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Journal of Integrated OMICS

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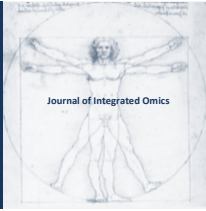
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A study of SARS-CoV-2 genomic profiles, evolutionary changes, and transmission dynamics in Southeastern India during three pandemic waves

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ABSTRACT

SARS-CoV-2 bio-surveillance at all levels is crucial for understanding its genetic evolution and vaccine effectiveness. This study investigated the emergence and evolution of new SARS-CoV-2 variants in the city of Puducherry, India throughout the three peaks of infection. A total of 128 samples were subjected to Illumina deep RNA sequencing. The results indicate that the first wave was dominated by uncommon variants, the second by Delta, and the third by Omicron. Lineages B.1.560 and B.1.617.2 were most prevalent. Analysis of 3133 common and 11 new mutations revealed Spike_D614G as the most common mutation and a novel set of mutations was observed in NS16, a key immune evasion factor. These NS16 mutations raise concerns about increased virulence, reduced vaccine efficacy, and potential antiviral resistance, warranting further investigation. Our findings contribute to SARS-CoV-2 evolutionary and genetic epidemiology research and highlight the need for ongoing surveillance to anticipate future variant threats.

Keywords: SARS-CoV-2; Genome Surveillance; Non-Structural Proteins; SARS-CoV-2 Variants; SARS-CoV-2 Lineages.

Introduction

Following its emergence in Wuhan, China, in late 2019, the Coronavirus disease-19 (COVID-19), caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome-coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2) was declared a pandemic by the (World Health Organisation) WHO on March 11, 2020 [1]. India's first case was reported in January 2020, and Puducherry's on March 17, 2020. Three waves of infection, caused by different variants and ranging in severity, have swept across India [2], resulting in 44.5 million cases and 533,662 deaths as of February 3, 2025 (Ministry of Health and Family Welfare). In the Union territory (UT) of Puducherry, total stands at 166,000 cases and 1,962 deaths.

The virus has evolved through mutation, resulting in variants that exhibit increased severity of infection, more rapid transmission, and the ability to evade immune responses. These characteristics are of particular concern [3]. Bio-surveillance, which employs

continuous genome sequencing, is essential for the early detection of pathogens and their variants, enabling effective mitigation strategies and limiting further spread [4]. Genomic surveillance has identified numerous SARS-CoV-2 lineages circulating in India and internationally [5]. According to the Phylogenetic Assignment of Named Global Outbreak (PANGO) classification system, the ancestral lineages are designated as A and B. The B.1 variant, carrying the D614G mutation in the spike protein, was responsible for the initial COVID-19 outbreak in Italy. Subsequent mutations within the B.1 lineage, involving the replacement of one or two amino acids, resulted in the emergence of several variants of concern (VOC). These include Alpha (B.1.1.7, with the N501Y mutation), Beta (B.1.351, with N501Y, E484K, and K417T), Gamma (P.1, derived from lineage B.1.1.28, also with N501Y, E484K, and K417T), and Delta (B.1.617.2). The Alpha variant originated in the United Kingdom, Beta in South Africa, Gamma in Brazil, and Delta in India [6-8].

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These variants had significantly impacted public health, influencing disease severity, hospitalization rates, mortality, and the effectiveness of vaccines and antibody treatments [3]. Genomic surveillance is crucial for quickly identifying new VOCs and implementing appropriate public health measures. Several variants of interest (VOIs), including Epsilon (B.1.427), Theta (P.3), Iota (B.1.526), and Kappa (B.1.617.1), have also been circulating [9]. The currently dominant strain worldwide is the Omicron variant (B.1.1.529), which was first reported in South Africa in November 2021. Its high transmissibility, ability to evade immune protection, and significant transmission among vaccinated populations have fueled its rapid global spread [10].

The World Health Organization has designated the Omicron sub-lineage BA.2 as the dominant strain. While BA.1 and BA.2 differ by only a few amino acids, studies suggest that BA.2 is more contagious and associated with higher reinfection rates than BA.1 [11,12]. Therefore, this lineage is being closely monitored to better understand its severity and how it causes disease. Continuous bio-surveillance and sequence analysis from cases across affected regions are essential for tracking the virus's genetic evolution and mutation rate.

In India, initial sequencing of SARS-CoV-2 suggested two separate introductions of the virus. The Delta variant, first identified in Maharashtra, subsequently became dominant, outcompeting earlier strains like Alpha and Beta [13]. With nationwide vaccine deployment, the virus's rapid mutation rate, and the potential impact of even minor genomic changes on vaccine effectiveness, continuous monitoring of circulating viral lineages and variants is crucial for effective surveillance. Therefore, this study investigated the variants and the emergence of new lineages during three infection peaks in Puducherry, a coastal region in southeastern India. Using RNA samples from swabs collected at a National Accreditation Board for Testing and Calibration Laboratories (NABL)-accredited COVID-19 testing facility within a tertiary care hospital [14], the study analyzed known and novel mutations, and the resulting data are discussed herein.

Materials and Methods

Study Approval

The study was approved by the Institute Research Committee and Institute Human Ethics Committee - MGMCRI/IRC/52/2021/04/IHEC/42. All the methods were performed in accordance to the Helsinki guidelines.

Nucleic acid extraction, COVID-19 screening and sample selection

Oropharyngeal/Nasopharyngeal samples received in viral transport medium at the diagnostic facility for molecular detection of RNA virus were used for the study. The host institute has started its Real-Time Reverse Transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) testing service in August 2020 after obtaining NABL accreditation as per Indian Council of Medical Research (ICMR) recommendation for COVID testing. A total of 10,561 samples were processed from August 2020 to February 2022. Among them 1699 were positive. The whole

genome sequencing (WGS) was done in representative positive samples (n=128). RNA was extracted from the nasopharyngeal/oropharyngeal samples using QIAamp RNA extraction kit and stored at -80°C. RT-PCR was done using various ICMR approved COVID-19 RT-PCR kits. For WGS, samples that are positive for SARS-CoV-2 by RT-PCR along with the CT (Cycle Threshold) value ≥ 18 & ≤ 25 ; State of Residence – Puducherry were used as the criteria for sample selection. A total of 128 samples fulfilling the above criteria were selected which included 17 from first wave (September 2020 to November 2020), 80 from the second wave (March 2021 to August 2021) and 31 from third wave (September 2021 to February 2022).

Retrieval of demographic and clinical details of patients

The demographic details were collected from ICMR specimen reference form. Since most of the forms were partially filled due to case load; the necessary details such as vaccination status, breakthrough infection (individuals turning positive for COVID-19 infection after 14 days of vaccination), co-morbidities, home quarantined or hospitalised during the course of infection were collected with an informed consent.

Library Preparation

RNA samples where in CT values ≥ 18 & ≤ 25 was considered for the WGS. The RNA was converted into cDNA using a balanced panel sets of random hexamers, Oligo DT's and COVID-19 specific oligos. SARS-CoV-2 genome is selectively amplified with oligo sets custom designed based on the ARTIC protocols. These samples are purified and barcode is added through a barcoding PCR cycle. The final samples are purified, quality checked, quantified and equimolar pooled for sequencing using Illumina Miseq deep sequencing platform with 300x2 bp Paired End chemistry. 1000x of the genome size raw data was generated to ensure maximum coverage and depth for each sample. Illumina MiSEQ platform with 300x2 was preferred for COVID-19 genome sequencing for reasons of throughput, base quality and the supported bioinformatics pipelines.

Deep sequencing data quality control and consensus genome assembly

Raw data quality control followed by adapter trimming was done using FASTQC tool kit, Trim Galore and Cut adapt. The processed reads are used to align to the reference strain NC_045512.2 using (Burrows-Wheeler Aligner) BWA and SamTools/Pileup to calculate coverage and depth. The consensus sequences are derived from the alignment files. This consensus genome sequence was used as input for identification and classification of Pangolin and Nextclade lineages.

Identification and Characterization of SARS-CoV-2 isolates

Consensus draft genomes of COVID-19 isolates were subjected to various analysis using CoVsurver (<https://gisaid.org/database->

features/covsurver-mutations-app/), NextClade (<https://clades.nextstrain.org/>), Vigor (<https://www.viprbrc.org/brc/vigorAnnotator.spg>) and Genome Detective (<https://www.genomedetective.com/app/typingtool/cov/>). The results from the analysis tools were analysed using Microsoft Excel and GraphPad Prism tool for visualization purposes. The resulting consensus genomes (OP599771-OP599898) have been deposited to GenBank. The phylogenetic relationship between sample consensus genome sequences was analyzed using IQ-Tree tool (version 2.2.2.3) [15] by constructing a phylogenetic tree using 1000 bootstrap iterations and was visualized and annotated using iTOL online tool [16].

Results

Demographic Profile of the study participants

A total of 128 samples were sequenced, comprising 17 from the first wave, 80 from the second, and 31 from the third. The samples represented individuals aged 20 to 87, with an average age of 46.3 years. The age distribution was as follows: 20-30 years (22 cases), 31-40 years (35 cases), 41-50 years (23 cases), and 51 years and older (48 cases). Of the total, 79 (61.7%) were male and 49 (38.2%) were female. Eight patients experienced breakthrough infections after vaccination, of whom three were hospitalized, including two with diabetes mellitus. Seventeen patients presented with comorbidities such as diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, and/or heart disease. Of those quarantined at home, all but three patients (who had diabetes mellitus and/or hypertension) were without comorbidities. Fatalities occurred in the first wave (4 cases) and second wave (5 cases), but none were observed in the third wave. The deceased ranged in age from 45 to 82 years. Approximately 81% of the cases were individuals seeking testing, while the

remaining 19% comprised of high-risk individuals, those with severe acute respiratory infection (SARI), patients exhibiting influenza-like illness, and asymptomatic contacts. Clinical and demographic details of the study subjects are summarized in **Table 1**.

Sequence analysis identified SARS-CoV-2 strains were classified as VOCs, VOIs, and uncommon variants. Of the 128 samples, VOCs comprised the majority, followed by a substantial proportion of uncommon strains, according to WHO classification. **Figure S1** presents the percentage distribution of variants within each category, and **Table S1** details the total number of cases for each variant. Genome coverage analysis demonstrated uniform coverage across all sequenced strains (**Figure S2**).

Distribution of SARS-CoV-2 lineages

Table 2 provides a comprehensive overview of all sequenced lineages and variants, with **Figure 1** illustrating the distribution of individual lineages. The most prevalent lineage was B.1.617.2 (n=64, 50%), followed by BA.2 (n=15, 12%) and B.1.560 (n=14, 11%). Other lineages also circulated but decreased in prevalence over time. In the first wave, B.1.560 (n=14) was the dominant lineage in our sequenced samples. The second wave saw the emergence of six different lineages, with B.1.617.2 (n=61) being the most common, followed by B.1.1.7 (n=5). During the third wave, BA.2 (n=15) became predominant, outnumbering other lineages, and three samples also showed the presence of B.1.617.2 from the second wave. Among symptomatic individuals with influenza-like illness (ILI) and severe acute respiratory infection (SARI) (n=12/19, 63.1%), B.1.560 was the most common lineage. The most frequent lineages among deceased individuals were B.1.560 (n=3), B.1.617.2 (n=4), and B.1.1.7 (n=2).

Table 1 | Clinical and demographic details in all three waves. (*Diabetes mellitus, Hypertension, Heart disease, Hyperlipidaemia, Cancer, Lung disease)

Parameters	Groups	1 st wave	2 nd wave	3 rd wave	p-value
Age	20-30	2	8	12	≤0.01
	31-40	0	26	9	
	41-50	3	19	1	
	≥51	12	27	9	
Sex	Male	10	52	16	0.344
	Female	7	28	15	
Clinical Symptoms	Symptomatic	13	6	0	≤0.0001
	Asymptomatic	4	74	31	
Influenza like illness	Yes	9	6	0	≤0.0001
	No	8	74	31	
Severe acute Respiratory illness	Yes	4	1	0	≤0.0001
	No	13	78	31	
*Co-morbidities	Yes	4	12	2	0.227
	No	13	68	29	
Outcome	Survived	13	75	31	0.015
	Deceased	4	5	0	

Table 2 | Genome Classification.

Lineage	Number of positives	Description	Wave	Variant
B.1.560	13	Tokyo, Japan on 20200109	First	UNCOMMON
B.1.560	1	Victoria, Australia on 20200230	First	UNCOMMON
B.1.1	2	Tokyo, Japan 20200109	First	UNCOMMON
B.1.1.354	1	Tokyo, Japan 20200109	First	UNCOMMON
AY.127	1	North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany on 20200511	Second	UNCOMMON
AY.127	1	Jammu and Kashmir, India on 20210321	Second	UNCOMMON
B.1.1.354	2	Tokyo, Japan 20200109	Second	UNCOMMON
B.1.1.7	2	California, USA on 20200708	Second	VOC_Alpha
B.1.1.7	5	North Dakota, USA on 20201023	Second	VOC_Alpha
B.1.351	4	Gauteng, South Africa on 20200801	Second	VOC_Beta
B.1.617.2	2	California, USA on 20210106	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Dakar, Senegal on 20200512	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	England, United Kingdom on 20210406	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Gujarat, India on 20210407	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Indiana, USA on 20210418	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	23	Jammu and Kashmir, India on 20210321	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	12	North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany on 20200511	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Oromia, Ethiopia on 20210331	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	4	Podravska, Slovenia on 20201204	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Sicily, Italy on 20210316	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Texas, USA on 20200716	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Not Associated	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Diourbel, Senegal on 20200327	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Gujarat, India on 20210401	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Minnesota, USA on 20200527	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Minnesota, USA on 20201009	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Mizoram, India on 20210213	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Red Sea Governorate, Egypt on 20201213	Second	VOC_Delta
B.1.617	2	Delhi, India on 20200303	Second	VOI_Kappa
B.1.617	1	Jharkhand, India on 20210106	Second	VOI_Kappa
B.1.617.1	1	Jharkhand, India on 20210106	Second	VOI_Kappa
AY.59	1	Not Associated	Third	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	2	Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, Germany on 20210503	Third	VOC_Delta
B.1.617.2	1	Not Associated	Third	VOC_Delta
AY.127	1	North Rhine-Westphalia, Germany on 20200511	Third	VOC_Delta
AY.127	1	Not Associated	Third	VOC_Delta
BA.1.1	2	Not Associated	Third	Omicron
BA.1.1.7	4	Not Associated	Third	Omicron
BA.1.1.7	1	Lambayeque, Peru on 20220117	Third	Omicron
BA.1.1.7	1	Tennessee, USA on 20220120	Third	Omicron
BA.2	1	Karnataka, India on 20220117	Third	Omicron
BA.2	10	Karnataka, India on 20220119	Third	Omicron
BA.2	1	Santa Fe, Argentina on 20220405	Third	Omicron
BA.2	3	Not Associated	Third	Omicron
BA.2.17	1	Karnataka, India on 20220117	Third	Omicron

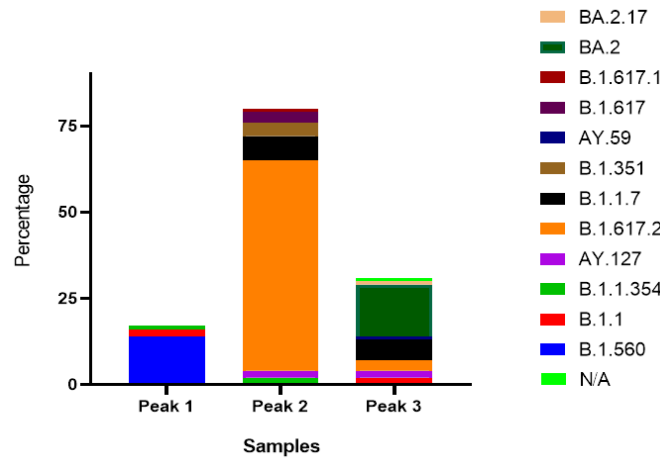


Figure 1 | Individual lineage distribution during three major peaks.

Breakthrough Infections

Vaccination status was determined through telephone interviews. Of the 128 samples, 105 individuals provided information regarding their vaccination status. Only 6% of these respondents were vaccinated at the time of sampling. Vaccinated individuals predominantly harboured uncommon variants (n=3), followed by Alpha, Beta, Kappa, and Omicron (n=1 each), as illustrated in **Figure S3**. **Figure S4** provides an overview of the sequenced variants and their corresponding outcomes.

Detection of lineages and their evolutionary relationship

Fourteen lineages were identified using PANGO lineage designation. Nextclade analysis grouped these lineages into 10 distinct clades. CoVsurver and WHO analyses identified 7 clades. The classifications based on Pangolin, Nextclade, CoVsurver, and WHO analyses are presented in **Figure 2 (A-D)**. In these figures, the x-axis represents the pandemic wave by year, and the y-axis indicates the various clades, lineages, strains, or types. The size of the shapes (circle, square, triangle, and diamond) corresponds to the total number of infected patients. Phylogenetic relationships between the samples were determined

using FastTree-2 maximum-likelihood phylogeny. FastTree-2 employs maximum-likelihood nearest-neighbour interchanges (MLIs), minimum-evolution subtree-pruning-regrafting (SPRs), and nearest-neighbour interchanges (NNIs). The samples were aligned against the Wuhan reference genome (NC_045512.2). **Figures S5 A-C** depict the branches corresponding to Pangolin, Nextstrain, and WHO lineages.

Mutational divisions of SARS-CoV-2 detected during three peaks

We analysed the frequency of both known and novel mutations, identifying a total of 3144 mutations (3133 common and 11 new), with a median of 24 mutations per sample. The highest concentration of mutations was observed in the S gene (32% of total mutations), followed by the N gene (12%) and the NSP3 gene (7%). The distribution of mutations across the sequenced strains is shown in **Figure 3**. The most frequently observed mutation was Spike_D614G, present across all three peaks. The average number of mutations per sample increased over time, from 8 in the first peak to 23 in the second and 40 in the third. Phylogenetic relationships between sample consensus genome sequences are illustrated in the phylogenetic tree (**Figure 4**), which also summarizes sample attributes, predicted Pangolin lineage,

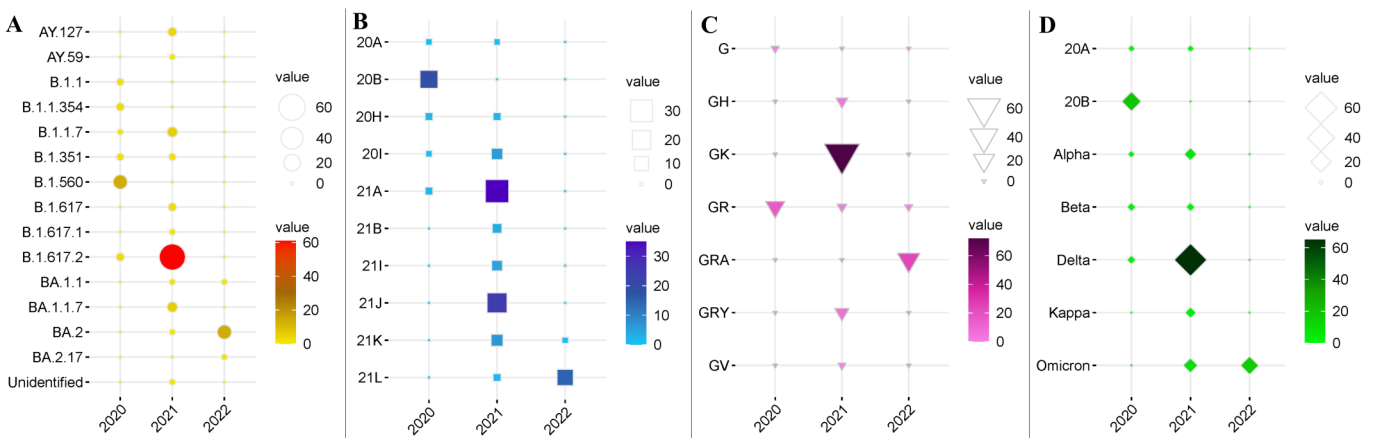


Figure 2 | Classification of lineages and number of strains sequenced (A) Classification of lineages based on Pangolin; **(B)** Classification of lineages based on Nextclade; **(C)** Classification of lineages based on CoVsurver; **(D)** Classification of lineages based on WHO.

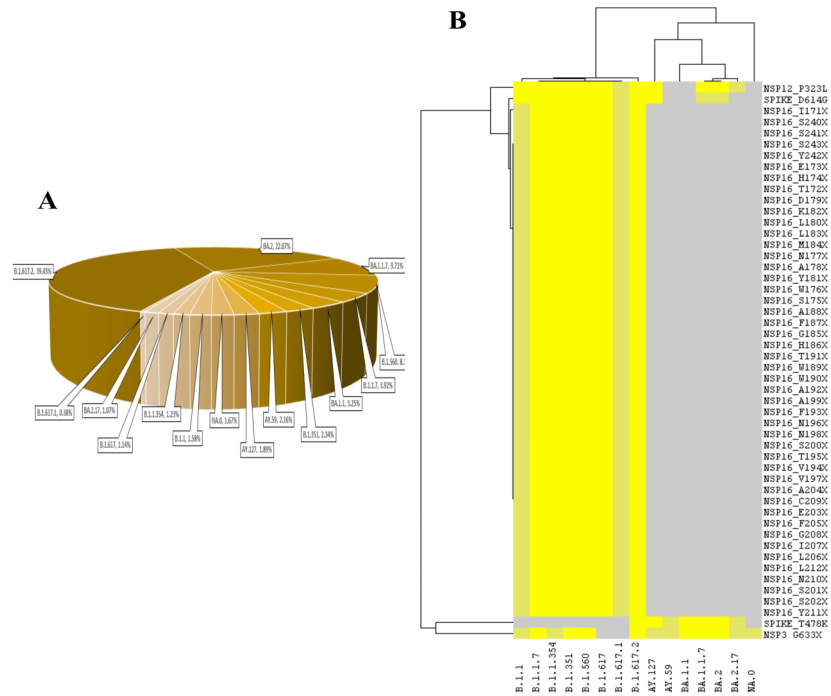


Figure 3 | Distribution of Mutations (A) Mutation percentage in the sequenced lineages (B) Dendrogram revealing the association between different mutation and sequenced strains.

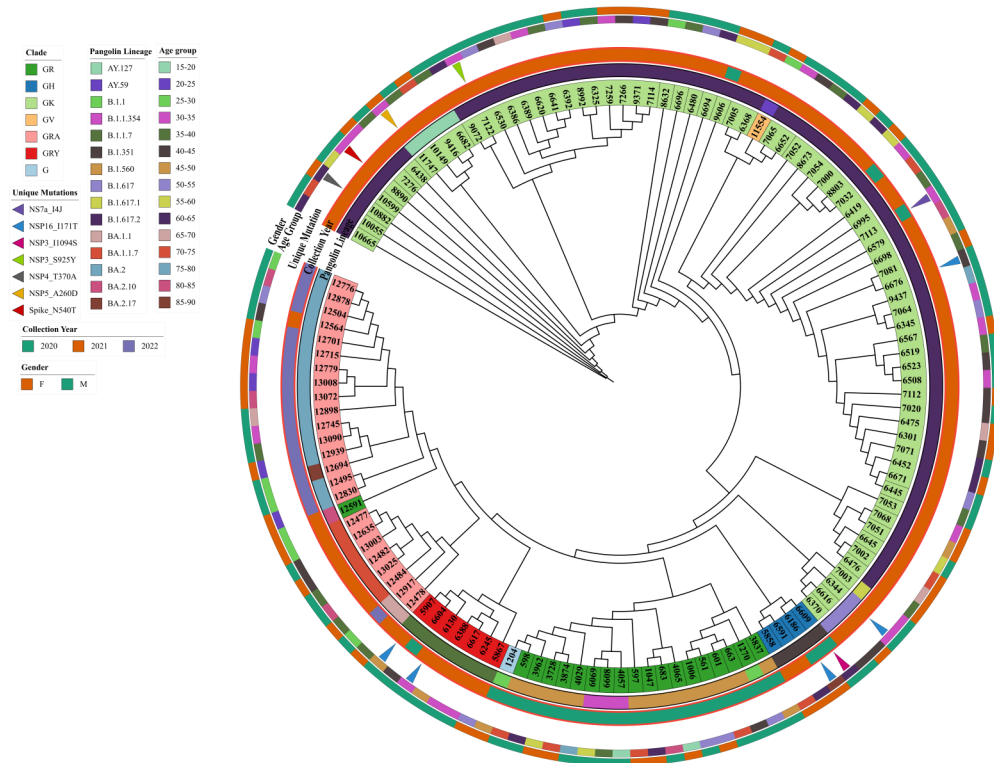


Figure 4 | Phylogenetic tree of the consensus genome sequences along with sample attributes. Tree labels are highlighted based on clade classification by CoVsuver as described in the legend. Lineages based on Pangolin are represented by the color strip 1. The corresponding sample collection year is represented by color strip 2. Samples with unique mutations are indicated by colored triangles. The patient age group and gender details are represented by color strips 3 & 4 respectively.

CoVsurver clade classification, and unique mutations detected: NS7a_I4J, NSP16_I171T, NSP3_I1094S, NSP3_S925Y, NSP4_T370A, NSP5_A260D, and Spike_N540T. Most unique mutations were found in samples from the second wave. The unique mutation NSP16_I171T was detected in five samples, representing the largest group of samples sharing a unique mutation. With one exception, these samples were primarily from male patients aged 30-50. Notably, the detected unique mutation is significant due to the high coverage (>90%) and quality control scores of the consensus genome sequences harbouring this mutation. The overall distribution of mutants, aligned with the three major peaks reported by the Government of Puducherry (<https://covid19dashboard.py.gov.in/>), is shown in **Figure S6**.

Discussion

The WHO declared COVID-19 a pandemic on March 11, 2020. India reported its first case on January 30, 2020, in a patient with travel history from Wuhan, China [1]. Subsequently, cases were reported across various Indian states. Puducherry's first case was recorded in March 2020, with a surge in cases observed in August 2020 [17]. Whole-genome sequencing (WGS) is a valuable tool for understanding geographical distribution, viral adaptation over time, transmission patterns, disease mechanisms, and for vaccine and drug design, dosage strategies, and hospitalization needs. Therefore, we conducted WGS on 128 representative samples collected from all three waves in Puducherry.

As a popular tourist destination with a history of French settlements, Puducherry is susceptible to virus transmission both from international travelers and through local transmission, such as mass gatherings. This study compared the SARS-CoV-2 variants circulating in Puducherry during all three waves, as determined by WGS, with those circulating globally and within India during the same periods. We identified 14 sub-lineages (B.1.560, B.1.1, B.1.1.354, B.1.351, B.1.1.7, B.1.617.2, B.1.617, AY.127, B.1.617.1, AY.59, BA.2, BA.2.17, BA.1.1, BA.1.1.7) belonging to lineages A and B. These lineages are ancestral to those that subsequently circulated globally. Lineages A and B were first sequenced in China in January 2020 [18].

The lineages were similar to those circulating in Europe, Australia, the USA, the UK, South Africa, Singapore, Malaysia, and Italy. During the first wave, the circulating lineages (B.1.560, B.1.1, and B.1.1.354) were classified as uncommon variants by the WHO. The second wave saw a mix of both A and B lineages, with the majority being B.1.617.2 (the Delta variant). A key finding of this study is the presence of numerous variants classified as "uncommon" by the WHO, meaning they did not meet the criteria for either VOC or VOI. Given their circulation during the outbreaks, the potential roles of these uncommon strains in disease severity, pathogenesis, and mutation patterns warrant further investigation for effective disease surveillance and pandemic preparedness.

An ICMR multicentric study [19], which included 26 samples from Puducherry, identified Delta (B.1.617.2) as the most prevalent variant, followed by Alpha and Kappa. That study also detected two Delta sub-lineages, AY.1 and AY.2, both carrying the K417N spike protein mutation, known to contribute to immune evasion and

increased infectivity. Across India, Delta was the dominant variant, while Alpha was more prevalent in the northern region. Breakthrough infections were common with the Delta variant, likely due to reduced vaccine neutralization capacity and the variant's high transmissibility during that period [19].

An Indian Gujarat-based study of 502 sequenced samples from deceased and recovered patients, compared nationally and globally, found a missense mutation, C28854T (Ser194Leu), in the Nucleocapsid (N) gene. This mutation, considered deleterious, had an allele frequency of 47% in Gujarat's deceased patients compared to 7% globally, suggesting a distinct mutation potentially contributing to disease severity in Gujarat [20]. Another study from Delhi, involving 612 samples sequenced across the first three pandemic peaks, reported 26 lineages with novel mutations across these peaks [21]. Similar to our single-center study, the Delhi research also included samples from January to March 2022, a period dominated by Omicron (25 samples). Like the Delhi study, we also categorized our samples based on median cycle threshold (CT) values. While the minimum CT remained relatively consistent across all three peaks, the median CT in the third peak (Omicron-dominant) was less than 20. In contrast, the median CT values in the first two peaks were above 20. This differs from the findings of Gautam et al. 2022, who reported a median CT of 15 in the first two peaks [21].

The number of mutations per sample increased from the second to the third peak. This is likely related to the units of mutation per site per year and the number of substitutions per site per replication cycle. Studies have estimated the mutation rate to be 10-3 mutations per site per year, indicating continuous viral replication and subsequent mutation accumulation over time [22,23]. The lineages identified in our study also varied over time. B.1.560 was most common during the first peak, while B.1.617.2 dominated the second, mirroring findings from Delhi [21]. The third peak initially showed the presence of B.1.617.2, which gradually decreased as BA.2 and BA.1.1.7 became more prevalent. This temporal shift in dominant lineages has been observed globally [24].

The most common mutation observed was Spike_D614G. Mutations in the spike protein have been extensively documented [3,25,26]. The SARS-CoV-2 spike (S) protein is crucial for target recognition, binding to ACE2, and host cell entry. Frequent S protein mutations can affect binding affinity to host ACE2 and the receptor-binding domain (RBD) [27,28]. For example, the D614G mutation, observed pervasively in our sequenced COVID-19 cases, has been shown to alter RBD conformation and enhance the affinity between the S protein and ACE2 [25,29]. Previous studies have identified NSP2, 3, 4, 6, and 12 as recurrent mutation hotspots across various geographic regions, including Asia, Oceania, Europe, and North America, while NSP13 helicase mutants have been reported primarily in North America [30]. The new mutations detected in this study include NSP16_I171T, NS7a_I4J, NSP3_I1094S, NSP3_S925Y, NSP4_T370A, NSP5_A260D, and Spike_N540T. NSP16_I171T was found in five patients (Alpha-2, Beta-1, Kappa-1, Delta-1), while the remaining mutations were each found in a single patient. These unique mutations were confirmed by aligning fastq files generated by the Local Run Manager (Illumina) to the SARS-CoV-2 reference genome

(NC_045512.2) using Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (v. 0.7.17) [31]. NCoV-Tools was used to verify the consensus sequence for each genome. Single nucleotide variants and short insertions/deletions were detected using the GATK pipeline with an average coverage of 1000x and a minimum depth of 100x. SnpEff (v. 5.0c) [32] was used to annotate the filtered variants (VAF > 0.05). For mutation frequencies below 0.05, the existence of called reads was confirmed using the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV), CoVsurver, and the COVID-19 genome annotator.

The known mutations identified in this study were primarily located within NS1 to NS5, with NS3 exhibiting the highest number. NS3 is a crucial non-structural protein (NSP) involved in viral replication and host protein synthesis regulation. Among all NSPs (1-16), NSP3 has been reported to have the most mutations, although *in vitro* studies validating the effects of these mutations on host protein synthesis or viral replication efficiency are still lacking. Further investigation of the NS3 mutations observed in this study is warranted. Another important NSP utilized by the virus for replication and transcription is NSP16. NSP16 encodes methyl transferase activity, essential for viral immune evasion. The S-Adenosylmethionine (SAM)-dependent 2'-O-Methyltransferase enzyme, with its conserved catalytic tetrad ([K46-D130-K170-E203]) from SARS-CoV-2, comprises two subunits: NSP16 (catalytic) and NSP10 (stimulatory), with NSP16 being activated by heterodimerization with NSP10. Thus, NSP16's enzymatic activity depends on NSP10; otherwise, it remains in a nascent form.

In this study, unique or novel mutations in NSP16 were observed in five samples. NSP16, which, unlike NSP3, has not been reported to have many mutations, could be a potential therapeutic target for SARS-CoV-2 control. However, the identified mutations raise important questions: How will these mutations in NSP16 impact the NS10/NSP16 complex? How will the transferase activity of NSP16 be affected? And how will this modify the virus's immune evasion mechanisms? To explore these questions, we performed computational analysis, which revealed that the NSP16_I171T mutation is significant due to its proximity to the conserved catalytic tetrad. Multiple sequence alignment of NSP16 protein sequences from different species showed that this mutation occurs within a highly conserved pan-coronavirus motif (**Figure S7**). Using DynaMut2 [33], we analyzed the effect of the mutation on protein stability and dynamics by introducing the NSP16_I171T mutation into the nsp16-nsp10-SAM complex (PDB ID: 6W61). A decrease in folding free energy ($\Delta\Delta G$) of -3.41 kcal/mol was observed, indicating increased flexibility in the mutated protein compared to the native structure. Furthermore, the non-polar Isoleucine is replaced by the polar Threonine, which has the potential to form hydrogen bonds. Given the mutation's proximity to the catalytic tetrad, the increased flexibility, and the hydrogen bond potential of Threonine, the NSP16_I171T mutation likely significantly influences NSP16's catalytic activity [34].

This study utilized deep sequencing to investigate the genetic diversity of the SARS-CoV-2 genome throughout the pandemic. We acknowledge several limitations. The uneven sample sizes across the different pandemic peaks limit our ability to analyze variant distribution by age and sex. We did not assess the significance of the novel mutations identified or their clinical

correlations. Furthermore, because most patients were unvaccinated at the time of sampling, we could not evaluate the impact of the identified mutants on the immunology of currently available vaccines.

Concluding Remarks

The prominent mutations observed in this study suggest that the increased mutation rates during the second and third peaks may be attributed to impaired proofreading and altered polymerase activity in the virus. Further research is necessary to: (i) elucidate the molecular mechanisms driving increased mutation rates in key viral NSPs; (ii) determine if mutations in key NSPs lead to enhanced viral replication and immune evasion; (iii) investigate whether these mutations confer resistance to current antivirals; and (iv) develop broad-spectrum antivirals. Given SARS-CoV-2's propensity for frequent mutation, studying its evolutionary and genomic epidemiology is crucial. Continuous biosurveillance, including pathogen and novel mutant detection via genome sequencing, coupled with regional and global information sharing, is essential for mitigating future outbreaks and pandemics.

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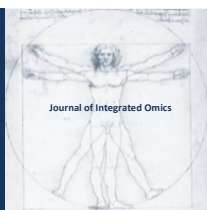
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Overcoming Barriers to Personalized Medicine

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In the last few decades, medicine has undergone transformative changes driven by advancements in omics technologies - genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and transcriptomics. These innovations have provided unprecedented insights into the molecular underpinnings of human health and disease, offering the potential to revolutionize the way we diagnose, treat, and prevent illnesses. However, the current regulatory framework governing clinical assays remains rooted in outdated models that do not fully accommodate the possibilities offered by personalized medicine. This manifesto advocates for a fundamental shift in the regulation of clinical assays, proposing the integration of omics technologies to enable physicians to implement personalized medicine effectively.

Personalized medicine is not just a future vision; it is an emerging reality that is transforming patient care. By tailoring medical treatment to the individual characteristics of each patient, based on their genetic makeup, protein expression profiles, metabolic states, and gene expression patterns, personalized medicine promises to enhance treatment efficacy, reduce adverse drug reactions, and ultimately improve patient outcomes [1,2]. Genomics provides the blueprint of life, offering insights into genetic predispositions to

diseases, drug responses, and potential therapeutic targets [3]. Proteomics examines the dynamic expression of proteins, the cellular workhorses that are crucial for understanding disease mechanisms and identifying biomarkers for early diagnosis and targeted therapy [4,5]. Metabolomics captures the end products of cellular processes, reflecting the metabolic state of a patient, which is essential for understanding complex diseases such as cancer, diabetes, and cardiovascular diseases [6,7]. Transcriptomics analyzes RNA transcripts to understand gene expression patterns, revealing how genes are turned on or off in different tissues and under various conditions, which is vital for identifying disease mechanisms and potential therapeutic targets [8]. These omics technologies offer a comprehensive view of a patient's health, far surpassing the capabilities of traditional diagnostic methods. Therefore, integrating these into clinical practice is not merely an enhancement but a necessity for modern healthcare. To fully realize these benefits, integrating existing biochemical and proteomic methods with next-generation sequencing will be essential to validate the identified factors and related regulatory substrates for patient-tailored, autologous transplantation therapies [9,10].

The current regulatory environment for clinical assays is based on

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principles developed for a one-size-fits-all approach to medicine. Traditional clinical trials, which form the backbone of regulatory approval processes, are designed around large, homogeneous populations. These trials aim to establish the efficacy and safety of treatments across broad patient groups but often fail to account for the genetic and molecular diversity among individuals [11,12]. This one-size-fits-all approach prioritizes population-level outcomes, often overlooking the variations in drug responses that occur due to genetic differences, leading to treatments that may be effective for some but not for others [13]. Despite significant advancements in omics, current regulations have been slow to incorporate these technologies into the clinical trial framework, hampering the development and approval of personalized therapies that could significantly improve patient outcomes [1]. The existing regulatory framework imposes substantial barriers to the integration of personalized medicine into clinical practice, including lengthy approval processes, stringent requirements for large-scale trials, and a focus on broad applicability over individual effectiveness [14].

To harness the full potential of personalized medicine, we must overhaul the current regulatory framework to accommodate the unique characteristics of omics-based approaches. This reform should be guided by several key principles. Firstly, the new regulatory framework should prioritize the recognition of individual variability in drug responses. This involves shifting from population-based to individual-based assessments, where the efficacy and safety of treatments are evaluated based on genetic, proteomic, metabolomic, and transcriptomic profiles [1]. Secondly, we must move towards adaptive clinical trial designs that allow for continuous learning and real-time modifications based on patient responses. This approach will enable the integration of omics data into the trial process, ensuring that treatments are tailored to the unique characteristics of each patient [15]. Thirdly, regulatory bodies should implement expedited approval pathways for therapies that demonstrate significant potential based on omics data, recognizing the validity of surrogate endpoints identified through these technologies, and allowing for conditional approvals that can be refined as more data becomes available [16].

Additionally, the regulatory reform should encourage interdisciplinary collaboration between clinicians, researchers, regulatory bodies, and industry. This collaboration is essential for developing robust frameworks that integrate omics technologies into clinical practice while ensuring patient safety and treatment efficacy [1,17]. Moreover, in addition to traditional clinical trial data, the new regulatory framework should incorporate real-world evidence (RWE) from clinical practice. RWE can provide valuable insights into how treatments perform in diverse patient populations and under real-world conditions, offering a more comprehensive understanding of treatment effectiveness [18,19].

The potential of personalized medicine, driven by advances in omics technologies, is immense. However, realizing this potential requires a fundamental shift in the regulatory framework governing clinical assays. By embracing a model that recognizes individual variability, supports adaptive trial designs, expedites the approval of omics-based therapies, and integrates real-world evidence, we can ensure that personalized medicine becomes the standard of

care. This manifesto calls on policymakers, regulatory bodies, and the medical community to take bold steps towards reforming clinical assay regulations. The future of medicine lies in our ability to treat each patient as a unique individual, informed by the wealth of data provided by genomics, proteomics, metabolomics, and transcriptomics. It is time to break free from the constraints of outdated regulatory practices and pave the way for a new era of personalized healthcare.

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