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## **SARS-CoV-2 transmission via apical syncytia release from primary bronchial epithelia and infectivity restriction in children epithelia** — [Source link](#)

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**Published on:** 28 May 2021 - bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)

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2 **SARS-CoV-2 transmission via apical syncytia release from primary bronchial epithelia and**  
3 **infectivity restriction in children epithelia**

4

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23 **Author Contributions:** \*These authors contributed equally, #These authors contributed equally

24 **Competing Interest Statement:** The authors have no competing interest

25 **Keywords:** SARS-CoV-2, human bronchial epithelia, Age, Syncytia formation, IFN response

26 **This PDF file includes:**

27 Main Text  
28 Figures 1 to 5  
29 Tables 1  
30 Supplemental Figures S1 to S3  
31

32 **Abstract**

33 The beta-coronavirus SARS-CoV-2 is at the origin of a persistent worldwide pandemic. SARS-CoV-  
34 2 infections initiate in the bronchi of the upper respiratory tract and are able to disseminate to  
35 the lower respiratory tract eventually causing acute severe respiratory syndrome with a high  
36 degree of mortality in the elderly. Here we use reconstituted primary bronchial epithelia from  
37 adult and children donors to follow the infection dynamic following infection with SARS-CoV-2.  
38 We show that in bronchial epithelia derived from adult donors, infections initiate in multi-ciliated  
39 cells. Then, infection rapidly spread within 24-48h throughout the whole epithelia. Within 3-4  
40 days, large apical syncytia form between multi-ciliated cells and basal cells, which dissipate into  
41 the apical lumen. We show that these syncytia are a significant source of the released infectious  
42 dose. In stark contrast to these findings, bronchial epithelia reconstituted from children donors  
43 are intrinsically more resistant to virus infection and show active restriction of virus spread. This  
44 restriction is paired with accelerated release of IFN compared to adult donors. Taken together our  
45 findings reveal apical syncytia formation as an underappreciated source of infectious virus for  
46 either local dissemination or release into the environment. Furthermore, we provide direct  
47 evidence that children bronchial epithelia are more resistant to infection with SARS-CoV-2  
48 providing experimental support for epidemiological observations that SARS-CoV-2 cases' fatality  
49 is linked to age.

50 **Significance Statement**

51 Bronchial epithelia are the primary target for SARS-CoV-2 infections. Our work uses reconstituted  
52 bronchial epithelia from adults and children. We show that infection of adult epithelia with SARS-  
53 CoV-2 is rapid and results in the synchronized release of large clusters of infected cells and  
54 syncytia into the apical lumen contributing to the released infectious virus dose. Infection of  
55 children derived bronchial epithelia revealed an intrinsic resistance to infection and virus spread,  
56 probably as a result of a faster onset of interferon secretion. Thus, our data provide direct  
57 evidence for the epidemiological observation that children are less susceptible to SARS-CoV-2.

58  
59 **Main Text**

60  
61 **Introduction**

62  
63 Coronaviruses with zoonotic origin have emerged as a new public health concern during the first  
64 decades of the 21th century. Two highly pathogenic coronaviruses, severe acute respiratory

65 syndrome coronavirus (SARS-CoV) and Middle-East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-  
66 CoV), caused severe respiratory infections in humans during regionally confined epidemics in  
67 2002 (1) and between 2010-15 (2), respectively. In late 2019, clusters of patients with pneumonia  
68 in Wuhan in the Hubei province in China were shown to be infected with the novel severe acute  
69 respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) (3-5). SARS-CoV-2 infections are associated  
70 with acute respiratory illness referred to as Coronavirus disease (COVID-19). Since its description,  
71 SARS-CoV-2 infections are at the root of an enduring worldwide pandemic, having caused as of  
72 May 2021 over 3 million deaths and more than 148 million confirmed infections (data from the  
73 John Hopkins university coronavirus resource center, <https://coronavirus.jhu.edu/>). SARS-CoV-2  
74 is an enveloped virus with a positive single-stranded RNA of around 30 kb. The 5' proximal two  
75 thirds of the polyadenylated genome encodes ORF1a and ORF1b, which are autoproteolytically  
76 processed into several non-structural proteins required for replication and transcription. The  
77 distal third encodes for the 4 structural proteins, Envelope (E), Membrane (M), Nucleocapsid (N)  
78 and Spike (S) and seven putative ORFs encoding accessory proteins and potential virulence factors  
79 (6-8). The surface exposed Spike protein gives the virus its crown-like appearance in electron  
80 microscopy and mediates the attachment to the main cellular receptor ACE2 (9). Coronaviruses  
81 can cause a wide range of respiratory illnesses, from mild upper respiratory tract infection up to  
82 a severe acute respiratory syndrome (10). The latter is characterized by excessive cytological  
83 damage and inflammation. Post mortem biopsies in patients that died from COVID-19 point to  
84 airways and lungs as primary targets of the disease (11, 12) with advanced diffuse alveolar  
85 damage, pulmonary thrombosis and abnormal syncytia formation (13, 14). Several studies suggest  
86 that cytokine storm and inflammatory infiltrates in the alveolar space are associated with disease  
87 severity and death in COVID-19 (15, 16). While SARS-CoV-2 is genetically close to SARS-CoV, it  
88 shows much higher effective transmissibility (17, 18). One reason for this higher contagiousness  
89 is an active virus replication in tissues of the upper respiratory tract at an early stage of infection,  
90 with a high number of virus copies produced four days after the beginning of symptoms, and an  
91 active replication in the throat (19) (20). Furthermore, Zou et al (21) reported that the viral load  
92 detected in asymptomatic patients was similar to that of symptomatic patients on day 4 after  
93 symptoms onset, suggesting equal transmission potential of asymptomatic or minimally  
94 symptomatic patients at very early stages of infection (22). Epidemiological data have  
95 demonstrated that if all ages of the population are susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 infection, SARS-

96 CoV-2 infection severity is different between children *versus* the adult populations and varies with  
97 age (23). A recent multi-national epidemiologic study found that children under 9 years old have  
98 very low case-fatality rates of SARS-CoV-2 infection compared to older patients (24). Moreover,  
99 these studies consolidate a large discrepancy in death rates of SARS-CoV-2 infected patients  
100 associated with age. Death rate in children (<9 years) is under 0.001% increasing to 8% in elderly  
101 patients (>80 years). A recent metadata analysis of several studies came to the same correlation  
102 between age and severity (25). The reason for this age-related discrepancy is not clear and could  
103 be linked to a decreased transmission and/or viral load with SARS-CoV-2 in children compared to  
104 adults. Only limited data are available about the mechanism of viral spreading over time and how  
105 the virus is released from the epithelia and might participate in the transmission of the infection  
106 between individuals or within an individual. Over the course of a 51 days period, infection of a  
107 reconstituted human airway epithelium infected with SARS-CoV-2 showed multiple waves of viral  
108 replication associated with a degradation of tight junction and a decrease in ciliary expression (26,  
109 27). In this model, plaque-like cytopathic effects could be observed with the formation of multi-  
110 nucleated cells (28). Regarding the inflammatory response, interferon induction appears limited  
111 in the most severe clinical cases (29-31). In contrast, release of INF- $\lambda$  was induced at day 4 post-  
112 infection of bronchial epithelia (BE). Noteworthy, viral RNA production in BE increased at day 2,  
113 suggesting a delay in the induction of the cellular antiviral response. A very recent report studying  
114 cell-intrinsic changes occurring in differentiated human nasal epithelial cultures from children,  
115 adults and elderly, have shown that ageing contributed to viral load, transcriptional responses,  
116 IFN signaling and antiviral responses (32). Yet, such data using a model mimicking the human  
117 bronchial epithelium are still missing. Here, we developed a model of reconstituted bronchial  
118 epithelium (BE) in air-liquid interface derived from bronchial epithelium samples of adult donors,  
119 which is the primary site of SARS-CoV-2 infection. We monitored the replication of SARS-CoV-2  
120 over several days and followed virus spread in the epithelia. Using high-resolution imaging, we  
121 observed the massive formation and apical release of syncytia occurring between day three and  
122 four post-infection. We showed that syncytia and cells released into the apical lumen are  
123 infectious, suggesting they contribute to the spreading of the virus in the epithelium, and by  
124 extension, may transmit virus within the patient to the lower respiratory tract or into the  
125 environment. Furthermore, using reconstituted BE derived from children, we showed that viral  
126 production in children epithelia is very low compared to adults, and that viral spread is restricted.

127 These results may explain the clinical and epidemiological observations that SARS-CoV-2 is more  
128 likely to infect older patients than children and that older patients show more severe clinical  
129 manifestations.

130

## 131 **Results**

132

### 133 **Generation of a fully differentiated bronchial epithelia model**

134 One of the major initial targets for SARS-CoV-2 is the respiratory tract. Primary infections often  
135 initiate in the upper respiratory tract from which they can spread to the lower respiratory tract to  
136 cause severe disease (18). Bronchial epithelia are pseudo-stratified cell layers with typical cell  
137 junctions, as well as a mucus layer and beating cilia on the lumen side (33, 34). To study the SARS-  
138 CoV-2 infection process in a physiologically relevant model, we established a cellular *in vitro*  
139 model of bronchial epithelia differentiated in air-liquid interface from individual donors (Fig. S1).  
140 Primary bronchial epithelial cells were collected from surgical bronchial resection or fibroscopy  
141 from individual adult donors at the Bordeaux university hospital. Patients were between 46 and  
142 63 years old with a normal body mass index [BMI] (Table1). Basal epithelial cells were expanded  
143 *in vitro* in culture flask until confluence. Basal cells were then seeded on cell culture insert and  
144 differentiated at the air-liquid interface for approximately 21 days (Fig. S1A). Using this  
145 differentiation protocol, we were able to generate between 12-24 individual inserts from a single  
146 donor allowing comparative analysis. Immuno-fluorescence (IF) analysis confirmed the presence  
147 of differentiated cell types. Specific antibodies allowed the detection of acetylated tubulin and  
148 mucin, characteristic of multi-ciliated cells and goblet cells respectively (Fig. S1B, movie S1) or  
149 acetylated tubulin and cytokeratin 5 (multi-ciliated cells and basal cells, Fig. S1C, movie S2). This  
150 analysis confirmed the pseudostratified apical-to-basolateral organizational integrity of the  
151 epithelia, *e.g.* a single cell layer of apical multi-ciliated cells covering a layer of basal cells and was  
152 further confirmed by electron microscopy (Fig. S1D). The presence of well differentiated cilia  
153 structures and tight junctions was also confirmed (Fig. S1D). Next, we determined the localization  
154 of ACE2, the primary receptor for SARS-CoV-2 in our model using IF analysis (Fig. S1E, movie S3).  
155 Co-label with antibodies against ACE2 and acetylated tubulin confirmed that ACE2 was expressed  
156 in apical multi-ciliated cells as previously reported (4, 35). Moreover, our data showed a

157 prominent exposure of ACE2 on individual cilia reaching into the apical lumen (orange arrows),  
158 which suggests facilitated access *e.g.* for virus coming in through the respiratory tract.

159

#### 160 **SARS-CoV-2 monitoring and BE infection**

161 Next, BE were inoculated on the apical side with a suspension of a reference SARS-CoV-2 strain  
162 (BetaCoV/France/IDF0372/2020) at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.012. Apical and  
163 basolateral compartments were collected 3 days post-infection (dpi) and used to infect Vero E6  
164 cells (Fig. 1A). A cytopathic effect (CPE) was observed in the Vero E6 cell culture as early as 2 days  
165 post-infection when inoculated with the apical washes, indicating an effective infection and  
166 replication of the virus (Fig. 1A). When using the basal medium, 3 days of inoculation were  
167 necessary to observe a similar CPE (Fig. 1A). This faster appearance of CPE when using the apical  
168 fraction may be correlated to a higher viral titre compared to the basal medium. To ascertain that  
169 this CPE is indeed due to viral replication and not a toxic effect from the inoculation, we extracted  
170 total RNAs from the Vero E6 supernatant on the next day (4 dpi) and quantified viral RNAs using  
171 in-house qRT-PCR targeting the N-gene region. No RNA could be detected in the supernatant of  
172 Vero E6 cells inoculated with either the apical or basolateral fractions obtained from non-infected  
173 BE (Fig. 1B, control). In contrast, when using basolateral or the apical fraction from infected BEs,  
174 the Vero E6 supernatant contained high level of SARS-CoV-2 RNA, comparable to what is observed  
175 with a direct infection of Vero E6 cells infected at a MOI of 0.01 (Fig. 1B). These data attest that  
176 SARS-CoV-2 actively replicates in reconstituted BE and that inoculation from the apical side results  
177 in an active infection. To detect virus-infected cells, we generated monoclonal antibodies against  
178 the SARS-CoV-2 N nucleocapsid protein using bacterially expressed and purified full-length  
179 protein as detailed in the methods section. Hybridoma supernatants were tested using western  
180 blot and IF detection through confocal microscopy (Fig. S2). Of several positive clones, hybridoma  
181 clone 3G9 was selected for this study as it specifically recognized the N protein of SARS-CoV-2  
182 (Fig. S2A) and detected infected cells in IF staining (Fig. S2B). To investigate which cell type is the  
183 primary target during SARS-CoV-2 infection, fully differentiated epithelia were infected with SARS-  
184 CoV-2 at a MOI of 0.01 for 1 h from the apical side after which the viral suspension was removed.  
185 Epithelia were fixed 24h post-infection in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) and processed for IF

186 analysis using SARS-CoV-2-N specific antibodies. We successfully detected infected cells in the BE  
187 (green signal Fig. 1C-E). Specific co-label of Muc5A showed that goblet cells were not infected  
188 (magenta signal, Fig. 1C, movie S4). Similarly, no co-localization could be observed between the  
189 SARS-CoV-2 N protein and CytK5 showing that basal cells were not infected either (Fig. 1D, movie  
190 S5). Conversely, the signal arising for the N protein staining was systematically associated with  
191 strong labelling for acetylated tubulin, a specific marker for multi-ciliated cells (orange arrow, Fig.  
192 1E, movie S6). This is consistent with previous reports that apical multi-ciliated cells are the  
193 primary target cells for SARS-CoV-2 infection (4, 28, 36). In addition, all BEs were co-labelled with  
194 fluorescent phalloidin to mark cell boundaries for 3D imaging of the entire epithelial depth.  
195 Infected cells were exclusively located at the apical surface of the BE (Fig. 1C-E). All IF data were  
196 confirmed using BE generated from at least two different donors, suggesting that the primary  
197 infection of epithelial cells is determined by the epithelia architecture and is not due to the genetic  
198 background of the donor.

199

## 200 **Infection kinetic of epithelia from different adult donors**

201 To better understand how SARS-CoV-2 spreads in the epithelium after initial infection of multi-  
202 ciliated cells, we infected BEs from four individual adult donors (A1 to A4, Table 1) and monitored  
203 them over the course of 7 days. Low magnification images obtained using IF microscopy showed  
204 that N protein could be detected within 24h of infection in a small number of cells (Fig. 2A).  
205 Nonetheless, the signal number and intensity increased drastically from the 2 dpi time-point and  
206 tended to decrease slightly towards the end of the observation period (Fig. 2A). Similar results  
207 were obtained with the other two donors suggesting rapid onset of viral replication and spread  
208 (not shown). We quantified the number of N-positive signals at low resolution for each donor  
209 confirming that the number of infected cells strongly increased within two to three days of the  
210 initial infection, reaching a maximum around day four, and consistently decreased somewhat on  
211 the seventh day for all donors (Fig. 2B). Of note, much larger N protein associated signals could  
212 be observed at the peak of the infection. These larger structures were co-labelled with cytokeratin  
213 5, the marker for basal cells (see arrows in Fig. 2A). This observation started on the third day but  
214 was most prominent on the fourth day and was observed for all donors. Therefore, we also



215 quantified the size of the N protein associated signals over time (Fig. 2C). The analysis revealed a  
216 statistically significant average increase in signal size between the third and fourth day for all four  
217 donors. In parallel to the imaging analysis, release of newly produced viruses into the apical mucus  
218 was quantified by qRT-PCR (Fig. 2D). For all four donors, the viral RNA copy number correlated  
219 with the observed cellular N protein labelling with a fast increase from day 2 reaching a plateau  
220 between 3 and 4 dpi. Altogether, these data suggested that apical SARS-CoV-2 inoculation of BEs  
221 resulted in efficient infection and subsequent progeny production and release into the apical  
222 lumen.

223

#### 224 **Infected multi-ciliated cells form syncytia with basal cells at the apical side of the BE**

225 Using high-resolution microscopy, we observed that larger N-positive signals corresponded to  
226 multinucleated cellular structures reminiscent of syncytia. These syncytia could be found in all  
227 regions of the epithelia (Fig. 3) and their formation at day 4 was common to all four donors tested.  
228 In contrast, we did not observe any syncytia formation in non-infected control epithelia.  
229 Unexpectedly, the N-positive syncytia forming on day three and four also stained positive for the  
230 basal cell marker cytokeratin 5 (Fig. 3A). This was not the case at earlier time points (day one and  
231 two) where basal cells rarely stained positive for N protein and did not form syncytia. Accordingly,  
232 we quantified the number of double positive syncytia (*i.e.*, nucleocapsid protein and cytokeratin  
233 5) over time (Fig. 3B). The proportion of double positive cells (*i.e.*, syncytia) increased constantly  
234 and reached a maximum on the fourth day after which there is a drastic drop in double positive  
235 cells (Fig. 3B, upper panel). Normalization of the double positive cells for either the total amount  
236 of basal cells (Fig. 3B, middle panel) or the total amount of infected cells (Fig. 3B, lower panel)  
237 revealed that double positive cells but not overall infected cells disappeared on day four. We also  
238 observed that the newly formed multinucleated cells only partially stained for acetylated tubulin  
239 (Fig. 3C). Zooming in on different regions of the epithelia revealed that newly formed syncytia  
240 frequently lost their stain for acetylated tubulin (Fig. 3C side panel). Moreover, syncytia that still  
241 expressed acetylated tubulin presented an amorphous staining, and rarely distinguished cilia  
242 features. Similarly, part of the syncytial structures failed to stain with phalloidin (*e.g.* Fig. 3A, right  
243 panel), that was used to delineate cells in the epithelia. Altogether, Cytokeratin 5, phalloidin and

244 acetylated tubulin staining patterns suggested that syncytia were formed through the fusion of  
245 infected ciliated cells with basal cells, associated with the loss of cilia and reorganization of  
246 cytoskeletal features including the actin and tubulin cytoskeleton. Furthermore, three-  
247 dimensional imaging of epithelia showed that syncytia formed exclusively on the apical side of the  
248 epithelium and forming an elevated layer on top of the epithelia (Fig. 3A right and 3C bottom  
249 panel, see also movie S7 and S8). These extrusions were also observed using EM (Fig. 3D, white  
250 asterisk), but never in the context of non-infected epithelia (Fig. S1). These structures harbored  
251 only reminiscent cilia structures in place of multi-ciliated cells in non-infected epithelia. This latter  
252 observation is consistent with previous reports showing that SARS-CoV-2 infection of lung  
253 epithelial cells trigger the partial loss of cilia (27). Importantly, using EM we observe vesicular  
254 inclusions within those extruded cells that contained virus particles indicating that multi-  
255 nucleated infected structures actively produced viruses (Fig. 3D, black arrows).

256

#### 257 **Infected cells and syncytia are released into the apical BE lumen and transmit infection**

258 Because cells and syncytia were extruding from the epithelium, we wondered whether infected  
259 cells/syncytia could be released from the epithelium and account for the spreading of the  
260 infection. To test this hypothesis, we infected epithelia from two donors for three and four days.  
261 Apical washes of epithelia were performed after three and four days of infection and  
262 concentrated on microscope slides *via* cytopspin. After IF processing, we showed that apical  
263 washes contained individual infected cells (positive for N-protein staining) but also several  
264 infected syncytia, suggesting that both are indeed released into the apical epithelial lumen (Fig.  
265 4A). To test the relative infectivity, apical washes were clarified of cell material by low-speed  
266 centrifugation. Both the clarified supernatant and the removed cellular fraction were used to  
267 infect Vero E6 cells. After 24h, cells were fixed and analyzed by IF microscopy. Inoculation with  
268 the supernatant as well as the cellular fraction of the apical wash showed efficient Vero E6 cell  
269 infection (data not shown). In parallel, inoculated Vero E6 cells were monitored for the  
270 appearance of a virus-induced CPE. Apical wash after 4 days of epithelia infection resulted in CPE  
271 within 48h whereas a comparable CPE required 72h with an apical wash resulting from a 3 days  
272 infection (data not shown). AT 96h post-infection the Vero E6 cell CPE was quantified (Fig. 4B).

273 Apical washes from non-infected epithelia produced only background levels of cell death (gray  
274 bars, Fig. 4B). In contrast, significant levels of cell death occurred in Vero E6 cell after inoculation  
275 with either the supernatant or the pellet (cellular fraction) of an apical wash issued from an  
276 infected epithelium (black bars, Fig. 4B). Taken together this analysis shows that epithelia produce  
277 and release large amounts of new viruses into the apical lumen, a significant fraction of the  
278 released infectious virus dose stems from infected cells and syncytia.

279

### 280 **Epithelia from children partially restrict SARS-CoV-2 infection but not syncytia formation**

281 In our experimental model, each epithelium can be traced to an individual donor, while generating  
282 enough individual inserts to allow biological repeats and kinetic studies. Our analysis showed that  
283 epithelia from several adult donors responded similarly to the infection with SARS-CoV-2. A  
284 striking observation was that infections spread very fast over the entire epithelia and produced  
285 vast amounts of syncytia for apical release in a synchronized manner. Adult donors in this study  
286 were between 46 and 63 years old (table 1), which puts them statistically into a medium/high risk  
287 group to develop severe COVID-19 symptoms. In contrast, several reports have indicated that  
288 children are much less susceptible to severe forms of COVID-19, while their role in spreading virus  
289 infections is controversially discussed (37, 38). To investigate whether SARS-CoV-2 infects BEs  
290 differently depending on the age of donors, we prepared epithelia through expansion and  
291 differentiation of bronchial epithelial cells obtained from children (Table 1) that have undergone  
292 bronchial fibroscopy for chronic bronchopathy (child C1) or bronchiectasis (children C2 and C3).  
293 Fully differentiated epithelia from children showed the same cellular arrangement (epithelial  
294 cells, basal cells, goblet cells) and physiological properties (cilia beating, mucus production) as  
295 adult derived epithelia. A kinetic experiment was performed to compare the SARS-CoV-2 infection  
296 dynamics in BEs derived from children (C1 to C3) or from adult donors (A5 and A6). The BEs were  
297 fixed at 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7 d.p.i. with a non-infected control for each donor run in parallel and fixed  
298 at day 7. Individual epithelia were fixed and processed for IF analysis using antibodies against  
299 cytokeratin 5, SARS-CoV-2 N-protein and counterstained with fluorescently labelled phalloidin  
300 and DAPI. As observed before (Fig. 2), infecting BEs from adult donors at a MOI of 0.012 resulted  
301 in a fast increase in the presence of infected cells (within 48h) and the formation of a significant

302 amount of syncytia on the fourth day (A6, Fig. S3A). In sharp contrast, all child derived epithelia  
303 showed a remarkable resistance to virus infection (Fig. S3 B-D). Of note, virus spread differed  
304 significantly in BE originating from the individual child donor. A slow but substantial increase in  
305 infected cells over time was observed in BE derived from donor C1 (Fig. S3B). In comparison, BE  
306 derived from C2 did not support substantially increase of the number of infected cells after the  
307 initial appearance of positive cells (Fig. S3C) and BE derived from the last donor, C3, only ever  
308 showed very few infected cells, reminiscent of an abortive infection (Fig. S3D). Low magnification  
309 imaging of the entire epithelia showed that initial infections in BE from donor C1 were limited to  
310 few cells. The N-protein associated signal seemed to grow over time into foci of infection that  
311 further enlarged by infecting surrounding cells at the periphery (Fig. 5A, top row, left). High-  
312 resolution images confirmed that cells at the foci border stained strongly, while several cells  
313 surrounding these foci were already positive for SARS-CoV-2 N-protein. This suggested the  
314 existence of a front of highly replicating cells with forward cell-to-cell or short range spread as  
315 infection mode (Fig. 5B). In contrast, infection spread in epithelia from donor C2 seemed to be  
316 even more restricted (Fig. 5A, bottom row, left). In the case of the BE derived from the child donor  
317 C2, most of the cells that were initially infected at day one/two developed into local cluster of  
318 infected cells without much lateral spread. High-resolution imaging revealed that within these  
319 clusters, several cells fused with basal cells to form small syncytia that had apical localization (Fig.  
320 5C, movie S9), reminiscent with what was observed in adult donors. It is only after seven days of  
321 infection that some spreading into small patches could be observed, mimicking observations  
322 made for C1 on the second and third day of infection. Low magnification imaging of the entire  
323 epithelia derived from child C3 confirmed sporadic infection signals in the BEs, while the adult-  
324 derived control A7 showed massive spread of the infection throughout the entire epithelia at 4  
325 d.p.i (right panel, Fig. 5A). Quantifying the total number of infected cells in each epithelium  
326 confirmed our observation (Fig. 5D). In contrast to the adult control, no significant differences in  
327 signal size was observed between day three and day four for either of the children derived  
328 epithelia (Fig. 5E). Still, the average signal size appeared larger likely due to clustering of infected  
329 cells (Fig. 5E). For all three children derived epithelia and the adult control we also measured the  
330 accumulation of SARS-CoV-2 in the apical lumen using quantitative PCR (Fig. 5F). The quantities  
331 of released virus over time accurately reflected the spread of infection observed by IF and  
332 quantification of infected cells. Taken together our analysis clearly demonstrated that epithelia

333 from children were less susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 and exhibited an intrinsic resistance towards  
334 virus infection and/or spread. One possible explanation for this intrinsic resistance of children BE  
335 could be differences in IFN response (39, 40) or morphological differences (41). Accordingly, we  
336 compared the accumulation of interferon  $\lambda$  1/3 and measured the concentration in BE medium  
337 from adults and children in response to SARS-CoV-2 infection (Fig. 5G). We did not find interferon  
338  $\lambda$  at the beginning of the infection. Children BE secreted interferon  $\lambda$  starting at day 1 post-  
339 infection whereas adult BE produced detectable amount of interferon  $\lambda$  only at day 3 post-  
340 infection. Interferon  $\lambda$  concentration increased subsequently for both age groups and reached  
341 similar levels at day 4 and 7 post-infection (Fig. 5G). The difference in the kinetic for Interferon  $\lambda$   
342 secretion between adults and children in response to SARS-CoV-2 infection may thus provide an  
343 explanation why in our model children derived BE resist better to SARS-CoV-2 infection. Still, the  
344 strength of this resistance differs from donor to donor and delays virus spread to different degrees  
345 or may prevent virus spread entirely.

346

347

## 348 **Discussion**

349

350 In this study, we used human reconstituted bronchial epithelia to investigate the onset of  
351 infection and replication of SARS-CoV-2 in BE. Our approach uses primary cells from individual  
352 patients obtained through our local hospital collected in the bronchial tree between the third and  
353 fifth generation. Bronchial epithelia are an important tissue to study because following initial  
354 infection in the upper airways, subsequent infection of the bronchial tissue determines whether  
355 a SARS-CoV-2 infection results in severe or mild respiratory illness by controlling the spread into  
356 the lower respiratory tract. These features make a distinction in our approach from similar studies  
357 using primary respiratory cells from either upper airway (nasal, tracheal) (3, 26) or commercial  
358 sources (27) with undefined donor material. Using this physiological model, we observed SARS-  
359 CoV-2 production mainly on the apical side of the epithelia following infection. We then used  
360 immunofluorescence imaging to follow and compare the infection in the BE from several  
361 individual donors for seven days. This approach allowed the detection of infected cells as early as  
362 24h post-infection. The infection spread throughout the whole epithelia within three to four days  
363 post inoculation followed by a drop in the number of infected cells on the last day. Quantification  
364 of viral RNA confirmed these observations and showed that viral replication reached a plateau

365 around day four post-infection. Using cell specific markers, we identified that infected cells during  
366 the first two days corresponded largely to multi-ciliated cells staining positive for acetylated  
367 tubulin in agreement with previous studies (26, 28). We rarely observed infected basal or goblet  
368 cells during this period. Interestingly, starting at day three of the infection not only the infected  
369 cell number but also the signal size of infected cells increased with a statistically significant shift  
370 towards larger cells between day three and four. We could show that the larger signals  
371 corresponded to infected multinucleated syncytia. The formation of cell fusions in coronavirus  
372 infected primary airway epithelia was previously reported (28, 42) but not systematically detected  
373 (26, 27, 32). In our study, we were able to find extensive syncytia formation in all six adult donors.  
374 Syncytia formation was transient and reached a maximum at day four to sharply drop towards  
375 the seventh day. The fusogenic potential of SARS-CoV-2 is well known and involves the Spike  
376 protein and the ACE2 receptor (43, 44). When we used cell specific markers to identify the syncytia  
377 cell composition we found that several syncytia were double positive for the basal cell marker  
378 cytokeratin 5 as well as the cilia marker acetylated tubulin or only for the basal cell marker (Fig.  
379 3). This suggested that syncytia are formed by the fusion of basal cells with infected multi-ciliated  
380 cells. This is consistent with previous reports that infection of multi-ciliated cells with SARS-CoV-  
381 2 results in cilia loss and cell dedifferentiation (27, 28). Fusion of initially infected multi-ciliated  
382 cells with basal cells as one mode of virus cell-to-cell spread was further supported by  
383 quantification of infected syncytia positive for cytokeratin 5, which constantly increased in  
384 number until day four in all analyzed donors. The sharp drop on day four in the number of double  
385 positive syncytia, but not in the number of overall infected cells, is consistent with our observation  
386 that syncytia were extruded at the apical side of the epithelia. We found frequent syncytia  
387 forming at the apical side of the epithelia positive for the N nucleoprotein and EM analysis showed  
388 that they indeed contained high amounts of virus trapped in a vesicular compartment.  
389 Furthermore, we were able to show that infected syncytia are released into the apical supernatant  
390 and that released syncytia and infected cells are as infectious as free virus (Fig. 4). This strongly  
391 suggests that infected syncytia and cell release into the apical lumen could be an important  
392 contribution to the spreading of large and compact amounts of viruses into the upper respiratory  
393 tract from which cell associated virus can either decent into the lower respiratory tract or reach  
394 the environment increasing the actual infectious dose. Interestingly, pathology reports from  
395 patients succumbed to Covid-19 show abnormal syncytia formed by pneumocytes in the lower

396 respiratory tract suggesting that our observations in the BE model find their counterpart in severe  
397 forms of COVID-19 (14, 45, 46). Accordingly, such an event would be in agreement with the clinical  
398 observation of hospitalized patients, which reported a high detection of SARS-CoV-2 in sputum  
399 and its transmission by droplets (19). The fact that syncytia production is massive but transient is  
400 well correlated with another report showing that virus production in a primary airway epithelium  
401 is cyclic with peaks of virus release every 7-10 days (26). The authors suggest that this periodicity  
402 is driven by recurrent epithelia removal and regeneration. Interestingly, such a peak in virus  
403 production would provide an explanation for the phenomenon of “super spreader”, frequently  
404 suggested based on epidemiological data (47). A periodicity or variability in the quantity of virus  
405 released from infected tissue thus may affect contagion. Furthermore, we also observed the loss  
406 of cilia in many of the syncytia, which could be responsible for a poor mucociliary clearance that  
407 impedes the evacuation of viral particles and pathogens. Taken together, our findings are in  
408 accordance with previous findings but highlight syncytium formation as an important mechanism  
409 to explain the spreading of SARS-CoV-2 and the physiopathology of bronchial epithelium infection  
410 (14, 43, 45, 46). Since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, SARS-CoV-2 infection is more  
411 virulent in adults compared to children. We explored the bronchial epithelium infection of  
412 children with SARS-CoV-2 and compared our observations with those made in BE from adult  
413 donors. Strikingly, we find very different spreading of SARS-CoV-2 in children BE *versus* adult BE.  
414 First, the overall viral production was very low in BE of children compared to adults, which is  
415 reflecting the slower kinetic in the onset of virus production over time. In agreement with the  
416 virus quantification, child epithelia showed a remarkable resistance to virus infection as very few  
417 infected cells were observed. Rather than rapidly spreading throughout the entire epithelia, as  
418 observed for adults, the infected cells in children form cluster or foci of infected cells. From these  
419 foci, the infection slowly spread into the surrounding bystander cells. Yet, syncytia formation was  
420 also observed, at least in one child, suggesting that the fusion of basal cells with multi-ciliated  
421 cells was not restricted to adult infected BE. However, the number of syncytia was much lower  
422 than in adults reflecting the low virus spread. The obvious difference in susceptibility to SARS-  
423 CoV-2 infection between adults and children, which we observed in the BE model is in agreement  
424 with the reduced epidemiological infection rate described for children and strong discrepancy in  
425 death rate between children and adults/elderly (24, 25). A very recent study using nasal BE also  
426 showed differences in the susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 infection between adults and children (32).

427 The reason for this intrinsic difference between adults and children BE is unknown. One possible  
428 explanation could be an age-related variation in the expression or accessibility of the primary viral  
429 receptors (ACE2 and TMPRSS2) (48). We show that children BE have a quicker induction of  
430 interferon  $\lambda$  in response to SARS-CoV-2 infection starting as soon as 1-day post-infection whereas  
431 adults BE exhibit detectable level of interferon  $\lambda$  only 3-day post-infection. Recent studies show  
432 that SARS-CoV-2 blocks the interferon response by targeting the RIG-I/MDA-5 pathway (49, 50).  
433 Our study is consistent with a delay of Interferon  $\lambda$  production after SARS-CoV-2 infection in adults  
434 but less so in children. This could suggest that either SARS-CoV-2 is less efficient in counteracting  
435 the IFN response in children BE or alternatively, that the IFN response in children is faster and an  
436 antiviral state is induced throughout the epithelia that slows down virus spread. Such an age-  
437 related susceptibility of BE has been reported for other respiratory pathogens including  
438 respiratory viruses such as Rhinovirus-C, Adenovirus and RSV (Respiratory Syncytial Virus) (51,  
439 52)(53) but also fungi (*Aspergillus fumigatus*) (54) and bacteria (*Haemophilus influenzae*) (55).  
440 Future studies will be required to study the exact mechanism behind the differences in IFN  
441 response that we observed. Taken together our data clearly demonstrate that BE from children  
442 are less susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 infection. Our data suggest that an accelerated interferon  
443 response might contribute to this resistance supporting timed interferon application as  
444 therapeutically beneficial concept in the treatment of SARS-CoV-2 infections (56-58).

445

## 446 **Materials and Methods**

447

### 448 **Monoclonal antibodies and ethics statement**

449 Monoclonal antibodies were raised against bacterially expressed and purified SARS-CoV-2 N  
450 protein in 3 mice using the protocol as previously described (59). Hybridomas were cloned by  
451 limiting dilution and screened by immunofluorescence on infected VERO cells. Clone 3G9 was  
452 retained for this study and antibody was affinity purified from hybridoma supernatant prior to  
453 use. Mice experiments have been performed in the conventional animal facilities of the University  
454 of Bordeaux (France) (approval number of B-33-036-917), with the approval of institutional  
455 guidelines determined by the local Ethical Committee of the University of Bordeaux and in



456 conformity with the Ministry for Higher Education and Research and the French Committee of  
457 Genetic Engineering (approval number n °17621 -V5- 2018112201234223).

#### 458 **Viruses and cell lines**

459 Vero E6 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco)  
460 supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS) and gentamicin (50µg/mL) at 37°C in a humidified  
461 CO<sub>2</sub> incubator. The SARS-CoV-2 strain BetaCoV/France/IDF0372/2020 was supplied by the  
462 National Reference Centre for Respiratory Viruses hosted by Pasteur Institute (Paris, France)  
463 through the European Virus Archive goes Global (EVAg platform). Agreement to work with  
464 infectious SARS-CoV-2 was obtained and all work with infectious SARS-CoV-2 was performed in a  
465 Class II Biosafety Cabinet under BSL-3 conditions at the UB'L3 facility (TBM core, Bordeaux).

#### 466 **Viral production**

467 The SARS-CoV-2 strain was produced by infecting Vero E6 cells at a multiplicity of infection (MOI)  
468 of 0.01, then incubating the cells at 37°C in a humidified CO<sub>2</sub> incubator until appearance of a  
469 cytopathic effect (around 72 h). The culture supernatant was clarified by centrifugation (5 minutes  
470 at 1500 rpm) and aliquots were stored at -80°C. Stock titers were determined by adding serial  
471 dilutions to  $2 \times 10^4$  Vero E6 cells in supplemented DMEM in a 96-well plate. Eight replicates were  
472 performed. Plates were incubated at 37°C and examined for cytopathic effect. Quantification of  
473 cytopathic effect was determined using the Cell tox <sup>TM</sup> green cytotoxicity assay (Promega)  
474 according to manufacturer instructions and a Victor Nivo reader (Perkin Elmer). The TCID<sub>50</sub> was  
475 calculated according to the method of Reed & Muench (60). PFU/ml was estimated from the  
476 TCID<sub>50</sub> determination.

#### 477 **Culture of primary bronchial epithelia (BE) and ethics statement**

478 Bronchial epithelial cell culture was established from bronchial brushings or lung resection  
479 performed between the third and fifth bronchial generation from patients undergoing elective  
480 surgery as previously described (34). Bronchial epithelium explants were cultured using  
481 PneumaCult Ex medium (Stemcell, Vancouver, Canada) for expansion of basal epithelial cells at  
482 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Then, 10<sup>5</sup> basal cells were grown on cell culture inserts (Corning, New York, NY)

483 within the air-liquid interface for 21 days using PneumaCult ALI medium (Stemcell, Vancouver,  
484 Canada). Such a culture allows the differentiation into pseudostratified muco-ciliary airway  
485 epithelium composed of ciliated cells, goblet cells, club cells and basal cells. The complete  
486 differentiation was assessed by the capacity of cilia to beat and mucus production under light  
487 microscope. The study received approval from the local and national ethics committee from the  
488 CNIL through the TUBE collections.

#### 489 **Infection of epithelia**

490 Prior to infection, epithelia were washed three times with PBS to remove mucus and basal ALI  
491 medium was exchanged with 500  $\mu$ L of fresh medium. The inoculum containing 1200 PFU of virus  
492 or medium-only controls were added to the apical surface to a final volume of 100  $\mu$ L. Viral  
493 supernatant was removed after 1 hour incubation at 37°C and infection was followed for the  
494 indicated time points. Viral production was then quantified by qRT-PCR using 3 consecutively  
495 collected apical washes of 100  $\mu$ L PBS.

#### 496 **Quantification of SARS-CoV-2 RNA by qRT-PCR**

497 For quantification of viral RNA by qRT-PCR, total RNA was isolated using the High Pure Viral RNA  
498 kit (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instruction. Viral RNA was quantified using GoTaq® 1-  
499 Step RT-qPCR kit (Promega). SARS-CoV-2 N gene RNA was amplified using forward (Ngene F  
500 cgcaacagttcaagaaattc 28844-28864) and reverse primers (Ngene R ccagacattttgctctcaagc 28960-  
501 28981). Copy numbers were calculated from a standard curve produce with serial 10-fold dilutions  
502 of SARS-CoV-2-RNA. Amplification program began with the RT-step 15 min at 50°C then the  
503 denaturation step 10 min at 95°C, and 10 s at 95°C, 10 s at 60°C and 10 s at 72°C (40 cycles). The  
504 melting curve was obtained by temperature increment 0,5°C/s from 60°C to 95°C.

#### 505 **Interferon ELISA**

506 Human IL-29/IL-28B (IFN-lambda 1/3) concentration in SARS-CoV-2 infected epithelium basal  
507 media was quantified using ELISA technics following manufacturer's recommendations (R&D  
508 systems, Minneapolis, USA). 100  $\mu$ l of media was used for each point.

#### 509 **Immunofluorescence detection, antibodies and confocal microscopy.**

510 For antigen detection, BE were washed repeatedly with PBS to remove mucus then fixed with 4%  
511 paraformaldehyde for 30min using complete insert immersion. Epithelia were then washed and  
512 permeabilized with 0.5% TritonX-100 in PBS for 10min at room temperature and blocked in IF  
513 buffer (PBS containing 10% SVF and 0.5% saponin) for 1h at room temperature. Primary antibody  
514 and fluorescently labeled phalloidin to stain the actin cytoskeleton was diluted in IF buffer and  
515 applied to inserts for 1h at room temperature. Samples were washed three times under agitation  
516 with PBS and incubated with secondary antibody diluted in IF buffer and incubated for 2h at room  
517 temperature. Insert were then washed in PBS, desalted in H<sub>2</sub>O miliQ and rinsed in Ethanol 100%  
518 and air-dried. Membranes were then removed from inserts and mounted in DAPI (4',6-diamidino-  
519 2-phenylindole) containing DAKO Fluorescence Mounting Medium prior to microscopy analysis.  
520 Mounted samples were subsequently examined on an epifluorescence microscope (Leica inverted  
521 DRMi6000 widefield microscope) at low resolution for kinetic studies. High resolution analysis  
522 was performed on a SP8 confocal microscope (Leica Microsystems at the Bordeaux Imagery  
523 center) using maximal pixel resolution at 20x, 40x or 63x respectively and 0.3 $\mu$ m Z-stacks  
524 resolution. Full epithelia overviews were acquired with Leica LAS-X software in spiral mosaics  
525 mode and three-dimensional reconstructions were done with Leica LAS-X software in 3D-viewer  
526 mode. Image processing was done using Image J software. Signal of interest were quantified using  
527 a semi-automatic macro. Briefly, Z-projections of different focal planes were generated and  
528 regions of interest (ROI) were manually inserted. Signal of interest was quantified automatically  
529 in each ROI, with appropriate predefined threshold and sizing for each condition. Quantification  
530 were performed to measured either number or size of signal of interest. Obtained values are  
531 represented either as absolute number or as normalized values (as indicated). The following  
532 primary antibodies and IF dilutions were used in this study; mouse monoclonal Ab anti-SARS-CoV-  
533 2-N clone 3G9 (this study, 1:500), rabbit monoclonal Ab anti-human Cytokeratin 5 (Abcam,  
534 ab52635, 1:200), rabbit polyclonal Ab anti-human Acetylated tubulin (Cell Signaling, D20G3,  
535 1:200), rabbit polyclonal Ab anti-human ACE2 (Abcam, ab15348, 1:50), rabbit monoclonal Ab anti-  
536 human-Mucin 5AC (Abcam, ab198294, 1:200). The following secondary antibodies were used in  
537 this study; cross absorbed Donkey anti-mouse Alexa Fluor 488 or 647 (Life technologies,  
538 A212020/A31571, 1:300) and cross absorbed Donkey anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 594 (Life  
539 technologies, A31573, 1:300) as well as Alexa-Fluor 594 labeled phalloidin (Invitrogen, 1:500).

540 **Electron microscopy**

541 For electron microscopy, epitheliums were first washed in physiological serum and then fixed with  
542 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde and 2% (v/v) paraformaldehyde in 0.1M phosphate buffer (pH 7.4)  
543 during 2h minimum at room temperature (RT). Then samples were washed in 0.1M phosphate  
544 buffer and post-fixed in 1% (v/v) osmium tetroxide in phosphate buffer 0.1 M during 2h, in the  
545 dark, at RT, then washing in water and dehydrated through a series of graded ethanol and  
546 embedded in a mixture of pure ethanol and epoxy resin (Epon 812; Delta Microscopy, Toulouse,  
547 France) 50/50 (v/v) during 2 hours and then in 100% resin overnight at RT. The polymerization of  
548 the resin was carried out over a period between 24-48 hours at 60°C. Samples were then  
549 sectioned using a diamond knife (Diatome, Biel-Bienne, Switzerland) on an ultramicrotome (EM  
550 UCT, Leica Microsystems, Vienna, Austria). Ultrathin sections (70 nm) were picked up on copper  
551 grids and then stained with uranylless and lead citrate. Grids were examined with a Transmission  
552 Electron Microscope (H7650, Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan) at 80kV.

553

554

555 **Acknowledgments**

556 We thank the staffs of both the pathology and surgery departments (both from the University  
557 Hospital of Bordeaux), Isabelle Goasdoue, Virginie Niel, and Marine Servat from the clinical  
558 investigation center, for technical assistance. Light and electron imaging was performed on the  
559 Bordeaux Imaging Center, member of the FranceBioImaging national infrastructure (ANR-10-  
560 INBS-04). We thank the BIC relentless support during the lockdown. We thank the “Agence  
561 Nationale de la Recherche” (ANR, ROSAE project CE14-0015-01) and ANR and the Fondation de  
562 France (ANACONDA project) for funding support. D.R.R is funded by the LabEx ParaFrap (ANR-11-  
563 LABX-0024). ML Blondot was supported by the Region Nouvelle Aquitaine and UBReact Bordeaux  
564 University. N. Pied is supported by the FRM DEQ20180339229. We thank the CNRS and the  
565 Bordeaux University for support. We are indebted to the members of our research teams, our  
566 families and several colleagues for their resilience and support during the past year. H. Wodrich  
567 is an INSERM fellow.

568

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723 **Figures and Tables**

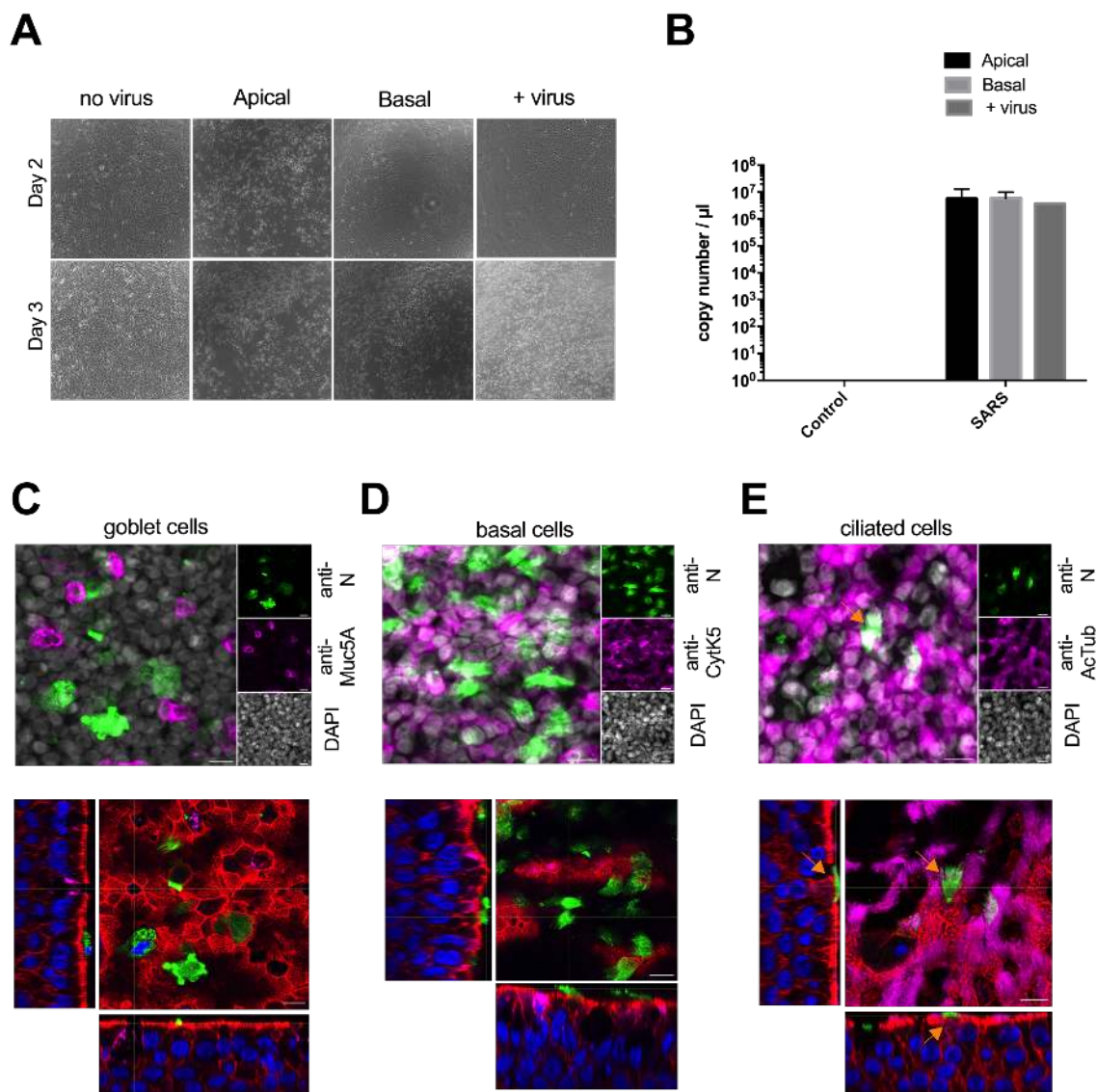
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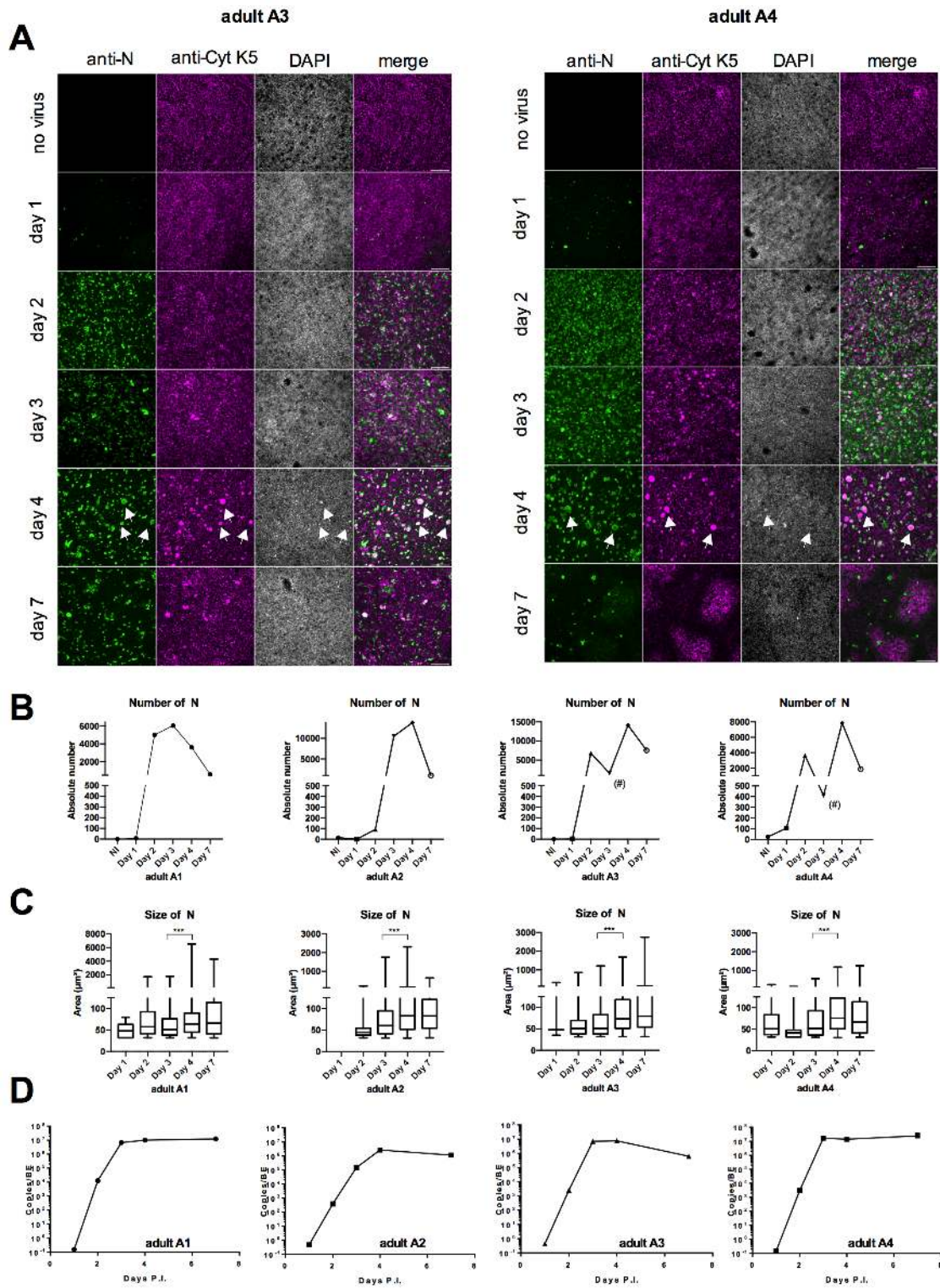
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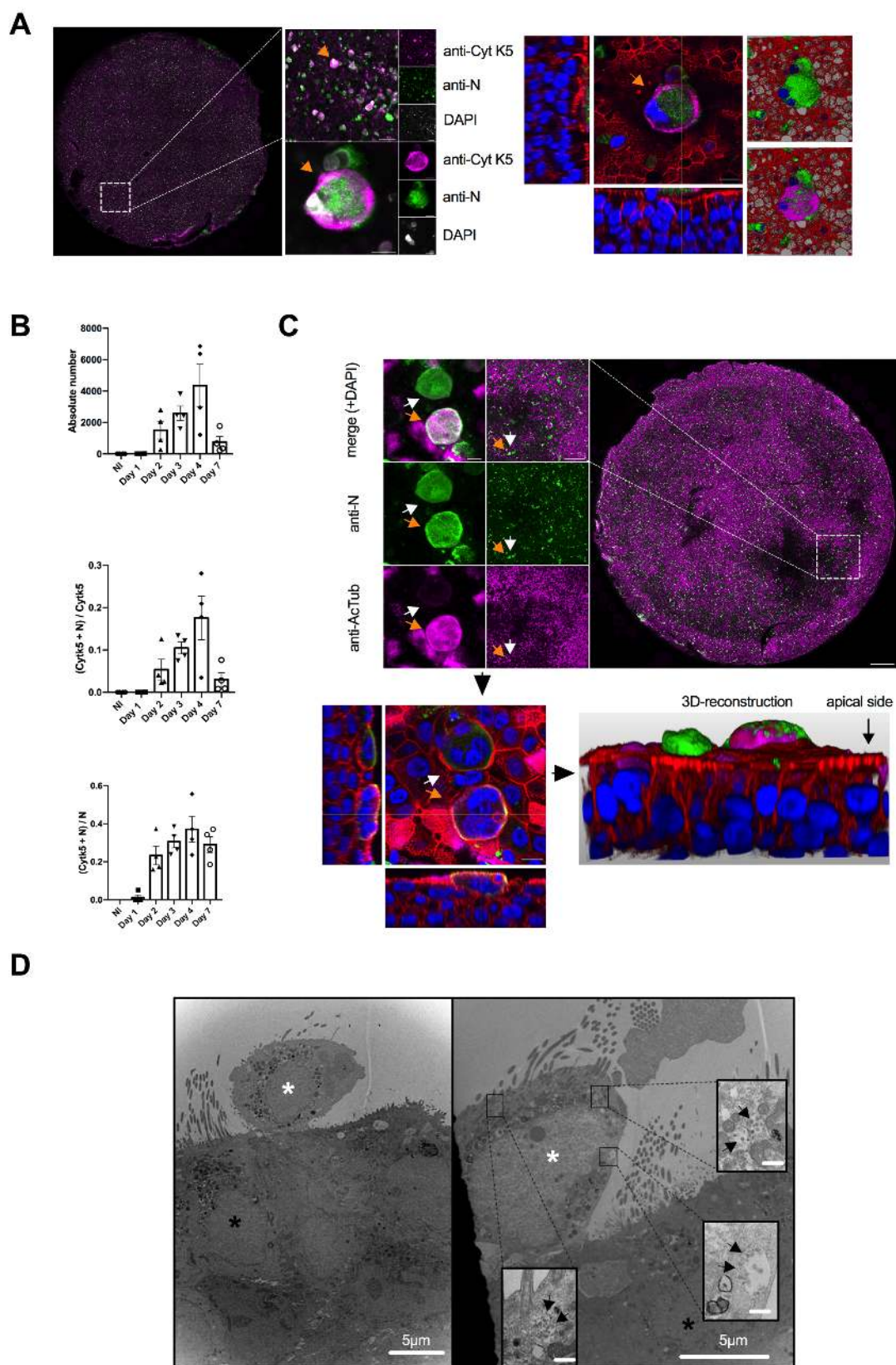
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729 **Figure 1.** SARS-CoV-2 infection of bronchial epithelia (BE). A: The left panel shows brightfield  
730 microscopy images of Vero E6 cells at either day 2 (top row) or day 3 (bottom row) post-inoculation  
731 with apical washes, basolateral media or a viral suspension (MOI of 0.01). B: Quantification of  
732 SARS-CoV-2 RNA in Vero E6 supernatant. Total RNA were extracted 96h post-infection and  
733 quantified by qRT-PCR. Mean and standard deviation are derived from 3 independent  
734 determinations except for the positive control (Vero E6 infected directly with a viral suspension  
735 instead of BE fractions). C: Differentiated BE were infected with SARS-CoV-2 and stained 24h  
736 post-infection with anti-N (green signal) to identify infected cells and anti-Muc5A to detect goblet  
737 cells (magenta signal) and counterstained with DAPI (grey signal). Top image shows a Z-projection,  
738 the bottom image shows an individual Z-section of a 3D reconstruction counterstained with  
739 phalloidin. Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m, for full Z-stack see movie S4. D: Experiment and presentation as in  
740 (B) stained with anti-N (green signal) to identify infected cells and anti-cytokeratin 5 to identify basal  
741 cells (magenta signal) and counterstained with DAPI (grey signal). Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m, for full Z-  
742 stack see movie S5. E: Experiment and presentation as in (B) stained with anti-N (green signal) to  
743 identify infected cells and anti-acetylated tubulin to identify multiciliated cells (magenta signal) and  
744 counterstained with DAPI (grey signal). Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m, for full Z-stack see movie S6.  
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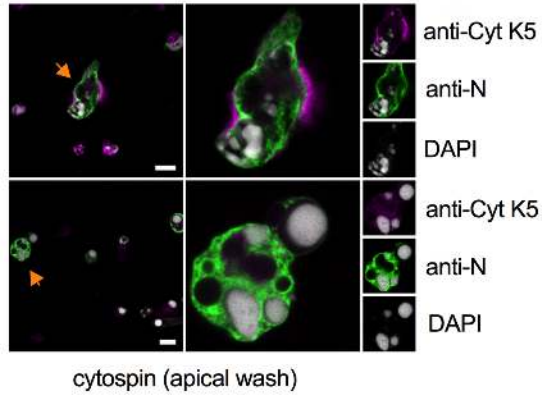
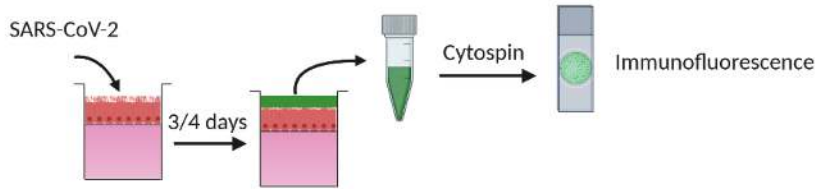
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750 **Figure 2.** SARS-CoV-2 infection kinetic of bronchial epithelia (BE). A: Representative widefield  
751 microscopy images of BE from two adult donors (A3 left panel, A4 right panel) at low resolution.  
752 Scale bar is 20µm. BE were fixed at day 1, 2, 3, 4, 7 as indicated to the left of each row, non-  
753 infected controls were also fixed at day 7. BE were stained with anti-N antibodies to detect infected  
754 cells (green signal first column), anti-cytokeratin 5 to detect basal cells (magenta signal, second  
755 column) and counterstained with DAPI (grey signal, third column) and a merge of the three signals  
756 (forth column). Large specific signals in all channels are apparent on day four (white arrows). B:  
757 The absolute number of N-positive signals was determined for each BE for the whole epithelia on  
758 each day as indicated. Data shown are absolute number of N dots quantification at different days  
759 post-infection and described in material and methods. The (#) sign marks points with partial BE  
760 damage C: Signals quantified in (B) were classed by size and plotted as min to max Box & Whisker  
761 plots, \*\*\* : P< 0.001 based on One way ANOVA. D: Apical washes for each BE were subject to RT-  
762 qPCR analysis to determine genome copy numbers at day 1, 2, 3, 4, and 7 post-infection as  
763 indicated.  
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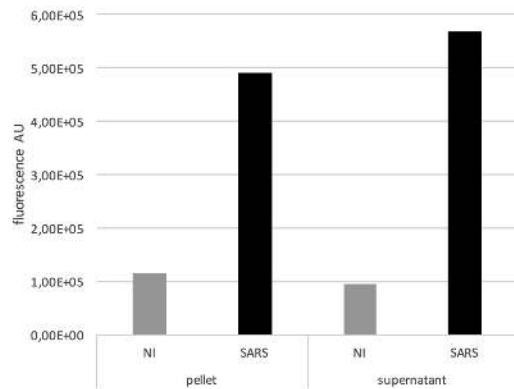
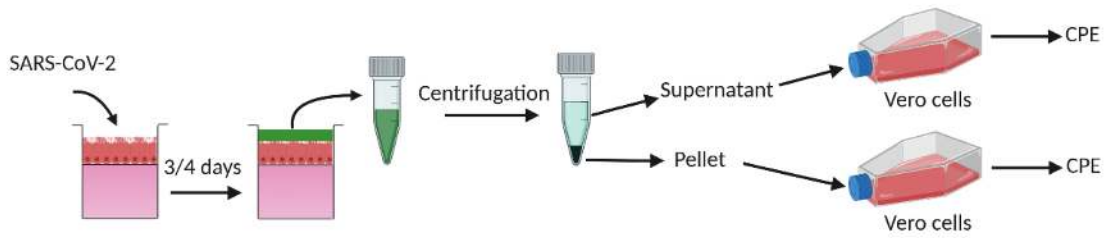


769 **Figure 3.** SARS-CoV-2 infection of bronchial epithelia (BE) induces apical syncytia. A: High  
770 resolution image analysis of entire BE 4 days post-infection (left panel, adult A4). BE were stained  
771 with anti-N antibodies to detect infected cells (green signal) and anti-cytokeratin 5 marking basal  
772 cells (magenta signal) and counterstained with DAPI (grey signal in the left panel, blue on the right  
773 panel). The boxed inset is magnified and one individual syncytia is indicated by the orange arrow.  
774 The syncytia is further magnified as maximum Z-projection (left) or as individual Z-stack (right, with  
775 phalloidin counterstain in red), or as 3D image reconstruction to see its apical location. Scale bar  
776 is 10 $\mu$ m, 50 $\mu$ m, 200 $\mu$ m respectively. See also movie S7. B: Estimation of the total number of double  
777 positive (N and cytokeratin 5) was determined (top panel) and normalized for total number of basal  
778 cells (middle panel) and total number of infected cells (bottom panel). Data shown are absolute  
779 number of colocalisations between N and cytokeratin 5 for four different donors, as determined  
780 using semi-automatic quantification. Absolute number of colocalisation was then normalized by  
781 absolute number of cytokeratin 5 or N positive cells. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD, n = 4. C:  
782 High resolution image analysis of entire BE 4 days post-infection. Experiment and image  
783 representation as in (A). BE were stained with anti-N antibodies to detect infected cells (green  
784 signal) and anti-acetylated tubulin detecting multi-ciliated cells (magenta signal) and counterstained  
785 with DAPI (grey signal in the top panel, blue on the bottom panel). Double positive syncytia are  
786 marked by orange arrow, single positive syncytia with white arrow. Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m, 50 $\mu$ m,  
787 200 $\mu$ m respectively. See also movie S8. D: Electron micrograph of infected BE 4 days post-  
788 infection. The large images show extruded cell on the apical side of the epithelia (white asterisk)  
789 adjacent to multi ciliated cells (black asterisk). The insets show virus containing vacuoles in the  
790 extruded cell as indicated by black arrows. Scale bars are provided in the image (5 $\mu$ m for large  
791 images and 200nm for insert images).  
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**A**



**B**



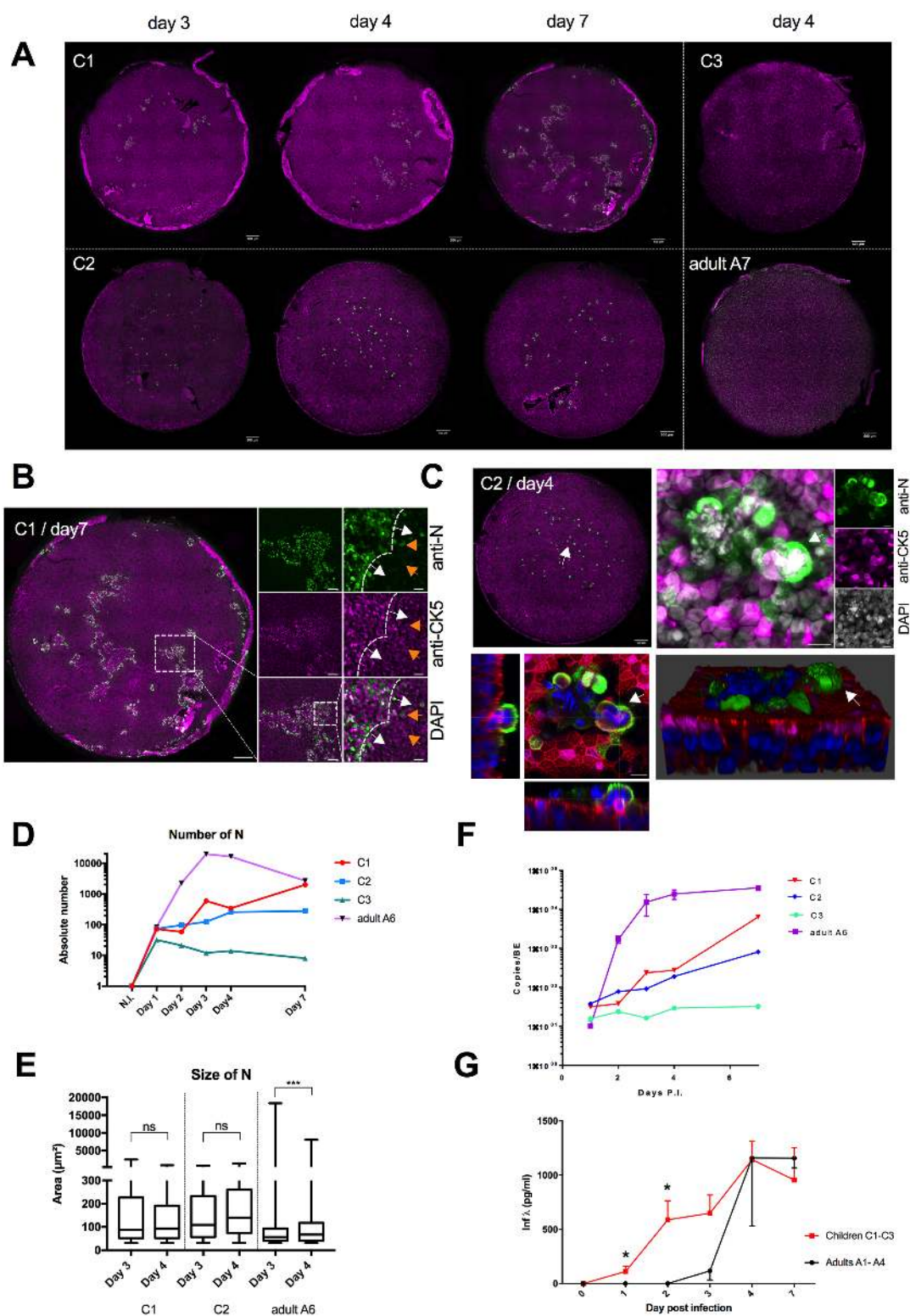
795 **Figure 4.** The apical bronchial epithelia lumen contains infected cells that transmit infection. A: A  
796 schematic of the experimental design (top panel). Apical washes at 4 days post-infection were fixed  
797 and concentrated on slides using cytospin (bottom panel) and stained with anti-N antibodies to  
798 detect infected cells (green signal) and anti-cytokeratin 5 marking basal cells (magenta signal) and  
799 counterstained with DAPI (grey signal). Arrows indicate syncytia in the overview and are magnified  
800 to the left. The boxed inset is magnified and individual syncytia are indicated by the orange arrows.  
801 Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m. B. A schematic of the experimental design (top panel). Apical washes were  
802 separated into supernatant and cell pellet and used to infect Vero E6 cells. CPE was quantified at  
803 96h post-infection using fluorescence readout as described in material and methods (Bottom  
804 panel).

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811 **Figure 5.** SARS-CoV-2 infection of bronchial epithelia (BE) in children. A: Overview of entire BE  
812 from children and adult control. Donor are as listed in table 1 (C = child, A = adult control) and days  
813 post-infection is indicated on the top. BE were stained with anti-N antibodies to detect infected cells  
814 (green signal) and anti-cytokeratin 5 marking basal cells (magenta signal). B: High resolution  
815 imaging of the Child C1 epithelia 7 days post-infection. Epithelia were stained with anti-N antibodies  
816 to detect infected cells (green signal) and anti-cytokeratin 5 marking basal cells (magenta signal).  
817 The boxed area containing an infection foci is magnified to the right. The higher magnification  
818 shows the infection front (dashed line and white arrows) and individual infected cells in the vicinity  
819 of the infection front (orange arrows). C: High resolution imaging of the Child C2 epithelia 4 days  
820 post-infection. Epithelia were stained with anti-N antibodies to detect infected cells (green signal)  
821 and anti-cytokeratin 5 marking basal cells (magenta signal) and counterstained with DAPi (grey or  
822 blue signal). The white arrow in the overview points at a syncytium that is further magnified as  
823 maximum Z-projection (left panel) or individual Z-stack (right panel with phalloidin counterstain in  
824 red), or as 3D image reconstruction to see its apical location. Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m, 50 $\mu$ m, 200 $\mu$ m  
825 respectively. See also movie S9. D: The absolute number of N-positive cells throughout the BE  
826 was estimated for three children donor (C1-3) and one adult control (A6). Color code as indicated.  
827 E: The average size of N-positive signals from (D) was determined for two child epithelia (C1 and  
828 C2) and one adult control (A6) at 3 and 4 days post-infection as indicated. F: Apical washes for  
829 each BE were subject to RT-qPCR analysis to determine genome copy numbers at day 1, 2, 3, 4,  
830 and 7 post-infection as indicated. Color code same as in (D). G: Basolateral supernatant from adults  
831 (black, n=4) and children (red, n=3) BE were subject to ELISA to determine interferon  $\lambda$   
832 concentration at day 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 7 post-infection as indicated. Results are presented as mean  
833  $\pm$  SEM and \* indicates significant difference between adults and children for a time point using  
834 Mann Whitney t test.

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843 **Table 1.**

Patients	Sexe	Age	BMI
Adult A1	F	46	23
Adult A2	M	58	25
Adult A3	F	54	24
Adult A4	M	63	25
Adult A5	M	51	25
Adult A6	F	61	21
Child C1	F	13	17
Child C2	M	12	16
Child C3	F	12	18

844

845 **Table 1:** Clinical characteristics of adults and children donors used in this study. F: Female; M:

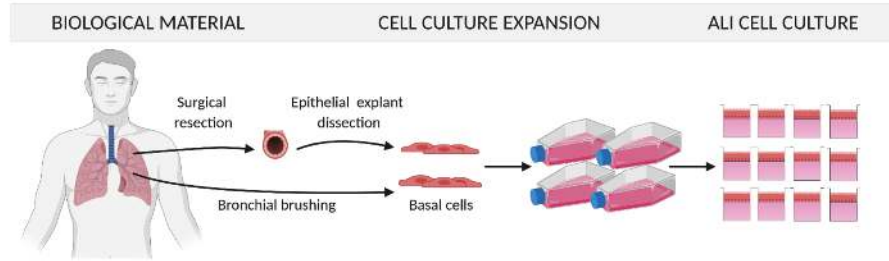
846 Male; BMI: Body Mass Index.

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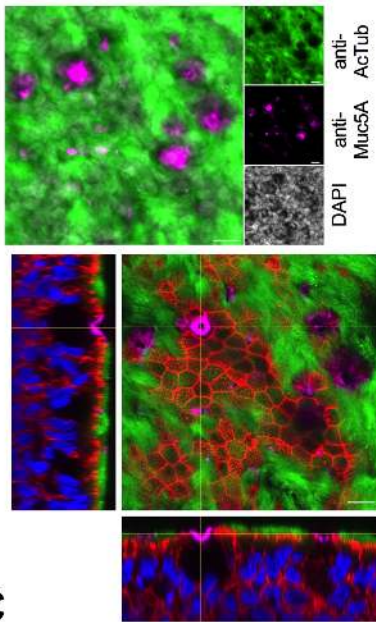
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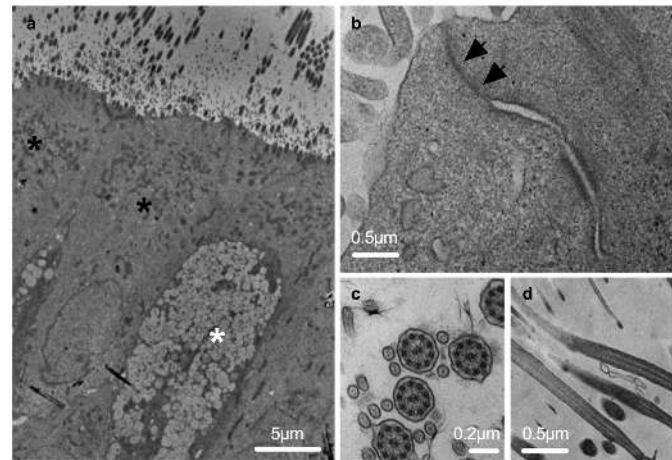
**A**



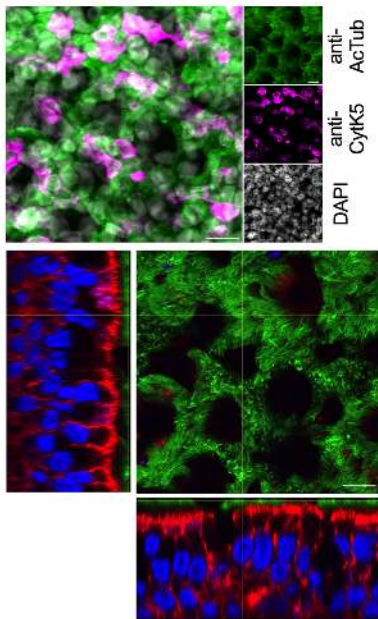
**B**



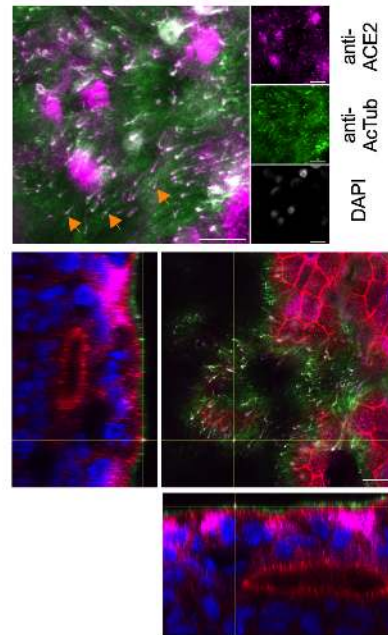
**D**



**C**

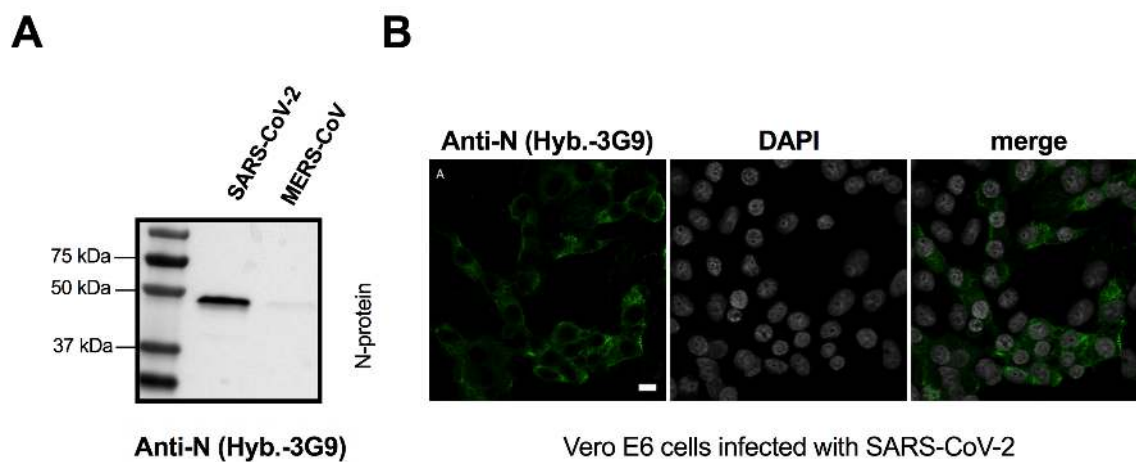


**E**



851 **Figure S1.** Characterization of bronchial epithelia (BE). A: Schematic overview of BE generation.  
852 Basal cells extracted from surgical dissection or bronchial brushing were expanded and  
853 differentiated at the air-liquid interface. B: Differentiated BE were stained with anti-acetylated  
854 tubulin to identify ciliated epithelia cells (green signal) or anti-Muc5A to detect cells (pink signal)  
855 and counterstained with DAPI (grey in top image, blue in bottom image). Top image shows a Z-  
856 projection, the bottom image shows an individual Z-section of a 3D reconstruction counterstained  
857 with phalloidin to detect the cell morphology via the actin cell cortex (red signal). Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m.  
858 Note that ciliated cells are located to the apical side (see movie S1 for 3D). C: As in B but the  
859 differentiated BE was stained with with anti-acetylated tubulin (green signal) or anti-cytokeratin 5  
860 to detect basal cells (pink signal) and counterstained with DAPI. Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m. (see movie S2  
861 for 3D). D: Electron microscopy of fully differentiated BE. The overview (a) shows ciliated epithelia  
862 cells (black asterisk) and goblet cells (white asterisk). The magnified images show tight junctions  
863 (b) marked by arrows and cilia either as cross-section (c) or longitudinal section (d). Scale bars are  
864 indicated. E: As in B but the differentiated BE was stained with with anti-acetylated tubulin (green  
865 signal) or anti-ACE2 to detect the SARS-CoV-2 receptor (pink signal) and counterstained with  
866 DAPI. Note that arrows point at individual cilia with ACE2 signal. Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m. (see movie S2  
867 for 3D).  
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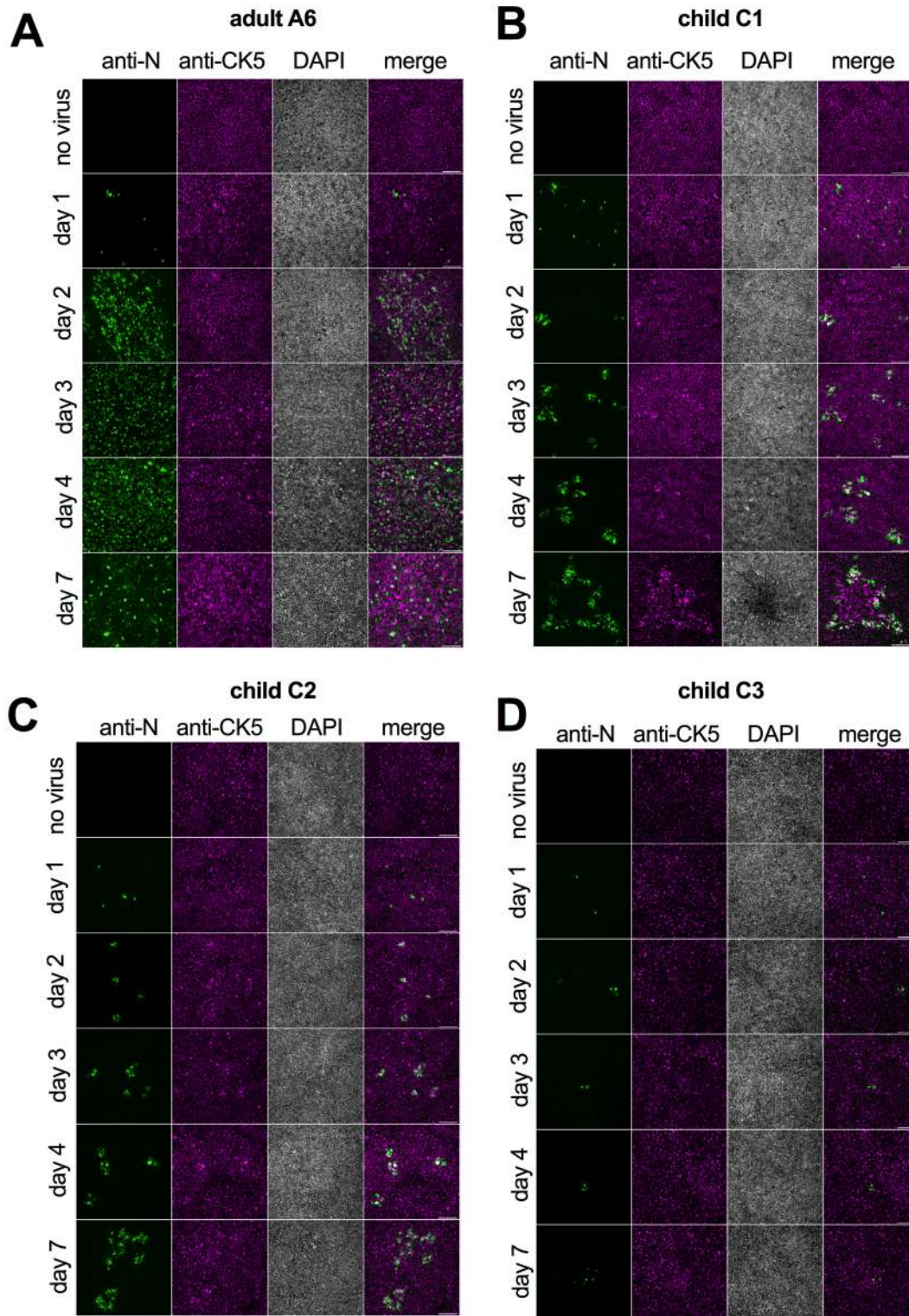
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**Figure S2.** Characterization of monoclonal anti-SARS-CoV-2-N antibody (clone 3G9). A: Western blot analysis of recombinant bacterially purified SARS-CoV-2-N (100 ng, left lane) vs. MERS-CoV-N (100 ng, right lane). B: Detection of infected Vero E6 cells. Cells were infected for 24h with SARS-CoV-2, fixed and stained with monoclonal antibody to the nucleoprotein of SARS-CoV-2 (hybridoma 3G9).

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881

882 **Figure S3.** SARS-CoV-2 infection kinetic of bronchial epithelia (BE) from children and adult donor.  
883 A: Representative widefield microscopy images of BE from one adult donor and three children (A6  
884 top left, C1 top right, C2 bottom left and C3 bottom right) at low resolution. BE were fixed at day 1,  
885 2, 3, 4, 7 as indicated to the left of each row, non-infected controls were also fixed at day 7. BE  
886 were stained with anti-N antibodies to detect infected cells (green signal first column), anti-  
887 cytokeratin 5 to detect basal cells (magenta signal, second column) and counterstained with DAPI  
888 (grey signal, third column) and a merge of the three signals (forth column). Note the slow virus  
889 spread in the children derived epithelia. Scale bar is 10 $\mu$ m

890