

SARS-CoV-2 exhibits intra-host genomic plasticity and low-frequency polymorphic quasispecies

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1	SARS-CoV-2 exhibits intra-host genomic plasticity
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28 **ABSTRACT**

29

In December 2019, an outbreak of atypical pneumonia (Coronavirus disease 2019 -COVID-19) associated with a novel coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) was reported in Wuhan city, Hubei province, China. The outbreak was traced to a seafood wholesale market and human to human transmission was confirmed. The rapid spread and the death toll of the new epidemic warrants immediate intervention. The intra-host genomic variability of SARS-CoV-2 plays a pivotal role in the development of effective antiviral agents and vaccines, as well as in the design of accurate diagnostics.

37 We analyzed NGS data derived from clinical samples of three Chinese patients infected with SARS-CoV-2, in order to identify small- and large-scale intra-host variations in 38 39 the viral genome. We identified tens of low- or higher- frequency single nucleotide variations 40 (SNVs) with variable density across the viral genome, affecting 7 out of 10 protein-coding 41 viral genes. The majority of these SNVs (72/104) corresponded to missense changes. The 42 annotation of the identified SNVs but also of all currently circulating strain variations revealed 43 colocalization of intra-host as well as strain specific SNVs with primers and probes currently 44 used in molecular diagnostics assays. Moreover, we de-novo assembled the viral genome, 45 in order to isolate and validate intra-host structural variations and recombination breakpoints. 46 The bioinformatics analysis disclosed genomic rearrangements over poly-A / poly-U regions 47 located in ORF1ab and spike (S) gene, including a potential recombination hot-spot within S 48 gene.

Our results highlight the intra-host genomic diversity and plasticity of SARS-CoV-2, pointing out genomic regions that are prone to alterations. The isolated SNVs and genomic rearrangements reflect the intra-patient capacity of the polymorphic quasispecies, which may arise rapidly during the outbreak, allowing immunological escape of the virus, offering resistance to anti-viral drugs and affecting the sensitivity of the molecular diagnostics assays.

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59	KEYWORDS						
60	SARS-CoV-2, COVID-19 epidemic, intra-host variability, quasispecies, genomic						
61	rearrangements, molecular diagnostics						
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64	Highlights						
65	SARS-CoV-2 exhibits intra-host small- and large-scale genomic variability						
66	SNVs are collocalized with probes and primers used in molecular diagnostic assays						
67	SARS-CoV-2 Spike (S) gene host a potential recombination hot-spot						
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70 INTRODUCTION

Coronaviruses (CoVs), considered to be the largest group of viruses, belong to the *Nidovirales* order, *Coronaviridae* family and *Coronavirinae* subfamily, which is further subdivided into four genera, the alpha- and betacoronaviruses, which infect mammalian species and gamma- and deltacoronaviruses infecting mainly birds [1,2]. Small mammals (mice, dogs, cats) serve as reservoirs for Human Coronaviruses (HCoVs), with significant diversity seen in bats, which are considered to be primordial hosts of HCoVs [3].

77 Until 2002, minor consideration was given to HCoVs, as they were associated with 78 mild-to-severe disease phenotypes in immunocompetent people [3-5]. In 2002, the 79 beginning of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) outbreak took place [6]. In 2005, 80 after the discovery of SARS-CoV-related viruses in horseshoe bats (Rhinolophus), palm 81 civets were suggested as intermediate hosts, and bats as primordial hosts of the virus [6,7]. 82 In 2012, the emerging Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) caused 83 an outbreak in Saudi Arabia, which affected both camels and humans, with a high mortality 84 rate of approximately 34,3% among humans [8]. MERS-CoV has zoonotic origins [9] and 85 was transmitted to humans through direct contact with dromedary camels or indirect contact 86 with contaminated meat or milk[10].

87 On December 31st – 2019, a novel Coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2) was first reported 88 from the city of Wuhan, Hubei province in China, causing severe infection of the respiratory 89 tract in humans, after the identification of a group of similar cases of patients with pneumonia 90 of unknown etiology [11]. Similarly to SARS, epidemiological links between the majority of 91 COVID-19 cases and Huanan South China Seafood Market, a live-animal market, have 92 been reported. A total of 76,775 confirmed cases of "Coronavirus Disease 2019" (COVID-19) were reported up to February 21st 2020, from which 2,247 died and 18,855 recovered. 93 94 Notably, 75,447 of the confirmed cases were reported in China [12].

95 The size of the ssRNA genome of SARS-CoV-2 is 29,891 nucleotides, it encodes
96 9860 amino acids and is characterized by nucleotide identity of ~ 89% with bat SARS-

97 related (SL) CoV-ZXC21 and bat-SL-CoVZC45. However, when compared to HCoVs, 98 SARS-CoV-2 showed genetic similarity of ~ 80% with human SARS-CoVs BJ01 2003 and 99 Tor2 [13] and and 50% with MERS-CoV [14,15]. CoVs are enveloped positive-sense RNA 100 viruses, characterized by a very large non-segmented genome (26 to 32kb length), ready to 101 be translated [2,4]. The genes arrangement on the SARS-CoV-2 genome is: 5'UTR -102 replicase (ORF1/ab) -Spike (S) -ORF3a -Envelope (E) -Membrane (M) -ORF6 -ORF7a -103 ORF8 -Nucleocapsid (N) ORF10 -3'UTR [13]. SARS-CoV-2 encodes proteins that are very 104 similar in length compared to bat-SL-CoVZC45 and bat-SL-CoVZXC21. The SARS-CoV-2 S 105 protein however is longer compared to those encoded by SARS-CoV, and MERS-CoV [15].

106 At inter-host level, adaptive mutations are essential for the newly emerging viruses in 107 order to increase replication and facilitate onward transmission in the new hosts [16]. 108 Particularly for MERS-CoV, SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2, the genetic diversity and frequent 109 recombination events, lead to periodical emergence of new viruses capable of infecting a 110 wide range of hosts [17]. Intra-host variability in viral infections, emerges from genomic 111 phenomena taking place during error-prone replication, ending up to multiple circulating 112 guasispecies of low or higher frequency [18]. These variants, in combination with the 113 genetic profile of the host, can potentially influence the natural history of the infection, the 114 viral phenotype, but also the sensitivity of molecular and serological diagnostics assays 115 [19,20]. In the case of flu epidemics for example, de novo arising mutations and intra-host 116 diversity not only forms intra-host evolution of Influenza A, but also greatly affects the 117 pathogenesis of the virus [21-23]. Indeed, it is suggested that SARS-CoV-2 genomic 118 variants that emerge from inter- and intra-host evolution might be associated with 119 susceptibility to SARS-CoV-2 infection and the severity of COVID-19 [24].

Viruses have developed multiple adaptive strategies to counteract the host immunological response, which are subject to inter- and intra-host selection pressures; "Selfish" strategies confer a selective advantage in a particular quasispecies, impair the immune response inside the infected cell and evolve by intra-host selection, while neutral or "unselfish" defence strategies impair the immune response outside the infected cell and

evolve by inter-host selection, preferentially in viruses with low mutation rates [25]. SARS-CoV-2 mutation rate is moderate and similar to other RNA viruses (0.00084 per site per year) [26], but still generally higher compared to DNA viruses [27]. Moreover, most of the suggested immune escape mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 involve intra-cellular interactions [28], thus expected to evolve by intra-host selective pressure. These observations highlight the importance of SARS-CoV-2 intra-host variability in the frame of viral evolution and hostpathogen interactions.

132 Intra-host genomic variability also leads to antigenic variability, which is of higher 133 importance, especially for pathogens that fail to elicit long-lasting immunity in their hosts, 134 and remains a major contributor to the complexity of vaccine design [29,30]. To date, there 135 are no clinically approved vaccines available for protection of general population from SARS-136 and MERS-CoV infections as there is no effective vaccine to induce robust cell mediated 137 and humoral immune responses [31,32].

Here, we explore intra-host genomic variants and low-frequency polymorphic quasispecies in Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) data derived from patients infected by SARS-CoV-2. Intra-host genomic variability is critical for the development of novel drugs and vaccines, which are of urgent necessity, towards the containment of the pandemic.

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144 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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In this study NGS data derived from three Chinese patients (oral swabs) infected by
SARS-CoV-2 were analysed (SRA projects PRJNA601736 and PRJNA603194). All datasets
available in SRA up to February 20th, 2020 were analysed. The two patients (SRR10903401
and SRR10903402/PRJNA601736), 39- and 21-year-old respectively, experienced unusual
pneumonia. Despite his anti-viral treatment, patient 1 experienced more severe symptoms
The two patients were admitted to the hospital on 25th and 22th December 2019 and were

discharged in stable condition on 12th and 11th January 2020, respectively [33]. The third 41year-old male patient (SRR1097138/PRJNA603194), presented acute onset of common COVID19 symptoms. A combinatory antiviral therapy was administered to the patient. However, he exhibited respiratory failure and was admitted to the intensive care unit. Six days after his admission, he was transferred to another hospital in Wuhan for further treatment [34]. Detailed clinical metadata of the patients are presented in Supplementary Material.

159 The raw read data were aligned on the complete (29,891 bp) SARS-CoV-2 reference 160 sequence (GenBank accession no. MN975262.1, isolate 2019-nCoV HKU-SZ-005b 2020) 161 using bowtie2 v2.3.0 [35], after quality check with FastQC v0.11.5 [36]. The resulting 162 alignments were visualized with the Integrated Genomics Viewer (IGV) v2.3.60 [37]. After 163 removing PCR duplicates, SNVs were called with a Bonferroni-corrected P-value threshold 164 of 0.05 using samtools v1.7 (htslib1.7.2) [38] and LoFreq v2.1.5. LoFreq is a very accurate 165 SNV caller especially designed for viral and bacterial genomes; its performance depends on 166 the sequencing depth and the quality of the NGS reads. For the datasets analyzed in this 167 study (average read depth 133.5x - 598.2x) and based on the assessed read quality >Q30 168 = 88.2 - 92.7%, LoFreq has calling sensitivity = $\sim 1\%$ and PPV=100 [39]. Variants supported 169 by absolute read concordance (>98%) were filtered-out from intra-host variant frequency 170 calculations. Four SNVs from sample SRR10903402 and 3 SNVs from sample 171 SRR10971381 with statistically significant strand bias (P-value < 0.05) were also excluded 172 from further analyses. Variations were annotated to the reference genome using snpEff 173 v4.3p [40], SNVs effects were further filtered with snpSift v4.3p [41] and the average 174 mutation rate per gene across the viral genome was estimated using R scripts (v3.6.2) in 175 RStudio v1.1.456. The colocalization of the intra-host SNVs and population level SNPs 176 retrieved from www.GISAID.org on February 18th 2020, with primers and probes coordinates 177 was also examined, to identify potential interferences with all currently available molecular 178 diagnostic assays [42]. The impact of these SNVs on the binding affinity of primers and 179 probes to their genomic targets, was predicted using FastPCR 3.3.28 [43] and DINAMelt

180 webserver [44]. To investigate intra-host genomic rearrangements, de novo assembly of the 181 SARS-CoV-2 genomes was performed using Spades v3.13.1 [45]. Spades outperforms most 182 modern de novo assemblers in terms of viral genome retrieval and coverage, presenting the 183 highest sensitivity (99.48%) [46]. The resulting contigs were analyzed with BLAST v2.6.0 184 [47] and confirmed by remapping of the raw reads, setting a threshold of 5 not replicated 185 reads for contigs suggesting rearrangements. Smaller contigs (<200 bp) were elongated 186 where possible, after pair-wise realignment of the corresponding mapped reads. Basic 187 computations and visualizations were implemented in R programming language v3.6.2, 188 using in-house scripts. The secondary structures of the genomic regions surrounding the 189 recombination breakpoints were predicted using RNAfold webserver [48].

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192 **RESULTS**

The mapping assembly of the viral genome was almost complete for all samples. The genome coverage and the average read depth across the genome was 100.0% and 133.5x for sample SRR10903401, 100.0% and 522.5x for sample SRR10903402, and 99.9%, and 598.2x for sample SRR10971381, respectively (**Table 1**).

197 In all samples, the same 5 SNVs isolated with 98-100% read concordance, thus in 198 total divergence with the reference genome (MN975262.1), were excluded from downstream 199 analysis. For sample SRR10903401 34 lower frequency SNVs were isolated in total. Of 200 these, 33 were present with frequencies ranking between 2 and 15%, while only one was 201 present in 40% of the intra-host viral population. The sequencing depth, which is also 202 evaluated during the SNV calling by the LoFreg algorithm, ranked between 39x and 290x at 203 the corresponding SNV positions. The sequencing depth of sample SRR10903402 at the 204 polymorphic positions was higher (103x - 1137x), allowing the isolation of 55 SNVs with 205 frequencies distributed between 0.9% and 14%. The depth over the polymorphic positions of sample SRR10971381 was between 159x – 1872x, allowing the isolation of 10 intra-host
 SNVs, with frequencies 1.1% - 6.8% (Figure 1.A, Suppl.Table 1).

208 Intra-host variants were distributed across 7 out of the 10 protein-coding genes of the 209 viral genome, namely ORF1ab, S, ORF3a, ORF6, ORF7a, ORF8 and N. After normalising 210 for the gene length (variants/kb-gene-length, "v/kbgl"), the density of the SNVs for each gene 211 was estimated (Table 2). The majority of the SNPs corresponded to missense changes 212 (leading to amino-acid change) compared to synonymous changes (cumulatively 72 vs. 29 213 respectively, ratio 2.48:1) (**Table 2**), while the average number of missense changes was 214 marginally significantly higher compared to synonymous changes (23.3 vs. 8.0 respectively, 215 Wilcoxon rank sum test, p=0.054). The average intra-host variant frequency did not differ 216 significantly either between missense and synonymous polymorphisms (Wilcoxon rank sum 217 test, p>0.05) (Figure 1.C), or between their hosting genes (pairwise Wilcoxon rank sum tests, p>0.05) (Figure 1.D). We did not detect any small-scale insertions or deletions in the 218 219 samples (Suppl. Table 1).

The comparison of all SNVs (intra-host and population level) with the genomic targets of the molecular diagnostics assays, revealed colocalization of 3 intra-host SNVs and 2isolate-specific SNVs with primers and probes currently in use in RdRP_SARSr, HKU-N, 2019-nCoV-N1 and 2019-nCoV-N2 diagnostic reactions (**Figure 2**). The thermodynamic assessment of these SNVs revealed variable impact on the binding affinity of the corresponding primers and probes on the mutated genomic region (**Suppl. Table 2**)

226 The *de novo* assembly of the viral genomes was almost complete for samples 227 SRR10903401 and SRR10903402 covering 99.7 % of the genome with 4 overlapping 228 contigs and 99.5% of the genome with a single contig, respectively. The de novo assembly 229 of sample SRR10971381 was complete, with one contig covering 100% of the genome. 230 Alternative contigs revealed intra-host genomic rearrangements (Figure 3, Table 3). For 231 samples SRR10903401 and SRR10903402, these large-scale structural events were 232 systematically observed over poly-A / poly-U-rich genomic regions, located in ORF1ab and S 233 genes. All rearrangements were validated by remapping of the raw reads on the

234 corresponding *de novo* assembled contigs, setting a threshold of at least 5 supporting reads 235 of high mapping quality (>40) in each case. For sample SRR10903401 three 236 inversions/misassemblies in ORF1ab (Suppl. Figure 1) and one inversion/misassembly in S 237 gene (Figure 4-A) were isolated. Notably, we were able to validate the same inversion in S 238 gene for sample SRR10903402 as well (Figure 4-B). Apart from 2 inversions in ORF1ab 239 supported by only 2 reads each (not passing the validation threshold), there were no further 240 large-scale intra-host events observed for sample SRR10903402. Similarly, one 241 inversion/misassembly in sample SRR10971381 that was supported by only one read was 242 identified. The alignment coordinates of all rearrangement-supporting contigs with respect to 243 the reference strain are presented in Table 3.

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247 **DISCUSSION**

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The rapid spread and the death toll of the new SARS-CoV-2 epidemic warrants the immediate identification / development of effective antiviral agents and vaccines, and the design of accurate diagnostics as well. The intra- and inter- patient variability affects the compatibility of molecular diagnostics but also impairs the effectiveness of the vaccines and the serological assays by altering the antigenicity of the virus.

254 All samples analysed in this study were probably infected by the same viral strain 255 since they shared the same set of consensus SNVs. However, apart from 3 intra-host SNVs 256 that were common between SRR10903401 and SRR10903402, there was no other overlap 257 observed between the low frequency variants of each sample (Figure 1-B). This indicates 258 that these variations have occurred in a rather random fashion and are not subject to 259 selective pressures, which is also supported by the fact that the missense mutations were 260 systematically more, compared to the synonymous mutations [49]. On the other hand, 261 missense substitutions are more common in loci involving pathogen resistance, indicating 262 positive selection [50]. The analysed viral RNA might have originated from functional/packed 263 virions, but also from unpacked viral genomes, unable to replicate and infect other host cells. 264 Even if a viral genome is unable to replicate independently, its abundant presence in the 265 pool of viral quasispecies implies some functionality regarding the intra-host evolution and 266 adaptation. For example, defective viral genomes might affect infection dynamics such as 267 viral persistence as well as the natural history of the infection [51,52]. At the same time, 268 these variants may arise rapidly during an outbreak and can be used for tracking the 269 transmission chains and the spatiotemporal characteristics of the epidemic [53-55]. More 270 studies based on genomic datasets accompanied by clinical metadata are needed, in order 271 to accurately define associations between intra-host SARS-CoV-2 genomic variants, the progression and the clinical outcome of COVID19. 272

273 SNVs and guasispecies observed at low frequency could represent viral variations of 274 low impact on the functionality of the genome. Bal et. al, suggest that development of 275 guasispecies may promote viral evolution, however high depth of coverage is essential for 276 the study of intra-host adaptation [56]. The abundance of low-frequency variations is largely 277 affected by the population size and the epidemic characteristics. For example, a neutral 278 substitution in a region that represents a primer target for a molecular diagnostic assay can 279 drift to fixation rather quickly in a rapidly spreading virus, jeopardizing the sensitivity of the 280 assay [57,58]. Here, we highlight three intra-host but also two fixed variants that are colocalized with primers or probes of real-time PCR diagnostics assays that are currently in 281 282 use (Figure 2). Since the binding affinity of these oligos to their genomic targets 283 (Suppl.Table 2) is directly linked to the performance of the corresponding diagnostic assays, 284 the community should pay extra attention in the evaluation of these potentially emerging 285 variations and be alerted, in case redesigning of these oligos is needed.

286 As it is well documented, recombination events lead to substantial changes in genetic 287 diversity of RNA viruses [49,59]. In CoVs, discontinuous RNA synthesis is commonly 288 observed, resulting in high frequencies of homologous recombination [60], which can be up 289 to 25% across the entire CoV genome [61]. For pathogenic HCoVs genomic rearrangements 290 are frequently reported during the course of epidemic outbreaks, such as HCoV-OC43 [62], 291 and HCoV-NL63 [63], SARS-CoV [64][62] and MERS-CoV [65]. We have isolated intra-host 292 genomic rearrangements, located in poly-A and poly-U enriched palindrome regions across 293 the SARS-CoV-2 genome (Figure 4). We conclude that these rearrangements do not 294 represent artifacts derived from the NGS library preparation (e.g. PCR crosstalk artifacts), 295 especially since all the supporting reads were not duplicated and, in some cases, differed in 296 polymorphic positions (Suppl. Figure 1).

297 Recombination processes involving S gene particularly, have been reported for 298 SARS- and SARS-like CoV but also for HCoV-OC43. In the case of sister species HCoV-299 NL63 and HCoV-229E, recombination breakpoints are located near 3'- and 5'-end of the 300 gene [1][65]. S is a trimeric protein, which is cleaved into two subunits, the globular N-

301 terminal S1 and the C-terminal S2 [66]. Our analysis revealed that similarly to other genomic 302 regions, the S1 subunit hosts many low-frequency SNVs, characterized by higher density 303 compared to the rest of the S gene sequence (Figure 1-E). The S2 subunit is highly 304 conserved [13] and contains two fusion peptides (FP, IFP) [66]. In S gene, the same 305 rearrangement event has taken place in two samples analyzed in this study, located in 306 nt24,000, which corresponds to the ~200nt linking region between FP and IFP (aa 812-813). 307 This observation highlights a potential recombination hot-spot. Examining closely the 308 secondary structure of the RNA genome around the breakpoints, we suggest a model where 309 the palindromes 5'-UGGUUUU-3' and 5'-AAAACCAA-3', have served as donor-acceptor 310 sequences during the recombination event, since they are both exposed in the single-311 stranded internal loops formed in a highly structured RNA pseudoknot (Figure 4-C). The RB 312 domain of the S protein has been tested as a potential immunogen as it contains 313 neutralization epitopes which appear to have a role in the induction of neutralizing antibodies 314 [31]. It should be mentioned though that the S protein of SARS-CoV is the most divergent in 315 all strains infecting humans [67], as in both C and N-terminal domains variations arise 316 rapidly, allowing immunological escape [68]. Our findings support that apart from these 317 variations, the N-terminal region also hosts a recombination hot-spot, which together with the 318 rest of the observed rearrangements, indicates the genomic instability of SARS-CoV-2 over 319 poly-A and poly-U regions.

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Authors' contributions: TK: Conceptualization; Data curation; Formal analysis; Methodology; Supervision; Validation; Visualization; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. GP: Data curation; Formal analysis; Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing. MB: Visualization; Writing - review & editing. AM, ST and AM: Writing - original draft; Writing - review & editing.

- 327
- 328 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**: Not applicable.

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FIGURE LEGENTS

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338 Figure 1: Intra – host SNVs: (A) Intra host SNV frequency vs sequencing read depth (X 339 coverage) in the corresponding alignment position. (B) Venn diagram representing unique 340 and common SNVs isolated from the three patients (C) Boxplot of intra-host SNVs frequency 341 vs. SNV type - synonymous, missense, nonsense (stop gained) (low, moderate and high 342 impact respectively). Average values are in red rhombs. (D) Intra-host SNVs frequency vs. 343 all seven genes affected (ORF1ab, S, ORF3a, ORF6, ORF7a, ORF8, N). Average values 344 are in red rhombs. (E) Density histogram of intra-host SNVs isolated from all patients (total 345 number of SNVs / 100 bp - blue bars) and average sequencing read depth (X coverage -346 green line), across the SARS-CoV-2 genome map (genes in orange, 5' and 3' untranslated 347 regions in light blue).

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Figure 2: Truncated map of SARS-CoV-2 genome illustrating a subset of intra-host (blue lines) and globally collected, isolate-specific SNVs (orange lines) with respect to the genomic targets of molecular diagnostics assays (red arrows – primers, red bars - probes). Three intra-host variants (orange triangles), and two strain specific variants (Wuhan/IVD-HB-04/2020 and Chongqing/YC01/2020 - red triangles), are colocalized with the RdRP_SARSr probe (15,474 T > G), the 2019-nCoV_N1 forward primer (28,291 C > T), the HKU-N reverse primer (28,971 A > G) and the 2019-nCoV-N2 probe (29,188 T > C and 29,200 C > T).

Figure 3: Alignment of the de novo assembled contigs on the genomic map (bottom). Concordantly aligned contigs (correct or gapped) are in green, while discordantly aligned contigs are in red. Sequencing read depth (X coverage) across the genome (blue histograms) and relative % GC content (green line) is presented for each sample.

361

362 Figure 4: Recombination events in S gene. Samples (A) SRR10903401 and (B) 363 SRR10903402. Alignments of the de novo assembled contigs with respect to the reference 364 genome (MN 975262). Donor – acceptor palindrome sequences are indicated in green bars. 365 Raw, non-duplicated NGS reads, validating the recombination event, are represented below 366 the corresponding contig. (C): Prediction of the secondary structure of the genomic region 367 spanning the rearrangement breakpoint (100 bases upstream and 100 bases downstream). 368 The corresponding donor- acceptor sequences, exposed in internal loops, are indicated in 369 green bars.

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TABLES

Table 1: NGS read alignment and genome coverage metrics	>

	Sample			
	SRR10903401	SRR10903402	SRR10971381	
Paired Reads, N (%)	·			
Total Number	476632 (100)	676694 (100)	28282964 (100)	
Aligned	13913 (2.94)	54723 (8.18)	62,288 (0.22)	
Concordantly Aligned	11469 (2.40)	44176 (6.52)	59261(0.21)	
Discordantly Aligned	2444 (0.53)	10547 (1.67)	3027 (0.01)	
Single Mates, N (%)				
Aligned	244 (0.03)	1308 (0.11)	294(0.001)	
Overall Alignment Rate (%)	2.94	8.18	0.22	
Quality score >Q30 (%)	92.7	92.1	88.2	
Genome Coverage (%)	100.0	100.0	99.9	
Average read depth (X)	133.5	522.2	598.2	

Table 2: Impact of Intra-host SNVs on viral genes

Gene	Low (synonymous)	Moderate (missense)	High (stop gained)	Total, N (v/kbgl)*
ORF1ab	19	53	2	74 (3.47)
S	6	9	1	16 (4.18)
ORF3a	0	1	0	1 (1.20)
E	0	0	0	0 (0)
Μ	0	0	0	0 (0)
ORF6	2	1	0	3 (16.21)
ORF7a	0	1	0	1 (2.73)
ORF8	0	3	0	3 (8.21)
Ν	2	4	0	6 (4.76)
ORF10	0	0	0	0 (0)
Total, N	29	72	3	

Intra-host Variants Impact, N

* normalised variants per 1 kb gene length (variants / gene-length *1000)

Table 3: Alignment characteristics of de novo assembled contigs

Contig Name	Contig Length	Refe Coord	erence* dinates	Contig Coordinates		Alignment Identity (%)	Alignment Type	Average Read Depth (x)	QC Pass [#]
		start	end	start	end				
SRR10903401 (99.7% coverage)									
Contig 1	23994	75	24068	23994	1	99.99	Correct	57.01	+
Contig 2	5681	24246	29891	1	5646	99.96	Correct	71.40	+
Contig 3	331	23992	24322	331	1	100	Correct	164.39	+
Contig 4	179	24221	24399	179	1	100	Correct	97.56	+
Contig 5	192	17816	17909	94	1	100	Inversion	7.22	+
		17933	18030	95	192	100	Correct		
Contig 6	181	18052	18152	101	1	100	Relocation, Inconsistency	8.12	+
		17766	17845	102	181	100	Misassembly		
Contig 7	169	1707	1765	62	4	100	Inversion	7.62	+
		1815	1903	63	151	97.75	Correct		
Contig 8	165	23992	24087	96	1	100	Inversion	18.04	+
		23963	24031	97	165	100	misassembly		
SRR10903402 (99.5% coverage)									
Contig 1	29842	133	29891	29842	84	99.98	Correct	234.32	+
Contig 2	242	2075	2139	178	242	100	Partial	1.09	-
Contig 3	242	21577	21629	242	190	100	Partial	1.06	-
Contig 4	173	23992	24090	102	4	100	Inversion	39.30	+
		23963	24033	103	173	100	Misassembly		
SRR10971381 (100.0% coverage)									
Contig 1	29902	1	29891	29897	7	99.98	Correct	267.59	+
Contig 2	241	516	559	163	120	100	Inversion	1.00	-
		472	501	119	90	100	Misassembly		

* Corresponding to reference MN975262 coordinates

[#] contig supported by at least 5 non duplicated reads of mapping quality >40