¹Population Bottlenecks and Intra-host Evolution during Human-to-²Human Transmission of SARS-CoV-2

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44**Abstract**

45The emergence of the novel human coronavirus, SARS-CoV-2, causes a global COVID-19 46(coronavirus disease 2019) pandemic. Here, we have characterized and compared viral populations 47of SARS-CoV-2 among COVID-19 patients within and across households. Our work showed an active 48viral replication activity in the human respiratory tract and the co-existence of genetically distinct 49viruses within the same host. The inter-host comparison among viral populations further revealed a 50narrow transmission bottleneck between patients from the same households, suggesting a dominated 51role of stochastic dynamics in both inter-host and intra-host evolutions.

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53Author summary

54In this study, we compared SARS-CoV-2 populations of 13 Chinese COVID-19 patients. Those viral 55populations contained a considerable proportion of viral sub-genomic messenger RNAs (sgmRNA), 56reflecting an active viral replication activity in the respiratory tract tissues. The comparison of 66 57identified intra-host variants further showed a low viral genetic distance between intra-household 58patients and a narrow transmission bottleneck size. Despite the co-existence of genetically distinct 59viruses within the same host, most intra-host minor variants were not shared between transmission 60pairs, suggesting a dominated role of stochastic dynamics in both inter-host and intra-host evolutions. 61Furthermore, the narrow bottleneck and active viral activity in the respiratory tract show that the 62passage of a small number of virions can cause infection. Our data have therefore delivered a key 63genomic resource for the SARS-CoV-2 transmission research and enhanced our understanding of the 64evolutionary dynamics of SARS-CoV-2.

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66Introduction

67The rapid spread of the novel human coronavirus, SARS-CoV-2, has been causing millions of COVID-6819 (coronavirus disease 2019) cases with high mortality rate worldwide [1,2]. As an RNA virus, SARS-69CoV-2 mutates frequently due to the lack of sufficient mismatch repairing mechanisms during genome 70replication [3], leading to the development of genetically different viruses within the same host. 71Several studies have reported intra-host single nucleotide variants (iSNVs) in SARS-CoV-2 [4–6]. 72Recently, we investigated the intra-host evolution of SARS-CoV-2 and revealed genetic differentiation 73among tissue-specific populations [7]. However, it is still not clear how the intra-host variants circulate 74among individuals. Here, we described and compared viral populations of SARS-CoV-2 among 75COVID-19 patients within and across households. Our work here demonstrated the utilization of viral 76genomic information to identify transmission linkage of this virus.

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78Results and discussion

79Using both metatranscriptomic and hybrid-capture based techniques, we newly deep sequenced 80respiratory tract (RT) samples of seven COVID-19 patients in Guangdong, China, including two pairs 81of patients from the same households, respectively (P03 and P11; P23 and P24). The data were then 82combined with those of 23 RT samples used in our previous study [7], yielding a combined data set of 8330 RT samples from 13 COVID-19 patients (**Table S1**).

A sustained viral population should be supported by an active viral replication [8]. We firstly 85estimated the viral transcription activity within RT samples using viral sub-genomic messenger RNAs 86(**sgmRNAs**), which is only synthesised in infected host cells [9]. The sgmRNA abundance was 87measured as the ratio of short reads spanning the transcription regulatory sequence (TRS) sites to 88the viral genomic reads. The sgmRNA abundance within nasal and throat swab samples was similar 89to that within sputum samples (**Figure 1a**), reflecting an active viral replication in the upper respiratory 90tract. Notably, the patient P01, who eventually passed away due to COVID-19, showed the highest 91level of sgmRNA abundance (**Figure S1**). Among the samples from patients with improved clinical 92outcomes, their viral Ct (cycle threshold) value of reverse transcriptase quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) 93negatively correlated with the days post symptoms onset (**Figure 1b**). Interestingly, the sgmRNA 94abundance showed a similar trend across time (**Figure 1c**). This result is further strengthened by the 95positive correlation between sgmRNA abundance and the Ct value (**Figure 1d**), reflecting a direct 96biological association between viral replication and viral shedding in the respiratory tract tissues.

Using the metatranscriptomic data, we identified 66 iSNVs in protein encoding regions with the 98alternative allele frequency (AAF) ranged from 5% to 95% (**Table S2 and Table S3**). The identified 99iSNVs showed a high concordance between the AAFs derived from metatranscriptomic and that from 100hybrid-capture sequences (Spearman's $\rho = 0.81$, P < 2.2e-16; **Figure S2**). We firstly looked for 101signals of natural selection against intra-host variants. Using the Fisher's exact test, we compared the 102number of iSNV sites on each codon position against that of the other two positions and detected a 103significant difference among them (codon position 1[n = 10, P = 0.02], 2 [n = 21; P = 1] and 3 [n = 35; 104P = 0.03]). However, those iSNVs did not show a discriminated AAF among the non-synonymous and 105synonymous categories (**Figure 2a**), suggesting that most non-synonymous variants were not under 106an effective purifying selection within the host. Among the 66 identified iSNVs, 30 were coincided with 107the consensus variants in the public database (**Table S2**). Those iSNVs were categorised into 108common iSNVs, while the iSNVs presented in a single patient were categorised into rare iSNVs. 109Interestingly, the common iSNVs had a significant higher minor allele frequency compared to the rare 110iSNVs (**Figure S3**; Wilcoxon rank sum test, P = 2.7e-05), suggesting that they may have been 111developed in earlier strains before the most recent infection.

112 We then estimated the viral genetic distance among samples in a pairwise manner based on their 113iSNVs and allele frequencies. The samples were firstly categorised into intra-host pairs (serial 114samples from the same host), intra-household pairs and inter-household pairs (Figure 2b and Table 115**S4**). As expected, the intra-host pairs had the lowest genetic distance compared to either intra-116household pairs (Wilcoxon rank sum test, P = 0.018) and inter-household pairs (Wilcoxon rank sum 117test, P < 2.22e-16). Interestingly, the genetic distance between intra-household pairs was significantly 118 lower than that of inter-household pairs (Figure 2b; Wilcoxon rank sum test, P = 0.03), supporting a 119direct passage of virions among intra-household individuals. Nonetheless, we only observed a few 120minor variants shared among intra-household pairs, suggesting that the estimated genetic similarity 121was mostly determined by consensus nucleotide differences (Figure 2c,d). Specifically, in one intra-122household pair (P23 and P24), one patient (P23) contained iSNVs that were coincided with the linked 123variants, C8782T and T28144C, suggesting that this patient may have been co-infected by genetically 124distinct viruses. However, the strain carrying C8782T and T28144C was not observed in the intra-125household counterpart (P24). It is likely that there is a narrow transmission bottleneck allowing only 126the major strain to be circulated, if P23 was infected by all the observed viral strains before the 127transmission.

The transmission bottlenecks among intra-household pairs were estimated using a beta binomial 129model, which was designed to allow some temporal stochastic dynamics of viral population in the 130recipient [10]. Here, we defined the donor and recipient within the intra-household pairs according to 131their dates of the first symptom onset. The estimated bottleneck sizes were 6 (P03 and P11) and 8 132(P23 and P24) for the two intra-household pairs (**Table S5**). This result is consistent with the patterns 133observed in many animal viruses and human respiratory viruses [11,12], while the only study reporting

134a loose bottleneck among human respiratory viral infections [13] was argued as the generic 135consequence of shared iSNVs caused by read mapping artefacts [14]. The relatively narrow 136transmission bottleneck sizes is expected to increase the variance of viral variants being circulated 137between transmission pairs [15]. Even after successful transmission, virions carrying the minor 138variants are likely to be purged out due to the frequent stochastic dynamics within the respiratory tract 139[7], which is also consistent with the low diversity and instable iSNV observed among the RT samples. 140 The observed narrow transmission bottleneck suggests that, in general, only a few virions 141successfully enter host cells and eventually cause infection. Although the number of transmitted 142virions is sparse, they can easily replicate in the respiratory tract, given the observed viral replication 143activities in all the RT sample types and the high host-cell receptor binding affinity of SARS-CoV-2 144[16]. The narrow transmission bottleneck also indicate that instant hand hygiene and mask-wearing 145might be particular effective in blocking the transmission chain of SARS-CoV-2.

In summary, we have characterized and compared SARS-CoV-2 populations of patients within and 147across households using both metatranscriptomic and hybrid-capture based techniques. Our work 148showed an active viral replication activity in the human respiratory tract and the co-existence of 149genetically distinct viruses within the same host. The inter-host comparison among viral populations 150further revealed a narrow transmission bottleneck between patients from the same households, 151suggesting a dominated role of stochastic dynamics in both inter-host and intra-host evolution. The 152present work enhanced our understanding of SARS-CoV-2 virus transmission and shed light on the 153integration of genomic and epidemiological in the control of this virus.

154Materials and methods

155Patient and Ethics statement

156Respiratory tract (RT) samples, including nasal swabs, throat swabs, sputum, were collected from 13 157COVID-19 patients during the early outbreak of the pandemic (from January 25 to February 10 of 1582020). Those patients were hospitalized at the first affiliated hospital of Guangzhou Medical University 159(10 patients), the fifth affiliated hospital of Sun Yat-sen University (1 patient), Qingyuan People's 160Hospital (1 patient) and Yangjiang People's Hospital (1 patient). The research plan was assessed and 161approved by the Ethics Committee of each hospital. All the privacy information was anonymized.

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163Dataset description

164Public consensus sequences were downloaded from GISAID.

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166Real-time RT-qPCR and sequencing

167RNA was extracted from the clinical RT samples using QIAamp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, 168Germany), which was then tested for SARS-CoV-2 using Real-time RT-qPCR. Human DNA was 169removed using DNase I and RNA concentration was measured using Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit 170(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). After human DNA-depletion, the samples were RNA 171purified and then subjected to double-stranded DNA library construction using the MGIEasy RNA 172Library preparation reagent set (MGI, Shenzhen, China) following the method used in the previous 173study [17]. Possible contamination during experimental processing was tracked using human breast 174cell lines (Michigan Cancer Foundation-7). The constructed libraries were converted to DNA nanoballs 175(DNBs) and then sequenced on the DNBSEQ-T7 platform (MGI, Shenzhen, China), generating 176paired-end short reads with 100bp in length. Most samples were also sequenced using hybrid 177capture-based enrichment approach that was described in previous study [17]. Briefly, the SARS-178CoV-2 genomic content was enriched from the double-stranded DNA libraries using the 2019-179nCoVirus DNA/RNA Capture Panel (BOKE, Jiangsu, China). The enriched SARS-CoV-2 genomic 180contents were converted to DNBs and then sequenced on the MGISEQ-2000 platform, generating 181paired-end short reads with 100bp in length.

183Data filtering

184Read data from both metatranscriptomic and hybrid capture based sequencing were filtered following 185the steps described in the previous research [17]. In brief, short read data were mapped to a database 186that contains major coronaviridae genomes. Low-quality, adaptor contaminations, duplications, and 187low-complexity within the mapped reads were removed to generate the high quality coronaviridae-like 188short read data.

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190Profiling of sub-genomic messenger RNA (sgmRNAs)

191Coronaviridae-like short reads were mapped to the reference genome (EPI_ISL_402119) using the 192aligner HISAT2 [18]. Reads spanning the transcription regulatory sequence (TRS) sites of both leader 193region and the coding genes (S gene, ORF3a, 6, 7a, 8, E, M and N gene) were selected to represent 194the sgmRNAs. The junction sites were predicted using RegTools junctions extract [19]. The ratio of 195sgmRNA reads to the viral genomic RNA reads (sgmRNA ratio) was used to estimate the relative 196transcription activity of SARS-CoV-2.

197

198Detection of intra-host variants

199We defined an intra-host single nucleotide variant (iSNV) as the co-existence of an alternative allele 200and the reference allele at the same genomic position within the same sample. To identify iSNV sites, 201paired-end metatranscriptomic coronaviridae-like short read data were mapped to the reference 202genome (EPI ISL 402119) using BWA aln (v.0.7.16) with default parameters [20]. The duplicated 203reads were detected and marked using Picard MarkDuplicates (v. 2.10.10204(http://broadinstitute.github.io/picard). Nucleotide composition of each genomic position was 205characterized from the mapping results pysamstats read using (v. 1.1.2)206(https://github.com/alimanfoo/pysamstats). The variable sites of each sample were identified using the 207variant caller LoFreq with default filters and the cut-off of 5% minor allele frequency. After filtering the 208sites with more than one alternative allele, the rest sites were regarded as iSNV sites. All the iSNVs 209 with less than five metatranscriptomic reads were verified using the hybrid capture data (at least two 210reads). The identified iSNVs were then annotated using the SnpEff (v.2.0.5) with default settings [21]. 211

212 Genetic distance

213The genetic distance between sample pairs was calculated using L1-norm distance, as defined by the 214following formula. The L1-norm distance (*D*) between sample pairs is calculated by summing the 215distance of all the variable loci (*N*). The distance on each variable locus is calculated between vectors 216(*p* and *q* for each sample) of possible base frequencies (n=4i.

$$217D = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} i p_i - q_i \vee i i$$

218To verify the result, L2-norm distance (Euclidean distance) between sample pairs was calculated. The 219L2-norm distance d(p,q) between two samples (p,q) is the square root of sum of distance across 220all the variable loci (*N*), as defined by the following formula.

221
$$d(p,q) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (p_i - q_i)^2}$$

222The comparison of genetic distances among sample pair categories was performed using the 223Wilcoxon rank-sum test.

224

225Beta binomial model of bottleneck size estimation

226A beta-binomial model was used to estimate bottleneck sizes between donors and recipients. Here, 227the bottleneck size represents the number of virions that pass into the recipient and finally shape the 228sequenced viral population. The patient with the earlier symptom onset date was defined as the 229donor, while the other was defined as the recipient. The maximum-likelihood estimates (MLE) of 230bottleneck sizes were estimated within 95% confidence intervals.

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287 DATA AVAILABILITY

288The data that support the findings of this study have been deposited into CNSA (CNGB Sequence 289Archive) of CNGBdb with the accession number CNP0001111 (https://db.cngb.org/cnsa/). 290

291 DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

292No conflict of interest was reported by the authors

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308AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

309D.W., Y.X., J.L., W.Z. and J.Z. conceived the study, Y.W., L.Z., and Y.L. collected clinical specimen 310and executed the experiments. D.W., W.S., X.C. and J.J. analyzed the data. All the authors 311participated in discussion and result interpretation. D.W., Y.W., and Z.Z. wrote the manuscript. All 312authors revised and approved the final version.

313Figures



315Figure 1. sub-genomic messenger RNAs (sgmRNAs)

316**a**, The ratio of sgmRNA of each respiratory sample type (nasal, throat swabs and sputum). **b**, 317Correlation between the cycle threshold (Ct) of RT-qPCR and the days post symptoms onset. **c**, 318Correlation between estimated sgmRNA ratio and the days post symtoms onset. **d**, Correlation 319between estimated sgmRNA ratio and the cycle threshold of RT-qPCR.





322**a**, Box plots showing the alternative allele frequency (AAF) distribution of synonymous and non-323synonymous intra-host variants. **b**, Box plots representing the L1-norm distance distribution among 324sample pairs. Each dot represents the genetic distance between each sample pair. **c**, The AAF of 325donor iSNVs in transmission pairs. Allele frequencies under 5% and over 95% were adjusted to 0% 326and 1, respectively. **d**, Heatmap representing the alternative allele frequencies (AAFs) of consensus 327and intra-host single nucleotide variants (iSNVs) of the two transmission pairs.

328**SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION**

- 329Table S1. Demography and clinical outcomes of COVID-19 patients
- 330Table S2. Summary of iSNVs
- 331Table S3. Frequency of iSNVs
- 332Table S4. Inter-host genetic distance (L1 and L2-norm)
- 333Table S5. Bottleneck size of intra-household pairs







339Figure S2. Concordance between minor alternative allele frequencies (AAFs) derived from 340metagenomic and hybrid capture data.



342Figure S3. Alternative allele frequency (AAF) distribution of rare and common iSNVs





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