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2
3 HOST RANGE OF MAMMALIAN ORTHOREOVIRUS TYPE 3 WIDENING TO
4 ALPINE CHAMOIS

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52 Abstract

53

54 Mammalian orthoreoviruses (MRV) type 3 have been recently identified in human and
55 several animal hosts, highlighting the apparent lack of species barriers. Here we report
56 the identification and genetic characterization of MRVs strains in alpine chamois, one of
57 the most abundant wild ungulate in the Alps. Serological survey was also performed by
58 MRV neutralization test in chamois population during five consecutive years (2008-
59 2012). Three novel MRVs were isolated on cell culture from chamois lung tissues. No
60 respiratory or other clinical symptoms neither lung macroscopic lesions were observed in
61 the chamois population. MRV strains were classified as MRV-3 within the lineage III,
62 based on S1 phylogeny, and were closely related to Italian strains identified in dog, bat
63 and diarrheic pig. The full genome sequence was obtained by next-generation sequencing
64 and phylogenetic analyses showed that other segments were more similar to MRVs of
65 different geographic locations, serotypes and hosts, including human, highlighting
66 genome reassortment and lack of host specific barriers. By using serum neutralization
67 test, a high prevalence of MRV-3 antibodies was observed in chamois population
68 throughout the monitored period, showing an endemic level of infection and suggesting
69 a self-maintenance of MRV and/or a continuous spill-over of infection from other animal
70 species.

71 Keywords: Orthoreovirus, Ruminant, Chamois, Lung, Phylogenetic analysis,
72 Seroprevalence

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74 Highlights

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76 MRV-3 has been identified from lung tissues of alpine chamois in Italian Alps.

77 Virus belongs to lineage III clustering with strains from dog, bat and diarrheic pig.

78 Whole genome sequence highlighted reassortment and lack of host specific barriers.

79 No respiratory symptoms neither lung macroscopic lesions were observed.

80 High seroprevalence was observed in chamois population during a five-years survey.

81 1. Introduction

82 Mammalian Orthoreoviruses (MRV) have a worldwide distribution with a wide host
83 range including humans, livestock, companion animals and wildlife (Qin et al., 2017 and
84 references therein).

85 MRV species includes three serotypes, according to the capacity of type-specific antisera
86 to neutralize virus infectivity, inhibit hemagglutination and based on molecular analysis
87 of S1 gene (Day, 2009). A putative MRV-4 has been also proposed (Attoui et al., 2001).

88 MRVs were traditionally associated to asymptomatic or mild respiratory and enteric
89 infections (Tyler, 2001). Nevertheless, in recent years, a variety of clinical contexts
90 caused by MRVs have been reported both in human and mammalian hosts. To date,
91 MRV-2 and 3 have been identified in human cases of respiratory infections, encephalitis
92 and diarrhea (Tyler et al., 2004; Chua et al., 2008; Ouattara et al., 2011, Steyer et al.,
93 2013). Moreover, MRV-3, alone or in association with other pathogens, contributed to
94 enteric disease in pigs in North America, Asia and Europe (Zhang et al., 2011;
95 Thimmasandra Narayanappa et al., 2015; Lelli et al., 2016; Qin et al., 2017).

96 Concerning wildlife, several investigations highlighted MRV infections in bats, with
97 MRV-3 as the most prevalent type in Europe (Kohl et al., 2012; Lelli et al., 2013; Naglič
98 et al., 2018). MRVs are known to be variable viruses and genome reassortment have been
99 detected in MRV-1 and MRV-2 strains from bats with reassortment involving human and
100 animal species strains (Lelli et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). More recently, MRV-3
101 isolated in pigs also showed reassortment among different bat MRV types (Qin et al.,
102 2017).

103 Because of the apparent lack of species barriers (Steyer et al., 2013; Li et al., 2016), there
104 is an increasing interest and concern about the spread of MRVs in human and animal
105 hosts and a zoonotic transmission could likely occur (Chua et al., 2011; Lelli et al., 2016).

106 Aims of this study were: i) to identify and genetically characterize MRVs strains in
107 chamois (*Rupicapra r. rupicapra*) by virus isolation, electron microscopy and molecular
108 biology techniques and ii) to define seroprevalence and clarify the epidemiology of MRV-
109 3 infection in chamois in Italian Alps by a serological survey performed during five
110 consecutive years.

111

112 2. Materials and Methods

113 2.1 Study Area and sampling

114 The study was performed in north-western Italian Alps (Verbano-Cusio-Ossola province)
115 where wild ruminants such as chamois, roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*), red deer (*Cervus*
116 *elaphus*) and ibex (*Capra ibex*) are present. Furthermore, domestic ruminant herds graze
117 alpine pastures in this area during summer season. The characteristics of the area are
118 particularly favourable for chamois, which is the most abundant among wild ungulates
119 with 6.6 individuals/100 ha, whereas roe deer are present with 2.6 individuals/100 ha, red
120 deer with 1.8 individuals/100 ha and ibex with 114 individuals in the whole area, as
121 estimated by census activity performed during the investigation period.

122 Chamois are legally selective-hunted during the period September-October and in
123 accordance with Italian Law (N. 157 of 11/02/1992), hunters must carry culled wild
124 ungulates to the control centres, where age, sex and morpho-biometric measurements are
125 registered. Gross lesions inspection of carcass and organs are also performed.

126 Blood samples, collected from yearling and adult animals from major blood vessels or
127 heart clot by hunters during the bleeding of carcasses, were centrifuged and serum was
128 stored at -20°C until further processing. Lung samples were collected from yearlings,
129 more susceptible to infectious agents, during post-mortem macroscopic inspection and

130 stored at -20°C for 1-2 weeks in the control center facility and subsequently transferred
131 at - 80°C to the laboratory until further processing. Blood (n=102) and lung samples
132 (n=87) were collected during five (2008–2012) and four (2009–2012) hunting seasons,
133 respectively. Samples were obtained only from legally hunted animals and animals were
134 not culled expressly for this study.

135 2.2 Viral isolation

136 Lung samples were homogenized, centrifuged and the supernatant was inoculated in 24
137 well plates in subconfluent monolayers of Madin Darby Bovine Kidney (MDBK ATCC
138 CCL-22) cells, maintained in minimal essential medium (MEM) with 1% L-glutamine
139 200 mM, 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, 2.5 µg/mL fungizone and 10%
140 of fetal bovine serum (FBS), free of antibodies to bovine herpes virus-1, bovine
141 respiratory syncytial virus, parainfluenza 3 virus and free of both virus and antibodies to
142 bovine viral diarrhea virus. The inoculated plates were incubated at 37°C in 5% CO₂ and
143 after a 1-2 hours adsorption period the cell cultures were rinsed and maintenance medium
144 was added. The cell cultures were observed daily for cytopathic effect (CPE) for 6 days.
145 Two blind passages were made if no CPE was observed, the cell cultures were scraped
146 and vigorously mixed with culture medium and used for inoculation of fresh monolayers.

147 2.3 Negative staining electron microscopy

148 The supernatant fluids from cell cultures showing CPE were submitted to negative
149 staining electron microscopy (nsEM) using the Airfuge method (Lavazza et al., 1990).
150 Grids were stained with 2% NaPT, pH 6.8 for 1.5 minutes and examined at 19-30000x
151 by using a Tecnai G2 Spirit TEM (FEI, Eindhoven, The Nederland) operating at 100 kV.
152 Viral particles were identified based on their morphological characteristics.

153 2.4 RT-PCR, sequence analysis and phylogeny

154 Viral RNA was extracted from lysates of cell cultures showing CPE using TRIZOL[®] LS
155 reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.
156 The RNA was resuspended in 10 µl of DPEC water. The eluted RNA was used for
157 retrotranscription using QIAamp One-For-All Nucleic Acid kit (Qiagen, Mississauga,
158 Ont) and a PCR assay was performed for the detection of MRV using primer pairs L1-
159 rv5/L1-rv6 (Leary et al., 2002) and S1-R1F/S1-R1R, S1-R2F/S1-R2R, S1-R3F/S1-R3R
160 (Decaro et al., 2005).

161 Amplicons of the expected sizes were purified and sent for outsource sequencing
162 (Primm). Sequences were aligned with MRV representative reference strains and other
163 sequences retrieved from GenBank and used to build the phylogenetic trees. Sequences
164 were aligned using Clustal X; manual editing was performed with Bioedit software
165 version 7.0 (freely available at <http://www.mbio.ncsu.edu/bioedit/bioedit.html>).
166 Phylogeny was estimated by the neighbor-joining algorithm (NJ) using MEGA7 (Kumar,
167 et al., 2016). The robustness of the tree topologies was evaluated after 1000 bootstrap
168 replicates.

169 The full genome sequence of one representative sequence of MRV from Italian chamois
170 (id. 84407) was determined starting from fetal monkey kidney cell culture (MARC 145 -
171 BS CL 127). Libraries were constructed from total RNA sample using the TruSeq RNA
172 Library Prep Kit v.2 (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) according the manufacturer's
173 protocol with the exception that the initial poly A enrichment step was skipped. Libraries
174 were sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq Instrument using Miseq reagent nano kit v.2 (300
175 cycles) (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). To obtain consensus viral sequences reads
176 were *de novo* assembled and mapped to reference genome segments retrieved from
177 Genbank using CLC genomic Workbench v.11.0.1 (Qiagen, Milan, Italy).

178 The nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of all genome segments were
179 compared for similarity against all sequences available from GenBank using BLAST
180 analysis. The phylogenetic trees, generated by the neighbor-joining method, were
181 constructed for each genome segment.

182 The deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the S1 gene of chamois MRV was aligned with
183 the reference strain T3/human/Ohio/Dearing/1955 and selected Italian MRV-3 strains.

184 2.5 Serological screening

185 Sera were tested by serum neutralization test (SNT) against MRV Type 3 strain Abney
186 (ATCC VR-232). Moreover, a subset of sera was tested against chamois MRV field
187 strains. Two-fold serial dilutions of heat inactivated serum in duplicate were mixed with
188 equal volumes of virus containing 100 TCID₅₀. SNT was performed onto MDBK cells,
189 maintained in MEM supplemented as previously described and with 10% of FBS. The
190 plates were incubated at 37°C with 5% of CO₂ for 72 hours. SN titre was defined as the
191 highest serum dilution or proportionate distance between two dilutions able to inhibit
192 virus replication, and was calculated according to Reed and Muench method (Reed &
193 Muench, 1938). A titre > 4 was defined as positive.

194 2.6 Statistical analysis

195 Serological data were analysed with statistical software (IBM® SPSS®, Version 20). For
196 statistical purposes, the distribution of the frequencies of different variables (age and sex
197 classes, date and place of culling) were compared with One-Way ANOVA test.
198 Significance was accepted for p values <0.05.

199

200 3. Results

201 3.1 Virological tests

202 Three CPE positive samples were detected on MDBK cells from a total of 87 lungs tested.
203 CPE, giving evidence of virus growth, was observed at the second blind passage for two
204 samples and at the third passage for the remaining one.

205 NsEM performed on supernatants of the infected cell cultures revealed the presence of
206 typical inner and outer icosahedral, non-enveloped capsids of approximately 70 nm in
207 diameter characteristic of reovirus (figure 1). MRV identification was confirmed for all
208 CPE positive samples by RT-PCR for L1 and S1 fragments.

209 The three MRV positive lungs were detected among 19 samples collected in 2009. MRV
210 positive yearlings were two female (id. 83829, 84407) and one male (id. 84406) culled in
211 September 2009 from different localities. No macroscopic lesions were observed in MRV
212 positive and negative lung tissues and no clinical respiratory symptoms were reported in
213 chamois population.

214 3.2 Sequence analysis and phylogeny

215 The phylogenetic analysis based on L1 confirmed MRV identification (figure 2). Based
216 on S1 phylogeny, the novel chamois MRV strains were classified as MRV-3 within the
217 lineage III, closely related to Italian strains identified in dog (Decaro et al., 2005), bat
218 (Lelli et al., 2013) and swine (Lelli et al., 2016) (figure 3). Pair-wise nucleotide
219 comparisons of the three chamois MRV strains showed a 100% and 99% identity of L1
220 and S1 segments, respectively.

221 The results analysis showing the highest nucleotide and amino acid identities for each
222 genome segment against publicly available sequences from GenBank are reported in
223 Table 1. The Italian chamois strain was highly similar to MRV-3 strains not only
224 according to S1 segment but also based on L1, L3, M1, S3 and S4 segments (97.5-99.4

225 % nucleotide and 98.6-100% amino acid identities). These MRV-3 similar strains were
226 identified from different bat species in Italy and Slovenia, masked palm civet and pig in
227 China, and mouse in France. The L2 segment was more similar to MRV-1 strains
228 identified in a bat in Slovenia whereas M2, M3 and S2 were similar to a MRV-2 strain
229 identified in human in France. Phylogenetic trees on segments other than L1 and S1
230 confirmed these results (figure S1).

231 The comparison of the deduced amino acid sequences of the σ 1 protein encoded by S1
232 gene of our chamois MRV strain with that of the reference strain
233 T3/human/Ohio/Dearing/1955, revealed that the sequence NLAIRLP, representing amino
234 acids 198-204 and constituting a binding site for sialic acid, was conserved (figure 4).
235 Polymorphisms at amino acid 249 have been found to affect the susceptibility of MRV-3
236 σ 1 protein to cleavage by intestinal proteases. Our representative Italian chamois
237 orthoreovirus encoded an isoleucine residue at amino acid 249, which is characteristic of
238 all MRV-3 strains with protease-resistant σ 1 proteins and is required for efficient viral
239 growth as well as migration to secondary replication sites, including the CNSs (Chappell
240 et al., 1998). Two amino acid residues (340D and 419E) have been implicated in the
241 neurotropism of orthoreoviruses (Bassel-Duby et al., 1986; Kaye et al., 1986) and both
242 residues were conserved in the Italian chamois orthoreovirus.

243 3.3 Serology

244 The serological investigation showed an overall MRV-3 prevalence of 56.60 % (C.I. 95%
245 47.10-65.64) in chamois population during 2008–2012 period, with a prevalence of 47.36
246 % and 61.19 % in yearlings and adult chamois respectively. Positive sera were detected
247 throughout the whole monitoring period and both in yearlings and adult animals (table 2).
248 SN antibody titres, ranging from 1:11 to 1:91, showed no significant differences among

249 years and between yearlings and adult chamois. Sera tested against MRV chamois strains
250 showed similar SNT titers compared to the type 3 reference strain (table 3).

251

252 4. Discussion

253 In the present study, we report the identification and genetic characterization of MRV
254 strains in Alpine chamois, one of the most abundant wild ungulate in Italian Alps
255 (Carnevali et al., 2009). MRV strains were isolated from lung tissues of three apparently
256 healthy hunted animals in north-western Italian Alps and were classified as MRV-3,
257 according to S1 phylogeny.

258 The pathogen role of MRV-3 is still controversial, as the virus is considered responsible
259 for either asymptomatic or symptomatic infections, alone or in association with other
260 pathogens in human (Lewandowska et al., 2018) and animals (Lelli et al., 2016; Li et al.,
261 2016). Concerning our investigation, no respiratory or other clinical symptoms neither
262 lung macroscopic lesions were reported in the chamois population. Nevertheless, we
263 cannot exclude mild subclinical symptoms or sporadic severe infections, because
264 comprehensive observations of population were performed only during annual census.

265 Based on S1 phylogeny, the chamois MRV-3 strains belonged to lineage III, prevalent in
266 Europe, clustering with strains isolated in Italy from dog, bat and pig (Decaro et al., 2005;
267 Lelli et al., 2013, 2016), in Germany from bats (Kohl et al., 2012) and with a human strain
268 identified in Slovenia (Steyer et al., 2013). In addition, to molecularly characterize the
269 chamois MRV strain, the full genome sequence was obtained by next-generation
270 sequencing, highlighting that other segments were more similar to MRVs of different
271 geographic locations, serotypes and hosts, including human. These results confirmed the
272 reassortment capacity of this segmented RNA virus and contributed to our understanding
273 of molecular evolution of mammalian orthoreovirus in wildlife. Moreover, molecular

274 analysis of the S1 gene revealed that the amino acid residues associated with neurotropism
275 (198-204NLAIRLP, 249I, 340D and 419E) were conserved in the representative Italian
276 chamois strain, suggesting that potentially neurotropic MRV-3 strains are present in the
277 chamois population, as previously reported for Italian bats (Lelli et al., 2013).

278 Our investigation gives a contribution to MRV epidemiology, widening the host range of
279 MRV to wildlife. This result arises questions on the epidemiological link between
280 chamois and other animal species. With this regard, it has to be considered that a high
281 prevalence of MRV-3 antibodies was observed in chamois during the five years survey,
282 showing an endemic level of infection in the population and suggesting a self-
283 maintenance of MRV and/or a continuous spill-over of infection from, or even to, other
284 animal species. The transmission of MRV is not limited to close contacts, but can occur
285 due to indirect contamination, since infective particles have been found in environmental
286 samples (Lodder et al., 2010). At this regard, it has to be noted that most of MRV strains
287 that showed the highest similarity with the ones from chamois were obtained from
288 intestine or fecal samples, supporting a role of environmental contamination in the
289 spreading of this infection.

290 In conclusion, current knowledge on MRVs epidemiology has been extended to alpine
291 chamois. This result increases interest on the widespread nature of these viruses, also
292 for their reassortment ability that likely contributes to their genetic evolution and
293 adaptation to animal and human hosts.

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304

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410 **Figures legend**

411 Figure 1. Electron micrograph of reovirus particles in the supernatant of MARC 145 cells.
412 Negative staining (2% sodium phosphotungstate). TEM FEI Tecnai G2 Spirit, 85 kV. Bar
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440 Table 1 Highest nucleotide and amino acid identities for each gene segment of the novel MRV sequence from Italian chamois compared to MRV
 441 isolates from GenBank.

MRV-3 chamois 84407	Identity (%)		MRV strain	Serotype ^a	Lineage	Host	Country	Year	GenBank Accession No.
	nt	aa							
L1	99.4	100	206645-50/2011	3	III	Bat (<i>Tadarida teniotis</i>)	Italy	2011	JX028416
L2	95	98.7	SI-MRV06	1	-	Bat (<i>Myotis emarginatus</i>)	Slovenia	2009	MG457119
L3	91.4	98.6	MPC/04	3	IV	Masked palm civet	China	2004	GQ468270
M1	98.3	99.2	SI-MRV02	3	III	Bat (<i>Eptesicus serotinus</i>)	Slovenia	2010	MG457081
M2	98.1	99.7	MRV2Tou05	2	-	Human	France	2005	GU196310
M3	96.5	98.4	MRV2Tou05	2	-	Human	France	2005	GU196314
S1	99.8	99.8	206645-31/2011	3	III	Bat (<i>Vespertillio murinus</i>)	Italy	2011	JQ979275
S2	97.8	99.3	MRV2Tou05	2	-	Human	France	2005	GU196311
S3	97.5	99.5	T3C9/61	3	III	Murine	France	1961	U35352
S4	97.5	98.6	MRV-HLJ/2007	3	IV	Pig	China	2007	HQ642778

442 ^a Serotype is determined by genetic characterization of S1 genome segment.

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444 Table 2 Seroprevalence of MRV-3 and serum neutralization titres in chamois

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Year	N. animal tested	N. positive	Prevalence (%) (C.I. 95%)	Mean geometric titre	range of positive titres
2008	18	9	50.00 (29.03-70.97)	26	11-45
2009	37	23	62.16 (46.10-75.94)	33	11-91
2010	20	9	45.00 (25.82-65.79)	36	11-64
2011	12	9	75.00 (46.77-91.11)	24	11-45
2012	19	10	52.63 (31.71-72.67)	30	11-64

446

447 Table 3 Serum neutralization titers against MRV-3 reference strain and chamois field
448 strains on a subset of chamois sera

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MRV strain/ chamois sera id.	Type 3 Abney	chamois 84407	chamois 84406
84406 ^a	64	91	91
cm4	<4	<4	<4
83650	91	23	n.t. ^b
84353	64	32	n.t.
84442	45	23	n.t.
83823	32	45	n.t.
83966	32	32	n.t.

450 ^a MRV positive chamois

451 ^b not tested

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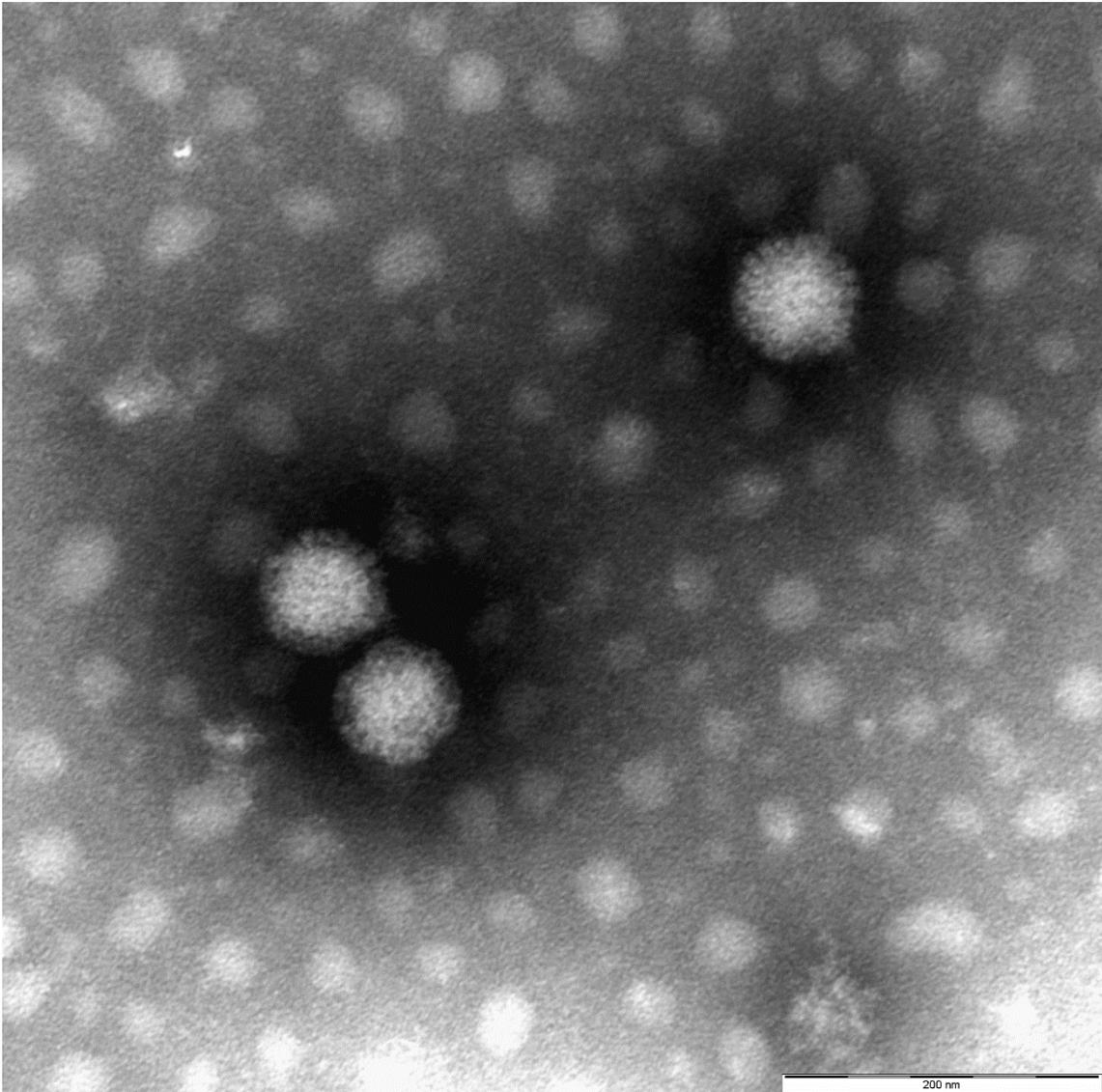
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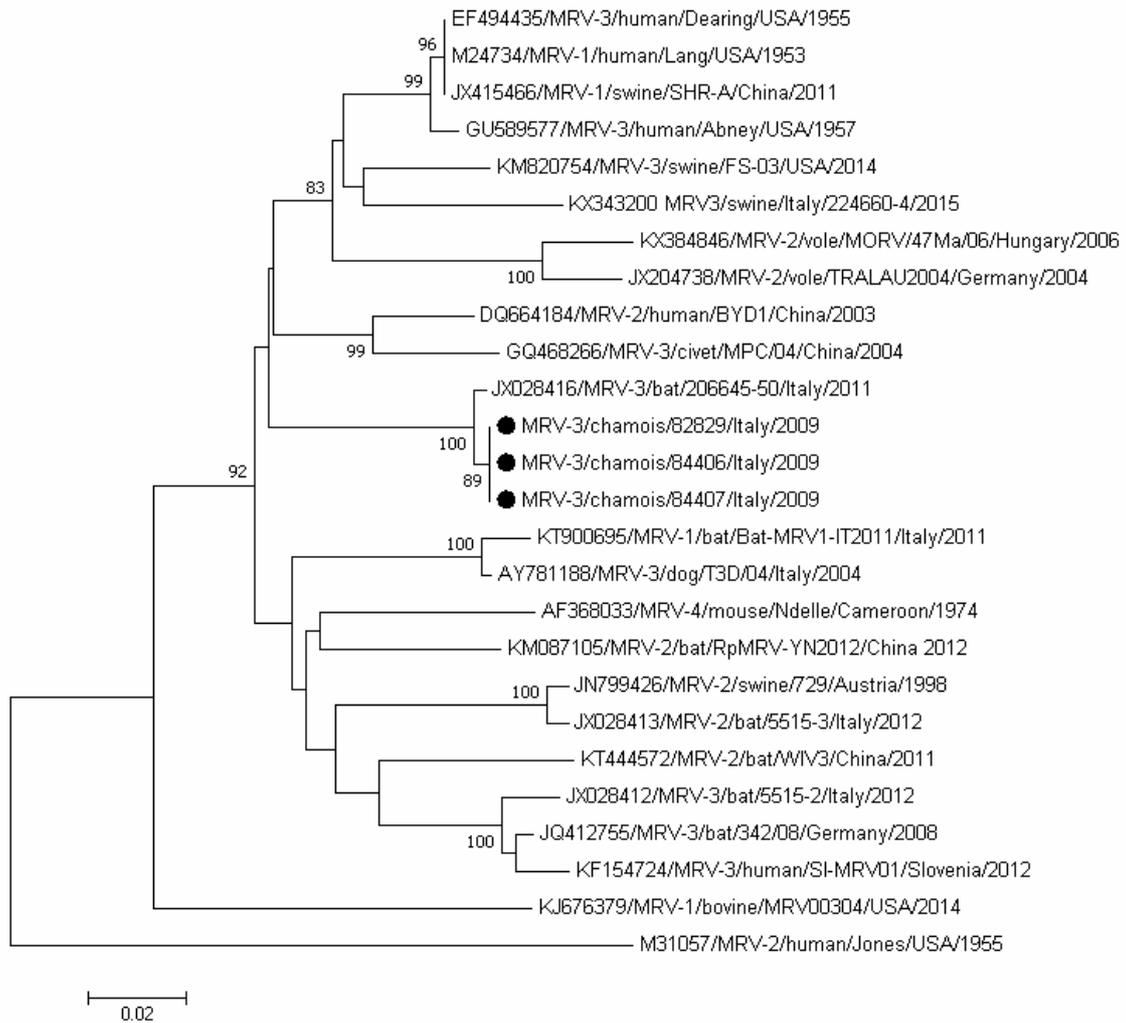
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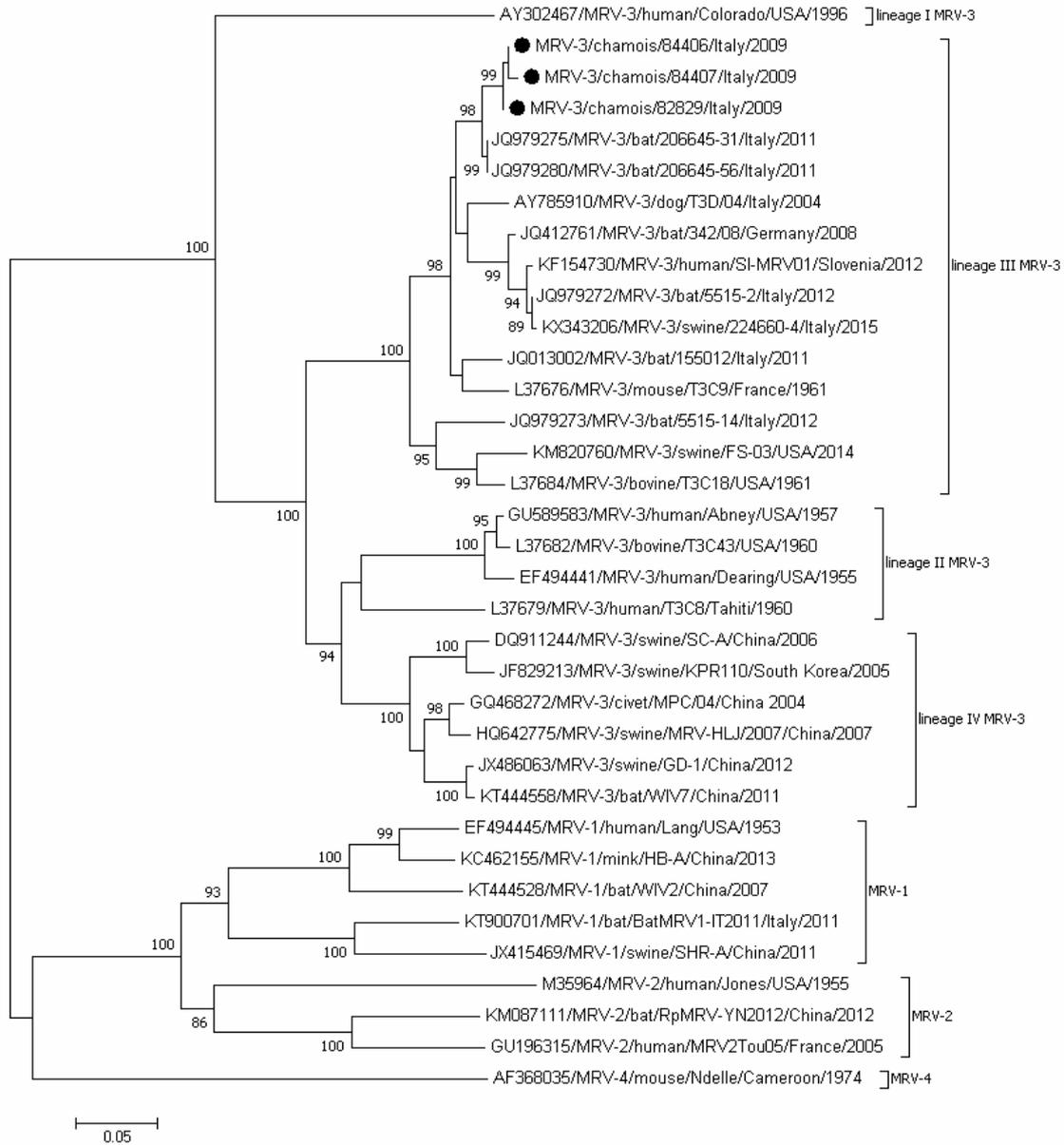
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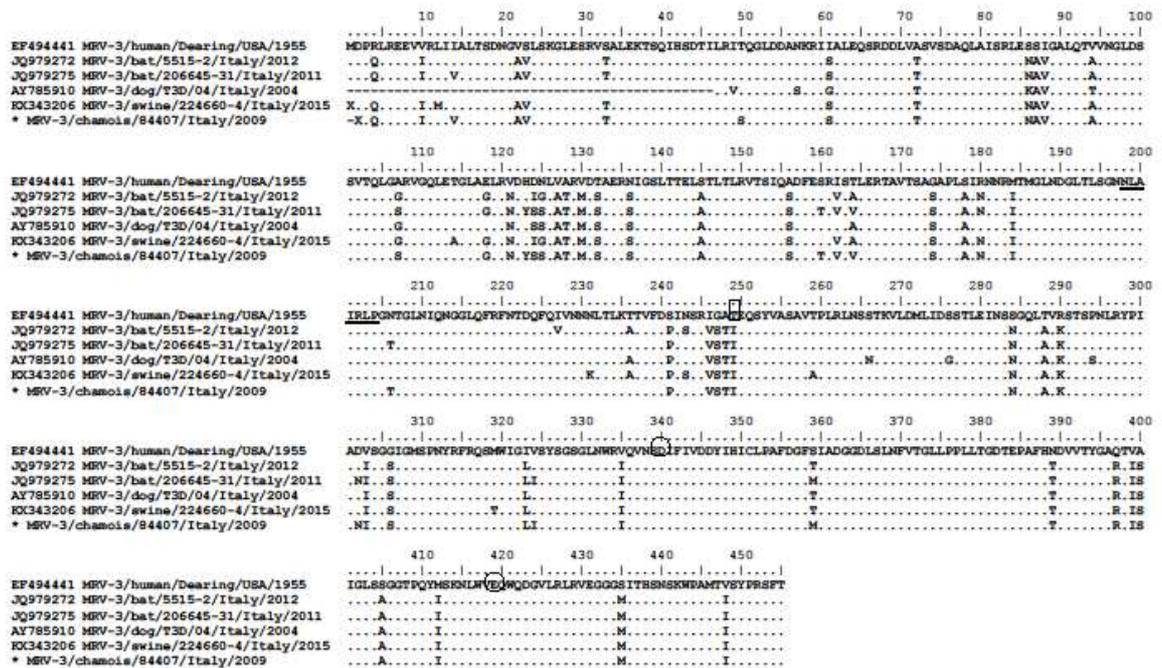
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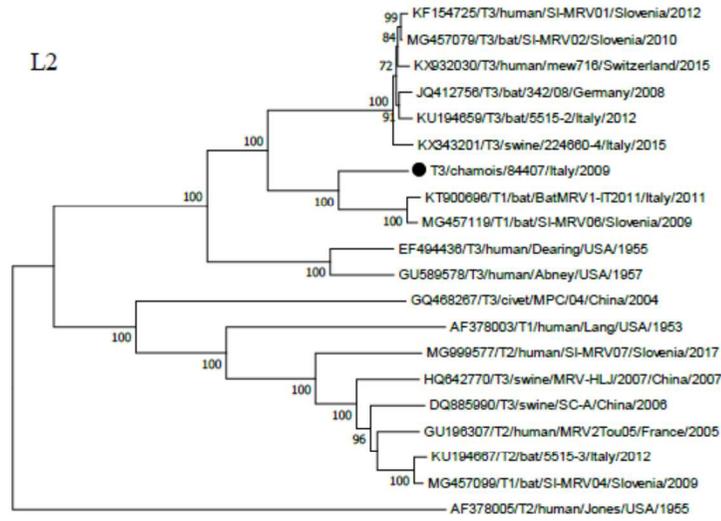
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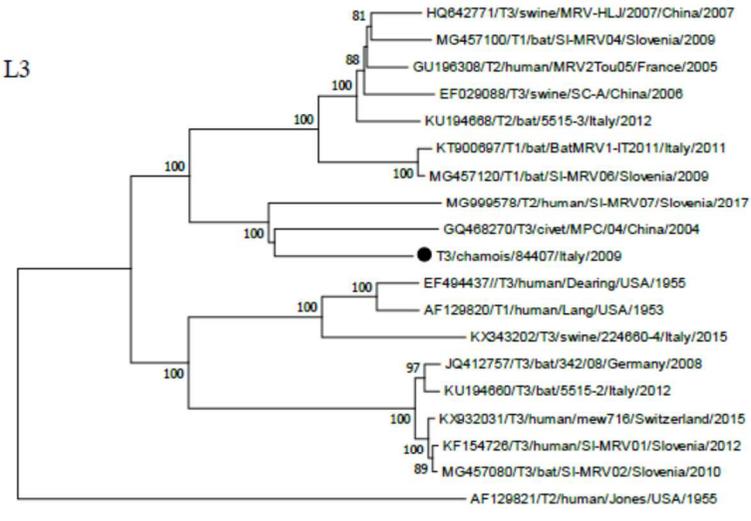
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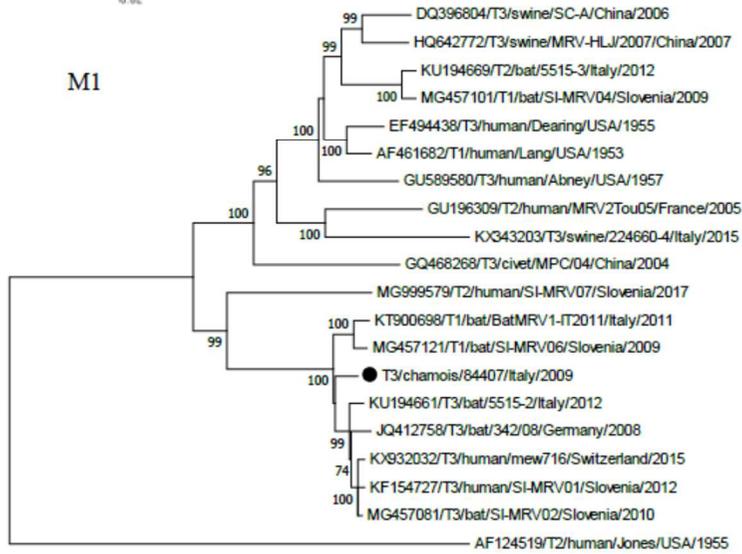
L2



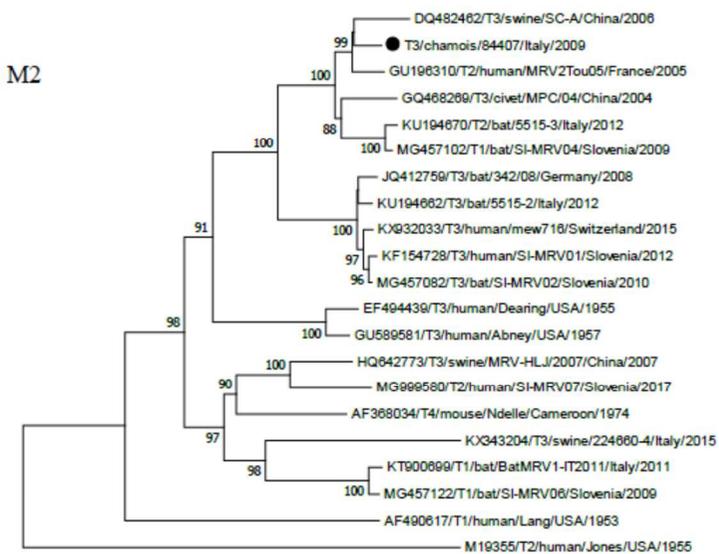
L3



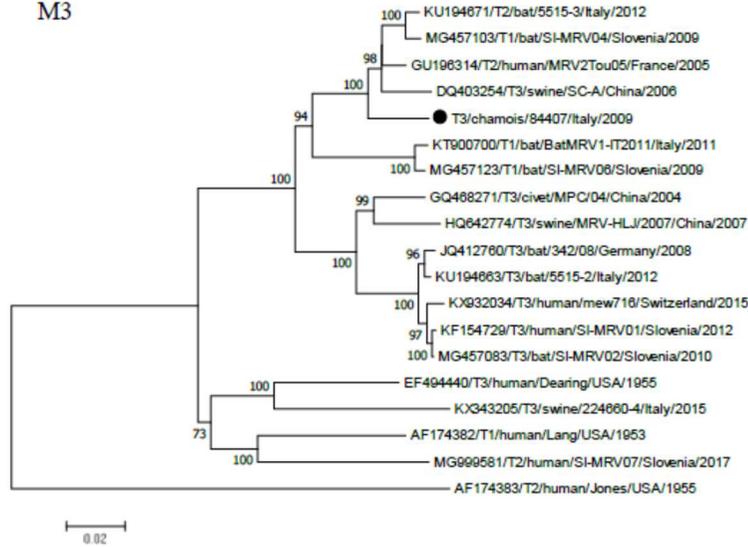
M1



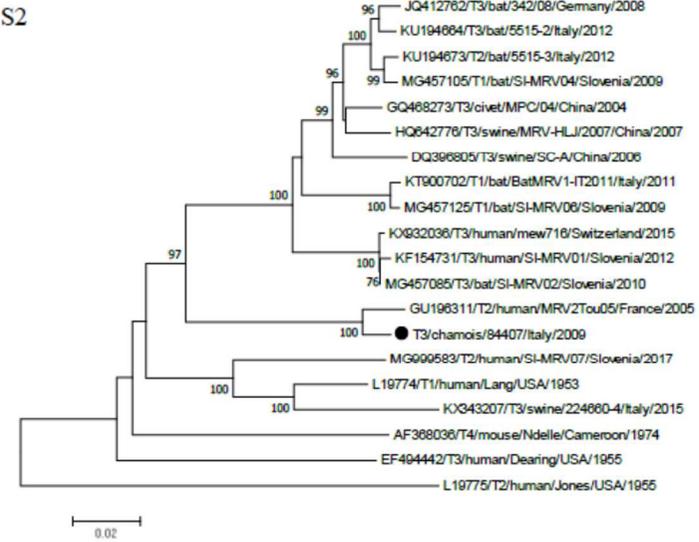
M2



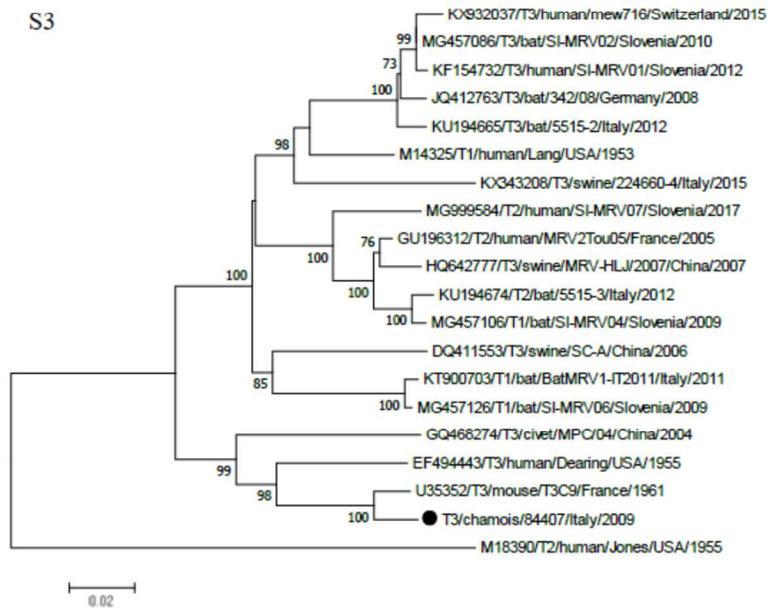
M3



S2



S3



S4

