A Pan-Respiratory Antiviral Chemotype Targeting a Host Multi-Protein Complex

1

2	Authors: Maya Michon ¹ , Andreas Müller-Schiffmann ² , Anuradha F. Lingappa ¹ , Shao Feng Yu ¹ , Li Du ³ ,
3	Fred Deiter ⁴ , Sean Broce ¹ , Suguna Mallesh ¹ , Jackelyn Crabtree ⁵ , Usha F. Lingappa ¹ , Amanda Macieik ¹ ,
4	Lisa Müller ⁶ , Philipp Niklas Ostermann ⁶ , Marcel Andrée ⁶ , Ortwin Adams ⁶ , Heiner Schaal ⁶ , Robert J.
5	Hogan ⁵ , Ralph A. Tripp ⁵ , Umesh Appaiah ¹ , Sanjeev K. Anand ⁷ , Thomas W. Campi ⁷ , Michael J. Ford ⁸ ,
6	Jonathan C. Reed ⁹ , Jim Lin ¹ , Olayemi Akintunde ¹ , Kiel Copeland ¹ , Christine Nichols ¹ , Emma Petrouski ¹ ,
7	A. Raquel Moreira ¹ , I-ting Jiang ¹ , Nicholas DeYarman ¹ , Ian Brown ¹ , Sharon Lau ¹ , Ilana Segal ¹ , Danielle
8	Goldsmith ¹ , Shi Hong ¹ , Vinod Asundi ¹ , Erica M. Briggs ¹ , Ngwe Sin Phyo ¹ , Markus Froehlich ¹ , Bruce
9	Onisko ¹⁰ , Kent Matlack ¹ , Debendranath Dey ¹ , Jaisri R. Lingappa ⁹ , M. Dharma Prasad ¹ , Anatoliy
10	Kitaygorodskyy ¹ , Dennis Solas ¹ , Homer Boushey ¹¹ , John Greenland ^{4,11} , Satish Pillai ^{3,11} , Michael K. Lo ¹² ,
11	Joel M. Montgomery ¹² , Christina F. Spiropoulou ¹² , Carsten Korth ² , Suganya Selvarajah ¹ , Kumar
12	Paulvannan ¹ , and Vishwanath R. Lingappa ^{1,11} *
13	Affiliations:
14	¹ Prosetta Biosciences, San Francisco, CA, USA.
15	² Institute of Neuropathology, Heinrich Heine University, Düsseldorf, Germany.
16	³ Vitalant Research Institute, San Francisco, CA, USA.
17	⁴ Veterans Administration Medical Center, San Francisco, CA, USA
18	⁵ University of Georgia, Animal Health Research Center, Athens, GA, USA.
19	⁶ Institute of Virology, Heinrich Heine University, Düsseldorf, Germany.
20	⁷ Santo Biotech, LLC., Pendleton, IN, USA.
21	⁸ MS Bioworks, Ann Arbor, MI, USA.
22	⁹ Dept. of Global Health, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA.

- ¹⁰Onipro LLC., Kensington, CA, USA.
- 24 ¹¹University of California, San Francisco, CA, USA.
- ¹² Viral Special Pathogens Branch, US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, Atlanta, GA, USA
- 26 * To whom correspondence should be addressed: <u>vlingappa@prosetta.com</u>
- 27
- 28
- 29
- 30

31 <u>Abstract</u>

32 We present a novel small molecule antiviral chemotype that was identified by an unconventional cell-33 free protein synthesis and assembly-based phenotypic screen for modulation of viral capsid assembly. 34 Activity of PAV-431, a representative compound from the series, has been validated against infectious 35 virus in multiple cell culture models for all six families of viruses causing most respiratory disease in 36 humans. In animals this chemotype has been demonstrated efficacious for Porcine Epidemic Diarrhea 37 Virus (a coronavirus) and Respiratory Syncytial Virus (a paramyxovirus). PAV-431 is shown to bind to the 38 protein 14-3-3, a known allosteric modulator. However, it only appears to target the small subset of 14-39 3-3 which is present in a dynamic multi-protein complex whose components include proteins implicated 40 in viral lifecycles and in innate immunity. The composition of this target multi-protein complex appears 41 to be modified upon viral infection and largely restored by PAV-431 treatment. Our findings suggest a 42 new paradigm for understanding, and drugging, the host-virus interface, which leads to a new clinical therapeutic strategy for treatment of respiratory viral disease. 43

45 Background

46 The current SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has been characterized by waves of infection. Emerging mutants, with varying degrees of resistance to current vaccines and waning immune responses within 47 48 the population, have contributed to the seemingly-unending surges of disease (1,2). Furthermore, the 49 risk of a new pandemic, from avian influenza, respiratory syncytial virus (RSV), or another virulent 50 pathogen known to exist in animal reservoirs, is ever present (3). Given how rapidly SARS-CoV-2 spread 51 across the globe once it had been transmitted to humans, concern about highly pathogenic respiratory 52 viruses should not be considered as an abstract, hypothetical threat (4). A technical solution is needed 53 which can account for the degrees of uncertainty and variation inherent to pandemic preparedness and 54 response efforts. Otherwise, antiviral countermeasures will continue to aim at an ever-moving target 55 and always be one step behind. In this paper we will propose a novel solution—one small molecule 56 compound with potent activity against all six families of viruses that cause most respiratory viral disease 57 in humans.

58 Viruses in Adenoviridae, Coronaviridae, Herpesviridae, Orthomyxoviridae, Paramyxoviridae, and Picornaviridae families cause over 95% of respiratory disease in humans (5). Diversity between these 59 viral families, which include both DNA and RNA viruses, and viruses that are both enveloped and not, is 60 61 extremely broad (5). The drugs which are available to treat some of these viruses target the varying 62 proteins encoded by the different viral genomes (6–8). Oseltamivir (Tamiflu) and zanamivir (Relenza) 63 work on influenza by inhibiting neuraminidase, a viral enzyme that propagates infection by facilitating the spread of viral particles throughout the host (8). Acyclovir, a treatment for herpes simplex virus, 64 65 inhibits viral DNA polymerase (6). Paxlovid, the new drug for SARS-CoV-2, is a protease inhibitor that 66 blocks viral enzymes responsible for catalyzing critical maturation steps within the virus's lifecycle (7). 67 But since any one of these viral families represents a small minority of respiratory viral cases, a diagnosis

must be made before potentially effective treatment is initiated. Yet considerable evidence suggests
that the earlier the treatment, the greater is the efficacy (9).

70 Host-targeted antiviral drugs have been proposed as a new strategy for antiviral drug 71 development (10–14). Viruses can only reproduce successfully if they are able to redirect host 72 machinery to suit viral needs (e.g. by building its capsid, blocking immune response, etc.) rather than the 73 needs of the host, which is to maintain homeostasis (15). The viral generation time is several orders of 74 magnitude shorter than the host's, making it likely that the host-virus interactome has been highly 75 selected by viral evolution to provide the best way to reprogram host machinery (16,17). While viruses 76 employ a range of strategies for hijacking host machinery, "high value" sites of host-viral interface are 77 likely to be exploited by more than one family of virus. Those sites would make ideal targets for pan-78 family antiviral drugs, but identifying them is a challenge.

79 We hypothesized that it would be possible to identify these high-value host-viral interface sites, 80 and develop drugs which target them, using cell free protein synthesis and assembly (CFPSA) systems 81 (13,18,19). Cell free systems have been used to observe and understand critical molecular-level 82 processes since 1897 when Eduard Buchner demonstrated that cell-free extracts could carry out the 83 same fermentation reactions as living cells (20). More recently, cell-free protein synthesis has been a 84 critical tool used to decipher the genetic code, deconvolute protein trafficking, and functionally 85 reconstitute the transient virus-host-protein interactions that culminate in viral capsid formation (21– 86 25). The last of these applications, which gave rise to the observation that viral capsid assembly in the 87 cell-free system is dependent on both host machinery and metabolic energy, and thus cannot be due to 88 spontaneous self-assembly, provided the rationale for developing our antiviral drug screen. Our 89 hypothesis was that if viral capsid assembly is a host-catalyzed process, then antiviral therapeutics could 90 be developed by inhibiting the critical host enzymes co-opted by a virus to catalyze assembly of its

capsid. To test this hypothesis, we set up a phenotypic screen for compounds that could block viral
capsid formation in the CFPSA system, without inhibiting protein synthesis (13,19).

93 There are several advantages of a CFPSA-based drug screen. First, it uniquely serves to magnify 94 early events in protein biogenesis that would otherwise be obscured by events in the rest of a protein's 95 life within the cell. Second, it recreates the reality of protein heterogeneity, including with respect to 96 post-translational modifications (PTMs, (26–28) and multi-protein complex formation (29–31). Finally, it 97 exploits the recent appreciation that critical events in protein-protein interactions may occur co-98 translationally, that is, while a protein is nascent (32–36). While in principle such a screen could detect 99 direct binders of the translated viral protein(s), we suspected that the effect of binding a catalytic host 100 target would be much greater, since blocking one enzyme affects many substrate molecules and in this 101 case, the viral capsid monomer would effectively be the substrate for catalyzed capsid assembly.

102 There is an presumption that drugs which target host proteins pose an inherent risk of toxicity 103 (14). However, one implication of the burgeoning literature in favor of "moonlighting" functions of 104 proteins is that only a small subset of any given protein participates in any particular MPC (37–39). Once 105 a hit compound was identified by the CFPSA screen it should then be possible to drive its structure-106 activity relationship to selectivity for the relevant subset of the target protein. We therefore anticipated 107 the need to defer full assessment of toxicity until after structure-activity relationship (SAR) advancement 108 of initial hits. Thus, once an antiviral compound targeting the host were identified by CFPSA, it could 109 subsequently be advanced, first for efficacy, and then to moderate toxicity. This could be achieved 110 either by virtue of the target being a small subset of the full complement of that protein in the cell, or if 111 the virus modified the host target for its needs, SAR might be selectively tuned to the form of the target 112 needed by the virus.

113 The results, to be provided in this paper, focus on the advancement of one novel chemical series 114 identified as a viral assembly modulator in the CFPSA screen, that appears to show pan-family antiviral efficacy in cells and animals. Experiments were performed to advance the potency of this antiviral 115 116 chemical series and better understand its target and mechanism of action, to provide an understanding 117 of this new host-viral interface. 118 119 Results 120 Identification and assessment of early assembly-modulating hit compounds PAV-773 and PAV-835 121 A cell-free protein synthesis and assembly (CFPSA) based phenotypic screen was established for 122 influenza (FLUV) analogous to what has been done for rabies, HIV, and other viruses (13,19,40,41). 123 Unlike conventional phenotypic screens, this screen was carried out in cellular extracts rather than in 124 living cells. The phenotype being screened was the ability of newly synthesized viral capsid protein for 125 form multimers. In the CFPSA system, faithful formation of multimeric capsid protein complexes is a 126 quantifiable, functional endpoint (see diagram in Figure 1A). 127 From a library of 150,000 drug-like small molecules, 30,400 compounds were screened and 128 compounds that interfere with the biochemical pathways of host-catalyzed FLUV capsid assembly were 129 identified as hits. PAV-773 and PAV-835 were early compounds from a chemical series identified in the screen as inhibitors of FLUV capsid assembly (see Figures 1B and 1C for their respective chemical 130 131 structures). Both compounds blocked assembly of FLUV nucleoprotein into a completed capsid in a 132 dose-dependent manner, relative to control (see Figures 1D and 1E for their respective activity against 133 FLUV capsid assembly).



134

135	Figure 1. Identification of PAV-773 and PAV-835 as FLUV assembly inhibitors. Figure 1A shows a
136	schematic of the CFPSA phenotypic drug screen indicating steps and readouts. CFPSA reactions carried out
137	in a 384 well plate format (1) result in synthesis of encoded FLUV proteins, with co-expression of eGFP to
138	distinguish compounds that lower fluorescence readout due to a trivial effect on a protein synthesis (2).
139	Assembled products are transferred to a capture plate (3) which is coated with antibodies to the FLUV
140	nucleoprotein, capturing and immobilizing synthesized FLUV proteins. As a function of multimerization,
141	unoccupied epitopes will exist on bound assembly Intermediates and completed viral structures.
142	Secondary antibodies with fluorescent tags bind those exposed epitopes (4), generating a fluorescent
143	readout specific to multimeric assembly. Drug action that directly or indirectly blocks multimer formation
144	results in a diminution of signal (5). Figure 1B shows the chemical structure of PAV-773 and Figure 1C
145	shows the chemical structure of PAV-835, early hits in the CFPSA screen. Figure 1D and Figure 1E show
146	the effects of PAV-773 and PAV-835 respectively at 3.3uM, 10uM, and 30uM doses on assembly of FLUV
147	NP in the screen, compared to DMSO and a mock negative control. Average relative fluorescent units
148	(RFU) detected from quadruplicate-repeat samples are graphed with standard deviation shown as error
149	bars and statistical significance calculated on GraphPad Prism using an ordinary one-way ANOVA test is
150	indicated by asterisks.

- 151 The FLUV antiviral activity of PAV-773 and PAV-835 was validated against infectious virus in
- 152 MDCK cells by TCID₅₀ determination (see **Figures 2A**). The effective concentration for half maximal
- activity (EC50) against infectious FLUV for both PAV-773 and PAV-835 were lower than 1uM (see Figure
- 154 **2A**).



157	Figure 2. Validation of PAV-773 and PAV-835 antiviral activity in cell culture and evidence for a barrier
158	to resistance development. Figure 2A shows activity of PAV-773 and PAV-835 against infectious FLUV
159	(A/WSN/33) in MDCK cells by TCID ₅₀ determination. Averages and standard error of triplicate samples are
160	graphed, and statistical significance calculated by one-way ANOVA on GraphPad Prism is indicated with
161	asterisks. Figure 2B shows activity of PAV-835 or oseltamivir against FLUV (A/WSN/33) in MDCK cells after
162	7 passages in the presence of compound. Figure 2C shows activity of PAV-773 and PAV-835 against
163	infectious coronavirus (BRCV-OK-0514-2) in HRT-I8G cells by TCID ₅₀ determination. Figure 2D shows
164	activity of PAV-773 and PAV-835 against infectious rhinovirus (HRV-16) in HI-HeLa cells by TCID $_{ m 50}$
165	determination. Figure 2E shows activity of PAV-773 and PAV-835 against infectious herpesvirus (MHV-68)
166	in BHK-21 cells by TCID $_{50}$ determination. PAV-773 and PAV-835 both displayed EC50s of less than 1uM for
167	all four viruses studied. Statistical significance for Figures 2C-E were calculated by ordinary one-way
168	ANOVA tests on GraphPad Prism and are indicated with asterisks.

169

170 The emergence of viral resistance is a common challenge for the development of effective 171 antiviral therapeutics (42). Oseltamivir (Tamiflu), an antiviral small molecule targeting FLUV 172 neuraminidase, is known to select for viral resistance mutants (43). To assess the propensity for FLUV to 173 gain resistance to our chemotype, MDCK cells were infected with serial passages of FLUV in the 174 presence of PAV-835. With each passage, the infected media was used to infect fresh MDCK cells. Higher 175 concentrations of compound were added with each passage to drive resistance (93.5nM to 3uM). After 176 7 passages with compound, PAV-835 retained the same activity against FLUV as it did against a naive 177 strain which had been passaged for 7 times without compound, demonstrating a barrier to the 178 development of resistance (see Figure 2B). In parallel, the same experiment was conducted using 179 Oseltamivir (ranging from 935nM to 30uM), antiviral resistance developed and the compound lost 180 activity by passage 7 (see Figure 2B).

181	We counter-screened PAV-773 and PAV-835 for activity against other viral families by
182	assessment of viral titer in cell culture by TCID ₅₀ (see Figures 2C-E). Both compounds were found to have
183	EC50s of less than 1uM against bovine coronavirus (BoCoV), human rhinovirus (HRV), and murine
184	herpesvirus (MHV). These data led us to refer to these compounds as <i>pan-respiratory viral assembly</i>
185	modulators based on their initial identification as modulators of FLUV capsid assembly and subsequent
186	demonstration of efficacy against multiple respiratory-disease causing viruses.
187	
188	Validation of the antiviral activity of PAV-773 and PAV-835 in animals
189	At the time we were characterizing the activity of these early compounds, an outbreak of
190	Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus (PEDV) led to the loss of more than 10% of the pig population in the
191	United States (44). Since PEDV is a member of the coronavirus family, we predicted that while the
192	chemical series was early in the drug-development process, the compounds would likely show antiviral
193	activity against PEDV. PAV-773 and PAV-835 were assessed in outbred pigs randomized within each
194	litter into control and treatment groups and infected with PEDV. Both compounds significantly increased
195	likelihood of survival, relative to the control (see Figures 3A and 3B).



196

197Figure 3. Validation of PAV-773 and PAV-835 antiviral activity in pigs. Pigs were randomized into control198and treatment groups then infected with PEDV, a pig coronavirus. Figure 3A Left is shown the percent199survival for all animals in the study. The p-value was calculated on GraphPad Prism using Fisher's exact200test. Right is shown the percent survival in the subset of litters in which all animals in the randomized201control (vehicle) treatment group died. As can be seen, compound treatment is equally efficacious in this202severe disease subset. Figure 3B shows the breakdown of survival for PAV-773 and PAV-835.203

204 Characterizing the antiviral activity of PAV-431, a more advanced analog from the Pan-Respiratory

205 Assembly Modulator chemical series

deaths

21

13

13

15

7

5

A structure-activity-relationship (SAR) was pursued to advance the pan-respiratory assembly modulator chemical series emerging from the early hits, and to understand how changes to the chemical structure altered activity against infectious FLUV (see **Supplemental Figure 1**). PAV-431 was identified as a chemical analog with improved efficacy (see **Figure 4A** for its chemical structure and Supplemental **Figure 2A** for its synthetic scheme).

211	PAV-431 was assessed by TCID50 for activity against multiple viral families. PAV-431 displayed
212	an EC50 between 25nM and 100nM (depending on the virus) against members of Orthomyxoviridae,
213	Coronaviridae, Paramyxoviridae, Adenoviridae, Herpesviridae, and Picornaviridae—all six families of
214	viruses which cause respiratory disease in humans (see Figure 4B). Within Coronaviridae, PAV-431
215	showed efficacy against the WA 1/2020, delta, and omicron strains of SARS CoV-2 (see Figure 4C).
216	Finally, PAV-431 was assessed against Nipah virus, a BSL-4 member of the Pneumoviridae family with
217	pandemic potential should it ever jump species and become capable of human-to-human aerosol
218	transmission and shown comparably potent (see Supplementary Figure 3).
219	In addition to demonstrating efficacy in transformed cells, PAV-431 showed activity against the
220	gamma variant of SARS CoV-2 in primary human bronchial epithelial cells cultured to an air-liquid
221	interface (ALI) (see Figure 4D). 100nM PAV-431 eliminated approximately 90% of more of viral load
222	compared to vehicle treatment in three ALI studies derived from three different human lung donors
223	without inflicting significant toxicity to the cells, as measured by levels of RNASe P (see Figure 4D and
224	4E). Notably, PAV-431 did not show significant activity at those doses against rabies virus, indicating
225	that even though the compound displays broad pan-family efficacy, there is some selectivity for a target
226	present in some, but not all, viral families (see Figure 4B).



cell line	virus (family)	PAV-431 EC 50
MDCK	influenza A/WSN/33 (Orthomyxoviridae)	25 nM
MDCK	swine influenza virus SIV/SK WT (Orthomyxoviridae)	25 nM
GBK	bovine coronavirus (Coronaviridae)	50 nM
Vero E6	SARS-CoV-2 WA1/2020 (Coronaviridae)	100 nM
HEp2	respiratory synctial virus strain A-2 (Paramyxoviridae)	< 25 nM
HSAEC1-KT	Nipah virus rNiV-ZsG (<i>Paramyxovirid</i> ae)	≤ 50 nM
A549	adenovirus serotype 5 strain adenoid 65 (Adenoviridae)	< 100 nM
H1-Hela	human cytomegalovirus strain AD69 (<i>Herpesvirid</i> ae)	25 nM
H1-Hela	human rhinovirus 16 (<i>Picornaviridae</i>)	< 20 nM
MNA	rabies virus CVS-11 (<i>Rhabdoviridae</i>)	> 400 nM







227

228

G



230

231	Figure 4. Antiviral activity of PAV-431 against all viral families which cause respiratory disease in humans. Figure
232	4A shows the chemical structure of PAV-431, an analog from the pan-respiratory assembly modulator chemical
233	series. Figure 4B shows the efficacy of PAV-431 against multiple viruses in cell culture by TCID ₅₀ where and EC50 of
234	100nM or lower is observed for every family of virus causing human respiratory disease. Figure 4C shows dose
235	dependent antiviral activity of PAV-431 compared to a DMSO control against multiple SARS-CoV-2 strains:
236	(Wa/2020, lineage A) in Vero E6 cells, determined by plaque assay, delta variant (lineage B.1.617.2) and omicron
237	variant (lineage B.A.1) in Calu-3 cells determined by qPCR of the SARS-CoV-2 N gene and/or TCID ₅₀ . Data shown are
238	the averages of three biological replicates where error bars indicate standard error. Statistical significance was
239	calculated on GraphPad Prism using an ordinary one-way ANOVA test for each dataset. Figures 4D and 4E show
240	efficacy and nontoxicity of PAV-431 in primary human airway epithelial cells at air-liquid interface. Bronchial
241	epithelial cells from three lung donors were culture to an air-liquid interface, infected with SARS-CoV-2 (gamma
242	variant, lineage P.1) and treated with either PAV-431 or vehicle. Figure 4D shows average of two replicates with
243	error bars indicating standard error where viral replication was determined by qPCR measurement of the SARS-
244	CoV-2 N gene. Figure 4E shows a lack of observed toxicity assessed by levels of RNase P. Figure 4F shows results of
245	PAV-431 in an animal efficacy trial against RSV in cotton rats. Averages are shown where error bars indicate
246	standard error. A significant drop in viral titer was observed with PAV-431 treatment, relative to vehicle (unpaired
247	t-test p=0.016). The statistical significance for 4D-F was calculated on GraphPad Prism using unpaired t-tests.
248	Figure 4G shows the efficacy of PAV-431 against Nipah virus, a BSL-4 member of the Pneumoviridae family in
249	human telomerase reverse-transcriptase immortalized primary-like small airway epithelial cells (HSAEC1-KT, ATCC
250	CRL-4050) cultured in Airway Epithelial Basal Medium (ATCC) supplemented with Bronchial Epithelial Cell Growth
251	Kit (ATCC). For infections and cell viability assays (done in duplicate) by both Alamar Blue and Cell Titer glo,
252	HSAEC1-KT cells were cultured with growth medium with 5 mM of D-glucose solution (Gibco). PAV-431 was added
253	prior to infection as described in methods. As shown, CC_{50} of PAV-431 by Alamar Blue is > 10uM and by Cell titer
254	glo is > 5uM, under these conditions.

255

256	We assessed the degree to which the chemical properties of PAV-431 meet the standard criteria
257	for advancement into a drug candidate. PAV-431 displayed promising properties including being
258	negative for hERG channel inhibition, and without substantial Cerep panel enzyme inhibition (see
259	Supplemental Figure 3). When administered to rats, a dose of 5mg/kg administered intraperitoneally
260	(IP) was found to be safe, reaching a concentration of 293 ng/ml in plasma and 452 ng/nl in lungs (see
261	Supplemental Figure 3A).
262	Given the respectable PK properties, PAV-431 was tested in cotton rats infected with respiratory
263	syncytial virus (RSV), a paramyxovirus, to assess animal efficacy for a more advanced compound in the
264	series against a second family of respiratory disease-causing viruses. A small but statistically significant
265	drop in RSV titer was observed with PAV-431 treatment, relative to the vehicle-only control (see Figure
266	4F).
267	
268	Identifying the molecular target of the Pan-Respiratory Assembly Modulators
269	Since the pan-respiratory viral assembly modulator chemical series had been validated as
270	significantly active in cellular or animal models for seven viral families, we sought to understand the
271	molecular target being acted upon by the compound in order to achieve the results. To identify the
272	target, PAV-431 was coupled to an Affi-gel resin from a position on the molecule unrelated to the
273	activity based on SAR exploration. Once bound to a resin, it could serve as a target-binding ligand for
274	drug resin affinity chromatography (DRAC) (see Supplemental Figure 2B for synthetic scheme of a PAV-
275	431 resin).
276	In the DRAC protocol, extracts were prepared from MRC-5 cells which were uninfected, infected
277	with either FLUV or BoCoV, and treated with 400nM PAV-431 or an equivalent amount of DMSO. The

278 extracts were applied to the PAV-431 resin or a control resin containing an Affi-gel matrix bound to

279	itself, washed with 100 bed volumes of buffer, eluted with 100uM PAV-431, then stripped with 1% SDS.
280	In the course of these studies, we discovered that providing metabolic energy substrates in the form of
281	nucleotide triphosphates greatly enhanced target formation (45). We established conditions for energy-
282	dependent drug resin affinity chromatography (eDRAC) by supplementing the extract and the elution
283	buffer with a "energy cocktail" of ribonucleotide triphosphates 1mM rATP, 1mM rGTP, 1mM rCTP, 1mM
284	UTP) and 5 ug/mL creatine kinase, with the binding, washing, and eluting steps conducted at 22°C.
285	When eDRAC eluates from the PAV-431 resins and the control resin were collected and analyzed
286	by silver stain compared to the starting extract, several striking observations were made. While the
287	protein profile in the starting extracts for uninfected, FLUV, and BoCoV infected cells appeared similar,
288	the PAV-431 resin eluates were strikingly different, with a protein pattern not observed for free drug
289	eluates from control resin (lacking the drug as an affinity ligand, see Figure 5A).



290

band density

291 Figure 5. Protein composition of the PAV-431 eluate. eDRAC experiments were performed where 292 uninfected, infected, or infected/PAV-431 treated cellular extract was incubated on a resin coupled to 293 either PAV-431 or a 4% agarose matrix lacking the covalently bound drug. Figure 5A shows silver stain of a

294 SDS-PAGE gel comparing protein composition of the starting cellular extract and the PAV-431 eluate for 295 uninfected, FLUV infected and BoCOV infected MRC5 cells. Figure 5B shows MSMS analysis indicating 296 protein composition and comparing log2 fold change and p-values in protein in triplicate repeated 297 uninfected, FLUV infected, and FLUV/PAV-431 treated conditions. Figure 5C shows MSMS analysis 298 indicating protein composition and comparing log 2 fold change in protein in triplicate-repeated 299 uninfected, BoCoV infected, and BoCoV infected/PAV-431 treated conditions. Green indicates log2 fold 300 change >1. Yellow indicates log2fold change between -1 and 1 (no change). Red indicates log2 fold change 301 >-1. P values indicate significance of the findings. Where the gene product has been listed in bold font, 302 indicates the protein is implicated in the literature as part of the host-virus interactome. Where the gene 303 product has been listed in italic font, indicates the protein is implicated in the literature as related to 304 innate immune system function. Figure 5D shows quantitation of the protein band detected by western 305 blot analysis of the uninfected, infected, and FLUV infected/PAV-431 treated eluates for the protein 306 p62/SQSTM1. Figure 5E shows quantitation of the protein band detected by western blot analysis of 307 eDRAC from pig lung extract where starting extract and eluate were compared side-by-side and the 308 amount of protein in the eluate is graphed as a percentage of the total amount of that protein present in 309 the cell extract. Approximately 2% of the cellular VCP, 3% of the cellular CAPN2, 2.5% of the cellular 14-3-310 3 and 0.5% of the cellular p62 was found in the PAV-431 eluate.

311

Triplicate-repeat samples of eDRAC eluates generated from MRC-5 cell extract were sent for analysis by tandem mass spectrometry (MS-MS) to determine their protein composition. To analyze the data, LFQ intensity values for proteins identified in each condition were measured and compared against each other to generate log2 fold change values for each protein and each combination of conditions to provide a clear description of the differences observed under treatment conditions. Of 64 proteins identified by LFQ as increased in eluates upon FLUV infection, 41 are restored to uninfected levels after treatment with PAV-431 (see **Figure 5B**). All 13 proteins lost from eluates upon FLUV

infection are restored to uninfected levels after treatment with PAV-431 (see Figure 5B). Of 56 proteins
found increased in eluates upon BoCoV infection, 51 are restored to uninfected levels after treatment
with PAV-431 (See Figure 5C). Of 7 proteins lost from eluates with BoCoV infection, 5 are restored to the
uninfected levels after treatment with PAV-431 (See Figure 5C).

323 Proteins found to be significantly enriched or depleted by infection and/or treatment were

324 searched in databases for known virus-host interactions and implication in the innate immune system

interactome and many such proteins were identified (See Figures 5B-5D) (46–51). P62/SQSTM1, a

326 regulator of innate immunity, was identified in the PAV-431 eluate by western blot. As with changes in

327 protein composition observed by MS-MS, the amount of P62 decreased with FLUV infection but was

328 restored with PAV-431 treatment (See Figure 5D).

329 The eDRAC protocol was also conducted with extract prepared from uninfected pig lung 330 homogenate, rather than MRC-5 cells, and samples were analyzed by western blot. When analyzed side-331 by-side with an aliquot of the total starting material, it was determined that for particular proteins 332 found in the eluate including VCP, CAPN2, 14-3-3, and P62, only a single digit percent, or less, of the 333 total amount of specific proteins present in the extract was found in the PAV-431 eluate (See Figure 5E). 334 The large majority of the component proteins did not bind to the resin, or bound nonspecifically such 335 that they were removed with washing, with no significant further binding of drug resin flowthrough 336 applied to a second copy of the drug resin.

To determine the relationship the proteins identified in the eluate had to one another, and to the compound, the eDRAC protocol was modified for photocrosslinking. An analog of PAV-431 was synthesized with diazirine and biotin moieties added to the same position at which the resin had previously been attached (See **Supplemental Figure 2C** for synthetic scheme and chemical structure of photocrosslinker analog). The photocrosslinker analogs were designed so that after an incubation with

342 cell extract that would allow the compound to bind its target, exposure to ultraviolet light would form a 343 covalent bond between the diazirine moiety of the compound and the nearest protein neighbor (52). The sample could then be solubilized and precipitated with streptavidin beads (which bind biotin with 344 345 extremely high affinity) to identify the covalently crosslinked drug-binding proteins. The streptavidin 346 precipitation (SAP) could be done using a native sample, which would pick up the direct drug binding 347 protein(s) and with it, co-associated proteins that were part of an MPC. Alternatively, the SAP could be 348 done using a crosslinked sample that was then denatured by treatment with SDS to 1% and DTT to 1mM 349 with heating to 100oC for 3 minutes to denature all proteins, after which excess 1% Triton-X-100 buffer was added to take free SDS into Triton micelles. Use of this material for SAP would, by virtue of the 350 351 covalent bond to the biotin containing diazirine-drug conjugate, identify only the direct drug-binding 352 protein(s), with all other associated proteins lost upon denaturation and washing. 353 Uninfected pig lung was incubated on the PAV-431 resin under eDRAC conditions, washed 100x, 354 eluted with the PAV-431 crosslinker analog, then exposed to ultraviolet light. The samples were then 355 divided into two equal parts where one was left native and the other denatured, then both were 356 adjusted to non-denaturing conditions and incubated with streptavidin beads. Blots of the SAP samples

357 for VCP, CAPN2, and P62 showed those proteins in the native but not denatured samples, indicating that

358 they were non-covalently co-associated with the compound, and therefore were not its direct binding

partner (see Figures 6A, B, and D). Blots of the SAP samples for 14-3-3 showed nearly equal amounts of

360 protein in both the native and denatured conditions, indicating that PAV-431 directly binds to 14-3-3

361 (See Figure 6C).



362

363	Figure 6. A cellular sub-fraction of 14-3-3 as the direct binding partner in an MPC drug target. eDRAC
364	was conducted with pig lung homogenate extract eluted from the PAV-431 resin with the PAV-431
365	crosslinker analog. Eluates were exposed to UV light and precipitated with streptavadin in native and
366	denaturing conditions then analyzed by western blot. Figures 6A-D shows quantitation of the protein for
367	VCP. CAPN2. 14-3-3. and P62.

368

369 Discussion

370 The antiviral chemotype studied here exhibits several notable features. These include activity across a broad range of respiratory viral families, a demonstrated barrier to development of viral drug 371 372 resistance, different forms of the target present in uninfected vs infected cells, and substantial 373 restoration of the target to the uninfected form with drug treatment. In all cases, a subset of the host 374 protein 14-3-3 appears to be the direct drug-binding protein and is present within a large multiprotein complex notable for its transience and energy-dependence. PAV-431 binds both forms of the target, i.e. 375 376 that present in uninfected cells and that present in infected cells, roughly equally well. Elsewhere a 377 more advanced compound will be described that appears to be selective for the form present only in infected cells which includes, for SARS-CoV-2, the viral nucleoprotein, which is subsequently lost from 378 379 the target upon drug treatment (53, 54).

Two general approaches can be taken for discovery of chemical compounds with therapeutic
 potential— target-based and phenotypic methods (55). Target-based methods of drug discovery involve

382 screens that measure a small molecule's interaction with a particular disease-implicated protein. 383 Phenotypic methods involve screens that monitor how small molecules affect particular biochemical or physiologic readouts within model systems without requiring any prior knowledge of the protein target. 384 385 It has recently been observed that most drugs have been discovered by variations on phenotypic 386 screening (56). Most phenotypic screens involve whole cell assays (57). Such screens, while often 387 successful, face significant drawbacks. The presence of confounding events in the complex milieu of a living cell can mask detection of potentially interesting targets. Moreover, feedback effects are typically 388 389 complex and multifaceted (58–63). This can create a signal-to-noise problem for detection of potential contributors to a particular phenotypic effect. If multiple contributors are involved in creating a 390 391 phenotype it may be hard to de-convolute the relationship of any given one to the behavior of the 392 compound.

By contrast, the CFPSA-based phenotypic screening approach taken here focuses attention on those events set into motion early in protein biogenesis (during and immediately after protein synthesis). This results in an improved signal-to-noise ration by excluding much of the rest of the lifecycle of most proteins, for both viruses and cells, as confounding variables. A growing literature supports the notion that protein assembly is co-translational (32,64). Thus, CFPSA reveals aspects of the viral lifecycle not easily discernable by other methods.

14-3-3, the protein identified as PAV-431's direct target (see Figure 6) is known to regulate
multiple signaling pathways, including cell cycle progression, apoptosis, autophagy, and glucose
metabolism, through protein-protein interactions (65–69). However, it has been difficult to convert
these insights on 14-3-3 biology into therapeutic successes, perhaps because of this "promiscuity" of 143-3 (67–75).

404	The 14-3-3 targeting antiviral chemotype identified through CFPSA is promising precisely
405	because it does not target all of 14-3-3, but rather a tiny subset found within a particular transient,
406	energy-dependent MPC. For this reason, most 14-3-3 in the cell is not perturbed by these drugs. The
407	data from eDRAC experiments provides compelling evidence that the 14-3-3 targeted by PAV-431
408	comprises only a single-digit percent of the total amount of 14-3-3 present in the cellular extract (see
409	Figures 5 and 6). The data from photocrosslinking experiments provides evidence that this targeted
410	subfraction of 14-3-3 is present in an MPC (see Figures 5 and 6). PAV-431 was determined to directly
411	bind 14-3-3 but it also was found to indirectly bind multiple other proteins including p62/SQSTM1, VCP,
412	and CAPN2 that are present in the MPC (see Figures 6A-D). Since 14-3-3 is known to regulate an array of
413	cellular functions, data showing that PAV-431 targets a particular MPC provides a plausible explanation
414	for why some but not all functions of 14-3-3 are regulated by the compound. The selectivity of PAV-431
415	to a small subset of 14-3-3 that is specific to a particular MPC or biochemical pathway makes the
416	possibility of developing the chemical series as a 14-3-3 targeting therapeutic increasingly viable.
417	We originally termed hit compounds identified by our CFPSA screen as 'assembly modulators'
418	because they blocked the assembly of viral proteins. However, based on the eDRAC and
419	photocrosslinking results we would propose a more nuanced model for understanding the mechanism
420	of action of assembly modulating compounds. Our data suggests that viral infection modifies a multi-
421	protein complex with catalytic activity to serve multiple alternate needs for the virus. This includes both
422	promoting viral propagation through capsid assembly and blocking innate immune defenses, such as
423	p62/SQSTM1-mediated autophagy (see Figures 5 and 6). This model is supported by the changes
424	observed to the MPC targeted by PAV-431 under different conditions which indicate that the target's
425	composition is dynamic (see Figure 5). When cells are infected by viruses, certain proteins appear to be
426	recruited and others appear to be expelled from the targeted multi-protein complex. When infected

- 427 cells are treated with PAV-431, the reverse happens and the protein composition of the multi-protein
- 428 complex appears to be largely restored to what was observed in uninfected cells.



429

430	Figure 7. Cartoon diagram of proposed mechanism of action of assembly modulating compounds.
431	Figure 7 A illustrates the proposed model where a "normal" MPC with catalytic activity that plays a role in
432	carrying out cellular events in the service of homeostasis is modified to an "aberrant" MPC by a viral
433	infection. The aberrant MPC carries out a reaction which does not serve homeostasis (e.g. building a viral
434	capsid) and perhaps fails to conduct a key event that it should (e.g. inform innate immune mechanisms
435	that the cell is under attack). Figure 7B illustrates the proposed mechanism in which treatment with a
436	assembly modulating compound, such as PAV-431, normalizes the complex and its homeostatic functions.
437	The protein 14-3-3 is included in the diagram because it is the protein which the compound appears to
438	directly bind. Its known role as an allosteric regulator may provide insight into how this normalization is
439	achieved.

441 The significance of 14-3-3 as the direct binding partner of PAV-431 may be found in its known 442 roles as an allosteric modulator of protein-protein interactions (67) and in its known participation in host 443 anti-viral defenses (Figure 7B) (76). This may also, at least in part, account for the antiviral activity 444 observed for PAV-431 against six diverse families of viruses causing human respiratory disease. The 445 drug-binding site within 14-3-3 may represent a 'high value' site which multiple viruses have found and 446 exploited over deep evolutionary time. The relationship between particular proteins which comprise the 447 targeted MPC and 14-3-3 as the direct drug-binding partner is unknown besides the evidence that they 448 are transiently co-associated, and the observation that many of these proteins are implicated in the 449 literature as being part of disease-relevant protein-protein interactomes (46–49). While more data is 450 needed, the potential significance of these early results involving the PAV-431 drug target is 451 underscored by the loss upon viral infection, and return upon drug-treatment of infected cells, of p62, a 452 known regulator of autophagy (50,51,66). An inability to trigger innate immune responses after viral 453 infection would be to the virus's benefit and the host's detriment. Conversely, restoration of this 454 function would bolster the host's ability to fend of infection. Thus these compounds appear to have a 455 dual mechanism of action: blockade of viral replication (capsid assembly) and restoration of autophagy, 456 a branch of the innate immune system.

457

While the identification of the pan-respiratory assembly modulating chemotype was achieved through unconventional methods, and its novel mechanism of action remains poorly understood, the antiviral activity of compounds from the series have been validated against infectious viruses in both cell culture and animals (see **Figures 2-4**). Cell culture studies, including in primary bronchial epithelial cells cultured at an air-liquid interface and infected with SARS-CoV-2, a model considered as the gold standard for translatability into human therapeutics (77), confirmed antiviral potency of these compounds (see **Figure 4**). Animal studies validated efficacy for survival in an actual pig coronavirus

465	disease and viral load reduction in the cotton rat model of RSV infection (see Figures 3 and 4). The path
466	to develop this chemical series to a clinical drug-candidate and conducting IND enabling studies, IND
467	filing, and human clinical trials on the lead compound is straightforward, especially since a more
468	advanced chemical analog displaying substantial improvement in antiviral activity has already been
469	identified (53, 54). If validated in humans, the assembly modulating compounds presented here may
470	have transformative implications for the treatment of respiratory viral disease, applicable to everything
471	from seasonal influenza, common 'winter viruses' (HRV, etc), emerging variants of SARS-Cov-2, and any
472	other particularly virulent strains of respiratory disease-causing viruses such as avian influenza.
473	Future studies with advanced analogs will address the question of whether it is possible to
474	identify analogs that show selectivity for the form of the target observed in viral infection and avoid the
475	form present in the healthy (uninfected) host. Such compounds would be ideal for human therapeutics
476	and predicted to display striking diminution in toxicity.
477	
478	
470	
479	
480	
481	
482	
483	
484	
485	

486 <u>Supplemental Figures</u>

A	R ² N N R		<u>ک</u>	R ₃ N	R4	R	Ţ	R ₆	
В									
compound	R	R ₂	R	R4	Rs	Re	R ₇	Re	EC ₁₀ (µM)
PAV-770	Me	t-Bu	н	O-CH2-	CH2-O-	н	F	н	1-3
PAV-868	Me	t-Bu	н	OMe	OMe	OMe	н	н	> 3
PAV-858	Me	t-Bu	н	OMe	н	OMe	OMe	н	> 3
PAV-772	Me	t-Bu	н	OMe	F	н	F	н	3
PAV-736	CH2CH2OH	t-Bu	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	> 3
PAV-869	Me	t-Bu	н	OPr	OMe	н	н	н	> 3
PAV-773	Me	t-Bu	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	< 1
PAV-1866	Me	t-Bu	Me	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	> 3
PAV-834	Me	Me	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	3
PAV-854	Me	Cy-hex	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	>1
PAV-530	Me	iPr	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	1
PAV-835	Me	cyPr	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	н	< 1
PAV-895	Me	cyPr	н	OMe	Me	н	н	н	2
PAV-039	Me	cyPr	н	OMe	OMe	н	н	F	1
PAV-896	Me	cyPr	н	Me	OMe	н	н	н	1.5
PAV-700	Me	cyPr	н	CI	OMe	н	н	н	2
PAV-235	Me	cyPr	н	F	OMe	н	н	н	0.2
PAV-944	Me	cyPr	н	OMe	CF ₃	н	н	н	0.2
PAV-901	Me	cyPr	н	CF ₃	OMe	н	н	н	0.3
PAV-671	Me	cyPr	н	н	CI	OCF ₃	н	н	0.05
PAV-774	Me	cyPr	н	CI	OCF ₃	н	н	н	0.2
PAV-431	Me	cyPr	н	OMe	OCF ₃	н	н	н	< 0.1
PAV-528	Me	cyPr	н	OCHF2	OCHF ₂	н	н	н	< 0.1
DAV-877	Mo	ouDr	ы	н	Mo	OCHE	Mo	н	>2

487





Supplemental Figure 2. Synthetic scheme for PAV-431 and its resin and photocrosslinker analogs.
Supplemental Figure 2A shows the synthetic scheme for PAV-431. Supplemental Figure 2B shows the
synthetic scheme for attachment to a resin by the pyrazole position, which was used in the eDRAC
experiments described in Figure 5 and Supplemental Figure 4. The eDRAC experiments described in Figure
6 were conducted with a resin attached from the benzyl ring. Supplemental Figure 2C shows the synthetic
scheme for the PAV-431 photocrosslinker analog used in the experiments described in Figure 6.





501

502 Supplemental Figure 3. Supplemental Figure 3A shows the drug-like properties of PAV-431 including in 503 vivo and in vitro assessments of toxicity as well as pharmacokinetic properties. Maximum tolerated dose 504 (MTD) studies in mice were conducted using female Balb/c mice where randomized groups containing 3 505 mice were dosed with a single dose of vehicle or compound and monitored for 48 hours for symptoms of 506 toxicity. Pharmacokinetic (PK) studies were conducted in male Sprague Dawley rats where randomixed 507 groups of four animals were administered compound and plasma was collected before dosing then after 5 508 minutes, 15 minutes, 30 minutes, 1 hour, 2 hours, 4 hours, 8 hours, 12 hours, and 24 hours to determine 509 concentration of the compound in plasma over time. In the uptake studies, animals were euthanized after 510 30 minutes or 2 hours to determine concentration of the compound in the lung and brain. Supplemental 511 Figure 3B shows the results of PAV-431 in an in vitro Cerep panel, a commercial screen for potential to 512 bind to a broad panel of receptors, enzymes, and ion channels, reported as percent inhibition of control 513 specific binding. PAV-431 was tested at 50uM, a concentration ~500x higher than antiviral EC50. Data 514 shown are the averages of replicates, error bars indicate standard error.

515

516

517 Materials and methods

518 Lead contact and Materials Availability

- 519 Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled
- 520 by the Lead Contact Vishwanath R. Lingappa (vlingappa@prosetta.com).
- 521 Use of unique compound PAV-431 may be available upon request by the Lead Contact if sought for
- 522 experimental purposes under a valid completed Materials Transfer Agreement.
- 523 The number of replicates carried out for each experiment is described in the figure/table legends.

524

525 Chemical Synthesis (see Supplemental Figure 2)

526 Synthesis of PAV-431

527 Synthetic schemes are illustrated in Figure S6. To a solution of 2-methoxy-3-trifluoromethoxy-528 benzaldehyde 1 (2.14 g, 9.71 mmol, 1.0 eq) in toluene (20 mL) was added 2,4-dimethoxybenzyl amine 2 529 (1.78 g, 10.68 mmol, 1.1 eq) and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 24 hours. 530 Toluene was removed to give a residue, which was taken in MeOH (20 mL) and then NaBH4 (735 mg, 531 19.42 mmol, 2.0 eq) was added slowly. The reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 6 532 hours. The solvent was removed and the residue was extracted in ethyl acetate and stirred with 533 saturated aq NaHCO3 for 1 hour. The organic layer was collected, dried, and the solvent was removed to 534 give the crude amine 3, which was used in the next step without further purification. To a solution of the 535 crude amine 3 (4.86 mmol, 1.0 eq) in DMF (20 mL) were added the acid 4 (888 mg, 5.35 mmol, 1.1 eq), 536 DIEA (3.13 g, 24.3 mmol, 5eq) and HBTU (2.22 g, 5.83 mmol, 1.2 eq) and the reaction mixture was stirred 537 at room temperature for 12 hours. The reaction mixture was then diluted with ethyl acetate (75 mL) and 538 washed with 10% aq HCl (1 x 50 mL), sat NaHCO3 (1 x 50 mL) and water (4 x 50 mL). The organic layer

was collected, dried (MgSO4) and evaporated to give a crude product, which was purified by column
chromatography (EtOAc:Hexane 25%:75%)) to give the amide 5, which was directly used in the next
step. The amide 5 was treated with 95% TFA:H2O for 12 hours. TFA was removed and azeotroped with
toluene to give a residue, which was purified by column chromatography (EtOAc:Hexane 10%:50%) to
give PAV-431 (985 mg, > 95% purity).

544

545 Synthesis of PAV-431 Resin

546 To a solution of amine 3 (5.85 g, 15.77 mmol, 1.0 eq) in DMF (30 mL) were added the acid 6 (2.38 g, 15.77 mmol, 1.0 eq), DIEA (10.2 g, 78.85 mmol, 5eq) and HBTU (7.17 g, 18.92 mmol, 1.2 eq) and 547 548 the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 12 hours. The reaction mixture was then 549 diluted with ethyl acetate (75 mL) and washed with 10% ag HCl (1 x 50 mL), sat NaHCO3 (1 x 50 mL) and 550 water (4 x 50 mL). The organic layer was collected, dried (MgSO4) and evaporated to give a crude 551 product, which was purified by column chromatography (EtOAc/Hexane) to give compound 7. To a 552 stirred solution compound 7 (0.8 g, 1.77 mmol, 1.0 eq) and cesium carbonate (1.15 g, 3.54 mmol, 2.0 eq) 553 in DMF (10 mL) was added chloride 8 (0.55 g, 2.66 mmol, 1.5 eq) and the reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 24 hours. The reaction mixture was diluted with ethyl acetate and washed with 554 555 water (4x) and aq NaCl solution. The organic layer was collected, dried (MgSO4) and evaporated to give 556 a crude product, which was purified by column chromatography (EtOAc/Hexane) to give compound 9. 557 The amide 9 (1.0 g, 1.6 mmol) was taken in 95% TFA: H2O and the reaction mixture was for 12 hours. 558 TFA was removed and azeotroped with toluene to give a residue. The residue was taken in DCM and sat. 559 NaHCO3 solution added and stirred for 30 min. The aqueous layer was washed with DCM (2x) and the 560 combined organic layer, dried (MgSO4) and evaporated to give a crude amine, which was used in the 561 next step without purification. To a solution of the crude amine (1.6 mmol, 1.0 eq) and DIEA (412.8 mg,

562	3.2 mmol, 2.0 eq) in DCM (20 mL), was added boc anhydride (523.2 mg, 2.4 mmol, 1.5 eq) and the
563	reaction mixture was stirred at room temperature for 8 hours. The solvent was removed and the residue
564	was purified by column chromatography (EtOAc/Hexane) to give compound 10. Compound 10 (100 mg,
565	0.19 mmol) was in 5 mL of DCM and then 4 M HCl in dioxane (3 mL, 12 mmol) was added and the
566	reaction mixture was stirred for 12 hours. Solvents were removed to give compound 11 as a HCl salt,
567	which was used in the next step without further purification. To a solution of Affi-Gel 10 (Bio-Rad, 2 ml,
568	0.03 mmol, 1.0 eq) in a solid phase synthesis tube with frit was added a solution of compound 11 (27.7
569	mg, 0.06 mmol, 2.0 eq) and DIEA (1.0 mL) in isopropyl alcohol (4 mL) and the tube was put in a shaker
570	for 12 hours. Excess reagents were drained and the resin was washed with isopropyl alcohol (3x) and
571	then saved in isopropyl alcohol.
572	
573	Synthesis of PAV-431 Photocrosslinker
574	To 6-(tert-Butoxycarbonylamino)-2-(9H-fluoren-9-ylmethoxycarbonylamino)hexanoic acid 12
575	[468mg (1mmol)] in a 40ml screw top vial was added 4N HCl in Dioxane (3ml). The vial was sealed and
576	gently agitated for 20 minutes at room temperature. The mix was then rotary evaporated to dryness
577	and the residue placed under high vacuum overnight. The dried residue was taken up into 4ml of DMF
578	(anhydrous) and then sequentially treated with 3-(3-Methyldiazirin-3-yl)propanoic acid [128mg
579	(1mmol)](42), and DIEA [695ul (4mmol)]. With rapid stirring, under Argon atmosphere, was added

580 dropwise HATU [380mg (1mmol)] dissolved in 1ml of DMF. After stirring for 30 minutes the mixture was

quenched with 10ml of sat. NH4Cl solution and then extracted 2 x with 10ml of EtOAc. The combined

- organic extracts were washed once with sat. NaCl, dried (Mg2SO4) and then rotary evaporated to
- 583 dryness. The residue was purified by flash chromatography, using a gradient of Ethyl acetate and

584 Hexane, affording 2-(9H-fluoren-9-ylmethoxycarbonylamino)-6-[3-(3-methyldiazirin-3-

- 585 yl)propanoylamino]hexanoic acid 13 (293mg) in 61% yield.
- 586 To tert-Butyl N-[3-[3-cyclopropyl-5-[[2-methoxy-3-

587 (trifluoromethoxy)phenyl]methylcarbamoyl]pyrazol-1-yl]propyl]-N-methyl-carbamate 14 [16mg (0.03

588 mmol)] in a 40ml screw top vial was added 4N HCl in Dioxane (0.5ml). The vial was sealed and gently

agitated for 20min at room temperature. The mix was then rotary evaporated to dryness and the

residue placed on high vacuum overnight. The dried residue was taken up into 1ml of DMF (anhydrous)

and then sequentially treated with compound 13 [14.5mg (0.03mmol)], and DIEA [32ul (0.18mmol)].

592 With rapid stirring, under Argon atmosphere, was added dropwise HATU [14.6mg (0.038mmol)]

dissolved in 300ul of DMF. After stirring for 30 min the mixture was quenched with 5ml of sat. NH4Cl

solution and then extracted 2 x with 5ml of EtOAc.

595The combined organic extracts were washed once with sat. NaCl, dried (Mg2SO4) and then596rotary evaporated to dryness. The residue was purified by flash chromatography, using a gradient of

597 Ethyl acetate and Hexane, affording 9H-fluoren-9-ylmethyl N-[1-[3-[3-cyclopropyl-5-[[2-methoxy-3-

598 (trifluoromethoxy)phenyl]methylcarbamoyl]pyrazol-1-yl]propyl-methyl-carbamoyl]-5-[3-(3-

599 methyldiazirin-3-yl)propanoylamino]pentyl]carbamate 15 (28mg) in quantitative yield.

To compound 15 [28mg (0.03 mmol)] in a 40ml screw top vial was added 50/50 Diethylamine / DMF (0.5ml). The vial was sealed and gently agitated for 60min at room temperature. The mix was then rotary evaporated to dryness and the residue placed on high vacuum overnight. The residue was triturated 2 x with 3ml of Hexane to remove the Dibenzofulvene amine adduct. The residue was again briefly placed on high vacuum to remove traces of Hexane. The dried residue was taken up into 1ml of DMF (anhydrous) and then treated with Biotin-PEG2-NHS [15mg (0.03mmol)] (purchased from ChemPep), and DIEA [16ul (0.09mmol)] and then purged with Argon. After stirring overnight at room

- 607 temperature, the mixture was rotary evaporated to dryness. The residue was purified by reverse phase
- 608 prep chromatography, using a gradient of 0.1% TFA water and Acetonitrile, affording 5-cyclopropyl-N-
- 609 [[2-methoxy-3-(trifluoromethoxy)phenyl]methyl]-2-[3-[methyl-[6-[3-(3-methyldiazirin-3-
- 610 yl)propanoylamino]-2-[3-[2-[2-[5-(2-oxo-1,3,3a,4,6,6a-hexahydrothieno[3,4-d]imidazol-4-
- 611 yl)pentanoylamino]ethoxy]ethoxy]propanoylamino]hexanoyl]amino]propyl]pyrazole-3-carboxamide
- 612 (26mg) in 80% yield. All compounds were confirmed by LCMS.
- 613

614 Method and Analysis Details

- 615 In vitro studies
- 616 CFPSA screen

617 Coding regions of interest were engineered behind the SP6 bacteriophage promoter and the 618 Xenopus globin 5' UTR63. DNA was amplified by PCR and then transcribed in vitro to generate mRNA 619 encoding each full-length protein. Translations were carried out in wheat germ extracts supplemented 620 with energy and amino acids, as previously described(7). Moderate-throughput small molecule 621 screening was carried out in 384-well plate format by translation of eGFP and FLUV NP and M mRNA in 622 the presence of small molecules from the Prosetta compound collection (Figure S2). Reactions were run 623 at 26°C for 1-2 hours for synthesis, followed by assembly at 34°C for 2 hours. eGFP fluorescent readout 624 was measured at 488/515 nm (excitation/emission) to assess protein synthesis. Assembly products were 625 captured on a second 384-well plate precoated with affinity-purified FLUV NP antibody. Plates were 626 washed with PBS containing 1% Triton X-100, decorated with biotinylated affinity-purified FLUV NP 627 antibody, washed, detected by NeutraAvidin HRP, washed again, and then incubated with a fluorogenic 628 HRP substrate Quanta Blue for 1 hour. FLUV assembly fluorescent readout was measured at 330/425 nm 629 (excitation/emission).

630

631 FLUV assay in MDCK cells

632	MDCK.2 cells were seeded at 3x104 cells/well in Eagle's minimal essential medium (MEM)
633	supplemented with fetal bovine serum (FBS) in a 96-well plate and incubated overnight at 37°C. The
634	next day, cells were washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and infected with FLUV A/WSN/33 at
635	an MOI of 0.01-0.001 for 1 hour, after which the virus containing media was removed and fresh media
636	containing dilutions of compound or DMSO as a vehicle control was added to the cells. After 24 hours,
637	media was removed, cells were washed with PBS, and fresh media was added for a 2 hour incubation
638	and then collected for TCID50 determination. Seven replicates of 10-fold serial dilutions of collected
639	media were added to new cells and incubated at 37°C for 3 days. The number of infected wells for each
640	dilution was determined by visual inspection, and TCID50/mL was calculated using the Reed and
641	Muench method. Infection experiments were conducted in a BSL2 laboratory.
642	

643 BoCoV assay in HRT-18G cells

HRT-18G cells were seeded at 3x104 cells/well in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium (DMEM) in
a 96-well plate and incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day, cells were infected with BoCoV BRCV-OK0514-2 (ATCC VR-2460) at an MOI of 1 for 2 hours, after which the virus containing media was removed,
cells were washed with PBS, and fresh media containing dilutions of compound or DMSO as a vehicle
control was added to the cells. After 42-48 hours, media was removed, cells were washed with PBS, and
fresh media was added for a 4 hour incubation and then collected for TCID50 determination. Infection
experiments were conducted in a BSL2 laboratory.

652 HRV assay in H1-HeLa cells

653	H1-HeLa cells were seeded at 7x104 cells/well in MEM in a 96-well plate and incubated
654	overnight at 37°C. The next day, cells were infected with HRV-16 at an MOI of 5 for 1.5 hours, after
655	which the virus containing media was removed, cells were washed with PBS, and fresh media containing
656	dilutions of compound or DMSO as a vehicle control was added to the cells. After 72 hours, media was
657	collected for TCID50 determination. Infection experiments were conducted in a BSL2 laboratory.
658	
659	MHV assay in BHK-21 cells
660	BHK-21 cells were seeded at 2.5x105 cells/well in MEM in a 96-well plate and incubated
661	overnight at 37°C. The next day, cells were infected with MHV-68 at an MOI of 0.5 for 1.5-2 hours, after
662	which the virus containing media was removed, cells were washed with PBS, and fresh media containing
663	dilutions of compound or DMSO as a vehicle control was added to the cells. After 24 hours, media was
664	removed, cells were washed with PBS, and fresh media was added for a 4 hour incubation and then
665	collected for TCID50 determination. Infection experiments were conducted in a BSL2 laboratory.
666	
667	SARS-CoV-2 assay in Vero cells
668	Vero clone E6 (CRL-1586) cells were plated at 3x105 cells/well in DMEM in 6-well plates and
669	incubated overnight at 37ºC. The next day, cells were washed once with PBS and then infected with
670	SARS-CoV-2 WA1/2020 (MN985325.1, BEI resources) at a MOI of 0.01 for 1 hour after which the virus
671	containing media was removed and the compounds were added to the cells and incubated for 72 hours
672	at 37°C at 5% CO2. The cells were then fixed and stained with crystal violet to determine plaque
673	numbers(38). Infection experiments were conducted in a BSL3 laboratory. Data shown in Figure 4B are

674	the averages of two biological	replicates; error	bars indicate standard	error; DMSO is in	ncluded as the

- 675 vehicle control.
- 676
- 677

SARS-CoV-2 (delta) assay in Calu-3 cells

678 Calu-3 cells were seeded at a density of 3x104 cells/well in DMEM in 96-well plates and 679 incubated overnight at 37°C. The next day, cells were pre-incubated with compounds for 4 hours before they were infected with SARS-CoV-2 delta SL102 (EPI_ISL_4471559) at a MOI of 0.01-0.05. After 24 680 681 hours the viruses within 50 μ l of the supernatants were lysed with 200 μ L AVL-buffer (Qiagen) and 200 682 µL 100% ethanol was added for complete inactivation. RNA was extracted from 200 µL of the lysates 683 using the EZ1 Virus Mini-Kit (Qiagen), and analyzed by qPCR as described(39). Infection experiments 684 were conducted in a BSL3 laboratory. Data shown are the averages of three biological replicates; error 685 bars indicate standard error; DMSO is included as the vehicle control.

686

Recombinant ZsGreen-expressing Nipah virus infection 687

HSAEC1-KT cells were seeded at 10,000 cells per well the day prior to infection in 96-well black 688 689 plates with clear bottoms (Costar 3603). The following day, cells were infected with recombinant Nipah 690 virus expressing ZsGreen fluorescence protein (rNiV-ZsG) (Lo et al., 2014, 2018, 2020 AVR: Welch et al., 691 2020 JID) at multiplicity of infection 0.01 with ~ 100 50% tissue culture infectious dose (TCID50). Levels 692 of rNiV-ZsG replication were measured at 72 hour post-infection based on mean ZsGreen fluorescence 693 signal intensity (418ex/518em) using a Biotek HD1 Synergy instrument (Aglilent). Fluorescence signal 694 intensity assayed in DMSO-treated, virus-infected cells were set as 100% ZsGreen fluorescence. Data 695 points and error bars for all reporter assays indicate the mean value and standard deviation of 4

696	biological replicates, and are representative of at least 2 independent experiments in HSAEC1-KT cells.
697	Concentrations of compound that inhibited 50% of the green fluorescence signal (EC50) were calculated
698	from dose response data fitted to the mean value of experiments performed for each concentration in
699	the 10-point, 3-fold dilution series using a 4-parameter non-linear logistic regression curve with variable
700	slope using GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA).
701	
702	CellTiterGlo cell viability assay
703	Cell viability was assayed using CellTiter-Glo 2.0 assay reagent (Promega) according to
704	manufacturer's recommendations, with luminescence measured at 72 hours post-compound treatment
705	using a Biotek HD1 Synergy instrument. Luminescence levels (indicative of cellular ATP levels as a
706	surrogate marker of cell viability) assayed in DMSO-treated, uninfected cells were set as 100% cell
707	viability. Dose response curves were fitted to the mean value of experiments performed for each
708	concentration in the 10-point, 3-fold dilution series using a 4-parameter non-linear logistic regression
709	curve with variable slope. All CellTiter-Glo cell viability assays were conducted in 96-well opaque white
710	plates (Costar 3917). Concentrations of compound that inhibited 50% of the luminescence signal (CC50)
711	were calculated from dose response data fitted to the mean value of experiments performed for each
712	concentration in the 10-point, 3-fold dilution series using a 4-parameter non-linear logistic regression
713	curve with variable slope using GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA).
714	
715	Primary airway epithelial cell culture
716	Human bronchus was harvested from 3 explanted lungs. The tissue was submerged and agitated

for 1 minute in PBS with antibiotics and 5mM dithiothreitol to wash and remove mucus. After 3 washes,

718 the tissue was placed in DMEM with 0.1% protease and antibiotics overnight at 4°C. The next day the 719 solution was agitated and remaining tissue removed. Cells were centrifuged at 300g/4°C for 5 minutes, 720 then resuspended in 0.05% trypsin-EDTA and incubated for 5 minutes at 37°C. The trypsinization 721 reaction was neutralized with 10% FBS in DMEM, then cells were filtered through a cell strainer and 722 centrifuged at 300g/4°C for 5 minutes. The cell pellet was resuspended in 10% FBS in DMEM and a 10uL 723 aliquot was stained with trypan-blue and counted on a hemocytometer. 7.5x104 cells were plated onto 724 each 6mm/0.4mm FNC-coated Transwell air-liquid interface (ALI) insert. 10% FBS in DMEM and ALI 725 media were added in equal volumes to each basal compartment and cultures were incubated at 726 37°C/5% CO2. The next day, media was removed and both compartments were washed with PBS and 727 antibiotics. ALI media was then added to each basal compartment and changed every 3 days until cells 728 were ready for use at day 28.

729 All studies involving SARS-CoV-2 infection of primary airway epithelial cells were conducted in 730 the Vitalant Research Institute BSL3 High-Containment Facility. 6 hours prior to infection, ALI medium 731 containing dilutions of drugs (100nM) or DMSO was added to the basal compartment. For infection, ALI 732 medium containing drugs was removed, and SARS-CoV-2 diluted in ALI-culture medium containing drugs 733 (100nM, MOI=0.1) was added on to the apical chamber of inserts (250 μ I) and the basal compartment 734 (500 μl). The cultures were incubated for 2 hours at 37°C/5% CO2 to allow for virus entry, then washed, 735 and 500 µl of fresh ALI medium containing drugs (100 nM) was added to the basal compartment. Drugs 736 were maintained in the medium for the duration of the experiment. Cells were incubated at 37°C/5% 737 CO2 and harvested for analysis at 36 hours post-infection.

Total RNA was extracted from mock and SARS-CoV-2-infected primary airway epithelial cells
with or without drug treatment lysed in Trizol (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using the chloroformisopropanol-ethanol method. 500 ng of RNA was reversed transcribed into cDNA in 20 uL reaction
volume using RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Thermo Fisher) in accordance to the

742	manufacturer's guidelines. RT-PCR was performed for each sample using TaqmanTM Universal Master
743	Mix II, with UNG (Thermo Fisher) on the ViiA7 Real time PCR system. Primers and probes (2019-nCoV
744	RUO kit) for detection of the SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid (N) gene were obtained from IDT.
745	
746	Alamar Blue HS cell viability assay
747	Cell viability was assayed using Alamar Blue HS reagent (Thermofisher) according to
748	manufacturer's recommendations, with fluorescence (560ex/590em) measured at 72 hours post-
749	compound treatment after 4 hours of incubation with reagent using a Biotek HD1 Synergy instrument.
750	Fluorescence levels (indicative of resazurin reduction as a surrogate marker of cell viability) assayed in
751	DMSO-treated, uninfected cells were set as 100% cell viability. Dose response curves were fitted to the
752	mean value of experiments performed for each concentration in the 10-point, 3-fold dilution series
753	using a 4-parameter non-linear logistic regression curve with variable slope. All Alamar Blue assays were
754	conducted in 96-well black plates with clear bottoms. Concentrations of compound that inhibited 50% of
755	the fluorescence signal (CC50) were calculated from dose response data fitted to the mean value of
756	experiments performed for each concentration in the 10-point, 3-fold dilution series using a 4-
757	parameter non-linear logistic regression curve with variable slope using GraphPad Prism 9 (GraphPad
758	Software, La Jolla, CA, USA).
759	

760

761 Cell lysate preparation

762 Cells or tissues were extracted with PB buffer (10 mM Tris pH 7.6, 10 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA,
763 and 0.35% Triton X-100), and centrifuged at 10,000 x g for 10 min. The supernatants were collected and
764 flash frozen.

765

766 Energy-dependent drug resin affinity chromatography (eDRAC)

767 Drug resin was prepared by coupling compound PAV-431 to an Affi-gel resin at a concentration 768 of 10 μ M via the pyrazole nitrogen (Figure S6, synthetic chemistry described below), or position 4 of the 769 phenyl group. Control resin was prepared by blocking the Affi-gel matrix without drug. Resins were 770 equilibrated with column buffer (50 mM HEPES, pH 7.6, 100 mM KAc, 6 mM MgAc, 1 mM EDTA, 4 mM 771 TGA) prior to any DRAC experiments. 30 μ L of cell extract supplemented with energy (1 mM ATP, GTP, 772 CTP and UTP with 4 mM creatine phosphate, and in some cases 5 μ g/ml rabbit creatine kinase) was 773 applied to resin columns. The columns were clamped and incubated at 22°C for 1 hour for binding, and 774 flow through was collected. The columns were then washed with 100 bed volumes of column buffer. For 775 elution of bound complexes, 100 µL of column buffer containing free drug at a final concentration of 100 776 μ M – 1 mM (approaching its maximum solubility in water) and supplemented with energy was added, 777 the column was clamped for 1 hour, and serial eluates were collected. Eluates were analyzed by SDS-778 PAGE and WB. or later use.

779 Western blotting

SDS-PAGE gels were transferred in Towbin buffer to a polyvinylidene fluoride membrane.
Membranes were then blocked in 1% BSA, incubated for 1 hour at room temperature in a 1:1000
dilution of 100 µg/mL affinity-purified primary antibody, washed three times in PBS with 0.1% Tween20, incubated for 1 hour in a 1:5000 dilution of secondary anti-rabbit or anti-mouse antibody coupled to
alkaline phosphatase, washed further, and incubated in developer solution prepared from 100 µL of 7.5

mg/mL 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate dissolved in 60% dimethyl formamide (DMF) in water and
100 μL of 15 mg/mL nitro blue tetrazolium dissolved in 70% DMF in water, adjusted to 50 mL with 0.1 M
Tris (pH 9.5)/0.1 mM magnesium chloride.

788

789 MS-MS analysis

Samples were processed by SDS-PAGE using a 10% Bis-Tris NuPAGE gel (Invitrogen) with the
 MES buffer system. The mobility region was excised and processed by in-gel digestion with trypsin using

a ProGest robot (Digilab) with the protocol outlined below. Washed with 25 mM ammonium

bicarbonate followed by acetonitrile. Reduced with 10 mM dithiothreitol at 60°C followed by alkylation

with 50 mM iodoacetamide at room temperature. Digested with trypsin (Promega) at 37°C for 4 hours.

795 Quenched with formic acid, lyophilized, and reconstituted in 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid.

Half of each digested sample was analyzed by nano LC-MS/MS with a Waters M-Class HPLC
system interfaced to a ThermoFisher Fusion Lumos mass spectrometer. Peptides were loaded on a
trapping column and eluted over a 75 µm analytical column at 350 nL/min; both columns were packed
with Luna C18 resin (Phenomenex). The mass spectrometer was operated in data-dependent mode,
with the Orbitrap operating at 60,000 FWHM and 15,000 FWHM for MS and MS/MS respectively. APD
was enabled and the instrument was run with a 3 s cycle for MS and MS/MS.

Data were searched using a local copy of Mascot (Matrix Science) with the following parameters: Enzyme: Trypsin/P; Database: SwissProt Human plus the custom sequences* (concatenated forward and reverse plus common contaminants); Fixed modification: Carbamidomethyl (C)Variable modifications: Oxidation (M), Acetyl (N-term), Pyro-Glu (N-term Q), Deamidation (N/Q)Mass values: Monoisotopic; Peptide Mass Tolerance: 10 ppm; Fragment Mass Tolerance: 0.02 Da; Max Missed Cleavages: 2. The data was analyzed by label free quantitation (LFQ) methods(40). LFQ intensity values

808	of each condition were measured in triplicate and compared against each other to generate log2 fold
809	change values for each protein and each combination of conditions. Proteins that were found
810	significantly enriched by a log2 fold change of > 1 and an adjusted p-value (accounting for multiple
811	hypothesis testing) of < 0.05 in the FLUV infected eDRAC eluates compared to the uninfected eluates
812	were searched for in a list of high confidence FLUV virus-host protein interactions and the VirusMentha
813	database of virus-protein interactions (46,47). Likewise, significantly enriched and depleted proteins
814	found in the BoCoV infected eDRAC eluate were searched for in a list of high confidence coronavirus
815	interactors and an aggregated list of coronavirus protein interactors shown experimentally (48,49).

816

817 Photocrosslinking and streptavidin precipitation

818 eDRAC columns were eluted with 100µM PAV-431 photocross-linker at 22oC. Eluates were 819 crosslinked by exposure to UV light for 3 minutes. Crosslinked products were subjected to treatments 820 that maintained protein-protein associations (native) or which reduced and denatured all proteins 821 (denatured). Native conditions were maintained by diluting an aliquot of the product 20x with 1% 822 Triton-X-100 column buffer. Denaturation was achieved by adjusting an aliquot to 1% SDS and 10mM 823 DTT and heating to 100oC/10 minutes prior to 20x dilution with 1% Triton-X-100 column buffer. 824 Streptavidin Sepharose beads were added to both native and denatured samples and mixed for 1 hr to 825 capture all biotinylated proteins, with and without co-associated proteins in the native and denatured 826 cases respectively, then washed 3x with 1% Triton-containing column buffer. Washed beads were 827 resuspended in 20µl of SDS loading buffer and analyzed by SDS-PAGE and WB.

828

829 In vivo studies

830 PEDV pig study

831	18 litters comprised of 91 individuals of newborn (2 – 4 days old) crossbred pigs weighing 3 kg were
832	randomized to control (vehicle) or treatment groups. Animals were infected with 1x105 PFU of PEDV
833	administered orally. Vehicle or drug was administered intramuscular at 4 mg/kg immediately after
834	challenge and again 24 hours post-infection. Compound efficacy was determined by survivability.
835	Endpoint of study was 6 days post-infection.
836	
837	RSV cotton rat study
838	Female cotton rats, ~5 weeks of age, were obtained from Envigo (formerly Harlan), ear-tagged
839	for identification purposes, and allowed to acclimate for > 1 week prior to study start. Animals were

840 housed individually. Vehicle or drug was administered by an intraperitoneal route twice daily on study

841 days -1 through day 4. On day 0, animals were infected with 1x105 PFU of RSV A-2 virus originally

obtained from ATCC (VR-1540), administered in a 50 mL volume by an intranasal route approximately 2

843 hours after the morning treatment dose. Back titration of the viral stock and diluted inoculum was

844 performed to confirm the titer of the RSV stock used for infection. All inoculations were performed

845 while the animals were under the influence of inhalant anesthesia. All animals were euthanized on day 5

and the lungs were processed for determination of RSV titers by plaque assay.

847

850

848 Acknowledgements:

849 We thank Alfredo Calayag, Lisa Tucker, Caleb Declouette, Yvonne Dickschen, and Björn Wefers for

excellent technical assistance, David Hanzel and Homer Boushey for careful reading and improvement of

- 851 the manuscript, and Dmitry Temnikov for IT support. We are indebted to the late Guenter Blobel for
- 852 advice, inspiration, and encouragement.

853

854 Competing interests:

- 855 Vishwanath R. Lingappa is CEO of Prosetta Biosciences.
- 856
- 857 <u>References</u>
- Aleem A, Akbar Samad AB, Slenker AK. Emerging Variants of SARS-CoV-2 And Novel Therapeutics
 Against Coronavirus (COVID-19). In: StatPearls [Internet]. Treasure Island (FL): StatPearls Publishing;
 2022 [cited 2023 Jan 30]. Available from: http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK570580/
- Cele S, Jackson L, Khoury DS, Khan K, Moyo-Gwete T, Tegally H, et al. Omicron extensively but
 incompletely escapes Pfizer BNT162b2 neutralization. Nature. 2022 Feb 24;602(7898):654–6.

863 3. European Food Safety Authority, European Centre for Disease Prevention, Control, European Union
 864 Reference Laboratory for Avian Influenza, Adlhoch C, Fusaro A, Gonzales JL, Kuiken T, Marangon S, et
 865 al. Avian influenza overview September – December 2021. EFSA J [Internet]. 2021 Dec [cited 2023 Jan
 866 30];19(12). Available from: https://data.europa.eu/doi/10.2903/j.efsa.2021.7108

- 4. Singh S, McNab C, Olson RM, Bristol N, Nolan C, Bergstrøm E, et al. How an outbreak became a
 pandemic: a chronological analysis of crucial junctures and international obligations in the early
 months of the COVID-19 pandemic. The Lancet. 2021 Dec;398(10316):2109–24.
- Mackie PL. The classification of viruses infecting the respiratory tract. Paediatr Respir Rev. 2003
 Jun;4(2):84–90.
- 6. Foster SA, Cerny J, Cheng YC. Herpes simplex virus-specified DNA polymerase is the target for the
 antiviral action of 9-(2-phosphonylmethoxyethyl)adenine. J Biol Chem. 1991 Jan 5;266(1):238–44.
- 874 7. Marzi M, Vakil MK, Bahmanyar M, Zarenezhad E. Paxlovid: Mechanism of Action, Synthesis, and In
 875 Silico Study. Wani TA, editor. BioMed Res Int. 2022 Jul 7;2022:1–16.
- 876 8. Moscona A. Neuraminidase Inhibitors for Influenza. N Engl J Med. 2005 Sep 29;353(13):1363–73.
- Aoki FY, Macleod MD, Paggiaro P, Carewicz O, El Sawy A, Wat C, et al. Early administration of oral
 oseltamivir increases the benefits of influenza treatment. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2003
 Jan;51(1):123–9.

- Chen N, Zhang B, Deng L, Liang B, Ping J. Virus-host interaction networks as new antiviral drug
 targets for IAV and SARS-CoV-2. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2022 Dec 31;11(1):1371–89.
- Kaufmann SHE, Dorhoi A, Hotchkiss RS, Bartenschlager R. Host-directed therapies for bacterial
 and viral infections. Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2018 Jan;17(1):35–56.
- Kumar N, Sharma S, Kumar R, Tripathi BN, Barua S, Ly H, et al. Host-Directed Antiviral Therapy.
 Clin Microbiol Rev. 2020 Jun 17;33(3):e00168-19.
- Lingappa UF, Wu X, Macieik A, Yu SF, Atuegbu A, Corpuz M, et al. Host-rabies virus protein–
 protein interactions as druggable antiviral targets. Proc Natl Acad Sci [Internet]. 2013 Mar 5 [cited
 2022 May 13];110(10). Available from: https://pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1210198110
- Pawlotsky JM. What are the pros and cons of the use of host-targeted agents against hepatitis
 C? Antiviral Res. 2014 May;105:22–5.
- Sodwin CM, Xu S, Munger J. Stealing the Keys to the Kitchen: Viral Manipulation of the Host
 Cell Metabolic Network. Trends Microbiol. 2015 Dec;23(12):789–98.
- Koonin EV, Dolja VV, Krupovic M. Origins and evolution of viruses of eukaryotes: The ultimate
 modularity. Virology. 2015 May;479–480:2–25.
- Krupovic M, Koonin EV. Multiple origins of viral capsid proteins from cellular ancestors. Proc Natl
 Acad Sci [Internet]. 2017 Mar 21 [cited 2023 Jan 27];114(12). Available from:
 https://pnas.org/doi/full/10.1073/pnas.1621061114
- Lingappa V, Hurt C, Garvey E. Capsid Assembly as a Point of Intervention for Novel Anti-viral
 Therapeutics. Curr Pharm Biotechnol. 2013 Nov 31;14(5):513–23.
- Reed JC, Solas D, Kitaygorodskyy A, Freeman B, Ressler DTB, Phuong DJ, et al. Identification of an
 Antiretroviral Small Molecule That Appears To Be a Host-Targeting Inhibitor of HIV-1 Assembly.
 Simon V, editor. J Virol. 2021 Jan 13;95(3):e00883-20.
- 903 20. Heckmann CM, Paradisi F. Looking Back: A Short History of the Discovery of Enzymes and How
 904 They Became Powerful Chemical Tools. ChemCatChem. 2020 Dec 16;12(24):6082–102.
- 905 21. Blobel G. Protein targeting (Nobel lecture). Chembiochem Eur J Chem Biol. 2000 Aug 18;1(2):86–
 906 102.
- 22. Lingappa JR, Hill RL, Wong ML, Hegde RS. A Multistep, ATP-dependent Pathway for Assembly of
 Human Immunodeficiency Virus Capsids in a Cell-free System. J Cell Biol. 1997 Feb 10;136(3):567–81.
- 23. Lingappa JR, Martin RL, Wong ML, Ganem D, Welch WJ, Lingappa VR. A eukaryotic cytosolic
 chaperonin is associated with a high molecular weight intermediate in the assembly of hepatitis B
 virus capsid, a multimeric particle. J Cell Biol. 1994 Apr;125(1):99–111.
- 24. Lingappa VR, Lingappa JR. Recent insights into biological regulation from cell-free protein synthesizing systems. Mt Sinai J Med N Y. 2005 May;72(3):141–60.

- 914 25. Nirenberg M. Historical review: Deciphering the genetic code a personal account. Trends
 915 Biochem Sci. 2004 Jan;29(1):46–54.
- 916 26. Huang KY, Su MG, Kao HJ, Hsieh YC, Jhong JH, Cheng KH, et al. dbPTM 2016: 10-year anniversary
 917 of a resource for post-translational modification of proteins. Nucleic Acids Res. 2016 Jan
 918 4;44(D1):D435-46.
- Su MG, Weng JTY, Hsu JBK, Huang KY, Chi YH, Lee TY. Investigation and identification of
 functional post-translational modification sites associated with drug binding and protein-protein
 interactions. BMC Syst Biol. 2017 Dec;11(S7):132.
- Wold F. In Vivo Chemical Modification of Proteins (Post-Translational Modification). Annu Rev
 Biochem. 1981 Jun;50(1):783–814.
- Alberts B. The Cell as a Collection of Protein Machines: Preparing the Next Generation of
 Molecular Biologists. Cell. 1998 Feb;92(3):291–4.
- 926 30. De Las Rivas J, Fontanillo C. Protein-protein interaction networks: unraveling the wiring of
 927 molecular machines within the cell. Brief Funct Genomics. 2012 Nov 1;11(6):489–96.
- Wan C, Borgeson B, Phanse S, Tu F, Drew K, Clark G, et al. Panorama of ancient metazoan
 macromolecular complexes. Nature. 2015 Sep 17;525(7569):339–44.
- Williams NK, Dichtl B. Co-translational control of protein complex formation: a fundamental
 pathway of cellular organization? Biochem Soc Trans. 2018 Feb 19;46(1):197–206.
- 932 33. Fischer M, Joppe M, Mulinacci B, Vollrath R, Konstantinidis K, Kötter P, et al. Analysis of the co933 translational assembly of the fungal fatty acid synthase (FAS). Sci Rep. 2020 Jan 21;10(1):895.
- 34. Kamenova I, Mukherjee P, Conic S, Mueller F, El-Saafin F, Bardot P, et al. Co-translational
 assembly of mammalian nuclear multisubunit complexes. Nat Commun. 2019 Dec;10(1):1740.
- 936 35. Panasenko OO, Somasekharan SP, Villanyi Z, Zagatti M, Bezrukov F, Rashpa R, et al. Co937 translational assembly of proteasome subunits in NOT1-containing assemblysomes. Nat Struct Mol
 938 Biol. 2019 Feb;26(2):110–20.
- 36. Lautier O, Penzo A, Rouvière JO, Chevreux G, Collet L, Loïodice I, et al. Co-translational assembly
 and localized translation of nucleoporins in nuclear pore complex biogenesis. Mol Cell. 2021 Jun
 3;81(11):2417-2427.e5.
- 37. Copley SD. Moonlighting is mainstream: paradigm adjustment required. BioEssays News Rev
 Mol Cell Dev Biol. 2012 Jul;34(7):578–88.
- Farache D, Antine SP, Lee ASY. Moonlighting translation factors: multifunctionality drives diverse
 gene regulation. Trends Cell Biol. 2022 Sep;32(9):762–72.
- 39. Jeffery CJ. Multitalented actors inside and outside the cell: recent discoveries add to the number
 of moonlighting proteins. Biochem Soc Trans. 2019 20;47(6):1941–8.

948 40. Broce S, Hensley L, Sato T, Lehrer-Graiwer J, Essrich C, Edwards KJ, et al. Biochemical and
949 biophysical characterization of cell-free synthesized Rift Valley fever virus nucleoprotein capsids
950 enables in vitro screening to identify novel antivirals. Biol Direct. 2016 Dec;11(1):25.

951 41. Petsch B, Hurt CR, Freeman B, Zirdum E, Ganesh A, Schörg A, et al. Discovery of Novel Small
 952 Molecule Inhibitors of Multiple Influenza Strains in Cell Culture. Antiviral Res. 2010 Apr;86(1):A42.

42. Nijhuis M, van Maarseveen NM, Boucher CAB. Antiviral Resistance and Impact on Viral
Replication Capacity: Evolution of Viruses Under Antiviral Pressure Occurs in Three Phases. In:
Kräusslich HG, Bartenschlager R, editors. Antiviral Strategies [Internet]. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer
Berlin Heidelberg; 2009 [cited 2023 Jan 30]. p. 299–320. (Handbook of Experimental Pharmacology;
vol. 189). Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-3-540-79086-0 11

McKimm-Breschkin JL. Influenza neuraminidase inhibitors: antiviral action and mechanisms of
 resistance: Resistance to influenza neuraminidase inhibitors. Influenza Other Respir Viruses. 2013
 Jan;7:25–36.

44. Jung K, Saif LJ. Porcine epidemic diarrhea virus infection: Etiology, epidemiology, pathogenesis
and immunoprophylaxis. Vet J. 2015 May;204(2):134–43.

- 963 45. Selvarajah S, Lingappa AF, Michon M, Du L, Deiter F, Yu SF, et al. From COVID-19 to the Common
 964 Cold: Novel Host-Targeted, Pan-Respiratory Antiviral Small Molecule Therapeutics [Internet].
 965 Biochemistry; 2021 Jan [cited 2021 Dec 19]. Available from:
 966 http://biorxiv.org/lookup/doi/10.1101/2021.01.17.426875
- 967 46. Watanabe T, Kawakami E, Shoemaker JE, Lopes TJS, Matsuoka Y, Tomita Y, et al. Influenza virus968 host interactome screen as a platform for antiviral drug development. Cell Host Microbe. 2014 Dec
 969 10;16(6):795–805.
- 47. Calderone A, Licata L, Cesareni G. VirusMentha: a new resource for virus-host protein
 971 interactions. Nucleic Acids Res. 2015 Jan 28;43(D1):D588–92.
- 972 48. Gordon DE, Hiatt J, Bouhaddou M, Rezelj VV, Ulferts S, Braberg H, et al. Comparative host973 coronavirus protein interaction networks reveal pan-viral disease mechanisms. Science. 2020 Dec
 974 4;370(6521):eabe9403.
- 975 49. Perrin-Cocon L, Diaz O, Jacquemin C, Barthel V, Ogire E, Ramière C, et al. The current landscape
 976 of coronavirus-host protein–protein interactions. J Transl Med. 2020 Dec;18(1):319.
- 50. Zhao Z, Lu K, Mao B, Liu S, Trilling M, Huang A, et al. The interplay between emerging human
 coronavirus infections and autophagy. Emerg Microbes Infect. 2021 Jan 1;10(1):196–205.
- Mao J, Lin E, He L, Yu J, Tan P, Zhou Y. Autophagy and Viral Infection. In: Cui J, editor. Autophagy
 Regulation of Innate Immunity [Internet]. Singapore: Springer Singapore; 2019 [cited 2022 Jul 7]. p.
 55–78. (Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology; vol. 1209). Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-981-15-0606-2_5
- 983 52. MacKinnon AL, Taunton J. Target Identification by Diazirine Photo-Cross-Linking and Click
 984 Chemistry. Curr Protoc Chem Biol. 2009 Dec;1(1):55–73.

- 53. Li Du, Fred Deiter, Mohamed S. Bouzidi, Jean-Noel Billaud, Graham Simmons, Prerna Dabral, et
 al. TARGETING THE HOST-VIRUS INTERFACE TO BLOCK SARS-COV-2 ASSEMBLY IN AIRWAY CELLS. In.
- 987 54. Du L, Deiter F, Bouzidi M, Billaud JN, Graham S, Prerna D, et al. A Novel Viral Assembly Inhibitor
 988 Blocks SARS-CoV-2 Replication in Airway Epithelial Cells [Internet]. In Review; 2023 May [cited 2023
 989 Jun 26]. Available from: https://www.researchsquare.com/article/rs-2887435/v1
- 55. Eder J, Sedrani R, Wiesmann C. The discovery of first-in-class drugs: origins and evolution. Nat
 Rev Drug Discov. 2014 Aug;13(8):577–87.
- Sadri A. Is Target-Based Drug Discovery Efficient? Discovery and "Off-Target" Mechanisms of All
 Drugs. J Med Chem. 2023 Sep 6;acs.jmedchem.2c01737.
- 99457.Lee JA, Berg EL. Neoclassic Drug Discovery: The Case for Lead Generation Using Phenotypic and995Functional Approaches. SLAS Discov. 2013 Dec;18(10):1143–55.
- 58. Heinricher MM. Pain Modulation and the Transition from Acute to Chronic Pain. In: Ma C, Huang
 Y, editors. Translational Research in Pain and Itch [Internet]. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands; 2016
 [cited 2023 Feb 3]. p. 105–15. (Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology; vol. 904). Available
 from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-94-017-7537-3_8
- Hurley JM, Loros JJ, Dunlap JC. Circadian Oscillators: Around the Transcription–Translation
 Feedback Loop and on to Output. Trends Biochem Sci. 2016 Oct;41(10):834–46.
- 1002 60. Ivan M, Kaelin WG. The EGLN-HIF O 2 -Sensing System: Multiple Inputs and Feedbacks. Mol Cell.
 1003 2017 Jun;66(6):772–9.
- 1004 61. Karsdal MA, Nielsen SH, Leeming DJ, Langholm LL, Nielsen MJ, Manon-Jensen T, et al. The good
 1005 and the bad collagens of fibrosis Their role in signaling and organ function. Adv Drug Deliv Rev.
 1006 2017 Nov;121:43–56.
- 1007 62. Rizzino A, Wuebben EL. Sox2/Oct4: A delicately balanced partnership in pluripotent stem cells
 1008 and embryogenesis. Biochim Biophys Acta BBA Gene Regul Mech. 2016 Jun;1859(6):780–91.
- 1009 63. Versteeg HH, Heemskerk JWM, Levi M, Reitsma PH. New Fundamentals in Hemostasis. Physiol
 1010 Rev. 2013 Jan;93(1):327–58.
- Kamenova I, Mukherjee P, Conic S, Mueller F, El-Saafin F, Bardot P, et al. Co-translational
 assembly of mammalian nuclear multisubunit complexes. Nat Commun. 2019 Apr 15;10(1):1740.
- Fu H, Subramanian RR, Masters SC. 14-3-3 Proteins: Structure, Function, and Regulation. Annu
 Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 2000 Apr;40(1):617–47.
- 1015 66. Jia H, Liang Z, Zhang X, Wang J, Xu W, Qian H. 14-3-3 proteins: an important regulator of
 1016 autophagy in diseases. Am J Transl Res. 2017;9(11):4738–46.
- 1017 67. Obsilova V, Obsil T. The 14-3-3 Proteins as Important Allosteric Regulators of Protein Kinases. Int
 1018 J Mol Sci. 2020 Nov 21;21(22):8824.

Pennington K, Chan T, Torres M, Andersen J. The dynamic and stress-adaptive signaling hub of
 14-3-3: emerging mechanisms of regulation and context-dependent protein–protein interactions.
 Oncogene. 2018 Oct;37(42):5587–604.

- Stevers LM, Sijbesma E, Botta M, MacKintosh C, Obsil T, Landrieu I, et al. Modulators of 14-3-3
 Protein–Protein Interactions. J Med Chem. 2018 May 10;61(9):3755–78.
- Aghazadeh Y, Papadopoulos V. The role of the 14-3-3 protein family in health, disease, and drug
 development. Drug Discov Today. 2016 Feb;21(2):278–87.
- 1026 71. Corradi V, Mancini M, Santucci MA, Carlomagno T, Sanfelice D, Mori M, et al. Computational
 1027 techniques are valuable tools for the discovery of protein–protein interaction inhibitors: The 14-3-3σ
 1028 case. Bioorg Med Chem Lett. 2011 Nov;21(22):6867–71.
- 1029 72. Hartman AM, Hirsch AKH. Molecular insight into specific 14-3-3 modulators: Inhibitors and
 1030 stabilisers of protein–protein interactions of 14-3-3. Eur J Med Chem. 2017 Aug;136:573–84.
- 1031 73. Mori M, Vignaroli G, Cau Y, Dinić J, Hill R, Rossi M, et al. Discovery of 14-3-3 Protein-Protein
 1032 Interaction Inhibitors that Sensitize Multidrug-Resistant Cancer Cells to Doxorubicin and the Akt
 1033 Inhibitor GSK690693. ChemMedChem. 2014 May;9(5):973–83.
- 103474.Ottmann C. Small-molecule modulators of 14-3-3 protein-protein interactions. Bioorg Med1035Chem. 2013 Jul;21(14):4058–62.
- 1036 75. Zhao J, Du Y, Horton JR, Upadhyay AK, Lou B, Bai Y, et al. Discovery and structural
 1037 characterization of a small molecule 14-3-3 protein-protein interaction inhibitor. Proc Natl Acad Sci.
 1038 2011 Sep 27;108(39):16212–6.
- 1039 76. Liu J, Cao S, Ding G, Wang B, Li Y, Zhao Y, et al. The role of 14-3-3 proteins in cell signalling
 1040 pathways and virus infection. J Cell Mol Med. 2021 May;25(9):4173–82.
- 1041 77. Michi AN, Proud D. A toolbox for studying respiratory viral infections using air-liquid interface
 1042 cultures of human airway epithelial cells. Am J Physiol Lung Cell Mol Physiol. 2021 Jul 1;321(1):L263–
 1043 80.