

Table 1: Species found PCR-positive for SARSr-CoVs in our R01, with sample sizes and prevalence estimates.

Bat Species	Individuals tested	# positive	SARSr-CoV mean prev.	SARSr-CoV prev. range
<i>Rhinolophus sinicus</i>	1,328	113	8.5%	7.1 – 10.1%
<i>R. macrotis</i>	70	3	4.3%	0.9 - 12%
<i>R. ferrumequinum</i>	406	12	3.0%	1.5 – 5.1%
<i>R. spp.</i>	331	10	3.0%	1.5 – 5.5%
<i>R. affinis</i>	792	7	0.9%	0.4 – 1.8%
<i>R. pusillus</i>	1,023	8	0.8%	0.3 – 1.5%
<i>Aselliscus stoliczkanus</i>	269	2	0.7%	0.1 – 2.7%
<i>Hipposideros pratti</i>	323	2	0.6%	0.1 – 2.2%
<i>H. armiger</i>	1,188	1	0.1%	0.0 – 0.5%

We identified one cave system (the “Jinning Cave”) in Yunnan Province that harbors *Rhinolophus* spp. bats with diverse SARSr-CoVs, including some with S proteins able to use human ACE2 as entry receptors. Bats in this cave carried SARSr-CoVs with **all unique genetic elements of the SARS-CoV outbreak virus**, suggesting that this site may be a potential public health risk (29).

We used a novel phylogeographic analysis, Maximum Clade Credibility (MCC) tree, to reconstruct the geographic areas of evolutionary origin for β -CoVs that we sequenced. Results suggest that: 1) Guangdong Province is the ancestral center of diversity of β -CoVs (data not shown); 2) Guizhou is the likely origin of the HKU3-related clade (lineage 1); and 3) Guangdong and Guangxi are the likely ancestral origins of the SARS-CoV outbreak sequences (lineage 2)

(Fig. 3). Despite our intensive sampling at some sites, around half of the 20 *Rhinolophus* spp. we identified were captured at sample sizes below the minimum required to detect SARSr-CoVs at prevalences we found ($n=110$, power 80%), and 5 others were SARSr-CoV negative in our study. To estimate sampling gaps, we used a viral ‘mark-recapture’ approach we previously published (36, 37). Results suggest we are approaching saturation of CoV strain discovery at some sites, whereas other sites contain rich pools of SARSr-CoVs that remain undiscovered (Fig. 4). **In the current proposal**, we have used these analyses to estimate geographic and species-specific sampling targets **to more effectively identify new strains and CoV lineages needed to support experimental infection studies and risk assessment.**

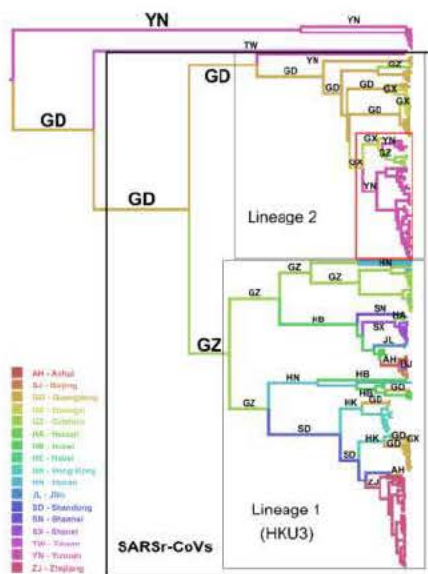
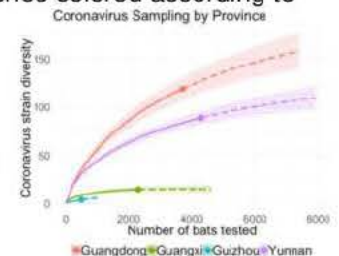


Fig.3 (left): MCC phylogeny of lineage B β -CoVs, including SARSr-CoVs (black box). Lineage 1 includes HKU3-related CoVs, lineage 2 includes SARS-CoV outbreak strains and close relatives (red box). Branches colored according to province of inferred ancestral origin (Guangdong GD, Yunnan YN, Guizhou, GZ).

Fig. 4 (right): Estimates of SARSr-CoV strain diversity in the bats we sampled (strain defined as >10% sequence divergence in RdRp gene). GD and YN harbor highest CoV diversity, but discovery has not yet saturated. We estimate proposed additional sampling of 5,000 bats will identify >80% of remaining β -CoV strains in bat hosts from these regions.



In vitro & in vivo characterization of SARSr-CoV potential for human infection

We conducted *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments to characterize the pathogenic potential of novel SARSr-CoVs. We isolated three SARSr-CoVs from bat feces: WIV1, WIV16 and Rs4874, with S protein sequences that diverged from SARS-CoV by 3% to 7% (17, 22, 29). We conducted full-length genome sequencing of 12 other novel SARSr-CoVs from the Jinning Cave, some highly similar to outbreak SARS-CoV in the most variable genes: N-terminal domain and receptor binding domain (RBD) of the S gene, ORF8 and ORF3 (29). Using our reverse genetics system, we constructed chimeric viruses with SARSr-CoV WIV1 backbone and the S gene of different variants, including WIV1-Rs4231S and WIV1-Rs7327S. All 3 SARSr-CoV isolates and the two chimeric viruses replicated efficiently in Vero E6 cells and in HeLa cells expressing hACE2, but not in HeLa cells that don't express ACE2 (17, 22, 29) (Fig. 5a). In collaboration with Ralph Baric (UNC), we used the SARS-CoV reverse genetics system (38) to generate a chimeric virus with a mouse-adapted SARS-CoV