1 **Title: SARS-CoV-2 spike D614G variant confers enhanced replication and transmissibility**

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34

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Abstract

During the evolution of SARS-CoV-2 in humans a D614G substitution in the spike (S) protein emerged and became the predominant circulating variant (S-614G) of the COVID-19 pandemic[1]. However, whether the increasing prevalence of the S-614G variant represents a fitness advantage that improves replication and/or transmission in humans or is merely due to founder effects remains elusive. Here, we generated isogenic SARS-CoV-2 variants and demonstrate that the S-614G variant has (i) enhanced binding to human ACE2, (ii) increased replication in primary human bronchial and nasal airway epithelial cultures as well as in a novel human ACE2 knock-in mouse model, and (iii) markedly increased replication and transmissibility in hamster and ferret models of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Collectively, our data show that while the S-614G substitution results in subtle increases in binding and replication *in vitro*, it provides a real competitive advantage *in vivo,* particularly during the transmission bottle neck, providing an explanation for the global predominance of S-614G variant among the SARS-CoV-2 viruses currently circulating.

Main Text

In late 2019, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) emerged in Wuhan, Hubei province, China[2,3] and rapidly developed into the COVID-19 pandemic. By the end of September 2020, the worldwide death toll had passed one million people with more than 37 million infections[4]. Symptoms are usually mild; however in more vulnerable groups, such as aged individuals or people with comorbidities, SARS-CoV-2 can cause life-threatening pneumonia[5]. Cell entry of SARS-CoV-2 is dependent on the interaction of the spike glycoprotein (S) and the host cell surface receptor angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2)[3,6]. S is a homotrimeric class I fusion protein consisting of two subunits S1 and S2, which are separated by a protease cleavage site. The S1 forms a globular head and is essential for receptor binding, while S2 is responsible for fusion of the viral envelope with host cell membranes. During the entry process, the receptor-binding domain (RBD) within the S1 subunit binds ACE2, generating conformational changes in the S2 subunit, which facilitates virus internalization[7,8]. S-D614G is a protein variant containing a substitution in the S protein outside of the RBD and is thought to cause a conformational change. It is believed to weaken the interprotomer latch in the S protein trimer between the S1 and S2 domains and causes a more "open" conformation that improves ACE2 binding and increases the probability of infection [1,9]. Over the course of the pandemic, the SARS-CoV-2 S-614G variant rapidly superseded the parental S-614D variant in frequency to become globally dominant. Such a shift in genotype frequency might be caused by a founder effect following introduction into a highly interconnected population. However, there are multiple lines of evidence suggesting that the S-614G variant may confer a fitness advantage compared to S-614D: increased frequency of S-614G in distinct geographical regions, initial experimental evidence with pseudotyped lentiviruses[9] or vesicular stomatitis viruses [8], and

74   reports of the S-614G variant being associated with higher viral loads[1]. To better address the

75   role that the S-D614G substitution has played in the dissemination and predominance of this

76   SARS-CoV-2 variant during the COVID-19 pandemic, we characterized S protein binding to

77   human ACE2 (hACE2) and replication kinetics *in vitro*, and evaluated infection and transmission

78   dynamics *in vivo* using three different animal models. The data show that the S-D614G

79   substitution confers increased binding to the hACE2 receptor and increased replication in

80   primary human airway epithelial cultures. Moreover, comparison of recombinant isogenic

81   SARS-CoV-2 variants demonstrates that S-614G substitution provides competitive advantage in

82   a hACE2 knock-in mouse model, and markedly increases replication and transmission in Syrian

83   hamster and ferret models.

84

85   **Results**

86   **SARS-CoV-2 S-614G binds to hACE2 more efficiently**

87   To determine whether the S-D614G substitution directly affects the binding between the S and

88   hACE2, we first used the biolayer interferometry (BLI) technology to quantify their biding

89   affinity. Because the S1 component of the S is the domain that interacts with receptor, a

90   reductionist approach was used to determine if the D614G played a role in hACE2 binding by

91   monomeric S1 proteins. Pre-biotinylated polyhistidine-tagged S1 proteins with 614D or 614G

92   (S1-614D and S1-614G, respectively) both bind efficiently to hACE2; however, S1-614G (KD =

93   1.65 nM) showed about 2-fold higher affinity than S1-614D (KD = 3.74 nM) (Figure 1A). When

94   the full-length monomeric spike ectodomain was used in the assay, the S-614G protein also

95   showed higher affinity to hACE2 than S-614D (Extended Data Figure 1A). The enhanced

5

96   binding to hACE2 protein rendered by the S-D614G substitution also resulted in enhanced S1

97   binding to Baby Hamster Kidney (BHK) cells expressing exogenous hACE2 (BHK-hACE2) in a

98   different binding assay (Figure 1B, Extended Data Figure 1B). We incubated polyhistidine-

99   tagged S1-614D or S1-614G proteins with BHK-hACE2 and analyzed the binding efficiency of

100   S1 to the cells using flow cytometry. At the same S1 concentration, more S1-614G bound to the

101   BHK-hACE2 cells than S1-614D (Figure 1B, Extended Data Figure 1B). Recombinant S1

102   constructs that express two S1 molecules attached to an IgG carboxyl-terminus were generated to

103   further evaluate the impact the S-D614G substitution. An even more striking difference was

104   observed with the pair of Fc(IgG)-tagged S1-614D or S1-614G proteins used for binding studies

105   instead of polyhistidine-tagged S1 constructs (Figure 1B, Extended Data Figure 1B).

106

107   Increased replication of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} virus in primary human epithelial cells

108   To assess the impact of S-614G in the context of virus infection we generated an isogenic

109   D614G virus pair based on our reverse genetics system for SARS-CoV-2[10]. The molecular clone

110   is based on the Wuhan-Hu-1 isolate possessing the S-614D variant (SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D}) [10,11].

111   The sequence of the isogenic S-614G variant was engineered to have an A to G nucleotide

112   change at position 23,403 to encode a glycine at the S protein position 614. The identity of the

113   resulting recombinant SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant was confirmed by full-length sequencing from

114   the passage 1 virus stock that was used for subsequent experiments. Replication kinetics of

115   SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} in Vero E6 cells marginally differed (Figure 1C). We

116   assessed replication kinetics in primary human nasal epithelial (hNE) and primary normal human

117   bronchial epithelial (NhBE) cultures that were grown under air-liquid interface conditions and

118   resemble the pseudostratified epithelial lining of the human respiratory epithelium. No

119   significant difference in the primary hNE cells following infection of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} or

120   SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} at 33°C, the temperature of the nasal epithelium was observed (Figure 1C). In

121   contrast, SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} displayed elevated titers in primary NhBE cells at temperatures of

122   33°C, 37°C and 39°C, that resemble temperatures of the upper and lower respiratory tract, or

123   fever, respectively (Figure 1D). Similarly, infection kinetics of NhBE cells with natural isolates

124   SARS-CoV-2/USA-WA1/2020   (USA-WA1,   S-614D)   or   SARS-CoV-

125   2/Massachusetts/VPT1/2020 (MA/VPT1, S-614G) revealed increased titers for the S-614G

126   variant (Extended Data Figure 1C). To refine this analysis, we performed competition

127   experiments by infecting hNE and NhBE cultures with a mixture of both viruses, SARS-CoV-2^{S-}

128   ^{614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}, at defined ratios. In both primary human respiratory culture

129   systems, the ratio of 614G:614D shifted in favor of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} during five or eight days

130   of infection (Figure 1E, 1F, Extended Data Figure 1D). Collectively, these results show that the

131   D614G change in the S protein is associated with enhanced hACE2 binding and increased

132   replication in primary human airway epithelial models of SARS-CoV-2 infection.

133

Increased replication of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} in hACE2 knock-in mice

135   Mice do not support efficient replication of SARS-CoV-2 unless they are genetically engineered

136   to express hACE2[12,13]. To evaluate the relative fitness of the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant *in vivo*,

137   we generated knock-in mice expressing the authentic SARS-CoV-2 human receptor *hACE2*

138   under the endogenous regulatory elements of the mouse *Ace2* gene (hACE2-KI, Extended Data

139   Figure 2A). Eight heterozygous female mice were inoculated intranasally (i.n.) in a competition

140   experiment with a mixture of both viruses, SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}, using

141   1×10^5 plaque forming unit (PFU) of each variant (Figure 2A). Viral RNA loads were monitored

7

142   daily in oropharyngeal swabs and in various organs and tissues by real-time PCR at days 2 and 4

143   post infection (p.i.). No significant body weight loss in hACE2-KI mice up to day 4 p.i. were

144   observed (Extended Data Figure 2B). Longitudinal analysis of daily oropharyngeal swabs

145   revealed efficient virus replication in the upper respiratory tract of hACE2-KI mice (Figure 2B).

146   Accordingly, tissue samples collected at day 2 and 4 p.i. revealed high viral RNA loads in the

147   nasal conchae, lungs and olfactory bulbs and at lower levels in the brain (Extended Data Figure

148   2C). Low to undetectable levels of virus were observed in spleen, small intestine, kidneys and

149   feces (data not shown). No overt pathological lesions were found in the lungs of hACE2-KI

150   compared to wild-type mice at day 2 and 4 p.i. (Extended Data Table 1, 2). Sequencing analysis

151   of the oropharyngeal swabs revealed a net advantage for the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant over

152   SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} variant in most animals and time points (Figure 2C). In the organs, a similar

153   replication advantage was found for the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant (Figure 2D). Collectively,

154   these results demonstrate increased replication of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} in a mouse model of SARS-

155   CoV-2 infection in the context of the expression of the authentic human receptor *hACE2*.

156

157   **SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} displays increased replication and transmissibility in hamsters and**

158   **ferrets**

159   Hamsters are highly susceptible to SARS-CoV-2 infection and develop disease that closely

160   resembles pan-respiratory, fulminant COVID-19 disease in humans[14,15]. In contrast, in ferrets

161   SARS-CoV-2 primarily replicates within the upper respiratory tract, resembling mild human

162   infections. However, both animal models efficiently reflect transmission events by direct contact.

163   By using a competition experimental approach *in vivo*, as shown for the hACE2-KI mice,

164   numerical dominance of one recombinant variant should be the result of relevant advantages.

165   Therefore, direct "one-to-one" transmission experiments were conducted. Six donor Syrian

166   hamsters were inoculated i.n. at equal ratios with SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}

167   using $1 \times 10^{4.77}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal (calculated from back titration of the original material). Analysis

168   of the mixed inoculum by amplicon sequencing and absolute quantification using allele specific

169   locked nucleic acid (LNA) probes confirmed similar viral RNA ratios of both variants (Figure 3).

170   At 24 hours after inoculation, each donor was cohoused with one naive hamster. Weight

171   changes, as well as clinical signs were monitored and nasal washes were collected daily. Viral

172   RNA load in nasal washings, and changes in body weight, were congruent to previously

173   published data[14,15] (Extended Data Figure 3A, B).   Analysis of the viral RNA sequence

174   composition of nasal washings revealed a prominent shift towards SARS-CoV-2S-614G within

175   48 hours post inoculation (Figure 3). Transmission efficiency was one hundred percent, and

176   analysis of the RNA sequence composition showed that the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant

177   represented >90% of the viral RNA in the contact animals (Figure 3). In summary, hamsters

178   inoculated with both variants, SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}, in an equal ratio,

179   transmit primarily SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}.

180   To exclude possible differences in hamster's affinity to one variant or divergence of kinetics of

181   the replication cycle six hamsters were inoculated i.n. with either SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} ($1 \times 10^{5.1}$

182   TCID$_{50}$/animal, calculated from back titration of the original material), or SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}

183   ($10^{4.5}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal, calculated from back titration of the original material) and were monitored

184   for four consecutive days. No marked differences in body weights, titers of shed virus, or viral

185   loads in respiratory tract tissue were observed between the two groups in the acute phase

186   (Extended Data Figure 3C-E). For both variants, highest genome loads were found in the nasal

187   conchae, followed by pulmonary tissue (Extended Data Figure 3E). These observations confirm

188   that in the case of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} or SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} infections, the S-D614G substitution

189   does not seem crucial for clinical outcomes, which again underscores the hamster as a highly

190   sensitive disease model. Rather, the advantage of the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant over the SARS-

191   CoV-2^{S-614D} has to be adequately large to fully suppress the latter variant within a single *in vivo*

192   replication cycle, which accurately reflects the evolution of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} in humans during

193   the COVID-19 pandemic.

194   Since ferrets are a good transmission model [18], we performed a direct "one-to-one" transmission

195   experiment using an equal mixture of the isogenic SARS-CoV-2 variants. Six animals were

196   intranasally inoculated with the mix of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} ($10^{5.4}$

197   TCID$_{50}$/animal calculated from back titration of the original material). For all six inoculated

198   ferrets SARS-CoV-2-infection could be confirmed, and both body weight changes and viral

199   RNA loads in nasal washings (Figure 4, Extended Data Figure 4A, B) reflected published

200   data[16,17]. In five of the six inoculated ferrets, SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} became the dominant variant

201   (Figure 4). In addition, SARS-CoV-2 transmission occurred in four of the six ferret pairs, and in

202   each pair with successful transmission the S-614G variant prevailed over S-614D (Figure 4). All

203   amplicon sequencing data of the ferret samples were also retested by absolute quantification

204   using allele specific locked nucleic acid (LNA) probes and digital PCR analysis.

205   Notably, the donor of pair one with the dominance of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} did not transmit despite

206   a high viral genome peak load of more than 10 million copies per ml. In contrast, the lack of

207   transmission in pair 4 where SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} became the dominant variant is connected to

208   peak viral loads of below 500,000 genome copies per ml (Figure 4). In summary, the competition

209   experiment in ferrets revealed that the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} variant preferentially infected and

210   replicated in five out of six inoculated animals, and transmission events succeeded exclusively

211   with the SARS-CoV-2[S-614G] variant.

Discussion

213   SARS-CoV-2 evolution in humans has been proposed to be a non-deterministic process and

214   virus diversification results mainly from random genetic drift, suggesting that there is no strong

215   selective pressure on SARS-CoV-2 in its adaptation to humans[20]. However, since the

216   introduction of the S-D614G change in early 2020, the SARS-CoV-2 S-614G variant has become

217   globally prevalent[1]. A founder effect and a structural change of the SARS-CoV-2 spike protein

218   have been proposed as driving forces establishing the S-614G prevalence. Previous structural

219   studies and the use of pseudotyped viruses have put forward the idea that the S-614G variant

220   may confer increased infectivity, which could be a result of increased "open" RBD conformation

221   for receptor binding as suggested by one study or increased S stability as suggested by another

222   study[1,9]. In contrast to those studies that used recombinant trimeric S, we used a reductionist

223   approach to eliminate the complications due to the "open" or "closed" RBD conformations in

224   trimeric S. We found the S1 or the monomeric S ectodomain with D614G substitution had

225   increased affinity to hACE2, which may be another mechanism underlying the increased

226   replication and transmission of the SARS-CoV-2 D614G variant.

227   Studies that employed isogenic SARS-CoV-2 D614G variants to assess the phenotype in the

228   context of a SARS-CoV-2 infection were only very recently reported in preprints [19,20]. Both

229   studies conclude that the SARS-CoV-2 S-614G variant shows increased replication *in vitro* and

230   one study observed earlier transmission in a hamster model. We extended these studies by

231   exploiting various *in vitro* and *in vivo* infection models of SARS-CoV-2, including primary

232   NhBE and hNE cultures, a novel hACE2 knock-in mouse model, a hamster model, and a ferret

233 model. Importantly, throughout these experimental systems we consistently observed an

234 increased fitness of SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$ over SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ by applying amplicon

235 sequencing techniques as well as allele specific absolute quantification for confirmation. The

236 advantage provided by the D614G change becomes most prominent in competition and

237 transmission experiments in hamsters and ferrets and must therefore be considered as a driving

238 force leading to the global dominance of the SARS-CoV-2 614G variant.

239 Our data are also in agreement with reported functional changes conferred by the D614G

240 substitution in the S protein[1] and infections studies using pseudotyped viruses demonstrating

241 increased infection[9,21]. Although our studies establish a phenotype of increased replication and

242 transmission of the SARS-CoV-2 S-614G variant, there is no evidence for a phenotypic change

243 in pathogenicity in an animal model. This is important to state, because infection with the SARS-

244 CoV-2 S-614G variant is not associated with the development of severe COVID-19 in humans[1].

245 The ongoing pandemic will likely give rise to additional SARS-CoV-2 variants that may display

246 phenotypic changes and further adaptations to humans. The ability to rapidly trace the genetic

247 variability of emerging variants using whole-genome sequencing, reconstructing emerging virus

248 variants, and assessing their phenotypes will allow rapid response to their emergence with

249 appropriate countermeasures. The development, improvement and characterization of suitable

250 animal models that recapitulate SARS-CoV-2 replication, transmission and pathogenicity in

251 humans will provide a platform to assess the potential implications of these emerging variants.

252 The novel mouse model based on hACE2 expression under the endogenous regulatory elements

253 of the mouse *Ace2* gene will be a valuable tool and will complement existing animal models of

254 SARS-CoV-2 infection. Similarly, as we have shown here, to demonstrate increased replication

255 and transmissibility of SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$, the phenotypic assessment of future pandemic

256 variants will likely require several complementing animal models that together reflect aspects of

257 SARS-CoV-2 replication, transmission and pathogenicity in humans.

258

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278

Author contributions

280 VT, DW, MB, and CB conceived the study. TT, BZ, DH, AT performed most of the

281 experiments. NE, SS, FL, JKe, HS, JP, HS, BT, JJ, RD, DH, NJH, LU, JKi, AP, BH, XF, XL,

282 LW, NJ, DC, JH, MW, MK, TS, JR, SdB, CB conducted experimental work and/or provided

283 essential experimental systems, data analysis, and reagents. VT, DW, MB, CB, TT, BZ, NE, SS,

284 LT, DH, NJH, LU wrote the manuscript and made the figures. All authors read and approved the

285 final manuscript.

286

Data availability

288 Sequencing data from passage 1 virus stocks for recombinant SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-

289 CoV-2^{S-614G}, as well as data from all *in vitro* and *in vivo* competition experiments, will be made

290 available on the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA).

291

Competing interests

293 The authors declare no competing interests.

294

Figure legends

296 **Figure 1. In vitro characterization of S1 proteins and recombinant SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-**

297 **CoV-2^{S-614G} viruses. (a)** Affinity between S1 and hACE2 determined by Bio-layer interferometry.

14

298   Biotinylated S1 protein (S1-614D or S1-614G) was loaded onto surface of streptavidin biosensors.

299   Association was conducted using hACE2 protein followed by dissociation. (**b**) Binding of Fc-tagged or

300   polyhistidine-tagged S1 to BHK-hACE2 cells is shown as peaks of fluorescence detected by flow

301   cytometry. (**c**) Replication kinetics of recombinant viruses in (left) Vero E6 at 37°C and (right) hNE at

302   33°C. Supernatant was collected at indicated time points and titrated by plaque assay. Data represent the

303   mean ± s.d. of three replicates (Vero E6) and four replicates (hNE). (**d**) Replication kinetics of

304   recombinant viruses in NhBE at 33°C (left), 37°C (middle) and 39°C (right). NhBE were infected with

305   100,000 PFU of each virus. Supernatants were collected daily and titrated by TCID50 assay. Data

306   represent the mean ± s.d. of four replicates. (**c-d**) Statistical significance was determined by two-sided

307   unpaired Student's *t*-test without adjustments for multiple comparisons. (**c**) *P* values (left to right): left,

308   NS, *P*=0.9132; NS *P*=0.0604; NS *P*=0.2394; NS *P*=0.2389; NS *P*=0.2778; NS *P*=0.2781; right, NS

309   *P*=0.1520; NS *P*=0.3891; NS *P*=0.9110; NS *P*=0.8985; NS *P*=0.1464. (**d**) *P* values (left to right): left, NS

310   *P*=0.7943; NS *P*=0.5025; NS *P*=0.6683; NS *P*=0.8985; *P=0.0220; middle, **P=0.0065; NS *P*=0.4660;

311   NS *P*=0.3134; *P=0.0159; right, **P=0.0094; ****P<10^{-4}; **P=0.0028; ***P=0.0009. (**e-f**) Competition

312   assay of recombinant viruses in hNE at 33°C and NhBE at 33°C, 37°C and 39°C. The inoculum was

313   prepared by mixing two viruses at 1:1 ratio based on PFU ml^{-1} and used for infection of hNE and NhBE.

314   Apical wash and supernatant were collected daily, and extracted RNA was used for sequencing. (**e-f**) Bar

315   graph shows proportion of sequencing reads encoding either S-614D or S-614G, and square dots

316   represent individual data points.

317

318   **Figure 2. Replication of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} viruses in hACE2 knock-in mice.**

319   (**a**) Experimental scheme for infection of hACE2-KI mice intranasally infected recombinant SARS-

320   CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} viruses. Oropharyngeal swabs were sampled daily and tissue

321   samples were analyzed in sub-groups of 4 mice at 2 and 4 days post infection (dpi) in two

15

322   independent experiments. (**b**) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of oropharyngeal swabs of

323   inoculated hACE2-KI and wild-type mice. (**c,d**) Pie chart representation of mean frequencies of

324   A or G nucleotide at position 23,403 corresponding to SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ and SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-}}$

325   ^{614G}, respectively. Each pie chart illustrates the ratio of A/G detected from individual

326   oropharyngeal swab samples (c) and tissues (d) at indicated time post infection. OB, olfactory

327   bulb; ND, not detected.

328

329   **Figure 3. Replication and transmission of SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ and SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$ viruses in**

330   **Syrian hamsters.** Transmission of SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ and $^{\text{S-614G}}$ variant by hamsters in a pairwise

331   one-by-one setup with direct contact of donor and cohoused contact hamsters is illustrated.

332   Samples of nasal washings were taken daily between days 2 to 8 post infection (dpi) and finally

333   at 12 dpi and were analyzed. Pie chart representation of fraction of A or G nucleotide at position

334   23,403 corresponding to SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ and SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$, respectively, measured by

335   amplicon sequencing. Genome copies were calculated from RT-qPCR using a standard RNA.

336   Orange coloring of the hamster silhouette refer to detection of G (SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$), while

337   blue coloring indicates detection of A (SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$) on most time points. Grey coloring

338   signals no infection detected

339

340   **Figure 4. Replication and transmission of SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ and SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$ viruses in**

341   **ferrets.** Schematic illustration of the experimental setup with six pairs of donor ferrets cohoused

342   with naïve contact ferrets. Samples of nasal washings were taken daily between days 2 to 8 post

343   infection (dpi) and finally at 12 dpi and were analyzed. Pie chart representation of fraction of A

344   or G nucleotide at position 23,403 corresponding to SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G},

345   respectively. Each pie chart illustrates the ratio of A/G detected from individual nasal washing

346   samples over time. Orange coloring of the ferret silhouette refer to detection of G (SARS-CoV-

347   2^{S-614G}) on most time points, while blue coloring indicates detection of A (SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D}).

348   Numbers represent total genome copies ml^{-1} and grey coloring signals no infection or viral

349   genome number too low for A/G ratio determination in sequencing. ND, not detected.

350

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423

Methods

Cell and culture conditions

Vero E6 cells (ATCC) were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 1x non-essential amino acids, 100 units ml^{-1} penicillin and 100 μg ml^{-1} streptomycin. Baby Hamster Kidney cells expressing SARS-CoV N protein (BHK-SARS-N)[22] were maintained in minimal essential medium (MEM) supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 1x non-essential amino acids, 100 units ml^{-1} penicillin and 100 μg ml^{-1} streptomycin, 500 μg ml^{-1} G418 and 10 μg ml^{-1} puromycin. Twenty-four hours

20

432   before electroporation, BHK-SARS-N cells were treated with 1 µg ml^{-1} doxycyclin to express

433   SARS-CoV N protein. All cell lines were maintained at 37°C and in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere.

434

Recombinant proteins

436   Recombinant hACE2 protein (Cat: RP01266) was purchased from ABclonal. Recombinant

437   SARS-CoV-2 proteins S1-614D and S1-614G with polyhistidine-tag (Cat: 40591-V08H, 40591-

438   V08H3) were purchased from Sino Biological. All proteins were quantitated with Qubit Protein

439   Assay (Thermo Fisher Scientific). SARS-CoV-2 S1-614D and S1-614G tagged with human IgG

440   Fc fragment were constructed by insertion of the S1 region (residues 1-681) to pFUSE-hIgG1-

441   Fc1 vector (InvivoGen, USA) and expressed using the Expi293 Expression system (Thermo

442   Fisher Scientific). Supernatants were collected and quantified by western blotting using anti-

443   human IgG secondary antibody (ThermoFisher A-21091). SARS-CoV-2 S-614D and S-614G

444   proteins containing polyhistidine- and avi-tagged full-length ectodomain (residues 1-1208, furin

445   cleavage site mutated) was also expressed using the Expi293 Expression system. The full-length

446   ectodomain proteins were purified using HisTrap FF column (GE Life Sciences) in elution buffer

447   containing 20 mM sodium phosphate, 0.5 M NaCl, 500 mM imidazole, pH 7.4, followed by

448   desalting using Zeba spin desalting column (Thermo Fisher Scientific), per manufacturers'

449   instructions. The purified proteins were further concentrated on Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters

450   (Sigma-Aldrich) and quantified using Qubit protein assay.

451

Bio-Layer interferometry (BLI) assay

21

453 Affinity between human ACE2 to SARS-CoV-2 S1-614D, S1-614G, S-614D or S-614G were

454 evaluated using Octet RED96 instrument at 30°C with a shaking speed at 1000 RPM (ForteBio).

455 Streptavidin biosensors (SA) (ForteBio) were used. S1 proteins were pre-biotinylated using EZ-

456 Link NHS-PEG4-Biotin (ThermoFisher Scientific). Following 20 minutes of pre-hydration of

457 SA biosensors and 1 minute of sensor check, 100 nM S1-614D or S1-614G in 10X kinetic buffer

458 (ForteBio) were loaded onto surface of SA biosensors for 5 minutes. After 2 minutes of baseline

459 equilibration, 10 minutes of association was conducted at 2.5 to 75 nM of human ACE2,

460 followed by 20 minutes of dissociation in the same buffer, which was used for baseline

461 equilibration. S proteins with Avi-tag were pre-biotinylated using BirA biotin-protein ligase

462 standard reaction kit (Avidity). 25 nM S-614D or 15 nM S-614G in 10X kinetic buffer

463 (ForteBio) were loaded onto surface of SA biosensors for 5 minutes. After 2 minutes of baseline

464 equilibration, 5 minutes of association was used for 2 to 32 nM hACE2, followed by 10 minutes

465 of dissociation in 10X kinetic buffer. The data were corrected by subtracting reference sample,

466 1:1 binding model with global fit was used for determination of affinity constants.

467

468 **Flow cytometry**

469 A stable clone of BHK cells expressing exogenous hACE2 were pelleted and resuspended in

470 reaction buffer (PBS pH7.4 with 0.02% tween-20 and 4% BSA) at a concentration of 5×10^6

471 cells/ml. 100 μl/well of the cells were aliquoted into a round-bottom 96-well plate and incubated

472 on ice for at least 5 min. S1 proteins were diluted in reaction buffer on ice. 50 μl of S1 diluents

473 were added into corresponding wells of cells and incubated on ice for 20 min with shaking. After

474 incubation, cells were washed in 200 μl PBST washing solution (PBS pH7.4 with 0.02% tween-

475 20) once and then 100 μl of 1:300 diluted secondary antibody (ThermoFisher Cat # A-21091 for

476   Fc-tag and ThermoFisher Cat # MA1-21315-647 for polyhistidine-tag) was added into each well

477   of cells, mixed, and incubated on ice with shaking for 15 min. After washing twice, cells were

478   resuspended in 200 µl PBST and analyzed using the BD FACSCanto II Flow Cytometer. Data

479   was processed with Flowjo_v10.6.1.

480

481   **Generation of infectious cDNA clones using TAR cloning and rescue of recombinant**

482   **viruses**

483   To introduce the 614G mutation to the Spike gene, PCR mutagenesis (Supplementary Table 1)

484   was performed on the pUC57 plasmid containing SARS-CoV-2 fragment 10^{10} using Q5® Site-

485   Directed Mutagenesis Kit (New England BioLab). Both D614 and G614 infectious cDNA clones

486   were generated using in-yeast TAR cloning method as describe previously[10]. *In vitro*

487   transcription was performed for EagI-cleaved YACs and PCR-amplified SARS-CoV-2 N gene

488   using the T7 RiboMAX Large Scale RNA production system (Promega) as described

489   previously[26]. Transcribed capped mRNA was electroporated into baby hamster kidney (BHK-21)

490   cells expressing SARS-CoV N protein. Electroporated cells were co-cultured with susceptible

491   Vero E6 cells to produce passage 0 (P.0) of the recombinant S-614D and S-614G viruses.

492   Subsequently, progeny viruses were used to infect fresh Vero E6 cells to generate P.1 stocks for

493   downstream experiments.

494

495   **Virus growth kinetics and plaque assay**

496   Characterization of virus growth kinetics in Vero E6 was performed as described previously[10].

497   Twenty-four hours before infection, cells were seeded in a 24-well plate at a density of 2.0 x 10^5

498 cells per ml. After washing once with PBS, cells were inoculated with viruses at multiplicity of

499 infection (MOI) of 0.01. After 1 h, the inoculum was removed and cells were washed three times

500 with PBS followed by supply with appropriate culture medium.

501 Plaque forming unit (PFU) per ml of recombinant S-614D and S614-G viruses were determined

502 by plaque assay in a 24-well format. One day before infection, Vero E6 cells were seeded at a

503 density of 2.0×10^5 cells per ml. After washing once with PBS, cells were inoculated with

504 viruses serially diluted in cell culture medium at 1:10 dilution. After 1 h of incubation, inoculum

505 was removed, and cells were washed with PBS and subsequently overlaid with 1:1 mix of 2.4%

506 Avicel and 2X DMEM supplemented with 20% fetal bovine serum, 200 units ml^{-1} penicillin and

507 200 µg ml^{-1} streptomycin. After 2 days of incubation at 37°C, cells were fixed in 4% (v/v)

508 neutral-buffered formalin before stained with crystal violet.

509 Statistical significance was determined by two-sided unpaired Student's *t*-test without adjustment

510 for multiple comparisons.

511

512 **Infection of human nasal and bronchial epithelial cells**

513 Primary human nasal epithelial cultures (hNE; MucilAir™ EP02, Epithelix Sàrl, Genèva,

514 Switzerland) were purchased and handled according to the manufacturer instructions. Normal

515 human bronchial epithelial (NhBE) cells were purchased (Emory University, Atlanta, GA, USA)

516 and cultured according to recommended protocols. The hNE cultures were inoculated with

517 0.5×10^5 PFU per well, or mixtures of 1:1, 10:1 and 1:10 of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-

518 2^{S-614G}. NhBE cell cultures were inoculated with 1.0×10^5 PFU per well, or with wild type isolates

519 SARS-CoV-2/USA-WA1/2020   (USA-WA1,   S-614D)   or   SARS-CoV-

24

520   2/Massachusetts/VPT1/2020 (MA/VPT1, S-614G) at 2 x 10^5 TCID$_{50}$/well, For competition

521   experiments, NhBE cells were inoculated with 1:1 or 9:1 mixed SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-

522   CoV-2^{S-614G} at $1x10^5$ PFU per well. After incubation at 33°C for one or two hours, for hNE or

523   NhBE cell cultures respectively, inoculum was removed, cells were washed, and subsequently

524   incubated, as indicated, at 33°C, 37°C, or 39°C. To monitor viral replication, apical washes were

525   collected every 24 hours. All titers were determined by standard plaque-assay or TCID$_{50}$ on Vero

526   E6 cells.

527   For competition experiments, viral RNA was extracted from apical washes using the QIAamp 96

528   Virus QIAcube HT Kit (QIAGEN). The SARS-CoV-2 genome was amplified using a highly

529   multiplexed   tiling   PCR   reaction   based   on   the   ARTIC   protocol

530   (https://www.protocols.io/view/ncov-2019-sequencing-protocol-bbmuik6w)   with   some

531   modification.   Briefly,   primers   were   designed   to   produce   overlapping   1kb   amplicons

532   (Supplementary Table 2). Reverse transcriptase was performed as described in the ARTIC

533   protocol. The single cDNA reaction was carried forward by preparing two PCR reactions, one

534   each for the odd and even pools of primers. Two primer pools (odds and evens) were prepared to

535   contain 0.1 µM of each individual primer. Tiling PCR of the resultant cDNA was performed by

536   combining 12.5 µL 2x Q5 polymerase, 5.5 µL water, 2 µL of the primer pool, and 5 µL of cDNA

537   followed by incubating the reaction at 98°C for 30 seconds, 38 cycles of 98°C for 15 seconds

538   and 63°C for 5 minutes, and holding at 4°C. Corresponding odd and even amplicons were

539   normalized and pool for library preparation. Fragmented libraries were prepared using the

540   Nextera XT DNA library preparation kit and sequenced via Illumina MiSeq. Analyses were

541   performed using IRMA[27] with a SARS-CoV-2 module.

542

543 **RNA extraction and RT-PCR**

544 Preparation of viral RNA for next-generation sequencing was performed as described

545 previously[10]. In brief, Vero E6 cells were infected with P.1 viruses. Extraction of total cellular

546 RNA was done using Nucleospin® RNA Plus kit (Macherey-Nagel) according to the

547 manufacturers' instruction.

548 RNA from hNE apical washes and mouse oropharyngeal swabs were prepared using QIAamp®

549 Viral RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN) and Nucleospin® RNA kit (Macherey-Nagel) according to the

550 manufacturers' protocol.

551 To determine the ratios of S-614D:S-614G in competition assays in Epithelix and hACE2-KI

552 mice, reverse transcription PCR was performed on extracted RNA using SuperScript^{TM} IV One-

553 step RT-PCR System (Invitrogen). The sequence-specific primers were used to generate an

554 amplicon of 905 bp covering the D614G region: 5'-AATCTATCAGGCCGGTAGCAC-3' and 5'-

555 CAACAGCTATTCCAGTTAAAGCAC-3'. RT-PCR reaction was performed in a 50-µl reaction

556 using 0.01 pg to 1µg total RNA. The cycling parameters were set as follows: 50°C for 10 min,

557 98°C for 2 min; 35 cycles at 98°C for 10 sec, 55°C for 15 sec, and 72°C for 30 sec; and a 5-min

558 incubation at 72°C. DNA concentration was determined using Qubit dsDNA HS (High

559 Sensitivity) Assay (Thermo Fisher), and subsequently diluted to 200 ng in 50 µl of nuclease-free

560 water for sequencing by Nanopore sequencing MinION.

561 RNA extraction and preparation of RT-PCR reactions were performed in low- and no-copy

562 laboratory environment to avoid contamination.

563

564 **Sequencing and computational analysis**

565 Recombinant SARS-CoV-2[S-614D] or SARS-CoV-2[S-614G] RNAs of P.1 stock were sequenced by

566 next-generation sequencing as described previously[10]. Briefly, RNA was extracted from Vero E6

567 cells infected with either recombinant SARS-CoV-2[S-614D] or SARS-CoV-2[S-614G] using the

568 NucleoSpin RNA Plus kit (Macherey-Nagel) according to the manufacturer's guidelines.

569 Sequencing libraries were subsequently prepared using the Illumina TruSeq Stranded mRNA

570 Library Prep kit (Illumina, 20020595) and pooled cDNA libraries were sequenced across two

571 lanes on a NovaSeq 6000 S1 flow cell (2 x 50bp, 100 cycles) using the Illumina NovaSeq 6000

572 platform (Next Generation Sequencing Platform, University of Bern, Switzerland). For data

573 analysis, TrimGalore v0.6.5 was used to remove low-quality reads and adaptors from the raw

574 sequencing files. The resulting trimmed paired-end reads were then aligned to the SARS-CoV-2

575 genome (GenBank accession MT108784) using Bowtie2 v2.3.5. Finally, a consensus sequence

576 was generated for each virus stock using Samtools v1.10 with the -d option set to 10,000. Data

577 analysis was performed on UBELIX, the HPC cluster at the University of Bern

578 (http://www.id.unibe.ch/hpc).

579

580 **Animal studies:**

581 Ethics declarations.

582 The hACE-2 knock-in mice were originally generated at the Wadsworth Center, New York State

583 Department of Health IACUC protocol # 09-405 (Wentworth, PI). Mouse experimentation was

584 conducted in compliance with the Swiss Animal Welfare legislation and animal studies were

585 reviewed and approved by the commission for animal experiments of the canton of Bern,

586 Switzerland under license BE-43/20. All of the ferret and hamster experiments were evaluated by

27

587   the responsible ethics committee of the State Office of Agriculture, Food Safety, and Fishery in

588   Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, Germany (LALLF M-V), and gained governmental approval

589   under registration number LVL MV TSD/7221.3-1- 041/20. This project also obtained clearance

590   from the CDC's Animal Care and Use Program Office.

591

592   <u>Human ACE2 knock-in mouse study.</u>

593   Generation of hACE2 knock-in mice. The hACE2-KI(B6) (B6.Cg-$Ace2^{tm1(ACE2)Dwnt}$/J) line was

594   generated by targeted mutagenesis to express human ACE-2 cDNA in place of the mouse *Ace2*

595   gene. Thus, in this new animal model, hACE2 expression is regulated by the endogenous mouse

596   *Ace2* promoter/enhancer elements. The targeting vector (WEN1-HR) had hACE2 cDNA inserted

597   in frame with the endogenous initiation codon of the mouse *Ace2* (Extended Data Figure 2A).

598   The human cDNA was flanked by an FRT-neomycin-FRT-loxP cassette and a distal loxP site.

599   WEN1-HR was used to transfect 129Sv/Pas ES cells and 837 ES cell clones were isolated and

600   screened for homologous recombination by PCR and Southern blot. Eleven properly recombined

601   ES cell clones were identified and some of them were used for blastocyst injection and

602   implantation into female mice to generate 22 male founders with chimerism

603   (129Sv/Pas:C57BL/6) ranging from 50 to 100%. To complete the hACE2 knock-in, we crossed

604   the chimeric males with C57BL/6J Flp-expressing females to excise the FRT flanked neomycin

605   selection cassette and generate the floxed humanised ACE2 allele (Extended Data Figure 2A).

606   These hACE2 knock-in mice were identified by PCR and confirmed by Southern Blot and were

607   backcrossed to C57BL/6J mice for 7 generations (N7) prior to this study. This line has been

608   donated to The Jackson Laboratory for use by the scientific community (Stock 035000).

609 Heterozygous hACE2-KI female mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (USA) and

610 C57BL/6J wild-type (WT) female mice were from Janvier Lab (France). All mice were

611 acclimatized for at least 2 weeks in individually ventilated cages (blue line, Tecniplast), with

612 12/12 light/dark cycle, autoclaved acidified water, autoclaved cages including food, bedding and

613 environmental enrichment at the SPF facility of the Institute of Virology and Immunology,

614 Mittelhäusern, Switzerland. One week before infection, mice were placed in individually HEPA-

615 filtered isolators (IsoCage N, Tecniplast). Mice (10-12-week-old) were anesthetized with

616 isoflurane and infected intranasally with 20µl (i.e., 10µl per nostril) with a 1:1 ratio of the

617 SARS-CoV-2 variants (WT and hACE2-KI mice) or mock culture medium (WT mice only).

618 After intranasal infection, mice were monitored daily for body weight loss and clinical signs.

619 Throat swabs were collected daily under brief isoflurane anesthesia using ultrafine sterile flock

620 swabs (Hydraflock, Puritan, 25-3318-H). The tips of the swabs were place in 0.5 mL of RA1

621 lysis buffer (Macherey-Nagel, Ref. 740961) supplemented with 1% β-mercaptoethanol and

622 vortexed. Groups of mice from two independent experiments were euthanized on days 2 and 4

623 p.i. and organs were aseptically dissected avoiding cross-contamination. Systematic tissue

624 sampling was performed: (1) lung right superior lobe, right nasal concha, right olfactory bulb,

625 part of the right brain hemisphere, apical part of the right kidney, parts of the distal small

626 intestine (ileum) were collected for RNA isolation in RA1 lysis buffer; (2) lung middle, inferior

627 and post-caval lobes, left nasal concha, left olfactory bulb, part of the right brain hemisphere,

628 part of the right kidney were collected in MEM; (3) lung left lobe, liver left lobe, left kidney, left

629 brain hemisphere and part of the jejunum and ileum were fixed in buffered formalin. Data were

630 generated from two identically designed independent experiments.

631   Mouse tissue samples collected in RA1 lysis buffer supplemented with 1% β-mercaptoethanol

632   were homogenized using a Bullet Blender Tissue Homogenizer (Next-Advance). Homogenates

633   were centrifuged for 3 min at 18,000 g and stored at -70°C until processing. Total RNA was

634   extracted from homogenates using the NucleoMag VET kit for viral and bacterial RNA/DNA

635   from veterinary samples (Macherey Nagel, Ref: 744200) and the KingFisher Flex automated

636   extraction instrument (ThermoFisher Scientific) following manufacturers' instructions. RNA

637   purity was analyzed with a NanoDrop 2000 (ThermoFisher Scientific). A 25 µl RT-PCR for the

638   viral E gene was carried out using 5 µl of extracted RNA template using the AgPath-ID One-

639   Step RT-PCR (Applied Biosystems). Samples were processed in duplicate. Amplification and

640   detection were performed in a Applied Biosystem 7500 Real-Time PCR Systems under the

641   following conditions: an initial reverse transcription at 45 °C for 10 min, followed by PCR

642   activation at 95 °C for 10 min and 45 cycles of amplification (15 seconds at 95 °C, 30 seconds at

643   56 °C and 30 seconds at 72 °C). Relative quantification of virus load in swabs and mouse tissues

644   was based on β2 microglobulin expression measured by TaqMan qPCR according to the

645   manufacturer's protocol (Assay mM00437762_m; ThermoFisher).

646   Fixed mouse tissue samples were processed, sectioned and stained with hematoxylin and eosin

647   (H&E) at the COMPATH core facility (University of Bern). Histopathological lung slides of

648   hACE2-KI mice and wild-type mice (infected and mock) were examined and scored by a board-

649   certified veterinary pathologist (SdB), who was blinded to the identity of the samples. Scoring

650   criteria are detailed in Extended Data Table 2.

651

652   <u>Hamster study</u>

653 Six Syrian hamsters, *Mesocricretus auratus*, (Janvier Labs, France) were infected intranasally

654 under a short-term inhalation anesthesia with 70 µl of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}

655 at equal ratios using $10^{4.77}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal (calculated from back titration of the original

656 material). After 24 hours of isolated housing in individually ventilated cages (IVCs), six pairs,

657 each with one directly inoculated donor hamster and one sham-inoculated contact hamster were

658 co-housed. The housing of each hamster duo was strictly separated in individual cage systems to

659 prevent spill-over between different pairs. For the following seven days (day 2 until day 8 after

660 infection) and on day 12 after infection, viral shedding was monitored in addition to a daily

661 physical examination and body weighting routine.

662 To evaluate viral shedding, nasal washes were individually collected from each hamster under a

663 short-term isoflurane anesthesia. Starting with the pair's contact hamster, each nostril was rinsed

664 with 100 µl PBS (1.0x phosphate-buffered saline) and reflux was immediately gathered. A new

665 pipet tip for every nostril and hamster was used to prevent indirect spill-over transmission from

666 one animal to another. Furthermore, in-between the respective pairs, a new anesthesia system

667 was used for each pair of animals. At day 8 post infection, one contact hamster was found dead.

668 Although having lost up to almost 20% of their body weight, every other hamster recovered from

669 disease. Under euthanasia, serum samples were collected from each hamster.

670 For a second experimental setup seven hamsters each were infected via the intranasal route with

671 $10^{5.1}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D}, or $10^{4.5}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}

672 (calculated from back titration of the original material). From day 1 onwards to day 4 nasal

673 washes were obtained from these hamsters and body weight changes recorded. A tissue panel

674 from respiratory organs, including nasal conchae, tracheal tissue, cranial, medial, and caudal

31

675   portions of the right lung, and the pulmonary lymph node, were collected after euthanasia from

676   these hamsters.

677

678   Ferret study

679   In accordance with the hamster study, twelve ferrets (*Mustela putorius furo*) from in-house

680   breeding, were divided into six groups of two individuals. Ferret pairs were of equal age between

681   four and 18 months. In total, four ferrets were female (two pairs) and eight ferrets were male or

682   neutered male (four pairs). The housing of each ferret duo was strictly separated in individual

683   cage systems, to prevent spill-over between different pairs. Per separate cage, one individual

684   ferret was inoculated intranasally, by instillation of 125μl of the aforementioned inoculum

685   ($1x10^5$ TCID$_{50}$/animal; calculated from back titration of the original material) into each nostril

686   under a short-term isoflurane-based inhalation anesthesia. Time points and sampling technique

687   corresponded to the methods used for the hamsters, albeit ferret nasal washing was performed

688   using two times 700μl PBS per animal. The contact-ferret was not inoculated.

689

690   Specimen work-up, viral RNA detection, sequencing and quantification analyses

691   Organ samples were homogenized in a 1 ml mixture of equal volumes composed of Hank's

692   balanced salts minimum essential medium (MEM) and Earle's balanced salts MEM containing 2

693   mM l-glutamine, 850 mg l−1 NaHCO3, 120 mg l−1 sodium pyruvate and 10% FCS

694   (supplemented with 10% Fetal Calf Serum and 1% penicillin–streptomycin) at 300 Hz for two

695   minutes using the Tissuelyser II (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and centrifuged to clarify the

696   supernatant. Nucleic acid was extracted from 100 µl of the nasal washes after a short

32

697 centrifugation step or organ sample supernatant using the NucleoMag Vet kit (Macherey Nagel,

698 Düren, Germany). Viral loads in these samples were determined using the nCoV_IP4 RT-PCR[28]

699 including standard RNAs that where absolute quantified by digital droplet PCR with a sensitivity

700 of 10 copies/reaction. The extracted RNA was afterwards subjected to MinION sequencing and

701 digital droplet PCR. For MinION sequencing, amplicons were produced with primers (WU-21-F:

702 AATCTATCAGGCCGGTAGCAC; WU-86-R: CAACAGCTATTCCAGTTAAAGCAC) using

703 SuperScript IV One-step RT-PCR (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA USA). Amplicons

704 were sequenced on a MinION system using from Oxford Nanopore using Native Barcoding 1-12

705 (EXP-NBD104) and 13-24 (EXP-NBD114), respectively with Ligation Kit SQK-LSK109

706 (Oxford Nanopore; Oxford, UK). Libraries were loaded on R9.4.1 Flow Cells (FLO-MIN106D)

707 on a MinION coupled to a MinIT. Realtime high accuracy basecalling, demultiplexing and

708 barcode and adapter trimming was performed with MinKnow v20.06.17, running Guppy

709 vs4.0.11. Downstream analysis was done in Geneious 2019 vs2.3. Read length filtered

710 eliminated reads < 800 and > 1100 nt and remaining reads were mapped in subsets of 10,000

711 reads to the amplicon reference undergoing two iterations, with custom sensitivity allowing a

712 maximum of 5% gaps and maximum mismatch 30%. Variants were analyzed on specific position

713 with calculating p-values for every variant. Ratio fraction A/G was calculated from numbers of

714 reads as fraction=Areads/(Areads+Greads).

715 For rare mutation and sequence analysis based on digital PCR, the QX200 Droplet Digital PCR

716 System from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA, USA) was used. For RT-PCR, the One-Step RT-ddPCR

717 Advanced Kit for Probes (Bio-Rad) was applied according to the supplier´s instructions. For the

718 amplification of an 86 bp fragment of both variants of the spike protein gene, the forward primer

719 SARS2-S-1804-F (5´-ACA AAT ACT TCT AAC CAG GTT GC-3´) and the reverse primer

33

720 SARS2-S-1889-R (5´-GTA AGT TGA TCT GCA TGA ATA GC-3´) were used. For the

721 detection of the D and G variants in one sample, two allele specific locked nucleic acid (LNA)

722 probes were applied: SARS2-S-v1D-1834FAM (5´-FAM-TaT cAG gat GTt AAC-BHQ1-3´) and

723 SARS2-S-v3G-1834HEX (5´-HEX-T cAG ggt GTt AAC-BHQ1-3´). The LNA positions are

724 depicted in lower case. The concentration of the primers and probes was 20μM and 5μM,

725 respectively. For data analysis, the QuantaSoft Analysis Pro software (version 1.0.596) was used.

726

727 **Extended Data Fig. 1. Additional *in vitro* characterization of S proteins and SARS-CoV-2^{S-}**

728 **^{614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} isolates.**

729 **(a)** Affinity between S and hACE2 determined by Bio-layer interferometry. Biotinylated spike

730 protein (ectodomain) (S-614D or S-614G) was loaded onto surface of streptavidin biosensors and

731 association was conducted using hACE2 followed by dissociation. Data represent two biological

732 replicates. **(b)** Binding of Fc-tagged or polyhistidine-tagged S1 to BHK-hACE2 cells determined

733 by flow cytometry. Mean Fluorescence intensity is shown for corresponding S1 protein

734 concentration. Data represent the mean ± s.d of three biological replicates. **(c)** Replication of

735 wild type SARS-CoV-2/USA-WA1/2020 (S-614D) and SARS-CoV-

736 2/Massachusetts/VPT1/2020 (S-614G) isolates in NhBE cells at 33°C (left), 37°C (middle), and

737 39°C (right). NhBE cells were infected with 200,000 TCID50 of each virus. Supernatants were

738 collected every 24 h and titrated by TCID50 assay. Data represent the mean ± s.d. of four

739 replicates. Statistical significance was determined by two-sided unpaired Student's *t*-test without

740 adjustments for multiple comparisons. *P* values (from left to right): left, NS *P* = 0.7874; **P* =

741 0.0328; NS *P* = 0.1887; NS *P* = 0.8985; NS *P* = 0.5296; middle, NS *P* = 0.1475; NS *P* = 0.1415;

742 ** *P* = 0.0033; NS *P* = 0.3184; right, NS *P* = 0.6018; NS *P* = 0.3903; NS *P* =0.0898; **P* =

743   0.0445. (**d**) Competition assay of recombinant SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614D}}$ and SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$ in

744   NhBE at 33$^{\text{o}}$C, 37$^{\text{o}}$C and 39$^{\text{o}}$C. The inoculum was prepared by mixing two viruses at 9:1 ratio

745   based on plaque forming unit ml^{-1}. NhBE was infected with 100,000 pfu of the 9:1 virus mix.

746   Viral RNA was extracted from daily supernatant and sequenced by next generation sequencing.

747   Bar graph shows proportion of sequencing reads encoding either S-614D or S-614G, and each

748   square dot represents one individual data point.

749

750   **Extended Data Figure 2. hACE-2 KI mouse generation and infection with SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-}}$**

751   **$^{\text{614D}}$ and SARS-CoV-2$^{\text{S-614G}}$ viruses.** (**a**) Design and generation of humanized ACE2 knock-in

752   mice (hACE2-KI). The hACE2 cDNA was inserted in frame with the endogeneous initiation

753   codon of mouse Ace2 in exon 2, which was deleted. The hACE2 cDNA was flanked 5' with a

754   loxP site (black triangle) and 3' with a FRT-neomycin-FRT-loxP cassette. The targeting

755   construct included a negative selection cassette (PGK-DTA) to improve selection of clones with

756   homologous recombination. Chimeric male mice transmitting the targeted locus were crossed

757   with Flp-deleter female mice to generate the floxed hACE2 knock-in allele. This allele can be

758   used : (1) without further cre-mediated recombination, as shown here, to study humanized ACE2

759   mice (hACE2-KI), where the hACE2 cDNA is expressed in place of mouse Ace2; (2) after

760   crossing with a cre-deleter mouse line to generate constitutive *Ace2* knock-out mice; (3) after

761   crossing with tissue-specific cre line. Ubiquitous and tissue-specific knock-out mice can be

762   crossed with conventional hACE2 transgenic mice to remove the endogenous mouse ACE2,

763   which could confound pathogenesis studies that may occur due to heterodimerization of ACE2.

764   (**b**) Body weight loss at indicated time points after infection of hACE2-KI mice (n=8), wild-type

765   mice infected (n=9) and for mock-infected wild-type sampled identically (n=10). (**c**) Quantitative

766 RT-PCR analysis of tissue homogenates of inoculated hACE2-KI and wild-type mice at

767 indicated time points.

768

Extended Data Figure 3. Virus replication in infected Syrian hamsters.

770 **(a)** Body weight loss at indicated time points after infection of Syrian hamsters. Donor animals

771 (n=6; black dots) were intranasally inoculated with SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} / SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} at

772 equal ratio (1x10$^{4.77}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal as determined by backtitration of the original inoculum).

773 24h after infection, naïve hamsters (n=6; orange triangles) were housed in direct contact in an

774 "one-to-one" experimental setup. **(b)** Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of individual nasal washing

775 samples obtained from donor hamsters and contact animals, respectively. **(c)** Body weight loss at

776 the indicated time points after infection of the hamsters. Syrian hamsters were inoculated with

777 10$^{5.1}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} (n=7, blue dots), or 10$^{4.5}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal SARS-CoV-

778 2^{S-614G} (n=7, red triangles) via the intranasal route. Titers were determined by backtitration of the

779 original inoculation material. **(d)** Viral genome copy numbers are shown as determined by RT-

780 qPCR from individual nasal washing samples of the animals inoculated with the single variant

781 virus. **(e)** Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of tissue homogenates of inoculated hamsters of the

782 SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} group (n=7, blue dots) versus the SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G} group (n=7, red

783 triangles).

784

785 **Extended Data Figure 4. "Twin"-inoculation of donor ferrets with equal ratios of SARS-**

786 **CoV-2^{S-614D} and SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}.**

787   Donor ferrets (black dot; n=6) were intranasally inoculated with $10^{5.4}$ TCID$_{50}$/animal as

788   determined by back titration of an inoculum comprising equal ratios of SARS-CoV-2^{S-614D} and

789   SARS-CoV-2^{S-614G}. Twenty four hours post inoculation one contact ferret (orange triangle; n=6)

790   was commingled with one donor ferret, creating six donor – contact ferret pairs. **(a)** Individual

791   body weight of ferrets at the indicated days, relative to the day of inoculation, is plotted. **(b)**

792   Genome copy numbers for inoculated donor and contact ferrets. Individual nasal washing

793   samples of the indicated days were analyzed by RT-qPCR "nCoV_IP4", and absolute numbers

794   were calculated using a set of standard RNAs. All donor ferrets (black dots) tested vRNA

795   positive, starting already day 2 post inoculation (n=6). 4 out of 6 contact ferrets (orange

796   triangles) tested vRNA positive beginning with day 4 (corresponding with day 3 after contact). 2

797   of the 6 contact ferrets never tested positive for vRNA throughout the study.

798

799   **Extended Data Table 1 | Lung histopathological score of mice infected with SARS-CoV-2.**

800   Data is shown for individual hACE2-KI mice (K1-K8) and wild-type inoculated (WT1-WT9)

801   and wild-type mice mock inoculated (M1-M10). Scoring criteria are detailed in Extended Data

802   Table 2. Scoring was performed by a pathologist blinded sample identification.

803

804   **Extended Data Table 2 | Score sheet of lung histopathology.**

805

806

Sample ID	KD (M)	KD (Error)	Kon (1/Ms)	Kon Error	Koff (1/s)	Koff Error
S1-614D	3.74E-09	4.56E-11	1.92E+05	2.11E+03	7.19E-04	3.80E-06
S1-614G	1.65E-09	1.71E-11	2.69E+05	2.32E+03	4.42E-04	2.56E-06

Pair 1

i.n. Infected

Contact

Total copies x 10^3/ml
848,600   50,340

Total copies x 10^3/ml
21   209,981 538,170 20,314 10,200 473,413 6,645

Pair 2

i.n. Infected

Contact

Total copies x 10^3/ml
1,191,000   10,370

Total copies x 10^3/ml
1,635 1,865,390 956,938 199,609 8,978 297,521 18,087

Pair 3

i.n. Infected

Contact

Total copies x 10^3/ml
1,137,000   5,880

Total copies x 10^3/ml
490 109,529 125,250 531,340 81,241 26,090 6,891

Pair 4

i.n. Infected

Contact

Total copies x 10^3/ml
75,900   75,900

Total copies x 10^3/ml
662 228,852 1,073,061 22,206 49,097 110,296 90,459

Pair 5

i.n. Infected

Contact

Total copies x 10^3/ml
1,054,000   2,026

Total copies x 10^3/ml
535 254,890 162,800 153,700 34,796 136,460 32,767

Pair 6

i.n. Infected

Contact

Total copies x 10^3/ml
2,069,000   802

Total copies x 10^3/ml
223 727,100 285,300 115,430 3,620 138,110 8,399

Legend:
614G
614D

Inoculum 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 12 dpi