A flexible genome-scale SARS-CoV-2 clone resource

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Abstract
The world is facing a global pandemic of COVID-19 caused by the SARS-CoV-2 coronavirus. Here we describe a collection of codon-optimized coding sequences for SARS-CoV-2 cloned into Gateway-compatible entry vectors, which enable rapid transfer into a variety of expression and tagging vectors. The collection is freely available. We hope that widespread availability of this SARS-CoV-2 resource will enable many subsequent molecular studies to better understand the viral life cycle and how to block it.

Author Summary
The current COVID-19 pandemic is motivating widespread efforts to understand the life cycle and spread of the SARS-CoV-2 virus, as a foundation for rational development of preventive and therapeutic measures. We therefore generated a comprehensive and flexible collection of SARS-CoV-2 DNA fragments encoding viral protein coding sequences (CDSs), and have made it widely available both directly and via a non-profit distributor. We used the Gateway cloning system to allow efficient transfer of any viral CDS into a wide range of vectors enabling a wide variety of studies, such as expression, tagging, purification, or various interaction or activity assays, to better understand the virus and interaction with its host.

Introduction
A global pandemic of the coronavirus disease COVID-19, a severe respiratory illness caused by a novel virus from the family Coronaviridae (SARS-CoV-2), has infected millions and caused hundreds of thousands of deaths [1]. COVID-19 manifestation in patients can range from asymptomatic (no symptoms) to severe pneumonia and death [2]. Early analysis of the outbreak in China outlines symptoms that commonly include fever, dry cough, shortness of breath and myalgia [3]. Person-to-person spread through respiratory droplets has been identified as a major
source of transmission of the virus [4]. To limit contagion, various measures from social distancing to nationwide lockdowns, have been imposed to contain and control the transmission of SARS-CoV-2 [5]. Despite these measures, the number of confirmed COVID-19 cases has continued to rise [1], highlighting the need for an effective vaccine and antiviral agents. Furthermore, the extrapolations concerning the evolution of the pandemic are particularly alarming [6]. It is therefore of intense and pressing interest to better understand this virus and its interaction with host cells on a molecular level.

Shortly after the outbreak, the complete genome of two SARS-CoV-2 strains were published [7,8]. Using the genome sequence as a reference, Chan et al. identified 12 viral open reading frames (ORFs), including ORF1ab, a large polyprotein which is post-translationally processed into 16 proteins [7]. More recently, Wu et al. discovered two additional viral ORFs (ORF9Bwu and ORF10wu) with unclear functions [8]. Progress on molecular characterization has been made on several viral proteins [9,10], providing valuable insights into host-virus interaction. However, more research is necessary. The Gateway system offers efficient and high-throughput transfer of the viral coding sequences (CDSs) into a large selection of Gateway-compatible destination vectors used for protein expression in many biological systems, e.g. *Escherichia coli*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, insect, or mammalian cells [11]. Broad availability of a collection of SARS-CoV-2 CDSs has the potential to enable many downstream biochemical and structural studies and thus a better understanding of processes within the viral life cycle, possibly yielding scalable assays for screening drug candidates that could disrupt these processes.

**Results and Discussion**

A total of 98 clones (Table 1) are currently included in the Gateway-compatible collection, covering 28 out of 29 total annotated CDSs in the SARS-CoV-2 genome. NSP11 was omitted due to the incompatibility of its 36 base pair length with the Gateway cloning system [12]. All 28
of these CDS regions are available in clones with and without termination codons. The ‘no-stop’ collection was further extended to include six clones encoding different cleaved products of the spike (S) protein — S-fragment 1–6. We also included two CDS variants with in-frame deletions (S-24nt and E-27nt), one truncated CDS variant (ORF8B-truncated), that were each detected by recent viral transcriptome mapping efforts [13,14] and two missense catalytic variants (NSP3 C857A and NSP5 C146A) [20].
Table 1. The genome-scale SARS-CoV-2 coding sequence clone collection.

| Gene Symbol | CDS Name | Putative Function/Domain | AA Length | Clone Status |
|-------------|----------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------|
|             |          |                          |           | STOP NO STOP TEV |
| NSP1        |          | Suppress antiviral host response | 180       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP2        |          | Unknown                  | 639       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP3        |          | Putative PL-pro domain   | 1,946     | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP3-C857A  |          | Putative PL-pro domain (with C857A variant) | 1,946 | ✓ ✓ NA |
| NSP4        |          | Complex with NSP3 & 6 for DMV (double-membrane vesicle) formation | 501 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP5        |          | 3CL-pro domain           | 307       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP5-C146A  |          | 3CL-pro domain (with C146A variant) | 307 | ✓ ✓ NA |
| NSP6        |          | Complex with NSP 3 & 4 for DMV formation | 291 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP7        |          | DNA primase subunits     | 84        | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP8        |          |                          | 199       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP9        |          | RNA/DNA binding activity | 114       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP10       |          | Complex with NSP14: Replication fidelity | 140 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP12       |          | RNA-dependent RNA polymerase | 919 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP13       |          | Helicase                 | 602       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP14       |          | ExoN: 3’-5’ exonuclease  | 528       | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP15       |          | XendoU: poly(U)-specific endoribonuclease | 347 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| NSP16       |          | 2’-O’-MT: 2’-O-ribo methyltransferase | 299 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| S           | S        | Spike glycoprotein trimer that binds to host cell receptors (e.g. ACE2) | 1,273 | ✓ ✓ ✓ |
| S           | S-24nt   | Spike glycoprotein trimer (minus 8 amino acids) | 1,265 | ✓ ✓ NA |
| S           | S-frag1  | Entire Ectodomain       | 1,213     | NA ✓ NA |
| S           | S-frag2  | Entire Ectodomain without the signal peptide | 1,199 | NA ✓ NA |
| Gene   | Description                                                                 | Accession | Available | Clone Availability | Notes |
|--------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------------|-------|
| S      | S-frag3 N-term fragment after the furin cleavage                            | 686       | ✓         | NA                  |       |
| S      | S-frag4 N-term fragment after the furin cleavage without the signal peptide| 672       | ✓         | NA                  |       |
| S      | S-frag5 C-terminal Ectodomain from the furin cleavage site                  | 528       | ✓         | NA                  |       |
| S      | S-frag6 C-terminal Ectodomain from the Tmpress 2 priming site               | 399       | ✓         | NA                  |       |
| ORF3A  | 3A Induce inflammatory response and apoptosis                               | 275       | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF3B  | 3B Induce inflammatory response and inhibit the expression of IFNβ          | 58        | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| E      | E Envelope protein pentamer                                                 | 75        | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| E      | E-27nt Envelope protein pentamer (minus 9 amino acids)                       | 66        | ✓         | ✓                   | NA    |
| M      | M Membrane protein                                                           | 222       | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF6   | 6 Antagonize STAT1 function and IFN signalling, and induce DNA synthesis    | 61        | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF7A  | 7A Induce inflammatory response and apoptosis                               | 121       | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF7B  | 7B Induce inflammatory response                                             | 43        | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF7B  | 7B-trunc Induce inflammatory response (with N terminus truncated)           | 20        | ✓         | ✓                   | NA    |
| ORF8   | 8 Induce apoptosis and DNA synthesis                                        | 121       | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| N      | N Facilitate viral RNA packaging                                            | 419       | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF9B  | 9B Induce apoptosis                                                          | 98        | ✓         | ✓                   | ✓     |
| ORF9Bwu| 9Bwu Unknown                                                                | 73        | ✓         | ✓                   | NA    |
| ORF10wu| 10wu Unknown                                                                | 38        | ✓         | ✓                   | NA    |

✓ indicates that clone is available; NA indicates that the clone was not available the time of this writing.
Although our collection facilitates tagging of SARS-CoV-2 proteins for various functional studies, certain applications require removal of tags at some stage, for example, after protein purification. Fusion proteins can potentially interfere with the yield, structure, and function of purified proteins, such as during large scale production and crystallography studies. To address this we expanded our collection to include clones containing an N-terminal recognition sequence for nuclear inclusion protease from tobacco etch virus (TEV) [15,16]. The TEV sequence is one of the best characterized and widely used endoproteolytic reagents due to its stringent sequence specificity, ease of production, and ability to tolerate a variety of residues at the P1’ position of its recognition site [17].

To promote open-access dissemination of the collection, all clones have been deposited to the non-profit organization Addgene [18], and freely available from the authors in circumstances where Addgene cannot be used. S2 Table summarizes all CDSs in the collection, together with their nucleotide sequences, nucleotide and amino acid lengths and direct links to order clones.

We hope that this SARS-CoV-2 CDS-clone collection will be a valuable resource for many applications, including study of how coronaviruses can exploit host cellular processes for the viral replication cycle [19], understanding virus-host protein-protein interactions [20,21], production of recombinant virus proteins for structural studies [22], mapping of protein subcellular localization using N-terminal fluorescent reporters [23], or development of vaccines or other therapeutics [24,25].

Materials and Methods

Synthesis of viral coding sequences

Based on the published annotation of the genome sequence of the HKU-SZ-005b (GenBank MN975262) [7] and Wuhan-Hu-1 (GenBank MN908947) [8] isolates of SARS-CoV-2, we requested the synthesis of viral coding sequences (GenScript, IDT), including termination
codons and attB recombination sequences, with optimization of codon usage to reduce GC content and optimize expression in human and insect cells. A start codon was added to NSP2–16 to allow independent transcription and translation, as the endogenous product is derived from ORF1 by post-translational processing. ORF9Bwu, an alternative ORF within the N gene from the SARS-COV-2 [8], was subsequently amplified by Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) from the viral N gene with primers listed in S1 Table.

*Generation of Gateway-compatible viral coding sequence clone collections*

Synthesized viral coding sequences were incorporated into Gateway Entry plasmids: either pDONR207 (Invitrogen Cat #12213013) or pDONR223 [26]. To enable C-terminal fusion constructs, we also generated an equivalent set of Gateway-compatible clones without termination codons. These clones were made by either PCR-amplifying the whole plasmid with primers that eliminated the stop codon, or by amplifying CDS regions from the first collection, using downstream primers with complementary regions that were internal to each stop codon, and which simultaneously incorporated the flanking sequences necessary for incorporation into a Gateway Entry plasmid (pDONR207, pDONR221 (Invitrogen Cat #12536017) and pDONR223).

To enable the removal of N-terminal fusion tags, we further expanded our collection to include clones containing N-terminal recognition sequence for nuclear inclusion protease from tobacco etch virus (TEV). TEV sequences were incorporated by amplifying CDS regions from the first collection using forward primers containing TEV sequences and original reverse primers.

Each SARS-CoV-2 CDS bacterial clone (DH5alpha *E. coli* strain, NEB Cat #C2987) was isolated from a single colony, and its inserted CDS was confirmed by full-length Sanger sequencing (TCAG DNA sequencing facility, Toronto, Canada). All clones with a pDONR221 or pDONR223 backbone were sequenced with M13F and M13R primers. Clones with a pDONR207
backbone were sequenced with customized forward and reverse primers. All primer sequences are available in S1 Table.

Supporting information

S1 Table. Primers used for amplifying and Sanger sequencing viral coding sequences.

S2 Table. Clones in the genome-scale SARS-CoV-2 coding sequence collection, together with their nucleotide and amino acid lengths, coding sequence and direct links to Addgene.
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