

# Characterization of accessory genes in coronavirus genomes

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## Research

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1                                    **Characterization of accessory genes in coronavirus genomes**

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18

19

20 **Abstract**

21 **Background:** The Covid19 infection is caused by the SARS-CoV-2 virus, a novel member of  
22 the coronavirus (CoV) family. CoV genomes code for a ORF1a / ORF1ab polyprotein and four  
23 structural proteins widely studied as major drug targets. The genomes also contain a variable  
24 number of open reading frames (ORFs) coding for accessory proteins that are not essential for  
25 virus replication, but appear to have a role in pathogenesis. The accessory proteins have been  
26 less well characterized and are difficult to predict by classical bioinformatics methods.

27 **Methods:** We propose a computational tool GOFIX to characterize potential ORFs in virus  
28 genomes. In particular, ORF coding potential is estimated by searching for enrichment in motifs  
29 of the *X* circular code, that is known to be over-represented in the reading frames of viral genes.

30 **Results:** We applied GOFIX to study the SARS-CoV-2 and related genomes including SARS-  
31 CoV and SARS-like viruses from bat, civet and pangolin hosts, focusing on the accessory  
32 proteins. Our analysis provides evidence supporting the presence of overlapping ORFs 7b, 9b  
33 and 9c in all the genomes and thus helps to resolve some differences in current genome  
34 annotations. In contrast, we predict that ORF3b is not functional in all genomes. Novel putative  
35 ORFs were also predicted, including a truncated form of the ORF10 previously identified in  
36 SARS-CoV-2 and a little known ORF overlapping the Spike protein in Civet-CoV and SARS-  
37 CoV.

38 **Conclusions:** Our findings contribute to characterizing sequence properties of accessory genes  
39 of SARS coronaviruses, and especially the newly acquired genes making use of overlapping  
40 reading frames.

41

42 **Keywords:** COVID-19; SARS-CoV-2; SARS-CoV; coronavirus; accessory genes; ORF  
43 prediction; circular code motifs

44



## 46 **Background**

47 Coronaviruses (CoVs) cause respiratory and intestinal infections in animals and humans [1].  
48 They were not considered to be highly pathogenic to humans until the last two decades, which  
49 have seen three outbreaks of highly transmissible and pathogenic coronaviruses, including  
50 SARS-CoV (severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus), MERS-CoV (Middle East  
51 respiratory syndrome coronavirus), and SARS-CoV-2 (which causes the disease COVID-19).  
52 Other human coronaviruses (such as HCoV-NL63, HCoV-229E, HCoV-OC43 or HKU1)  
53 generally induce only mild upper respiratory diseases in immunocompetent hosts, although  
54 some may cause severe infections in infants, young children and elderly individuals [1].

55 Extensive studies of human coronaviruses have led to a better understanding of coronavirus  
56 biology. Coronaviruses belong to the family *Coronaviridae* in the order *nidovirales*. Whereas  
57 MERS-CoV is a member of the *Merbecovirus* subgenus, phylogenetic analyses indicated that  
58 SARS-CoV-2 clusters with SARS-CoV in the *Sarbecovirus* subgenus [2]. All human  
59 coronaviruses are considered to have animal origins. SARS-CoV, MERS-CoV and SARS-  
60 CoV-2 are assumed to have originated in bats [1]. It is widely believed that SARS-CoV and  
61 SARS-CoV-2 were transmitted directly to humans from market civets and pangolin,  
62 respectively, based on the sequence analyses of CoV isolated from these animals and from  
63 infected patients.

64 All members of the coronavirus family are enveloped viruses that possess long positive-  
65 sense, single-stranded RNA genomes ranging in size from 27–33 kb. The coronavirus genomes  
66 encode five major open reading frames (ORFs), including a 5' frameshifted polyprotein  
67 (ORF1a/ORF1ab) and four canonical 3' structural proteins, namely the spike (S), envelope (E),  
68 membrane (M) and nucleocapsid (N) proteins, which are common to all coronaviruses [3]. In  
69 addition, a number of subgroup-specific accessory genes are found interspersed among, or even  
70 overlapping, the structural genes. Overlapping genes originate by a mechanism of overprinting,

71 in which nucleotide substitutions in a pre-existing frame induce the expression of a novel  
72 protein in an alternative frame. The accessory proteins in coronaviruses vary in number,  
73 location and size in the different viral subgroups, and are thought to contain additional functions  
74 that are often not required for virus replication, but are involved in pathogenicity in the natural  
75 host [4-5].

76 In the face of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, extensive worldwide research efforts have  
77 focused on identifying coronavirus genetic variation and selection [6-8], in order to understand  
78 the emergence of host/tissue specificities and to help develop efficient prevention and treatment  
79 strategies. These studies are complemented by structural genomics [9-11], as well as  
80 transcriptomics [12] and interactomics studies [13] of the structural and putative accessory  
81 proteins.

82 However, there have been less studies of accessory proteins, for two main reasons [14]. First,  
83 accessory proteins are often not essential for viral replication or structure, but play a role in  
84 viral pathogenicity or spread by modulating the host interferon signaling pathways for example.  
85 This has led to some contradictory experimental results concerning the presence or functionality  
86 of accessory proteins. For instance, in a recent experiment [13] to characterize SARS-CoV-2  
87 gene functions, 9 predicted accessory protein ORFs (3a, 3b, 6, 7a, 7b, 8, 9b, 9c, 10) were codon  
88 optimized and successfully expressed in human cells, with the exception of ORF3b. However,  
89 another recent study using DNA nanoball sequencing [12] concluded that the SARS-CoV-2  
90 expresses only five canonical accessory ORFs (3a, 6, 7a, 7b, 8).

91 Second, bioinformatics approaches for the prediction of accessory proteins are challenged  
92 by their complex nature as short, overlapping ORFs. Such proteins are known to have biased  
93 amino acid sequences compared to non-overlapping proteins [15]. In addition, the homology-  
94 based approaches widely used to predict ORFs in genomes are less useful here, because many  
95 accessory proteins are lineage- or subgroup-specific. Thus, many state of the art viral genome

96 annotation systems, such as Vgas [16], only predict overlapping proteins if homology  
97 information is available. Other methods have been developed dedicated specifically to the *ab*  
98 *initio* prediction of overlapping genes, for example based on multiple sequence alignments and  
99 statistical estimates of the degree of variability at synonymous sites [17] or sequence  
100 simulations and calculation of expected ORF lengths [18].

101 Here, we propose a computational tool GOFIX (Gene prediction by Open reading Frame  
102 Identification using *X* motifs) to predict potential ORFs in virus genomes. Using a complete  
103 viral genome as input, GOFIX first locates all potential ORFs, defined as a region delineated  
104 by start and stop codons. In order to predict functional ORFs, GOFIX calculates the enrichment  
105 of the ORFs in *X* motifs, i.e. motifs of the *X* circular code [19], a set of 20 codons that are over-  
106 represented in the reading frames of genes from a wide range of organisms. For example, in a  
107 study of 299,401 genes from 5217 viruses [20] including double stranded and single stranded  
108 DNA and RNA viruses, codons of the *X* circular code were found to occur preferentially in the  
109 reading frame of the genes. This is an important property of viral genes, since it has been  
110 suggested that *X* motifs at different locations in a gene may assist the ribosome to maintain and  
111 synchronize the reading frame [21]. An initial evaluation test of the GOFIX method on a large  
112 set of 80 virus genomes [15] showed that it achieves high sensitivity and specificity for the  
113 prediction of experimentally verified overlapping proteins (manuscript in preparation). A major  
114 advantage of our approach is that it requires only the sequence of the studied genome and does  
115 not rely on any homology information. This allows us to detect novel ORFs that are specific to  
116 a given lineage.

117 We applied GOFIX to study the SARS-CoV-2 genome and related SARS genomes, with a  
118 main focus on the accessory proteins. Using the extensive experimental data concerning the  
119 SARS-CoV genome and the expressed ORFs, we first show that the reading frames of the  
120 SARS-CoV ORFs are enriched in *X* motifs, including most of the overlapping accessory

121 proteins. Exceptions include ORF3b and ORF8b which may not be functional. Then, we use  
122 GOFIX to predict and compare putative genes in related genomes of SARS-like viruses from  
123 bat, civet and pangolin hosts as well as human SARS-CoV-2.

124

## 125 **Methods**

### 126 *Genome sequences*

127 Viral genome sequences were downloaded from the Genbank database, as shown in Table  
128 1. The Genbank reference genomes were used as representative genomes for SARS-CoV and  
129 SARS-CoV-2. For the Bat-CoV, Civet-CoV and Pangolin-CoV genomes, we selected well  
130 annotated Genbank entries having the highest number of annotated ORFs. All CDS annotations  
131 were extracted from the Genbank files, and ORF names were standardized according to the  
132 SARS-CoV-2 nomenclature (Table 2).

133

### 134 *Definition of X motif enrichment (XME) scores*

135 The  $X$  circular code contains the following 20 codons

$$X = \{AAC, AAT, ACC, ATC, ATT, CAG, CTC, CTG, GAA, GAC, \\ GAG, GAT, GCC, GGC, GGT, GTA, GTC, GTT, TAC, TTC\} \quad (1)$$

136 and has several strong mathematical properties [19]. In particular, it is self-complementary, i.e.  
137 10 trinucleotides of  $X$  are complementary to the other 10 trinucleotides of  $X$ , and it is a circular  
138 code. A circular code is defined as a set of words such that any motif obtained from this set,  
139 allows to retrieve, maintain and synchronize the reading frame.

140 An  $X$  motif  $m$  is defined as a word containing only codons from the  $X$  circular code (1) with  
141 length  $|m| \geq 3$  codons and cardinality (i.e. number of unique codons)  $c \geq 2$  codons. The  
142 minimal length  $|m| = 3$  codons was chosen based on a previous study showing that the  
143 probability of retrieving the reading frame with an  $X$  motif of at least 3 codons is 99.9% [22].

144 The class of  $X$  motifs with cardinality  $c < 2$  are excluded here because they are mostly  
145 associated with the “pure” trinucleotide repeats often found in non-coding regions of genomes  
146 [23].

147 The total length  $XL_f$  of all  $X$  motifs  $m_f$  of nucleotide length  $|m_f|$  in a frame  $f$  (the reading  
148 frame or one of the 2 shifted frames) of a nucleotide sequence  $s$  is defined as:

$$149 \quad XL_f = \sum_{m_f \in s} |m_f|.$$

150 Then the  $X$  motif enrichment  $XME_f$  in a frame  $f$  of a sequence  $s$  of nucleotide length  $l$  is  
151 defined as:

$$152 \quad XME_f = \frac{100}{l_f} XL_f$$

153 where for non-overlapping ORFs:  $l_f = l$ , and for overlapping ORFs:  $l_f = l - XL_g$  where  
154  $XL_g$  is the total length of all  $X$  motifs in the overlapped frame  $g$ .

155 Finally, for an ORF of length  $l$  and associated with a reading frame  $f$ , the  $X$  motif enrichment  
156 score  $XME$  is defined as:

$$157 \quad XME = XME_f$$

158

### 159 *GOFIX method*

160 The GOFIX method will be described in detail in a separate manuscript. Briefly, the method  
161 consists of two main steps:

- 162 (i) Identification of all potential ORFs. Using the complete genome sequences as input, all  
163 potential ORFs in the positive sense are located, defined as a sequence region starting  
164 with a start codon (AUG) and ending with a stop codon (UAA, UAG, UGA). For a  
165 given region, if alternative start codons are found, the longest ORF is selected. In this  
166 study, we selected all ORFs having a minimum length of 120 nucleotides (40 amino  
167 acids).

168 (ii) Calculation of  $X$  motif enrichment scores. For each potential ORF, all  $X$  motifs in the  
169 nucleotide sequence are identified in the three positive sense frames  $f$  using the  
170 computational method described in [24]. For each identified potential ORF, the  $X$  motif  
171 enrichment ( $XME_f$  and  $XME$ ) scores are calculated as defined above. Based on our  
172 benchmark studies (data not shown) of experimentally validated ORFs in a large set of  
173 80 genomes [15], we set the threshold for prediction of a functional ORF to be  $XME \geq$   
174 5.

175

## 176 **Results**

### 177 *Initial study of SARS-CoV reference genome*

178 We first analyzed the complete genome of the well-studied SARS-CoV and plotted the  $X$   
179 motif enrichment ( $XME_f$ ) scores calculated in a sliding window of 150 nucleotides for each of  
180 the three positive sense frames (Fig. 1). We then mapped the ORF1ab, the four structural  
181 proteins (S, E, M, N), and the nine generally accepted accessory genes (3a, 3b, 6, 7a, 7b, 8a,  
182 8b, 9b, 9c) to the  $X$  enrichment plot.

183 We observe a tendency for the reading frames of the SARS-CoV ORFs to be enriched in  $X$   
184 motifs. For example, ORF1ab is the longest ORF, encoding a polyprotein, which is translated  
185 by a -1 programmed ribosomal frameshift at position 13398. Sequences upstream and  
186 downstream of the frameshift are enriched in  $X$  motifs in the corresponding reading frame  
187 (green and yellow plots respectively in Fig. 1A). Other ORFs enriched in  $X$  motifs in the reading  
188 frame include the S protein (yellow plot in Fig. 1B) and the E and M proteins (blue and green  
189 plots respectively in Fig. 1C). The S, E and M ORFs are conserved in all coronavirus genomes  
190 and code for structural proteins that together create the viral envelope.

191 The case of overlapping ORFs is more complex. For example, the last structural protein  
192 coded by the N ORF is overlapped by two accessory genes: ORF9b and ORF9c. The sequence

193 regions containing the overlapping ORFs are characterized by an enrichment in  $X$  motifs in the  
194 2 frames (green and blue plots in Fig. 1C).

195

#### 196 *Characterization of known accessory genes in SARS-CoV*

197 The SARS-CoV genome is known to contain four structural proteins and nine accessory  
198 proteins, namely ORFs 3a, 3b, 6, 7a, 7b, 8a, 8b, 9b and 9c. To verify that our approach can  
199 predict the accessory genes in coronavirus genomes, we used GOFIX to identify all potential  
200 ORFs in the complete SARS-CoV genome and calculate their  $X$  enrichment. Fig. 2 shows the  
201  $X$  motif enrichment ( $XME_f$ ) scores calculated by GOFIX for the identified ORFs in the 3'  
202 terminal region of the SARS-CoV genome.

203 The overall performance of GOFIX is shown in Table 3. Initially, GOFIX found 25 potential  
204 ORFs (delineated by start and stop codons) in the 3' region (21492-29751) of SARS-CoV.  
205 Twelve of these 25 potential ORFs were predicted to be non-functional (see Methods),  
206 including 10 unknown ORFs mostly overlapping the S protein. Two previously annotated ORFs  
207 were also predicted to be non-functional, namely ORF3b ( $XME=1.9$ ) and ORF8b ( $XME=0.0$ )  
208 that are discussed in detail below.

209 GOFIX predicts that 13 of the 25 potential ORFs are functional (with  $XME>5$ ). These  
210 include 11 previously annotated ORFs, namely S, 3a, E, M, 6, 7a, 7b, 8a, N, 9b, 9c. Two novel  
211 ORFs are also predicted by the GOFIX method: ORF10 ( $XME=15.8$ ) is located downstream of  
212 the N gene (29415-29496) and a new ORF we called ORFSa ( $XME=7.6$ ) that overlaps the S  
213 gene (22732-22928). These novel ORFs are discussed in more detail below.

214

#### 215 *Comparative analyses of accessory proteins in coronavirus genomes*

216 Having evaluated the GOFIX method on the well-studied SARS-CoV genome, we then used  
217 it to characterize and compare the accessory proteins in representative strains of five

218 coronavirus genera, including SARS-CoV, SARS-CoV-2 and three viruses from animal hosts  
219 with SARS-CoV-like infections. Bat is considered to be the most likely host origin of SARS-  
220 CoV and SARS-CoV-2. It is generally considered that transmission to humans occurred *via* an  
221 intermediate host. For SARS-CoV, civets probably acted as the intermediate host, while  
222 pangolin has been proposed as the intermediate host in SARS-CoV-2 animal-to-human  
223 transmission [25]. For each of the five genomes, we used GOFIX to predict all potential ORFs  
224 in the complete genomes and calculated the *X* motif enrichment (XME) scores for each ORF.  
225 Fig. 3 gives an overview of the predicted ORFs in each genome, confirming for example that  
226 the structural proteins S, E, M and N, as well as the accessory proteins ORF6, ORF7a and  
227 ORF7b are conserved and have XME scores above the defined threshold XME=5. However,  
228 important differences in XME scores are observed for the remaining accessory protein ORFs.

229

230 *ORF3b may not code for a functional protein in all CoVs*

231 ORF3a codes for the largest accessory protein that comprises 274-275 amino acids (Fig. 4).  
232 In SARS-CoV, ORF3a is not required for virus replication, but contributes to pathogenesis by  
233 mediating trafficking of Spike (S protein) [4]. It is efficiently expressed on the cell surface, and  
234 was easily detected in a majority of SARS patients. The XME scores for ORF3a in all the  
235 genomes range from 13.8-19.3, *i.e.* almost 3 times greater than the defined threshold for  
236 functional ORFs.

237 The ORF3b coding sequence overlaps the +1 reading frame of ORF3a and sometimes  
238 extends beyond the start codon of the E gene. In SARS-CoV, it is proposed to antagonize  
239 interferon (IFN) function by modulating the activity of IFN regulatory factor 3 (IRF3) [26].  
240 However, immunohistochemical analyses of tissue biopsies and/or autopsies of SARS-CoV-  
241 infected patients have failed to demonstrate the presence of ORF3b *in vivo*, and the presence of  
242 ORF3b in SARS-CoV-infected Vero E6 cells is the only evidence for the expression of this

243 protein [27]. Furthermore, when mice are infected with mutant SARS-CoV lacking ORF3b, the  
244 deletion viruses grow to levels similar to those of wild-type virus, which demonstrates that  
245 SARS-CoV is able to inhibit the host IFN response without the 3b gene [28].

246 Bat-Cov and Civet-CoV also present ORF3b overlapping the 3' region of ORF3a (start  
247 codon at nt 422), although the sequence of Bat-CoV ORF3b is shorter having a stop codon  
248 within the ORF3a sequence (nt 764). We observe a single *X* motif in the ORF3b reading frame  
249 of length 9 nucleotides (563-571), resulting in low XME scores of 2.6, 1.9 and 1.9 respectively  
250 for Bat-CoV, Civet-CoV and SARS-CoV ORF3b. This ORF is not predicted to be present in  
251 Pangolin-CoV or SARS-CoV-2 due to the introduction of a new stop codon (indicated by \*\*\*  
252 in Fig. 4) and the loss of the *X* motif in the +1 reading frame.

253 However, a completely different ORF is identified in the Pangolin-CoV and SARS-CoV-2  
254 sequences, overlapping the 5' region of ORF3a (132-305). This ORF is not annotated in the  
255 SARS-CoV-2 reference genome (MT072688), but is annotated as ORF3b in the genome of  
256 another SARS-CoV-2 strain isolated from the first U.S. case of COVID-19 (MN985325). The  
257 Pangolin-CoV ORF3b sequence contains one *X* motif in the reading frame of length 9  
258 nucleotides (183-191), but the *X* motif is lost in the SARS-CoV-2 genome.

259

#### 260 *ORF8: a rapidly evolving region of SARS-CoV genomes*

261 Previously shown to be a recombination hotspot, ORF8 is one of the most rapidly evolving  
262 regions among SARS-CoV genomes [29]. Furthermore, the evolution of ORF8 is supposed to  
263 play a significant role in adaptation to the human host following interspecies transmission and  
264 virus replicative efficiency [30].

265 In SARS-CoV isolated from bats and civets (as well as early human isolates of the SARS-  
266 CoV outbreak in 2003: data not shown), ORF8 encodes a single protein of length 122 amino  
267 acids (Fig. 5). However, in SARS-CoV isolated from humans during the peak of the epidemic,

268 there is a 29-nt deletion in the middle of ORF8, resulting in the splitting of ORF8 into two  
269 smaller ORFs, namely ORF8a and ORF8b [31]. ORF8a and ORF8b encode a 39 amino acid  
270 and 84 amino acid polypeptide, respectively. The XME scores in these ORFs are in line with  
271 the known experimental evidence concerning their functions. ORF8a has an XME score of 15.3  
272 in SARS-CoV and anti-p8a antibodies were identified in some patients with SARS [32]. In  
273 contrast, ORF8b has no *X* motifs in the reading frame, and protein 8b was not detected in SARS-  
274 CoV-infected Vero E6 cells [31].

275 It is interesting to note that although Civet-CoV has a full-length ORF8, it has a low XME  
276 score (XME=4.9) compared to Bat-CoV (XME=9.9). Thus, it is tempting to suggest that the  
277 loss of *X* motifs in transmission of the virus from bats to civets is somehow linked to the loss  
278 of ORF8 in the transmission from civets to humans. Both Pangolin-CoV and most SARS-CoV-  
279 2 strains contain the full length ORF8, with XME scores of 23.1 and 12.4 respectively.  
280 However, a 382-nt deletion has been reported recently covering almost the entire ORF8 of  
281 SARS-CoV-2 obtained from eight hospitalized patients in Singapore, that has been  
282 hypothesized to lead to an attenuated phenotype of SARS-CoV-2 [33].

283

#### 284 *Characterization of ORFs overlapping the N gene*

285 The annotation of functional ORFs overlapping the N gene is variable in the different  
286 genomes studied here. In SARS-CoV, only ORF9b has been observed to be translated, probably  
287 *via* a ribosomal leaky scanning mechanism and may have a function during virus assembly  
288 [30,34]. ORF9b limits host cell interferon responses by targeting the mitochondrial-associated  
289 adaptor molecule (MAVS) signalosome. However, some SARS-CoV strains have an additional  
290 ORF9c, annotated as a hypothetical protein (e.g. Genbank:AY274119). For Bat-CoV and  
291 Pangolin-CoV, no overlapping genes are annotated in the corresponding Genbank entries. In  
292 contrast, the Civet-CoV genome is predicted to contain both overlapping genes, ORF9b and

293 ORF9c. Similarly, the annotation of overlapping ORFs for SARS-CoV-2 is different depending  
294 on the strain: the reference strain has no overlapping ORFs of the N gene, while the U.S. strain  
295 has ORF9b and ORF9c (see Methods). ORF9c is described as a short polypeptide (70 amino  
296 acids) dispensable for viral replication, but there is no data yet providing evidence that the  
297 protein is expressed during SARS-CoV-2 infection.

298 Here, we predict that ORF9b and ORF9c are present in all genomes as overlapping ORFs  
299 within the N gene (Fig. 6). Furthermore, Pangolin-CoV may also have an additional ORF, that  
300 we called ORF9d (XME=12.7), in the 3' region of the N gene.

301

### 302 *Origin and evolution of ORF10*

303 ORF10 is proposed as unique to SARS-CoV-2 [35] and codes for a peptide only 38 amino  
304 acids long. There is no data yet providing evidence that the protein is expressed during SARS-  
305 CoV-2 infection. Therefore, we wanted to investigate the potential origin of this protein. New  
306 proteins in viruses can originate from existing proteins acquired through horizontal gene  
307 transfer or through gene duplication for example, or can be generated *de novo*. To determine  
308 whether homologs of ORF10 are present in the other coronavirus genomes, we relaxed the  
309 GOFIX parameters used to predict functional ORFs, and set the minimum ORF length to 60  
310 nucleotides. The predicted ORFs in the different genomes are shown in Fig. 7. The Pangolin-  
311 CoV genome contains a full-length ORF10 with XME=10.4, compared to the SARS-CoV-2  
312 ORF10 with XME=20.2. A truncated version of ORF10 coding 26 amino acids is also detected  
313 in the Bat-CoV, Civet-CoV and SARS-CoV genomes, although this short ORF is probably not  
314 functional. We suggest that the ORF10 of SARS-CoV-2 thus evolved *via* the mutation of a stop  
315 codon (TAA) at nt 76 and the addition of a new *X* motif of length 15 nucleotides in the 3'  
316 region.

317

318 *Novel ORF overlapping the S gene*

319 The GOFIX method predicts a novel ORF, that we called ORFSa, overlapping the RBD  
320 (Receptor Binding Domain) of the S (Spike) ORF in SARS-CoV (XME=7.6) and Civet-CoV  
321 (XME=7.6). ORFSa is found in the +1 frame and codes for a protein with 64 amino acids, as  
322 shown in Fig. 8. As the ORFSa sequence was not present in the Bat-CoV reference genome,  
323 we also searched for the ORF in the genomes of other Bat-CoV strains, and found one  
324 occurrence (XME=6.5) in the strain WIV16 (Genbank:KT444582) (Fig. 8), another bat  
325 coronavirus that is closely related to SARS-CoV [36].

326 To investigate whether the novel ORFSa might be a functional protein in SARS-CoV, we  
327 used BlastP to search the Genbank database for matches to viral proteins. A significant hit was  
328 obtained with a sequence identity of 100% to the protein AAR84376, described as “putative  
329 transmembrane protein 2d” from the genome of SARS coronavirus strain ZJ01 (AY28632). To  
330 further characterize this putative protein, the Phobius web site (phobius.sbc.su.se) was used to  
331 predict transmembrane (TM) helices. Two potential TM helices of nearly twenty amino acids  
332 (residues 6-28 and 42-62) were predicted with a small inter-TM endodomain. Thus, this  
333 potential double-membrane spanning small protein might complement the set of already known  
334 SARS-CoV membrane proteins, namely the Spike (S), membrane (M) and envelope (E)  
335 proteins.

336

## 337 **Discussion**

338 Coronaviruses are complex genomes with high plasticity in terms of gene content. This  
339 feature is thought to contribute to their ability to adapt to specific hosts and to facilitate host  
340 shifts [1]. It is therefore essential to characterize the coding potential of coronavirus genomes.  
341 Here, we used an *ab initio* approach to identify potential functional ORFs in the genomes of a  
342 set of representative SARS or SARS-like coronaviruses. Our method allows comprehensive

343 annotation of all ORFs. Surprisingly, the calculation of *X* motif enrichment is also accurate for  
344 the detection of overlapping genes, even though the codon usage and amino acid composition  
345 of overlapping genes is known to be significantly different from non-overlapping genes [15].

346 We showed that the predictions made by the GOFIX method have high sensitivity and  
347 specificity compared to the known functional ORFs in the well characterized SARS-CoV. For  
348 example, the annotated ORFs that have been described previously as non-functional or  
349 redundant, notably ORF3b and ORF8b, are not predicted to be functional by GOFIX. In  
350 contrast, we identified a putative small ORF overlapping the RBD of the Spike protein in  
351 SARS-CoV, that is conserved in Civet-CoV and Bat-CoV strain WIV16. Protein sequence  
352 analysis predicts that this novel ORF codes for a double-membrane spanning protein.

353 We then used the method GOFIX to compare all putative ORFs in representative genomes,  
354 and showed that most are conserved in all genomes, including the structural proteins (S, E, M  
355 and N) and accessory proteins 3a, 6, 7a, 7b, 9b and 9c. However, a number of ORFs were  
356 predicted to be non-functional, notably ORF8b in SARS-CoV and ORF3b in all genomes. We  
357 also identified potential new ORFs, including ORF9d in Pangolin-CoV and ORF10 in all  
358 genomes.

359 Concerning SARS-CoV-2, to date, the coding potential of SARS-CoV-2 remains partially  
360 unknown, and distinct studies have provided different genome annotations [37-38]. Overall, the  
361 genome of SARS-CoV-2 has 89% nucleotide identity with bat SARS-like-CoV (ZXC21) and  
362 82% with that of human SARS-CoV [38]. Our analysis shows that the genome organization is  
363 conserved, and in particular ORF9b and ORF9c are predicted to be expressed in SARS-CoV-2  
364 genome. As expected, the structural proteins, S, E, M and N are conserved and have similar  
365 XME scores. Here, we have shown that ORF3a, ORF6 and ORF9b in SARS-CoV-2 also have  
366 similar XME scores to SARS-CoV.

367 Previously identified differences include some interferon antagonists and inflammasome  
368 activators encoded by SARS-CoV that are not conserved in SARS-CoV-2, in particular ORF8  
369 in SARS-CoV-2 and ORF8a,b in SARS-CoV, as well as the completely different ORF3b [14].  
370 ORF3b has 0 *X* motifs in SARS-CoV-2 and expression was not observed in recent experiments  
371 aimed at characterizing the functions of SARS-CoV-2 proteins [13]. ORF10 is supposed to be  
372 unique to SARS-CoV-2, however it is also present in the Pangolin-CoV genome and its origin  
373 can be traced back to the Bat-CoV, where a truncated ORF of 26 amino acids, also present in  
374 the civet and human SARS-CoV genomes, can be found. Here, we observe that ORF7a, ORF7b  
375 and ORF9c have reduced XME scores in SARS-CoV-2. It remains to be seen whether these  
376 differences reflect functional divergences between SARS-CoV and SARS-CoV-2.

### 377 **Conclusions**

378 In summary, we have developed a computational method GOFIX to characterize potential  
379 ORFs in virus genomes and applied the method to study the SARS-CoV-2 and related genomes.  
380 Our analysis of ORF coding potential helps to resolve some differences in current genome  
381 annotations. In addition, we suggest that some annotated ORFs may not be functional and  
382 predict novel putative ORFs in some genomes. Our findings contribute to characterizing  
383 sequence properties of accessory genes of SARS coronaviruses, and especially the newly  
384 acquired genes making use of overlapping reading frames.

385

### 386 **Abbreviations**

387 CoV: Coronavirus

388 GOFIX: Gene prediction by Open reading Frame Identification using *X* motifs

389 MERS: Middle East Respiratory Syndrome

390 nt: nucleotide

391 ORF: Open Reading Frame

392 SARS: Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome

393 XME: X Motif Enrichment

394 **Declarations**

395 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

396 Not applicable

397 *Consent for publication*

398 Not applicable

399 *Availability of data and materials*

400 The datasets analysed during the current study are available in the Genbank viral genomes

401 database, <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/viruses/>

402 *Competing interests*

403 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

404 *Funding*

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408 University of Strasbourg.

409 *Authors' contributions*

410 CJM, OP and JDT participated in the conceptualization of the work. CJM and JDT developed

411 the methods and analyzed the data. CM and OP analyzed and interpreted the data. All authors

412 contributed to writing the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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415

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417

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514

515 **Tables**

516

	Description	Genbank accession number
Bat-CoV	Bat SARS-like coronavirus isolate As6526	KY417142
Civet-CoV	Civet SARS coronavirus civet007	AY572034
SARS-CoV	Human severe acute respiratory syndrome-related coronavirus strain hTor02	NC_004718
Pangolin-CoV	Pangolin coronavirus isolate PCoV_GX-P2V	MT072864
SARS-CoV-2	Human severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 isolate Wuhan-Hu-1	MT072688

517 Table 1. Genome sequences selected for the current study. Note that the SARS-CoV strain  
518 hTor02 is from humans infected during the middle and late phases of the SARS epidemic of  
519 2013, and has a deletion of 29 nucleotides in the region of ORF8.

520

Name	Bat-CoV			Name	Civet-CoV			Name	SARS-CoV		
	Start	Stop	Length		Start	Stop	Length		Start	Stop	Length
ORF1a*	265	13398	13134	ORF1a	239	13366	13128	ORF1a	265	13398	13134
ORF1b*	13398	21485	8086	ORF1b	13366	21459	8092	ORF1b	13398	21485	8086
S	21492	25217	3726	S	21466	25233	3768	S	21492	25259	3768
ORF3a	25227	26051	825	ORF3a	25242	26066	825	ORF3a	25268	26092	825
ORF3b	25648	25992	345	ORF3b	25663	26127	465	ORF3b	25689	26153	465
E	26076	26306	231	E	26091	26321	231	E	26117	26347	231
M	26357	27022	666	M	26372	27037	666	M	26398	27063	666
ORF6	27033	27224	192	ORF6	27048	27239	192	ORF6	27074	27265	192
ORF7a	27232	27600	369	ORF7a	27247	27615	369	ORF7a	27273	27641	369



525 \*\* SARS-CoV annotation for ORF9c was propagated from Genbank entry AY274119: SARS-  
526 CoV isolate Tor2, where it is annotated as ORF14.

527 \*\*\* SARS-CoV-2 annotations for ORF3b, ORF7b, ORF9b and ORF9c were propagated from  
528 Genbank entry MN985325: Severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 isolate 2019-  
529 nCoV/USA-WA1/2020.

530

531

	Predicted: YES	Predicted: NO	Total
Known ORF	11	2	13
Unknown ORF	2	10	12
Total	13	12	25
	Sensitivity=0.85	Specificity=0.83	

532 Table 3. Prediction performance of the GOFIX method on the set of known ORFs in the SARS-  
533 CoV genome.

534

Figures

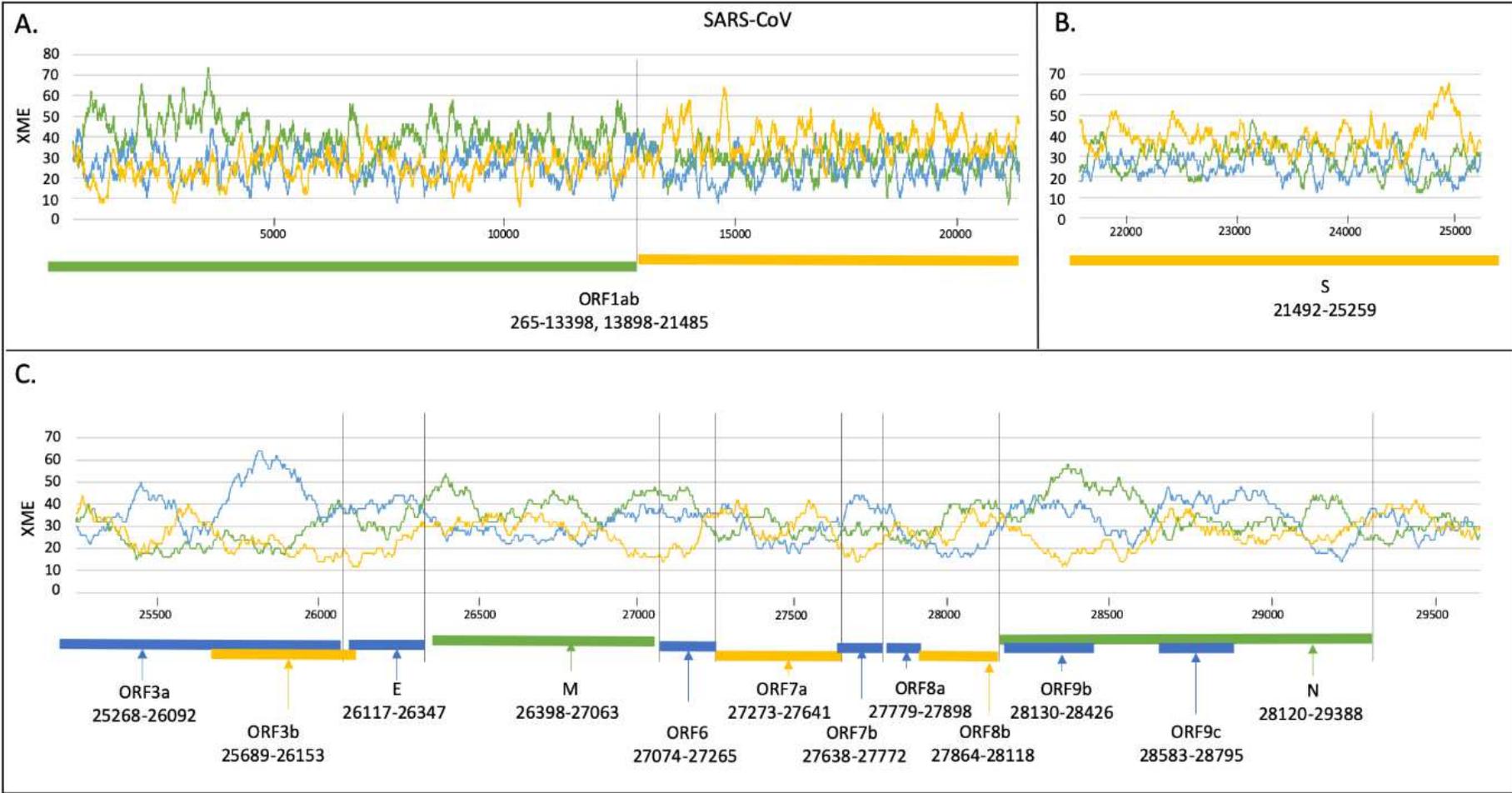


Fig. 1.  $X$  motif enrichment ( $XME_f$ ) scores in the three frames  $f=0, 1$  and  $2$  (green, blue, yellow respectively) of the SARS-CoV genome, using a sliding window of length 150 nucleotides. Genomic organization of known ORFs is shown underneath the plots. **A.** Polyprotein gene ORF1ab. **B.** Spike protein. **C.** C-terminal structural and accessory proteins. The colors used in the enrichment plot and in the boxes representing ORFs (green, blue, yellow) indicate the three frames 0,1 and 2 respectively.

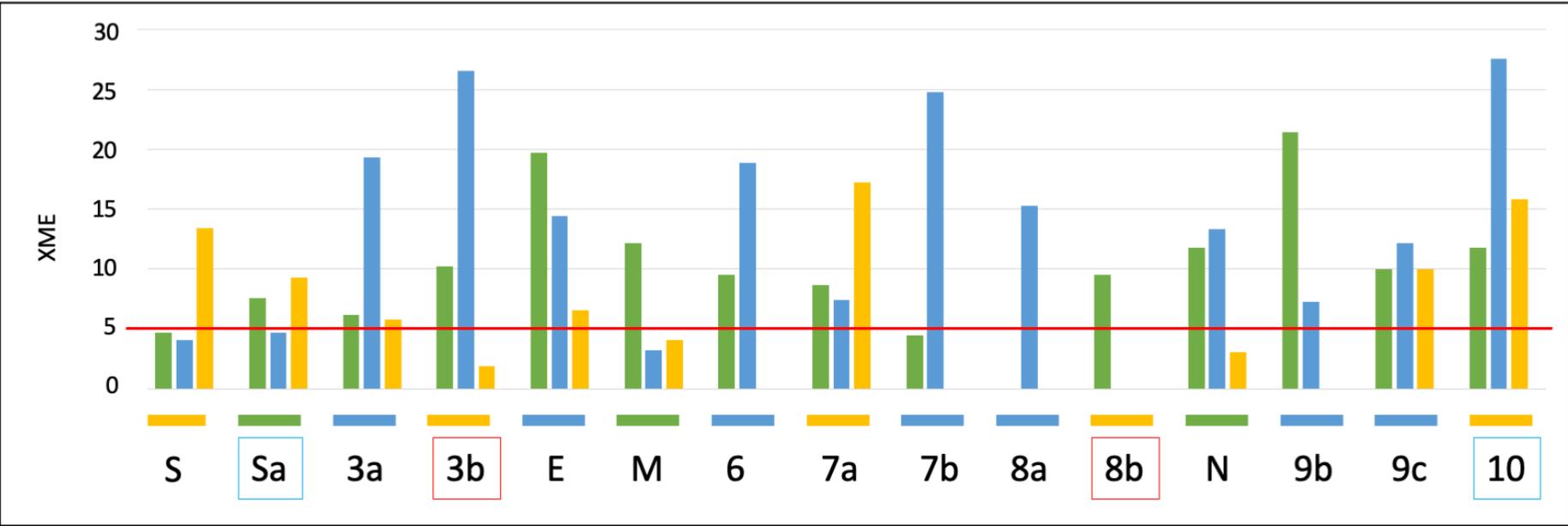


Fig. 2.  $XME_f$  scores calculated by GOFIX for potential ORFs in the 3' terminal region of the SARS-CoV genome, in the three frames  $f=0, 1$  and  $2$  (green, blue, yellow respectively). For clarity, only Genbank annotated ORFs or new ORFs predicted in this work are shown. The red line represents the threshold value  $XME=XME_f=5$  (where  $f$  is the reading frame) for the prediction of a functional ORF. Known ORFs are indicated below the histogram using the color corresponding to the ORF reading frame. Known ORFs not predicted to be functional by GOFIX are outlined in red. Novel ORFs predicted by GOFIX are outlined in blue.

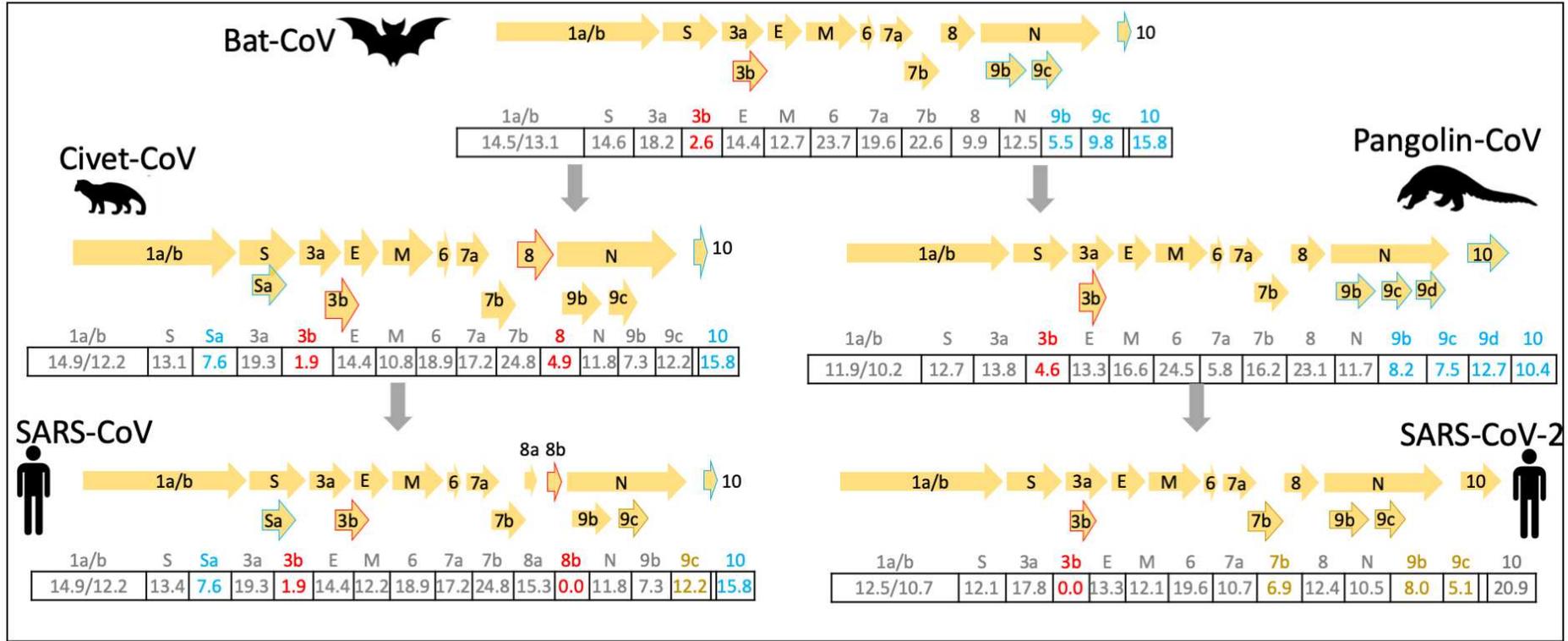


Fig 3. Prediction of ORFs in representative SARS-like coronavirus genomes. A schema is provided for each genome, showing the Genbank annotated ORFs and new ORFs predicted in this work. The numbers in the tables below each schema indicate the XME scores of each ORF. Genbank annotated ORFs that are not predicted to be functional by the GOFIX method are highlighted in red. Novel ORFs predicted by GOFIX are shown in blue. ORFs with conflicting annotations in Genbank, but predicted by GOFIX are shown in brown. Note that ORF3b in Civet-CoV and SARS-CoV is not homologous to ORF3b in Pangolin-CoV and SARS-CoV-2.

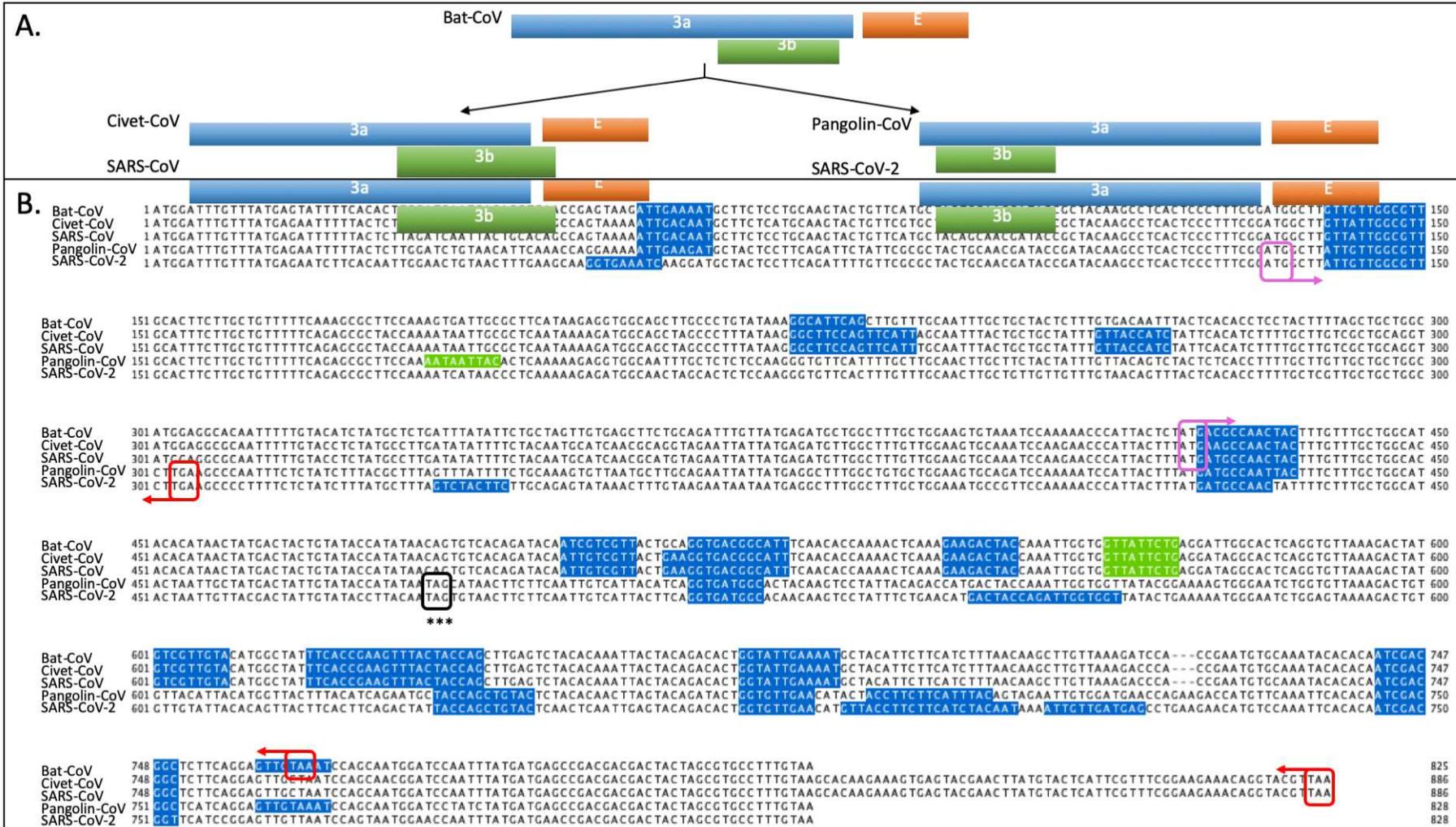


Fig. 4. **A.** Schematic view of genome organization of ORF3a, ORF3b and E gene. **B.** Multiple alignment of ORF3a, ORF3b sequences, with *X* motifs in the reading frame of ORF3a shown in blue. The start and stop codons of the overlapping ORF3b sequences (in the +1 reading frame of ORF3a) are indicated by purple and red boxes respectively. *X* motifs in the reading frame of ORF3b are shown in green.



Fig. 5. **A.** Schematic view of genome organization of ORF8, highlighting the 29-nt deletion in SARS-CoV, resulting in 2 ORFs: ORF8a and ORF8b. **B.** Multiple alignment of ORF8 sequences, with X motifs in the reading frame of ORF3a shown in blue. The start and stop codons of the

SARS-CoV ORF8a and ORF8b sequences are indicated by purple and red boxes respectively. The *X* motif corresponding to the 29-nt deletion is shown in green.

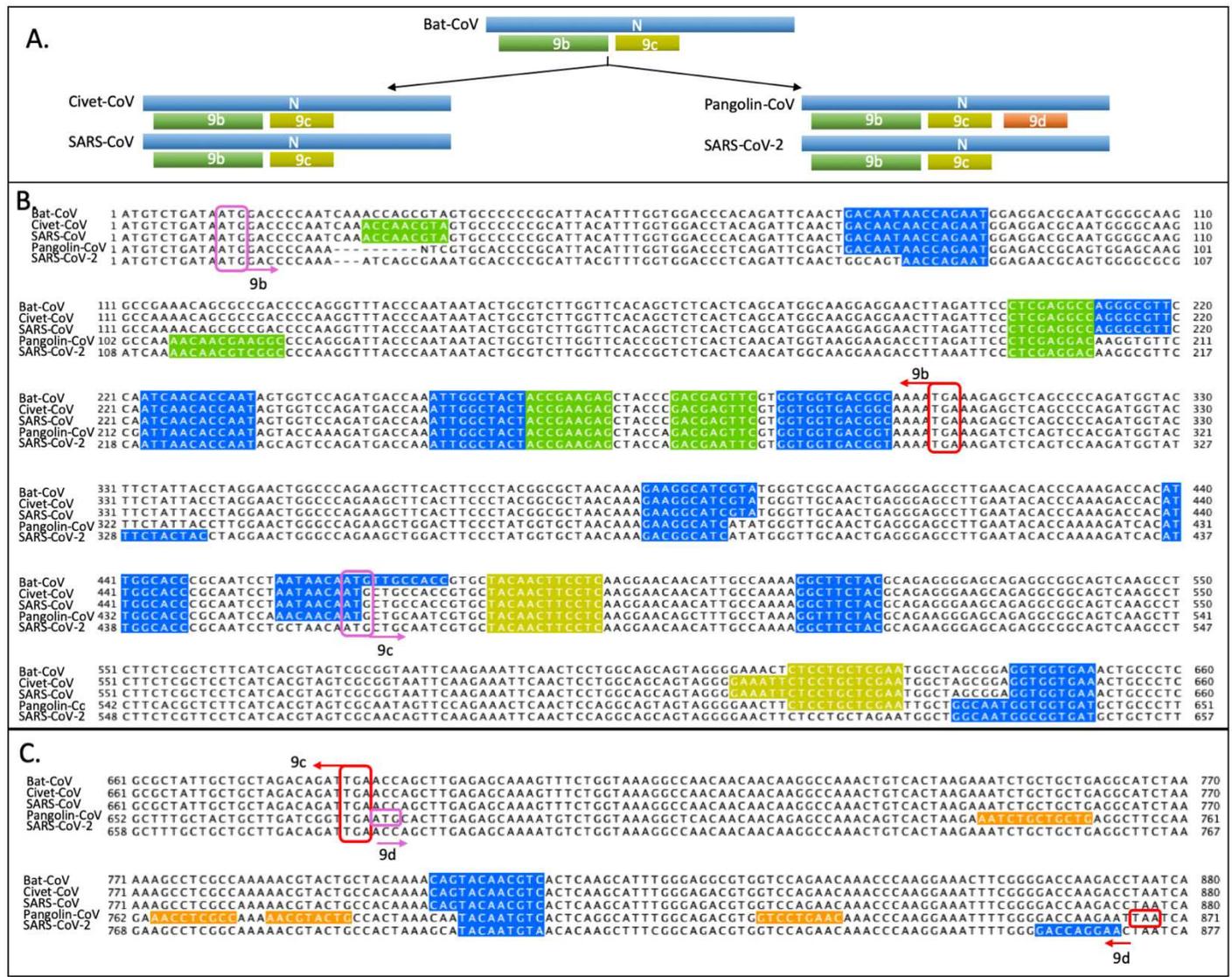


Fig 6. A. Schematic view of genome organization of ORF N, with overlapping genes ORF9b, 9c and the novel predicted 9d. B. Multiple alignment of ORF N sequences, with *X* motifs in the reading frame of ORF N shown in blue, in ORF9b in green, in ORF9c in yellow. Start and stop codons of the overlapping genes are indicated by violet and red boxes, respectively. C. The novel ORF9d predicted in Pangolin-Cov with *X* motifs in the reading frame shown in orange.

Bat-CoV	1 ATGGGCTAT	GTAACGTTTT	GCAATTCGGTTTACGATACATAGTCTACTCTTGTGCAGAATGAATTCTCGTAGCTAAAC	80
Civet-CoV	1 ATGGGCTAT	GTAACGTTTT	GCAATTCGGTTTACGATACATAGTCTACTCTTGTGCAGAATGAATTCTCGTAAC	80
SARS-CoV	1 ATGGGCTAT	GTAACGTTTT	GCAATTCGGTTTACGATACATAGTCTACTCTTGTGCAGAATGAATTCTCGTAAC	80
Pangolin-CoV	1 ATGGGCTAT	GTAACGTTTT	GCTTTTCCGTTTACGATACATAGTCTACTCTTGTGCAGAATGAATTCTCGTAGCTAATAC	80
SARS-CoV-2	1 ATGGGCTATATAA	AACGTTTT	GCTTTTCCGTTTACGATATATAGTCTACTCTTGTGCAGAATGAATTCTCGTAACTACAT	80
Bat-CoV	81 AGCACAAGTAGGTTTAGTTAACTTTAATCTCACATAG			117
Civet-CoV	81 AGCACAAGTAGGTTTAGTTAACTTTAATCTCACATAG			117
SARS-CoV	81 AGCACAAGTAGGTTTAGTTAACTTTAATCTCACATAG			117
Pangolin-CoV	81 AGCACAAGTAGGTATAGTTAACTTTAATCTCACATAG			117
SARS-CoV-2	81 AGCACAA	GTAGATGAGTTAAC	TTTAATCTCACATAG	117

Fig 7. Multiple alignment of ORF10 sequences, with *X* motifs in the reading frame shown in blue. Stop codons are indicated by red boxes.

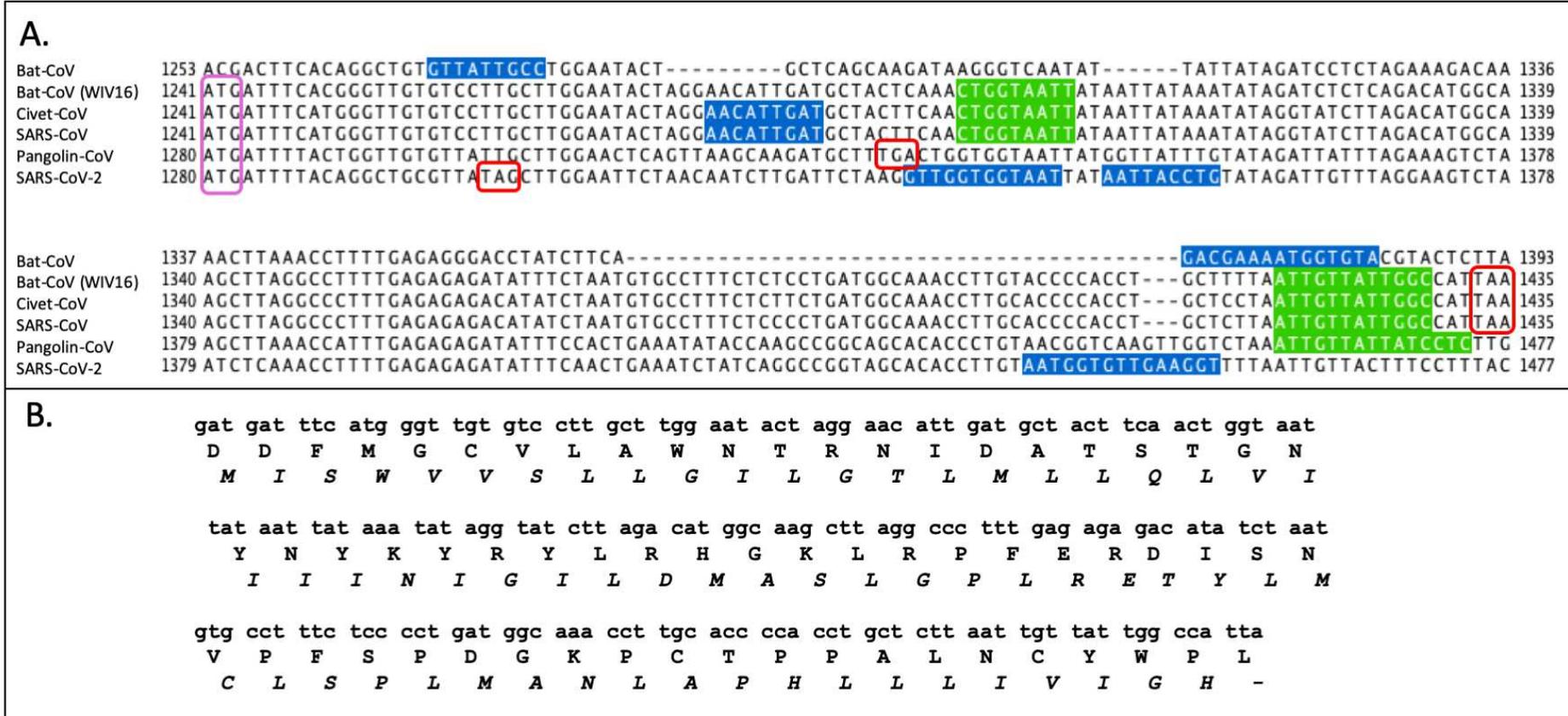
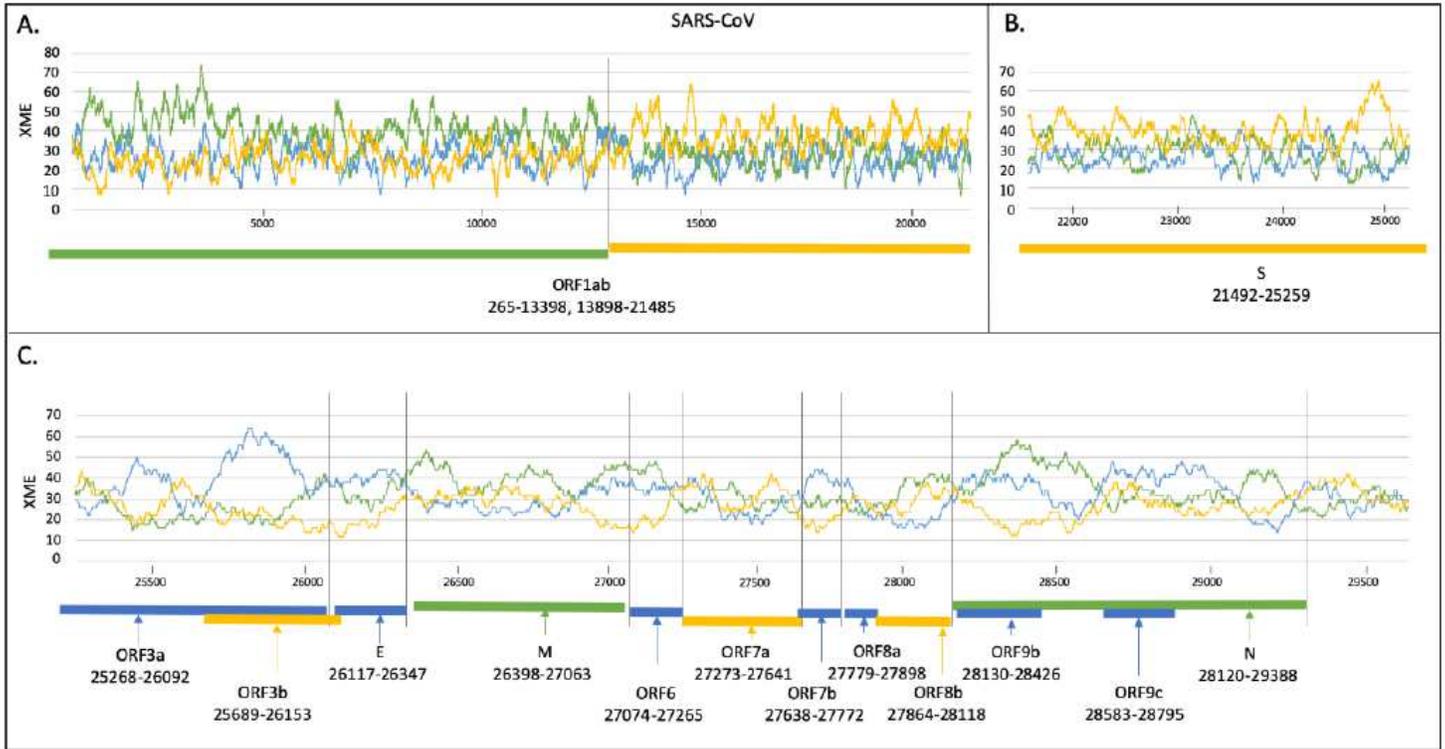


Fig. 8. A. Multiple alignment of ORFSa sequences, with X motifs in the reading frame of ORF S shown in blue and ORFSa in green. Start and stop codons of the overlapping genes are indicated by violet and red boxes, respectively. Bat-CoV (WIV16) sequence is from Genbank:KT444582.

B. Nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the novel ORF predicted to overlap the Spike protein in the genome of SARS-CoV. The nucleotide

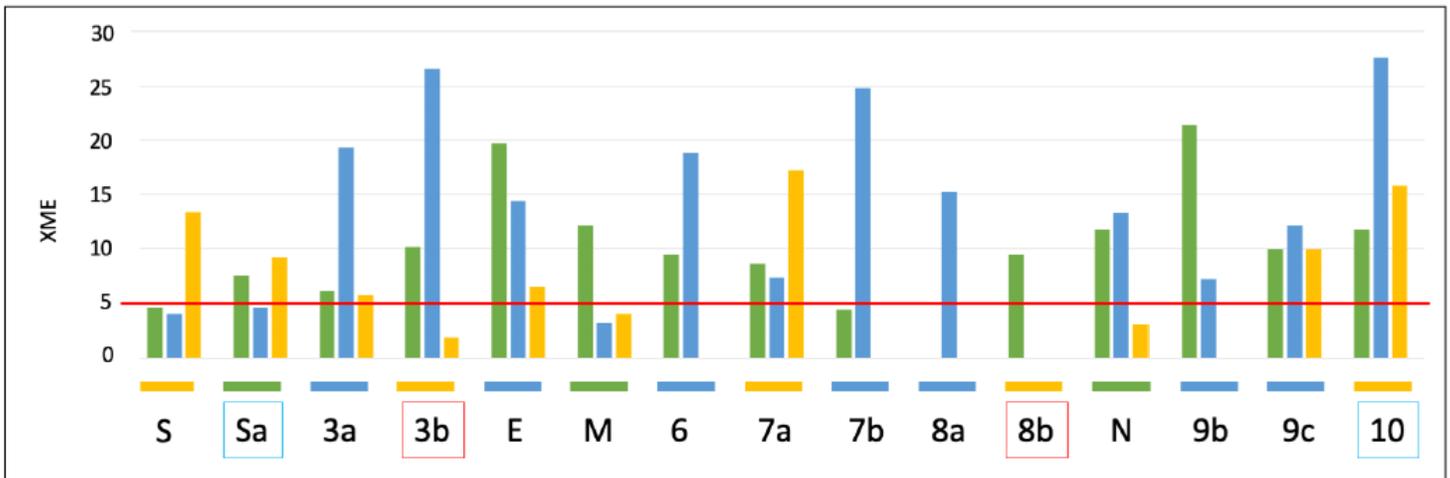
sequence segment (SARS-CoV:nt 22732-22926) encodes part (residues 414-478) of the RBD (residues 323-502) of the Spike protein (normal characters), while the reading frame +1 encodes a potential overlapping ORF (*italics*), which we named Sa.

# Figures



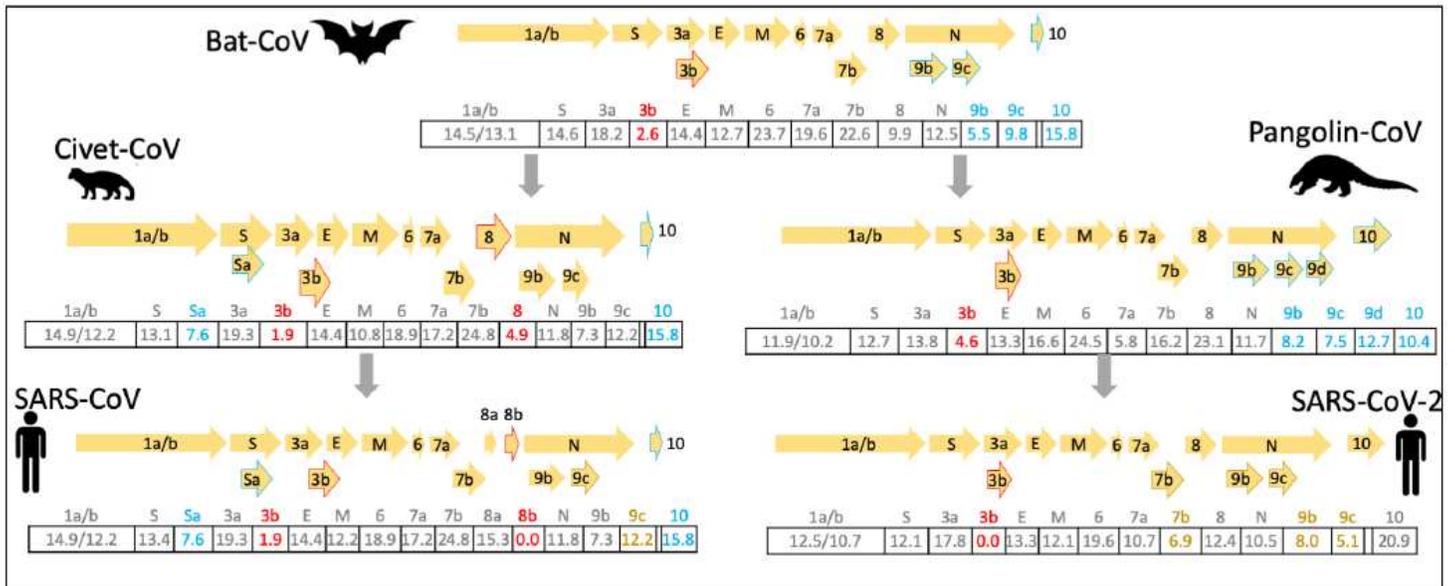
**Figure 1**

X motif enrichment (XME<sub>f</sub>) scores in the three frames  $f = 0, 1$  and  $2$  (green, blue, yellow respectively) of the SARS-CoV genome, using a sliding window of length 150 nucleotides. Genomic organization of known ORFs is shown underneath the plots. A. Polyprotein gene ORF1ab. B. Spike protein. C. C-terminal structural and accessory proteins. The colors used in the enrichment plot and in the boxes representing ORFs (green, blue, yellow) indicate the three frames 0,1 and 2 respectively.



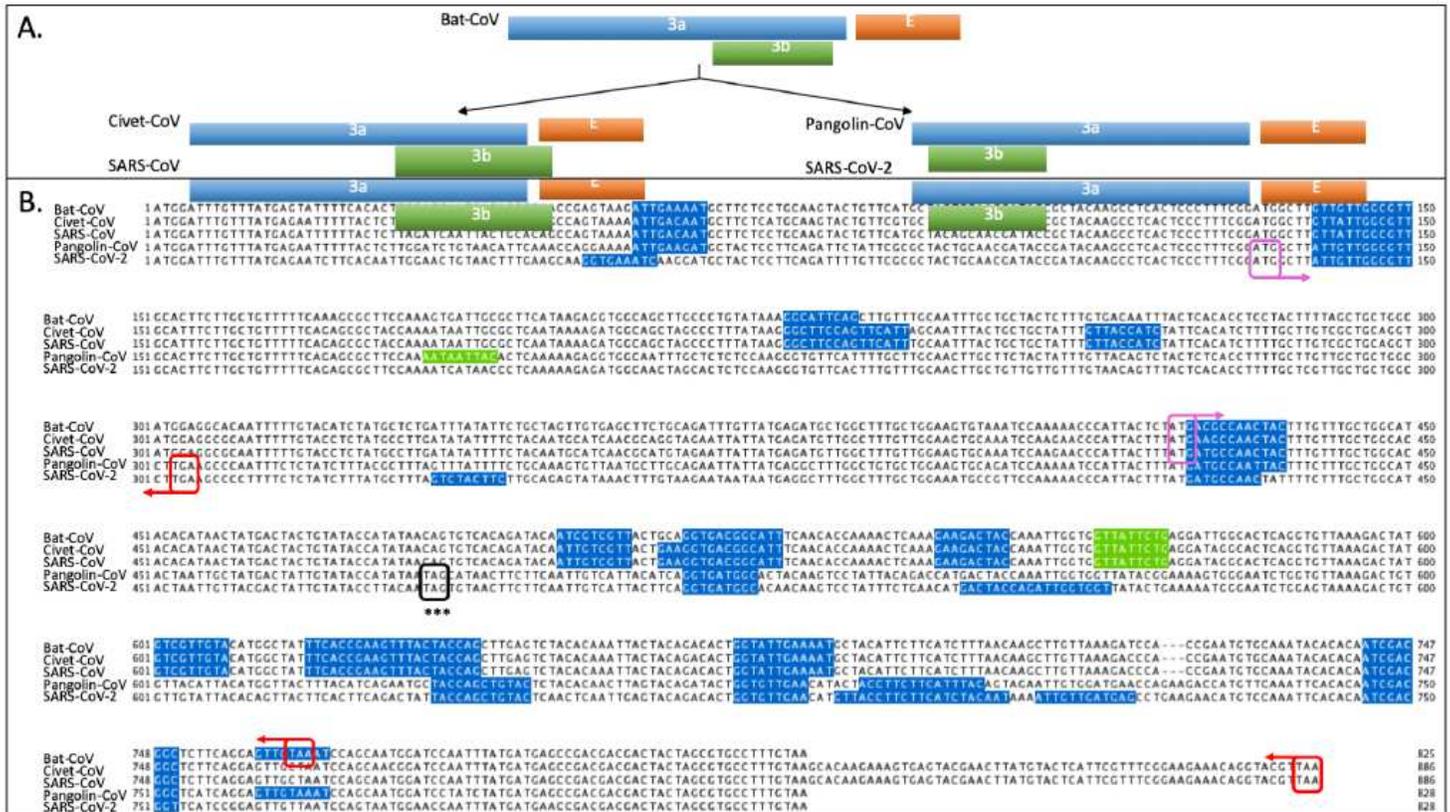
**Figure 2**

XMEf scores calculated by GOFIX for potential ORFs in the 3' terminal region of the SARS-CoV genome, in the three frames  $f = 0, 1$  and  $2$  (green, blue, yellow respectively). For clarity, only Genbank annotated ORFs or new ORFs predicted in this work are shown. The red line represents the threshold value  $XME = XME_f = 5$  (where  $f$  is the reading frame) for the prediction of a functional ORF. Known ORFs are indicated below the histogram using the color corresponding to the ORF reading frame. Known ORFs not predicted to be functional by GOFIX are outlined in red. Novel ORFs predicted by GOFIX are outlined in blue.



**Figure 3**

Prediction of ORFs in representative SARS-like coronavirus genomes. A schema is provided for each genome, showing the Genbank annotated ORFs and new ORFs predicted in this work. The numbers in the tables below each schema indicate the XME scores of each ORF. Genbank annotated ORFs that are not predicted to be functional by the GOFIX method are highlighted in red. Novel ORFs predicted by GOFIX are shown in blue. ORFs with conflicting annotations in Genbank, but predicted by GOFIX are shown in brown. Note that ORF3b in Civet-CoV and SARS-CoV is not homologous to ORF3b in Pangolin-CoV and SARS-CoV-2.



**Figure 4**

A. Schematic view of genome organization of ORF3a, ORF3b and E gene. B. Multiple alignment of ORF3a, ORF3b sequences, with X motifs in the reading frame of ORF3a shown in blue. The start and stop codons of the overlapping ORF3b sequences (in the +1 reading frame of ORF3a) are indicated by purple and red boxes respectively. X motifs in the reading frame of ORF3b are shown in green.





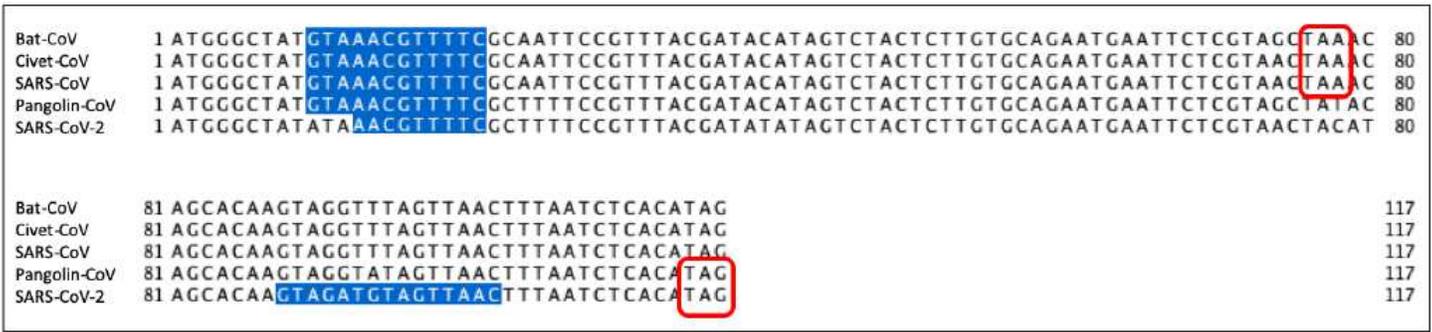


Figure 7

Multiple alignment of ORF10 sequences, with X motifs in the reading frame shown in blue. Stop codons are indicated by red boxes.

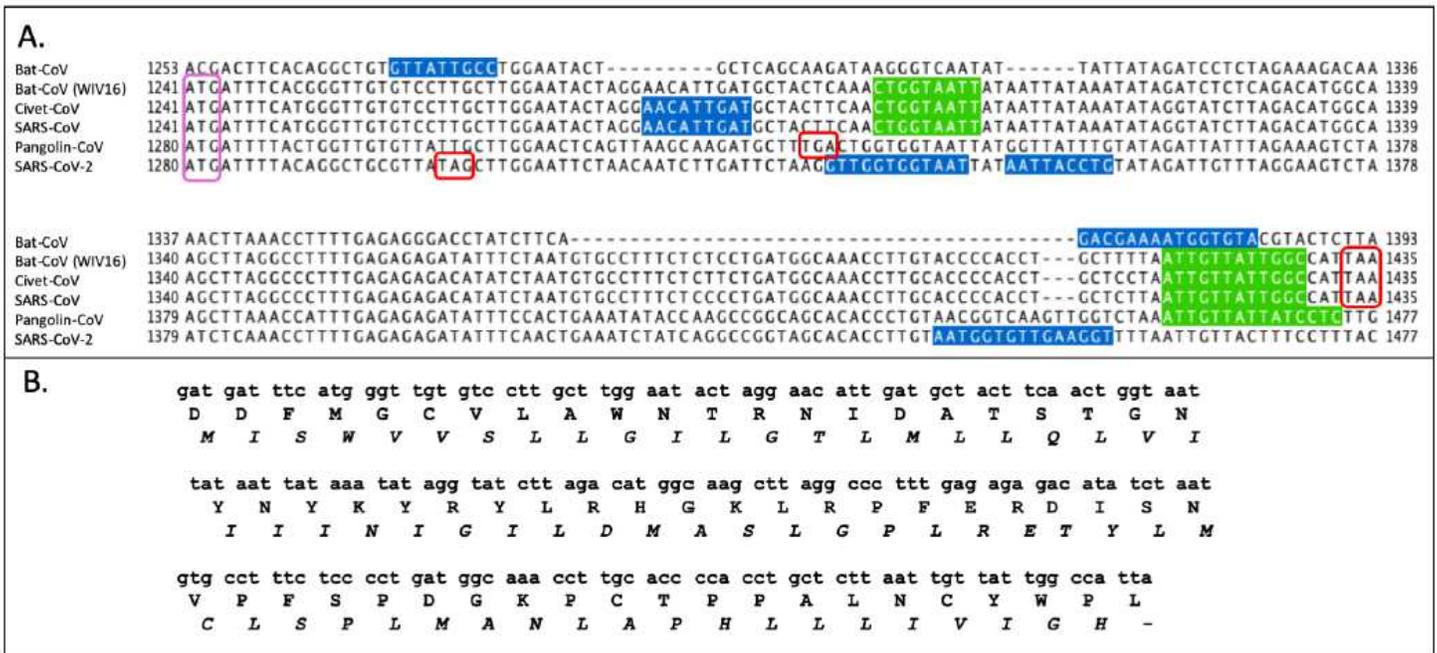


Figure 8

A. Multiple alignment of ORFSa sequences, with X motifs in the reading frame of ORF S shown in blue and ORFSa in green. Start and stop codons of the overlapping genes are indicated by violet and red boxes, respectively. Bat-CoV (WIV16) sequence is from Genbank:KT444582. B. Nucleotide and amino acid sequences of the novel ORF predicted to overlap the Spike protein in the genome of SARS-CoV. The nucleotide sequence segment (SARS-CoV:nt 22732-22926) encodes part (residues 414-478) of the RBD (residues 323-502) of the Spike protein (normal characters), while the reading frame +1 encodes a potential overlapping ORF (italics), which we named Sa.