Lyssa excreta: Defining parameters for fecal samples as a rabies virus surveillance method

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ABSTRACT

It is not possible to systematically screen the environment for rabies virus (RABV). We sought to

determine under what conditions RABV is detectable from wildlife feces to broaden the number of

biological samples that could be used to test for RABV. We employed a recently-developed quantitative

RT-PCR assay called the "LN34 panlyssavirus real-time RT-PCR assay", which is highly sensitive and

specific for all variants of rabies virus (RABV). We harvested and tested brain tissue, fecal, and/or mouth

swab samples from 25 confirmed RABV positive bats of six species. As a first assessment of whether

rabies RNA lasts sufficiently long post-defecation to use it as a surveillance tool, we tested feces from 10

bats at the time of fecal harvesting and after 24 hours of exposure to ambient conditions. Due to the

success of this test, we performed a second test on six bats out to 72 hours. To assess whether we could

pool fecal pellets and still detect a positive, we generated dilutions of known positives at 1:1, 1:10, 1:50,

and 1:200. For six individuals for which matched brain, mouth swab, and fecal samples were tested,

results were positive for 100%, 67%, and 67%, respectively. For the first time test to 24 hours, 63% of

feces that were positive at time 0 were still positive after 24 hours. For the second time test, all three

replicates were positive for 50% of samples at 72 hours. Pooling tests revealed that fecal positives were

detected at 1:10, but not at 1:50 or 1:200. Our preliminary results suggest that fecal samples hold

promise for a rapid and non-invasive environmental screening system.

Keywords: Lyssavirus, RABV, rabies, virus, Chiroptera, bat, non-invasive, disease surveillance, RT-PCR

INTRODUCTION

Rabies is a zoonotic disease of the central nervous system that invariably results in mortality [1].

It is caused by the RNA virus *Rabies lyssavirus* (RABV) and viruses from the *Lyssavirus* genus. RABV has the

highest fatality rate of infectious diseases, with more than 59,000 human deaths globally each year [2].

Worldwide, dogs are the main RABV reservoir, but in the Americas where vaccination of dogs is

widespread, bats generate most of the human rabies cases [3, 4]. In Latin America, the primary species

causing infection is the common vampire bat (*Desmodus rotundus*) [5], while in the northwestern and

southeastern U.S. tricolored (*Perimyotis subflavus*) and silver-haired (*Lasionycteris noctivagans*) bats have

variants of rabies that are responsible for a higher proportion of human and terrestrial mammal deaths

[6]. In Arizona, suburban outbreaks of the disease occur regularly in wildlife populations, and interactions

between wildlife and residents results in human exposures each year [7]. Arizona is one of the leading

states for rabid wildlife, with bats, skunks, and gray fox the most common reservoir species [8]; Patyk et

al. [9] found that among U.S. bat species, those in the Southwest were more likely to be rabid. Despite

the proximity and serious nature of this virus, it is not possible to systematically screen the environment

for the disease. The gold standard for rabies diagnostics is the direct fluorescent antibody (DFA) test,

which requires fresh brainstem tissues held at cold chain temperatures, requirements that obviate

inexpensive, field-collected samples [10]. Additional testing by the US Department of Agriculture, Animal

and Plant Health Inspection Service, Wildlife Services is conducted through enhanced rabies surveillance

using the direct rapid immunohistochemical test (DRIT) [11, 12] or as part of the rabies public health

surveillance system. What is needed is a rabies detection approach based on readily available non-

traditional samples that can be applied broadly.

A recently-developed quantitative RT-PCR assay called the "LN34 panlyssavirus real-time RT-PCR

assay" is highly sensitive and specific for all variants of rabies virus (RABV) [13, 14]. This assay was

developed by a Centers for Disease Control (CDC) research group [14] and was found to be as or more

sensitive than the DFA test [13]. It consists of a dual assay: the LN34 assay as well as a host species control

β-actin real-time RT-PCR assay that signals presence of RNA in a sample and indicates PCR inhibition,

extraction failure, or RNA degradation. Because the assay is highly sensitive, having succeeded with low

quality and formalin-fixed samples, there is promise for non-traditional sample types such as feces, which

contain nucleic acids that are degraded [15]. Further, presence of RABV and other lyssaviruses in feces

and saliva [16, 17] presents a surveillance opportunity with the LN34 assay, which was successful at RABV

detection down to single digit copies of RNA [14].

Our overarching goal was to define and illustrate an effective and inexpensive surveillance system

for rabies detection that can form the foundation of future statewide efforts to better understand public

health risks. To address the goal, an environmental screening system for detection of RABV from feces

first required evaluation of the strengths and limitations of feces as a potential sample type. We tested 1)

RABV Ct values of brain stem, mouth swab, and fecal material from the same individuals; 2) evaluated

RABV positivity of feces at ambient temperatures over 72 hours to better understand how long RABV may

be detectable post defecation; and, 3) calculated RABV positivity of pooled fecal samples to determine

how many fecal samples can be collected together to still return a positive result. We hypothesized that

bat fecal samples could be reliably employed to detect RABV using the LN34 assay.

METHODS

Sample acquisition

This study was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at Northern Arizona University (Protocol 18-012). Carcasses and brain stems from bats found to be RABV positive via DRIT were provided by USDA Wildlife Services. Arizona bats evaluated included western yellow bat (*Lasiurus xanthinus*), big brown bat (*Eptesicus fuscus*), pocketed free-tailed bat (*Nyctinomops femorosaccus*), Mexican free-tailed bat (*Tadarida brasiliensis*), western pipistrelle (*Parastrellus hesperus*), southern yellow bat (*Lasiurus ega*), and pallid bat (*Antrozous pallidus*). Necropsies were performed in a BSL3 facility by staff with pre-exposure rabies vaccinations. We harvested feces from the intestines of bats using sterile scalpels and medical scissors, and used sterile cotton-tipped swabs to collect saliva. Samples were deposited into DNA/RNA Shield (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA) and frozen at -80°C until RNA extraction.

LN34 panlyssavirus real-time RT-PCR assay

We extracted RNA using the Zymo Direct-Zol RNA Miniprep Kit protocol. We performed the LN34 and β-actin RT-qPCRs on a QuantStudio 7 Flex (ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) as described previously [13, 14]. To summarize, for each sample, the LN34 assay targets the lyssavirus RNA genome and the β-actin assay targets host β-actin mRNA. Each 10 μL reaction contained Luna Probe One-Step RT-qPCR 4X Mix (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA), primers (10 μM), probe (5 μM), and 2 μL RNA template. Samples were run as three replicates, and each assay run contained synthetic positive control RNA provided by the Center for Disease Control (Atlanta, GA, USA) and no template control reactions in triplicate. We used the LN34 assay diagnostic algorithm for post-mortem brainstem samples to determine the positive/inconclusive/negative thresholds [13].

Tissue types, fecal time tests, and pooling

For individuals of five bat species (western yellow bat, n = 1; southern yellow bat, n = 1;

pocketed free-tailed bat, n = 1, Mexican free-tailed bat, n = 1; western pipistrelle, n = 2), we tested three

tissue types (brainstem, saliva/mouth cells via mouth swab, and guano) with the LN34 assay. We also

performed two time tests to determine how long feces remained positive at ambient conditions. We

used feces of 1) ten RABV positive western pipistrelles to 24 hours (0 and 24 hours), and, 2) six RABV

positive bats (big brown bat, n = 1; pallid bat, n = 1; western yellow bat, n = 1;, Mexican free-tail bat, n =

3) to 72 hours (0, 24, 48, and 72 hours). Each fecal sample was divided into two (for the 24 hour test) or

four (for the 72 hour test) portions. When each time point was reached, we added 1 mL of DNA/RNA

Shield to the fecal matter and stored the samples at -80°C until RNA extraction. To determine the extent

to which fecal samples could be pooled in a field scenario (assuming the most dilute case of only one

fecal sample from a RABV positive bat), we tested two known positive fecal samples (big brown bat and

Mexican free-tailed bat). We used 10 μL from 20 known RABV negative bat fecal extractions to make a

negative pool. This was used to dilute the positive samples to 1:1, 1:10, 1:50, and 1:200.

RESULTS

The six individuals for which we tested matched brain, mouth swab, and fecal samples, results

were RABV positive for 100%, 67%, and 67% (Table 1), respectively. For the 24 hour time test, 63% of

feces that were positive at time 0 were still positive after 24 hours (Table 2). For the 72 hour time test,

all three replicates were positive for 50% of samples at 72 hours (Table 3). Pooling tests revealed that

fecal RABV positives were detected at 1:10, but not at 1:50 or 1:200 (Table 4).

Table 1. Using the LN34 assay, rabies virus was detected in the brainstem, mouth swab, and feces of

rabid bat carcasses. Values are Ct means of three replicates. LN=LN34, BA=β-actin.

Bat species	Brainstem	Mouth swab	Feces
Western yellow	Positive (LN: 17.30, BA: 23.77)	Positive (LN: 25.15, BA: 31.58)	Positive (LN: 23.91, BA: 27.63)

Pocketed free-tailed	Positive (LN: 22.25, BA: 25.10)	Inconclusive (LN: *, BA: 32.33)	Positive (LN: 30.24, BA: 23.57)
Mexican free-tailed	Positive (LN: 21.31, BA: 21.96)	Positive (LN: 31.45, BA: 30.98)	Inconclusive (LN: 40.16, BA: 28.52)
Western pipistrelle	Positive LN: (22.35, BA: 25.08)	Inconclusive (LN: *, BA: 33.41)	Positive (LN: 27.06, BA: 24.03)
Southern yellow	Positive (LN: 26.27, BA: 31.76)	Positive (LN: 30.19, BA: 37.14)	Inconclusive (LN: 38.87, BA: 36.99)
Western pipistrelle	Positive (LN: 19.32 BA: 27.04)	Positive (LN: 33.71, BA: 31.84)	Positive (LN: 31.09, BA: 31.50)

*Undetermined

Table 2. Positivity of fecal samples harvested from rabid western pipistrelle bat carcasses and tested at time 0 and after 24 hours at ambient conditions, with mean Ct in parentheses.

	Time 0	24 hours
1	Positive (LN: 24.51, BA: 25.25)	Positive (LN: 27.43, BA: 26.24)
2	Positive (LN: 31.98, BA: 30.51)	Positive (LN: 31.98, BA: 30.10)
3	Positive (LN: 32.00, BA: 30.10)	Positive (LN: 33.15, BA: 37.50)
4	Positive (LN: 30.61, BA: 25.15)	Positive (LN: 31.81, BA: 35.23)
5	Positive (LN: 24.89, BA: 28.80)	Positive (LN: 33.74, BA: 38.36)
6	Positive (LN: 33.61, BA: 28.12)	Inconclusive (LN: 35.54, BA: 35.40)
7	Inconclusive (LN: 37.18, BA: 29.55)	Inconclusive (LN: 37.56, BA: 29.22)
8	Inconclusive (LN: 37.01, BA 28.86)	Positive (LN: 32.51, BA: 34.46)
9	Positive (LN: 33.46, BA: 33.03)	Inconclusive (LN: 44.04, BA: 39.14)
10	Positive (LN: 32.46, BA: 31.36)	Inconclusive (LN: 36.82, BA: Undetermined)

Table 3. Positivity of fecal samples harvested from rabid bat carcasses and tested at time 0 and after 24, 48, and 72 hours at ambient conditions. At 72 hours, at least one replicate was positive for 4 of 6 samples (a) and all three replicates were positive for 3 of 6 samples (b). Bat species tested included big brown bat (n = 1), Mexican free-tailed bat (n=3), pallid bat (n=1), and western yellow bat (n=1) bat.

a)	At least one replicate was positive									
	LN34						**β-actin**			
Time	**Mean Ct**	**Ct Range**	**# Samples Positive**	**Total # Samples**		**Time**	**Mean Ct**	**Ct Range**	**# Samples Positive**	**Total # Samples**
24	35.45	1.03	5	6		24	29.25	3.51	4	6

| 48 | 34.61 | | | 5 | 6 | | 48 | 32.77 | | | 5 | 6 |
| 72 | 34.42 | | | 4 | 6 | | 72 | 29.68 | | | 4 | 6 |

b) All three replicates were positive											
LN34							β-actin				
Time	Mean Ct	Ct Range	# Samples Positive	Total # Samples			Time	Mean Ct	Ct Range	# Samples Positive	Total # Samples
24	33.37		2	6			24	30.47		3	6
48	33.10	2.98	3	6			48	30.96	1.28	4	6
72	30.39		3	6			72	29.68		4	6

127 **Table 4**. Positivity and amplification success of two RABV fecal samples declined at dilutions exceeding

128 1:10. Dilutions positive for rabies are underlined, LN is mean Ct over three replicates for the LN34 assay,

129 the number of successful amplifications is in parentheses, and the positive control was a synthetic

130 sequence provided by the Center for Disease Control. RABV fecal 1 was from a Mexican free-tailed and

131 RABV fecal 2 was from a big brown bat.

	1:1	1:10	1:50	1:200
RABV fecal 1	LN: 31.25, BA: 26.52 (3)	LN: 34.12, BA: 29.73 (3)	LN: 36.56, BA: 30.56 (1)	Undetermined (0)
RABV fecal 2	LN: 32.13, BA: 35.71 (3)	LN: 34.82, BA: 31.93 (3)	LN: 35.56, BA: 32.17 (1)	Undetermined (0)
Positive control	LN: 27.65, BA: undetermined (3)	LN: 30.46, BA: 31.8 (3)	LN: 32.32, BA: 31.81 (3)	LN: 34.14, BA: 31.84 (3)

DISCUSSION

Bat fecal samples hold promise as a surveillance method for rabies virus. Success with feces, for

which nucleic acids are naturally degraded and in an environment of inhibitors [15], is likely aided by a

short amplicon; the LN34 assay amplifies a 165 bp region. We found that fecal samples of postmortem

rabid bats yielded Ct values that were higher than that of brain tissue, but the majority remained

positive. Half of the fecal samples were positive to at least 72 hours at ambient temperatures, which

suggests that there is time post-defecation to collect feces and for rabies to still be detectable. Feces

could still be detected when pooled at a ratio of 1:10 (one fecal pellet with rabies virus collected

together with nine without rabies virus), which provides guidance for pooling of feces in the field.

Notably, we used the established thresholds for brain tissue, but it may be that new, higher thresholds

to assign positivity could be set for this sample type [13].

Fecal samples will allow determination of rabies presence at a site or region, and will do so at a

scale that is not currently possible with postmortem tissues. It will be possible, for example, to sample

bat roosts to determine the prevalence and seasonality of the disease. The assay is inexpensive, and

thus it is possible to sample broadly, and to do so in any country that has RT-PCR capability. Further, it is

likely that feces from mammals other than bats can be targeted. For instance, surveillance programs

using canine feces would benefit vaccinations campaigns and the effort to eliminate dog-mediated

human rabies deaths by 2030 [18]. Finally, it will be possible to explore pairing positive fecal samples

with sequencing methods to determine the geographical extent of circulation.

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