An immunoPET probe to SARS-CoV-2 reveals early infection of the male genital tract in rhesus macaques

Patrick J. Madden[1], Yanique Thomas[1], Robert V. Blair[2], Sadia Samer[1], Mark Doyle[2], Cecily C. Midkiff[2], Mark E. Becker[1], Muhammad S. Arif[1], Michael D. McRaven[1], Lacy M. Simons[3,4], Ann M. Carias[1], Elena Martinelli[1], Ramon Lorenzo-Redondo[3, 4], Judd F Hultquist[3,4], Francois J. Villinger[5], Ronald S. Veazey[2], and Thomas J. Hope[1*]

[1]Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, Feinberg School of Medicine, Northwestern University, Chicago, Illinois, USA

[2]Division of Comparative Pathology, Tulane National Primate Research Center, Covington, Louisiana, USA

[3]Department of Medicine, Division of Infectious Diseases, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA.

[4]Center for Pathogen Genomics and Microbial Evolution, Northwestern University Institute for Global Health, Chicago, IL, USA.

[5]New Iberia Research Center, University of Louisiana-Lafayette, New Iberia, Louisiana, USA

Abstract

Because of the recognized systemic nature of SARS-CoV-2 infection, a non-invasive and

unbiased method is needed to clarify its spatiotemporal dynamics *in vivo* after transmission.

We recently developed a probe based on the anti-SARS-CoV-2 spike antibody CR3022 to study

SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis *in vivo*. Herein, we describe its use in immunoPET to investigate

SARS-CoV-2 infection of rhesus macaques. Using PET/CT imaging of macaques at different times

post-SARS-CoV-2 inoculation, we demonstrate that the ^{64}Cu-labelled CR3022-F(ab')2 probe

targeting the spike protein of SARS-CoV-2 can be used to study the dynamics of infection within

the respiratory tract and uncover novel sites of infection. Differences in lung pathology

between infection with the WA1 isolate and the delta variant were readily observed using

immunoPET and corroborated CT lung pathology. The ability of the probe to illuminate lung-

associated pathology demonstrates its specificity and function to detect infection in PET scan.

The ^{64}Cu-CR3022-probe also demonstrated dynamic changes occurring between 1- and 2-weeks

post-infection. Remarkably, a robust signal was seen in the male genital tract (MGT) of all three

animals studied. Infection of the MGT was validated by immunofluorescence imaging of

infected cells in the testicular and penile tissue and severe pathology was observed in the

testes of one animal at 2-weeks post-infection. The results presented here underscore the

utility of using immunoPET to study the dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 infection to understand its

pathogenicity and discover new anatomical sites of viral replication. We provide direct evidence

for SARS-CoV-2 infection of the MGT in rhesus macaques revealing the possible pathologic

outcomes of viral replication at these sites.

PET/CT detected SARS-CoV-2 infection of 4 different tissues in the male genital tract illuminates the cause of COVID-19 clinical sequalae of male sexual health and fertility

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has exposed the broad systemic impact that can be caused by

infection with a respiratory virus. Disease associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection starts with

respiratory pathologies and subsequently can extend to other organ systems. There is now

ample evidence that SARS-CoV-2 can disseminate and replicate in tissues beyond the

respiratory tract. A clear example is infection in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract[1]. GI symptoms,

including diarrhea, have been reported by individuals with mild COVID-19, and hospitalized

patients have exhibited more severe symptoms such as ischemia and GI bleeds [2, 3,4]. In addition,

it is now well established that virus is shed through the GI tract in most infected individuals and

wastewater screening has become an important tool for disease surveillance[5, 6]. Although less

studied, many other tissues have been found to harbor SARS-CoV-2. Multiple groups have

shown the presence of viral RNA in cardiac, renal, and brain tissues[7-10]. There is also some

evidence of virus in the male genital tract (MGT) [11, 12]. Furthermore, symptoms associated with

all these organ systems have been regularly reported[13]. Likewise, other RNA viruses have

documented early dissemination to distal tissues that manifest infection-related pathology over

the long term, including (but not limited to) polio, mumps, Ebola, Zika, and SARS-CoV-1[14, 15]. For

example, studies of autopsy tissue from victims of SARS-CoV-1 suggested that it causes

inflammation of the testes (orchitis)[15]. However, it is not yet clear if the diverse pathologies

associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection are due to secondary effects of systemic inflammation or

direct infection of tissues at these distal sites. Human studies have relied on biopsies and

autopsy samples to investigate viral replication in sites other than the respiratory tract. The

biopsy/autopsy samples only offer a snapshot of the *in vivo* dynamics of disease, and there are

ethical and technical difficulties in obtaining them. Using animal models of infection allows for

a more thorough collection and investigation of affected tissues. To gain critical insights into

systemic infection by SARS-CoV-2, new animal models are needed to determine the extent of

disseminated infection and its relationship to pathogenesis.

SARS-CoV-2 infection in the non-human primate (NHP), rhesus macaques (*Macaca*

mulatta), recapitulates mild to moderate human disease[16-18]. Infected macaques exhibit viral

shedding through the respiratory tract and viral pneumonia similar to the mild form seen in

humans. The architecture of the respiratory tract is also generally conserved between humans

and macaques making them an ideal model for studying SARS-CoV-2 infection. Infection of

other organ systems has also been observed in macaques, most commonly in the GI tract[19, 20].

To gain insights into the spatiotemporal dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 during infection in the rhesus

macaque model, we adapted an immunoPET methodology that we are currently using to study

various aspects of simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) acquisition and pathogenesis[21].

ImmunoPET is a molecular imaging technique that combines the specificity of an antibody-

based probe labeled with a radioisotope with the *in vivo* imaging power of combined positron

emission tomography-computed tomography (PET/CT). ImmunoPET was developed, and has

been used widely, in cancer research. Recently, with the advent of new antibodies and better

radioisotopes, immunoPET has been extended to studying many other biological processes[22, 23].

One of these areas is the study of the *in vivo* dynamics of pathogens such as bacteria, fungi, and

parasites. ImmunoPET allows for repeated and specific imaging of virally infected cells *in vivo* by

using a radioisotope labeled antibody targeting a viral protein. The non-invasive nature of

PET/CT imaging allows for unbiased discovery of novel tissue sites of infection through whole

body imaging. Furthermore, the cell-associated PET signal persists in tissue after necropsy and

as the tissue is dissected. It can be used to determine the precise location of infected cells in

radioactive probe-guided necropsy. We have previously reported the early development of an

in vivo antibody-based probe against SARS-CoV-2 utilizing fluorescent tagging of the F(ab')2 of

the anti-spike IgG CR3022[24]. CR3022 was one of the first monoclonal antibodies identified that

bound tightly to SARS-CoV-2. It was originally derived from an individual infected with SARS-

CoV-1 but also exhibits tight binding to the spike protein of SARS-CoV-2. Here we extend the

use of the F(ab')2 of the anti-spike IgG CR3022 labelled with Copper 64 (Cu^{64} for immunoPET

and targeted necropsy to study systemic SARS-CoV-2 infection in the rhesus macaque model.

As we previously reported (Madden et al), studies in SARS-CoV-2 infected rhesus

macaques were consistent with the intravenously (IV) injected probe being able to associate

with and accumulate in SARS-CoV-2 infected cells, as also seen in tissue culture[24]. Based on the

ability of the fluorophore labeled CR3022-F(ab')2 to reveal sites of SARS-CoV-2 infection within

macaque tissues, we extended these studies to utilize a [^{64}Cu]$^{-}$DOTA- labelled CR3022-F(ab')2

probe followed by detection in PET/CT scan. Here we report the results from a series of pilot

studies to evaluate the potential of this SARS-CoV-2 immunoPET approach to study COVID-19

dynamics in total body in rhesus macaques. Our results show the utility of this approach in

investigating SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis in the respiratory tract and in uncovering novel

anatomical sites of infection. Interestingly, we detected a robust and dynamic signal in the MGT

including the prostate, penis, and testicles. This observation is consistent with emerging and

ongoing clinical observations of orchitis, oligo-/azoospermia, and erectile dysfunction and

reveals these comorbidities are likely a consequence of the direct viral infection of the tissues

of the MGT. The successful development of an immunoPET probe to study SARS-CoV-2 in the

rhesus macaque challenge model will allow longitudinal studies to gain insights into SARS-CoV-2

progression, dissemination, and the development of comorbidities.

Results

Description of macaque studies and PET/CT-guided necropsy

The basic process and workflow of the PET/CT guided necropsy method is shown in Fig 1A. The

PET/CT guided necropsy approach consists of three separate PET/CT scans that are used to map

probe signal at the whole animal, organ, and tissue levels. The first scan is done ~16-24 hours

after the injection of the radio labelled F(ab')2 probe allowing for movement into the tissues[21].

This whole-body PET/CT scan (Scan 1) identifies "hot" organs and tissue areas. These tissue

areas are then collected at necropsy immediately following the scan and subjected to a second

PET/CT scan (Scan 2). Tissues containing probe signal are then cut into small blocks, placed in

cryomolds, and then rescanned (Scan 3) to identify individual "hot" tissues/blocks that likely

contain foci of virally infected cells. These "hot" tissues can then be used for downstream

characterization including RNA quantification and different types of microscopic analyses

characterizing virally infected cells.

The SARS-CoV-2 pilot infection study design with 3 male rhesus macaques is shown in

Fig 1B. Based on our previous studies utilizing a fluorescently tagged F(ab')2 probe, we decided

to perform the first PET/CT scan 1 week after challenge. In the first study, we infected a male

rhesus macaque (LP14) with the WA1 isolate of SARS-CoV-2 and performed a single PET/CT

scan followed immediately by necropsy. In the second study, two male rhesus macaques were

infected with the Delta variant of SARS-CoV-2, and both underwent a PET/CT scan 1 week after

infection. One of the animals (IN22) was scanned twice after a single probe injection and

necropsied after the 2nd scan. The early scan of IN22 was done 3 hours after injection of the

^{64}Cu-labelled F(ab')2 probe and a second whole-body scan was done ~21 hours after probe

injection with the PET/CT guided necropsy done immediately after. For the third animal (JF82),

the 1st PET/CT scan at week 1 post infection was done ~22 hours after IV probe administration

and was subsequently returned to its housing. On day 13, this same animal, JF82, was evaluated

at week 2 post-infection by whole-body scan 18 hours after probe administration, with

necropsy and subsequent scans moving efficiently with the now optimized workflows. These

initial studies revealed that the probe can identify sites of disseminated SARS-CoV-2 infection in

tissues beyond the respiratory tract.

SARS-CoV-2 infection characteristics

SARS-CoV-2 infection of the 3 animals was monitored via classical H&E evaluation of lesions in

lung tissue as shown in Fig 1C-E and via quantification of genomic and subgenomic RNA in nasal

swabs and saliva (Fig 1F, G). Pathology varied from minimal in LP14 (Fig 1C), to mild in JF82 (Fig

1E), and IN22 (Fig 1D). These findings are consistent with the pulmonary pathology of SARS-

CoV-2 infected rhesus macaques observed in other studies performed at the Tulane National

Primary Research Center[17, 25]. The pulmonary pathology consisted of variable interstitial

inflammation and type II pneumocyte hyperplasia (IN22 and JF82), which in the most severely

affected animal (IN22) also exhibited prominent atypia. Fig 1F and G shows the level of genomic

(Fig 1F) and subgenomic (Fig 1G) RNA in nasal swabs and saliva for all 3 animals. No significant

differences were noted in viral loads between the 3 animals.

Distribution of SARS-CoV-2 signal after 1 week of infection with the WA1 isolate

The three PET/CT scans of LP14, include the whole body (Fig 2A and B, S1-video), the organ scan

(Fig 2C, D, and E, S2-video) and the tissue scan (Fig 2F); these are shown at the top of Fig 2. Two

results immediately stood out relative to anticipated results. A minimal signal was associated

with the lungs, while a very strong signal was associated with the penis and testes of this

infected animal. To better evaluate the probe signal in the lungs, the 3D reconstruction of the

lungs was isolated from the PET datasets and the lung signal was projected over the CT

reconstruction of the skeleton as shown in Fig 2G and H (S3-video). The signal associated with

the lungs was diffuse and quite uniform throughout the tissue as observed in the whole animal

scan. This is more evident in the projection of the lung signal without CT as shown in Fig 2I and J

(S3-video). However, the lung signal was more evident in the post necropsy organ scan when

the intact respiratory tract including the tongue were scanned again (Fig 2C). In this case, the

lungs were no longer inflated within the body increasing signal density and leading to higher

overall signal in the 2nd scan. Two different respiratory tract z-series images, shown in Fig 2K

and L, reveal a focus of signal associated with the base of the tongue, overlapping with the

pharynx as evidenced by the cartilaginous structures seen in the CT. There were abundant small

foci of signal distributed throughout the lung tissue, often adjacent to the trachea and bronchi

as they branch out into the lungs. In addition, the z-series' reveal that the observed PET signal is

associated with the tissues and not with the open airways of the bronchus and ever narrowing

bronchi. Immunofluorescence microscopy revealed areas of infected cells lining alveoli in lung

tissue sections that had PET/CT signal (Fig 2M and N) confirming the specificity of the PET

signal.

In contrast to the weak, diffuse signal associated with the lungs, there was a strong and

more focal PET signal within the MGT as shown in the front (Fig 3A) and side (Fig 3B-C) views

(S4-video). The testes have a generally diffuse signal with some concentration of signal at the

dorsal and ventral surface of both LP14 testes. The MGT of the rhesus macaque is similar and

distinct to that of humans in several ways. Unique aspects of the penis are that it is primarily

retracted within the body within a prepuce and there is a small bone located within the glans

penis known as the baculum which is visible in the CT scan of the animals (Fig 3B and C, red

arrow). There was a very pronounced PET signal associated with the root of the penile tissues,

which is buried within the abdomen. The 3D PET signal was projected in green in a front (Fig

3D) and side view (Fig 3E) to better illustrate the signal associated with the MGT and to

visualize the signal from the root of the penis (see S5-video). The localization of the PET signal

for the penis and testes in the context of the skeletal CT signal is shown in three different

projections in panels 3F, 3H, and 3J, and isolated in panels 3G, 3I, and 3K (S6-video).   The testis

overlays shown in Fig 3L-O reveal that the PET signal is primarily associated with the testis and

is distributed throughout the testicular tissue. There is also some potential signal associated

with the epididymis. This primary signal localization is also supported by the tissue scan (Fig 2F:

row 6 column 3, Fig S2) where the major PET signal is not associated with the epididymis

fragment in the piece of tissue.

In anticipation of a potential signal in the testes, which are known to express the SARS-

CoV-2 receptor ACE2, we had designated the testes to be a component of the organ scan post

necropsy. Unfortunately, much of the penis tissue was discarded at the necropsy of LP14

except for a small piece of penile tissue remaining within the abdomen. This small piece of

penile tissue retained PET signal as can be seen in Fig 2 (Fig 2F: row 8 column 5, Fig S2).

To extend our analysis of the testicular tissues of LP14, we evaluated tissue sections for

expression of SARS-CoV-2 proteins and host proteins using immunofluorescence microscopy to

potentially identify infected cells within the testicular tissue. As shown in Fig 4A, in LP14, ACE2

is expressed in the peritubular myoid and Sertoli cells surrounding/lining the base of the

seminiferous tubules. Next, we stained testicular tissue sections from LP14 with an anti-SARS-

CoV-2 guinea pig serum. Infected cells were evident in seminiferous tubules but were not

widely distributed and were instead localized in small clusters of cells at the base of the

seminiferous tubules (Fig 4B). Infection of Leydig and other interstitial cells could not be

evaluated due to loss of these cells during tissue processing. To further investigate the

phenotype of infected cells we stained with markers to help identify peritubular myoid cells

(smooth muscle actin) and Sertoli cells (vimentin). SARS-CoV-2 anti-serum colocalized with

vimentin staining at the base of the tubules, indicating that Sertoli cells are being infected (Fig

4C). However, SARS-CoV-2 staining was sometimes observed in cells negative for vimentin

indicating that cellular targets exist in addition to Sertoli cells (presumably germ cells) (Fig 4C,

arrow heads).

Distribution of SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant signal after 1 week of infection

Because of the mild disease manifestations of SARS-CoV-2 WA1 seen in many rhesus macaque studies, the next set of animals were infected with the Delta variant which had become the dominant circulating variant at the time of this study[26]. For IN22, at 1-week post infection, we performed 2 PET/CT scans at 3- and 21-hours post probe injection to gain insights into the dynamics of the probe distribution over time. This is an important aspect of probe function because as the probe distributes from circulation into the tissue it will encounter virally infected cells which will affect its distribution pattern. The three PET/CT scans of IN22, the whole body (Fig 5A-D and S7-video, S8-video), the organ scan (Fig 5E-H and S9-video) and the tissue scan (Fig 5I) are shown in Fig 5. The front and side views of the 3-hour scan (Fig 5A, B and S7-video) and 21-hour scan (Fig 5C, D and S8-video) reveal a highly dynamic system of probe distribution demonstrating that the timing of the PET/CT scan after probe injection is an important consideration. The 3-hour scan clearly captures a robust probe signal in the vasculature and chambers of the heart, consistent with a large fraction of the probe still circulating in the blood after IV injection. A strong lung signal is apparent in the 3-hour scan in contrast to the previous animal. In the 21-hour scan, the lung probe signal remained much greater than observed in LP14 and was further distributed throughout the tissue. A very strong signal was observed associated with the prostate in the 3-hour scan. The prostate signal decreased substantially but was still strong in the 21-hour scan. Probe signal in the MGT was also apparent at the 3-hour timepoint and was further amplified at 21-hours. For the most part, an increase in signal was seen at tissue sites of probe labeling in the 21-hour scan. In contrast, the vasculature signal decreased substantially, consistent with the movement of the

probe from blood, into tissues. However, some discrete probe labeling of certain vascular sites

remained, possibly indicating infection of the vasculature.

To better evaluate the probe signal in the lungs after Delta infection, the 3D

reconstruction of the IN22 lungs was isolated from the PET datasets and the lung signal was

projected over the CT reconstruction of the skeleton as shown in Fig 6A-D (S10-video). Both the

3-hour and 21-hour signals are significant and localized. The lung rotation series shown in Fig

6E, and F reveal a major signal associated with the caudodorsal portion of the right lung and

less signal associated with the left lung. Single z images of the PET and CT signal in sagittal and

transverse sections is shown in Figs 6G-J to better facilitate the analysis of the relationship of CT

revealed lung pathology with the PET signal. This comparison reveals an overlap of the opaque

lung signal and greater PET signal in the right lung in contrast to the more CT transparent left

lung tissue (Fig 6G-J). The stronger PET signal in the right lung observed in the whole-body scan

is recapitulated in the organ scan as shown in Fig 6K-O. This animal had overt gross pathology

associated with the dorsal areas of the right lower lung lobe as highlighted in the magnified

inset shown if Fig 6L. Histopathology of this region revealed marked pulmonary interstitial

inflammation and type II pneumocyte hyperplasia (Fig 1D, and 6P-S). The projection of the PET

signal over the photo (6N) shows a strong PET signal in multiple lung lobes and located adjacent

to the focally extensive areas of consolidation (red and inflamed areas). A similar strong PET

signal is observed in several areas of the left lung, with a major PET signal associated with the

caudal aspect of the upper lobe of the left lung. An overlay of the unnormalized PET over a CT

projection that reveals lung structure and fluid in the lung (6O) further details the relationship

between the areas with evidence of pneumonia and the PET signal. The PET signals tend to be

adjacent to opaque regions potentially caused by fluids and the regions of consolidation visible

in the photo. Next, we evaluated paraffin blocks of the right lower lobe by H&E (Fig 6P and R)

and immunofluorescent staining for SARS-CoV-2 (Fig 6Q and S). In regions of pneumonia (Fig

6P), the interstitium and alveolar spaces are expanded by inflammatory infiltrate. In these same

regions, SARS-CoV-2 infected cells are scattered throughout (Fig 6Q). Higher magnification

imaging of the H&E stain (Fig 6R) reveals the inflammatory infiltrate is composed predominately

of macrophages with fewer neutrophils (arrowheads). Alveolar septa are frequently lined by

type II pneumocytes (arrows). SARS-CoV-2 staining (Fig 6S) reveals infected cells within alveoli

(arrows) and lining alveolar septa (arrowheads). 2-color immunofluorescence staining for spike

and nucleocapsid can identify SARS-CoV-2 infected cells in the right lung (Fig 6T). Spectral

imaging confirmed that the fluorescence signal associated with the double positive cells is

consistent with the specific fluorophores utilized for antigen visualization. Additional

fluorescent staining shows focal nature of infected cells in a large piece of lung tissue (Fig 6U-

W). The 2-color imaging is a powerful method to validate the identification of SARS-CoV-2

infected cells. Spectral imaging of left lung tissue stained for NC and dsRNA is shown in panels

6X-Z. The spectrum shown in Fig 6Z confirms that the cells identified in panel 10Y are

specifically double stained with the antibodies to dsRNA and SARS-C0V-2 NC protein.

A comparison of the 3-hour and 21-hour PET/CT signal in the IN22 MGT is shown in Fig

7A-D. The isolated PET signal of the MGT of both scans is shown in Fig 7E-H. A signal is apparent

in the base of the testes that becomes more diffuse at the 21-hour timepoint. There is also a

signal apparent just above both testes in the 3-hour scan that increases at 21-hours and is most

prominent above the right teste (Fig 7A-H, indicated by white asterisk). Examination of both

scans indicates that the probe signal was initially associated with the vasculature, but it

persisted and accumulated adjacent to the top of testes in the 21-hour scan. This PET signal is

associated with the vasculature of the spermatic cord as is visible in the CT projections and the

PET overlays in the 21-hour scan (Fig 7I-L) and after the necropsy (Fig 7M-P). The post necropsy

signal matches the *in vivo* scan with the left testicle having a persistent signal throughout the

spermatic cord and a more localized signal on the top of the right testis. To confirm infection in

these tissues, the tissue block with the greatest PET signal (L Test 1, Fig 5I) was sectioned for

genomic and microscopic analysis. Bulk RNA was isolated from 2 tissue sections and qPCR

analysis of the SARS-CoV-2 N gene revealed the presence of viral RNA (2.03 Copies N1/µl, Table

S1). Immunofluorescence analysis of the PCR positive tissue derived from the same block

revealed the presence of sparse cells double positive for spike and nucleocapsid primarily found

in the interstitial space as shown in Fig 7Q and 7R. Staining of penile tissue from an uninfected

macaque is shown in Fig 7S and reveals robust ACE2 expression in the venous spaces of the

corpus cavernosum. Multiple SARS-CoV-2 infected cells in the penis were revealed by double

staining for nucleocapsid and dsRNA (J2) as shown in Fig 7T-W.

Longitudinal analysis of SARS-CoV-2 Delta variant distribution 1- and 2-weeks post-infection

For the final pilot study, we performed two longitudinal PET/CT scans, at 1- and 2-weeks post

challenge with the Delta variant, on a single animal (JF82). The goal of this study was to

determine if the ^{64}Cu-F(ab')2 probe could provide novel insights into the spatiotemporal

dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 infection with sequential PET/CT scans. A front and side view of the

sequential PET/CT scans at 1-week (Fig 8A-B) and 2-weeks (Fig 8C-D) reveals dynamic changes

in various organ systems. For example, there was a decrease in the signal of the lungs between

week one and two while MGT signal increases. These changes are illustrated in the front (Fig

8E) and side (Fig 8F) view overlay of the 1-week (shown in red) and 2-week (shown in blue)

timepoints. Areas with blue signal indicate increased signal in week 2 relative to week 1 and

areas with red signal indicate where the week 1 scan had greater signal. Areas with white signal

indicate where there is high PET signal overlapping in both scans. The post necropsy organ scan

(8G-J and S7-video) and the tissue scan (8K) are shown in Fig 8. Probe signal associated with

the lungs and MGT is visible in both the organ scan and the tissue scan.

To better compare the probe signal in the lungs of JF82 at the 1-week (Fig 9A-B) and 2-

week (Fig 9C-D) timepoints, the 3D reconstruction of the JF82 lungs was isolated from the PET

datasets and projected over the CT reconstruction of the skeleton (Fig 9A-D). Both the 1- and

2-week lung signals are significant and localized with a level of signal comparable to the

previous animal (IN22) infected with the Delta variant. An evaluation of the data set revealed a

PET signal overlying a region of opacity in the lower lobe of the left lung as designated with the

asterisks in several of the panels (Fig 9A-B, 9G-L). The lung rotation series shown for week 1 in

Fig 8E and week 2 in Fig 8F reveal a major signal associated with the dorsal side of the left lung

at both timepoints and less signal associated with the right lung in the week 1 scan. Evaluation

of signal from coronal sections of the week 1 PET/CT overlay (Fig 9G) and CT alone (Fig 9I)

reveals an overlap of the probe signal with an opaque region consistent with focal pneumonia.

It is notable that both the PET and CT signal associated with this spot in the left lung are gone in

the week 2 scan (Fig 9H and J). This is consistent with reports that the lung pathology observed

in the rhesus macaque model is most apparent after 1 week of infection and can wane by week

2[25]. The change between week 1 and week 2 is illustrated in Fig 9K and L where the week 1

scan is shown in red, and the week 2 scan is shown in blue and overlaid with the week 1 CT

signal. This change in the lung signal suggests that the ^{64}Cu-CR3022-F(ab')2-probe could be an

important tool to gain insights into the dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 infection and dissemination in

the rhesus macaque model. Microscopic analysis revealed pulmonary infiltrates were still

present in the alveolar space at necropsy (Fig 1E). However, no infected cells were detected

with immunofluorescence using an anti-SARS-CoV-2 antibody in FFPE tissue. These findings are

suggestive of a resolving infection which is supported by the histopathology (Fig 1E) and viral

RNA levels (Fig 1F and G).

We next evaluated the signal associated with the MGT of JF82 as illustrated in Fig 10A-E

which presents the front and near side view (~45˚) of the abdominal area of the week 1 (Fig 10A

and D), week 2 (10B and E), and overlay (10C and F). The overlay (Fig 10C and F) reveals the

dynamics of the probe signal in the MGT of JF82 in the first 2 weeks of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

The white signal in the overlay reveals that the probe signal is maintained in the prostate, the

vasculature at the base of the spermatic cord, and the base of the testes. To gain additional

insights into the MGT associated signal at the 2 time points, we isolated the MGT volumes and

3D projected the signal as shown in Fig 10G-J. In the week 1 scan (Fig 10G-H) a signal associated

with the root of the penis is also apparent in addition to the signal associated with the

vasculature at the base of the spermatic cord and the base of the testes. In the week 2 scan,

the signal becomes more diffuse, spreading throughout the penis and testes, and extending

into the spermatic cord, especially into the right spermatic cord. To better visualize the signals

associated with the different tissues, we isolated the volumes containing the penile signal for

the week 2 scan as shown in the projections presented in Fig 10K-M. The signal distribution

throughout the penis at week 2 is readily apparent and distinct from the signal associated with

the spermatic cord. It is notable that the probe signal associated with the MGT becomes better

distributed and more pronounced in the week 2 scan, consistent with a spreading infection in

the MGT between week 1 and week 2. In contrast, a focus of infection in the right lung (Fig 9)

of the same animal is observed in the week 1 scan and resolved in the week 2 scan.

Histopathology of testicular tissue from JF82 revealed multifocal regions of degenerate

seminiferous tubules characterized by a complete loss of germ cells and spermatids (Fig 10N).

These regions also have evidence of edema as revealed by increased spaces between individual

seminiferous tubules. Degenerate seminiferous tubules occasionally contained macrophages

with phagocytosed spermatids, and the adjacent interstitium was infiltrated by low numbers of

lymphocytes and plasma cells. To further characterize the degenerative changes noted on H&E,

immunofluorescence for CD206, a mannose receptor present on monocytes, macrophages[27],

and mature spermatids[28-30] and caspase 3, a cellular marker of apoptosis, was performed.

Degenerate seminiferous tubules were readily identified by the marked decrease in CD206

expression (due to loss of mature spermatids) and increased expression of caspase 3 compared

to adjacent, nondegenerate, tubules (Fig 10O, Q, R, and S). Evidence of intra-tubule

macrophages was readily apparent (Fig. 10R, S). SARS-CoV-2 infected cells can be identified in

the JF82 testes with triple staining for NSP8, nucleocapsid, and SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera shown in

Fig 10T and U.

Comparison of PET signal between animals

A comparison of the PET/CT scans of 3 SARS-CoV-2 infected rhesus macaques is revealing in

terms of the dynamics of infection and the utility of this technique to study COVID-19. In Fig

11A-D we present a comparative rotation series of the PET signal withing the lung volumes of

all scans. Although there are differences in the lung signal of each scan, the Delta variant

utilized for infection of IN22 (Fig 11B) and JF82 (Fig 11C-D) is associated with increased

pathology[26] (Fig 1C-E, Fig 5, and Fig 8) and increased PET signal (Fig 11B-D) without a clear

difference in viral load in nasal swab or saliva at 1 week after challenge (Fig 1F and G) compared

to LP14. This is consistent to similar viral loads between WA1 and the Delta variant in a recent

report[26].

The probe signal associated with the MGT was not anticipated, but apparent in all 3

animals. This reveals that infection of MGT is consistently seen in the rhesus macaque model of

SARS-CoV2 IN/IT challenge. A comparison of the isolated MGT PET signal from the four whole-

body PET scans of 3 SARS-CoV-2 infected rhesus macaques (Fig 11E-H) presented as a rotation

series further reveals the dynamics of SARS-CoV-2 after infection. The difference in MGT signal

between the animal infected with WA1 (LP14) and the animals infected with the Delta variant

(IN22 and JF82) at week 1 is much less pronounced than that seen in the lungs. In all 3 week 1

MGT scans the signal is asymmetrically distributed with diffuse signal throughout the testicles,

an increased signal at the base and top of the testes, and a signal associated with the root of

the penis (Fig 11E-G). The MGT PET signal is visibly increased in the week 2 scan relative to the

week one scan (Fig 11G, H) for JF82 indicating further spread of infection into the MGT at that

time. Another obvious difference between the week 1 whole-body PET scans is a variable signal

associated with the heart and liver as shown in Fig 11I-K. LP14 had a diffuse PET signal

throughout the liver (Fig 11I). In contrast, the IN22 PET signal (Fig 11J) was primarily localized

with the right side of the liver and in JF82 the PET signal (Fig 11K) was localized to the base of

the liver. Additionally, the extent of labeling of the heart is variable with JF82 and IN22 having a

greater signal than LP14 (Fig 11L).

To take advantage of the quantitative aspects of PET detection, we isolated the total

standard uptake value (SUV) of the PET signal associated with the CT defined volumes as

plotted in Fig 11L. The 3 animals scanned 1 week (W1) post SARS-CoV-2 challenge are

presented together for the whole-body (WB) scan signal and all evaluated tissues. The single

week 2 (W2) PET signal of JF82 is presented for comparison. The WB values for all scans are

clustered revealing the reproducible nature of evaluation of the PET signal. An increase in the

total SUV between week 1 and week 2 for the MGT and testes volumes is consistent with the

increase of signal suggested by visual inspection of the isolated tissues presented in Fig 10 and

Fig 11G and H.

Another relevant tissue with PET signal observed in all 3 animals is the prostate. Probe

labeling of the prostate first became apparent in the early PET scan (3 hour after injection) of

IN22 where it was among the strongest, non-kidney associated signals (Fig 5A and B).

Therefore, we reevaluated the PET/CT data sets for the 3 animals. As is illustrated in Fig 12A-F,

we were able to detect a signal associated with the prostate in all animals (marked by white

asterisks). An inset showing a sagittal slice of the PET/CT shows the localization of the prostate

within the small white circle for each animal. In Fig 12G-L we show the PET signal isolated

within the penile volume of the whole-body scan for IN22 1-week post infection (Fig 12G-I) and

2-weeks post infection for JF82 (Fig 12J-L). LP14 is excluded from this analysis because the

penile tissue was not collected. The same general distribution of PET signal is seen in the organ

scan of IN22 (Fig 12M) and JF82 (Fig 12N). The localization of the PET signal is further defined in

the tissue scan of the cryomolds shown with (Fig 12O and Q) and without (Fig 12P and R) PET

signal for each animal. There is PET signal associated with the penile tissue with a stronger

signal associated with the penile root of IN22 and the glans of JF82. This PET/CT guided

necropsy of the MGT reveals a persistent signal associated with the penile tissue of these 2

animals. All 3 animals had an apparent PET signal associated with the testes at the 1-week

timepoint and that signal increased in the testes in the week 2 scan as shown in the single

coronal PET/CT section shown in Fig 12Q-T and quantified in Fig 11L. The histopathologic

analyses of the testes from all three animals are shown in Fig 12S-U. Testicular degeneration

was noted in seminiferous tubules of JF82 (Fig 10N). Panels demonstrate normal

spermatogenesis or lack thereof in JF82 (Fig 10N, O, R, S).

In addition, all animals had a PET signal located at the top of each testicle, where the

spermatic cord connects with the testicle. A dissection of the rhesus macaque testicular

anatomy is shown in Fig 13A-C. The spermatic cord contains the vasculature supplying blood to

the testicles, the vas deferens which transports mature sperm produced in the testes, and the

cremaster muscle (Fig 13A). The position in natural context of the macaque penis, testes, and

spermatic cord are shown in Fig 13B. A magnified view of the vasculature of the pampiniform

plexus is shown in Fig 13C. As shown in the IN22 MGT PET/CT series (Fig 13D-G), there is a

major signal associated with the top of the testicles, especially the right testicle. A further

examination of this signal within the PET/CT data set shows it is located just above the testicle

in the yellow volume shown in Fig 13D-G. This yellow volume is overlapping with a vasculature

structure consistent with the pampiniform plexus visualized by CT (Fig 10G and B). The signal

associated with the pampiniform plexus and spermatic cord is seen in the 1-week scan of all

animals in front (Fig 13H, J, and L) and rotate 45° view (Fig 13I, K, and M) outside of the ovals

indicating the tetes. The signal associated with the pampiniform plexus and spermatic cord for

LP14 can be seen outside of the white ovals in Fig 13L-Q.

Principal component analysis of PET SUV signals

The PET signal includes several parameters in each anatomical areas, which provide different

insights into the distribution of the probe within the tissue. For example, the total SUV shown in

Fig. 11L, provides insights into the overall signal in each tissue/animal. However, the total SUV

does not account for variability in tissue size and shape. The mean SUV provides insights into

the relative intensity of PET signal in each tissue as shown in Fig. 14A. This comparison of mean

SUV reveals the relative intensity of the prostate signal amongst the highest signals detected in

all tissues. In contrast, the total SUV/whole body Total SUV for the different tissues illustrates

the percentages of the total whole-body signal in each tissue without consideration of the size

of each tissue relative to the other. All 7 PET parameters for each tissue are shown in the

Heatmap (Fig. 14C) which reveals that different tissues have unique signal characteristics. From

this analysis it is evident that the prostate signal of IN22 and JF82 have the highest mean SUV

and standard deviation with relatively a high median SUV being also seen in the prostate of the

3rd animal LP14. For example, the prostate signal of IN22 and JF82 has the highest mean SUV

and standard deviation with relatively a high median SUV being also seen in the prostate of the

3rd animal LP14, indicating a more clustered signal compared to the tissues with the highest

total SUV. To facilitate the use of our PET data to gain insights into our data set we utilized

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) followed by hierarchical clustering to examine the data

from all scans of the 3 animals. To cluster tissues according to their SUV signal characteristics,

we applied PCA including all variables obtained from the SUV measurements (i.e Total SUV,

Total SUV Whole Body ratio, Mean SUV, Median SUV, Standard Deviation SUV, Max SUV, and

Kurtosis) for each tissue and animal. After this analysis, we observed 4 different clusters that

correspond to tissues that display very distinct SUV signals. The clustering captures the prostate

signal described in the heat map where they are part of cluster 4 (dark blue group). Of note, the

major right lung signal of IN22 also clusters within this group (Fig 14D). The evident PET signal

observed in the lungs of the Delta variant animals IN22 and JF82 are part of the cluster 3 (green

group) (Fig 14D) revealing their similarity with its small foci of high signal and increased kurtosis

value (indicating data heavy tails or more outliers) consistent with the signal variability. The

higher kurtosis is also associated with penile and testes signal of all the animals in the red and

light blue clusters 1 and 2. This analysis allows us to begin to appreciate the nature of the PET

signal associated with the different tissues, different animals, different viruses, and identify

outliers.

Discussion:

The goal here was to develop a F(ab')2 based immunoPET probe to allow the visualization of

SARS-CoV-2 spike protein expression in the rhesus macaque infection model. This model is

clinically relevant as it was used to develop the highly successful vaccines now available against

SARS-CoV-2[31, 32]. The ability to detect anatomical sites of SARS-CoV-2 infection will facilitate

our understanding of COVID-19 disease severity and the mechanism of comorbidities in the

development of pathology. It could be especially useful in understanding long-COVID and its

underlying causes[33, 34]. This pilot study is a key step in the clinical development of this PET

probe to visualize SARS-CoV-2 replication and to facilitate treatments for COVID-19. The

distribution of the probe is complex, but it can reveal sites of SARS-CoV-2 infection in the rhesus

macaque model. The utility of the probe is best demonstrated by the temporal association of

the PET probe with CT detected lung pathology between weeks 1 and 2 in JF82. A PET signal

was clearly associated with an opaque region (pneumonia) in the left lung in the week 1 scan,

but both the PET signal and CT detected pneumonia are not present in the week 2 scan,

validating this technique. The overlays, shown in Fig 9, further illustrate this transient lung

pathology detected by comparing the two PET/CT scans separated by one week. Supporting

this interpretation of the PET/CT data, the pathology report shows that the left lung of JF82 has

type II pneumocyte hyperplasia and inflammatory infiltrate consistent with the normal course

of infection observed in the rhesus macaque model. Overall, the lung pathology associated

with SARS-CoV-2 in our three animals was consistent with the observation of many infected

rhesus macaques where the lung pathology was typically mild and peaked at 1 week after IN/IT

challenge. This dynamic was generally observed for lung associated signal in this limited pilot

study. There was some consolidation and inflammation observed in animal IN22 and this

coincided with an adjacent PET signal in both animals infected with the Delta variant.

Further validation of the PET/CT probe's ability to identify areas of infection at sites

other than the lungs and its utility in understanding COVID-19 pathogenesis was the revelation

of a highly reproducible infection of the MGT. This susceptibility of the MGT to infection with

SARS-CoV-2 may be an important consideration in the observation of higher mortality

associated with COVID-19 in men compared to women. In all three animals, the probe was

associated with the prostate, penis, pampiniform plexus, and testicles. We have been able to

identify SARS-CoV-2 infected cells in the testicles of all 3 animals. Comparing the longitudinal

PET scans of JF82 reveals that while the lung pathology and signal wane between week 1 and 2,

the signal of the MGT, and more specifically in the testicles increases in week 2. Consistent

with increased testicular infection at week 2 indicated in the PET scan, H&E staining of the JF82

testes revealed a unique pathology consisting of denuded stretches of the twisted and

intertwined seminiferous tubules (presenting as a tube cluster). Spermatids were absent in

these degenerate regions and the remaining Sertoli cells were undergoing apoptosis, seen

through caspase 3 staining (Fig. 10S). Local inflammation, or orchitis, was suggested by immune

infiltrates (Fig. 10R). Both the PET signal and pathology is greater in the left testicle of JF82.

Staining macrophages and mature spermatids for CD206 and all cells for caspase 3 activation

reveals a severe, acute response within short stretches of the seminiferous tubules where the

Sertoli cells are undergoing apoptosis due to inflammasome activation (caspase 3 activation),

and no spermatids are present consistent with an ongoing acute infection (Fig. 10N-S). We

have detected infected cells within the JF82 testes ((Fig. 10T, U) and the relationship between

the infected cells and testicular pathology is ongoing. Similar decreases in the cellular content

of the seminiferous tubules and sloughing of Sertoli cells and spermatids into the lumen have

been reported in multiple studies of autopsy tissues from COVID-19 related fatalities[35-40].

Our results suggest that SARS-CoV-2 rapidly and efficiently infects multiple tissues of the

male genital tract (MGT) early during infection in rhesus macaques. The complex vasculature

and known ACE2 expression of the tissues of the MGT make it a potential target of the virus[11,

41-43]. The SARS-CoV-2 infection of the testicles has been reported in mouse and hamster

respiratory challenge models[44-46]. Likewise, the testicles are also a target of Ebola and Zika virus

during systemic infection[47]. We observed a similar distribution of PET-probe signal in all 3

animals in the week 1 scan with labeling of the prostate, root of the penis, the top the testicles

and a second region of labeling at the base of the testicles (Fig. 11E-H). The signal above the

testicles localizes to the pampiniform plexus and vasculature of the spermatic cord while the

signal at the base of the testes is less clear but appears to be associated with the cauda

epididymis, which is the tail of the epididymis and serves as the storage site for mature sperm

and is highly vascularized. A further dissection of the testicles before the organ scan should

facilitate a detailed localization of the PET signal associated with the MGT in future studies.

There is also a signal associated with the testicles seen in all 3 animals along with infected cells

and associated pathology, especially in the one animal necropsied 2 weeks after challenge.

Although these studies were done with a rhesus macaque model, it is reasonable to

suggest that these observations may also apply to humans infected with SARS-CoV-2 because of

several clinical observations relating to male sexual health and fertility. It is highly relevant in

this extrapolation to consider that we have identified 4 distinct tissues where SARS-CoV-2

infection could impact male sexual health and fertility: SARS-CoV-2 infection of the prostate,

penis, pampiniform plexus, and testicles. The infection of the MGT and associated pathology

has been suggested by several publications and clinical studies. The prostate is known to be

ACE2 positive.[48] Interest in SARS-CoV-2 infection of the prostate has focused on two areas. First

is the potential impact on treatment of benign prostate hyperplasia[49] and prostate cancer [50]

with androgen deprivation therapy on the severity of COVID-19[51] and the potential impact of

SARS-CoV-2 infection on prostate cancer. It is notable that prostate cancers are known to

express high levels of transmembrane serine protease 2, TMPRSS2[52], which is known to activate

the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein to its optimal fusogenic potential[53]. Multiple studies have

explored this space and it does not appear that SARS-CoV-2 infection is associated with an

increase in prostate cancer[54]. In contrast, another study suggests that infection with SARS-CoV-

2 may be associated with an increase in prostate specific antigen (PSA) detection in plasma[55].

Future studies are needed to confirm whether the robust signal of the SARS-CoV-2 PET/CT

probe reflects a high-level infection of the human prostate and its subsequent impact on male

sexual health and fertility[56, 57]. SARS-CoV-2 infection of the penis is potentially associated with

the vasculature of the corpus cavernosum, which expresses high levels of ACE2 in the rhesus

macaque and human penile tissue (Fig, 7S) [43, 58]. Because the corpus cavernosum plays a key

role in erectile function, the inflammation caused by SARS-CoV-2 infection of the penile

vasculature is hypothesized to lead to erectile dysfunction (ED). This has indeed been reported

to be linked to COVID-19[43, 59, 60]. In addition, treatments for ED such as Viagra and Cialis are

known to affect the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone-system where ACE2 functions as a part of

the physiologic regulation of blood flow associated with normal erectile function[61].

A potential impact of COVID-19 infection on the pampiniform plexus might be suggested

by several case reports of COVID-19 associated thrombosis located in the pampiniform plexus[62-

65]. Additionally, the signal distribution of the left and right testes is distinct, with the signal of

the right testicle being more focused at the top of the testicle while the signal on the left

testicle being more distributed in the spermatic cord. This is reminiscent of the condition

known as varicocele, which manifests as varicose veins of the scrotum, and is prominent in the

left testicle relative to the right testicle[66]. This is due to the left testicle receiving its blood flow

from the left renal vein which exposes it to higher blood pressure and slower blood flow[67]. This

difference could be insightful if confirmed in more animals.

The potential infection of the testicles by SARS-CoV-2 could be highly impactful on male

fertility, potentially decreasing sperm count and semen quality[47, 68-70]. It is known that SARS-

CoV-2 infection in humans is associated with oligo- and azoospermia and a transient decrease

in fertility after infection[36, 38, 66, 68, 71, 72]. One study found that fertility amongst infected men

was reduced and returned to baseline 3-6 months after SARS-CoV-2 infection[73]. This decrease in

fertility was not seen in infected women or men who received a SARS-CoV-2 vaccination. We

find that the pathology associated with the testicles in the week 2 necropsy is extreme, with

apparent ablation of sperm production within short regions of the seminiferous tubules and

with accompanying immune infiltration consistent with an emerging COVID-19 associated

orchitis[64, 74]. Because of the four distinct mechanisms negatively impacting human male sexual

health and fertility, and the observation of all four mechanisms in all animals evaluated to date,

we feel compelled to report this information at this early stage of study and evaluation.

The results generated in this first study of an ^{64}Cu-labelled F(ab')2 probe reveal an

unexpected but reproducible infection of multiple tissues of the MGT. This observation

provides possible mechanistic insights into the mounting evidence that SARS-CoV-2 can impact

sexual health and fertility in infected men. Multiple studies have reported a decrease in

testosterone after SARS-CoV-2 infection[56, 75, 76]. Leydig cells, which produce testosterone, are

known targets of SARS-CoV-2[35, 37, 77]. The decrease in testosterone correlates with disease

severity[76, 78]. The direct infection of the testicles observed in the NHP studies presented here

are consistent with the MGT pathology reported in men[35-40]. The infection of the MGT may be

a common outcome in SARS-CoV-2 infection. We suggest further study in mild, and even in

asymptomatic infection, in men and macaques is clearly required.

Using a novel ^{64}Cu-labelled F(ab')2 probe targeting the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein, we

have found that it is possible to identify sites of SARS-CoV-2 infection in the rhesus macaque

infection model using a PET/CT scan. The rapid and consistent spread of SARS-CoV-2 infection

to the MGT in the first week of infection in the rhesus macaque suggests this could be an

important post pandemic health consideration as those infected during the pandemic develop

advanced disease and other manifestations of long COVID-19. Currently, there is no other

methods that allows for the unbiased discovery of novel anatomical sites of SARS-CoV-2

infection. We believe the immunoPET technique described here will be an important addition

to the toolkit for studying and understanding SARS-CoV-2 pathogenesis. The availability of an

immunoPET probe to SARS-CoV-2 in the clinical setting has the potential to reveal the

underlying role of disseminated viral infection in long COVID and could guide therapeutic

interventions to resolve SARS-CoV-2 related sequalae which could be a major health concern

for the lifetimes of those infected during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by a NOSI supplement (R37AI094595-10S1 PI: Hope) to parent grant

R37AI094595 (PI Hope). We would like to thank Nicholas Maness for supplying the delta

variant virus and, Maury Duplantis, Brooke F. Gasperge, Kasi E. Russell-Lodrigue, and the

Veterinary team at TNPRC. Thanks to Richard D'Aquila for critical reading and editing of the

manuscript.

Material and Methods

Preparation of F(ab)2

CR3022-IgG1 was acquired from Absolute Antibody (#Ab01680-10.0, Absolute Antibody). The

IgG1 was digested into F(ab)2 as previously described. Briefly, a Genovis FragIT antibody

digestion kit (#A2-FR2-100, Genovis) was used according to manufacturer's protocol. CR3022

was digested by adding to the FragIT column and rocking for 1 hr at room temperature. The

column was then centrifuged to elute fragments. Fc fragments were removed after incubation

with the CaptureSelect Fc Column. F(ab')2 fragments were eluted from this column and size

was confirmed using SDS-PAGE.

DOTA Labeling of Antibody

CR3022-F(ab)2 was labeled with the chelator dodecane tetraacetic acid (DOTA) for the

attachment of ^{64}Cu. Chelex 100 chelating resin (#142-1253, BioRad) was used to prepare two

buffers: 0.1M sodium phosphate (pH 7.3) and 0.1M ammonium acetate (pH 5.5). Five grams of

Chelex was added to 100ml of each buffer and stirred at room temperature for 1 hour. Buffers

were then filter sterilized using 0.22 uM filters. CR3022-F(ab')2 was buffer exchanged into the

prepared 0.1 M sodium phosphate using Zeba columns (ThermoFisher, USA). DOTA-NHS-ester

(#B-280, Macrocyclics) was dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) at a concentration of 10mM.

A 1:10 dilution of 1M sodium bicarbonate was made into a tube containing F(ab')2 in sodium

phosphate and 10mM DOTA was added at a molar ratio of 5:1. The tube was mixed and left to

rock at 37C for 1.5 hours. The labeled F(ab')2 was then buffer exchanged into fresh 0.1 M

sodium phosphate using a Zeba column.

^{64}Cu labeling

Before labeling DOTA conjugated F(ab')2 was buffer exchanged into freshly prepared 0.1M

ammonium acetate (pH 5.5) prepared with Chelex 100 using 10kDa cutoff Amicon centrifugal

microfilters (Cork, IRL). Cu^{64} chloride was obtained from Washington University, St. Louis MO

and shipped overnight to TNPRC. All work with Cu^{64} was performed inside a lead castle. The

radioactivity of the Cu^{64} was measured using an Atom Force 500 dose calibrator and recorded.

Next the Cu^{64} was added to a tube containing the DOTA labeled F(ab')2 in 0.1 M ammonium

acetate and incubated at 37°C for 1 hour while rotating. The labeled F(ab')2 probe was then

separated from unlabeled Cu^{64} and buffer exchanged into PBS via sequential centrifugation

steps using 10kDa cutoff Amicon centrifugal microfilters to a final volume of ~20μl. The

conjugated probe was then diluted to the final volume in PBS in sterile glass vials and drawn

into single dose syringes. Each dose typically labelled in the 1-3 mCi per dose.

Animals and virus

The virus used for experimental infection of LP14 was SARS-CoV-2; 2019-nCoV/USA-WA1/2020

(*https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore*; accession number MN985325.1) obtained from BEI

resources (BEI #NR-52281). Virus stock was prepared in Vero E6 cells and sequence confirmed

by deep sequencing. Plaque assays were performed in Vero E6 cells. Vero E6 cells were

acquired from ATCC (Manassas, VA). The virus used for experimental infection of IN22 and JF82

was SARS-CoV-2; hCoV-19/USA/MD-HP05647/2021 (Lineage B.1.617.2; Delta variant) obtained

from BEI resources (BEI #NR-55672). Delta variant stock was expanded using Calu-3 cells and

prepared as above using Vero E6 cells.

Three male rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatta) were used in this study. All animals were

housed at the Tulane National Primate Research Center (TNPRC, Covington, LA) which is

accredited by the Association for the Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care.

All procedures were reviewed and approved by the Tulane University Institutional Animal Use

Committee under protocol number P0452.One animal was inoculated with 1.1×10^6 tissue

culture infectious dose ($TCID_{50}$) of the WA1 strain of SARS-CoV-2 via concomitant

intratracheal/intranasal instillation (1mL intratracheal, 500µL per each nare). This animal was

necropsied 8 days post-infection. The remaining two animals were inoculated with 1.12×10^6

$TCID_{50}$ of the delta variant of SARS-CoV-2 via the same route. One animal was necropsied at day

7 and one at day 14 post-infection. All animals were intravenously infused with 0.5 mg/kg of

the radiolabeled F(ab')2 probe and JF82 was infused on two separate occasions. Macaque LP14

received 4 mCi, JF82 and IN22 received 1.3 and 1,4 mCi respectively on Dec 9, and JF82 received

an additional dose of 0.7 mCi on Dec 15. LP14 had nasal and salivary swabs taken at day 7. IN22

had swabs taken at days 3, 5, and 7 post-infection, while JF82 had swabs taken at days 3, 5, 7,

and 14.

PET/CT Imaging and Necropsy

PET/CT guided necropsies were performed in three sequential phases each separated by a

PET/CT followed by a period of analysis and sampling (1. whole-body, 2. organ, and 3. tissue).

First, whole-body scans were acquired prior to sending the animal to necropsy. Following

euthanasia, all major organ systems were removed (pluck, gastrointestinal tract, liver, spleen,

kidneys, urinary bladder, testicles, penis, prostate, seminal vesicles, nasal turbinate, lymph

nodes, carotid artery, cervical spinal cord, and brain) placed in a clear, plastic, sealable

container and sent back to PET/CT for an "organ scan". After the organ scans were

reconstructed, "hot" regions of each major organ (as seen on the organ scan) were sampled

and placed in cryomolds. The final "tissue" scan was acquired by placing the cryomolds in a

clear, plastic, sealable container and scanning them with the PET/CT. Following acquisition of

the tissue scan, cryomolds were filled with OCT and frozen on dry ice. All remaining tissue (not

placed in cryomolds) was placed in zinc-formalin fixative. All samples were stored for 5 days

before being removed from containment.

PET/CT Image Analysis

Acquired PET/CT whole-body images were analyzed using the MIM Software (MIM Software

Inc., Cleveland, OH). The PET and CT scans were reconstructed using the software and PETCT

fusions were created to analyze regions of interest through axial, sagittal, and coronal views.

The PET scans were presented in calculated Standardized Uptake Values, and all images were

set to the same scale (0-20 SUVbw). The PET scale was selected based on the overall signal

intensity of the PET scans, and the CT scale for optimal visibility of the tissues. Regions of

interest (ROI) were isolated using a combination of the Region Grow function and manual

contouring on a representative scan, then these regions were copied on subsequent scans of

the same animal using a specialized developed workflow. This workflow allows the software to

use the CT scans to map the selected ROI and locate that exact volume in subsequent scans.

Manual adjustments were then used to counter any changes in the animals' orientation

between scans. The areas within these regions were then extracted from the full scans, and the

anatomical regions were analyzed in both 2D cross-sections and 3D projections. 3D views are

maximum intensity projections of isolated ROI in the PET scans.

To cluster tissues according to their SUV signal characteristics, we used Principal Component

Analysis (PCA) where we included all variables obtained from the SUV measurements (i.e Total

SUV, Total SUV Whole Body ratio, Mean SUV, Median SUV, Standard Deviation SUV, Max SUV,

and Kurtosis) for each tissue and animal. The clustering of each tissue was subsequently

obtained by agglomerative hierarchical clustering on the PCA results. After building an initial

hierarchical tree, the sum of within-cluster inertia was calculated for each partition. The

selected partition was the one with the higher relative loss of inertia. Both PCA and

agglomerative hierarchical clustering were performed using FactoMineR package and

factoextra was used for visualization of the clustering results.

Isolation and Quantification of viral RNA

Viral load was quantified from pharyngeal and nasal swabs taken from infected animals at

TNPRC as previously described (1) Swab and bronchial brush samples were collected in 200 µL

of DNA/RNA Shield 1× (catalog number R1200; Zymo Research, Irvine, CA) and extracted for

viral RNA using the Quick-RNA viral kit (catalog number R1034/5; Zymo Research). The Viral

RNA Buffer was dispensed directly to the swab in the DNA/RNA Shield. A modification to the

manufacturers' protocol was made to insert the swab directly into the spin column to

centrifugate, allowing all the solution to cross the spin column membrane. The viral RNA was

then eluted (45 µL) from which 5 µL was added in a 0.1-mL fast 96-well optical microtiter plate

format (catalog number 4346906; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) for a 20-µL real-time

quantitative RT-PCR (RT-qPCR) reaction. The RT-qPCR reaction used TaqPath 1-Step Multiplex

Master Mix (catalog number A28527; Thermo Fisher Scientific) along with the 2019-nCoV RUO

Kit (catalog number 10006713; IDTDNA, Coralville, IA), a premix of forward and reverse primers

and a FAM-labeled probe targeting the N1 amplicon of the N gene of SARS2-nCoV19

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore; accession number MN908947). The reaction master

mix was added using an X-stream repeating pipette (Eppendorf, Hauppauge, NY) to the

microtiter plates, which were covered with optical film (catalog number 4311971; Thermo

Fisher Scientific), vortexed, and pulse centrifuged. The RT-qPCR reaction was subjected to RT-

qPCR at a program of uracil-DNA glycosylase incubation at 25°C for 2 minutes, room

temperature incubation at 50°C for 15 minutes, and an enzyme activation at 95°C for 2 minutes

followed by 40 cycles of a denaturing step at 95°C for 3 seconds and annealing at 60°C for 30

seconds. Fluorescence signals were detected with a QuantStudio 6 Sequence Detector (Applied

Biosystems, Foster City, CA). Data were captured and analyzed with Sequence Detector

Software version 1.3 (Applied Biosystems). Viral copy numbers were calculated by plotting Cq

values obtained from unknown (ie, test) samples against a standard curve that represented

known viral copy numbers. The limit of detection of the viral RNA assay was 10 copies per

reaction volume. A 2019-nCoV–positive control (catalog number 10006625; IDTDNA) was

analyzed in parallel with every set of test samples to verify that the RT-qPCR master mix and

reagents were prepared correctly to produce amplification of the target nucleic acid. A non-

template control was included in the qPCR to ensure that there was no cross-contamination

between reactions.

OCT embedded tissue blocks were sectioned between 10-15 µM and 2-4 sections were

placed into RNAse free tubes. RNA extraction was carried out using a RNeasy Plus Mini Kit

(#74124, Qiagen), according to manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 350µl of lysis buffer with

dithiothreitol (DTT) was added to the tubes containing sections. The tubes were vortexed

briefly then frozen at -20°C. Once thawed the samples were again vigorously vortexed then

centrifuged for 3 minutes. Supernatant was removed and applied to the gDNA Eliminator spin

column. The flow-through was mixed with 350µl of 70% ethanol and added to an RNeasy spin

column. The spin column was washed three times with buffers RW1 and RPE. RNA was then

eluted using 30-50µl of RNAse free water. All steps prior to addition of lysis buffer were carried

out in a BSL3 facility.

Tissue Processing and H&E Staining

Tissue samples were collected in Zinc formalin (Anatech) and fixed for a minimum of 72 hours

before being washed and dehydrated using a Thermo Excelsior AS processor. Upon removal

from the processor, tissues were transferred to a Thermo Shandon Histocentre 3 embedding

station where they were submersed in warm paraffin and allowed to cool into blocks. From

these blocks, 5µM sections were cut and mounted on charged glass slides, baked overnight at

60°C, and passed through Xylene, graded ethanol, and double distilled water to remove paraffin

and rehydrate tissue sections. A Leica Autostainer XL was used to complete the

deparaffinization, rehydration and routine hematoxylin and eosin stain. Slides were digitally

imaged with a NanoZoomer S360 (Hamamatsu) and subsequently examined by a board-

certified, veterinary pathologist using HALO software (Indica Labs).

Fluorescent Immunohistochemistry of FFPE tissues

Five µM sections of Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded (FFPE) tissues were mounted on

charged glass slides, baked for two hours at 60°C, and passed through Xylene, graded ethanol,

and double distilled water to remove paraffin and rehydrate tissue sections. A microwave was

used for heat induced epitope retrieval. Slides were heated in a high pH solution (Vector Labs

H-3301), rinsed in hot water, and transferred to a heated low pH solution (Vector Labs H-3300)

where they were allowed to cool to room temperature. Sections were washed in a solution of

phosphate-buffered saline and fish gelatin (PBS-FSG) and transferred to a humidified chamber,

for staining at room temperature. Lung sections were blocked with 10% normal goat serum

(NGS) for 40 minutes, followed by a 60-minute incubation with the anti-SARS primary antibody

diluted in NGS. Slides were washed and transferred back to the humidified chamber for a 40-

minute incubation with the secondary antibody, also diluted in NGS. Sequential staining of FFPE

testes, for CD206 and Caspase 3, was done as described above with 1% normal donkey serum

(NDS) being used in place of NGS for blocking and antibody dilutions. DAPI was used to label the

nuclei of each section. Slides were mounted using a homemade anti-quenching mounting

media containing Mowiol (Calbiochem #475904) and DABCO (Sigma #D2522) and imaged at

20X with a Zeiss Axio Slide Scanner.

PRIMARY ANTIBODY	SPECIES	COMPANY	CATALOG	DILUTION	SECONDARY ANTIBODY
SARS	Guinea Pig	BEI	NR-10361	1:1000	Goat anti-guinea pig Alexa Fluor488
CD206	Goat	R&D Systems	AF2532	1:50	Donkey anti-goat Alexa Fluor488
Caspase 3	Rabbit	Abcam	Ab13847	1:200	Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor555
Dapi		Invitrogen	D1306	1:20,000	

Fluorescence Microscopy of OCT embedded tissues

OCT embedded tissue were cryosectioned in a BSL3 facility between 10 and 15 µM. One or two

sections of each tissue were placed on glass microscope slides. Tissues were placed into an

airtight container containing 4% PFA in PIPES buffer. The container was sealed and thoroughly

decontaminated before being removed from the BSL3 facility. The remainder of the staining

took place outside of the BSL3. Tissue sections were treated with L-lysine (0.1%, SigmaAldrich)

to reduce background and non-specific interactions before being blocked using 3% BSA

(Invitrogen, ThermoFisher) for 30 minutes at room temperature. Staining with primary

antibodies was carried out at 37°C and secondary antibodies at room temperature. each for

1hr. Table of primary and secondary antibodies used is below. All slides were stained with

Hoechst (1:25,000, ThermoFisher, USA) for 15 minutes and washed with PBS between all steps.

Dako fluorescent mounting medium (#S302380-2, Agilent, USA) was used to mount cover slips

which were sealed with nail polish. A DeltaVision Ultra inverted microscope (Cytivia, USA) was

used to obtain images using the 10x, 20x, 60x, and 100x lenses. Images were deconvolved,

stitched, and projected using the softWoRx software (Applied Precision, USA).

Clone	Antibody	Target	Company	Catalog#	Dilution
	Rb pAb	Spike	Abcam	Ab272504	1:200
3A2	Ms mAb	Spike	Abcam	Ab272420	1:200
6H3	Ms mAb	NC	GeneTex	GTX632269	1:200
5A10	Ms mAb	NSP8	GeneTex	GTX632696	1:200
	Rb pAb	NC	Novus Biologicals	NB100-56576	1:200
	Rb pAb	NC	GeneTex	GTX135357	1:200
rJ2	Ms.mAb j2	Anti double stranded RNA	Millipore Sigma	MABE1134	1:1000

References

1.   Cheung CCL, Goh D, Lim X, Tien TZ, Lim JCT, Lee JN, Tan B, Tay ZEA, Wan WY, Chen EX,
Nerurkar SN, Loong S, Cheow PC, Chan CY, Koh YX, Tan TT, Kalimuddin S, Tai WMD, Ng JL, Low
JG-H, Yeong J, Lim KH. Residual SARS-CoV-2 viral antigens detected in GI and hepatic tissues
from five recovered patients with COVID-19. Gut. 2021. doi: 10.1136/GUTJNL-2021-324280.
2.   Kariyawasam JC, Jayarajah U, Riza R, Abeysuriya V, Seneviratne SL. Gastrointestinal
manifestations in COVID-19. Trans R Soc Trop Med Hyg. 2021;115(12):1362-88. doi:
10.1093/trstmh/trab042. PubMed PMID: 33728439; PMCID: PMC7989191.
3.   Keshavarz P, Rafiee F, Kavandi H, Goudarzi S, Heidari F, Gholamrezanezhad A. Ischemic
gastrointestinal complications of COVID-19: a systematic review on imaging presentation. Clin
Imaging. 2021;73:86-95. Epub 20201208. doi: 10.1016/j.clinimag.2020.11.054. PubMed PMID:
33341452; PMCID: PMC7837247.
4.   Javadekar NS. Gut in COVID 19-is it worth noticing. Ind Psychiatry J. 2021;30(Suppl
1):S267-S9. Epub 20211022. doi: 10.4103/0972-6748.328826. PubMed PMID: 34908706;
PMCID: PMC8611584.
5.   Paterson BJ, Durrheim DN. Wastewater surveillance: an effective and adaptable
surveillance tool in settings with a low prevalence of COVID-19. Lancet Planet Health.
2022;6(2):e87-e8. doi: 10.1016/S2542-5196(22)00009-2. PubMed PMID: 35150632; PMCID:
PMC8828367.
6.   Gregory DA, Wieberg CG, Wenzel J, Lin CH, Johnson MC. Monitoring SARS-CoV-2
Populations in Wastewater by Amplicon Sequencing and Using the Novel Program SAM Refiner.
Viruses. 2021;13(8). Epub 20210819. doi: 10.3390/v13081647. PubMed PMID: 34452511;
PMCID: PMC8402658.
7.   Nakamura Y, Katano H, Nakajima N, Sato Y, Suzuki T, Sekizuka T, Kuroda M, Izutani Y,
Morimoto S, Maruyama J, Koie M, Kitamura T, Ishikura H. SARS-CoV-2 is localized in
cardiomyocytes: a postmortem biopsy case. Int J Infect Dis. 2021;111:43-6. Epub 20210809. doi:
10.1016/j.ijid.2021.08.015. PubMed PMID: 34384897; PMCID: PMC8351278.
8.   Lei J, Liu Y, Xie T, Yao G, Wang G, Diao B, Song J. Evidence for residual SARS-CoV-2 in
glioblastoma tissue of a convalescent patient. Neuroreport. 2021;32(9):771-5. doi:
10.1097/WNR.0000000000001654. PubMed PMID: 33994523.
9.   Song E, Zhang C, Israelow B, Lu-Culligan A, Prado AV, Skriabine S, Lu P, Weizman OE, Liu
F, Dai Y, Szigeti-Buck K, Yasumoto Y, Wang G, Castaldi C, Heltke J, Ng E, Wheeler J, Alfajaro MM,
Levavasseur E, Fontes B, Ravindra NG, Van Dijk D, Mane S, Gunel M, Ring A, Kazmi SAJ, Zhang K,
Wilen CB, Horvath TL, Plu I, Haik S, Thomas JL, Louvi A, Farhadian SF, Huttner A, Seilhean D,
Renier N, Bilguvar K, Iwasaki A. Neuroinvasion of SARS-CoV-2 in human and mouse brain. J Exp
Med. 2021;218(3). doi: 10.1084/jem.20202135. PubMed PMID: 33433624; PMCID:
PMC7808299.
10.   Hanley B, Naresh KN, Roufosse C, Nicholson AG, Weir J, Cooke GS, Thursz M, Manousou
P, Corbett R, Goldin R, Al-Sarraj S, Abdolrasouli A, Swann OC, Baillon L, Penn R, Barclay WS,
Viola P, Osborn M. Histopathological findings and viral tropism in UK patients with severe fatal
COVID-19: a post-mortem study. Lancet Microbe. 2020;1(6):e245-e53. Epub 20200820. doi:
10.1016/S2666-5247(20)30115-4. PubMed PMID: 32844161; PMCID: PMC7440861.

11.   Edenfield RC, Easley CAt. Implications of testicular ACE2 and the renin-angiotensin
system for SARS-CoV-2 on testis function. Nat Rev Urol. 2022;19(2):116-27. Epub 20211126.
doi: 10.1038/s41585-021-00542-5. PubMed PMID: 34837081; PMCID: PMC8622117.
12.   Collins AB, Zhao L, Zhu Z, Givens NT, Bai Q, Wakefield MR, Fang Y. Impact of COVID-19
on Male Fertility. Urology. 2022. doi: 10.1016/J.UROLOGY.2021.12.025.
13.   Parker AM, Brigham E, Connolly B, McPeake J, Agranovich AV, Kenes MT, Casey K,
Reynolds C, Schmidt KFR, Kim SY, Kaplin A, Sevin CM, Brodsky MB, Turnbull AE. Addressing the
post-acute sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection: a multidisciplinary model of care. Lancet Respir
Med. 2021;9(11):1328-41. Epub 20211019. doi: 10.1016/S2213-2600(21)00385-4. PubMed
PMID: 34678213; PMCID: PMC8525917.
14.   Zhao JM, Zhou GD, Sun YL, Wang SS, Yang JF, Meng EH, Pan D, Li WS, Zhou XS, Wang YD,
Lu JY, Li N, Wang DW, Zhou BC, Zhang TH. [Clinical pathology and pathogenesis of severe acute
respiratory syndrome]. Zhonghua Shi Yan He Lin Chuang Bing Du Xue Za Zhi. 2003;17(3):217-21.
PubMed PMID: 15340561.
15.   Xu J, Qi L, Chi X, Yang J, Wei X, Gong E, Peh S, Gu J. Orchitis: a complication of severe
acute respiratory syndrome (SARS). Biol Reprod. 2006;74(2):410-6. Epub 20051019. doi:
10.1095/biolreprod.105.044776. PubMed PMID: 16237152; PMCID: PMC7109827.
16.   Beddingfield BJ, Maness NJ, Fears AC, Rappaport J, Aye PP, Russell-Lodrigue K, Doyle-
Meyers LA, Blair RV, Carias AM, Madden PJ, Redondo RL, Gao H, Montefiori D, Hope TJ, Roy CJ.
Effective prophylaxis of COVID-19 in rhesus macaques using a combination of two parentally-
administered SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies. bioRxiv. 2021:2021.05.26.445878-
2021.05.26. doi: 10.1101/2021.05.26.445878.
17.   Blair RV, Vaccari M, Doyle-Meyers LA, Roy CJ, Russell-Lodrigue K, Fahlberg M, Monjure
CJ, Beddingfield B, Plante KS, Plante JA, Weaver SC, Qin X, Midkiff CC, Lehmicke G, Golden N,
Threeton B, Penney T, Allers C, Barnes MB, Pattison M, Datta PK, Maness NJ, Birnbaum A,
Fischer T, Bohm RP, Rappaport J. Acute Respiratory Distress in Aged, SARS-CoV-2–Infected
African Green Monkeys but Not Rhesus Macaques. The American Journal of Pathology.
2021;191(2):274-82. doi: 10.1016/J.AJPATH.2020.10.016.
18.   Chandrashekar A, Liu J, Martino AJ, McMahan K, Mercad NB, Peter L, Tostanosk LH, Yu J,
Maliga Z, Nekorchuk M, Busman-Sahay K, Terry M, Wriji LM, Ducat S, Martine DR, Atyeo C,
Fischinger S, Burk JS, Slei MD, Pessaint L, Van Ry A, Greenhouse J, Taylor T, Blade K, Cook A,
Finneyfrock B, Brown R, Teow E, Velasco J, Zahn R, Wegmann F, Abbink P, Bondzi EA, Dagotto
G, Gebr MS, He X, Jacob-Dolan C, Kordana N, Li Z, Lifto MA, Mahrokhia SH, Maxfiel LF,
Nityanandam R, Nkolol JP, Schmid AG, Mille AD, Bari RS, Alter G, Sorge PK, Este JD, Andersen H,
Lewi MG, Barou DH. SARS-CoV-2 infection protects against rechallenge in rhesus macaques.
Science. 2020;369(6505):812-7. doi: 10.1126/SCIENCE.ABC4776.
19.   Fahlberg MD, Blair RV, Doyle-Meyers LA, Midkiff CC, Zenere G, Russell-Lodrigue KE,
Monjure CJ, Haupt EH, Penney TP, Lehmicke G, Threeton BM, Golden N, Datta PK, Roy CJ, Bohm
RP, Maness NJ, Fischer T, Rappaport J, Vaccari M. Cellular events of acute, resolving or
progressive COVID-19 in SARS-CoV-2 infected non-human primates. Nat Commun.
2020;11(1):6078. Epub 20201127. doi: 10.1038/s41467-020-19967-4. PubMed PMID:
33247138; PMCID: PMC7695721.
20.   Blair RV, Vaccari M, Doyle-Meyers LA, Roy CJ, Russell-Lodrigue K, Fahlberg M, Monjure
CJ, Beddingfield B, Plante KS, Plante JA, Weaver SC, Qin X, Midkiff CC, Lehmicke G, Golden N,

Threeton B, Penney T, Allers C, Barnes MB, Pattison M, Datta PK, Maness NJ, Birnbaum A,
Fischer T, Bohm RP, Rappaport J. Acute Respiratory Distress in Aged, SARS-CoV-2-Infected
African Green Monkeys but Not Rhesus Macaques. Am J Pathol. 2021;191(2):274-82. Epub
20201107. doi: 10.1016/j.ajpath.2020.10.016. PubMed PMID: 33171111; PMCID: PMC7648506.
21.   Santangelo PJ, Rogers KA, Zurla C, Blanchard EL, Gumber S, Strait K, Connor-Stroud F,
Schuster DM, Amancha PK, Hong JJ, Byrareddy SN, Hoxie JA, Vidakovic B, Ansari AA, Hunter E,
Villinger F. Whole-body immunoPET reveals active SIV dynamics in viremic and antiretroviral
therapy-treated macaques. Nat Methods. 2015;12(5):427-32. Epub 2015/03/10. doi:
10.1038/nmeth.3320. PubMed PMID: 25751144; PMCID: PMC4425449.
22.   Taylor RA, McRaven MD, Carias AM, Anderson MR, Matias E, Arainga M, Allen EJ, Rogers
KA, Gupta S, Kulkarni V, Lakhashe S, Lorenzo-Redondo R, Thomas Y, Strickland A, Villinger FJ,
Ruprecht RM, Hope TJ. Localization of infection in neonatal rhesus macaques after oral viral
challenge. PLoS Pathog. 2021;17(11):e1009855. Epub 20211118. doi:
10.1371/journal.ppat.1009855. PubMed PMID: 34793582; PMCID: PMC8639050.
23.   Taylor RA, Xiao S, Carias AM, McRaven MD, Thakkar DN, Arainga M, Allen EJ, Rogers KA,
Kumarapperuma SC, Gong S, Fought AJ, Anderson MR, Thomas Y, Schneider JR, Goins B, Fox P,
Villinger FJ, Ruprecht RM, Hope TJ. PET/CT targeted tissue sampling reveals virus specific dIgA
can alter the distribution and localization of HIV after rectal exposure. PLoS Pathog.
2021;17(6):e1009632. Epub 20210601. doi: 10.1371/journal.ppat.1009632. PubMed PMID:
34061907; PMCID: PMC8195437.
24.   Madden PJ, Arif MS, Becker ME, McRaven MD, Carias AM, Lorenzo-Redondo R, Xiao S,
Midkiff CC, Blair RV, Potter EL, Martin-Sancho L, Dodson A, Martinelli E, Todd JM, Villinger FJ,
Chanda SK, Aye PP, Roy CJ, Roederer M, Lewis MG, Veazey RS, Hope TJ. Development of an In
Vivo Probe to Track SARS-CoV-2 Infection in Rhesus Macaques. Front Immunol.
2021;12:810047. Epub 20211224. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2021.810047. PubMed PMID: 35003140;
PMCID: PMC8739270.
25.   Fahlberg MD, Blair RV, Doyle-Meyers LA, Midkiff CC, Zenere G, Russell-Lodrigue KE,
Monjure CJ, Haupt EH, Penney TP, Lehmicke G, Threeton BM, Golden N, Datta PK, Roy CJ, Bohm
RP, Maness NJ, Fischer T, Rappaport J, Vaccari M. Cellular events of acute, resolving or
progressive COVID-19 in SARS-CoV-2 infected non-human primates. Nature Communications
2020 11:1. 2020;11(1):1-14. doi: 10.1038/s41467-020-19967-4.
26.   Gao G, Hu X, Zhou Y, Rao J, Zhang X, Peng Y, Zhao J, Yao Y, Liu K, Liang M, Liu H, Deng F,
Xia H, Shan C, Yuan Z. Infection and pathogenesis of the Delta variant of SARS-CoV-2 in Rhesus
macaque. Virologica Sinica. 2022. doi: 10.1016/j.virs.2022.02.001.
27.   Nicolas N, Michel V, Bhushan S, Wahle E, Hayward S, Ludlow H, de Kretser DM, Loveland
KL, Schuppe HC, Meinhardt A, Hedger MP, Fijak M. Testicular activin and follistatin levels are
elevated during the course of experimental autoimmune epididymo-orchitis in mice. Sci Rep.
2017;7:42391. Epub 20170213. doi: 10.1038/srep42391. PubMed PMID: 28205525; PMCID:
PMC5304336.
28.   Cardona-Maya W, Velilla PA, Montoya CJ, Cadavid A, Rugeles MT. In vitro human
immunodeficiency virus and sperm cell interaction mediated by the mannose receptor. J
Reprod Immunol. 2011;92(1-2):1-7. Epub 20111019. doi: 10.1016/j.jri.2011.09.002. PubMed
PMID: 22015004.

29.   Cardona-Maya W, Lopez-Herrera A, Velilla-Hernandez P, Rugeles MT, Cadavid AP. The
role of mannose receptor on HIV-1 entry into human spermatozoa. Am J Reprod Immunol.
2006;55(4):241-5. doi: 10.1111/j.1600-0897.2005.00340.x. PubMed PMID: 16533334.
30.   Benoff S, Hurley I, Cooper GW, Mandel FS, Hershlag A, Scholl GM, Rosenfeld DL.
Fertilization potential in vitro is correlated with head-specific mannose-ligand receptor
expression, acrosome status and membrane cholesterol content. Hum Reprod.
1993;8(12):2155-66. doi: 10.1093/oxfordjournals.humrep.a137997. PubMed PMID: 8150918.
31.   Corbett KS, Flynn B, Foulds KE, Francica JR, Boyoglu-Barnum S, Werner AP, Flach B,
O'Connell S, Bock KW, Minai M, Nagata BM, Andersen H, Martinez DR, Noe AT, Douek N,
Donaldson MM, Nji NN, Alvarado GS, Edwards DK, Flebbe DR, Lamb E, Doria-Rose NA, Lin BC,
Louder MK, O'Dell S, Schmidt SD, Phung E, Chang LA, Yap C, Todd J-PM, Pessaint L, Ry AV,
Browne S, Greenhouse J, Putman-Taylor T, Strasbaugh A, Campbell T-A, Cook A, Dodson A,
Steingrebe K, Shi W, Zhang Y, Abiona OM, Wang L, Pegu A, Yang ES, Leung K, Zhou T, Teng IT,
Widge A, Gordon I, Novik L, Gillespie RA, Loomis RJ, Moliva JI, Stewart-Jones G, Himansu S, Kong
W-P, Nason MC, Morabito KM, Ruckwardt TJ, Ledgerwood JE, Gaudinski MR, Kwong PD,
Mascola JR, Carfi A, Lewis MG, Baric RS, McDermott A, Moore IN, Sullivan NJ, Roederer M,
Seder RA, Graham BS. Evaluation of the mRNA-1273 Vaccine against SARS-CoV-2 in Nonhuman
Primates. https://doiorg/101056/NEJMoa2024671. 2020;383(16):1544-55. doi:
10.1056/NEJMOA2024671.
32.   Lindsay KE, Bhosle SM, Zurla C, Beyersdorf J, Rogers KA, Vanover D, Xiao P, Araínga M,
Shirreff LM, Pitard B, Baumhof P, Villinger F, Santangelo PJ. Visualization of early events in
mRNA vaccine delivery in non-human primates via PET–CT and near-infrared imaging. Nature
Biomedical Engineering 2019 3:5. 2019;3(5):371-80. doi: 10.1038/s41551-019-0378-3.
33.   Soriano JB, Murthy S, Marshall JC, Relan P, Diaz JV, Condition WHOCCDWGoP-C-. A
clinical case definition of post-COVID-19 condition by a Delphi consensus. Lancet Infect Dis.
2021. Epub 20211221. doi: 10.1016/S1473-3099(21)00703-9. PubMed PMID: 34951953;
PMCID: PMC8691845.
34.   Ward H, Flower B, Garcia PJ, Ong SWX, Altmann DM, Delaney B, Smith N, Elliott P, Cooke
G. Global surveillance, research, and collaboration needed to improve understanding and
management of long COVID. Lancet. 2021;398(10316):2057-9. Epub 20211110. doi:
10.1016/S0140-6736(21)02444-2. PubMed PMID: 34774190; PMCID: PMC8580495.
35.   Duarte-Neto AN, Teixeira TA, Caldini EG, Kanamura CT, Gomes-Gouvea MS, Dos Santos
ABG, Monteiro RAA, Pinho JRR, Mauad T, da Silva LFF, Saldiva PHN, Dolhnikoff M, Leite KRM,
Hallak J. Testicular pathology in fatal COVID-19: A descriptive autopsy study. Andrology.
2022;10(1):13-23. Epub 20210716. doi: 10.1111/andr.13073. PubMed PMID: 34196475; PMCID:
PMC8444746.
36.   Moghimi N, Eslami Farsani B, Ghadipasha M, Mahmoudiasl GR, Piryaei A, Aliaghaei A,
Abdi S, Abbaszadeh HA, Abdollahifar MA, Forozesh M. COVID-19 disrupts spermatogenesis
through the oxidative stress pathway following induction of apoptosis. Apoptosis. 2021;26(7-
8):415-30. Epub 20210602. doi: 10.1007/s10495-021-01680-2. PubMed PMID: 34076792;
PMCID: PMC8170653.
37.   Yang M, Chen S, Huang B, Zhong JM, Su H, Chen YJ, Cao Q, Ma L, He J, Li XF, Li X, Zhou JJ,
Fan J, Luo DJ, Chang XN, Arkun K, Zhou M, Nie X. Pathological Findings in the Testes of COVID-

19 Patients: Clinical Implications. Eur Urol Focus. 2020;6(5):1124-9. Epub 20200531. doi: 10.1016/j.euf.2020.05.009. PubMed PMID: 32563676; PMCID: PMC7261470.

38.   Peirouvi T, Aliaghaei A, Eslami Farsani B, Ziaeipour S, Ebrahimi V, Forozesh M, Ghadipasha M, Mahmoudiasl GR, Aryan A, Moghimi N, Abdi S, Raoofi A, Kargar Godaneh M, Abdollahifar MA. COVID-19 disrupts the blood-testis barrier through the induction of inflammatory cytokines and disruption of junctional proteins. Inflamm Res. 2021;70(10-12):1165-75. Epub 20210826. doi: 10.1007/s00011-021-01497-4. PubMed PMID: 34436630; PMCID: PMC8387554.

39.   Achua JK, Chu KY, Ibrahim E, Khodamoradi K, Delma KS, Iakymenko OA, Kryvenko ON, Arora H, Ramasamy R. Histopathology and Ultrastructural Findings of Fatal COVID-19 Infections on Testis. World J Mens Health. 2021;39(1):65-74. Epub 20201103. doi: 10.5534/wjmh.200170. PubMed PMID: 33151050; PMCID: PMC7752514.

40.   Ma X, Guan C, Chen R, Wang Y, Feng S, Wang R, Qu G, Zhao S, Wang F, Wang X, Zhang D, Liu L, Liao A, Yuan S. Pathological and molecular examinations of postmortem testis biopsies reveal SARS-CoV-2 infection in the testis and spermatogenesis damage in COVID-19 patients. Cellular and Molecular Immunology. 2021;18(2):487-9. doi: 10.1038/s41423-020-00604-5.

41.   Ardestani Zadeh A, Arab D. COVID-19 and male reproductive system: pathogenic features and possible mechanisms. J Mol Histol. 2021;52(5):869-78. Epub 20210707. doi: 10.1007/s10735-021-10003-3. PubMed PMID: 34232425; PMCID: PMC8260577.

42.   Liu X, Chen Y, Tang W, Zhang L, Chen W, Yan Z, Yuan P, Yang M, Kong S, Yan L, Qiao J. Single-cell transcriptome analysis of the novel coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) associated gene ACE2 expression in normal and non-obstructive azoospermia (NOA) human male testes. Sci China Life Sci. 2020;63(7):1006-15. Epub 20200430. doi: 10.1007/s11427-020-1705-0. PubMed PMID: 32361911; PMCID: PMC7195615.

43.   Li X, Lu H, Li F, Zhang Q, Wang T, Qiang L, Yang Q. Impacts of COVID-19 and SARS-CoV-2 on male reproductive function: a systematic review and meta-analysis protocol. BMJ Open. 2022;12(1):e053051. Epub 20220105. doi: 10.1136/bmjopen-2021-053051. PubMed PMID: 34987042.

44.   Li C, Ye Z, Zhang AJ, Chan JF, Song W, Liu F, Chen Y, Kwan MY, Lee AC, Zhao Y, Wong BH, Yip CC, Cai JP, Lung DC, Sridhar S, Jin D, Chu H, To KK, Yuen KY. Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) infections by intranasal or testicular inoculation induces testicular damage preventable by vaccination in golden Syrian hamsters. Clin Infect Dis. 2022. Epub 20220218. doi: 10.1093/cid/ciac142. PubMed PMID: 35178548.

45.   Campos RK, Camargos VN, Azar SR, Haines CA, Eyzaguirre EJ, Rossi SL. SARS-CoV-2 Infects Hamster Testes. Microorganisms. 2021;9(6). Epub 20210617. doi: 10.3390/microorganisms9061318. PubMed PMID: 34204370; PMCID: PMC8235703.

46.   Ullah I, Prevost J, Ladinsky MS, Stone H, Lu M, Anand SP, Beaudoin-Bussieres G, Symmes K, Benlarbi M, Ding S, Gasser R, Fink C, Chen Y, Tauzin A, Goyette G, Bourassa C, Medjahed H, Mack M, Chung K, Wilen CB, Dekaban GA, Dikeakos JD, Bruce EA, Kaufmann DE, Stamatatos L, McGuire AT, Richard J, Pazgier M, Bjorkman PJ, Mothes W, Finzi A, Kumar P, Uchil PD. Live imaging of SARS-CoV-2 infection in mice reveals that neutralizing antibodies require Fc function for optimal efficacy. Immunity. 2021;54(9):2143-58 e15. Epub 20210818. doi: 10.1016/j.immuni.2021.08.015. PubMed PMID: 34453881; PMCID: PMC8372518.

47. Pike JFW, Polley EL, Pritchett DY, Lal A, Wynia BA, Roudebush WE, Chosed RJ.
Comparative analysis of viral infection outcomes in human seminal fluid from prior viral
epidemics and Sars-CoV-2 may offer trends for viral sexual transmissibility and long-term
reproductive health implications. Reprod Health. 2021;18(1):123. Epub 20210610. doi:
10.1186/s12978-021-01172-1. PubMed PMID: 34112171; PMCID: PMC8192109.
48. Massarotti C, Garolla A, Maccarini E, Scaruffi P, Stigliani S, Anserini P, Foresta C. SARS-
CoV-2 in the semen: Where does it come from? Andrology. 2021;9(1):39-41. Epub 20200728.
doi: 10.1111/andr.12839. PubMed PMID: 32533891; PMCID: PMC7323151.
49. Haghpanah A, Masjedi F, Salehipour M, Hosseinpour A, Roozbeh J, Dehghani A. Is
COVID-19 a risk factor for progression of benign prostatic hyperplasia and exacerbation of its
related symptoms?: a systematic review. Prostate Cancer Prostatic Dis. 2021. Epub 20210518.
doi: 10.1038/s41391-021-00388-3. PubMed PMID: 34007019; PMCID: PMC8129694.
50. Stopsack KH, Mucci LA, Antonarakis ES, Nelson PS, Kantoff PW. TMPRSS2 and COVID-19:
Serendipity or Opportunity for Intervention? Cancer Discov. 2020;10(6):779-82. Epub
20200410. doi: 10.1158/2159-8290.CD-20-0451. PubMed PMID: 32276929; PMCID:
PMC7437472.
51. Gedeborg R, Styrke J, Loeb S, Garmo H, Stattin P. Androgen deprivation therapy and
excess mortality in men with prostate cancer during the initial phase of the COVID-19
pandemic. PLoS One. 2021;16(10):e0255966. Epub 20211007. doi:
10.1371/journal.pone.0255966. PubMed PMID: 34618806; PMCID: PMC8496782.
52. Soumarova R, Boday A, Krhutova V, Janotova A, Dvorakova M, Jaluvkova E, Stursa M,
Perkova H. Prognostic and predictive molecular biological markers in prostate cancer -
significance of expression of genes PCA3 and TMPRSS2. Neoplasma. 2015;62(1):114-8. doi:
10.4149/neo_2015_014. PubMed PMID: 25563374.
53. Bhowmick NA, Oft J, Dorff T, Pal S, Agarwal N, Figlin RA, Posadas EM, Freedland SJ, Gong
J. COVID-19 and androgen-targeted therapy for prostate cancer patients. Endocr Relat Cancer.
2020;27(9):R281-R92. doi: 10.1530/ERC-20-0165. PubMed PMID: 32508311; PMCID:
PMC7546583.
54. Kazan O, Culpan M, Efiloglu O, Atis G, Yildirim A. The clinical impact of androgen
deprivation therapy on SARS-CoV-2 infection rates and disease severity. Turk J Urol.
2021;47(6):495-500. doi: 10.5152/tud.2021.21278. PubMed PMID: 35118968.
55. Cinislioglu AE, Demirdogen SO, Cinislioglu N, Altay MS, Sam E, Akkas F, Tor IH, Aydin HR,
Karabulut I, Ozbey I. Variation of Serum PSA Levels in COVID-19 Infected Male Patients with
Benign Prostatic Hyperplasia (BPH): A Prospective Cohort Studys. Urology. 2022;159:16-21.
Epub 20211006. doi: 10.1016/j.urology.2021.09.016. PubMed PMID: 34626600; PMCID:
PMC8493783.
56. Mohamed MS, Moulin TC, Schioth HB. Sex differences in COVID-19: the role of
androgens in disease severity and progression. Endocrine. 2021;71(1):3-8. Epub 20201111. doi:
10.1007/s12020-020-02536-6. PubMed PMID: 33179220; PMCID: PMC7657570.
57. Reddy R, Farber N, Kresch E, Seetharam D, Diaz P, Ramasamy R. SARS-CoV-2 in the
Prostate: Immunohistochemical and Ultrastructural Studies. The World Journal of Men's Health.
2021;40. doi: 10.5534/WJMH.210174.
58. Fraga-Silva RA, Costa-Fraga FP, Montecucco F, Sturny M, Faye Y, Mach F, Pelli G, Shenoy
V, da Silva RF, Raizada MK, Santos RA, Stergiopulos N. Diminazene protects corpus cavernosum

against hypercholesterolemia-induced injury. J Sex Med. 2015;12(2):289-302. Epub 20141120.
doi: 10.1111/jsm.12757. PubMed PMID: 25411084.

59.   Kresch E, Achua J, Saltzman R, Khodamoradi K, Arora H, Ibrahim E, Kryvenko ON, Wolff
Almeida V, Firdaus F, Hare JM, Ramasamy R. COVID-19 Endothelial Dysfunction Can Cause
Erectile Dysfunction: Histopathological, Immunohistochemical, and Ultrastructural Study of the
Human Penis. World J Mens Health. 2021;39:2287-4208. doi: 10.5534/wjmh.210055.

60.   Sansone A, Mollaioli D, Ciocca G, Colonnello E, Limoncin E, Balercia G, Jannini EA. "Mask
up to keep it up": Preliminary evidence of the association between erectile dysfunction and
COVID-19. Andrology. 2021;00:1-7. doi: 10.1111/andr.13003.

61.   Dal Moro F, Vendramin I, Livi U. The war against the SARS-CoV2 infection: Is it better to
fight or mitigate it? Med Hypotheses. 2020;143:110129. Epub 20200722. doi:
10.1016/j.mehy.2020.110129. PubMed PMID: 32721814; PMCID: PMC7373683.

62.   Mejri R, Mrad Dali K, Chaker K, Bibi M, Ben Rhouma S, Nouira Y. Venous thrombosis of
the pampiniform plexus after coronavirus infection (COVID-19): A case report. Urol Case Rep.
2021;39:101860. Epub 20210927. doi: 10.1016/j.eucr.2021.101860. PubMed PMID: 34603969;
PMCID: PMC8475016.

63.   Alshoabi SA, Haider KH, Mostafa MA, Hamid AM, Daqqaq TS. An unusual and atypical
presentation of the novel coronavirus: A case report and brief review of the literature. J Taibah
Univ Med Sci. 2021;16(4):637-42. Epub 20210412. doi: 10.1016/j.jtumed.2021.01.014. PubMed
PMID: 33867909; PMCID: PMC8038890.

64.   Whiteley MS, Abu-Bakr O, Holdstock JM. Testicular vein thrombosis mimicking
epididymo-orchitis after suspected Covid-19 infection. SAGE Open Med Case Rep.
2021;9:2050313X211022425. Epub 20210604. doi: 10.1177/2050313X211022425. PubMed
PMID: 34158948; PMCID: PMC8182169.

65.   La Marca A, Busani S, Donno V, Guaraldi G, Ligabue G, Girardis M. Testicular pain as an
unusual presentation of COVID-19: a brief review of SARS-CoV-2 and the testis. Reprod Biomed
Online. 2020;41(5):903-6. Epub 20200723. doi: 10.1016/j.rbmo.2020.07.017. PubMed PMID:
32826162; PMCID: PMC7377719.

66.   Li K, Liu X, Huang Y, Liu X, Song Q, Wang R. Evaluation of testicular spermatogenic
function by ultrasound elastography in patients with varicocele-associated infertility. Am J
Transl Res. 2021;13(8):9136-42. Epub 20210815. PubMed PMID: 34540028; PMCID:
PMC8430184.

67.   Mali WP, Arndt JW, Coolsaet BL, Kremer J, Oei HY. Haemodynamic aspects of left-sided
varicocele and its association with so-called right-sided varicocele. Int J Androl. 1984;7(4):297-
308. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2605.1984.tb00787.x. PubMed PMID: 6096276.

68.   Aitken RJ. COVID-19 and human spermatozoa—Potential risks for infertility and sexual
transmission? Andrology. 2021;9(1):48-52. doi: 10.1111/andr.12859.

69.   Gacci M, Coppi M, Baldi E, Sebastianelli A, Zaccaro C, Morselli S, Pecoraro A, Manera A,
Nicoletti R, Liaci A, Bisegna C, Gemma L, Giancane S, Pollini S, Antonelli A, Lagi F, Marchiani S,
Dabizzi S, Degl'Innocenti S, Annunziato F, Maggi M, Vignozzi L, Bartoloni A, Rossolini GM, Serni
S. Semen impairment and occurrence of SARS-CoV-2 virus in semen after recovery from COVID-
19. Human Reproduction. 2021;0(0):1-10. doi: 10.1093/humrep/deab026.

70.   Sengupta P, Leisegang K, Agarwal A. The impact of COVID-19 on the male reproductive
tract and fertility: A systematic review. Arab J Urol. 2021;19(3):423-36. Epub 20210809. doi:
10.1080/2090598X.2021.1955554. PubMed PMID: 34552795; PMCID: PMC8451696.
71.   Li H, Xiao X, Zhang J, Zafar MI, Wu C, Long Y, Lu W, Pan F, Meng T, Zhao K, Zhou L, Shen
S, Liu L, Liu Q, Xiong C. Impaired spermatogenesis in COVID-19 patients. EClinicalMedicine.
2020;28. doi: 10.1016/j.eclinm.2020.100604.
72.   Delli Muti N, Finocchi F, Tossetta G, Salvio G, Cutini M, Marzioni D, Balercia G. Could
SARS-CoV-2 infection affect male fertility and sexuality? APMIS. 2022. Epub 20220203. doi:
10.1111/apm.13210. PubMed PMID: 35114008.
73.   Wesselink AK, Hatch EE, Rothman KJ, Wang TR, Willis MD, Yland J, Crowe HM, Geller RJ,
Willis SK, Perkins RB, Regan AK, Levinson J, Mikkelsen EM, Wise LA. A prospective cohort study
of COVID-19 vaccination, SARS-CoV-2 infection, and fertility. Am J Epidemiol. 2022. Epub
20220120. doi: 10.1093/aje/kwac011. PubMed PMID: 35051292; PMCID: PMC8807200.
74.   Xu J, Qi L, Chi X, Yang J, Wei X, Gong E, Peh S, Gu J. Orchitis: A Complication of Severe
Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS). Biology of Reproduction. 2006;74(2):410-6. doi:
10.1095/BIOLREPROD.105.044776.
75.   Delle Fave RF, Polisini G, Giglioni G, Parlavecchio A, Dell'Atti L, Galosi AB. COVID-19 and
male fertility: Taking stock of one year after the outbreak began. Archivio Italiano di Urologia e
Andrologia. 2021;93(1):115-9. doi: 10.4081/aiua.2021.1.115.
76.   Al-Kuraishy HM, Al-Gareeb AI, Faidah H, Alexiou A, Batiha GE. Testosterone in COVID-19:
An Adversary Bane or Comrade Boon. Front Cell Infect Microbiol. 2021;11:666987. Epub
20210908. doi: 10.3389/fcimb.2021.666987. PubMed PMID: 34568081; PMCID: PMC8455954.
77.   Haghpanah A, Masjedi F, Alborzi S, Hosseinpour A, Dehghani A, Malekmakan L, Roozbeh
J. Potential mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 action on male gonadal function and fertility: Current
status and future prospects. Andrologia. 2021;53(1):e13883-e. doi: 10.1111/and.13883.
78.   Enikeev D, Taratkin M, Morozov A, Petov V, Korolev D, Shpikina A, Spivak L, Kharlamova
S, Shchedrina I, Mestnikov O, Fiev D, Ganzha T, Geladze M, Mambetova A, Kogan E, Zharkov N,
Demyashkin G, Shariat SF, Glybochko P. Prospective two-arm study of the testicular function in
patients with COVID-19. Andrology. 2022. Epub 20220206. doi: 10.1111/andr.13159. PubMed
PMID: 35124885.
1159

1160
1161
1162 **Figure 1. Study design and viral analysis of infected macaques.** (A) Workflow of PET/CT guided
1163 necropsy. (B) Schematic showing the study design of probe administration, PET/CT scans, and
1164 infection. (C) (F and G) Viral load measurements for all three animals. (F) shows copies/swab of
1165 genomic N while (G) shows copies/swab of subgenomic N.

1166
Figure 2. LP14 PET/CT guided necropsy. (A and B) Whole-body PET/CT scans of LP14 8 days
post-infection. Front view (A) and rotated 45° (B) both shown. PET signal is display as SUV. (C)
Post necropsy PET/CT organ scan of LP14. (D and E) Images of tissues scanned in (C). (F) Overlay
of PET signal onto photograph of small pieces of tissue in cassettes. (G and H) Lung PET signal
was isolated and overlaid on whole body CT scans. Side (G) and front (H) view. (I and J) Isolated
lung PET volumes used in G and H are shown independently, side view (I) and front view (J). (K
and L) Single axial z-slice images of respiratory tract PET/CT signals are shown, each image
represents a single z-plane from scan shown in C. (M and N) Fluorescent microscopy images of
LP14 lung tissue blocks. Red is SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera and blue is Hoechst nuclear stain. Scale
bars 100 µM (M) and 25 µM (N).

Figure 3. Male genital tract signal in LP14. (A, B, and C) PET/CT images highlighting the lower
abdomen of LP14 from the whole-body scan. Front (A), rotated 45° (B), and side (C) views are
all shown. Right and left labeled in front view. Red arrow in B and C shows location of baculum
in CT scan. (D and E) PET signal with CT overlay removed to highlight signal in MGT, front (D)
and side (E) views shown. (F, H, and J) Isolated 3D volume of MGT from whole body scan
overlaid with CT images. Side (F), rotated 45° (H), and front (J) views shown. (G, I, and K)
Isolated 3D volume of MGT used in overlays (F, H, and J) shown with same views. (L) Overlay of
single z-plane of PET signal from organ scan onto image of testis of LP14. (M) PET signal from
single z-plane of organ scan used in (L). (N) Image of LP14 testis used in (L). (O) 3D volume of
PET signal from organ scan of single testis in previous panels.
1190

Figure 4. Immunofluorescence of LP14 Testes. (A) Fluorescent microscopy image of LP14
seminiferous tubules. ACE2 staining shown in red, Hoechst nuclear staining shown in blue. Inset
shows zoom in of single tubule to better view ACE2 staining in Sertoli and myoid cells. Scale
bars 50 µM. (B) Fluorescent microscopy image of LP14 testis shows infected cells. SARS-CoV-2
anti-sera staining in green, background fluorescent in red, and Hoechst nuclear staining in blue.
Scale bars 25 µM. (C) Microscopy images of two tubules containing infected cells (top and
bottom rows). Red is SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera, green is smooth muscle actin, gold is vimentin, and
blue is Hoechst nuclear stain. Possible infected germ cells marked by arrow heads. Scale bars 20
µM.

1202

1203
1204
1205

Figure 5. IN22 PET/CT guided necropsy images. (A and B) Whole-body PET/CT scans of IN22
obtained 3-hours after probe administration. Front view (A) and side (B) both shown. (C and D)
Whole-body PET/CT scans of IN22 obtained 21-hours after probe administration. Front view (C)
and side (D) both shown. Right and left labeled in front views (A and C). (E) Organ tray post
necropsy and (F) PET/CT image. (G) Second organ tray post necropsy and (H) PET/CT image. (I)
Overlay of PET signal onto photograph of tissue cassettes.
1212

1214
1215
Figure 6. IN22 lung pathology and PET signal. (A-D) Lung PET volumes were isolated and
overlaid on whole body CT scans. (A and B) Show lung volumes from 3-hour scan, side (A) and
front (B) views shown. (C and D) Show lung volumes from 21-hour scan, side (C) and front (D)
views shown. (E and F) Isolated lung PET volumes for each scan are shown independent of CT.
(G) Sagittal z-slice from CT showing lungs. (H) PET signal overlaid on z-slice from G. (I)

Transverse z-slice through torso from CT. (J) PET signal overlaid on z-slice from I. (K) Image of
respiratory tract after necropsy. (L) Inset showing overt lung pathology in right lower lobe. (M)
PET/CT signal from organ scan of respiratory tract. (N) PET/CT signal from M overlaid onto
image from K. (O) PET/CT signal with CT contrast increased to observe pathology in lower right
lung lobe. (P) H&E image of lung tissue showing areas of expanded alveolar space and
inflammatory infiltrate (arrows). (Q) Immunofluorescence image of the same tissue from P.
Green is SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera, red is background, and white is nuclear stain. White arrows
indicate SARS-CoV-2 positive cells. (R) H&E image of lung tissue showing macrophages and
neutrophils (arrowheads) and type II pneumocytes (arrows). (S) Immunofluorescence image
showing infected cells of the alveoli (arrows) and lining the alveolar septa (arrowheads). Green
is SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera, red is background, white is nuclear stain. All scale bars are 100 μM. (T)
Fluorescent microscopy image of IN22 lung tissue. Spike shown in green, nucleocapsid shown in
red, background in white, and Hoechst nuclear stain in blue. Scale bar 100 μM. (U, Y, W)
Additional fluorescent microscopy images of lung tissue showing foci of infected cells. U and W
are shown in low magnification Y. Green is SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera and blue is Hoechst nuclear
stain. Scales bar 500 μM. (X-Z) Validation of dual antibody staining utilizing spectral imaging. (X)
shows microscopy of J2 antibody with redX secondary and rabbit anti-NC monoclonal and Cy5
secondary. (Y) Shows area within green square in X. White arrows point to regions of interest
that are cell associated. Grey arrows indicate control regions of spectral evaluation. The areas
evaluated by spectral imaging in (Y) are color coded and match with the spectra shown in (Z).

1242
1243
Figure 7. Male genital tract signal of IN22. (A and B) PET/CT images highlighting the lower abdomen of IN22 obtained 3-hours after probe administration. Front view (A) and side (B) both shown. (C and D) PET/CT images highlighting the lower abdomen of IN22 obtained 21-hours after probe administration. Front view (C) and side (D) both shown. (E and F) Isolated 3D volume of MGT from 3-hour scan overlaid with whole-body CT. Side (E) and front (F) views

shown. (G and H) Isolated 3D volume of MGT from 21-hour scan overlaid with whole-body CT. Side (G) and front (H) views shown. (I and J) Whole-body CT images of lower abdomen, red contours outline the testicles and spermatic cords. Front (I) and side (J) views shown. (K and L) 3D volume of MGT overlaid onto CT images from previous panels. (M) Image of testicles after necropsy. (N) PET signal from organ scan of testicles. (O) Overlay of PET signal onto image from panel M. (P) Overlay of PET signal onto CT signal from same scan. White asterisks mark location of pampiniform plexus in all previous panels. (Q and R) Fluorescence microscopy of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells in testicular tissue from IN22. Red is SARS-CoV-2 spike, green is SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid, white is background, and blue is Hoechst nuclear stain. Insets show channels independently, larger image is all channels merged. Scale bars 10 μM (S) Fluorescent microscopy image of corpus cavernosum tissue from an uninfected animal showing ACE2 staining in red, background in green, and Hoechst nuclear staining in blue. Scale bar 100 μM (T) Fluorescence microscopy of SARS-CoV-2 infected cells in penile tissue from IN22. White is dsRNA antibody J2, red is SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid, green is background, and blue is Hoechst nuclear stain. (U, V, and W) Show individual cells highlighted in T.

1293
1294
1295
Figure 8. JF82 PET/CT images from week and week 2 necropsy scans. (A and B) Whole-body
PET/CT scan of JF82 from 1-week post-infection. Front view (A) and side (B) both shown. (C and
D) Whole-body PET/CT scans of JF82 2-weeks post infection. Front view (C) and side (D) both
shown. Right and left labeled in front views (A and C). (E and F) Overlay of the week 1 scan

(shown in red) and the week 2 scan (shown in blue). Front (E) and side (F) views both shown.
(G) Organ tray post necropsy and (H) PET/CT image. (I) Second organ tray post necropsy and (J)
PET/CT image. (K) Overlay of PET signal onto photograph of tissue cassettes.
1303
1304

Figure 9. JF82 lung pathology and PET signal from two timepoints. (A-D) Lung PET volumes
were isolated and overlaid on whole body CT scans. (A and B) Show lung volumes from 1-wee

scan, side (A) and front (B) views shown. White asterisk indicates location of lung pathology
highlighted below. (C and D) Show lung volumes from 2-week scan, side (C) and front (D) views
shown. (E and F) Isolated lung PET volumes for each scan are shown independent of CT. (G and
H) Overlay of single z-image of PET signal onto single z-image of CT in the lungs at week 1 (G)
and week 2 (H). (I and J) Single z-image of CT used in G and H shown independent of PET signal
for week 1 (I) and week 2 (J). (K) Overlay of week 1 (shown in red) and week 2 (shown in blue)
PET signal. (L) Overlay from K shown with CT image to localize PET signal. Insets above show,
CT, week 1, and week 2 signal from left to right. White asterisk indicates location of left lung
pathology in all panels.

1354

1355
1356
1357 **Figure 10. Male genital tract signal in JF82.** (A and B) Front view PET/CT images highlighting the
1358 lower abdomen of JF82 at 1-week (A) and 2-weeks (B). (C) Overlay of week 1 (shown in red) and
1359 week 2 (shown in blue) PET signal. (D and E) Side view of same images shown in A and B. (F)

side view of overlay shown in C. (G and H) Isolated MGT volume from week 1 scan. Back (G) and side (H) views shown. (I and J) Isolated MGT volume from week 2 scan. Back (I) and side (J) views shown. (K, L, and M) Isolated MGT volume from week 2 with isolated penile and testicular signal. Back (K), rotated 45° (L), and side (M) views shown. (N) H&E stain of JF82 testicular tissue. Degenerate seminiferous tubules highlighted in black oval. Scale bar 500 µM. (O) Fluorescent microscopy shows a similar area of degenerate tubules. Green is CD206, red caspase 3, and white nuclear stain. Scale bar 500 µM. (P) Higher magnification image of degenerate tubules. Intraluminal macrophages (arrowheads) and Sertoli cells (arrows) are shown inside tubules. Scale bar 50 µM (Q) Higher magnification of image in O shows Sertoli cells (arrow) staining with caspase 3 and macrophages (arrowhead) staining with CD206. Scale bar 50 µM. (R) Fluorescent microscopy image showing degenerate tubule full of intraluminal macrophages. Red is caspase 3, green is CD206, and blue is nuclear stain. Scale bar 50 µM. (S) Lower magnification microscopy image of degenerate and healthy tubules. Red is caspase 3, green is CD206, and blue is nuclear stain. Scale bar 200 µM. (T and U) Fluorescent microscopy images of infected cells in testicular tissue of JF82. White is SARS-CoV-2 anti-sera, red is NSP8, green is nucleocapsid, and blue is Hoechst nuclear stain. Insets show individual channels, larger image is merge. Scale bars 10 µM.

Figure 11. Comparison of SUVs across animals and timepoints. (A-D) Complete rotation series
of lung PET volumes for LP14 (A), IN22 (B), JF82 week 1 (C), and JF82 week 2 (D). (E-H) Front,
rotated 45°, and side views of MGT PET volumes for LP14 (E), IN22 (F), JF82 week 1 (G), and
JF82 week 2 (H). (I-K) Front and side views of whole-body scans, white lines indicate volumes
taken for heart and lungs for LP14 (I), IN22 (J), and JF82 week 1 (K). Insets show each image
without white outlines. (L) Total SUVs for whole-body scans and each individual volume isolated
displayed in graph. Animals are indicated by icon shape and volumes by color.
1412
1413

1414
1415
Figure 12. Comparison of prostate and penile signal between animals. (A-F) PET/CT signal in
lower abdomen for each animal at 1-week post-infection. LP14 front (A) and rotated 45° (B),

IN22 front (C) and rotated 45° (D), JF82 front (E) and rotated 45° (F). Asterisks mark location of
prostate. Insets show sagittal z-slice of each animal highlighting prostate signal (white circle).
(G-I) PET/CT volume of penis for IN22. Front (G), rotated 45° (H), and side (I) views shown. (J-L)
PET/CT volume of penis for JF82 at 2-weeks post-infection. Front (J), rotated 45° (K), and side (L)
views shown. (M) PET/CT signal of IN22 penis after necropsy. (N) PET/CT signal of JF82 penis
after necropsy. (O) PET/CT signal overlaid onto an image of tissue cassettes (P) containing
penile tissue of IN22. (Q) PET/CT signal overlaid onto an image of tissue cassettes (R) containing
penile tissue of JF82. (S-U) H&E images of testicular tissue from each animal. LP14 (S) and IN22
(T) shows normal spermatogenesis and tissue architecture. IN22 (U) shows degenerate tubules
(asterisks) interspersed among healthy tubules. Scale bars all 500 μM.
1428

Figure 13. PET signal associated with the pampiniform plexus. (A) Labeled dissection showing anatomical structure of a macaque testis. (B) CT image of testes and associated image showing the matching anatomical features of the spermatic cord. (C) Inset highlighting the location and

appearance of the pampiniform plexus. White asterisks mark the vas deferens in all images. (D-F) Single z PET/CT images of IN22 highlighting the PET signal associated with the pampiniform plexus (yellow volume) from the frontal (D), sagittal (E), and transverse (F) plane. (G) CT image used in E to highlight signal associated with pampiniform plexus (yellow volume). (H-L) Isolated 3D volumes of MGT PET signal shown from the front for IN22 (H), JF82 (J), and LP14 (L). White circles outline testes. (I, K, M) Volumes from H, J, and L rotated 45°. (N) Sagittal z-slice of PET/CT of LP14 showing right testis. (O) Frontal z-slice of PET/CT, colored lines correspond to sagittal slices shown in N, P, and R. (P) Sagittal z-slice of PET/CT showing penile tissue. (Q) Frontal z-slice highlighting the testicular tissue in white ovals. (R) Sagittal z-slice of PET/CT showing left testis of LP14. White ovals highlight signal associated with testes and not pampiniform plexus.

1445
1446
1447 **Figure 14. Principle components analysis of SUV measures.** (A) Mean SUV values from isolated
1448 tissue volumes. (B) The ratio of total SUV for each tissue volume to whole-body total SUV. (C)
1449 Heat map showing clustering of tissues and parameters measured from the PET data. (D)

1450 Principal components analysis of measures showing hierarchical clustering of tissues and
1451 measures.
1452