

Metalloproteinase-dependent and TMPRSS2-independent cell surface entry pathway of SARS-CoV-2 requires the furin-cleavage site and the S2 domain of spike protein

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27 **Abstract**

28 The ongoing global vaccination program to prevent SARS-CoV-2 infection, the causative
 29 agent of COVID-19, has had significant success. However, recently virus variants have
 30 emerged that can evade the immunity in a host achieved through vaccination.
 31 Consequently, new therapeutic agents that can efficiently prevent infection from these
 32 new variants, and hence COVID-19 spread are urgently required. To achieve this,
 33 extensive characterization of virus-host cell interactions to identify effective therapeutic
 34 targets is warranted. Here, we report a cell surface entry pathway of SARS-CoV-2 that
 35 exists in a cell type-dependent manner is TMPRSS2-independent but sensitive to various
 36 broad-spectrum metalloproteinase inhibitors such as marimastat and prinomastat.
 37 Experiments with selective metalloproteinase inhibitors and gene-specific siRNAs
 38 revealed that a disintegrin and metalloproteinase 10 (ADAM10) is partially involved in
 39 the metalloproteinase pathway. Consistent with our finding that the pathway is unique to
 40 SARS-CoV-2 among highly pathogenic human coronaviruses, both the furin cleavage
 41 motif in the S1/S2 boundary and the S2 domain of SARS-CoV-2 spike protein are
 42 essential for metalloproteinase-dependent entry. In contrast, the two elements of SARS-
 43 CoV-2 independently contributed to TMPRSS2-dependent S2 priming. The
 44 metalloproteinase pathway is involved in SARS-CoV-2-induced syncytia formation and

cytopathicity, leading us to theorize that it is also involved in the rapid spread of SARS-CoV-2 and the pathogenesis of COVID-19. Thus, targeting the metalloproteinase pathway in addition to the TMPRSS2 and endosome pathways could be an effective strategy by which to cure COVID-19 in the future.

Author Summary

To develop effective therapeutics against COVID-19, it is necessary to elucidate in detail the infection mechanism of the causative agent, SARS-CoV-2, including recently emerging variants. SARS-CoV-2 binds to the cell surface receptor ACE2 via the Spike protein, and then the Spike protein is cleaved by host proteases to enable entry. Selection of target cells by expression of these tissue-specific proteases contributes to pathogenesis. Here, we found that the metalloproteinase-mediated pathway is important for SARS-CoV-2 infection, variants included. This pathway requires both the prior cleavage of Spike into two domains and a specific sequence in the second domain S2, conditions met by SARS-CoV-2 but lacking in the related human coronavirus SARS-CoV. The contribution of several proteases, including metalloproteinases, to SARS-CoV-2 infection was cell type dependent, especially in cells derived from kidney, ovary, and endometrium, in which SARS-CoV-2 infection was metalloproteinase-dependent. In

63 these cells, inhibition of metalloproteinases by treatment with marimastat or prinomastat,
64 whose safety was previously confirmed in clinical trials, was important in preventing cell
65 death. Our study provides new insights into the complex pathogenesis unique to COVID-
66 19 and relevant to the development of effective therapies.

67 **Introduction**

68 Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), the causative agent of
69 coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), was first recognized in late 2019 and led to the
70 development of a global pandemic in 2020[1]. Two other human coronaviruses, SARS-
71 CoV[2, 3] and Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV)[4], are also
72 capable of inducing lethal pneumonia and systemic symptoms. However, SARS-COV-2
73 has been found to also exhibit enhanced pathogenicity and transmissibility[5, 6].
74 Effective vaccines have been developed, and ongoing global vaccination programs have
75 significantly curbed the spread of infection[7, 8]. However, current vaccinations may
76 provide imperfect protection as new variants of the virus that can spread more easily and
77 evade the host immunity achieved through vaccination have been reported[7, 9-11].
78 Furthermore, although several drugs that may provide effective treatments for COVID-
79 19 are currently under clinical trial and awaiting approval[12, 13], it is currently unclear
80 if daily life around the world will ever return to that of pre-COVID-19 times.
81 Consequently, further extensive characterization of the virus and its interactions with host
82 cells are required to develop vaccines and therapeutic agents that efficiently prevent
83 infection from the new emerging highly infective variants so as to limit further worsening
84 of COVID-19.

The initiation of SARS-CoV-2 entry requires two steps after its spike (S) protein is cleaved into S1 and S2 by furin-like proteases expressed in virus-producing cells prior to viral release[14-16]. First, the S protein binds to its receptor angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) in the plasma membrane through its receptor-binding domain (RBD)[17, 18]. Second, the S2 protein is cleaved to generate S2' by either cell surface transmembrane serine protease 2 (TMPRSS2)[19] or endosomal protease cathepsin-B/L[19, 20]. This cleavage is called priming, and exposes the fusion peptide within S2', allowing it to stick into the plasma or endosomal membrane, resulting in fusion between the viral envelope and the cellular membrane (envelope fusion). This fusion allows viral RNA to enter the cytoplasm where it replicates. Whether SARS-CoV-2 viruses use the plasma membrane, the endosome pathway, or both is dependent on the cell type[19, 21, 22]. Furin-mediated cleavage at the S1/S2 boundary leads to efficient viral entry into airway cells[15, 16], where the TMPRSS2-dependent surface entry route dominates endosomal entry[19, 23].

In this study, we screened for inhibitors of SARS-CoV-2 infection and identified a cell surface entry pathway of SARS-CoV-2 that is TMPRSS2-independent but sensitive to various metalloproteinase inhibitors. Interestingly, the metalloproteinase-dependent pathway requires both the furin cleavage motif in the S1/S2 boundary and the

S2 domain of SARS-CoV-2, which is unique to SARS-CoV-2. These results suggest that co-operation between furin and some metalloproteinases could be crucial for SARS-CoV-2 spread and disease development *in vivo*. Consequently, targeting the metalloproteinase pathway in addition to the TMPRSS2 and cathepsin-B/L pathways could be an effective strategy to cure COVID-19.

Results

TMPRSS2-independent membrane fusion induced by the S protein of SARS-CoV-2 is blocked by metalloproteinase inhibitors

In this investigation, the screening system used to detect effective inhibitors of coronavirus infection included a quantitative cell fusion assay between effector cells expressing S protein and target cells expressing either ACE2 (for SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2)[24] or CD26 (for MERS-CoV)[25], with or without TMPRSS2 (S1a,b Fig). Quantitation was accomplished using the dual split chimeric reporter proteins (DSP)1-7 and DSP8-11, which contain both *Renilla* luciferase (RL) and green fluorescent protein (GFP) variants[26]. The DSP assay quantifies the degree of membrane fusion between the effector cells expressing DSP1-7 and the target cells expressing DSP8-11 based on the RL activity (S1c Fig). During analysis with the DSP cell fusion assay, a significant

amount of ACE2-dependent but TMPRSS2-independent cell-cell fusion was induced by the S protein of SARS-CoV-2, but not by that of SARS- or MERS-CoV (Fig 1a,b). Consistent with this finding, the cell fusion with TMPRSS2 in the target cells induced by the S protein of SARS-CoV and MERS-CoV was completely blocked when TMPRSS2 was inhibited with 1 μ M nafamostat, while approximately 20% of the fusion by the SARS-CoV-2 S protein remained, even in the presence of 10 μ M nafamostat (Fig 1c). This amount of residual fusion was almost equal to that induced by the SARS-CoV-2 S protein in the absence of TMPRSS2 (Fig 1d).

To explore the mechanism of TMPRSS2-independent membrane fusion, we screened the Validated Compound Library (1,630 clinically approved compounds and 1,885 pharmacologically active compounds) obtained from the Drug Discovery Initiative (The University of Tokyo). We aimed to identify compounds that preferentially inhibited SARS-CoV-2 S protein-induced TMPRSS2-independent fusion and not TMPRSS2-dependent fusion. We compared the relative fusion values of the target cells expressing both TMPRSS2 and ACE2 (X-axis of Fig 2a) with those of the target cells expressing ACE2 alone (Y-axis of Fig 2a), and chose for further validation compounds that limited the fusion without TMPRSS2 by less than 60% and allowed the fusion with TMPRSS2 by more than 70% (Fig 2a). The compounds selected included two metalloproteinase

inhibitors (ilomastat, CTS-1027), three tyrosine kinase inhibitors (sunitinib, PD-166285, PD-173952), two checkpoint kinase inhibitors (PF-477736, AZD-7762), a protein kinase C inhibitor (midostaurin), and a hormonal contraceptive (algestone). Ilomastat and CTS-1027 preferentially inhibited the TMPRSS2-independent fusion in a dose-dependent manner without affecting TMPRSS2-dependent fusion (Fig 2b). Furthermore, the luciferase activities of the preformed DSP1-7/DSP8-11 complex were not affected, confirming the specificity of the DSP assay (S2a,b Fig). However, other compounds inhibited both the TMPRSS2-dependent and -independent fusions to similar degrees (S3 Fig). These data suggest that the metalloproteinase-dependent cell surface entry pathway (the metalloproteinase pathway) may be unique to SARS-CoV-2 among human pathogenic coronaviruses with high mortality rates. Considering that metalloproteinase inhibitors could thus possibly be used as prophylactic or therapeutic agents for COVID-19, we further demonstrated that marimastat[27] and prinomastat[28] (whose safety was previously confirmed in clinical trials to investigate their use as anticancer agents, such as CTS-1027[29]) can preferentially block the TMPRSS2-independent fusion induced by the SARS-CoV-2 S protein (Fig 2b and S2b Fig).

The metalloproteinase pathway is SARS-CoV-2 specific and cell type-dependent

We investigated whether the metalloproteinase pathway exists in SARS-CoV-2 S-bearing vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) pseudovirus. The pseudovirus entry into the A704 cells (human kidney) was entirely blocked by 1 μ M marimastat (Fig 3a). This indicates that the metalloproteinase pathway is involved in the entry of the virus, and that 1 μ M marimastat could be used to determine if the pathway exists in other cells. Similarly, all entry pathways in OVISE cells (human ovary) were blocked by 25 μ M E-64d (Fig 3a), indicating that it could be used to investigate the existence of cathepsin-B/L-dependent endosome pathways in other cells. Furthermore, the entry pathways in Calu-3 cells (human lung) were entirely blocked by 0.1 μ M nafamostat (Fig 3a), which indicates that more than 0.1 μ M nafamostat may be used to investigate the existence of the TMPRSS2-dependent surface entry pathways in other cells. Consequently, 1 μ M marimastat, 25 μ M E-64d, and 10 μ M nafamostat were used to elucidate the patterns of the entry pathways in various cells. Marimastat significantly inhibited the pseudovirus entry into VeroE6 (African green monkey kidney), HEC50B (human endometrium), OVTOKO (human ovary), and A704 cells (Fig 3b). In addition to the metalloproteinase pathway, virus entry was partially inhibited by E-64d, and the combination of marimastat and E-64d showed additive effects in VeroE6, HEC50B, and OVTOKO cells (Fig 3b). These results suggest that the metalloproteinase and endosomal pathways are mutually independent. Neither

175 marimastat nor nafamostat alone significantly inhibited the entry pathways of IGROV1
176 (human ovary), OUMS-23 (human colon), or OVISE, whereas E-64d significantly
177 inhibited the entry pathways of IGROV1 and OUMS-23 cells and the overall entry
178 pathway into the OVISE cells (Fig 3c). Interestingly, E-64d resistant entry in IGROV1
179 cells was inhibited by the combination of marimastat with E-64d while the E-64d resistant
180 entry into OUMS-23 cells was inhibited by the combination of nafamostat and E-64d.
181 These results indicate that the endosome entry pathway dominates these cells, while
182 coexisting with either the metalloproteinase or TMPRSS2 surface pathway. Nafamostat
183 inhibited the overall entry pathways into the Calu-3 and Caco-2 (human colon) cells,
184 while marimastat and E-64d showed no inhibitory effects. (Fig 3d). Together, these
185 findings show that the metalloproteinase-dependent cell surface entry pathway exists in
186 a cell type-dependent manner and coexists with the endosome pathway in some cell lines.
187 As we could not find cell lines with both metalloproteinase- and TMPRSS2-dependent
188 cell surface entry pathways, we generated HEC50B cell lines ectopically expressing
189 TMPRSS2 (HEC50B-TMPRSS2). In the HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells, approximately 80%
190 of the entry pathways were TMPRSS2-dependent, while the rest were predominantly
191 metalloproteinase-dependent (Fig 3e). This indicates that the metalloproteinase pathway

independently coexists with the TMPRSS2 dependent pathway. These results also suggest that there could be cells *in vivo* that naturally have both surface entry pathways.

The metalloproteinase pathway requires both the furin-cleavage site and S2 region of the SARS-CoV-2 S protein

Our results showed that metalloproteinase-dependent and TMPRSS2-independent cell-cell fusion was induced by the S protein of SARS-CoV-2 but not by that of SARS-CoV or MERS-CoV (Fig 1a,b). In line with these results, metalloproteinase-dependent entry was observed only when the pseudovirus bearing the S protein of SARS-CoV-2, but not SARS-CoV or MERS-CoV, was used in HEC50B (Fig 4a), A704 (S4a Fig), and VeroE6 cells (S4b Fig). Furthermore, pseudoviruses bearing the S protein of HCoV-NL63 and WIV1-CoV, which like SARS-CoV-2 use ACE2 as their receptor, cannot utilize the metalloproteinase pathway in HEC50B cells (Fig 4b). While SARS-CoV-2 S uses both the metalloproteinase and endosome pathways, SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, HCoV-NL63, and WIV1-CoV S exclusively use the endosome pathway, and none of these S proteins can use the metalloproteinase or TMPRSS2 pathway in HEC50B (Fig 4a,b), A704 (S4a Fig), and VeroE6 cells (S4b Fig). The ability to use the metalloproteinase pathway and

209 sensitivities against various protease inhibitors are conserved among the variants of
210 SARS-CoV-2 we tested (S5 Fig).

211 The S proteins of SARS-CoV-2 and MERS-CoV have furin cleavage sites (Arg-
212 X-X-Arg) in their S1/S2 boundary area, and they were efficiently cleaved during the
213 preparation of the pseudovirus (Fig 4c,d). In contrast, the S proteins of SARS-CoV,
214 HCoV-NL63, and WIV1-CoV, which do not use the metalloproteinase pathway, do not
215 have furin cleavage site and are not cleaved to any notable degree (Fig 4c,d and S6 Fig).
216 Given that the MERS-CoV S protein does not use the metalloproteinase pathway (Fig 4a)
217 even though it harbors a furin cleavage site and was efficiently cleaved, we speculated
218 that furin-catalyzed S protein cleavage is a prerequisite but not sufficient for using the
219 metalloproteinase pathway. To test this hypothesis, we generated pseudoviruses bearing
220 chimeric S proteins in which the S1, S1/S2 boundary, and S2 domains were derived from
221 either SARS-CoV or SARS-CoV-2 (Fig 4c,d). As expected, the S2 fragment of the C-
222 terminal Flag-tagged S protein was mainly detected with anti-Flag antibody when
223 pseudoviruses bearing S proteins with the furin-cleavage site (S121, S122, SARS-CoV-
224 2 S (222), and S221) were analyzed (Fig 4d). In contrast, uncleaved S protein (S0) was
225 mainly detected when S proteins without the furin-cleavage site (SARS-CoV S (111),
226 S112, S212, and S211) were used (Fig 4d). When only section, the S1/S2 boundary or the

S2 domain, was replaced with the corresponding domain of SARS-CoV-2 in the SARS-CoV S protein (S121, S112), the metalloproteinase pathway did not appear (Fig 4e). However, when both the S1/S2 and S2 domains were replaced with the corresponding domains of SARS-CoV-2 (S122), the metalloproteinase pathway appeared in addition to the endosome pathway (Fig 4e), similar to the pattern observed for bona fide SARS-CoV-2 S (S222) (Fig 4f). Furthermore, when either the S1/S2 or S2 domain was replaced with the corresponding domain of SARS-CoV in the SARS-CoV-2 S protein (S212, S221), the metalloproteinase pathway disappeared (Fig 4f). Similar requirements for the S1/S2 boundary and S2 domains for SARS-CoV-2 to use the metalloproteinase pathway were also observed in VeroE6 cells (S4c,d Fig). These results indicate that both the S1/S2 boundary and S2 domain of SARS-CoV-2 are strictly required for the virus to utilize the metalloproteinase pathway when the endosome pathway coexists.

To compare the structural requirements needed for the S protein to use the metalloproteinase pathway with those needed to use the TMPRSS2 pathway in cells with the endosome pathway as an alternative, we used HEC50B-TMPRSS2 and VeroE6 cells ectopically expressing TMPRSS2 (VeroE6-TMPRSS2). While both these cell types exhibit the TMPRSS2 and endosome pathways depending on the source of S protein (Fig 4g and S4e Fig), HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells in addition maintained a significant amount

245 of the metalloproteinase pathway (approximately 20% of the total entry pathway) (Fig
246 3e), whereas most of the metalloproteinase pathway disappeared in the VeroE6-
247 TMPRSS2 cells when compared with their parental line (Fig 3b and S4e Fig). Given that
248 the metalloproteinase pathway is dependent on the structural features of the S protein, its
249 blockade by marimastat will promote protein structural requirements for S protein to use
250 the TMPRSS2 pathway in HEC50B-TMPRSS2 (Fig 4g-i) but not in VeroE6-TMPRSS2
251 cells (S4e-g Fig). In both cell types, SARS-CoV-2 predominantly used the TMPRSS2
252 entry pathway, while SARS-CoV used the endosome pathway (Fig 4g and S4e Fig).
253 However, nafamostat partially, but more efficiently, inhibited the entry of S112 and S121
254 pseudoviruses when compared with SARS-CoV (S111), while it inhibited S122 virus
255 entry almost completely (Fig 4h and S4f Fig). Furthermore, when compared with SARS-
256 CoV-2 (S222), nafamostat only partially inhibited S221 or S212 virus entry, while it
257 scarcely inhibited S211 virus entry (Fig 4i and S4g Fig). These results indicate that the
258 S1/S2 boundary and S2 domain of SARS-CoV-2 additively contribute to the ability of
259 the virus to use the TMPRSS2 pathway. Together, these results show that although both
260 the TMPRSS2 and the metalloproteinase pathways undergo priming of the S protein at
261 the cell surface, the structural requirements of the S protein for efficient priming differ
262 between the metalloproteinase and TMPRSS2 pathways.

263

264 **Possible involvement of ADAM-10 in the metalloproteinase-dependent entry of**
 265 **SARS-CoV-2**

266 In addition to marimastat, other metalloproteinase inhibitors, including prinomastat,
 267 ilomastat, and CTS-1027, which block the TMPRSS2-independent cell-cell fusion
 268 induced by SARS-CoV-2 S (Fig 2b), inhibited the metalloproteinase-dependent entry of
 269 SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus in VeroE6, HEC50B, and A704 cells (Fig 5a). Since these
 270 inhibitors exhibited broad specificity[30-33], selective inhibitors were then used to
 271 narrow down the metalloproteinases involved in the metalloproteinase-dependent entry
 272 pathway. The VeroE6 and HEC50B cells had significantly E-64d sensitive endosome
 273 pathways but the A704 cells did not (Fig 3b). Consequently, selective metalloproteinase
 274 inhibitors were tested in the presence of E-64d so that the reduction in the
 275 metalloproteinase pathway could be easily recognized in VeroE6 and HEC50B cells (Fig
 276 5a). Similar inhibitory patterns were observed in all three cell lines tested (Fig 5a), and
 277 their viabilities were not affected by any of the metalloproteinase inhibitors at the
 278 concentrations used in the experiment (S7a-d Fig). These results suggest that the
 279 metalloproteinases involved in the pathway are likely to be common to all three cell lines.
 280 GW280264X[34] (ADAM10/17 inhibitor) and GI1254023X[34, 35] (MMP9/ADAM10

inhibitor) significantly inhibited the metalloproteinase pathway, whereas TAPI2[36] (ADAM-17 inhibitor) and BK-1361[37] (ADAM8 inhibitor) did not (Fig 5a). This suggests that ADAM10 may be involved in the ADAM family. MMP408[30] (MMP3/12/13 inhibitor) and MMP2/9 inhibitor I[38] scarcely affected virus entry, whereas UK370106[39] (MMP3/12 inhibitor) and MMP9 inhibitor I[40] were significantly inhibitory (Fig5a), suggesting that MMP3/9/12/13 may not be crucial, but that the unidentified metalloproteinase, which could be inhibited by UK370106 or MMP9 inhibitor I, may be involved in the pathway in cooperation with ADAM10. MLN-4760[41] (ACE2 inhibitor) did not inhibit virus entry (Fig 5a), indicating that the catalytic activity of ACE2, to which the S protein directly binds as a receptor, is not involved. To further confirm the involvement of ADAM10 in the metalloproteinase-dependent pathway, ADAM10 was depleted by siRNA in HEC50B cells. Three independent siRNAs effectively suppressed the expression of both the precursor and active forms of ADAM10 (Fig 5b). An ADAM10 knockdown significantly inhibited SARS-CoV-2 pseudovirus entry, while the entry of SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV, and VSVG pseudoviruses were not affected (Fig 5c), indicating that ADAM10 plays a role unique to SARS-CoV-2 in viral entry. Furthermore, we examined the effects of the ADAM10 knockdown on the entry pathway patterns by treating siRNA-transfected cells with either E-64d, marimastat, or a

combination of both. The combination treatment with E-64d and marimastat led to an additive effect for the single treatments, resulting in the complete inhibition of viral entry in both cells with normal ADAM10 expression and those with reduced ADAM10 expression (Fig 5d). These results indicated that E-64d-resistant viral entry is a metalloproteinase-dependent pathway, while marimastat-resistant viral entry is dependent on the endosome pathway. The ADAM10-knockdown significantly inhibited the metalloproteinase pathway (Fig 5e, E64-d treatment) while the ADAM10-knockdown had only a modest effect on the endosome pathway (Fig 5e, marimastat-treatment), indicating that ADAM10 is involved in the metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway of SARS-CoV-2.

Recently, it was reported that ACE2 shedding by ADAM17 promotes SARS-CoV-2 infection[42]. While a CRISPR/Cas9-mediated knockout of ADAM17 enhanced the accumulation of cellular ACE2 in HEC50B cells due to the inhibition of ACE2 shedding (S8a Fig), SARS-CoV-2 S pseudovirus entry was increased, and this was probably because of the enhanced binding of virus to the cell surface ACE2 (S8b Fig). However, the patterns of the metalloproteinase and endosome pathways were similar between the wild-type and ADAM17 knockout cells (S8c Fig), suggesting that ADAM17 may not be involved in metalloproteinase-dependent virus entry in HEC50B cells.

317

318 **The metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway of authentic SARS-CoV-2 is**
 319 **involved in syncytia formation and cytopathicity**

320 To confirm the involvement of the metalloproteinase pathway in authentic SARS-CoV-2
 321 entry, we first evaluated the effects of marimastat and prinomastat on the amount of
 322 cytoplasmic viral RNA transcribed from the N gene after infection. Both inhibitors
 323 significantly suppressed SARS-CoV-2 infection (Fig 6a). The IC₅₀ values of the
 324 marimastat and prinomastat were 160 nM and 130 nM in HEC50B cells, and 150 nM and
 325 250 nM in the A704 cells, respectively. The IC₅₀ value of the marimastat in the VeroE6
 326 cells was 340 nM. Consistent with the results from the pseudoviruses experiments,
 327 nafamostat showed a marked inhibitory effect on the Calu-3 cells but not on the HEC50B,
 328 A704, or VeroE6 cells (S9a Fig). In contrast, 25 μM E-64d and 10 mM NH₄Cl, which
 329 inhibits endosome-lysosome system acidification[43], significantly suppressed SARS-
 330 CoV-2 infection in the HEC50B, A704, and VeroE6 cells (S9b,c Fig). This indicated that
 331 the endosome pathway coexists with the metalloproteinase pathway to contribute to
 332 authentic SARS-CoV-2 infection in these cells. Combination treatments with E-
 333 64d/marimastat or NH₄Cl/marimastat showed much stronger inhibitory effects than the
 334 treatment with each drug alone (Fig 6b). Similarly, combination treatments with

nafamostat and marimastat or nafamostat and E-64d showed stronger inhibitory effects than the nafamostat treatment alone in the HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells (Fig 6c). Furthermore, when all three drugs were combined, they had a much stronger inhibitory effect on viral infection when compared with the two-drug combinations (Fig 6c). These results strongly suggest that drugs that block the metalloproteinase pathway are effective for COVID-19 treatment.

Next, we examined whether ADAM10 is involved in SARS-CoV-2 infection. GW280264X[34] (ADAM10/17 inhibitor) and GI1254023X[34, 35] (MMP9/ADAM10 inhibitor) significantly suppressed SARS-CoV-2 infection, whereas TAPI2[36] (ADAM-17 inhibitor) did not (Fig 6d). Moreover, the ADAM10 knockdown by siRNA suppressed SARS-CoV-2 infection by approximately 40% (Fig 6e), indicating that ADAM10 is partially involved. This effect was smaller than that for the various metalloproteinase inhibitors (Fig 6a,d), suggesting that metalloproteinases other than ADAM10 are also involved in this pathway.

The ability of SARS-CoV-2 to form syncytia and induce cytopathicity is thought to be related to its pathogenesis[44, 45]. To determine whether the metalloproteinase-dependent pathway is involved in syncytia formation, we first used HEC50B cells as a representative for cells that predominantly use the metalloproteinase and endosome

353 pathways. Interestingly, the SARS-CoV-2-induced syncytia formation in HEC50B cells
354 24 h after infection was significantly blocked by 500 nM of marimastat and prinomastat
355 but not notably affected by 25 μ M E-64d (Fig 6f and S10 Fig). These results indicate that
356 the metalloproteinase-dependent pathway, but not the endosome pathway, is crucial for
357 syncytium formation, although both pathways similarly reduce viral infection (Fig 6b).
358 Given that the metalloproteinases are normally localized at the cell surface, we used
359 HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells, which have cell surface TMPRSS2 and metalloproteinase
360 pathways, to investigate their involvement in syncytia formation when they coexist. The
361 SARS-CoV-2-induced syncytia formation in the HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells was not
362 significantly inhibited by marimastat or nafamostat alone, but was clearly inhibited by
363 the combined treatment (Fig 6g). These results suggest that the metalloproteinase and
364 TMPRSS2 pathways cooperate to form syncytia. Next, we addressed the role of the
365 metalloproteinase pathway in SARS-CoV-2-induced cytotoxicity. SARS-CoV-2-induced
366 cytopathicity of HEC50B cells 3 d after infection was not inhibited by either E-64d,
367 marimastat, or prinomastat alone, but was significantly blocked when cells were treated
368 with E-64d in combination with either marimastat or prinomastat (Fig 6h). In addition,
369 SARS-CoV-2-induced cytopathicity of the HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells was not inhibited
370 by either E-64d, nafamostat, or marimastat alone, but was significantly blocked when

cells were treated with a combination of all three drugs (Fig 6i). These results strongly suggest that the inhibition of the metalloproteinase pathway is crucial to block syncytia formation and cytopathicity *in vivo*, and consequently, that the metalloproteinase pathway is likely to be involved in the pathogenesis of COVID-19.

Discussion

Previous studies of the S proteins found in SARS-CoV-2, SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV have shown that the priming of the S2 domain, catalyzed by either TMPRSS2 on the plasma membrane or cathepsin-B/L in endosomes, results in the fusion peptide protruding to induce envelope fusion, thereby establishing viral entry through the plasma membrane or endosomal membrane, respectively[14, 19, 20]. In this study, we have demonstrated that SARS-CoV-2, unlike SARS-CoV or MERS-CoV, has a unique TMPRSS2-independent cell surface entry pathway, which is sensitive to various metalloproteinase inhibitors including ilomastat, CTS-1027, marimastat, and prinomastat, but resistant to previously known inhibitors of SARS-CoV-2 entry, such as nafamostat[24, 46] and E-64d[19]. As a representative of these broad-spectrum metalloproteinase inhibitors, we chose marimastat to investigate the cell type-dependent distribution of the metalloproteinase pathway by measuring pseudovirus infection. A significant proportion

of the entry pathway is metalloproteinase-dependent in A704 (kidney), HEC50B (endometrium), OVTOKO (ovary), and VeroE6 (kidney) cells. Only a small proportion was metalloproteinase-dependent in IGROV1 (ovary) cells, while the metalloproteinase pathway was not detected in OMUS-23 (colon), OVISE (ovary), Calu-3 (lung), and Caco-2 (colon) cells. These results indicate that the metalloproteinase pathway of SARS-CoV-2 is cell-type specific and independently coexists with other entry pathways, including the TMPRSS2-dependent surface pathway and the endosome pathway. The kidney[47, 48], ovary[49, 50], and endometrium[51] are known to express ACE2. Furthermore, SARS-CoV-2 can infect the kidney[48, 52] and induce acute kidney injury[53] in COVID-19 patients. Although SARS-CoV-2 infection of the ovary or endometrium has not previously been reported, the metalloproteinase-dependent infection pathway may contribute to the pathogenesis of COVID-19, especially multiple organ failure. The metalloproteinase pathway is thus a potential target for future COVID-19 therapies.

The S1/S2 boundary of SARS-CoV-2 contains the furin cleavage motif (Arg-X-X-Arg), while that of SARS-CoV contains only a single Arg. It has been reported that the motif greatly increases the efficiency of S1/S2 cleavage[15, 16], leading to enhanced viral transmission both *in vitro*[15, 16, 23] and *in vivo*[54, 55]. This may be partially due to the enhanced availability of S2 to TMPRSS2, due to the dissociation of S1[56, 57]. We

407 have shown that the furin cleavage motif is required for the metalloproteinase pathway,
 408 and we propose that the induction of metalloproteinase-induced S2 priming is another
 409 role of furin-mediated S1/S2 cleavage in enhanced viral transmission. Therefore, the
 410 metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway, which is unique among highly pathogenic
 411 coronaviruses, is likely to be associated with the rapid spread of SARS-CoV-2.
 412 Interestingly, experiments using pseudoviruses bearing chimeric S proteins between
 413 SARS-CoV (without the metalloproteinase pathway) and SARS-CoV-2 (with the
 414 metalloproteinase pathway) revealed that both the S1/S2 boundary of SARS-CoV-2 and
 415 the S2 domain of SARS-CoV-2 S are essential for metalloproteinase-dependent entry. In
 416 contrast, the two domains of SARS-CoV-2 independently contributed to TMPRSS2-
 417 dependent S2 priming. This discrepancy may be partially due to the difference in the
 418 substrate recognition properties of the priming proteases in the two pathways. The S112
 419 pseudovirus (a VSV pseudovirus bearing SARS-CoV S mutant, in which the S2 region
 420 was replaced with the corresponding domain of SARS-CoV-2) can use the TMPRSS2
 421 pathway more efficiently than the SARS-CoV S pseudovirus, which suggests that
 422 TMPRSS2 may be partially accessible to the priming site in SARS-CoV-2 (C-terminal of
 423 Arg815) but not to that in SARS-CoV (C-terminal of Arg797) without S1 dissociation.
 424 In contrast, the putative priming protease in the metalloproteinase pathway, which may

not be a metalloproteinase but a protease activated by metalloproteinases, can access the priming site only when the site occurs within the contextual characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 S2, and S1/S2 is cleaved to allow S1 dissociation. Determination of the priming site in the metalloproteinase pathway and identification of the critical amino acid residues generating the structural characteristics of SARS-CoV-2 S2 that allow metalloproteinase-dependent priming are required to understand its molecular mechanisms for the two distinct surface entry pathways. From an evolutionary perspective, SARS-CoV-2 acquired the metalloproteinase pathway by introducing mutations into the S2 region, which may have contributed to the SARS-CoV-2 pandemic. The function of point mutations in the S2 domain have not yet been fully analyzed in comparison to those in the S1 domain, which cause escape from neutralizing antibodies[58]. However, various point mutations in the S2 domain may play important roles in increasing the efficiency of infection and disease progression and the generation of highly infectious variants.

Using selective metalloproteinase inhibitors and ADAM10 knockdowns generated using specific siRNAs, we have demonstrated that ADAM10 plays an important role in the metalloproteinase pathway. ADAM10 is ubiquitously expressed in various tissues[59] and cell lines[60], and functionally regulates cell differentiation and proliferation by cleaving ligands and receptors such as epidermal growth factor (EGF),

443 heparin-binding EGF-like growth factor (HB-EGF), and Notch[61]. ADAM10 is thus
444 likely to contribute to SARS-CoV-2 infection in various organs. ADAM17, similar to
445 ADAM10, is also known as a metalloproteinase that induces the cleavage of receptors
446 and ligands, and both can cleave common substrates such as Notch and HB-EGF[61]. It
447 has been reported that ACE2 shedding by ADAM17 promotes SARS-CoV-2
448 infection[42]. Although we observed that ADAM17 depletion resulted in the cellular
449 accumulation of ACE2, which is indicative of reduced ACE2 shedding, total SARS-CoV-
450 2 pseudovirus infection was unexpectedly augmented and the relative contribution of the
451 metalloproteinase pathway was not affected. ADAM10 and ADAM17 thus both play
452 crucial but distinct roles in SARS-CoV-2 infection. It has recently been reported that
453 ADAM9 inhibition decreases SARS-CoV-2 infection *in vitro*[62]. Although the
454 involvement of ADAM9 in viral entry is not clear, the results suggest that a group of
455 metalloproteinases cooperate in the metalloproteinase pathway. This may indicate that
456 the observed ADAM10 depletion-induced inhibition was a part of the maximum
457 inhibition by various metalloproteinase inhibitors. A recent report also showed that
458 MMP12 knockouts inhibited SARS-CoV-2 infection *in vitro*[63]. However,
459 MMP408[30], an inhibitor of MMP12, did not prevent SARS-CoV-2 infection in various
460 cell lines in this investigation, suggesting that metalloproteinases involved in the

metalloproteinase pathway may differ in a cell type-dependent manner. Further studies are required to identify the functional metalloproteinases that are involved in the metalloproteinase pathway.

Various compounds are reported to inhibit SARS-CoV-2 infection by inhibiting envelope fusion *in vitro*. However, camostat[64], an inhibitor of the TMPRSS2-dependent surface entry, and hydroxychloroquine[65, 66], an inhibitor of the endosomal pathway, have failed to show sufficient therapeutic efficacy in clinical trials. Our entry pathway analysis revealed that the metalloproteinase surface pathway coexists with the TMPRSS2 pathway and/or the endosome pathway in various cell types. Furthermore, in HEC50B and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells, cell death could not be inhibited unless all entry pathways in each cell were inhibited using inhibitor co-treatments for each pathway. Therefore, future clinical trials on virus entry in which the TMPRSS2, metalloproteinase, and endosome pathways are all efficiently blocked, need to be conducted. We propose that to address this challenge both marimastat and prinomastat should be utilized in clinical trials. The mean maximum plasma concentration (C_{max}) at a reasonably well-tolerated dose was 590 nM for marimastat[27] and 680 nM for prinomastat[28]. Furthermore, we demonstrated that these two drugs significantly inhibited SARS-CoV-2 infection at concentrations lower than their C_{max} values. These metalloprotease inhibitors,

in combination with other protease inhibitors targeting the TMPRSS2 and endosome pathways, may effectively inhibit SARS-CoV-2 infection in various tissues and cure COVID-19. Recently, there has been concern about the spread of SARS-CoV-2 variants, such as the delta strain, as they reduce the effectiveness of the neutralizing antibodies produced by vaccination[7, 9, 10]. Since sensitivities against marimastat, nafamostat, and E-64d have been conserved in the various variants investigated so far, the strategies to use protease inhibitors for COVID-19 treatment are likely to be significantly effective against these variants. The results of this study may contribute to the development of COVID-19 treatments targeting viral entry pathways.

Materials and Methods

Cell lines, viruses, and reagents

VeroE6 (CRL-1586), 293T (CRL-3216), A704 (HTB-45) and Calu-3 (HTB-55) cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD, USA). OVTOKO (JCRB1048), OVISe (JCRB1043), HEC50B (JCRB1145), VeroE6-TMPRSS2 (JCRB1819)[67], and OUMS-23 (JCRB1022) cells were obtained from the Japanese Collection of Research Bioresources Cell Bank (Osaka, Japan). IGROV1 cells (SCC203) were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany) and Caco-2 cells

497 (RCB0988) were obtained from the RIKEN BioResource Research Center (Tsukuba,
498 Japan). A704, Calu-3, VeroE6, HEC50B, and Caco-2 cells were maintained in Eagle's
499 minimum essential medium (EMEM; 055-08975, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical,
500 Osaka, Japan) containing 15% fetal bovine serum (FBS). OUMS-23, IGROV1, and 293T
501 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; 041-30081,
502 FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical) containing 10% FBS. VeroE6-TMPRSS2 (JCRB1819)
503 cells were cultured in DMEM containing 10% FBS and 1 mg/mL G418. OUISE and
504 OVTOKO cells were maintained in Roswell Park Memorial Institute (RPMI)-1640
505 medium (189-02025, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical) containing 10% FBS. A pair of
506 previously described 293FT-based reporter cell lines that stably express individual split
507 reporters (DSP1-7 and DSP8-11 proteins)[68] were maintained in DMEM containing
508 10% FBS and 1 µg/mL puromycin. To establish stable cell lines expressing the S protein
509 of SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, or MERS-CoV, recombinant pseudotype lentiviruses were
510 produced in 293T cells with psPAX2 packaging plasmid, vesicular stomatitis virus
511 (VSV)-G-expressing plasmid and lentiviral transfer plasmid expressing S protein. To
512 establish stable cell lines expressing ACE2 or CD26 with TMPRSS2, recombinant
513 pseudotype lentiviruses expressing one of the proteins were produced using 293T cells
514 with psPAX2 packaging plasmid and VSV-G-expressing plasmid. The 293FT-derived

reporter cells infected with the pseudotype viruses were selected with 1 µg/mL puromycin, 10 µg/mL blasticidin, and 300 µg/mL hygromycin for at least 1 week. These bulk-selected cells were used for fusion assays. To establish HEC50B cells expressing TMPRSS2 (HEC50B-TMPRSS2), recombinant pseudotype lentivirus expressing TMPRSS2 was produced using 293T cells with psPAX2 packaging plasmid and VSV-G-expressing plasmid. HEC50B cells infected with pseudotype viruses were selected with 300 µg/mL hygromycin for at least 1 week. The SARS-CoV-2 isolate (UT-NCGM02/Human/2020/Tokyo)[69] was propagated in VeroE6-TMPRSS2 (JCRB1819) cells in DMEM containing 5% FBS. Titers were determined with plaque assays using VeroE6/TMPRSS2 (JCRB1819) cells. Negative control No.1 siRNA (4390843), negative control No.2 siRNA (4390846), and three distanced ADAM10-specific siRNAs were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (MA, USA) The siRNA sequences used were 5'-UCA CCU UGU UCU ACC AUU CCA (S1004, ADAM10#1); 5'-UAA CCU CUA AAA UCG UUG CAA (S1005, ADAM10#2); and 5'-UAC GGA UUC CGG AGA AGU CTG (S1006, ADAM10#3) for the ADAM10 knockdown. Cell viability was analyzed using the CellTiter-Glo luminescent cell viability assay (G7570, Promega, WI, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

533 **Protease inhibitors and compound libraries**

534 Nafamostat mesylate (N0959, Tokyo Chemical Industry, Tokyo, Japan), pepstatin A
 535 (4397, Peptide institute, Osaka, Japan), bestatin (027-14101, FUJIFILM Wako Pure
 536 Chemical), leupeptin (4041, Peptide institute), E-64d (4321-v, Peptide institute), furin
 537 inhibitor II (344931, Merck), ilomastat (HY-15768, MedChemExpress, NJ, USA), CTS-
 538 1027 (HY-10398, MedChemExpress), marimastat (HY-12169, MedChemExpress),
 539 prinomastat hydrochloride (PZ0198, Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA), UK370106 (2900,
 540 Tocris, MN, USA), GW280264X (31388, Cayman, MI, USA), GI254023X (SML0789,
 541 Sigma-Aldrich), TAPI-2 (14695, Cayman), MLN-4760 (530616, Merck), BK-1361 (PC-
 542 60981, ProbeChem, Shanghai, China), MMP408 (444291, Millipore, MA, USA),
 543 MMP2/9 inhibitor I (ab145190, Abcam, Cambridge, UK), and MMP9 inhibitor I (444278,
 544 Millipore) were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at a concentration of 10 mM.
 545 Validated Compound Library (1,630 clinically approved compounds and 1,885
 546 pharmacologically active compounds) obtained from the Drug Discovery Initiative (The
 547 University of Tokyo) was used for compound screening.

548

549 **Expression vector construction**

550 To construct expression vectors for ACE2, CD26, and TMPRSS2, genes were cloned into
551 a lentiviral transfer plasmid (CD500B-1, SBI, Palo Alto, CA, USA). Synthetic DNA
552 corresponding to the codon-optimized S gene of SARS-CoV-2 (Wuhan-Hu-1, RefSeq:
553 NC_045512.2), SARS-CoV-2 variants (B.1.1.7, GISAID: EPI_ISL_601443, B.1.351,
554 GenBank: MZ747297.1, B.1.617.1, GISAID: EPI_ISL_1704611, B.1.617.2, GISAID:
555 EPI_ISL_3189054), SARS-CoV (Tor2, RefSeq: NC_004718.3), bat SARS-like
556 coronavirus WIV1 (GenBank: KF367457.1), human coronavirus NL63 (RefSeq:
557 NC_005831.2), and the chimeric S gene (S1, S1/S2 boundary, and S2 domains were
558 derived from either SARS-CoV Tor2 or SARS-Cov-2 Wuhan-Hu-1), and the DNA
559 sequence corresponding to the Flag-tag 5'-GGA GGC GAT TAC AAG GAT GAC GAT
560 GAC AAG TAA-3' (underline, Flag-tag) at the 3' end were all generated by Integrated
561 DNA Technologies (IA, USA). Previously described synthetic DNA corresponding to the
562 codon-optimized S gene of a MERS-CoV (EMC 2012, RefSeq: NC_019843.3)[25] with
563 a DNA sequence corresponding to the Flag-tag 5'-GGA GGC GAT TAC AAG GAT
564 GAC GAT GAC AAG TAA-3' at the 3' end was used in this study. To construct
565 expression vectors for the S protein, the coding regions were cloned into a lentiviral
566 transfer plasmid (CD500B-1, SBI).

567

DSP assay to monitor membrane fusion

DSP1-7 has the structure RL₁₋₁₅₅-Ser-Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-GFP₁₋₁₅₆, while DSP8-11 has the structure Met-GFP₁₅₇₋₂₃₁-Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser-RL₁₅₆₋₃₁₁. RL and GFP become active only when DSP1-7 associates with DSP-8-11 (S1c Fig). For the DSP assay using 293FT cells, DSP8-11 expressing effector cells expressing S protein and DSP1-7 expressing target cells expressing CD26 or ACE2 alone or together with TMPRSS2 were seeded in 10 cm cell culture plates (4×10^6 cells/10 mL) one day prior to the assay (S1a,b Fig). Cells were treated with 6 μ M EnduRen (Promega), a substrate for Renilla luciferase (RL), for 2 h to activate EnduRen. For compound library screening, 0.25 μ L of each compound dissolved in DMSO were added to the 384-well plates (Greiner Bioscience, Frickenhausen, Germany). To test the effects of the selected inhibitors, 1 μ L of each inhibitor dissolved in DMSO was added to the 384-well plates (Greiner Bioscience). Next, 50 μ L of each single cell suspension (effector and target cells) was added to the 384-well plates using a Multidrop dispenser (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA, USA). After incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 4 h, the RL activity was measured using a Centro xS960 luminometer (Berthold, Bad Wildbad, Germany).

Western blotting

Western blot analysis was performed as described previously[70]. The primary antibodies used were rabbit anti-ACE2 (1:1000, ab15348, Abcam), rabbit anti-TACE (1:1000, 3976S, Cell Signaling Technology, MA, USA), rabbit anti-ADAM10 (1:1000, 14194S, Cell Signaling Technology), rabbit anti-Flag-tag (1:1000, PM020, MBL, MA, USA), mouse anti-tubulin (1:1000, CP06, Millipore), and mouse anti-VSV (1:1000, 23H12, Absolute antibody). The Secondly antibodies used were HRP-linked donkey anti-rabbit IgG antibody (NA934; GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ, USA) and HRP-linked donkey anti-mouse IgG antibody (NA931V; GE Healthcare). Cell supernatants containing the pseudotype viral particles were centrifuged at 109,000 g or 35 min at 4 °C using a TLA100.3 rotor with an Optima TLX ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter, CA, USA), and the pellet was then lysed for western blotting analysis.

Preparation of pseudotype VSV viral particles and infection experiments

To prepare pseudotype VSV viral particles 293T cells were transfected with an expression plasmid for S, VSV G, or a control expression plasmid using calcium phosphate precipitation. At 16 h post-transfection, the cells were inoculated with a replication-deficient VSV, Δ VSV-Luci, which lacks the VSV G gene and encodes firefly luciferase, at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 1, as was described previously[71]. After

incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 2 h, the cells were washed with DMEM and further incubated at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 16 h before the supernatants containing the pseudotype viral particles were harvested. Cellular debris was removed from the supernatants using a syringe filter with a 0.45 µm size pore (Millipore). For the infection assay, target cells were seeded in 96-well plates (2 × 10⁴ cells/well) and incubated overnight at 37 °C with 5% CO₂. The cells were pre-treated with inhibitors for 1 h before infection. Pseudotype viral particles were added to the cells in the presence of the inhibitors. Luciferase activity was measured 16 h post-infection using the Bright-Glo Luciferase Assay System or ONE-Glo Luciferase Assay System (Promega) and Centro xS960 luminometer (Berthold).

Transfection

siRNA transfection was performed using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Thermo Fisher Scientific) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cells were seeded in 6-well plates (1.6 × 10⁶ cells/well) with siRNA and Lipofectamine RNAiMAX. Then 24 h after transfection, the cells were seeded in 96-well plates (2 × 10⁴ cells/well), and 48 h after transfection the cells were used for the infection experiments.

Quantification of intracellular SARS-CoV-2 RNA

622 Cells were seeded at 5×10^4 cells per well in a 96-well cell culture plate. After an
623 overnight incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, cells were treated with protease inhibitors for
624 1 h and added with SARS-CoV-2 at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.01 for HEC50B
625 and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells, and MOI of 0.1 for VeroE6, Calu-3, and A704 cells. After
626 24 h of incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, the cells were washed three times with PBS. Cell
627 lysis and cDNA synthesis were performed using SuperPrep II Cell Lysis & RT Kit for
628 qPCR (SCQ-401, TOYOBO, Osaka, Japan) following the manufacturer's instructions.
629 SARS-CoV-2 RNA was detected using a primer set targeting the SARS-CoV-2 N gene.
630 Quantitative real-time RT-PCR was performed using THUNDERBIRD SYBR qPCR
631 Mix (TOYOBO) at 95 °C for 3 min, followed by 50 cycles of 95 °C for 10 s and 60 °C
632 for 1 min. Fluorescence was detected during the thermal cycling process, and
633 quantification studies were performed using the CFX Connect™ Real-Time PCR
634 detection system (Bio-Rad, CA, USA). The level of ribosomal protein L13a (*Rpl13a*)
635 mRNA expression in each sample was used to standardize the data. The primer sequences
636 used were 5'-AAA TTT TGG GGA CCA GGA AC-3' (forward primer) and 5'-TGG CAG
637 CTG TGT AGG TCA AC-3' (reverse primer) for the SARS-CoV-2 N gene; 5'-TGT TTG
638 ACG GCA TCC CAC-3' (forward primer) and 5'-CTG TCA CTG CCT GGT ACT TC-
639 3' (reverse primer) for human *Rpl13a* gene; and 5'-CTC AAG GTT GTG CGT CTG AA-

3' (forward primer) and 5'-CTG TCA CTG CCT GGT ACT TCC A-3' (reverse primer)

for the African green monkey *Rpl13a* gene.

Immunofluorescence Staining

HEC50B and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells were seeded at 1.5×10^5 cells per well in a 24-well cell culture plate. After an overnight incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, cells were treated with protease inhibitors for 1 h and then with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 1. After 24 h of incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS(-) for 10 min at RT and then permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS(-) for 10 min at RT. Cells were then incubated with anti-SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid (1:1000, GTX135357, GeneTex, CA, USA) primary antibody for 16 h at 4 °C and detected with anti-rabbit-Alexa488 (1:200, A11008, Invitrogen, CA, USA) secondary antibodies for 40 min at RT. Cell nuclei were stained with 1 µg/mL Hoechst 33342 (#080-09981, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical). Fluorescent signals were detected using a BZ-X810 fluorescent microscope (Keyence, Osaka, Japan).

Cytopathicity assay

HEC50B and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells were seeded at 1.5×10^5 cells per well in a 24-well cell culture plate. After an overnight incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂, cells were treated with protease inhibitors for 1 h and then with SARS-CoV-2 at an MOI of 1. To maintain the drug concentration, half of the culture supernatant was replaced daily with fresh medium that contained drugs. After incubation at 37 °C in 5% CO₂ for 3 d, the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min at 25 °C and stained with 0.2% crystal violet solution for 5 min. After washing four times with water, the wells were air-dried at 25 °C. Ethanol was added to each well to dissolve crystal violet. The absorbance was measured at 595 nm using an iMark™ Microplate Reader (Bio-Rad).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed in Microsoft Excel 2016 (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA) and GraphPad Prism 8 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA). Statistically significant differences between the mean values were determined using a two-tailed Student's t-test. Dunnett's test and Tukey's test were used for multiple comparisons. All data represent three independent experiments, and values represent the mean $\pm$ standard deviation (s.d.), with a $p < 0.05$, considered statistically significant.

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Author contributions

M.Y., J.G., and J.I. designed the study; M.Y., J.G., A.K., K.T., and Y.H. performed the experiments; M.Y., J.G., N.K., M.S., K.S., T.A., Y.K., and J.I. analyzed and interpreted the data; and M.Y. and J.I. wrote the manuscript.

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Additional information

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Figure Captions

Fig 1. ACE2-dependent but TMPRSS2-independent membrane fusion activity of the SARS-CoV-2 S protein

(a) Cell fusion kinetics induced by the S proteins from SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2, and MERS-CoV were determined using the DSP assay. Target cells expressing ACE2 alone or together with TMPRSS2 were used for co-culturing with effector cells expressing SARS-CoV S and SARS-CoV-2 S, and cells expressing CD26 alone or together with TMPRSS2 were used for co-culturing with effector cells expressing MERS-CoV- S. Relative cell-fusion values were calculated by normalizing the RL activity of each co-culture to that of the co-culture with cells expressing both receptor and TMPRSS2 at 240 min, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$. **(b)** Phase contrast images of S protein-mediated cell fusion 16 h after co-culture. Red arrowheads indicate syncytia formation Scale bars, 100 μm . **(c)** Effect of nafamostat on the TMPRSS2-dependent cell fusion. Target cells expressing ACE2 with TMPRSS2 were used for co-culturing with effector cells expressing SARS-CoV S and SARS-CoV-2 S, and cells expressing CD26 with TMPRSS2 were used for co-culturing with effector cells expressing MERS-CoV- S. Relative cell-fusion values were calculated by normalizing the RL activity for each co-culture to that of the co-culture with cells expressing both

receptor and TMPRSS2 in the presence of DMSO, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$. (d) Effects of the nafamostat on the TMPRSS2-independent or -dependent cell fusion. Target cells expressing ACE2 alone or together with TMPRSS2 were used for co-culturing with effector cells expressing SARS-CoV-2 S. Relative cell-fusion value was calculated by normalizing the RL activity for each co-culture to that of the co-culture with cells expressing both ACE2 and TMPRSS2 in the presence of DMSO, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). nafamo, nafamostat.

Fig 2. TMPRSS2-independent membrane fusion induced by the S protein of SARS-CoV-2 is blocked by various metalloproteinase inhibitors.

(a) High-throughput screening of the Validated Compound Library (1,630 clinically approved compounds and 1,885 pharmacologically active compounds) in the DSP assay using the SARS-CoV-2 S protein. The x-axis shows the relative cell-fusion value using cells expressing both TMPRSS2 and ACE2 in the presence of each compound (1 μM in DMSO), $n = 1$. The y-axis shows the relative cell-fusion value using cells expressing ACE2 alone in the presence of each compound (1 μM in DMSO), $n = 1$. The relative cell-fusion value was calculated by normalizing the RL activity for each compound to that of

the control assay (DMSO alone; set to 100%). Each dot represents an individual compound. Dots in the red-dashed box indicate compounds that preferentially inhibit TMPRSS2-independent membrane fusion. (< 30% inhibition of the relative cell fusion value using the target cells expressing both TMPRSS2 and ACE2 and > 40% inhibition of the relative cell-fusion value using the target cells expressing ACE2 alone. The compound names for the candidates are indicated. (b) Effects of the metalloproteinase inhibitors on cell fusion in the co-cultures of the cells expressing SARS-CoV-2 S protein with those expressing ACE2 alone or in combination with TMPRSS2. Relative cell-fusion values were calculated by normalizing the RL activity for each co-culture to that of the co-culture with cells expressing both ACE2 and TMPRSS2 in the presence of DMSO, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$.

Fig 3. The metalloproteinase-dependent viral entry pathway is cell type-dependent.

Effects of drugs on the entry of SARS-CoV-2 S-bearing vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) pseudotype virus. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for each condition to the FL activity of cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 S-bearing pseudovirus in the presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. Cont: cells infected with pseudovirus

without S protein; SARS-CoV-2: cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 S-bearing pseudovirus.
E-64d: 25 μ M E-64d, nafamo: 10 μ M nafamostat, marima: 1 μ M marimastat. **(a)** Effects
of marimastat, E-64d, or nafamostat on the pseudovirus entry in A704, OVISe, and Calu-
3 cells, respectively. **(b-e)** Effects of a single drug treatment or a combination treatment
on the pseudovirus entry in VeroE6, HEC50B, OVTOKO and A704 cells (b), IGROV1,
OUMS-23 and OVISe cells (c), Calu-3 and Caco-2 (d), and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells
(e).

**Fig 4. The metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway requires both the furin-
cleavage site and S2 region of the SARS-CoV-2 S protein.**

Effects of drugs on the entry of S protein-bearing vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV)
pseudotype virus. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL
activity for each condition to the FL activity of cells infected with pseudovirus in the
presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$ /group).
** $p < 0.01$. Cont: cells infected with pseudovirus without S protein. E-64d: 25 μ M E-
64d, marima: 1 μ M marimastat, nafamo: 10 μ M nafamostat. **(a)** Effects of E-64d and
marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV S, SARS-CoV-2 S, MERS-
CoV S, or VSV G in HEC50B cells. **b**, Effects of E-64d and marimastat on the entry of

HCoV-NL63 S and WIV1-CoV S pseudovirus in HEC50B cells. **c**, Schematic illustration of C-terminally Flag-tagged chimeric S proteins in which the S1, S1/S2 boundary, and S2 domain from SARS-CoV S (red) or SARS-CoV-2 S (yellow) are indicated (top). Amino acid sequences of the residues around the S1/S2 boundary of the coronaviruses (bottom). Numbers refer to the amino acid residues. F: Flag-tag. Arginine residues in the S1/S2 cleavage site and furin cleavage motif are highlighted in red. **(d)** Expression of chimeric S protein in pseudoviruses. S proteins were detected using an anti-Flag-tag antibody that binds to a Flag-tag on the C-terminus of the S proteins (top). Detection of the vesicular stomatitis virus matrix protein (VSV M) served as the control (bottom). S0: uncleaved S protein; S2: cleaved S2 domain of the S protein. **(e, f)** Effects of E-64d and marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing chimeric S proteins in HEC50B cells. **(g)** Effects of E-64d and nafamostat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV S, SARS-CoV-2 S, MERS-CoV S, or VSV G in HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells in the presence of marimastat. **(h, i)** Effects of E-64d and nafamostat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing chimeric S proteins in HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells in the presence of marimastat.

Fig 5. Possible involvement of ADAM-10 in the metalloproteinase-dependent entry of SARS-CoV-2.

(a) Effects of metalloprotease inhibitors on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S or VSV G in VeroE6 and HEC50B cells in the presence of E-64d, and A704 cells in the absence of E-64d. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for each condition to the FL activity of cells infected with pseudovirus in the presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$ /group). Data were compared with those obtained from cells infected with pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S in the presence of E-64d for HEC50B and VeroE6, and in the presence of DMSO alone for A704. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. Cont: cells infected with pseudovirus without S protein. marima: marimastat, prinoma: prinomastat, iloma: ilomastat, CTS: CTS-1027, UK: UK370106, GW: GW280264X, GI: GI254023X, MLN: MLN-4760, BK: BK-1361, MMP2/9i: MMP2/9 inhibitor I, MMP9i: MMP9 inhibitor I.

(b) Effects of the ADAM10 knockdown on ACE2 (top), ADAM10 (middle), and tubulin (bottom) expression. HEC50B cells were transfected with two distinct control siRNAs or three distinct siRNAs against Adam10 for 48 h. **(c)** The effect of the ADAM10 knockdown on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S, SARS-CoV S, MERS-CoV S, or VSV G. HEC50B cells were transfected with siRNAs for 48 h and then infected with pseudoviruses. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for each condition to the FL activity of cells infected with

pseudovirus in the absence of siRNA (mock), which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. **(d, e)** Effect of ADAM10 knockdown on the patterns of the entry pathways for SARS-CoV-2 S pseudovirus in HEC50B cells. HEC50B cells were transfected with siRNAs for 48 h and then infected with pseudoviruses in the presence of drugs. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$. E-64d: 25 μM E-64d, marima: 1 μM marimastat. Data are displayed as the conditions of siRNA treatment (d) and drug treatment (e).

Fig 6. The metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway of authentic SARS-CoV-2 is involved in syncytia formation and cytopathicity.

Effects of the drugs on the cytoplasmic viral RNA after SARS-CoV-2 infection. The relative amount of viral RNA in the cells was normalized to cellular *Rpl13a* mRNA expression. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$ in a-d, $n = 10/\text{group}$ in e). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. **(a)** Effects of marimastat or prinomastat on SARS-CoV-2 infection in HEC50B, A704, and VeroE6 cells. **(b)** Effects of marimastat and the inhibitor of the endosome pathway on SARS-CoV-2 infection in HEC50B, A704, and VeroE6 cells. marima: 1 μM marimastat, E-64d: 25 μM E-64d, NH₄Cl: 10 mM NH₄Cl. **(c)** Effect of marimastat, E-64d, and nafamostat on SARS-CoV-2 infection in HEC50B-TMPRSS2 cells. marima: 1

μM marimastat, E-64d: 25 μM E-64d, nafamo: 10 μM nafamostat. **(d)** Effects of selective metalloprotease inhibitors on SARS-CoV-2 infection in HEC50B cells. GW: GW280264X, GI: GI254023X. **(e)** Effect of ADAM10 knockdown on SARS-CoV-2 infection in HEC50B cells. **(f, g)** Effects of drugs on SARS-CoV-2-induced syncytia formation in HEC50B (f) and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 (g) cells. Cells were stained with anti-SARS-CoV-2 N antibody (green) 24 h after infection. Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33342 (blue). Scale bars, 200 μm. **(h, i)** Effects of drugs on SARS-CoV-2-induced cytopathicity in HEC50B (h) and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 (i) cells. marima: marimastat, prinoma: prinomastat. E-64d: 25 μM E-64d, nafamo: 10 μM nafamostat. Values are means ± SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$.

Supporting information

S1 Fig. Cell-based membrane-fusion assay for coronavirus S proteins using the DSP reporter.

(a) A method to monitor cell-cell membrane fusion mediated by the S protein of coronaviruses[24, 25]. Effector cells (293FT cells expressing DSP8-11 and S protein) and target cells (293FT cells expressing DSP1-7 and receptor protein with TMPRSS2 for “cell fusion with TMPRSS2” (top) or receptor protein without TMPRSS2 for “cell fusion

without TMPRSS2” (bottom)) were co-cultured for 4 h. Both GFP (fluorescence) and RL (luminescence) signals were generated following DSP1-7 and DSP8-11 reassociation upon mixing of the cells during the assay. **(b)** Expression of S proteins in effector cells were detected using an anti-Flag-tag antibody that binds to a Flag-tag on the C-terminus of S proteins (top). Tubulin was used as a control (bottom panel). S0: uncleaved S protein; S2: cleaved S2 domain of the S protein. **(c)** Schematic diagram of split chimeric reporter proteins. DSP1-7 has the structure RL1–155-Ser-Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-GFP1–156. DSP8-11 has the Met- GFP157–231 -Gly-Gly-Gly-Gly-Ser- RL156–311. As GFP1–156 contains the first seven β sheets, and GFP157–231 contains the remaining four β sheets, the split proteins were called DSP1-7 and DSP8-11, respectively. DSP1-7 and DSP8-11 reassociate efficiently, resulting in the reconstitution of functional RL and GFP to generate luminescent and fluorescent signals, respectively.

S2 Fig. Control experiments for the DSP assay.

(a) A method to check whether compounds directly inhibit DSP activity without affecting cell-cell fusion[25]. 293FT cells expressing DSP1-7 and DSP8-11 were treated with compounds for 4 h. Measuring RL activities of the preformed DSP1-7/DSP8-11 complex to check whether the compounds directly inhibit RL activities without affecting cell-cell

fusion. **(b)** Effect of metalloproteinase inhibitors on RL activity. Relative DSP activity was calculated by normalizing the RL activity for each condition to that of the control assay (DMSO alone; set to 100%). Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$ /group).

S3 Fig. Effects of candidate compounds on the cell-cell fusion and RL activities.

Effector cells expressing SARS-CoV-2 S were co-cultured with target cells expressing ACE2 alone for the TMPRSS2-independent cell-cell fusion assay (blue) or cells expressing ACE2 with TMPRSS2 for the TMPRSS2-dependent cell-cell fusion assay (red) in the presence of candidate compounds for 4 h. Cells expressing DSP1-7 and DSP8-11 in the presence of candidate compounds for 4 h to determine whether compounds directly inhibit RL activities (purple). Relative DSP activity was calculated by normalizing the RL activity for each condition to that of the control assay (DMSO alone; set to 100%). Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$ /group).

S4 Fig. The metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway strictly requires both the furin-cleavage site and S2 region of S protein of SARS-CoV-2.

Effects of the drugs on the entry of S protein-bearing vesicular stomatitis virus (VSV) pseudotype virus. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL

activity for each condition to the FL activity of the cells infected with pseudovirus in the presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$. Cont: cells infected with pseudovirus without S protein. E-64d: 25 μM E-64d, marima: 1 μM marimastat, nafamo: 10 μM nafamostat. **(a, b)** Effects of E-64d and marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV S, SARS-CoV-2 S, MERS-CoV S, or VSV G in A704 (a) and VeroE6 (b) cells. **(c, d)** Effects of E-64d and marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing chimeric S proteins in VeroE6 cells. **(e)** Effects of E-64d and nafamostat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV S, SARS-CoV-2 S, MERS-CoV S, or VSV G in VeroE6-TMPRSS2 cells. **(f, g)** Effects of E-64d and nafamostat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing chimeric S proteins in VeroE6-TMPRSS2 cells. To establish VeroE6 cells expressing TMPRSS2 (VeroE6-TMPRSS2), recombinant pseudotype lentivirus expressing TMPRSS2 was produced using 293T cells with a VSV-G-expressing plasmid. Cells infected with pseudotype viruses were selected with 300 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ hygromycin for at least 1 week.

S5 Fig. Patterns of entry pathways were conserved in various variants of SARS-CoV-2.

1178 **(a)** Expression of WT or mutant SARS-CoV-2 S proteins with mutations present in
1179 B.1.1.7, B.1.351, B.1.617.1 and B.1.617.2 variants in the pseudoviruses. S proteins were
1180 detected using an anti-Flag-tag antibody that binds to a Flag-tag on the C-terminus of S
1181 proteins (top). Detection of vesicular stomatitis virus matrix protein (VSV M) served as
1182 a control (bottom). S0: uncleaved S protein; S2: cleaved S2 domain of the S protein. **(b)**
1183 Effects of E-64d and marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S
1184 in VeroE6 cells. E-64d: 25 μ M E-64d, marima: 1 μ M marimastat. **(c)** Effects of
1185 nafamostat on the entry of pseudovirus bearing SARS-CoV-2 S in VeroE6-TMPRSS2
1186 cells. **(d)** Effects of E-64d and marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-
1187 CoV-2 S in HEC50B cells. E-64d: 25 μ M E-64d, marima: 1 μ M marimastat. **(e)** Effects
1188 of marimastat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S in A704 cells. **(f)**
1189 Effects of nafamostat on the entry of pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S in Calu-3
1190 cells. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for
1191 each condition to the FL activity of cells infected with pseudovirus in the presence of
1192 DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$ /group in b-f). Data
1193 were compared with those obtained from cells infected pseudoviruses bearing variant
1194 SARS-CoV-2 S in the presence of DMSO alone. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. Cont: cells
1195 infected with a pseudovirus without S protein in **(b-f)**.

S6 Fig. Expression of WIV1-CoV and HCoV-NL63 S protein in pseudoviruses.

(a) Schematic illustration of C-terminally FLAG-tagged S proteins of WIV1-CoV and HCoV-NL63 and amino acid sequences of the residues around the S1/S2 boundary of the coronaviruses (bottom). Numbers refer to amino acid residues. F: Flag tag. Arginine residues in the S1/S2 cleavage site and furin cleavage motif are highlighted in red. **(b)** Expression of S protein in pseudoviruses S proteins were detected using an anti-Flag-tag antibody that binds to a Flag-tag on the C-terminus of S proteins (top). The detection of VSV M served as a control (bottom). S0: uncleaved S protein; S2: cleaved S2 domain of the S protein.

S7 Fig. Effects of drugs on cell viabilities.

(a-c) VeroE6 (a), HEC50B (b), and A704 (c) cells were treated with various drugs, and cell viability was analyzed using Celltiter-Glo 24 h after the treatment. The relative cell viability was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for each condition to the FL activity of the cells in the presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3$ /group). **(d, e)** HEC50B (d), and HEC50B-TMPRSS2 (e) cells were treated with various drugs for 3 days. Half of the culture supernatant was replaced daily

with fresh medium containing the drugs. The relative cell viability was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for each condition to the FL activity of cells in the presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 6/\text{group}$).

S8 Fig. Patterns of the entry pathways of the pseudovirus bearing SARS-CoV-2 S were not affected by the ADAM17 knockout in the HEC50B cells.

(a) Effect of the ADAM17 knockout on ACE2 (top), ADAM17 (middle), and tubulin (bottom). (b) Effect of the ADAM17 knockout on the entry of the pseudoviruses bearing SARS-CoV-2 S. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$. (c) Effect of the ADAM17 knockout on the patterns of the entry pathways of SARS-CoV-2 S pseudovirus in HEC50B cells. The relative pseudovirus entry was calculated by normalizing the FL activity for each condition to the FL activity of cells infected with pseudovirus in the presence of DMSO alone, which was set to 100%. Values are means $\pm$ SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$).

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. E-64d: 25 μM E-64d, marima: 1 μM marimastat. To establish the ADAM17-knockout HEC50B cells, lentiviruses were produced by transfecting the lentiCRISPRv2 vector (#52961 Addgene, MA, USA) with the following gRNA sequences. The gRNA sequences used were 5'-GCG AGG TAT TCG GCT CCG CG-3' (Cont #1), 5'-GCT TTC ACG GAG GTT CGA CG-3' (Cont #2) and 5'-ATG TTG CAG

TTC GGC TCG AT-3' (Cont #3) for the control experiments, and 5'-AAC GTT CAG
TAC TTG ATG TC-3' (ADAM10 #1) and 5'-GGA CTT CTT CAC TGG ACA CG-3'
(ADAM10 #2) and 5'-CTT AAG GTG AGC CTG ACT CT-3' (ADAM10 #3) for the
establishment of ADAM17-knockout cells. Pooled HEC50B cells infected with
pseudotype viruses were selected with 1 µg/mL puromycin for 1 week.

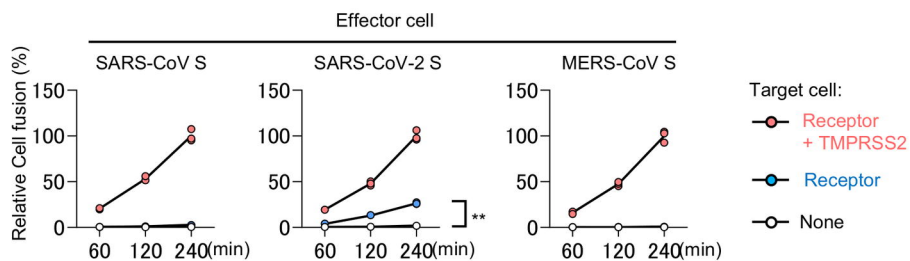
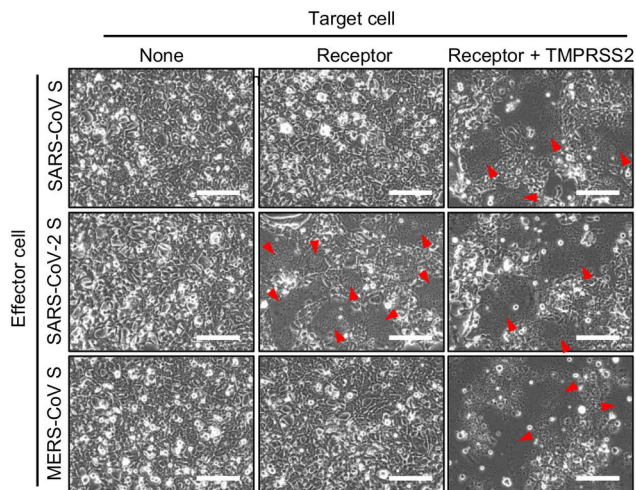
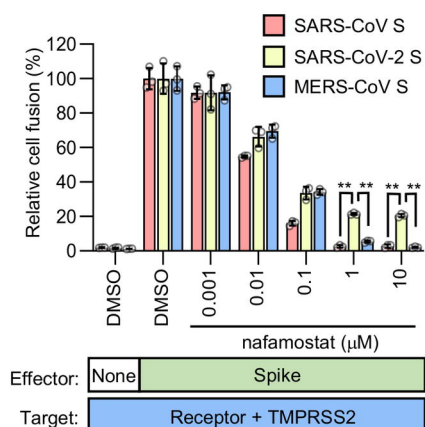
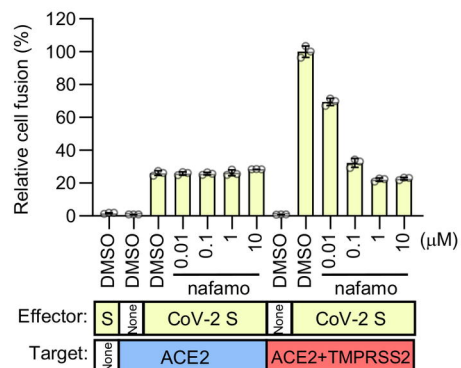
S9 Fig. Effects of drugs on SARS-CoV-2 infection.

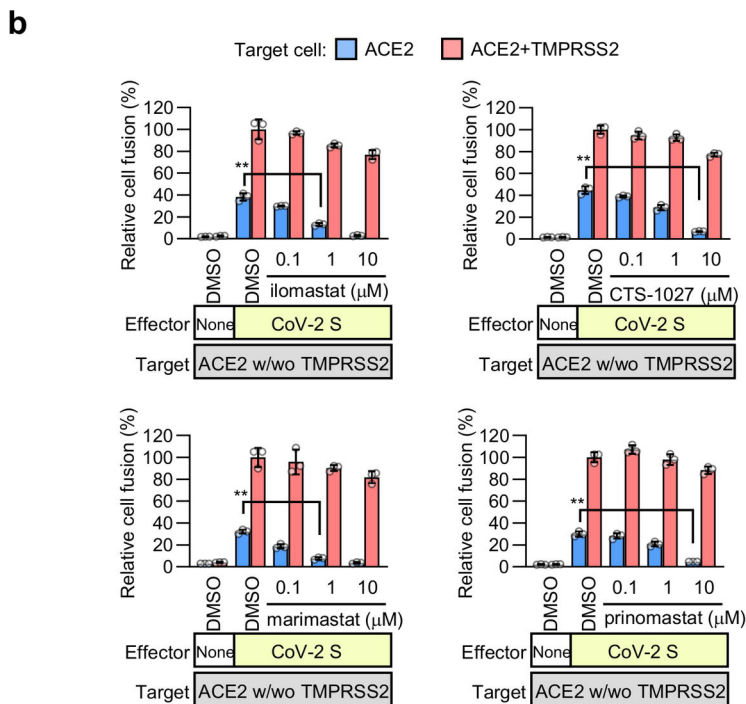
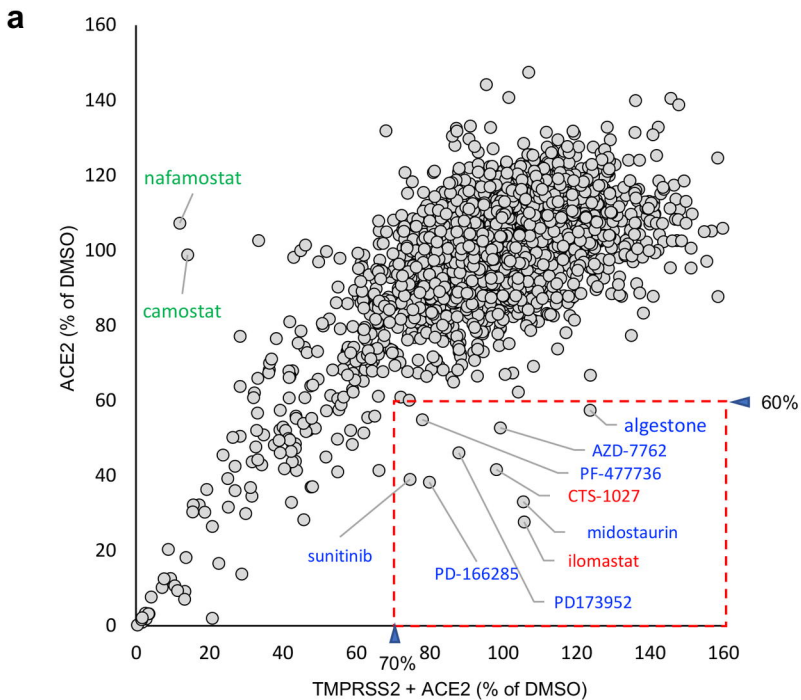
(a) Effects of the nafamostat on the SARS-CoV-2 infection in Calu-3, HEC50B, A704,
and VeroE6 cells. Values are means ± SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). ** $p < 0.01$. **(b)** Effects of the
E-64d on the SARS-CoV-2 infection in HEC50B, A704, and VeroE6 cells. Values are
means ± SD ($n = 3/\text{group}$). * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. **(c)** Effects of the NH₄Cl on the SARS-
CoV-2 infection in HEC50B cells. Values are means ($n = 2/\text{group}$). The relative amount
of viral RNA in the cells was normalized to cellular *Rpl13a* mRNA expression in (a-c).

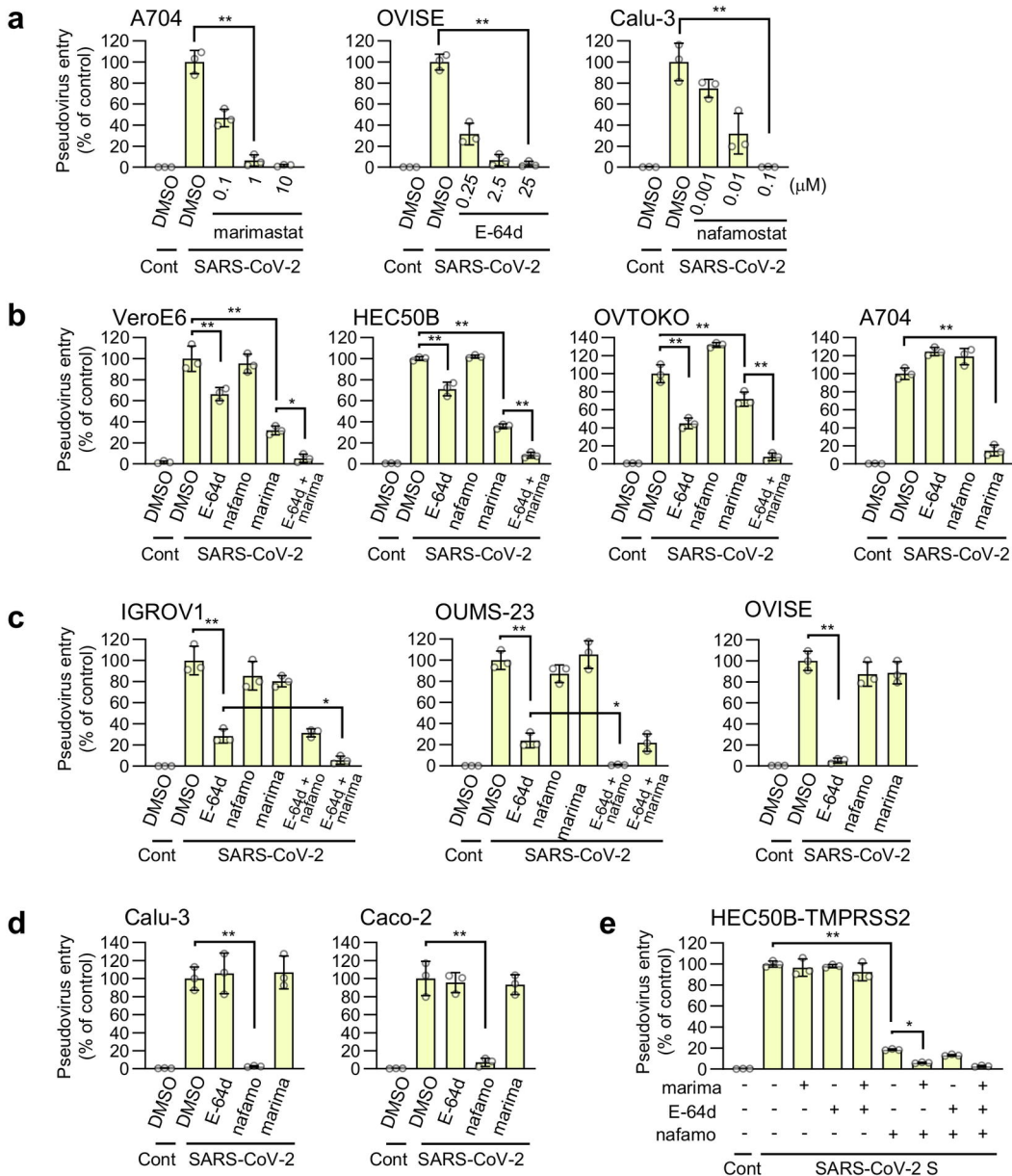
S10 Fig. The metalloproteinase-dependent entry pathway of authentic SARS-CoV-2 is involved in syncytia formation.

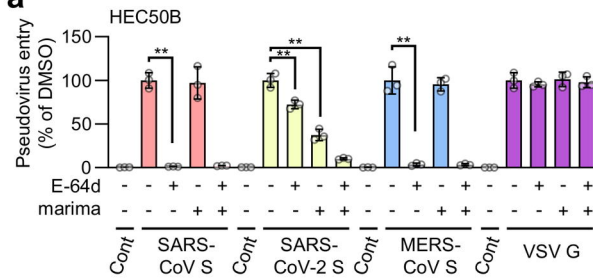
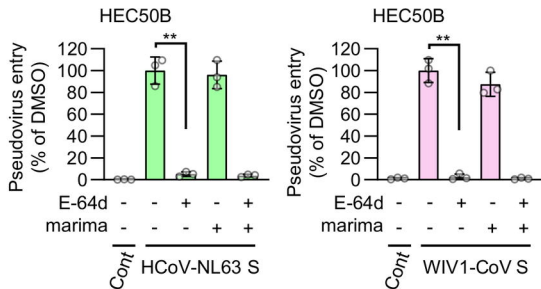
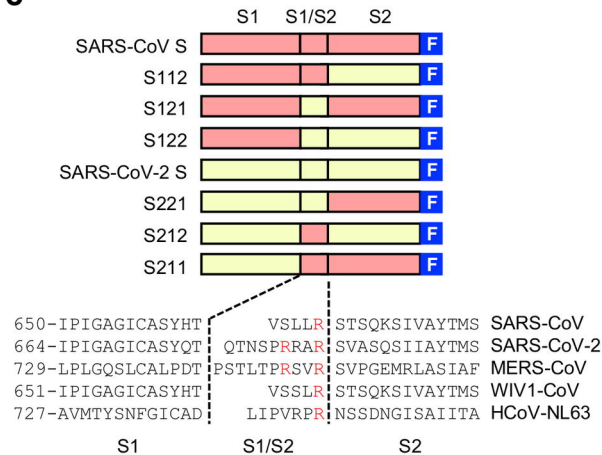
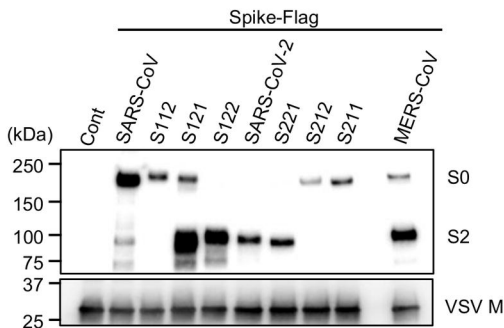
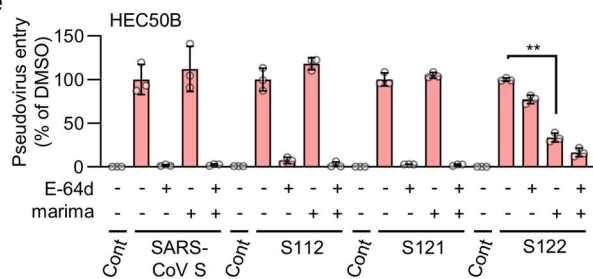
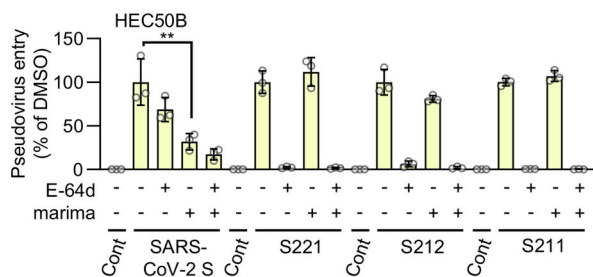
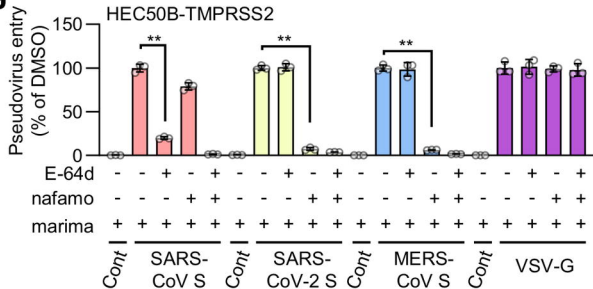
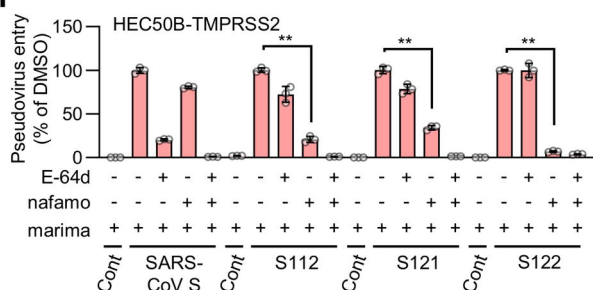
Phase contrast images of syncytia formation 24 h after SARS-CoV-2 infection in the
presence of inhibitors. Red arrowheads indicate syncytia formation Scale bars, 100 µm.

1250

a**b****c****d**





a**b****c****d****e****f****g****h****i**