Utility of SARS-CoV-2 infection models using *in vitro* and *in vivo* ACE2-lentivirus transduction

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SUMMARY
SARS-CoV-2 uses the human ACE2 (hACE2) receptor, with mouse ACE2 (mACE2) unable to
support infection. Herein we describe an ACE2-lentivirus system and illustrate its utility for *in*
vitro and *in vivo* SARS-CoV-2 infection models. Transduction of non-permissive cell lines with
hACE2 imparted replication competence, and transduction with mACE2 containing N30D,
N31K, F83Y and H353K substitutions, to match hACE2, rescued SARS-CoV-2 replication.
hACE2-lentivirus transduction of C57BL/6J, IFNAR^{-/-} and IL-28RA^{-/-} mice lungs illustrated that
removing type I or III interferon responses had no significant effect on virus replication.
However, RNA-Seq analyses illustrated they were required for the inflammatory responses,
which were similar to those seen in COVID-19 patients. We also illustrate the utility of hACE2
transduction for vaccine evaluation in C57BL/6J mice. In summary, we establish a hACE2-
lentivirus mouse model which has broad application in SARS-CoV-2 research, while also
offering the inherent advantages of lentiviral transduction such as stable genomic integration.
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63 **KEYWORDS**
64 SARS-CoV-2; COVID-19; lentivirus; ACE2; GM mice; vaccination; mutations; interferon; inflammation;
65 RNA-seq
INTRODUCTION

Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has spread rapidly into a global
pandemic (Wu et al., 2020a). SARS-CoV-2 infection can be asymptomatic, but is also the etiological
agent of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), with acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS)
representing a common severe disease manifestation (Guan et al., 2020). The SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has
sparked unprecedented global research into understanding mechanisms of virus replication and disease
pathogenesis, with the aim of generating new vaccines and treatments. Key to these efforts has been the
development of animal models of SARS-CoV-2 infection and COVID-19 disease (Muñoz-Fontela et al.,
2020).
The receptor binding domain (RBD) of the spike glycoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 binds human
Angiotensin-Converting Enzyme 2 (hACE2) as the primary receptor for cell attachment and entry (Zhao
et al., 2020). Mice do not support productive virus replication because the SARS-CoV-2 spike does not
bind to mouse ACE2 (mACE2) (Zhou et al., 2020). Expression of hACE2 in mice via a transgene allows
SARS-CoV-2 infection and provides mouse models that recapitulate aspects of COVID-19. In such
models hACE2 is expressed under control of various promoters, including K18 (Golden et al., 2020;
McCray et al., 2007; Moreau et al., 2020; Oladunni et al., 2020; Rathnasinghe et al., 2020; Winkler et al.,
2020; Yinda et al., 2021), mACE2 (Bao et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2020b), HFH4 (Jiang et al., 2020b), or
chicken β-actin (Tseng et al., 2007). These mouse models all differ in various aspects including level of
virus replication, disease manifestations and tissue tropisms (Muñoz-Fontela et al., 2020), but do not
provide a simple mechanism whereby genetically modified (GM) or knock-out mice can be exploited for
SARS-CoV-2/COVID-19 research. Two systems that do allow the latter, involve transient hACE2
expression in mouse lungs using adenovirus vectors (Ad5) or adeno-associated virus (AAV), which
impart the capacity for productive SARS-CoV-2 replication in mouse lungs (Hassan et al., 2020; Israelow
et al., 2020; Rathnasinghe et al., 2020). A third model involves use of mouse adapted SARS-CoV-2
(Dinnon et al., 2020; Gu et al., 2020; Leist et al., 2020), although use of this mutated virus may
complicate evaluation of interventions targeting human SARS-CoV-2.
Lentivirus-mediated gene expression in mice lung epithelium has been investigated as a treatment
for cystic fibrosis and provides long term expression of the cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance
regulator (CFTR) (Alton et al., 2017b; Buckley et al., 2008; Copreni et al., 2010; Copreni et al., 2004;
Kremer et al., 2007; Limberis et al., 2010; Wilson, 2004). These studies demonstrated that VSV-G
pseudotyped lentivirus can transduce mouse airway epithelial cells and their progenitors resulting in long-
term gene expression. Herein we describe an ACE2-lentiviral system that conveys SARS-CoV-2
replication competence *in vitro* and allows productive infection of mouse lungs *in vivo*. We illustrate that
GM mice can thereby be accessed for SARS-CoV-2/COVID-19 research, with experiments using
IFNAR^{-/-} and IL-28RA^{-/-} mice showing the importance of type I and III IFN responses for SARS-CoV-
2-induced inflammation. We also illustrate the use of hACE2-lentiviral transduction of lungs of wild-type
C57BL/6J mice for evaluation of vaccines.
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RESULTS
hACE2-lentiviruses for evaluating the role of RBD binding residues
hACE2 coding sequence (optimized for mouse codon usage) was cloned into the dual promoter lentiviral
vector pCDH-EF1α-MCS-BGH-PGK-GFP-T2A-Puro (herein referred to as pCDH) (Figure 1A), which
had been modified to contain the full length EF1α promoter. Previous studies have shown that the EF1α
promoter effectively drives gene expression after intranasal VSV-G pseudotyped lentivirus transduction
of mouse lungs (Alton et al., 2017a). The GFP marker and puromycin resistance gene (cleaved from GFP
by T2A) are expressed from a separate 3-phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) promoter (Figure 1A). VSV-G
pseudotyped pCDH-hACE2 lentivirus was produced by co-transfection of the lentiviral vector with VSV-
G and Gag-Pol-Rev plasmids in HEK293T cells, and was used to transduce HEK293T (human embryonic

kidney) cells followed by puromycin selection. HEK293T cells do not express hACE2 (Crawford et al.,
2020) and therefore do not support SARS-CoV-2 replication, whereas HEK293T cells transduced with
hACE2 supported significant virus replication (Figure 1B). A T92Q mutation in hACE2 was introduced
to determine if removing the N90 glycosylation motif increased SARS-CoV-2 replication, as computer-
based modelling predicted enhanced affinity for spike RBD with removal of this glycan (Chan et al.,
2020; Mehdipour and Hummer, 2020). We also introduced K31N/K353H and T27Y/L79Y/N330Y
mutations into hACE2 as these changes were predicted by computer modeling to reduce and enhance
affinity for spike RBD (Chan et al., 2020), respectively. HEK293T cells expressing these aforementioned
hACE2 mutations did not significantly affect SARS-CoV-2 replication (Figure 1B), illustrating that *in*
silico affinity predictions do not always translate to differences in virus replication.
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Characterizing residues responsible for the inability of mACE2 to support SARS-CoV-2 replication
The ACE2-lentivirus system was used to introduce amino acid substitutions into mACE2 to identify the
amino acids that are responsible for restricting SARS-CoV-2 replication in mACE2-expressing cells.
Analysis of crystal structures and species susceptibilities has suggested residues that may be responsible
for the differences in binding of the RBD to hACE2 and mACE2 (Alexander et al., 2020; Damas et al.,
2020; Griffin et al., 2020; Rodrigues et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). Based on these *in silico* studies, we
identified seven residues potentially responsible for the human-mouse differences. mACE2-lentivirus
vectors were then generated that contained all seven substitutions
(N30D/N31K/T79L/S82M/F83Y/A329E/H353K), with two further vectors constructed to identify the
minimum requirements for SARS-CoV-2 replication. The latter contained a subset of the seven changes;
four amino acid changes (N30D/N31K/F83Y/H353K) and two amino acid changes (N31K/H353K).
As expected HEK293T cells expressing mACE2 did not support productive SARS-CoV-2
replication, and CPE was not observed. In contrast, all three mACE2 mutants significantly rescued virus
replication and infection resulted in CPE (Figure 1C-D). However, virus replication was significantly
lower for cells expressing mACE2 with only two substitution (N31K/H353K) (Figure 1C) and infection
produced less CPE (Figure 1D). Thus two amino acid changes (N31K and H353K) in mACE2 were
sufficient to support SARS-CoV-2 replication; however, at least four changes
(N30D/N31K/F83Y/H353K) were required for virus replication and CPE to be comparable to cells
expressing hACE2.
Thus of all the potential interactions between the RBD and ACE2 previously identify by X ray
crystallography and of all the amino acid differences between human and mouse ACE2 (Damas et al.,
2020; Wang et al., 2020), it emerges 4 are key to determining infectivity differences for cells expressing
hACE2 or mACE2. In the aforementioned crystal structures, hACE2-D30 interacts with S-K417 via a salt
bridge, hACE2-K31 interacts with S-Q493, hACE2-Y83 interacts with S-N487, and hACE2-K353 forms
hydrogen bonds with S-G496 and S-G502 (Figure 1E). Our studies highlight the utility of the ACE2-
lentivirus system for studying the role of ACE2 residues in productive SARS-CoV-2 infections.
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hACE2-lentivirus transduction of mouse cell lines imparts SARS-CoV-2 replication competence
To determine whether hACE2-lentivirus transduction could make mouse cell lines SARS-CoV-2
replication competent and thus available for SARS-CoV-2 research, 3T3 (mouse embryonic fibroblasts)
and AE17 (mouse lung mesothelioma cell line) cells were transduced with hACE2. Significant virus
replication was seen in transduced cells (Supplementary Figure 1), although somewhat lower than that
seen in transduced HEK293T cells. Overt CPE was not seen (Supplementary Figure 1). This illustrates
that the hACE2-lentivirus system can be used for mouse cell lines, but that the efficiency of viral
replication may be cell line or cell type dependent.
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188 **SARS-CoV-2 replication in hACE2-lentivirus transduced C57BL/6J, IFNAR^{-/-} and IL-28RA^{-/-} mice**
189 **lung**
190 To illustrate the utility of the hACE2-lentivirus system for use in GM mice, we investigated the role of
191 type I and type III IFN receptor signaling in SARS-CoV-2 infections. C57BL/6J, IFNAR^{-/-} and IL-28RA^{-/-}
192 were inoculated intranasally (i.n.) with $1.2-2.2 \times 10^4$ transduction units of hACE2-lentivirus, equivalent to
193 approximately 190-350 ng of p24 per mice (Figure 2A). An hour prior to administration of lentivirus,
194 mice were treated i.n. with 1% lysophosphatidylcholine (LPC) to enhance transduction efficiency
195 (Kremer et al., 2007; Limberis et al., 2002). One week later mice were challenged with SARS-CoV-2
196 (10^5 CCID$_{50}$ i.n. per mice), and lungs were collected at 2, 4 and 6 days post infection for C57BL/6J and
197 IFNAR^{-/-} mice and day 2 for IL-28RA^{-/-} mice (Figure 2A). Mice did not display overt clinical symptoms
198 or weight loss (Figure 2B), consistent with some studies using Ad5-hACE2 (Rathnasinghe et al., 2020),
199 but not others (Sun et al., 2020a). RT-qPCR analyses indicated similar levels of hACE2 mRNA after
200 transduction of mouse lungs in each of the 3 mouse strains, with expression maintained over the 6 day
201 course of the experiment at levels significantly higher than untransduced mice (Figure 2C).
202   Lungs from infected C57BL/6J, IFNAR^{-/-} and IL-28RA^{-/-} were analyzed for infectious virus tissue
203 titers. Untransduced lungs showed no detectable virus titers (Figure 2D), whereas hACE2-lentivirus
204 transduced lungs showed significant viral titers ranging from 10^2 to 10^5 CCID$_{50}$/g for all strains of mice on
205 day 2, with titers dropping thereafter (Figure 2D). Viral RNA levels were measured using RT-qPCR, with
206 untransduced lungs showing low and progressively decaying levels post-inoculation (Figure 2E). For all
207 hACE2-lentivirus transduced lungs, significantly elevated and persistent viral RNA levels were seen for
208 all strains and at all time points by RT-qPCR (Figure 2E). Reducing viral titers and lingering viral RNA
209 have been reported previously for K18-hACE2 mice (Winkler et al., 2020) and has also been suggested in
210 human infections (Jefferson et al., 2020). RNA-Seq also illustrated that virus replication in hACE2-
211 lentivirus transduced lungs, K18-hACE2 transgenic mice and Ad5-hACE2 transduced lungs (Sun et al.,
212 2020a) were not significantly different when normalized to hACE2 mRNA expression (Figure 2F),
213 suggesting comparable hACE2 translation efficiencies and SARS-CoV-2 replication efficiencies in these
214 different expression systems.
215   Importantly, no significant differences in viral loads emerged between C57BL/6J, IFNAR^{-/-} and
216 IL-28RA^{-/-} mice (Figure 2D, E). This remained true even when viral RNA levels were normalized to
217 hACE2 mRNA levels (Supplementary Figure 2). Similar results were obtained by RNA-Seq, with viral
218 read counts not significantly different for the 3 mouse strains (Supplementary Figure 3A-D). Thus using
219 three different techniques, no significant effects on viral replication could be seen in mice with type I or
220 type III IFN receptor deficiencies.
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222 **SARS-CoV-2 replication in hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice lung induces inflammatory**
223 **signatures by day 2 post-infection**
224 To determine the innate responses to SARS-CoV-2 replication in hACE2-transduced mouse lungs, gene
225 expression in lungs of infected hACE2-transduced mice was compared with infected untransduced mice
226 on day 2 post-infection using RNA-Seq. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between these groups
227 were identified using a false discovery rate (FDR, or q value) threshold of <0.05 (Figure 3A;
228 Supplementary Table 1A-C). Of the 110 DEGs, 95 were upregulated, with ≈40% of these classified as
229 type I IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs) as classified by Interferome (using conservative settings that only
230 included genes validated *in vivo* for mice) (Figure 3B, full list in Supplementary Table 1D). Type III
231 ISGs are known to be poorly annotated in this database, and so this analysis likely under-estimates the
232 number of such ISGs.
233   Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) of the 110 DEGs produced a series of pro-inflammatory
234 Upstream Regulators (USRs) (Supplementary Table 1E-F) and included Th1, Th2 and Th17-associated

cytokine USRs, as well as type I IFN USRs (Figure 3C). SARS-CoV-2-specific T cells in humans were
reported to be predominantly Th1-associated, but Th2-associated cytokines were also identified
(Weiskopf et al., 2020). A cytokine and type I IFN DEG list has been published for a RNA-Seq analysis
of SARS-CoV-2 infected K18-hACE2 transgenic mice (Winkler et al., 2020). These DEG lists were used
to interrogate the full pre-ranked (fold change) gene list (Figure 3A, Supplementary Table 1B) by Gene
Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA). Significant enrichments were observed (Figure 3D), indicating similar
cytokine and type I interferon (IFN) responses after SARS-CoV-2 infection of K18-hACE2 transgenic
and hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice.
IPA *Diseases and Functions* analysis of the 110 DEGs revealed a series of annotations dominated
by cellular infiltration and innate responses signatures (Figure 3E, Supplementary Table 1G-H). Several
of the annotations were associated with monocytes and macrophages (Figure 3E), consistent with a
previous report showing that inflammatory monocyte-macrophages were the major source of
inflammatory cytokines in mouse adapted SARS-CoV infected mice (Channappanavar et al., 2016). The
cellular infiltrates in COVID-19 patient lungs is also dominated by monocyte-macrophages with a
suggested role in severe disease (Pence, 2020). Innate immune signaling was also the dominant signature
in other analyses including GO Biological Processes and Cytoscape (Supplementary Table 1I-J).
GSEA analysis using the >31,000 gene signatures available from the molecular signatures
database (MSigDB), indicated significant negative enrichment (negative NES scores) of gene sets
associated with translation and mitochondrial electron transport chain function (Supplementary Table
1K). Translation inhibition by SARS-CoV-2 Nsp1 via the blocking of mRNA access to ribosomes has
been reported previously (Banerjee et al., 2020; Schubert et al., 2020). SARS-CoV-2 down-regulation of
genes associated with cellular respiration and mitochondrial function has also been shown in human lung
(Miller et al., 2021).
DEGs from human COVID-19 lung (Blanco-Melo et al., 2020) were also enriched in our hACE2-
lentivirus transduced mouse lungs, and analysis of the core enriched genes indicated the similarity was
due to cytokine, IFN, chemokine and inflammatory signaling genes (Figure 3F, Supplementary Table 1L-
M). Another human COVID-19 lung dataset was also interrogated (Wu et al., 2020b) and the results
again illustrated enrichment of immune-related DEGs in the hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice
(Supplementary Table 1N).
Overall these analyses illustrate that SARS-CoV-2 infection in hACE2-lentivirus transduced
C57BL/6J mice lungs significantly recapitulate responses seen in other murine models and in COVID-19
patients.
267
Day 6 post-infection is characterized by inflammation resolution and tissue repair signatures
To determine how response profiles progress in the hACE2-lentivirus model, RNA-Seq was used to
compare lungs on day 2 with lungs on day 6 post-infection, with day 6 broadly representing the time of
severe lung disease in the K18-hACE2 model (Winkler et al., 2020). As noted above (Figure 2D), the
virus titers had dropped in hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice lung over this time period by ≈2.8 logs, and
severe disease (typically measured by weight loss) was not evident in this hACE2-lentivirus model
(Figure 2B). In both hACE2-lentivirus transduced and untransduced C57BL/6J mice there was a clear
evolution of responses from day 2 to day 6 post-infection; however, DEGs obtained from the former were
largely distinct from DEGs obtained from the latter (Figure 4A). The RNA-Seq data thus illustrated that
the DEGs associated with virus infection were distinct from those associated with virus inoculation
(Figure 4A). RNA-Seq of infected lungs provided 551 DEGs, 401 up-regulated and 150 down-regulated
(Figure 4B, Supplementary Table 2A-C).
IPA USR analyses of the 551 DEGs showed a clear reduction in inflammatory cytokine
annotations, although the IL4 signature remained a dominant feature on day 6 (Figure 4C, Supplementary

Table 2D-E). A Th2 skew and IL-4 have both been associated with lung damage in COVID-19 patients (Vaz de Paula et al., 2020). On day 6 there was an up-regulation of USRs primarily associated with tissue repair (Figure 4D, Supplementary Table 2F); MAPK1 (also known as ERK) and MAPK9 (Lavoie et al., 2020), BMP7 (Sountoulidis et al., 2012), TCF7L2 (Zhu et al., 2015), and KLF4 (Lin et al., 2017; Raslan and Yoon, 2020). B and T cell-associated USRs were also seen (Figure 4D, green circles) (Duperray et al., 1990; Nechanitzky et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2010), consistent with development of an adaptive immune response. A relatively minor PARP1 signature was identified (Figure 4D), with PARP inhibitors being considered for COVID-19 therapy (Badawy, 2020; Curtin et al., 2020). A strong signature associated with estrogen receptor 1 (ESR1) was observed (Figure 4D), with estrogen having anti-inflammatory properties and believed to be associated with reduced COVID-19 severity in women (Jin et al., 2020; Peckham et al., 2020; Pinna, 2021), and reduced SARS-CoV disease severity in female mice (Channappanavar et al., 2016; Channappanavar et al., 2017). Follicle stimulating hormone (FSH) (Figure 4D) stimulates estrogen production, and inhibin subunit alpha (INHA) is involved in the negative feedback of FSH production (Nicks et al., 2010). IPA Diseases and Functions analysis, Cytoscape, and GO Biological Processes analyses further supported the contention that on day 6 inflammation had abated and tissue repair was underway (Supplementary Table 2G-L).

The >31,000 gene sets available in MSigDB were used to interrogate the complete gene list (pre-ranked by fold change) for day 6 versus day 2 (Supplementary Table 2B) by GSEA. A highly significant negative enrichment for inflammatory response, and a highly significant positive enrichment for cilium development was seen (Figure 4E). Cilia in mammals are found in the lining of the respiratory epithelium. These GSEAs thus provide further support for the conclusion above, together arguing that in the hACE2-lentivirus model, day 6 post infection is characterized by inflammation resolution and tissue repair.

Type I and III IFN signaling is required for SARS-CoV-2-induced lung inflammation
To determine what responses to SARS-CoV-2 infection are dependent on type I IFN signaling, the lentivirus system was used to analyze IFNAR^{-/-} mice lung using RNA-Seq. IFNAR^{-/-} and C57BL/6J mice were transduced with hACE2-lentivirus and were then infected with SARS-CoV-2 and lungs harvested for RNA-Seq on days 2 and 6 post-infection. The largest impact of type I IFN signaling deficiency was seen on day 2 post infection (Figure 5A), consistent with disease resolution on day 6 (Figure 4C-E). The total number of DEGs for IFNAR^{-/-} versus C57BL/6J mouse lungs on day 2 was 192, with most of these down-regulated (Figure 5A, Supplementary Table 3A-C). Viral reads were not significantly different between these two mouse strains (Figure 5A), confirming that knocking out type I IFN signaling is insufficient to significantly affect SARS-CoV-2 replication (Frieman et al., 2010).

We showed in Figure 3 that RNA-Seq analysis revealed 110 DEGs associated with inflammatory responses when hACE2-transduced versus untransduced C57BL/6J mouse lungs on day 2 post infection were compared. When the same comparison was made for hACE2-lentivirus transduced versus untransduced lungs in SARS-CoV-2 infected IFNAR^{-/-} mice, only 1 DEG (Kcnk5) was identified (Figure 5B). This clearly illustrated that the inflammatory responses on day 2 in C57BL/6J mice (Figure 3C) required intact type I IFN signaling.

 As a control, the number of DEGs for IFNAR^{-/-} mice versus C57BL/6J in untransduced lungs was determined. Although virus replication (hACE2-lentivirus transduced lung) provided 192 DEGs, virus inoculation (untransduced lung) provided only 16 DEGs (Figure 5C). Thus again, virus inoculation had a limited effect on these analyses, with DEGs largely associated with virus infection.

Type III IFN is thought to act as a first-line of defense against infection at epithelial barriers, with the more potent and inflammatory type I IFN response kept in reserved in the event the first line of defense is breached (Galani et al., 2017; Lazear et al., 2019). As type III IFN signaling has been

implicated in reducing SARS-CoV-2 infection *in vitro* (Vanderheiden et al., 2020), the aforementioned
analyses on day 2 was repeated in IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ mice. Viral reads were not significantly different between
these two mouse strains (Figure 5D), confirming that knocking out type III IFN signaling was insufficient
to significantly affect SARS-CoV-2 replication (Boudewijns et al., 2020; Frieman et al., 2010). The DEG
list for IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ versus C57BL/6J mice comprised 132 genes (Supplementary Table 4A-C), of which 84
were down-regulated (Figure 5D). Perhaps surprisingly, the DEGs were mostly different from that seen
in IFNAR$^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 5D), arguing that the ISGs stimulated by type I and III IFNs are largely distinct.
The majority (90%) of the 178 down-regulated DEGs in IFNAR$^{-/-}$ versus C57BL/6J mice on day
2 post infection were ISGs as defined by Interferome (using *in vivo* and mouse only settings) (Figure 5E,
top and Supplementary Table 3D). Of the 84 down-regulated genes in IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ lungs, only 27% were
identified as ISGs (Figure 5E, bottom and Supplementary Table 4D). However, there are no annotations
in the Interferome database for type III ISGs in mice, and changing the settings to include human data
(which is also under-annotated for type III IFN) did not increase the number of type III ISGs in our search
using down DEGs from IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ lungs.
To determine the pathways regulated by type I and III IFN in response to SARS-CoV-2 infection,
IPA USR analyses was performed on DEG lists from day 2 for hACE2-lentivirus transduced lungs for
IFNAR$^{-/-}$ versus C57BL/6J (192 DEGs) and IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ versus C57BL/6J (132 DEGs). IPA USR
signatures associated with pro-inflammatory cytokine signaling were significantly reduced in both
IFNAR$^{-/-}$ and, to a lesser extent, IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ mice when compared to C57BL/6J mice (Figure 5F, full lists
in Supplementary Table 3E and 4E). The USR annotations for type I and III IFN receptor deficiencies
were largely similar (Figure 5F), although they arose from a largely distinct set of DEGs (Figure 5D).
This likely reflects expression of type I and type III IFN by different cell types with differing response
profiles to the same cytokines (Lazear et al., 2019).
Taken together these results illustrate that while there was no significant effects on viral
replication, lungs from type I and type III IFN receptor knockout mice both had a significantly blunted
acute pro-inflammatory response following SARS-CoV-2 infection. The importance of type I IFN for
inflammation was reported previously using the AAV-hACE2 system (Israelow et al., 2020).
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Immunization with infectious or UV-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 protects against virus infection
To evaluate the utility of the hACE2-lentivirus mouse model of SARS-CoV-2 replication for vaccine
studies, C57BL/6J mice were immunized twice subcutaneously (s.c.) with either infectious SARS-CoV-2
or UV-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 (Takasuka et al., 2004) formulated with adjuvant (Figure 6A). Serum
SARS-CoV-2 neutralization titers were determined post-boost, and revealed all mice had significant
serum neutralization titers (Figure 6B), comparable with the higher end levels seen in people with past
SARS-CoV-2 infections (Wajnberg et al., 2020). On day 2 post challenge all mice were sacrificed. All
mouse lungs had detectable hACE2 mRNA by RT-qPCR, with levels higher in unvaccinated mice (Figure
6C), likely due to immune cell infiltrates (see below) diluting hACE2 mRNA. Mice immunized with
either infectious or UV-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 showed significant reductions in viral RNA levels by
RT-qPCR (Figure 6D) in tissue titrations (Figure 6E) and by RNA-Seq read counts (Figure 6F). These
immunizations thus protected mice against significant viral infections and demonstrated the utility of
hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice as a model for vaccine evaluation.
Lungs harvested on day 2 were also analyzed by RNA-Seq (Supplementary Table 5A-B), with
1376 DEGs identified for infectious virus immunization versus unimmunized (DEGs in Supplementary
Table 5C). The DEGs were analyzed by IPA canonical pathways, USR analysis, and the Diseases and
Functions feature, which all showed infiltration signatures, dominated by T cell annotations
(Supplementary Table 5D-F). This was confirmed by GSEA of human blood transcription modules (Li et
al., 2014) against the pre-ranked (by fold change) gene list for immunized versus unvaccinated mice

(Supplementary Table 5G). This showed the expected enrichment of T cell and B annotations in
immunized mice (Figure 6F), and illustrated that protection against virus replication in lungs of
immunized mice was associated with a significant infiltration of lymphocytes. This aligns with studies
that suggest COVID-19 patients that induce an early SARS-CoV-2-specific T cell response have rapid
viral clearance and mild disease (Tan et al., 2021).
381
382 **DISCUSSION**
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Herein we describe a hACE2-lentivirus transduction system that allows the use of C57BL/6J and GM
mice for SARS-CoV-2/COVID-19 research. Virus titer in hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice lung were
comparable to other studies using mice transduced with Ad5 or AAV expressing hACE2 (Hassan et al.,
2020; Israelow et al., 2020; Rathnasinghe et al., 2020). These transduction methodologies avoid the
fulminant brain infection seen in K18-hACE2 mice, with infection of this organ the major contributor to
mortality in the K18-hACE2 model (Carossino et al., 2021; Kumari et al., 2020). The key advantage of
lentiviral over adenoviral systems is the integration of the lentiviral payload into the host cell genome,
thereby providing long-term stable expression. The hACE2-lentivirus thus provides a new option for
studying SARS-CoV-2 infection that can be readily applied using standard lentivirus technology. We
characterize the lentivirus-hACE2 model of SARS-CoV-2 infection in C57BL/6J mice, and illustrate the
use of lentivirus-hACE2 to assess the role of type I and type III IFNs in virus control and inflammatory
responses using IFNAR$^{-/-}$ and IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ mice, respectively. We also illustrate the use of C57BL/6J mice
transduced with lentivirus-hACE2 for SARS-CoV-2 vaccine evaluation.
The lentivirus-hACE2 C57BL/6J mouse model of SARS-CoV-2 infection shares many cytokine
signatures with those seen in human COVID-19 patients; IL-2, IL-10, IL-6, TNFα, IL-4, IL-1β, IFNγ and
CSF3 signatures were found in SARS-CoV2-infected lentivirus-hACE2 transduced C57BL/6J mice on
day 2 post infection, and elevated levels of these cytokines are found in COVID-19 patients (Han et al.,
2020; Huang et al., 2020). Several of these cytokines have been implicated as mediators of COVID-19;
for instance, IL-6 (Herold et al., 2020; Masiá et al., 2020; Xia et al., 2020), IL-4 (Vaz de Paula et al.,
2020), IL-10 (Lu et al., 2021) and IFNγ (Gadotti et al., 2020). On day 6 post infection the lentivirus-
hACE2 C57BL/6J mouse model showed a series of signatures associated with tissue repair. Thus our
RNA-Seq analyses illustrated that this model involves an acute inflammatory disease followed by
resolution and tissue repair.
hACE2-lentivirus transduction in IFNAR$^{-/-}$ and IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ mice was used to confirm that type I
IFN signaling (Israelow et al., 2020) and show that type III IFN signaling are involved in driving
inflammatory responses. Virus replication was not significantly affected in IFNAR$^{-/-}$ and IL-28RA$^{-/-}$
mice, largely consistent with other studies using different model systems, which indicate that knocking
out both pathways (STAT1$^{-/-}$, STAT2$^{-/-}$, or combined IFNAR$^{-/-}$/IL-28RA$^{-/-}$) is required before an impact on
virus replication is seen (Boudewijns et al., 2020; Frieman et al., 2010; Israelow et al., 2020; Mahlakõiv et
al., 2012). A high level of cross-compensation is thus implicated, as is described in influenza infection
(Galani et al., 2017). *In vitro* experiments show that SARS-CoV-2 replication is sensitive to type I and III
IFNs, although infection does not stimulate particularly high levels of IFN (Felgenhauer et al., 2020;
Nguyen et al., 2021; Vanderheiden et al., 2020). A number of SARS-CoV-2 encoded proteins inhibit IFN
production and signaling (Jiang et al., 2020a; Miorin et al., 2020; Xia et al., 2020). In infected cells, such
inhibition of signaling would limit the antiviral activity of IFNs, as well as limiting the positive feedback
amplification that is needed for high level IFN production (Hall and Rosen, 2010). IFN therapies have
been proposed for COVID-19 patients (Monk et al., 2020) and such treatment may induce an antiviral
state in uninfected cells, thereby perhaps limiting viral spread if given prophylactically or early during the
course of infection (Park and Iwasaki, 2020). However, caution might be warranted for such therapy

during later stage COVID-19 as type I and III IFN signaling are shown herein to drive inflammatory
responses during SARS-CoV-2 infection, and are also known to have pro-inflammatory activities in other
settings (Hall and Rosen, 2010).
Herein we also illustrate the use of the hACE2-lentivirus system to study the role of ACE2
residues on SARS-CoV-2 replication *in vitro*. Only four "mouse-to-human" changes in mACE2 (N30D,
F83Y, N31K, H353K) enabled full SARS-CoV-2 replication to levels similar to those seen for infection
of hACE2-expressing cells. These results suggest a CRISPR mouse with these substitutions would be
able to support SARS-CoV-2 infection and provide a model of COVID-19. Remarkably, a minimum of
only two substitutions in mACE2 (N31K, H353K) were sufficient for partial restoration of SARS-CoV-2
infection. Changing the same resides in hACE2 to their mouse equivalents (K31N, K353H) did not affect
virus replication compared to WT hACE2. Thus N31K and H353K allows binding of SARS-CoV2 to
mACE2, but K31N and K353H does not impair binding to hACE2. Both K31N and K353H substitutions
were shown to be deleterious for SARS-CoV2 binding by *in silico* analyses. However, the same analyses
implicated >25 other residues in hACE2 binding (Chan et al., 2020), with many of these potentially able
to compensate for the loss of native residues at K31 and K353.
In conclusion, we describe the development of a mouse model using intranasal hACE2-lentivirus
transduction to sensitize mice lung to SARS-CoV-2 infection, which recapitulated cytokine signatures
seen in other mouse models and COVID-19. We demonstrate broad applicability of this new mouse
model in vaccine evaluation, GM mice infection, and *in vitro* evaluation of ACE2 mutants.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
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Investigation, D.J.R., T.L., K.Y., B.T.; Data curation, D.J.R., A.S., and T.D.; Writing – original draft,
D.J.R.; Writing – review and editing, A.S. and D.J.R.; Visualization, D.J.R., A.S., T.D., and C.B;
Supervision, D.J.R. and A.S., Project administration, D.J.R. and A.S.; Funding acquisition, A.S. and
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458
459 **DECLARATION OF INTERESTS**
460 The authors declare no competing interests.
461
462 **DATA AVAILABILITY**
463 All raw sequencing data (fastq files) are available from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA), BioProject
464 accession: PRJNA701678. All other data is available within the paper and supporting information files.
465
FIGURE LEGENDS
Figure 1. Mutational analyses of human and mouse ACE2 using ACE2-lentiviruses *in vitro*. A)
Schematic of pCDH-EF1α-ACE2-BGH-PGK-GFP-T2A-Puro lentiviral vector. **B-C)** Growth kinetics of

SARS-CoV-2 over a three day time course in HEK293T cells transduced with WT or mutant hACE2 **(B)**
or mACE2 **(C)** infected at MOI=0.1. Data is the mean of 1 (hACE2-T27Y/L79Y/N330Y and mACE2-
N31K/H353K) or 2 (all others) independent experiments with 2-3 replicates in each and error bars
represent SEM. Statistics was determined using Repeated Measures Two-Way ANOVA comparing
untransduced (for B) or WT mACE2 (for C) with all others, and comparing mACE2-
N30D/N31K/F83Y/H353K with mACE2-N31K/H353K. **D)** Inverted light microscopy images of
HEK293T cells transduced with the indicated ACE2 lentivirus and infected with SARS-CoV-2 at
MOI=0.1. Images were taken at day 3 post infection and were representative of triplicate wells. **E)**
Crystal structure of the Spike RBD:hACE2 complex (PBD: 6M0J) viewed in PyMOL and highlighting
key interactions (blue) between hACE2 (red) and Spike RBD (green).

Figure 2. SARS-CoV-2 replication in hACE2-lentivirus transduced C57BL/6J, IFNAR$^{-/-}$ and IL-
28RA$^{-/-}$ mice lung. A) Timeline of lentivirus transduction of mice lung and SARS-CoV-2 infection. **B)**
Percent weight loss for mice in C-E. Data represents the mean percent weight loss from day 0 and error
bars represent SEM. **C)** RT-qPCR of mice lung RNA using primers for hACE2 (introduced by lentivirus
transduction) normalized to mRPL13a levels. Data is for individual mice and is expressed as RNA copy
number calculated against a standard curve for each gene. Horizontal line indicates cut-off for reliable
detection, with all untransduced mice falling below this line. Statistics are by Kolmogorov Smirnov test
compared to untransduced samples. **D)** Titer of SARS-CoV-2 in mice lung determined using CCID$_{50}$
assay of lung homogenate. Horizontal line indicates the limit of detection of 1.57 log$_{10}$ CCID$_{50}$/g.
Statistics are by Kolmogorov Smirnov test compared to untransduced mice. IFNAR$^{-/-}$ versus
untransduced mice at day 2 post infection reaches significance by Kruskal-Wallis test (p=0.018). **E)** RT-
qPCR of mice lung RNA using primers for SARS-CoV-2 E gene normalized to mRPL13a levels. Data is
individual mice and is expressed as RNA copy number calculated using a standard curve. Statistics are by
Kolmogorov Smirnov test compared to untransduced mice. C57BL/6J hACE2-transduced versus
untransduced mice at day 4 post infection reaches significance by Kruskal-Wallis test (p=0.046). See
Supplementary Figure 2 for SARS-CoV-2 RNA copies normalised to hACE2 copies. **F)** SARS-CoV-2
read counts (also see Supplementary Figure 3) normalized to hACE2 read counts from RNA-seq data for
lentivirus-hACE2 transduced mice at day 2, K18-hACE2 transgenic mice at day 4, and Ad5-hACE2
transduced mice at day 2 (Sun et al., 2020a). Not significant by Kolmogorov Smirnov or Kruskal-Wallis
tests.

Figure 3. SARS-CoV-2 replication in hACE2-lentivirus transduced mice lung induces
inflammatory signatures by day 2 post-infection. A) Volcano plot of gene expression from RNA-seq
analyses of lung at day 2 comparing mice with and without hACE2-lentivirus transduction. Genes were
considered DEGs if they had a FDR value < 0.05 (above horizontal dotted line) (see Supplementary Table
1B-C for full gene and DEG lists). **B)** Interferome analysis of 95 up DEGs from 'A'. 38 of 95 up DEGs
(40%) were ISGs. Red = type I IFN, blue = type II IFN, green = type III IFN (see Supplementary Table
1D for full Interferome ISG list). **C)** Cytokine signatures identified by IPA USR analysis (see
Supplementary Table 1E-F for full and cytokine only USR lists) of 110 DEGs identified in 'A'. Circle
area reflects the number of DEGs associated with each USR annotation. USRs were grouped into three
categories; red = Th1 associated, green = Th2 associated, blue = Th17 associated, and black =
pleiotropic/other. The vertical dotted line indicates activation z-score of 0. **D)** GSEAs for cytokine-
related DEGs or type I IFN-related DEGs from Winkler et al. supplemental data (Winkler et al., 2020)
against the pre-ranked all gene list (Supplementary Table 1B). Normalised enrichment score (NES) and
nominal p-value are shown. **E)** IPA diseases and functions analysis (see Supplementary Table 1G-H for
full lists) of 110 DEGs identified in 'A'. The 23 annotations with the most significant p-value and with an

activation z-score of >2 were plotted with dots/lines indicating activation z-score and bars indicating –
$\log_{10}$ p-value. Annotations were grouped into two categories; cellular infiltration (blue) and innate
responses (red). **F)** GSEA for DEGs from human COVID-19 lung versus healthy control from Blanco-
Melo et al. (Blanco-Melo et al., 2020) against the pre-ranked (by fold change) all gene list
(Supplementary Table 1B). Normalised enrichment score (NES) and nominal p-value are shown. Core
enriched genes (see Supplementary Table 1L for full core enriched gene list) determined by GSEA were
entered into Enrichr and the top 10 GO Biological Processes annotations sorted by p-value are shown (see
Supplementary Table 1M for full GO processes list).
524
Figure 4. Day 6 post-infection is characterized by inflammation resolution and tissue repair
signatures. A) Venn diagram for DEGs comparing day 6 versus 2 post infection with (red) and without
(green) hACE2-lentivirus transduction. Number of DEGs that are FDR<0.05 are shown. Mean virus titer
($\log_{10}$ $CCID_{50}$/g) in lung tissue ± SEM (represents data shown in Figure 2D) is shown for hACE2
transduced mice at day 2 or 6 post infection. **B)** Volcano plot of gene expression from RNA-seq analyses
of hACE2-lentivirus transduced lung RNA comparing day 6 with day 2 (see Supplementary Table 2B-C
for gene and DEG lists). Genes were considered DEGs if they had a FDR value < 0.05 (above horizontal
dotted line). **C)** Cytokine signatures identified by IPA USR analysis (see Supplementary Table 2D-E for
full and cytokine only lists) of 551 DEGs identified in 'B' (Supplementary Table 2C). Circle area reflects
the number of DEGs associated with each USR annotation. USRs were grouped into four categories; red
= Th1 associated, green = Th2 associated, blue = Th17 associated, and black = pleiotropic/other. The
vertical dotted line indicates activation z-score of 0. **D)** Upregulated USR signatures identified using IPA
analysis (see Supplementary Table 2F) of 551 DEGs identified in 'B'. Circle area reflects the number of
DEGs associated with each USR annotation. USRs (excluding chemicals) with an activation z-score of >2
are shown and were grouped into five categories; green = B cell function, blue = tissue repair – endocrine
signaling, orange = tissue repair – growth factor, red = tissue repair – kinase, purple = tissue repair – Wnt
signaling. **E)** Selected plots from GSEA of entire MSigDB database using pre-ranked (by fold change)
'all' gene list (Supplementary Table 2B). NES score and p-value is shown for the
"GO_inflammatory_response" and
"Wp_Genes_Related_To_Primary_Cilium_Development_Based_On_Crispr" annotations.
545
Figure 5. Type I and III IFN signaling is required for SARS-CoV-2-induced lung inflammation. A)
Venn diagram for number of DEGs (FDR<0.05) between IFNAR^{-/-} versus C57BL/6J mice at day 2 or day
6 (green). Mean $\log_{10}$ SARS-CoV-2 read count in RNA-seq data ± SEM is shown (red text = day 2, green
text = day 6). **B)** Venn diagram for number of DEGs (FDR<0.05) between plus versus minus hACE2-
lentivirus transduction comparing C57BL/6J (red) and IFNAR^{-/-} (green) mice at day 2. **C)** Venn diagram
for IFNAR^{-/-} versus C57BL/6J mice at day 2 comparing hACE2-lentivirus transduced (red) or
untransduced (green) mice. **D)** Venn diagram comparing IFNAR^{-/-} versus C57BL/6J (red) and IL-28RA^{-/-}
versus C57BL/6J (blue) (see Supplementary Table 3B-C and 4B-C for full gene and DEG lists) mice at
day 2 (all mice had received hACE2-lentivirus transduction). Mean $\log_{10}$ SARS-CoV-2 read count in
RNA-seq data ± SEM is shown (red text = IFNAR^{-/-}, black text = C57BL/6J, blue text = IL-28RA^{-/-}). **E)**
Interferome analysis of down DEGs from 'D'. See supplementary Table 3D and 4D for full Interferome
ISG list. **F)** Signatures identified using IPA USR analysis of DEGs identified in 'D' for IFNAR^{-/-} versus
C57BL/6J (red) and IL-28RA^{-/-} versus C57BL/6J (blue). Circle area reflects the number of DEGs
associated with each USR annotation. Signatures were selected focusing on data previously identified in
'Figure 3C' (entire list is in Supplementary Table 3E and 4E).
561
Figure 6. Immunization with infectious or UV-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 protects against virus

infection. A) Timeline of mice immunization, lentivirus transduction and SARS-CoV-2 infection. **B)**
Reciprocal 50% neutralization titers of naïve mice and infectious or UV SARS-CoV-2 immunized mice.
Horizontal dotted line represents the limit of detection (1 in 10). Statistics are by Kolmogorov Smirnov
test. **C)** RT-qPCR of mice lung RNA using primers for hACE2 introduced by lentivirus transduction
normalized to mRPL13a levels. Data is individual mice and is expressed as RNA copy number calculated
against a standard curve for each gene. Horizontal line indicates cut-off for reliable detection, with all
hACE2-negative mice falling below this line. Statistics are by Kolmogorov Smirnov test. **D)** RT-qPCR
of mice lung RNA using primers for SARS-CoV-2 E gene normalized to mRPL13a levels. Data is
individual mice and is expressed as RNA copy number calculated against a standard curve for each gene.
Statistics are by Kolmogorov Smirnov test. Unvaccinated versus UV-inactive CoV-2 vaccinated reaches
significance by Kruskal-Wallis test (p=0.034). **E)** Titer of SARS-CoV-2 in mice lung determined using
$CCID_{50}$ assay of lung homogenate. Horizontal line indicates the limit of detection of $1.57 \log_{10} CCID_{50}/g$.
Statistics are by Kolmogorov Smirnov test. Unvaccinated versus UV-inactive CoV-2 vaccinated reaches
significance by Kruskal-Wallis test (p=0.028). **F)** Mean $\log_{10}$ SARS-CoV-2 read count at day 2 post-
infection in RNA-seq data $\pm$ SEM is shown (blue text = unvaccinated mice, red text = infectious SARS-
CoV-2 immunized mice). GSEA for Blood Transcription Modules (BTMs) from Li et al. (Li et al., 2014)
against the pre-ranked all gene list comparing unvaccinated versus infectious SARS-CoV-2 immunized
(s.c) mice lung at day 2 (all mice had hACE2-lentivirus transduction). Selected BTM modules with a
positive NES score and p < 0.05 are shown (full list in Supplementary Table 5). See Supplementary
Table 5 for full gene and DEG lists and full downstream analyses lists.
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STAR METHODS
Ethics statement
All mouse work was conducted in accordance with the "Australian code for the care and use of animals
for scientific purposes" as defined by the National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia.
Mouse work was approved by the QIMR Berghofer Medical Research Institute animal ethics committee
(P3600, A2003-607). Mice were euthanized using CO_2 or cervical dislocation.
590
Cell lines and SARS-CoV-2 culture
Vero E6 (C1008, ECACC, Wiltshire, England; Sigma Aldridge, St. Louis, MO, USA), HEK293T (a gift
from Michel Rist, QIMR Berghofer), Lenti-X 293T (Takara Bio), AE17 (a gift from Delia Nelson,
Faculty of Health Sciences, Curtin Medical School), and NIH-3T3 (American Type Culture Collection,
ATCC, CRL-1658) cells were cultured in medium comprising DMEM for Lenti-X 293T cells or
RPMI1640 for all others (Gibco) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS), penicillin
(100 IU/ml)/streptomycin (100 μg/ml) (Gibco/Life Technologies) and L-glutamine (2 mM) (Life
Technologies). Cells were cultured at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Cells were routinely checked for mycoplasma
(MycoAlert Mycoplasma Detection Kit MycoAlert, Lonza) and FCS was assayed for endotoxin
contamination before purchase (Johnson et al., 2005). The SARS-CoV-2 isolate was kindly provided by
Queensland Health Forensic & Scientific Services, Queensland Department of Health, Brisbane,
Australia. The virus (hCoV-19/Australia/QLD02/2020) was isolated from a patient and sequence
deposited at GISAID (https://www.gisaid.org/; after registration and login, sequence can be downloaded
from https://www.epicov.org/epi3/frontend#1707af). Virus stock was generated by infection of Vero E6
cells at multiplicity of infection (MOI)≈0.01, with supernatant collected after 2-3 days, cell debris
removed by centrifugation at 3000 x g for 15 min at 4°C, and virus aliquoted and stored at -80°C. Virus
titers were determined using standard $CCID_{50}$ assays (see below). The virus was determined to be
mycoplasma free using co-culture with a non-permissive cell line (i.e. HeLa) and Hoechst staining as
described (La Linn et al., 1995).

610
CCID$_{50}$ assays
Vero E6 cells were plated into 96 well flat bottom plates at $2x10^4$ cells per well in 100 µl of medium. For
tissue titer, tissue was homogenized in tubes each containing 4 ceramic beads twice at 6000 x g for 15
seconds, followed by centrifugation twice at 21000 x g for 5 min before 5 fold serial dilutions in 100 µl
RPMI1640 supplemented with 2% FCS. For cell culture supernatant, 10 fold serial dilutions were
performed in 100 µl RPMI1640 supplemented with 2% FCS. 100 µl of serially diluted samples were
added to Vero E6 cells and the plates cultured for 5 days at 37°C and 5% CO_2. The virus titer was
determined by the method of Spearman and Karber (a convenient Excel CCID$_{50}$ calculator is available at
https://www.klinikum.uni-heidelberg.de/zentrum-fuer-infektiologie/molecular-
virology/welcome/downloads).
621
Lentivirus cloning
ACE2 genes were cloned into pCDH-EF1α-MCS-BGH-PGK-GFP-T2A-Puro Cloning and Expression
Lentivector (System Biosciences, catalogue number CD550A-1), where the EF1α promoter was replaced
with the full length EF1α using NheI and ClaI restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs). Human ACE2
coding sequence (codon optimized for mouse) was cloned into the pCDH lentivector with PCR fragments
amplified using Q5® High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs) and the following primers;
vector backbone (pCDH amplified with Forward 5'- TAAATCGGATCCGCGG -3' and Reverse 5'-
AATTCGAATTCGCTAGC) and hACE2 insert (Forward 5'-
GCTAGCGAATTCGAATTATGAGCAGCAGCTCTTGGC -3' and Reverse 5'-
CCGCGGATCGCATTTATCAGAAGCTTGTCTGCACGT -3'). The pCDH fragment was digested with
DpnI (New England Biolabs) and was purified using QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (QIAGEN), as was the
hACE2 fragment. Fragments were recombined using NEBuilder HiFi DNA Assembly Cloning Kit as per
manufacturer instructions. This was transformed into NEB® 10-beta Competent E. coli (High Efficiency)
(New England Biolabs) as per manufacturer instructions and plated on ampicillin agar plates overnight.
Colony PCR was performed using Q5 High-Fidelity 2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs) and the
hACE2 insert primers to identify a positive colony, which was grown in LB broth with ampicillin and
plasmid was purified using NucleoBond Xtra Midi kit (Machery Nagel).
All ACE2 mutant coding sequences were ordered from Twist Bioscience/Decode Science containing
EcoRI upstream and BamHI downstream. Fragments were amplified using the using Q5® High-Fidelity
2X Master Mix (New England Biolabs) and the following primers; Forward 5'-
CCTGACCTTAGCGAATTCATG -3' and Reverse 5'- ACCTAGCCTCGCGGATC -3'. PCR fragments
were purified using Monarch DNA Gel Extraction Kit (New England Biolabs), and were digested with
EcoRI and BamHI (New England Biolabs), as was the pCDH vector before purification again with
Monarch® DNA Gel Extraction Kit (New England Biolabs). The ACE2 fragment was ligated with
pCDH vector using T4 DNA Ligase (New England Biolabs) as per manufacturer instructions and then
transformed into NEB® 10-beta Competent E. coli (High Efficiency) (New England Biolabs) as per
manufacturer instructions and plated on ampicillin agar plates overnight. Colonies were grown in LB
broth with ampicillin and plasmid was purified using NucleoBond Xtra Midi kit (Machery Nagel).
Plasmids were confirmed by PCR with the cloning primers above and fragments were gel purified and
confirmed by Sanger sequencing with the forward primer.
652
Lentivirus production, titration and cell line transduction
ACE2 lentivirus was produced by co-transfection of HEK293T or Lenti-X HEK293T cells with the
pCDH-ACE2 plasmid, VSV-G and Gag-Pol using Lipofectamine 2000 Reagent (Thermo Fisher
Scientific) or Xfect Transfection Reagent (Takara Bio) as per manufacturer instructions. Supernatant was

collected 2 days after transfection and centrifuged at 500 x g for 10 min, and this was concentrated using
Amicon Ultra-15 Centrifugal Filter Units with 100 kDa cutoff (Merck Millipore) as per manufacturer
instructions. Lentivirus was titrated by serial dilution of lentivirus and incubating with 5000 HEK293T
cells in 96 well plates with 8 µg/ml polybrene for 3 days followed by GFP detection by flow cytometry
(BD Biosciences LSRFortessa). Transduction units (TU) per ml was calculated by percentage of 5000
cells that are GFP positive multiplied by the dilution. For example if 2 µl lentivirus gives 5% GFP
positive cells, the TU/ml is ((5/100)*5000) * (1000/2) = 125,000 TU/ml. The p24 equivalent (ng/ml) was
measured using Lenti-X GoStix Plus (Takara Bio) as per manufacturer instructions.
Cell lines were transduced by incubating with lentivirus and 8 µg/ml polybrene for 2-3 days followed by 5
µg/ml puromycin treatment until most resistant cells expressed GFP. Cells were then infected with
SARS-CoV-2 at MOI 0.1 for 1 hr at 37°C, cells were washed with PBS and media replaced. Culture
supernatant was harvested at the indicated timepoints and titered by $CCID_{50}$ assay as described.
669
UV-inactivated SARS-CoV-2 vaccine preparation and mice immunization
120 ml of SARS-CoV-2 was inactivated with at least 7650 J/m^2 UVC in a UVC 500 Ultraviolet
Crosslinker (Hoefer). Virus was determined to be inactivated by incubation with Vero E6 cells for 4 days
without development of CPE. UV-inactive SARS-CoV-2 was then partially-purified using a 20% sucrose
cushion centrifuged at 175,000 x g for 3-4 hr using SW32Ti rotor (Beckman Coulter). The sample that
has passed through the sucrose was collected and concentrated using Amicon Ultra-15 Centrifugal Filter
Units with 100 kDa cutoff (Merck Millipore). For infectious SARS-CoV-2 immunization, virus was also
concentrated using Amicon Ultra-15 Centrifugal Filter Units with 100 kDa cutoff (Merck Millipore).
Mice were injected s.c. in the base of the tail with 100 µl of UV-inactive or infectious SARS-CoV-2 with
25 µg adjuvant in 50 µl made with the same ingredients as AS01 (Chlibek et al., 2013) as described
previously (Yan et al., 2020). A boost was given 5-6 weeks after prime, and mice were bled to measure
serum neutralizing titers 4-9 weeks after boost.
682
Neutralization assay
Mouse serum was heat inactivated at 56°C for 30 min and incubated with 100 $CCID_{50}$ SARS-CoV-2 for 2
hr at 37°C before adding 10^5 Vero cells/well in a 96 well plate to 200 µl. After 4 days cells were fixed and
stained by adding 50 µl formaldehyde (15% w/v) and crystal violet (0.1% w/v) (Sigma-Aldrich)
overnight. The plates were washed in tap water, dried overnight and 100 µl/well of 100% methanol added
to dissolve the crystal violet and the OD was read at 595 nm using a 96-well plate reader (Biotek Synergy
H4). The 50% neutralizing titers were interpolated from optical density (OD) versus dilution plots.

Mice intranasal lentivirus transduction and SARS-CoV-2 infection
C57BL/6J, IFNAR$^{-/-}$ (Swann et al., 2007) (originally provided by P. Hertzog, Monash University,
Melbourne, VIC, Australia) and IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ (Ank et al., 2008; Galani et al., 2017) mice were bred in-house
at QIMRB. Female mice were 8 weeks to 1 year old (age matched between groups) at the start of the
experiment. Mice were anesthetized using isoflurane and 4 µl of 1% L-α-Lysophosphatidylcholine from
egg yolk (Sigma Aldrich) in water was administered intranasally. After 1 hour mice were inoculated
intranasally with approximately 2×10^4 TU of hACE2-pCDH lentivirus in 50 µl, and 1 week later
challenged with 10^5 $CCID_{50}$ SARS-CoV-2 intranasally in 50 µl. Mice were sacrificed by cervical
dislocation at day 2, 4 or 6 and lungs were collected. Right lung was immediately homogenized in tubes
each containing 4 beads twice at 6000 x g for 15 seconds, and used in tissue titration as described above.
Left lung was placed in RNAprotect Tissue Reagent (QIAGEN) at 4°C overnight then -80°C.
K18-hACE2 mice (McCray et al., 2007) were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory and bred in-house
at QIMRB with C57BL/6J mice. Mice were genotyped using Extract-N-Amp Tissue PCR Kit (Sigma

Aldrich) according to manufacturer instructions with the following primers; Forward 5'-
CTTGGTGATATGTGGGGTAGA-3' and Reverse 5'-CGCTTCATCTCCCACCACTT-3'. hACE2
positive mice were infected with 5×10^4 SARS-CoV-2 i.n. as above and lung RNA was harvested at day 4
for RNA-seq.
707
RT-qPCR
Mice lung was transferred from RNAlater to TRIzol (Life Technologies) and was homogenized twice at
6000 x g for 15 sec. Homogenates were centrifuged at $14,000 \times g$ for 10 min and RNA was isolated as
per manufacturer's instructions. cDNA was synthesized using ProtoScript II First Strand cDNA Synthesis
Kit (New England Biolabs) and qPCR performed using iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad)
as per manufacturer instructions with the following primers; SARS-CoV-2 E Forward 5'-
ACAGGTACGTTAATAGTTAATAGCGT -3' and Reverse 5'- ATATTGCAGCAGTACGCACACA,
hACE2 Forward 5'- GATCACGATTCCCAGGACG -3' and Reverse 5'- TCCGGCTGAACGACAACTC
-3', mRPL13a (Schroder et al., 2010) Forward 5'- GAGGTCGGGTGGAAGTACCA -3' and Reverse 3'-
TGCATCTTGGCCTTTTCCTT -3'. PCR fragments of SARS-CoV-2 E, ACE2 and mRPL13a using the
same primers as above were gel purified and 10-fold serial dilutions of estimated copy numbers were used
as standards in qPCR to calculate copies in samples reactions. SARS-CoV-2 E and ACE2 copies were
normalized by mRPL13a copy number in each reaction. qPCR reactions were performed in duplicate and
averaged to determine the copy number in each sample.
722
RNA-seq
TRIzol extracted lung RNA was treated with DNase (RNase-Free DNAse Set (Qiagen)) followed by
purification using RNeasy MinElute Cleanup Kit (QIAGEN) as per manufacturer instructions. RNA
concentration and quality was measured using TapeStation D1K TapeScreen assay (Agilent). cDNA
libraries were prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA library prep kit and the sequencing
performed on the Illumina Nextseq 550 platform generating 75bp paired end reads. Per base sequence
quality for >90% bases was above Q30 for all samples. The quality of raw sequencing reads was assessed
using FastQC (Simons, 2010) (v0.11.8) and trimmed using Cutadapt (Martin, 2011) (v2.3) to remove
adapter sequences and low-quality bases. Trimmed reads were aligned using STAR (Dobin et al., 2013)
(v2.7.1a) to a combined reference that included the mouse GRCm38 primary assembly and the
GENCODE M23 gene model (Harrow et al., 2012), SARS-CoV-2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1 (NC_045512.2;
29903 bp) and the human ACE2 mouse codon optimized sequence (2418 bp). Mouse gene expression
was estimated using RSEM (Li and Dewey, 2011) (v1.3.0). Reads aligned to SARS-CoV-2 and hACE2
were counted using SAMtools (Li et al., 2009) (v1.9). Differential gene expression in the mouse was
analyzed using EdgeR (3.22.3) and modelled using the likelihood ratio test, glmLRT().
738
Analyses of K18-hACE2 and Ad5-hACE2 RNA-seq data
RNA-seq datasets generated from the Winkler et al. study (Winkler et al., 2020), and Sun et al. study (Sun
et al., 2020a) were obtained from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE154104 and GSE150847
respectively) and trimmed using Cutadapt (v2.3). Trimmed reads were aligned using STAR (v2.7.1a) to a
combined reference that included the mouse GRCm38 primary assembly and the GENCODE M23 gene
model, SARS-CoV-2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1 (NC_045512.2; 29903 bp) and the human ACE2 transcript
variant 1 (NM_001371415.1; 3339 bp). Mouse gene expression was estimated using RSEM (v1.3.0).
Reads aligned to SARS-CoV-2 and hACE2 were counted using SAMtools (v1.9). Differential gene
expression in the mouse was analyzed using EdgeR (3.22.3) and modelled using the likelihood ratio test,
glmLRT().
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Pathway Analysis

Up-Stream Regulators (USR), Diseases and Functions and canonical pathways enriched in differentially expressed genes in direct and indirect interactions were investigated using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) (QIAGEN).

Network Analysis

Protein interaction networks of differentially expressed gene lists were visualized in Cytoscape (v3.7.2) (Shannon et al., 2003). Enrichment for biological processes, molecular functions, KEGG pathways and other gene ontology categories in DEG lists was elucidated using the STRING database (Szklarczyk et al., 2019) and GO enrichment analysis (Mi et al., 2019).

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis

Preranked GSEA (Subramanian et al., 2005) was performed on a desktop application (GSEA v4.0.3) (http://www.broadinstitute.org/gsea/) using the "GSEAPreranked" module. Gene sets from the supplemental materials from the Winkler et al. (Winkler et al., 2020), Blanco-Melo et al. (Blanco-Melo et al., 2020) and Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2020b) (filename.GMT) studies were investigated for enrichment in our pre-ranked all gene list for SARS-CoV-2 infected day 2 mice lung comparing plus versus minus ACE2 (Supplementary Table 2B). Li et al. (Li et al., 2014) blood transcription modules (BTM_for_GSEA_20131008.gmt, n = 346) was also used in GSEA to determine enrichment in our 'immunized' versus unvaccinated mice lung at day 2 (Supplementary Table 5B). The complete Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) v7.2 gene set collection (31,120 gene sets) (msigdb.v7.2.symbols.gmt: https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb/download_file.jsp?filePath=/msigdb/release/7.2/msigdb.v7.2.symbols.gmt) was used to run GSEAs on pre-ranked gene list for plus versus minus ACE2 at day 2 (Supplementary Table 1B), and day 6 versus day 2 (Supplementary Table 2B). Gene ontology (Ashburner et al., 2000; Consortium, 2021) and Enrichr (Chen et al., 2013; Kuleshov et al., 2016) web-tools were also consulted.

Interferome

The indicated DEG lists were entered into Interferome (www.interferome.org) (Rusinova et al., 2013) with the following parameters: *In Vivo*, Mus musculus, fold change 2 (up and down).

Statistics

Statistical analyses of experimental data were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 19.0 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA). The t-test was used when the difference in variances was <4, skewness was >2 and kurtosis was <2. Otherwise, the non-parametric Kolmogorov–Smirnov test or Kruskal-Wallis test was used. Repeated Measures Two-Way ANOVA was used where indicated.

SUPPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplementary Figure 1. Replication of SARS-CoV-2 in hACE2-lentivirus transduced mouse cell lines. Growth kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 over a three day time course in untransduced or hACE2-lentivirus transduced 3T3 or AE17 cells infected at MOI=0.1. Data is the mean of triplicate wells and error bars represent SEM. Images of cells were taken using an inverted light microscope at day 3 post-infection and are representative of triplicate wells.

Supplementary Figure 2. RT-qPCR of mice lung RNA using primers for SARS-CoV-2 normalized to hACE2 introduced by lentivirus transduction. Data is individual mice from Figure 2E normalised to 2C, and is expressed as RNA copy number calculated against a standard curve for each gene.

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Supplementary Figure 3. SARS-CoV-2 and hACE2 read counts in RNA-Seq data. RNA-Seq was
performed on mice lung from the same mice as in 'Figure 2'. **A)** SARS-CoV-2 read counts normalized to
total read count. Data points below the horizontal dotted line had read counts of zero. **B)** hACE2 read
counts normalised to total read count. Data points below the horizontal dotted line had read counts of
zero. **C)** SARS-CoV-2 read count normalised to hACE2 read count. Circle with pink dotted outline had
hACE2 read count of 0, so the value was set to the SARS-CoV-2 read count (not normalised). **D)** SARS-
CoV-2 reads aligned to reference genome viewed in Integrative Genome Viewer (IGV). Mice with
hACE2 displayed reads mapped across the entire genome, with higher counts for structural gene sub-
genomic RNA as also evident in hACE2-adenoviral vector transduced cell lines (Blanco-Melo et al.,
2020).
808
809 **Supplementary Table 1. RNA-Seq gene lists and downstream bioinformatic analyses of responses**
810 **at day 2 post-infection.**
811
812 **Supplementary Table 2. RNA-Seq gene lists and downstream bioinformatic analyses of responses**
813 **at day 6 post-infection.**
814
815 **Supplementary Table 3. RNA-Seq gene lists and downstream bioinformatic analyses of responses**
816 **in IFNAR$^{-/-}$ versus C57BL/6J mice at day 2 post-infection.**
817
818 **Supplementary Table 4. RNA-Seq gene lists and downstream bioinformatic analyses of responses**
819 **in IL-28RA$^{-/-}$ versus C57BL/6J mice at day 2 post-infection.**
820
821 **Supplementary Table 5. RNA-Seq gene lists and downstream bioinformatic analyses of responses**
822 **in immunized versus unvaccinated mice at day 2 post-infection.**
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824 **REFERENCES**
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Figure 1

A RSVp | 5' LTR | Ψ | Full length EF1α promoter | **ACE2** | BGH-poly A | PGKp | T2A GFP | Puro | WPRE | 3' LTR

B HEK293T cells hACE2 mutants

Virus titer, log₁₀ CCID50/ml ± SE

Days post-infection

p<0.001

- Untransduced
- WT hACE2
- hACE2-T92Q
- hACE2-K31N/K353H
- hACE2-T27Y/L79Y/N330Y

C HEK293T cells mACE2 mutants

Virus titer, log₁₀ CCID50/ml ± SE

Days post-infection

p=0.018
p<0.001

- Untransduced
- WT mACE2
- mACE2-N30D/N31K/T79L/S82M/F83Y/A329E/H353K
- mACE2-N30D/N31K/F83Y/H353K
- mACE2-N31K/H353K

D Untransduced | WT hACE2 | WT mACE2 | mACE2-N30D/N31K/T79L/S82M/F83Y/A329E/H353K | mACE2 N30D/N31K/F83Y/H353K | mACE2 N31K/H353K

E Spike RBD | WT hACE2

N487 | K417 | D30 | K31 | Q493 | G496 | K353 | G502 | Y83

SARS-CoV-2 can infect cells via mACE2 with these changes

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary figure 1

Supplementary figure 2

Supplementary figure 3