Sequence, infectivity and replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 isolated from COVID-19

patients in Canada

Arinjay Banerjee[1], Jalees A. Nasir[1], Patrick Budylowski[2], Lily Yip[3], Patryk Aftanas[3], Natasha

Christie[2], Ayoob Ghalami[2], Kaushal Baid[1], Amogelang R. Raphenya[1], Jeremy A. Hirota[1],

Matthew S. Miller[1], Mario Ostrowski[2], Robert A. Kozak[2,3], Andrew G. McArthur[1], Karen

Mossman[1,*] and Samira Mubareka[2,3]

Affiliations:

[1]McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

[2]University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

[3]Sunnybrook Research Institute, Toronto, Ontario, Canada

*Corresponding author:

Dr. Karen Mossman

McMaster University

1280 Main St. W

Hamilton L8S 4L8, Canada

Email: mossk@mcmaster.ca

ABSTRACT

SARS-CoV-2 emerged in December 2019 in Wuhan, China and has since infected over 1.5

million people, of which over 107,000 have died. As SARS-CoV-2 spreads across the planet,

speculations remain about the range of human cells that can be infected by SARS-CoV-2. In this

study, we report the isolation of SARS-CoV-2 from two COVID-19 patients in Toronto, Canada.

We determined the genomic sequences of the two isolates and identified single nucleotide

changes in representative populations of our virus stocks. More importantly, we tested a wide

range of human immune cells for productive infection with SARS-CoV-2. Here we confirm that

human primary peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) are not permissive to SARS-CoV-

2. As SARS-CoV-2 continues to spread globally, it is essential to monitor small nucleotide

polymorphisms in the virus and to continue to isolate circulating viruses to determine cell

susceptibility and pathogenicity using *in vitro* and *in vivo* infection models.

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2, isolation, replication, immune cells, phylogenetics, COVID-19

TEXT

A new coronavirus, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) emerged in

December 2019 in Wuhan, China (1). SARS-CoV-2 has since spread to 185 countries and

infected over 1.7 million people, of which over 107,000 have died (2). The first case of COVID-

19 was detected in Toronto, Canada on January 23, 2020 (3). Multiple cases have since been

identified across Canada. As SARS-CoV-2 spreads globally, the virus is likely to adapt and

evolve. It is critical to isolate SARS-CoV-2 viruses to characterize their ability to infect and

replicate in multiple human cell types and to determine if the virus is evolving in its ability to

infect human cells and cause severe disease. Isolating the virus also provides us with the

opportunity to share the virus with other researchers to facilitate the development and testing of

diagnostics, drugs and vaccines.

In this study, we describe how we isolated and determined the genomic sequence of SARS-CoV-

2 from two Toronto COVID-19 patients (SARS-CoV-2/SB2 and SARS-CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC).

In addition, we studied the replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC in human

structural and immune cells. Importantly, we report that although a human lung cell line

supported SARS-CoV-2 replication, the virus did not propagate in any of the tested immune cell

lines or primary human immune cells. Interestingly, although we did not observe a productive

infection in CD4$^+$ primary T cells, we observed virus-like particles in these cells by electron

microscopy. Our data shed light on a wider range of human cells that may or may not be

permissive for SARS-CoV-2 replication and our studies strongly suggest that a broad range of

human immune cells are unlikely to support SARS-CoV-2 infection in COVID-19 patients.

METHODS

Cells

Vero E6 cells (African green monkey cells; ATCC, https://www.atcc.org) were maintained in

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's media (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS;

Sigma-Aldrich, https://www.sigmaaldrich.com), 1x L-Glutamine and Penicillin/Streptomycin

(Pen/Strep; Corning, https://ca.vwr.com). Calu-3 cells (human lung adenocarcinoma derived;

ATCC, https://www.atcc.org) were cultured as previously mentioned (4). THF cells (human

telomerase life-extended cells) were cultured as previously mentioned (5). THP-1 cells

(monocytes; ATCC, https://www.atcc.org) were cultured in RPMI media (Gibco,

https://www.thermofisher.com) supplemented with 10% FBS, 2mM L-glutamine, 1x

Penicillin/streptomycin and 0.05 mM beta-mercaptoethanol. THP-1 cells were differentiated into

macrophages and dendritic cells using 50 ng/ml GM-CSF (R&D Systems,

https://www.rndsystems.com) + 50 ng/ml M-CSF (R&D Systems, https://www.rndsystems.com)

and 50 ng/ml GM-CSF + 500 U/ml IL-4 (Biolegend, https://www.biolegend.com), respectively.

PBMCs from healthy donors (n=2; OM8066 and OM8067) were purified into $CD4^+$, $CD8^+$,

$CD19^+$, monocytes and others ($CD4^-$ $CD8^-$ $CD19^-$ cells) using CD4 negative selection kit

(STEMCELL Technologies, https://www.stemcell.com), CD8 positive selection kit

(STEMCELL Technologies, https://www.stemcell.com), PE positive selection kit (STEMCELL

Technologies, https://www.stemcell.com) and Monocyte negative selection kit (STEMCELL

Technologies, https://www.stemcell.com), respectively. For purity of cell types, see

supplementary figure 1. $CD4^+$, $CD8^+$, $CD19^+$ and $CD4^-$ $CD8^-$ $CD19^-$ cells were resuspended in

R-10 media (RPMI + 2 mM L-glutamine + 10% FBS + Penicillin/streptomycin) + 20 U/ml IL-2

(Biolegend, https://www.biolegend.com). Primary monocytes were resuspended in R-10 media.

Work with PBMCs was approved by the Research Ethics Boards of St. Michael's Hospital and

the University of Toronto (REB 20-044).

Virus isolation and quantification

Vero E6 cells were seeded at a concentration of 3×10^5 cells/well in a 6-well plate. Next day,

200 μl of mid-turbinate swabs, collected from two COVID-19 patients in viral transport media

was mixed with 200 μl of DMEM containing 16 μg/ml TPCK-treated trypsin. The cells were

infected with the inoculum for 1 hr. Next, the inoculum was replaced with DMEM containing

2% FBS and 8 μg/ml TPCK-treated trypsin. The cells were observed daily under a light

microscope. Supernatant from the cells were used to determine virus titres ($TCID_{50}$/ml) using

Spearman and Karber's method (6, 7) as outlined previously (8).

Quantitative real time PCR

To detect SARS-CoV-2 in cell culture supernatant, 140 uL of supernatant was removed and

detection of viral nucleic acids was performed by RT-PCR using an adaptation of Corman *et*

al.'s protocol (9). Briefly, viral RNA was extracted from infected cells using QIAamp viral RNA

kit (Qiagen, https://www.qiagen.com) according to manufacturer's instructions. The RT-PCR

reactions were carried out using Luna Universal qPCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs,

https://www.neb.ca) according to manufacturer's instructions. Two separate gene targets were

used for detection, the 5' untranslated region (UTR) and the envelope (E) gene. Primers and

probes used were: 5'-UTR For: GTTGCAGCCGATCATCAGC; 5'-UTR Rev:

GACAAGGCTCTCCATCTTACC; 5'-UTR probe: FAM-

CGGTCACACCCGGACGAAACCTAG-BHQ-1; E-gene For:

ACAGGTACGTTAATAGTTAATAGCGT; E-gene Rev: ATATTGCAGCAGTACGCACACA;

E-gene probe: CAL Fluor Orange 560-ACACTAGCCATCCTTACTGCGCTTCG-BHQ-1. The

cycling conditions were: 1 cycle of denaturation at 60°C for 10 minutes then 95°C for 2 minutes

followed by 44 amplification cycles of 95°C for 10s and 60°C for 15s. Analysis was performed

using the Rotor-Gene Q software (Qiagen, https://www.qiagen.com) to determine cycle

thresholds (Ct).

Electron Microscopy

Samples were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (Sigma-Aldrich,

https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/) for 1 hr. Pellets were washed with 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH

7.0) and post-fixed with 1% osmium tetroxide in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) for 1 hr.

Pellets were washed with distilled water and en-bloc stained with 2% uranyl acetate in distilled

water for 2 hrs. Pellets were washed with distilled water and dehydrated in an ethanol series.

Pellets were infiltrated with Embed 812/Araldite resin and cured at 65 degrees for 48 hrs. Resin

blocks were trimmed, polished and 90 nm thin sections were ultramicrotomed (Leica Reichert

Ultracut E, https://www.leica-microsystems.com) and mounted on TEM grids. Thin sections

were stained with 5% uranyl acetate and 5% lead citrate. Sections were imaged using

Transmission Electron Microscopy (ThermoFisher Scientific Talos L120C,

https://www.thermofisher.com) using a LaB6 filament at 120kV. 10 fields per cell type were

scanned. Each field was imaged with different magnifications at 2600x, 8500x, 17500x and

36000x.

Flowcytometry

100μL (400,000 cells) of primary $CD4^+$, $CD8^+$, $CD19^+$ and monocytes were washed with 1 ml of

phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and spun at 500 g for 5 minutes. The cells were resuspended in

100 μL of Live/Dead Violet (ThermoFisher Scientific, https://www.thermofisher.com) as per

manufacturer's recommendation and diluted 1:1000 in PBS. Cells were incubated at 4°C for 30

minutes. Next, cells were washed with 1 ml of FACS buffer (in-house reagent) and spun at 500 g

for 5 minutes. Cells were then stained with 100 μL of their respective stains (αCD4-FITC,

αCD8-FITC, αCD19-FITC, αCD14-APC; Biolegend, https://www.biolegend.com) at a

concentration of 1μg/mL for 30 min at 4°C. After staining, the cells were washed with 1mL of

FACS Buffer and spun at 500 g for 5 minutes. Extra aliquots of cells were left unstained, which

were also spun at 500g for 5 minutes. The pellets were resuspended in 100 μL of 1%

paraformaldehyde (PFA; ThermoFisher Scientific, https://www.thermofisher.com) and analyzed.

Samples were run on the BD LSR Fortessa X20 (BD, https://www.bdbiosciences.com). Cells

were gated on Live/Dead negative to exclude debris and dead cells and were then gated on their

respective cell surface markers to assess purity.

Sequencing

RNA was extracted from the supernatant of Vero E6 cells that were inoculated with clinical

specimens after 1 passage using the QIAamp Viral RNA Mini kit (Qiagen,

https://www.qiagen.com/us/) without addition of carrier RNA. dsDNA for sequencing library

preparation was synthesized using the Liverpool SARS-CoV-2 amplification protocol (10). Two

100 µM primer pools were prepared by combining primer pairs in an alternating fashion to

prevent amplification of overlapping regions in a single reaction. In a PCR tube, 1µL Random

Primer Mix (ProtoScript II First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit, New England Biolabs,

https://www.neb.ca) was added to 7 µL extracted RNA and denatured on SimpliAmp thermal

cycler (ThermoFisher Scientific, https://www.thermofisher.com) at 65°C for 5 min and then

incubated on ice. 10 µL 2X ProtoScript II Reaction Mix and 2 µL 10X ProtoScript II Enzyme

Mix were then added to the denatured sample and cDNA synthesis performed using the

following conditions: 25°C for 5 min, 48°C for 15 min and 80°C for 5 min. After cDNA

synthesis, in a new PCR tube 2.5 µL cDNA was combined with 12.5 µL Q5 High-Fidelity 2X

Master Mix (NEB, Ipswich, USA), 8.8 µL nuclease free water (ThermoFisher Scientific,

https://www.thermofisher.com), and 1.125 µL of 100 µM primer pool #1 or #2. PCR cycling was

then performed as follows: 98°C for 30 sec followed by 40 cycles of 98°C for 15 sec and 65°C

for 5 min.

All PCR reactions were purified using RNAClean XP (Beckman Coulter,

https://www.beckmancoulter.com) at 1.8x bead to amplicon ratio and eluted in 30 µL. 2 µL of

amplified material was quantified using a Qubit 1X dsDNA (ThermoFisher Scientific,

https://www.thermofisher.com) following the manufacturer's instructions. Illumina sequencing

libraries were prepared using Nextera DNA Flex Library Prep Kit and Nextera DNA CD Indexes

(Illumina, https://www.illumina.com) according to manufacturer's instructions. Paired-end 150

bp sequencing was performed for each library on a MiniSeq with the 300-cycle mid-output

reagent kit (Illumina, https://www.illumina.com), multiplexed with targeted sampling of ~40,000

clusters per library. Sequencing reads from pool #1 and pool #2 were combined (as R1 and R2),

amplification primer sequences removed using cutadapt (version 1.18) (11), and Illumina adapter

sequences were removed and low quality sequences trimmed or removed using Trimmomatic

(version 0.36) (12). Final sequence quality and confirmation of adapter/primer trimming were

confirmed by FASTQC (version 0.11.5) (13). SARS-CoV-2 genome sequences were assembled

using UniCycler (version 0.4.8; default settings, except for --mode conservative) (14) and

assembly statistics generated by QUAST (version 5.0.2) (15). Sequencing depth and

completeness of coverage of the assembled genomes was additionally assessed by Bowtie2

(version 2.3.4.1) (16) alignment of the sequencing reads against the assembled contigs and

stastistics generated by ngsCAT (version 0.1) (17). Sequence variation in the assembled genomes

was assessed by BLASTN against SARS-CoV-2 genome sequences available in GenBank as

well as BreSeq (version 0.35.0) (18) analysis relative to GenBank entry MN908947.3 (first

genome sequence reported from the original Wuhan outbreak, China).

RESULTS

To facilitate virus isolation, we collected mid-turbinate swabs from two COVID-19 patients in

Toronto, Canada and transported the swabs in viral transport media to a high containment level 3

facility. We inoculated Vero E6 cells with the samples and observed for cytopathic effects (CPE)

daily. Seventy-two hours post infection (hpi), cells inoculated with both samples displayed

extensive CPE, relative to mock inoculated cells (Figure 1, panel A). We collected 200 uL of cell

culture supernatant and re-infected a fresh layer of Vero E6 cells. Twenty-four hours post

infection, both wells containing cells that were re-inoculated displayed extensive CPE (Figure 1,

panel B). We extracted viral RNA from the supernatant and confirmed the presence of SARS-

CoV-2 using a diagnostic quantitative real-time PCR assay (qPCR; Figure 1, panel C). We also

confirmed the presence of coronavirus-like particles in infected Vero E6 cells by electron

microscopy (Figure 1, panel D).

Next, we performed genome sequencing of both isolates, generating nearly complete genome

sequences with 7500-8000 fold coverage and ~94% completeness, with only ~260 bp and ~200

bp at the 5' and 3' termini undetermined (Table 1). Both shared synonymous and non-

synonymous substitutions with those independently observed in direct sequencing of clinical

isolates (Table 1; Mubareka & McArthur, unpublished). SARS-CoV-2/SB2 additionally

contained a non-synonymous substitution at position 2832 (K856R in ORF1ab polyprotein) and

three regions with mutations or a deletion supported by a minority of sequencing reads, while

SARS-CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC only had an additional synonymous substitution in ORF1ab

polyprotein (Y925Y) plus a minority of sequencing reads supporting another synonymous

substitution in the ORF3a protein (I7I). As such, SARS-CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC was used for

subsequent studies as best representative of patient infections. Raw sequencing reads for each

isolate are available in NCBI BioProject PRJNA624792. Only sequencing reads that aligned by

Bowtie2 to the MN908947.3 SARS-CoV-2 genome were included in the deposited sequence

files.

To determine the replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 in human structural and immune cells, we

infected Calu-3 (lung adenocarcinoma epithelial), THF (telomerase life extended human

fibroblasts), Vero E6 (African green monkey kidney epithelial), THP-1 (monocytes and

differentiated macrophages and dendritic cells) and primary peripheral blood mononuclear cells

(PBMCs) from healthy human donors (CD4$^+$, CD8$^+$, CD19$^+$, monocytes and other PBMCs;

Supplementary Figure S1) with a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.01. We monitored virus

replication over a period of 72 hours in the cell lines (Figure 2). We also determined virus

replication in PBMCs from healthy donors over a period of 48 hours (Figure 2). SARS-CoV-2

propagated to high titres in Vero E6 and Calu-3 cells (Figure 2). SARS-CoV-2 did not replicate

efficiently in THF cells (Figure 2). Interestingly, human immune cell lines and primary PBMCs

from healthy donors did not support SARS-CoV-2 replication (Figure 2)

To further support virus replication data, we imaged infected human structural and immune cells

using electron microscopy (Figure 3). We scanned 10 different fields per cell type, each using

four different magnifications of 2600x, 8500x, 17500x and 36000x to determine if the cell

populations contained virus-like particles. Virus-like particles were detected in 7/10 fields in

Vero E6 cells and 8/10 fields in Calu-3 cells (Figure 3, panels A and B). Interestingly, we also

detected virus-like particles in 2/10 fields in primary CD4$^+$ T cells (Figure 3, panel C). We did

not observe any virus-like particles in other human immune cells that were experimentally

infected with SARS-CoV-2 (Figure 3, panels D-J).

DISCUSSION

In this study, we report the isolation of two replication competent SARS-CoV-2 isolates from

COVID-19 patients in Canada. Although we used TPCK-treated trypsin to enhance infection

using clinical specimens (Figure 1, panel A), subsequent infection and virus replication did not

require any additional TPCK-treated trypsin (Figure 1, panel B). We sequenced both isolates to

confirm that they were reflective of isolates infecting patients worldwide, selecting SARS-CoV-

2/ SB3-TYAGNC for experimental investigation as its sequencing produced less minority

sequencing reads (Table 1).

SARS-CoV caused the 2004 pandemic of SARS. SARS-CoV can infect structural (19) and

immune cell lines (20) from humans *in vitro*. We infected a wide range of human cell

populations with SARS-CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC to identify cell types that can support productive

infection of SARS-CoV-2. Both Vero E6 and Calu-3 cells supported virus replication to high

titres (Figure 2), as reported in other recent studies (21, 22). hTERT life-extended human

fibroblast cells (THF) did not support virus replication (Figure 2). In addition, human immune

cell populations, including cell lines (THP-1) and primary cells (PBMCs) did not support

productive SARS-CoV-2 replication (Figure 2). Interestingly, although primary CD4^{+} T cells did

not support productive virus replication, we observed virus-like particles in these cells by

electron microscopy (Figure 3, panel C). This is consistent with a recent report by Wang and

colleagues where they demonstrated that human T cell lines could be infected with SARS-CoV-2

(23). However, the study by Wang *et al.* did not quantify virus titres in the supernatant from

infected cells. In our study, we could not detect any replication competent virus in the

supernatant that was collected from SARS-CoV-2 infected CD4^{+} T cells (Figure 3).

In this study, we show that primary human T cells ($CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$) do not support productive

virus replication. However, our electron micrographs demonstrate that SARS-CoV-2 likely

replicates in $CD4^+$ T cells, but the replication cycle is likely terminated prior to virus maturation

and egress. Thus, more work is needed to fully identify the susceptibility and permissivity of

$CD4^+$ T cells to SARS-CoV-2.

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FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Isolating SARS-CoV-2 from COVID-19 patients. (A) Vero E6 cells were mock

inoculated or inoculated with mid-turbinate clinical specimens from COVID-19 patients. Cells

were incubated for 72 hours and observed for cytopathic effect (CPE) under a light microscope.

(B) To determine if supernatant from Vero E6 cells that were mock inoculated or inoculated with

clinical specimens contained replication competent virus, we re-inoculated fresh monolayer of

Vero E6 cells and observed cells under a light microscope for CPE after 24 hours. (C)

Quantitative real time PCR to detect SARS-CoV-2 5'- untranslated region (UTR) and envelope

(E) gene in RNA extracted from supernatant that was collected from Vero E6 cells that were

mock infected or infected with COVID-19 clinical specimens for 72 hours. (D) Electron

micrograph of Vero E6 cells that were re-infected for 48 hours with supernatant that was

collected from Vero E6 cells infected with clinical specimens. Insert – zoomed image of

coronavirus-like particles.

Figure 2. Replication of SARS-CoV-2 in human structural and immune cells. To determine

human cells that support SARS-CoV-2 replication, we infected human cell lines and primary

cells at an MOI of 0.01 (n = 2 independent experiments; supernatant from each experiment was

titrated in triplicates). We infected Vero E6 cells as a control. THF and Calu-3 cells represent

human structural cells. THP-1 is a monocyte cell line that was used to derive macrophages and

dendritic cells. PBMCs from healthy human donors (n = 2 independent donors) were used to

generate $CD4^+$, $CD8^+$, $CD19^+$, monocytes and other ($CD4^-$ $CD8^-$ $CD19^-$) cell populations.

Supernatant from infected cells were collected at various times and titrated on Vero E6 cells to

determine virus titres ($TCID_{50}$/ml). hpi, hours post infection; CD, cluster of differentiation;

PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cells.

Figure 3. Electron micrographs of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells. To detect coronavirus-like

particles in experimentally infected human structural and immune cells, we infected a range of

cells with SARS-CoV-2 at a MOI of 0.01 for 48 hours. The cells were fixed, processed and

imaged using a transmission electron microscope (n = 10 fields / cell type). Representative image

of each cell line is shown above. Virus-like particles are indicated by red arrows. (A) Vero cells.

(B) Calu-3 cells. (C) $CD4^+$ PBMC. (D) $CD8^+$ PBMC. (E) $CD19^+$ PBMC. (F) Monocytes from

PBMC. (G) Other cells from PBMC ($CD4^-$ $CD8^-$ $CD19^-$ cell populations). (H) THP-1 monocyte.

(I) THP-1-derived macrophage. (J) THP-1-derived dendritic cell.

TABLE

Metric or Mutation	SARS-CoV-2/SB2	SARS-CoV-2/SB3_TYAGNC
Number of Paired Reads	730,137 bp	690,167 bp
Reads from SARS-CoV-2	94.0%	94.4%
Number of Assembly Contigs	1	1
Assembly N50	29,494 bp	29,369 bp
Average Depth of Coverage of Reads	7940.0 fold	7550.1 fold
Total Assembly Length	29,494 bp	29,369 bp
SARS-CoV-2 Assembly Completeness	98.6%	98.2%
Unresolved 5' sequence	262 bp	272 bp
Unresolved 3' sequence	200 bp	205 bp
pos. 884 (orf1ab polyprotein)		**R207C (CGT→TGT)**
pos. 1397 (orf1ab polyprotein)	**V378I (GTA→ATA)**	**V378I (GTA→ATA)**
pos. 2832 (orf1ab polyprotein)	K856R (AAG→AGG)	
pos. 3040 (orf1ab polyprotein)		Y925Y (TAC→TAT)
pos. 8327 (or1ab polyprotein)	18.1% of reads suggest L2688F (CTT→TTT)	
pos. 8653 (orf1ab polyprotein)		**M2796I (ATG→ATT)**
pos. 10353 (orf1ab polyprotein)	5.6% of reads suggest K3363T (AAG→ACG)	
pos. 11074 (orf1ab polyprotein)	10.2% of reads suggest +TTT and a deletion between positions 10809 and 13203	
pos. 11083 (orf1ab polyprotein)	**L3606F (TTG→TTT)**	**L3606F (TTG→TTT)**
pos. 25413 (ORF3a protein)		36.7% of reads suggest I7I (ATC→ATT)
pos. 28688 (nucleocapsid phosphoprotein)	**L139L (TTG→CTG)**	**L139L (TTG→CTG)**

Table 1. Sequencing read and genome assembly statistics. Predicted mutations are relative to

the MN908947.3 SARS-CoV-2 genome (29,903 bp). Mutations within codons are underlined.

All mutations were predicted by 100% of sequencing reads mapping to that position, unless

otherwise noted. None of the mutations with support from less than 100% of sequencing reads

appeared in the final assembled genome consensus sequences. Substitutions in bold have been

observed in direct sequencing of patient isolates associated with travel history to Wuhan and Iran

(Mubareka & McArthur, unpublished).