Extended tissue tropism and vertical transmission in a murine model of Mayaro virus infection

Arévalo A.P.[1], Perbolianachis P.[2,3], Pórfido J.L.[1], Pereira-Gómez M.[2,4], Greif G.[5], Hurtado J.[2,3], Fajardo A.[2,3], Varela B.[6], Verdes J.M.[6], Moratorio G.[2,3*], Crispo M[1*].

[1]Laboratory Animal Biotechnology Unit, Institut Pasteur de Montevideo, Uruguay

[2]Experimental Virus Evolution Laboratory, Institut Pasteur de Montevideo, Uruguay

[3]Laboratory of Molecular Virology, Nuclear Research Center, Faculty of Sciences, Udelar

[4]Microbiology Unit, Department of Pathobiology, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Udelar

[5]Host-Pathogen Interaction Laboratory, Institut Pasteur de Montevideo, Uruguay

[6]Pathology Unit, Department of Pathobiology, Faculty of Veterinary, Udelar

[*] Corresponding authors: crispo@pasteur.edu.uy; moratorio@pasteur.edu.uy

Abstract

Mayaro (MAYV) virus, an emerging arthritogenic alphavirus of the *Togaviridae* family, represents a growing public health concern in Latin America due to its capacity for expansion into urban transmission cycles. In the absence of approved antivirals or vaccines, robust animal models are essential to investigate viral pathogenesis and evaluate

potential therapeutic strategies. While MAYV infection is primarily transmitted by mosquitoes, its tissue tropism, systemic dissemination, and potential non-vector transmission routes remain incompletely understood. Here, we establish a comprehensive murine model to investigate MAYV pathogenesis, with particular emphasis on reproductive tissues and gestational stages. Following intraperitoneal infection, MAYV rapidly disseminated to lymphoid, visceral, musculoskeletal, and reproductive organs, inducing hematological and biochemical alterations that mimics of human infection. In pregnant females, viral dissemination and host responses differed markedly according to gestational stage. Early pregnancy was characterized by placental permissiveness, fetal exposure, and transcriptional signatures associated with inflammation and antiviral responses, whereas mid gestation showed a more restricted placental profile. Infectious viral particles were also detected in reproductive tissues and enriched sperm samples, supporting the biological plausibility of sexual transmission. In addition, *in vivo* imaging using a luminescent MAYV reporter gene enabled real-time visualization of viral kinetics and tissue persistence. Together, these findings identify viral tropism, with gestational stages as a critical determinant of placental permissiveness and fetal exposure to MAYV, establishing a robust *in vivo* platform to study MAYV dissemination, transmission potential, and host–pathogen interactions.

Keywords: MAYV; Pathogenesis; Alphavirus; Emerging arbovirus; Vertical transmission; Pregnancy; Placenta; Murine model

Introduction

Mayaro virus, an emerging arbovirus of the *Alphavirus* genus and *Togaviridae* family, was first identified in Trinidad and Tobago in 1954 and has since been responsible for

sporadic outbreaks across Central and South America. Imported cases have also been

reported in Europe and North America, raising concerns at the international public health

level as reflected in the epidemiological alert issued by the Pan American Health

Organization / World Health Organization in May 2019, which emphasized the need to

strengthen epidemiological surveillance and laboratory diagnostic capacity (1). The virus

has already been detected in Brazil, Peru, Venezuela, Suriname, Colombia, Ecuador,

Bolivia, and Panama, with serological evidence also reported in Costa Rica, Guatemala,

Mexico, and Haiti (2–5). Multiple anthropogenic factors—including climate change,

urbanization, human mobility, and the expanding distribution of mosquito vectors such

as *Aedes aegypti* and *Aedes albopictus*—contribute to the increasing risk of MAYV

geographic expansion, even in countries without active transmission, such as Uruguay

(6,7). A recent study estimated that 58.9 million people in Latin America reside in

ecologically suitable areas for MAYV transmission (6,8). From a genomic perspective,

MAYV possesses a positive-sense single-stranded RNA genome of approximately 11.5

kb, which encodes both non-structural (nsP1–nsP4) and structural proteins (CP, E3, E2,

TF, 6k, and E1) through two open reading frames (ORFs). The virion is enveloped in a

lipid membrane containing E1 and E2 glycoproteins and exhibits high genetic plasticity,

which facilitates its adaptation to a broad range of hosts. The viral replication cycle begins

with the fusion of the viral envelope to the host cell membrane, followed by translation

of viral proteins and the assembly of new virions. MAYV is classified into three

genotypes: D (dispersed), L (limited), and N (new), the latter identified in Peru (9–14).

In addition to its sylvatic cycle, MAYV is proposed to establish urban transmission

through vectors such as *Aedes*, *Culex*, and *Sabethes*, with potential vertebrate reservoirs

including marsupials, rodents, birds, and alligators (15–17).

Clinically, Mayaro disease is generally a self-limiting illness characterized by fever, rash, headache, photophobia, myalgia, and persistent polyarthralgia, which may last for months or even years, significantly impacting patients' quality of life (18). Hemorrhagic and neurological complications, as well as myocarditis, have also been reported. The clinical similarity to other arboviral diseases, such as dengue and chikungunya, combined with limited diagnostic capacity in endemic regions, hinders accurate differential diagnosis and contributes to underestimation of the actual disease burden (18,19). Although no specific antiviral treatments or licensed vaccines are currently available, several vaccine candidates are under development, with sustained epidemiological surveillance remaining essential to anticipate and mitigate future outbreaks (3,9,20).

Animal models, particularly murine species, have been instrumental in elucidating the pathogenesis of Mayaro virus and in the preclinical evaluation of therapeutic and vaccine candidates. These models faithfully reproduce hallmark clinical manifestations—including ruffled fur, altered gait, and ocular irritation—as well as key histopathological features such as arthritis, myositis, and tenosynovitis. Disease outcomes vary depending on host age and immune status (21–24). The development of experimental platforms that allow for robust and reproducible antiviral testing is essential for advancing MAYV research. In this regard, the incorporation of *in vivo* imaging technologies represents a significant methodological advancement, enabling real-time, noninvasive tracking of tagged viral dissemination and host immune responses (24,25).

This study aims to validate and refine a murine model as a preclinical platform for future evaluation of antiviral drugs and therapeutic interventions against MAYV. The model incorporates *in vivo* imaging techniques, enabling real-time monitoring and longitudinal analysis of viral dissemination and host response. Furthermore, the study investigates viral tropism in different organs including reproductive ones, assesses the potential for

sexual transmission, and explores the possibility of vertical transmission by detecting MAYV in placenta and fetuses from infected dams, hypothesizing that MAYV infection during pregnancy results in gestational stage-dependent differences in placental permissiveness and fetal exposure. These preclinical strategies are critical to anticipate maternal and fetal health risks and to guide the development of targeted therapeutic and preventive measures.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

All procedures and experiments were conducted in accordance with the Ethics Committee on Animal Use of the Institut Pasteur de Montevideo (CEUAIP #010-22), in compliance with National Law 18.611 "Procedures for the Use of Animals in Experimentation, Teaching, and Scientific Research Activities" and strictly followed ARRIVE guidelines.

Mice

BALB/cJ mice (#000651) were bred and maintained at the Laboratory Animal Biotechnology Unit's animal facility of Institut Pasteur de Montevideo. Mice were housed in IVC Isolator Biocontainment unit (ISOCAGE-N, Tecniplast, Milan, Italy) and acclimatized for one week prior to the experimental procedures. The cages were prepared with wood chip bedding (Toplit 6, SAFE, France), plastic tunnels as enrichment and paper napkins as nesting material. Environmental conditions were maintained at $20 \pm 1°C$, with 30–70% relative humidity, and a 14/10-hour light/dark cycle. The mice were provided with *ad libitum* autoclaved standard diet (D113, SAFE) and filtered, autoclaved water.

116 Mice were specific pathogen-free (SPF) certified by IDEXX (USA) quarterly, in

117 accordance with FELASA standards.

Experimental design

119 Although the intraplantar route more closely mimics the peripheral component of natural

120 infection, intraperitoneal (IP) inoculation was selected to ensure a standardized and

121 reproducible experimental infection. This route enables consistent systemic exposure

122 facilitating robust comparisons of viral tropism, kinetics, and systemic viral load across

123 experimental groups.

1) Viral tropism and health status

Twelve BALB/cJ female and twelve BALB/cJ male mice (4-weeks old) were IP infected

with $1x10^5$ PFU of MAYV Wt resuspended in 100 µL of PBS (n=24). Mock-infected

mice received the PBS diluent alone (n=4). Blood samples were collected for initial

baseline and post-infection hematological and biochemical parameter analyses at 0-, 24-

and 48 hpi. At 24 hpi, six animals from each sex were euthanized under deep anesthesia

induced by an intraperitoneal ketamine-xylazine mixture (ketamine 110 mg/kg;

Pharmaservice, Ripoll Vet, Montevideo, Uruguay; xylazine 13 mg/kg; Seton 2%; Calier,

Montevideo, Uruguay), followed by cervical dislocation for necropsy (Group 24 hpi).

Organs sampled for viral infectious particle counts included the liver, kidneys, spleen,

quadriceps femoris muscle, ovaries, uterus, seminal vesicles and testicles. The same

procedures were performed on the remaining animals 48 hpi (Group 48 hpi).

2) Vertical transmission

Fifteen BALB/cJ female mice (8-weeks old) were synchronized in their estrous cycle by

exposing them to male dirty bedding for 72 h prior to mating (32). Mating was then

performed by placing one proved male in a cage with two females for 48 h, and the

presence of a vaginal plug was checked daily from the following morning as a positive

sign of mating to be considered day 0 of pregnancy. On day 7.5-8.5 post-coitum (DPC),

six females were infected intraperitoneally with $1x10^5$ PFU of MAYV resuspended in

100 μL of PBS, while one mock-infected received only PBS diluent. The females (n=6

infected; n=1 mock) were euthanized 48 hpi and necropsied (9.5-10.5 DPC), and blood

samples were collected before euthanasia to perform hematological and biochemical

analyses. Organs collected for viral infectious particles count and histological analysis

were liver, kidneys, *quadriceps femoris* muscle, ovaries, uterus, placenta and fetus. The

same procedures were performed to the last eight females pregnant at 13.5-14.5 DPC

(n=7 infected; n=1 mock), being necropsied at 15.5-16.5 DPC.

3) Sexual transmission

To evaluate sexual transmission from infected female to non-infected male, seven

BALB/cJ female mice (8-weeks old) were synchronized in their estrous cycle by exposing

them to male dirty bedding for 72 h prior to mating as described above. Before mating

with non-infected males, the females were infected intraperitoneally with $1x10^5$ PFU of

MAYV resuspended in 100 μL of PBS. Infected females were euthanized and necropsied

48 hpi and males at 48 h after mating. Organs sampled for viral infectious particle count

and histological analysis included liver, spleen, *quadriceps femoris* muscle, ovaries,

uterus, seminal vesicles, testicles and sperm from epididymis.

To evaluate sexual transmission from infected males to non-infected females, six

BALB/cJ female mice (8-weeks old) were synchronized in their estrous cycle by exposing

them to male dirty bedding for 72 h prior to mating. Before mating, males were infected

intraperitoneally with $1x10^5$ PFU of MAYV resuspended in 100 μL of PBS. Infected

males were necropsied at 48 hpi and females at 48 h after mating. Organs sampled for viral infectious particle count and histological analysis included liver, spleen, muscle, ovaries, uterus, seminal vesicles, testicles and sperm from epididymis.

For analytical purposes, an exposed animal was defined as an uninfected individual mated with an infected partner.

4) *In vivo* imaging evaluation with MAYV-nLuc infection

In vivo bioluminescence imaging was set for longitudinal monitoring of viral replication over a 10-day period, capturing both acute and early recovery phases of the infection (23). Age groups were selected based on previously reported differences in susceptibility to Mayaro virus infection, with younger animals showing higher susceptibility(33). For this study, four- and eight-week-old BALB/cJ female mice were infected intraperitoneally with 1×10^4 PFU of MAYV-Nluc resuspended in 100 μL PBS (n=4 per age group), and only PBS for mock infected group (n=2, one animal per age group). To perform *in vivo* luminescence imaging, the animals were injected intraperitoneally with 20 μg of Furimazine (TargetMol®, MA, USA) in 100 μL of PBS, anesthetized with isoflurane and imaged at different times in an In-Vivo Xtreme II™ equipment (Bruker Daltonik Gmbh, Billerica, MA, USA) and analyzed using V.7.5.3.22464 MolecularImaging software (Bruker Daltonik Gmbh, Billerica, MA, USA). Images were taken at 1, 2, 6 and 10 dpi. Animals were necropsied at 6 dpi (n=2 animals/age group) and at 10 dpi (the remaining animals). Organs sampled to confirm infectious viral particles presence included liver, kidneys, spleen, *quadriceps femoris* muscle, forelimb or hindlimb and ear tissue.

MAYV infective clones

185 This study employed wild-type and nano Luc-expressing Mayaro virus (MAYV-nLuc)

186 infectious clones based on the TRVL 4675 strain, a genotype D virus originally isolated

187 from a human case in Trinidad in the 1950s and kindly provided by Dr. James Weger-

188 Lucarell (25–27).

Cell culture

190 Vero cells were maintained in in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)

191 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin (100 U/mL), and

192 streptomycin (100 µg/mL) and maintained at 37 °C, with 5% CO_2.

Virus generation

Vero cells were transfected with the TRVL 4675 infectious clone using Lipofectamine™

3000 Transfection Reagent (Invitrogen) to recover infectious virus. Viral supernatants

were collected when transfected cells exhibited an 80% cytopathic effect (CPE) and

stored at -70°C as passage P0.

To generate a working viral stock, Vero cells were infected with the P0 supernatant to

produce the P1 stock. Subsequently, a P2 stock was generated from P1. The P2 viral stock

was titrated by plaque assay, verified by sequencing and stored at -70°C until further use.

Infectious virus was rescued from both WT and MAYV-nLuc infectious clones by

transfection of Vero cells using Lipofectamine™ 3000 (Invitrogen), according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Viral supernatants were collected when transfected cells

exhibited an 80% cytopathic effect (CPE) and stored at -70°C as passage P0.

Working viral stocks were generated by sequential infection of Vero cells to produce P1

and P2 passages. The P2 viral stocks were titrated by plaque assay, verified by sequencing

and stored at -70°C until further use.

Hematology and biochemistry profile

For hematological analysis, 20 µL of blood per animal were collected and stored in 0.5 mL microtubes containing potassium EDTA salts (W anticoagulant, Wiener Lab, Rosario, Argentina) at a 1:10 ratio (EDTA:blood). Samples were analyzed using an Auto Hematology Analyzer BC-5000 Vet (Mindray, Shenzhen, China). The parameters evaluated included white blood cells (WBC), neutrophils (Neu), lymphocytes (Lym), monocytes (Mon), eosinophils (Eos), basophils (Bas), red blood cells (RBC), hemoglobin (HGB), hematocrit (HCT), mean corpuscular volume (MCV) and mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH), mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC) and platelets (PLT).

For biochemical blood profile analysis, 100 µL of whole blood per animal was collected and mixed with 0,5 µL of sodium heparin (Heparin Na, 20 U/mL). Using the Chemistry Analyzer Pointcare® V3 (Tianjin MNCHIP Technologies Co. Ltd, Tianjin, China), the following parameters were evaluated: total protein (TP), albumin (ALB), globulin (GLO), total bilirubin (Tbil), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), gamma-glutamyl transferase (GGT), blood urea nitrogen (BUN), and creatinine (CRE).

In pregnant infected females, hematological analysis was performed at early and mid-gestation stages 48 hours post-infection (hpi), using samples collected exclusively at necropsy, without pre-infection baseline values.

Tissue collection and processing

Samples collected from each organ of interest were weighed, rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen under a biosafety cabinet and stored at -70°C until processing. Samples were homogenized using zirconium beads (0.5 mm/tube) and 800 µL of sterile 1× DPBS in a

231 Precellys® 24 homogenizer (Bertin Technologies, France), (2 min, power 10).

232 Homogenates were clarified by centrifugation (6,000 × g, 5 min), and supernatants were

233 stored at −70 °C for viral titration or RT-qPCR analysis

Viral titration

For viral titration, confluent Vero cell monolayers in 12-well plates (2.6×10^6 cells per

plate) were inoculated with tissue homogenate–derived supernatants and their 10-fold

serial dilutions (200 µL per well) and incubated at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 for 1 h, with gentle

rocking every 15 min to ensure uniform inoculum distribution. Mock-infected wells

served as negative controls. The monolayer was incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 1 h,

with gentle shaking of the plate every 15 minutes to ensure the inoculum contacted the

entire monolayer. After adsorption, cells were overlaid with DMEM containing 0.8%

agarose, 1.6% FBS, penicillin, and streptomycin and incubated for 48 h. Monolayers were

then fixed with 4% formaldehyde, stained with crystal violet, and plaques were counted

to determine viral titers, expressed as plaque-forming units per gram of tissue (PFU/g).

Mouse sperm collection

The epididymides from both sides were collected in a 60 mm plastic Petri dish and incised

with several cuts using fine scissors, releasing the sperm into a 50 µL drop of Dulbecco's

Phosphate Buffered Saline 1x (DPBS, Sigma-Aldrich), and stored at −80°C until further

processing. Later, sperm samples were thawed and resuspended in 150µL of PBS.

Zirconium beads were added to each sample and disruption was performed using a Bullet

Blender® STORM 24 (Next Advance Inc., New York, USA) during one minute at speed

8. After centrifugation, 100µL of supernatant were removed for cell culture–based viral

amplification and viral ARN detection.

Viral RNA extraction and detection

Viral RNA from tissues was purified from clarified supernatants obtained after tissue homogenization, as described above, using the QIAamp® Viral RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN), according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA from sperm samples was extracted from TRIzol-treated homogenates using the Direct-zol RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research), following the manufacturer's guidelines. RNA samples were eluted in 25µL of nuclease-free water and conserved at -70ºC until further use (28).

Detection was performed using a one-step real-time reverse transcription PCR (RT-qPCR) assay, employing the primers and probe listed in Table 1, which target an 86-bp region of the MAYV nsP1 gene. Reactions were carried out using TaqMan™ Fast Virus 1-Step Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) on a QuantStudio™ 7 Pro Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). Due to limited sample availability, sperm-derived RNA samples were analyzed in technical duplicates. The assay was used for qualitative detection (presence/absence) of viral RNA.

Table 1: primers and probe used for MAYV detection by qPCR.

MAY-qPCR-Fw	AGGACCCAGAGGAACACTAATA
MAY-qPCR-Rv	CGATACTCTTTCGCCCACTTAC
MAY-qPCR-Probe	/56-FAM/TACCTGCTT/ZEN/CCAGTGGTGTCACAA/3IABkFQ/

Cell culture–based isolation of virus from sperm samples

Due to the limited volume of sperm samples, processed samples were subjected to passage in Vero cells to allow potential biological amplification prior to titration. Vero cells were seeded in 96-well plates at 5,000 cells per well in 100 µL of DMEM

supplemented with 5% FBS, penicillin (100 U/mL), and streptomycin (100 μg/mL). The

following day, cells were inoculated with 100 μL of processed sperm samples. Mock-

infected wells receiving culture DMEM alone served as negative controls. After 72 h of

incubation at 37 ºC, supernatants were harvested and the presence of infectious viral

particles was assessed by plaque assay. Cytopathic effects were monitored using inverted

optic microscope Zeiss Primovert, Carl Zeiss Suzhou Co., LTD, China.

Transcriptomics in placenta

For the RNA-seq experiment, three placentas per condition (control uninfected; infected

at 7.5-8.5 DPC; infected at 13.5-14.5 DPC) were selected and processed for total RNA

extraction. Placentas stored at −80 °C were disrupted in TRI Reagent using a Bullet

Blender® STORM 24 (Next Advance Inc., New York, USA) with 0.5 mm zirconium

oxide beads (ZROB05, Next Advance Inc.) for 10 min at maximum speed. Following

homogenization, the samples were centrifuged to remove beads and debris. The upper

aqueous phase was collected and purified using the Direct-zol RNA kit (Zymo Research,

USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA was quantified with RNA HS

Qubit (Invitrogen, USA). RNA quality check, library construction and sequencing were

performed in Macrogen (Korea). TruSeq stranded total RNA with Ribo-Zero Gold

(Illumina, USA) platform was used. Sequencing was performed in the Illumina

NovaSeqX. Paired-end reads of 100 base pairs were obtained.

Raw paired-end RNA-seq reads were aligned to the *Mus musculus* reference genome

(GRCm39, Ensembl release 114) using STAR v2.7.8a. Aligned reads were quantified at

the gene level using featureCounts v2.0.2 (Subread package). The Ensembl GTF

annotation file (Mus_musculus.GRCm39.114.gtf) was used.

Downstream analysis was conducted in R v4.3.0 using the DESeq2 package. The raw

count matrix was filtered to retain genes with a minimum of 10 total reads across all

samples. A DESeq2 dataset was constructed with experimental conditions as the main

design factor. Variance stabilizing transformation (VST) was applied to normalize data

prior to visualization and clustering. Differential expression analyses were performed for

multiple contrasts of interest, and log2 fold changes were shrinkage-corrected using the

"normal" method of lfcShrink. Genes with an adjusted p-value <0.05 were considered

significantly differentially expressed.

Volcano plots were generated with ggplot2, where significant genes were highlighted

(adjusted p <0.05). Heatmaps of differentially expressed genes were created with

pheatmap R package, using variance-stabilized expression values scaled by gene (row-

wise z- scores). Color schemes were defined with the RColorBrewer package. Additional

2 hierarchical clustering of differentially expressed genes was performed to assess global

expression patterns across experimental groups. Gene ontology analysis was performed

using Metascape (29)

Immunohistochemistry

Immediately after the necropsy, placenta and fetus from mid-stage of pregnancy were

fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin (pH 7.4) for further processing. The samples were

then decalcified by immersion and agitation in a 3% aqueous nitric acid solution for 24

h. Once decalcification was complete, histological processing for paraffin embedding

began. Once the paraffin blocks were obtained from each sample, successive 4μm-thick

sections were made with a manual rotary microtome (Slee, Germany), and the successive

sections were mounted on slides and prepared for immunohistochemistry against Mayaro

virus immunoreaction, using a rabbit polyclonal primary antibody (dilution 1:100)

according to a previous immunofluorescence protocol developed for

immunocytochemistry in cell cultures (30,31). Histological and immunohistochemical

blinded examinations were performed using transmitted light microscope (Nikon Eclipse

E200®, Nikon Corporation, China) by two different veterinary pathologists.

Data Analysis

All data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism version 10 (GraphPad Software, San

Diego, CA, USA). Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or mixed-effects analysis,

followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test, was applied to evaluate differences

among viral titers across tissues and blood parameters. Paired comparisons between pre-

and post-infection values were performed using Student's t-test. Results were expressed

as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM), and differences were considered statistically

significant when $p < 0.05$.

Results

Viral tropism and health status

MAYV rapidly disseminates to somatic and reproductive tissues during acute infection

Viral titration by plaque assay revealed widespread MAYV dissemination across multiple

organs at early time points post-infection in both sexes. Infectious viral particles were

also detected in reproductive organs: uterus, ovary, seminal vesicles and testicles (Fig

1A). At 24 hpi (Group 24 hpi), the virus exhibited a widespread systemic distribution,

with detectable viral titers across most of the analyzed organs. Although higher values

were observed in the spleen and muscle, no statistically significant differences were found

among organs, indicating an early but relatively homogeneous viral dissemination at this

stage. At 48 hpi (Group 48 hpi), infectious viral loads were significantly higher in the

spleen compared to kidneys (p = 0.0122) and muscle (p = 0.0164), reaching ~3.5 × 10⁶

PFU/g. At 24 hpi, sex-based analysis showed that females hosted lower viral titers than

males in spleen (p = 0.0038) and muscle (p = 0.0286), while no differences were detected

in liver or kidneys (Fig 1B). At 48 hpi, these sex-related differences were no longer

observed. However, in females, spleen viral loads were higher than in kidneys (p =

0.0181) and muscle (p = 0.0105), whereas inter-organ differences were not significant in

males (Fig 1C).

FIGURE 1

354   **Fig 1**. **MAYV viral titration in male and female mouse tissues.** A) Viral loads (PFU/g)

355   were quantified by plaque assay at 24 and 48 hpi in kidney, liver, spleen, muscle, uterus,

356   ovary, seminal vesicles and testicles. B) and C) Viral titers in male and female mice at 24

357   hpi (B) and 48 hpi (C). Two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons

358   test was performed. Statistical significance was defined as p < 0.05 (*) and p < 0.01 (**).

Acute MAYV infection induces transient hepatic and renal biochemical alterations

Early infection was associated with transient alterations in blood biochemistry. Total protein levels declined 48 hpi (Fig 2 A, $p = 0.0001$), total bilirubin decreased at 24 hpi and in mock infected animals also (Fig 2B), while hepatic enzymes showed evidence of liver damage, with ALT (Group 48 hpi) and AST (Group 24 hpi and Group 48 hpi) increasing after infection (Fig 2 C and D respectively, $p = 0.0142$; $p < 0.0001$ and $p = 0.0021$). In contrast, GGT remained unchanged (Fig 3A). Kidney parameters displayed a mixed profile: blood urea nitrogen (BUN) levels decreased 24 hpi (Fig 3B, $p = <0.0001$) while creatinine showed no differences 24 or 48 hpi, with higher values in infected groups (Fig 3C).

FIGURE 2

Fig 2. Blood biochemical parameters pre and post MAYV infection. (A) Total protein, (B) Total bilirubin, (C) Alanine transaminase (ALT), and (D) Aspartate transferase (AST)

levels in blood samples of infected and mock-treated animals at 0, 24 and 48 hpi. Each

dot represents an individual animal; horizontal lines indicate median values. Black circles

= pre-infection; open circles = post-infection. Statistical significance was determined

using a Mixed-effects analysis followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test.

Differences among treatments were considered significant at $p < 0.05$ (*), $p < 0.01$ (**),

and $p < 0.001$ (***). Pre- versus post-infection comparisons were considered significant

at $p < 0.05$ (a).

FIGURE 3

Fig 3. Kidney blood markers pre and post MAYV infection. (A) Gamma-glutamyl

transferase (GGT), (B) blood urea nitrogen (BUN), (C) creatinine, and (D) BUN/CRE

ratio in serum 24 and 48 hpi compared to mock treated animals. Each dot represents an

individual animal; horizontal lines indicate median values. Statistical significance was

determined using a Mixed-effects analysis followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons

test. Differences among treatments were considered significant at $p < 0.05$ (*), $p < 0.01$

(**), and $p < 0.001$ (***). Pre- versus post-infection comparisons were considered

significant at $p < 0.05$ (a).

MAYV infection induces hematological alterations consistent with systemic viral disease

Hematological analysis of infected mice showed leukopenia, neutrophilia, lymphopenia,

thrombocytopenia and transient macrocytosis in both groups (24 and 48 hpi) (Fig 4; S1

and S2 Figs). White blood cells count and lymphocyte % were significantly reduced in

both groups after infection ($p < 0.0001$), with an increase in neutrophils ($p < 0.05$),

decrease in monocytes and eosinophils count ($p < 0.05$), and basophils % increased only

48 hpi ($p < 0.05$). Erythrocyte parameters showed higher red blood cell (RBC) counts 48

hpi ($p < 0.05$), plus hemoglobin and hematocrit increased in both groups ($p < 0.05$) (S3

Fig), with associated increases in Mean Corpuscular Volume (MCV) and Mean

Corpuscular Hemoglobin (MCH) while Mean Corpuscular Hemoglobin Concentration

(MCHC) remained stable (S4 Fig). Platelet counts and Procalcitonin decreased in both

groups ($p < 0.05$) (S5 Fig).

FIGURE 4

Fig 4. White blood cell dynamics pre- and post- MAYV infection. A) Total white blood cell count, B) Percentage of neutrophils, C) Percentage of lymphocytes, and D) Percentage of monocytes. Each dot represents an individual animal; horizontal lines indicate median values. Black circles = pre-infection; open circles = post-infection. Statistical significance was determined using a Mixed-effects analysis followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test. Differences among treatments were considered significant at $p < 0.05$ (*), $p < 0.01$ (**), and $p < 0.001$ (***). Pre- versus post-infection comparisons were considered significant at $p < 0.05$ (a).

Vertical transmission

Gestational stage determines placental permissiveness and fetal exposure to MAYV

In females infected at 7.5–8.5 DPC (early stage of pregnancy), infective viral particles

were detected in all the analyzed organs except for liver and kidneys, with higher titers

observed in spleen ($p < 0.0114$), uterus ($p < 0.0111$), fetuses ($p < 0.0016$) and placenta (p

< 0.0012) compared to muscle (Fig 5).

For females infected at 13.5–14.5 DPC (mid-stage pregnancy), viral titers were broadly

distributed across the analyzed organs except in fetuses, with no statistically significant

differences among them (Fig 5).

When comparing females infected at early versus mid gestation, viral titers were

significantly higher at mid stage in the uterus ($p < 0.0268$) and muscle ($p < 0.0004$). All

results are shown in Fig 5.

FIGURE 5

Fig 5. Infective viral particles in organs of early and mid-stage pregnant females 48

hpi. Quantification of infective viral particles (PFU/g) in maternal and fetal tissues from

females infected at early (●: 7.5–8.5 DPC) and mid (○: 13.5–14.5 DPC) gestational

stages. Data are expressed as individual values with mean lines. Statistical significance

was determined using a Mixed-effects analysis followed by Tukey's multiple

comparisons test. Differences among treatments were considered significant at $p < 0.05$

(*), $p < 0.01$ (**), and $p < 0.001$ (***) among groups. Comparisons were considered

significant at $p < 0.05$ (a) between groups ((7.5–8.5 vs13.5–14.5 DPC).

Pregnancy-associated MAYV infection alters leukocyte dynamics without overt hematological collapse

Infected females at both gestational stages showed neutrophilia and lymphopenia;

significantly higher neutrophil percentages compared to their respective controls ($p <$

0.05), and a corresponding decrease in lymphocyte percentages ($p < 0.05$). Red blood cell

counts remained similar between infected and control groups. Although a decrease in

parameter levels was observed, no significant differences were found in total white blood

cell counts, platelet counts, or procalcitonin levels between infected and mock females at

either gestational stage (S6 and S7 Figs).

Immunohistochemistry confirms placental and fetal localization of MAYV at mid stage

Immunohistochemical detection of MAYV in fetus and placenta from an infected female

at 13.5–14.5 DPC revealed distinct staining patterns between infected and non-infected

controls. In placentas from infected females, moderate granular cytoplasmic staining was

observed, marking a substantial proportion of the giant trophoblast cells within the

maternal–fetal junction zone (basal plate). In contrast, placentas from non-infected

pregnant females showed only nonspecific erythrocyte staining and overall negative to

mild background labeling. In fetus from infected female, intense immunostaining was

detected across multiple organs, particularly in the visceral epithelium of the intestine,

the developing bone (growth cartilage), and other collagen-rich tissues including cartilage

and dermis. Calcified bone exhibited no staining or only minimal labeling in both

intensity and extent. Fetuses from non-infected females displayed only nonspecific

erythrocyte staining, generally negative overall, with minimal background labeling in

collagen-rich tissues (Fig 6).

FIGURE 6

Fig 6. IHC against Mayaro virus. A) Placenta of an uninfected mouse (control):

Negative to mild (-/+) immunostaining of isolated trophoblasts (foam giant cells) from

the basal plate of the maternal-fetal junction is observed. Scale bar = 50μm, 40×. B)

Placenta of an experimentally infected mouse: Mild to moderate, granular

intracytoplasmic staining of foci of trophoblasts (foam giant cells) from the basal plate of

the maternal-fetal junction is observed (asterisks). Scale bar = 50μm, 40×. C) Fetus of the

same uninfected mouse of Fig A: No immunostaining against Mayaro virus is observed

(-). Scale bar = 500μm, 4×. D) Fetus of the same experimentally infected mouse of Fig

B: There is intense immunostaining in several organs, particularly in uncalcified

developing bone and growth cartilage (asterisks), as well as other collagen-rich tissues (cartilage and dermis) (arrowheads) and the perimysium of skeletal muscles (arrows). Already calcified bone shows no staining or minimal staining in intensity and extent. Scale bar = 500μm, 4×.

Placental transcriptional responses to MAYV are gestational stage-dependent

Differential gene expression of placentas infected at 7.5–8.5 DPC (early stage) versus control, and 13.5–14.5 DPC (mid-stage) versus control were performed, and patterns of expression compared. The profiles revealed gene expression patterns influenced by viral infection at early and mid-stages: 208 genes were upregulated and 60 downregulated at the early stage, and 139 genes were upregulated and 1 downregulated at the mid stage (Fig 7A, S1 Table). Among the upregulated genes, 50 were shared between both stages, leaving 158 stage-specific upregulated genes at the early stage and 89 at the mid stage. These data suggest a robust transcriptional response to infection during the early stage of pregnancy, while the response in mid pregnancy, although sharing common pathways, is comparatively attenuated.

Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of the 50 shared upregulated genes revealed their significant association with pathways related to response to viral infection, modulation of host responses by interferon-stimulated genes (ISGs), and positive regulation of cytokine-mediated signaling (Fig 7B). The 158 genes uniquely upregulated in the early stage were enriched not only for the immune pathways but also for distinct biological processes, including heart development, myeloid cell development, regulation of plasminogen activation, connective tissue development, and adipogenesis (Fig 7C). In contrast, the 89 late-stage-specific upregulated genes were again predominantly

associated with immune functions, specifically type II interferon signaling, negative

regulation of innate immune response, and innate antiviral immune response (Fig 7D).

Furthermore, GO analysis of the 60 genes downregulated specifically at the early stage

identified enrichment for processes such as multi-organism reproductive process, antigen

processing and presentation of peptide antigen via MHC class I, lymphocyte activation,

signaling by NTRKs, insulin secretion, thermogenesis, extracellular matrix organization,

and adrenergic signaling in cardiomyocytes (Fig 7E).

FIGURE 7

Fig 7. Transcriptomic profiles and Gene Ontology enrichment of placental response to MAYV infection at early and mid-gestational stages. A) Comparison of placentas

infected at 7.5–8.5 DPC (early) and 13.5–14.5 DPC (late) versus controls revealed 208 up-/60 down-regulated genes at early stage and 139 up-/1 down-regulated at mid stage, with 50 genes shared between stages. B) Shared genes were enriched for antiviral and interferon-mediated responses. C) Early-stage-specific genes were associated with immune, developmental, and metabolic pathways. D) Late-stage-specific genes were mainly related to type II interferon and innate immune modulation. E) Early-stage down-regulated genes were enriched for reproductive, metabolic, and signaling processes.

Sexual transmission

Reproductive tissue tropism and detection of MAYV in sperm support the possibility of sexual transmission.

Infective viral particles were detected in the spleen (7/7), ovary (3/7) and muscle (1/7) of infected females (n = 7) mated with uninfected males. In contrast, all organs analyzed from exposed males tested negative by plaque assay and RT-qPCR. However, following cell culture-based amplification of sperm samples, infectious viral particles in one male (1/7), which had been paired with the female positive for infectious virus in both spleen and muscle.

In infected males (n = 6) mated with uninfected females, infective particles were consistently detected in testicles (6/6) and, to a lesser extent, in spleen (3/6). Moreover, cell culture-amplified sperm samples were positive for infectious virus in four males (4/6; Fig 8), and viral RNA was detected by RT-qPCR in sperm samples from the same four animales.). No infectious virus was detected in seminal vesicles from adult males.

Among exposed females, infectious viral particles were detected in two animals: uterus and ovary of one female, and in the spleen of another. In both cases, viral titers were low

525 by plaque assay and not reproducible upon repeat testing. Consistently, viral RNA levels

526 in these samples were below the limit of detection by RT-qPCR.

FIGURE 8

528 **Fig 8. Detection of infectious MAYV in sperm samples following cell culture–based**

529 **amplification.** (A) Sperm extracted from the epididymis. (B; D) Representative images

530 of Vero cells inoculated with processed sperm samples showing a MAYV-positive

531 sample (B) a MAYV-negative sample (C) and Mock-infected Vero cells (D). Images were

532 acquired using a Zeiss Primovert inverted light microscope (40×).

In vivo imaging

Bioluminescence imaging reveals rapid dissemination and musculoskeletal persistence of MAYV

MAYV-nLuc viral dissemination was detectable in inoculated mice as early as 24 hpi and

remained up to 10 days post-infection (dpi). *In vivo* bioluminescence imaging revealed

viral signaling in forelimbs, hindlimbs, tails, ears, and abdominal region. The abdominal

signal progressively declined after 6 dpi. Luminescence in limbs, tail, and ears persisted,

with signal remaining detectable only in the limbs at 10 dpi (Fig 9). *Ex vivo* plaque assays

were performed on harvested tissues. Infectious viral particles were detected in forelimbs,

hindlimbs, tail, and ears of 4-week-old mice, whereas visceral organs (liver, spleen,

skeletal muscle, and kidneys) yielded negative results. Tissues from 8-week-old animals

that retained luminescent signals *in vivo* were negative by plaque assay.

FIGURE 9

Fig 9. Representative images of *in vivo* bioluminescence imaging of MAYV-nLuc infection in females at 4 and 8 weeks-old. Luminescent signals (yellow arrows) were detected in the limbs, tail, ears, and abdominal region from 1 up to 10 dpi with the abdominal signal declining after 6 dpi.

Discussion

551 Elucidating the tissue tropism and viral dynamics of Mayaro virus (MAYV) is essential

552 given the limited evidence available for this emerging arbovirus and the relevance of

murine models for characterizing infection *in vivo*. Here, we provide the first evidence of MAYV dissemination to fetal tissues in mice, identifying anatomical targets not previously described. Together, these findings support a model in which gestational timing critically determines placental permissiveness and fetal exposure to MAYV, identifying early gestation as a window of heightened vulnerability during acute infection. Considering that related alphaviruses can cross the placental barrier, our results underscore the importance of including pregnancy models when assessing MAYV transmission routes.

MAYV exhibited rapid and systemic dissemination at 24 and 48 hpi, with infectious virus detected across multiple organs, including detection in reproductive tissues of pregnant females. These results are consistent with other murine alphavirus models, including IFNAR−/− mice, in which widespread viral detection at early time points reflects acute viremia (24). Infectious viral loads were significantly higher in the spleen at 48 hpi, in agreement with its role as a primary replication site ; (10,34) , and infectious particles were also found in muscle, supporting previously described myopathy and myositis associated with MAYV infection (10,35).

Biochemical analysis revealed elevated in ALT and AST levels, consistent with hepatic injury described in both murine and human MAYV infection (18,23). Hematological alterations, including macrocytosis, leukopenia, neutrophilia, and lymphopenia, mirrored previous reports in murine models (23,24) and human cases (18). Together, these systemic responses further validate the relevance of this murine model for studying MAYV pathogenesis.

MAYV belongs to the Alphavirus genus (18,36) , which includes viruses capable of affecting the nervous system and embryonic development. The detection of infectious

particles in reproductive organs (uterus, ovary, testes, seminal vesicles) at both time

points highlights a tissue tropism previously described in immunodeficient mice (15) and

raises the possibility of sexual or vertical transmission. Sex-based differences were

observed during acute infection: with females displaying lower viral titers than males in

the spleen and muscle at 24 hpi. These differences were no longer evident at 48 hpi. While

most studies focused on age and nutritional status as determinants of disease outcome ; ;

(23,25,37), these observations suggest a potential sex-dependent component of MAYV

infection that warrants further investigation, particularly given similar findings reported

for Chikungunya virus (38).

A gestational stage–dependent susceptibility was evident. At early pregnancy (7.5–8.5

DPC), fetuses contained infectious particles at 48 hpi, indicating that MAYV can cross

the maternal–fetal barrier during acute infection. This window—analogous to early

human embryogenesis (39) displayed a broad transcriptional response (208 upregulated,

60 downregulated genes), including alterations in developmental and tissue-remodeling

programs, as well as downregulation of hormonal signaling, MHC I presentation, and

ECM organization. These disruptions are compatible with teratogenesis described for

alphaviruses such as Semliki Forest virus (37) and ZIKV (40).

In contrast, at mid gestation (13.5–14.5 dpc), infectious viral particles were not detected

in fetuses, and transcriptional activation was more restricted (139 upregulated, 1

downregulated), dominated by interferon-mediated pathways. This profile aligns with

increased placental maturity and antiviral competence, as reported for ZIKV-induced IFN

responses (40). The presence of infectious viruses in placenta and uterus, but not in fetal

tissues, suggests an effective placental barrier at this stage (39,41). The 50 shared

upregulated genes across gestational stages—mostly ISGs—reflect a conserved antiviral

signature, but timing-dependent transcriptional divergence underscores critical periods of

vulnerability, including disruption of angiogenic and developmental pathways (42) and

inflammatory responses characteristic of MAYV (23,35). Immunohistochemical analysis

provided complementary spatial evidence of MAYV localization in placental and fetal

tissues at mid gestation, supporting molecular and virological findings.

While direct extrapolation from murine models to humans is limited, these findings

provide a biologically plausible framework to explore potential maternal–fetal risks with

MAYV infection in human during pregnancy.

Limitations should be considered when interpreting these findings and their traslational

implications. Intraperitoneal inoculation does not fully recapitulate natural vector-borne

transmission and may influence early viral kinetics. Nevertheless, this route is widely

used in murine models of systemic arbovirus and alphavirus infection. Although

intraplantar models are well established for reproducing the articular and muscular

manifestations characteristic of Mayaro virus infection (23,24,35) intraperitoneal

administration was selected to minimize pain and distress in accordance with

internationally accepted animal welfare and refinement principles (43,44) while reducing

confounding effects related to local tissue injury and inflammation. This approach

facilitates a more controlled analysis of systemic viral kinetics and tissue tropism.

Although MAYV is primarily transmitted by mosquitoes (10), our results provide

preliminary evidence supporting the biological plausibility of a sexual transmission route,

which requires dedicated follow-up studies. Infectious particles were consistently

detected in testes and was found in sperm samples following cell culture-based

amplification, similar to long-term ZIKV RNA shedding in sperm (39). Two females

exposed to infected males became positive in reproductive tissues, though viral loads

were very low and RT-qPCR remained below detection limits. Males exposed to infected

females were mostly negative, except for one showing detectable viral titers in sperm.

These observations suggest that, if sexual transmission occurs, it may involve low-level

infections or limited replication in gonads, a known challenge in arbovirus detection (39).

In vivo imaging with MAYV-nLuc confirmed rapid dissemination at 24 hpi, with

persistent luminescence in limbs up to 10 dpi, supporting musculoskeletal tropism

(23,45). Infectious virus persisted in joints and muscle—sites associated with arthralgia

in humans (18,46) and luminescence without PFU detection in older animals suggests

persistence of viral RNA or subgenomic RNA after infectious virus is cleared. Younger

mice (4-week-old) showed persistent infectious particles in peripheral tissues, consistent

with increased susceptibility at early ages. This *in vivo* imaging experimental model can

be used effectively for a non-invasive longitudinal monitoring of viral replication over a

10-day period capturing both acute disease and early recovery phases reported (23,35).

In this context, the model represents a robust experimental platform for vaccine or

therapeutics challenges studies, allowing quantitative assessment of *in vivo* infection

kinetics and intervention efficacy under controlled conditions.

Conclusion

This study establishes a robust murine model that reveals the systemic dissemination,

tissue tropism of MAYV, while supporting its potential for expanded transmission

pathways. Our findings demonstrate that gestational timing is a key determinant of

placental permissiveness and fetal exposure during acute infection, identifying early

pregnancy as a window of heightened vulnerability. The detection of infectious viral

particles in reproductive tissues and sperm further supports the biological plausibility of

non-vector transmission routes, although dedicated follow-up studies are required. By

integrating virological, hematological, transcriptomic, histological, and *in vivo* imaging

approaches, this work provides a comprehensive framework to advance the understanding

of MAYV pathogenesis and to perform future studies addressing maternal–fetal infection

and transmission dynamics.

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Acknowledgments

We thank José González Santamaría from the Department of Genomics and Proteomics Research, Gorgas Memorial Institute for Health Studies, Panama, for providing the primary antibody used in this study.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: APA, GM and MC. Methodology: APA, PP, JLP, MPG, BV, JMV, GM and MC. Investigation: APA, PP, JLP, MPG, GG, BV, JMV, GM and MC. Visualization: APA, PP, JLP, MPG, GG, BV, JMV, GM and MC. Statistical Analyses: APA. Supervision: GM and MC. Writing—original draft: APA, PP, JLP, GG, JH, AF, JMV, GM and MC. Writing—review & editing: APA, PP, JLP, MPG, GG, JH, AF, BV, JMV, GM and MC. Project administration: GM and MC. Funding acquisition: GM and MC. All authors agreed to submit the manuscript and have read and approved its final version. Authors take full responsibility for its content.

Funding

Institut Pasteur de Montevideo and FOCEM (COF 03/11), G4 program Institut Pasteur

de Montevideo.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.