Recurrent emergence and transmission of a SARS-CoV-2 Spike deletion H69/V70

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39   Abstract

SARS-CoV-2 Spike amino acid replacements in the receptor binding domain (RBD) occur

relatively frequently and some have a consequence for immune recognition. Here we report

recurrent emergence and significant onward transmission of a six-nucleotide out of frame

deletion in the S gene, which results in loss of two amino acids: H69 and V70. We show that

ΔH69/V70 and other common NTD deletions occur at loop structures in RNA where

polymerase activity is often compromised. In addition, the same two amino acid deletion is

also observed in a set of closely related pangolin sarbecoviruses, but not in the bat

sarbecovirus RaTG13. We report that in human infections ΔH69/V70 often co-occurs with

the receptor binding motif amino acid replacements N501Y, N439K and Y453F, and in the

latter two cases has followed the RBD mutation suggesting an epistatic interaction. One of

the ΔH69/V70+ N501Y lineages, B.1.1.7, has undergone rapid expansion and includes eight

other S gene mutations: RBD (N501Y and A570D), S1 (ΔH69/V70 and Δ144/145) and S2

(P681H, T716I, S982A and D1118H). *In vitro*, we show that ΔH69/V70 does not impact

serum neutralisation across multiple convalescent sera. However, the ΔH69/V70 does

increase infectivity of Spike and is able to compensate for infectivity defects induced by RBD

mutations N501Y, N439K and Y453F. In addition replacement of H69 and V70 in B.1.1.7

Spike substantially reduces its infectivity. Mechanistically, we demonstrate that ΔH69/V70 is

associated with two fold increased Spike incorporation into virions, though it does not

increase cell-cell fusion. Based on our data ΔH69/V70 increases Spike infectivity, likely

acting as a permissive mutation that allows acquisition of otherwise deleterious immune

escape mutations. Enhanced surveillance for the ΔH69/V70 deletion with and without RBD

mutations should be considered as a global priority not only as a marker for the B.1.1.7

variant, but potentially also for other emerging variants of concern.

Background

SARS-CoV-2's Spike surface glycoprotein engagement of human angiotensin-converting enzyme (hACE2) is essential for virus entry and infection[1], and the receptor is found in respiratory and gastrointestinal tracts[2]. Despite this critical interaction and the constraints it imposes, it appears the RBD, and particularly the receptor binding motif (RBM), is relatively tolerant to mutations[3,4], raising the real possibility of virus escape from vaccine-induced immunity and monoclonal antibody treatments. Spike mutants exhibiting reduced susceptibility to monoclonal antibodies have been identified in *in vitro* screens[3,5,6], and some of these mutations have been found in clinical isolates[7]. Due to the high levels of susceptibility of the human population to this virus, the acute nature of infections and limited use of vaccines to date there has been limited selection pressure placed SARS-CoV-2[8]; as a consequence few mutations that could alter antigenicity have increased significantly in frequency.

The unprecedented scale of whole genome SARS-CoV-2 sequencing has enabled identification and epidemiological analysis of transmission and surveillance, particularly in the UK[9] . As of January 10th, there were 346,447 SARS-CoV-2 sequences available in the GISAID database (https://www.gisaid.org/). However, geographic coverage is very uneven with approximately half of all sequences being provided by the United Kingdom. Indeed, as more countries continue to present data from samples collected up to six months prior, this may result in novel variants with altered biological or antigenic properties evolving and not being detected until they have already become established at high frequency.

Studying SARS-CoV-2 chronic infections can give insight into virus evolution that would require many chains of acute transmission to generate. This is because the majority of infections arise as a result of early transmission during pre or asymptomatic phases prior to peak adaptive responses, and virus adaptation not observed as the virus is usually cleared by the immune response[10,11]. We recently documented *de novo* emergence of antibody evasion mutations mediated by S gene mutations in an individual treated with convalescent plasma (CP)[12]. Dramatic changes in the prevalence of Spike variants ΔH69/V70 (an out of frame six-nucleotide deletion) and D796H variant followed repeated use of CP, while *in vitro*

the mutated **Δ**H69/V70+D796H variant displayed reduced susceptibility to CP using a

pseudotyped lentivirus assay [12]. D796H alone resulted in more than five-fold loss of

infectivity and the **Δ**H69/V70 partially rescued this defect. In addition, a chronically infected

immune suppressed individual was recently reported in Russia with emergence of Y453F,

along with **Δ**H69/V70[13]. Deletions in other parts of the N-Terminal Domain (NTD) have been

reported to arise in chronic infections[7] and to reduce sensitivity to NTD-specific neutralising

antibodies[14, 15].

Here we analyse the variation in the global SARS-CoV-2 data and find **Δ**H69/V70 occurs

independently often emerging after a significant RBD amino acid replacement such as

N501Y, Y453F and N439K, that are known to either facilitate neutralising antibody escape or

modulate affinity for the human ACE2 receptor. We show that **Δ**H69/V70 and other

common NTD deletions occur at loop structures in RNA where polymerase activity is often

compromised. Functionally, we reveal that **Δ**H69/V70 does increase Spike infectivity and

compensates for infectivity loss resulting from RBD replacements N501Y and Y453F.

Importantly, we find that **Δ**H69/V70 does not confer reduced susceptibility to convalescent

sera.

Results

The deletion H69/V70 is present in over 25, 000 sequences worldwide (19,000 from the UK),

2.5% of the available data, and largely in Europe from where most of the sequences in

GISAID are derived (Figure 1). **Δ**H69/V70 occurs in variants observed in different global

lineages, representing multiple independent acquisitions of this SARS-CoV-2 deletion (Figure

1). While variants with deletions in this region of Spike are observed in GISAID[13], the earliest

unambiguous sequence that includes the **Δ**H69/V70 was detected in Sweden in April 2020,

an independent deletion event relative to other **Δ**H69/V70 variants. The prevalence of

ΔH69/V70 has since increased since August 2020 (Figure 1B). Further analysis of sequences

revealed, firstly, that single deletions of either 69 or 70 were uncommon and, secondly,

some lineages of **Δ**H69/V70 alone were present, as well as **Δ**H69/V70 in the context of

other mutations in Spike, specifically those in the RBM (Figure 1).

Polymerase processivity can be affected by physical factors in the template caused by RNA

structural and sequence motifs and these can facilitate dissociation events. Stable helix loop

motifs are associated with pausing/dissociation events in reverse transcriptase[16] . Since all

nucleic acid polymerases have a common ancestor with homologous dNTP binding motifs

and similar global structures[17-19] it is probable that all RNA polymerases use similar

mechanisms for transcript termination[20]. Analysis of three deletions in the S protein coding

sequence observed across new multiply mutated variants demonstrated that each occurred

in the terminal loop of a helix loop motif (Figure 2). Although many regions of the structure

have a wider structural ensemble of structures that the RNA can adopt, these helix loops

were ones in which the ensemble is constrained into a very limited structural range,

suggesting that these deletions occur in the more stable stem-loops.

To further probe the importance of this part of Spike molecule, we examined the 69/70

region of Spike in a set of other known *Sarbecoviruses*, relative to SARS-CoV-2 (Figure 3). We

observe substantial variability in the region, resulting in frequent indels, with some viruses

including SARS-CoV having 6-7 amino acid deletions (Figure 3B). This is indicative of

plasticity in this protein region that could allow the sarbecoviruses to alter their Spike

conformation. The second closest relative to SARS-CoV-2 for this region after RaTG13 is the

cluster of 5 CoVs sampled in trafficked pangolins in the Guangxi province[21]. Looking at the

69/70 region in these virus sequences raises the interesting observation that one of the five

viruses in the cluster, P2V, has amino acids 69H and 70L present, while the other four have a

double amino acid deletion (Figure 3B). Given that SARS-CoV-2 and RaTG13 have the

homologous HV insertion at these positions, one explanation is that the proximal common

ancestor between SARS-CoV-2 and the Guangxi pangolin cluster had the insertion, which

was then lost while circulating in the pangolin population, similar to what we now see with

SARS-CoV-2 in humans. Yet, the fact that P2V was cultured in Vero E6 cells prior to

sequencing (contrary to the other 4, sequenced directly from the pangolin sample) raises

the possibility of this being an independent insertion, favoured as a cell line specific

adaptation. Interestingly, the double amino acid indel in the pangolin viruses is in-frame in

contrast to SARS-CoV-2 (e.g. lineage B.1.1.7, Figure 3C).

We next examined in greater detail the SARS-CoV-2 lineages where S gene mutations in the

RBD were identified at high frequency and where ΔH69/V70 co-occurs. For example, N439K,

an amino acid replacement reported to be defining variants increasing in numbers in Europe

and other regions[3] (Figure 1, Supplementary figure 1) now mostly co-occurs with ΔH69/V70.

N439K appears to have reduced susceptibility to some convalescent sera as well as

monoclonals targeting the RBD, whilst retaining affinity for ACE2 *in vitro*[3]. The second

significant cluster with ΔH69/V70 and RBD mutants involves Y453F, another Spike RBD

mutation that increases binding affinity to ACE2[4] and has been found to be associated with

mink-human infections[22]. In one SARS-CoV-2 mink-human sub-lineage, termed 'Cluster 5',

Y453F and ΔH69/V70 occurred with F486L, N501T and M1229I and was shown to have

reduced susceptibility to sera from recovered COVID-19 patients (https://files.ssi.dk/Mink-

cluster-5-short-report_AFO2). Y453F has been described as an escape mutation for mAb

REGN10933[23]. The ΔH69/V70 was first detected in the Y453F background on August 24th

2020 and thus far appears limited to Danish sequences (Figure 1, Supplementary Figure 2),

although an independent acquisition was recently reported within an individual, along with

ΔH69/V70 in an immune compromised individual with chronic infection[13]. A third lineage

containing the same ΔH69/V70 deletion has arisen with another RBD mutation N501Y

(Figure 1, Supplementary Figure 3A).

On closer inspection these UK sequences were part of a new lineage (B.1.1.7), termed VOC

202012/01 by Public Health England as they are associated with relatively high numbers of

infections (Supplementary Figure 3A). In addition to RBD N501Y + NTD ΔH69/V70 this new

variant had five further S mutations across the RBD (N501Y) and S2 (P681H, T716I, S982A

and D1118H), as well as NTD Δ144[24] (Supplementary Figure 3B). The variant has now been

identified in around 80 countries and regions. This lineage has a relatively long branch due

to 23 unique mutations (Supplementary figure 3B). The available sequences did not enable

us to determine whether the B1.1.7 mutations N501Y + ΔH69/V70 arose as a result of a

N501Y virus acquiring ΔH69/V70 or vice versa, though a sequence was identified with

N501Y + ΔH69/V70 and D1118H, indicating that as predicted N501Y + ΔH69/V70 are

proximal mutational events. Based on its location N501Y is expected to escape antibodies

similar to COV2-2499[5] (Figure 3C, D). Sequences with N501Y alone were isolated both in the

UK, Brazil, and USA in April 2020, and in South Africa (including the recently reported
described multi-mutated lineage B.1.351, Figure 1)[25].

We hypothesised that ΔH69/V70 is an antibody escape mechanism. We first examined the
protein structural context of ΔH69/V70 for clues regarding alterations in epitopes (Figure
4A, B). In the absence of experimentally derived structural data for ΔH69/V70, the protein
structure of the NTD possessing the double deletion was modelled in silico. The ΔH69/V70
deletion was predicted to alter the conformation of a protruding loop comprising residues
69 to 76, pulling it in towards the NTD (Figure 4A). In the post-deletion structural model, the
positions of the alpha carbons of residues either side of the deleted residues, Ile68 and
Ser71, were each predicted to occupy positions 2.9Å from the positions of His69 and Val70
in the pre-deletion structure. Concurrently, the positions of Ser71, Gly72, Thr73, Asn74 and
Gly75 are predicted to have changed by 6.5Å, 6.7Å, 6.0Å, 6.2Å and 8Å, respectively, with the
overall effect of these residues moving inwards, resulting in a less dramatically protruding
loop. This change in the surface of Spike would be consistent with antibody evasion. To test
this we explored whether ΔH69/V70 conferred reduced susceptibility to neutralising
antibodies in sera from ten recovered individuals. We performed serial dilutions of sera
before mixing with viral particles pseudotyped with Spike proteins with and without
ΔH69/V70 (with virus input normalised for infectivity). We plotted infection of target cells
as a function of serum dilution across the ten serum samples (Figure 4C). All sera
demonstrated clear titratable neutralisation of both wild type and ΔH69/V70 virus. There
was no shift in the titration curves and therefore no change in susceptibility to serum
neutralisation for ΔH69/V70 relative to wild type. These data show that ΔH69/V70 is
unlikely to represent an immune escape mechanism.

Given the association between ΔH69/V70 and RBD mutations and data from an earlier
report in chronic infection[12], we hypothesised that this deletion might alternatively enhance
virus infectivity and compensate for potential loss of infectivity due to receptor binding
motif mutations Y453F, N510Y and N439K that interact with ACE 2 (Figure 5A-C). In the
absence of virus isolates we used a lentiviral pseudotyping approach to test the impact of
ΔH69/V70 on virus Spike protein mediated infection. A D614G bearing Spike protein
expressing DNA plasmid (wild type, WT) was co-transfected in HEK 293T producer cell lines

along with plasmids encoding lentiviral capsid and genome for luciferase. Mutant Spike

plasmids bearing RBD mutations N501Y, Y453F, or N439K both with and without ΔH69/V70

were constructed by site directed mutagenesis. Plasmids were expressed in 293T virus

producer cells and infectious titres measured in supernatants from cells by infection of

target cells expressing ACE2 receptor. The infectious titres were adjusted for virus input as

determined by reverse transcriptase activity in virions (Figure 5D). RBD mutations N501Y,

N439K and Y453F all reduced infectivity of Spike relative to WT. ΔH69/V70 Spike

pseudotyped virus had higher infectivity compared to wild type (Figure 5D). Similarly,

addition of ΔH69/V70 increased the infectivity of each of the RBD mutations (Figure 5D).

We used our observations to predict that replacement of H69 and V70 would impair the

infectivity of B.1.1.7 (which naturally contains the ΔH69/V70 deletion). We compared the

infectivity of B.1.1.7 Spike versus B.1.1.7 without the ΔH69/V70 deletion in our

pseudotyping system. As expected we observed a significant reduction in infectivity for

viruses where the H69 and V70 had been re-inserted (Figure 5E). We hypothesised that the

mechanism of increased infectivity for ΔH69/V70 might involve increased Spike

incorporation. We performed western blotting of pseudovirions produced by plasmids

expressing lentivirus along with Spike WT with or without ΔH69/V70 (Figure 5F). This

analysis showed approximately two-fold increased expression of ΔH69/V70 Spike versus WT

Spike in virus containing cell supernatants where supernatant input was normalised for

reverse transcriptase activity (Figure 5F).

In order to further probe potential mechanisms at play we used a cell fusion assay (Figure

6A-D) to monitor kinetics of cell fusion. Previous reports have shown that SARS-CoV-2 Spike

protein possesses high fusogenic activity and is able to trigger the formation of large multi-

nucleated cells (named syncytia) *in vitro* and *in vivo*[26] (potentially providing an additional

and a more rapid route for virus disseminating among neighbour cells). To understand

whether the higher infectivity of ΔH69/V70 Spike might be related to an increased ability to

trigger cell-cell fusion between different cell types, we ectopically overexpressed SARS-CoV-

2 Spike variants together with the mCherry fluorescent protein in 293T cells and label Vero

cells with a green fluorescent dye. Mixing both cell types and measuring the merged green

and red fluorescence allows precise quantification of cell-cell fusion kinetics (Figure 6A, B).

We did not find a significant difference in Spike protein expression (Figure 6C, D). Syncytia
formation kinetics were not significantly different for ΔH69/V70 and N501Y SARS-CoV-2
Spike mutants tested (Figure 6B).

Discussion

We have presented data demonstrating multiple, independent, and circulating lineages of
SARS-CoV-2 variants bearing a Spike ΔH69/V70. This recurring deletion spanning six
nucleotides is due to an out of frame deletion of six nucleotides, and occurs in the terminal
loop of a helix loop motif within the RNA structure, as do other NTD deletions observed in
new variants such as the UK B.1.1.7, South African B.1.351 and the Brazilian P.1. ΔH69/V70
has frequently followed receptor binding amino acid replacements (N501Y, N439K and
Y453F that have been shown to increase binding affinity to hACE2 and reduce binding with
monoclonal antibodies), and is specifically found in the B.1.1.7 variant known to have higher
transmissibility[32].

The presence of sequence at site 69/70 appears to be unique to SARS-CoV-2, the closest bat
sarbecovirus, RaTG13, and one of the Guangxi pangolin sequences. Although we cannot
delineate between the indel being lost in the pangolin host, or gained after culturing the
virus, both scenarios are suggestive of functional importance at this protein region.

The ΔH69/V70 deletion was recently shown to emerge following treatment with
convalescent plasma[12]. In a second case of multiple mutations in context of immune
suppression the ΔH69/V70 deletion occurred with Y453F, though without biological
characterisation. We show here experimentally that the ΔH69/V70 deletion is indeed able
to rescue an infectivity defect induced by RBD mutations N501Y, N439K and Y453F,
potentially explaining why the deletion is often observed after these RBD mutation in SARS-
CoV-2 global phylogenies. More importantly perhaps, we demonstrate that the B.1.1.7 Spike
loses substantial infectivity when the H69/V70 amino acids are replaced, suggesting that the
ΔH69/V70 may contribute to the transmissibility of B.1.1.7. We show that the mechanism of
enhanced infectivity is associated with greater Spike incorporation into virions where the

ΔH69/V70 deletion is present. Therefore, ΔH69/V70 can act as a 'permissive' mutation that

enhances infection[28], with the potential to enhance the ability of SARS-CoV-2 to tolerate

immune escape mutations that would have otherwise significantly reduced viral fitness.

The potential for SARS-CoV-2 to evolve and fix mutations is exemplified by D614G, an amino

acid replacement in S1 that alters linkages between S1 and S2 subunits on adjacent

protomers as well as RBD orientation, infectivity, and transmission[28-30]. The example of

D614G also demonstrates that mechanisms directly impacting important biological

processes can be indirect. Similarly, a number of possible mechanistic explanations may

underlie ΔH69/V70. For example, the fact that it sits on an exposed surface and is estimated

to alter the conformation of a particularly exposed loop might be suggestive of immune

interactions and escape, though we have presented data to show that ΔH69/V70 did not

impact sensitivity of Spike to neutralising antibodies in serum from a group of recovered

individuals. However, allosteric interactions, as postulated for D614G, could lead to the

higher infectivity of Spike pseudotyped viruses with ΔH69/V70[31]. It is also possible that the

increased infectivity of relates to interactions with receptors other than ACE2 or TMPRSS2,

for example L- SIGN/ DC- SIGN. [31]Notably, data on increased infectivity conferred by D614G

using similar pseudotyped viruses[29] was also observed in whole virus and translated to

increased viral load and transmission in animal models[30]. It would be important to

investigate whether ΔH69/V70 is associated with higher viral loads or increased

transmission, though such epidemiological studies are highly complex and prone to

confounding/bias.

The finding of a lineage (B.1.1.7), termed VOC 202012/01, bearing seven S gene mutations

across the RBD (N501Y, A570D), S1 (ΔH69/V70 and Δ144) and S2 (P681H, T716I, S982A and

D1118H) in UK requires urgent experimental characterisation. The detection of a high

number of novel mutations suggests this lineage has either been introduced from a

geographic region with very poor sampling or viral evolution may have occurred in a single

individual in the context of a chronic infection[12]. The emergence of variants with higher

numbers of mutations so far in the UK and South Africa may herald an era of re-infection

and threaten future vaccine efficacy if left unchecked.

The detection and surveillance of B.1.1.7 has been facilitated in the UK by the phenomenon
of SGTF (S gene target failure) due to primers in the Thermofisher SARS-CoV-2 diagnostic
qPCR assay used by a significant number of testing facilities. The S gene target (binding in
the region of H69/V70) is one of three and therefore a marker for the spread of B.1.1.7 has
been tracked by the loss of signal in the S gene target[32]. However a recent report from the
US cautioned against use of SGTF as a sole marker for B.1.1.7 as there is a significant
ΔH69/V70 lineage without other mutations in Spike circulating in the US[33].
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Given the emergence of multiple clusters of variants carrying RBD mutations and the
ΔH69/V70 deletion, limitation of transmission takes on a renewed urgency. Continued
emphasis on testing/tracing, social distancing and mask wearing are essential, with
investment in other novel methods to limit transmission[34]. In concert, comprehensive
vaccination efforts in the UK and globally should be accelerated in order to further limit
transmission and acquisition of further mutations. Finally, detection of the deletion and
other key mutations by rapid diagnostics should be a research priority as such tests could be
used as a proxy for antibody escape mutations to inform surveillance at global scale.
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333 **Limitations**
334 The laboratory virology aspects of this study were conducted with pseudoviruses rather
335 than replication competent viruses.
336

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Conflicts of interest

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Methods

Phylogenetic Analysis

All available full-genome SARS-CoV-2 sequences were downloaded from the GISAID

database (http://gisaid.org/)[35] on 26th November. Duplicate and low-quality sequences (>5%

N regions) were removed, leaving a dataset of 194,265 sequences with a length of

>29,000bp. All sequences were realigned to the SARS-CoV-2 reference strain MN908947.3,

using MAFFT v7.475 with automatic flavour selection and the --keeplength --addfragments

options[36]. Major SARS-CoV-2 clade memberships were assigned to all sequences using the

Nextclade server v0.10 (https://clades.nextstrain.org/).

Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees were produced using the above curated dataset

using IQ-TREE v2.1.2[37]. Evolutionary model selection for trees were inferred using

ModelFinder[38] and trees were estimated using the GTR+F+I model with 1000 ultrafast

bootstrap replicates[39]. All trees were visualised with Figtree v.1.4.4

(http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/) and ggtree v1.14.6 rooted on the SARS-CoV-2

reference sequence and nodes arranged in descending order. Nodes with bootstraps values

of <50 were collapsed using an in-house script.

To reconstruct a phylogeny for the 69/70 Spike region of the 17 *Sarbecoviruses* examined in

Fig 2, Rdp5[40] was used on the codon Spike alignment to determine the region between

amino acids 1 and 256 as putatively non-recombinant. A tree was reconstructed using the

nucleotide alignment of this region under a GTR+Γ substitution model with RAxML-NG[41].

Node support was calculated with 1000 bootstraps. Alignment visualisation was done using

BioEdit[42].

RNA secondary structure modelling.

2990 nucleotides centred around the spike protein amino acids 69-70 from SARS-CoV2

sequence from an individual[12] were aligned in CLUSATL-Omega (nucleotides 20277-23265 of

the Wuhan isolate MN908947.3) and a consensus structure was generated using

RNAalifold[43]).

Structural modelling

The structure of the post-deletion NTD (residues 14-306) was modelled using I-TASSER[44], a

method involving detection of templates from the protein data bank, fragment structure

assembly using replica-exchange Monte Carlo simulation and atomic-level refinement of

structure using a fragment-guided molecular dynamics simulation. The structural model

generated was aligned with the spike structure possessing the pre-deletion conformation of

the 69-77 loop (PDB 7C2L[45]) using PyMOL (Schrödinger). Figures prepared with PyMOL using

PDBs 7C2L, 6M0J[46], 6ZGE28 and 6ZGG[47].

Pseudotype virus preparation

Viral vectors were prepared by transfection of 293T cells by using Fugene HD transfection

reagent (Promega). 293T cells were transfected with a mixture of 11ul of Fugene HD, 1μg of

pCDNAΔ19Spike-HA, 1ug of p8.91 HIV-1 gag-pol expression vector22,23, and 1.5μg of

pCSFLW (expressing the firefly luciferase reporter gene with the HIV-1 packaging signal).

Viral supernatant was collected at 48 and 72h after transfection, filtered through 0.45um

filter and stored at -80˚C as previously described24. Infectivity was measured by luciferase

detection in target 293T cells transfected with TMPRSS2 and ACE2.

Standardisation of virus input by SYBR Green-based product-enhanced PCR assay (SG-PERT)

The reverse transcriptase activity of virus preparations was determined by qPCR using a

SYBR Green-based product-enhanced PCR assay (SG-PERT) as previously described[48]. Briefly,

10-fold dilutions of virus supernatant were lysed in a 1:1 ratio in a 2x lysis solution (made up

of 40% glycerol v/v 0.25% Trition X-100 v/v 100mM KCl, RNase inhibitor 0.8 U/ml, TrisHCL

100mM, buffered to pH7.4) for 10 minutes at room temperature.

12μl of each sample lysate was added to thirteen 13μl of a SYBR Green master mix

(containing 0.5μM of MS2-RNA Fwd and Rev primers, 3.5pmol/ml of MS2-RNA, and

0.125U/μl of Ribolock RNAse inhibitor and cycled in a QuantStudio. Relative amounts of

reverse transcriptase activity were determined as the rate of transcription of bacteriophage

MS2 RNA, with absolute RT activity calculated by comparing the relative amounts of RT to

an RT standard of known activity.

Cell-cell fusion assay

Cell fusion assay was carried out as previously described (Papa et al. 2021). Briefly, Vero

cells and 293T cells were seeded at 80% confluency in a 24 multiwell plate. 293T cells were

co-transfected with 1.5 μg of Spike expression plasmids in pCDNA3 and 0.5 μg pmCherry-N1

using Fugene 6 and following the manufacturer's instructions (Promega). Vero cells were

treated with CellTracker™ Green CMFDA (5-chloromethylfluorescein diacetate) (Thermo

Scientific) for 20 minutes. 293T cells were then detached 5 hours post transfection, mixed

together with the green-labelled Vero cells, and plated in a 12 multiwell plate. Cell-cell

fusion was measured using an Incucyte and determined as the proportion of merged area to

green area over time. Data were then analysed using Incucyte software analysis. Data were

normalised to cells transfected only with mCherry protein and mixed with green labelled

Vero cells. Graphs were generated using Prism 8 software.

Cells

HEK 293T CRL-3216, Vero CCL-81 were purchased from ATCC and maintained in Dulbecco's

Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (FCS), 100 U/ml

penicillin, and 100μg/ml streptomycin. All cells are regularly tested and are mycoplasma

free.

Transfection

HEK 293T cells were transfected with 1.5 μg of Spike expression plasmids in pCDNA3 and

lysed 18 hours post transfection. Cells were treated with Benzonase Nuclease (70664

Millipore) and boiled for 5 min. Samples were then run on 4%–12% Bis Tris gels and

transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes using an iBlot (Life Technologies).

Membranes were blocked for 1 hour in 5% non-fat milk in PBS + 0.1% Tween-20 (PBST) at

room temperature with agitation, incubated in primary antibody (anti-SARS-CoV-2 Spike,

which detects the S2 subunit of SARS-CoV-2 S (Invitrogen, PA1-41165)) diluted in 5% non-fat

milk in PBST for 2 hours at 4°C with agitation, washed four times in PBST for 5 minutes at

room temperature with agitation and incubated in secondary antibody (anti-rabbit HRP
conjugate, Invitrogen 31462), anti-bactin HRP (sc-47778) diluted in 5% non-fat milk in PBST
for 1 hour with agitation at room temperature. Membranes were washed four times in PBST
for 5 minutes at room temperature and imaged directly using a ChemiDoc MP imaging
system (Bio-Rad).

Serum/plasma pseudotype neutralisation assay
Spike pseudotype assays have been shown to have similar characteristics as neutralisation
testing using fully infectious wild type SARS-CoV-2[49].Virus neutralisation assays were
performed on 293T cell transiently transfected with ACE2 and TMPRSS2 using SARS-CoV-2
Spike pseudotyped virus expressing luciferase[50]. Pseudotyped virus was incubated with
serial dilution of heat inactivated human serum samples or convalescent plasma in duplicate
for 1h at 37˚C. Virus and cell only controls were also included. Then, freshly trypsinized 293T
ACE2/TMPRSS2 expressing cells were added to each well. Following 48h incubation in a 5%
CO_2 environment at 37°C, the luminescence was measured using Steady-Glo Luciferase
assay system (Promega).

Ethical approval for use of serum samples. Controls with COVID-19 were enrolled to the
NIHR BioResource Centre Cambridge under ethics review board (17/EE/0025).

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Figure 1. A. Sub-sampled global phylogeny of SARS-CoV-2 whole genome sequences highlighting those with specific mutations in Spike: ΔH69/V70, N439K, Y453F and N501Y. Tree tips are coloured by geographic region (see key). Grey bars on the right show the presence or absence of the deletion H69/V70 and amino acid variants N439K, Y453F, and N501Y. Lineages from Rambaut et al. 2020 are shown. **Number of new occurrences of SARS-CoV-2 sequences with the ΔH69/V70 deletion.** Frequency of the ΔH69/V70 deletion from the GISAID database (accessed 16th Dec 2020) by reporting country and sampling date: **B.** Worldwide carriage of ΔH69/V70; most sequences preferentially carry RBD mutations alongside the deletion.

5'

3'

Δ 242/243/244

Δ 144/145

S start codon

0   1

Base-pair probability

Δ 69-70

Figure 2: The positions of common deletion mutations on the RNA structure of the Spike Δ69-70 region of the gRNA. The optimal secondary structure was generated from a consensus alignment of human SARS-CoV2 RNAs using RNAalifold. Figure shows nucleotides 20277-23265. Base-pair probability, representative of the breadth of the structural ensemble that could be adopted by the RNA, is shown in colour according to the key.

Figure 3. Comparison of the H69/V70 deletion site to other *Sarbecoviruses*. A. phylogeny for the Spike peptide region 1-256 **B**. protein sequences from 17 Sarbecoviruses, including SARS-CoV-2 (Wuhan-Hu-1) and SARS-CoV (HSZ-Cc), with distinct genotypes at the Spike region around amino acid positions 69 and 70 (highlighted in yellow box). The 69/70 HL insertion in the P2V sequence from the Guangxi pangolin virus cluster is highlighted. **C**. The nucleotide alignment between SARS-CoV-2 Wuhan-Hu-1, B.1.1.7, the bat sarbecovirus RaTG13 and the Guangxi pangolin viruses shows the difference between the out-of-frame deletion observed in the former and the in-frame deletion in the latter.

Figure 4. Structural Characteristics of viruses carrying deletion at H69/V70 and sensitivity to neutralising antibodies.
A. Prediction of conformational change in the spike N-terminal domain due to deletion of residues His69 and Val70. The pre-deletion structure is shown in cyan, except for residues 69 and 70, which are shown in red. The predicted post-deletion structure is shown in green. Residues 66-77 of the pre-deletion structure are shown in stick representation and coloured by atom (nitrogen in blue, oxygen in coral). Yellow lines connect aligned residues 66-77 of the pre- and post-deletion structures and the distance of 6 Å between aligned alpha carbons of Thr73 in the pre- and post-deletion conformation is labelled. **B.** Surface representation of spike homotrimer in open conformation (PDB: 7C2L) with each monomer shown in different shades of grey. On the monomer shown positioned to the right, the exposed loop consisting of residues 69-77 is shown in cyan and the neutralising antibody (4A8) binding NTD epitope described by Chi et al. is shown in magenta. B. **Neutralization of pseudovirus virus bearing Spike ΔH69/V70 and wild type (all In Spike D614G background) by convalescent sera from 10 donors.** Indicated is serum $\log_{10}$ inverse dilution against % neutralisation. Where a curve is shifted to the right this indicates the virus is less sensitive to the neutralising antibodies in the serum. Data points represent means of technical replicates and error bars represent standard deviation.

Figure 5: Structure and infectivity of Spike proteins carrying deletion at H69/V70 with RBD mutations A. Surface representation of spike in closed conformation (PDB: 6ZGE) viewed in a 'top-down' view along the trimer axis. The residues associated with RBD substitutions N439K, Y453F and N501Y are highlighted in red and labelled on a single monomer. **B.** Spike in open conformation with a single erect RBD (PDB: 6ZGG) in trimer axis vertical view with the location of ΔH69/V70 in the N-terminal domain and RBD mutations highlighted as red spheres and labelled on the monomer with erect RBD. Residues 71-75, which form the exposed loop undergoing conformational change in **A**, are omitted from this structure. **C.** Representation of Spike RBM:ACE2 interface (PDB: 6M0J) with residues N439, Y453 and N501 highlighted as spheres coloured by element **D-G.** **Spike mutant ΔH69/V70 compensates for infectivity defect of Spike RBD mutations and is associated with increased Spike incorporation into virions**. **D. Infectivity of Spike ΔH69/V70 deletion (del) in absence and presence of Spike RBD mutations.** Single round infection by luciferase expressing lentivirus pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein on HeLa cells transduced with ACE2. Data showing Infectivity normalized for virus input using reverse transcriptase activity in virus supernatants. RLU – relative light units; U – unit of reverse transcriptase activity (RT). Data are technical replicates and are representative of 2 independent experiments **E. Infectivity of B.1.1.7 with replacement of H69 and V70 versus B.1.1.7 containing Spike ΔH69/V70 deletion.** Single round infection by luciferase expressing lentivirus pseudotyped with SARS-CoV-2 Spike protein on HeLa cells transduced with ACE2. **F. Western blot analysis of supernatants following transfection with Spike and HIV-1 gag-pol expressing plasmids.** Supernatant loading was normalized for input virus input using reverse transcriptase activity in virus supernatants. **Right panel: Q**uantification of Spike:p24 ratio for wild type virus with ΔH69/V70 deletion versus WT alone across replicate experiments. Antibodies against HIV-1 p24 and Spike S2 were used. Data are representative of at least two independent experiments.

Figure 6*: Cell Fusogenicity in the presence of Spike mutants ΔH69/V70 and N501Y. A. Reconstructed images at 12 hours of 293T cells co-transfected with the indicated Spike mutants and mCherry expressing plasmid mixed with green dye-labelled Vero cells. Scale bars represent 200 mm. Green colour identifies the acceptor cells while red colour marks donor cells. Merged green-red colours indicate the syncytia. **B.** Quantification of cell-cell fusion kinetics in (A) showing percentage of green and red overlap area over time. **C.** Representative western blot of cells transfected with the indicated Spike mutants (detected with anti-Spike antibody). The cleaved Spike identifies the S2 subunit and is indicated with the arrowhead. b actin is shown as loading control. **D.** Quantification analysis of cleaved (green bars) and uncleaved (blue bars) Spike shown in (C) normalised by b actin.