

1 **Comparable environmental stability and disinfection profiles of the currently**
2 **circulating SARS-CoV-2 variants of concern B.1.1.7 and B.1.351**

3 Toni Luise Meister¹, Jil Fortmann², Daniel Todt^{1,3}, Natalie Heinen¹, Alfred Ludwig²,
4 Yannick Brueggemann¹, Carina Elsner⁴, Ulf Dittmer⁴, Stephanie Pfaender^{1*} and Eike
5 Steinmann^{1*}

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7 ¹Department for Molecular & Medical Virology, Ruhr University Bochum, 44801

8 Bochum Germany

9 ²Materials Discovery and Interfaces, Ruhr University Bochum, 44801 Bochum

10 Germany

11 ³European Virus Bioinformatics Center (EVBC), 07743 Jena, Germany

12 ⁴ Institute for Virology, University Hospital of Essen, University of Duisburg-Essen,

13 45147 Essen, Germany.

14 * These authors contributed equally

15 Corresponding authors:

16 Stephanie Pfaender and Eike Steinmann

17 Department of Molecular and Medical Virology

18 Ruhr-University Bochum

19 Universitaetsstr. 150

20 44801 Bochum, Germany

21 Phone: +49 234 32 23189, Fax: +49 234 32 14352

- 22 Email: stephanie.pfaender@rub.de; eike.steinmann@rub.de
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30 **Abstract**

31 The emergence of novel SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.7 and B.1.351 variants of concern with
32 increased transmission dynamics has raised questions regarding stability and
33 disinfection of these viruses. In this study, we analyzed surface stability and
34 disinfection of the currently circulating SARS-CoV-2 variants B.1.1.7 and B.1.351
35 compared to the wildtype. Treatment with heat, soap and ethanol revealed similar
36 inactivation profiles indicative of a comparable susceptibility towards disinfection.
37 Furthermore, we observed comparable surface stability on steel, silver, copper and
38 face masks. Overall, our data support the application of currently recommended
39 hygiene concepts to minimize the risk of B.1.1.7 and B.1.351 transmission.

40

41 **Background**

42 Since the outbreak of *Severe Acute respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus-2* (SARS-CoV-
43 2) at the end of 2019, > 120 million cases and > 2.8 million death (March 31st 2021)
44 have been reported [1]. Viral evolution includes the natural emergence of viral variants,
45 which can encode for a variety of mutations in their genome compared to the parental
46 wildtype virus. Mutations which confer either enhanced fitness, higher pathogenicity,
47 better transmissibility or immune escape are of special concern as they could
48 significantly influence transmission dynamics with devastating consequences. In-
49 dependent lineages of SARS-CoV-2 have recently been reported: UK, B.1.1.7; South
50 Africa, B.1.351; and Brazil, P.1 [2]. Importantly, these variants of concern (VOC)
51 display higher reproduction numbers than preexisting variants and consequently
52 increase incidences in various countries. Moreover, VOCs have been associated with
53 more severe course of infection and/or potential immune escape due to multiple
54 changes in the immunodominant spike protein [3–5]. Since the global access to
55 COVID-19 vaccines is still limited, diligent attention on transmission-based
56 precautions is essential to limit VOC spread. However, given the rapid spread and
57 increased transmission dynamics of the emerging variants, concerns regarding the
58 effectiveness of current hygiene measures and inactivation strategies have been
59 raised. Here we compared the stability of three SARS-CoV-2 strains, the preexisting
60 B1.1.70 variant (herein referred as WT virus) and the currently emerging B.1.1.7 and
61 B.1.351 variants on different surfaces and their sensitivity to heat, soap and ethanol.

62

63 **Methods**

64 *Viral isolates and Cell culture*

65 For SARS-CoV-2 virus suspension preparation, Vero E6 cells (kindly provided by C.
66 Drosten and M. Müller) were seeded at 2×10^6 cells in a 75 cm² flask in Dulbecco's
67 modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, supplemented with 10 % (v/v) fetal calf serum
68 (FCS), 1 % (v/v) non-essential amino acids, 100 IU/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL
69 streptomycin and 2 mM L-Glutamine). After 24 h the cells were inoculated with 100 µl
70 of either wild type virus hCoV-19/Germany/BY-Bochum-1/2020 (GISAID accession ID:
71 EPI_ISL_1118929), VOC B.1.1.7_RKI-0026_B.1.1.7 (GISAID accession ID:
72 EPI_ISL_751799) or the VOC B.1.351_RKI-0029_B.1.351 (GISAID accession ID:
73 EPI_ISL_803957). Spike domains of strains were checked for lineage features prior
74 to assays in the context of routine diagnostics (primer kindly provided by René
75 Scholtysik, University Hospital Essen; details about sequences and cycling conditions
76 available upon request). Three days post infection and upon visible cytopathic effects
77 virus suspension was harvested by collecting the supernatant and subsequent
78 centrifugation for 5 min at 1,500 rpm to remove any cell debris. The virus suspensions
79 were aliquoted and stored at -80 °C until further usage.

80 *Carrier assay*

81 To analyze viral stability on different surfaces we performed time kinetics and studied
82 viral stability over 48 h. Therefore, stainless steel disk, disks sputtered with copper or
83 silver, the inner layer of surgical masks and Filtering Face Piece 2 (FFP2) masks were
84 inoculated with 5×10 µL of test virus suspension. The test suspension contained 9-
85 parts virus and 1-part interfering substance (bovine serum albumin [BSA], 0.3g/L in
86 phosphate buffered saline [PBS] according to EN 5.2.2.8) and was adjusted to 5×10^6

87 TCID₅₀/mL. Immediately, 10 min, 1 h, 24 h and 48 h after virus inoculation on the
88 different surfaces they were placed aseptically in a 2 ml DMEM (without FCS)
89 harboring container and vortexed for 60 s. To determine the amount of recovered
90 infectious virus from the test specimen an end-point-dilution assay was performed on
91 Vero E6 cells to calculate the remaining TCID₅₀ according to Spearman and Kärber
92 [6, 7].

93 *Quantitative suspension assay*

94 To test susceptibility to disinfection, viruses were exposed to 20, 30, 40, 60 and 80 %
95 (v/v) ethanol for 30 s or to hand soap (Lifosan® soft, B. Braun Medical AG, diluted
96 1:49 in water) for 30 s, 1 min, 5 min and 10 min. Therefore, 8-parts ethanol or hand
97 soap were mixed with 1-part interfering substance (BSA, 0.3g/L in PBS according to
98 EN 5.2.2.8) and 1-part virus adjusted to 5×10⁶ TCID₅₀/mL. The suspensions were
99 incubated for the indicated time periods and residual viral infectivity was determined
100 by performing an end point dilution assay on Vero E6 cells.

101 *Heat inactivation*

102 To access susceptibility towards heat virus suspension were incubated for 1 min, 5
103 min, 10 min and 30 min at 56 °C. Thus, 9 parts virus adjusted to 5×10⁶ TCID₅₀/mL
104 were mixed with 1 part interfering substance (BSA, 0.3g/L in PBS according to EN
105 5.2.2.8) and incubated for the indicated time periods. Reduction of viral titers were
106 examined by end point dilution assay to calculate TCID₅₀ values.

107

108 **Results**

109 In order to address if the newly emerged VOC B.1.1.7 and B.1.351 were equally
110 susceptible towards different inactivation strategies as the wild type virus we
111 compared viral inactivation upon usage of ethanol, a common ingredient of several
112 disinfectants and recommended by the World Health Organization (WHO) in resource
113 limited countries [8]. Viruses were exposed towards increasing concentrations of
114 ethanol for 30 s and residual viral infectivity was determined by endpoint titration. In
115 accordance to previous results, all three viral variants could be efficiently inactivated
116 upon treatment with at least 30 % (v/v) ethanol for 30 s, confirming equal susceptibility
117 towards disinfection (**Figure 1**). Since disinfection procedures are mainly
118 recommended in clinical setups, we next addressed the virucidal activity of
119 conventional hand soap. SARS-CoV-2 variants were inoculated with a 1:49 dilution of
120 commercially available hand soap and viral infectivity determined after different time
121 points. All viral variants were effectively inactivated after exposure towards soap within
122 1 - 5 minutes, supporting current hygiene measures (**Figure 1**). Next, we addressed
123 susceptibility of the three strains towards heat (56°C) and observed a decrease in viral
124 titers towards background levels within 30 min. Importantly, inactivation kinetics were
125 comparable between all viral variants (**Figure 1**). Although SARS-CoV-2 is mainly
126 transmitted through respiratory droplets and aerosols exhaled from infected
127 individuals transmission via fomites cannot be excluded. Viral stability was examined
128 on representative materials surfaces: silver, copper and stainless-steel discs for up to
129 48 h, using an initial virus concentration of 9.2×10^6 TCID₅₀/mL. Importantly, all
130 variants remained infectious on the different surfaces for 48 h and compared to the
131 wildtype virus no differences in the relative infectivity were observed (**Figure 2A**). In
132 order to mimic a potential contamination of on protective masks by infected individuals,

133 we contaminated the inside of either a surgical mask or a FFP2 mask and analyzed
134 viral stability for all variants. Again, comparable residual titers of all VOCs were
135 observed over time (**Figure 2B**). In conclusion, the currently circulating VOC did not
136 exhibit enhanced surface stability or differences in disinfection profiles indicating that
137 current hygiene measures are sufficient and appropriate.

138

139 **Discussion**

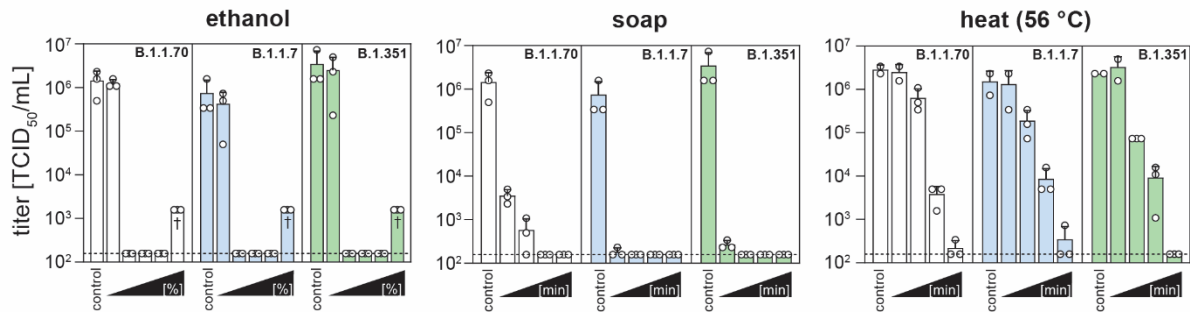
140 The currently circulating VOCs, including B.1.1.7 and B.1.351 have shown a strong
141 increase in incidences in various countries. In particular, the B.1.1.7 strain has been
142 suspected to display a 43–90% higher reproduction number compared to preexisting
143 variants [3, 9]. However, the exact mechanisms underlying the increased transmission
144 rates are still under investigation. Given the challenges during the rollout of COVID-19
145 vaccines, current prevention measures are based on the “swiss cheese model” [10],
146 including a combination of different intervention strategies. In most countries, physical
147 distancing, face covers and hygiene measures are the main strategies to lower virus
148 spread. Therefore, it is essential to address if current hygiene strategies are sufficient
149 and appropriate to prevent transmission of newly emerging VOCs. Especially in the
150 hospital setting, viral disinfection is crucial given the large number of infected patients
151 with high viral loads in a limited space. Several disinfectants are based on ethanol
152 which has been shown to efficiently inactivate CoVs within a very short time frame
153 [11]. In agreement with this, we observed a comparable susceptibility of all viral
154 variants tested towards a minimum of 30 % ethanol upon 30 s exposure, indicative of
155 similar disinfection properties. Since disinfections are not recommended for the daily
156 use, we further examined the virucidal efficiency of common household soap. Soaps
157 contain a mixture of surfactants, which can act directly antiviral upon insertion into the
158 lipid envelope thereby leading to the disintegration of the virus within minutes [12, 13].
159 However, given that common day-to-day practices do normally not include soaping of
160 hands for several minutes, additional effects can include viral elution from the hand
161 surface due to the adsorptive properties of soap that results upon hand rubbing and
162 subsequent washing in successful removal of the viral particles [14]. We observed an
163 efficient inactivation of all variants within 30 s exposure and upon 5 min all viral variants

164 were completely inactivated. Of note, contact times can differ depending on the ratio
165 of soap and water. Interestingly, we observed slight differences with a minimal residual
166 infectivity after 30 s and 1 min for the wildtype in contrast to the tested VOCs. However,
167 these could be attributed to a variety of factors and do not necessarily reflect changed
168 biological properties of the viruses. In order to minimize the risk of SARS-CoV-2
169 transmission while handling and processing of clinical specimens, standard
170 precautions involve different inactivation procedures to reduce or abolish infectivity.
171 Heat inactivation protocols are commonly used for a variety of subsequent
172 applications, therefore, we aimed to address the susceptibility of VOCs towards
173 treatment with 56 °C for different times. As described before, a 30 min treatment with
174 56 °C is sufficient to efficiently abolish infectivity, with no differences between the
175 VOCs. Transmission via contaminated surfaces (fomites) is not considered to be a
176 main route of infection, nevertheless given the high transmission rates questions
177 regarding changed environmental stability were being raised. Surface stability for
178 several days has been described under laboratory conditions for several
179 coronaviruses [15–17]. Using different surfaces, we did not observe any differences
180 regarding viral decay kinetics. Importantly, we observed prolonged stability of all
181 variants on face masks, highlighting the importance of exchanging masks regularly
182 and the risk of shared masks. Of note, in contrast to other publications [18], we did not
183 observe an antiviral effect of silver surfaces on SARS-CoV-2. This is in contrast to
184 copper, for which antiviral properties have been described before and could be
185 confirmed in this study [19]. In conclusion, our results suggest that current hygiene
186 measures are appropriate and effective against the currently circulating VOCs.

187

188 **Figure legends**

Figure 1



189

190 **Figure 1: Inactivation of SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.7 and B.1.351 variants compared to**

191 **B.1.1.70 (wild type).** Residual titer (TCID₅₀/mL) of B.1.1.70 (white bars) B.1.1.7 (blue

192 bars) and B.1.351 (green bars) variants after inactivation via heat (56 °C, left panel)

193 for 1, 5, 10 and 30 min (left to right), soap (middle panel) for 30 s, 1, 5 and 10 min (left

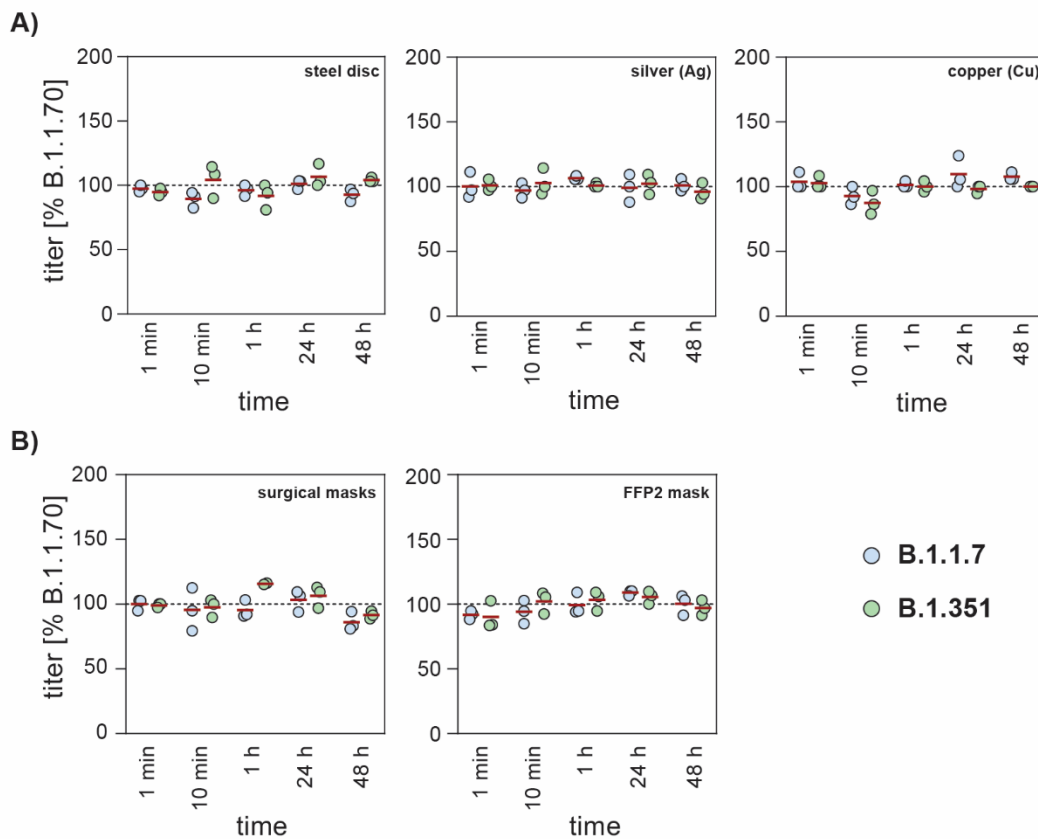
194 to right) and ethanol (right panel, 20%, 30%, 40%, 60% and 80%, left to right).

195 Depicted are the individual replicates as dots and the mean as bars ± SD; dashed line

196 indicates lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) of the limiting dilution assay. † denotes

197 elevated LLOQ due to cytotoxicity.

Figure 2



198

199 **Figure 2: Relative stability of SARS-CoV-2 B.1.1.7 and B.1.351 variants to**
200 **B.1.1.70 (wildtype).** SARS-CoV-2 stock solutions were applied on different surfaces
201 and recovered after the indicated times and residual titer was assessed via limiting
202 dilution assay (TCID₅₀/mL). Normalized stability of B.1.1.7 (blue dots) and B.1.351
203 (green dots) variants on A) stainless steel discs and disks sputtered with copper or
204 silver and B) on the inner layer of surgical masks and Filtering Face Piece 2 (FFP2)
205 masks relative to wild type (dashed line). Depicted are the individual replicates as dots
206 and the mean as red lines.

207

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211 **Potential conflicts of interest**

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