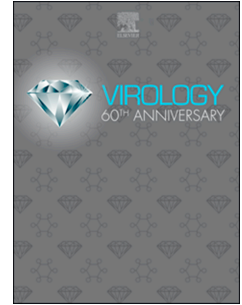


# Accepted Manuscript

Spike proteins of novel MERS-coronavirus isolates from North- and West-African dromedary camels mediate robust viral entry into human target cells

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1 **Spike proteins of novel MERS-coronavirus isolates from North- and West-**  
2 **African dromedary camels mediate robust viral entry into human target**  
3 **cells**

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25 **ABSTRACT**

26 The highly pathogenic Middle East respiratory syndrome (MERS)-related coronavirus is  
27 transmitted from dromedary camels, the natural reservoir, to humans. For at present unclear  
28 reasons, MERS cases have so far only been observed in the Arabian Peninsula, although  
29 MERS-CoV also circulates in African dromedary camels. A recent study showed that MERS-  
30 CoV found in North/West- (Morocco) and West-African (Burkina Faso and Nigeria)  
31 dromedary camels are genetically distinct from Arabian viruses and have reduced replicative  
32 capacity in human cells, potentially due to amino acid changes in one or more viral proteins.  
33 Here, we show that the spike (S) proteins of the prototypic Arabian MERS-CoV strain, human  
34 betacoronavirus 2c EMC/2012, and the above stated African MERS-CoV variants do not  
35 appreciably differ in expression, DPP4 binding and ability to drive entry into target cells.  
36 Thus, virus-host-interactions at the entry stage may not limit spread of North- and West-  
37 African MERS-CoV in human cells.

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## 50 1. Introduction

51 The Middle East respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus (MERS-CoV) causes the severe  
52 lung disease MERS (Zaki et al., 2012), which takes a fatal course in roughly ~35 % of  
53 infected patients (WHO, 2019). MERS-CoV is endemic in the Middle East, where the virus is  
54 transmitted from dromedary camels, the natural reservoir, to humans (Perera et al., 2013;  
55 Reusken et al., 2013). Human-to-human transmission is inefficient but resulted in several  
56 hospital outbreaks of MERS (Assiri et al., 2013; Harriman et al., 2013; Memish et al., 2013),  
57 and there is concern that the virus may adapt to humans and cause a pandemic.

58 Infection of dromedary camels with MERS-CoV is not limited to the Middle East.  
59 African camels are frequently infected with MERS-CoV (Ali et al., 2017a; Ali et al., 2017b;  
60 Chu et al., 2015; Chu et al., 2014; Chu et al., 2018; Corman et al., 2014; Deem et al., 2015;  
61 Kiambi et al., 2018; Miguel et al., 2017; Ommeh et al., 2018; Perera et al., 2013; Reusken et  
62 al., 2013; Reusken et al., 2014; van Doremalen et al., 2017) and the responsible viruses are  
63 genetically distinct from those circulating in the Middle East (Chu et al., 2018; Kiambi et al.,  
64 2018; Ommeh et al., 2018). Moreover, viruses isolated from animals in Morocco, Nigeria and  
65 Burkina Faso form a distinct phylogenetic subclade, C1, and exhibit reduced ability to  
66 replicate in human respiratory cells (Chu et al., 2018). In addition, MERS-CoV transmission  
67 from camels to humans has not been observed in North- and West-Africa (Munyua et al.,  
68 2017; So et al., 2018), although two livestock handlers in Kenya were shown to harbor  
69 antibodies against MERS-CoV (Liljander et al., 2016). Moreover, no MERS cases were  
70 documented in Africa. At present, the barrier(s) impeding efficient spread of African MERS-  
71 CoV in human cells and camel-human transmission of these viruses remain to be identified.

72 The MERS-CoV spike protein (S) is incorporated into the viral envelope and  
73 facilitates viral entry into target cells (Li, 2016). For this, the S protein binds to the cellular  
74 receptor dipeptidyl peptidase 4 (DPP4, CD26) (Raj et al., 2013) via its surface unit, S1, and

75 fuses the viral membrane with a target cell membrane via its transmembrane unit, S2 (Li,  
76 2016). Binding of MERS-S to DPP4 is essential for MERS-CoV infection of cells and DPP4  
77 expression and the S protein/DPP4 interface are major determinants of MERS-CoV cell and  
78 species tropism (Raj et al., 2013; van Doremalen et al., 2014). The S proteins of North- and  
79 West-African MERS-CoV of the C1 clade harbor 6-9 amino acid substitutions relative to  
80 MERS-CoV (Fig. 1A, Table 1) and these substitutions might reduce S protein-driven entry  
81 into target cells. However, this possibility has not been examined so far.

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## 100 2. Results

101 We employed a previously described vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV)-based pseudotyping  
102 system to study MERS-S-driven host cell entry (Kleine-Weber et al., 2018; Kleine-Weber et  
103 al., 2019). Pseudotyping systems are known to adequately model key aspects of the  
104 coronavirus entry process. In order to study host cell entry driven by S proteins from the C1  
105 subclade, we employed PCR-based mutagenesis to generate expression constructs for the S  
106 proteins of MERS-CoV from Nigeria (camel/Nigeria/NV1657/2016, NI), Morocco  
107 (camel/Morocco/CIRAD-HKU213/2015, MO) and Burkina Faso (camel/Burkina  
108 Faso/CIRAD-HKU785/2015, BF), using a published expression construct for MERS-CoV  
109 EMC S protein as template (Kleine-Weber et al., 2018; Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). Moreover,  
110 expression constructs for all S proteins were generated that encoded a C-terminal V5  
111 antigenic tag. Western blot analysis of cells transfected to express the S proteins under study  
112 revealed that MERS-S EMC, MO, NI and BF were expressed and proteolytically processed to  
113 comparable levels (Fig. 1B). Moreover, these S proteins were incorporated into VSV particles  
114 with similar efficiency (Fig. 1C). These results suggest that mutations present in North- and  
115 West-African MERS-S of the C1 subclade do not reduce S protein expression and proteolytic  
116 processing in human cells.

117 We next asked whether DPP4 binding of North- and West-African MERS-S was  
118 altered. For this, 293T cells transfected to express the S proteins under study were incubated  
119 with soluble DPP4 fused to the Fc portion of human immunoglobulin and binding was  
120 quantified by flow cytometry, as described previously (Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). The results  
121 showed that MERS-S EMC, MO, NI, and BF bound to DPP4 robustly and with comparable  
122 efficiency while DPP4 binding to cells expressing no S protein was within the background  
123 range (Fig. 2). Finally, we tested whether the robust binding to DPP4 translated into efficient  
124 S protein-driven entry. For this, cell lines were selected that were shown to express low levels

125 (293T), intermediate levels (Vero 76) or high levels of DPP4 (Caco-2, 293T + DPP4) (Kleine-  
126 Weber et al., 2019). MERS-S NI, MO and BF mediated entry into all cell lines with at least  
127 the same efficiency as MERS-S EMC (Fig. 3). Moreover, under conditions of low or medium  
128 DPP4 expression, entry mediated by MERS-S MO and BF was even more efficient than entry  
129 mediated by MERS-S EMC (Fig. 3), although these differences were not statistically  
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### 150 3. Discussion

151 Our results show that amino acid substitutions present in North- and West-African  
152 MERS-S proteins relative to MERS-S EMC do not compromise S protein expression in  
153 human cells, at least when transfected cells are examined. Similarly, proteolytic processing of  
154 the S proteins in the constitutive secretory pathway, which is known to be carried out by furin  
155 (Gierer et al., 2015; Millet and Whittaker, 2014), was not appreciably altered. Moreover,  
156 binding of North- and West-African S proteins to DPP4 was not diminished as compared to  
157 MERS-S EMC, despite the presence of at least one substitution in the receptor binding  
158 domain (RBD) in each S protein tested. This finding might not be unexpected since the  
159 substituted amino acid residues do not make direct contact with residues in DPP4 (Lu et al.,  
160 2013). In keeping with these observations, all African S proteins mediated robust viral entry  
161 into non-human primate (Vero 76) and human cell lines (293T, Caco-2) expressing different  
162 levels of DPP4 (Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). In fact, MERS-S MO- and BF-driven entry into  
163 cell lines expressing low or intermediate levels of DPP4 was augmented as compared to  
164 MERS-S EMC, in keeping with these S proteins showing slightly enhanced DPP4 binding as  
165 compared to MERS-S EMC. Finally, it is noteworthy that MERS-S activation in Caco-2 cells  
166 mainly depends on the cellular serine protease TMPRSS2 while activation in 293T and Vero  
167 76 cells is mediated by the cellular cysteine protease cathepsin L (Kleine-Weber et al., 2018;  
168 Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). Thus, North- and West-African MERS-S proteins seem to be able  
169 to use both pathways available for S protein activation in human cells.

170 Confirmation of our findings with authentic viruses is pending and we cannot exclude  
171 that, for instance, the S protein modulates recognition of the virus by sensors of the interferon  
172 system, which cannot be measured with the assays available to us. Moreover, we note that a  
173 recent study examining two MERS-S sequences (C2 clade) from camels in Ethiopia  
174 demonstrated that these sequences, when inserted into MERS-CoV EMC, reduced viral entry



175 and replication and increased sensitivity to antibody-mediated neutralization (Shirato et al.,  
176 2019). The reduction in entry was observed for Vero and to a lesser degree for Vero-  
177 TMPRSS2 cells and was generally modest. Nevertheless, these results suggest that S proteins  
178 from viruses circulating in Ethiopia might harbor mutations that diminish entry into human  
179 cells and that are not present in the MERS-S proteins studied here. Amino acid residues I139,  
180 L515, E851 and S1302 in the spike protein are unique to Ethiopian MERS-CoV and warrant  
181 further analysis.

182 Collectively, our results suggest that amino acid substitutions present in the S proteins  
183 of North- and West-African MERS-CoV do not compromise the ability of these viruses to  
184 enter human cells. Thus, future efforts to understand why North- and West-African MERS-  
185 CoV isolates show reduced replicative potential in human cells should be focused on other  
186 aspects of the MERS-CoV lifecycle than S protein-mediated host cell entry.

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## 200 **4. Materials and methods**

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### 202 *4.1 Plasmids*

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204 Expression plasmids, based on the vector pCAGGS, for VSV-G and MERS-S EMC were  
205 previously described (Kleine-Weber et al., 2018; Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). The MERS-S  
206 EMC plasmid was used as template for PCR-based mutagenesis to introduce the mutations  
207 found in MERS-S MO (Morocco, camel/Morocco/CIRAD-HKU213/2015, GenBank:  
208 MG923469.1), BF (Burkina Faso, camel/Burkina Faso/CIRAD-HKU785/2015, GenBank:  
209 MG923471.1) and NI (Nigeria, camel/Nigeria/NV1657/2016, GenBank: MG923475.1) (Table  
210 1). In addition, PCR-based mutagenesis was used to equip the constructs with a C-terminal  
211 V5 antigenic tag. The integrity of all sequences was verified using automated sequence  
212 analysis.

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### 214 *4.2 Cell culture*

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216 293T (human embryonal kidney) and Vero 76 (African green monkey kidney) cells were  
217 cultivated in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; PAN Biotech). The human  
218 colorectal adenocarcinoma cell line Caco-2 was grown in Minimum Essential Media (MEM,  
219 Life Technologies). All media were supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, PAN  
220 Biotech) and 1x penicillin and streptomycin from a 100x stock solution (Pan Biotech). The  
221 cells were incubated under humid conditions at 37°C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. For transfection of 293T  
222 cells the calcium-phosphate precipitation method was used.

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### 224 *4.3 Antibodies and DPP4-Fc fusion protein*

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226 For Western blot analysis, anti-V5 (mouse, 1:2,500; ThermoFisher Scientific), anti- $\beta$ -actin  
227 (mouse, 1:2,500; Sigma-Aldrich), anti-VSV-M (mouse, 1:2,500; Kerafast) were used as  
228 primary antibodies and anti-mouse HRP (horse radish peroxidase) conjugated antibody (goat,  
229 1:2,500; Dianova) was used as secondary antibody. Antibodies were diluted in phosphate  
230 buffered saline [PBS] containing 0.5% Tween 20 [PBS-T] supplemented with 5 % skim milk  
231 powder. For flow cytometry, a recombinant fusion protein of the ectodomain of DPP4 fused  
232 to the Fc fragment of human immunoglobulin (sol-DPP4-Fc, 1:200, ACROBiosystems) and  
233 an AlexaFlour488-conjugated anti-human antibody (goat, 1:500; ThermoFisher Scientific)  
234 were used (ligand and antibody were diluted in PBS containing 1 % bovine serum albumin).

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#### 236 *4.4 Immunoblot analysis of MERS-S expression and particle incorporation*

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238 For analysis of S protein expression, 293T cells were transfected with expression plasmid for  
239 MERS-S proteins harboring a C-terminal V5 tag, as described (Kleine-Weber et al., 2018;  
240 Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). To investigate MERS-S incorporation into VSVpp, equal volumes  
241 of supernatants containing VSVpp bearing S proteins with V5 tag were centrifuged through a  
242 20 % sucrose cushion at 25.000 g for 120 min. Subsequently, cells and VSVpp pellets were  
243 lysed and analyzed by immunoblot, following an established protocol (Kleine-Weber et al.,  
244 2018; Kleine-Weber et al., 2019).

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#### 246 *4.5 Analysis of DPP4 binding efficiency*

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248 DPP4 binding was analyzed as described (Kleine-Weber et al., 2019). In brief, 293T cells  
249 were transfected with expression plasmids for MERS-S proteins and empty plasmid as

250 negative control. At 48 h posttransfection, the cells were washed with PBS, pelleted and  
251 resuspended in PBS containing 1 % BSA and soluble human DPP4-Fc fusion protein at a  
252 final dilution of 1:200. After an incubation period for 1 h at 4 °C, the cells were washed and  
253 incubated with AlexaFluor488-conjugated anti-mouse antibody at a dilution of 1:500. Finally,  
254 the cells were fixed with 4 % paraformaldehyde and analyzed by flow cytometry using an  
255 LSR II flow cytometer and the FACS Diva software (both BD Biosciences).

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#### 257 *4.6 Production of VSV pseudoparticles (VSVpp) and transduction of target cells.*

258

259 Transduction vectors based on a replication-deficient VSV (Berger Rentsch and Zimmer,  
260 2011) and pseudotyped with the indicated viral glycoproteins (VSVpp) were generated  
261 according to a published protocol (Kleine-Weber et al., 2018; Kleine-Weber et al., 2019).  
262 Target cells were transduced with equal volumes of supernatants containing VSVpp and  
263 transduction efficiency was quantified at 16 h posttransduction by measuring the activity of  
264 virus-encoded firefly luciferase in cell lysates as previously described (Kleine-Weber et al.,  
265 2018; Kleine-Weber et al., 2019).

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281 design, data collection and interpretation, or the decision to submit the work for publication.

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446 **Figure legends**

447

448 **Fig. 1.** S proteins of North/West- and West-African MERS-CoV isolates from dromedary  
449 camels are robustly expressed in human cells and efficiently incorporated into viral particles.

450 (A) Domain organization of the MERS-CoV S proteins studied here. Black arrowheads  
451 indicate amino acid variations found in S proteins of African viruses as compared to the S  
452 protein of the prototypic Arabian MERS-CoV strain, human betacoronavirus 2c EMC/2012  
453 (GenBank: JX869059.2). Abbreviations: SP = signal peptide, RBD = receptor binding  
454 domain, FP = fusion peptide, HR1/HR2 = heptad repeat 1/2, TD = transmembrane domain.

455 (B) The indicated S proteins were transiently expressed in 293T cells, whole cell lysates were  
456 prepared at 48 h posttransfection and S protein expression was analyzed via Western blot,  
457 using an antibody targeting the C-terminal V5-tag. Cells expressing no S protein at all were  
458 used as negative control and detection of  $\beta$ -actin (ACTB) served as loading control. Similar  
459 results were obtained in two separate experiments. (C) Rhabdoviral transduction vectors  
460 (VSVpp) harboring the indicated S proteins were concentrated by centrifugation and,  
461 following lysis, analyzed by Western blot for S protein incorporation, using an antibody  
462 targeting the C-terminal V5-tag. Transduction vectors harboring no S protein were used as  
463 negative controls and detection of vesicular stomatitis virus matrix protein (VSV-M) served  
464 as loading control. Similar results were obtained in a separate experiment. Numbers on the  
465 left side of each blot indicate the molecular weight in kilodalton (kDa). Further, bands  
466 representing the precursor S protein (S<sub>0</sub>, black circle) and the S<sub>2</sub> subunit of proteolytically  
467 processed S protein (grey circle) are indicated.

468

469 **Fig. 2.** S proteins of North/West- and West-African MERS-CoV isolates from dromedary  
470 camels efficiently bind to DPP4. 293T cells expressing the indicated S proteins or no S

471 protein at all (Control) were successively incubated with soluble DPP4 containing a C-  
472 terminal Fc tag (sol-DPP4-Fc) and AlexaFluor488-conjugated anti-human antibody, before  
473 DPP4 binding to the respective S protein was analyzed by flow cytometry. Presented are the  
474 combined data of three independent experiments for which sol-DPP4-Fc binding to MERS-S  
475 EMC was set as 100 %. Error bars indicate the standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical  
476 significance was tested by one-way analysis of variance with Sidak's posttest ( $p > 0.05$ , not  
477 significant, ns;  $p \leq 0.01$ , \*\*).

478

479 **Fig. 3.** Host cell entry driven by the S proteins of North/West- and West-African MERS-CoV  
480 isolates from dromedary camels is robust. 293T, 293T transfected to express DPP4, Vero 76  
481 and Caco-2 cells were inoculated with equal volumes of rhabdoviral transduction vectors  
482 harboring the indicated S proteins or no S protein at all (Control). At 18 h posttransduction,  
483 the activity of the virus-encoded luciferase, which served as an indicator for transduction  
484 efficiency, was measured in cell lysates. Presented are the combined data of three independent  
485 experiments for which transduction mediated by MERS-S EMC was set as 100 %. Error bars  
486 indicate SEM. Statistical significance was tested by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)  
487 with Sidak's posttest ( $p > 0.05$ , ns;  $p \leq 0.01$ , \*\*;  $p \leq 0.005$ , \*\*\*).

488

489

490 **Table 1**

491 Amino acid variations between MERS-S EMC and the S proteins of MERS-CoV of  
 492 North/West- and West-African dromedary camels.

<b>S protein</b>	<b>Variation<sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Localization<sup>2</sup></b>
MERS-S MO camel/Morocco/CIRAD-HKU213/2015 GenBank: MG923469.1	V26A	S1 / n/a
	A89S	S1 / n/a
	T424I	S1 / RBD
	S856Y	S2 / n/a
	R884L	S2 / PS(S2')
	A1158S	S2 / n/a
	V1209L	S2 / n/a
MERS-S NI camel/Nigeria/NV1657/2016 GenBank: MG923475.1	V26A	S1 / n/a
	H167Y	S1 / n/a
	H194Y	S1 / n/a
	L495F	S1 / RBD
	L588F	S1 / RBD
	S856Y	S2 / n/a
	A1158L	S2 / n/a
MERS-S BF camel/Burkina Faso/CIRAD-HKU785/2015 GenBank: MG923471.1	L1200F	S2 / n/a
	V26A	S1 / n/a
	A89S	S1 / n/a
	H194Y	S1 / n/a
	T424I	S1 / RBD
	S856Y	S2 / n/a
A1158S	S2 / n/a	

493  
 494 <sup>1</sup>Amino acid position (numbering according to MERS-S EMC), <sup>2</sup>Subunit / Functional domain  
 495 (if applicable); Abbreviations: S1 = S1 subunit; S2 = S2 subunit; RBD = receptor binding  
 496 domain, PS(S2') = priming site at the S2' position (884-RSAR-887), n/a = not applicable

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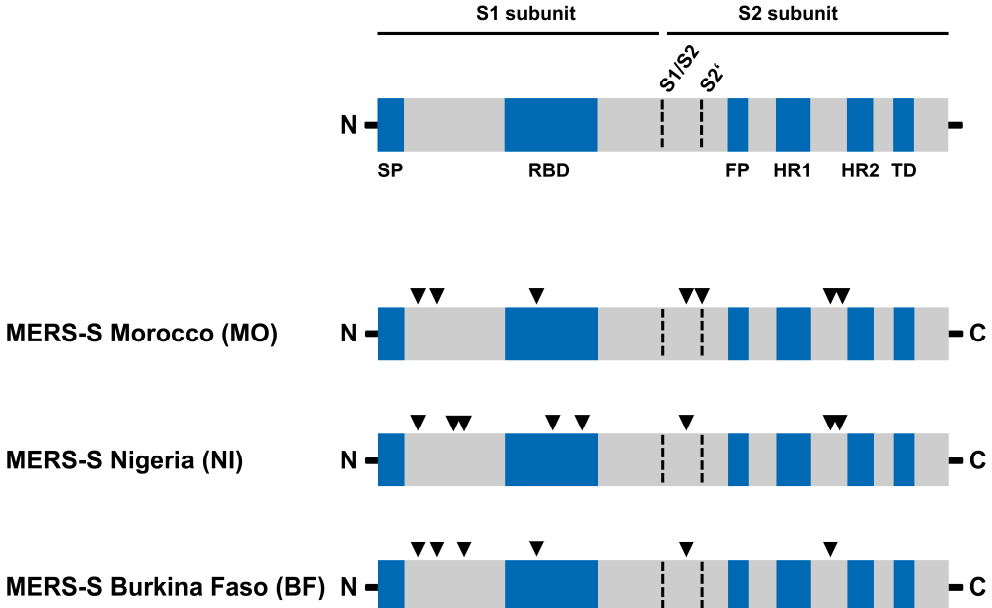
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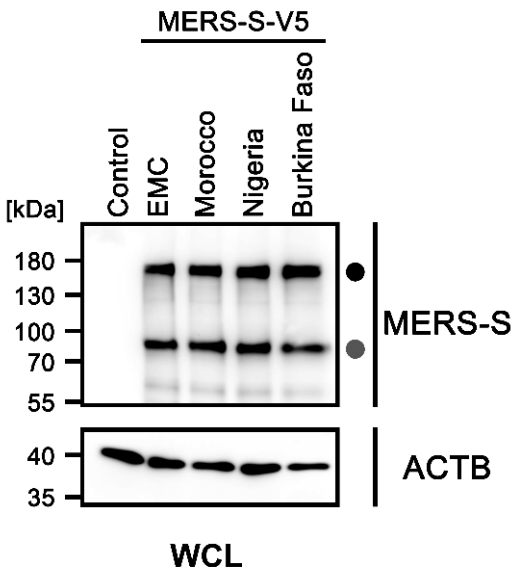
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A)



B)



C)

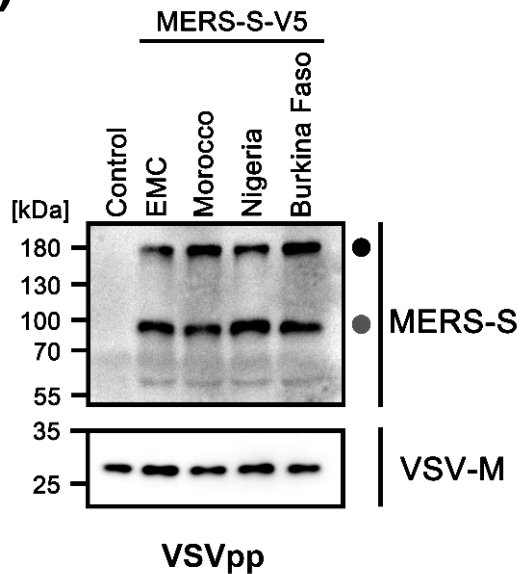


Figure 2

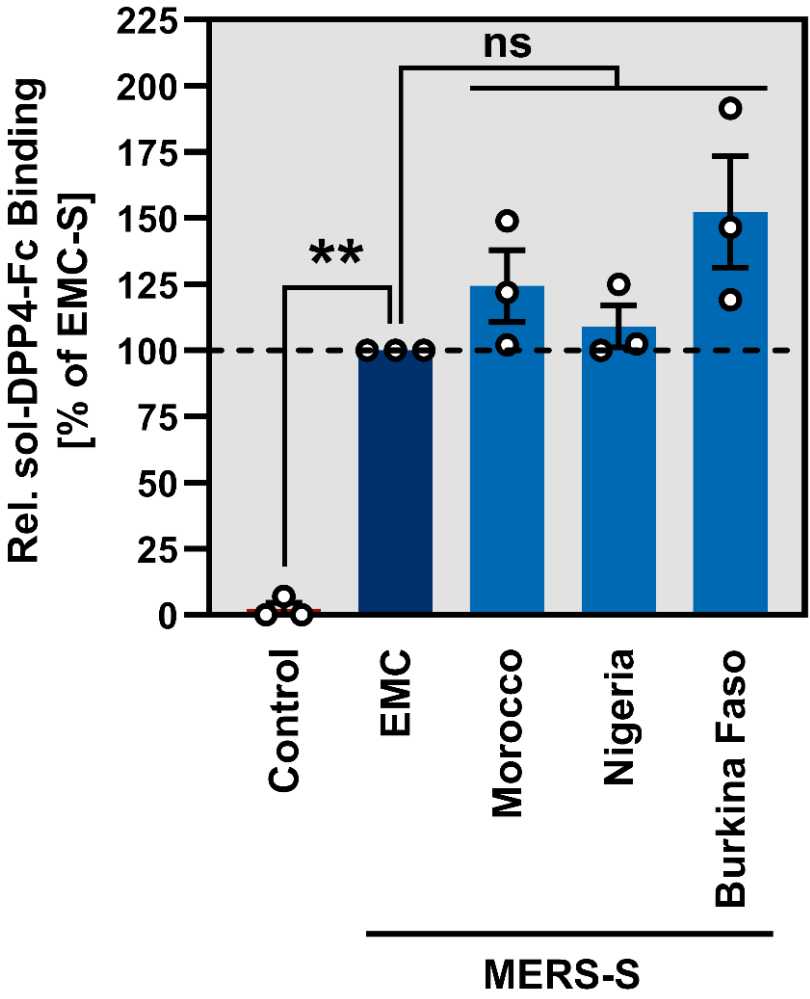
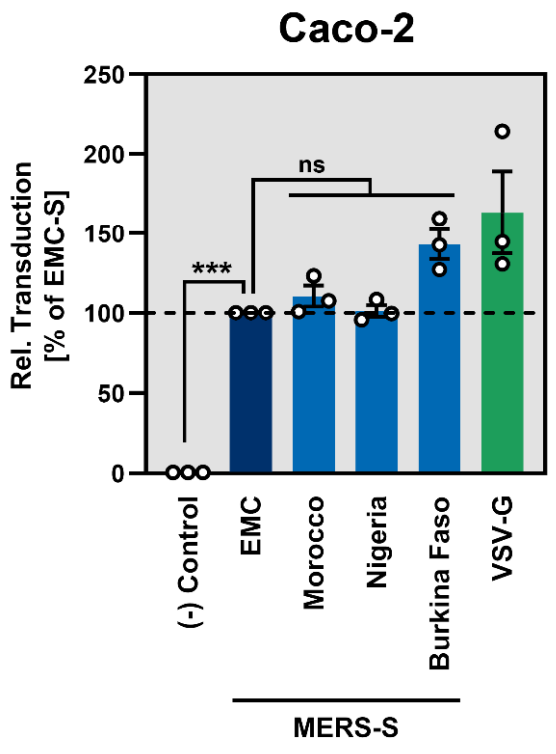
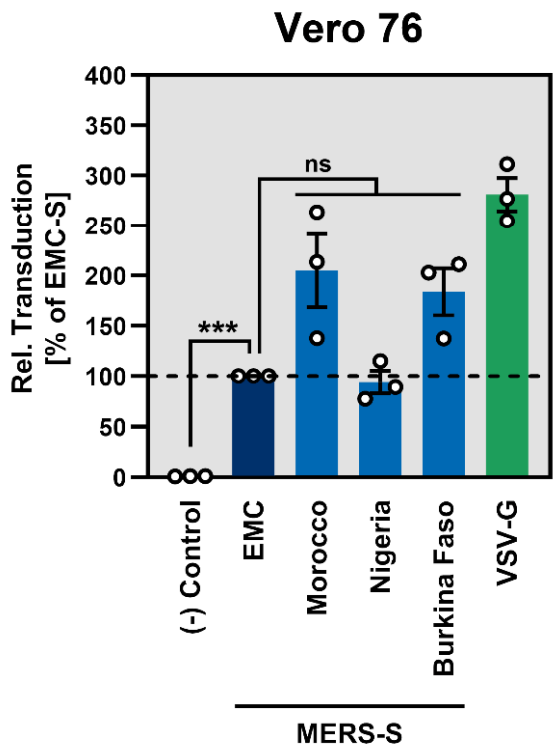
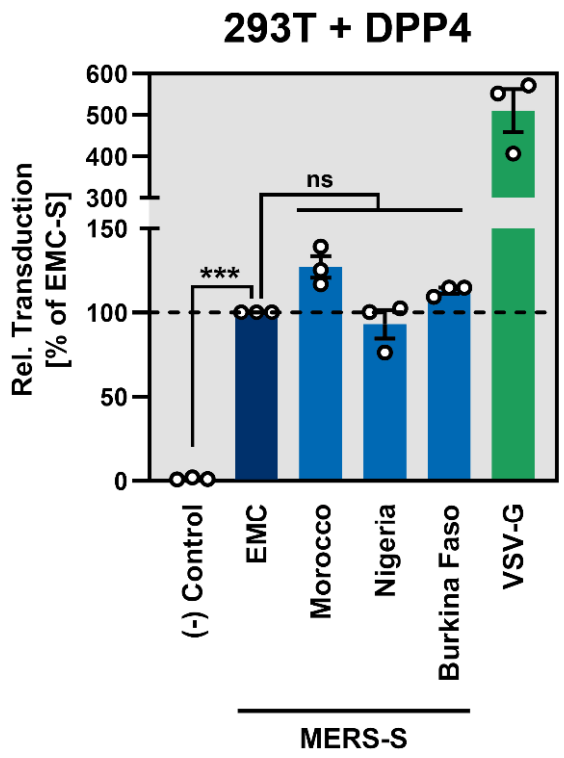
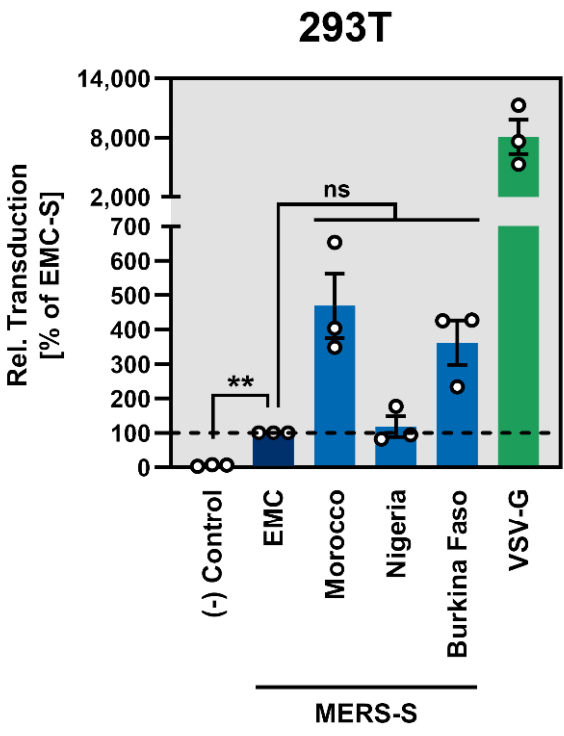




Figure 3



**Highlights:**

- Spikes of MERS-CoV from African camels bind efficiently to human DPP4
- Spikes of MERS-CoV from African camels mediate efficient entry into human cells

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT