themes[3]. Some viruses are able to use more than one pathway, which introduces a further level of ambiguity to the classification of virus entry pathways. Research on SARS-CoV-2 endocytic-mediated entry has been scant. A single report using a lentivirus system in ACE-2 overexpressing 293T cells suggests that SARS-CoV-2 endocytosis is dependent on clathrin and dynamin[4]. However, no further studies on SARS-CoV-2 endocytic entry pathway have been performed, particularly in the context of a productive infection.

ADP-ribosylation factor 6 (ARF6) is a multi-functional cellular protein. It directly activates lipid modifying enzymes, such as phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate 5-kinase, and it stimulates actin polymerization. ARF6-positive cargoes can be directly transported on microtubule filaments; and it also assists autophagy, particularly the initiation and autophagosome formation[5]. Because of its roles in endocytosis and trafficking, ARF6 is co-opted by several pathogens; bacteria (e.g., enteropathogenic and enterohemorrhagic *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella Typhimurium, Shigella*) and viruses (e.g., HIV-1, Coxsackievirus A and B, Epstein Barr virus). ARF6 was recently identified as a cellular partner of the uridine-specific endoribonuclease Nsp15 of SARS-CoV-2[6], and according to a recent re-analysis of a RNA sequencing dataset of infected A549-ACE2 cells, ARF6 is involved in three of the four identified modules mediating host cell responses during SARS-CoV-2 infection, i.e., viral entry, regulation and signaling, and immune responses[7]. We therefore sought out to determine the role of ARF6 in SARS-CoV-2 endocytosis and, more broadly, infection.

We first found that the human hepatocarcinoma cell line, Huh-7 is resistant to camostat, a specific TMPRSS2 inhibitor, and hence SARS-CoV-2 entry mostly relies on endocytosis for infection. By genetic depletion and pharmacologic inhibition, we further demonstrated that SARS-CoV-2 entry into Huh-7 is dynamin-independent but dependent on cholesterol and ARF6. This host factor is also important for infection in the more physiologic relevant models of human lung Calu3 cells and kidney organoids, suggesting that ARF6 might be an effective therapeutic target.

Material and Methods

Cells and virus. Human hepatocarcinoma cells, Huh-7, and human lung adenocarcinoma cells, and Calu3, were obtained by collaborators and maintained at 37 °C and 5% CO2 in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) (Gibco), supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS), Hepes, nonessential amino acids, L-glutamine, and 1× Pen-Strep (Gibco). SARS-CoV-2 was obtained through BEI Resources (SARS-Related Coronavirus 2, Isolate USA-WA1/2020, NR-52281 and Isolate hCoV-19/USA/GA-EHC-2811C/2021 [Omicron Variant] NR-56481). Lack of genetic drift of our viral stock was confirmed by deep sequencing. Viral titers were determined by $TCID_{50}$ assays in Vero E6 cells (Reed and Muench method). All experiments using SARS-CoV-2 were performed at the University of Michigan under Biosafety Level 3 (BSL3) protocols in compliance with containment procedures in laboratories approved for use by the University of Michigan Institutional Biosafety Committee and Environment, Health and Safety.

SARS-CoV-2 infection and quantification by immunofluorescence. Cells were seeded at 3,000 cells/well (384-well plate, Perkin-Elmer, 6057300) or 10,000 cells/well (96-well plates, Costar, 3916) and allowed to adhere overnight. Compounds were then added to the cells and incubated for 2 hrs at 37 °C. Plates were then transferred to BSL3 containment and infected with SARS-CoV-2 WA1 or Omicron at a MOI of 1. After 1 h of absorption, the virus inoculum was removed and fresh media with inhibitors was added. Uninfected and vehicle-treated infected cells were included as negative and positive controls, respectively. Plates were then stained as previously described[8] by using anti-nucleocapsid protein (anti-N) SARS-CoV-2 antibody (Antibodies Online; catalog no. ABIN6952432) followed by staining with secondary antibody Alexa-647 (goat anti-mouse; Thermo Fisher; A21235) and DAPI for nuclei staining. Stained

cells were acquired on Thermo Fisher CX5 high-content microscopes with a 20×/0.45 N.A.

LUCPlan FLN objective. Laser autofocus was performed and 9 or 18 fields per well were

imaged covering ∼80% of the well area. Images were analyzed with Cell Profiler software and

percent of infected cells (N-positive) was calculated on the total cell count (i.e., DAPI positive).

SARS-CoV-2 infection and quantification by TCID$_{50}$ assay. 200,000 Huh-7 or Huh-7 knock-

out (KO) cells were seeded in 12-well plates. For the Calu-3, 100,000 cells were seeded in 24-

well plates. The next day or at 80% cell confluency, compounds were added to the cells and

incubated for 2 hrs. Cells were then infected with SARS-CoV-2 WA1 at a MOI of 1 for 1 h at 37

°C Inoculum was removed, cells were washed 3 times with PBS without Magnesium and

Calcium (PBS-/-) and fresh medium was added. Cells were harvested 1 day post infection (dpi)

and lysates were obtained by one cycle of freeze-thaw. SARS-CoV-2 infection was quantified by

TCID$_{50}$ on pre-seeded Vero E6 cells (Reed and Muench method) or by RT-qPCR (IDT

technologies, Charité kit) after RNA extraction with TRI reagent and Direct-Zol RNA miniprep

kit (Zymo Research).

Generation of CRISPR-KO cell lines. Individual guide RNA (gRNA) sequences

(Supplemental Table 1) were cloned into BsmBI-digested lentiCRISPRv2 (Addgene #52961, a

gift from Feng Zhang[9]) and resulting lentiviral stocks prepared as previously described[10]. Huh-7

and Calu-3 cells were transduced with lentiviral stocks at an MOI of ~1, treated 1 day later with

puromycin (3 ug/mL) until death of control uninfected cells was complete, and passaged as

needed to maintain logarithmic phase growth for 2-3 weeks. Cells were then either harvested for

mRNA and protein preparations or infected with SARS-CoV-2 infection as described above.

Western blot. Cells were lysed in RIPA buffer (Pierce, 89900) with PhosSTOP (Roche,

04906845001) and cOmplete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, 11873580001) on

ice. After vortexing to ensure a complete lysis, cells were centrifuged at 4°C, 14,000 × g for 15

min. The supernatant was mixed with β-mercaptoethanol-containing (10%) Laemmli buffer

(Bio-Rad, cat nr. 1610747) at 3:1 ratio and denatured at 90°C for 10 min with a heat block.

Samples were spun down before being loaded in a 4 to 20% Mini-Protean TGX gels (Bio-rad,

number 456-1096). Gels were run at 80 to 100 V for 45 min to 1 h and transferred to Immobilon-

FL transfer membranes (IPFL00010) using semidry transfer at 10 V for 45 min. Membranes

were blocked in 5% bovine serum albumin fat-free milk prepared in PBS containing 0.05%

Tween 20 for a minimum of 2 hrs at room temperature. Membranes were incubated with primary

antibodies (anti-rabbit polyclonal ARF6 antibody, MyBioSource, cat nr. MBS822293 and anti-

mouse β–actin, 8H10D10, Cell Signaling, cat nr. 3700S) at 4°C by rocking overnight. Antibodies

were washed off the membranes with four 15-min rocking periods using fresh changes of PBS.

Secondary antibody incubation was done using fluorescent LI-COR antibodies (goat anti-rabbit

IgG, cat. nr. 926-68071; and goat anti-mouse IgG, cat nr. 926-32210) diluted 1:10,000 in PBS

for 1 hr at room temperature with gentle rocking. Membranes were washed with PBS as before

and visualized using a LI-COR Odyssey Imager.

Viability assay. Huh-7 cells were seeded in a 96-well plate at 10,000 cells/well and allowed to

adhere overnight. The next day, medium was replaced by medium with compounds or vehicle

(DMSO, at the highest concentration used) and resazurin (Biotium, 30025-1) was added

according to the manufacturer´s instruction. One day post treatment (to mimic infection

condition), absorbance (590 nm) was measured with a Synergy™ HTX plate reader.

Attachment/internalization assay. Huh-7 or ARF6-KO cells were plated in 48-well plates at

100,000 cells per well and allowed to adhere overnight. The following day, NAV-2729 was

added at the indicated concentration and incubated for 2 hrs. Following compound incubation,

cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 10 for 1 h at 4 °C to allow for viral binding.

Cells were then washed three times with ice-cold PBS-/- to remove unbound virus, and harvested

in TRI reagent. Another set of treated-infected cells was transferred at 37°C to allow for viral

internalization. One hour after incubation, cells were treated with trypsin to remove bound-not

internalized virus and after centrifugation at 500 x g for 5 min, cells were harvested in TRI

reagent. RNA was extracted by using the Direct-Zol RNA miniprep kit (Zymogen; R2052) and

viral RNA was quantified by RT-qPCR. Proportion of internalized virus was calculated over the

bound virus.

Results

SARS-CoV-2 infection in Huh-7 is resistant to camostat treatment but sensitive to Z-FA-

FMK.

To investigate SARS-CoV-2 endocytosis, we screened a range of cell lines for the antiviral

activity of camostat mesylate, a specific inhibitor of TMPRSS2 (data not shown). Infection

readout was carried out with an imaging-based pipeline by using a SARS-CoV-2 anti-

nucleocapsid (N) antibody to detect infected cells. Interestingly, the human hepatocarcinoma cell

line Huh-7, was completely resistant to the antiviral action of camostat (**Figure 1A**). In contrast,

treatment with the irreversible cysteine protease inhibitor Z-FA-FMK, an inhibitor of the

intracellular protease cathepsin L, resulted in a strong antiviral activity with EC_{50} of 11 nM

(**Figure 1B**)[8]. Representative images are available in **Figure 1C**. These data suggest that SARS-

CoV-2 entry into Huh-7 cells is likely mediated by endocytosis and not membrane fusion.

Therefore, Huh-7 cells represent a model cell line to mechanistically study SARS-CoV-2

endocytic entry.

SARS-CoV-2 uptake into Huh-7 cells is dynamin-independent

A previous report with a lentivirus system in ACE-2 overexpressing 293T cells, suggests that

SARS-CoV-2 endocytosis is dependent on clathrin and dynamin[4]. We therefore determined if

dynamin governs SARS-CoV-2 entry into Huh-7 cells by using dynasore, a specific GTPase

inhibitor of dynamin I, II and Drp1 (the mitochondrial dynamin)[11]. ß-methyl cyclodextrin, a

cholesterol-removing agent that mostly blocks formation of lipid rafts important for endocytosis,

was used as a positive control since ACE2 is present in lipid rafts[12] and SARS-CoV entry is

dependent on cholesterol[13]. Huh-7 cells were pretreated 2 hrs prior to infection with selected

compounds at non-toxic concentrations (**Supplementary figure 1**) and infection with SARS-

CoV-2 was quantified by N protein expression. As expected, treatment with ß-methyl

cyclodextrin blocked viral infection. However, in contrast with previous findings, treatment with

the specific dynamin inhibitor dynasore, revealed a significant increase in the percentage of

infected cells (**Figure 2**). This observation points to a clathrin-independent but cholesterol-

dependent endocytic uptake mechanism of SARS-CoV-2 into Huh-7 cells.

Genetic perturbation of ARF6 results in a reduction of percentage of infected cells but not

of infectious titers.

Dynamin-independent pathways are governed by the Rho GTPase-activating protein 26 (GRAF-

1), flotillin (FLOT-1) or ADP-ribosylation factor 6 (ARF6)[14]. Since ARF6 was recently

described for mediating host cell responses during SARS-CoV-2 infection, we generated two

polyclonal populations of CRISPR-targeted cells with gRNAs specific for ARF6 (c1 and c2).

ARF6 depletion was confirmed by RT-qPCR, whereby the efficacy of knock-down (KO) was

measured as a percentage of mRNA target gene expression compared to the non-targeting guide

(NTg) Huh-7 cell line (for clone 1, c1=39% and c2=56%) and by Western blot (**Supplementary**

figure 2). To test the efficacy of the CRISPR pipeline, ACE2-KO Huh-7 line was generated in

parallel as a control. Cells were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI of 1 and harvested 1 dpi. A

combination of $TCID_{50}$ assay and RT-qPCR were used to quantify viral infection and replication,

respectively (**Figure 3A and 3B**). No significant differences were detected by $TCID_{50}$ between

ARF6 KO and NTg whereas replication was under the limit of detection for the ACE2-KO Huh-

7 cells. To independently validate these findings, an imaging-based readout for SARS-CoV-2

infection was used, since it is usually more sensitive than traditional infectivity assays. The assay

was adjusted to a 1dpi readout by infecting cells with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 10. For ease of

experimentation, only ARF6-KO c1, with lower expression of the target gene was used for this

analysis. Representative images at 1 dpi are shown in **Figure 3C**. Intriguingly, we observed a

significant decrease in the percentage of infected cells in ARF6 KO than the NTg cells,

suggesting that ARF6 might be involved in SARS-CoV-2 entry (**Figure 3C**). Collectively, these

data suggest a role for ARF6 in SARS-CoV-2 infection in Huh-7.

Pharmacologic inhibition of ARF6 blocks SARS-CoV-2 internalization

ARF6 has been the object of extensive studies and specific small molecule inhibitors or agonist

are available commercially. We selected the inhibitor NAV-2729 and the agonist AA147 to test

their effect on SARS-CoV-2 infection. Huh-7 cells were pre-treated with a 1:2 dilution series of

compounds and infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI of 1. NAV-2729 showed a dose-response

inhibition of infection (**Figure 4A**), while AA147-treated cells showed increased infection

(**Figure 4B**), suggesting that ARF6 is a crucial factor for SARS-CoV-2 infection in Huh-7. We

next selected an efficacious non-toxic concentration of NAV-2729 to confirm inhibition by

TCID$_{50}$ (**Supplementary figure 1**). Intriguingly, treatment with NAV-2729 resulted in a 3-Log

reduction in viral infection in the NTg control. Treatment of the ARF6-KO with dynasore did not

result in changes of infection, further corroborating that dynamin is not involved in SARS-CoV-

2 endocytosis in Huh-7 (**Figure 4C**). To determine whether the NAV-2729 inhibitor worked at

the level of viral internalization, an attachment/internalization assay was performed. Briefly,

NTg cells were pre-treated with NAV-2729 and infected with SARS-CoV-2 at the MOI of 10.

ARF6-KO cells were included as a control. One hour post-inoculation on ice, cells were washed

and a set was harvested to quantify the virus attached at the cell surface. The other batch was

incubated at 37°C for 1 hr to allow viral internalization, and after a treatment with trypsin to

remove unbound virus, cells were harvested to quantify the internalized virus by RT-qPCR.

NAV-2729 reduced viral internalization by 75% *versus* the more modest 25% observed in the

ARF6-KO, suggesting that ARF6 is a factor that governs endocytosis in Huh-7.

ARF6 is an important host factor for SARS-CoV-2 infection in more physiological relevant

infection models

Since ARF6 might play a role also in post-entry steps, we used the ARF6 inhibitor NAV-2729 in

other, more physiologic relevant models that are sensitive to camostat: the human renal

organoids and the human lung Calu-3 cell line[15]. In both models, treatment with NAV-2729

resulted in a significant reduction of viral replication (**Figure 5A and 5B**). The nucleoside

inhibitor remdesivir was used as a control. In addition, we performed CRISPR-Cas9 knockout of

ARF6 in Calu-3 cells to confirm that the inhibitory effect of NAV-2729 was ARF6-specific.

Infection with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 1 was less efficient in the Calu3 line transduced with

the ARF6-targeting guide (ARF6) than in Calu-3 cells transduced with a non-targeting RNA

guide (NTg) (**Figure 5B**). The decrease in SARS-CoV-2 infection in Calu3 ARF6-KO cells was

more pronounced than in Huh-7 ARF6 KO cells (compare **Figure 5B** with **Figure 3B**),

suggesting that ARF6 might play additional roles in Calu-3 cells compared to Huh-7. Lastly, to

shed more light on the mechanism by which ARF6 assists SARS-CoV-2 replication in Calu-3

cells, we infected NTg and ARF6 KO Calu-3 cells with SARS-CoV-2 Omicron variant. This

variant has been demonstrated to rely primarily on endocytosis and not on membrane fusion for

entry *in vitro* and *in vivo*[16]. Both virus isolates were pre-treated with trypsin prior to infection.

Under these conditions, infection of NTg Calu-3 cells with SARS-CoV-2 Omicron resulted in

~15-fold higher infection (as measured by % of N-positive cells at 24 hpt) than with the WA1

strain (**Figure 5C**). Infection of ARF6 KO with both strains showed a dramatic reduction

compared to NTg cells, suggesting that ARF6 might play a role in post-entry steps in Calu-3

cells. Overall, these results point to the importance of ARF6 in SARS-CoV-2 infection and to a

putative therapeutic target against coronavirus infection.

Discussion

In this study, we uncovered that ARF6 is a critical player of SARS-CoV-2 infection in cells of

liver, lung and kidney origin. In addition, in Huh7 cells, ARF6 inhibited SARS-CoV-2 uptake

with a mechanism that is further dependent on cholesterol but independent of dynamin and by

extension clathrin-independent. This is consistent with a manuscript that exclude the

involvement of dynamin, clathrin, caveolin and endophilin A2 for entry of SARS-CoV-2[13] and

with the entry pathway identified for SARS-CoV, which is cholesterol-dependent but clathrin-

and caveolin-independent[17]. However, our finding differs from a study demonstrating the

importance of clathrin in SARS-CoV-2 entry[4]. That study was performed with a lentivirus

system in 293T cells and not in the context of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Thus, differences in virus

and/or cell type may alter the endocytic uptake pathway.

Intriguingly, we observed that CRISPR-depleted cells exhibited a less pronounced phenotype as

compared with those treated with the ARF6 specific inhibitor, NAV-2729. This could be due to

several reasons. Because these cells are deficient for a crucial endocytic pathway and because

endocytic pathways are redundant, prolonged passaging of the ARF6-KO cells and the potential

incomplete activity of the guide RNA as indicated by the qPCR data might have led to

compensatory mechanisms and a less uniform phenotype. In contrast, the short-term treatment

with a small molecule inhibitor at non-toxic concentrations does not affect or modify the

physiology of the cell and reduce the impact of compensatory mechanisms and could thus be

more relevant for the study of these redundant endocytic pathways. The data on the lack of effect

of dynasore on ARF6-KO line (**Figure 5C**) further corroborate that in our model dynamin is not

involved in SARS-CoV-2 entry, regardless the penetrance of our CRISPR-KO strategy.

In our investigation, we expanded on the importance of ARF6 also in the context of infection of

other cell types; kidney organoids and Calu3 cells, a model of respiratory epithelial cells. In both

systems, the ARF6 inhibitor, NAV-2729, showed a strong antiviral effect. Since these cell

models support SARS-CoV-2 entry also via membrane fusion[18], these data indicate that ARF6 is

an important host factor also in post-entry steps. We confirmed that the inhibitory effect of

NAV-2729 in Calu3 was via ARF6 by CRISPR-Cas9 KO. ARF6-KO Calu3 exhibited a more

pronounced reduction of infection by both immunofluorescence and $TCID_{50}$ compared to the

ARF6 KO Huh7. This corroborates the hypothesis that in the Calu3 background, ARF6 is an

important host factor in post-entry steps.

It is not known what proportion of SARS-CoV-2 virions is entering via membrane fusion or

endocytosis *in vivo*. SARS-CoV-2 prefers activation by TMPRSS2 but if the target cells express

insufficient TMPRSS2 or if a virus–ACE2 complex does not encounter TMPRSS2, ACE2-bound

virus is internalized via endocytosis[2]. TMPRSS2 is found in the gastrointestinal, respiratory and

urogenital epithelium but not in other extra-mucosal compartments (i.e., heart, liver, kidneys,

brain, spleen and lymph nodes), where virus RNA or antigen is found in severe and deadly cases

of COVID-19, suggesting that entry and replication of SARS-COV-2 in these organs might be

exclusively driven by endocytosis. It is also possible that SARS-CoV-2 entry occurs by plasma

membrane fusion and endocytosis, regardless of the compartment. Therefore, it would be of

interest to use NAV-2729 in a small animal model to investigate the *in vivo* relevance of the

endocytic pathway and its importance in driving severe disease. Altogether, these data highlight

ARF6 as a potential target in the development of therapeutics against COVID-19. Future studies

focusing on ARF6-targeting investigational drugs, such as Linsitinib that has antiviral activity in

a pseudovirus assay[7], could hold promise for the development of additional SARS-CoV-2

therapeutics.

Acknowledgements: We thank Dr. A. Lauring (University of Michigan) for deep sequencing of

the viral stock. The work was in part funded by the University of Michigan Biological Science

Scholars Program to C.E.W. C.M. was supported by the Marie-Skłodowska-Curie Actions action

global fellowship (GA 841247). JZS is supported by the National Institute of Diabetes and

Kidney Diseases (R01DK120623) and National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences

Grant UL1TR002240. J.W.W. is supported by the Pharmacological Sciences Training Program

T32 Training Grant GM007767.

Reference

1   Hoffmann M, Kleine-Weber H, Schroeder S *et al.* SARS-CoV-2 Cell Entry

Depends on ACE2 and TMPRSS2 and Is Blocked by a Clinically Proven Protease

Inhibitor. *Cell* 2020. doi:10.1016/j.cell.2020.02.052.

2   Jackson CB, Farzan M, Chen B, Choe H. Mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 entry into

cells. Nature Reviews Molecular Cell Biology. 2021. doi:10.1038/s41580-021-

00418-x.

3   Mercer J, Schelhaas M, Helenius A. Virus entry by endocytosis. Annual Review of

Biochemistry. 2010; **79**. doi:10.1146/annurev-biochem-060208-104626.

4   Bayati A, Kumar R, Francis V, McPherson PS. SARS-CoV-2 infects cells after

viral entry via clathrin-mediated endocytosis. Journal of Biological Chemistry.

2021; **296**. doi:10.1016/j.jbc.2021.100306.

5   Acker T van, Tavernier J, Peelman F. The small GTPase Arf6: An overview of its

mechanisms of action and of its role in host- pathogen interactions and innate

immunity. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences* 2019; **20**.

doi:10.3390/ijms20092209.

6   Gordon DE, Jang GM, Bouhaddou M *et al.* A SARS-CoV-2-Human Protein-

Protein Interaction Map Reveals Drug Targets and Potential Drug-Repurposing.

bioRxiv 2020. doi:10.1101/2020.03.22.002386.

7   Chen F, Shi Q, Pei F *et al.* A systems-level study reveals host-targeted repurposable

drugs against SARS-CoV-2 infection. *Molecular Systems Biology* 2021; **17**.

doi:10.15252/msb.202110239.

8   Mirabelli C, Wotring JW, Zhang CJ *et al.* Morphological cell profiling of SARS-

CoV-2 infection identifies drug repurposing candidates for COVID-19. *Proc Natl*

Acad Sci U S A 2021; **118**. doi:10.1073/pnas.2105815118.

9   Sanjana NE, Shalem O, Zhang F. Improved vectors and genome-wide libraries for

CRISPR screening. Nature Methods. 2014; **11**. doi:10.1038/nmeth.3047.

10   Emmer BT, Sherman EJ, Lascuna PJ, Graham SE, Willer CJ, Ginsburg D.

Genome-scale CRISPR screening for modifiers of cellular LDL uptake. *PLoS*

Genetics 2021; **17**. doi:10.1371/JOURNAL.PGEN.1009285.

11   Macia E, Ehrlich M, Massol R, Boucrot E, Brunner C, Kirchhausen T. Dynasore, a

Cell-Permeable Inhibitor of Dynamin. *Developmental Cell* 2006; **10**.

doi:10.1016/j.devcel.2006.04.002.

12   Sviridov D, Miller YI, Ballout RA, Remaley AT, Bukrinsky M. Targeting Lipid

Rafts—A Potential Therapy for COVID-19. *Frontiers in Immunology* 2020; **11**.

doi:10.3389/fimmu.2020.574508.

13   Li X, Zhu W, Fan M *et al.* Dependence of SARS-CoV-2 infection on cholesterol-

rich lipid raft and endosomal acidification. *Computational and Structural*

Biotechnology Journal 2021; **19**. doi:10.1016/j.csbj.2021.04.001.

14   Mayor S, Parton RG, Donaldson JG. Clathrin-independent pathways of

endocytosis. *Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology* 2014; **6**.

doi:10.1101/cshperspect.a016758.

15   Shang J, Wan Y, Luo C *et al.* Cell entry mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2. *Proc Natl*

Acad Sci U S A 2020; **117**. doi:10.1073/pnas.2003138117.

16   Pia L, Rowland-Jones S. Omicron entry route. *Nature Reviews Immunology* 2022.

doi:10.1038/s41577-022-00681-9.

17   Wang H, Yang P, Liu K *et al.* SARS coronavirus entry into host cells through a

novel clathrin- and caveolae-independent endocytic pathway. *Cell Research* 2008;

18. doi:10.1038/cr.2008.15.

18   Koch J, Uckeley ZM, Doldan P, Stanifer M, Boulant S, Lozach P. TMPRSS2

expression dictates the entry route used by SARS-CoV-2 to infect host cells. *The*

EMBO Journal 2021; **40**. doi:10.15252/embj.2021107821.

Figure legends

Figure 1: Huh-7 cells are resistant to the antiviral effect of camostat mesylate. A-B) Dose-

response curves of camostat mesylate (A) and the cathepsin B inhibitor Z-FA-FMK (B). Huh-7

cells were pre-treated with compound and infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI of 1 for 1h at

37'C. 48 hpi cells were fixed and permeabilized and stained with anti-N antibody. Cells were

imaged with high content imaging platform CX5 and analyzed with Cell profiler for image

segmentation. The % of infected cells were normalized to the non-treated infected condition.

Graph represents average SD of N=3 independent experiments with n=3 technical replicate,

each. C) Representative images of Huh-7 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 or infected/treated

with Camostat (500 nM) and Z-FA-FMK (500 nM). N protein staining is represented in magenta,

nuclei are in blue.

Figure 2: Screening of inhibitors of the dynamin-dependent entry pathways in Huh-7 cells. Huh-

7 cells were pre-treated with compounds at the indicated concentration and infected with SARS-

CoV-2 at MOI of 1 for 1 h at 37ºC. 24 hpi cells were fixed, permeabilized and stained with anti-

N antibody. Cells were imaged with high content imaging platform CX5 and analyzed with Cell

profiler for image segmentation.

Figure 3: Genetic depletion of ARF6 does not affect viral titers but reduce the percentage of

infected cells A-B) Viral titer determination of SARS-CoV-2-infected NTg, ACE2-KO ARF6-

KO Huh7 clones (MOI of 1) by $TCID_{50}$/ml at 24 and 48 hpi (A) and by RT-qPCR at 24dpi (B).

ACE2-KO was used as a negative control of infection. Viral infectious titer was determined by

$TCID_{50}$ on Vero E6 cells. Dashed line represents the limit of detection of the $TCID_{50}$ assay. C)

Representative images of SARS-CoV-2-infected NTg and KO-Huh7 clones (MOI of 10). N

protein staining is represented in magenta, nuclei are in blue (DAPI). The graph represents the

quantification of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells (MOI of 10) at 24 hpi. Cells were imaged with high

content imaging platform CX5 and analyzed with Cell profiler for image segmentation. The % of

infected cells was normalized to the non-treated infected condition. Graph represents average SD

of N=3 independent experiments with n=3 technical replicate, each.

Figure 4. ARF6 is important during SARS-CoV-2 internalization in Huh-7 cells**.** A-B) NAV-

2729, an ARF6 inhibitor, and AA147, an ARF6 agonist, were used to pre-treat Huh-7 cells in a

384-well plate 2 hrs prior infection with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI of 1). Cells were harvested 48 hpi

and subjected to the imaging pipeline for viral quantification. 1:2 dose response curves were

performed in triplicate with 3 technical replicates, each. C) NTg Huh-7 were pre-treated with

NAV-2927 (10 µM) and ARF6 KO were pre-treated with dynasore (10 µM) for 2 h before

infection with SARS-CoV-2 (MOI of 1). Virus inoculum was removed 1 hpi and cells were

incubated with fresh medium +/- compounds. Cells were harvested 24 hpi and viral titer was

determined by $TCID_{50}$. D) NAV-2729 was used to pre-treat Huh7 cells 2 hrs prior infection with

SARS-CoV-2 (MOI of 10) on ice. NTg and ARF6-KO Huh7 cells were used as a control. 1 h

post infection on ice, cells were washed twice and one set was harvested in TRI reagent. The

second set was incubated at 37´C to allow viral internalization. One hour post incubation, cells

were treated with trypsin to remove bound, non-internalized virus and were harvested in TRI

reagent. Bound and internalized virus was determined by RT-qPCR: Graph shows % of

internalization over the bound fraction. N= 3 biological replicate with at least 2 technical

replicates, each.

Figure 5. ARF6 is critical for SARS-CoV-2 infection in more physiologic relevant cell types. A)

Human kidney organoids were collected and resuspended in maintenance media. Groups of four

organoids were infected with SARS-CoV-2 at MOI of 1. Organoids were washed twice and put

in culture on a matrigel-coated plate for 48 hrs. Cells were then harvested, and virus was

quantified by $TCID_{50.}$ Each dot represents a technical replicate of N=2 biologically independent

experiments. B) Calu-3 cells and Calu-3 transduced with a non-targeting guide (NTg) or ARF6-

targeting guide (ARF6) were seeded in 48-well plate and allowed to reach 80% confluence.

SARS-CoV-2 WA1 was used to infect cells at MOI of 1 for 24 hrs. Cells were then harvested,

and virus was quantified by $TCID_{50}$. Each dot represents a technical replicate. C) Representative

images (left) and quantification (right) of Calu3 transduced with a non-targeting guide (NTg) or

ARF6-targeting guide (ARF6) and infected with MOI of 1 of SARS-CoV-2 WA1 or SARS-

CoV-2 Omicron for 24 hrs. Cells were fixed, permeabilized and stained with anti-N primary

antibody and anti-mouse AF647 secondary antibody (N protein, magenta) and Hoechst (nuclei,

blue). Cells were imaged with the high content imaging platform CX5 and analyzed with Cell

profiler for image segmentation. Each dot represents the average of % of infected cells over 20

fields of image per well. Each dot represents a technical replicate.

Supplementary figure 1: Toxicity assay of selected drugs by Resazurin assay in Huh-7.

Supplementary figure 2: Western blot for ARF6 expression. NTg and ARF6-KO Huh-7 lysates

were obtained from cells seeded overnight in a 6-well plate and analyzed for ARF6 expression

by Western blot. A representative blot of N=3 replicates is shown.

Figure 1

Figure 2

A

Log$_{10}$TCID$_{50}$/ml

NTg ACE2 ARF6 c1 ARF6 c2   NTg ACE2 ARF6 c1 ARF6 c2

B

Log$_{10}$Genome copies/ml

NTg ARF6 c1 ARF6 c2

C

NTg   ACE2   ARF6

% infected cells

NTg ACE2 ARF6

Figure 3

A NAV-2729

B AA147

C

D

Figure 4

Figure 5

Supplementary figure 1: Toxicity of ARF6 in Huh7 cells

ARF6c1   NTg

Actin

ARF6

Supplementary figure 2: ARF6 Western blot