

# GigaScience

## Analysis of SARS-CoV-2 known and novel subgenomic mRNAs in cell culture, animal model and clinical samples using LeTRS, a bioinformatic tool to identify unique sequence identifiers.

--Manuscript Draft--

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<b>Abstract:</b>	<p>SARS-CoV-2 has a complex strategy for the transcription of viral subgenomic mRNAs (sgmRNAs), which are targets for nucleic acid diagnostics. Each of these sgmRNAs has a unique 5' sequence, the leader-transcriptional regulatory sequence gene junction (leader-TRS-junction), that can be identified using sequencing. High resolution sequencing has been used to investigate the biology of SARS-CoV-2 and the host response in cell culture and animal models and from clinical samples. LeTRS, a bioinformatics tool, was developed to identify leader-TRS-junctions and be used as a proxy to quantify sgmRNAs for understanding virus biology. LeTRS is readily adaptable for other coronaviruses such as Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) or a future newly discovered coronavirus. LeTRS was tested on published datasets and novel clinical samples from patients and longitudinal samples from animal models with COVID-19. LeTRS identified known leader-TRS-junctions and identified putative novel sgmRNAs that were common across different mammalian species. This may be indicative of an evolutionary mechanism where plasticity in transcription generates novel open reading frames, that can then subject to selection pressure. The data indicated multi-phasic abundance of sgmRNAs in two different animal models. This recapitulates the relative sgmRNA abundance observed in cells at early points in infection, but not at late points. This pattern is reflected in some human nasopharyngeal samples, and therefore has implications for transmission models and nucleic acid-based diagnostics. LeTRS provides a quantitative measure of sgmRNA abundance from sequencing data. This can be used to assess the biology of SARS-CoV-2 (or other coronaviruses) in clinical and non-clinical samples, especially to evaluate different variants and medical countermeasures that may influence viral RNA synthesis.</p>	
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<b>Response to Reviewers:</b>	<p>Reviewer reports:</p> <p>Reviewer #1: Comments: It is an important study. Except for a few minor points, the authors have addressed most of the reviewers' suggestions. This manuscript will be considered for acceptance after addressing the following minor suggestions:</p> <p>1.The authors have compared the algorithm design, input, and output, and the counts of predicted sgmRNA across four tools. However, it would be nice if the authors could compare these tools' performances regarding prediction accuracy, F-measure, sensitivity, and specific scores. These will let the readers and potential users have a better sense of choosing a different tool for different purposes.</p> <p>[We have added the prediction accuracy, F-measure, sensitivity, and specific scores, calculated based on simulated Illumina and Nanopore reads, in the Table 1.]</p> <p>2.It is unclear what the red line means in Supplemental Figure 8-9.</p> <p>[The red lines in Supplemental Figure 8 and 9 are for the normalized count of sgmRNA identified by LeTRS. We have moved this to Supplementary Table 12.]</p> <p>3.On page 18, lines 364-370. The analysis and significance that the authors stated in that paragraph do not show the apparent trends in Supplemental Figure 9. Would the authors update the figure types to reflect the results of their statistical tests?</p> <p>[We have updated the boxplots in Supplemental Figures 8 and 9. We used a paired samples one-sided Wilcoxon test that takes account the difference at each modification site of two compared sgmRNAs in different time points. A large amount of modification sites with differences resulted a low p-value even the trends in boxplots are not very large.]</p> <p>4.On page 18, line 370. The author mentioned that "The abundance of most sgmRNAs decreased with time, and both of these factors could account for the frequency of methylation." Based on the context, it seems that the conclusion could not be derived. Because the methylation frequency is a ratio, then it may not correlate with the abundance of the sgmRNAs.</p>

	[We have removed this sentence to reflect the reviewer's content.]  Reviewer #2: Happy with revisions, no further comments
<b>Additional Information:</b>	
<b>Question</b>	<b>Response</b>
Are you submitting this manuscript to a special series or article collection?	No
<b>Experimental design and statistics</b>  Full details of the experimental design and statistical methods used should be given in the Methods section, as detailed in our <a href="#">Minimum Standards Reporting Checklist</a> . Information essential to interpreting the data presented should be made available in the figure legends.  Have you included all the information requested in your manuscript?	Yes
<b>Resources</b>  A description of all resources used, including antibodies, cell lines, animals and software tools, with enough information to allow them to be uniquely identified, should be included in the Methods section. Authors are strongly encouraged to cite <a href="#">Research Resource Identifiers</a> (RRIDs) for antibodies, model organisms and tools, where possible.  Have you included the information requested as detailed in our <a href="#">Minimum Standards Reporting Checklist</a> ?	Yes
<b>Availability of data and materials</b>  All datasets and code on which the conclusions of the paper rely must be either included in your submission or deposited in <a href="#">publicly available repositories</a> (where available and ethically appropriate), referencing such data using	Yes

a unique identifier in the references and in the “Availability of Data and Materials” section of your manuscript.

Have you have met the above requirement as detailed in our [Minimum Standards Reporting Checklist](#)?



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2 clinical samples using LeTRS, a bioinformatic tool to identify unique sequence identifiers.

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27 **Abstract**

28 SARS-CoV-2 has a complex strategy for the transcription of viral subgenomic mRNAs (sgmRNAs),  
29 which are targets for nucleic acid diagnostics. Each of these sgmRNAs has a unique 5' sequence,  
30 the leader-transcriptional regulatory sequence gene junction (leader-TRS-junction), that can be  
31 identified using sequencing. High resolution sequencing has been used to investigate the biology  
32 of SARS-CoV-2 and the host response in cell culture and animal models and from clinical samples.  
33 LeTRS, a bioinformatics tool, was developed to identify leader-TRS-junctions and be used as a  
34 proxy to quantify sgmRNAs for understanding virus biology. LeTRS is readily adaptable for other  
35 coronaviruses such as Middle East respiratory syndrome coronavirus (MERS-CoV) or a future  
36 newly discovered coronavirus. LeTRS was tested on published datasets and novel clinical samples  
37 from patients and longitudinal samples from animal models with COVID-19. LeTRS identified  
38 known leader-TRS-junctions and identified putative novel sgmRNAs that were common across  
39 different mammalian species. This may be indicative of an evolutionary mechanism where  
40 plasticity in transcription generates novel open reading frames, that can then subject to selection  
41 pressure. The data indicated multi-phasic abundance of sgmRNAs in two different animal models.  
42 This recapitulates the relative sgmRNA abundance observed in cells at early points in infection,  
43 but not at late points. This pattern is reflected in some human nasopharyngeal samples, and  
44 therefore has implications for transmission models and nucleic acid-based diagnostics. LeTRS  
45 provides a quantitative measure of sgmRNA abundance from sequencing data. This can be used  
46 to assess the biology of SARS-CoV-2 (or other coronaviruses) in clinical and non-clinical samples,  
47 especially to evaluate different variants and medical countermeasures that may influence viral  
48 RNA synthesis.

49 **Importance**

50 When infecting cells, SARS-CoV-2 not only replicates its genome but also makes molecules called  
51 subgenomic mRNAs (sgmRNAs) that are used as the template for many of the viral proteins,  
52 including the spike glycoprotein. The sgmRNAs can only be found in infected cells, and therefore  
53 their presence and ratio in a clinical sample is indicative that viral RNA synthesis has occurred,  
54 and infected cells are present. The sgmRNAs are targets for diagnostic assays. We have developed  
55 a rapid informatics methodology (LeTRS) to identify these unique molecules from multiple types  
56 of sequencing data generated in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. We used this pipeline to  
57 follow the pattern of sgmRNA abundance in nasopharyngeal samples taken from non-human  
58 primate models and clinical samples from humans. We identified putative novel sgmRNAs that  
59 may point to a potential new evolutionary mechanism in the virus. The data indicated that SARS-  
60 CoV-2 RNA synthesis (and by inference infection) may occur in waves, and this has implications  
61 for diagnostics and modelling of disease spread.

62



63 **Introduction**

64 Various sequencing approaches are used to characterise SARS-CoV-2 RNA synthesis in cell culture  
65 [1, 2], ex vivo models [3] and clinical samples. This can include nasopharyngeal swabs from  
66 patients with COVID-19 [4] to post-mortem samples from patients who died of severe disease  
67 [5]. Bioinformatic interrogation of this data can provide critical information on the biology of the  
68 virus. SARS-CoV-2 genomes are message sense, and the 5' two thirds of the genome is translated  
69 and proteolytically cleaved into a variety of functional subunits, many of which are involved in  
70 the synthesis of viral RNA [6]. The remaining one third of the genome is expressed through a  
71 nested set of subgenomic mRNAs (sgmRNAs). These have common 5' and 3' ends with the  
72 coronavirus genome, including a leader sequence, and are thus co-terminal. Many studies have  
73 shown that the sgmRNA located towards the 3' end of the genome, which encodes the  
74 nucleoprotein, generally has a higher abundance than those located immediately after the 1a/b  
75 region and the genome itself in infected cells [7, 8]. However, there is not necessarily a precise  
76 transcription gradient of the sgmRNAs. The 5' leader sequence on the sgmRNAs is immediately  
77 abutted to a short sequence called a transcriptional regulatory sequence (TRS) that is involved in  
78 the control of sgmRNA synthesis [9, 10]. These TRSs are located along the genome and are  
79 proximal to the start codons of the open reading frames [11]. In the negative sense the TRSs are  
80 complementary to a short portion of the genomic leader sequence. The TRS is composed of a  
81 short core motif that is conserved and flanking sequences [9, 10, 12]. The core motif of the TRS  
82 in SARS-CoV-2 is ACGAAC.

83

84 The prevailing thought is that synthesis of sgmRNAs involves a discontinuous step during negative  
85 strand synthesis [13, 14]. A natural consequence of this is recombination resulting in insertions  
86 and deletions (indels) in the viral genome and the formation of defective viral RNAs. Thus, the  
87 identification of the leader/sgmRNA complexes by sequencing provides information on the  
88 abundance of the sgmRNAs and evidence that transcription has occurred in the tissue being  
89 analysed. In terms of clinical samples, if infected cells are present, then leader/sgmRNA 'fusion'  
90 sequence can be identified, and inferences made about active viral RNA synthesis from the  
91 relative abundance of the sgmRNAs. In the absence of published data from human challenge  
92 models, the kinetics of virus infection are unknown, and most studies will begin with detectable  
93 viral RNA on presentation of the patient with clinical symptoms. In general, models of infection  
94 of humans with SARS-CoV-2 assume an exponential increase in viral RNA synthesis followed by a  
95 decrease, as antibody levels increase [15].

96

97 To investigate the presence of SARS-CoV-2 sgmRNAs in clinical (and other) samples, a  
98 bioinformatics tool (LeTRS), was developed to analyse sequencing data from SARS-CoV-2  
99 infections by identifying the unique leader-TRS gene junction site for each sgmRNA. The utility of  
100 this tool was demonstrated on cultured cells infected with SARS-CoV-2, nasopharyngeal samples  
101 from humans with COVID-19 and longitudinal analysis of nasopharyngeal samples from two non-  
102 human primate models infected with SARS-CoV-2. The tool is adaptable for other coronaviruses.  
103 The results have implications for virus biology, diagnostics and disease modelling.

104

105 **Results**

106 A tool, LeTRS (named after the leader-TRS fusion site), was developed to detect and quantify  
107 defined leader gene junctions of SARS-CoV-2 (and other coronaviruses) from multiple types of  
108 sequencing data. This was used to investigate SARS-CoV-2 sgmRNA synthesis in humans and non-  
109 human primate animal models. LeTRS was developed using the Perl programming language,  
110 including a main program for the identification of sgmRNAs and a script for plotting graphs of the  
111 results. The tool accepts FASTQ files derived from Illumina paired-end or Oxford Nanopore  
112 sequencing (amplicon or direct RNA), or BAM files produced by a splicing alignment method with  
113 a SARS-CoV-2 genome (Supplementary Figure 1). Note that SARS-CoV-2 sgmRNAs are not formed  
114 by splicing, but this is the apparent observation from sequencing data because of the  
115 discontinuous nature of transcription. By default, LeTRS analyses SARS-CoV-2 sequence data by  
116 using 10 known leader-TRS junctions and an NCBI reference genome (NC\_045512.2) to identify  
117 leader dependent canonical sgmRNAs. However, given the potential heterogeneity in the leader-  
118 TRS region and potential novel (leader dependent noncanonical) sgmRNAs the user can also  
119 provide customised leader-TRS junctions and SARS-CoV-2 variants as a reference. As there is  
120 some heterogeneity in the leader-TRS sites, LeTRS was also designed to search for multiple  
121 features of sgmRNAs. This included the leader-TRS junction in a given interval, report on the 20  
122 nucleotides at the 3' end of the leader sequence, the TRS, translate the first predicted orf of the  
123 sgmRNA, and find the conserved ACGAAC sequences in the TRS. LeTRS can also be used to identify  
124 the sequencing reads with leader independent fusion sites that has been suggested to probably  
125 produce unknown ORFs yielding functional products [2]. The tool was designed to investigate  
126 very large data sets that are produced during sequencing of multiple samples.

127

128 **Combinations of read alignments with the leader-TRS junction that are considered for**  
129 **identifying leader-TRS junction sites**

130 Various approaches have been used to sequence the SARS-CoV-2 genome and in most cases, this  
131 would also include any sgmRNAs as they are 3' co-terminal and share common sequence  
132 extending from the 3' end. Methods such as ARTIC[16], MIDNIGHT[17] and RSLA[4] use primer  
133 sets to generate overlapping amplicons that span the entire genome, and also amplify sgmRNA.  
134 Included is a primer to the leader sequence, so that the unique 5' end of these moieties are  
135 sequenced. Primer sets of ARTIC, MIDNIGHT and RSLA are generally formed of 2 pools. For the  
136 ARTIC method, at the time of the study, only the pool 1 included a forward primer located within  
137 the leader region (< 80 nts) of the SARS-CoV-2 genome ([https://github.com/artic-network/artic-ncov2019/blob/master/primer\\_schemes/nCoV-2019/V3/nCoV-2019.primer.bed](https://github.com/artic-network/artic-ncov2019/blob/master/primer_schemes/nCoV-2019/V3/nCoV-2019.primer.bed)). Therefore,  
138 LeTRS was designed with a function to analyse reads in the primer pool 1, pool 2 or both pools.  
139 Unbiased sequencing can also be used in methodologies to identify SARS-CoV-2 sequence. Data  
140 in the GISAID database have been generated by Oxford Nanopore (minority) or Illumina  
141 (majority) based approaches. These can give different types of sequencing reads derived from  
142 the sgmRNAs that can be mapped back on the reference SARS-CoV-2 genome by splicing  
143 alignment (Figure 1A). For example, there are several different types of reads that can be derived  
144 from mapping Illumina-based amplicon sequencing onto the reference viral genome (Figure 1B  
145 and 1C). During the PCR stage, the extension time allows the leader-TRS region on the sgmRNAs  
146 to be PCR-amplified by the forward primer and the reverse primer before and after leader-TRS  
147 junction in different primer sets, respectively. If the amplicon had a length shorter than the  
148

149 Illumina read length (usually 100-250 nts), both the forward and reverse primers would be  
150 detected at the ends of each paired read (Figure 1B pink lines). If the amplicon was longer than  
151 the Illumina read length, primer sequence would be only found at one end of each paired read  
152 (Figure 1B green and brown lines), with the possibility of one of the paired reads having a fusion  
153 site. The extension stage could also proceed with a single primer using cDNA derived from the  
154 sgmRNA as a template. This type of PCR product has a very low amplification efficiency, but  
155 theoretically could also generate the same Illumina paired-end read with a single primer  
156 sequence at one end (Figure 1C). These paired-end reads could include the full length of the  
157 leader sequence but might not reach the 3' end of the sgmRNA, because of the limitation of  
158 Illumina sequencing length and extension time (Figure 1C). Also, unless there are cryptic TRSs  
159 located towards the 3' end of the genome, all sgmRNAs would be expected to be larger than the  
160 Illumina sequencing length.

161

162 In contrast, the different types of read alignment in the Nanopore based amplicon are simpler to  
163 assign. The longer reads that tend to be generated by Nanopore sequencing (depending on  
164 optimisation) enable the capture of full-length sequences of all amplicons. Provided the leader  
165 sequence is included as a forward primer most of the reads spanning the leader-TRS junction  
166 would contain the forward and reverse primer sequences at both ends (Figure 1D pink lines). If  
167 the extension time allowed, single primer PCR amplification could take the Nanopore amplicon  
168 sequencing reads to both the 3' and 5' ends of the sgmRNAs, and these types of reads would only  
169 have a primer sequence at one end (Figure 1D brown lines). In the Nanopore direct RNA

170 sequencing (dRNAseq) approach, the full-length sgRNA could be sequenced and mapped  
171 entirely on the leader and TRS-orf regions (Figure 1E).

172

### 173 **Evaluation of LeTRS on SARS-CoV-2 infection in cell culture.**

174 In order to assess the ability of LeTRS to identify the leader-TRS junctions from sequencing  
175 information, a total RNA sample was prepared at 72 hours post-infection (hpi) from hACE2-A549  
176 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 (a lineage B isolate). This RNA was sequenced using an amplicon-  
177 based approach (ARTIC) with either Nanopore (ARTIC-Nanopore) or Illumina (ARTIC-Illumina), or  
178 alternatively by a Nanopore dRNAseq approach [18]. The ARTIC-Nanopore (Figure 2A,  
179 Supplementary Table 1) and ARTIC-Illumina (Figure 2B, Supplementary Table 2) sequencing data  
180 were evaluated with LeTRS by setting the analysis to both primers pools. For dRNAseq (Figure 2C,  
181 Supplementary Table 3), data was evaluated with LeTRS using the default setting. All the major  
182 known leader-TRS gene junctions were identified by these sequencing methods. Analysis  
183 demonstrated an expected pattern of abundance of the leader-TRS gene junctions with the  
184 leader-TRS nucleoprotein gene junction being most abundant (Figure 2A, B and C; Supplementary  
185 Tables 1, 2 and 3). Novel low abundance leader-TRS gene junctions were also identified (Figure  
186 2A, B and C; Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3). These known and novel leader-TRS junctions were  
187 also known as leader dependent canonical and noncanonical fusions, respectively [2]. LeTRS also  
188 has a function to identify leader independent long-distance fusion (>5,000 nt) and local joining  
189 yielding a deletion between proximal sites (20-5,000 nt distance) in the sequencing reads. The  
190 leader independent fusions (coverage  $\geq 2$ ) are shown in Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3. Indel  
191 sequencing errors are frequent (defined as less than 20 nucleotides), especially in Nanopore

192 sequencing data, and therefore it is difficult to find precise fusion (apparent splicing) sites in this  
193 case [19]. However, some of the novel leader-TRS junctions (noncanonical fusions) and leader  
194 independent fusions in the test sample were supported by all three sequencing methods  
195 (Supplementary Figure 2) with similar fusion sites. Many local fusions/deletions within the orf3,  
196 E, M, orf6, orf7a, orf7b, orf8 and N genes were identified (Supplementary Figure 2 G, H and I)  
197 confirmed previous findings [2, 20], and indicates these are common events. Some of the novel  
198 leader-TRS junctions (noncanonical fusions) and leader independent fusions may be the result of  
199 sequencing or reverse transcription errors, especially those with low abundance (Supplementary  
200 Tables 1, 2 and 3; Supplementary Figure 2). The ARTIC-Illumina approach identified fewer novel  
201 leader-TRS junctions (noncanonical fusions) and leader independent fusions than the other two  
202 sequencing methodologies, probably due to lower sequencing coverage (Supplementary Tables  
203 1, 2 and 3).

204

205 For ARTIC approaches, LeTRS was designed to analyse reads in the primers pool 1, pool 2 or both  
206 pools. Only the ARTIC pool 1 included a forward primer that is located within the leader region  
207 (< 80 nts) of the SARS-CoV-2 genome. The leader-TRS regions of sgmRNAs can be PCR-amplified  
208 by both forward and reverse primers in ARTIC pool 1, but only reverse primers in ARTIC pool 2.  
209 The read counts evaluated by LeTRS in both ARTIC-Nanopore and ARTIC-Illumina were compared  
210 in the test data for pool 1 and 2, and found only very few reads/read pairs contained the correct  
211 primers (Supplementary Table 4 and 5), suggesting the primers in ARTIC pool 2 generally do not  
212 contribute to sequencing of leader-TRS regions.

213

214 **Comparison with other informatic tools that can identify leader TRS gene junctions.**

215 Other tools have been developed to identify sgRNAs from ARTIC-Illumina and ARTIC-Nanopore  
216 sequencing data, such as Periscope (v0.1.0) [21], SARS-CoV-2-leader  
217 (<https://github.com/hyeshik/sars-cov-2-transcriptome>) [18] and SuPER  
218 (<https://github.com/ncbi/SuPER>) [22]. These tools were compared with LeTRS as shown in Table  
219 1. LeTRS and Periscope used the FASTQ files as input, while SARS-CoV-2-leader and SuPER  
220 required SAM files from a user generated alignment. Searching fusion site and sequences tag in  
221 the sequencing reads are two major methods used. LeTRS and SuPER analysed the fusion/splicing  
222 information in sequence reads achieved by an alignment program and also take account of the  
223 conserved ACGAAC sequences in the TRS. Periscope and SARS-CoV-2-leader are based on  
224 searching for a short tag sequence in the leader from sequencing reads. However, searching for  
225 a short tag sequence in the leader with the high error rate associated with Nanopore data can be  
226 challenging. LeTRS and Periscope use primer information to differentiate reads mapping to  
227 amplicons to reads mapping from original virus genomes. Besides Periscope, output from  
228 dRNAseq is supported by the other available tools. Illumina sequencing reads are usually short (<  
229 250 bases), paired and sequenced from both ends. If both reads in a single pair contain a fusion  
230 site this will be counted twice by the other three tools (Figure 1B green and pink). However, if  
231 only one of the reads in the pair contains a fusion site it will be counted once (Figure 1B brown).  
232 This leads to biased counting. LeTRS takes this into account by treating each read pair as a single  
233 event. LeTRS also has a unique function to analyse reads in the primers pool 1, pool 2 or both  
234 pools from ARTIC based sequencing (Table 1). Accuracy, sensitivity, specificity and the F-measure  
235 score were calculated with simulated Illumina and Nanopore sequencing reads. All of these tools



236 performed better for analysing the simulated Illumina sequencing reads compared to the  
237 simulated Nanopore sequencing reads (Table 1). LeTRS showed greater sensitivity and F-measure  
238 score than the other tools for processing the simulated Nanopore sequencing reads (Table 1).

239

240 To compare the performance to LeTRS, these three tools were evaluated using the hACE2-A549  
241 cell culture sample sequenced by ARTIC-Nanopore, ARTIC-Illumina and Nanopore dRNAseq.  
242 Using the ARTIC-Nanopore sequencing data, all the tools reported a similar number of read  
243 counts for the 10 known sgmRNAs (Supplementary Figure 3A). LeTRS showed fewer counts for  
244 the ARTIC-Illumina than the other three tools because of considering read pairs (Supplementary  
245 Figure 3B). Interestingly, Periscope also identified fewer nucleoprotein sgmRNAs with the ARTIC-  
246 Illumina sequencing data (Supplementary Figure 3B). As of writing, Periscope does not yet  
247 support Nanopore dRNAseq data, therefore LeTRS, SARS-CoV-2-leader and SuPER were  
248 compared. LeTRS and SARS-CoV-2-leader generally identified more dRNAseq reads than SuPER,  
249 especially for the nucleoprotein sgmRNA (Supplementary Figure 3C). Finally, the ratio of read  
250 counts with the 10 known sgmRNA (S:orf3:E:M:orf6:orf7a:orf7b:orf8:N:orf10) were compared,  
251 and the three tools showed almost an identical ratio when analysing data from the same  
252 sequencing methods (Supplementary Figure 3D). ARTIC-Nanopore and Nanopore dRNAseq  
253 resulted in a higher ratio of read counts with M and orf7a respectively (Supplementary Figure  
254 3D). The read counts ratio of sgmRNAs mapping to spike was much lower with dRNAseq  
255 approaches (Supplementary Figure 3D).

256

257 **Normalisation of read counts for sgmRNA**

258 Normalisation of read counts has been widely used for RNAseq in the comparison of gene  
259 expression level across samples [23]. The normalisation is generally based on the ratio of reads  
260 mapped on the gene to the total number of reads in that sample. These tools use this algorithm  
261 for the normalisation of read counts in searching for sgRNA [21, 24]. LeTRS also incorporated a  
262 method to differentiate the total reads mapped (i) or whether the reads have forward primer  
263 only (ii), reverse primer only (iii), both primers (iv) or at least one primer (v) present. This is  
264 achieved by (i) the total number of reads mapped on the SARS-CoV-2 genome for the number of  
265 reads of leader-TRS fusion site as the numerator; (ii) the total number of reads with forward  
266 primers only for the number of reads of leader-TRS fusion site with forward primers only as the  
267 numerator; (iii) the total number of reads with reverse primers only for the number of reads of  
268 leader-TRS fusion site with reverse primers only as the numerator; (iv) the total number of reads  
269 with both primers for the number of reads of leader-TRS fusion site with both as the numerator  
270 and (v) the total number of reads with at least one primer on one side for the number of reads  
271 of leader-TRS fusion site with at least one primer on as the numerator (notes in Supplementary  
272 Tables 1, 2 and 3).

273

274 Because LeTRS considers the primers; pool 1, pool 2 or both pools, normalisation could be  
275 observed in ARTIC pool 1 only to minimise the effect from ARTIC pool 2 since primers in ARTIC  
276 pool 2 are almost not involved the sequencing of leader-TRS regions (as described above). For  
277 the same RNA derived from the hACE2-A549 cell culture sample sequenced by ARTIC-Nanopore,  
278 ARTIC-Illumina or Nanopore dRNAseq approaches, the normalised counts for the known  
279 sgRNAs were much smaller with the pool 1 of PCR based amplicon methods (ARTIC-Nanopore

280 and ARTIC-Illumina) than the Nanopore dRNAseq approach (Figure 3A and C for the reads with  
281 at least one primer sequence; Supplementary Tables 3, 4 and 5). However, the normalised counts  
282 with ARTIC-Nanopore and ARTIC-Illumina showed the same ratio of known sgmRNA as the  
283 Nanopore dRNAseq approach, except for sgmRNAs mapping to S and orf7a (Figure 3B and D for  
284 the reads with at least a primer sequence). PCR based approaches increases the value of the  
285 denominator and reduced the normalised count, because a full length of sgmRNA was counted  
286 once with the dRNAseq approach compared to many times with the amplicon approaches. ARTIC-  
287 Illumina had fewer normalised counts than ARTIC-Nanopore probably due to the sequencing bias  
288 of Illumina during PCR [25]. Thus, if the samples were sequenced with the same methodology  
289 they were comparable. With a PCR based method a normalised count should be used to show  
290 the relative difference between samples.

291  
292 LeTRS identified many reads with only one primer (one-sided amplification) with the PCR based  
293 amplicon methods (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). The ratio of reads with either forward and/or  
294 reverse primers were compared for each sgmRNA to the overall ratios of reads, with forward  
295 primers only or reverse primers only, both primers in all mapped reads of pool 1 and pool 2 and  
296 the mapped reads with any fusion sites of pool 1 and pool 2. This indicated that abundant reads  
297 were identified with a single pattern and these were similar to reads mapping to sgmRNAs,  
298 suggesting a one sided amplification is associated with amplicon-based approaches  
299 (Supplementary Figure 4).

300

301 **Analysis of sequencing data from longitudinal nasopharyngeal samples taken from two non-**  
302 **human primate models of COVID-19 indicated multi-phasic sgmRNA synthesis and novel**  
303 **sgmRNAs.**

304 Part of the difficulty of studying SARS-CoV-2 and the disease COVID-19 is establishing the  
305 sequence of events from the start of infection. Most samples from humans are from  
306 nasopharyngeal aspirates taken when clinical symptoms develop. This tends to be 5 to 6 days  
307 post-exposure. In the absence of a human challenge model, animal models can be used to study  
308 the kinetics of SARS-CoV-2[26, 27]. Two separate non-human primate (NHP) models, cynomolgus  
309 and rhesus macaques, were established for the study of SARS-CoV-2 that mirrored disease in  
310 most humans[26]. To study the pattern of sgmRNA synthesis over the course of infection,  
311 nasopharyngeal samples were sequentially gathered daily from 1 dpi up to 18 dpi from the two  
312 NHP models. RNA was purified from these longitudinal samples as well as the inoculum virus and  
313 viral RNA sequenced using ARTIC-Illumina.

314  
315 As expected, analysis of the sequence data using LeTRS from the inoculum used to infect the  
316 NHPs indicated that leader gene junctions could be identified, but these did not follow the  
317 pattern of abundance of leader TRS-gene junctions found in infected cells in culture, where the  
318 leader TRS nucleoprotein gene junction was most abundant (Supplementary Figure 5). The  
319 inoculum would be expected to contain mostly genomic RNA found in virions. In contrast,  
320 analysis of the longitudinal sequencing data from nasopharyngeal aspirates from the NHP model  
321 using LeTRS identified leader TRS-gene junctions associated with the major sgmRNAs (Figure 4,  
322 Supplementary Table 7) as well as novel leader-TRS gene junction sites (Supplementary Figures

323 6 and 7). Analysing the abundance of the leader-TRS-gene junctions for both model species over  
324 the course of infection revealed a phasic nature of sgmRNA synthesis in pool 1 to minimise the  
325 effect from ARTIC pool 2 (Figure 4). The leader-TRS nucleoprotein gene junction was the most  
326 abundant, and there was a phasic pattern of potential sgmRNA abundance identified with the  
327 ARTIC-Illumina method (Figure 4). For both species, viral load and hence sgmRNA abundance had  
328 decreased by 8 and 9 dpi.

329

### 330 **Analysis of leader-TRS-gene junction in human samples revealed expected and aberrant** 331 **abundances of sgmRNAs**

332 To investigate the pattern of leader-TRS-gene junction abundance during infection of SARS-CoV-  
333 2 in humans, nasopharyngeal swabs from patients with COVID-19 were sequenced by ARTIC-  
334 Illumina (using samples from COG-UK) (N=15 patients) (Figure 5, Supplementary Table 8) or by  
335 ARTIC-Nanopore (using samples from ISARIC-4C) (N=15 patients) (Figure 6, Supplementary Tables  
336 9 and 10). In several samples, leader-TRS-gene junctions were identified and followed an  
337 expected pattern, with the nucleoprotein gene junction being the most abundant (e.g., Sample  
338 1 in Figures 5A and B, Patient 2 day1 in Figure 6A and B). However, in several of the samples there  
339 was very large representation of single leader-TRS-gene junction (e.g., Sample 4 and 5 in Figures  
340 5A and B). These tended to map to the nucleoprotein gene (Sample 5, 8 and 13 Figures 5A and  
341 B). The heterogeneity in abundance of leader-TRS-gene junctions was reminiscent of that from  
342 the NHP study with a defined and expected pattern near the start of infection but then becoming  
343 phasic. The samples gathered under ISARIC-4C were from hospitalised patients and permitted  
344 analysis in relation to reported date of symptom onset and sequential sampling. In general, the

345 data indicated that the first sample on admission to hospital contained an abundance of leader-  
346 TRS-gene junctions which resembled the pattern seen in infected cells (Patient 6 day 1 and day 9  
347 in Figures 6A and B). However, with further days post-sample, e.g. (Patient 7 day 7 Figures 6A  
348 and B), the leader-TRS nucleoprotein gene junction was the most abundant and far exceeded any  
349 other detectable species. The abundance of leader-TRS nucleoprotein gene junction in the  
350 patients at a later stage of infection followed that observed in the NHP model (Figure 4).

351

352 **Analysis of sequencing data from a previously published study investigating SARS-CoV-2 RNA**  
353 **in samples from patients**

354 Recent research detected sgmRNAs mapping to E, ORF7a and N in swabs up to 14 days in one  
355 patient and ORF7a and N in another patient up to 17 days after first detection by using a high-  
356 throughput amplicon sequencing method known as Ion AmpliSeq Coronavirus Research Panel on  
357 an Ion S5 XL genetic sequencer. The authors concluded these sgmRNAs may be present for a  
358 significant time after active infection due to nuclease resistance and protection by cellular  
359 membranes [24]. The sequencing data from this study was reanalysed using LeTRS, and  
360 confirmed the finding of sgmRNAs in late infection from the two patients (Supplementary Table  
361 11). Apart from nuclease resistance and protection by cellular membranes, a phasic pattern of  
362 sgmRNA synthesis may also contribute to the presence of sgmRNAs at later time points.

363

364 **Analysis of sgmRNA modification in longitudinal samples in cell culture.**

365 N6-methyladenosine (6mA) is a widely observed modification on cellular RNA, and 5-  
366 methylcytosine methylation (5mC) has also been reported on viral RNAs [18]. Methylation of

367 SARS\_CoV-2 RNA was examined using sequencing data from the Nanopore direct RNA seq  
368 approach. Total RNA was purified at 6, 12 and 24 hpi from cells infected with SARS-CoV-2. The  
369 total RNA was sequenced and reads mapping to sgmRNAs were extracted with LeTRS for 6mA  
370 and 5mC examination. Almost all 10 observed sgmRNAs showed the same number of  
371 modification sites of 6mA and 5mC at 6, 12 and 24 hpi (Supplementary Table 12). Modification  
372 with 5mC was more abundant than 6mA in all 10 known sgmRNAs (Supplementary Table 12).  
373 There were differences in abundance of some sgmRNAs especially the M and N subgenomic  
374 mRNAs (Supplementary Table 12). However, there did not appear to be a relationship between  
375 number of methylation sites and the abundance of a particular sgmRNA (Supplementary Table  
376 12).

377 To further evaluate the relationship between time post-infection and modification by  
378 methylation, a paired samples one-sided Wilcoxon test was used. This analysis suggested that  
379 the 5mC modification fraction at 24 hpi was significantly less than compared to modification at 6  
380 and 12 hpi (p-value < 0.05), except for ORF7b and ORF10 (Supplementary Figures 8 and 9;  
381 Supplementary Table 13). Modification with 6mA at 24 hpi was also significantly less than at 6  
382 hpi, but not at 12 hpi (p-value < 0.05) in S, ORF3a, E, M, ORF6, ORF7a, ORF8 and N.

383

#### 384 **Common properties/features of novel leader-TRS gene junctions and sgmRNAs**

385 The sequencing data from cells infected in culture (Supplementary Table 14), animal models and  
386 clinical samples from humans indicated the presence of novel leader-TRS gene junctions. Their  
387 detection generally increased with depth of coverage. Coronavirus replication and transcription  
388 is promiscuous, and recombination is a natural result of this, resulting in indels and potential

389 gene rearrangements. Many of these novel leader-TRS junctions were centred around the known  
390 gene orf but out of the search interval. These types of leader-TRS-gene junctions could be only  
391 found with spike, membrane, ORF6, ORF7b and nucleocapsid orfs, in which the membrane orf  
392 was the most common (Figure 7A). To define what might be genuine novel leader-TRS-gene  
393 junctions, these were compared across the data in all ARTIC-Illumina data (Figure 7B,  
394 Supplementary Table 15). Five novel leader-TRS-gene junctions were identified that were  
395 common to all the data, and the majority of these were present immediately 5' of the membrane  
396 orf). The novel leader-TRS-gene junctions from LeTRS (Figure 7C) showed a similar distribution as  
397 a previous study, although this study did not detail the precise location [28].

398

399



400 **Discussion**

401 Coronavirus sgmRNAs are only synthesised during infection of cells and therefore their presence  
402 in sequence data can be indicative of active viral RNA synthesis. The abundance of the sgmRNAs  
403 in infected cells should follow a general pattern where the sgmRNA encoding the nucleoprotein  
404 is the most abundant. Identification and quantification of the unique leader-TRS-gene junctions  
405 for each sgmRNA can be used as a proxy for their abundance.

406

407 LeTRS was developed to interrogate sequencing datasets to identify the leader-TRS-gene  
408 junctions present at the 5' end of the sgmRNAs. LeTRS was first evaluated and validated on cell  
409 culture data from published datasets [2, 16] and from a cell culture experiment as part of this  
410 study and then used in an analysis of nasopharyngeal samples from NHP and human clinical  
411 samples. The results showed that the positions of the leader-TRS junction sites with peak read  
412 counts were the same as the given reference positions. The exception was at the leader-TRS-  
413 gene junction for orf7b in the Nanopore sequencing. The normalised count results confirmed the  
414 reads spanning the junctions showed that the leader-TRS nucleoprotein gene junction was the  
415 most abundant, and orf7b and orf10 were the most infrequent in line with other data [2, 24].  
416 Several low abundant leader-TRS junctions were identified in all of the datasets (Supplementary  
417 Figure 2) with the implication these were either from potential lower abundant novel sgmRNAs  
418 or represented known sgmRNAs, but with different leader-TRS junctions. Likewise, at low  
419 frequency these could represent an aberrant viral transcription, perhaps as a mechanism to  
420 generate new orfs for selection or these could be artefacts of the different sequencing processes  
421 (Figure 2). Traditionally, such sgmRNAs have been first identified in coronaviruses by either

422 northern blot and/or metabolic labelling [8] and sequencing approaches are likely to be more  
423 sensitive giving the amplification steps involved. Several other groups have identified novel  
424 leader-TRS-gene junctions and potential sgmRNAs for other coronaviruses, including avian  
425 infectious bronchitis virus [29]. The best way of validating potential novel sgmRNAs would be  
426 through matching proteomic data to confirm genuine ORFs [1]. Analysis of several published  
427 sequencing datasets identified novel viral RNA molecules that the authors suggested were  
428 sgmRNAs containing only the 5' region of orf1a [30]. Such species are likely to be defective RNAs,  
429 that act as templates for replication, rather than sgmRNAs. Interestingly, at later time points  
430 post-infection in cell culture, potential novel sgmRNAs were found to be generated non-  
431 specifically [30]. This potentially ties in with a disconnect of leader-TRS-gene junctions observed  
432 in our study both *in vivo* from the nasopharyngeal samples from latter time points in the NHP  
433 models and in humans. This is also shown in published data from SARS-CoV-2 infections in cell  
434 culture gathered at later time points compared to earlier time points [2, 16].

435  
436 Advanced filtering can improve the confidence of the identified leader-TRS junction from  
437 sequencing data. Amplicon sequencing provided a unique opportunity to filter the sequencing  
438 reads. The reads spanning the junctions with the correct forward primer, reverse primer or both  
439 primer sequences at the ends of reads proved the known/novel sgmRNA existing in tested ARTIC-  
440 Illumina and ARTIC-Nanopore amplicon sequencing data (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2). For  
441 Illumina sequencing, the same junction on paired reads with at least one primer provided extra  
442 evidence for leader-TRS identification. Some reads were identified that did not have primer  
443 sequences and these were likely to be erroneously mapped, from template sgmRNA or low-

444 quality sequence. These were present at very low abundance compared to authentically mapped  
445 reads (Supplementary Tables 1 and 2). The Nanopore dRNAseq approach had the potential to  
446 generate full-length mRNA sequences. The polyA sequences and leader-TRS junctions in the  
447 reads can be good signals to prove the full-length sgmRNA in the test data (Supplementary Table  
448 3). Currently, LeTRS is the only tool to consider paired-end Illumina data and primer pools, and  
449 therefore is suited for interrogating paired-end Illumina data and providing data from amplicon  
450 sequencing information from either primer pools.

451  
452 In terms of clinical samples (typically nasopharyngeal swabs), the presence of sgmRNAs will  
453 generally be due to the presence of infected cells. This has been seen as indicative of active viral  
454 RNA synthesis at the time of sampling[5, 31, 32], although these have also been postulated to be  
455 present through resistant structures after infection has finished [33]. Analysis of inoculum  
456 indicated that leader-TRS-gene junctions could be identified (Supplementary Figure 5) but that  
457 these were not in the same ratio as found in cells infected in culture (e.g., Figure 2A, B and 2C).  
458 Thus, if the abundance of leader-TRS-gene junctions follows an expected pattern of the leader-  
459 TRS nucleoprotein gene junction being the most abundant followed by a general gradient in  
460 sequence data from nasopharyngeal samples, then this may be indicative of an active infection  
461 – and the presence of infected cells in a sample.

462  
463 In the absence of a human challenge model, NHP models that closely resemble COVID-19 disease  
464 in humans can be used to study SARS-CoV-2 infection from a very defined initial exposure. RNA  
465 was sequenced from longitudinal nasopharyngeal samples from two NHP models, rhesus and

466 cynomolgus macaques [26]. LeTRS was used to identify the abundance of the leader-TRS-gene  
467 junctions in this data. The analysis indicated a phasic pattern of sgmRNA synthesis with a large  
468 drop off after 8 or 9 dpi in both NHP models. This phasic pattern may be explained by an initial  
469 synchronous infection of respiratory epithelial cells followed by cell death. Released virus then  
470 goes on to infect new epithelial cells, with virus infection increasing exponentially in waves but  
471 becoming asynchronous. The decline in sgmRNA from 8 or 9 dpi overlaps with IgG seroconversion  
472 and humoral immunity in both species [26], and follows similar kinetics to serology profiles  
473 measured in patients with COVID-19.

474

475 The identification of sgmRNAs in nasopharyngeal samples and their kinetics has implications for  
476 nucleic acid-based diagnostics (many of which have three targets, one in the orf1a/b region and  
477 two which are shared between the genome and sgmRNAs – the nucleoprotein and the spike  
478 genes). The phasic nature of leader-TRS-gene junctions in the longitudinal samples, and by  
479 implication sgmRNAs, and overt abundance of the leader-TRS nucleoprotein gene junction found  
480 in many of the human samples, suggests that it may not be possible to precisely identify where  
481 in infection an individual is based on the abundance of sgmRNAs. Likewise, assuming equivalency  
482 between the targets, if the nucleoprotein target is found to be more abundant than the spike  
483 target than the genomic target, then this would suggest infected cells are present in the sample.  
484 Decreases in Ct values associated with emerging variants could equally be explained by sloughed  
485 cells being present in a nasopharyngeal sample as well as by increases in the amount of  
486 virions/viral load. Therefore, we would caution that a decrease in Ct associated with RT-qPCR  
487 based assays may not just be reflective of higher viral loads but also may be indicative of more

488 infected cells being present. These possibilities may be resolved by considering the relative ratios  
489 of sgmRNAs identified.

490 **METHODS**

491 **Data input**

492 LeTRS was designed to analyse FASTQ files derived from Illumina paired-end or Nanopore  
493 sequencing data derived from a SARS-CoV-2 amplicon protocol, or standard Nanopore SARS-CoV-  
494 2 dRNAseq data (Figure 1). The Illumina/Nanopore FASTQ sequencing data were cleaned to  
495 remove adapters and low-quality reads before input. Sequencing data derived from other  
496 sequencing modes or platforms can also be analysed by LeTRS via input of a BAM file produced  
497 by a custom splicing alignment method with a SARS-CoV-2 genome (NC\_045512.2) as a reference  
498 (Figure 1). This can also be rapidly adapted for other coronaviruses.

499

500 **Library preparations and sequencing**

501 We sequenced the 15 samples from human patients with Nanopore. Total RNA was isolated using  
502 a QIAamp Viral RNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) by spin-column procedure according to  
503 the manufacturer's instructions. Clinical samples were extracted with Trizol LS as described[4].  
504 All RNA samples were treated with Turbo DNase (Invitrogen). SuperScript IV (Invitrogen) was  
505 used to generate single-strand cDNA using random primer mix (NEB, Hitchin, UK). ARTIC V3 PCR  
506 amplicons from the single-strand cDNA were generated following the Nanopore Protocol of PCR  
507 tiling of SARS-CoV-2 virus (Version: PTC\_9096\_v109\_revL\_06Feb2020). Amplicons generated by  
508 ARTIC PCR were purified and normalised to 200 fmol before DNA end preparation and barcode  
509 and adapter ligation. Library was loaded onto a FLO-MIN106 flow cell and sequencing reads were  
510 called with Guppy using the high-accuracy calling parameters.

511

512 The NHP samples and their inoculum, and our laboratory experiments conducted in cells were  
513 sequenced with Illumina. The amplicons products for Illumina sequencing were prepared as per  
514 the Nanopore sequencing above and then used in Illumina NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library  
515 preparation. Following 4 cycles of amplification the library was purified using Ampure XP beads  
516 and quantified using Qubit and the size distribution assessed using the Fragment analyzer. Finally,  
517 the ARTIC library was sequenced on the Illumina® NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina®, San Diego,  
518 USA, RRID:SCR\_016387) following the standard workflow. The generated raw FastQ files (2 x 250  
519 bp) were trimmed to remove Illumina adapter sequences using Cutadapt v1.2.1  
520 (RRID:SCR\_011841)[34]. The option “-O 3” was set, so the that 3’ end of any reads which  
521 matched the adapter sequence with greater than 3 bp was trimmed off. The reads were further  
522 trimmed to remove low quality bases, using Sickle v1.200 [35] with a minimum window quality  
523 score of 20. After trimming, reads shorter than 10 bp were removed.

524

525 The LeTRS was also tested with a combined Nanopore-ARTIC v3 amplicon dataset of 7 published  
526 viral cell culture samples (barcode01-barcode07) [16], and a dataset from a published direct RNA  
527 Nanopore sequencing analysis Vero cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 or an uninfected negative  
528 control [2].

529

### 530 **Sequencing data alignment and basic filtering**

531 LeTRS controlled Hisat2 v2.1.0 (RRID:SCR\_015530)[36] to map the paired-end Illumina reads  
532 against the SARS-CoV-2 reference genome (NC\_045512.2) with the default setting, and  
533 Minimap2 v2.1 [19] to align the Nanopore cDNA reads and direct RNA-seq reads on the viral

534 genome using Minimap2 with “-ax splice” and “-ax splice -uf -k14” parameters, respectively.  
535 LeTRS provided 10 known leader-TRS junctions to improve alignment accuracy by using “--  
536 known-splicesite-infile” function in Hisat2 and “--junc-bed” function in Minimap2, but this  
537 application could be optionally switched off by users. In order to remove low mapping quality  
538 and mis-mapped reads before searching the leader-TRS junction sites, LeTRS used Samtools v1.9  
539 (RRID:SCR\_002105)[37] to have basic filtering for the reads in the output Sam/Bam files according  
540 to their alignment states as shown (Table 9 - basic filtering).

541

#### 542 **Searching the leader-TRS motifs**

543 After the mapping and basic filtering step, LeTRS searched aligned reads spanning the leader-TRS  
544 junctions in the SARS-CoV-2 reference genome (Supplementary Figure 1). For the known leader-  
545 TRS junctions, LeTRS searched the reads including the leader-TRS junctions within a given interval  
546 around the known leader and TRS junctions sites. The leader break site interval is  $\pm 10$  nts, and  
547 the TRS breaking sites interval is -20 nts to the 1 nt before the first known AUG in the default  
548 setting (the intervals can be changed to custom values to investigate heterogeneity). LeTRS then  
549 reported a peak count that was the number of reads carrying the most common leader-TRS  
550 junctions within the given leader and TRS breaking sites intervals, and a cluster count that was  
551 the number of all reads carrying leader-TRS junctions within the given leader and TRS breaking  
552 sites intervals (Tables 1-6). LeTRS also searched the junctions out of the given intervals (the  
553 genomic position of leader breaking site  $< 80$ ) and reported the number of reads ( $> 10$  by default)  
554 with novel leader-TRS junctions. These number of read counts were also reported by number of  
555 reads in 1000000 as normalisation. The read including the known and novel leader-TRS junctions



556 could be optionally outputted in FastA format. Based on identified known and novel leader-TRS  
557 junctions, LeTRS could report 20 nucleotides towards the 3' end of the leader sequence, the TRS  
558 and translated the first orf of sgmRNAs sequence, and find the conserved ACGAAC sequences in  
559 the TRS (Table S1-S6).

560

### 561 **Advance filtering**

562 Based on the alignment possibilities illustrated in Figure 2 and discussed, LeTRS further filters the  
563 identified reads with known and novel leader-TRS junctions. This step is named as advance  
564 filtering and can only applied when the input data is from Illumina paired-end reads, Nanopore  
565 cDNA reads or Nanopore RNA reads (Table 2). If a BAM file is used as input data, the advanced  
566 filtering step would be automatically skipped (Table 2). The number of reads including the known  
567 and novel leader-TRS junctions, and the number of reads filtered with corresponding advance  
568 filtering criteria were outputted into two tables in tab format (Tables 1-6).

569

### 570 **Leader-TRS junction plotting**

571 LeTRS-plot was developed as an automatic plotting tool that interfaces with the R package  
572 ggplot2 v3.3.3 to view the leader-TRS junctions in the tables generated by LeTRS (Figure 3-5). The  
573 plot shows peak count, filtered peak count, normalized peak count and normalized filtered peak  
574 count for known leader-TRS junctions, and novel junction counts, filtered novel junction count,  
575 normalized novel junction count and filtered normalized novel junction for novel leader-TRS  
576 junctions.

577

578 **Simulation of Illumina and Nanopore reads**

579 To assess the performance of LeTRS and other tools, simulated Illumina reads were generated  
580 using ART (v2.5.8) [38] and Nanopore reads were generated using NanoSim (v2.6.0,  
581 RRID:SCR\_018243) [39]. The real reads generated by the ARTIC-Nanopore approach, ARTIC-  
582 Illumina approach and Nanopore dRNAseq approach for the hACE2-A549 cells infected with  
583 SARS-CoV-2 were used to create custom Illumina and Nanopore read quality/error profiles with  
584 ART and NanoSim. Illumina paired reads (2x250 bp) and Nanopore cDNA-1D read for both ARTIC  
585 and sgRNA amplicons were simulated at 50000 × coverage for each amplicon and 2,000,000  
586 reads in total, respectively. Nanopore dRNAseq reads (2,000,000) of the sgRNA and viral  
587 genome were generated using transcriptome mode.

588

589 **RNA modifications**

590 Total RNA extracted from cultured cells at 6, 12 and 24 hours were collected for Oxford  
591 Nanopore direct RNA sequence. LeTRS was then run with a parameter of “extractfasta” to extract  
592 subgenomic mRNAs reads in sequenced samples. The fast5 files that corresponds to the  
593 extracted subgenomic mRNAs reads were withdrawn using fast5\_subset in Oxford Nanopore  
594 ont\_fast5\_api package (v0.3.2, [https://github.com/nanoporetech/ont\\_fast5\\_api](https://github.com/nanoporetech/ont_fast5_api)). The re-  
595 squiggle algorithm in Tombo analysis pipelines (v1.5.1,  
596 <https://github.com/nanoporetech/tombo>) defines a new assignment from raw signals to  
597 reference sequence with “--num-most-common-errors 5” option. The resquiggled raw signals  
598 were further processed using “detect\_modifications alternative\_model” functions in Tombo by  
599 setting “--rna and --alternate-bases 5mC” to identify 5-methylcytosine (5mC), and “predict\_sites”

600 in Nanom6A package (v2021\_10\_22) [40] with default setting to identify N6-methyladenosine  
601 (6mA) in the subgenomic mRNAs reads.

602

### 603 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

604 All experimental work on NHPs was conducted under the authority of a UK Home Office approved  
605 project license (PDC57C033) that had been subject to local ethical review at PHE Porton Down by  
606 the Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body (AWERB) and approved as required by the Home  
607 Office Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and the full ethics and NHP model are described.

### 608 **Consent for publication**

609 Not applicable

610

### 611 **Data Availability**

612 Illumina and Nanopore test data sets are available under NCBI PRJNA699398. Snapshots of the  
613 code are available in the *GigaScience* GigaDB repository[41].

### 614 **Availability and requirements**

- 615 • Project name: LeTRS
  - 616 • Project home page: <https://github.com/Hiscox-lab/LeTRS>
  - 617 • Operating system(s): Platform independent
  - 618 • Programming language: Perl
  - 619 • Other requirements: samtools(>=1.11), hisat2(=2.1.0), minimap2(=2.17),  
620 portcullis(>=1.1.2)
  - 621 • License: Apache 2.0
  - 622 • RRID:SCR\_022138
- 623

### 624 **Competing interests**

625 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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650 publication.

651

## 652 **Authors' contributions**

653 X.D. developed the LeTRS software and performed the informatics analysis. X.D., A.D. and J.A.H.  
654 analysed the data. J.S., J.T. and M.W.C. co-ordinated the NHP work and sample processing. R.P.-  
655 R., J.P.S., H.G., T.P. and N.R. were involved in sequencing and informatics analysis of the NHP  
656 samples with D.A.M. A.D. oversaw sequencing of the human clinical samples with E.V. and C.N  
657 for the COG-UK data. R.P.-R. and J.A.H. oversaw sequencing of samples under the auspices of  
658 ISARIC-4C with clinical samples collected and managed by J.K.B, L.T., M.G.S. and P.J.M.O. J.A.H.  
659 and M.W.C. initiated and led the study and wrote the manuscript with X.D., R.P.-R., A.D. with  
660 other authors involved in editing the final version.

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665 samples used in this study.

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766 data for "Identification and quantification of SARS-CoV-2 leader subgenomic mRNA gene  
767 junctions in nasopharyngeal samples shows phasic transcription in animal models of  
768 COVID-19 and dysregulation at later time points that can also be identified in humans"  
769 *GigaScience Database*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5524/102209>

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772 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

773 All experimental work on NHPs was conducted under the authority of a UK Home Office approved  
774 project license (PDC57C033) that had been subject to local ethical review at PHE Porton Down by  
775 the Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body (AWERB) and approved as required by the Home  
776 Office Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and the full ethics and NHP model are described.

777 **Consent for publication**

778 Not applicable

779

780 **Data Availability**

781 Illumina and Nanopore test data sets are available under NCBI PRJNA699398. Snapshots of the  
782 code are available in the *GigaScience* GigaDB repository[41].

783

784 LeTRS is available at <https://github.com/xiaofengdong83/LeTRS>.

785

786 **Competing interests**

787 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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811 interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; or in the decision to submit the article for  
812 publication.

813

814 **Authors' contributions**

815 X.D. developed the LeTRS software and performed the informatics analysis. X.D., A.D. and J.A.H.  
816 analysed the data. J.S., J.T. and M.W.C. co-ordinated the NHP work and sample processing. R.P.-  
817 R., J.P.S., H.G., T.P. and N.R. were involved in sequencing and informatics analysis of the NHP  
818 samples with D.A.M. A.D. oversaw sequencing of the human clinical samples with E.V. and C.N  
819 for the COG-UK data. R.P.-R. and J.A.H. oversaw sequencing of samples under the auspices of  
820 ISARIC-4C with clinical samples collected and managed by J.K.B, L.T., M.G.S. and P.J.M.O. J.A.H.  
821 and M.W.C. initiated and led the study and wrote the manuscript with X.D., R.P.-R., A.D. with  
822 other authors involved in editing the final version.

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824 We would like to thank all members of the Hiscox Laboratory and the Centre for Genome  
825 Research for supporting SARS-CoV-2/COVID-19 sequencing research. We would like to  
826 acknowledge members of the COG-UK and ISARIC4C consortia for acquisition of the human  
827 samples used in this study.

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837 Table 1. Comparison of other Tools with LeTRS.

		LeTRS	Periscope	SARS-CoV-2-leader	SuPER
Input files		fastq	fastq	bam/sam	sam
Consideration of amplicon primer information used		yes	yes	no	no
Consideration of paired-end Illumina data		yes	no	no	no
Consideration of amplicon primer pool		yes	no	no	no
Consideration of the ACGAAC box		yes	no	no	yes
Support of amplicon Illumina data		yes	yes	yes	yes
Support of amplicon Nanopore data		yes	yes	yes	yes
Support of Nanopore dRNAseq data		yes	no	yes	yes
Method		Fusion site searching	Sequences tag searching	Sequences tag searching	Fusion site searching
Accuracy	ARTIC-Illumina	1.0000	0.9998	0.9998	0.9996
	ARTIC-Nanopore	0.9985	0.9981	0.9980	0.9979
	Nanopore dRNAseq	0.9982	-	0.9948	0.9937
Sensitivity	ARTIC-Illumina	0.9997	0.9498	0.9644	0.9230
	ARTIC-Nanopore	0.6294	0.5326	0.5154	0.4843
	Nanopore dRNAseq	0.8448	-	0.5949	0.4817
Specificity	ARTIC-Illumina	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
	ARTIC-Nanopore	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
	Nanopore dRNAseq	1.0000	-	1.0000	1.0000
F-measure	ARTIC-Illumina	0.9998	0.9499	0.9655	0.9243
	ARTIC-Nanopore	0.7621	0.6699	0.6611	0.6215
	Nanopore dRNAseq	0.9157	-	0.7140	0.5934

838 Accuracy, sensitivity, specificity and F-measure score were calculated with simulated Illumina and  
 839 Nanopore sequencing reads for the known sgmRNAs.

840

841

842 Table 2. The criteria of basic and advanced filtering for four different types of input data for  
 843 LeTRS.

Output Filters	Illumina paired- end amplicon reads	Nanopore amplicon reads	Nanopore dRNAseq reads	Bam
MAPQ > 10	•	•	•	•
Read only one splicing junction	•	•	•	•
Basic filtering Primary alignment only	•	•	•	•
No supplementary alignment	•	•	•	•
Read mapped in pair	•			
No read reverse strand			•	
Read alignment 5' end includes forward primer	•	•		
Read alignment 3' end includes reverse primer	•	•		
Advance filtering Read alignment 5' end includes forward primer and 3' end includes reverse primer	•	•		
Paired read including at least one primer in each have same leader-TRS junction in alignments	•	•		
Read alignment 3' with > 1 ployA		•	•	

Read alignment 3' with > 5plopA

•

•

844



845 Figures

846 Figure 1. (A). Illustration of reads derived from sgmRNAs mapped onto the SARS-CoV-2 reference  
847 genome with a splicing method. We note that splicing does not occur in coronaviruses but this is  
848 the apparent observation of a fusion event between different parts of the genome. (B and C).  
849 Illustration of the possible type of reads mapped on the SARS-CoV-2 reference genome for the  
850 paired-end Illumina amplicon sequencing, where the lines with same colour implied paired reads,  
851 (D) Nanopore amplicon sequencing and (E) Nanopore dRNAseq of the SARS-CoV-2 genome and  
852 sgmRNAs. L and B in the boxes indicate the leader-TRS breaking sites on the leader side and TRS  
853 side, respectively. Although we note these are where the apparent fusion site occurs. Yellow  
854 colour indicates the leader region, black is the TRS and gene sequence, the red indicates a  
855 sequence read that maps to SARS-CoV-2 sequence. Blue is a sequence that is present between  
856 the leader sequence and the TRS. For (B) and (C) the same colour (brown, green and pink)  
857 indicates that same paired read. For (B) the paired read contains both primers. For (C) the grey  
858 and light blue colour is a paired read, but only contains one primer sequence at any end. The  
859 vertical hash lines on (B, C, and D) indicates the position of a primer.

860

861 Figure 2. Analysis of reads mapping to the leader TRS-gene junctions with at least one primer  
862 sequence at either end in sequencing data from hACE2-A549 cells infected with SARS-CoV-2 and  
863 sequenced using either (A) an ARTIC-Nanopore approach, (B) an ARTIC-Illumina approach and (C)  
864 a Nanopore dRNAseq approach. The data corresponds to that shown in detailed in  
865 Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3. The standard deviation of a binomial distribution was calculated  
866 to generate error bars. The data is presented as a histogram with a normalised count for each

867 sgmRNA starting at a particular position in the leader sequence as indicated in the line diagram  
868 underneath. For each panel (A, B and C) the expected sgmRNA pattern is shown on the left and  
869 novel sgmRNAs are shown on the right.

870

871 Figure 3. An X-Y/scatter plot using normalized counts of sgmRNAs (with greater than 5 A residues  
872 at the 3' end – indicative of a polyA tail for the dRNAseq data). To generate the scatter plots  
873 Nanopore dRNAseq data was plotted against the either the normalized count (at least one primer  
874 sequence) of sgmRNAs with (A) ARTIC-Nanopore sequencing data and (C) ARTIC-Illumina  
875 sequencing data or provided as ratio (B) and (D), respectively for  
876 S:orf3:E:M:orf6:orf7a:orf7b:orf8:N:orf10 (using data from Supplementary Tables 3, 4 and 5).

877

878 Figure 4. Analysis of the abundance of reads mapping to the leader TRS-gene junctions that have  
879 at least one primer sequence at either end in longitudinal nasopharyngeal samples taken from  
880 two non-human primate models infected with SARS-CoV-2. The time post-infection in days is  
881 indicated on the x-axis. The normalised count (read count/total number of reads mapped on the  
882 reference genome)\*1,000,000) of the leader TRS-gene junction abundance is shown on the left-  
883 hand Y-axis with each unique leader TRS-gene junction colour coded. The right-hand Y axis is a  
884 measure of the total depth of coverage for SARS-CoV-2 in that sample. Note the two scales are  
885 different. SARS-CoV-2 was amplified and sequenced by ARTIC-Illumina. The data is organised into  
886 groups of animals for the cynomolgus macaque groups 1 and 2 (A/E and B/F), and rhesus  
887 macaque groups 1 and 2 (C/G and D/H). E, F, G and H zoom in to see the details of A, B, C and D

888 for Day1 to Day9. The data corresponds to that shown in Supplementary Table 7. Standard  
889 deviation of a binomial distribution was calculated to provide error bars.

890  
891 Figure 5. Plots of normalised peak counts (A) and peak counts (B) of leader-TRS gene junctions of  
892 reads with at least one primer sequences at either end derived from sequence data from 15  
893 human patients sequenced with the ARTIC-Illumina approach and analysed by using sequence  
894 derived from pool 1 primers. The data correspond to that shown in Supplementary Table 8.  
895 Standard deviation of a binomial distribution was calculated to provide error bars.

896  
897 Figure 6. Plots of normalised peak counts (A) and peak counts (B) of leader-TRS gene junctions of  
898 reads with at least one primer sequence at either end derived from sequence data from 15  
899 human patients sequenced with the ARTIC-Nanopore approach and analysed by using sequence  
900 derived from pool 1 primers. The data correspond to that shown in Supplementary Table 9.  
901 Standard deviation of a binomial distribution was calculated to provide error bars.

902  
903 Figure 7. (A). Diagram of novel leader-TRS junctions centred around the known gene orf but out  
904 of the search interval in the analysis of SARS-CoV-2 RNA from cell culture, non-human primate  
905 and human sequencing data. Many novel junctions map to the leader-TRS membrane gene  
906 junctions. (B). Venn diagram showing the overlap of novel leader-TRS gene junctions present in  
907 SARS-CoV-2 infected cynomolgus and rhesus macaques, human patients, and Vero cells. Data  
908 was obtained using the ATRIC-Illumina method (Supplementary Table 15). (C) Virus genome  
909 position of the start of the fusion site (Y-axis) in the leader sequence plotted against the fusion

910 site present in the gene to show the potential positions of the novel leader-TRS junctions along  
911 the SARS-CoV-2 genome (indicated above). A shown the colours present the novel leader-TRS  
912 junctions identified in the different experimental condition (cynomolgus and rhesus macaques,  
913 human patients, and Vero cells).

914 Supplementary Figures

915 Supplementary Figure 1. Bioinformatics pipeline for the identification of leader-TRS junctions in  
916 sequencing data from SARS-CoV-2 infected material with LeTRS. This can be rapidly adapted for  
917 other coronaviruses such as MERS-CoV and any newly emerged coronavirus. LeTRS can work  
918 from Nanopore or Illumina amplicon data or more unbiased approaches such as direct RNA  
919 sequencing, metagenomic or Illumina sequencing by using a BAM file.

920

921 Supplementary Figure 2. Novel (leader dependent noncanonical) fusions (count  $\geq 2$ ) found in the  
922 cell culture test sample sequenced by (A) ARTIC-Nanopore, (B) ARTIC-Illumina and (C) Nanopore  
923 dRNAseq approaches; leader independent long-distance ( $>5,000$  nt) fusions (count  $\geq 2$ ) found in  
924 the cell culture test sample sequenced by (D) ARTIC-Nanopore, (E) ARTIC-Illumina and (F)  
925 Nanopore dRNAseq approaches; leader independent local joining yielding a deletion between  
926 proximal sites (20–5,000 nt distance) fusions (count  $\geq 2$ ) found in the cell culture test sample  
927 sequenced by (G) ARTIC-Nanopore, (H) ARTIC-Illumina and (I) Nanopore dRNAseq approaches.  
928 The data correspond to that shown Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3.

929

930 Supplementary Figure 3. Comparison of different tools and LeTRS to evaluate sequencing data to  
931 identify the unique sequencing features of SARS-CoV-2 sgmRNAs. Number of reads were  
932 evaluated by LeTRS (all peak count), SARS-COV-2-leader, SuPER or periscope (High Quality count)  
933 with the cell culture test sample sequenced by (A) ARTIC-Nanopore, (B) ARTIC-Illumina and (C)  
934 Nanopore dRNAseq approaches; (D) Ratio of sgmRNAs  
935 (S:orf3:E:M:orf6:orf7a:orf7b:orf8:N:orf10) identified by LeTRS (all peak count), SARS-COV-2-

936 leader, SuPER or periscope (HQ count) with the cell culture test sample sequenced by ARTIC-  
937 Nanopore, ARTIC-Illumina and Nanopore dRNAseq approaches. The data are corresponded to  
938 that shown in Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3.

939  
940 Supplementary Figure 4. Comparison of the ratio of reads in amplicon sequencing approaches  
941 based on the ARTIC approach, with the forward primer only, reads with reverse primer only and  
942 reads with both primers in sgRNAs to the overall ratio of reads with the forward primer only,  
943 reads with reverse primer only and reads with both primers in all reads amplified by pool 1  
944 primers, pool 2 primers and both pools of primers for the cell culture test sample sequenced by  
945 (A) ARTIC-Nanopore and (B) ARTIC-Illumina approaches.

946  
947 Supplementary Figure 5. Raw (A and C) and normalised (B and D) canonical (upper) and novel  
948 (lower) leader-TRS gene junctions count in RNA purified from the inoculum of SARS-CoV-2 used  
949 to infect either the cynomolgus or rhesus macaques. The RNA was sequenced by the ARTIC-  
950 Illumina method (Supplementary Table 6). Standard deviation of a binomial distribution was  
951 calculated to provide error bars.

952  
953 Supplementary Figure 6. Novel leader-TRS gene junctions (count > 10) identified in RNA purified  
954 from nasopharyngeal swabs taken daily from cynomolgus macaques infected with SARS-CoV-2  
955 (Supplementary Table 7). The number before “-Day” indicated the group of cynomolgus  
956 macaques. Standard deviation of a binomial distribution was calculated to provide error bars.

957

958

959 Supplementary Figure 7. Novel leader-TRS gene junctions (count > 10) identified in RNA purified  
960 from nasopharyngeal swabs taken daily from from rhesus macaques (Supplementary Table 7).  
961 The number before “-Day” indicated the group of cynomolgus macaques. Standard deviation of  
962 a binomial distribution was calculated to provide error bars.

963

964 Supplementary Figure 8. Comparison of the fraction of 6mA modification (right-hand Y-axis) of  
965 each site in sgRNA at 6, 12 and 24 hours after post infection using direct RNA sequencing from  
966 RNA purified from SARS-CoV-2 infected cells. Only the sites with modification in at least one of  
967 the 6hpi, 12hpi and 24hpi were analysed.

968

969 Supplementary Figure 9. Comparison of the fraction of 5mC modification (right-hand Y-axis) of  
970 each site in sgRNA at 6, 12 and 24 hours after post infection using direct RNA sequencing from  
971 RNA purified from SARS-CoV-2 infected cells. Only the sites with modification in at least one of  
972 the 6hpi, 12hpi and 24hpi were analysed.

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981 Supplementary Tables

982 Table S1. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA, details of known sgmRNA, novel sgmRNA  
983 (count  $\geq 2$ ), details of novel sgmRNA, and leader independent long-distance and local fusions  
984 (count  $\geq 2$ ) evaluated in the cell culture test sample sequenced by the ARTIC-Nanopore  
985 approach.

986

987 Table S2. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA, details of known sgmRNA, novel sgmRNA  
988 (count  $\geq 2$ ), details of novel sgmRNA, and leader independent long-distance and local fusions  
989 (count  $\geq 2$ ) evaluated in the cell culture test sample sequenced by the ARTIC-Illumina approach.

990

991 Table S3. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA, details of known sgmRNA, novel sgmRNA  
992 (count  $\geq 2$ ), details of novel sgmRNA, and leader independent long-distance and local fusions  
993 (count  $\geq 2$ ) evaluated in the cell culture test sample sequenced by the Nanopore dRNAseq  
994 approach.

995

996 Table S4. The LeTRS output table for known sgmRNA evaluated by primers of pool 1 and 2 in the  
997 cell culture test sample sequenced by the ARTIC-Nanopore approach.

998

999 Table S5. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA evaluated by primers of pool 1 and 2 in the  
1000 cell culture test sample sequenced by the ARTIC-Illumina approach.

1001



1002 Table S6. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA and details of known sgmRNA with pool 1  
1003 primers, and novel sgmRNA (count > 10) and details of novel sgmRNA with both pools' primers  
1004 in the infecting SARS-CoV-2 inoculum source used for the NHP study, sequenced by the ARTIC-  
1005 Illumina method.

1006

1007 Table S7. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA and details of known sgmRNA with pool 1  
1008 primers, and novel sgmRNA (count > 10) and details of novel sgmRNA with both pools' primers  
1009 in longitudinal nasopharyngeal samples taken from two non-human primate models (cynomolgus  
1010 and rhesus macaques) of SARS-CoV-2 in groups. SARS-CoV-2 was amplified using the ARTIC  
1011 approach and sequenced by Illumina. The data is organised into groups of animals for the  
1012 cynomolgus macaque groups 1 and 2 that were with "-1" and "-2" in the excel sheets.

1013

1014 Table S8. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA and details of known sgmRNA in pool 1,  
1015 and novel sgmRNA (count > 10) and details of novel sgmRNA with both pools' primers from 15  
1016 human patients sequenced with ARTIC-Illumina.

1017

1018 Table S9. The LeTRS output tables for known sgmRNA and details of known sgmRNA in pool 1  
1019 from 15 human patients sequenced with ARTIC-Nanopore.

1020

1021 Table S10. The spreadsheet for the 15 human patients sequenced with the ARTIC-Nanopore  
1022 detailed in Table S9.

1023

1024 Table S11. Re-analysis of reads for known sgmRNAs in the (NCBI accession No. PRJNA636225)  
1025 [24].

1026

1027 Table S12. Summary of normalized count, number of modification sites and average modification  
1028 fraction in of each gmRNA at 6hpi, 12hpi and 24hpi.

1029

1030 Table S13. Evaluation of the difference of modification by the paired samples one-sided Wilcoxon  
1031 test to calculate p-value by treating the same nucleotides between any two time points as paired  
1032 data.

1033

1034 Table S14. The LeTRS output table for novel sgmRNA (count > 10) and details of novel sgmRNA  
1035 with both primer pools from VeroE6 cells infected in culture with SARS-CoV-2 (SCV2-006)  
1036 sequenced by ARTIC-Illumina primers. This sample is different from the one Table S2.

1037

1038 Table S15. Novel leader-TRS junctions centred around the known gene open reading frame but  
1039 out of the search interval in the analysis of cell culture, non-human primate and human  
1040 sequencing data.

1041

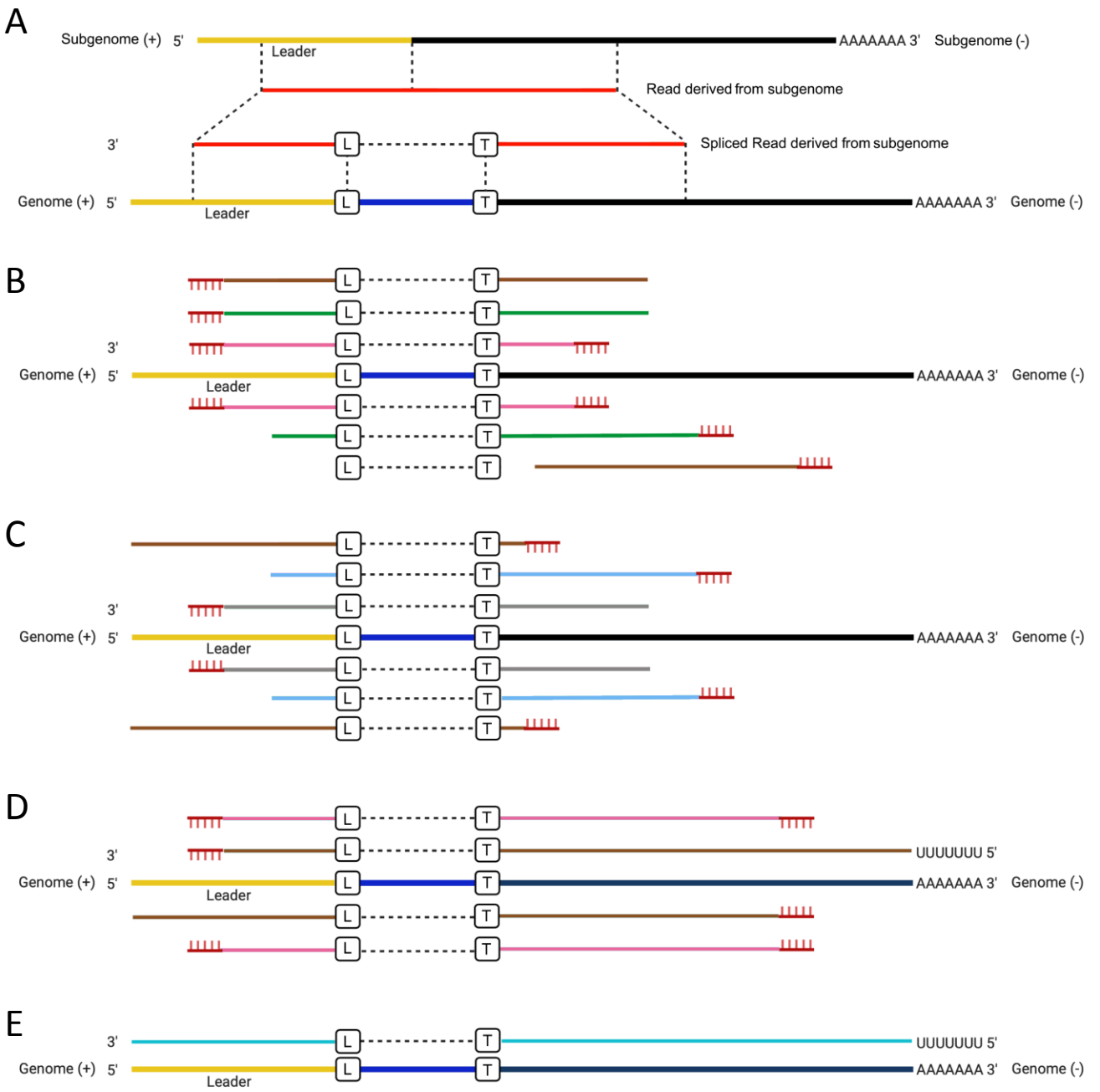


Figure 1

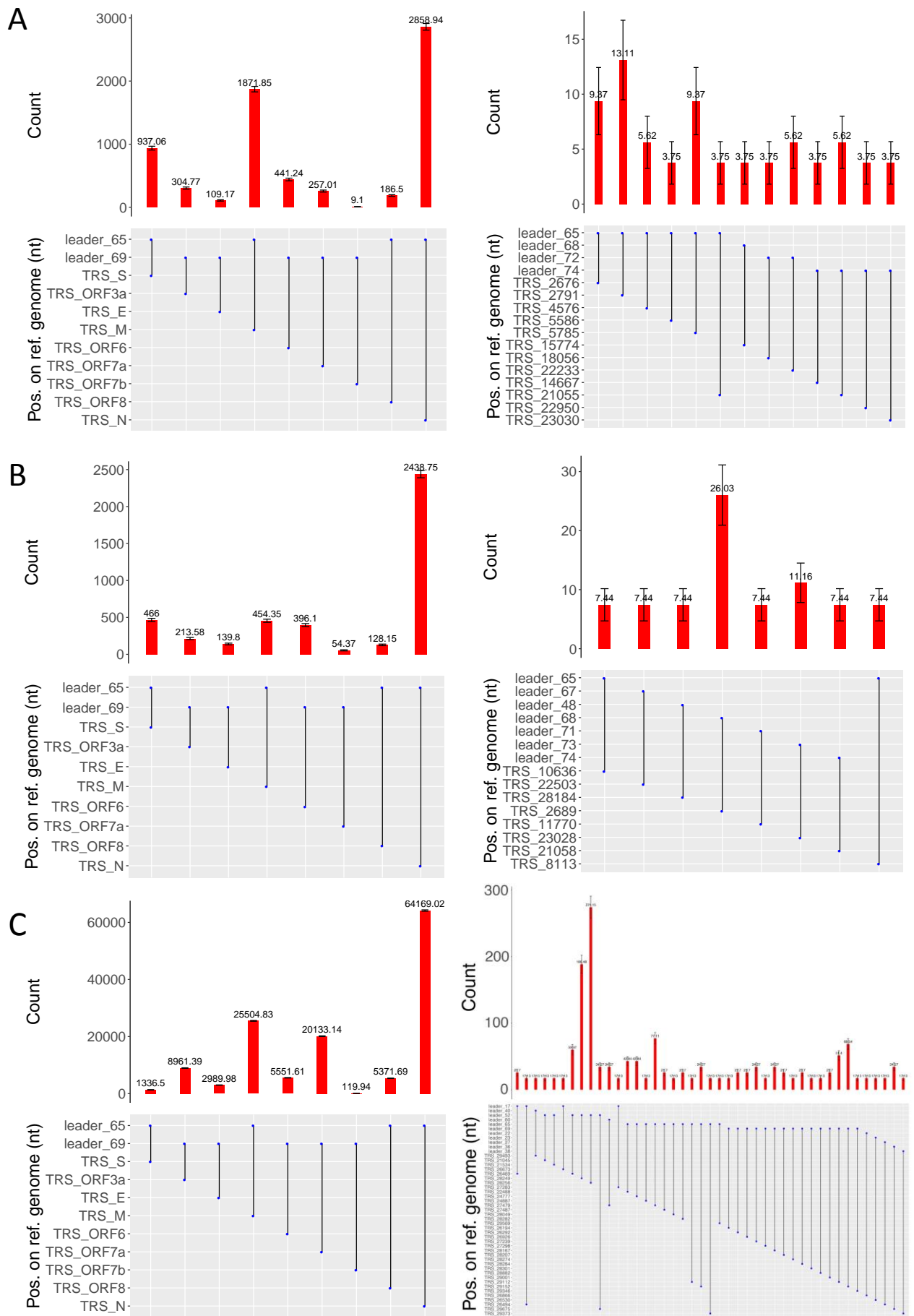


Figure 2

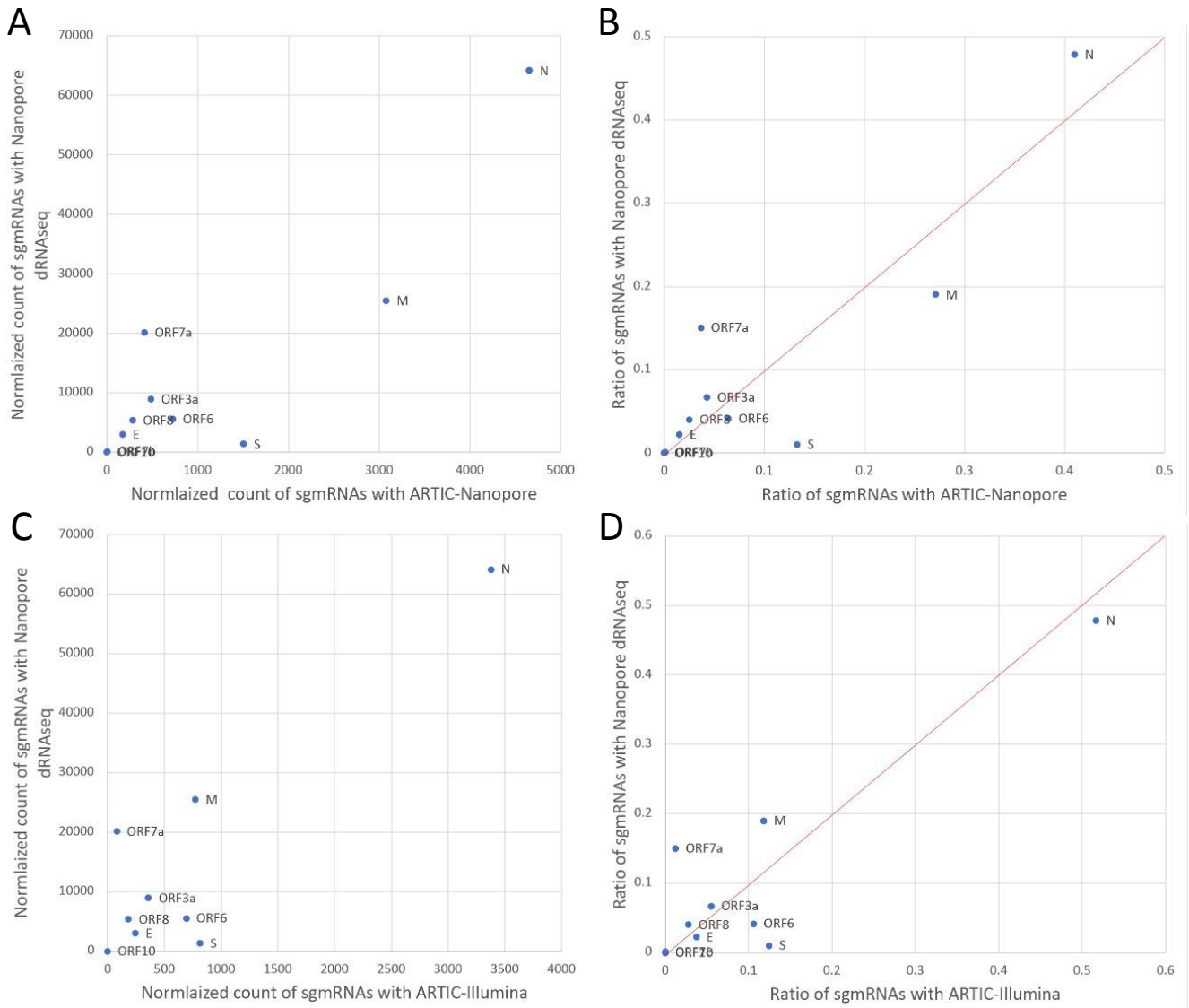


Figure 3

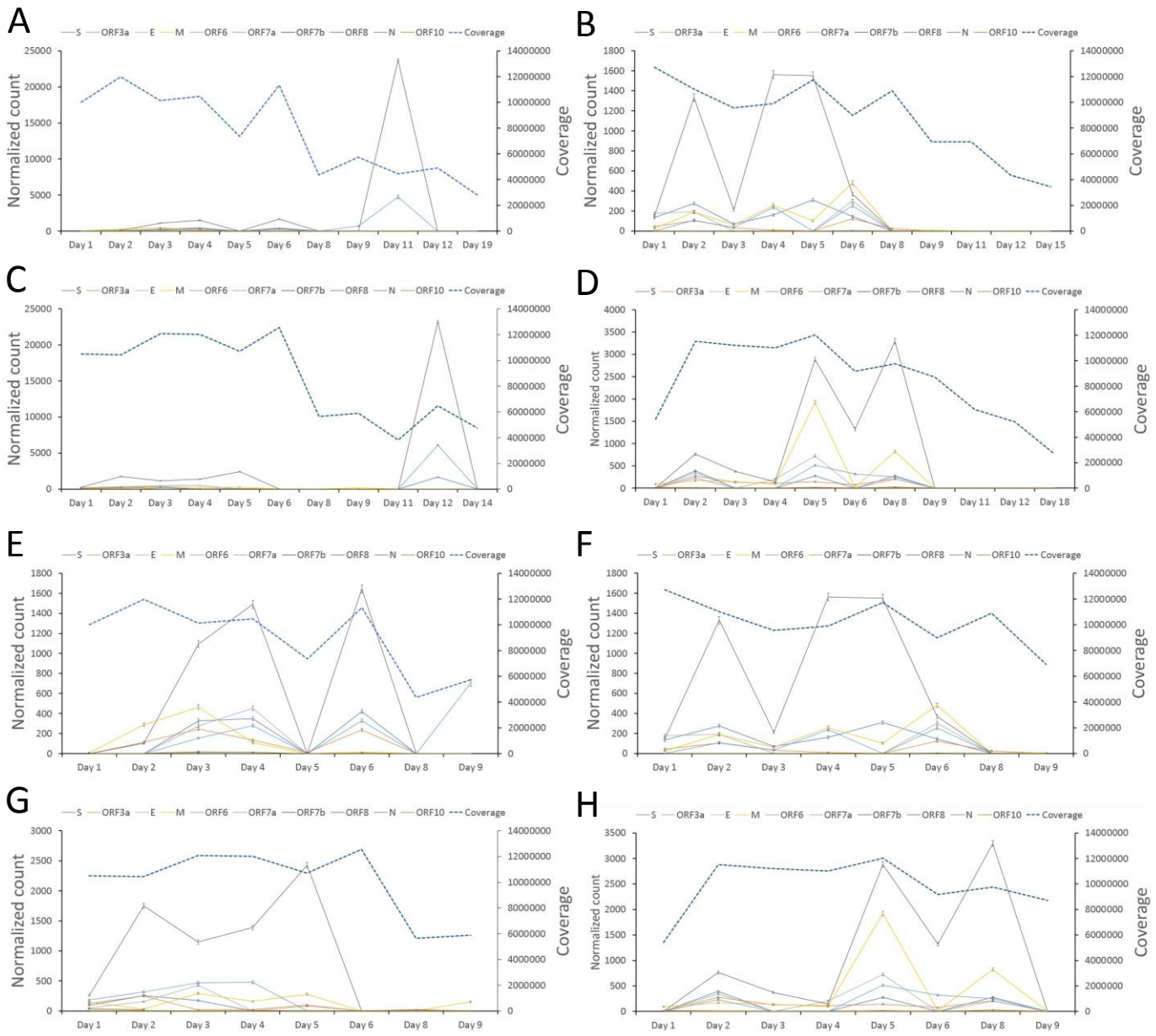


Figure 4

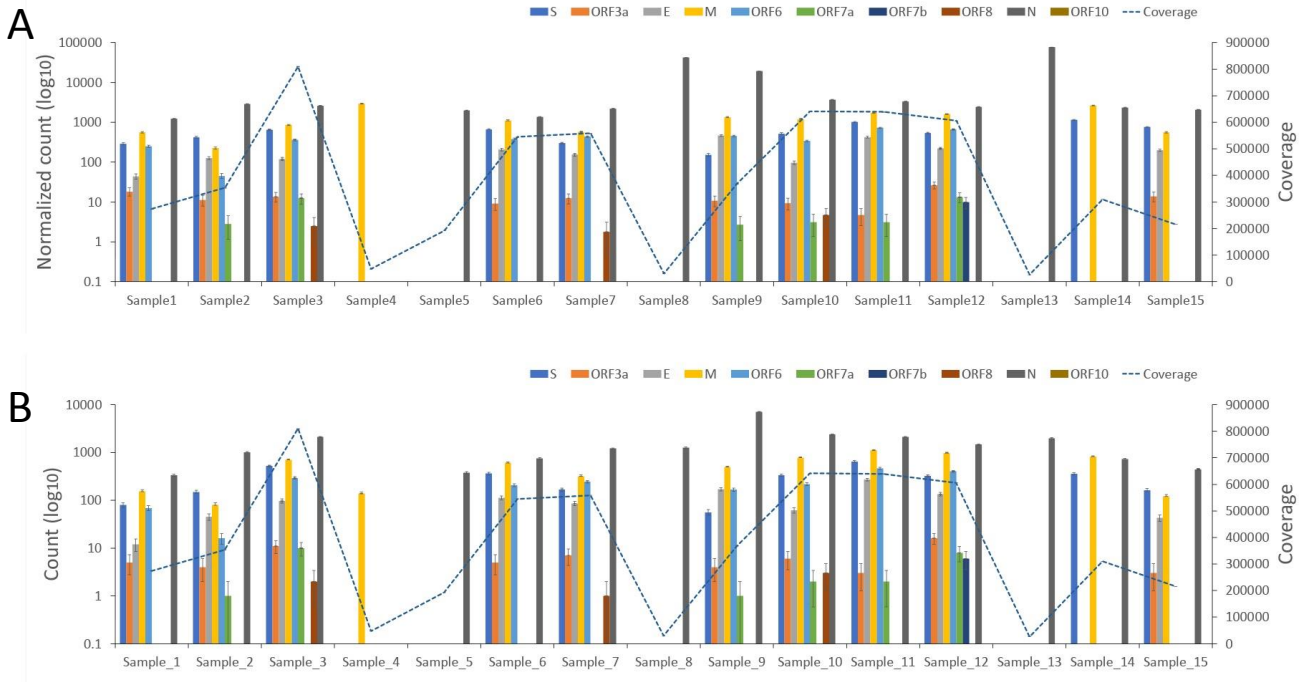


Figure 5

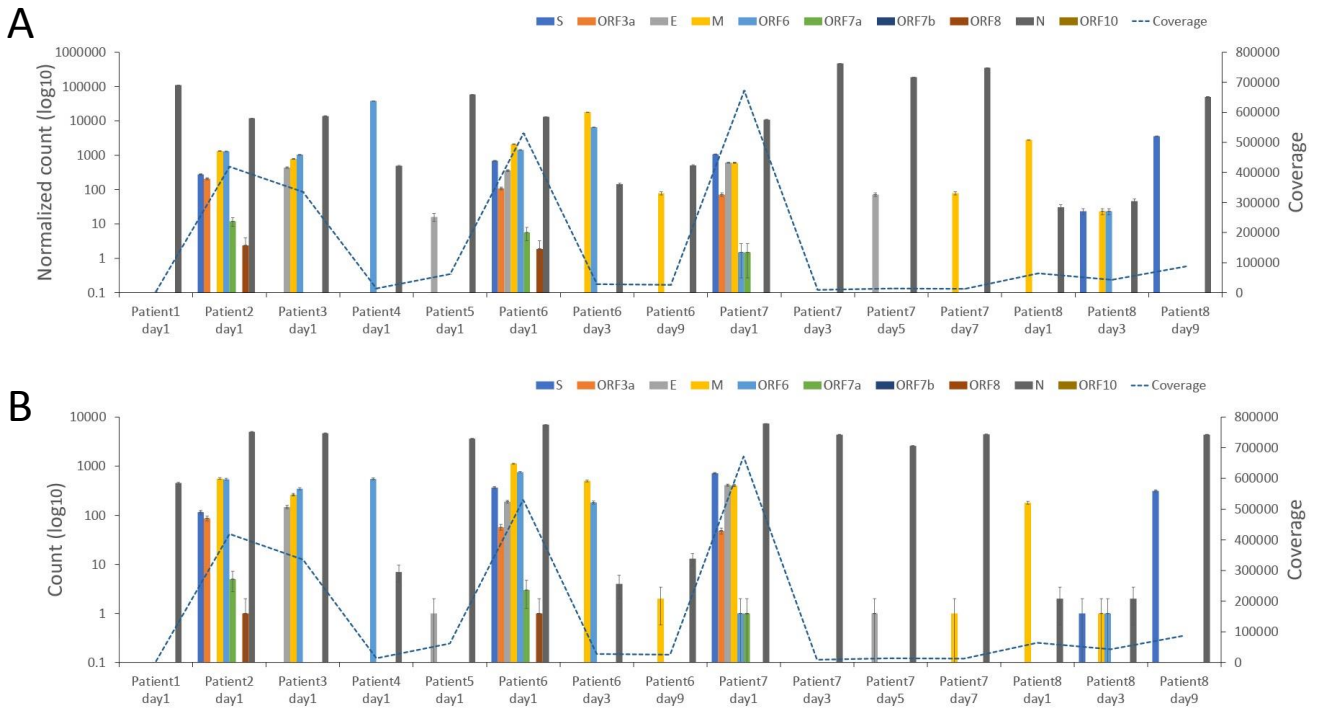
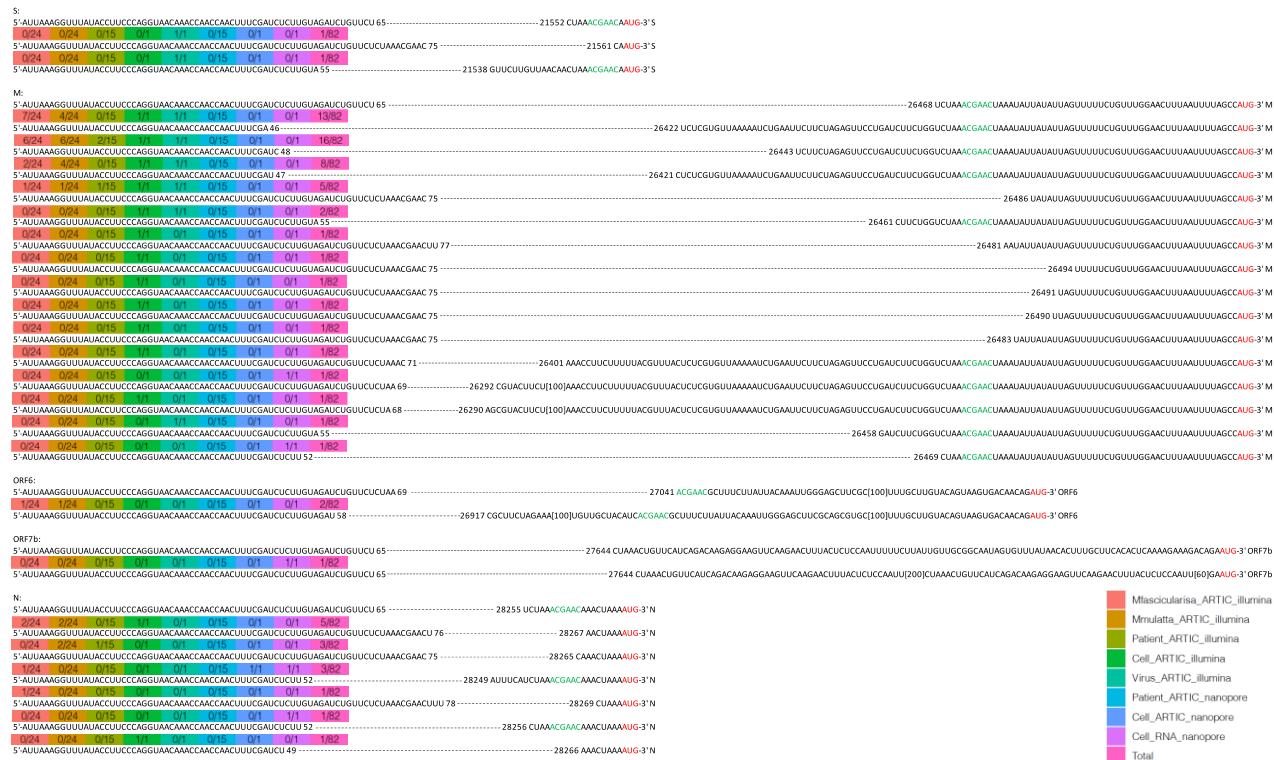


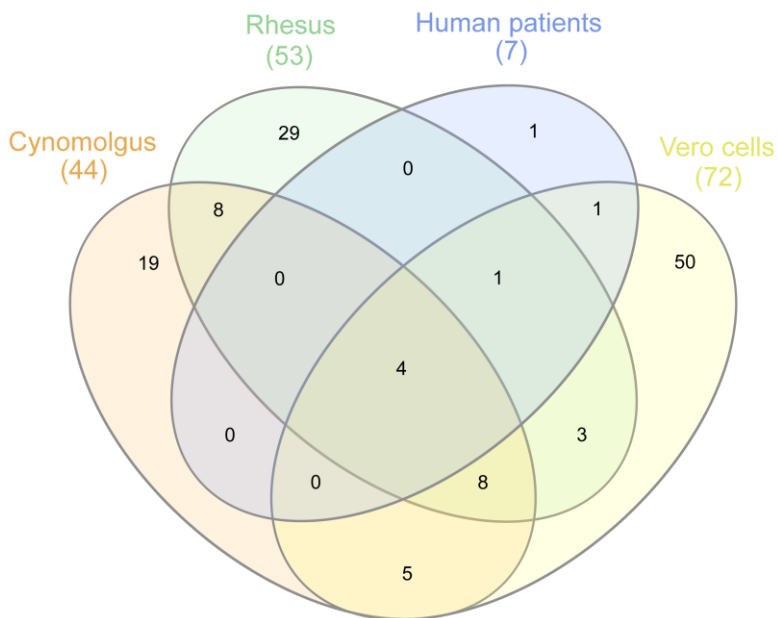
Figure 6



A



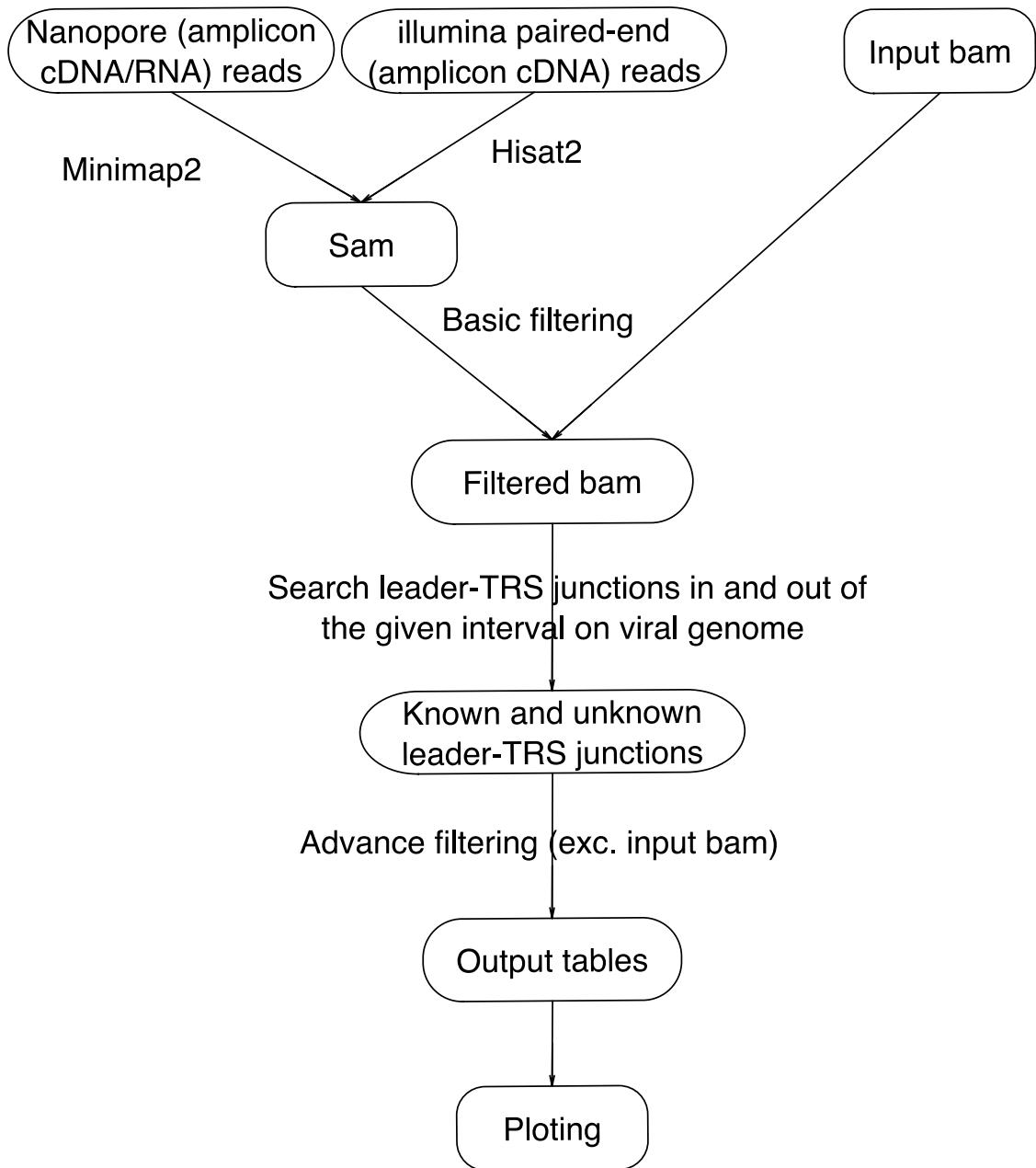
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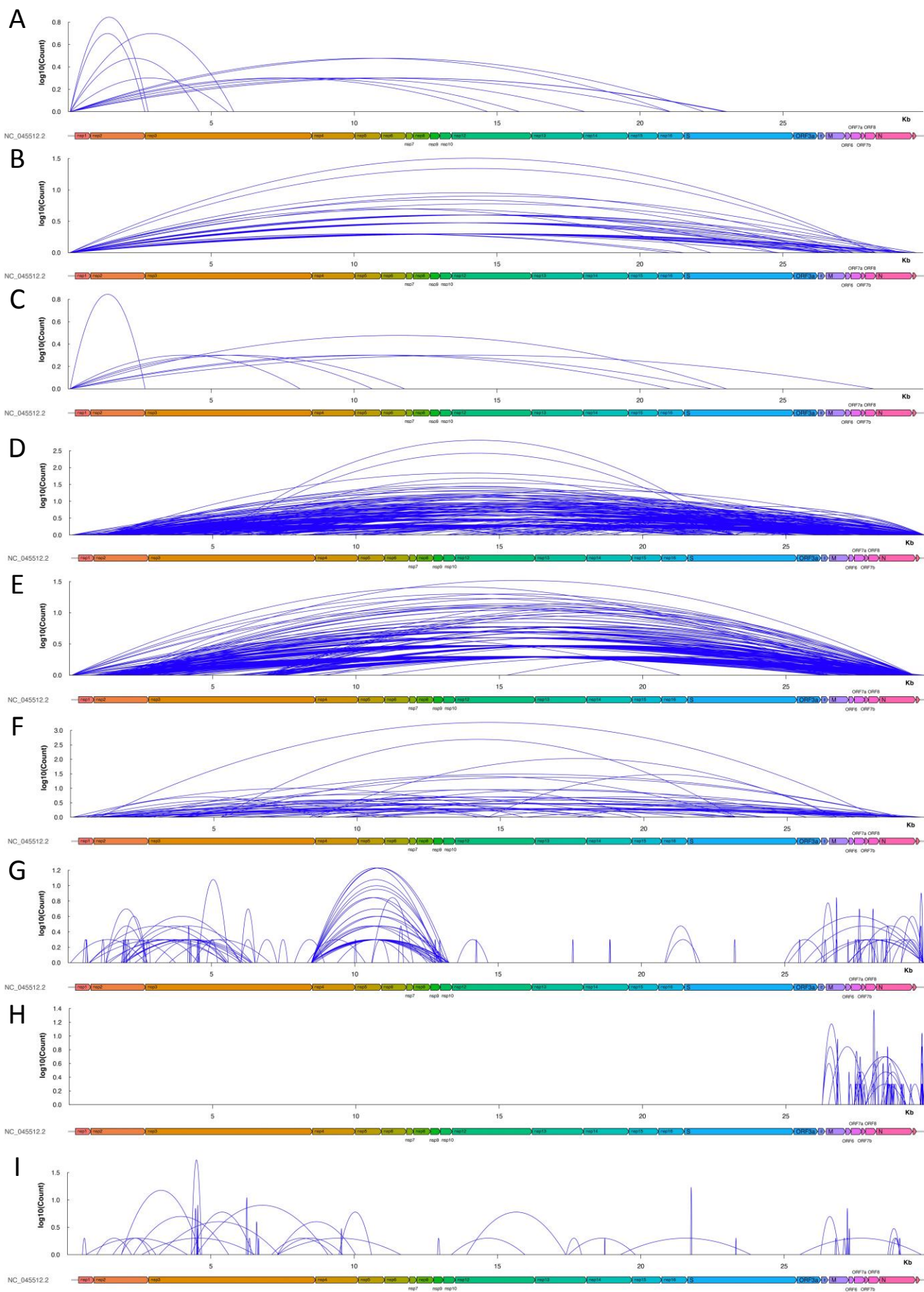
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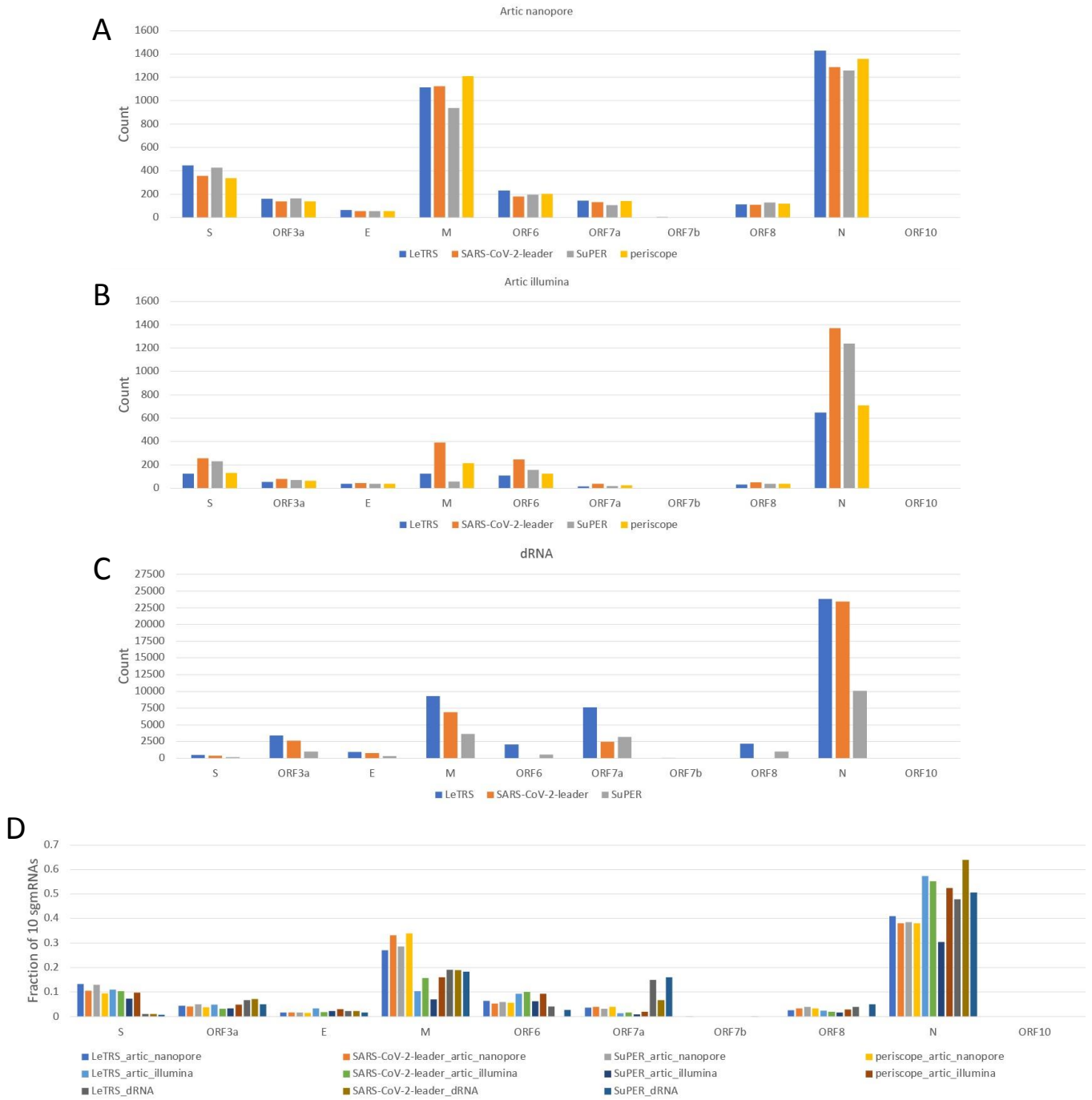
Figure 7



Supplementary Figure 1

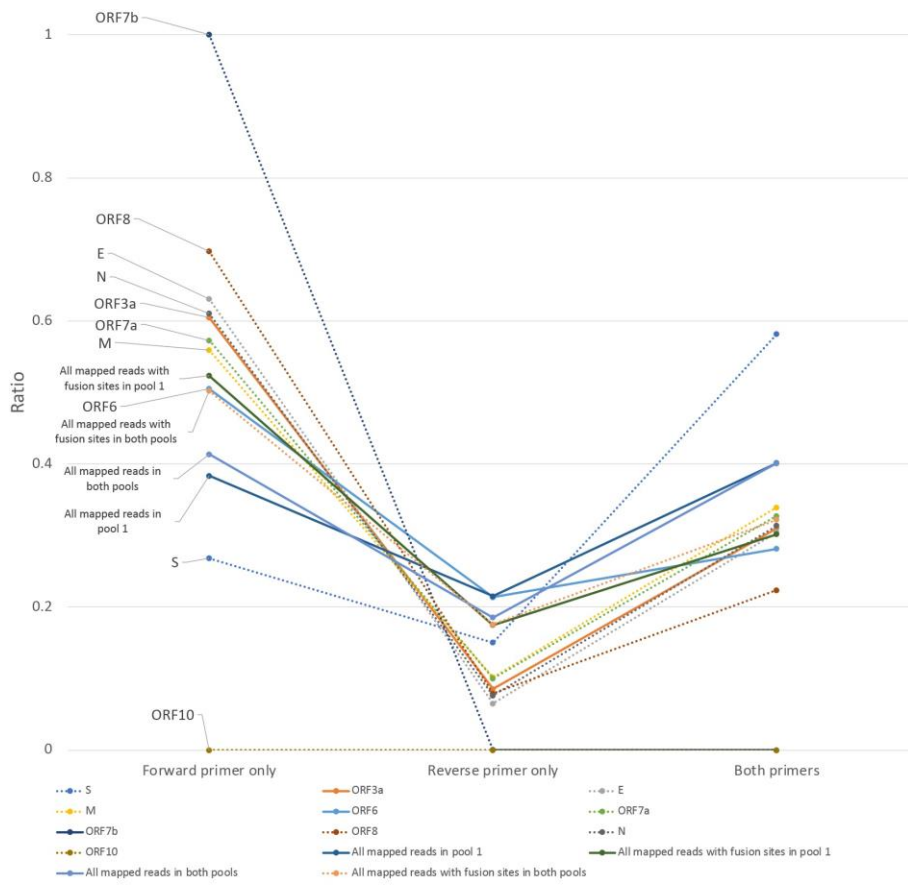


Supplementary Figure 2

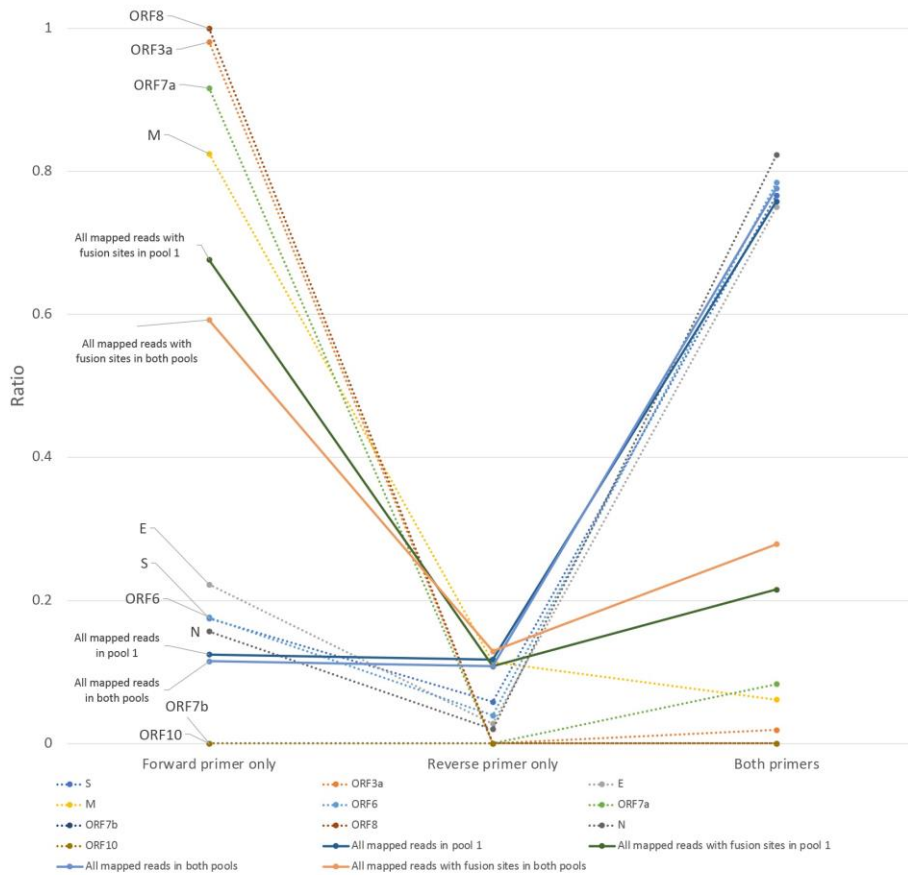


Supplementary Figure 3

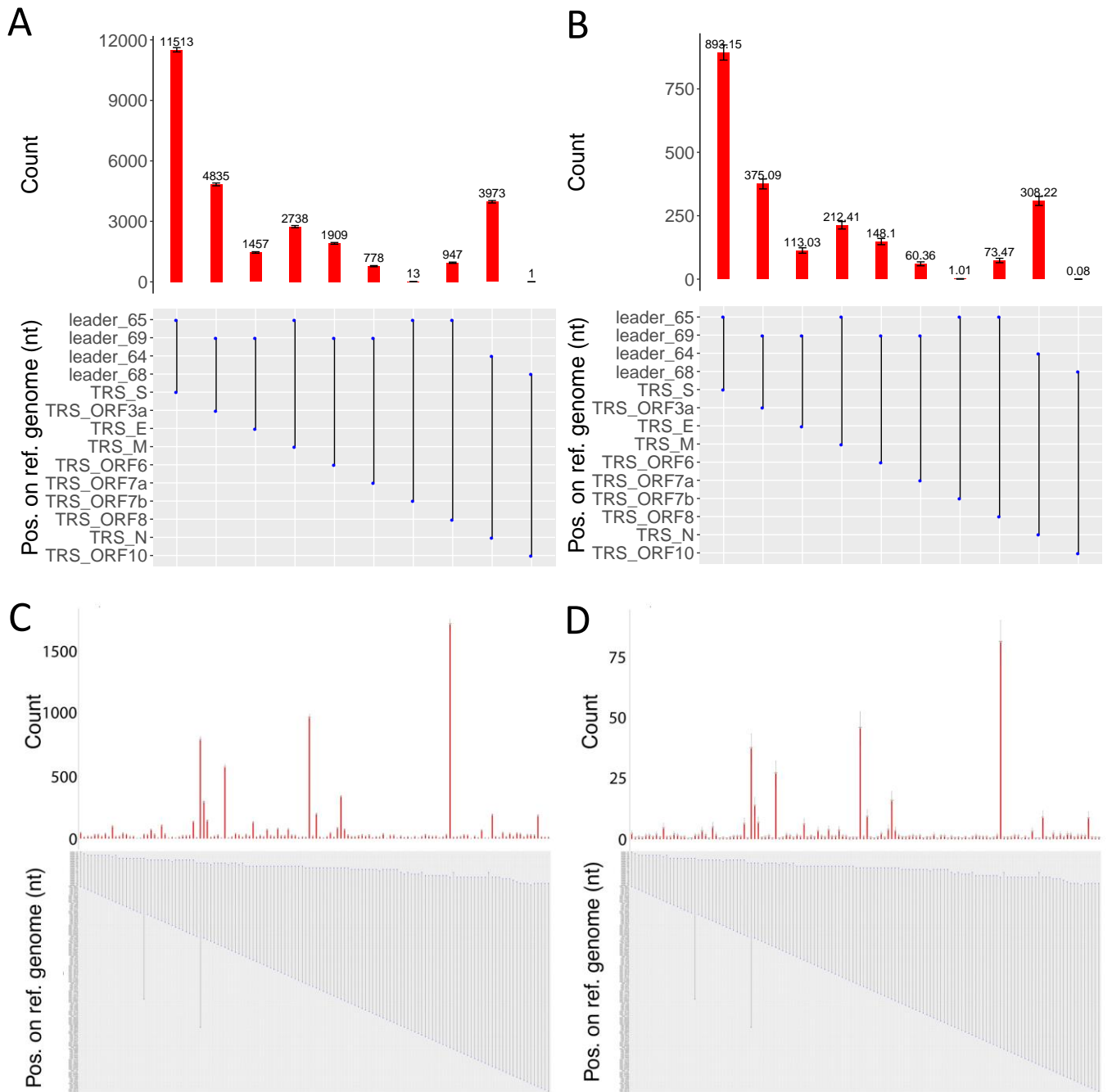
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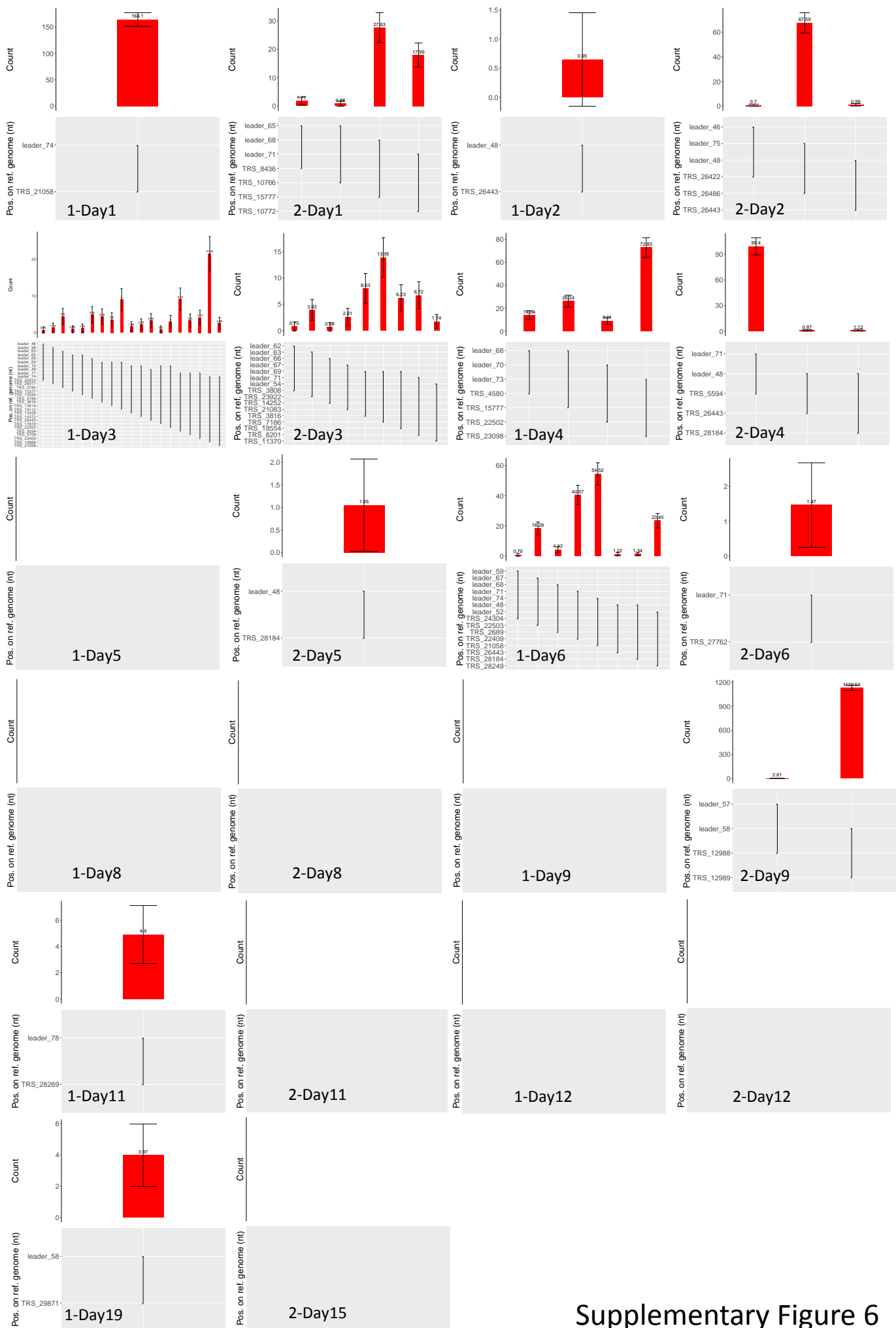
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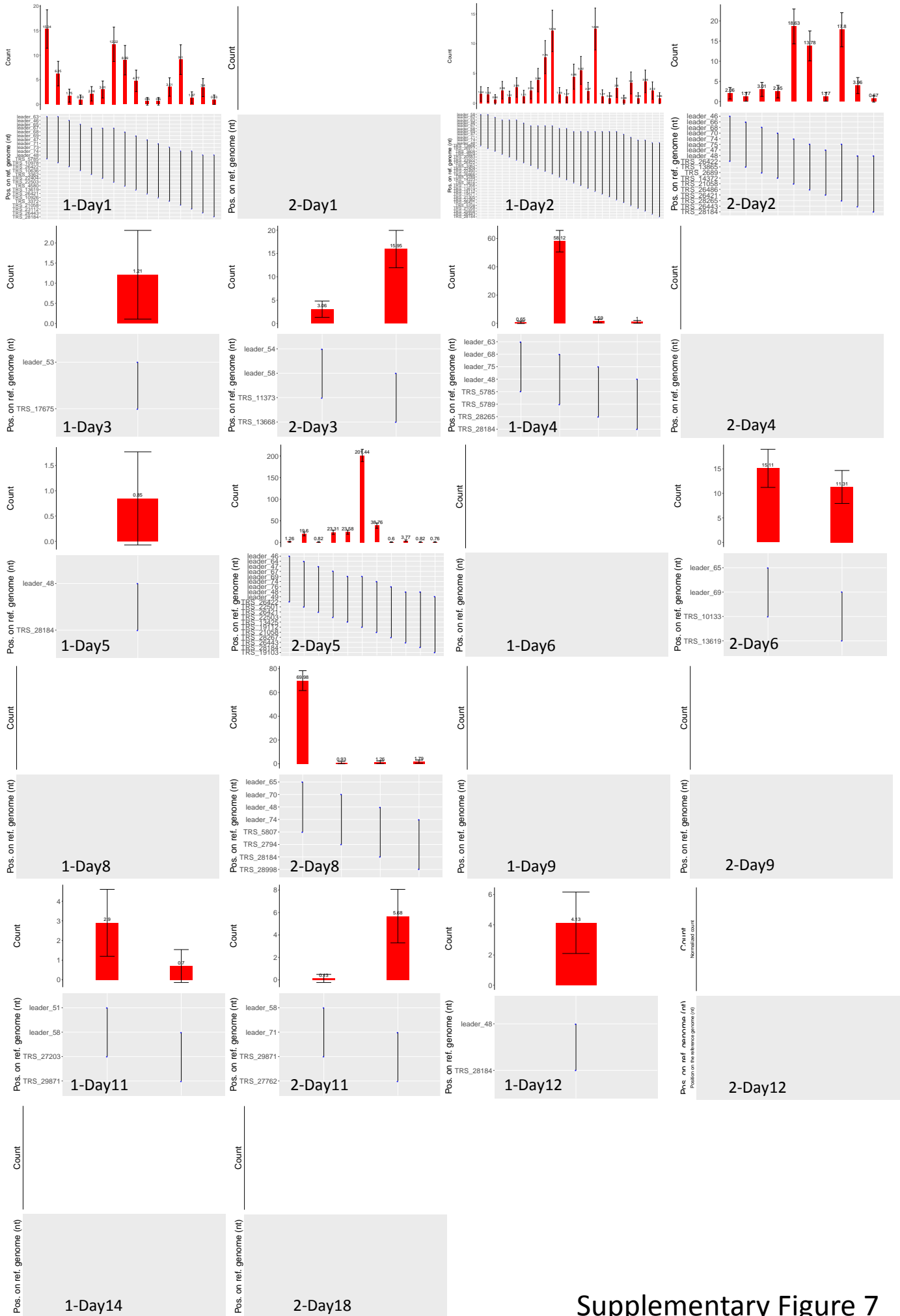
Supplementary Figure 4



Supplementary Figure 5

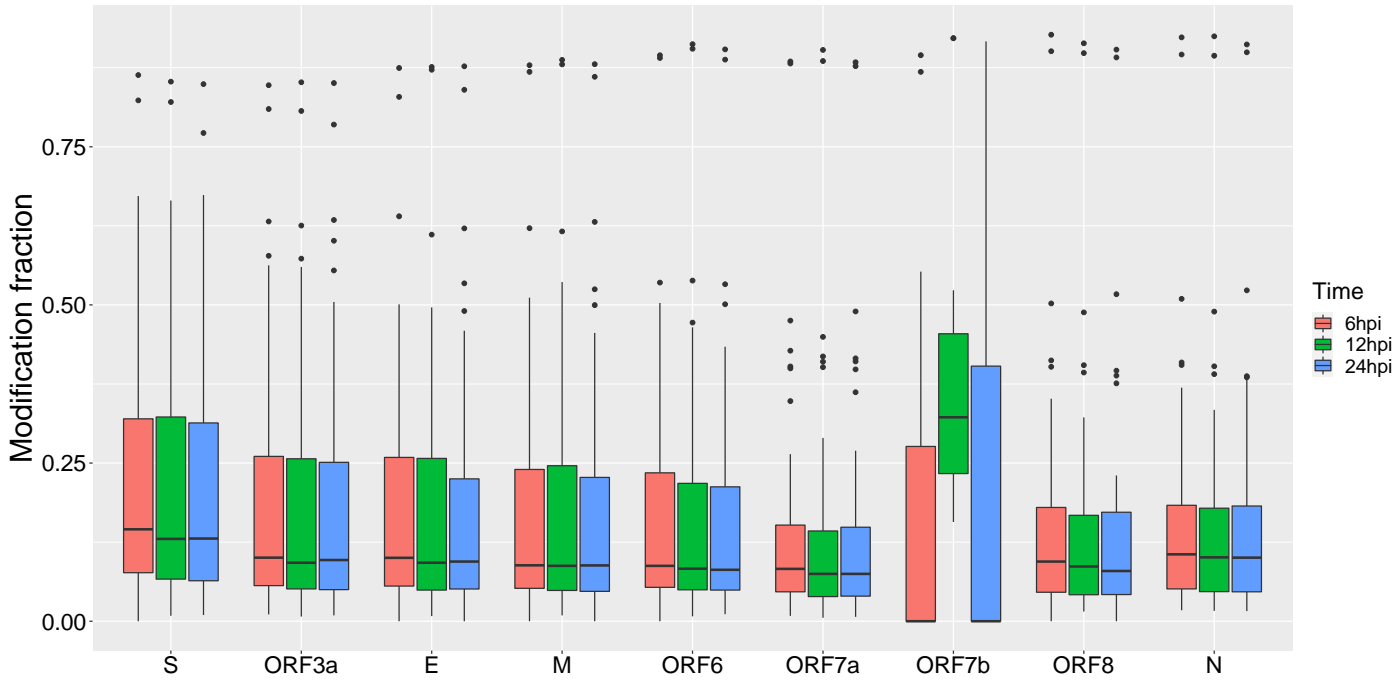


Supplementary Figure 6

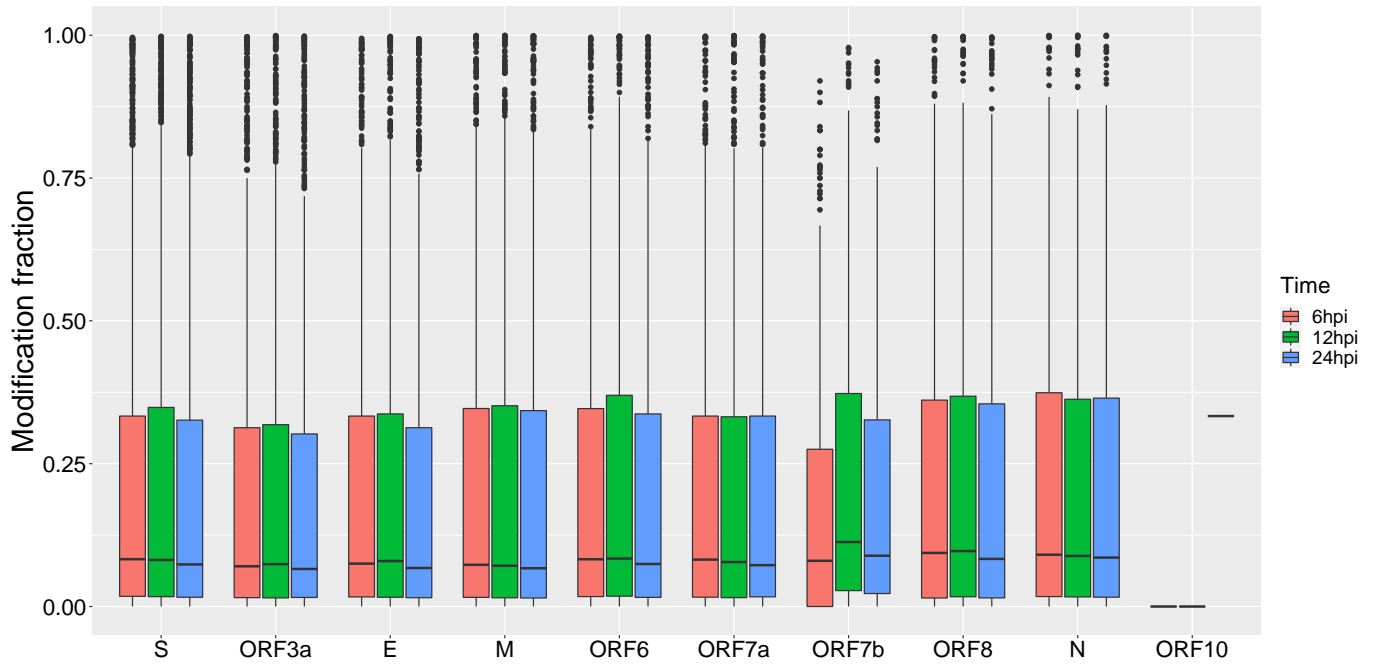


Supplementary Figure 7





Supplementary Figure 8



Supplementary Figure 9



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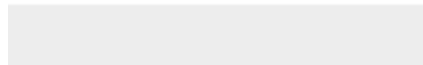


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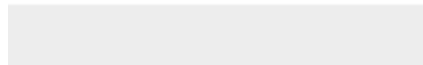


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Dear GigaScience

Many thanks for reviewing our manuscript describing a bioinformatic tool we developed to study coronavirus biology, specifically demonstrated on clinical and model samples infected with SARS-CoV-2. We very much appreciate the very constructive and detailed reviews. Below we detail our point-by-point responses (in red) to the thoughts and suggestions of the reviewers (in black). We have acted on all these new comments and conducted the additional experiments that the reviewers wanted. We provide a marked-up manuscript of the initial revised version showing alterations from the original submitted version and a clean version with all changes etc accepted.

Yours sincerely,



Prof. Julian A. Hiscox.

Reviewer reports:

Reviewer #1: Comments: It is an important study. Except for a few minor points, the authors have addressed most of the reviewers' suggestions. This manuscript will be considered for acceptance after addressing the following minor suggestions:

1. The authors have compared the algorithm design, input, and output, and the counts of predicted sgmRNA across four tools. However, it would be nice if the authors could compare these tools' performances regarding prediction accuracy, F-measure, sensitivity, and specific scores. These will let the readers and potential users have a better sense of choosing a different tool for different purposes.

We have added the prediction accuracy, F-measure, sensitivity, and specific scores, calculated based on simulated Illumina and nanopore reads, in the Table 1.

2. It is unclear what the red line means in Supplemental Figure 8-9.

The red lines in Supplemental Figure 8 and 9 are for the normalized count of sgmRNA identified by LeTRS. We have moved this to Supplementary Table 12.

3. On page 18, lines 364-370. The analysis and significance that the authors stated in that paragraph do not show the apparent trends in Supplemental Figure 9. Would the authors update the figure types to reflect the results of their statistical tests?

We have updated the boxplots in Supplemental Figures 8 and 9. We used a paired samples one-sided Wilcoxon test that takes account the difference at each modification site of two compared sgmRNAs in different time points. A large amount of modification sites with differences resulted a low p-value even the trends in boxplots are not very large.

4. On page 18, line 370. The author mentioned that "The abundance of most sgmRNAs decreased with time, and both of these factors could account for the frequency of methylation." Based on the context, it seems that the conclusion could not be derived. Because the methylation frequency is a ratio, then it may not correlate with the abundance of the sgmRNAs.

We have removed this sentence to reflect the reviewer's content.

Reviewer #2: Happy with revisions, no further comments