Front Matter

Full Title

Surface crosslinking of virus-like particles increases resistance to

proteases, low pH and mechanical stress for mucosal applications

Short Title

Surface crosslinking of virus-like particles

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Abstract

Virus-like particles (VLPs) are emerging as nano-scaffolds in a variety of biomedical
applications including the delivery of vaccine antigens and therapeutic molecules. These
soft, colloidal, and proteinaceous structures are nevertheless susceptible to environmental
factors such as mechanical stress, proteases and low pH which limit their usefulness,
particularly for mucosal applications. We addressed this issue by crosslinking multiple
surface sites using polyethylene glycol linkers. Surface crosslinking enhanced the colloidal
stability and mechanical strength of VLPs against pH, proteases, and mechanical
stresses. Chemical crosslinking thus offers a viable means to enhance resilience of VLPs
in mucosal applications.

Teaser

Polyethylene glycol crosslinking virus-like particle (VLP) capsids enhanced the stability
and strength of VLPs in mucosal environments.

Keywords

Virus-like particle; Polyethylene glycol; Crosslinking; Force spectroscopy; Human nasal
epithelial tissue; Mucus

Introduction

Virus-like particles (VLPs) have emerged as invaluable nano-carriers in biomedical and
pharmaceutical applications (*1, 2*). Sensitive cargo, for example proteins, nucleic acids,
and drug molecules, can be protected by packaging it inside VLPs. Surface modification
of VLPs, with for example antibodies and other chemicals, can also be used to target the
cargo to specific cell types. Therefore, in recent years, various therapeutic molecules have
been integrated into VLPs for immunotherapy (*3*), gene therapy (*4-6*), chemotherapy (*7-
9*), as well as for contrast imaging and photothermal therapy (*10, 11*).

As carriers, VLPs must endure environmental mechanical, physicochemical and
biochemical challenges and it is likely that their colloidal properties are an important factor
determining their fate (*12*). Key colloidal considerations for "delivery-capable" VLPs
include size, colloidal stability, resistance to enzymatic destabilization and mechanical
disintegration, target specificity, and responsiveness to stimuli for cargo release. It is
important to emphasize these considerations for future developments, as VLPs are
characterized as soft (0.1–1 GPa) and proteinaceous colloidal particles (20–200 nm) with
immunogenic properties (*12, 13*). Particularly on mucosal surfaces, VLP delivery is faced
with challenges associated with the complex physiology of the oral and gastrointestinal
routes (*14-16*). Beyond varying pH that may result in a poor colloidal stability, the high
concentration of luminal enzymes may digest and destabilize the VLPs, and the thick
mucus layer overlaying the epithelium together with mucus flow (e.g., due to mucociliary
clearance) may reduce the efficacy of VLPs on mucosal surfaces.

To this end, there is compelling evidence that viruses, viral vectors, and VLPs plastically
deform and disintegrate under mechanical force (*17-26*), and disintegrate in unfavorable
chemical environments (*27, 28*). For example, we found that VLPs had limited stability in
gastrointestinal fluid, restricting their application at mucosal surfaces (this work). This
raised the question: can crosslinking VLP capsid enhance the various stability profiles of
the VLPs? To address the above question, we employed bifunctional polyethylene glycol
(PEG) polymers of appropriate lengths which can tether (or interlace) surface lysine
groups of individual coat proteins at the level of single VLPs. Crosslinking VLP capsid via
this method was found to enhance the stability and strength profiles of the VLP, opening
the possibility for mucosal applications and therefore increasing its application range as
outlined below.

VLP or viral vector PEGylation, without crosslinking, has been exploited as a means to
enhance biological function, especially with adenovirus vectors (Adv). For example,
PEGylated Adv (PEG molecular weight, MW 5 kDa) protected the vector from neutralizing
antibodies *in vitro*, and increased transgene expression in 'native Adv'-immunized mice
(*29*). Similarly, using PEGylated Adv, a prolonged transgene expression and a reduced
immune activation against the vector were reported in intratracheal as well as intravenous
administrations (i.e., mucosal and systemic routes) in immunized mice (*30, 31*).
Subsequent experiments showed a complex dependence of immune protection (or other
biological functions) on new particle-level immunobiophysical properties attained after
PEGylation (*32-34*). Therefore, for example, conjugation optimization led to reduced anti-
vector serum antibody and persistent transgene expression in a mouse model of lung
cancer (*35*). In addition to Adv and PEG, other polymer conjugation to other VLPs and
plant viruses has been investigated. For example, poly(oligo(ethylene glycol) methyl ether
acrylate) (POEGMEA), poly(norbornene-(oligo(ethylene glycol) ester)) (PNB) and
poly(methacrylamido glucopyranose) (PMAG) (all ~ 10 kDa) were conjugated to the VLP
derived from the bacteriophage Qβ and showed similar effects to PEG in shielding the
VLP from immune recognition (*36, 37*). In other directions, PEG (3.4 kDa) was used to
tether a fluorescent molecule to cowpea mosaic virus (CPMV) for intravital vascular
imaging (*38*), and PEG (0.6 kDa) to tether folic acid to CPMV for targeting of cancer cell
lines (*39*).

Our model VLP is assembled from 180 copies of *Acinetobacter* phage coat protein AP205
(*26*). AP205 VLP is a versatile VLP platform for conjugation of various antigenic molecules
including epitopes from SARS-Cov-2 virus (*26, 40, 41*). The versatility of AP205 VLP is
due to its surface exposed N- and C-termini which were genetically modified to carry and
present antigenic epitopes on the surface of the VLP (*42*). We investigated the effects of
PEG surface crosslinking of AP205 VLP on enzymatic stability, resistance to mechanical
force and mucus penetrability. To explore different modes of crosslinking, the AP205 VLP
was reacted with homobifunctional – leading to crosslinking – and monofunctional PEG
linkers of 0.5–1.4 kDa. We found that PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs, but not simply
PEGylated VLPs, showed enhanced stability profiles against physicochemical, enzymatic,
and mechanical stress. In terms of mucus translocation in *in vitro* 3D human nasal
epithelial tissue with mucociliary clearance, PEG-crosslinking did not limit the translocation
process. We also examined the induction of anti-PEG antibody responses after
subcutaneous injection of PEGylated VLPs (*33, 43, 44*). Consistent with the high

immunogenicity of AP205 VLP (*40, 41*), we found specific serum IgG against PEG. The

PEG surface crosslinking approach can therefore be employed in diverse VLP mucosal

applications by offering a biomedical toolbox that enhances the stability and strength

profiles of VLPs. However, this must be restricted to cases where the immune activation

to PEG can be tolerated, for example when the latter does not exceed the immune

response against the VLP itself or lead to anaphylaxis.

Results

Surface sites crosslinking of native AP205 VLP was performed using PEG crosslinker

molecules. Thereby, homobifunctional PEG linkers were reacted with AP205 VLP

resulting in PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs, named $bPEG_n$-AP205 VLP, where n refers to

the number of PEG monomer units. As control, monofunctional PEG molecules were

conjugated to AP205 VLP resulting in PEGylated but not PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs,

named $mPEG_n$-AP205 VLP. The functional group(s) of the PEG molecules was N-

hydroxysuccinimide (NHS) ester which reacts with lysine residues and N-terminus of

AP205 coat proteins (c.f. **Figure 1**(a)). The sequence of AP205 monomer and the details

of the reactive PEG molecules are presented in **S1**. We note that in the conditions used,

the crosslinking was between AP205 monomers within individual particles, and we did not

observe aggregation between whole particles (**S2**). Transmission electron microscopy

(TEM) showed that the VLPs retained their spherical geometry after the conjugation

reaction with the linker molecules (**S3**). Furthermore, PEGylation did not detectably alter

the size of VLPs for any lengths of PEG crosslinker tested, n = 9–25 (**Fig. S3-1**).

Crosslinking AP205 VLP capsid using polyethylene glycol (PEG) molecules

Investigations   with   mass   spectrometry   and   reducing   SDS-polyacrylamide   gel

electrophoresis (SDS PAGE) revealed that AP205 VLP reaction with homobifunctional

PEG crosslinkers resulted in PEG-crosslinked AP205 dimers, trimers, and possibly higher

oligomers. In the representative SDS PAGE shown in **Figure 1**(b), in the lanes associated

with $bPEG_n$-AP205 VLPs (n = 9 to 25), bands in MW range 37–50 kDa (marked with purple

arrows/circles) correspond to PEG-crosslinked AP205 dimers, and bands in MW range

50–75 kDa (marked with orange arrows/pentagons) correspond to PEG-crosslinked

AP205 trimers. Furthermore, using nano ultra-performance liquid chromatography
coupled to mass spectroscopy, it was found that lysine (K) residues K4 and K61 and K4
and K94 were involved in the crosslinking reaction (**Table S4-7**). In **Figure 1**(c), a
schematic of PEG linkages between individual AP205 monomers near the three-fold axis
of symmetry is shown. Using coordinates from the cryo-electron microscopy
reconstruction of the AP205 VLP (5LQP) in Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) (*42, 45*),
the N-N interatomic distances in K4–K61 linkage were estimated to be 1.8 nm and in K4–
K94 linkage to be 1.6 nm and 2.4 nm. Calculation of end-to-end probability distributions of
PEG_9, PEG_{17} and PEG_{25} linker molecules using the worm-like chain model are also shown
in **Figure 1**(c) (*46*). The calculated extension lengths are consistent with the interatomic
distances. In addition, longer crosslinker molecules extend to longer tethering lengths with
a higher relative probability. Additional details regarding the mass spectroscopy and SDS
PAGE of PEG modified VLPs are found in **S4** and **S5**, respectively. After ensuring an
appropriate reaction stoichiometry (**S2**) and to prevent a large excess of free PEG
molecules (which is important in subsequent experiments), all reactions were carried out
using a 10x molar ratio of crosslinker molecule to AP205 monomer.

Figure 1: Homobifunctional PEG molecules crosslinked individual AP205 coat
proteins. (a) Schematic of AP205 virus-like particle (VLP) and AP205 coat protein (CP)
dimer (*42*). The N-terminus (blue) of one coat protein, the C-terminus (red) of the
neighboring coat protein, together with several lysine residues are marked. (b) Reducing
SDS polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis of native AP205 VLP, PEG-crosslinked $bPEG_n$-
AP205 VLPs (n = 9–25), and PEGylated but not crosslinked $mPEG_n$-AP205 VLPs (n = 12
or 25). M is PageRuler Plus Prestained Protein Ladder. Monomer MW band is marked
with cyan arrows/squares, dimer MW band with purple arrows/circles and trimer MW band

with orange arrows/pentagons. (c) Schematic of AP205 coat proteins arrangement near
the three-fold axis of symmetry and the assignment of PEG-crosslinked lysine residues
K4–K61 and K4–K94 from different AP205 monomers. In the schematic, 3 dimers are
shown with their monomers colored in blue and green. The end-to-end probability
distributions of PEG_n (n = 9, 17 and 25) tethers calculated from an analytical worm-like
chain model (*46*).
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Enhanced colloidal and enzymatic stability of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs

VLPs are potentially interesting scaffolds for the oral or intranasal delivery of biomolecules,

requiring stability in pH-varying environments and in the presence of high concentrations

of proteases (*1, 2, 12*). Therefore, increasing their stability in the complex mucosal

environment is of high translational relevance.

Straightforward buffer experiments using dynamic light scattering (DLS) showed that

native AP205 VLP was stable at pH 7.4 but aggregated at pH 2.0–6.0 (**Fig. S6-1**). PEG-

crosslinking increased the stability of AP205 VLP up to pH ~ 4.0 (**Fig. S6-2**). We then

tested the enzymatic stability of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs in pig and mouse gastric

fluids. In PBS, an incubation time of 2 h (or longer) at 37°C did not affect the stability or

electrophoretic mobility of the VLPs (*26*) (**Figure 2**). In pig gastric fluid, which had a pH of

3.0 and high protease concentration, PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs, namely $bPEG_9$-

AP205 VLP, $bPEG_{17}$-AP205 VLP, and $bPEG_{25}$-AP205 VLP, showed improved stability

after 5 min of incubation (i.e., a band, marked with arrow, remained at the expected MW,

with fewer breakdown products than the unmodified VLP). At the later time points of 30

min, 1 h and 2 h, the intact portion was disintegrated and signs of aggregation

(accumulation of material in the wells of the gel) appeared. Interestingly, the PEGylated

but not crosslinked AP205 VLP, namely $mPEG_{25}$-AP205 VLP, showed a similar behavior

to native AP205 VLP (i.e., it disintegrated in as little as 5 min). This observation indicates

that PEG-crosslinking VLP capsid, but not PEGylation per se, is a viable approach to

overcome the susceptibility of VLPs to colloidal and enzymatic instability.

Figure 2: Enhanced enzymatic stability of PEG-crosslinked VLPs in gastric fluid.
Agarose gel electrophoresis of AP205 VLP, bPEG$_9$-AP205 VLP, bPEG$_{17}$-AP205 VLP,
bPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP and mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP in PBS and in pig gastric fluid (pH 3.0),
respectively on the left and right of the gel. Incubation times varied between 5 min, 30 min,
1 hour and 2 hours at 37°C. Arrows at time point 5 min indicate persistent PEG-crosslinked
AP205 VLPs in gastric fluid. M stands for marker.

The complete data set of the enzymatic stability of PEG-crosslinked VLPs in shown in **S7**.

Thereby, experiments in pig gastric fluid at pH 4.7 corroborated the stabilizing effect of

PEG-crosslinking, but not simple PEGylation, in the presence of proteases. At this pH, the

PEG-crosslinked VLPs were stable at all time points. In pig gastric fluid at pH 5.5, all VLPs

were found to be stable over 1 h of incubation. Incubation in mouse gastric fluid at pH 4.6

presented a similar behavior where the PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs appeared to be

more stable compared to the naked and PEGylated but not crosslinked AP205 VLP.

Enhanced stiffness and strength of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs

Susceptibility to mechanical stress sets a limit on potential applications of VLPs in various

indications. This occurs during interactions with cells, e.g. during endocytosis or antigen

presentation to B cells, or when exposed to mucus or fecal flow (*47-53*). Therefore, we

examined the nanomechanical properties of native and PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs

using atomic force microscopy (AFM) force-indentation spectroscopy.

The schematic of AFM measurements is depicted in **Figure 3**(a) and details are provided

in the methods section. The example shown in **Figure 3**(b) depicts a single representative

AP205 VLP for which the height prior to indentation (H_i) and after indentation (H_f) were

evaluated. Generally, application of a single indentation did not significantly change the

height of the VLP. This is different from repeated indentations which have been shown to

result in virus or VLP disintegration due to fatigue (*17-19, 23-26*). **Figure 3**(c) shows the

heights distributions of AP205 VLP with the respective average values.

The force versus indentation distance ($F - \delta$) curve was used to calculate the stiffness,

and the force versus indentation time ($F - t$) curve to calculate the strain rate. An

example of these curves for the same VLP (**Figure 3**(b)) is shown in **Figure 3**(d). After

physical contact was established between the AFM tip and the VLP, the force increased

due to the resistance of VLP to mechanical deformation. The linear part of the response

was used to calculate the stiffness, $k = dF/d\delta$ and total indentation, $\delta = \Delta F/k$. In the

same range, a linear fit to force versus indentation time curve gave the indentation force

rate $\dot{F} = dF/dt$, which was converted to strain rate via $\gamma = \dot{F}/k\delta$. After an initial linear

response, the VLP yielded at a threshold force.

The histograms of maximal force and maximal indentation (indent.) of AP205 VLP together

with the average values of these parameters are shown in **Figure 3**(e). The physical

significance of these parameters is that at a force (or indentation) higher than the average

maximal force (or indentation), the force response of VLP deviates from a linear behavior.

A non-linear behavior is an indication of plastic deformation. After plastic deformation,

capsid stiffness diminishes as a result of fatigue (*17-19, 23-26*).

The histograms of stiffness and strain rate of AP205 VLP together with the average values

of these parameters are shown in **Figure 3**(f) and (g), respectively. For this VLP, we

previously showed that the standard linear solid model (SLSM, **Figure 3**(h)) interprets the

stiffness as a function of the strain rate (*26*). In particular, we found that at a strain rate <

100 1/s, the overall mechanical response is governed by k_0 . We thereby found a good

agreement between the current evaluation of AP205 stiffness (47±15 pN/nm) with the

previous one (53±23 pN/nm) at low strain rates.

Figure 3: Mechanical properties of AP205 VLP investigated using AFM force-indentation spectroscopy. (a) Schematic of AFM calibration on freshly cleaved mica, and force-indentation spectroscopy of HOPG-immobilized VLPs. Single VLPs were localized using PeakForce tapping imaging (base tapping rate of 1 kHz) prior to force measurements using normal ramp at base approach-retraction rate at 1 Hz. (b) Example of height evaluation for a single AP205 VLP before and after force application. (c) Height distributions of AP205 VLP before and after force measurements. (d) Example of force-indentation distance and force-indentation time curves for AP205 VLP. The linear regime of force-indentation distance response was used to calculate the stiffness. In the same range, a linear fit to force-indentation time response gave the indentation force rate. (e, f and g) Histograms of maximal force and indentation (indent.) (e), stiffness (f) and strain rate (g) of AP205 VLP. Mean ± standard deviation is reported. The number (n) of AP205 VLPs in repeat measurements is indicated. (h) Standard linear solid model (SLSM). At low strain rates, there is no contribution from friction (or rate dependent resistance) to indentation.

Similarly, the mechanical properties of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs, namely $bPEG_9$-

AP205 VLP, $bPEG_{17}$-AP205 VLP, $bPEG_{25}$-AP205 VLP were evaluated, and the results

are shown in **Figure 4**. The initial heights and the heights after a single indentation showed

similarity among the native and PEG-crosslinked VLPs. The distributions of maximal force

and indentation (indent.) for PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs however showed variations

compared to native AP205 VLP. The average maximal force (corresponding to strength)

was found to be higher and accordingly the average maximal indentation lower compared

to native AP205 VLP. The increased (decreased) maximal force (indentation) of PEG-

crosslinked AP205 VLPs indicated reduced susceptibility to mechanical perturbation.

Finally, the average stiffness for these VLPs was also higher by a factor of 1.3–2.0 than

the stiffness of native AP205 VLP at similar range of strain rate.

Figure 4: Enhanced strength and stiffness of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs.
Mechanical properties of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs, namely bPEG$_9$-AP205 VLP, bPEG$_{17}$-AP205 VLP and bPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP, investigated using AFM force-indentation spectroscopy. Distributions of height before and after indentation, maximal force/indentation in linear response regime, and stiffness/strain rate are shown together with mean ± standard deviation. The number (n) of VLPs in repeat measurements is indicated.

Capsid response to indentation is dependent on its size and shell thickness (*54*). We therefore evaluated these geometrical parameters using small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS). In SAXS, the intensity of scattered X-ray, I, is a function of the momentum transfer vector, q. For a spherical core-shell structure in a dilute solution regime, $I(q)$ has an exact analytical solution, which is called the form factor. The X-ray scattering spectra of the native and PEGylated VLPs together with fits to spherical core-shell form

factor are shown in **Figure 5**(a). In each case, we find a good agreement between the

experimental scattering data and the fit, based on the low values for the fitting error (χ^2).

In the summary panel in **Figure 5**(b), it is shown that the diameter (D) and shell thickness

(h) of AP205 VLP increased after PEGylation. In addition, while the VLP diameter

remained somewhat constant after PEGylation, the shell thickness increased with PEG

length and had its highest value for the PEGylated but not crosslinked VLP.

Subsequent to the evaluation of stiffness (from AFM) and diameter and shell thickness

(from SAXS), the elastic modulus was calculated from the relation $E = Dk/2h^2$ and the

results are provided in **Figure 5**(b) (*55, 56*). For AP205 VLP we found an elastic modulus

equal to about 89±31 MPa which is slightly smaller than our previous estimation of this

parameter, equal to 111±28 MPa (*26*). The difference originates mainly from incorporating

a stiffness value in the above relation, equal to 93±23 pN/nm, that was collected at the

high strain rate 10^4 1/s. Therefore, the elastic modulus remained somewhat constant

among the native and PEG-crosslinked VLPs. This observation can be explained as

follows. In nanoindentation experiments, the shell is compressed and bent locally; the shell

compression modulus and bending modulus contribute to the effective elastic modulus E

(*56-58*). Two-end conjugated PEG tethers disfavor bending because it results in chain

stretching, therefore increasing the bending modulus. Reduction in coat protein positive

charges after PEG conjugation reduces the inter-atomic repulsion during compression;

however, it introduces inter-chain steric repulsion, therefore affecting the compression

modulus. These somewhat opposing effects resulted in an unmodulated elastic modulus

~ 90 MPa for the native and PEG-crosslinked VLPs. The higher stiffness of PEG-

crosslinked VLPs compared to native VLP is therefore associated with an increase in the

shell thickness, as well as stretching two-end conjugated PEG tethers that resist extension

in local bending (*59*). The effect of chain stretching becomes evident where the PEGylated

but not crosslinked AP205 VLP, namely mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP, was investigated. This VLP

showed a lower elastic modulus and stiffness compared to its PEG-crosslinked

counterpart, namely bPEG$_{25}$ AP205 VLP (**S8** and **Figure 5**).

Figure 5: Geometrical and mechanical parameters of native and PEGylated AP205 VLPs. (a) Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) spectra of AP205, bPEG$_9$-AP205, bPEG$_{17}$-AP205, bPEG$_{25}$-AP205 and mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLPs, together with fits to spherical core-shell form factor. (b) Summary panel of the geometrical and mechanical properties of the VLPs.

PEG-crosslinking does not restrict mucus translocation of AP205 VLP

A major feature of intestinal and respiratory sites where VLP application is relevant is the production of mucus. Mucus is an adhesive, viscoelastic, porous fluid that is characterized with strong electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions due to mucin glycoproteins, a porosity in the range 100–5000 nm, an elastic modulus 2.5 Pa and viscosity 100 Pa s (*60, 61*). Mucus in the airways epithelium is consistently pushed out via mucociliary clearance (*62, 63*). We investigated the effect of PEG-crosslinking on the translocation of AP205 VLPs across mucus against mucociliary clearance. For this purpose, *in vitro* 3D human monodonor nasal epithelial tissues from Epithelix (MucilAir™) were employed. The tissues

were characterized as having fully differentiated mucus producing goblet cells, ciliated
cells with motile cilia, as well as other cells of normal human nasal epithelial tissue.

The schematic of experiments is shown in **Figure 6**(a). The details of the delivery of
fluorescently labelled VLPs are provided in the methods section. On delivery of VLP
solution from the apical side to the center of the tissue (i.e., position 1 in the schematic),
the solution immediately wetted the entire apical area of the tissue. Delivered VLPs then
translocated through mucus by diffusion or were transported in flowing mucus in the
direction of mucociliary clearance. The lateral distribution and vertical translocation were
monitored using laser scanning confocal microscopy (LSCM). In **Figure 6**(b), a
representative example of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) variation with height
collected in the center, [0, 0] mm, of tissue 3 prior to VLP delivery (VLP-) and after the
delivery of mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP^{GelRed} (VLP+) is shown. In the VLP- case, the location of
maximum MFI was at the height level of the semipermeable membrane which was
assigned to 0 µm. After VLP delivery, the maximum of MFI shifted to a higher height value
(about 40 µm) while the peak associated with semipermeable membrane was still
observable. The MFI vs height spectra were normalized by the MFI values at height = 0
µm. The normalized MFI (norm. MFI) spectra are also shown in **Figure 6**(b). The
normalized MFI spectrum of VLP- was then subtracted from that of VLP+ to give the net
MFI spectrum. The net MFI spectra from the center, [0, 0] mm, together with spectra at
positions [-1, 0] mm, [+1, 0] mm, [0, -1] mm and [0, +1] mm, are shown in **Figure 6**(c).
These spectra provided information about the height location of VLP deposition and the
net value of MFI at those deposition heights, which corresponded to the translocated
amount of VLPs. Using this procedure, we quantified the VLP translocation from 3 different
subjects.

The deposition height and the translocated amount of native and PEG-crosslinked AP205
VLPs on tissue 3 are shown in **Figure 6**(d) and (e). A similar deposition height between
these VLPs was expected as tissues from the same donor were used. With tissues 1 and
2, the deposition heights were respectively 30 µm and 60 µm, and again remained
somewhat consistent between the different VLPs (**S9**). Furthermore, as shown in **Figure
6**(e), similar translocated amounts between the native and PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs
were obtained on tissue 3. This observation indicated that PEG-crosslinking did not restrict
nor increased VLP translocation through mucus. The translocation amount was also
somewhat similar between the VLPs delivered to tissues 1 and 2 (**S9**).

We then investigated the translocation behavior of PEGylated but not crosslinked AP205

VLP, namely mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP^{GelRed}, on tissue 3. We found that mPEG$_{25}$-AP205

VLP^{GelRed} showed a similar deposition height to native and PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs

(about 40 μm, **Figure 6**(d)), however it had an increased translocation amount which

exceeded native AP205 VLP by two folds (**Figure 6**(e)). Particularly as compared to

bPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP, this result indicated a higher mucus permeability of the mPEG$_{25}$-

AP205 VLP construct. A potential explanation is an effective steric hinderance interactions

with mucin glycoproteins from one-end conjugated PEGs. This explanation is consistent

with previous reports (*64-66*).

Figure 6: Translocation through mucus of AP205 VLPs in *in vitro* 3D human nasal epithelial tissues. (a) Schematic of *in vitro* nasal epithelial tissue and delivery of fluorescently-labelled virus-like particles (VLPs) from the apical side. Using laser scanning confocal microscopy (objective lens 10x, N.A. 0.3), the lateral distribution and vertical translocation through mucus of VLPs were monitored at several position 1: [0, 0] mm, 2: [-1, 0] mm, 3: [+1, 0] mm, 4: [0, -1] mm and 5: [0, +1] mm. (b) Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) and normalized MFI (norm. MFI) variation with height collected in the center of tissue 3. MFI and norm. MFI spectra prior to VLP delivery, VLP-, and after the delivery of mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP^{GelRed}, VLP+, are shown. The height of semipermeable membrane is set to 0 μm. (c) Subtracted (or net) MFI spectra on five positions showing the height location of VLP deposition and the net MFI. (d, e) The deposition height (d) and the net MFI corresponding to the translocated amount of VLPs (c) of native and PEGylated VLPs on tissue 3.

We then investigated the effect of outward-swirling mucociliary clearance on the
deposition of VLPs across the tissue (*67*). In **Figure 7**, 5 µl of mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP[GelRed]
solution was delivered to the center of tissue 3 in normal tissue condition or when the
tissue was treated with trans-cinnamaldehyde in the basal channel. Trans-
cinnamaldehyde stopped the cilia from beating throughout the measurements (*68*).
Analysis of the lateral distribution of deposited VLPs across the tissue (positions 1 to 6)
under normal conditions (**Figure 7**(a)) showed that a noticeable portion of VLP was
cleared to the edge of the plastic insert in flowing mucus while a portion translocated
similar to the observations already discussed in **Figure 6**. The lateral distribution of
deposited VLPs was more uniform across the tissue when ciliary beating was stopped
(**Figure 7**(b)). Additional examples of the deposited VLP distribution when ciliary beating
was inhibited are shown in **SI 9**.

Figure 7: Effect of mucociliary clearance on translocation of VLPs across mucus.
(a) Delivery of mPEG$_{25}$-AP205 VLP[GelRed] to tissue 3. (b) Delivery of mPEG$_{25}$-AP205
VLP[GelRed] to trans-cinnamaldehyde-treated tissue 3. The yellow box denotes the area of

mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) calculation and blue circle the height location of VLP
deposition. In these figures, height starts from above the air-liquid interface (ALI) and
increases in the direction of cell layer to below the semipermeable membrane. The height
of the semipermeable membrane is approximatively 250 µm. The individual confocal
images on lateral positions 1 to 6 were taken at a fixed height distance from the
semipermeable membrane.
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Immune activation in mouse model

Recent literature points towards a growing consensus on abandoning PEG in biomedical

applications due to concerns associated with PEG immunogenicity. However, the lack of

an alternative "non-immunogenic" polymer, which bestows the beneficial properties of

PEG, still positions this macromolecule at high regards in pharmacy and medicine (*43, 69-*

73). For instance, PEG played an important role in mitigating SARS-Cov-2 pandemic by

enhancing the colloidal stability of lipid nanoparticle mRNA vaccines BNT162b2 (Pfizer

and BioNTech) and mRNA-1273 (Moderna). In addition, FDA guidelines of 2014

recommend screening for anti-PEG antibodies (*74*).

We investigated antibody induction against AP205 coat protein and the PEG component

of PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs in a vaccination model using C57BL/6J specific

pathogen free (SPF) mice. Accordingly, subcutaneous injections of VLPs without

additional adjuvant were performed on Day 0 and 10. The mice were sacrificed on Day 20

and anti-AP205 and anti-PEG serum IgG titers detected using enzyme-linked

immunosorbent assay (ELISA). The serum antibody titers against AP205 coat protein are

shown in **Figure 8**(a). As expected (*40, 41*), native AP205 VLP was immunogenic, and

we easily detected specific serum IgG antibodies against AP205 coat protein. Surprisingly,

we found that PEGylation increased the anti-AP205 IgG response titers, regardless of

crosslinking. Therefore, PEGylation (0.5–1.4 kDa) of AP205 VLP did not shield immune

activation against the coat protein; rather, specific antibody induction was increased. This

result could be interpreted in terms of an enhanced stability profile of AP205 VLP after

PEG-crosslinking. Antibody induction against the PEG coating was also investigated.

Consistent with the strong adjuvanticity of VLPs (*75*), the anti-PEG ELISA in **Figure 8**(b)

showed that the injection of PEGylated AP205 VLPs, compared to the negative control,

i.e., native AP205 VLP, resulted in anti-PEG IgG induction. Furthermore, the anti-PEG IgG

titers seemed to increase with the size of two-end conjugated PEG crosslinker, i.e., to be

higher in the order $bPEG_9$-AP205 VLP < $bPEG_{17}$-AP205 VLP < $bPEG_{25}$-AP205 VLP.

Figure 8: Immune activation by PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs. C57BL/6J SPF mice were subcutaneously injected with native (n = 7), PEG-crosslinked (n = 13), or PEGylated but not crosslinked (n = 3) AP205 VLPs on Day 0 and Day 10 and sacrificed on Day 20. Serum antibody (IgG) titers against (a) AP205 coat protein, and (b) PEG was measured by ELISA. Statistical significance was determined by ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test, with a single pooled variance on log-normalized data (*P = 0.0332; ***P = 0.0021; ***P = 0.0002).

Discussion

VLPs have similar physical characteristics to their viruses of origin, e.g., a size in the range

20–200 nm, a proteinaceous core-shell structure, a patterned architecture, and target

specificity (*12*). Their structural properties are also similar to viruses, except for a few

mutations, additions, or deletions in coat protein sequence (*76, 77*). Therefore, as viruses

are effective only in their natural environments, it is expected that different VLPs are also

effective in certain, but not all, environments. In fact, all VLPs are prone to aggregation,

disintegration, and surface adsorption and sticking, which render them non-functional (*78*).

Enhancing the stability of VLPs thus seems justified in future developments of VLP

nanotechnology.

We investigated surface crosslinking of VLP capsid using PEG tethers as a means to
achieve the latter. PEG is characterized as a biocompatible, non-toxic, hydrophilic, and
stable macromolecule which upon conjugation to a particle bestows characteristics such
as enhanced solubility and stability, stealth from corona forming proteins and reduced
clearance. In fact, we found that PEG-crosslinking AP205 VLP capsid increased the
colloidal stability of the VLP at low pH (**S6**). In particular, while DLS showed aggregation
of native VLP in solution at pH 6.0, the PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLP solutions were stable
up to pH 4.0. Furthermore, the PEG-crosslinked VLPs were better protected against
proteases. Specifically, while the native AP205 VLP disintegrated somewhat quickly (less
than 5 min) in pig gastric fluid at pH 3.0 and 4.7, the PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs
presented a longer lifetime at the same pH values (**Figure 2** and **S7**).

Susceptibility of VLPs to mechanical stress is a limiting factor to their stability. Using AFM
force tracing, single immunoglobulin (Ig) tension sensor, and single DNA tension sensor,
the endocytosis "pulling" force exerted by a cell onto a virus was measured to vary in the
range of a few to hundreds of pN (*47-51*) and the force used by B cell to extract antigens
to be in the range of a few tens of pN (*52*). Using magnetic particles, an effective force
generated by beating cilia was also estimated to be about 62 pN (*53*). Although these *in*
vivo forces are generally below the yield force values of VLPs and virus capsids, when
applied repeatedly as they do *in vivo*, they can plastically deform or disintegrate the
capsids due to fatigue (*17-19, 23-26*). It is therefore logical to mechanically reinforce VLPs
in order to enhance their stability, and thereby their functionality range. PEG-crosslinking
increased the stiffness and strength of AP205 VLP; however, the elastic modulus
remained the same (**Figure 3** to **Figure 5**). Surface crosslinking of VLPs using PEG
tethers thus offers a viable tool to overcome the mechanical susceptibility limitation of
VLPs.

A major application of VLPs, namely delivery of antigens and drug molecules on mucosal
surfaces, is faced with physiological challenges, amongst which is translocation through
a thick mucus layer covering the epithelium. Particularly in the airways, the mucus layer
is subject to mucociliary clearance which further reduces VLP translocation by pushing
VLP laden mucus out of the airways (*62*). To mimic these challenges, we investigated the
translocation through mucus of native and PEG-modified AP205 VLPs in *in vitro* 3D
human nasal epithelial tissues with motile cilia resulting in mucociliary clearance.
Experiments showed an effective translocation of native AP205 VLP through mucus and

deposition on the epithelium against mucociliary clearance, which transported mucus in

swirling rotation to the edges of the tissue (*67*) (**Figure 6**). Since on these tissue mucus is

transported at a high speed, reaching 200 µm/s at 3 mm from the tissue center (*67*), or

else estimated at 40 µm/s at 1 mm from the center (*79*), a noticeable portion of AP205

VLP accumulated on tissue edges (**Figure 7**). Nevertheless, the results showed that the

diffusion of native AP205 VLP was effective against mucociliary clearance (*80-83*).

Although PEGylation had been shown to enhance the diffusion of synthetic nanoparticles

(~ 100 nm) in mucus by minimizing adhesive interactions with mucin glycoproteins (*64,*

65), the same effect had not been investigated with VLPs. An examination is required for

several reasons: (1) PEG coverage on VLPs is much less than the coverage on synthetic

nanoparticles due to scarcity of reactive sites, and (2) PEGylation may oppositely increase

the surface interaction forces with mucin glycoproteins by stealthing coat protein surface

regions that created a mild interaction, or entangling mucin glycoproteins. Therefore, we

examined if PEG-crosslinking may restrict the mucus penetrability of AP205 VLPs.

Experiments showed that similar to AP205 VLP one portion of VLPs translocated through

mucus while the other portion cleared to the edges via mucociliary clearance. Therefore,

PEG-crosslinking did not inhibit the VLPs diffusion in mucus. Additional experiments

showed that the translocated portion increased when the VLP was PEGylated but not

crosslinked, as well as when mucociliary clearance was inhibited. Altogether, PEGylation

is found to be effective in bestowing mucus penetrability to VLPs and may enhance the

latter when the coverage is increased, for example with CPMV and AdV which have a

higher number of surface reactive sites compared to AP205 VLP.

These discussions raise the question, is mucus a poor barrier to VLPs, particularly those

of the size range below about 100 nm, including AP205 VLP (27.6 nm, this work), and

VLPs of human papilloma virus and Norwalk virus (respectively, 55 nm and 38 nm, (*80*))?

Considering viruses that infect mucosal surfaces, including polio (28 nm), hepatitis B (43

nm), adenoviruses (60–90 nm), rotavirus (75 nm), human immunodeficiency virus (120

nm) and herpes simplex virus (180 nm) (*83*), one may conclude that viruses of small

enough size are capable of deeply penetrating the mucus. This is expected when the pore

size of mucus gel (100–5000 nm) exceeds the size of these viruses. Penetration is

additionally facilitated by the patchy surface charge distribution on virus surface (*80, 83*).

As already discussed, surface conjugation with polymers introduces new interactions

(e.g., electrostatic, and hydrophobic) with mucus which may affect the fate of the modified

VLPs in mucosal applications. For example, a single mutation in adeno-associated virus

(AAV) serotype 6 was found to increase the diffusion rate in mucus compared to AAV1.

We found that surface conjugation of PEG with MW 0.5–1.4 kDa did not change VLP size

and did not interfere with the penetration behavior of the VLPs in mucus (**Figure 5** and

Figure 6).

Finally, our results show that the colloidal properties of VLPs are relevant variables that

should be further investigated in mucosal applications. As schematically shown in **Figure**

9, after mucosal delivery, the population of VLPs reaching the epithelial cell layer

increases when the rates of protease destabilization, pH-induced aggregation, and

mechanical disintegration are reduced, and when the diffusion rate in flowing mucus is

increased. PEG-crosslinking of multiple surface sites is therefore a promising approach to

improve and extend the range of VLP mucosal functions. PEG immunogenicity is certainly

a limiting factor. However, since VLPs are inherently immunogenic, the overall enhanced

functionality, strength and stability may overcome the PEG-immunogenicity concern.

Figure 9: Fate of delivered VLPs in mucosal applications. Effective VLPs, i.e., those
reaching the underlying epithelium, remain stable against stresses that lead to
aggregation (e.g., by pH), destabilization (e.g., by proteases), and disintegration (e.g., by
mechanical stress) and show high mucus penetrability (against e.g., mucociliary
clearance).

Materials and Methods

Experimental Design

Surface crosslinking of virus-like particle (VLP) capsids using polyethylene glycol (PEG)
tethers was investigated against physiological challenges to assess its performance on
mucosal surfaces. The model native VLP was derived from the coat protein of
Acinetobacter phage, namely AP205 VLP. PEG tethers included two-end functional PEG
molecules of various molecular weights. The PEG-crosslinked AP205 VLPs were initially
evaluated in terms of the reaction products and the sites of PEG conjugation to reactive
surface sites (using a combination of dynamic light scattering, transmission electron
microscopy, reducing SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, electrospray ionization
mass spectroscopy and nano ultra-performance liquid chromatography-MS) and then
investigated for the aggregation behavior against pH (using dynamic light scattering),
disintegration against digestive enzymes from pig and mouse gastric fluid (using agarose
gel electrophoresis), resistance to mechanical force (using atomic force microscopy), and
penetration in mucus in the presence of motile cilia and mucociliary clearance (using *in*
vitro 3D human nasal tissues).

Production of AP205 VLP

The biosynthesis of AP205 VLP is reported in details in our previous study (*26*). Briefly, it
includes the expression of recombinant AP205 coat proteins in bacterial cytoplasm which
then self-assemble into AP205 VLPs. After the expression of VLP, a series of steps
consisting of bacterial lysis, digestion of RNA and DNA contaminants, and extraction of
lipids were performed prior to precipitation and dialysis against PBS to produce purified
AP205 VLPs. Plasmids were generated by custom DNA synthesis (Twist Bioscience, San
Francisco, CA, USA) of the expression cassettes and cloning into the pRSFDuet-1
(Novagen) backbone between the PfoI and BshTI restriction sites. Sequences of the
plasmids   are   available   via   the   ETH-Zürich   research   collection   at
https://doi.org/10.3929/ethz-b-000556182. The sequence of AP205 monomer and the
description of plasmid are reported in **S1**.

PEGylation of AP205 VLP

The functional group on the extremities of homobifunctional PEG crosslinker molecules
($bPEG_n$, n = 5 to 25) and on one extremity of monofunctional PEG molecules ($mPEG_n$, n
= 12 and 25) was NHS-ester which is reactive to primary amine of lysine residues and N-
terminus of AP205 coat proteins. Reactions with native AP205 VLP proceeded at 1–100x
molar   ratio   of   crosslinker   molecule   to   AP205   monomer   (

molar ratio = [functional molecule]/[AP205 CP]). The PEG molecule was dissolved in

anhydrous and molecular sieves dried dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma-Aldrich) to a

concentration of 100 mM. An appropriate amount was then added to AP205 VLP

suspension at 4 mg/ml in PBS. The reaction was left for 24 h at 4°C. Then after, it was

quenched by adding Tris•HCl (Trizma® base, Sigma-Aldrich, and hydrochloric acid 37%,

VWR) at 20–50 mM and incubating for 15 min. Unreacted PEG molecules and Tris were

removed using Zeba Spin Desalting Column (ThermoFisher) with molecular weight cut-off

at 7 kDa. Other reactive molecules including BS³ and Sulfo-NHS were used similarly;

however, they were initially dissolved to 100 mM in PBS. A summary of the physical

properties of these molecules is provided in **S1**.

Fluorescent staining of VLPs

We defined a mixing ratio $x = \text{mass of stain}/\text{mass of VLP} = 10^{-2}$, and a final stained VLP

concentration equal to 5.3 mg/ml. (To calculate the mass of stain, we assumed 10,000x

to correspond to 10 mg/ml.) GelRed® (10,000x in water, biotium) or SYBRGold™ (10,000x

in DMSO) were used and staining proceeded for 30 min. To remove unbound dye, the

solution of stained VLP was buffer exchanged with pure PBS using Zeba™ Spin Desalting

Columns (7,000 MWCO, ThermoFisher). We note that since the columns contained

sodium azide, it was important to buffer the column with pure PBS prior to cleaning the

stained VLP solution. The stained VLP solution was finally filtered using 0.2 μm centrifuge

filters (Corning® Costar® Spin-X® centrifuge tube filters) to remove possible aggregates.

The intensity of stained VLPs was monitored over time using laser scanning confocal

microscopy and showed no noticeable reduction over a course of at least two weeks.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

4 μl VLP solution (0.1 mg/ml) was deposited on glow-discharged (45 sec, 25 mA, negative

charge) carbon-coated grids (Ted Pella) for 1-5 min, after which the excess liquid was

removed using filter paper. Then the grid was rinsed with 5 μl of PBS to remove loosely

bound VLPs. Subsequently, 3 μl of 2% uranyl acetate was applied and immediately

removed with filter paper prior to a second treatment with 3 μl of 2% uranyl acetate for 20

sec. Excess liquid was again collected using filter paper and the grid was let dry at room

temperature (RT). Data acquisition was performed using a Morgani transmission electron

microscope operating at 100 kV acceleration voltage.

Electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI-MS)

ESI-MS was acquired on a Synapt G2-Si quadrupole time-of-flight spectrometer (Waters,

UK) with a capillary voltage of 3 V, a cone voltage of 50 V and a source temperature of

100°C. VLPs at a concentration of 1 mg/ml were reduced by dithiothreitol (DTT) at a final

concentration of 50 mM. The reduction was performed for 1 h at RT and at pH 8. The

samples were acidified with 1% formic acid (Thermo, USA), desalted using C4 Zip Tips

(Millipore, USA) and analyzed in methanol:2-propanol:0.2 % formic acid (30:20:50). The

solutions were infused through a fused silica capillary (ID 75 μm) at a flow rate of 1 μl/min

and sprayed through Pico Tips (ID 30 μm). The last were obtained from New Objective

(Woburn, MA, USA). Recorded m/z data were deconvoluted using the MaxEnt1 software

(Waters, UK) with a resolution of the output mass of 0.5 Da per channel and a Uniform

Gaussian Damage Model at the half-height of 0.5 Da.

Nano ultra-performance liquid chromatography-MS (nanoUPLC-MS/MS)

NanoUPLC-MS/MS was acquired on Thermo FUSION mass spectrometer (Thermo,

Germany) coupled to a nano-M-class UPLC system (Waters). $BPEG_9$-AP205 VLP at a

concentration of 1 mg/ml was digested by incubating 3 μl of the sample with 42 μl of 25

mM ammonium bicarbonate (pH 8.5) and 1 μl of TCEP (100 mM) for 1 h at 37°C. Reduced

protein was incubated with 2 μl chloroacetamide (500 mM) for 1 h at 37°C. Then after, 5

μl trypsin (0.1 μg/μl in 10 mM HCl) was added and the solution further incubated overnight

at 37°C. When needed the pH was adjusted to pH 8. At the end of this procedure, the

sample was dried using SpeedVac. Digested and dried sample was dissolved in 20 μl

ddH_2O with 0.1% formic acid and diluted 5 times before transferring to autosampler vials.

Peptides were resuspended in 2.5% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid and loaded onto a

nanoEase M/Z Symmetry C18 (75 μm × 20 mm, 100 Å, 3 μm particle size) and separated

on a nanoEase M/Z HSS C18 T3 (75 μm × 150 mm, 130 Å, 1.7 μm particle size) at a

constant flow rate of 300 nl/min, with a column temperature of 50°C and a linear gradient

of 2−32% acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid in 79 min, and then 32-45% acetonitrile/0.1%

formic acid in 10 min, followed by a sharp increase to 98% acetonitrile in 2 min and then

held isocratically for another 10 min. Mass spectrometer was operated under data-

dependent acquisition (DDA), one scan cycle comprised of a full scan MS survey

spectrum, followed by up to 12 sequential HCD MS/MS on the most intense signals above

a threshold of 1e4. Full-scan MS spectra (600–2000 m/z) were acquired in the FT-Orbitrap

at a resolution of 70,000 at 400 m/z, while HCD MS/MS spectra were recorded in the FT-

Orbitrap at a resolution of 35,000 at 400 m/z. HCD was performed with a target value of

1e5 and normalization collision energy 25 (units?) was applied. AGC target values were

5e5 for full FTMS. For all experiments, dynamic exclusion was used with a single repeat

count, 15 s repeat duration, and 30 s exclusion duration. The acquired MS data were

processed for identification using the Byonic search engine (PMI). The spectra were

searched against AP205 VLP sequence and AP205 VLP sequence with E. *Coli* database.

The following modifications were included: (a) variable modifications, namely oxidation at

N-terminus methionine and carbamidomethylation (C), and (b) user-defined modifications,

namely 478.2565 ($C_{22}O_{11}H_{38}$) was set for PEG_9-crosslinked peptides and 496.2565

($C_{22}O_{12}H_{40}$) for one-end PEG_9 conjugation at a lysine residue or N-Terminus. In this

analysis, the raw data were analysed by two software, PMI Byonic search engine and SIM

1.5.5.3 (Spectrum identification machine) (*84*). In addition, two fasta database with and

without starting methionine was used to confirm the N-terminus.

SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

Denaturing and reducing SDS-PAGE was carried out in 13% Tricine gels. Samples of 3

µg of VLP were denatured and reduced in Laemmli sample buffer at 95°C for 5 min prior

to electrophoresis. Proteins were visualized by Coomassie staining.

Dynamic light scattering (DLS)

DLS was performed at a fixed angle of 173° by averaging 3 runs of 30-s long each using

Zetasizer Nano (Malvern Panalytical). The time correlation function of scattered intensity

was analyzed by the cumulant as well as CONTIN methods. The VLP concentration was

initially adjusted to 0.1 mg/ml in filtered PBS prior to measurements.

Gastric fluid collection

Pig gastric content was collected from the stomach of conventionally reared, outbred pigs

with different genetic contributions of French-Swiss Landrace and Swiss Large White.

Total gastric content was collected. Mouse gastric content was obtained by collecting total

stomach content from several specific opportunistic pathogen-free (SPF) C57BL/6J WT

mice. The gastric content from several mice was pooled to have sufficient volume. Pig or

mouse gastric content was centrifuged for 5 min at 16000 rpm to separate the non-

digested food particles. After the collection of supernatant (gastric fluid), it was filtered

using 0.22 µm sterile filter and the pH measured using a laboratory pH-meter.

Agarose gel electrophoresis

VLPs from 1 mg/ml preparation were diluted 1:10 in pig or mouse gastric fluid and

incubated for 5 min, 30 min, 1 h and 1.5 or 2 h at 37°C. After each incubation, the samples

were immediately placed on ice. Native agarose gel electrophoresis of PBS- or gastric

fluid-treated VLPs was carried out in 0.6% agarose in TAE buffer (40 mM Tris, 0.1% acetic

acid, 1 mM EDTA) with 0.5 µg/ml of ethidium bromide for visualization. Samples of 5 µg

VLP were electrophoresed at 120 Volts for 1 h, then imaged on a UV transilluminator.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

The schematic of AFM measurements is shown in **Figure 3**(a). After an initial calibration,

which included also the calibration of PeakForce tapping mode, on freshly cleaved mica,

the tip was brought in proximity to VLPs immobilized at a concentration of 5 µg/ml on

Highly Oriented Pyrolytic Graphite (HOPG, Ted Pella, Inc.) The calibrated parameters

included stiffness (59.4–82.0 pN/nm) using thermal method and optical lever sensitivity

using cantilever–mica contact region (*85*), and drive3 amplitude sensitivity. During the

transport of cantilever from mica to HOPG, the cantilever remained wet, and the laser spot

was checked to remain on the same spot. The calibration values were re-measured on

mica at the end of the measurements to detect any noticeable variation to the calibrated

parameters. Single VLPs were localized on HOPG by imaging in PeakForce tapping mode

(peak force 50 pN, tapping frequency 1 kHz, amplitude 30 nm). Generally, images of

individual VLPs were acquired at a scan rate of 0.7 Hz with 200×200 or 500×500 nm^2 scan

size and a resolution of 64 points per line, leading to a pixel size of 3 nm. After localization,

we used "Point & Shoot" function (NanoScope, Bruker) to place the AFM tip on the apex

of selected VLPs before applying indentation using Ramp mode. The VLPs were indented

up to a threshold force value of 400 pN at a preset frequency of 1 Hz, which resulted in an

indentation force rate of about (4–9)×10^3 pN/s. Indented particles were imaged again in

PeakForce tapping to detect signs of degradation, drift, or displacement due to tip lateral

forces. The height of individual VLPs before (H_i) and after (H_f) indentation were

calculated by placing a trace line over the particles on images previously flattened using

Gwyddion 2.47 (*86*). For stiffness evaluation, we proceeded as follows: deflection versus

piezo displacement was converted to force versus tip separation using protocols written

in Igor Pro (Wavemetrics). Fit to force versus indentation distance ($F - \delta$) curve in the

linear response part of the tip–VLP contact region gave the stiffness ($k = dF/d\delta$) and the

indentation ($\delta = \Delta F/k$). The fit was performed in the force range $50\,\mathrm{pN} \leq F \leq 250\,\mathrm{pN}$, and

only those VLPs with indentation range $2.0 \leq \delta \leq 6.0\,\mathrm{nm}$ were selected for averaging. Only

one indentation per VLP was used for the evaluations. The indentation force rate ($\dot{F}$) was

calculated from a linear fit to the force versus indentation time ($F - t$) curve in the same

region were the stiffness of VLP was calculated. Strain rate was then calculated from the

relation $\dot{\gamma} = \dot{F}/k\delta$. Average stiffness was calculated from at least duplicate independent

VLP preparations. UV-ozone (Novascan) cleaned AC40 BioLever Mini cantilevers

(Bruker) were used. Dimension FastScan (Bruker) was used for imaging and force

spectroscopy.

Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS)

We used a Xeuss 2.0 (Xenocs, France) instrument with a microfocused X-ray source at

the Laboratory Léon Brillouin (LLB NIMBE CEA Saclay). The Cu Kα radiation ($\lambda_{Cu\ K\alpha}$ =

1.5418 Å), and the data were collected by a 2D Pilatus 1 M detector (Dectris, Switzerland).

The scattering vector $q = 4\pi/\lambda \sin(\theta/2)$, with θ being the scattering angle was calibrated

using silver behenate. Data were collected and azimuthally averaged to produce

unidimensional intensity versus q, with q interval of 0.005 to 0.1 Å^{-1}. The measurements

were performed at 25°C. The scattering intensity was collected for 2600 s. The intensity

was corrected for sample thickness, transmission, and acquisition time. The modelling of

the integrated data was performed with a core-shell form factor, and a hard sphere

structure factor, when needed, using the SasView software.

In vitro **3D human nasal epithelial tissue**

In vitro human nasal epithelial tissues from single donors (MucilAir™) were obtained from

Epithelix (Switzerland). The tissues were maintained according to company's protocols

and included tissue 1 from a Caucasian 64-year-old female subject (MD0860), tissue 2

from a Caucasian 46-year-old male subject (MD0871) and tissue 3 from a Caucasian 38-

year-old male subject (MD0774). The subjects were non-smokers and had no history of

respiratory pathology.

Inhibition of mucociliary clearance

Ciliary beating was inhibited using trans-cinnamaldehyde (97%, C80687, Sigma-Aldrich).

Trans-cinnamaldehyde was dissolved in MucilAir™ culture medium to a concentration of

30 mM. To improve solubility, freshly prepared solution was sonicated for 15 min and the

solution was kept at 37°C prior to filling the basal channel of MucilAir™ monodonor nasal

epithelial tissue. After 20 min of incubation, the ciliary beating stopped, and no recovery
was observed for up to 2 h.

Delivery of VLPs to *in vitro* 3D human nasal epithelial tissue

Tissues were incubated in a humidified-CO_2 chamber at 37°C. After a period of
equilibration 0.5–1 h, 5 µl of VLP solution (5.3 mg/ml) was delivered from the apical side.
The delivery was onto the center of the tissue.

Laser scanning confocal microscopy (LSCM)

Lateral distribution and vertical translocation of fluorescently labelled VLPs through mucus
were then monitored using laser scanning confocal microscopy (LSCM, Leica SP5
confocal microscope). We used a 10x objective lens with N.A. 0.3. Excitation wavelength
$\lambda_{ex} = 488\,\text{nm}$ was used for SYBRGold^{TM}- stained VLPs and Salmonella vaccine with
detection wavelength $\lambda_{em} = 500 - 590\,\text{nm}$. $\lambda_{ex} = 514\,\text{nm}$ was used for GelRed®-stained
VLPs with $\lambda_{em} = 550 - 650\,\text{nm}$. The channel spectral detection was set to HyD (Gain equal
to 100). The mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) variation with height was collected in the
center [0, 0] mm, and on positions [-1, 0] mm, [+1, 0] mm, [0, -1] mm and [0, +1] mm prior
to, during and after VLP delivery. Leica LAS AF software was used for saving the images.
Analysis was performed using ImageJ.

Mice
All animal experiments were performed in accordance with Swiss Federal regulations
approved by the Commission for Animal Experimentation of the Kanton Zurich (license
ZH009/2021, Kantonales Veterinäramt Zürich, Switzerland). SPF C57BL/6J WT mice
were used in all experiments. Mice were bred and housed in individually ventilated cages
with a 12 h light/dark cycle in the ETH Phenomics Center (EPIC, RCHCI), ETH Zürich,
and were fed a standard chow diet. All mice included in experiments were 7 weeks or
older and objectively healthy as determined by routine health checks. Wherever possible
an equal number of males and females was used in each experimental group.

Subcutaneous injection

50 µg of VLP in 100 µl of PBS was subcutaneously injected into the loose skin over the
interscapular area of C57BL/6J SPF mice on Day 0 and Day 10. The mice were
euthanized on Day 20. Blood was collected by cardiac puncture, and serum separated by

spinning 1.1 ml serum gel tubes (Sarstedt) at 10,000 g for 5 min at 20°C in a conventional

table-top centrifuge, and heat-inactivated for 30 min at 56°C.

779 Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for detection of anti-AP205 IgG

780 response

50 µl of AP205 VLP solution (5 µg/ml) was pipetted into an appropriate number of wells of

ELISA plates (4 Nunc MaxiSorp flat bottom 96-well plates) and the VLP allowed to adsorb

overnight at 4°C. The wells were washed three times with wash buffer (0.05% Tween 20

in PBS) and blotted. The wells were blocked using 150 µl of blocking buffer (2% bovine

serum albumin in PBS) for 1.5 h at RT. Subsequently, the wells were washed five times

with wash buffer and blotted. Mouse sera were diluted ten times in blocking buffer, and

sequentially in 1:3 dilution steps added to the wells of ELISA plates. The plates were

incubated for 2 h at RT to allow the binding of serum IgG to AP205 proteins. Goat anti-

mouse IgG-HRP (Sigma) was diluted a thousand-fold in blocking buffer, and 50 µl of

solution added to the wells and incubated for 1 h at RT. The wells were washed five times

using wash buffer and blotted. Finally, 150 µl of freshly prepared substrate solution

(consisting of 0.1 M NaH_2PO_4 (substrate buffer), 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-

sulfonic acid (1–2 mg per 10 ml of substrate buffer), and H_2O_2 (10 µl per 10 ml)) was added

to each well. The plate was incubated in the dark for 40 min. On Tecan (Tecan Infinite 200

PRO microplate reader), absorbance was measured at 415 nm. The reference wavelength

for the subtraction of background signal was set to 480 nm.

797 Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for detection of anti-PEG IgG

798 response

Mouse sera were diluted ten times in PEG dilution buffer (PEGD50-1, Life Diagnostics,

Inc.), and sequentially in 1:3 dilution steps added to the wells of PEG-BSA coated ELISA

plates (PBSA20PL, Life Diagnostics, Inc.) The plates were incubated for 2 h at RT to allow

antibody binding. The wells were washed five times with 300 µl PEG wash buffer

(PEGW50-20, Life Diagnostics, Inc.) and blotted. Goat anti-mouse IgG-HRP (AP124P,

Sigma-Aldrich) was diluted a thousand-fold in PEG dilution buffer and 100 µl of this

solution was added to each well with an incubation of 1 h at RT. The wells were washed

and blotted again. Finally, 150 µl of freshly prepared substrate solution was added to each

well. The plates were incubated in the dark for 40 min. On Tecan (Tecan Infinite 200 PRO

microplate reader), absorbance was measured at 415 nm. The reference wavelength for

the subtraction of background signal was set to 480 nm.

Statistical Analysis

AFM and LSCM results were expressed as mean ± standard deviation analyzed by Igor

Pro from WaveMetrics. *In vivo* mouse vaccination results were assessed using ordinary

one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test using GraphPad Prism

(*P = 0.0332; ***P = 0.0021; ***P = 0.0002).

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge the contributions from Till Germerdonk in DLS measurements, and discussions with Patrick Zueblin. We also acknowledge the time for SAXS measurements provided by the Leon Brillouin Laboratory (LLB), and the support of Fabrice Cousin.

Funding

European Research Council (ERC) Grant number 865730 (MR, YT, AA and ES)

Swiss National Science Foundation, Switzerland, rant number IZSEZ0_212991 (MR)

Swiss National Science Foundation, Switzerland, grant numbers 40B2-0_180953 (ES)

Swiss National Science Foundation, Switzerland, grant numbers 310030_185128 (ES)

National Center for Competence in Research in Microbiomes, Switzerland (ES)

Botnar Research Centre for Child Health Multi-investigator project "Microbiota Engineering for Child Health" (ES)

Gebert Rüf Microbials, grant number GR073_17 (ES)

Cystic Fibrosis Trust UK SRC 016 (PC, JK, RF)

EU ITN PhyMot (EC)

Author contributions

Conceptualization: MR

Methodology: MR, PC, RM, ES

Investigation: MR, AA, SG, VL, TK, YT, WLB, EC, SC, CWL, JK

Writing—original draft: MR

Writing—review & editing: All authors

Funding acquisition: MR, PC, ES

Competing interests

Authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Data and materials availability

All data used in the analyses are available without limitation from the first author.

Supplementary Materials

Further information regarding the Materials and Methods are provided in Supplementary Materials (**S**).

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