Isolation, sequence, infectivity and replication kinetics of SARS-CoV-2

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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 cases of COVID-19 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 for SARS-CoV-2. As SARS-CoV-2 continues to spread globally, it is essential to monitor single nucleotide polymorphisms in the virus and to continue to isolate circulating viruses to determine viral genotype and phenotype 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 cases of COVID-19 (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

fibroblast, epithelial 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 the human immune

cells tested do not support a productive infection with SARS-CoV-2. Further studies are required

to understand viral-host dynamics in immune cells.

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.

This work was approved by the Sunnybrook Research Institute Research Ethics Board (149-

1994) and the Research Ethics Boards of St. Michael's Hospital and the University of Toronto

(REB 20-044; for PBMCs).

Virus isolation and quantification

Vero E6 cells were seeded at a concentration of $3x10^5$ cells/well in a 6-well plate. Next day,

200 μl of mid-turbinate swabs, collected from two COVID-19 patients was mixed with 200 μl of

DMEM containing 16 μg/ml TPCK-treated trypsin and cells were inoculated. After 1 hr, the

inoculum was replaced with DMEM containing 2% FBS and 6 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

To prepare cells for 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 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

statistics 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

For virus isolation, we inoculated Vero E6 cells with the samples collected from mid-turbinate

swabs and monitored 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 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 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 a

clinical viral isolate. 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 epithelial, fibroblast and

immune cells using electron microscopy after 48 hrs of infection with SARS-CoV-2 at a MOI of

0.01 (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. We used TPCK-treated trypsin to enhance infection using clinical

specimens (Figure 1, panel A). Exogenous trypsin activates SARS-CoV spike proteins more

efficiently and facilitates cellular entry (19). Exogenous trypsin treatment has also been shown to

enhance infectivity of other zoonotic bat-borne coronaviruses (20). Furthermore, TPCK-treated

trypsin was used to successfully isolate SARS-CoV-2 in China (1). In our studies, subsequent

infection and virus replication did not require any additional TPCK-treated trypsin (Figure 1,

panel B). The presence of CPE alone does not indicate the successful isolation of a coronavirus.

Mid-turbinate samples from adults with acute respiratory distress may often contain other

microbes, including viruses (21). Thus, to identify our isolates, we sequenced them to confirm

that they were reflective of SARS-CoV-2 isolates infecting patients worldwide, selecting SARS-

CoV-2/SB3-TYAGNC for experimental investigation since this isolate produced less minority

sequencing reads (Table 1).

SARS-CoV caused the 2003-04 outbreak of SARS. SARS-CoV can infect structural (22) and

immune cell lines (23) from humans *in vitro*. We infected a 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 SARS-CoV-2 replication to high titres

(Figure 2), as reported in other recent studies (24, 25). Previously, SARS-CoV was also shown to

replicate efficiently in Vero E6 cells (22). Vero E6 cells are immunodeficient, with deficiencies

in innate antiviral interferon signaling, which makes them ideal candidates for virus isolation

(26). However, to enable studies on SARS-CoV-2-host interactions, it is important to identify

human lung epithelial cells with intact immune responses that can support SARS-CoV-2

replication. We and others have previously shown that SARS-CoV and Middle East respiratory

syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) replicate efficiently in Calu-3 cells (8, 27, 28). In addition,

SARS-CoV- and MERS-CoV-induced immune responses have been studied in Calu-3 cells (28,

29). The ability to infect Calu-3 cells with SARS-CoV-2 (Figure 2) will facilitate *in vitro* studies

into virus-host interactions using SARS-CoV-2. Other commonly used human lung cells, such as

A549 do not support efficient replication of SARS-CoV-2 (24). Furthermore, hTERT life-

extended human fibroblast cells (THF) also did not support virus replication (Figure 2).

Previous studies have shown that human immune cells, such as THP-1 cell lines are susceptible

to SARS-CoV infection (23). In our study, human immune cell populations, including THP-1-

derived cell lines 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 are susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 and pesudotyped viruses

(30). 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). Human

immune cells lack expression of angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) (31)

(https://www.proteinatlas.org), the functional receptor of SARS-CoV-2 (1, 32). Thus, although it

is intriguing that $CD4^+$ T cells may be susceptible to SARS-CoV-2, our data show that these cells

are not permissive to SARS-CoV-2 replication *in vitro*.

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 (Mubareka & McArthur, unpublished).