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3 4 5 6 7	A systematic review and meta-analysis of the potential non-human animal reservoirs and arthropod vectors of the Mayaro virus
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39 Abstract

40 Improving our understanding of Mayaro virus (MAYV) ecology is critical to guide 41 surveillance and risk assessment. We conducted a PRISMA-adherent systematic review of the 42 published and grey literature to identify potential arthropod vectors and non-human animal 43 reservoirs of MAYV. We searched PubMed, Embase, Web of Science, SciELO and grey-44 literature sources including PAHO databases and dissertation repositories. Studies were included 45 if they assessed MAYV virological/immunological measured occurrence in field-caught, 46 domestic, or sentinel animals or in field-caught arthropods. We conducted an animal 47 seroprevalence meta-analysis using a random effects model. We compiled granular 48 georeferenced maps of non-human MAYV occurrence and graded the quality of the studies 49 using a customized framework. Overall, 57 studies were eligible out of 1523 screened, 50 published between the years 1961 and 2020. Seventeen studies reported MAYV positivity in 51 wild mammals, birds, or reptiles and five studies reported MAYV positivity in domestic animals. 52 MAYV positivity was reported in 12 orders of wild-caught vertebrates, most frequently in the 53 orders Charadriiformes and Primate. Sixteen studies detected MAYV in wild-caught mosquito 54 genera including Haemagogus, Aedes, Culex, Psorophora, Coquillettidia, and Sabethes. 55 Vertebrate animals or arthropods with MAYV were detected in Brazil, Panama, Peru, French 56 Guiana, Colombia, Trinidad, Venezuela, Argentina, and Paraguay. Among non-human 57 vertebrates, the Primate order had the highest pooled prevalence (PP) at 13.1% (95% CI: 4.3-58 25.1%). From the three most studied primate genera we found the highest prevalence was in 59 Alouatta (PP: 32.2%, 95% CI: 0.0-79.2%), followed by Callithrix (PP: 17.8%, 95% CI: 8.6-60 28.5%), and Cebus/Sapajus (PP: 3.7%, 95% CI: 0.0-11.1%). We further found that MAYV occurs in a wide range of vectors beyond *Haemagogus* spp. The quality of evidence behind these 61 findings was variable and prompts calls for standardization of reporting of arbovirus occurrence. 62 63 These findings support further risk emergence prediction, guide field surveillance efforts, and 64 prompt further *in-vivo* studies to better define the ecological drivers of MAYV maintenance and 65 potential for emergence.

66 Author Summary

Mavaro virus (MAYV) is an emerging tropical public health threat in the Americas. We 67 conducted a georeferenced, quality-graded systematic review to evaluate the current evidence 68 69 regarding MAYV occurrence in non-human vertebrates and arthropods. Overall, 57 studies were 70 eligible out of 1523 screened, published between the years 1961 and 2020. Seventeen studies 71 reported MAYV positivity in wild mammals, birds, or reptiles and five studies reported MAYV 72 positivity in domestic animals. MAYV positivity was reported in 12 orders of wild-caught 73 vertebrates, most frequently in the orders Charadriiformes and Primate. Our systematic review 74 identified 12 orders of wild-caught vertebrates and seven mosquito genera with evidence of 75 MAYV occurrence. Primates had the highest pooled MAYV prevalence according to a 76 seroprevalence meta-analysis. The graded quality of evidence behind these findings was variable 77 and prompts calls for standardization of reporting of MAYV and perhaps other emerging 78 arbovirus occurrence in animals and vectors. This study provides important information for 79 public health authorities and disease ecologists concerned with the growing threat of MAYV in 80 Latin America. Our analysis provides a foundation for future laboratory and field studies focused 81 on the MAYV transmission cycle.

82

83 Introduction

84	First detected in Trinidad in 1954 [1], Mayaro virus (MAYV) is a zoonotic Alphavirus
85	that is endemic in several Latin American countries. Like Chikungunya virus (CHIKV), MAYV
86	may cause complications such as debilitating arthralgia but often presents with a non-specific
87	constellation of symptoms and signs that may be clinically indistinguishable from other vector
88	borne diseases such as dengue or Zika [2]. There is no current licensed vaccine or antiviral
89	treatment for MAYV infections, and the current standard of clinical treatment is supportive care
90	only [2, 3].
91	MAYV has caused periodic outbreaks in humans in Brazil [4, 5], Bolivia [6], and
92	Venezuela [7], while surveillance studies and serological surveys have detected MAYV in
93	humans in several countries throughout the Americas including Peru [8], Suriname [9], Mexico
94	[10], Colombia [11], French Guiana [12], and Haiti [13]. These findings demonstrate widespread
95	circulation of the virus throughout the region. A recent 2019 epidemiological alert by the Pan
96	American Health Association (PAHO) has emphasized the need for increased awareness of and
97	extended surveillance for this emerging virus in the Americas [3]. However, the precise areas of
98	risk from MAYV throughout the Americas remain unclear. Understanding the ecology and
99	distribution of MAYV remains a major obstacle in predicting areas that are at high risk of
100	transmission to humans and domestic animals.
101	Current evidence suggests that MAYV is maintained in nature through a sylvatic
102	transmission cycle involving mosquito vectors and non-human animal reservoirs. Therefore,
103	human MAYV cases reported to date likely represent direct sylvatic spillovers. Residing near

104 forested areas [12] and hunting in the rainforest [14] have been identified as risk factors for

105 MAYV infection in humans, highlighting the importance of the sylvatic transmission cycle and106 the potential for spillover events.

107 Identification of the non-human vertebrate animals (i.e., reservoirs) involved in MAYV 108 transmission is an important step in delineating the human populations at greatest risk. The 109 spillover of MAYV into humans represents a complex interaction of processes involving the 110 density and distribution of reservoirs and vectors, as well as the prevalence and intensity of 111 infection among reservoirs [15].

112 Identifying the non-human vertebrates that may serve as MAYV reservoirs is a difficult 113 task due to a myriad of issues including, but not limited to, the challenges associated with 114 establishing evidence of infection in wild animal populations [16, 17]. High seroprevalence of a 115 pathogen in an animal population does not necessarily implicate a given host as an efficient 116 reservoir; conversely, low seroprevalence at a single point in time cannot definitively rule out an 117 animal as a reservoir [17]. Due to the relatively short viremia of MAYV (approximately 3-10 118 days) molecular assays may be unsuccessful in detecting virus [18], necessitating the use of 119 serological assays such as hemagglutination-inhibition (HI) assays, enzyme-linked 120 immunosorbent assays (ELISA), or plaque-reduction neutralization tests (NT). 121 Several studies have been conducted to clarify the precise vertebrate hosts that may serve 122 as MAYV reservoirs. High seroprevalence among non-human primates (NHPs) in Brazil [19], 123 French Guiana [12], and Panama [20] provides evidence that NHPs may play an important role 124 in the MAYV transmission cycle. MAYV antibodies have also been detected in mammals 125 including rodents and marsupials [21] as well as several avian species [19]. Unfortunately, there 126 is significant heterogeneity in the study methods used to identify potential MAYV reservoirs and

there remains a high level of uncertainty surrounding the role of various non-human vertebratespecies in the MAYV transmission cycle.

129 Studies have also been conducted in wild-caught mosquito populations as well as in 130 controlled laboratory conditions in order to identify potential arthropod vectors of MAYV. One 131 study in Brazil [19] suggested that the canopy-dwelling *Haemagogus janthinomys* mosquito is an 132 important vector of MAYV. Additional mosquito species including Aedes aegypti, Ae. 133 *albopictus*, and several anopheline species have been shown to be competent vectors in 134 laboratory settings [22-24], posing a potential but as yet theoretical risk of urban MAYV cycles. 135 The occurrence of MAYV in the city of Manaus has also led to concerns about the involvement 136 of Aedes mosquitoes in a MAYV urban transmission cycle [25]. 137 Although many non-human vertebrate animals and arthropod species have been proposed 138 as capable MAYV reservoirs or vectors, our understanding of the MAYV transmission cycle and 139 ecology remains limited. Collating and evaluating the current evidence regarding the potential MAYV reservoirs and vectors are important steps in characterizing MAYV transmission ecology 140 141 and identifying the communities at greatest risk for MAYV outbreaks. Therefore, the goal of this 142 systematic review is to evaluate the current evidence regarding MAYV occurrence in non-human 143 vertebrates and arthropods. We present here the first structured evaluation of the potential vector 144 and non-human reservoir range of MAYV, including the development of custom criteria for 145 grading the quality of evidence of arbovirus occurrence in invertebrate and vertebrate non-human 146 hosts.

147 Methods

This systematic review and meta-analysis were conducted according to the PRISMA
2020 Checklist [26] (see S1 Table). A protocol was developed but was not uploaded to
PROSPERO.

151 Information Sources

152 We conducted a systematic review of original research articles, reports, and dissertations 153 that attempted to identify potential non-human animal reservoirs or arthropod vectors of MAYV. 154 We first searched Embase, Web of Science, PubMed, and SciELO databases for English, 155 Spanish, and Portuguese language articles published between 1954 (the year MAYV was first 156 isolated) and March 21, 2020. We searched all databases using the highly sensitive search term 157 "Mayaro". A PubMed alert using the search term "Mayaro" was also set to capture any 158 additional studies that were published between the initial search and May 2021. This database 159 search was extended using bioRxiv (https://www.biorxiv.org/) and medRxiv 160 (https://www.medrxiv.org/) pre-print databases. We complemented these database search results with 'grey literature,' including hand-searched bibliographies of MAYV review articles 161 162 (including systematic reviews), dissertations from several Brazilian university repositories, the 163 Pan American Health Organization (PAHO) Institutional Repository for Information Sharing 164 database (iris.paho.org), the GIDEON database (https://www.gideononline.com/), and GenBank 165 [27] (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/). In addition, we searched conference handbooks 166 that are available online (2004-2019) from the American Society of Tropical Medicine and 167 Hygiene (https://www.astmh.org/annual-meeting/past-meetings).

168 Eligibility Criteria

169 We included studies that evaluated past or current MAYV infection in non-human 170 vertebrates using methods including virus isolation, molecular detection, and serosurveys. We 171 also included studies that screened arthropods for MAYV using virus isolation and molecular 172 detection. Original research studies were considered for eligibility if they assessed MAYV 173 positivity in field-caught, captive, or sentinel non-human vertebrates or field-caught arthropods. 174 Studies that met any of the following exclusion criteria were not included: studies involving only 175 humans; studies not reporting original data (e.g., review articles, perspective pieces, editorials, 176 recommendations, and guidelines); duplicate studies; in vitro studies such as vector cell-line or 177 mammal cell line experiments; laboratory-based vector competence studies that did not explicitly demonstrate the detection of MAYV in a wild-caught vector; in-vivo lab-reared animal studies or 178 179 any laboratory-based study that experimentally inoculated an animal to test theoretical reservoir 180 status.

181 Selection process

182 All articles were organized using EndNote software version X9 (Clarivate, Philadelphia, 183 Pennsylvania, USA), and data were abstracted into a Microsoft Excel table. Two reviewers 184 independently screened all titles and abstracts to determine articles that could immediately be 185 excluded and articles that should be included in the second stage of review. Results were 186 compared to reconcile any differences between the two reviewers. The first and second reviewers 187 then independently read the full text of potentially eligible articles identified through screening 188 and selected the articles that were candidates for inclusion in the study. Results were compared 189 to reconcile any differences between the two reviewers. A third-party reviewer adjudicated when 190 consensus was not reached between the two reviewers during the first or second stage review.

From those studies deemed eligible, data were extracted from articles by one reviewer using thedata abstraction tool in Microsoft Excel.

193 Data abstraction

Relevant information was abstracted by one reviewer in an Excel sheet. Information for each article was abstracted across several domains including publication details (author and affiliation, study title, study funding), study methods (date and location of study, study design, laboratory methods to assess MAYV positivity), and study results (sample size, taxonomic classification, proportion of animals testing positive for MAYV, location of vertebrates/arthropods testing positive for MAYV). A second reviewer randomly selected and reviewed five articles for review to validate the data abstraction process.

201 Grading quality of evidence

We developed a customized grading system to assess the quality of each study included 202 203 in our review. Several published studies have employed a similar grading system to assess 204 evidence quality of included articles [28-30]. We assigned each study in our systematic review a 205 grade for each of four quality items: clarity of research question/objective (Was the research 206 question/objective clearly described and stated?); description of study methods (Were the study 207 methods presented in a reproducible way?); description of sampling methods (Was the sampling 208 method described in detail?); and validity of diagnostic tests (Was MAYV positivity measured in 209 a valid way?). For each quality item, eligible studies were assigned a score of 3 (strong 210 evidence), 2 (moderate evidence), 1 (weak evidence), or unable to judge. Studies were deemed 211 unable to judge if the information provided was insufficient to assign quality scores (e.g., a 212 single GenBank entry or conference abstract).

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213	A score of 3 was assigned for the description of sampling methods item if authors
214	thoroughly described the type of trap used, the habitats in which traps were set, how often traps
215	were checked, and the results of trapping (i.e., were animals reported to the species level). For
216	studies that assessed MAYV in vertebrate animals, a score of 3 was assigned for the validity of
217	diagnostic tests item if MAYV positivity was assessed using RT-PCR, viral culture, or high-
218	specificity serological method (i.e., plaque reduction NT); a score of 2 was assigned if MAYV
219	positivity was assessed using non-specific serological assay (i.e., HI and ELISA); and a score of
220	1 was assigned if MAYV positivity was based on presumptive exposure only with no
221	confirmatory assay. For studies that assessed MAYV in arthropods, a score of 3 was assigned for
222	this item if MAYV positivity was assessed using viral culture; a score of 2 was assigned if
223	MAYV positivity was assessed using RT-PCR or metagenomics; and a score of 1 was assigned
224	if MAYV positivity was based on presumptive exposure only with no confirmatory assay. A
225	score of "NA" was assigned for the validity of diagnostic tests item if studies did not detect
226	MAYV positivity in any animal or arthropod samples.
227	Quality review scores were recorded in two different Excel documents for animal
228	reservoir studies and arthropod vector studies, respectively. Two reviewers independently graded
229	the evidence quality for each study and results were compared to reconcile any differences
230	between the two reviewers. A third-party reviewer adjudicated if consensus was not reached
231	between the two reviewers.

232 Data analysis

233 **Descriptive Analysis**

234 Descriptive statistics were presented by species for potential animal reservoirs showing 235 the total sample size, proportion infected, and locations of infected animals. Descriptive 236 statistics were presented by species for potential arthropod vectors showing the total sample size 237 and total pools tested for virus (if applicable), the number of MAYV isolates or PCR-positive 238 pools, and locations of infected arthropods. Maps were developed using ArcGIS software [31] to 239 display the geographic distribution of MAYV-positive animals and vectors.

240 **Pooled Analysis**

241 Due to the heterogeneity of study designs and outcome measurements, a quantitative 242 meta-analysis across all eligible studies was not possible. Instead, we conducted a seroprevalence 243 meta-analysis using the studies that reported MAYV seroprevalence (i.e., using serological 244 methods including HI, ELISA, or NT) in non-human vertebrate animals. Pooled prevalence 245 estimates were stratified by taxonomic order and an additional analysis was conducted among 246 the various Primate genera. Orders were excluded from the analysis if the total sample size was 247 less than 10 or if no MAYV-positive samples were reported within that order. Pooled 248 seroprevalence was first calculated based on all available data, regardless of test method. This 249 included the samples that tested MAYV-positive based on HI alone (when no confirmatory assay 250 was performed) as well as the samples that were confirmed positive by an NT. Only monotypic 251 reactions to MAYV were included in the meta-analysis in the absence of confirmatory NT. A 252 sensitivity analysis was then conducted using only the MAYV-positive samples that were 253 confirmed using NT. Positive samples that were based on HI alone (without confirmatory NT)

were excluded from this analysis, although all MAYV-negative samples were retained. This sensitivity analysis was conducted to account for the low specificity of HI compared to NT [32] and provided a more conservative estimate of seroprevalence.

257 Due to the substantial differences across studies including sample size, study design, 258 species sampling methods, and geographical location, a random effects model was used for 259 analysis [33, 34]. The Freeman-Tukey double-arcsine transformation was implemented to 260 calculate a proportion, based on the recommendation of Barendregt et al. [35]. A sensitivity 261 analysis was conducted using a generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) with a logit 262 transformation, due to the potential for misleading results with the double-arccosine transformation [36, 37]. Measures of variance (τ^2), heterogeneity (I^2), and statistical significance 263 264 are presented for each random effects model. An additional sensitivity analysis was conducted 265 using a fixed effects model. Results of sensitivity analyses are presented in the Supplementary 266 materials.

The I^2 statistic measures inconsistency across study results and is calculated as $I^2 = 100\%$ x (Q - df) / Q [38]. The I^2 statistic ranges between 0% and 100%, where a value of 0% represents no heterogeneity and larger values represent increased heterogeneity. Animal seroprevalence estimates with 95% confidence intervals (CIs) weighted by sample size are presented as forest plots. All analyses were conducted using the '*meta*' package in R statistical software version 4.0.2 (R Project for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria) [39, 40].

273 Estimation of bias

An assessment of publication bias was carried out for meta-analyses that included five studies or more. Bias was assessed using funnel plots and tests for funnel plot asymmetry based

on methods proposed by Egger [41]. If the Egger's test revealed bias, the Trim and Fill technique
was used to estimate the effect of missing studies on the outcomes of the meta-analysis [42].

278 Georeferencing of MAYV occurrence

279 All available location information from each confirmed MAYV infection (animal and 280 mosquito) was extracted from each article and georeferenced based on methods that have been 281 described previously [43, 44]. Each occurrence of MAYV was designated as either a point or 282 polygon location according to the spatial resolution provided in the study. When specific latitude 283 and longitude coordinates were provided, they were verified in GoogleMaps and designated as a 284 point location. If a neighborhood, town, village, or small city was explicitly mentioned in the 285 article and fell within a 5x5 km grid cell, it was designated as a point location and its centroid 286 coordinates were recorded. For studies that report a less precise spatial resolution such as states 287 or counties, first level (ADM1) or second level (ADM2) administrative divisions were recorded 288 as polygons. If the size of a specific named location was greater than a 5x5 km grid cell the 289 occurrence was assigned to a custom polygon created in ArcGIS that encompassed the extent of 290 that location. If place names were duplicated (i.e., the ADM1 and ADM2 units had the same 291 name), the coarsest spatial resolution was used. Country shapefiles were accessed through the 292 geoBoundaries Global Administrative Database [45].

293 **Results**

294 General Findings

We identified a total of 57 research items that met our eligibility criteria out of 1523 research items screened, including 46 research articles, seven dissertations, two GenBank entries, one laboratory report, and one abstract (see **Table 1** for a full list of eligible items and citations).

298	Thirty-nine (68%) of the included items assessed MAYV infection in non-human vertebrates
299	while 29 (51%) items assessed MAYV infection in arthropods. Of the 57 eligible items, 24
300	(42%) were included in the vertebrate seroprevalence meta-analysis, and the remaining items
301	were only included in the qualitative analysis. A flow chart describing the article search and
302	selection process is presented in Fig 1. Five articles were identified that met the inclusion criteria
303	but were deemed to be reporting the same data as other included articles. These include de
304	Thoisy et al., (2001) [46] and Talarmin et al., (1998) [12] (both reporting the same data as de
305	Thoisy et al., (2003) [21]), Aitken et al., (1960) [47] (reporting the same data as Aitken et al.,
306	(1969) [48]), Batista et al., 2013 [49] (reporting the same data as Paulo et al., (2015) [50]), and
307	Woodall (1967) [51] (reporting the same data as Taylor, (1967) [52]). These articles were
308	excluded from this systematic review.

309	Table 1.	Eligible Study	Characteristics

Reference	Study Period	Country	Arthropods Tested (n)	Vertebrate non-human animals tested (n) ^a	MAYV infection reported
Aitken, 1969 [48]	1953-1963	Trinidad	1,568,439		Yes
Araujo, 2003 [53]	2002	Brazil		555	Yes
Araujo, 2004 [54]	2003	Brazil		202	No
Araujo, 2004b [55]	2003	Brazil		495	Yes
Araujo, 2012 [56]	2007-2008	Brazil		95	Yes
Araujo, 2012b [57]	2009	Brazil		102	Yes
Azevedo, 2009 [58]	2008	Brazil	832		Yes
Batista, 2012 [59]	2010	Brazil	122	65	Yes
Calisher, 1974 [60]	1967	USA ^b		1,300	Yes
Carrera, 2020 [61]	2017	Panama	113		No
Casseb, 2010 [62]	2009	Brazil		2191	Yes
Casseb, 2016 [63]	2009	Brazil		753	Yes
Catenacci, 2017 [64]	2006-2014	Brazil	239	142	Yes
Cruz, 2009 [65]	2006-2008	Brazil		85	No
Degallier, 1992 [66]	1974-1988	Brazil	2,005,069	6,248	Yes
De Thoisy, 2003 [21]	1994-1995	French Guiana		579	Yes
Diaz, 2007 [67]	1994	Argentina, Paraguay		90	No
Esposito, 2015 [68]	1960	Brazil	NA ^d		Yes
Ferreira, 2020 [69]	2017-2018	Brazil	10,569		Yes
Galindo, 1966 [70]	1959-1962	Panama	377,492	2,444	Yes
Galindo, 1967 [71]	1966	Panama	11,829		Yes

Galindo, 1983 [72]	1972-1979	Panama	NA ^c	NA ^c	Yes
GenBank KY618129	1991	Brazil	NA ^d		Yes
GenBank KY618130	2011	Brazil	NA ^d		Yes
Gibrail, 2015 [73]	2011-2014	Brazil		50	No
Gomes, 2019 [74]	2018	Brazil		213	Yes
Groot, 1961 [75]	1958-1960	Colombia	41,564		Yes
Groot, 1964 [11]	1956-1961	Colombia		34	Yes
Henriques, 2008 [76]	2002-2005	Brazil	37,519		No
Hoch, 1981 [19]	1978-1979	Brazil	10,667	1785	Yes
Kubiszeski, 2017 [77]	2014-2015	Brazil	778		Yes
Laroque, 2014 [78]	2008-2010	Brazil		131	Yes
Maia, 2019 [79]	2017	Brazil	4786		Yes
Martinez, 2020 [80]	2018-2019	Colombia	169		No
Medlin, 2016 [81]	2005-2007	Costa Rica		94	No
Medina, 2015 [82]	1999	Venezuela		NA ^d	Yes
Moreira-Soto, 2018	2012-2017	Brazil	-	103	Yes
[83]					
Nunes, 2009 [84]	2005	Brazil		181	No
Paulo, 2015 [50]	2012-2014	Brazil		43	Yes
Pauvolid-Correa, 2010	2007	Brazil		135	No
[85]					
Pauvolid-Correa, 2015	2009-2011	Brazil		748	Yes
[86]					
Pauvolid-Correa, 2008	2007	Brazil	1,759	NA ^e	No
[87]					
Perez, 2019 [88]	2007-2008	Peru		90	Yes
Pinheiro, 1974 [89]	1971-1974	Brazil	NA ^c	NA ^c	Yes
Pinheiro, 2019 [90]	2017	Brazil	867		No
Powers, 2006 [91]	N/A	N/A	NA ^d	NA ^d	Yes
Price, 1978 [92]	1972-1974	Trinidad		997	No
Ragan, 2019 [93]	N/A	N/A		NA ^c	No
Sanmartin, 1973 [94]	1967	Colombia	27,437	480	No
Scherer, 1975 [95]	1970-1971	Peru	1,500	NA ^c	No
Serra, 2016 [96]	2013	Brazil	4,556		Yes
Seymour, 1983 [20]	1974-1976	Panama		304	Yes
Silva, 2017 [97]	2016	Brazil	3,750		No
Srihongse, 1974 [98]	1967	Panama/Colombia		2026	Yes
Tauro, 2019 [99]	2017	Brazil	125		No
Taylor, 1967 [52]	N/A	Brazil/Trinidad	NA ^c	NA ^c	Yes
Turell, 2019 [100]	2001-2002	Peru		20	No

310 ^a Includes wild-caught, sentinel, and domestic animals.

311 ^bMigratory birds captured in Louisiana.

312 ^cUnable to determine the total number of animals or arthropods tested for MAYV.

313 ^dGenomic sequence only. No additional information provided.

^eHorse seroprevalence data collected but recorded in another study.

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317 Fig 1. Flow diagram for search and selection of articles

- 318 Studies were conducted in the following countries: Brazil (n=34), Panama (n=5),
- 319 Colombia (n=4), Peru (n=3), Trinidad and Tobago (n=2), French Guiana (n=1), Venezuela

- 320 (n=1), Costa Rica (n=1), and the United States of America (n=1). Several studies reported data
- 321 from multiple countries including Argentina/Paraguay (n=1), Panama/Colombia (n=1), and
- 322 Brazil/Trinidad and Tobago (n=1). The majority of studies were conducted after the year 2000
- 323 (n=33), although some studies were conducted between 1950-1969 (n=9), 1970-1989 (n=8), or
- 324 1990-1999 (n=4). Quality scores for all included studies are reported in Table 2.

325 Table 2. Quality Review Scores

		Verteb	rate anima	ls	Arthropods			
	Research	Study	Sampling	MAYV+ test	Research	Study	Sampling	MAYV+
	question	methods	method	method ^a	question	methods	method	test method ^a
Aitken, 1969 [48]					3	2	2	3
Araujo, 2003 [53]	3	3	2	2				
Araujo, 2004 [54]	3	3	3	NA				
Araujo, 2004b [55]	3	3	2	2				
Araujo, 2012 [56]	3	3	3	2				
Araujo, 2012b [57]	3	3	2 ^b	2				
Azevedo, 2009 [58]					2	2	2	3
Batista, 2012 [59]	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	NA
Calisher, 1974 [60]	3	3	2	3				
Carrera, 2020 [61]					3	3	3	N/A
Casseb, 2010 [62]	3	3	2 ^b	2				
Casseb, 2016 [63]	3	3	3 ^b	2				
Catenacci, 2017 [64]	3	3	3	N/A	3	3	2	2
Cruz, 2009 [65]	2	3	2	N/A				
Degallier, 1992 [66]	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	N/A
De Thoisy, 2003 [21]	3	3	2	3				
Diaz, 2007 [67]	3	2	2	3				
Esposito, 2015 [68]					Unable to judge	Unable to judge	Unable to judge	3
Ferreira, 2020 [69]					3	3	3	3
Galindo, 1966 [70]	3	3	2	N/A	3	3	3	3
Galindo, 1967 [71]					3	3	2	2
Galindo, 1983 [72]	3	3	3	N/A	3	2	2	3
GenBank KY618129					Unable to judge	Unable to judge	Unable to judge	3
GenBank					Unable to	Unable to	Unable to	3

KY618130					judge	judge	judge	
Gibrail, 2015 [73]	3	3	2	2				
Gomes, 2019 [74]	3	3	3 ^b	3				
Groot, 1961 [75]					3	3	3	3
Groot, 1964 [11]	3	3	3	2				
Henriques, 2008					3	3	3	N/A
[76]					5	5	5	11/17
Hoch, 1981 [19]	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Kubiszeski, 2017					3	3	3	2
[77]					5	5	5	-
Laroque, 2014	3	3	2	2				
[78] Maia, 2019 [79]					2	2	2	3
					3	3	3	
Martinez, 2020 [80]					3	3	2	N/A
Medlin, 2016 [81]	3	3	3	N/A				
Medina, 2015 [82]	3	2	2°	N/A 3				
Moreira-Soto,	3	3	2	3				
2018 [83]	3	3	3	3				
Nunes, 2009 [84]	2	3	2	N/A				
Paulo, 2015 [50]	3	3	3	2				
Pauvolid-Correa, 2010 [85]	3	2	2 ^b	N/A				
Pauvolid-Correa,	3	3	3	3				
2015 [86]								
Pauvolid-Correa, 2008 [87]					3	3	2	N/A
Perez, 2019 [88]	3	2	2	3				
Pinheiro, 1974	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	N/A
[89]								
Pinheiro, 2019 [90]					3	3	3	N/A
Powers, 2006 [91]	3	2	Unable	3	3	2	Unable to	3
			to judge				judge	
Price, 1978 [92]	3	2	2	N/A				
Ragan, 2019 [93]	Unable	Unable	Unable	Unable to				
	to judge	to judge	to judge	judge				
Sanmartin, 1973 [94]	3	3	3	N/A	2	3	2	N/A
Scherer, 1975 [95]	2	3	3 ^c	N/A	2	2	2	N/A
Serra, 2016 [96]					3	3	3	3
Seymour, 1983	2	3	2	3				
[20]								
Silva, 2017 [97]					3	3	3	N/A
Srihongse, 1974	3	2	2	2				
[98]								
Tauro, 2019 [99]					3	2	2	N/A
Taylor, 1967 [52]	Unable to judge	Unable to judge	Unable to judge	3	Unable to judge	Unable to judge	Unable to judge	3
Turell, 2019 [100]	3	2	3 ^c	N/A				
	5	2	5	11/11		1		

326 327 328

^a Studies were assigned a score of NA for this criterion if no MAYV-positive samples were reported. ^b Domestic animals only. ^c Sentinel animals only.

329

330

331 MAYV in wild-caught non-human vertebrate animals

332 Thirty-nine (68%) studies in our systematic review assessed MAYV infection in wild-333 caught non-human vertebrate animals (including birds, mammals, and reptiles). Seventeen (44%) 334 of these studies identified at least one non-human vertebrate that was positive for MAYV 335 infection. Of the 27 taxonomic orders studied, 12 (44.4%) had evidence of MAYV infection: 336 Artiodactyla (even-toed ungulates), Caprimulgiformes (nightbirds), Carnivora, Charadriiformes 337 (shorebirds), Cingulata (armadillos), Columbiformes (pigeons and doves), Didelphimorphia 338 (opossums), Passeriformes (passerine birds), Pilosa (sloths and anteaters), Primate, Rodentia, and 339 Squamata (scaled reptiles). The greatest number of MAYV-positive animal species were found 340 in the order Charadriiformes (n=16 positive species) and the order Primate (n=15 positive 341 species). (See S2 Table for complete mammal data and S3 Table for complete avian data). 342
Table 3 reports NHP species that were detected with MAYV antibodies. Only studies
 343 with positive results are shown on Table 3; other negative studies are listed in the S2 Table. 344 High MAYV seroprevalence was confirmed by NT among *Alouatta seniculus* monkeys in 345 individual studies in French Guiana [21] (n=51/98) and among *Callithrix argentata* monkeys in 346 Brazil [19] (n=32/119). In addition, 29 *Cebus libidinosus* monkeys from wildlife screening 347 centers were detected with MAYV antibodies according to HI, although only six were reported 348 as monotypic reactions [78]. Diagnosis in these monkeys was not confirmed by NT. An 349 additional *Cebus libidinosus* monkey presented a heterotypic reaction to MAYV (titer of 1:20) 350 and four additional viruses according to HI (including a titer of 1:640 for Oropouche virus) [73].

- 351 However, based on the study's protocol, confirmatory NT was only performed for viruses with
- 352 titers \geq 1:40.

353 **Table 3. Evidence of MAYV infection in non-human primates**

Species	Positive (n)	Total tested (n) ^a	% Pos	Test method	Notes	Citation
Alouatta seniculus	51	98	52.0	HI with confirmatory NT ^d	NA	[21]
	1	1	100.0	ELISA with confirmatory plaque-reduction NT	NA	[88]
Callithrix argentata	32	119	26.9	HI with confirmatory NT	One isolation also reported but not included in this table.	[19]
Cebus libidinosus ^b	6	100	6.0	н	Six reactions were monotypic, and 23 were heterotypic, with titers of $1:20 (n=1), 1:80 (n=6), 1:160 (n=2), 1:320 (n=6), 1:640 (n=6), and 1:1280 (n=8). Only 6 of the 29 reactions were monotypic.$	[78]
Tamarin, Pithecia, Cebus (species not specified)	7	21	33.3	н	Results presented as a table from the Belem Virus Laboratory, but no further information is provided regarding the study methods or primate species.	[52]
Cebus apella	10	62	16.1	HI	Titer results for monotypic reactions were 1:80 (n=2), 1:160 (n=7) and 1:640 (n=1). Three additional samples showed positive results for MAYV and another virus.	[59]
Saguinas midas	8	42	19.1	HI with confirmatory NT ^d	NA	[21]
Alouatta sp. ^c	7	11	63.6	HI	NA	[11]
Lagothrix poeppigii	6	11	54.5	ELISA with confirmatory plaque-reduction NT	NA	[88]
Saimiri sciureus	4	6	66.7	HI with confirmatory NT ^d	NA	[21]
Pithecia pithecia	4	5	80.0	HI with confirmatory NT ^d	NA	[21]
Cebus sp. ^c	4	13	30.8	HI	NA	[11]
Alouatta villosa	3	5	60.0	Plaque-reduction NT	Samples considered positive if 90% plaque reduction by plasma 1:16 or weaker. The median positive titer was 1:128 (range	[20]

					1:32-1:512).	
<i>Sapajus</i> sp.	3	43	7.0	HI and RT-PCR	Positive samples had a monotypic reaction to MAYV with titers of 1:80 (n=1) and 1:160 (n=2). All samples negative by RT-PCR.	[50]
Sapajus xanthosternos	1	2	50.0	Plaque-reduction NT	Plaque reduction NTs were performed against MAYV for all CHIKV-positive samples. The sample neutralized both MAYV and CHIKV at titers of 1:40.	[83]
Ateles marginatus	1	1	100.0	Plaque-reduction NT	Plaque reduction NTs were performed against MAYV for all CHIKV-positive samples. The sample neutralized both MAYV and CHIKV at titers of 1:40.	[83]
Alouatta belzebul	1	1	100.0	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Sapajus macrocephalus	1	6	16.7	ELISA with confirmatory plaque-reduction NT	NA	[88]
Cacajao calvus	1	3	33.3	ELISA with confirmatory plaque-reduction NT	NA	[88]
Callicebus brunneus ^e	1	N/A	NA	HI	Sera reacted against MAYV and Tacaiuma virus. No additional information provided.	[66]
Aotus sp. ^c	1	4	25.0	HI	NA	[11]
<i>Saimiri</i> sp. ^c	1	1	100.0	HI	NA	[11]

354 MAYV: Mayaro virus; HI: hemagglutination inhibition; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; RT-PCR:

355 reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; NT: neutralization test; CHIKV: Chikungunya virus

^a Denominators presented in this table reflect only studies that reported MAYV positivity. Complete data (including

357 MAYV-negative samples) are included in the seroprevalence meta-analysis and the Supplementary Tables.

^bCaptive primates from a wildlife rescue facility.

359 °Sera analyzed for MAYV may have had cross reactivity with Una virus because the authors used a Colombian

360 isolate that was initially characterized as MAYV but was later identified as Una virus. A differential test was not

361 performed for MAYV. However, the authors identified human sera that was reactive to MAYV alone in the same 362 study region.

^d Serum samples with titers >1:20 confirmed by seroneutralization. Positive reaction was considered with the total
 inhibition of the cytopathic effect in the cell monolayer.

³⁶⁵ ^e Authors also reported that seven monkey sera among the 14 examined were positive for yellow fever and MAYV,

of which five were positive for the two agents. The species of these positive samples were: *Pithecia pithecia* (n=1),

Alouatta seniculus (n=2), Saimiri sciureus (n=1), Saguinus midas (n=1), and Ateles paniscus (n=2). However, they

- did not note the specific primate species that were positive for MAYV.
- 369

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370 Among the 12 additional NHP species with evidence of past MAYV infection, nine were
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- 371 confirmed by NT and three by HI alone. In addition, MAYV positivity was reported in the
- 372 following NHP genera, although animals were not reported to species: *Aotus* (n=1/4), *Alouatta*

373	(n=7/11), Cebus (n=4/13), Sapajus (n=3/43), and Saimiri (n=1/1). The authors reporting MAYV
374	positivity in the Aotus, Alouatta, Cebus, and Saimiri genera noted that these results should be
375	interpreted with caution due to potential for cross-reactivity with Una virus (UNAV) [11]. In one
376	study conducted in Brazil, two of 11 Chikungunya virus (CHIKV)-positive serum samples (in
377	the species Sapajus xanthosternos and Ateles marginatus) neutralized MAYV with titers of 1:40
378	in plaque reduction NTs [83]. These two samples were considered MAYV-positive and included
379	in our meta-analysis. One additional study [67] detected neutralizing antibodies against both
380	UNAV and MAYV in 21 Alouatta caraya monkeys. However, all 21 monkeys were diagnosed
381	with UNAV based on a 4-fold titer difference between the two viruses. Therefore, we considered
382	these monkeys MAYV-negative and did not include them in our meta-analysis. Finally, in 1963
383	the Belem Virus laboratory reported MAYV infection in seven NHPs based on HI tests alone
384	[52]. These monkeys were described as Tamarin, Pithecia, and Cebus although no further
385	information was provided regarding sampling method, testing protocol, or primate species.
386	MAYV antibodies were also detected in 21 bird species from the order Charadriiformes
387	(n=16) and Passeriformes (n=5). All MAYV-positive birds were found in Brazil, with the
388	exception of one MAYV isolate from a migrating bird captured in Louisiana USA [60]. A high
389	MAYV-seroprevalence (n=34/122) was reported by the Belem Laboratory in 1963 among
390	Columbigallina birds, although no additional information was provided regarding sampling
391	method or bird species. MAYV antibodies were also detected in seven avian families that were
392	not identified to genus or species. Only one study that detected MAYV antibodies in birds
393	performed confirmatory NT [19]. All other diagnoses (with the exception of the virus isolation)
394	were made by HI tests alone. See Table 4 for additional information regarding avian species that
395	were infected with MAYV.

396 Table 4. Evidence of MAYV infection in birds

Order	Species	Positive (n)	Total (n) ^a	% Pos	Test method	Notes	Citation
Columbiformes	Columbigallina sp.	34	121	28.1	ні	Results presented as a table from the Belem Virus Laboratory, but no further information is provided regarding the methods or species.	[52]
Charadriiformes	Sterna hirundo	23	342	6.7	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Sterna trudeaui	12	56	21.4	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Arenaria interpres	8	28	28.6	HI	NA	[53]
		1	NA	NA	HI	Titers 1:40	[55]
Charadriiformes	Calidris canutus	7	51	13.7	HI	NA	[53]
Passeriformes	Fringillidae family, unspecified species	6	131	4.6	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Passeriformes	Formicariidae family, unspecified species	5	444	1.1	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Charadriiformes	Limosa haemastica	5	17	29.4	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Tringa flavipes	4	5	80.0	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Calidris pusilla	3	NA	NA	HI	Titers 1:40 for all positive samples	[55]
		1	30	3.3	HI	Monotypic reaction with titers \geq 1:20 to MAYV	[56]
Charadriiformes	Sterna superciliaris	2	8	25.0	HI	N/A	[53]
Charadriiformes	Actitis macularius	2	22	9.1	HI	Monotypic reaction with titers \geq 1:20 to MAYV	[56]
Passeriformes	Dendrocolaptidae family, unspecified species	1	97	1.0	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Passeriformes	Icterus spurius	1	223	0.45	Virus isolation by inoculation into suckling mice	NA	[60]
Passeriformes	Arremon tactiturnus	1	NA	NA	HI (confirmatory NT unclear)	NA	[66]
Passeriformes	Pipridae family, unspecified species	1	229	0.44	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Passeriformes	Cercomacra tyrannina	1	NA	NA	HI (confirmatory NT unclear)	NA	[66]
Passeriformes	Formicivora grisea	1	NA	NA	HI (confirmatory NT unclear)	NA	[66]
Passeriformes	Tyrannus	1	NA	NA	HI	NA	[66]

	melancholicus				(confirmatory NT unclear)		
Passeriformes	Tyrannidae family, unspecified species	1	102	0.98	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Charadriiformes	Pluvialis squatarola	1	4	25.0	HI	Monotypic reaction with titers \geq 1:20 to MAYV	[56]
Charadriiformes	Haematopus palliatus	1	6	16.7	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Sterna eurygnatha	1	7	14.3	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Sterna maxima	1	1	100	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Sterna niotica	1	1	100	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Calidris fuscicollis	1	11	9.1	HI	NA	[53]
Charadriiformes	Calidris minutilla	1	6	16.7	HI	Monotypic reaction with titers \geq 1:20 to MAYV	[56]
Caprimulgiformes	Caprimulgidae family, unspecified species	1	5	20.0	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Columbiformes	Columbidae family, unspecified species	1	34	2.9	HI with confirmatory NT	NA	[19]
Passeriformes	Molothrus sp.	1	NA	NA	HI	Titers 1:80	[55]

397

7 MAYV: Mayaro virus; HI: hemagglutination inhibition; NT: neutralization test

^a Denominators presented in this table reflect only studies that reported MAYV positivity. Complete data (including
 MAYV-negative samples) is reflected in the seroprevalence meta-analysis and the Supplementary Tables.

400

401 Additional wild-caught mammals with evidence of MAYV infection are presented in

402 **Table 5**. Six rodent species as well as unidentified rodents in the *Echimys* and *Proechimys*

403 genera were detected with MAYV antibodies in French Guiana [21], Peru [88], and Panama

404 [20]. In addition, four species in the order Didelphimorphia, three species in the order Pilosa, and

405 one species each in the orders Carnivora, Artiodactyla, and Cingulata were detected with MAYV

406 antibodies in French Guiana [21] and Peru [88]. Additional positive samples were detected in the

407 orders Rodentia, Didelphimorphia, and Pilosa although the species were not identified.

408 **Table 5. Evidence of MAYV infection in mammals (excluding non-human primates)**

Order	Species	Positive (n)	Total (n) ^a	% Pos	Test method	Notes	Citation
Rodentia	Wild rodents, unspecified	71	960	7.4	HI	Results presented as a table from the Belem Virus	[52]
						Laboratory, but no further	

Didelphimorphia	Opossum, unspecified	9	122	7.4	HI	information is provided regarding the methods or species. Results presented as a table from the Belem Virus Laboratory, but no further information is provided regarding the methods or species.	[52]
Pilosa	Choloepus didactylus	7	26	26.9	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Didelphimorphia	Marmosa sp.	7	46	15.2	HI	NA	[52]
Pilosa	Tamandua tetradactyla	6	26	23.1	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Cingulata	Dasypus novemcinctus	4	40	10.0	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
		2	4	50.0	ELISA with confirmatory plaque reduction NT	NA	[88]
Rodentia	Dasyprocta leporina	5	29	17.2	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Didelphimorphia	Philander opossum	5	27	18.5	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Rodentia	Coendou prehensilis	3	26	11.5	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Rodentia	Dasyprocta punctata	3	5	60.0	Plaque reduction NT	Samples considered positive if 90% plaque reduction by plasma 1:16 or weaker. The median positive titer was 1:128 (range 1:32-1:512).	[20]
Rodentia	Dasyprocta fuliginosa	3	27	11.1	ELISA with confirmatory plaque reduction NT	NA	[88]
Rodentia	Coendou melanurus	2	15	13.3	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Didelphimorphia	Didelphis albiventris	2	19	10.5	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Rodentia	Echimys sp.	1	21	4.8	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Rodentia	Agouti paca	1	10	10.0	ELISA with confirmatory plaque reduction NT	NA	[88]

Rodentia	Proechimys	1	18	5.6	HI with	NA	[21]
	sp.				confirmatory NT ^b		
Didelphimorphia	Caluromys philander	1	5	20.0	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Didelphimorphia	Didelphis marsupialis	1	29	3.5	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Carnivora	Potos flavus	1	9	11.1	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Artiodactyla	Pecari tajacu	1	6	16.7	ELISA with confirmatory plaque reduction NT	NA	[88]
Pilosa	Bradypus tridactylus	1	29	3.5	HI with confirmatory NT ^b	NA	[21]
Pilosa	Bradypus sp.	1	3	33.3	HI	NA	[52]

409

MAYV: Mayaro virus; HI: hemagglutination inhibition; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; RT-PCR:

410 reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; NT: neutralization test

411 ^a Denominators presented in this table reflect only studies that reported MAYV positivity. Complete data (including

412 MAYV-negative samples) is reflected in the seroprevalence meta-analysis and the Supplementary Tables.

- 413 ^b Serum samples with titers >1:20 confirmed by seroneutralization. Positive reaction was considered with the total 414
- 415
- inhibition of the cytopathic effect in the cell monolayer.

Successful isolation of MAYV was reported from the following viremic animals: a 416

417 silvery marmoset (*Callithrix argentata*) captured during a MAYV outbreak in Belterra, Brazil

418 [19] and a migrating orchard oriole (*Icterus spurius*) captured in Louisiana [60]. In addition, the

Belem Virus Laboratory reported MAYV isolation from two lizard species in 1963 [52] 419

420 (Tropidurus torquatus and Ameiva ameiva) although no further information was provided

- 421 regarding study methods or procedures.
- 422 The geographic distribution of animals (wild-caught, domestic, and sentinel) infected
- 423 with MAYV is presented in Fig 2. The infected animals were identified in six countries overall,
- 424 including Brazil, Peru, French Guiana, Colombia, Venezuela, and Panama, although the majority
- 425 of infected animals were found in Brazil. Overall, 12 locations were geo-referenced as points,

four locations as ADM1 polygons, 15 locations as ADM2 polygons, and two locations as custompolygons.

Fig 2. Georeferenced locations of MAYV positivity in non-human animals and arthropods.
 The finest spatial scale is presented where possible. One MAYV isolate detected in a migrating

- 430 bird in Louisiana is not included in the map.
- 431

432 MAYV in domestic or sentinel animals

433 Nine studies analyzed MAYV seroprevalence in domestic animals (equids, sheep,

434 poultry, dogs, pigs, cattle, and buffaloes), and five studies analyzed MAYV seroprevalence in

435 sentinel animals (monkeys, mice, and hamsters). Domestic and sentinel animals with evidence

436 of MAYV positivity are reported in **Table 5** and complete results are reported in the **S4 Table**.

437 In domestic animals, evidence of MAYV infection was detected in equids, cattle/buffalo, and

438 dogs. Six studies assessed MAYV seroprevalence in Brazilian equids [54, 57, 63, 74, 85, 86],

439 and antibodies against MAYV were detected in four of these studies. Notably, Gomes et al. [74]

440 reported MAYV neutralizing antibodies in 48 equids out of 213 (23%) based on ELISA.

441 However, only 16 of the 48 equids were considered positive based on the study's diagnostic

442 criterion of 4-fold greater plaque reduction NT₉₀ titer than that of the other viruses under study.

443 In addition, Casseb et al. [63] detected MAYV antibodies in 40 horses using HI, although only

444 four of the 40 reactions were monotypic, and confirmatory NTs were not performed. Additional

445 domestic animals with evidence of MAYV infection included cattle/buffalo (n=14/1103 positive

446 reactions by HI; 5/14 monotypic reactions [62]) and dogs (n=2/7 positive reactions by HI [53]).

447 In addition, neutralizing antibodies (plaque reduction NT_{90} titer ≥ 10) against MAYV were

448 detected in three sheep in Brazil [86]. However, these animals did not meet the original study's

diagnostic criterion for MAYV diagnosis based on 4-fold greater plaque reduction NT₉₀ titer

- 450 than that of the other viruses under study. Evidence of MAYV infection was also detected by HI
- 451 in two sentinel monkeys placed in the tree canopy in Panama [98], and one MAYV isolate was
- 452 obtained from a sentinel hamster in Venezuela [82].

453 Table 6. Domestic and sentinel animals with evidence of MAYV infection

Animal Type	Total Positive	Number Tested ^a	% Pos	Test Method	Notes	Citation
Domestic Equids	16	213	7.5	ELISA with confirmatory plaque reduction NT	Forty-eight horses had antibodies to MAYV by ELISA. Sixteen of 48 (33%) were considered positive by plaque reduction NT_{90} for MAYV with titers 1:10 (n=12), 1:20 (n=3) and 1:40 (n=1).	[74]
	4	753	0.5	HI	Forty reactions overall. Four of 40 reactions were monotypic while 36 of 40 were heterotypic.	[63]
	11	102	10.8	HI	Not clear if the 11 reactions are monotypic or heterotypic.	[57]
	10	748	1.5	Plaque reduction NT	Forty-four horses had neutralizing antibody (titer \geq 10) against MAYV, but only ten met the diagnostic criteria of 4-fold greater plaque reduction NT ₉₀ titer than the three other viruses (VEEV, EEEV, WEEV). Positive samples had titers of 1:20 (n=6) and 1:40 (n=4)	[86]
Domestic Cattle/Buffalo	5	1103	0.5	НІ	Positive reactions were considered any reaction with a titer equal to or greater than 1:20. Fourteen reactions overall, and five of 14 reactions were monotypic.	[62]
Domestic Dog	2	7	28.6	HI	N/A	[53]
Sentinel Hamster	1	N/A	N/A	RT-PCR		[82]
Sentinel Monkeys	2	13	15.4	HI	N/A	[98]

⁴⁵⁴

457

^a Denominators presented in this table reflect only studies that reported MAYV positivity. Complete data (including 458 MAYV-negative samples) are reflected in the seroprevalence meta-analysis and the Supplementary Tables.

459

MAYV: Mayaro virus; HI: hemagglutination inhibition; ELISA: enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay; RT-PCR:

⁴⁵⁵ reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction; NT: neutralization test; VEEV: Venezuelan equine encephalitis 456 virus; EEEV: Eastern equine encephalitis virus; WEEV: Western equine encephalitis virus

460 **Pooled prevalence of MAYV in non-human vertebrate animals**

461	Twenty-four studies overall were included in the pooled prevalence meta-analysis. Eight
462	studies were excluded because they did not clearly state how many animals were tested for
463	MAYV within each order [55, 66, 72, 84, 89, 93] or did not present serologic results [60, 70].
464	Another study was excluded because authors reported the number of "Group A" positive serum
465	samples, but did not specify individual viruses [98]. Studies were also excluded if they only
466	reported sequence data or only included sentinel animals [82, 91, 95, 100]. Finally, a study that
467	sampled bats exclusively was excluded because no MAYV-positive samples were reported in the
468	order Chiroptera [92].
469	Eleven orders of nonhuman vertebrate animals (including domestic equids) were included
470	in the meta-analysis. Orders were excluded from the analysis due to insufficient sample size
471	(N<10) or if no MAYV-positive samples were reported. These include the orders Apodiformes
472	(MAYV prevalence: 0/3), Caprimulgiformes (MAYV prevalence: 1/6), Chiroptera (MAYV
473	prevalence: 0/1546), Crocodilia (MAYV prevalence: 0/87), Cuculiformes (MAYV prevalence:
474	0/5), Galliformes (MAYV prevalence: 0/1), Gruiformes (MAYV prevalence: 0/2), Psittaciformes
475	(MAYV prevalence: 0/3), Tinamiformes (MAYV prevalence: 0/2), Pelecaniformes (MAYV
476	prevalence: 0/2), and Podicipediformes (MAYV prevalence: 0/2).
477	
477	The primate order appeared in 14 studies that were included in the meta-analysis. When
478	all positive samples were included, the pooled MAYV seroprevalence among primates was
479	13.1% (95% CI: 4.3-25.1%) according to the random effects model, with statistically significant
480	heterogeneity across studies ($I^2 = 95\%$, p < 0.01). After excluding positive samples that were not
481	confirmed by NT, the pooled MAYV seroprevalence among primates decreased to 4.9 (95% CI:
482	0.0-15.2; $I^2 = 96\%$; p < 0.01) according to the random effects model. When the analyses were
	27

483	repeated using the GLMM with logit transformation, seroprevalence estimates for primates
484	decreased to 8.7% (95% CI: 3.1-22.0%) overall and to 0.7% (95% CI: 0.0-9.1%) when only NT-
485	positive samples were included. Additional meta-analysis results for the various primate genera
486	are presented in S6 and S7 Tables. The seroprevalence for the most frequently sampled primate
487	genera was 32.2% (95% CI: 0.0-79.2%) for the Alouatta genus, 17.8% (95% CI: 8.6-28.5%) for
488	the Callithrix genus, and 3.7% (95% CI: 0.0-11.1%) for the Cebus/Sapajus genus.
489	Meta-analysis results for additional non-human vertebrate orders are presented in Table 7
490	and forest plots for mammal orders and avian orders are presented in Figs 3 and 4, respectively.
491	When all positive samples were included in the analysis, the highest seroprevalence was
492	observed in the orders Charadriiformes (prevalence: 7.1%; 95% CI: 2.2-13.8%) and Cingulata
493	(prevalence: 3.0%; 95% CI: 0.0-24.5%). When the analysis was repeated using GLMM with
494	logit transformation, the seroprevalence increased to 10.0% (95% CI: 2.7-30.8%) for the order
495	Cingulata and 9.2% (95% CI: 4.4-18.2%) for the order Charadriiformes. All results of the
496	sensitivity analysis using GLMM with logit transformation are reported in the S5 Table. An
497	additional sensitivity analysis using fixed effects models is presented in the S8 and S9 Tables.

Table 7. Pooled Prevalence Table (Random effects with Freeman-Tukey double arcsine transformation)

Order	Positives Included ^a	Studies (n)	Total (n)	Positive (n)	Pooled Prevalence (%)	95% CI	I ² (%)	$ au^2$	p- value
				Mammals	1				
Primate	HI and NT	13	897	153	13.1	4.3; 25.1	95	0.0692	< 0.01
	NT only	13	858	114	4.9	0.0; 15.2	96	0.0851	< 0.01
Pilosa	HI and NT	7	297	15	0.0	0.0; 6.6	84	0.0338	< 0.01
	NT only	7	296	14	0.0	0.0; 3.9	82	0.0305	< 0.01
Rodentia	HI and NT	7	1557	90	1.3	0.0; 6.5	91	0.0160	< 0.01
	NT only	7	1486	19	0.1	0.0; 3.7	90	0.0153	< 0.01
Domestic Equids	HI and NT	6	1955	41	1.1	0.0; 4.5	90	0.0085	< 0.01
	NT only	6	1940	26	0.0	0.0; 1.9	90	0.0087	< 0.01
Didelphimorphia	HI and NT	6	369	25	2.0	0.0; 7.2	68	0.0101	< 0.01
	NT only	6	353	9	0.1	0.0; 4.2	74	0.0141	< 0.01

Carnivora Order	HI and NT	5	40	2	0.1	0.0; 8.1	0	0	0.71
	NT only	5	40	2	0.1	0.0; 8.1	0	0	0.71
Cingulata Order	HI and NT	4	70	6	3.0	0.0; 24.5	35	0.0198	0.20
	NT only	4	70	6	3.0	0.0; 24.5	35	0.0198	0.20
Artiodactyla	HI and NT	2	26	1	2.3	0.0; 20.7	46	0.0172	0.17
	NT only	2	26	1	2.3	0.0; 20.7	46	0.0172	0.17
				Birds ^b					
Charadriiformes	HI and NT	3	641	71	7.1	2.2; 13.8	61	0.0045	0.08
Passeriformes	HI and NT	4	1166	14	0.0	0.0; 0.0	27	0.0010	0.25
Columbiformes	HI and NT	4	171	35	2.2	0.0; 27.1	87	0.0591	< 0.01

⁵⁰⁰ MAYV: Mayaro virus; HI: hemagglutination inhibition; NT: neutralization test; CI: confidence interval

^a The first analysis (HI and NT) included all positive samples, regardless of test method. A sensitivity analysis was

502 conducted that included only positive samples that were confirmed with NT.

503 ^bOnly one study reporting MAYV positivity in birds used confirmatory NT. Therefore, a sensitivity analysis was 504 not conducted.

505

506 Fig 3. Forest plots of mammal orders from meta-analysis of pooled MAYV seroprevalence.

507 Estimates are based on random effects model with Freeman-Tukey double arcsine

508 transformation. All samples that tested MAYV-positive are included, regardless of test method.

509 Fig 4. Forest plots of avian orders from meta-analysis of pooled MAYV seroprevalence.

- 510 Estimates are based on random effects model with Freeman-Tukey double arcsine
- 511 transformation. All samples that tested MAYV-positive are included, regardless of test method.
- 512

513 MAYV in wild-caught arthropods

514	Twenty-eight of the studies in our systematic review analyzed MAYV infection in wild-	
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515 caught arthropods. Seventeen (61%) of the 28 studies reported at least one arthropod that was

516 positive for MAYV infection. Of the mosquito genera studied, seven were found to be infected

517 with MAYV: Aedes, Culex, Haemagogus, Psorophora, Sabethes, Wyeomyia, and Mansonia. For

518 detailed information on all infected mosquito species, see **Table 8**. The majority of infected

519 vectors were identified using viral isolation techniques, although three studies reported MAYV

- 520 positivity using RT-PCR alone. In addition, one study reported isolation of MAYV from an
- 521 *Ixodes* tick [91] while another study reported isolation from a *Gigantolaelaps* mite [52].

522 Complete results, including studies that did not detect MAYV in arthropods, are reported in the

- 523 **S10 Table**.
- 524 The geographic distribution of vectors infected with MAYV is presented in **Fig 2**.
- 525 MAYV-positive arthropods were identified in four countries overall, including Brazil, Colombia,
- 526 Panama, and Trinidad. Overall, 15 locations were geo-referenced as points, two locations as
- 527 ADM1 polygons, two locations as ADM2 polygons, two locations as ADM3 polygons, and two
- 528 as custom polygons.

529 **Table 8. Evidence of MAYV infection in arthropods**

Genus	Species	Notes	Year	Citation
Haemagogus	Hg. janthinomys	Pools of <i>Hg. janthinomys</i> yielded nine isolates by injection into suckling mice	1978	[19]
		A pool of two <i>Hg. janthinomys</i> yielded one strain by inoculation into newborn mice and C6/36 cells and confirmed by complement fixation and immunofluorescent assays	2008	[58]
		Mayaro virus isolate BeAr505578, complete genome. GenBank accession no. KY618129	1991	GenBank: KY618129
		Mayaro virus isolate BeAr505411. Genbank accession no. DQ487382	1991	[91]
	Hg. equinus	One MAYV isolate detected by viral culture using Vero cells with confirmation in microplates.	1973-76	[72]
	Hg. lucifer	Two MAYV isolates detected by viral culture using Vero cells with confirmation in microplates.	1973-76	[72]
	NA	Twenty-five isolates reported. No further information provided.	NA	[52]
		Mayaro virus isolate BeAr350396. GenBank accession no. DQ487388	1978	[91]
		Complete Genome Sequence of Mayaro Virus Strain BeAr 20290. GenBank accession no. KT754168.	1960	[68]
Aedes	Ae. aegypti	Two out of 57 (3.5%) pools positive by PCR and isolated in C6/36 cells.	2017	[79]
		Four out of 171 (2.3%) pools positive by RT-PCR. One pool yielded an isolate after inoculation in Vero cells.	2013	[96]
	Ae. serratus	Addendum to the article states that one additional MAYV strain was isolated from <i>Ae. serratus</i> pools. No further	1960	[75]

		information provided.		
Mansonia	M. venezuelensis ^a	MAYV was isolated in baby mice from a pool of 49 wild-caught <i>M</i> . <i>venezuelensis</i> mosquitoes.	1957	[48]
		One isolation. No further information provided. GenBank accession no. DQ487384.	1957	[52, 91]
Culex	C. nigripalpus	One pool out of 152 (0.7%) positive by RT-PCR.	2014-15	[77]
	C. quinqefasciatus	Twelve out of 403 (3%) pools positive by RT-PCR. One pool was isolated after inoculation in Vero cells.	2013	[96]
		Twelve out of 179 (6.7%) pools positive by RT-PCR and isolation in Vero cells.	2017-18	[69]
	C. vomerifer	Wild-caught mosquitoes were allowed to feed on caged hamsters. The sera of one hamster produced MAYV antibodies by HI.	1966	[71]
	NA	Mayaro virus strain BeAr757954, complete genome. GenBank accession no. KY618130.	2011	GenBank: KY618130
		One isolation. No further information provided.	NA	[52]
Psorophora	P. ferox	A pool of <i>P. ferox</i> yielded one isolate by inoculation into Swiss mice.	1959-62	[70]
		Addendum to the article states that five additional MAYV strains were isolated from <i>P. ferox</i> pools. No further information provided.	1960	[75]
	NA	Four out of 748 (0.5%) pools yielded strains isolated by inoculation into Swiss mice from. Pools of 50 mosquitoes each were composed of <i>P. albipes</i> , <i>P. ferox</i> , or a combination of the two.	1958	[75]
Wyeomyia	NA	One pool out of 304 (0.3%) positive by RT-PCR.	2006-14	[64]
Sabethes	NA	Two isolations. No further information provided	NA	[52]
Gigantolaelaps	NA	One isolation. No further information provided	NA	[52]
Ixodes	NA	Genbank accession no. DQ487378	1961	[91]

530

^a The mosquito *Mansonia venezuelensis* is now referred to as *Coquillettidia venezuelensis*.

531 Analysis of publication bias

532 Publication bias was assessed among six animal orders (including domestic equids) and

533 two primate genera. The results of Egger's test did not reveal evidence of publication bias for the

534 included studies. Therefore, the Trim fill technique was not carried out. Funnel plots are

535 presented in **S1 and S2 Figures**, and results of Egger's test are reported in the **S11 Table**.

Discussion

537	To our knowledge, this study is the first attempt to systematically review the existing
538	evidence of non-human animal reservoirs and arthropod vectors of MAYV, and the first study to
539	quantitatively analyze the pooled seroprevalence of potential reservoirs. We identified 57
540	studies that assessed MAYV infection in non-human vertebrate animals and arthropods. Overall,
541	the studies found evidence of MAYV infection in 12 wild-caught animal orders and seven
542	arthropod genera across seven Latin American countries and the USA.
543	The majority of animal species that were found to be infected with MAYV belonged to
544	the orders Primate and Charadriiformes (shorebirds). Several MAYV-positive species were also
545	detected in the orders Rodentia, Didelphimorphia, and Pilosa. Overall, the highest MAYV
546	pooled prevalence occurred in the Primate order. This finding points to the potential role of
547	NHPs as an important reservoir in the MAYV transmission cycle.
548	The role of NHPs in sylvatic transmission cycles of arboviruses has been demonstrated
549	with varying degrees of evidence [101]. Several arboviruses have been successfully isolated
550	from wild NHPs, including dengue [102], CHIKV [103], and Zika [104] viruses. While isolation
551	of a virus from NHPs is important for establishing the existence of a sylvatic cycle, it is difficult
552	to achieve due to the short duration of viremia [101]. In our review, we identified only one study
553	that successfully isolated MAYV from a NHP [19]. In the absence of viral detection, antibody
554	seroprevalence has been used as evidence of the role of NHPs in sylvatic transmission cycles
555	[105, 106]. Therefore, the high seroprevalence of MAYV among NHPs, including 52%
556	seropositivity among A. seniculus monkeys in a 1994-95 survey in French Guiana [21], points to
557	the potential importance of NHPs as MAYV reservoirs. Furthermore, Hoch et al. [19] reported

substantial viremia in *C. argentata* marmosets that were experimentally infected with MAYV and noted that viremia titer was likely sufficient to infect vectors. Due to the high MAYV seroprevalence among marmosets during the Belterra outbreak, the isolation of MAYV from a single *C. argentata* marmoset, and the results of experimental infection studies, the authors concluded that marmosets were likely the amplifying hosts of MAYV.

563 The importance of birds in the MAYV transmission cycle was hypothesized following 564 viral isolation from a migrating oriole (Icterus spurius) in Louisiana [60]. Avian species have 565 been implicated as definitive or potential reservoirs of several Alphaviruses, including Sindbis 566 virus [107], Ross River virus [108], and Eastern/Western equine encephalitis virus [109]. 567 However, their role in MAYV transmission remains poorly understood. Our systematic review 568 identified seven studies that found MAYV positivity in birds in the orders Passeriformes, 569 Caprimulgiformes, Columbiformes, and Charadriiformes with relatively high seroprevalence 570 reported in several bird species in the latter two orders [52, 53]. While some have theorized that 571 MAYV has been introduced into certain areas by migratory birds [59], this hypothesis requires 572 further study in order to elucidate the role of birds in MAYV transmission.

573 Although evidence of MAYV infection was detected in several vertebrate species, 574 identifying the primary non-human animal reservoirs remains a difficult task. The precise 575 definition of a disease "reservoir" has been a source of disagreement [17, 110]. One definition 576 proposed by Haydon et al., (2002) defined a reservoir as "one or more epidemiologically 577 connected populations or environments in which the pathogen can be permanently maintained 578 and from which infection is transmitted to the defined target population" [17]. In addition, in 579 2005 Kuno and Chang outlined three basic criteria for the identification of reservoirs including 580 isolation of the virus from the suspected reservoir population, high antibody prevalence in field-

33

581 caught animals, and evidence of viremia in laboratory settings, although they posited that 582 definitive identification of a reservoir requires evidence of long-term infection [111]. The role of 583 various non-human vertebrates in the MAYV transmission cycle should be explored further in 584 longitudinal seroprevalence surveys and experimental transmission studies in laboratory settings. 585 The sylvatic *Hg. janthinomys* mosquito has long been considered as the primary vector of 586 MAYV. This is in part based on the isolation of MAYV from several pools of Hg. janthinomys mosquitoes in the context of a major MAYV outbreak in Belterra, Brazil in 1978 [19]. Our 587 588 systematic review also identified several additional mosquito species including Ae. aegypti and 589 *Cx. quingefasciatus* with evidence of MAYV infection. A caveat, however, is that the isolation 590 of a virus or detection of viral RNA through PCR is not sufficient to establish that arthropod as a 591 biological vector [112], i.e. involved in the biological transmission of pathogens [111]. The 592 World Health Organization (WHO) established three criteria to define a confirmed vector: (1) 593 viral isolation in the absence of vertebrate blood; (2) biological transmission of the virus in 594 experimental conditions; and (3) presence of certain temporal, geographic and other 595 epidemiological or ecological parameters that allow transmission to occur [112]. Thus, certain 596 arthropods that are capable of ingesting and transmitting a virus may not be established as 597 confirmed vectors if the other parameters are not in place.

598 Experimental transmission studies support the role of *Ae. aegypti* as a possible MAYV 599 vector with high MAYV infection rates and transmission potential [22-24, 113]. For example, 600 Long et al., revealed *Ae. aegypti* to be a capable MAYV vector with a relatively short extrinsic 601 incubation period [22]. Furthermore, MAYV titers in the saliva of *Ae. aegypti* were similar to 602 other Alphavirus-vector systems including EEEV in *Culiseta melanura* and VEEV in *Ae.* 603 *albopictus* and *Ae. taeniorhynchus*. In contrast, *Cx. quinquefasciatus* mosquitoes exhibited low

MAYV infection rates and inability to transmit MAYV in laboratory settings [113]. It is also
important to note that the competence of a given vector species to transmit MAYV may be
impacted by the MAYV genotype that is present in a given area. In laboratory conditions,
genotype L infection rates were significantly higher than genotype D infection rates among *Ae*. *aegypti* mosquitoes [113].

609 The spillover of MAYV into urban populations has been a source of concern for Latin 610 American health authorities [114]. The implication is that anthropophilic, urban-dwelling 611 mosquitoes like Ae. aegypti as effective vectors of MAYV would increase the potential for urban 612 MAYV outbreaks [115]. Concerns of urban MAYV transmission were amplified after antibodies 613 to MAYV were discovered in 33 of 631 sera (5.2%) in the city of Manaus, Brazil in 2007-08 614 [25] although it is unclear if humans can serve as amplification hosts. For example, Long et al. noted that the short duration of MAYV viremia and the relatively low viremic titers in humans 615 616 reduces the probability of urban spread [22]. Our systematic review identified two recent studies 617 conducted in the city of Cuiaba in which MAYV was isolated from pools of wild-caught Ae. 618 *aegypti* mosquitoes [79, 96]. One of these studies also reported vertical transmission of MAYV 619 [79]. This represents another mechanism that may lead to maintenance of the virus in urban 620 mosquito populations. Although Ae. aegypti mosquitoes have not been conclusively implicated 621 as MAYV vectors, the isolation of MAYV from wild-caught Ae. aegypti mosquitoes combined 622 with the evidence of vector competence in laboratory settings [22-24, 113] suggests that MAYV 623 could spill over into an urban cycle. This hypothesis requires further study to explore natural 624 MAYV infection in city-dwelling mosquitoes and additional controlled vector competence 625 studies.

626	Our systematic review revealed substantial heterogeneity across included studies, even
627	within animal orders. Heterogeneity may complicate the interpretation of pooled seroprevalence
628	estimates [38]. An additional limitation involves the validity of serological assays used to detect
629	MAYV infection in animals. While plaque reduction NT is considered the "gold standard test"
630	for detecting neutralizing antibodies to MAYV, some of the studies in the review instead relied
631	on the less-specific HI test for antibody detection [101]. Furthermore, antibodies to other
632	alphaviruses in the Semliki Forest serocomplex (e.g., CHIKV) may cross-react in serological
633	tests [116]. Therefore, interpretation of seroprevalence estimates should be done with caution
634	especially in the absence of confirmatory NT. Finally, unpublished data and articles with low
635	quality scores were included in this review due to the paucity of eligible studies. Therefore,
636	readers should consider the heterogeneity of study quality when interpreting the results of pooled
637	seroprevalence estimates

638

639 Conclusions

MAYV is an emerging arbovirus that poses a major threat to human populations in Latin 640 641 America. In order for public health authorities to effectively design MAYV surveillance and 642 control programs, an understanding of the disease ecology is essential. This systematic review 643 adds to existing knowledge regarding the potential animal reservoirs and arthropod vectors that 644 are involved in the MAYV transmission cycle. These baseline data and maps of MAYV 645 occurrence can direct risk emergence modeling and prediction efforts. Future studies involving 646 experimental infection of primates and other non-human vertebrates are necessary to determine 647 the animal species that may serve as amplifying hosts. Furthermore, additional experimental

transmission studies may provide critical information regarding the potential for *Ae. aegypti* to
facilitate urban spread of MAYV.

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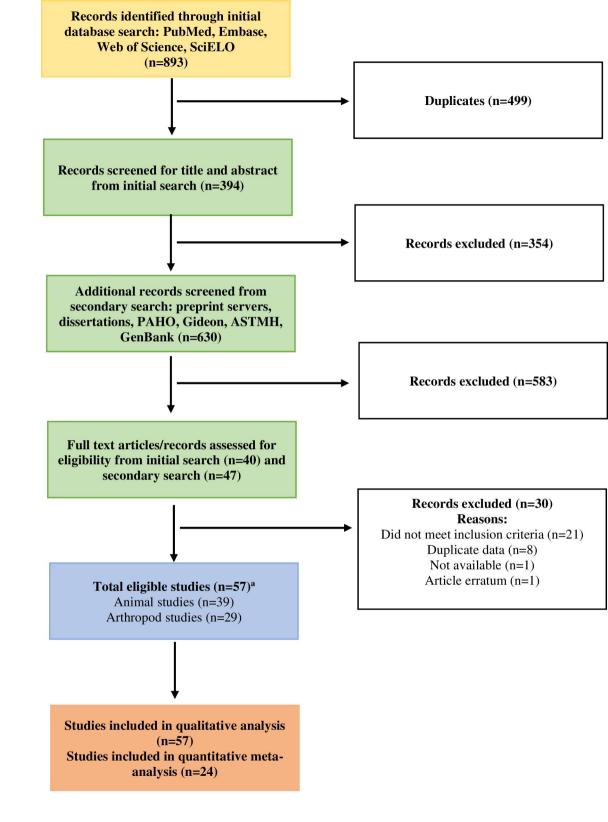
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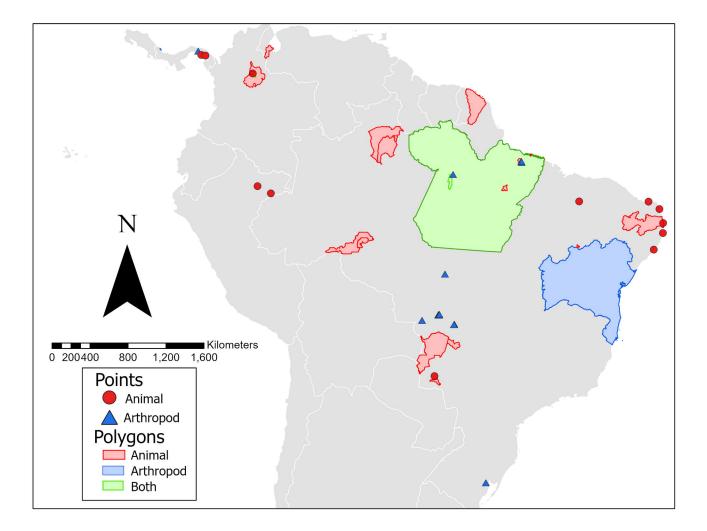
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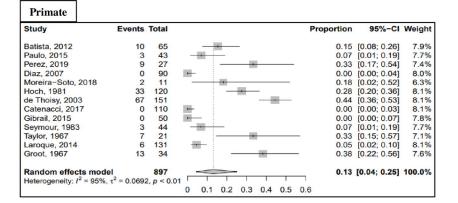
1089 Supplementary Materials

- 1090 S1 Table. PRISMA Checklist
- 1091 S2 Table. MAYV positivity by taxa of wild mammals in included studies
- 1092 S3 Table. MAYV positivity by taxa of wild birds in included studies
- 1093 S4 Table. MAYV positivity in domestic or sentinel animals studied
- 1094 S5 Table. Pooled Prevalence Table (Random effects using GLMM with logit
- 1095 transformation)
- 1096 S6 Table. Primate Genera Pooled Prevalence Table (Random effects with Freeman-Tukey
- 1097 double arcsine transformation)
- 1098 S7 Table. Primate Genera Pooled Prevalence Table (Random effects using GLMM with
- 1099 **logit transformation**)
- 1100 S8 Table. Pooled Prevalence Table (Fixed effects with Freeman-Tukey double arcsine
- 1101 **transformation**)
- 1102 **S9 Table. Pooled Prevalence Table (Fixed effects using GLMM with logit transformation)**
- 1103 S1 Fig. Funnel plots for estimates of MAYV seroprevalence in non-human animal
- 1104 reservoirs
- 1105 S2 Fig: Funnel plots for estimates of MAYV seroprevalence in non-human primate genera
- 1106 S10 Table. Complete arthropod results by genus
- 1107 S11 Table. Egger's test for publication bias



^a Eleven articles assessed MAYV in both non-human animals and arthropods





Didalphimomhia								Domostic Four	da						
Didelphimorp	nia							Domestic Equi	us						
Study	Events	Total			Proportion	95%-C	Weight	Study	Events	Total			Proportion	95%-CI	Weight
Seymour, 1983	0	17			0.00	[0.00; 0.20]	11.8%	Casseb, 2016	4	753	+		0.01	[0.00; 0.01]	21.2%
Hoch, 1981	0	35	F		0.00	[0.00; 0.10]	16.8%	Gomes, 2019	16	213	-+		0.08	[0.04; 0.12]	19.4%
de Thoisy, 2003	9	99			0.09	[0.04; 0.17]	22.8%	Pauvolid-Correa, 2015	10	748	•		0.01	[0.01; 0.02]	21.2%
Taylor, 1967	16	168	-+		0.10	[0.06; 0.15]	24.9%	Pauvolid-Correa, 2010	0	135	÷.		0.00	[0.00; 0.03]	18.1%
Cruz, 2009	0	5	B.		0.00	[0.00; 0.52]	5.2%	Araujo, 2004	0	4	1 .		0.00	[0.00; 0.60]	2.9%
Sanmartin, 1973	0	45	H		0.00	[0.00; 0.08]	18.5%	Araujo, 2012b	11	102			0.11	[0.06; 0.18]	17.1%
Random effects mode	el	369	\diamond		0.02	[0.00; 0.07]	100.0%	Random effects mode		1955	\diamond		0.01	[0.00; 0.04]	100.0%
Heterogeneity: /2 = 68%,	$\tau^2 = 0.0101$	p < 0.	01		٦			Heterogeneity: $l^2 = 90\%$,	$t^2 = 0.0085$	5. p < 0.0)1				
<u> </u>				2 0.3 0.4 0.5 0).6			,,,,,,,, .		1		0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6			

Rodentia									Pilosa								
Study	Events	Total			Pr	roportion	95%-CI	Weight	Study	Events	Total				Proportion	95%-CI	Weight
Seymour, 1983	3	54				0.06	[0.01; 0.15]	14.6%	Medlin, 2016	0	94	H			0.00	[0.00; 0.04]	
Perez, 2019	4	39				0.10	[0.03; 0.24]	13.4%	Seymour, 1983	0	78	-			0.00	[0.00; 0.05]	19.6%
Hoch, 1981	0	237	-			0.00	[0.00; 0.02]	17.6%	Perez, 2019	0	1	-			- 0.00	[0.00; 0.98]	3.6%
de Thoisy, 2003	12	155				0.08	[0.04; 0.13]	17.0%	Hoch, 1981	0	11	-			0.00	[0.00; 0.28]	13.1%
Taylor, 1967	71	960	+			0.07	[0.06; 0.09]	18.4%	de Thoisy, 2003	14	81	-+			0.17	[0.10; 0.27]	19.7%
Cruz, 2009	0	2	-		\longrightarrow	0.00	[0.00; 0.84]	2.6%	Taylor, 1967	1	3				0.33	[0.01; 0.91]	6.9%
Sanmartin, 1973	0	110	-			0.00	[0.00; 0.03]	16.4%	Catenacci, 2017	0	29	-			0.00	[0.00; 0.12]	17.2%
Random effects mo Heterogeneity: $I^2 = 91$		1557 , ρ < 0.		1 1 1		0.01	[0.00; 0.06]	100.0%	Random effects Heterogeneity: I ² =		297 , p < 0.		1 1	1	0.00	[0.00; 0.07]	100.0%
			0 0.1	0.2 0.3 0.4	0.5 0.6							0 0.2	0.4 0.	6 0.8	1		

Cingulata									Carnivora					
Study	Events 1	Total				Proportion	95%-CI	Weight	Study	Events Total		Proportion	95%-CI	Weight
Seymour, 1983 Perez, 2019 Hoch, 1981 de Thoisy, 2003	0 2 0 4	5 4 1 60	,	-		- 0.50 - 0.00	[0.00; 0.52] [0.07; 0.93] [0.00; 0.98] [0.02; 0.16]	17.5% 7.1%	de Thoisy, 2003 Seymour, 1983 Perez, 2019 Hoch, 1981 Sanmartin, 1973	2 16 0 12 0 4 0 7 0 1		0.00 0.00 0.00	[0.02; 0.38] [0.00; 0.26] [0.00; 0.60] [0.00; 0.41] [0.00; 0.98]	29.4% 10.6% 17.6%
Random effects mo Heterogeneity: $I^2 = 35$		70 ρ = 0.20		0.4 0.6	0.8	0.03	[0.00; 0.24]	100.0%	Random effects mo Heterogeneity: I ² = 0%		0 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8	0.00	[0.00; 0.08]	100.0%

Passeriformes											
Study	Events	Total						Pro	oportion	95%-CI	Weight
Hoch, 1981	14	1003							0.01	[0.01; 0.02]	65.9%
Cruz, 2009	0	5	-			-			0.00	[0.00; 0.52]	1.8%
Sanmartin, 1973	0	156	Ċ.						0.00	[0.00; 0.02]	31.5%
Araujo, 2012	0	2	-						0.00	[0.00; 0.84]	0.8%
			1								
Random effects m		1166	Ì						0.00	[0.00; 0.00]	100.0%
Heterogeneity: $I^2 = 27$	7%, τ ² = 0.0010	p = 0.2	5								
-			0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1			

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Columbiformes											
Study	Events	Total						Р	roportion	95%-CI	Weight
Hoch, 1981	1	34	-	-						[0.00; 0.15]	30.5%
Taylor, 1967 Cruz, 2009	34 0	119 1	-						0.00	[0.21; 0.38] [0.00; 0.98]	
Sanmartin, 1973	0	17	-						0.00	[0.00; 0.20]	27.5%
Random effects mo Heterogeneity: $I^2 = 879$		171 , p < 0.	01	\geq			-		0.02	[0.00; 0.27]	100.0%
			0	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.8	1			

Charadriiformes										
Study	Events	Total					Prop	ortion	95%-CI	Weight
Araujo, 2003 Sanmartin, 1973 Araujo, 2012	66 0 5	541 9 91	•		-			0.00	[0.10; 0.15] [0.00; 0.34] [0.02; 0.12]	54.2% 8.7% 37.1%
Random effects mod Heterogeneity: <i>I</i> ² = 61%		641 5, p = 0.0	8 0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.07	[0.02; 0.14]	100.0%