

1 **Subacute SARS-CoV-2 replication can be controlled in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells in**
2 **cynomolgus macaques**

3 Short title: Subacute SARS-CoV-2 replication can be controlled without CD8⁺ T cells

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5 Takushi Nomura^{1*}, Hiroyuki Yamamoto¹, Masako Nishizawa¹, Trang Thi Thu Hau¹,
6 Shigeyoshi Harada¹, Hiroshi Ishii¹, Sayuri Seki¹, Midori Nakamura-Hoshi¹, Midori Okazaki¹,
7 Sachie Daigen¹, Ai Kawana-Tachikawa^{1,2,3}, Noriyo Nagata⁴, Naoko Iwata-Yoshikawa⁴, Nozomi
8 Shiwa⁴, Shun Iida⁴, Harutaka Katano⁴, Tadaki Suzuki⁴, Eun-Sil Park⁵, Ken Maeda⁵, Yuriko
9 Suzaki⁶, Yasushi Ami⁶, and Tetsuro Matano^{1,2,3*}

10

11 ¹AIDS Research Center, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan

12 ²Institute of Medical Science, University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan

13 ³Joint Research Center for Human Retrovirus Infection, Kumamoto University, Kumamoto, Japan

14 ⁴Department of Pathology, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan

15 ⁵Department of Veterinary Science, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo, Japan

16 ⁶Division of Laboratory Animal Research, National Institute of Infectious Diseases, Tokyo,
17 Japan

18

19 *Equally-contributed corresponding authors: nomutaku@nih.go.jp (TN) and
20 tmatano@nih.go.jp (TM)

21

22 **Abstract**

23 SARS-CoV-2 infection presents clinical manifestations ranging from asymptomatic to fatal
24 respiratory failure. Despite the induction of functional SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell
25 responses in convalescent individuals, the role of virus-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses in the
26 control of SARS-CoV-2 replication remains unknown. In the present study, we show that
27 subacute SARS-CoV-2 replication can be controlled in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells in
28 cynomolgus macaques. Eight macaques were intranasally inoculated with 10⁵ or 10⁶ TCID₅₀ of
29 SARS-CoV-2, and three of the eight macaques were treated with a monoclonal anti-CD8
30 antibody on days 5 and 7 post-infection. In these three macaques, CD8⁺ T cells were
31 undetectable on day 7 and thereafter, while virus-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses were induced
32 in the remaining five untreated animals. Viral RNA was detected in nasopharyngeal swabs for
33 10-17 days post-infection in all macaques, and the kinetics of viral RNA levels in pharyngeal
34 swabs and plasma neutralizing antibody titers were comparable between the anti-CD8 antibody
35 treated and untreated animals. SARS-CoV-2 RNA was detected in the pharyngeal mucosa
36 and/or retropharyngeal lymph node obtained at necropsy on day 21 in two of the untreated
37 group but undetectable in all macaques treated with anti-CD8 antibody. CD8⁺ T-cell responses
38 may contribute to viral control in SARS-CoV-2 infection, but our results indicate possible
39 containment of subacute viral replication in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells, implying that CD8⁺
40 T-cell dysfunction may not solely lead to viral control failure.

41

42 **Author Summary**

43 SARS-CoV-2 infection presents a wide spectrum of clinical manifestations ranging from
44 asymptomatic to fatal respiratory failure. The determinants for failure in viral control and/or
45 fatal disease progression have not been elucidated fully. Both acquired immune effectors,
46 antibodies and CD8⁺ T cells, are considered to contribute to viral control. However, it remains
47 unknown whether a deficiency in either of these two arms is directly linked to failure in the
48 control of SARS-CoV-2 replication. In the present study, to know the requirement of CD8⁺ T
49 cells for viral control after the establishment of infection, we examined the effect of CD8⁺ cell
50 depletion by monoclonal anti-CD8 antibody administration in the subacute phase on SARS-
51 CoV-2 replication in cynomolgus macaques. Unexpectedly, our analysis revealed no significant
52 impact of CD8⁺ cell depletion on viral replication, indicating that subacute SARS-CoV-2
53 replication can be controlled in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells. CD8⁺ T-cell responses may
54 contribute to viral control in SARS-CoV-2 infection, but this study suggests that CD8⁺ T-cell
55 dysfunction may not solely lead to viral control failure or fatal disease progression.

56

57 **Introduction**

58 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome
59 coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has rapidly spread resulting in a major pandemic [1]. SARS-CoV-
60 2 transmission occurs via the respiratory route, and the average incubation period from infection
61 to symptom onset has been estimated to be 5 days [2]. SARS-CoV-2 infection presents a wide
62 spectrum of clinical manifestations ranging from asymptomatic to fatal respiratory failure [3].
63 Multiple confounding factors such as age and underlying diseases are associated with COVID-
64 19 severity [4-8]. For instance, auto-antibodies against type I interferon have been reported to
65 be associated with life-threatening COVID-19 pneumonia [9,10]. However, the exact
66 determinants for failure in viral control and/or fatal disease progression have not been
67 elucidated fully.

68 Most non-fatal COVID-19 cases show a limited period of detectable virus production in
69 pharyngeal swabs peaking at around one week post-infection [11]. Host acquired as well as
70 innate immune responses are involved in the control of viral replication [8,12-14]. Anti-SARS-
71 CoV-2 neutralizing antibodies are induced in most infected individuals [13-16]. Recent clinical
72 studies including those on convalescent plasma and/or monoclonal antibody administration
73 have indicated efficacy of neutralizing antibodies against SARS-CoV-2 infection [17-20].
74 Animal studies have confirmed *in vivo* efficacy of neutralizing antibodies against infection [21-
75 25]. Also, SARS-CoV-2-specific T-cell responses are induced in most non-fatal COVID-19
76 cases [26-28]. Current studies have indicated induction of functional virus-specific CD8⁺ T-
77 cell responses in convalescent COVID-19 individuals, implying suppressive pressure of CD8⁺
78 T cells on SARS-CoV-2 replication [29,30]. Thus, both acquired immune effectors, antibodies
79 and CD8⁺ T cells, are considered to contribute to viral control. However, it remains unknown
80 whether a deficiency in either of these two arms is directly linked to failure in the control of
81 SARS-CoV-2 replication. It has been reported that COVID-19 patients with

82 agammaglobulinemia controlled disease progression, suggesting viral control even in the
83 absence of antibody responses [31].

84 A previous study of anti-CD8 antibody administration prior to re-infection in rhesus
85 macaques has indicated partial contribution of CD8⁺ T cells to protection against SARS-CoV-
86 2 re-infection [25]. However, the requirement of CD8⁺ T cells for the control of virus replication
87 after the establishment of infection remains unclear. In the present study, we investigated the
88 effect of CD8⁺ cell depletion by monoclonal anti-CD8 antibody administration in the subacute
89 phase on SARS-CoV-2 replication in cynomolgus macaques. Unexpectedly, our analysis
90 revealed no significant impact of CD8⁺ cell depletion on viral replication, indicating that
91 subacute SARS-CoV-2 replication can be controlled in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells.

92

93 **Results**

94 **Kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 infection in cynomolgus macaques after intranasal inoculation**

95 Previous studies have shown that intranasal and intratracheal inoculation with 10^5 TCID₅₀
96 (50% tissue culture infective doses) of SARS-CoV-2 results in the establishment of infection in
97 rhesus macaques, with viral RNA detectable for more than a week post-infection in pharyngeal
98 swabs [32,33]. In the present study, we first examined whether intranasal SARS-CoV-2
99 inoculation only can result in viral infection in cynomolgus macaques. In the first experiment,
100 cynomolgus macaques were intranasally inoculated with 10^6 (exactly 7.5×10^5 in macaque
101 N011), 10^5 (exactly 7.5×10^4 in macaques N012 and N013), or 10^4 (exactly 7.5×10^3 in macaque
102 N014) TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2 (Table 1). Macaques N011, N012, and N013 showed similar
103 levels of viral RNA in nasopharyngeal swabs on day 2, at the peak (Fig 1A). Viral RNA was
104 also detected in throat swabs with a lower peak (Fig 1B). Viral RNA in nasopharyngeal swabs
105 was detectable for approximately two weeks (up to: day 17 in N011, day 12 in N012, and day
106 14 in N013) after virus inoculation (Fig 1A, 1C, and 1D). Subgenomic RNAs (sgRNAs) were
107 also detected in nasopharyngeal and throat swabs, indicating viral replication (Fig 2A and 2B).
108 SARS-CoV-2 sgRNAs were detected in nasopharyngeal swabs until day 9 in N011, day 7 in
109 N012, and day 5 in N013 (Fig 2A, 2C, and 2D). However, in macaque N014, which was
110 inoculated with 10^4 TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2, sgRNAs were undetectable, and viral RNAs were
111 detectable albeit at lower levels, only until day 5 in nasopharyngeal swabs (Fig 1A and Fig 2A),
112 indicating that 10^4 TCID₅₀ is below the virus inoculum threshold to consistently induce
113 detectable viral replication. N014 was subsequently excluded from further analyses.

114 In the second experiment, two (N021 and D023) and three (N022, D024, and D025)
115 macaques were intranasally inoculated with 10^6 and 10^5 TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2, respectively
116 (Table 1). Monoclonal anti-CD8 antibody was administered intravenously on days 5 and 7 to
117 three (D023, D024, and D025 in Group D) of the five macaques. All of the five macaques in

118 the second experiment showed comparable levels of viral RNAs and sgRNAs in
119 nasopharyngeal swabs on day 2 compared to the three macaques inoculated with 10^6 or 10^5
120 $TCID_{50}$ of SARS-CoV-2 in the first experiment (Fig 1A and Fig 2A). Indeed, no significant
121 difference in RNA levels in nasopharyngeal swabs on day 5 was observed between the first
122 three and the second five animals (Fig 1E). No clear difference in viral loads in either
123 nasopharyngeal or throat swabs on days 2 and 5 was observed between macaques inoculated
124 with 10^6 ($n = 3$) and 10^5 ($n = 5$) $TCID_{50}$ of SARS-CoV-2 (Fig 1C and 1D and Fig 2C and 2D).
125 Viral RNA in nasopharyngeal swabs was detectable until day 14 in N021 and day 10 in N022
126 following inoculation (Fig 1A, 1C, and 1D). SARS-CoV-2 sgRNAs in nasopharyngeal swabs
127 were detected until day 5 in N021 and day 7 in N022 following inoculation (Fig 2A, 2C, and
128 2D). Collectively, in the first and second experiments, intranasal inoculation of cynomolgus
129 macaques with 10^6 or 10^5 $TCID_{50}$ of SARS-CoV-2 resulted in viral replication with viral RNA
130 detectable for 10-17 days in nasopharyngeal swabs.

131 132 **Kinetics of SARS-CoV-2 infection after CD8⁺ cell depletion**

133 We then investigated the effect of CD8⁺ cell depletion on viral replication in the subacute
134 phase of SARS-CoV-2 infection. In the three Group D macaques administered with anti-CD8
135 antibody on days 5 and 7, CD8⁺ T cells were undetectable in peripheral blood on day 7 and
136 thereafter (Fig 3). These three macaques showed comparable levels of viral RNA in
137 nasopharyngeal swabs before (day 5) and after (day 7) anti-CD8 antibody treatment compared
138 to the five untreated Group N macaques (Fig 1F). Viral RNA in nasopharyngeal swabs was
139 detectable until day 10 in D025 and day 14 in macaques D023 in D024 after virus inoculation
140 (Fig 1A, 1C, and 1D). Viral sgRNAs in nasopharyngeal swabs were detected until day 2 in
141 D023, day 5 in D024, and day 7 in D025 (Fig 2A, 2C, and 2D). Collectively, no clear difference
142 in viral RNA levels in swabs was observed for the three anti-CD8 antibody-treated Group D

143 versus the five untreated Group N macaques.

144 We also examined whether virus could be recovered from individual swab samples (Table
145 2). SARS-CoV-2 was recovered from nasopharyngeal and throat swabs from all eight animals
146 intranasally inoculated with either 10^6 or 10^5 TCID₅₀. Virus was recovered for 2-12 days in anti-
147 CD8 antibody-untreated macaques (until day 2 in N021, day 5 in N013 and N022, day 7 in
148 N011, and day 12 in N012) and for 2-7 days in anti-CD8 antibody-treated macaques (until day
149 2 in D024 and day 7 in D023 and D025). There was no indication of enhanced virus recovery
150 after CD8 cell depletion.

151 Macaque N021 was euthanized on day 14, while the remaining animals were euthanized
152 on day 21 post-infection (Table 1). Examination of body temperature showed transient slight
153 fever in some animals (on day 2 in N021 and D025; on day 6 in D023 and D024; on days 13-
154 19 in N012) (S1 Fig). Histopathological analysis of the lung obtained at necropsy on day 14 in
155 macaque N021 revealed mild or moderate pulmonary inflammation (S2 Fig), whereas no
156 significant pathology in the lung was detected on day 21 in other animals.

157 RNA was extracted from the pharyngeal mucosa, retropharyngeal lymph nodes (RPLN),
158 lung, intestine, and spleen obtained at necropsy, and subjected to RT-PCR for detection of viral
159 RNA (Table 3). Viral RNA was undetectable in tissues from macaques N012, N014, N021,
160 D023, and D024. However, viral RNA was detected in the RPLN of N011, in the pharyngeal
161 mucosa, RPLN, and spleen of N013, and in the spleens of N022 and D025. Additionally, viral
162 sgRNAs were also detectable in pharyngeal mucosa, RPLN, and spleen of N013. There was no
163 evidence of enhanced viral replication in anti-CD8 antibody-treated macaques.

164

165 **Antibody and T-cell responses in macaques after intranasal SARS-CoV-2 inoculation**

166 Anti-SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibody (NAb) responses were induced in all the
167 macaques after intranasal SARS-CoV-2 inoculation (Fig 4) NAb responses were detected on

168 day 7 in macaques N021 and D025 only, and in all animals on day 14. Macaques D025 and
169 D024 exhibited the highest and lowest NAb titers, respectively. No clear difference in NAb
170 responses was observed between the three anti-CD8 antibody-treated and the five untreated
171 macaques.

172 Finally, we examined CD8⁺ T-cell responses specific for SARS-CoV-2 spike (S),
173 nucleocapsid (N), and membrane-and-envelope (M&E) antigens in the five anti-CD8 antibody-
174 untreated macaques inoculated with 10⁶ or 10⁵ TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2. In the analysis using
175 peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs), SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses
176 were undetectable in macaque N013 but detected in the remaining four macaques (Fig 5A and
177 5B). Macaque N022 exhibited CD8⁺ T-cell responses on day 7 while the remaining three
178 macaques (N011, N012, and N021) showed initial SARS-CoV-2 specific responses on day 14.
179 Analysis using submandibular lymph nodes (SMLN) obtained at necropsy found SARS-CoV-
180 2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses in macaques N011, N013, and N021 (Fig 5C). Interestingly,
181 SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses were undetectable in PBMCs but detected in
182 SMLN in macaque N013. Thus, SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses were detected in
183 all the five anti-CD8 antibody-untreated Group N macaques inoculated with 10⁶ or 10⁵ TCID₅₀
184 of SARS-CoV-2.

185

186 **Discussion**

187 Host T-cell and B-cell responses have been reported to contribute to the control of SARS-
188 CoV-2 replication [8,12,13,28]. In a murine model of infection with a mouse-adapted strain of
189 SARS-CoV, depletion of CD4⁺ T cells resulted in reduced neutralizing antibody responses and
190 delayed virus clearance from the lung [34]. Furthermore, SARS-CoV replication was controlled
191 in the absence of CD4⁺ T and B cells, implicating CD8⁺ T cells in viral control [35]. Recent
192 studies in humans have shown that functional virus-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses are induced
193 in convalescent COVID-19 individuals [29,30]. These reports suggest contribution of CD8⁺ T
194 cells in the control of SARS-CoV-2 replication. However, it remains unclear whether SARS-
195 CoV-2 replication can be controlled in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells. In the present study, we
196 investigated the impact of depletion of CD8⁺ cells (including CD8⁺ T cells) by anti-CD8
197 antibody administration on SARS-CoV-2 replication in the subacute phase after establishment
198 of virus infection. We found no significant enhancement of viral replication or delay in viral
199 clearance after CD8⁺ cell depletion, indicating that subacute SARS-CoV-2 replication can be
200 controlled in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells.

201 Our findings do not deny the contribution of CD8⁺ T cells in the control of SARS-CoV-
202 2 replication or the possibility of viral protection by vaccine-induced CD8⁺ T cells. What is
203 indicated in the present study is that CD8⁺ T-cell dysfunction is not directly linked to failure in
204 viral control, possibly implying that there may be multiple arms of host immune mechanisms
205 involved in containing SARS-CoV-2 replication.

206 An animal model for SARS-CoV-2 infection is necessary for analysis of pathogenesis
207 and transmission and the evaluation of vaccines and anti-viral drugs. Non-human primate
208 models are recognized as being the most clinically relevant because of their genetic and
209 physiological similarities to humans. Recent studies have shown that rhesus and cynomolgus
210 macaques can be infected with SARS-CoV-2 and exhibit clinical manifestations resembling

211 human COVID-19 [32,36-38]. Both macaque species present mild to moderate forms of
212 COVID-19, which is observed in the majority of the human population. We thus used a model
213 of SARS-CoV-2 infection in cynomolgus macaques for analysis of the effect of CD8⁺ cell
214 depletion on virus replication.

215 We attempted SARS-CoV-2 inoculation via the intranasal route only without
216 intratracheal inoculation, because it may more closely reflect viral transmissions in humans.
217 The geometric means of peak viral RNAs and sgRNAs in nasopharyngeal swabs (on day 2)
218 were 2.7×10^8 (range: 1.1×10^8 to 5.2×10^8) and 1.0×10^6 (range: 1.8×10^5 to 1.8×10^6)
219 copies/swab, respectively, which are equivalent to those in rhesus macaques inoculated both
220 intranasally and intratracheally with 10^5 TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2 [32,33]. In macaques
221 inoculated with 10^5 TCID₅₀ (1.4×10^8 RNA copies) of SARS-CoV-2, viral RNA copies in
222 nasopharyngeal swabs on day 2 were comparable (N012) to or greater (N013, N022, D024, and
223 D025) than the total viral RNA copies in the inoculum, confirming viral replication in macaques
224 even with 10^5 TCID₅₀. The three macaques inoculated with 10^6 TCID₅₀ showed similar levels
225 of viral RNA in nasopharyngeal swabs on days 2 and 5 compared to the five macaques with 10^5
226 TCID₅₀. All the eight macaques intranasally inoculated with 10^6 or 10^5 TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-
227 2 developed efficient anti-SARS-CoV-2 NAb responses, and the five anti-CD8 antibody-
228 untreated macaques induced SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses. Taken together, our
229 results show that intranasal inoculation of cynomolgus macaques with 10^6 or 10^5 TCID₅₀ of
230 SARS-CoV-2 results in viral replication in the pharyngeal mucosa. Containment of viral
231 replication in the pharyngeal mucosa would be important for the control of further viral
232 transmission as well as disease progression.

233 Our cynomolgus macaque model of intranasal but not intratracheal SARS-CoV-2
234 inoculation is considered to represent asymptomatic or mild COVID-19. However,
235 histopathological analysis of the lung detected pulmonary inflammation in one animal (N021)

236 on day 14 post-infection (S2 Fig), suggesting the potential of intranasal SARS-CoV-2
237 inoculation to induce moderate pulmonary diseases. Other animals may also have developed
238 mild pulmonary inflammation detectable on day 14, which was resolved by day 21. Macaque
239 N013 showed a unique phenotype with undetectable viral RNAs in swabs after day 14 (Fig 1D)
240 but relatively higher levels of viral RNA in pharyngeal mucosa and submandibular lymph nodes
241 on day 21 post-infection (Table 3). Virus-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses were undetectable in
242 PBMCs but efficiently detected in the submandibular lymph nodes on day 21 (Fig 5),
243 suggesting localized virus replication in the pharyngeal mucosa.

244 The sample size used in this study is relatively limited (three anti-CD8 antibody treated
245 animals and five untreated controls). However, these three animals exhibited similar levels of
246 pharyngeal viral loads before the anti-CD8 antibody treatment, and again showed similar levels
247 of viral loads after CD8⁺ cell depletion. Neither enhancement of viral replication nor delay in
248 viral control was observed. Therefore, this study provides sufficient evidence for our conclusion.

249 In summary, the present study showed that subacute SARS-CoV-2 replication can be
250 controlled even in the absence of CD8⁺ T cells. In SARS-CoV-2 infection, CD8⁺ T-cell
251 responses may contribute to viral control, but our results suggest that CD8⁺ T-cell dysfunction
252 does not solely lead to viral control failure or disease progression.

253

254 **Materials and Methods**

255 **Ethics statement**

256 Animal experiments were performed in the National Institute of Infectious Diseases
257 (NIID) after approval by the Committee on the Ethics of Animal Experiments in NIID
258 (permission number: 520001) under the guidelines for animal experiments in accordance with
259 the Guidelines for Proper Conduct of Animal Experiments established by the Science Council
260 of Japan (<http://www.scj.go.jp/ja/info/kohyo/pdf/kohyo-20-k16-2e.pdf>). The experiments were
261 in accordance with the "Weatherall report for the use of non-human primates in research"
262 recommendations (<https://royalsociety.org/topics-policy/publications/2006/weatherall-report/>).
263 Each macaque was housed in a separate cage and received standard primate feed and fresh fruit
264 daily. Virus inoculation, blood collection, nasopharyngeal and throat swab collection, and anti-
265 CD8 antibody treatment were performed under ketamine anesthesia. Macaques were euthanized
266 by whole blood collection under deep anesthesia on day 14 or 21 post-infection.

267

268 **Animal experiments**

269 SARS-CoV-2 wk-521 strain [39] (2019-nCoV/Japan/TY/WK-521/2020, GenBank
270 Accession LC522975) was expanded in Vero E6/TMPRSS2 cells [39] and harvested to prepare
271 a virus inoculum stock. Virus infectivity was assessed by detection of cytopathic effect (CPE)
272 on Vero E6/TMPRSS2 cells and determination of endpoint titers. Nine cynomolgus macaques
273 (*Macaca fascicularis*, 3-6 years old) were intranasally inoculated with the same stock of SARS-
274 CoV-2 wk-521 at a dose of 10^6 (exactly 7.5×10^5) TCID₅₀ (1.4×10^9 RNA copies) (n = 3), 10^5
275 (exactly 7.5×10^4) TCID₅₀ (n = 5), or 10^4 (exactly 7.5×10^3) TCID₅₀ (n = 1) (Table 1). Three
276 (Group D) of the nine macaques were intravenously administered with 5 mg/kg body weight
277 of anti-CD8 α antibody clone MT807 (NIH Nonhuman Primate Reagent Resource) on days 5
278 and 7 post-infection. Body temperature was measured with a small implantable thermo logger

279 (DST micro-T; Star-Oddi) that was set intraperitoneally under ketamine anesthesia at least five
280 days prior to virus inoculation. Macaques were euthanized and subjected to necropsy on day 14
281 or 21 post-infection (Table 1).

282

283 **Detection of SARS-CoV-2 RNAs**

284 Swab RNA was extracted from 0.2 ml of swab solutions (1ml of DMEM with 2% fetal
285 bovine serum [Cytiva]) using QIAamp Viral RNA Minikit (QIAGEN) and subjected to real-
286 time RT-PCR for viral RNA quantitation [40] using QuantiTect Probe RT-PCR Kit (Qiagen)
287 and QuantStudio 5 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Swab RNAs were also subjected to real-time
288 RT-PCR for measurement of viral subgenomic RNA (sgRNA) levels [32,33,41] using the
289 following primers: SARS2-LeaderF60 (5'-CGATCTCTTGATAGATCTGTTCTCT-3'), SARS2-
290 N28354R (5'-TCTGAGGGTCCACCAAACGT-3'), and SARS2-N28313Fam (FAM-
291 TCAGCGAAATGCACCCCGCA-TAMRA). Tissue RNAs were extracted from homogenized
292 tissues by using TRIzol™ Plus RNA Purification Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with phenol-
293 chloroform extraction and subjected to real-time RT-PCR for detection of viral RNAs.

294

295 **Virus recovery from swabs**

296 Vero E6/TMPRSS2 cells in 96-well plates were added with 10-fold serially diluted swab
297 solutions and cultured for 4 days without medium change. Virus recovery was assessed by
298 detection of CPE and determination of endpoint titers. Swab samples with virus titers greater
299 than 1×10^2 TCID₅₀/swab were considered positive.

300

301 **Analysis of anti-SARS-CoV-2 NAb responses**

302 Plasma samples were heat inactivated for 30 min at 56 °C. Serial two-fold dilutions of
303 heat-inactivated plasma were tested in quadruplicate. In each mixture for quadruplicate testing,

304 40 μ l of diluted plasma were incubated with 40 μ l of 80 TCID₅₀ SARS-CoV-2 wk-521. After
305 incubation for 45 min at room temperature, 20 μ l of the mixture was added to each of four wells
306 (1×10^4 Vero cells/well) in a 96-well plate. Three days later, virus infectivity was assessed by
307 detection of CPE to determine the endpoint titers. The lower limit of detection was 1:10.

308

309 **Analysis of cell surface markers**

310 Whole blood samples were treated with Lysing Solution (BD) and subjected to surface
311 staining using anti-CD3 APC-Cy7 (SP34-2; BD), anti-CD4 FITC (M-T477; BD), anti-CD8
312 PerCP (SK1; BD), and anti-CD20 PE (2H7; BD) antibodies. Alternatively, whole blood
313 samples from anti-CD8 antibody-treated animals were stained with anti-CD3 APC-Cy7, anti-
314 CD4 PerCP (L200; BD), anti-CD8 FITC (DK25; FUJIFILM), and anti-CD20 PE. Stained cells
315 were analyzed by BD FACS Canto II.

316

317 **Analysis of SARS-CoV-2 antigen-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses**

318 Virus-specific CD8⁺ T-cell frequencies were measured by flow cytometric analysis of
319 gamma interferon (IFN- γ) induction after specific stimulation as described previously [42].
320 PBMCs were prepared from whole blood by density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll-Paque
321 PLUS (Cytiva). Lymph node-derived lymphocytes were prepared from minced lymph nodes by
322 density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll-Paque PLUS. Cells were pulsed and cocultured
323 with peptide pools (at a final concentration of more than 0.1 μ M for each peptide) using panels
324 of overlapping peptides spanning the SARS-CoV-2 S, N, M, and E amino acid sequences (PM-
325 WCPV-S-1, PM-WCPV-NCAP-1, PM-WCPV-VME-1, and PM-WCPV-VEMP-1; JPT Peptide
326 Technologies) in the presence of GolgiStop (monensin, BD), 1 μ g/ml of anti-CD28 (CD28.2,
327 BD) and 1 μ g/ml anti-CD49d (9F10, BD) for 6 hours. Intracellular IFN- γ staining was
328 performed with a CytotfixCytoperm kit (BD) and anti-CD3 APC-Cy7, anti-CD4 FITC, anti-

329 CD8 PerCP, and anti-IFN- γ PE (4S.B3; BioLegend). Stained cells were analyzed by BD FACS
330 Lyric. A representative gating schema for flow cytometric analysis is shown in Fig. 5A. Specific
331 T-cell frequencies were calculated by subtracting nonspecific IFN- γ ⁺ T-cell frequencies from
332 those after peptide-specific stimulation. Specific T-cell frequencies less than 0.03% of CD8⁺ T
333 cells were considered negative.

334

335 **Statistical analysis**

336 Statistical analyses were performed using Prism software (GraphPad Software, Inc.) with
337 significance set at p values of < 0.05 . Comparisons were performed by Mann-Whitney U test.

338

339

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344

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473

474 **Supporting Information**

475 **S1 Fig. Changes in body temperatures pre- and post-infection in macaques.**

476

477 **S2 Fig. Histopathology of the lung in macaque N021.**

478 Representative histopathology with hematoxylin and eosin staining (H&E) of the lung obtained
479 from macaque N021 at autopsy on day 14 post-infection, indicating mild or moderate
480 pulmonary inflammation. Infiltration of mononuclear cells were observed around blood vessels
481 and bronchiole (upper left panel). Lymphocytes, eosinophils, and macrophages were observed
482 in pulmonary alveoli (upper right and lower panels).

483

484 **Figure Captions**

485 **Fig 1. Viral RNA levels in swabs.**

486 (A-D) Changes in viral RNA levels in nasopharyngeal (A, C, D) and throat (B) swabs after
487 SARS-CoV-2 infection in all animals (A, B) or those infected with 10^6 (C) or 10^5 (D) TCID₅₀
488 of SARS-CoV-2. The lower limit of detection was approximately 3×10^3 copies/swab. (E)
489 Comparison of viral RNA levels in nasopharyngeal swabs at day 5 post-infection between 10^6
490 TCID₅₀-infected and 10^5 TCID₅₀-infected macaques. No significant difference was observed.
491 (F) Comparison of viral RNA levels in nasopharyngeal swabs at days 5 (left), 7 (middle), and
492 9-12 (right) post-infection between Group N and D animals infected with 10^6 or 10^5 TCID₅₀ of
493 SARS-CoV-2. No significant difference was observed.

494

495 **Fig 2. Viral subgenomic RNA levels in swabs.**

496 Changes in viral sgRNA levels in nasopharyngeal (A, C, D) and throat (B) swabs after SARS-
497 CoV-2 infection in all animals (A, B) or those infected with 10^6 (C) or 10^5 (D) TCID₅₀ of SARS-
498 CoV-2. The lower limit of detection was approximately 3×10^3 copies/swab.

499

500 **Fig 3. Peripheral blood B- and T-cell frequencies.**

501 Changes in %CD3⁺, %CD3⁺CD4⁺, %CD3⁺CD8⁺, and %CD3⁻CD20⁺ T cells in macaque
502 PBMCs after SARS-CoV-2 infection.

503

504 **Fig 4. SARS-CoV-2-specific neutralizing antibody responses.**

505 Changes in plasma anti-SARS-CoV-2 neutralizing antibody titers post-infection in all animals
506 (left) or those infected with 10^6 (middle) or 10^5 (right) TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2.

507

508 **Fig 5. SARS-CoV-2-specific CD8⁺ T-cell responses.**

509 (A) Representative gating schema for detection of IFN- γ induction after stimulation with
510 overlapping M&E peptide pools in macaque N012 on day 14 post-infection. (B) Frequencies
511 of CD8⁺ T cells targeting S, N, and M&E in PBMCs on days 7, 14, and 21 post-infection in
512 Group N animals infected with 10⁶ (middle) or 10⁵ (right) TCID₅₀ of SARS-CoV-2. (C)
513 Frequencies of CD8⁺ T cells targeting S, N, and M & E in submandibular lymph nodes obtained
514 at necropsy in macaques N011, N013, N021, and N022. Samples were unavailable for analysis
515 in macaque N012.

516

517

Table 1. Macaque experimental protocol

Group	Experiment ^a	Macaques	Gender	Age (yrs)	SARS-CoV-2 dose ^b (TCID ₅₀)	anti-CD8 Ab Tx ^c	Necropsy ^d
N	1	N011	male	6	10 ⁶	NT	d21
N	1	N012	male	6	10 ⁵	NT	d21
N	1	N013	male	6	10 ⁵	NT	d21
- ^e	1	N014	male	6	10 ⁴	NT	d21
N	2	N021	female	3	10 ⁶	NT	d14
N	2	N022	female	3	10 ⁵	NT	d21
D	2	D023	male	6	10 ⁶	d5 & d7	d21
D	2	D024	male	6	10 ⁵	d5 & d7	d21
D	2	D025	female	3	10 ⁵	d5 & d7	d21

518

^aTwo sets of experiments were performed using the same SARS-CoV-2 inoculum stock.

519

^bMacaques were intranasally inoculated with the indicated doses (10⁶ [exactly 7.5 x 10⁵], 10⁵ [exactly 7.5 x 10⁴], or 10⁴ [exactly 7.5 x 10³] TCID₅₀) of SARS-CoV-2 on day 0.

520

521

^cMacaques in Group D were treated intravenously with anti-CD8 antibody on days 5 and 7 post-infection. NT, not treated.

522

523

^dMacaques were euthanized and necropsied on day 14 or 21 post-infection.

524

^eN014 was excluded from comparisons between groups N and D.

525

526

Table 2. Virus recovery from pharyngeal swabs after SARS-CoV-2 infection

Macaques	Virus recovery from swabs ^a								
	d0	d2	d5	d7	d9/10	d12	d14	d17	d21
N011	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
N012	-	+	+	+	-	+	-	-	-
	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N013	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
N014	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N021	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
N022	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D023	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D024	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
D025	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-
	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-

527

528

529

530

^aSwab samples were added to Vero-E6 cell culture to recover infectious virus. + indicates successful virus recovery from nasopharyngeal (upper row) or throat (lower row) swabs for each animal.

531 **Table 3. Detection of viral RNA in tissues obtained at necropsy**

Macaques	Autopsy	Detection of viral RNA in tissues ^a				
		Pharyngeal mucosa	Retropharyngeal lymph node	Lung	Intestine	Spleen
N011	d21	-	+	-	-	-
N012	d21	-	-	-	-	-
N013	d21	+	+	-	-	+
N014	d21	-	-	-	-	-
N021	d14	-	-	-	-	-
N022	d21	-	-	-	-	+
D023	d21	-	-	-	-	-
D024	d21	-	-	-	-	-
D025	d21	-	-	-	-	+

532 ^aRNA was extracted from individual tissues and subjected to RT-PCR to detect SARS-CoV-2
533 RNA. + indicates detection of viral RNA.









